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ABSTRACT

The addition of commercial oak wood as copigments sources has been used to get high quality red wines in the last years. During the contact time, different oak compounds such as phenolic compounds are released from the wood to the wine, thus affecting its organoleptic properties such as aroma, color or astringency. Wood processing for the elaboration of barrels generates by-products which also seem to be interesting in the oenological field due to its potential capacity of release high added value compounds for wine.

Determining phenolic compounds of wood and its extractability to the hydroalcoholic medium is important in the oenological industry. The method proposed in this study cope with this issue in an *in situ*, non-destructive and fast way. For this purpose, a number of oak by-product samples spectrally representative have been selected. Selected spectral data have been correlated with oak wood extractable polyphenols (extractable total phenolic content and extractable ellagitannin content) by modified partial least squares regression (MPLS) using a number of spectral pre-treatments.

The obtained results are comparable with those obtained using bench top devices and presents the advantage of its eventual friendly use out of lab. Development of applicable models *in situ* will allow a greater versatility and efficiency for the decision-making in the winemaking process on the adequacy and/or dosage of these byproducts according to the requirements of the wine. The use of cooperage by-products as source of copigments for wine leads to a sustainable and competitive cooperage industry, through waste reduction and by-product valorization.

Keywords: red wine, oak byproduct, phenolic compounds, ellagitannin, MICRO-NIRS

Introduction

In grape berries, the balance between technological and phenolic parameters is a key factor for obtaining quality red wines, especially in terms of their color. Anthocyanins are the main responsible for the colour of red wines, and their interactions with other phenolic compounds, called copigments, allow improving the color stabilization of aged wines by copigmentation or stabilization reactions (Boulton 2001; Escribano-Bailón and Santos-Buelga 2012). However, grapevine berries are commonly harvested on the base of technological maturity parameters often without considering properly phenolic maturity. Under warm climatic conditions, it is a usual pattern that grapes have high sugar content but insufficient levels of phenolic compounds (pigments and copigments). Wines made from these grapes are not able to form much copigmentation and as a result, the color stabilization does not correctly develop and fall of color normally occurred during winemaking maturation, especially when they are subjected to ageing process (Boulton 2001; Ribéreau-Gayon et al. 2006).

The addition of commercial oak wood (Del Álamo et al. 2008; Nevares et al. 2008) or wood compounds (Balík et al. 2017) have been aimed at implementing the production of high quality red wines in the last years. During the contact time, different types of oak compounds are released from the wood to the wine, thus affecting its organoleptic properties such as aroma, color or astringency. Among these compounds, ellagitannins, with several hydroxyl groups, can take part in oxidation reactions (Vivas and Glories 1996; Ignacio García-Estévez et al. 2017) that may favor the polymerization reactions between flavanols and between flavanols and anthocyanins. Furthermore, they can directly react with these types of compounds giving rise to flavanol-ellagitannins or anthocyano-ellagitanins (Chassaing et al. 2010; Ignacio García-Estévez et al. 2013; I. García-Estévez et al. 2013). Thus, ellagitannins may be involved in the changes of colour during maturation and ageing of wine, helping to improve colour stability and also protecting it against oxidation.

Wood processing for the elaboration of barrels generates by-products that seem to be an interesting product in the oenological field due to its potential capacity of release high added-value compounds for wine. Taking this into account, the use of barrel-shoot wastes as a source of copigments for wine could become a sustainable and profitable alternative to get high quality red wine for the oenological industry and to disposal of their byproducts for the cooperage industry. In this sense, other products of the oenological industry, as the grape pomace have been characterized for food waste valorization (Páscoa et al. 2014).

Predicting phenolic compounds of wood and its extractability from the matrix to the hydroalcoholic medium could be important in the oenological industry. Accordingly, chemical techniques, such as chromatography and mass spectroscopy, have been used in several studies focused on evaluate the oak wood phenolic extraction process and how is the extractability affected by factors as oak toasted degree or the type of aging performed (Chira and Teissedre 2013; I. García-Estévez et al. 2015; Jourdes et al. 2011). These studies achieve very accurate results but they used destructive and time consuming analyses that also require the use of chemical reagents. It is undesirable when the work flow is relatively fast.

Vibrational spectroscopy techniques represent emerging analytical procedure, which are enjoying increasing popularity in the industry as non-destructive, environmental friendly and rapid technique. The different fields of application of these techniques highlight its enormous versatility. In the oenological sector, the application of infrared spectroscopy is well known and extended. Classic NIR spectroscopy has been used to determine parameters in grapes such total polyphenols, extractable anthocyanins,

concentration of sugars, density (Kemps et al. 2010), total anthocyanins (Cozzolino et al. 2006) and the main families of phenolic compounds (Ferrer-Gallego et al. 2011; Ferrer-Gallego et al. 2010). In previous works carried out in our laboratory, near infrared hyperspectral imaging has been used to develop screening methods in order to measure phenols concentration in grape or grape seeds (Hernández-Hierro et al. 2013; Nogales-Bueno et al. 2015; Rodriguez-Pulido et al. 2014). In a further step, spectroscopic methods based on near-infrared spectroscopy have also shown great potential for analyses of wood for oenological purposes. Giordanengo et al. (2009) used classic NIR spectroscopy for the screening of extractable polyphenols in staves used to manufacture barrels oak wood. Its use was then extended for the selection of oak for oenology. So, Michel et al. (2013) carried out a validation of the aforesaid method by means of the determination of ellagitannin content and organoleptic properties of wines aging in wood barrels classified by NIRS. Finally NIR hyperspectral imaging has been also used for the screening of the extractable polyphenolic compounds (extractable total phenolic content) in wood cooperage byproduct by Baca-Bocanegra et al. (2018).

However, despite the fast and effective proficiency of near-infrared spectroscopy to predict different parameters in wine sector, most of these studies carried out *at lab* imply sample transportation. To solve this problem and fulfill other sophisticated conditions for its application in the industry, new generation of portable/handheld NIR spectrometers have been developed within the last years. These systems incorporate the analytical precision for chemical identification and quantitation with a spectral resolution equivalent to bench-top instruments, allowing for flexibility for in-plant analysis since the unit can be easily carried and transferred. In the agro-food industry the potential of this technique has been highlighted for assessing the quality of fruits nondestructively in the field under different weather conditions (Abu Izneid et al. 2014; Antonucci et al. 2011; Camps et al. 2012). In the viticulture sector, portable NIR devices have been implemented for assessing and monitoring grape ripeness directly in the field. Phenol ripening parameters such as the concentration of anthocyanins and polyphenols have been evaluated (González-Caballero et al. 2012; Guidetti et al. 2010; Larrain et al. 2008). However, references for the use of this technique in the analysis of oak wood for oenological purposes have not been found. The development of applicable models *in situ* will allow a greater versatility and efficiency for the real time decision-making in the vinification process on the adequacy and / or dosage of these byproducts depending on its spectral features and extractability properties.

The aim of this study was to develop a rapid and reliable method using a portable NIR spectrometer for the screening of extractable polyphenols (extractable total phenolic and ellagitannin contents) in cooperage byproduct. To our knowledge, this is the first time that portable micro near infrared spectroscopy technology has been applied to face the aforementioned goals.

Material and methods

Samples

American non-toasted oak (*Quercus alba* L.) shavings, cooperage byproduct, were used for this study. Samples were provided by Tonelería Salas S.L. (Bollullos Par del Condado, Huelva, Spain) and were collected as previously reported in Baca-Bocanegra et al. (2018). Wood staves were seasoned under natural conditions in the open air during 24 months approximately before being used in the process of making barrels. In order to achieve representative sample sets, the samples were taken at 4 different points in the process of making barrels, so four samples were collected at each date (A, B, C and D). Samples belonging to A, B and C groups are generated by different sawing processes of the staves but always in the longitudinal direction of the fibers. In detail, an automatic

or manual processing of the staves is the only difference between the samples A and B respectively. With respect to the group D, the samples are the result of a processing of the staves in the transversal direction of the fibers. All sampling points are pre-molded and pre-toasted of the staves. Samples were collected periodically, between June of 2015 and January of 2016. Two hundred samples were collected during the aforesaid period. Upon receipt, the samples were sieved and subjected to the spectral analysis. Wood shaving samples were screened using 2 mm and 10 mm mesh sieves placed in tandem. Only shaves of each sample which were retained between them were taken into account in the assay. After that, wood shavings were placed in stoppered plastics bags and stored in a dry chamber until use.

Spectral data acquisition.

The spectral reflectance data were collected using MicroNIR Pro Lite 1700 device (VIAVI, Santa Rosa, California, USA), an instrument designed to measure diffuse reflectance in the NIR region of the electromagnetic spectrum. The MicroNIR owes its small size to the novel thin-film linearly variable filter (LVF) used as the dispersive element. The LVF is directly coupled to a linear detector array (128-pixel uncooled InGaAs photodiode array), covering the spectral range between 908 and 1676 nm (spectral resolution of 6.2 nm). The filter coating in the LVF is wedged in one direction and as a result of the varying film thickness; the wavelength transmitted through the filter varies linearly in the direction of the wedge. The LVF makes each pixel of the detector respond to a different wavelength. This ultra-compact spectroscopic engine is coupled with a tungsten lamps diffuse illumination system. An image of the MicroNIR spectrometer and MicroNIR's optical designed, adapted from VIAVI user manual, is provided in Online Resource 1.

Spectra were recorded using 9.3 ms as integration time and 100 as scan count using the instrument acquisition software MicroNIRTM Pro v.2.2 (VIAVI, Santa Rosa, California, USA). A two-point reflectance calibration was used. A spectralon[®] ceramic tile was used as a white reference (100% reflectance), whereas dark current (0% reflectance) was recorded by taking a measurement placing the device about 0.5 meters from any object.

Six replicates spectra were recorded for each sample and were exported in Log (1/R) units and subsequently the average of the replication spectra was calculated. The procedure was repeated for each sample and the obtained spectra were combined into the spectral matrix.

Chemical analysis

Total phenol and ellagitannin extractabilities were determined for oak wood samples. In order to perform this determination, wood shavings were immersed in a model wine hydroalcoholic solution (4 g L^{-1} tartaric acid, 12.5% ethanol, adjusted at pH 3.6 with NaOH 0.5 M) for a maceration period of 72 h at room temperature and without agitation. Oak wood shavings were added to the wine-like solution in a 4 g L^{-1} ratio. This supernatant was used in all of the following reference analysis.

Extractable total phenolic content was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Singleton and Rossi 1965). The absorbance was recorded at 765 nm after 2 hours of reaction. This measure was performed in duplicate on an Agilent 8453 UV–visible spectrophotometer (Palo Alto, USA), equipped with diode array detection (DAD). Gallic acid was used as a standard for construction of the calibration curve and the concentration of total phenols was expressed as gallic acid equivalent in mg g^{-1} of wood.

Extractable ellagitannin content (castalagin, vescalagin, grandinin, and roburin E) were

determined using the HPLC-DAD-MS method presented by I. García-Estévez et al. (2012). HPLC analyses were performed in a Hewlett-Packard 1100 series liquid chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany). Detection was carried out at 250 nm as the preferred wavelength. Spectra were recorded from 220 to 600 nm. MS detection was performed in an API 3200 Qtrap (Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany) equipped with an ESI source and a triple-quadrupole linear ion trapmass analyzer that was controlled by Analyst 5.1 software (Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany). All analyses were performed in duplicate. Standards of castalagin, vescalagin, grandinin, and roburin E were extracted from *Q. petraea* oak chips and purified as it is described by García-Estévez and co-workers (I. García-Estévez et al. 2010).

Data analysis

An unsupervised pattern recognition technique, principal component analysis (PCA), was used in order to provide information about the latent structure of spectral matrix and to find spectral differences among all spectral samples. This method provides not only information related to spectral outliers and the distribution of samples in the newly-created space, but is also an important source of knowledge with which to create cross-validation groups used in the calibration process (Brereton 2003; Shenk and Westerhaus 1995). PCA was also used to select representative samples from the spectral data set. Mahalanobis distances (H) for each sample were calculated and samples were grouped according their neighborhood H values (NH).

Different spectral pretreatments were tested to eliminate effects of unwanted signals of spectra and also to enhance subtle differences between different samples. Scattering effects were removed using standard normal variate (SNV), multiplicative scatter correction (MSC) and detrending (Geladi, MacDougall, & Martens, 1985; Dhanoa,

Lister, & Barnes, 1995). Moreover, the effect of differentiation and variations in spectral ranges were tested in the development of the NIRS calibrations.

Using the raw spectral data, applying spectral pretreatments and allocating the corresponding extractable total phenolic content and extractable ellagitannin content to each sample, calibrations were performed by modified partial least squares regression (MPLS). In this method, the group of calibration samples is divided into a series of subsets in order to perform cross-validation to set the number of PLS factors, reduce the possibility of over fitting (Shenk and Westerhaus 1995) and remove chemical outliers. Using the T \geq 2.5 criterion, samples that presented a high residual value when they were predicted were eliminated from the set. Finally, validation errors are combined into a single figure, the standard error of cross-validation (SECV).

The software used was Win ISI[®] (v1.50) (Infrasoft International, LLC, Port. Matilda, PA, USA). This software allowed the data pretreatment, principal components analysis and sample selection and development of quantitative models.

Results and discussion

Exploratory analysis of spectra

Fig.1a shows the raw average spectra regarding the sampling point of oak wood shavings. It can be seen that wood samples belonging to A, B, C and D groups have different reflectance intensities along some wavelength regions, although with the same pattern.

A SNV (2,5,5,1) spectral pre-treatment was applied to the spectra of all samples in the 908–1676 nm region and after that, principal component analysis was carried out in order to provide information about the latent structure of spectral matrix. PCA was also used in this study to select representative samples from the spectral data set. Sample selection was made in order to reduce the number of samples maintaining as much

spectral variety as possible. Using all spectral samples, five principal components were taken into account. More than ninety-five per cent of the spectral variability of the original spectral matrix was explained (96.23 %). In this five-dimensional space, the samples were sorted according to Mahalanobis distances (H). Then, ten spectral outliers (H>3) were found and removed from this matrix. The 190 remaining samples were grouped according their neighborhood H values (NH \leq 0.6 criterion). So, 18 groups with different spectral characteristics were created. One sample from every group was allocated in the calibration set. Therefore, 18 samples were selected to develop a calibration process. In addition, to create the validation set, another sample from every group was selected. Only 15 samples were allocated in this set because 3 of the 18 created groups had not more than one sample.

Fig.1b shows the scores of the wood samples in the space defined by the first and second principal components which described 53.37 % (PC1) and 30.37 % (PC2) of the spectral variability in the data. In the scores plot, the samples are represented by a color code according to the cutting direction of the staves to obtain them (longitudinal or transversal to the fibers). It can be seen that PC1 could be used to differentiate between longitudinal and transversal group. Furthermore, it also possible to appreciate a successful separation between samples according to the different staves processed to obtain them, in other words, the different sampling points (A, B, C, D) (Fig.1c). Samples belonging to A and B groups have been obtained in the same way (an automatic or manual processing of the staves is the only difference between them) and, therefore, it appears partly overlapping in this plot. Fig.1d shows the scores of the calibration and validation samples in the space defined by PC1 and PC2. This space is not entirely the same as the space used to select the calibration and validation sets (bearing in mind that 5 PCs were used). However, in this figure, it can be appreciated

how both the calibration set and the validation set are homogenously allocated in the space defined by PC1 and PC2 including almost all the spectral variability of samples and, therefore, representing the heterogeneity of the whole set.

Quantitative analysis.

After HPLC-MS method, 4 ellagitannins were determined (castalagin, vescalagin, grandinin and roburin E) and individual extractable ellagitannin contents were obtained. The sum of all them was also expressed as total ellagitannins. From a quantitative point of view, castalagin and vescalagin are the most abundant ellagitannins in oak wood but lyxose/xylose derivatives (grandinin and roburin E) are also present. Oak wood extractable total phenolic content has also been quantified using a spectrophotometric method. Table 1 shows the main statistical descriptors for the reference parameters of the samples allocated in the calibration set.

Quantitative calibrations were developed by modified partial least squares (MPLS) regression. Extractable total phenolic content and extractable ellagitannin content were used as dependent (Y) variables and the matrix of 18 wood processed spectra was used as the independent (X). The statistical parameters of the final calibration equations are shown in Table 2 where N is the number of samples used to obtain the calibration equation after eliminating samples for chemical reasons (T criterion). The best of the different mathematical treatments, the range of application, and standard deviations are also shown.

The robustness of the selected models was tested using validation set samples, which did not belong to the calibration set, as external validation. Samples which presented reference values outside the applicability of the obtained models for each reference parameter were not used in this procedure. In the case of the total phenols parameter all sample presented reference values inside the applicability of the obtained model,

however, 2, 2, 5, 3 and 1 samples were not used for castalagin, vescalagin, grandinin, roburin E and total ellagitannin validations, respectively. Table 3 shows the main statistical descriptors for the reference parameters of the samples allocated in the validation set after remove from the validation set the samples that should not be predicted by the calibration models. Calibration model obtained was applied and the predicted values were compared with the reference data. As result of this external validation the standard errors of prediction (SEP) were obtained for each reference variable, these values were also included in Table 2. These values are comparatively similar or even better than the errors previously reported for total or extractable content of these compounds using near infrared spectroscopy bench top devices taking into the account the applicability range (Baca-Bocanegra et al. 2018; Giordanengo et al. 2009).

Fig.2 shows the loadings resulting of the MPLS model for total phenols as example and it indicates the most dominant wavelengths. The spectral region between 1100 and 1200 showed important contribution to the model loadings. These could be related to combination band of O–H functional group and symmetric and anti-symmetric stretching vibration. This wavelength region is also related to C–H aromatic second overtones and C–H third overtones vibration. These can be attributed to the chemical structure of phenolic compounds (Osborne et al. 1993; Siesler et al. 2002). Combination band of C–H aromatic appears in the spectral region between 1350 and 1450 nm. Moreover, the first O–H stretching overtone contributes to spectrum at 1400 nm, hence the moisture affects expansively to this band. Definitive attribution of absorbances around 1400 nm is difficult given that absorptions around this wavelength range originate from both -OH and -CH structures.

The methods developed in the preceding section were used to predict the extractable content of total phenols and total ellagitannins in the whole of wood set. The results show a substantial variability in the reference parameters within each group of samples (Fig.3). The variability of oak wood extractives has been demonstrated by different authors (Doussot et al. 2002; Snakkers et al. 2000). Phenols content has been found to vary even from the same provenance, the same tree and the same piece of timber (Masson et al. 1995). Zahri et al. (2008) reported that total phenols content in wood varied according to the distance from the oak tree pith. This observation confirmed previous studies which determined that the concentration of soluble tannins in oak tree decrease with age tree. A large amount of tannins and phenolic monomers in wood can form polymers and copolymers with cell-wall components with time and then their solubility would be reduced (Peng et al. 1991; Viriot et al. 1994).

In addition, an inter group variability of oak wood extractives has been found. Samples generated by a processed of the staves in the longitudinal direction of the fibers hold higher extractable polyphenols content than those obtained after processing staves in the transversal direction. On the basis of these results, it can be assumed that the structure of the samples could be involved in these extractable content differences.

Conclusion

The MPLS model performed confirmed that spectral analysis developed from MicroNIR is a promising technique for *in situ* routine assessment of the extractable polyphenolic compounds in wood cooperage byproduct. This methodology was able to predict, *in situ*, the extractable polyphenolic content of a sample based on spectral features as the predictor variables. The obtained results are comparable with those obtained using other bench-top devices and presents the advantage of its eventual

friendly use out of lab. The use of a portable micro spectrometer implies very interesting features, since at a lower cost objective and instantaneous spectroscopic measurements can be carried out *in situ* with the advantage of its portability, due to its small size. Development of applicable models *in situ* will also allow a greater versatility and efficiency for the decision-making in the winemaking process on the adequacy and / or dosage of these byproducts according to the requirements of the wine.

The use of cooperage by-product as source of copigments for wine is a sustainable and profitable alternative to get high quality red wine for the oenological industry and to disposal of their byproducts for the cooperage industry.

The variability in oak wood extractives within the same provenance has been observed. Moreover, extractable polyphenols content differences between wood samples generated by longitudinal and transversal cutting of the fibers have been also found. Nonetheless, a comprehensive study should be made in order to obtain more information about how wood structure and / or morphology changes within different levels of phenolic compounds extractability.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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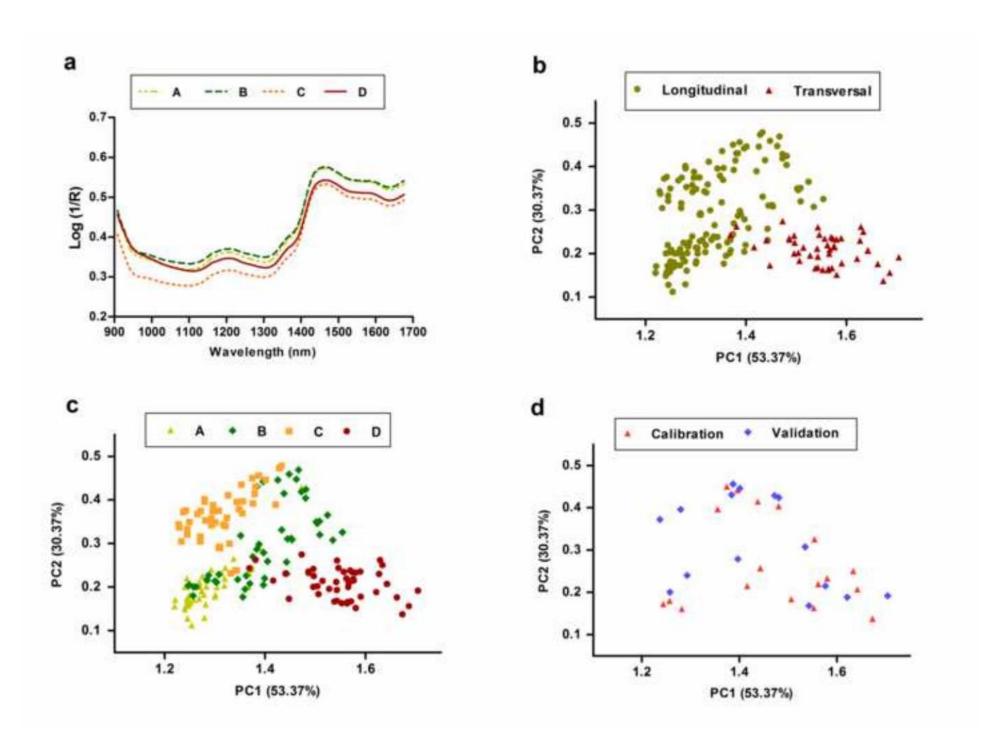
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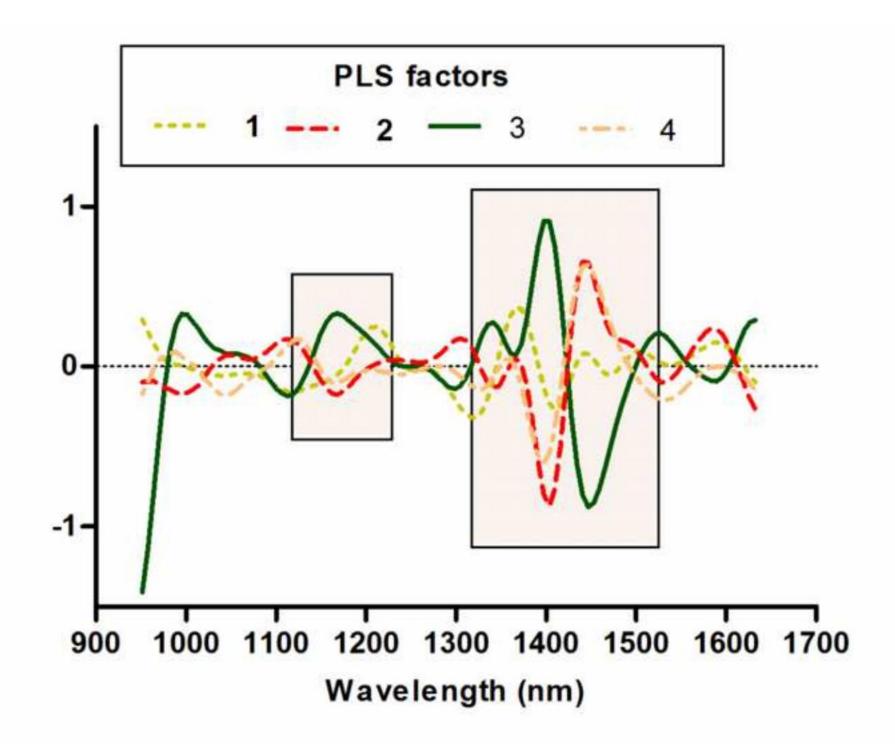
Fig. 1 (a) Raw average spectra of wood samples according to sampling point. (b) Score plot of wood samples codified as longitudinal and transversal samples in the space defined by PC1 and PC2 (c) codified according to sampling point (A, B, C and D) (d) Score plot of wood samples codified as calibration and validation sets in the space defined by PC1 and PC2

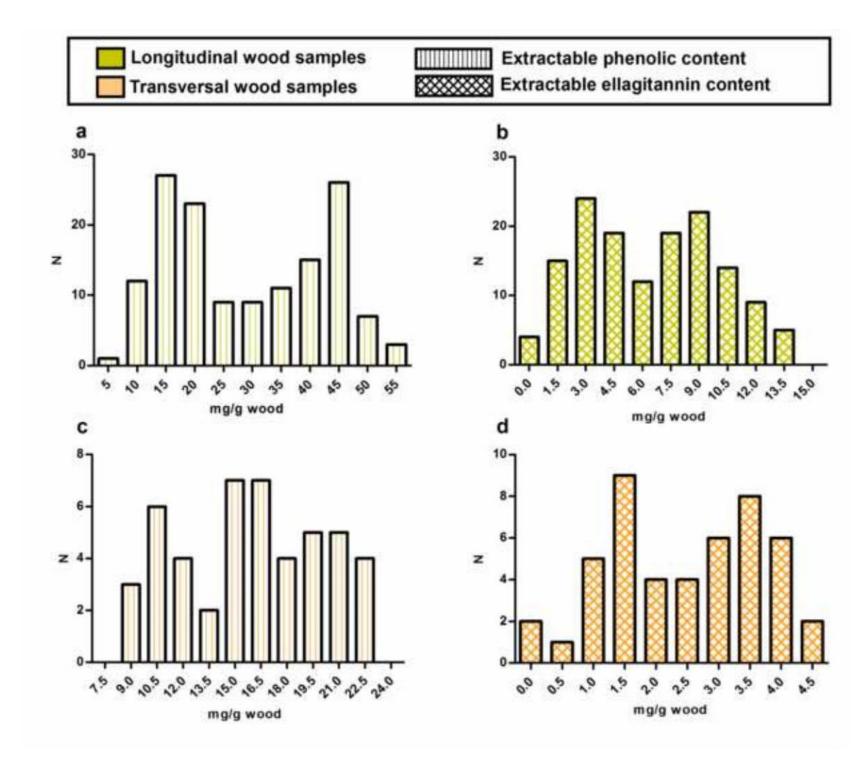
Fig. 2 Loadings plot for the PLS factors of the regression model for extractable total phenolic content prediction

Fig. 3 Distribution of longitudinal and transversal wood samples in different extractable phenolic content (a and c) and extractable ellagitannin content (b and d)

1 NOTE: All figures should be in color on the Web and in black-and-white in print.







Screening of wine extractable total phenolic and ellagitannin contents in

revalorized cooperage byproducts: evaluation by MICRO-NIRS technology

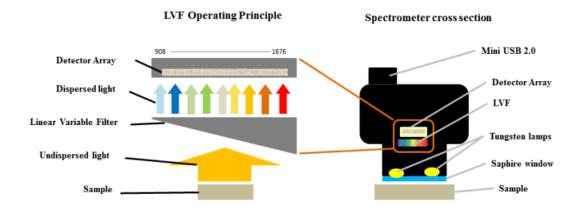
Food and Bioprocess Technology

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ESM_1. Illustration of the optical design and cross section of the MicroNIR operated in diffuse reflection mode adapted from VIAVI user manual.

Set	Reference Parameters	\mathbf{N}^{a}	Maximum	Mean	Minimum	SD^b
Calibration	EPC^{c}	18	59.56	23.79	9.41	15.67
	EEC^d	18	16.15	5.07	1.49	4.66
	Castalagin	18	6.62	2.03	0.52	1.99
	Vescalagin	18	6.94	2.01	0.60	1.86
	Gradinin	18	1.74	0.71	0.18	0.58
	Roburin E	18	0.85	0.31	0.08	0.26

Table 1. Main statistical descriptors for reference parameters in calibration set.

^{*a*}N: number of samples; ^{*b*}SD: Standard deviation; ^{*c*}EPC: extractable total phenolic content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as gallic acid equivalents); ^{*d*}EEC: extractable total ellagitannin content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as sum of individual ellagitannins);

Reference Parameter	Spectral pretreatment	T outliers	PLS factors	N ^a H	Est. Min	SD^b	Est. Max	SEC ^c	RSQ ^d	SECV ^e	SEP ^f wood)
					(mg g ⁻¹ wood)			-	$(mg g^{-1} wood)$		
EPC^{g}	SNV 2,5,5,1	0	4	18	0	14.92	68.23	2.07	0.98	3.83	5.86
EEC^h	Standard MSC 1,5,5,1	0	2	18	0	4.66	19.04	1.30	0.92	1.76	2.07
Castalagin	Standard MSC 1,5,5,1	0	2	18	0	1.99	8.00	0.66	0.90	0.85	0.90
Vescalagin	None 1,5,5,1	1	2	17	0	1.44	6.04	0.36	0.94	0.53	0.71
Gradinin	Detrend 2,5,5,1	2	3	16	0	0.55	2.34	0.09	0.98	0.13	0.16
Roburin E	Standard MSC 1,5,5,1	0	2	18	0	0.30	1.16	0.08	0.91	0.11	0.13

Table 2. Calibration statistical descriptors for the models developed in the NIR zone close to 908-1676 nm.

^{*a*}N: number of samples (calibration set); ^{*b*}SD: standard deviation; ^{*c*}SEC: standard error of calibration; ^{*d*}RSQ: coefficient of determination (calibration set); ^{*e*}SECV: standard error of cross-validation (7 cross-validation groups); ^{*f*}SEP: standard error of prediction (external validation); ^{*g*}EPC: extractable total phenolic content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as gallic acid equivalents); ^{*b*}EEC: extractable total ellagitannin content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as sum of individual ellagitannins)

Set	Reference Parameters	\mathbf{N}^{a}	Maximum	Mean	Minimum	\mathbf{SD}^{b}
Validation ^e	\mathbf{EPC}^{c}	15	56.54	32.03	11.26	17.73
	EEC^d	14	14.44	7.50	1.40	4.49
	Castalagin	13	5.50	2.91	0.51	1.73
	Vescalagin	13	4.85	2.82	0.67	1.53
	Gradinin	10	1.57	0.83	0.25	0.48
	Roburin E	12	0.78	0.43	0.09	0.26

Table 3. Main statistical descriptors for reference parameters in validation set.

^{*a*}N: number of samples; ^{*b*}SD: Standard deviation; ^{*c*}EPC: extractable total phenolic content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as gallic acid equivalents); ^{*d*}EEC: extractable total ellagitannin content (mg g⁻¹ of wood, expressed as sum of individual ellagitannins); ^{*e*}Validation: statistical descriptors for the reference parameters of the samples allocated in the validation set after remove the samples that presented reference values outside the applicability of the calibration models.