

1 **From Waste to Worth: Wine Lees Composition and Applications in Research and**  
2 **Industry**

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18 **Abstract**

19 In oenology, the term “wine lees” refers to the sediment that settles at the bottom of wine  
20 containers (e.g., tanks, barrels, or bottles) after fermentation and during the ageing of  
21 wine. They consist mainly of biomass from yeast cells –also lactic acid bacteria–, grape  
22 solids, and particles of various compositions that precipitate out of wine over time. Wine  
23 lees are often used in the ageing process because of their antioxidant properties and the  
24 enhancement of the sensory properties of wine. In terms of quantity, wine lees are the  
25 second most abundant by-product of winemaking, after grape pomace. Recently, wine  
26 lees are increasingly being recognized as a valuable resource within the circular economy,  
27 being used for the production of bioactive compounds, biofuels, cosmetics, and organic  
28 fertilizers, among others. This approach not only contributes to the sustainability of the  
29 wine industry but also reduces the environmental impact of the waste generated during  
30 winemaking. This review provides an overview of the properties and potential uses of the  
31 wine lees reported to date.

32

33 Keywords: review, valorisation, circular economy, by-product, winemaking, bioeconomy

## 34 1. Introduction

35 Winemaking is a multistep process that involves the production of different by-products  
36 (Figure 1). From harvested grapes to wine, water waste and other solid residues are  
37 generated. Among the solid residues, grape pomace and wine lees are the most abundant  
38 (Braga et al., 2002). Wine lees are defined in the Regulation (EU) No 1308/2013 of the  
39 European Parliament and of the Council of December 17, 2013, establishing a common  
40 organisation of the markets in agricultural products and repealing Council Regulations  
41 as: *the residue (a) accumulating in vessels containing wine after fermentation, during*  
42 *storage or after authorised treatment; (b) obtained from filtering or centrifuging the*  
43 *product referred to in (a); (c) accumulating in vessels containing grape must during*  
44 *storage or after authorised treatment; or (d) obtained from filtering or centrifuging the*  
45 *product referred to in (c).* The composition of wine lees largely depends on the type of  
46 wine (white or red), the fermentation stage (alcoholic vs. malolactic), and the specific  
47 oenological practices applied during winemaking. Thus, different types of wine lees can  
48 be identified based on their origin.

49 Wine lees formed after alcoholic fermentation primarily consist of dead *Saccharomyces*  
50 *cerevisiae* yeast cells, grape pulp residues, tartaric acid salts (e.g., potassium bitartrate),  
51 proteins, and polysaccharides. Their pH typically ranges from 3.2 to 3.7. These lees are  
52 slightly turbid in appearance, usually beige or brown in white wines, and dark purple-red  
53 in red wines. Red wine lees contain heavier solids derived from grape skins and seeds,  
54 and are particularly rich in polyphenolic compounds. White wine lees are characterized  
55 by a lower polyphenol content, a higher tendency for protein precipitation, and the  
56 presence of finer suspended particles.

57 Wine lees from malolactic fermentation, which always follows alcoholic fermentation,  
58 are produced in smaller volumes than other lees. They mainly contain dead lactic acid

59 bacteria (such as *Oenococcus oeni*), additional degraded yeast cells from alcoholic  
60 fermentation, and bacterial metabolites like diacetyl and lactic acid. These lees are  
61 generally more acidic due to lactic acid production and have a slightly lower pH than  
62 those formed during alcoholic fermentation.

63 Tertiary lees, also known as fining or aging lees, accumulate during wine clarification  
64 and stabilization processes. These include residues from fining agents (if they are used)  
65 employed to improve protein or polyphenol stability in wine, such as bentonite, casein,  
66 or egg whites. As a result, these lees may contain varying proportions of fining agent  
67 residues along with wine-derived compounds like proteins, polyphenols,  
68 polysaccharides, and tartrates. Their composition is highly variable, depending on fining  
69 agents used and typically contains less microbial biomass compared to primary and  
70 secondary lees. The graphical representation (Figure 1) provides an overview of the  
71 various origins of wine lees.

72 If not differently specified, in the continuation of this review the term “lees” refers to the  
73 residue accumulating in vessels containing wine after aging. Ageing on lees consists of  
74 keeping the wine for several months in contact with lees that settle at the bottom of the  
75 container. Periodical stirring maximizes contact with wine/lees and improves practice  
76 outcomes. The positive outcomes of this practice include improvements in the aromatic  
77 and gustatory quality of wine, as well as an increase in its physicochemical stability  
78 against colloidal precipitation, colour instability, and chemical oxidation (Rigou et al.,  
79 2021). During this prolonged contact, lees undergo an autolytic process (Alexandre &  
80 Guilloux-Benatier, 2006), where dead yeast cells undergo enzymatic self-degradation,  
81 leading to the release of cytoplasmic (proteins, peptides, amino acids, fatty acids,  
82 nucleotides) and parietal (mannoproteins, glucans, oligosaccharides) components into the  
83 wine (Fornairon-Bonnefond et al., 2003).

84 It is reported that wine lees can account for approximately 3.5 to 8.5% (w/v) of the used  
85 grape mass (Dávila et al., 2017). In this sense, the first works about this aspect, reported  
86 that lees and pomace represent the 20% (w/v) of the total volume of the fermented wines  
87 (Cantarelli et al., 1964), or that the production of 1 hL of wine, gives from 1.6 kg (Da Ros  
88 et al., 2016) to 5.5 kg of liquid lees at 4.5% (v/v) alcohol content (Cabras et al., 1997).  
89 Another estimation was performed in Cabras & Angioni (2000), where they estimated that  
90 from one kg of grapes 0.65 L of wine, 0.17 kg of cake and 0.055 kg of wine lees are  
91 produced.

92 Wine lees represent a residue with high soluble (Bio-) Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD  
93 and BOD)(Ehlinger et al., 1992), low pH, (Sancho-Galán et al., 2020) and moderate  
94 alcoholic content when collected after alcoholic fermentation or during wine ageing  
95 (Porto et al., 1993). Therefore, wine lees are considered environmental pollutants.

96 For the past 30 years, the focus of research on wine lees has been to study their  
97 contribution to wine quality, in terms of compounds released during ageing in contact  
98 with lees and their effects on wine aroma and mouthfeel. Currently, a new area of research  
99 is gaining significant attention: exploring innovative ways to repurpose this by-product,  
100 effectively giving it a second life (Balmaseda et al., 2024; de Andrade Bulos et al., 2023;  
101 De Iseppi et al., 2020; Poulain et al., 2024). However, the revalorisation of wine lees is  
102 far from being fully realized or effectively exploited. This is an important point, as the  
103 legal framework governs the current use of wine lees once they are produced. In this  
104 regard, the previously mentioned Regulation (EU) No. 1308/2013 also regulates the use  
105 of wine lees, restricting their application to the production of alcohol, spirits, or *piquette*.  
106 Additionally, Directive (EU) 2018/2001 of the European Parliament and of the Council  
107 of December 11, 2018, which promotes the use of energy from renewable sources,  
108 identifies wine lees as a type of feedstock for producing biogas for transport and advanced

109 biofuels. The application of circular economy principles in winemaking, including the  
110 reuse of wine lees, has demonstrated significant reductions in environmental impacts,  
111 such as global warming potential and resource depletion, compared to traditional linear  
112 production systems (Ncube et al., 2021).

113 Given their richness in organic matter and high content of bioactive compounds,  
114 researchers have explored various promising applications of wine lees over the past  
115 decades. According to our research, from years 1939 to the end of 2024 the number of  
116 publications with the keyword “wine lees” goes up to about 783 scientific papers indexed  
117 on Scopus Database (Figure 2) and we found around 100 patents documents (97 patents  
118 from 1899 to 2019) of products related to the use of wine lees (de Andrade Bulos et al.,  
119 2023). Overall, there is an increasing trend in the number of publications on this subject  
120 (Figure 2A, B), mainly in the fields of Agricultural and Biological Science, Chemistry,  
121 Biochemistry, Engineering and Environmental Science (Figure 2C). It is also interesting  
122 to note that the leading countries in this subject are Spain, Italy, and France, contributing  
123 for the 31%, 16%, and 13% respectively of total publications.

124 The aim of this review is to summarize the current knowledge on the various uses of wine  
125 lees, with a focus on their composition and properties, as well as their applications across  
126 different fields, including winemaking, food industry, and energy production systems.

## 127 2. Wine lees composition

128 The composition of wine lees is highly variable, as it strongly depends on the type of  
129 grape and yeast used in winemaking, as well as the duration of the ageing process. Lees  
130 are primarily composed of a liquid phase rich in ethanol and organic acids, such as lactic  
131 or acetic acid (Dávila et al., 2017; Pérez-Serradilla & de Castro, 2008), and a solid phase  
132 consisting of microorganisms (mainly yeasts), grape solid particles, and to a lesser extent,  
133 tartaric acid, insoluble carbohydrates, phenolic compounds, lignin, proteins, metals, and

134 organic salts. Nonetheless, most of the available information on lees composition is  
135 derived from studies examining their contribution to wine composition during ageing. In  
136 fact, most studies focus on the impact of lees constituents on wine, while very few studies  
137 have analysed their actual composition in lees. Articles reporting the composition of wine  
138 lees are summarized in the following paragraphs. Table 1 shows the global composition  
139 of wine lees described in various studies. The variability in the obtained data strongly  
140 depends on factors such as contact time, autolytic phenomena, and composition of the  
141 wine matrix from which the lees were obtained and recovered.

## 142 2.1. Polysaccharides

143 Llaubères et al. (1987) first described that wine was enriched in polysaccharides during  
144 alcoholic fermentation and ageing. This work was the first to define mannoproteins as  
145 mannans covalently linked to protein residues. The total amount of polysaccharides in  
146 white vinification is estimated to be 400 – 500 mg/L (Llaubères et al., 1987), which is the  
147 sum of the polysaccharides from grapes and those released by wine lees. The autolysis  
148 process that naturally occurs in wine lees determines the increase in polysaccharide and  
149 oligosaccharide concentrations of wine, and it depends on the yeast strain (Loira et al.,  
150 2013a; Martínez-Lapuente et al., 2018; Moine-Ledoux et al., 1997; Voce et al., 2024).

151 Particularly, during ageing on lees, the glycosyl residues –arabinose, rhamnose, mannose,  
152 and galactose– increase in wine, except for galacturonic acid, which slightly decreases,  
153 and glucose and myo-inositol remain at constant concentrations during ageing (Pati et al.,  
154 2010). The composition of polysaccharides is dependent on the origin of wine lees (white  
155 or red winemaking), ageing time (Pati et al., 2012), and grape variety (Martínez-Lapuente  
156 et al., 2018). In this sense, red wine lees present higher arabinose, galactose, and  
157 galacturonic acid glycosyl residue polysaccharides than white or rosé wine lees. In  
158 addition, polysaccharide concentration can be increased by the resuspension of wine lees,

159 increasing the time of contact with wine or ageing at higher temperatures, which enhances  
160 the autolytic process (Llaubères et al., 1987; Loira et al., 2013b).

161 Apart from the linked sugar residues from polysaccharides, other free sugar residues can  
162 be found in wine lees (S. P. Ioannidou et al., 2022), such as glucose and xylose, together  
163 with some organic acids, such as succinic and acetic acids. Researchers have found higher  
164 concentrations of these compounds in lees from white wine (from Magalouzia cultivar)  
165 than in the red variety Grenache. In the same work, the GC-MS technique enabled the  
166 detection of various compounds, such as polyols, glycerine (1,2,3-propanetriol), and  
167 phenyl alcohols (S. P. Ioannidou et al., 2022).

## 168 2.2. Proteins, peptides and amino acids

169 During ageing of lees, wine is also enriched in proteins, peptides, and amino acids.  
170 Proteins constitute approximately the 15% (w/w) of the dry weight of wine lees (Gómez  
171 et al., 2004). Yeast intracellular proteases and carboxypeptidases are responsible for the  
172 release of these nitrogen-related compounds (Moreno-Arribas et al., 1996; M. Sato et al.,  
173 1997) in a yeast strain-dependent manner (Perrot et al., 2002). During autolysis, the dry  
174 weight of the lees decreases, while total amino acids, free amino acids, and extracellular  
175 proteins increase (Perrot et al., 2002), creating a significantly different amino acid profile  
176 in long-term-aged wines (Sartor et al., 2021). In general, the protein concentration in wine  
177 seems to be constant at approximately 15 mg/L (Luguera et al., 1998); however, this is  
178 due to the equilibrium between protein release and protein degradation during autolysis.  
179 Rowe et al. (2010) investigated the origin of these released proteins and observed that the  
180 initial proteins originated from the cytosol, followed by those from the cell wall.  
181 Furthermore, cytosolic proteins degrade over extended periods of ageing, whereas  
182 proteins derived from the cell wall remain stable.

183 Peptides are released from lees and degraded during wine ageing because of the  
184 spontaneous action of yeast enzymes. Not only are peptides released, but proteins are also  
185 hydrolysed into shorter peptide fragments (Moreno-Arribas et al., 1996). Protease activity  
186 was detected after six months of storage (Moreno-Arribas et al., 1996; M. Sato et al.,  
187 1997), even when the enzymatic activity was higher at the beginning. De Iseppi, Rocca,  
188 et al. (2024) observed a rapid increase in peptide concentration during the first two  
189 months of wine aging on lees, followed by a stabilization phase in which the overall  
190 concentration was maintained, while peptide diversity decreased. Most of the peptides  
191 identified were derived from yeast proteins associated with glycolysis and stress response  
192 mechanisms.

### 193 2.3. Lipids

194 Approximately the 5% of the dry weight of wine lees is composed of lipids that originate  
195 from both grape seeds and yeast cell walls (Gómez et al., 2004). Among them, the most  
196 abundant lipids were sterols (25.2%), glycolipids (18.2%), and sterol esters (15.9%). In  
197 addition, fatty acids (11.2%) are primarily composed of 16- and 18-carbon chains, which  
198 correlates with the origin of yeast-derived fatty acids in wine lees. Gómez et al. (2004)  
199 reported that lees from sherry wine contain palmitic acid (C16:0), linoleic acid (C18:2),  
200 and stearic acid (C18:0). In addition, the origin of wine lees (Sancho-Galán et al., 2020),  
201 whether white, rosé, or red winemaking, significantly influences their fatty acid  
202 composition, as observed for wine lipid composition (Balmaseda et al., 2021).

### 203 2.4. Polyphenols

204 The polyphenolic composition of wine lees is highly dependent on the grape cultivar,  
205 degree of maturity, geographical origin, vinification process, and duration of  
206 maceration/extraction (Zhijing et al., 2018). Additionally, within the diverse family of  
207 phenolic compounds, it is noteworthy that specific compounds are uniquely associated

208 with different wine by-products. In this regard, Costa-Pérez et al. (2023) identified 59  
209 phenolic compounds exclusive to wine lees, distinguishing them from those found in  
210 other by-products.

211 As an example, the total polyphenolic index for a red Pinot Noir wine lees vary from 17.3  
212  $\pm 0.4$  to  $40.9 \pm 1.6$  mg/g of dry matter, that is higher than the same variety in rosé  
213 vinification (from  $9.8 \pm 0.2$  to  $10.5 \pm 0.5$  mg/g of dry matter), or for white wine lees (from  
214  $3.1 \pm 0.2$  to  $10.3 \pm 0.4$  mg/g of dry matter)(Zhijing et al., 2018). Interestingly, the same  
215 authors reported no significant differences between rosé wine lees with different  
216 maceration durations (Zhijing et al., 2018). In contrast, the time of wine lees collection  
217 seems to modify their composition. Recently, Giacobbo et al. (2019) showed that wine  
218 lees collected from the first racking had higher solid matter concentrations but less  
219 phenolic amounts in comparison to lees obtained from the second racking. Specifically,  
220 wine lees from the second racking had approximately 700 mg/kg (lees dry matter) of  
221 anthocyanins and 3300 mg/kg of phenolic compounds, whereas those from the first  
222 racking had approximately 400 mg/kg of anthocyanins and 1600 mg/kg of phenolic  
223 compounds. Similarly, Bustamante et al. (2008) reported that wine lees can contain  
224 between 1.9 and 16.3 g of polyphenols/ kg (lees dry matters) depending on the wine type  
225 and winemaking practices.

226 Delgado de La Torre et al. (2015a, 2015b) showed a complex phenolic composition in  
227 wine lees, in which the most abundant phenolic compounds were flavonoids. The  
228 polyphenols in wine lees are adsorbed from wine on yeast cell walls during winemaking  
229 (Salmon et al., 2002). However, polyphenols are more likely to be found in wine than in  
230 wine lees (Devi & Anu-Appaiah, 2020).

231 Mazauric & Salmon (2005) analysed of the remnant polyphenols in wine after ageing  
232 indicated that some polyphenols can be adsorbed on the surface of yeast lees following

233 biphasic kinetics. An initial and rapid fixation is followed by a slow, constant, and  
234 saturating fixation that reaches its maximum after approximately 1 week. Very few  
235 monomeric phenolic compounds remained adsorbed on yeast lees, and no preferential  
236 adsorption of low- or high-polymeric-size tannins occurred. The remnant condensed  
237 tannins in the wine contained fewer epigallocatechin units than the initial tannins,  
238 indicating that polar condensed tannins were preferentially adsorbed on yeast lees.  
239 Conversely, the efficiency of anthocyanin adsorption onto yeast lees is unrelated to its  
240 polarity. According to Vasserot et al. (2003), anthocyanin adsorption by yeast lees occurs  
241 slowly and incompletely, likely because of diffusion limitations. Regardless of the yeast  
242 lees concentration, the amount of anthocyanin adsorbed increased linearly with the initial  
243 anthocyanin concentration, indicating no saturation of the adsorbent. This suggests that  
244 the adsorption process is governed by a partition equilibrium between the anthocyanins  
245 adsorbed on the yeast walls and those remaining in the solution. This equilibrium is  
246 unstable and can quickly shift toward desorption or additional adsorption with changes in  
247 the anthocyanin concentration in the medium, implying that the interactions between  
248 anthocyanins and yeast walls are likely weak. Some studies have determined that up to  
249 26 anthocyanins are present in lees samples (Jara-Palacios, 2019). Recently, López-  
250 Fernández-Sobrino, Soliz-Rueda, et al. (2021) and Romero-Díez et al. (2018) observed  
251 that malvidin-3-glucoside was found to be the most abundant compound in wine lees.  
252 Masino et al. (2008) observed that catechin can easily be adsorbed by wine lees,  
253 representing the 50 – 62% of the total terminal units of proanthocyanidins extracted from  
254 lees (Zhijing et al., 2018). Epicatechin and epigallocatechin were also found in lees, with  
255 a predominance in red wine lees. Moreover, low trans-resveratrol, *cis* and *trans*-  
256 resveratrol-3-glucoside concentrations can be detected in wine lees (Del Barrio-Galán et  
257 al., 2012).

## 258 2.7. Microelements

259 The most abundant microelements in winemaking byproducts (grape pomace, grape  
260 stems, and wine lees) are potassium (K), sodium (Na), magnesium (Mg), phosphorus (P),  
261 and calcium (Ca) (Bica et al., 2020a). In a recent paper, Sancho-Galán et al. (2020) did a  
262 complete study of the microelements of three different, where wine lees were classified  
263 according to the type of winemaking of origin (Table 2).

264 In the case of wine lees, the proportion of these elements was lower than that of other  
265 byproducts. For example, for K, the amount found in lees represents only 3% (w/w) of  
266 the total, while in marc and wine represents 27% and 70%, respectively (Bica et al., 2020).

267 In addition, the microelement composition of wine lees appears to be very heterogeneous,  
268 as pointed by Bustamante et al. (2008) when analysing the composition of 12 wine lees  
269 coming from different wineries. Viticultural and oenological practices have a strong  
270 impact on microelement composition, mainly because of the use of phytosanitary  
271 treatments. According to Suhaj & Koreňovská (2006) the Chromium (Cr) (0.2 mg/kg of  
272 dry matter) and the Tin (Sn) (0.12 mg/kg of dry matter) are more likely found minerals  
273 in wine lees, whereas others as Cobalt (Co), Lithium (Li), and Vanadium (V) are more  
274 homogeneously found in all the wine by-products. Ca and Mg are also more likely found  
275 in wine lees, but more abundant in press cake.

## 276 3. Oenological properties of wine lees

277 Ageing on lees is beneficial for the chemical and sensory properties of wine (Fornairon-  
278 Bonnefond et al., 2001). This practice helps improve the structure, roundness, and body  
279 of wines (Alexandre, 2022), while also reducing their astringency and bitterness (Del  
280 Barrio-Galán, Pérez-Magariño, & Ortega-Heras, 2011). The following paragraphs  
281 discuss various studies on wine ageing of lees and their impact on wine quality.

### 282 3.1. Impact of ageing on lees on chemical stability of wine

283 The role of mannoproteins from wine lees in the chemical stability of wine was well  
284 reported (Ledoux et al., 1992). These authors demonstrated the impact of ageing on the  
285 protein and tartaric stability of white wines. A 32 kDa N-glycosylated mannoprotein,  
286 corresponding to an *S. cerevisiae* invertase fragment, was identified to be responsible for  
287 this stability. In addition, the presence of lees was not sufficient to increase mannoprotein  
288 content, but resuspension of lees by stirring (*bâtonnage*) significantly enhanced the  
289 quantity of macromolecules extracted into the wine.

290 In sparkling wines produced by re-fermentation in bottle (*Champenoise* method),  
291 autolysis is a key step and a source of polysaccharides, mannoproteins and proteins,  
292 affecting taste, mouthfeel and foam properties of wine (Alexandre & Guilloux-Benatier,  
293 2006; Pons-Mercadé et al., 2022). Pons-Mercadé et al., (2022) studied the autolysis of  
294 yeast lees in sparkling wines (Cava) and followed the wines during nine consecutive  
295 vintages. This study confirmed that yeast contributes to enriching sparkling wines with  
296 key macromolecules, such as polysaccharides and proteins, but in low proportions  
297 compared to the usual concentrations found in sparkling wines. While lees release these  
298 macromolecules, their concentration does not clearly increase over time (during ageing),  
299 likely due to simultaneous removal by other processes, such as adsorption or enzymatic  
300 degradation.

### 301 3.2. Impact of ageing on lees on wine colour

302 Lees are known to interact with and adsorb certain phenolic compounds found in wines.  
303 This adsorption was mainly due to the presence of yeast cells and their fragments. It has  
304 been specifically demonstrated that anthocyanins, the coloured pigments in wine, are  
305 adsorbed onto the yeast cell wall (Morata et al., 2005). This phenomenon, which gives  
306 them decolorizing ability, was observed by Vasserot & Maujean (1998) during

307 experiments on musts of Pinot Noir from the Champagne region. Other phenolic  
308 compounds in wine, such as condensed tannins, are also adsorbed by lees, particularly  
309 the more polar condensed tannins. However, very few monomeric phenolic compounds  
310 are adsorbed onto yeast cells (Mazauric & Salmon, 2005, 2006; Salmon, 2006).

311 Depending on the polyphenolic composition, the browning of wine during ageing in  
312 contact with lees has been reported by several authors. Ibern-Gomez et al., (2000) studied  
313 this phenomenon in sparkling wine made from Macabeo, Xarel·lo, Parellada, and  
314 Chardonnay cultivars. The analysed Cavas analysed suffered colour changes during  
315 ageing in contact with lees, due to the oxidation of phenolic compounds. Cultivars seem  
316 to influence browning: Chardonnay Cavas were the most susceptible to oxidation during  
317 ageing. Hydroxycinnamates, were the group of phenols most susceptible to oxidation  
318 such as *trans*-caftaric acid, *cis*-caftaric acid, and 2-S-glutathionyl- caftaric acid.

### 319 3.3. Impact of wine ageing on lees on sensory properties of wines: aroma and taste

320 The volatile contribution of wine lees has been studied extensively. It might be easy to  
321 relate an enhancement of volatile composition in wines aged in the presence of lees, due  
322 to an eventual release of adsorbed volatiles, or even their production by viable yeast cells.  
323 Some authors have observed an increase in wine volatile compounds in the presence of  
324 lees (Bueno et al., 2006; Masino et al., 2008; Pati et al., 2012b; Pérez-Magariño et al.,  
325 2015; Rodríguez-Bencomo et al., 2010) by a general increase in ethyl and lactic esters,  
326 higher alcohols, acetic esters, fatty acids, terpenes, and lactones (Bautista et al., 2007;  
327 Bueno et al., 2006; Loscos et al., 2009).

328 Jiménez Moreno & Ancín Azpilicueta (2007) reported the retention of volatile  
329 compounds by wine lees during ageing in oaks. The compounds with the highest affinity  
330 for lees were eugenol, 4-propylguaiacol, 4-methylguaiacol, furfural, and 5-methylfurfural  
331 (smoky and toasted aromas). In addition, their results showed that lees could also bind

332 other compounds important for aroma in aged wine, such as oak lactones (coconut  
333 aroma), to a lesser degree. Guaiacol and g-nonalactone were the only compounds that  
334 could not be bound by the lees (Jiménez Moreno & Ancín Azpilicueta, 2007).

335 Karagiannis & Lanaridis (2000) and Lavigne (1995) investigated the effect of white wine  
336 conservation conditions on the levels of volatile sulphur compounds (thiols). They found  
337 that the amount of these compounds is influenced by whether the wine is stored in barrels  
338 or stainless-steel tanks, the duration of contact with lees, and the overall conservation  
339 period. Racking wines immediately after alcoholic fermentation and storing them in tanks  
340 or barrels does not lead to a reduction in odours within the first two days. In contrast,  
341 keeping wines on total lees for the same period significantly increased sulphur  
342 compounds (such as H<sub>2</sub>S, CS<sub>2</sub>, DMS, methanethiol, methional, and their derived  
343 compounds), potentially causing olfactory defects (Karagiannis & Lanaridis, 2000).  
344 However, aeration can reduce the quantity of these volatile sulphur compounds (Lavigne,  
345 1995). Similar observations concerning ethanethiol and methanethiol have already been  
346 reported by Ledoux et al. (1992). With no exception for volatile compounds, the origin  
347 of wine lees and the vinification process have a strong impact on the volatiles released in  
348 wine. Indeed, it has been found that lees from different yeast strains have varying abilities  
349 to release volatile compounds from their precursors (Del Barrio-Galán, Pérez-Magariño,  
350 Ortega-Heras, et al., 2011).

351 Finally, contact between lees and dry wines also influences the release of non-volatile  
352 compounds that affect the taste of wine. Certain proteins, peptides, and free amino acids  
353 resulting from yeast hydrolysis possess taste properties, such as bitterness, umami, and  
354 sweetness (Sirisena et al., 2024). Marchal et al. (2011) demonstrated the contribution of  
355 the Hsp12 protein (12 kDa) to the perception of sweetness after yeast autolysis in wine.  
356 Other studies have also revealed that certain compounds from yeast can enhance the

357 perception of the intensity of other flavours, known as kokumi substances (Chang et al.,  
358 2022). These compounds, present in wines, are partly responsible for some of the  
359 properties attributed to ageing on lees.

### 360 3.5. Antioxidant properties of lees during ageing

361 The antioxidant properties of wine lees have been demonstrated, particularly during  
362 ageing. Although these properties are often attributed to the content of adsorbed  
363 polyphenols (Jara-Palacios, 2019; Morata et al., 2005; Vasserot et al., 1997), these  
364 compounds do not necessarily reflect the intrinsic antioxidant potential of lees during  
365 wine ageing. Early studies on the antioxidant properties of lees have highlighted their  
366 ability to consume oxygen under simulated ageing conditions (Fornairon et al., 1999;  
367 Salmon et al., 2000). This oxygen consumption is not related to persistent cell viability  
368 but rather results from the involvement of the lipid fraction of lees, particularly sterols  
369 and ergosterol (Fornairon-Bonnefond & Salmon, 2003; Salmon, 2006). However, the  
370 ability of lees to bind oxygen alone does not fully explain their protective effect against  
371 the premature oxidation of aroma in white wines (Ribéreau-Gayon et al., 2006).

372 During ageing, lees release highly reducing substances that limit oxidative phenomena.  
373 In this regard, the research of Dubourdieu & Lavigne-Cruege (2004) highlighted the  
374 preservation of significant concentrations of glutathione (GSH) in white wines aged on  
375 lees. This peptide, with antioxidant properties, is present in grapes and is also released by  
376 yeast after alcoholic fermentation. Its content in wine is related to pressing conditions as  
377 well as the yeast strain responsible for fermentation, with concentrations sometimes  
378 below the quantification threshold, and in some cases, reaching up to 70 mg/L after  
379 fermentation (Fracassetti et al., 2011; Kritzinger et al., 2013). The role of glutathione in  
380 protecting the aroma of white wine is well established (Lavigne et al., 2007). More  
381 specifically, during ageing on lees, glutathione helps prevent the detrimental effects of

382 oxidation on wine aroma (Lavigne et al., 2007; Ribéreau-Gayon et al., 2006). Its free  
383 sulfhydryl group (-SH) provides reducing and nucleophilic properties, which are thought  
384 to be responsible for its protective effect against oxidation chain reactions (Kritzinger et  
385 al., 2013). That is why, some yeast extract derivatives are used in winemaking to protect  
386 wine from oxidation. However, De Iseppi, Curioni, et al. (2024) demonstrated that wine  
387 lees exhibit an antioxidant activity comparable to extracts obtained from the same yeast  
388 strain grown under optimal conditions in lab, highlighting their potential as an alternative  
389 to commercial antioxidant products. Interestingly, wine lees retain their antioxidant  
390 properties even after extraction and oxidation, whereas a model flavonoid solution loses  
391 them, indicating that these properties are not solely attributable to flavonoids, but also to  
392 another compounds (Ye et al., 2023).

393 Moreover, yeast autolysis leads to the release of cell wall constituents such as glucans  
394 and mannoproteins (Fornairon-Bonnefond et al., 2001). These mannoproteins are then  
395 hydrolysed by the proteases present in the medium (Charpentier & Freyssinet, 1989). The  
396 work of Jaehrig et al. (2007) demonstrated that products resulting from hydrolysis of the  
397 yeast cell wall possess antioxidant activity. In particular, hydrolysis of mannoproteins  
398 and cell wall proteins leads to the release of antioxidant peptides (Jaehrig et al., 2008).  
399 Similar results were obtained by Alcaide-Hidalgo et al. (2007), who showed that yeast  
400 autolysis under model wine conditions led to the increased release of both hydrophilic  
401 and hydrophobic antioxidant peptides. More recently, a study of the antioxidant  
402 metabolome of white wines conducted by (Romanet et al., 2023) revealed an increase in  
403 sulphur (-S) and nitrogen (-N) compounds in wines aged on lees, likely due to the release  
404 of antioxidant peptides.

405 4. Valorisation of wine lees

406 The generation of residues or by-products in the production of any food and beverage  
407 industry is directly related to quick recycling and residue management. During  
408 winemaking the processing of one ton of grapes generates around 0.06 tons of wine lees,  
409 that represents the second most important waste (10%) after grape marc (25%) in terms  
410 of quantity. Studies on wine lees management have been conducted since the early 90's  
411 (Ehlinger et al., 1992). The complexity in composition, and more precisely its high  
412 concentrations of Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) of approximately 30,000 mg/L,  
413 suspended solids, polyphenols, heavy metals, and low pH, make wine lees a difficult  
414 residue management with high environmental impact as a pollutant (Da Ros, Cavinato,  
415 Pavan, et al., 2014; Ehlinger et al., 1992; Montalvo et al., 2020). Thus, the management  
416 of wine lees is still being explored, with distillation remaining the primary use. The  
417 various stages of winemaking can significantly affect the composition of wine lees,  
418 thereby influencing their potential applications (Figure 3). The following paragraphs  
419 address the various ways in which lees can be recycled in different sectors (Table 3) by  
420 different processing technologies (Figure 5). First, studies on the valorisation of wine lees  
421 through distillation and anaerobic digestion will be described, as these are the most  
422 common methods of utilization. Next, we present an overview of the valorisation of lees,  
423 focusing on the valuable properties of their extracts and exploring the various applications  
424 of lees and their extracts across different sectors.

#### 425 4.1. Distillation of lees

426 Wine lees can be valorised by recovering their alcohol by distillation, particularly to  
427 produce various alcoholic beverages. Here are the general steps of this process: (i)  
428 collection of wine lees, (ii) re-fermentation to release more alcohol, and (iii) distillation.  
429 Distillation separates volatile compounds, including alcohols, from solid residues. The  
430 final product is a distillate, which can be used as a base for various alcoholic beverages.

431 Depending on the desired final product, distillate can be aged in wooden barrels to  
432 develop additional flavours and characteristics. It is worth noting that the quality of the  
433 final product depends on many factors, including the quality of the wine lees,  
434 fermentation, and distillation processes. Some producers use wine lees as the main  
435 ingredient for specific spirits, whereas others combine them with other ingredients to  
436 create more complex blends. The reuse of wine lees in distillation can help reduce waste  
437 and create unique and interesting spirits. The by-products obtained after distillation  
438 (*vinasses*) contain extractable compounds that can be further exploited.

439 Recently, a pilot-scale solar still was proposed for recovering water from wet wine lees  
440 and concentrating the solid fraction enriched in bioactive compounds through solar  
441 distillation (Mastoras et al., 2023), representing a promising and sustainable methodology  
442 for future applications.

#### 443 4.2. Anaerobic digestion

444 Researchers have developed different strategies to anaerobically digest wine lees and  
445 other winemaking by-products to obtain less environmentally damaging residues while  
446 simultaneously producing energy. Anaerobic digestion is a biological process in which  
447 microorganisms break down organic matter, such as waste or biomass, in the absence of  
448 oxygen, to produce biogas and digestate. In this context, as a biorefinery is a facility that  
449 converts biomass into a variety of valuable products, such as biofuels, chemicals, and  
450 materials, aligning with the principles of Circular Economy and guided by Life Cycle  
451 Analysis, biorefining wine waste has emerged as a promising approach for transforming  
452 wine lees into valuable raw materials (Cortés et al., 2019; Hungría et al., 2021).

453 The use of wine lees for composting has also been described. The composting process is  
454 the natural biological decomposition of organic matter, such as food scraps, yard waste,  
455 and agricultural residues, by microorganisms in the presence of oxygen. During this

456 aerobic process, bacteria, fungi, and other decomposers break down organic material into  
457 humus, a nutrient-rich substance that can be used to improve soil quality. In 2013,  
458 Paradelo et al. (2013) first described the composting process of winery wastes, including  
459 spent grape marc and wine lees, in the laboratory for five months. After the process, the  
460 initial phytotoxicity decreased rapidly and the pH increased close to neutrality during the  
461 first two-three months. The described composting was performed in batch, under  
462 mesophilic temperature (20-45°C), not reaching the thermophilic range. Interestingly, the  
463 most promising winery by-product for anaerobic digestion are wine lees (Da Ros et al.,  
464 2017), with an estimated potential of 0.37 N m<sup>3</sup>CH<sub>4</sub>/kg volatile solid fed. Indeed, the  
465 amount of biogas generated from wine lees digestion is sufficient to cover the  
466 management costs and the necessary energy of the production plant (Da Ros et al., 2016;  
467 Montalvo et al., 2020b). Therefore, there is an increasing interest of using wine lees in  
468 anaerobic digestion, and it has been proposed the co-digestion of waste activated sludge  
469 and wine lees as economic advantageous approach, as it could also produce energy as  
470 biogas – up to 0.4 N m<sup>3</sup>/kg COD fed, 65% CH<sub>4</sub> – (Cavinato et al., 2014). This approach  
471 was further developed at the pilot scale, producing similar biogas yields but reaching a  
472 thermophilic temperature (Da Ros, Cavinato, Pavan, et al., 2014). Authors observed a  
473 good stabilization level and a reduction of 60% of total and volatile solids. In addition,  
474 the concentrations of pollutants and heavy metals were significantly reduced even if the  
475 raw wine lees presented high concentration of these compounds. Because lees  
476 polyphenols have a negative effect on the microbiota during digestion, the removal or  
477 extraction of these compounds has been proposed as a pre-treatment to increase biogas  
478 yield (Da Ros, Cavinato, Cecchi, et al., 2014; Nikolaidou et al., 2016). Other approaches,  
479 such as electro-oxidation and the addition of biochar to the anaerobic digestion of wine  
480 lees, have been investigated to increase biogas production (Arenas Sevillano et al., 2020),

481 even if some authors did not show an improvement in biomethane production when  
482 adding biochar (Chiappero et al., 2023). Another approach to improve anaerobic  
483 digestion using lees was proposed in García Álvaro et al. (2024) and Lanfranchi et al.  
484 (2025), in which the addition of microparticles – iron- (magnetite) or carbon(graphite)-  
485 based microparticles– showed increases in methane production of more than a 30%. During  
486 the process, microparticles help to mitigate the effects of accumulation of toxic  
487 compounds as phenolic compounds, fatty acids, and low pH.

488 In addition, heavy metals from vine treatments can compromise lees digestion. Therefore,  
489 white wine lees from ecological crops appear to be more beneficial for the maintenance  
490 of methanogenic archaea (Hungria et al., 2020). Acetate can also be produced by  
491 anaerobic digestion from wine lees (red and white) with the endogenous microbiota or  
492 inoculating specific microorganisms (Lanfranchi et al., 2025).

493 Furthermore, wine lees have been used to produce electrical energy in microbial fuel cells  
494 (MFC)(Pepe Sciarria et al., 2015). These authors observed that higher yields of electricity  
495 were obtained with white wine lees due to the inhibition of electron transfer bacteria  
496 attributed to red wine lees polyphenols. Nevertheless, polyphenols from lees can be used  
497 for solar energy exploitation. Meneghetti et al., (2020) designed a low-cost photovoltaic  
498 device in which polyphenols derived from red wine lees were adsorbed on nanostructured  
499 ordered mesoporous titanium dioxide. They obtained a comparable photocurrent density  
500 and photovoltage to other organic dye-sensitized solar cells produced with other  
501 vegetables and fruits.

502 Peng et al. (2021) proposed an innovative wine lees-based porous carbon framework for  
503 use in symmetrical supercapacitors, achieving a stable voltage window and high energy  
504 density. This eco-friendly approach highlights the originality and promise of wine lees  
505 valorisation for developing sustainable, high-performance energy storage solutions.

#### 506 4.3. Extraction of high added value compounds from wine lees

507 The direct valorisation strategy for a by-product is the extraction and recovery of its high  
508 value compounds. Most studies (66%) have concentrated on extracting bioactive  
509 compounds from lees obtained after alcoholic fermentation, whereas only 33% have  
510 explored lees derived from malolactic fermentation (Melo et al., 2024).

511 Tartaric acid has traditionally been recovered from wine lees (red or white) mainly after  
512 distillation (vinasse). Tartaric acid is an important acidifier used in different applications  
513 such as food, beverages, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and the chemical industry. Its  
514 recovery consists of the first solubilization in liquid from wine lees, followed by a  
515 crystallization process, in which tartaric acid is recovered as calcium tartrate (Salgado et  
516 al., 2010). The solubilization of tartaric acid is typically performed under acidic  
517 conditions in the presence of HCl (Salgado et al., 2010) or H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (Kontogiannopoulos et  
518 al., 2017). It can also be extracted with water, thereby avoiding the use of other chemicals  
519 (Kontogiannopoulos et al., 2016). After solubilization, solubilized tartaric acid can be  
520 further concentrated using nanofiltration (1 kDa molecular weight cut-off threshold)  
521 (Kontogiannopoulos et al., 2017), and cation exchange resins (Kontogiannopoulos et al.,  
522 2016). Tartaric acid can be also recovered from vinasses in the form of tartaric acid  
523 crystals and calcium tartrate. The residual streams generated in this process can be used  
524 as economic nutrients to produce xylitol by *Debaryomyces hansenii* (Salgado et al.,  
525 2010).

526 Among the highly valuable compounds of wine lees, phenolic compounds are the most  
527 studied and appreciated due to their highly diverse applications. As previously described,  
528 the stage at which these lees are generated impact the performance of bioactives  
529 compounds extracted. It was highlighted that red lees obtained after malolactic  
530 fermentation (Mir-Cerdà et al., 2023; Umsza-Guez et al., 2023) contain higher levels of

531 phenolic acids and anthocyanins compared to red lees collected after alcoholic  
532 fermentation (Giacobbo et al. 2019).

533 The conventional solubilization of phenolic compounds from lees is generally performed  
534 in a hydroethanolic solution (mostly between 50-70%, v/v). These studies account for  
535 approximately 70 % of the published articles, and in recent years, new extraction  
536 techniques have been increasingly studied and applied to wine lees. Among these,  
537 ultrasound-assisted extraction is reported in 31 % of the studies, microwave-assisted  
538 techniques in 28 %, enzymatic processes in 6 %, membrane separation in 31 %, eutectic  
539 solvents in 4 %, supercritical and pressurized fluids in 4 %, and combined methods in 6  
540 % (Melo et al., 2024).

541 Kopsahelis et al. (2018) reported the importance of pre-treatments in a biorefinery to  
542 improve the extraction yields of both polyphenols and tartaric acid. First, ultrasound was  
543 proposed as a technique to enhance polyphenol extraction yield (Tao et al., 2014) and  
544 antioxidant activity or bioactive related compound extraction (Dujmić et al., 2020)  
545 compared to conventional extraction with organic solvents. Microwave-assisted  
546 extraction has also been tested as a pre-treatment (Arboleda Meija et al., 2019; Matos et  
547 al., 2019), and optimized (Tagkouli et al., 2022) for polyphenol extraction. Other research  
548 compared the efficiency of some pre-treatments as in Romero-Díez et al. (2019), where  
549 they found that microwave pre-treatment increased the extraction yield, whereas  
550 ultrasound had no clear effect. In contrast, Tapia-Quirós et al. (2020) considering  
551 investment and operational costs, ultrasound-assisted solid-liquid extraction can be  
552 proposed for future scale-up evaluation. Moreover, as an alternative to conventional  
553 solvents, other natural deep eutectic solvents (NaDESs) can be used, coupled with  
554 ultrasound- assisted extraction (Bosiljkov et al., 2017). Other pre-treatments found in the  
555 literature are pressurized liquid extraction (Tapia-Quirós et al., 2020), or ultrasonic and

556 enzymatic assisted extraction (Arboleda Mejia et al., 2020). In this way, ultrasound-  
557 assisted extraction using water and ethanol as solvents has been proposed as an efficient  
558 method to recover bioactive compounds from wine lees, operating at low temperature  
559 (30°C) and requiring only 15 minutes (De Luca et al., 2023). Other possible strategies  
560 compromise the induced lysis by combining mechanical and physical treatments (Cotârlet  
561 et al., 2025) or the recovery via non-ionic polymeric resins (Gaglianò et al., 2025).  
562 Overall, these innovative extraction methods have demonstrated significantly higher  
563 yields compared to conventional techniques like maceration. Among them, ultrasound-  
564 assisted extraction stood out as the most effective, particularly when used as a  
565 complementary approach, offering superior recovery of bioactive polyphenolic  
566 compounds from wine lees due to its ability to disrupt cell walls and enhance solvent  
567 penetration (Melo et al., 2024).

568 Once polyphenols have been extracted, these extracts can be further concentrated using  
569 membrane technology. Because these extracts are rich in colloids, an initial clarification  
570 step using a microfiltration membrane is recommended (Cassano et al., 2019; Giacobbo  
571 et al., 2017), or even filtration through a 2 mm nylon fibber (Arboleda Mejia et al., 2020).  
572 Then, green chemistry and circular economy approaches can be used to further  
573 concentrate the bioactive compounds. This approach allows the use of water as a solvent,  
574 eliminating the need for other, less desirable solvents (Cassano et al., 2019; Tapia-Quirós,  
575 Montenegro-Landívar, Reig, et al., 2022). The nanofiltration membranes present a high  
576 rejection coefficient for polyphenols; thus, preferably find them in the retentate, which  
577 can reach up to 99% of retention for anthocyanins (Cassano et al., 2019b). Cellulose  
578 acetate membranes can also exhibit good rejection of phenolic compounds and low sugar  
579 levels, enabling their selective separation (Arboleda Mejia et al., 2020). Membrane-based  
580 schemes are multifunctional, and their setup can be used to purify different fractions.

581 Giacobbo et al. (2017) reported a microfiltration membrane followed by nanofiltration to  
582 obtain a concentrated **solution of red wine lees from second racking** with a high  
583 antioxidant capacity. Moreover, with the aim of separating polyphenols and  
584 polysaccharides, an intermediate ultrafiltration membrane allows their separation, as  
585 polysaccharides are retained by the ultrafiltration membrane, and then polyphenols by the  
586 nanofiltration membrane, retaining more than the 90% of the total polyphenols (Mejia et  
587 al., 2022; Reig-Valor et al., 2024). This has also been reported as a promising result for  
588 reverse osmosis, comparable to those obtained with nanofiltration (Tapia-Quirós,  
589 Montenegro-Landívar, Reig, et al., 2022). **Other configurations include polyvinylidene**  
590 **difluoride membranes in line with ultrafiltration using poly-acrylonitrile and polyether**  
591 **sulfone membranes of 5 and 30 kDa** (Mir-Cerdà et al., 2023). In general, the application  
592 of polyphenols extracted from lees is related to the production of antioxidants in different  
593 industrial fields (Tapia-Quirós, Montenegro-Landívar, Vecino, et al., 2022).

594 Gómez et al. (2004) studied and developed a methodology for the characterization of  
595 lipids from the lees of **sherry wine** in food as antioxidants. Lipid content, extractability,  
596 and fatty acid composition were determined to evaluate their potential use as food or food  
597 additives. The major fraction of lipids from lees of Sherry wine was formed by sterols  
598 (about 25%), followed by the glycolipids and sterol esters (18 and 16%, respectively),  
599 and the minor fraction corresponded to the phospholipids. Squalene, a natural triterpene  
600 largely used in pharmaceuticals (used as a strategy to prevent, control, or treat diseases),  
601 was found in wine lees (Naziri et al., 2012). In this study, squalene was extracted using  
602 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (scCO<sub>2</sub>) (Naziri et al., 2016) with ultrasonic pre-treatments to increase  
603 the extraction yield. Using scCO<sub>2</sub>, the total squalene content in the extracts was found to  
604 be 16.9 g/kg of lees, a value comparable to that obtained using ultrasound-assisted  
605 extraction (20.4 g/kg of hexane extract) or a reference method (acid-assisted extraction

606 using organic solvents) (17.6 g/kg). In addition to being a solvent-free process, a key  
607 advantage of supercritical extraction over other conventional extraction methods is the  
608 lack of oxidation products.

609 Recently, Winstel et al. (2024) an optimized method was proposed to extract and analyse  
610 glutathione (GSH, a tripeptide with high antioxidant activity) from **white wine lees**  
611 **recovered after alcoholic fermentation**. Using an experiment based on the Box-Behnken  
612 design, several parameters, such as the type of solvent, extraction time, and solid–liquid  
613 ratio, were optimized. The results showed that the main factor influencing the extraction  
614 efficiency was the ethanol concentration. Optimal and sustainable conditions for the  
615 highest GSH content were obtained using a water solution containing 10 g/L of lees for  
616 105 min. Similarly, Poulain et al., (2024) showed an optimized method for the extraction  
617 of antioxidant compounds from white wine lees **(racked after alcoholic fermentation)**  
618 using subcritical water. Thus, due to the presence of various families of antioxidant  
619 compounds (polyphenols, lipids, and peptides), these studies highlight the potential of  
620 wine lees as a novel source of antioxidants for applications in food, nutraceuticals,  
621 pharmaceuticals, and cosmetic products.

622 The recovery of yeast cell wall polysaccharides for the extraction of glycol-compounds,  
623 such as mannoproteins, could represent another way for valorisation of wine lees. In 1999,  
624 Moine-Ledoux & Dubourdieu (1999) isolated a fragment of *S. cerevisiae*'s invertase  
625 enzyme (Glucanex®) that is used for protein stabilization of wines. This process was  
626 applied at the industrial level to produce a haze-protective additive for winemaking.

627 Recently, wine **lees from red and white winemaking** have been used as emulsifiers in  
628 foods by De Iseppi, Marangon, Lomolino, et al. (2021). In this study, mannoprotein  
629 precipitation with ethanol was used to obtain the  $\beta$ -glucan fraction that had a thickening  
630 action. In addition, De Iseppi, Marangon, Vincenzi, et al. (2021) showed that with three

631 methods, enzymatic hydrolysis, ultrasonication, and autoclaving, it is possible to  
632 efficiently extract glycol compounds. Nevertheless, each method allowed the extraction  
633 of glycol-compounds of different natures with different potential applications. Autoclave-  
634 derived extracts were more suitable for tartrate stabilization, whereas ultrasonicated and  
635 enzymatic methods were more effective in stabilizing the proteins of heat-unstable wines.  
636 More specifically, Varelas et al. (2016) extracted  $\beta$ -glucans from wine lees and recovered  
637 as insoluble  $\beta$ -glucans. This study used a combination of autolysis and hot NaOH  
638 treatment to extract  $\beta$ -glucans. The content of  $\beta$ -glucans extracted from red wine lees was  
639 found to be lower (29%, w/w) than that extracted from white wine lees (43%, w/w). The  
640 difference in extraction yields seems to be linked to the presence of polyphenols in red  
641 wine lees, which inhibit endogenous glucanase. Besides, the  $\beta$ -glucan content can vary  
642 from 2.77 to 39.36% depending on the variety and winemaking technology (Chioru  
643 2024).

644 Another interesting property of wine lees extracts from Japan white grapes of the Niagara  
645 variety is their antimicrobial activity. Photo-irradiated aqueous extracts from wine lees  
646 generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) at a sufficient concentration to exhibit  
647 antimicrobial effects against bacterial species, such as *Staphylococcus aureus* and  
648 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, or yeasts, such as *Candida albicans* (Tsukada et al., 2016).  
649 These wine lees extracts could be an alternative to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the food industry.

650 It is worth noting that the wine lees analyzed across the selected studies underwent  
651 various pretreatment steps, with sample drying being particularly prominent. Notably, in  
652 50 % of the reviewed works, freeze-drying was employed prior to extraction, leading to  
653 markedly higher yields of bioactive compounds when compared to traditional convection  
654 drying techniques.

655 Currently, high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) is frequently employed for  
656 the analysis of extracted compounds, such as polyphenols or antioxidant peptides like  
657 glutathione. However, further research is needed to develop comprehensive analytical  
658 methods that can characterize wine lees from various origins and support the selection of  
659 appropriate valorisation strategies based on their specific bioactive compound profiles.  
660 The development of such precise and standardized techniques would enable a more  
661 controlled and targeted use of wine lees in various applications.

#### 662 4.4. Production of microbial biomass for fermentation

663 The high nutrient and nitrogen availability of wine lees have been extensively used for  
664 microbial propagation and fermentation (Pérez-Bibbins et al., 2015). Researchers have  
665 evaluated the potential of wine lees as a nitrogen source in defined media to propagate  
666 different lactic acid bacteria (LAB). It was observed that white wine lees, especially after  
667 distillation, were the most suitable for the growth of some *Lactobacillus* sp. in a medium  
668 containing 100 g/L glucose and 20 g/L wine lees (Bustos et al., 2004a, 2004b). The effect  
669 of tartaric acid present in wine lees on the growth of *Lactobacillus pentosus* was also  
670 examined. It was concluded that *L. pentosus* could grow with or without tartaric acid and  
671 simultaneously produce lactic acid (B. Rivas et al., 2006). The growth of *Lactococcus*  
672 *lactis* commonly used in the dairy industry was also promoted with wine lees as a nitrogen  
673 source using distilled wine lees, and the microorganism efficiently produced lactic acid  
674 and biosurfactants; thus, wine lees represent an alternative economical culture medium  
675 (Rodríguez et al., 2010). Recently, wine lees have been used in culture medium  
676 formulation as alternative to commercial yeast extract for *S. cerevisiae* and  
677 *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* growth with diverse but promising results  
678 (Kokkinomagoulos & Kandyliis, 2024).

679 Wine alcoholic fermentation can also be promoted with extracts coming from white wine  
680 lees. Onetto et al. (2024) showed that the addition of autolysis or enzymatic-treated lees  
681 can significantly reduce fermentation duration due to an increase in amino acids and trace  
682 elements, supporting its use as an alternative to commercial yeast extracts.

683 In this regard, Balmaseda et al. (2024) studied the potential application of white wine lees  
684 recovered after alcoholic fermentation and wine aging as a stimulating agent for the  
685 growth of wine LAB and for promoting malolactic fermentation in red wine. It has been  
686 demonstrated that the addition of wine lees can reduce the malolactic fermentation  
687 duration in wines with high bacterial populations ( $> 10^4$  cell/mL), and at the same time,  
688 enable bacterial growth to perform the total conversion of L-malic acid to L-lactic acid  
689 (Balmaseda et al., 2024).

690 The potential use of wine lees as a nutrient for microalgal production has also been  
691 evaluated by several authors. Microalgae are photosynthetic microorganisms that are  
692 highly dependent on light and other operating parameters (Wobbe & Remacle, 2015). In  
693 this sense, it seems that the use of wine lees as a nitrogen source increases the specific  
694 growth rate of *Chlorella sorokiniana*, a species of freshwater green microalgae, by  
695 reducing the problems of light shielding observed in photoautotrophic cultures (León-  
696 Vaz et al., 2019). Wine lees enabled similar biomass growth of *C. vulgaris*, a dietary  
697 supplement or protein-rich food additive in Japan, compared with that obtained in other  
698 culture media with glycerol supplementation (Salati et al., 2017), as well as an appropriate  
699 lipid composition for microbial biodiesel production (Scarponi et al., 2021). Special  
700 attention should be paid to wine lees microbiota that can compromise the fermentation  
701 process and inhibit microalgal growth (Veronesi et al., 2020).

702 Microalgae growth can be enhanced with other wine lees related approaches. Scarponi et  
703 al. (2024) proposed a semi-continuous system for microalgae cultivation using the liquid

704 fraction from the anaerobic digestion of wine lees, offering a promising approach for both  
705 detoxification of wine lees and sustainable microalgae production. Also, Lanfranchi et al.  
706 (2025) used wine lees for anaerobic acetate production that could be coupled with  
707 microalgae production.

708 Various authors have proposed an integrated biorefinery to produce different  
709 fermentative products from wine lees (Filippi et al., 2022; S. M. Ioannidou et al., 2022).  
710 These authors recuperated ethanol, antioxidants, and tartaric acid, and produced a  
711 nutrient-rich hydrolysate that was used for succinic acid production by *Actinobacillus*  
712 *succinogenes*. Fermentations with *A. succinogenes* and *Basfia succiniproducens* were  
713 performed with wine lees for the same purpose (Hijosa-Valsero et al., 2022), obtaining  
714 high succinic acid yields. Besides, Hernández-Correa et al. (2023) used wine lees as  
715 organic load to generate different medium-chain carboxylic acids under bioreactor  
716 conditions with fresh bovine rumen fluid. The optimised conditions, with in-line  
717 extraction for the recovery of the produced carboxylic acids, allowed a caprylate/caproate  
718 ratio of 1.2, with *Eubacterium pyruvativorans* as predominant species.

719 Other fermentation technologies that have used wine lees as a nutrient source are (i) the  
720 production of medium-chain carboxylates (for instance, *n*-caprylate and *n*-caproate) in a  
721 reactor microbiome (Hernández-Correa et al., 2023; Kucek et al., 2016), (ii) the  
722 production of poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) by *Cupriavidus necator*, a Gram-negative soil  
723 bacterium (Dimou et al., 2015), (iii) the production of mannitol by *Lactobacillus*  
724 *intermedius* (Hijosa-Valsero et al., 2021; Strong, 2011), (iv) the production of xylitol by  
725 *Debaryomyces hansenii* (Pérez-Bibbins, Torrado-Agrasar, Pérez-Rodríguez, et al., 2015;  
726 Salgado et al., 2010), (v) the production of laccases for different applications by *Trametes*  
727 *pubescens* or *Pleurotus ostreatus* saprobic fungi, a decomposer of the deadwood of  
728 hardwoods (Athanasίου, Gkountela, et al., 2024; Bakratsas et al., 2024; Strong, 2011), or

729 (vi) the microbial propagation of *Trichoderma viride*, a fungal biofungicide (Zhihui et al.,  
730 2008), among others.

## 731 5. Use of wine lees in different industries

732 The potential use of wine lees is not only related to their recycling through different  
733 techniques but could also be used in different industries (Figure 4). In this section, these  
734 promising and emerging applications are discussed.

### 735 5.1 Food

736 Apart from their evident use in winemaking, other food industries have been interested in  
737 using wine lees as ingredients for their products. Their bioactive properties and texture  
738 make wine lees an interesting additive for the food industry **but also, in the case of red**  
739 **wine lees, as natural colorants for jelly production (Gümüş et al., 2024).**

740 Ice cream was the first product to be investigated. Sharma et al. (2015) studied the effect  
741 of wine lees **(from Cabernet sauvignon variety)** addition on the physicochemical  
742 parameters of ice cream. They added different wine lees concentrations, from 0 to 40  
743 g/kg, and observed a dose-dependent decrease in pH and increase in acidity and phenolic  
744 composition. Interestingly, intermediate concentrations of wine lees were reported to be  
745 the most acceptable by the sensory panel, mainly based on the body of the ice cream.  
746 More recently, it was observed that wine lees addition also enhanced nutritional-protein,  
747 carbohydrate, phenolic compounds, antioxidant capacity, functional and rheological –  
748 water holding capacity, and cheese syneresis or yogurt properties in ice cream production  
749 (Sharma & Aglawe, 2022).

750 In this way, the increase in protein concentration is also interesting for the formulation of  
751 other products, such as cereal bars. Some of the ingredients are derived from yeasts; thus,  
752 wine lees represent a low-cost and high-value source of various yeast-derived

753 compounds. Indeed, Borges et al. (2021) observed that an increase in the protein  
754 concentration in cereal bars with autolysed yeast biomass from wine lees (from *Vitis*  
755 *labrusca* and racked after alcoholic fermentation) was also accepted by a consumer panel.  
756 Red wine lees can be used not only as a protein substitute, but also as a fat replacer in  
757 muffin production, where they can effectively replace sunflower oil while improving  
758 rheological, textural, and colorimetric properties, as well as pore size and sensory  
759 attributes of the final product (Bianchi et al., 2023). Thus, replacing fat concentration in  
760 the product, addressing consumers' demands for low-fat foods. This has been also studied  
761 by Kaynarca (2024) when using wine lees as alternative to egg proteins in the formulation  
762 of low-cost spreadable emulsions. In this regard, sugar content can also be reduced by  
763 incorporating dietary fiber, aligning with consumer demand for lower-sugar products. In  
764 this context, M. Á. Rivas et al. (2024) proposed the addition of wine lees to tomato sauce,  
765 observing an increase in phenolic compounds and improved technological properties,  
766 with overall consumer appeal comparable to that of the control sauce.

767 The antioxidant and pH-lowering activities of red wine lees have also been successfully  
768 applied as preservatives in deer burgers. Compared to the conventional preservative  
769 sodium ascorbate, red wine lees could increase phenolic compounds and inhibit  
770 psychotropic aerobic bacteria and enterobacteria during storage (Alarcón et al., 2020).  
771 In addition, wine lees provided new volatile compounds related to wine, bakery, and  
772 raisins (Alarcón et al., 2020). Filippou et al., (2022) applied spray-dried polyphenolic  
773 extract to minced bovine meat to retard lipid oxidation.

774 Another interesting approach in the context of the food industry is the application of  
775 polyphenolic compounds recovered from red wine lees and encapsulated with  
776 maltodextrin (Ricci et al., 2022). The application of spray-dried micropowder in food  
777 could enhance their nutritional value, since encapsulated polyphenols can resist *in vitro*

778 digestion, and thus, be absorbed at the gastrointestinal level. The use of wine lees, owing  
779 to their high antioxidant potential, could also enhance food packaging. Incorporating the  
780 dry extract of wine lees into chitosan films strengthens their properties and imparts  
781 excellent antioxidant activity (Athanasiou, Patila, et al., 2024). In addition, the use of  
782 lees in combination with xanthan gum improves the functional properties of the hydrogel,  
783 allowing for healthier product formulations (Kamer et al., 2024).

784 Wine lees have also been incorporated into fresh peach and grape juice preparations  
785 (Prieto-Santiago et al., 2024). The authors demonstrated that red wine lees can extend  
786 shelf life and enhance the nutritional and antimicrobial properties of the beverage, notably  
787 inhibiting *L. monocytogenes*, although other mesophilic microorganisms were not  
788 affected. However, the sensory evaluation revealed low acceptance of the juice containing  
789 wine lees, highlighting the need for further formulation adjustments.

790 All studies show that the low pH and high polyphenolic composition of wine lees can be  
791 exploited in the food industry, as they can inhibit the growth of spoiling  
792 microorganisms, modulate the microbial community, and enhance the antioxidant  
793 capacity of the products.

794 In addition, wine lees can impact the fermentation process of sourdough by enhancing its  
795 probiotic properties and modulating the aroma profile of bread (Martín-Garcia, Comas-  
796 Basté, et al., 2022; Martín-Garcia, Riu-Aumatell, et al., 2022b, 2022a). They can also be  
797 used in the production of biscuits fortified with polyphenols and dietary fibers, showing  
798 a slightly enhanced prebiotic effect (Caponio et al., 2024). In addition, the production of  
799 biogenic amines can be reduced by the addition of wine lees or their phenolic extracts as  
800 ingredients for fermented foods owing to an observed anti-aminogenic effect (Hernández-  
801 Macias et al., 2022). In summary, wine lees can modulate both microbial processes and  
802 aromatic profiles (Martín-Garcia, Riu-Aumatell, et al., 2022a).

803 5.2. Animal feed

804 The high polyphenolic composition and volatile compounds attached to red wine lees can  
805 be exploited in animal feed to improve animal health status or the organoleptic profile of  
806 feed. In addition, the high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids is interesting for using  
807 wine lees for feeding humans or animals (Gómez et al., 2004).

808 The addition of red wine lees to ruminant feed can increase the total nitrogen and  
809 condensed tannin concentrations, which can also improve digestibility *in vitro* (Molina-  
810 Alcaide et al., 2008). Indeed, Y. Sato et al. (2020) observed a wine lees dose-dependent  
811 effect on (i) decrease in gas production, (ii) a decrease in dry matter and crude protein  
812 digestibility, (iii) an increase in polyphenolic content and radical scavenging ability, and  
813 (iv) an increase in the proportion of  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid and total polysaturated fatty acids.  
814 In addition, the increased proportion of ruminal propionate after feeding and plasma  
815 malondialdehyde, an oxidative stress marker, decreased, while phosphorus (P) increased.  
816 Overall, these observations indicate improvements in ruminant feeds (Y. Sato et al.,  
817 2020).

818 Fermentation is a process that can add value to feed, as it is usually done for human food.  
819 Jin et al. (2016) proposed wine lees as a source of carbohydrates and nutrients as a  
820 fermenting fundal substrate to produce fermented products for feeding purposes.  
821 Fermentation with some selected fungi, *Aspergillus oryzae* and *Trichoderma reesei* –  
822 produced fermented wine lees extract enriched in nutrients, proteins, and digestibility.

823 Another interesting application of wine lees in animal feed is the modulation of  
824 organoleptic characteristics of new nutrient formulations. Câmara et al. (2020) studied  
825 the volatiles of different wine lees and related their abundance with different quality and  
826 safety attributes of the aquafeed. They concluded that wine lees can be used as additives  
827 to improve the organoleptic characteristics (aroma and flavour) as well as the health

828 benefits of fish feed. Indeed, some volatiles are antimicrobial, antioxidant, and  
829 antiproliferative agents. Moreover, Martínez-Antequera et al. (2023) also reported a  
830 protective effect associated with improved growth and feed efficiency, as well as  
831 enhanced antioxidant defence against moderate hypoxia in juvenile *Liza aurata* fed with  
832 wine lees.

833 This aspect of improving the health status was also tested in terms of chicken oxidative  
834 status. Animal feed supplemented with wine lees was able to improve antioxidant  
835 mechanisms and muscle oxidative stability without a negative impact on immune  
836 regulation (Mavrommatis et al., 2021b), which can also improve both organisms and meat  
837 oxidative status (Mavrommatis et al., 2021a).

### 838 5.3. Soil treatment

839 Traditionally, wine lees are thrown away, accumulated in soil, and cause soil  
840 disequilibrium problems. Therefore, the law limits their use and prohibits the troughing  
841 of wine lees to soils. However, research on soil treatment with wine lees has opened a  
842 new scenario, in which wine lees can help solve some soil problems. Generally, it seems  
843 that wine lees do not change soil pH but increase soil salinity (Bustamante et al., 2007).  
844 Soil fertility is one of the most important issues in soil management. In this sense,  
845 phosphorus appears an essential micronutrient. Requejo et al. (2016) explored the use of  
846 a compost mixture of wine by-products, including wine lees, which increased soil P  
847 availability and could be retained in calcareous soils, avoiding contamination risks and  
848 being available for much time for crops. Interestingly, increased phosphorus availability  
849 was also observed in ruminant plasma fed wine lees, as previously presented (Y.Sato et  
850 al., 2020a).

851 Wine lees have also been studied as biochar in soil remediation. Biochar is an active  
852 carbon derived from organic matter when applied to soil. Heavy metal accumulation is

853 an important soil health issue that can affect crop growth and affect the food chain. Wine-  
854 lees-derived biochar has been proposed as an adsorbing material in soils contaminated  
855 with  $Pb^{2+}$  (Zhu et al., 2016). The authors described a large specific surface area and total  
856 pore volume with abundant -COOH and -OH radicals on the surface. This biochar has  
857 also been applied to soils contaminated with different heavy metals, and a reduction in  
858 metal mobility and enhanced plant growth has been observed (Xu et al., 2018). In  
859 addition, wine-lees-derived biochar can increase nutrient availability, which also  
860 contributes to increased microbial growth and biodiversity (Xu et al., 2017).

#### 861 5.4. Vermicomposting

862 Vermicomposting is a biological composting process in which earthworms break down  
863 organic matter such as food scraps and plant residues into nutrient-rich compost. This  
864 process not only produces new generations of earthworms but also changes the  
865 physicochemical composition of the substrate in which they are developing.

866 Some authors have explored vermicomposting using different winery by-products  
867 (Nogales et al., 2005, 2020; Romero et al., 2007). They found that the different tested by-  
868 products, including lees after distillation, were suitable for earthworm development, but  
869 the growth was not as high as in manure (Nogales et al., 2005). As a result of the growth  
870 of earthworms, the solid matter increased in pH and nutrients and reduced the C/N ratio,  
871 polyphenols, electrical conductivity, microbial enzymatic activities, and phytotoxicity.  
872 Moreover, these solid by-products can be used in fresh form without any intermediate  
873 transformation processes (Romero et al., 2007). In summary, this application represents  
874 an alternative use for wine lees that generates earthworms and simultaneously reduces  
875 residues (Nogales et al., 2020).

#### 876 5.5. Health and cosmetics

877 The high phenolic content of red wine lees represents a source of bioactive compounds  
878 that can have a strong impact on health. For this reason, the few studies on wine lees  
879 valorisation found in the literature are focused on red wine lees, which possess a higher  
880 polyphenol content. These studies are quite recent and respond to the aim of industrial  
881 by-product valorisation and to the need for bioprospection of natural bioactive  
882 compounds. In this sense, research on health is still in its first stage, using cell or animal  
883 models, far from real human exploitation. The high polyphenolic content of wine lees can  
884 be a source of dietary antioxidants (Landeka Jurčević et al., 2017). The bioactive activities  
885 of wine lees have been investigated in various health issues. First, Landeka Jurčević et al.  
886 (2017) studied the hypolipidemic and antioxidant properties of wine lees in mice with  
887 dietary-induced hypercholesterolemia. They observed that mice fed with wine lees in  
888 dietary-induced hypercholesterolemia significantly decreased the total cholesterol  
889 concentration in serum by reducing triacylglycerol and low-density lipoproteins (LDL).  
890 Only a significant reduction in LDL was observed in normocholesterolemic mice. In  
891 addition, the antioxidant activity of the liver was strongly increased in mice fed with wine  
892 lees in both diet models (Landeka Jurčević et al., 2017).

893 Moreover, Fernández-Bedmar et al. (2019) characterized wine lees and investigated the  
894 anticarcinogenic effect and DNA methylation in a murine hepatocarcinogenesis model.  
895 Their results showed that the phenolic composition of the studied lees was mainly  
896 composed of pyrogallol, gallic acid, syringic acid, and catechins in red wine lees.  
897 Regarding the anticarcinogenic effects, white wine lees reduced DNA hypermethylation.  
898 Additionally, low concentrations of both types of wine lees improved hepatocellular  
899 architecture and decreased the mitotic index. When comparing white and red wine lees,  
900 white lees appear to exhibit a stronger anticarcinogenic potential than red lees. This

901 behaviour may be attributed to the higher pyrogallol, GAE, and syringic acid contents in  
902 white wine lees.

903 This means that the observed anticarcinogenic and hepatocarcinogenesis prevention is  
904 related to white wine lees rather than to red wine lees, which are generally classified as  
905 the most beneficial due to their high polyphenolic composition.

906 The use of wine lees as an antihypertensive compound has also been investigated (López-  
907 Fernández-Sobrino et al., 2022). López-Fernández-Sobrino, Soliz-Rueda, et al. (2021)  
908 described the antihypertensive effects of the soluble fraction of red wine lees in a murine  
909 model. They described potent angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitory activity  
910 in three red wine lees, Cabernet Sauvignon, Mazuelo, and Red Grenache, but only C.  
911 Sauvignon lees exhibited a blood pressure (BP)-lowering effect. In this sense, the BP-  
912 lowering effect was present in lees from the same cultivar collected during different  
913 vintages and was related to their highest anthocyanin and flavanol concentrations. The  
914 observed antihypertensive was enhanced by an enzyme-assisted hydrolysis with a 57.2%  
915 increase in total phenolic compounds, higher and more prolonged than a commercial  
916 antihypertensive drug (López-Fernández-Sobrino, Soliz-Rueda, et al., 2021). In addition,  
917 the effect was dose-dependent and improved in dried wine lees powder (López-  
918 Fernández-Sobrino, Soliz-Rueda, et al., 2021), which was related to an improvement in  
919 endothelial functionality (López-Fernández-Sobrino, Margalef, et al., 2021).  
920 Interestingly, the antihypertensive effects of dried wine lees are related to specific  
921 bioactive peptides with known sequences (Bravo et al., 2022). This observed ACE  
922 inhibitory activity can be further increased by fractioning the obtained hydrolysates  
923 (Fontana et al., 2025). Besides, Moreira et al. (2024) observed that wine lees from  
924 fermentations inoculated with *Starmarella bacillaris* and *S. cerevisiae* were potential  
925 good sources of bioactive peptides, mainly with antihypertensive effects. Other potential

926 observed effects of those peptides were: (i) immunomodulatory, (ii) antimicrobial, (iii)  
927 anti-obesity effects.

928 Wine lees uptake has also been related to the modulation of lipid metabolism. Caro et al.  
929 (2017) observed in zebrafish model that red wine lees polyphenolic extracts reduced  
930 embryos' fat reserve up to 40%, changed lipid metabolism related genes' expression,  
931 modulated fatty acid and phospholipid fractions, and reduced in trans fatty acid content,  
932 resulting in a highly attractive health property for food innovation.

933 As stated previously, wine lees can exert prebiotic and probiotic effects by modulating  
934 the gut microbiota. A recent study (Martín-García et al., 2022) showed an increase in the  
935 relative abundance of probiotic bacteria belonging to the *Lactobacillaceae* family, as well  
936 as other potentially probiotic species, such as *Blautia hansenii*, *Roseburia intestinalis*,  
937 and *Ruminococcus obeum*, when supplementing a rats' diet with sparkling Cava lees. In  
938 contrast, the abundance of certain pathogenic bacteria was reduced, showing a  
939 modulating effect on the gut microbiota with dietary supplementation with lees.

940 The antioxidant capacity of red wine lees extracts has also been tested in terms of  
941 antioxidant activity through chemical and cell-based assays, focusing on the inhibition of  
942 enzymes relevant to skin ageing, demonstrating their potential use as cosmeceuticals  
943 (Matos et al., 2019) in topical application (Gonçalves et al., 2024), or in the prevention  
944 of inflammation and oxidative stress (Sánchez-Bravo et al., 2025).

945 In summary, there is increasing interest in the application of wine lees, with studies  
946 focusing on determining the appropriate consumption concentration and testing their  
947 suitability in humans to better understand the physiological response in our species.

948 5.6. Innovative materials

949 In addition to the previously introduced applications of wine lees, they can be used in the  
950 fabrication of innovative materials. Carbon quantum dots (CQDs) are tiny carbon-based  
951 nanoparticles with unique fluorescence properties that are used in applications such as  
952 bioimaging, sensors, and energy storage because of their low toxicity and stability.  
953 Therefore, wine lees have been proposed as a raw material for producing carbon quantum  
954 dots (CQDs)(Varisco et al., 2017). In this study, a complete synthetic pathway is  
955 discussed, including carbonization of the starting material, screening of the most suitable  
956 solvent for the extraction of CQDs from the carbonized mass, and their hydrophobic or  
957 hydrophilic functionalization. A smooth scale-up process was achieved. They  
958 successfully produced CQDs with a quantum yield (QY) of approximately 6%, a value  
959 commonly reported for pure CQDs in literature.

960 Wine lees have shown strong potential as bio-fillers in biocomposites—materials  
961 composed of biodegradable polymers such as poly(butylene adipate-co-terephthalate)  
962 (PBAT) and polybutylene succinate (PBS), combined with natural additives (Biagi et al.,  
963 2024). These polymers must be filled. In this way, wine lees, when used as fillers, can  
964 play a key role in enhancing the properties of fully bio-based materials. These  
965 biocomposites present promising potential for agricultural applications, including  
966 biodegradable vineyard ties, as well as for sustainable packaging solutions. Besides, wine  
967 lees can be used in the formulation of composite edible films in combination with  
968 carrageenan with potential application in food packaging (Gumus et al., 2024).

## 969 6. Final remarks and future perspectives

970 Despite being of interest in winemaking, particularly during ageing, due to their ability  
971 to release compounds that enhance the organoleptic properties of wine, as well as their  
972 chemical and oxidative stability, wine lees have received relatively little attention in terms  
973 of comprehensive analysis to determine their overall composition. After winemaking,

974 some of the lees are often treated by distillation for ethanol production (for spirits) or to  
975 recover tartaric acid for various purposes. Lees, whether derived from winemaking or  
976 distillation, represent a rich organic by-product with numerous applications. The  
977 polyphenolic fraction, peptides, and lipids are often studied for their potential to produce  
978 antioxidant products for health and food applications, while mannoproteins, owing to  
979 their techno-functional properties, are utilized mainly in food and beverages. The  
980 nitrogenous fraction plays an important role as a nutrient in animal feed and soil. Studies  
981 have also highlighted the interest of nitrogenous matter in lees for the growth of  
982 microorganisms, opening the way to targeted biotechnological applications.

983 Despite their potential industrial utility and high-value components, wine lees have been  
984 relatively understudied and underutilized. Certain intrinsic characteristics of lees may  
985 affect their suitability for specific applications. Colour compounds, particularly in red  
986 wine lees rich, may pose challenges in industries where colour neutrality is preferred,  
987 such as in cosmetics or certain food formulations. Additionally, nucleic acids and cell  
988 debris present in lees can interfere with biotechnological processes like enzymatic  
989 reactions or microbial fermentations, potentially requiring additional purification or pre-  
990 treatments steps.

991 Furthermore, the studies cited and discussed in the manuscript aim to propose innovative  
992 valorisation approaches that may lead to future applications. However, many of these  
993 investigations remain in vitro or at a preliminary stage and thus do not fully address all  
994 the practical limitations. In this context, our review serves as a starting point to highlight  
995 the promising potential of wine lees, while encouraging further research toward concrete,  
996 real-world applications that can support their sustainable and effective valorisation.  
997 Finally, appropriate quantification methods for the analysis of wine lees compounds and  
998 the development of sustainable processes for their extraction represent an important

999 challenge for wine lees valorisation, which will contribute to improving the  
1000 environmental and economic sustainability of the wine industry.

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1002 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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1007 **Aitor Balmaseda**: Conceptualization, Data curation, formal analysis, Investigation,  
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1844 **Figure captions**

1845 **Figure 0** Graphical abstract

1846 **Figure 1** Diagram of white wine production technology highlighting the stages where by-products,  
 1847 particularly wine lees, are generated.

1848 **Figure 2** General analysis of the published scientific articles including “wine lees” keywords” from  
 1849 Scopus Database. A. number of publication by year. B. Accumulated number of publications by  
 1850 year. C. Fields of the published articles. The search was done in December 2024.

1851 **Figure 3** Winemaking steps influencing the composition of wine lees

1852 **Figure 4** Diverse **potential** application of wine lees and wine lees extracts in different industries for  
1853 enhancing processes or properties.

1854 **Figure 5** Diagram illustrating the potential processes applied to wine lees for the generation of  
1855 high-value products across diverse applications.