

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

Food Chemistry

Food Chemistry 108 (2008) 879–884

www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem

Flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) contents of selected fruits, vegetables and medicinal plants

Bushra Sultana, Farooq Anwar *

Department of Chemistry, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad 38040, Pakistan

Received 8 May 2007; received in revised form 16 November 2007; accepted 21 November 2007

Abstract

The concentrations of flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) were determined in 22 plant materials (9 vegetables, 5 fruits, and 8 medicinal plant organs). The materials were extracted with acidified methanol (methanol/HCl, $100:1$, v/v) and analyzed by reverse phase high-performance liquid chromatographic (RP-HPLC) with UV detection. The total flavonols contents varied significantly ($P < 0.05$) among vegetables, fruits and medicinal plant organs ranged from 0 to 1720.5, 459.9 to 3575.4, and 2.42 to 6125.6 mg kg⁻¹ of dry matter, respectively. Among vegetables, spinach and cauliflower exhibited the highest amounts of flavonols (1720.5 and 1603.9 mg kg⁻¹, respectively), however, no flavonols were detected in garlic. Within fruits, highest level of flavonols was observed in strawberry $(3575.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, whereas, the lowest in apple fruit $(459.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. Of the medicinal plant organs, moringa and aloe vera leaves contained the highest contents of flavonols (6125.6 and 1636.04 mg kg⁻¹), respectively, whereas, lowest was present in barks (2.42- 274.07 mg kg⁻¹). Overall, leafy green vegetables, soft fruits and medicinal plant leaves exhibited higher levels of flavonols. $© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.$

Keywords: Plant materials; Anti-oxidants; Extraction/hydrolysis; RP-HPLC; Flavonols

1. Introduction

Currently, the use of some natural anti-oxidants, particularly, the phenolic substances including flavonoids and phenolic acids in foods, as well as preventive and therapeutic medicine, is gaining much recognition because of their nutraceutical and health benefits ([Fan, Ding, & Gu, 2007;](#page-5-0) [Siddhuraju & Becker, 2007\)](#page-5-0). Extensive epidemiological studies have indicated an inverse relationship between dietary flavonoids intake and the risk of coronary heart diseases, and certain cancers ([Hung et al., 2004; Puuppo](#page-5-0)[nen-Pimia et al., 2001; Tripoli, Guardia, Giammanco,](#page-5-0) [Majo, & Giammanco, 2007](#page-5-0)).

Flavonoids are widely distributed in plant kingdom accounting for over half of the 8000 naturally occurring phenolic compounds ([Harborne, Baxter, & Moss, 1999](#page-5-0)), however, their concentration varies from plant to plant or even in different organs of the same plant ([Dinelli](#page-4-0) [et al., 2006; Justesen & Knethsen, 2001\)](#page-4-0). Many plants are considered to be excellent sources of flavonoids that could be used, not only to preserve foods, but also to contribute to a healthy diet ([Justesen & Knethsen, 2001\)](#page-5-0). Dietary flavonoids are considered to be even more powerful antioxidants than vitamins C and E ([Sokol-Letowska, Osmian](#page-5-0)[ski, & Wojdylo, 2006](#page-5-0)).

Fruits and vegetables have been studied extensively for their flavonoid contents. Green leafy, yellow and red vegetables (e.g. onion, cabbage, cauliflower, broccoli), and dark coloured fruits (e.g. citrus species, berries, grapes, apple, plum) are rich in flavonoids ([Dragovic-Uzelac, Levaj,](#page-4-0) [Mrkic, Bursac, & Boras, 2007; Franke, Custer, Arakaki,](#page-4-0) [& Murphy, 2004](#page-4-0)). Considerable research has been carried

Corresponding author. Tel.: +92 41 9200161/62/63/64/65/66/67x3309; fax: +92 41 9200764.

E-mail addresses: bushrasultana2005@yahoo.com (B. Sultana),[fqanwar](mailto:fqanwar@yahoo.com) @yahoo.com (F. Anwar).

^{0308-8146/\$ -} see front matter © 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2007.11.053

out to investigate flavonoids in cereals and other plant organs such as barks, fruits, peels, flowers and leaves, among others ([Andreotti, Costa, & Treutter, 2006; Silva,](#page-4-0) [Souza, Rogez, Rees, & Larondella, 2006\)](#page-4-0).

Flavonoids represent a large family of low-molecularweight phenolics and according to their molecular structures encompass several chemical classes such as flavones, flavanones, isoflavones, isoflavans, pterocarpans, coumestans, anthocyanins, flavanols (or catechins), and flavonols [\(Dinelli et al., 2006; Elizabeth et al., 2007\)](#page-4-0). Food derived flavonoids, especially; flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, and myricetin) are widely occurring flavonoids and are reported to exhibit multiple biological functions such as anti-allergenic, anti-artherogenic, anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, anti-thrombotic, anti-oxidant, cardioprotective and vasodilatory effects [\(Manach, Mazur, & Scalbert,](#page-5-0) [2005\)](#page-5-0).

Although a number of studies on the flavonols contents of plant sources have been reported from different countries, the compositional data are still insufficient, which necessitates the need to investigate more and more materials for the search of credible and beneficial natural anti-oxidants. There is gap of information regarding the flavonols contents of Pakistani plants. The present study was, therefore, undertaken with the main objective to quantify the levels of less studied, but important, flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) in selected vegetables such as peas, carrot, spinach, cabbage, cauliflower, turnip, onion, ginger and garlic and fruits such as apple, strawberry, mulberry, apricot, and plum and medicinal plants organs, namely barks of Acacia nilotica, Terminalia arjuna, Eugenia jambolana and Azadirachta indica, leaves of Moringa oleifera and Aloe vera, roots of M.oleifera, and fruit of Ficus religiosa, indigenous to Pakistan. To the best of our knowledge, almost all the strategic plant materials have not yet been investigated and quantified for the specific flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin), in particular, from sub-continental region. Furthermore, the plant materials such as A. vera, peepal fruit, barks of jaman, desi kiker, arjun, etc., have been the subject of our present study for the first time and not studied elsewhere. So, the present work would be informative and novel with regard to the quantification of specific flavonols and plant materials along with their native region. Such study is valuable for researchers in providing a base line data for future detailed characterization of other phenolics in these and related plants and thus a step towards their potential commercialization as nutraceuticals and anti-oxidant applications in the marketplace.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Samples

A total of 22 plant materials were assayed. For convenience, the materials were categorized into three groups namely vegetables, fruits, and medicinal plant organs.

The samples of vegetables (peas, carrot, spinach, cabbage, cauliflower, turnip, onion, ginger, and garlic) and fruits (apple, strawberry, mulberry, apricot, and plum) were purchased from the vegetable and fruit markets of Faisalabad, Pakistan. Medicinal plants organs (barks of A. nilotica, T. arjuna, E. jambolana and A. indica; leaves of M. oleifera and A. vera; roots of M. oleifera, and fruit of F. religiosa) were collected from the vicinity of University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, Pakistan. The specimens were further identified and authenticated by Professor Muhammad Ashraf, Department of Botany, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, Pakistan. The scientific names of the species along with their families and other relevant information are presented in Table 1.

2.2. Reagents

The HPLC grade flavonol standards (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) and ter-butylhydroquinone (TBHQ) were purchased from Sigma Chemicals Co. (St Louis, MO, USA). All other chemicals including acetonitrile, methanol, and hydrochloric acid used in this study were from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), unless stated otherwise.

2.3. Sample preparation

Samples (1.0 kg) of each of the vegetables and fruits were washed with tap water after removing manually inedible parts with a sharp steel knife, cut into almost equal small pieces or slices (approx. 1×1 cm), and then mixed

Table 1

Scientific/traditional names and part used of the plant materials

Botanical name/variety	Common name	Part used
Vegetables		
Pisum sativum	Peas	Seed
Daucus carota	Carrot	Root
Brassica oleracea	Cabbage	Bud
Brassica oleracea	Cauliflower	Flower
Spinacia oleracea	Spinach	Leaves
Brassica rapa	Turnip	Root
Allium cepa	Onion	Bulb
Allium sativum	Garlic	Cloves
Zingiber cassumunar	Ginger	Rhizome
Fruits		
Malus pumila	Apple	Fruit
Prunus salicin	Plum	Fruit
Prunus armeniaca	Apricot	Fruit
Fragaria ananassa	Strawberry	Fruit
Morus alba	Mulberry	Fruit
Medicinal plant organs		
Eugenia jambolana Lam	Jaman	Bark
Acacia nilotica	Desi kiker	Bark
Azadirachta indica	Neem	Bark
Terminalia arjuna	Arjan	Bark
Moringa oleifera	Sohanjana	Leaves, root
Ficus religiosa	Peepal	Fruit
Aloe barbadensis	Aloevera	Leaves

well and homogenized. The samples of barks, leaves, roots were air-dried and ground into affine power, using a commercial blender (TSK-949, WestPoint, France). The material that passed through 80-mesh sieve was used for extraction purposes.

2.4. Sample extraction for HPLC

Extraction/hydrolysis of flavonols was carried out following the method of [Tokusoglu, Unal, and Yildirum](#page-5-0) [\(2003\)](#page-5-0) with slight modifications. Briefly acidified methanol (25 mL) containing 1% (v/v) HCl and 0.5 mg mL $^{-1}$ TBHQ was added to each plant material (5 g), however, the amount of M. oleifera leaves and spinach used was 1 g. HCl (1.2 M, 5 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 90 °C under reflux for 2 h to obtain aglycons of flavonol glycosides. The extract was cooled to room temperature and centrifuged at 1500g (5000 rpm) for 10 min. Upper layer was taken and sonicated for 5 min, to remove air. The final extract was filtered through a $0.45 \mu m$ (Millipore) filter, before injecting into HPLC.

2.5. Dry matter determination

Owing to varying water contents of different plant materials, all calculations were made on dry mass basis. For the determination of dry matter, 5–6 g of all samples (in triplicate) were dried in an electric vacuum drying oven (VOC-300 SD, EYELA, Tokyo, Japan) at 70° C, for at least two days, until a constant weight was achieved.

2.6. HPLC separation

Flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) analysis was performed using high-performance liquid chromatograph. An HPLC (model LC-10A, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), equipped with two LC-10 AS pumps, SCL-10A system control unit, Rheodyne injector, CTO-10A column oven, SPD-10A UV–vis detector, and data acquisition class LC-10 software was used. A 20 μ L volume of the filtered sample was injected into an analytical Supelco (Supelco Inc., Supelco Park, Bellefonte, PA, USA) ODS reverse phase (C18) column (250 \times 4.6 mm; 5 µm particle size). Two solvent systems A: contained 3% trifluoroacetic acid and B: contained acetonitrile and methanol $(80:20 \text{ v/v})$ were used. The chromatographic separation was performed by isocratic elution of the mobile phase (mixture of solvent A and B $(50:50 \text{ v/v})$ that was filtered under vacuum through a $0.45 \mu m$ membrane before use) at a flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹ at 30 °C. Detection was performed at a wavelength of 360 nm.

Identification of flavonols (kaempeferol, quercetin, myricetin) was carried out by comparing their retention times with those of authentic standards (Sigma Chemicals Co., St Louis, MO, USA). Quantitative determination was carried using calibration curves of the standards. By analyzing dilution series of pure standards solutions ranged

from 0.01 to 0.08 mg L^{-1} , minimum quantities were determined for the flavonols. The mean value of the signal-tonoise ration ($n = 8$) generated from the solution that just caused more than three times S/N ratio was used to calculate the detection limit (based on $S/N = 3$) of the corresponding flavonol. The detection limit for kaempeferol, quercetin and myricetin was 0.04, 0.05, 0.05 mg L^{-1} , respectively.

2.7. Statistical analysis

Three samples of each plant material were taken. Each sample was analyzed individually in triplicate and data are reported as mean $(n = 3 \times 3) \pm SD$ $(n = 3 \times 3)$. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed using Minitab 2000 Version 13.2 statistical software (Minitab Inc., PA. USA).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Flavonols in vegetables

Mean concentration of individual flavonols (myricetin, quercetin, kaempeferol) in different plant materials is shown in [Table 2.](#page-3-0) Results showed that M. oleifera leaves (Sohanjana) contained highest amount of total flavonols (myricetin, quercetin, kampeferol). Strawberry, spinach, A. vera leaves, cauliflower, and Ficus religiosa fruit also exhibited good levels of flavonols. On the other hand, barks of E. jambolana, A. indica, T. arjuna, cabbage, and ginger were found to be the poor sources of flavonols.

Among vegetables, kaempeferol was the dominant flavonol. The kaempeferol levels in the investigated vegetables ranged from 0.3 to 795.9 mg kg^{-1} of dry matter. Significantly ($P \leq 0.05$) higher levels were observed in spinach (59.6), followed by cabbage (23.9), cauliflower (17.9), peas (15.5), ginger \approx turnip (14.9–14.7), and onion (0.3). Conversely, kaempeferol was not detected in carrot and garlic.

The kaempeferol contents of spinach (Spinacia oleracea) was found to be comparable with the results (49– 9 mg kg^{-1}) of [Franke et al. \(2004\),](#page-5-0) however, lower than those reported by [Nuttila, Kammiovirta, and Oksman-Cal](#page-5-0)[dentey \(2002\)](#page-5-0) (3039–3667 mg kg^{-1}). Highest kampeferol levels in spinach among the 9 vegetables analyzed in the present study are in good agreement with the proclamation that leafy vegetables are a good source of kampeferol ([Goldbohm, Hertog, Brants, Vanpoppel, & Venden](#page-5-0) [Brandt, 1998; Nuttila et al., 2002](#page-5-0)). [Franke et al. \(2004\),](#page-5-0) also investigated that green onion (Allium cepa) contained higher levels of kampeferol (18–26 mg kg^{-1}) than red onion $(A. \ cepa)$ $(3-6 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. Lower kampeferol contents $(0.27 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ of onion (*A. cepa*) in the present study investigation may be justified by the fact that red onion (edible part) has been investigated. However, colour of the species should not be considered as the limiting factor for the extent of phytochemicals, as it has been reported earlier that red, violet, pink and yellow onions (A. cepa)

Values are means \pm SD, for three samples of each plant material, analyzed individually in triplicate ($n = 3 \times 3$) \pm SD ($n = 3 \times 3$).

Small letters in superscript indicate significant differences ($P \le 0.05$) among different species.

Capital letters in subscript indicate significant differences ($P \le 0.05$) among contents of flavonols.

ND; not detected.

The detection limit for kaempeferol, quercetin and myricetin was 0.04, 0.05, 0.05 mg L^{-1} , respectively.

have higher amounts of flavonols (quercetin, kaempeferol, etc.) than white and green [\(Patil, Pike, & Yoo, 1995; Prak](#page-5-0)[ash, Singh, & Upadhyay, 2007](#page-5-0)).

Myricetin was the second most abundant flavonol detected in the plant species investigated in the present study. The range of myricetin content was 146.2– 1660.9 mg kg^{-1} of dry matter. The ranking of vegetables on the basis of myricetin contents in decreasing order is spinach $(1660.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ > cauliflower $(1586.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ $>$ carrot (525.3 mg kg⁻¹) $>$ turnip (457.0 mg kg⁻¹) $>$ peas $(146.2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. However, myricetin was not detected in cabbage, onion, and garlic. Less informations are available regarding the contents of myricetin in vegetables used in the present work. [Huang, Wang, Evas, Shikany, and Pace](#page-5-0) [\(2007\)](#page-5-0) also reported no detection of myricetin in the investigations of phenolic compounds of 12 vegetables including peas (Vigna unguiculata) hull and onion (Allium fistulosum) using HPLC.

Quercetin was only detected in peas (Pisum sativum) and onion (A. cepa). The concentration in onion (104.5 mg kg⁻¹ of dry matter) was significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher than that in peas $(36.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ of dry matter). The quercetin levels of peas (seed) in our study were found to be lower than that in peas hull $(V.$ uniguiculata) $(55.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ reported by Huang et al. (2007) . This discrepancy in the results could be explained by the fact that peel tissues or outer covering of the seeds usually contain larger amount of phenolics, anthocyanins and flavonols [\(Li et al., 2006](#page-5-0)).

Generally quercetin levels are higher in outer layers of the onion than in the inner ones. [Nuttila, Puupponen-](#page-5-0)[Pimia, Aarni, and Oksman-Caldentey \(2003\)](#page-5-0) reported that concentration of quercetin in onion (A. cepa) varied from 7 mg to 83,477 mg kg^{-1} , depending on the part of the plant and variety. The quercetin content of onion $(A. \; cepa)$ in the present study was found to be lower than those in red or yellow spring (A. cepa) onion (113 and 1274 mg kg^{-1} , respectively), however, greater than that found in giant onion (A. cepa) (85 mg kg^{-1}) as investigated by [Nuttila](#page-5-0) [et al. \(2003\)](#page-5-0).

Among 9 different vegetables analyzed in the present study, garlic (Allium sativum) is the only one that contained none of the flavonols (myricetin, quercetin, kaempeferol). [Nuttila et al. \(2003\)](#page-5-0) also reported that garlic (A. sativum) did not contain quercetin or kampeferol in detectable amounts, except for the organic leaves of garlic.

Data for flavonol contents of different fruits, showed the presence of kaempeferol in all investigated fruits; however, its level varied widely ranging from highest in mulberry $(284.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ to lowest in plum (0.7 mg kg^{-1}) .

Strawberry also contained reasonable level $(192.6 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, nonetheless, its concentration was quite low for apple (31.4 mg kg^{-1}) and apricot (5.8 mg kg⁻¹).

The kaempeferol content of the fruits strawberry (Fragaria ananassa), plum (Prunus salicin), and apple (Malus pumila) in the present investigation was found to be higher than those reported by [Franke et al. \(2004\).](#page-5-0) According to their findings kaempeferol contents of strawberry (Fragaria spp.) ranged from 6 to 13 mg kg^{-1} , while those of plum (Prunus domestica), and apple (Malus sylvestris) were below the detection limits $(\le 0.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. However, kaempeferol content i.e. 192.6 mg kg^{-1} of strawberry (F. ananassa) in our present study fell in the range of $(108-437 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ reported by [Olsson et al. \(2004\).](#page-5-0)

Quercetin was the second most abundant flavonol detected in the fruits analyzed in the present work. Highest level was detected in mulberry (359.4 mg kg^{-1}), followed by apricot $(322.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, and apple $(119.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. Greater level of quercetin in apricot than apple is in agreement with the results of Dragovic-Uzelac, Pospisil, Levaj, and Delonga (2005), who investigated that quercetin 3-rutinoside level in apricot (*Prunus armeniaca*) (26.36 mg kg⁻¹) is higher than those of apple (4.6 mg kg^{-1}) . [Van Der Sluis,](#page-5-0) [Dekker, Skrede, and Jongen \(2004\)](#page-5-0) reported that quercetin glycosides are the main flavonol of apple. [Franke et al.](#page-5-0) (2004) reported that quercetin content of apple $(M. sylves$ *tris*) with and without skin ranged from 7 to 76 mg kg^{-1} , which is quit lower than those investigated in our study. On the other hand quercetin was not detected in plum and strawberry. This is in disagreement with the results of the investigation of [Franke et al. \(2004\)](#page-5-0), although quercetin content reported in their study was quite low i.e. 9– 11 mg kg⁻¹ (strawberry) (*Fragaria* spp.) and 8-12 mg kg⁻¹ (plum) (P. domestica). Literature reports higher levels of quercetin in strawberry ([Olsson et al., 2004\)](#page-5-0) and plum ([Kim, Jeong, & Lee, 2003](#page-5-0)).

Myricetin was detected only in plum and strawberry. However, myricetin content of strawberry (3382.9 mg kg^{-1}) was found to be significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher than those of plum $(564.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$. Absence of myricetin in apple and apricot in our analysis is in accordance with the results of [Franke et al. \(2004\)](#page-5-0) and Dragovic-Uzelac et al. (2005).

Data for flavonol (myricetin, quercetin, kaempeferol) contents of different medicinal plant organs also indicated that kaempeferol is the most abundant flavonol, detected in all sources; however, its concentration varied widely, ranging from 0.5 to 257.7 mg kg^{-1} . Highest kaempeferol level was observed for A. vera leaves (257.7 mg kg^{-1}), followed by F. religiosa fruit $(160.8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, M. oleifera leaves (40.2 mg kg⁻¹), A. nilotica bark (21.7 mg kg⁻¹), M. oleifera root (13.9 mg kg⁻¹), *T. arjuna* bark (8.9 mg kg⁻¹), E. jambolana bark (1.3 mg kg^{-1}) , and A. indica bark $(0.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}).$

Quercetin was also detected in all samples, except, M. *oleifera* root to varying levels (1.2–281.0 mg kg^{-1}). Highest levels were found in M. oleifera (281.0 mg kg^{-1}), followed by Ficus religiosa fruit (256.3 mg kg^{-1}), A. vera leaves $(94.8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, A. nilotica bark $(63.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, A. indica bark (31.9 mg kg⁻¹), *T. arjuna* bark (7.7 mg kg⁻¹), and *E.* jambolana bark (1.2 mg kg⁻¹).

Less frequently occurring flavonol was the myricetin; however, its level was significantly ($P \le 0.05$) higher than quercetin and kaempeferol. Highest level of myricetin was detected in *M. oleifera* leaves (5804.4 mg kg^{-1}), followed by A. vera leaves (1283.52 mg kg^{-1}), F. religiosa fruit $(694.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, *A. nilotica* bark $(188.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$, and *M. oleifera* root (170.2 mg kg^{-1}). Conversely, myricetin was not detected in the barks of E. jambolana, A. indica, and T. arjuna.

Little is known about the flavonol (myricetin, quercetin, kampeferol) contents of these plant materials. In our study the investigated flavonol levels (myricetin, quercetin, kaempeferol) were found to be higher in leaves and fruits, which is in good agreement with the previous reports ([Shahidi, 1997](#page-5-0)). [Siddhuraju and Becker \(2003\)](#page-5-0) reported that quercetin and kampeferol levels of M. oleifera leaves (Sohanjana) ranged from 6340 to 27,490 mg kg^{-1} and 647 to 1050 mg kg^{-1} , respectively. [Silva et al. \(2006\)](#page-5-0) reported that photosynthesis reaction taking place in leaves results in the greater concentration of the phytochemicals (like flavonoids, phenolic acids).

4. Conclusion

Leaves of M. oleifera exhibited commendably higher levels of flavonols (myricetin, quercetin, kampeferol). Cauliflower, spinach, leaves of A. vera, fruit of F. religiosa and strawberry also revealed the presence of considerable amounts of flavonols. The anti-oxidant effects and health benefits of flavonols are fascinating. Thus the results of the present study support the anti-oxidant and nutraceutical potential of these plant species indigenous to Pakistan. However, further investigations involving more detailed in vitro and in vivo studies are required to ascertain inclusive phenolics anti-oxidant system of these plant materials and develop their application for particular food or nutraceutical purposes.

References

- Andreotti, C., Costa, G., & Treutter, D. (2006). Composition of phenolic compounds in pear leaves as affected by genetics, ontogenesis and environment. Scientia Horticulture, 109, 130–137.
- Dinelli, G., Bonetti, A., Minelli, M., Marotti, I., Catizone, P., & Mazzanti, A. (2006). Content of flavonols in Italian bean (Phaseolus vulgaris L.) ecotypes. Food Chemistry, 90, 105–114.
- Dragovic-Uzelac, V., Levaj, B., Mrkic, V., Bursac, D., & Boras, M. (2007). The contents of polyphenols and carotenoids in three apricots cultivars depending on stage of maturity and geographical region. Food Chemistry, 102, 966–975.
- Dragovic-Uzelac, V., Pospisil, J., Levaj, B., & Delonga, K. (2005). The study of phenolic profiles of raw apricots and apples and their purees by HPLC for the evaluation of apricot nectars and jams authenticity. Food Chemistry, 91(2), 373–383.
- Elizabeth, R. N., Annete, H., Francisco, G. L. R., Javier, I. P. F., Graciela, Z. G., & Alberto, G. I. J. (2007). Antioxidant and antimutagenic activity of phenolic compounds in three different colour groups of common bean cultivars (Phaseolus vulgaris). Food Chemistry, 103, 521–527.
- Fan, J., Ding, X., & Gu, W. (2007). Radical-scavenging proanthocyanidins from sea buckthorn seed. Food Chemistry, 102, 168–177.
- Franke, A. A., Custer, L. J., Arakaki, C., & Murphy, S. P. (2004). Vitamin C and flavonoid levels of fruits and vegetables consumed in Hawaii. Journal of Food Composition and Analysis, 17, 1–35.
- Goldbohm, R. A., Hertog, M. G. L., Brants, H. A. M., Vanpoppel, G., & Venden Brandt, P. A. (1998). Intake of flavonoids and cancer risk: A prospective cohort study. In R. Ammado, H. Andersson, S. Bardoez, & F. Serra (Eds.). Polyphenols in foods, EUR 18169- Costa 916- Bioactive plant cell wall components in nutrition and health (pp. 159–166). Luxemboury: European Commission.
- Harborne, J. B., Baxter, H., & Moss, G. P. (1999). Phytochemical dictionary. In Handbook of bioactive compounds from plants (2nd ed.). London: Taylor and Francis.
- Huang, Z., Wang, B., Evas, D. H., Shikany, J. M., & Pace, R. D. (2007). Phenolic compounds profile of selected vegetables frequently consumed by African Americans in the southeast United States. Food Chemistry, 103, 1395–1402.
- Hung, H. C., Joshipura, K. J., Jiang, R., Hu, F. B., Hunter, D., & Smith-Warner, S. A. (2004). Fruit and vegetable intake and risk of major chronic diseases. Journal of National Cancer Institute, 96(21), 1577–1584.
- Justesen, U., & Knethsen, P. (2001). Composition of flavonoids in fresh herbs and calculation of flavonoids intake by use of herbs in traditional danish dishes. Food Chemistry, 73, 245–250.
- Kim, D., Jeong, S. W., & Lee, C. Y. (2003). Antioxidant capacity of phenolic phytochemicals from various cultivars of plums. Food Chemistry, 81, 321–326.
- Li, Y., Guo, C., Yang, J., Wei, J., Xu, J., & Cheng, S. (2006). Evaluation of antioxidant properties of pomegranate peel extract in comparison with pomegranate pulp extract. Food Chemistry, 96, 254–260.
- Manach, C., Mazur, A., & Scalbert, A. (2005). Polyphenols and prevention of cardiovascular diseases. Current Opinion in Lipidology, 16, 77–84.
- Nuttila, A. M., Kammiovirta, K., & Oksman-Caldentey, K. M. (2002). Comparison of methods for the hydrolysis of flavonoids and phenolic acids from onion and spinach for HPLC analysis. Food Chemistry, 76, 519–525.
- Nuttila, A. M., Puupponen-Pimia, R., Aarni, M., & Oksman-Caldentey, K. M. (2003). Comparison of antioxidant activities of onion and garlic

extracts by inhibition of lipid peroxidation and radical scavenging activity. Food Chemistry, 81, 485–493.

- Olsson, M. E., Ekvall, J., Gustavsson, K. E., Nillson, J., Pillai, D., Sjoholm, I., et al. (2004). Antioxidants, low molecular weight carbohydrates, and total antioxidant capacity in strawberries (Fragarria \times ananassa): Effects of cultivar, ripening, and storage. Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry, 52, 2490–2498.
- Patil, B., Pike, L., & Yoo, K. (1995). Variation in the quercetin content in different coloured onions (Allium cepa L.) cultivars. Journal of American Society for Horticulture Sciences, 120, 909–913.
- Prakash, D., Singh, B. N., & Upadhyay, G. (2007). Antioxidant and free radical scavenging activities of phenols from onion (Allium cepa). Food Chemistry, 102, 1389–1393.
- Puupponen-Pimia, R., Nohynek, L., Meier, C., Kahkonen, M., Heinonen, M., & Hopia, A. (2001). Antimicrobial properties of phenolic compounds from berries. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 90, 494–507.
- Shahidi, F. (1997). In F. Shahidi (Ed.), Natural antioxidants, chemistry, health effects and applications (pp. 379–396). Champaign, IL, USA: AOCS Press Champaign.
- Siddhuraju, P., & Becker, K. (2003). Antioxidant properties of various solvent extracts of total phenolic constituents from three different agroclimatic origins of drumstick tree (Moringa oleifera Lam.) leaves. Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry, 51, 2144–2155.
- Siddhuraju, P., & Becker, K. (2007). The antioxidant and free radical scavenging activities of processed cowpea (Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp.) seed extracts. Food Chemistry, 101, 10–19.
- Silva, E. M., Souza, J. N. S., Rogez, H., Rees, J. F., & Larondella, Y. (2006). Antioxidant activities and polyphenolic contents of fifteen selected plant species from the Amazonian region. Food Chemistry, 101(3), 1012–1018.
- Sokol-Letowska, A., Osmianski, J., & Wojdylo, A. (2006). Antioxidant activity of phenolic compounds of hawthorn, pine and skullcap. Food Chemistry, 103(3), 853–859.
- Tokusoglu, O., Unal, M. K., & Yildirum, Z. (2003). HPLC–UV and GC– MS characterization of the flavonol aglycons quercetin, kaempferol and myricetin in tomato and tomato pastes and other tomato-based products. Acta Chromatographica, 13, 196–207.
- Tripoli, E., Guardia, M. L., Giammanco, S., Majo, D. D., & Giammanco, M. (2007). Citrus flavonoids: Molecular structure, biological activity and nutritional properties: A review. Food Chemistry, 104, 466–479.
- Van Der Sluis, A. A., Dekker, M., Skrede, G., & Jongen, W. M. F. (2004). Activity and concentration of polyphenolic antioxidants in apple juice. 2. Effect of novel production methods. Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry, 52, 2840–2848.