1	THE PRODUCTION OF AROMATIC ALCOHOLS IN NON-
2	SACCHAROMYCES WINE YEAST IS MODULATED BY NUTRIENT
3	AVAILABILITY
4	Beatriz González, Jennifer Vázquez, Mª Ángeles Morcillo-Parra, Albert Mas, María
5	Jesús Torija* and Gemma Beltran
6	Departament de Bioquímica i Biotecnologia, Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Tarragona,
7	Spain
8	Corresponding author:
9	* E-mail: mjesus.torija@urv.cat Tel: 0034 977558442. Fax: 0034 977558232.

10 ABSTRACT

Aromatic alcohols (tryptophol, phenylethanol, tyrosol) positively contribute to 11 12 organoleptic characteristics of wines, and are also described as bioactive compounds 13 and *quorum sensing* molecules. These alcohols are produced by yeast during alcoholic fermentation via the Erhlich pathway, although in non-Saccharomyces this production 14 15 has been poorly studied. We studied how different wine yeast species modulate the 16 synthesis patterns of aromatic alcohol production depending on glucose, nitrogen and aromatic amino acid availability. Nitrogen limitation strongly promoted the production 17 18 of aromatic alcohols in all strains, whereas low glucose generally inhibited it. Increased 19 aromatic amino acid concentrations stimulated the production of aromatic alcohols in all 20 of the strains and conditions tested. Thus, there was a clear association between the 21 nutrient conditions and production of aromatic alcohols in most of the wine yeast 22 species analysed. Additionally, the synthesis pattern of these alcohols has been evaluated for the first time in Torulaspora delbrueckii, Metschnikowia pulcherrima and 23 24 Starmellera bacillaris.

25

Keywords: Phenylethanol, Tyrosol, Tryptophol, Alcoholic fermentation, Erhlich
pathway

28 1. INTRODUCTION

29 S. cerevisiae is a model microorganism used in many industrial applications due to its 30 ability to synthesize ethanol from diverse sugar sources. For this reason, this budding 31 yeast is commonly employed in several technological processes such as brewing, 32 baking and winemaking. In the latter, alcoholic fermentation involves the succession 33 and coexistence of a large diversity of yeast genera and species. At the beginning of 34 fermentation, non-Saccharomyces yeast populations are high, and genera such as Hanseniaspora, Issatchenkia, Starmerella (sym. Candida), Torulaspora, Metschnikowia 35 36 are commonly found. During fermentation, non-Saccharomyces species are replaced by 37 S. cerevisiae due to its superior performance during this process and its ability to 38 produce high ethanol concentrations (Fleet, 2003; Heard and Fleet, 1988). However, 39 several studies recently confirmed the positive contributions of these non-Saccharomyces yeasts to wine: they are able to produce certain additional aromatic 40 compounds that improve the flavour and bouquet (Fleet, 2003; Jolly et al., 2014; Lleixà 41 42 et al., 2016). Although ethanol is the major by-product of alcoholic fermentation, yeasts 43 also produce other alcohols such as aromatic alcohols derived from the aromatic amino 44 acids that are present in grapes. Tyrosine (Tyr), tryptophan (Trp) and 2-phenylalanine 45 (Phe) are converted to tyrosol (TyrOH), tryptophol (TrpOH) and 2-phenylethanol (PheOH), respectively, via yeast metabolism through the Ehrlich pathway, particularly 46 47 under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Ehrlich, 1907; Hazelwood et al., 2008). Those 48 alcohols are largely used as additives in foods and beverages, and PheOH specifically is 49 widely used in the cosmetics industry due to its rose-like scent (Fabre et al., 1998). 50 Fusel alcohols positively influence the flavour and bouquet of wines and are also of 51 interest due to their potential bioactivity for humans. TyrOH and TrpOH have been 52 described as an antioxidant and a sleep inducer, respectively (Cornford et al., 1981;

Giovannini et al., 1999). Moreover, recent studies in yeasts have demonstrated that 53 54 these three aromatic alcohols are involved in growth regulation (Avbelj et al., 2015; Zupan et al., 2013) and are suggested to be quorum sensing molecules (Dickinson, 55 56 1996; Lorenz et al., 2000). Many microbes use quorum-sensing communication to transmit information about population density and environmental conditions (Bassler, 57 58 2002; Fuqua et al., 1994); in yeast, filamentous growth has also been associated with these quorum-sensing molecules (Hornby et al., 2001; Kruppa, 2009; Sprague and 59 60 Winans, 2006).

61 In some yeast species, such as S. cerevisiae, the aromatic alcohols secreted into the 62 extracellular medium are recognized by other cells and modulate their behaviour 63 accordingly. Moreover, as mentioned above, nitrogen-limiting conditions increase the production of aromatic alcohols, leading to stronger filamentous growth in S. cerevisiae. 64 In a recent study (González et al., 2017), we studied the behaviour of a collection of S. 65 66 cerevisiae strains in the context of filamentous growth in the presence of different 67 alcohols and observed higher effects for ethanol than for aromatic alcohols in terms of 68 its ability to promote stronger filamentous growth under nitrogen-limiting conditions. 69 On the other hand, studies performed with non-Saccharomyces yeasts, such as 70 Hanseniaspora uvarum, Pichia kudriavzevii and Pichia fabianii, have reported that 71 these yeasts also demonstrate changes in their growth mode under nutrient-limited 72 conditions (nitrogen or carbon) or other stress factors (Pu et al., 2014; van Rijswijck et 73 al., 2015). Therefore, the finding that aromatic alcohols exert different responses on 74 morphogenesis in a yeast-dependent manner shows that these molecular signals may be 75 species-specific (Chen and Fink, 2006).

The aim of this study was to evaluate the production of aromatic alcohols (TyrOH,
TrpOH and PheOH) by four wild, non-*Saccharomyces* wine strains in different media

(containing different concentrations of nitrogen and carbon) and compare them to a
"model" *S. cerevisiae* wine strain.

80 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

81 2.1 Yeast strains and inoculum preparation

82 The following wine yeast species were used in this study: commercial Saccharomyces cerevisiae QA23 (Lallemand, Canada) and four wild non-Saccharomyces isolates from 83 84 the winemaking Priorat region of Spain, specifically Hv4 (CECT 1313O, Hanseniaspora uvarum), Cz4 (CECT 13129, Starmerella bacillaris (sym. Candida 85 86 zemplinina)), Mpp (CECT 13131, Metschnikowia pulcherrima) and Tdp (CECT 13135, 87 Torulaspora delbrueckii) (Padilla et al., 2016). Yeast strains were taken from stocks preserved at -80 °C in glycerol and grown on YPD plates (2% (w/v) peptone, 1% (w/v) 88 89 yeast extract, 2% (w/v) glucose and 2% (w/v) agar) for 48-72 h at 28 °C. Then, cells 90 were cultured for 24 h in 50 mL of YPD medium at 28 °C and 120 rpm and transferred 91 into 250 mL of fresh minimal medium (1X Yeast Nitrogen Base without amino acids or 92 ammonia, 2% (w/v) glucose, 10 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄) and cultured for 2 days at 28 °C and 93 120 rpm.

94 **2.2 Fermentation conditions**

95 Fermentation was performed in three different media based on synthetic must (Beltran 96 et al., 2004), containing modified sugar and nitrogen concentrations: standard synthetic 97 must (SM: 200 g/L sugars -100g/L glucose and 100g/L fructose- and 300 mg of N/L for 98 yeast assimilable nitrogen (YAN)), low glucose must (LGM: 20 g of glucose/L and 300 99 mg of N/L for YAN) and low nitrogen must (LNM: 200 g of sugars/L -100g/L glucose 100 and 100g/L fructose- and 100 mg of N/L for YAN) (Table 1). Fermentations were 101 initiated by inoculating precultures in minimal medium to obtain an initial population of

 $2x10^{6}$ cells/mL. To study the production of aromatic alcohols (TyrOH, TrpOH and 102 103 PheOH) in each must, aromatic amino acids (Tyr, Trp and Phe), which are precursors of 104 those alcohols, were added at two concentrations, standard concentration based on the 105 regular concentrations of aromatic amino acids (1x) (Beltran et al., 2004), and five-fold 106 increased (5x), see Table 1. The increased concentrations of aromatic amino acids 107 occurred at the expense of the remaining amino acids to maintain the same final 108 concentration of nitrogen. Fermentations were performed in triplicate at 28 °C with 109 continuous orbital shaking (120 rpm). Cell populations were evaluated daily by 110 measuring the optical density (OD_{600nm}) , and 1 mL of wine was stored to quantify the 111 extracellular concentrations of TyrOH, TrpOH and PheOH by UHPLC after five days of 112 fermentation for LGM and after seven days for SM and LNM.

113 Another set of alcoholic fermentations in SM and 5x aromatic amino acids was 114 performed to associate the synthesis and secretion of aromatic alcohols with growth 115 phases. Then, intracellular and extracellular concentrations of aromatic alcohols were 116 analysed during the first 48 h (0 h, 12 h, 24 h, 48 h).

117 **2.3 A**

2.3 Aromatic alcohol analysis

Aromatic alcohols were detected and quantified by performing liquid chromatography 118 119 triple quadrupole mass spectrometry (LCQqQ). For intracellular samples, prior 120 extraction using boiling buffered ethanol (Gonzalez et al., 1997) was necessary. Briefly, a volume of culture corresponding to 10^7 cells was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min, 121 122 and 1 mL of boiling absolute ethanol buffered with 2 mL of 1 M Hepes (pH 7.5) was 123 added directly into the tube. Subsequently, the mix was incubated for 3 min at 80 °C, 124 and the supernatant was evaporated at 45 °C using a SpeedVac (Thermo Fisher 125 Scientific, USA). The residue was resuspended in 1 mL of sterile MilliQ water. Then,

126 100 μ L of this extract or of the extracellular sample was diluted 1:10 in MeOH (\geq 127 99.7% (LC-MS), Sigma Aldrich, USA), centrifuged at 15000 rpm and maintained at 128 4°C for 10 min. Samples were then serially diluted in MeOH to a final dilution of 1:100 129 for intracellular samples and 1:1000 for extracellular samples, and analysed by LCQqQ.

130 A 1290 UHPLC Series Liquid Chromatograph coupled to a 6490 QqQ/MS (Agilent 131 Technologies, Palo Alto, USA) was used to evaluate TyrOH, TrpOH and PheOH. The 132 chromatographic column was an Xbridge Shield RP18 (150 x 2.1 mm i.d., 3.5-µm 133 particle size) (Waters). The mobile phases were 0.2% acetic acid (\geq 99.7%, Sigma-134 Aldrich, USA) in water (MilliQ system, Millipore) (solvent A) and ACN (solvent B). 135 The flow rate was 0.6 mL/min. To validate our quantitative method, calibration curves, 136 linearity, precision, accuracy and the limits of detection and quantification were 137 determined by analysing serial standard dilutions prepared in ultrapure LC-MS water 138 and pooled samples spiked with standard solutions. The obtained validation parameters 139 for the method for TyrOH (≥ 99% Sigma-Aldrich, USA), PheOH (≥ 98%, Sigma-140 Aldrich, USA) and TrpOH (\geq 99%, Sigma-Aldrich, USA), permitted the quantification 141 of studied compounds in extract samples.

142 **2.4 Aromatic amino acid analysis**

Final concentrations of Tyr, Phe and Trp were determined using an Agilent 1100 Series High-performance Liquid Chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Germany) (Gómez-Alonso et al., 2007). Fifty microlitres from each sample was used in a derivatization reaction with diethyl ethoxymethylenemalonate (DEEMM). Separation was performed in an ACE HPLC column (C18-HL) with a particle size of 5 μ m (250 x 4.6 mm) that was controlled thermostatically at 20 °C. Two eluents were used: eluent A contained 25 mM acetate buffer (pH= 5.8) with 0.02% sodium azide, and eluent B contained an 80:20 mixture of acetonitrile and methanol. The flow rate was 0.9 ml/min. The concentration of each compound was calculated using internal (L-2-aminoadipic acids, 1 g/l) and external standards.

153 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

Three biological replicates were performed for each experiment. Tukey's test was used to generate p-values. To better understand how different measured parameters influenced the production of aromatic alcohols, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using XLSTAT Software.

158 **3. RESULTS**

159 **3.1 Production of aromatic alcohols by different wine yeast species**

In addition to aromatic alcohols, residual sugar and maximal growth were determined at the end of fermentation (Table 2). In LGM, all sugars were consumed by yeast. At high sugar concentrations (SM and LNM), only *S. cerevisiae* was able to consume all sugars present in the must, followed by *T. delbrueckii*. High sugar concentrations were present at the end of the process for the other three species, particularly under nitrogen restriction (LNM). In general, the increase in aromatic alcohol precursors affected the maximal growth and sugar consumption.

In SM, all strains tested were able to produce the three aromatic alcohols, although *S. bacillaris* produced much lower levels (Fig 1A). Under the 1x condition, *S. cerevisiae* QA23 exhibited the maximum production of aromatic alcohols, together with the highest growth and total consumption of sugars (Table 2). TrpOH was the primary aromatic alcohol produced, followed by PheOH and TyrOH. Notably, synthetic must contains higher concentrations of Trp compared to Phe or Tyr (see Table 1). On the other hand, non-*Saccharomyces* species synthetized lower levels of aromatic alcohols; specifically, *S. bacillaris* produced the lowest concentrations (below 5 µM TyrOH and PheOH, and no detectable TrpOH). Among non-*Saccharomyces* species, *T. delbrueckii* presented the highest growth and sugar consumption (although more than 20 g/l residual sugars was present after seven days of fermentation), *S. bacillaris* demonstrated the lowest growth, and *M. pulcherrima* demonstrated the lowest sugar consumption

179 Higher concentrations of aromatic amino acids in the media (5x) resulted in higher 180 production of aromatic alcohols, despite the lack of proportional increases in alcohols 181 with increases in precursors (Fig 1A). As observed in 1x condition, TrpOH was the 182 major aromatic alcohol produced with the exception of S. bacillaris, which synthetized 183 more PheOH, but at much lower levels. Moreover, although the differences were not 184 statistically significant, the presence of higher concentrations of aromatic amino acids 185 affected cell growth in all species: growth was lower for S. cerevisiae, H. uvarum, and 186 T. delbrueckii but higher for S. bacillaris and M. pulcherrima (Table 2).

187 To better understand how different variables affected the strains, PCA was performed 188 (Fig1B). This PCA analysis accounted for 90.17% of the variance: all variables were 189 primarily explained by component F1 (74.86%). Triplicates appeared together in the 190 biplot, and PCA clearly separated S. cerevisiae and T. delbrueckii from the other 191 species, which grouped together, primarily due to their superior growth and higher 192 consumption of sugars. In those strains, samples from media containing different 193 aromatic amino acid contents grouped separately based on the higher production of 194 aromatic alcohols under the 5x condition. Two additional PCA were performed using 195 only the data from the 1x and 5x conditions (Fig S1). This PCA explains 92.23% and 196 91.7% of the variance under the 1x and 5x conditions, respectively. PCA generated 197 three clusters: S. cerevisiae, T. delbrueckii, and the rest of the non-Saccharomyces 198 strains.

199 **3.2** Synthesis of aromatic alcohols under low nitrogen conditions

To analyse the effects of nitrogen concentration on the synthesis of aromatic alcohols, fermentations were carried out using low nitrogen synthetic must (100 mg of N/L) at two different concentrations of aromatic amino acids (1x and 5x).

203 In LNM, all strains grew poorly and, in general, fermented less sugar than in SM (Table 204 2), with the exception of S. cerevisiae, which consumed practically all sugars present in 205 the media despite nitrogen limitation. As in SM, TrpOH was the main fusel alcohol 206 synthesized, except in S. bacillaris. This strain did not secrete TrpOH under 1x 207 condition and produced the other aromatic alcohols at only very low concentrations, 208 despite consuming almost all of the precursors. The second aromatic alcohol most 209 frequently secreted by non-Saccharomyces species was TyrOH, unlike Saccharomyces, 210 which secreted PheOH (Fig 2).

211 When the precursors of these aromatic alcohols were five-fold higher, growth and sugar consumption during fermentation were not significantly affected, with the exception of 212 213 Mpp. In this case, higher concentrations of aromatic amino acids in the medium resulted 214 in a clear increase in growth, and sugar consumption was doubled in comparison to 1x 215 condition. In terms of the production of aromatic alcohols, a significant increase in their 216 concentrations was observed after the addition of precursors. However, TrpOH was the 217 most relevant because the concentration of this alcohol was between 6 and 24 times 218 greater than that under the 1x condition. In both cases, aromatic amino acids were 219 practically exhausted, but production rates were higher under the 5x condition (Table 3 220 and Supplementary Table S1 for 5X).

PCA (Fig 2B) indicated a variance of 87.29% (F1: 56.53%; F2:27.76%), and the variables were primarily explained by component 1. *S. cerevisiae* was clearly separated

223 from non-Saccharomyces species largely due to its ability to generate a higher biomass 224 and its elevated sugar consumption. Moreover, within this strain, samples from media 225 containing different aromatic amino acid contents grouped separately due to the higher 226 production of TrpOH and PheOH in 5x medium. In general, non-Saccharomyces 227 species were also separated based on the concentration of aromatic amino acids (1x and 5x), primarily due to the higher amounts of TrpOH and TyrOH under the 5x condition, 228 229 with the exception of the S. bacillaris Cz4 strain, which presented similar 230 concentrations under both conditions.

231 LNM medium contained the same amount of sugars as SM, but the concentrations of 232 YAN and aromatic amino acids were three-fold lower. Despite these lower amounts of 233 precursors, the production of aromatic alcohols was similar in both media, indicating a 234 higher yield of alcohol in LNM. Thus, the ratio between each aromatic amino acid and 235 its respective aromatic alcohol was calculated (Table 3). For all strains, with the exception of *M. pulcherrima*, this rate of transformation was significantly higher in 236 237 LNM than in SM, explaining why the final concentration of aromatic alcohols was 238 similar despite the presence of fewer precursors. In S. cerevisiae QA23 grown in LNM 239 under the 1x condition, all Tyr and Phe present in the medium were converted into their 240 corresponding alcohols (ratios of approximately 1). In non-Saccharomyces species, the 241 largest increase in this ratio occurred for TrpOH and TyrOH, corresponding to the 242 higher production of these two aromatic alcohols by non-Saccharomyces species as 243 opposed to S. cerevisiae, which synthesized more PheOH than TyrOH. When a PCA 244 was performed using the data from SM and LNM, 90.21% of the variance was 245 explained (F1: 50.20%, F2: 40.01%), being the amount of aromatic amino acid 246 consumed and the ratio Tyr/TyrOH mainly explained by F1, and the rest of variables by 247 F2. The uptake of aromatic amino acids was negatively correlated with alcohol

transformation ratios, confirming that nitrogen limitation resulted in higher aromatic alcohol production ratios. Due to the differences in aromatic amino acid uptake, as well as growth and sugar consumption, the PCA clearly separated both media, and the latter two variables, together with aromatic alcohol production, were responsible for *Saccharomyces* forming a separate cluster versus non-*Saccharomyces* species.

253 **3.3 Synthesis of aromatic alcohols at low sugar conditions**

254 To analyse the effects of sugar concentration on aromatic alcohol synthesis, the same 255 experiment was performed using a medium containing the same nitrogen concentration 256 as SM but with low glucose content (20 g/l). All species depleted the sugars in LGM 257 media (Table 2), and all were able to produce the three aromatic alcohols (Fig 3) but at 258 much lower concentrations than those obtained with SM or LNM. Increased amounts of 259 precursors (5x condition) also induced a significant increase in aromatic alcohol 260 production for all species, particularly T. delbrueckii, which produced almost no 261 aromatic alcohols under the 1x condition but exhibited higher synthesis of aromatic 262 alcohols under the 5x condition, as well as significantly better growth (Table 2). 263 Interestingly, in this medium, T. delbrueckii produced PheOH as the main aromatic 264 alcohol, and *M. pulcherrima* produced the highest amount of TrpOH under either 265 aromatic amino acid condition, even higher than S. cerevisiae. Notably, M. pulcherrima 266 reached the highest cell density in this low glucose media, primarily under the 5x 267 condition. Once again, S. bacillaris produced very low amounts of aromatic alcohols 268 and only produced TrpOH under the 5x condition, despite exhibiting poor growth (Fig. 269 3; Table 2).

PCA accounted for a variance of 71.02% (F1: 49.30%, F2: 21.72%) (Fig S2). All
factors were primarily explained by the F1 component, with the exception of sugar

consumed, which was associated with F2. In general, the 1x and 5x conditions clustered
separately, but in LGM, *S. cerevisiae* was not separated from non-*Saccharomyces*species. Instead, *M. pulcherrima* grouped separately from the others due to its high
growth and aromatic alcohol production, while *S. bacillaris* under the 5x condition was
in the other cluster.

277 **3.4 Synthesis and secretion of aromatic alcohols during fermentation**

278 To study the synthesis and secretion of aromatic alcohols in different species during 279 alcoholic fermentation and growth, fermentations in SM medium with 5x aromatic 280 amino acids were repeated, and samples were obtained to analyse the intracellular and 281 extracellular concentrations of these molecules during the first 48 h (Fig 4). Initially, 282 cells contained basal intracellular concentrations of fusel alcohols (from preculture 283 growth), and then fusel alcohols increased considerably at 12 h, matching the early exponential phase. Then, during the period between the end of the exponential phase 284 285 and the beginning of stationary phase, the intracellular concentration of aromatic 286 alcohols decreased drastically, particularly for TrpOH and PheOH, likely due to their 287 secretion into external media. Once in stationary phase, the intracellular levels of those 288 alcohols maintained basal concentrations, similar to those observed at the beginning of 289 the process. This decrease in intracellular levels coincided with the increase in aromatic 290 alcohols observed in the extracellular medium, which slowed down when the cells were 291 in mid-stationary phase. This profile was observed in S. cerevisiae (Fig 4A), H. uvarum (Fig 4B) and M. pulcherrima (Fig 4D). However, in T. delbrueckii, PheOH 292 293 demonstrated a peak at 12 h as in the other species, but TrpOH peaked at 24 h (Fig 4E), likely due to the low population of this strain (1x10⁶ cells/mL) in early exponential 294 phase compared to the other strains (> 5×10^6 cells/mL) in mid-exponential phase. 295 Therefore, the synthesis of PheOH coincided with early exponential phase, and that of 296

297 TrpOH coincided with the mid-late exponential phase. Due to this delay in growth and 298 thus aromatic alcohol synthesis, accumulation in the extracellular medium was also 299 delayed, resulting in the detection of very low amounts of aromatic alcohols at 24 h 300 outside the cells. Finally, in S. bacillaris (Fig 4C), the intracellular accumulation of 301 aromatic alcohols was very low (as expected given the low concentrations detected in 302 the extracellular medium) and delayed due to the longer lag phase of this strain 303 compared with the other strains. Moreover, in this strain, PheOH was the major 304 aromatic alcohol that accumulated both inside and outside of the cell, unlike the other 305 species.

306 4. DISCUSSION

In this study, we analysed the synthesis of aromatic alcohols (TrpOH, PheOH and TyrOH), which may act as quorum-sensing molecules, by different wine yeast species during alcoholic fermentation. Additionally, we studied how the concentrations of aromatic amino acids, yeast assimilable nitrogen and sugar affected the production of these aromatic alcohols.

312 S. cerevisiae QA23 produced higher concentrations of aromatic alcohols, and its 313 production yield was highest in must with nitrogen restriction. These findings agree 314 with previous studies that showed an inverse correlation between initial nitrogen 315 concentration and the production of fusel alcohols (Beltran et al., 2005; Carrau et al., 316 2008; Jiménez-Martí and del Olmo, 2008; Mouret et al., 2014), indicating that the closer 317 the nitrogen concentration is to growth-limiting levels, the higher the yield of fusel 318 alcohols. Indeed, the Ehrlich pathway may be activated to provide nitrogen from amino 319 acids such as the aromatic amino acids, which are limited for protein synthesis and 320 growth. Thus, higher levels of these alcohols may be a signal to modulate the

regulation of yeast growth (Mas et al., 2014). Indeed, Chen and Fink (2006) reported 321 322 that the production of these autosignaling alcohols is regulated by nitrogen; specifically, 323 they are activated under nitrogen-poor conditions. On the other hand, the same authors 324 stated that aromatic alcohol production is not affected by low concentrations of glucose; 325 however, according to our results (Fig 3 and Table S2), S. cerevisiae produced 326 significantly lower concentrations of fusel alcohols in LGM than in SM, despite the 327 same total nitrogen content in both media. There are different potential explanations for 328 this low production. First, it may be related to low cell density (the OD_{600nm} value in LGM was 4.80 ± 0.37 vs. 11.47 ± 1.32 and 7.64 ± 1.66 in SM and LNM, respectively). 329 330 Additionally, cells at low density required lower protein synthesis, which may explain 331 why cells consume fewer aromatic amino acids. Recent studies have associated the production of these alcohols with cell density, suggesting that high population density 332 333 stimulates the synthesis of aromatic alcohols (Avbelj et al., 2015; Chen and Fink, 2006; 334 Sprague and Winans, 2006; Wuster and Babu, 2009). However, in the case of low 335 nitrogen (LNM), the production yield (with respect to the amount of precursor 336 consumed) was higher despite a lower cell density than that in SM, indicating that cell 337 density is not the sole variable that determines the synthesis of these alcohols. Second, 338 the more rapid depletion of glucose in LGM may also be responsible for the low 339 amounts of aromatic alcohols produced, as explained (Espinosa Vidal et al., 2014). In 340 their experiments, these authors observed that the accumulation of isoamyl alcohol 341 halted after glucose exhaustion, despite the presence of residual leucine, its precursor, 342 suggesting that leucine degradation through the Ehrlich pathway was strongly dependent on the cytosolic availability of NADH and/or of the amino acceptor a-343 344 ketoglutarate. This was confirmed in glucose pulse experiments in the stationary phase that re-established the synthesis of the higher alcohol. Finally, differences in respiro-345

fermentative metabolism may also be partly responsible for this low accumulation; in *C. albicans*, the production of aromatic alcohols is higher under anaerobic growth than aerobic growth (Ghosh et al., 2008). In LNM and SM, the metabolism of *S. cerevisiae* is anaerobic due to the Crabtree effect; however, in LGM, a medium containing significantly lower amounts of sugar, *S. cerevisiae* metabolism is partially aerobic, which may result in decreased aromatic alcohol synthesis.

352 Aromatic alcohols are quantitatively the largest group of volatile components, and their 353 presence, particularly phenylethanol, is essential for overall flavour quality. The Erhlich 354 pathway is active in other yeast such as Kluyveromyces marxianus and Yarrowia 355 lipolytica (Celińska et al., 2013; Fabre et al., 1998). Additionally, other non-356 conventional wine yeast, such as H. uvarum, Zygosaccharomyces bailii, T. pretoriensis 357 (Zupan et al., 2013), S. bacillaris, M. pulcherrima and T. delbrueckii, which we reported here, are able to produce aromatic alcohols. However, in all cases, non-358 Saccharomyces species produce lower quantities than S. cerevisiae, indicating that the 359 360 Erhlich pathway may not be as active in non-Saccharomyces species as in 361 Saccharomyces under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

362 TrpOH was the major aromatic alcohol synthesized by most species. This may be 363 attributable to the fact that Trp was present in higher concentrations than the other two 364 aromatic amino acids in the media; however, the production yield of TrpOH was also 365 higher for most species. Additionally, although Trp is a poor source of nitrogen, cells 366 uptake this amino acid early during fermentation (Beltran et al., 2005; Henschke and 367 Jiranek, 1993), which may favour the synthesis of TrpOH. The increase in precursors 368 resulted in a general increase in the production of aromatic alcohols, which was 369 consistent with previous studies (Ghosh et al., 2008; Gori et al., 2011), although the 370 increases in alcohols were not truly proportional to the increases in precursors. Crepin et 371 al. (2017) claimed that modulation of the production of targeted fermentative aromas 372 was achieved by modifying the availability of exogenous amino acids; the authors 373 reported a low contribution of the carbon skeletons of consumed amino acids to the 374 production of volatile compounds. However, these authors studied the synthesis of higher alcohols derived from branched chain amino acids, which primarily originate 375 376 from sugar catabolism (Crépin et al., 2017), whereas aromatic alcohols are synthesized when their precursors are added to the medium (Ehrlich, 1907; Webb and Ingraham, 377 378 1963). Moreover, in S. cerevisiae, certain reactions in the aromatic amino acid biosynthesis pathway from glucose are subject to feedback inhibition (Helmstaedt et al., 379 380 2005). On the other hand, in Saccharomyces, the increase in alcohol precursors resulted in a lower cell density, which may be related to the high content of Trp in this medium, 381 382 as the growth of S. cerevisiae is negatively affected when Trp is used as a unique 383 nitrogen source (Gutiérrez et al., 2013).

384 The production of aromatic alcohols has been previously studied in other wine yeast 385 species, such as H. uvarum, S. bacillaris (Sym C. zemplinina), T. pretoriensis and Z. bailii, in a medium similar to SM (Zupan et al., 2013). However, this production has not 386 387 yet been studied in other yeast species of increasing interest for wine fermentation. 388 Among the three aromatic alcohols, phenylethanol has been the most studied in 389 fermentations, both in single and in coinoculated fermentations, due to its positive 390 influence in the aroma (Belda et al., 2017; Benito et al., 2015; Gobbi et al., 2013; 391 Parapouli et al., 2010; Sadoudi et al., 2012). In general, non-Saccharomyces species 392 synthesize lower amounts of aromatic alcohols than S. cerevisiae. However, in different 393 studies that have used coinoculation between non-Saccharomyces species and S. 394 cerevisiae in fermentation, the resulting wines presented a higher contents of aromatic 395 alcohols (Azzolini et al., 2015; Varela et al., 2016, Belda et al., 2017). The higher synthesis of these alcohols in *S. cerevisiae* may occur because non-*Saccharomyces*species differ from *S. cerevisiae* in the distribution of metabolic flux during
fermentation and therefore differ in ethanol production, biomass synthesis, and byproduct formation (Ciani et al., 2000; Magyar and Tóth, 2011; Milanovic et al., 2012;
Tofalo et al., 2012).

401 Moreover, these species experience an elevated contribution of respiration to their 402 metabolism; this is the case even for T. delbrueckii, which has been described as 403 Crabtree-positive (Alves-Araujo et al., 2007). Indeed, Quirós et al. (2014) investigated 404 the extent of respiration-fermentative metabolism in different yeast strains and reported that some species commonly found in oenological environments, such as M. 405 406 pulcherrima, Starmerella bombicola and T. delbrueckii, respire between 40-100% of 407 consumed sugar under suitable aeration conditions. Thus, an elevated respiratory 408 metabolism may underlie lower aromatic alcohol production, as described for C. 409 albicans (Ghosh et al., 2008). In fact, in this study, C. albicans cells grown 410 anaerobically at 30 °C produced roughly twice as much PheOH, TrpOH and TyrOH as 411 they do under aerobic conditions. As in Saccharomyces, the higher production of 412 aromatic alcohols was detected under nitrogen-limiting conditions in non-413 Saccharomyces species. Another interesting aspect of our study is the finding that S. 414 bacillaris produces all three aromatic alcohols, although at very low concentrations, 415 unlike the observations of Zupan et al. (2013); one explanation for this may be the 416 lower detection limits used in our method. Under the conditions used by Zupan et al. 417 (2013), no aromatic alcohol synthesis was detected during alcoholic fermentation by S. 418 bacillaris. S. bacillaris belonged to the Candida genus until 2012 (Duarte et al., 2012), 419 and although it is currently included in another genus, it continues to share many 420 features with Candida. Low levels of aromatic alcohols were secreted by S. bacillaris,

but these were similar to the concentrations detected in C. albicans in SD medium (3 421 422 µM TyrOH (Chen et al., 2004)). Regarding M. pulcherrima, it is interesting that the 423 synthesis of aromatic alcohols appeared to be favoured under low glucose condition. 424 Furthermore, this species grew and underwent significantly better fermentation when 425 the aromatic amino acid contents were increased, unlike the other species. In a recent 426 study performed using single nitrogen sources, Kemsawasd et al. (2015) observed that 427 aromatic amino acids did not support well neither growth or fermentation performance 428 in the species tested that included *M. pulcherrima*, although another strain was used. After S. cerevisiae, T. delbrueckii presents a better oenological profile; higher 429 430 concentrations of aromatic alcohols in SM medium were also observed for other non-431 Saccharomyces yeasts. T. delbrueckii synthesized the fewest aromatic alcohols, with the 432 exception of S. bacillaris, in other media containing low nitrogen and low glucose. 433 Therefore, T. delbrueckii appears to be affected by nutrient limitation. Moreover, in 434 LGM, the profile of accumulated aromatic alcohols changed, and PheOH was the major alcohol formed by T. delbrueckii. 435

436 When the intracellular synthesis of these aromatic alcohols was studied during SM 437 fermentation, similar profiles were observed for S. cerevisiae, H. uvarum and M. 438 *pulcherrima*. These yeasts synthesized aromatic alcohols during the early exponential 439 phase, when the yeast population was increasing and the need for nitrogen was higher; 440 therefore, the deamination and transamination of amino acids were essential steps to 441 fulfil the nitrogen demands of cells. The transamination reaction, which is the first step 442 in the Ehrlich pathway, is followed by decarboxylation, which is thermodynamically 443 favoured (Henry et al., 2007). This decarboxylation pulls transamination toward complete utilization of the nitrogen-donating amino acid, resulting in the formation of 444 445 the fusel alcohol or fusel acid, depending on the redox state of the cell (Hazelwood et 446 al., 2008). We have observed that cells secrete those aromatic alcohols into the medium 447 during the shift from exponential to stationary phase, when mechanisms required for the 448 starvation period are induced, which is consistent with previous studies (Chen and Fink, 449 2006; Gori et al., 2011; Zupan et al., 2013). The secretion of these molecules at the end 450 of the exponential phase indicates a connection to cell density, suggesting that aromatic 451 alcohols are potential OS molecules in these species, as previously suggested for C. 452 albicans, S. cerevisiae and D. hansenii (Chen et al., 2004; Chen and Fink, 2006; Gori et 453 al., 2011). According to Fabre et al. (1998), if Phe is added after the exponential growth phase, no bioconversion to PheOH is observed during stationary phase in 454 455 Kluyveromyces marxianus. Compared to other yeasts investigated in this study, T. 456 delbrueckii alone reached its highest levels of PheOH and TrpOH at two different times. 457 PheOH may exert an auto-stimulatory effect on TrpOH production, as synergies 458 between both alcohols have been observed in S. cerevisiae (Chen and Fink, 2006). 459 Based on this result, T. delbrueckii undertakes growth phase-dependent differential 460 regulation to synthesize these aromatic alcohols. This delay in synthesis, together with a 461 low population during the first 12 h, also resulted in a delay in the extracellular 462 secretion of the aromatic alcohols. In the case of S. bacillaris, very low intracellular 463 accumulation and extracellular secretion were related to the deficient growth of this 464 species.

In this study, we have demonstrated that an increase in precursor levels resulted in the higher accumulation of the resulting alcohols; therefore, these compounds may be increased under oenological conditions. Moreover, aromatic alcohols have been reported to possess quorum-sensing activity, and their effects, together with ethanol, on *S. cerevisiae* morphology have been thoroughly described (Chen and Fink, 2006; González et al., 2017). However, there is limited knowledge of the effects of these QS

molecules in non-*Saccharomyces* wine yeasts. Further studies investigating the roles of
those aromatic alcohols in non-*Saccharomyces* yeast species will be necessary to
understand yeast interactions and quorum-sensing mechanisms in wine yeasts.

474 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

475 To summarize, we show that, in addition to the well-studied S. cerevisae, the Erhlich 476 pathway is active in other yeasts that produce aromatic alcohols during alcoholic 477 fermentation, although their regulation appears to be somewhat different than that of S. 478 cerevisiae. S. bacillaris was the lowest producer of aromatic alcohols, whereas S. 479 cerevisiae was the highest producer. Carbon and nitrogen availability as well as 480 precursors influence the production of these alcohols; in particular, nitrogen depletion 481 induced notable levels of aromatic alcohols. To date, the synthesis of these molecules 482 by wine yeasts demonstrates high oenological potential, as M. pulcherrima and T. delbrueckii had not previously been evaluated. Here, these two species were able to 483 484 synthesize considerable amounts of alcohols, which may regulate their growth. 485 Aromatic alcohols also have many important biotechnological applications, and relevant 486 concentrations of these compounds positively affect wine. In this study, we 487 demonstrated that varying nutrient concentrations in must result in adjustments to the 488 synthesis patterns of aromatic alcohols for all yeast species studied.

489 Acknowledgement

490 The authors thank Rosa Ras from the Centre for Omic Sciences for her help in the491 determination of aromatic alcohols.

492 Funding sources

The authors thank the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness, Spain (Projects
AGL2013-47300-C3-1-R and AGL2016-77505-C3-3-R), for financial support. BG

- 495 holds a Fellowship from AGAUR (government of Catalonia), JV has a pre-doctoral
- 496 fellowship from the Oenological Biotechnology group of the University Rovira i Virgili
- and MAMP has a Fellowship linked to AGL2013-47300-C3-1-R Project.

498 **REFERENCES**

- Alves-Araujo, C., Pacheco, A., Almeida, M.J., Spencer-Martins, I., Leao, C., Sousa,
 M.J., 2007. Sugar utilization patterns and respiro-fermentative metabolism in the
 baker's yeast *Torulaspora delbrueckii*. Microbiology 153, 898–904.
 doi:10.1099/mic.0.2006/003475-0
- Avbelj, M., Zupan, J., Kranjc, L., Raspor, P., 2015. Quorum-sensing kinetics in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: A symphony of ARO genes and aromatic alcohols. J.
 Agric. Food Chem. 63, 8544–8550. doi:10.1021/acs.jafc.5b03400
- Azzolini, M., Tosi, E., Lorenzini, M., Finato, F., Zapparoli, G., 2015. Contribution to
 the aroma of white wines by controlled *Torulaspora delbrueckii* cultures in
 association with *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 3,
 277-293. doi 10.1007/s11274-014-1774-1
- 510 Bassler, B.L., 2002. Small talk: Cell-to-cell communication in bacteria. Cell.
 511 doi:10.1016/S0092-8674(02)00749-3
- 512 Belda, I., Ruiz, J., Esteban-Fernández, A., Navascués, E., Marquina, D., Santos, A., Moreno-Arribas, M.V., 2017. Microbial contribution to wine aroma and its 513 514 intended use for wine quality improvement. Molecules 22, 1–29. doi:10.3390/molecules22020189 515
- Beltran, G., Esteve-Zarzoso, B., Rozès, N., Mas, A., Guillamón, J.M., 2005. Influence
 of the timing of nitrogen additions during synthetic grape must fermentations on
 fermentation kinetics and nitrogen consumption. J. Agric. Food Chem. 53, 996–
 1002. doi:10.1021/jf0487001
- 520 Beltran, G., Novo, M., Rozès, N., Mas, A., Guillamón, J.M., 2004. Nitrogen catabolite

- repression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* during wine fermentations. FEMS Yeast
 Res. 4, 625–632. doi:10.1016/j.femsyr.2003.12.004
- Benito, S., Hofmann, T., Laier, M., Lochbühler, B., Schüttler, A., Ebert, K., Fritsch, S.,
 Röcker, J., Rauhut, D., 2015. Effect on quality and composition of Riesling wines
 fermented by sequential inoculation with non-*Saccharomyces* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Eur. Food Res. Technol. 241, 707–717. doi:10.1007/s00217-015-24978
- 528 Carrau, F.M., Medina, K., Farina, L., Boido, E., Henschke, P.A., Dellacassa, E., 2008.
 529 Production of fermentation aroma compounds by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* wine
 530 yeasts: effects of yeast assimilable nitrogen on two model strains. FEMS Yeast
 531 Res. 8, 1196–1207. doi:10.1111/j.1567-1364.2008.00412.x
- 532 Celińska, E., Kubiak, P., Białas, W., Dziadas, M., Grajek, W., 2013. *Yarrowia*533 *lipolytica*: the novel and promising 2-phenylethanol producer. J. Ind. Microbiol.
 534 Biotechnol. 40, 389–392. doi:10.1007/s10295-013-1240-3
- 535 Chen, H., Fink, G.R., 2006. Feedback control of mophogenesis in fungi by aromatic
 536 alcohols. Gene Dev. 20, 1150–1161. doi:10.1101/gad.1411806.sponse
- 537 Chen, H., Fink, G.R., 2006. Feedback control of morphogenesis in fungi by aromatic
 538 alcohols. Genes Dev. 20, 1150–1161. doi:10.1101/gad.1411806
- 539 Chen, H., Fujita, M., Feng, Q., Clardy, J., Fink, G.R., 2004. Tyrosol is a quorum-
- 540 sensing molecule in *Candida albicans*. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 101, 5048–
- 541 52. doi:10.1073/pnas.0401416101
- 542 Ciani, Ferraro, Fatichenti, 2000. Influence of glycerol production on the aerobic and
 543 anaerobic growth of the wine yeast *Candida stellata*. Enzyme Microb. Technol. 27,

544 <u>698–703</u>.

- Cornford, E.M., Crane, P.D., Braun, L.D., Bocash, W.D., Nyerges, A.M., Oldendorf,
 W.H., 1981. Reduction in brain glucose utilization rate after tryptophol (3-Indole
 ethanol) treatment. J. Neurochem. 36, 1758–1765. doi:10.1111/j.14714159.1981.tb00428.x
- 549 Crépin, L., Truong, N.M., Bloem, A., Sanchez, I., Dequin, S., Camarasa, C., 2017.
 550 Management of multiple nitrogen sources during wine fermentation by *S.*551 *cerevisiae*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 83, AEM.02617-16.
 552 doi:10.1128/AEM.02617-16
- Dickinson, J.R., 1996. "Fusel" alcohols induce hyphal-like extensions and
 pseudohyphal formation in yeasts. Microbiology 142, 1391–1397.
 doi:10.1099/13500872-142-6-1391
- Duarte, F.L., Pimentel, N.H., Teixeira, A., Fonseca, A., 2012. Saccharomyces bacillaris
 is not a synonym of *Candida stellata*: Reinstatement as *Starmerella bacillaris*comb. nov. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 102, 653–658. doi:10.1007/s10482-0129762-7
- Ehrlich, F., 1907. Über die Bedingungen der Fuselölbildung und über ihren
 Zusammenhang mit dem Eiweißaufbau der Hefe. Berichte der Dtsch. Chem.
 Gesellschaft 40, 1027–1047. doi:10.1002/cber.190704001156
- Fabre, C.E., Blanc, P.J., Goma, G., 1998. Production of 2-phenylethyl alcohol by *Kluyveromyces marxianus*. Biotechnol. Prog. 14, 270–274.
 doi:10.1021/bp9701022
- 566 Fleet, G.H., 2003. Yeast interactions and wine flavour. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 86, 11-22

567 doi:10.1016/S0168-1605(03)00245-9

- Fuqua, W.C., Winans, S.C., Greenberg, E.P., 1994. Quorum sensing in bacteria: The
 LuxR-LuxI family of cell density- responsive transcriptional regulators. J.
 Bacteriol. doi:10.1111/j.1462-5822.2006.00734.x
- Ghosh, S., Kebaara, B.W., Atkin, A.L., Nickerson, K.W., 2008. Regulation of aromatic
 alcohol production in *Candida albicans*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 74, 7211–7218.
 doi:10.1128/AEM.01614-08
- Giovannini, C., Straface, E., Modesti, D., Coni, E., Cantafora, A., De Vincenzi, M.,
 Malorni, W., Masella, R., 1999. Tyrosol, the major olive oil biophenol, protects
 against oxidized-LDL-induced injury in Caco-2 cells. J. Nutr. 129, 1269–1277.
 doi:content/129/7/1269.long
- Gobbi, M., Comitini, F., Domizio, P., Romani, C., Lencioni, L., Mannazzu, I., Ciani,
 M., 2013. *Lachancea thermotolerans* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* in
 simultaneous and sequential co-fermentation: A strategy to enhance acidity and
 improve the overall quality of wine. Food Microbiol. 33, 271–281.
 doi:10.1016/j.fm.2012.10.004
- Gómez-Alonso, S., Hermosín-Gutiérrez, I., García-Romero, E., 2007. Simultaneous
 HPLC analysis of biogenic amines, amino acids, and ammonium ion as
 aminoenone derivatives in wine and beer samples. J. Agric. Food Chem. 55, 608–
 613. doi:10.1021/jf062820m
- Gonzalez, B., François, J., Renaud, M., 1997. A rapid and reliable method for
 metabolite extraction in yeast using boiling buffered ethanol. Yeast 13, 1347–1356.
 doi:10.1002/(SICI)1097-0061(199711)13:14<1347::AID-YEA176>3.0.CO;2-O

- González, B., Mas, A., Beltran, G., Cullen, P.J., Torija, M.J., 2017. Role of
 mitochondrial retrograde pathway in regulating ethanol-inducible filamentous
 growth in yeast. Front. Physiol. 8, 148. doi:10.3389/fphys.2017.00148
- 593 Gori, K., Knudsen, P.B., Nielsen, K.F., Arneborg, N., Jespersen, L., M, B., KJ, V., FR,
- D., 2011. Alcohol-based quorum sensing plays a role in adhesion and sliding
 motility of the yeast *Debaryomyces hansenii*. FEMS Yeast Res. 11, 643–652.
 doi:10.1111/j.1567-1364.2011.00755.x
- 597 Gutiérrez, A., Beltran, G., Warringer, J., Guillamón, J.M., 2013. Genetic basis of
 598 variations in nitrogen source utilization in four wine commercial yeast strains.
 599 PLoS One 8, e67166. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0067166
- Hazelwood, L.H., Daran, J.-M.G., van Maris, A.J.A., Pronk, J.T., Dickinson, J.R., 2008.
 The Ehrlich pathway for fusel alcohol production: a century of research on
 Saccharomyces cerevisiae metabolism. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 74, 2259–2266.
 doi:10.1128/AEM.02625-07
- Heard, G.M., Fleet, G.H., 1988. The effects of temperature and pH on the growth of
 yeast species during the fermentation of grape juice. J. Appl. Bacteriol. 65, 23–28.
 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2672.1988.tb04312.x
- Helmstaedt, K., Strittmatter, A., Lipscomb, W.N., Braus, G.H., 2005. Evolution of 3deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate-7-phosphate synthase-encoding genes in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 102, 9784–9789.
 doi:10.1073/pnas.0504238102
- Henry, C.S., Broadbelt, L.J., Hatzimanikatis, V., 2007. Thermodynamics-based
 metabolic flux analysis. Biophys. J. 92, 1792–1805.
 doi:10.1529/biophysj.106.093138

- Henschke, P.A., Jiranek, V., 1993. Yeast: Metabolism of nitrogen compounds. In: Wine
 Microbiology and Biotechnology 77–164.
- Hornby, J.M., Jensen, E.C., Lisec, A.D., Tasto, J.J., Jahnke, B., Shoemaker, R.,
 Dussault, P., Nickerson, K.W., 2001. Quorum sensing in the dimorphic fungus *Candida albicans* is mediated by farnesol. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 67, 2982–
 2992. doi:10.1128/AEM.67.7.2982-2992.2001
- Jiménez-Martí, E. and del Olmo, M., 2008. Addition of ammonia or amino acids to a
 nitrogen-depleted medium affects gene expression patterns in yeast cells during
 alcoholic fermentation. FEMS Yeast Res. 8, 245–256. doi:10.1111/j.15671364.2007.00325.x
- Jolly, N.P., Varela, C., Pretorius, I.S., 2014. Not your ordinary yeast: non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts in wine production uncovered. FEMS Yeast Res. 14, 215–
 237. doi:10.1111/1567-1364.12111
- Kemsawasd, V., Viana, T., Ardö, Y., Arneborg, N., 2015. Influence of nitrogen sources
 on growth and fermentation performance of different wine yeast species during
 alcoholic fermentation. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 99, 10191–10207.
 doi:10.1007/s00253-015-6835-3
- 631 Kruppa, M., 2009. Quorum sensing and *Candida albicans*. Mycoses.
 632 doi:10.1111/j.1439-0507.2008.01626.x
- Lleixà, J., Manzano, M., Mas, A., Portillo, M. del C., 2016. *Saccharomyces* and non *Saccharomyces* competition during microvinification under different sugar and
 nitrogen conditions. Front. Microbiol. 7. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.01959
- 636 Lorenz, M.C., Cutler, N.S., Heitman, J., 2000. Characterization of alcohol-induced

- 637 filamentous growth in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Biol. Cell 11, 183–199.
 638 doi:10.1091/mbc.11.1.183
- Magyar, I., Tóth, T., 2011. Comparative evaluation of some oenological properties in
 wine strains of *Candida stellata*, Candida zemplinina, Saccharomyces uvarum and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Food Microbiol. 28, 94–100.
 doi:10.1016/j.fm.2010.08.011
- Mas, A., Guillamon, J.M., Torija, M.J., Beltran, G., Cerezo, A.B., Troncoso, A.M.,
 Garcia-Parrilla, M.C., 2014. Bioactive compounds derived from the yeast
 metabolism of aromatic amino acids during alcoholic fermentation. Biomed Res.
 Int. 2014, 898045. doi:10.1155/2014/898045
- Milanovic, V., Ciani, M., Oro, L., Comitini, F., 2012. *Starmerella bombicola* influences
 the metabolism of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* at pyruvate decarboxylase and
 alcohol dehydrogenase level during mixed wine fermentation. Microb. Cell Fact.
 11, 18. doi:10.1186/1475-2859-11-18
- 651 Mouret, J.R., Camarasa, C., Angenieux, M., Aguera, E., Perez, M., Farines, V., Sablayrolles, J.M., 2014. Kinetic analysis and gas-liquid balances of the 652 653 production of fermentative aromas during winemaking fermentations: Effect of temperature. 654 assimilable nitrogen and Food Res. Int. 62. 1 - 10.655 doi:10.1016/j.foodres.2014.02.044
- Padilla, B., García-Fernández, D., González, B., Izidoro, I., Esteve-Zarzoso, B., Beltran,
 G., Mas, A., 2016. Yeast biodiversity from DOQ Priorat uninoculated
 fermentations. Front. Microbiol. 7, 930. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.00930
- Parapouli, M., Hatziloukas, E., Drainas, C., Perisynakis, A., 2010. The effect of Debina
 grapevine indigenous yeast strains of *Metschnikowia* and *Saccharomyces* on wine

661 flavour. J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 37, 85–93. doi:10.1007/s10295-009-0651-7

- Pu, L., Jingfan, F., Kai, C., Chao-an, L., Yunjiang, C., 2014. Phenylethanol promotes
 adhesion and biofilm formation of the antagonistic yeast *Kloeckera apiculata* for
 the control of blue mold on citrus. FEMS Yeast Res. 14, 536–546.
 doi:10.1111/1567-1364.12139
- Quirós, M., Rojas, V., Gonzalez, R., Morales, P., 2014. Selection of non-*Saccharomyces* yeast strains for reducing alcohol levels in wine by sugar
 respiration. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 181, 85–91.
 doi:10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2014.04.024
- 670 Sadoudi, M., Tourdot-Maréchal, R., Rousseaux, S., Steyer, D., Gallardo-Chacón, J.J.,
- Ballester, J., Vichi, S., Guérin-Schneider, R., Caixach, J., Alexandre, H., 2012.
 Yeast-yeast interactions revealed by aromatic profile analysis of Sauvignon Blanc
 wine fermented by single or co-culture of non-*Saccharomyces* and *Saccharomyces*

674 yeasts. Food Microbiol. 32, 243–253. doi:10.1016/j.fm.2012.06.006

- Sprague, G.F., Winans, S.C., 2006. Eukaryotes learn how to count: Quorum sensing by
 yeast. Genes Dev. doi:10.1101/gad.1432906
- Tofalo, R., Schirone, M., Torriani, S., Rantsiou, K., Cocolin, L., Perpetuini, G., Suzzi,
 G., 2012. Diversity of *Candida zemplinina* strains from grapes and Italian wines.
- 679 Food Microbiol. 29, 18–26. doi:10.1016/j.fm.2011.08.014
- 680 van Rijswijck, I.M.H., Dijksterhuis, J., Wolkers-Rooijackers, J.C.M., Abee, T., Smid,
- E.J., 2015. Nutrient limitation leads to penetrative growth into agar and affects
- aroma formation in *Pichia fabianii*, P. kudriavzevii and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.
- 683 Yeast 32, 89–101. doi:10.1002/yea.3050

- Varela, C., Sengler, F., Solomon, M., Curtin, C., 2016. Volatile flavour profile of
 reduced alcohol wines fermented with the non-conventional yeast species *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* and *Saccharomyces uvarum*. Food Chem. 209, 57–64.
 doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.04.024
- Vidal, E.E., de Morais Junior, M.A., François, J.M., de Billerbeck, G.M., 2014.
 Biosynthesis of higher alcohol flavour compounds by the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: impact of oxygen availability and responses to glucose pulse in
 minimal growth medium with leucine as sole nitrogen source. Yeast 32, 47-56.
 doi:10.1002/yea.3045
- 693 Webb, A.D., Ingraham, J.L., 1963. Fusel Oil. Adv. Appl. Microbiol. 5, 317-353.
 694 doi:10.1016/S0065-2164(08)70014-5
- Wuster, A., Babu, M.M., 2009. Transcriptional control of the quorum sensing response
 in yeast. Mol. Biosyst. 6, 134–141. doi:10.1039/B913579K
- 697 Zupan, J., Avbelj, M., Butinar, B., Kosel, J., Šergan, M., Raspor, P., 2013. Monitoring
- 698 of quorum-sensing molecules during minifermentation studies in wine yeast. J.
- 699 Agric. Food Chem. 61, 2496–2505. doi:10.1021/jf3051363

701 FIGURE LEGENDS

702 Figure 1. Production of aromatic alcohols by different veast species in standard 703 must (SM). (A) Concentrations of aromatic alcohols obtained in fermentations 704 performed in SM (300 mg/l nitrogen and 200 g/l sugars, and with different 705 concentrations of aromatic alcohol precursors: regular concentration (1x) and five-fold 706 increased (5x)). Statistical analysis was performed by comparing 1x against 5x conditions for each species; asterisks denote p-values < 0.05. (B) Bi-plots depicting 707 708 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with the following variables: aromatic alcohol 709 concentrations, maximal cell density and consumed sugar during fermentation.

710 Figure 2: Production of aromatic alcohols by different yeast species under nitrogen

711 limitation (LNM). (A) Concentrations of aromatic alcohols obtained in fermentations 712 performed in LNM (100 mg/l nitrogen and 200 g/l sugars, and with different 713 concentrations of aromatic alcohol precursors: regular concentration (1x) and five-fold 714 increased (5x). (B) Statistical analysis was performed by comparing 1x against 5x 715 conditions for each species; asterisks denote p-values < 0.05.</p>

Figure 3. Production of aromatic alcohols by different yeast species in low glucose must (LGM). (A) Concentrations of aromatic alcohols obtained in fermentations performed in LGM (300 mg/l nitrogen and 20 g/l sugars, and with different concentrations of aromatic alcohol precursors: regular concentration (1x) and five-fold increased (5x)). Statistical analysis was performed by comparing 1x against 5x conditions for each species; asterisks denote p-values < 0.05.

Figure 4. Monitoring the intra- and extracellular production of aromatic alcohols
and cell populations during fermentation with different yeast species.
Fermentations were carried out for 48 h at 28 °C in standard must (SM) supplemented
with a five-fold increase in aromatic amino acids (5X). (A) *S. cerevisiae* QA23, (B) *H.*

- *uvarum* Hu4, (**C**) *S. bacillaris* Cz4 (**D**)*M. pulcherrima* Mpp, and (**E**) *T. delbrueckii* Tdp.
- 727 Aromatic alcohol concentrations are expressed as the average of biological triplicates.

728 Table 1: Reducing sugar, nitrogen and aromatic amino acid contents of the

729 different synthetic musts used in this study.

			Sugar concentration (g/L)		Aromatic amino acid (g/l)			Yeast assimilable nitrogen (YAN-mg nitrogen/L)			
Synthetic	e Must	[Aromatic amino acid]	Glucose	Fructose	Tyrosine	Tryptophan	Phenylalanine	aaa + NH ₄ Cl			
Synthetic		lx	100	100	0.020	0.174	0.038	300			
Must (standard)	(SM)	5 <i>x</i>	100	100	0.098	0.871	0.189	300			
Synthetic		lx	20	0	0.020	0.174	0.038	300			
Low Glucose Must	(LGM)	5 <i>x</i>	20	0	0.098	0.871	0.189	300			
Synthetic		lx	100	100	0.007	0.058	0.013	100			
Low Nitrogen Must	(LNM)	5x	100	100	0.033	0.290	0.063	100			

Table 2: Maximal growth and sugar consumption achieved by each yeast species
and in each medium. The results are expressed as the average; the standard deviation
(SD) was calculated from three biological replicates. Statistical significance was
calculated by comparing three different musts within the same strain; letters indicate
significant differences (p-value < 0.05).

Voost stroin	Muet	[Aromatic	Maximal g	growth	Consumed Sugar		
i cast strain	wiust	amino acid]	600nm	SD	g/l	SD	
	SM	<i>1x</i>	11.47 ^c	1.32	199.95 ^b	0.00	
	JIVI	5x	9.22 ^c	1.01	194.60 ^b	1.60	
S. cerevisiae	I NM	lx	7.64 ^b	1.66	198.58 ^ь	1.00	
QA23	LINIVI	5x	7.25 ^b	0.97	197.26 ^b	1.75	
	LCM	<i>1x</i>	4.80 ^a	0.37	19.97 ^a	0.04	
	LUM	5x	4.20 ^a	0.31	19.49 ^a	0.35	
	SM	<i>1x</i>	4.72 ^c	0.14	145.40 ^c	10.23	
	SIVI	5x	4.33 ^c	0.24	136.75 ^c	3.42	
H. uvarum	I NIN	<i>1x</i>	1.95 ^b	0.38	78.43 ^b	6.45	
Hu4	LINM	5x	2.29 ^b	0.36	81.55 ^b	6.00	
	LON	<i>1x</i>	3.89 ^a	0.46	19.93 ^a	0.11	
	LGM	5x	3.76 ^a	0.12	19.90 ^a	0.00	
	SM	<i>1x</i>	3.65 ^a	0.33	123.66 ^c	3.49	
		5x	4.44 ^c	0.25	127.40 ^c	2.59	
S. bacillaris	LNM	1x	2.45 ^b	0.35	71.85 ^b	2.36	
Cz4		5x	2.71 ^b	0.32	81.35 ^b	8.61	
	LGM	<i>1x</i>	3.74 ^a	0.16	19.913 ^a	0.12	
		5x	2.38 ^b	0.39	19.653 ^a	0.26	
	CM	<i>1x</i>	3.67 ^b	1.08	106.18 ^d	0.06	
	SM	5x	6.57 ^c	0.65	100.20 ^d	7.80	
M. pulcherrima		1x	3.36 ^b	0.38	37.66 ^b	4.88	
Mp4	LINM	5x	5.36 ^a	1.02	70.39 ^c	15.29	
	LON	1x	4.49 ^a	0.56	19.99 ^a	0.00	
	LGM	5x	5.72 ^a	0.20	19.82 ^a	0.26	
	C) /	<i>1x</i>	10.31 ^c	0.40	176.34 ^c	2.72	
	SM	5x	8.35 ^c	1.58	177.82 ^c	2.00	
T. delbrueckii	1 2 2 4	<i>1x</i>	5.95 ^b	0.66	107.81 ^b	6.03	
Tdp	LNM	5x	5.00 ^b	0.79	93.03 ^b	10.89	
	1	<i>1x</i>	3.06 ^a	0.50	19.99 ^a	0.00	
	LGM	5x	4.28 ^d	0.08	19.95 ^a	0.04	

Table 3. Production yield of aromatic alcohols in SM and LNM. The yield was
calculated as the ratio between the concentration obtained for each aromatic alcohol and
the concentration consumed of its precursor. The results are expressed as the average;
the standard deviation was determined by taking into account three biological replicates.
In all cases, comparisons are within the same species; letters indicate significant
differences (p-value < 0.05).



		[TyrOH] / [Tyr]		[PheOH]	/ [Phe]	[TrpOH] / [Trp]	
Yeast strain	Must	(µM/µM)	SD	(µM/µM)	SD	(μ Μ/μ Μ)	SD
S. cerevisae	SM	0.50^{a}	0.19	0.33 ^a	0.09	0.34 ^a	0.08
QA23	LNM	1.01 ^b	0.18	1.03 ^b	0.06	0.50^{b}	0.05
H. uvarum	SM	0.20^{a}	0.07	0.06^{a}	0.00	0.05 ^a	0.03
Hu4	LNM	0.72 ^b	0.14	0.10 ^b	0.03	0.23 ^b	0.05
S. bacillaris	SM	0.04 ^a	0.01	0.01 ^a	0.00	ND	-
Cz4	LNM	0.19 ^b	0.02	0.07^{b}	0.00	ND	-
M. pulcherrima	SM	0.09 ^a	0.04	0.09^{a}	0.01	0.03 ^a	0.02
Mpp	LNM	0.13 ^b	0.01	0.09 ^a	0.01	0.04 ^a	0.00
T. delbrueckii	SM	0.17 ^a	0.04	0.06 ^a	0.02	0.03 ^a	0.02
Tdp	LNM	0.71 ^b	0.26	0.25 ^b	0.04	0.19 ^b	0.00

745 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Figure S1: Bi-plots depicting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with the following
variables: aromatic alcohol concentrations, maximal cell density and consumed sugar

- during fermentation in SM 1X (A) and 5x (B) of aromatic amino acid content.
- 749
- 750 **Figure S2:** Bi-plots depicting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with the following
- variables: aromatic alcohol concentrations, maximal cell density and consumed sugar
- 752 during fermentation in LGM.
- 753





757 Figure_S2



Table S1: Production yield of aromatic alcohols in SM and LNM at 5x of aromatic amino acid content. The yield was calculated as the ratio between the concentration obtained for each aromatic alcohol and the concentration consumed of its precursor. The results are expressed as the average; the standard deviation was determined by taking into account three biological replicates. In all cases, comparisons are within the same species; letters indicate significant differences (p-value < 0.05), aaa; aromatic amino</p>

_			[TyrOH]/[Tyr]		[PheOH]/[Phe]		[TrpOH]/[Trp]	
Yeast strain	Must	[aaa]	$(\mu M/\mu M)$	SD	$(\mu M/\mu M)$	SD	$(\mu M/\mu M)$	SD
S. cerevisae	SM	5 <i>x</i>	0.62 ^a	0.15	0.04 ^a	0.01	1.05 ^a	0.08
QA23	LNM	5 <i>x</i>	0.37 ^b	0.07	0.50^{b}	0.13	0.70^{b}	0.10
H. uvarum	SM	5 <i>x</i>	0.24 ^a	0.02	0.01 ^a	0.00	0.44 ^a	0.03
Hu4	LNM	5 <i>x</i>	0.59 ^b	0.09	0.09 ^a	0.01	0.53 ^b	0.05
S. bacillaris	SM	5 <i>x</i>	0.05 ^a	0.02	0.01 ^a	0.00	0.01 ^a	0.00
Cz4	LNM	5 <i>x</i>	0.07 ^a	0.03	0.04 ^a	0.01	0.01 ^a	0.01
М.	SM	5 <i>x</i>	0.08^{a}	0.04	0.02^{a}	0.00	0.48^{a}	0.05
<i>pulcherrima</i> Mpp	LNM	5 <i>x</i>	0.40^{b}	0.04	0.06 ^a	0.02	0.29 ^b	0.07

765 acid.

766

T. delbrueckii	SM	5x	0.26 ^a	0.14	0.04 ^a	0.01	0.95 ^a	0.80
Tdp	LNM	5 <i>x</i>	0.21 ^a	0.04	0.11 ^b	0.01	0.23 ^b	0.09

Table S2: Production yield of aromatic alcohols in LGM. The yield was calculated
as the ratio between the concentration obtained for each aromatic alcohol and the
concentration consumed of its precursor. The results are expressed as the average; the
standard deviation was determined by taking into account two biological replicates, aaa;
aromatic amino acid.

		[TyrOH]/[Tyr] [PheOH]/[Pho		[]/[Phe]	[TrpOH]/[Trp]		
Yeast strain	[aaa]	$(\mu M/\mu M)$	SD	(µM/µM)	SD	$(\mu M/\mu M)$	SD
S. cerevisae	<i>1x</i>	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.01	0.09	0.00
QA23	5 <i>x</i>	0.15	0.00	0.09	0.04	0.03	0.00
H. uvarum	<i>1x</i>	0.13	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.00
Hu4	5 <i>x</i>	0.41	0.01	0.08	0.00	0.16	0.01
S. bacillaris	<i>1x</i>	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
Cz4	5 <i>x</i>	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
M. pulcherrima	<i>1x</i>	0.09	0.00	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.01
Мрр	5 <i>x</i>	0.05	0.02	0.26	0.00	0.00	0.00
T. delbrueckii	<i>1x</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Tdp	5 <i>x</i>	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.00