

1 **Volatile profile of white wines fermented with sequential inoculation of *Starmerella***  
2 ***bacillaris* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae***

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35 **ABSTRACT**

36 The current study was carried out to elucidate the effect of sequential inoculation of  
37 *Starmerella bacillaris* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* on the production of white wines, in  
38 terms of both chemical and aromatic characteristics. Chardonnay, Muscat, Riesling and  
39 Sauvignon blanc wines were produced by sequential inoculation of the two yeasts and the  
40 single inoculation of *S. cerevisiae* was carried out as control. Analysis form chemical  
41 composition showed that titratable acidity and glycerol content exhibited evident differences  
42 among the wines after fermentation. For volatile compounds, mixed fermentations led to a  
43 reduction of the total ester, including ethyl acetate, which is a compound responsible for wine  
44 deterioration. Moreover, Sauvignon blanc wines fermented by mixed cultures contained  
45 significantly higher levels of esters and thiols, both associated with positive sensory attributes.  
46 These findings suggest that sequential inoculations posed a great potential in affecting and  
47 modulating the chemical and aromatic profiles of white wines, especially those produced from  
48 Sauvignon blanc grapes.

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50 **Keywords:** non-*Saccharomyces*, *Starmerella bacillaris*, sequential inoculation, white grape  
51 varieties, aroma profile

## 52 **1. Introduction**

53

54           Aroma is an important aspect of grape and wine quality, since it has a substantial  
55 influence on consumer acceptance (Sáenz-Navajas, Ballester, Fernández-Zurbano, Ferreira,  
56 Peyron & Valentin, 2016). Several aroma families construct the volatile composition of wines,  
57 among them alcohols are known to contribute to herbaceous characters, esters and terpenes to  
58 fruity and floral characters, C<sub>13</sub>-norisoprenoids to balsamic and violet aromas (Dzialo, Park,  
59 Steensels, Lievens & Verstrepen, 2017; Swiegers, Bartowsky, Henschke & Pretorius, 2005).  
60 Meanwhile, thiols generally contribute to blackcurrant, passion fruit and citrus zest descriptors  
61 (Francis & Newton, 2005). Many of these metabolic compounds are produced from non-  
62 volatile precursors through complex metabolic reactions, which begin during grape ripening  
63 and continue throughout fermentation, ageing and bottling (Swiegers et al., 2005).

64           During fermentation the yeasts, through their central glycolytic pathway, transform the  
65 sweet and low aroma must into an alcoholic, high aroma beverage. In this process, each glucose  
66 and fructose molecule is split and converted to ethanol, carbon dioxide and plenty of volatile  
67 metabolites that contribute individually or synergistically to wine composition and sensory  
68 profile, in order to provide energy necessary for cell growth maintenance and reproduction  
69 (Belda et al., 2017; Fleet, 2008; Molina, Guadalupe, Varela, Swiegers, Pretorius & Agostin,  
70 2009). In addition to this, many volatile metabolites are also released from non-volatile grape  
71 derived precursors by yeast enzymes (Swiegers et al., 2005). Examples are monoterpenes and  
72 C<sub>13</sub>-norisoprenoids, which are released from glycosidic precursors, and long-chain  
73 polyfunctional thiols, which are derived from S-cysteinylated conjugates. The production of  
74 these metabolites is strictly correlated with the fermentation conditions which the yeasts  
75 strain(s) is subjected to, that is: strain compatibility, physicochemical and nutrition parameters  
76 (Belda et al., 2017).

77 Grapes and winery equipment contain a large variety of indigenous yeasts, that are  
78 involved in spontaneously fermented wines (Bokulich, Ohta, Richardson & Mills, 2013).  
79 Allowing the must to ferment with indigenous yeasts can potentially increase the complexity  
80 of wine aromas due to the diversity of yeast species and strains, which are present (Belda et  
81 al., 2017). However, the lack of reproducibility and predictability on these fermentations has  
82 favoured the use of yeast starters, generally strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, with several  
83 phenotypes (Fleet, 2008). In addition to the choice of *S. cerevisiae* strain, the use of mixed  
84 starter cultures with selected non-*Saccharomyces* and *S. cerevisiae* yeasts can result in greater  
85 complexity and diversity of volatile metabolites in ways not reachable with pure starter cultures  
86 of *S. cerevisiae*, by simulating a spontaneous fermentation (Belda et al., 2017; Sadoudi et al.,  
87 2012).

88 Among non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts, *Starmerella bacillaris* (synonym *Candida*  
89 *zemplanina*) can tolerate relatively high concentrations of ethanol and persist until the middle-  
90 end stages of fermentation, making them more suitable for mixed fermentations (Englezos,  
91 Giacosa, Rantsiou, Rolle & Cocolin, 2017). Recent studies have revealed several potentially  
92 useful winemaking attributes, including high glycerol and low ethanol production, preference  
93 towards fructose rather than glucose, ability to tolerate relative high concentrations of ethanol,  
94 while acetic acid and acetaldehyde production is highly variable among strains (Englezos et  
95 al., 2018, Rantsiou et al., 2017). These phenotypic characteristics make this non-  
96 *Saccharomyces* species an optimum candidate to accompany *S. cerevisiae* in mixed  
97 fermentations (Mestre, Maturano, Combina, Mercado, Toro & Vasquez, 2017). In the last  
98 decade, many studies have focused on mixed fermentations with *Starm. bacillaris* and *S.*  
99 *cerevisiae* to ferment grape must and have made noticeable progress in many aspects, including  
100 the importance of strain selection, inoculation density and delay on the chemical profile of the  
101 wines (Englezos et al., 2017). However, several efforts must be performed in order to establish

102 a link between an inoculation protocol and chemical composition of wines using the same  
103 couple of strains and fermentation conditions.

104 Hence, the present study sought to investigate the effect of mixed fermentations with  
105 *Starm. bacillaris* and *S. cerevisiae* on the aroma profile of some monovarietal white wines. To  
106 this end, four of the world's most planted white wine grape varieties, namely Chardonnay,  
107 Muscat, Riesling and Sauvignon blanc, were fermented with *Starm. bacillaris* FC54 and *S.*  
108 *cerevisiae* Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup> using an inoculation delay of 48 hours. Control fermentations with *S.*  
109 *cerevisiae* Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup> were performed in parallel. The aroma profile of the resultant wines  
110 was determined by Head Space-Solid Phase Micro Extraction (HS-SPME) combined with Gas  
111 Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS).

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## 113 **2. Materials and methods**

114

### 115 *2.1. Strains*

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117 The yeast strains for this experiment were the commercial *S. cerevisiae* Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup>  
118 and *Starm. bacillaris* FC54 obtained from Lallemand Inc. (Montreal, Canada) and the yeast  
119 culture collection of DISAFA (Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences,  
120 University of Turin, Italy), respectively. These strains were selected for their enological  
121 attributes in mixed fermentations in grape must at the laboratory and pilot scale (Englezos et  
122 al., 2016a).

123

### 124 *2.2. Must preparation*

125

126 Four white wine grape varieties (*Vitis vinifera* L.) cultivars, namely Chardonnay,  
127 Muscat, Riesling and Sauvignon blanc were harvested at technological ripening from the  
128 experimental vineyard of the University of Turin at Grinzane Cavour (Cuneo, Piedmont, NW  
129 Italy). After harvesting, the grapes were destemmed, crushed and the juice obtained without  
130 the skins was sterilized by adding 200 mg/L dimethyl dicarbonate from Sigma (Milan, Italy)  
131 as previously described by Delfini, Gaia, Schellino, Strano, Pagliara & Ambrò (2002). The  
132 absence of culturable yeast population in the musts prior to inoculation was checked by plating  
133 an aliquot of the must on Wallerstein laboratory nutrient (WLN) medium (Biogenetics, Milan,  
134 Italy). The sanitization protocol was deemed successful, since no colonies were formed on the  
135 medium after 3-5 days of incubation at 28 °C. Grape musts were standardized for providing a  
136 unified starting point of sugars and YAN (Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen) for the fermentations.  
137 To this end the musts were standardized to  $245 \pm 5$  g/L of sugar and  $180 \pm 5$  mg/L of YAN  
138 using the commercial product Fermaid O<sup>®</sup> from Lallemand Inc., in order to ensure complete  
139 sugar fermentation. The chemical composition of the musts is reported in Table 1.

140

### 141 2.3. Fermentation trials

142

143 The four musts were each divided into six samples comprising three replicates of each  
144 of two types of inoculation protocols, a. inoculation with *S. cerevisiae* Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup> (pure  
145 culture fermentation), b. initial inoculation with *Starm. bacillaris* FC54 followed by *S.*  
146 *cerevisiae* Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup> after 48 hours of fermentation (mixed, sequential inoculation).  
147 Twenty-four fermentations (4 grape varieties x 2 inoculation protocols x 3 replicates = 24) in  
148 total were performed under semi-anaerobic conditions in 1 L sterile glass bottles containing  
149 800 mL of must. Each yeast strain was inoculated with  $5.0 \times 10^6$  cells/mL, which corresponds  
150 to a dose of 25 g/hL of ADY (Active Dry Yeast) (Lallemand SAS, Toulouse, France),

151 previously activated in a sterile glucose solution (5 %), incubated at 37 °C. Fermentors were  
152 fitted with air-lock to ensure semi-anaerobic conditions, after all the oxygen in the headspace  
153 is consumed and kept at 20 °C without shaking. Fermentations were considered finished when  
154 the sum of glucose and fructose was less than 2 g/L. At the end of fermentation, samples were  
155 taken from each fermentor for analysis of the volatile fermentation compounds.

156

#### 157 2.4. Microbiological analysis

158

159 The growth dynamics of the two yeasts during fermentation were monitored by plate  
160 counts. Aliquots of 1 mL were taken from each must at days 0, 2, 4, 7, 9 and 14 (only for the  
161 mixed culture fermentation), diluted in sterile Ringer's solution (Oxoid, Milan, Italy) and  
162 plated on WLN medium. Enumeration of the yeast colonies was performed after 3-5 days of  
163 incubation at 28 °C and the differentiation of the two species was carried out visually as  
164 previously described by Englezos et al. (2018) and subsequently counted. In this medium,  
165 *Starm. bacillaris* forms light to intense green with white border, whereas *S. cerevisiae* forms  
166 creamy white to light green colonies enabling the concurrent enumeration of both species.

167

#### 168 2.5. Chemical analysis

169

170 Extracellular metabolites concentration such as sugars (glucose and fructose), glycerol,  
171 organic acids (citric, tartaric, succinic, malic, lactic and acetic acid) (g/L) and ethanol (% v/v)  
172 were quantified during (0, 2, 4, 7, 9 and 14 days) and at the end of fermentation were quantified  
173 by an Agilent 1260 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) using a UV  
174 detector (UV100) at 210 nm and a refractive index detector (RI-150). Analyses were performed  
175 isocratically at 0.8 mL min<sup>-1</sup> flow-rate and at 65 °C column temperature with a 300 mm x 7.8

176 mm i.d cation exchange column (Aminex HPX-87H) and a Cation H<sup>+</sup> Microguard cartridge  
177 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA). The mobile phase was 0.0065 mol L<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>  
178 (Rolle et al., 2017). At the end of fermentation, total acidity (expressed as g/L of tartaric acid)  
179 was determined according to the official method proposed by the International Organization of  
180 Vine and Wine (OIV, 2008), while pH was registered using an InoLab 730 pH meter (WTW,  
181 Weilheim, DE). Total YAN concentration was determined spectrophotometrically by using  
182 two enzymatic kits (catalog codes: K-Large and K-PANOPA, Megazyme International,  
183 Wicklow, Ireland).

184

## 185 *2.6. Volatile profile*

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187 Volatile compounds formed through yeast metabolism in pure and mixed culture  
188 fermentations were extracted and determined by Head Space – Solid Phase Micro Extraction  
189 (HS-SPME) coupled by Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectroscopy (GC-MS). The  
190 chromatographic and MS conditions were previously described by Sánchez-Palomo, Diaz-  
191 Maroto and Perez-Coello (2005) and slightly modified by Rolle et al. (2015, 2017). For each  
192 sample, a 5 mL aliquot was transferred to a 20 mL glass headspace vial with a headspace screw  
193 cap, containing 5 mL of water, 2 g of sodium chloride and 1-heptanol solution (200 µL of 15.52  
194 mg/L solution in 10 % v/v ethanol) as internal standard (IS). The vials were sealed with 18 mm  
195 diameter silicon septa caps (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) and carefully shaken to dissolve  
196 sodium chloride before the analysis. A 50/30 µm DVB/CAR/PDMS fibre from Supelco was  
197 used to extract the volatile compounds, using a Gerstel MPS2 XL auto sampler (Gerstel,  
198 Baltimore, MD, USA). The fibre was exposed to the headspace of each vial for 20 min at 40°C  
199 and inserted into the injection port of the GC apparatus for the thermal desorption. Injections  
200 were carried out in splitless mode at 250°C for 5 min, during which the desorption of analytes



201 from the fibre was occurred.

202           Analyses were carried out using an Agilent 7890C gas chromatograph (Little Falls, DE,  
203 USA) associated with an Agilent 5975 mass selective detector and DB-WAXETR capillary  
204 column (30 m x 0.25 mm, 0.25  $\mu$ m, J&W Scientific Inc., Folsom, CA, USA). Helium was used  
205 as a carrier gas with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. the software used was Agilent G1701-90057  
206 MSD ChemStation. Chromatographic conditions are as follows: 5 min at 40°C and increased  
207 at a rate of 2°C/min to 200°C for 10 min and 5°C/min to 200°C. The oven was the held at this  
208 temperature for 5 min before returning to the initial temperature.. The injection port  
209 temperature was 250°C, the ion source temperature was 150°C and the interface temperature  
210 was 280°C. The detection was carried out by electron impact mass spectroscopy in total ion  
211 current (TIC) mode, using an ionisation energy of 70 eV. The mass acquisition range was  
212 between m/z 30-330. Volatile compounds were identified according to retention indices and  
213 mass spectra of pure standards and the NIST database (<http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry/>).  
214 The pure standard used are reported by Englezos et al. (2016b). Quantitative determination was  
215 performed using 1-heptanol as internal standard and calibration with pure standard previously  
216 reported and data expressed as  $\mu$ g/L. The thiols analysis in the wines produced from Sauvignon  
217 blanc grapes was performed using the method reported by Piano et al. (2015) and Fracassetti  
218 et al. (2018). Data are the average of the duplicate sample preparation for each fermentor (n=6)  
219 and are expressed as ng/L.

220

## 221 *2.7. Statistical analyses*

222

223           The data obtained were subjected to statistical analysis using IBM SPSS Statistics  
224 software package (version 19.0, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Significant differences  
225 between samples were established using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). When

226 statistical differences were found, a Tukey-b post hoc test comparison was performed using  
227  $p < 0.05$  as the threshold significance.

228

### 229 **3. Results and discussion**

230

#### 231 *3.1. Yeast growth during fermentation*

232

233 The yeast growth dynamics during pure and mixed fermentations were followed by  
234 plate counts and the results are illustrated in Fig. 1. In pure culture fermentations, *S. cerevisiae*  
235 Uvaferm BC® reached the maximum population (about  $5.0\text{-}8.0 \times 10^7$  colony forming units  
236 [cfu]/mL) in two days. The viable population then remained stable until the end of the  
237 fermentation (9 days). In sequential fermentations, *Starm. bacillaris* FC54 reached the highest  
238 cell population on day 4 ( $5.0\text{-}7.0 \times 10^7$  cfu/mL). Its population became undetectable in  
239 sequential inoculations on day 14, while *S. cerevisiae* population remained at levels from  $10^6$   
240 cfu/mL in Sauvignon blanc to  $10^7$  cfu/mL in Muscat wines. *Starm. bacillaris* impacted *S.*  
241 *cerevisiae* population in sequential inoculations. More specifically, *S. cerevisiae* was slightly  
242 lower (range 0.1 to 0.2 Log cfu/mL, data not shown) in comparison to pure culture *S. cerevisiae*  
243 fermentations, after similar periods of post-inoculation.

244

#### 245 *3.2. Chemical parameters*

246

247 The extracellular metabolites concentrations, for the fermented wines from each grape  
248 variety and inoculation protocol, are shown in Table 1. While both glucose and fructose were  
249 almost consumed ( $< 2.0$  g/L) at the end of fermentation, the strong fructophilic character of  
250 *Starm. bacillaris* compared to *S. cerevisiae* was confirmed on the first 48 hours of fermentation,  
251 in agreement with previous studies (Englezos et al., 2017, 2018; Rantsiou et al., 2017). As it

252 can be seen in Fig. 2 (right panel) and Supplementary Table 1, *Starm. bacillaris* consumed on  
253 average more fructose and left glucose mostly untouched during this period. Sequential  
254 fermentations started significantly slower as within the first 48 hours only 9.0 g/L of sugars  
255 (mainly fructose) were consumed on average, representing 3% of the total sugars. At the same  
256 time point, pure fermentations with *S. cerevisiae* consumed on average 81.0 g/L of sugars,  
257 representing 34% of total sugars. Sugar consumption rate had a steep increase when *S.*  
258 *cerevisiae* was inoculated in mixed fermentations, and continued until day 7 after which rate  
259 of sugar consumption slowed and stopped on day 14 in sequential fermentations. On the other  
260 hand, sugar consumption rate decreased on day 4 and stopped on day 9 in pure fermentations.  
261 The length of the sequential fermentations is in line with Englezos et al. (2016a) who reported  
262 a fermentation time three-days longer when sequential fermentations are compared to pure  
263 fermentations with the same *S. cerevisiae* strain Uvaferm BC<sup>®</sup>.

264 Ethanol production in the sequential fermented wines was slightly lower (0.1 to 0.2 %  
265 v/v) compared to pure fermented wines, independently of the grape variety used (Table 1).  
266 These differences are lower than observed in a previous work (0.5 % v/v) with the same couple  
267 of strains and inoculation delay using red Barbera grape must, compared to pure fermented  
268 wines with *S. cerevisiae* (Englezos et al. 2016a). The lower fermentation temperature compared  
269 to the previous study (20 °C vs. 25 °C), could explain the low sugar consumption by *Starm.*  
270 *bacillaris* in the first 48 hours of fermentation and as a consequence the low ethanol reduction  
271 in this work.

272 While the ethanol content of the wines was lower in mixed fermentations, the glycerol  
273 content was significant higher for all grape variety used in this study, confirming previous  
274 observations (Englezos et al., 2016ab; Englezos et al., 2018; Rolle et al., 2017). Glycerol  
275 production in the mixed fermented wines ranged from 9.3 to 10.3 g/L compared to pure  
276 fermented wines that ranged from 7.8 to 8.4 g/L. This increase in glycerol was also reported in

277 previous studies but in higher levels (more than 4.0 > g/L) (Englezos et al., 2016a). The  
278 glycerol yield was between 0.038 - 0.042 for mixed fermented wines and between 0.032 –  
279 0.035 for the control wines.

280         Titratable acidity (expressed as g/L of tartaric acid) was in average significantly higher  
281 in sequential fermented wines (7.1 g/L) compared to pure fermented wines (6.3 g/L). This  
282 increase is in line with Sadoudi et al. (2012) and Englezos et al. (2016a) who also reported that  
283 24 and 48 hours inoculation delay resulted in higher titratable acidity (0.16 – 0.50 g/L)  
284 compared to pure fermented wines respectively, resulting in a decrease of pH. However, the  
285 increase of 0.6 – 0.8 g/L observed in this study could not be explained by the primary organic  
286 acids (citric, tartaric, succinic, malic and lactic acid) monitored in study (Supplementary Table  
287 2), suggesting that other acids (such as  $\alpha$ -ketoglutaric and pyruvic) are most probably  
288 responsible for this increase (van Dijken & Scheffers, 1986). Magyar, Nyitrai-Sárdy, Leskó,  
289 Pomázi & Kállay (2014) reported a significantly higher accumulation of pyruvic acid by *Starm.*  
290 *bacillaris* compared to *S. cerevisiae* in pure culture fermentation using synthetic medium.  
291 Conversely, pure starter culture fermentations lead to a higher average decrease of malic acid  
292 than mixed starter culture fermentations. *S. cerevisiae* in pure fermentations consumed on  
293 average 0.7 g/L of malic acid, representing a 36% reduction, while in sequential inoculations  
294 the decrease was on average 0.5 g/L representing a 28% reduction. Rantsiou et al. (2017),  
295 reported that pure culture fermentations with *Starm. bacillaris* consumed malic acid on a level  
296 of 40% in red Barbera cv. musts with differing sugar levels (200-330 g/L), which was in line  
297 with earlier research by Tofalo et al (2012), using a red must with 220 g/L of residual sugars.

298

### 299 3.3 Volatile composition

300

301 Identification and quantification of the volatile metabolites was carried out in order to  
302 determine the effect of the inoculation protocol on white wines aroma. As shown in Table 2, a  
303 total of 38 volatile compounds were identified and subsequently divided into 4 volatile  
304 families, including 7 alcohols, 19 esters, 2 fatty acids, 8 terpenes and C<sub>13</sub>-norisoprenoids. The  
305 total aroma volatile composition exhibited significant differences between pure and mixed  
306 culture fermentations, highlighting a metabolic interaction between the two species. In  
307 particular, significant lower levels of volatile compounds were registered for the mixed  
308 compared to pure fermented wines.

309

### 310 *3.3.1 Higher alcohols*

311

312 Higher alcohols, known as fusel alcohols, constitute the largest group of volatile  
313 metabolites, synthesized by yeast during alcoholic fermentation (Ugliano & Henschke, 2009).  
314 Both pure and mixed fermentations, independently of the grape variety used, produced the  
315 same levels of alcohols, at concentrations ranging from 9.9 mg/L to 14.8 mg/L, well below the  
316 level of 300 mg/L which enhance the complexity in the wines (Rapp & Versini, 1991). The  
317 only exception was Sauvignon blanc wines, in which the involvement of *Starm. bacillaris* in  
318 the fermentation process increased significantly the levels of this group of metabolites (11.8  
319 µg/L vs 10.7 µg/L). The total concentration of the alcohols in the wines was strongly associated  
320 with the concentration of isoamylic alcohol and 2-phenyl ethanol, which constituted up to 91%  
321 of total alcohols. However, none of them surpassed their perception threshold (Cullere,  
322 Escudero, Cacho & Ferrerira, 2004; Ferreira, Lopez & Cacho, 2000; Guth, 1997; Li, 2006).

323 Isoamylic alcohol (3-methyl-1-butanol), which is produced during fermentation  
324 through deamination and decarboxylation reactions from isoleucine (Molina et al., 2009), could  
325 negatively contribute to wine quality due to the herbaceous aroma. Chardonnay and Muscat

326 wines produced using pure starter cultures contained significant higher levels of this  
327 metabolite, however in concentrations well below its perception threshold. To the contrary, no  
328 differences were observed for Riesling and Sauvignon blanc wines. 2-phenylethanol, which is  
329 synthesized via Ehrlich pathway through metabolic reactions that involves transamination of  
330 the amino acid L-phenylalanine, could contribute to the wine with a pleasant rose-like odour  
331 (Swiegers et al., 2005). Riesling and Sauvignon blanc wines produced from mixed starter  
332 cultures were distinguished, from the respective wines fermented exclusively with *S.*  
333 *cerevisiae*, by a significant higher amount of this metabolite. Therefore, the increased  
334 concentration of 2-phenylethanol would potentially increase the floral aroma in these wines.

335         2-Methyl-1-propanol (also known as isobutanol) is synthesized in the yeast cell through  
336 the valine degradation pathway and contributes to herbaceous notes in the wines (Ugliano &  
337 Henschke, 2009). Chardonnay and Muscat wines produced from pure *S. cerevisiae*  
338 fermentations contained significant higher levels of this metabolite. Conversely, Riesling and  
339 Sauvignon blanc wines fermented with pure cultures, contained significantly lower levels of  
340 this metabolite, suggesting that valine concentration rather than inoculation strategy affects its  
341 production. Moreover, negligible differences were found in wines produced using mixed  
342 cultures independently of the grape variety used. Hexanol, usually has a negative influence on  
343 wine aroma, by imparting a vegetable and herbaceous odour, when the concentration exceeds  
344 100 mg/L (Satora & Tuszynski, 2010). This metabolite, was present in significant higher levels  
345 in mixed starter culture fermented wines, independently of the grape variety used, but still  
346 significantly lower than its olfactory detection threshold.

347

### 348 3.3.2 Esters

349         Fermentation derived esters are responsible for the fruity character of the wines  
350 (Ugliano & Henschke, 2009). In general, mixed fermentations produced Chardonnay and

351 Muscat wines with significant lower levels of esters, compared to pure fermented wines. To  
352 the contrary, a completely different picture was captured in Sauvignon blanc wines, in fact  
353 mixed starter cultures produced higher levels of this aroma family. No significant differences  
354 were found for Riesling wines, in the amount of total esters produced, between the pure and  
355 mixed fermented wines. Among the identified esters, ethyl esters deriving from medium chain  
356 fatty acids and responsible for the fruity character of the wines were the most representative  
357 aroma family in all the wines produced, accounting for 72 % and 85 % of total esters in the  
358 pure and mixed fermentations, respectively. Ethyl octanoate and ethyl decanoate associated  
359 with pleasant notes “pineapple”, “pear”, and “floral” were the most abundant ethyl esters and  
360 significant differences were registered between pure and mixed fermented wines,  
361 independently of the grape variety used. Significant lower levels were found in mixed  
362 fermented wines. To the contrary, Sauvignon blanc wines fermented by mixed cultures were  
363 characterized by significant higher content of these two compounds. The higher level of ethyl  
364 decanoate in this wine is in line with previous findings (Sadoudi et al., 2012) in sequential  
365 inoculated Sauvignon blanc with 24 h inoculation delay, while ethyl hexanoate was not affected  
366 by the inoculation protocol used in both studies. Concerning the level of ethyl octanoate in the  
367 wines, the results of the present study are in agreement with those of Sadoudi et al. (2012) who  
368 observed a lower level of this compound in pure fermented Sauvignon blanc wines with *S.*  
369 *cerevisiae*. Conversely, Chardonnay, Muscat and Riesling wines fermented with pure *S.*  
370 *cerevisiae* cultures contained significant higher levels of this metabolite, indicating that strain  
371 selection and grape variety can modulate its production. Ethyl dodecanoate (pear, fruity, floral)  
372 was found in significant higher levels in pure culture fermented wines compared to mixed  
373 culture fermented wines. On the other hand, Sauvignon blanc wines fermented with mixed  
374 cultures contained significant higher levels of this metabolite compared to the respective

375 control wine suggesting that grape variety rather than inoculation protocol modulate its  
376 production.

377         The second group of esters, called acetate esters, are those formed from acetic acid and  
378 higher alcohols, and are considered to have a greater effect on the perceived aroma than the  
379 ethyl esters (Ugliano & Henschke, 2009). In the current study, the acetate esters identified were  
380 ethyl acetate, hexyl acetate, octyl acetate, 2-phenyl-ethyl-acetate, and 3-methyl-1-butanol  
381 acetate. All wines inoculated with mixed cultures presented significant lower content of this  
382 aroma family. Among the quantified acetate esters two compounds (2-phenyl-ethyl-acetate and  
383 3-methyl-1-butanol acetate) associated with the positive attributes, “rose”, “honey” and  
384 “banana” presented values above the threshold value in all the wines studied, consequently  
385 they are expected to have an influence on the aroma of the wines. Both compounds were found  
386 to be significantly higher in pure fermented wines independently of the grape variety used. A  
387 significant difference in hexyl acetate, a metabolite with pleasant fruity note was observed. The  
388 amount of this metabolite was above the threshold in the control wine however below in mixed  
389 starter culture fermented wine, the former having 3-14 times the amount compared to the latter  
390 for all the varieties investigated. Similar behaviour was found for 3-methyl-1-butanol acetate.  
391 This reduction was more evident in Chardonnay and Muscat wines, suggesting that the grape  
392 variety may have an influence on the production of these esters.

393         Ethyl acetate and 2-phenyl-ethyl-acetate are the most common esters found in wine.  
394 Contrary to 2-phenyl-ethyl-acetate, ethyl acetate is known to have an unpleasant nail polish,  
395 vinegar aroma at concentrations above 150 mg/L (Corison, Ough, Berg & Nelson, 1979). At  
396 concentrations below this limit, this metabolite contributes positively to white wine quality,  
397 with pleasant descriptors such as, pineapple and apple. For both Chardonnay and Muscat wines  
398 fermented by pure cultures, the content of ethyl acetate was above the odour threshold, while  
399 it was lower than the perception threshold in sequential inoculation wines. The difference



400 between pure and mixed fermentation was statistically significant for these varieties. Ethyl  
401 acetate was not above the threshold in any of the fermentations of Riesling and Sauvignon  
402 blanc. Generally, wines produced with *Starm. bacillaris*, showed a reduction in ethyl acetate,  
403 hexyl acetate and 2-phenyl-ethyl acetate when compared with pure culture fermented wines.

404

#### 405 3.3.4 Fatty acids

406

407 Two fatty acids, decanoic and octanoic acid were identified across the pure and mixed  
408 fermented wines (Table 2). Both are medium-chain fatty acids (C<sub>6</sub> – C<sub>10</sub>), which can impart a  
409 butter-like, cheesy aroma (Francis & Newton, 2005), however, they impact negatively wine  
410 quality only when their concentration exceeds 20 mg/L (Ribéreau-Gayon, Dubourdieu,  
411 Donèche & Lonvaud, 2006). Wines produced from pure *S. cerevisiae* culture contained  
412 significant higher levels of these metabolites independently of the grape variety used. In these  
413 wines, the decanoic acid ranged from 578 to 616 µg/L and the octanoic acid concentration from  
414 787 to 1108 µg/L. Even though these volatile fatty acids are well below the concentration at  
415 which become unpleasant, octanoic acid concentration in pure starter fermentations was  
416 present at levels above its perception threshold, which is 500 µg/L. In small quantities, volatile  
417 fatty acids contribute to the aromatic equilibrium of wine, since they counteract the hydrolysis  
418 of their esters (Ugliano & Henschke, 2009).

419

#### 420 3.3.3 Terpenes and C<sub>13</sub>-norisoprenoids

421

422 Terpenes are a kind of aroma family responsible for the characteristic floral and fruity  
423 aromas of Muscat and Riesling wines. Generally, they are present in grape berries in free or  
424 bound form and synthesized from glucose via the isoprenoid pathway (Mateo & Jimenez,

425 2000). The terpenes compounds with high odour activity are linalool, geraniol and nerol.  
426 Geraniol has aromas described as rose-like and linalool aromas described as floral-like  
427 (Swiegers et al., 2005), whereas oxidized geraniol and linalool are described as vegetative and  
428 camphorous, respectively. The concentration of monoterpene linalool in mixed fermented  
429 Muscat wines, was almost 21 times above the odour threshold, however significantly lower  
430 (514 µg/L) than in the control wine (647 µg/L). This result suggests that the interaction between  
431 the two yeast species has a negative influence in the expression of the varietal character of the  
432 wines. This result is in line with those reported by Sadoudi and co-workers (2012), where  
433 a negative interaction was registered between *Starm. bacillaris* and *S. cerevisiae* resulting in a  
434 decrease in terpenes content compared to pure fermentations with *S. cerevisiae*. Similarly,  
435 linalool and terpenes concentration in Riesling was above the odour threshold in both  
436 inoculation protocols investigated, however no significant differences were found between the  
437 two protocols.

438

#### 439 3.3.4 Thiols

440

441 Volatile thiols, such as hydrogen sulphide (H<sub>2</sub>S), ethanethiol and methanethiol are  
442 responsible for wine defects, however, certain volatile thiols are considered important aroma  
443 constituents of Sauvignon blanc wines and other white, rosé and red wines elaborated with  
444 different grape varieties (Roland, Schneider, Razungles & Cavelier, 2011). Among these  
445 metabolites, 4-mercapto-4-methylpentan-2-one (4MMP), 3-mercaptohexan-1-ol (3MH) and its  
446 acetate 3-mercaptohexyl acetate (3MHA) contribute positively to the fruity character of young  
447 wines with pleasant notes of box tree, grape fruit and exotic fruit aroma, respectively (Rolland  
448 et al., 2011; Tominaga, Furrer, Henry & Dubourdieu, 1988). These metabolites are present in  
449 grape as non-volatile cysteine or glutathione conjugated precursors and they are released during

450 the fermentation by yeast through their beta-lyase activity (Murat, Masneuf, Darriet, Lavigne,  
451 Tominaga & Dubourdieu, 2001). The two inoculation protocols used in this study affected the  
452 release of 3MH, while 3MHA was not detected in the samples. Wines fermented using the  
453 sequential inoculation protocol showed a significant higher concentration (269 ng/L) of 3MH  
454 compared to the control wine (198 ng/L), well above the 60 ng/L perception threshold. This  
455 liberation of higher levels of volatile thiols in mixed fermentations could be explained by the  
456 beta-lyase activity that favour the cleavage of the conjugated thiols, probably due to  
457 involvement of *Starm. bacillaris* in the fermentation process (Swiegers & Pretorius, 2007).  
458 Anfang, Brajkovich & Goddard (2009) also reported a significant increase in 3MH in  
459 Sauvignon blanc wines, co-fermented with *Starm. bacillaris* and *S. cerevisiae* in a ratio of 9:1,  
460 compared to pure fermented wines with *S. cerevisiae*. Conversely, co-inoculation at a ratio 1:9  
461 that favour *S. cerevisiae*, produced wines with similar 3MH content. According to Sadoudi et  
462 al. (2012), inoculation of *S. cerevisiae* 24 hours after *Starm. bacillaris* inoculation led to the  
463 production of wines, with significant lower levels of this metabolite, compared to the respective  
464 control wine. Thus differences in 3MH profile depend on the initial inoculation ratio and the  
465 resulting population dynamics, demonstrating that yeast-interactions are strain-dependent.

466

## 467 **5. Conclusion**

468

469 The current study examined the effect of mixed fermentations with *Starm. bacillaris*  
470 and *S. cerevisiae* on the production of white wines using four different white grape varieties.  
471 Results obtained from chemical composition showed that the level of glycerol and titratable  
472 acidity varied significantly among wines after fermentation. For the volatile components  
473 determined, inoculation protocol influenced the aroma profile of the wines in a variety-  
474 dependent manner, since only the wines produced from Sauvignon blanc grapes contained  
475 significant higher levels of esters and alcohols compared to pure fermented wines. Since all the

476 data presented here are obtained from one couple of strains, more investigations are necessary  
477 to access the impact of strain selection on wine composition.

478

479 **Conflict of interest**

480 The authors state no conflict of interest.

481

482

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610 **Figure captions**

611

612 **Fig.1**

613 Growth dynamics of yeasts during pure (left panel) and mixed culture fermentations (right  
614 panel) using white grape musts: Chardonnay (A, B), Muscat, (C, D), Riesling (E, F) and  
615 Sauvignon blanc (G, H). *Starm. bacillaris* strain FC54 (black circle) and *S. cerevisiae* Uvaferm  
616 BC<sup>®</sup> (white circle). The arrow indicates the *S. cerevisiae* inoculation. Counts are the mean  
617 CFU/mL values  $\pm$  standard deviations of three independent experiments.

618

619 **Fig.2**

620 Evolution of metabolites during pure (left panel) and mixed culture fermentations (right panel)  
621 using white grape musts: Chardonnay (A, B), Muscat, (C, D), Riesling (E, F) and Sauvignon  
622 blanc (G, H). Glucose (white circle) fructose (black circle), ethanol (white diamond) and  
623 glycerol (black diamond). Data are the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation of three independent  
624 experiments

625

626