

1 **Survey of molecular methods for the typing of wine yeast strains**

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25 **Abstract**

26 A survey of the genetic polymorphisms produced by distinct methods was performed
27 in 23 commercial winery yeast strains. The microsatellite typing, using 6 different *loci*, an
28 optimized interdelta sequence analysis and RFLP of mitochondrial DNA generated by the
29 enzyme *Hinf* I had the same discriminatory power: among the 23 commercial yeast strains, 21
30 distinct patterns were obtained. Karyotype analysis originated 22 patterns, thereby allowing
31 the discrimination of one of the three strains that were not distinguished by the other methods.
32 Due to the equivalence of the results obtained in this survey, any of the methods can be
33 applied at the industrial scale.

34 **Introduction**

35

36 Wine production by the use of selected *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains,
37 commercially available as active dry yeast is widely accepted, being an enological practice
38 extensively applied nowadays. The use of techniques that enable to distinguish the inoculated
39 strain from the remaining yeast flora present in the grape must is regarded with great practical
40 interest [1]. In the last years, several methodologies of typing based on DNA polymorphisms
41 have been developed which allowed the discrimination among closely related yeast strains.

42 Chromosome separation by pulsed-field electrophoresis [2] revealed the considerable
43 variability in the chromosomal constitution of commercial yeast strains [3], and turned to be a
44 useful method for yeast strain identification [4,5]. As chromosome karyotyping may be too
45 complex, laborious and time-consuming for the analysis of numerous yeast isolates, several
46 other molecular methods of typing have been developed for this purpose.

47 Restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA)
48 [5,6] was simplified [7,8] to render it a fast and easy method. Digestion of mtDNA with
49 restriction enzymes like *HinfI* or *RsaI* is associated to a high polymorphism, and was also
50 used to study the authenticity of commercial wine yeast strains [9].

51 The *S. cerevisiae* genome contains repetitive DNA sequences, such as the δ sequences
52 that are frequently associated to the Ty1 transposon [10,11]. The number and the location of
53 these elements have a certain intraspecific variability and were used as genetic fingerprint to
54 identify *S. cerevisiae* strains [11]. PCR profile analysis of δ sequences has a good
55 discriminating power for analyzing commercial strains [12]. On the other hand, it seems to be
56 a minor discriminatory method when used to identify indigenous strains in a given viticultural
57 region [13]. More recently, an extensive BLAST search allowed the optimization of the pair
58 of primers used for interdelta analysis, resulting in highly polymorphic patterns. This

59 improved PCR-typing had a similar discriminatory power like the pulsed-field electrophoresis
60 karyotyping [14].

61 In the last few years, fingerprinting of microsatellite or SSR (Simple Sequence
62 Repeats) *loci*, that are short (1-10 nucleotides) DNA tandem repeats dispersed throughout the
63 genome and with a high degree of variability, revealed to be very useful to discriminate *S.*
64 *cerevisiae* strains [15-19]. Searching the genomic DNA database of *S. cerevisiae*, six
65 microsatellite *loci* were selected that generated 44 genotypes (with a total of 57 alleles) from
66 51 strains originating from a spontaneous fermentation [20]. This method is fast, allowing
67 multiplex PCR reactions, precise and reproducible, and therefore very powerful.

68 In the present paper four different genetic fingerprinting techniques (karyotype
69 analysis, delta sequence typing, mtDNA restriction analysis and microsatellite genotyping)
70 were used for the detailed genotyping of 23 commercial wine yeast strains. The analysis of
71 the polymorphisms produced by each of the methods allowed a detailed comparison of the
72 advantages and disadvantages of each method showing the utility and efficiency of these
73 modern approaches for fingerprinting relatively large sets of winery yeast strains.

74 **Materials and methods**

75 **Yeast strains**

76 23 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* wine strains, commercially available were used in this
77 study. Their geographic origin is indicated in Table 1.

78 Active dried wine yeast strains were re-hydrated and maintained in frozen stocks
79 (glycerol, 30 %, v/v) at -80 °C or, for short-term storage, on YPD agar medium (yeast extract,
80 1 %, w/v, peptone, 2%, w/v and glucose, 2 %, w/v).

81

82 **DNA isolation**

83 Yeast cells were cultivated in 5 ml of YPD medium (24 h, 28°C, 160 rpm) and DNA
84 isolation was performed using a previously described method [7]. The progress of cell lysis
85 was dependent on the strain that could last between 1 to 3 hours. DNA was quantified and
86 used for δ sequence typing, mitochondrial RFLP and microsatellite analysis.

87

88 **Delta sequence typing**

89 Amplification reactions were performed on a BioRad iCycler thermal cycler, using the
90 primers $\delta 1$ (5'-CAAATTCACCTATATCT-3') and $\delta 2$ (5'-GTGGATTTTTATTCCAAC-3')
91 (primer pair A) [7] or $\delta 12$ (5'-TCAACAATGGAATCCCAAC-3') and $\delta 2$ (primer pair B) [7].
92 15 μ l reaction mixture was prepared with 60 ng of DNA, 0.5 U Taq polymerase (MBI
93 Fermentas), Taq buffer (10mM Tris-HCl, 50mM KCl, 0.08% Nonidet P40), 25 pmoles of
94 each primer, 0.4 mM of each dNTP and 3 mM MgCl₂. After initial denaturation (95°C for 2
95 min), the reaction mixture was cycled 35 times using the following program: 95°C for 30s,
96 43.2°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min followed by a final extension at 72°C during 10 min. The
97 amplification products were separated by electrophoresis on a 1.5 % (w/v) agarose gel
98 containing ethidium bromide, visualized and photographed.

99

100 **Chromosomal polymorphisms**

101 Yeast chromosomal DNA was prepared in plugs as previously described [7], washed
102 in TE buffer (1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0) at 50°C for 30 min and then washed
103 again three times in the same buffer at room temperature for 30 min. The plugs were loaded in
104 a 1 % (w/v) agarose (Seakem[®] Gold) gel and electrophoresis was performed using a TAFE
105 (transverse alternating-field electrophoresis) system (Geneline, Beckman) under the following
106 conditions: constant voltage of 250 V for 6 hours run time with 35 s pulse time, followed by
107 20 hours at 275 V with a 55 s pulse time at constant temperature (14°C). The electrophoresis
108 buffer consisted of 10 mM Tris Base, 0.5 mM EDTA free acid and 4 mM acetic acid. After
109 staining the gel with ethidium bromide, bands were visualized and photographed.

110

111 **Mitochondrial DNA restriction patterns**

112 The reactions were performed overnight at 37°C and prepared for a final volume of 20
113 µl as follows: 17 µl of total DNA (60-120 µg), isolated as described, 0.5 µl of the restriction
114 endonucleases *Hinf*I or *Rsa*I (10 U/µl, MBI Fermentas), 2 µl of the appropriate 10x-buffer
115 and 0.5 µl of RNase (10 mg/ml) (MBI Fermentas). The DNA fragments were separated on a
116 1.5 % (w/v) agarose gel containing ethidium bromide, visualized and photographed.

117

118 **Microsatellite amplification**

119 The six trinucleotide microsatellite *loci* described as ScAAT1, ScAAT2, ScAAT3,
120 ScAAT4, ScAAT5 and ScAAT6 [20] were amplified in two multiplex reactions using 20 ng
121 of template DNA, 0.5 U Taq polymerase (MBI Fermentas), the corresponding Taq buffer (10
122 mM Tris-HCl, 50 mM KCl, 0.08% Nonidet P40), 0.2 mM of each dNTP and 2 mM MgCl₂.
123 Multiplex reaction A contained 0.05 pmol of each ScAAT1 and ScAAT6 primer pairs as well

124 as 0.03 pmol of ScAAT4 primer pair. The multiplex reaction B contained 0.05 pmol of
125 ScAAT2, 0.1 pmol of ScAAT3 and 0.075 pmol of ScAAT5 primer pairs. One oligonucleotide
126 of each pair was fluorescent-dye labeled (MWG Biotech). In both cases, the total reaction
127 volume was 6.0 μ l, and cycling was performed as described [20] in a BioRad iCycler thermal
128 cycler. PCR reactions were diluted (1:5 for multiplex A and 1:20 for multiplex B), and 2 μ l
129 aliquots were mixed with 14 μ l of formamide and 0.3 μ l of a red DNA size standard (GENE-
130 SCAN-500 ROX, Applied Biosystems). Samples were then denatured at 94 °C for 5 min and
131 separated by capillary electrophoresis (15 KV, 60°C, 24 min and 27 min for multiplex
132 reaction A and B respectively) in an ABI Prism 310 DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems)
133 and analyzed by using the corresponding GENESCAN software.

134

135 **Reproducibility**

136 All typings were performed at least in duplicate. The reproducibility of the described
137 techniques was also assessed by comparing the results obtained by the analysis of DNA from
138 two independent extractions for 5 yeast strains randomly chosen.

139

140 **Results**

141 *Delta sequence typing*

142 PCR amplification of delta sequence interspersed regions using primer pairs A or B
143 showed a distinct degree of pattern heterogeneity as shown in Figure 1. For primer pair A, a
144 total of 10 distinct patterns were obtained, and most of them shared three common bands
145 around 500, 750 and 970 bp. These three bands are characteristic for pattern δ_{A3} , the pattern
146 found in 10 of the 23 strains analyzed. Further patterns are characterized by the appearance of
147 an additional band in close proximity to one of the three main bands (e.g., patterns δ_{A1} , δ_{A6} ,
148 δ_{A7}), by the absence of some of the three main bands (e.g., patterns δ_{A2} , δ_{A4}), or by the
149 appearance of other extra bands (e.g., pattern δ_{A10}). For primer pair B, almost all patterns
150 appear to have several bands in common of about 400-500 bp, and the presence of many other
151 intense bands of different sizes produced a very high polymorphism compared to primer pair
152 A, allowing the assignment of 21 different patterns among the 23 strains. The group of 10
153 strains showing the identical pattern δ_{A3} could be distinguished from each other using primer
154 pair B that generated 10 different patterns. Interestingly, strains 1, 10 and 12 show a very
155 characteristic pattern (δ_{B1}), with five bands sized between 300 and 500 bp. These 3 strains
156 showed also a unique pattern (δ_{A1}) when PCR amplification was performed with primer pair
157 A (Figure 1), indicating that they are identical or genetically very closely related.

158 Several faint bands, probably associated to unspecific amplification due to the low
159 annealing temperature and to the high $MgCl_2$ concentration (3.0 mM) were not always
160 amplified in replicates, but they were not decisive for the assignment of a pattern, as sufficient
161 polymorphisms were obtained by the intense bands.

162

163 ***RFLP of mitochondrial DNA***

164 The analysis of the genetic variability of 23 *S. cerevisiae* wine strains by means of
165 mtDNA restriction analysis showed a very high level of polymorphisms (Figure 2). Digestion
166 with *RsaI* was less discriminating than *HinfI* that generated 17 and 21 distinct patterns,
167 respectively. Strains 5, 7 and 11 shared pattern m_{R5}, while pattern m_{R7} was shared by strains 8
168 and 9. The average size of fragments obtained by *HinfI* digestion was between 2.5 and 6 kb,
169 whereas bigger fragments (mainly between 6 and 10 kb), were obtained by *RsaI* digestion.
170 Again, with exception of strains 1, 10 and 12, unique patterns were found with the restriction
171 enzyme *HinfI*. Figure 4 shows the identical mtDNA restriction patterns of these 3 strains
172 using *HinfI* or *RsaI*.

173

174 ***Analysis of chromosomal patterns***

175 As shown in Figure 3, the pulsed field electrophoretic karyotypes of the 23 strains
176 analysed showed 22 different chromosomal patterns. In the range below 600 Kb, where the
177 resolution is better, the greatest variability was found, both in the position and in the number
178 of bands, which varied from five to ten. There was also considerable variability in the region
179 of approximately 900 Kb, where for most strains one or two bands were observed in different
180 positions.

181 The patterns of the strains 10 and 12 (K10) were again identical whereas in strain 1
182 differences in the zones of about 600 Kb (chromosomes XVI-XIII) and 900 Kb
183 (chromosomes V-VIII) were observed. A lower weak band was lost and another higher weak
184 band appeared in the zone of around 600 Kb. In addition, a band of smaller size in strain 1
185 replaced a weak band present in the region about 900 Kb. Except for these two bands, the
186 pattern of strain 1 is identical to that of strains 10 and 12, indicating that these strains are
187 genetically very closely related.

188

189 ***Microsatellite analysis***

190 The results obtained for the analysis of the 6 microsatellite *loci* AAT1-AAT6 are
191 summarized in Table 2. Unique patterns were found for 20 strains, while an identical pattern
192 was found for strains 1, 10 and 12. The number of alleles found for each *locus* varies between
193 3 and 15, being the *loci* AAT1 and AAT3 characterized by the highest polymorphism. The
194 number of genotypes varied between 4 and 18 for each *locus* separately analyzed (Table 2).

195 **Discussion**

196 In the present study, different methods have been applied to genetically differentiate
197 23 commercial wine starter yeast strains. As summarized in Table 3, depending on the
198 technique used, distinct levels of discrimination were obtained, varying from 10 to 22
199 different patterns.

200 The power of discrimination of *S. cerevisiae* strains by PCR-based interdelta typing
201 depended on the primer pairs used. Amplification with the initially described [11] primer pair
202 $\delta 1$ - $\delta 2$ (primer pair A) resulted in 10 different patterns, whereas the substitution of primer $\delta 1$
203 by primer $\delta 12$ (primer pair B), resulted in a 2-fold increase in the number of patterns obtained
204 (Table 3). The optimized primer pair B, found by an extensive BLAST search, raised the
205 detection of polymorphisms and allowed the unequivocal differentiation of 53 industrial,
206 laboratory and wild-type yeast strains [14]. Delta sequence typing with the standard primer
207 (pair A) has been reported to be very useful and easy to perform for the typing of commercial
208 strains. However, for the delimitation of genetically close related indigenous yeast strains, this
209 method has a low discrimination power and therefore should be combined with other typing
210 methods like mtDNA or karyotype analysis [13,21]. In the present study, the interdelta typing
211 of the 23 industrial strains with optimized primer pair B had almost the same level of
212 discrimination as the pulsed-field-karyotyping. These results are consistent with the ones
213 previously described [14].

214 As shown in Table 3, the 21 patterns generated by mitochondrial DNA restriction with
215 *HinfI* match exactly the patterns obtained by PCR-typing using primer pair B, microsatellite
216 typing, as well as pulsed field karyotyping (with the exception of strain 1). Additionally, in
217 the present study, digestions with *HinfI* allowed a much better resolution than with *RsaI*.

218 Both mtDNA restriction analysis and electrophoretic karyotyping have been used in
219 numerous studies related to the yeast ecology of spontaneous fermentations, biogeography

220 and biodiversity [22-27]. It was shown that both methods had a very similar resolving power
221 at the strain level. Nevertheless, the results obtained using the improved interdelta typing
222 methods is very promising, indicating its equivalence to mtDNA RFLP, karyotyping and
223 microsatellite analysis.

224 Using interdelta amplification, mtDNA RFLP and microsatellite typing, strains 1, 10
225 and 12 generated the same patterns (Table 3). The chromosomal patterns of strains 10 and 12
226 are identical, and were very similar to that of strain 1. Strain 1 differs from the two other
227 strains due to changes in the position of two weak bands in the zones of about 600 and 900
228 Kb. Two pairs of chromosomes, XVI / XIII and VIII / V, very close in size, are found in these
229 regions. Interestingly, a reciprocal translocation between chromosomes VIII and XVI,
230 generating two new chromosomes VIII^{XVI} and XVI^{VIII} has been described as occurring
231 frequently in wine yeast strains [28]. This rearrangement, found in wine yeast strains, is
232 involved in their adaptative evolution, since the translocation results in higher expression of
233 *SSUI*, thus enabling the cells to resist higher sulfite concentrations [29]. Indeed, wine yeast
234 strains exhibit either normal chromosome VIII (of about 560 kb), chromosome VIII^{XVI} (of
235 about 920 Kb), or both [29,30]. Both are actually present in strains 10 and 12 (results not
236 shown) and the opposite variations in the size of bands in strain 1 may indicate different
237 rearrangement events related these two chromosomes. All these evidences strongly suggest
238 strains 10 and 12 are genetically related to strain 1.

239 Strain “families” having the same mtDNA restriction profile and δ sequences PCR
240 product patterns, differing only by faint variations of chromosomal band position or the
241 presence of doublets have been described [23]. Differently sized chromosomes can be
242 explained by structural reorganizations, leading to structural heterozygosis [30]. Such
243 chromosomal rearrangements have been described in wine yeast genomes during vegetative
244 growth [31] or during wine fermentation [32].

245 The discrimination obtained by combining the allele sizes from the six microsatellite
246 *loci* was very high. The combination of the results from *loci* AAT1 and AAT3 generated the
247 highest polymorphism (18 and 14 genotypes), and was sufficient for the unequivocal
248 characterization of the present population of 23 strains. However, for studies aiming at the
249 characterization of strains that are genetically closer related, it may be necessary to include
250 data obtained for the other four *loci*.

251 In summary, our results show that microsatellite typing and the optimized interdelta
252 analysis have similar discriminatory power compared with both mtDNA restriction analysis
253 and karyotyping. None of the typing methods was able to discriminate between two *S.*
254 *cerevisiae* commercial strains (10 and 12). At least two hypotheses can be raised to explain
255 this result: the strains are identical, although having different commercial designations, or the
256 techniques used are not sufficiently accurate to discriminate between them. Concerning the
257 first hypothesis, there are references reporting equivalent situations in commercial yeast
258 strains [9]. The common geographical origin of these two strains supports this hypothesis.

259 The improved PCR amplification of delta sequences described by Legras *et al.* [14] is
260 a very convenient method that does not require high equipment investment and can substitute
261 other methods advantageously. However, some critical aspects of delta sequence typing have
262 to be mentioned, as the PCR banding patterns depends on the quantity of template DNA [9].
263 Occasionally, we also found weakly amplified bands that can make the interpretation of the
264 results difficult (not shown).

265 Mitochondrial DNA restriction analysis could be a good technique to differentiate
266 yeast strains from the same ecosystem. This technique is also easy to use once the conditions
267 have been carefully standardized and the reproducibility is better than the one of δ sequences
268 analysis.

269 Karyotyping was shown to be very efficient in discriminating between strains
270 genetically closely related as we confirmed in this study, and is still the method of choice for
271 the detection of chromosome rearrangements. Nevertheless, this technique is time-consuming
272 and complicated for use in industry.

273 The detection of microsatellite polymorphisms is a promising and powerful tool,
274 providing accurate and unequivocal results expressed as base pair number (or as a number of
275 repeats). This technique is the most appropriate for large-scale studies like determination of
276 genetic proximity (phylogenetic studies) and biogeographical distribution of indigenous
277 *Saccharomyces* strains and/or species by means of numerical analysis. It requires higher
278 equipment investment and skilled human resources which can be seen as the only
279 disadvantages of this technique.

280 In conclusion, due to the verified equivalence of the results, any of these methods
281 could be applied for industrial applications, such as quality assurance during dry yeast
282 production, implantation studies or tracing of contamination routes. For standard control
283 during the fermentation process PCR amplification of δ sequences and mtDNA restriction
284 analysis are the most appropriated methods. The choice of the most convenient technique
285 should depend on the resources available and the objective of the work.

286

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293

294 **References**

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Table 1. Commercial *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains used in the present study.

Strain	Origin
1	Portugal
2	Sangiovese, Italy
3	Bordelais, France
4	Rhône, France
5	Languedoc, France
6	Stellenbosch, South Africa
7	Rhône, France
8	Rhône, France
9	Valencia, Spain
10	Champagne, France
11	Loire, France
12	Champagne, France
13	Gironde, France
14	Languedoc, France
15	Gironde, France
16	Bordelais, France
17	Gironde, France
18	Portugal
19	Portugal
20	Germany
21	Not known
22	Pfalz, Germany
23	Baden-Württemberg, Germany

394 Table 2. Allelic diversity of the 23 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* commercial starter strains.

Strain	Microsatellite					
	SCAAT1	SCAAT2	SCAAT3	SCAAT4	SCAAT5	SCAAT6
1	189, 237	375	250, 346	302	219, 222	250, 256
2	201	378	247	329	216	256
3	204, 222	372, 378	259, 265	317, 329	216, 219	256, 259
4	165	384	262, 304	302, 329	216, 219	256, 259
5	246	378	262	329	216	259
6	189, 228	375, 378	250, 262	302, 329	216, 222	256
7	222	369, 384	247	302, 329	216	256
8	195	378	241	332	219	256
9	195, 216	375, 381	256	329	216	256
10	189, 237	375	250, 346	302	219, 222	250, 256
11	195	375	256	329	222	256, 259
12	189, 237	375	250, 346	302	219, 222	250, 256
13	216, 219	372, 378	247, 265	329	216, 219	256, 259
14	174	387	247	338	222	259
15	204, 219	372, 381	265	329	219, 222	256, 259
16	195	378	265	329	222	256
17	201	378	247	329	222	256
18	171, 201	375, 378	259, 268	329	219	256
19	204	369	259, 271	329	219	259
20	192	378	247, 271	329	216	256, 259
21	207	378	262	329, 332	216	256
22	219	381	259	329	219	256
23	189	381	247	290	219	256
N° alleles	15	7	11	6	3	3
N° genotypes	18	11	14	8	6	4

395 Table 3. Summary of the results obtained by all typing methods used. For each method a
 396 different number was assigned to distinct patterns.

Strain	Pattern					Karyotype
	δ sequence		mt DNA RFLP		Microsatellite	
	δ_A	δ_B	m _R	m _H	SCAAT 1-6	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	3	4	4	4	4	4
5	4	5	5	5	5	5
6	5	6	6	6	6	6
7	6	7	5	7	7	7
8	3	8	7	8	8	8
9	3	9	7	9	9	9
10	1	1	1	1	1	10
11	7	10	5	10	10	11
12	1	1	1	1	1	10
13	6	11	6	11	11	12
14	8	12	8	12	12	13
15	3	13	9	13	13	14
16	9	14	10	14	14	15
17	3	15	11	15	15	16
18	10	16	12	16	16	17
19	3	17	13	17	17	18
20	9	18	14	18	18	19
21	3	19	15	19	19	20
22	3	20	16	20	20	21
23	3	21	17	21	21	22

397 **Figure legends**

398

399 Figure 1

400 PCR amplification fragments of delta sequence interspersed regions using primer pair A (A)
401 or B (B). The numbers in the upper part of the figure correspond to the strains used. (δ_A) 1–10
402 and (δ_B) 1–21 refers to the pattern classification.

403

404 Figure 2

405 Mitochondrial DNA restriction patterns of the 23 commercial strains analyzed in this work.
406 The patterns (m_H and m_R) were obtained by digestion with *Hinf*I (A) or *Rsa*I (B). The
407 numbers in the upper part of the figure correspond to the strains used. (m_H) 1–17 and (m_R) 1–
408 21 refers to the pattern classification.

409

410 Figure 3

411 Electrophoretic karyotype patterns of the 23 commercial strains analyzed. The numbers in the
412 upper part of the figure correspond to the strains used. (K) 1-22 refers to the pattern
413 classification. Numbers on the left give the sizes of chromosomes XVI-XIII, V-VIII and I of
414 the reference strain S288C.

415

416 Figure 4

417 Analysis by delta sequence typing, mtDNA RFLP and pulse field electrophoresis of strains
418 number 1, 10 and 12. The three strains present identical patterns, except the slight differences
419 in strain 1 indicated by arrows.

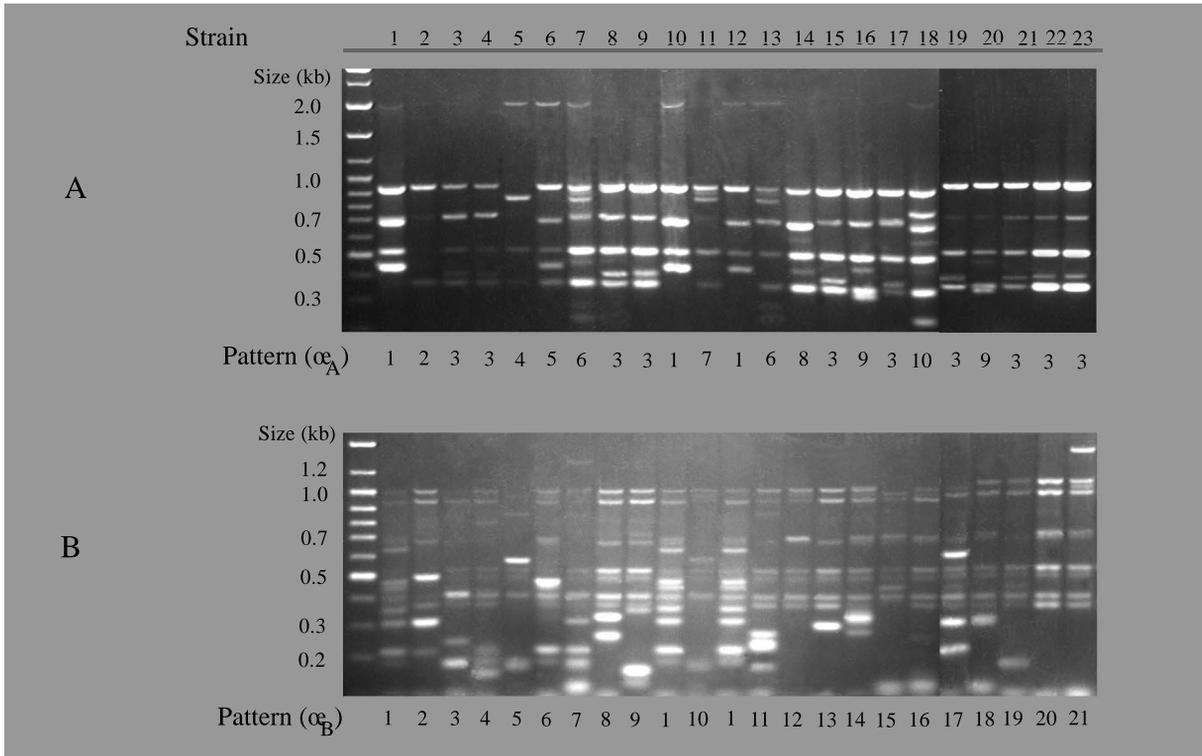


Figure 1

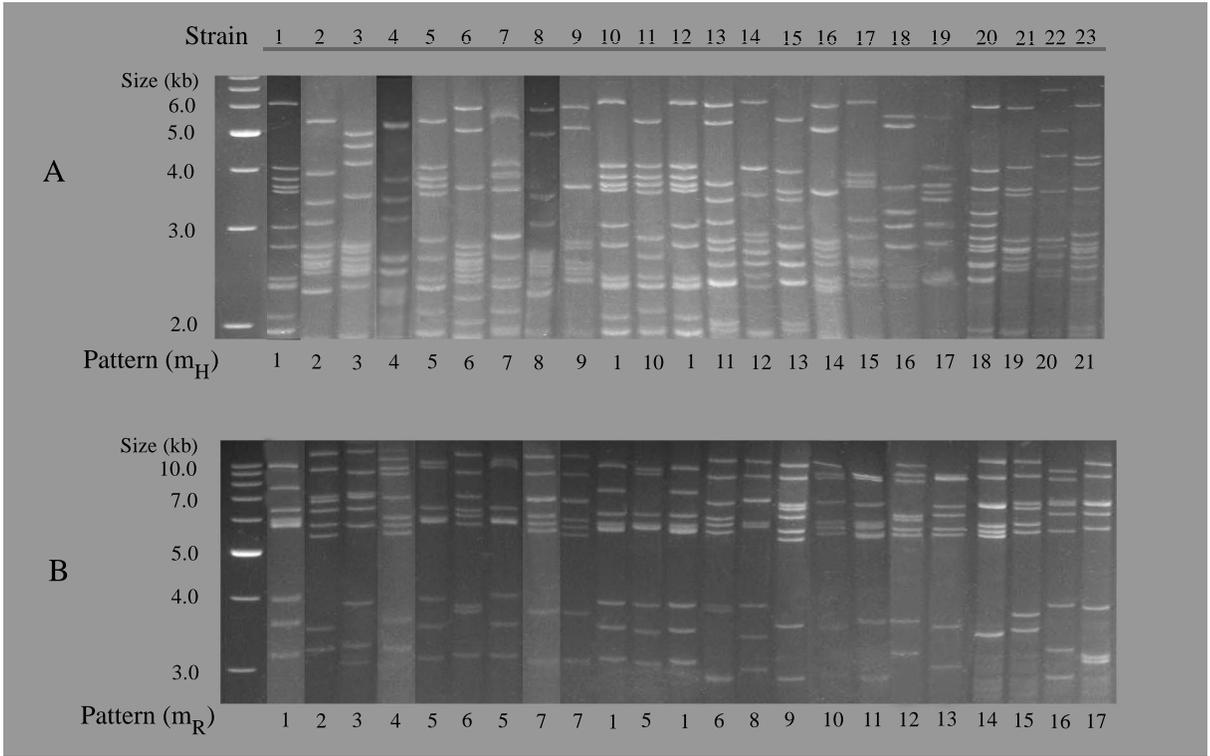


Figure 2

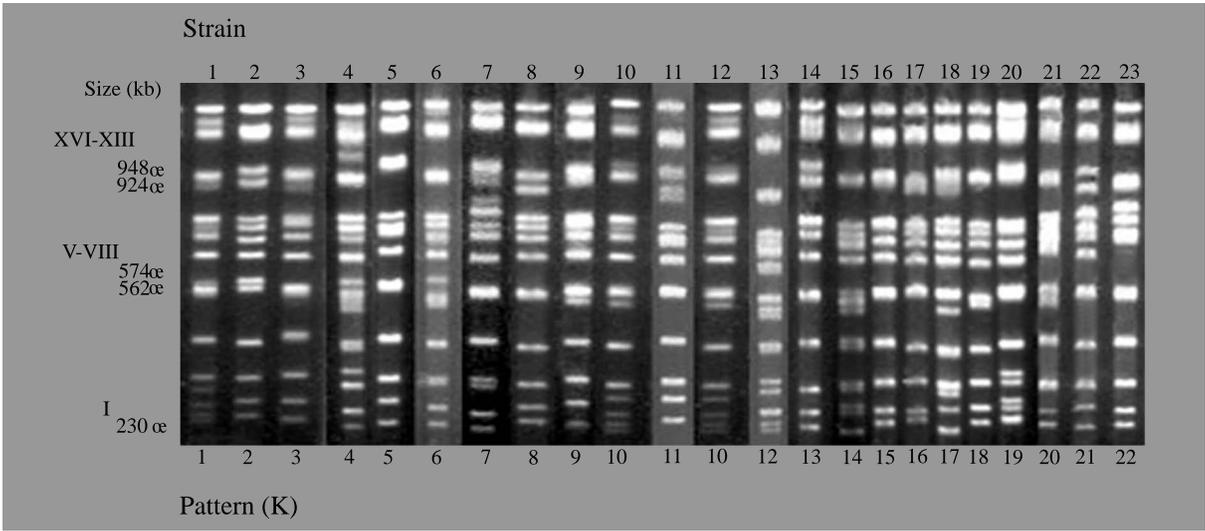


Figure 3

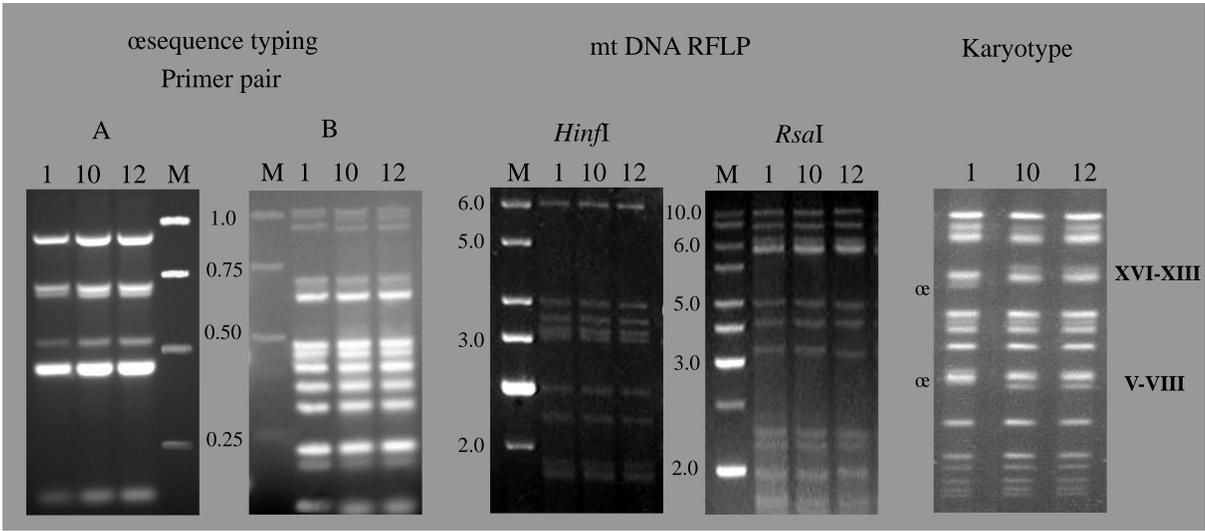


Figure 4