

1 **The role of nitrogen uptake on the competition ability of three vineyard *Saccharomyces***  
2 ***cerevisiae* strains**

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12  
13 **Abstract**

14  
15 Three vineyard strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, P301.4, P304.4 and P254.12, were assayed in  
16 comparison with a commercial industrial strain, QA23. The aim was to understand if nitrogen  
17 availability could influence strain competition ability during must fermentation. Pairwise-strain  
18 fermentations and co-fermentations with the simultaneous presence of the four strains were  
19 performed in synthetic musts at two nitrogen levels: control nitrogen condition (CNC) that assured  
20 the suitable assimilable nitrogen amount required by the yeast strains to complete the fermentation  
21 and low nitrogen condition (LNC) where nitrogen is present at very low level.

22 Results suggested a strong involvement of nitrogen availability, as the frequency in must of the  
23 vineyard strains, respect to QA23, in LNC was always higher than that found in CNC. Moreover, in  
24 CNC only strain P304.4 reached the same strain frequency as QA23. P304.4 competition ability  
25 increased during the fermentation, indicating better performance when nitrogen availability was  
26 dropping down. P301.4 was the only strain sensitive to QA23 killer toxin. In CNC, when it was co-

27 inoculated with the industrial strain QA23, P301.4 was never detected. In LNC, P301.4 after 12  
28 hours accounted for 10% of the total population. This percentage increased after 48 hours (20%).  
29 Single-strain fermentations were also run in both conditions and the nitrogen metabolism further  
30 analyzed. Fermentation kinetics, ammonium and amino-acid consumptions and the expression of  
31 genes under nitrogen catabolite repression evidenced that vineyard yeasts, and particularly strain  
32 P304.4, had higher nitrogen assimilation rate than the commercial control. In conclusion, the high  
33 nitrogen assimilation rate seems to be an additional strategy that allowed vineyard yeasts successful  
34 competition during the growth in grape musts.

35

36 **Keywords:** autochthonous yeast, alcoholic fermentation, killer toxin, population dynamics, wine

37

38 **Highlights:**

39 Nitrogen concentration selectively influences yeast competition.

40 Low nitrogen concentrations jeopardize fermentation conduction by wine strain QA23.

41 Yeast higher survival rate is related to fast nitrogen consumption.

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 The population diversity of yeast species associated with spontaneous grape juice fermentation is  
45 quite complex and growth dynamics are well documented (Fleet, 1993; Ribereau-Gayon et al.,  
46 2006). From the perspective of practical winemaking, the relevant outcomes of these interactions  
47 are whether or not they enhance or inhibit the growth of any particular species or strain, modifying  
48 the final quality of wines. During the fermentation process the species number is strongly reduced  
49 by the ethanol increase, changes in the fermenting must composition and microorganisms  
50 interaction (Wang et al., 2015). The results of these combinations of factors determine, at the end of  
51 the process, the presence of the most adapted *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* species. The number of  
52 *Saccharomyces* strains present during spontaneous fermentation is reported to be strongly variable:  
53 Povhe Jemec et al. (2001) identified from 1 to 18 different strains simultaneously present during

54 five fermentations of Malvasia must. Similar results were found by Santamaria (2005) that isolated  
55 from 1 to 14 strains for each of 7 fermentations of Tempranillo grape variety, whereas Torija et al.  
56 (2001) evidenced the presence of up to 112 different *S. cerevisiae* strains in two Spanish cellars  
57 monitoring must fermentations from grapes collected during three consecutive harvests. From a  
58 technological point of view spontaneous grape juice fermentations sometimes become stuck or  
59 sluggish. This lack of reproducibility and predictability has favored, in the past, the use of yeast  
60 starters, generally composed of single strains of *S. cerevisiae*. Selected *S. cerevisiae* strains  
61 predominate during must fermentation, ensure rapid and reliable grape juice fermentation and, as  
62 consequence, consistent and predictable wine quality. However, wines made with a single  
63 *Saccharomyces* strain culture are less complex, producing standardized wines (Ciani and Comitini,  
64 2015; Swiegers et al., 2005).

65 Therefore, to enrich the complexity of the resulting wines, the growing interest towards controlled  
66 mixed fermentations that use more than one selected yeast strain, pushes strongly the knowledge  
67 towards yeast-to-yeast interaction. Within the wine ecosystem, there are numerous mechanisms  
68 whereby one yeast may influence the growth of another yeast, some of them are still to be fully  
69 investigated (Fleet, 2003). They involve the presence of growth-inhibitory compounds, such as  
70 ethanol, medium-chain fatty acids and acetic acid, or, more traditionally, killer toxin (Bauer and  
71 Pretorius, 2000; Perez et al., 2001). Moreover molecule-mediated cell-to-cell interactions were  
72 found to be responsible of coordinating yeast growth by means of quorum sensing-like phenomena  
73 during alcoholic fermentation. In the case of yeasts, there is evidence that carbonate (Hall et al.,  
74 2010; Volodyaev et al., 2013), acetaldehyde (Weber et al., 2012) ammonia (Ciani and Comitini,  
75 2015; Honigberg, 2011; Joutheen et al., 2016; Palkova and Vachova, 2006), farnesol (Hornby et al.,  
76 2001; Nickerson et al., 2006) and tyrosol (Barriuso, 2015; Chen et al., 2004) may act as cell  
77 communicating molecules. Among abiotic factors, low temperature was demonstrated to influence  
78 the growth dynamics of a mix strain population of *S. cerevisiae* during alcoholic fermentation.  
79 Lowering the temperature clearly improved the development of some *Saccharomyces* strains and, as  
80 a consequence, affected wine quality and characteristics (Torija et al., 2003). Furthermore, cell-to-

81 cell contact has also been shown as a mechanism for *S. cerevisiae* interaction and dominance of  
82 some strains over others (Perrone et al., 2013).

83 Nutrient availability and nutrient limitation are likely factors that modulate the yeast ecology of  
84 fermentation, as one yeast species or strain produces or utilizes a nutrient relevant to another species  
85 or strain. Several studies clearly demonstrated that *Saccharomyces* metabolism changes due to the  
86 presence of different concentration of nitrogen and that nitrogen request is strain dependent (Beltran  
87 et al., 2005; Martinez-Moreno et al., 2012), but it is still not clear how nitrogen concentration can  
88 modulate *S. cerevisiae* competition ability.

89 *S. cerevisiae* requires a relatively high level of nutrients to complete the fermentation of grape must,  
90 typically producing 12–15% v/v ethanol. Assimilable nitrogen has been identified as a key nutrient  
91 that is often suboptimal in many grape musts surveyed worldwide (Vilanova et al., 2007). A  
92 minimal concentration of more than 140 mg/L is often quoted as necessary for the fermentation of  
93 low-solids (filtered), low-temperature (<15°C), anaerobic musts of moderate sugar level (20%)  
94 (Bell and Henschke, 2005). However, the nitrogen requirements are dependent on the sugar  
95 concentration in the must (Martinez-Moreno et al., 2012). Nitrogen sources are rapidly accumulated  
96 by yeast in the early stages of fermentation, during which they fill the biosynthetic pools of amino  
97 acids needed for protein synthesis and growth, while the surplus is stored in the cell vacuole  
98 (Vilanova et al., 2007). When nitrogen is limiting, most of the available nitrogen is consumed  
99 during the first 24-36 h of alcoholic fermentation (Beltran et al., 2004; Varela et al., 2004; Vilanova  
100 et al., 2007).

101 Although nitrogen concentration is a relevant factor, it is noteworthy that not all the nitrogen  
102 sources support equally yeast growth. In complex mixtures of amino acids and ammonium, such as  
103 grape must, wine yeasts have preference for some nitrogen sources, and the pattern of the  
104 preferential uptake of the nitrogen sources is determined by different molecular mechanisms. In *S.*  
105 *cerevisiae*, the mechanism is known globally as nitrogen catabolite repression (NCR) allowing the  
106 detection of the presence of the best sources of nitrogen by limiting the use of those that do not  
107 allow for the best growth (Ter Schure et al., 2000). The detection of the rich nitrogen sources

108 triggers a signaling chain that culminates with the activation of genes involved in the transport and  
109 metabolism of these rich sources and the suppression of those genes involved in the transport and  
110 use of poorer sources. Once the richest sources of nitrogen (ammonium, glutamine, and asparagine)  
111 are consumed, yeast metabolism activates the utilization of the poorer sources of nitrogen (arginine,  
112 glutamate, alanine, etc.) (Mas et al., 2014).

113 In this work pairwise strain fermentations in synthetic must supplemented with two different  
114 nitrogen concentrations were set up. In these conditions, the competition ability of three *S.*  
115 *cerevisiae* strains, isolated directly from the vineyard, and the industrial strain QA23, was  
116 evaluated. The control nitrogen condition (CNC) provided the suitable nitrogen amount required by  
117 the yeast strains to complete the fermentation when 200 g/l of sugar are present in the must. The  
118 low nitrogen condition (LNC) is considered a limiting concentration and generally results in  
119 sluggish fermentations during the last part of the process (Beltran et al., 2004, Chiva et al., 2009,  
120 Deed et al., 2011). The nitrogen requirements of the strains were investigated monitoring the amino  
121 acids and ammonium consumption during fermentation in synthetic must. The expression level of  
122 some of the genes under nitrogen catabolite repression was monitored in order to correlate nitrogen  
123 metabolism, fermentation rate and nitrogen request. Results for nitrogen demand and population  
124 dynamics were used to understand the possible role of nitrogen availability in strains competition  
125 during must fermentations.

126

## 127 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 128 *2.1 Yeast strains and killer assay*

129 For this study the commercial wine yeast QA23 (Lallemand S.A. Canada) and three autochthonous  
130 strains, P301.4, P304.4, P254.12 were used. The autochthonous yeasts were isolated from vineyards  
131 in the winemaking area of Prosecco Superiore di Conegliano Valdobbiadene DOCG (Italy). The  
132 three vineyard strains were chosen within a wide pool of strains among those with good  
133 fermentation performance (Treu et al., 2014 a).

134 The killer phenotype between the three strains was tested according to Cavazza et al. (1992).

135

## 136 *2.2 Culture media and growth condition*

137 Strains were routinely grown in YPD at 25°C. Fermentations were carried out in a synthetic grape  
138 must (pH 3.3) as described by Riou et al. (1997). In this medium two different nitrogen  
139 concentrations were used. In control nitrogen condition (CNC) the yeast assimilable nitrogen  
140 (YAN) content in the synthetic grape must was 440 mg N/l, ammoniacal nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) 120 mg  
141 N/l, and amino acids 320 mg N/l (taking into account all the N present in the amino acids). To  
142 mimic grape must composition this medium also contained 426 mg/l of proline, that is not part of  
143 the assimilable nitrogen. The low nitrogen condition (LNC) contained 1/5-fold (88 mg N/l) of the  
144 YAN present in CNC at the same ammoniacal and amino-acid proportion.

145

## 146 *2.3 Fermentation trials*

### 147 *2.3.1 Pre-culture preparation*

148 Each yeast strain was grown on YPD solid medium at 25°C for 3 days. A loopful of yeast cells was  
149 used to inoculate 30 ml of YPD liquid medium. The culture was incubated for 24 hours at 25 °C to  
150 reach the stationary phase (about 10<sup>7</sup>-10<sup>8</sup> cells/ml). Yeast concentration was measured by counting  
151 the cells in a Thoma chamber using a phase contrast microscope (Olympus).  
152 In pairwise-strains fermentations cell concentration present in each pre-culture was used to calculate  
153 the suitable volume of the inoculum to reach, for each strain, a final concentration of 1x10<sup>6</sup> cells/ml.  
154 In co-fermentations where all the four strains were present simultaneously, the cell concentration  
155 for each strain was of 5x10<sup>5</sup> cells/ml. In single-strain fermentation, for each strain, the concentration  
156 was 2x10<sup>6</sup> cells/ml.

157

### 158 *2.3.2 Fermentation conditions*

159 Fermentations were performed at 25 °C in 250 mL glass bottles containing 200 mL of synthetic  
160 must and fitted with closures that enabled the carbon dioxide to escape and the samples to be  
161 removed.

162 Kinetics were monitored by daily measuring weight loss or must density. Fermentations were  
163 considered completed when the daily weight loss was lower than 0.1 g within 24 hours. In the  
164 single-strain fermentations where nitrogen consumption and yeast gene expression were detected,  
165 due to the large number of samplings, a continuous orbital shaking (150 rpm) was performed during  
166 the trial. The continuous shaking ensured an optimal collection of cell samples. Fermentations were  
167 performed in triplicate and the whole experimental set was repeated twice. Yeast cell concentration  
168 during fermentation was determined by plate counts on YPD medium. To perform real-time  
169 quantitative PCR, cell samples were collected throughout the fermentation at different time points  
170 and harvested by centrifugation, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Supernatant was also  
171 stored at -20 °C to analyze the content of nitrogen and some fermentation products.  
172 During mixed fermentations, at three sampling points (12, 24, 48 hours) yeast isolation was carried  
173 out on YPD plates. At each sampling, a total of 20 colonies, randomly chosen from isolation plates  
174 from the same dilution series, was submitted to amplification of inter- $\delta$  region.

175

#### 176 *2.4 Nitrogen content analysis*

177 Analysis of ammonia and individual amino acids was determined by diethyl  
178 ethoxymethylenemalonate (DEEMM) derivatization (Gómez-Alonso et al., 2007), using the Agilent  
179 1100 Series HPLC (Agilent Technologies, Germany). Separation was performed in an ACE HPLC  
180 column (C18-HL), particle size 5  $\mu$ m (250 mm  $\times$  4.6 mm) thermostated at 20 °C. The  
181 concentration of each compound was calculated using internal (L-2-aminoadipic acid, 1 g/l) and  
182 external standards, and expressed as mg N/l. The software used was Agilent ChemStation Plus  
183 (Agilent Technologies, Germany).

184

#### 185 *2.5 PCR-amplification of inter-delta sequences*

186 Cell suspension for DNA Amplification was performed as described by Nardi et al. (2006). Two  
187 microlitres of the cell suspension were used for PCR amplification. Oligonucleotides primers  
188 delta12 (TCAACAATGGAATCCCAAC) and delta21 (CATCTTAACACCGTATATGA) were

189 used to amplify total genomic DNA between the repeated interspersed delta sequences as  
190 previously described (Legras et al., 2003). PCR products were separated in 1.5% agarose gels in 0.5  
191 X TBE buffer. The molecular marker 100 bp DNA ladder (Promega, Madison, USA) was used as  
192 molecular size standard. Electrophoresis gels were stained with ethidium bromide (5 µg/ml),  
193 visualized by UV transillumination. Digital images were acquired with an EDAS290 image  
194 capturing system (Kodak, Rochester, NY).

195

## 196 *2.6 Real-time quantitative PCR*

197 Total RNA was isolated from yeast samples as described by Sierkstra et al. (1992) and resuspended  
198 in 50 µl of diethyl pyrocarbonate-treated water. cDNA was synthesised from total RNA using  
199 Superscript™ II RNase H- Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) in a GenAmp  
200 PCR System 2700 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The protocol provided by the  
201 manufacturer was used. The PCR primers used in this study were ACT-F,  
202 TGGATTCCGGTGATGGTGTT, and ACT-R, CGGCCAAATCGATTCTCAA (ACT, for actine  
203 gene); IPP1-F, GACACCCCAACCTACTCCAA and IPP1-R, GAACCGGAGATGAAGAACCA  
204 (IPP1, for inorganic pyrophosphatase gene); GAP1-F, CTGTGGATGCTGCTGCTTCA, and  
205 GAP1-R, CAACACTTGGCAAACCCTTGA (GAP1, for general amino acid permease gene); and  
206 MEP2-F, GGTATCATCGCTGGCCTAGTG, and MEP2-R, CAACGGCTGACCAGATTGG  
207 (MEP2, for ammonium permease gene). The real-time quantitative PCR reaction was performed  
208 using SYBR® Green I PCR (Applied Biosystems, USA). Gene expression data were normalized  
209 using the expression value of the actin gene and the inorganic pyrophosphatase gene, chosen as  
210 housekeeping genes. In the PCR reaction, the final reaction volume was 25 µl, the final  
211 concentration of each primer was 300 nM, together with 1 µl of the cDNA previously synthesized  
212 from total RNA. All PCR reactions were mixed in 96-well optical plates and cycled in a GeneAmp  
213 5700 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems, USA) under the following conditions: 50  
214 °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 10 min, and 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 s and at 60 °C for 60 s. The threshold  
215 was positioned to intersect the exponential part of the amplification curve of positive reactions, as



216 recommended by Applied Biosystems. Each sample had two controls, which were run in the same  
217 quantitative PCR: NAC (No Amplification Control; sample without reverse transcriptase reaction)  
218 to avoid the interference by contaminant genomic DNA and NTC (No Template Control; sample  
219 without RNA template) to avoid interference by primer-dimer formation. Relative gene expression  
220 was determined using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$  formula, where  $C_t$  is defined as the cycle at which fluorescence is  
221 determined to be statistically significantly above background;  $\Delta C_t$  is the difference in  $C_t$  of the gene  
222 of interest and  $C_t$  of the housekeeping gene (ACT1); and  $\Delta\Delta C_t$  is the difference in  $\Delta C_t$  at time = t  
223 and  $\Delta C_t$  at time = 12 h in the non-limiting condition (300 mg N/L) for strain QA23, used as  
224 reference. All samples were analysed in duplicate and the expression values were averaged by the  
225 analysis software (Applied Biosystems, USA). (Gutiérrez et al., 2013). The coefficient of variation  
226 in all samples analysed was less than 20 %.

227

## 228 *2.7 Chemical analyses*

229 Glucose, fructose, glycerol, acetic acid and ethanol were quantified using commercial enzymatic  
230 kits (Roche Diagnostics, Germany). The pH was determined using a pH-meter Crison MicroPH  
231 2000 (Crison, Barcelona, Spain).

232

## 233 *2.8 Statistical analysis*

234 The software XLSTAT, vers.7.5.2, was used to perform the analysis of variance (one-way  
235 ANOVA), followed by the Tukey "post-hoc" test. The analysis was conducted by comparing the  
236 averages of three independent replications and differences were considered statistically significant  
237 for  $p$ -value less than 0.05. Visualization of the amino-acids consumption data was obtained by  
238 means of the hierarchical clustering program, MULTIEXPERIMENT VIEWER (MeV, Rockville,  
239 MD, USA). The clustering process was carried out with Pearson distance and the average linkage  
240 method.

241

## 242 **3. Results**

243

### 244 *3.1 Mixed fermentations: strain growth at control and low nitrogen content*

245 To analyze the effects of nitrogen availability upon yeast population dynamics during must  
246 fermentation, three vineyard strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, P301.4, P304.4 and P254.12,  
247 were assayed in competition with a commercial industrial wine strain (QA23).

248 In mixed fermentations (pairwise and co-fermentation of the four strains) all the yeasts had the  
249 same inoculum size. Single-strain fermentations were run, as control. The assays were performed in  
250 synthetic must containing two nitrogen concentrations. The yeast-assimilable nitrogen (YAN)  
251 content was 440 mg N/l in control nitrogen condition (CNC) and 88 mg N/l in low nitrogen  
252 condition (LNC).

253 Before starting the fermentation trials killer toxin production was tested as this trait influences the  
254 competition ability. Results indicated that the industrial wine strain QA23 had a killer phenotype,  
255 P234.15 and P304.4 had a neutral phenotype and P301.4 was sensitive to the killer toxin produced  
256 by QA23. The CO<sub>2</sub> production and cell concentration were determined during all fermentation and  
257 residual sugar, acetic acid and glycerol production were analyzed at the end of the process. As  
258 expected fermentations at low nitrogen condition (LNC) were slower than those at CNC. At LNC  
259 all the fermentations were run within 230 hours (10 days), whereas at CNC within 160 hours (7  
260 days). No residual sugar were detected after 160 hours at CNC, whereas at LNC only P304.4 left 7g  
261 /l sugar. No significant differences were detected at the end of fermentation in ethanol and acetic  
262 acid production at both CNC and LNC (data not shown).

263 The total population dynamics is reported in Fig. 1. No significant differences were detected in the  
264 growth trends at CNC, at LNC during the first 48 hours the single-strain fermentation with P304.4  
265 showed a lower cell concentration than the others.

266

### 267 *3. Strain competition during mixed fermentations*

268 During mixed fermentation processes the strain frequency was determined. As the available  
269 nitrogen is mainly consumed before 48 hours, the changes in the yeast population structure were

270 analyzed during these early periods (12, 24 and 48 h). In the CNC condition, the commercial strain  
271 took over the other strains, dominating the early stages up to 48 h, when no more nitrogen was  
272 available (Table 1). This was also true when the four strains were co-inoculated together, where the  
273 percentage of the commercial strain was always close to 50%. Only one of the vineyard strains  
274 (P304.4) seemed to be almost as competitive as QA23, reaching higher populations after 48h either  
275 when pairwise fermentation or co-fermentation of the 4 strains were performed. Instead, when the  
276 fermentations were in presence of limiting concentrations of nitrogen, yeast populations changed  
277 considerably. All the vineyards strains improved their competition ability, as their frequencies  
278 increased during the first 48 hours of fermentation. The strain sensitive to the killer toxin, P301.4,  
279 although to a lesser extent, improved competition performances, as well (Table 2). This last strain  
280 that immediately disappeared in CNC presented up to 20% of the total population in LNC. In the  
281 mixed fermentations with all the strains, three of the strains (two vineyard and the commercial) co-  
282 dominated the fermentation, with similar cell levels.

283

### 284 *3.3 Nitrogen consumption and expression of genes under nitrogen catabolic repression during* 285 *single-strain fermentations*

286 To better understand the ability of each strain to utilize the nitrogen source present in the synthetic  
287 musts the single-strain fermentations were run again in both conditions and the nitrogen metabolism  
288 analyzed further.

289 At CNC (Fig. 2A) sugar consumption during tumultuous fermentation was significantly higher ( $p$ -  
290 values  $< 0.05$ ) up to T48 sampling in vineyard strains than in the commercial strain. However, at  
291 the end of fermentation the commercial strain was faster, ending the fermentation at the same time  
292 as all the strains. When LNC was tested (Fig. 2B), the fermentation rate was very much slower than  
293 in CNC. Although the starting of the fermentation (up to T24 sampling) was similar and without  
294 significant differences in sugar consumption between strains, shortly after the start, the strain  
295 P304.4 was significantly slower than the rest of the strains with a reduced viable cell population  
296 during the growth stationary phase. The commercial strain was the fastest yeast to finish the

297 fermentation that was completed 140 hours earlier than P304.4 that showed a fermentation length of  
298 360 hours.

299 No significant differences among strains were found at the end of fermentation in ethanol and acetic  
300 acid production at both CNC and LNC (data not shown). However, in the latter condition, glycerol  
301 concentration was significantly higher in P254.12 and P304.4 (6.60 and 6.85 g/l respectively) than  
302 in P301.4 and QA23 (6.00 and 5.60), despite that no significant differences were found in CNC.

303 Consumption of ammonium and yeast assimilable nitrogen (YAN) was monitored throughout these  
304 fermentations. In CNC (Fig. 3) YAN available in the must was assimilated within 24-30 hours and  
305 the commercial strain showed a slower nitrogen consumption than the vineyard strains. Ammonium  
306 was completely consumed within 21 hours by the vineyard strains whereas the commercial control  
307 needed 24 hours. After that, in the vineyard strain fermentations, YAN dropped to 4.18-4.72 g/l, a  
308 residual concentration mainly composed by cysteine. At the same sampling time the YAN  
309 concentration in the commercial strain fermentation was 82.7 mg N/l (data not shown). At CNC the  
310 consumption of each amino acid was estimated by calculating the difference with the initial  
311 concentrations. The heatmap analysis (Fig. 4A; Supplementary table S1) showed a conserved  
312 pattern among strains, with some amino acids that were generally more rapidly consumed (lysine,  
313 methionine, threonine, leucine, serine, glutamine, histidine, aspartic acid) than others. Amino-acid  
314 consumption patterns revealed that vineyard strains consumed the nitrogen sources (amino acid and  
315 ammonium) more rapidly than the commercial QA23. Several clusters in consumption patterns  
316 could be identified. The main cluster included the preferred nitrogen sources and was composed by  
317 ammonium, valine, glutamate, aspartate, phenylalanine, histidine, glutamine, serine, leucine,  
318 threonine and methionine. This group of amino acids was mostly taken by the autochthonous strains  
319 by 15-18 h, whereas the uptake by the commercial strain was after 21 h. However, a couple of  
320 subgroups can be seen in this cluster, regarding the early consumption: the subgroup formed by  
321 valine, glutamate, aspartate and phenylalanine, that are taken up after 9 h, and the rest that are  
322 consumed from the first sampling time (6 h). A second group was formed by tryptophan, tyrosine,  
323 arginine and alanine, that are consumed completely by 21-24 h by the autochthonous strains and by

324 30 h in the commercial strain. Glycine is similar to this last group, although a little bit delayed.  
325 Finally cysteine remained in considerable amounts after 30 h, independently of the strain.  
326 In LNC ammonium was completely depleted after 12 h in all fermentations and the amino acid  
327 concentrations were notably reduced (Fig.4B; Supplementary table S2). After 12 hours vineyard  
328 strains had totally consumed most of the amino acids that were early consumed in CNC (serine,  
329 glutamine, histidine, valine, leucine isoleucine phenylalanine) together with glycine, alanine and the  
330 most abundant arginine, that at CNC was totally consumed in 21-24 hours. Instead, the commercial  
331 strain showed a lower amino-acid consumption rate as at 12 hours tryptophan, alanine, glycine,  
332 phenylalanine, valine and throsine were still present in the must at high concentrations. All the  
333 strains left cysteine concentration unchanged in the medium as previously found in CNC.  
334 Methionine and lysine were generally less consumed than in CNC.  
335 To better understand the different fermentation behaviors and nitrogen assimilation rates between  
336 the strains, the expression of *MEP2* and *GAP1* genes, both controlled by nitrogen catabolite  
337 repression, was investigated (Fig. 5 and 6). The ammonium permease encoded by *MEP2* is  
338 activated when ammonium is very low. This allows the complete consumption of ammonium. In  
339 both CNC and LNC, P304.4 and P301.4, the two vineyard strains that presented the lowest  
340 fermentation rates in LNC, showed the earliest and the strongest activation of *MEP2*. In CNC this  
341 was particularly evident at 72 hours, while in LNC the increased expression was after 48 hours.  
342 The general amino-acid permease *GAP1* enhances the assimilation of amino acids, increasing the  
343 transport of those that do not have specific permeases that are constitutively expressed. The *GAP1*  
344 gene expression trend for each strain was very similar to that observed for *MEP2*, although the  
345 levels of expression were much higher than those detected for *MEP2*. The commercial strain  
346 showed in all the cases the weakest increase of gene expression levels.

347

#### 348 **4. Discussion**

349 Although most of the studies on strain competition have been done with non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts,  
350 some have centered the interest in the interaction between *Saccharomyces* strains (revised by Ciani

351 et al., 2016). In fact, nutrient availability and specifically nitrogen demand has been pointed out as  
352 one of the mechanisms underlying situations of dominance or taking over from some strains over  
353 others (García-Rios et al., 2014). For this reason, we used the *S. cerevisiae* strain QA23 that is well  
354 known to have a low nitrogen demand and strong ethanol resistance during vinification and also  
355 produce a killer toxin that improves its ability to colonize the enological environment (Beltran et al.,  
356 2005; Jiménez-Martí et al., 2007). The vineyard yeasts P301.4, P304.4 and P254.12 were isolated  
357 from single grape bunch fermentations. In each fermentation, co-domination of at least 3 strains was  
358 found. In the case of P304.4 nine different strains were present simultaneously (Treu et al., 2014 a,  
359 2014 b) P254.12 and P304.4 showed a neutral phenotype when QA23 killer toxin where present in  
360 the growing medium, whereas P301.4 was sensitive. Our results, comparing the needs of the  
361 different strains, suggested a strong implication of nitrogen assimilation ability on strain  
362 competition during the growth in grape musts. In fact, the competition ability of the vineyard strains  
363 in LNC was always higher than that found in CNC. Moreover, in CNC the strain P304.4 showed the  
364 highest competition ability respect to QA23, evidenced by the same strain frequency at the end of  
365 fermentation. The P304.4 competition ability increased during the fermentation, indicating better  
366 performance when nitrogen was depleted. When nitrogen concentration was high only small  
367 differences were found among the fermentation kinetics. Notwithstanding, the sugar consumption  
368 rate of the commercial strain during exponential and early stationary phase was significantly slower  
369 than those found for the other yeasts. This finding suggested that the lower nitrogen assimilation of  
370 QA23, compared with vineyard strains, limits the fermentation rate when nitrogen is abundant. On  
371 the contrary when low nitrogen was present strong differences in the fermentation kinetics were  
372 evidenced. QA23 completed the fermentation earlier than the others. P304.4 was the slowest strain  
373 evidencing the highest nitrogen demand. When ammonium and amino acids consumption was  
374 determined, strong differences between vineyard strains and the commercial strain were found  
375 confirming the lower nitrogen demand of the commercial strain. In particular in CNC after 12  
376 hours P304.4 and P254.12 showed the highest ammonium consumption (around 90% depletion)

377 compared to P301.4 (70%) and QA23 (56%). Thus, this quick nitrogen consumption could explain  
378 the increase in the competition ability in LNC.

379 Regarding amino acid assimilation the pattern seems to be very conserved among the strains,  
380 indicating that the main difference between QA23 and the vineyard group is the assimilation rate.  
381 These results are very close to what was observed by García-Rios et al. (2014), because the most  
382 competitive strain used in that study (PDM) is genetically very close to the QA23 and also its  
383 capacity to take over the other strains is enhanced by higher nitrogen availability.

384 All the strains showed the same preference in amino-acid consumption. At CNC methionine,  
385 threonine, leucine, serine, glutamine were consumed faster. Glycine consumption started later and  
386 cysteine contents remained unchanged. These results are very similar to what has been observed in  
387 other conditions and studies (Beltran et al., 2004, 2005; Jiranek et al., 1995). To evaluate the effect  
388 of different assimilation rate on nitrogen metabolism the expression of *MEP2* (ammonium  
389 permease) and *GAPI* (general amino acids permease) genes was investigated. Amino acids are  
390 transported into the cell by general and specific transport systems. The general high-capacity  
391 permeases like *GAPI* and *AGPI* or the specific proline permease *PUT4* are nitrogen-regulated and  
392 become down-regulated at the transcriptional as well as the posttranslational level, in response to  
393 high-quality nitrogen sources like ammonium (Forsberg and Ljungdahl, 2001). However, specific  
394 permeases like the histidine permease (*HIP1*), the lysine permease (*LYPI*) and the basic-amino-acid  
395 permease *CAN1* are expressed constitutively (Ter Schure et al., 2000). The *MEP* genes related to  
396 ammonium uptake are also subjected to nitrogen control. These genes are expressed when low  
397 ammonium concentrations are present in the growth medium, but at high concentration of a good  
398 nitrogen source (including ammonium) all three *MEP* genes are repressed. With a poor nitrogen  
399 source, *MEP2* expression is much higher than *MEP1* and *MEP3* expression (Beltran et al., 2004;  
400 Marini et al., 1997). The data agreed with the differences in the amino acid assimilation rate among  
401 strains. In particular in CNC the strains that grew and fermented faster during exponential grow  
402 phase, namely P304.4 and P301.4, were those removing earlier the nitrogen catabolite repression.  
403 Thus, our results suggested that in the case of the vineyard strains tested in this work the strategy

404 that these yeasts adopted to colonize the must included the ability to assimilate nitrogen. In fact the  
405 increased competitiveness found in vineyard strains when nitrogen was limited could be related to  
406 the higher nitrogen assimilation rate in these yeasts. In particular, P304.4, the strain with the highest  
407 nitrogen demand, codominated the fermentation with the commercial strain. As in natural must  
408 several strains can be present simultaneously during fermentation (this was the case when the  
409 vineyard strains were isolated), those with the highest nitrogen demand could quickly remove  
410 nitrogen that is no longer available, reducing cell growth and fermentation performance of the less  
411 demanding yeasts. Finally, many strategies are known to be adopted by yeasts to dominate  
412 enological environments, among them the killer toxin production is one of the most studied (de  
413 Ullivarri et al., 2014; Fleet, 2003; Marquina et al., 2002). Strain P301.4 was sensitive to the killer  
414 toxin produced by the commercial strain; therefore, when it was co-inoculated with QA23 in CNC,  
415 it was not detected during fermentation. Notwithstanding, when LNC was tested, P301.4 partially  
416 recovered the competition ability reaching up to 20% of the total population after 48 h.  
417 In conclusion, our findings indicate that a high nitrogen assimilation rate is an additional strategy to  
418 prevail during fermentations where multiple strains are present. Thus, this is an aspect to take into  
419 consideration when selecting yeast that have to outgrow natural microbiota that could be present.  
420 Furthermore, considering some current winemaking tendencies of inoculating different strains of  
421 *Saccharomyces* the presence of nitrogen in natural musts as well as the different yeast requirements  
422 are clearly a characteristic that has to be determined before its use. This aspect is probably more  
423 important than other aspects such as killer phenotype, for instance. In fact, this last aspect is only  
424 relevant in strains that are killer sensitive, as in our case was strain 301.4.

425

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612

613 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

614 **Fig. 1.** Population evolution during single-strain and mixed fermentations in CNC (A) and LNC  
615 (B). □ P301.4, △ P304.4, ◇ P254.12, ○ QA23, × QA23-P301.4, + QA23-P304.4, \* QA23-  
616 P254.12, – QA23-P301.4-P304.4-P254.12.

617

618 **Fig. 2.** Must density and population evolution during single-strain fermentations in CNC (A) and  
619 LNC (B). Continuous lines describe the evolution of the cell concentration (CFU/ml), dashed lines  
620 must density. □ P301.4, △P304.4, ◇P254.12, ○ QA23.

621

622 **Fig. 3.** Ammonium (A) and yeast assimilable nitrogen (YAN) (B) concentration during single-strain  
623 fermentations in CNC. □ P301.4, △P304.4, ◇P254.12, ○ QA23.

624

625 **Fig. 4.** Ammonium and amino acids consumption visualized by means of the hierarchical clustering  
626 program MULTIEXPERIMENT VIEWER at different sampling points during single-strain  
627 fermentations in CNC (A) and LNC (B). In the heat map, for each nitrogen source, each value is the  
628 ratio between the consumed and the initial concentration. Color scale is reported on top of the  
629 figure: black = no consumption, blue =low consumption, red = total consumption.

630

631 **Fig. 5.** Expression of *MEP2* gene during single-strain fermentations in CNC (A) and LNC (B). The  
632 data were quantified by calculating the ratio between the concentration of the studied genes  
633 normalized with the concentration of the housekeeping genes *ACT1* and *IPP1*, and expressed as  
634 percentage (the quantity ratio 1 was set as 100%) setting the expression obtained by the strain QA23  
635 at t=12 in CNC as 100%. ■ P301.4, ■ P304.4, ■ P254.12, ■ QA23.

636

637 **Fig. 6.** Expression of *GAPI* gene during single-strain fermentations in CNC (A) and LNC (B). The  
638 data were quantified by calculating the ratio between the concentration of the studied genes  
639 normalized with the concentration of the housekeeping genes *ACT1* and *IPP1*, and expressed as



640 percentage (the quantity ratio 1 was set as 100%) setting the expression obtained by the strain QA23

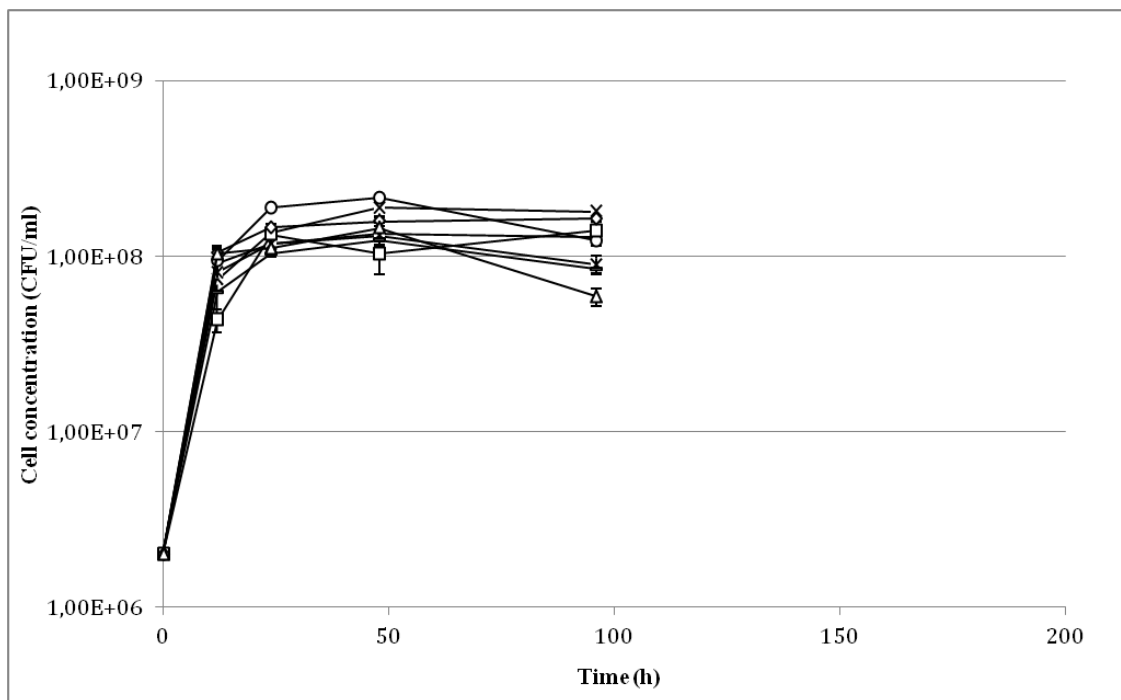
641 at t=12 in CNC as 100%. ■ P301.4, ■ P304.4, ■ P254.12, ■ QA23.

642

643 **FIGURES AND TABLES**

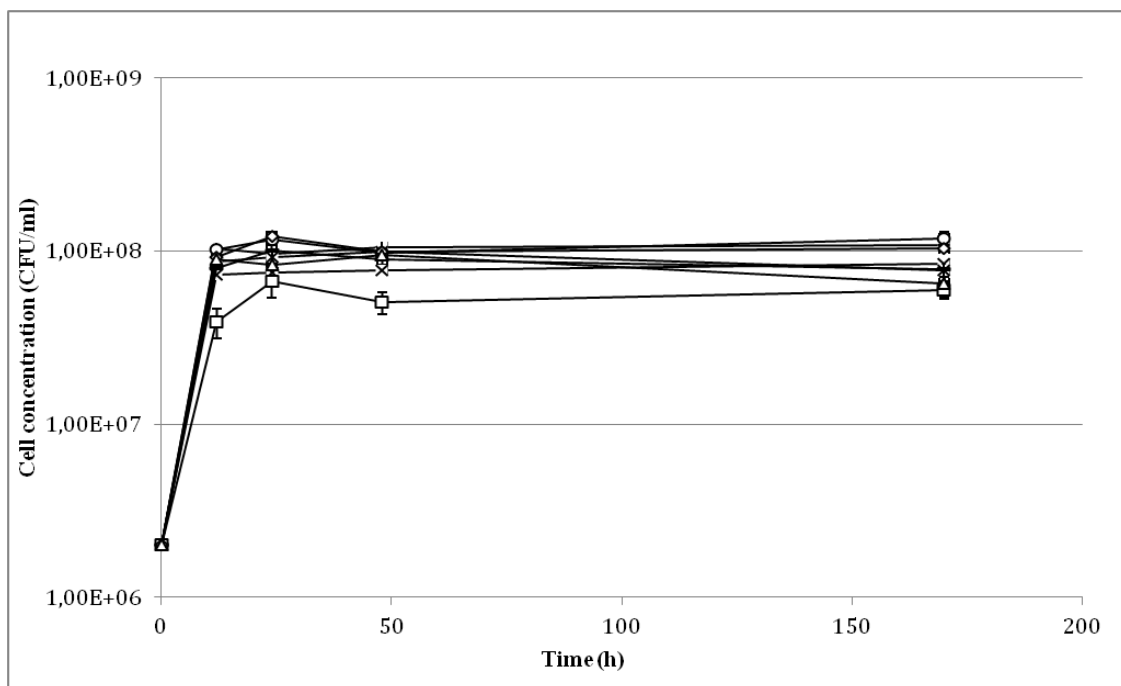
644 **Figure 1**

645 **A**



646

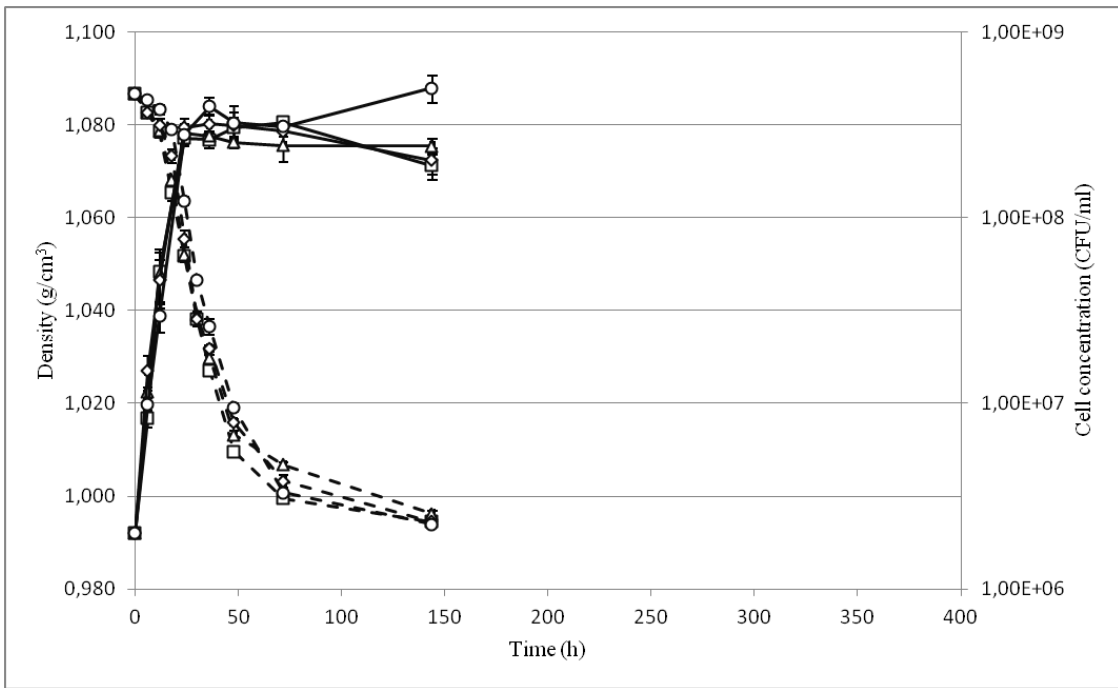
647 **B**



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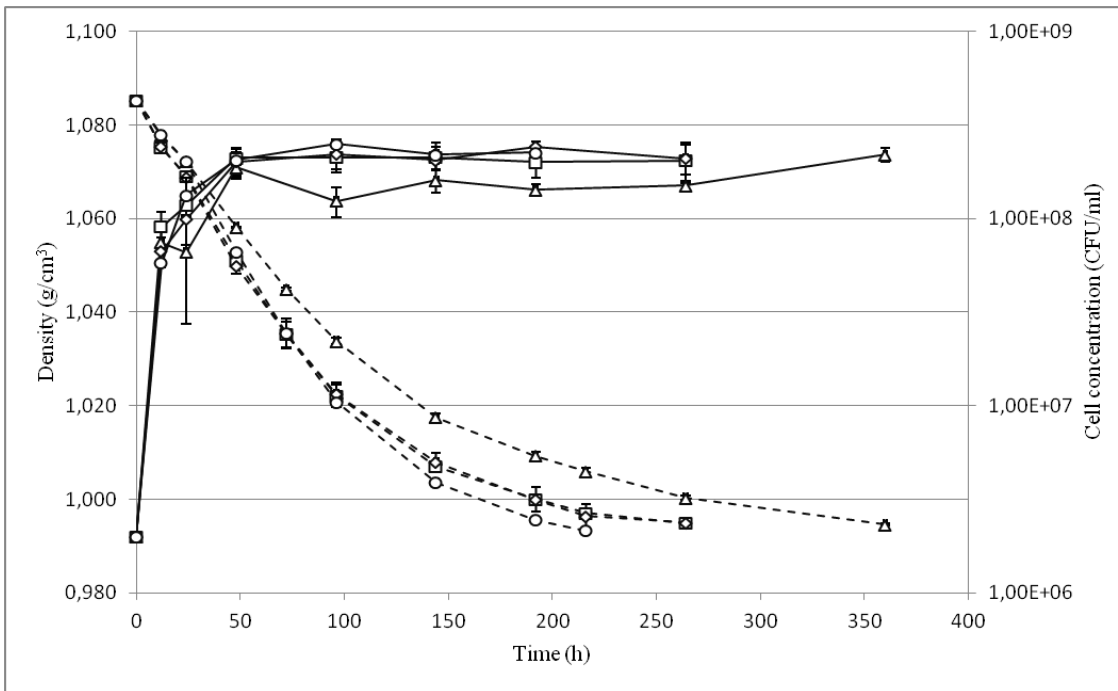
649 **Figure 2**

650 **A**



651

652 **B**

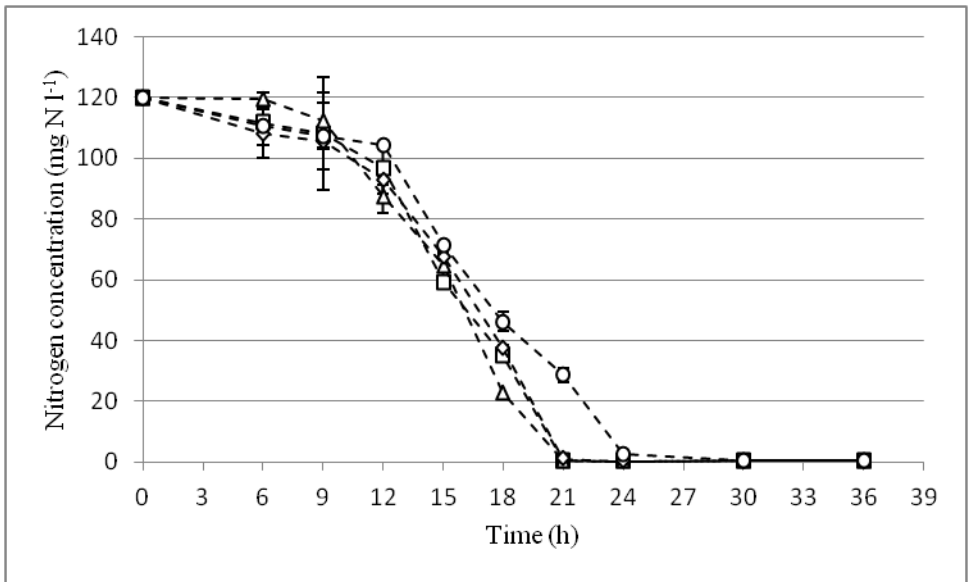


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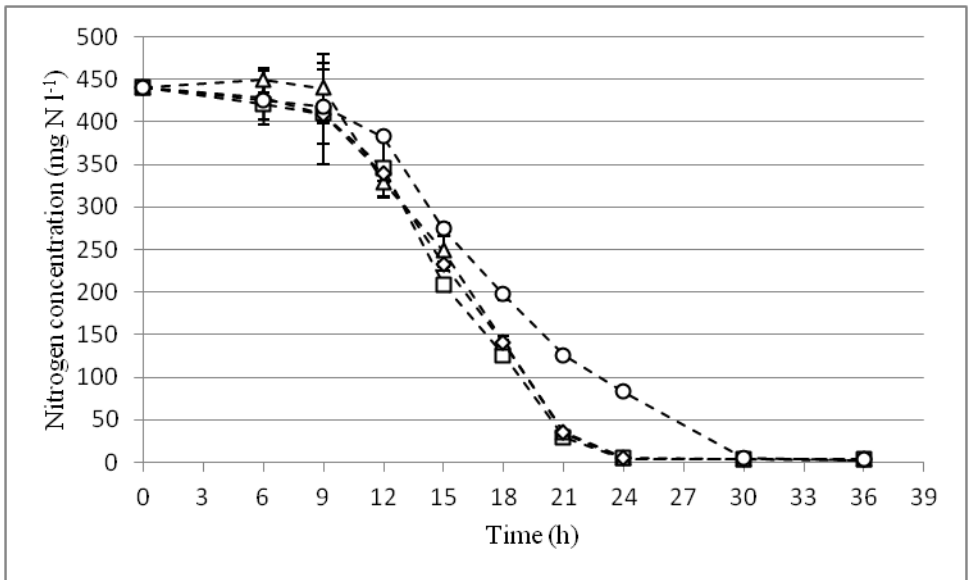
655 **Figure 3**

656 **A**



657

658 **B**



659

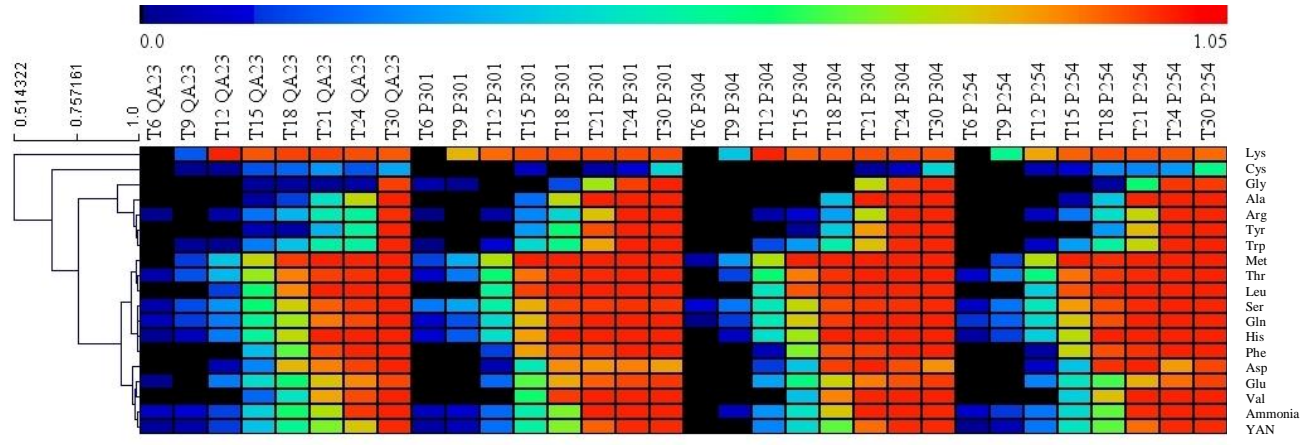
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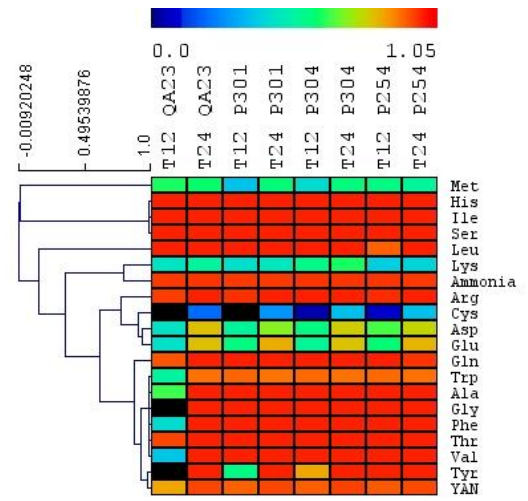
663 **Figure 4**

664 **A**



665

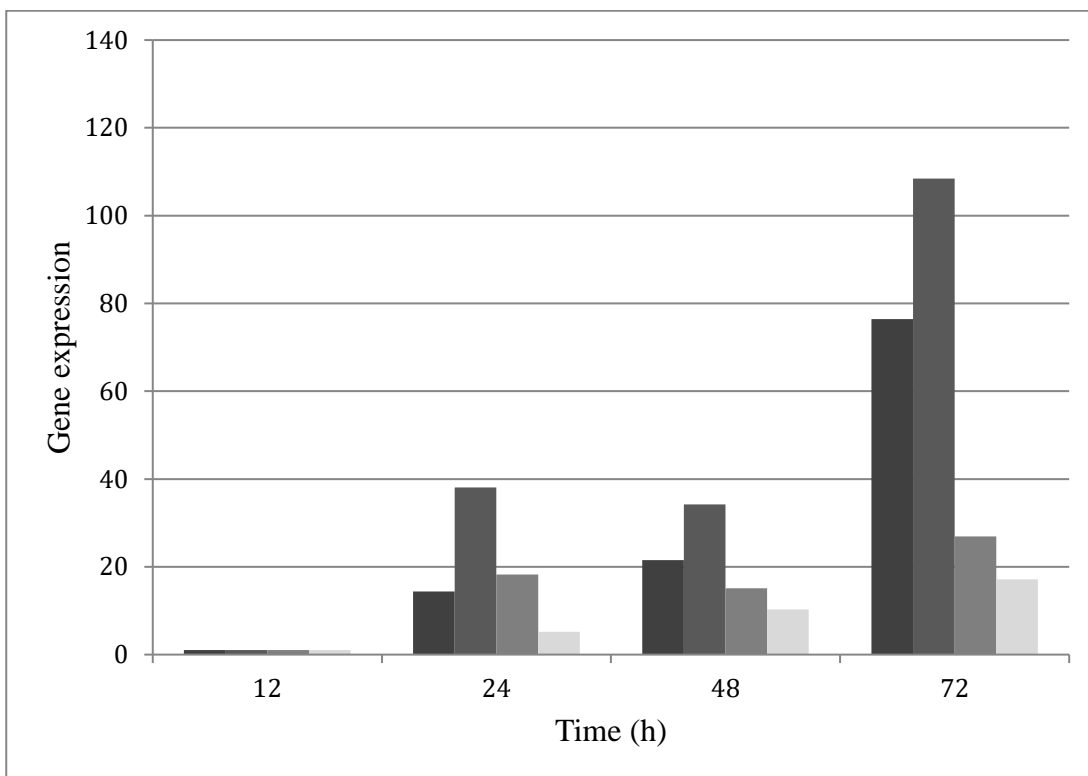
666 **B**



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668 **Figure 5**

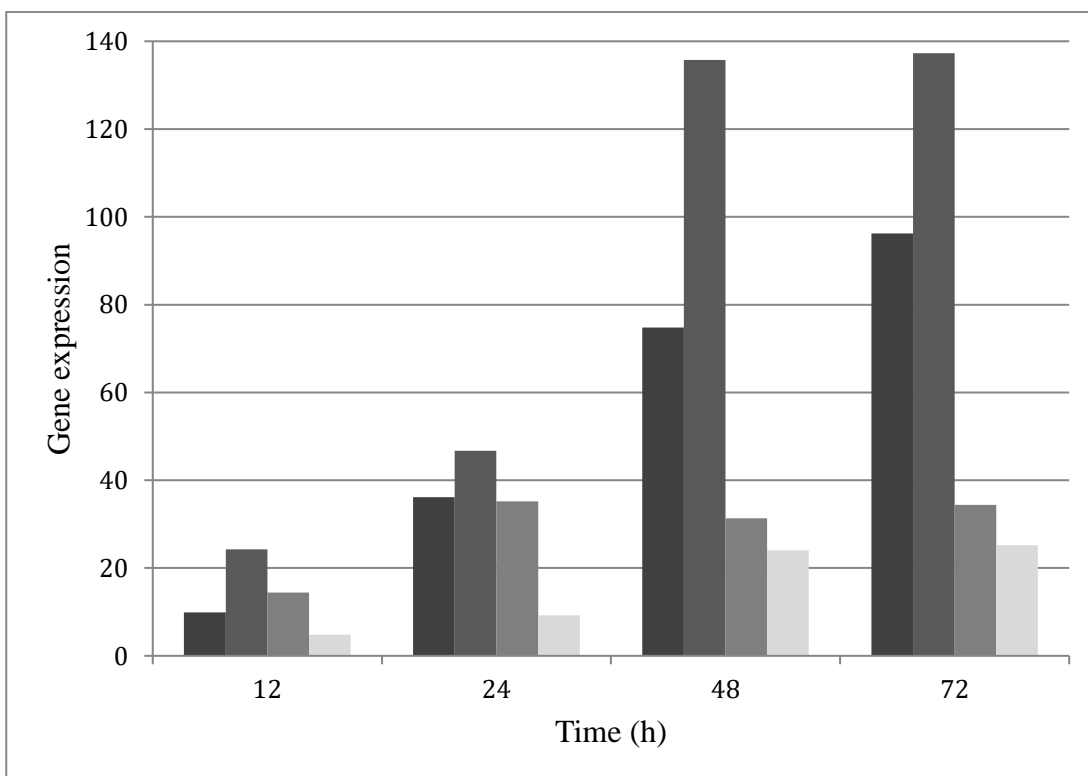
669 **A**



670

671 **B**

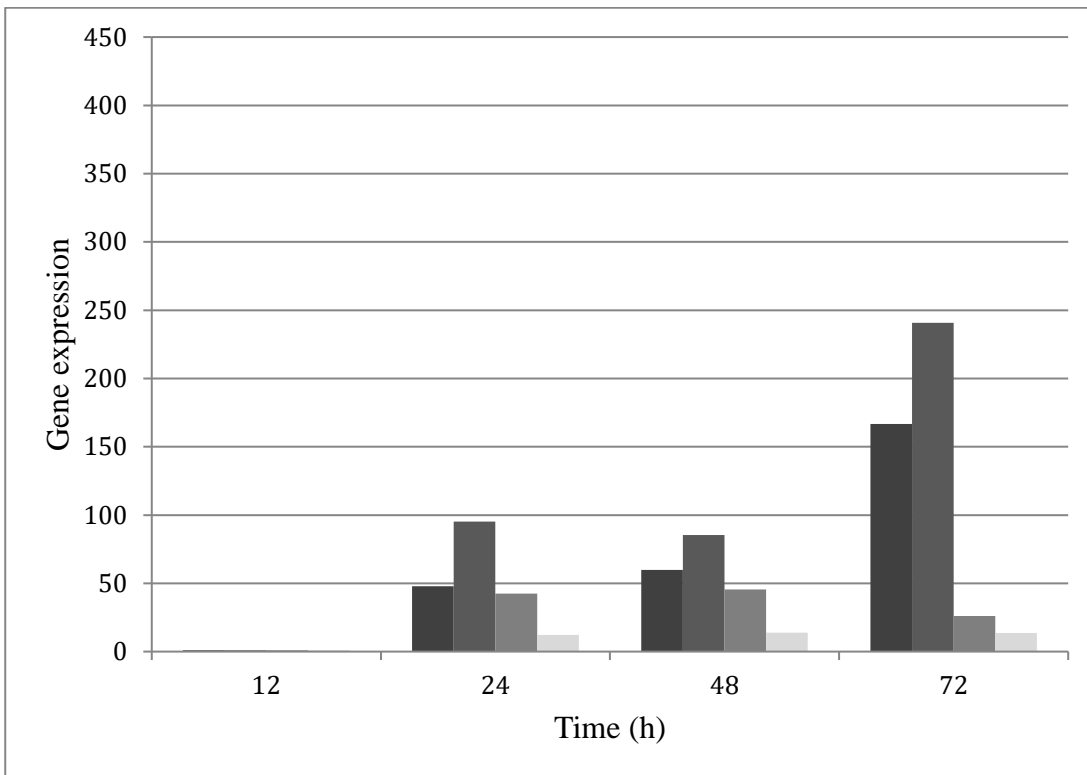
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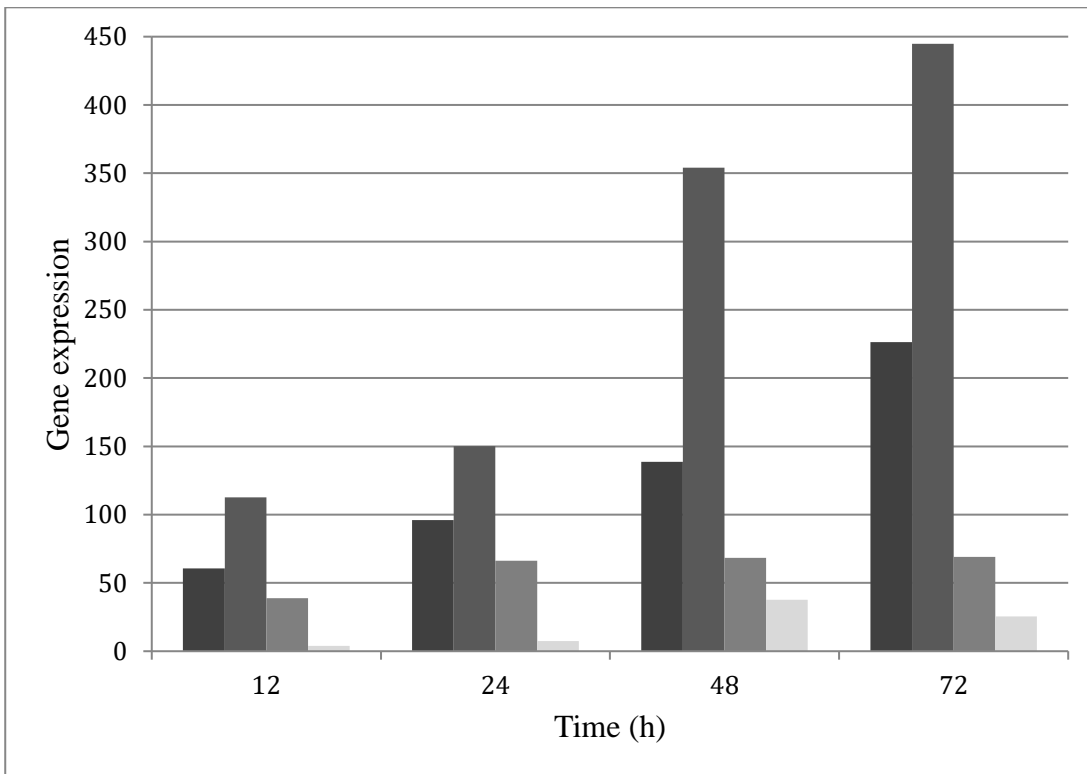
674 **Figure 6**

675 **A**



676

677 **B**



678

679

680 **Table 1** Strains frequency evaluated at three sampling points (12, 24 and 48 hours) during mixed  
 681 fermentations in CNC.

Co-fermentation	Strain presence (percentage)			
	T0	T12	T24	T48
QA23/P301.4	50/50	100/0	100/0	100/0
QA23/P304.4	50/50	70/30	70/30	50/50
QA23/P254.12	50/50	75/25	70/30	95/5
QA23/P301.4/P304.4/P254.12	25/25/25/25	44/0/30/26	44/0/32/24	48/4/8/40

682

683 **Table 2** Strains frequency evaluated at three sampling points (12, 24 and 48 hours) during mixed  
 684 fermentations in LNC.

Co-fermentation	Strain presence (percentage)			
	T0	T12	T24	T48
QA23/P301.4	50/50	90/10	95/5	80/20
QA23/P304.4	50/50	60/40	45/55	40/60
QA23/P254.12	50/50	40/60	50/50	45/55
QA23/P301.4/P304.4/P254.12	25/25/25/25	30/0/30/40	40/0/25/35	35/10/25/30

685

686 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL LEGENDS**

687

688 **Supplementary Table S1.** Concentrations of amino acids, ammonia and YAN in fermenting musts  
 689 (expressed as mg N/l) during single-strain fermentations in CNC measured after 6 hours (T6), 9  
 690 hours (T9), 12 hours (T12), 15 hours (T15), 18 hours (T18), 21 hours (T21), 24 hours (T24) and 30  
 691 hours (T30) from fermentation start.

692

693 **Supplementary Table S2.** Concentrations of amino acids, ammonia and YAN in fermenting musts  
 694 (expressed as mg N/l) during single-strain fermentations in LNC measured after 12 hours (T12) and  
 695 24 hours (T24) from fermentation start.

696

697