This is the peer reviewed version of the article accepted for publication in LWT - Food Science and Technology 130 (2020) 109631, which has been published in final form at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2020.109631.

1 Title: Factors influencing the production of the antioxidant hydroxytyrosol during alcoholic fermentation:

2 yeast strain, initial tyrosine concentration and initial must

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- 20 Abbreviations: AF alcoholic fermentation; HT hydroxytyrosol; NCE Normalized Collision Energy; RF Red
- 21 Fruit; SM synthetic must; OD optical density; PRM Parallel Reaction Monitoring; YAN Yeast Assimilable
- 22 Nitrogen; YPD yeast extract peptone dextrose

23 Abstract

24 Hydroxytyrosol is well known for its potent antioxidant activity and anticarcinogenic, 25 antimicrobial, cardioprotective and neuroprotective properties. Main food sources are olive oil 26 (formed from the hydrolysis of oleuropein) and wine. One possible explanation to its origin in 27 wines is the synthesis from tyrosol, which in turn is produced from the Ehrlich pathway by 28 yeasts. This work aims to explore the factors that could increase the content as the strain of 29 yeast, the initial tyrosine concentrations as precursor and the effect of synthetic and sterilized 30 natural grape musts. 31 Alcoholic fermentations in synthetic must showed that hydroxytyrosol is 32 produced by all the yeast strains under study. Commercial Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeasts 33 were those which produced higher concentrations, being the Red Fruit strain the biggest 34 producer (6.12 ng/mL). Once the strain was selected, alcoholic fermentations were performed 35 in synthetic must, with different tyrosine concentrations. The amount of hydroxytyrosol did not increase in a proportional way as tyrosine does. On the other hand, higher concentrations 36 37 of hydroxytyrosol were obtained in natural grape musts (10.46 ng/mL) than in synthetic must 38 (4.03 ng/mL). This work confirms the capacity of winemaking yeasts to produce the bioactive 39 hydroxytyrosol.

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⁴¹ Keywords: bioactive, tyrosine, S. cerevisiae, wine, alcoholic fermentation

42 1. Introduction

Hydroxytyrosol (HT) 2-(3,4-Dihydroxyphenyl) ethanol is a phenylethylalcohol known for its 43 44 bioactivity (Fernández-Mar, Mateos, García-Parrilla, Puertas, & Cantos-Villar, 2012). Other 45 biological properties that have been described are: anticarcinogenic, antimicrobial, cardioprotective (Yuri, Silvia, Giacomo, & Massimo, 2012) and neuroprotective (Hornedo-46 47 Ortega et al., 2018). Specifically, in relation to the cardioprotection, it has antithrombotic and 48 anti-inflammatory properties (Robles-Almazan et al., 2018). In addition, HT avoids the 49 oxidation of LDL particles, it can decrease total cholesterol and it can also increase HDL 50 cholesterol (Robles-Almazan et al., 2018). Additionally, it presents a high bioavailability and 51 degree of absorption (Echeverría, Ortiz, Valenzuela, & Videla, 2017). Its degree of absorption 52 is around 99% in oil and 75% in aqueous solution since it depends on the delivery vehicle 53 (Vilaplana-Pérez, Auñón, García-Flores, & Gil-Izquierdo, 2014).

54 Extra Virgin olive oil is the main source of HT in the diet (Fernández-Mar et al., 2012). The 55 concentration of HT in extra virgin olive oil ranges between 50 mg/kg and 800 mg/kg 56 (Carluccio et al., 2003). It is formed during the hydrolysis of oleuropein which is present in 57 olives (Robles-Almazan et al., 2018). The content of HT in olive oil depends on certain 58 factors such as the variety of olive, the cultivar and origin and most importantly, the olive oil 59 elaboration process that results in the oil quality (Robles-Almazan et al., 2018). Furthermore, 60 it has been described in fermented beverages such as wine, although the concentrations are 61 lower (Piñeiro, Cantos-Villar, Palma, & Puertas, 2011; Fernadez-Mar et al., 2012). The 62 concentration of HT in wine is approximately higher than 5 mg/L (Echeverría et al., 2017). 63 Both red and white wines contain HT (Romboli, Mangani, Buscioni, Granchi, & Vincenzini, 64 2015). Some of the concentrations found in wines were: Tempranillo 1.84±1.56 mg/L; Petit 65 Verdot 4.12±0.63 mg/L and Syrah 1.11±2.43 mg/L (Piñeiro et al., 2011); Blend 1.3±0.9 mg/kg²; Chardonnay 2.3±1.3 mg/kg² and Fiano 1.1±0.3 mg/kg² (Ragusa et al., 2017). 66

It is well known that tyrosol is produced by yeasts during alcoholic fermentation (AF) (Romboli et al., 2015) through the Ehrlich pathway, which includes the transamination of tyrosine, the decarboxylation of p-hydroxyphenylpyruvate and the reduction of phydroxyphenylaldehyde (Mas et al., 2014). Some factors that have been reported to influence the AF are the pH, the temperature and the nature and composition of the medium. Specifically, they can affect the rate of fermentation and the production of metabolites (Vilela, 2019). Moreover, our group have recently proved that

74 certain winemaking yeasts synthetize HT (M. Antonia Álvarez-Fernández, Fernández-

Cruz, Cantos-Villar, Troncoso, & García-Parrilla, 2018) as it was unequivocally determined
both in the extracellular and intracellular compartments.

77 The purpose of this work is to explore the production of HT by a wider set of different 78 winemaking yeast strains, in the extracellular and intracellular compartments, in order to select the one with a higher production capacity. Since there are a wide range of yeast strains 79 80 used for enology purpose, the main novelty of the present work is the demonstration, for the 81 first time, that certain yeast strains S. cerevisiae and non S. cerevisiae, commercial and 82 autochthonous veasts (S. cerevisiae Enartis Ferm ES488, S. cerevisiae Lalvin ICV GRE, S. 83 cerevisiae Uvaferm, S. cerevisiae Yero 2.23, S. cerevisiae Yero 2.24, and Metschnikowia 84 pulcherrima Flavia MP 346) also produce HT. Additionally, there is a great interest on increasing the concentration of these bioactive by means of the conditions on the fermentation 85

process. Since tyrosine is the precursor of HT, its initial concentration could be a key point. Therefore, once the most productive yeast strain is selected, we aim to evaluate if different initial tyrosine concentrations have an effect on the production of HT. As tyrosine is the aromatic amino acid precursor of HT, the hypothesis of the present work is the more content of tyrosine in must, the more production of HT. The last objective is to explore the 91 capacity of the selected yeast to produce HT in natural grape must to verify if the results are

92 reproducible from synthetic to natural grape musts.

93 2. Materials and methods

94 2.1 Yeast strains

95 Eight different commercial wine yeast strains, including S. cerevisiae and non S. cerevisiae, 96 were used in the fermentation of synthetic must (SM): S. cerevisiae Enartis Ferm Aroma 97 White (Enartis), S. cerevisiae Enartis Ferm ES488 (Enartis), S. cerevisiae Lalvin ICV GRE 98 (Lallemand), S. cerevisiae Lalvin YSEO QA23 (Lallemand), S. cerevisiae Enartis Ferm Red 99 Fruit (RF) (Enartis), S. cerevisiae Uvaferm (Lallemand), Torulaspora delbrueckii Biodiva 100 (Lallemand) and Metschnikowia pulcherrima Flavia MP 346 (Lallemand). Two S. cerevisiae 101 autochthonous yeasts, isolated from the experimental vineyard of the Rancho de la Merced 102 (IFAPA) in Jerez de la Frontera in 2016, were also tested: S. cerevisiae Yero 2.23 and S. 103 cerevisiae Yero 2.24.

104 2.2 Synthetic Must

105 SM was used in two experiments: the first one (A) aimed to screen the strain with higher 106 capacity to produce HT. The second experiment (B) was to test how different tyrosine 107 concentrations could affect the production of HT.

108 SM used for experiment A was based on Riou, Nicaud, Barre & Gaillardin (1997), slightly

109 modified. 3 L of SM were prepared, with the following composition: sugars (fructose 100 g/L

110 and glucose 100 g/L), acids (malic acid 5 g/L, citric acid 0.5 g/L and tartaric acid 3 g/L),

111 minerals (KH₂PO₄ 0.75 g/L, K₂SO₄ 0.5 g/L, MgSO₄.7H₂O 0.25 g/L, NaCl 0.2 g/L and CaCl₂

112 0.155 g/L), 0.46 g/L of NH₄Cl, 1 mL of trace elements, 13.09 mL of an amino acids solution

113 (tyrosine 1.5 g/L, tryptophan 13.4 g/L, isoleucine 2.5 g/L, aspartic acid 3.4 g/L, glutamic acid

114 9.2 g/L, arginine 28.3 g/L, leucine 3.7 g/L, threonine 5.8 g/L, glycine 1.4 g/L, glutamine 38.4

g/L, alanine 11.2 g/L, valine 3.4 g/L, methionine 2.4 g/L, phenylalanine 2.9 g/L, serine 6 g/L, histidine 2.6 g/L, lysine 1.3 g/L, cysteine 1.6 g/L and proline 46.1 g/L) and 10 mL of a vitamins solution (myoinositol 2 g/L, calcium pantothenate 0.15 g/L, thyamine hydrochloride 0.025 g/L, nicotinic acid 0.2 g/L, pyridoxine 0.025 g/L and biotin 3 mL). The pH was adjusted to 3.31 with NaOH.

5 L of two different SM were prepared for experiment B. In this case, tyrosine was the only amino acid used as Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen (YAN) in order to force the yeast to use it. A stock solution of this amino acid (1 g/L) was used to prepare the SM with a final tyrosine concentration of 10 mg/L and 60 mg/L, respectively. The rest of the YAN was provided by (NH₄)₂SO₄ to reach a final nitrogen concentration of 140 mg/L. The rest of the ingredients such as sugars, acids, minerals and trace elements and vitamins solutions were identical as the SM previously used for experiment A. The pH was adjusted to 3.25 with NaOH.

127 **2.3 Grape Must**

Palomino Fino and Chardonnay grape musts, belonged to the Rancho de la Merced (IFAPA) in Jerez de la Frontera, Spain (longitude 06:00:58 W, latitude 36:45:29 N), were used in the third part of the experimental process. Grapes were harvested, destemmed, crushed and pressed. Subsequently, pectolytic enzymes (2.5 mL/hL Enartis ZYM; Enartis, Italy) and SO₂ (40 mg/L, Sulfosol, Sepsa-Enartis; Enartis) were added to the must for 24 h at 4°C. After that, the dejuiced must was placed in a 100 L steel vessel.

134 2.4 Inoculation

Each yeast strain was rehydrated in a bath at 37 °C for 30 min and plated on – yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) (1% yeast extract, 2% glucose and 2% peptone). For the third experiment, the YPD was prepared with the difference of the addition of 2% of agar. Then, 138 they were incubated at 28°C for 48 h. Subsequently, they were transferred into flasks with 139 YPD to let the yeasts grow overnight before every experimental process.

140 For experiment A, flasks with 80 mL of SM were inoculated with 10⁶ cells/mL and capped 141 with plugs and syringes in order to release the carbon dioxide. AF were carried out in SM in 142 triplicate. The fermentation was monitored by weighing the flasks daily, before and after 143 sampling, from the first day of fermentation until a week, as well as the optical density (OD).

144 Regarding experiment B, flasks with 750 mL of SM at different tyrosine concentrations (10 145 mg/L, 60 mg/L) were inoculated in triplicate. The fermentation was monitored by weighing 146 the flasks daily, before and after sampling, for 6 days and then at day 8 and 10 as well as the 147 OD. Ethanol (Ethanol Assay Kit, Megazyme International, Ireland), residual sugars (D-148 Fructose and D-Glucose Assay Kit, Megazyme International, Ireland) and nitrogen (Primary 149 Amino Nitrogen Assay Kit, Megazyme International, Ireland) were measured.

150 On the other hand, grape musts were sterilized at 121°C for 20 min. Flasks with 750 mL of 151 natural grape must were inoculated. AF were carried out in two natural musts (Palomino Fino 152 and Chardonnay) in triplicate. The fermentation was monitored by weighing the flasks daily, 153 before and after sampling, from the first day of fermentation until a week, as well as the OD.

154

2.5 Quenching and intracellular extraction

155 Regarding experiment A, samples from the last day of fermentation (day 7) were collected in 156 tubes, once the AF was finished, in the required volume to have 10^9 cells. They were 157 centrifuged at 3500 rpm, at room temperature for 3 min. Supernatants were filtered (syringes 158 filters, cellulose acetate membrane, 0.2 µm, VWR) and they were stored at -20 °C until the 159 analysis. On the other hand, intracellular samples were subjected to a cold glycerol solution quenching according to the method conducted by Villas-Bôas and Bruheim (2007). Then, 160 161 intracellular metabolites were extracted following the procedure of Álvarez-Fernández et al. 162 (2019) with minor modifications. The resulting extracts were stored at -80 °C until samples

163 cleaning.

During experiment B, samples from days 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 10 were collected.
Supernatants were filtered (syringes filters, nylon, 0.2 μm, VWR) and they were stored at -20
°C until sample cleaning.

167 Regarding the experiment with grape musts, samples from days 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 were 168 collected. Supernatants were filtered (syringes filters, nylon, $0.2 \mu m$, VWR) and they were 169 stored at -80 °C until samples cleaning.

170 **2.6 Samples treatment**

171 Extracellular samples were cleaned up using C18 SPE cartridges (Variant, Aligent) 172 conditioned with 2 mL of methanol and 2 mL of milliQ water. Then, 500 μl of sample were 173 loaded and cartridges were washed with 2 mL of a 10% v/v methanol/water solution. 174 Analytes were eluted with 1 mL of methanol. Samples were dried until total dryness, at 2000 175 rpm, at 30 °C for 8 h, with a vacuum concentrator (HyperVAC-LITE, Gyrozen, Korea). 176 Afterwards, samples were reconstituted with 167 μL of 0.1% v/v formic acid in 10% v/v 177 methanol/water and they were stored at -80 °C until the analysis.

178 On the other hand, the extracts of intracellular samples were cleaned up using phospholipid 179 removal cartridges (PhreeTM, Phenomenex) with the purpose of removing the possible 180 impurities that could affect the analysis. Then, 100 µL of the intracellular extracts described 181 in section 2.5 were loaded. This process was repeated twice. The elution was performed 182 according to manufacturer's instructions. Then, they were dried until total dryness, at 2000 183 rpm, at 30 °C for 8 h, with a vacuum concentrator (HyperVAC-LITE, GyrozenKorea) (María 184 Antonia Álvarez-Fernández et al., 2019). Afterwards, they were reconstituted with 167 µL of 185 0.1% v/v formic acid in 10% v/v methanol/water and they were stored at -80 °C until the 186 analysis.

187 2.7 UHPLC/HRMS parameters

188 The analysis was performed in a Thermo Scientific liquid chromatography system consisting 189 of a binary UHPLC Dionex Ultimate 3000 RS, connected to a quadrupole orbitrap Qexactive 190 hybrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany), which was equipped 191 with a heated electrospray ionization probe (HESI-II). The column used was a ZORBAX SB-192 C18 (2.1x 100 mm, 1.8-µm particle size) with a guard column (2.1 x 5 mm, 1.8-µm particle 193 size). Both of them were purchased from Agilent Technologies (USA). The temperature used 194 in this analysis was 40° C, the flow was 0.5 mL/min for HT and 0.4 mL/min for tyrosine and 195 the injection volume was 5 μ L. HT was analyzed following the described chromatographic 196 conditions which consisted of two phases (A) aqueous formic acid solution 0.1% and (B) 197 solution 0.1% of formic acid in methanol. The gradient was: 0-1 min (5% B); 1-7 min (100% 198 B); 7-8.5 min (100% B); 8.6-10 min (5% B). A target MS² in negative mode was performed. 199 Parallel Reaction Monitoring (PRM) of the [M+H]⁻ at 153.05572 and normalized collision 200 energy (NCE) was set at 25 eV. Xcalibur software and TraceFinder (version 3.3) software 201 were used for instrument control and data acquisition.

The analysis of tyrosine presents slight differences regarding the gradient as follows: 0-1 min (5% B); 1-3 min (100% B); 3-4 min (100% B); 4.1-5 min (5% B). A target MS^2 in negative mode was performed for HT and in positive mode for tyrosine using the same software for data analysis. PRM of the [M+H]+ at 182.08117 and NCE was set at 40 eV.

206 2.8 Statistical Analysis

The data were subjected to ANOVA and Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD). The results were reported as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Differences at p<0.05 were considered statistically significant. InfoStat version 2019 was used for data analysis.

210 3. Results

211 **3.1 HT occurrence in SM by different yeast strains**

212 Figure 1 shows HT is produced by all the yeast strains at the end of the fermentation of SM

- 213 (day 7). Commercial S. cerevisiae yeast strains produce more HT than the non S. cerevisiae
- 214 tested (T. delbrueckii and M. pulcherrima) and autochthonous one (S. cerevisiae Yero 2.23
- and *S. cerevisiae* Yero 2.24), being the RF the biggest HT producer (6.12 ng/mL).
- 216 As RF synthetized the highest concentration, it was selected for further experiments.

217 **3.2 HT occurrence in SM with different tyrosine concentrations**

218 Figure 2 displays the production of HT in the extracellular compartment during AF of SM. 219 Musts contained 10 mg/L or 60 mg/L of tyrosine and the yeast used was RF strain. At the 220 beginning (t=0), HT is absent as expected and it was detected from the first day of AF in 221 every sample. Results at 10 mg/L of tyrosine concentration show that HT is present from the 222 very first day and no statistical differences are observed from day 2 to the following days. 223 Conversely, when tyrosine concentration is 60 mg/L, the higher concentration is determined 224 at day 3. Then it decreases slightly. Significant differences according to ANOVA are marked 225 in figure 2.

HT derives from tyrosol, which is formed from tyrosine by the Ehrlich pathway (Mas et al., 2014). Therefore, the hypothesis of this work was that the more tyrosine concentration in the media, the higher HT content could be produced. However, despite tyrosine concentration was six times higher, HT was not determined in that proportion (Figure 2).

To confirm that yeast synthetizes HT, it was analyzed in the intracellular media. Concentrations are lower in the intracellular media than in the extracellular compartment. The highest concentrations detected were at day 6 and 5 when the must had 10 mg/L and 60 mg/L of tyrosine concentration, respectively (data not shown).

234 **3.3 Tyrosine occurrence in SM with different tyrosine concentrations**

235 Tyrosine was monitored along the fermentation to verify the yeast uses it. As it could be 236 expected, tyrosine decreases in the extracellular media from day zero. In the must with an 237 initial tyrosine concentration of 10 mg/L, the yeast consumes a 99.45% of tyrosine from day 238 zero to the second day of fermentation. Afterwards, the fourth day tyrosine could be 239 determined in noticeably quantities in the extracellular compartment (0.027 mg/L). On the 240 other hand, when the must had 60 mg/L, the yeast consumes a 74.06% of tyrosine from the 241 first day to the second day of fermentation. Afterwards, the eighth day the production 242 increases (0.009 mg/L).

Figure 3 shows the occurrence of tyrosine in the intracellular compartment during AF. There are no significant differences regarding the initial tyrosine concentration, with the exception of day 8. For both conditions, the highest intracellular tyrosine concentration was measured at day 3.

247 **3.4 HT occurrence in grape must**

Figure 4 shows the production of HT in the extracellular compartment during AF of natural musts (Palomino Fino and Chardonnay varieties). Grape musts were sterilized in order to eliminate the microbial load and to observe the effects of the strain under study (RF).

Similarly to the experiments with SM, RF strain produces HT, excreting it in the extracellular media during AF. Indeed, HT is detected at the beginning of the AF in every sample. We observe higher HT concentrations with grape musts than SM. Specifically, grape musts concentrations are 2.6-4.4 times higher. If we compare both grape musts, the highest values are produced with the Chardonnay variety at the middle of the fermentation (days 3-4) as figure 4 shows.

257 **3.5 Tyrosine occurrence in grape must**

Regarding tyrosine occurrence in the extracellular media, concentrations with Palomino Fino must range between 0.004 mg/L (day 4) and 0.012 mg/L (day 2), while concentrations with Chardonnay range between 0.005 mg/L (day 1) and 0.021 mg/mL (day 2) These values are similar to those obtained in the SM with an initial tyrosine concentration of 10 mg/L. There are no significant differences between the musts and neither between the days, with the exception of days 0 (Palomino Fino 0.117 mg/L and Chardonnay 0.109 mg/L) and 1 in both musts.

265 **4. Discussion**

266 Yeasts produce bioactive compounds such as HT deriving from tyrosine and melatonin 267 deriving from tryptophan (Hornedo-Ortega, Cerezo, Troncoso, Garcia-Parrilla, & Mas, 2016). 268 Melatonin follows a zig-zag pattern along the fermentation appearing and disappearing in SM 269 that could reflect a role as signaling molecule (Fernández-Cruz, Álvarez-Fernández, Valero, 270 Troncoso, & García-Parrilla, 2017); (Fernández-Cruz, Cerezo, Cantos-Villar, Troncoso, & 271 García-Parrilla, 2018). Conversely, HT pattern is more reproducible and consistent through 272 the different fermentations: it appears in all the cases and it remains almost constant from the 273 first days and along the AF. Therefore, our data do not support a signaling role for HT but it is 274 a metabolite produced from tyrosine, a nitrogen source. Some factors that have been reported 275 to influence the AF are the pH, the temperature and the nature and composition of the 276 medium. Specifically, they can affect the rate of fermentation and the production of 277 metabolites (Vilela, 2019).

It is important that yeasts have available nitrogen in order to carry out the fermentation (Crepin, Nidelet, Sanchez, Dequin, & Camarasa, 2012). Specifically, 140 mg/L is the minimal concentration of YAN necessary for the fermentation (Vendramini et al, 2017). If the nitrogen available is insufficient, the fermentation becomes slower and there is a high risk of stucking (Bell & Henschke, 2005). Thus, this was the selected YAN for our experiments with SM in order to force the yeast to use tyrosine, a non-preferred source. However, no higher intracellular concentrations were determined as tyrosine increased, showing that the capacityof using tyrosine seems to be limited.

286 Some factors that can affect the YAN and amino acid profile, including tyrosine produced by 287 the must, are grape variety, grape berry ripening, grape processing, geographical origin and 288 climate (Tesnière, Brice, & Blondin, 2015). Henschke et al. (1993) observed that tyrosine 289 values in some white wines were: Chardonnay 6 mg/L; Riesling 3 mg/L; Sauvignon Blanc 24 290 mg/L and Traminer 5 mg/L (Henschke & Jiranek, 1993). Moreover, in another study the 291 average value of tyrosine in 9 white musts was 36.7 mg/L (Cabrita, Ratola, Laureano, & 292 Alves, 2007). Ünal et al. (2015) reported for white wines the following values: Emir 293 56.15±16 mg/L; Narince 28.85±2 mg/L and Sultaniye 35.16±11 mg/L (Ünal, Sener, Sen, & 294 Yilmaztekin, 2015). In our study, tyrosine values selected for SM fermentations are similar to 295 those described and results show that tyrosine initial concentration does not have an impact on 296 HT concentration. Therefore, it is advisable to study the yeast involved in winemaking.

297 Álvarez-Fernández et al. (2018) reported that yeast can synthetize HT as it was detected in the 298 intracellular medium. As it is well known that yeast synthesizes tyrosol through the Ehrlich 299 pathway, a possible way to explain HT synthesis is the hydroxylation of tyrosol which has 300 been recently evidence by Muñiz-Calvo et al. (2020). Our data shows that different strains 301 present varied capacities for the synthesis and their selection could have an impact on the 302 final concentration of this bioactive. In this paper, RF outstands among others strains. Table 1 303 shows a comparison of HT synthesis by different yeast strains. Furthermore, the must has also 304 a role as higher concentrations are achieved in natural grape musts if compared to SM. A 305 possible explanation could be that endogenous enzymes of grapes could catalyze the 306 hydroxylation of tyrosol to HT (Gerrini et al, 2018). Although olive oil and fermented 307 beverages are the main food sources of HT, its production has been investigated in other food 308 matrices. For instance, HT was the most abundant phenolic compound in sunflower-stalks

309 (3.79 mg/L) (Martínez-Cartas, Olivares, & Sánchez, 2019), in olive oil vinegar (1,019 mg/L) 310 (De Leonardis et al., 2018) and in green cracked table olives the concentrations were between 311 100-800 mg/L (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2020). Moreover, the values obtained in fermented 312 white musts (21.78 μ g/L at maximum) are remarkably lower that those reported for red must, 313 specifically Tempranillo with higher concentrations of HT at day 2 (235 µg/L) (M. Antonia 314 Álvarez-Fernández et al., 2018). These results are consistent with already published data that 315 describe higher HT in red wines (3.66-4.20 mg/L) than in white ones (1.72-1.92 mg/L) 316 (Fernández-Mar et al., 2012). In the present work, we sterilized the must to ensure the 317 production of HT was due to the strain inoculated. Remarkably, lower values were obtained 318 after the elimination of the autochthonous flora; HT concentration after the fermentation of 319 sterilized must was 167 µg/L in Chardonnay and 89 µg/L in Palomino Fino. Grape microflora 320 could be responsible for the difference between reported values and those we obtained as we 321 sterilized grape musts. Indeed, tyrosine concentration does not seem to be a relevant factor 322 showing to be produced at a constant rate. Apparently, the presence of different strains could 323 be more important to achieve higher amounts.

HT concentrations obtained in this study are lower than those observed in a study conducted by Piñeiro et al. (2011). In that paper, 15 red wine varieties were analyzed and concentrations ranged between 0.28 mg/L and 5.02 mg/L. This fact leads out to think in another alternatives pathways involving polyphenols as red wines are richer in HT than rosé and white ones (Ragusa et al., 2017). In this paper, HT concentration in Chardonnay was 2.3±1.3 mg/kg².

As discussed before, tyrosine concentration does not seem to have a role in HT production because, HT concentrations obtained were the same in both conditions (10 mg/L and 60 mg/L). Therefore, there might be other factors that affect HT production. On one hand, different microorganism belonging to the autochthonous flora could also have the capacity to produce HT increasing final concentration. Additionally, different metabolic pathways, apart from the hydroxylation of tyrosol could be possible. For instance, the excision of macromolecules of polyphenolic nature in a similar way as HT derives from oleuropein in the olive. Further research is needed to explore these facts.

337 **5. Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study aimed to explore those factors related to the AF process influencing the production of HT. Yeast strain was the first one selected. HT was produced by all the yeast strains under study. Commercial *S. cerevisiae* yeast strains were those which produced higher concentrations, being the RF the most producer. The second one was the initial tyrosine concentration of the must. Our results reveal that distinct from what might be expected tyrosine initial concentration does not seem to have arole in HT production because, although we increased it six times in the SM, in general HT concentrations obtained were the same in both conditions. Thirdly, the must nature through the differences in synthetic and natural grape musts. HT was produced in higher amount in grape musts than in synthetic must, specifically, in Chardonnay.

343 Therefore, our results point out that efforts in other strategies should be to unravel those factors that might increase the production of HT in order to obtain wines richer in this bioactive compound.

344 Funding

This work was supported by the National Programme of Research (Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness AGL2016-77505-C3-2-R) and Marco Programa Operativo Feder Andalucía 2014-2020. Project number US-1263469.

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348 Conflicts of interest

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declare they have no conflicts of interest.

352 Acknowledgements

- 353 The authors acknowledge the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (AGL2016-
- 354 77505-C3-2-R) and Universidad de Sevilla (Programa Operativo Feder Andalucía 2014-2020.
- 355 Project number US-1263469).. Professor Fernando Govantes from the CABD (Centro
- 356 Andaluz de Biología del Desarrollo) and Rocío Valderrama from the CITIUS, Universidad de
- 357 Sevilla.

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- 465 Hydroxytyrosol and Tryptophol contents in Sangiovese wines produced by a single
- 466 strain of Saccharomyces cerevisiae Conclusions The contents of tyrosol and
- 467 hydroxytyrosol in wines fermented by a single strain of, (2006), 11689.

468 Figure Captions

- 469 Figure. 1. Hydroxytyrosol occurrence. Hydroxytyrosol ocurrence in synthetic must by ten
 470 wine yeast strains, expressed in ng/mL
- 471 Figure. 2. Hydroxytyrosol occurrence in extracellular media in synthetic musts. Evolution of
 472 hydroxytyrosol concentration during alcoholic fermentation in synthetic musts with
 473 different tyrosine contents, by Red Fruit yeast strain, expressed in ng/mL. Significant
 474 differences with p<0.05 are displayed with *, p<0.01 with ** and p<0.001 with ***
- 475 Figure. 3. Tyrosine occurrence in intracellular media in synthetic musts. Evolution of tyrosine
 476 concentration during alcoholic fermentation in synthetic musts with different tyrosine
 477 contents, by Red Fruit yeast strain, expressed in ng/mL. Significant differences between
 478 the two tyrosine concentrations -are displayed with * for p<0.05.
- 479 Figure. 4. Hydroxytyrosol occurrence in extracellular media in grape musts. Evolution of
 480 hydroxytyrosol concentration during alcoholic fermentation in natural grape musts
 481 (Palomino Fino and Chardonnay), by Red Fruit yeast strain, expressed in ng/mL.
 482 Significant differences with p<0.05 are displayed with *, p<0.01with ** and p<0.001
 483 with ***

21

Table 1

Yeast strain	HT in SM	HT in white must	HT in red must	Reference
	(ng/mL)	(ng/mL)	(ng/mL)	
T. delbrueckii	0.25			
Yero 2.23	0.32			
M. pulcherrima	0.55			
Yero 2.24	0.64			
QA23	1.19			
Aroma White	1.31			
Uvaferm	1.36			
ICV GRE	1.44			
ES 488	2.97			
Red Fruit	6.12 (screening), 3.31 (10 mg/L of tyrosine) and 4.74 (60 mg/L of tyrosine)	7.82 (Palomino Fino) and 13.09 (Chardonnay)		
Aroma White	5 /	89, 159, 173, 185, 238 and 288 (max)		Álvarez-Fernández et al., 2018
Red Fruit			235 (max)	Álvarez-Fernández et al., 2018
QA23			400 (max)	Álvarez-Fernández et al., 2018
U.C.L.M. \$325			175	Bordiga et al., 2016

Table 1. Hydroxytyrosol concentration in musts fermented with different yeast strains

HT: hydroxytyrosol; SM: synthetic must









