# The glycerol and ethanol production kinetics in low-temperature wine fermentation using Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeast strains

Yu-Ting Gao,# Yu-Shu Zhang,# Xiang Wen, Xiao-Wan Song, Dan Meng, Bing-Juan Li, Mei-Yan Wang, Yong-Qing Tao, Hui Zhao, Wen-Qiang Guan\* & Gang Du\*

Tianjin Key Laboratory of Food Biotechnology, College of Biotechnology and Food Science, Tianjin University of Commerce, Tianjin, 300134, China

(Received 2 May 2018; Accepted in revised form 15 July 2018)

**Summary** Increasing glycerol production in low-temperature wine fermentation is of concern for winemakers to improve the quality of wines. The objective of this study was to investigate the effect of 10 different Saccharomyces cerevisiae on the kinetics of production of glycerol, ethanol and the activities of glycerol-3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GPD) and alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) in low-temperature fermentation. Ethanol production was influenced by temperature, and it was slightly higher at 13 °C than at 25 °C. Glycerol yields were significantly affected by both temperature and strains. More glycerol was produced at 25 °C than at 13 °C because the activity of GPD was higher at 25 °C than at 13 °C. Glycerol production of the different yeast strains was up to 3.19 and 3.18 g  $L^{-1}$  at 25 and 13 °C, respectively. Therefore, isolating the yeast strains with high glycerol production and adaptation to low-temperature fermentation is still the best method in winemaking.

Keywords ADH, glycerol, GPD, low-temperature fermentation, Saccharomyces cerevisiae.

#### Introduction

Low-temperature fermentation  $(10-15 \degree C)$  is widely used in winemaking to improve the characteristics of taste and aroma (García-Ríos et al., 2017). The optimal growth temperature for Saccharomyces cerevisiae is 25 °C, whereas 13 °C is a restrictive temperature which could lead to fermentation stuck or sluggish (Bisson, 1999). Many studies have showed that S. cerevisiae seeks to accumulate glycerol to protect against freeze injury (Panadero et al., 2006; Aguilera et al., 2007; Pérez-Torrado et al., 2016).

Glycerol is quantitatively the most important byproduct of alcoholic fermentation, and it is the major end-product other than ethanol and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . In yeasts, glycerol is generally synthesised via the two-step reduction of dihydroxyacetone phosphate by glycerol-3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GPD, EC 1.1.1.8) and glycerol-3-phosphatase (GPP, EC 3.1.3.21) (Pahlman et al., 2001). Glycerol formation plays a major role in balancing the NADH/NAD intracellular ratio (Albers et al., 1998) and in acting as an osmolyte that balances

# The First two authors (Y.T. Gao and Y.S. Zhang) contributed equally to this work.

the high external osmotic pressure (Remize et al., 2000). Although glycerol is a non-volatile compound with no aromatic properties, it makes a significant contribution to wine quality of mouthfeel by providing sweetness and fullness (Remize et al., 1999). Much work has been done to elucidate the factors influencing glycerol yields, including temperature, yeast strain, inoculation level, sulfite concentration, sugar concentration, osmotic stress, nitrogen source and concentration, pH, aeration, grape variety and ripeness (Remize et al., 2000). However, for the wineries, since the grape raw materials and fermentation methods are difficult to change, the best way to increase the glycerol yield is to use high glycerol-yield yeast strain.

In recent years, there have been two main approaches used in increasing the content of glycerol. One has been to use other Saccharomyces species (S. uvarum, S. kudriavzevii and S. paradoxus) or the yeast hybrids (S. cerevisiae  $\times$  S. uvarum and S. cere*visiae*  $\times$  *S. kudriavzevii*) as they produce more glycerol than S. cerevisiae in low-temperature fermentation (González et al., 2007; Arroyo-López et al., 2010; Gamero et al., 2013; Oliveira et al., 2014; Pérez-Torrado et al., 2015). The other approach has been genomic engineering technology used in the Saccharomyces cerevisiae to produce higher content of glycerol, such

<sup>\*</sup>Correspondent: E-mails: [guanwenqiang@tjcu.edu.cn](mailto:) (WQG); [GangDu-TJCU@qq.com](mailto:) (GD)

as the overexpression of the GPD1 gene (Michnick et al., 1997), the deletion of one or several ADH genes coding for alcohol dehydrogenases (Drewke et al., 1990; Cordier et al., 2007) or PDC1 and PDC5 genes coding for pyruvate decarboxylases (Nevoigt & Stahl, 1996) and the modification of the  $Fps1$  protein which is involved in the efflux of glycerol (Wang et al., 2001).

However, it is well known that Saccharomyces cerevisiae still plays the main role in the winemaking process, and genetically modified yeast strains have not been accepted for use in the wine industry. There are many references that emphasise the GPD1 and ADH1 genes expression in the low-temperature fermentation; nevertheless, little is known about the kinetics of activities of GPD and ADH during low-temperature fermentation. Therefore, this study investigated the effect of 10 different Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeast strains widely used in Chinese wine industry on the kinetics of production of glycerol and ethanol and the activities of GPD and ADH protein in low-temperature fermentation.

### Materials and methods

#### Yeast strains

Nine commercial yeast strains independently isolated and one laboratory-isolated yeast strain BH8 (Li et al., 2010) were used in this work (Table 1). These commercial yeast strains are widely used in Chinese wine factories. The wine yeast BH8 used in this study was isolated from spontaneously fermenting must of 'Beihong' red wine grape (*Muscat Hamburg*  $\times$  *V. amuren*sis), a variety cultivated by the institute of Botany, the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China. This strain is able to complete microvinification in several natural musts and in the model synthetic medium (MSM) with good results (Li et al., 2010; Du et al., 2012). It has been identified as Saccharomyces cerevisiae by colour and colony topography on WL

Table 1 Saccharomyces cerevisiae strains used in this study

	<b>Strains</b>	<b>Factories</b>	<b>Purposes</b>
Y1	<b>DV10</b>	Lallemand, France	Champagne, white wine
Y <sub>2</sub>	R2	Lallemand, France	White wine
Y3	<b>FREDDO</b>	Erbslöh Geisenheim AG, Germany	White wine
Y4	<b>AWRI R2</b>	Marivin, Australia	White wine
Y <sub>5</sub>	CY3079	Lallemand, France	White wine
Y6	<b>LVCB</b>	DSM, the Netherlands	White wine
Y7	K1	Lallemand, France	White, red and ice wine
Y8	$N^{\circ}$ .7303	DSM, the Netherlands	Red wine
Y9	<b>XR</b>	Lamothe-abiet, France	Red wine
Y10	BH <sub>8</sub>	Laboratory	

Nutrient Agar (Pallmann et al., 2001) as well as DNA sequence analysis (Data S1) conducted by the Institute of Microbiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

#### Fermentation experiments

In order to keep a constant composition for the study of wine fermentation and wine yeast metabolism, the model synthetic medium (MSM) as described by Marullo et al. (2004) was used in this study. This medium (pH 3.3) contained the following components (expressed in g  $L^{-1}$ ): glucose (100 g), fructose (100 g), tartaric acid (3 g), citric acid (0.3 g), L-malic acid (0.3 g), MgSO4 (0.2 g), KH2PO4 (2 g). Nitrogen sources were adjusted to  $190 \text{ mg}$  total N/L as  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  (0.3 g) and asparagine (0.6 g). Mineral salts (mg L<sup>-1</sup>): MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O (4), ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (4),  $CuSO_4·5H_2O$  (1), KI (1),  $CoCl_2·6H_2O$  (0.4),  $(NH_4)_6M_9T_2q_44H_2O$  (1),  $H_3BO_3$  (1). Vitamins  $(\text{mg }\tilde{L}^{-1})$ : mesoinositol (300), biotin (0.04), thiamin (1), pyridoxine (1), nicotinic acid (1), pantothenic acid (1), p-amino benzoic acid (1). Fatty acids (mg  $L^{-1}$ ): palmitic acid (1), palmitoleic acid (0.2), stearic acid (3), oleic acid (0.5), linoleic acid (0.5), linoleic acid  $(0.2)$ .

Before yeast inoculation, the medium was sterilised by filtration (nitrate cellulose membrane,  $0.45 \mu m$ , Millipore) and supplemented with sulfur dioxide  $(20 \text{ mg } L^{-1})$  in accordance with enological treatments. The fatty acid mixture was prepared in ethanol solution and fixed by drying on cellulose  $(0.5 \text{ g L}^{-1})$  in order to obtain 200 NTU (nephelometric turbidity units).

Fermentations were conducted in 500-mL flasks with 400-mL medium and fitted with closures that enabled the carbon dioxide to escape and samples to be removed, but which excluded the atmospheric oxygen. The initial yeast inoculums were of  $1 \times 10^6$  cells m/L from YPD medium  $[1\% (w/v)$  yeast extract,  $2\%$  $(w/v)$  peptone and  $2\frac{w}{v}$  glucose overnight cultures.

The fermentations were conducted in triplicate at two different temperatures, 13 °C and 25 °C (used as control), without shaking. The maximal fermentation rate was the maximal weight loss caused by release of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  versus fermentation day and was expressed as g of  $CO_2$  L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. The weight loss of the fermentation process was monitored and the fermentation stopped when the  $CO_2$  release was less than 0.2 g day<sup>-1</sup>.

#### Density and viability measurement

The daily density was measured by weighing 5 mL of must. Cell viability was determined by two methods including microscopy and plating them on YPD agar

at adequate dilution. For the microscopy study, the yeast suspension was mixed  $(v/v)$  with a methylene blue solution (0.1 g  $L^{-1}$  of methylene blue, 20 g  $L^{-1}$ of trisodium citrate, in 1 L of a binary solution) at the same temperature as the cells suspension (Marañón et al., 1999). At least 300 cells were counted for each aliquot.

#### Analytical procedures

Glucose, fructose, trehalose (intracellular and extracellular), glycerol (intracellular and extracellular), succinic acid, acetic acid, ethanol were determined by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) Waters 2695 with a Waters 2414 refractive index detector (Moreira et al., 2005). The supernatant was filtered through  $0.22$ -um pore-size nylon filters prior to loading on an Aminex HPX-87H column  $(300 \times 7.8 \text{ mm})$ ; Bio-Rad, USA) used with 5 mm  $H_2SO_4$  as mobile phase at 0.6 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The column was controlled at  $65^{\circ}$ C.

### Enzymatic assays

Cells were harvested by centrifugation at  $6000 \times g$  for 10 min at 4 °C, washed twice with 10-mL cold 20 mm Hepes pH 7.1. About 10-mg (dry mass) yeast cells were resuspended in this buffer for 30 min. Cells were disrupted with an ultrasonic crusher (Ningbo Scientz Research Institute of Instruments, Ningbo, China). Cells were then centrifuged (12 000  $\times$  g for 30 min at 4 °C) and the supernatant was used as crude enzyme solution.

The NAD<sup>+</sup>-dependent glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase is a key enzyme for glycerol formation in S. cerevisiae (Guadalupe-Medina et al., 2014). The activity of glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GPD, EC 1.1.1.8) was determined as described (Guadalupe-Medina et al., 2014) with some modifications. The reaction solution consisted of 20 mm Hepes, pH 7.1, 20 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 5 mM dihydroxyacetonephosphate (DHAP) and 0.1 mm NADH. The reaction was initiated by adding DHAP. NADH depletion was monitored spectrophotometrically at 340 nm and 30 °C. The molar extinction coefficient  $\varepsilon_{340}$  is 6.2  $\times$  10<sup>3</sup>M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>. One unit of enzyme activity (u) is defined as  $1 \mu M$  of NADH consumed per minute.

Alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) (EC 1.1.1.1) activity was determined in 50 mm  $KH_2PO_4$ , pH 8.0 in the presence of 1.0 mm  $NAD^+$  and the reaction was started by the addition of 100 mm ethanol at 30  $^{\circ}$ C.

Protein concentration was determined using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standard. The reagents dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP), NADH, NAD<sup>+</sup>, Hepes, DTT and BSA were all purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (China sector).

#### Statistical analysis

All the experiments were repeated at least three times. All values were presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to the experimental data, which was subjected to double-factor analysis of variance (yeast strain/fermentation temperature). For all the statistical analyses components, differences were considered significant at  $P < 0.001$ . The significant differences were determined by Tukey tests. All statistical analyses were components using the software SAS (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA) for Windows, version 8.02.

#### Results

### Effect of different yeast strains on principal enological characteristics in low-temperature fermentation

After the fermentations were finished (final concentration of sugar <4 g  $L^{-1}$ ), the results showed that both low-temperature fermentation and yeast strains affected the fermentation rate, the fermentation time, yeast growth and the concentration of metabolites (Table 2).

The length of fermentation at 13  $\degree$ C (47–58 days) was longer than at 25 °C (14–23 days). However, the maximum population at 13 °C (2.1  $\times$  10<sup>8</sup>–2.5  $\times$  10<sup>8</sup> cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) was similar to that at 25 °C (2.3  $\times$  10<sup>8</sup>- $2.9 \times 10^8$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup>). Fermentation began more slowly at 13 °C than at 25 °C, which caused a delay in reaching the maximum population density. Once the maximum density was reached, it remained high throughout fermentation at 13 °C, whereas it declined at 25 °C, with considerable mortality at the end of fermentation (data not shown). There was less sugar residue at 13 °C (1.28–2.2 g  $\rm L^{-1}$ ) than at 25 °C (2.15– 3.89 g  $L^{-1}$ ), which might be due to the greater mortality by the end of fermentation at 25 °C. The final concentration of ethanol was higher at 13  $\degree$ C (11.7%– 12.1%) than at 25 °C (11.32%–11.83%).

In addition to glycerol, acetic acid and succinic acid also play a role in maintaining the redox balance (van Dijken & Scheffers, 1986). The concentrations of glycerol, acetic acid and succinic acid were significantly less at 13 °C than at 25 °C.

Trehalose is believed to protect cytosol components against stress such as heat shock, osmotic shock and starvation (Wiemken, 1990; Attfield et al., 1994). Trehalose was produced less at 13 °C than at 25 °C in all the 10 different yeast strains.

As estimated by variance analysis (Tukey test,  $P < 0.001$ ), both low-temperature fermentation and different yeast strains influenced the production of metabolite components, including acetic acid, succinic acid, trehalose and glycerol; however, ethanol



Table 2 Effect of yeast strain and temperature on fermentation kinetics and principal metabolites Table 2 Effect of yeast strain and temperature on fermentation kinetics and principal metabolites

\*\*Significant difference in glycerol production with same yeast strain at different temperatures P < 0.001.  $^{***}$ Significant difference in ethanol production with same yeast strain at different temperatures  $P < 0.05$ .

\*\*Significant difference in glycerol production with same yeast strain at different temperatures  $P < 0.001$ .<br>\*\*\*Significant difference in ethanol production with same yeast strain at different temperatures  $P < 0.05$ .

production was only affected by the fermentation temperature. The concentrations of acetic acid, succinic acid, trehalose and glycerol were significantly lower at 13 °C than at 25 °C, whereas ethanol production was increased slightly  $(1.2\% - 4.06\%)$  at 13 °C compared with that at 25 °C.

# Effect of low-temperature fermentation on alcohol production and ADH activity kinetics during wine fermentation

The final production of ethanol was higher at 13 °C than at  $25 \text{ °C}$  for all yeast strains (Table 2). Yeast strain Y7 exhibited the greatest difference in ethanol production at the two temperatures, so yeast strain Y7 was selected for studying the influence of fermentation temperature on ethanol production and ADH activity kinetics.

Fermentations with yeast strain Y7 at both temperatures were done with an initial concentration of sugar of 200 g  $L^{-1}$  (Fig. 1a). After fermentation for 3 days at 25  $\degree$ C, the sugar consumption rate was significantly slow, the sugar residue was 2.84 g  $L^{-1}$  and the concentration of ethanol was 11.32% at the end of fermentation. The fermentation rate at 13 °C attained the maximum after 8 days, the sugar residue was 1.32 g  $L^{-1}$  and the concentration of ethanol was 11.78% at the end of fermentation. The length of fermentation was 1.09-fold longer at 13 °C than at 25 °C and the yield of ethanol was increased slightly (0.46%) at 13 °C, which was the biggest difference among all the yeast strains.

Figure 1b showed the kinetics of enzyme activity (ADH) during fermentation with yeast strain Y7 at 13 °C and at 25 °C. At 25 °C, the activity of ADH reached a maximum after 3 days and then decreased rapidly. On the contrary, the activity of ADH reached a high level at about the 7th day and remained high until the end of fermentation at 13  $\degree$ C (13 days). The activity of ADH was significantly lower at 13 °C than



**Figure 1** The kinetics of residual sugar, ethanol production and ADH activity with Y7 during fermentation. Symbols for a: ▲, 25 °C ethanol production;  $\triangle$ , 13 °C ethanol production; ●, 25 °C residual sugar; ○, 13 °C residual sugar. Symbols for b: ●, 25 °C ADH activity; ○, 13 °C ADH activity. The error bars in the figure indicate standard errors from three independent samples.



at 25 °C, and this corresponded with the fermentation rate.

### Effect of low-temperature fermentation and different yeast strains on glycerol production and GPD activity kinetics during wine fermentation

Glycerol production was influenced by both of the fermentation temperature and the different yeast strain. The significant differences of the effect of yeast strains and temperature on glycerol production are shown in Table 3 (two interaction factors). Yeast strains Y7 and Y10 were observed to have the greatest difference in glycerol yield among all the yeast strains. Yeast strain Y9 exhibited the greatest difference in glycerol yield at both of fermentation temperatures, so yeast strains Y7, Y9 and Y10 were selected for studying the influence of both of fermentation temperature and different yeast strains on glycerol production and GPD activity kinetics.

The kinetics of glycerol yield and the activity of GPD at 25 °C were investigated with yeast strains Y7 and Y10 and are shown in Fig. 2a. After 7 days, the rate of glycerol accumulation at 25 °C slowed significantly, and the amount of glycerol produced at 25 °C in the first 7 days was 74.1% and 89.2% of the total glycerol production for the yeast strains Y10 and Y7, respectively. The final glycerol production was 10.63 g  $L^{-1}$  and 7.44 g  $L^{-1}$  at the end of fermentation at 25 °C with yeast strains Y10 and Y7, respectively.

Table 3 Significant differences in glycerol production with doublefactor analysis of variance (yeast strain/fermentation temperature (Two factors with interaction, Tukey test,  $P \le 0.001$ )

<b>Yeast strains</b>	Glycerol (g $L^{-1}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	Significance	
Y10	$9.55 \pm 0.54^{\rm b}$	Α	
Y8	$7.965 \pm 0.35^{\rm b}$	B	
Y4	$7.69 \pm 0.41^{\rm b}$	B	С
Y1	$7.575 \pm 0.14^b$	D	$\mathsf{C}$ $\mathsf{C}$
Y3	$7.47 \pm 0.32^{\rm b}$	D	$\mathsf{C}$ C $\mathsf C$
Y5	$7.41 \pm 0.2^b$	D	C
Y <sub>6</sub>	7.32 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>b</sup>	D	
Y2	$7.295 \pm 0.14^b$	D	
Y9	$7.22 \pm 0.45^{\rm b}$	D	
Y7	$6.365 \pm 0.2^b$	E	

<sup>a</sup>Mean of glycerol production at both temperatures.

**b**Mean and sp for three independent fermentations.



Figure 2 The kinetics of glycerol production and GPD activity with Y9, Y7 and Y10 during fermentation. Symbols for a: ▲, 25 °C glycerol production Y10;  $\triangle$ , 25 °C glycerol production Y7;  $\bullet$ , 25 °C GPD activity Y10; O, 25 °C GPD activity Y7. Symbols for b:  $\blacktriangle$ , 13 °C glycerol production Y10;  $\triangle$ , 13 °C glycerol production Y7;  $\bullet$ , 13 °C GPD activity Y10;  $\circ$ , 13 °C GPD activity Y7. Symbols for c:  $\blacktriangle$ , 25 °C glycerol production Y9;  $\triangle$ , 13 °C glycerol production Y9;  $\bullet$ 25 °C GPD activity Y9; ○, 13 °C GPD activity Y9. The error bars in the figure indicate standard errors from three independent samples.

The ratio of glycerol production between yeast strains Y10 and Y7 at 25  $\degree$ C was 1.43, which is the greatest difference among all the yeast strains tested. The activity of GPD at 25 °C reached a peak on the 2nd day for both of yeast strains and then decreased dramatically. The activity of GPD was significantly higher in Y10 than that in Y7 at 25 °C.

In contrast, after 7 days, the rate of glycerol accumulation by yeast strains Y10 and Y7 at 13  $\degree$ C was significantly slow, and the amount of glycerol produced in the first 7 days was 61.3% and 65.4% of the total glycerol production by strains Y10 and Y7 at 13 °C, respectively (Fig. 2b). The total glycerol production at the end of fermentation at 13 °C was 8.47 g  $L^{-1}$  and 5.29 g  $L^{-1}$  for strains Y10 and Y7, respectively. The ratio of glycerol production between yeast strains Y10 and Y7 at 13 °C was 1.60, which was the greatest difference among the yeast strains tested. The GPD activity of yeast strains Y10 and Y7 at 13 °C reached a maximum on the 4th day. The maximal value of GPD activity was delayed at 13 °C compared with that at 25 °C. The activity of GPD was significantly higher in Y10 than that in Y7 at 13 °C.

The kinetics of glycerol accumulation and the activity of GPD during wine fermentation with yeast strain Y9 at 13 °C and at 25 °C are showed in Fig. 2c. After 7 days, the rate of glycerol accumulation was significantly slowed at both temperatures. The contents of glycerol produced in the first 7 days at 25 °C and 13 °C were 86.3% and 66.6% of the total glycerol production, respectively. The final glycerol productions at the end of fermentation were  $9.08 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  and 5.36 g  $L^{-1}$  at 25 °C and at 13 °C, respectively. Decreasing the fermentation temperature from 25 °C to 13 °C resulted in a 69% decrease in glycerol yield, which was the biggest difference among the yeast strains tested. The activity of GPD at 25 °C and at 13 °C reached a maximum on the 2nd day and the 4th day, respectively. Decreasing the fermentation temperature from  $25^{\circ}$ C to  $13^{\circ}$ C resulted in a significant decrease (87%) in the activity of GPD, which was the greatest difference among the yeast strains tested.

As already illustrated by previous research, most of the glycerol production and the peak of GPD activity were produced in the initial fermentation process at both temperatures. These results were in agreement with the requirement of glycerol production to counteract the hyperosmotic stress at the beginning of vinification (Van Dijck et al., 2000). These results also showed that glycerol production was positively correlated to GPD activity. Compared with the influence of fermentation temperature on glycerol production, the glycerol yield was also significantly affected by different yeast strains. The difference in glycerol contents among all the yeast strains tested was up to 3.19 g L<sup>-1</sup> (42.8%) and 3.18 g L<sup>-1</sup> (60.1%) during fermentation at 25 °C and 13 °C, respectively.

#### **Discussion**

In this work, we studied the influence of 10 different Saccharomyces cerevisiae on the production of ethanol and glycerol and the activities of ADH and GPD in low-temperature fermentation. Decrease in the fermentation temperature from 25 °C to 13 °C prolonged the fermentation time and increased cell viability. This is because the gene *Ole1* is upregulated in cold stress to increase the fatty acid unsaturation in the yeast cell, which improves ethanol tolerance and increase cell viability (Aguilera et al., 2007). When the yeast cells were exposed to the high osmostress, the Hog1 MAPK is activated and mediates an adaptive response by increasing glycerol production. The results showed that more than 60% of glycerol was produced in the initial fermentation (7 days) at  $25^{\circ}$ C and at  $13^{\circ}$ C in response to osmotic stress. Glycerol production was influenced by both fermentation temperatures and yeast strains and more glycerol was produced at 25 °C than at 13 °C. This was because the activities of GPD were significantly higher at 25 °C than at 13 °C.

Ethanol production was only affected by the fermentation temperature and it was produced slightly higher at 13 °C than at 25 °C. The results showed that ethanol production is not required to be considered in isolating wine yeast stains. What we need to focus on in the screening yeast strains is just the factors affecting the wine quality such as glycerol production, aroma and colour. Our results agree with those of Torija et al. (2003). This was probably due to the fermentation at 13 °C with few sugar residues and higher population yeast cells at the end of fermentation (Table 2). Another reason is that temperature affected not only the fermentation kinetics but also yeast metabolism. In our results, the main secondary products (glycerol and succinic acid) were increased as the temperature increased (Table 2). Therefore, the ethanol yields were increased as the temperature decreased in our results.

In contrast to earlier observations on high and low glycerol-producing yeast strains (Remize et al., 2000), high glycerol production was not correlated to production of acetate or succinate, which could be explained by the fact that other metabolites (in particular, acetoin and 2, 3-butanediol) participate in the adjustment of the intracellular redox balance.

The normal concentration of glycerol usually produced by Saccharomyces cerevisiae in wine is in the range of 4–9 g  $L^{-1}$  (Remize *et al.*, 2000). The interesting result in this study was that the amount of glycerol was 10.63 and 8.47 g  $L^{-1}$  with yeast strain Y10 at 25 and 13 °C. This glycerol production was higher than the average of glycerol yield, especially in the low temperature condition. The high osmolarity glycerol (HOG) signalling pathway is well studied in yeast (de Nadal et al., 2011). The osmostress is mainly sensed by two upstream mechanisms (Sln1 and Sho1). Finally, the kinase Hog1 is activated and regulates the transcription expression by recruiting the transcription factors. In 2006, it has been shown that Hog1 kinase

could be activated under cold stress throughout the 'SLN1-YPD1-SSK1' signal pathway and the glycerol production increased (Panadero et al., 2006). Further research is required to determine which transcription factors were recruited by Hog1 and which genes were regulated by Hog1 in the cold stress condition. Compared with the other nine commercial yeast strains and the other results of articles (Remize et al., 1999; Torija et al., 2003; Arroyo-López et al., 2010), the yeast strain BH8 exhibited the highest glycerol yield at both temperatures. This result demonstrates that the yeast strain BH8 was sensitive to cold stress and Hog1 was activated more than the other yeast strains. Finally, the gene GPD1 was significantly upregulated and more GPD activity and glycerol were produced. In addition, the difference of glycerol yields between different yeast strains was up to 3.19 g  $L^{-1}$  (42.8%) and 3.18 g  $L^{-1}$ (60.1%) during fermentation at 25 °C and 13 °C, respectively. Compared with the other methods in increasing the glycerol yield, such as Saccharomyces species, the yeast hybrids and the genomic engineering technology, the results showed that isolating the yeast strains with high glycerol production and adaptation to the low-temperature fermentation was still the best method in winemaking.

### Conclusions

The total amount of ethanol produced was affected by the fermentation temperature; more ethanol was obtained compared to fermentation at 13 °C in that at 25 °C. Glycerol was influenced by both fermentation temperature and yeast strains. Compared with the effect of fermentation temperature on glycerol production, the glycerol yield was also significantly affected by different yeast strains. Moreover, the yeast strain BH8 exhibited the highest glycerol production at 25 and 13 °C. It is very valuable to study the factors influencing the quality of wine using yeast strain BH8 such as colour, aroma and polyphenol in further research. Because Saccharomyces cerevisiae is still predominant in winemaking, thus from this research, we can conclude that isolating Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeast strains with high glycerol production and adaptation to the low-temperature fermentation are still the best methods in winemaking.

# Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Tianjin Municipal Science and Technology Commission (16JCQNJC14600), the 13th Five-Year innovation team 'study on new processing technology and related mechanism of agricultural products storage and processing' (TD13-5087) and National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31701172). The authors especially thank Prof.

Liu Bin from Tianjin University of Commerce for the data analysis support.

# Authorship declaration

Data curation: Yu-Shu Zhang, Yu-Ting Gao, Xiang Wen, Xiao-Wan Song. Funding acquisition: Dan Meng, Wen-Qiang Guan, Gang Du. Investigation: Yu-Shu Zhang, Yu-Ting Gao, Xiang Wen, Xiao-Wan Song. Supervision: Hui Zhao, Wen-Qiang Guan, Gang Du. Writing-original draft: Gang Du. Writing-review and editing: Dan Meng, Bing-Juan Li, Mei-Yan Wang, Yong-Qing Tao, Hui Zhao, Wen-Qiang Guan, Gang Du. All the authors in the list are in agreement with the manuscript. Authors declare that there are no conflicts in the financial support, technology and methodology.

### **References**

- Aguilera, J., Randez-Gil, F. & Prieto, A.J. (2007). Cold response in Saccharomyces cerevisiae: new functions for old mechanisms. FEMS Microbiology Reviews, 31, 327–341.
- Albers, E., Liden, G., Larsson, C. & Gustafsson, L. (1998). Anaerobic redox balance and nitrogen metabolism in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Recent Research Developments in Microbiology, 2, 253–279.
- Arroyo-López, N.F., Pérez-Torrado, R., Querol, A. & Barrio, E. (2010). Modulation of the glycerol and ethanol syntheses in the yeast Saccharomyces kudriavzevii differs from that exhibited by Saccharomyces cerevisiae and their hybrid. Food Microbiology,  $27$ , 628–637.
- Attfield, P.V., Kletsas, S. & Hazell, B.W. (1994). Concomitant appearance of intrinsic thermotolerance and storage of trehalose in Saccharomyces cerevisiae during early respiratory phase of batchculture is *CIF1*-dependent. *Microbiology*,  $\hat{140}$ , 2625–2632.
- Bisson, L.F. (1999). Stuck and sluggish fermentations. American Journal of Enology and Viticulture, 50, 107–119.
- Cordier, H., Mendes, F., Vasconcelos, I. & Francois, J.M. (2007). A metabolic and genomic study of engineered Saccharomyces cerevisiae strains for high glycerol production. Metabolic Engineering, 9, 364–378.
- van Dijken, J.P. & Scheffers, W.A. (1986). Redox balances in the metabolism of sugar by yeasts. FEMS Microbiology Letters, 32, 199–224.
- Drewke, C., Thielen, J. & Ciriacy, M. (1990). Ethanol formation in adh0 mutants reveals the existence of a novel acetaldehyde-reducing activity in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Journal of Bacteriology, 172, 3909–3917.
- Du, G., Zhan, J., Li, J., You, Y., Zhao, Yu & Huang, W. (2012). Effect of grapevine age on the aroma compounds in 'Beihong' wine. South African Journal of Enology and Viticulture, 33, 7–13.
- Gamero, A., Tronchoni, J., Querol, A. & Belloch, C. (2013). Production of aroma compounds by cryotolerant Saccharomyces species and hybrids at low and moderate fermentation temperatures. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 114, 1405–1414.
- García-Ríos, E., Morard, M., Parts, L., Liti, G. & Guillamón, J.M. (2017). The genetic architecture of low-temperature adaptation in the wine yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. BMC Genomics, 18, 159.
- Gonzalez, S.S., Gallo, L., Climent, M.A., Barrio, E. & Querol, A. (2007). Enological characterization of natural hybrids from Saccharomyces cerevisiae and S. kudriavzevii. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 116, 11–18.
- Guadalupe-Medina, V., Metz, B., Oud, B., van Der Graaf, C.M., Mans, R. & Pronk, J.T. (2014). Evolutionary engineering of a glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase-negative, acetate-reducing

Saccharomyces cerevisiae strain enables anaerobic growth at high glucose concentrations. Microbial Biotechnology, 7, 44–53.

- Li, H., Wang, H.L., Du, J., Du, G., Zhan, J.C. & Huang, W.D. (2010). Trehalose protects wine yeast against oxidation under thermal stress. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology, 26, 969–976.
- Marañón, I.M.D., Chaudanson, N., Joly, N. & Gervais, P. (1999). Slow heat rate increases yeast thermotolerance by maintaining the plasma membrane integrity. Biotechnology and Bioengineering, 65, 176–181.
- Marullo, P., Bely, M., Masneuf, I., Aigle, M. & Dubourdieu, D. (2004). Inheritable nature of enological quantitative traits is demonstrated by meiotic segregation of industrial wine yeast strains. FEMS Yeast Research, 7, 711–719.
- Michnick, S., Roustan, J.L., Remize, F., Barre, P. & Dequin, S. (1997). Modulation of glycerol and ethanol yields during alcoholic fermentation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae strains overexpressed or disrupted for *GPD1* encoding glycerol 3-phosphate dehydrogenase. Yeast, 13, 783–793.
- Moreira, N., Mendes, F., Hogg, T. & Vasconcelos, I. (2005). Alcohols, esters and heavy sulphur compounds production by pure and mixed cultures of apiculate wine yeasts. International Journal of Food Microbiology,  $103$ , 285-294.
- de Nadal, E., Ammerer, G. & Posas, F. (2011). Controlling gene expression in response to stress. Nature Reviews Genetics, 12, 833– 845.
- Nevoigt, E. & Stahl, U. (1996). Reduced pyruvate decarboxylase and increased glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase  $[NAD^+]$  levels enhance glycerol production in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Yeast, 12, 1331–1337.
- Oliveira, B.M., Barrio, E., Querol, A. & Pérez-Torrado, R. (2014). Enhance denzymatic activity of glycerol-3-phosphatedehydrogenase from the cryophilic Saccharomyces kudriavzevii. PLoS ONE, 9, e87290.
- Pahlman, A.K., Granath, K., Ansell, R., Hohmann, S. & Adler, L. (2001). The yeast glycerol 3-phosphatases gpp1p and gpp2p are required for glycerol biosynthesis and differentially involved in the cellular responses to osmotic, anaerobic, and oxidative stress. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 276, 3555–3563.
- Pallmann, C.L., Brown, J.A., Olineka, T.L., Cocolin, L., Mills, D.A. & Bisson, L.F. (2001). Use of WL medium to profile native flora fermentations. American Journal of Enology and Viticulture, 52, 198–203.
- Panadero, J., Pallotti, C., Rodriguez-Vargas, S., Randez-Gil, F. & Prieto, J.A. (2006). A downshift in temperature activates the high

osmolarity glycerol HOG pathway, which determines freeze tolerance in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 281, 4638–4645.

- Perez-Torrado, R., Gonzalez, S.S., Combina, M., Barrio, E. & Querol, A. (2015). Molecular and enological characterization of a natural Saccharomyces uvarum and Saccharomyces cerevisiae hybrid. International journal of Food Microbiology, 80, 101-110.
- Pérez-Torrado, R., Oliveira, B.M., Zemančíková, J., Sychrová, H. & Querol, A. (2016). Alternative glycerol balance strategies among saccharomyces species in response to winemaking stress. Frontiers in Microbiology, 7, 435.
- Remize, F., Roustan, J.L., Sablayrolles, J.M., Barre, P. & Dequin, S. (1999). Glycerol overproduction by engineered Saccharomyces cerevisiae wine yeast strains leads to substantial changes in by-product formation and to a stimulation of fermentation rate in stationary phase. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 65, 143– 149.
- Remize, F., Sablayrolles, J.M. & Dequin, S. (2000). Re-assessment of the influence of yeast strain and environmental factors on glycerol production in wine. Journal Applied Microbiology, 88, 371– 378.
- Torija, M.J., Rozès, N., Poblet, M., Guillamón, J.M. & Mas, A. (2003). Effects of fermentation temperature on the strain population of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. International journal of Food Microbiology, 204, 47–53.
- Van Dijck, P., Ma, P., Versele, M. et al. (2000). A baker's yeast mutant (fil1) with a specific, partially inactivating mutation in adenylate cyclase maintains a high stress resistance during active fermentation and growth. Journal of Molecular Microbiology and Biotechnology, 2, 521–530.
- Wang, Z.X., Zhuge, J., Fang, H. & Prior, B.A. (2001). Glycerol production by microbial fermentation: a review. Biotechnology Advances, 19, 201–223.
- Wiemken, A. (1990). Trehalose in yeast, stress protectant rather than reserve carbohydrate. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek, 58, 209–217.

# Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Data S1. The rDNA ITS sequencing results of Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeast cell BH8