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Antioxidant effect of glutathione-rich specific inactivated yeast in pre-fermentative phase on organic Catarratto grape must.

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DIPARTIMENTO SCIENZE AGRARIE,
ALIMENTARI e FORESTALI

Il Direttore – Prof. Tiziano Caruso

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Palermo, 20/03/2024

Dear Editor,

I am pleased to submit the paper titled “Antioxidant effect of glutathione-rich specific inactivated yeast in pre-fermentative phase on organic Catarratto grape must” to your attention.

The paper dealt with the industrial production of experimental wines with the use of a glutathione enriched specific inactivated yeast (GIY). In addition, a treatment with a combination of *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* and the GIY was also studied. These bioprotection techniques are generally used to be added in the must before the inoculum of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. In this work, this GIY was tested as addition in different pre-fermentative stages to evaluate its antioxidant properties alone or together with the non-*Saccharomyces* yeast strain. The musts were produced starting from “Catarratto” grape variety and were analysed for several oxidation-related parameters. Moreover, VOCs and sensory analyses were performed in order to evaluate their possible effects on wine aroma.

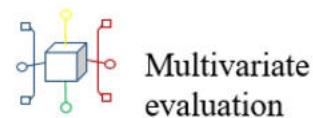
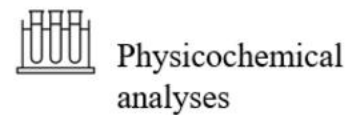
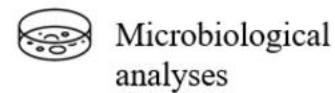
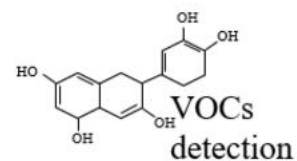
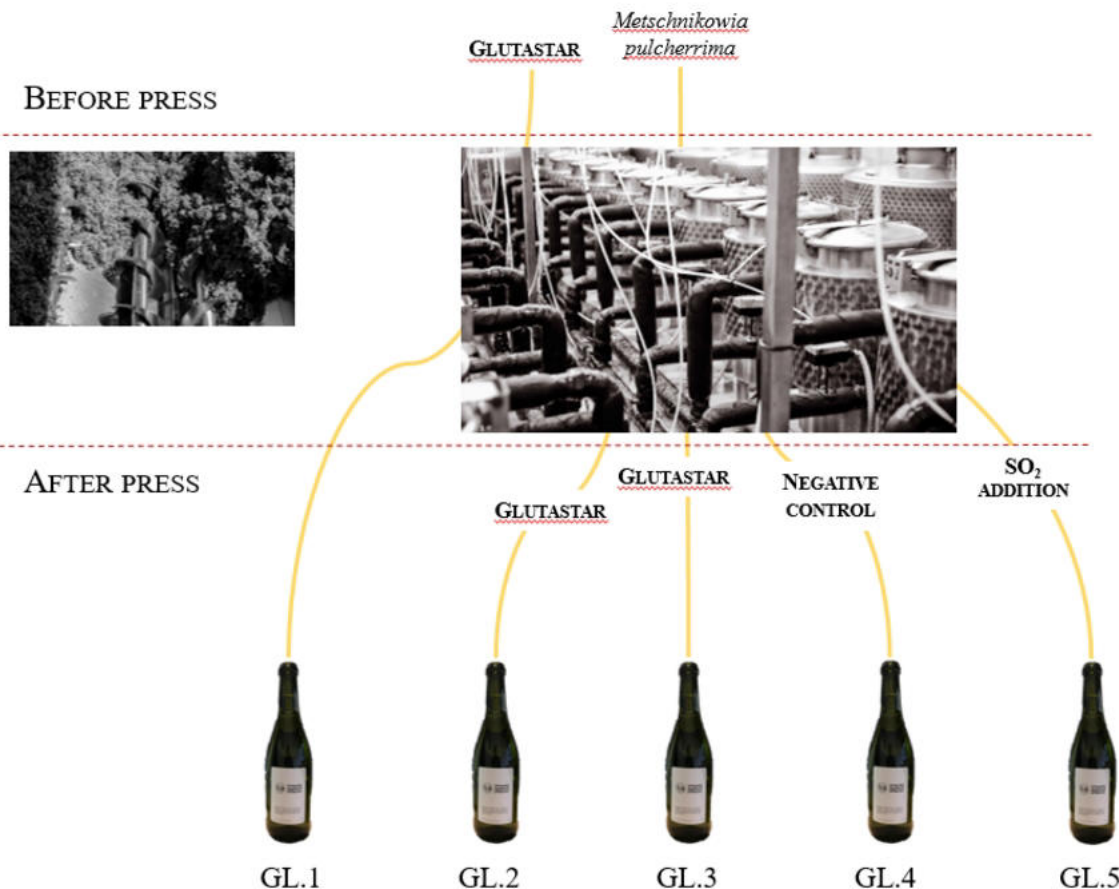
In our opinion, the topic of this manuscript could be of interest for Food Bioscience readers and potentially falls within the aims of the journal.

We hope the manuscript could be revised by FB reviewers.

With my best personal regards,

Highlights

- Glutathione rich inactivated yeast (GIY) addition in several prefermentative phases
- *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* was added in combination with GIY in a treatment
- The combination was able to limit dissolved O₂ levels and browning effects
- GIY-added trials showed the highest esters concentration through VOCs analysis



Antioxidant effect of glutathione-rich specific inactivated yeast in pre-fermentative phase on organic Catarratto grape must.

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17

18

19 **ABSTRACT**

20 The aim of this research was to explore the possible effects of the use of a glutathione-rich specific
21 inactivated yeast (GIY) on pre-fermentative stages of winemaking process. The research evaluated
22 the single and combined antioxidant effects of GIY, with or without *Metschnikowia pulcherrima*, at
23 different stages of grape pressing process. The antioxidant effect was evaluated by measuring soluble
24 oxygen and colour browning of musts. The impact of different oenological protocols on the aromatic
25 profile of the final wines was assessed through the volatile organic compounds (VOC) and sensory
26 analysis. The inoculation treatment of *M. pulcherrima* during the pre-pressing phase, followed by the
27 addition of GIY during the post-pressing stage, limited both O₂ uptake (1.49 mg/L) and the browning
28 phenomenon (0.093 OD at 420 nm) during the pre-fermentative phase. The analysis of VOC revealed
29 a clear separation of aroma profiles between the treatments involving the addition of GIY and the
30 controls. The protocol involving the addition of GIY during pressing showed the highest
31 concentrations of ethyl octanoate (26.03 mg/L) and ethyl decanoate (26.87 mg/L). The sensory
32 evaluation of the wines revealed the absence of off-odours and off-flavours in all treatments.
33 However, the treatment involving the addition of *M. pulcherrima* and GIY received the greatest
34 scores for the attributes smoothness and colour. In conclusion, the study found that GIY added
35 treatments can be used in winemaking to enhance wine colour and counteract the detrimental effects
36 of oxidation. These findings offer a potential alternative to reduce the use of SO₂ in wine production.

37

38 **Keywords:** browning; colour development; glutathione; *Metschnikowia pulcherrima*; non-
39 *Saccharomyces* yeast; wine oxidation.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The tripeptide glutathione (GSH) is made up of glycine, l-glutamate, and cysteine. GSH can exist in
42 cells in two different forms: reduced (GSH) and oxidized, which is known as glutathione disulfide
43 (GSSG; Fahey, 2001). In most cases, the cell contains more than 90% of GSH in its reduced form,
44 which results, after oxidation processes, in the formation of GSSG; however, glutathione reductase
45 can convert GSSG back to GSH (Li et al., 2004).

46 Three key roles of GSH can be summed up as follows: detoxifier, immune enhancer, and antioxidant
47 (Siyun et al., 2019). GSH is essential for enzyme activity, sulphur and nitrogen metabolism,
48 endogenous toxic metabolite detoxification, bio reduction and, thus, defence against oxidative stress
49 (Coetzee et al., 2016). As a result, it is regarded as a significant, adaptable, and potent self-generated
50 defensive molecule (Li et al., 2004).

51 The role and use of glutathione in wine has attracted considerable scientific and commercial interest
52 (Kritzinger, et al., 2013). In fact, oxidation is one of the main issues in wine production nowadays, it
53 affects most wineries and can lead to various problems during the process. (Begum et al., 2023). This
54 results in a number of defects in the final product, such as browning (Li et al., 2008; Nikolantonaki,
55 & Waterhouse, 2012). In case of *Botrytis cinerea* infections, there is a laccase release, an enzyme that
56 could have a serious detrimental effect initially on musts and then on wines quality (Evli, & Uygun,
57 2023; Garcia et al., 2023). Moreover, dissolved oxygen in wines usually reacts with phenolic
58 compounds, which presence is often associated with wine antioxidant properties. This reaction,
59 especially in presence of metals acting as catalysers, results in chemical oxidations (Marchante et al.,
60 2020). Oxidation results in a general loss of aromatic compounds and in the development of undesired
61 ones (Zhang et al., 2023).

62 In order to find a solution to all these challenges and preserve wine quality, SO₂ is traditionally one
63 of the most used additives in wine production because of its antimicrobial and antioxidant properties
64 (Bahut et al., 2020). Indeed, it promotes *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* growth through the repressions of

65 other microorganisms, such as non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts or lactic acid bacteria, whose presence
66 could lead to unwanted spontaneous fermentation (Guerrero, & Cantos-Villar, 2015). Such microbial
67 control property also leads to reduced fermentation time, another key aspect that explains its wide use
68 throughout the winemaking process (Delso et al., 2023). In addition, SO₂ exerts its antioxidant power
69 through dissociation to bisulphite and sulphite ions, limiting the oxidation caused by Fenton reaction
70 and leading quinones reduction that return in phenol form (Pelonnier-Magimel et al., 2023).

71 Despite these undiscussed advantages related to winemaking, several studies have highlighted some
72 concerns about the potential SO₂ harmful effects on human health, especially in individuals
73 susceptible to allergies (Gutiérrez- Escobar et al., 2023). Numerous studies have observed various
74 reactions, including anaphylactic shock, gastrointestinal symptom and bronchospasm (EFSA, 2014).
75 This increased scientific awareness of possible risks to consumers led World Health Organization
76 (WHO) and European Union (EU) to several recommendations to producers on limiting the use of
77 sulphites in food industry. Furthermore, EU imposed a limit to the concentration of total SO₂ in wines
78 (European Commission, 2009); and in an effort to maximize transparency to consumers, it has made
79 it mandatory to indicate the presence of sulphites on the label of such products (European
80 Commission, 2011).

81 Following scientific and authoritative alarm, the consumer community has also become increasingly
82 concerned about the health effects of sulphites. Besides, there is now a clear common will to products
83 that are as natural as possible and in which the use of chemical additives is definitely limited (De
84 Vero et al., 2017; Gabrielli et al., 2017).

85 Given all of these factors, the food industry stated that alternative strategies that can lower or, perhaps,
86 completely remove SO₂ from the production chain are required (Comuzzo et al., 2015).

87 Hence, researches in the last decade have focused on finding a suitable alternative to SO₂. Among
88 them there are lots of method that have been tried, each of them have some advantages, but there is
89 not one of them that is able to totally replace must sulphating. However, lots of this studies have

90 highlighted that there is more than a possibility to, at least, reduce SO₂ concentration in musts and
91 wines (Lisanti et al., 2019).

92 Among all these proposed methods, in recent years the use of glutathione attracted considerable
93 interest, since its antioxidant activity has been known for several years (Singleton et al., 1985). Its
94 use, however, has been mainly studied in wine-like solution and not enough in must and wine,
95 especially at different stages of the winemaking process.

96 To our knowledge, no studies have been conducted comparing the addition of glutathione-enriched
97 products at different pre-fermentation stages and in combination with *M. pulcherrima*. For this
98 reason, the aim of this study was to evaluate the antioxidant activity of a glutathione-rich yeast
99 derivative (GIY) added before and after pressing stage in a must from Catarratto grapes. In addition,
100 a non-*Saccharomyces* yeast (*M. pulcherrima* MP1) was used in combination with the GIY to explore
101 some possible interaction effect between them.

102

103 **2. Materials and Methods**

104 *2.1 Experimental design and winemaking process*

105 The experimental plan is reported in Fig. 1 and aimed to evaluate the effect of glutathione-rich
106 specific inactivated yeast (GIY) (GlutastarTM, Lallemand Inc. Italia, Castel D'Azzano, Italy) indicated
107 to protect white and rose wines from oxidative phenomena during vinification process. Grape of
108 Catarratto variety (San Giuseppe Jato, 37°59'20" N; 13°11'34" E, Palermo, Sicily, Italy) was
109 processed at experimental cellar of Department of Agricultural, Food and Forest Sciences (SAAF) at
110 University of Palermo.

111 Grapes were manually harvested, destemmed and crushed. Potassium metabisulphite (4 g/q; Esseco
112 Group, Trecate, Italy) was added during destemming; the obtained must was split into 15 batches,
113 each consisting of 100 L.

114 Five different trials were performed in order to evaluate the antioxidant effect of Glutastar™ during
115 different timing of utilization in the pre-fermentative phase: GL.1 trial: GIY (30 g/q) was added in
116 crushed-destemmed grapes before pressing; GL.2 trial: GIY (30 g/q) was added in the must at the
117 exit of press; GL.3 trial: crushed-destemmed grapes was inoculated with 10 g/q of active dry yeast
118 (ADY) of *M. pulcherrima* MP1. A and then with 30 g/q of GIY in must at the exit of press; GL.4
119 trial: (control) the treatment did not include the addition of either GIY or *M. pulcherrima*; GL.5 trial:
120 an additional control was represented by adding 20 mg/L of SO₂, a practice commonly used in
121 industrial winemaking (Arapitsas et al., 2018). Before clarification, 30 g/hL of Bactiless™
122 (Lallemand Inc. Italia, Castel D'Azzano, Italy) was added in each trial, to inhibit lactic and acetic
123 bacteria population. Clarification lasted for 24 h at 5 °C in the presence of 2 g/hL of Lallzyme™ HC
124 (Lallemand Inc. Italia, Castel D'Azzano, Italy).

125 The alcoholic fermentation was carried out using the *S. cerevisiae* NF213 strain belonging to the
126 oenological yeast collection of the SAAF Department (University of Palermo, Italy; Francesca et al.,
127 2024). The nutritional regime was adjusted according to the level of nitrogen in the must, in order to
128 maintain at least the minimum amount of nitrogen suggested in the literature (120–140 mg/L) to avoid
129 any kind of nutrient starvation issues (Kemsawasd et al., 2015). Hence, yeast assimilable nitrogen
130 (YAN) was adjusted through two moments: before inoculum and at 1/3 of alcoholic fermentation
131 (about 4 d). Yeasts were inoculated with 20 mL/hL of concentrated liquid suspension [about $7.00 \times$
132 10^{10} colony-forming units (CFU)/g]. Alcoholic fermentation took place at 18 °C. Temperature and
133 residual sugars were daily checked. At the end of alcoholic fermentation, wines were added with
134 further 20 mg/L of potassium metabisulphite, therefore removed from lees and transferred into clean
135 glass carboy at 5 °C up to bottling phase.

136 Sample collection involved bulk grape must before and after clarification, must after yeast inoculum,
137 must during alcoholic fermentation (25%, 50% and 75% of alcoholic fermentation), wine at the end
138 of alcoholic fermentation. All samples were immediately subjected to analysis. Each experiment was
139 performed in three replicates.

140 2.2. Microbiological analysis

141 All samples collected during wine production were analysed for yeasts and acetic bacteria
142 populations. Must samples were diluted in Ringer's solution (Sigma-Aldrich, Milan, Italy) and
143 analysed in triplicate for total yeasts (TY) on Wallerstein Laboratory (WL) nutrient agar (Pallmann
144 et al., 2001) and acetic acid bacteria (AAB) on Kneifel agar medium (OIV, 2010). Presumptive
145 *Saccharomyces* spp.; *Metschnikowia* spp. (brown/red pulcherrimin pigment production; Pallmann et
146 al., 2001), and *Hanseniaspora* spp. (intense green; Martin et al., 2018), were inferred from yeasts
147 count on WL nutrient agar. All media and the supplements used were purchased from Oxoid
148 (Thermofisher, Milan, Italy).

149 2.3 Yeasts population dominance

150 In order to verify the *S. cerevisiae* dominance throughout the vinification process, five to seven
151 colonies of each morphology were chosen from WL Petri plates and discriminated following the
152 parameters reported by Pallmann et al. (2001). Colony morphology and colour were checked and
153 sequentially propagated in order to obtain axenic cultures (Lai et al., 2022). In addition, a microscope
154 observation was assessed to verify their cellular morphology (Carl Zeiss LTd, Oberkochen,
155 Germany). Thereafter, a genetic characterization was used to identify the dominance of NF213 strain
156 during winemaking process.

157 Extraction of genomic DNA to assay PCR analysis was obtained through InstaGene Matrix kit (Bio-
158 Rad, Hercules, USA) and performed as reported by producer protocol. RFLP assay was used to assess
159 yeast differentiation using the DNA region spanning the internal transcribed spacers (ITS1, ITS2)
160 and the 5.8 rRNA gene as reported by Esteve-Zarzoso et al. (1999). In addition, one isolate for each
161 group was evaluated through the sequencing of the D1/D2 region of the 26S rRNA gene (Alfonzo et
162 al., 2020). Sequencing reactions of DNA were obtained and elaborated as reported by Francesca et
163 al. (2024). The final confirmation of the dominance of *S. cerevisiae* strain applied in this work was
164 obtained by the comparison of interdelta (Legras & Krast, 2003) profiles of the axenic cultures

165 isolated from musts with that of pure NF213 strain. Finally, the eventual persistence of *M.*
166 *pulcherrima* MP1 in GL.3 trial was verified by randomly amplified polymorphic DNA(RAPD)-PCR
167 analyses (Alfonzo et al., 2021; Francesca et al., 2014).

168 2.4. Physicochemical analysis

169 2.4.1. Wine composition

170 pH was determined by OIV-MA-AS313-15 method (OIV, 2020a) through a pH-meter (XS
171 Instruments, Carpi, Italy), total acidity was determined by the methodology described by OIV-
172 MAAS313-01 (OIV, 2020b). The ethanol content was assessed using the method described by
173 Chawafambira (2015).

174 Enzymatic assays for glucose, fructose, glycerol, ammonia nitrogen, alpha-amino nitrogen, acetic
175 acid, malic acid, lactic acid, total and free sulfur dioxide were conducted on a iCubio iMagic M9
176 (Shenzhen iCubio Biomedical Technology Co. Ltd. Shenzhen, China) as described by Matraxia et al.
177 (2021). The reagents were purchased from R-Biopharm AG (Darmstadt, Germany). All chemical
178 analyses were carried out in triplicate.

179 2.4.2. Oenological parameters

180 Soluble oxygen was monitored in order to evaluate the antioxidant effect of GIY during pre-
181 fermentative phase. For this purpose, portable dissolved oxygen meter Mod. HQ30D, equipped with
182 Intellical LDO101 Luminescence/Optical dissolved oxygen probe (Hach Lange S.r.l, Milan, Italy)
183 were used. Musts were analysed for Optical Density (OD) at 420 nm (after press and after clarification
184 phases) by a 6400 Spectrophotometer (Jenway Ltd., Sheung Wan, Hong Kong).

185 2.4.3. Colour analysis

186 The determination of colour characteristics of must after the pressing stage and wines at the end of
187 alcoholic fermentation was performed using a Chroma Meter CR-400C (Minolta, Osaka, Japan) as
188 previously described by Carvalho, Pereira, Pereira, Pinto, & Marques (2015). Colour of samples was
189 determined basing on CIE $L^*a^*b^*$ colour system [CIE $L^*a^*b^*$: lightness (L^*); redness/greenness

190 (a^*); yellowness/blueness (b^*)). The colour parameters L^* , a^* , b^* and hue angle (h) were measured,
191 while Chroma (C^*), values were calculated using the following equations:

$$192 \quad C^*_{ab} = (a^2 + b^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (1)$$

193 where C^* = Chroma, a = redness/greenness index and b = yellowness/blueness index.

194 2.4.4. Volatile organic compounds

195 Volatile compound composition was determined following the protocol reported by Alfonzo et al.
196 (2021). Wine samples (10 mL) from each trial were mixed with MS SupraSolv[®] (Merck, Darmstadt,
197 Germany) dichloromethane (10 mL) in a 100 mL conical flask, stirred at room temperature for 30
198 min, and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min by Low Speed Centrifuge (ScanSpeed 416) with Swing
199 Rotor (LaboGene ApS, Vassingerød, Lyngø, Denmark). The aqueous phase was removed and
200 anhydrous sodium sulphate (1 g) was added before centrifuging at 3000 rpm for 10 min. The
201 dichloromethane layer was removed, and dried under N_2 gas to 1 mL. Gas chromatographic analysis
202 was performed with a GC–MS apparatus, an Agilent 7000C GC system, fitted with a fused silica
203 Agilent DB-5MS capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm i.d.; 0.25 μ m film thickness), coupled to an
204 Agilent triple quadrupole Mass Selective Detector MSD 5973; ionization voltage 70 eV; electron
205 multiplier energy 2000 V; transfer line temperature, 295 °C. Solvent Delay: 5 min. Helium was the
206 carrier gas (1 mL/min). The temperature was initially kept at 40 °C for first 5 min. Then gradually
207 increased until 250 °C at 2 °C/min rate, and finally raised to 270 °C for 15 min. One μ L of sample
208 was injected at 250 °C automatically and in the splitless mode; transfer line temperature, 295 °C. The
209 individual peaks were analysed using the GC MS Solution package, Version 2.72. Identification of
210 compounds was carried out using Adams, NIST 11, Wiley 9 and FFNSC 2 mass spectral database.
211 These identifications were also confirmed by other published mass spectra and linear retention indices
212 (LRI). The LRI were calculated using a series of n -alkanes (C_8 - C_{40}). In addition, some of the
213 compounds were confirmed by comparison of mass spectra and retention times with standard
214 compounds available at the Department STEBICEF – University of Palermo. For each VOC

215 identified, the (OAV) was evaluated as described by Butkhup et al. (2011) in order to identify which
216 VOC was a significant contributor to the odour series characterising each wine.

217 2.5. Sensory evaluation

218 Sensory evaluation of experimental wines aimed to highlights differences between treatments. A
219 quantitative descriptive analysis was performed according to Alfonzo et al. (2021).
220 Ten judges (6 men and 4 women, ranging from 26 to 45 years old) were recruited from University of
221 Palermo. Everyone had a strong experience in winemaking and participated in previous studies as
222 sensory judges. The judges were subjected to preliminary tests to determine their sensory
223 performances on basic tastes and wine-associated aromas. The sensory analysis of wines was
224 conducted following the methodology by Jackson (2016). The 10 panellists compared the five
225 experimental wines during different sessions. They consensually generated 16 sensory descriptive
226 attributes regarding appearance, odour, taste and overall quality. The set of attributes were:
227 appearance (colour); odour (intensity, complexity, floral, fruity, spicy, overall odour quality); taste
228 (intensity, persistence, sour, salty and smoothness, overall taste quality); overall rating. The panellists
229 were also trained for the identification of wine off-odors and off-flavor: microbial (mouldy, corky,
230 yeasty, buttery and cheesy); pungent (vinegary, alcoholic and sulfur); putrid (rancid, rotten egg and
231 rubbery); petroleum (fusel, plastic and solvent), and other (Jackson, 2016; Issa-Issa et al., 2020). The
232 panellists also generated a consensual descriptive ballot for the wines in which the descriptors were
233 associated with a 9 cm unstructured scale anchored at the left and right extremes with the terms
234 “none/weak” and “strong”, respectively (Jackson, 2016; Biasoto et al., 2014). The five wine samples
235 were evaluated in distinct tasting sessions carried out on successive days. Overall, each judge
236 evaluated each of the five wines with three repetitions. For each repetition, a different wine bottle
237 was opened. To control the contrast effect among the samples an incomplete balanced block design
238 was used (Cochran & Cox, 1957).

239 2.6 Statistical and explorative multivariate analyses

Microbiological, physicochemical, oenological, sensory and VOC composition data were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The Tukey's test was applied for pairwise comparison. Statistical significance was attributed to $p < 0.05$. The hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) and principal component analysis (PCA) of data were performed to investigate relationships among volatile organic compounds. All analyses were performed by XLStat software version 2020.3.1 for Excel (Addinsoft, New York, USA).

246

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Microbiological monitoring

Yeast population during fermentation is reported in Fig. 2. On grape must, total yeasts (TY) were found at 3.6 Log CFU/mL. Yeasts ecology during winemaking first stages is often represented by non-*Saccharomyces* species, as reported by several authors (Varela et al., 2016; Di Maro et al., 2007); moreover, *Saccharomyces* spp. yeasts were not detected on grape must, in accordance with the study conducted by Romancino et al. (2008) due to their status named “viable but not cultivable” (Andorrà et al., 2010). However, Aponte and Blaiotta (2016) by using DNA method detection, found *Saccharomyces* spp. on grape and in grape must. Finally, no colony of acetic acid bacteria was found on Kneifel agar during all vinification stages.

M. pulcherrima MP1 was inoculated at 5.8 Log CFU/mL in GL.3 while in other treatments, presumptive native *Metschnikowia* spp. yeasts remained below 4 Log cycles. The addition of SO₂ in GL.5 resulted in the absence of presumptive *Metschnikowia* spp. Meanwhile, TY showed a decrease of approximately 1 log cycle during the post-pressing stage, confirming the study of King et al. (1981).

The NF213 strain of *S. cerevisiae* was inoculated in racked must and showed microbial counts ranging from 6.4 to 7.0 log CFU/mL and regular fermentation kinetics; a short delay in the exponential growth phase was observed in the GL.5 trial, probably due to the SO₂ addition (King et al., 1981).

265 3.2 Dominance of inoculated strain

266 A collection of 618 colonies isolated from WL Petri plates were analysed and a total number of 562
267 colonies were identified as yeasts belonging to presumptive *Saccharomyces*. This resulted from the
268 phenotypical observations and was further confirmed by the analysis of 5.8S-ITS amplicons that
269 revealed that each isolate coming from the respective colony shared a 5.8S-ITS region of 880 bp,
270 common to *S. cerevisiae* (Las Heras-Vazquez et al., 2003). Moreover, the restriction fragments
271 profiles found through *CfoI*, *HaeIII* and *HinfI* was an additional confirmation that they were *S.*
272 *cerevisiae* (Guillamón et al., 1998). The remaining 56 isolates were almost all picked from Petri plates
273 belonging to GL.3 treatment (53/56) and, thus, they were classified as presumptive non-
274 *Saccharomyces* yeasts. In particular, they showed an amplicon size of 400 bp that is associated with
275 *M. pulcherrima* strains (Esteve-Zarzoso et al., 1999). Finally, the presence and dominance of NF213
276 strain in each treatment was confirmed by Interdelta analysis. Additionally, it showed a clear
277 dominance of NF213 strain, while in GL.3 treatment, the inoculum of *M. pulcherrima* determined a
278 dominance of this strain among the non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts. In order to complete yeast genotypic
279 analysis, the alignment of D1/D2 sequence of strains isolated throughout this study was performed
280 with the sequences of pure strains; they showed 100% alignment homology.

281 3.3. Physicochemical analysis

282 3.3.1. Wine composition

283 Analysis of the principal chemical parameters (sugars, organic acids, nitrogen, pH, total acidity and
284 glycerol) on must and wine (end of alcoholic fermentation) are reported in Table 1.

285 Residual sugars at the end of alcoholic fermentation (14 d) ranged between 1.98 (GL.5) and 2.17
286 (GL.2) g/L with no statistical differences between trials. pH values increased during fermentation,
287 from 3.21 (must) to 3.32 on average at the end of alcoholic fermentation. In GL.5, the highest total
288 SO₂ value (55.2 mg/L) was determined at the end of alcoholic fermentation due to a further addition
289 of potassium metabisulphite compared to the other trials. The other treatments showed values

290 between 37.1 mg/L (GL.3) and 37.7 mg/L (GL.1). Acetic acid was detected only at the end of
291 alcoholic fermentation, with values below 0.25 g/L in all trials, comparable to results reported by
292 Alfonzo et al. (2021) on “Catarratto bianco lucido” cultivar and using autochthonous yeast strains.
293 Such low concentrations of acetic acid, produced by *S. cerevisiae*, are reported in several study
294 regarding wine fermentations driven by *S. cerevisiae* strains (Zamora et al., 2009; Mylona et al.,
295 2016).

296 Total nitrogen (TN) in grape must was of 142.6 mg/L. At the end of alcoholic fermentation, total
297 nitrogen values ranged between 143.88 (GL.5) and 149.66 (GL.2) mg/L. The higher values found at
298 the end of alcoholic fermentation were justified by the addition of YAN prior to the *S. cerevisiae*
299 inoculum and at 1/3 of alcoholic fermentation. As a matter of fact, in order to ensure a complete
300 alcoholic fermentation conducted by *S. cerevisiae*, the minimum amount of nitrogen should be 120–
301 140 mg/L (Kemsawasd et al., 2015).

302 No significant differences were found between trials and during all vinification process on pH, total
303 acidity, acetic acid, malic acid and total nitrogen (data collected at 25%, 50% and 75% of alcoholic
304 fermentation were not shown).

305 The highest glycerol content was reported for GL.3, which involved the use of *M. pulcherrima* MP1,
306 showing a value of 7.3 g/L, comparable to those found in the study performed by Canonico et al.
307 (2019), where a different strain of *M. pulcherrima* was used. Using non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts in
308 combination with GIY, allows for larger amounts of compounds that contribute to improve the health
309 conditions of yeast cells conducting fermentation (Matraxia et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2023). In addition,
310 these molecules often have a positive impact on sensory aspects. For instance, glycerol improves the
311 mouthfeel and overall taste of wine (Laguna et al., 2017).

312 3.3.2. Oenological parameters

313 Oxygen monitoring during clarification is represented in Fig. 3. The two values registered were
314 obtained from post press and post clarification detection points. In trial GL.4, where no addition was
315 made, the largest increase of O₂ (+95%) was registered from the technological phase of pressing to

316 the static clarification, reaching the highest O₂ value among trials, after this step (2.46 mg/L). In trial
 317 GL.5, as expected (Coetzee, 2014) SO₂ addition contributed to record the lowest dissolved O₂
 318 increase between the two steps (+62%). In both GIY-added trials (GL.1 and GL.2) the effect on
 319 limiting O₂ uptake during clarification phase was marked, compared with negative control trial
 320 (GL.4), with values of 1.94 and 1.90 mg/L, respectively. However, they registered higher values and
 321 also a higher increase, compared to SO₂ added trial (GL.5) that showed an O₂ level of 1.59 mg/L at
 322 the end of clarification. Our data are comparable to those found by Bustamante et al. (2024), who
 323 tested the same GIY on a must-like solution. Finally, the treatment inoculated with the combination
 324 of *M. pulcherrima* MP1 before press and GlutastarTM after that (GL.3), achieved the lowest dissolved
 325 O₂ value (1.49 mg/L) in post clarification detection. Several authors (Catarino et al., 2014; Vidal et
 326 al., 2004), reported that winemaking operations, such as crushing, pressing and low temperature
 327 during the clarification process can lead to a large increase in dissolved O₂ (up to 8 mg/L). The
 328 addition of GlutastarTM before or after the pressing stage resulted in a lower increase in dissolved
 329 oxygen levels in the next stages, especially when compared to the negative control. However, they
 330 were not as effective as the SO₂-added trial in limiting oxygen uptake in musts.
 331 The analysis revealed that the use of a non-*Saccharomyces* yeast, followed by the addition of a GIY,
 332 resulted in lower dissolved oxygen values compared to the SO₂-added trial (GL.5). In addition, no
 333 differences in dissolved oxygen were found between the GL.3 and GL.5 treatments in both post-
 334 pressing and post-clarification. The effects of the different treatments on predisposition to browning
 335 of the five musts in post pressing and after the clarification are reported in Fig. 4. The 420 nm OD
 336 analysis revealed that GIY-added trials were capable to limit the browning effects on musts as
 337 reported by Bustamante et al. (2024). The GL.2 (0.100), GL.3 (0.093) and GL.5 (0.106) trials showed
 338 the lowest OD values, while the GL.4 treatment exhibited the highest value (0.187). Lyu et al. (2021)
 339 also described a similar phenomenon where the musts that included the addition of GSH had the
 340 lowest OD values (0.035), while the musts without GSH had higher observed values (0.268).
 341 However, the addition of GIY during pre-pressing in GL.1 did not produce a comparable effect to the

342 results observed in the GL.2 and GL.3 trials or the GL.5 control. After clarification, the OD values
343 were comparable to that observed during post-pressing. In particular, every treatment highlighted an
344 increase in 420 nm OD values; GL.4 showed again the greatest values among treatments (0.216) and
345 the highest increase (+15%), this result is easily explainable, because, as reported by Giménez et al.
346 (2017), when glutathione or other compounds with antioxidant properties are not available,
347 polymerization of the quinones leads to browning of the juice.

348 The trial GL.1 followed with 0.158, indicating that GIY addition made before the pressing stage was
349 likely too early in order to exert its effect on the mitigation of browning. Finally, the two treatment
350 in which the addition of GlutastarTM was made after the press stage (GL.2 and GL.3) and the control
351 treatment (GL.5), showed the smallest increase (+8.0%, +5.4% and +6.6%). Hence, highlighting that
352 the best effect on limiting browning potential can be achieved with the late GIY addition on must
353 (after the pressing stage).

354 3.3.3. *Colour characteristics of experimental wines*

355 Colour analysis results are showed in Table 2. Colour of the musts was evaluated in order to
356 understand how each experimental condition affected this important oxidation-related parameter. The
357 highest L* (lightness) value in post-pressing stage was recorded from GL.2 (96.75), while the lowest
358 was recorded from GL.4 (90.54). The parameter a* (redness/greenness) ranged from -1.93 (GL.2) to
359 -1.45 (GL.1), while GL.2 showed also the highest value (8.17) of the parameter b* that measures
360 yellowness/blueness. Moreover, C* followed the same trend than b* showing the highest value for
361 GL.2 (8.40); lastly, hue angle (tonality) ranged from 101.00 (GL.1) to 104.12 (GL.5). This parameter
362 is linked to absorbance differences and it is considered to represent colour qualitative attribute
363 (Recamales et al., 2006). At end of alcoholic fermentation, GL.1, GL.2, GL.3 and GL.5 treatments
364 showed similar L* values (from 95.40 to 96.05), the least bright treatment was again GL.4 (89.66).
365 GL.2 resulted in the highest value of hue (103.40), followed by another GIY-added treatment (GL.1),
366 the lowest was represented by the SO₂ free treatment (GL.4; 89.34). The higher values observed for
367 GIY-added treatments in both lightness and hue angle values, indicate that these treatments gave

lighter and less brown musts (Gómez-Míguez et al., 2007) respect to negative control treatment (GL.4). In 2 years bottled wine, it can be observed that there was a general increase in C* values, that ranged from 12.37(GL.2) to 22.57 (GL.3). In addition, the opposite trend can be appreciated in hue values that went through a general decrease, they ranged from 86.66 (GL.4) to 99.95 (GL.2). These kind of changes, chroma increase and hue decrease, are characteristic of a white wine going through a storage period (Kallithraka et al., 2009). Moreover, the colour evolution was further confirmed by the rise of b* values that allowed the wine to pass from a pale yellow to a more intense one (Recamales et al., 2006). This analysis confirmed the positive impact of the glutathione enriched specific inactivated yeast and its combination with *M. pulcherrima* on wine colour.

377

3.3.4. Volatile organic compounds

Table 3 shows the levels of the VOCs detected through GC-MS analysis. Fifteen compounds were detected and grouped into four classes: alcohols, esters, carboxylic acids and other compounds. The most represented class was the esters, with 8 compounds detected. The class of VOCs with the highest concentrations is that of alcohols. The alcohol present in the highest quantities was 3-methyl-1-butanol in GL.1 (144.78 mg/L) and GL.5 (145.94 mg/L), followed by phenylethyl alcohol which was detected in the highest quantities in GL.2 (112.09 mg/L) and GL.5 (106.72 mg/L). The presence of phenylethyl alcohol is associated with the floral notes of wines as reported by Francesca et al. (2024). The trials GL.2 and GL.5 produced more alcohols than the other treatments. However, among alcohols, GL.3 registered the highest value for 4-Methyl-1-pentanol, while both GL.2 and GL.3 showed the highest amount of 3-methyl-1-pentanol (~ 2.6 mg/L each).

Hexanoic acid represented the carboxylic acids, with values below the perception threshold of 0.42 mg/L, only in the trials GL.4 and GL.5. Carboxylic acids, especially hexanoic acid, are responsible for unpleasant odours associated with rancidity and cheese (Francesca et al., 2024). The influence of esters on white wine aroma is well known and they are connected with fruity and flowery aromas

(Naselli et al., 2023). Interestingly, all the three treatments with GIY addition (GL.1, GL.2 and GL.3), showed the highest values in total esters. The higher values of ethyl decanoate were detected in GL.1, while ethyl octanoate was present in high concentrations in both GL.1 and GL.2. The OAV (Odor Activity Value) is the index that defines odour perception and it was higher than 1 for 7 out of 15 compounds. Thereafter, the sum of the OAVs was calculated (Welke et al., 2014) in order to determine the olfactory intensity of each wine and, in addition, an HCA and a PCA were performed to explore the relationships between VOCs and different treatments. The biplot graph (Fig. 5A) highlighted that 84.00% of the total variability is a function of factor 1 and factor 2 (50.41% and 33.59%, respectively). In the I quadrant there was an association between the ester with highest OAV (Ethyl octanoate) and the two GlutastarTM -added treatments (GL.1 and GL.2), while GL.5 was associated with the main alcohols in the II quadrant. Moreover, in the IV quadrant GL.3 and GL.4 showed similar VOCs composition. These findings were further confirmed by the HCA (Fig. 5B), which highlighted a close correlation between GL.1 and GL.2. Interestingly, the HCA revealed a higher similarity between GL.4 and GL.5, than between GL.3 and GL.4 which were similar according to PCA.

Moreover, the biplot graph generated by principal component analysis revealed that several compounds are strictly and statistically linked to GL.1 and GL.2 trials. These compounds are mainly esters, they also showed the highest OAVs and, for this reason their contribution to wine odour intensity is significantly high. Since most of the aroma-related differences between the treatments could have been dependent on this class of compounds, we performed the HCA and the PCA taking only the class of esters into accounts. The biplot graph (Fig. 6A) correlated the analysed variables and highlighted that 84.71% of the total variability is a function of factor 1 for 63.51% and factor 2 for 21.20%. In the I quadrant, the wines from trial GL.1 and GL.2 are associated, respectively, with Ethyl octanoate and Ethyl decanoate, whereas in the IV quadrant, GL.3 is linked to the three esters remaining. In addition, Fig. 6B shows the bootstrap hulls, also produced by principal component analysis. The highest areas overlap was observed in treatments GL.2 and GL.3, indicating a similar

VOC composition. In contrast, GL.4 and GL.5 were the wines showing less overlaps and, thus, separating themselves from other trials. These findings were further confirmed by the HCA (Fig. 7), that revealed a clear grouping of the wines into two clusters: one is composed by GL.4 and GL.5, while the other one consists of the three remaining trials.

3.4. Sensory analysis

The quantitative sensory analysis showed slight differences in the organoleptic profiles of the wines (Fig. 8A). No descriptor related to unpleasant attributes (off-odour and off-flavour) or related to wine oxidation were listed. The analysis of variance highlighted a difference between the GL.3 and the other treatments regarding the colour and smoothness attributes. The higher score for colour given by the judges further confirms the antioxidant properties of this combination of non-*Saccharomyces* yeast and GIY on wine colour (Giménez et al., 2023). Furthermore, the wines also differed in smoothness attribute, with GL.3 showing the best evaluation by judges (5.60). The overall scores given to the wines by the tasters (Fig. 8B) showed no differences between the wines. This supports the fact that the protocols used resulted in a product with similar sensory characteristics to that produced with the use of SO₂. In fact, the use of bio-protection techniques during pre-fermentative phase could not highlights differences between treatments, due to a high matrix effect (Simonin et al., 2020).

5. Conclusions

This research showed that the addition of GIY to Catarratto must at different stages along the pre-fermentation phases limited the effects of those factors that trigger the oxidation process. The use of GIY, both in the pre- and post-pressing stages, limited levels of dissolved O₂ during the pre-fermentative phases. Sensory analyses did not highlight any off-odours or off-flavours coming from the experimental wines without SO₂ addition. Moreover, the colour analysis confirmed the positive impact of GIY addition on both fermenting musts and bottled wine after two years of storage. The

444 multivariate statistical analysis performed on total OAVs and only on esters detected through VOCs
445 analysis revealed a clear association between the most impactful fruity and flowery compounds and
446 GIY-added trials. Interestingly, the interaction generated by the combination of *M. pulcherrima* and
447 GIY (GL.3) showed the least dissolved O₂ levels. Moreover, GL.3 obtained the best evaluation in
448 smoothness attribute within the sensory assessment, probably due to its higher glycerol production.
449 In conclusion, GIY demonstrated its suitability in potentially low or no added SO₂ wine production.
450 It would be worthwhile to deeply study the mechanisms regulating the interactions between GIY and
451 non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts (such as *M. pulcherrima*), as well to investigate their combined effects in
452 different musts and with decreased amount of sulphites.

453

454 **Declaration of competing interest**

455 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
456 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

457

458 **Data availability**

459 Data will be made available on request.

460

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693

Parameters	Must	Vinification					
		Post-pressing					
		GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	S.S.
pH	3.21 ± 0.01	3.24 ± 0.01 a	3.21 ± 0.01 a	3.22 ± 0.01 a	3.23 ± 0.01 a	3.25 ± 0.01 a	n.s.
TA ^Ψ	5.70 ± 0.05	5.80 ± 0.02 a	5.60 ± 0.06 a	5.60 ± 0.03 a	5.60 ± 0.07 a	5.80 ± 0.02 a	n.s.
RS ^Ψ	268.34 ± 1.98	267.47 ± 1.28 a	267.47 ± 1.01 a	267.99 ± 1.73 a	267.15 ± 1.31 a	267.91 ± 1.54 a	n.s.
Glycerol ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.
Acetic acid ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.01 a	0.03 ± 0.00 a	0.03 ± 0.00 a	0.03 ± 0.00 a	0.03 ± 0.01 a	n.s.
L - Malic acid ^Ψ	1.41 ± 0.02	1.37 ± 0.01 a	1.38 ± 0.01 a	1.39 ± 0.03 a	1.37 ± 0.02 a	1.36 ± 0.01 a	n.s.
L - Lactic acid ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.0 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.
Amm. N ^α	68.57 ± 1.42	71.73 ± 0.11 d	75.26 ± 0.88 c	64.33 ± 0.94 e	86.53 ± 1.28 a	83.80 ± 1.24 b	***
Alpha-AN ^α	73.98 ± 1.30	91.84 ± 1.40 b	90.17 ± 1.20 c	86.22 ± 0.95 e	89.79 ± 1.20 d	98.50 ± 0.80 a	***
Free SO ₂ ^α	1.3 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.2 b	1.1 ± 0.3 b	1.3 ± 0.5 b	1.2 ± 0.2 b	3.8 ± 0.4 a	***
Total SO ₂ ^α	20.0 ± 0.1	19.5 ± 0.4 b	19.7 ± 0.6 b	19.6 ± 0.4 b	20.1 ± 0.2 b	40.0 ± 0.3 a	***
Ethanol ^β	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.
Parameters	Vinification						
	Post-clarification						
	GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	S.S.	
pH	3.27 ± 0.00 a	3.27 ± 0.00 a	3.26 ± 0.01 a	3.29 ± 0.02 a	3.30 ± 0.01 a	n.s.	
TA ^Ψ	5.77 ± 0.01 a	5.77 ± 0.02 a	5.78 ± 0.01 a	4.88 ± 0.03 b	5.05 ± 0.04 b	***	
RS ^Ψ	266.82 ± 0.45 a	266.21 ± 1.31 a	267.08 ± 0.24 a	266.73 ± 0.47 a	267.01 ± 1.13 a	n.s.	
Glycerol ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.	
Acetic acid ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.	
L - Malic acid ^Ψ	1.37 ± 0.01 a	1.37 ± 0.02 a	1.39 ± 0.03 a	1.39 ± 0.02 a	1.39 ± 0.01 a	n.s.	
L - Lactic acid ^Ψ	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.	
Amm. N ^α	111.66 ± 0.85 d	104.68 ± 1.13 e	116.92 ± 1.11 c	119.18 ± 1.35 b	126.47 ± 0.79 a	***	
Alpha-AN ^α	92.78 ± 0.42 c	100.93 ± 0.87 a	91.94 ± 0.66	92.60 ± 1.08 c	95.77 ± 0.74 b	***	
Free SO ₂ ^α	1.1 ± 0.2 b	1.3 ± 0.5 b	1.2 ± 0.1 b	1.4 ± 0.3 b	3.5 ± 0.3 a	***	
Total SO ₂ ^α	19.5 ± 0.5 b	19.5 ± 0.5 b	19.1 ± 0.3 b	19.4 ± 0.4 b	39.6 ± 0.3 a	***	
Ethanol ^β	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	0.00 ± 0.00 a	n.s.	
Parameters	Vinification						
	End of alcoholic fermentation						
	GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	S.S.	
pH	3.32 ± 0.01 a	3.31 ± 0.00 a	3.31 ± 0.02 a	3.34 ± 0.01 a	3.33 ± 0.00 a	n.s.	
TA ^Ψ	7.90 ± 0.03 a	7.90 ± 0.01 a	7.90 ± 0.10 a	8.10 ± 0.02 a	8.00 ± 0.03 a	n.s.	
RS ^Ψ	2.10 ± 0.04 a	2.17 ± 0.05 a	2.09 ± 0.03 a	2.02 ± 0.02 a	1.98 ± 0.05 a	n.s.	
Glycerol ^Ψ	6.81 ± 0.04 c	6.77 ± 0.06 c	7.33 ± 0.02 a	6.92 ± 0.10 c	7.10 ± 0.08 b	***	
Acetic acid ^Ψ	0.25 ± 0.02 a	0.21 ± 0.01 a	0.23 ± 0.01 a	0.19 ± 0.01 a	0.25 ± 0.02 a	n.s.	
L - Malic acid ^Ψ	1.24 ± 0.02 a	1.26 ± 0.02 a	1.19 ± 0.04 a	1.24 ± 0.00 a	1.25 ± 0.02 a	n.s.	
L - Lactic acid ^Ψ	0.02 ± 0.00 a	0.01 ± 0.01 a	0.02 ± 0.00 a	0.01 ± 0.00 a	0.01 ± 0.01 a	n.s.	
Amm. N ^α	106.82 ± 1.27 c	108.78 ± 0.94 a	107.25 ± 0.72 c	108.11 ± 0.97 b	105.81 ± 1.25 d	***	
Alpha-AN ^α	40.18 ± 0.64 b	40.88 ± 1.14 a	39.71 ± 1.34 b	39.98 ± 0.97 b	38.07 ± 0.47 c	***	
Free SO ₂ ^α	19.3 ± 0.4 a	19.0 ± 0.3 a	19.2 ± 0.2 a	19.4 ± 0.5 a	19.1 ± 0.2 a	n.s.	
Total SO ₂ ^α	37.7 ± 0.4 b	37.2 ± 0.2 b	37.1 ± 0.3 b	37.4 ± 0.4 b	55.2 ± 0.1 a	***	
Molecular SO ₂ ^α	0.77 ± 0.1 a	0.77 ± 0.09 a	0.77 ± 0.08 a	0.78 ± 0.06 a	0.78 ± 0.08 a	n.s.	
Ethanol ^β	13.46 ± 0.07 a	13.51 ± 0.08 a	13.48 ± 0.05 a	13.52 ± 0.06 a	13.49 ± 0.06 a	n.s.	

¹Result indicates mean value ± standard deviation of two determinations from three replicates. Data within a row followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Tukey's test. Tukey's test was not applied on must values. Ψ, expressed in g/L; α, expressed in mg/L; β, expressed as % (v/v).
Abbreviations: TA, total titratable acidity; RS, residual sugar; Amm. N, ammonia nitrogen; Alpha-AN, alpha-amino nitrogen; S.S., statistical significance; n.s.; not significant. P value: ***, P < 0.001.

700 **Table 2.** Evolution of CIELAB variables and red/green/blue (RGB) scale from post-pressing stage to two years of bottle ageing.

Parameters	Post-pressing					S.S.
	GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	
L*	93.61 ± 1.76 b	96.75 ± 0.49 a	95.21 ± 0.42 ab	90.54 ± 0.51 c	95.79 ± 0.62 ab	***
a*	-1.45 ± 0.13 a	-1.93 ± 0.03 b	-1.57 ± 0.10 ab	-1.61 ± 0.13 ab	-1.76 ± 0.26 ab	*
b*	7.07 ± 0.07 ab	8.17 ± 0.17 a	6.33 ± 0.49 b	6.44 ± 0.95 b	6.07 ± 0.41 b	**
C*	7.22 ± 0.05 ab	8.40 ± 0.17 a	6.53 ± 0.49 b	6.64 ± 0.93 b	6.33 ± 0.46 b	**
hue°	101.00 ± 0.56 b	103.48 ± 1.03 ab	103.74 ± 0.07 ab	102.54 ± 1.31 ab	104.12 ± 0.79 a	*
End of alcoholic fermentation						
	GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	
L*	96.05 ± 0.25 a	95.78 ± 0.34 a	95.40 ± 0.38 a	89.66 ± 0.41 b	95.78 ± 0.78 a	***
a*	-1.23 ± 0.07 c	-0.96 ± 0.47 bc	-0.45 ± 0.08 ab	0.05 ± 0.09 a	-0.25 ± 0.10 a	**
b*	6.35 ± 0.63 a	5.30 ± 0.51 ab	3.96 ± 0.54 b	5.53 ± 0.58 ab	4.56 ± 0.6 ab	*
C*	6.47 ± 0.63 a	5.43 ± 0.70 ab	3.99 ± 0.55 b	5.53 ± 0.39 ab	4.57 ± 0.62 b	*
hue°	100.70 ± 0.57 b	103.04 ± 0.71 a	97.34 ± 0.72 c	89.34 ± 0.42 d	98.59 ± 1.02 bc	***
2 years bottled wine						
	GL.1	GL.2	GL.3	GL.4	GL.5	
L*	95.98 ± 0.85 a	95.30 ± 0.87 a	95.37 ± 0.50 a	86.01 ± 0.77 b	95.55 ± 0.61 a	***
a*	-1.13 ± 0.08 a	-2.18 ± 0.04 bc	-2.54 ± 0.24 cd	-1.85 ± 0.13 b	-2.85 ± 0.11 d	***
b*	17.65 ± 1.60 b	12.34 ± 0.19 c	22.43 ± 0.64 a	14.20 ± 0.22 c	14.44 ± 0.02 c	***
C*	17.68 ± 1.59 b	12.37 ± 0.20 d	22.57 ± 0.71 a	14.32 ± 0.22 cd	14.72 ± 0.03 c	***
hue°	96.5 ± 0.28 b	99.95 ± 0.18 a	97.4 ± 0.41 b	86.66 ± 0.52 c	97.83 ± 0.59 b	***

701 Result indicates mean value ± standard deviation of two determinations from three replicates. Abbreviation: S.S., Statistical significance.
702 Data within a line followed by different letters are significantly different according to Tukey's test. P value:*, P<0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P
703 < 0.001.

704 **Table 3.** Volatile Organic Compounds detected in wines.

LRI ^a	Compounds	OPT	GL.1	OAV	GL.2	OAV	GL.3	OAV	GL.4	OAV	GL.5	OAV	S.S.
Σ Alcohols			236.18 ± 6.54 b		262.23 ± 7.79 a		220.20 ± 5.40 bc		209.22 ± 6.74 c		259.90 ± 7.38 a		***
1210	3-methyl-1-butanol	¹ 30 mg/L	144.78 ± 4.01 a	4.83	142.36 ± 3.74 ab	4.75	132.17 ± 3.15 bc	4.41	125.83 ± 4.08 c	4.19	145.94 ± 3.99 a	4.86	***
1317	4-methyl-1-pentanol	Unknown	0.41 ± 0.01 c		0.78 ± 0.02 b		0.87 ± 0.02 a		0.81 ± 0.02 b		0.80 ± 0.02 b		***
1329	3-methyl-1-pentanol	Unknown	1.76 ± 0.06 c		2.62 ± 0.08 a		2.61 ± 0.07 a		2.32 ± 0.06 b		1.87 ± 0.06 c		***
1354	1-hexanol	² 8 mg/L	3.86 ± 0.11 b	0.48	4.38 ± 0.13 a	0.55	3.10 ± 0.10 c	0.39	2.94 ± 0.09 c	0.37	4.57 ± 0.13 a	0.57	***
1859	Phenylethyl alcohol	² 14 mg/L	85.37 ± 2.35 b	6.10	112.09 ± 3.82 a	8.01	81.45 ± 2.06 bc	5.82	77.32 ± 2.49 c	5.52	106.72 ± 3.18 a	7.59	***
Σ Carboxylic acids			0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.03 ± 0.02 a	0.07	0.09 ± 0.04 a	0.21	n.s.
1885	Hexanoic acid	² 0.42 mg/L	0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.00 ± 0.00 a		0.03 ± 0.02 a	0.07	0.09 ± 0.04 a	0.21	n.s.
Σ Esters			63.42 ± 1.81 a		59.49 ± 1.80 ab		54.36 ± 1.57 c		57.25 ± 1.75 bc		45.13 ± 1.37 d		***
891	Ethyl acetate	¹ 7.5 mg/L	2.33 ± 0.06 a	0.31	2.26 ± 0.06 a	0.30	2.03 ± 0.05 b	0.27	1.93 ± 0.05 b	0.26	1.90 ± 0.05 b	0.25	***
1040	Ethyl butanoate	¹ 0.02 mg/L	0.26 ± 0.01 b	13.00	0.29 ± 0.01 a	14.50	0.27 ± 0.01 ab	13.50	0.26 ± 0.01 b	13.00	0.25 ± 0.01 b	12.5	**
1123	3-methyl-1-butanol acetate	² 0.03 mg/L	2.62 ± 0.08 a	87.33	2.67 ± 0.09 a	89.00	2.31 ± 0.07 b	77.00	2.31 ± 0.08 b	77.00	0.71 ± 0.02 c	23.67	***
1238	Ethyl hexanoate	² 0.014 mg/L	4.88 ± 0.16 a	348.6	5.04 ± 0.17 a	360.0	4.74 ± 0.16 a	338.6	4.76 ± 0.15 a	340.0	2.41 ± 0.08 b	172.1	***
1269	Hexyl acetate	Unknown	0.33 ± 0.01 d		0.48 ± 0.01 b		0.57 ± 0.02 a		0.44 ± 0.01 c		0.09 ± 0.00 e		***
1453	Ethyl octanoate	² 0.005 mg/L	26.03 ± 0.72 a	5206	25.09 ± 0.73 a	5018	19.32 ± 0.50 c	3864	18.25 ± 0.70 b	3650	21.69 ± 0.71 b	4338	***
1639	Ethyl decanoate	² 0.2 mg/L	26.87 ± 0.77 a	134.3	23.53 ± 0.73 b	117.6	25.30 ± 0.76 ab	126.5	17.21 ± 0.75 ab	86.05	17.93 ± 0.50 c	89.65	***
1853	3-methylbutyl decanoate	Unknown	0.10 ± 0.00 a		0.13 ± 0.00 a		0.09 ± 0.00 a		0.09 ± 0.00 a		0.15 ± 0.00 a		n.s.
Σ Others			3.33 ± 0.09 c		3.41 ± 0.10 c		4.09 ± 0.11 b		3.61 ± 0.11 c		7.51 ± 0.26 a		***
1266	Styrene	Unknown	3.33 ± 0.09 c		3.41 ± 0.10 c		4.09 ± 0.11 b		3.61 ± 0.11 c		7.51 ± 0.26 a		***

705 ¹Guth, 1997; ² Ferreira, López, and Cacho, 2000. Result indicates mean value ± standard deviation of two determinations from three replicates. Abbreviation: n.s., not significant; OPT, Odour perception
706 threshold; OAV, Odor activity value; S.S., Statistical significance. Data within a line followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Tukey's test. P value: **, P < 0.01; ***, P <
707 0.001.
708

709 **Fig. 1.** Experimental design of Catarratto Organic wine vinified with the use of GIY and Bio-
710 protective *M. pulcherrima* MP1 strain.

711 **Fig. 2.** Yeast population (Log CFU/mL) evolution during alcoholic fermentation: (A) total yeasts
712 levels; (B) presumptive *Metschnikowia* spp. concentration. Abbreviations: AF, Alcoholic
713 fermentation.

714 **Fig. 3.** Histogram of dissolved O₂ detected in post-press and post-clarification. For each phase,
715 different letters indicate statistically significant values determined by using Tukey's test ($P < 0.05$).

716 **Fig. 4.** Histogram of optical density detected in post-press and post-clarification. For each group,
717 different letters indicate statistically significant values determined by using Tukey's test ($p \leq 0.05$).

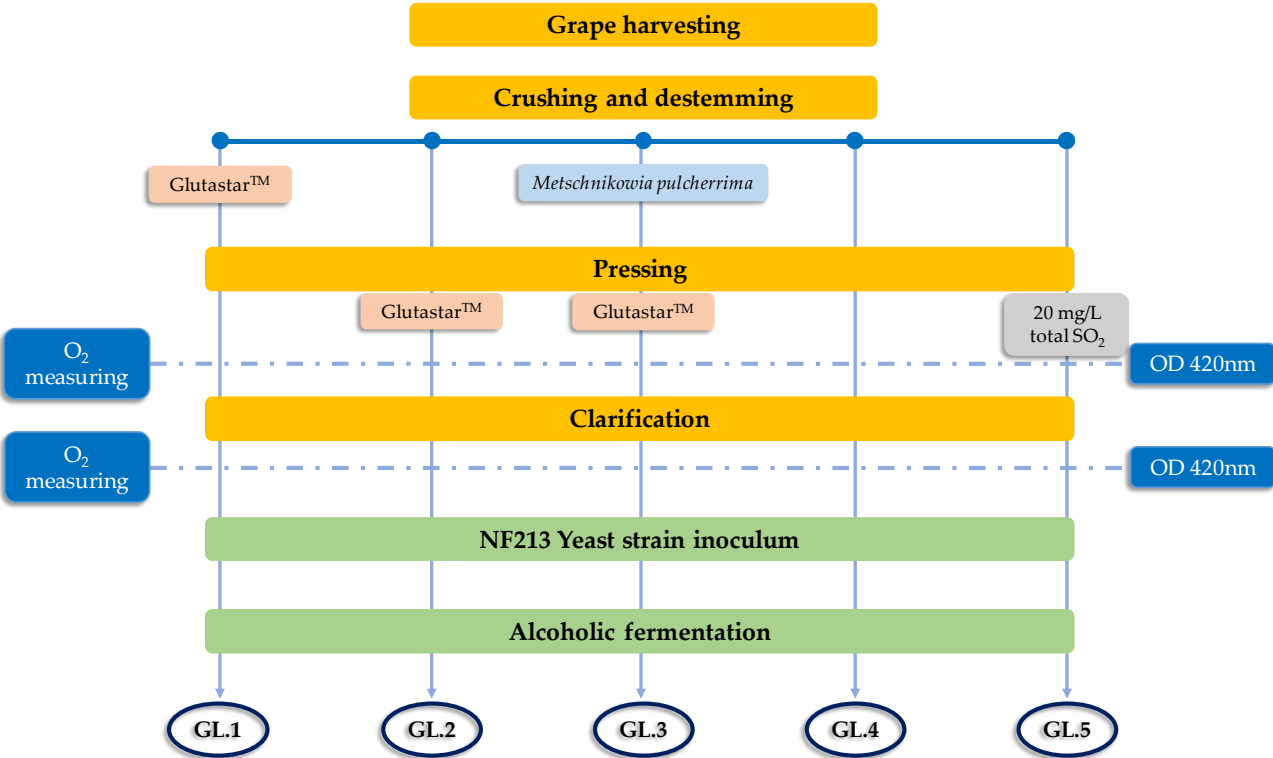
718 **Fig. 5.** Multivariate analyses performed on VOCs exceeding an OAV of 1: (A) Principal Component
719 Analysis (PCA); (B) Hierarchical Clustering Analysis (HCA).

720 **Fig. 6.** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) performed on esters detected by VOCs analysis: (A)
721 Biplot graph; (B) Bootstrap hulls.

722 **Fig. 7.** Dendrogram generated by Hierarchical Clustering Analysis (HCA) performed on esters
723 detected by VOCs analysis.

724 **Fig. 8.** Results from sensory analysis: (A) Histogram of overall quality rating of each trial; (B) Spider
725 plot with each descriptor. Data followed by asterisks are significantly different according to Tukey's
726 test. ***, $P < 0.001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$. Abbreviations: n.s.; not significant.
727

728 Fig. 1.



729

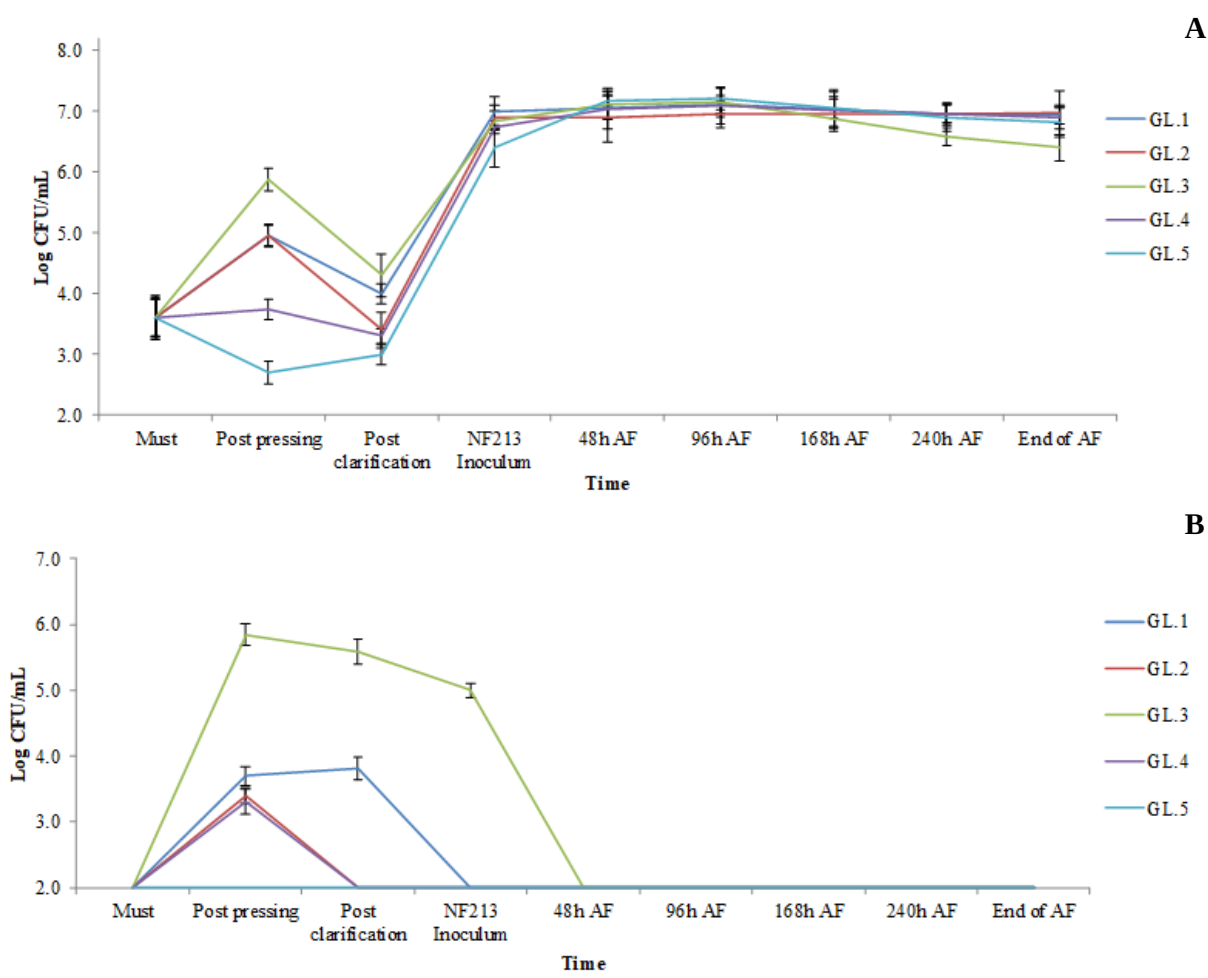
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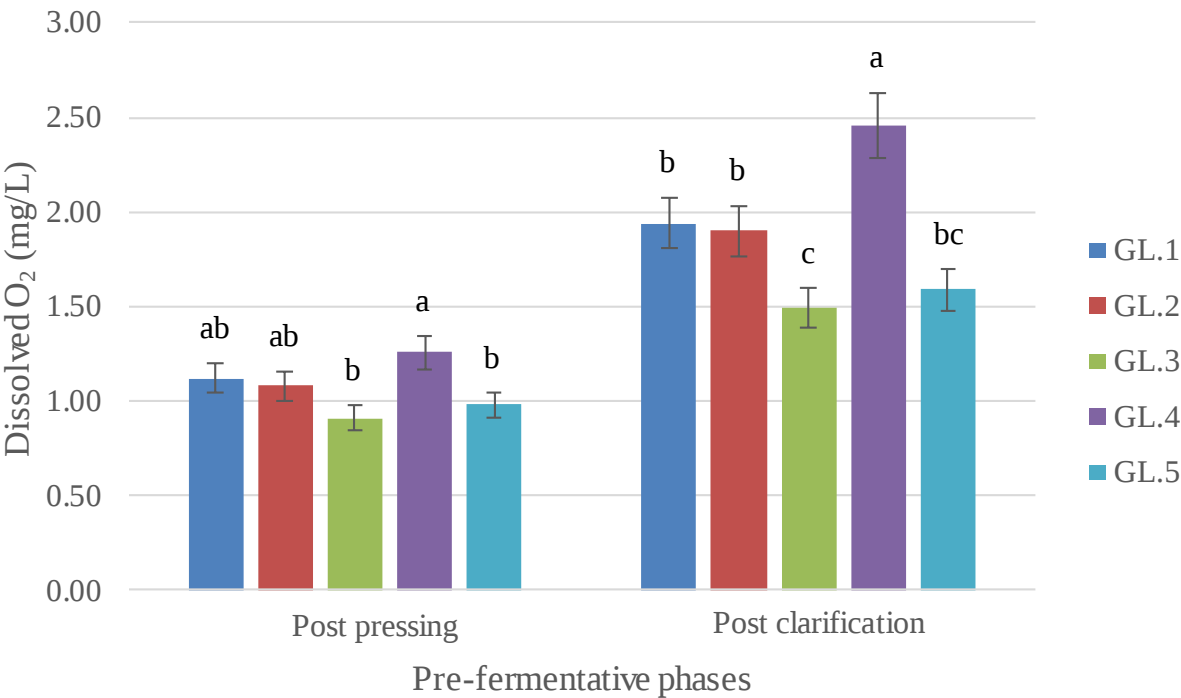
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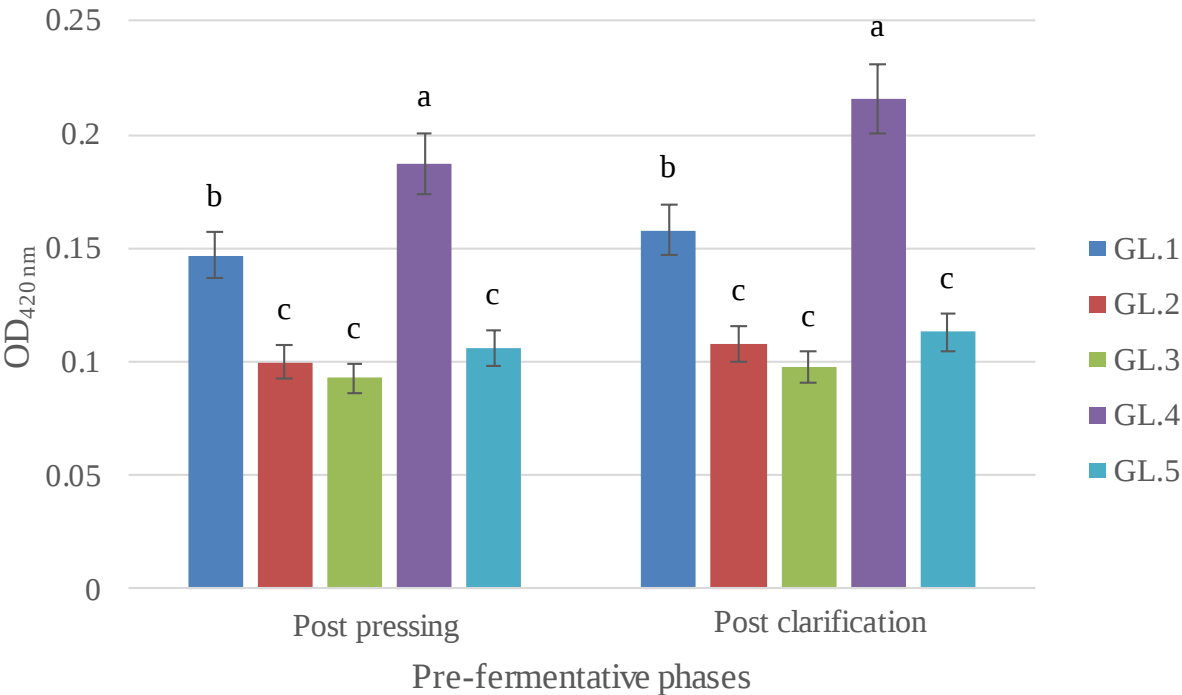
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737 **Fig. 3.**

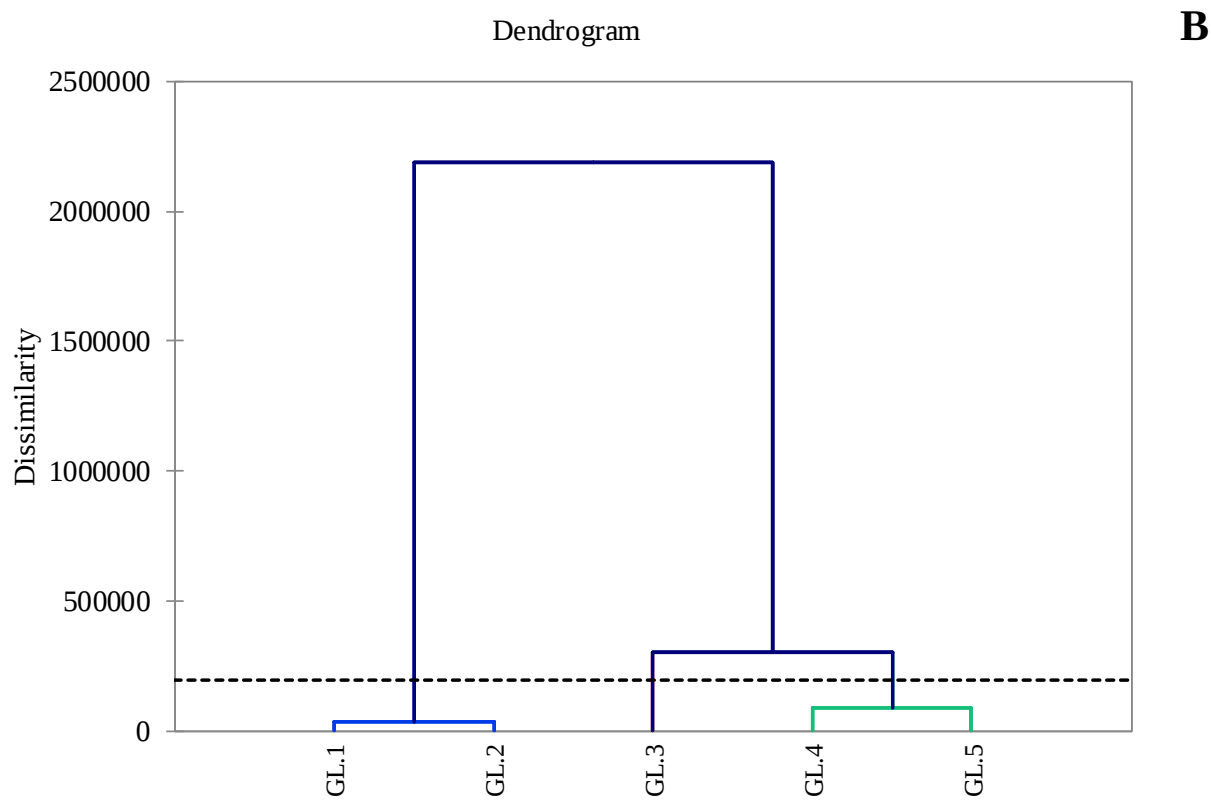
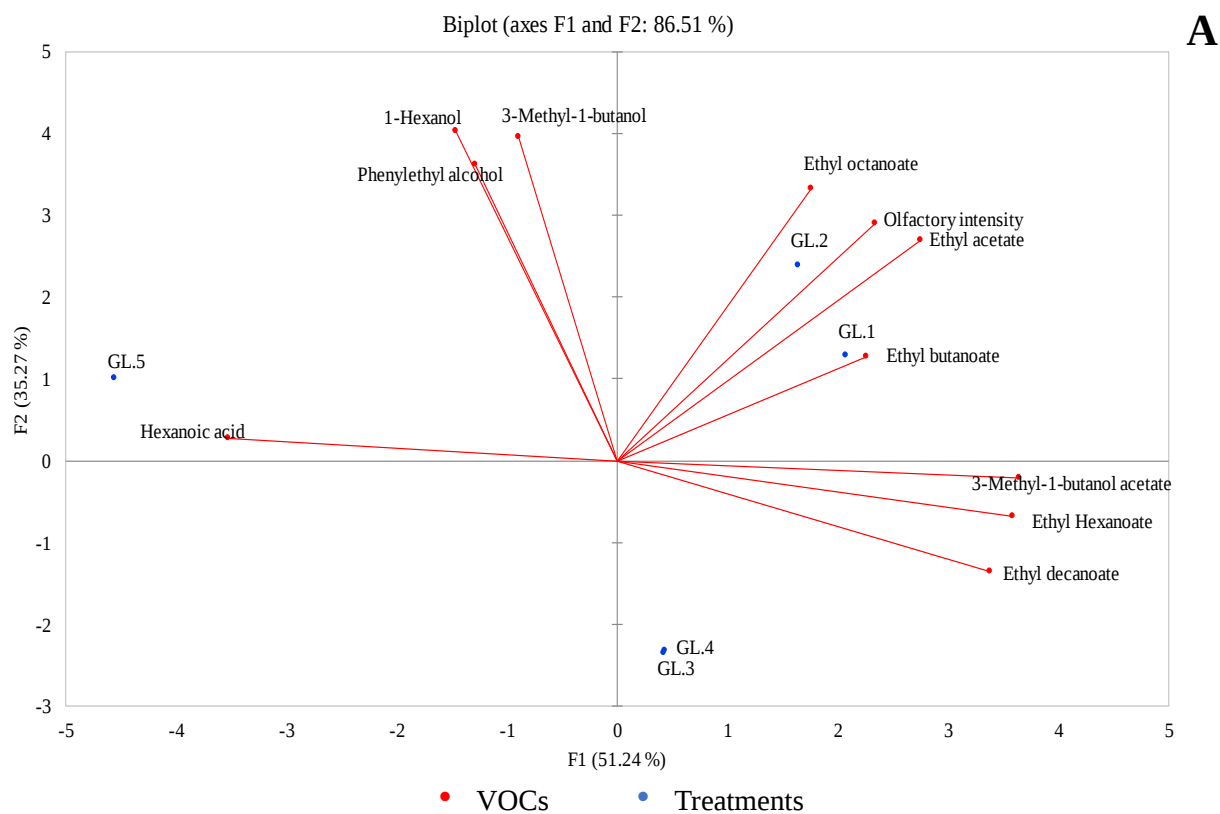


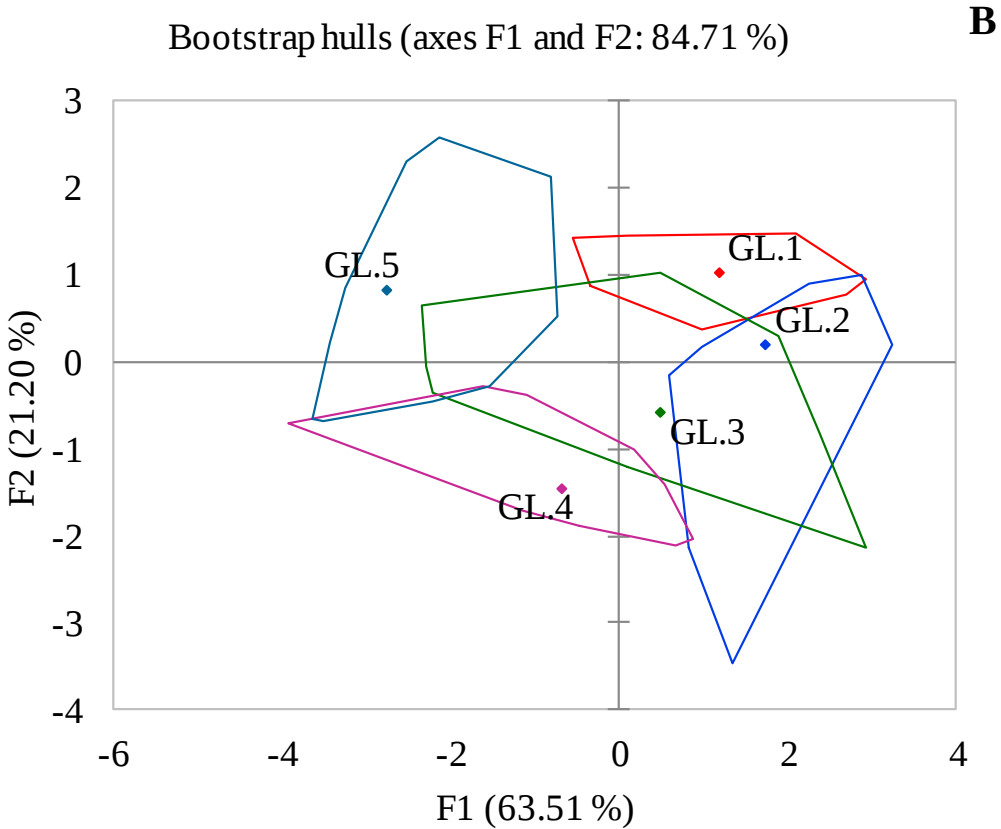
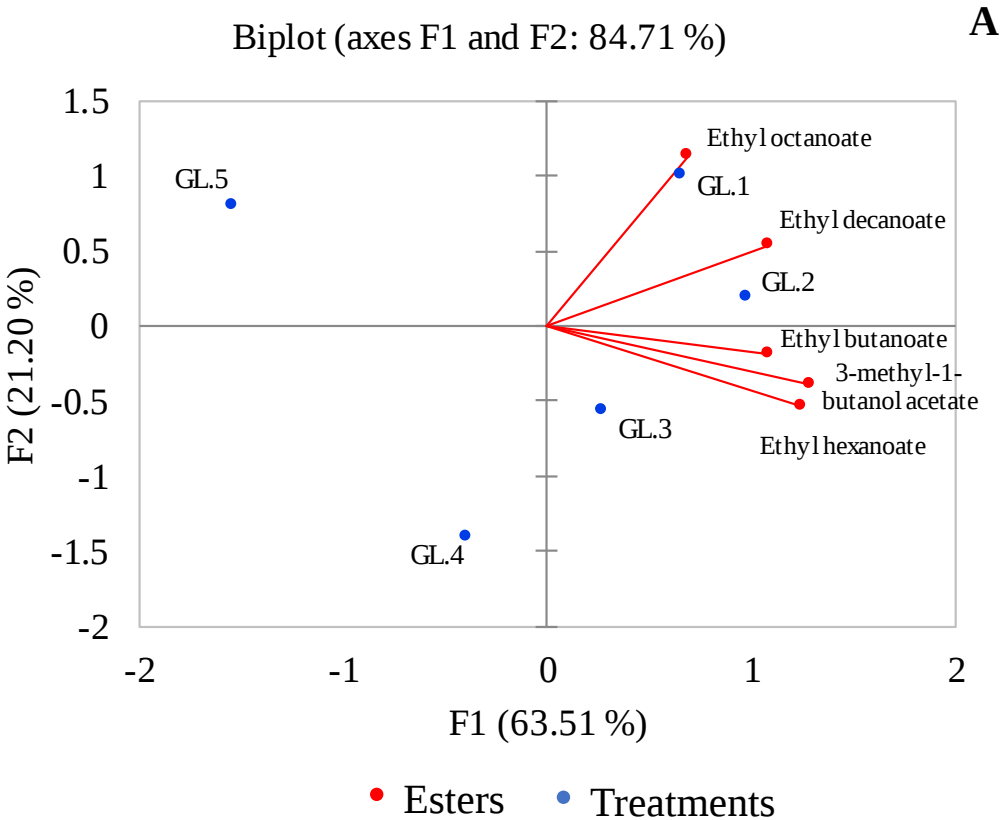
741 **Fig. 4.**

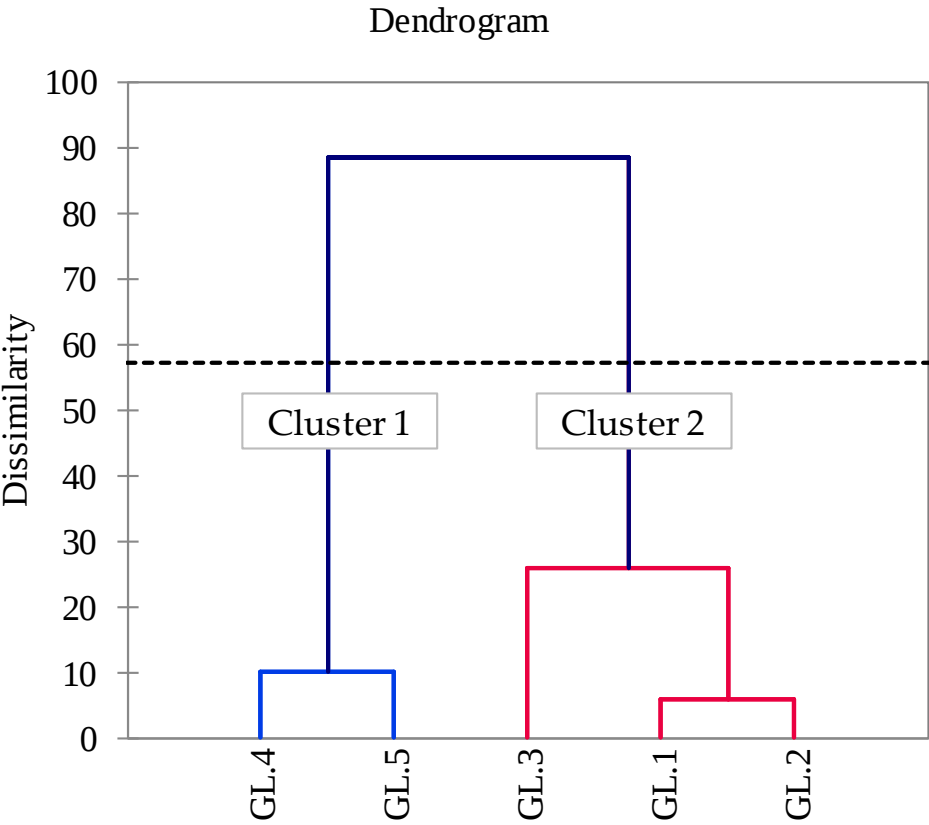


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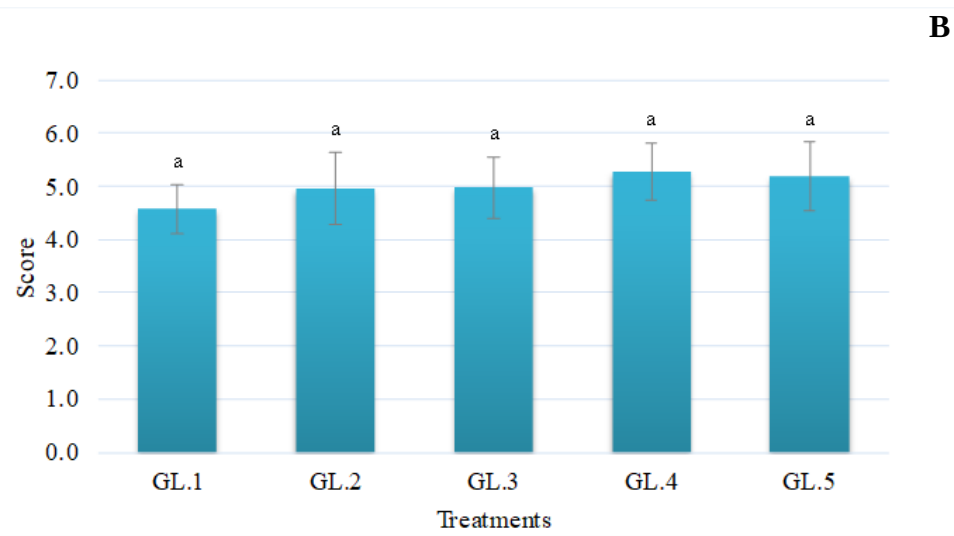
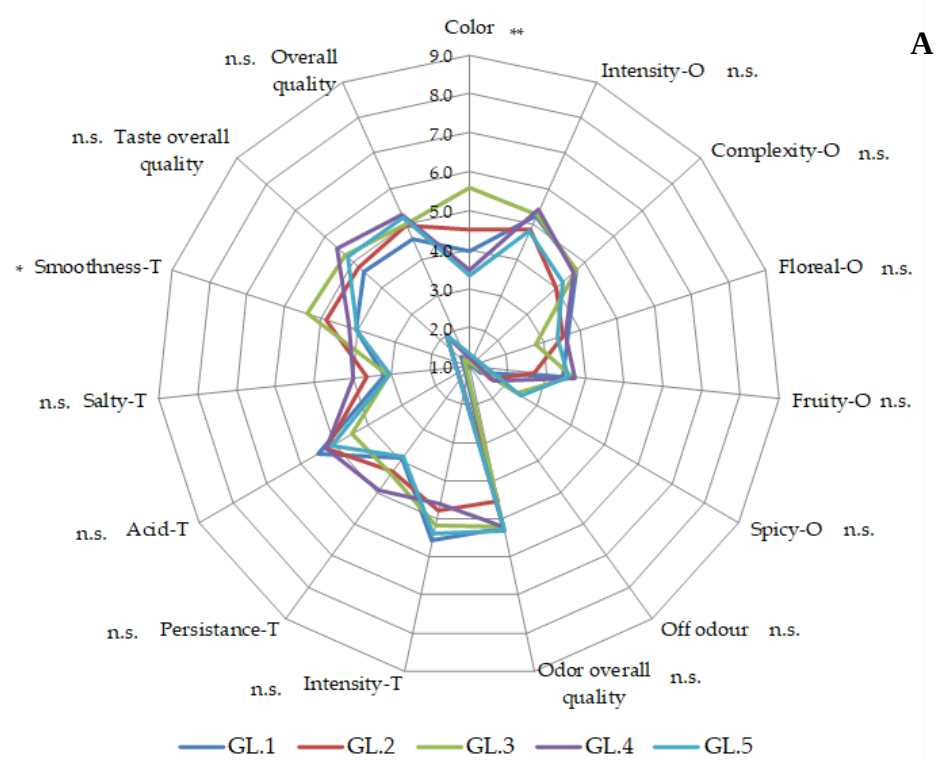




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751

752 **Fig. 8.**



753

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors confirm that they have no conflicts of interest with respect to the work described in this manuscript.