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Molecular and biochemical aspects of *Brettanomyces* in brewing

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Brettanomyces is a semi-domesticated yeast that is a crucial component of lambic beers and is increasingly attracting the attention of the brewing industry. Brettanomyces display Saccharomyces-like features, such as a positive Crabtree effect, ethanol synthesis and tolerance to harsh environments. Additionally, Brettanomyces exhibit β -glucosidase and esterase activities, the production of phenolic compounds and tetrahydropyridines, together with the ability to ferment dextrins and breakdown cellobiose from wooden casks. Although the importance of Brettanomyces species is documented in the production of different beer styles, the molecular and biochemical features of these species required for brewing are poorly understood. Therefore, this work reviews the current knowledge of the molecular biology and biochemistry underlying the performance of Brettanomyces in the brewing industry. © 2019 The Institute of Brewing & Distilling

Keywords: Brettanomyces; brewing; yeasts; fermentation; volatile compounds; stress tolerance

Introduction

Beer, one of the oldest biotechnological products, has significant nutritional, social, scientific and economic impact. Beer combines cereal malt, hops and/or different herbs, and water to create wort that is fermented by indigenous yeast/bacteria or, more typically, by pure cultures of *Saccharomyces* species. According to archaeological data, beer can be traced back to the first agricultural societies ~10,000 years ago, coinciding with cereal domestication (1). Currently, the consumption of the beer is generally increasing worldwide and the brewing industry is showing broad growth. Hence, scientific research in the brewing process and raw materials remains an important activity to support advances in knowledge and development.

Various yeast species were only discovered to be responsible for beer fermentation in the 1860's as a consequence of Louis Pasteur's work (2). Recognition of yeast and its domestication allowed better control of the fermentation process and an improvement in the guality of the final product, leading to the selection of a plethora of yeast strains used in brewing (3). These yeast strains include Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Saccharomyces pastorianus and semi-domesticated unconventional species (4,5). A non-conventional brewing yeast genus that is attracting attention owing its unusual features is Brettanomyces (6.7). Niels Hielte Claussen first mentioned this genus in 1904 while searching the Carlsberg Brewery for an explanation for the peculiar characteristics of English stock ales (e.g. copious and lasting foam, acid and volatile substances) (8). Brettanomyces and its teleomorph form Dekkera are mainly associated with wine spoilage (9). Brettanomyces can also negatively affect beers as a contaminant during fermentation, conditioning and dispense of draught beer, producing compounds that are considered to be off-flavours (10,11). On the other hand, the positive contributions of Brettanomyces to flavour, aroma and attenuation are well recognised in Belgian beers such as lambic and gueuze (12,13). Additionally, this genus has an important role in the secondary conditioning of Trappist beer, English stock ales and American coolship ales (8,14,15).

Brettanomyces possess a high esterase activity, responsible for the biosynthesis of fruit-like esters (16). Additionally, Brettanomyces release flavour-active compounds in response to β -glucosidase activity, which degrades glycosides from hops or fruits to aglycones (e.g. linalool) (17). Moreover, Brettanomyces species produce volatile phenols such as 4-vinylguaiacol (clove flavour) and tetrahydropyridines (mousy/cracker biscuit-like flavour) (Figures 1 and 2) (18–23).

Although the importance of *Brettanomyces* species in wine, beer and bioethanol fermentation is acknowledged (9,24–26), the molecular and biochemical features of these species required for brewing are poorly understood. Thus, the aim of this work is to review the current knowledge of the molecular and biochemical pathways, as well as the biotechnological potential of these yeasts in the brewing industry, with a particular focus on aromatic compound biosynthesis.

Brettanomyces taxonomy

The name *Brettanomyces* is derived from the Greek meaning 'British fungus' (8). However, it was not the first name given to this genus, and it was included as a *Torula* species (27,28). Likewise, species belonging to the genus *Brettanomyces* have undergone many reclassifications over the years and its taxonomy remains poorly defined. Currently, the genus *Brettanomyces* includes six species recognised within the anamorphic (asexual) form and two species within the teleomorph (sexual) form. The anamorphic forms are *B. bruxellensis*, *B. anomalus*, *B. custersianus*,

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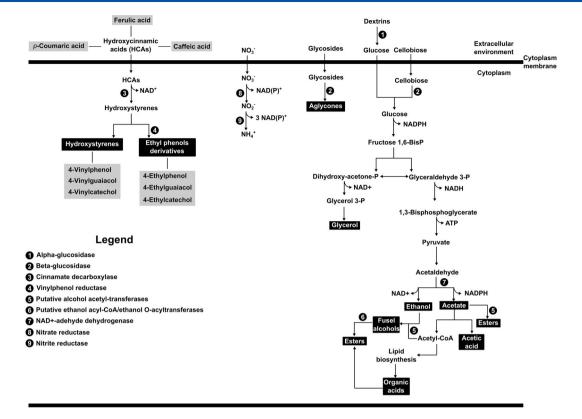


Figure 1. Schematic overview of the main metabolic pathways in *Brettanomyces* species during beer fermentation, focusing on the key enzymes linked to flavour active compound biosynthesis and the regulation of the redox balance (NAD⁺/NADH) associated with the Custers effect. The flavour active compounds are indicated in the figure by grey and black boxes. The main enzymes responsible for the generation of flavour active compounds are indicated by black circles and by the inset legend in the figure.

B. naardenensis, B. nanus and the newly proposed species *B. acidodurans.* In turn, teleomorphic forms include *Dekkera bruxellensis* and *Dekkera anomala (29–32). Brettanomyces* and *Dekkera* are often used as synonyms but are described here as *Brettanomyces*.

Several biochemical and molecular features have been used to reconstruct *Brettanomyces* phylogeny. The data include cellular morphology, physiological comparisons (i.e. metabolism of different carbon sources), single nucleotide polymorphisms in the coenzyme Q gene, G+C content and DNA similarities (e.g. rDNA 26S), isoenzymes and type of conidiogenesis (*29,33–36*). Currently, next generation genome sequencing provides an easier and faster method for comparing species through an analysis of orthologous genes, thus facilitating distinctions among species (*37,38*).

Current phylogeny places this genus within the clade of the methylotropic species *Komagataella (Pichia) pastoris, Kuraishia capsulata* and *Ogataea polymorpha*, thus forming an 'intermediate' evolutionary group between the Saccharomycetaceae and CTG clade (defined by all yeast species that translate the codon CTG as serine instead of leucine) (*37*). However, a multigene phylogeny analysis positioned *K. pastoris* outside of the clade that contains *Brettanomyces (39)*.

The classification and species nomenclature of the *Brettanomyces* genus is confusing, as yeast manufacturers have applied other species names that are incorrect and belong to an older nomenclature. For example, *B. lambicus*, which is an important microorganism in the spontaneously fermented lambic beers and Kombucha (40). However, rather than *B. lambicus*, the yeast is a strain of the species *B. bruxellensis* (41). Other synonyms present in the literature for this species are *B. abstinens*, *B. custersii* and *B.*

intermedius (42–44). Brettanomyces anomalus only has one alternative name in *B. claussenii* (42). Furthermore, the teleomorph form, *D. bruxellensis* has one synonym, which in some studies is reported as *D. intermedia* (36). Since *B. bruxellensis* is the best known species within this genus, the majority of molecular/biochemical data reported here relate to this species.

Brettanomyces vs. Saccharomyces

Although the genus is phylogenetically separated from *S. cerevisiae* by 200 million years, *Brettanomyces* species share numerous phenotypes with *S. cerevisiae* that are of interest to the brewing industry, including biochemical (Crabtree effect and biosynthesis of flavour active compounds; Table 1, Figures 1 and 2) and molecular aspects (transcriptome plasticity to deal with stress inducing environments) (*45*). Both yeast species have converged to similar ecological niches (i.e. fruit peels, beer fermentation vessels and casks etc.) and use carbon sources through fermentation (*45,46*). While probably relying on different biochemical and molecular mechanisms, both species fall within the scope of interest for the beer industry, as they produce large amounts of ethanol by anaerobic fermentation (up to 14% ABV (w/v)), grow in anaerobic, acidic environments, tolerate high osmotic pressures and environments with low levels of nutrients (*45,47*).

Crabtree effect and ethanol yield

Like *S. cerevisiae*, *Brettanomyces* species display the Crabtree effect. Here, under aerobic conditions respiratory development is repressed ('catabolite repression') in the presence of a fermentable



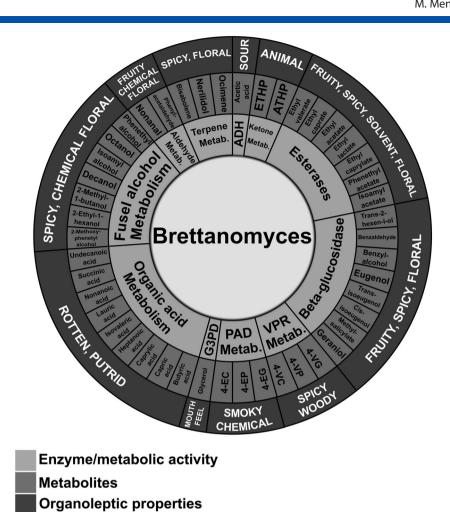


Figure 2. Aroma/flavour wheel containing the major metabolic pathways, enzymes and metabolites produced by different *Brettanomyces* species during beer fermentation. The aroma/flavours, enzymes/metabolic pathways and metabolites are indicated in the wheel by different grey shadows, defined in the legend below the wheel. Abbreviations: ADH, NAD⁺-aldehyde dehydrogenase; ETHP, 2-ethyltetrahydropyridine; ATHP, 2-acetyltetrahydropyridine; VPR, vinylphenol reductase; 4-VG, 4-vinylguaiacol; 4VP, 4-vinylphenol; 4-VC, 4-vinylcatechol; PAD, phenylacrylic acid decarboxylase; 4-EG, 4-ethylguaiacol; 4-EP, 4-ethylphenol; 4-EC, 4-ethylcatechol; G3PD, glycerol 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; metab., metabolism (*116*).

Table 1. An overview of the major genetic, phenotype and metabolic characteristics of brewing strains of *Brettanomyces* species compared with *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Saccharomyces pastorianus*

Characteristic	Brettanomyces species	S. cerevisiae (ale yeast)	S. pastorianus (lager yeast)
Polyploidy (aneuploidy/euploidy) genome	Yes	Yes	Yes
Nitrate metabolism	Yes	No	No
Pseudohyphae formation (pellicle/biofilm)	Yes	Yes	No
Crabtree effect	Yes	Yes	Yes
Custer effect	Yes	No	No
α -Glucosidase activity	Yes	Yes	No
Sucrose consumption	Yes	Yes	Yes
Glucose metabolism	Yes	Yes	Yes
Fructose metabolism	Yes	Yes	Yes
Maltose metabolism	Yes	Yes	Yes
Maltotriose metabolism	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dextrin metabolism	Yes	Yes ^a	No
Cellobiose metabolism	Yes	No	No
Galactose metabolism	Yes	Yes	Yes
^a Diastatic <i>S. cerevisiae</i> brewing yeasts			

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carbon source at concentrations >0.3% (w/v; Table 1) (48). The Crabtree effect allows the yeast to rapidly assimilate glucose and generate ethanol, thereby inhibiting the growth of competing microorganisms. The Crabtree effect is part of the 'make–accumulate–consume' strategy used by microorganisms, where – under aerobic conditions – ethanol is consumed through respiration after glucose depletion (45,48). The Crabtree effect also provides more ATP than aerobic metabolism when high concentrations of glucose are available owing to the fast breakdown of glucose through glycolytic/fermentative pathways (48).

Genes linked to rapid growth (encoding enzymes involved in rRNA biosynthesis, the formation of pyrimidines, RNA helicases and proteins linked to RNA biogenesis and transport), respiration (encoding mitochondrial ribosomal proteins) and proteins necessary for the mitochondrial respiratory complex and ion transport to cytochrome oxidase) have a fixed promoter motif (AATTTT) in closely related species of S. cerevisiae and B. bruxellensis (i.e. Kluyveromyces lactis, Ashbya qossypii, Candida albicans, Debaryomyces hansenii and K. waltii). Nevertheless, S. cerevisiae and Brettanomyces underwent promoter restructuring, resulting in a loss of this motif in those genes associated with respiration. The AATTTT motif is absent in a permanent position in genes linked to respiration in S. cerevisiae and B. bruxellensis (~90% of genes). Thus, a significant decrease in respiration associated gene expression has been observed during cell growth in a medium containing fermentable carbon sources, as the fermentation associated genes are expressed at higher levels than genes associated with respiration (48,49).

The Crabtree effect is an important characteristic in emergent unconventional yeasts used in the brewing industry, as it confers the ability to produce ethanol in appreciable amounts (5–15% ABV). Ethanol yield can be >14% (v/v) in fermentations using *B. bruxellensis (48)*. Therefore, although there will be an impact on flavour, *Brettanomyces* can be employed in the manufacture of high gravity beers that contain a high concentration of ethanol (49–51).

Custer effect

Anaerobiosis in Brettanomyces species inhibits the fermentation of alucose to ethanol (52). Glucose fermentation is stimulated in the presence of oxygen or organic (H⁺) acceptors (e.g. acetone, acetoin and dihydroxyacetone; Figure 1) (52,53). The inability to ferment sugars in the absence of oxygen was termed the 'negative Pasteur effect' or the Custers effect (54,55). The biochemical and molecular mechanisms that drive the Custers effect are still not fully understood. However, the continuous production of acetate from acetaldehyde promotes the accumulation of NADH, causing a redox imbalance that inhibits glycolysis and fermentation. This imbalance prolongs a lag phase when cells switch from an aerobic to an anaerobic environment, which can be ameliorated by the addition of H^+ acceptors. In the presence of oxygen/ H^+ acceptors, NADH and NADPH are oxidised during aerobic metabolism, restoring the redox balance (56). Additionally, Brettanomyces cells express NADH ubiquinone reductase (part of mitochondrial complex I) at high levels when growing in semi-anaerobic medium (57). Thus, in semi-anaerobic environments, more NADH generating enzymes are expressed than NAD⁺ generating enzymes, which explains why the NAD⁺/NADH imbalance occurs (58). Nevertheless, some pathways partially and slowly restore the NAD⁺/NADH balance. These mechanisms involve reoxidation of NADH, thereby providing NAD⁺ for the metabolism of

glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate to 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate during glycolysis. One of these features is the ability of the yeast to utilise nitrate as a sole nitrogen source, since nitrate assimilation and metabolism require NADH and NADPH as electron donors (Figure 1). Interestingly, nitrate metabolism abolishes the Custers effect, therefore improving fermentation in anaerobic environments (*59*). Moreover, reactions involving NADH/NADPH reoxidation include the metabolism of hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*-coumaric and ferulic acids) present in beer (*19*).

Saccharomyces cerevisiae does not display the Custers effect, suggesting that the fermentation associated characteristics of *Brettanomyces* evolved in a different way. The *Brettanomyces* phenotype is strictly oxygen linked, and therefore high levels of dissolved oxygen in wort should be considered to encourage growth and metabolism, particularly when *Brettanomyces* is chosen for primary fermentation (50,60).

Acetic acid synthesis

Brettanomyces species may synthesise considerable quantities of acetic acid and potentially use this compound as a nonfermentative carbon source (Figure 1) (61-64). Acetic acid acidifies the medium, inhibiting the growth of potential microbial competitors. Brettanomyces bruxellensis can grow at pH 2.3, compared with S. cerevisiae, which is limited to pH 3.2 (45). High acetic acid yields in Brettanomyces are associated with fermentative metabolism. Acetaldehyde is produced from pyruvate and enzymatically oxidised to acetate in response to NAD⁺-aldehyde dehydrogenase activity (Figure 1). Since acetyl-CoA synthetase activity is strongly repressed in sugar rich environments in response to the Crabtree effect, excess quantities of acetic acid are generated once the acetaldehyde is channelled towards acetate biosynthesis in place of acetyl-CoA (Figure 1) (65). Acetate biosynthesis is induced in B. anomala IGC 5153 in the presence of 2% (w/v) glucose, while acetic acid is not synthesised in culture medium with low sugar concentrations (65). In contrast, acetogenic B. abstinens (currently B. bruxellensis) reportedly shows NAD⁺-aldehyde dehydrogenase activity even in the presence of low glucose concentrations, i.e. 0.3% (w/v) (52).

The presence of acetic acid is considered a positive characteristic in some types of beer, particularly in spontaneously fermented barrel aged beers such as lambic, gueuze, Flanders and Coolship ales. The amount of acetic acid produced is related to how the process is managed, particularly the choice of yeast strain and initial wort oxygenation. A high oxygen concentration stimulates the growth of *Brettanomyces* and the synthesis of acetic acid, and accordingly wort with high initial levels of oxygen will contain higher concentrations of acetic acid and form more acetate dependent esters (60,66).

Volatile esters and Brettanomyces

Esters are one of the main flavour compounds in top-fermented (ale) and bottom-fermented (lager) beers and are important in spontaneously fermented lambic beers (67–70). During beer production, several esters are produced in a yeast strain dependent manner, and their presence impacts beers either positively (fruity aroma) or negatively (solvent aroma, excessively fruity). The initial conditions of beer fermentation, such as temperature, wort composition and oxygenation, directly affect the overall concentration of esters (67–69,71).



Two groups of volatile esters are present in beer: the acetate esters and medium chain fatty acid (MCFA) ethyl esters. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has four enzymes that are responsible for acetate and MCFA ester formation. However, ester synthesising enzymes in *Brettanomyces* species have yet to be studied. In *S. cerevisiae*, acetate ester production depends on two enzymes: alcohol acetyl-transferase I and II (AATases I and II). MCFA ester production requires ethanol acyl-CoA/ethanol *O*-acyltransferase (AEATase) activity (Figures 1 and 2) (*68,72–80*).

While biochemical information about ester biosynthesis in Brettanomyces is unavailable, the data suggest that B. bruxellensis is capable of producing large amounts of acetate and MCFA esters (Figure 2). These esters include ethyl acetate, ethyl lactate, isoamyl acetate and phenethyl acetate (Figure 2), which are mainly found in lambic beers and American coolship ales (16,67,81). In addition, Brettanomyces accumulates fatty acids including octanoic (C8) to dodecanoic acid (C12) and converts them to their respective esters, suggesting elevated β -oxidation activity. The ester levels present in beer are influenced by the (possible) presence of acetic and lactic acid bacteria, whose fermentation by-products are substrates for ester synthesis (15,67). Although the formation of acetate esters was experimentally quantified utilising commercial beers supplemented with maltooligosaccharides for fermentation by eight strains of Brettanomyces bruxellensis, little is known about the Brettanomyces ester composition in pure culture fermentation (82).

Brettanomyces and the synthesis of aromatic phenolic compounds

Volatile phenols comprise a group of aromatic molecules that are often found in fermented alcoholic beverages, including beer (83). Their presence arises from the metabolism of barley and hop derived hydroxycinnamic acids during fermentation by bacteria and yeast. Like esters, volatile phenols contribute to aroma (spicy, clove and smoky) and off-flavours (phenolic, medicinal, stable and barnyard; Figure 2). Aromatic phenols are an important part of the organoleptic properties of different beer styles, such as American coolship ale, Flanders red ale, lambic, fruit lambic and Oud Bruin (all containing *Brettanomyces*) (60,84).

Brettanomyces species have the ability to produce these strong aromatic compounds using cinnamate decarboxylase and vinylphenol reductase (VPR) (Figures 1 and 2) (19,85-87). The synthesis of volatile phenols occurs in two enzymatic sequential steps: (a) decarboxylation of *p*-coumaric and ferulic acids to their corresponding hydroxystyrenes (4-vinylphenol and 4-vinylguaiacol) by cinnamate decarboxylase; and (b) reduction of these molecules to 4-ethylphenol and 4-ethylguaiacol by vinylphenol reductase (Figure 1). In addition, 4-ethylcatechol is formed from caffeic acid in low amounts (Figure 1) (18,22). Notably, some S. cerevisiae strains also form hydroxystyrenes from hydroxycinnamic acids but are unable to further transform these compounds to the phenols. Hydroxystyrene synthesis arises from both phenyl acrylic acid decarboxylase (PAD1) and a putative ferulic acid decarboxylase (FDC1), which is a cinnamate decarboxylase (Figure 1) (88). The phenotype of S. cerevisiae strains that contain enzymes responsible for hydroxystyrene synthesis is POF⁺ (phenolic off-flavour).

Although the genes in *Brettanomyces* required for the phenolic biosynthesis have not been fully identified, two key enzymes, *DbPAD* and *DbPAD2*, with phenylacrylic acid decarboxylase activity are responsible for producing 4-vinylphenol from *p*-coumaric acid

(89,90). In order to better understand the biosynthesis of phenolic compounds in *Brettanomyces*, it is still necessary to identify all enzymes that transform hydroxystyrenes to their ethyl derivatives.

The production of ethylphenols strongly depends on the strain and environment (91). As shown by Kosel *et al.* (21) in a pure culture fermentation, hydroxycinnamic acids are quickly and completely converted to vinylphenols. However, a 30% decrease in the conversion to ethylphenols was obtained in mixed cultures with *Brettanomyces* and *S. cerevisiae*. Thus, the authors concluded that *Brettanomyces* have a metabolic preference for hydroxycinnamic acids instead of direct uptake of vinylphenols synthesised by *S. cerevisiae*. This hypothesis was corroborated by showing that VPR gene was expressed at lower levels in mixed fermentation cultures, where smaller amounts of 4-vinylphenol and 4-vinylguaiacol were available (21). In a recent study variations of 0.28–1.13 mg/L of 4-ethylphenol and 0.52–5.8 mg/L of 4-ethylguaiacol in lambic beers (92) were found.

Brettanomyces-associated α - and β -glucosidase activity and flavour-active aglycones

Numerous plant sensorial molecules have been identified and many of those compounds are glycosylated (e.g. flavonols, anthocyanins, monoterpenes and norisoprenoidic compounds) and flavourless (93). On the other hand, the degradation of glycosylated molecules in aglycones is directly linked to fruity and/or floral aromas and flavours in beer (Figures 1 and 2) (93). Some Saccharomyces strains metabolise glycosides to aglycones using exo- β -glucanase (e.g. Exg1p). However, the metabolism of glycosides apparently occurs at a higher rate in Brettanomyces species. Daenen *et al.* identified a cell associated β -glucosidase with a broader activity in a lambic isolated Brettanomyces custersii strain LD72 (17). The β -glucosidase enzyme of *B. custersii* LD72 releases different aglycones, such as trans-2-hexen-l-ol, benzaldehyde, benzyl alcohol, eugenol, trans- and cis-isoeugenol, methyl salicylate and geraniol from the conversion of glycosides present in sour cherries (94). This study also provided preliminary evidence that amygdalin hydrolysis, resulting in the production of benzaldehyde, benzyl alcohol and benzyl acetate, occurs in response to the activity of glycoside hydrolase in some Brettanomyces species (Figure 2) (94).

With regard to new characteristics in beer, the biological transformation of glycosides from hops and fruits to aroma active aglycones could be offered by the use of Brettanomyces strains (60). Interestingly, extracellular β -glucosidase activity in B. bruxellensis is also associated with resveratrol production, a potential antioxidant, antimicrobial and anti-ageing compound (95). Additionally, the presence of β -glucosidase allows Brettanomyces species to use cellobiose - from the wood in oak barrels - as a carbon source. The last phase of lambic fermentation (13-24 months after the start of fermentation) is mainly dominated by B. bruxellensis, supported by the cellobiose released by wooden casks (14,96). The capacity to utilise cellobiose induces Brettanomyces species to form biofilms in the cask, allowing the breweries to use this Brettanomyces biofilm to contribute 'Brett' characteristics into the beer (50). Notably, the characteristic associated with the wort over-attenuating properties of Brettanomyces species is derived from the α glucosidase activity, leading to the formulation of low calorie beers (97).

Genome organisation in *Brettanomyces* species

The genomes sequenced from different *Brettanomyces* species are currently few in number and this limits the assessment of the taxonomic diversity of the *Brettanomyces* genus. The major genome information that is available for researchers has been obtained from *B. bruxellensis* (strains AWRI1499, CB52499, AWRI1608, AWRI1613, YV397, CB52796, BioProject PRJEB11548 and PRJEB21262) (*37,46,98*). The genome sequences from *B. anomalus* (YV396) and *B. naardenensis* (CB57540) (*98*) have also been reported. The lack of more genome sequences and especially a well defined sequence annotation for the *Brettanomyces* taxon has restricted other high throughput studies, including the transcriptome and proteome. Despite the lack of genome data, some initial studies have been performed by focusing on the genome structure and organisation.

B. bruxellensis has ~5400 genes with similar introns to S. cerevisiae and other hemiascomycetes (~4% of the genes) (37,99). Many of these genes encode enzymes and transporters related to nitrogen and lipid metabolism, allowing the yeast to survive in environments with low nutrients (37). Like S. cerevisiae, the Brettanomyces genus is able to form petite mutants resulting from mutations in the mtDNA that render them respiratory deficient (100). In terms of chromosome number, four to nine chromosomes have been identified in *B. bruxellensis* strains, with lengths from <1to >6 Mbp (101). From the comparison of allele proportions at heterozygous sites for the five B. bruxellensis strains (AWRI1499, CBS2499, AWRI1608, AWRI1613 and YV397), a triploid genome has been suggested for AWRI1499 and CBS2499 and a diploid genome for AWRI1613 and YV397 (102). B. bruxellensis strains with a triploid genome harbour two copies of a common chromosome and an unusual set of other chromosomes (Table 1). The presence of the third chromosome copy is probably linked to sulphite resistance in wineries (102). Similarly, its occurrence provides selective advantages in nutrient-scarce and stressful environments, such as beer, where limited amounts of carbohydrates and amino acids are present, thus exerting a strong positive selection for the maintenance of polyploidy (103). Additionally, Brettanomyces polyploidy points to distinct hybridisation events that occurred at different geographical sites. Furthermore, the plasticity in the chromosomal structure with regard to unusual centromeres reinforces the occurrence of hybridisation (103). Avramova et al. reported three genetic clusters for B. bruxellensis strains through an analysis of 1488 isolates using micro-satellite genotyping: AWRI1499-like, AWRI1608-like and CBS 2499-like groups (103). Interestingly, Brettanomyces wine and beer strains have different chromosome structures that are probably linked to phenotypic differences related to adaptive advantages in wine and beer fermentation environments (103). Also, B. bruxellensis can be considered a diploid-triploid complex taxon with coexistence of sub-populations containing different numbers of ploidy (103).

Genes and transcription factors modulated under stress conditions in *Brettanomyces*

Brettanomyces species have been reported to tolerate more stress than *S. cerevisiae*. Indeed, *Brettanomyces* exhibits growth after primary fermentation by *S. cerevisiae* in both beer and wine, which contain high levels of ethanol and little or no dissolved oxygen



(104–108). The capacity of *Brettanomyces* species to survive such environments is linked to the cell wall structure/composition, and the presence of proteins involved in adhesion, cell wall budding and pseudohyphal growth (37,102). Moreover, *Brettanomyces* can use nitrogen sources more effectively than *S. cerevisiae* (109,110). Nitrate metabolism could be important in supporting *Brettanomyces* in beer environments as hops can provide substantial quantities of nitrate (up to 87 mg/mL) to the wort (102,111). However, not all *Brettanomyces* strains can use nitrate as their sole nitrogen source (112). The ability to use nitrate is due to the expression of genes that encode nitrate transporter (YNT1), nitrate reductase (YNR1) and nitrite reductase (YNR1), along with two transcription factors important for nitrate use (YNA1 and YNA2).

Several genes encoding membrane associated proteins involved in alternative carbon metabolism are present in the genus, allowing *Brettanomyces* to use chitin, *N*-acetylglucosamine, galactose, mannose and lactose (*37,112*). Moreover, important genes involved in stress tolerance, such as *ATP1*, *ERG6* and *VPS34*, along with the stress regulators *MSN4*, *SNF1*, *HSP82* and *NTH1*, have been characterised in *B. bruxellensis* (*47,113*). The ability of *Brettanomyces* species to utilise trace amounts of nutrients provides some explanation for why this genus is able to survive in situations where *Saccharomyces* species are unable to survive (*108*). Importantly, *Brettanomyces* species have the capacity to tolerate sulphur derived compounds, particularly sulphur dioxide (*101,114*).

Conclusions

Brettanomyces is a genus that is attracting increased attention in the brewing world. The biochemical and molecular resources described here suggest that the potential of Brettanomyces species and strains exceeds our current knowledge. Consumer interest in sour, strong and highly hopped beers is increasing and Brettanomyces strains have the potential to contribute to production of these beer styles. The capacity of these species to tolerate environments with low nutrients, low pH and elevated stressassociated factors, such as high osmotic pressure, ethanol concentration and low levels of the nutrients, suggests their broad applicability in the brewing industry. Additionally, Brettanomyces species produce a diversity of phenolic and acid compounds. Furthermore, the ability of Brettanomyces to produce volatile compounds, such as esters and aglycones, could be explored to create a broad variety of biotransformation by-products from herbs and hop beers.

Finally, increasing interest in the biotechnological applications of yeast intra- and inter-specific hybridisation has been noted. Guided hybridisation has been performed under laboratory conditions to elucidate the evolutionary origins of yeast species and design tailor-made yeast strains for various biotechnology applications (*115*). *Brettanomyces*, which probably resulted from hybridisation owing to the occurrence of the triploid genome and chromosome abnormalities, might serve as a chassis to design new hybrids with biochemical and molecular resources that differ from other known yeast species.

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