Title: Artisanal and farmers bread-making practices differently shape fungal species community

composition in French sourdoughs

Running title: Bread-making practices as a driver of yeast species community composition

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36   **Abstract**

37   Preserving microbial diversity in food systems is one of the many challenges to be met to

38   achieve food security and quality. Although industrialization led to the selection and spread of specific

39   fermenting microbial strains, there are still ongoing artisanal processes that may allow the conservation

40   of a wider diversity of microbial species. We examined whether the diversity of artisanal practices could

41   lead to an increased level in fungal species diversity for bread making. We used an interdisciplinary

42   participatory research approach including bakers, psycho-sociologists and microbiologists to analyze

43   French bread-making practices and describe fungal communities in naturally fermented sourdough of

44   27 bakers and 12 farmer bakers. Bread-making practices were classified in two groups: the farmer-like

45   practices group and the artisanal-like practices group. Surprisingly, the well-known bakery yeast,

46   *Saccharomyces cerevisiae,* was dominant (i.e. with a relative abundance over 50%) in only 24% of

47   sourdoughs while other yeast species of the closely related *Kazachstania* genus were dominant in 54%

48   of sourdoughs. Bread-making practices were found to drive the distribution of yeast species. The most

49   remarkable difference was the occurrence of *Kazachstania humilis* in sourdoughs made with artisanal-

50   like practices and the occurrence of *Kazachstania bulderi* in sourdoughs made with farmer-like

51   practices. Phenotyping of these two species in laboratory sourdough mimicking media revealed

52   phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-sourdough strains for *K. humilis* but not for *K.*

53   *bulderi*. Overall, our results showed that preserving bread-making practices diversity allows the

54   preservation of a higher taxonomic and phenotypic diversity in microbial communities.

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Introduction

Humans started to ferment food before the Neolithic using naturally fermenting microbial communities. In the 19th century, the industrialization and the increase of knowledge in microbiology resulted in changes in fermented food practices with the use of starters. This selection led to a reduction in species diversity and genetic diversity for fermented food processing and limited *in situ* conservation of microbial communities in industrialized systems [1–3]. Domestication of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* for the production of beer, wine, cheese, leavened bread, that of the fungi *Penicillium roqueforti* or *Penicillium camemberti* for cheese production or that of the fungus *Aspergillus oryzae* for rice or soybean fermented products are well studied cases [1–10]. The recent renewed interest in artisanal practices that make use of naturally fermenting microbial communities could promote again the conservation of microbial diversity. However, the effect of artisanal practices on the distribution of microbial species remains poorly documented.

Among fermented foods, bread is still a symbol deeply engrained in the history, religious rites and medicine of several cultures. The origin of bread likely originated 14 000 years ago, suggesting that bread was made long before plant domestication [11]. Since the Neolithic, bread history is intimately combined with the evolution of cereals, bread-making associated tools and the advent of Mediterranean civilizations [12]. Leavened bread was traditionally made with flour, water and a fermenting agent, which was either a fermenting beverage or a fermenting dough, called sourdough. This sourdough was generally initiated from a mixture of flour and water, naturally colonized by lactic acid bacteria (LAB) and yeasts. Sourdough was then either maintained from one bread-making process to the other or initiated again and again, depending on the craftsman [13, 14]. In the 19th century, the use of yeast starters made of *S. cerevisiae,* often called « baker's yeast », spread as an alternative to sourdough. Nowadays, *S. cerevisiae* industrial starters are more frequently used than sourdoughs, although the latter are gaining interest. A recent study showed that industrial populations of *S. cerevisiae* have followed a different evolutionary path than sourdough populations of *S. cerevisiae* [10]. Both have been domesticated by humans and have improved their fermentation performance in a sourdough-mimicking

medium. However, industrial and sourdough strains of *S. cerevisiae* differ genetically and phenotypically, indicating that sourdough use contributes to the conservation of bread related *S. cerevisiae* lineages [10].

Beyond *S. cerevisiae*, sourdough can also host other yeast species. To date, more than 40 yeast species have been detected in sourdough [1, 15, 16]. The most frequently encountered species are *Wickerhamomyces anomalus* and *Kazachstania humilis*. Several other species in the genus *Kazachstania* (*Kazachstania barnettii*, *Kazachstania exigua*, *Kazachstania bulderi*, *Kazachstania unispora*, *Kazachstania servazzii*) as well as several species in the polyphyletic genus Pichia have also been recurrently detected. The factors that determine the distribution of these species are still unknown. A recent large-scale study of 500 sourdoughs from four continents found no effect of geography or factors related to bread-making practices such as age of sourdough, storage location, feeding frequency, grain intake, house characteristics [17]. However, most of the sourdoughs in this study were made by private citizens who probably did not maintain the sourdough microbial community in the same way as a professional baker. To our knowledge, no studies have been conducted to date to investigate the effect of bakers' bread-making practices on sourdough yeast community composition.

In France, sourdough breads are made both by bakers and farmers who also grow and mill their own wheat. The number of farmers-bakers has increased in the 2000s with two motives: to grow wheat varieties meeting their needs and to assert their independence from industry [18]. Although farmer-bakers are less numerous than bakers, they participate in the renewed interest in local wheat varieties and artisanal know-how, which may contribute to the conservation of both socio-cultural diversity and microbial diversity.

Here, we used a participatory research approach involving psycho-sociologists, biologists, bio-statisticians, bakers and farmers-bakers to study whether and how bakers and farmers-bakers contribute to the preservation of socio-cultural and fungal species diversity in sourdough microbial community.

Materials and methods

A total of 27 bakers and 12 farmer-bakers participated to the study. They were all making bread with organic flour except five. All of them sent sourdough to the lab for microbiological and metabolic analysis. Among them, 36 described their bread-making practices as well.

A questionnaire survey, face-to-face interviews and focus-groups to collect bread-making practices

Data on bread-making practices were collected through a questionnaire survey, interviews and focus groups. The collected variables were related to *i)* the ingredients origin : wheat varieties types (ancient populations also called landraces / modern varieties), whether they produced flour from their own wheat, whether they had their own mill or use an external mill, water origin, *ii)* the sourdough recipe: its age, its hydration state, the origin of the chief sourdough (sample of dough or sourdough), the number of back-sloppings before bread making and per week, the temperature of water used for back-sloppings, *iii)* their bread-making practices: the number of bread makings per week, the percentage of sourdough, flour and salt in bread dough, the kneading methods, the total duration of fermentation and the addition of baker's yeast in dough.

Sourdoughs samples, enumeration and strain isolation

Sourdoughs were collected before kneading and referred to as final sourdoughs (Table S1). On the day of collection, they were sent to the lab where yeast and bacteria were enumerated and isolated as in [19, 20], and sourdoughs stored at -20°C in sterile vials for non- culture based analysis. Ethics and rights associated with sourdough collection and strains isolation have been respected.

Sourdough acidity and metabolic analyses

For each sourdough, three independent 1-g replicates were analyzed. pH and Total Titrable Acidity were measured as described in [20]. Organic acids, alcohol and sugars concentrations (expressed as g/kg of sourdough) were analyzed by liquid chromatography using an HPLC HP 1100 LC system (Agilent

technologies, Santa clara, CA, USA) equipped with a refractive index detector (RID Agilent G1382A)

and a UV detector (Agilent G1314A). Two different columns were used, a Rezex ROA-organic acids

column and a Rezex RPM-monosaccharide column (SDVB – Pb+2 8%, 300x7.8mm, Phenomenex,

Torrance, CA, USA). The details of the experiments are described in supplementary information

(Method S1).

Yeast species identification

The Internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) ribosomal DNA of each 1216 yeast isolates was amplified by

PCR from chromosomal DNA, either by using primers ITS1F and ITS2 [21, 22], or primers NSA3 and

58A2R [19, 22]. For isolates unidentified with the ITS1 region alone, DNA was extracted according to

MasterPure Yeast DNA purification kit (Epicentre, Epibio). PCR reactions targeting partial genes, the

D1D2 region of the large subunit of rRNA (LSU), a part of the RNA polymerase II large subunit

encoding gene (*RPB1)*, a part of the RNA polymerase II encoding gene (*RPB2)*, a part of the actin

encoding gene *Act1* and Transcriptional Elongation Factor TEF were performed. To discriminate three

specific isolates, PCR on genes *GHD1*, *FSY1*, *URA3*, *DRC1*, *MET2* were performed [23–26] (Table S2).

All PCR products were sent to be sequenced with Sanger sequencing (Eurofins, Germany). Species were

identified using NCBI [27], YeastIP [28] and a personal database, which was constructed after *ITS1*,

RPB2, LSU sequencing of all 33-yeast species reportedly found in sourdoughs in the literature [19].

Sourdough DNA extraction, MiSeq sequencing, bioinformatics

The ITS1 region was targeted with the PCR primers ITS1-F (5′- CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA -

3′) and ITS2 (5'-GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3').

The sequencing run was performed with MiSeq Reagent Kit v3. 2015 [20]. Sequences were analyzed

through FROGS "Find Rapidly OTU with Galaxy Solution" [29] and home-made pipelines. Overlapped

reads were merged with Flash [30] with a minimum overlap of 10 nucleotides, a maximum overlap of

300 nucleotides and a maximum mismatch density of 0.1. Primers were removed with Cutadapt [31]

and data were cleaned with Sickle with quality-threshold and length-threshold equal to 20 [32]. Reads

were clustered with Swarm (d=3) [33] and chimeras deleted with VSEARCH [34]. Sequences were then

filtered on minimum abundance of 0.005% of all sequences. From the OTU's abundance table and for

each OTU, the taxonomic affiliation using UNITE Version 7.1, Release 2016-11-20 [35], YeastIP [28]

and our own databases [19] was obtained by blasting OTUs representative sequences against each

database.

Phenotypic analysis of yeast strains

Fermentation performance of the two most frequently encountered *Kazachstania* species were assessed

as described in [10] for *S. cerevisiae*. Fifteen sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* and 16 sourdough strains

of *K. humilis* were included in the analysis. *Kazachstania bulderi* strains were coming from sourdoughs

B4, B12, B15, B17 B20, B21, while *K. humilis* strains were coming from sourdoughs B2, B5, B6, B7,

B10, B17. From one to three strains per sourdough were analyzed in the experiment. In addition, four

strains of *K. bulderi* (strain MUCL 38021 isolated from silage in Namur, Belgium, strain MUCL 54694

isolated from ensilage in Erezée, Belgium, strain NRRL Y-27205 and strain CLIB 604 isolated from

maize silage in the Netherland) and three strains of *K. humilis* (strain CBS 7754 isolated from food

dressing, strain CLIB 1323 isolated from bantu beer, and strain CBS 2664 isolated from alpechin) which

were coming from non-sourdough habitats, were added as control to test the effect of habitat of origin.

Each strain was phenotyped at least in triplicate leading to a total of 145 fermentations distributed over

two blocks. Briefly, fermentations were carried out at 24 °C with constant magnetic stirring (300 rpm)

during 24 h. CO_2 release was measured by weight loss every 40 min using an automated robotic system

[36]. At the end of fermentation, population size and cell viability were determined by flow cytometer

(C6 cytometer, Accuri, BD Biosciences) as described in [37].

Data analyses

To analyse bread-making practices, a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) and hierarchical

clustering (complete linkage clustering method) on principal components based on the first two axes of

the MCA were performed using the FactoMineR R package [38].

To analyse fungal community, weighted Unifrac distances between sourdough communities were

computed from a rooted phylogenetic tree based on the OTUs sequences using the R-packages Phyloseq

and GUniFrac [39, 40]. Phylogenetic sequences were aligned with Clustalo and phylogenetic tree were

built with the parsimony algorithm, with 100 replicates bootstraps, pairwise ktuple-distances with

Seaview [41]. Different roots were tested (*Sporidiobolales sp.*, *Bullera globospora*, *Trichosporon*

asahii, *Udeniomyces pyricola*). Tree architecture did not change with the root. It did not fit the expected

phylogeny and, notably, some *Ascomycota* were misclassified among the *Basidiomycota*. However, the

dominant sourdough species belonging to the *Saccharomycetaceae* family were clustered according to

expected clades or subclades, except that *K. servazzi* and *K. unispora* were grouped in a clade closer to

Saccharomyces species than to other *Kazachstania* species. Using the Unifrac distances matrix, we

performed a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) and clustered sourdough communities using the first

two axes of the PCoA, and the complete linkage clustering method (hclust R function). To check the

sensitivity of our analysis to this misclassification, we performed the same analyses without the

sourdoughs that had one misclassified species representing more than 10% of their reads, *i.e.* sourdoughs

B20, B41, B42, and B44 and found the same clustering [40].

For each sourdough, the species richness, Chao1, Shannon and Simpson indexes were computed, and

the Shannon and Simpson indices values were converted to the effective number of species per

sourdough. This number was estimated from the Shannon diversity index as $exp^{Shannon index}$ and from

the Simpson diversity index as $\frac{1}{1-Simpson index}$ [42, 43]. For probability estimates, the exact 95%

confidence intervals were computed using a binomial distribution.

To study the link between microbial species diversity and bakery practices, a univariate Permutational

Multivariate Analysis (PERMANOVA) on the Unifrac distance matrix was performed for each bakery

practice variable. We performed univariate analysis on the 30 bakers who had less than 8 missing values

among the 29 bread-making practices variables and adjusted the p-value using FDR correction to

account for multiple testing. In addition, independence exact Fisher tests between the variable providing

fungal community PCoA groups and each of the bread-making practices variables were performed.

Multiple testing was accounted for using the False Discovery Rate method [44].

The link between the baker practices group, the fungal community group or the yeast dominant species

and the variation of each quantitative variable (microbial density, pH, TTA, metabolite concentration)

was tested with the following mixed effect model: $Y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + B_j + \varepsilon_{ijk}$ with $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$, where

α_i is the effect of the fungal community group i modelled as a fixed effect and B_j is the effect of

sourdough j modelled as a random effect and k represents the measurement replicates. For sourdough

hydration rate, the variable was arcsin transformed but sourdough effect was not included in the model

because no repetition was obtained from any sourdough. The model parameters were estimated using

the lmertest R package [45]. To test the fixed effects, we used likelihood ratio tests. Multiple

comparisons of means were performed using Tukey tests with the multcomp package. p-values were

all adjusted for multiple testing with the FDR method. The geographical structuration was tested with a

Mantel test on the Unifrac distances matrix and the geographical distances matrix computed with the

package geosphere [46] and ade4 [47].

Finally, the phenotypic diversity of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis* strains coming from sourdough and non-

sourdough habitats were analyzed. Population size and mortality rate after 27h of fermentation measured

by flow cytometer were used as proxy for absolute fitness. The cumulative CO_2 production curve was

calculated and the kinetics of CO_2 production rate over time was estimated by successive linear

smoothing over 5 points. Four fermentation parameters were then estimated: the maximum CO_2 release

(CO_2max, in g/L) was estimated by the maximum of the cumulative CO_2 production curve, the

fermentation latency-phase time (t1g, in h) was estimated by the time between inoculation and the

beginning of the fermentation calculated as 1g/L of CO_2 release, the maximum CO_2 production rate

(Vmax in g/L/h) was estimated by the maximum of the CO_2 production rate kinetic and the time of the

Vmax (tVmax in h) as the time between inoculation and the Vmax. Hence, the phenotype of each strain

was characterized by six quantitative variables called "phenotype variables" below: its population size,

its mortality rate and the four fermentation parameters. To determine whether the origin of the strain

(sourdough or non-sourdough) had an impact on strain phenotype, each log-transformed quantitative

variable was analyzed separately using a mixed linear model as described below. The experimental

design was unbalanced between the two blocks with very few non-sourdough strains in one of the two

blocks. Therefore, for each phenotype variable, we first estimated the block effect with a subset of 8

strains cultivated in both blocks using a linear model with two fixed effects : the strain and the block.

Additive models were used as the interactions terms were not significantly different from zero after

adjusting p-values with the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Second, each phenotype variable was

corrected for the block effect and analyzed with the mixed effect model: $Y_{ijkl} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} +$

$Z_k + \epsilon_{ijkl}$ where Y_{ijkl} represents the log-transformed phenotype variable corrected for the block effect

for the strain k, from species i $(i=1,2)$, sampled in environment j $(j=1,2)$, observed for replicate l. μ

represents the mean of the phenotype variable, α_i the additive effect of species i, β_j the additive effect of

environment j, and γ_{ij} their interaction. Z_k represents the gaussian random effect of strain k with $Z_k \sim$

$N(0, \sigma_s^2)$ and ϵ_{ijkl} the gaussian residuals with $\epsilon_{ijkl} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. For each species i, the impact of the

environment was quantified using the contrast $\Delta_i = \beta_S + \gamma_{i,S} - \beta_{NS} - \gamma_{i,NS}$ with NS standing for "non-

sourdough" and "S" for '"sourdough" and tests $(H_0 = \Delta_i = 0, H_1: \Delta_i \neq 0)$ were performed and p-values

were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. As log-transformed data were analyzed, the

exponential of this contrast can be interpreted as the ratio between the sourdough mean and the non-

sourdough mean. Confidence intervals and tests were performed using the doBy R-package.

All statistics and plots (ggplot2 [48], leaflet package [49], with minor esthetical adjustment with

Inkscape) have been done with R. Data and scripts are shared on Zenodo.

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Results

Two groups of bread-making practices

A total of 39 French bakers producing natural sourdough bread and distributed all over France participated to the study (Table S1). The bread-making practices of 35 of them were collected through one or several methods: personal interviews (with 12 bakers), focus groups (3 groups), observation during break-making workshops (2 workshops), and an online/phone survey (36 bakers). The general process of sourdough bread making is presented in Figure 1. We analyzed 28 variables around this general bread making process, describing variations of the practices at all steps of the bread making process, from wheat grains to baked bread (Figure S1). Four bakers (B6, B10, B19, B20) who did not provide enough information about their practices were excluded from the multivariate analysis. According to a hierarchical clustering on principal components (HCPC), the 32 other bakers clustered into two groups corresponding to two main types of bread-making practices (Figure 2). The first group, hereafter termed "farmer-like" practices group, includes 6 bakers and 11 farmers-bakers using the following practices: low bread production (<500 kg per week, 81% of the bakers of the "farmer-like" group), use of ancient wheat populations (56%), manual kneading (63%), working at ambient temperature (88%), long fermentation periods (more than 4 hours for 88%), and no use of commercial baker's yeast (88%). In addition, they tend to make their chief sourdough from dough after kneading (75%). The second group, hereafter called "artisanal-like" practices group consists of 12 bakers and 4 farmer-bakers having more intensive practices, characterized by a large bread production (>500 kg per week, 81%), mechanical kneading (100%), use of modern wheat varieties (63%), working at ambient temperature (56%), using commercial yeast starters in addition to sourdough for bread making or using commercial yeast starters for pastries and buns making (81%). In this second group, bakers tend to make their chief sourdough from a final sourdough.

Composition of sourdough fungal communities

Sourdough is a mix of flour and water naturally fermented by bacteria and yeasts. Sourdough yeast

density ranged from $8.1 \ 10^4$ to $5.8 \ 10^8$ CFU per gram of sourdough, with a mean value of $2.9 \ 10^7$ CFU

per gram, as commonly found in sourdoughs from all over the world [1, 16, 50, 51]. We isolated 20 to

40 yeast strains from each sourdough by picking colonies randomly and identified species using ITS

sequence as well as other barcodes when needed (see M&M section). Among the 39 collected

sourdoughs, one (sourdough B14) did not give any colony in the laboratory, suggesting that his

sourdough microbiota was no longer alive. A total of 1216 strains were characterized from the other 38

sourdoughs. In addition, we developed an ITS1 meta-barcoding MiSeq sequencing method on

sourdough (see sup M&M). After filtering 5,360,620 raw ITS1 sequences for quality, abundance

(0.005%) and chimera, 3,542,801 sequences were further analyzed. Overall, the sequences clustered in

113 OTUs. The number of reads per sourdough ranged from 8421 to 194 557. Therefore, we carried out

our analysis on the rarefied matrix. Among all OTUs, 64 were identified as non-yeast, including 10

assigned to the order *Triticodae* (especially to the species *Triticum aestivum*), 50 assigned to assigned

to genera that include plant pathogen species together with saprobic ones, such as *Alternaria*, *Aspergillus*

or *Fusarium*, *Gibberella*, while 4 OTUs remained unidentified. Among the 40 yeast or yeast-like OTUs,

96% of total reads were assigned to the phylum *Ascomycota*, 87.5% to the order *Saccharomycetales* and

85.7% to the family *Saccharomycetaceae*. Only 4% of the total reads were assigned to the phylum

Basidiomycota. Overall, three OTUs assigned to the species *K. humilis*, *K. bulderi* and *S. cerevisiae*

represented 20.3%, 15.5% and 24.1% respectively of the total number of reads and 28.1%, 23.7% and

18.2% respectively of the number of reads identified as yeast species (Figure 3).

Both non-culture-based and culture-based methods allowed the identification of the same dominant

species (defined as a species with an over 50% frequency) for all sourdoughs but five (B09, B20, B22,

B25, B41) (Figure 3). In two cases, the discrepancy was explained by the detection of *Cladosporium* sp.

at high frequency with metabarcoding while this species could not be isolated in the laboratory (Figure

3). In two other cases, it was explained by a high number of *S. cerevisiae* isolated in the laboratory

compared to what was observed using metabarcoding sequencing. Finally, in the last case, the

identification of *Pichia kudriavzevii* required additional sequencing as it shares an identical ITS with

Candida xylopsoci. Because metabarcoding allows a deeper characterization of the fungal species

diversity with few discrepancy cases, the distribution of fungal species diversity will be further described

using metabarcoding data only. Previous analysis of the same sourdoughs revealed that *F.*

sanfranciscensis was the dominant bacterial species in all analyzed sourdoughs but two, where the

dominant species was either *L. curvatus* or *L. heilongjiangensis* [20, 52, 53]. Therefore, we decided to

study the distribution pattern of microbial species in the fungal community only.

Fungal species diversity within and between sourdoughs

All sourdoughs but two had a dominant yeast species with a relative abundance over 50% and

many species with a lower relative abundance (Figure 3). Within sourdoughs, fungal species richness

ranged from 10 to 33, with a 23.5 median (Table S3). The effective number of species per sourdough

calculated from the Shannon diversity index ranged from 1 to 6.8 (Table S3), with 70% of sourdoughs

having an index below 2 (Table S3). Between-sourdough species differences were analyzed using

weighted Unifrac distances, computed from a phylogenetic tree built from the distances between OTUs

using *Sporidiobolales species* as root (Figure S2). Unifrac distances computed with four differently

rooted trees were highly positively correlated (Figure S3). Unifrac distances between sourdoughs ranged

from 0.0005 and 0.71, with a median of 0.49 and a mean of 0.52. The clustering of sourdoughs according

to their Unifrac distances is show Figure 5. There was no significant correlation between the Unifrac

distances and geographical distances between sourdoughs (Mantel test, P=0.35).

We then analyzed specifically the distribution of yeast species as yeast, together with lactic acid

bacteria, are the main functional player in a sourdough ecosystem and for bread quality. Over the 40

yeast species detected in the 38 sourdoughs, 12 had a relative abundance over 50% in at least one

sourdough, four had a relative abundance between 20% and 50% and 24 had a relative abundance below

10%. All dominant species (relative abundance over 50%) were fermentative yeast species, except in

one sourdough that had a *Cladosporium* species. We found all the sourdough yeast genera

(*Saccharomyces*, *Kazachstania*, *Pichia*, *Torulaspora* and *Hyphopichia)* commonly reported in the

literature except the *Wickerhamomyces* genus that we did not detect in our samples [1, 15, 16].

The baker's yeast species, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is not the most widespread yeast species in

French organic sourdoughs

Saccharomyces cerevisiae was found in 53% of all sourdoughs (95% confidence intervals=36%

- 69%) but was dominant (relative abundance over 50%) in only 24% (95% confidence intervals=11%

- 40%) (Figure 3). In two cases, *S. cerevisiae* co-occurred with another yeast species at similar relative

abundance. In the first case, *S. cerevisiae* was present at a relative abundance of 40% with *Candida sake*

at a 41% relative abundance. In the second case, it was found at a relative abundance of 47% with *Pichia*

kudriavzevii at a relative abundance of 52%. In all the other cases, *S. cerevisiae* had a relative abundance

below 21% and was found with other dominant yeast species, such as *Kazachstania australis*, *K. humilis*,

Saccharomyces uvarum or *Torulaspora delbrueckii*. This suggests that *S. cerevisiae* did not displace

other species and can indeed be out-competed by other species in sourdoughs.

Sourdough yeast species mostly belong to the *Kazachstania* genus

Kazachstania was the most represented yeast genus over all sourdoughs, when considering both the

number of reads over all sourdoughs and the number of detected species. Indeed, this genus represented

57% of the total number of reads while *Saccharomyces* represented 26% of the total number of reads.

In addition, eight species of the *Kazachstania* genus were found in sourdough, while the *Saccharomyces*

genus was represented by two species (*S. uvarum* and *S. cerevisiae*) (Figure 3). The *Kazachstania* genus

is one of the closest genetically related genus to Saccharomyces and contained Crabtree positive yeasts,

able to ferment glucose even when oxygen is present if the amount of sugar is sufficient (Hagman &

Piskur 2015). *Kazachstania* species dominated in 54% (95% confidence intervals=36%-69%) of

sourdoughs while *Saccharomyces* species dominated in 27% only (95% confidence intervals=13%-

43%). *Kazachstania humilis*, followed by *K. bulderi* were the most commonly dominant *Kazachstania*

species, and found in respectively 21% (95% confidence intervals=10%-37%) and 15% of sourdoughs

(95% confidence intervals=6%-31%) (Figure 3). A recently described *Kazachstania* species,

Kazachstania bozae, was also identified in five sourdoughs (4.5%-29%) and found dominant in three

(1.7%-22%) [64]. Strains of this species were closely related to a strain previously isolated from boza,

a Bulgarian fermented drink, as estimated with ITS and LSU (D1D2) barcodes (Source: NCBI,

GenBank: KC118125.1 and KX369579.1). In addition, *Kazachstania saulgeensis*, a recently described

species [65, 66], was dominant in one sourdough (0.07%-14%). *Kazachstania unispora* and *K. servazzi*

which had previously been detected in sourdough were also found [17, 17, 53, 57, 58, 63, 67–71].

Finally, some *Kazachstania* species were detected for the first time as dominant in sourdoughs, whereas

they had been previously found in other environments, like soil (*K. australis*), sauerkraut (*K. barnettii*)

[72–74]. None of the previous studies on sourdough have evidenced as many *Kazachstania* species in

sourdough.

The composition of sourdough fungal communities was associated with differences in bread-

making practices

We tested whether sourdough fungal community beta diversity could be explained by bread-making

practices. To do so, we performed univariate PERMANOVA analysis on the 30 bakers with less than 8

missing values for the 29 bread-making practices variables (Table S4). The univariate analysis revealed

that the weighted Unifrac distance is structured according to the use of commercial yeast in bakery

($P<0.05$). It also varied significantly with sourdough age, chief sourdough origin (dough, sourdough or

both), the quantity of bread produced per week, the milling method (cylinder, millstone, Astrie, Tyrol),

the type of wheat variety (ancient, modern or a mix thereof) and the fermentation duration. However,

after FDR correction for taking into account multiple testing, none of these variables significantly

explained Unifrac distances.

In order to understand further the relationship between sourdough fungal community composition

and bread-making practices, we clustered sourdoughs according to their fungal community composition,

on the basis of the PCoA of their weighted Unifrac distances. Then, we tested the link between the

fungal community group and the bread making practice group (farmers/artisanal practices group) as well

as the link between the fungal community group and each of the different bread-making practices

(Figure 5). Sourdoughs were clustered into three fungal community groups. Group 1 clustered all

sourdoughs (but two) having *Kazachstania* species as dominant species (*K. humilis*, *K. barnettii*, *K.*

bulderi, *K. saulgeensis*, *K. bozae*). Group 2 contained sourdoughs with *Saccharomyces sp.*, *K. servazzi*

or *K. unispora* as dominant species. Group 3 sourdoughs harbored *S. cerevisiae* together with other

species such as *Pichia kudriavzevii*, *Candida sake*, or a Dipodascaceae sp. Group 1 sourdoughs were

mostly made by bakers having farmer's bread-making practices while group 2 and 3 sourdoughs were

mostly made by bakers using artisanal practices (exact Fisher test, P=0.035). The fungal community

groups were significantly associated with two specific bread making practice variables: the quantity (in

kg) of bread made per week (Exact Fisher test, P=0.001) and the use of commercial yeast (Exact Fisher

test, P=0.05). All sourdoughs in group 2 but one were found in bakeries making between 500 kg and

1000 kg of bread per week, while groups 1 and 3 sourdoughs originated from bakeries producing very

different amounts of bread (ranging from amounts below 250 kg to over 1000 kg). In addition, group 1

sourdoughs were more frequently found in bakeries that do not use commercial yeast while group 2 and

3 were more frequently found in bakeries using the commercial yeast *S. cerevisiae* (Exact Fisher test,

P=0.01). Interestingly, group 1 sourdoughs harbored *S. cerevisiae* either at a relative abundancy below

1% or not at all, while all groups 2 and 3 sourdoughs had *S. cerevisiae* at a relative abundancy over 20%,

except in three cases where it was either absent or at a relative abundancy below 6%.

To test more specifically the link between bread-making practices and the distribution of

Kazachstania species, we analyzed more in-depth group 1 sourdoughs. Within this group, 8 sourdoughs

had *K. humilis* as dominant species, 6 had *K. bulderi*, 3 had *K. bozae* and the remainder had still other

Kazachstania species. All sourdoughs made with artisanal practices carried *K. humilis* as dominant

species or, in one case, the *K. bozae*. By contrast, sourdoughs made with farmers' practices had as

dominant species *K. bulderi*, *K. australis*, *K. barnettii*, *K. saulgeensis* or *K. bozae* (exact Fisher test,

P=0.004).

Fungal community composition was partly related to sourdough acidity, maltose concentration and hydration

The composition of fungal community may affect sourdough metabolic content (sugars, acids, alcohols) via fungal strains metabolite consumption and production. Inversely, the presence and concentration of different compounds (sugars, acids, alcohols) may affect differently the fitness depending on the strains and consequently be one of the drivers of fungal community composition. For example, lactic acid bacteria (LAB) are the main producers of acidity in sourdough, but yeasts also produce acetic acid and also indirectly affect acidity through positive or negative interaction with bacteria.

To investigate the relation between sourdough fungal communities and metabolic compounds, we quantified sourdough hydration, yeast density, bacteria density, sourdough pH, Total Titrable Acidity (TTA), sourdough concentration in seven sugars (maltose, glucose, fructose, raffinose, arabinose, mannose, xylose), four alcohols (glycerol, ethanol, mannitol, meso-erythtritol), six acids (lactate, acetate, glutarate, pyruvate, malate, succinate) and calculated the fermentative quotient (lactate over acetate ratio). For each variable, there was a wide range of variation (Table S5). The principal component analysis based on all variables showed no evidence of sourdough grouping (Figure S4). As expected in fermentation, yeast density was positively correlated to ethanol (r=0.74, P<0.001), glycerol (r=0.67, P<0.001), and acetate (r=0.6, P<0.001) concentration. However, it was not significantly correlated to sugar concentrations. This might be explained by the co-occurrence of bacteria which have their own metabolism and interact by competition and/or cross feeding with sourdough yeasts.

We then tested whether the variation of each quantitative variable was associated with the bread-making practices groups (farmer-like practices and artisanal practices). There was no significant effect of the bread making practice group except for sourdough hydration that was significantly higher in sourdoughs made using farmer-like practices ($F_{1,94}$=11,69, P<0.001). On average, sourdoughs made with farmers-liker practices had 55% water while sourdoughs made with artisanal-like practices had in average 49% of water.

In addition, we tested whether variations in quantitative variables were associated with the fungal

community groups (Table S5). Group 3 microbial community sourdoughs (defined by PCoA clustering

on Unifrac distance, see below), which contains *S. cerevisiae* in co-dominance with a second yeast

species (*Candida sake*, *Pichia kudriavzevii* or a *Dipodascus* species), had a significantly higher mean

pH (mean pH_{group3}=4.2 against pH_{group1}=3.8, Tukey Contrasts, P<0.001), lower TTA (mean TTA_{group3}=7.7

against TTA_{group1}=17.1, Tukey Contrasts, P=0.002), and a higher maltose concentration (mean Maltose

$_{group3}$=52.8 mg/gr of sourdough against $Maltose_{group1}$=24.1 mg/gr of sourdough, Tukey Contrasts

P=0.002) than group1, having a *Kazachstania* dominant species. Compared to group 2 having in most

cases *S. cerevisiae* as dominant species, it also had higher pH (pH_{group2}=3.9, Tukey Contrasts, P=0.003),

and higher maltose concentration ($Maltose_{group2}$=23.7, Tukey contrast, P=0.003). These data may reflect

a lower fermentative activity for group 3 fungal community having two co-dominant species, and/or a

negative interaction effect of group3 fungal community on the activity of lactic acid bacteria (LAB),

which are the main producers of sourdough acids. Previous studies on the bacteria content of the same

sourdoughs showed that *L. sanfranciscensis* was most generally the dominant species, although *L.*

heilongjiangensis, *L. curvatus* or *L. brevis* were also found as dominant species [20, 52, 53]. We found

no significant correlation between LAB and yeast densities (r= -0.15, p= 0.45, Figure S4) but the link

between fungal and bacteria community might be species and strains dependent. Additional studies on

the interactions between fungal and bacterial communities need to be performed to better understand

how they may drive sourdough acidity and sugar content.

Finally, we analyzed whether the variations of each quantitative variable was associated with the

dominant yeast species. We only considered the 26 sourdoughs having either *S. cerevisiae* (9

sourdoughs), *K. humilis* (8 sourdoughs), *K. bulderi* (6 sourdoughs) or *K. bozae* (3 sourdoughs) as

dominant species, since the other yeast species were found dominant only once. The differences in

dominant species was not significantly associated to variation in sourdough sugar, acids or alcohol

concentration. However, on average, sourdoughs dominated by *K. bulderi* were more hydrated (63%

water content in average) than sourdoughs dominated by *K. humilis*, *K. bozae*, and *S. cerevisiae*, having

respectively 49%, 47%, 53 % water content in average (P<0.001 for the 3 Tukey Contrasts).

Kazachstania bulderi was found to be dominant only in sourdoughs made using farmers' practices, a

bread making practice group that was also found to be associated with more hydrated sourdoughs.

Additional experiments should be carried out to test whether this species has indeed a better fitness in

more hydrated sourdoughs or whether its presence in more hydrated sourdoughs is related to covariation

with other farmer practices.

Phenotypic signatures of domestication

A previous analysis on *S. cerevisiae* revealed that sourdough strains had higher average fitness and

fermentation performance than strains from other environments in a sourdough-mimicking medium

(Bigey et al. 2021). Here, we investigated whether evidence of a domestication syndrome could also be

found in *K. humilis* and *K. bulderi*, the two *Kazachstania* species most commonly found in French

sourdoughs. We tested whether fitness (log of population size and mortality at the end of fermentation)

and fermentation performance (CO_2max, Vmax, t1g, tVmax) differed between sourdough strains and

strains from elsewhere.

A principal component analysis of 38 strains of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis*, based on quantitative variation

in the six phenotypic variables described below was carried out. The first two axis explained 80.5% of

the variation and clearly separated strains by species (Figure 6). The *K. bulderi* strains were located at

the right of the PCA and were characterized by high population size and low mortality at the end of

fermentation, while the *K. humilis* strains were located at the left and were characterized by a rapid onset

of fermentation (t1g), high maximum fermentation rate (Vmax), and a short time to reach Vmax

(tVmax). Non-sourdough strains of *K. humilis* were located outside the cloud of sourdough strains while

non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* were distributed within and outside the cloud of sourdough strains.

Statistical comparison of sourdough and non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis* for each

phenotypic variable revealed phenotypic divergence for *K. humilis* but not for *K. bulderi*. While the *K.*

bulderi sourdough strains did not ferment significantly faster than the non-sourdough strains, the *K.*

humilis sourdough strains showed significantly higher Vmax, lower t1g, and lower tVmax than the non-

sourdough *K. humilis* strains (Figure 7, Table S6). On average, they started fermentation two hours

before the others and reached Vmax three hours before the others. In addition, their Vmax were on

average 34% higher than the others.

Discussion

Sourdough microbial diversity has been intensively studied worldwide. Despite a cultural and historical

interest on bread in France, French sourdough fungal diversity was only partly characterized before this

study [19, 53, 71]. A recent large-scale (> 500 starters) study of sourdough microbial diversity revealed

the fungal diversity that can be detected over the globe across home-made sourdoughs [17]. Comparison

of these findings with the diversity found in France showed that all the yeast species detected at a relative

abundance over 1% in this international collection of sourdoughs were detected in French sourdoughs

except the species, *Wickerhanomyces anomalus*, *Pichia membranifaciens*, *Naumovozyma castellii*, and

Saccharomyces bayanus. Inversely, French baker's sourdough harbored some yeast species that were

never found elsewhere, such as *K. bozae*, *K. australis*, *K. saulgeensis* [65].

Beyond the baker yeast species, *S. cerevisiae*, the most represented yeast genus in French sourdough

was *Kazachstania*. Eight *Kazachstania* species were found as dominant yeast species in at least one

French sourdough. This includes *K. humilis*, *K. bulderi*, *K. barnettii*, *K. unispora*, *K. servazzii*, *K. bozae*,

K. australis, *K. saulgeensis*. Three *Kazachstania* species (*K. exigua, K. lodderae, K. naganishi*) already

reported in sourdough were not found in our collection of French sourdough. *Kazachstania lodderae*

and *K. naganishi* are rarely found in sourdough. By contrast, *K. exigua* is a frequently cited sourdough

species in the literature. It has been previously found in France, Finland [77], Italy [78, 79], Denmark

[80], Ethiopia [81], USA [17]. It is also the first species to have been isolated from a sourdough (in San

Francisco, [29]). However, the attempt to study its genetic variation has been hampered by the fact that

it probably originated from hybridization between unknown yeast species [82]. To date, the genus

Kazachstania is composed of more than 40 species, of which 11 are present in the sourdough. It is

possible that an adaptive radiation linked to the adaptation to different sourdoughs or to different

anthropized niches has taken place, as it has been observed for example in cichlids during their

adaptation to different lakes. Indeed, five of the *Kazachstania* species present in the sourdough have so

far only been detected in human-related niches. These are *K. saulgeensis*, *K. barnettii*, *K. bozae*, *K.*

bulderi, *K. humilis*. These species are genetically closer to each other than they are to *K. australis*, *K.*

servazzii and *K. unispora* which have also been found in nature and are grouped in another part of the

Kazachstania pylogenetic tree. Genomic analysis of these species would shed light on their evolution.

So far, eight of the 11 *Kazachstania* species found in the sourdough have at least one genome assembly

available in public databases, including *K. saulgeensis* and *K. barnettii* [44, 45], and the assemblies of

K. bulderi and *K. humilis*, which were recently published in public databases (Bio project:

PRJEB44438). The genomic and phenomic analysis of the large collection of *Kazachstania* strains

obtained by our study, together with the world collection of *Kazachstania* strains, may shed light on the

radiation and domestication processes of these species.

We found that yeast community composition was partly related with bread-making practices. Bread-

making practices divergence also led to different phenotypic signatures. Strains of the *K. humilis*

species, which was typical of sourdough made by artisanal-like practices, had increased fermentation

rate while strains of *K. bulderi* which was typical of sourdough made by farmer-like bread-making

practices had not. The species *K. humilis* has been found in many countries, viz. Austria, Canada, China,

Denmark, Ethiopia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Morocco, the Netherland, Spain, UK, USA, and

France [1, 15–17, 19, 53, 55–60]. It is also the most frequently encountered *Kazachstania* species in

sourdoughs around the world. This species is therefore frequently found in bakeries, where short

fermentations are often favored. This may explain why sourdough strains of *K. humilis* seem to have

been selected for increased fermentation rate. Increased fermentation rate was also found in bakery

strains of *S. cerevisiae* when compared to non-bakery strains.

In contrast, we did not find evidence of selection for improved fermentation performance in *K.*

bulderi, which was the third most represented species in French sourdough. *Kazachstania bulderi* was

found in bakeries with farmer-like practices. These bakeries often bake bread once or twice a week and

store their sourdough for several days. They also often use long fermentation and thus may not have

selected an increased fermentation rate. Farmer-bakers typically store their sourdough for several days

during the week and therefore make a lower number of backslopping during the week. In addition, they

make bread with longer fermentation times than artisanal bakers. It is therefore possible that they did

not select to accelerate the speed of fermentation and instead let natural selection in the sourdough

environment act alone. Alternatively, the lack of phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-

sourdough strains may reflect the limitation of our sampling. *Kazachstania bulderi* has been reported

for the first time in anaerobic maize silage in the Netherlands and in fermented liquid feed for piglets

[61, 62], more recently in French, Belgium and Spain sourdoughs [19, 53, 57, 63] but to our knowledge

was never found in wild environment. Here, we compare sourdough strains with strains coming from

ensilage and animal feed. It is unknown whether ensilage and animal feed strains are wild strains or feral

strains that have escaped from other domesticated environments. This may explain why we did not detect

any phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi*. Other than

fermentation phenotypes, there was no evidence of fitness differences between sourdough and non-

sourdough strains of *K. humilis* and *K. bulderi* in sourdough mimicking media. Additional experiments

in real dough should be performed to further test the effect of natural selection in this environment.

Other evolutionary process than selection could also explain the distribution of yeast species across

sourdoughs. Interviews with the bakers working with sourdough hosting *K. bulderi* and *K. bozae*

suggested the role of dispersion of these species in French sourdoughs. Indeed, these bakers have been

connected over the years either through seed exchanges, sourdough mixing or gifts, bread making

training in common or working in one another's bakery. Some yeast species have been found in the

bakery house environment and baker's hands and may thus be dispersed through baker's tools or baker's

travels [58, 67, 75, 76]. However, it is still unclear whether wheat seeds and flour are a source of

sourdough yeasts.

To our knowledge, this is the first evidence of the influence of artisanal practices on taxonomic

diversity in microbial communities. On the other hand, several studies have shown that making

fermented products could lead to the selection of divergent phenotypes and genotypes. This is the case

of sourdough and industrial populations of the baker's yeast *S. cerevisiae* that diverge among themselves

and have a better fermentation performance than non-baker's strains. As for beer populations, sourdough

populations have acquired a better capacity to assimilate maltose, linked at least in part to an increase

in the number of copies of the genes involved in the assimilation of maltose. Several studies on wine

populations of *S. cerevisiae*, *Torulaspora delbrueckii* et *Lachancea thermotolerans* also showed that

wine populations are genetically differentiated from strains from other environments and present

beneficial phenotypes in grape must and for wine quality. The analysis of filamentous cheese fungi *P.*

roqueforti and *P. camemberti* populations also revealed cheese making genetically differentiated

populations. Interestingly, different genetic groups associated with different cheese making practices

were found. Strains of the blue cheese fungus, *P. roqueforti*, isolated from Roquefort cheese were more

diverse and were genetically and phenotypically different than strains used to make other blue cheeses

[83, 84, 85]. Two varieties of the white cheese making fungus, *P. camemberti*, with different phenotypic

features, were associated with different kind of cheese (camembert and brie). All together these studies

show that the diversity of practices used to make fermented products allows to maintain genetic,

phenotypic and taxonomic diversity.

However, fungal domestication also involved important bottleneck. For example, the low level of

genetic diversity found in blue-cheese P. roqueforti strains and P. camemberti strains revealed the risk

of diversity erosion in fermented product making [6, 7, 84]. This risk is associated with the massive use

of few industrial strains or the need to standardize products to meet the specifications of industrial

production or AOP. Here, we show that despite the recurrent use of S. cerevisiae as industrial starter

species in bakeries and homes, and the occurrence of this species in a wide range of habitats such as

soil, trees, and humans [9, 54], this species does not appear to have overwhelmingly colonized French

traditional sourdoughs (Figure 3, Figure 4). This result confirmed a recent analysis which revealed that

S. cerevisiae sourdough strains have a different evolutionary history than industrial strains [10]. The

dynamic of microbial species colonization and invasion in food environment remain largely unknown.

A recent study suggested that wild-type Penicillium can evolved in a few weeks into a domesticated

form. Additional experiments at the level of microbial community will shed light on the dynamic of

microbial community establishment in food production and on the ability of industrial strains to invade

food microbial community.

Conclusion and perspectives

In conclusion, a great diversity of bread-making practices and fungal community composition

was found in our sample of French sourdoughs. Surprisingly, the well-known baker's yeast

Saccharomyces cerevisiae was found dominant only in one fourth of the sampled sourdoughs. By

contrast, several species of the neighboring genus *Kazachstania* were detected at high frequency,

revealing a major role for this mostly unknown genus in the study of fungal domestication and in bread

making. Therefore, our results highlight the necessity of maintaining socio-cultural diversity to maintain

microbial diversity in food systems. These findings could not have been evidenced without the

collaboration of bakers and scientists, showing the importance of participatory research projects to gain

new insight into biodiversity preservation.

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. The sourdough bread making process. Sourdough is a mix of flour and water naturally

fermented by bacteria and yeasts. It is initiated by mixing flour, water and occasionally other ingredients.

It is then "fed" by regularly adding flour and water, a process termed back-slopping. Once considered

mature by bakers based on their acidity, flavour and bubbling activity, the sourdough is called "chief",

or "mother" sourdough, and can then be used for bread making. The bread making process starts from

this "chief sourdough", or from a piece of dough or sourdough sampled from the preceding bread making

process, or initiated from a mix of flour and water naturally colonized by yeasts and LAB following

several back-sloppings. Once or several times, the chief sourdough is refreshed by adding flour and

water to constitute the final sourdough, which is used for bread making. This final sourdough is mixed

with flour, water, and other ingredients (salt, seeds, yeasts starters, etc.) during kneading to constitute

the dough. After kneading, primary fermentation occurs during the first rising. The dough is then divided

and shaped. The pieces of dough are then left to rise during a second fermentation and finally oven-

baked.

Figure 2. Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) based on 28 categorical variables describing

bread-making practices.

A) Representation of bakers. Each point represents a bakery. The purple area on the left brings together

baker with "artisanal" practices and the light blue area on the right the bakers with "farmer" practices.

The dot's colors indicate the PCoA cluster of the sourdough fungal community (see Figure 5). Black

dots for group 1, empty dot for group 2, grey for group 3. The fungal community of the sourdough of

baker 14 was not studied. B) Representation of the 20 first categories that contributed the most to the

MCA axes. The category, which corresponds to a class of a variable, is written next to the triangle. C)

Distribution of each variable for each bread-making practices group. Only variables that mostly

explained differences between bread making practice groups are shown: use of commercial yeast,

kneading method, chief origin, kg of bread production per week, number of bread making per week,

percent of water in dough, number of back-sloppings before making bread, water origin, sourdough age

and flour percentage in dough. The categories of each of these variables are indicated on the right.

Figure 3. Yeast species diversity was analyzed for 38 out of the 39 sourdoughs with both cultural and

metabarcoding methods. Left: species were identified by traditional microbial isolation and

identification using ITS sequencing. Right: species were identified using ITS1 metabarcoding. The

three most frequently-encountered species are shown in contrasting colors surrounded by black (blue:

Saccharomyces cerevisiae, red: *Kazachstania bulderi*, yellow: *Kazachstania humilis*). The bread-

making practice of the baker who supplied the sourdough is indicated on the left ("artisanal" in purple,

"farmer" in light blue).

Figure 4. Distribution of yeast species diversity across French sourdoughs. Each bar represents the yeast

species diversity of one sourdough and is placed on the map where the baker is located. Sourdoughs

from "farmer" practice are surrounded in light blue and sourdoughs from "artisanal" practice are

surrounded by purple.

Figure 5. Representation of sourdough depending on the weighted Unifrac distances between

microbial communities. A) shows the clustering of sourdoughs according to their Unifrac distances on

a tree (left) or on a PCoA (right). Sourdough fungal community can be clustered in three groups

according to their weighted Unifrac distances. B to E) shows on the left: a tree constructed from the

Unifrac distance matrix, in the center: sourdoughs represented on the first 2 axes of the PCoA and on

the right: the distribution of modalities of a variable for each group of sourdoughs (number of each

group on the x-axis). B) shows the distribution of bread-making practices among fungal community

groups, C) shows the distribution of the dominant or most frequent species among fungal community

(K: Kazachstania, C: Candida, T: Torulaspora, P: Pichia), D) shows the use of commercial

Saccharomyces cerevisiae starter and E) shows the quantity of bread per week.

Figure 6. Principal component analysis of 37 *K*. *humilis* and *K*. *bulderi* strains based on the

quantitative variation of maximum CO_2 production (CO2max), fermentation latency phase (t1g),

maximum CO_2 production rate (Vmax), time to reach the maximum production rate (tVmax), log of

population size and mortality at the end of the fermentation. The correlations between variables are

presented on the left while the figure on the right shows the projection of strains on the first two axes

representing 70.64% of the variation. The strains are colored according to their habitat of origin

(sourdough/non-sourdough). Their species is indicated by symbol.

Figure 7. Ratio between the sourdough strains mean and the non-sourdough strains mean values of

each quantitative variable measuring fermentation performance: maximum CO_2 production

(CO2max), fermentation latency phase (t1g), maximum CO_2 production rate (Vmax), time to reach

the maximum production rate (tVmax), log of population size. Confidence intervals are indicated by

bars.

Figure 1

Figure 2

A)

B)

C)

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7