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1 **Croatian white grape variety Maraština: first taste of its indigenous mycobiota**

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29 **Abstract**

30

31 The indigenous vineyard mycobiota contribute both to wine quality and vineyard sanitary status. Wines made
32 from same grape variety but from different geographical locations are appreciated for their diversity. Because
33 no information on indigenous mycobiota of Croatian grapevines is available, the aim of the present study was
34 to start filling this knowledge gap by characterizing the indigenous mycobiota of Maraština variety. The use
35 of metataxonomic approach has enabled the identification of 25 different fungal genera present on Maraština
36 grape berries collected from 11 vineyards located within the Croatian coastal winegrowing region of Dalmatia
37 (Northern Dalmatia, Dalmatian hinterland, Central and Southern Dalmatia). The substantial regional and local
38 scale differences in their distribution were observed, ~~thus supporting the concept of microbial terroir.~~ Overall,
39 *Aureobasidium* was the dominant genus followed by *Cladosporium* and *Metschnikowia*. *Botrytis* and
40 *Plenodomus* were associated with the vineyards located in Central Dalmatia, whereas *Pichia* was associated
41 with Northern Dalmatia vineyards. The largest abundance of *Buckleyzyma*, *Cladosporium*, *Eremothecium*,
42 *Fusarium*, *Papiliotrema*, and *Rhodotorula* was observed in Dalmatian hinterland. Moreover, data suggested
43 that climate conditions and soil type partially influenced the distribution of fungal communities. The local-
44 scale differences emerged also for the physicochemical characteristics of fresh musts. The high malic acid
45 content supported the development of *Metschnikowia*, and inhibited *Fusarium* growth, whereas a positive
46 correlation between *Erysiphe* and pH values was observed. *Sporobolomyces* and *Cystobasidium* were
47 negatively associated with high glucose concentration. The revealing of Maraština indigenous mycobiota
48 provided information on the members of fungal community negatively influencing the grapevine sanitary
49 status as well as those which could be employed in disease biocontrol. ~~The presence of autochthonous yeasts~~
50 ~~belonging to genera *Hanseniaspora*, *Metschnikowia*, *Lachancea*, *Pichia* and *Hyphopichia* could confer~~
51 ~~possible improvements to sensory characteristics of wine.~~

52

53 **Keywords:** Maraština, indigenous mycobiota, ~~microbial terroir,~~ metataxonomic approach, grapevine,
54 Dalmatia, *Aureobasidium*

55

56

57 1. Introduction

58

59 *Vitis vinifera* L., native to southern Europe and western Asia, as well as other *Vitis* L. species are grown
60 worldwide mostly for wine production (Pancher et al., 2012). Despite the fermentation of wine being strictly
61 correlated to the conversion of sugar into ethanol, it is a complex procedure that starts in the vineyard and ends
62 with the consumption (Bokulich et al., 2014). The indigenous vineyard mycobiota, including yeasts and other
63 fungal communities, contribute both to wine quality and vineyard sanitary status. Yeast colonizing grape
64 berries produce various compounds that can exert positive or even detrimental effects on the wine quality and
65 aroma complexity (Capozzi et al., 2015). The grape berry surface is dominated by non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts,
66 including basidiomycetous oxidative species from the genera *Filobasidium*, *Cryptococcus* and *Rhodotorula*;
67 ascomycetous oxidative or weakly fermentative species from the genera *Aureobasidium* (yeast-like fungus),
68 *Hanseniaspora*, *Candida*, *Metschnikowia*, *Debaryomyces*, *Pichia*, and *Lachancea* as well as fermentative
69 species from the genera *Saccharomyces*, *Torulaspora*, *Zygosaccharomyces*, *Dekkera/Brettanomyces*,
70 *Schizosaccharomyces*, and *Saccharomycodes* (Setati et al., 2015). The grapes mycobiota also include fungal
71 obligate parasites such as *Plasmopara viticola* and *Erysiphe necator*, responsible for downy and powdery
72 mildew, respectively, as well as saprophytic moulds including *Botrytis cinerea*, causing grey rot, and other
73 ubiquitous genera such as *Aspergillus*, *Cladosporium* and *Penicillium*, responsible for various grape rots or
74 ochratoxin production (Barata et al., 2012). However, the surface of grape berries is an unstable habitat for
75 microorganisms whose composition and the abundance are mainly driven by grape variety, the vineyard
76 geographical position, local and regional climate (temperature, precipitation, relative humidity), soil, growth
77 stage of the berries, health status of the grapevine, and the viticultural management practices (organic or
78 conventional vineyard) (Bokulich et al., 2014; Chalvanti et al., 2021; Cureau et al., 2021; Milanović et al.,
79 2013; Rantsiou et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2021). The vineyard mycobiota have been extensively studied using
80 traditional culture-dependent methods that might miss up to 95% of the community due to low frequency or
81 the presence of viable but non-culturable cells (Taylor et al., 2014). By contrast, metataxonomic methods can
82 reveal larger microbial diversity than other fingerprinting methods, thus playing a fundamental role in the
83 assessment of the grape microbiome (Rantsiou et al., 2020; Stefanini & Cavalieri, 2018). Despite the
84 advantages, metataxonomic approaches are not free of pitfalls which are mostly related to low taxonomic

85 resolution level (family or genus). Indeed, only a higher taxonomic resolution at species or even strain level
86 could determine an association between indigenous microbiota and specific wine characteristics thus giving a
87 better view of wine microbial biogeography (Alexandre 2020; Chalvantzi et al. 2021). Many limiting steps
88 such as nucleic acid extraction protocols, DNA library preparation, sequencing methods, and incomplete
89 databases should be improved to achieve accurate taxonomic assignment (Belda et al., 2017; Morgan et al.,
90 2017).

91 Vineyards in Croatia cover about 25,000 ha and include 197 cultivars, among which 103 are considered
92 indigenous (Maletic et al, 2015). Croatian wine-growing zones are divided into continental (eastern and
93 western) and coastal region. The latter, including Istria/Kvarner and Dalmatia (Northern Dalmatia, Dalmatian
94 hinterland, Central and Southern Dalmatia) is located along the coast of Adriatic Sea and is characterized by
95 Mediterranean climate (Regulation EU No 1308/2013). In contrast to the continental region, where native
96 cultivars represent only a small fraction, in the coastal region, especially in Central and Southern Dalmatia,
97 native cultivars are grown in more than 90% of the vineyards. Although the most cultivated white variety in
98 Dalmatia is Trbljan (9.5%, 495 ha), followed by Kujunduša (6.3%, 328 ha), Maraština (4.6%, 242 ha) and
99 Pošip (4.3%, 227 ha) (Voncina et al., 2011), Maraština is the second (after Pošip) most important variety for
100 wine sector due to its capacity for producing high quality wines. Maraština (synonyms Rukatac, Malvasia del
101 Chianti, Malvasia binca lunga) is characterized by small- to medium-sized grapes of a golden yellow colour
102 with small, brown spots, thick skin and the grapes tightly packed in bunches. Maraština is considered an
103 autochthonous Croatian white variety, although Šimon et al. (2007) reported its high similarity with the Italian
104 variety Malvasia del Chianti and the Greek variety Pavlos. By contrast, Crespan et al. (2009) reported just
105 seven of the 11 simple sequence repeat loci of Maraština overlapping with Malvasia del Chianti.

106 Wines made from the same grape variety but from different geographical regions are appreciated for their
107 differences in aroma, flavour, taste, and quality, thus leading to their higher price and market demand (van
108 Leeuwen & Seguin, 2006). The fungal communities have been proposed as contributing to the concept of wine
109 terroir; therefore, understanding fungal composition and dynamics among different vineyards or winegrowing
110 regions is of great importance in the wine-making process (Alexandre, 2020). To the best of our knowledge,
111 no report on indigenous mycobiota of Croatian grapevine cultivars is available. Hence, the aim of the present
112 study was to employ a culture-independent metataxonomic approach to give the first insight into the fungal

113 communities associated with Croatian white grapevine cultivar Maraština as influenced by geographical
114 position of the vineyards located within the Croatian coastal winegrowing region of Dalmatia, including sub-
115 regions of Northern Dalmatia, Dalmatian hinterland, and Central and Southern Dalmatia. Correlations between
116 the mycobiota composition and climate data, vineyard soil type and physicochemical characteristics of fresh
117 musts were also calculated.

118

119 **2. Materials and methods**

120

121 *2.1 Grape sampling*

122

123 Healthy and undamaged vines were used for the collection of the grape berry samples from 10 commercial
124 vineyards and the germplasm repository of native varieties cultivated at the Institute for Adriatic Crops and
125 Karst Reclamation in Split as part of the Croatian National Collection. The vineyards were located along the
126 Croatian coast in the winegrowing subregions of Northern Dalmatia [Smilčić (S), Nadin (Polača) (N),
127 Stankovci (Z), Vukšić (V)], Dalmatian hinterland [Okraj (O)], and Central and Southern Dalmatia [Institute
128 for Adriatic Crops and Karst Reclamation in Split (IJK-RB), Kaštela (VP), Dračevica (DR), Prapatna 1 (P),
129 Prapatna 2 (B), Kruševo (K)] as shown in Figure 1. The vineyards DR, P, B and K are situated in the island of
130 Korčula. The air distance between the northernmost (S) and the southernmost vineyard (located on island
131 Korčula) is 177 km. The detailed information, including the global positioning coordinates, altitude, the
132 plantation year, soil type, and row distance per vine ~~and the trellis system~~ for each vineyard, is reported in
133 Table 1.

134 On 11th, 12th and 16th September 2021, a total of 11 technologically mature samples of Maraština grapes were
135 collected in biological triplicate. In detail, the experimental plan consisted of three randomized blocks in the
136 middle of each vineyard. A block was formed by one row of vines. The sample for each block was composed
137 of nine well-exposed bunches collected from three different vines from the beginning, middle and end of the
138 row. Only healthy and undamaged grapes (around 3 kg per vineyard) were harvested using sterile scissors,
139 placed in sterile bags, and transported to the laboratory in a cool bag. Once in the laboratory, 200 berries from
140 different parts of the grape bunches (top, centre, and bottom) were aseptically cut off by scissors and

141 immediately transferred in a refrigerator to the Polytechnic University of Marche (Ancona, Italy) for
142 microbiological analyses. The remaining berries were pressed by hand and homogenized manually to obtain
143 fresh must for physicochemical analyses.

144

145 *2.2 Climate data*

146

147 Climate data collected from the nearest meteorological station for each vineyard (Table 1) were obtained from
148 the Croatian Meteorological and Hydrological Service. The average (T_{av}), maximum (T_{max}) and minimum
149 (T_{min}) temperature ($^{\circ}C$) as well as the average daily precipitation (D_p) (mm) for each winegrowing sub-region
150 are reported in Supplementary Table 1.

151

152 *2.3 Physicochemical analyses of fresh must*

153

154 Standard physicochemical parameters were determined according to the International Organisation of Vine
155 and Wine reference methods for wine analysis (OIV, 2021) in a laboratory accredited according to HRN EN
156 ISO/IEC 17025 at Institute for Adriatic Crops and Karst Reclamation (Split, Croatia). The content of total
157 soluble solids, TSS ($^{\circ}Brix$), was measured using a refractometer (Hi 96814, Hanna Instruments, USA). The
158 pH was measured using a pH meter Titrino 718 (Metrohm, Switzerland) and total acidity (TA) was determined
159 by titrating the samples with 0.1 M sodium hydroxide solution to reach a pH end-point of 7. A FTIR Lyza
160 5000 Wine analyser (Anton Paar GmbH, Austria) was used to determine the following oenological parameters
161 of the fresh musts: glucose (g/L), fructose (g/L), malic acid (g/L), tartaric acid (g/L) and yeast assimilable
162 nitrogen, YAN [mg/L (N)]. Concentrations of D-glucose and D-fructose were confirmed by using an
163 enzymatic test K-FRUGL (Megazyme, Ireland). Also, concentrations of malic acid and tartaric were confirmed
164 by using the enzymatic tests for L-malic acid and tartaric acid (Megazyme, Ireland).

165

166 *2.4 DNA extraction and sequencing*

167

168 A total number of 33 fresh grape berry samples (three biological replicates for each of 11 vineyards) were
169 crushed at 260 rpm by a Stomacher 400 Circulator machine (VWR International PBI, Milan, Italy) for 5 min.
170 The 1.5 mL aliquots of the obtained homogenates were centrifuged at 16 000 g for 10 minutes to pellet the
171 microbial cells that were then used for the extraction of the total microbial DNA using an E.Z.N.A. soil DNA
172 kit (Omega Bio-tek, GA, USA). The quantity and the purity of the extracted DNA were checked by a Nanodrop
173 ND 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA).

174 A metataxonomic approach was applied to study the mycobiota composition of Maraština grapes collected
175 from 11 geographical locations within three Dalmatian winegrowing subregions. The 26S rRNA gene of the
176 extracted DNA was amplified by using the primers NL4R (5'-GGTCCGTGTTTCAAGACGG-3') and LS2-
177 MF (5'-GAGTCGAGTTGTTTGGGAAT-3') following the procedure previously described by Mota-Gutierrez
178 et al. (2019)- [and further successfully applied to study the mycobiota of grapes \(Rantsiou et al., 2020\) and other](#)
179 [food \(Biolcati et al., 2022; Franciosa et al., 2021\) and non-food matrices \(Ferrocino et al., 2022\)](#). The PCR
180 products were purified, tagged, and pooled following the Illumina Sequencing Library Preparation guidelines.
181 An Illumina MiSeq platform with V2 chemistry was used to generate 250-bp paired-end reads. After
182 sequencing, the obtained raw files (*fastq*) were processed by QIIME2 software as described by Bolyen et al.
183 (2019). *Cutadapter* was used to trim the sequence adapters and primers, and DADA2 algorithm (Callahan et
184 al., 2016) was used to eliminate low quality reads. The DADA2 denoise paired plug-in of QIIME2 was
185 implemented to remove chimeric sequences and join sequences shorter than 300 bp. The manually build
186 database for the mycobiota was used for the taxonomy classification using the QIIME feature-classifier plugin
187 against SILVA database implemented in Mota-Gutierrez et al. (2019). BLAST suite tools were used to confirm
188 the taxonomic assignment. [Data generated by sequencing were deposited in the National Center for](#)
189 [Biotechnology Information \(NCBI\) Sequence Read Archive \(SRA\) and are available under the BioProject](#)
190 [Accession Number PRJNA851272.](#)

191

192 *2.5 Statistical analyses*

193

194 The diversity script of QIIME2 was used for alpha [and beta](#) diversity indices calculation. In R environment,
195 the differences between alpha diversity parameters and Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) relative

196 abundance were evaluated by non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test. Bray–Curtis distance matrix was used to
197 perform PERMANOVA by the “vegan” package in R environment.

198 Principal Component Analysis (PCA), using the function *dudi.pca* of R, was used to analyse the differences
199 of ASVs. Spearman correlation analysis between fungal ASVs and physicochemical parameters of fresh
200 Maraština must was performed through the package *psyc* of R, and only the significant associations ($P < 0.05$)
201 are shown in the plots drawn by the *corr.plot* function of R.

202 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate differences in physicochemical characteristics
203 of the samples collected from different vineyards by Tukey-Kramer’s Honest Significant Difference (HSD)
204 test and the one-tailed t-test (level of significance 0.05) using the JMP software version 11.0.0 (SAS Institute
205 Inc., Cary, NC). Furthermore, prior to PCA, the entire data set related to physicochemical characteristics of
206 fresh musts was subjected to factor analysis to examine whether there was a need to include all the data. The
207 decision on the data inclusion was based on factor loading of ≥ 0.7 (Topić Popović et al., 2021), and only the
208 ratio glucose/fructose was considered a variable that would not greatly affect the qualitative distribution of
209 harvest locations. This data set was used to perform the PCA using statistical software for Excel, XLStat 2014,
210 using the Varimax rotation and presented in a form of a distance biplot.

211

212 **3. Results and discussion**

213

214 *3.1 Characterization of indigenous mycobiota*

215

216 The indigenous grapevine microbial communities, especially yeasts and bacteria, –together with other
217 biological and physical factors play a crucial role in shaping the organoleptic characteristics of wine.
218 Consequently, wines produced from the same grapevine cultivar but in different geographical regions can be
219 recognized for their different sensory characteristics, which in cases of specific regions may lead to increased
220 consumer’s acceptance and significant economic returns (Stefanini & Cavalieri, 2018). ~~Because fungi are~~
221 ~~reported to have greater impact on wine sensory attributes than bacteria (Liu et al., 2020).~~ The current study
222 focused on indigenous mycobiota associated with the Croatian grapevine cultivar Maraština, thus laying a
223 foundation for research on the composition of fungal communities of Croatian grapevine cultivars. Croatia,

224 like several other Mediterranean countries including Italy, France, Spain, and Greece, is a traditional wine-
225 producing country characterized by a great number of small producers, thus making the Croatian market
226 recognised as a market of numerous monovarietal wines often made from indigenous and rare grape varieties
227 (Žurga et al., 2019). Indigenous varieties, especially those cultivated in Dalmatian winegrowing region, are
228 playing an important role in Croatian viticulture, mainly due to their high genetic variability which could be
229 of interest to other countries for breeding or production (Maletić et al., 2015). Additional interesting
230 characteristic of Croatian indigenous wines is a high concentration of phenolic compounds which could be
231 presumably associated with traditional prolonged maceration times and intrinsic natural richness in
232 polyphenols of some Croatian varieties (Radeka et al., 2022).

233 The high-throughput sequencing methods revealed the local distribution patterns of microbial communities
234 throughout different world winegrowing regions, ~~showing a strong correlation between local microbial terroir~~
235 ~~and wine organoleptic characteristics~~ (Li et al., 2022). To verify whether this pattern could be applied to
236 Maraština, 33 grape berry samples collected from 11 vineyards located along the Croatian coastal area were
237 subjected to metataxonomic analysis. A total of 14,007,462 paired reads were obtained by sequencing. After
238 quality filtering, a total of 146,485,613 reads were used, with an average value of 44,389 reads/sample, and a
239 mean sequence length of 375 bp. *Alternaria*, *Aureobasidium*, *Cladosporium*, *Filobasidium*, *Hanseniaspora*
240 and *Metschnikowia* were ubiquitous and characterized by high relative abundance (Figure 2, Supplementary
241 Table 2). *Aureobasidium* was the dominant ASV, with the relative abundance ranging between 19.7%
242 (vineyard O, Dalmatian hinterland) and 94.6% (vineyard VP, Central and Southern Dalmatia), followed by
243 *Cladosporium* varying from 3.6% (vineyard VP) to 47.6% (vineyard O), and *Metschnikowia* with relative
244 abundance between 0.03% (vineyards IJK-RB and B, Central and Southern Dalmatia) and 33.3% (vineyard Z,
245 Northern Dalmatia). *Aureobasidium* is commonly found on the surface of grape berries at all stages of
246 maturation, probably due to its high tolerance to different environmental conditions and high antagonistic
247 activity against plant pathogens due to production of volatile organic compounds and antimicrobials (Galli et
248 al., 2021). Moreover, it has been reported to have a positive role on mycotoxin biocontrol and to produce
249 valuable industrial enzymes such as amylases, proteases, pectinases, β -glucosidase, lipases, cellulases,
250 xylanases and mannanases, with some of them very useful for the improvement of wine quality and aroma
251 (Bozoudi & Tsaltas, 2018). In the present study, for most of the samples, the relative abundance of

252 *Aureobasidium* was inversely proportional with the relative abundance of the *Cladosporium*. The latter genus
253 is considered ubiquitous but particularly frequent in geographical zones with mild Mediterranean climates such
254 as Dalmatia, exerting negative influence on wine quality by diminishing aroma, flavour, and colour (Briceno
255 & Latorre, 2008). The highest relative abundance of ASVs ascribed to genus *Metschnikowia* were detected in
256 vineyards Z, DR, and O, showing distribution of this genus within different winegrowing regions.
257 *Metschnikowia* is one of the most explored genera in oenology, frequently used in mixed fermentations with
258 the aim to improve the organoleptic profile of wines by modulating the synthesis of secondary metabolites. It
259 has also been reported that *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* has the strong antimicrobial activity against spoilage
260 yeasts and fungi as well the ability to decrease the concentration of ochratoxin, thus making this species useful
261 in the winemaking (Vicente et al., 2020). Moreover, *M. pulcherrima* showed the ability to decrease the ethanol
262 concentration, which is particularly important for wines produced in regions characterized by warm climate
263 (Vaquero et al., 2021). The last genus commonly present in Maraština samples with the relative abundances
264 >10% (vineyards N and O) was *Hanseniaspora*, comprising the most abundant yeasts found in vineyards able
265 to increase the concentration of acetate esters contributing to positive fruity aroma, as well as sulfur-containing
266 compounds and higher concentration of alcohols (Capozzi et al., 2015). Finally, samples collected from the
267 vineyard IJK-RB were characterized by the highest relative abundance (23.7%) of *Quambalaria*, known as
268 plant pathogenic fungal genus (Narmani & Arzanlou, 2019).

269 *Botrytis*, *Buckleyzyma*, *Cryptococcus*, *Cystobasidium*, *Didymella*, *Eremothecium*, *Hyphopichia*, *Penicillium*,
270 *Pichia*, *Plenodomus* and *Sporobolomyces* were detected in less than 50% of the samples with the low relative
271 abundance (<1%). *Eremothecium* and *Plenodomus* were identified only in O and IJK-RB vineyards,
272 respectively, whereas *Botrytis*, causing grey rot, was present only in vineyards located in Central and Southern
273 Dalmatia (IJK-RB, DR, B, and K).

274 The previous studies based on high-throughput sequencing methods suggested that grapevine microbiota
275 exhibits regional distinction mainly due to the dominance of a limited number of genera or species per region
276 (Bokulich et al., 2014, Pinto et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Generally, different DNA extraction procedures,
277 PCR, and high-throughput sequencing methods including different target marker genes, are making difficult
278 the comparison of the results obtained in different studies. Moreover, grapes and wine are complex samples
279 that may contain numerous agents interfering molecular analysis, thus requiring further purification steps

280 which can create bias by modifying the composition of original microbial communities. Also, different fungal
281 forms (anamorph or teleomorph) as well as incomplete databases can cause difficulties in taxonomic
282 classification, especially at species level (Belda et al., 2017; Morgan et al., 2017). Nonetheless, several genera
283 constituting Maraština mycobiota seem to be widely distributed among white grape varieties from other
284 European wine-producing countries, especially those characterized by Mediterranean climate. Indeed, some
285 highly abundant genera such as *Aureobasidium*, *Hanseniaspora*, and *Cladosporium*, as well as low abundant
286 genera such as *Erysiphe*, *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, and *Alternaria*, detected in Maraština samples were
287 dominant in Xynisteri grapes collected from five terroirs in Cyprus (Kamilari et al., 2021). Furthermore, the
288 members of *Aureobasidium*, *Hanseniaspora*, *Penicillium*, *Botryotinia*, and *Pichia* genera were found also in
289 Nosiola grapes used for the production of traditional Italian Vino Santo Trentino (Stefanini et al., 2016),
290 together with *Saccharomyces*, *Candida*, and *Starmerella* genera, not detected in Maraština samples. Similarly,
291 Alvarinho and Loureiro samples collected from different wine appellations in Portugal (Pinto et al., 2015) were
292 characterized by high abundance of *Aureobasidium* and *Hanseniaspora*. Not only the white grape varieties
293 collected from Europe, but also those collected from other continents, share the similar mycobiota including
294 the genera *Aureobasidium*, *Cladosporium*, *Hanseniaspora*, *Botrytis*, and *Penicillium*, highly abundant in
295 Sauvignon blanc grapes from the Central Valley of Chile (Mandakovic et al., 2020) and Chardonnay samples
296 collected from across California in two separate vintages (Bokulich et al., 2014).
297 Even if several studies using high-throughput sequencing methods revealed a connection between grape
298 microbiota and the geography of the region, thus assuming the concept of microbial terroir, very few studies
299 have demonstrated the real association between grape microbial communities and wine aroma profiles (Knight
300 et al., 2015; Bokulich et al., 2016). Hence, further research efforts are still required to support the concept of
301 microbial terroir (Alexandre, 2020).
302 Since winemaking industry is strictly correlated with environmental, territorial, economic, and social
303 challenges, the concept of microbial terroir could undoubtedly contribute to Sustainable Development Goals
304 (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda of the United Nations. Indeed, the unique taste, flavour, aroma, and quality of
305 wines from different geographical regions are very appreciated by consumers which leads to their higher price
306 and market demand, and, at the same time, supports a rural development, increase the wine culture, and the
307 awareness of indigenous vines. Therefore, it is of great importance to evaluate the qualitative impact of

308 indigenous microorganisms on wine organoleptic characteristics and their role in grapevine disease biocontrol,
309 as well as to evaluate the effect of climate changes on microbial diversity which could have great consequences
310 on the wine style.

311 Samples collected from the vineyards IJK-RB, DR and Z showed the highest Shannon diversity index ($P < 0.05$,
312 Figure 3). Bray–Curtis distance matrix showed a significant separation between samples according to
313 vineyards (PERMANOVA, $p = 0.001$).

314 The PCA analysis confirmed a separation of the samples based on their mycobiota composition (Figure 4). In
315 detail, the samples collected from IJK-RB and DR vineyards, both from Central and Southern Dalmatia
316 subregion, were well separated from the other samples. The samples from VP and N vineyards, although from
317 different winegrowing regions, clustered together. These findings suggest a local-scale effect of the
318 distribution of fungal ASVs, ~~confirming the concept of microbial terroir.~~ Indeed, several ASVs were
319 associated with different locations; *Aspergillus*, *Cryptococcus*, *Cystobasidium*, *Erysiphe*, *Filobasidium* and
320 *Plenodomus* showed higher relative abundance in samples collected from IJK-RB vineyard ($P < 0.05$), whereas
321 *Cladosporium*, *Fusarium* and *Rhodotorula* showed the highest relative abundance in samples collected from
322 the O vineyard located in Dalmatian hinterland ($P < 0.05$, Supplementary Figure 1). Even though the genus
323 *Fusarium* comprises numerous harmless species of filamentous fungi, some of them can cause grapevine wilt
324 disease or even produce the mycotoxins (Desjardins, 2006; Gonzalez & Tello 2011). The *Rhodotorula* genus
325 is frequently detected and isolated from grape berries, probably due to its ability to produce biofilms on berry
326 surfaces (Lederer et al., 2013). Although some species from this genus can enhance the wine aroma complexity
327 due to β -glucosidase and α -L-arabinofuranosidase activity, they are rarely used in wine production (Hu et al.,
328 2016; Martínez et al., 2006). Samples belonging to vineyard Z located in Northern Dalmatia winegrowing
329 subregion were characterized by the highest relative abundance of *Metschnikowia* and *Pichia* ($P < 0.05$,
330 Supplementary Figure 1). Different wine related species of the latter genus are reported to produce enzymes
331 that positively influence wine organoleptic characteristics. Moreover, they can produce antimicrobial
332 compounds, thus showing high potential for reducing the growth of wine spoilage microorganisms. However,
333 only *Pichia kluyveri* strains are commercially available as a starter culture (Vicente et al., 2021). Finally, the
334 highest abundance of the *Lachancea* was detected in the vineyard V from the same winegrowing subregion
335 ($P < 0.05$, Supplementary Figure 1). Members of this genus have been found in various habitats, with *Lachancea*

336 *thermotolerans* as a key species in wine fermentation processes principally due to its ability to reduce pH
337 through lactic acid production, thus giving pleasant acidity to wine (Porter et al., 2019).

338 Considering the winegrowing subregions of Northern Dalmatia, Central and Southern Dalmatia, and
339 Dalmatian hinterland as the main factor influencing the distribution of the ASVs, the significant separation of
340 the samples was observed ($P < 0.05$, Figure 5). Indeed, the one tailed t-test (Supplementary Table 3) indicated
341 that the highest relative abundance of ASVs ascribed to *Botrytis* and *Plenodomus* was detected in the vineyards
342 located in Central and Southern Dalmatia, whereas the ASVs ascribed to *Pichia* were characteristic for the
343 samples collected from Northern Dalmatia. Finally, Dalmatian hinterland subregion was characterized by the
344 highest relative abundance of *Buckleyzyma*, *Cladosporium*, *Eremothecium*, *Fusarium*, *Papiliotrema* and
345 *Rhodotorula*, whereas the abundance of *Hanseniaspora* and *Metschnikowia* was the lowest in Central and
346 Southern Dalmatia.

347 It has been suggested that the structure of grapevine microbial communities partly depends on climate
348 conditions both inside and between vineyards, but it remains unclear which climate factor has the greatest
349 impact (Liu et al., 2019). Here, due to lack of meteorological data for each single vineyard, the average values
350 of air temperatures (average, maximum and minimum) ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and daily precipitations (mm) (Supplementary
351 Table 1) were estimated only for the winegrowing subregion and were correlated with metataxonomic analysis
352 results. The highest average (T_{av}) and minimum (T_{min}) air temperatures as well as daily precipitations (D_p)
353 were correlated with *Aspergillus*, *Aureobasidium*, *Botrytis*, *Cryptococcus*, *Cystobasidium*, *Didymella*,
354 *Eremothecium*, *Erysiphe*, *Penicillium*, *Plenodomus*, *Sporobolomyces* and *Quambalaria*, all associated with
355 Central and Southern Dalmatia (Figure 6). Regarding *Aureobasidium*, Chalvanti et al. (2021) reported its
356 positive correlation with net precipitation amounts in different Greek vineyards. Furthermore, *Filobasidium*
357 and *Alternaria* were well correlated with the maximum temperature values (T_{max}).

358 Soil has been proposed to be a possible natural source of microbial communities associated with grapevines,
359 thus making the wind-blown soil dust the principal vector for their distribution (Zarraonaindia et al., 2015). In
360 the current study, the correlation between the vineyard soil type and fungal ASVs present on grape berries was
361 calculated. As reported in Table 1, the vineyards were planted on different soil types including brown soil on
362 limestone, red soil, loam, sand, reclaimed karst and brown soil. Samples collected from grapevines planted on
363 brown soil on limestone were well separated from the other samples (Figure 7) principally due to the highest

364 relative abundance of *Alternaria*, *Aspergillus*, *Botrytis*, *Didymella*, *Erysiphe*, *Plenodomus* and *Quambalaria*
365 ($P < 0.05$, Supplementary Figure 2), all known for their negative influence on the grapevine sanitary status.
366 Moreover, samples collected from grapevines grown on brown soil were characterized by the presence of
367 *Metschnikowia* and *Cladosporium* ($P < 0.05$, Supplementary Figure 2).

368

369 3.2 Physicochemical characteristics of fresh musts

370

371 The physicochemical analyses were performed to characterize the fresh grape musts obtained from the
372 collected samples. The results, expressed as the average values coupled with standard deviations are reported
373 in Table 2. The pH values ranged between 3.3 (vineyards Z and O) and 3.6 (vineyards IJK-RB, P, K, S), which
374 is comparable with the results commonly reported in the literature for fresh grape must samples (Unluturk &
375 Atilgan, 2015). Grape musts are mainly composed of water (70-80%), carbohydrates (15-25%) with glucose
376 and fructose commonly present in equal amounts (1:1 ratio), plus several organic acids (Granato et al., 2016).
377 Glucose/fructose ratio in Maraština samples was about 1, with glucose concentration ranging from 92.3 g/L
378 (vineyard DR) to 118.1 g/L (vineyard K) and fructose concentration between 77.4 g/L (vineyard DR) and
379 115.7 g/L (vineyard O). The TSS (°Brix) content in Maraština samples was between 18.1 (vineyard DR) and
380 23.4 (vineyard V), which, according to OIV (1990) indicated the stage of technical maturity (14–25 °Brix).
381 Even if the TSS level usually determines the grape price, it does not always correspond to the best overall
382 maturity. Indeed, it has been reported that in cultivars such as Merlot and Chardonnay a concentration of 24 to
383 25 °Brix possibly establishes the upper limit beyond which an additional increase of TSS is associated mainly
384 with deterioration and dehydration of the berries (Bondada et al., 2017; Tillbrook & Tyerman, 2008). After
385 sugars, organic acids such as malic, tartaric, acetic, citric, succinic, and lactic acid are the most abundant solids
386 in grape musts directly impacting the flavour, colour and wine stability (Eyduran et al., 2015). The
387 concentration of organic acids is directly linked to TA which commonly ranges between ~~0.404~~ and ~~7.08~~ g/L
388 in fresh grape musts (Granato et al., 2016). The Maraština samples were characterized by TA values ranging
389 from 3.7 g/L (vineyard K) to 6.4 g/L (vineyard IJK-RB), which is in line with the results previously reported
390 for Maraština sampled and analysed during three consecutive years (2009-2011) (Preiner et al., 2013). Malic
391 and tartaric acids account for 70-90% of the total acids. The concentration of tartaric acid, responsible for taste

392 and the wine biological stability, is relatively constant during ripening and independent of climate conditions,
393 thus making it characteristic of a grape cultivar (Ribereau-Gayon et al., 2006). Conversely, the concentration
394 of malic acid is variable depending on several factors, including climate conditions, soil type, sunlight exposure
395 and grape variety (Granato et al., 2016). Here, the concentration of tartaric acid in fresh Maraština musts ranged
396 from 2.3 g/L (vineyard K) to 4.0 g/L (vineyard O), and that of malic acid from 0.2 g/L (vineyards B and VP)
397 to 0.9 g/L (vineyard DR). These values are lower than those previously reported for the same cultivar during
398 the 2009-2011 triennial (average concentration of 4.92 g/L for tartaric and 1.21 g/L for malic acid, Preiner et
399 al., 2013). A negative correlation between malic acid and high air temperatures has been reported previously
400 (Conde et al., 2007).

401 One of the most important parameters for wine fermentation is nitrogen (N) availability because it is essential
402 for the metabolism of yeast cells. Different N sources such as amino acids, ammonium, and small peptides are
403 present in must, but not all of them can be used by yeasts. The content of YAN in grape musts is commonly
404 between 50 and 450 mg/L, although a minimum of 140 mg/L has been established as crucial to prevent stuck
405 or sluggish fermentations (Verdenal et al., 2021). Only samples collected from VP vineyard (142 mg/L)
406 satisfied the minimum acceptable YAN concentration, whereas the lowest YAN value was registered for the
407 samples collected from DR vineyard (90.7 mg/L) (Table 2).

408 The PCA was used to assess the distribution of samples collected from different vineyards based on the results
409 of physicochemical analysis, including primary parameters such as acidity (TA, malic and tartaric acids), sugar
410 concentration (glucose, fructose), and analytical data such as TSS (°Brix) and pH, as well as secondary
411 parameters such as YAN (Figure 8). The samples collected from IJK-RB, VP and O vineyards grouped
412 together due to their high YAN and tartaric acid concentration, similar to the samples collected from vineyard
413 Z. Even though the concentration of tartaric acid in fresh musts obtained from the samples collected in vineyard
414 DR was not significantly lower than in the samples from the IJK-RB, VP and O vineyards, the high
415 concentration of malic acid in the DR samples caused a separation into the second quadrant, opposite to sugar-
416 related parameters (glucose and fructose) that were low at 92.3 g/L and 77.4 g/L, respectively. The P samples
417 were distinguished from all the other samples mainly due to their relatively high concentration of malic acid
418 and low YAN concentration. The last group containing samples collected from vineyards V, B, S, N and K
419 was positively correlated with pH and fructose concentration. Interestingly, samples from the same

420 winegrowing region were scattered among different PCA quadrants, thus indicating that local conditions such
421 as climate, soil and vineyard practices may impact the physicochemical characteristics of fresh grape musts
422 and consequently organoleptic characteristics of resulting wines. This was further confirmed by the fact that
423 the samples DR, K, B and P, geographically close to each other (all on Korčula island) were distributed in all
424 four quadrants.

425 During ripening, grapes undertake various physiological and biochemical modifications that may influence the
426 mycobiota of grape berries (Conde et al., 2007). The availability of nutrients such as sugars, organic and amino
427 acids is undoubtedly an important factor shaping the fungal ecology on grapes. Prakitchaiwattana et al. (2020)
428 have recently demonstrated the presence of nutrients on grape surfaces, with their concentration increasing
429 during ripening, which was associated with more abundant fungal population. Given these premises, the
430 correlation analysis between mycobiota and principal physicochemical parameters of fresh Maraština musts
431 was performed. As shown in Figure 9, concentration of malic acid was associated positively with the relative
432 abundance of *Metschnikowia* and negatively with that of *Fusarium*. Indeed, the relative abundance of
433 *Fusarium* in the analysed samples followed the opposite trend compared to *Metschnikowia*. Some non-
434 *Saccharomyces* wine yeasts are assumed to metabolize malic acid, especially *M. pulcherrima*, decomposing
435 around 10% of malic acid during fermentation (Vicente et al., 2020). Regarding negative correlation between
436 *Fusarium* and malic acid, a similar result was recently reported by Lv et al. (2021), whereby malic acid had a
437 significant inhibitory effect on the occurrence of *Fusarium* wilt in faba bean. Finally, the relative abundance
438 of *Erysiphe* showed a positive correlation ($P < 0.05$) with pH, whereas the relative abundance of
439 *Sporobolomyces* and *Cystobasidium* was negatively ($P < 0.05$) associated with glucose concentration (g/L)
440 (Figure 9). The species from the latter two genera may represent a source of biocontrol agents effective in
441 regulation of different grapevine diseases (Patanita et al., 2022).

442

443 **4. Conclusions**

444

445 The current study aimed to fill a knowledge gap on indigenous mycobiota associated with the Croatian
446 grapevine cultivar Maraština, hence laying a foundation for further research on the composition of microbial
447 communities related to Croatian grapevines. The high-throughput metataxonomic analysis revealed a

448 significant regional as well as local scale differences in fungi distribution, ~~thus further supporting the concept~~
449 ~~of microbial terroir.~~ The climate conditions and the vineyard soil type as well as the physicochemical
450 characteristics of fresh musts (such as pH and the concentrations of malic acid and glucose) partly contributed
451 to local distribution patterns of fungal communities. *Aureobasidium* dominated the surface of Maraština grapes
452 followed by *Cladosporium*, *Metschnikowia*, *Hanseniaspora*, *Alternaria* and *Filobasidium*. The knowledge of
453 Maraština indigenous mycobiota provided a basis for examining the role of *Aureobasidium*, *Cryptococcus*,
454 *Cystobasidium*, *Metschnikowia*, *Pichia*, *Sporobolomyces* and *Vishniacozyma* in grapevine disease biocontrol
455 and wine quality. Of special interest are the yeasts from the genera *Hanseniaspora*, *Metschnikowia*,
456 *Lachancea*, *Pichia* and *Hyphopichia* because they are known for their potential positive contributions to
457 organoleptic characteristics of wine. To preserve the role of the microbial terroir, future research will be
458 oriented toward isolation and oenological characterization of indigenous Maraština non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts
459 for their potential as wine starter cultures. Additionally, to support the hypothesis of microbial terroir, the
460 metabolic profile and sensory analyses of the resulting wines are crucial to establish whether the use of
461 indigenous strains could reach to human-perceptible variances in wine.

462

463 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

464

465 **Vesna Milanović:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft; **Federica**
466 **Cardinali:** Investigation, Formal analysis; **Ilario Ferocino:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Review
467 & Editing; **Ana Boban:** Investigation, Formal analysis; **Irene Franciosa:** Investigation, Formal analysis;
468 **Jasenka Gajdoš Kljusurić:** Formal analysis; Writing - Review & Editing; **Ana Mucalo:** Investigation;
469 **Andrea Osimani:** Validation, Visualization, Resources; **Lucia Aquilanti:** Visualisation, Resources;
470 **Cristiana Garofalo:** Resources; Writing - Review & Editing; **Irena Budić-Leto:** Conceptualization,
471 Resources, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

472

473 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

474

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

477

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479

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481 Impact of native non-*Saccharomyces* wine yeast on wine aromas (WINE AROMAS).

482

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699 **Figure captions**

700

701 **Figure 1.** Position of the vineyards located along the Croatian coastal area in the winegrowing subregions of
702 Central and Southern Dalmatia [Institute for Adriatic Crops and Karst Reclamation at Split (IJK-RB), Kaštela
703 (VP), Dračevica (DR), Prapatna 1 (P), Prapatna 2 (B), Kruševo (K)], Dalmatian hinterland [Oklaj (O)], and
704 Northern Dalmatia [Smilčić (S), Nadin (Polača) (N), Stankovci (Z), Vukšić (V)].

705

706 **Figure 2.** Relative abundance (%) of fungal genera detected in Maraština grape samples collected from 11
707 different vineyards located along the Croatian coastal area in the winegrowing subregions of Central and
708 Southern Dalmatia [Institute for Adriatic Crops and Karst Reclamation at Split (IJK-RB), Kaštela (VP),
709 Dračevica (DR), Prapatna 1 (P), Prapatna 2 (B), Kruševo (K)], Dalmatian hinterland [Oklaj (O)], and Northern
710 Dalmatia [Smilčić (S), Nadin (Polača) (N), Stankovci (Z), Vukšić (V)].

711

712 **Figure 3.** Boxplot showing the alpha diversity index (Shannon index and observed ASVs) for Maraština grape
713 samples.

714 The samples are labelled as indicated in Figure 1.

715

716 **Figure 4.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing a separation of the samples collected from 11
717 vineyards located along Croatian winegrowing region of Dalmatia based on their mycobiota composition.

718 PC1 = 15.52%; PC2 = 13.47%; Significance = 0.001.

719 The samples are labelled as indicated in Figure 1.

720

721 **Figure 5.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing grouping of the samples based on their mycobiota
722 composition according to winegrowing subregions of Northern Dalmatia, Dalmatian hinterland, and Central
723 and Southern Dalmatia.

724 PC1 = 15.52%; PC2 = 13.47%; Significance = 0.002.

725

726 **Figure 6.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing distribution of the samples based on their mycobiota
727 composition according to winegrowing subregion and climate data.

728

729 **Figure 7.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing grouping of the samples based on their mycobiota
730 composition according to vineyard soil type.

731 PC1 = 15.52%; PC2 = 13.47%; Significance = 0.001.

732

733 **Figure 8.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing grouping of the samples based on Yeast Assimilable
734 Nitrogen (YAN) vs measured parameters indicated as significant after Factor analysis.

735

736 **Figure 9.** Correlation analysis between fungal ASVs and physicochemical parameters of fresh Maraština must
737 (only significant associations are shown, $P < 0.05$). The colour intensity and the circle dimension represent the
738 degree of correlation where red dots represent a negative degree of correlation and blue dots a positive degree
739 of correlation.

Fig. 1.

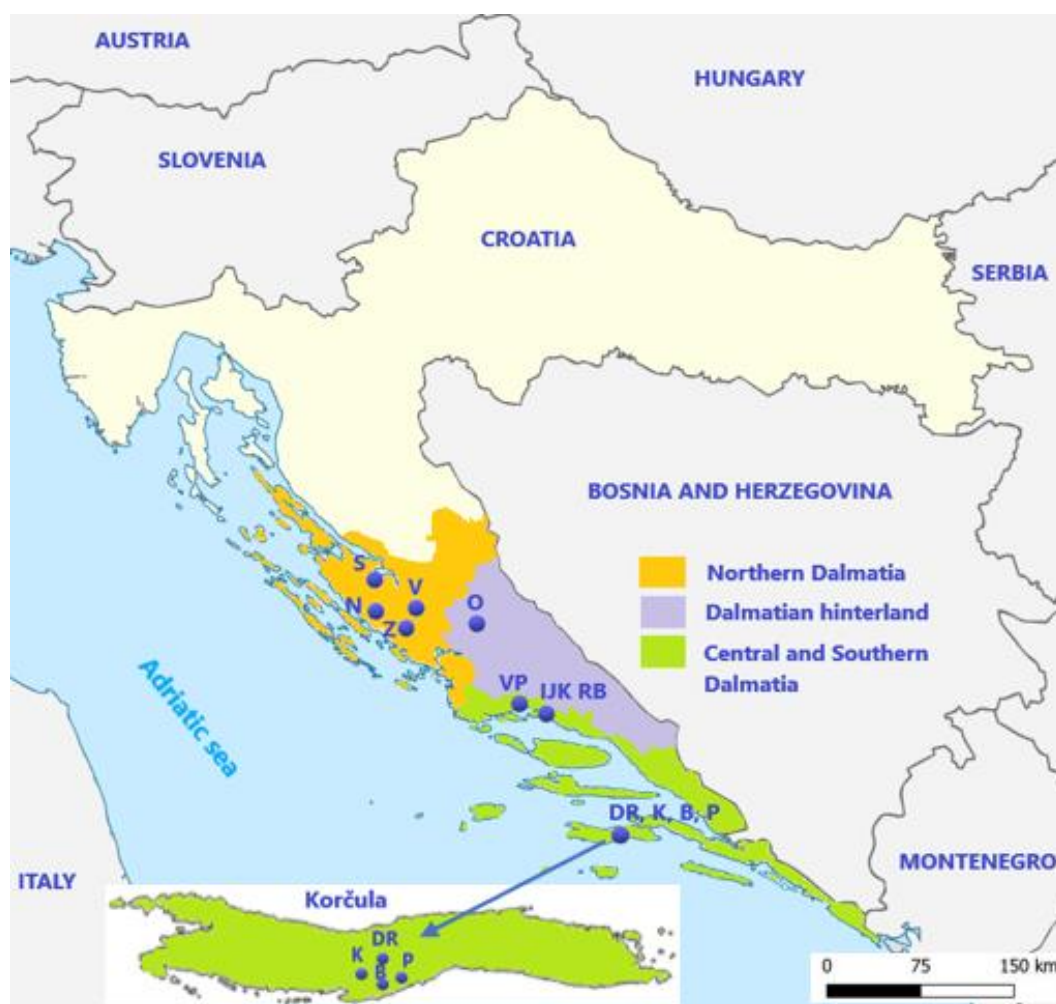


Fig. 3.

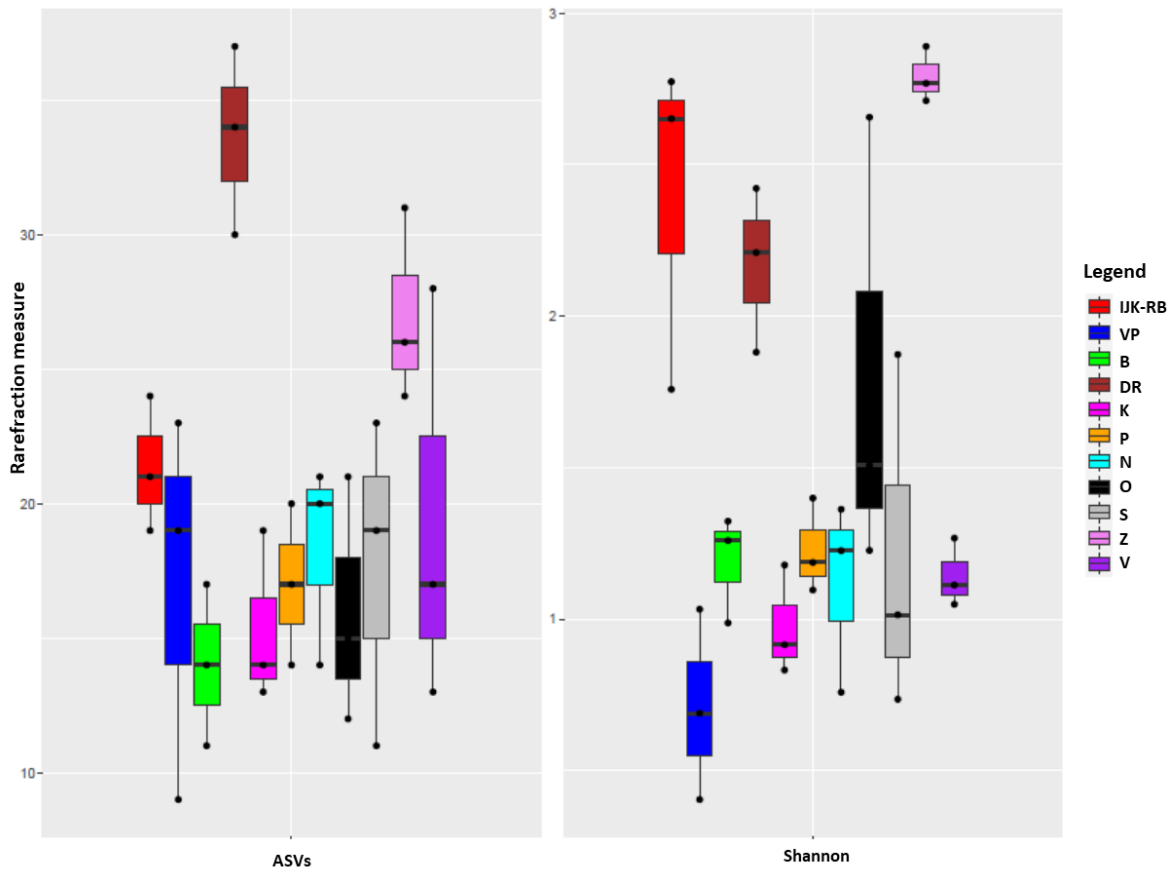


Fig. 4.

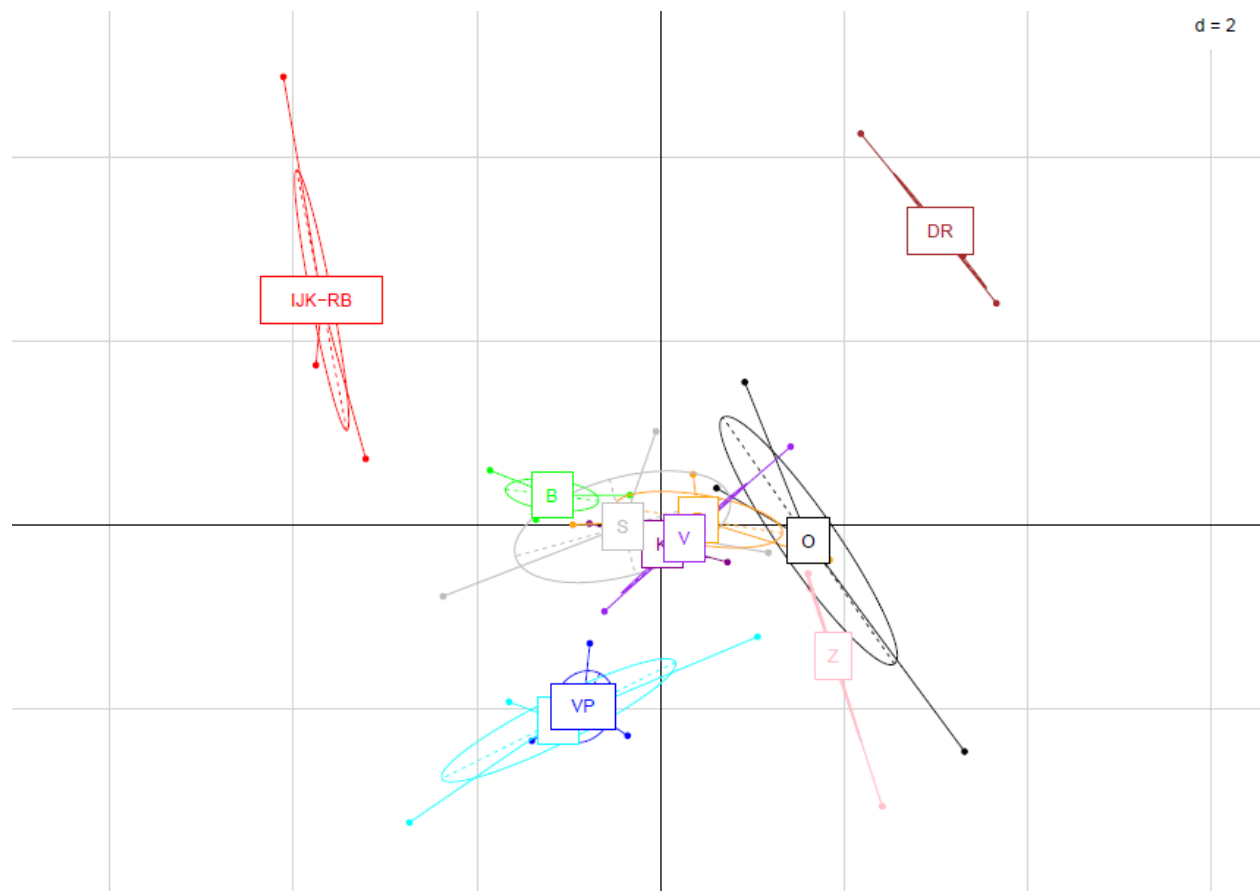


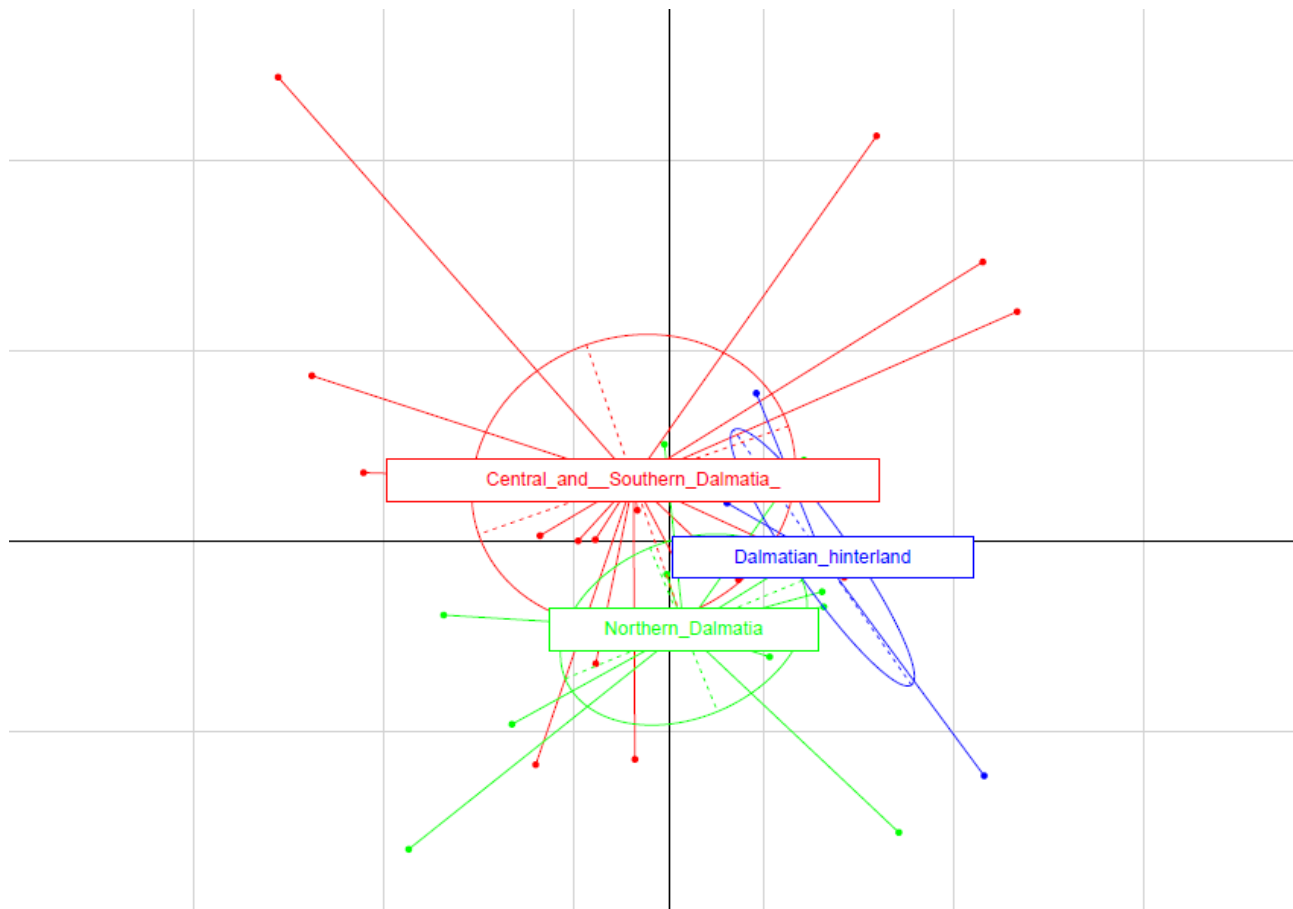
Fig. 5.

Fig. 6.

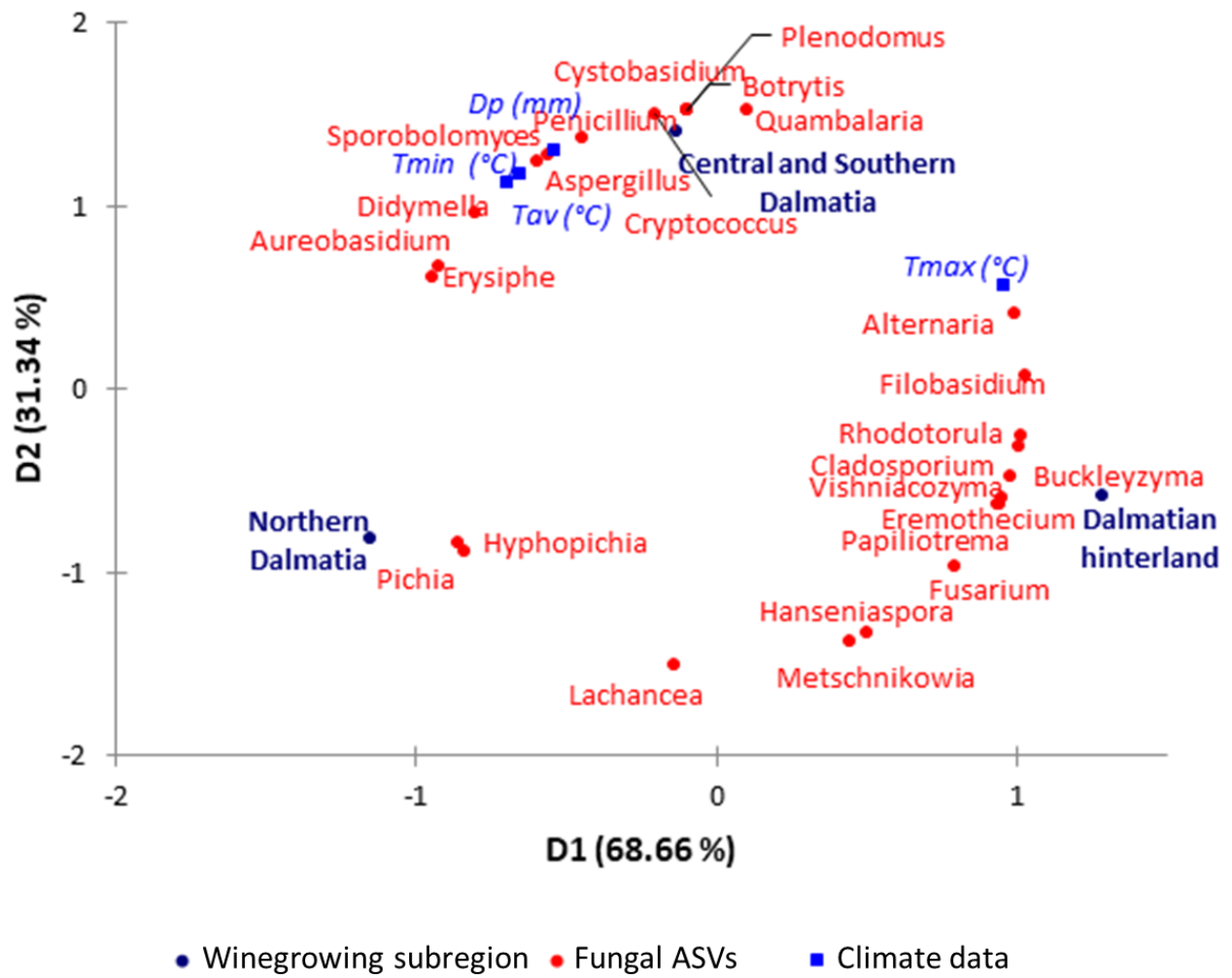


Fig. 7.

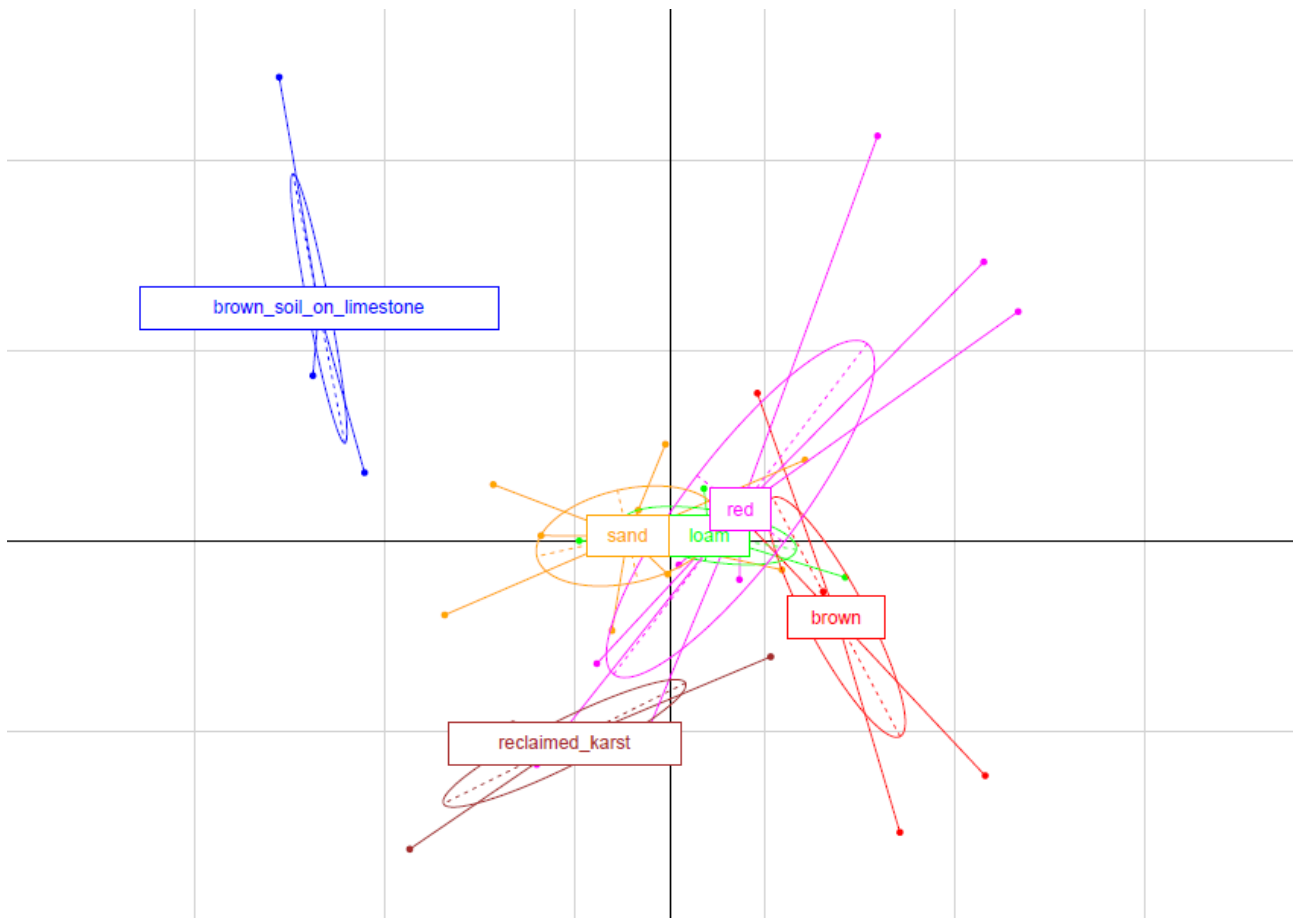


Fig. 8.

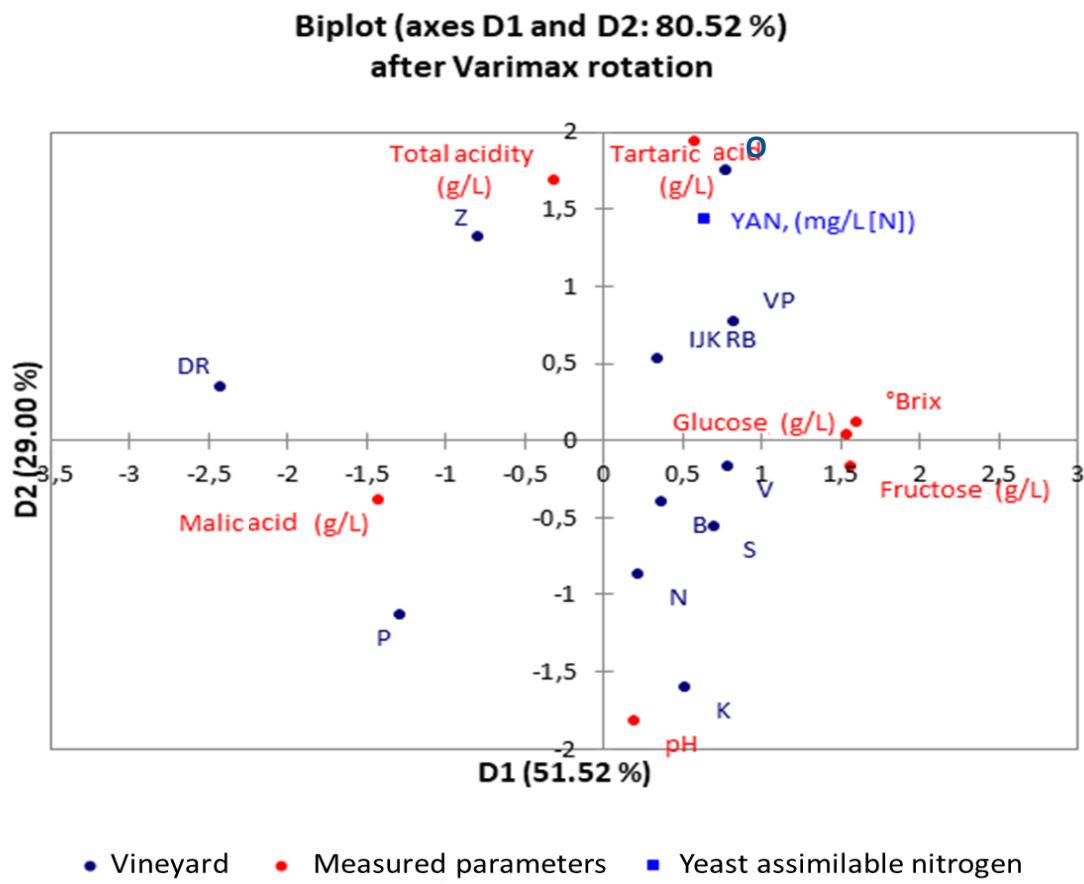


Table 1. General vineyard parameters

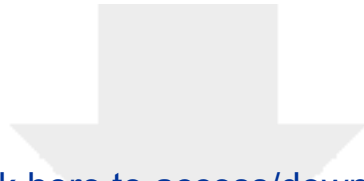
Vineyard	Abbreviation	Geographical position	Altitude (m)	Wine-growing subregion	Meteorological station	Plantation year	Soil type	Row distance x vine (m)
Institute for Adriatic Crops and Karst Reclamation, Split	IJK RB	43° 30' 35" N, 16° 29' 85" E	14	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Split	2005	brown soil on limestone	2.0 x 1.0
Dračevica (Korčula)	DR	42° 55' 36" N, 16° 54' 0" E	62	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Vela Luka (Korčula)	1941	red	1.8 x 1.0
Prapatna 1 (Korčula)	P	42° 54' 51" N, 16° 54' 58" E	40	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Vela Luka (Korčula)	2000	loam	1.5 x 1.2
Prapatna 2 (Korčula)	B	42° 54' 50" N, 16° 54' 52" E	40	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Vela Luka (Korčula)	2008	sand	1.2 x 1.0
Kruševo (Korčula)	K	42° 55' 20" N, 16° 53' 54" E	68	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Vela Luka (Korčula)	1999	red	1.8 x 1.0
Kaštela (Kaštel Kambelovac)	VP	43° 33' 34" N, 16° 22' 32" E	94	Central and Southern Dalmatia	Split	2011	red	1.6 x 0.9
Smilčić	S	44° 7' 23" N, 15° 28' 52" E	60	Northern Dalmatia	Zadar	2009	sand	2.6 x 1.0
Nadin (Polača)	N	44° 0' 28" N, 15° 29' 41" E	103	Northern Dalmatia	Benkovac	2010	reclaimed karst	2.2 x 1.1
Stankovci	Z	43° 57' 20" N, 15° 43' 6" E	130	Northern Dalmatia	Benkovac	2008	brown	1.9 x 1.0
Oklaj	O	43° 56' 55" N, 16° 4' 56" E	260	Dalmatian hinterland	Knin	2006	brown	2.0 x 1.0
Vukšić	V	43° 56' 37" N, 15° 43' 46" E	130	Northern Dalmatia	Benkovac	2003	sand	2.0 x 1.0

Table 2. Physicochemical characteristics of fresh musts obtained from Maraština samples collected from 11 different vineyards.

Vineyard	TSS (°Brix)	pH	Acidity	Glucose	Fructose	Glucose /Fructose	YAN	Malic acid	Tartaric acid
			g/L	g/L	g/L		mg/L [N]	g/L	g/L
IJK RB	22.4±0.5 ^a	3.6±0.0 ^a	6.4±0.2 ^a	109.9±4.9 ^{abc}	105.4±10.9 ^{ab}	1.0±0.1 ^a	116.5±23.3 ^{abc}	0.3±0.3 ^{bc}	3.3±0.1 ^{ab}
DR	18.1±0.6 ^b	3.5±0.1 ^{ab}	5.7±0.7 ^{ab}	92.3±5.1 ^d	77.4±3.9 ^b	1.2±0 ^a	90.7±4.9 ^c	0.9±0.2 ^a	2.8±0.9 ^{ab}
P	18.8±0.6 ^b	3.6±0.1 ^a	4.1±0.3 ^{cd}	94.0±2.9 ^{cd}	98.1±6.1 ^{ab}	1.0±0.1 ^a	97.3±2.9 ^c	0.7±0.3 ^{ab}	2.4±0.3 ^b
B	22.4±1.0 ^a	3.5±0.1 ^{ab}	3.9±0.2 ^d	109.1±6.1 ^{abc}	101.8±8.9 ^{ab}	1.1±0.1 ^a	113.0±2.6 ^{abc}	0.2±0.1 ^c	2.8±0.7 ^{ab}
K	21.9±1.4 ^a	3.6±0.0 ^a	3.7±0.3 ^d	118.1±8.2 ^a	114.9±6.3 ^a	1.0±0.1 ^a	98.0±8.5 ^{bc}	0.6±0.0 ^{abc}	2.3±0.2 ^b
VP	22.1±1.5 ^a	3.5±0.1 ^a	4.9±0.1 ^{bc}	115.6±8.0 ^{ab}	111.3±17.0 ^a	1.1±0.2 ^a	142.0±2.8 ^a	0.2±0.1 ^{bc}	3.9±0.4 ^a
S	23.0±0.9 ^a	3.6±0.0 ^a	4.1±0.1 ^d	112.3±4.1 ^{ab}	113.1±12.2 ^a	1.0±0.1 ^a	99.0±9.0 ^{bc}	0.5±0.2 ^{bc}	3.2±0.3 ^{ab}
N	21.9±1.2 ^a	3.6±0.1 ^a	3.7±0.1 ^d	104.0±4.9 ^{abcd}	107.4±5.1 ^a	1.0±0.0 ^a	106.3±4.0 ^{abc}	0.4±0.0 ^{bc}	3.0±0.4 ^{ab}
Z	20.5±1.5 ^{ab}	3.3±0.0 ^b	5.0±0.3 ^b	102.1±4.6 ^{bcd}	98.3±16.0 ^{ab}	1.1±0.1 ^a	134.0±4.0 ^{ab}	0.7±0.1 ^{abc}	3.7±0.1 ^a
O	22.6±0.3 ^a	3.3±0.0 ^b	5.7±0.1 ^{ab}	112.9±3.8 ^{ab}	115.7±4.1 ^a	1.0±0.0 ^a	117.0±8.0 ^{abc}	0.3±0.1 ^{bc}	4.0±0.2 ^a
V	23.4±1.0 ^a	3.5±0.1 ^a	5.0±0.2 ^b	115.6±5.4 ^{ab}	114.5±6.0 ^a	1.0±0.1 ^a	109.3±34.1 ^{abc}	0.4±0.2 ^{bc}	2.9±0.5 ^{ab}

YAN, Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen.

Values are expressed as means ±standard deviations. Within each column, means followed by different superscript letters (a, b, c) are significantly different (P < 0.05).



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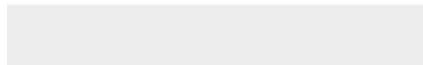
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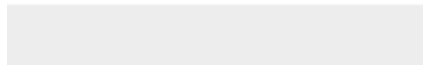
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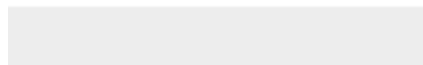
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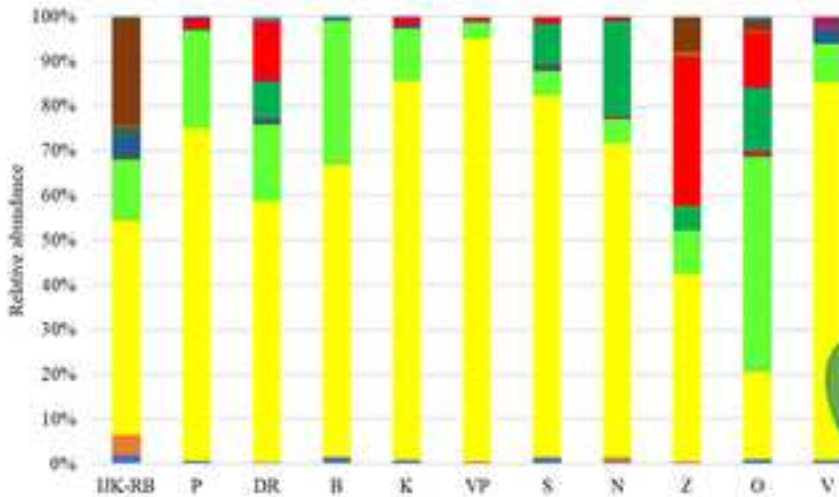




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Maraština



- | | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Alternaria</i> | <i>Aspergillus</i> | <i>Aureobasidium</i> | <i>Botrytis</i> | <i>Buckleyzyma</i> |
| <i>Cladosporium</i> | <i>Cryptococcus</i> | <i>Cystobasidium</i> | <i>Didymella</i> | <i>Eremothecium</i> |
| <i>Erysiphe</i> | <i>Filobasidium</i> | <i>Fusarium</i> | <i>Hanseniaspora</i> | <i>Hyphopichia</i> |
| <i>Lachancea</i> | <i>Metschnikowia</i> | <i>Papiliotrema</i> | <i>Penicillium</i> | <i>Pichia</i> |
| <i>Plenodomus</i> | <i>Quantalaria</i> | <i>Rhodotorula</i> | <i>Sporobolomyces</i> | <i>Vishniacozyma</i> |

