

1 © 2021. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0
2 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

3 This document is the Accepted Manuscript version of a Published Work that appeared in
4 final form in *Food Chemistry*. To access the final edited and published work see
5 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.03.083>.

6 7 **Head-space gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry for the** 8 **assessment of the contamination of mayonnaise by yeasts**

9
10 N. Arroyo-Manzanares¹, B. Markiv¹, J.D. Hernández², I. López-García¹, I. Guillén², P.
11 Vizcaíno², M. Hernández-Córdoba¹, P. Viñas^{1*}

12
13 ⁽¹⁾ Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, Regional Campus of International
14 Excellence “Campus Mare-Nostrum”, University of Murcia, Murcia, Spain

15
16 ⁽²⁾ Productos Sur S.A. (Prosur) Av. Francisco Salzillo, P/27-2, San Ginés, 30169 San Ginés,
17 Murcia

18 *Corresponding author: pilarvi@um.es

19 20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Head-space (HS) gas chromatography (GC) coupled to mass spectrometry (MS) is
22 proposed for the assessment of the contamination of mayonnaise as an alternative to plate
23 counting, which is the technique commonly used for evaluating microbial contamination.
24 More specifically, this method was applied in the detection of *Candida metapsilosis* and
25 *Zygosaccharomyces bailii*, both of great importance in term of food spoilage since they
26 are resistant to many of the common methods of food preservation. Different
27 chemometric models were investigated using the data obtained by GC-MS (*m/z* profile,
28 area of the chromatographic peaks and entire chromatographic profile), in order to obtain
29 the highest classification success. The best results were obtained using the
30 chromatographic profile (success rate of 92%). Contaminated samples could also be
31 classified according to the concentration of yeast, obtaining a success rate of 87.5%.
32 Finally, a chemometric model was constructed in an attempt to differentiate between
33 strains.

34
35
36 **Keywords:** gas chromatography; mass spectrometry; mayonnaise; yeast determination;
37 chemometrics

38 1. Introduction

39 Microbial contamination, a major problem in the food industry because of associated
40 economic losses, may occur due to the appearance of bacteria, filamentous fungi or yeasts
41 in food. However, because of the great damage they originate, most studies have
42 concentrated on bacteria or filamentous fungi. Although yeast plays a secondary role in
43 food contamination, the environmental conditions of food preservation, which tend to
44 inhibit the growth of bacteria, have favoured the appearance of contaminating yeasts,
45 which are responsible for alterations in the organoleptic properties of foods and,
46 consequently, for food quality.

47 Among yeasts, the genus *Zygosaccharomyces* is of great importance in food deterioration.
48 Its biochemical characteristics enable it to tolerate high concentrations of sugar, ethanol
49 or acetic acid, and it is resistant to most common preservatives used in food, such as
50 sorbic acid, benzoic acid or SO₂ (Kurtzman, Rogers, & Hesseltine, 1971); it is extremely
51 osmotolerant and is capable of vigorously fermenting hexagonal sugars, with a capacity
52 to grow in media with a pH of around 2.2. *Z. bailii* is one of the most problematic species
53 due to its exceptional tolerance to stressful conditions; for example, it can tolerate up to
54 70 °C in a high glucose environment. *Z. bailii* can therefore contaminate a wide variety
55 of acidic or high-sugar foods, which would normally be considered stable during storage,
56 such as mayonnaise. Besides its effect on the quality of the product, the alterations of the
57 organoleptic properties of foods caused by this yeast, make them more susceptible to
58 colonization by other microorganisms (Vermeulen, 2008).

59 For its part, *Candida parapsilosis* is a pathogenic yeast that has been taxonomically
60 classified into 3 groups: *C. parapsilosis*, *C. orthopsilosis* and *C. metapsilosis* (Lo et al.,
61 2017; van Asbeck et al., 2008). This yeast is part of the normal flora of the skin, hands
62 and mucous membranes and can contaminate food in situation of poor hygiene or
63 manufacturing practices. *C. parapsilosis* has been detected and isolated in fruits (Lo et
64 al., 2017), yogurt at concentrations between 10 colony forming units (CFU)/g and 10⁶
65 CFU/g (Rohm, Lechner, & Lehner, 1990), and sauces (Robl et al., 2014), being also very
66 resistant to food preservation treatments. The determination of *Z. bailii* and *C.*
67 *parapsilosis* is therefore a factor of great importance in the shelf life of certain foods such
68 as sauces.

69 The most commonly used technique to detect the presence of yeasts is microbial plate
70 counting. However, this methodology requires long periods of time compared to other
71 analytical techniques and so its routine application is not practical, which is one of the
72 reasons why, in the last years, have seen growing interest in the development and
73 application of alternative analytical methods to solve this agrifood problem.

74 To date, several alternatives have been proposed, such as methods based on direct
75 amplification of the yeast DNA of a sample through the polymerase chain reaction (PCR)
76 (Andorrà, Berradre, Mas, Esteve-Zaroso, & Guillamón, 2012), or molecular methods
77 based on the analysis of genes encoding ribosomal RNA (Garner, Starr, McDonough, &
78 Altier, 2010). However, these methods are tedious, slow or expensive, and do not
79 distinguish between viable and dead cells (Elizaquível et al., 2013), which complicates
80 their implementation in the food industry. Enzymatic immunoassays (ELISA, enzyme
81 linked immunosorbent assay) have also been proposed, although they have lack of
82 sensitivity when matrices are complex, cross reactions between related antigens, and their
83 automation would also involve a high cost (García et al., 2004). More recent studies
84 describe the use of mass spectrometry (MS) for detecting and identifying yeasts, more
85 specifically, the use of matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization (MALDI) coupled to a
86 time-of-flight (TOF) analyser (Bizzinia & Greubab, 2010; Quiles-Melero, García-
87 Rodríguez, Gómez-López & Mingorance, 2011; Taverna et al., 2019). This technique
88 allows the identification of microorganisms through an analysis of proteins, associating a
89 specific mass spectrum to a given species. However, it presents drawbacks when used in
90 direct samples due to its low sensitivity, and the need for a considerable amount of protein
91 in order to obtain reliable profiles.

92 Wang et al. (2015) also proposed a metal oxide sensor to detect two osmotolerant yeasts,
93 *Z. rouxii* and *C. tropicalis*, in a high-sugar medium. This sensor array comprises 10 metal
94 oxide semiconductor chemical that allow to detect mainly aromatic compounds, nitrogen
95 oxide, ammonia, hydrogen, alkanes, sulfur compounds, many terpenes and sulphur and
96 alcohols. They demonstrated that sensors sensitive to methane, alcohol, and aromatic
97 compounds might the most important for detection of spoilage caused by *Z. rouxii* and *C.*
98 *tropicalis*.

99 In addition, the authors studied the evolution of the volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
100 fingerprint during the growth of these two yeasts using solid-phase microextraction

101 (SPME) and gas chromatography (GC) coupled to MS. The VOCs produced were mainly
102 composed of alcohols, ketones, aldehydes, acids, and esters. Although the SPME-GC-MS
103 method was not proposed for classifying real contaminated food samples, since the above
104 experiments were only carried out in culture media, it seems that studying the evolution
105 of VOCs by means of GC-MS could be a good alternative for the detection and
106 quantification of yeasts in food.

107 In fact, it has also been demonstrated that different yeast strains (*Saccharomyces*
108 *cerevisiae* and *Lachancea thermotolerans*), used during the fermentation of sun-dried
109 must, exercise a great influence on volatile profile of wine (Morales, Fierro-Risco, Ríos-
110 Reina, Ubeda & Paneque, 2019). In this case, volatile composition was determined by
111 dual sequential stir bar sorptive extraction, followed by GC–MS analysis.

112 The chromatogram obtained from the analysis of microbial volatile compounds can
113 provide information on microbial activity, abundance, community structure, community
114 level and physiological activity (Araki et al., 2012). However, the difficulty of these
115 experiments lies in the large number of metabolites produced, and the diverse nature of
116 their chemical and physical properties, which makes the simultaneous quantification of
117 all metabolites unattainable with current instrumental capacities (García et al., 2004). On
118 the other hand, the limited distribution of molecular weight does not allow for a complete
119 and detailed analysis using only MS, so that it generally needs to be coupled to a
120 separation technique such as GC (Viswanadhan, Rajesh, & Balaji, 2011). This coupling
121 generates a large volume of data, making their processing more complicated.

122 In this work, head-space (HS) GC-MS is presented as an alternative method for the
123 detection and quantification of two problematic yeasts (*Z. bailii* and *C. parasilopsis*) in
124 sauces, avoiding lengthy times and costs involved in the traditional plate counting
125 technique. Different chemometric models are investigated using all the data obtained by
126 GC-MS (m/z profile, peak area of the chromatogram, the entire chromatographic profile
127 or TIC and combination of m/z values and TIC), in order to obtain the highest
128 classification success. The results are compared with the chemometric models
129 constructed using other characteristics of the contaminated sauce such as pH or colour.

130 **2. Materials and methods**

131 *2.1. Reagents*

132 All the reagents used in this work were of analytical grade and the solvents were of HPLC
133 grade. Hexanal, acetaldehyde, acetone, dimethylsulfide, 2,3-butanodione, ethyl acetate,
134 pentanal, chlorobenzene and methanol (MeOH) were supplied by Sigma Aldrich (St.
135 Louis, MO, USA) and dimethyl sulfoxide by ApplicChem GmbH (Darmstadt, Germany).
136 Tryptic soy broth (TSB), sabouraud dextrose agar with chloramphenicol and peptone
137 water, all from Pronadisa Conda (Madrid, Spain), were used for the preparation of culture
138 media. In addition, chlorobenzene was used as internal standard (IS) in the GC-MS
139 analyses. This was prepared by diluting 2 μL of chlorobenzene in 25 mL of dimethyl
140 sulfoxide to obtain a concentration of 80 $\mu\text{L/L}$. The solution was stored at -4°C until use.
141 Standard solutions of 1000 mg/L of hexanal, acetaldehyde, acetone, dimethylsulfide, 2,3-
142 butanodione, ethyl acetate and pentanal were prepared in MeOH.

143 2.2. Instrumentation and software

144 GC-MS analyses were carried out on a 7890A GC-System gas chromatograph from
145 Agilent Technologies (California, USA), equipped with a temperature-controlled
146 vaporizer (PTV) model CIS4-C506 and an automatic injector (Headspace model
147 Multipurpose Sampler MPS), both from Gerstel (Mülheim an der Ruhr, Germany). The
148 GC system was coupled to a mass spectrometer (5975C inert MSD-triple axis detector
149 from Agilent Technologies). The chromatographic separation was carried out on a DB-
150 624 column with an internal diameter of 0.25 mm, a length of 60 m and a film thickness
151 of 1.40 μm , consisted of 94% dimethylpolysiloxane and 6% by cyanopropylphenyl, also
152 from Agilent Technologies. The injection was made in split mode with a ratio of 1:10.
153 The GC temperature programme was: start temperature 40°C , hold for 5 min, increase to
154 150°C at $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ and maintain for 2 min; next, the temperature of 220°C was reached
155 at $25^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ and held for 2 min. The mass spectrometer was operated using electron-
156 impact (EI) mode (70 V) and the temperature of the ion source was 230°C . Analyses were
157 carried out using scan mode from 29 to 150.

158 A SensIONTM pHmeter (Hach, Colorado, USA) was used for pH measurements. Colour
159 determination was carried out using a 962 colorimeter from X-Rite (Michigan, USA) and
160 a Nicolet Evolution 300 spectrophotometer of Thermo Electron Corporation
161 (Massachusetts, USA) was used to prepare the inoculum of *C. metapsilosis* and *Z. bailli*.

162 Data were processed using Microsoft Office Excel (Microsoft, Washington, USA) and
163 Simca-P (Umetrics, Malmö, Sweden).

164 2.3. *Strains and culture conditions*

165 Two different species of yeast were used: *Z. bailii* and *C. metapsilosis*. The first was
166 obtained from the Spanish Collection of Valencia Type Crops (CBS 680) which was
167 isolated by Lindner and Guilliermond in 1912. *C. metapsilosis* was isolated from a sauce
168 by Productos del Sur S.A., and its identity was verified by comparing the DNA
169 sequencing of the isolated strain with that available in the Spanish Collection of Valencia
170 Type Crops.

171 The yeast inoculum was prepared by transferring a colony obtained on Sabouraud
172 dextrose with chloramphenicol agar plate to a soybean digested medium (TSB), which
173 was incubated for 24 hours at 25°C. Fresh cultures for the experiments were performed
174 with a sterile seeding loop by incubating a colony of a pure culture for 24 hours in TSB
175 at 25°C. The inoculum was standardized by dilution in TSB to an optical density of 0.9
176 at 600 nm for *C. metapsilosis* and 0.5 for *Z. bailli*, which is equivalent to a yeast
177 concentration of 10^7 CFU / mL and 10^5 CFU / mL, respectively. Yeast populations were
178 estimated by diffusing suitably diluted aliquots onto plates with agar and
179 chloramphenicol, followed by incubation at 25°C for 48 hours.

180 2.4. *Elaboration and inoculation of mayonnaise*

181 The experiments were carried out using light mayonnaise, i.e. mayonnaise but with lower
182 fat content, and it was prepared using a cooking robot under sterile conditions. The
183 formulation of each mayonnaise consisted of 55.05% soybean oil, 29.00% water, 8.00%
184 yogurt, 3.00% vinegar, 1.80% salt, 1.70% sugar, 0.50% caseinate, 0.80% xanthan gum
185 and 0.15% guar gum. Two different food additives were tested to increase the variability
186 of the samples and the profile of volatiles generated. Specifically, GNS-plus, a synergistic
187 combination of vegetable extracts of citrus fruits (orange, lemon and grapefruit) and dill,
188 and sorbate-benzoate, a mixture (1:1) of potassium sorbate and sodium benzoate. In this
189 way, 21.60 kg of mayonnaise was prepared, which was divided into two batches (10.80
190 kg each). A batch contained 0.1% of sorbate-benzoate and the other 0.1% of GNS
191 additive.

192 Aliquots of 50 g of mayonnaise were placed in sterile polyethylene bags. One third of the
193 bags was inoculated with *Z. bailii* and another third with *C. metapsilosis* at concentration
194 of 10^3 CFU/mL. The bags were heat sealed and incubated at 5°C, 25°C and 37°C until
195 sampling. One gram of each bag was sampled weekly for seven weeks, obtaining a sample
196 for each temperature, each strain, and each additive. The remaining bags were not
197 inoculated in order to monitor the evolution of the mayonnaise with no yeast
198 contamination and were incubated and sampled in the same conditions.

199 Colony forming units (CFU) were determined by plate count, following ISO 6887-1.
200 Mayonnaise samples were diluted in peptone water, and the appropriate dilutions were
201 seeded in sterile plates. Then, sabouraud dextrose agar with chloramphenicol was added
202 and the plates were incubated at 25 °C for 48 hours before counting.

203 *2.5. Sample analysis by GC-MS*

204 For HS-GC-MS analyses, 1 g of mayonnaise was weighed into a 10 mL vial and 50 µL
205 of the chlorobenzene internal standard solution at 80 µL/L was added.

206 Samples were incubated at 80°C for 20 minutes and injected into the GC. In the PTV, the
207 sample was cooled to 0°C, and heated for 30 seconds at 12°C/s until reaching 180°C,
208 which was maintained for five minutes.

209 To quantify the hexanal content a calibration curve was established using standard
210 solutions in dimethyl sulfoxide at the following concentrations: 2, 4, 8, 12 and 16 µg/L,
211 considering the ratio peak area of hexanal/peak area of chlorobenzene (IS) as the
212 analytical signal.

213 *2.6. Measurement of pH and colour*

214 Each sample was measured for pH and colour. For the colour determination, the
215 parameters L* (lightness), a* (balance between green and red) and b* (balance between
216 yellow and blue) were determined with an X-Rite 962 spectrophotometer using the
217 D65/10° illumination/observation method. Although the three parameters (L*, a* and b*)
218 were determined, only the L* parameter was considered for the construction of the
219 chemometric models because the other two parameters remained constant throughout the
220 experiment.

221 2.6. Data treatment

222 The chemometric analysis consisted of a qualitative analysis of the principal components
223 (PCA) with a confidence interval of 95%, followed by a discriminant analysis of
224 orthogonal partial least squares (OPLS-DA). The OPLS-DA filtered the variation not
225 directly related to the response and maximized the variance among the categories by
226 minimizing it within them. In all the cases, data were randomly divided into two different
227 sets: a classification set (80%) for construction of the models and a validation set (20%).
228 In addition, six different scaling (unit variance (UV), unit variance none (UVN), pareto
229 (Par), pareto none (ParN), centering (Crt) and freeze), as well as the logarithmic
230 transformation of the data, were tested. With UV scaling, the variable j is centered and
231 scaled to "Unit Variance", i.e. the base weight is computed as $1/sd_j$, where sd_j is the
232 standard deviation of variable j computed around the mean. The Par scaling is in between
233 no scaling and UV scaling. The variable j is centered and scaled to Pareto Variance, i.e.
234 the base weight is computed as $1/\sqrt{sd_j}$, where sd_j is the standard deviation of variable
235 j computed around the mean. UVN and ParN scaling are the same as UV and Par,
236 respectively, but the variable is not centered, i.e. the standard deviation is computed
237 around 0. With Crt, the variable is centered but not scaled and with freeze, the scaling
238 weight of the variable is frozen and will not be re-computed when observations in the
239 workset change or the variable metric is modified after the freezing.

240 Variable importance in projection (VIP) graphics were also obtained, to check the
241 importance of each variable on the construction of the final model.

242 3. Results and discussion

243 3.1. Yeast detection in mayonnaise samples

244 Initially, all mayonnaises were analyzed using plate counting to assess the microbial
245 contamination level. Based on these results, samples were divided into two groups:
246 contaminated (120 samples) and non-contaminated (130 samples) and were analysed by
247 HS-GC-MS. The pH and colour were also measured. The evolution of log₁₀, pH and
248 colour is shown in Supplemental Figure S1 and as can be seen, no significant differences
249 were obtained between incubation temperatures and sampling time.

250 Then, chemometric models were constructed using the available data in order to obtain a
251 classification model that allowed the differentiation of contaminated and non-
252 contaminated samples, as an alternative to plate counting.

253 Four different chemometric models were constructed using: a) the variables of pH, colour
254 and hexanal content obtained by GC-MS analysis; b) the m/z profile, simulating that the
255 samples have not been previously separated in the GC; c) area of all the peaks present in
256 the total ion chromatogram (TIC) obtained by GC-MS; and d) the entire chromatographic
257 profile.

258 *3.1.1. Sample classification using pH, colour and hexanal content*

259 The variables of pH, colour and hexanal content (by-product of fat oxidation) have been
260 widely related to microbial food contamination (Huis in't Veld, 1996; Shahidi & Pegg,
261 2007; Collins & Buick, 1989). For this reason, in a first attempt to obtain a fast and simple
262 analytical method, as an alternative to plate counting, a chemometric model was obtained
263 using these three parameters.

264 Initially, a PCA model was carried out using the UV scaling. However, separation
265 between the classes was not good and so an OPLS-DA model was therefore implemented.
266 The best validation results were obtained using raw data and UV scaling (Supplemental
267 Table S1). However, the separation between contaminated and non-contaminated
268 samples was not effective using these three parameters (Figure 1), which produced a
269 success rate of 60.0%. While 76.9% of non-contaminated samples were correctly
270 classified, only 41.7% of contaminated samples were well identified (Supplemental Table
271 S2).

272 Alterations in pH, colour and hexanal content seemed to be mainly related to the additive
273 used, in this case sorbate-benzoate or GNS, since both group of samples appear well
274 separated in the OPLS-DA chart.

275 *3.1.2. Sample classification using m/z profile*

276 The monitored m/z ranged from 29 to 150 and the m/z profile was obtained using GC
277 software. Data were processed by summing each m/z throughout the entire analysis time,
278 i.e. it simulates the sample not being previously separated in the chromatographic column.

279 Data differed considerably between samples and, in order to equalize the data matrices so
280 that they were comparable, m/z were rounded to the nearest whole number, summing all
281 the intensity values for the same whole number.

282 As in the previous section, a PCA model did not provide good separation between groups.
283 Therefore, an OPLS-DA was performed using the 80% of samples (Figure 2). In this case,
284 different scaling data transformations were also tested, obtaining the best results with data
285 transformed to the logarithm ParN scaling (Supplemental Table S3). This scaling reduces
286 the impact of noise and artefacts on models (Wiklund et al., 2008), dividing each variable
287 by the square root of its standard deviation.

288 OPLS-DA was validated using the remaining 20% of samples and a success rate of 78.0%
289 was obtained (84.6% of non-contaminated and 70.8% of contaminated samples were
290 correctly classified, Supplemental Table S4).

291 The contribution plots (Supplemental Figure S2) showed that m/z values of between 121
292 and 150 contributed significantly to the correct classification of non-contaminated
293 samples, while m/z values of between 29 and 74 were suitable for classifying
294 contaminated samples. It could be associated to the decomposition of the mayonnaise
295 components in volatile compounds of smaller size by the action of the yeasts, although it
296 would be studied in more detail.

297 *3.1.3. Classification of samples using area of all the peaks present in the TIC obtained by*
298 *HS-GC-MS*

299 As mentioned above, the limited distribution of molecular weight does not allow for a
300 complete and detailed analysis using only MS, and so the chromatogram obtained by GC-
301 MS was studied.

302 Initially, the peaks present in the TIC were integrated manually (Figure 3). These peaks
303 were normalized with respect to the area of the IS. Of the 13 peaks integrated, seven of
304 them could be identified as acetaldehyde, acetone, dimethyl sulphide, 2,3-butanodione,
305 ethyl acetate, pentanal and hexanal, while the remaining 6 were processed as unknown
306 compounds. The seven compound were identified using the GC-MS library and were
307 confirmed by injecting fine sauce spiked with each compound at 1 $\mu\text{g/g}$.

308 OPLS-DA models were also constructed using different scaling and data transformation.
309 In this case, the highest classification success was obtained using raw data without
310 transformation and an UVN scaling (Supplemental Figure S3, Supplemental Table S5).
311 However, the use of peak area was also insufficient for the totally successful classification
312 of samples, since contaminated and non-contaminated samples appeared intermixed. The
313 application of the OPLS-DA models to the validation set gave a classification success of
314 76.0%, classifying correctly 88.4% of non-contaminated samples but only 62.5% of
315 contaminated samples (Supplemental Table S6). Therefore, this method would result in
316 a high number of false negatives. The peaks that contributed most to the classification
317 corresponded to acetaldehyde, ethyl acetate, hexanal, 2,3-butanodione and one non-
318 identified compound (unknown compound 5) (Supplemental Figure S4). These
319 compounds tended to show higher intensity in the contaminated samples, but due to the
320 great variability between samples, a clear relationship could not be established
321 (Supplemental Figure S5).

322 *3.1.4. Classification of samples using the total ion chromatogram*

323 The TIC is the sum of the intensities of all the mass spectral peaks belonging to the same
324 scan, so it contains all the information concerning a sample and can be used as a
325 fingerprint. OPLS-DA models were therefore constructed using TIC data.

326 Baseline correction was not necessary, since the TICs were stable throughout the
327 experiment. In this case, the best models were obtained using logarithmic transformation
328 and the UV scaling (Figure 4, Supplemental Table S7), which provided a success rate of
329 92.0%. The 92.3% of the non-contaminated samples and 91.7% of the contaminated
330 samples were correctly classified (Table 1).

331 *3.1.5. Classification of samples by combining the m/z values with the chromatographic 332 profile*

333 The best classification results were obtained using TIC (92.0 %) and m/z data (78.0%)
334 separately. Then, new OPLS-DA models were obtained combining both data in order to
335 enhance the classification success. The best results were also obtained using logarithmic
336 transformation and UV scaling (Supplemental Table S8). However, the classification
337 success was the same as when only the TIC data were used.

338 3.2. *Classification of contaminated samples according to microbial concentration*

339 The chemometric models constructed using the TIC data obtained by HS-GC-MS
340 demonstrated high success in classifying samples contaminated and non-contaminated by
341 yeast. Therefore, the potential of TIC data to quantify the yeast level was investigated.

342 First, contaminated samples were divided into seven groups with different concentration
343 levels of yeast: group 1 (between 10^1 and 10^2 CFU/g), group 2 (between 10^2 and 10^3
344 CFU/g), group 3 (between 10^3 and 10^4 CFU/g), group 4 (between 10^4 and 10^5 CFU/g),
345 group 5 (between 10^5 and 10^6 CFU/g), group 6 (between 10^6 and 10^7 CFU/g) and group
346 7 (between 10^7 and 10^8 CFU/g). OPLS-DA models were also constructed with 80% of
347 samples (calibration set) using both the raw data matrix and the logarithmically
348 transformed matrix, and different scaling. The optimal model was obtained using the raw
349 matrix again adjusted to a UV scaling. However, this model was not sufficient for
350 differentiating between the seven groups of samples and a success rate of 54.17% was
351 obtained when it was applied to classify the validation set (20% of remaining samples).

352 Therefore, other concentration ranges were selected, and the calibration set was divided
353 into three balanced groups: group 1 comprised the concentration range from 10^1 to 10^3
354 CFU/g (31 samples), group 2 from 10^3 to $10^{5.5}$ CFU/g (32 samples) and group 3 from
355 $10^{5.5}$ to 10^8 CFU/g (32 samples). In this case, good separation was achieved between
356 groups (Figure 5) and the best model was also obtained applying a logarithmic
357 transformation and UV scaling (Supplemental Table S9). The validated model had a
358 classification success of 87.50%.

359 3.3. *Classification of contaminated samples according to yeast strain*

360 Given the success of HS-GC-MS to classify contaminated sauce samples according to the
361 yeast concentration, the suitability of the method for differentiating between different
362 types of yeast was studied.

363 For that, contaminated samples were divided into two groups: samples contaminated with
364 *Z. bailii* and samples contaminated with *C. metapsilosis*. Most of the contaminated
365 samples belonged to the *Z. bailii* group, since this yeast grows faster than *C. metapsilosis*.
366 So, in order to obtain balanced group a number of 31 samples was included in each group.

367 The best chemometric model was obtained with data transformed logarithmically and
368 adjusted to a UV scaling. Both groups appeared completely separate (Supplemental
369 Figure S6). However, when this model was applied to the validation sample set, only
370 62.50% success was achieved. This model should be improved, e.g. by increasing the
371 number of samples during the calibration, for it be used successfully.

372 **4. Conclusions**

373 HS-GC-MS analysis is proven to be a viable alternative to classical microbial counting
374 methods for the identification and quantification of yeasts in sauces, reducing time and
375 costs.

376 The use of MS without previous separation in GC does not allow the optimal
377 classification of samples, and it needs to be coupled to GC. Most authors opt to monitor
378 some VOCs by GC-MS to detect samples contaminated by microorganisms. However, it
379 was demonstrated that the use of the entire chromatographic profile (TIC), and therefore
380 of the complete VOC profile, achieves better results when classifying sauces
381 contaminated by yeasts, since a validation success of 92.0% was achieved. Other
382 parameters such as pH and colour were not suitable for the correct classification of the
383 samples.

384 Moreover, the complete VOCs profile obtained by HS-GC-MS allowed the contaminated
385 samples to be classified according to yeast concentration level, with a validation success
386 rate of 87.50%.

387 Chemometric modelling using these data allows different type of yeast to be
388 differentiated, in the present case *C. metapsilosis* and *Z. bailii*. However, although two
389 well-differentiated groups were obtained, when the model was applied to the validation
390 set only 62.50% of samples were correctly classified.

391 **Acknowledgements**

392 The authors acknowledge the financial support of the Comunidad Autónoma de la Región
393 de Murcia (CARM, Fundación Séneca, Project 19888/GERM/15), the Spanish MINECO
394 (Project CTQ2015-68049-R) and the European Commission (FEDER/ERDF). B. Markiv
395 acknowledges a fellowship from Prosur.

396 **References**

- 397 Andorrà, I., Berradre, M., Mas, A., Esteve-Zarzoso, B., & Guillamón, J. M. (2012). Effect
398 of mixed culture fermentations on yeast populations and aroma profile. *LWT - Food*
399 *Science and Technology*, 49(1), 8-13.
- 400 Araki, A., Kanazawa, A., Kawai, T., Eitaki, Y., Morimoto, K., Nakayama, K., & Kishi,
401 R. (2012). The relationship between exposure to microbial volatile organic compound
402 and allergy prevalence in single-family homes. *Science of the Total Environment*, 423,
403 18-26.
- 404 Bizzinia, A., & Greubab, G. (2010). Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-
405 flight mass spectrometry, a revolution in clinical microbial identification. *Clinical*
406 *Microbiology and Infection*, 6(11), 1614-1619.
- 407 Collins, M. A., Buick, R. K. (1989). Effect of temperature on the spoilage of stored peas
408 by *Rhodotorula glutinis*. *Food Microbiology*, 6 (3), 135-141.
- 409 Elizaquível, P., Aznar, R., & Sánchez, G. (2013). Recent developments in the use of
410 viability dyes and quantitative PCR in the food microbiology field. *Journal of Applied*
411 *Microbiology*, 116(1), 1-13.
- 412 García, T., Mayoral, B., González, I., López-Calleja, I., Sanz, A., Hernández, P. E., &
413 Martín, R. (2004). Enumeration of yeasts in dairy products: a comparison of
414 immunological and genetic techniques. *Journal of food protection*, 67(2), 357-64.
- 415 Garner, C. D., Starr, J. K., McDonough, P. L., & Altier, C. (2010). Molecular
416 identification of veterinary yeast isolates by use of sequence-based analysis of the D1/D2
417 region of the large ribosomal subunit. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 48(6), 2140-
418 2146.
- 419 Huis in't Veld, J. H. J. (1996). Microbial and biochemical spoilage of foods: an overview.
420 *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 33 (1) 1-18.
- 421 Kurtzman, C. P., Rogers, R., & Hesseltine, C. W. (1971). Microbiological spoilage of
422 mayonnaise and salad dressings. *Applied microbiology*, 21(5), 870-874.

423 Lo, H. J., Tsai, S. H., Chu, W. L., Chen, Y. Z., Zhou, Z. L., Chen, H. F., Lee, C.F., &
424 Yang, Y. L. (2017). Fruits as the vehicle of drug resistant pathogenic yeasts. *Journal of*
425 *Infection*, 75(3), 254-262.

426 Morales, M. L., Fierro-Risco, J., Ríos-Reina, R., Ubeda, C., & Paneque, P. (2019).
427 Influence of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Lachancea thermotolerans* co-inoculation on
428 volatile profile in fermentations of a must with a high sugar content. *Food Chemistry*,
429 276, 427-435.

430 Quiles-Melero, I., García-Rodríguez, J., Gómez-López, A., & Mingorance, J. (2011).
431 Evaluation of matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionisation time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF)
432 mass spectrometry for identification of *Candida parapsilosis*, *C. orthopsilosis* and *C.*
433 *metapsilosis*. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 31(1), 67-71.

434 Robl, D., Thimoteo, S. S., de Souza, G. C. C. F., Beux, M. R., Dalzoto, P. R., Pinheiro,
435 R. L., & Pimentel, I. C. (2014). Occurrence of *Candida orthopsilosis* in Brazilian tomato
436 fruits (*Lycopersicon esculentum Mill.*). *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 45(1), 105-
437 109.

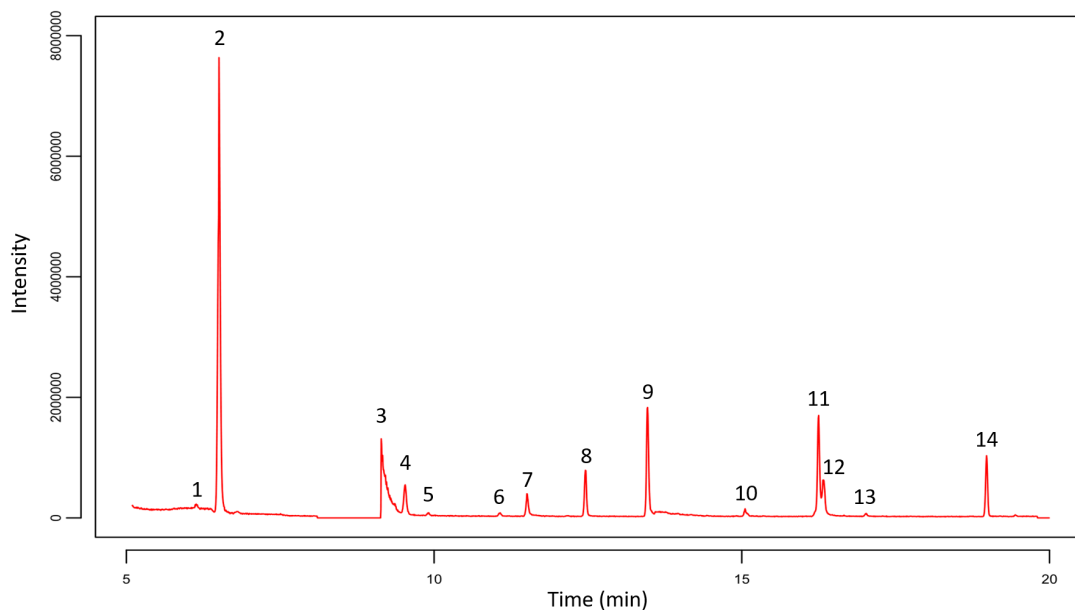
438 Rohm, H., Lechner, F., & Lehner, M. (1990). Microflora of Austrian natural-set yogurt.
439 *Journal of Food Protection*, 53(6), 461-540.

440 Shahidi, F., & Pegg, R. B. (2007). Hexanal as an indicator of meat flavor deterioration.
441 *Journal of Food Lipids*, 1(3), 177-186.

442 Taverna, C. G., Mazza, M., Bueno, N. S., Alvarez, C., Amigot, S., Andreani, M., Azula,
443 N., Barrios, R., Fernández, N., Fox, B., Guelfand, L., Maldonado, I., Murisengo, O. A.,
444 Relloso, S., Vivot, M., & Davel, G. (2019). Development and validation of an extended
445 database for yeast identification by MALDI-TOF MS in Argentina. *Medical mycology*,
446 57 (2), 215-225.

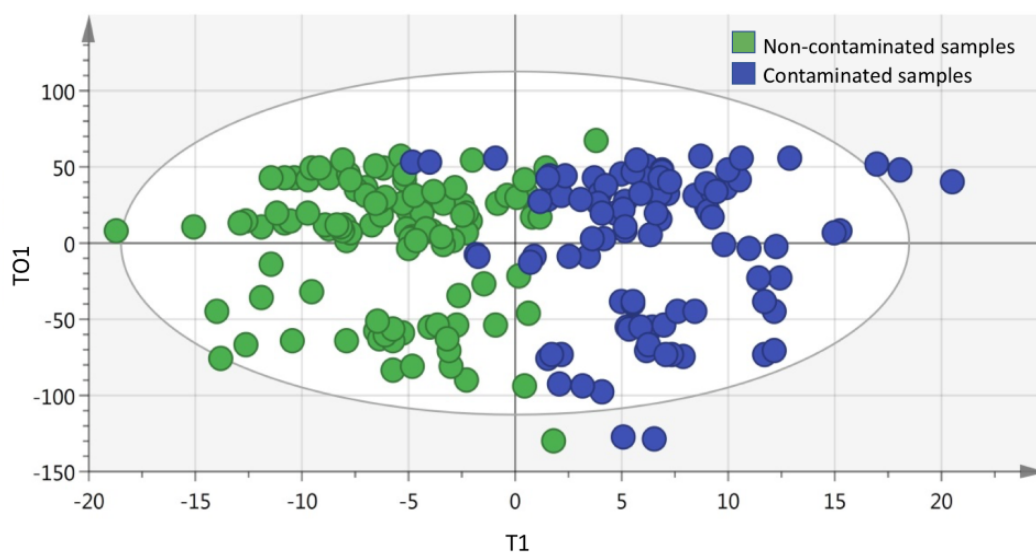
447 Vermeulen, A. (2008). Microbial stability and safety of acid sauces and mayonnaise-
448 based salads assessed through probabilistic growth/no growth models. University of
449 Ghent. <https://biblio.ugent.be/publication/470411/file/4334568.pdf>.

- 450 Viswanadhan, V. N., Rajesh, H., & Balaji, V. N. (2011). Atom type preferences, structural
451 diversity, and property profiles of known drugs, leads, and nondrugs: A comparative
452 assessment. *ACS Combinatorial Science*, 13(3), 327-336.
- 453 Wang, H., Hu, Z., Long, F., Guo, C., Yuan, Y., & Yue, T. (2015). Detection of
454 *Zygosaccharomyces rouxii* and *Candida tropicalis* in a high-sugar medium by a metal
455 oxide sensor-based electronic nose and comparison with test panel evaluation. *Journal of*
456 *Food Protection*, 78(11), 2052-2063.
- 457 Wiklund, S., Johansson, E., Sjöström, L., Mellerowicz, E. J., Edlund, U., Shockcor, J. P.,
458 Gottfries, J., Moritz, T., & Trygg, J. (2008). Visualization of GC/TOF-MS-based
459 metabolomics data for identification of biochemically interesting compounds using OPLS
460 class models. *Analytical Chemistry*, 80(1), 115-122.



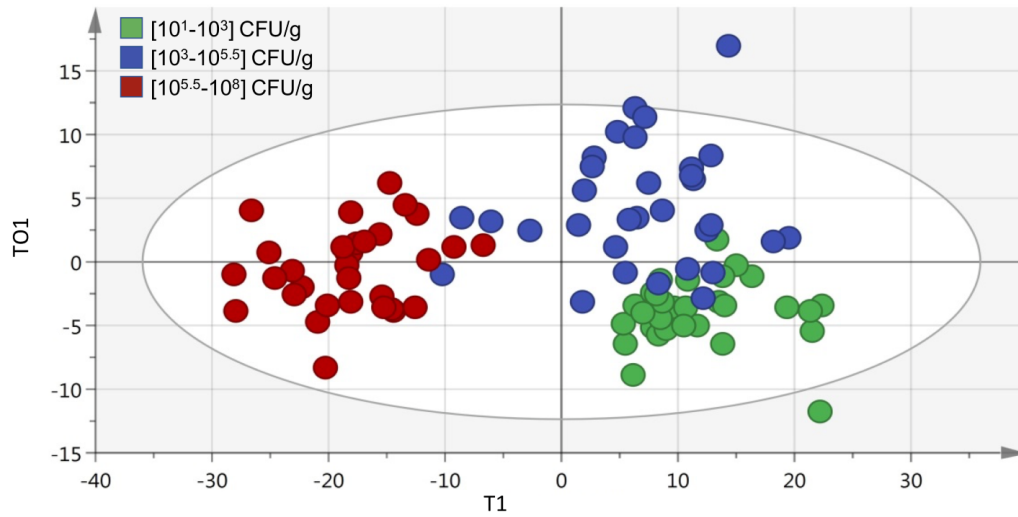
468

469 Figure 3. Chromatogram of a sauce sample obtained by HS-GC-MS. 1: Unknown 1, 2:
 470 Acetaldehyde, 3: Acetone, 4: Dimethyl sulphide, 5: Unknown 2, 6: Unknown 3, 7: 2,3-
 471 Butanodione, 8: Ethyl acetate, 9: Unknown 4, 10: Pentanal, 11: Hexanal, 12: Unknown
 472 5, 13: Unknown 6, 14: Chlorobenzene (IS).



473

474 Figure 4. OPLS-DA model obtained using total ion chromatogram data



475

476 Figure 5. OPLS-DA model constructed using TIC data to classify contaminated samples
477 into three groups of yeast concentrations.

478

479 Table 1. Validation matrix for non-contaminated/contaminated sauce samples of the
480 OPLS-DA model built using the TIC

PREDICTION / ACTUAL	Contaminated samples	Non-contaminated samples
Contaminated samples	22	2
Non-contaminated samples	2	24
Total	24	26
% Correct	91.7%	92.3%

481

482