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## **Linking Pélardon artisanal goat cheese microbial communities to aroma**

## **compounds during cheese-making and ripening**

- 3 Marine Penland<sup>1,2</sup>, Hélène Falentin<sup>1</sup>, Sandrine Parayre<sup>1</sup>, Audrey Pawtowski<sup>2</sup>, Marie-
- 4 Bernadette Maillard<sup>1</sup>, Anne Thierry<sup>1</sup>, Jérôme Mounier<sup>2</sup>, Monika Coton<sup>2</sup> & Stéphanie-Marie
- $Deutsch<sup>1</sup>$
- 6 <sup>1</sup> STLO, INRAE, Institut Agro, 35042, RENNES, FRANCE
- <sup>2</sup> Univ Brest, Laboratoire Universitaire de Biodiversité et Ecologie Microbienne, F-29280
- Plouzané, France.
- Marine Penland: marine.penland@inrae.fr
- Hélène Falentin: helene.falentin@inrae.fr
- Sandrine Parayre: sandrine.parayre@inrae.fr
- Audrey Pawtowski: audrey.pawtowski@univ-brest.fr
- Marie-Bernadette Maillard: marie-bernadette.maillard@inrae.fr
- Anne Thierry: anne.thierry@inrae.fr
- Jérôme Mounier: jerome.mounier@univ-brest.fr
- Monika Coton: monika.coton@univ-brest.fr
- Stéphanie-Marie Deutsch: stephanie-marie.deutsch@inrae.fr
- \***Corresponding author**: Hélène Falentin
- E-mail: helene.falentin@inrae.fr
- Phone: +33(0)223485334

#### **Abstract**

 Pélardon is an artisanal French raw goat's milk cheese, produced using natural whey as a backslopping method. The aim of this study was to identify key microbial players involved in the acidification and aroma production of this Protected Designation of Origin cheese. Microbial diversity of samples, collected from the raw milk to 3-months cheese ripening, was determined by culture-dependent (MALDI-TOF analysis of 2877 isolates) and -independent (ITS2 and 16S metabarcoding) approaches and linked to changes in biochemical profiles (volatile compounds and acids). In parallel, potential dominant autochthonous microorganism reservoirs were also investigated by sampling the cheese-factory environment. Complex and increasing microbial diversity was observed by both approaches during ripening although major discrepancies were observed regarding *Lactococcus lactis* and *Lactiplantibacillus paracasei* fate. By correlating microbial shifts to biochemical changes, *Lactococcus lactis w*as identified as the main acidifying bacterium, while *L. mesenteroides* and *Geotrichum candidum* were prevalent and associated with amino acids catabolism after the acidification step. The three species were dominant in the whey (backslop). In contrast, *L. paracasei*, *Enterococcus faecalis, Penicillium commune* and *Scopulariopsis brevicaulis,* which dominated during ripening, likely originated from the cheese-making environment. All these four species were positively correlated to major volatile compounds responsible for goaty and earthy Pélardon cheese aroma. Overall, this work highlighted the power of MALDI-TOF and molecular techniques combined with volatilome analyses to dynamically follow and identify microbial communities during cheese-making and successively identify the key-players involved in aroma production and contributing to the typicity of Pélardon cheese.

#### **Keywords: microbial dynamics; MALDI-TOF; GC-MS; metabarcoding; backslopping**

#### **1. Introduction**

 Artisanal cheeses are highly appreciated worldwide because of their typical sensory attributes such as intense and complex flavors compared to industrial cheeses (Montel et al*.* 48 2014; Van Hoorde, Vandamme and Huys 2008). They are often made from raw milk and rely 49 on spontaneous fermentation, which implies that indigenous microorganisms (bacteria and fungi) naturally present in raw materials also contribute to the fermentation in addition to 51 defined cultures sometimes added for acidification or ripening. In this context, the origin of these microorganisms has been investigated and milk is considered as a main microbial reservoir. However, traditional cheese-making practices such as manual salting, renneting and backslopping (i.e. the use of a small portion of milk or whey from a previous successful fermentation) have also been identified as microbial sources (Ercolini et al*.* 2008; Montel et al. 2014). Furthermore, some studies highlighted the impact of the production environment on the microbial communities involved in the fermentation process of some artisanal cheeses, in particular the milking environment equipment such as vats and trays (Calasso et al., 2016; Carpino et al., 2016), the cheese-making and ripening environment (equipments and surfaces). All these potential reservoirs enrich the microbial diversity of artisanal cheeses, which therefore harbor a complex microbiota (Delcenserie et al., 2014). Cultural methods are classically used to characterize microbial diversity in fermented foods. They rely on diverse and more or less selective media to enumerate and isolate

 microorganisms, which constitute both the advantages and limits of the approach. While enumeration and isolation are useful to understand population shifts and preserve microbial diversity for further use, it only reveals the viable and cultivable fraction of the microbial communities and is particularly fastidious and time-consuming. In addition, the depth of the analysis depends on the number and selectivity of the media used. In the last decade, culture-independent approaches, based on DNA analyses, have been widely used to describe

 microbial communities in cheese as they have the advantage to provide an overview of the microorganisms found in an ecosystem, cultivable or not. Different PCR-based techniques have been applied such as PCR-DDGE (Dolci et al., 2008) or more recently high-throughput sequencing techniques such as metabarcoding (De Filippis et al., 2018; Kergourlay et al., 2015). Using this approach, studies were conducted to characterize the bacterial communities of artisanal Irish cheeses based on their geographic production area (Quigley et al., 2012) or to determine the microbiota associated with specific cheese types (Dugat-Bony et al., 2015) or cheese rinds (Wolfe et al., 2014). Such methods revealed complex microbiota that were previously overlooked by cultural methods. However, most studies focused on microbial diversity and compared the microbial communities encountered in different cheese varieties thus rendering a static view of the microbial diversity rather than investigating the changes in the microbial community during cheese-making and ripening periods.

 Cheese-making and ripening are complex phenomena during which the cheese develops its aroma and other sensory characteristics. Many successive or simultaneous enzymatic reactions occur throughout the process, which include lactose fermentation process, proteolysis and amino acid catabolism, and lipolysis. These reactions were shown to directly or indirectly involve bacteria and/or fungi depending on cheese type (Bertuzzi et al., 2018; Delgado et al., 2011). As a consequence, investigating the microbial dynamics and their correlation with the cheese aroma profile might help to better apprehend the key-players and their respective role throughout the process.

 Pélardon cheese is a Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) raw goat milk artisanal 91 cheese. It is mostly produced in the mountainous Cevennes and Corbières areas and in 92 Southern France and is characterized by a soft creamy texture with a thin wrinkled white and blue mold rind. It is solely produced using an artisanal process by small farm-style



 Samples came from the same production batch (April 7, 2018) and sampling was done at seven steps during the cheese making process: raw materials (raw milk and whey used for backslopping inoculum), cheese samples after curdling (day 2), after salting and drying (day 8), after two weeks (day 14), two months (day 62) and three months ripening (day 90). Altogether, the sampling steps provided 33 samples corresponding to the biological replicates collected throughout cheese-making and ripening. Whole cheeses were used for each analysis point. Samples were subjected to microbial enumeration, isolation and identification of bacteria and fungi, metabarcoding analyses and biochemical analyses to quantify sugars, acids and volatile compounds. General sampling strategy and experiments are summarized in Fig. 1 and primers used in this study in Supplementary Table S1. **2.1.2.** Production environment sample collection Sixteen samples were taken at day 2 from different areas in the production and ripening facilities in order to track potential environmental microbial sources. Airborne microorganisms from the main production, drying and ripening rooms were collected using an air sampler (Sampl'air Lite, AES) operated at flow rate of 100 L/min for 10 min while ten surfaces were also analysed by streaking swabs moistened with Tryptone Salt (TS) diluent (sodium chloride 8.5 g/L ; tryptone 1 g/L) over a 31.5 cm² area as well as three intrants 136 (running water samples and salt) and **stored at 4<sup>o</sup>C until analysis**. All samples were analysed within 24 h and further subjected to microbial enumeration, bacterial and fungal isolations, identifications and metabarcoding analyses (except air samples). **2.2.** Microbial counts during cheese-making process and in environmental samples For raw materials and cheese samples, microbial populations of interest were monitored

at each sampling point. For cheese samples following the drying step (day 8), core and rind

were analyzed separately. In each case, 10 g of cheese were mixed with 90 mL of 2 %

 trisodium citrate buffer pre-heated to 42°C and then blended with a stomacher for 3 min at high speed. Serial dilutions were then prepared in TS diluent and plated on different media. The following microbial populations were enumerated: mesophilic aerobic bacteria on milk 146 plate count agar (MPCA) (30°C, 72 h), mesophilic halotolerant bacterial populations on MPCA supplemented with 5 % NaCl (30°C, 72 h), enterococci on Kenner fecal agar supplemented with 1% (w/v) 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride (KF) (37°C, 48 h), presumptive lactococci on M17 (30°C, 48 h), presumptive anaerobic lactobacilli on de Man Rogosa Sharpe (MRS) pH 5.4 (30°C, 48 h, anaerobiosis), presumptive aerobic lactobacilli on MRS pH 5.4 (30°C, 48 h, aerobiosis), total fungal populations on Yeast Glucose Chloramphenicol (YGC) agar (25°C, 5 days) and halotolerant fungi on YGC supplemented with 5 % NaCl (25°C, 5 days). All media targeting bacterial populations were supplemented with 0.1 % natamycin to inhibit fungal growth, except for KF medium*.* For environment samples, enumerations were performed on three media: PCA (30°C, 72 h) for mesophilic aerobic microorganisms, MRS (37°C, 48h, anaerobiosis) for lactic acid bacteria and YGC (25°C, 5 days) for fungi after initial serial dilutions in TS diluent. Air 158 samples were directly collected by impacting 1  $m<sup>3</sup>$  of air on two media: PCA (30°C, 72 h) for mesophilic aerobic microorganisms and YGC (25°C, 5 days) for fungi. For those samples, analyses were performed on one replicate. **2.3.** Isolation and identification of microorganisms

**2.3.1.** Collection of microbial isolates

 For each biological replicate of raw materials (raw milk and whey used for backslopping) and cheese samples (core and rind analyzed separately from day 8 onwards), microorganisms were isolated from five media: bacteria from MPCA + natamycin, M17, MRS pH 5.4 (anaerobiosis) and KF media and fungi from YGC medium. Twenty representative isolates (if

 possible) were randomly selected from each medium from the Petri dish showing the highest morphological diversity. Regarding environmental samples, 15 isolates (if possible) were selected from PCA and YGC media.

 **2.3.2.** Isolate dereplication using MALDI-TOF MS analysis and identification by sequencing

 A dereplication step using MALDI-TOF mass spectroscopy was performed for all bacterial and fungal isolates to identify clones prior to species level molecular identifications. Analyses were performed on a VITEK MS instrument (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Étoile, France) equipped with the Launchpad V2.8.4 acquisition software. Bacterial and fungal isolates were processed following the manufacturer's instructions. For filamentous fungi isolates, extraction and plate preparation were performed as described by Quéro et al. (2019) as well as spectra acquisition. Then, mass spectra of each isolate were first compared against the bioMérieux bacterial or fungal industrial-clinical VITEK MS databases (V3.2.0 for bacteria and new update of the VITEK MS database for fungi developed in the laboratory together with bioMérieux) for presumptive identifications (internal research tool). Then, the spectra of isolates identified as belonging to the same species were compared against one another to build clusters based on their similarities using SARAMIS software (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France). A threshold of 65 % similarity was applied for bacteria and of 50 % for fungi, as described by Lindgren et al. (2018). Representative isolates (isolates with the lowest 186 similarity within a species cluster) were then chosen within each cluster and for each 187 presumptive species. For each presumptive species, the choice of representative isolates was 188 based on the heterogeneity between their spectra and when discrepancies were observed 189 between MALDI-TOF identification and position within the cluster. An example is given for *Staphycoccus* genus (Supplementary figure S1).

 Species-level molecular identifications for filamentous fungi were done after amplification and sequencing of either the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region using ITS4/ITS5 primers or the partial β-tubulin gene using Bt2a/Bt2b primers (Glass and Donaldson, 1995) depending on the presumptive genus (i.e. *Penicillium, Aspergillus*) provided by MALDI-TOF MS analysis. Yeasts were identified by targeting the D1-D2 domain using NL1/NL4 primers (Kurtzman and Robnett, 1998). Finally, bacteria were identified by sequencing the complete 16S rRNA gene after amplification with fD1 and rP2 primers (Weisburg et al., 1991). Sequencing was performed using the same primers as those used for PCR amplifications. Sequences were assembled into contigs using Geneious software (http://www.geneious.com, Kearse et al*.* 2012) and compared with the GenBank databases using the "Basic Local Alignment Search Tool" (BLAST) (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST) and "SILVA Incremental Aligner" (SINA) (https://www.arb-silva.de/aligner/). The obtained genus or species level identifications were then confronted with MALDI-TOF identifications and dendrogram analyses. When both identifications were consistent inside a given cluster, the identification was expanded to all the isolates within the cluster. When the identification was inconsistent, isolates were excluded.

**2.4.** Metabarcoding analysis

**2.4.1.** Raw materials, cheese and environment sample preparation

 Metabarcoding analysis was performed on raw milk (triplicates), whey (triplicates), curd (3 curds), cheeses at day 8, 14, 62 and 90 and 13 environmental samples. The same raw material and cheese samples (core and rind separately), diluted in citrate buffer, were used as described previously for culture-dependent analyses (see 2.2). Aliquots of 1 mL were centrifuged (9000 *g*, 15 min, 4°C) then supernatants were removed and the cell pellets stored at -20°C until DNA extraction. Regarding environmental samples, pellets were obtained from liquid

 samples by centrifuging 1 mL (9000 *g*, 15 min, 4°C), whereas for surface samples, swabs were placed in 1 mL of TS diluent prior to centrifugation (9000 *g*, 15 min, 4°C) to obtain cell 217 pellets.

**2.4.2.** Total DNA extraction from cheese and environment samples

 Total DNA extractions were performed using the DNeasy Blood and tissue kit (Qiagen, Germany) with a supplementary initial enzymatic lysis. First, cell pellets were thawed at room 221 temperature then resuspended in 400 µL of lysis buffer (Tris-HCl 20 mM at pH 8.0, EDTA 2 222 mM, Triton X-100 1.2 %) supplemented with lysozyme (20 mg/mL) and mutanolysin (5 223 U/ $\mu$ L), then Rnase (25  $\mu$ g/mL; Qiagen, Germany) and lyticase (0.5 U/ $\mu$ L; Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) were added. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 2.5 h followed by mechanical 225 lysis with 300  $\mu$ L of 0.1mm zirconium beads per tube. Samples were homogenized for 2x 40 s with a 30 s break and this was repeated twice with a 1 min break on ice using a Precellys Evolution homogeneizer (Bertin technologies, Germany). A proteinase K (20 mg/mL) treatment was finally applied for 1 h at 56°C. The remaining extraction and purification steps were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Extracted DNA quality and 230 quantity were verified using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer and samples were stored at -20°C until further analysis.

**2.4.3.** Quantitative PCR of *Lactiplantibacillus paracasei*

The number of *Lactiplantibacillus paracasei (*ex-*Lactobacillus paracasei*) in total DNA

extracts from day 14, 62 and 90 were determined using quantitative PCR targeting the

monocopy *tuf* gene, as described by Achilleos and Berthier (2013). To build the standard

curve, DNA was extracted from pure cultures from 1 mL of an overnight culture of *L.*

*paracasei* CIRM-BIA 1517. Serial dilutions of standard DNA were prepared and submitted to

238 the same amplification conditions. The curve was then created by plotting qPCR Ct values

 against the gene copy numbers previously determined and the copy number of *L. paracasei* was calculated for each cheese sample by comparing the Ct of the sample with that of the standard curve.

**2.4.4.** Amplification and sequencing parameters

 To study bacterial and fungal diversity in both cheese and environmental samples, PCR were performed as follows. For bacteria, V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was targeted using S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-17 and S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 primers (Klindworth et al., 2013). For fungi, ITS3f/ITS4\_Kyo1 primers (Toju et al., 2012) were used, targeting the ITS2 region. ITS2 and V3-V4 amplifications and sequencing steps were performed in the same run at Genome Quebec sequencing platform (MacGill University, Canada) using Illumina Miseq PE300 technology generating 2x300 bp reads and a total of 8.2 Gb of data for both amplicon types derived from the DNA extracts.

**2.4.5.** Bioinformatic and phylogenetic analysis

 Sequences were pre-processed for quality and length using the following parameters: amplicon size between 370 and 490 bp for V3-V4 contigs and 90-500 bp for ITS2 contigs, mismatch rate was set at 0.1 for both data types. Sequencing data were then analyzed using the FROGS pipelines as developed by Escudié et al. (2018) under Galaxy (Afgan et al., 2018). Briefly, raw paired-end reads were assembled and sequences were clustered using the Swarm algorithm (Mahé et al., 2015) with an aggregation distance of 3 into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs). Sequences underwent some filtering steps: chimeras were detected using Uparse (Edgar, 2013) and 'de novo parameter' and removed, then sequences with a relative 260 abundance below  $5x10^{-5}$  or present in only one sample were excluded. Finally, the affiliation 261 step was performed using SILVA database (v132 pintail 100) and UNITE (v7.1) for 16S and ITS2 data, respectively. When 16S sequences were multi-affiliated by FROGS because the

 targeted V3-V4 region was unable to discriminate species, the resulting possible species level assignations were implemented into the final OTU table.

**2.4.6.** Biodiversity and statistical analyses

Processing and statistical analyses of microbial communities were performed using

Phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) under R software. Data were normalized

based on the sample that had the lowest number of sequences. Alpha-diversity indexes

 taxonomic composition and abundance distribution were then determined for each sample and compared.

**2.5.** Biochemical analyses of cheese samples

**2.5.1.** pH measurement

pH of the whey and day 2 cheeses was measured using a WTW 3100 pH meter

 (Weilheim, Germany) equipped with a puncture electrode (LoT406-M6-DXK GmbH, Mettler Toledo, Urdorf, Switzerland) and temperature probe (WTW 325/HC) by direct insertion. For cheese samples from day 8, 14, 62 and 90, pH was measured in core and rind separately.. All measurements were performed on cheese triplicates.

**2.5.2.** Quantification of sugars and organic acids by HPLC

 Two sugars and four organic acids were quantified in samples at six sampling points by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Compound extraction was performed as follows: all samples except whey were first blended in sterile distilled water (1:5) using a 282 Stomacher (Merck Eurolab, Strasbourg, France) and incubated at 40 °C for 1 h. The obtained dilutions were then centrifugated (3000 *g*, 30 min, 4°C) and filtered on a Whatmann 40 284 membrane. The filtrates were then diluted  $(3:4)$  with  $H_2SO_4$  to reach a final concentration of 0.05 M. Samples were then frozen overnight at -20°C and, after thawing, centrifuged (8000 *g*, 286 20 min,  $4^{\circ}$ C). For each sample, supernatant was finally recovered and filtered using 0.45  $\mu$ m PTFE membrane into a 2 mL-vial and stocked at -20°C until analysis.

 HPLC analyses were performed using the conditions described by Leyva Salas et al. (2019). Compounds were identified and quantified by comparing retention times and peak area of standard solutions injected at different concentrations (ranging from 0.05 to 1 mg/mL). All samples were analyzed in the same run. When necessary, supernatants were diluted with 0.05 M H2SO<sup>4</sup> and re-injected.

**2.5.3.** Volatile compounds profile analyses by headspace-GC-MS

 Volatile profiles were obtained for six sampling points including whey and cheeses (from days 2, 8, 14, 62 and 90) using headspace (HS) gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC- MS). Compound extraction was performed using a Perkin Elmer Turbomatrix HS-40 trap automatic headspace sampler with trap enrichment on 2.5 g of mixed cheese placed in 22 mL vials. Analyses were performed according to methods previously described by Harlé et al., (2020). Prior to compounds identification, data were processed using PerkinElmer Turbomass software, version 5.4.2.1617 and by converting the raw data to time- and mass-aligned chromatographic peaks areas using the open source XCMS package implemented with the R statistical language (Smith et al., 2006). Parameters were set as follows: width at half maximum=5, group bandwidth=3. Volatile compound identification was achieved by comparing the retention index and mass spectral values (1) from the NIST 2008 Mass Spectral Library (Scientific Instrument Services, Ringoes, NJ, USA) and (2) when possible with those of authentic standards (Sigma Aldrich, France) analysed in the same system and (3) those reported in the literature. Finally, volatile profile changes between samples were investigated by comparing relative abundance of the identified compounds using ANOVA analyses with R sofware. Data were then normalized by centering and scaling the abundances.



334 while enterococci counts were higher in raw milk  $(2.3 \log_{10} CFU/mL)$  compared to whey  $(2.3 \log_{10} CFU/ML))$  log<sub>10</sub> CFU/mL). In day 2 curds, presumptive lactococci and anaerobic lactobacilli dominated 336 (up to 9.2  $log_{10}$  CFU/g), while enterococci and presumptive aerobic lactobacilli remained undetected. Fungal growth occurred during milk acidification and renneting step with 338 populations reaching 4.6  $log_{10}$  CFU/g at day 2. From the post-drying stage (day 8) onwards, differences were observed between core and rind 340 populations. Aerobic bacterial populations remained relatively stable in rinds while a decrease by 1.2 log<sub>10</sub> was observed in cores and up to 3 log<sub>10</sub> for halotolerant bacteria. A similar trend was observed for presumptive lactococci and anaerobic lactobacilli populations in cores 343 which decreased by  $\sim$  1.8 log<sub>10</sub> during drying (day 8) and, then remained stable ( $\sim$ 6 log<sub>10</sub>) CFU/g) up to 90 days. Inversely, both presumptive aerobic lactobacilli and enterococci populations significantly increased during the cheese-making and ripening in both core and 346 rinds to reach 6 log<sub>10</sub> CFU/g for lactobacilli and 5 log<sub>10</sub> CFU/g for enterococci over the course of ripening. Fungal populations were consistently  $2 \log_{10}$  higher on rinds and also increased 348 during the drying step then remained at high levels until the end of ripening  $(7.91 \log_{10}$ 349 CFU/g). In contrast, they remained fairly constant in core samples, around 5.5  $\log_{10}$  CFU/g. An increase in halotolerant fungal populations was also observed in rinds between day 8 and day 14 while no such effect was observed in the core.

**3.1.2.** Identification of viable microbial communities by MALDI-TOF and sequencing

 A total of 2001 bacterial and 563 fungal isolates were collected from the raw materials and cheese-making samples and 143 bacterial and 160 fungal isolates from environmental samples.

 Isolates were first subjected to a dereplication step using MALDI-TOF analysis to select representative isolates for further molecular identifications. Overall, good-quality spectra were acquired for 88 % bacterial isolates (n=1876) and 99 % fungal (n= 727) isolates. These





408 clustered into 43 OTUs after chimera and singleton removal. Concerning metabarcoding



434 (below 200 reads per samples) and thus not formally included in this analysis. In the whey used for backslopping, the most abundant genus was *Lactococcus,* with two identified species (*L. lactis, L. raffinolactis*) and one OTU that could not be identified at the species-level. These three OTUs represented up to 99.5 % of sequences. At day 2, after acidification, curd samples were dominated by *L. lactis* and it remained dominant during the following stages in both core and rind samples although its abundance progressively decreased in rinds concomitantly with the appearance of other genera and species, especially belonging to staphylococci (i.e. *S. succinus* and *S. saprophyticus*) and actinobacteria. For these groups, high variations in relative abundances were observed among replicates in the late stages of ripening (days 62 and 90). Indeed, *Brevibacterium* spp. abundances ranged from 2.8 to 7.6 %, *Glutamicibacter* spp. from 4.4 to 47 % and those of *Brachybacterium* spp. from 0.8 to 11 %. Regarding fungal communities, 15 species belonging to 11 genera, nine families and two phyla were identified in raw materials and cheeses (see Supplementary Fig. S4). *G. candidum* was the most abundant species with a relative abundance of 99.5 % in all cases, regardless of the sample type or stage. However, fungal diversity increased at the beginning of the ripening period (day 14) as shown by the presence of *Penicillium* species, and in late ripening stages (days 62 and 90) with the presence of *S. brevicaulis* in rinds. However, no differences in the relative abundances between core and rind were observed for these species at the end of ripening. Several other fungal species were punctually identified e.g. *Cladosporium* was only found in whey and raw milk. **3.2.2.** *Lactiplantibacillus paracasei* quantification during ripening

- Because of some discrepancies between culture-dependent and independent analyses
- regarding the relative abundance of *L. paracasei* at days 14, 62 and 90, its presence was
- 457 further investigated by qPCR, using TufLcpara specific primers. In these conditions, qPCR
- efficiency was 94 %. Based on the standard curve, *tuf* gene copy number of *L. paracasei* per

 gram of cheese was determined and used as a proxy of *L. paracasei* cells per gram of cheese. We observed that *tuf* gene copy numbers per gram of cheese were 33-fold (cheese core) and 3-fold (cheese rind) higher at day 62 than at day 14, indicating that *L. paracasei* population increased over ripening time (Table 1). It then remained stable until day 90. Noteworthy, at day 62 and 90, the *L. paracasei* population was 10-fold higher in the cheese core than in the rind.

# **3.3.** Study of potential environmental microbial sources using culture-dependent and - independent approaches

 To investigate the potential sources of microorganisms in shaping Pélardon cheese microbial communities, sampling was done inside the farmhouse. Detailed sample information and viable microbial counts are shown in Table 2. All samples were analyzed using culture-dependent (Fig. 5) and -independent approaches (Supplementary Fig. S5), except air samples which were only assessed by the culture-dependent approach. Low microbial counts for mesophilic aerobic bacteria, fungi and LAB were encountered especially 473 for surface samples  $(< 4 \log 10 \text{ CFU/cm}^2 \text{ or m}^3)$  and these results were correlated with low 474 amplification by culture-independent analysis. Concerning the main bacterial species identified in cheese, *L. mesenteroides* was identified on cheese trays used in the drying room 476 (PS5) by culture-dependent analyses and surfaces from the cheese-making room (PS2, PS4 and PS9) by the culture-independent approaches. *L. lactis* was only isolated from a tray in the drying room (PS5), while it was also identified at low relative abundance (8 %) on a clean tray used for curdling (PS9) by the culture-independent approach. *Staphylococcus* species were among the most frequently isolated species on trays used for ripening (PS6) and in the cheese-making room (PS7) by both approaches (see Supplementary Fig. S6 for a detailed comparison). The same species were also found in the air of the drying and ripening rooms. Bacterial genera identified in Pélardon cheese rinds such as *Glutamicibacter* and

 *Brevibacterium* were also isolated from surface samples collected from the cheese-making, drying and ripening rooms at high abundances. Noteworthy, enterococci and lactobacilli were not isolated nor detected in environmental samples. For fungi, air sample analysis showed that *G. candidum* was present at high abundances in the air of the cheese-making, drying and ripening rooms. *P. commune* and *S. brevicaulis* were also present but at lower abundances. These three species were also identified on the surface of the trays in the different rooms using culture-independent analysis. **3.4.** pH, sugar and non-volatile organic acid changes pH measurements were similar in the whey used for backslopping and in day 2 curd (~4.3 units) and continuously increased (p<0.001) throughout ripening until day 62 to reach 6.07 and 6.73 pH units in cores and in rinds, respectively. pH values were systematically and significantly higher in rinds as compared to cores except on day 90 (Table 3). The main sugars (lactose, galactose) and organic acids (acetic, citric, lactic acids) were 497 quantified in whey used for backslopping and during the different stages of Pélardon cheese-498 making and ripening. Lactose, galactose as well as acetic and lactic acids showed a similar 499 trend throughout the process. Their highest concentrations were in curd after acidification (day 2) and progressively decreased: lactose and acetate were detected until day 62 whereas 501 galactose and lactic acid were no longer detected as early as day 14 (early ripening). In contrast, citric and 3-phenyllactic acid concentrations were below the detection level during acidification (day 2) and increased during drying (for 3-phenyllactic acid) and ripening (both acids). **3.5.** Changes in volatile profiles during cheese-making and ripening Using headspace GC-MS, 54 volatile compounds belonging to six main families were detected and identified in Pélardon cheese samples during cheese-making and ripening.

 Compound names, identification criteria and their respective abundances are listed in the Supplementary Table S2.

 To better understand these changes and the main compounds involved, a one-way ANOVA analysis followed by Tukey's highest significant difference test were performed on abundance data. Out of the 54 volatile compounds, 47 were detected at a significantly different 513 abundance at, at least, one stage (p<0.05). To confirm these trends, a correlation analysis was then performed on the volatile abundances and the results are presented using a heatmap with sample clustering. Overall, the identified compounds could be linked to specific cheese- making or ripening stages based on their high abundances and four main groups of 517 compounds could be differentiated (Fig. 6). A first group (group I) gathered six compounds present in high abundances in curd (day 2) and whey samples, i.e. acetic acid, 3- hydroxybutan-2-one, 2-methylthiolan-3-one, pentane-2,3-dione, butane-2,3-dione and hexanal. The post-drying (day 8) and early ripening (day 14) stages were associated with compounds of group II corresponding to branched-chain and aromatic compounds (i.e. 3- methylbutanoic acid, 2-phenylacetaldehyde). Finally, in the late ripening stages (day 62 and 90), 33 compounds were quantified at their highest abundances, mainly belonging to methylketones, secondary alcohols and free fatty acids and could be separated in two groups (III and IV). Group III gathered compounds identified in particularly high abundances at day 62 and day 90 among which were seven free fatty acids (butanoic, hexanoic, pentanoic, heptanoic octanoic, nonanoic and decanoic acids), five ketones (non-8-en-2-one, octan-3-one, pentan-2-one, heptan-2-one, hexan-2-one, and nonan-2-one) and one alcohol (heptan-2-ol). Group IV mostly gathered compounds with high abundances in day 90 cheeses and noteworthy, it included the four esters as well as ketones and secondary alcohols. **3.6.** Correlation between microbial communities and changes in biochemical profiles during cheese-making and ripening

 A principal component analysis was conducted with all microbial and biochemical data to correlate temporal changes in microbial communities with biochemical profiles (Supplementary Fig. S7). Dimensions 1 and 3, which explained 34.2 % and 11.6 % of the variance respectively, provided the best separation of samples according to the cheese-making and ripening times. Day 2 and whey samples were grouped together and associated with the *Lactococcus* genus, identified by both culture-dependent and -independent approaches (three OTUs), and two sugars (lactose and galactose) as well as six other compounds including acetic acid, lactic acid and 3-hydroxybutanone. Rind samples from day 8 and day 14 were linked to 2-phenylacetaldehyde. During ripening (day 62), rinds were associated with a high pH and six volatile compounds as well as three species, *S. xylosus*, *L. casei/paracasei*, and *P. commune,* identified by culture-dependent approach. At the end of ripening (day 90), multiple species identified by both culture-dependent analyses (*E. faecalis, S. equorum, S. brevicauli*s, *Brevibacterium* spp.) and metabarcoding (L. lactis\_62, Lactococcus sp.\_78, Brachybacterium 546 sp 56 and Brachybacterium sp. 8) were correlated to 13 compounds mainly free fatty acids, methyl ketones and esters. To get a better insight into the potential links between aroma compounds and microorganisms, a Pearson correlation analysis was performed based on culture-dependent data, organic acid and volatile data. Pair-wise correlation coefficients and corresponding p-

551 value were thus calculated (Fig. 7). Focusing on the strongest correlations ( $|r| > 0.8$  and p <

0.001), four microbial groups stood out. *L. lactis* and *G. candidum* were strongly and

positively correlated with lactose, acetic acid, lactic acid, and 3-hydroxybutan-2one. *L.* 

*mesenteroides,* whose correlation profile was relatively similar to that of *L. lactis,* was

strongly and positively correlated to 3-methylpropanoic, 3-methylbutanoic acids and 2-

phenylacetaldehyde; highest abundances of these compounds being at day 8. *S. xylosus, S.* 

*equorum* and *E. hirae* were also positively correlated with 11 compounds, mainly ketones,

 carboxylic acids and alcohols. *P. commune*, *L. casei/paracasei*, *E. faecalis* and *S. brevicaulis* were positively correlated with the same 11 compounds but also showed high correlations to 11 others compounds, namely octan-3-one, oct-1-en-3-ol, 2-ethylhexanoic acid, octanoic acid, 2-hydroxypentan-3-one, 3-methylheptan-2-one, nonanal, decan-2-one, nonanoic acid, methylsulfonylmethane and ethyl butanoate. Among these species, *S. brevicaulis* showed a slightly different correlation profile as strong and positive correlations were also observed for ethyl hexanoate, ethyl acetate and 1-hydroxypropan-2-one. High correlations for those compounds were otherwise observed only with *E. faecium*. Finally, strong positive correlations were also punctually observed.

**4. Discussion**

 In this study, microbial community dynamics during PDO Pélardon cheese-making and ripening were unraveled for the first time by culture-dependent and -independent approaches and linked to the cheese aroma profile.

 The experimental set-up aimed at combining extensive culture-dependent and culture- independent approaches to precisely and efficiently study the microbial communities associated to Pélardon cheese, raw materials and the cheese-making environment. Cultural methods and isolate identifications rely on tedious work and time-consuming techniques that often limit the analysis scale in terms of sample number and collected isolates. In the present study, we used MALDI-TOF MS as a high-throughput technique combined with molecular sequencing to describe cheese microbial communities at a species-level, based on a recently described microbial culturomics strategy (Lagier et al., 2015; Sarhan et al., 2019). Although MALDI-TOF identifications have been recently used in food-related microbial diversity studies (Nacef et al., 2017; Peruzy et al., 2019), this is the first time, to our best knowledge, that this method is used to study both bacterial and fungal dynamics in a fermented product. It 582 allowed us to analyze a large collection of autochthonous isolates ( $n = 2877$ ) from different

 media targeting dominant and sub-dominant populations. Taking into account both culture- dependent and independent data, 29 genera were identified during Pélardon cheese-making, 12 of which were identified by both approaches (Supplementary Fig. S8). Among those, *Lactococcus* and *Leuconostoc* for bacteria and *Geotrichum* for fungi were identified by both approaches as the most dominant during curdling while during ripening and in rinds, *Brevibacterium*, *Arthrobacter, Staphylococcus, Penicillium* and *Scopulariopsis* were found but in different proportion according to the method. Interestingly, enterococci were only identified by the culture-dependent approach with increasing species diversity during ripening; a result that was completely overlooked by the culture-independent approach. 592 Culture-independent approach however, further **identified five genera**, mainly highlighting the subdominant halophilic bacteria (i.e. *Brachybacterium, Salinococcus, Marinhabitans)* on the Pélardon cheese surface.

 Our dynamic study of Pélardon microbial diversity revealed inconsistencies regarding microbial dominances during ripening between approaches. Indeed, culture-dependent results revealed that *L. lactis,* after dominating during acidification*,* decreased during ripening. In contrast, metabarcoding results suggested that *L. lactis* remained dominant in core during the entire ripening. Moreover, most surprisingly, no *Lactiplantibacillus* OTUs were detected in any samples by the culture-independent approach, while it was shown to increase and dominate during ripening by the culture-dependent approach. To eliminate any potential discrepancies due to technical errors qPCR tests targeting *L. paracasei* were performed on ripening samples to confirm culture-dependent data. *L. paracasei* was detected at high levels during ripening in both cores and rinds. These results have thus led us to assume that the dominance of *L. lactis* DNA from both live and dead cells following curdling masked any lactobacilli DNA in the studied samples using the culture-independent approach. Indeed, autolysis of starter bacteria, such as *L. lactis* in our study, during cheese ripening is a well-

 known phenomenon although the involved mechanisms are not well established (Lazzi et al., 2016; Treimo et al., 2006). It is also possible that *L. lactis* cells were in a Viable But Not Cultivable state (VBNC). Bacteria in VBNC state has been discussed in the general context of cheese production (Edalatian et al., 2012) and to a lesser extent for cheese starter cultures (Falentin et al*.* 2012; Ruggirello, Dolci and Cocolin 2014), however their active metabolic contribution have yet to be determined. Similar hypotheses could be done to explain the differences in the proportions of *G. candidum, Penicillium* spp. and *S. brevicaulis* at each ripening stage analyzed by the two approaches. Discrepancies between culture-dependent and culture-independent results have been repeatedly reported regardless of the culture- independent method used (Coton et al., 2017; Delbès et al., 2007) and our study led to a different "picture" of the microbial communities present during ripening. Based on the literature findings reported above and on our observations, the 3-step culture-dependent approach we implemented in this study provided the most thorough overview of the microbial community dynamics during Pélardon cheese-making although metabarcoding highlighted the presence of some specific micro-organisms. Moreover, similar microbial analyses were performed on another batch six months before and the same dominant species were found and discrepancies between the two approaches also observed (data not shown). We thus decided to mainly consider the culture-dependent results for correlation analysis. As previously mentioned, Pélardon cheese is produced without any starter. Thus, the plausible origin of the microorganisms identified during cheese-making and ripening was 628 investigated in the raw materials and cheese-making environment. Raw milk microbiota was dominated by coagulase negative Staphylococci as previously reported by Tormo et al. (2011) although most of the identified species did not persisted after acidification. However, results highlighted the contribution of whey as a major source of starter LAB, mainly *L. lactis* and in

a lesser extent *L. mesenteroides*. This finding is consistent with other cheese technologies

 using backslopping such as Rocamadour or Parmigiano Regiano, in which the main acidifying bacteria are also brought by the whey (Coloretti et al., 2016; Demarigny et al., 2006). However, in the case of Pélardon cheese, the whey also acted as a source of fungal populations involved in ripening as it contained high populations of *G. candidum*. Besides, *G. candidum* and the other most dominant fungal species were also found all over the cheese- factory. In addition, some species identified on Pélardon cheeses, especially *Glutamicibacter* and *Staphylococcus* species, were also found on several surfaces but not in raw materials. Our results thus strongly suggested that the working environment likely contributes to the enrichment of the surface microbiota of these cheeses during ripening. Overall, it would be of interest in the future to investigate to what extent the microbiota revealed here is shared between other Pélardon producers and if the specific microorganisms we identified as part of the core microbiota can be considered as a "house microbiota" as previously described by Bokulich and Mills (2013) for two artisanal washed-rinds cheeses.

 Cheese aroma compound composition is particularly relevant for artisanal cheeses as it strongly contributes to their typicity and influences the consumer's preference. In this study, a correlation between the identified bacteria and fungi, the main fermentation products and aroma compounds was established. Our results revealed dynamics importance of both communities early-on in the cheese-making process. Indeed, whey used as an inoculum was dominated by *L. lactis,* the main acidifying microorganism, along with *L. mesenteroides* and none of the other species identified in raw milk persisted in curd. These two species were well correlated to the major lactose fermentation products such as lactic acid and acetic acid but also to hexanal and 3-hydroxybutan-2-one (acetoin) compounds associated with buttery and fresh aromas. Lactic and acetic acids rapidly decreased during drying suggesting their utilization, which is consistent with the significant pH increase. *L. mesenteroides* was also correlated to high abundances of leucine and valine degradation products such as 3-

 methylbutanoic and 2-methylpropanoic acid (Delgado et al., 2011), which abundances were highest at day 8. This would suggest that *L. mesenteroides* is also actively involved during the post-acidification stage which is often related to proteolysis activities (McSweeney and Sousa, 2000). *G. candidum* was highly associated with the drying and early ripening stages and is most likely responsible for the observed deacidification phenomenon. Moreover, lactic acid catabolism by *G. candidum* is well-established in cheeses such as Camembert and Brie (Boutrou and Guéguen, 2005). Its deamination activity has also been reported and linked to the production of 2-phenylacetaldehyde and 2-phenylethnaol from phenylalanine, compounds that we found to considerably increase in Pélardon cheese during drying (day 8) and early ripening (day 14) stages. Interestingly, both compounds, found at high abundances at the same stages, are known to bring floral and sweet aromas to the product (Majcher et al., 2014). Prolonged ripening for up to three months seems to be linked to the dominance of two non- starter lactic acid bacteria, *L. paracasei* and *E. faecalis,* and two filamentous fungi, *P. commune* and *S. brevicaulis,* and associated with most of the identified volatile compounds. The strongest positive correlations were observed with some ketones, which originate from free fatty acid catabolism by different microorganisms in particular fungi and have low odor thresholds with strong "earthy" and "cheesy" notes. Interestingly, *S. brevicaulis* was previously identified in cow milk ripened cheeses (Schornsteiner et al., 2014) and natural ripened cheeses as a core microorganism (Wolfe et al., 2014). This species has also been associated with high proteolytic activity (Bothast et al., 1975) and considered as a cheese spoiler when it predominates. Pélardon late ripening stages were also characterized by high abundances of free fatty acids, which can be released by either microbial or milk lipases (Collins et al., 2003). Their concentrations have similarly been shown to increase with aging in other goat cheeses (Delgado et al., 2011) and hexanoic and decanoic acids, also designated as caprylic and caproic acids, respectively, have previously been reported as aroma markers of

 goat cheese. In contrast, day 14 cheeses, which corresponds to the minimal ripening time required for the PDO Pélardon denomination, were not correlated with high abundances of specific compounds. Thus, the typical aroma of Pélardon cheese probably results from a balance between compounds, associated with fresh buttery and floral aromas, and as the ripening progresses by compounds that bring increased strong, earthy and goaty aromas, potentially attenuated by esters associated with fruity aromas.

689 Overall, these results highlight the dynamics of Pélardon cheese microbial community. Through correlation analysis we identified the key-players of Pélardon cheese microbial communities. However, more in-depth studies are necessary to first validate and secondly further explore their functional role. By implementing a culture-dependent approach, we were able to constitute a large collection of autochthonous isolates, hence working on individual species or reconstructed consortia could help to better characterize their metabolic potential, decipher interactions between the key-players and further demonstrate their contribution to Pélardon cheese aroma typicity.

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The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal

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### **Data and microbial resources availability**

- Sequence data generated in this study are publicly available on the European Bioinformatics
- Institute database (www.ebi.ac.uk) under accession numbers PRJEB37923 (bacterial 16S
- rRNA sequencing run data) and PRJEB37922 (fungal ITS2 sequencing run
- data).Representative isolates will be deposited in culture collections: UBOCC for fungi and
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926 **Table 1.** *Lactiplantibacillus paracasei* **quantification by qPCR during cheese ripening.** Results are expressed as number of copies per gram of cheese based on mean values and standard deviation of triplicate analyses. 927 cheese based on mean values and standard deviation of triplicate analyses. Means with different letters in the last column are significantly<br>928 different (Tukey's test p<0.05). different (Tukey's test  $p<0.05$ ).

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Ct Cyle threshold





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931 **Table 2. Microbial counts in environmental samples of the cheese factory**

a LAB : Lactic acid bacteria ; - : Population below delection level ; NP : enumeration Not Performed

**Table 3. Changes in pH values, sugar and organic acid concentrations (mg/g of cheese) during cheesemaking and ripening. Mean values and sugars and standard deviations are given based on triplicate cheeses. Means with diff** 936 and standard deviations are given based on triplicate cheeses. Means with different letters within  $\overrightarrow{PH}$  values or within a row for acids and sugars are significantly different (Tukey's test  $p<0.05$ ). are significantly different (Tukey's test  $p<0.05$ ).



ND below quantification and detection limit

## **Figure captions**

 **Fig. 1. Sampling strategy and experimental design used in this study for the analysis of an artisanal goat's milk cheese: Pélardon**

 

**Fig. 2. Microbial population counts estimated by culture-dependent method during the** 

 **cheese-making and ripening of Pélardon goat cheese: (A) in raw materials and curd, (B) in cheese core and (C) in cheese rind.** Mean values and standard deviations are given based on triplicates. Cultivation conditions for each population are indicated between brackets. In 947 order to facilitate the comprehension, the curd (day 2) is represented on A, B and C.

 **Fig. 3. Microbial communities diversity revealed by culture-dependent method during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening in the core (A) and in the rind (B).** Dot plots show

 microbial population counts as detailed on Fig. 1 (average values of 3 replicates) whereas bar plots represent species composition based on isolates identification obtained via MALDI-TOF

953 analysis followed by sequencing of 16S rRNA gene (bacteria) or ITS/beta-tubulin region

954 (fungi). The isolate proportion represents the number of isolates identified as a species

955 divided by the number of isolates all three replicates. In order to facilitate the comprehension,

raw milk, whey used for backslopping and day 2 (curd) are represented on A and B.

 **Fig. 4. Bacterial community composition during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening determined by a culture-independent approach.** Data were obtained by metabarcoding analysis targeting the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene. Results are expressed as normalized counts.

**Fig. 5. Microbial diversity encountered in the environment of the cheese-factory** 

 **determined using a culture-dependent approach.** Microbial composition based on isolates identification obtained via MALDI-TOF MS analysis followed by sequencing of 16S rRNA 966 gene (bacteria) or ITS/beta-tubulin region (fungi). PS refers to surface samples, PL to intrants samples while PAF, PAS, PAA refer to air samples from cheese-making, drying and ripening rooms respectively. For detailed information of the samples see Table 2.

**Fig. 6. Normalized heatmap showing volatile compounds changes determined by HS-**

 **GC-MS in Pélardon cheese samples during cheese-making and ripening.** Clustering based on Ward's linkage using Euclidean distance. Samples names are on the right, R1, R2 and R3

 refer to the cheese replicates used for analysis. Identified compounds are at the bottom part of the plot. Abundance data were centered and scaled prior to analysis. Color ranging from blue

- to red correspond to normalized abundance mean levels. The different frames highlight
- compounds with similar profile during cheese-making and ripening.
- 

 **Fig. 7. Heat-map representing Pearson correlation analysis between species identified using culture-dependent methods and biochemical compounds.** Species are shown at the bottom, compounds are displayed on the right and both were clustered using on Ward's linkage using Euclidean distance. Color ranging from red to blue correspond to negative and positive correlation respectively. Red square highlight the strongest positive correlations  $(p<0.001)$  -  $*$ , compounds quantified using HPLC.



**Fig. 2** Fig. 2



# **Fig. 3**



#### **Bacteria**



**Bacillus cereus/thuringiensis** Curtobacterium flacumfaciens Enterococcus durans Enterococcus faecium **Enterococcus italicus** Enterococcus mundtii Kocuria spp. Lactobacillus casei/paracasei Lactococcus lactis Microbacterium spp.  $\Box$  Rhodococcus spp. Sphingomonas paucimobilis Staphylococcus caprae Staphylococcus equorum Staphylococcus haemolyticus Staphylococcus sciuri Staphylococcus vitulinus/fleurettii Staphylococcus xylosus

Aerococcus viridans

- Candida parapsilosis Geotrichum candidum Meyerozyma guilliermondii Penicillium commune Scopulariopsis alboflavescens Trichosporon ovoides Unidentified
- $\Box$  Debaryomyces hansenii Kluyveromyces lactis Penicillium christenseniae Penicillium glabrum Scopulariopsis brevicaulis Yarrowia lipolytica

Fig. 4 **Fig.4**





- **Bacteria**
	-
- Acidovorax temperans **Bacillus cereus/thuringiensis** Brevibacterium spp. Curtobacterium flacumfaciens **Designation Curtos** Ruteus Glutamicibacter spp.



Geotrichum candidum Penicillium commune Trichosporon ovoides

- Lactococcus lactis
- Leuconostoc mesenteroides
- Microbacterium spp.
- 
- $E_2$  Rhodococcus spp.

Kluyveromyces lactis

- **Penicillium glabrum**
- Yarrowia lipolytica
- Sphingomonas paucimobilis Staphylococcus epidermidis Staphylococcus equorum
- Staphylococcus fleurettii
- $\Box$ Staphylococcus saprophyticus
- Candida parapsilosis
- Meyerozyma guilliermondii
- Scopulariopsis alboflavesce
- Staphylococcus sciuri  $\blacksquare$  Staphylococcus succinus Staphylococcus vitulinus/fleurettii Staphylococcus warneri  $\blacksquare$  Staphylococcus xylosus Debaryomyces hansenii Penicillium christenseniae
- Scopulariopsis brevicaulis

# **Fig. 6** Fig. 6







F\_Geotrichum.candidum LC\_Lactococcus.lactis LB\_Leuconostoc.mesenteroides PCA\_Staphylococcus.warneri PCA\_Staphylococcus.haemolyticu PCA\_Staphylococcus.caprae LB\_Staphylococcus.epidermidis LB\_Lactobacillus.brevis KF\_Enterococcus.durans PCA\_Microbacterium.spp. PCA\_Kocuria.spp. LC\_Serratia.liquefaciens F\_Meyerozyma.guilliermondii. F\_Debaryomyces.hansenii F\_Kluyveromyces.lactis F\_Scopulariopsis.alboflavescens KF\_Enterococcus.casseliflavus PCA\_Arthrobacter.russicus LC\_Glutamicibacter.spp. F\_Yarrowia.lipolytica LC\_Lactobacillus.plantarum.paraplantar PCA\_Staphylococcus.succinus LC\_Staphylococcus.saprophyticus PCA\_Staphylococcus.vitulinus.fleuret PCA\_Brevibacterium.spp. LC\_Staphylococcus.xylosus LC\_Staphylococcus.equorum KF\_Enterococcus.hirae LC\_Micrococcus.luteus LC\_Enterococcus.italicus KF\_Enterococcus.mundtii KF\_Enterococcus.malodoratus KF\_Enterococcus.faecium F\_Penicillium.commune LB\_Lactobacillus.casei.paracasei KF\_Enterococcus.faecalis ranuuu<br>sus.lactii<br>us.warm<br>aemolyt<br>ae.capremidiscus<br>s.s.duranspp.ex.min.sp<br>us.duran.spp. lliermon<br>s.hanse<br>ces.lacti<br>phasesent.russic<br>acter.spp polytica<br>paraplar<br>s.succinus.fle<br>inus.fleure.sp<br>prophytosus.hirae.sp<br>us.hirae.spp.com<br>us.hirae.spp.com<br>s.space.sp ommun<br>i.paraca<br>s.faecal<br>vievicau F Geotrichum.canc  $LC$  Lactococcus  $LB$  Leu $\mathtt{conv}$ occ $\mathtt{m}$ esen L<br>Lactobacillus.<br>brevis ... KF\_ENTER Ctechulomood LB Staphylococcus.er LB\_Lactobac **KF\_Enterococcu**<br>a.s. F\_Meyerowa.guilliermondia.guilliermondia.guilliermondia.guilliermondia.guilliermondia.guilliermondia.<br>DCA Koosination LC Serratia.lique F\_Meyerozyma.guil F\_Debaryomyces.ha KF\_ENTERNATION<br>Casseling University PCA\_P<br>PCA\_Potamocoonus PCA Arthrobacter LC\_Glutamicib Lactobacillus.plantarum.paraplantarum.parallus.p<br>parallus.para PCA\_Staphylococcus.succinus.succinus.<br>SPA\_Staphylococcuse.s LC  $S$ taphylococcus.sapro PCA\_Staphylococcus.vitulinus. PCA\_Brevibacter LC\_Staphylococcus<br>xylonylococcus. LCC Financiacus. LC Micrococcu LC\_Enterococcu LCF\_ENTEROCOCCUS KF\_Enterococcus.<br>MF\_Enterococcus F Penicillium con LB\_Lactobacillus.casei KF\_Enterococcu

F\_Scopulariopsis.brevicaulis

L<sup>a</sup>ctobacillus.com

# **Supplementary material**

### **Supplementary Fig .S1.**

**Example of a dendrogram of presumptive Staphylococcus species spectra obtained by MALDI-ToF analysis.** Representative isolates chosen for identification by sequencing are indicated with "\*" symbol. Choice was based on heterogeneity within the same cluster and discrepancies between presumptive identification by commercial database and position within the species clusters.

**Supplementary Fig. S2. Rarefaction curves of Illumina sequencing data after normalization grouped by cheese-making/ripening stage and sample type.** (A) V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene data (B) ITS2 sequencing data

**Supplementary Fig. S3. Alpha-diversity indexes of bacterial (A) and fungal (B) communities during cheese-making and ripening of Pélardon cheese.** Samples are grouped according to the process stage and type.

#### **Supplementary Fig. S4.**

**Composition of fungal communities during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening by cultureindependent approach.** Data were obtained by high-throughput metabarcoding analysis targeting the ITS2 region.

#### **Supplementary Fig. S5.**

**Microbial community composition encountered in Pélardon cheese-making environment samples using a culture-independent approach.** (A) bacterial communities (B) fungal communities using metabarcoding analyses targeting the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA gene for bacteria and the ITS2 region for fungi. See Table 2 for legend of environmental samples

#### **Supplementary Fig. S6.**

**Venn diagrams representing diversity and shared species in cheese and environmental samples using (A) culture–dependent and (B) culture–independent approaches.**

### **Supplementary Fig. S7.**

**Principal component analysis biplot of microbial counts, culture-dependent (red), culture-independent (green) and biochemical data (acids and volatile compounds in blue) at the different cheese-making and ripening stages.** Data are projected on dimensions 1 and 3 and only variables with a cosinus<sup>2</sup> superior to 0.6 are displayed.

#### **Supplementary Fig.S8.**

**Venn diagrams comparing the number of genera and species identified using culture-dependent (red circles) and culture-independent (green circles) approaches for both bacteria (A) and fungi (B).**  Dominant genera identified by either of culture-dependent or independent approaches throughout the cheesemaking or ripening are indicated in bold.

**Supplementary Table S1. Primers used in this study**

## **Supplementary Table S2.**

**Volatile compounds identified and quantified (AU) during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening using HS-GSMS.**

#### **Supplementary Fig. S1.**

**Example of a dendrogram of presumptive Staphylococcus species spectra obtained by MALDI-TOF analysis.** Representative isolates chosen for identification by sequencing are indicated with "\*" symbol. Choice was based on heterogeneity within the same cluster and discrepancies between presumptive identification by commercial MALDI-TOF database and position within the species clusters.



### **Supplementary Fig. S2 Rarefaction curves of Illumina sequencing data after normalization grouped by cheese-making/ripening stage and sample type.** (A) V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene data (B) ITS2 sequencing data



#### **Supplementary Fig. S3.**

**Alpha-diversity indexes of bacterial (A) and fungal (B) communities during cheese-making and ripening of Pélardon cheese.** Samples are grouped according to the process stage and type.

> **A** α-diversity indexes of bacterial communities as a function of sample type and process stage







**Supplementary Fig. S4.** 

**Composition of fungal communities during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening by culture-independent approach.** Data were obtained by highthroughput metabarcoding analysis targeting the ITS2 region.



### **Supplementary Fig.S5.**

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#### **Supplementary Table S2. Volatile compounds identified and quantified (AU) during Pélardon cheese-making and ripening using HS-GSMS.**



a Peak identification method – RI comparison of retention index with literature data; DB, tentatively identified by spectrum comparison using NIST 2008 workbook database; S comparison of spectra and retention time with tho

#### **Manuscript : Linking Pélardon artisanal goat cheese microbial communities to aroma compounds during cheese-making and ripening**

#### **Authors :**

Marine Penland Hélène Falentin Sandrine Parayre Audrey Pawtowski Marie-Bernadette Maillard Anne Thierry Jérôme Mounier Monika Coton Stéphanie-Marie Deutsch

#### **Declaration of interests**

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

☐The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: