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Evolutionary engineering of *Wickerhamomyces subpelliculosus* and *Kazachstania gamospora* for baking

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14 **Abstract**

15 The conventional baker's yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, is an indispensable baking workhorse of
16 all times. Its monopoly coupled to its major drawbacks such as streamlined carbon substrate
17 utilisation base and a poor ability to withstand a number of baking associated stresses prompt the
18 need to search for alternative yeasts to leaven bread in the era of increasingly complex consumer
19 lifestyles. Our previous work identified the inefficient baking attributes of *Wickerhamomyces*
20 *subpelliculosus* and *Kazachstania gamospora* as well as preliminarily observations of improving
21 fermentative capacity of potential alternative baker's yeasts using evolutionary engineering. Here we
22 report the characterisation and improvement in baking traits in five out of six independently evolved
23 lines incubated for longer time and passaged for at least 60 cycles relative to their parental strains as

24 well as the conventional baker's yeast. In addition, evolved clones produced bread with a higher loaf
25 volume when compared to bread baked with either ancestral strain or the control conventional
26 baker's yeast. Remarkably, our approach improved the yeasts' ability to withstand baking associated
27 stresses, a key baking trait exhibited poorly in both the conventional baker's yeast and their ancestral
28 strains. *W. subpelliculosus* evolved the best characteristics attractive for alternative baker's yeasts as
29 compared to the evolved *K. gamospora* strains. These results demonstrate the robustness of
30 evolutionary engineering in development of alternative baker's yeasts.

31

32 **1 Introduction**

33 The conventional baker's yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, remains the baking workhorse of all
34 times. Baker's yeast is a key ingredient in baking that serves three functions; production of CO₂,
35 dough maturation, and development of flavour of bread and other farinaceous products (Atfield,
36 1997, Kariluoto *et al.*, 2004). In addition, to its baking attributes, *S. cerevisiae* was the first yeast to
37 be domesticated (Fay & Benavides, 2005), the first eukaryote to be completely sequenced (Goffeau
38 *et al.*, 1996), the first model organism (Botstein *et al.*, 1997), the first genetically modified food
39 producing organism (Aldhous, 1990), and it is the most studied yeast (Liti *et al.*, 2009). This list
40 shows why baker's yeast is the yeast of choice and probably the main reason behind its millennia-
41 long monopoly of not only the baking industry, but also the wine and beer industries (Gibson *et al.*,
42 2017). The primary role of a baker's yeast lies in its ability to rapidly ferment sugars (mainly
43 maltose) found in flour production (Randez-Gil *et al.*, 1999) and subsequent accumulation of CO₂.
44 Yeast determines the overall quality of the bread beyond just gas production, such as bread aroma,
45 texture, crumb structure and overall appearance of the bread. However, the conventional baker's
46 yeast has challenges impacting the overall bread quality, which therefore affects its continued use in
47 modern consumer-driven markets.

48 Firstly, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has a stream-lined utilisation of carbon sources (Ostergaard *et al.*,
49 2000), produces a low diversity of secondary metabolites, and has poor ability to resist baking
50 associated stresses as compared to recently described nonconventional yeasts (Hernández-López &
51 Vargas-Albores, 2003, Struyf *et al.*, 2017). Incomplete sugar fermentation leads to an unhealthy diet
52 in our modern lifestyles where reduction of intake of sugars remains the cornerstone to fight obesity
53 and diabetes. The production of less diverse secondary metabolites leads to poor development of

54 bread flavour (Harvey *et al.*, 2010, Aslankoochi *et al.*, 2016). During baking, there are baking-
55 associated stresses that yeast may encounter such as high osmotic stress, high oxidative stress,
56 ethanol stress and others as well as low/high temperatures during baking and storage (Attfield, 1999).
57 However, the conventional baker's yeast has a poor ability to withstand stressful conditions, which
58 ultimately leads to reduced product yields. Conditions, such as high osmotic pressure associated with
59 downstream processing during starter culture production as well as during fermentation of dough
60 with high amounts of sugars and salts and low pH in some dough, have been well documented
61 (Attfield, 1997, Hernández-López & Vargas-Albores, 2003, Takagi, 2017). Fermentation generates
62 reactive oxygen species, which exert an oxidative stress to yeast (Takagi, 2017) and the conventional
63 baker's yeasts is poor in responding to oxidative stress (Takagi, 2017). Ethanol formed during
64 fermentation, exerts major stress to yeast cells, and acts as a membrane defacer, which the
65 conventional baker's yeast can withstand. These many challenges create a need to find alternative
66 yeasts presenting robust baking traits.

67 The ability to ferment sugars and produce CO₂ is not circumscribed to *S. cerevisiae* (Hagman *et al.*,
68 2013). Recent advances on these non-conventional yeasts as producers of desirable and unique
69 aromas (Gamero Lluna & de Jong, 2013, Gamero *et al.*, 2016, Ravasio *et al.*, 2018), their resistance
70 to many industry associated stresses (Radecka *et al.*, 2015) suggest their applicability in baking. We
71 previously the screening of two potential non-conventional yeasts, *W. subpelliculosus* and *K.*
72 *gamospora*, as alternative baking yeasts (Zhou *et al.*, 2017). These yeasts exhibited a poor
73 fermentative capacity and poor dough leavening attributes when compared to the conventional
74 baker's yeast. Preliminary dough leavening abilities after adaptively evolving these yeasts in flour
75 dough highlighted serial passing in flour dough could be used to improve baking traits (Zhou *et al.*,
76 2017). In this study we set a longer incubation time (48 h) coupled to a relatively higher number of
77 passaging cycles (at least 60) as compared to the parameters reported in (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) and
78 showed that evolutionary engineering is an attractive strain improvement strategy to increase the
79 gassing power, dough leavening and baking associated stress tolerance of alternative baker's yeasts.
80 In brief, we report the improvement in the baking attributes of clones from 5 out of 6 of
81 independently and parallel-evolved lines when compared to their respective ancestral strains as well
82 as the control conventional baker's yeast. In addition, this work further reports a similar trend in
83 improvements of baking traits based on baking trials, thus confirming our hypothesis that
84 evolutionary engineering improves baking traits.

85 2 **Materials and methods**

86 2.1 **Strains**

87 The two potential alternative baker's yeasts, *W. subpelliculosus* (CBS 5552) and *K. gamospora* (CBS
88 10400) reported in our previous work (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) were used for evolutionary engineering
89 experiments. A control conventional baker's yeast from Anchor Yeast as instant dry yeast (*S.*
90 *cerevisiae*) sold in retail outlets was selected as a positive control.

91 2.2 **Culture media**

92 Yeast Peptone Maltose (YPM) media constituted of 2 % Maltose, 0.5 % Yeast extract and 1 %
93 Peptone), at a pH of 6.2 was used to revive isolates stored at –80 °C. Yeast peptone dextrose (YPD)
94 media constituting of 2 % Glucose, 0.5 % Yeast extract and 1 % Peptone) adjusted to a pH of 6.2
95 using 1 M NaOH and 1 M HCl was used for stress tolerance tests.

96 2.3 **Evolutionary engineering scheme**

97 Evolution experiments were conducted by serially passaging yeast in wheat flour dough as reported
98 previously (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) with modifications of flour dough preparations (shorter sterilisation
99 time and lower sterilisation temperature), longer duration of incubation times and an increased
100 number of passaging cycles. In brief, flour dough was prepared by mixing 0.6 g of wheat flour
101 (sterilised by heating for 48 h at 70 °C) and sterile 500 µL of 0.5 M NaCl in 2 mL Eppendorf
102 microtubes. An isogenic colony from each of the master plates (*W. subpelliculosus* (CBS 5552) and
103 *K. gamospora* (CBS 10400)) was grown overnight in YPM media and harvested thereafter and set to
104 an OD_{600nm} of 1. Triplicates (parallel lineages) from each isogenic colony were then inoculated into
105 wheat flour dough and microtubes were then incubated without shaking at 30 °C (see Supplementary
106 Materials, Figure S1). Parallel lines from *K. gamospora* were designated as *Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, and *Kg_3*,
107 whereas those from *W. subpelliculosus* were designated as *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, and *Ws_3*. After 48 h of
108 incubation, a toothpick-full of dough was transferred into fresh dough to start another passage. This
109 procedure was repeated for several passages (see Supplementary Materials, Figure S2) until the
110 microtubes popped open before the set 48 h incubation time. After every passage, the tubes were
111 cryopreserved at –80 °C in 25 % glycerol for further studies and as starter culture in case of a mishap
112 during evolution such as contamination. After passaging for 60 passages cells from a toothpick from
113 each of the parallel-evolved lines were serially dilution plated out and used for characterisation

114 experiments. To be specific, we selected the biggest colony from each of the 6 parallel-evolved lines
115 (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2* and *Kg_3* from *K. gamospora* evolved lines and *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* from *W.*
116 *subpelliculosus* evolved lines) and characterised the change in baking attributes when compared to
117 their ancestral strains as well as those of the conventional baker's yeast.

118

119 2.4 Confirmation of evolving strains and detection of contamination

120 After every 10 passages, the absence of contamination was verified by microscopy and sequencing.
121 For sequencing, DNA extraction was carried out using ZR Soil Microbe DNA kit™ (Zymo Research,
122 Orange, CA, USA) according to manufacturers' recommendations. A 560 – 750 bp amplicon size
123 was amplified from ITS-5.8S rDNA using ITS1 (5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') and ITS4
124 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'). The following PCR program: Initial denaturation: 94 °C – 4
125 min, cycle denaturation: 94 °C – 30 sec, primer annealing: 54 °C – 30 sec, chain extension: 72 °C –
126 1 min, chain elongation: 72 °C – 7 min, number of cycles: 36 cycles, and holding temperature: 4° C
127 was run. PCR products were analysed by gel electrophoresis (using 1 % agarose gel in 1X TBE
128 buffer) and then purified before being quantified using an ND- 1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop;
129 Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA). Inqaba Biotechnical Industries in Pretoria, South Africa
130 sequenced the purified PCR products. SnapGene sequence editing tool was used for removing
131 ambiguous bases (<http://www.snapgene.com>). The yeasts were identified by searching databases
132 using BLAST sequence analysis tool (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>). To confirm the
133 identity, pairwise identification database owned by the Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute
134 (CBS-NAW) (<http://www.westerdijkinstituut.nl/>) was also used.

135

136 2.5 Investigation of fermentative capacity

137 To investigate the improvement in fermentative capability of the evolved strains, fermentation was
138 carried out using YPM in 60 mL BD Luer-Lok™ syringes (BD® Syringes) as described in our
139 previous work (Zhou *et al.*, 2017). A single colony (selected based on colony size) from each of the
140 evolved lineages of *W. subpelliculosus* (*Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, and *Ws_3*) was grown overnight in 2 mL of 5
141 % YPM in 5 mL culture tubes at 26 °C at 200 rpm on a shaker (Infors HT). The yeasts were then
142 harvested, washed and used to inoculate 5 mL YPM in syringes at an initial OD_{600nm} of 1 and
143 incubated under the same conditions as above. The plunger movement, as CO₂ was accumulated, was

144 recorded after every 2 hours for 20 hours. CO₂ production yields were calculated by dividing the
145 amount accumulated at the end of fermentation by the biomass accumulated. In addition, CO₂
146 production rate was calculated by determining the slope of the curve using the points at which the
147 accumulation of CO₂ was the fastest. The same procedure was repeated with evolved lineages of *K.*
148 *gamospora* (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2* and *Kg_3*), both ancestral strains and a control conventional baker's yeast.
149 These experiments were done in triplicates and repeated three times.

150 **2.6 Investigation of leavening ability**

151 The evolved yeast isolates (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, *Kg_3*, *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, and *Ws_3*), the ancestral strains and the
152 control conventional baker's yeast were grown in 2 mL of 5 % YPM in 5 mL tubes and incubated
153 overnight at 26 °C at 200 rpm on a shaker (Infors HT). The yeasts were then harvested by
154 centrifugation and inoculated into fresh 20 mL YPM and put back on the shaker for another 24 hours
155 to increase cell biomass. 2 mL of cells at an OD_{600nm} of 10 was used to inoculate 10 g of flour dough
156 in Falcon tubes. The Falcon tubes were left to ferment for 1 hour in a 30 °C incubator. The change in
157 leavening was assessed as dough increased in volume. Respective volume increases after incubation
158 were recorded by photographing. The experiment was done in triplicates and repeated three times.

159

160 **2.7 Investigation of stress tolerance**

161 The evolved yeast isolates (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, *Kg_3*, *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, and *Ws_3*), the ancestral strains and the
162 control conventional baker's yeast were grown overnight in 5 % liquid YPM in 5 mL tubes at 26 °C
163 at 200 rpm on a shaker (Infors HT) as above. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation and then
164 washed twice with sterile deionized water. The cells were then adjusted to an initial OD_{600nm} of 0.2.
165 The cells were then serially diluted (2 folds dilution ranges) in sterile phosphate buffer saline and
166 pipetted into 96 well plates. A spot test stamp (replicator) was used to spot cells on solid YPD media
167 plates supplemented with different stressors and incubated at 30 °C for 72 hours. For oxidative stress
168 tolerance, yeasts were grown in YPD agar supplemented with hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) at different
169 concentrations (3 mM, 4 mM, 5 mM, 6 mM and 7 mM). For ethanol stress tolerance, yeasts were
170 grown on YPD agar containing different concentrations of ethanol (5 %, 7 %, 9 % and 10 % (v/v)).
171 Similarly, for halotolerance, yeasts were grown in YPD agar supplemented with sodium chloride
172 (NaCl) of different concentrations (0.5 M, 1 M, 1.2 M, 1.5 M, 1.6 M, 1.8 M and 2 M).
173 Osmotolerance tests were carried out by growing cells on YPS agar at different concentrations of

174 sucrose (50 % and 60 %). For thermotolerance, yeasts cells were grown on YPM agar and incubated
175 at 30 °C, 37 °C, 40 °C, 42 °C and 44 °C. Growth of evolved clones was compared to the ancestral
176 strains as well as the control baker's yeasts and scored qualitatively. The experiments were done in
177 triplicates and repeated thrice. The best representative plates were scanned and recorded.

178 **2.8 Baking trials**

179 Leavened dough from the evolved yeast isolates (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, *Kg_3*, *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, and *Ws_3*), the
180 ancestral strains and the control conventional baker's yeast from Section 2.6 were used as starter
181 cultures. 50 g of flour was added to each of the doughs and weighed before and after fermentation to
182 determine the percentage change in weight. After fermentation, the dough was kneaded and moulded
183 into greaseproof muffin moulds. The leavened and moulded dough was baked for 20 minutes at 250
184 °C and 15 minutes in a conventional oven until the bread developed a brownish crust. After baking,
185 the bread was weighed and the percentage change in weight was recorded. The overall texture and
186 pore sizes were photographed and recorded.

187 **2.9 Statistical Analyses**

188 To test whether independently evolved clones and the controls had significantly different
189 fermentative capacity as a function of CO₂ production rate, CO₂ yields and cell-densities, one-way
190 ANOVA was conducted. To test whether the same attributes of independently evolved lines
191 significantly differed from each other, we implemented a post-hoc Tukey's HSD. The significance
192 level was set at $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$. All the analyses were done using STATISTICA,
193 version 13.2 (Statsoft Inc., Tulsa, Oklahoma).

194 **3 Results**

195 **3.1 Evolutionary engineering improved the fermentative capacity of 5 out of 6 independent** 196 **lines**

197 Our previous work (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) reported preliminary observation that potential alternative
198 baking yeasts, *Wickerhamomyces subpelliculosus* and *Kazachstania gamospora* could be adaptively
199 evolved in dough-like conditions. Due to a short incubation time, shorter passaging cycles and
200 absence of characterisation experiments the results were insufficient to ascertain the evolvability and
201 application of the strategy in improving alternative baker's yeasts with poor baking attributes. We
202 were prompted to serially passage the yeasts for longer periods of incubation of 48 h (12 h longer) as

203 well as increasing passing cycles, in this case, until the Eppendorf tubes popped before the
204 predetermined incubation time. In addition, in this study we characterised the carbon dioxide
205 production rates and yield using maltose, the dough leavening ability and the improvement in stress
206 tolerance before and after evolution and compared to conventional baker's yeast predominantly used
207 in Southern Africa (*S. cerevisiae*, instant baker's yeast supplied by Anchor yeast, Co.). Here we
208 report that at 60 passages the tubes started popping before the predetermined incubation time of 48 h
209 suggestive of the improvement in fermentative rates. To confirm the suggestive improvements, we
210 picked a single terminally evolved clone from each of the independently evolved lines and tested
211 their fermentative capacity. Maltose was chosen for testing because it is the most abundant
212 fermentable carbon source in wheat flour (Randez-Gil *et al.*, 2013). Our results show that 5 out of 6
213 evolved clones accumulated on average 16.43 times more CO₂ (49.28 ± 3.36 mL) at the end of
214 fermentation (after 18 h) as compared to their ancestral strains (3.0 ± 0.94 mL) indicative of a ten-
215 fold improvement in the fermentative capacity using the most abundant carbon source in wheat flour
216 (Figure 1A). In contrast, there was strangely no evident change in one of the six evolved clones from
217 one of the parallel lines analysed (*Kg_2*). Analyses of ITS – ITS4 amplicons suggested that the clone
218 was still *K. gamospora*, which probably lost the ability to ferment maltose efficiently. Overall, our
219 approach was very effective as we observed 4.8 times more CO₂ accumulated when compared to the
220 control conventional baker's yeast (10.3 ± 1.15 mL) within the first 18 hours of incubation. These
221 results suggested that the ancestral strains and the control baker's yeasts are characterised by a longer
222 lag phase during the utilisation of maltose as they later on managed to accumulate more carbon
223 dioxide similar the amounts produced by the evolved clones (results not shown).

224 In addition to the ability to ferment maltose, we evaluated CO₂ yield of the evolved clones as another
225 important attribute required in leavening the dough. The results showed that there was a significant
226 improvement in CO₂ yield among 5 of the 6 evolved clones (*Kg_1*, *Kg_3*, *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3*)
227 when compared to the ancestral strains as well as the control baker's yeast (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$)
228 (Figure 1B). The evolved clones exhibited a CO₂ yield that was eight times higher than that of the
229 ancestral strains, which is a significant improvement. Again, *Kg_2* was an outlier. Our approach
230 improved CO₂ yield of 5 out of 6 evolved clones to two times more than that of the control baker's
231 yeast, suggesting that the evolved clones would be a preferable alternative baker's yeasts for the
232 baking industry. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in CO₂ production, production rate
233 and yield among these evolved clones (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$) (see Appendices, Table 4-Table 6)
234 suggesting that the approach is independent of the background of the ancestral strain, which is a

235 positive attribute to adopt the same strategy to other yeast species of interest. Another important
236 attribute of a model baker's yeast, the gassing power (CO₂ production rate), which reduces the time
237 taken to leaven dough, an important techno-economic factor (Giannone *et al.*, 2010) was tested. We
238 observed a similar trend on the CO₂ production rate, also known as the gassing power, an important
239 attribute determining the speed of dough leavening, among the 5 of the 6 evolved clones in
240 comparison to their ancestral strains and the control baker's yeast (Figure 1C). There was a highly
241 significant improvement in the gassing power of the 5 of the 6 evolved clones when compared to
242 ancestral strains as well as the commercial baker's yeast (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$). In addition, there
243 was no statistical difference on gassing power attribute tested among the 5 out of 6 evolved clones
244 (Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.001$) (see Supplementary Materials, Table 8 – Table 10).

245 **3.2 Evolved clones improved the leavening ability**

246 One of the important attributes of baker's yeast is the ability to leaven the dough, an important
247 quality index of a baker's yeast (Ahi *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, the leavening abilities of the evolved
248 clones were evaluated by fermenting the dough and compared them to the dough leavened by the
249 ancestral strains as well as the commercial baker's yeast. Results showed improved leavening ability
250 of the evolved clones *Kg_1*, *Kg_2* and *Kg_3* in comparison to the commercial baker's yeast and their
251 ancestral strain (Figure 2A). Surprisingly, *Kg_2* showed the ability to leaven dough to a volume
252 similar to *Kg_1*. This attribute not observed in the fermentation of maltose, suggesting that *Kg_2*
253 fermented another carbon source found in flour other than maltose is worth investigating in future if
254 at all this strain should be adopted for use in the baking industry. On the other hand, strains *Ws_1*,
255 *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* leavened the dough to double the volume when compared to their ancestor as well as
256 to the control baker's yeast (Figure 2B). These strains evolved from the *W. subpelliculosus* lineage
257 and showed an even higher leavening ability as compared to the *K. gamospora* lineages (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*,
258 *Kg_3*).

259 **3.3 Evolved clones improved baking associated stress tolerance**

260 Other than fermentative capacity, the ability to withstand baking associated stresses from biomass
261 production to baking is another desirable attribute of a baker's yeast. Baker's yeast may encounter
262 stresses during baking and storage high osmotic pressure, high oxidative stress, high/low
263 temperatures, ethanol stress among others (Attfield, 1999). We firstly investigated the ability to
264 withstand ethanol, a product of dough fermentation, as an important attribute that allows higher

265 efficiency of leavening ability. The evolved clones *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* were resistant to ethanol
266 up to 9 %, which is 2 % higher than the amount tolerable to the conventional baker's yeast (Figure
267 3). This was a huge improvement in ethanol stress tolerance, as their ancestor did not grow on 5 %
268 ethanol. On the other hand, the evolved lines from the *K. gamospora* background (*Kg_1* and *Kg_3*)
269 tolerated only up to 5 % ethanol. An interesting observation was that *Kg_2* in addition to its poor
270 utilisation of maltose as a carbon source it also did not tolerate ethanol when compared to its
271 ancestor.

272 Another important attribute of a baker's yeast is the ability to withstand high temperatures.
273 Downstream processing for the preparation of biomass involving drying, storage and rehydration
274 exerts thermal stress as well as oxidative stress to the yeasts (Randez-Gil *et al.*, 2013). Our results
275 suggest that our approach significantly improved thermotolerance of *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* evolved
276 clones up to 40 °C as compared to their ancestor, which did not grow at 37 °C (Figure 4). A similar
277 improvement in thermotolerance was observed with *Kg_1* and *Kg_3*, except that their ancestor could
278 tolerate 37 °C. *Kg_2* once again was an outlier in the ability to withstand thermal stress. In addition,
279 the ability to withstand high osmotic stress (as high as 60 %), an attribute of interest for an ideal
280 baker's yeast was investigated. Our findings show that *Kg_2* was more osmotolerant, a trait shared
281 by the parental strain (Anc Kg), than all its evolved counterparts (Figure 5). In addition, a similar
282 trend was also noted for halotolerance (Figure 6). Oxidative stress tolerance was also evaluated as a
283 critical attribute of a baker's yeast because yeasts are exposed to reactive oxygen species generated
284 during dough fermentation. Our results suggest that our approach improved oxidative stress tolerance
285 of all evolved lines (Figure 7).

286 **3.4 Evolved clones show improved baking attributes**

287 Baking trials were conducted to evaluate the relevant attributes and impression of the baked bread,
288 which are crucial to fulfil consumer demands (Rouillé *et al.*, 2010). Sliced portions of the bread
289 baked with different yeasts were evaluated. Bread baked with evolved clones had higher loaf volume
290 when compared to bread baked with their ancestral strain as well as the control conventional baker's
291 yeast (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$) except bread baked with *K.g_2*. This is in agreement to the higher
292 amounts of CO₂ produced in maltose fermentation as the loaf volume is proportional to the amount of
293 CO₂ trapped in the gluten matrix of the dough (Struyf *et al.*, 2017). Although the dough leavened
294 using *Kg_2* had risen to a height just like other evolved strains, the height of the bread was lower (4.9
295 cm) than breads baked with the other evolved strains (Figure 8) (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$). Our results

296 suggest that the highest loaf was attainable using *W. subpelliculosus* derived strains (*Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and
297 *Ws_3*) (7.3 ± 0.36 cm) (Figure 8).

298 Another important factor in final quality of the bread is the pore sizes, which influences the texture of
299 bread. Bread baked with evolved clones had much more bigger and uniform pore sizes when
300 compared to bread baked with the ancestral strains as well as the control conventional baker's yeast
301 (Figure 8). Our evolutionary engineering approach improved the baking traits as we observed an
302 improvement in loaf volume and overall appearance of the bread baked with 5 out of 6 evolved
303 clones when compared to both their ancestors and the baker's yeast. Bread baked with *Kg_2* was in
304 agreement to poor attributes of other traits investigated above.

305 To further reveal the change in baking attributes, we investigated the change in weight of dough
306 before and after fermentation as well as that of bread after baking. Change in weight is considered a
307 desirable quality attribute for the best outcome of bread (Sanchez-Garcia *et al.*, 2015). The results of
308 change in weight of dough after fermentation and weight of dough after baking are shown in Figure
309 9. It should be noted that the best producer of CO₂ should be the best to leaven dough and, hence, the
310 best in producing the best quality of bread in terms of texture and size. Results show that leavening
311 of the dough and bread baked using the evolved clones lost more weight after baking as compared to
312 their ancestors and the control baker's yeast.

313

314 **4 Discussion**

315 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, the industrial workhorse of all times, remains the baker's yeast of choice
316 despite its limitations. The development of alternative baker's yeasts is attractive due to modern
317 baking associated with a huge change in preference for healthy lifestyles, improved foods, improved
318 resource utilisation efficiency, and diversity of food products in our generation's consumer driven
319 markets. This study examined the hypothesis that adaptive evolution of previously reported potential
320 baking yeasts strains in flour dough conditions improves their baking traits. Indeed, not only were the
321 strains evolved to efficiently ferment the most abundant carbon source in flour leading to an elevated
322 speed of leavening, but the strains also improved the ability to withstand baking-associated stress, as
323 well as improving the outcome of the bread. This work demonstrated a direct relationship between
324 evolutionary engineering and improvement in baking traits. To our knowledge, this work is the first
325 work to report on the benefits of evolutionary engineering of non-conventional yeasts for

326 development of alternative baker's yeasts. Use of evolutionary engineering to improve specific
327 fermentation capabilities is well described (Kim *et al.*, 2013), although not in the case of non-
328 conventional yeasts. This work is in agreement with reports that possible selection over several
329 decades, as a long term evolutionary engineering in fermentations, could be the main reason why the
330 conventional baker's yeast has the best baking attributes (Randez-Gil *et al.*, 2013).

331 Our observations are consistent with our previous preliminary observations (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) which
332 suggested that baking attributes can be improved by passaging potential baking yeasts using dough
333 conditions. Increased maltose fermentative capacity associated with higher leavening ability is
334 supported by our experimental results. Maltose is the most abundant sugar in wheat flour and
335 therefore a baker's yeast is desirable if it has an efficient maltose fermentation capacity (Struyf *et al.*,
336 2017). Relatively short fermentation time and leavening ability within a short space of time is of
337 commercial interest. This work did not test the effects of our evolutionary engineering approach on
338 sweet dough, which contains sucrose and fructan. However, it should be noted that sucrose and
339 fructan are degraded within the first hour of fermentation, leaving only maltose to sustain
340 fermentation (Struyf *et al.*, 2017). The ability to leaven dough relies on carbohydrate composition of
341 which efficient utilisation of these carbon sources is very important for an alternative baker's yeast
342 (Randez-Gil *et al.*, 2003). Although the rate of fermentation of flour dough by *S. cerevisiae* is known
343 to be the best in the baking industry, the results presented here suggest that it is possible to develop
344 alternative baking strains with comparable or better baking traits than the conventional baker's yeast
345 currently used in the baking industry.

346 Survival and performance under baking associated stresses is another important attribute of a baker's
347 yeast. Thermotolerance is one of the most relevant traits because yeasts are subjected to thermal
348 stress during preparation of biomass, transportation and during fermentation of dough (Panadero *et al.*,
349 2007). Here, we report that evolutionary engineering improved resistance to higher temperatures.
350 Another stress of importance is oxidative stress, which has a well-known effect on dough rheology
351 during bread making (Bonet *et al.*, 2006). Since most yeast biological systems generate reactive
352 oxygen during growth (Sies, 2014), an alternative yeast should develop resistance to this stress. This
353 work suggests that the evolutionary approach exploited led to an improved resistance in oxidative
354 stress. In addition, yeasts fermentation of sugars in the flour dough produces ethanol which can
355 reduce rates of growth, fermentative capacity and cell viability (Nagodawithana *et al.*, 1976). Ethanol
356 production also contributes to the increased rate of H₂O₂ diffusion into the cells and thereby

357 increasing oxidative stress during dough fermentation (Banat *et al.*, 1998). In this sense, it is worth
358 mentioning that we observed an improved resistance to ethanol, extreme temperature and oxidative
359 stresses. In this way, the alternative baker's yeast reported in this work showed the improvement of
360 critical desirable phenotypes.

361 Overall, our study demonstrated the potential in developing alternative baking yeasts with improved
362 phenotypes. It also highlights how this approach leads to improved bread appearance as an important
363 characteristic on which the acceptability of bread depends on. The volume and texture of the bread
364 are the major attributes of desirable bread. Evolutionary engineering improved bread attributes as
365 noted from the results. The loss of ability to ferment and leaven the dough exhibited by one strain in
366 this work is not surprising because the loss of phenotype or trade-offs during evolution is well known
367 (Zeyl, 2006, Kumar & Gayen, 2011, Charlesworth *et al.*, 2017, Van den Bergh *et al.*, 2018). Further
368 studies to reveal the observed phenotypes would be worth exploring.

369 Although there are multiple strategies to develop yeast strains towards specific industrial
370 characteristics as extensively reviewed by Steensels *et al.* (2014), evolutionary engineering is one of
371 the simplest, yet very powerful approach to develop non-recombinant strains for the baking industry
372 (Deckers *et al.*, 2020). The search for baking yeasts from natural biodiversity, genetic and other non-
373 genetic improvements are associated with many drawbacks. Searching for baking yeasts from nature
374 is attractive, but the traits of such yeasts meant for survival and reproduction in their natural
375 environments are not directly transferrable to highly stressful man-made environments, such as
376 baking, brewing or other industrial processes (Steensels *et al.*, 2014). Before such strains are used,
377 artificial strain development strategies are necessary (Nevoigt, 2008). Genetic improvements of food
378 grade yeasts are controversial for consumer acceptance (Da Silva & Srikrishnan, 2012). Non-genetic
379 modification techniques, as evolutionary engineering, used to improve strains are therefore more
380 attractive.

381 In conclusion, our work highlighted that evolutionary engineering is an attractive tool to improve the
382 baking performance of non-conventional yeasts, which has been a major limitation for entrance into
383 the market monopolised by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. However, further studies are required to
384 reveal the molecular mechanisms behind the observed improvements. Other studies to investigate
385 more attributes such as the ability to withstand other baking associated stresses, changes in aroma
386 complexity after evolution as well as the ability to utilise other carbon sources are required to
387 develop more efficient alternative baker's yeasts.

388 **5 Conflict of Interest**

389 Authors declare no conflict of interest.

390 **6 Author Contributions**

391 T.S performed the experiments. N.Z conceived the experiments and partly designed the experiments.

392 T.S, T.B, A.G and Senior Author N.Z wrote the paper.

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396

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483 yeasts in the modern bakery. **250**: 45-58.

484

485

486 **9 List of Figure Legends**

487 **Figure 1. Fermentative capability of evolved clones in comparison to their ancestors.**

488 **A.** CO₂ production profile **B.** CO₂ yield **C.** CO₂ production rate. Anc Kg is an ancestor for *Kg_1*
489 *Kg_2* and *Kg_3* strains, Anc Ws is an ancestor for *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, *Ws_3* strains and the baker's yeast as
490 a control. The evolved clones show elevated fermentative capacity within 18 h of fermentation
491 (profile of fermentation after 18 h was excluded for brevity). This experiment was performed in
492 triplicates and repeated twice. Error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean (see
493 Supplementary Materials, Table 1-Table 3).

494 **Figure 2. Qualitative leavening abilities of strains after being adaptively evolved in flour dough.**

495 **A.** Left to right: control with no yeast (NC), control baker's yeast (control), ancestral *K. gamospora*
496 and evolved clones (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, *Kg_3*) **B.** Left to right: control with no yeast (NC), control baker's
497 yeast, ancestral *W. subpelliculosus* and evolved strains. The evolved clones showed improved
498 leavening ability. Images were taken after an hour of incubation at room temperature.

499 **Figure 3. Ethanol stress tolerance of the evolved clones.**

500 Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted
501 (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different ethanol
502 concentrations (5 %, 7 %, 9 %, and 10 %). The evolved clones show improved ethanol tolerance as
503 compared to the ancestral strains and conventional baker's yeast.

504 **Figure 4. Thermotolerance of the evolved clones.**

505 Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted
506 (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM incubated at different temperatures (30 °C, 37 °C, 40
507 °C, 42 °C and 44 °C). 5 out of 6 evolved clones show improved thermotolerance in contrast with the
508 ancestral strains and the conventional baker's yeast. *Kg_2* lost its ability to withstand thermal stress
509 as compared to its ancestor.

510 **Figure 5. Osmotolerance of the evolved clones.**

511 Parental strains Anc Kg and Anc Ws, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted
512 (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPS media supplemented with different concentrations of
513 sucrose (50 % and 60 %). *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, *Ws_3* and *Kg_2* evolved clones retained a similar
514 osmotolerance capability compared to parental strains. *Kg_1* and *Kg_3* lost the osmotolerance trait.

515 **Figure 6. Halotolerance of the evolved clones.**

516 Parental strains Anc Kg and Anc Ws, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted
517 (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different NaCl
518 concentrations (0.5 M, 1 M, 1.2 M, 1.5 M, 1.6 M, 1.8 M and 2 M). *Kg_1* and *Kg_3* lost the
519 halotolerance ability whereas *Kg_2* retained the attribute. *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* strains maintained
520 their poor halotolerance as their ancestral strain (Anc Ws).

521 **Figure 7. Oxidative stress tolerance of the evolved clones.**

522 Parental strains Anc Kg and Anc Ws, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted
523 (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different H₂O₂
524 concentrations (3 mM, 4 mM, 5 mM, 6 mM and 7 mM). All the evolved clones showed improved
525 oxidative stress tolerance as compared to the ancestral strains and the conventional baker's yeast.

526 **Figure 8. Images of cross section of breads baked with different yeast clones.**

527 Left to right: Unleavened bread NC (without yeast), control baker's yeast (control), ancestral strains
528 (Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*) followed by their respective evolved strains. The height of each loaf was
529 recorded and used for comparing the loaf volumes after baking with a respective yeast strain.

530 **Figure 9. Percentage change in weight of the dough after fermentation and after baking.**

531 Evolved clones show more weight change as compared to their ancestral strains and the control
532 baker's yeast. (See also Supplementary Materials, Table 4).

533

Figures

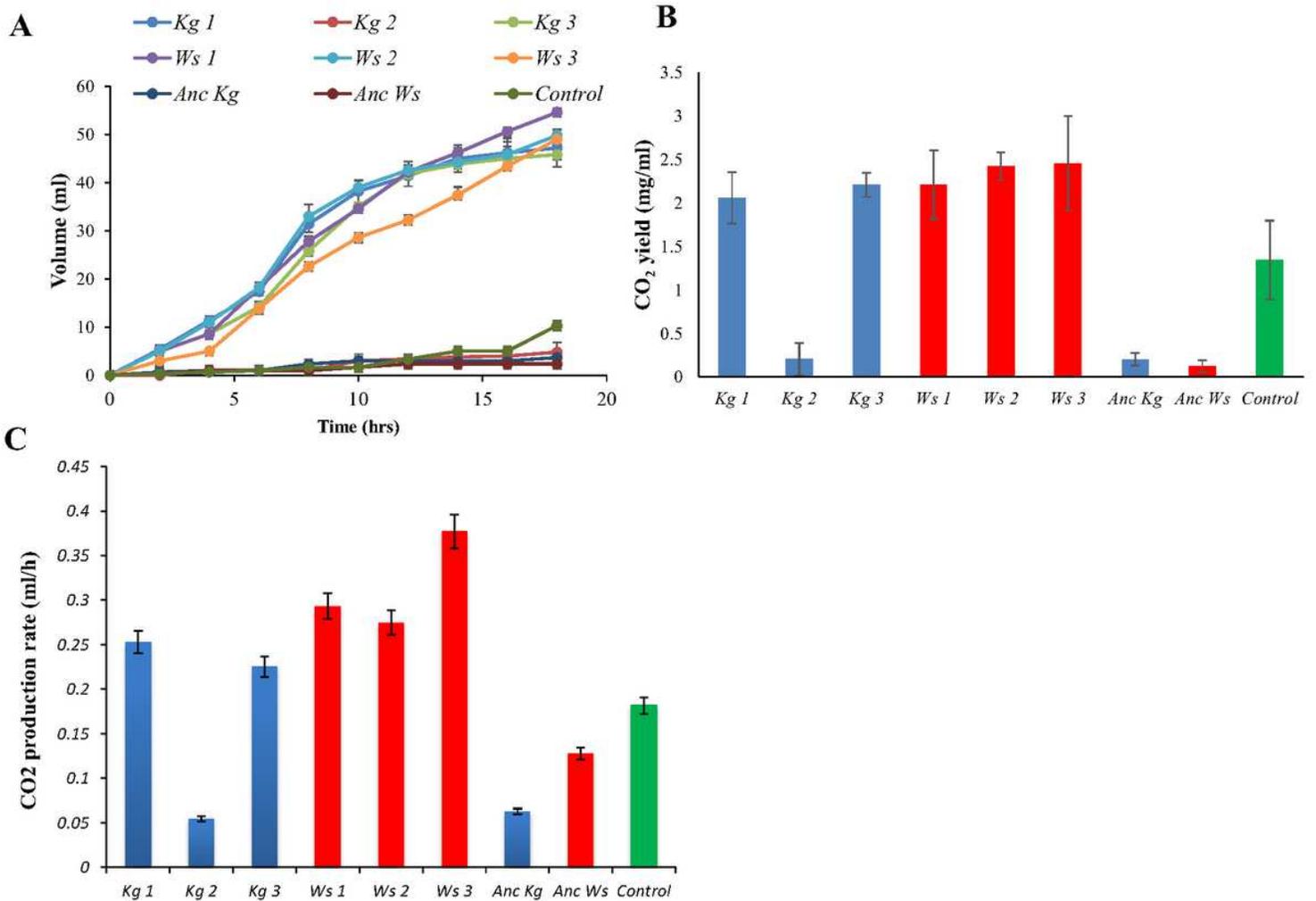


Figure 1

Fermentative capability of evolved clones in comparison to their ancestors. A. CO₂ production profile B. CO₂ yield C. CO₂ production rate. Anc Kg is an ancestor for Kg₁ Kg₂ and Kg₃ strains, Anc Ws is an ancestor for Ws₁, Ws₂, Ws₃ strains and the baker's yeast as a control. The evolved clones show elevated fermentative capacity within 18 h of fermentation (profile of fermentation after 18 h was excluded for brevity). This experiment was performed in triplicates and repeated twice. Error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean (see Supplementary Materials, Table 1-Table 3).

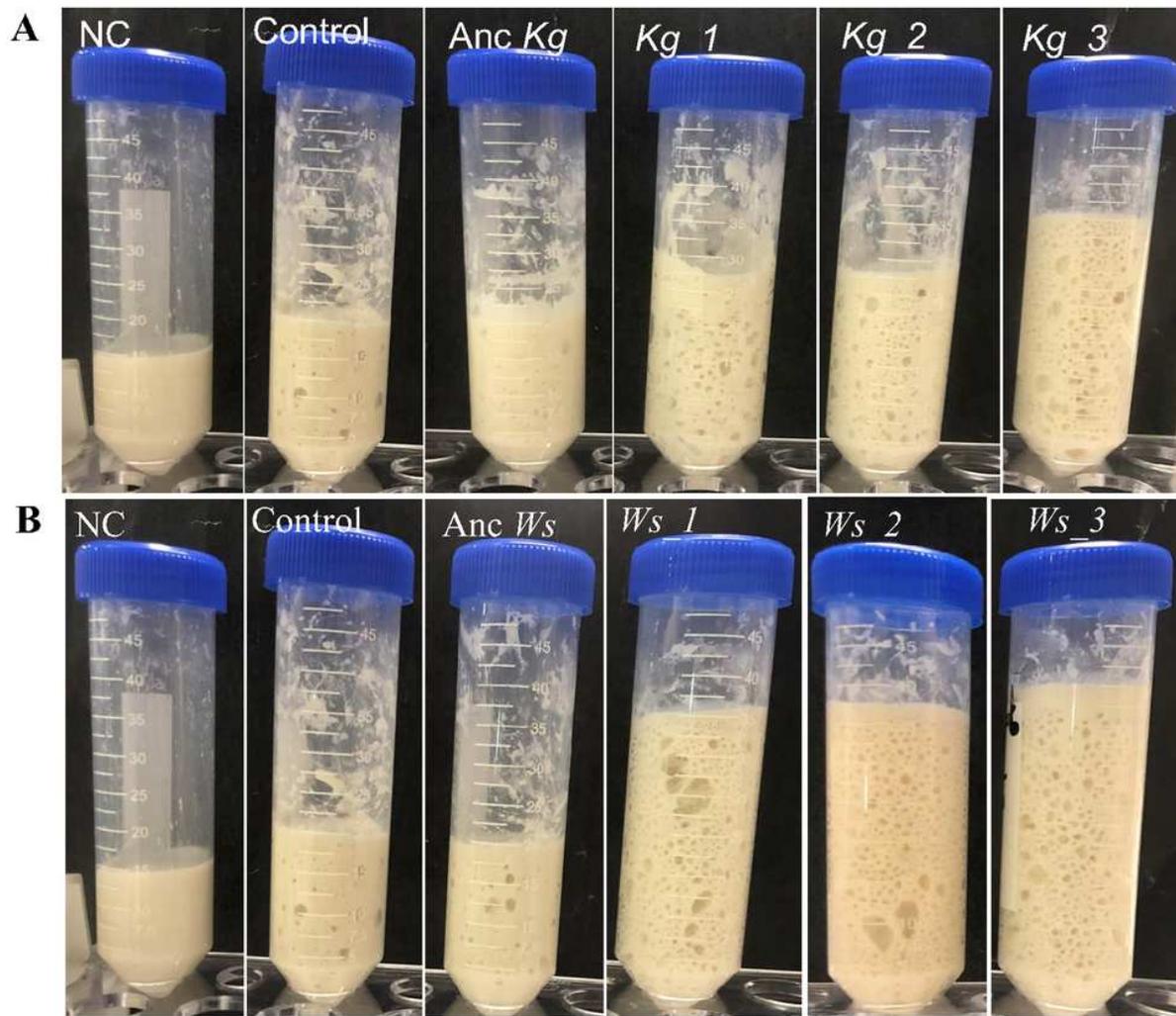


Figure 2

Qualitative leavening abilities of strains after being adaptively evolved in flour dough. A. Left to right: control with no yeast (NC), control baker's yeast (control), ancestral *K. gamospora* and evolved clones (*Kg_1*, *Kg_2*, *Kg_3*) B. Left to right: control with no yeast (NC), control baker's yeast, ancestral *W. subpelliculosus* and evolved strains. The evolved clones showed improved leavening ability. Images were taken after an hour of incubation at room temperature.

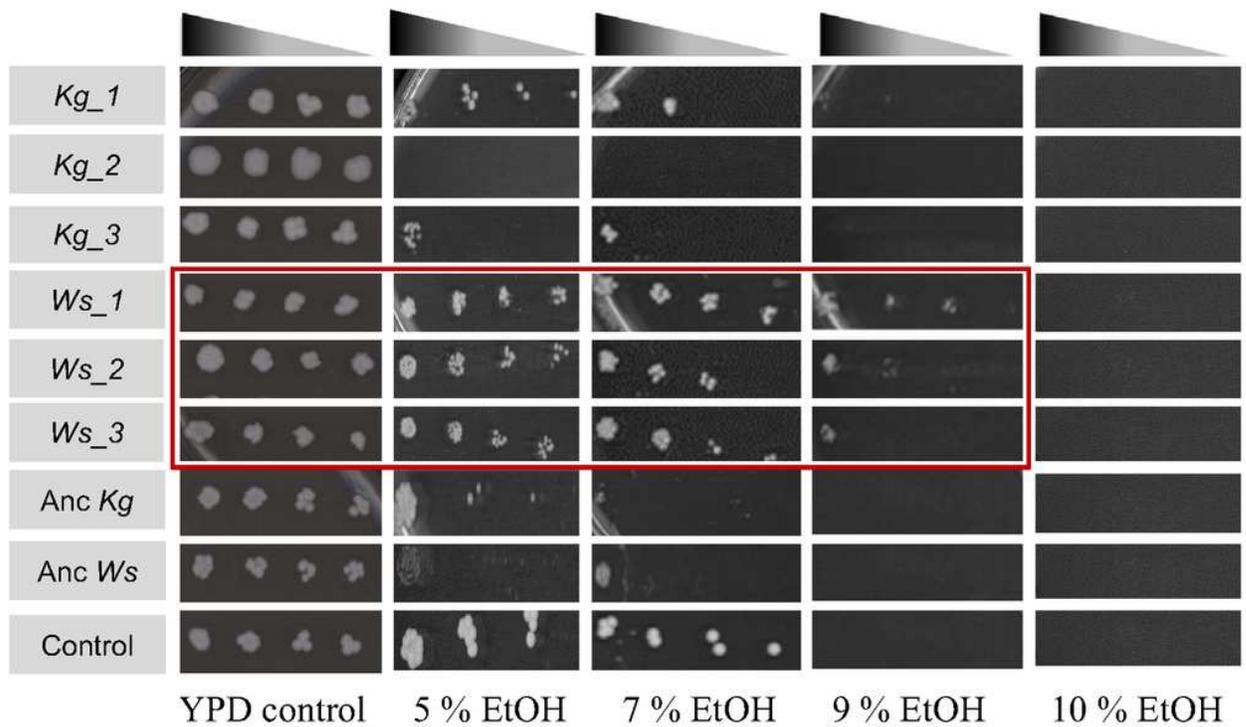


Figure 3

Ethanol stress tolerance of the evolved clones. Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different ethanol concentrations (5 %, 7 %, 9 %, and 10 %). The evolved clones show improved ethanol tolerance as compared to the ancestral strains and conventional baker's yeast.

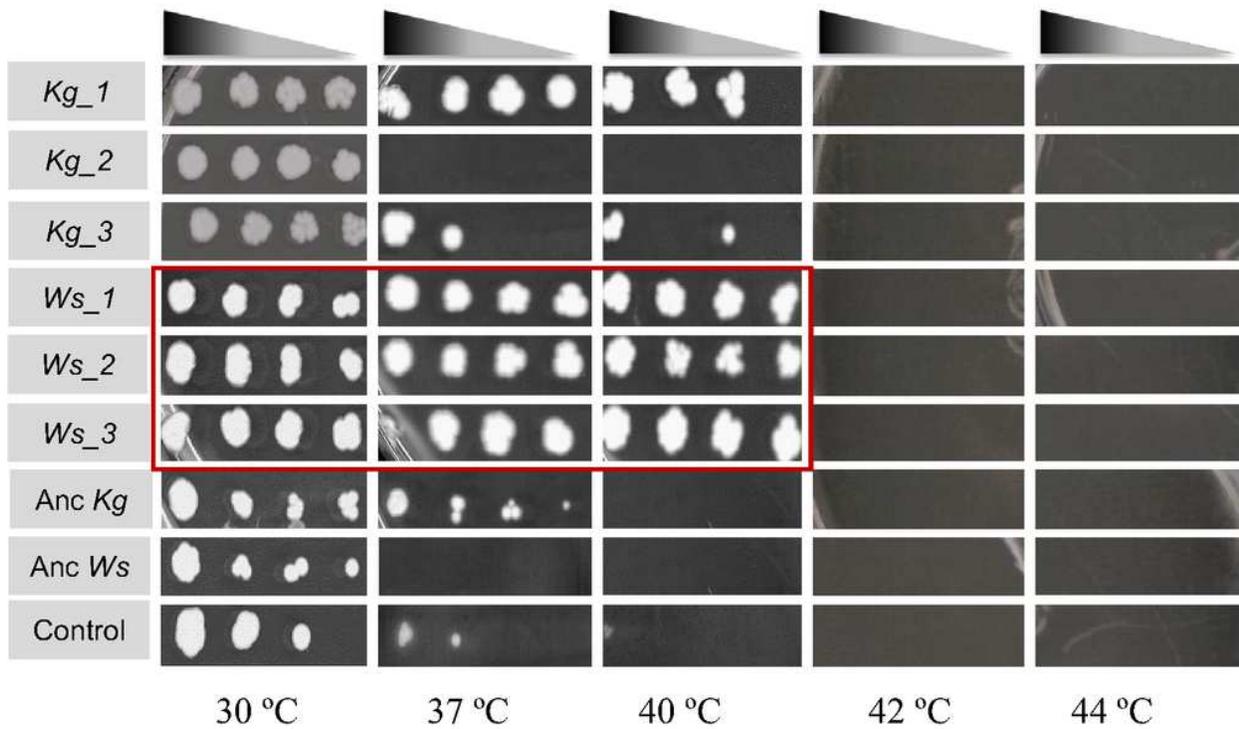


Figure 4

Thermotolerance of the evolved clones. Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM incubated at different temperatures (30 °C, 37 °C, 40 °C, 42 °C and 44 °C). 5 out of 6 evolved clones show improved thermotolerance in contrast with the ancestral strains and the conventional baker's yeast. *Kg_2* lost its ability to withstand thermal stress as compared to its ancestor.

Osmotolerance

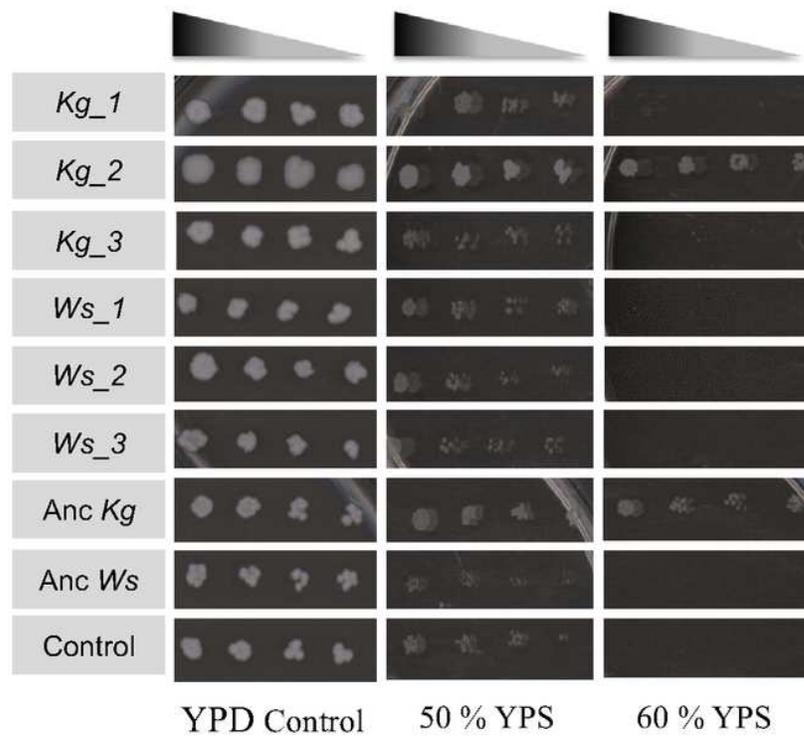


Figure 5

Osmotolerance of the evolved clones. 18 Parental strains *Anc Kg* and *Anc Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPS media supplemented with different concentrations of sucrose (50 % and 60 %). *Ws_1*, *Ws_2*, *Ws_3* and *Kg_2* evolved clones retained a similar osmotolerance capability compared to parental strains. *Kg_1* and *Kg_3* lost the osmotolerance trait.

Halotolerance

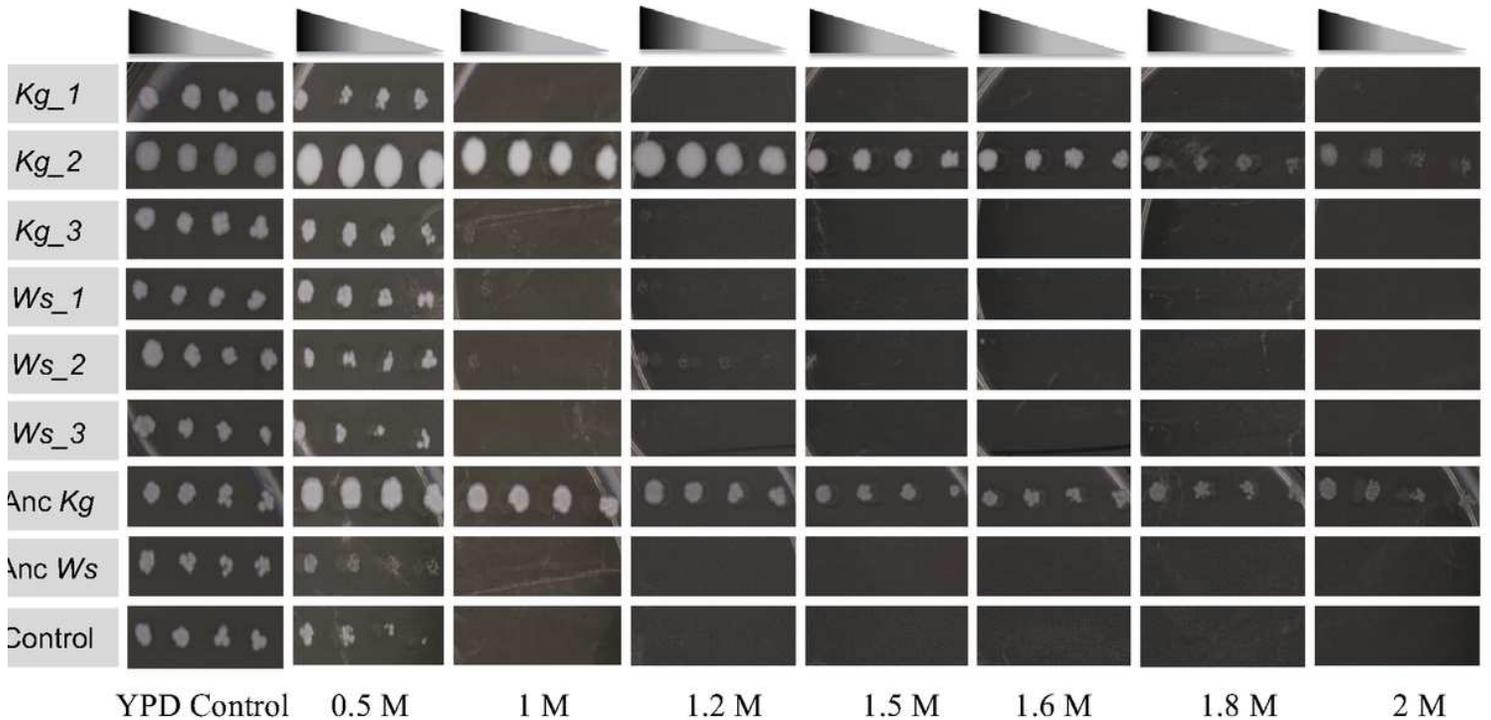


Figure 6

Halotolerance of the evolved clones. Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different NaCl concentrations (0.5 M, 1 M, 1.2 M, 1.5 M, 1.6 M, 1.8 M and 2 M). *Kg_1* and *Kg_3* lost the halotolerance ability whereas *Kg_2* retained the attribute. *Ws_1*, *Ws_2* and *Ws_3* strains maintained their poor halotolerance as their ancestral strain (Anc *Ws*).

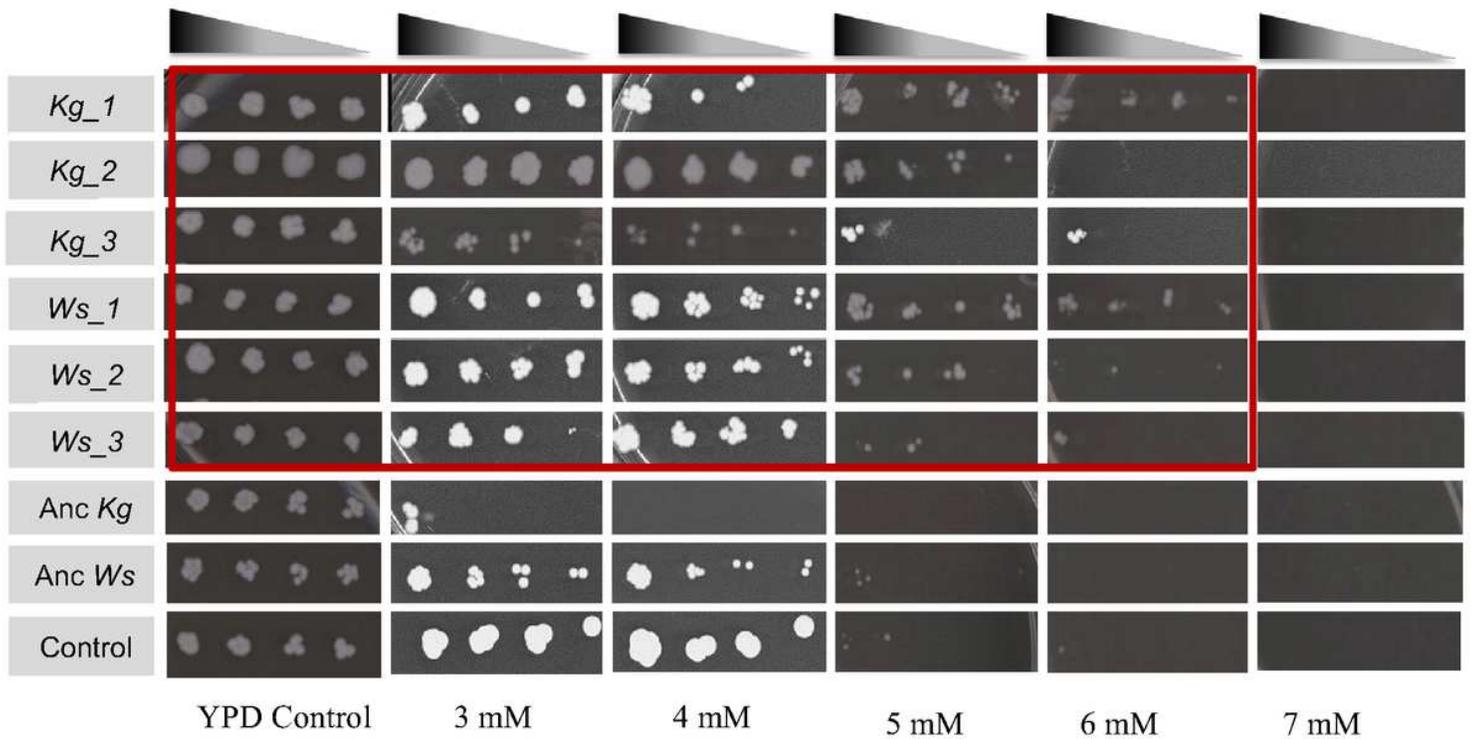


Figure 7

Oxidative stress tolerance of the evolved clones. Parental strains Anc *Kg* and Anc *Ws*, evolved clones and commercial baker's yeast were spotted (OD_{600nm} 0.2, 0.1 and 0.05) for growth on YPM media supplemented with different H₂O₂ concentrations (3 mM, 4 mM, 5 mM, 6 mM and 7 mM). All the evolved clones showed improved oxidative stress tolerance as compared to the ancestral strains and the conventional baker's yeast.

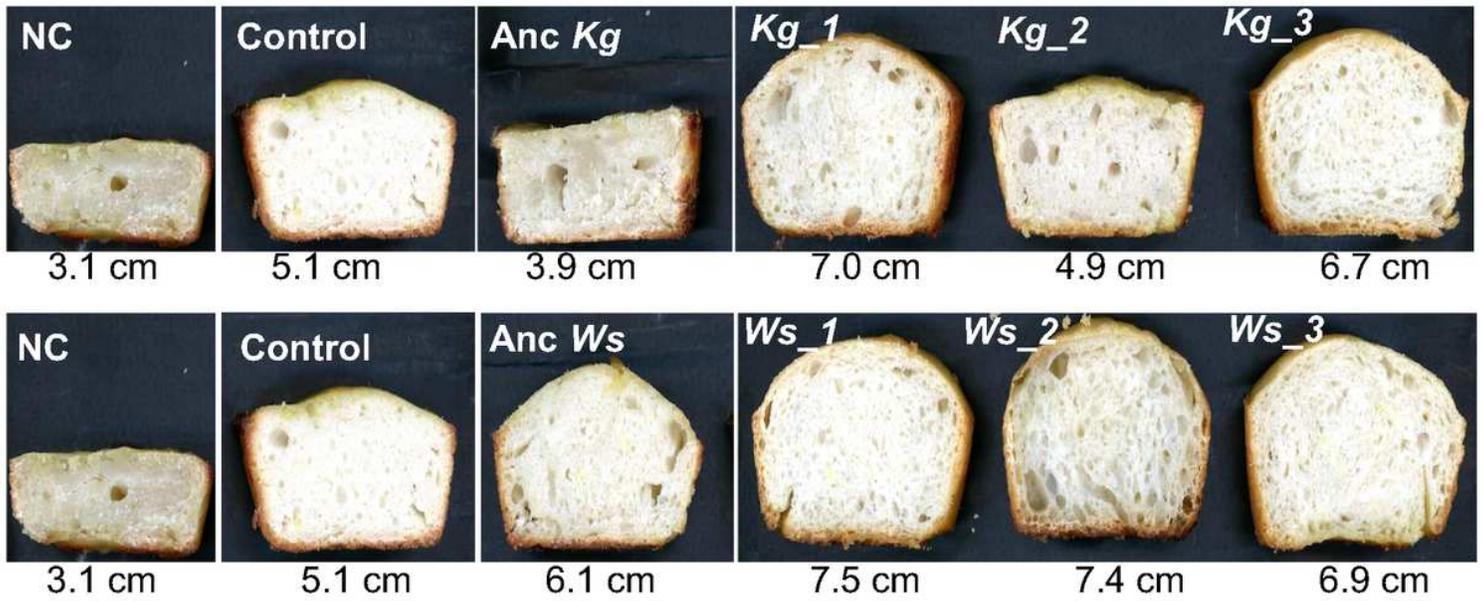


Figure 8

Images of cross section of breads baked with different yeast clones. Left to right: Unleavened bread NC (without yeast), control baker's yeast (control), ancestral strains (Anc Kg and Anc Ws) followed by their respective evolved strains. The height of each loaf was recorded and used for comparing the loaf volumes after baking with a respective yeast strain.

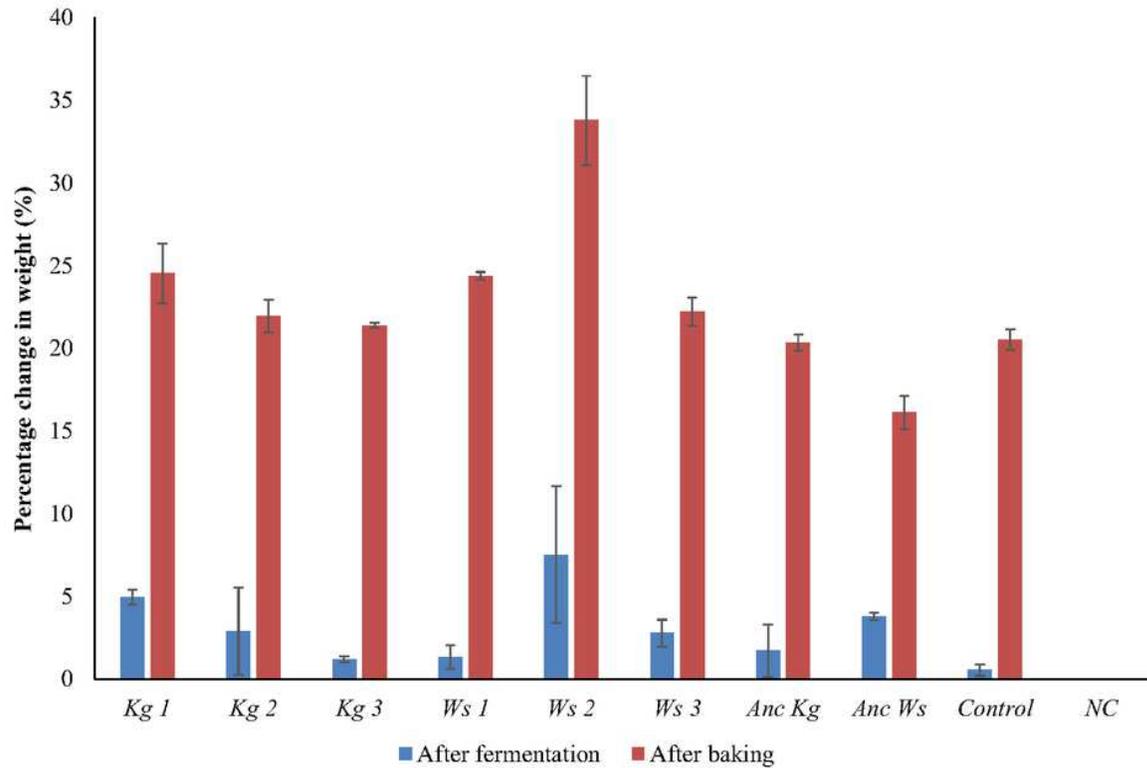


Figure 9

Percentage change in weight of the dough after fermentation and after baking. Evolved clones show more weight change as compared to their ancestral strains and the control 531 baker's yeast. (See also Supplementary Materials, Table 4).

Supplementary Files

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