

1 **Full paper**

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3 **Fermentation characteristics and brewing potential of *kuratsuki* sake yeasts isolated**
4 **from the Niigata Prefecture, Japan**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 The sake brewing industry continues to evolve in response to consumer preferences for novel
25 flavors and fermentation characteristics. However, the genetic and phenotypic diversity of
26 brewery landrace yeast (*kuratsuki* yeast) strains, particularly their regional brewing
27 characteristics and potential for unique flavor development, remains poorly understood due to
28 limited studies and challenges in distinguishing them from industrial strains. This study
29 explored the phenotypic diversity of *kuratsuki* yeast in the Niigata Prefecture, which persists
30 in sake breweries and is isolated outside the realm of industrial yeast selection. Small-scale
31 brewing analysis demonstrated substantial variation in fermentation performance, including
32 rapid and efficient sake production and unique flavor-compound profiles, highlighting their
33 potential for introducing novel traits into brewing practices. Furthermore, several *kuratsuki*
34 yeasts exhibited sufficient alcohol production capacity and desirable flavor characteristics
35 during industrial-scale brewing, supporting their suitability for commercial sake production.
36 The results of this study emphasize the crucial role of preserving brewing cultural heritage,
37 including knowledge and resources related to yeast culture.

38

39 **Keywords:** alcoholic beverage, flavor-compound profile, phenotypic
40 diversity, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, sake brewing

41

42 1. Introduction

43 Sake is a traditional Japanese alcoholic beverage produced through the prolonged
44 fermentation of steamed rice using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Aspergillus oryzae* (*koji*),
45 which is cultivated on steamed rice (Yoshizawa, 1999). *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* plays a
46 central role in sake fermentation and the production of alcohols and a wide range of flavor
47 compounds. Historically, each brewery relied on a uniquely adapted yeast strain (referred to
48 in Japan as “*kuratsuki* sake yeast”) that had been naturally domesticated within the brewery
49 environment, resulting in a variety of sake flavors. However, in the last 80 years, industrial
50 sake production has shifted toward the use of genetically similar yeast strains, particularly
51 those belonging to the Kyokai no. 7 (K7) group, which includes the Kyokai no. 6, 7, 9, and 10
52 series, supplied by the Brewing Society of Japan. The K7 group of strains demonstrate a
53 robust ability to ferment sake effectively, even under low-temperature conditions (Kitagaki &
54 Kitamoto, 2013).

55 The K7 group is genetically distinct, sharing several common mutations that differentiate
56 them from laboratory, wild, and wine/beer yeasts. Notably, the absence of *PHO3*, which
57 encodes a constitutively expressed acid phosphatase, serves as a DNA marker to distinguish
58 industrial sake yeast strains (Kuribayashi et al, 2014). Within the K7 group, *RIM15* is
59 characterized by a unique single-nucleotide insertion (*RIM15ins5067A*) that is associated with
60 enhanced alcohol fermentation capability (Watanabe et al., 2012). This mutation abolishes the
61 function of the RIM15 protein kinase, which is crucial for regulating cell proliferation in
62 response to nutrient availability. In addition, K7 group strains have various unique genomic
63 features, such as the presence of *K7_02212* and deletions in the *PPT1* gene, which encodes a
64 protein serine/threonine phosphatase, further distinguish this group (Hatakeyama et al., 2017).
65 These phenomena may provide insights into the distinctive characteristics of K7 group
66 strains.

67 Currently, however, the sake industry is undergoing rapid transformation, marked by a
68 global rise in craft sake breweries (Kita, 2019). These breweries use various yeast strains to
69 produce unique-flavored sakes, which distinguish them in a competitive market.
70 Consequently, there is an urgent need to study and preserve *kuratsuki* yeast strains other than
71 industrial brewing yeasts, especially in Japan, which is the birthplace of sake.

72 A notable example is the *S. cerevisiae* strain YS4, a *kuratsuki* yeast isolated from the
73 Yoshinogawa Sake Brewery in Settaya, Nagaoka City, Niigata Prefecture, one of Japan’s
74 leading sake-producing regions (Fig. 1A). Established in 1548, this brewery is among the
75 oldest in the Niigata Prefecture. The YS4 strain exhibits distinct brewing characteristics
76 compared to the K901 strain, another member of the K7 group (Hatakeyama et al., 2020b).
77 Similarly, the Kikumasamune sake brewery (Hyogo Prefecture, Japan) uses a yeast strain with
78 distinctive brewing characteristics (Takao et al., 2018). Although considerable research has
79 focused on industrial sake yeasts and their roles in sake production, studies on the brewing
80 characteristics of *kuratsuki* strains remain limited. In contemporary sake production in Japan,
81 K7 group strains, known for their excellent brewing qualities, are widely used to ensure
82 consistent characteristics during sake production and to enhance the quality of the final
83 product. Thus, with *kuratsuki* yeast strains gradually disappearing from sake breweries,
84 isolating them has become increasingly difficult, and the biological/genetic diversity and
85 potential of these yeast strains for sake fermentation remain largely unexplored. Furthermore,

86 no reports have described the regional brewing characteristics of the local sake yeasts used in
87 each brewery, primarily because differentiating *kuratsuki* sake yeasts from K7 group strains is
88 challenging owing to their largely similar physiological and genetic characteristics, as they
89 belong to the same species, *S. cerevisiae* (Azumi & Goto-Yamamoto, 2001).

90 To address this, we previously developed a method for differentiating K7 group strains
91 from other industrial sake yeasts (Kuribayashi et al., 2025; Kuribayashi et al., 2014). The aim
92 of the present study was to isolate *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains from sake breweries in the
93 Niigata Prefecture and assess their fermentation potential. Fermentation testing was
94 conducted using various industrial brewing yeast strains to evaluate their suitability for safe
95 sake brewing. Additionally, the fermentative properties of several *kuratsuki* yeasts were
96 characterized on an industrial scale, resulting in the production of commercially viable sake
97 with a unique flavor profile.

98

99 **2. Materials and methods**

100

101 *2.1. Yeast strains and growth media*

102 The Kyokai sake yeast strains, including classic strains (no longer distributed by the
103 Brewing Society of Japan) such as K1, K2, K3, K4, K5, and K8; currently distributed strains
104 of the K7 group (K6, K7, K9, and K10); and the shochu S2 and SH4 yeast strains, were
105 obtained from the National Research Institute of Brewing. The laboratory strain S288C was
106 purchased from Open Biosystems. The *kuratsuki* sake yeast strain YS4 was provided by the
107 Yoshinogawa brewery located in the Niigata Prefecture (Fig. 1A; Hatakeyama et al., 2020b).
108 To examine whether the brewing characteristics of *kuratsuki* sake yeasts differ from those of
109 wild yeast strains found in nature, a wild yeast strain HG-3 was collected from Muramatsu
110 Park (Gosen City, Niigata Prefecture) (Fig. 1A; Kuribayashi et al., 2024). Additionally, the
111 wild yeast strain KY7 was isolated from a Japanese zelkova tree in the garden of Hiki
112 Brewery (Niigata City), and SD1 was isolated from Sado City. These yeast strains were
113 screened for the *PHO3* locus of *S. cerevisiae* using loop-mediated isothermal amplification
114 (LAMP), as described by Kuribayashi et al. (2024).

115 Yeast cells were cultured in liquid yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) medium
116 consisting of 1% yeast extract, 2% yeast peptone, and 2% glucose (w/v). Solid YPD plates
117 were prepared by adding 2% agar to the YPD medium. Triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC)
118 plates (consisting of TTC-basal medium, a high-phosphate solid medium containing 1%
119 glucose, 0.2% peptone, 0.15% yeast extract, 0.1% KH₂PO₄, 0.04% MgSO₄, 0.027% citric
120 acid, and 3% agar) were purchased from the Brewing Society of Japan. Spore plates
121 (containing 0.5% sodium acetate and 2% agar) were used to induce sporulation. Growth
122 medium containing canavanine, arginine, and ornithine (CAO) was used to positively select
123 mutant yeast strains that do not produce urea (Difco; 0.17% yeast nitrogen base without
124 amino acids or ammonium sulfate [Becton Dickinson Co., Sparks, MD, USA], with 10 mg/L
125 L-canavanine [Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA], 5 mM L-ornithine, 1 mM L-arginine, 2% glucose,
126 and 2% agar) (Kitamoto et al., 1993).

127

128 *2.2. Isolation of kuratsuki sake yeast strains*

129 The locations of different sake breweries in the Niigata prefecture from which the

130 *kuratsuki* yeast strains YT1, YM3, KM1, HZ3, and OU5 were isolated are shown in Fig. 1A.
131 Given the widespread reliance on the K7 group of yeasts for sake production, we developed a
132 procedure to screen *kuratsuki* yeast strains that were distinct from K7 group strains (Fig. 1B).

133 First, bulk DNA from sake mash samples was extracted using the alkali-boiling method,
134 and the *PHO3* gene of *kuratsuki* yeast strains was detected using our LAMP assay
135 (Kuribayashi et al., 2014). *PHO3* is present in *kuratsuki* yeast but is absent in the K7 group of
136 sake yeasts (Fig. 2). Next, yeast strains in the mash (which showed detectable *PHO3* locus)
137 were inoculated on TTC plates and incubated at 28°C for 3 days. Candidate *kuratsuki* yeast
138 colonies on the plates were selected using the diazocoupling stain method (Mizoguchi &
139 Fujita, 1981). The K7 group strain colonies lacked acid phosphatase activity due to deletion
140 mutations in the *PHO3* gene.

141 Isolated stained colonies were examined using polymerase chain reaction–restriction
142 fragment length polymorphism analysis to detect the absence of the *RIM15*ins5067A
143 mutation, which is characteristic of K7 group strains (Kuribayashi et al., 2025). PCR
144 amplicons generated using the forward primer 5'-GGAAAGCGACCGACTACAGG-3' and
145 reverse primer 5'-CAATAGCACCAAGTTTTGGAAGCCAC-3' were digested with the
146 restriction enzyme CspCI (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). Using this series of
147 selection methods, the isolated *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains were confirmed as *S.*
148 *cerevisiae* through DNA sequencing of the 26S rDNA region, as described by Kawahata et al.
149 (2007). The sequence data of the yeasts isolated in this study are presented in Supplementary
150 Table S1.

151

152 2.3. Genetic properties

153 LAMP assays for *S. cerevisiae* K7_02212 and *PPT1* were performed as described by
154 Hatakeyama et al. (2017). The *FDC1*-K54* nonsense mutation, located in the *FDC1* gene
155 encoding ferulic acid decarboxylase, was sequenced using the forward primer 5'-
156 GTGCAATTATGAGGAAGGCCTATGAATCCCCTTACCAGCCCCGTTAAT-3' and
157 reverse primer 5'-TGCAGATGACACAGGAACAGTG-3', as previously reported
158 (Hatakeyama et al., 2020a). As one of the genes responsible for 4-vinyl guaiacol (4-VG)
159 production, FDC1 protein converts ferulic and coumaric acids to their corresponding vinyl
160 derivatives, resulting in the development of an off-flavor in sake.

161

162 2.4. Physiological profiles

163 Sporulation tests were performed by culturing yeast strains on YPD plates at 28°C for 3
164 days, followed by transfer to sporulation medium and incubation for an additional 1–2 days at
165 28°C. Killer toxin activity in *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains was evaluated via clear zone assays
166 using Kyokai no. 901 cells (Brewing Society of Japan) as indicator cells (Hatakeyama et al.,
167 2020b).

168 To validate the presence of mutations related to non-urea production in the collected yeast
169 strains, we examined their ability to grow in CAO medium (Kitamoto et al., 1993). Briefly, 5
170 mL of YPD medium was inoculated with yeast strains and incubated at 30°C for 2 days. The
171 resulting cells were harvested and washed with sterile water. Tenfold dilutions were then
172 spotted onto CAO plates. Each culture was incubated at 30°C for 3 days, and yeast growth
173 was assessed using a CAO plate.

174

175 2.5. Sake-brewing analyses

176 Small-scale sake-brewing tests were conducted to evaluate the fermentation capacities of
177 Kyokai sake yeast, *kuratsuki* yeast, shochu yeast, and wild or laboratory strains, using 100 g
178 of total rice for each test. The sake mash was prepared by adding rice, *koji*, and water, as
179 described by Namba et al. (1978). Yeast cultures were initially grown in YPD medium.
180 Fermentation was performed at a constant temperature of 15°C, and CO₂ levels were
181 measured on the final day. After 16 days, each sake mash was centrifuged (4,440 g, 15 min,
182 4°C), and the supernatant was further refined to obtain sake.

183 An industrial-scale sake-brewing test was carried out using 200–1,500 kg of total rice
184 from sake breweries in the Niigata Prefecture. Industrial sake production is based on
185 fermentation with *kuratsuki* sake yeast residing in their own breweries. The sake was
186 fermented using the standard *Ginjo* brewing method (using a low fermentation temperature
187 and rice with a low polishing ratio) (Washizu and Yamazaki, 1974). Throughout the
188 fermentation period, sake mash was sampled at regular intervals for component analysis.
189 After fermentation, the sake mash was filtered, and the filtrate was obtained as sake.

190 The general properties of the sake and flavor compounds were analyzed following the
191 standard method established by the National Tax Agency of Japan
192 (<https://www.nta.go.jp/law/tsutatsu/kobetsu/sonota/070622/01.htm>) using headspace gas
193 chromatography (GC-14A, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Urea contents were determined using a
194 commercial assay kit (DetectX Urea Nitrogen Colorimetric Detection Kit, Ann Arbor, MI,
195 USA) according to the method of Nagai et al. (2020). The glucose content was measured
196 using a GA05 glucose meter (A&T Corporation, Kanagawa, Japan). We measured 4-VG
197 content following a previously described method (Coghe et al., 2004) involving high-
198 performance liquid chromatography (InertSustain C18 column; 250 mm × 4.6 mm, 5 μM, GL
199 Sciences, Tokyo, Japan) and fluorescence detection (RF-20Axs, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan).

200

201 2.6. Statistical analysis

202 All statistical analyses were performed using Excel Toukei (Social Survey Research
203 Information, Tokyo, Japan) which is a statistical software package, and using the statistical
204 software ‘EZR’ (Easy R) (Kanda, 2013). Data obtained in the small-scale brewing test are
205 expressed as mean ± standard deviation (Supplementary Table S2). As industrial-scale sake
206 production was conducted only once at each brewery, the data were not statistically analyzed.

207

208 3. Results and discussion

209 3.1. Isolation of *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains

210 We screened for *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains, excluding those belonging to the K7 group,
211 from sake mash obtained from various sake breweries in the Niigata Prefecture (Fig. 1A) and
212 analyzed their genetic and physiological characteristics. Although this screening was
213 performed for many breweries in the Niigata Prefecture, no *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains were
214 initially isolated.

215 Next, we isolated *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains from high-foaming mash. In modern sake
216 production, non-foaming sake yeast strains are frequently used, which has decreased the
217 occurrence of high foam in sake mash. Prior to the development of the K7 sake yeast series of

218 non-foaming yeasts, foaming landrace yeasts were commonly used for sake production
219 (Ouchi, 2010). Therefore, a high level of foam in sake mash is likely indicative of the
220 presence of a unique yeast strain. Using mash that produced unexpectedly high levels of
221 foam, we successfully isolated five *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains from five breweries.

222 Together with one strain previously isolated from the Yoshinogawa Sake Brewery in
223 2020, these six strains were subjected to genetic analysis (Fig. 2). The *kuratsuki* strains
224 harbored *PHO3*, *K7_02212*, and *PPT1*, genes also present in classic Kyokai sake and shochu
225 yeast strains. However, these isolates did not possess the genetic signatures of K7 group
226 strains widely used in modern sake brewing, nor did they align with wild or laboratory yeast
227 strains. Furthermore, the *RIM15ins5067A* mutation was only revealed in K7 sake yeast.
228 Similar to *K7_02212*, the *FDC1-K54** mutation variant was identified in all brewing yeasts,
229 including *kuratsuki* yeast. In addition, sake breweries attempting to isolate their own sake
230 yeast did not use the classic Kyokai sake yeast/shochu series. Therefore, these results suggest
231 that our *kuratuski* sake yeasts maintain an original landrace different from classic/modern
232 Kyokai sake yeast strains, shochu yeasts, and wild/laboratory strains. This distinction was
233 further supported by physiological characteristics such as loss of spore-forming ability and
234 acid phosphatase activity (Fig. 2). Loss of sporulation has been associated with the
235 domestication of industrial beer yeasts (Ogata, 2019; Gallone et al., 2016), and K7 group
236 yeasts are more evolved than *kuratsuki* sake strains in the sake brewing environment.
237 Nonetheless, sporulation was observed in most *kuratsuki* strains, suggesting their utility in
238 breeding programs via mating techniques and offering various applications within the
239 brewing industry.

240 These *kuratsuki* yeasts do not interfere with sake production and can be used safely at
241 industrial sites, because all yeasts in this assay were non killer toward *S. cerevisiae*.

242 Moreover, none of the yeast strains grew on CAO plates. In the Niigata Prefecture, non-
243 urea-producing yeast strains, such as G9, G74, and G8, have been developed by the Niigata
244 Prefectural Sake Research Institute (Kuribayashi et al., 2015) and are frequently employed in
245 sake production. However, the *kuratsuki* strains in this study are clearly distinct from Niigata
246 sake yeasts based on their inability to grow on CAO medium.

247 Collectively, these findings suggest that *kuratsuki* yeast strains from Niigata breweries are
248 closely related to shochu/classic Kyokai yeasts, which cannot be used in these breweries. No
249 reports have described the isolation of multiple brewery-specific yeast strains from a
250 geographically restricted area, such as a prefecture; therefore, the results of this study provide
251 valuable information for sake brewers. Furthermore, the isolated strains inhabit specific sake
252 breweries, and each strain appears to have adapted uniquely to its respective brewery
253 environment. For instance, strain YS4 exhibits non-sporulating and non-foaming phenotypes
254 distinct from the other *kuratsuki* isolates (Hatakeyama et al., 2020b), although these traits
255 remain to be fully characterized.

257 3.2. Small-scale sake brewing

258 Small- and industrial-scale fermentation tests were performed to investigate the
259 fermentative properties of the *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains isolated in this study. The
260 fermentation profile for small-scale sake brewing is shown in Fig. 3A and Supplementary
261 Table S2, and principal component analysis of these parameters is shown in Fig. 3B.

262 Hierarchical cluster analysis showed that the K7 group of yeasts, classic Kyokai sake strains,
263 and wild strains clustered together to some extent, whereas the *kuratsuki* yeasts were
264 dispersed. These results suggest that brewery-specific yeasts are enriched in the variation in
265 sake brewing characteristics. Similarly, principal component analysis also showed that the
266 classic Kyokai yeasts, K7 sake group, and wild yeasts are arranged together, whereas the
267 *kuratsuki* sake yeasts are distributed uniformly. Furthermore, because the yeast strains KY7,
268 SD1, and HG3 appeared to be independent of the other groups, we examined whether the wild
269 yeast group had statistically significant differences in these brewing characteristics compared
270 with the other strains. Statistically significant differences were detected using multivariate
271 analysis of variance ($p < 0.01$), suggesting that there were clear differences in the overall
272 brewing profiles between the wild and other yeast groups. This was also supported by the
273 phylogenetic analysis of these yeast strains, which showed that wild and laboratory yeasts
274 differed genetically from industrial brewing yeasts (Supplementary Fig. S1).

275 Unlike wild yeast strains, which produced 4-VG at concentrations exceeding the sensory
276 threshold (52 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) (Utsunomiya, 2006), *kuratsuki* yeasts produced 4-VG at concentrations
277 below this threshold, comparable to other industrial brewing yeasts (Fig. 4). Indeed, 4-VG
278 levels in sake produced by wild strains were significantly higher than those in sake produced
279 by industrial yeasts (Fig. 4). In alcoholic beverages such as sake and beer, 4-VG is considered
280 an undesirable off-flavor compound. Failure to convert ferulic acid into 4-VG is often
281 regarded as a marker of domestication in *S. cerevisiae* (Gallone et al., 2016). In this study, all
282 *kuratsuki* yeast strains were genetically deficient in 4-VG production, harboring the *FDCI*-
283 K54* mutation in the causative gene *FDCI* (Fig. 2). These findings indicate that sake yeasts
284 are not naturally present in the environment; rather, they are found in breweries where they
285 have undergone domestication. This possibility is further supported by the observation that 4-
286 VG generation serves as a detoxification mechanism employed by *S. cerevisiae* in natural
287 environments (Kerruish et al., 2024; Mukai et al., 2014).

288 Sake brewed with *kuratsuki* yeast strains exhibited considerable variation in alcohol
289 concentration (12.9–18.4%) and flavor profiles (Supplementary Table S2). These findings
290 indicate that *kuratsuki* yeasts show substantial phenotypic diversity, even within relatively
291 small geographical regions, such as prefectures, and that they may therefore exhibit
292 considerable variation depending on the specific brewery. Similarly, beer yeast in European
293 farmhouses were found to possess phenotypic characteristics, even within the same genetic
294 diversity group (Preiss et al., 2024). Although the limited sample size may have influenced
295 our findings, a potential explanation for these results, specific to Japan, could be the impact of
296 seasonal labor on traditional artisan groups. Niigata is home to a group of master brewers
297 known as *Echigo-Toji*, one of Japan's three great master brewers (Nojiro, 1966). *Echigo-Toji*
298 is a craftsmen group of master brewers originating in the Niigata Prefecture, who have been
299 active in sake breweries throughout Japan. The *Echigo-Toji* group dates back to the Edo
300 period (1603–1867) and developed as farmers engaged in sake brewing during the winter off
301 season. Thus, the diversity of *kuratsuki* sake strains may have been influenced, in some way,
302 by the relocation of craftsmen who carried yeast with them. HZ3 is markedly distinct from
303 SD1, a wild yeast originating from Sado Island, both genetically and in its fermentation
304 characteristics (Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Supplementary Fig. S1). This observation makes it unlikely
305 that HZ3 evolved naturally on the island. A reasonable assumption is that HZ3 was brought in

306 from another location. Gallone et al. (2016) raised this possibility based on the history of the
307 spread of beer yeast with human migration. Additionally, the link between the *FDC1-K54**
308 mutation/*K7_02212* gene and the existing sake yeast strains implies that they likely stem from
309 a single domesticated ancestor, reinforcing this theory (Fig. 2). Nonetheless, further
310 investigations, such as the examination of the genomic diversity of a larger collection of
311 *kuratsuki* yeast strains, are necessary to comprehensively test this hypothesis.

312

313 3.3. Industrial-scale sake brewing

314 Although the sake-brewing industry has traditionally focused on strains with high ethanol
315 productivity and strong aromatic profiles, increasing consumer demand for low-alcohol and
316 uniquely flavored sake has driven interest in novel strains (Kitagaki & Kitamoto, 2013; Sato et
317 al., 2002). *Kuratsuki* strains exhibit potential for a wide range of applications in the sake-
318 brewing industry. Therefore, to investigate whether these strains are suitable for commercial
319 applications, the YT1, OU5, and KM1 strains were selected for sake-brewing tests in a sake
320 brewery.

321 The *kuratsuki* OU5 strain was used in an industrial-scale brewing test by fermenting 600
322 kg of total rice (*Junmai daiginjo-shu* grade, using *Koshitanrei* as the brewing rice, with a rice-
323 polishing rate of 48%). The *kuratsuki* YT1 strain was subjected to an industrial-scale brewing
324 test by fermenting 1,500 kg of total rice (*Junmai daiginjo-shu* grade, using *Yamadanishiki* as
325 the brewing rice with a rice-polishing rate of 50%). The *kuratsuki* KM1 strain was subjected
326 to an industrial-scale brewing test by fermenting 200 kg of total rice (*Junmai daiginjo-shu*
327 grade, using *Koshiibuki* and *Gohyakumangoku* as brewing rice varieties with a rice polishing
328 rate of 50%). In these scaled-up tests, all *kuratsuki* strains successfully produced the alcohol
329 content and flavor profile necessary for commercialization (Fig. 5). Notably, *kuratsuki* strain
330 YT1 underwent slow fermentation in the main mash, resulting in sake with a low alcohol
331 content of 13.7%. KM1 exhibited intermediate alcohol production (15.8%) among the
332 *kuratsuki* strains. The OU5 strain showed fermentation characteristics (alcohol content of
333 17.6% in the obtained sake) similar to those of K7 group strains (Kuribayashi et al., 2022),
334 brewery yeast km67 (Takao et al., 2018), and *kuratsuki* yeast YS4 (Hatakeyama et al.,
335 2020b). These brewing characteristics were similar to those observed in the small-scale tests
336 (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table S2); thus, *kuratsuki* sake yeasts can produce sake with
337 various flavors and alcohol contents, even at an industrial scale. These results are crucial for
338 the future of sake production, as the diverse characteristics observed strongly align with
339 growing consumer demand for unique flavors.

340 The *RIM15* gene in the K7 group contains a characteristic single-nucleotide insertion
341 (*RIM15ins5067A*) associated with its high alcohol fermentation ability (Watanabe et al.,
342 2012). This *RIM15* mutation results in the loss of function of RIM15 protein kinase, which
343 mediates cell proliferation in response to nutrients. However, the OU5 strains do not harbor
344 the *RIM15ins5067A* mutation. Highly fermentable Hiroshima no. 6 sake yeast, such as
345 *kuratsuki* yeast from the Niigata brewery, does not have the insertion mutation
346 *RIM15ins5067A*, and it has been reported that the *MSN4* gene (involved in the alcohol stress
347 response) is also different from that of K7 yeast (Yamasaki, 2021). This finding suggests that
348 genetic mutations other than *RIM15ins5067A* may support high-alcohol fermentation in sake
349 yeast. The three sake products additionally exhibited a marked contrast in their flavor

350 components (Fig. 5); however, this examination included a limited sample size with
351 significant variations and a lack of studies to establish molecular events. Further studies on
352 the genetic and phenotypic diversity of sake are required to understand these observations.

353 In conclusion, *kuratsuki* strains isolated from Niigata breweries displayed distinct
354 fermentation properties and produced sake with unique flavor profiles. These results will be
355 valuable for further practical improvement of sake yeasts for industrial-scale applications. In
356 addition, the fermentation properties of *kuratsuki* yeast provide important information for
357 future innovations in sake production.

358

359 **Declarations of interest**

360 None.

361

362 **Disclosures**

363 All experiments were performed in Japan and complied with current Japanese laws.

364

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490

491 **Figure legends**

492

493 Fig. 1 – Isolation of *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains from sake breweries in the Niigata Prefecture.
494 A, map showing locations where yeast screening was successful. Years in parentheses
495 indicate the founding dates of the respective breweries. White circles
496 represent *kuratsuki* yeast isolated from the sake brewery; black circles denote wild yeast
497 isolated from the natural environment. B, overview of the procedure used to isolate *kuratsuki*
498 sake yeast strains from sake breweries.

499

500 Fig. 2 – Genotypic and phenotypic characteristics of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains used in
501 this study. The *FDC1-K54** mutation in the K2 strain displayed sequence heterogeneity, and
502 a definitive consensus sequence could not be established.

503

504 Fig. 3 – Sake fermentation parameters in small-scale brewing tests. A, heatmap indicating the
505 phenotypic diversity of CO₂ evolution in sake mash, the general components, and flavor-
506 metabolite formation among six *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains, various industrial brewing
507 yeasts, and wild/laboratory yeasts. The heatmap utilizes Z-scores for the color scheme, and
508 the rows are organized through hierarchical clustering. B, principal component projections
509 using the same set of sake-brewing phenotypes as in panel A.

510

511 Fig. 4 – Average 4-vinyl guaiacol (4-VG) production levels among the yeast strains studied
512 grouped by population. Statistical analysis was performed using Dunnett test ($*p < 0.01$).

513

514 Fig. 5 – Industrial-scale sake production using *kuratsuki* sake yeast strains. A, OU5 strain in
515 Aumont Sake Brewery. B, YT1 strain in Yukitsubaki Shuzo. C, KM1 strain in Koshimeijo.
516 Each left panel shows the fermentation profile of *kuratsuki* sake yeast in the sake mash. Each
517 radar chart on the right represents the flavor components of the resulting sake.

518

519 Supplementary Fig. S1 – Phylogenetic relationships of *kuratsuki* sake yeast and wild yeast
520 strains isolated in the Niigata Prefecture. Genotyping via random amplicon sequencing and
521 subsequent single-nucleotide polymorphism call analyses were conducted by Seibutsu-Giken
522 (Kanagawa, Japan). Random amplicons were generated using 64 primers and sequenced on a
523 DNBSEQ-G400 platform (MGI Tech, Shenzhen, China) with a paired-end read length of 150
524 bp. Sequencing adapters and low-quality bases were trimmed using Cutadapt software
525 (version 4.0) and Sickle software (version 1.33), respectively. Sequences after 76 bases were
526 deleted to ensure uniform read lengths for data analysis. Subsequently, within-population
527 genetic indices, such as the proportion of polymorphic sites, nucleotide diversity, and
528 inbreeding coefficient, were calculated using the Stacks software (version 2.62). Phylogenetic
529 analysis was performed with RAxML software (version 8.2.9) using the GTR + G model and
530 100 rapid bootstrap replicates, as well as the *pgsumtree* package of Phylogears2 software
531 (version 2.0.2015.11.30).

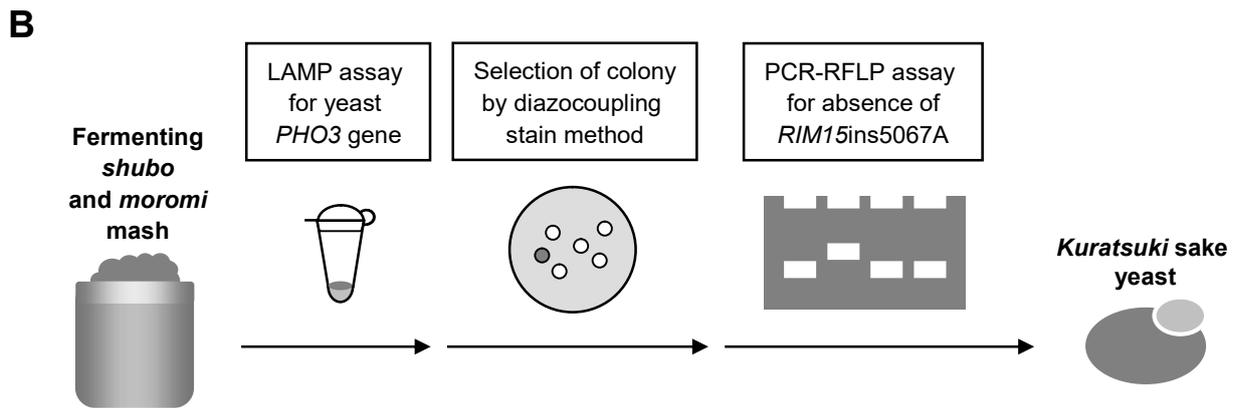
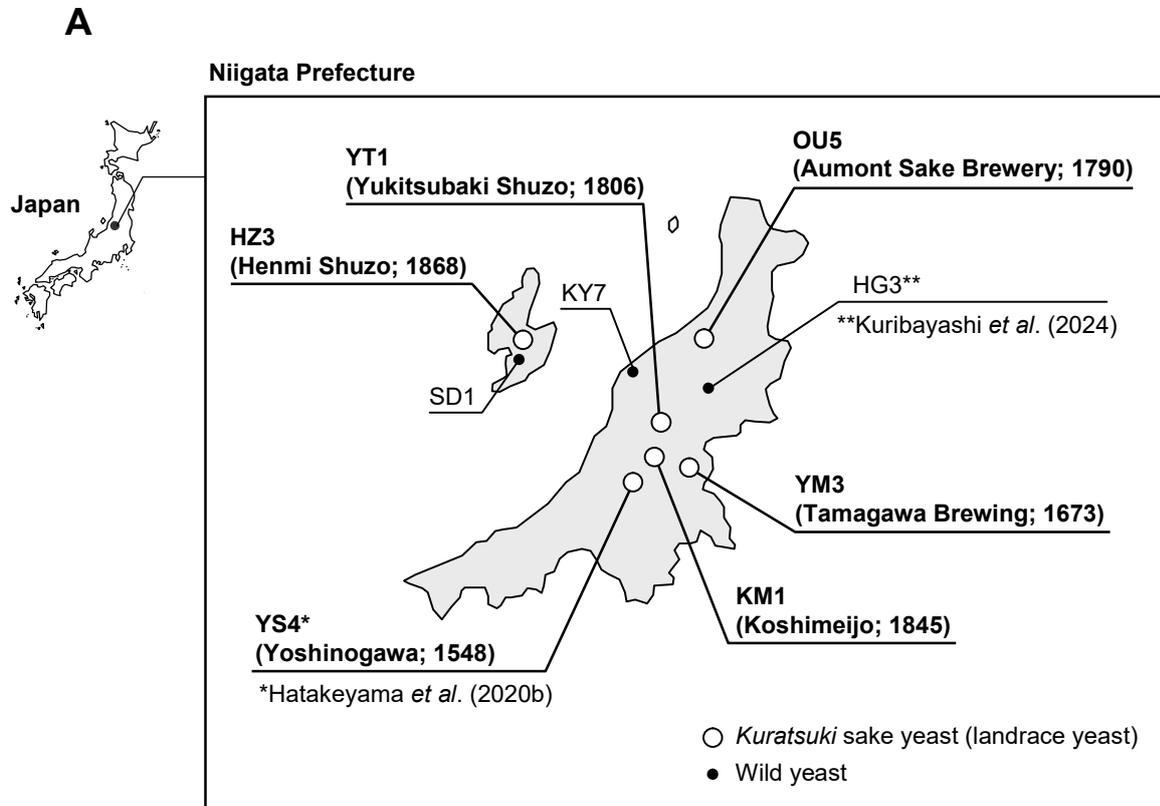


Fig. 1 Kuribayashi *et al.*

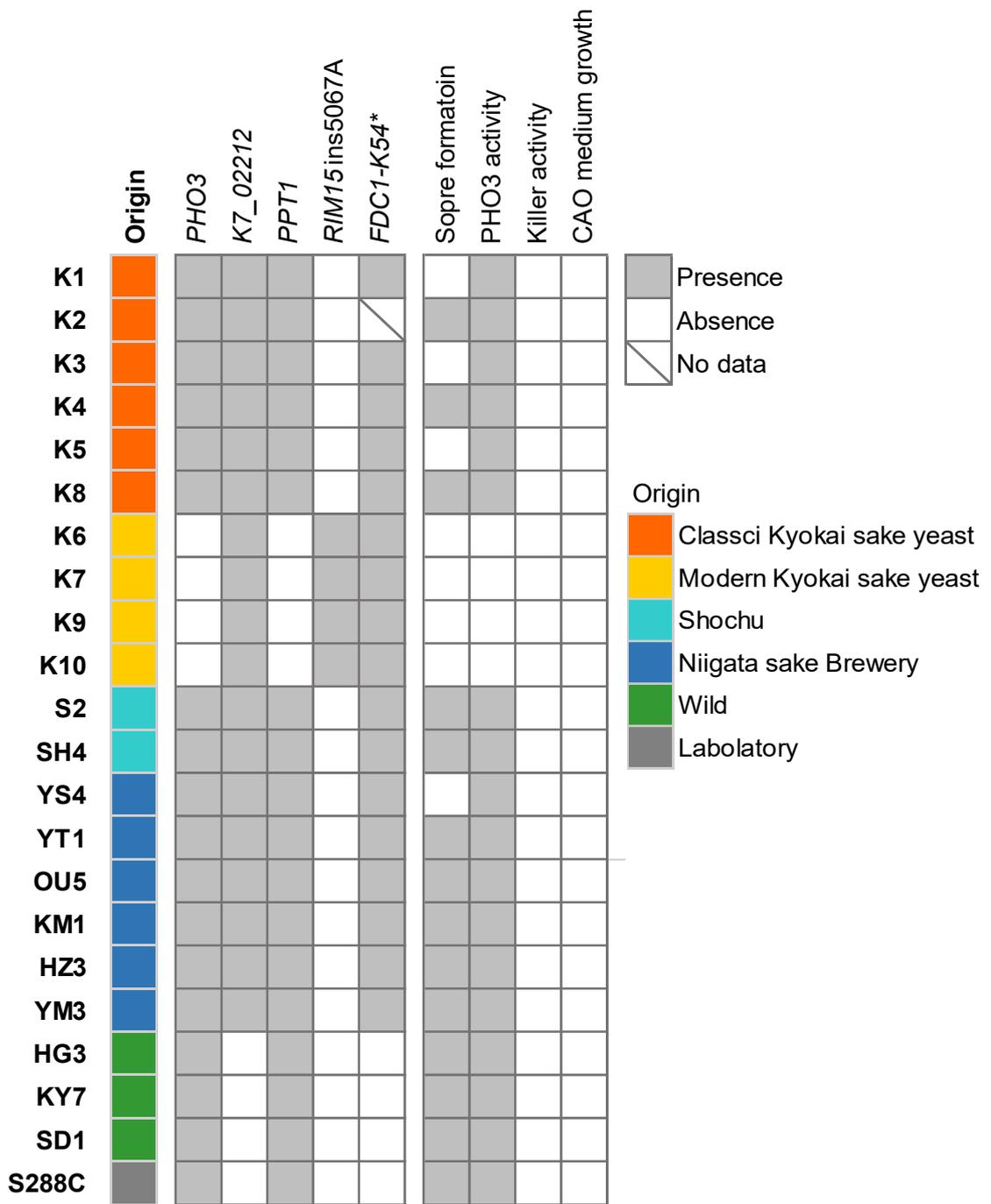


Fig. 2 Kuribayashi *et al.*

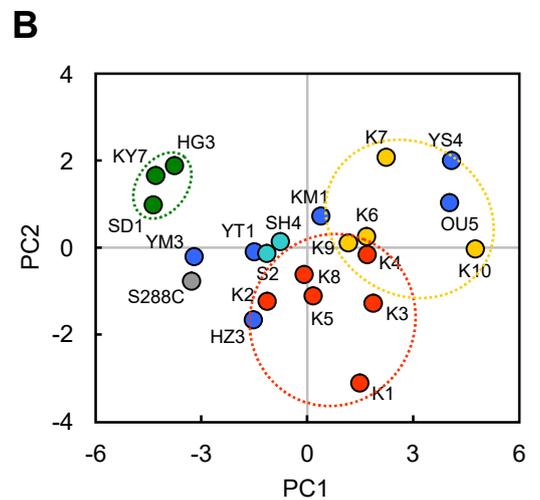
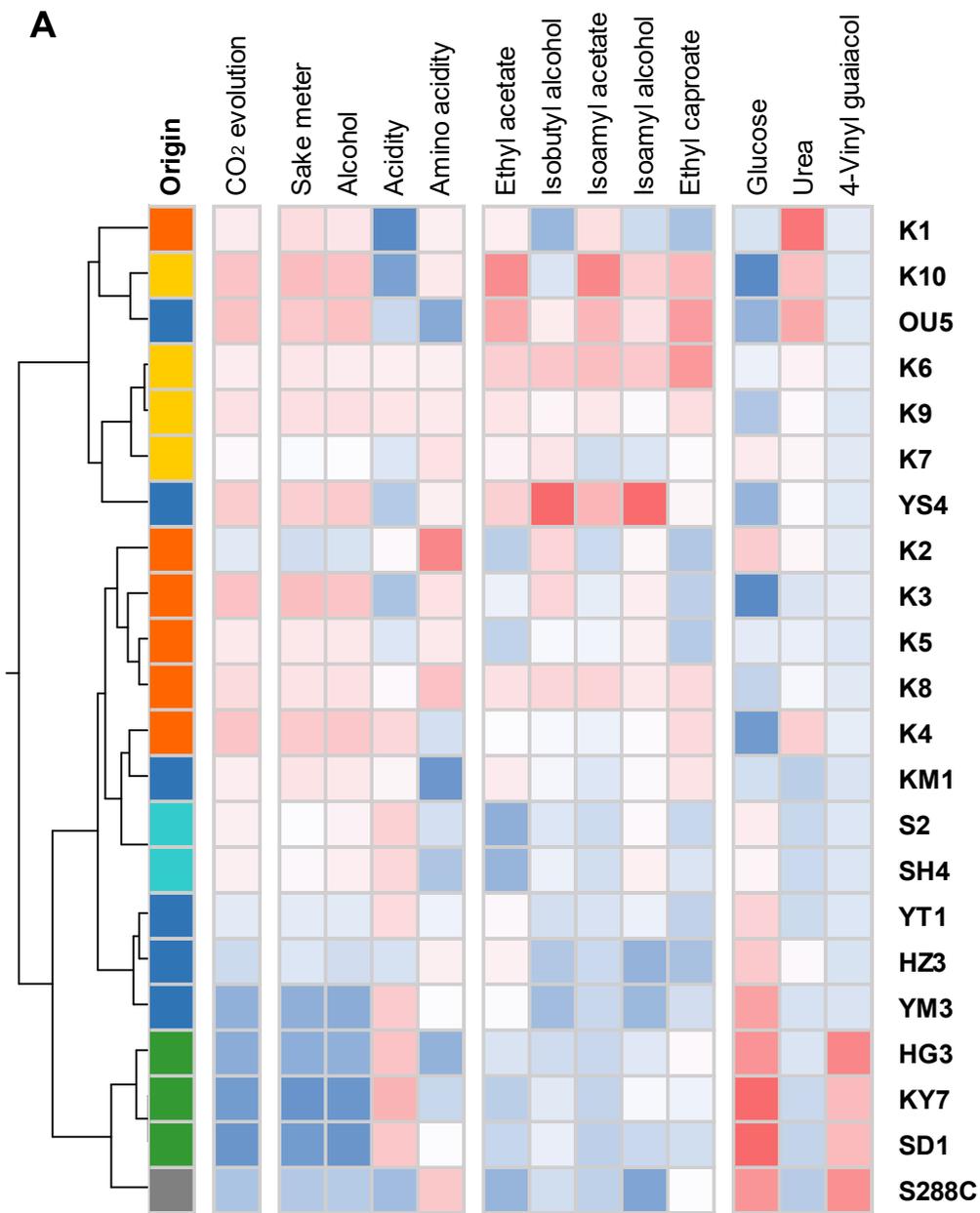


Fig. 3 Kuribayashi *et al.*

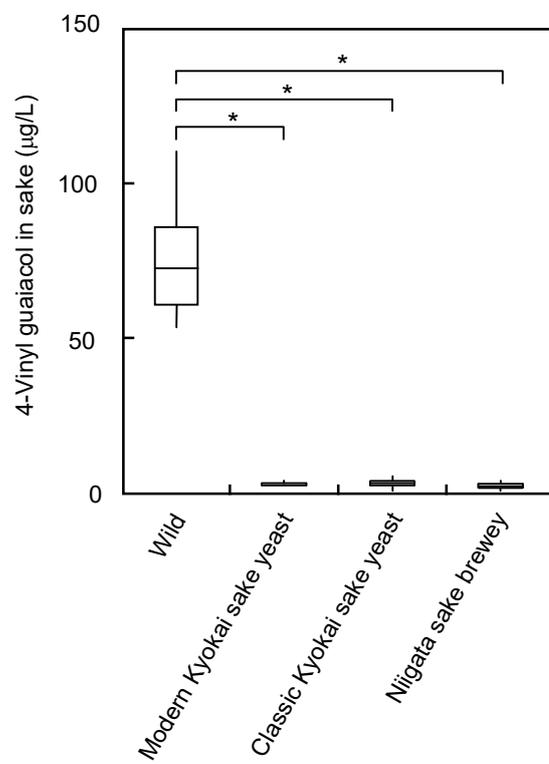


Fig. 4 Kuribayashi et al.

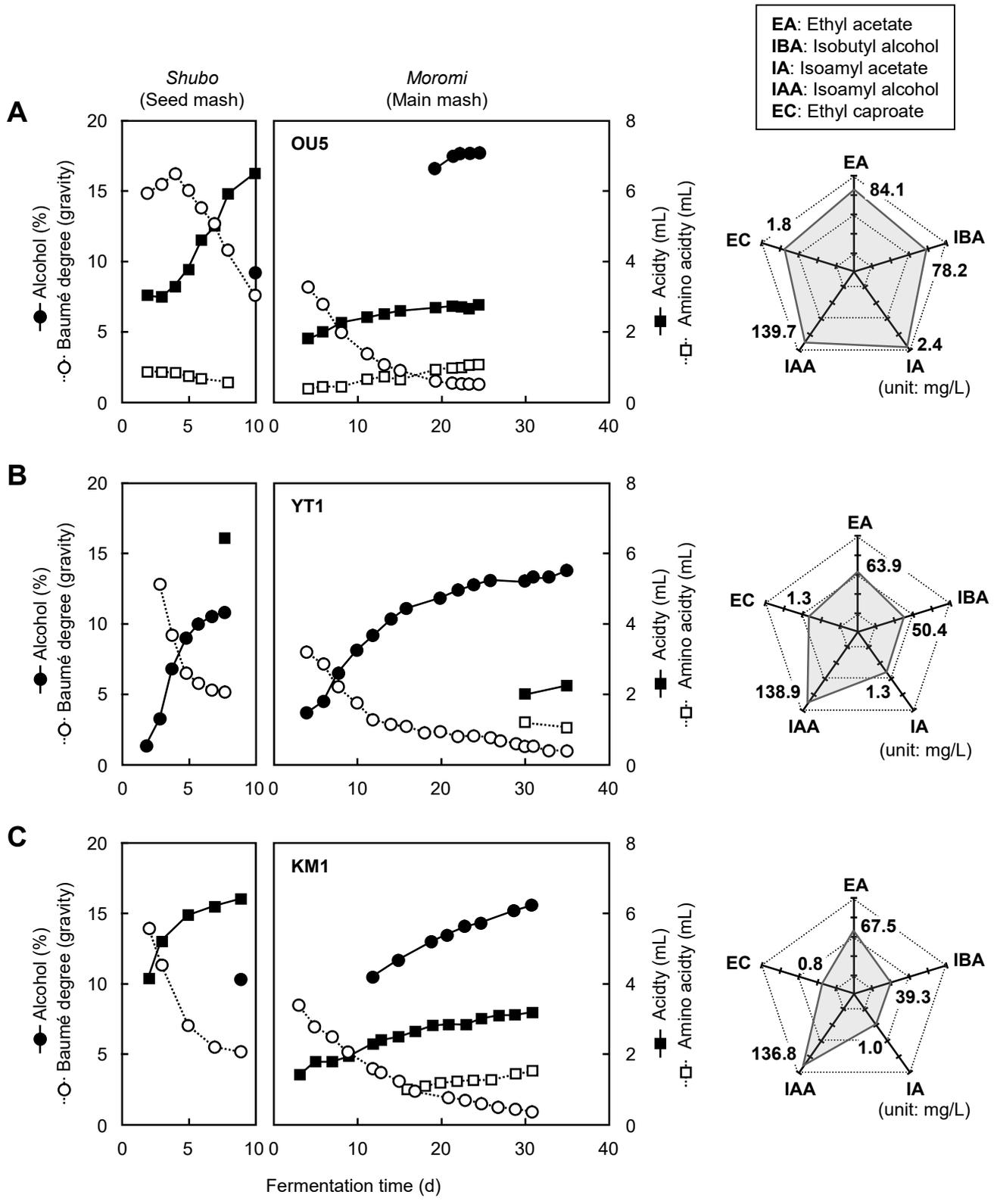


Fig. 5 Kuribayashi et al.