

NMR- and GC/MS-based metabolomic characterization of sunki, an unsalted fermented pickle of turnip leaves

メタデータ 言語: eng 出版者: 公開日: 2019-05-14 キーワード (Ja): キーワード (En): 作成者: 冨田, 理, 中村, 敏英 メールアドレス: 所属: URL https://repository.naro.go.jp/records/2517

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NMR- and GC/MS-based metabolomic characterization of sunki, an unsalted 1 fermented pickle of turnip leaves 2 3 Satoru Tomita^{a,*}, Toshihide Nakamura^a, and Sanae Okada^b 4 5 6 ^a Food Research Institute, National Agriculture and Food Research Organization (NARO), 2-1-12 Kannondai, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8642, Japan. 7 ^b Kiso Town Resource Institute, 2326-6 Fukushima, Kisomachi, Kiso, Nagano 397-8588, 8 9 Japan 10 * Correspondence to S. Tomita: e-mail, satorutomita@affrc.go.jp; phone, +81-(0)29-838-11 8066; fax, +81-(0)29-838-7996. 12

Running title: Metabolomic characterization of sunki pickle

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Abstract

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This study revealed the compositional characteristics of sunki, a traditional, unsalted, 17 lactic acid-fermented pickle produced using turnip leaf in Kiso district, Japan. 18 Comprehensive compositional analysis by two metabolomic approaches based on NMR 19 and solid-phase microextraction-GC/MS methods was used to determine its chemical 20 composition by annotating 54 water-soluble and 62 volatile compounds. Principal 21 component analysis showed that samples had different compositions, depending on the 22 23 agricultural processing factory and production year. This variation potentially resulted from the differences in the lactic acid bacterial community produced during the 24 spontaneous fermentation of sunki and in the initial nutritional composition of the turnip 25 26 leaf. Partial least squares regression revealed that the acetic acid level showed a strong positive correlation with pH (R = 0.810), in contrast to the negative correlations of lactic 27 acid and ethanol levels (R = -0.533 and -0.547). This indicated the crucial impact of 28 acetic acid-related metabolism on acidification during *sunki* fermentation. 29

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31 Keywords: Metabolomics; fermented foods; lactic acid bacteria; *Lactobacillus*; *Brassica*.

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- Funding: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the
- public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

1. Introduction

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Japan has a warm and humid climate, and a wide variety of fermented foods and beverages have been developed and inherited over the centuries. Nowadays, fermented food/beverages of Japan, including soy sauce, miso (fermented soy bean paste), and sake (Japanese rice wine), are recognized worldwide (Tamang, Watanabe, & Holzapfel, 2016). Sunki is a unique, traditional fermented pickle, which is only produced in the Kiso district, an inland mountainous region of Nagano Prefecture, Japan. It is made by fermenting red turnip (Brassica rapa L.) leaves with lactic acid bacteria (LAB) (Tamang, et al., 2016). In general, salt plays a central role in pickle fermentation, as it suppresses the growth of undesirable spoilage microorganisms and promotes the release of water and nutritional compounds from the cytoplasm of vegetable plants (Henney, 2010). Sunki is unique in that the fermentation process occurs under unsalted conditions, in contrast to most vegetable pickles that are produced using salt. Even today, *sunki* is produced every year at the beginning of winter. In recent years, the demand for *sunki* is increasing because of the increasing awareness among the consumers about the need to reduce sodium intake and because of the health-promoting effects of LAB. This increasing demand is also making an important contribution to the growth of the rural economy.

While *sunki* is highly valuable as part of the Japanese food culture, as a biological resource, and as a product stimulating the rural economy, academic research into its fermented food properties is highly limited. However, several studies have investigated the chemical composition of *sunki*. Itabashi et al. have analyzed the levels of three organic acids (lactic acid [LacA], acetic acid [HOAc], and malic acid [MalA]), amino acids, and volatile compounds (Itabashi, 1982; Itabashi, Kawawa, & Miyao, 1990) in *sunki* samples, and provided initial information for investigating the compositional characteristics of

sunki. However, only two or three samples were analyzed in these studies, which is insufficient for establishing the chemical composition of sunki. It is likely that sunki exhibits a large compositional variety due to the following reasons: i) it is produced by spontaneous fermentation of the first-generation batch of the year and subsequently subcultured by adding a portion of this batch to the next processing batch; ii) it is produced on a small scale in homes and many small agricultural processing factories; and, iii) it is produced using three different local turnip varieties, depending on the region of the Kiso district. Therefore, to provide a compositional overview of sunki as a fermented food, the chemical characteristics of a larger set of samples from different places need to be investigated through a comprehensive analysis. Moreover, it is also important to survey the metabolites responsible for the pH value, because it is a practicable marker for assessing the progress of the desired fermentation of sunki.

In recent years, the dramatic progress in instrumental analysis has enabled the development of metabolomic approaches, which combine comprehensive compositional analysis by high-throughput analytical instruments and multivariate statistical analysis to extract the compositional differences in large datasets (metabolite profile). The metabolomic approach has been globally applied in studies on representative fermented foods and beverages containing LAB, such as yoghurt, cheese, wine, soy sauce, *miso*, *sake*, and *kimchi*, providing comprehensive information on their compositional characteristics (Hong, 2011; Lu, Hu, Miyakawa, & Tanokura, 2016; Ochi, Naito, Iwatsuki, Bamba, & Fukusaki, 2012; Park, Yoo, Seo, Lee, Na, & Son, 2016; Shiga, Yamamoto, Nakajima, Kodama, Imamura, Sato, et al., 2014; Sugimoto, Kaneko, Onuma, Sakaguchi, Mori, Abe, et al., 2012; Yoshida, Yamazaki, Ozawa, Mizukoshi, & Miyano, 2009). Moreover, these studies successfully highlighted some of the metabolites involved in the

important microbial activities of LAB, including malolactic fermentation for wine production (Hong, 2011), proteolytic activity during yoghurt production (Settachaimongkon, Nout, Antunes Fernandes, Hettinga, Vervoort, Van Hooijdonk, et al., 2014), and promotion of ripening during cheese production (Ochi, Sakai, Koishihara, Abe, Bamba, & Fukusaki, 2013).

In the present study, we applied metabolomics using two different non-targeted analytical techniques to the investigation of the chemical characteristics of *sunki* samples. The analysis was based on the comprehensive metabolite profiles of water-soluble and volatile flavor compounds obtained by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and headspace solid-phase microextraction-gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (SPME-GC/MS), respectively. Herein, we describe the detailed chemical composition of *sunki* and provide an overview of its compositional variety, based on the data obtained using samples from eight agricultural processing factories over two years.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling of *sunki* pickle

Sunki samples produced in November–December in 2015 and 2016 were provided from eight agricultural product-processing factories (A–H) in Kiso district, Japan, and were stored in a freezer at –20°C until use. Samples used in this study, and their pH and Na⁺ concentration are listed in Table S1. The pH and Na⁺ concentration were determined using a LAQUA F-72 and a LAQUAtwin Na-11 (Horiba, Kyoto, Japan), respectively. Liquid part of *sunki* pickle was used for the compositional analysis because of its advantages of high homogeneity and ease of analytical sample preparation as compared to lyophilized sample. A preliminary spectral comparison confirmed that the signal

patterns of ¹H NMR spectra were sufficiently consistent between the samples of liquid part and lyophilized *sunki* (Fig. S1). The samples were used for NMR and SPME-GC/MS analyses in a single analytical replicate.

2.2. NMR analysis

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Water-soluble compounds of *sunki* pickle were analyzed by NMR spectroscopy. To prepare an analytical sample of pickle liquid, 140 µL of the clear supernatant was diluted with 560 µL of 125 mM potassium phosphate buffer (KPi), consisting of K₂HPO₄/KH₂PO₄ (pH 7.0) in deuterium oxide (D₂O; 99.9% D; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Andover MA, USA). After centrifugation, the supernatant was transferred to a 5 mm O.D. NMR tube (Norell, Landisville, NJ). Pickled leaf samples were lyophilized for one week and then ground into fine powder. Water-soluble compounds in leaf samples were extracted by suspending 10 mg of the dried powder in 700 µL of 100 mM KPi in D₂O followed by vortexing for 5 min at 25°C. After centrifugation, the supernatant was transferred to an NMR tube through a simple surgical cotton filter to remove the suspended debris. For these NMR samples, 2,2-dimethyl-2-silapentane-5sulfonate sodium salt (DSS-d₆; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) was used as an internal standard at a concentration of 1.0 mM. Proton (¹H), carbon (¹³C), and 2D NMR spectra were recorded on an Avance-500 spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin, Karlsruhe, Germany), using previously described acquisition parameters and conditions (Tomita, Nemoto, Matsuo, Shoji, Tanaka, Nakagawa, et al., 2015). Metabolite annotation was facilitated by analyzing the NMR spectra measured using an Avance-800 spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin) and by referring to public NMR spectral databases (SpinAssign program in the PRIMe web service, http://prime.psc.riken.jp; Human Metabolomics Database,

http://www.hmdb.ca; Biological Magnetic Resonance Data Bank, http://www.bmrb.wisc.edu).

2.3. SPME-GC/MS analysis

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Volatile compounds of sunki pickle were investigated using a GCMS-QP2010 Ultra instrument (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with an AOC-5000 autosampler (Shimadzu). A SUPELCO 50/30 µm divinylbenzene/carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane fiber (2 cm length; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used for SPME. Sunki pickle liquid (1 mL) was transferred to a 20-mL screwcap vial and kept at 4°C during waiting time prior to measurement. The vial was preheated in the heating unit of the autosampler at 50°C for 10 min, with agitation at 250 rpm. Headspace volatile compounds were first captured by exposing the SPME fiber for 20 min and then desorbed for 5 min in an injection port operated at 250°C in splitless mode. The injected compounds were separated on an Rtx-WAX capillary column (60 m × 0.25 mm I.D. × 0.25 µm film thickness; Restek, Bellefonte, PA, USA) with a carrier gas (helium) at a flow rate of 2 mL/min. The column temperature was isothermally held at 40°C for 5 min and then raised by 5°C/min to 180°C, followed by 10°C/min to 200°C, and held for 5 min. The MS analysis was operated in the electron ionization mode with the following parameters: ionization energy of 70 eV; ion source temperature of 230°C; interface temperature of 250°C; and, scan range of 33–350 m/z. The retention index was calibrated using the alkane standard solution C_6 – C_{20} . Peak annotation was performed by comparing the mass spectra and retention index with those in the NIST 02 MS library (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). When appropriate, the MassBank spectral database (http://www.massbank.jp) was also used.

2.4. Dataset preparation for non-targeted metabolomics

Non-targeted, NMR-based metabolomics was performed to characterize the *sunki* samples based on their water-soluble metabolite profiles. Prior to dataset preparation from the ¹H NMR spectra, it was confirmed that there were no crucial chemical shift fluctuations, which lead to significant impact on data interpretation. To prepare a dataset for multivariate analysis, processed ¹H NMR spectra were subdivided into 0.04 ppm width integral regions (buckets) in the 10.0-0.50 ppm spectral range. Twelve buckets containing the residual solvent signal, ranging from 5.16 to 4.68 ppm, were excluded from the analysis. To correct the difference in concentration between the pickle liquid samples, the buckets were normalized to the total intensity of the NMR spectrum of each sample. The generated dataset for NMR-based metabolomics comprised 226 buckets. For characterization of volatile metabolite profiles by GC/MS-based metabolomics, a dataset was prepared as described previously (Iijima, Iwasaki, Otagiri, Tsugawa, Sato, Otomo, et al., 2016). Briefly, GC/MS raw data were processed by GCMS solution software (Shimadzu) and converted into AIA files. Baseline correction and peak alignment were carried out using MetAlign software (Lommen, 2009) and the convergence of m/z ions for a single compound was performed using Aloutput software (Tsugawa, Bamba, Shinohara, Nishiumi, Yoshida, & Fukusaki, 2011). The variable derived from HOAc was excluded from the dataset since it showed saturated peaks in all samples. The generated dataset was comprised 357 peaks.

2.5. Statistical analysis

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To analyze the difference in metabolite profiles among the *sunki* samples, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed with the SIMCA software (ver. 14.0.0.1359; Umetrics, Umeå, Sweden). Class separations shown in the PCA score plot was statistically evaluated by Ward's hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) using the same

software. For characterization of the water-soluble metabolite profiles, a multistep PCA approach described previously (Nemoto, Ando, Kataoka, Arifuku, Kanazawa, Natori, et al., 2007; Tomita, et al., 2015) was employed to further characterize the samples by focusing on the differences in minor metabolites. The relationship between the metabolite profile and pH was investigated by partial least squares (PLS) regression and the generated model was evaluated by leave-one-out cross-validation. To reduce the large influence derived from dominant metabolites, Pareto scaling was applied to the datasets based on NMR and SPME-GC/MS analysis. Mean-centering was applied to pH values for PLS analysis. The SIMCA software automatically selected the optimum number of latent variables.

3. Results

3.1. Differences in pH and Na⁺ concentration and other features

The pH and Na⁺ concentration values of 28 *sunki* samples are listed in Table S1. The Na⁺ concentration was lower than 100 mg/L for all samples, reflecting the production process of *sunki* as a salt-free fermented pickle. The pickle liquids differed in pH value in the range of approximately 4.20–3.50, except for sample A1, which had the highest pH of 4.54. The pickle liquids had no significant off-flavor and different red color intensities, which originated from the red turnip pigment.

3.2. Analysis of water-soluble compounds

The 54 compounds annotated in this study by 1D and 2D NMR analyses are listed in Table 1. As the representative data of 2D NMR analysis, metabolite annotations of the $^{1}\text{H}-^{13}\text{C}$ heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectrum of sample A1 are depicted in Fig. S2. The 1D NMR spectra of representative samples are depicted in Fig.

1. As shown in Table 1, 3 sugars, 4 alditols, 3 alcohols, 19 amino acids, 10 organic acids, 9 amines, and 6 other compounds were detected as the components of *sunki* pickle. The levels of glucose (Glc), fructose (Fru), sucrose (Suc), and MalA, dominant carbohydrates and organic acids in turnip leaves, were below the detection limit in most samples. Major metabolites of LAB produced via lactic fermentation of carbohydrate, including LacA, HOAc, and EtOH (Ravyts, De Vuyst, & Leroy, 2012), were detected as dominant signals. The spectra of many samples also showed high-intensity succinic acid (SucA) and mannitol signals. The signals derived from amino acids and their degradation derivatives (amines and 2-hydroxy acids) were detected with lower intensity. The relative intensity of these signals and the peak pattern characteristics across the entire spectral region differed markedly depending on the sample. For instance, samples B3 and H1 showed a higher intensity of mannitol (3.90–3.60 ppm) signals and sample G1 exhibited a noticeably weaker intensity of the HOAc (1.91 ppm) signal.

3.3. Analysis of volatile compounds

Volatile compounds detected and annotated by SPME-GC/MS analysis are listed in Table 2. Of the 62 compounds annotated, there were 15 esters, 7 ketones, 4 aldehydes, 14 alcohols, 8 nitriles, 2 sulfides, 3 isothiocyanates (ITCs), and 9 acids. Total ion chromatograms with peak annotations of representative samples are depicted in Fig. 2. Among the compounds, the HOAc peak dominated and was detected as a saturated peak. Following HOAc, two nitriles of 4-cyano-1-butene and 5-cyano-1-pentene and two ITCs of 3-butenyl ITC and 4-pentenyl ITC exhibited intense signals. These four volatiles were dominant in most samples, although several samples, especially sample G1, showed markedly lower intensity peaks for the two ITCs (Fig. 2). Additionally, EtOH and ethyl acetate were detected as the secondary major peaks. Their intensities appeared to be

highly sample-dependent; the peaks were strongly detected in samples A1, B1, B3, and G1, but observed with low intensity in samples C4 and E2 (Fig. 2). Other compounds were observed as minor peaks on the chromatograms and the peak pattern varied among the samples.

3.4. NMR-based metabolomic characterization of sunki samples

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As a first step to characterize *sunki* samples based on the profile of water-soluble compounds, PCA was carried out using the dataset containing all 226 buckets generated from the ¹H NMR spectra. The score and loading plots are shown in Fig. 3a. The first and second principal components (PC1 and PC2) explained 41.0% and 25.2% of the total variance, respectively. In the score plot, the samples were divided by Ward's HCA into two classes as shown in Fig. 3a. The separation did not simply associate with the factory or production year and each class comprised samples from different factories and years. Specifically, the samples from factories A, B, D, and F were separated into these two classes in association with the production year, whereas those from factories C, G, and E belonged within the same class (Fig. 3a). The loading plot showed that PC1 was primarily explained by the variables containing signals derived from LacA, HOAc, SucA, EtOH, methanol, and mannitol. For the PC2 axis, the level of HOAc showed significant contribution and strongly characterized sample A1. Of these, it was statistically confirmed that the variables of LacA (1.30 and 1.34 ppm) and mannitol (3.78 and 3.86 ppm) were significantly different between the two classes (p < 0.01). This initial PCA revealed the sunki sample characteristics contributed by the dominant metabolites produced by LAB. Next, to observe the contribution of minor metabolites, multistep PCA was performed by excluding the variables containing signals of dominant metabolites highlighted above. Variables containing those of residual sugars (Glc and Fru) were also

successively excluded as they substantially characterized only samples C4 and C5. After excluding these 27 variables, the generated PCA model provided an altered feature space, as shown in Fig. 3b. PC1 and PC2 explained 34.9% and 20.4% of the total variance, respectively. In the score plot, PC1 particularly highlighted some samples produced in 2015 (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and F1), and the class separation of these samples were confirmed by HCA (Fig. 3b). The loading plot indicated that the separation of this class was primarily explained by the difference in signal intensities derived from alanine (Ala), branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs, including valine, leucine, and isoleucine), γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), putrescine (Put), and cadaverine (Cad). Furthermore, signal intensities of Ala, BCAAs, Put&Cad (1.46, 0.98, and 1.70, respectively) were statistically evaluated to be significantly greater in the highlighted class (p < 0.01). Besides, PC2 mainly explained the variety within the classes by the opposed contributions of GABA and glutamic acid (Glu).

3.5. GC/MS-based metabolomic characterization of sunki samples

Subsequently, the differences in the volatile compound profiles among *sunki* samples were investigated by PCA. The data from PCA and HCA showed a clear separation between the samples produced in 2015 and 2016 (Fig. 3c). The separation was along the PC1 axis (26.7% of the total variance). The class of samples produced in 2016 was mainly explained by the higher levels of ITCs (3-butenyl ITC and 4-pentenyl ITC), whereas the class of the samples in 2015 was explained by greater intensities of ethyl esters (ethyl acetate and ethyl lactate). The significant differences in the intensities of 3-butenyl ITC and ethyl acetate were statistically evaluated (p < 0.01). It was also observed that the intensity of 4-pentenyl ITC differed between the separated classes (p = 0.07). The EtOH level, which substantially explained PC2 (13.8% of the total variance) in

cooperation with EtOAc, contributed to the variety within the classes rather than the separation by the production year (Fig. 3c). The PCA data indicated that the difference in the volatile compound profile of *sunki* was primarily associated with the production year. Subsequently, to compare the compositional differences within the same production year, successive characterization was performed by PCA (Fig. S3). The PCA data showed that ITCs, ethyl esters, and EtOH also contributed to the compositional variety among the samples of the same production year. In addition, contributions of other volatiles were observed, e.g., nitriles (benzenepropanenitrile, 4-cyano-1-butene, and 5-cyano-1-pentene), 3-hexene-1-ol, and 3-hexenyl acetate.

3.6. Multivariate analysis for correlation between pH value and metabolite profile

PLS regression was carried out to investigate the correlation between pH and water-soluble metabolite profile of the liquid samples. The generated PLS model comprised two latent variables (first and second PLS components), which explained 27.5% and 37.3% of the total variance, respectively. The cumulative determination coefficient (R^2) and cumulative cross-validation determination coefficient (Q^2) were 0.937 and 0.866, respectively. The variance importance for projection (VIP) scores showed that HOAc was the most important factor for the PLS model and contributed to a substantial extent compared to other dominant metabolites, including LacA, EtOH, mannitol, and SucA (Fig. 4a). Intriguingly, the integral of HOAc exhibited a high positive correlation with pH, providing an R value of 0.810, whereas those of LacA and EtOH indicated negative correlations with pH, with R values of -0.533 and -0.547, respectively (Fig. 4b). For the volatile flavor compound profiles, a PLS model comprising three components was obtained, which afforded cumulative R^2 and Q^2 values of 0.983 and 0.878, respectively. The first two components explained 27.4% and 14.5% of the total variance, respectively.

Among the volatile compounds, EtOH and ethyl acetate had the highest VIP scores of 7.9 and 6.9, respectively. The signal intensities of these compounds exhibited significant negative correlations with pH (p < 0.05), providing R values of -0.601 and -0.767, respectively.

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4. Discussion

The present study determined the chemical composition of sunki and provided an overview of its compositional variety across eight factories and two years. For watersoluble compounds, the presences of LacA, HOAc, MalA, and amino acids are in agreement with previous reports on the chemical composition of sunki (Itabashi, 1982; Itabashi, et al., 1990). LacA, the most dominant metabolite in all pickle liquids, is a major product of LAB through lactic fermentation of carbohydrates. It is suggested that EtOH and HOAc in sunki are also produced by LAB via heterolactic fermentation pathway, which catabolizes Glc not only to LacA but also to CO₂, EtOH, and HOAc (Ravyts, et al., 2012). In contrast, homo-fermentative LAB produce two moles of LacA from one mole of Glc. The dominant carbohydrates of turnip leaves (Glc, Fru, and Suc) were undetectable in most samples, indicating the complete consumption of these compounds during the fermentation of sunki. Therefore, as with other lactic-fermented pickles of Brassica vegetables such as sauerkraut, suan-cai, and gundruk (Plengvidhya, Breidt, Lu, & Fleming, 2007; Tamang & Tamang, 2010; Yang, Zou, Qu, Zhang, Liu, Wu, et al., 2014), substantial accumulation of LacA by LAB appears to be essential for *sunki* production. MalA (followed by citric acid) is a dominant organic acid in the leaves of endemic turnip varieties used for *sunki* production in the Kiso district (Fig. S4). The fact that MalA was also undetectable in most samples indicates its active consumption during in sunki production. Amino acids in *sunki* would largely be derived from turnip leaves, since LAB species, in general, are auxotrophic for multiple amino acids (Wegkamp, Teusink, De Vos, & Smid, 2010). Proteolytic activity of LAB during fermentation could also be a cause of the presence of amino acids.

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Moreover, in addition to these known components of sunki, the following metabolites were annotated in the present study. SucA was detected in most samples and it would be mainly produced by fermentation, as SucA production by LAB and its promoting effect by the presences of MalA and citric acid have been reported (Kaneuchi, Seki, & Komagata, 1988). Mannitol is known to be a compound directly converted from Fru by mannitol dehydrogenase of LAB (Wisselink, Weusthuis, Eggink, Hugenholtz, & Grobben, 2002). Amines and 2-hydroxy acids were annotated as minor components of sunki. These compounds have been detected in lactic-fermented pickles (Kalač, Špička, KříŽek, & Pelikánová, 2000; Wu, Zheng, Huang, & Zhou, 2014), and reported as amino acid degradation products resulting from decarboxylation and transamination (Shalaby, 1996; Smid & Kleerebezem, 2014). Acetoin and 2,3-butanediol were annotated in several samples and these are generally produced from pyruvic acid via 2,3-butanedione. Ascorbic acid and methiin (also known as S-methylcysteine sulfoxide) were probably derived from the plant material since the former is present in abundance in the turnip leaf (National Nutrient Database: https://ndb.nal.usda.gov/ndb/) and the latter is a well-known sulfur compound of *Brassica* vegetables.

Regarding the composition of volatile flavor compounds, many of the annotated peaks appear to originate from the turnip leaf rather than by microbial action during fermentation. ITCs and nitriles are known to be unique volatiles, which characterize the flavor of *Brassica* vegetables and are produced through the degradation of glucosinolates

by the catalytic activity of myrosinase (Rask, Andreasson, Ekbom, Eriksson, Pontoppidan, & Meijer, 2000). Of the four dominant volatiles detected in all samples in this study, it was suggested that 3-butenyl ITC and 4-cyano-1-butene were derived from gluconapin, and 4-pentenyl ITC and 5-cyano-1-pentene were derived from glucobrassicanapin. These assignments are in good agreement with the data from a previous study that described gluconapin and glucobrassicanapin as dominant glucosinolates in the turnip leaf grown in Japan (Osada & Aoyagi, 2014). Itabashi et al. have performed GC/MS analysis of three sunki samples to determine their volatile composition (Itabashi, et al., 1990). They detected four intense peaks and estimated three of them as corresponding to ITCs and nitriles. The four dominant ITCs and nitriles annotated in the present study suggest to correspond to the four intense peaks in the previous study. Compared to previous reports, it was found that sunki differed from other fermented pickles (sauerkraut and suan-cai) in terms of the ITC and nitrile profiles (Palani, Harbaum-Piayda, Meske, Keppler, Bockelmann, Heller, et al., 2016; Wu, Yu, Liu, Meng, Wang, Xue, et al., 2015). This probably indicates that ITC and nitrile profiles reflect the native composition of glucosinolates in Brassica crops utilized for producing each pickle. In contrast with the composition of the dominant glucosinolate-derived compounds, the composition of the volatiles resulting from microbial action were basically similar between *sunki* and those of other fermented pickles. EtOH, HOAc, formic acid, acetoin, 2,3-butanedione, ethyl acetate, and fatty acids are representative compounds in lactate-fermented foods.

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Non-targeted metabolomic characterization revealed the differences in the metabolite profiles of the *sunki* samples. For characterization of the water-soluble metabolite profiles, compounds primarily contributing to PC1 (LacA, EtOH, HOAc, and mannitol) were correlated with the main products of homo- and hetero-lactic fermentative

pathways. Although mannitol is not a component of lactate fermentation, Wisselink et al. have described that hetero-fermentative LAB produce mannitol in large amounts to maintain the intracellular redox balance (Wisselink, et al., 2002). Endo et al. have reported that homo-fermentative *L. plantarum* and *L. delbrueckii* and hetero-fermentative *L. fermentum* were dominant during *sunki* fermentation (Endo, Mizuno, & Okada, 2008). Therefore, the PCA data shown in Fig. 3a might indicate that the separation along the PC1 axis reflects the variation in the dominance of these lactobacilli during fermentation. Similarly, the year-to-year separation for the samples from factories A, B, D, and F suggests the possibility that bacterial community contributing to *sunki* fermentation and the resulting food composition vary even in the same processing factory, depending on the production year.

HOAc is a product of heterolactic fermentation as described above. However, its signal level was not associated with that of other hetero-fermentative products (EtOH and mannitol). HOAc is rather substantially responsible for PC2, while showing inverted contributions against LacA and EtOH, resulting in the secondary separation of samples along the PC2 axis. This observation regarding HOAc has not been reported in previous studies on *sunki* or, to the best of our knowledge, on spontaneous lactate-fermented pickles including *sauerkraut*, *suan-cai*, and *gundruk*. Although metabolism leading to HOAc accumulation remains unclear from the data obtained in this study, it is notable that the HOAc signal intensity showed a higher correlation with pH than that of LacA, which is supposed to be the primal factor responsible for a decrease in pH (Fig. 4b). It is also intriguing that the HOAc content was positively correlated with pH, in contrast to the LacA and EtOH levels that showed negative correlations with pH. A sufficient decrease in pH is the most important marker for the quality of *sunki*, and is essential for

assessing fermentation progress. Nevertheless, excessive acidification is not desirable, as it creates a strong sour taste. Clarification of the mechanism of HOAc accumulation and the impact on pH in terms of microbial and metabolic aspects would help prevent poor/excessive acidification in the production of *sunki* and other lactic-fermented pickles.

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A multistep PCA approach excluding the dominant water-soluble compounds principally highlighted the differences among the samples associated with factories and production years (Fig. 3b), but not with the class separation between homo- and heterofermentative types shown in the first PCA (Fig. 3a). The differences observed in the multistep PCA appeared to be the result of variation in the microbial metabolic activity, since many of the compounds responsible for PC1 and PC2 are decarboxylation and transamination products of amino acids. The highlighted compounds, Ala, Put, Cad, and GABA, are converted from aspartic acid, ornithine, lysine, and Glu, respectively, by the catalytic action of amino acid decarboxylases of LABs (Kalač, et al., 2000). The opposed contributions of Glu and GABA shown in the loading plot of Fig. 3b probably reflected the relationship of their interconversion. Hence, it can be estimated that Glu decarboxylase-active LABs were dominant in the fermentation of the *sunki* samples characterized by the greater GABA level. BCAAs and Glu were suggested to originate from the turnip leaf, as well as being possibly accumulated by the proteolytic activity of LAB. Amino acids and their degradation products can impact the fermented food quality, such as sensory properties (e.g., umami taste of Glu and aroma of phenyllactic acid), and beneficial effects associated with GABA. With regard to food safety, biogenic amines should be maintained at low levels (Kalač, et al., 2000); the levels of tyramine and histamine detected in several *sunki* samples were estimated to be lower than 17.0 and 11.3 mg/L, respectively, by relative signal integrals to internal standard. These potential

metabolites detected in *sunki* and their metabolism by LAB could be utilized for improving and controlling the product quality.

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In terms of the volatile compounds of *sunki*, an evident separation between the samples produced in 2015 and 2016 was observed. Successive PCA within the same production year also revealed differences among the factories. These results suggest that the volatile compound profile of sunki differs depending on the production year and factory, based on the main contributions of different levels of ITCs, ethyl esters, nitriles, 3-hexene-1-al, and 3-hexenyl acetate. With respect to glucosinolate-derived ITCs and nitriles, in the salted pickle production of Brassica vegetables in Japan, it has been reported that the levels of these compounds depend on various processing conditions such as the initial glucosinolate profile of plant material, blanching and residual myrosinase activity, pH change during pickling, and the presence of antioxidative constituents (Kato, Imayoshi, Iwabuchi, & Shimomura, 2011; Uda, Yabe, Sueki, Suzuki, & Maeda, 1991). These factors possibly also have an impact on the ITC and nitrile levels of *sunki*. Besides, as the bacterial myrosinase activity has been reported in Lactobacillus agilis (Palop, Smiths, & Tenbrink, 1995), variety in the bacterial community could affect the ITC and nitrile formation during sunki fermentation. With respect to the fermentation-derived compounds, EtOH, ethyl acetate, and ethyl lactate were highlighted by GC/MS-based PCA. These two esters provide a fruity aroma and have been detected as dominant esters in suan-cai (Wu, et al., 2015). The distinct level of ethyl lactate might relate to the initial MalA content of the turnip leaf as Pozo-Bayon et al. described that their relationship in malolactic fermentation of wine (Pozo-Bayon, Alegria, Polo, Tenorio, Martin-Alvarez, De La Banda, et al., 2005). In addition, the distinct levels of the following compounds highlighted by PCA might impact the aromatic character of sunki. 3-Hexene-1-ol (also

known as leaf alcohol) and its acetic ester of 3-hexenyl acetate are well known to be responsible for the fresh, green grass-like odor of vegetables. Benzenepropanenitrile is also an odor compound derived from the degradation of gluconasturtiin, which is a glucosinolate known to be present in the turnip leaf (Osada, et al., 2014). Although fatty acids, which are typical off-flavor volatiles produced by the degradation of lipids during fermentation, were detected as minor peaks, they did not contribute significantly to the characteristics among the samples, in agreement with the observation that no significant off-flavor was recognized in all samples.

We showed that the chemical composition of *sunki* varied among the samples depending on the factory and production year, and correlated with the pH values. Differences in the bacterial community during *sunki* fermentation and initial composition of raw materials are most likely to have a direct impact on the metabolite profile and the resulting sensory qualities and potential health promoting effects. Further studies focusing on the triangular relationship between metabolite profile–microbiota–sensory qualities will facilitate the development of starter cultures or fermentation-controlling technology of *sunki*, leading to an improved overall quality of fermented pickles made from various vegetables.

5. Acknowledgements

We thank Mr. Kiyotsugu Shimizu (Kiso Town) and managers of the agricultural processing factories in Kiso district for kindly providing *sunki* samples. NMR analyses were carried out with the technical support of the Advanced Analysis Center at National Agriculture and Food Research Organization (Tsukuba, Japan).

6. Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

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7. References

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Figure Captions

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Fig. 1. Representative ¹H NMR spectra and metabolite annotations of sunki pickle. 599 Spectra of the samples A1, A4, B3, G1, and H1 are displayed in the different spectral 600 ranges: 8.50-5.00 ppm (top), 4.80-0.80 ppm (middle), enlarged view of 4.80-0.80 ppm 601 (bottom). Signal intensity was normalized by the signal of internal standard (DSS) at 0.00 602 ppm and adjusted for each range displayed. Numerical labels indicate the signals of 603 annotated metabolites listed in Table 1. The label U represents the signal of unannotated 604 605 metabolites. Fig. 2. Representative GC/MS chromatograms and metabolite annotations of sunki 606 pickle. Raw total ion chromatograms (top) of the samples A1, B1, B3, C4, E2, and G1, 607 608 and their enlarged views (bottom) are depicted. Numerical labels indicate the peaks of annotated metabolites listed in Table 2. Asterisk represents the peaks observed in blank 609 610 measurements. Fig. 3. Non-targeted metabolomic characterization of *sunki* samples by PCA. PC1-611 PC2 planes of score (left) and loading (right) plots obtained from (a) NMR-based PCA, 612 (b) NMR-based multistep PCA, and (c) GC/MS-based PCA. In the score plots, the 613 samples are represented by different symbols and colors as shown in the legend. Broken 614 615 line represents class separation indicated by HCA. In the loading plots, numerical labels 616 represent chemical shift (ppm) for panels a and b, and retention time (min) for panel c. The representative variables are also labeled with metabolite names. Abbreviations: LacA, 617 lactic acid; HOAc, acetic acid; SucA, succinic acid; MeOH, methanol; EtOH, ethanol; 618 619 Ala, alanine; BCAAs, blanched chain amino acids; Phe, phenylalanine; PLA, phenyllactic acid; Tyr, tyrosine; Tym, tyramine; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid; Glu, glutamic acid; Gln, 620 glutamine; Glp, pyroglutamic acid, EtOAc, ethyl acetate; ITC, isothiocyanate. 621

Fig. 4. Results of correlation analysis between metabolite profile and pH value. (a) 622 VIP scores obtained by NMR-based PLS regression. (b) Correlation of pH value with 623 624 selected raw integral values relative to internal standard (DSS). 625 **Supplementary Material Descriptions** 626 Table S1. List of sunki samples used in this study. 627 Fig. S1. Compatibility of ¹H NMR spectra between the samples of liquid part and 628 629 lyophilized leaves of sunki. Overlapping spectra of the extract from lyophilized sunki (blue) over that from liquid part (red) are displayed. The spectral range 4.50–0.80 ppm 630 (top) and the same range with enlarged intensity (bottom) are shown. 631 632 Fig. S2. Representative HSQC spectrum of pickle liquid. The spectrum was measured on an 800 MHz NMR instrument. Two divided spectral ranges are depicted in panels a 633 and b. Numerical labels indicate the signals of annotated metabolites listed in Table 1. 634 635 The label U represents the signal of unannotated metabolites. Fig. S3. GC/MS-based PCA of sunki samples collected in 2015 and 2016. The PC1-636 PC2 planes of score (left) and loading (right) plots are displayed. In the score plots, the 637 symbols are color-coded according to the agricultural processing factory and the samples 638 collected in 2015 and 2016 are represented as filled circles and open boxes, respectively. 639 640 In the loading plots, numerical labels represent retention time (min). The representative variables are also labeled with metabolite names. Metabolite abbreviations: EtOH, 641 ethanol; EtOAc, ethyl acetate; ITC, isothiocyanate. 642 643 Fig. S4. ¹H NMR spectrum of the extract from lyophilized turnip leaf. The spectral range 5.70-0.80 ppm is shown. Metabolite extraction and spectral measurement were 644

- performed as described in Materials and Methods. The lyophilized leaf powder was
- prepared from a local turnip variety *Kaida-kabu* harvested in Kiso district in 2015.

Table 1. Water-soluble compounds of sunki annotated by NMR analysis

#	Compound	#	Compound	#	Compound	
	Aldoses, alditols		Amino acids		Organic acids	
1	Glucose	11	Alanine	30	Lactic acid	
2	Fructose	12	Asparagine	31	Acetic acid	
3	Sucrose	13	Aspartic acid	32	Succinic acid	
4	Glycerol	14	Glutamine	33	Formic acid	
5	Mannitol	15	Glutamic acid	34	Propionic acid	
6	myo-Inositol	16	Pyroglutamic acid	35	Phenyllactic acid	
7	Erythritol	17	Glycine	36	4-Hydroxyphenyllactic acid	
		18	Histidine	37	2-Hydroxyisovaleric acid	
	Alcohols	19	Isoleucine	38	2-Hydroxyisocapric acid	
8	Methanol	20	Leucine	39	Suberic acid/Pimelic acid*	
9	Ethanol	21	Methionine			
10	2,3-Butanediol	22	Ornithine		Amines	
		23	Phenylalanine	40	Ethanolamine	
	Others	24	Proline	41	α-Aminobutyric acid	
49	Acetoin	25	Serine	42	γ-Aminobutyric acid	
50	Ascorbic acid	26	Threonine	43	Putrescine	
51	Choline	27	Tryptophane	44	Cadaverine	
52	Adenine	28	Tyrosine	45	Tyramine	
53	Uracil	29	Valine	46	Tryptamine	
54	Methiin			47	Histamine	
				48	Phenethylamine	

The compound numbers are corresponding to numerical labels for NMR spectra shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. S2.

^{*}Not discriminated in this study.

Table 2. Peaks of volatile compounds of sunki annotated by SPME-GC/MS analysis

Result of MS similarity search					
Peak #	Sample	RT (min)	SI^*	Annotation	
Esters					
1	A1	5.452	92	Ethyl acetate	
7	A1	7.636	97	1-Propyl acetate	
11	A4	9.830	97	Methyl thiolacetate	
13	C1	10.637	97	Butyl acetate	
16	A1	12.192	97	Isopentyl acetate	
18	В3	14.070	96	Ethyl 4-pentenoate	
22	A1	15.519	98	4-Penten-1-ol acetate	
23	A 1	15.629	97	2-Penten-1-ol acetate	
24	В3	15.791	92	Methyl 5-hexenoate	
26	A1	16.555	93	3,3-Dimethylallyl acetate	
31	A 1	18.506	96	3-Hexenyl acetate	
33	G1	19.201	98	Ethyl lactate	
51	A3	26.718	95	Methyl benzoate	
54	A1	29.900	95	Geranyl acetate	
55	A1	31.226	98	Phenethyl acetate	
Ketones					
2	B1	5.674	98	2-Butanone	
8	C3	7.660	95	2,3-Butanedione	
19	E2	14.238	98	2-Heptanone	
20	D3	14.508	96	2-Methylcyclopentanone	
29	B1	17.478	97	Acetoin	
38	E2	20.594	96	2-Nonanone	
49	A3	26.043	97	Isophorone	
Aldehyd	les				
3	F2	5.971	96	2-Methylbutanal	
4	F2	6.076	96	3-Methylbutanal	
46	A4	24.165	97	Benzaldehyde	
52	F2	27.315	98	4-Methylbenzaldehyde	
Alcohols	S				
5	E1	6.395	98	Isopropyl alcohol	

6	A1	6.549	97	Ethanol	
10	A1	9.164	98	2-Butanol	
14	G1	11.640	96	Isobutyl alcohol	
15	A1	12.104	98	3-Pentanol	
17	A1	13.663	98	1-Penten-3-ol	
21	G1	15.168	95	Isopentyl alcohol	
25	B1	16.496	92	1-Pentanol	
30	A1	18.024	95	4-Penten-1-ol	
32	A1	18.593	93	2-Heptanol	
37	A1	20.490	95	3-Hexen-1-ol	
39	F2	21.113	97	2-Hexen-1-ol	
41	C4	22.233	97	1-Octen-3-ol	
58	A1	33.662	91	Phenethyl alcohol	
Nitriles					
9	A1	8.333	98	Methyl isocyanide	
28	A1	17.049	0.85**	4-Cyano-1-butene	
34	A1	19.351	96	5-Cyano-1-pentene	
35	A1	19.649	94	5-Methylhexanenitrile	
43	A1	22.750	94	6-Cyano-1-hexene	
44	B5	22.923	94	Octanenitrile	
57	H1	33.652	80	5-(Methylsulfanyl)pentanenitri	
61	A1	35.618	97	Benzenepropanenitrile	
Sulfides					
12	E2	10.558	95	Dimethyl disulfide	
36	A4	20.330	96	Dimethyl trisulfide	
TEC					
ITCs	D.5	16.010	00	Deved ITC	
27	B5	16.810	89	Butyl ITC	
42	A1	22.406	86	3-Butenyl ITC	
48	A1	24.641	0.86**	4-Pentenyl ITC	
Acids					
40	A1	21.783	93	Acetic acid	
45	В3	23.392	94	Formic acid	
47	B1	24.328	98	Propanoic acid	
50	B1	26.600	96	Butanoic acid	
		_0.000	, 5		

53	A1	27.665	97	2-Methylbutanoic acid	
56	В3	31.634	98	Hexanoic acid	
59	В3	33.855	92	2-Ethylhexanoic acid	
60	В3	33.863	94	Heptanoic acid	
62	A1	35.811	97	Octanoic acid	

The peak numbers are corresponding to numerical labels for SPME-GC/MS chromatogram shown in Fig. 2.

^{*}Similarity index calculated by the Shimadzu GCMS solution software.

^{**}Similarity score calculated by MassBank spectrum search.

Table S1. List of sunki samples used in this study.

Factory	Sample ID	Year of production	рН	Na+ (mg/L)
A	A1	2015	4.54	69
	A2	2015	4.05	73
	A 3	2016	3.65	52
	A4	2016	3.63	51
В	B1	2015	4.18	47
	B2	2015	4.24	42
	B3	2016	3.72	46
	B4	2016	3.61	52
	B5	2016	3.65	51
\mathbf{C}	C1	2015	4.06	29
	C2	2015	3.93	40
	C3	2015	3.80	41
	C4	2016	3.88	41
	C5	2016	3.87	41
D	D1	2015	3.73	30
	D2	2016	3.88	34
	D3	2016	3.92	45
${f E}$	E1	2015	4.06	27
	E2	2016	4.21	41
	E3	2016	4.11	42
${f F}$	F1	2015	3.93	96
	F2	2016	3.93	70
	F3	2016	3.91	71
G	G1	2015	3.76	22
	G2	2016	3.52	23
	G3	2016	3.58	24
	G4	2016	3.54	24
Н	H1	2015	4.15	70

Fig.1

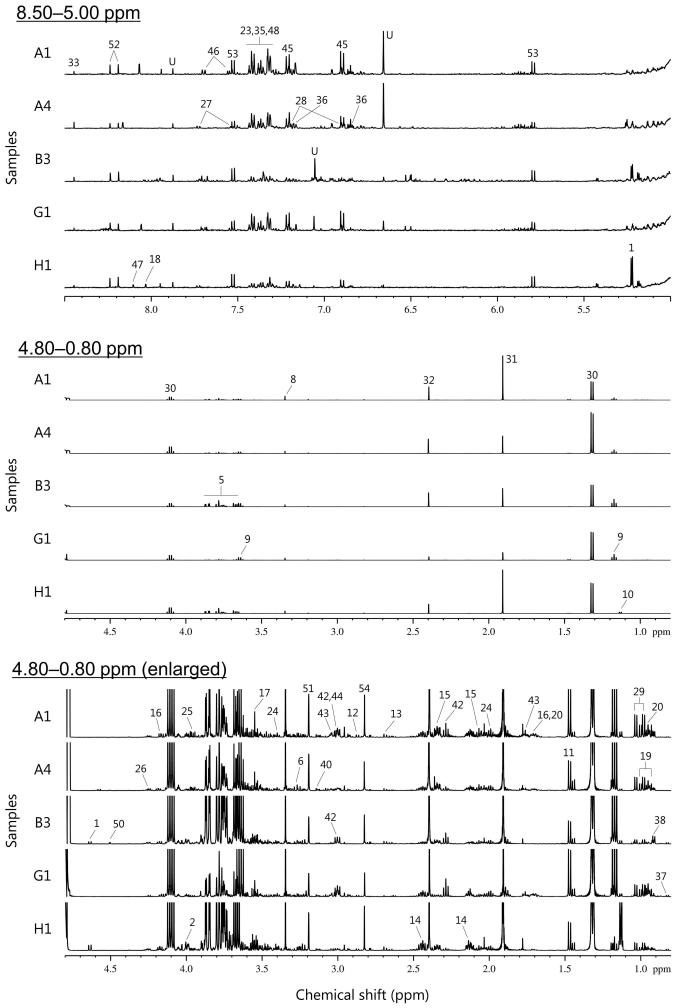


Fig. 2

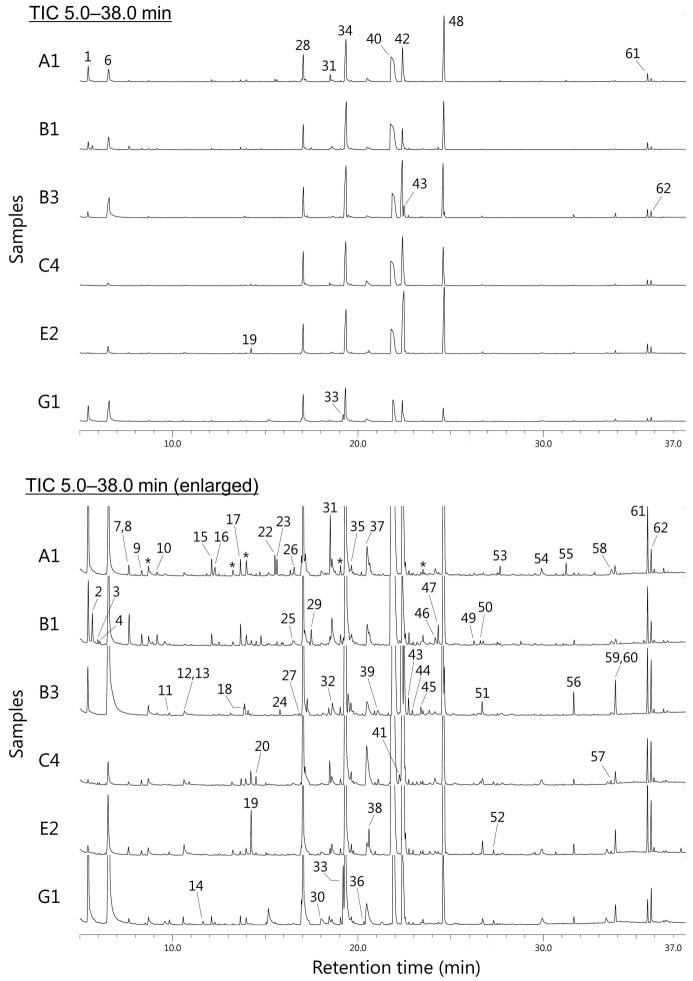


Fig. 3

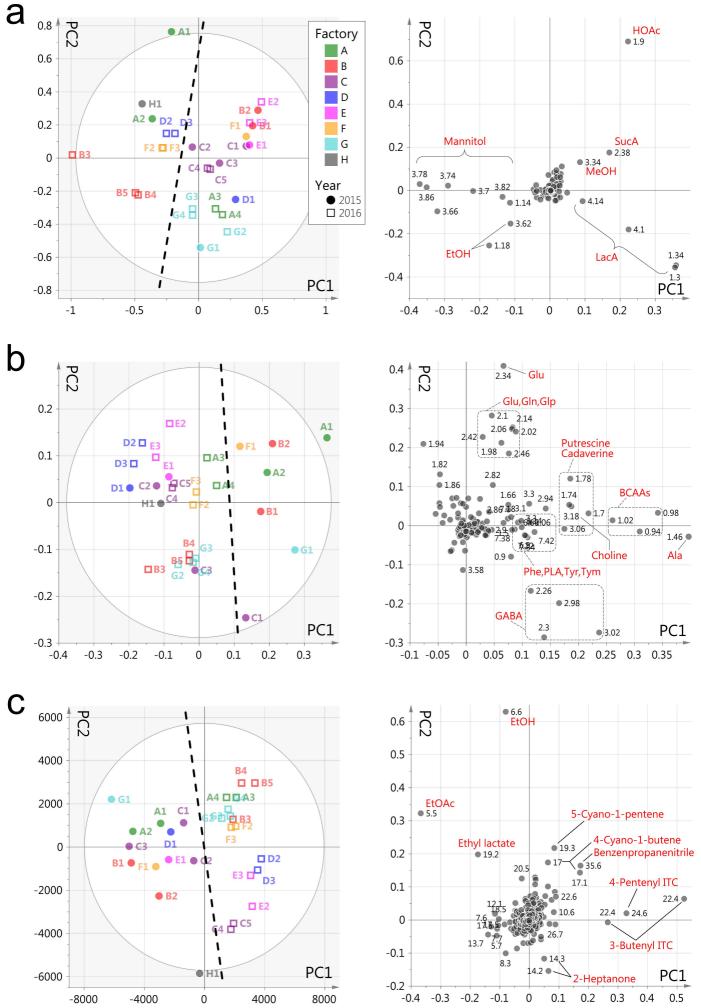
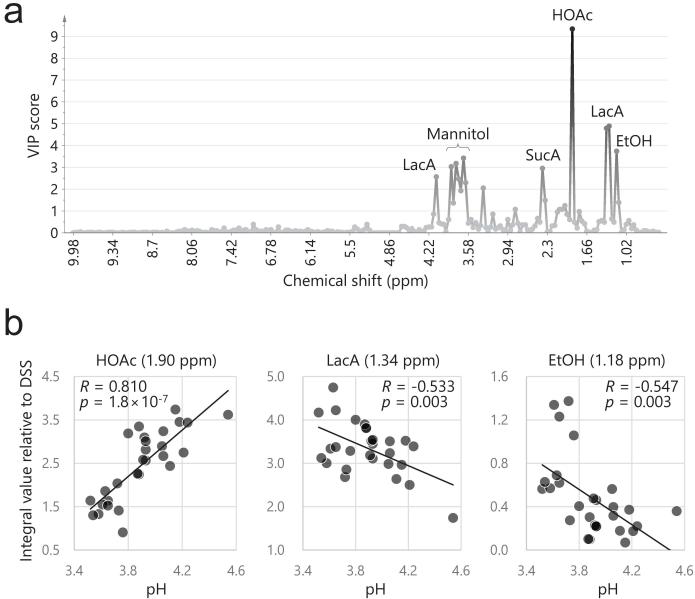
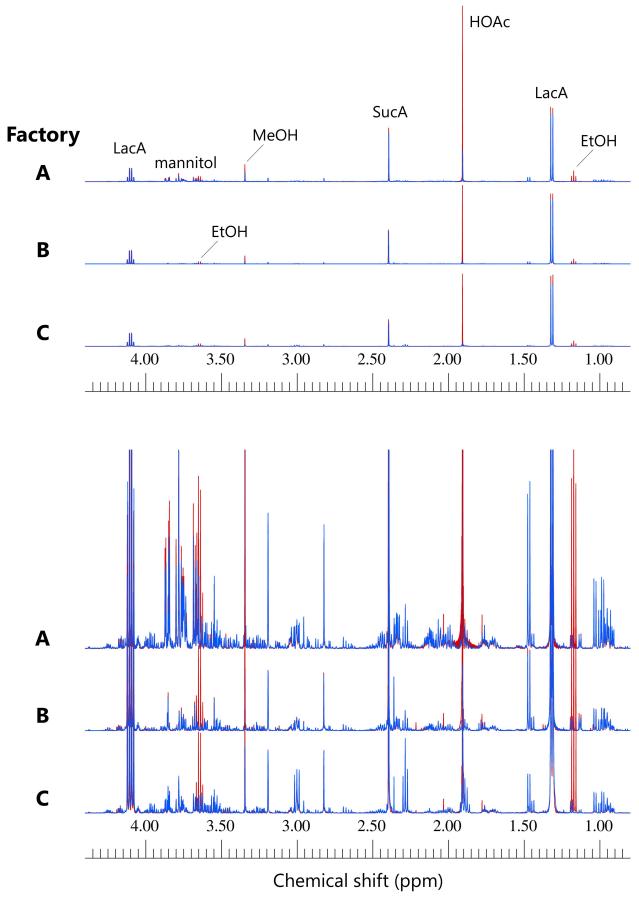
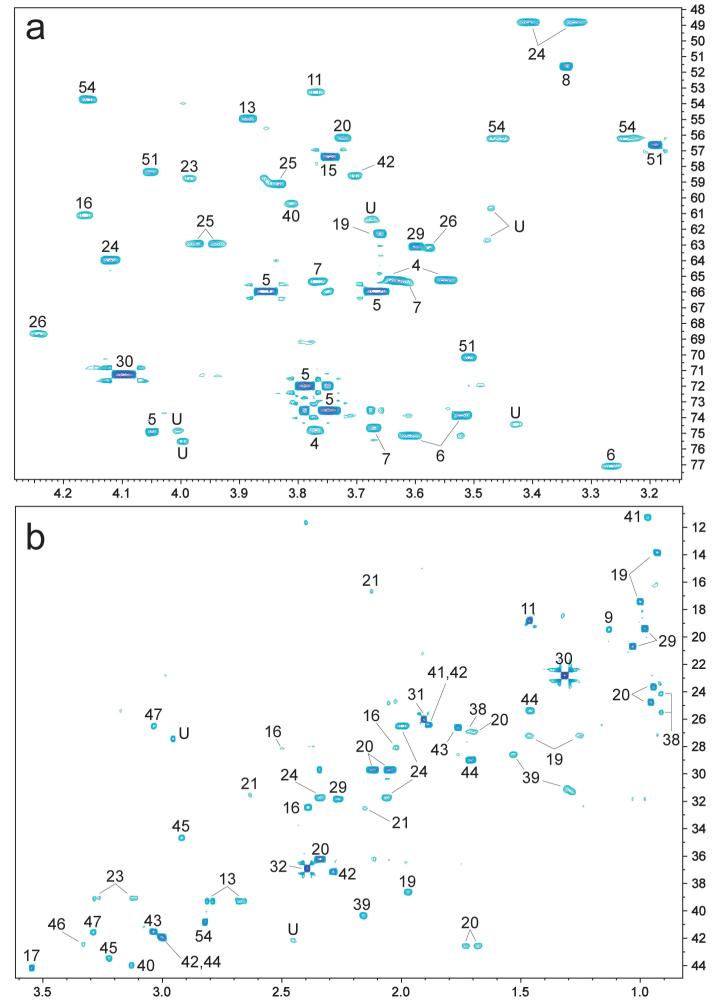


Fig. 4







GC/MS-based PCA for the samples in 2016 Score plot

