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1 **Impact of turning, pod storage and fermentation time on microbial ecology and volatile**  
2 **composition of cocoa beans.**

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18 **Key words:** cocoa beans fermentation, microbial communities, volatile compounds, SPME-  
19 GC-MS, PCR-DGGE.

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23 **Abstract**

24 Cocoa quality depends on several parameters, such as cocoa variety, environmental growth  
25 conditions, cultivation technique, and post-harvest treatments applied to cocoa beans. In this  
26 work, we studied the impact of cocoa post-harvest processing on both microbial communities  
27 structure and volatile composition. Cocoa beans samples were fermented in wooden boxes in  
28 Ivory Coast at different time intervals with turning and without turning, and derived from  
29 pods stored for two different duration times. Cocoa beans were analyzed using a molecular  
30 fingerprinting method (PCR-DGGE) in order to detect variations in microbial communities'  
31 structure; this global analysis was coupled to SPME-GC-MS for assessing cocoa **volatile**  
32 **profiles**. The results showed that the main parameter that influenced microbial communities  
33 structure was fermentation time, followed by turning, whereas, pods storage duration had a  
34 minor impact. Similar results were obtained for aromatic profile, except for pods storage  
35 duration that significantly affected volatile compound production. Global statistical analysis  
36 using Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA), showed the relationship between microbial  
37 communities and volatile composition. Furthermore, this study allowed the identification of  
38 discriminating microbial and chemical markers of cocoa post-harvest processing.

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46 **1. Introduction**

47 Cocoa is ranked among the most traded agricultural products in the world. Cocoa beans  
48 production is estimated to 4,552,000 tons in 2016/2017; 73% of which is produced by Africa,  
49 mainly by Ivory Coast, which is the cocoa first producer, followed by Ghana, Cameroon and  
50 Nigeria (ICCO, 2017).

51 Cocoa has an intrinsic quality potential that depends on several parameters, such as cocoa  
52 variety, age of the cocoa tree, soil chemical composition, post-harvest treatments, and  
53 industrial process (Kongor et al., 2016). In particular, postharvest processing applied on beans  
54 can enhance or degrade the sanitary and/or organoleptic qualities of cocoa (Saltini et al.,  
55 2013). The transformation of cocoa goes through three main stages (pods opening,  
56 fermentation, and drying). The crucial step is fermentation, which is a spontaneous process  
57 involving microbial flora succession responsible for aroma precursor's production inside the  
58 beans through biochemical reactions. Fermentation lasts usually between 5 to 7 days. Yeasts  
59 are the first type of microorganism involved followed by Lactic Acid Bacteria (LAB), and  
60 then Acetic Acid Bacteria (AAB) (Schwan and Wheals, 2004). Several recent studies tried to  
61 understand the role of these microorganism groups in cocoa fermentation and to control this  
62 phenomenon by inoculating selected strains previously isolated from cocoa (Lefeber et al.,  
63 2012, Crafacck et al., 2013). The major results of these works showed that yeast strains have a  
64 greater impact on the improvement of cocoa aromatic quality when compared to bacterial  
65 strains (Crafack et al., 2013; 2014; Ho et al., 2014; Koné et al., 2016; Hamdouche et al.,  
66 2017).

67 Several studies on the impact of postharvest treatments on cocoa beans composition showed  
68 that fermentation types (Papalexandratou et al., 2011; Visintin et al., 2016) and times  
69 (Hamdouche et al., 2015) significantly affected the microbiota associated with cocoa beans,



70 while pods storage (pulp preconditioning) and turning affected chemical composition and  
71 physical appearance of cocoa (Nazaruddin et al., 2006; Guehi et al., 2010).

72 Aroma profile significantly contributes to cocoa quality and thus is crucial for the  
73 acceptability of chocolate. This profile varied mainly with fermentation and drying time  
74 (Rodriguez-Campos et al., 2011; 2012). Aroma precursors previously formed during  
75 fermentation and drying steps were highly developed during roasting. Roasting reduces  
76 acidity by volatile acids evaporation and removes bitter, acidic and astringent flavors (Beckett  
77 2000, Ramli et al., 2006). Maillard reactions generate a valuable source of aromatic  
78 compounds as pyrazines, pyrroles, furans and thiazoles (Belitz et al., 2009). The 2-  
79 methylpyrazine and 2, 3, 5, 6 tetramethylpyrazine are the main volatile compounds present in  
80 roasted cocoa. Both are responsible for the sweet and strong cocoa flavor respectively  
81 (Lefeber et al., 2012).

82 The most used techniques for volatile compounds extraction are distillation, direct solvent  
83 extraction, solid phase extraction (SPE), headspace methods and solid phase micro-extraction  
84 (SPME). After concentration, gas chromatography is the most suitable analytical method.  
85 This technique allows the separation of a very large number of compounds on a fused silica  
86 capillary column. Different detection methods coupled with gas chromatography allow  
87 volatile compounds detection and identification: flame ionization, flame photometry, atomic  
88 emission, and mass spectrometry. SPME-GC-MS for the headspace analysis of volatile  
89 compounds allowed sensitive and representative analysis of cocoa products with high  
90 reproducibility (Ducki et al., 2008).

91 A recent work revealed that cocoa aroma compounds composition varied according to cocoa  
92 variety (Menezes et al., 2016), but no study showed the impact of pod storage and turning on  
93 microbial ecology and the associated impact on aroma profiles. The main aims of this original  
94 study were: (i) to measure the impact of the variation of three parameters (pod storage,

95 fermentation time and turning) during cocoa post-harvest processing on microbial and volatile  
96 profiles; (ii) to identify discriminating microbial and/or aroma markers of each process; (iii) to  
97 establish relationship between microbial communities associated with cocoa beans and  
98 volatile compounds produced.

## 99 **2. Material and Methods**

### 100 **2. 1. Cocoa beans sampling**

101 Four hundred cocoa pods were harvested in November 2014 in Akoupé (Ivory Coast). The  
102 number of harvested pods was divided in two batches (200 pods each), the first batch was  
103 stored during 2 days and the other one during 8 days. After storage, all pods were opened  
104 using a machete. For each pods opening delay, approximately 30 kg of pulp-bean mass were  
105 extracted manually, recovered and distributed in two wooden boxes for fermentation during 7  
106 days. Two types of processing were applied on these cocoa beans: fermentation with and  
107 without turning. The turning was done at 2 and 4 fermentation days, this choice was made  
108 following the artisanal practices applied. One kilogram of cocoa beans was collected at 2, 4,  
109 5, 6 and 7 days of fermentation and sun dried during 7 days on wooden drying racks. During  
110 drying step, no turning was done. The sampling was performed in sterile conditions by using  
111 sterile gloves and plastic bags. Samples were sent by plane to Cirad laboratory, Montpellier,  
112 France and stored at room temperature. The microbial and chemical analyses were carried out  
113 immediately.

### 114 **2. 2. Microbial ecology analysis**

#### 115 **2. 2. 1. Microbial DNA extraction**

116 Microbial DNA was extracted from 10 g of fermented and dried cocoa beans. Two technical  
117 repetitions were assessed for each sample. The extraction was performed according to the  
118 method described previously by Hamdouche et al. (2015). The quantity and purity of

119 extracted DNA were measured by a UV spectrophotometer (Biospec-Nano), and by  
120 electrophoresis through a 0.8% agarose gel in 1X TAE buffer (containing 40 mM Tris-HCl,  
121 pH 7.4, 20 mM sodium acetate, 1.0 mM Na<sub>2</sub>-EDTA; Eppendorf) with a 1 Kb molecular  
122 weight ladder (Promega). The agarose gels were run at 100 V for 30 min and stained for 15  
123 min in Gel Red solution (50 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>; Biotium), then observed and photographed on a UV  
124 transilluminator, using a black and white CCD camera (Scion Company) and Gel Smart 7.3  
125 system software (Clara Vision).

## 126 **2. 2. 2. PCR amplification of extracted DNA**

127 For bacterial communities analyses: A 160 bp fragment of the V3 variable region of 16S  
128 rDNA was amplified using gc-338f (5'-GCG CCG CCG CGC GCG GCG GGC GGG GCG  
129 GGG GCA CGG GGG GCA TCC TAC GGG AGG CAG CAG-3', Sigma) and 518r (5'-ATT  
130 ACC GCG GCT GCT GG-3', Sigma) DNA primers (Leesing, 2005; Hamdouche et al., 2015;  
131 2016). A 40-bp GC-clamp (Sigma) was added to the forward primer in order to ensure that the  
132 DNA fragment will remain partially double stranded and that the region screened is in the  
133 lowest melting domain (Sheffield et al., 1989). Each mixture (final volume 50 µL) contained  
134 about 100 ng of DNA template, DNA primers at 0.2 mM, deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate  
135 (dNTPs) at 200 µM, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 µL of 10X of Taq reaction buffer MgCl<sub>2</sub> free and 1.25  
136 unit of a-Taq polymerase (Promega). In order to increase the specificity of amplification and  
137 to reduce the formation of spurious by-products, DNA was amplified by a “touchdown” PCR  
138 previously described by Hamdouche et al. (2015).

139 For fungal communities analyses: a 250 bp fragment of D1/D2 region of the 26S rDNA was  
140 amplified using universal DNA primers gc-NL1 (5'-CGC CCG CCG CGC GCG GCG GGC  
141 GGG GCG GGG GCC ATA TCA ATA AGC GGA GGA AAA G-3') and LS2 (5'-ATT CCC  
142 AAA CAA CTC GAC TC-3', Sigma) (Cocolin et al., 2000). A 30-bp GC-clamp was added to

143 the forward primer. PCR mixture performed as previously described for bacterial DNA  
144 analyses. The amplification program was described previously by Hamdouche et al. (2015).

145 Electrophoresis in 2% (w/v) agarose gel with TAE 1X buffer stained with Gel Red (as  
146 described above) was used to verify and quantify PCR products using a standard (DNA mass  
147 ladder 100 bp, Promega). The migration lasted about 30 min at 100 V.

### 148 **2. 2. 3. Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis**

149 PCR products were separated by DGGE, using a Bio-Rad Dcode universal mutation detection  
150 system (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA) according to the procedure described by Muyzer et al.  
151 (1993) and improved by Leesing (2005). Forty microliters ( $\mu$ L) of each PCR product were  
152 loaded onto 8% (w/v) polyacrylamide gels (acrylamide/N,N'-methylene bisacrylamide,  
153 37.5/1, Promega) in 1X TAE.

154 Electrophoresis experiments were performed at 60°C using a denaturing gradient ranging  
155 from 30 to 60% (100% corresponded to 7 M urea and 40% (v/v) formamide, Promega). The  
156 migration was carried out at 20 V for 10 min and then at 80 V for 12 h. Then the gel was  
157 stained for 30 min with Gel Red solution and then photographed as described above in 2.2.1  
158 section.

### 159 **2. 2. 4. Purification and identification of DGGE bands**

160 Detected DNA bands were cut from the DGGE gel with a sterile scalpel. The DNA of each  
161 band was then eluted in 100  $\mu$ L TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl; pH 8.0, Promega) at 4°C  
162 overnight. The DNA purification was carried out according to the protocol described by  
163 Hamdouche et al. (2015; 2016). Bacterial and fungal purified DNA bands were amplified  
164 using 338f and NL-1 (without GC clamp) and 518r and LS-2 primers respectively. PCR  
165 amplicons were sent for sequencing to GATC Biotech (Germany).

166 The raw sequences data were edited using Bioedit Software and compared to the GenBank  
167 database using the BLAST program (Altschul et al., 1997) (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>). Sequences having a percentage of identity of 97% or greater were considered  
168 to belong to the same species (Palys et al., 1997).  
169

## 170 **2. 2. 5. Image and statistical analysis**

171 In each lane, banding patterns were standardized with two bacterial reference DNA patterns  
172 (*Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Escherichia coli* DNAs) for bacteria and two yeast DNA  
173 reference patterns of yeasts (*Lodderomyces elongisporus* and *Candida apicola* DNAs). Each  
174 band relative positions to reference DNA were measured and recorded.

175 The images of DGGE gels were analyzed using ImageQuant TL software V. 2003  
176 (Amersham Biosciences, USA). In DGGE analysis, the revealed banding pattern is considered  
177 as an image of all the major microbial populations. An individual band refers to a unique  
178 ‘sequence type’ or phytotype (Kowalchuk et al., 1997). DGGE fingerprinting was marked by  
179 the presence and absence of co-migrating bands and their intensity using ImageQuant TL  
180 software V. 2003.

181 Pair wise community similarities were quantified using Dice similarity coefficient  
182 (Heyndrickx et al., 1996), then generated data were exploited by Principal Component  
183 Analysis (PCA) and Canonical analysis of correspondence (CAC) using XLSTAT (V. 2014).  
184 The bands intensities (or volume as expressed in “grey level x pixel” unit) measured by  
185 ImageQuant were statistically compared using ANOVA.

186 CAC is a method that encompasses several statistical analyses; Ter Braak (1986) developed it  
187 for the first time. In our case, it was used to describe the linear relationships that exist between  
188 two groups of variables measured on the same individuals. The first group represents the  
189 variables to be explained (pod storage duration, fermentation time and turning) and the second

190 group shows the explanatory variables that are the microbial communities (DNA bands  
191 identified by PCR-DGGE).

192

193

## 194 **2. 3. Volatile compound analysis**

### 195 **2. 3. 1. Sample preparation and SPME-HS conditions**

196 The shell and the bean were both analysed, because the objective of the work was to evaluate  
197 the volatile composition of exported merchant cocoa (fermented and dried beans). In food  
198 industry, before the shelling, fermented and dried beans are roasted in order to develop the  
199 chocolate aromas, these aromas depend essentially on the precursors born during  
200 fermentation.

201 Two hundred grams of unshelled dried cocoa beans from Ivory Coast were put in liquid  
202 nitrogen and ground using a waring blender (SEB, France), to obtain cocoa flour, which was  
203 stored at - 80°C until analysis. Three grams of cocoa powder were introduced into vial (10  
204 mL), 30 µL of internal standard of 1-butanol (202.5 mg/L) (Sigma) were added, and the vial  
205 was sealed with a septum cap. The extraction of three technical repetitions was performed  
206 using a 50/30 µm divinylbenzene/carboxene/polydimethylsiloxane fiber (DVB/CAR/PDMS,  
207 Supelco), and using the technique of solid phase micro-extraction in the headspace (SPME-  
208 HS) previously described by Rodriguez-Campos et al. (2012) and modified in our lab by  
209 Koné et al. (2016). These authors had conditioned the fiber at 250°C for 3 min then exposed it  
210 to the sample headspace at 50°C for 45 min.

### 211 **2. 3. 2. Gas Chromatography Analytical Conditions**

212 The analysis of the volatile compounds extracted from cocoa powder was performed using an  
213 Agilent 6890N gas chromatography–mass spectrometer (GC-MS) in automatic injection  
214 mode, on a polar capillary column DBWAX, 30 m length  $\times$  0.25 mm internal diameter  $\times$  0.25  
215  $\mu\text{m}$  film thickness (Agilent, Palo Alto, CA, USA). The GC-MS conditions have been  
216 established in Cirad laboratory, the injection temperature was 250°C. The GC oven  
217 temperature was initially set at 40°C for 5 min, increased to 140°C at a rate of 2°C/min and  
218 then increased at a rate of 10°C/min to 250°C. The carrier gas was high purity Helium at 1  
219  $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ . Splitless injection mode was used at 250°C for 2 min. The selective mass detector  
220 was a quadrupole (Hewlett Packard, Model 5973), with an electronic impact ionization  
221 system at 70 eV and at the temperature source at 230°C.

### 222 **2. 3. 3. Volatile compounds identification**

223 For the identification of compounds, pure standards were not used, **this is why the**  
224 **identification was just tentative.** The identification was done: (i) by comparing the mass  
225 spectra with commercial database Wiley275.L, HP product no. G1035A); (ii) and by  
226 comparing of the linear retention index calculated (RI) with those found in the literature data.  
227 Retention index (RI) was calculated in the same chromatographic conditions using series of n-  
228 alkane C8-C20 (Supelco, Bellefonte, USA). Peak areas were used for relative quantification  
229 of compounds using the MSD Chemstation software (version E.02.02.1431, Agilent  
230 Technologies).

### 231 **2. 3 .4. Statistical analysis**

232 The chromatographic data obtained by SPME-GC-MS were statistically analyzed using  
233 ANOVA and Principal Component Analysis (PCA). As described previously, Canonical  
234 analysis of correspondence (CAC) was applied to GC-MS and DGGE data, in order to

235 describe relationship between microbial communities (explanatory variables) and volatile  
236 compounds produced (variables to be explained).

### 237 **3. Non-volatile organic acids analysis**

#### 238 **3.1. Organic acids extraction**

239 The extraction was carried out according to the protocol of Holm et al. (1993). Five grams of  
240 cocoa powder were mixed with 50 mL of warm distilled water (75°C) in a 100 mL flask. The  
241 resulting suspension was well mixed and then cooled to room temperature. The volume was  
242 supplemented with distilled water up to 100 mL, then filtered through a pleated filter paper  
243 (Whatman) and a 0.45 µm filter (Sigma-Aldrich), then transferred to an HPLC vial (1 mL)  
244 (Thomson ).

#### 245 **3.2. Organic acids quantification by HPLC**

246 Concentrations of acetic acid, citric acid, lactic acid, malic acid, oxalic acid and tartaric acid  
247 were determined by a High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) with conductivity  
248 using AS11-HC column (Dionex). The mobile phase, at a flow rate of 0.6 mL.min<sup>-1</sup> consisted  
249 of ultrapure water (eluent A), NaOH 0.1 N (eluent B) and NaOH 0.002 N (eluent C). A  
250 volume of 0.02 mL for each sample was injected and run together with external standards. All  
251 samples were analyzed in triplicate and the data were controlled and processed with  
252 ClarityChrom software and analyzed using ANOVA.

### 253 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 254 **3. 1. Microbial community structures**

##### 255 **3. 1. 1. Variation in bacterial community structures**

256 Microbial DNA profiles were generated by DGGE from all cocoa fermentations carried out,  
257 with and without turning, with a delay of pod breaking of 2 and 8 days, respectively. Bacterial



258 DNA profile bands diversity at different time intervals of fermentation (Fig. 1.a and b). After  
259 two fermentation days, a few DNA bands (Y, B V, W) were observed and identified by  
260 sequencing as belonging to *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Lactobacillus fermentum*, and *Acetobacter*  
261 *pasteurianus* taxa respectively (Fig. 1.a,b ; Table 1). At days 4 and 5, additional DNA bands  
262 (A, E, F, J, L, M, N) were detected and identified as belonging to *Lactobacillus curvatus*,  
263 *Bacillus megaterium*, *Bacillus sp*, *Acetobacter sp* and *Providencia sp species*, respectively.  
264 All eight bacterial taxa remained detected until the last day of fermentation. This is  
265 concordant with previously reported data (Lefeber et al., 2011; Hamdouche et al., 2015),  
266 which showed that bacterial communities of cocoa undergo drastic changes after 4 days of  
267 fermentation and remain pretty similar throughout the process length.

268 Moreover, at the shortest fermentation time, only *L. fermentum*, *A. pasteurianus* and species  
269 belonging to *Enterobacteriaceae* taxa were detected and confirmed the presence of LAB and  
270 AAB in the initial phase of fermentation (Schwan and Wheals, 2004; Papalexandratou et al.,  
271 2013; Hamdouche et al., 2015).

272 Comparison of bacterial DNA profiles of fermented cocoa beans with and without turning  
273 showed that the majority of revealed bands were common in the two types of fermentation  
274 processing whatever the pod storage time. However, some bands (M, E, F) identified as  
275 *Bacillus* genus were mainly revealed in DGGE profiles obtained from cocoa beans fermented  
276 with turning (Fig. 1.a,b ; Table 1). Furthermore, some bands (G, H) were detected only in  
277 fermentation with turning and were identified as belonging to *Acetobacter sp*. These  
278 observations were explained by the better development of aerobic microorganisms due to  
279 aeration obtained by turning. The abundance of *Bacillus* genera populations seems to be the  
280 consequence of temperature elevation after 2 days and at the turning time, which promoted  
281 the development of thermophilic and aerobic species (Lima et al., 2011). Previous works,  
282 carried out on fermentation of different cocoa beans masses, showed that the fermentation of

283 the large cocoa bean-pulp mass decreased the aeration, which slows down microbial activities  
284 (Camu et al., 2008; Guehi et al., 2010). It is important to note that *A. pasteurianus* species (V,  
285 W) was not present during fermentation with turning, at 5, 6 and 7 days (Fig. 1.b-Table 1).  
286 This result was unexpected because *A. pasteurianus* was the most prevalent AAB species  
287 involved in spontaneous cocoa from Ivory coast, Brazil and Malaysia (Hamdouche et al.,  
288 2015, Papalexandratou et al., 2011; 2013) and was tested as starter culture in cocoa  
289 fermentation (Moens et al., 2014; Lefeber et al., 2010 ; 2012). First of all, we thought that this  
290 unexpected result came from technical error, but the most surprising thing about this  
291 observation, was the correlation of this result with the one obtained from volatile compounds  
292 analysis. The disappearance of *A. pasteurianus* species was correlated with acetic acid content  
293 decreases during fermentations with turning. If the technical error is sparing, the result could  
294 be explained by the fact that the temperature increased during fermentation with turning (by  
295 increasing activity AAB). In our fermentation assays, the temperatures could have risen such  
296 as it became lethal for this thermosensible species. However, since, temperatures were not  
297 measured in our studies, we could not conclude about this hypothesis.

298 When comparing DGGE bacterial profiles obtained from stored pods during 2 and 8 days,  
299 DNA bands (R, K, X) specific to cocoa pods stored 8 days were detected and identified as  
300 belonging to *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Bacillus sp*, and *Acinetobacter sp* (Fig. 1.b compared to  
301 Fig. 1.a). These bacterial taxa could be present on pods surface and developed during storage  
302 time, which rendered them detectable by PCR-DGGE. To our knowledge, no work has  
303 investigated the pod storage effect on cocoa microbial ecology except the study of our  
304 colleagues Kedjebo et al. (2016) who studied the effect of post-harvest treatment on the  
305 occurrence of ochratoxin A (OTA) in raw cocoa beans from Ivory Coast. They showed that  
306 OTA content in raw cocoa beans increased with pods storage duration (0, 4 and 7 days) which  
307 reflected the increase of ochratoxinogenic fungi activity (*Aspergillus* strains) during cocoa

308 pods storage time. Therefore, their conclusion confirmed our results that showed a highest  
309 microbial contamination with long pod storage after fermentation.

310 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied on bacterial DGGE profiles to represent  
311 the dataset variance. We observed that fermented cocoa samples tended to group according to  
312 fermentation time along the first component axis (F1 representing 53.44% of the total  
313 variance). For 2 day storage samples, two main groups containing cocoa beans samples turned  
314 fermented during 2 and 4 days on the left side of the axis and those fermented during 5, 6 and  
315 7 days on the right side of the axis could be observed (Fig. 2). The picture is similar for 8 days  
316 storage of non-turned samples. Eight-day storage of turned samples appeared as two main  
317 groups: 2 day fermented on the left side of the axis and the rest of the samples on the right  
318 side. 2 days storage unturned samples tend to group according to the fermentation duration.

319 The secondary axis F2 (12.58% variance) separated groups of cocoa beans samples fermented  
320 by turning (bottom part) from those fermented without turning (upper part, Fig.2). This result  
321 showed that bacterial communities varied mainly according to fermentation time followed by  
322 processing (turning). PCA did not show an obvious effect of storage time on bacterial ecology  
323 of cocoa comparing with the impact of the two other parameters (fermentation time and  
324 turning). The strong dynamics and activity of the microbial populations observed during the  
325 fermentation does not seem to be linked to any other environmental parameter.

### 326 **3. 1. 2. Variation in fungal community structures**

327 During cocoa fermentations, dominant species (1, 10, and 11) were detected on DGGE  
328 profiles and identified as belonging to *Hanseniaspora opuntiae*, *Pichia kudriavzevii* and  
329 *Pichia manshurica* species (Fig. 3 - Table 2). These species had previously been detected in  
330 fermented cocoa beans from the same location in Ivory Coast (Hamdouche et al., 2015; Koné  
331 et al., 2016) and in other countries and continents (Crafack et al., 2013; de Melo Periera et al.,

332 2013; Papalexandratou et al., 2013). Minor variations were observed comparing DGGE  
333 profiles obtained from cocoa fermented with the two processes due to intrinsic variations in  
334 fungal diversity during fermentation (Fig. 3.a.b). Generally, we did not observe specific  
335 fungal communities associated to a process probably due to the fact that turning or aeration do  
336 not drastically favor fungal populations growth.

337 In DGGE profiles obtained from fermented cocoa beans previously stored longer (8 days),  
338 four specific bands were detected (4, 5, 7, 9) and identified as *Hanseniaspora uvarum* and  
339 *Pichia sp* (Fig. 3.b). The results of PCR amplifications coupled to DGGE profiles of both  
340 bacterial and yeast communities showed more DNA bands in cocoa pods stored longer (8  
341 days), which probably means that microbial species abundance increased with storage time  
342 (as discussed above with bacterial data).

343 PCA on fungal communities associated with cocoa, represented by F1 and F2 axis (58. 26%)  
344 did not allow to discriminate cocoa beans samples, this result was expected, as mentioned  
345 before (Fig. 1 in supplementary material).

346 Canonical analysis of correspondence (CAC) was applied in order to describe the relation  
347 between variations in microbial community structures and changes in cocoa post-harvest  
348 parameters. CAC results showed that microbial communities associated with turning  
349 parameter consisted mainly of bacterial communities: *Bacillus*, LAB and *Acetobacter* species  
350 (Fig. 4). This result was expected for AAB because they are aerobic microorganisms, which  
351 are usually affected by the aeration. For *Bacillus*, it could be explained by the increasing of  
352 the temperature after turning due to the thermophilic aptitude of this genus. No microbial  
353 species was found linked to the parameter of pods storage time (Fig. 4) as pods storage  
354 duration was not related to the composition of microbiota.

### 355 **3. 2. Volatile compounds analysis**

356 The results obtained on the volatile compounds analysis might not be accurate because of the  
357 limit of the identification and quantification method used.

358 Twenty-six volatile compounds were detected in fermented and dried cocoa beans by SPME-  
359 GC-MS (Table 3). These compounds were separated in 7 families: aldehydes, ketones, esters,  
360 alcohols, acids, pyrazines and phenols.

361

362

### 363 **3. 2. 1. Variation of aldehyde compounds**

364 Four aldehydes compounds were identified on all fermented cocoa beans analyzed, which  
365 were isobutanal, 2 and 3-methylbutanal, benzaldehyde. Benzaldehyde was the dominant  
366 aldehyde, followed by 2 and 3-methylbutanal in all cocoa fermentations (Fig. 5.a.g.m and Fig.  
367 6.a.g). These aldehydes were previously identified on fermented cocoa beans (Serra-Bonvehi,  
368 2005; Rodriguez-Campos et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2014). In all fermentations, aldehydes content  
369 increased with fermentation time. These results were correlated with those obtained by  
370 Rodriguez-Campos et al. (2012). Statistical test (ANOVA) showed significant differences in  
371 aldehydes level ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the first stage of fermentation (2 and 4 days) and the last  
372 stage (5, 6 and 7 days) (Fig. 5.a.g.m and Fig. 6.a.g).

373 ANOVA test showed significant differences for aldehydes content between cocoa beans  
374 fermented with and without turning (Fig. 7.a.b), with the highest level obtained in the case of  
375 fermentation with turning at 7 days. These observations were probably related to the presence  
376 of LAB that were detected throughout the fermentation stages mostly in the case of turning  
377 (Fig. 1.a and b). Aldehydes compounds could be produced by enzymatic reactions from  
378 amino acids mainly by LAB (Jinap et al., 1994). The 2 and 3-methylbutanal are usually  
379 produced from isoleucine and leucine, while benzaldehyde is produced from phenylalanine by

380 LAB (Jinap et al., 1994; Smit et al., 2005; Bonnarme et al., 2004). During beans mixing,  
381 temperature increased and reached its maximum (Camu et al., 2008), which increased the  
382 enzymatic activity. As regard to pod storage time effect, the aldehydes level had not  
383 significant difference ( $p>0.05$ ) between the two pod storage delays (Fig. 7.a.b).

### 384 **3. 2. 2. Variation of ketone compounds**

385 For this family, the detected compounds were 2-heptanone, 2-pentanone, 2-nonanone,  
386 acetophenone, and acetoin. This later had been found as the dominant ketone in all cocoa  
387 samples (Fig. 5.b.h.n and Fig.6.b.h) as reported by Rodriguez-Campos et al. (2011). In  
388 general, acetoin quantity decreased with fermentation time. This compound is mainly  
389 produced from pyruvate by alcoholic fermentation and from 2,3-butanediol by yeast  
390 (Pretorius, 2000). Acetoin abundance in the first stage of fermentation could be correlated to  
391 yeasts intervention in this stage. The quantity of others ketones varied slightly during  
392 fermentation. These compounds were naturally present in cocoa beans (Ho et al., 2014) and  
393 their production was not affected by fermentation, except for 2-pentanone, which was  
394 probably used as substrate by microorganisms during fermentation. Ketones were  
395 significantly important ( $p<0.05$ ) in cocoa beans fermented without turning (Fig. 7.a,b). Some  
396 ketones that were probably present naturally (Afoakwa *et al.*, 2008, Rodriguez et al., 2012),  
397 were degraded and catabolized in the case of the aerated fermentation process, where more  
398 diversity and abundance of bacteria were observed by PCR-DGGE (Fig. 1.a). There was no  
399 difference in ketones level for the two pod storage durations, except in the case of  
400 fermentation with turning, whither the dominance of ketones was observed in pods stored at  
401 the shorter time (2 days) (Fig. 7.a.b).

### 402 **3. 2. 3. Variation of alcohol compounds**

403 The alcohols compounds found in cocoa beans samples were: ethanol, 2-pentanol,  
404 isopentanol, 2-heptanol, 2,3-butanediol, and 2-phenethylethanol. Among them, 2-  
405 phenethylethanol and 2,3 -butanediol were dominant during the four types of fermentations  
406 (Fig. 5.c.i.o and Fig. 6.c.i); as already showed by Rodriguez-Campos et al. (2011). Ethanol  
407 was surely produced by the majority of yeasts (Ho et al., 2014, Koné et al., 2016). It was  
408 probably the same in this study where it was generated by all detected yeasts by PCR-DGGE  
409 (Fig. 3). Some alcohols could be elaborated by both bacteria and yeasts such as 2,3-  
410 butanediol. Ethanol content presented significant differences ( $p<0.05$ ) between fermentation  
411 times (2 and 4 days) and (5, 6, and 7 days) (Fig. 5.c.i.o and Fig. 6.c.i). Its concentration was  
412 higher during the first four days of fermentation and then decreased rapidly, because this  
413 compound is produced at the first (anaerobic) fermentation stage, which lasted 48 h,  
414 subsequently it was oxidized in acetic acid (Schwan and Wheals, 2004) mainly by AAB  
415 during the second (aerobic) stage.

416 The abundance of these alcohols was significantly different ( $p<0.05$ ) during the different  
417 fermentation process, with the highest level obtained in cocoa fermented beans without  
418 turning mainly for ethanol (Fig 7.a,b, Fig. 5.c.i.o and Fig. 6.c.i). In aerated conditions, the  
419 contribution of oxygen allows alcohols oxidation. For example, most alcoholic compounds  
420 are oxidized to ester compounds, as phenethylethanol that is a precursor of aldehyde and is  
421 oxidized to phenylethyl acetate with the presence of oxygen by LAB (Smit et al., 2005).  
422 Furthermore, alcohol compounds could be evaporated with the aeration brought by turning  
423 process. This result agreed with those obtained by Camu et al. (2008) that showed the  
424 evaporation of ethanol during the aeration of cocoa beans mass, as well as favoring the AAB  
425 growth that oxidized ethanol into acetic acid.

426 Total alcohols level was significantly higher in cocoa obtained from pods stored longer (Fig  
427 7.a.b) as 2,3-butanediol (Fig 5.c.i.o and Fig 6.c.i). This may be explained by the studies of

428 Afoakwa et al. (2013a; 2013b) that showed the conversion of total sugars with pod storage in  
429 alcohol. Furthermore, Meyer et al. (1989) observed that increasing pod storage time before  
430 fermentation improved subsequent microbial aeration, prevented LAB development/growth  
431 and increased yeasts abundance and activity. This result could be explained by the fact that  
432 alcoholic fermentation may begin during the long storage of the pods injured during the  
433 harvest, which are naturally or subsequently contaminated by yeasts.

#### 434 **3. 2. 4. Variation of ester compounds**

435 The six detected esters were ethyl acetate, isobutyl acetate, isoamyl acetate, phenylethyl  
436 acetate, methyl isopentanoate, and methyl isovalerate (Fig .5.d.j.p and Fig. 6.d.j). Ethyl  
437 acetate was the dominant ester in all fermentations. According to Rodriguez-Campos et al.  
438 (2012), esters concentration decreased with fermentation time, but in our case, no significant  
439 difference was observed ( $p>0.05$ ) depending on fermentation time except for ethyl acetate,  
440 which dominated in the first stage of fermentation (2 days) (Fig .5.d.j.p and Fig. 6.d.j). This  
441 ester seems to be produced only at the beginning of cocoa fermentation as reported previously  
442 (Rodriguez-Campos et al., 2011), and also in wine fermentation (Rojas et al., 2003) mainly in  
443 the first day of fermentation. This may be due to the abundance of glucose and ethanol during  
444 this stage, because they are the main substrates for ethyl acetate synthesis (Yong et al., 1981).  
445 Moreover, Ethyl acetate is a product of esterification from acetic acid and ethanol (Pretorius,  
446 2000); this concept explains the correlation between the amount of this ester, acetic acid and  
447 ethanol quantities mainly in the case of fermentation with aeration, in which a logical  
448 evolution of the quantities was observed for the most of volatile compounds detected in this  
449 study. A large quantity of these compounds was observed at the beginning of fermentation  
450 and decreased sharply after 2 days (Fig. 5.c.i.o.e.k.q and 6.c.i.e.k). The concentration of this  
451 ester was significantly higher in cocoa fermented without turning (Fig 7.a,b). Esters were  
452 synthesized by yeasts from alcohols during anaerobic phase (Rojas et al., 2002), which



453 explained their dominance in fermentation without aeration. This observation could explain  
454 the high level of esters in this process. Concerning pods storage time, esters were higher as  
455 mainly methyl isovalerate in cocoa obtained from pods, which were stored less time (Fig.  
456 7.a.b). That could be explained by the decrease of sugar and protein during cocoa pod storage  
457 (Guehi et al., 2010, Afoakwa et al., 2013) that could be substrates for esters synthesis.  
458 Substrates reduction during long storage (8 days) allowed probably the decrease of the esters  
459 content.

### 460 3. 2. 5. Variation of acid compounds

461 Three acids were detected in fermented cocoa beans, of which acetic acid was largely  
462 dominant comparing with isobutyric and isovaleric acids. Acetic acid quantity decreased  
463 significantly during fermentation realized with turning (Fig. 5.e.k.q and Fig. 6.e.k). In the case  
464 of fermentation without turning, the evolution of acetic acid was irregular because its quantity  
465 was not stable, decreased and increased during fermentation (Fig. 7.a,b). The illogical  
466 evolution of acetic acid amount in this case, could be explained by the fact that there was no  
467 beans turning, therefore no homogenization in the metabolites produced and beans  
468 composition. Whatever the pods storage delay, a normal evolution of acetic acid amount  
469 during fermentation with turning was observed. According to the literature, acetic acid  
470 increased and reached its maximum around 72h of cocoa fermentation then decreased after 88  
471 h (Shwan and Wheal, 2004; Lefeber and al., 2012). This data confirmed our result, which  
472 showed that turning of cocoa beans allowed to realize fermentation with a normal evolution  
473 over time. The concentration of this acid was significantly higher in cocoa beans fermented  
474 without turning. To explain this, one possibility is that residual or minimal acetic fermentation  
475 (with AAB growth and/or activity) occurs in unmixed cocoa, and the rise in temperature plus  
476 the aeration favors the volatilization nutrients depletion (Camu et al., 2008) during  
477 fermentation with turning.

478 During fermentation, assimilation of citric acid by LAB generates a slight rise in pH to 4.5  
479 and temperature to 37°C of cocoa pulp (Camu et al., 2007) which create a favorable  
480 environment for the growth of AAB involved in the second phase of fermentation (acetic  
481 fermentation). During this phase, AAB are responsible of the oxidation of ethanol to acetic  
482 acid (Schwan and Wheals, 2004). Our results on acetic acid bacterial communities structure  
483 was related to acetic acid production, because low acid acetic level was observed in parallel  
484 with the disappearance of the main AAB, which was *A. pasteurianus* (band V and W) (Fig. 1)  
485 in the absence of aeration.

486 We also observed that volatile acids content decreased among time in cocoa beans and were  
487 very low after a pod storage of 8 days (Fig. 7.a.b). This observation is in agreement with the  
488 works of Tomlins et al. (1993) and Jinap et al. (1994), who observed a lower acetic acid  
489 content in stored cocoa compared with un-stored cocoa pods. As mentioned previously from  
490 the literature, acetic acid is produced by oxidation of the ethanol during the second  
491 fermentation phase (aerobic). These results were consistent with those obtained on ethanol  
492 (section 3.2.3) which was low after pod storage of 8 days. Therefore, acetic acid content,  
493 which is volatile, could vary according to the ethanol content and time.

### 494 **3. 2. 6. Variation of others volatile compounds**

495 *Pyrazines*: Tetramethylpyrazine was the unique compound belonging to pyrazine family that  
496 was detected (Fig. 5.f.l.r and Fig. 6.f.l). In most cases, tetramethylpyrazine compound has  
497 been reported to produce characteristics notes of roasted cocoa that is important for flavor  
498 quality (Afoakwa et al., 2008; Serra-Bonvehi, 2005). Furthermore, various studies reported on  
499 the microbial origin of pyrazines in fermented food as cocoa and soybeans (Selamat et al.,  
500 1994; Besson et al., 1997). In our case, tetramethylpyrazine was probably produced by  
501 *Bacillus* as *Bacillus megaterium* species that was detected by PCR-DGGE (Fig. 1). They play  
502 an important role in producing alkylypyrasines in association with *B. subtilis* during cocoa

503 fermentation. Our results showed that tetramethylpyrazine level had no significant difference  
504 during fermentation times, pods storage times and between fermentation processing. Pyrazine  
505 compounds were not affected by any of the three processes.

506 *Methoxyphenol*: This volatile phenolic compound was only detected in fermented cocoa beans  
507 obtained from pods stored for 8 days and it was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher in the case of  
508 fermentation with turning (Fig. 5.f.l.r, Fig. 6.f.l). Some phenolic compounds were previously  
509 detected at the end of cocoa fermentation (6 and 8 days) (Rodriguez-Campos et al., 2012).

510 The presence of this compound only in fermented cocoa beans obtained from long pods  
511 storage when more microbial diversity was detected, could be explained by the increase of  
512 nutrient degradation, including phenolic acids, thus 2-methoxyphenol elaboration. We also  
513 connected the production of this compound to the natural heating during sun drying. In  
514 general, phenolic acids are degraded thermically or decomposed by microorganisms into  
515 phenols, as 2-methoxyphenol that results from a heat degradation of ferulic acid during coffee  
516 and cocoa roasting or kiln drying (Berlitz, 2009).

### 517 3. 3. Organic acids composition

518 Five non-volatile organic acids were detected and quantified: citric, lactic, malic, oxalic and  
519 tartaric acids. The total of non-volatile acids was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher on cocoa beans  
520 fermented without turning (when compared to turned cocoa), especially at the end of  
521 fermentation (5, 6 and 7 days) (Fig. 8). This confirmed the results obtained on volatile acids,  
522 which are less abundant during fermentation with aeration. The amount of acids is  
523 significantly greater ( $p < 0.05$ ) on cocoa beans with short pod storage durations (2 days) (Fig.  
524 8). This is consistent with the results obtained on volatile acids by Afoakwa et al. (2013a;  
525 2013b) who showed consistent decreases in non-volatile acidity during pod storage.

526 The concentration of volatile and non-volatile acids identified was affected during  
527 fermentation probably under microbial activities. Those naturally present in cocoa beans were  
528 degraded, mainly citric acid, while others were produced during fermentation, such as acetic  
529 and lactic acids, which could be considered as cocoa quality markers.

### 530 **3. 4. Correlations between microbial ecology and volatile compounds produced in cocoa** 531 **fermentation**

532 In order to measure the impacts of turning during fermentation (fermentation time and pods  
533 storage time), PCA was applied on all volatiles compounds detected in fermented cocoa beans  
534 (Fig. 9). Statistical analysis showed a global (on the volatile groups) and specific (on volatile  
535 compounds) effects. We showed that ketones, alcohols, esters and acids contents were higher  
536 in cocoa fermented without turning, while aldehydes were significantly abundant in the  
537 process with turning. Pod storage duration had an effect on all chemical families except for  
538 aldehydes and pyrazines. ACP separated 4 samples groups according to fermentation time,  
539 fermentation process and pod storage time. Principal axis F1 (38.86%) separated cocoa beans  
540 samples fermented (5, 6 and 7 days) without turning from the beans fermented with turning  
541 (Fig. 9). ACP analysis allowed identifying discriminant compounds that were affected by  
542 studied parameters. Discriminant and significant compounds in fermentation without turning  
543 were acetic acid, isobutyric acid, 2,3-butanediol, acetoin, phenethyl acetate, isoamyl acetate.  
544 In the case of turning, all aldehydes compounds detected and some esters were identified as  
545 discriminant compounds. The same axis F1 regrouped samples according to fermentation  
546 time, the higher level of acetic acid, ethyl acetate, isobutyl acetate and ethanol at the first  
547 stage of fermentation (2 and 4 days) discriminated beans fermented at short term from the  
548 other samples. F2 axis (18.45%), separated the two pods storage times starting from 5 days of  
549 fermentation, by 2-methoxyphenol and acetophenone that were significant (abundant) in long  
550 storage (8 days).

551 Variations in volatile composition were compared with literature and with microbial ecology  
552 analyses carried out in our study. Some hypotheses were given about the relationship that  
553 could exist between microbial community structures and volatile composition of cocoa beans.  
554 CAC was applied on all data obtained in order to determine these relationships (Fig. 10).  
555 Microbial taxa detection by DGGE and their correlation with volatile compounds had a  
556 similar evolution whatever the fermentation time and the processing applied. It was not  
557 possible or rather difficult to relate each volatile group and/or compound to a given microbial  
558 taxa, which is explained by the fact that several yeasts or bacteria could produce the same  
559 compounds (Ho et al., 2014; Koné et al., 2016). Moreover, the CAC described the relation  
560 between *A. pasteurianus* (V, W) acetic acid, and acetoin and between *H. opuntiae* to ethyl  
561 acetate and ethanol (Fig. 10). This suggested that acetic acid level was related to *A.*  
562 *pasteurianus* abundance. This hypothesis could be verified by the identification of **volatile**  
563 **profile** for each microbial species detected during fermentation.

#### 564 **4. Conclusion**

565 This study measured the effect of three cocoa process parameters on both microbial  
566 community structures and volatile composition of cocoa beans, and showed that fermentation  
567 time has a major impact on the aroma, followed by turning. In our study, pod storage duration  
568 (2 days vs 8 days) had a minor impact on cocoa microbial communities. Contrariwise, the  
569 effect was pronounced on volatile composition when it was associated to turning. Fermented  
570 cocoa beans with desired flavors were obtained with short pod storage times, which promoted  
571 a significant presence of esters. Consequently, as expected a short fermentation without  
572 aeration could have a negative impact on the cocoa volatile composition, because of the high  
573 levels of undesirable compounds such as acetic acid and acetoin.

574 The molecular approach coupled to volatile and statistical analysis provided insight into the  
575 relationship between the microbial communities' structure and aroma compound production

576 in fermenting cocoa beans. To better describe the relationship, it would be interesting to carry  
577 out the study in a specific way by identifying the aromatic profile of each microbial strains  
578 involved in the processes. Consequently, this global analysis allowed the identification of  
579 molecular and volatile markers, which could be good indicators of cocoa post-harvest  
580 processing. Acetic acid, acetoin, benzaldehyde, 2 and 3-methylbutanal content are related to  
581 cocoa fermentation time and aeration type, whereas, the evaluation of esters concentration  
582 could be used to distinguish pods storage duration of fermented beans.

583 At this stage, the impact of post-harvest processing was measured on cocoa volatile  
584 composition but not specifically on aroma quality. That aspect yet remains to be explored in  
585 the future.

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589

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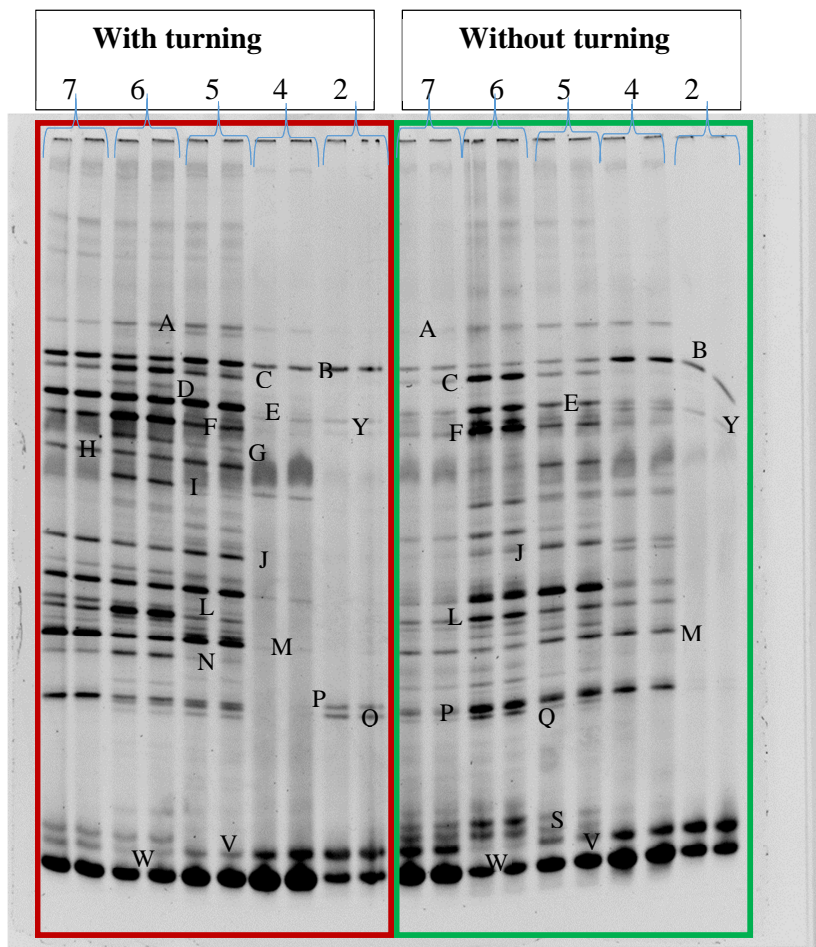
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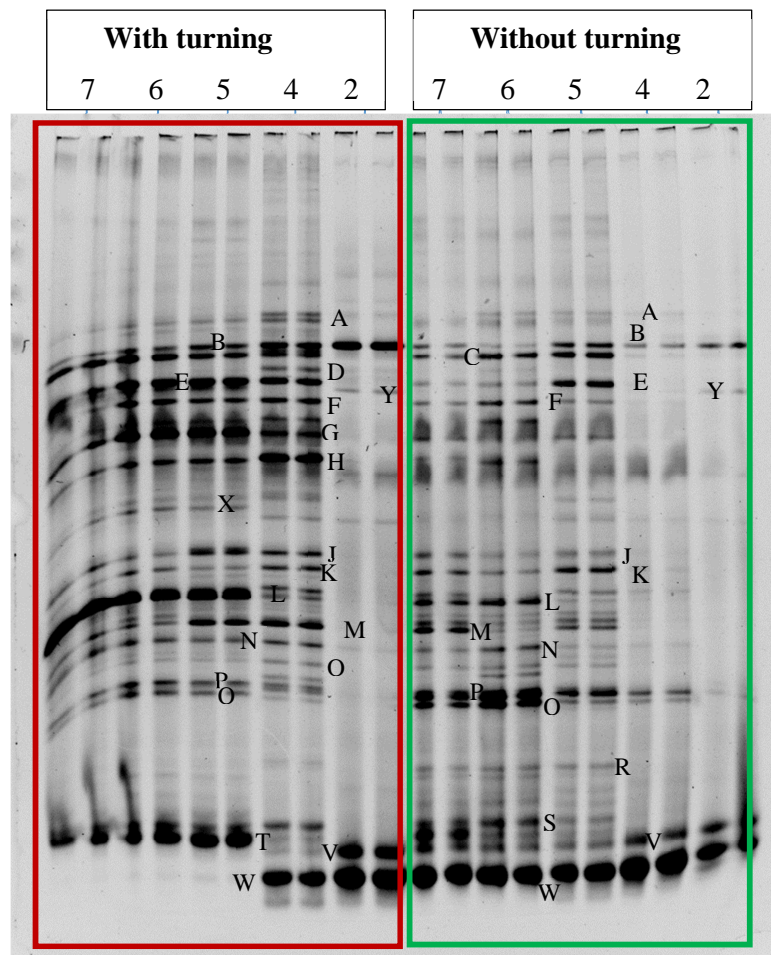
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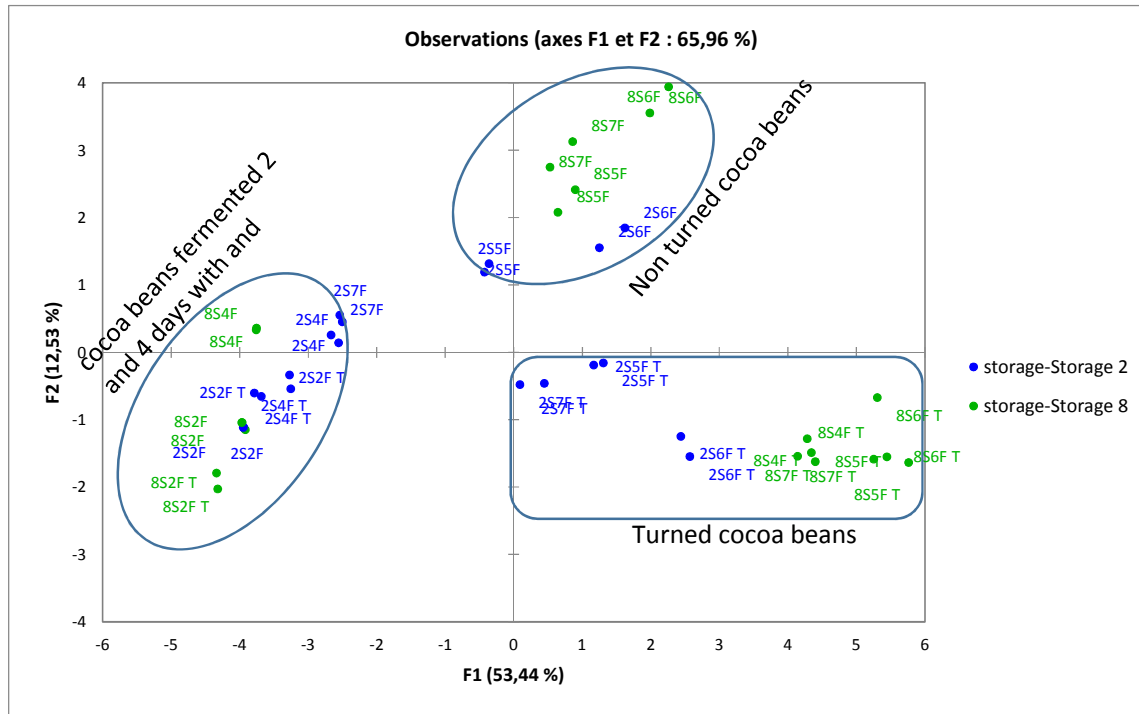


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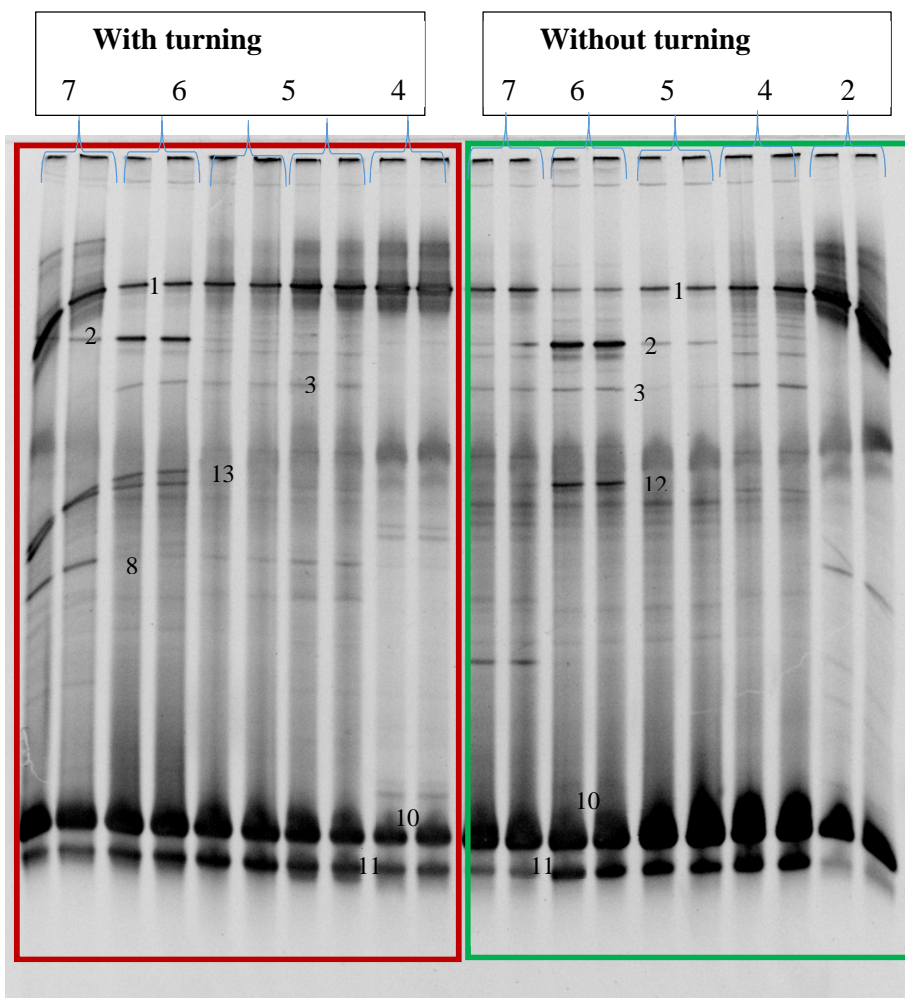
(b)

**Figure 1:** Bacterial DNA DGGE profiles obtained from fermented cocoa beans (with and without turning) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation, previously stored during 2 days (a) and 8 days (b). Identification of DGGE bands for bacterial species are given in Table 1.

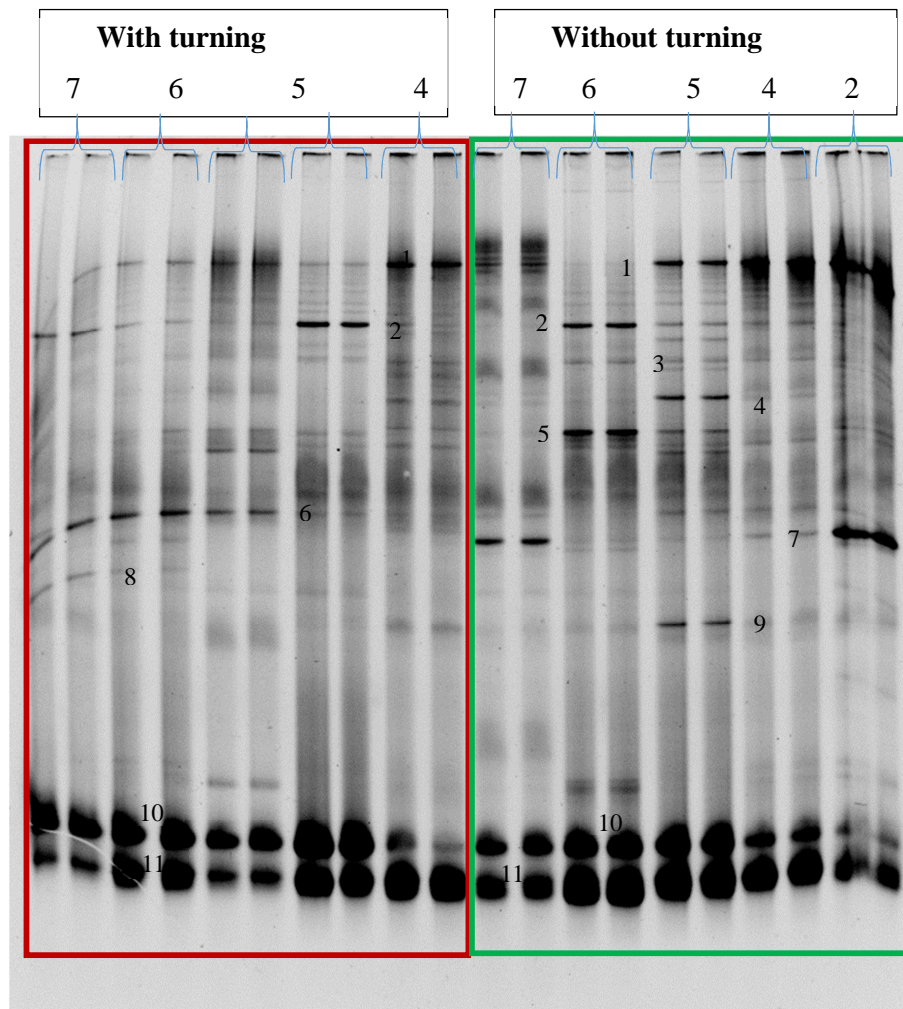


**Figure 2:** Principal component analysis (PCA) of bacterial 16S rDNA DGGE band profiles obtained from cocoa beans stored during 2 days, fermented with turning (2S2F T, 2S2F T, 2S4F T, 2S4F T, 2S5F T, 2S5F T, 2S6F T, 2S6F T, 2S7F T and 2S7F T) and without turning (2S2F, 2S2F, 2S4F, 2S4F, 2S5F, 2S5F, 2S6F, 2S6F, 2S7F and 2S7F) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation and from cocoa beans stored during 8 days, fermented with turning (8S2F T, 8S2F T, 8S4F T, 8S4F T, 8S5F T, 8S5F T, 8S6F T, 8S6F T, 8S7F T and 8S7F T) and without turning (8S2F, 8S2F, 8S4F, 8S4F, 8S5F, 8S5F, 8S6F, 8S6F, 8S7F and 8S7F) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation.





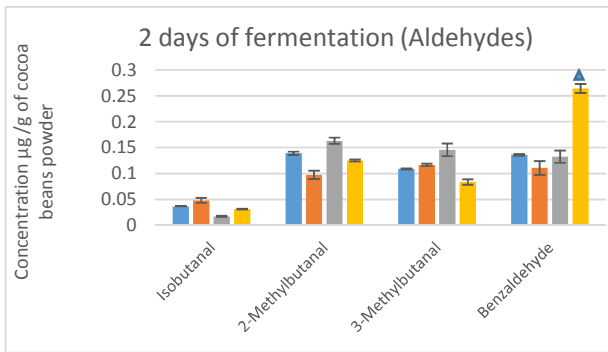
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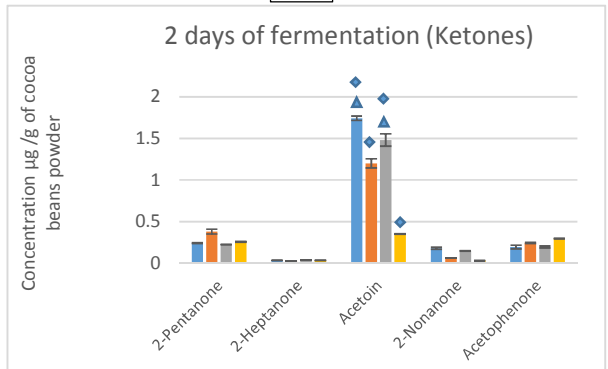
(b)

**Figure 3:** Yeasts DNA DGGE profiles obtained from fermented cocoa beans (with and without turning) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation, previously stored during 2 days (a) and 8 days (b) . Identification of DGGE bands for yeast species are given in Table 2.

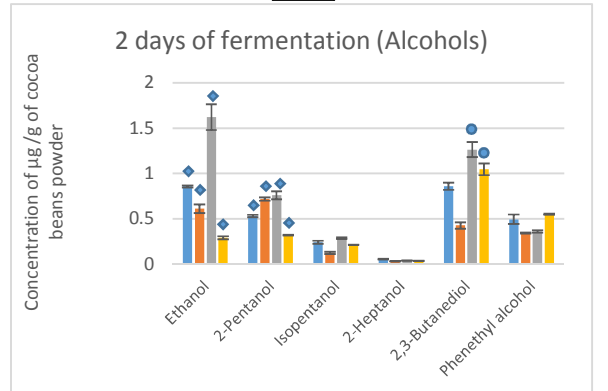




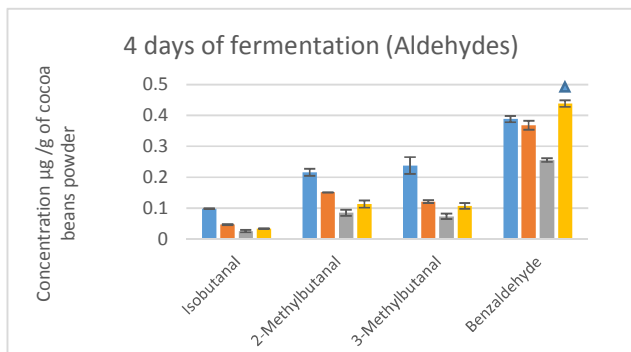
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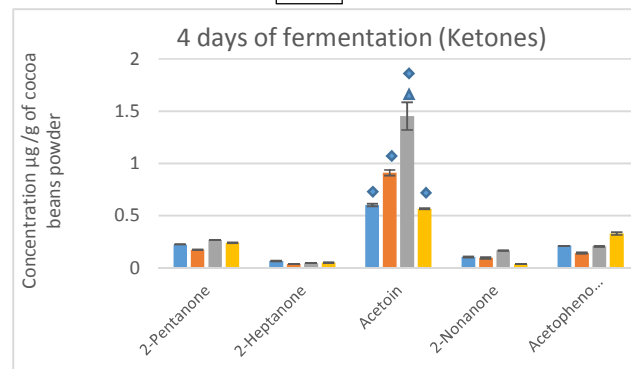
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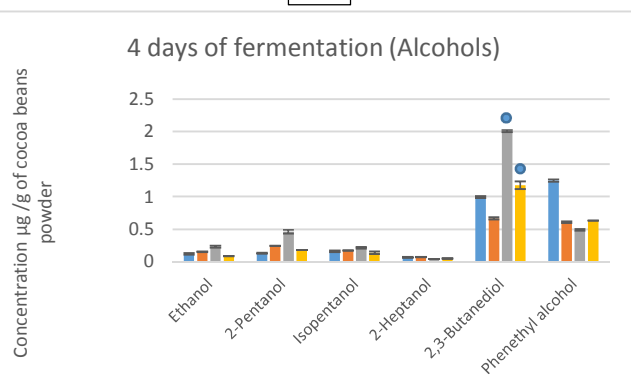
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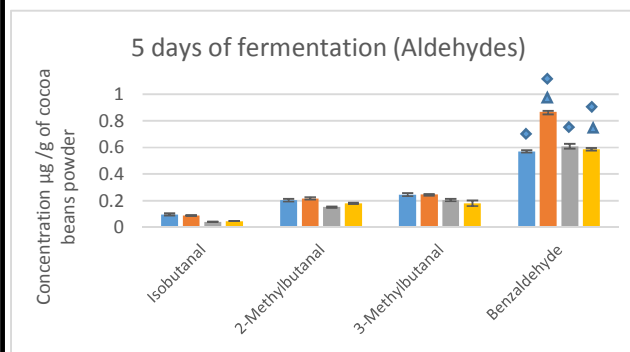
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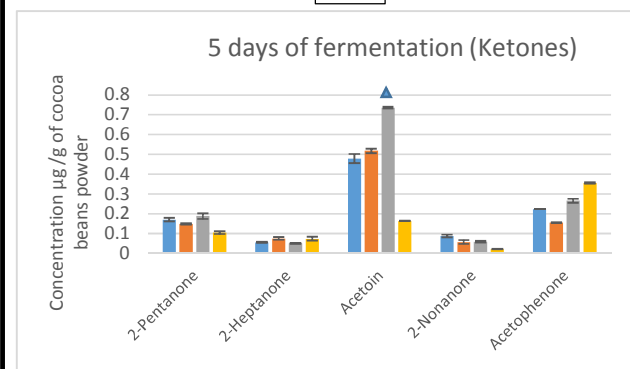
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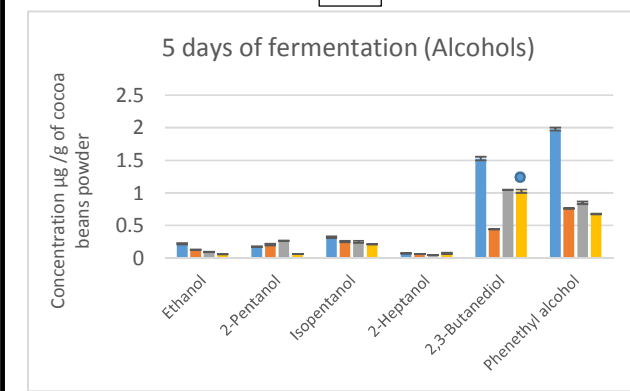
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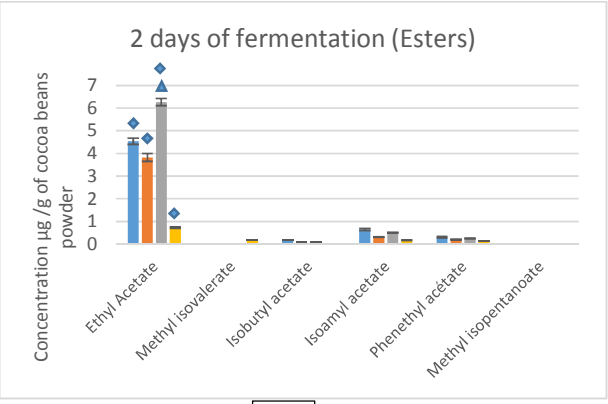
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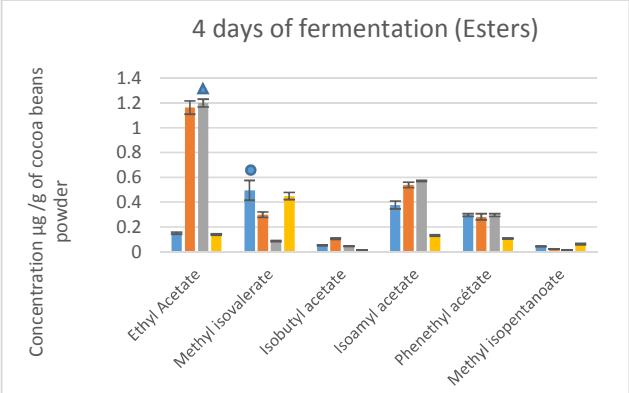
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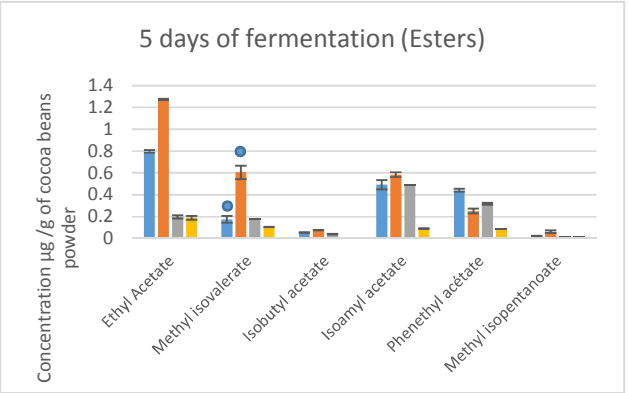
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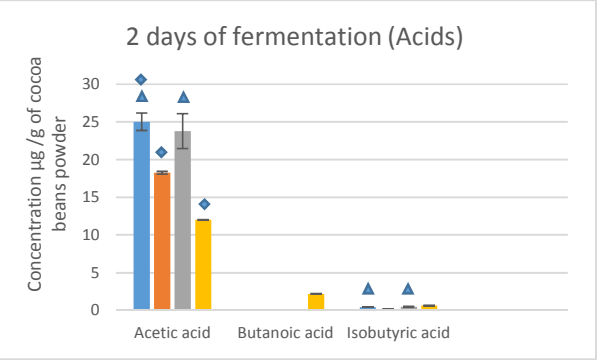
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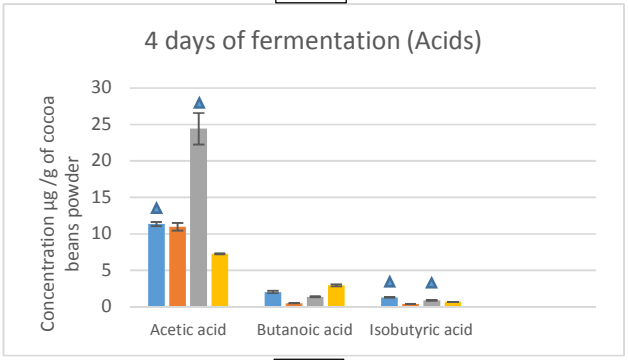
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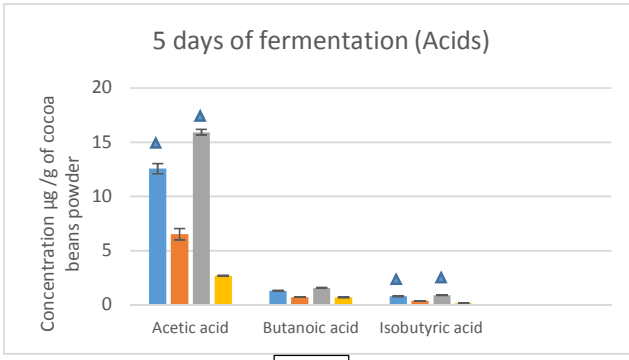
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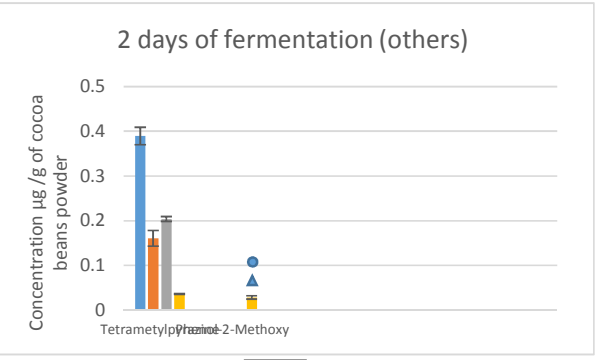
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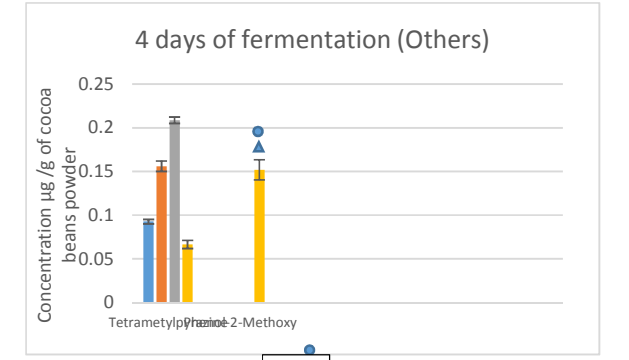
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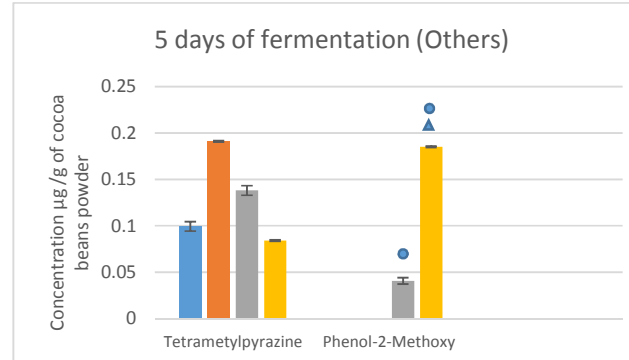
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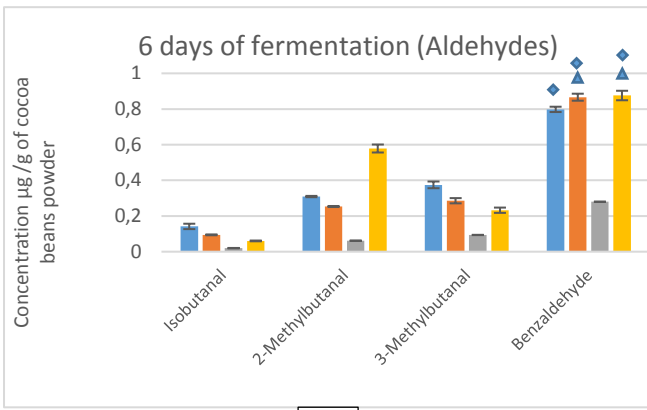
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■ 2F (Storage 2 days) ■ 2F+T (Storage 2 days)  
 ■ 2F (Storage 8 days) ■ 2F+T (Storage 8 days)

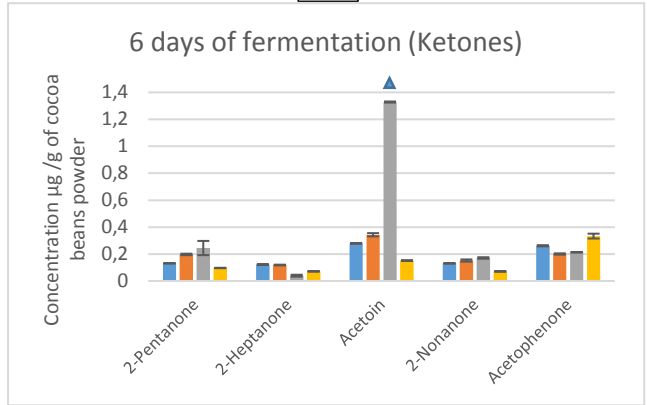
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■ 5F (Storage 2 days) ■ 5F+T (Storage 2 days)  
 ■ 5F (Storage 8 days) ■ 5F+T (Storage 8 days)

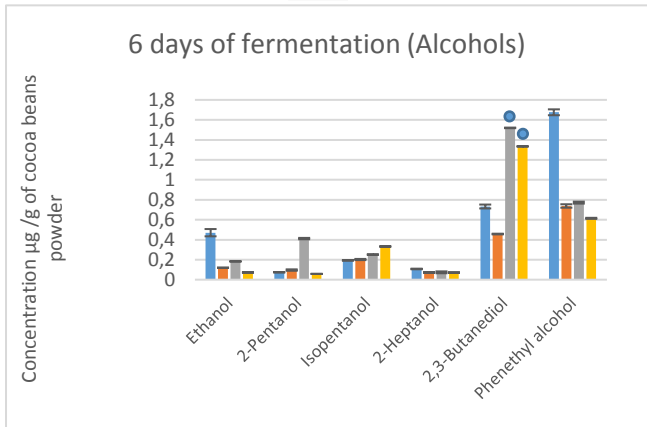
**Figure 5:** Concentration of aldehydes (a,g,m), ketones (b,h,n), alcohols (c,i,o), esters (d,j,p), acids (e,k,q) and other volatile compounds (f,l,r) produced in cocoa beans previously stored during 2 and 8 days, fermented 2 days (2F), 4 days (4F) , 5 days (5F) with turning (+T) and without turning.▲ indicates significant differences between fermentation with and without turning.● indicates significant differences between the two pods storage duration. ◆ indicates significant differences between fermentation times.



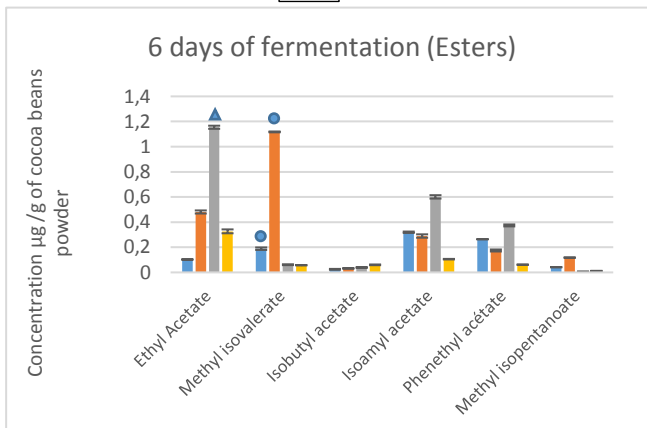
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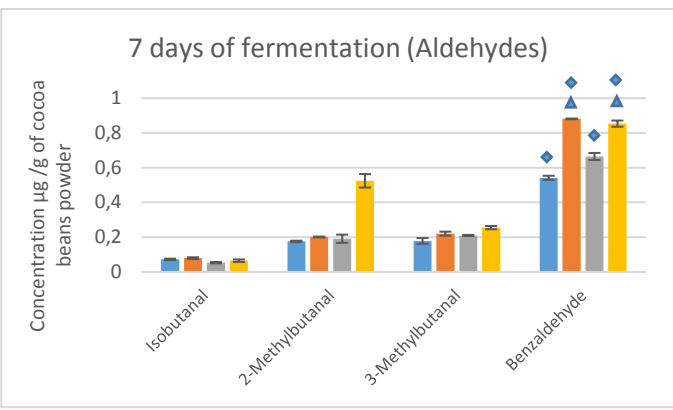
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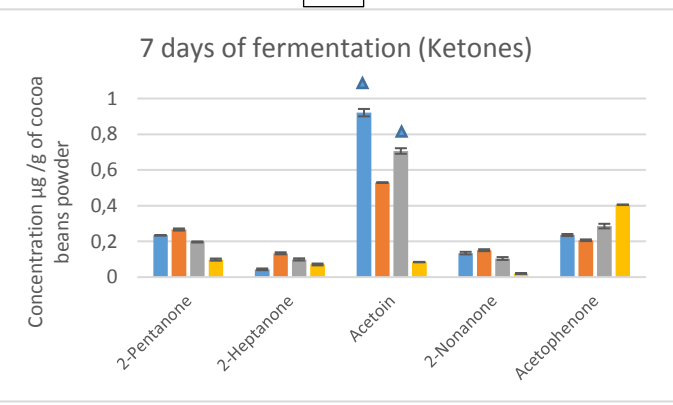
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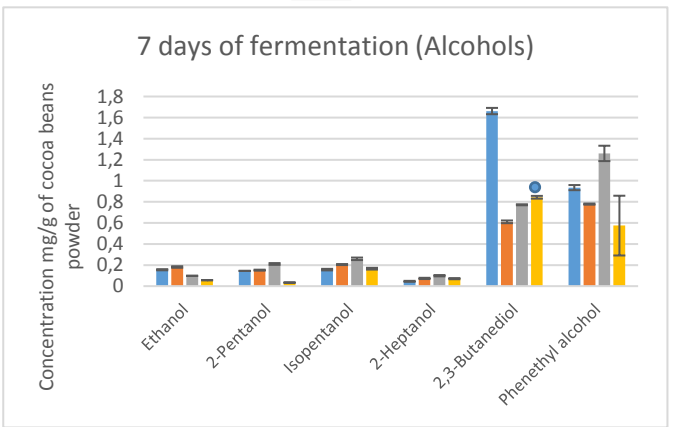
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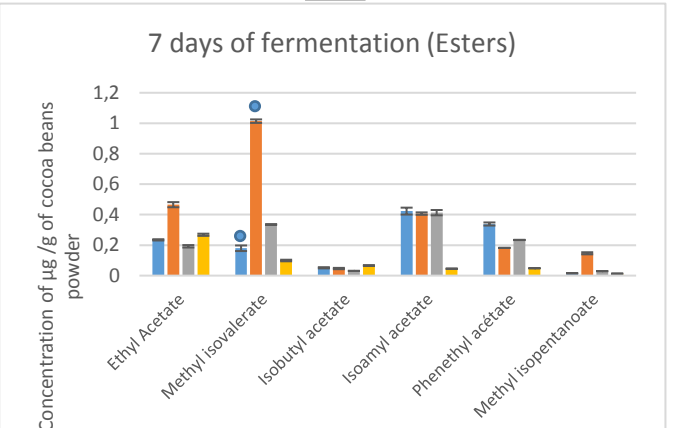
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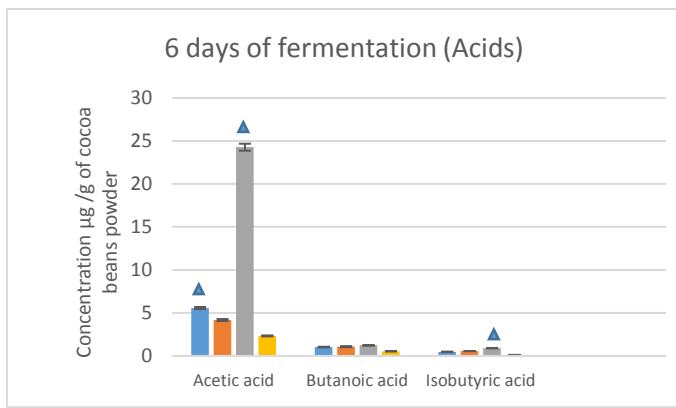
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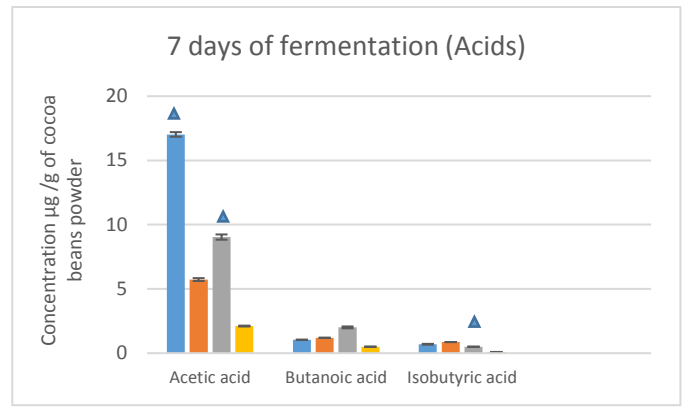
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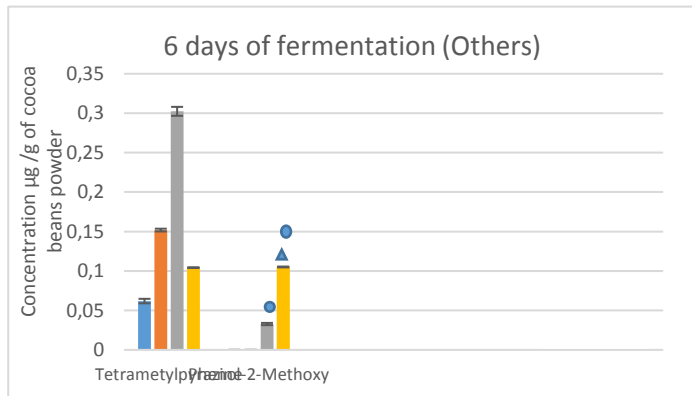
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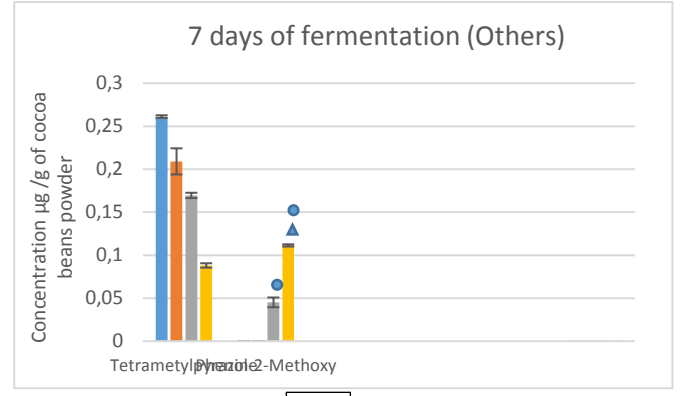
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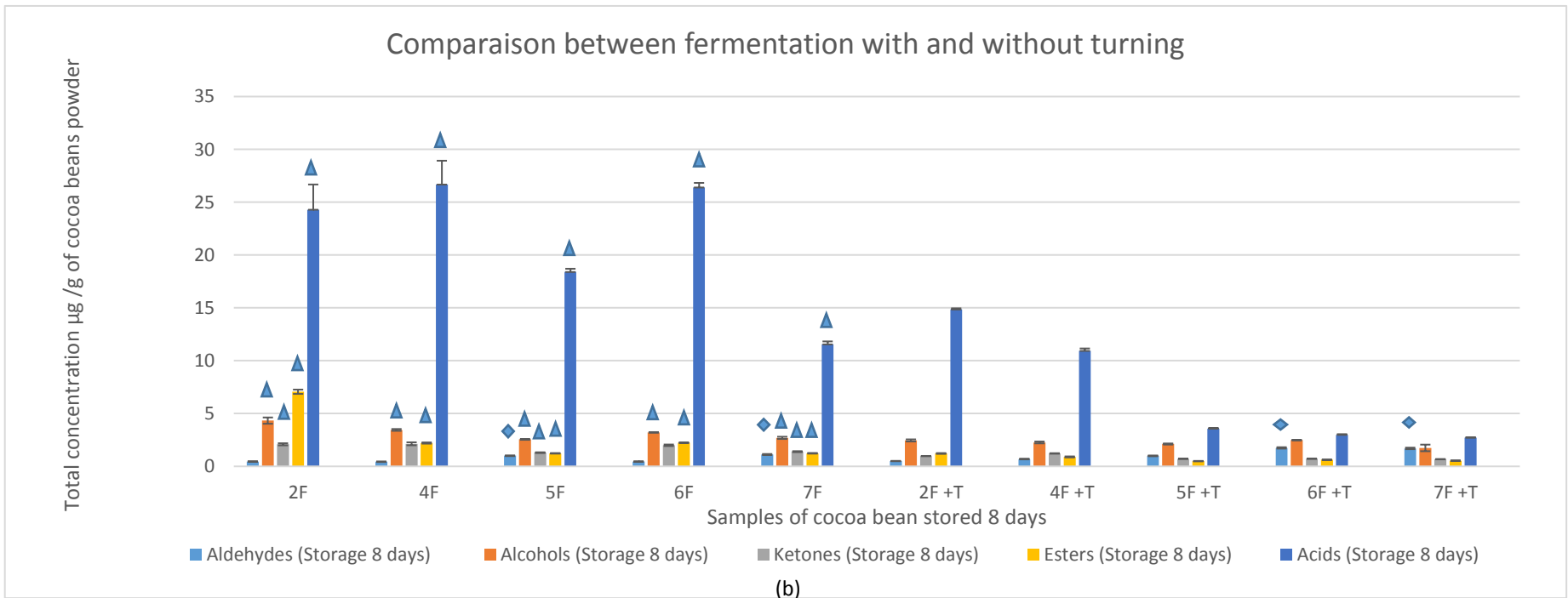
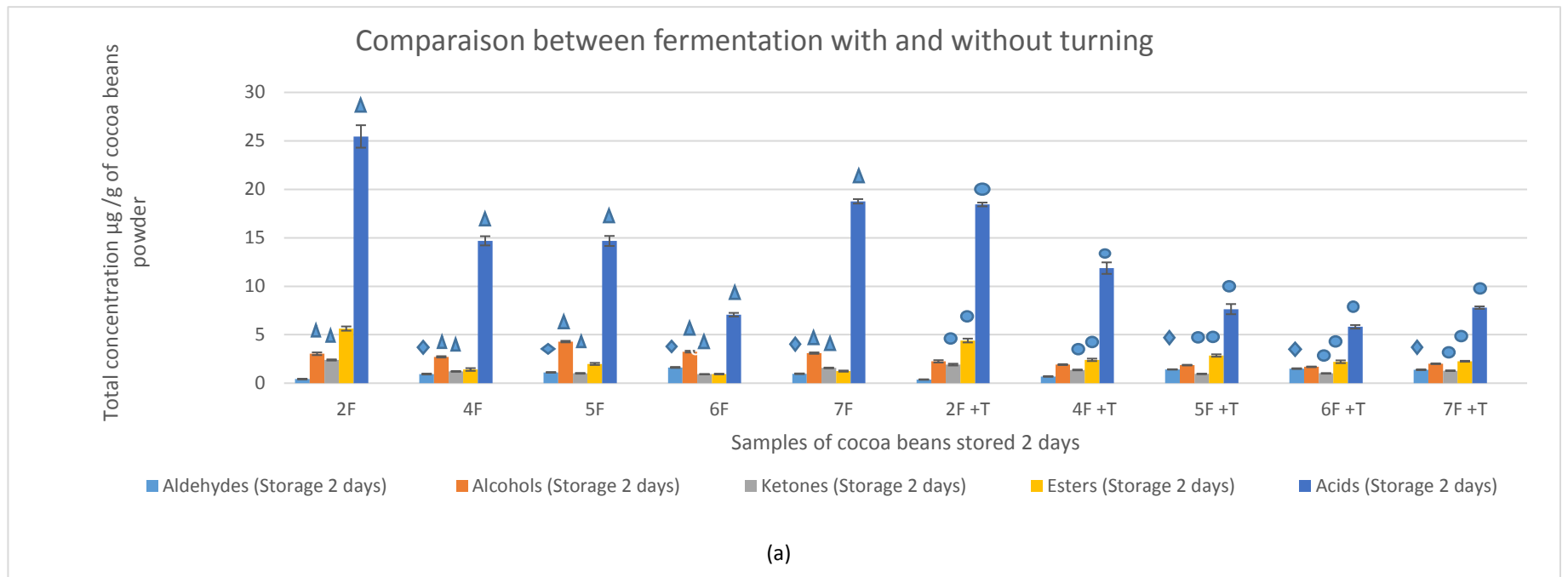


l

■ 6F (Storage 2 days) ■ 6F+T (Storage 2 days)  
 ■ 6F (Storage 8 days) ■ 6F+T (Storage 8 days)

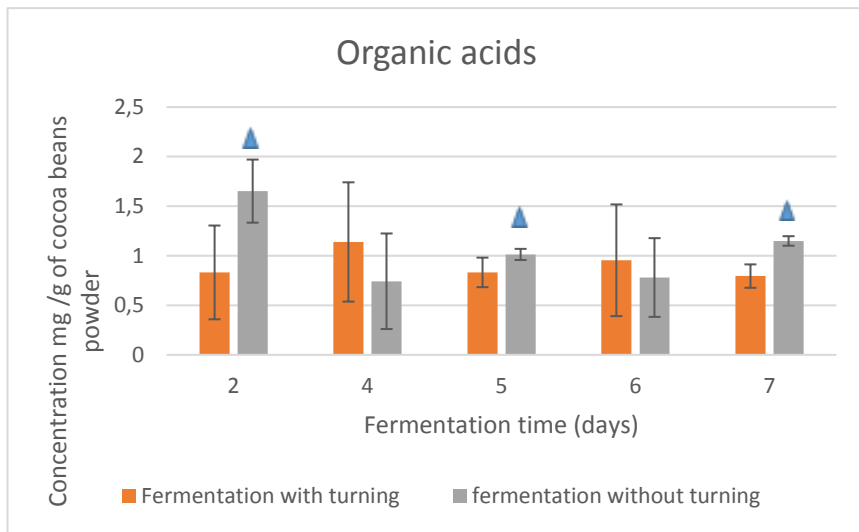
■ 7F (Storage 2 days) ■ 7F+T (Storage 2 days)  
 ■ 7F (Storage 8 days) ■ 7F+T (Storage 8 days)

**Figure 6:** Concentration of aldehydes (a,g), ketones (b,h), alcohols (c,i), esters (d,j), acids (e,k) and other volatile compounds (f,l) produced in cocoa beans previously stored during 2 and 8 days, fermented 6 days (6F) and 7 days (7F) with turning (+T) and without turning. ▲ indicates significant differences between fermentation with and without turning. ● indicates significant differences between the two pods storage duration. ◆ indicates significant differences between fermentation times.

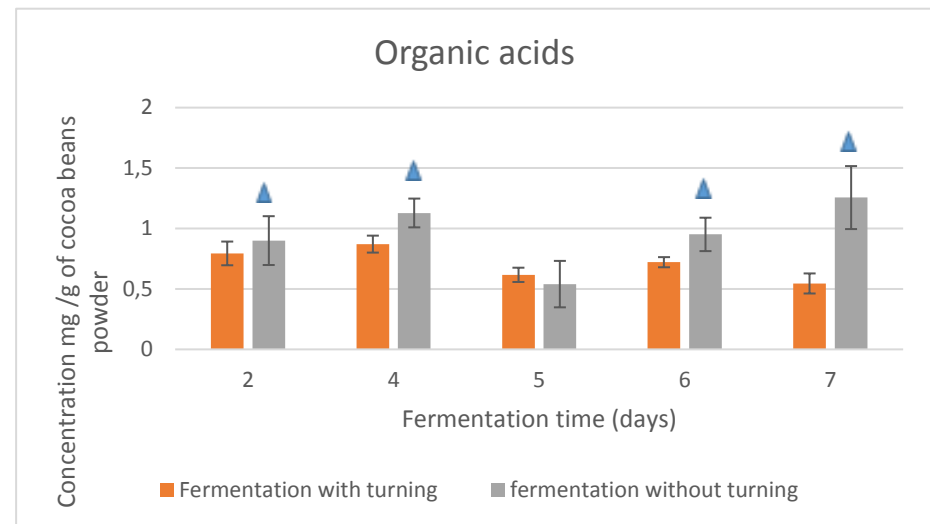


**Figure 7:** Total Concentration of volatile compounds produced in cocoa beans previously stored during 2 days (a) and 8 days (b), fermented without turning at 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 days (2F, 4F, 5F, 6F, 7F) and with turning (2F+T, 4F+T, 5F+T, 6F+T, 7F+T). ▲ indicates significant differences between fermentation with and without turning. ● indicates significant differences between the two pods storage duration. ◆ indicates significant differences between fermentation times.

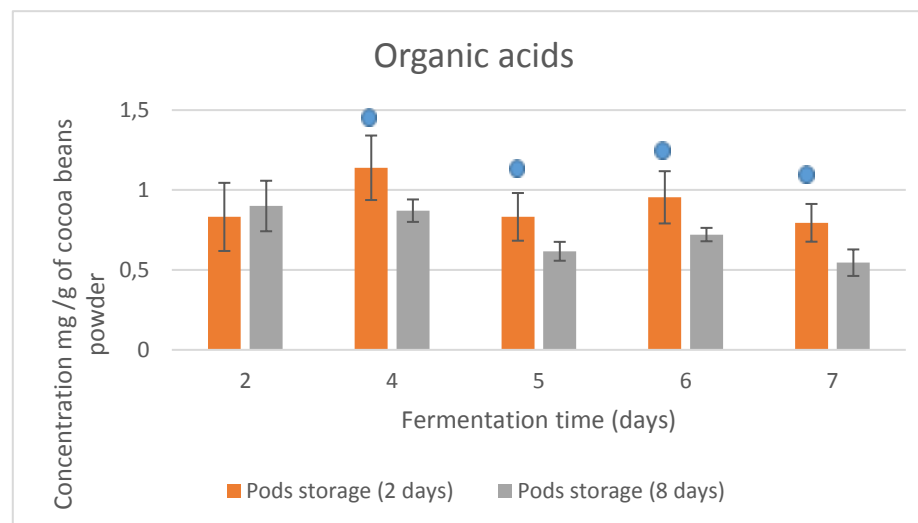




(a)

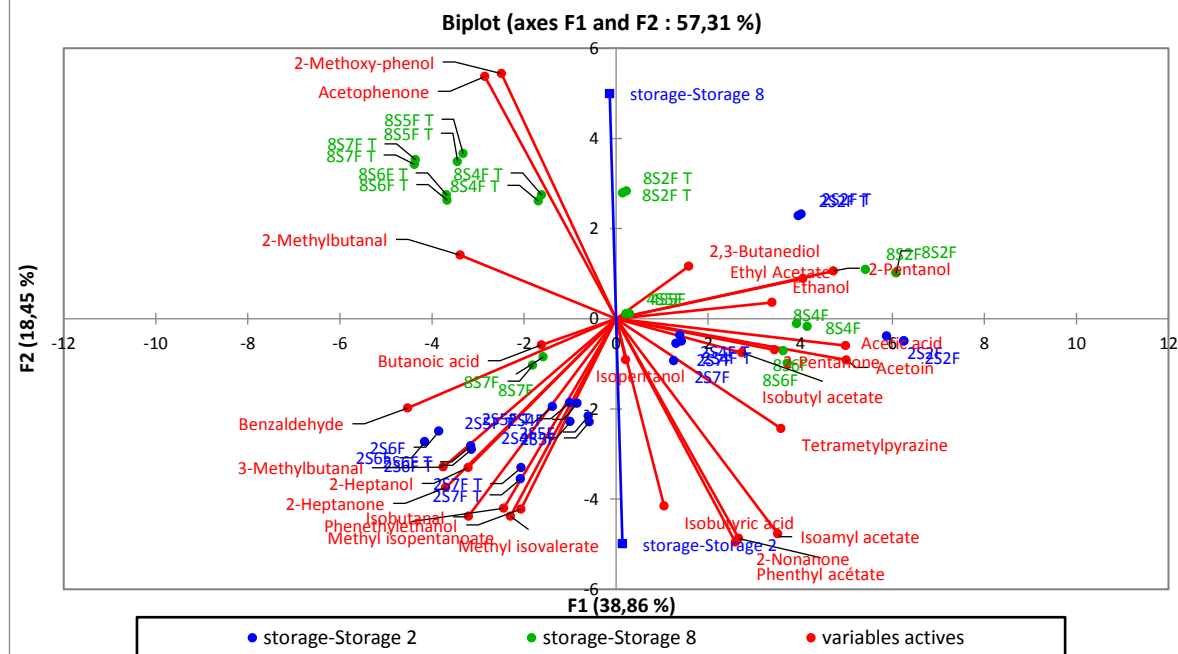
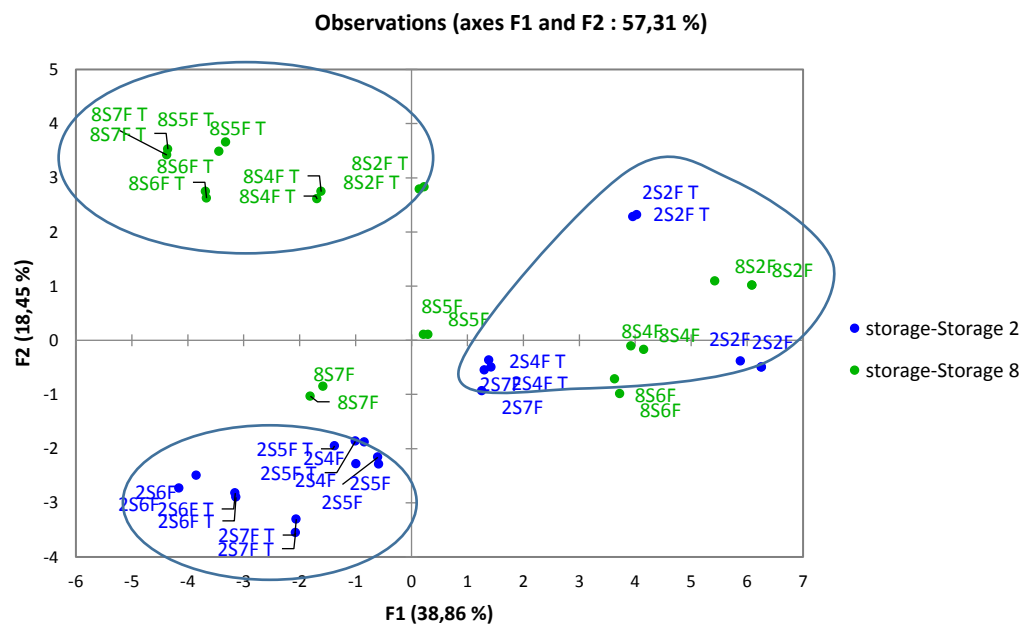


(b)

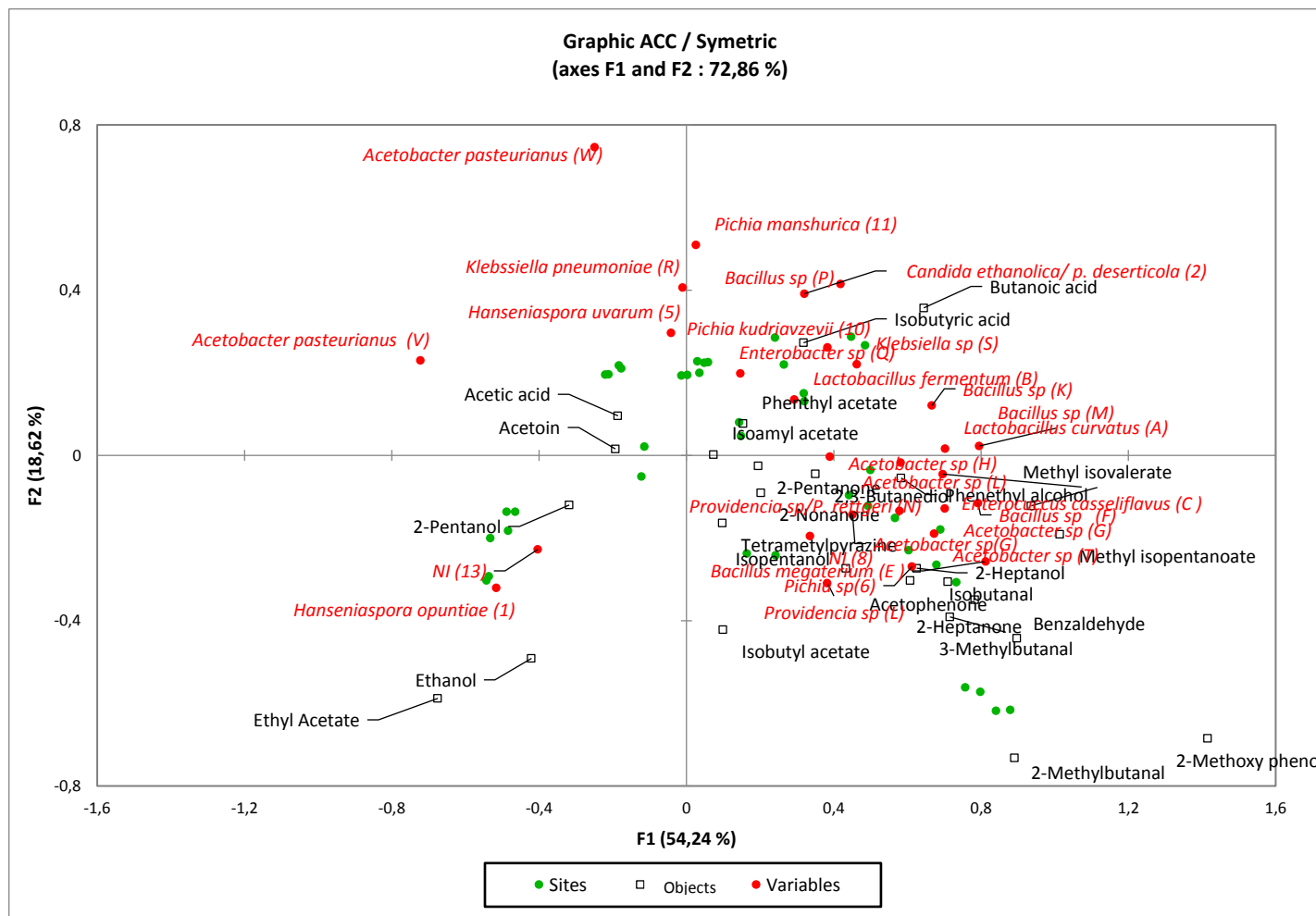


(c)

**Figure 8:** Concentration of organic acids present in cocoa beans previously stored during 2 days (a) and 8 days (b), fermented with turning and without turning. In (c) the two storage durations (2 and 8 days) were compared. ▲ indicates significant differences between fermentation with and without turning. ● indicates significant differences between the two pods storage duration.



**Figure 9** : Principal component analysis (PCA) of peak areas of volatiles compounds obtained from cocoa beans stored during 2 days, fermented with turning (2S2F T, 2S2F T, 2S4F T, 2S4F T, 2S5F T, 2S5F T, 2S6F T, 2S6F T, 2S7F T and 2S7F T) and without turning (2S2F , 2S2F , 2S4F , 2S4F , 2S5F , 2S5F , 2S6F , 2S6F , 2S7F and 2S7F) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation and from cocoa beans stored during 8 days, fermented with turning (8S2F T, 8S2F T, 8S4F T, 8S4F T, 8S5F T, 8S5F T, 8S6F T, 8S6F T, 8S7F T and 8S7F T) and without turning (8S2F , 8S2F , 8S4F , 8S4F , 8S5F , 8S5F , 8S6F , 8S6F , 8S7F and 8S7F) during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days fermentation.



**Figure 10:** Canonical analysis of correspondence (CAC) applied on microbial DGGE band profiles and peak areas obtained from cocoa beans stored during 2 and 8 days and fermented with and without turning during 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 days.

**Table 1: Identification of bacterial DNA bands isolated from DGGE experiment**

Band	Family/ Genus/species	Percent identity	Query cover	E-value	References
A	<i>Lactobacillus curvatus</i>	93%	99%	5e-74	FJ609221
Y	<i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	100%	100%	2e-97	KM021355
B	<i>Lactobacillus fermentum</i>	99%	100%	1e-95	LC042465
C	<i>Enterococcus casseliflavus</i>	99%	100%	1e-78	KJ571214
E	<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	94%	100%	2e-77	KJ004421
F	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	99%	100%	8e-97	HG794259
G	<i>Acetobacter sp</i>	98%	100%	1e-89	AB853266
H		98%	100%	6e-88	
J		99%	100%	2e-92	
T		90%	99%	1e-53	
X	<i>Acinetobacter sp</i>	92%	100%	2e-51	KJ814994
K	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	100%	100%	2e-97	KM983003
L	<i>Providencia sp</i>	90%	97%	5e-64	AB920789
M	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	90%	100%	5e-43	FJ235680
N	<i>Providencia sp</i>	97%	100%	2e-67	KM059194
O	<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	99%	100%	1e-95	LN623623
P	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	91%	97%	1e-53	KC236480
Q	<i>Enterobacter sp</i>	99%	100%	8e-97	GU944492
S	<i>Klebsiella sp</i>	92%	99%	7e-57	GQ416571
V	<i>Acetobacter pasteurianus</i>	100%	100%	1e-83	KM983001
W				5e-83	
R	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	100%	100%	2e-97	KP761422
D, I	NI				

NI: not identified band

**Table 2: Identification of DGGE bands for yeast species**

Band	Family/ Genus/ species	Percent identity	Query cover	E-value	References
1	<i>Hanseniaspora opuntiae</i>	98%	100%	6e-93	KC111446
2	<i>Candida ethanolica/ Pichia deserticola</i>	93%	100%	8e-56	KM234475
3	<i>Pichia sp</i>	99%	100%	1e-79	JX408867
4	<i>Pichia galeiformis</i>	93%	100%	3e-76	HM212622
5	<i>Hanseniaspora uvarum</i>	93%	100%	4e-65	KM816746
9	<i>Pichia sp</i>	95%	100%	4e-65	EU884437
10	<i>Pichia kudriavzevii</i>	99%	100%	2e-47	KC494718
11	<i>Pichia manshurica</i>	99%	100%	7e-11	JQ419868
12	<i>Candida ethanolica/ Pichia deserticola</i>	93%	99%	2e-64	KM005182
6, 7, 13	NI				

NI: not identified band

**Table 3: Volatiles compounds identified in cocoa beans fermented with and without turning**

Group	RT (min)	RI	RI*	Compound
Aldehydes	1.50	811	821	Isobutanal
	2.15	910	912	2-Methylbutanal
	2.19	913	910	3-Methylbutanal
	28.06	1497	1495	Benzaldehyde
Ketones	2.94	971	984	2-Pentanone
	9.51	1153	1170	2-Heptanone
	21.06	1367	1388	2-Nonanone
	35.21	1629	1645	Acetophenone
	14.83	1252	1272	Acetoin
Esters	1.94	886	885	Ethyl acetate
	2.28	920	916	Methyl isovalerate
	3.60	1011	1005	Isobutyl acetate
	3.72	1016	1015	Methyl isopentanoate
	6.92	1105	1117	Isoamyl acetate
	44.55	1802	1803	Phenylethyl acetate
Alcohols	2.46	934	929	Ethanol
	7.42	1115	1118	2-Pentanol
	11.44	1189	1206	Isopentanol
	17.96	1310	1332	2-Heptanol
	33.03	1588	1582	2,3-Butanediol
	49.58	1895	1925	2-Phenylethanol
Acids	24.26	1426	1449	Acetic acid
	32.01	1570	1588	Isobutyric acid
	37.58	1680	1691	Isovaleric acid
Others	26.06	1460	1468	Tetramethylpyrazine
	46.73	1842	1848	2-Methoxy-phenol

\*: Odour description and Retention Index (RI) obtained from literature: (Serra-Bonvehí, 2005; Rodriguez-Campos et al., 2011; 2012).

**RI:** Retention Index calculated

**RT:** Retention time

