

Effect of Glasswort (*Salicornia herbacea* L.) on Microbial Community Variations in the Vinegar-making Process and Vinegar Characteristics

Seo, Ha Na¹, Bo Young Jeon¹, Aram Yun², and Doo Hyun Park^{1*}

¹Department of Biological Engineering, Seokyeong University, Seoul 136-704, Korea ²Department of Beauty Art, Seokyeong University, Seoul 136-704, Korea

Received: March 26, 2010 / Revised: June 6, 2010 / Accepted: June 14, 2010

Three types of *nuruk* were made from rice, wheat, and a rice-glasswort (6:4) mixture. Nuruk, makgeolli, and vinegar were manufactured with rice nuruk (RN), wheat nuruk (WN), and rice-glasswort nuruk (RGN). The variable region of 18S or 16S rDNA amplified with genomic DNA extracted directly from nuruk-, makgeolli-, and vinegarmaking cultures was analyzed via temperature gradient gel electrophoresis (TGGE). The sequence of the 18S rDNA variable region extracted from the TGGE gel for nuruk was 99% homologous with Aspergillus sp. and that for the makgeolli-making culture was 99% homologous with Saccharomyces sp. and Saccharomycodes sp. The sequence of the 16S rDNA variable region extracted from TGGE gel for the vinegar-making culture was 98% homologous, primarily with the Acetobacter sp. The eukaryotic and prokaryotic diversities in the nuruk-, makgeolli-, and vinegar-making cultures was not significantly altered by the addition of glasswort. Prokaryotic diversity was higher than eukaryotic diversity in the nuruk, but eukaryotic diversity was higher than prokaryotic diversity in the makgeolli-making culture, on the basis of the TGGE patterns. No 18S rDNA was amplified from the DNA extracted from the vinegar-making culture. The diversity of the microbial community in the process from nuruk to vinegar was slightly affected by the type of raw material utilized for nuruk-making. The saccharifying activity and ethanol productivity of nuruk, polyphenol content in makgeolli, and acetic acid and polyphenol content in the vinegar were increased as a result of the addition of glasswort. In conclusion, the glasswort may be not simply an activator for the growth of microorganisms during the fermentation of nuruk, makgeolli, or vinegar, but also a nutritional supplement that improves the quality of vinegar.

*Corresponding author

Phone: +82-2-940-7190; Fax: +82-2-919-0345;

E-mail: baakdoo@skuniv.ac.kr

Key words: Glasswort, nuruk, makgeolli, vinegar, TGGE

Traditionally, Korean nuruk is made from wheat by natural inoculation with airborne microorganisms consisting mostly of fungi, yeasts, and various bacteria, in which raw materials were not pasteurized or sterilized [11, 28, 33]. Crushed or ground wheat and barley have also been utilized as raw materials for *nuruk*-making [12]. During the process of brewing Japanese sake, rice starch is biochemically converted to glucose by the saccharifying enzymes produced by koji (Aspergillus oryzae), and the glucose is biologically converted to ethanol via the fermentation metabolism of sake yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) [30, 32]. The koji may function similarly to muruk, based on the saccharification of rice starch in the makgeolli- or sake-making process. The nutrient ingredients of rice are quite similar to those of wheat, according to the Food Composition Table (7th Ed) presented by the Korean Rural Resources Development Institute [26]; however, the minerals, vitamins, and protein contents of rice are 20~40% lower than those of wheat. Glasswort contains relatively high minerals, like seaweed, but substantially lower protein and carbohydrate than are contained in rice and wheat [21]. Glasswort has been reported to harbor a variety of physiologically active compounds: namely, betaine, taurine, polyphenol, and antioxidants [78, 13, 17]. The physiologically active compounds and minerals may activate microorganisms for nuruk-making, via which the biochemical and biological functions of nuruk for the fermentation of makgeolli may be improved.

Glasswort extraction or powder has been utilized for a variety of food- or cosmetic-making processes *via* mixing or addition [2, 9, 16]. The characteristics of *nuruk* and *makgeolli* may be determined in accordance with the physiological activity of microorganisms grown in the *nuruk*- or *makgeolli*-making cultures. The nutrients of glasswort added to *nuruk*-making cultures can be extracted effectively by

microorganisms, and the growth of microorganisms may be activated by this process. The long-term contact of glasswort with microorganisms in the process from *nuruk* to vinegar may prove helpful for the extraction of insoluble or delayed-soluble compounds.

The diversity or variation of the microbial communities grown in *nuruk-*, *makgeolli-*, and vinegar-making cultures is difficult to estimate *via* the isolation of microorganisms. For the most probable detection of the microorganisms from the *nuruk-*, *makgeolli-*, and vinegar-making cultures, the TGGE technique was employed. DNA extracted directly from the *nuruk-*, *makgeolli-*, and vinegar-making cultures was amplified using the specific primers for the 16S (18S) rDNA and variable region of 16S (18S) rDNA.

In this study, the characteristics of *nuruk*, *makgeolli*, and vinegar made using rice nuruk (RN), wheat *nuruk* (WN), and rice-glasswort *nuruk* (RGN) were compared on the basis of specific indices in order to estimate the effects of glasswort on the characteristics of vinegar. The diversity or variation in the eukaryotic and prokaryotic communities grown in the *nuruk-*, *makgeolli-*, and vinegar-making cultures were analyzed on the basis of the sequence homologies of DNAs extracted from the TGGE gels.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

All chemicals were purchased from the Korean branch of Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.) with the exception of the ingredients utilized to prepare the medium.

Desalting and Grinding of Glasswort

Dried glasswort purchased from Buan Hamcho (Buan, Cheonranamdo, Korea) was soaked for 30 min in running tap water for washing and desalting. The desalted glasswort was then dried under sunlight for 24 h, and ground to a particle size of less than 50 mesh using a ceramic ball mill (SW-BM117, 11.5-l volume; SW Eng, Seoul, Korea).

Preparation of Nuruk

Roughly ground (less than 50 meshes) wheat and rice were moistened with distilled water and cast in round-shaped molds (diameter 25 cm ×height 5 cm). The ratio of ground rice and glasswort was adjusted to 6:4 based on weight. The moistened mixture of rice and glasswort (rice–glasswort mixture) was then cast in the same manner as were the others. The prepared *nuruk*-making materials were then incubated for 80 h at 30° C under unventilated conditions, and then incubated for 7 to 10 days at 25° C under ventilated conditions until they had naturally and completely dried.

Saccharifying Activity of Nuruk

Approximately 100 g of ground *nuruk* was suspended in tap water to prepare 1,000 ml of slurry. The slurry was then shaken for 60 min at 4°C and 200 strokes to extract the soluble proteins, and then centrifuged for 30 min at 4°C and 5,000 \times g. Then 1 g of soluble starch was added to 100 ml of the *nuruk* supernatant and incubated

for 30 min at 30°C with shaking (120 rpm). The protein concentration was determined with Bradford reagent (BioRad, Hercules, CA, U.S.A.) and bovine serum albumin (BioRad, Hercules, CA, U.S.A.). Glucose generated by the saccharifying enzyme of *nuruk* extract was determined *via* HPLC.

Preparation for Polyphenol Content Analysis

The *makgeolli*-making culture, which was incubated for 7 days, was centrifuged for 60 min at 4°C and 5,000 ×*g* to obtain clear supernatants. The supernatants were then filtered with a membrane filter (pore size 0.22 μ m) and diluted with double-distilled water in the range of a standard curve. The vinegar-making culture, which was incubated for 50 days, was centrifuged for 60 min at 4°C and 5,000 ×*g* to obtain the clear supernatants.

Polyphenol Content Determination

Polyphenol contents were determined *via* the Prussian Blue spectrophotometric method [9, 22]. First, 3.0 ml of 0.1 M FeCl₃ in 0.1 M HCl was added to 1 ml of the supernatant, followed immediately by the timed addition of 3.0 ml of freshly prepared 0.008 M K₃Fe(CN)₆. The absorbance was then measured *via* spectrophotometry (Shimadzu UV-1601, Tokyo, Japan) at 720 nm for 10 min after the introduction of the reagents. A standard curve was prepared to express the results as tannic acid equivalents; that is, the quantity of tannic acid (mg/l) required to achieve a color intensity equivalent to that of the polyphenols after blank correction.

Brewing of Makgeolli

Approximately 2 kg of rice soaked in water for 48 h was steamed for 60 min and cooled to room temperature. Then 500-g measures of RN, WN, and RGN powder were separately added to the steamed rice samples and mixed thoroughly. The mixtures of *nuruk* and steamed rice were then placed into glass carboys (Pyrex No 1596, 19L; Corning, U.S.A.) and incubated for 7 days at 25°C, after the addition of 3.0 l of boiled tap water to each. HPLC analysis was subsequently conducted in order to evaluate ethanol production from the *makgeolli* cultures. The final products were designated RN-, WN-, and RGN-*makgeolli*, based on the materials used for *nuruk*making.

Brewing of Vinegar

Makgeolli that was prepared with RGN, WN, and RN was filtered with 50-mesh filters, after which the filtrate was diluted 2× with autoclaved distilled water and placed into glass carboys (Pyrex No 1596, 13L; Corning, U.S.A.), and then incubated for 50 days without inoculation of specific vinegar starter. Thereafter, 10 ml of vinegar culture was sampled from the carboys for DNA analysis every 10 days. The final products were designated as RGN-, WN-, and RN-vinegar based on the *makgeolli* utilized for vinegar fermentation.

Analysis of Sugar and Alcohol

The ethanol generated from the glucose-defined medium with and without glasswort or *makgeolli* cultures was analyzed *via* HPLC (Young-Lin, Seoul, Korea) using an Aminex HPX-87H ion-exchange column (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, U.S.A.) and a refractive index detector (Young-Lin, Seoul, Korea). The column and detector were adjusted to a temperature of 35° C. The mobile phase was sulfuric acid (0.008 N) and the flow rate was 0.6 ml/min. The samples prepared *via* 30 min of centrifugation at 12,000 ×g and 4°C were filtered

Analysis of Organic Acids and Minerals

The organic acid contents of the samples were analyzed *via* HPLC (Beckman, Coulter System Gold, Brea, CA, U.S.A.) with an ionexclusion column (Shodex, Rspak KC-811; Showa Denko, Tokyo, Japan) and a refractive index detector (Shodex, RI-101; Showa Denko, Tokyo, Japan). The column and detector were adjusted to a temperature of 40°C. The mobile phase was HClO₄ (6 mM) with the flow rate adjusted to 0.8 ml/min. The samples prepared *via* 30 min of centrifugation at 12,000 ×g and 4°C were filtered through a 0.22µm-pore PVDF membrane filter. Then 30 µl of filtrate was then injected into the HPLC injector. The organic acid concentrations were calculated on the basis of the peak area in the chromatograms generated using standard materials.

The minerals were analyzed using an Inductively Coupled Plasma (ICP) spectrophotometer (Spectro CCD-ICP; Boschstr, Kleve, Germany). The supernatant obtained from the *makgeolli* was filtered with a 0.22-µm-pore PVDF membrane filter and diluted 20-fold. The diluted filtrate was then directly injected into the ICP injector under specific wavelengths for Mg (279.553 nm), Na (589.592 nm), K (766.491 nm), Ca (396.847 nm), and Fe (2579.941 nm). The concentrations of minerals were calculated on the basis of the absorbance obtained with standard materials (AccuTrace Reference Standard; AccuStandard, New Haven, CT, U.S.A.) and at standard dilution rates.

Temperature Gradient Gel Electrophoresis

The 16S rDNA amplified from chromosomal DNA was employed as a template for the preparation of the TGGE sample (16S rDNA variable region). A variable region of 16S rDNA was amplified with forward primer (eubacteria, V3 region) 341f 5'-CCTACGGGAGGC AGCAG-3' and reverse primer (universal, V3 region) 518r 5'-ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG-3'. A GC clamp (5'-CGCCCGCCGCG CGCGGCGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGCACGGGGGGCCTACGGGAG GCAGCAG-3') was attached to the 5'-end of the GC341f primer [18]. The procedures for PCR and DNA sequencing were identical to the 16S rDNA amplification conditions, with the exception of the annealing temperature.

The 18S rDNA amplified from chromosomal DNA was utilized as a template for the preparation of the TGGE sample (18S rDNA variable region). A variable region of 18S rDNA was amplified with forward primer (wide range of fungal taxa) EF3 5'-TCCTCTAAAT

Amplification and Identification of TGGE Bands

DNA was extracted from the TGGE band and purified using a DNA gel purification kit (Accuprep, Bioneer, Korea). The purified DNA was then amplified with the same primers and procedures employed for TGGE sample preparation, in which the GC clamp was not attached to the forward primer. The species-specific identities of the amplified variable 16S rDNA and 18S rDNA were determined on the basis of sequence homology, according to the information in the GenBank database system.

RESULTS

Functional Character of Nuruk, Makgeolli, and Vinegar

Makgeolli fermented with RN, WN, and RGN was utilized as a source for vinegar fermentation. The effects of glasswort on the saccharifying activity of the completed *nuruk*, alcohol and polyphenol contents in the completely fermented *makgeolli*, and acetic acid and polyphenol contents in the completely fermented vinegar were estimated, as shown in Table 1. The ethanol content in *makgeolli* may be proportional to the saccharifying activity of *nuruk*, and the acetic acid content in vinegar may be proportional to the ethanol concentration. Accordingly, the biochemical function of *nuruk* may be a crucial factor in the determination of vinegar characteristics. Glasswort may be a factor in activating the growth of the microorganisms capable of saccharifying

Table 1. Effects of glasswort on the functional character of products manufactured in each step from the *muruk*- to vinegar-making process.

_	Quantitative estimation of products in each step					
Nuruks	^a Saccharifying activity of <i>nuruk</i> (g/l)	^b Ethanol in <i>makgeolli</i> (g/l)	°Polyphenol in <i>makgeolli</i> (mg/l)	^d Acetic acid in vinegar (g/l)	Polyphenol in vinegar (mg/l)	
RN	1.41±0.1	93.3±2.4	21.4±2.1	52.6±3.6	9.3±0.8	
WN	1.39±0.1	91.7±3.5	21.9±1.8	53.7±2.8	8.9 ± 0.4	
RGN	2.02 ± 0.1	123.3±3.2	68.4±3.3	70.8±3.2	56.7±3.8	

^aGlucose produced from starch by 10% (w/v) of *nuruk* slurry for 30 min.

^bEthanol produced from rice by three different *nuruks* for 7 days.

^cPolyphenol content in supernatant of *makgeolli* obtained by centrifugation.

^dAcetic acid produced from *makgeolli* by fermentation for 50 days.

starch and a source for additional polyphenols in the makgeolli and vinegar. If the glasswort was added to the makgeolli or vinegar, the nutrients in the glasswort may be extracted simply with ethanol or acetic acid, but may not be an important factor in the activation of the microorganisms. Glasswort may induce the microorganisms to generate more saccharifying enzymes in the nuruk-making cultures, based on the differences in glucose production activity between RGN and RN. The differences in ethanol production activities between RGN and RN may be caused by differences in sugar concentration and glasswort's effects on yeast activity. Experimentally, Saccharomyces cerevisiae generated 9.7 g/l of ethanol, but 72.4 g/l of ethanol via the addition of 20 g/l of glasswort in 180 g/l of glucose solution for 48 h. The *makgeolli* fermented by RGN may contain glasswort extract and higher ethanol contents than in the other makgeolli variants fermented with RN or WN. This causes the concentration of acetic acid produced from RGN-makgeolli to be higher than that from the RN- or WN-makgeolli.

Microbial Community Diversity in the *Nuruk*-Making Cultures

The eukaryotic and prokaryotic microorganisms grown in the *nuruk*-making cultures were analyzed *via* TGGE, as shown in Fig. 1 and 2. Eukaryotic diversity was not especially affected by the addition of glasswort (Fig. 1). The predominant eukaryotes in the *nuruk*-making cultures were identified as *Aspergillus oryzae*, the DNA of which

Table 2. Concentration of organic acids and minerals contained in vinegar that were produced by additional fermentation of RN-, WN-, and RGN-*makgeolli*.

Contonta (ma/l)	Vinegars			
Contents (ing/1)	RN	WN	RGN	
Citric acid	-	-	1,614±58	
Malic acid	-	-	$1,793\pm96$	
Succinic acid	-	-	735±42	
Lactic acid	4,092±120	4,314±156	$2,554\pm89$	
Acetic acid	52,619±288	53,753±302	70,169±532	
Pyroglutamic acid	401±16	292±13	2,214±109	
Ca	26.85±1.5	22.21±1.3	77.78±2.4	
Fe	0.81 ± 0.1	1.45 ± 0.2	10.25 ± 0.8	
K	172.9±6.3	170.7 ± 4.1	329.5 ± 8.1	
Mg	74.4±1.5	84.2±1.6	207.5±1.8	

All data are mean values obtained by three identical experiments and analyses.

was extracted from the major TGGE bands. The prokaryotic diversity was increased slightly by the addition of glasswort (lane 1, Fig. 2). The DNA sequence extracted from the TGGE gel was more than 98% homologous with *Pediococcus* sp. (Gram-positive lactic acid bacterium), *Kyotococcus* sp. (soil bacterium), *Micrococcus* sp. (soil bacterium), *Bacillus* sp. (soil bacterium), and *Streptomyces* sp. (soil bacterium), respectively, as shown in Table 3. *Pediococcus acidilactici* (band no. 4) was observed commonly in RGN and RN, *Micrococcus* sp. (band no. 7) and *Streptomyces* sp. (band





Fig. 1. TGGE pattern of the 18S rDNA variable region amplified with genomic DNA extracted from RGN (lane 1), WN (lane 2), and RN (lane 3).

The homologous microorganisms with DNAs extracted from the numbered bands are arranged in the order of the band numbers in Table 3.

Fig. 2. TGGE pattern of the 16S rDNA variable region amplified with genomic DNA extracted from RGN (lane 1), WN (lane 2), and RN (lane 3).

The homologous microorganisms with DNAs extracted from the numbered bands are arranged in the order of the band numbers in Table 3.

Band	Eukaryotes		Prokaryotes		
No.	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)	
1	Aspergillus oryzae (AP007155)	99	Uncultured bacterium (EU471728)	99	
2	Aspergillus oryzae (AB226217)	99	Uncultured bacterium (EU776571)	99	
3	Aspergillus niger (AJ878650)	98	Uncultured bacterium (EU472921)	98	
4	Aspergillus oryzae (AB226239)	100	Pediococcus acidilactici (AB018212)	100	
5	-	-	Kyotococcus sp. (DQ107403)	99	
6	-	-	Pediococcus acidilactici (FJ751795)	99	
7	-	-	Micrococcus sp. (EU358178)	100	
8	-	-	Streptomyces sp. (EU554280)	100	
9	-	-	Bacillus subtilis (DQ195067)	98	
10	-	-	Bacillus licheniformis (GQ169102)	99	
11	-	-	Streptomyces sp. (EU554280)	100	

Table 3. Microorganisms that are homologous with DNA extracted from the numbered bands in the TGGE performed for analysis of microbial community variation during cultivation of *nuruk* (Fig. 1 and 2).

no. 8) were observed commonly in RGN and WN, and *Streptomyces* sp. (band no. 11) was observed in only WN. From these results, we conclude that some of the bacterial species grown in the *nuruk*-making cultures originated from a specific raw material (rice, wheat, or glasswort).



Fig. 3. Time-coursed variation of the TGGE pattern of the 18S rDNA variable region amplified with genomic DNA extracted from the *makgeolli* fermented by RGN (lanea 1,4,7,10), WN (lanes 2,5,8,11), and RN (lanes 3,6,9,12) at the 1st day (lanes 1,2,3), 3rd day (lanes 4,5,6), 5th day (lanes 7,8,9), and 7th day (lanes 10,11,12) of incubation time.

The homologous microorganisms with DNAs extracted from the numbered bands are arranged in the order of the band numbers in Table 4.

Microbial Community Diversity in *Makgeolli*-Making Cultures

The *makgeolli*-making culture condition must be anaerobic and saturated with carbon dioxide during the active growth phase of yeast, from the 2^{nd} to 5^{th} days of incubation time, thus inhibiting or limiting prokaryotic growth. As is shown in Fig. 3 and 4, the prokaryotic diversity was substantially



Fig. 4. Time-coursed variation of the TGGE patters of the 16S rDNA variable region amplified with genomic DNA extracted from rice-*makgeolli* fermented by RGN (lanes 1,4,7,10), WN (lanes 2,5,8,11), and RN (lanes 3,6,9,12) at the 1st day (lanes 1,2,3), 3rd day (lanes 4,5,6) 5th day (lanes 7,8,9), and 7th day (lanes 10,11,12) of incubation time.

The homologous microorganisms with DNAs extracted from the numbered bands are arranged in the order of the band numbers in Table 4.

Band	Eukaryotes		Prokaryotes		
No.	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)	
1	Unidentified		Uncultured Bacillus sp. (GQ180959)	98	
2	Uncultured eukaryote (GU297613)	99	Uncultured bacterium (AM273913)	99	
3	Unidentified		Uncultured bacterium (FJ674120)	99	
4	Uncultured eukaryote (EU860642)	99	Uncultured bacterium (GQ866181)	99	
5	Uncultured eukaryote (AB505568)	99	Uncultured bacterium (AM292547)	99	
6	Unidentified		Uncultured Bacillus sp. (GQ471880)	99	
7	Unidentified		Unidentified		
8	Unidentified		Unidentified		
9	<i>Candida</i> sp. (EF550423)	98	Uncultured bacterium (EF521194)	99	
10	Saccharomycodes ludwigii (AY046261)	99	Unidentified		
11	Saccharomyces sp. (GU213443)	100	Unidentified		
12	Uncultured eukaryote (FN394745)	99	-	-	
13	Uncultured fungal clone (FJ779910)	99	-	-	
14	Unidentified		-	-	

Table 4. Microorganisms that are homologous with DNA extracted from the numbered bands in the TGGE performed for analysis of microbial community variation during cultivation of *makgeolli* (Fig. 3 and 4).

lower than the eukaryotic diversity, as anticipated. In particular, the eukaryotic diversity was maximally increased at the 3rd and 5th days of incubation. The majority of 18S rDNA extracted from the TGGE gels was identified with the uncultured eukaryotes. The DNA that was observed commonly (lane 11) and mostly (lane 10) in the TGGE gels for all samples obtained from the makgeolli-making cultures during 7 days of incubation was identified as that of Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Saccharomycodes ludwigii, respectively. Some TGGE bands (nos. 6, 7, 8, and 14) were observed in the makgeolli culture at the initial incubation time and then disappeared, but some of them (nos. 10 and 11) were maintained during incubation for 7 days of incubation however, some of them (nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) appeared late at the mid or end stage of incubation. These results present a clue that some of uncultured eukaryotes grown in the makgeolli culture may be dependent upon the environmental condition generated by yeast cells. Meanwhile, the sequences of the DNA bands extracted from TGGE gels for the 16S rDNA variable region were identified primarily as being from uncultured bacteria, with the exception of one that was identified as Bacillus sp., and some other unidentified bacteria, as shown in Table 4.

Microbial Community Diversity in Vinegar-Making Culture

DNA was directly extracted from the samples obtained from vinegar-making cultures and then amplified with primers for the amplification of 16S rDNA and 18S rDNA; however, 18S rDNA was not amplified or was weakly detected on agarose gels (data not shown). The amplified 16S rDNA variable region was analyzed *via* TGGE, as shown in Fig. 5. The initial community diversity in the RGN- and WN-vinegar-making cultures was higher than that observed

in the RN-vinegar-making culture. However, the majority of DNA extracted from the TGGE gel was identified with the uncultured bacteria, with the exception of *Lactobacillus* sp. (band number 8), *Lactobacillus nagelii* (band number 9), and *Deinococcus* sp. (band number 28), as shown in Table 5. The bacterial community diversities were significantly simplified after 30 days of incubation. *Acetobacter* sp. was spontaneously enriched after 30 days of incubation, but bacterial species other than *Lactobacillus* sp. (band number 8 in Fig. 5A) selectively disappeared.

Organic Acids and Minerals Contained in Vinegars

Organic acids contained in the vinegar may be generated by a variety of organic acid fermentation bacteria, with the exception of acetic acid, which is generated principally by Acetobacter sp. or Gluconobacter sp. As is shown in Table 2, citric acid, malic acid, and succinic acid were contained selectively in the RGN-vinegar. The acetic acid content of RNG-vinegar was approximately 1.3 times that measured in the RN- and WN-vinegars; however, the lactic acid content was approximately 0.6 times lower. The pyroglutamic acid content of RGN-vinegar was significantly higher than those of the RN- and WN-vinegars. The difference in organic acid contents between the RGN- and RN-vinegars may originate from differences in the microbial growth conditions that may be caused by the addition of glasswort to the nuruk-making cultures. The Ca, Fe, K, and Mg contents of RGN-vinegar were higher than those of the RN- and WN-vinegars. In particular, the Fe contents of the RGN-vinegar were approximately 13 and 7 times those of the RN- and WN-vinegars, respectively. The differences in mineral content between the RGN- and RN-vinegars may be caused by the effects of the addition of glasswort to rice during the nuruk-making process.



Fig. 5. Time-coursed variation of the TGGE pattern of the 16S rDNA variable region amplified with genomic DNA extracted from RGN- (**A**), WN- (**B**), and RN-vinegar-making culture (**C**) at the 10^{th} day (lane 1), 20^{th} day (lane 2), 30^{th} day (lane 3), 40^{th} day (lane 4), and 50^{th} day (lane 5) of incubation time during 50 days of fermentation.

The homologous microorganisms with DNAs extracted from the numbered bands are arranged in the order of the band numbers in Table 5.

DISCUSSION

For the brewing of vinegar with grains, *nuruk* has to be employed for the biochemical saccharification of starch to glucose and the biological fermentation of glucose to ethanol [6]. The microorganisms grown in *nuruk*-making cultures are difficult to measure quantitatively, but can be indirectly measured based on the saccharifying activity of starch or the fermentation efficiency of ethanol, which may increase in proportion to the growth of microorganisms operating in the *nuruk*-making process [23]. Wheat harbors higher protein, and more diverse and higher concentrations of minerals and vitamins than rice [26]. Nevertheless, the difference in the nutritional contents of wheat and rice was not a cause of the activation or limitation of the functional effects of *nuruk* for the saccharification of starch and the

Table 5. Microorganisms that are homologous with DNA extracted from the numbered bands in the TGGE performed for analysis of microbial community variation during cultivation of vinegar (Fig. 5).

Band No.	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)	Band No.	Genus or species (Accession No.)	Homology (%)
1	Uncultured bacterium clone (GQ258076)	99	18	Uncultured bacterium (GQ866160)	99
2	Uncultured bacterium partial 16S rDNA (AM921513)	99	19	Uncultured bacterium (FJ499356)	99
3	Deinococcus sp. (EU718060)	99	20	Uncultured Anaerofilum (FJ823903)	99
4	Uncultured bacterium (AY939020)	99	21	Uncultured bacterium (AM292550)	99
5	Deinococcus sp. (EU710548)	100	22	Uncultured bacterium (GQ372918)	99
6	Uncultured Acetobacter sp. (GQ332236)	99	23	Acetobacter pasteurianus (GU205100)	99
7	Uncultured bacterium (AY938981)	99	24	Acetobacter pasteurianus (AB499842)	100
8	Lactobacillus sp. (AB016864)	99	25	Acetobacter pasteurianus (GU205100)	100
9	Lactobacillus nagelii (AB370876)	100	26	Uncultured bacterium (GQ165198)	99
10	Acetobacter pasteurianus (GU205100)	100	27	Uncultured Acetobacter (GU198916)	99
11	Gluconobacter oxydans (GU205101)	100	28	Deinococcus sp. (EU710548)	99
12	Uncultured bacterium clone (EU472679)	99	29	Acetobacter pasteurianus (AB499840)	99
13	Uncultured bacterium (GQ467303)	99	30	Uncultured bacterium (EU978605)	99
14	Uncultured Lactobacillus (DQ334799)	99	31	Uncultured Acetobacteraceae (EF663860)) 99
15	Uncultured bacterium (GQ453513)	99	32	Uncultured bacterium (GQ402627)	98
16	Uncultured bacterium (GQ242786)	99	33	Uncultured bacterium (AY882673)	99
17	Uncultured bacterium (EU275375)	99		-	-

fermentation of ethanol. Glasswort contains lower organic compound contents (carbohydrate, protein and lipid), but higher minerals and physiologically active compounds (polyphenol, taurine, and betaine) than are contained in rice and wheat [2, 21, 26]. Accordingly, the addition of glasswort to rice may cause the supplementation of minerals and physiologically active compounds. The difference between the biochemical and biological activities of RN and RGN utilized in the vinegar-making processes is a clue that glasswort functions as a physiological activation factor rather than a nutritional supplement for microorganismic growth, considering the differences in nutritional contents between wheat and rice [14, 27].

Some of the nutritious ingredients contained in glasswort may be factors for the activation of microorganismic growth, but not for the differentiation of community or the diversity of microorganisms [25]. It can be surmised that the diversity of microorganisms generating saccharifying enzymes and fermenting *makgeolli* and vinegar may be determined by the environmental conditions of the places where the *nuruk* is produced, rather than the nutritional ingredients of the raw materials. Fungi belonging to the Aspergillus genus were commonly identified in RN, WN, and RGN, independently of nutritional contents; however, some of the microorganisms isolated from other nuruks were identified as Rhizopus oryzae, Rhizopus koji, and Aspergillus coreanus, which are typical starch-saccharifying fungi grown in the nuruk [15, 28, 33]. Some of the microorganisms grown in the *makgeolli*-making cultures may very possibly have been contaminated by the surrounding environment and makgeolli-making operators, but some of them may have originated from the nuruk [3]. Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Saccharomycodes ludwigii, the DNA of which was detected in all or most of the makgeolli-making cultures regardless of the nuruk type, but was not detected commonly in the RN, WN, and RGN, may have initially been contaminated by the environment [24]. The prokaryotes detected in the makgeolli-making cultures were also not detected in the *nuruk*, with the exception of *Bacillus* sp. The environmental conditions pertinent to the makgeollimaking cultures may not be appropriate for prokaryotic growth, because the ethanol and carbon dioxide, which increased in proportion to the incubation time, may be a factor in the inhibition of the prokaryotes [1, 5, 19, 25]. The vinegar-making cultures cannot be readily contaminated by airborne microorganisms or from the surrounding environments, because both ethanol and acetic acid are difficult to catabolize under anoxic or oxygen-limited conditions [4, 20, 31]. The increase in acetic acid in proportion to incubation time may also be a cause of the limitation of microbial contamination as the result of decreasing pH.

The diversities of microorganisms grown in the *nuruk-*, *makgeolli-*, and vinegar-making cultures cannot be standardized

on the basis of the characteristics of the foods that are fermented naturally by surrounding microorganisms [10]. The uncultured eukaryotes observed in the *makgeolli*making cultures are, like yeast, supposed to perform specific functions on the basis of the increases or reductions in the diversity over the course of the incubation time. The significantly lower diversity of the prokaryotes observed in the *makgeolli*-making cultures as compared with the *muruk*making cultures may be caused by the different conditions of the *nuruk* and *makgeolli* for prokaryotes. Most of the prokaryotes growing in the *muruk* are routinely exposed to air, but those growing in the *makgeolli* must be in contact with at least some air in the initial stages before the activation of ethanol fermentation.

In conclusion, the characteristics of vinegar are dependent on both the nutritional ingredients of raw materials that function as growth factors and the microorganisms that are responsible for the fermentation necessary for the successful preparation of nuruk, makgeolli, and vinegar cultures. The addition of glasswort to nuruk-making cultures may not only be a factor in the activation of microorganism growth, but also a nutritional supplement in the vinegar-making process. The human health-promoting materials employed in foods after fermentation may be considered food additives, but those present before fermentation may activate microorganism growth, improve food characteristics, and increase the levels of physiologically active compounds. In this study, the diversity of eukaryotes and prokaryotes in the nuruk-, makgeolli-, and vinegar-making cultures was initially analyzed via the TGGE technique. By applying the TGGE technique to the natural fermentation of vinegar from nuruk, we were able to determine that Aspergillus sp., Saccharomyces sp., and Acetobacter sp. were the principal organisms responsible for nuruk-making, makgeolli fermentation, and vinegar fermentation, respectively. A variety of uncultured eukaryotes and prokaryotes may generate some metabolites that could influence the flavor and taste of the prepared vinegar. A real-time technique for the monitoring of variations in the eukaryotic and prokaryotic communities to determine the state of fermentation must be developed on the basis of the DNA sequence obtained from the TGGE of microorganisms grown in the nuruk-, makgeolli-, and vinegar-making cultures. In the future, various types of nuruk generated by different makers, and makgeolli produced by those nuruk variants, will be analyzed via the TGGE technique.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Technology Development Program of Ministry for Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery, Republic of Korea (109147-03-1-HD120). We thank Yu Weon Lee (Food and Safety Research Center, Sempio Foods Co. Ltd, Seoul 100-271, Korea) for giving us the best analysis results.

References

- Bajpai, P. and A. Margaritis. 1982. Ethanol inhibition kinetics of *Kluyveromyces marxianus* grown on Jerusalem artichoke juice. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 44: 1325–1329.
- Bang, M. A., H. A. Kim, and Y. J. Cho. 2002. Hypoglycemic and antioxidant effect of dietary *hamcho* powder in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Korean J. Soc. Food Sci. Nutr.* 31: 840–846.
- Cocolin, L., M. Mangzano, C. Cantoni, and G. Comi. 2001. Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis analysis of the 16S rRNA gene V1 region to monitor dynamic changes in the bacterial population during fermentation of Italian sausages. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 67: 5113–5121.
- Fukui, K., K. Kato, T. Kodama, H. Ohta, T. Shimamoto, and T. Shimono. 1988. Kinetic study of a change in intracellular ATP level associated with aerobic catabolism of ethanol by *Streptococcus mutans. J. Bacteriol.* **170**: 4589–4593.
- Gill, C. O. and K. H. Tan. Effect of carbon dioxide on growth of Pseudomonas fluorescens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 38: 237–240.
- Han, M. S. and D. H. Chung. 1985. Saccharification and ethanol fermentation from uncooked starch using *Aspergillus niger*. Koji. *Korean J. Food Sci. Technol.* 17: 258–264.
- Han, S. K., S. M. Kim, and B. S. Pyo. 2003. Antioxidative effect of glasswort (*Salicornia herbacea L.*) on the lipid oxidation of pork. *Korean J. Food Sci. Anim. Resour.* 23: 46–49.
- Han, S. K. and S. M. Kim. 2003. Antioxidative effect of Salicornia herbacea L. grown in closed sea beach. Korean J. Soc. Food Sci. Nutr. 32: 207–210.
- Han, S. K. 2004. Antioxidative effect of fermented Salicornia herbacea L. liquid with EM (Effective Microorganism) on pork. Korean J. Food Sci. Anim. Resour. 24: 298–302.
- Heard, G. M. and G. H. Fleet. 1985. Growth of natural yeast flora during the fermentation of inoculated wines. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 50: 727–728.
- Hong, Y. and E. H. Choi. 2002. Flavor and sensory characteristics of *soju* fermented by co-culture of isolates from *muruk* and brewing mashes. *Food Sci. Biotechnol.* 11: 700–703.
- Jang, J. H. 1989. The history of Korean alcoholic liquors. Korean J. Dietary Culture 4: 271–274.
- Jo, Y. C., J. H, Ahn, S. M. Chon, K. S. Lee, T. J. Bae, and D. S Kim. 2002. Studies on pharmacological effects of glasswort (*Salicornia herbacea L.*). *Korean J. Medical Crop Sci.* 10: 93–99.
- 14. Kong, C. S., Y. A. Kim, M. M. Kim, J. S. Park, D. K. Kim, B. J. Lee, T. J. Nam, and Y. Seo. 2008. Antioxidant activity and inhibition of MMP-9 by isorhamnetin and quercetin 3-O-β-D-glucopyranosides isolated from *Salicornia herbacea* in HT1080 cells. *Food Sci. Biotechnol.* **17**: 983–989.
- 15. Lee, S. J., H. J. Bae, J. Ryu, D. Lee, G. W. Kim, N. Baek, M. Kwon, and S. Hong. 2009. Extracts from *Rhizopus oryzae* KSD-815 of Korean traditional *nuruk* confer the potential to inhibit hypertension, platelet aggregation and cancer metastasis *in vitro. Food Sci. Biotechnol.* 18: 1423–1429.

EFFECT OF GLASSWORT ON MICROBIAL COMMUNITY VARIATION 1330

- Lee, J. T., Y. S. Jeong, and B. J. An. 2002. Physiological activity of *Salicornia herbacea* L. and its application for cosmetic materials. *Korean J. Herbol.* 17: 51–60.
- Lee, J. T. and B. J. An. 2002. Detection of physical activity of Salicornia herbacea L. Korean J. Herbol. 17: 61–69.
- Lee, S. J., Y. W. Lee, J. Chung, J. K. Lee, J. Y. Lee, D. Jahng, Y. Cha, and Y. Yu. 2008. Reuse of low concentrated electronic wastewater using selected microbe immobilized cell system. *Water Sci. Technol.* 57: 1191–1197.
- Lucero, P., É. Peńalver, E. Moreno, and R. Lagunas. 1997. Moderate concentrations of ethanol inhibit endocytosis of the yeast maltose transporter. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 63: 3831–3836.
- Mckay, L. L., A. Bhumiratana, and R. N. Costilow. 1971. Oxidation of acetate by various strains of *Bacillus popilliae*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 22: 1070–1075.
- Min, J. G., D. S. Lee, T. J. Kim, J. H. Park, T. Y. Cho, and D. I. Park. 2002. Chemical composition of *Salicornia herbacea* L. *Korean J. Food Sci. Nutr.* 7: 105–107.
- Mitchell, J. I. and A. Zuccaro. 2006. Sequences, the environment and fungi. *Mycologist* 20: 62–74.
- Miyata, M. and H. Miyata. 1978. Relationship between extracellular enzymes and cell growth during the cell cycle of the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*: Acid phosphatase. *J. Bacteriol.* 136: 558–564.
- Mohammed, S. I., L. R. Steenson, and A. W. Kirleis. 1991. Isolation and characterization of microorganisms associated with the traditional sorghum fermentation for production of Sudanese Kisra. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 57: 2529–2533.
- Molin, G. 1985. Mixed carbon source utilization of meatspoiling *Pseudomonas fragi* 72 in relation to oxygen limitation and carbon dioxide inhibition. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 49: 1442–1447.
- Rural Resources Development Institute. 2007. Food Composition Table, 7th Ed. Available at Portal: http://koreanfood.rda.go.kr/fct/ FctFoodSrch. aspx.
- Ryu, D. S., S. H. Kim, and D. S. Lee. 2009. Effect of Salicornia herbacea polysaccharides on the activation of immune cells in vitro and in vivo. Food Sci. Biotechnol. 18: 1481–1486.
- Shon, S. K., Y. H. Rho, H. J. Kim, and S. M. Bae. 1990. *Takju* brewing of uncooked rice starch using *Rhizopus koji*. *Korean J. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 18: 506–501.
- Smit, E., P. Leeflang, B. Glandorf, J. D. van Elsas, and K. Wernars. 1999. Analysis of fungal diversity in the wheat rhizosphere by sequencing of cloned PCR-amplified gene encoding 18S rRNA and temperature gradient gel electrophoresis. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 65: 2614–2621.
- Takagi, H., M. Takaoka, A. Kawaguchi, and Y. Kubo. 2005. Effect of L-proline on *sake* brewing and ethanol stress in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 71: 8656–8662.
- Tor, J. M., K. Kashefi, and D. R. Lovley. 2001. Acetate oxidation coupled to Fe(III) reduction in hyperthermophilic microorganisms. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 67: 1363–1365.
- Wu, H., X. Zheng, Y. Araki, H. Sahara, H. Takagi, and H. Shimoi. 2006. Global gene expression analysis of yeast cells during *sake* brewing. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **72**: 7353–7358.
- Yu, T. S., S. H. Yeo, and H. S. Kim. 2004. A new species of hypomycetes, *Aspergillus coreanus* sp. nov., isolated from traditional Korean *muruk. J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 14: 182–187.