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Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10459.1/67791>

The final publication is available at:

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2019.108587>

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1 **The fate of *Fusarium* mycotoxins (deoxynivalenol and zearalenone) through**
2 **wort fermenting by *Saccharomyces* yeasts (*S. cerevisiae* and *S. pastorianus*).**

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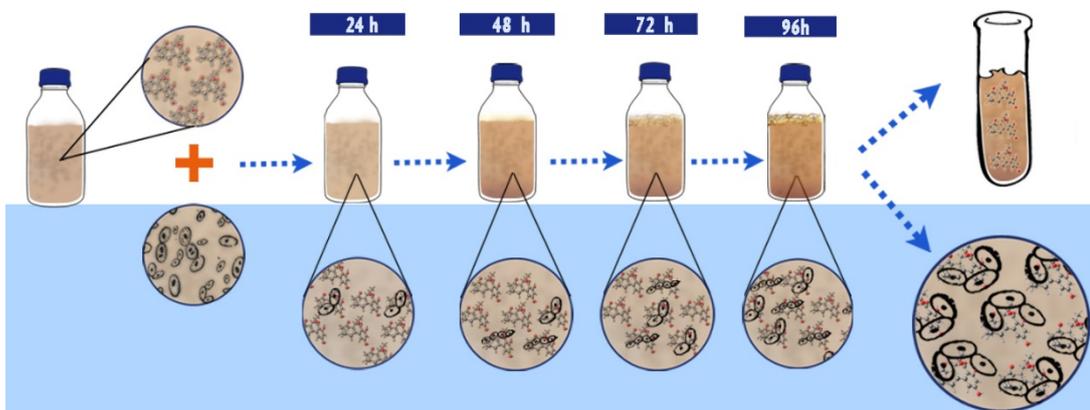
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11
12 **ABSTRACT**

13 The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of 15 commercial yeasts in the mitigation of the
14 *Fusarium* mycotoxins deoxynivalenol (DON) and zearalenone (ZEN) during the brewing process.
15 *Saccharomyces* strains (10 strains of *S. cerevisiae* and 5 of *S. pastorianus*) were used to ferment DON
16 and ZEN contaminated wort. Wort samples were taken every 24 h during fermentation, while
17 mycotoxin analysis in yeast was performed at the end of fermentation (96 h); additionally, pH and
18 ethanol content were measured daily. For mycotoxin analysis, after immunoaffinity purification of
19 sample extracts, analysis was performed using an Ultra-High-Pressure Liquid Chromatograph coupled
20 with a diode array or fluorescence detector (UHPLC-DAD/FLD). Mycotoxin presence had no significant
21 effect on the ethanol production during brewing. At the end of fermentation, 10–17 % of DON and 30–
22 70 % of ZEN had been removed, 6 % of the initial concentration of DON and 31 % of the ZEN being
23 adsorbed by the yeast. Beermakers must pay careful attention to the raw material since a high
24 percentage of DON could be present at the end of the beer fermentation process. Future studies
25 should focus on the quantification of "masked" mycotoxins that are relevant to food security.



29 HIGHLIGHTS|

- 30 • After beer fermentation, 83-90 % of DON and 30–70 % of ZEN in wort was detected.
- 31 • DON and ZEN adsorption ability of *S. pastorianus* and *S. cerevisiae* was evaluated.
- 32 • *Saccharomyces* yeasts show higher adsorptions for ZEN than for DON.
- 33 • DON and ZEN contamination of wort had no effect on ethanol production.

34

35 **Keywords:** Beer fermentation; *Fusarium* mycotoxins; *Saccharomyces* yeast; cell wall, mycotoxin
36 adsorption.

37

38 1. INTRODUCTION

39 Beer is one of the most popular alcoholic beverages in the world (FAO, 2009). In 2017, the global beer
40 production increased to about 1.95 billion hectoliters up from 1.3 billion hectoliters in 1998 (Statista,
41 2019). It is obtained by fermenting the boiled wort (water extract of malt cereal) using yeast (Walther,
42 Ravasio, Qin, Wendland, & Meier, 2015). Cereals used in beer production can be contaminated by
43 different mycotoxins: barley and wheat by ochratoxin A (OTA), trichothecenes, (such as, deoxynivalenol
44 (DON), nivalenol (NIV), T-2 and HT-2 toxins), and zearalenone (ZEN). Corn used as adjunct during
45 mashing, is proven to be mainly contaminated by fumonisins (FBs) and aflatoxins (AFs), but also by
46 trichothecenes (Sanchis, Marín, & Ramos, 2013). All these mycotoxins have been associated with
47 human and animal diseases, some affect the immune system (trichothecenes), while others are
48 hepatotoxic (FBs), nephrotoxic (OTA), estrogenic (ZEN), teratogenic, mutagenic and carcinogenic
49 (AFs). (IARC, 1993; Leblanc, Tard, Volatier, & Verger, 2005; Panel & Chain, 2014; Vila-Donat, Marín,
50 Sanchis, & Ramos, 2018).

51 Various studies detected high frequencies and levels of mycotoxins in barley crops (Kroes et al., 2002;
52 Piacentini, Savi, Olivo, & Scussel, 2015; Rodríguez-Carrasco, Fattore, Albrizio, Berrada, & Mañes,
53 2015). Their transfer from barley to malt and to beer subsequently would be expected due to their known
54 resistance to the physical treatments applied during the brewing process (Hazel & Patel, 2004; Inoue,
55 Nagatomi, Uyama, & Mochizuki, 2013; Wolf-Hall, 2007). However, recent surveys of mycotoxins in beer
56 produced in different geographical regions have mainly detected low levels of DON and his masked

57 forms (DON3G, 3ADON), ZEN, OTA and FBs (in the order of $\mu\text{g/L}$) (Bertuzzi, Rastelli, Mulazzi,
58 Donadini, & Pietri, 2011; Pascari, Ortiz-Solá, Marín, Ramos, & Sanchis, 2018; Peters et al., 2017; Wall-
59 Martínez, Pascari, Ramos, Marín, & Sanchis, 2019). These small concentrations, together with the
60 available studies, suggest that the various stages of the brewing process (malting, mashing, wort boiling
61 and fermentation) could exert a mitigation effect on mycotoxin contamination or lead to a transformation
62 or degradation of these molecules (Inoue et al., 2013; Kroes et al., 2002; Lancova et al., 2008).

63 A study on the transfer of *Fusarium* mycotoxins previously performed by our research group proved
64 that malting could lead to a decrease in the level of DON (from 46.6 % up to 78.8 %) and an increase
65 in deoxynivalenol-3-glucoside (DON3G) level, while ZEN remained almost unchanged (Pascari, Gil-
66 Samarra, Marín, Ramos, & Sanchis, 2019). Also, DON and its metabolites showed a high transfer from
67 malt to the wort during mashing (30 % - 60 %). During mashing and boiling FBs were reduced by 50 to
68 100 %, and ZEN reduction was higher than 89 % (Pascari, Rodriguez-Carrasco, et al., 2019).
69 Considering that the investigated mycotoxins were not completely eliminated after mashing and boiling,
70 there is a need to continue studying the mycotoxin levels through the fermentation process.

71 Many species of acid lactic bacteria, yeast and fungi have been shown to enzymatically bind, remove
72 or biodegrade mycotoxins (Faucet-Marquis, Joannis-Cassan, Hadjeba-Medjdoub, Ballet, & Pfohl-
73 Leszkowicz, 2014; Fuchs et al., 2008; Haskard, El-Nezami, Kankaanpää, Salminen, & Ahokas, 2001).
74 It is known that *Gluconobacter oxydans* is able to degrade more than 90 % of patulin (PAT) 80 % of
75 OTA and 27 % of aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) (Markov et al., 2019). Yeast biomass have shown the ability to
76 adsorb mycotoxins due to the presence of mannoproteins and β -glucans in their cell wall, *based on*
77 *physical adsorption, ion exchange and complexation*, (Faucet-Marquis et al., 2014; Huwig, Freimund,
78 Käppeli, & Dutler, 2001; Shetty & Jespersen, 2006). in this sense, Campagnollo et al. (2015) utilized an
79 *in vitro* test to determine the capacity of one strain of *S. cerevisiae* to bind mycotoxins: ZEN (77 %), OTA
80 (13 %), aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) (38 %) and DON (17 %) at pH 6, and ZEN (75 %), OTA (59 %), AFB₁ (48
81 %) and DON (11 %) at pH 3.

82 Few studies are available investigating the fate of mycotoxins during beer fermentation. Garda et al.
83 (2005) identified a 53 % reduction of DON and T-2 toxin at the end of the fermentation process with a
84 strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Nathanail et al. (2016), using a strain of *Saccharomyces*
85 *pastorianus* observed a mycotoxin reduction of up to 15 % for DON, 17 % for DON-3-G, 34 % for HT-
86 2, and 31 % for T-2 toxins after a 96 h period of beer fermentation. From the abovementioned studies,

87 it can be seen that different *Saccharomyces* strains have different ability in binding mycotoxins. Also,
88 considering the physical nature of the adsorption, this result could be modulated by different physical
89 parameters, such as pH and temperature, that are applied during the process. (Avantaggaito, Solfrizzo,
90 & Visconti, 2005; Huwig et al., 2001). Therefore, the present study focuses on evaluating under single
91 conditions the effect of different starter cultures (10 *S. cerevisiae* and 5 *S. pastorianus* strains) in the
92 mitigation of the *Fusarium* mycotoxins (DON and ZEN) contamination during the beer fermentation
93 process.

94

95 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

96 **2.1 Reagents and chemicals**

97 Water was obtained from a Milli-Q® SP Reagent water system from Millipore Corp. (Brussels, Belgium).
98 Methanol and acetonitrile (HPLC grade) were purchased from Scharlab (Sentmenat, Spain). Mycotoxin
99 standards of DON and ZEN were purchased from Romer Labs (Tulln, Austria).

100 Immunoaffinity columns (IAC) for DON (DONPREP®) and ZEN (EASY-EXTRACT® ZEARALENONE)
101 clean-up were purchased from R-Biopharm (Rhone LTD Glasgow, UK). Phosphate buffer saline (PBS)
102 was prepared with potassium chloride (0.2 g) (Panreac, Castellar del Vallès, Spain), potassium
103 dihydrogen phosphate (0.2 g) (98–100 %, Panreac, Castellar del Vallès, Spain), disodium phosphate
104 anhydrous (1.16 g) (99 %, Panreac, Castellar del Vallès, Spain) and sodium chloride (8.0 g) (> 99.5 %,
105 Fisher Bioreagents, New Jersey, USA) in 1 L of Milli-Q water. The pH was brought to 7.4 (Basic 20,
106 CRISON) with hydrochloric acid 1 M. Bacteriological peptone was purchased from Biokar Diagnostics
107 (Allonne, France), magnesium sulfate heptahydrate was acquired from Probus SA (Badalona, Spain)
108 and agar powder from VWR Prolabo (Leichestershire, UK). Yeast extract peptone dextrose medium
109 (YEPD) was prepared with 10 g/L of yeast extract powder (Bacto, Madrid, Spain), 20 g/L of peptone
110 (Biokar Diagnostics, Allone, France), 20 g/L of glucose (Fisher chemical, UK) and 20 g/L of agar
111 (Prolabo, Leuven Belgium).

112 **2.2 Preparation of mycotoxins solutions**

113 DON concentration in the stock solution was checked by UV spectroscopy according to AOAC Official
114 methods of analysis, chapter 49 (AOAC, 2005) obtaining a concentration of the stock solution 758 and

115 844 µg/mL, respectively. Standard solutions of DON and ZEN were prepared in methanol at a
116 concentration of 10.0 mg/mL and stored at 4 °C. Calibration curves were prepared by appropriate
117 dilution of known volumes of the stock solution with the mobile phase.

118 **2.3 DON and ZEN contamination of malted barley**

119 Twenty kg of malted barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) were supplied by a malting plant (Malteria la Moravia
120 S.L., Bell-lloc d'Urgell, Spain) in March 2018. DON and ZEN were not detected in malted barley by
121 UHPLC-DAD/FLD analysis. A control batch of malted barley was used to prepare control wort (absent
122 of DON and ZEN), the rest of the malt was contaminated using a toxigenic strain of *Fusarium*
123 *graminearum* (F.46) (producer of DON and ZEN) obtained from the collection of strains of the Food
124 Technology Department of the University of Lleida, Spain. Barley grains were disinfected according to
125 Pascari, Rodriguez-Carrasco, et al. (2019). Briefly, 500 g of grains were submerged into 0.4 g/100 mL
126 sodium hypochlorite solution for 2 min and then abundantly rinsed twice with sterile distilled water. Then
127 the grains were placed in hermetically closed sterile ISO bottles and left overnight at 4 °C with a small
128 amount of water to allow the water activity to reach a value close to 0.99 (Aqualab Series 3 TE, Decagon
129 Devices Inc., Washington, USA). Malted barley was aseptically transferred to Petri dishes and 1 mL of
130 a spore suspension of *F. graminearum* (10⁶ spores/mL) was transferred to each dish. Petri dishes were
131 incubated at 25 °C for 30 days, then, contaminated grains were dried at 40 °C, homogenized, and DON
132 and ZEN content was determined. The final concentrations in the contaminated malt was 4600 µg/kg
133 and 2800 µg/kg for DON and ZEN, respectively.

134 **2.4 Yeast**

135 Fifteen freeze-dried yeast strains of various commercial brands, 10 *S. cerevisiae* (ale-high fermentation)
136 and 5 *S. pastorianus* (lager-low fermentation) were used. All the yeasts used throughout this study were
137 purchased from a website specialized in the sale of beer preparation supplies
138 (www.cervezasdelmundo.com).

139 **2.5 Wort production**

140 Mycotoxin contaminated wort was prepared by adding appropriate proportions of the contaminated
141 grains previously produced to uncontaminated malted grits. Maceration was carried out mixing 2.5 L of
142 deionized water with 500 g of malted barley (previously ground) and then maintaining the mix for 15
143 min at 45 °C, followed by 1 h at 65 °C, ending with 72 °C for another 15 min. The wort was decanted,

144 and the density was adjusted to 1005-1010 kg/m³ with deionized water. The wort was boiled for
145 approximately 2 h (up to a density of 1050 kg/m³) and stored in sterile bottles until fermentation.

146 **2.6 Fermentation**

147 Fermentation assays were performed at 250 mL scale with triplicate samples. The process lasted 96 h
148 at 20 °C. The concentration of yeast used to inoculate the wort was selected following the brand's
149 instructions. Yeast concentration was adjusted at 10⁶ CFU/mL for all the wort samples. An initial count
150 was made using a Thoma cell counting chamber. Moreover, a confirmatory initial yeast count on YEPD
151 medium was performed for all the samples. Briefly, 1 mL of samples were diluted from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁷ with
152 sterile saline peptone. Then, 100 µL of each dilution were superficially spread on YEPD agar medium
153 dishes and incubated at 25 °C for 48 h.

154 Two samples were taken daily in the following time points: 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h. The first sample
155 (10 mL) was used to determine the pH, and alcohol content (with a portable densimeter DMA 35, Anton
156 Paar). The second sample (30 mL) was centrifuged at 1869 x g for 10 min to eliminate the yeast from
157 the fermented wort and was used for mycotoxins determination. After four days' fermentation, the yeast
158 was separated from the remaining wort by centrifugation at 1869 x g for 10 min, lyophilized, weighted
159 and all samples (wort and yeast) were stored at -18 °C until HPLC analysis.

160 **2.7 Mycotoxin extraction**

161 DON and ZEN were extracted using specific immunoaffinity columns (DONPREP[®] and EASY
162 EXTRACT[®] ZEARELENONE, respectively) following the manufacturer's instructions.

163 **2.7.1 DON extraction in malt**

164 Five grams of malt previously ground with an IKA[®] A11 Basic mill (Darmstadt, Germany) were mixed
165 with 1 g of sodium chloride and 40 mL of Mili Q water in a 250 mL Erlenmeyer flask, followed by 30 min
166 stirring. Then, samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 1846 x g. Supernatant was filtered through a glass
167 microfiber paper filter (Whatman n^o 1, Maidstone, UK) and 2 mL of the filtrate was passed through the
168 immunoaffinity column. The column was then washed with 10 mL of bi-distilled water and the toxins
169 were eluted with 3 mL of methanol HPLC grade (the first 1.5 mL performing back-flushing). Samples
170 were evaporated under a low nitrogen stream at 40 °C and resuspended in mobile phase
171 (acetonitrile:methanol:water, 5:5:90, v/v/v). Every resuspended extract was filtered through a nylon
172 filter (0.4 µm) before being injected (50 µL) into the UHPLC-DAD system.

173 **2.7.2 ZEN extraction in malt**

174 Five grams of malt previously ground with an IKA® A11 Basic mill (Darmstadt, Germany) were mixed
175 with 25 mL of extraction solvent acetonitrile:distilled water (75:25, v/v) and stirred for 30 min. Samples
176 were centrifuged for 10 min at 1846 x g and 10 mL of the supernatant was mixed with 40 mL of
177 phosphate buffer saline (PBS) at pH 7.4 The obtained 50 mL were passed through the immunoaffinity
178 column which was afterwards washed with 20 mL of PBS. ZEN was eluted with 3 mL of acetonitrile (the
179 first 1.5 mL performing back-flushing). Samples were evaporated under a low nitrogen stream at 40 °C
180 and resuspended in 1 mL of acetonitrile:Mili Q water (50:50). Every resuspended extract was filtered
181 through a nylon filter (0.4 µm) before being injected (50 µL) into the UHPLC-FLD system.

182 **2.8 Mycotoxins analysis in wort**

183 **2.8.1 DON extraction in the fermented wort**

184 Wort was filtered through a glass microfiber filter paper (Whatman no. 1, Whatman, Maidstone, UK)
185 and 1 mL of filtered sample was loaded onto an immunoaffinity column at a flow rate of 2 mL per minute.
186 The column was washed by passing 10 mL of Mili Q water at a rate of 5 mL per minute, and finally, air
187 was allowed to pass through the column to remove the residual liquid. DON elution was performed by
188 adding 1.5 mL + 1.5 mL of methanol, performing a back-flushing each time. The samples were
189 evaporated and resuspended in 1 mL of mobile phase for UHPLC-DAD analysis.

190 **2.8.2 ZEN extraction in the fermented wort**

191 20 mL of centrifuged wort was mixed with 20 mL of PBS, and pH was adjusted to a pH of 7.4. 20 mL of
192 the mixture was passed through an immunoaffinity column at a flow rate of 2 mL per minute, the column
193 was washed by passing 10 mL of water at a rate of 5 mL per minute and finally, air was allowed to pass
194 through the column to remove the residual liquid. The elution was performed by adding 1.5 mL + 1.5
195 mL of acetonitrile, back-flushing being performed each time. The samples were evaporated and
196 resuspended in 1 mL of acetonitrile:Mili Q water (50:50) for UHPLC-FLD analysis.

197 **2.9 DON and ZEN extraction in yeast**

198 The DON and ZEN extraction in yeast was performed following the Campagnollo et al. method
199 (Campagnollo et al., 2015). Two hundred milligrams of lyophilized yeast were suspended in 2 mL of
200 0.1M potassium phosphate buffer pH 6.5, mixed on a rotating shaker (Infors AG CH-4103 Bottmingen,

201 Switzerland) for 60 min at 25 °C and sonicated for 15 min (Brason 2800). The samples were centrifuged
202 (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) at 1846 x g for 10 min at room temperature and 0.8 mL of the
203 supernatant was removed and analyzed by UHPLC. Negative controls (200 mg of yeast in buffer
204 solution) were also prepared and analyzed.

205 **2.10 UHPLC system**

206 The determination of DON was performed using an Agilent Technologies 1260 Infinity UHPLC system
207 (California, USA) coupled with an Agilent 1260 Infinity II Diode Array Detector (DAD). A Gemini® C18
208 column from Phenomenex 150x4.6 mm (California, USA) with a particle size of 5 µm and a pore size
209 of 110 Å was used. Absorption wavelength was setup at 220 nm. The mobile phase was composed of
210 methanol:acetonitrile:water Mili Q (5:5:90, v/v/v) and set at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. For ZEN
211 determination, the same equipment and column were used but the HPLC was coupled to an Agilent
212 1260 Infinity Fluorescence detector (FLD) (excitation and emission wavelengths were 274 nm and
213 455 nm, respectively). The mobile phase was acetonitrile:Milli Q water (60:40 v:v) with pH adjusted to
214 3.2 with acetic acid. Flow rate was set at 0.6 mL/min. The column temperature was 40 °C, the injection
215 volume was 50 µL and total run time was 20 min for both mycotoxin analyses.

216 **2.11 Validation of analytical methods**

217 Selectivity was checked by injecting 50 µL of standard solution for at least three times (150 µg/L) and
218 comparing retention time and peak resolution between injections. For linearity check, a calibration curve
219 of eight concentration levels for each toxin (20, 30, 50, 100, 250, 500, 1000, 3000 µg/L for DON and 30,
220 50, 100, 300, 500, 1000, 1500, 3000 µg/L of ZEN solutions) was prepared and injected into the system,
221 generating a linear regression plotting solutions' concentration versus peak area. Finally, precision was
222 evaluated preparing blank wort and yeast samples spiked with DON and ZEN at several concentration
223 levels and recovery percentages were determined: 75–90 % (wort), 67–71 % (yeast) for DON, and 84–
224 97 % (wort), 73–80 % (yeast) for ZEN (Table 1). The limit of detection (LOD) was considered as three
225 times the signal to noise ratio. Method performance was assessed according to Commission Regulation
226 (EC) 401/2006 (European Commission, 2006) (Table 1).

227

228

229 **2.12 Statistical Analysis**

230 All the results were presented as the average of triplicate tests and expressed as mean \pm standard
231 deviation. Statistical evaluations were performed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey
232 test ($p = 0.05$) using Minitab 18 software.

233

234 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

235 **3.1 Characteristics of the wort**

236 Control and mycotoxin contaminated wort had an initial density of 1.043 g/cm^3 , whereas initial pH was
237 4.85 (control) and 5.0 (mycotoxin contaminated). Initial mycotoxin contamination of wort was 1380
238 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (DON) and 600 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (ZEN). Neither DON nor ZEN were detected in the control wort.

239 **3.2 Alcohol production and pH**

240 Final pH and alcohol produced after 96 h of wort fermentation for the different yeast strains assayed
241 are shown in Table 2.

242 The pH of the wort at the end of fermentation ranged between 3.80-4.34 (control) and 3.75-4.15
243 (contaminated). There are no reports of an effect on pH due to the presence of mycotoxins, so the
244 variation in the pH observed in control and contaminated wort could be attributed to the initial difference
245 since pH of the control wort was slightly lower than that of the contaminated wort. Regarding alcohol
246 production, the results agree with those reported by Nathanail et al. (2016), the mycotoxins present in
247 the wort had no significant effect on alcohol production during beer fermentation. The progress of
248 alcohol content during the fermentation of the wort using one *S. cerevisiae* and one *S. pastorianus*
249 strain is showed in Figure 1.

250 Figure 1 shows that in the four sampling points analyzed during 96 h of beer fermentation no significant
251 differences were found in ethanol content between contaminated and uncontaminated wort.

252 **3.3 Deoxynivalenol fate**

253 Mycotoxin adsorption on the cell wall structure is an interaction between the toxin and the functional
254 groups of the cell surface. Yeast cell wall contains many different adsorption sites, mainly represented
255 by polysaccharides (glucans and mannans), proteins and lipids (Faucet-Marquis et al., 2014).

256 Considering that mycotoxins adsorption is of physical nature (based on ion exchange and complexation)
257 (Huwig et al., 2001), mycotoxin contamination has proven to present little influence on yeast activity
258 (Nathanail et al., 2016). There are few studies dedicated to investigate the adsorption of DON to yeast
259 cell wall, most of them being performed *in vitro* (Campagnollo et al., 2015; Scott, Kanhere, Daley, &
260 Farber, 1992; Sørensen & Sondergaard, 2014). The present work assesses the adsorption of DON
261 onto brewing yeast cell wall. Table 3 presents DON concentration in yeast and brewing wort throughout
262 the 96 h of fermentation.

263 The highest effect in DON reduction occurred during the first 24 h, resulting in 84 % to 95 % of the initial
264 content of mycotoxin that remained in the must. The final concentration of DON in the obtained beers,
265 after 96h of fermentation, ranged from 97.9-82.5% of the initial contamination, with reductions higher
266 than 15% in 9 out of 15 beers. Similar results were obtained by Nathanail et al. (2016) who reported a
267 reduction of 15 % in the DON content in a wort using an *S. pastorianus* yeast strain. Garda et al., (2005)
268 observed a reduction of 53.3% in malt spiked with DON and ZEN. Previously, Scott et al. (1992) using
269 a contaminated wort with DON and ZEN after 7-9 days of fermentation with *S. cerevisiae* reported that
270 DON was stable through the process. The variability in DON reduction in the different studies can be
271 due to various factors including pattern of grain infection, process parameters, interactions with the
272 yeast used or mycotoxin metabolism in a modified form as DON3G, 3ADON and 15ADON (Bryła,
273 Ksieniewicz-Woźniak, Waśkiewicz, Szymczyk, & Jędrzejczak, 2018; Kostelanska et al., 2011; Nathanail
274 et al., 2016). Also, from the table 3 it can be seen that the total concentration that was identified in the
275 beer and in the yeast residues suggests that approximately 10% of toxin could be transformed by the
276 yeasts into metabolites, most probably into 3-acetyl-deoxynivalenol (Khatibi et al., 2011). This suggests
277 the need in a deeper biological analysis of the yeast strains used in beer fermentation in order to better
278 evaluate the nature of this change.

279 Regarding DON content in yeast, up to 6.36 % of the initial content in the wort was detected. Mycotoxins
280 binding to the yeast is attributed to the formation of both, hydrogen bonds and van der Waals
281 interactions between hydroxyl, ketone, and lactone groups from β -glucans of the cell wall and the
282 mycotoxin (Faucet-Marquis et al., 2014; Shetty & Jespersen, 2006; Takata et al., 2010; Yiannikouris et
283 al., 2006). In 3 of the 15 samples, the adsorbed mycotoxin was found to be below the detection limit,
284 and the wort fermented by these yeasts presented the lowest decrease in DON after 96 h of
285 fermentation (<11 %). In similar works, Campagnollo et al. (2015), performing an *in vitro* test,

286 determined a DON binding in *S. cerevisiae* of 11.6 and 17.6% at pH 3 and 6.5, respectively, while
287 Nathanail et al. (2016) found quantifiable DON values in the yeast pellet analyzed after wort
288 fermentation with a high DON initial concentration (10,000 µg/L). The difference in adsorption levels
289 could be explained by strain-dependent cell wall structure, the phase of the cell cycle and growth
290 conditions such as pH, temperature, oxygenation rate, and concentration and nature of carbon source
291 (Jouany, Yiannikouris, & Bertin, 2005).

292 **3.4 Zearalenone fate**

293 The ZEN concentration in yeast and brewing wort throughout 96 h of fermentation is presented in Table
294 4. Unlike DON, whose degradation occurred mainly during the first 24 h, the reduction in the ZEN
295 content was continuous during the 96 h of fermentation. The beer wort showed a final ZEN reduction
296 between 31 and 72 %, and the toxin adsorbed to yeast ranged between 4.5 and 31.3%.

297 In similar studies, Campagnollo et al. (2015) established the ability of the beer fermentation residue to
298 bind ZEN at acid and neutral pH, being *S. cerevisiae* able to adsorb 75.1 % (pH 3) and 77.5 % (pH 6.5)
299 of the initial contamination. Previously, Yiannikouris et al. (2004) examined four different compositions
300 of β -(1,3)-D-glucans and β -(1,6)-D-glucan for their ability to adsorb ZEN at pH 3.0, 6.0 and 8.0. At
301 neutral and acid pH, ZEN adsorption ranged from 53.8 to 76.9 % (pH 3.0) and from 57.9 to 73.9%
302 (pH 6.0), but at basic pH (8.0) the adsorption ranged from no detected (ND) to 51.8 %. In our study, the
303 difference in mycotoxin binding cannot be attributed to the pH differences between the samples, as the
304 pH of the samples ranged only from 3.8 to 4.2.

305 It is known that the ZEN adsorption capacity of the yeast cell wall is strongly correlated with cell wall β -
306 D-glucans content; additionally, differences between the binding of mycotoxins and yeast could vary
307 due to the charge distribution, chemical nature of mycotoxin regarding the surface properties, geometry
308 and the available surface of the adsorbent (Bakutis, Baliukonienė, & Algimantas, 2005; Kabak, Dobson,
309 & Var, 2006). In addition to the adsorption to the yeast, the reduction in the ZEN content can be
310 attributed to a possible biodegradation or metabolization of ZEN to other compounds, as β -zearalenol
311 (β -ZEL) and α -zearalenol (α -ZEL) by the brewing strains of *Saccharomyces* during beer production
312 (Keller et al., 2015; Lancova et al., 2008; Mizutani, Nagatomi, & Mochizuki, 2011). This added to the
313 reductions during the malting and maceration (higher than 50 %)(Pascari, Gil-Samarra, et al., 2019;

314 Pascari, Rodriguez-Carrasco, et al., 2019), could explain the low or no incidence level reported in
315 studies of ZEN in beers (Pascari et al., 2018; Wall-Martínez et al., 2019).

316 **3.5 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* vs *Saccharomyces pastorianus***

317 Table 5 shows the yeast performance for the two *Saccharomyces* species in the context of mycotoxin
318 adsorption evaluated in the present study.

319 In our study fermentation temperature was 20 °C, more suitable for *S. cerevisiae*, resulting in a higher
320 quantity of biomass for this yeast after 96 h of fermentation and, consequently, a higher ethanol
321 production; however, this increase in biomass is hardly significant ($p = 0.037$) and did not mean a
322 significant impact on adsorption for DON and ZEN mycotoxins. These result in the need to study the
323 process variables (temperature, concentration of yeast) to optimize the removal of mycotoxins during
324 the fermentation process for *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pastorianus* yeast.

325 It is relevant to expand the study to the different forms of DON and ZEN, with the aim of identifying if
326 that percentage of mycotoxin that was not detected in wort or yeast that could be "masked" and be in
327 a sufficient concentration to represent a toxicological risk to the consumer.

328 **4 CONCLUSION**

329 The effect of 15 *Saccharomyces* yeasts in the mitigation of *Fusarium* mycotoxins (DON and ZEN)
330 through brewing was studied, performing a comparative analysis between *S. cerevisiae* and *S.*
331 *pastorianus*. ZEN showed higher adsorption (4.50 % - 31.25 %) than DON (LOD - 6.36 %) on
332 *Saccharomyces* yeast cells. On the other hand, mycotoxin content decreased at the end of fermentation
333 between 11-17% for DON and 31-72% for ZEN in the wort. There was no significant difference in the
334 decrease of DON or ZEN when is fermented with *S. cerevisiae* or *S. pastorianus* at 20 °C. Even though
335 mycotoxin presence had no significant effect on ethanol production at the end of the fermentation,
336 brewers must pay special attention to mycotoxin content in raw materials since a low concentration
337 could be present in the beer or even in the yeast (for unfiltered beers) at the end of brewing process.

338 Future studies should focus the analysis of "masked" mycotoxins in wort and yeast to determinate if the
339 reduction in the contamination was due to a transformation, to elimination, or to binding to the yeast
340 and finally, on the optimization of process conditions, e.g. yeast concentration and process temperature,
341 in order to improve the decrease of mycotoxin content during the beer production process.

342 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

343 The authors are grateful to the University of Lleida (JADE Plus 218/2016 grant), to the Spanish Ministry
344 of Economy and Competitiveness (MINECO, AGL2014-55379-P project) for funding this work. Wall-
345 Martínez HA is grateful to the Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACyT) from Mexico
346 for the scholarship.

347

348 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

349 The authors declare have no conflicts of interest to disclose, have full control of all the primary data and
350 accept to allow the journal to review their data if they are requested.

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