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1 **Effect of kaolin silver complex on the control of populations of**  
2 ***Brettanomyces* and acetic acid bacteria in wine.**

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## 1 Abstract

2 The aim of this work was to study the effects of kaolin silver complex (KAgC) on the  
3 control of populations of *Brettanomyces* and acetic acid bacteria in winemaking.

4 We show that the KAgC in wine at doses of 1 g/L provides effective control against the  
5 development of *Brettanomyces* and acetic acid bacteria. In the wines artificially contaminated  
6 with an initial population of  $10^4$  CFU/mL of *B. bruxellensis*, it was possible to reduce almost 3  
7 log on the third day of treatment with KAgC and only residual populations of the  
8 contaminating yeast (24 CFU/mL) remained after 24 days of contact with the additive.  
9 Irrespective of the initial population of *Brettanomyces*, wines with KAgC showed lower  
10 concentrations of acetic acid and 4-ethyl-phenol than wines without KAgC. The population of  
11 acetic bacteria inoculated in wine at concentrations of  $10^2$  and  $10^4$  CFU/mL was reduced to  
12 negligible levels after 72 hours of treatment with KAgC.

13 The antimicrobial effect of KAgC in a wine naturally contaminated with *Brettanomyces*  
14 *bruxellensis* was similar to that which occurs in the treatment with chitosan, decreasing at 10  
15 days and in both cases by 2 log with regard to the initial contaminating population. The  
16 effect of the treatment with KAgC also reduced the population of acetic bacteria by 2 log the  
17 initial level of population. Silver concentration of KAgC added in finished wines was below the  
18 legal limits.

19  
20 **Keywords:** Acetic acid bacteria, *Brettanomyces*, Chitosan, Kaolin-Silver, Wine

## 21 Introduction

22 Wine quality is greatly influenced by the microorganisms which occur throughout the  
23 winemaking process. It has been shown that yeasts belonging to the species *Dekkera*  
24 *bruxellensis*, or its anamorph *Brettanomyces bruxellensis*, have the capacity of spoiling wines  
25 by producing ethyl phenols (Loureiro and Malfeito-Ferreira 2006), which are the compounds  
26 responsible for the off-flavors described as animal odors, farmyards, horse sweat, medicine  
27 and animal leather (Chatonnet *et al.* 1995). For many years, barrel aging has been  
28 considered a source of spoilage. However, better surveys of the yeast population and  
29 spoilage has clearly shown that the problem could occur even during alcoholic fermentation  
30 in stainless steel tanks and also during aging process.

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32        *Brettanomyces* associated problems have seemingly become more prominent in recent  
33 years as a consequence of lower sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) usage due to pressing consumer  
34 demands, the increase of pH that lowers the SO<sub>2</sub> efficiency and the favorable conditions  
35 during aging in barrels (Du Toit et al. 2005, Renouf et al. 2006). Various authors have  
36 concluded that controlling the growth of *Brettanomyces* is the most important challenge for  
37 modern winemaking (Wedral et al. 2010).

38        Moreover, acetic acid bacteria (AAB) play a negative role in wine, being one of the main  
39 reasons for wine spoilage (Drysdale and Fleet 1988) because of an undesirable production of  
40 acetic acid, acetaldehyde, ethyl acetate and dihydroxyacetone (Sponholz and Dittrich 1984).  
41 Till now, sulfur dioxide addition has been the main way to inactivate spoilage  
42 microorganisms. Nevertheless, there is a worldwide trend to reduce sulfur dioxide levels in  
43 wine due to several factors such as increasing health concerns, consumer preferences,  
44 possible organoleptic alterations in the final product and potential legislation on preservatives  
45 (García-Ruiz et al. 2013). For this reason, there is particular interest within the scientific  
46 community in the development of alternatives to the traditional use of sulfur dioxide in  
47 winemaking (Izquierdo-Cañas et al. 2012, González-Arenzana et al. 2015, González-  
48 Arenzana et al. 2016).

49        Among these alternatives, chitosan has received considerable attention due to the  
50 approval of its use in treatments for wine by the International Organization of Vine and Wine  
51 at the OIV Resolution 338A-2009 (OIV, 2015) notably for the *Brettanomyces* control. There  
52 are several studies dealing with the application of chitosan in various food products  
53 (Giatrakou et al. 2010, Huang et al. 2012, Giner et al. 2012). The effectiveness of chitosan  
54 against *Brettanomyces bruxellensis* has been examined in mixed culture fermentations  
55 (Gómez-Rivas et al. 2004), in vitro conditions (Elmaci et al., 2015, Petrova et al. 2016), in a  
56 wine-model synthetic medium (Taillander et al. 2014), and in real vinifications and  
57 commercially produced wines (Blateyron-Pic et al. 2012, Ferreira et al. 2013, Petrova et al.  
58 2016). However, as Petrova et al. (2016) concluded, wines treated with chitosan were not  
59 completely stable after treatment, as populations eventually increased. Furthermore,  
60 chitosan can negatively affect some physicochemical characteristics of wine (Ferreira et al.  
61 2013).

62        An alternative to the addition of SO<sub>2</sub>, from the point of view of its antimicrobial action, is  
63 the use of silver. Silver has been used for its antimicrobial properties since ancient times and

64 recent studies have shown that silver nanomaterials are antimicrobial towards a broad  
65 spectrum of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and also exert some antifungal and  
66 antiviral activities (Rathnayake et al. 2012, García-Ruíz et al. 2015). Despite the great  
67 interest in the applications on these materials in the field of enology, so far studies on the  
68 use of silver as an antimicrobial in winemaking have been very scarce (Monge et al. 2016).

69 This study shows the results of two trials that examine the effects of kaolin silver complex  
70 (KAgC) (Enosan Micro. Laboratorios Enosan, S.L., Zaragoza, Spain,  
71 www.laboratoriosenosan.com) on the control of populations of *Brettanomyces* and acetic acid  
72 bacteria in winemaking and provides comparison with chitosan on *Brettanomyces* control.  
73 The effect of KAgC treatment on the metabolites of a *Brettanomyces* and AAB contamination  
74 (acetic acid and volatile phenols) is also shown.

75

## 76 **Material and methods**

### 77 **KAgC (Kaolin Silver Complex)**

78 KAgC is produced under patent (PCT/ES2015/070532). It is a grey powder with particle  
79 size of around 30 nm and it is insoluble in ethanol and water, composed of an inorganic inert  
80 material (kaolin), used as support, on whose surface silver nanoparticles (<10 nm) are  
81 deposited (colloidal silver). KAgC was supplied in permeable bags that contained 1 g of  
82 KAgC.

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### 84 **Initial wines**

85 In trial 1 a red wine was used (**Table 1**, Wine 1) which has been produced without the  
86 addition of sulfur dioxide, but with a natural presence as a secondary metabolite of total SO<sub>2</sub>  
87 (≤ 4 mg/L). The wine was fined with egg white and filtered through 0.22 microns in order to  
88 eliminate any naturally occurring contaminating microorganism in the wine. Prior to  
89 commencing the experiment, a check that the wine is sterile was performed by filtering 100  
90 mL of wine through a 0.22 micron pore membrane and incubating it on a Sabouraud agar  
91 medium. After 48 h of incubation at 28 °C growth was null. The red wine was distributed in  
92 36 aliquots of 1 L in previously sterilized glass bottles, with a magnetic stirrer in its interior  
93 to produce gentle agitation.

94 In the second trial a naturally contaminated wine (**Table 1**, Wine 2) with a population of  
95 *Brettanomyces* yeasts of 1.0E+04 CFU/mL and a population of AAB of 1.10E+05 CFU/mL  
96 was used. According to the results of the microbiological analysis, this wine did not contain  
97 lactic acid bacteria. The wine had a moderately high acetic acid content related to the  
98 presence of AAB. Also, the initial wine had high ethyl phenol and ethyl guayacol content  
99 related to the presence of the *Brettanomyces* yeasts.

### 101 **Strains used to contaminate the wine from Trial 1**

#### 102 *Brettanomyces*

103 The initial culture of *Brettanomyces bruxellensis* consisted of a mixture of four strains  
104 isolated from a naturally contaminated wine that contained 742 µg/L of 4-ethyl-phenol.  
105 These four strains were identified at specie level as *Brettanomyces bruxellensis* by molecular  
106 techniques. The amplification of the internal transcribed spacers (ITS1 and ITS2) of the rRNA  
107 5.8S was used. DNA from each culture was isolated and PCR amplification was carried out  
108 following conditions described by Guillamón et al. 1998 and Esteve-Zarzoso et al. 1999. PCR  
109 products were electrophoresed on 1.4 % agarose (Roche Diagnostics, Spain), stained with  
110 ethidium bromide and photographed (**Figure 1**). Results of the amplicon size were compared  
111 with those described in the bibliography (Guillamón et al. 1998 and Esteve-Zarzoso et al.  
112 1999) and identified as *Brettanomyces bruxellensis*.

113 To obtain enough population to be inoculated in the Wine 1, these 4 strains were initially  
114 multiplied in YPD media. The experiment was carried out with a culture of *Brettanomyces*  
115 with an initial concentration of 1.7E+07 CFU/mL. Different volumes of this culture were  
116 added to Wine 1 to get a population of 1.0E+02 CFU /mL, 1.0E+04 CFU/mL and 1.0E+06  
117 CFU/mL respectively.

#### 119 *AAB (acetic acid bacteria)*

120 To contaminate the Wine 1, two different species of acetic acid bacteria, *Gluconobacter*  
121 *oxydans* (Colección Española de Cultivos Tipo CECT 360) and *Acetobacter aceti* (CECT 298)  
122 were used. Bacteria were initially multiplied on Mannitol media (0,5 % yeast extract, 0,3 %  
123 peptone, 2,5 % Mannitol) to obtain sufficient population to be subsequently inoculated in  
124 wine to reach concentrations of 1.0E+02 CFU/mL, 1.0E+04 CFU/mL and 1.0E+06 CFU/mL,  
125 respectively.

126

## 127 **Experiments and treatments**

128 In trial 1, two experimental series (*Brettanomyces* and AAB) were made. Each  
129 experimental series consisted of bottles containing wine 1: 3 bottles were inoculated with  
130 *Brettanomyces* and 3 with AAB cultures to obtain 1.0E+02 CFU/mL, the same was done with  
131 1.0E+04 CFU/mL and with 1.0E+06 CFU/mL concentrations. One bag of KAgC was added to  
132 3 bottles of each series (triplicates), so the dose of treatment was 1 g/L and in each  
133 experimental series (Brett or AAB) 3 bottles without KAgC were used as a control.

134 Bottles were gently stirred (100 rpm) in order to put the bag that contained KAgC in  
135 contact with the whole volume of the wine. Samplings were taken at different contact times  
136 and plate count analysis, and acetic acid and 4-ethyl-phenol content were evaluated. The  
137 duration of the experiment of *Brettanomyces* inactivation was 24 days and 3 days for AAB.

138 In trial 2, three batches of 3 bottles each were prepared using Wine 2 (**Table 1**). One  
139 batch was used as a control; 1 g/L of KAgC was added to the bottles of the second batch  
140 and 7 g/HL of chitosan (NoBrettInside®, Lallemand, Montreal, Canada) to the last one. Each  
141 bottle was stirred daily and *Brettanomyces* and AAB populations were measured at day 10 of  
142 the treatment.

143

## 144 **Microbiological counts**

### 145 *Enumeration by counts in plates*

146 In Trial 1, the *Brettanomyces* population was controlled at day 0, just after being  
147 inoculated, and at 3, 10, 17 and 24 days after the treatment. Serial dilutions (from 10<sup>-1</sup> to  
148 10<sup>-6</sup>) in sterile saline solution were plated onto Sabouraud-chloramphenicol agar plates  
149 (Cultimed, Panreac, Barcelona, Spain). Plates were incubated under aerobic conditions at  
150 28°C for 10 days. After this time colonies were counted and the results were expressed as  
151 colony forming units (CFU) per milliliter of wine.

152 The AAB population was counted in each bottle at day 0, just after being inoculated in the  
153 wine, and at 1, 2 and 3 days after starting the treatment with KAgC. 0.1 mL of the sample  
154 was taken and serial dilutions (from 10<sup>-1</sup> to 10<sup>-6</sup>) in a sterile saline solution were spread onto  
155 plates of GYC medium (5% glucose, 1% yeast extract, 0.5% calcic carbonate, 2% agar) to  
156 which 50 mg/L nystatin (Sigma-Aldrich) was added. The plates were incubated under aerobic

157 conditions at 30°C for 5 days. Counts were expressed as colony forming units (CFU) per  
158 milliliter of wine.

159 In Trial 2, cell population was evaluated by qPCR based on Scorpions (Whitcobe *et al.*  
160 1999; Umiker *et al.*, 2013). qPCR detection was performed using the Scorpions Wine  
161 Spoilage Systems module (ETS Laboratories, St. Helena, CA).

162 After mixing, a 1.5 mL sample was removed and centrifuged (9,000 x g). The pellet was  
163 suspended in 1x wash buffer from the lysis module (LYR-50-01) and centrifuged. The pellet  
164 was then suspended in 15 mL of 1x wash buffer prior to transfer to a 15 mL centrifuge tube  
165 for recentrifugation. Cell lysis was accomplished by suspending cell pellets in 200 µL of 1x  
166 lysis reagent (LYR-50-01). Pellets were then incubated at 37°C for 30 min, mixed and  
167 incubated for an additional 30 min adding 20 µL Proteinase K with 200 µL of PBS and buffer  
168 AL 200 uL (DX Reagent Qiagen Pack for QIAextractor #950107, Qiagen, Inc., Valencia, CA) to  
169 the suspension and incubated for 30 min at 55°C, mixed and incubated for an additional 30  
170 min. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation (15,000 x g for 6 min) before removal of 420  
171 µL supernatant used for DNA extraction and purification using the QIAextractor and DX  
172 reagent pack according to the manufacturer's instructions.

173 For *Brettanomyces* purified nucleic acid (5 µL) was combined with 20 µL Scorpions Yeast  
174 Assay Multiplex Mastermix and 5 µL Scorpions Reagent (YDR1-50-01) along with 15 µL Taq  
175 Polymerase Mastermix containing dNTPs, MgCl<sub>2</sub> and supplied buffer. Some way for acetic  
176 acid bacteria using purified nucleic acid (5 µL) was combined with 20 µL Scorpions Bacteria I  
177 Assay Multiplex Mastermix and 5 µL Scorpions Reagent. Amplification and detection of DNA  
178 was conducted with a Q-Gene thermocycler (Qiagen, Inc.). Quantification of samples and  
179 efficacy of the assay was determined using standard curves generated by isolating DNA from  
180 serial dilutions (10<sup>6</sup>-10<sup>1</sup>) of a *Brettanomyces* and AAB respectably cultures grown in wine.  
181 The Scorpions Yeast and Bacteria Multiplex assay contain an internal control reaction  
182 consisting of primers and a probe to amplify target DNA spiked into the mastermix. Signal  
183 strength of the internal control reaction is monitored to avoid false negatives due to the  
184 presence of PCR inhibitors.

185 Positive controls, samples with a known population of *Brettanomyces* and acetic bacteria  
186 in wine, were lysed, extracted and amplified along with samples being analyzed. A non  
187 template control consisting of 20 µL yeast Scorpions Assay Multiplex Mastermix and 5 µL of



188 molecular biology grade ddH<sub>2</sub>O was also conducted. Populations of *Brettanomyces* were  
189 calculated by the analysis software provided with the Q-Gene thermocycler.

190

### 191 **Determination of acetic acid and volatile phenols**

192 Evolution of acetic acid was analyzed in each sampling in Trial 1. Acetic acid was  
193 determined in a Lisa 200 multi-parametric analyzer (Hycel diagnostics, TDI Tecnología  
194 Difusión Ibérica, S.L., Spain) by enzymatic methods in accordance with Commission  
195 Regulation (EC 2676/1990, E.E.C., 1990) and the International Organization of Vine and  
196 Wine (OIV, 2016).

197 Ethylphenol in wines was analyzed by gas chromatography (Chatonnet et al. 1995) at the  
198 end of Trial 1 (day 24) in the treatment of *Brettanomyces* inactivation with KAgC. Ten mL of  
199 wine were extracted three times with successively 5 ml, 2 mL and 2 mL of dichloromethane.  
200 The combined organic extracts were slowly concentrated to 1 ml at room temperature by  
201 evaporation under nitrogen gas flow. Gas chromatography was performed with a HP5890  
202 series II instrument by injecting 1 µL of the concentrate extract by means of a splitless  
203 injector (splitless time: 30 s; split ratio: 1/50; temperature: 250°C) into a capillary column  
204 (Suprawax 280, 30 m, 0.53 mm internal diameter), programmed from 45°C to 230°C at  
205 3°C/min, final isotherm 30 min, with hydrogen as carrier gas (1 mL/min). The detection was  
206 performed with a flame ionization detector (FID) at 260°C. Quantification was carried out by  
207 reference to a standard range prepared under the same conditions.

208

### 209 **Analysis of the content ion silver in wines**

210 Content of silver was determined at the end of the experiments in all wines using a  
211 Zeeman graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometer Varian model AA240ZGTA 120  
212 (Varian Inc. Walnut Creek, CA, USA), after ashing the sample and dissolving in nitric acid  
213 following the official analytical method OIV-MA-AS322-09 (OIV, 2016).

214

### 215 **Statistical analysis**

216 Data were subjected to the Student's t test and Student-Newman Keuls test to identify  
217 any statistically significant differences between treatments, using SPSS software (version  
218 12.0).

219

## 220 **Results and discussion**

### 221 **Inactivation of *Brettanomyces***

222 **Figure 2** shows the evolution of the viable population of *Brettanomyces* in CFU/mL at 0,  
223 3, 10, 17 and 24 days of the Trial 1. When the wine was inoculated with a population of  
224  $1.0E+2$  CFU/mL (**Figure 2a**), a reduction almost 1 log of the initial population of  
225 *Brettanomyces* was observed in the wines treated with KAgC at day 3 of contact with the  
226 product. In the control wine, without KAgC, an increase of the population of *Brettanomyces*  
227 was detected from day 3, further increasing to 4 log on day 10. In wines with KAgC a small  
228 increase was also observed on days 10 and 17, probably due to the growth inertia of the  
229 vegetative cells caused by the growth of a culture in a synthetic medium (YPD). But this  
230 growth ceased and the population clearly decreased in the sample taken on day 24 of  
231 treatment, when the count in the wine with KAgC indicated a reduction of more than 2.5 log  
232 compared to the one conducted on day 17, more than 1.5 log compared to the baseline  
233 population and approximately 5 log compared to the control wine without KAgC.

234 **Figure 2b** shows the behavior of *Brettanomyces* when the initial population was about  
235  $1.0E+4$  CFU/mL. The KAgC showed strong action at day 3 reducing almost 3 log with respect  
236 to the initial population. This inactivation was virtually total at day 10 from the start of  
237 treatment. After this sampling, the population of *Brettanomyces* remained well below the  
238 initial concentration of cells added to the wine: from 14000 CFU/mL at day 0 to only 49  
239 CFU/mL at day 24 (reduction of 2.45 log).

240 In wines with a population of  $1.0E+06$  CFU/mL (**Figure 2c**) the level of inactivation of the  
241 *Brettanomyces* population of the previous experiments was not achieved, although a smaller  
242 population (between 1 and 1.5 log) was found on day 24 of treatment, while the control  
243 maintains the same initial population at 24 days. It should be mentioned that it is very  
244 difficult to find such high populations of *Brettanomyces* in real conditions, in naturally  
245 contaminated wines. In these cases, the results indicate that perhaps it would be necessary  
246 to treat the wines with doses of over 1g/L of KAgC.

247 Acetic acid is a parameter that could be indicative of contamination of wine with  
248 *Brettanomyces* (Garijo et al. 2017). **Table 2** shows the values of this parameter in wines  
249 from Trial 1 with different initial concentration of *Brettanomyces* cells, with or without KAgC

250 (control). Control wines were those in which acetic acid had a considerable increase over the  
251 24 days of the trial, reaching values between 1.20 and 1.56 g/L of acetic acid.

252 In the case of wines inoculated with *Brettanomyces* populations of  $1.0E + 02$  CFU/mL and  
253  $1.0E + 04$  CFU/mL where KAgC was added, no significant increases in the acetic acid were  
254 detected during the 24 days of the study. In the KAgC wines initially inoculated with  
255 populations of  $1.0E+06$  CFU/mL where high population of *Brettanomyces* cells were  
256 detected, the acetic acid also increased, a fact which demonstrates that the strains used in  
257 the trial produce acetic acid. In this case, higher concentrations of KAgC (above 1 g/L) or  
258 combination of KAgC with other antimicrobial substances or techniques may be required to  
259 stop *Brettanomyces* growth.

260 4-ethyl-phenol concentration was analyzed at the end of the trial (24 days) in wines  
261 contaminated with *Brettanomyces*. 4-ethyl-phenol in control wines (without KAgC) was  
262 higher than those where 1 g/L of KAgC was added, whatever the initial inoculum of  
263 *Brettanomyces* (**Table 2**). Values of this metabolite in control wines with  $1.0E+04$  and  
264  $1.0E+06$  initial Brett cells exceeded the perception threshold 425  $\mu\text{g/L}$  (Chatonnet et al.  
265 1992). In wines treated with KAgC, although 4-ethyl-phenol was produced by *Brettanomyces*  
266 cells, never exceeded this threshold. The concentration of this metabolite in the samples with  
267 KAgC was 79% lower than the control wine starting from an initial inoculate of  
268 *Brettanomyces* of  $10^2$  CFU/mL, 95 % lower in the case of  $10^4$  CFU/mL and 55% less starting  
269 from a population of  $10^6$  CFU/mL *Brettanomyces*. These results show that KAgC was able to  
270 slow the growth and viability of *Brettanomyces* and, consequently, decrease the possibility of  
271 unpleasant odors being produced due to this contaminating yeast which would have a  
272 negative effect of the sensory profile of the wine.

273 In Trial 2, both KAgC and chitosan treatments allowed a significant reduction of  
274 *Brettanomyces* population (**Table 3**). Thus, when 1g/L of KAgC was added to the  
275 Tempranillo wine naturally contaminated with of  $1.0 \times 10^4$  GU/mL (Genomic Units) of *B.*  
276 *bruxellensis*, populations declined to  $1.2 \times 10^2$  GU/mL ten days after addition, however in the  
277 control wines at the same period, *B. bruxellensis* increased 0.57 log. When 7 g/HL of fungal  
278 chitosan was added to the same initial wine, populations of *B. bruxellensis* declined to  $3.0 \times$   
279  $10^2$  GU/mL ten days after addition. There were no significant differences between samples  
280 treated with KAgC or chitosan. Hence, according this data, both KAgC and chitosan would  
281 reduce, but would not eliminate, this spoilage yeast. Regarding to chitosan, similar results

282 were obtained by Petrova *et al* (2016) when they inoculated  $8.8 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL of *B.*  
283 *bruxellensis* in a Merlot wine. In that trial, populations of *B. bruxellensis* declined to  $10^2$   
284 CFU/mL eleven days after addition of 4 or 10 g/HL of fungal chitosan. Blateyron-Pic *et al.*  
285 (2012), in wines naturally contaminated with  $10^5$  CFU/mL of *Brettanomyces*, found a residual  
286 population 10 days after treatment with 4 g/HL of chitosan of near to 100 CFU/mL. Ferreira  
287 *et al* (2013) found that the anti-yeast activity of chitosan was strain dependent because  
288 when they inoculated 7 log CFU/mL of two *Brettanomyces* strains on a red wine from the  
289 Alentejo region of Portugal, one yeast strain was inactivated, while the other yeast strain  
290 was more resistant (3 log cycle reduction).

291 Therefore, according to the data obtained by the Q-PCR, both treatments would give the  
292 impression of being effective in reducing populations of *B. bruxellensis* in a naturally  
293 contaminated wine, but not to obtain the elimination them completely. It is therefore of  
294 interest to check the status of the *Brettanomyces* residual population after treatments with  
295 KAgC and chitosan.

296

### 297 **Inactivation of acetic acid bacteria**

298 **Figure 3** shows the evolution of the population of acetic acid bacteria in CFU/mL at 0, 1,  
299 2 and 3 days of the Trial 1. When the wine was inoculated with a population of  $1.0E+2$   
300 CFU/mL (**Figure 3a**) the population of AAB fell by 2 log during the first day of treatment  
301 with KAgC and no culture-viable cells were detected after 3 days from commencement of the  
302 experiment. Although there was also a decrease in the control wine between T0 and T3 (1  
303 log) due to the inhibitory effect that the wine itself has on AAB, this drop was not as great as  
304 in the samples with KAgC.

305 The evolution of the population with a baseline AAB concentration of  $1.0E+04$  CFU/mL  
306 (**Figure 3b**) was similar to the previous case. There was a reduction in the population of  
307 1.89 log during the first 24 hours of contact with the KAgC complex. And 3.37 log after 48  
308 hours. After the third day the inactivation of the AAB was complete in KAgC wines. In the  
309 control wine the population also fell slightly, 0.62 log in 3 days.

310 In wines with a population of  $1.0E+06$  CFU/mL (**Figure 3c**) the anti-bacterial effect of  
311 KAgC was detected on day one in the bottles which contained it, with a reduction of 1.9 log,  
312 the same as in the initial concentration of  $1.0E+04$  CFU/mL and very similar to that with  
313  $1.0E+02$  CFU/mL. In the control wine, over the same period, the loss of viability was only

314 0.52 log. After 3 days contact with KAgC a decrease in AAB of 2.9 log was achieved while in  
315 the control batch, due to the effect of the master itself, the reduction was 0.97 log.

316 Similar results were obtained by Izquierdo-Cañas et al (2012) when a colloidal silver  
317 complex at doses of 1 g/Kg was applied in Merseguera and Monastrell musts, achieving a  
318 decrease between one and two orders of magnitude in AAB populations at the end of  
319 alcoholic fermentation. Garde-Cerdán et al (2013) compared the action of colloidal silver  
320 particles (KAgC) and SO<sub>2</sub> on viable AAB counts in the Tempranillo winemaking process in  
321 must and 24 h after treatment with SO<sub>2</sub> or KAgC and concluded that the addition of SO<sub>2</sub> did  
322 not affect de AAB population whereas the presence of KAgC reduced it by 2 log CFU/mL.  
323 Finally, García-Ruiz et al (2015) using silver-based, biocompatible nanoparticles to evaluate  
324 their antimicrobial activity against enological AAB, among other microorganisms, also  
325 demonstrated the efficiency of ion Ag in controlling microbial processes in winemaking.

326 In this study, the data showed that KAgC had a rapid antimicrobial effect on a group of  
327 wine spoilage microorganisms such as the AAB, achieving irrespective of the initial  
328 population a fall of almost 2 log during the first day of contact with KAgC and between 2.3  
329 and 3.97 log reduction by the third day.

330 Moreover, the action of KAgC on these spoilage bacteria reveals an additional advantage  
331 compared to other alternatives to SO<sub>2</sub> in microbiological control, such as lysozyme, which  
332 only acts against gram-positive bacteria and not against gram-negative ones such as AAB.

333 As in the case of *Brettanomyces*, it would be necessary to test the effect of a treatment at  
334 a concentration of above 1 g/L of KAgC when the initial AAB concentrations were around  
335 1.0E+06 CFU/mL.

336 In trial 2, both KAgC and chitosan treatments allowed a significant reduction of acetic acid  
337 bacteria population (**Table 3**). Thus, when 1 g/L of KAgC was added to a Tempranillo red  
338 wine naturally contaminated with populations of 1.1 x 10<sup>5</sup> GU/mL of acetic acid bacteria,  
339 populations declined to 1,72 x 10<sup>3</sup> GU/mL. Thus, as occurred with *Brettanomyces*, KAgC  
340 reduced acetic acid bacteria by 2 log GU/mL although it did not completely eliminate these  
341 spoilage bacteria. When 7 g/HL of fungal chitosan was added to the same initial wine,  
342 populations of acetic acid bacteria declined to 3.47 x 10<sup>3</sup> GU/mL ten days after addition. In  
343 this sense, when Valera et al. (2017) compared chitosan and SO<sub>2</sub> effects in artificially  
344 contaminated wines with two strains of the species of acetic acid bacteria *Acetobacter*, they  
345 detected that their viability decreased with the application of chitosan. In our study there

346 were no significant differences between samples treated with KAgC or chitosan. Hence,  
347 according to this data, both KAgC and chitosan would reduce, but would not eliminate, these  
348 spoilage bacteria.

349

### 350 **Concentration of ion Ag in final wines**

351 Regarding silver content in the final wines, it was far below the legal limit of 100 µg/L  
352 (0.1 mg/L) established by the OIV-OENO 145-2009, (OIV, 2015). This corroborates the  
353 results by Izquierdo-Cañas et al (2012) who studied the application of colloidal silver  
354 complex in winemaking.

355

### 356 **Conclusion**

357 According to these results, the viability of the yeast *Brettanomyces bruxellensis* and AAB,  
358 the main microorganisms which can affect wines organoleptic features, reduced by the  
359 presence of KAgC. In the case of *Brettanomyces* and AAB with populations of 1.0E+06  
360 CFU/mL, the effect is less marked and it would be necessary to test whether a greater  
361 concentration of KAgC would have the desired effect.

362 In the case of acetic acid producing strains of *Brettanomyces*, it has been shown that the  
363 presence of KAgC decreases the risk of their production although in the wine there may be  
364 small residual populations of this yeast. In the same way, the risk of producing 4-ethyl-  
365 phenol is decreased in the presence of KAgC correlated with the inactivation of the strains of  
366 *Brettanomyces* which produce this metabolite.

367 The effectiveness of KAgC in the reduction of populations of *B. bruxellensis* and AAB has  
368 been demonstrated by two methods of microbiological analysis: plate counts and Q-PCR. Its  
369 action on *Brettanomyces* cells in naturally contaminated wines was very similar to that  
370 achieved with Chitosan.

371

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453

454 **Figure 1:** Amplification of the internal transcribed spacers (ITS1 and ITS2) of the rRNA 5.8S  
455 of four *Brettanomyces bruxellensis* strains used in the study. Lanes 1 to 4: strain 1, strain 2,  
456 strain 3, strain 4. MWM: molecular weight marker 100 pb Ladder.

457

458 **Figure 2:** Populations of *Brettanomyces* in wine artificially polluted along 24 days after KAgC  
459 treatment.

460

461 **Figure 3:** Populations of acetic acid bacteria in wine artificially polluted along 3 days after  
462 KAgC treatment.

463

464 **Table 1:** Physicochemical parameters of initial wines.

465

466

467 **Table 2:** Acetic acid and 4-ethylphenol concentration in wines artificially polluted with  
468 increasing amounts of *Brettanomyces*.

469

470

471 **Table 3:** Populations of *B. bruxellensis* and acetic acid bacteria (GU/mL) in wine naturally  
472 contaminated (or polluted) before and after ten days of treatments with KAgC and chitosan.

473

474

**Table 1:**

	<b>Wine 1</b>	<b>Wine 2</b>
Alcohol content (% v/v)	11.48	14.26
Volatile acidity (g/L of acetic acid)	0.50	0.76
Total acidity (g/L of tartaric acid)	6.40	5.35
pH	3.48	3.66
Glucose +Fructose (g/L)	0.20	0.25
Total SO <sub>2</sub> (mg/L)	4	85
Free SO <sub>2</sub> (mg/L)	n.d.	7
4-ethylphenol (µg/L)	n.d.	1087
4-ethylguaiacol (µg/L)	n.d.	146

n.d.: Not Detected.

**Table 2:**

Initial CFU/mL	1.0E+02		1.0E+04		1.0E+06	
Time (Days)	Control	KAgC	Control	KAgC	Control	KAgC
Acetic acid (g/L)						
0	0.51 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.51 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.50 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.50 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.49 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.50 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>
24	1.20 ± 0.30 <sup>b</sup>	0.53 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	1.56 ± 0.15 <sup>b</sup>	0.61 ± 0.20 <sup>a</sup>	1.50 ± 0.09 <sup>b</sup>	1.39 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>
4-ethylphenol (µg/L)						
0	32.5 ± 5.2 <sup>a</sup>	29.1 ± 6.4 <sup>a</sup>	34.2 ± 4.3 <sup>a</sup>	30.7 ± 6.1 <sup>a</sup>	33.8 ± 4.6 <sup>a</sup>	33.8 ± 4.6 <sup>a</sup>
24	143.4 ± 10.6 <sup>b</sup>	30.1 ± 5.8 <sup>a</sup>	516 ± 19.1 <sup>b</sup>	26.3 ± 7.8 <sup>a</sup>	785 ± 50.8 <sup>b</sup>	352 ± 31.8 <sup>b</sup>

Different superscripts (<sup>a</sup>, <sup>b</sup>, <sup>c</sup>) in the same column indicate significant differences for  $\alpha = 0.05$  according to the Student- Newman-Keuls test.

Values are the mean of triplicates.

Table 3:

	<i>Brettanomyces</i>		Acetic acid bacteria	
	Initial wine	10 days after treatment	Initial wine	10 days after treatment
<b>Control</b>		3.73E+04 <sup>b</sup>		8.27E+05 <sup>b</sup>
<b>KAgC</b>	1.00E+04	1.17E+02 <sup>a</sup>	1.10E+05	1.72E+03 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Chitosan</b>		3.00E+02 <sup>a</sup>		3.47E+03 <sup>a</sup>

Different superscripts (<sup>a</sup>, <sup>b</sup>) indicate significant differences in the same column for  $\alpha = 0.05$  according to the Student- Newman-Keuls test. Values are the mean of triplicates.

Figure 1:

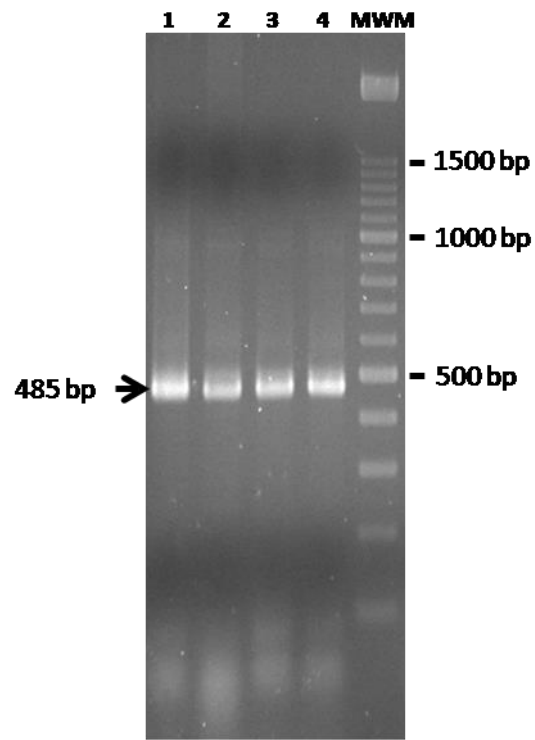
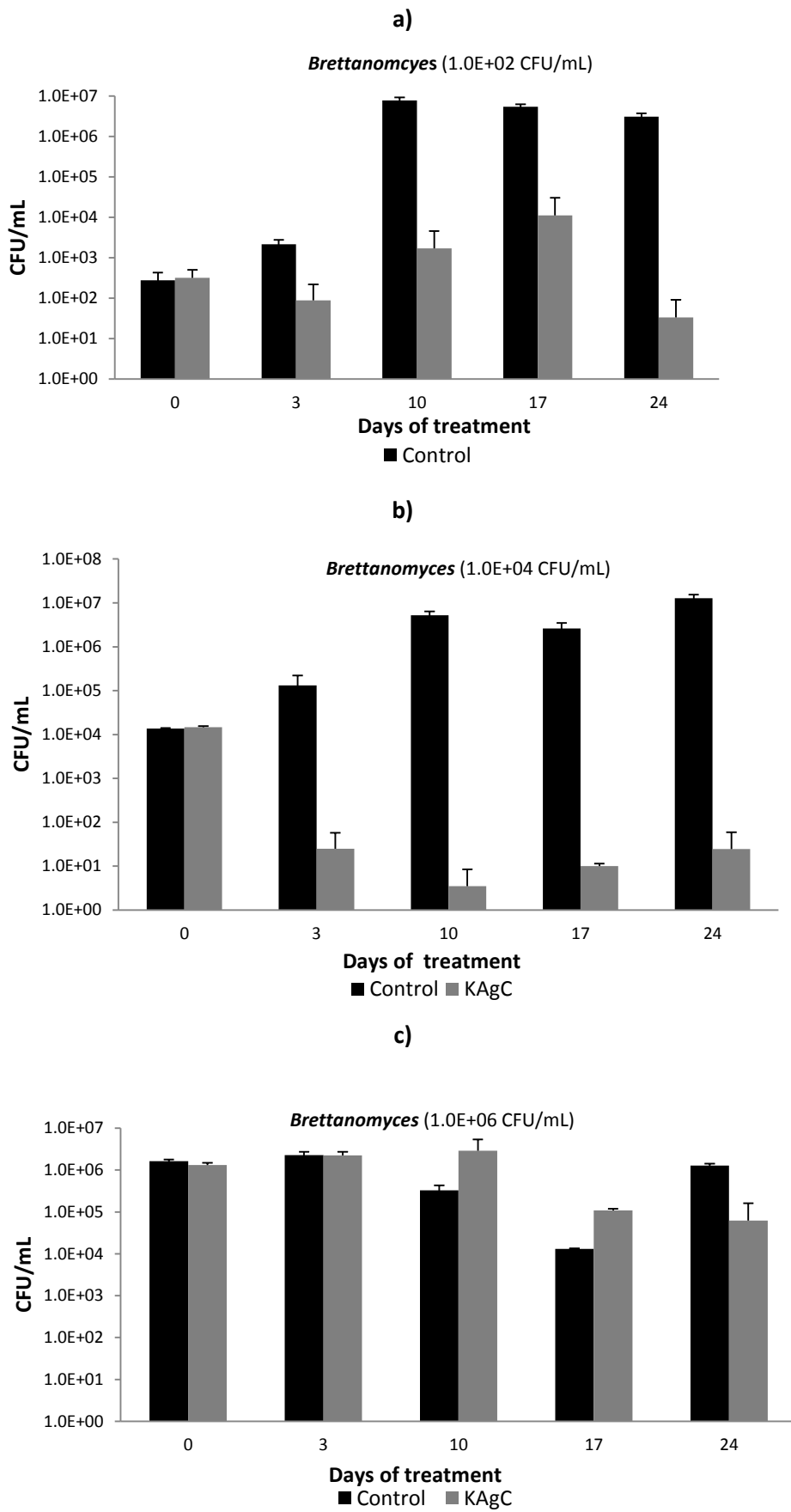
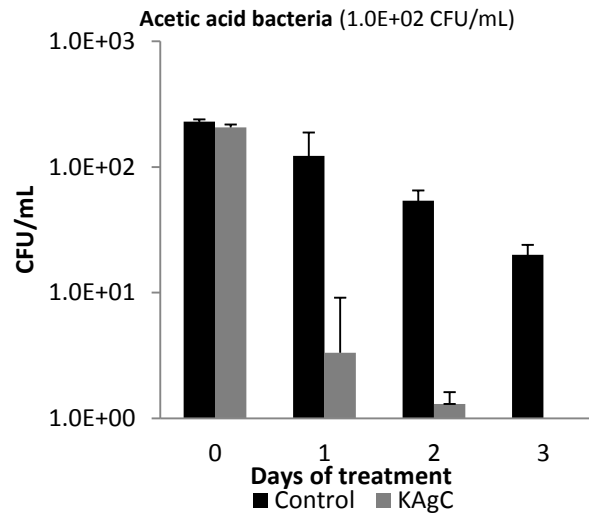


Figure 2:

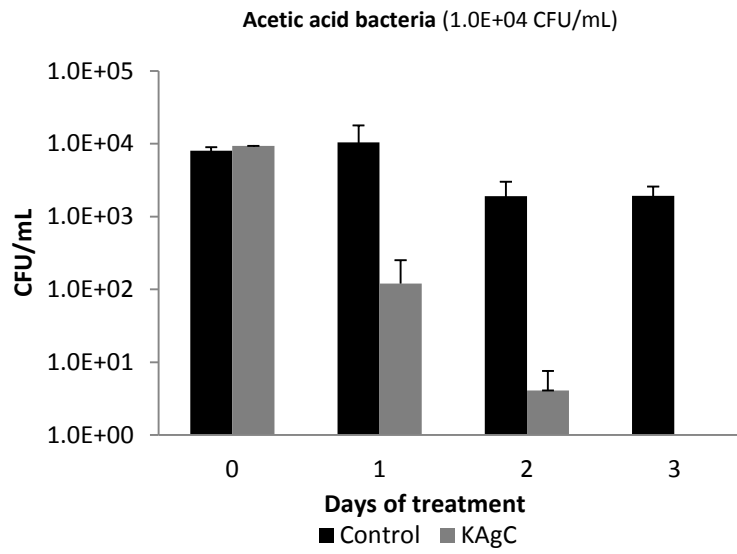


**Figure 3:**

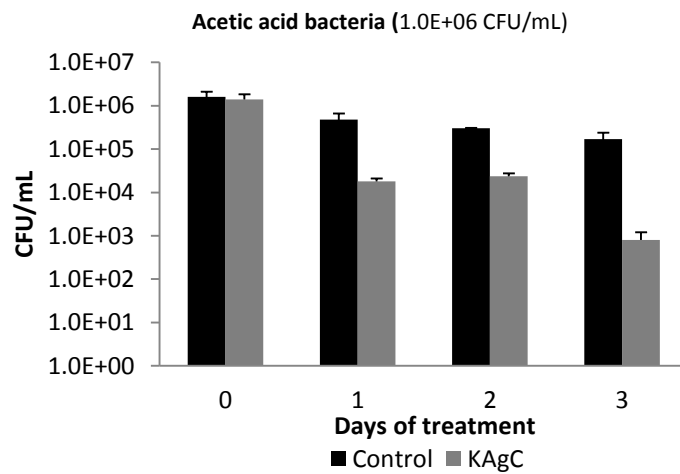
**a)**



**b)**



**c)**



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**Title of the article** EFFECT OF KAOLIN SILVER COMPLEX ON  
THE CONTROL OF POPULATIONS OF BRETTANOMYCES AND ACETIC  
ACID BACTERIA IN WINE

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