

Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition

ISSN: 1040-8398 (Print) 1549-7852 (Online) Journal homepage: https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/bfsn20

Enzymatic added extraction and clarification of fruit juices-A review

Harsh P. Sharma, Hiral Patel & Sugandha

To cite this article: Harsh P. Sharma, Hiral Patel & Sugandha (2017) Enzymatic added extraction and clarification of fruit juices-A review, Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition, 57:6, 1215-1227, DOI: 10.1080/10408398.2014.977434

To link to this article: https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2014.977434

Accepted author version posted online: 05 lan 2016. Published online: 13 Feb 2017.



🕼 Submit your article to this journal 🗗

Article views: 1851



View related articles



View Crossmark data 🗹

Citing articles: 39 View citing articles 🖸



Enzymatic added extraction and clarification of fruit juices-A review

Harsh P. Sharma^a, Hiral Patel^a, and Sugandha^b

^aCollege of Food Processing Technology and Bio-energy, Anand Agricultural University, Anand Gujarat, India; ^bDepartment of Food Engineering and Technology, Sant Longowal Institute of Engineering and Technology, Longowal, Punjab, India

ABSTRACT

Enzymatic treatment for juice extraction is most commonly used now a days. The enzymatic process is claimed to offer a number of advantages over mechanical-thermal comminution of several fruit pulps. Enzymes are an integral component of modern fruit juice manufacturing and are highly suitable for optimizing processes. Their main purposes are: increase extraction of juice from raw material, increase processing efficiency (pressing, solid settling or removal), and generate a final product that is clear and visually attractive. Juice extraction can be done by using various mechanical processes, which may be achieved through diffusion extraction, decanter centrifuge, screw type juice extractor, fruit pulper and by different types of presses. Enzymatic treatment prior to mechanical extraction significantly improves juice recovery compared to any other extraction process. Enzymatic hydrolysis of the cell walls increases the extraction yield, reducing sugars, soluble dry matter content and galacturonic acid content and titrable acidity of the products. Enzymatic degradation of the biomaterial depends upon the type of enzyme, incubation time, incubation temperature, enzyme concentration, agitation, pH and use of different enzyme combinations. We can conclude from the technical literature that use of the enzymes i.e. cellulases, pectinases, amylases and combination of these enzymes can give better juice yield with superior quality of the fruit juice. Pectinase enzyme can give maximum juice yield i.e. 92.4% at 360 minutes incubation time, 37°C incubation temperature and 5 mg/100 g of enzyme concentration. Whereas the combination of two enzymes i.e. pectin methyl esterase (PME) and polygalacturonase (PG) at 120 minutes of incubation time, 50°C of incubation temperature and 0.05 mg/100 gm of enzymatic concentration can give the maximum yield of 96.8% for plum fruits. This paper discusses the use of enzymes in fruit juice production focusing on the juice recovery, clarity and effect of the particular enzyme on the biochemical properties of the fruit juices.

1. Introduction

Fruits and vegetables are important sources of essential dietary nutrients such as vitamins, minerals and fiber. Since the moisture content of fresh fruits and vegetables is more than 80%, they are classified as highly perishable commodities. The world fruit production is about **609,213,509** metric ton in 2010 (FAO STAT, 2010–11). In India, out of the total production of fruits and vegetables, nearly 76% is consumed in fresh form, while wastage and losses account for 20–22%. Only 4% of fruit production are being processed (Indian Horticulture Database, 2013).

Food preservation has an important role in the conservation and better utilization of fruits and vegetables in order to avoid the glut and utilize the surplus during the off-season. It is necessary to employ modern methods to extend storage life for better distribution and also processing techniques to preserve them for utilization in the off-season (Vidhya and Narain, 2011). The fruit can be preserved by converted it in to products like jam, jelly, fruit bar, juice, pickle and murabba to prolong their utilizable lifespan. Fruit juicing is one of the easiest way to preserved fruit.

The production of fruit and vegetable juices is important both from the human health and commercial standpoints. The **KEYWORDS**

Enzymatic treatment; juice extraction; pectinase; juice yield; clarity; enzymatic concentration

availability of nutritious components from fruits and vegetables to a wide range of consumers is thus facilitated throughout the year by the marketing of their juices. The production of fruit and vegetable juices requires methods for extraction, clarification and stabilization (Bhat, 2000).

The most traditional method of juice extraction is through the use of presses viz., traditional rack and cloth press, screw presses, Bucher–Guyer horizontal press, and the belt press. Juice extraction can also be done by using diffusion extraction, decanter centrifuge (Beveridge and Rao, 1997), screw type juice extractor, fruit pulper (Lotha et al., 1994). The yield of juice using such juice extraction methods can be increased by combining them with various pre-treatments viz., cold, hot, and enzymatic extraction (Chadha et al., 2003). Enzymatic treatment is one of them, which gives significant increase in juice recovery compare to cold and hot extraction (Joshi et al., 1991).

The enzymatic process is claimed to offer a number of advantages over mechanical-thermal comminution of several fruit pulps. In particular, the use of cellulases and pectinases has been an integral part of modern fruit processing technology involving treatment of fruit masses they not only facilitate easy pressing and increase in juice recovery but also ensure the highest possible

CONTACT Harsh P. Sharma 🖾 harshsharma1983@yahoo.co.in 🗊 College of Food Processing Technology and Bio-energy, Anand Agricultural University, Anand 388110 Gujarat, India.

quality of end products (Roumbouts and Pilnik, 1978; Kilara, 1982). These enzymes not only help in softening the plant tissue but also lead to the release of cell contents that may be recovered with high yield (Sreenath et al., 1984).

Clarification is a process by which the semistable emulsion of colloidal plant carbohydrates that support the insoluble cloud material of a freshly pressed juice is "broken" such that the viscosity is dropped and the opacity of the cloudy juice is changed to an open splotchy look. This can be accomplished in one of two general ways: enzymatically and non-enzymatically (Kilara and Van Buren, 1989).

Nonenzymatic clarification involves breaking the emulsion by other means, the most common of which is heat. Other techniques include addition of gelatin, casein, and tannic acid-protein combinations (Kilara and Van Buren, 1989). In addition, the uses of honey and combined honey-pectinase treatments have been found to be effective clarification agents. It is believed that the proteinaceous component of honey is responsible for a synergistic effect when honey and pectinase are used in combination (McLellan et al., 1985).

Fruit contains pectin and other polysaccharides so it may lead to fouling during filtration through membrane. Enzymatic treatment leads to degradation of pectin. Enzymatically clarified juice resulted in viscosity reduction and cluster formation, which facilitates separation through centrifugation or filtration. As a result, the juice presents higher clarity, as well as more concentrated flavor and color (Abdullah et al., 2007).

During the early 1930s, when fruit industries began to produce juice, the yields were low, and many difficulties were encountered in filtering the juice to an acceptable clarity (Uhlig, 1998). Subsequently, research on industrially suitable pectinases, cellulases, and hemicellulases from food-grade microorganisms (*Aspergillus niger* and *Trichoderma* sp.), together with increased knowledge on fruit components, helped to overcome these difficulties (Grassin and Fauquembergue, 1996a).

Enzymatic treatment for juice extraction and clarification is most commonly used now a days. Enzymatic hydrolysis of the cell walls increases the extraction yield, reducing sugars, soluble dry matter content and galacturonic acid content and titrable acidity of the products (Joshi et al., 1991). The resultant pulp has a lower viscosity and the quantity of waste pomace is reduced (Dorreich, 1996). Enzymatic degradation of the biomaterial depends upon the type of enzyme, incubation time, incubation temperature, enzyme concentration, agitation, pH and use of different enzyme combinations (Baumann, 1981).

Currently, pectinases, cellulases, and hemicellulases collectively called macerating enzymes are used for improvement in pressing, extraction and clarification of fruit and vegetable juices (Galante et al., 1998b). In addition, α -amylase and amyloglucosidase, active at acidic pH, were used to process starch containing fruits, especially apples harvested during the early stages in order to prevent haze formation (Grassin and Fauquembergue, 1996a; Uhlig, 1998).

2. Enzymes

Enzymes are effective protein catalysts for biochemical reactions. The structural components of proteins are L- α -amino acids with the exception of glycine, which is not chiral. The

four levels of protein structure are primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary structures (Bayindirli, 2010). Primary structure is related to the amino acid sequence. The amino group of one amino acid is joined to the carboxyl group of the next amino acid by covalent bonding, known as a peptide bond. The amino acid side-chain groups vary in terms of their properties such as polarity, charge, and size. The polar amino acid side groups tend to be on the outside of the protein where they interact with water, whereas the hydrophobic groups tend to be in the interior part of the protein. Secondary structure (α -helix, β -pleated sheet, and turns) is important for protein conformation. Right-handed α -helix is a regular arrangement of the polypeptide backbone by hydrogen bonding between the carbonyl oxygen of one residue (i) and the nitrogenous proton of the other residue (i + 4). β -pleated sheet is a pleated structure composed of polypeptide chains linked together through interamide hydrogen bonding between adjacent strands of the sheet. Tertiary structure refers to the three dimensional structure of folded protein. Presence of disulfide bridges, hydrogen bonding, ionic bonding, and hydrophobic and van der Waals interactions maintain the protein conformation. Folding the protein brings together amino acid side groups from different parts of the amino acid sequence of the polypeptide chain to form the enzyme active site that consists of a few amino acid residues and occupies a relatively small portion of the total enzyme volume. The rest of the enzyme is important for the three-dimensional integrity. The quaternary structure of a protein results from the association of two or more polypeptide chains (subunits) (Bayindirli, 2010).

Enzymes are classified into six groups according to the reaction catalyzed and denoted by an EC (Enzyme Commission) number viz., EC1: Oxidoreductases, EC2: Transferases, EC3: Hydrolases, EC4: Lyases, EC5: Isomerase and EC6: Ligases. The first, second, and third-fourth digits of these numbers show class of the enzyme, type of the bond involved in the reaction, and specificity of the bond, respectively. Systematic nomenclature is the addition of the suffix *-ase* to the enzyme-catalyzed reaction with the name of the substrate (Bayindirli, 2010).

2.1 Pectic substances and pectic enzymes

2.1.1 Pectin

Pectins depending on their chemical form are categorized as either soluble or insoluble fiber, which cannot be absorbed by the human digestive tract. However, enzymes are able to modify them to short polysaccharide fragments that may be absorbed. Pectin degradation by enzyme action leads to decrease of raw juice viscosity and, in consequence, increasing of juice yield (Voragen, 1992; Plocharski et al., 1998) improving production efficiency.

The pectic substances are classified as galacturonans (polymers of galacturonic acid), rhamnogalacturonans (mixed polymers of rhamnose and galacturonic acid), arabinans (polymers of arabinose), galactans (polymers of galactose) and arabinogalactans (mixed polymers of arabinose and galactose) (Whitaker, 1984). Pectolytic enzymes can hydrolyze pectic substances present in fruit, so resulting juice has a much lower amount of pectin (Lee et al., 2006). These enzymes, not only help in softening the tissue but also lead to the release of cell contents that recovered with high yield (Sreenath et al., 1994).

2.1.2 Pectic enzymes

Pectolytic enzymes are used for the fruit-processing industry to increase yields, improve liquefaction, clarification and filterability of juices, maceration, and extraction of plant tissues, releasing flavor, enzymes, proteins, polysaccharides, starch and agar (Dorreich, 1996; van den Broek et al., 1997). Aspergillus niger or Aspergillus aculeatus is used for industrial production of pectolytic enzymes (Naidu and Panda, 1999). The pectic enzymes include pectin lyase, pectin methylesterase, endo and exo-polygalacturonases, pectin acetylesterase, rhamnogalacturonase, endo- and exo-arabinases are used in extraction and clarification of fruits and vegetable juices (Galante et al., 1998b). The fruit and vegetable juice industry uses mainly acidic pectinases of fungal origin, principally from Aspergillus spp. Commercial preparations are mixtures of polygalacturonases, pectate lyases, and pectin esterases. Pectate lyases can act on the esterified pectin while the polygalacturonases act on the desesterified pectin thus it might require previous action of the pectin esterases. Pectic enzymes treatments vary depending on the type of juice (Sieiro et al., 2012). Biochemical properties of some pectic enzymes shown in Table 1.

2.1.2.1 Pectin methylesterase. Pectin methylesterase (pectin pectylhydrolase, EC 3.1.1.11) is often referred to as pectinesterase, pectase, pectin methoxylase, pectin demethoxylase and pectolipase. The action of pectin methylesterase is to remove the methoxyl groups from methylated pectin substances (pectin). It is a carboxylic acid esterase and belongs to the hydrolase groups of enzymes. PME de-esterifies the methyl groups on the galacturonic acid backbone of pectin, creating charged regions which complex with Ca²⁺, forming Ca²⁺ pectate gels which precipitate and clarify the juice (Baker and Bruemmer, 1972). Activity of pectin methylesterase is most readily followed in a pH stat at pH 4-7.5, because of ionization of the carboxyl group of the product to give a proton. Pectin methylesterase from the albedo of oranges has been the best studied (MacDonnell et al., 1950). Action of pectin methylesterase has little effect on viscosity of the pectin-containing solution unless divalent cations are present. In the presence of Ca^{2+} , the viscosity

increases due to Ca^{2+} crosslinking of the pectic acid chains (Whitaker, 1984).

2.1.2.2 Polygalacturonases. The polygalacturonases [poly (1, 4-α-D-galacturonide) glycanohydrolase, EC3.2.1.15] hydrolyze the $\alpha(l-4)$ linkages between D-galacturonic acid units. There are four types of polygalacturonases, depending on whether they have a preference for poly $\alpha(1-4)$ -D-methylgalacturonic acid] (pectin-like substrates) or poly[α (1–4)-D-galacturonic acid] (pectic acid-like substrates) and whether they attack the polymer chain from the end (exo-splitting) or in the interior (endo-splitting). The four types can be distinguished on the basis of substrate requirements, the rate of decrease in viscosity relative to rate of formation of reducing groups and by the nature of the products formed early in the reaction. Polygalacturonases activity is determined on the basis of measuring, during the course of the reaction: (a) the rate of increase in number of reducing groups; and (b) the decrease in viscosity of the substrate solution (Rexova-Benkova and Markovic, 1976).

2.1.2.3 Pectate lyases. Lyases perform non-hydrolytic breakdown of pectates or pectinates, characterized by a trans-eliminative split of the pectic polymer (Sakai et al., 1993). The lyases break the glycosidic linkages at C-4 and simultaneously eliminate H from C-5, producing a D 4:5 unsaturated products (Codner 2001; Albersheim et al., 1960). Lyases can be classified into following types on the basis of the pattern of action and the substrate acted upon by them (I) endopolygalacturonate lyase (EndoPGL, E.C. 4.2.2.2); (II) exopolygalacturonate lyase (ExoPGL, E.C. 4.2.2.9); (III) endopolymethylgalacturonate lyase (EndoPMGL, E.C. 4.2.2.10); (IV) exopolymethylgalacturonate lyase (ExoPMGL) (Jayani et al., 2005). Activity of the pectate lyases can be determined by measuring the rate of increase in absorbance at 235 nm due to formation of the double bond. All of the pectate lyases require Ca^{2+} , while the polygalacturonases do not all have this requirement. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) is generally an inhibitor of pectate lyase activity, because of chelation of the Ca²⁺ (Whitaker, 1984).

2.2 Cellulose and cellulases enzyme

2.2.1 Cellulose

Cellulose is a crystalline polymer, an unusual feature among biopolymers. Cellulose chains in the crystals are stiffened by

Table 1. Biochemical properties of some pectic enzymes.

Microorganism	Enzyme	Optimal pH	Optimal temperature(°C)	References
Bacteria				
Bacillus sp NT-33	Polygalacturonase	10.5	75	Cao et al. (1992)
Bacillus sp DT7	Pectin lyase	8	60	Kashyap et al. (2000)
Fungi	·			
Aspergillus niger	Pectinesterase	3.5	45–55	Landbo et al. (2007)
Aspergillus ficuum	Pectin lyase	5	50	Yadav et al. (2008)
Penicillium frequentans	Endopolygalacturonase	3.5–5	50	Borin et al. (1996)
Sclerotium rolfsii	Endopolygalacturonase	3.5	55	Chane and Shewal (1995)
Penicillium paxilli	Pectin lyase	5	35	Szajer and Szajer (1982)
Yeasts				
Saccharomyce cerevisiae	Endopolygalacturonase	5.5	45	Blanco et al. (1994)
Kluyveromyces Marxianus	Endopolygalacturonase	4.5	55	Serrat et al. (2002)

inter and intra chain hydrogen bonds and the adjacent sheet which overlie one another are held together by weak Van-der Waals forces. In nature, cellulose is present in a nearly pure state in a few instances whereas in most cases, the cellulose fibers are embedded in a matrix of other structural biopolymers, primarily hemicelluloses, and lignin (Marchesseault and Sundararajan, 1993; Lynd et al., 1999).

2.2.2 Cellulases enzyme

Cellulases are defined as a family of enzymes which perform the process of degradation of cellulose into glucose. They are wide-spread in nature and are particularly common in the world of bacteria and fungi. They are manufactured, among others, by symbiotic bacteria found in multi-compartmental stomachs of ruminants (primarily in the rumen). Most animals, including humans, do not synthesize cellulases and, therefore, are incapable of utilizing the entire energy contained in plant material (Kuhls and Lieckfeldt, 1996).

Cellulases enzyme hydrolyze cell wall polysaccharides and substituted celluloses. Cellulases are defined as a family of enzymes which perform the process of degradation of cellulose into glucose. Cellulases is used in extraction and clarification of fruits and vegetable juices for production of nectars and purees, oil extraction from oil seeds, animal feed preparation, Improvement in soaking efficiency, homogeneous water absorption by cereals, the nutritive quality of fermented foods, the rehydrability of dried vegetables and soups, the production of oligosaccharides as functional food ingredients and low-calorie food substituent's and biomass conversion (Beguin and Aubert, 1994; M. K. Bhat, and S. Bhat, 1997). Cellulases are also used in carotenoid extraction in the production of food coloring agents. Fungi including Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus nidulans, Aspergillus oryzae are used for production of microbial cellulases (Sukumaran et al., 2005).

The term cellulase actually includes three enzymes that produce glucose from hydrolyzing cellulose (Clarke, 1996) such as endo- β 1,4-glucanases (EG; EC. 3.2.1.4), exo- β -1,4-cellobiohydrolases (CBH; EC. 3.2.1.91), and β -glucosidases (BG; EC. 3.2.1.21) (Schulein, 1988). The complete cellulase set including CBH, EG, and BG components synergistically functions to convert crystalline cellulose to glucose. EG and CBH act together to hydrolyze cellulose to small cello-oligosaccharides. The oligosaccharides (mostly cellobiose) are next hydrolyzed to glucose by a core β -glucosidase (Sukumaran et al., 2005).

2.3 Other enzymes

2.3.1 Hemicellulases

Hemicellulases including endo- and exo-xylanases, galactanases, xyloglucanases and mannanases. Hemicellulases are a diverse group of enzymes that hydrolyze hemicelluloses, one of the most abundant groups of polysaccharide in nature. Xylanases (EC 3.2.1.8) hydrolyze the β -1,4 bond in the xylan backbone, yielding short xylooligomers. β -Mannanases (EC 3.2.1.78) hydrolyze mannan-based hemicelluloses and liberate short β -1, 4-manno-oligomers, which can be further hydrolyzed to mannose by β -mannosidases (EC 3.2.1.25) (Shallom and Shoham, 2003).

2.3.2 Amylase

Amylase is an enzyme that catalyses the breakdown of starch into sugars. Amylase is present in human saliva, where it begins the chemical process of digestion. Amylase can be derived from bacteria and fungi. All amylases are glycoside hydrolyses and act on α -1,4-glycosidic bonds. Amylases are extensively employed in processed-food industry such as baking, brewing, preparation of digestive aids, production of cakes, fruit juices and starch syrups. Amylase used clarification of fruit juice (Couto and Sanroman, 2006)

Macerating enzymes are generally used in two steps: (1) after crushing, to macerate the fruit pulp either to partial or complete liquifaction, which not only increases the juice yield and reduces the processing time, but also improves the extraction of valuable fruit components, and (2) after the juice extraction, whereby pectinases are used for its clarification, thereby lowering the viscosity of fruit juice prior to concentration and increasing the filtration rate and stability of the final product (Bhat, 2000).

3. Enzymatic extractions and juice recovery

3.1 Fruit preparation prior to enzymatic extraction of juice

Fruit is first washed, cut into small pieces, and then pretreatments like steaming, cooling, or heating prior to enzymatic extraction increased juice recovery (Trappey et al., 2008). Water is added to pulp in difference ratios. The greater degree of tissue breakdown from freezing and thawing of whole fruit coupled with a pectinase enzyme treatment of fruit macerate yield higher solids which agrees with other research reports (Pilnik et al., 1975; McLellan et al., 1985). Hot water extraction with addition of enzyme in apple pomace with a combination of pectinases and cellulases results in higher yield. Al-Hooti et al. (2002), blended date fruit pulp with three times the water before the addition of enzyme for extraction of juice.

3.2 Juice recovery

Extraction of juice using macerating enzymes claimed to increased juice recovery from various fruits. However, the enzymatic process should be optimized with respect to incubation temperature, time and enzymatic concentration to maximized yield and quantity of various fruit juices. Table 2 shows the optimized condition to maximized juice yield from various fruits. In case of bael fruit enzymatic extraction results in 17.5% increased in juice yield from untreated sample at enzymatic concentration 20 mg/100 g pulp, incubation time 425 min. and temperature 47°C (Singh et al., 2012). Similar Yusof and Ibrahim (1994), found that the larger the amount of enzyme used and the longer the time of incubation, the greater the yield of juice obtained. They found 41% increase in juice recovery with enzymatic treatment then untreated sample of soursop. The enzyme treatment of plum, peach, pear and apricot have shown clearly that the juice yield increased from 52% (plum), 38% (peach), 60% (pear), and 50% (apricot) to 78%

Table 2. Optimized conditions for extraction of maximum juice using pectinase enzyme.

Fruit/Vegetable	Incubation time ^a	Incubation temperatur ^b	Enzyme concentration ^c	Juice recovery ^d	Reference
Bael (Aegle marmelos correa)	425	47	20 mg/100 g	86.6	Singh et al. (2012)
Guava (Psidium guajava L.)	436.2	43.3	0.70 mg/100 g	62.2	Kaur et al. (2009)
Elderberry (Sambucus nigra L)	50	60	0.34 mg/100 g	77.0	Landbo et al. (2007)
Tamarind (Variety Ajanta)	360	37	5 mg/100 g	92.4	Joshi et al. (2012)
Mayhaw (Crataegus opaca Hook.)	60	32	0.20%	75.7	Trappey et al. (2008)
Plum (variety Titrone)	300	45	0.5%	82	Chauhan et al. (2001)
Mango (variety Amrapali)	360	45	0.9%	59	Chauhan et al. (2001)
Mango	120	50	2%	65	Gupta and Girish (1988)
Apricot (variety Charmagz)	300	45	0.5%	78	Chauhan et al. (2001)
Pear	240	40	2.5%	72	Joshi et al. (2011)
Black currant (Ribes nigrum)	30	60	0.18%	66-78	Landbo and Meyer (2004)
Banana (Musa sapientum cv Berangan)	240	44	0.4%	69.4	Shahadam and Abdullah (1995)
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	180	35–40	0.05%	67.2	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Apricot	240	40	2.5%	80	Joshi et al. (2011)
Pineapple	30	40	0.02%	63–64	Dzogbefia et al. (2001)
Date (Phoenix dactylifera L.)	300	50	50U	72.25	Abbes et al. (2011)

^alncubation time in minutes, ^blncubation temperature in °C, ^cEnzyme concentrations in mg/100 g : Milligram per 100 gram of pulp,% : Percentage on pulp basis, U : Enzyme Unit, ^dJuice recovery in Percentage (%).

(plum), 63% (peach), 72% (pear), and 80% (apricot), respectively (Joshi et al., 2011). A concentration of 0.5% purified enzyme (pectinol) was found optimum to increase juice yield of plum, peach, and apricot (Joshi et al., 1991). Enzymatic concentration of 2% for two hours at 50°C resulted in a serum yield of 65% in mango pulp (Gupta and Girish, 1988). Upon enzyme treatment, degradation of pectin lead to reduction in water holding capacity of pectin so free water is release in system hence juice yield increases (kashyap et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2006). The increase in juice yield is attributed to the hydrolysis of pectin thus, releasing the sap inside the cells of the pulp (Broeck et al., 1999). However, the increase varied in different fruits owing to amount of pectin present and the activity of enzymes. The yield of mixed juice and puree from pomace obtained in the enzymatic processing of apples ranged from 92.3% to 95.3%, and increased significantly when compared to the control without the enzymatic pomace treatment (81.8%). These yields are much higher than the values determined in our previous research (Oszmian' ski et al., 2009). Apple juice can be obtained through a two-step process consisting of a first treatment of the crushed apple mush with pectinases to

obtain the premium juice followed by pomace liquefaction treatment made with a mixture of different pectinases and cellulases for the complete extraction of the juice (Will et al., 2000).

Juice recovery% = Weight of juice/Weight of fruit

Different enzymes in combination claim to increase juice recovery, TSS, clarity, and decreases viscosity and turbidity. Many modern processes of fruit and vegetable juice production frequently employ pectinases, but mixtures of cellulytic and pectolytic enzymes are finding wide application to enhance pulp liquefaction and provide a higher yield of juice with high soluble solids content. Pectinolytic and cellulolytic enzymes are used for the fruit processing industry to increase the extraction yield, reducing sugars, soluble dry matter and titrable acidity of the products from some fruits such as peaches, plums, and apricots (Joshi et al., 1991). From Table 3 it is observed by using pectinase, cellulase and amylase in various combination for juice extraction from kiwi fruit that the enzymatic treatments in combinations significantly increases juice yield. The best results

Table 3. Optimized conditions for extraction of maximum juice using enzymes in combination.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	Juice recovery ^e	Reference
Date (<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> L.) variety Deglet Nour	Pectinase and Cellulase	120	50	50U pectinase/5U cellulase	72.37	Abbes et al. (2011)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and Cellulase	120	50	0.05, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	78.46	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Blackcurrant	PME and PG	120	50	0.2 g/kg (2:1)	59	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Pineapple	Pectinase and cellulase	30	27-30	0.025% (1:1)	74.75	Sreenath et al. (1994)
Carrots (Daucus carrota)	Pectinase and cellulase	30	50	2% (3:2)	73.5	Anastasakis et al. (1987)
Date (Variety Birhi and safri)	Pectinase and cellulase	60-300	40	1% (1:1)	67.5 and 68.22, respectively	Al-Hooti et al. (2002)
Plum	PME and PG	120	50	0.05 g/kg (2:1)	96.8	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^cIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in g/kg: Gram per kilogram of pulp,% : Percentage on pulp basis, U : Enzyme Unit, ^eJuice recovery in Percentage (%).

Table 4. Optimized conditions for clarification of various fruit juices using pectinase.

Fruit/Vegetable	Incubation time ^a	Incubation temperature ^b	Enzyme concentration ^c	Clarity ^d	Reference
Banana (<i>Musa sapientum</i> cv Berangan)	80	43.2	0.084%	0.009 Abs	Lee et al. (2006)
Carambola (Carambola Averrhoa L.)	20	30	0.10%	0.019 Abs	Abdullah et al. (2007)
White Grape (Vitis vinifera)	30	27–30	0.048%	0.031 Abs	Sreenath and Santhanam (1992)
Sapodilla (Achras sapota)	120	40	0.1%	0.023 Abs	Sin et al. (2006)
Mosambi (Citrus sinensis (L.) Osbeck)	99.27	41.89	0.0004 w/v%	83.97% T	Rai et al. (2003)
Lichi (Litchi chinensis L)	120	40	500 ppm	80% T	Vijayanand et al. (2010)

^alncubation time in minutes, ^blncubation temperature in °C, ^cEnzyme concentrations in ^a w/v% : Weight per volume, ppm: parts per million,% : Percentage on pulp basis ^dClarity in Abs: Absorbance, T: Transmittance.

were found in combination of Pectinase (0.05 g/kg), amylase (0.025 g/kg) and cellulase (0.025 g/kg) with juice yield of 78.46% compared to 58.44% of control sample. Pectinase and cellulase treatment in combination at 1:1 ratio at 0.025% concentration resulted in juice recovery of 74.75% from pineapple (Sreenath et al., 1994).

4. Enzymatic clarification and clarity

Fruit juices are naturally cloudy, yet in different degrees, especially due to the presence of polysaccharides (pectin, cellulose, hemicelluloses, lignin and starch), proteins, tannins, and metals (Vaillant et al., 2001). As the juice clear appearance is a determinant factor for consumers, the fruit juice industry has been investing in methods that optimize this feature (Tribess and Tadini, 2006). The high concentration of pectin leads to colloid formation, which constitutes one of the main problems during the processing of clear fruit juices. However, although the suspended pulp particles can be removed through filtration, the presence of pectin may make this method difficult (Sulaiman et al., 1998). The depectinization of fruit juices through the use of pectinases has been presented as an efficient alternative to reduce turbidity, in many studies (Kashyap et al., 2001; Landbo et al., 2007). Pectinases degrade pectin hence resulting in viscosity reduction and cluster formation, which facilitates separation through centrifugation or filtration. As a result, the juice presents higher clarity, as well as more concentrated flavor and color (Kaur et al., 2004; Abdullah et al., 2007). Pectinase enzymes used in grape juice macerate increased the juice clarity and filterability by 100% according to Brown and Ough (1981). For clarified fruit juices, a juice that has an unstable cloud or whose turbidity is considered "muddy" is unacceptable to be marketed as clear juices (Floribeth et al., 1981).

4.1 Clarity

Enzymatic treatment leads to increase the clarity of juice. Juice clarity can be determined in terms of absorbance and transmittance at 660 nm using UV visible spectrophotometer. Increase in enzymatic concentration increase the rate of clarification by exposing part of the positively charged protein beneath thus reducing electrostatic repulsion between cloud particles which caused these particles to aggregate into larger particles and eventually settled out (Sin et al., 2006). Clarity showed the lowest absorbance values at highest enzyme concentration, where lower absorbance indicates a clearer juice is being produced. It was also observed that the absorbance values decreased with increasing incubation time at fixed temperature. In general, the

time required to obtain a clear juice is inversely proportional to the concentration of enzyme used at constant temperature (Kilara, 1982). At the lowest level of temperature, the clarity of banana juice was found to increase rapidly at the beginning but with a slower rate towards the end, with an increase in enzyme concentration. The temperature increases the rate of enzymatic reactions, hence the rate of clarification, as long as the temperature is below denaturation temperature for the enzyme. A similar behavior for the clarity was observed for the changes in incubation time in case of banana (Lee et al., 2006). The clarity of centrifuged litchi juice increased with an increase in enzyme concentration. Among the different concentrations used for the optimization of pectinase, the litchi pulp added with 500 ppm of pectinase resulted in maximum transmittance of 80% at 660 nm. The clarity of mosambi juice decreases with time up to 90 min and increases thereafter. Similarly at constant time and temperature, the clarity decreases with enzyme concentration and remains constant and increases thereafter. From both the observations, it is evident that there exists an optimum enzyme concentration and time for the juice clarity (Rai et al., 2003) (Table 4).

5. Effect of enzymatic treatment on physico-chemical properties of juice

5.1 Effect of enzymatic treatment on total soluble solids (TSS) of juice

Enzymatic extraction also increases TSS of juice from various fruits. The °Brix value can be determined by measuring the refractive index with a hand held refractometer. TSS of juice at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 5 Yusof and Ibrahim (1994) found that the use of enzyme for soursop at various enzyme levels significantly increased the soluble solids content from 6.8° Brix to 7.3° Brix within the first hour of incubation. Increasing the incubation time to two and three hours did not cause any significant increase in the total soluble solids content. Brix/ acid ratio is decrease from 16.6 to 14.9 (Yusof and Ibrahim, 1994). Pectinase treated apricot, pear, mayhaw, banana had a larger brix levels as compared to untreated juices (Shahadam and Abdullah, 1995; Trappey et al., 2008; Joshi et al., 2011). The use of various enzymes in different combination increases TSS content of juice. Sreenath used pectinase and cellulases enzymes for extraction of pineapple juice at enzymatic concentration of 0.025%. The TSS of the final pooled juice was around 12° Brix. Similarly for carrot, pectinase and cellulases at concentration 2% in (3:2) ratio increase yield of final juice TSS. The increase in TSS is related to greater degree of tissue breakdown,

Table 5. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on TSS at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	TSS ^e	References
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	Pectinase	180	35–40	0.05%	7.30	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Apricot	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	10.07	Joshi et al. (2011)
Pear	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	11.16	Joshi et al. (2011)
Mayhaw (<i>Crataegus opaca</i> Hook.)	Pectinase	60	32	0.20%	8.13	Trappey et al. (2008)
Banana (Musa sapientum cv Berangan)	Pectinase	240	44	0.4%	26.1	Shahadam and Abdullah (1995)
White Grape (Vitis vinifera)	Pectinase	30	27-30	0.048%	13	Sreenath and Santhanam (1992)
Lichi (<i>Litchi chinensis</i> L)	Pectinase	120	40	500 ppm	16.4	Vijayanand et al. (2010)
Blackcurrant	PME and PG	120	50	0.2 g/kg (2:1)	18–19	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Plum	PME and PG	120	50	0.05 g/kg (2:1)	16.55	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	14.75	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Carrots (Daucus carrota)	Pectinase and cellulase	30	50	2% (3:2)	12.0	Anastasakis et al. (1987)
Pineapple	Pectinase and cellulase	30	27–30	0.025% (1:1)	15.0	Sreenath et al. (1994)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^GIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in% : Percentage on pulp basis, ppm: parts per million, g/kg: gram per kilogram of fruit/pulp, ^eTSS: Total Soluble Solids in ⁰Bx: Degree Brix.

releasing more compounds such as sugars (Chang Tung et al., 1995), which contribute to soluble solids.

5.2 Effect of enzymatic treatment on viscosity of juice

The use of enzymes leads to the drop of fruit juice viscosity and disintegrating the jelly structure and making it easier to obtain the fruit juices (Singh et al., 2012). Viscosity can be measured by using a Brookfield viscometer. Viscosity of juice at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 6. The viscosity of the juice after enzyme treatment had generally decreased. This was also noted in many of the studies reported earlier and is due to the hydrolytic action of enzymes on the cellulosic and pectic materials present in the juice. Therefore to enhance filtration process performance, fruit juices are usually pretreated with enzyme, before filtration, for the purpose of hydrolyzing soluble polysaccharides responsible for high viscosity (Cheryan and Alvarez, 1995). Viscosity was significantly reduced with higher enzyme concentration. Incubation time also affected the viscosity at linear terms with a negative effect

but to a lesser extent. Incubation time showed a maximum viscosity at 90 min but reduced as the incubation time increased in case of sapodilla juice (Sin et al., 2006). The higher viscosity was observed to affect the rheological properties of the products. Drinkability was reduced, and the samples had more characteristics of a puree than of a beverage. The viscosity of typical cloudy juices has been reported to range between 95 and 134 mPas (Will et al., 2008). The viscosity of the control apple juice was 397 mPas; whereas the viscosity of the samples treated with enzymes ranged from 122.4 (Pectinex Smash XXL) to 291.5 mPas (Pectinex Yield Mash). Abdullah et al. (2007) also reported reduction in viscosity of carambola juice with 0.1% enzyme concentration for 20 min at 30°C incubation temperature. The use of various enzymes in combination also tends to reduce the viscosity of juice. Anastasakis et al. (1987) given enzymatic treatment of pectinase and cellulase in combination at 2% in 3:2 ratios to carrot, he found that the enzymatic treatment of carrot in combination has no significant difference in viscosity compare to only pectinase treatment and has much higher viscosity compare to cellulase treatment.

Table 6. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on viscosity at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes	Incubation time ^a	Incubation temperature ^b	Enzyme concentration ^c	Viscosity ^d	References
Bael (Aegle marmelos correa)	Pectinase	210	35	24 mg/100 g	1.35	Singh et al. (2012)
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	Pectinase	180	35–40	0.05%	4.68	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Apricot	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	1.11	Joshi et al. (2011)
Pear	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	1.17	Joshi et al. (2011)
Banana <i>(Musa sapientum</i> cv Berangan)	Pectinase	240	44	0.4%	14.2	Shahadam and Abdullah (1995)
White Grape (Vitis vinifera)	Pectinase	30	27–30	0.048%	1.05	Sreenath and Santhanam (1992)
Banana (<i>Musa sapientum</i> cv Berangan)	Pectinase	80	43.2	0.084%	1.89	Lee et al. (2006)
Sapodilla (Achras sapota)	Pectinase	120	40	0.1%	1.37	Sin et al. (2006)
Carambola (Carambola Averrhoa L.)	Pectinase	20	30	0.1%	1.33	Abdullah et al. (2007)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	5.43	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Date (Variety Birhi and safri)	Pectinase and cellulase	60-300	40	1% (1:1)	17.6 (Birhi) 14.8 (safri)	Al-Hooti et al. (2002)
Carrots (Daucus carrota)	Pectinase and cellulase	30	50	2% (3:2)	2.75	Anastasakis et al. (1987)

^alncubation time in minutes, ^bIncubation temperature in °C, ^cEnzyme concentrations in% : Percentage on pulp basis, mg/100 g: milligram per 100 gram of fruit/pulp, ^dViscosity in cps: centipoises.

Table 7. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on pH at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes	Incubation time ^a	Incubation temperature ^b	Enzyme concentration ^c	рН	References
Apricot	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	3.50	Joshi et al. (2011)
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	Pectinase	180	35–40	0.05%	3.54–3.7	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Pear	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	3.46	Joshi et al. (2011)
Mayhaw (<i>Crataegus opaca</i> Hook.)	Pectinase	60	32	0.20%	3.03	Trappey et al. (2008)
Banana <i>(Musa sapientum</i> cv Berangan)	Pectinase	240	44	0.4%	3.41	Shahadam and Abdullah (1995)
Sapodilla (Achras sapota)	Pectinase	120	40	0.1%	4.6	Sin et al. (2006)
Mosambi (Citrus sinensis (L.) Osbeck)	Pectinase	99.27	41.89	0.0004 w/v%	3.6	Rai et al. (2003)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	3.50	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Date (Phoenix dactylifera L.) Variety Deglet Nour, Allig & Kentichi	Pectinase and cellulase	120	50	50U pectinase/5U cellulase	3.2, 3.12 & 3.07	Abbes et al. (2011)
Date (Variety Birhi and safri)	Pectinase and cellulase	60-300	40	1% (1:1)	4.09 & 4.11	Al-Hooti et al. (2002)
Carrots (Daucus carrota)	Pectinase and cellulase	30	50	2% (3:2)	5.44	Anastasakis et al. (1987)

^aIncubation time in minutes, ^bIncubation temperature in °C, ^cEnzyme concentrations in ^a w/v%: Weight per volume, g/kg: gram per kilogram of fruit/pulp,%: Percentage on pulp basis, U: Enzyme Unit.

5.3 Effect of enzymatic treatment on pH of juice

The pH value of juice decreases with increase in enzyme concentration (Joshi et al., 2011). Results of pectinase treatments on pH shown in Table 7. pH can be measured by digital pH meter. Yusof and Ibrahim (1994) found that for each level of enzyme used, pH decrease, as a result of incubation time, was not significant for the first hour of incubation. But after two and three hours of treatment, pH values decrease significantly from the pH of the original juice. Nevertheless, the values for two- and threehour incubation are almost the same. According to Woodroof and Phillips (1981) a decrease in pH from 4.5 to 3.0 could increase the shelf life about three times. Similarly significant decrease in pH was observed in case of date (variety *Deglet Nour, Allig* and *Kentichi*) syrup (Abbes et al., 2011) and carrot (Anastasakis et al., 1987). Results of pH using enzymatic treatment in combination at optimized condition shown in Table 7.

5.4 Effect of enzymatic treatment on ascorbic acid content of juice

The ascorbic acid content of clarified juice decreased to 11.8 mg/100 g as compared to that of litchi pulp (17.6 mg/ 100 g), which could be due to the oxidation of ascorbic acid during the clarification. Ascorbic acid was determined using the 2,6-dichlorophenol indophenol dye titration method

(Ranggana, 1977). The effects of enzyme concentration and time of incubation on the ascorbic acid is shown in Table 8. The enzyme treatment did not seem to increase the ascorbic acid content significantly for soursop juice. Joshi et al. (2011) found that the ascorbic acid remain unaffected with increase in enzyme concentration. The ascorbic acid was found to decrease about 21% after an enzyme treatment. The reduction of 16.9–20.7% ascorbic acid occurs during enzymatic clarification of various juices (Singh et al., 1993).

5.5 Effect of enzymatic treatment on turbidity of juice

In case of elderberry it was observed very clearly from the turbidity data that ranged from 120 of 161 FNU with enzyme addition, and thus on average turbidity was 30% lower than those of samples produced without enzyme addition that had turbidity levels ranging between 191 and 212 FNU (Landbo et al., 2007). Since the turbidity in the juices may be due to pectin and other plant cell wall substances released during the enzymatic prepress maceration, it seems logic that elevated turbidities may transiently result during enzyme catalyzed cell wall degradation, which can partly explain the positive effect coefficient of the enzyme dosage on the turbidity. Turbidity in fruit juices can be a positive or a negative attribute depending on the expectation of the consumers (Hutchings, 1999). In the case of orange and tomato juices, the juices are usually cloudy and have colloidal suspensions.

Table 8. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on ascorbic acid at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	Ascorbic acid ^e	References
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	Pectinase	180	35–40	0.05%	1.14	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Apricot	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	5.55	Joshi et al. (2011)
Pear	Pectinase	240	40	2.5%	1.60	Joshi et al. (2011)
Black currant (Ribes nigrum)	Pectinase	30	60	0.18%	118.8	Landbo and Meyer (2004)
Lichi (Litchi chinensis L)	Pectinase	120	40	500 ppm	11.8	Vijayanand et al. (2010)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	154.59	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Blackcurrant	PME and PG	120	50	0.2 g/kg (2:1)	279.4	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^cIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in% : Percentage on pulp basis, ppm: parts per million. ^eAscorbic acid in mg/100 g: milligram per 100 gram of fruit/pulp, mg/100 g: milligram per 100 milliliter of juice.

Table 9. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on turbidity at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	Turbidity ^e	References
Elderberry (Sambucus nigra L)	Pectinase	50	60	0.34 mg/100 g	154 FNU	Landbo et al. (2007)
Banana (<i>Musa sapientum</i> cv Berangan)	Pectinase	80	43.2	0.084%	3.62 NTU	Lee et al. (2006)
Sapodilla (Achras sapota)	Pectinase	120	40	0.1%	16.44 NTU	Sin et al. (2006)
Carambola (Carambola Averrhoa L.)	Pectinase	20	30	0.10%	20.30 NTU	Abdullah et al. (2007)
Date (Phoenix dactylifera L.) Variety Deglet Nour	Pectinase and cellulase	120	50	50U pectinase/ 5U cellulase	186.45 NTU	Abbes et al. (2011)
Plum	PME and PG	120	50	0.05 g/kg (2:1)	590 NTU	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^CIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in% : Percentage on pulp basis, mg/100 g: milligram per 100 gram of fruit/pulp. ^eTurbidity in FNU: Formazin Nephelometric Units NTU: Nephelometric Turbidity Units.

Table 10. Effect of incubation time	. temperature and enz	zvmatic concentration on titrable acidity	v at optimized condition	using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	Titrable Acidity ^e	References
Mayhaw (Crataegus opaca Hook.)	Pectinase	60	32	0.20%	1.24	Trappey et al. (2008)
Soursop (Annona muricata L.)	Pectinase	180	35-40	0.025%	0.48	Yusof and Ibrahim (1994)
Pineapple	Pectinase and cellulase	30	27-30	0.025% (1:1)	1.152	Sreenath et al. (1994)
Blackcurrant	PME and PG	120	50	0.2 g/kg (2:1)	4.06	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Plum	PME and PG	120	50	0.05 g/kg (2:1)	1.06	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025, and 0.025 g/kg, respectively	1.20	Vaidya et al. (2009)
Date (Phoenix dactylifera L.) Variety Deglet Nour, Allig & Kentichi	Pectinase and cellulase	120	50	50U pectinase /5U cellulase	1.25, 1.22 & 1.29	Abbes et al. (2011)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^cIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in g/kg : gram per kilogram of fruit/pulp, U : Enzyme Unit. ^eTitrable acidity in%.

However, this cloud is desirable and acceptable by the consumers. Turbidity of juice at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 9. Increase in enzyme concentration and incubation time might decrease turbidity. Pectin was the main cause of turbidity (Grassin and Fauquembergue, 1996a). As the clarification process took place, the amount of pectin in the juices decreased, therefore reducing the turbidity of the juices (Alvarez et al., 1998).

5.6 Effect of enzymatic treatment on titrable acidity of juice

Titrable acidity was measured by titration of juice with 0.1 N NaOH. Yusof and Ibrahim (1994) found that the total titratable acidity for enzymatically extracted juice increased significantly from 0.41% to 0.49% for the one, two, and three hours of

incubation at the 0.025% enzyme concentration but not at 0.05%, 0.075% and 0.1% concentrations. The acidity values at the latter three concentration levels were almost the same for the three incubation times. Titrable acidity of juice at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 10. While increase in acidity (as citric acid) of date, syrup was observed after the extraction using enzyme. This was explained by the addition of citric acid during enzymatic extraction and liberation of galacturonic acid inducted by pectinase adjunction.

5.7 Effect of enzymatic treatment on anthocyanin content of juice

Total anthocyanins were determined by the pH differential method and anthocyanin concentrations in black currant juice

Table 11. Effect of incubation time, temperatu	re and enzymatic concentration on anth	nocynin at optimized conditio	n using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes ^a	Incubation time ^b	Incubation temperature ^c	Enzyme concentration ^d	Anthocynin ^e	References
Elderberry (Sambucus nigra L)	Pectinase	50	60	0.34 mg/100 g	2.4 mg/g	Landbo et al. (2007)
Strawberry	Pectinase	120	45	30 g/100 kg	323 mg/L	Versari et al. (1997)
Raspberry	Pectinase	120	45	30 g/100 kg	457 mg/L	Versari et al. (1997)
White Grape (Vitis vinifera)	Pectinase	30	27-30	0.048%	2.8 mg/L	Sreenath and Santhanam (1992)
Black currant (Ribes nigrum)	Pectinase	30	60	0.18%	1.5–2.2 mg/g	Landbo and Meyer (2004)
Plum	PME and PG	120	50	0.05 g/kg (2:1)	13.64 mg/100 mL	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)
Blackcurrant	PME and PG	120	50	0.2 g/kg (2:1)	239.6 mg/100 mL	Mieszczakowska-Frac et al. (2012)

^aPME: Pectin Methyl Esterase; PG: Polygalacturonase, ^bIncubation time in minutes, ^cIncubation temperature in °C, ^dEnzyme concentrations in mg/100 kg : milligram per 100 kilogram of fruit/pulp,% : Percentage on pulp basis, ^eAnthocynin in mg/g: milligram per gram of fruit/pulp, mg/l: milligram per liter of pulp, mg/100 mL: milligram per 100 gram of juice.

Table 12. Effect of incubation time, temperature and enzymatic concentration on total phenols at optimized condition using enzymatic treatments.

Fruit/Vegetable	Enzymes	Incubation time ^a	Incubation temperature ^b	Enzyme concentration ^c	Total phenols ^d	References
Black currant (<i>Ribes nigrum</i>)	Pectinase	30	60	0.18%	3.1–4.4 mg/g	Landbo and Meyer (2004)
Elderberry (Sambucus nigra L)	Pectinase	50	60	0.34 mg/100 g	6.0 mg/g	Landbo et al. (2007)
White Grape (Vitis vinifera)	Pectinase	30	27–30	0.048%	440 mg/L	Sreenath and Santhanam (1992)
Date (Phoenix dactylifera L.) Variety Deglet Nour, Allig & Kentichi	Pectinase and cellulase	120	50	50U pectinase /5U cellulase	326.84, 292.34 & 304.28 mg/100 g, respectively	Abbes et al. (2011)
Kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa)	Pectinase, Amylase and cellulase	120	50	0.06, 0.025 and 0.025 g/kg	240 mg/L	Vaidya et al. (2009)

^alncubation time in minutes, ^blncubation temperature in °C, ^cEnzyme concentrations in mg/100 g : milligram per 100 gram of fruit/pulp,% : Percentage on pulp basis, ^dTotal phenols in mg/g: milligram per gram of fruit/pulp, mg/l: milligram per liter of pulp, mg/100 gm: milligram per 100 gram of fruit/pulp.

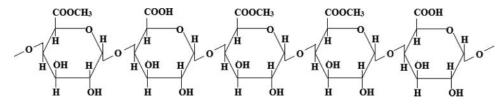
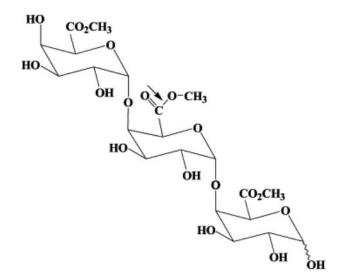


Figure 1. Structure of pectin.

were calculated as cyanidin-3-rutinoside equivalents (Wrolstad, 1976). Anthocyanins are located mainly in the skin of the fruit and during juice pressing it is important to transfer into the juice (Mieszczakowska-Frac et al., 2012). The obtained extraction yields of anthocyanins in the 250 different samples ranged from 900 to 2200 mg/kg wet weight black currant mash equivalent to a span of concentrations of anthocyanins in the juices of 1340–3220 mg/L juice. The anthocyanins yields for blackcurrant juice tended to increase with increased enzyme dosage and increased maceration temperature, but the effects of these parameters as well as the influence of the maceration time varied depending on the enzyme preparation used for the maceration (Landbo and Meyer, 2004). Anthocyanin content of juice at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 11. Pectinase treatment



increased release of anthocyanins than the other enzyme treatments in white grape juice. Treatment of raspberry juices with pectolytic enzymes modified the level of individual pigment and the total anthocyanins content varied accordingly. The pectolytic enzymes showed a stationary high level of total anthocyanins over the time (range: 289–306 mg l⁻¹). On the other hand, it was clear a decrease of total anthocyanins, after 6six hours. The pectolytic enzymes showed higher anthocyanins hydrolytic activity in raspberry then in strawberry juices. Anthocyanins yields increased with increased maceration temperature and increased enzyme dose in elderberry juice, while no effect of increased maceration time on anthocyanins was found.

5.8 Effect of enzymatic treatment on total phenols of juice

Increased enzyme dosage and maceration time together with increased maceration temperature in general increased the total phenols yields, while Landbo et al. (2007) found that the total phenols yields increased with increased maceration temperature, but increased enzyme dose and increased maceration time has unaffected total phenols yield. Total phenols in the juices were determined by the Folin–Ciocalteu procedure with total

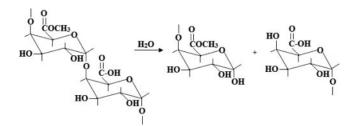


Figure 2. Structure of pectin methylesterase.

Figure 3. Structure of polygalacturonases.

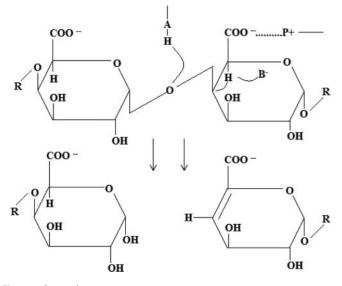


Figure 4. Pectate lyases.

phenols expressed as mg/L gallic acid equivalents (GAE) (Landbo and Meyer, 2004). Total Phenols at optimized condition for enzymatic treatment of various fruits and vegetable shown in Table 12.

6. Conclusion

The use of cellulases and pectinases has been an integral part of the modern fruit processing technology involving treatment of fruit masses. Enzymes in combination claim to increase juice recovery, TSS, clarity and decrease viscosity and turbidity. Cellulytic and pectolytic enzymes mixtures are having wide application to enhance pulp liquefaction and provide a higher yield of juice with high soluble solids content.

References

- Abbes, F., Bouaziz, M., Blecker, C., Masmoudi, M., Attia, H. and Besbes, S. (2011). Date syrup: Effect of hydrolytic enzymes (pectinase/cellulase) on physicochemical characteristics, sensory and functional properties. *Food Sci. Technol.* 44: 1827–1834.
- Abdullah, A. G. L., Sulaiman, N. M., Aroua, M. K. and Megat Mohd Noor, M. J. (2007). Response surface optimization of conditions for clarification of carambola fruit juice using a commercial enzyme. J. Food Eng. 81: 65–71.
- Albersheim, P., Neukom, H. and Deuel, H. (1960). Splitting of pectin chain molecules in neutral solution. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 90:46–51.
- Al-Hooti, S. N., Sidhu, J. S., Al-Saqer, J. M. and Al-Othman, A. (2002). Chemical composition and quality of date syrup as affected by pectinase/cellulase enzyme treatment. *Food Chem.* 79:215–220.
- Alvarez, S., Alvarez, R., Riera, F. A. and Coca, J. (1998). Influence of depectinization on apple juice ultrafiltration. *Colloids Surf.*, A. 138:377–382.
- Anastasakis, M., Lindamood, J. B., Chism, G. W. and Hansen, P. M. T. (1987). Enzymatic hydrolysis of carrot for extraction of a cloudstable juice. *Food Hydrocoll*. 3:247–261.
- Baker, R. A. and Bruemmer, J. H. J. (1972). Pectinase stabilization of orange juice cloud. J. Agric. Food Chem. 20:1169–1173.
- Bauman, J. W. (1981). Application of enzymes in fruit juice technology. In: Enzymes and Food Processing Birch. pp. 129–147. Applied Science Publications, UAE.
- Bayindirli, A. (2010). Enzymes in Fruit and Vegetable Processing. CRC Press, Secaucus, New Jersey, U.S.A.

- Beguin, P. and Aubert, J. P. (1994). The biological degradation of cellulose. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. 13:25–58.
- Beveridge, T. and Rao, M. A. (1997). Juice extraction from apples and other fruits and vegetables. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 37(5):449–469.
- Bhat, M. K. (2000). Cellulases and related enzymes in biotechnology. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 18:355–383.
- Bhat, M. K. and Bhat, S. (1997). Cellulose degrading enzymes and their potential industrial applications. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 15:583–620.
- Blanco, P., Sieiro, C., Diaz, A. and Villa, T. G. (1994). Production and partial characterization of an endopolygalacturonase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Can. J. Microbiol.* 40:974–977.
- Borin, M. D. F., Said, S. and Fonseca, M. J. V. (1996). Purification and biochemical characterization of an extracelular endopolygalacturonase from *Penicillium frequentans. J. Agr. Food Chem.* 44:1616–1620.
- Den Broeck, I. V., Ludikhuyze, L. R., Weemaes, C. A., Van Loey, Ann, M. and Hendrickx, M. E. (1999). Thermal inactivation kinetics of pecin esterase extracted from oranges. J. Food Process. Preserv. 23:391–406.
- Brown, M. R. and Ough, C. S. (1981). A comparison of activity and effects of two commercial pectic enzyme preparations on white grape musts and wines. *Am. J. Enol. Viticult.* **32**:272–276.
- Cao, J., Zheng, L. and Chen, S. (1992). Screening of pectinase producer from alkalophilic bacteria and study on its potential application in degumming of ramie. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* 14:1013–1016.
- Chadha, R., Kumbhar, B. K. and Sarkar, B. C. (2003). Enzymatic hydrolysis of carrot for increased juice recovery. *Journal of Food Sci. Technol.* **40** (1):35–39.
- Chane, P. S. and Shewal, J. G. (1995). Pectinase production by Sclerotium rolfsii. Effects of culture conditions. Folia Microbiol. 40:111–117.
- Chang, T., Siddiq, M., Sinha, N. K. and Cash, J. N. (1995). Commercial pectinases and the yield and quality of Stanley plum juice. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* **19**:89–101.
- Chauhan, S. K., Tyagi, S. M. and Singh, D. (2001). A pectinolytic liquefaction of apricot, plum, and mango pulps for juice extraction. *Int. J. Food Prop.* 4(1):103–109.
- Cheryan, M. and Alvarez, J. R. (1995). Food and beverage industry application. *Membrane separation technology principles and applications*. 443-465.
- Clarke, A. J. (1996). Biodegradation of Cellulose: Enzymology and Biotechnology. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- Codner, R. C. (2001). Pectinolytic and cellulolytic enzymes in the microbial modification of plant tissues. J. Appl. Bacteriol. 84:147–60.
- Couto, S. R. and Sanroman, M. A. (2006). Application of solid-state fermentation to food industry—A review. J. Food Eng. 76:291–302.
- Dorreich, K. (1996). Investigations on production of apple juice without the utilisation of presses. In: XII International Congress of Fruit Juice Report of Congress (pp. 183–197). IFU, Interlaken, 20–24 May.
- Dzogbefia, V. P., Ameko, E., Oldham, J. H. and Ellis, W. O. (2001). Production and Use of Pectolytic Enzyme from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* for the Extraction of Pineapple Juice. *Food Biotechnol.* **15**(1):25–34.
- FAO STAT. (2010). Food and Agriculture Organization Statistical Production Yearbook. 2010–2011, FAO, Rome, Italy.
- Floribeth, V., Celsa, L. and Cooke, R. D. (1981). A study of the production of clarified banana juice using pectinolytic enzymes. *Food Technol.* 16:115–125.
- Galante, Y. M., De Conti, A. and Monteverdi, R. (1998b). Application of Trichoderma enzymes in food and feed industries. Trichoderma & Gliocladium—Enzymes, Biological Control and Commercial Applications. 2:327-342.
- Grassin, C. and Fauquembergue, P. (1996a). Fruit juices. Industrial Enzymol 2:226.
- Gupta, T. R. and Girish, K. (1988). Studies on mango pulp filtration for concentration by pectolytic enzyme treatment. *Indian Food Pack.* 42 (5):7–14.
- Hutchings, J. B. (1999). Food colour and appearance. An Aspen Publication. 2:19-21.
- Indian Horticulture Database. (2013). Indian Horticulture Board, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, India.
- Jayani, R. S., Saxena, S. and Gupta, R. (2005). Microbial pectinolytic enzymes: A review. Proc. Biochem. 40:2931–2944.

- Joshi, A. A., Kshirsagar, R. B. and Sawate, A. R. (2012). Studies on standardization of enzyme concentration and process for extraction of tamarind pulp, variety *Ajanta*. J. Food Proc. Technol. 3(2):1–3.
- Joshi, V. K., Chauhan, S. K. and Lal, B. B. (1991). Extraction of juice from peaches, plumes and apricot by pectinolytic treatment. J. Food Proc. Technol. 28(1):64–65.
- Joshi, V. K., Parmar, M. and Rana, N. (2011). Purification and characterization of pectinase produced from apple pomace and evaluation of its efficiency in fruit juice extraction and clarification. *Indian J. Nat. Prod. Resour.* 2(2):189–197.
- Kashyap, D. R., Chandra, S., Kaul, A. and Tewari, R. (2000). Production, purification and characterization of pectinase from *Bacillus* sp. DT7. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 16:277–282.
- Kashyap, D. R., Vohra, P. K., Chopra, S. and Tewari, R. (2001). Applications of pectinases in the commercial sector: A review. *Bioresour. Tech*nol. 77:215–227.
- Kaur, G., Kumar, S. and Satyanarayana, T. (2004). Production, characterization and application of a thermostable polygalacturonase of a thermophilic moul Sporotrichum Termophile. *Bioresour. Technol.* 94:239–243.
- Kaur, S., Sarkar, B. C. and Sharma, H. K. (2009). Optimization of enzymatic hydrolysis pretreatment conditions for enhanced juice recovery from guava fruit using response surface methodology. *Food Bioprocess Technol.* 2:96–100.
- Kilara, A. (1982). Enzymes and their uses in the processed apple industry: a review. *Process Biochem.* 17:35–41.
- Kilara, A. and Van Buren, J. (1989). Clarification of apple juice. In: Processed Apple Products. Downing, D. L., Ed., Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.
- Kuhls, K. and Lieckfeldt, E. (1996). Molecular evidence that the asexual industrial fungus *Trichoderma reesei* is a clonal derivative of the ascomycete *Hypocrea jecorina*. In: Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, pp. 7755–7760.
- Landbo, A. K., Kaack, K. and Meyer, A. S. (2007). Statistically designed two step response surface optimization of enzymatic prepress treatment to increase juice yield and lower turbidity of elderberry juice. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* 8:135–142.
- Landbo, A. K. and Meyer, A. S. (2004). Effects of different enzymatic maceration treatments on enhancement of anthocyanins and other phenolics in black currant juice. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* 5:503–513.
- Lee, W. C., Yusof, S., Hamid, N. S. A. and Baharin, B. S. (2006). Optimizing conditions for enzymatic clarification of banana juice using response surface methodology (RSM). J. Food Eng. 73:55–63.
- Lotha, R. E., Khurdiya, D. S. and Maheshwari, M. (1994). Effect of storage on the quality of kinnow mandarin fruit for processing. *Indian Food Packer.* 48(2):25–38.
- Lynd, L. R., Wyman, C. E. and Gerngross, T. U. (1999). Biocommodity engineering. *Biotechnol Prog.* 15:777–793.
- MacDonnell, L. R., Jang, R., Jansen, E. F. and Lineweaver, H. (1950). Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 28:260–273.
- Marchesseault, R. H. and Sundararajan, P. R. (1993). Cellulase. Polysaccharides. 11–95.
- McLellan, M. R., Kime, R. W. and Lmd, L. R. (1985). Apple juice clarification with the use of honey and pectinase. *J. Food Sci.* **50**:206–208.
- Mieszczakowska-Frac, M., Markowski, J., Zbrzezniak, M. and Plocharski, W. (2012). Impact of enzyme on quality of blackcurrant and plum juices. *Food Sci. Technol.* 49:251–256.
- Naidu, N. G. S. and Panda, T. (1999). Performance of pectolytic enzymes during hydrolysis of pectic substances under assay conditions: A statistical approach. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* 25:116–124.
- Oszmian ski, J., Wojdylo, A. and Kolniak, J. (2009). Effect of enzymatic mash treatment and storage on phenolic composition, antioxidant activity, and turbidity of cloudy apple juices. J. Agr. Food Chem. 57 (15):7078–7085.
- Pilnik, W., Voragen, A. G. J. and Devas, L. (1975). Enzymatic liquefaction of fruits and vegetables. *Flussiges Obst.* 42:448–451.
- Plocharski, W., Szymczak, J. and Markowski, J. (1998). Auswirkung enzymatish apflemaischenbehandlung auf saftsbeute und pektinstoffmenge. *Flussiges Obst.* 6:325–330.

- Rai, P., Majumdar, G. C., DasGupta, S. and De, S. (2003). Optimizing pectinase usage in pretreatment of mosambi juice for clarification by response surface methodology. *J. Food Eng.* 64:397–403.
- Ranggana, S. (1977). Manual of Analysis of Fruits and Vegetable Products. Tata McGraw-Hill Pub. Co. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Rexová-Benková, L. and Marković, O. (1976). Pectic enzymes. Adv. Carbohydrate Chem. 33:323–385.
- Roumbouts, F. M. and Pilnik, W. (1978). Enzymes in fruits and vegetable juice technology. *Process Biochem.* 13:9–13.
- Sakai, T., Sakamoto, T., Hallaert, J. and Vandamme, E. J. (1993). Pectin, pectinase and protopectinase: production, properties and applications. *Adv. Appl. Microbiol.* 39:231–294.
- Schulein, M. (1988). Cellulases of trichoderma reesei. Method Enzymol. 160:234–242.
- Serrat, M., Bermúdez, R. C. and Villa, T. G. (2002). Production, purification and characterization of a polygalacturonase from a new strain of *Kluyveromyces marxianus* isolated from coffee wet-processing wastewater. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* 97:193–208.
- Shahadam, S. and Abdullah, A. (1995). Optimizing enzyme concentration, pH and temperature in banana juice extraction. ASEAN Food J. 10(3):107–111.
- Shallom, D. and Shoham, Y. (2003). Microbial hemicellulase. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. 6:219–228.
- Sin, H. N., Yusof, S., Sheikh Abdul Hamid, N. and Abd. Rahman, R. (2006). Optimization of enzymatic clarification of sapodilla juice using response surface methodology. *J. Food Eng.* 73:313–319.
- Singh, A., Kumar, S. and Sharma, H. K. (2012). Effect of enzymatic hydrolysis on the juice yield from bael fruit (*Aegle marmelos Correa*) pulp. *Am. J. Food Technol.* 7(2):62–72.
- Singh, N. G. I., Madaiah, N. and Najundaswamy, A. M. (1993). Prelimary studies on clarification of fruit juices by ultra-filtration. *Indian Food Packer.* 47:9–15.
- Sieiro, C., Garcia-Fraga, B., Lopez-Seijas, J., Silva, A. F. and Villa, T. G. (2012). Microbial pectic enzymes in the food and wine industry. *Food Ind. Processes—Methods and Equipment*. 201–218.
- Sreenath, H. K., Frey, M. D., Scherz, H. and Radola, B. J. (1984). Degradation of a washed carrot preparation by cellulases and pectinases. *Biotechnol. Bioeng*. 26:788–796.
- Sreenath, H. K. and Santhanam, K. (1992). The use of commercial enzymes in white grape juice clarification. J. Ferment. Bioeng. 73(3):241–243.
- Sreenath, H. K., Sudarshanakrishna, K. R. and Santhanam, K. (1994). Improvement of juice recovery from pineapple pulp/residue using cellulases and pectinases. J. Ferment. Bioeng. 78(6):486–488.
- Szajer, I. and Szajer, C. (1982). Pectin lyase of *Penicillium paxilli*. Biotechnol. Lett. 4:549–552.
- Sukumaran, R. K., Singhania, R. R. and Pandey, A. (2005). Microbial cellulases; production, application and challenges. J. Sci. Ind. Res. 64:833–834.
- Sulaiman, M. Z., Sulaiman, N. M. and Liew, S. Y. (1998). Limiting permeate flux in the clarification of untreated starfruit juice by membrane ultrafiltration. *Chem. Eng. J.* 69(2):145–148.
- Trappey, A. F., Johnson, C. E. and Wilson, P. W. (2008). Use of a commercial pectolytic enzyme to extract juice from frozen Mayhaw (*Crataegus opaca* Hook.) fruit. *Int. J. Fruit Sci.* 7(1):77–86.
- Tribess, T. B. and Tadini, C. C. (2006). Inactivation kinetics of pectin methyesterase in orange juice as a function of pH and temperaturetime process conditions. J. Sci. Food Agric. 86:1328–1335.
- Uhlig, H. (1998). Industrial Enzymes and Their Applications. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, p. 435.
- Vaidya, D., Vaidya, M., Sharma, S. and Ghanshayam. (2009). Enzymatic treatment for juice extraction and preparation and preliminary evaluation of Kiwifruits wine. *Nat. Prod. Radiance.* 8(4):380–385.
- Vaillant, F., Millan, A., Dornier, M., Decloux, M. and Reynes, M. (2001). Strategy for economical optimisation of the clarification of pulpy fruit juices using crossflow microfiltration. J. Food Eng. 48:83–90.
- Van den Broek, L. A. M., den Aantrekker, E. D., Voragen, A. G. J., Beldman, G. and Vincken, J. P. (1997). Pectin Lyase is a key enzyme in the maceration of potato tuber. *J. Sci. Food Agric*. 75:167–172.
- Versari, A., Biesenbruch, S., Barbanti, D., Farnell, P. J. and Galassi, S. (1997). Effects of pectolytic enzymes on selected phenolic compounds in strawberry and raspberry juices. *Food Res. Int.* **30** (10):811–817.

- Vidhya, R. and Narain, A. (2011). Formulation and evaluation of preserved products utilizing under exploited fruit, wood apple (*Limonia acidissima*). American-Eurasian J. Agric. Environ. Sci. 10 (1):112–118.
- Vijayanand, P., Kulkarni, S. G. and Prathibha, G. V. (2010). Effect of pectinase treatment and concentration of litchi juice on quality characteristics of litchi juice. J. Food Sci. Technol. 47(2):235–239.
- Voragen, A. G. J. (1992). Tailor-made enzymes in fruit juice processing. *Fruit Processing*. 7:98–102.
- Whitaker, J. R. (1984). Pectic substances, pectic enzymes and haze formation in fruit juices. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* 4:341–349.
- Will, F., Bauckhage, K. and Dietrich, H. (2000). Apple pomace liquefaction with pectinases and cellulases: Analytical data of the corresponding juices. *Eur. Food Res. Technol.* 211:291–297.

- Will, F., Roth, M., Olk, M., Ludwig, M. and Dietrich, H. (2008). Processing and analytical characterisation of pulp-enriched cloudy apple juices. *Food Sci. Technol.* **41**(10):2057–2063.
- Woodroof, J. G. and Phillips, G. E. (1981). Beverages: Carbonated and Non-carbonated, Vol. 2. The Art Publishing Co. Inc. Westport, Connecticut, pp. 213–232.
- Wrolstad, R. E. (1976). Color and pigment analyses in fruit products. *Stat. Bull.* 624. Oregon State University, Corvallis: Agricultural Experiment Station.
- Yadav, S., Yadav, P., Yadav, D. and Yadav, K. (2008). Purification and characterization of an acidic pectin lyase produced by *Aspergillus ficuum* strain MTCC 7591 suitable for clarification of fruit juices. Ann. *Microbiol.* 58:61–65.
- Yusof, S. and Ibrahim, N. (1994). Quality of soursop juice after pectinase enzyme treatment. *Food Chem.* **51**:83–88.