

## Effects of hot air treatment on cell wall-degrading enzymes, pulp softening and ripening in bananas

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### Abstract

Heat treatments can prolong the shelf-life of some fruits and sometimes provide effective alternatives to chemical insecticides. However, effects of sufficient hot air treatment to kill insects (50°C for 10 min) on cell wall-degrading enzyme activities in banana and associated processes, which could potentially be either positive or negative, have not been previously described. Thus, this study addressed these effects by examining selected enzyme activities, pulp softening and phenomena associated with ripening (changes in peel color, weight, firmness, respiration rates and ethylene production) in hot air-treated and control bananas. The results show that ethylene production, respiration rates, color changes of peel and pulp softening in bananas were all inhibited by hot air treatment. It also inhibited the increases in pectin methyl esterase, polygalacturonase and pectate lyase activities that typically occur in the pulp during ripening. Of these three enzymes, polygalacturonase was found to be most strongly correlated with pulp softening. The results suggest that hot air treatment retards ripening processes in bananas including changes in color and pulp softening by inhibiting respiration and ethylene production.

### Keywords

Cavendish banana

Heat treatments

Pectate lyase

Polygalacturonase

Pectin methyl esterase

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### Introduction

Bananas are among the most important agricultural commodities in the world, with annual production (in more than 50 countries) amounting to 106 million tons in 2013 (FAOSTAT, 2016). The bananas with AAA triploid phenotype is the most distributed worldwide trade (Paull and Odilo, 2011) and a great majority in the share of banana global market are Cavendish subgroup (47%) (FAO, 2003). As part of efforts to prevent exotic pests entering Japan and causing economic damage to agricultural products (Plant protection station, 2016), imported bananas must be quarantined in accordance with the Plant Quarantine Law of 1914.

Postharvest quarantine treatments involving high temperatures targeting a wide range of insect pests have been developed for various commodities (Neven, 2000). These include disinfestation and disinfection treatments of diverse crops via exposure to hot air, hot water or hot water-saturated air (Lurie, 1998). Effects of hot water treatments as possible measures to control various postharvest disorders and diseases of bananas, and infestation by surface insects, have been examined in several studies (Acedo *et al.*, 2001; Wall, 2004; Promyou *et al.*, 2008; Amnuaysin *et al.*,

2012; Mirshekari *et al.*, 2015). Other studies have shown that hot air treatment can alleviate chilling injury in bananas (Ambuko *et al.*, 2012), and both hot air treatment (Nakamura *et al.*, 2008) and hyper vapor heat treatment (Nakamura *et al.*, 2011) at 50°C for 10 min to 20 min can control mealybugs on bananas. Furthermore, treatment by hyper vapor heat treatment reportedly has no detrimental effect on fruit quality, but seems to delay softening of banana pulp (Nakamura *et al.*, 2012).

Bananas are climacteric fruits, a typical characteristic of ripeness during post-harvest storage is a rise in respiration rate and ethylene production. As the ethylene is produced, the fruit undergo respiration where organic materials break down into end products and lead fruits into senescence (Hailu *et al.*, 2012). Subsequently, changes in biochemistry and physiology proceed from the onset of the fruit ripening: e.g. the accumulation of soluble solid, peel color development, loss of textural intensity and starch content (Palmer and McGlasson, 1969, Hailu *et al.*, 2012).

Banana pulp softens rapidly in a climacteric ripening phase, particularly when ethylene gas is applied (Han *et al.*, 2016). A key process in tissue

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softening of various fruits appears to be degradation of pectin (Prasana *et al.*, 2007), a major component of primary cell walls and the most soluble wall polysaccharides, composed of (1-4)  $\alpha$ -D-galacturonic acids (Rose, 2003). Several major cell wall-degrading enzymes are involved in the softening. One is pectin methyl esterase (PME), which hydrolyses the methyl esters in pectin. This enables subsequent hydrolysis of the (1-4)  $\alpha$ -D-galacturonan backbones by polygalacturonase (PG) (Bennett, 2003; Rose, 2003). Another enzyme that plays an important role in fruit softening is pectate lyase (PL) (Marin *et al.*, 2002), which also catalyzes cleavage of (1-4)  $\alpha$ -D-galacturonan backbones, but by a  $\beta$ -elimination (Fischer and Bennett, 1991). Loss of the integrity and structure of pectin via activities of these enzymes increases its solubility, and decreases in water-soluble pectin contents are strongly associated with softening during ripening (Gwanpua *et al.*, 2014).

Heating can reportedly disrupt cell wall-degrading enzymes and ethylene production in fruits, but their responses depend on various factors, including the threshold temperature of their tissues for heat stress, which is typically ca. 45°C (Paull and Chen, 2000). The species involved may also be important. For example, Klein *et al.* (1990) found that incubating apples at 38°C for 4 days resulted in firmer pulp, but hot water treatment at 46°C resulted in softer mango pulp according to Jacobi *et al.* (1995). Moreover, the sensitivity of enzymes to heat treatment may depend on the ripeness of the tissues (Lazan *et al.*, 1989).

The aim of the study presented here was to elucidate both effects of hot air treatment on banana fruit quality and the mechanisms involved by examining its effects on peel color changes, pulp softness, respiration and ethylene production rates, and cell wall-degrading enzyme activities in bananas.

## Materials and Methods

### Materials

Green mature bananas (*Musa acuminata* 'Dwarf Cavendish' subgroup) were purchased from a local market in Ibaraki prefecture, Japan. They were transferred to the Pomology laboratory, University of Tsukuba, and kept in a temperature-controlled incubator set at 13.5°C. Fresh materials were prepared by separating each banana cluster into individual fingers, which were divided into two groups, one assigned to a heat treatment (described below) and the other to a control treatment.

### Hot air treatment

Sets of five fingers with a T-type thermocouple,

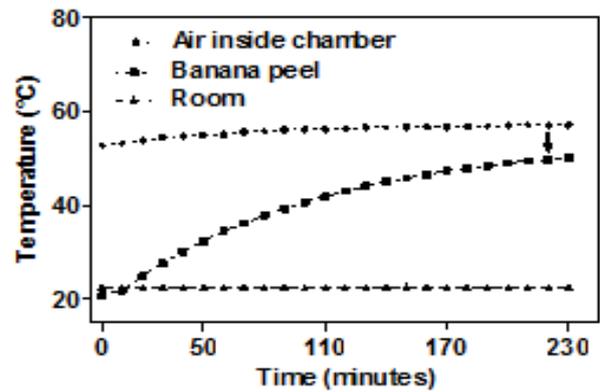


Figure 1. Time course of temperature changes during the hot air treatment. The surface temperature of mature green bananas reached 50°C at the time indicated by the arrow, and were then held at that temperature for 10 min. Data are means  $\pm$  S.E. of three replications.

connected to a GL400 midi logger (Graphtec Corp., Japan), attached to the peel surface were arranged on an aluminum tray and placed in a central position in a CI-310 incubator (ADVANTEC, Japan). When the peel temperature reached 50°C, the fruits were held at that temperature for 10 min (Figure 1) which adapted from Nakamura *et al.* (2008), then cooled in water at room-temperature (20°C), air-dried and allowed to ripen during storage at 20°C in an incubator. Control bananas were treated identically except that they were incubated at room temperature when the heated bananas were incubated at 50°C.

After 1, 3, 9 and 15 days of storage three hot air-treated bananas and three controls were subjected to firmness measurements then the flesh pulp was cut into small pieces, frozen with liquid nitrogen and immediately kept at -80°C until further analysis, as described below. Three replications of hot air-treated bananas were also subjected to firmness measurement, cutting and freezing after 33 and 36 days of storage. Sampling for non-destructive measurements, also described below, was done daily.

### Peel color

A portable colorimeter (Model CR-400/410, Konica Minolta Inc., Japan) was used to measure color of banana peel and the values were chosen as Hue angle (H°). The machine calibrated so that three different values were obtained from each side of the banana. An average Hue angle of each banana then calculated.

### Pulp firmness

A FRT-50N food rheology tester (Imada Co.Ltd., Japan) equipped with a 2 mm diameter cylindrical probe connected to a 100 mm probe shaft was used to

measure the firmness of the bananas' pulp. To prepare samples, each finger was divided into three equal parts using a sharp knife and one side was peeled. A cut part was placed on the tester's platform, the bar penetrated 10 mm into the pulp at 5 mm sec<sup>-1</sup> and the maximum penetration force was recorded.

#### *Weight loss*

The weight of each finger was recorded daily using a digital scale, and the resulting data were used to calculate the percentage weight loss at each day since the start of storage.

#### *Respiration and ethylene production of fruits*

To collect gasses released from the bananas they were incubated in a 1-liter closed plastic container at 20°C for 1 hour. Then, 1 ml of the head space gas was taken and injected into a GC - 18A gas chromatograph equipped with a total conductivity detector and a Porapak Q (Mesh 60/80) column (Shimadzu Co., Japan) to determine the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. In addition, a 1 ml sample was used to measure the ethylene concentration in the headspace, using a GC - 8A gas chromatograph equipped with a flame thermionic detector and a WG - 100 column (also supplied by Shimadzu Co.).

#### *Enzyme preparation*

Extracts for measuring enzyme activities were prepared following Pathak and Sanwal (1998), with a slight modification. Samples (ca. 5 g) of pulp tissue were homogenized in buffer containing 0.02 M Na-Pi buffer, 0.02 M EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 0.02 M cysteine-HCl, and 1 mM PMSF (pH 7), then proteins were precipitated with (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, dialyzed to remove excess salt and centrifuged as described by the cited authors. The supernatants were then used for the analyses described in the following sections.

PG activity was assayed following Pathak and Sanwal (1998) with a slight modification. To start the reaction, 0.3 ml of the supernatant described above was mixed with 0.3 ml of 0.2 M HOAc buffer (pH 4.5), 0.3 ml of 1% polygalacturonic acid (Sigma-Andrich) and 0.1 ml distilled water. The resulting preparation was thoroughly vortex-mixed then incubated at 37°C for 60 min. Then, 0.5 ml of DNS solution (Miller, 1958), containing 1% of 3, 5-dinitrosalicylic acid, 1% NaOH and 0.05% Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was added. The mixture was boiled for 10 min, then 1 ml of 40% potassium sodium tartrate was immediately added to stabilize color (formed from the reaction between DNS and reducing sugars) prior to cooling at room temperature.

Control tubes were not incubated after receiving

the supernatant. The absorbance of the mixtures at 540 nm was measured using a V-550 spectrophotometer (JASCO Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). A standard curve was obtained using D-galacturonic acid, and one unit of PG was defined as the amount required to release 1 nmol D-galacturonic acid in 1 min at 37°C.

#### *Pectate lyase (PL) assay*

PL activity was assayed using the 2-thiobarbituric acid (TBA) method of Waravdekar and Saslaw (1959) as described by Payasi and Sanwal (2004). A 5% (w/v) solution of polygalacturonic acid in 0.05 M Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.5) was prepared as the enzyme substrate. 0.20 ml of this solution was mixed with 0.45 ml of Tris-buffer (pH 8.5), 0.15 ml of 0.01 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.20 ml of the supernatant described above and appropriate amount of distilled water.

The mixture was then incubated at 37°C for 7 hours. To terminate the reaction, 75 µl of 9% ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O and 75 µl of 0.5 M NaOH were added. The white jelly-like pellets formed were removed by centrifugation at 1,500 xg for 10 min. A 0.2 ml portion of the supernatant was then mixed with 0.25 ml of 0.025 N periodic acid (prepared in 0.125 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>). The solution was subsequently incubated at room temperature for 40 min, the optimal oxidation period for sugars with trans groups (Waravdekar and Saslaw, 1959). Next, 0.5 ml of 2% (w/v) NaAsO<sub>2</sub> in 0.5 N HCl was gradually added and the mixture was allowed to stand for 2 min. The solution (pH 2.0) was finally mixed with 2 ml of 3% (w/v) TBA then boiled for 10 min. After cooling the absorbance at 548 nm of the solutions (and non-incubated counterparts as controls) was measured, and one unit of PL was defined as the amount required for a 0.01 increase in absorbance units relative to controls under these conditions.

#### *Pectin methyl esterase (PME) assay*

To assay PME activity, initially 0.5% (w/v) pectin substrate, 0.015% bromothymol blue in 3 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>-KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> buffer, and 3 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>-KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> buffer solutions, all adjusted to pH 7, were prepared. 2 ml of the pectin and 0.15 ml of the bromothymol blue solutions were mixed and incubated at 60°C for 2 min, then cooled to room temperature. Subsequently, 0.1 ml of the supernatant described above was added, the mixture was immediately stirred and 5 min later the absorbance at 620 nm was measured. One min after addition of the supernatant incubation tubes were used as controls and one unit of PME was defined as the amount required to liberate 1 µmol D-galacturonic acid in 1 min under these conditions.

### Protein determination

An RC DCT<sup>™</sup> Protein kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Tokyo, Japan) was used to determine amounts of proteins in the samples, following Lowry *et al.* (1951). Calibration curves were prepared using serum BSA.

## Results and Discussion

### Hue angle

Yellow coloration rapidly developed in the control bananas' peel during storage as the Hue angle of their peel sharply decreased from 113.74° to 89.28° between day 6 and day 9, then further declined to 85.11° by day 15 (Figure 2A). The Hue angle of the peel of heat-treated bananas changed more slowly and remained higher than that of controls from day 9 to day 20. Considering the ripening stage of banana fruit, storage of control group was ended on 15 days while heat treated group was delayed until day 36.

It is known that storage at temperatures above ca. 24°C retard loss of greenness and changes in Hue angle of banana peel (Kajuna *et al.*, 1998). This is due to inhibition of chlorophyll degradation (Seymour *et al.*, 1987; Thomas and Janave, 1992; Drury *et al.*, 1999), which may involve inhibition of Mg-dechelataase activity (Yang *et al.*, 2009). Our results show that hot air treatment can inhibit chlorophyll degradation, resulting in maintenance of green banana peel for up to 20 days.

### Weight loss

All bananas dramatically lost weight during storage at 20°C (Figure 2B), and the weight losses of hot air-treated and control bananas were similar until day 15, after which storage of controls ended and treated bananas continued to lose weight until the end of the experiment at day 36. Banana fruits inevitably lose weight during storage (Ahmad *et al.*, 2001), due to losses of respiratory gases and water vapor, and hot water treatment reportedly accelerates the losses both temperature- and duration-dependently (Amin and Hossain, 2013). This conflict with our finding that weight losses of hot air-treated and control bananas were very similar. A possible explanation for the discrepancy in results of the two thermal treatments is that the hot water treatment applied by Amin and Hossain caused rearrangements of epicuticular layers that accelerated weight losses. For example, López-Castañeda *et al.* (2010) found that heat treatment caused fissure-reducing rearrangement of the epicuticular wax layer of apples that reduced water losses. However, further research on the structure of peel and the structural

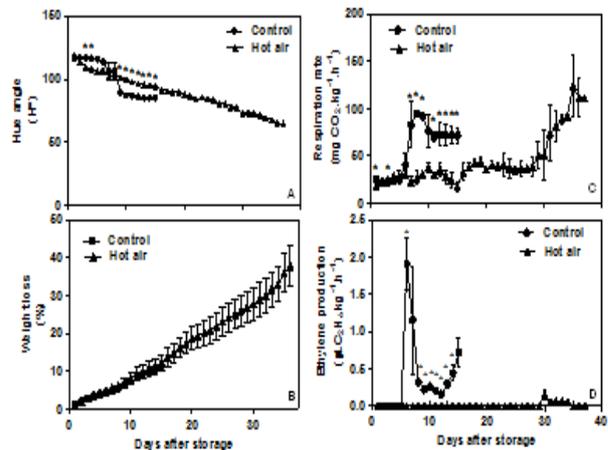


Figure 2. Changes in hue angle (A) of the peel, weight loss (B), respiration rate (C) and ethylene production (D) of bananas subjected to the hot air treatment (50°C, 10 min) or control treatment (room temperature, 10 min) then stored at 20°C. Data are means  $\pm$  S.E. of three replications. Significant between-treatment differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) are indicated by asterisks.

effects of heat treatment is needed to elucidate the mechanisms involved.

### Respiration and ethylene production of fruits

Respiratory CO<sub>2</sub> and ethylene production rates of control bananas strongly rose after storage for 5 days, and peaked at days 6 and 8, respectively (Figure 2C, 2D). In contrast, no ethylene production by the hot air-treated bananas was detected until day 29 after treatment and their respiration rate remained continuously low until day 28 (Figure 2C, 2D). A small peak in ethylene production (0.2  $\mu$ l/kg/h) was observed at day 30, and the respiration rate gradually rose after day 28 in the hot air-treated bananas.

A sharp increase in ethylene followed by a climacteric peak of respiration are general characteristics of banana fruit ripening (Liu *et al.*, 1999; Pathak *et al.*, 2003), which demonstrate that initiation of fruit ripening leads to major physiological and chemical changes (Millerd, 1953). Our results show that exposure to hot air at 50°C for 10 min. can strongly retard the increases in respiration and ethylene production in stored bananas, and thus the metabolic changes associated with ripening. In addition, the effects on ethylene production were strongest, in accordance with findings by Antunes and Sfakiotakis (2000) in a study of heat treatment effects in kiwifruits. Discussion of heat effects on ripening of fruits and vegetables has also focused heavily on ethylene (Luries, 1998) as it promotes climacteric ripening (Saltveit, 1999), and it is strongly involved in heat stress responses (Larkindale *et al.*, 2005). Thus, the ripening-retarding effects of high

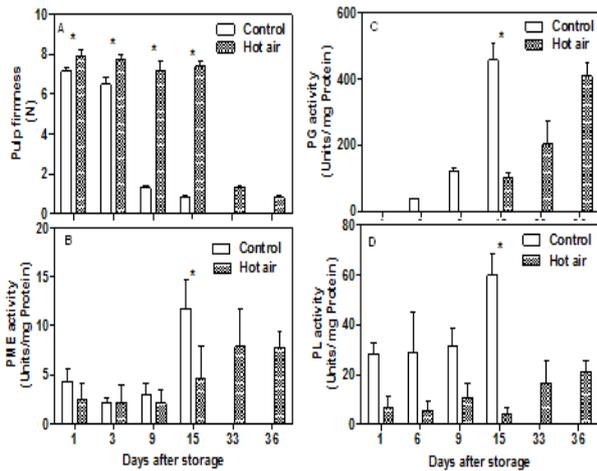


Figure 3. Changes in pulp firmness (A), and activities of PME (B), PG (C) and PL (D) enzymes in the pulp of bananas subjected to the hot air treatment (50°C, 10 min) or control treatment (room temperature, 10 min) then stored at 20°C. Data are means  $\pm$  S.E. of three replications. Significant between-treatment differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) are indicated by asterisks.

temperature we observed may be due to inhibition of ethylene synthesis enzymes (Morgan and Drew, 1997), e.g. 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid synthase and 1-aminocyclopropane-carboxylic acid oxidase (Ketsa *et al.*, 1999).

Heat stress responses are mediated by heat shock proteins induced by heat stress transcriptional factors in plants (Kotak *et al.*, 2007). Temperatures above 45°C, around the short-term thermal damage threshold may perturb induction of heat shock-mRNAs in fruit, and hence general repair responses to less severe heat shocks, which include (inter alia) increases in respiration and suppression of ethylene production rate (Paull and Chen, 2000), in accordance with our findings.

#### Pulp firmness

The firmness of the control bananas' pulp dramatically declined during storage (Figure 3A), dropping from 7.15 to 1.32 Newton, as measured by the rheology tester, by day 9 and 0.87 Newton by day 15. In contrast, the pulp of hot air-treated bananas lost very little firmness during the first 15 days of storage although it fell strongly between 15 and 33 days. Our other findings show that the hot air treatment strongly retarded other ripening-related changes. Other authors have shown that heat treatments can retard softening of bananas (Ummerat *et al.*, 2011) and various other fruits (Vicente *et al.*, 2005; Luo *et al.*, 2008; Dotto *et al.*, 2011; Ornelas-Paz and Yahia, 2014).

Shalom *et al.* (1993) suggested that increases in fruits' firmness resulting from the loss of neutral

sugar side chains during heating may lead to closer packing of pectin strands and thus hinder enzymatic cleavage during and after storage. Paull and Chen (2000) noted that heating often disrupts cell wall-degrading enzymes and ethylene production, which may explain the delayed softening in banana pulp induced by the hot air treatment and (inter alia) observations that heat treatment can impair ethylene production and softening in papaya (An and Paull, 1990). In our experiment the small peak of ethylene detected at day 30 (Figure 2D) may have initiated ripening and the loss of pulp firmness in hot-air treated bananas we recorded at day 33.

#### Pectin methyl esterase (PME) activity

PME activity did not significantly change in either hot air-treated or control bananas up to day 9 (Figure 3B). Between days 9 and 15 it increased in both sets, but significantly more strongly in controls. It also further increased after day 15 in the hot air-treated bananas. These findings are consistent with previous observations that PME activity in banana pulp increases during ripening (Hultin and Levine, 1965).

The findings also clearly show that the hot air treatment inhibited increases in PME activity. Suppression of PME activity by heat has been previously observed in Chinese bayberry (Luo *et al.*, 2009) and banana (Mirshekari *et al.*, 2015). Intriguingly, cold shock treatment can also reduce PME activity in banana fruits (Zhang *et al.*, 2010). However, according to Brummell and Harpster (2001), transgenic suppression of PME activity does not affect the firmness of fruit during ripening in the absence of thermal shocks.

#### Polygalacturonase (PG) activity

PG plays an important role in banana softening, and increases in its activity coincide with reductions in pulp firmness during ripening (Pathak and Sanwal, 1998). We detected no PG activity at day 1 of storage in either hot air-treated or control bananas (Figure 3C). However, while PG activity progressively increased thereafter (and peaked at day 15) in the pulp of control bananas, no PG activity was detected in hot air-treated bananas until day 15 although it increased strongly thereafter until the end of the experiment at day 36. In both cases, as expected, the PG activity closely correlated with loss of pulp firmness. The results clearly suggest that ripening-associated increases in PG activity were strongly suppressed by the hot air treatment, confirming conclusions by Chan *et al.* (1981) that heat treatments depress PG activity, thereby delaying fruit softening.

Heat-induced reductions in PG activity have also been previously observed in mango (Ketsa *et al.*, 1988) and banana (Mirshekari *et al.*, 2015).

These observations are consistent with several previous reports and conclusions regarding ripening and activities of PG and other pectin-metabolizing enzymes. Notably, Gwanpua *et al.* (2014) concluded that losses of neutral sugars, increases in pectin solubility and reductions in molar masses of water-soluble pectin are all associated with softening during apple ripening. In addition, Luo *et al.* (2009) found that suppression of PG and PME activity by heat resulted in delayed polymerization of pectic substances that can be dissolved by alkaline solutions containing chelators, and reduced increases in water-soluble pectic substances. As PG activity is largely responsible for pectin depolymerization and increases in its solubility (Brummell and Harper, 2001), as well as major changes in pectin structure (Fischer and Bennett, 1991) during ripening, the inhibitory effect of heat on PG activity may have contributed to the retarded softening in our hot air-treated bananas. However, a study with transgenic plants indicated that suppression of PG activity only slightly reduces fruit softening (Brummell and Harper, 2001). Furthermore, although we detected substantial PG activity at day 15 the pulp was still firm in our heat-treated bananas, presumably because the PG had not had sufficient time to significantly influence firmness and/or activities of other enzymes that may be involved in softening were not perturbed by the hot air treatment.

#### *Pectate lyase (PL) activity*

PL activity of control bananas continuously increased during their 15 days of storage (Figure 3D), as expected because it generally increases in pulp during ripening (Payasi and Sanwal, 2003; Lohani *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, PL activity in hot air-treated bananas slowly increased and remained at low levels for 36 days. Thus, PL activity was strongly affected by the hot air treatment. Similarly, hot water treatment can reduce PL activity in banana peel (Amnuaysin *et al.*, 2012) and pulp (Mirshekari *et al.*, 2015).

These findings are consistent with reports that PL plays a significant role in wall disassembly during ripening, and is strongly up-regulated in ripening banana pulp (Medina-Suarez *et al.*, 1997). In addition, Baldwin and Pressey (1989) found that both PG and PL solubilized uronic acids from washed cell wall fragments, but the PLs were most effective. Moreover, PL inhibition can significantly increase strawberry fruit firmness (Jiménez-Bermúdez *et al.*, 2002). Thus, in our study the low activity of PL in

heat-treated bananas relative to controls (detected at days 9 and 15) may have contributed to their weak losses of pulp firmness.

#### **Conclusion**

Our hot air treatment (50°C for 10 min) in the tested bananas, clearly had inhibitory effects on their ethylene production and respiration, and delayed ripening processes including changes in peel color and pulp softening. Softening is an important indicator of banana ripening that is caused by cell wall-degrading enzymes. Accordingly, increases in PG, PME and PL activities in banana pulp during storage were all reduced and retarded (relative to control levels) by the hot air treatment. Hence, in addition to other benefits of heat treatments they can retard softening of bananas. Our results may facilitate efforts both to understand effects of heat treatments on banana quality and improve postharvest treatments.

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