

# **Filtration-compression step as downstream process for flavonoids extraction from citrus peels: performances and flavonoids dispersion state in the filtrate**

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**Keywords:** downstream process; filtration-compression; enzymatic treatment; grapefruit peels; flavonoids

## **Highlights:**

- Filtration-compression for downstream processing of flavonoid extraction from peel
- Identification of the maximum extractable liquid of peel by filtration-compression
- Cell-wall degrading enzymes favour naringin and narirutin extraction from peel
- Identification of the dispersion state of flavonoids for a relevant post-extraction

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## Abstract

Initiative of waste treatment has to be based on user-friendly technologies, using robust, cost-effective and low-energy consuming processes. The global objective of this study was to reduce technical steps for the extraction of flavonoids (naringin and narirutin) from citrus peel (grapefruit peel). After a first fresh peel grinding, the relevance of a simple filtration-compression, as a first downstream process, of the obtained slurry was studied. An optimization of this solid-liquid separation was proposed and the impact of a pectinolytic enzymatic treatment, resulting potentially in a larger release of flavonoids, was investigated. The results demonstrated that a preliminary step of filtration-compression, directly realized on fresh grinded peels as downstream processing for flavonoids extraction could be pertinent and that the enzymatic treatment improved the slurry filterability. An optimal separation was obtained with a **transmembrane pressure of 5 bar**, leading to highest extractable liquid phase volume and to an extraction around 80% of naringin and narirutin. A modelling of the filtration step, essential for the scaling of a filtration-compression process on site, was proposed. An originality of this work was to identify the dispersion state of the flavonoids within the liquid phase, capital identification for a relevant choice of the subsequent extraction step of these compounds.

## 49 Abbreviations and nomenclature

50	$d_{50}$	Mean diameter ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
51	$J$	Filtration rate ( $\text{m.s}^{-1}$ )
52	$J_0$	Initial filtration rate ( $\text{m.s}^{-1}$ )
53	$K_b$	Blocking constant for complete blocking law ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ )
54	$K_c$	Blocking constant for cake filtration law ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ )
55	$K_i$	Blocking constant for intermediate blocking law ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ )
56	$K_s$	Blocking constant for standard blocking law ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ )
57	$M$	Filtrate mass (g)
58	$M_{\text{add.}}$	Mass of water added for the enzymatic treatment (g)
59	$M_{\text{DM}}$	Mass of dry matter in slurry (g)
60	$M_{\text{ext-liq.}}$	Mass of extracted intrinsic liquid
61	$M_F$	Maximum filtrate mass (g)
62	$M_{\text{liq.}}$	Total liquid mass of the grinded peel (g)
63	$t$	Filtration time (s)
64	$\text{TMP}$	Transmembrane pressure (bar)
65	$V$	Filtrate volume ( $\text{m}^3$ )
66	$w$	Enzymatic solution/slurry mass ratio (g/g)
67		
68	Greek letters	
69	$\eta$	Theoretical filtration efficiency (%)
70	$\eta^*$	Experimental filtration efficiency (%)
71	$\Omega$	Filtration surface ( $\text{m}^2$ )
72		
73	Index	
74	DM	Dry matter
75	ET	Enzyme treated slurry
76	H	Heating ( $50^\circ\text{C}$ , 2 hours)
77	NT	Non-treated slurry
78	W	Water addition in a ratio 1/1
79	W+H	Water addition in a ratio 1/1 + Heating ( $50^\circ\text{C}$ , 2 hours)

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## 1. Introduction

*Citrus* genus (orange, mandarin/tangerine, grapefruit and lemon/lime) is among the largest cultivated fruit crops in tropical and subtropical regions worldwide, with a global production of 92.088 million metric tons in 2017/18, and is expected to increase further in the future [1]. About a quarter of the harvested fruit is transformed into various commercial products such as juice, jam, marmalades and flavouring agents, using only about 50% of the total fruit. Hence, these transformations generate yearly 11 million metric tons of wastes and by-products, which are considered harmful to soil and water bodies due to their low pH (3-4), high water (around 80-90%) and organic matter (95% of total solids) contents [2–4]. Yet today waste management is at the heart of the concerns with the sustainable food systems development aiming at a « 0 waste » production but also with the biorefinery tendency of the food industry [3,5,6]. For Southern citrus industries (ensuring 70-80% of the total citrus production [1,7]), due to their insufficient infrastructure, little or no valorisation are ensured. Thus, peels, pulp and seeds are generally discarded on adjacent land leading to the generation of putrefying waste. Sometimes, these by-products are valorised as cattle feedstock but with a low economic interest as this valorisation requires a previous drying which is a high-energy consuming operation.

These practices are particularly unfortunate, as *Citrus* by-products can be considered as a cheap source of high-added value components such as vitamins, minerals, essential oils, fibres and bioactive compounds mainly carotenoids, and polyphenols [2–4,8,9]. Flavonoids are polyphenolic compounds with a wide spectrum of beneficial effects; this includes anticancer, antiatherosclerotic, cardiovascular, anti-inflammatory, neuroprotective, hypolipidemic, antidiabetic, hepatoprotective activities and applications in the treatment of bone disorders [10–13].

In the literature, one of the most studied valorisation ways for Citrus by-products is the recovery of flavonoids from peels. This recovery purpose requires not only efficient extraction technology

but also various preliminary treatments of the peel, facilitating first its storage before extraction and secondly the solid/liquid separation step. Generally, a safe storage is ensured by drying (hot air, freeze-drying....). Then, with an objective to facilitate the mass transfer during extraction, grinding eventually followed by sifting is carried out to reduce and homogenize the particle size [14]. Extraction of the target compounds is generally combined with treatments or technologies facilitating the flavonoids transfer from the solid to the liquid phase. This step has attracted considerable scientific interest and thus several traditional or emerging extraction technologies are proposed in the literature: solvent extraction [15], hot-water extraction [16], ultrasound-assisted [15,17,18], microwave-assisted [19–21], enzyme-assisted [22], pulsed electric fields [23,24], high voltage electrical discharge [25] subcritical water [26–28], and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [29–32].

However, in Southern countries, the sustainability of waste treatment is threatened by the lack of financial resources and technical support. Moreover, most of the aforementioned processes, mostly studied at laboratory scale, require a high investment or high-energy consumption making these technologies non-suitable for those countries. As the success of valorisation initiative is based on the user's acceptance toward easy and user-friendly technologies, it seems pertinent to think about a high-added-value compounds recovery chain using optimized green, simple, robust, cost-effective and low-energy consuming processes. Our study fell within this context, with the aim to avoid a maximum of preliminary stages, especially the highly energy consuming drying step, before the extraction of flavonoids from Grapefruit (*C. paradisi*), rich source of naringin and narirutin [33].

Thus, the objective of this work was to study the relevance of a simple filtration-compression step directly done on the fresh grinded peels as a first downstream process for flavonoids extraction. The optimization of the solid-liquid separation was based on the estimation of the mass of the mechanically extractable liquid phase from the slurry under different **transmembrane**

**pressures**, combined with the quantification of the flavonoids (narirutin and naringin) content in the filtrate. Before the filtration in a pressurized filtration-compression cell, fresh peels were grinded to form a slurry with an objective to favour mass transfer by an increase of the exchange surface and a disruption of plant tissues, flavonoids being considered to be largely stocked within the cell vacuoles [24]. The potential impact on the solid-liquid separation of a pectinolytic enzymatic treatment, causing a cell wall degradation resulting potentially in a larger release of flavonoids, was investigated. An originality of this work was also to identify the dispersion state of the flavonoids within the mechanically extractable aqueous phase obtained after this preliminary solid-liquid separation. This last investigation was supposed to be capital for a relevant choice of the following extraction of these compounds.

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### *2.1. Grapefruit peel supply and storage*

Grapefruits (*Citrus paradisi*, Star ruby from Turkey, provided by Terreazur, Saint-Jean-de-Védas, France) were first bleached. Flavedo, which can be valorised through the extraction of essential oils [4], was then manually removed from the peel, the target flavonoids being mostly contained in the albedo [34–38]. Then, juice was extracted using an electric juice extractor (ZX7000, Krups). Albedo and pulp rests (core, juice sacs and segment rests), representing in our experiments about 35% of the weight of the total fruit, were then manually cut into small pieces (around 10 x 10 mm) and stored at -25°C.

### *2.2. Experimental methodology*

#### *2.2.1 Grinding*

After defrosting at room temperature (45 min to 1 hour), peels were subjected to grinding. Grinding was ensured using a hand blender (Moulinex DD873D10 Infiny Force ultimate, France) for

1.5 minutes at 1 kW (corresponding to a  $9.10^5 \text{ J}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  of fresh peel). After grinding, a thick suspension, i.e. a slurry, was obtained.

### 2.2.2. Enzymatic treatment

The enzymatic treatment was based on the use of Pecllyve<sup>®</sup> PR (Soufflet biotechnologies<sup>®</sup>), a commercial pectinolytic enzyme preparation with two main pectinase activities, Pectin-methylesterase (EC3.1.1.11; 150 U/g) and Pectin-lyase (EC4.2.2.10; 1100 U/g). An enzymatic solution was prepared with the objective to provide 0.3 g of enzyme per kg of slurry, with a mass ratio solution/slurry (w) of approximately 1/1. The enzymatic treatment consisted in the mixing of the slurry and the enzymatic solution during 2 h at 50°C. These operating conditions were recommended by Soufflet biotechnologies<sup>®</sup> for an optimal enzyme activity.

### 2.2.3. Filtration-compression

The liquid phase of the raw (NT) or enzyme treated (ET) slurry was extracted by filtration-compression.

Filtration-compression experiments were carried out with a pressurized cylindrical cell of 70 mm internal diameter and 0.60 L volume (Figure 1). A perforated disk was located at the bottom of the cylinder to support a plane cotton cellulose membrane of 6 µm in pore size (Whatman, Maidstone, UK); the pore size of 6 µm was supposed to retain the great majority of the suspended solids, while allowing acceptable filtration rate. Transmembrane pressure (TMP) was applied by a pneumatically driven-piston dragged by nitrogen gas.

With an objective to compare and discuss flavonoids extraction efficiencies, filtrations were operated from same mass of dry matter (around 3.5 g), whatever the type of slurry (ET or NT); thus the initial slurry mass (or volume) to be filtered was different for NT and ET slurry (20 g and 40 g respectively, according to their different water content).

Filtration-compression experiments were carried out at different transmembrane pressures (1, 3, 5, 7 and 10 bar).

The filtrate mass ( $M$ ) was monitored during time until its stabilization;  $M_F$ , maximum filtrate mass, was considered as the maximum mass of the liquid phase that could be extracted from slurry by filtration-compression at the defined operating condition (i.e. TMP).

At the end of the filtration, filter cake and filtrate were recovered and characterized.

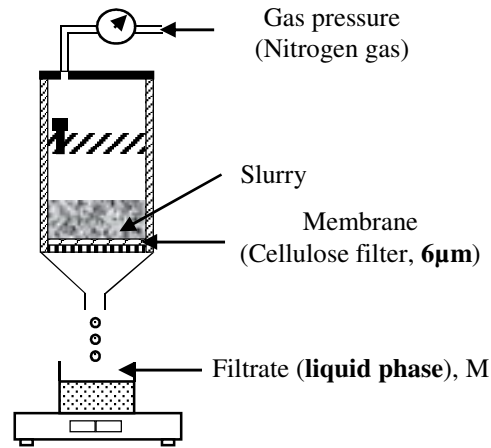


Figure 1. Filtration-compression cell

The filtration efficiency, in terms of extracted liquid volume, was estimated for the two slurries, i.e. the raw (NT) one and the enzyme treated (ET) one.

The NT slurry filtration efficiency  $\eta_{NT}$  (given by Eq.(1)) was defined by the ratio between the extracted liquid mass,  $M_{ext.liq.NT}$ , and the total liquid mass of the grinded fresh peel  $M_{liq.}$ .

$$\eta_{NT} = \frac{M_{ext.liq.NT}}{M_{liq.}} \quad (1)$$

Regarding ET slurry filtration, the total liquid mass corresponding to the liquid mass present in the grinded fresh peel  $M_{liq.}$  plus the added water ( $M_{add.}$  due to addition of the enzymatic solution),  $\eta_{ET}$  was given by Eq.(2):



$$\eta_{ET} = \frac{M_{ext.liq.ET}}{M_{liq.} + M_{add.}} \quad (2)$$

With the suppositions that (i) the enzymatic treatment did not modify the part of the mechanically removable liquid of the slurry and (ii) all the water added ( $M_{add.}$ ) for the enzymatic treatment is easily removed by filtration, then, the theoretical ET slurry filtration efficiency  $\eta_{ET}$  can be given by Eq.(3):

$$\eta_{ET} = \frac{M_{ext.liq.NT} + M_{add.}}{M_{liq.} + M_{add.}} \quad (3)$$

Considering the enzymatic treatment protocol (with  $M_{add.} = w(M_{DM} + M_{liq.})$ , where  $M_{DM}$  is the mass of dry matter in slurry),  $\eta_{ET}$  can be deduced from  $\eta_{NT}$  by Eq.(4):

$$\eta_{ET} = \frac{\eta_{NT} + w \left(1 + \frac{M_{DM}}{M_{liq.}}\right)}{1 + w \left(1 + \frac{M_{DM}}{M_{liq.}}\right)} \quad (4)$$

## 2.3. Physicochemical and biochemical characterization

### 2.3.1. Physicochemical characterization

*Dry matter content determination:* Slurry, filter cake and filtrate dry matter content was determined according to the AOAC method with some modifications [39]. Samples were homogenously distributed on aluminium dishes and kept in a vacuum oven (Heraeus RVT 360, Hanau, Germany) at 70°C for 48h. Water content was determined from the weight difference before and after drying. Each measure was done in triplicate.

*Particle size distribution:* Particle size distribution (in percentage of volume density) and mean diameter ( $d_{50}$ ) of NT and ET slurries were determined by Laser diffraction using a Malvern Mastersizer (Mastersizer 3000, Malvern Instruments Limited, Worcestershire, UK) equipped

with a HydroMV<sup>®</sup> cell. Refractive indices of 1.73 and 1.33 were used for cloud particles and dispersion phase and 0.1 was used as the absorption index of cloud particles [40]. Samples were introduced into the volume presentation unit, which already contained deionized water; in this unit, the diluted sample was gently stirred and pumped through the optical cell.

*Flavonoids dispersion state:* Filtrate was considered as an aqueous solution in which colloidal and supra-colloidal particles were suspended. These insoluble particles were supposed to be remaining vegetable tissue and cellular rests and therefore to be susceptible of containing flavonoids. In order to identify the dispersion state of naringin and narirutin within the filtrate, centrifugation of the filtrate for 4 hours at 20 000 g was proposed; this centrifugation operating condition was chosen with the objective of separating the soluble fraction from the rest of the suspension. According to Stokes law, a cut-off size of approximately 100 nm was supposed to be reached with this chosen centrifugation time and acceleration; the separation selectivity has been subsequently confirmed by means of particles-size measurements (Dynamic Light Scattering). Flavonoids (naringin and narirutin) present in the centrifugation pellet, supposed on crystallized form or bound to some larger solids, were considered as *insoluble* flavonoids. Flavonoids present in the supernatant, supposed solubilized or potentially bound with some colloids or macromolecules, were considered as *soluble* ones.

### 2.3.2. Flavonoids biochemical characterization

Naringin and narirutin content of the slurry and filtrates was estimated by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analyses. A solvent extraction was performed using a modified method based on [41] to estimate the total content of flavonoids in the samples.

A mass of slurry (corresponding to 250 mg of dry matter) or a volume of 500 µl of filtrate was withdrawn and diluted with 5 ml of dimethylformamide (DMF) and 5 ml of ammonium oxalate (0.05 M). Afterwards, samples were placed in a hot oil bath (90°C) for 10 minutes, cooled and

adjusted to 18 ml for filtrates and 25 ml for slurries. Solutions were then filtered through 0.45 µm Whatman cellulose acetate syringe filters (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) before injection. Naringin and narirutin content was quantified using an Agilent 1200 series HPLC system equipped with a degasser, a quaternary pump, an auto-sampler, a thermostated column compartment, and a diode array detector DAD. Separation of flavanones was performed using a C18 column (Uptisphere HDO 5 µm, 250 mm × 4.6 mm, Interchim, Montluçon, France). The mobile phase consisted of an isocratic solvent system combining solvent A (water/acetic acid, 99/1, v/v), solvent B (acetonitrile), and solvent C (tetrahydrofuran) - A/B/C 80/16/4, v/v/v. The flow was set at 1 mL/min and the column was heated at 25°C. UV detector was set at 280 nm, an aliquot of 20 µL was injected.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Slurry characterization

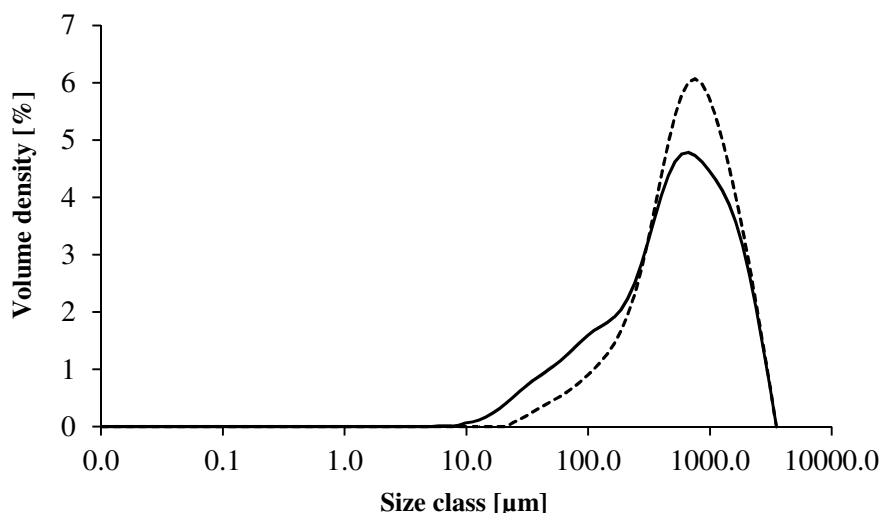
The physicochemical and biochemical properties of fresh peel and slurries with (ET) and without an enzymatic treatment (NT) are shown in Table 1.

The fresh peel and the NT slurry presented similar characteristics in terms of dry matter (DM) and water content, around 17 and 83 g per 100 g of wet matter (i.e. fresh peel or slurries) respectively; these values were coherent with the ones available in the literature [42,43]. The enzymatic treatment, requiring a water addition, increased the water content of the ET slurry until 91 g per 100 g of wet matter, coherent value considering the addition of an enzymatic aqueous solution close to a 1/1 ratio.

**Table 1**  
Physicochemical properties of fresh peel and slurries

	Fresh Peel	NT slurry	ET slurry
<b>Dry matter</b>			
<i>g/100 g wet matter</i>	17.3 ± 0.9	17.3 ± 0.5	8.6 ± 0.2
<b>Water content</b>			
<i>g/100 g wet matter</i>	82.6 ± 0.9	82.7 ± 0.5	91.4 ± 0.2
<b>d<sub>50</sub></b>			
<i>μm</i>	-	716 ± 19	575 ± 17
<b>Naringin</b>			
<i>g/100 g dry matter</i>		5.1 ± 0.4	
<i>g/100 g wet matter</i>		0.9 ± 0.1	
<b>Narirutin</b>			
<i>g/100 g dry matter</i>		0.57 ± 0.02	
<i>g/100 g wet matter</i>		0.1 ± 0.01	

The particle size distributions of NT and ET slurries are given in Figure 2. The NT slurry was composed of particles ranging from approximately 25 to 3500 μm, with a relatively important volume percentage of particles around 1000 μm; the d<sub>50</sub> was about 716 μm. If the enzymatic treatment did not significantly modify the size distribution shape, it was however noted that the amount of particles with size from 300 to 2000 μm was reduced while the percentage of particles with size from 10 to 300 μm increased. These results suggested that a part of the larger particles were broken under the effect of the enzymatic treatment. Pectin-methyl esterase and pectin-lyase had almost certainly catalysed the demethylation and the depolymerisation of pectin in the albedo [44], leading to the weakening of cell structures and a consequent particle size reduction [45]. As a consequence of this size distribution modification, a decrease of the d<sub>50</sub> was observed after the enzymatic treatment.



**Figure 2.** Particle Size distribution of: – ET slurry and --- NT slurry

The total concentration of naringin and narirutin in NT slurry, estimated per 100 g of dry matter and wet matter, are given in Table 1. The concentration of naringin was about 10 times higher than the narirutin one. Grapefruit naringin and narirutin concentrations found in the literature for the different parts of the fruit are reported in Table 2. This bibliographic review indicated that the measured concentrations were in the same range of those found in literature for albedo and confirmed the large presence of naringin and narirutin in peel, and specifically in albedo. The significant variability observed in the values reported in Table 2 could be easily explained by various factors (e.g. fruit origin, fruit variety, manufacturing procedures, storage conditions...) but also variation in the degree of maturity of the fruit [35,36,46–48].

**Table 2**

Naringin and Narirutin content in grapefruit (*C. paradisi*)

<sup>a</sup> g/100g juice

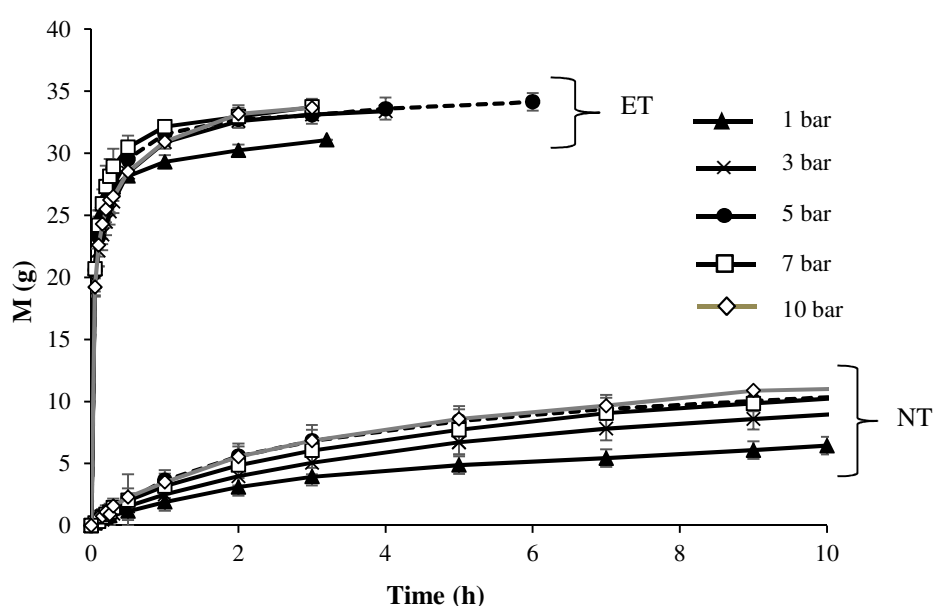
<sup>b</sup> g/100g wet matter

	Juice	Flavedo	Albedo
Naringin	0.006 – 0.087 <sup>a,[36-38]</sup>	0.35 – 0.99 <sup>b,[34,35]</sup>	0.62 – 2.7 <sup>b,[34,35]</sup>
Narirutin	0.009 – 0.012 <sup>a,[4]</sup>	0.11 <sup>b,[2]</sup>	0.23 <sup>b,[2]</sup>

### 3.2. Filtration-compression of the slurry

Figure 3 presents the evolution of the filtrate mass ( $M$ ) versus time, for NT and ET slurries during filtration at different transmembrane pressures.

As it can be observed, the applied transmembrane pressure influenced the quantity of collected liquid at the end of each filtration, i.e.  $M_F$ . Recovered filtrate mass was higher for ET slurry than for NT one, which was coherent with the filtration protocol (filtration of the same mass of dry matter, whatever the slurries), leading to the filtration of a higher mass of ET slurry than of the NT slurry (considering the addition of the enzymatic solution and consequently of water to the slurry).



**Figure 3.**  $M_F$  versus filtration time at different transmembrane pressures, for NT and ET slurries

The influence of pressure and of the enzymatic treatment on the solid/liquid separation efficiency of filtrations is discussed below. The description of the evolution of the filtrate mass, through the study of the fouling mechanisms, is also proposed with an objective to provide some indication about the fouling propensity of NT and ET slurries.

### 3.2.1. Solid/liquid separation efficiency

Figure 4 represents the maximum recovered filtrate mass ( $M_F$ ), corresponding to the steady filtrate mass, versus each applied transmembrane pressure.

An increase of the transmembrane pressure TMP, from 1 to 5 bar, induced an increase of  $M_F$ .

For NT and ET slurries, all the curves tend towards an asymptote corresponding to a  $M_F$  value closed to 12 and 34 g respectively.

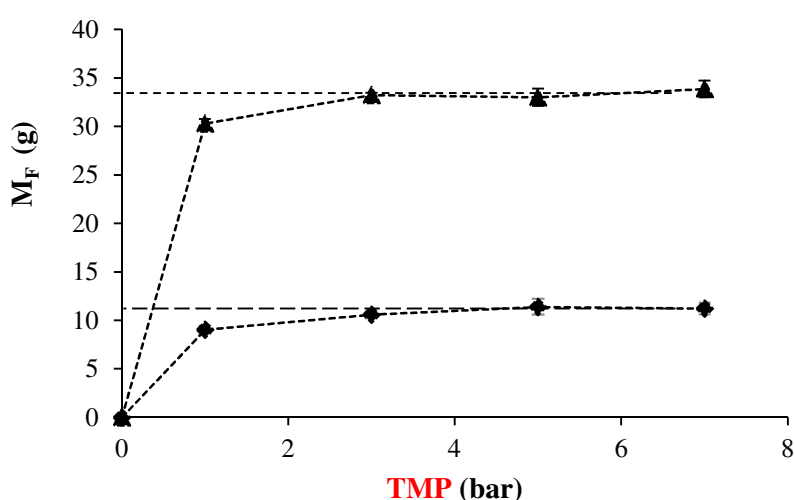


Figure 4.  $M_F$  value versus TMP (NT ♦, ET ▲)

Figure 4 shows that, in the presence or absence of an enzymatic treatment, a transmembrane pressure of 5 bar appeared to be sufficient to reach the asymptote and thus to extract all the mechanically extractable liquid part of the slurry. The nature of the interactions between the liquid (aqueous solution) and solid (e.g. pieces of vegetable tissues as cell wall fragments, proteins, pectin and fibres ...) phases of the slurry could explain this result. In a complex medium, as slurry, the solid/liquid interactions can be low or high, in relation with the liquid binding forces [49–52]; at least two types of water can be defined: free and bounded water, respectively concerned by low and high interactions with solids. The experimental distinction between these two types of water can be based on water activity [53], freezable and non-freezable ability [54]

or extractability by mechanical means [55]. This last definition, according to our experimental strategy and the obtained results, led us to admit that mechanical action imposed by pressure in a filtration-compression cell promoted the release of the slurry free liquid. Thus, results revealed that, for grinded grapefruit peels, with or without enzymatic treatment, a pressure of 5 bar appeared to be sufficient to extract all the easily removable liquid, i.e. free water. For ET slurry, the extracted liquid phase corresponded not only to the free liquid of the fresh grinded peel, but also included the water added for the enzymatic treatment, water considered as free water and therefore very easily extractable by filtration-compression.

However, with an objective to verify if enzyme presence and action were susceptible to modify the interactions between solids and liquid, i.e. if enzymes were susceptible to modify the quantity of the mechanically removable liquid part of the slurry, the estimation of the theoretical filtration efficiency  $\eta_{ET}$  (estimated from  $\eta_{NT}$ , through Eq. 4) was compared to the experimental one,  $\eta^*_{ET}$ , estimated through the quantification of dry matter and water content of the filtrate and filter cake. Table 3 presents the characteristics of the slurry, filter cake and filtrate in terms of dry matter and water content and extraction efficiencies, from 5 bars-trials (i.e. for pressure conditions allowing to extract the maximum of the liquid phase). Mass balance was approximately verified, considering the losses of matter (between approximately 10 and 20%, i.e. stagnant water in filtrate tube, arduous separation of filter cake from filtration membrane, deposit on the walls of the filtration-compression cell...).

**Table 3**  
Slurry, filter cake and filtrate characterization

	Slurry (g)				Filter cake (g)			Filtrate (g)			$\eta$
	Total mass	Added water mass	DM mass	Water mass	Total mass	DM mass	Water mass	Total mass	DM mass	Water mass	
<b>NT</b>	20.1 ± 0.0	0.0	3.5 ± 0.1	16.6 ± 0.1	5.21 ± 0.3	1.97 ± 0.17	3.05 ± 0.20	11.6 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.0	10.4 ± 0.3	<b>63 ± 2%</b>
<b>ET</b>	39.9 ± 0.3	20.0 ± 0.1	3.5 ± 0.1	36.5 ± 0.2	3.14 ± 1.3	0.94 ± 0.09	2.20 ± 1.06	33.5 ± 1.3	2.2 ± 0.1	31.3 ± 1.2	<b>86 ± 2%</b>



The enzymatic action was first observed through the difference between ET and NT filtrate dry matter content, as well as ET and NT filter cake one (Table 3). The evolution of the slurry particle size distribution after enzymatic treatment (Figure 2) had induced a reduction of solids retained by the membrane (pore size around 6  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and inversely an increase of solids in the filtrate (greater presence of finer fragments).

Concerning the comparison between the experimental and theoretical (i.e. calculated) filtration efficiency, an experimental efficiency of 86% was obtained while the theoretical one, that was based on the fact that the enzymatic treatment did not modify the mechanically removable part of liquid, was equal to 83% (according to  $\eta_{\text{NT}}$  and Eq. 4). This comparison demonstrated that, in modifying the cell structures and solids physicochemical characteristics, the enzymatic treatment could slightly increase the mechanically removable part of liquid of the grinding fresh peel (ANOVA,  $p < 0.01$ ).

### 3.2.2. Filtration modelling and fouling propensity of the slurry

We proposed to describe the filtrate mass ( $M$ ) evolution during filtration time through classical filtration modelling at constant pressure, i.e. Hermia models. The Hermia models consist of four different filtration mechanisms: complete blocking, standard blocking, intermediate blocking, and cake formation. The cake formation model, initially established by [56,57], considers that during filtration, fouling is due to a cake formation on the surface of the filter medium, corresponding to the deposit of particles of larger size than the membrane pore size. Both complete and intermediate blocking laws describe the pore plugging due to foulants reaching the top surfaces of pores. In contrast, the standard blocking law deals with the pore constriction caused by the deposition of foulants onto the pore wall. Table 4 presents mathematical equations giving the relation between the filtrate volume  $V$  and the filtration time  $t$ , for each filtration law

at constant pressure condition [58]. As proposed by [58], the predominant blocking filtration laws describing fouling pattern were determined from plots based on linear expressions of the law (Table 4), allowing a rapid identification of the relevant fouling mechanisms. If standard blocking and cake filtration models could describe experimental pattern for NT slurry, standard blocking and intermediate blocking were more suitable to describe the fouling evolution of ET slurry.

**Table 4**  
Blocking filtration equations for constant pressure filtration [55]

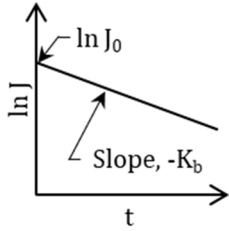
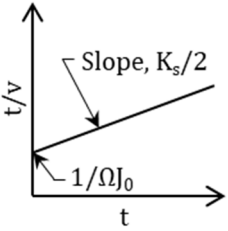
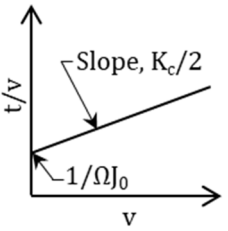
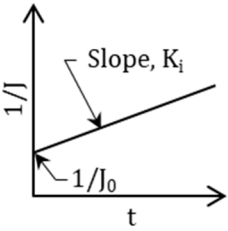
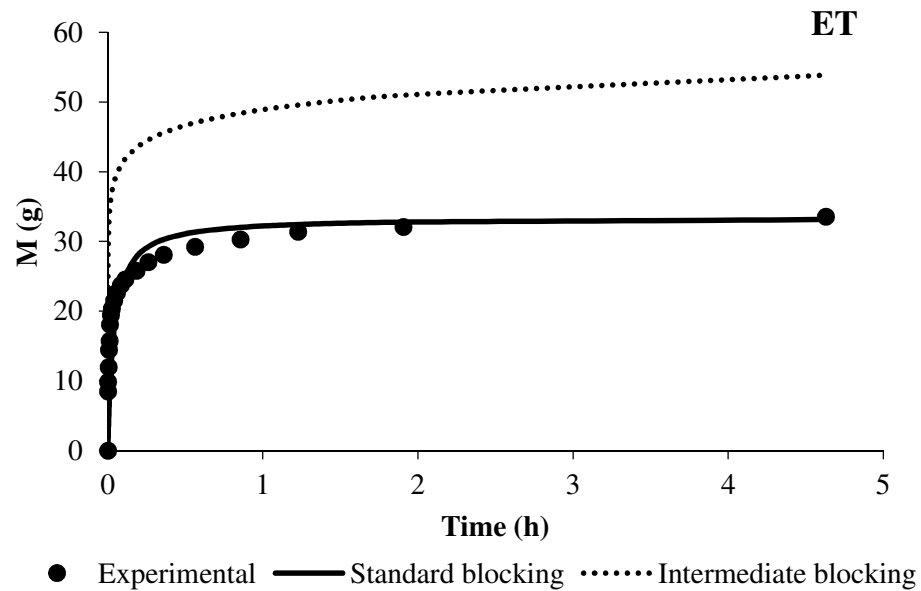
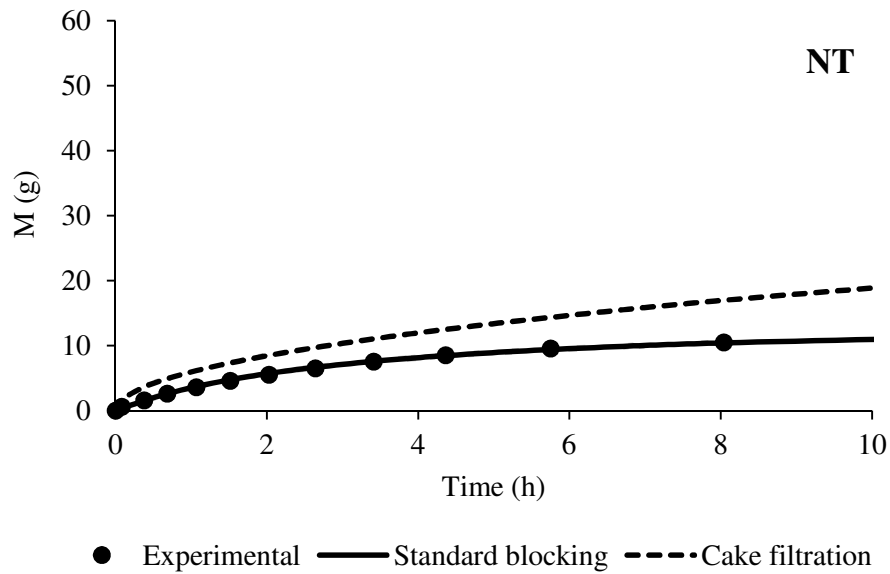
Function	Complete blocking	Standard blocking	Intermediate blocking	Cake filtration
$v = f(t)$	$v = \frac{J_0}{K_b} \{1 - \exp(-K_b t)\}$	$\frac{t}{v} = \frac{K_s}{2} t + \frac{1}{J_0 \Omega}$	$K_i v = \ln(1 + K_i J_0 t)$	$\frac{t}{v} = \frac{K_c}{2} v + \frac{1}{J_0 \Omega}$
$J = f(t)$	$J = J_0 \exp(-K_b t)$	$J = \frac{J_0}{\left(\frac{K_s J_0}{2} t + 1\right)^2}$	$K_i t = \frac{1}{J} - \frac{1}{J_0}$	$J = \frac{J_0}{(1 + 2K_c J_0^2)^{1/2}}$
Linear graphical representation				

Figure 5 presents the theoretical evolution associated to the models providing the better description of the experimental one for 5 bar experiments; similar results were obtained for the other filtration pressures.



**Figure 5.** Theoretical and experimental evolution of  $M$  versus time  
(5 bar, filtrate density of  $1040 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ )

As it can be observed in Figure 5, the standard blocking law is the only law describing properly the evolution of  $M$  versus time, demonstrating a possible membrane pore constriction caused by the deposition of foulants into the pore wall, and this, independently of the slurry modification induced by the enzymatic treatment. Thus, filtration models demonstrated that if the filtration kinetic of NT and ET slurries was different, the filtration behaviour of these two suspensions were comparable in terms of fouling mechanisms whatever the applied pressure.

Table 5 presents the value of  $K_s$ , blocking constant for standard blocking law, in  $\text{m}^{-3}$ , for the two types of slurry at 5 bar. Considering that lower is  $K_s$ , higher is the filtrate volume  $V$  for a filtration time  $t$ , the enzymatic treatment was supposed to be favourable to a weak fouling and consequently a rapid filtration. This result was consistent with the use of pectin-methyl esterase and pectin-lyase to enhance juice filterability notably through a reduction of the juice viscosity [59]. This modelling and the estimation of the  $K_s$  constant could be very useful for the implementation of a filtration-compression process, with an objective of providing and achieving a sustainable productivity.

**Table 5**

Standard blocking constant (5 bar, filtrate density of  $1000 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ )

Standard blocking model	$\frac{t}{v} = \frac{K_s}{2}t + \frac{1}{J_0\Omega}$	
	NT	ET
$\Omega (\text{m}^2) \times 10^4$	38	38
$J_0 (\text{m.s}^{-1}) \times 10^7$	$3 \pm 0.2$	$1\,210 \pm 800$
$K_s (\text{m}^{-3})$	<b><math>139\,000 \pm 1400</math></b>	<b><math>70\,000 \pm 10\,000</math></b>

### 3.3. Flavonoids extraction efficiency

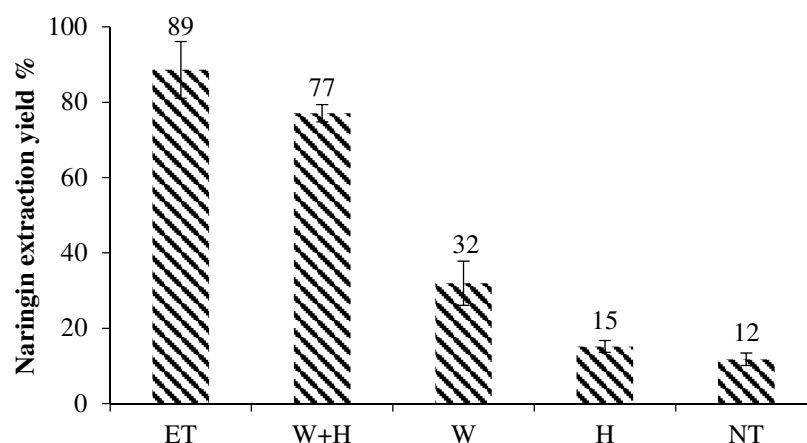
#### 3.3.1. Identification of the role of the operating conditions

Figure 6 and Figure 7 show the extraction yields of naringin and narirutin for filtration at 5 bar (i.e. the lower transmembrane pressure inducing the maximum liquid extraction).

For ET slurry, approximately 89% (4.5 g per 100 g of peel dry matter) of the naringin and 92% (0.5 g per 100 g of peel dry matter) of narirutin were recovered in the filtrate; lower yields were obtained without enzymatic treatment, i.e. 12% and 61% respectively. Similar data were reported by [60] and [15] with recovery of 4.1 g (hot methanol extraction) and 3.6 g (ultrasound-assisted extraction) of naringin per 100 g of peel dry matter respectively.

The high recovery of naringin and narirutin obtained for the ET slurry could be explained by the hydrolytic effect of the enzyme on pectin, inducing cell wall disruption and consequently enhancing the release of these flavonoids into the extracellular liquid phase recovered by filtration.

However, with the objective to discriminate the effect of the added enzymes from that of the operating conditions associated with the enzymatic treatment (heating and water addition), complementary experiments were carried out: (i) heating of the NT slurry in the same conditions as for the enzymatic treatment (50°C for 2 hours) (H), (ii) addition of water to the NT slurry in the same ratio (w) as for the enzymatic treatment (W) and (iii) heating and water addition in the same conditions as for enzymatic treatment (50°C for 2 hours, same w) (W+H). This complementary study could also be pertinent, with an objective to propose other pre-treatments than an enzymatic one to enhance flavonoids extraction by filtration-compression.



**Figure 6.** Naringin extraction yield at 5 bar  
Enzymatically treated *ET*, raw *NT*, water addition with heating *W+H*, water addition *W*, heating *H*

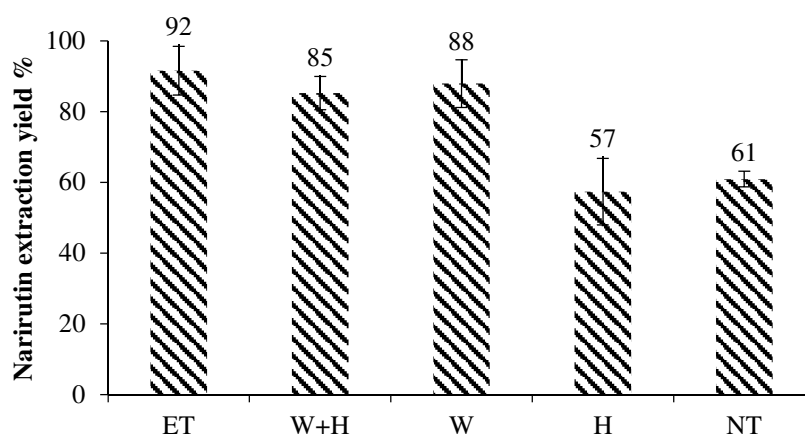
As it is observed on Figure 6, heating the slurry (H) did not lead to a significant increase of naringin recovery in comparison with raw slurry. Even if high temperatures are susceptible of increasing the diffusion rates of flavonoids, the low water content limit the transfert phenomena of the flavonoids towards the mechanically extractable liquid. By adding water to the slurry (W),

a marked increase on the recovered naringin was noticed; an extraction twice as efficient as the one obtained with heating was observed. The addition of water, which diluted the medium, facilitated the mobility of flavonoids from the solid matrix towards the free extracellular liquid, through an increase of the concentration gradient at the solid/liquid interface and a possible increase of the diffusion coefficient by a decrease of the viscosity of the medium.

The twinning effect of heating and water addition (W+H) led to an important increase of the naringin extraction resulting in an efficiency close to 78%. The addition of pectinases, which hydrolysed pectins of the cell walls, increased the naringin extraction efficiency from 78 to 89%.

These results demonstrated that, if the enzymatic treatment enhanced the naringin extraction, water addition and heating, due to their synergistic effect, could be simple and low-cost slurry pre-treatments to enhance naringin extraction. Thus, the benefit of an enzymatic treatment on the naringin recovery has to be considered, given the enzyme cost.

Regarding narirutin recovery (Figure 7), the lower concentration in peel residues combined with its higher solubility allowed a higher release of this flavonoid (between 61% and 92 % depending on the treatment) into the aqueous phase. In this case, the most impacting factor is the water quantity available for rapid narirutin diffusion and dissolution; thus, a single water addition could recover the same quantity of narirutin than an enzymatic treatment.

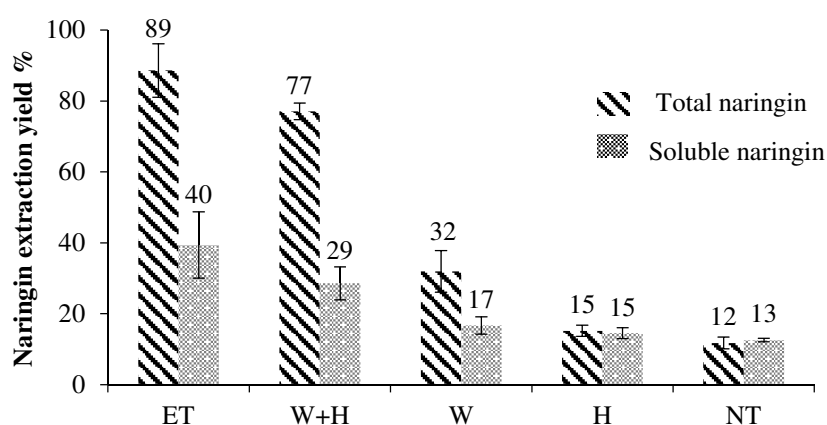


**Figure 7.** Narirutin extraction yield at 5 bar  
Enzymatically treated *ET*, raw *NT*, water addition with heating *W+H*, water addition *W*, heating *H*

### 3.3.2. Identification of the dispersion state of extracted naringin and narirutin

With an objective to identify the dispersion state of the extracted naringin and narirutin according to the different pre-treatments, centrifugations of the different filtrates were realized to separate the *soluble* and *insoluble* part of naringin and narirutin (see methodologies in 2.3.1).

Figure 8 presents the total naringin content compared to the *soluble* one. While naringin was only on a *soluble* state in *H* and *NT* filtrates, *insoluble* naringin appeared in the filtrates obtained with other pre-treatments.



**Figure 8.** Naringin total and soluble extraction yields at 5 bar for different slurries  
Enzymatically treated *ET*, raw *NT*, water addition with heating *W+H*, water addition *W*, heating *H*

The presence of *insoluble* naringin was directly linked to the enhancement of the total naringin extraction. Water addition, alone or combined with heat treatment, had favoured the diffusional transfer and consequently the extraction of a higher part of naringin within the filtrate; the enzymatic treatment had led to a weakening of vegetable cell wall due to pectinases, facilitating naringin diffusion and thus extraction [22]. The results seemed to establish that these released flavonoids, initially mainly on *soluble* state in the filtrate, could rapidly form large aggregates, explaining the increase of an *insoluble* fraction. Thus, about half of the total naringin was on insoluble state after these different pre-treatments. It was supposed that naringin could form colloidal structures with macromolecules (e.g. proteins, phospholipids...) that could be present in large quantity and with a great diversity in the supernatant after such pre-treatment (because of the facility of the diffusional transfer of other compounds or of the enzymatic action on the vegetable tissue). Additional specific tests need to be performed to complete these hypotheses, and notably to quantify the naringin solubility in such complex medium.

Concerning narirutin, the supernatant analysis of the filtrates showed that this flavonoid was entirely present under its *soluble* form probably due to its higher solubility and lower concentration within the peel residues (Data not shown).

#### 4. Conclusion

In order to promote circular and sustainable food systems, various strategies are proposed to valorise wastes. In the case of Citrus transformation industry, grapefruits flavonoids (naringin and narirutin), presenting interesting pharmaceutical properties, could be extracted from peels, constituting a source of income for Southern countries. Most of the extraction processes require high investment or high-energy consumption making these technologies non-suitable for the Southern countries. Thus, it seems pertinent to think about a high-added-value compounds



recovery chain using optimized robust, cost-effective and low-energy consuming processes. The objective of this work was to study the relevance of a simple filtration-compression step directly done on the fresh grinded peels as a first downstream process for flavonoids extraction. The potential impact on the solid-liquid separation of a pectinolytic enzymatic treatment was investigated.

The results demonstrated that a preliminary step of filtration-compression, directly realized on fresh grinded peels, as downstream processing for flavonoids extraction could be pertinent. The optimization of solid/liquid separation was obtained with a transmembrane pressure of 5 bar, providing the removal of the maximum of the extractable liquid phase from peel. Filtration modelling demonstrated that the standard blocking law properly described the evolution of the filtrate mass versus time, whatever the operating conditions (pressure, enzymatic treatment or none...). If the fouling mechanisms were similar for enzymatic treated slurry and no-treated one, the enzymatic treatment improved significantly the filterability of the slurry. The blocking constant of the standard blocking law, indispensable for the scaling of a filtration-compression process on site, was, under 5 bar, two times higher for non-treated than enzymatic treated peel. The quantification of naringin and narirutin content in this removable liquid phase (i.e. filtrate) demonstrated that the enzymatic treatment or a hot-water addition were suitable to enhance the naringin and narirutin extraction yield, which could reach 80 and 90% respectively. The dispersion state of the flavonoids within the mechanically extractable aqueous phase obtained after this preliminary solid-liquid separation was identified; the part of the *insoluble* (crystallized or bound to some larger solids) naringin could represent half of the total extracted naringin. These last results require further investigations, with an objective to provide pertinent elements to guide the choice of the subsequent extraction step.

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## Declaration of interest

The authors report no declarations of interest.

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**Grapefruit peel (without flavedo) and pulp rests**



**Grinding**

**Pectinolytic  
treatment**

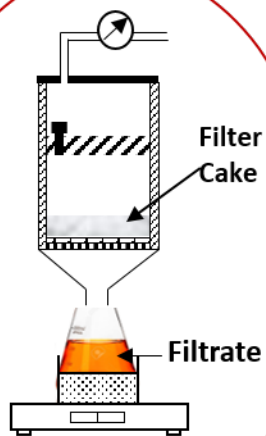
**NT  
Slurry**



*Slurries characterization*

Particle size measurement  
Dry matter content  
Naringin and Narirutin content

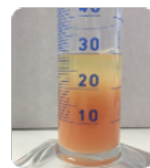
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Slurry**



**Estimation of  
filtration efficiency**

**Estimation of the maximum of the extractable  
liquid phase (filtrate volume)**

**Identification of the size-location of flavonoids  
in filtrate**



**Filtrate**

Dry matter content  
Naringin and Narirutin content

**Centrifugation**

**Quantification of the  
soluble flavonoids  
(supernatant)**

Naringin and Narirutin  
content