



MICROBIAL LIPASES – PROPERTIES AND APPLICATIONS

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Review



ABSTRACT

Owing to wide spectrum of catalytic reactions both in aqueous and non-aqueous media, microbial lipases occupy an unquestionable position among the biocatalysts. The chemo-, regio- and enantio-specificities of lipases have contributed to their versatile applications in biotechnology. As far as global scenario is concerned, microbial lipases - especially from bacteria and fungi - contribute to the choice of interest to meet the commercial needs. At this context, this review critically looks into the major domains of microbial lipases with an industrial perspective, which include: properties, secretion and industrial applications with appropriate illustrations. Due to great specificity and versatility of the reactions catalyzed, lipases claim unique applications in various process and products industries engaged in food, dairy, fats and oils, detergency, tannery, pharmaceuticals and cosmetics.

Keywords: Hydrolysis, *trans*-esterification, interfacial activation, active site, applications

INTRODUCTION

Enzymes are considered as the biocatalysts of nature. The increasing concerns about the environmental pollutions and stringent government regulations over the world have turned the attention of industries toward green technologies. Majority of the industrial enzymes are of microbial origin. Until the 1960s, the total sale of enzymes was only a few million dollars annually; since then, the market was broadened up spectacularly. At present, more than 200 microbial enzymes are used commercially and approximately 20 types are produced on truly industrial scale (Li *et al.* 2012; Pandey *et al.* 1999). Most of the enzymes produced by the industry are hydrolytic in nature; of which lipolytic enzymes draw enormous attention, because of their immense biotechnological potentials. Lipids constitute an abundant biomass on earth, and lipolytic enzymes play the pivotal role in the conversion of these hydrophobic compounds to simpler units (Benjamin & Pandey 1998).

Lipases or triacylglycerol hydrolases (E.C. 3.1.1.3) are ubiquitous enzymes mediating the hydrolysis and synthesis of esters formed by the conjugation of glycerol and long-chain fatty acids (Hasan *et al.* 2006). Physiologically lipase hydrolyzes triglycerides into diglycerides, monoglycerides, fatty acids and glycerol. They are abundant in animals, plants, bacteria and fungi; where they play the crucial role in lipid metabolism. For the past few decades, lipases have gained much attention due to their versatile activities toward extreme temperature, pH, organic solvents; and chemo-, regio- and enantio-selectivities (Benjamin & Pandey 1996). In contrast to esterases, lipases are activated only when adsorbed to an oil-water interface *i.e.*, lipase possesses a unique property of catalyzing the hydrolysis of ester bonds at the interface between an insoluble substrate phase and the aqueous phase, where the enzyme remains dissolved (Benjamin & Pandey 2000; Priji *et al.* 2014). For the past two decades, the world-wide production and consumption of microbial lipases have increased considerably owing to their fascinating industrial applications, which summarize the lipases as the third largest group of enzymes after proteases and amylases. In

fact, the panorama of lipase utilization encompasses many industries like dairy, food, detergents, textile, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, biodiesel, *etc.* (Schmid & Verger 1998).

Upon this background, this review examines the advancements in the various domains of microbial lipases such as production, properties, secretion and industrial applications.

MICROBIAL SOURCES OF LIPASES

Lipases are produced by several microorganisms, namely bacteria, fungi, archaea, eucarya; as well as animals and plants - among which bacteria, fungi and yeasts yield the majority of commercial lipases. The commercial significance of microbial lipases is mainly attributed to their vast variety of catalytic activities, ease of genetic manipulation and high yield, coupled with exponential growth of the producing microbes in inexpensive media and absence of seasonal fluctuations (Benjamin & Pandey 1996). Moreover, most of the microbial lipases do not require cofactors for their activation, and they exhibit broad range of substrate specificity and high enantioselectivity (Kirk *et al.* 2002). Many species of bacteria such as *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Serratia*, *Alcaligenes*, *etc.*, fungi such as *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, and yeast *Candida*, *etc.* are known to produce lipases (Table 1). The potential for the production of lipases enable these microbes to utilize the non-conventional carbon sources such as lipids that cannot directly pass through the cell membrane and have to hydrolyze partially to release free fatty acids prior to the cellular uptake (Najjar *et al.* 2011). Even though, a vast variety of microbial species are known for lipase production, only a few are utilized commercially and most of them are extracellular inducible enzymes. *i.e.*, they are synthesized within the cell in the presence of inducers of long chain fatty acids such as vegetable oils, oil industry wastes, surfactants, triglycerides, *etc.* and are secreted to the external environment.

Table 1 Some bacteria and fungi producing lipase, their sources of isolation, and yield of lipase using different inducers

Organism	Source	Substrate	Yield	Reference
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Wastewater at sidj bel abbes, Algeria	Olive oil	41.6 U/ml	(Zouaoui & Bouziane 2011)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. 3AT	Contaminated soil and water samples	Olive and sunflower frying oils	2.748 U/ml	(Haba et al. 2000)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> ATCC 111	Contaminated soil and water samples	Olive and sunflower frying oils	1.7038 U/ml	(Haba et al. 2000)
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Olive mill wastewater	Tributyryn	168 U/ml	(Ertuğrul et al. 2007)
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Setapak hot spring	Olive oil	4.58 U/ml	(Hamid et al. 2003)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> KM110	Wastewater of an Oil processing plant	Olive oil	0.76 U/ml	(Mobarak-Qamsari et al. 2011)
<i>Staphylococcus warneri</i>	Thai fish sauce	Olive oil	90.12 U/ml	(Kanlayakrit & Boonpan 2007)
<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i> M36	Seawater	Olive oil	42 U/ml	(Fang et al. 2006)
<i>Burkholderia</i> sp.	Soil sample	salad oil	1.720 U/ml	(Matsumiya et al. 2007)
<i>Bacillus</i> strain THL027	Oil-contaminated area	Rice bran oil	7.8 U/ml	(Dharmsthiti & Luchai 1999)
<i>Bacillus coagulans</i> BTS-3	Kitchen waste	Olive oil	1.16 U/ml	(Kumar et al. 2005)
<i>Bacillus thermoleovorans</i> CCR11	Hot springs	Olive oil		(Castro-Ochoa et al. 2005)
<i>Burkholderia multivorans</i>	Compost by enrichment in oil containing medium	Palm oil	58 U/ml	(Gupta et al. 2007)
<i>Bacillus</i> sp. RSJ-1	Hot springs	Cottonseed oil	10.5 U/ml	(Sharma et al. 2002)
<i>Bacillus thermoleovorans</i> IHI-91	Icelandic hot spring	Olive oil	0.300 U/ml	(Markossian et al. 2000)
<i>Bacillus sphaericus</i>	Soil sample	Olive oil	0.42 U/ml	(Hun et al. 2003)
<i>Streptomyces rimosus</i>		Triolein	19 U/ml	(Abramić et al. 1999)
<i>Penicillium camembertii</i> Thom PG-3		Soybean meal (fat free), Jojoba oil	500 U/ml	(Tan et al. 2004)
<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	Brazilian savanna soil	Olive oil	27.7 U/ml	(Colen et al. 2006)
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> KG-5	Soil contaminated with lipids, oils, and decaying organic matter	Olive oil	48.66 I.U.	(Shukla & Gupta 2007)
<i>Aspevgillus niger</i> MTCC 2594	Curd	Gingelly oil cake	236.6 U/g	(Kamini et al. 1998)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> NCIM 1207	-	Wheat bran and olive oil	630 IU/g	(Mahadik et al. 2002)
<i>Candida</i> sp. 99-125 (mutant)	-	Soy bean oil	8060 U/ml	(Tan et al. 2003)
<i>Penicillium restrictum</i>	Waste of oil industry	Babassu oil cake	30.3 U/g	(Gombert et al. 1999)
<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	Oil seeds	pongamia oil cake	983 U/g	(Balaji & Ebenezer 2008)
<i>Candida cylindracea</i>		Olive-mill wastewater	21.6 U/ml	(Brozzoli et al. 2009)
<i>Pseudozyma hubeiensis</i> HB85A	Phylloplane of <i>Hibiscus rosa-sinensis</i>	Soy oil	0.386 U/ml	(Bussamara et al. 2010)
<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>		Olive oil	16 U/ml	(Rifaat et al. 2010)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> mutant 11T53A14	Contaminated butte	Soapstock	62.7 U/g	(Damaso et al. 2008)
<i>Penicillium wortmanii</i>	Soil	Olive oil	12.5 U/ml	(Costa & Peralta 1999)
<i>Rhizopus homothallicus</i>		Sugarcane bagasse and olive oil	826 U/g	(Rodriguez et al. 2006)
<i>Mucor</i> sp.	Palm fruit	Palm oil	57 U/ml	(Abbas et al. 2002)
<i>Botryosphaeria ribis</i>	Eucalyptus citriodora tree	Stearic acid	316.7 U/ml	(Messias et al. 2009)
<i>Mucor hiemalis</i> f. <i>hiemalis</i>	Palm fruit	Rape seed oil	97 U/ml	(Hiol et al. 1999)
<i>Penicillium simplicissimum</i>		Babassu cake	90 U/g	(Gutarra et al. 2009)
Mutant <i>Yarrowia lipolytica</i>		Olive oil	1100 U/ml	(Fickers et al. 2006)
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	Palm fruit	-	120 U/ml	(Hiol et al. 2000)
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	Oil cakes and seeds	Wheat raw and olive oil	1934 U/g	(Adinarayana et al. 2004)
<i>Trichoderma viride</i>	Soil	Olive oil	7.3 U/ml	(Kashmiri et al. 2006)

REACTIONS CATALYZED BY LIPASE

Lipases catalyze a variety of reactions, which are primarily determined by the availability of water. Principally, they catalyze the hydrolysis of triglycerides at the aqueous-non aqueous interface, and favour the synthesis of esters from

alcohols and long chain fatty acids when the water activity is low (Aravindan et al. 2007), i.e., lipases can catalyze esterification, inter-esterification, and trans-esterification reactions in non-aqueous environments (Table 2). Thus, the versatility in activities makes lipases a suitable choice of catalyst in many industries.

Table 2 The reactions catalyzed by lipase

Nature of reaction	Name of reaction	Reaction
Hydrolysis	Hydrolysis	
Synthesis	Esterification	
Synthesis	Inter-esterification	
Synthesis	Alcoholysis	
Synthesis	Acidolysis	

PROPERTIES OF LIPASE

The pH

Most of the microbial lipases are neutral or acidic at their optimum activity. Alkaline lipases, which are stable at pH range of 8-10 offer promising applications in many upcoming bio-based industries such as textile, detergent, etc. Lipase from *Aspergillus carneus*, *Bacillus thermoleovorans*, *Bacillus stearothermophilus*, *Fusarium oxysporum* were found stable at the pH range 8-10 (Castro-Ochoa et al. 2005; Prazeres et al. 2006; Sinchaikul et al. 2001) whereas lipase produced by *Rhizopus oryzae*, *Cryptococcus sp.* showed the maximum activity at the pH range 7-8 (Hiol et al. 2000; Kamini et al. 2000).

Temperature

Generally, most of the microbial lipases are mesophilic in nature, i.e., the optimum temperature for their maximum activity ranges from 30 to 50 °C, but the increased demand for thermotolerant lipases in industries has led to the exploration of many microbial species producing thermophilic lipases, most of which retained 70-100 % of the activity even at the temperature range 50-70 °C (Bora & Bora 2012; Gohel et al. 2013; Khalil 2013); for instance, the lipase from *Bacillus sp.* (an isolate from the hot spring) retained 90% activity at 60 °C and 70% of activity at 70 °C for 1h (Bora & Bora 2012), whereas the lipase from *Pseudomonas sp.* strain ZBC1 showed the optimum activity at 80 °C (Xing et al. 2013). Cold active lipases are active at 10-25 °C, and they facilitate gentle and efficient industrial applications by significantly reducing energy consumption. Many microbes such as *Rhodococcus cercidiphylli* BZ22, *Penicillium expansum*, *Yarrowia lipolytica*, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*, *Pseudoalteromonas sp.* etc. isolated from the harsh environments produced lipases that are active at low temperatures (Mohammed et al. 2013; Park et al. 2013; Sathish Yadav et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2012; Yu & Margesin 2014).

Effectors

Usually metal ions can alter the efficacy of an enzyme either by enhancing or by inhibiting the activity. Divalent metal cations such as Ca²⁺, Cd²⁺, Fe²⁺, etc. enhance the activity of lipases, among which Ca²⁺ plays a critical role in stabilizing the enzyme under detrimental conditions (El Khattabi et al. 2003; Verma et al. 2012). Some other cations such as Co²⁺, Zn²⁺, Mn²⁺, and Mg²⁺ have mild to strong inhibitory effect on lipase activity (Kumar et al. 2005). Generally, detergents such as tween 80, tween 20 and sodium dodecylsulphate (SDS) were shown to have inhibitory effects on lipase activity; whereas triton X-100 enhanced the activity (Castro-Ochoa et al. 2005).

Specificity

Specificities of lipases play a crucial role in their possible applications in analytical and industrial purposes, especially in pharmaceutical industry. Majority of the lipases show substrate or regio- or enantio-specificities, which are highly determined by the size, shape and hydrophobicities of the binding pockets located in the active site. Some of the lipases, specifically act on tri-, di-, mono-glycerides and other esters. Non-specific lipase completely hydrolyze the

triglycerides to fatty acids and glycerol, but most of the extracellular lipases are regiospecific especially at 1, 3 positions. Lipase from *Burkholderia cepacia* found applications in organic synthesis due to its enantiospecificities, preferably the (R)- enantiomer over the (S)- forms (Jaeger et al. 1999).

Interfacial activation

Lipase exhibits a characteristic property, called interfacial activation which makes it a suitable catalyst in water-oil medium, i.e., the activity of the enzyme is highly increased when the substrates form emulsion in the reaction media. In aqueous medium, the active site of enzyme is covered by a loop of peptide called 'lid', but contact with the interfacial area induce drastic conformational changes on to the active site, so that the lid moves aside facilitating the enzyme- substrate reaction (Dheeman 2011).

Active site of lipase

The crystalline structures of many bacterial lipases have been elucidated to date, among which most of them shared a common folding pattern known as α/β hydrolase (Figure 1). Generally, α/β hydrolase consists of α helices (αA - αF) packed on either sides of a central beta sheet. The central β sheet is made of 8 parallel strands ($\beta 1$ - $\beta 8$), except the second strand which is in antiparallel direction. The active site of lipase consists of 3 catalytic residues (the triad), a nucleophilic residue, a catalytic acid residue and a histidine residue. In lipases, the nucleophile is invariably serine, whereas the catalytic acid is either an aspartate or glutamate. The topological position of the nucleophilic residue is often after $\beta 5$ strand, the Asp/Glu residue is after $\beta 7$ strand and the histidine residue is after $\beta 8$ strand (Jaeger et al. 1999) (Figure 1). In most of the lipases, the 'lid/hood' or the flexible fragment is made of one or two alpha helices, which covers the active site at the inactive state of the enzyme. In the presence of hydrophobic substrates, the enzyme undergoes interfacial activation so that the conformational changes at the active site make the lid open, so as to facilitate the entry of substrates to the catalytic residues (Pleiss et al. 1998).

The geometry of the active sites of lipases varies widely and determines the biochemical properties of the enzyme. Generally, it is a deep hydrophobic pocket which exactly fits scissile fatty acids of substrates into it. According to the shapes of the bindings sites, lipase can be categorized into three; lipase with crevice-shaped (*Rhizomucor* and *Rhizopus*), funnel-shaped (Pancreatic lipase, lipase B from, *Candida antarctica*, *Pseudomonas*), and tunnel-shaped (*C. rugosa*, *Geotrichum candidum*) (Pleiss et al. 1998) (Figure 2).

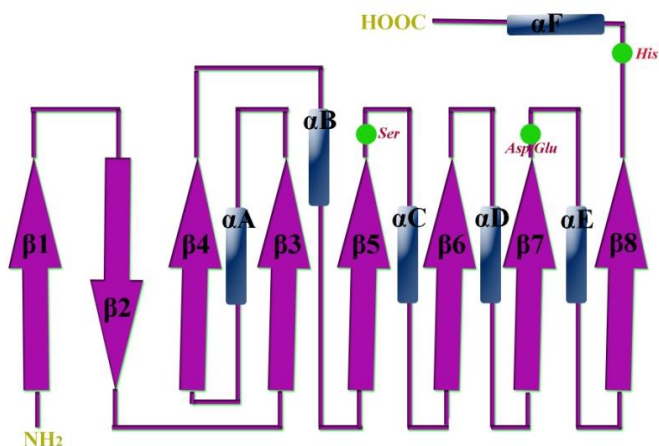


Figure 1 Structure of α/β hydrolase

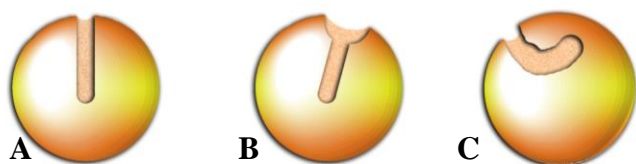


Figure 2 Different shapes of lipase active site A) tunnel –like B) funnel –like C) crevice-like

CLASSIFICATION OF LIPASE

Most of the lipases possess a consensus sequence of Gly-x-Ser-x-Gly around the serine residue situated at the active site. But advances on their crystalline studies and sequence analyses revealed the existence of other motifs also. Thus, based on their sequence homology and functional properties, lipases are classified into 8 major groups, among which the first largest family is again classified into 6 subfamilies (Arpigny & Jaeger 1999; Bornscheuer 2002) (Table 3).

Table 3 Classification of lipases

Family	Subfamily	Microorganism	
I	1	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	
		<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens C9</i>	
		<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	
		<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i>	
		<i>Pseudomonas fragi</i>	
		<i>Pseudomonas wisconsinensis</i>	
		<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	
		2	<i>Burkholderia glumae</i>
			<i>Chromobacterium viscosum</i>
			<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i>
			<i>Pseudomonas luteola</i>
			3
	<i>Serratia marcescens</i>		
	4	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	
		<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	
	5	<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	
		<i>Bacillus thermocatenulatus</i>	
		<i>Staphylococcus hyicus</i>	
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	
		<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	
		<i>Propionibacterium acnes</i>	
	6	<i>Streptomyces cinnamoneus</i>	
		<i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i>	
		<i>Streptomyces scabies</i>	
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>			
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>			
<i>Photobacterium luminescens</i>			
III	<i>Streptomyces exfoliatus</i>		
	<i>Streptomyces albus</i>		
	<i>Moraxella sp.</i>		
IV	<i>Alicyclobacillus acidocaldarius</i>		
	<i>Pseudomonas sp. B11-1</i>		
	<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i>		
	<i>Alcaligenes eutrophus</i>		
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>		
	<i>Moraxella sp.</i>		
V	<i>Pseudomonas oleovorans</i>		

- Haemophilus influenzae*
- Psychrobacter immobilis*
- Moraxella sp.*
- Sulfolobus acidocaldarius*
- Acetobacter pasteurianus*
- Synechocystis sp.*
- Spirulina platensis*
- Pseudomonas fluorescens*
- Rickettsia prowazekii*
- Chlamydia trachomatis*
- VI
- Arthrobacter oxydans*
- Bacillus subtilis*
- Streptomyces coelicolor*
- VII
- Arthrobacter globiformis*
- Streptomyces chrysomallus*
- VIII
- Pseudomonas fluorescens SIK W1*

Source: (Arpigny & Jaeger 1999)

LIPASE SECRETION PATHWAYS

Lipases are extracellular enzymes, and are to be transported across the cell membrane to reach their final destination. In Gram-positive bacteria, secreted enzymes have to cross just a single cytoplasmic membrane whereas in Gram-negative bacteria, it has to be translocated through the periplasm and outer membrane (Jaeger et al. 1999). A series of complex transporter proteins play crucial roles in the transportation of lipase through the membrane. Two major secretory pathways have been identified (represented as type I and II), of which lipases can utilize at least one of them (Jaeger & Eggert 2002). Type I pathway is mainly mediated by ABC transporters, whereas secretion mediates the type II. Lipases produced by *P. fluorescens* and *Serratia marcescens* display a C-terminal secretion signal located in the last 60 amino acids, and is not cleaved during secretion. The signal sequence specifically recognizes the ABC protein, triggering the assembly of the functional trans-envelope complex (Delepelaire 2004). Type I secretory pathway via ABC transporters generally consists of three major membrane proteins, i.e., the inner membrane ATPase [ATP-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily], the second protein named membrane-fusion-protein (MFP) anchored to the inner membrane with a large hydrophilic domain facing the periplasm, and a C-terminal domain presumably interacting with the outer membrane. The third component is an outer membrane protein (OMP) (Figure 3). The assignment of different proteins as these exporters may vary depending on the species. *S. marcescens*, the most studied bacterium for type I secretion of lipase, possess a signal peptide that is rich in glycine and comprises of nine-residue sequence Gly-Gly-X-Gly-X-Asp-X-U-X (where X is any amino acid and U is a large hydrophobic amino acid). It utilizes LipB as ABC protein, LipC as the MFP component which mediates contact with both the inner and the outer membrane, and LipD as the OMP component (Akatsuka et al. 1995; Jaeger & Eggert 2002). AprD, AprE and AprF are necessary proteins acting as ABC, MFP and OMP, respectively for the efficient secretion of lipase by *P. fluorescens* (Duong et al. 1994). The exporter constituted by these proteins forms a multiprotein complex across the periplasm for translocating lipase from the cytoplasm to extracellular space without forming any active periplasmic enzyme intermediates. Over expression of the ABC exporter provides a considerable increase in the secretion of the lipase, and therefore an increased yield of extracellular lipase protein (Ahn et al. 2001).

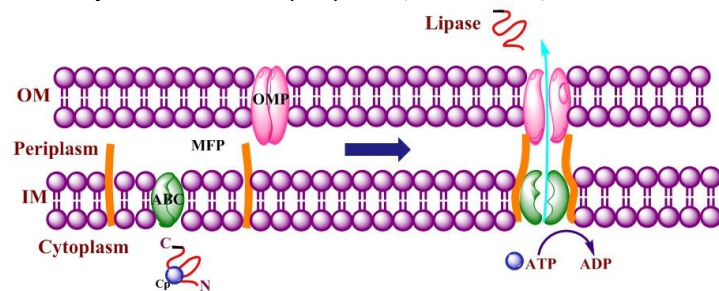


Figure 3 Type I secretory pathway of lipase via ABC transporters

The type II secretory pathway is generally known as sec-dependent pathway, which was found involved in the secretion of lipase in bacteria like *P. aeruginosa* and *Bacillus* spp. Many lipases of both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria possess an N-terminal signal sequence and are secreted via type II pathway. It consists of two steps: proteins are first translocated across the inner membrane by the general secretory pathway (Cao et al. 2014) or twin-arginine translocation (*Tat*) pathway, and subsequently transported from the periplasm to the exterior of the outer membrane in an extremely short period (Figure 4). In Gram-positive bacteria, secreted enzymes have to cross just a single cytoplasmic membrane. Usually, these proteins contain a signal sequence, which directs their translocation via the *Sec* or *Tat* translocase, the multi-subunit proteins identified

in *Bacillus* spp. However, lipases from Gram-negative bacteria do have to cross a second barrier constituted by the outer membrane. In *P. aeruginosa*, the prolipase exported to the periplasmic space by Sec machinery, fold in the periplasm into an enzymatically active conformation with the help of specific intermolecular chaperones called Lif proteins (lipase-specific foldases). Subsequently, they are transported through the outer membrane by means of a complex machinery called secretin, consisting of up to 14 different proteins. Similar multi component secretions have been identified in lipase produced by *P. alcaligenes*, *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *Xanthomonas campestris* and *Vibrio cholera* (Jaeger & Eggert 2002).

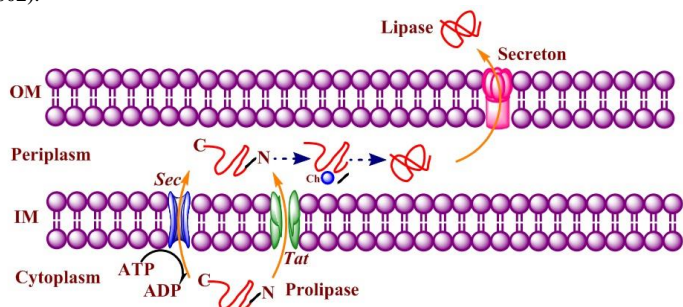


Figure 4 Type II secretory pathway of lipase mediated by Sec or Tat translocase

In *P. aeruginosa*, autotransporters also mediate the transport of enzymes across the outer membrane. These autotransporters form channels spanning in the outer membrane, which is usually made up of a β -barrel composed of nearly 14 β -sheets and hold the enzyme in close contact to, or even firmly bound to the surface of the cell exposing its catalytic domain (Rosenay & Jaeger, 2000).

APPLICATIONS OF LIPASE

Microbial lipases claim a wide variety of industrial applications due to the ease for mass production and versatile specificities. Based on total volume of sales, lipases occupy the third largest group of enzymes next to proteases and carbohydrases. The commercial use of lipases is a billion-dollar business and their applications are highly dependent on specificities, optimum pH, temperature, tolerance to organic solvents, etc. Lipases form an integral part of the industries ranging from food and fats, dairy, organic chemicals, pharmaceuticals, leather, environmental management, agrochemicals, detergents, oleo-chemicals, tea, cosmetics, and in several bioremediation processes (Verma et al. 2012).

Food and dairy industry

Lipases are widely used in food industries for the hydrolysis or modification of biomaterials. Egg white is an important ingredient of many bakery products such as cakes, bread, etc. Contamination of egg white with lipids decreases the desirable foaming ability of the product. Therefore, lipase is used to remove the lipid contamination and to improve the quality of dough and to achieve an even, light-coloured crust on the products and a soft texture. Treatment of egg yolk with phospholipase hydrolyzes egg lecithin and iso-lecithin, thereby improving emulsifying capacity and heat stability, which can be used to make myonnaise, custards, baby foods, etc. (Buxmann et al. 2010). Lipases can enhance the flavor of bakery products by synthesizing esters of short-chain fatty acids and alcohols (Alves Macedo et al. 2003). Lipases can also be used in degumming of vegetable oils during the process of refining. The degumming process removes the phospholipid impurities from the crude vegetable oils which may otherwise pose many problems for the storage and processing of vegetable oils from soybean, sunflower and rape seed; for instance, lipase produced by genetically modified *Aspergillus oryzae* (Lecitase® Ultra) was used for the degumming of rapeseed and soybean oils, which removed more than 90% of phospholipids within 5 h at 50 °C (Yang et al. 2006). Biolipolysis is being used to make fat free meat and fish. The controlled application of lipase to wheat flour produces different variations of quality; thereby noodles and pasta are given an even and intense color, and their stickiness when overcooked is reduced (Menzi 1970; Søe et al. 2005). Genetically engineered baker's yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) with bacterial lipase gene LIP A resulted in higher productivity of lipase and found application in bread making as a technological additive (Sánchez et al. 2002). Lipases are extensively used in dairy industry for the hydrolysis of milk fat to improve the flavor of cheese, butter, fat and cream. Enzyme modified cheese technology is now gaining importance for making a variety of cheese with desired flavor and aroma; in this process lipase is generally used under controlled conditions in combination with other hydrolytic enzymes such as protease and amylase. It reduces the bitterness as well as ripening time and modifies flavor intensity (Aminifar & Emam-Djomeh 2014). For instance, commercial microbial lipase (Piccantase A) enhances the flavor development during the ripening stage of Talum cheese (Yilmaz et al. 2005). Extracellular lipase produced by *Cryptococcus flavescens* 39-A releases short-chain fatty acids

(C₄ - C₆) in milk fat during the mozzarella cheese-making process and produce a favorable cheese flavor (Mase et al. 2013). *Penicillium roqueforti*, the lipolytic activities of which contributes to the characteristic flavor and blue-green veined appearance to blue cheese (Cao et al. 2014). Likewise, lipases enhance the flavors of natural milk fat producing volatile flavoring compounds (Omar et al. 2015). Lipases are widely used to produce novel fats through the process of hydrolysis, esterification and inter-esterification. Lipases modify the properties of lipids by altering the positions of fatty acid chains or by adding or removing one or more fatty acids to the glycerides. The position, chain length and degree of unsaturation greatly influence not only the physical properties, but also the nutritional and sensory value of a given triglyceride as well. Thus, high value fats and oils can be synthesized from cheap resources. For example, cocoa butter fat often used in bakery foods, is often in short supply and the price can fluctuate widely. Lipase from *Mucor miehei* can effectively be utilized to produce cocoa butter like fat from palm olein and distillate from palm oil refinery which contribute to the flavor of chocolate, caramels, toffees and butter creams (Mohamed 2012). In coffee whiteners, lipases assist in imparting a rich creamy flavor (Godfrey, 1982).

Processing of fats and oil

Processing of fats and oils by the enrichment of specific fatty acids or hydrolysis of triglycerides to release fatty acids or by altering the location of fatty acids is an important application of lipase. It enables the commercial exploitation of naturally produced renewable raw materials such as oils from corn, rapeseed, sunflower, palm, coconut, olives, rice bran, and a wide range of animal fats. Wax esters, esters of long chain fatty acids and alcohols (C \geq 12) are widely used in lubricant, pharmaceutical, cosmetic and plasticizer industries, which are usually extracted from expensive spermaceti oil and jojoba oil for commercial applications. Lipase mediates the synthesis of wax esters from cheap oils, for instance, immobilized lipase from *Candida* sp. synthesizes the wax ester, cetyl oleate, from oleic acid and cetyl alcohol with over 96% purity (Deng Li et al. 2011). Lipase catalyzes the hydrolysis of salmon oil to increase its omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) content. It was observed that lipase from *C. rugosa* increased omega-3 PUFA content by 2.5 folds (Kahveci et al. 2010; Kahveci & Xu 2011). Similarly, microbial lipases, from *C. rugosa*, *C. cylindracea*, *Mucor javanicus* and *Aspergillus niger* were used for the enzymatic hydrolysis of sardine oil to increase the content of omega-3 PUFAs by 10-35 % (Okada & Morrissey 2007). Production of biodiesel consisting of methyl esters (methanolysis) of long chain fatty acids is yet another promising application of lipase which, has been widely exploited all over the world. In such cases immobilized lipase was used, which offers repeated usage of the enzyme without losing its specificity. The enzymatic production of biodiesel by methanolysis of cottonseed oil was studied using immobilized lipase from *C. antarctica* as catalyst in *t*-butanol solvent, in which the ester yield was about 95-97% (Royon et al. 2007). Lipase producing whole cells of *Rhizopus oryzae* was employed for the production of biodiesel employing the low cost non-edible oil from the seeds of *Jatropha curcas*. A variety of low cost vegetable oils such as sunflower oil, soybean oil, karanj oil, etc. can effectively be used to produce biodiesel by lipase mediated hydrolysis (Dizge et al. 2009; Kaieda et al. 2001; Modi et al. 2007; Noureddini et al. 2005). Recently, it is demonstrated that lipase from *Bacillus* spp. can be used for the biotransformation of fungal lipids into cost-competitive biodiesel (Abd-Alla et al. 2015).

Detergents

Now-a-days enzymes have become the key constituents of detergent formulations, of which lipases play an important role for the removal of tough fatty stains such as butter, oil, etc. from the fabric that are hard to remove under normal washing. For the last two decades, detergent industry has become one of the biggest markets of microbial lipases, because of their functional importance for the removal of fatty residues in laundry, dishwashers and for cleaning of clogged stains. Addition of these enzymes not only improves the performance of detergents but also offers better ecological acceptance and produce effluent with lower COD and corrosive nature (Nerurkar et al. 2013). Standard wash liquids contain anionic and nonionic surfactants, oxidants, and complexing agents at a pH of about 10 and temperatures around 35-45 °C, which is a rather hostile environment for enzymes. As a result, massive screening is required to find out suitable enzymes exhibiting low substrate specificity, stability under alkaline pH (8-11), elevated temperature (30-60 °C), and also compatibility with other ingredients of formulations such as metals, oxidants, surfactants etc. Bacterial lipase from *Staphylococcus arlettae* JPBW-1 isolated from the rock salt mine has been assessed for its use in laundry formulations which exhibited good stability towards surfactants and oxidizing agents, and removed about 62 % of olive oil from cotton fabrics (Chauhan et al. 2013). A novel alkaline lipase from *Burkholderia cepacia* RGP-10 exhibited better stability towards commercial detergents and oxidizing agents than Lipolase® (Rathi et al. 2001). Application of cold active lipase in detergent formulations allows laundering at low temperatures and reduces the energy expenditure. Recently, many cold-active lipases have been reported in bacteria such as *Pseudoalteromonas* sp. NJ 70

(Wang et al. 2012), *Bacillus sphaericus* (Joseph & Ramteke 2013), *Microbacterium luteolum* (Joseph et al. 2012), *Pichia lynferdii* (Park et al. 2013), etc. Most of them are active at temperature ranging from 0-30 °C, and showed good tolerance to salt, synthetic surfactants and oxidizing agents.

Lipolase, the first industrial lipase was obtained from *Humicola lanuginosa*, which was marketed by Novozymes (Denmark). Later on three genetically

modified commercial lipases such as LipoPrime, Lipolase Ultra, Lipex were also marked by expressing the lipase gene of *Humicola lanuginosa* in *Aspergillus oryzae*, a fungus. Many other detergent lipases are available on the market and some of them are listed in Table 4.

Table 4 Commercial lipases used in detergent industry

Trade name	Source	Supplier	Expression
Lipolase®	<i>Humicola lanuginosa</i>	Novozymes	<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>
LipoPrime™	Protein engineered variant of lipolase	Novozyme	<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>
Lipolase Ultra®	Protein engineered variant of lipolase	Novozymes	<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>
Lipex®	Protein engineered variant of lipolase	Novozymes	<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>
Lipomax™	<i>Pseudomonas alcaligenes</i>	Genencor Inc.	<i>Pseudomonas alcaligenes</i>
Lipase P	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Amano Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>
Luma fast	<i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i>	Genencor, USA	<i>Bacillus</i> sp.

Leather industry

These days, enzymes are widely used for the processing of hides and skins in leather industry. Lipase and proteases are the most important enzymes which found applications during bating, soaking, dehairing and degreasing of skin (Dayanandhan et al. 2003; Hasan et al. 2006). During bathing, the enzymes enhance water uptake, loosen the scud and disperse fats and oils together with dirt and other materials present on the skin. Lipase specifically degrades fat but do not damage the leather which is proteinaceous in nature, it hydrolyses the fat on the outside of the hides and skins as well as inside the skin structure. Thus, lipase assisted treatment of leather gives the leather with far better quality and finish with uniform color and cleaner appearance as compared to conventional chemical agents. Lipase also improves the production of hydrophobic waterproof leather, which represents an environment friendly method of leather processing. It was found that the lipase produced by *B. subtilis* can be used for the degreasing process, thereby removing all the fat within 8-12 h of incubation by maintaining natural skin colour (Saran, 2013). NovoLime, a protease/lipase blend for enzyme-assisted liming of hides and skins, and NovoCor AD, an acid lipase for degreasing of hides and skins, are some of the commercially available lipases for the leather industry.

Pharmaceutics

Applications of lipase for the synthesis of chiral drugs, kinetic resolution of racemic alcohols, acids, esters or amines are well established. Synthesis of diltiazem hydrochloride, a calcium antagonist (a coronary vasodilator), using lipase mediated asymmetric hydrolysis of *trans*-3-(4-methoxyphenyl) glycidic acid methyl ester [(±)-MPGM] was found to be a more efficient process compared to the conventional chemical synthesis, for which lipase from *Serratia marcescens* was generally employed (Matsumae et al. 1993). Lipase from *C. rugosa* immobilized on a nylon scaffold was used to synthesize lovastatin, a drug lowering the serum cholesterol levels, by the regioselective acylation of a diol lactone precursor with 2-methylbutyric acid in mixtures of organic solvents (Yang et al. 1997). Lipase from *Pseudomonas* sp. AK mediated the kinetic resolution of the chiral silane reagents used for the synthesis of a potent antitumor agent called ephothilone A (Zhu & Panek 2001).

Pulp and paper

The paper industry utilizes huge amount of lignocellulose every year. Historically, the enzymatic applications in paper industry was confined to the treatment of raw starch; but, later in since 1990s, lipase mediated removal of pitch has become an essential process of large-scale paper making process. 'Pitch' or 'resin stickies' is a term used to collectively describe the hydrophobic components of wood such as triglycerides, waxes, etc. (Farrell et al. 1997). Pitch and related substances, which usually create major problems to the machines and cause holes and spots in the final paper, are common in paper mills. It may reduce the production levels and increase equipment maintenance as well as operation costs. Nippon paper Industries, in Japan, have developed a pitch control method that uses the *C. rugosa* fungal lipase to hydrolyze up to 90% of the wood triglycerides (Arpigny & Jaeger 1999, Jaeger & Reetz 1998). Lipase in paper industry decreases chemical usage thereby reducing pollution level of waste water. It provide prolonged equipment life as lipase removes sticky deposits in the paper machines, save energy and time and reduce composite cost (Farrell et al. 1997). The addition of lipase from *Pseudomonas* sp. (KWI-56) to a deinking composition for ethylene oxide-propylene oxide adduct stearate improved whiteness of paper and reduced residual ink spots (Fukuda et al. 1990, Gandhi 1997). Lipase from *Thermomyces lanuginosus* was immobilized on the resin coated with chitosan along with pectinase, which reduced the pitch deposits in white water by 74% (Liu et al. 2012a). Similarly, alkaline lipase was found to be efficient for removing pitch from the recycled fiber pulping waste water (Liu et al. 2012b).

Cosmetics

Recently, lipases found applications in producing many cosmetic ingredients such as retinol, natural dyes, etc. For the cosmetic industry, the natural products are always of interest as people demands those products which improve not just the appearance of the skin, but the health of the skin as well. Vitamin A (retinol), vitamin C (ascorbic acid), and derivatives combat many skin disorders including photoaging, psoriasis and acne (Adamczak & Bornscheuer 2009). Lipase catalyzed synthesis of retinyl esters has become popular as the chemical synthesis meets some serious defects and offers mild reaction conditions, high catalytic efficiency, inherent selectivity, and much purer products (Maugard & Legoy 2000, Maugard et al. 2000, Moreno-Perez et al. 2013). Lipase from *C. antarctica* efficiently catalyzes the *trans*-esterification between glycerides and vitamins to produce retinyl/ ascorbic esters (Lerin et al. 2012; Moreno-Perez et al. 2013; Reyes-Duarte et al. 2011; Sun et al. 2013). Immobilized lipase catalyzes the synthesis of retinyl L-lactate by the *trans*-esterification reaction between retinol and L-methyl lactate, and the synthesis of ascorbyl L-lactate by the *trans*-esterification of ascorbic acid with L-methyl lactate, with yield over 90% and 80%, respectively (Maugard et al. 2000). Lipase from *C. antarctica* also mediated the *trans*-esterification between olive oil and ascorbic acid to produce liposoluble ascorbyl oleate, which is widely used as an antioxidant (Moreno-Perez et al. 2013).

Lipases also found applications in the production of natural dyes such as indigo and its derivatives, water soluble dyes of interest for cosmetics. Lipase releases indoxyl from isatin B which in combination with isatin C can be processed to produce indigo (Maugard et al. 2002). Aroma esters consisting of short chain fatty acids and alcohol are synthesized by the direct application of lipase, which provides natural fragrance to the cosmetics. In 2001, Gatfield et al. reported a method to produce natural ethyl (E,Z)-2,4-decadienoate, the compound of pear, by lipase mediated *trans*-esterification of stillingia oil with ethanol (Gatfield et al. 2001).

CONCLUSIONS

Global enzyme market is expected to rise by 7 % in 2015. Growing trends in the world market of biocatalysts indicate that, developed countries in North America would be the largest consumers followed by Western Europe. Their stringent government rules and regulations made them to adopt green technologies in industries to address the environmental issues as well as to improve the product quality and acceptability. Industrial processes demand enzymes with unique specificities and high performance which attracts the attention of researchers and industrialists to produce novel enzymes to minimize the cost. Application of lipases is broadening up rapidly, due their remarkable potential for accomplishing innumerable novel reactions, both in aqueous and non-aqueous environments. Hence, the demand for the production and characterization of new lipases is still increasing significantly. Though many microbial lipases have been explored for their mode of actions, the high cost of production and purification hinders its world-wide commercialization. Moreover, it is necessary to elucidate the reaction mechanism of lipases - both general and type-wise in tune with the specific need in industry, mode of control and regulated expression to meet the future needs and to hit the anticipated level of commercial demand.

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