

A Quantitative Hardness Tester for Food Products¹

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A pressure-hardness tester has been designed by the writer and fabricated by machinists of the Division of Industrial Research to supply a quantitative method for testing hardness of fruits and other food products, replacing the qualitative "thumbnail" or "finger pres-

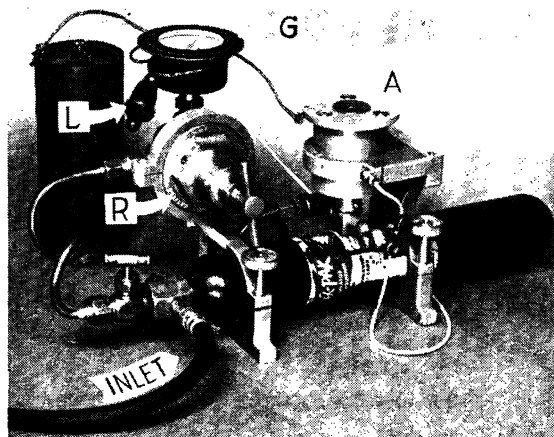


FIG. 1. Photograph of a quantitative hardness tester. Small tank not necessary when tester is connected to external source of gas pressure. Corresponding parts lettered as in Fig. 2.

sure" method. At present the device (Fig. 1) is being used to test hardness of pears in conjunction with a research project jointly sponsored by the Northwest Cannery Association, Washington State Soft Fruit Commission and the Division of Horticulture, State College of Washington.

The principle of the tester is the determination of that gas pressure necessary to force the blunt end of a piston a very small but fixed distance into the test material.² The tester now in use forces a rounded brass tip $5/32''$ in diameter $1/32''$ into the pear. The top plate serves both as a stop, restricting penetration to $1/32''$, and as an electrical contact, completing a circuit which lights an indicator lamp when maximum penetration is reached. Pressures found necessary to effect this penetration into normal green pears have been observed to vary from 50 to 65 pounds per square inch. Abnormally hard pears were found to test above 65. Tips of others sizes and penetrations of different depths may be used for other food

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² A tester utilizing mechanical pressure from a spring was also designed and may be fabricated for later work. The writer is grateful to Prof. N. S. Golding for supplying a metal hypodermic cylinder body and piston and for suggestions concerning its use.

products. Any convenient and suitable gas source may be used, such as compressed air or nitrogen.

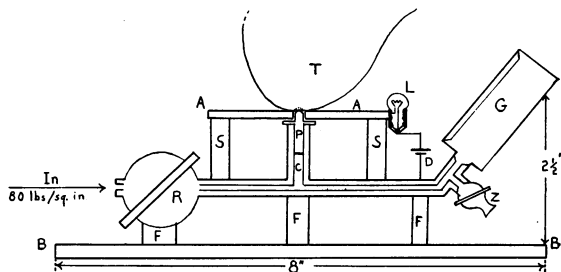


FIG. 2. Sketch of device shown in photograph. A—top plate; B—base plate; C—cylinder; D—dry cell battery; F—metal frame; G—pressure gauge; L—indicator lamp; P—piston; R—regulator valve; S—insulated support; T—test fruit; Z—release petcock.

Fig. 2 shows a simplified sketch of the tester, illustrating its basic operating principles. Future models will be constructed from this design.

No injury to the fruit is apparent or expected from this test. Pears are held firmly against top plate during the test, a barely visible indentation being the only effect.

The Properties of the Enzyme-Substrate Compounds of Horse-Radish and Lacto-Peroxidase¹

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Peroxidases are iron-containing enzymes which, on the basis of both spectroscopic and magnetic susceptibility data, form definite chemical compounds with their substrate, hydrogen peroxide. These enzyme-substrate compounds cause the very rapid oxidation of oxidizable substances (acceptors) such as ascorbic acid, pyrogallol, etc. One type of peroxidase is widely distributed in plants and is usually prepared from horse-radish root (horse-radish peroxidase). Another type is found in milk and is called lactoperoxidase. The pioneer work of Keilin and Mann (10) on horse-radish peroxidase and Theorell's (16) purification and extensive studies of both horse-radish and lactoperoxidase now make it possible to study in detail the properties of the several compounds which these enzymes form with hydrogen peroxide and the mechanism by which these compounds oxidize acceptors.

¹ The horse-radish peroxidase, lactoperoxidase, and cytochrome C preparations used in these studies were generously supplied by Hugo Theorell and K. G. Paul. Many thanks are due to H. Theorell, D. Keilin, and E. F. Hartree for their criticism and advice in these researches. A special acknowledgment is made to the memory of Glenn Millikan, who greatly stimulated this development of the rapid-flow method for studies of enzyme-substrate compounds.

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Fig. 2 illustrates the effect of using three different substrates upon the kinetics of complex II. With hydrogen peroxide, k_1 is largest, and the concentration of complex II rises to very nearly its saturation value. Because nearly all the enzyme is in the form of this reactive complex, the oxidation of ascorbic acid is rapid, and consequently the hydrogen peroxide is consumed in about two

seconds. Since methyl hydrogen peroxide combines more slowly with peroxidase, the concentration of complex II rises to a smaller value in this test, and the consumption of the peroxide requires a longer time. A similar effect is observed with ethyl hydrogen peroxide. But in all three cases, the values of k , calculated from equation 4 are nearly the same (2,800, 2,800, and 2,200 $M^{-1} \times \text{sec}^{-1}$;

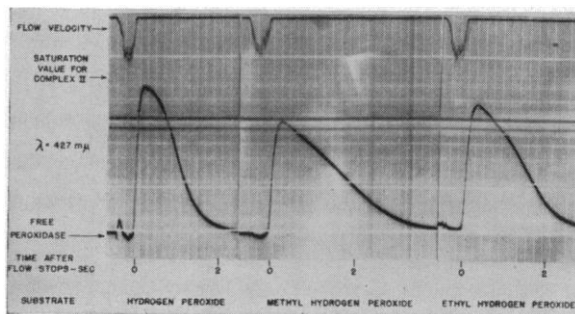


FIG. 2. Illustrating the use of the rapid-flow apparatus in the measurement of the rapid formation (fast rise of traces) and disappearance (slower fall of traces) of the enzyme-substrate complexes of horse-radish peroxidase (2.9×10^{-6} M) caused by reactions with hydrogen peroxide (3.6×10^{-6} M), methyl hydrogen peroxide (4.2×10^{-6} M), and ethyl hydrogen peroxide (3.2×10^{-6} M) in the presence of ascorbic acid (40×10^{-6} M). These three enzyme-substrate complexes are here used as spectrophotometric indicators of the peroxide concentration; the velocity of their reaction with ascorbic acid is calculated by equation 5. The results are given in Table 1.

see Table 1). The earlier conclusion of Wieland and Sutter (20) that the activity of horse-radish peroxidase with ethyl hydrogen peroxide is $\frac{1}{2}$ that with hydrogen peroxide is apparently incorrect.

In the absence of added acceptor, the very high affinity of the enzyme for its substrate can be demonstrated; Table 1 lists as K_m the concentrations of peroxide which give the half-saturation value of complex II. These concentrations are much less than those required to half-saturate muscle hemoglobin with oxygen and about as small as the concentration of oxygen estimated to give half-saturation of the respiratory enzyme (13).

With horse-radish peroxidase, but not with lactoperoxidase, the values of k_1 and k_2 can be reduced more than tenfold by repeated additions of an equivalent of peroxide. But k_2 has never been reduced to zero; the enzyme-substrate compounds of both peroxidase and catalases slowly undergo "spontaneous" decomposition (whose mechanism is not understood) into the free enzyme.

The reversible decomposition of the enzyme-substrate complexes (k_2 of equation 1) does not appear to play an important role in the reaction kinetics; in fact, final proof of the existence of k_2 is lacking. Hence, the rapidly reversible combination of enzyme and substrate pictured in the theory of Michaelis and Menten (12) is not characteristic of these enzymes.

The relation between the enzyme-substrate bond and the activity. In peroxidase, the covalent secondary complex must be formed before oxidation of the acceptor oc-

curs and the enzyme is liberated from the complex. But in catalases, the primary complex with presumably ionic bonds appears to react directly with the acceptor; the enzyme is liberated from the primary complex without the formation of a measurable amount of a secondary complex of the type that peroxidase forms. This fundamental difference in the mechanism of catalase and peroxidase reactions may ultimately be resolved by further search of an undiscovered covalent complex in catalase reactions. Nevertheless, based on the nine similar primary complexes of catalase, horse-radish peroxidase, and lactoperoxidase, which surely have the same bond type (probably ionic), there is support for the generalization that this type of compound of enzyme and substrate forms first and more rapidly than the covalent compound.

None of these oxidations caused by these hematin-peroxide complexes can be inhibited by carbon monoxide (6, 7, 8, 10), and therefore, the iron atom of these peroxidases is concluded to be trivalent and to remain trivalent in reactions with the substrates and acceptors.

The relation between heme-linked groups and activity. By a variation of the pH, linkages between the iron atom of peroxidases and the protein molecule can be altered, and their effect upon peroxidase activity may be determined. In alkaline solution above pH 9, peroxidase acquires a covalently bound hydroxyl group (17). Under these conditions the enzyme-substrate complexes do not form, and the enzyme is inactive, the effect being very similar to that observed when cyanide is bound to the iron atom of peroxidase by covalent bonds. Apparently the exchange reaction of equation 1 between the hydroxyl group bound by ionic bonds and the peroxide group is inhibited when the hydroxyl group is bound to the iron atom of peroxidase by covalent bonds.

The dissociation constant (K_m) and reaction kinetics of the primary and secondary complexes of horse-radish peroxidase are found to be practically unchanged from pH 8.8 to 3.6. This is in accordance with studies of this particular peroxidase preparation which shows no changes of heme linkage in this pH region. Below pH 3.6, a change of heme linkage of pK 3.5 is found by direct spectrophotometric studies and by the effect of pH upon the dissociation constant of the horse-radish peroxidase fluoride and cyanide compounds.

In accordance with these data, the values of k_1 for the reaction of complex II with a number of acceptors show no systematic variation in the region pH 3.6 to 6.7. In general, nearly constant activity is found in this region, for example, in the case of hydroquinone, guaiacol, and pyrogallol. Where changes of k_1 are observed, changes in the course of the oxidation are also observed (leucomalachite green).

As a consequence of these experiments, the previous concept of sharp "pH optima" for peroxidases and catalases may be discarded. When the actual reaction velocity constants involved in the enzymatic activity are measured directly from the kinetics of the enzyme-substrate complex, errors caused by enzyme inactivation, by partial saturation of the enzyme with substrate, or by

a variable lag between the disappearance of substrate and the appearance of a colored reaction product are eliminated. The activity is practically constant in the broad region where no changes of heme-linkages occur.

Acceptor specificity. Balls and Hale (3) generally describe peroxidase as a dehydrogenase removing two hydrogen atoms from different carbon atoms. Ascorbic acid, dihydroxymaleic acid, and *o*-dihydroxybenzenes are

examples of the enediol group, $\begin{array}{c} \text{OH} \quad \text{OH} \\ | \quad | \\ -\text{C} = \text{C}- \end{array}$, which on reaction with peroxidase-peroxide complexes is dehydrogenated to the diketo or *o*-quinone group, $\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \quad \text{O} \\ || \quad || \\ -\text{C} = \text{C}- \end{array}$.

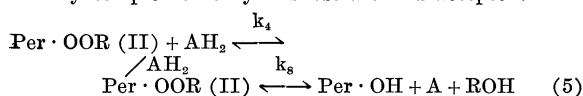
Such a reaction is related to the action of catalase-peroxides on the $\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ | \\ -\text{C}-\text{OH} \end{array}$ group of a lower alcohol, methylene glycol, or formic acid, where two hydrogen atoms attached to the same carbon atom are removed (6) to

give the group $-\text{C}=\text{O}$. While catalase has been found to be highly specific for small molecules of related structure, peroxidase-peroxides oxidize a wide range of rather different substances, for example, iodide or leucomalachite green. It is clear, however, that the broader acceptor specificity of peroxidase includes reactions analogous to those of catalase except that the two hydrogen atoms are attached to different carbon atoms. Since catalase hematin is accessible only to small molecules while peroxidase hematin is accessible to rather large molecules, further analogies between catalase and peroxidase specificity are difficult to demonstrate.

The oxidation of a number of substances previously considered to be inhibitors of peroxidase activity (3), e.g., phenol, aniline, resorcinol, and phloroglucinol, can be demonstrated by these more sensitive methods.

A particularly interesting reaction is the oxidation of ferrocytochrome C by the peroxidase-peroxide complexes. Contrary to the conclusions of Altschul, Abrams, and Hogness (1), horse-radish peroxidase has considerable activity in this reaction as does lactoperoxidase. At pH 4.6, the turnover numbers of these enzymes are $k_8 = 3.1$ and 2.5 sec^{-1} , respectively, as calculated from the rate of oxidation of ferro- to ferricytochrome C. In view of the acceptor specificity of peroxidase, it is more likely that the peroxidase-peroxide complex initially oxidizes the imidazole group of ferrocytochrome C and not the iron atom (see Theorell, 16).

The ternary complex of enzyme substrate and acceptor. The kinetics of oxidation of ferrocytochrome C oxidation by the peroxidase-peroxide complexes, instead of being first order as equation 3 indicates, approximate the zero order until the ferrocytochrome C concentration has fallen to a small value. These reaction kinetics suggest that the rate-limiting step is the decomposition of a ternary complex of enzyme-substrate and acceptor:



Usually k_8 is fairly large—with pyrogallol it may be greater than $2,000 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. However, with ascorbic acid, k_8 is roughly 20 sec^{-1} . Values for k_8 in the oxidation of methanol by catalase peroxides are about 10 sec^{-1} . The unusually small value of k_8 ($\sim 3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$) in the ferrocytochrome C reaction is possibly caused by the complexity of the cytochrome C molecule and the stoichiometry of the reaction. There is ample kinetic evidence for equation 5 but, as yet, no spectroscopic evidence for such a ternary complex has been obtained (see also LuValle and Goddard, 11).

Activity and oxidation-reduction potential. The velocity constant (k_4) for the reaction of complex II with acceptor molecules of different oxidation-reduction potential has been studied. First, the variation of pH from 3.6 to 6.7 causes no systematic decrease in the values of k_4 for hydroquinone, guaiacol, and pyrogallol, yet their oxidation-reduction potential decreases by 0.186 v because of this pH change (2). If hydroquinone is replaced by quinhydrone at constant pH, the value of k_4 calculated on the basis of the hydroquinone molarity is nearly constant. Thus other factors are much more important than oxidation-reduction potential in determining the value of k_4 . For example, hydroquinone and pyrogallol have about the same oxidation-reduction potential but hydroquinone reacts about 10 times more rapidly ($k_4 = 25 \times 10^5$ compared to $2.1 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$).

It is concluded that the rates of these biological oxidations are remotely related to the oxidation-reduction potentials of the acceptors.

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