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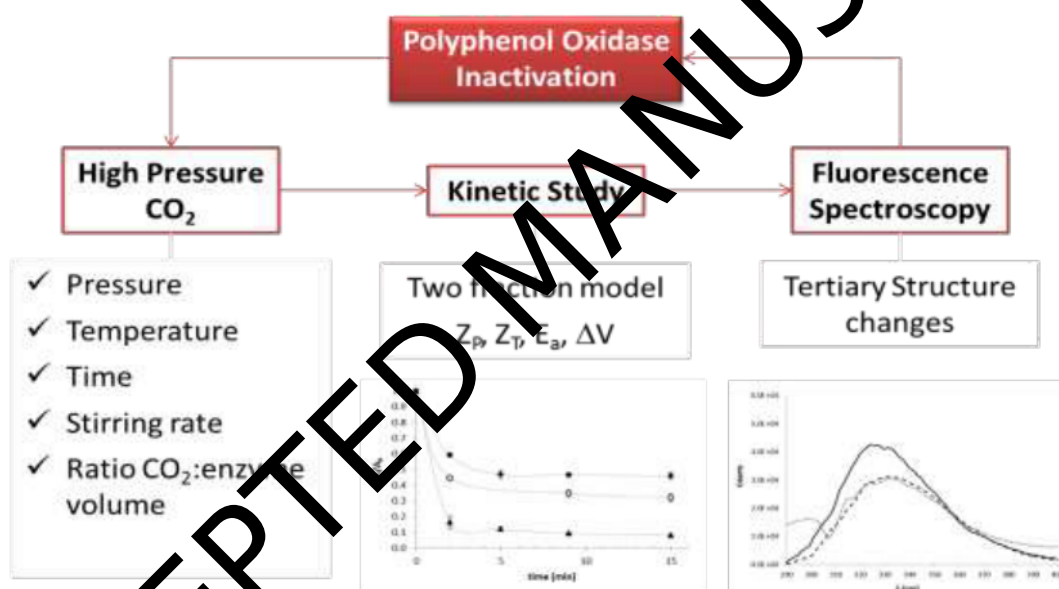
Studies of Polyphenol Oxidase inactivation by means of High Pressure Carbon Dioxide (HPCD)

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Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Polyphenol oxidase (PPO) was successfully inactivated by means of supercritical CO₂
- The ratio CO₂:volume of enzyme dissolution was found to be a critical parameter
- Pressures of 20 MPa led to the complete inactivation of PPO in less than 10 minutes
- A complete inactivation kinetic study was done using a two fraction model
- Dramatic changes in the enzyme tertiary structure were observed

Abstract

Tyrosinase from mushroom was used as a model polyphenol oxidase (PPO) enzyme to perform a systematic inactivation study using high pressure carbon dioxide (HPCD). The ratio $\text{CO}_2/\text{volume of enzyme (g/mL)}$ loaded in the reactor was found to be critical. Above a critical ratio, pressure, temperature and time did not control the inactivation performance. Exposure time (2 to 15 minutes), temperature (25 to 45 °C) and pressure (5 to 20 MPa) allowed to show a characteristic inactivation pattern for PPO: a sudden decrease in activity (at least 75% of the total activity loss was observed within the first 2 minutes) was followed by a slower decay. The experimental data were fitted into a two fraction kinetic model and the main kinetic parameters (Z_p , Z_T , inactivation volume and inactivation energy) were calculated. The fluorescence spectroscopy analysis of the samples treated with HPCD revealed significant changes in the tertiary structure of the enzyme.

Keywords: polyphenol oxidase, HPCD, enzyme inactivation, supercritical carbon dioxide

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1. Introduction

Polyphenol oxidase enzymes (PPO; EC 1.10.3.1) are extensively distributed in plants, fruits or sea food. These enzymes catalyze the oxidation of phenolic compounds to quinones, which are responsible for the production of the brownish pigments [1] that appear when the fruit is exposed to air or when the shrimps are taken out of the water. This browning process is irreversible and induces customers to perceive the foodstuffs as spoiled and not to buy it. Therefore, the consequences of the browning formation pigments induced by PPO are a significant problem with huge economic impact for the food industry. This problem demands the development of new food preservation strategies (based on non-thermal treatments, in order to preserve the organoleptic properties of the food) to prevent the activity of PPO enzymes in juices or sea food.

Among the new treatments arising HPCD (High Pressure Carbon Dioxide) is a promising alternative. This technique uses CO_2 in conditions of pressure and temperature usually above the critical point (7.4 MPa and 30.9 °C). Typical operating values are pressures up to 30 MPa and temperatures not higher than 50 °C [2] whereas the exposure times to the CO_2 are variable and can last from a few minutes to one hour. In all cases the temperatures are much lower than those of the conventional thermal treatments which helps to preserve the organoleptic properties of the treated food [3]. HPCD has been widely used to inactivate PPO in juices from many different fruits and vegetables: apple [4][5][6][7], carrot and peach [8], orange [9], red beet [10], beet root [11] watermelon [3] or carrot and celery juices [12] among others. Most of these papers present a similar working procedure: different combinations of pressure, temperature and time are tried, then the extent of the enzyme inactivation is measured and in the last stage the experimental data are fitted to different kinetic models. Table 1 summarizes the experimental conditions and experimental results published in the literature, regarding the PPO inactivation by HPCD. As can be seen there are a wide variety of working procedures which makes it difficult to compare the results among authors: on one hand the source of the enzyme determines the properties the enzyme has and on the other hand experiments were performed under very different experimental conditions (different pressures, temperatures, volumes of enzyme solution or reactor configurations). Moreover enzymes directly isolated from foods are not pure, but they are linked to other compounds and the inactivation process is more complex [7].

In order to evaluate the effect of the above mentioned process parameters in the inactivation of PPO and to get useful information about the inactivation mechanism it is necessary to carry out a set of experiments using a solution of pure PPO in order to avoid the interferences of other species present in juices. In the literature there are only a few studies that treat pure polyphenol oxidases with HPCD: Manzocco et al. (2016) [2] and Manzocco et al. (2014) [13] studied the inactivation of mushroom tyrosinase by HPCD, fitting the inactivation results to a first order kinetic model. Hu et al. [14], treated tyrosinase from mushroom with pressures up to 15 MPa at 55 °C, no stirring was applied and poor inactivation efficiencies were reached. PPO from mushroom is a type-3 metalloprotein containing a di-nuclear copper active site bound to the protein matrix (four α -helix bundles that surround the active site) by six histidine residues [15]. The mechanism why enzymes are inactivated under HPCD has been hypothesized in different works. In general pressure and temperature can alter directly the

structure of the enzyme or change the properties of the CO₂ (hence determining the interactions between solvent and enzyme) [1]. Under certain pressure and temperature conditions a change in the protein structure can happen with an increase of the β -sheet structure that leads to the burial of the catalytic center [16]. According to Li et al. [17], the inactivation of a PPO enzyme is related to the way that carbon dioxide interferes with the hydrophobic active site. CO₂ is a very non polar molecule whose physical properties change when changing pressure and temperature (especially above the critical point) being able to stay in gas, liquid and supercritical state. These changes in the properties will affect the way it interacts with the enzyme and will have to be studied.

In the literature an engineering approach for the enzyme inactivation by HPCD is often missing, since no systematic studies had been carried out to identify the critical process parameters. Besides pressure and temperature other parameters such as the stirring rate, the holding time and the ratio CO₂ versus the volume of enzyme solution loaded into the reactor must be considered. This factor plays a significant role in the inactivation performance and to affect the economic feasibility of the HPCD process. Therefore, insights about the way it affects the enzyme inactivation are required.

All in all, the aim of the present work is on one hand to obtain experimental data useful for the up-scaling of the HPCD enzyme inactivation process and on the other to gain knowledge about the PPO inactivation mechanism under different conditions of CO₂, below and above the critical point, using a commercial tyrosinase from mushroom as a model PPO enzyme. This approach requires a multistage work: in a first stage the identification and evaluation of the main process parameters that affect the enzyme inactivation (pressure, temperature, stirring rate and the volume of enzyme solution loaded in the reactor) must be tackled. In a second stage a kinetic study of the inactivation data has to be performed considering the insights obtained in the first stage of the work, trying three different temperatures (25, 35, 45 °C) and three different pressures (5, 10 and 20 MPa). The different combinations of pressure and temperature led to conditions in which CO₂ was present in three different states (gas, liquid and supercritical) and were used to explain how the physical state of the CO₂ affects its physical properties and how the interaction between CO₂ and the enzyme is affected. The obtained experimental inactivation rates (or residual activity of the enzyme) were fitted to different kinetic models, being used the kinetic constants to calculate kinetic parameters such as the decimal reduction time, the decimal reduction parameters (Z_p and Z_T), and the energy and volume of activation, all of them defined and explained in section 2.5. Finally, the inactivation results were compared to the changes induced in the structure of the enzyme determined by fluorescence spectroscopy.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Enzyme and chemicals

Mushroom tyrosinase (polyphenol oxidase -PPO- EC 1.14.18.1) (T3824, 25KU, obtained from mushroom *Agaricus bisporus*) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The contents of the enzyme vial were dissolved in 10 mL of phosphate buffer solution (50mM, pH 6.5), which was divided in several aliquots that were frozen at -20 °C. The PPO solutions used in the experiments were prepared from dilution of this solution, in order to have a 25 U/mL

concentraon.

Carbon dioxide (99.9%) was supplied by Air Liquide S.A. (Spain). The physical properes of CO₂ were taken from NIST Database and dielectric constant was calculated according to the equaon presented by Eltringham et al.[20].

All other chemicals used in this work to prepare the phosphate buer soluon or catechol soluon were analytical grade purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

2.2. Experimental Set-up

All the experiments were carried out in a stainless steel high pressure batch srred reactor with an internal volume of, approximately, 80 mL which was submerged in a thermostatic water bath. The experimental set up consists of a CO₂ reservoir, a high pressure syringe pump (260D Teledyne ISCO) and it was a slight modicaon of Melgosa et al. [21]. A schematic representaon of the experimental set up is shown in Figure 1.

In a typical experiment, the desired volume of preheated tyrosinase soluon was loaded into the reactor which was ghtly closed. Subsequently it was placed in the water bath previously set at the desired temperature. Aer two minutes (me enough to reach the working temperature) CO₂ was bubbled directly into the enzyme soluon through a sintered stainless steel micro-liter (pore size of 10 μm) in a sucient amount to reach the desired working pressure (pressurizaon rate 10 MPa/min) and temperature were held for the desired operang me (from 2 to 15 minutes). Experiments were done in a temperature and pressure range commonly used in non-thermal inacvaon HPCD systems: temperature from 25 to 45 °C and pressure from 5 to 20 MPa. Aer diferent inacvaon mes, the reactor was depressurized and the enzyme soluon was taken out. It was le at room temperature for ten minutes and shaken in order to release the CO₂ that was sill dissolved. All the samples were frozen at -20 °C untl the moment of being analyzed in order to evaluate the residual acvity of the enzyme aer a treatment.

2.3. Experimental Work

The experimental work was divided in three diferent stages:

2.3.1. Screening experiments

Iniaily several screening experiments were carried out in order to idenfy the experimental parameters that had the greatest inuence on the tyrosinase inacvaon. In a HPCD batch process temperature, pressure, holding me, stirring rate and the volume of enzyme soluon loaded into the reactor were idenfy as the parameters that may aect the inacvaon performance. In this work, it was carried out a fraconal factorial design of those ve process parameters at two levels (low and high) each: volume of enzyme soluon used (25 and 40 mL), pressure (10 and 20 MPa), me (5 and 15 minutes), temperature (35 and 45 °C) and srring rate (250 and 600 rpm). In total, 8 diferent treatments were tried (it was a 2⁵⁻² experimental design, with resoluon III) and the ANOVA study of the experimental results was used to idenfy the parameters that played the most important role on the enzyme inacvaon.

2.3.2. Volume of enzyme solution used

In a second stage of the experimental work the volume of enzyme solution loaded into the reactor was changed. In all the experimental results presented in the literature, a constant volume of enzyme solution was loaded in the reactor, being the remaining volume filled up with CO₂. Then, different combinations of pressure and temperature were applied. Since the physical properties of CO₂ (such as density, which relates pressure and temperature) change dramatically when changing pressure and temperature, the total mass of CO₂ loaded in the reactor significantly changes depending on the working conditions, leading to experiments done at different pressures, temperatures and masses of CO₂ to inactivate the enzyme. Since the mechanism why PPO is inactivated is not completely clear, the amount of CO₂ used may play a significant role on the inactivation performance. From an upscaling and economic outlook, the amount of CO₂ used per gram of solution is critical, since an excess of CO₂ might not increase the inactivation rate but it would increase the operational costs of the HPCD process. Therefore, the optimal ratio must be determined in order to avoid excessive use of CO₂.

In order to evaluate the influence that the ratio CO₂:enzyme solution has on the PPO inactivation performance, some experiments loading different amounts of enzyme solution were carried out. Temperature was set at 35 and 45 °C, and the ratio grams of CO₂: volume of enzyme solution was varied from 0.7 g/mL (more solution than CO₂ was loaded in the reactor) to 7 g/mL (seven more masses of CO₂ than enzyme solution). The CO₂ density was obtained from (NIST Chemistry Webbook 2017), the volume of enzyme solution was varied to fulfill the ratio desired and the volume of enzyme solution needed to reach the CO₂:solution ratio was calculated.

Stirring rate was set at 250 rpm, and all the experiments lasted 9 minutes.

2.3.3. HPCD treatment: kinetic study

25 mL of the enzyme solution were placed in the reactor. Three different temperatures below the conventional thermal treatment were selected: 25, 35 and 45 °C and three pressures: 5, 10 and 20 MPa. Inactivation kinetic experiments lasted 2, 5, 9 and 15 minutes. In total 36 different conditions were tested. Once the inactivation rate was measured the experimental data were fitted into different kinetic models, as described in section 2.5.

Some control experiments were done at atmospheric conditions in order to compare the HPCD treatment performance: 25 mL of tyrosinase solution were placed in a water bath at 25, 35 and 45 °C at atmospheric pressure. Samples were taken periodically up to 180 minutes and kept frozen until further analysis.

2.4. Analytical procedures

2.4.1. Enzyme Activity Evaluation

The enzyme activity was assayed spectrophotometrically (Jasco V-750, Japan) using catechol as substrate and following a slightly modified protocol from [16]: 2 mL of phosphate buffer solution were added to 0.3 mL of the enzyme solution; after the addition of

0.3 mL of catechol solution (20 mM, prepared in a phosphate buffer solution 50 mM and pH 6.5) the reaction was started. The changes in absorbance at 420 nm and 25 °C were recorded every second for 150 seconds. The enzyme activity was calculated from the slope of the initial section of the absorbance versus time. One unit of PPO activity was defined as the change in absorbance of 0.001 units per minute at 420 nm.

The residual activity (RA) was calculated as the ratio of the measured activity after a treatment (A) and the activity before treatment (A_0), according to the equation 1:

$$(1)$$

2.4.2. Fluorescence Spectroscopy

The tertiary structure of the PPO was determined by fluorescence spectroscopy using the FLS980 photoluminescence spectrometer (Edinburgh Instruments, Livingston, UK). The sample was excited at a $\lambda_{em}=280$ nm and the emission spectra were recorded in the range 290 to 400 nm. A 1 cm path length cell was used and the emission and excitation slits were set at 4 and 2 nm, respectively.

2.5. Kinetic models of PPO inactivation

Four different kinetic models were used to correlate the PPO inactivation data: first order kinetic model, two fraction model, fractional conversion model and the Weibull model. For each model, the decimal reduction time (D), defined as the treatment time needed for a 90% inactivation of the initial enzyme activity at a given condition was calculated.

The pressure and temperature increase needed for a 90% reduction of the D value, defined as Z_p (MPa) and Z_T (°C), respectively (equations 2 and 3) was also calculated. The values of Z_p and Z_T are obtained as the negative reciprocal slope of the regression line that represents the $\log D$ versus pressure and temperature relationships, respectively.

$$\frac{D_1}{D} = \frac{Z - 1}{Z} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{D_1}{D} = \frac{Z - 1}{Z} \quad (3)$$

Finally two more parameters were calculated: in order to evaluate the kinetic constant dependence on pressure the activation volume (V_a , cm³/mol) was first calculated using the Eyring equation (eq. 4). Secondly, in order to evaluate the kinetic constant dependence on temperature the activation energy (E_a , kJ/mol) was calculated by means of the Arrhenius equation (eq. 5). Both V_a and E_a were calculated from linear regression of $\ln k$ versus P or $(1/T)$, respectively.

$$\frac{k_1}{k} = \frac{V_a}{RT} [P - P] \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{k_1}{k} = \frac{E_a}{RT} - \frac{A}{T} \quad (5)$$

2.5.1. First order kinetic model

The first order kinetic model is commonly used to describe the inactivation of enzymes. This model assumes that the logarithm of the residual activity decreases linearly with time. Equation 6 describes mathematically this model:

$$(6)$$

A is the activity of the enzyme after treatment, A_0 is the initial activity of the enzyme, k is the inactivation rate constant (kinetic constant) at given pressure and temperature conditions and t is the time the enzyme is exposed to the pressure and temperature conditions. From the kinetic constant, it is possible to calculate the decimal reduction time (D).

This model is the most commonly used to describe the inactivation of enzymes (PPO or PMF) in juices. Several examples are summarized in Table 1.

2.5.2. Two-fraction kinetic model

This model takes into account the existence of several isoenzymes of PPO, grouped into two fractions, a labile (L) and a stable (S) fraction. Both enzymes were considered to be inactivated according to a first-order kinetics, but independently of each other [6].

$$\ln\left(\frac{A}{A_0}\right) = -k_L t - k_S t \quad (7)$$

where A_L and A_S ($A_S=1-A_L$) are the activity of the labile and stable fractions respectively and k_L and k_S (min^{-1}) the inactivation rate constants of both the labile and stable fractions respectively. In general under mild conditions only the labile fraction is inactivated, whereas the stable fraction remains unaltered [23].

2.5.3. Fractional-conversion model

A fractional-conversion model is a special case of a first order kinetic model that takes into account the non-zero residual activity after prolonged heating and/or pressure (A_{∞}) treatment. Mathematically is expressed according to the equation (8).

$$\ln\left(\frac{A - A_{\infty}}{A_0 - A_{\infty}}\right) = -k t \quad (8)$$

2.5.4. Weibull model

This empirical model is described in equation 9 and uses two different parameters: α , the scale parameter (t_0 characteristic time) and β , the so-called shape parameter [24]. It can be noted that when β equals 1 the model results in a linear reduction of the residual activity versus time, similar to a first order kinetic model. The Weibull model is basically a statistical model of the distribution of inactivation times, contrary to the first order approach. The first order model assumes that all the enzymes present are equal and hence all of them have the same resistance to CO_2 and that the length of time that an enzyme is exposed to the treatment has no effect on the probability that it will be inactivated in the next unit of time [25]. However, if there are several isoenzymes with different sensitivities to the changes in the environmental conditions, a distribution of inactivation times appears as a consequence.

$$\frac{D}{D_0} = \left(\frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{-\beta} \quad (9)$$

Similarly to the decimal reduction time (D) calculated using other models, for the Weibull model is possible to calculate the time required to reduce the enzyme activity by 90%, using the equation (10). $t_{0.1}$ is valid when it refers to the treatment time starting at zero time [26].

$$t_{0.1} = t_0 \left(\frac{D_0}{0.1 D_0} \right)^{1/\beta} \quad (10)$$

The dependence of the scale parameter (α) with the temperature can be well modelled using an exponential relationship [24]:

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 \exp\left(\frac{Z_T}{T}\right) \quad (11)$$

From equation [11] it can be seen that $Z_T = -1/b_1$ by definition considers the non-linear part of the curve $\log(A/A_0)$ versus time, compared to the classic definition of Z_T that is calculated from the linear part of the curve. A similar discussion was done for the dependence of the scale parameter with the pressure, and it was represented $\log(\alpha)$ versus pressure. The reverse of the slope was considered the Z_P . The linear model represents the pressure increase to reduce by 90% the t_D value. In order to validate this calculation the pressure and temperature dependence of the shape parameter (β) was evaluated, since there must be no dependence. In order to be valid these Z_P and Z_T calculations [24].

2.6. Stascal analysis

All the stascal analysis was done using the software Statgraphics X64. This software was used to perform the ANOVA test of the screening experiments and the non-linear regression of the experimental data to obtain the kinetic constants of the different models presented in section 2.5.1.

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3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Screening experiments

Results of the screening experiments are presented in Table 2. From the ANOVA study (Table 3) it can be concluded that the volume of enzyme solution, pressure and temperature are the statistically significant factors. Time resulted not to be statistically significant in the range from 5 to 15 minutes; it seems that the major part of the inactivation occurs within the first 5 minutes of the experiment when pressures and temperatures are in the range 10 to 20 MPa and 35 to 45 °C, respectively. Therefore, in the kinetic study experiments, inactivation times shorter than 5 minutes will be used.

The stirring rate resulted not to be statistically significant; apparently the stirring in our experimental set up is efficient, probably because of the magnetic stirrer placed in the reactor and the fact that CO₂ is bubbled directly into the enzyme solution, which already provides good mixing enhancing the diffusion of CO₂ in the enzyme solution. In another work [14] similar conditions of pressure and temperature, but without stirring, led to inactivation efficiencies significantly lower (around 25%), after 20 minutes at 45 °C and 10 MPa (15 mL of sample loaded in a 850 mL reactor) or around 30% after 20 minutes at 35 °C and 15 MPa, compared to the inactivations higher than 80% obtained in our system (experiments 1 and 4) using significantly lower amounts of CO₂. In a non-stirred system, since water and supercritical CO₂ are barely miscible, two phases are formed, which limits the effect of CO₂ on the enzyme. The volume of enzyme solution loaded in the reactor is a critical parameter, since it determines the free volume of the reactor that can be filled up with CO₂. This free volume will lead to a different mass of CO₂ used in the experiment, as a function of pressure and temperature. The ratio CO₂:volume of solution studied is in the range 0.7 g/mL (experiments 2 and 6) to 1.9 g/mL (experiments 3 and 7). Significant differences between the two CO₂:volume of enzyme solution ratios were observed, especially at the lowest pressure, indicating the importance of this experimental parameter and the need of performing a deeper study, as will be presented in section 3.2.

3.2. Ratio CO₂: volume of enzyme solution

Results regarding the different ratios CO₂: volume of enzyme (g/mL) are presented in Table 4 and Figure 2, where the trend can be clearly seen.

It can be clearly seen that the amount of CO₂ used in the experiment affects dramatically the inactivation performance. However, the ratio CO₂ versus the volume of enzyme solution has not been systematically studied in any paper in the literature. Not all the papers report the volume of enzyme solution loaded into the reactor. For instance Manzocco et al. (2016) [5] used 10 mL of enzyme solution in a 150 mL reactor (which led to ratios in the range 9.8-12.6 g/mL depending on the pressure and temperature selected); Liu et al. (2010), [10] used red beet as a raw material loading 5 mL of sample in a 10 mL vial, which was placed in the 300 mL reactor. Gui et al. (2006) [4] and Zhang et al. (2010) [8] and Zhang et al. (2011) [19] used similar experimental procedures: 3 mL of sample in a 10 mL vial placed in a 200 mL reactor; 1 mL of sample in a 15 mL vial and placed in a 850 mL reactor, and 2 mL of sample

loaded in a 10 mL vial and placed into a 850 mL reactor, respectively. The amount of CO₂ used was not reported in any of these works, but it can be intuited that ratios CO₂:volume of solution are very high.

The results presented in this work reveal that ratios CO₂:volume of enzyme solution higher than 3 g/mL do not produce an improvement of the inactivation efficiency regardless the experimental conditions selected (temperatures between 35 and 45 °C and pressures in the range 10 to 20 MPa). Nevertheless, when ratios are below 3 g/mL the selected conditions of pressure and temperature play a significant role in the inactivation process. It seems that there is a critical amount of CO₂ which determines the inactivation performance, under that value the inactivation performance strongly depends on the pressure and temperature and above it the addition of further amounts of CO₂ does not improve the results, being a waste of CO₂ from the economic point of view.

The addition of CO₂ to an aqueous solution modifies the physical properties of the solution, and as a consequence the stability of the enzyme. The solubility of supercritical CO₂ in water is very low, 5.27g/100g of water, slightly increasing with pressure and decreasing with temperature [27]. In general, and according to Tegetmeier et al. [28], the density of water is increased (up to 5%, the higher the pressure the higher the density increase) as well as the volume, being expanded up to 6% (with pressures up to 30 MPa and 40 °C). These authors observed that the higher the pressure the higher the expansion, having the temperature a very little effect. The reason behind these changes in the properties of the water is attributed to solvation effects of the CO₂. This effect is more stressed the higher the pressure and the lower the temperature. According to Song et al. [29], this effect is dependent on the amount of CO₂ used. Therefore, the use of high amounts of CO₂ per mL of enzyme solution might induce an expansion of the liquid. This effect has to be added to the other effects that the presence of CO₂ in water has on the enzyme such as the pH decrease as a consequence of carbonic acid formation. The solubility of CO₂ is also affected by pressure and temperature, being higher the higher the pressure and the lower the temperature. The presence of salts in the medium tends to reduce the solubility of CO₂ at given conditions of pressure and temperature [30]. To the

induces in phosphate buffer solutions, but as it has been seen, the amount of CO₂ used per mL of enzyme solution is a critical parameter. Only Saraiva et al. [31], pointed out the presence of a phosphate buffer affects the thermostability and the kinetic patterns inducing a stabilizing effect of the enzymes; therefore the effects of CO₂ will be dampen by the salt. The control of the pH in these systems is critical and will be studied in future works.

3.2. Inactivation kinetics

In Table 5 it is possible to see the experimental results for the control experiments done at atmospheric pressure in the same temperature range as for the HPCD experiments. These experiments lasted up to 180 minutes. It is possible to see different trends: at 25 °C, an almost linear slow decay in the residual activity was observed, but at higher temperatures a much faster decrease in the activity was observed, tending to reach a minimum but constant residual activity after 180 minutes. The experimental results were fitted to a two fraction model (data shown in table 6); the regression coefficient was reasonably good at 25 °C (0.958) and better at

35 and 45 °C (in both cases >0.991). The temperature sensitivity parameter ($Z_T=5.7\pm 3.6$ °C) and the activation energy (E_a , resulting 40.2 ± 4.4 KJ/mol for the labile fraction and 296.3 ± 48.9 KJ/mol for the stable fraction) were calculated for the inactivation experiments done at atmospheric pressure.

Inactivation data at atmospheric pressure were also fitted to the Weibull Model: linear regression coefficient was <0.98 in all cases, indicating a worse fitting when using this model compared to the two fraction model. Weibull model led a Z_T value of 14.8 ± 3.8 °C.

The addition of CO_2 significantly changed the inactivation pattern of the PPO compared to the atmospheric pressure experiments. Inactivation was much faster and, as can be seen in Figure 3, despite the temperature, all the inactivation experiments had the same trend: an initial period with a very fast decay in the enzyme activity (shorter than two minutes), followed by a slower decrease period up to 15 minutes. At constant temperature higher inactivation was observed the higher the pressure; while when increasing temperature, the inactivation rate increased as well. All the experiments done at 20 MPa showed an almost complete inactivation regardless the experimental temperature. Different models were used to study the kinetic aspects of the experimental results obtained.

3.3.1. First Order kinetic model

The obtained inactivation results did not fit into a first order kinetic model; the calculated R^2 were lower than 0.7 in all cases.

3.3.2. Two fraction model

The general appearance of the two fraction model is a sharp decrease in the enzyme activity followed by a period of slower decay. This was observed in the experimental data presented in Figure 3. The experimental data fitted well to the two fraction kinetic model (Table 6). In general both fractions, labile and stable, were pressure and temperature sensitive; higher pressures and temperatures led to much higher inactivation constant rates, being the inactivation constant of the stable fraction significantly smaller than that of the labile fraction. The initial activity of the stable fraction (calculated as $1-A_{\infty}$) decreased with pressure and temperature, probably due to the increased susceptibility of the enzyme to the HPCD treatment [6].

When working at constant temperature, increases in pressure are translated into higher kinetic rates. Pressure induces changes in the physical state of CO₂: at 25 °C density rises dramatically from 131.3 kg/m³ at 5 MPa to 817.6 kg/m³ at 10 MPa, changing the state from gas to liquid. Another small increase in the density up to 914.2 kg/m³ is observed when increasing the pressure up to 20 MPa. At 45 °C density moves from 108.7 kg/m³ at 5 MPa to 498.3 kg/m³ at 10 MPa (from gas to supercritical state) and 812.7 kg/m³ at 20 MPa. These increases in pressure also involve more CO₂ used per mL of enzyme solution, which, as has been previously explained, has an important effect on the inactivation of PPO. Nevertheless high pressure lead to higher density of the CO₂ and supercritical CO₂ is barely miscible with water. Regarding the dielectric constant, it slightly increases with pressure from 0.6 (at 5 MPa) to 1.6 (at 20 MPa), having the temperature a negligible effect. This increase in the dielectric constant might enhance its miscibility with water, whose dielectric constant decreases from a value of 78 at room temperature to approximately 72 at 45 °C. It is difficult to determine which of the above mentioned processes happening prevails, considering the dampening effect of the phosphate salts used to prepare the enzyme solution. Liu et al. (2010) [10], concluded that PPO and POD were less sensitive to pressure changes under supercritical conditions than under subcritical conditions. The reported changes in the density can help to explain the behavior. An analysis of the pH at high pressures is necessary to understand the inactivation dominant effect.

At constant pressure, kinetic constants increase when increasing temperature, which indicates thermal sensitivity of the enzyme and lower solubility of CO₂. Increasing temperature decreases the density of the CO₂, which can lead to better mixing with the enzyme solution. On the other hand, the solubility of the CO₂ decreases with temperature; thus in this case the acidification of the media might not be the dominant mechanism considering the dampening effect of the phosphate buffer used to dissolve the enzyme. At 20 MPa a similar behavior of both stable and labile fraction can be observed. Considering the experimental results and the errors associated to them, it seems that increasing temperature from 35 to 45 °C does not increase the inactivation rate, however the change from 25 to 35 °C did increase the inactivation rate. At 20 MPa when the working temperature is above the critical temperature of the CO₂ the inactivation of tyrosinase is extremely fast; it is also observed that the initial activity of the stable fraction (A_∞) is very low which indicates the great susceptibility of the enzyme to pressure. The decimal reduction time for each temperature and pressure was calculated from equation (7) and from those values the Z-parameters were calculated (Table 7). For these calculations the simultaneous contribution of both the labile and stable fractions to the total activity was considered, as equation 7 does.

The temperature sensitivity parameter changed from 27.0±5.4 °C at 5 MPa to 40.7±0.1 °C at 20 MPa which indicates that the tyrosinase becomes less temperature sensitive at higher pressures. At atmospheric pressure this value was only 5.7±3.6 °C, indicating that, at atmospheric conditions, the inactivation of the enzyme is very sensitive to temperature, since only an increase in 5.7 °C would induce a reduction of 90% in the decimal reduction time, without the presence of CO₂. The values of Z_p changed slightly with temperature, from 6.9±0.6 to 7.9±1.1 MPa. Considering the experimental error it is not possible to establish a clear trend; it seems that similar pressures are required to reduce the decimal reduction time regardless the temperature.

3.3.2.1. Activation volume of tyrosinase solutions treated by HPCD

The pressure dependence of the kinetic rate is represented by the Eyring equation [equation 4]. In general, and according to the transition state theory, the activation volume considers the difference between the initial reactants and the activated complex at the transition state.

The results of the activation volumes of both labile and stable fractions are shown in Table 8 and the logarithm of the kinetic constants versus pressure in Figure 4.

It can be seen that activation volumes for the stable fraction are much lower than those for the labile fraction, proving the greater effect that pressure has on the stable fraction. At 25 and 35 °C (for both the labile and the stable fraction) activation volumes of the same order are obtained, considering the experimental error. By increasing temperature up to 45 °C the highest activation volume is obtained for the labile ($-68.8 \pm 2.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$) and the stable fraction ($-131.3 \pm 64.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$). At 45 °C the regression of the experimental data ($\ln k$ vs P) presents the poorest correlation (R^2 around 0.81), probably due to the fast inactivation at the highest pressure. A similar trend was observed by Ma et al. [7] when using a commercial PPO and increasing temperature from 45 to 65 °C. A reason that presents a positive activation volume tends to be slowed down with pressure [1]. More specifically, when talking about enzymatic reactions, high values of V_a (approaching to zero) indicate that the enzyme is less susceptible to CO_2 pressure [2]. This can be related to the calculated value of Z_p , which indicates that the higher the temperature the more pressure is required to decrease the decimal reduction time by 90%. The values of Z_p and V_a are in agreement and indicate that at

3.3.2.2. Activation energy (E_a) of tyrosinase solutions treated with HPCD

Figure 5 represents the dependence of the rate constant with temperature, according to the Arrhenius equation. E_a from the slopes of Figure 5 have been evaluated revealing a good linear correlation at 5 and 10 MPa; however, at 20 MPa, a poor regression was observed. At that pressure a very fast and complete inactivation of the labile fraction happened, even regardless the temperature. It would have been useful to have done an experiment at time shorter than 2 minutes.

The E_a found for the labile fraction of the PPO thermally treated at atmospheric pressure was $40.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ kJ/mol}$, decreasing down to $13.4 \pm 0.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$ at 10 MPa, a value that was similar to that obtained at 20 MPa ($16.6 \pm 8.2 \text{ kJ/mol}$).

The values of E_a for the stable fraction are higher than those observed for the labile fraction: from 296 kJ/mol at atmospheric pressure to 33 kJ/mol at 10 MPa, this fact reveals that the stable fraction is less temperature sensitive, as expected. At 20 MPa the activation energy of the stable fraction could not be calculated due to the fast inactivation rate which leads to the presence of a very small amount of stable fraction or to the experimental error.

Based on the values of Z_T and E_a , it can be clearly seen how the addition of supercritical CO_2 tends to reduce the activation energy and increase Z_T parameter. This indicates that CO_2 accelerates the inactivation of tyrosinase, decreasing its sensitivity to temperature changes. These results are in agreement with those published by Liu et al. (2010)[10] for red beet and by Gui et al. [18] for apple juice.

3.3.3. Fractional Conversion Model

Although this model fitted the experimental results quite well it predicted a fast decrease in the activity of the enzyme to reach a minimum value that remains constant with the time; which was not actually seen experimentally. Therefore the fractional conversion model was not discussed.

3.3.4. Weibull Model

The Weibull model together with the two fractional model fitted best the experimental results obtained using HPCD. From the coefficients of the model, the time needed to reduce the activity of the enzyme by 90% as well as the pseudo decimal reduction parameters (Z_T and Z_P) were calculated and presented in Table 9 and Table 10. Prior to these calculations it was studied the dependence of the β parameter with both temperature and pressure. It was observed that the β parameter was not affected by pressure or temperature (when tested at the 95% significance level for a linear relationship).

The results from the experiments done at atmospheric pressure (Table 5) were also fitted to the Weibull Model. The data did not fit as well as they did to the two fractional model (linear regression coefficient was <0.98 in all the cases). At atmospheric conditions Z_T had a value of 14.8 ± 3.4 °C calculated using the Weibull model, whereas the two fractional model had led to a Z_T value of 5.7 ± 3.6 °C.

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It can be seen that the calculated parameters were in the same order of magnitude than those calculated for the two fracon model, but the trends are opposite: according to the Weibull model, higher temperatures make the enzyme more sensitive to pressure changes, since lower pressures are required to reduce the Z_p parameter, the higher the pressure the lower the Z_T parameter, which indicates that the enzyme is more sensitive to the temperature. Right the opposite was obtained when using the Two Fracon model. Therefore it can be seen that the kinetic parameters strongly depend on the model used to calculate them, being difficult to compare the results presented by other authors [7]. The model used to describe the experimental results is critical, since differences in the $D_{0.1}$ and $D_{0.9}$ values can lead to underprocessing or overprocessing of the sample. However, it is possible to compare trends: Marszalek et al. [7], obtained similar trends for both parameters, but the absolute values of the parameters calculated resulted to be significantly higher, probably because they used much broader pressure (10-60 MPa) and temperature (35-65 °C) ranges: Z_p at 35 °C was 268.5 MPa and 214.3 MPa at 45 °C and Z_T was 94.2 °C at 10 MPa; Manzocco et al. (2016) [2], did not calculate the Z_T parameter, but Z_p resulted 5.4 and 5.5 MPa at 20 and 35 °C, respectively, using a first order kinetic model. Other authors who calculated these parameters for the native PPO present in fruits obtained quite similar results: Guo et al. [18], used apple juice and obtained a Z_T value of 108 °C at 30 MPa, compared to the 27 °C obtained at atmospheric pressure (the experimental temperatures were in the range 35-55 °C); Manzocco et al. (2016) [5], when using apple as raw material, reported values of Z_p decreasing with the temperature, just the opposite other authors have done. Zhang et al. (2011) [19], reported a value of 49 MPa for the Z_p parameters, when running the experiments at 37 °C and in the range 4-15 MPa. All the authors mentioned in the last paragraph used first order models to describe the experimental results obtained for polyphenol oxidase inactivation. Liu et al. (2013) [3], calculated the Z-parameters using a two fracon model for the inactivation of PPO from watermelon juice: Z_T was 44.5 °C for the labile fracon (at 30 MPa) and Z_p was 22.8 MPa for the labile fracon (at 50 °C). The observed variability in the results probes that the inactivation kinetics of PPO strongly depends on the process parameters (temperature, pressure and ratio of $D_{0.1}$ to volume of enzyme solution, among others) but also on the source of the enzyme (either commercial or native, meaning present in fruits and the way it is linked to other molecules) and on the kinetic model used to represent the experimental data.

It is important to note that, according to Van Boekel et al. [24] it is not possible to calculate neither the activation energy nor the volume of activation from the pseudo-kinetic parameters obtained from the Weibull model, since the calculated values do not reflect the activation energy of a single reaction.

3.4. Conformational changes in the PPO enzyme

Fluorescence spectroscopy was used to characterize the tertiary structure of the tyrosinase used in this work and the changes induced in the structure as a consequence of the HPCD. Fluorescence spectroscopy uses the changes in the intrinsic fluorescence of some residues (tryptophan -TRP-, tyrosine -TYR- and phenylalanine -PHE-) to evaluate changes in the protein structure [32]. Tryptophan is part of the hydrophobic core of the enzyme and its emission

wavelength is very sensitive to the polarity of its surrounding environment: if the environment is non-polar the maximum tends to be around 305 nm, red shifting up to 350 nm when it is exposed to very polar media [33]. When the TRP residue is exposed to a polar solvent, part of the absorbed energy is transferred to the solvent (water, if it is in aqueous solution), resulting in a higher emission wavelength (340-350 nm) and lower intensity of the emission signal (quenching effect of water); these two phenomena are indicating changes in the structure of the protein [32]. The changes in the emission intensity can be explained by the fact that the TRP residues suffer a reallocation in the enzyme structure [34].

In Figures 6 the fluorescence spectra of the native tyrosinase (PPO) and high pressure carbon dioxide treated PPO are shown. Significant changes in the emission spectra, compared to the native enzyme can be observed.

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Figure 6-a shows the emission spectra for samples treated with CO₂ in gas state (5 MPa) at 25 and 45 °C, for 15 minutes (these experiments resulted in residual activities around 60 and 35%, respectively). Regarding the maximum wave length of emission, it can be observed that a red shift displacement up to 331 nm happened in both cases (from 324 nm in the native enzyme), together with significant decreases in the emission intensity. Under those conditions of pressure and temperature, CO₂ in gas state was bubbled into the samples; CO₂ rapidly dissolved into the enzyme solution probably contributing to a relatively rapid decrease in pH (presence of carbonic acid), which can open the core of the enzyme exposing the TRP residues to the polar environment [17] that receives part of the energy of the TRP residues (water exerts a quenching effect), resulting in a decrease of the emission intensity.

In Figure 6-b, the emission spectra for samples treated at 10 MPa revealed emission intensities quite similar to those of the native enzyme, and much higher than those observed in the samples treated at 5 MPa. At 10 MPa and 25 °C, CO₂ is in liquid state (density is 817.6 kg/m³) and at 45 °C is in supercritical state (density 498.3 kg/m³). At 45 °C CO₂ is less dense and has better transport properties (diffusion), and a clear red shift of the maximum intensity is observed (up to 333.5 nm), higher than that registered at 25 °C (329.5 nm). In these experiments, higher amounts of CO₂ were used, therefore less energy from the TRP residues was transferred to the water which resulted in a mitigated quenching effect.

Finally Figure 6-c shows the emission spectra when CO₂ at 20 MPa was used to treat the tyrosinase. Residual activity after the 25 °C treatment was 7.2% and it was 3.7% when temperature was 45 °C. In both cases it is possible to talk about a complete inactivation of the enzyme. CO₂ under both conditions exhibits a similar density: 914.2 kg/m³ at 25 °C and 812.7 kg/m³ at 45 °C, but the state is different, being liquid in the former and supercritical in the latter conditions. In both cases the intensity registered is greater than that of the native enzyme; which indicates that the structure of the enzyme has changed and the quenching effects observed at 5 MPa have disappeared. These are the experiments in which more CO₂ was used (around 44 g per experiment versus 6 grams used at 5 MPa); the maximum intensity is now 322.5 nm (at 25 °C) and 322 nm at 45 °C, lower than the native enzyme, which indicates that TRP is oriented to a more non-polar environment, and hence water quenching effect is lower. Another effect must be considered, it is the effect that CO₂ exerts on the water: at high pressures and temperatures the density of the water exposed to CO₂ tends to increase by 20% and the volume is expanded by 5% due to solvation effects of the CO₂ molecule [28], being this change proportional to the amount of CO₂ used [29]. The expansion that CO₂ produces in water affects the way the enzyme interacts with the media, leading to a much faster inactivation. According to the equation presented by Eltringham et al. [20], the dielectric constant of the CO₂ molecule slightly changes from 0.6 (5 MPa, 25 °C) to 1.6 (20 MPa, 45 °C), whereas the dielectric constant of water decreases from 78.6 (5 MPa, 25 °C) to 72.2 (20 MPa, 45 °C). CO₂ tends to be slightly more polar when increasing pressure and temperature, whereas water behaves in the opposite way. This fact can alter the way TRP residues interact with the surrounding environment, their allocation in the structure, affecting the activity of the enzyme. It would be very useful to have information about the dielectric constant of the

water-CO₂ mixture under different conditions; this information for sure would shed light on the TRP residues and enzyme structure.

In the results presented in Figure 6-c, a second peak appeared at around 300 nm, which is primarily assigned to the tyrosine residues [32]. In the native state of the PPO there is not emission of the tyrosine when excited at 275 nm, probably due to an efficient energy transference from the tyrosine residues to the tryptophan residues. If a peak is observed after the enzyme being treated with CO₂, this is indicating that the mechanism by which the energy was transferred from TYR to TRP might be broken. In any case the presence of this peak at around 300 nm is probing that the PPO structure is changed after the CO₂ treatment, which is related to the dramatic reduction in the PPO activity observed.

4. Conclusions

CO₂ was successfully used to inactivate tyrosinase isolated from mushroom; almost complete inactivations were achieved when the enzyme solution was subjected to pressures as high as 20 MPa for less than 9 minutes with independence of the temperature used (25-45 °C). The amount of CO₂ used per unit of enzyme solution resulted to be critical in the inactivation performance. The experimental results were well described by the two fraction model and the Weibull model. The reason is to be found in the nature of those models: they gather an initial fast activity decay followed by a slowed decrease in the residual activity, which is the trend experimentally observed. The fractional conversion model did not describe the experimental results as well as the other aforementioned models because it assumed a constant residual activity after an initial period of fast decay.

CO₂ induced significant changes in the structure of the enzyme, as probed the spectrofluorimetry analysis: the extent of the change in the structure was dependent on the temperature and pressure used (which determined the state of the CO₂, either gas, liquid or supercritical). All in all HPCD resulted to be a useful technique to inactivate enzymes and this work contributed to shed light on the structural changes that HPCD treatment induced on the structure of the enzyme, as well as to demonstrate that the amount of CO₂ used in the inactivation process is critical and must be carefully selected in order to avoid excessive CO₂ consumption, what would affect the economic performance of the HPCD process.

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Figure captions

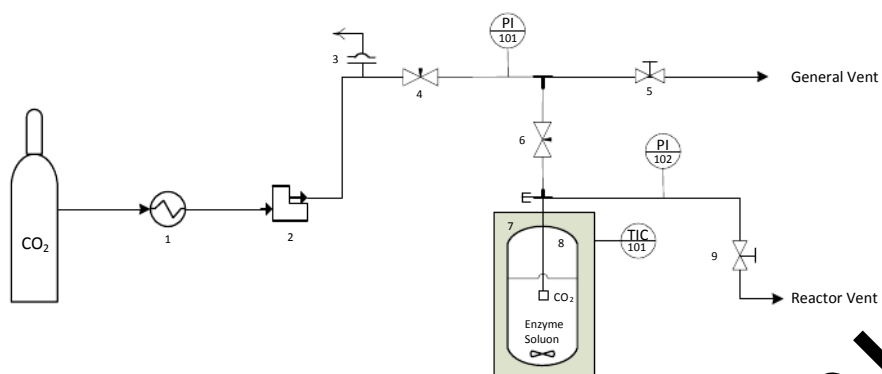


Figure 1. Experimental set-up for HPCD enzyme treatment. 1: CO₂ cryostat; 2: Syringe pump; 3: Bursting disk; 4: general process valve; 5: general vent valve; 6: individual inlet valve; 7: water bath; 8: high pressure batch reactor with magnetic stirring; 9: depressurization valve. PI-101: general pressure gauge; PI-102: reactor pressure gauge; TIC-101 temperature controller of water bath

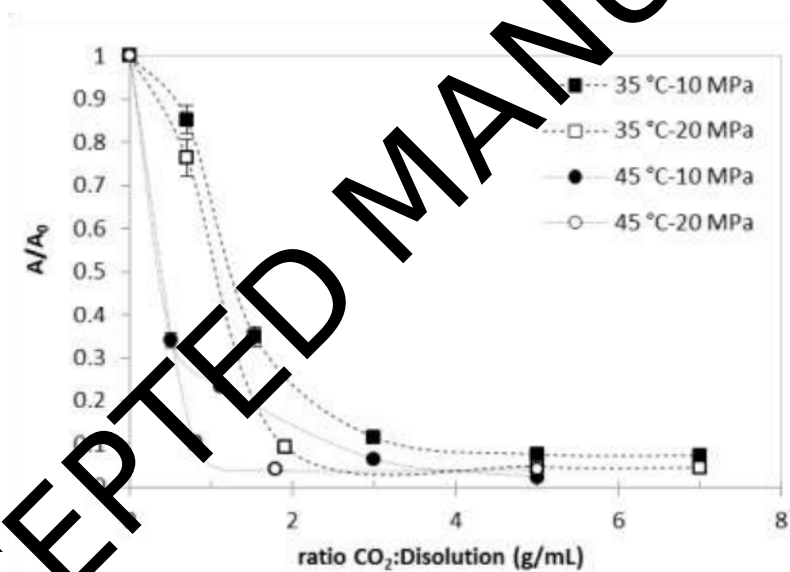


Figure 2. Residual activity of PPO treated for 9 minutes at 35 and 45 °C and 10 and 20 MPa using different ratios CO₂:volume of enzyme solution.

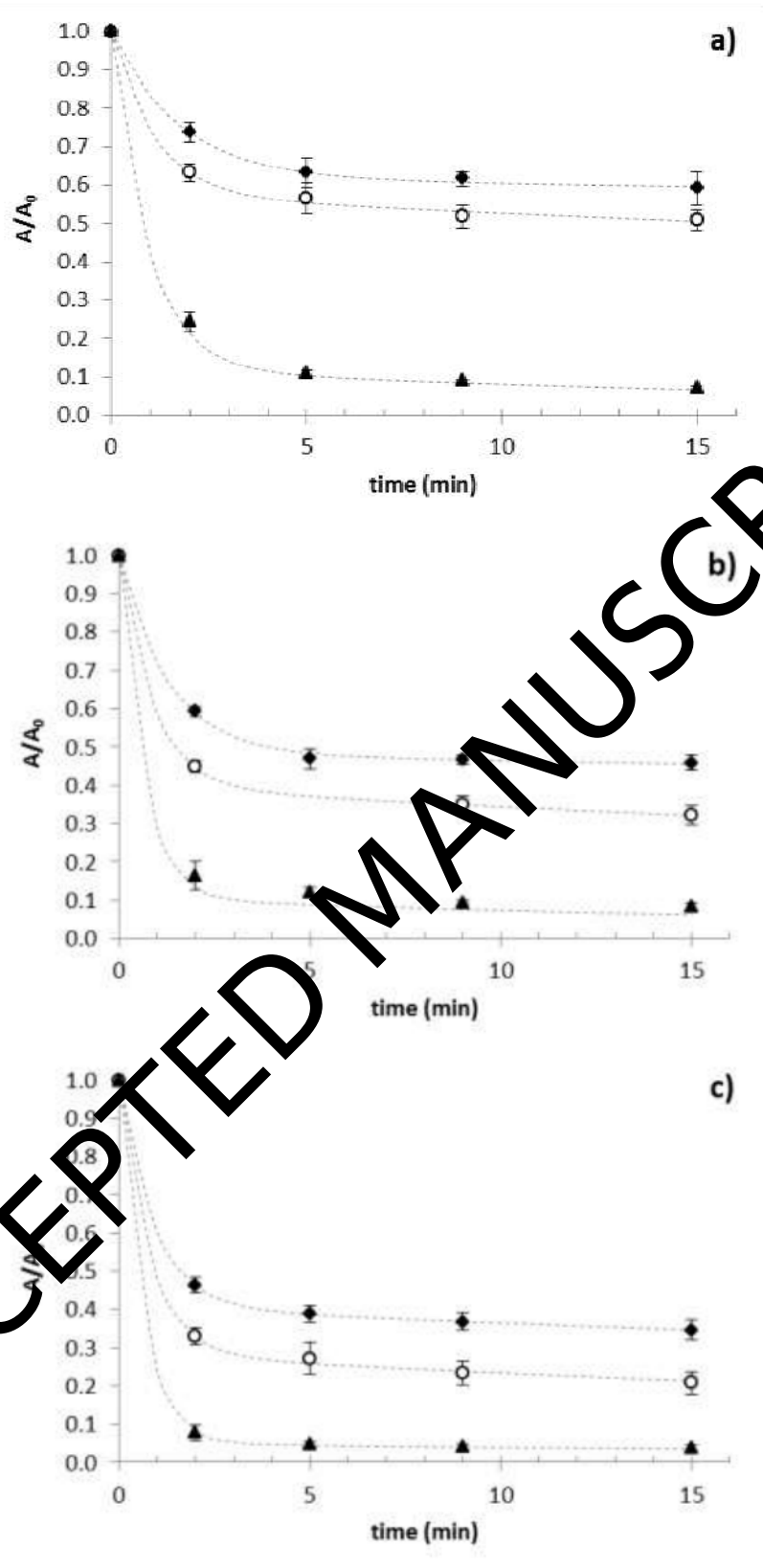


Figure 3. Polyphenoloxidase residual activity as a function of the exposure time to HPCD at three different pressures: 5 MPa (●), 10 MPa (○) and 20 MPa (▲). In Figure a) experiments were done at 25 °C; in b) at 35 °C and in c) at 45 °C

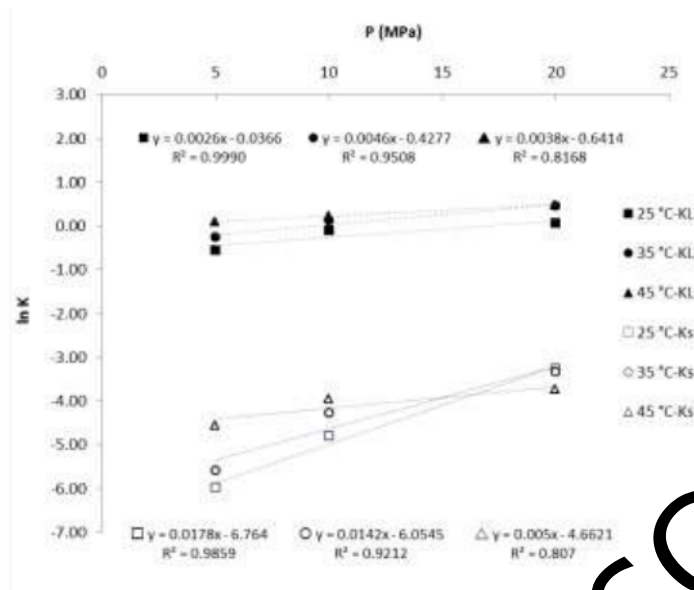


Figure 4. Effect of the pressure on the kinetic constant for both labile (KL) and stable (KS) fraction of the tyrosinase enzyme treated with HPCD.

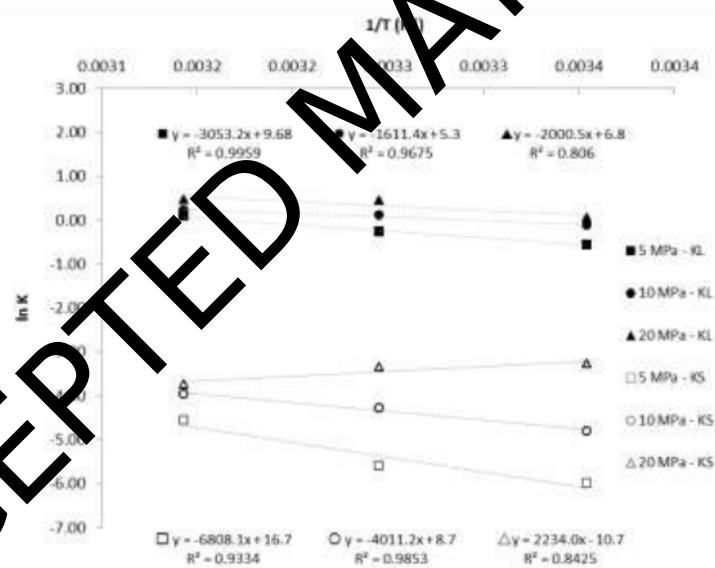


Figure 5. Effect of the temperature on the kinetic constant for both labile and stable fraction of the tyrosinase enzyme treated with HPCD.

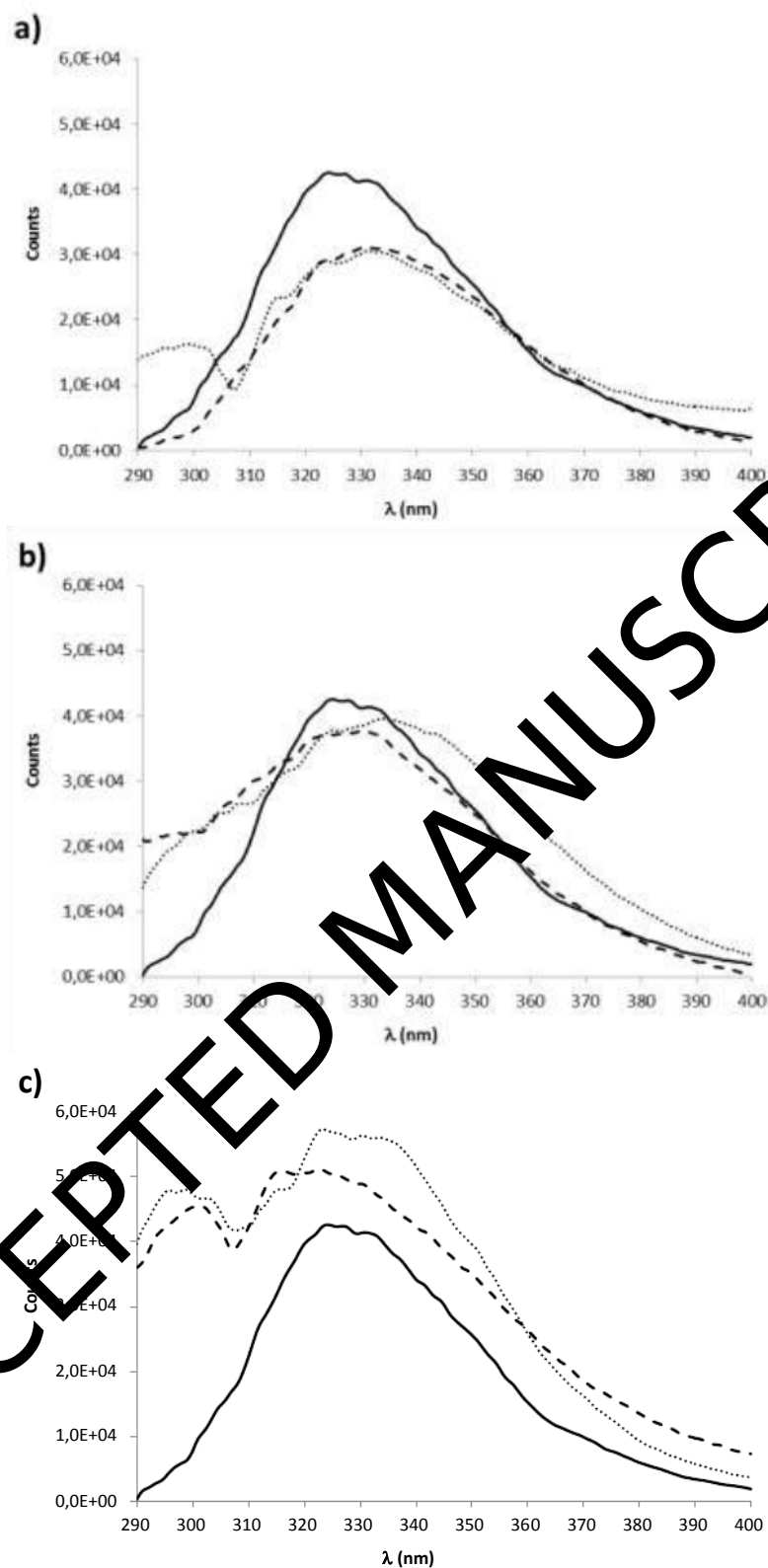


Figure 6. Emission spectra for native tyrosinase (solid line), treated at 25 °C (dashed line ---) and at 45 °C (dotted line ···) at three different pressures: a) 5 MPa; b) 10 MPa; c) 20 MPa

Table 1. Experimental conditions and kinetic parameters obtained by other researchers using HPCD inactivate PPO from different substrates

Authors	Experimental conditions					Kinetic Parameters					
	Raw material	rao CO ₂ dis	P (MPa)	T (°C)	t (min)	Model	D (min)	Z _P (MPa)	Z _T (°C)	V _a (cm ³ /mol)	E _a (kJ/mol)
Manzocco et al. 2016 [5]	Tyrosinase (EC 1.14.18.1)	10 mL in a 150 mL reactor	6-18	20	Up to 15min	1 st order	18.2-0.6	5.4	-	-1034.1	-
			6-18	35	Up to 15min	1 st order	3.7-<0.2	5.5	-	-1081.1	-
Liu et al. 2010 [10]	Red Beet juice		37.5	35-55	60	1 st order	138.9-28.8	-	36.1	-	53.6
		5 mL in a 10 mL tubes. Placed in a 300 mL reactor	1.5-7.5	55	60	1 st order	75.8-50.5	34.1	-	-184.3	-
			15-37.5	55	60	1 st order	41.5-38.8	125.0	-	-50.2	-
Gui et al. 2007 [18]	Apple juice (fujji)		30	35-45	60	1 st order	222.2-166.7	-	108.0	-	18.0
		3 mL in a 10 mL tubes. Placed in a 200 mL reactor	8-30	55	60	1 st order	312.5-144.9	66.7	-	-94.3	-
Zhang et al. 2010 [8]	Peach juice		8	35-45	120	1 st order	151.4 -19.8	-	22.6	-	82.9
		1 mL in a 15 mL tube. Placed in a 850 mL reactor	5-15	35	120	1 st order	330.0 -183.5	20.2	-	292.3	-
			8	25-45	120	Fractional Conversion	1.4-0.4	-	55.3	-	34.1
	Carrot juice	5-15	35	120	Fractional Conversion	2.4-0.4	12.2	-	-485.0	-	

Zhang et al. 2011 [19]	2 mL in a 10 mL vial.	Shrimp (extract)	4-15	37	50	1 st order	48.8 - 29.0	49.0	-120.9		
			20-25	35	50	1 st order	20.5 5.9				
Manzocco et al. 2016 [5]	10 mL in a 150 mL reactor	Apple juice (golden)	20	35	50	Two Fracon	D _L =0.94 D _S =29.4	-	-	-	
			25				D _L =1.66 D _S =34.5	-	-	-	
			0.1-18	20	30*	1 st order	188.8 - 22.1	20.3	-	-276.7	-
			0.1-18	35	30*	1 st order	75.1 8.1	19.2	-	-307.9	-
Liu et al. 2013 [3]	100 mL in a 850 mL reactor	Watermelon juice	0.1-12	45	30*	1 st order	21.5 2.4	14.8	-	-412.3	
			30	30-50	30	Two Fracon	D _L =3.3-1.2 D _S =135.5-56.2	-	Z _L : 44.5 Z _S : 52.6	-	E _{AL} : 43.2 E _{SS} : 36.9
Marszałek et al. 2016 [12]	60 mL in a 500 mL reactor	Carrot and celery juice	8-30	50	30	Two Fracon	D _L =11.6-1.2 D _S =575.8-56.2	Z _L : 22.8 Z _S : 20.1	-	V _{AL} : -271.7 V _{AS} : -307.9	
			10-60	31-55	10-30	1 st order	Carrot: 1354 (at 47 °C-10 MPa) Celery: 767 (at 55 °C-60 MPa)	-	-	-	-
al. 2017 [11]	60 mL in a 500 mL reactor	Beetroot juice	10-60	31-55	10-30	1 st order	281 (at 39 °C- 10 MPa)	-	-	-	

* (for the 1st order model does not consider longest mes)

Table 2. Experimental results for the initial screening experiments

run	A: Soluon Volume (mL)	B: Pressure (MPa)	C: me (min)	D: Temperature (°C)	E: Srring Rate (rpm)	A/A ₀
1	25	10	15	45	250	0.21±0.03
2	40	10	15	35	600	0.57±0.05
3	25	20	15	35	250	0.08±0.01
4	40	20	15	45	600	0.10±0.01
5	25	10	5	45	600	0.27±0.04
6	40	10	5	35	250	0.85±0.03
7	25	20	5	35	600	0.12±0.01
8	40	20	5	45	250	0.17±0.02

Table 3. ANOVA table for the initial screening experiments

Source	SS	DF	Mean Square	F-Rao	p-Value
A: Soluon Volume	974.28	1	974.28	162.71	0.0001
B: Pressure	1546.28	1	1546.28	256.94	0.0039
C: me	4.93921	1	4.93921	0.82	0.4608
D: Temperature	733.602	1	733.602	122.76	0.0081
E: Srring Rate	54.0321	1	54.0321	8.97	0.0958
B*C	59.8761	1	59.8761	9.94	0.0876
B*E	86.6916	1	86.6916	14.39	0.063
Total error	12.05	2	6.025		
Total (corr.)	5463.92	8			

*p-Value statistical significance

Table 4. Experimental results for the rao CO₂ volume of soluon at diorent temperatures and pressures in experiments lasng 9 minutes

Pressure (MPa)	Temperature (°C)	Density CO ₂ (kg/m ³)	rao CO ₂ : Enzyme Soluon (g/mL)	Enzyme Soluon (mL)	A/A ₀
10	35	712.8	0.7	40.0	0.85±0.03
			1.5	25.0	0.35±0.02
			3.0	15.1	0.12±0.01
			7.0	7.3	0.07±0.01
20	35	865.7	0.7	44.2	0.76±0.04
			1.9	25.0	0.09±0.01
			5.0	11.8	0.05±0.01
			7.0	8.8	0.05±0.01
10	45	498.3	0.5	40.0	0.34±0.02
			1.1	25.0	0.24±0.01
			3.0	11.6	0.07±0.01
			5.0	7.4	0.02±0.00

20	45	812.7	0.8	40.0	0.10±0.02
			1.8	25.0	0.04±0.01
			5.0	11.2	0.04±0.02

Table 5. Residual activity for the control experiments, done at atmospheric pressure without CO₂

		Residual Activity (A/A ₀)		
		25	35	45
T(°C)	t (min)			
	0	1	1	1
	30	0.96±0.04	0.78±0.05	0.55±0.01
	60	0.87±0.01	0.68±0.08	0.44±0.01
	90	0.82±0.03	0.56±0.04	0.31±0.02
	140	0.82±0.01	0.42±0.03	0.28±0.01
	180	0.79±0.01	0.41±0.04	0.26±0.02

Table 6. Two fracon model kinetic constants for commercial tyrosinase (PPO) treated with HPCD. Results for the experiments done at atmospheric pressure (without CO₂) are also presented in this table.

T (°C)	P (MPa)	A _L	K _L (min ⁻¹)	K _D (min ⁻¹)	R ²
25	0.1	0.247±0.139	0.011±0.051	0.0±0.0	0.957
	5	0.381±0.021	0.574±0.063	0.002±0.003	0.999
	10	0.427±0.074	0.89±0.147	0.008±0.004	0.998
	20	0.879±0.000	1.065±0.000	0.038±0.000	1.000
35	0.1	0.58±0.207	0.013±0.016	0.001±0.001	0.991
	5	0.518±0.033	0.772±0.045	0.004±0.003	0.999
	10	0.604±0.000	1.128±0.000	0.014±0.000	1.000
	20	0.89±0.019	1.582±0.169	0.036±0.016	1.000
45	0.1	0.704±0.114	0.031±0.010	0.001±0.002	0.994
	5	0.595±0.001	1.093±0.007	0.011±0.000	1.000
	10	0.716±0.016	1.259±0.138	0.019±0.006	1.000
	20	0.951±0.002	1.618±0.029	0.024±0.003	1.000

Table 7. Decimal reduction time and Z-values of commercial tyrosinase treated with HPCD and calculated using the two fracon model

P(MPa)	D (min)			Z _T (°C)
	25 °C	35 °C	45 °C	
5	733.1	418.6	133.0	27.0±5.4
10	211.9	98.7	54.5	33.9±2.4
20	5.5	3.1	1.8	40.7±0.1

Z_p (MPa)	6.9±0.6	7.0±0.3	7.9±1.1	
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45 °C the inactivation of PPO is being less affected by pressure and more by temperature.

Table 8. Inactivation kinetic constants, activation volume and activation energy for tyrosinase treated with HPCD

P (MPa)	Labile fraction				Stable fraction			
	K _L values (min ⁻¹)			E _a (KJ/mol)	K _S values (min ⁻¹)			E _a (KJ/mol)
	25 °C	35 °C	45 °C		25 °C	35 °C	45 °C	
5	0.574	0.772	1.093	25.4±1.6	0.002	0.004	0.011	56.6±15.1
10	0.898	1.128	1.259	13.4±0.8	0.008	0.014	0.014	33.4±3.8
20	1.065	1.582	1.618	16.6±8.2	0.038	0.036	0.034	----
V _a (cm ³ /mol)	-93.8±44.4	-117.4±26.7	-68.8±2.2	-	-441.4±52.8	-364.0±106.5	-131.3±64.2	-

Table 9. Weibull model coefficients calculated for commercial tyrosinase treated with HPCD

T (°C)	P (MPa)	β	α (min)	R ²
25	0.1	0.599±0.166	1268.9±1438.0	0.918
	5	0.239±0.051	192.7±134.7	0.984
	10	0.259±0.001	52.7±0.2	0.996
	20	0.271±0.054	0.4±0.2	0.984
35	0.1	0.740±0.087	195.0±13.6	0.982
	5	0.171±0.061	49.1±35.7	0.975
	10	0.173±0.001	7.0±0.1	1.000
	20	0.161±0.001	0.05±0.00	0.999
45	0.1	0.428±0.059	82.5±6.9	0.983
	5	0.152±0.020	9.2±0.9	0.997
	10	0.172±0.002	1.1±0.1	1.000
	20	0.122±0.020	0.0007±0.0001	0.997

Table 10

-values of commercial tyrosinase treated with HPCD and calculated with the Weibull model

T(°C) P (MPa)	t _D (min)			Z _T (°C)
	25 °C	35 °C	45 °C	
5	6295.0	6474.7	2236.8	15.2±0.9
10	1721.6	863.6	136.9	11.8±0.3
20	8.1	8.6	0.7	7.4±1.4
Z _P (MPa)	5.0±0.8	5.2±0.2	4.3±0.1	