



Short communication

A universally calibrated microplate ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay for foods and applications to Manuka honey



Amparo Angelica S. Bolanos de la Torre¹, Terence Henderson, Poonam Singh Nigam, Richard K. Owusu-Apenten*

School of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Life and health sciences, Ulster University, Cromore Road, Coleraine BT52 1SA, UK

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 20 July 2014

Received in revised form 25 October 2014

Accepted 1 November 2014

Available online 7 November 2014

Chemical compounds studied in this article:
2,4,6-Tripyridyl-s-Triazine (PubChem CID: 77258)

Ammonium ferrous sulphate (PubChem CID: 197097)

Ascorbic acid (PubChem CID: 54670067)

Gallic acid (PubChem CID: 370)

Keywords:

Antioxidant capacity

Microplate assay

Ferric reducing antioxidant power

FRAP

Manuka honey

ABSTRACT

The ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay was recently adapted to a microplate format. However, microplate-based FRAP (mFRAP) assays are affected by sample volume and composition. This work describes a calibration process for mFRAP assays which yields data free of volume effects. From the results, the molar absorptivity (ϵ) for the mFRAP assay was $141,698 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for gallic acid, $49,328 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for ascorbic acid, and $21,606 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for ammonium ferrous sulphate. The significance of ϵ ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is discussed in relation to mFRAP assay sensitivity, minimum detectable concentration, and the dimensionless FRAP-value. Gallic acid showed 6.6 mol of Fe^{2+} equivalents compared to 2.3 mol of Fe^{+2} equivalents for ascorbic acid. Application of the mFRAP assay to Manuka honey samples (rated 5+, 10+, 15+, and 18+ Unique Manuka Factor; UMF) showed that FRAP values (0.54–0.76 mmol Fe^{2+} per 100 g honey) were strongly correlated with UMF ratings ($R^2 = 0.977$) and total phenols content ($R^2 = 0.982$) whilst the UMF rating was correlated with the total phenols ($R^2 = 0.999$). In conclusion, mFRAP assay results were successfully standardised to yield data corresponding to 1-cm spectrophotometer which is useful for quality assurance purposes. The antioxidant capacity of Manuka honey was found to be directly related to the UMF rating.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay now in its 18th year (Benzie & Strain, 1996; Benzie & Strain, 1999) monitors the reaction of Fe^{2+} with 2,4,6-Tripyridyl-s-Triazine (TPTZ) to form a violet-blue colour with an absorbance maximum at 593 nm (Collins, Diehl, & Smith, 1959). Some FRAP assays employ phenanthroline, batho-phenanthroline, ferricyanide or ferrozine as a chromogenic ligand (Berker, Guclu, Tor, & Apak, 2007). However, all FRAP assays detect compounds with a standard reduction potential (E^0) below +0.77 and which reduce Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} (Benzie & Strain, 1996, 1999). The characteristics of the TPTZ-FRAP assay have been compared with other total antioxidant capacity (TAC) assays (Benzie & Choi, 2014; Fraga, Oteiza, & Galleano, 2014; Gulcin, 2012; Huang, Ou, & Prior, 2005; Magalhaes, Segundo, Reis, &

Lima, 2008; Moon & Shibamoto, 2009). FRAP assays are compatible with auto-analyser and manual assay formats (Benzie & Strain, 1996, 1999). Databases containing thousands of FRAP-values for plant foodstuffs have been compiled (Carlsen et al., 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2006).

Microplate-based FRAP (mFRAP) assays were introduced recently leading to improved sample throughput compared to the manual FRAP assay (Firuzi, Lacanna, Petrucci, Marrosu, & Saso, 2005; Jimenez-Alvarez et al., 2008; Tsao, Yang, & Young, 2003). However, the optical pathlength for microplate readers is not fixed and results may be affected by changes of sample volume and composition (Lampinen, Raitio, Perälä, Oranen, & Harinen, 2012; Smith, Morris, & Levander, 2001). Most microplate readers are lacking the automated photometric pathlength correction (PPC) facility found in more expensive models (Smith et al., 2001). The pathlength dependence on sample volume leads to microplate results being less readily compared between different laboratories.

The molar absorptivity (ϵ , $\text{M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) for the manual FRAP assay was evaluated recently for a 1 cm-pathlength spectrophotometer with ammonium ferrous sulphate (AFS) as standard (Hayes, Mills,

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +44 028 701 24314.

E-mail address: r.owusu-apenten@ulster.ac.uk (R.K. Owusu-Apenten).

¹ Permanent address: ONIRIS, Ecole Nationale Vétérinaire, Agroalimentaire et de l'alimentation de Nantes-Atlantique, Site de la Géraudière: rue de la Géraudière BP 82225 44322 Nantes cedex 3, France.

Neville, Kiddie, & Collins, 2011; Stratil, Klejdus, & Kuban, 2006). In principle, the molar absorptivity represents a universal calibration parameter for different compounds, and could be used for quality assurance and for comparing FRAP assays from different laboratories (Hayes et al., 2011). Currently, there are limited reports for the molar absorptivity value for FRAP assays of food antioxidants (Pulido, Bravo, & Saura-Calixto, 2000; Stratil et al., 2006). To our knowledge, few or no molar absorptivity values have been reported for the mFRAP format and so the quality of assays cannot be evaluated.

In this paper, we describe a process for normalising microplate results to match data obtainable with a 1-cm pathlength spectrophotometer. The pathlength correction is applied to two mFRAP assays to determine the molar absorptivity and related parameters for ascorbic acid and gallic acid as calibration standards. As part of ongoing research, the mFRAP assay was applied to honey samples of different Unique Manuka Factor (UMF) ratings and the findings compared with values of the total phenols content for the same samples. The outcomes showed that mFRAP assays can yield accurate data independent of sample volume effects. The described calibration method is inexpensive and easy to implement for other microplate-based assays for the purpose of quality assurance. The antioxidant capacity of Manuka honey was found to be directly related to the UMF rating.

2. Materials and methods

All reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used as received. Colorimetric measurements were recorded using a UV/Visible spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2000, Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala Sweden) in conjunction with 1-cm polystyrene cuvettes (Sarsted Ltd., Leicester, UK). Microplate assays involved a 96-microplate reader (VERSAmax; Molecular devices, Sunnydale, California, USA) used with flat-bottomed 96-well microplates (NUNC, Sigma Aldrich, UK). FRAP solutions were prepared as described previously (Benzie & Strain, 1996, 1999). The FRAP working-solution was prepared by mixing 10-volumes of acetate buffer (300 mM, pH 3.6) with 1-volume of TPTZ (40 mM dissolved with 40 mM HCl) and 1-volume of ferric chloride (20 mM in water). The FRAP working solution was prepared daily and warmed at 37 °C for 10 min before use. Ascorbic acid and AFS standards (1000 µM) were prepared in 100 ml volumetric flasks using double deionized water and with no other precautions. Gallic acid (1000 µM) was prepared by pre-diluting 17 mg solid with 10 ml methanol and making up to 100 ml.

Manuka honey samples (rated +5, +10, +15, +18 Unique Manuka Factor; UMF) were purchased from Comvita Ltd. (Berkshire, UK). A batch of Scottish Heather Honey (assumed UMF of +0) was purchased from Rowse Honey Ltd. (London, UK). All samples of honey were stored at room temperature and diluted 1/10 with distilled water before analysis. The total antioxidant capacity for honey samples was determined using the mFRAP1 method as described for ferric sulphate standard (see below). The total phenol content for honey samples was measured using the Folin Dennis method and expressed as a Gallic Acid Equivalent per kg product (GAE mg/kg) as outlined by (Singleton, Orthofer, & Lamuela-Raventos, 1999).

For a manual FRAP assay 75 µl of sample (0, 125, 250, 500, 1000 µM) was added to 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tubes followed by 1425 µl of working FRAP solution. The mixtures were incubated in the dark for 30 min at 37 °C and absorbance readings were recorded at 593 nm (A593) using 1 cm-pathlength spectrophotometer. To perform the microplate FRAP assay version #1 (mFRAP1) we completed a manual FRAP assay as above. Thereafter 200 µl × 4 portions of the reaction mixture were transferred to a

96-well microplate for A593 measurement. Microplate FRAP assay version #2 (mFRAP2) was performed according to previous reports with minor modifications (Firuzi et al., 2005; Jimenez-Alvarez et al., 2008; Tsao et al., 2003). Sample solutions (20 µl) were added directly to the 96-well microplate followed by 280 µl of working FRAP solution. The mixtures were shaken, incubated at 37 °C in the dark for 30 min and then A593 readings were recorded using a microplate reader. All experiments were run at least twice on two different days.

3. Results and discussion

The FRAP assay, which is one of the most widely cited assays for total antioxidant capacity, was recently adapted to microplate assay format. However, microplate FRAP assay have not been properly calibrated so that universal calibration parameters have not been determined for the purpose of quality control. Currently microplate based FRAP assays are used for comparative analysis of samples for which absolute calibration parameters are not essential. On the contrary, determination of absolute calibration parameters will help identify where particular implementations of the FRAP assays are dogged by systematic error. Access to absolute calibration parameters is also essential to compare assay performance across different platforms, e.g. the autoanalyzer compared with the standardised 1-cm platform (Sochor et al., 2010). In this paper we describe a method for the determination of calibration parameters for microplate-based FRAP (mFRAP) assays which are free from volume effects. The FRAP assay, one of the most widely cited assays for total antioxidant capacity, was recently adapted to microplate assay format. However, microplate FRAP assay have not been properly calibrated so that universal calibration parameters have not been determined for the purpose of quality control. Manuka honey is a mono-floral honey, produced by bees foraging on the Manuka tree (*Leptospermum scoparium*). Previous research demonstrated that Manuka honey possess antimicrobial activity. Though the mode of action of Manuka honey remains under discussion current evidence suggests that antioxidant components may contribute to their bioactivity (Weston, 2000; Snow & Manley, 2004; Kwakman, Velde, de Boer, Vandenbroucke-Grauls, & Zaat, 2011).

We assume that all FRAP formats conform to Beer's law over a defined concentration (C);

$$A_{593} = \varepsilon \cdot L \cdot C \quad (1)$$

$$A_{593} = \varepsilon' \cdot L' \cdot C \quad (2)$$

where A593 is absorbency at 593 nm, ε is the true molar absorptivity ($M^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), L is the light pathlength (1-cm) for a 1-cm spectrophotometer, and L' is the corresponding light pathlength in a microplate reader. From (1) and (2) plotting A593 vs. C will produce straight-line graphs ($Y = mx$) with a gradient (m) equal to $\varepsilon \cdot L$ for a spectrophotometric assay or $\varepsilon' \cdot L'$ for microplate analysis. Since $L' < L$, the absorptivity ($\varepsilon' = \varepsilon \cdot L'$) using a plate reader will be numerically lower compared to values from a 1-cm spectrophotometer. Measuring the molar absorptivity value for mFRAP assays could be useful for quality assurance and for comparing assays from different laboratories (Hayes et al., 2011).

To normalise mFRAP data for 1-cm pathlength we performed a separate manual FRAP assay using AFS as a calibration standard and a 1-cm path length instrument for A593 measurements. The method is simple and accessible for most laboratories. A graph of A593 vs. concentration produced a straight-line graph ($R^2 = 0.9992$). According to the gradient of this graph ($\varepsilon \cdot L$) the molar absorptivity using AFS standard was $21,423(\pm 204) M^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ which compares with 19,800, 21,140, 21,500 or 22,600 $M^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$

in the literature (Collins et al., 1959; Hayes et al., 2011; Issopoulos & Salta, 1997; Stratil et al., 2006).

When AFS solutions were analysed by the mFRAP1 assay (200 μl total volume) the apparent molar absorptivity was 10,509(± 46) and consequently the effective optical pathlength ($L' = 10,509/21,423$) was 0.49 cm. For the mFRAP2 analysis of AFS (20 μl sample and 300 μl total assay volume) the graph of A593 vs. concentration yielded an apparent molar absorptivity (ϵ') of 18,065(± 36) $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ and consequently, the instrument pathlength was determined as ($L' = \epsilon'/\epsilon = 18,065/21,423$) = 0.83 cm. Table 1 shows a summary of such results alongside of the apparent absorptivity values for ascorbic acid and gallic acid.

In an attempt to confirm above results, optical pathlength values were also calculated. Assuming each microplate well is perfectly cylindrical with a radius (r) the optical pathlength L' (cm) = $V/(\pi \cdot r^2)$ where V (cm^3) is the total assay volume. Actually, the flat-bottomed 96-microwell plates used in this study had conical-shaped wells with a wider cross sectional area at the apex (diameter = 0.689 cm) compared to the bottom (diameter = 0.635 mm) and so we used 0.662 cm as the average well diameter. Fig. 1 shows that the calculated pathlength increases linearly with the filling volume per well. Where V is equal to 0.3 or 0.2 cm^3 the predicted optical pathlength was 0.87 or 0.58 cm, respectively. Such values deviate by +4.8% and +18.4% from the pathlengths determined from colorimetric measurements (Table 1). Errors arising from the calculated pathlengths are more substantial with low filling volumes. Differences between the calculated and actual pathlengths for microplate readers can be expected also because differences in sample composition as well as volume can

Table 1
Calibration parameters for the microplate FRAP assays before and after pathlength correction.

Calibrant	Sensitivity mFRAP1	MDC mFRAP1	Sensitivity mFRAP2	MDC mFRAP2
Gallic acid	70,557(± 1243)	2.3×10^{-7}	115,704(± 1351)	8.7×10^{-8}
Gallic acid ^a	143,993	1.1×10^{-7}	139,402	7.2×10^{-8}
Asc. acid	25,491(± 135)	5.8×10^{-7}	38,706(± 763)	1.2×10^{-7}
Asc. acid ^a	52,022	2.8×10^{-7}	46,634	9.6×10^{-8}
AFS	10,509(± 46)	5.1×10^{-7}	18,065(± 36)	2.5×10^{-7}
AFS ^a	21,447	2.5×10^{-7}	21,765	2.1×10^{-7}

Notes: assay sensitivity is equal to the molar absorptivity, ϵ_M ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$). MDC = minimum detectable concentration, AFS = ammonium ferrous (II) sulphate, Asc. Acid = Ascorbic acid.

^a Data with pathlength corrections for mFRAP1 ($L' = 0.49$ cm for 200 μl sample) and mFRAP2 ($L' = 0.83$ cm for 300 μl sample).

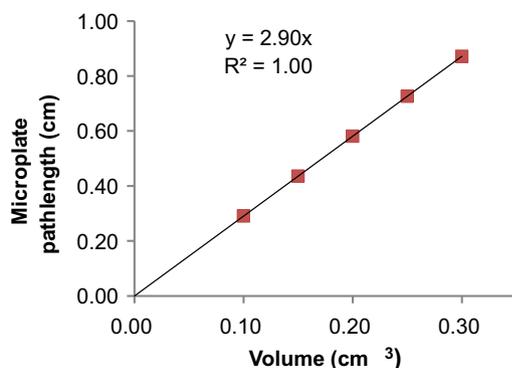


Fig. 1. The predicted optical pathlength for a microplate reader according to filling volume of fluid (cm^3) for cylindrically-shape wells and a diameter = 0.689 and 0.635 cm at the top and bottom. The graph gradient is 2.90 cm^{-2} (see text for details).

affect the height of the meniscus formed within microplate wells (Lampinen et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2001).

Some high-end microplate readers are fitted with an automatic PPC facility which normalises microplate output so that it matches values achievable with 1-cm pathlength spectrophotometer (Lampinen et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2001). Instrumental PPC employ infra-red measurements taken at 900 and 975 nm to determine the height of water within each well. Absorbance readings are then adjusted to 1-cm pathlength according the height of fluid detected, on a well-by-well basis. PPC can correct for well-to-well differences in pipetting volume, improve assay precision, and enable the direct calculation of analyte concentration using Beer's law (Lampinen et al., 2012).

Fig. 2 shows calibration graphs for mFRAP2 assay with AFS, gallic acid, or ascorbic acid prior to pathlength correction. The concentrations plotted in Fig. 2 were adjusted for sample dilution. Table 1 shows calibration parameters for mFRAP1 and mFRAP2 assays without and with pathlength correction.

The average value for ϵ ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$) using the mFRAP1 and mFRAP2 assays was 141,698 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for gallic acid, 49,328 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for ascorbic acid, and 21,606 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for AFS. There are no published microplate based molar absorptivity values for food antioxidants for comparison (Tsao et al., 2003). However, Pulido et al. (2000) reported the molar absorptivity for a manual FRAP assay as 113,900, 46,580, or 14,620 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for gallic acid, ascorbic acid and ferrous sulphate, respectively. Stratil and co-workers found absorptivity values of 100,500 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for gallic acid, 28,200 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for ascorbic acid and 19,800 $\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ for AFS (Stratil et al., 2006). The literature values for gallic acid and ascorbic acid are lower than values for the mFRAP assay whereas Fe^{2+} values agree well. One possible reason for differences in results may be that the previous reactions were performed over a restricted time-frame and did not go fully to completion (Stratil et al., 2006).

The molar absorptivity is related to the FRAP-value ($\mu\text{M Fe}^{+2}$ equivalents), which is a common empirical index of antioxidant capacity of food compounds. Typically, the FRAP-value is determined using a "single-point" calibration performed with a fixed concentration of AFS, C_f (μM) in accordance with Eq. (3);

$$\text{FRAP value } (\mu\text{M}) = C_f * A593_{\text{Test}}/A593_{\text{Fe}^{2+}} \quad (3)$$

where "Test" and " Fe^{2+} " refer to values for the test compound and for AFS standard solution, respectively. Typically, the FRAP-value is also adjusted for a unit mass (e.g., per gram) of food sample (Carlsen et al., 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2006). The A593 term from Eq. (3) can be substituted with molar absorptivity (Eq. (1)) followed by rearrangement to yield a dimensionless FRAP value (Eq. (4));

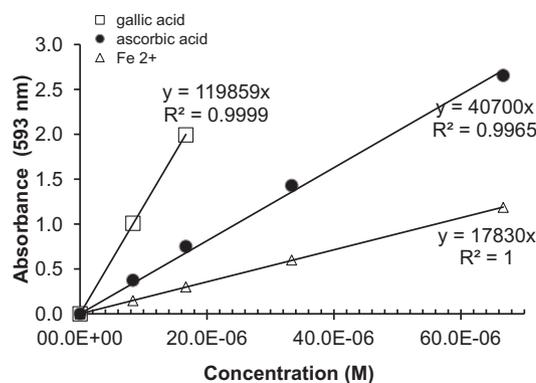


Fig. 2. Calibration graphs for microplate-FRAP assays for gallic acid, ascorbic acid or ferrous ammonium sulphate. Solutions (20 μl) and 280 μl FRAP solutions were reacted in 96-well microplate and A593 was recorded with a plate reader.

$$\text{FRAP-value}/C_f = \varepsilon_{\text{Test}}/\varepsilon_{\text{Fe}^{2+}} = A593_{\text{Test}}/A593_{\text{Fe}^{2+}} \quad (4)$$

In fact, the dimensionless FRAP-value describes Fe^{2+} equivalents or the number of moles of ferric (Fe^{2+}) ions produced by one mole of antioxidant during the FRAP assay (Halvorsen & Blomhoff, 2011). To determine the dimensionless FRAP-value both the test-compound and the AFS are analysed at the same molar concentration (C_f).

According to results from the present study (Table 1) and Eq. (4), gallic acid has a dimensionless FRAP-value of 6.5 Fe^{2+} equivalents whilst ascorbic acid has a FRAP response equal to 2.3 Fe^{2+} equivalents. Previous investigations found that ascorbic acid, α -tocopherol and uric acid had a “relative FRAP activity” of 2.0 units compared to 1 unit for ferrous sulphate. One mole bilirubin was found to reduce 4 mol of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} . The Fe^{2+} equivalents for serum albumin was 0.1 so that 10-mol of protein were required reduce one mole of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} (Benzie & Strain, 1996, 1999). Other investigations found that one mole of gallic acid reacts with 6.6–7.8 mol Fe^{3+} but ascorbic acid reacts with 1.2–2.0 molecules of Fe^{3+} during the manual FRAP assay (Pulido et al., 2000; Stratil et al., 2006). The FRAP response for quercetin and tannin were consistent with 11–12 Fe^{2+} equivalents compared to 1.0 for resveratrol (Pulido et al., 2000; Stratil et al., 2006). Structure–activity studies showed that the FRAP-value for phenols was strongly correlated with their redox potential determined by cyclic voltammetry (Firuzi et al., 2005).

The antimicrobial effects of medicinal honeys are attributed to a number of bioactive components e.g., hydrogen peroxide, bee defensins, methylglyoxal or polyphenols though the relative importance of these agents remains uncertain (Weston, 2000; Snow & Manley, 2004). The peroxide free anti-microbial activity of Manuka honey is thought to be dependent on the levels of methylglyoxal and polyphenols (Kwakman et al., 2011). In this study, we applied the mFRAP1 assay to five different honeys with different “Unique Manuka Factor” (UMF) ratings which shows the anti-septic activity of honey in terms of the equivalent percent solution of phenol (Molan, 2008).

Table 2 shows the FRAP results for total antioxidant capacity of Manuka honey expressed as, $\mu\text{M Fe}^{2+}$ per 10% honey (Jubri, Rahim, & Aan, 2013) or as mmol Fe^{2+} per 100 g of honey (Carlsen et al., 2010). Table 2 also shows total phenols content (mg GAE/kg) of Manuka honey samples and their UMF rating. The current estimates for total antioxidant capacity (Table 2) are up to 2-fold higher compared with results appearing in the literature for Manuka honey samples though previous studies did not report the UMF rating. For example, the FRAP value was $215.7(\pm 50) \mu\text{M Fe}^{2+}$ per 10% honey with a total phenols content of $201(\pm 36) \text{mg GAE/kg}$ (Jubri, Rahim, & Aan, 2013). A comprehensive study of Malaysian honeys and Manuka honey by Moniruzzaman, Sulaiman, Khalil, and Gan (2013) reported the FRAP value of $648(\pm 0.9) \mu\text{M Fe}^{2+}$ /100 g and total phenols value of $526(\pm 12) \text{mg GAE/kg}$ for Manuka

honey of undeclared UMF rating. In agreement with the cited investigations, we found the FRAP values for honeys were highly correlated with total phenols content ($R^2 = 0.982$).

The present study demonstrates also that FRAP values for Manuka honey are highly correlated with their UMF rating ($R^2 = 0.977$). Moreover, the UMF value could be predicted from the total phenols content of Manuka honeys according to the straight-line equation; $\text{UMF} = 0.065 \text{TP} - 19.159$ ($R^2 = 0.999$), where TP is the total phenols content (mg-GAE/kg honey). Apparently 99.9% and 97.7% of the UMF rating for the Manuka honey considered in this study can be accounted for in terms of changes of total phenols content and total antioxidant capacity, respectively. Finally, it is instructive to compare the FRAP values from Table 2 with values tabulated for 3100 foods, herbs, beverages, and supplements expressed on the basis of mmol Fe^{2+} per 100 g (Carlsen et al., 2010). Apparently, the total antioxidant capacity for Manuka honey samples are comparable to the FRAP values recorded for apple juice (0.27), cocoa drink with milk (0.37) and tomato juice (0.48).

In conclusion, this study demonstrated that microplate readers will underestimate the sensitivity for colorimetric analysis compared to data from a 1-cm pathlength spectrophotometer. However, the effective optical pathlength for a microplate reader can be readily determined under conditions not far removed those used for the mFRAP assay. The molar absorptivity values for gallic acid and ascorbic acid were determined clearly for the first time using the mFRAP format. Using the average calibration parameters for mFRAP1 and 2, the minimum detectable concentration and upper limit of linearity were determined (Owusu-Apenten, 2002) as 0.92×10^{-7} and $250 \times 10^{-7} \text{M}$ for gallic acid, respectively. For ascorbic acid the minimum detectable concentration and upper limit of linearity was 2.0×10^{-7} and $\geq 670 \times 10^{-7} \text{M}$, respectively. Analysis of New Zealand Manuka honey showed that the total antioxidant capacity is related to the UMF rating. The pathlength corrections described here should be applicable to other microplate based assays for total antioxidant capacity. The methodology detailed in the current could be useful in evaluating antioxidant assays on a variety of different platforms.

Acknowledgement

We are grateful for the School of Biomedical Sciences, for supporting this work.

References

- Benzie, I. F., & Choi, S. W. (2014). Antioxidants in food: Content, measurement, significance, action, cautions, caveats, and research needs. *Advances in Food & Nutrition Research*, 71, 1–53.
- Benzie, I. F. F., & Strain, J. J. (1996). The ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) as a measure of “antioxidant power”: The FRAP assay. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 239(1), 70–76.
- Benzie, I. F. F., & Strain, J. J. (1999). Ferric reducing antioxidant power assay: Direct measure of total antioxidant activity of biological fluids and modified version for simultaneous measurement of total antioxidant power and ascorbic acid concentration. *Oxidants and Antioxidants, Pt A*, 299, 15–27.
- Berker, K. I., Guclu, K., Tor, I., & Apak, R. (2007). Comparative evaluation of Fe (III) reducing power-based antioxidant capacity assays in the presence of phenanthroline, batho-phenanthroline, tripyridyltriazine (FRAP), and ferricyanide reagents. *Talanta*, 72(3), 1157–1165.
- Carlsen, M. H., Halvorsen, B. L., Holte, K., Bohn, S. K., Dragland, S., Sampson, L., et al. (2010). The total antioxidant content of more than 3100 foods, beverages, spices, herbs and supplements used worldwide. *Nutrition Journal*, 9, 11.
- Collins, P., Diehl, H., & Smith, G. F. (1959). 2,4,6-Tripyridyl-s-triazine as reagent for iron. Determination of iron in limestone, silicates, and refractories. *Analytical Chemistry*, 31(11), 1862–1867.
- Firuzi, O., Lacanna, A., Petrucci, R., Marroso, G., & Saso, L. (2005). Evaluation of the antioxidant activity of flavonoids by “ferric reducing antioxidant power” assay and cyclic voltammetry. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta-General Subjects*, 1721(1–3), 174–184.
- Fraga, C. G., Oteiza, P. I., & Galleano, M. (2014). In vitro measurements and interpretation of total antioxidant capacity. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta*, 1840(2), 931–934.

Table 2

FRAP value and total phenols content of Manuka honey related to UMF rating.

UMF rating	FRAP ($\mu\text{M Fe}^{2+}$ /10% honey) ^a	FRAP (mmol Fe^{2+} /100 g) ^b	Total phenol (mg GAE/kg) ^c
–	197(± 62)	0.20(± 0.061)	208(± 20)
5	545(± 123)	0.54(± 0.123)	372(± 22)
10	611(± 93)	0.61(± 0.093)	453(± 16)
15	677(± 78)	0.68(± 0.077)	524(± 24)
18	756(± 81)	0.76(± 0.081)	576(± 20)

Notes: values are means (\pm SD) of eight determinations. UMF is Unique Manuka factor, FRAP value is expressed (a) as 10^{-6}M Fe (II) reduced by 10% solution of honey or (b) as $10^{-3} \text{moles Fe (II)}$ reduced per 100 g of honey; (c) total phenols was determined by Folin method is expressed as mg-Gallic Acid Equivalents (GAE). Values in all columns are significantly different by ANOVA ($p < 0.05$).

- Gulcin, I. (2012). Antioxidant activity of food constituents: An overview. *Archives of Toxicology*, 86(3), 345–391.
- Halvorsen, B. L., & Blomhoff, R. (2011). Validation of a quantitative assay for the total content of lipophilic and hydrophilic antioxidants in foods. *Food Chemistry*, 127(2), 761–768.
- Halvorsen, B. L., Carlsen, M. H., Phillips, K. M., Bohn, S. K., Holte, K., Jacobs, D. R., et al. (2006). Content of redox-active compounds (i.e., antioxidants) in foods consumed in the United States. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 84(1), 95–135.
- Hayes, W. A., Mills, D. S., Neville, R. F., Kiddie, J., & Collins, L. M. (2011). Determination of the molar extinction coefficient for the ferric reducing/antioxidant power assay. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 416(2), 202–205.
- Huang, D. J., Ou, B. X., & Prior, R. L. (2005). The chemistry behind antioxidant capacity assays. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53(6), 1841–1856.
- Issopoulou, P. B., & Salta, S. E. (1997). High-sensitive spectrophotometric determination of micromolar concentrations of D-Penicillamine by means of a coupled redox-complexation reaction. *Farmaco*, 52(2), 113–118.
- Jimenez-Alvarez, D., Giuffrida, F., Vanrobaeys, F., Golay, P. A., Cotring, C., Lardeau, A., et al. (2008). High-throughput methods to assess lipophilic and hydrophilic antioxidant capacity of food extracts in vitro. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 56(10), 3470–3477.
- Jubri, Z., Rahim, N. B. A., & Aan, G. J. (2013). Manuka honey protects middle-aged rats from oxidative damage. *Clinics*, 68(11), 1446–1454.
- Kwakman, P. H. S., Velde, A. A. T., de Boer, L., Vandenbroucke-Grauls, C. M. J. E., & Zaat, S. A. J. (2011). Two major medicinal honeys have different mechanisms of bactericidal activity. *PLoS One*, 6(3), e17709. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0017709>. Retrieved August, 2014, from <<http://www.plosone.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0017709>>.
- Lampinen, J., Raitio, M., Perälä, A., Oranen, H., & Harinen, R.-R. (2012). Microplate based pathlength correction method for photometric DNA quantification assay. Retrieved July, 2014, from <http://www.thermoscientific.de/eThermo/CMA/PDFs/Various/File_60220.pdf>
- Magalhaes, L. M., Segundo, M. A., Reis, S., & Lima, J. L. (2008). Methodological aspects about in vitro evaluation of antioxidant properties. *Analytical Chimica Acta*, 613(1), 1–19.
- Molan, P. (2008). An explanation of why the MGO level in manuka honey does not show the antibacterial activity. *New Zealand Beekeeper*, 16(4), 11–13. Retrieved Oct, 2014, from <<http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/2142>>.
- Moniruzzaman, M., Sulaiman, S. A., Khalil, M. I., & Gan, S. H. (2013). Evaluation of physicochemical and antioxidant properties of sourwood and other Malaysian honeys: A comparison with Manuka honey. *Chemistry Central Journal*, 7(138), 1–2. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1752-153X-7-138>. Retrieved August, 2014, from <<http://journal.chemistrycentral.com/content/7/1/138>>.
- Moon, J. K., & Shibamoto, T. (2009). Antioxidant assays for plant and food components. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 57(5), 1655–1666.
- Owusu-Apenten, R. (2002). *Food protein analysis: Quantitative effects on processing*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Pulido, R., Bravo, L., & Saura-Calixto, F. (2000). Antioxidant activity of dietary polyphenols as determined by a modified ferric reducing/antioxidant power assay. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 48(8), 3396–3402.
- Singleton, V. L., Orthofer, R., & Lamuela-Raventos, R. M. (1999). Analysis of total phenols and other oxidation substrates and antioxidants by means of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. *Methods in Enzymology*, 299, 152–178.
- Smith, A. D., Morris, V. C., & Levander, O. A. (2001). Rapid determination of glutathione peroxidase and thioredoxin reductase activities using a 96-well microplate format: Comparison to standard cuvette-based assays. *International Journal for Vitamin and Nutrition Research*, 71(1), 87–92.
- Snow, M. J., & Manley-Harris, M. (2004). On the nature of non-peroxide antibacterial activity in New Zealand Manuka honey. *Food Chemistry*, 84(10), 145–147.
- Sochor, J., Ryvolova, M., Krystofova, O., Salas, P., Hubalek, J., Adam, V., et al. (2010). Fully automated spectrometric protocols for determination of antioxidant activity: Advantages and disadvantages. *Molecules*, 15(12), 8618–8640. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/molecules15128618>. Retrieved Oct, 2014, from <<http://www.mdpi.com/1420-3049/15/12/8618>>.
- Stratil, P., Klejdus, B., & Kuban, V. (2006). Determination of total content of phenolic compounds and their antioxidant activity in vegetables – Evaluation of spectrophotometric methods. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 54(3), 607–616.
- Tsao, R., Yang, R., & Young, J. C. (2003). Antioxidant isoflavones in Osage orange, *Maclura pomifera* (Raf.) Schneid. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 51(22), 6445–6451.
- Weston, R. J. (2000). The contribution of catalase and other natural products to the antibacterial activity of honey: A review. *Food Chemistry*, 71(2), 235–239.