

1 **Exploring oxygen diffusion and respiration in pome fruits using non-**
2 **destructive gas in scattering media absorption spectroscopy**

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 Pome fruit stored under controlled atmosphere (CA) often suffer from hypoxia due to a mismatch
8 between the O₂ level in the storage rooms and the fruit's O₂ consumption. Fruit response based
9 O₂ sensing and control could be an efficient approach to reduce the hypoxia-related physiological
10 disorders and therefore increase the shelf life of the stored fruits. The aim of this research was to
11 validate and evaluate the application of nondestructive gas in scattering media absorption
12 spectroscopy (GASMAS) O₂ sensing in fruit post-harvest. In a first stage, the system involving a
13 tunable diode laser was validated on a fruit mimicking multilayer model system where high
14 correlations were observed between the measured and reference O₂ partial pressure ($r^2 \geq 0.9$).
15 Next, the GASMAS sensor was evaluated on two apple cultivars (*Malus x domestica* 'Golden
16 Delicious', *Malus x domestica* 'Nicoter') and one pear cultivar (*Pyrus x communis* 'Conference').
17 The observed GASMAS signal from the 'Golden delicious' apples was nearly 2 times higher than
18 the signal from the 'Nicoter' apples and nearly 5 times higher than from the 'Conference' pears.
19 Next, GASMAS measurements were performed on water submerged 'Golden Delicious' apple
20 and 'Conference' pear samples to investigate the difference in O₂ consumption in these fruits. It
21 was found that the calculated relative O₂ changes during respiration and the evolution of the O₂
22 partial pressure after nitrogen treatment for both of these fruit were different. It was hypothesized
23 that these findings may be attributed to differences in fruit porosity. Finally, the influence of skin
24 and additional surface coating on gas exchange was studied by immersing unpeeled, peeled and

25 coated samples in gaseous nitrogen for 2 h prior to the measurement. The coating was found to
26 reduce the gas exchange compared to unpeeled samples which already exhibited a lower
27 exchange rate than the peeled samples. Based on these findings it was concluded that
28 introduction of non-destructive GASMAS O₂ sensors in CA storage of pome fruits could help in
29 reducing hypoxia related disorders, thereby improving the quality and shelf-life of stored fruit.

30 **Keywords:** hypoxia, O₂ diffusion, GASMAS, liquid phantom model, Monte Carlo simulations, CA.

31 1. INTRODUCTION

32 Oxygen is a key element in many metabolic pathways in plants, including respiration. Respiration
33 results in physiological as well as biochemical changes in living tissues. In climacteric fruit like
34 pome fruit the respiration rate surges in concert with the ethylene production rate at the onset of
35 ripening (Busatto et al., 2017). To prevent fast ripening and senescence of pome fruit, controlled
36 atmosphere (CA) storage is commonly used to reduce ethylene biosynthesis and respiration. This
37 is achieved by reducing the O₂ level of the cool store while increasing the CO₂ level (Thompson
38 and Bishop, 2016). Because of the resistance of the skin and cortex tissue with respect to
39 diffusion, O₂ and CO₂ gradients develop and the local O₂ partial pressure may decrease to levels
40 beyond which the respiration metabolism stalls and fermentation takes over. The ATP yield of the
41 latter pathway is much lower and at some point, the fruit can no longer sustain essential
42 maintenance processes such as membrane repair. This may lead to loss of cell integrity, browning
43 reactions may occur due to oxidation of phenolic substrates (Ho et al., 2013) and internal browning
44 symptoms. Novel storage methodologies such as dynamic controlled atmosphere (DCA) storage
45 (Bessemans et al., 2016) impose even much lower O₂ levels compared to conventional CA
46 storage. Knowledge of local O₂ and CO₂ partial pressure inside the fruit during hypoxic storage
47 is, therefore, essential to understand the changes in the fruit physiology during controlled
48 atmosphere storage and further develop novel dynamic controlled atmosphere methodologies.

49 Several sensor principles to measure the local O_2 partial pressure in a variety of plant organs
50 have been evaluated in the literature (van Dongen and Licausi, 2014). Traditional polarographic
51 sensor based O_2 sensing and profiling was common in earlier days. Macro or micro electrodes
52 are inserted into the plant organ and the resulting electric current which is proportional to the
53 amount of oxygen in the tissue is measured (Armstrong, 1993). Gas sampling from an interior
54 surface of the plant tissue and then analyzing it using gas chromatography is another method
55 of internal oxygen sensing (Lammertyn et al., 2001; Cindy et al., 2012; van Dongen and Licausi,
56 2014). More recently, an optical O_2 sensing technique was developed based on an oxygen-
57 sensitive fluorophore in a foil or fiber tip. By placing the sensor foil on a biological sample or
58 inserting fluorescent optical needle into the tissue intracellular oxygen concentration can be
59 obtained (Ho et al., 2010; Rolletschek and Liebsch, 2017). However, all these methods are
60 destructive and less applicable for internal oxygen measurements of fruit. A noninvasive
61 measurement of internal gas concentrations in pome fruit tissue is very difficult, though, as
62 inserting, for example, a needle oxygen probe may cause leakage of oxygen along the shaft of
63 the needle and invalidate the measurements. Alternatively, the focus has been on gas transport
64 models at multiple scales (Ho et al., 2008) that have been validated to some extent. However,
65 there is a need for noninvasive methods to measure the local O_2 partial pressure in pome fruit in
66 response to different storage atmospheres to further validate these models.

67 Gas in scattering media absorption spectroscopy (GASMAS), a technique based on tunable diode
68 laser absorption spectroscopy (TDLAS), has been proposed as an alternative for non-destructive
69 detection of oxygen in highly scattering media (Sjöholm et al., 2001). The gas absorption features
70 are 10,000 times sharper than those of the surrounding bulk media and each gas has its own
71 wavelength-dependent absorption imprint. This promotes selective detection of a gas of interest
72 in a turbid medium. A wavelength tuned and frequency modulated diode laser paired with a highly
73 sensitive detector helps to perform selective and sensitive detection of gases from the noisy

74 scattering media in GASMAS. Although the technique is predominantly used to measure oxygen
75 and water vapor (Svanberg, 2013), it has also been validated for carbon dioxide (Svensson and
76 Shen, 2010) and methane (Ding et al., 2014). GASMAS has already been applied in various areas
77 as diverse as food packaging (Boonruang et al., 2012; Lewander et al., 2008), pharmaceutical
78 preparations (Svensson et al., 2008), diagnostics of lungs and body cavities (Persson et al., 2007;
79 Lewander et al., 2011) and in the construction of materials (Zhang and Svanberg, 2016). In the
80 postharvest domain, it has been applied to study the role of fruit skin on the exchange of oxygen
81 (Persson et al., 2006), oxygen signal intensity variation during tropical fruit ripening (Zhang et al.,
82 2014) and to investigate the pressure changes after vacuum impregnation of apple (Tylewicz et
83 al., 2012). However, most of these experiments were performed on high porosity fruit like apple
84 where the signal to noise ratio is comparatively high, while lower porosity fruit are more
85 susceptible to hypoxia. Therefore, it would be valuable to also quantify their intercellular oxygen
86 levels to better control the post-harvest storage conditions.

87 One of the main limitations of the GASMAS technique is that the GASMAS signal is not only
88 influenced by the gas concentration, but also by the path length travelled through the medium
89 (Mei et al., 2014). Light propagation through fruit tissues is the result of a complex interplay of
90 light scattering and light absorption. The amount of scattering depends on the structure and
91 density of cellular components, whereas the absorption is mainly caused by the presence of
92 different chemical compounds. Light propagation simulations can provide insight into the light-
93 tissue interaction in scattering media. The Monte Carlo (MC) method is suitable to simulate tissue
94 layers with arbitrary optical parameters. The potential of MC simulations to predict light transport
95 through fruit tissues has already been demonstrated for apple (Vaudelle and L'Huillier, 2015) and
96 peach (Ding et al., 2015). In the context of GASMAS sensing, MC simulations could help to
97 understand the light-tissue interaction and model the relation between the oxygen concentration
98 in a diffuse medium and the GASMAS signal.

99 Given the importance of non-destructive intercellular O₂ measurements for CA storage and the
100 lack of reports on GASMAS application in low porosity fruit like pear, the aim of this study was to
101 validate and evaluate a GASMAS O₂ sensor for monitoring of the oxygen concentration in pome
102 fruits. It builds on the sentinel discovery work on non-destructive measurement of oxygen diffusion
103 in apples reported by Persson et al. (2006) and extends it to respiration studies in intact pome
104 fruit with different porosities with and without edible coating.

105 In the first part, the performance of the GASMAS sensor is validated using an Intralipid® liquid
106 phantom model with a range of O₂ levels and scattering values covering typical values for pome
107 fruit skin and flesh. MC simulations are used to obtain insight in the light propagation through the
108 diffuse media and optimize the design of the model systems. In the second part, the applicability
109 of the GASMAS sensor is evaluated on pome fruit with high and low porosity to study the relation
110 between fruit porosity and O₂ depletion due to respiration. As edible coatings are often used in
111 post-harvest storage, their effect on diffusion resistance is also studied

112 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

113 **2.1 GASMAS oxygen sensor**

114 A non-destructive O₂ sensor (GasSpect™, GASPOROX AB, Sweden) operating according to the
115 TDLAS principle (Linnerud et al., 1998) was used in the current study. The compact portable
116 sensor is configured in transmitter-receiver format. The transmitter box consists of a tunable diode
117 laser source (0.044 W), laser control module and a collimating lens package. A large area Si
118 photodetector (10 mm²) and receiver electronics are the main components of the receiver box.
119 The system measures the average O₂ partial pressure along the optical line-of-sight where the
120 O₂ in the air between the laser source and the sample was removed by nitrogen flushing. While
121 performing measurements with the model systems, the diffuse transmitted light was detected by
122 placing the transmitter and receiver boxes opposite to each other. In the case of fruit, a diffusively

123 reflected signal was collected by positioning the source and detector module in a 45° angle
124 configuration (Figure 1). Laser light scanned across the absorption line of oxygen (760 nm), while
125 the receiver unit continuously monitored the changes in light intensity. The system output is
126 corresponds to optical path length (m) times the O₂ partial pressure (kPa).

127 **2.2 Simulation of GASMAS signal for multilayer model systems**

128 A multilayer tissue mimicking model system was designed for validating the accuracy of the
129 GASMAS sensor in measuring the concentration of O₂ gas in a turbid medium. Monte Carlo (MC)
130 simulations were performed to quantify the fraction of photons transmitted through the model
131 system for different combinations of thickness and bulk optical properties (BOP) of the model
132 layers. The MC simulations were run in Matlab (2018) for a total of 4 x 10⁶ photons with a
133 Gaussian beam profile for an irradiation wavelength at 760 nm. The photons irradiated on the first
134 phantom layer are diffusively transmitted to the middle gas layer. Here a fraction of the photons
135 are absorbed, while the remaining ones are diffusively transmitted through the third phantom
136 layer. The influence of scattering on the light propagation was studied by changing the phantom
137 layer's bulk scattering coefficient (μ_s) from 20 cm⁻¹ to 200 cm⁻¹. The bulk absorption coefficient
138 (μ_a) of the gas layer (0.0002 cm⁻¹) was set to the value for oxygen at 760 nm (Tian et al., 2009).
139 The bulk optical properties considered in the simulation are summarized in Table 1. For
140 simulation models of varying scattering and O₂ layer thicknesses, the light propagation was
141 quantified in terms of reflection, absorption and transmission. Further, the influence of phantom
142 layer scattering on the laser irradiance was studied for three chosen scattering (μ_s) levels: 20 cm⁻¹,
143 100 cm⁻¹ and 200 cm⁻¹.

144 **Table 1.** Optical properties used in the MC simulations for the propagation of photons
145 with a wavelength of 760 nm through the model system. μ_s = bulk scattering coefficient;
146 μ_a = bulk absorption coefficient; g = anisotropy factor; n = refractive index.

147

Layers	μ_s (cm^{-1})	μ_a (cm^{-1})	g	n	Thickness (m)
Liquid phantom	20; 100; 200	0.0	0.9	1.36	0.004
Oxygen	0.0	0.0002	1	1	0.02, 0.05, 0.10

148

149 2.3 Evaluation of GASMAS oxygen sensor

150 2.3.1 Model systems

151 Based on the MC simulations, a physical model system consisting of two liquid Intralipid®
152 phantom layers and a central O₂ layer was designed to validate the performance of the GASMAS
153 sensor in porous media. The side phantom layers consisted of transparent 0.05 x 0.05 x 0.004 m
154 glass cuvettes and in between these cuvettes a gas layer was built by using an open ended plastic
155 tube which was tightly glued in between two glass cuvettes. Model systems with three different
156 O₂ layer thicknesses including 0.02 m, 0.05 m, and 0.10 m were used to investigate the effect of
157 the path length in gas on the GASMAS signal. A gas mixing panel was used to prepare gas
158 sampling bags with different O₂ partial pressures: 0.01 kPa, 0.2 kPa, 0.5 kPa and 1 kPa. Two
159 valves were used to control the in- and outflow of O₂ in the model system. Different Intralipid®
160 (Fresenius Kabi, Germany) volume concentrations (Q_p) were used to prepare solutions of three
161 different scattering levels (μ_s): 20 cm^{-1} , 100 cm^{-1} and 200 cm^{-1} (Aernouts et al., 2014):

$$162 \quad \mu_s = \frac{\mu_s^{indep}}{0.227} \times Q_p \times \frac{1 - Q_p^{P(\lambda)+1}}{[1 + Q_p^{(P(\lambda)-1)}]^{P(\lambda)-1}} \quad (2)$$

$$163 \quad \mu_s^{indep} = 1.868 \times 10^{10} \times \lambda^{-2.59} \quad (3)$$

$$164 \quad P(\lambda) = 1.31 + 0.0005481\lambda \quad (4)$$

165 Here, λ is wavelength in nm, μ_s^{indep} is the independent scattering and $P(\lambda)$ is the packing factor
166 at wavelength λ . The scattering properties of the different Intralipid® solutions were also verified

167 using double integrating spheres (DIS) measurements, as described by Aernouts et al. (2014).
168 For each Intralipid® solution, four different O₂ partial pressures were tested. For each Intralipid®
169 scattering-oxygen combination, the measurement was repeated three times and after each
170 measurement the gas chamber was flushed with nitrogen gas. As the length of each gas layers
171 are known, the oxygen concentration extracted from the obtained GASMAS signal (gas
172 concentration times the path length. Thereafter measured O₂ partial pressure plotted against the
173 reference O₂ partial pressure for different phantom scatterings.

174 **2.3.2 Fruit materials**

175 Three economically relevant pome fruit with different porosity which are mainly stored under CA,
176 being 'Golden delicious' and 'Nicoter' apples (*Malus x domestica* Borkh.), and 'Conference' pear
177 (*Pyrus communis* L.) were selected and collected from a local supermarket in Belgium. Three
178 samples of each cultivar were used in the GASMAS measurements.

179 **2.4.2 BioFresh™ coating and oxygen diffusion studies**

180 In this study, 1.2 % of BioFresh™ powder (Bel' Export, Belgium) was used to prepare the coating
181 solution in order to study the difference in diffusion resistance of a coated 'Golden delicious' apple
182 and 'Conference' pear compared to their uncoated counterparts. The fruit were dipped in the
183 prepared solution for a few minutes and then air dried. Afterwards, the BioFresh™ coated,
184 uncoated and peeled fruit were kept in three different gaseous nitrogen-filled jars for 2 h.
185 Immediately after taking the samples from the jars, the evolution of the O₂ partial pressure in the
186 fruit was measured with the GASMAS O₂ sensor until the GASMAS signal reached an equilibrium
187 value. The data was collected at a frequency of 3.28 Hz. As the GASMAS signal is influenced by
188 both the path length travelled through the tissue and the O₂ partial pressure in the intercellular
189 space, a change in O₂ partial pressure cannot be distinguished from a change in path length.
190 Therefore, the measured signals were converted in a relative O₂ partial pressure values,

191 calculated as the ratio of the GASMAS signal over the equivalent path length (L_{eq}). The latter was
192 estimated as the GASMAS signal measured for the same fruit when it was in equilibrium with the
193 atmospheric oxygen concentration of 20.9 %. The time evolution of these relative O_2 partial
194 pressure was then fitted with an exponential function to estimate the time constant, defined as
195 the time required to reach $1/e$ of the equilibrium value.

196 **2.4.3 Oxygen depletion due to respiration**

197 When the oxygen consumption for respiration is larger than the oxygen diffusion into the fruit, the
198 oxygen gas in the intracellular spaces will be depleted. To quantify the effect of fruit porosity on
199 this oxygen depletion due to respiration, pome fruit with two very different porosities, namely a
200 'Golden Delicious' apple and a 'Conference' pear were submerged in water with an average
201 temperature of 19°C for 15 min. It was expected that the very low dissolved O_2 content in the
202 water would minimize the entry of oxygen gas into the fruit (Ibanez et al., 2008), resulting in a
203 decrease in the intracellular O_2 partial pressure. Immediately after taking the fruit out of the water,
204 measurements were performed with the GASMAS O_2 sensor for 2 min. Afterwards, fruit were
205 placed back in the water for another 15 min. This procedure was repeated for 3 h. The relative
206 O_2 consumption was calculated from the observed GASMAS signals as explained in section 2.4.2.

207 **3. RESULTS**

208 **3.1 Effect of model system design on light propagation studied by MC simulations**

209 In Figure 2, the light propagation through the multilayer turbid model system simulated with an
210 MC simulation is illustrated. The detected power is estimated as the product of the laser output
211 power (0.044 W) and the relative transmission or the relative reflection. As expected, when the
212 Intralipid® phantom's bulk scattering coefficient (μ_s) increased from 20 cm^{-1} to 200 cm^{-1} , the diffuse
213 transmittance (T_d) through the model system was greatly reduced and this reduction was even
214 larger in thicker (0.02 m) phantom layers. With a decrease in phantom layer thickness from 0.02

215 m to 0.002 m, approximately a 4-fold increase in detected power was observed. The majority of
216 the photons was absorbed in the middle gas layer. As illustrated in Figure 2.B, the power absorbed
217 (absorption times the laser power) at 760 nm increased with layer thickness. Moreover, the
218 absorbed power slightly increased when the Intralipid® phantom layer scattering (μ_s) increased
219 from 20 cm⁻¹ to 200 cm⁻¹. In Figure 3, the variation in the intensity distribution is illustrated for
220 multi-layered model systems with different phantom layer scattering values. As the bulk scattering
221 coefficient (μ_s) increases from 20 cm⁻¹ to 200 cm⁻¹, a large portion of the photons diffuses in the
222 first phantom layer itself which thus reduces the intensity distribution in the subsequent layers. It
223 is also apparent from the simulations that the intensity distribution reduces with layer thickness
224 and the maximum intensity is found near the point of illumination.

225 **3.2 GASMAS oxygen sensor validation in scattering media**

226 In Figure 4, the results of the validation of the GASMAS O₂ sensor are illustrated for the Intralipid®
227 phantom models measured in transmittance mode. As illustrated in Figure 4.A, a significant
228 increase in GASMAS signal intensity was noticed when the O₂ partial pressure increased from
229 1 % to 100 %. Moreover, this effect seems to be linear as the signal intensity approximately
230 doubled when the O₂ partial pressure increased from 50 % to 100 %. It is also important to note
231 that the system could measure O₂ partial pressure as low as 1 % even though the detected signal
232 was more noisy. From the GASMAS signal, the O₂ partial pressure were estimated by considering
233 the physical length of the O₂ layers (0.02 m, 0.05 m and 0.10 m) to make a calibration graph for
234 three different scattering conditions, as shown in Figure 4.B to 4.D. The calculated O₂ partial
235 pressure are linearly correlated ($R^2 \geq 0.9$) with the reference O₂ partial pressures. However, by
236 increasing the Intralipid® scattering value (μ_s) from 20 cm⁻¹ to 200 cm⁻¹, the calculated O₂ partial
237 pressure increased by around 10 %. This is in agreement with the effect of scattering level on the
238 intensity of the absorption signal calculated from the MC simulations (Figure 2.B). Moreover, this
239 difference O₂ partial pressure is more clearly visible for the 0.02 m model system than for the 0.05

240 m and 0.10 m systems. This indicates that the equivalent path length travelled through the O₂
241 layer depends on the scattering level of the surrounding tissue. In apple, for example, this is
242 related to the size and density of the pores (Wang et al., 2020).

243 **3.3 Relation between fruit porosity and TDLAS signal**

244 As the attenuation of a light beam travelling through a thick layer of highly scattering tissue is very
245 high, the power of the light transmitted through the fruit was too low to obtain reliable signals.
246 Therefore, the pome fruit were measured in diffuse reflectance mode, as illustrated in Figure 1.
247 In Figure 5, the GASMAS signal obtained from ‘Golden delicious’ apples, ‘Nicoter’ apples and
248 ‘Conference’ pears is shown. As the GASMAS signal is influenced both by the path length
249 travelled through the tissue and the O₂ partial pressure in the intercellular space, a change in O₂
250 partial pressure cannot be distinguished from a change in path length. Therefore, the measured
251 signal is expressed in terms of equivalent path length (L_{eq}), the path length measured for a fruit in
252 equilibrium with the atmospheric O₂ partial pressure. The L_{eq} calculated for ‘Golden delicious’
253 apples was nearly 5 times longer than the value calculated for the ‘Conference’ pears and more
254 than 2 times longer than for the ‘Nicoter’ apples. Similar relations were observed for the porosity
255 of similar pome fruit (Ting et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2010), where ‘Golden delicious’ ($29 \pm 0.8 \%$) was
256 5 times more porous than ‘Conference’ pear ($6 \pm 1\%$) and nearly 2.5 times more than ‘Nicoter’
257 apple ($12 \pm 0.5\%$) (Verboven et al., 2008). Moreover, the L_{eq} estimated for the ‘Golden delicious’
258 apple was approximately 4 times longer than the maximum source detector separation (0.02 m),
259 and for ‘Nicoter’ it was around 2 times longer. However, in the case of the ‘Conference’ pear the
260 difference was negligibly small.

261 **3.4 Reduced oxygen diffusion due to BioFresh™ coating**

262 The diffusion dynamics observed after 2 h of nitrogen treatment for a peeled, unpeeled and
263 BioFresh™ coated ‘Golden delicious’ apple and ‘Conference’ pear are illustrated in **Error!**

264 **Reference source not found..** The estimated diffusion time constant for the BioFresh™ coated
265 'Golden delicious' apple is much longer (103 min) than for the uncoated (51.5 min) and peeled
266 (27.2 min) samples. A similar trend can be observed for the 'Conference' pears although the
267 estimated time constants were comparatively smaller in all three tested conditions. The peeled
268 and unpeeled 'Golden delicious' apples started off with the same O₂ partial pressure levels after
269 2 h of nitrogen treatment, whereas the BioFresh™ coated sample did not reach the same starting
270 point as the peeled and unpeeled samples. This suggests that the BioFresh™ coating also
271 hampered the nitrogen purging from the intercellular spaces. However, this hypothesis was not
272 confirmed in case of the 'Conference' pear, where the starting point fluctuated in all three tested
273 conditions.

274 **3.5 Respiration measurements for two different porosity fruit**

275 In Figure 7, the evolution of the O₂ partial pressure after submerging samples in water is illustrated
276 for a 'Golden delicious' apple and a 'Conference' pear. The indicated concentration values are an
277 averages of 2 min measurement. It should be noted that the 'Conference' pear consumed the
278 intercellular O₂ faster than the 'Golden delicious' apple. The Conference pear reached an
279 equilibrium state after 80 min, whereas the 'Golden delicious' apple took more than 180 min to
280 reach the equilibrium state. Also be noted that the rate of O₂ consumption in both fruit decreased
281 gradually with time. This can be attributed to the dependence of the respiration rate on the O₂
282 partial pressure (Kays, 1991).

283 **4. DISCUSSION**

284 Tissue simulating aqueous phantoms are commonly used for validating spectroscopic
285 applications in diffuse media (Ohmae et al., 2018). The Intralipid® liquid phantom models used in
286 this study were a coarse approximation of a porous turbid medium involving both scattering layers
287 and a gas phase to validate the GASMAS sensor performance in measuring the O₂ partial

288 pressure in porous tissues. As the thickness and BOP of tissue layers have a large influence on
289 the interaction of laser light with tissue (Raulin and Karsai, 2011), a Monte Carlo light propagation
290 model (Song et al., 2013; Watté et al., 2015) was used to optimize the layer thickness of the
291 phantom models. The selected phantom layer thickness (0.004 m) for our model was appropriate
292 to measure O₂ in diffuse transmission geometry even with high scattering (μ_s : 200 cm⁻¹). When
293 the thickness of the scattering layer increased to 0.02 m, barely any transmitted light could be
294 detected, especially for the high scattering levels (μ_s : 100 cm⁻¹ and μ_s : 200 cm⁻¹), which was in-
295 line with the simulation results (Figure 3). To overcome this limitation, Persson et al. (2007)
296 recommended to measure thicker samples with high scattering properties in diffuse reflectance
297 mode. The three layers considered in the proposed model system were either purely scattering
298 or absorbing. The two outer layers filled with Intralipid[®] mimic the highly scattering fruit skin, while
299 the middle layer, dominated by absorption, represents a very rudimental model of the porous fruit
300 cortex. However, in real fruit both of these optical events occur in a single tissue layer where the
301 incident light on the tissue surface propagates diffusely due to the strong scattering from the
302 cellular components, while photons are absorbed by the oxygen gas in the intercellular pores
303 (Vaudelle and L'Huillier, 2015; Svanberg, 2013). The model system used in this study does not
304 mimic the air-filled porous structures of fruit cortex correctly. Therefore, it is recommended to
305 define layers with mixed scattering and absorption features in future work in order to create a solid
306 porous model system that is more representative for the internal structure of pome fruit. The
307 design of such a model system could also be optimized through the use of more advanced MC
308 simulations.

309 The bulk scattering coefficient (μ_s) values of the prepared diffusion solutions were close to the μ_s
310 values reported for apple skin and flesh, respectively 200 cm⁻¹ and 100 cm⁻¹ (Van Beers et al.,
311 2017). The scattering solutions were prepared according to Eqns. (2)-(4) and were verified with
312 the DIS method which showed only a slight variation (± 5 cm⁻¹) from the theoretical value. We

313 speculate that this small deviation might be due to inaccurate solution preparation and mixing. As
314 the middle gas layer is purely absorbing and its thickness is directly related to the absorption
315 signal intensity (Beer-Lambert law), three layer thicknesses including 0.02 m, 0.05 m and 0.10 m
316 were selected for sensor validation. When light interacts with the first phantom layer, part of the
317 light undergoes specular and diffuse reflection, while the transmitted light travelled straight
318 through the gas layer where a fraction of it was absorbed depending on the concentration of O₂
319 molecules. Then, the remaining light goes to the third layer where it is scattered, resulting in a
320 part of the light being reflected back into the gas layer and a part being transmitted. This results
321 in variation in the average path length that the photons travel through the gas layer. Therefore,
322 the intensity measured by the detector is influenced both by the effective optical path length and
323 the O₂ partial pressure. However, the measured O₂ partial pressure (Figure 5.B-5.D) was
324 calculated based on the physical length of the gas layer instead of the effective optical path length
325 which is generally higher for high scattering media (Svanberg, 2013). This could explain the high
326 offset with a μ_s of 200 cm⁻¹ compared to 20 cm⁻¹. A less accurate O₂ partial pressure measurement
327 was noticed at low concentration (1%), suggesting that the sensor is less precise for low O₂ partial
328 pressures. A similar conclusion was reported by Cocola et al. (2016) for TDLAS O₂ sensor
329 validation on flow packages. Inefficient gas mixing may also have contributed to the increased
330 offset in the low concentration measurements. Persson et al. (2007b) demonstrated a phantom
331 model made up of two scattering polymeric Delrin-materials ($\mu_s \sim 140$ cm⁻¹) which were separated
332 by various air distances to validate the GASMAS O₂ sensor for application in the human sinus. In
333 comparison with those models, the current Intralipid® liquid phantom model was more efficient to
334 investigate the feasibility of the sensor in different scattering environments, including μ_s of 20 cm⁻¹
335 1,100 cm⁻¹ and 200 cm⁻¹. Also, the present model is not only focusing on the influence of path
336 length on the TDLAS signal intensity, but also the effect of different O₂ partial pressure on the
337 signal strength.

338 Although both pear and apple are climacteric fruit, pears are more prone to hypoxia-related
339 physiological disorders in CA storage (Ho et al., 2008). The evolution in the O₂ gas concentrations
340 measured in both pear and apple tissues using the non-destructive GASMAS O₂ sensor provide
341 interesting insights with respect to this. Even though the current system was limited to the
342 detection of diffuse reflected signals and the estimated O₂ partial pressure were only
343 representative for a small part of the intact fruit, it provides valuable information on the variation
344 in GASMAS signal between and within apples and pears. When laser light interacts with the fruit,
345 the light undergoes high scattering from its skin and then the diffuse light is transmitted through
346 the gas pores of the tissue (Wang et al., 2020). Light may take a long path through the scattering
347 tissue and so the detected absorption signal of unknown path length cannot provide an absolute
348 O₂ partial pressure according to the Beer-Lambert law. Due to this limitation, the TDLAS O₂
349 measurement expressed in terms of equivalent path length (L_{eq}) had to be related to the 20.9 %
350 of O₂ in the ambient air (Figure 6). The higher L_{eq} values obtained for the apple samples can both
351 be interpreted as an indication of a higher O₂ partial pressure in the intercellular cavities or a
352 larger path length through the large porous cavities. As the L_{eq} obtained for the apple samples
353 was much larger than that of the set maximum source and detector separation (~0.02 m), it is
354 hypothesized that the high L_{eq} is rather the result of a larger path through the porous cavities in
355 highly porous apple tissue than of a higher internal O₂ partial pressure. Moreover, the L_{eq} values
356 observed for the 'Golden delicious' apples were larger than those for the 'Nicoter' apples, which
357 is in line with the differences in porosity and void structures in terms of pore distribution and
358 connectivity reported by Verboven et al. (2008). Contrary to these findings, Persson et al. (2006)
359 reported similar L_{eq} values for slabs of different apple varieties including 'Jonagold', 'Granny
360 Smith', 'Red Delicious', 'Golden Delicious' and 'Royal Gala'. The intercellular spaces in pear
361 tissue are much smaller than in apple tissue and highly interconnected (Ho et al., 2008). This
362 might be the explanation for the lower GASMAS signals obtained for the pear samples and could
363 explain the low L_{eq} values obtained for the pear samples.

364 As there is an inverse relation between the respiration rate and post-harvest life, application of
365 the GASMAS technique for non-destructive fruit respiration measurement could provide a
366 remarkable contribution to the growing research on dynamic control storage (DCA). Generally,
367 atmospheric O₂ diffuses into the intercellular space through the skin and then subsequently
368 reaches the cells where it is utilized for cellular respiration (Ho et al., 2008). Gas diffusion is mainly
369 driven by the concentration gradient according to Fick's law. When fruit are dipped in water, where
370 the dissolved O₂ partial pressure is very low, approximately 1% compared to the 20.9 % O₂ in the
371 air (Ibanez et al., 2008), the normal gas exchange of fruit is interrupted, while respiration
372 continues. Gradually with time, the fruit consumes the O₂ available in the cells and intercellular
373 spaces to keep the cells alive. Therefore, the decrease in O₂ partial pressure in water submerged
374 fruit is most likely driven by their respiration level. The relative rate of O₂ consumption in pear was
375 faster than that in the apple samples, when they were water submerged and a measurement was
376 performed every 15 min for 3 h (Figure 7). The lower volume of air in the 'Conference' pear cortex
377 tissue compared to the 'Golden delicious' apple cortex might be the reason for the faster O₂
378 depletion in pear (Herremans et al., 2015). However, it could also be an indication of faster
379 respiration in pear compared to apple, which was suggested by Ho et al., (2018) from a
380 mathematical model based study. However, it should be noted that in this study the samples were
381 taken out of the water for each measurement, which may have elongated the time to reach the
382 equilibrium state. Therefore, it is recommended to avoid this exposure to ambient air during the
383 measurements in future studies.

384 From a gas diffusion study on fruit, Ho et al. (2008) concluded that gas diffusion depends on
385 microstructural properties including porosity, connectivity and cell distribution. To verify the
386 porosity dependent O₂ diffusion, a 'Golden delicious' apple and 'Conference' pear were
387 submerged in nitrogen for 2 h and then the O₂ re-inversion was observed. Additionally, peeled
388 and BioFresh™ coated samples were considered to verify the influence of skin and an additional

389 skin coating on diffusion. As fruit skin acts as a barrier for gas diffusion, the diffusion time
390 constants of both peeled 'Golden delicious' apple and 'Conference' pear were smaller than those
391 for the unpeeled and BioFresh™ coated samples. Moreover, in all three conditions, the diffusion
392 time constants for pear were found to be smaller than those for the apple samples. This confirms
393 that the gas diffusion in fruit depends on its tissue properties (Ho et al., 2008). Although 'Golden
394 delicious' apples are more porous than 'Granny Smith' apples (Ting et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2010),
395 the diffusion time constant observed in this study for 'Golden delicious' apples was more than 2
396 times larger than the values reported by Persson et al. (2006) for 'Granny Smith' apples. This
397 difference might be partially attributed to the longer nitrogen treatment of the 'Granny Smith'
398 apples in the study of Persson et al. (2006) (24 h) compared to the 2 h nitrogen treatment in the
399 present study. The obtained results also confirm that the addition of an edible coating increased
400 the diffusion resistance by blocking the pores partially or completely. The increased gas diffusion
401 resistance with coating is expected to reduce the respiration, which may help to prolong the shelf-
402 life of fruit if it does not lead to hypoxia in the inner fruit tissue. As fruit has O₂ partial pressure
403 gradient from its center towards the surface, understanding of this spatial O₂ gradient will give
404 more insight into the postharvest biology of fruit. Especially help to understand hypoxia-related
405 internal disorders (eg. Internal browning) which are common in CA stored fruit. Therefore, the
406 feasibility GASMAS technique for intact fruit oxygen spatial distribution mapping will be evaluated
407 in future research.

408 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

409 In this study, the application of a GASMAS sensor was validated and evaluated for non-
410 destructive intercellular O₂ measurement in pome fruit. A fruit mimicking Intralipid® liquid phantom
411 based model system provided insight into the relation between the O₂ partial pressure and the
412 signals acquired with the GASMAS sensor in scattering media. Measurements on economically
413 relevant pome fruit samples including 'Golden delicious' apples, 'Nicoter' apples and 'Conference'

414 pears provided insight in the variation in the GASMAS signals acquired on different fruit, which
415 could be attributed to the differences in the porosity of these fruit. When the fruit were submerged
416 in water, the O₂ partial pressure was found to decrease much faster in the pear samples than in
417 the apple samples. This could partly explain why pears are more sensitive to hypoxia related
418 storage disorders. It was also confirmed that the fruit skin acts as a barrier layer and removal of
419 the skin reduced the gas diffusion resistance. A slower diffusion was observed with a BioFresh™
420 coating on both pears and apples, confirming the potential of such coatings for respiration
421 reduction and retaining the fruit quality throughout storage life if the fruit do not suffer from
422 hypoxia. The obtained results confirm the potential of GASMAS sensors for non-intrusive gas
423 measurement in porous tissues, especially for the intracellular O₂ measurement in porous fruit
424 like apple and pear. This opens up possibilities for the use of GASMAS O₂ sensing to reduce
425 hypoxia related internal disorders in CA storage, thereby improving quality and shelf life of stored
426 pome fruit.

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518 **Figure captions**

519 Figure 1. Schematic drawing of source (S) and detector (D) position in front view for the
520 measurement setup for the model systems (A) and fruit (B).

521 Figure 2. Effects of gas layer thickness and scattering level (μ_s) on the transmitted and absorbed
522 light intensity was studied using MC simulations for a laser source of power 44 mW at 760 nm
523 wavelength: A) Estimated diffuse transmitted (T_d) and diffuse reflected (R_d) light through the
524 Intralipid[®] phantom model having different phantom layer thickness and scattering values (μ_s); B)
525 Influence of gas (O_2) layer thickness on light absorption.

526 Figure 3. A: Geometry of Intralipid[®] liquid phantom model used in MC simulation, observed
527 irradiance (H)(W.m²) on models of different Intralipid[®] scattering B: $\mu_s = 20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, C: $\mu_s = 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$,
528 $\mu_s = 200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

529 Figure 4. A. Normalized GASMAS signal for different concentrations of O_2 ; B, C, D: calculated O_2
530 partial pressure from GASMAS measurements for different phantom scattering levels (20 cm^{-1} ,
531 100 cm^{-1} and 200 cm^{-1} , respectively).

532 Figure 5. Relation between equivalent path length (m) and fruit intercellular oxygen and their
533 porosity values reported by other researchers (Ting et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2010).

534 Figure 6. Observed evolution in the intercellular O_2 partial pressure after immersing samples into
535 nitrogen gas for 2 h; A: Golden delicious, B: Conference pear.

536 Figure 7. Calculated relative O_2 partial pressure from GASMAS measurement for two different
537 porosity fruit.

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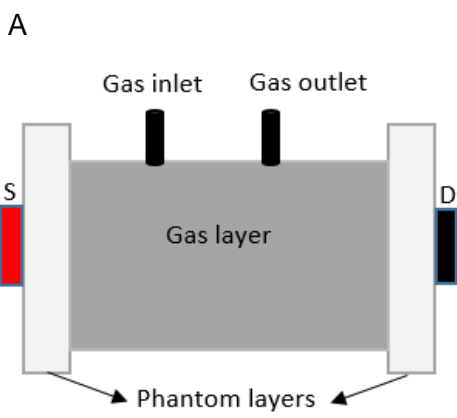
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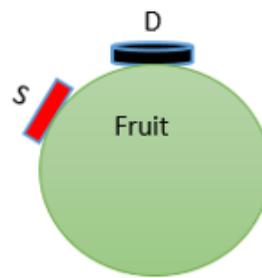
549 **Figure 1**

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B

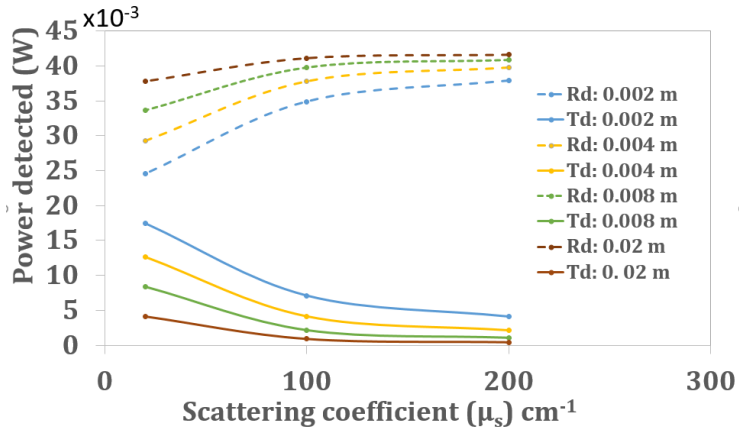


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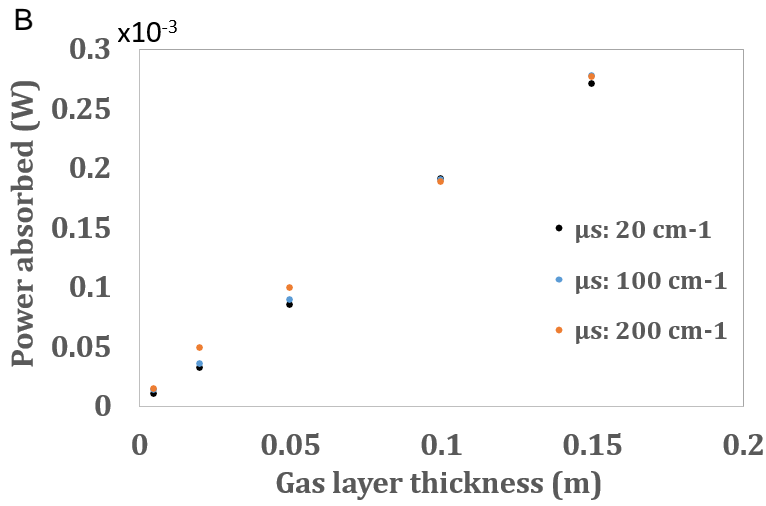
554 **Figure 2**

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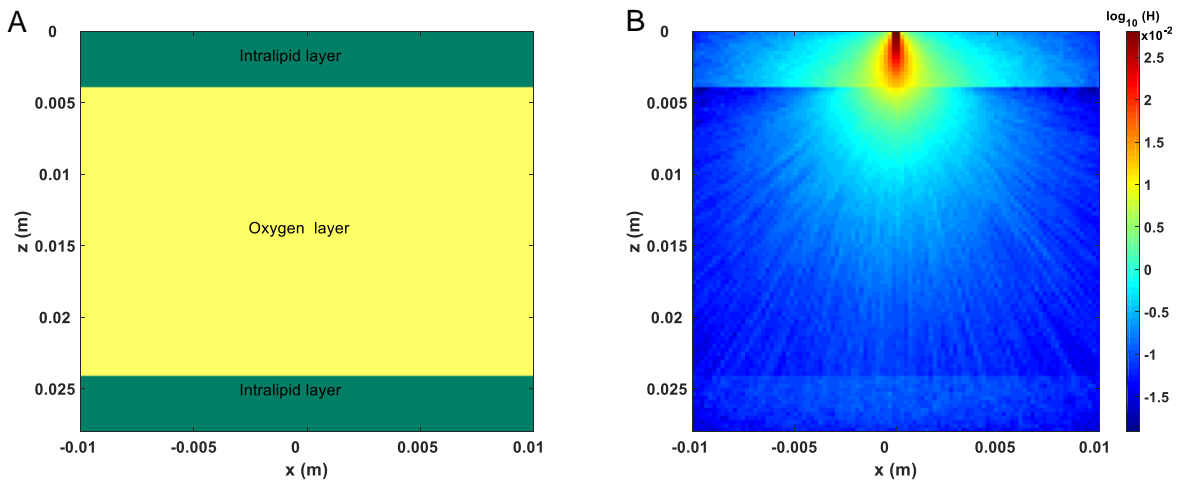
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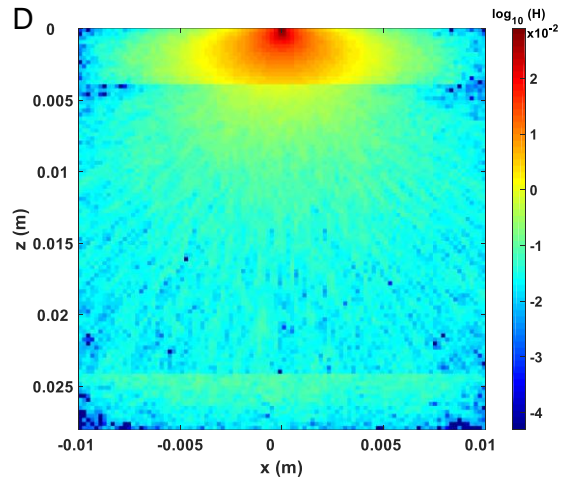
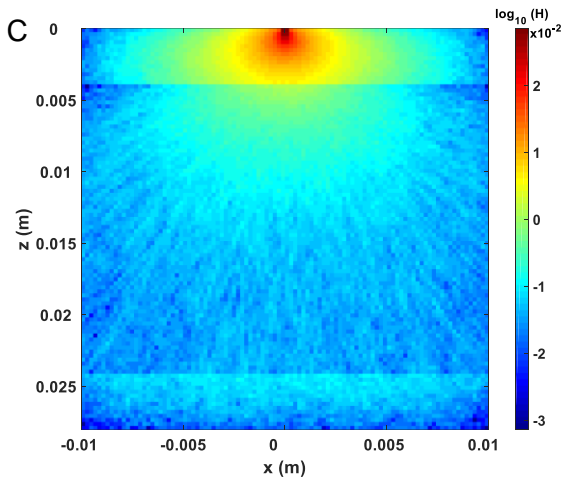
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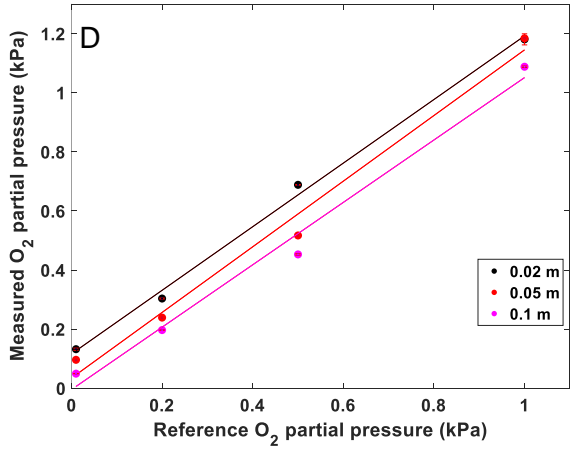
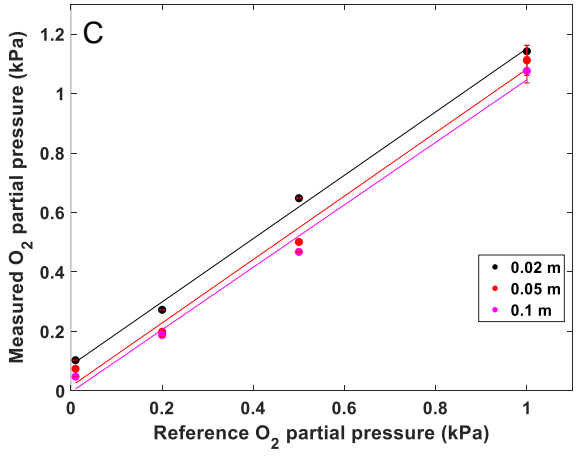
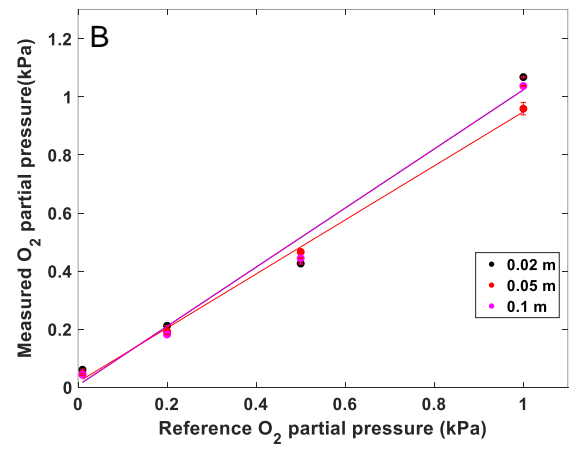
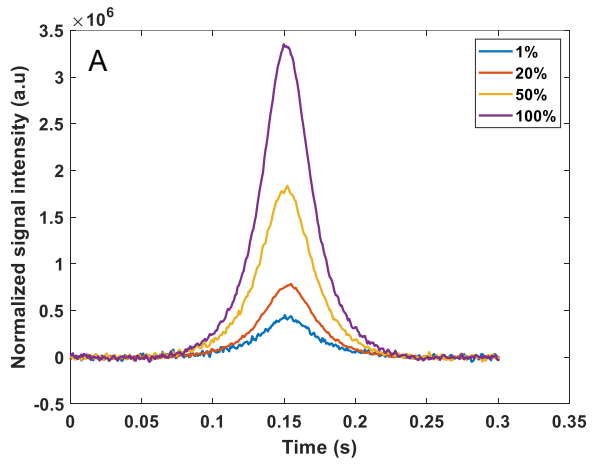
558 **Figure 3**



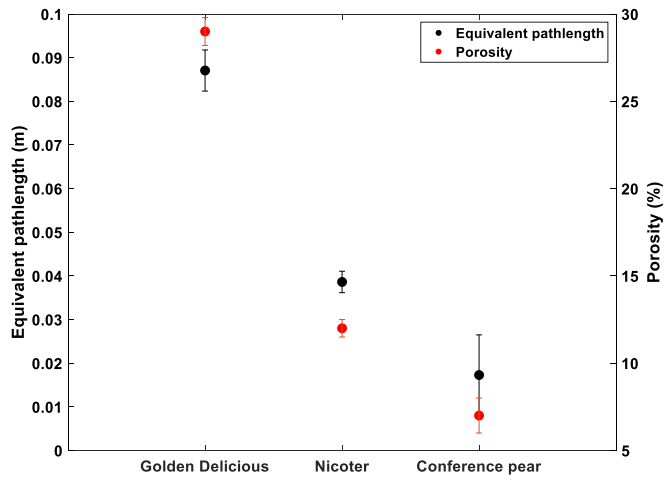


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560 **Figure 4**

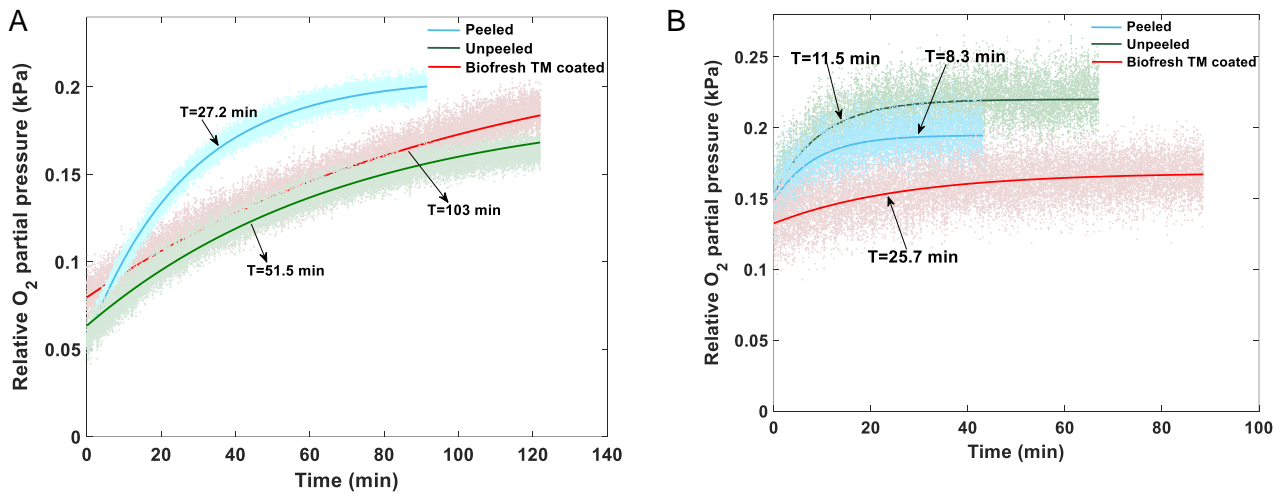


561 **Figure 5**

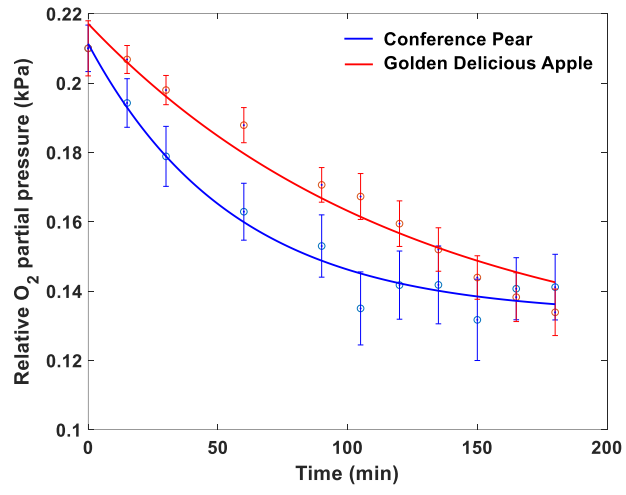


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563 **Figure 6**



564 **Figure 7**



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