

# 1 Nondestructive internal quality inspection of pear fruit by X-ray CT using 2 machine learning

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## 13 **ABSTRACT**

14 To preserve the quality of fresh pear fruit after harvest and deliver quality fruit year-round a controlled  
15 supply chain and long-term storage are applied. During storage, however, internal disorders can  
16 develop due to suboptimal storage conditions that may not cause externally visible symptoms. This  
17 makes them impossible to be detected by current commercial quality grading systems in a reliable and  
18 non-destructive way. A combination of a Support Vector Machine coupled with a feature extraction  
19 algorithm and X-ray Computed Tomography is proposed to successfully detect internal disorders in  
20 ‘Conference’ and ‘Cepuna’ pear fruit nondestructively. Classifiers were able to distinguish defective  
21 from sound fruit with classification accuracies ranging between 90.2 and 95.1 % depending on the  
22 cultivar and number of used features. Moreover, low false positive and negative rates were obtained,  
23 respectively ranging between 0.0 and 6.7 %, and 5.7 and 13.3 %. Classifiers trained on ‘Conference’  
24 data were transferred effectively to the ‘Cepuna’ cultivar, suggesting generalizability to other cultivars  
25 as well. With continuing developments in both hardware and software to increase inspection speed  
26 and reduce equipment costs, the method can be implemented in industrial applications, *e.g.*, inline  
27 translational X-ray CT.

## 28 **Keywords:**

29 Support Vector Machine; 3D imaging; image processing; postharvest technology; disorder  
30 detection; food grading

## 31 **1 INTRODUCTION**

32 A controlled supply chain and long-term storage is necessary to deliver quality fruit year-round.  
33 However, suboptimal storage conditions can cause severe quality loss by chilling injury, accelerated  
34 ripening and senescence, fermentation, stimulated pathogen growth or other physiological decay. The  
35 disorders that develop during growth or storage may not cause externally visible symptoms. Examples

36 are internal browning, watercore, bitter pit or cavities in the fruit tissue (Lu and Lu, 2017; Mercier et  
37 al., 2017).

38 Most commercial quality grading systems are based on external quality attributes only. Sensors for  
39 inline inspection of these attributes, most often based on visible and near-infrared (Vis-NIR)  
40 spectroscopy, are commercially available, but they do not allow to inspect internal quality attributes,  
41 such as absence of internal disorders, in a reliable way (Huang et al., 2020; Nicolai et al., 2014). In  
42 research, however, Vis-NIR has been used successfully to detect internal disorders. Han et al. (2006)  
43 reported false positive and negative rates of respectively 4.3 and 5.3 % for brown core detection in  
44 'Yali' pears using transmission vis-NIR spectroscopy at three different locations per sample with  
45 precisely aligned pears. Khatiwada et al. (2016) used transmission Vis-NIR spectroscopy to detect  
46 internal browning in 'Pink Lady™' apples with four spectra acquired of each fruit and reported a  
47 classification accuracy of more than 95 %. Huang et al. (2020) investigated transmission Vis-NIR  
48 spectroscopy to detect internal defects in 'Honeycrisp' apples by acquiring spectra from six different  
49 locations per fruit. Using the mean spectrum of the six measurements, a classification accuracy of up  
50 to 93.1 % was reported. For fruit with a defective tissue area less than 40 % of the total fruit tissue  
51 area being rated, the accuracy dropped to 77.3 %. The main challenges for using Vis-NIR for the  
52 inspection of the internal quality is that internal defects are mostly not uniformly distributed in the  
53 fruit. This causes the need for long exposure times, the requirement for a fixed orientation, or the need  
54 for multiple measurements from different positions (Lu and Lu, 2017). Additionally, the measured  
55 spectrum is hard to interpret and, moreover, depends on the fruit size, cultivar and season. Therefore,  
56 large amounts of data are required to perform calibration (Bobelyn et al., 2010; Nicolai et al., 2007).

57 Several visualization techniques have been proposed as an alternative to assess internal quality and  
58 disorders non-destructively. These include magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), X-ray radiography and  
59 X-ray computed tomography (CT) (Arendse et al., 2018; Kotwaliwale et al., 2014; Nicolai et al., 2014;  
60 Srivastava et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). For MRI, the remaining concerns are low image acquisition  
61 speed due to physical constraints, the need for a sufficiently powerful and homogenous magnetic field,  
62 high equipment costs, electromagnetic interference and motion artefacts (Colnago et al., 2014; Srivastava  
63 et al., 2018). X-ray radiography provides 2D transmission images of the scanned fruit with a contrast  
64 that scales with the accumulated amount of absorbed X-rays by the product. It can be easily  
65 implemented inline in the form of an X-ray line-scanner (Casasent et al., 1998; Jiang et al., 2008;  
66 Karunakaran et al., 2004; Kim and Schatzki, 2001, 2000; Kotwaliwale et al., 2007; Shahin et al., 2001;  
67 van Dael et al., 2016). X-ray radiography image contrast may, however, suffer from effects of fruit  
68 shape, volume and internal structure such that internal defects can be less prominent in the image

69 when they are, e.g., shadowed by the core of the fruit. Good detection and classification are then  
70 jeopardized unless advanced approaches are pursued (van Dael et al., 2018, 2017, 2015).

71 X-ray CT delivers 3D images of the X-ray absorption contrast, thereby resolving shape and volume of  
72 the fruit while providing better spatial information on the internal fruit structure and disorders than in  
73 radiographies. CT has been successfully used in research to analyze the internal quality of fruit and  
74 vegetables (Donis-González et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2014; Herremans et al., 2014, 2013; Jarolmasjed et  
75 al., 2016; Lammertyn et al., 2003a, 2003b; Muziri et al., 2016; Si and Sankaran, 2016). Yet, it is still  
76 challenging to use CT efficiently for high-throughput quality inspection, which limits its usage in  
77 industrial applications to the inspection of high value products at a relatively slow rate, or to its usage  
78 in research and development stages (Buratti et al., 2018; Wevers et al., 2018). However, recent  
79 developments in both reconstruction algorithms and hardware have made it possible to perform X-ray  
80 CT measurements inline by translating and rotating the sample at the same time, i.e., translational X-  
81 ray CT. To facilitate fast inline CT scanning new hardware equipment must be developed. However,  
82 these are technical challenges that, with enough resources available, can already be overcome.  
83 Moreover, by using prior knowledge about the products to train dedicated reconstruction algorithms,  
84 reconstructions can be made with far less projections than normally required (Alves Pereira et al.,  
85 2017; De Schryver et al., 2016; Janssens et al., 2018, 2016). The concerns that CT shares with MRI  
86 relating inspection speed and inline application might therefore be partially resolved.

87 To respond to these promising advancements, a nondestructive method for automated internal quality  
88 grading of pear fruit using machine learning is proposed, aimed to be implemented in inline  
89 translational X-ray CT. Hereto, a binary linear Support Vector Machine (SVM) is trained and tested on  
90 labeled X-ray CT reconstructions of control and defective pear fruit of the cultivars *Pyrus communis* L.  
91 cv. 'Conference' and *Pyrus communis* L. cv. 'Cepuna'. 'Conference' is one of the most important  
92 commercial cultivars in Europe, represents almost 90 % of the acreage of Belgian pears (Statbel, 2018),  
93 and is known to be susceptible to internal browning (Franck et al., 2007). 'Cepuna' is a cross between  
94 'Conference' and 'Doyenné d'Hiver' and used for testing the transferability of the method to other  
95 cultivars.

## 96 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 97 **2.1 Pear fruit and long-term storage**

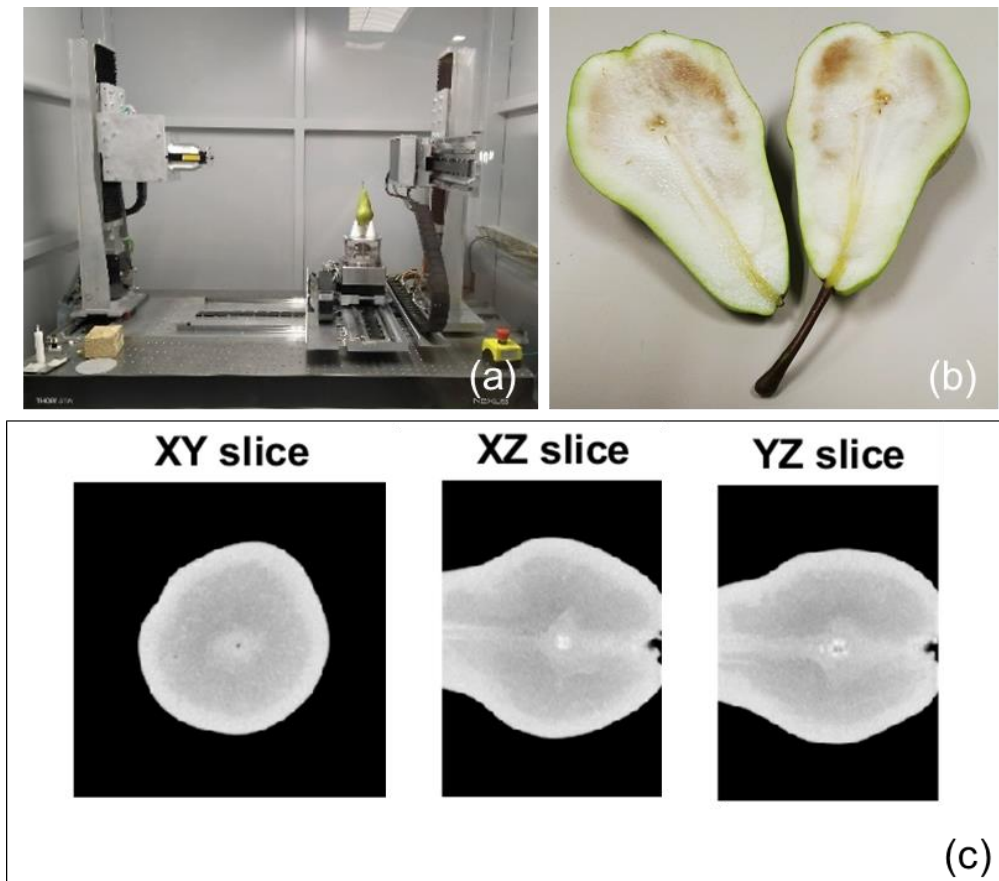
98 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' pears were respectively harvested on 14 and 25 September 2017 and  
99 delivered by a growers member of the Flemish fruit cooperatives BFV and Belorta (Belgium),  
100 respectively. Starting from the harvest date, the fruit was stored for six months following two  
101 treatments, with approximately 50 kg fruit per treatment. In the first treatment, the storage conditions

102 were set according to the recommendations of the Flanders Centre of Postharvest Technology (VCBT,  
103 Leuven, Belgium) for commercial sale (Ultra Low Oxygen treatment, ULO) to deliver control fruit  
104 without internal disorders (VCBT, 2017). Herein, the temperature, O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures were  
105 set to -1.0 °C, 3.0 kPa and 0.7 kPa, respectively. Prior to the ULO storage, fruit following this treatment  
106 underwent an acclimatization period of 21 d at -1.0 °C. In the second treatment suboptimal storage  
107 conditions, based on the findings of (Lammertyn et al., 2000), were applied to deliver fruit with internal  
108 disorders. Herein, the temperature, O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures were respectively -1.0 °C, 1.0 kPa  
109 and 5.0 kPa. A low O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure causes hypoxia in the fruit. In combination with increased CO<sub>2</sub>  
110 partial pressure, this promotes the shift from respiration to fermentation, resulting in a limited  
111 availability in energy and an imbalance between oxidative and reductive processes. As such, cell  
112 membranes are degraded by reactive oxygen species, leading to cell leakage and cell death, which  
113 manifest as internal browning and cavity formation (Franck et al., 2007; Pedreschi et al., 2009; Veltman  
114 et al., 2003).

## 115 **2.2 X-ray CT scans and data labeling**

116 After approximately 6 months, the fruit was removed from storage on 2018-02-27 at the end of the  
117 day. Fruit were acclimatized to room conditions before X-ray CT scanning the next day. Minimally 50  
118 fruit per treatment were randomly selected and scanned individually. The fruit was scanned with their  
119 stalk-calyx axis approximately aligned with the rotation axis of the scanner. To stabilize the samples  
120 during scanning, the fruit was placed on a sample holder consisting of three styrofoam cones glued on  
121 a stainless-steel plate which was mounted on top of the rotation table. The system comprised a  
122 micro-focus L9181 X-ray source (Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan) and a 1512 Dexela CMOS  
123 Flat Panel X-ray Detector (PerkinElmer, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). The rotation table and  
124 detector were placed at respectively 674.8 mm and 784.2 mm from the source. The X-ray projections  
125 did not fit entirely in the X-ray detector frame. Therefore, two scans per fruit were performed at  
126 different heights and stacked together to reconstruct the whole fruit in the CT volume. The scans were  
127 performed with a source voltage of 130 kV at 300 mA and pixel size of 598.4 µm. The exposure time  
128 was 80 ms. An aluminum filter of 1 mm thickness was used to improve the contrast in the radiographic  
129 projections that were obtained with an angular step of 0.9° and were 242 × 192 pixels in size. The  
130 samples were rotated over 360° around the central rotation axis of the scanner, resulting in 400  
131 projections. For the acquisition, ACQUILA software was used (Tescan XRE nv, Ghent, Belgium). A 3D  
132 image was reconstructed of each fruit with the filtered back-projection algorithm using the ACQUILA-  
133 RECON reconstruction software (Tescan XRE nv, Ghent, Belgium). The resulting tomographs had a size  
134 of 241 × 241 × 309 voxels, with each isotropic voxel measuring 514.9 × 514.9 × 514.9 µm<sup>3</sup>. In total,  
135 scanning (32 s/scan), moving the sample stage down and starting the second scan (2 s), stacking and

136 reconstruction (23 s) amounted on average to 1 min and 30 s per sample. The samples were assigned  
137 a ground truth label ('healthy' or 'defective') by visual inspection of the CT reconstruction of each fruit.  
138 Figure 1 shows the experimental X-ray CT setup and a cut-open image and orthogonal slices through  
139 the CT volume of a 'Cepuna' pear severely affected by internal browning. Internal browning can be  
140 observed in the lower intensity regions on the CT slices.



141

142 *Figure 1: Experimental setup and a 'Cepuna' pear's cut-open image and CT scan. (a) Experimental setup with X-ray source*  
143 *(left), and mobile X-ray detector (right) and rotation stage (middle); (b) image of a cut-open 'Cepuna' pear affected by*  
144 *internal browning; (c) orthogonal slices through the CT volume of the same fruit. The XZ and YZ slices are zoomed in on the*  
145 *region affected by internal browning.*

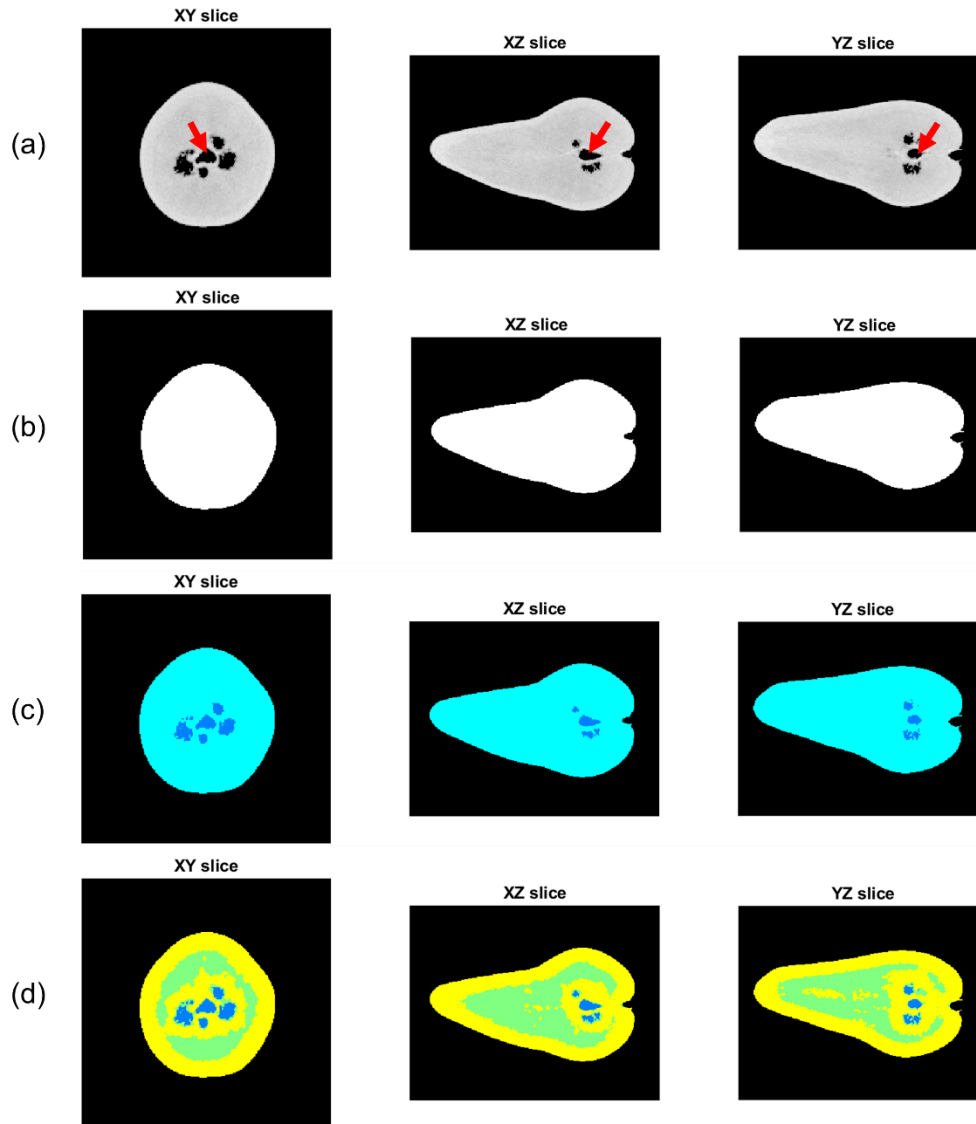
### 146 **2.3 Internal disorder detection method on CT images**

147 An algorithm was developed to perform internal disorder detection for pear fruit using the CT images.  
148 Recent developments in the medical imaging field reported interesting results for disease detection in  
149 CT and MRI data using deep learning based segmentation methods (Lee et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2017).  
150 However, these approaches typically require many manually labelled samples for training. Due to  
151 limited number of samples and the high cost of manually labelling them, a more classical machine  
152 learning approach was chosen. First, a feature extraction algorithm was developed to get valuable  
153 quantities, or features, from the 3D image datasets (see section 2.3.1). Subsequently, the features  
154 were statistically compared between the cultivars and classes (see section 2.3.2). Thereafter, support

155 vector machines (SVM) were trained separately on the 'Conference' feature dataset to classify the  
156 fruit. Then, it was investigated whether features could be eliminated while minimizing the reduction  
157 in the classification performance. Finally, to test the generalizability of the method, the classifier  
158 trained on the 'Conference' data was validated on fruit of the 'Cepuna' cultivar and compared with  
159 classifiers trained on the combined dataset (see section 2.3.3). All code was written with MATLAB using  
160 the Image Processing and Statistics and Machine Learning Toolboxes (MATLAB, 2019a).

### 161 **2.3.1 Feature extraction algorithm**

162 A feature extraction algorithm was developed to extract 10 features from the CT volume of pear fruit  
163 and produced 2 feature datasets, one for each cultivar. To extract the features, five 3D binary masks  
164 were generated indicating different regions of the fruit (see Figure 2). Each 3D binary mask specified  
165 whether a certain voxel belonged to a certain segment of the volume (value = 1) or not (value = 0).  
166 First, a binary mask that indicated which voxels were part of the fruit tissue (tissue mask) was  
167 generated using a 3D global Otsu-threshold (Otsu, 1979). Second, a fruit mask was generated by filling  
168 up all internal holes of the tissue mask so that voxels outside and inside the fruit had the values 0 and  
169 1, respectively. Third, an internal air mask, only including voxels part of holes, was obtained by  
170 subtracting the tissue mask from the fruit mask. Finally, a low-density and a high-density tissue mask  
171 were generated by applying a 3D adaptive threshold on all tissue voxels based on the local mean  
172 intensity in a 31 x 31 x 31 voxel neighborhood. In pome fruit, tissue of higher density can typically be  
173 observed around the core and in the surface region. In between those regions, typically a higher  
174 porosity can be found (Nugraha et al., 2019). Low-density and high-density tissue regions are thus  
175 generally always present, however, a large difference between those regions can indicate the  
176 occurrence of water loss due to internal tissue breakdown. In the reconstructed CT volume, voxels  
177 with a relative low intensity value had a lower X-ray attenuation, and thus lower density (higher  
178 porosity), than voxels with a higher intensity value.

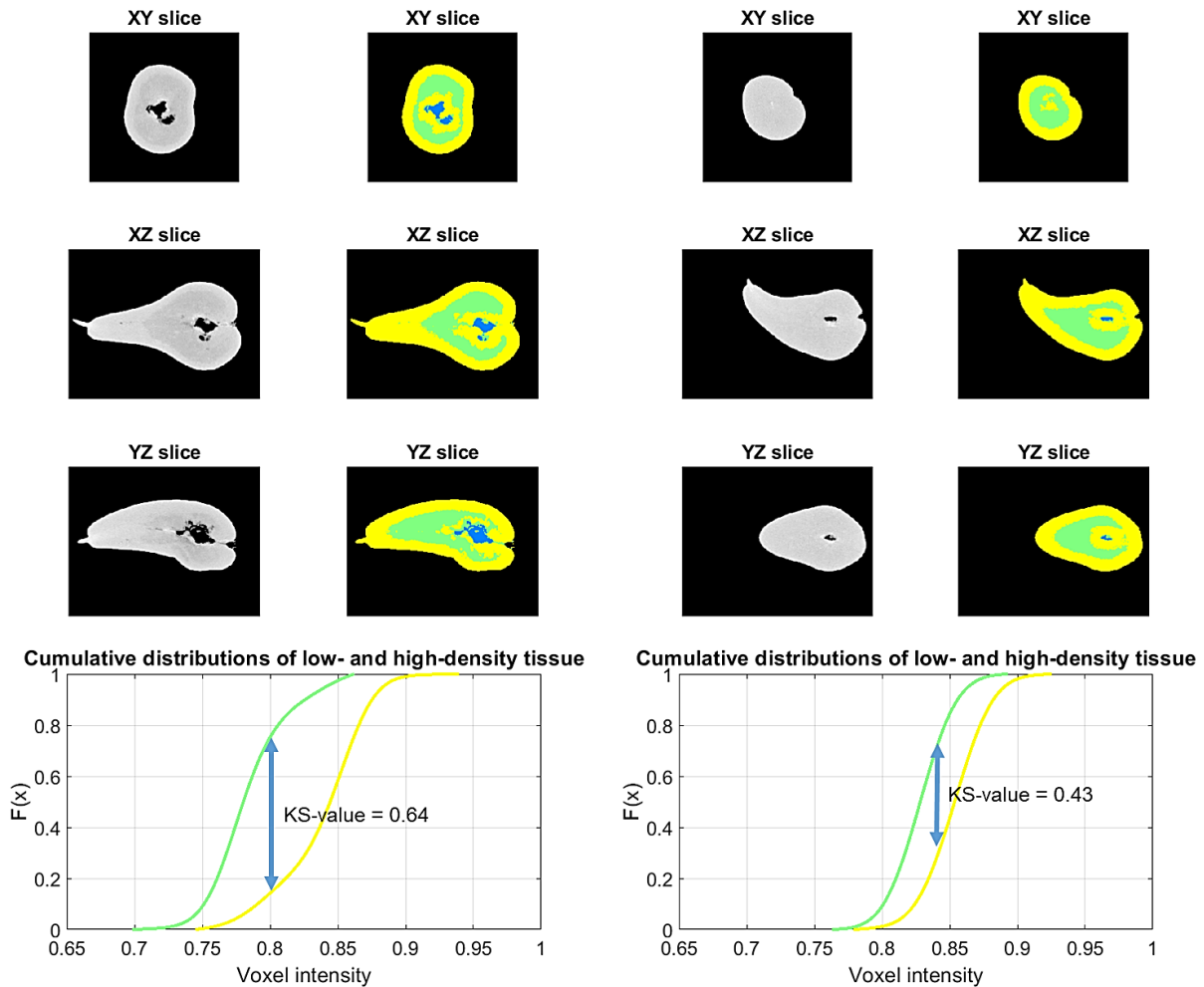


179

180 *Figure 2: Orthogonal slices through the original grayscale CT reconstruction and generated 3D binary masks of a*  
 181 *'Conference' sample with disorders. (a) Orthogonal slices through the original grayscale CT reconstruction of the sample;*  
 182 *cavities can be observed around the core (core indicated by red arrow); (b) orthogonal slices through the fruit mask (white);*  
 183 *(c) orthogonal slices through the tissue (cyan) and internal air masks (dark blue); (d) orthogonal slices through the internal*  
 184 *air (dark blue), low-density tissue (green) and high-density tissue (yellow) masks. Each 3D binary mask indicates whether a*  
 185 *certain voxel belongs to a certain segment of the volume (value = 1) or not (value = 0).*

186 Features were extracted using the generated masks. By subtracting the tissue mask from the fruit mask  
 187 and counting the number of remaining voxels, the internal air volume could be calculated. As a first  
 188 feature, the internal air volume normalized for the total fruit volume was used. For the second to ninth  
 189 feature, the mean and standard deviation of the intensities of fruit voxels, tissue voxels, low density  
 190 tissue voxels and high-density tissue voxels were calculated by using the fruit, tissue, low density tissue  
 191 and high-density tissue mask, respectively. As a final feature, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test statistic  
 192 (KS-value) of the Two-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test between the cumulative intensity  
 193 distributions of the low- and high-density tissue voxels was used (Massey, 1951; MATLAB, 2019b).  
 194 Here, the KS-value was interpreted as a measure of homogeneity of the fruit tissue by comparing the

195 intensity distributions of both regions. A lower KS-value indicates that the low-density and high-density  
 196 tissue regions are of similar density, suggesting that internal tissue breakdown such as browning is less  
 197 probable (Franck et al., 2007). This is illustrated for a 'defective' and 'healthy' 'Conference' fruit in  
 198 Figure 3. The feature datasets were centered and scaled using the corresponding column mean and  
 199 standard deviation.



200

201 *Figure 3: Orthogonal slices through CT volume, cumulative intensity distributions and KS-value of the low- (green) and high-*  
 202 *density tissue (yellow) in a 'defective' (left) and 'healthy' (right) 'Conference' pear. The 'healthy' sample has more similar*  
 203 *intensity distributions and lower KS-value compared to the 'defective' sample*

### 204 **2.3.2 Statistical feature comparison**

205 A quantitative feature comparison was performed to explore the data, investigate differences between  
 206 the cultivars or classes and infer relevant features for classification. Hereto, it was tested if the normal  
 207 distributions of the features were significantly different between the 'Conference' and 'Cepuna'  
 208 cultivars on the one hand and the 'defective' and 'healthy' classes on the other hand using a Two-  
 209 Sample t-test at the 5% significance level. Moreover, the linear correlation coefficients between all  
 210 features of the 'Conference' feature dataset were calculated.



### 211 **2.3.3 Binary linear Support Vector Machine classifiers**

212 Using the ‘Conference’ feature dataset, a binary linear support vector machine (SVM) was trained and  
213 evaluated to classify the fruit. A linear classifier was chosen over non-linear approaches because of its  
214 simplicity in terms of the number of parameters, because it allows to interpret the importance of each  
215 feature for classification and because it is less prone to overfitting compared to non-linear methods.  
216 In contrast to other classifiers, *e.g.*, k-nearest neighbors, the training data is afterwards no longer  
217 needed for making predictions.

218 Confusion matrices were used to present the classification results with true positives (the correctly  
219 classified fruit with internal disorders) and true negatives (the correctly classified fruit without internal  
220 disorders) shown as a percentage on the matrix diagonal. The false positives and false negatives are  
221 shown as a percentage on the bottom left and the top right, respectively.

222 Thereafter it was investigated whether the number of features used by the classifier could be reduced  
223 without losing classification performance. Hereto the SVM recursive feature elimination method (SVM  
224 RFE) as described by Guyon et al. (2002) was used in which the importance of each feature relative to  
225 the other features was evaluated based on the weights that define the decision boundary of the SVM  
226 in feature space. The higher the squared weight value, the more important the corresponding features  
227 is for classification. Note that this is only possible when using a linear kernel in the SVM, as for other  
228 kernels the data is transformed to another space not related to the original input space. In practice, a  
229 series of classifiers was trained and evaluated on the ‘Conference’ dataset using 5-fold cross-validation  
230 (further referred to as the ‘*Conference*’ based SVMs). In each iteration, the feature with the lowest  
231 squared weight value was eliminated. By tracking the classification accuracy and false positive and  
232 negative rates, a decision was made on which features were the most critical and which classifier  
233 should be used.

234 Next, the generalizability of the trained classifier to other cultivars was evaluated and it was  
235 investigated whether the generalizability would increase with a reduction in the number of features.  
236 Hereto, the series of trained classifiers was validated on the feature dataset of the ‘Cepuna’ cultivar.  
237 Finally, the ‘Conference’ and ‘Cepuna’ datasets were combined and the performance of the series of  
238 ‘*Conference*’ based SVMs’ was compared with two series of SVMs retrained on this combined dataset.  
239 The first series was forced to use the same features as the ‘*Conference*’ based SVMs’ in each iteration,  
240 while in the second series the feature elimination algorithm decided which features were used.

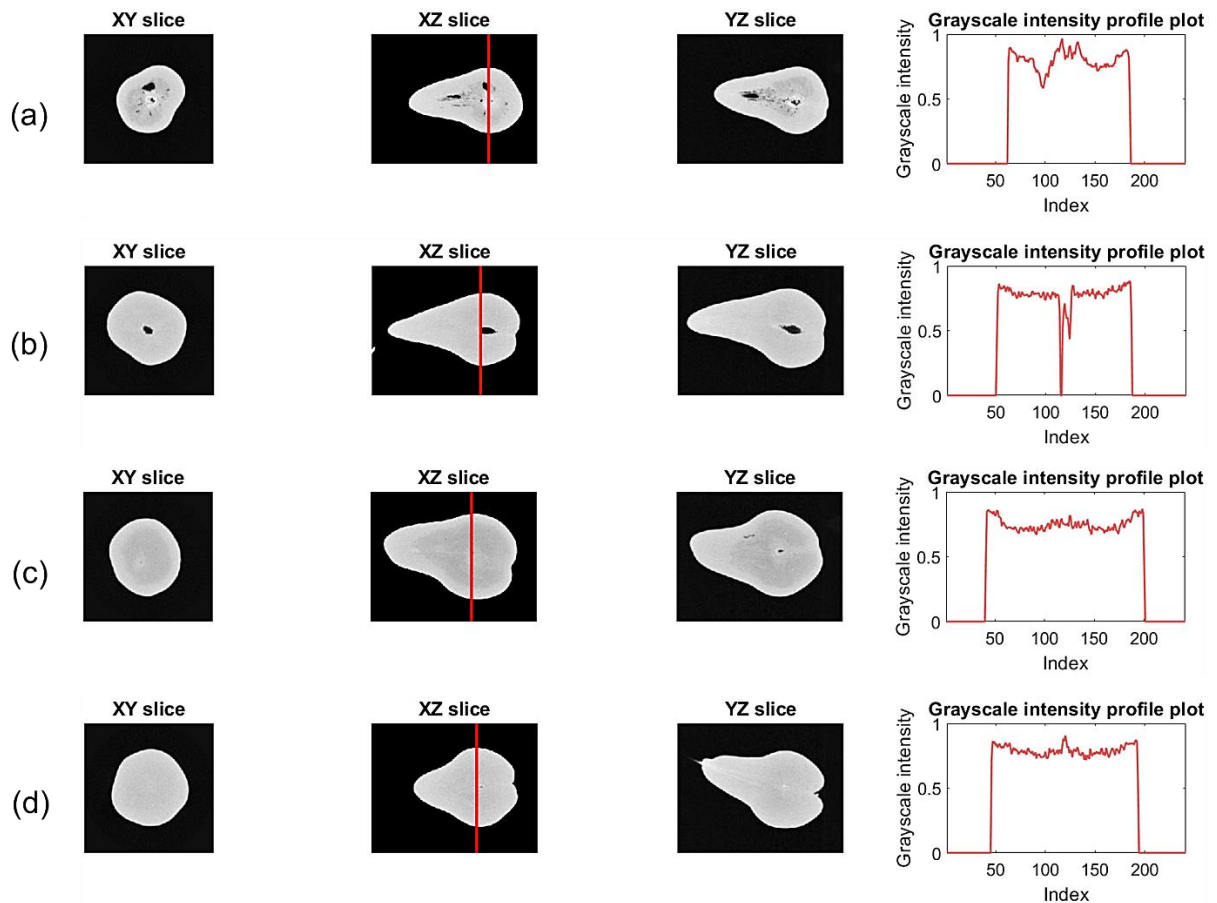
241 The runtime for feature extraction and classification was on average 2.3 s per sample on a quad-core  
242 3.8 GHz processor with 32 GB of RAM memory.

## 243 3 RESULTS

### 244 3.1 X-ray micro CT reconstructions and labeled datasets

245 For 'Conference', 102 samples were scanned of which 42 and 60 fruit were assigned a 'healthy' and  
246 'defective' label, respectively, from expert inspection of the CT images. For 'Cepuna', 15 'healthy' and  
247 87 'defective' fruit were observed in the 102 scanned samples.

248 Examples of orthogonal slices and grayscale intensity profiles through CT reconstructed volumes of  
249 'healthy' and 'defective' 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' fruit are shown in Figure 4. In the 'healthy' fruit  
250 (Figure 4, rows b and d) a gradient in voxel intensity can be observed from the center to the fruit  
251 surface. Higher intensities due to higher tissue density were observed around the core. When moving  
252 from the core towards the fruit surface, the intensities first decreased and thereafter increased again  
253 closer to the surface, confirming the observed density distributions from other research (Nugraha et  
254 al., 2019). The 'defective' 'Conference' fruit (Figure 4, row a) showed regions of lower voxel intensities  
255 that were affected by internal browning (Franck et al., 2007; Lammertyn et al., 2003a; van Dael et al.,  
256 2017). Severe internal browning resulted in cavity formation, which was observed around the core and  
257 stalk-calyx axis. The 'defective' 'Cepuna' fruit (Figure 4, row c) were also affected by internal browning,  
258 but cavity formation was far less severe. In the grayscale intensity profiles of the 'defective' fruit, the  
259 regions affected by internal browning caused a stronger slope compared to those of the 'healthy' fruit.



260

261 *Figure 4: Column 1-3: Orthogonal slices through the CT reconstructions of 'defective' and 'healthy' 'Conference' and*  
 262 *'Cepuna' fruit. Column 4: Grayscale intensity profile through the widest position of the fruit in the XZ slices. (a) 'defective'*  
 263 *'Conference' pear; (b) 'healthy' 'Conference' pear; (c) 'defective' 'Cepuna' pear; (d) 'healthy' 'Cepuna' pear.*

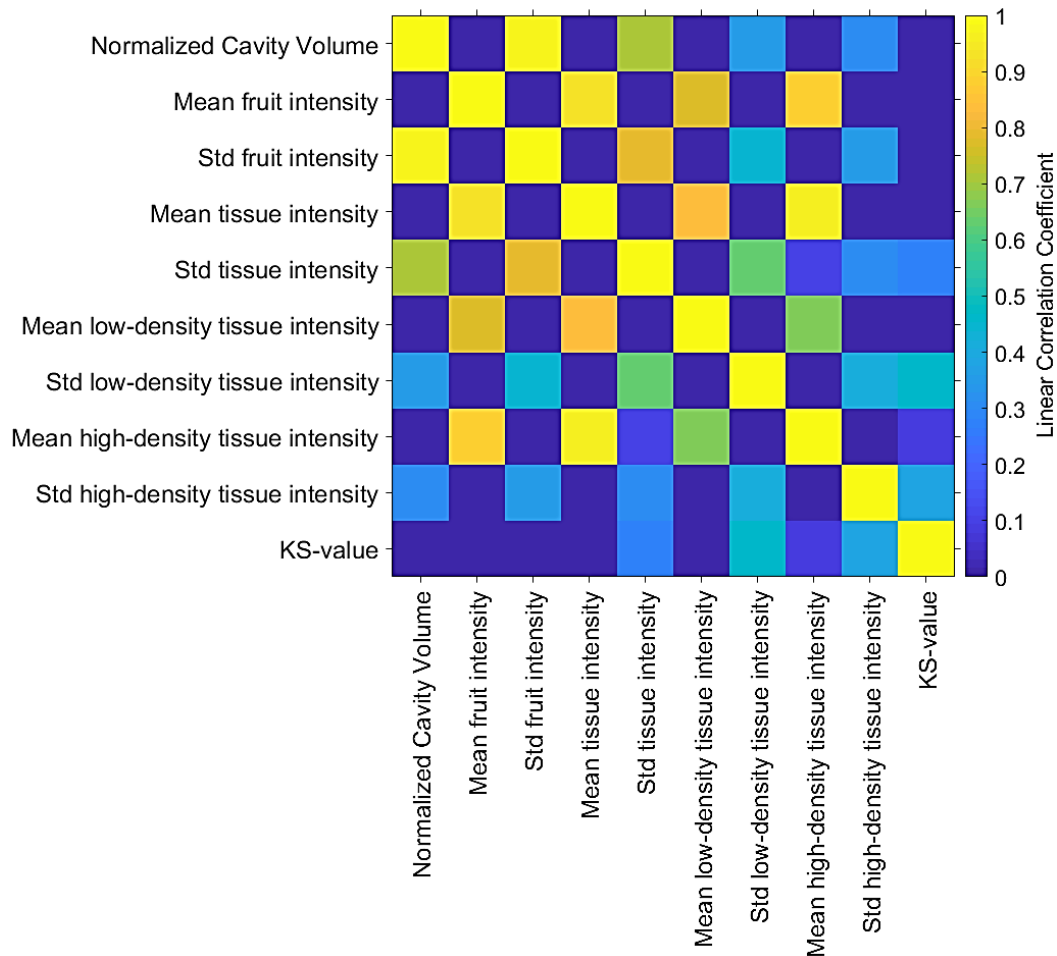
### 264 3.2 Quantitative feature comparison

265 The average of the extracted features and their corresponding standard deviations for 'Conference'  
 266 and 'Cepuna' 'defective' and 'healthy' fruit are shown in Table 1. Using a Two-Sample t-test at the 5 %  
 267 significance level, it was tested if the distributions of feature values were significantly different  
 268 between the 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' cultivars on one hand and the 'defective' and 'healthy' classes  
 269 on the other hand. Figure 5 presents the linear correlation coefficients (R) between all features of the  
 270 'Conference' feature dataset.

271 *Table 1: The average of feature values and their corresponding standard deviations for 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' 'defective'*  
 272 *and 'healthy' fruit. Different letters in superscript indicate significantly different normal distributions at the 5% significance*  
 273 *level using the Two-Sample t-test.*

Feature	Label	'Conference'	'Cepuna'
Normalized cavity volume [%]	Defective	0.752 ± 0.745 <sup>c</sup>	1.205 ± 1.297 <sup>d</sup>
	Healthy	0.195 ± 0.156 <sup>b</sup>	0.002 ± 0.002 <sup>a</sup>
Mean fruit intensity	Defective	0.829 ± 0.015 <sup>c</sup>	0.802 ± 0.017 <sup>a</sup>
	Healthy	0.835 ± 0.012 <sup>d</sup>	0.824 ± 0.008 <sup>b</sup>
Std fruit intensity	Defective	0.091 ± 0.025 <sup>c</sup>	0.102 ± 0.038 <sup>c</sup>
	Healthy	0.066 ± 0.008 <sup>b</sup>	0.053 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>
Mean tissue intensity	Defective	0.835 ± 0.013 <sup>c</sup>	0.812 ± 0.013 <sup>a</sup>
	Healthy	0.836 ± 0.012 <sup>c</sup>	0.824 ± 0.008 <sup>b</sup>
Std tissue intensity	Defective	0.062 ± 0.004 <sup>c</sup>	0.064 ± 0.006 <sup>d</sup>
	Healthy	0.056 ± 0.002 <sup>b</sup>	0.053 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>
Mean low-density tissue intensity	Defective	0.814 ± 0.019 <sup>c</sup>	0.782 ± 0.023 <sup>a</sup>
	Healthy	0.825 ± 0.013 <sup>d</sup>	0.806 ± 0.010 <sup>b</sup>
Std low-density tissue intensity	Defective	0.027 ± 0.060 <sup>c</sup>	0.039 ± 0.020 <sup>d</sup>
	Healthy	0.020 ± 0.002 <sup>a</sup>	0.023 ± 0.002 <sup>b</sup>
Mean high-density tissue intensity	Defective	0.856 ± 0.012 <sup>c</sup>	0.838 ± 0.013 <sup>a</sup>
	Healthy	0.854 ± 0.011 <sup>c</sup>	0.846 ± 0.006 <sup>b</sup>
Std high-density tissue intensity	Defective	0.025 ± 0.003 <sup>c</sup>	0.031 ± 0.005 <sup>d</sup>
	Healthy	0.023 ± 0.002 <sup>a</sup>	0.023 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>
KS-value	Defective	0.578 ± 0.116 <sup>b</sup>	0.586 ± 0.129 <sup>b</sup>
	Healthy	0.506 ± 0.048 <sup>a</sup>	0.610 ± 0.038 <sup>b</sup>

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275

276

Figure 5: Linear Correlation Coefficients between all features of the 'Conference' dataset.

277

The features 'Normalized cavity volume' and 'Std fruit intensity' were highly correlated ( $R = 0.98$ ). This was expected as fruit with more or large cavities would also have a high variability in voxel intensity. A lower linear correlation was found between the features 'Normalized cavity volume' and 'Std tissue intensity' ( $R = 0.71$ ). The 'Std tissue intensity' only considers non-cavity voxels, but fruit with a relatively high number of cavities could have more partial volume artefacts (the loss of contrast in voxels that are occupied by multiple types of tissue due to insufficient resolution), or internal browning and thus a higher variability in fruit tissue intensity.

284

We also observed that the features 'Mean fruit intensity', 'Mean tissue intensity', 'Mean low-density tissue intensity' and 'Mean high-density tissue intensity' were highly correlated, with linear correlation coefficients ranging between 0.66 and 0.95. Not surprisingly, the correlations were higher between the features of which the regions indicated by the 3D binary masks were more similar, e.g., 'Mean fruit intensity' and 'Mean tissue intensity' had a higher correlation than 'Mean low-density tissue intensity' and 'Mean high-density tissue intensity'.

289

290 Obviously, as the fruit and tissue masks only differ in the cavity voxels, a rather high correlation  
 291 ( $R = 0.78$ ) was found between ‘*Std fruit intensity*’ and ‘*Std tissue intensity*’. ‘*Std tissue intensity*’ and  
 292 ‘*Std low-density tissue intensity*’ had a linear correlation of  $R = 0.64$ , while ‘*Std high-density tissue*  
 293 *intensity*’ and ‘*KS-value*’ were not highly correlated with other features.

### 294 3.3 Classification results

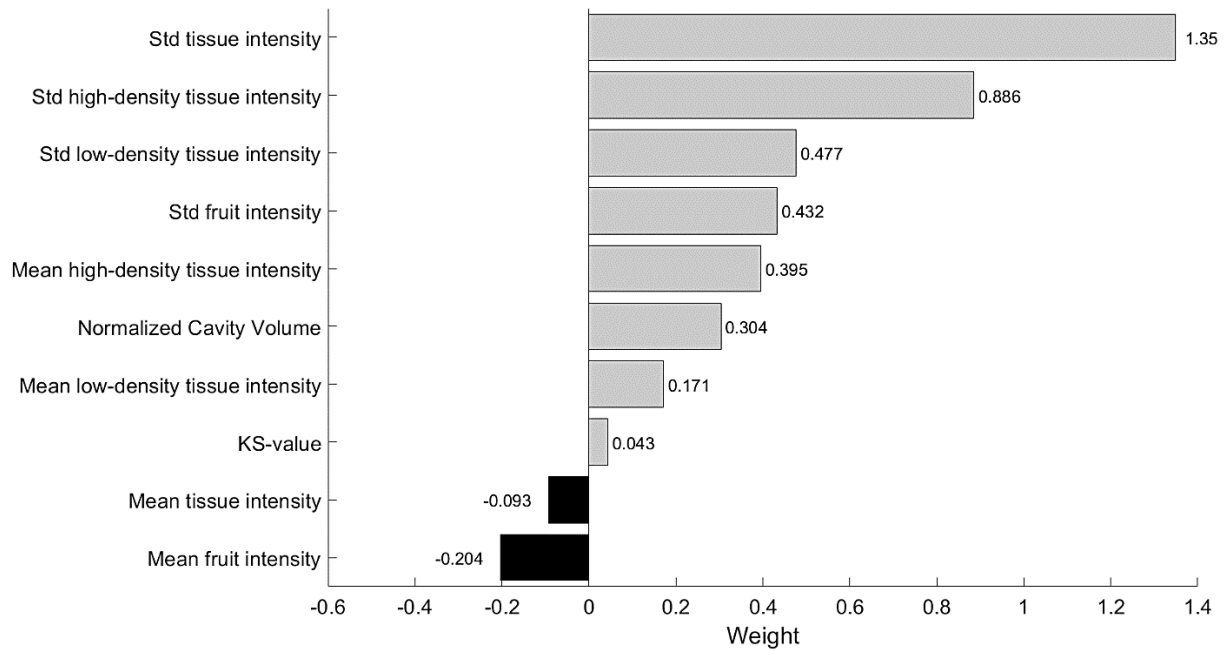
#### 295 3.3.1 ‘Conference’ based SVM

296 The classifier trained on the whole ‘Conference’ feature dataset, comprising 60 ‘defective’ and 42  
 297 ‘healthy’ samples, reached an average classification accuracy of 92.2 % for ‘Conference’ in a 5-fold  
 298 cross validation with an 88.3 % true positive and a 97.6 % true negative rate, respectively. The  
 299 confusion matrix with classification results for ‘Conference’ is shown in Table 2.

300 *Table 2: Confusion matrix with average classification results of the ‘Conference’ specific classifier on ‘Conference’ in 5-fold*  
 301 *cross validation.*

		Predicted	
		Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	88.3 %	11.7 %
	Healthy	2.4 %	97.6 %
Overall classification accuracy:		92.2 %	

302 The weights that determine the separating plane are shown in Figure 6. The features with a high  
 303 absolute value of the weight are the most important for determining the class of a fruit. The top three  
 304 features were ‘*Std tissue intensity*’, ‘*Std high-density tissue intensity*’ and ‘*Std low-density tissue*  
 305 *intensity*’. Features that measure variability rather than absolute values had higher absolute weights  
 306 and, thus, were more important for classifying pear fruit. Moreover, fruit with higher values for these  
 307 features were more likely to be classified as ‘*defective*’ fruit, *i.e.*, the positive class, due the positive  
 308 corresponding weights. Both the weights of ‘*Mean tissue intensity*’ and ‘*KS-value*’ features were rather  
 309 insignificant.



310

311

Figure 6: Weights of the 'Conference' based SVM' sorted by descending weight value.

312

### 3.3.2 Feature selection

313

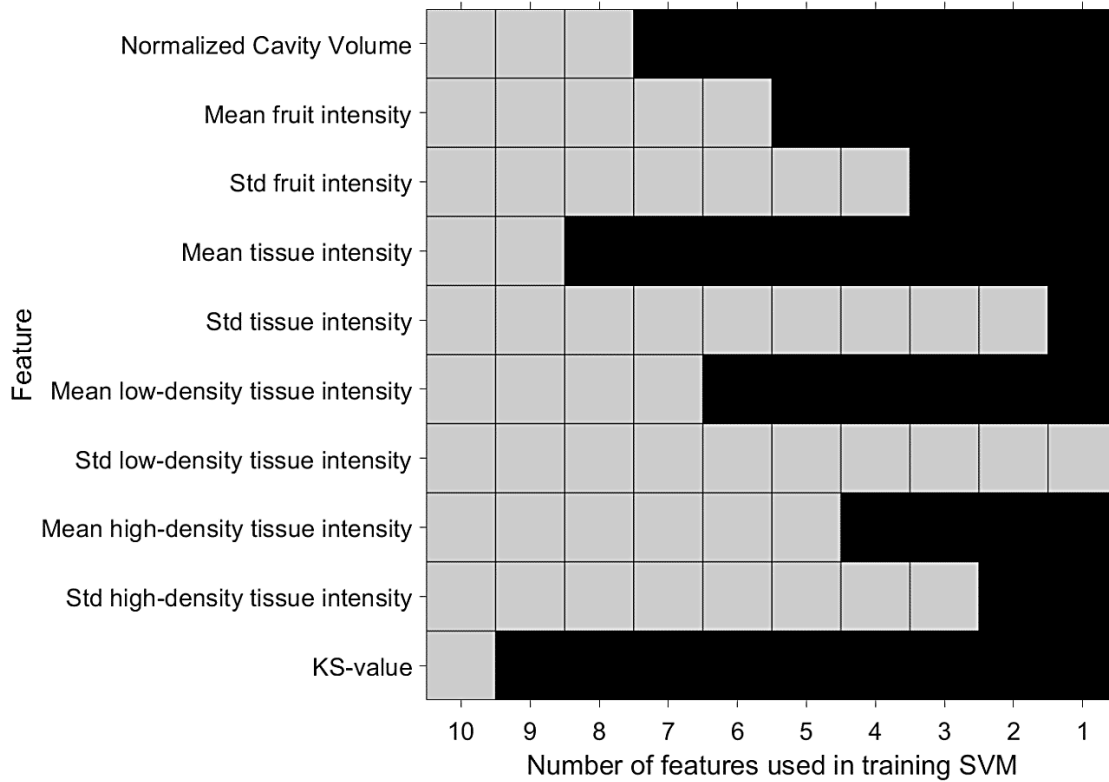
From the previous results, it was observed that not all features were equally important for classification. Some features, e.g., 'KS-Value', 'Mean Tissue Intensity' and 'Mean low-density tissue intensity', have relatively low weights compared to others (see Figure 6). As explained in section 2.3.3, the SVM RFE method was applied to select the most relevant features. A series of classifiers was trained and evaluated on the 'Conference' dataset and in each iteration the feature with the lowest squared weight value was removed for the next iteration. The resulting features used by each classifier are shown in Figure 7.

316

317

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319

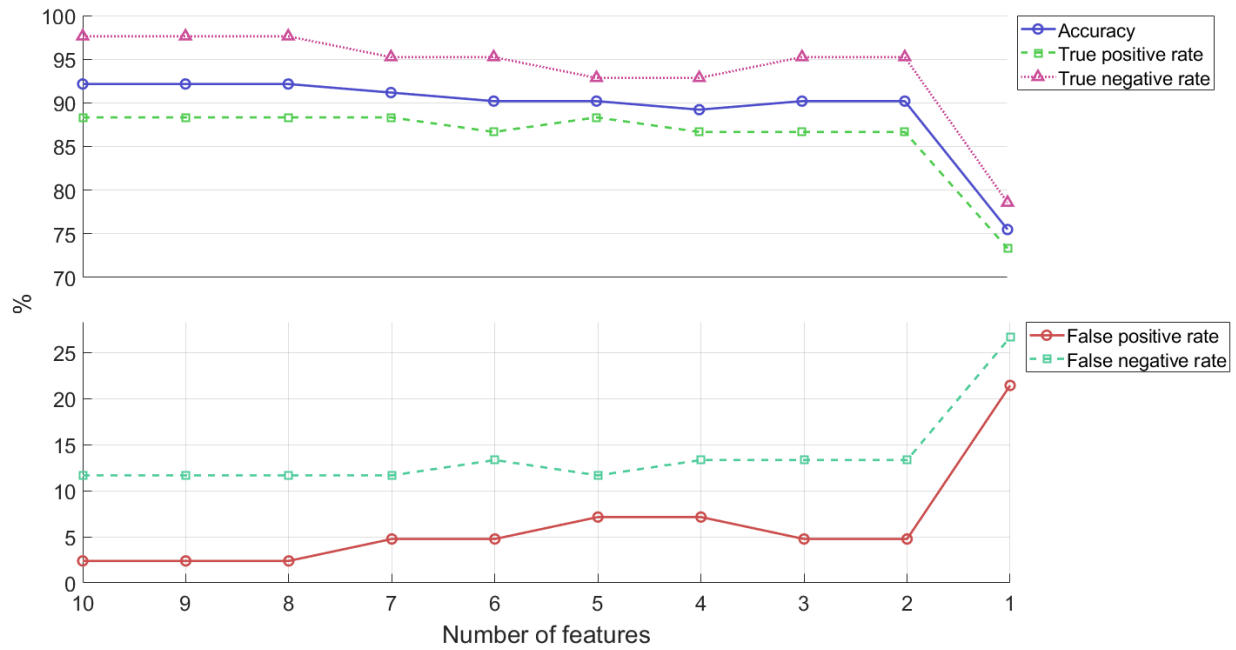


320

321 *Figure 7: Plot of features used for training each SVM on the 'Conference' dataset. Each column represents a classifier in a*  
 322 *series of classifiers, in which the number of features allowed to be used decreased from the left (10 features) to the right (1*  
 323 *feature). Every column thus shows the features used by a classifier in the series, while each row shows in which classifiers a*  
 324 *certain feature was used. A grey tile indicates a feature was used, while a black tile indicates a feature was eliminated for*  
 325 *the specific SVM in the feature elimination procedure.*

326 Figure 8 shows a plot of the classification accuracy, true positive, true negative, false positive and false  
 327 negative rate of the SVM series trained with 1 up to 10 features of the 'Conference' dataset in a 5-fold  
 328 cross-validation.





329

330 *Figure 8: Plot of classification accuracy, true positive rate, true negative rate, false positive rate and false negative rate of*  
 331 *SVMs trained with 1 and up to 10 features of the ‘Conference’ dataset.*

332 From Figure 8 it can be observed that the performance metrics only slightly decreased up until the last  
 333 SVM trained with only 1 feature, for which the accuracy dropped to 75.5 %. The SVM trained with two  
 334 features, (*‘Std tissue intensity’* and *‘Std low-density tissue intensity’*, see Figure 7) still achieved an  
 335 accuracy of 91.2 % and the false positive rate of 4.8 % while the false negative rate increased slightly  
 336 from the 11.7 % of the best classifier to 13.3 %.

### 337 **3.3.3 Validating the ‘Conference’ based SVMs’ on the ‘Cepuna’ cultivar**

338 To test the generalizability to other cultivars, the series of ‘Conference’ based SVMs’ was validated on  
 339 the ‘Cepuna’ cultivar without retraining the classifiers on the ‘Cepuna’ data. The ‘Cepuna’ dataset  
 340 comprised 87 *‘defective’* and 15 *‘healthy’* fruit. The ten-features classifier reached a good classification  
 341 accuracy of 95.1 % for ‘Cepuna’ with 94.3 % true positive and 100.0 % true negative rate, respectively.  
 342 The confusion matrix with classification results for ‘Cepuna’ is shown in Table 3.

343 *Table 3: Confusion matrix with classification results of the ten-features ‘Conference’ based SVM’ on ‘Cepuna’ without*  
 344 *retraining the SVM.*

		Predicted	
		Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	94.3 %	5.7 %
	Healthy	0.0 %	100.0 %
Overall classification accuracy:		95.1 %	

345 When testing the ‘Conference’ based SVM series trained with 1 and up to 10 features on the ‘Cepuna’  
 346 dataset, the classification performance remained the same for the classifiers using between ten and  
 347 five features. For the classifiers using between 4 and 2 features, the false positive rate increased from

348 0.0 % to 6.7 %, while the accuracy remained 95.1 % and the false negative rate reduced from 5.7 % to  
 349 4.7 %. With only one feature, the last classifier had a false positive rate of 80.0 %. However, due to the  
 350 low number of ‘healthy’ samples in the ‘Cepuna’ dataset (fifteen), the accuracy only dropped to 86.7 %.

351 **3.3.4 Testing the ‘Conference’ based SVMs’ and retrained classifiers on the combined**  
 352 **dataset**

353 The series of ‘Conference’ based SVMs’ was tested on the combined dataset. The confusion matrix with  
 354 classification results of the ten-features classifier is shown in Table 4.

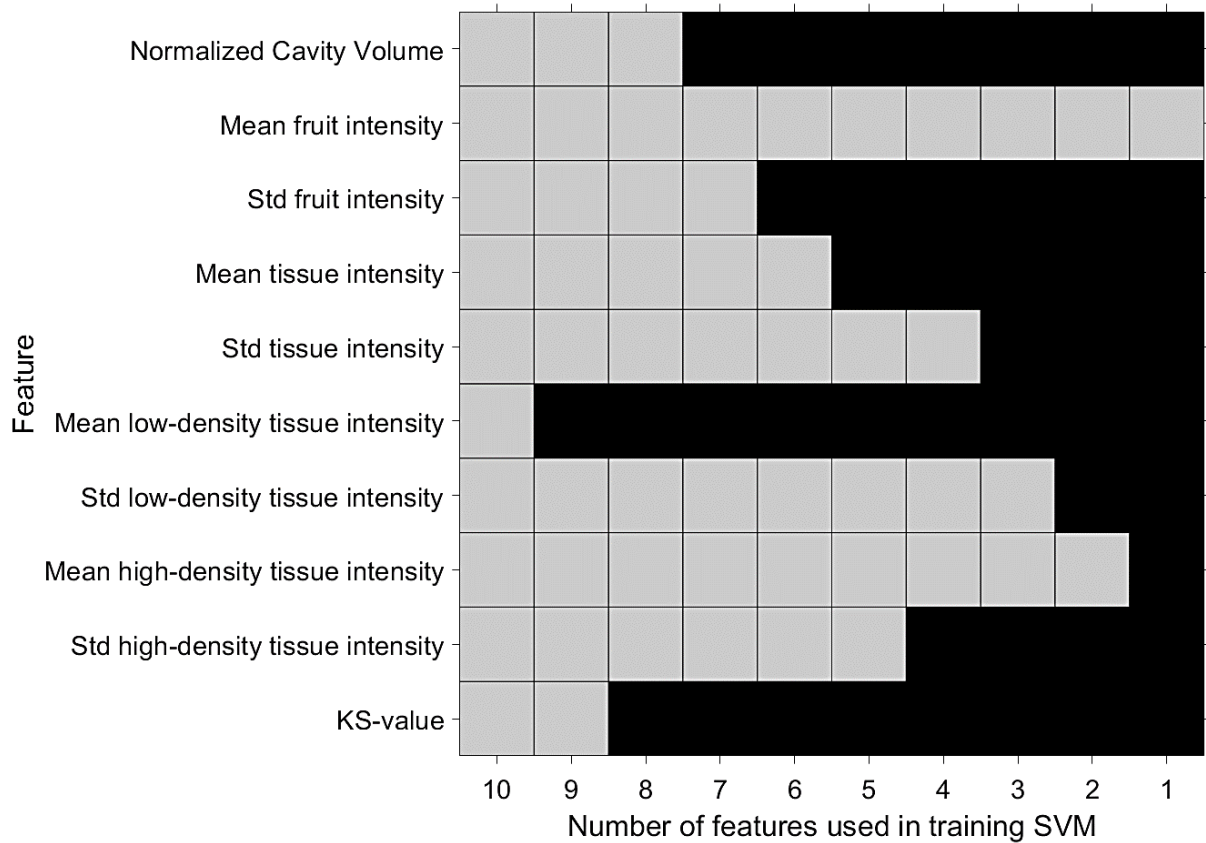
355 *Table 4: Confusion matrix with average classification results of the ten-features ‘Conference’ based SVM’ on the combined*  
 356 *dataset.*

		Predicted	
		Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	91.8 %	8.2 %
	Healthy	1.7 %	98.3 %
Overall classification accuracy:		93.6 %	

357 Like the previous results, the classification accuracy, true positive rate, true negative rate, false positive  
 358 rate and false negative rate of the ‘Conference’ based SVMs’ classifiers using between ten and two  
 359 features tested on the combined dataset was similar. The two-feature ‘Conference’ based SVM’  
 360 achieved an accuracy of 93.1 % and a false positive and false negative rate of 3.5 % and 8.2 %, respectively.  
 361

362 Next, a first series of SVMs was retrained on the combined dataset but was forced to use the same  
 363 features as their corresponding ‘Conference’ based SVM’ (see Figure 7). The SVMs were thus only  
 364 allowed to change the weight associated to a certain feature. The classifiers using ten and two features  
 365 achieved the same classification metric scores, with an accuracy of 92.7 % and false positive and false  
 366 negative rate of 5.3 and 8.2 %, respectively. However, the accuracy and false positive rate were slightly  
 367 worse compared to the two-feature ‘Conference’ based SVM’, that achieved the same false negative  
 368 rate with an accuracy of 93.1 % and false positive rate of 3.5 %.

369 Finally, a second series of SVMs was retrained on the combined dataset which was now allowed change  
 370 the selected features at each iteration. The used features are shown in Figure 9. The ten-feature  
 371 classifier reached an accuracy of 92.7 % and false positive and false negative rate of 5.3 and 8.2 %. The  
 372 two-feature classifier scored an accuracy of 91.2 % with a false positive and false negative rate of 12.3  
 373 and 7.5 %, respectively. The latter classifier used the features ‘Mean fruit intensity’ and ‘Mean high-  
 374 density tissue intensity’ in contrast to the two-feature ‘Conference’ based SVM’ that used the features  
 375 ‘Std tissue intensity’ and ‘Std low-density tissue intensity’.



376

377 *Figure 9: Plot of features used for retraining each SVM on the combined dataset. Each column represents a classifier in a*  
 378 *series of classifiers, in which the number of features allowed to be used decreased from the left (10 features) to the right (1*  
 379 *feature). Every column thus shows the features used by a classifier in the series, while each row shows in which classifiers a*  
 380 *certain feature was used. A grey tile indicates that the feature was used, while a black tile indicates that a feature was*  
 381 *eliminated for the specific SVM in the feature elimination procedure.*

## 382 4 DISCUSSION

### 383 4.1 Internal variability must be measured to separate ‘defective’ from ‘healthy’ pear fruit

384 Internal browning and cavity formation were introduced in ‘Conference’ and ‘Cepuna’ pears by  
 385 exposing them to suboptimal storage treatments for six months. The internal disorders differed in  
 386 severity, location and appearance. Internal browning was characterized by reduced voxel intensity in  
 387 the CT reconstructions of the fruit due to reduction in tissue density associated with water loss in the  
 388 affected regions. In regions with severe internal disorder development, cells broke down completely  
 389 and cavities were observed. This is in line with observations for pear made by (Lammertyn et al., 2003a;  
 390 Muziri et al., 2016; van Dael et al., 2017).

391 To further characterize ‘defective’ and ‘healthy’ pear fruit, features were extracted from the CT  
 392 volumes and compared between ‘Conference’ and ‘Cepuna’ ‘defective’ and ‘healthy’ fruit (see Table  
 393 1). First, the features ‘Std fruit intensity’, ‘Std tissue intensity’, ‘Std low-density tissue intensity’ and ‘Std  
 394 high-density tissue intensity’ seemed to be the most relevant ones for separating the classes ‘defective’  
 395 and ‘healthy’, regardless of the fruit cultivar. The ‘defective’ class had significantly higher values for

396 these four features due to a wider range in voxel intensity and thus in tissue density. This suggests that  
397 when looking for features that separate the *'defective'* from *'healthy'* pear fruit, features that measure  
398 variability rather than absolute values will be more performant for classifying pear fruit regardless of  
399 their cultivar.

400 Second, for the *'Cepuna'* cultivar a significantly lower *'Mean tissue intensity'* for both *'healthy'* and  
401 *'defective'* fruit was observed compared to *'Conference'* fruit. This might indicate that on average, the  
402 *'Cepuna'* fruit have a lower density, i.e. higher porosity, than *'Conference'* fruit (Nugraha et al., 2019).

403 Third, other features like *'Mean fruit intensity'* and *'Mean low-density tissue intensity'* were  
404 significantly different between the classes for each cultivar, but no clear threshold can be indicated  
405 that works for both cultivars.

406 Fourth, the KS-value showed to be a good feature to separate *'healthy'* and *'defective'* *'Conference'*  
407 fruit with higher KS-values for *'defective'* fruit. However, the KS-value was not significantly different  
408 for both classes of *'Cepuna'* fruit. Even an opposite, although not significant, trend was observed with  
409 slightly higher values for *'healthy'* fruit.

410 Finally, compared to the observed *'healthy'* *'Cepuna'* fruit, the *'healthy'* *'Conference'* fruit had  
411 significantly higher normalized cavity volumes. As such, relative to the total fruit volume, *'Conference'*  
412 fruit might have larger cores than *'Cepuna'* fruit.

413 One must be careful to generalize these results because environmental factors potentially influencing  
414 the fruit characteristics were not investigated. Fruit characteristics and susceptibility for internal  
415 disorders can be seasonal and location specific. Moreover, only fifteen *'healthy'* *'Cepuna'* fruit  
416 occurred in the dataset. Unfortunately, a large part of the *'Cepuna'* fruit following the control  
417 treatment also developed internal disorders. Due to the small sample size of *'healthy'* *'Cepuna'* fruit,  
418 the observed differences between classes and cultivars must thus be interpreted with caution.

#### 419 **4.2 X-ray CT and machine learning can be implemented inline to classify fruit reliably**

420 The large variability in severity, location and appearance of the internal disorders makes it challenging  
421 to develop algorithms that detect *'defective'* fruit reliably. However, for the internal disorder detection  
422 in *'Conference'* pears, a SVM achieved a classification accuracy of 92.2 % with false positive and false  
423 negative rates of respectively 2.4 and 11.7 % (see Table 2). Moreover, the number of features was  
424 reduced from ten to two while keeping classification performance high by using the SVM RFE method  
425 (see Figure 7 and Figure 8). The classifier trained with the features *'Std tissue intensity'* and *'Std low-*  
426 *density tissue intensity'* still achieved an accuracy, false positive rate and false negative rate of  
427 respectively 91.2, 4.8 and 13.3 %.

428 Furthermore, without retraining or other adaptations to the method the *'Conference' based SVMs'*  
429 performed excellent on the 'Cepuna' cultivar as well. An overall classification accuracy of 95.1 % with  
430 a false positive and a false negative rate of respectively 0.0 and 5.7 %, was achieved by the ten-feature  
431 *'Conference' based SVM'* (see Table 3). Compared to the ten-feature classifier, the two-feature  
432 classifier scored the same accuracy with a better false negative rate of 4.6 %, but worse false positive  
433 rate of 6.7 %. This shows that the classifiers trained on the 'Conference' cultivar generalize well to the  
434 'Cepuna' cultivar and suggests that the method can be used for other pear cultivars too without much  
435 effort. However, an increase in generalizability by reducing the number of features used by the  
436 classifiers was not observed, as the performance of all classifiers using between ten and two features  
437 was very similar for both cultivars.

438 The *'Conference' based SVMs'* were compared to two series retrained on the combined dataset. The  
439 first series was forced to use the same features as the *'Conference' based SVMs'*, but was allowed to  
440 adapt the weights. In the second series, also the selected features were allowed to be altered by re-  
441 implementing the SVM RFE method. In both cases, the *'Conference' based SVMs'* scored better, even  
442 though no 'Cepuna' data was included in the training process. The two-feature SVM of the second  
443 series trained on the combined dataset used the features *'Mean fruit intensity'* and *'Mean high-density*  
444 *tissue intensity'* in contrast to the two-feature *'Conference' based SVM'* that used the features *'Std*  
445 *tissue intensity'* and *'Std low-density tissue intensity'*. Differences in performance and selected features  
446 are probably caused by the imbalance in the combined dataset. Only 28 % of the combined dataset  
447 was *'healthy'* as just fifteen out of the 102 'Cepuna' samples were *'healthy'*, compared to 42 out of the  
448 102 'Conference' samples. The classification metrics for both two-features classifiers are shown on the  
449 combined dataset, the 'Conference' subset and the 'Cepuna' subset in Table 5. The classifier retrained  
450 on the combined dataset scored very poorly on *'healthy'* 'Cepuna' fruit, with a 40.0 % false positive  
451 rate. Due to the small number of *'healthy'* 'Cepuna' samples, however, this only had a limited effect  
452 on the overall classification accuracy over the 'Cepuna' and combined datasets.

453 Table 5: Confusion matrix with average classification results on the combined dataset, 'Conference' dataset and 'Cepuna'  
 454 dataset of the two-features 'Conference' based SVM vs the two-feature classifier that was retrained on the combined  
 455 dataset with the features 'Mean fruit intensity' and 'Mean high-density tissue intensity'.

Combined dataset		Predicted			
		'Conference' based SVM		Retrained SVM	
		Defective	Healthy	Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	91.8 %	8.2 %	92.5 %	7.5 %
	Healthy	3.5 %	96.5 %	12.3 %	87.7 %
Overall classification accuracy:		93.1 %		91.2 %	

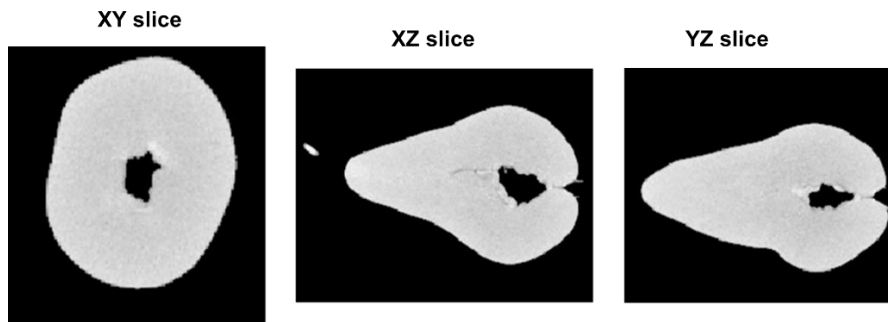
'Conference' subset		Predicted			
		'Conference' based SVM		Retrained SVM	
		Defective	Healthy	Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	86.7 %	13.3 %	85.0 %	15.0 %
	Healthy	4.8 %	95.2 %	4.8 %	95.2 %
Overall classification accuracy:		91.2 %		89.2 %	

'Cepuna' subset		Predicted			
		'Conference' based SVM		Retrained SVM	
		Defective	Healthy	Defective	Healthy
Ground truth	Defective	95.3 %	4.7 %	97.7 %	2.3 %
	Healthy	6.7 %	93.7 %	40.0 %	60.0 %
Overall classification accuracy:		95.1 %		92.2 %	

456 Overall low false positive rates by the 'Conference' based SVMs' were achieved, ranging between 0.0  
 457 and 6.7 % (see Table 2, Table 3, Table 4 and Table 5). Low false positive rates ensure that the number  
 458 of 'healthy' fruit that are falsely rejected, are minimized. Furthermore, there were false positives that  
 459 did not have a pronounced internal disorder but showed small deviating characteristics. For instance,  
 460 one rejected 'Conference' fruit had a relatively big open core which might be indeed disliked by some  
 461 consumers (see Figure 10). Economically, it makes sense to minimize the false positive rate for this  
 462 application, since during inspection the occurrence of internal disorders in a certain batch might be  
 463 relatively low and the false negatives might not have severe defects. In contrast, with a high false  
 464 positive rate to ensure a low false negative rate, the added benefit of detecting 'defective' fruit might  
 465 be offset by the falsely rejected 'healthy' fruit. Of course, this depends on the severity of the internal  
 466 disorders. To balance the compromise between the false positive and false negative rate in a desired  
 467 way, one could set a different threshold for the decision boundary of the classifier instead of placing it  
 468 at  $f(x) = 0$ . For 'Conference', the classifier had a true positive rate of 86.7 % with a false positive rate of

469 4.8 %. To have 0 % false positives, the true positive rate had to drop to around 82 %. To achieve a true  
470 positive rate of 100 %, the false positive rate increased to 60 %.



471

472 *Figure 10: Orthogonal slices through the CT reconstructions of a false positive 'Conference' pear example with relatively big*  
473 *open core.*

474 The 'Conference' based SVMs' had false negative rates ranging between 11.7 and 13.3 % for  
475 'Conference' and between 4.7 and 5.7 % for 'Cepuna'. Compared to the false positive rates, the false  
476 negative rates are thus higher. As explained above, however, in this application it might be more  
477 important to reduce the false positive rate. Moreover, most of the false negative samples had only a  
478 very small internal defects that may not even be noted by the end consumer. As an example, Figure  
479 11 shows orthogonal slices through the CT reconstructions of a 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' pear. These  
480 examples make clear that for interpreting classification results, it is important to investigate how the  
481 data was labeled. To consider the consumer acceptance and preferences in future research, it is  
482 suggested to perform an expert panel survey for labeling the fruit based on images of cut fruit in  
483 addition to a visual inspection of the CT data.

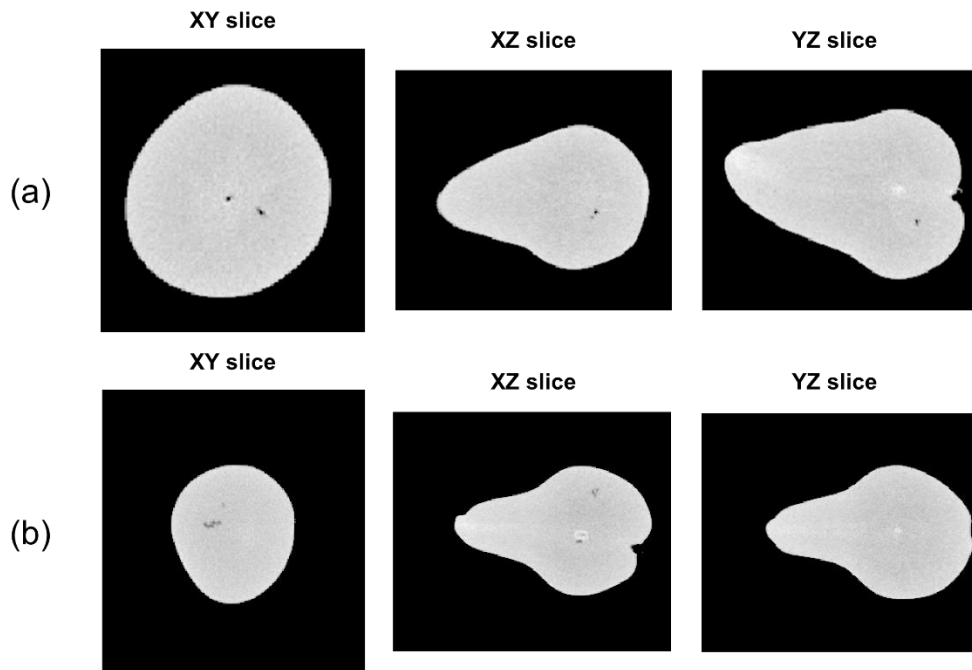


Figure 11: Orthogonal slices through the CT reconstructions of a false negative 'Conference' (a) and 'Cepuna' (b) pear examples.

484

485  
486

487 This analysis showed that the inspection of the internal quality of pear fruit can be done in 3D using X-  
 488 ray CT at high classification accuracies and low false positive rates. In the current experiment, the  
 489 achieved inspection speed (1.5 minute for scanning, stacking and reconstruction, plus 2.3 s for feature  
 490 extraction and classification) was not yet compatible with the commercial speed of existing sorting  
 491 lines, requiring at least 10 fruit per second per lane. Nonetheless, it should be noted that both the  
 492 experimental CT setup and the feature extraction algorithm were not optimized for reducing the  
 493 runtime. With advanced reconstruction algorithms available for translational X-ray CT (De Schryver et  
 494 al., 2016; Janssens et al., 2018), prototypes of inline CT systems can be developed. Speed  
 495 improvements can be made using a dedicated system combined with a trained reconstruction  
 496 algorithm that needs far less projections (Beister et al., 2012; De Schryver et al., 2016; Janssens et al.,  
 497 2018; Willeminck et al., 2013). Moreover, a stacked scan was needed due to the relatively small detector  
 498 size, requiring two full 360° sample rotations, intermediate height adjustments and a stacking  
 499 procedure. With a detector of appropriate size, the scanning time can thus already be reduced by 50 %.  
 500 The method could also be tested with other scanning settings, like exposure time and number of  
 501 projections to reduce the scanning time, or pixel and voxel sizes to reduce the computational cost  
 502 during reconstruction and analysis. Additionally, the feature extraction algorithm could be optimized  
 503 and it was shown that the number of features can be reduced to further reduce the processing time.  
 504 In terms of hardware, technical challenges must be overcome to transition from prototype systems to  
 505 fast inline CT systems, *e.g.*, the development sample holders that stabilize and rotate the sample while  
 506 translating at adequate speed. For industrial application continuing developments in both hardware



507 and software are thus needed to increase the inspection speed and reduce the equipment costs. In  
508 addition, the internal quality inspection system can be used on a limited part of the supply in which a  
509 high occurrence of internal disorders is expected. In this case, lower inspection speeds might be  
510 adequate.

511 The proposed method uses machine learning in which a classifier is trained on a training set in feature  
512 space. However, the features were still hand-crafted and thus possibly application specific. Application  
513 on other fruit products, like apples, might require other features to be used making feature  
514 determination more difficult. In the feature extraction algorithm, the KS-value was calculated as a  
515 measure of similarity between the low intensity (low density) and high intensity (high density) tissue  
516 regions. It was expected to be an important feature for separating the classes, however only low  
517 corresponding weights were given to this feature by the classifiers. This illustrates that intuitive hand-  
518 crafted features that seem smartly designed, may not always be the best choice, and presents a  
519 limitation of machine learning. In deep learning, valuable representations of the data are learned and  
520 extracted by the model itself. Hand-crafted features must thus no longer be engineered (Goodfellow  
521 et al., 2016). Deep learning on X-ray imaging is increasingly adopted, e.g., in medical applications (Lee  
522 et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2017), and might thus be considered as an alternative method in future  
523 research.

## 524 **5 CONCLUSION**

525 A combination of machine learning and X-ray computed tomography was proposed to successfully  
526 detect 'Conference' and 'Cepuna' pear fruit with a wide range in internal disorder severity  
527 automatically. Trained SVMs achieved good classification accuracies ranging between 90.2 and 95.1 %  
528 depending on the cultivar and number of features that were used. Moreover, low false positive and  
529 negative rates were obtained, respectively ranging between 0.0 and 6.7 %, and 5.7 and 13.3 %.  
530 Classifiers trained on 'Conference' data achieved high validation scores on the 'Cepuna' cultivar  
531 suggesting generalizability to other cultivars as well.

532 With continuing developments in both hardware and software to increase inspection speed and  
533 reduce the equipment costs, the method can be implemented in *e.g.*, inline translational X-ray CT for  
534 industrial application. Further research should focus on testing the method on an inline translational  
535 CT system with various parameter settings for image acquisition, validating the method for other  
536 cultivars or fruit and investigate other methods, *e.g.*, deep learning, for quality inspection of food in  
537 3D X-ray CT imaging.

## 538 **6 DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

539 None.

## 540 **7 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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