

# Responses of Horticultural Commodities to Low Oxygen: Limits to the Expanded Use of Modified Atmosphere Packaging

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ADDITIONAL INDEX WORDS. **respiration, ripening, fermentation, glycolysis, ethanol, fruit, vegetables, safe working atmosphere**

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**SUMMARY.** The application of low oxygen through modified atmosphere packaging (MAP) is a technique used successfully to preserve the visual quality of lettuce and some other commodities. The expansion of use of low O<sub>2</sub> via MAP to preserve quality of most commodities is limited by technical difficulties achieving target O<sub>2</sub> concentrations, adverse physiological responses to low O<sub>2</sub>, and lack of beneficial responses to low O<sub>2</sub>. Low O<sub>2</sub> often is not used simply because the physiological responses governed by the gas are not limiting quality maintenance. For instance, shelf life may be governed by decay susceptibility, which is largely unaffected by low O<sub>2</sub> and may actually be exacerbated by the conditions encountered in hermetically sealed packages. Physiological processes influenced by low O<sub>2</sub> and limit storability are discussed. The interdependence of O<sub>2</sub> concentration, O<sub>2</sub> uptake by the product, and temperature are discussed relative to requirements for packaging films.

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An important goal in some modified atmosphere packaging (MAP) systems is to generate an atmosphere sufficiently low in O<sub>2</sub> to influence the metabolism (e.g., softening, chlorophyll degradation, tissue browning, senescence) of the product being packaged such that storability and/or shelf life is extended. For some products, modifying both O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> may be desirable and indeed, when the O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in packages is altered, so too must be that of CO<sub>2</sub> by virtue of the system. In this presentation, however, comments will primarily be confined to the ramifications of O<sub>2</sub> modification; a discussion of the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> in MAP environments on metabolism is presented by Watkins (2000).

The expansion of MAP use in the future will, to some extent, require that technical and physiological limitations surrounding the application of low O<sub>2</sub> environments be overcome. Technical challenges remain, for instance, in developing packages that maintain O<sub>2</sub> partial pressures within tolerance levels as packages undergo changes in temperature and humidity.

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Challenges also remain in ameliorating and/or avoiding adverse physiological responses to low O<sub>2</sub>. Also, the lack of beneficial responses of some commodities to low O<sub>2</sub> partial pressures reduces impetus to expand use of MAP.

If low O<sub>2</sub> is desired for packaged fruits or vegetables, knowledge of the effect of package characteristics (film type, film thickness, film area, product weight), product respiration, and environmental parameters (temperature and humidity) on the O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure obtained in the package and the effect of this atmosphere on the quality and physiology of the enclosed product is essential. For instance, if O<sub>2</sub> levels decline below partial pressures required to sustain aerobic respiration, then fermentation and, potentially, off-flavors may result. Alternatively, if O<sub>2</sub> levels are not low enough, then responses to these atmospheres may inadequately improve storability. A range of nondamaging O<sub>2</sub> (and CO<sub>2</sub>) levels have been published for a number of fruits and vegetables (Beaudry, 1999; Kader, 1997a; Kupferman, 1997; Richardson and Kupferman, 1997; Saltveit, 1997), minimally processed products (Gorny, 1997), and flowers and ornamentals (Reid, 1997) and are summarized (Table 1).

### Technical limitations to low O<sub>2</sub> application

A film or package restricts gas exchange. Modified atmospheres are generated through the natural process of respiration by the enclosed product, which reduces O<sub>2</sub> concentration and increases CO<sub>2</sub> concentration under restricted gas exchange through the film barrier. Two somewhat different strategies for regulating gas exchange to achieve desired gas partial pressures exist. The first strategy uses continuous films that control movement of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> into or out of the package. The second strategy uses perforated films with small holes or microperforations as the primary route of gas exchange. For both routes of gas exchange, the reduction in O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and increase in CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure create gradients that, according to Fick's Law, cause O<sub>2</sub> to enter and CO<sub>2</sub> to exit the package. Steady-state (constant) O<sub>2</sub> levels are achieved in the package when the O<sub>2</sub> uptake by the product is equal to that permeating into the package, a situation that

exists only when the respiratory rate is constant (Cameron et al., 1989; Jurin and Karel, 1963; Tomkins, 1962). As for O<sub>2</sub>, steady-state CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the package are achieved when CO<sub>2</sub> production by the product equals CO<sub>2</sub> escape from the package. This process can be augmented by adjusting the mix of gases in the package headspace at the time of package sealing.

At steady-state, O<sub>2</sub> uptake can be depicted as follows:

$$r_{O_2} = (p_{o,O_2} - p_{i,O_2}) \times P_{O_2}A/Wl \quad [1]$$

here  $r_{O_2}$  is the respiration rate (mol·kg<sup>-1</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>) for oxygen,  $p_i$  and  $p_o$  are, respectively, the partial pressure in kPa (1.0 kPa ≈ 1% of an atmosphere) of gases outside and inside the package ( $p_{o,O_2}$  is 21 kPa (21%) O<sub>2</sub> and  $p_{i,O_2}$  is the steady-state O<sub>2</sub> level in the package headspace),  $A$  is the area (m<sup>2</sup>) of the package exposed to gas transfer,  $W$  is the weight (kg) of the produce, and  $l$  is the thickness (m) of the packaging film.  $P_{O_2}$  is the O<sub>2</sub> permeability (mol·m<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-2</sup>·kPa<sup>-1</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>), respectively, for the continuous or perforated film, which increases exponentially with temperature (Beaudry et al., 1992). The steady-state levels of both O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> are dependent on the interaction of respiration of the product and the permeability properties of the packaging film (Beaudry et al., 1992; Cameron, et al., 1989; Jurin and Karel, 1963). For continuous films, because the permeability of CO<sub>2</sub> is usually 2 to 8 times higher than that of O<sub>2</sub>, the sum of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations is less than 20% to 21% unless the RQ is of the same magnitude (or greater) as the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> to O<sub>2</sub> permeability. For perforated films, since the permeability of perforations to CO<sub>2</sub> is only 20% less than to O<sub>2</sub>, the sum of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations is usually only slightly less than 21%, the concentration of O<sub>2</sub> external to the package, unless the RQ is significantly greater than 1, in which case, the sum would be larger than 21%. Steady-state conditions are not always reached in packages, however, and part of the design process includes assessing and predicting the dynamic changes in package headspace. Dynamic models have been developed to do just this (Hertog et al., 1998).

Temperature is an extremely important consideration in package design. As temperature increases, the O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of many packaging films increases markedly. A tem-

perature sensitivity factor known as the energy of activation (E<sub>a</sub>) describes the temperature sensitivity of the permeation of O<sub>2</sub> and other gases through films and has units that are expressed in kiloJoules (kJ) per mole of molecules undergoing the interaction. The value of the E<sub>a</sub> for O<sub>2</sub> permeation through low density polyethylene (LDPE) is about 38 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> (Cameron et al., 1994), which yields a 2.5-fold (250%) increase in permeability between 0 and 15 °C. A higher E<sub>a</sub> would relate to a greater change in permeability over the temperature range and a lower E<sub>a</sub> indicates a lower temperature responsiveness. In contrast to permeation through continuous films, the permeation of gases through perforations has an extremely low temperature sensitivity factor, being about equivalent to 4.3 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> and so gas exchange through perforations in a package undergoes only a 10% increase with temperature in the range depicted.

The respiratory response of plant material to O<sub>2</sub> concentration also has a temperature sensitivity that can be mathematically described using saturation-type curves. A standard means of expressing the dependence of a reaction (O<sub>2</sub> uptake) on a substrate (O<sub>2</sub>) is the Michaelis-Menton model (Cameron et al., 1994; Hertog et al., 1998), which is primarily applied to specific enzymatic reactions, although other models have been used. The model is expressed as follows:

$$r_{O_2} = (V_{max} p_{i,O_2}) / (K_m + p_{i,O_2}) \quad [2]$$

where  $r_{O_2}$  is O<sub>2</sub> uptake (mol·kg<sup>-1</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>),  $V_{max}$  (mol·kg<sup>-1</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>) is the maximal rate of O<sub>2</sub> uptake,  $p_{i,O_2}$  is the partial pressure (Pa) of O<sub>2</sub> in the package, and  $K_m$  is the O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in the package at 50% of  $V_{max}$ . For some products, the skin and/or flesh may offer significant resistance to gas movement, so the terms apparent  $K_m$  or  $K_{1/2}$  are often substituted for  $K_m$  since it includes the gradient from the interior to the exterior of the plant tissues (Cameron et al., 1994, 1995).

Importantly,  $V_{max}$  can be assigned a temperature sensitivity factor in a manner similar to the process of permeation (Cameron et al., 1994). This factor can be termed the apparent E<sub>a</sub> or E<sub>a</sub><sup>app</sup> with higher values reflecting greater changes in respiration over a given temperature range. The maximal rate of respiration for most fruit and vegetable products has an E<sub>a</sub><sup>app</sup>

between 60 and 90 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup>, undergoing a 4- to 6-fold increase from 0 to 15 °C (32 to 59 °F) (Beaudry et al., 1992; Cameron et al., 1994, 1995; Lakukul et al., 1999). This means that product respiration increases at two or three times the rate of LDPE permeability and thirty times the rate of perforation permeability with increasing temperature. A situation where respiratory demand for O<sub>2</sub> increases faster than O<sub>2</sub> permeation presents problems with maintaining adequate O<sub>2</sub> when the package undergoes a temperature increase and is an example of a significant limitation with regard to package O<sub>2</sub>, namely, maintaining target gas levels. The imbalance in the temperature sensitivity of respiration and permeation was recognized by early workers in the field (Tomkins, 1962; Workman, 1959) and later modeled (Cameron et al., 1994; Hertog et al., 1998).

Theoretically, there are several ways of solving the temperature problem. One method is to use a polymer film with a higher temperature sensitivity factor for O<sub>2</sub> transmission. High O<sub>2</sub> permeability, highly temperature sensitive films are now available and are being used commercially on a limited scale (Clarke and De Moor, 1997; Lange, 2000). Another solution to the MAP temperature problem is to develop a package system that senses either the environment or the physiological status of the enclosed product and responds by increasing the permeability to O<sub>2</sub> (Cameron et al., 1993). Such sense-and-respond packaging is technically difficult to develop, although some progress has been made at least conceptually (Smyth et al., 1999). A third approach to solve the MAP temperature problem is to design packages to function at the highest temperatures typically encountered in the distribution and retail cool chain and, as far as possible, maintain control over the temperature of the packaged product, thereby adapting to the limitations imposed by the film. This simple solution, first suggested by Tomkins (1962) and Workman (1959), has been adopted by most companies using MAP. Generally, the lowest temperature feasible is maintained, since temperature has a much more significant influence on preserving quality than the application of low O<sub>2</sub> (Kays, 1997).

The effect of temperature and other factors on package O<sub>2</sub> can be determined or predicted using math-

ematical models (Cameron et al., 1994; Hertog et al., 1998). The models depend on combining information that includes the effect of temperature on film permeability (Eq. 1) with information that includes the effects of temperature and O<sub>2</sub> on respiration (Eq. 2). The models permit us to predict package O<sub>2</sub> as a function of temperature, product weight, surface area, and film thickness. By setting Eq. 1 equal to Eq. 2 and solving for the O<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in MA packages, the following model can be developed (Cameron et al., 1994):

$$p_{i,O_2} = 1/2\{[(K_{1/2} + (Wl/P_{O_2}A)V_{max} - p_{o,O_2})^2 + 4p_{o,O_2}K_{1/2}]^{1/2} - [K_{1/2} + (Wl/P_{O_2}A)V_{max} - p_{o,O_2}]\} \quad [3]$$

Models have been published for whole apples, apple slices (Lakukul et al., 1999), blueberries (Beaudry et al., 1992; Cameron et al., 1994), chicory leaves (Hertog et al., 1998), broccoli florets (Cameron et al., 1995), lettuce leaves (Cameron et al., 1995), strawberry (Joles, 1993), tomato (Hertog et al., 1998), and raspberry (Joles, 1993; Joles et al., 1994).

In addition to respiratory responses to package atmospheres, nondetrimental exposure criteria for O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> are important pieces of information for package design and the interpretation of the package O<sub>2</sub> models. If O<sub>2</sub> levels get too low, fermentation results, which is linked to the development of off-flavors and/or tissue damage (Kays, 1997). The lower O<sub>2</sub> limit for most commodities generally increases with temperature (Beaudry et al., 1992; Cameron et al., 1994, 1995; Yearsley et al., 1996).

Finally, the variation one might encounter in the respiration rate of the product and the variation in film or pore permeability should be factored into design criteria. Variation in broccoli respiration and package permeability has been measured and the effect on package O<sub>2</sub> levels modeled (Cameron et al., 1993; Talasila et al., 1994). For any package design, there is an estimable risk of the package O<sub>2</sub> falling below the lower O<sub>2</sub> limit tolerated by the product, resulting in fermentation. By reducing the variability of package parameters and targeting effective, but adequate O<sub>2</sub> concentrations well above the lower O<sub>2</sub> limit, the risk of inducing fermentation in packages can be minimized.

Once all of the above information

has been accumulated, it should be possible to design packages with a reasonably predictable performance. For instance, packages can be designed to maintain aerobic O<sub>2</sub> levels at the highest temperature to which they will be exposed, thus avoiding fermentative conditions at all temperatures. Alternatively, they can be designed to generate low O<sub>2</sub> levels only at high temperatures. A package O<sub>2</sub> model such as the one specified can also be used to predict very specific package criteria. For instance, the thickness ranges that protect against fermentation can be established for specific film types (Lakukul et al., 1999). It should also be noted that combination packages can be designed that use both perforation and film polymer pathways for gas exchange (Fishman et al., 1996).

Combined perforation/permeation MAP has features of both systems and the attainable atmosphere combinations are in-between those of packages dependent on permeation only and those dependent on diffusion through perforations only (Beaudry, 1999; Lee, 1994). These packages would attain a sort of 'middle ground' in terms of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> transmission in that the temperature sensitivity for permeation and the discrimination between O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> is somewhere between those for perforated packages and hermetic packages.

## Physiological limitations to low O<sub>2</sub> application

The application of MAP to preserve the quality of harvested plant products is limited in part by adverse and/or nonbeneficial physiological responses to the atmospheres. Plant responses to modified O<sub>2</sub> levels have generally been well-characterized and include responses at the levels of primary and secondary metabolism (Kader, 1997b). Of the primary metabolic responses to low O<sub>2</sub>, beneficial reactions include a reduction in respiration (i.e., O<sub>2</sub> uptake), which can be manifested as a reduction in starch degradation and sugar consumption. Reduced respiration is often interpreted as reflecting a reduction in global metabolism (Kays, 1997). An important negative response to low O<sub>2</sub> is the induction of fermentation, as has been mentioned previously, and the diversion of carbon in glycolysis to acetaldehyde, ethanol, and lactate. Generally, the lower limit of O<sub>2</sub> content in the atmosphere is considered to be the O<sub>2</sub>

level at which fermentation is induced (Yearsley et al., 1996). The  $O_2$  level at the induction point for fermentation can be termed the fermentation threshold. The fermentation threshold is not always the lower  $O_2$  limit in commercial practice, however, when benefits due to  $O_2$  levels near or below the fermentation threshold outweigh the loss in flavor or other quality parameters. This is true for fresh-cut lettuce, in particular, a situation that will be later detailed.

Of the secondary metabolic responses to low  $O_2$ , important beneficial reactions include a reduction ethylene synthesis and perception, reduced chlorophyll degradation, reduced cell wall degradation, and reduced phenolic oxidation. Reduced ethylene effects can be manifested as changes in primary and secondary metabolism. The low  $O_2$ -induced reduction in ethylene action likely comprises the most widely useful aspect of low  $O_2$  application and forms the basis for the controlled-atmosphere (CA) storage of climacteric fruit (Solomos, 1997). It should be noted that many of the plant responses to low  $O_2$  are altered by the presence of  $CO_2$  (Silva, 1998; Watkins, 2000; Yang and Chinnan, 1988).

Negative secondary metabolic responses to low  $O_2$  include reduced aroma biosynthesis for fruit including apple, banana, pear, peach, strawberry, and other crops (Mattheis and Fellman, 2000; Shamaila et al., 1992), and the possibility of off-flavor generation (Kays, 1997). The determination as to whether a particular plant organ can be favorably affected by reduced  $O_2$  concentration depends upon the balance obtained between positive and negative responses. The following discussion details the influence of  $O_2$  on primary and secondary metabolic pathways important to fruit and vegetable quality, with emphasis on respiratory suppression.

**RESPIRATION.** A reduction in the rate of respiration by the application of low  $O_2$  atmospheres has often been stated as a rationale for the use of CA and MAP. The premise has been that reducing the respiration rate reduces the rate of deterioration of the tissues, thereby extending storage life (Burton, 1974; Herner, 1997). The basis for this argument originally stems from work by Kidd and West (1914, 1927) on seed and fruit storage. The suggestion that reduced  $O_2$  can be applied for

the purpose of reducing respiration cannot be broadly applied, however, because, for many crops, a reduction in respiration by low  $O_2$  is accompanied by the induction of fermentation. For those commodities in which a significant reduction in respiration is possible without the induction of fermentation, the impact is often not directly on the respiratory machinery, but on ethylene action (Solomos, 1997). The following analysis of respiratory behavior serves to illustrate these points.

If one assumes that a significant reduction in respiratory (i.e., metabolic) activity is needed to add sufficient value to offset the expenses incurred in the application of MAP technologies to reduce  $O_2$ , then there is some point at which investment in the technology is balanced by the added value. For the sake of argument, a level of 50% reduction in respiration is suggested to be associated with sufficient enhancement of shelf life (i.e., value) such that the cost of the extra handling and materials resulting from MAP will be recovered. While this level of respiratory inhibition is arbitrary, it is coincident with the  $K_{1/2}$ , a physiologically significant parameter, and serves as a benchmark for the purpose of discussion.

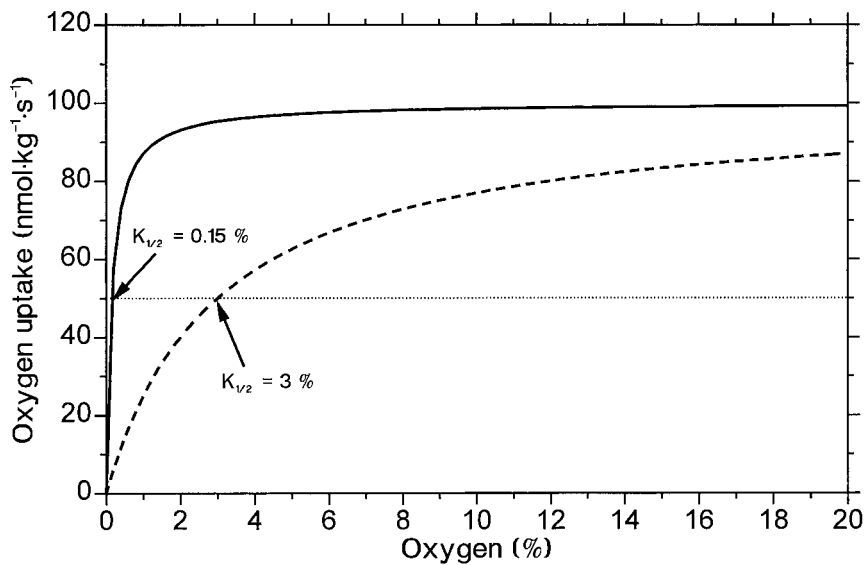
There are two terminal oxidases that use  $O_2$  as a substrate in this final step in respiration: cytochrome c oxidase (CytOx) and the alternative, cyanide-insensitive, oxidase (AltOx). CytOx has a very high affinity for  $O_2$ , having a  $K_m$  of 0.1% to 0.15%  $O_2$  in the atmosphere external to the cell, while the AltOx has much lower affinity for  $O_2$ , as reflected by its  $K_m$  of 1% to 3%  $O_2$  (Mapson and Burton, 1962; Solomos, 1977a). CytOx is typically present and functioning in most tissues, whereas the AltOx is not always present and is commonly modulated at the molecular level or by allosteric effectors (Vanlerberghe and McIntosh, 1997). The simultaneous operation of both oxidases may make respiratory responses to  $O_2$  difficult to interpret. Additionally, even if only CytOx were active, the external  $O_2$  level at which  $O_2$  uptake is 50% of its maximum will likely be considerably higher than 0.15% due to flesh and skin resistances to gas diffusion.

As noted previously, the  $K_{1/2}$  includes the gradient between the interior and exterior of the plant organ and

can be substantially higher than the  $K_m$ . The  $K_{1/2}$  for various plant parts is often in the 0.25% to 5%  $O_2$  range and exhibits a temperature dependence, increasing with increasing temperature (Cameron et al., 1995; Hertog et al., 1998; Joles, 1993; Yearsley et al., 1996). The temperature dependence of the  $K_{1/2}$  is a result of an increase in the gradient of  $O_2$  with temperature, rather than a shift in the  $K_m$  since the  $K_m$  is relatively constant within the range of physiologically relevant temperatures (Yearsley, et al., 1996). The relatively high  $K_{1/2}$  causes the curve describing the dependence of  $O_2$  uptake on  $O_2$  concentration to be rather broad for whole plant organs, especially those held at elevated temperatures, but very sharp for single cells and other tissues with little diffusive resistance (Fig. 1). For the remainder of the paper, discussion regarding the fermentation threshold and the  $K_{1/2}$  will pertain to  $O_2$  levels in the package atmosphere ( $p_{i,O_2}$ ) in that this value represents that of concern to the commercial storage operator and is the quantity most often expressed in papers on the topic of atmosphere tolerances.

It is worth mentioning that the control of  $O_2$  uptake may not be strictly controlled at the level of CytOx and AltOx. A hypothetical system that senses the  $O_2$  concentration in plant tissues and regulates carbon flux has been suggested (Mapson and Burton, 1962; Solomos, 1997b). While such a system would help explain the rather broad nature of  $O_2$ -dependent curves obtained for glycolytic processes in some tissues (Silva, 1998; Solomos, 1997b), definitive proof is lacking. In some instances, skin and flesh resistances have been suggested to cause broad  $O_2$ -dependent respiratory curves (Tucker and Laties, 1985).

A convenient way to collect the respiratory data required to calculate the  $K_{1/2}$  and the fermentation threshold involves enclosing the desired product in packages composed of films of known permeability for a given temperature (Beaudry et al., 1992). The weight of the plant material and the thickness of the film can be varied in order to generate a range of  $O_2$  atmospheres. After some days, the  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  levels reach steady-state at which time the rates of flux of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  through the package are essentially equal to their rate of uptake and pro-



**Fig. 1. Hypothetical respiratory responses to O<sub>2</sub> for a respiratory system of low diffusive resistance exhibiting a K<sub>1/2</sub> of about 0.15% O<sub>2</sub>, representative of single cells or tissues, and a tissue with significant diffusive resistance to gas exchange with an K<sub>1/2</sub> of 3% O<sub>2</sub>.**

duction, respectively. At steady-state, O<sub>2</sub> uptake, CO<sub>2</sub> production, and a relative indicator of fermentation, the respiratory quotient (RQ), can be determined as a function of the package O<sub>2</sub> concentration (Fig. 2). By fitting the respiratory data with a Michaelis-Menton equation, the K<sub>1/2</sub> can be determined. The fermentation threshold can be considered to be the O<sub>2</sub> level below which, the RQ increases (Beaudry et al., 1992).

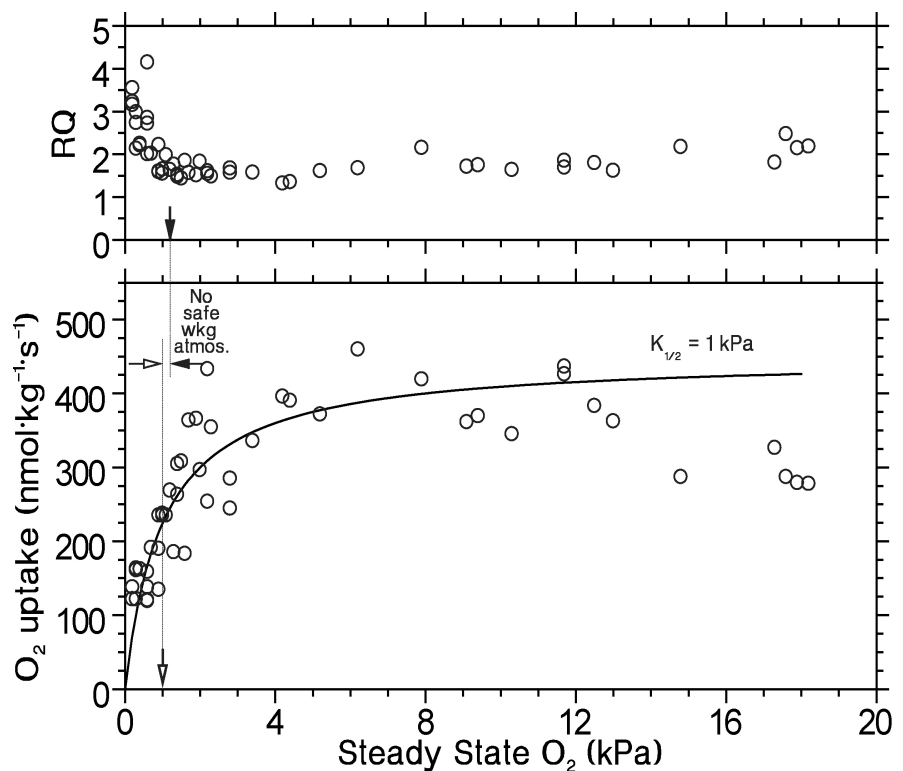
The difference between the K<sub>1/2</sub> for O<sub>2</sub> uptake and the fermentation threshold can be used as a criterion for deciding whether low O<sub>2</sub> will provide a beneficial response in terms of restricting respiration and slowing metabolism for the purpose of improving storability. If, for instance, the fermentation threshold is much lower than the apparent K<sub>m</sub>, then a greater than 50% reduction in respiration and attendant metabolic activities can be achieved without the threat of fermentation, thereby, in concept, safely enabling improved storability via metabolic suppression. This range of O<sub>2</sub> levels might be termed the safe working atmosphere with respect to respiratory reduction. On the other hand, if the fermentation threshold is near or above the K<sub>1/2</sub>, it could be argued that little or no advantage due to reduced metabolic activity can be achieved by

reducing O<sub>2</sub> since the tissues would be compromised by fermentative activity. In the latter case, there would be no safe working atmosphere.

Two examples of the commodities having no safe working atmosphere include strawberry fruit and asparagus spears. In an unpublished study in which the respiratory rate of straw-

berry was determined using packages, the K<sub>1/2</sub> was determined to be about 1% O<sub>2</sub> at 20 °C, but fermentation was evident below about 1.2% O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2). Similar data are available for asparagus held at 0 °C, where the K<sub>1/2</sub> is about 1% O<sub>2</sub> and the fermentation threshold is 1.2% O<sub>2</sub> (Silva, 1998). Based on these data, use of low O<sub>2</sub> for the purpose of respiratory suppression would not be advisable. In fact, low O<sub>2</sub> storage is not recommended for either of these plant materials to extend shelf life (Table 1). This is consistent with commercial practice in that little to no low O<sub>2</sub> storage of either commodity occurs.

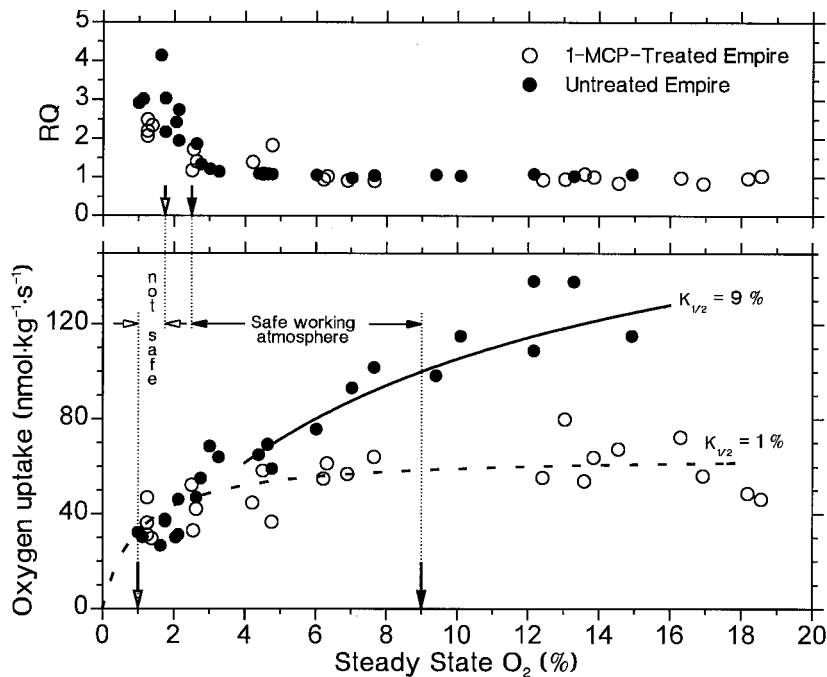
An example of a rather broad safe working atmosphere was found for apple fruit, although it was dependent upon the stage of fruit development (Fig. 3). Mature, but nonripening 'Empire' apple fruit were treated with 1-methylcyclopropene (1-MCP), an inhibitor of ethylene action (Serek et al., 1995; Sisler and Blankenship, 1996) to keep them in a preclimacteric stage of development, or were left untreated before packaging. Packaged fruit were held at 20 °C for 14 d. Ripening of



**Fig. 2. Respiratory response to O<sub>2</sub> and the associated RQ of strawberry fruit held at 22 °C (72 °F) for 5 d in LDPE packages (data previously unpublished). The vertical arrow in the upper graph depicts the lower O<sub>2</sub> limit based on the increase in fermentative activity at lower O<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The vertical arrow in the lower graph indicates the K<sub>1/2</sub> of the fitted line. The fact that the lower O<sub>2</sub> limit exceeds the K<sub>1/2</sub> is taken to indicate that there is no safe working atmosphere.**

**Table 1. Oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) limits below which injury can occur for selected horticultural crops held at typical storage temperatures (from Beaudry, 1999; Gorny, 1997; Kader, 1997a; Kupferman, 1997; Richardson and Kupferman, 1997; Saltveit, 1997). Those commodities in bold are considered to have very good to excellent potential to respond to low O<sub>2</sub>. The O<sub>2</sub> limit does not always refer to the fermentation threshold, but may relate to discoloration or other disorder.**

O <sub>2</sub> (%)	Commodity
≤0.5	<b>Broccoli</b> ( <i>Brassica oleracea</i> L. Group Italica) Lettuce (chopped greenleaf, redleaf, Romaine and iceberg; <i>Lactuca sativa</i> L.) Mushroom ( <i>Agaricus bisporus</i> L.) Pear (sliced) ( <i>Pyrus communis</i> L.) Spinach ( <i>Spinacia oleracea</i> L.)
1	Apple (sliced) ( <i>Malus × domestica</i> Borkh.) Apricot ( <i>Prunus armeniaca</i> L.) Atemoya ( <i>Annona squamosa × cherimola</i> ) Avocado ( <i>Persea americana</i> Mill.) <b>Banana</b> ( <i>Musa</i> L.) Brussels sprouts ( <i>Brassica oleracea</i> L. Group Gemmifera) Broccoli (florets) Cantaloupe (muskmelon; <i>Cucumis melo</i> L.) Cherimoya ( <i>Annona cherimola</i> Mill.) Cherry (sweet; <i>Prunus avium</i> L.) Chicory ( <i>Cichorium intybus</i> L.) Cranberry ( <i>Vaccinium macrocarpon</i> Ait.) Cucumber ( <i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.) Grape ( <i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.) <b>Kiwifruit</b> ( <i>Actinidia deliciosa</i> (A. Chev) C.F. Liang et A.R. Ferguson var. <i>deliciosa</i> ) Lettuce (chopped butterhead, crisphead) Litchi (Lychee) ( <i>Litchi chinensis</i> Sonn.) Nectarine [ <i>Prunus persica</i> (L.) Batsch Group] Onion (bulb; <i>Allium cepa</i> L.) Peach [ <i>Prunus persica</i> (L.) Batsch] Plum ( <i>Prunus × domestica</i> L.) Rambutan ( <i>Nephelium lappaceum</i> L.) Sweetsop ( <i>Annona squamosa</i> (L.))
1.5	<b>Apple</b> (most cultivars) <b>Pear</b> (most cultivars)
2	Artichoke ( <i>Cynara scolymus</i> L.) Blackberry ( <i>Rubus</i> L. subg. <i>Rubus</i> Watson) <b>Cabbage</b> ( <i>Brassica oleracea</i> L. Group Capitata) Cauliflower ( <i>Brassica oleracea</i> L. Group Botrytis) Carrot (shredded and cut) ( <i>Daucus carota</i> L.) Celery [ <i>Apium graveolens</i> L. dulce (Mill.) Pers.] Corn (sweet) ( <i>Zea mays</i> L.) Durian ( <i>Durio zibethinus</i> Murr.) Fig ( <i>Ficus carica</i> L.) Mango ( <i>Manifera indica</i> L.) Olive ( <i>Olea europaea</i> L.) Papaya ( <i>Carica papaya</i> L.) Pepper (green bell and chilli; <i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.) Pineapple [ <i>Ananas comosus</i> (L.) Merr.] Pomegranate ( <i>Punica granatum</i> L.) Raspberry ( <i>Rubus idaeus</i> L.) Strawberry ( <i>Fragaria × ananassa</i> Duch.) Tomato [ <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> (L.) Mill.]
2.5	Blueberry ( <i>Vaccinium corymbosum</i> L.) Cabbage (shredded)
3	<b>Apple</b> (some cultivars) Cantaloupe (cubed or sliced) Grapefruit ( <i>Citrus paradisi</i> Macf.) <b>Pear</b> (some cultivars) Persimmon ( <i>Diospyros khaki</i> L.) Potato ( <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L.)
4	Mushrooms (sliced)
5	Bean (green snap) ( <i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L.) Lemon ( <i>Citrus jambhiri</i> Lush.) Lime ( <i>Citrus limettioides</i> Tan.) Orange [ <i>Citrus sinensis</i> (L.) Osb.]
10	Asparagus ( <i>Asparagus officinalis</i> L.)
14	Orange (sections)



**Fig. 3. Respiratory response to  $O_2$  and the associated RQ of mature, unripe (1-MCP-treated) and ripening (untreated) apple fruit held at 22 °C (72 °F) for 14 d in LDPE packages (data previously unpublished). The vertical arrow in the upper graph depicts the lower  $O_2$  limit based on the increase in fermentative activity at lower  $O_2$  concentrations. The vertical arrow in the lower graph indicates the  $K_{1/2}$  of the fitted line. The fact that the lower  $O_2$  limit exceeds the  $K_{1/2}$  for unripe fruit is taken to indicate that there is no safe working atmosphere for fruit of this developmental stage. The fact that the  $K_{1/2}$  exceeds the lower  $O_2$  limit for ripening fruit is taken to indicate that there is a substantial safe working atmosphere for fruit of this developmental stage.**

apple fruit is inhibited by a single exposure to 1-MCP for as long as 30 to 40 d at room temperature (Beaudry, unpublished data; Fan et al., 1999). Untreated fruit ripened normally within 5 to 6 d. The 1-MCP-treated fruit showed no outward signs of ripening throughout the study as judged by changes in green and yellow coloration or firmness loss such that the fruit were considered to be in a nonripening state. The respiratory curve for the nonripening fruit exhibited a  $K_{1/2}$  of about 1%  $O_2$  and a  $V_{max}$  of about 65  $nmol \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}$  (Fig. 3). The fermentation threshold was about 2%  $O_2$ . Thus, there was no safe working atmosphere for nonripening fruit. The implication

is that for nonripening fruit, low  $O_2$  benefits are not due to respiratory suppression, but are primarily due to effects on ethylene action, which is consistent with previous assessments (Burg and Burg, 1967; Solomos, 1997b). Ripening fruit, however, had a  $K_{1/2}$  of about 9%  $O_2$  and a  $V_{max}$  of about 200  $nmol \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}$ . The increased respiratory rate at high  $O_2$  levels indicated that the fruit were undergoing climacteric respiratory enhancement associated with ripening. The fermentation threshold was about 2.5%  $O_2$ , yielding a safe working atmosphere of nearly 6.5% in breadth between 2.5% and 9%  $O_2$ . A similar response to  $O_2$  was found for 'Jonathan' apple fruit, which had a safe working atmosphere of about 6% in breadth between 1% and 7%  $O_2$  (data not shown). Insofar as the permeabilities of the apple fruit skin and flesh are not known to shift dramatically during the early stages of ripening (Park, 1990), this shift in  $K_{1/2}$  and  $V_{max}$  may reflect the induction and extensive use of the alternative oxidase as ripening commenced, an observation supported by previous research on other climacteric crops (Cruz-Hernandez and Gomez-Lim, 1995), but not yet confirmed. In any case, ripening fruit in which climacteric respiration has been induced would be expected to respond to reduced  $O_2$  levels by a reduction in  $O_2$  uptake and associated oxidative metabolism at an  $O_2$  level well above the fermentation threshold. In keeping

with this expectation is the long history of successful low  $O_2$  storage of apple fruit (Kidd and West, 1927, 1945). In the apple industry, CA storage is a relatively common practice and typically results in a doubling or tripling of shelf life relative to refrigerated air storage (Fidler, 1965).

A similar, large safe working atmosphere is present for tomato fruit (data not shown), which respond positively to low  $O_2$  levels. Unlike apple fruit, however, there was a safe working atmosphere for both unripe, mature fruit as well as ripening fruit. The  $K_{1/2}$  increased from 3% to 9%  $O_2$  during ripening and the fermentation threshold remained unchanged at about 1%  $O_2$  (data not shown). Low  $O_2$  atmospheres significantly delay the onset of tomato ripening and slow ripening once underway (Yang and Chinnan, 1988). Despite the rather broad safe working atmosphere for tomato, advantages gained by respiratory suppression and the reduction in ethylene action by low  $O_2$  may be minimized by decay and bruising (Allen and Allen, 1950; Isenburg, 1979; Saltveit, 1997). In that  $O_2$  concentrations above the fermentation threshold have little effect on the activity of most decay organisms (Brown, 1922), low  $O_2$  would not directly suppress decay. Additionally, marketing is such that extending storage life of tomato fruit for would do little to add value to the crop. Tomato production is already year-round, with no discernible breaks in fresh product availability.

Safe working atmospheres 3.5% and 2%  $O_2$  in width were found for broccoli and blueberries, respectively (data not shown). Broccoli respond to reduced  $O_2$  in a favorable fashion (Makhoul et al., 1989a, 1989b; Tian et al., 1994), exhibiting a longer storage life in terms of green color retention. A benefit for low  $O_2$  on blueberries has been reported (Frisina et al., 1988), while others report little to no benefit (Ceponis and Cappellini, 1985; Smittle and Miller, 1988). Blueberry fruit are highly susceptible to decay and this feature often limits storability rather than the rate of fruit metabolism per se (Ceponis and Cappellini, 1985).

The lack of a safe working atmosphere for respiratory suppression may provide a mechanistic understanding as to why low  $O_2$  atmospheres do not extend storage life in many horticultural

tural commodities. A clear exception appears to be preclimacteric apple fruit, for which respiratory suppression could be damaging, but because ethylene plays a significant role in ripening and senescence, low O<sub>2</sub> is effective in improving storability. Alternatively, the presence of a safe working atmosphere does not necessarily mean that the commodity is appropriate for the implementation of low O<sub>2</sub> atmospheres. Largely this is due to factors other than respiratory (i.e., metabolic) rate that limit storability.

**ETHYLENE.** Low O<sub>2</sub> is known to exert marked effects on ethylene biosynthesis (Abeles et al., 1992; Makhlof et al., 1989a, 1989b). The K<sub>1/2</sub> of 1-aminocyclopropane carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO), the enzyme responsible for the last step in the enzymatic production of ethylene from 1-aminocyclopropane carboxylic acid (ACC) has been variously reported as falling within the range of 1.4% to 10% (Abeles et al., 1992). The requirement for O<sub>2</sub> is dependent on the concentration of the other substrate, ACC, due to the fact that ACO is a bisubstrate enzyme. As ACC levels increase, the K<sub>m</sub> of the enzyme for O<sub>2</sub> declines. The mechanism is considered to be ordered bisubstrate with ACO first binding O<sub>2</sub>, then binding ACC (Abeles et al., 1992).

Oxygen has also been reported to exert an effect on C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> perception (Burg and Burg, 1967) although this has been disputed (Abeles et al., 1992). Therefore, the effect of reduced O<sub>2</sub> may be due to reducing ethylene sensitivity in addition to its effect on biosynthesis. The general observation for climacteric tissues, however, is that O<sub>2</sub> concentrations that would normally not inhibit respiration in the mature green fruit still reduce the rate of ripening. For example, 'Empire' apple, fruit held in 3% O<sub>2</sub> and 22 °C that were maintained in a preclimacteric, nonripening state by 1-MCP treatment exhibited little reduction in respiration (Fig. 3). However, apple ripening can be significantly retarded by this concentrations of O<sub>2</sub> relative to higher O<sub>2</sub> levels (Sfakiotakis and Dille, 1973). Thus, even if O<sub>2</sub> does not directly impinge on ethylene perception as suggested by Abeles et al. (1992), climacteric tissue responses make it appear so. Further, for nonripening climacteric fruit, it appears that the primary function of low O<sub>2</sub> is to sup-

press ripening through ethylene action, as opposed to general metabolic suppression via respiratory inhibition.

Low O<sub>2</sub> atmospheres have been used most commonly in commercial CA facilities to minimize ethylene-dependent responses attendant to ripening of climacteric fruit, but this goal may not always be compatible with MAP for consumer packages. For instance, while the initiation of ripening can be prevented very effectively by MAP, it is not commonly used for this purpose since it is the ripe or nearly ripe fruit that must be packaged to permit immediate consumption by the consumer. Ripe fruit are generally less responsive to inhibition of ethylene action than the preclimacteric fruit and more susceptible to handling damage and decay. The increased risks for quality loss likely do not justify the increased costs of packaging. More potential for incorporation of MAP to control ripening exists, perhaps, for lightly processed products, which require packaging anyway, or for whole fruit at the packinghouse or distributor level (Watkins et al., 1998).

**PLANT PIGMENTS.** Low O<sub>2</sub> has important effects on metabolism other than those on respiration and ethylene action that can have significant impacts on quality of plant products at both the distributor and consumer level. Low O<sub>2</sub> reduces the rate of degreening due to chlorophyll loss and inhibits browning reactions catalyzed by polyphenol oxidase (PPO). Chlorophyll loss, a desirable trait for many climacteric fruit, results in a quality loss for many vegetable products. Chlorophyll degradation in green vegetables can be inhibited by low O<sub>2</sub> (Makhlof et al., 1989a). This response is probably partly due to inhibition by O<sub>2</sub> of ethylene-mediated promotion of senescence and perhaps by the direct action of O<sub>2</sub> in limiting the reaction of pheophorbide a oxygenase (Matile et al., 1999). The argument for the involvement of ethylene in the degreening process is strong for broccoli. Broccoli degreening can be inhibited by low O<sub>2</sub> (Makhlof et al., 1989a), which reduces ethylene synthesis (Makhlof et al., 1989b) and can be enhanced by added ethylene or the ethylene analogue propylene (Tian et al., 1994). Further, broccoli degreening is inhibited by the specific inhibitor of ethylene action, 1-MCP (Ku and Wills, 1999; Mir and Beaudry,

unpublished data).

By far, the bulk of low O<sub>2</sub> use in consumer MA packages is for the purpose of reducing browning of the cut surfaces on lightly processed products, primarily lettuce and salad mixes. Cutting results in the mixing of cellular contents so that the various phenolic substrates such as mono-, di- and triphenols (Mayer and Harel, 1979) come into contact with PPO, leading to the formation of high molecular weight polymers and complexes with amino acids and proteins, resulting in the formation of brown pigments. The K<sub>m</sub> for O<sub>2</sub> in tissue browning has been variously reported as ranging from 6% to 10% (Mapson and Burton, 1962; Mayer and Harel, 1979). Smyth et al. (1998) demonstrated that O<sub>2</sub> levels below 2% and above the fermentation threshold of about 0.5% reduced the rate of browning in lettuce. The concentration of O<sub>2</sub> in commercial packages of lettuce and salad products is often below the fermentation threshold (Cameron et al., 1995; Peiser et al., 1997). However, the fermentation of lettuce, if not severe, results in very few off-flavors (Smyth et al., 1998).

**VOLATILES.** The production of volatile esters, which contribute to characteristic aromas of a number of fruit including apple, banana, pear, peach, strawberry, and others are affected by atmosphere modification (Mattheis and Fellman, 2000; Shamaila et al., 1992; Song et al., 1998). This topic will be discussed in detail (Mattheis and Fellman, 2000) in these workshop proceedings. Production of aroma compounds that confer characteristic odors is generally suppressed by low O<sub>2</sub>, in part by the action of O<sub>2</sub> on ethylene action in climacteric fruits, but also likely via action of O<sub>2</sub> on oxidative processes, including respiration, required for substrate production. Many volatiles that do not contribute to aroma are also suppressed by low O<sub>2</sub>. In apple and pear, for instance, low O<sub>2</sub> may also alter terpenoid metabolism such that the production of  $\alpha$ -farnesene (a semivolatile sesquiterpene that induces superficial scald) is reduced (Huelin and Murray, 1966). In general, most products recover from moderate low O<sub>2</sub> suppression of aroma volatile production and eventually develop characteristic flavors. Importantly, however, for consumer MA packages using low O<sub>2</sub>, aroma suppression immediately precedes con-



sumption and may limit consumer acceptance.

## Conclusions

The ability to modify the atmosphere surrounding plant products by sealing the plant material in permeable polymeric films has led to the development of MAP applications for bulk and consumer-sized products. MAP dates back to the middle to late 1940s when packages were first evaluated for their capability to reduce  $O_2$  levels sufficiently to slow the ripening of apple fruit. The primary limitation of MAP application noted in the early studies was technical in nature, specifically being the lack of consistent control of  $O_2$  concentration in the package, which was a problem compounded by the lack of adequate temperature control. While temperature management has improved markedly,  $O_2$  control still remains a primary concern. Recent developments in packaging models, the advent of temperature-compensating films, and the prospects for the development of sense-and-respond packaging suggests that this limitation may eventually diminish. The physiological limitations presented by fruit and vegetable products have proven less tractable than the technological limitations mentioned, and little progress has been made in this area apart from quantifying the ability of plant material to withstand low  $O_2$  stresses and recover from low  $O_2$  exposure. Furthermore, many, if not most, plant tissues do not respond favorably to low  $O_2$  to a sufficient extent to warrant the use of MA packaging for the purpose of reducing the  $O_2$  concentration in the atmosphere surrounding the product (see also Table 1). With regard to those plant materials that do respond positively to low  $O_2$ , knowledge of plant responses to  $O_2$  at the level of primary and secondary metabolism is limited. We have much to look forward to in terms of additional progress in resolving technical and physiological limitations to low  $O_2$  application to expand the use of MAP in food preservation.

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