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1 **Enhancing the carotenoid content of tomato fruit with pulsed electric**
2 **field treatments: effects on respiratory activity and quality attributes**

3 Sandra González-Casado, Olga Martín-Belloso, Pedro Elez-Martínez and Robert
4 Soliva-Fortuny*

5 Department of Food Technology, Agrotecnio Center, University of Lleida, Av. Alcalde
6 Rovira Roure 191, 25198 Lleida, Spain

7

8 Corresponding Author

9 *Tel: +34 973 702678. Fax: +34 973 702596.

10 E-mail: rsoliva@tecal.udl.cat

11 **ABSTRACT**

12 Pulsed electric field (PEF) may be used to elicit the accumulation of carotenoids in
13 plant tissues. The stress-adaptive response to PEF is dependent on the treatments
14 conditions and could lead to undesirable effects on the final quality of tomato fruit. This
15 study was aimed at assessing the changes in the respiratory activity and the main quality
16 attributes of tomato fruit when PEF treatments were used to elicit an increased
17 concentration in their carotenoids content. Whole tomatoes (cv. Raf) were subjected to
18 different electric field strengths (40, 120 and 200 kV m⁻¹) and number of pulses (5, 18
19 and 30 pulses). After being treated, the fruit were immediately stored at 4 °C for 24 h.
20 Total carotenoids and lycopene concentrations were enhanced by 50 % and 53 %, respectively,
21 after applying 30 pulses at 200 kV m⁻¹ (2.31 kJ kg⁻¹). Concurrently, a
22 significant improvement in lipophilic antioxidant capacity was observed. At such
23 treatment conditions, a deceleration in the R_{O₂} and R_{CO₂}, a drop in the ethylene
24 production and the induction of acetaldehyde synthesis were observed, as an evidence
25 of the stress injury caused to tomato tissues. In addition, several quality attributes of
26 tomato were significantly affected. Tomatoes subjected to 200 kV m⁻¹ exhibited the
27 greatest values of total soluble solids and pH, as well as a marked reddening and
28 softening of the fruit. Results suggest that selected PEF conditions could be proposed as
29 a pre-processing treatment to produce tomato-based products with enhanced carotenoid
30 contents.

31 **KEYWORDS**

32 Pulsed electric fields, antioxidant capacity, carotenoids, quality attributes, respiratory
33 activity, tomato

34 **ABBREVIATIONS**

35 PEF, pulsed electric fields; TSS, total soluble solids; TCC, total carotenoids content;
36 LC, lycopene content; LAC, lipophilic antioxidant capacity; ROS, reactive oxygen
37 species; BHT, butyl hydroxytoluene; DPPH, 2,2-diphenil-1-picrylhydrazyl; R_{O_2} , oxygen
38 consumption; R_{CO_2} , carbon dioxide production; L^* , lightness; a^* , green-red
39 chromaticity; b^* , blue-yellow chromaticity; TE, Trolox equivalents; ANOVA, analysis
40 of variance; E, electric field strength.

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45 **NOTES**

46 The authors declare no competing financial interest

47

48 1. INTRODUCTION

49 Epidemiological studies have shown that the increased consumption of tomato and
50 tomato-based products may reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases, certain types of
51 cancer and atherosclerosis (Hedges and Lister, 2005). The reduction of these chronic
52 diseases has been attributed to the presence of high amounts of some valuable bioactive
53 compounds, such as carotenoids, especially to lycopene, which is the most abundant
54 carotenoid in red-ripe tomatoes (Dannehl et al., 2010). The accumulation of carotenoids
55 in tomato normally occurs during ripening. However, carotenoid production has been
56 recently reported to be promoted by enzymatically-mediated softening phenomena
57 triggered by reactive oxygen species (ROS) generated upon exposure to oxidative stress
58 (Fanciullino et al., 2014).

59 During the last decades, several research works have reported the feasibility of PEF
60 treatments to stimulate the biosynthesis of defensive secondary metabolites in fruit,
61 such as polyphenols and carotenoids (Balasa, Janositz and Knorr, 2011; Soliva-Fortuny
62 et al., 2017; Vallverdú-Queralt et al., 2013b). It has been suggested that the
63 electropermeabilization of cells induced by PEF may trigger the accumulation of ROS
64 (Teissié et al., 1999; Ye et al., 2004). These ROS would induce the bioproduction of
65 secondary metabolites as a way of plants to overcome unfavourable conditions (Sharma
66 et al., 2012). In this regard, Vallverdú-Queralt et al. (2013a, 2013b) reported a
67 significant improvement in carotenoids and phenolic compounds in whole tomatoes
68 after the application of PEF treatments which was attributed to the activation of some
69 metabolic pathways and to the permeabilization of cellular membranes. Besides
70 producing several changes in metabolism of metabolically-active plants, PEF treatments
71 could induce the modification of respiration rate in plants. Some authors have reported

72 that the respiratory activity of plants was increased by the application of abiotic stress,
73 such as wounding, water deficiency and salinity (Fraire-Velazquez and Emmanuel,
74 2013; Galindo et al., 2007; Jacobo-Velázquez et al., 2011; Łukaszuk, E. & Ciereszko,
75 2012). However, literature data concerning the PEF-induced changes in respiration rate
76 in whole fruit and vegetables are not available.

77 In concomitance with the acceleration of tomato metabolism after the application of
78 PEF, several changes in quality attributes may be affected. It is known that PEF can
79 strongly affect the tissue firmness of fruit and vegetables, such as carrots, potatoes and
80 apples, because of its action at the cell membrane level (Lebovka et al., 2004; Shayanfar
81 et al., 2013). Moreover, plant secondary metabolites are known to contribute to colour,
82 flavour and taste of the foods (Balasa and Knorr, 2011). All these parameters determine
83 the final quality of tomato fruit, and hence, their end use or even their acceptance by
84 consumers. However, to the best of our knowledge, there are no previous studies aimed
85 at evaluating the effect of the application of PEF treatments on quality attributes of
86 whole fruit and vegetables.

87 Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the respiratory activity and quality
88 properties of tomato fruit as affected by PEF treatment conditions applied to elicit an
89 enhancement in their carotenoids content.

90 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

91 **2.1. REAGENTS**

92 Butyl hydroxytoluene (BHT) was acquired from Scharlau Chemie S.A. (Barcelona,
93 Spain). DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl) and Trolox (6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-

94 tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis,
95 MO, USA).

96 **2.2. TOMATOES**

97 Tomato fruit (*Lycopersicon esculentum* cv. Raf) grown in Almería (Spain) were
98 purchased at turning stage, characterized by more than 10 % but not more than 30 % of
99 the surface showing a definite change in color from green to red (USDA, 1991). The
100 fruit were stored at 12 ± 1 °C until they reached a light red-ripe stage, hence exhibiting
101 red color in more than 60 % but not more than 90 % of the surface (USDA, 1991). Prior
102 to PEF processing, tomatoes were rinsed with tap water. The excess of water was
103 carefully removed from the surface with a paper cloth.

104 **2.3. PULSED ELECTRIC FIELD TREATMENTS**

105 PEF treatments were conducted in a batch mode PEF system (Physics International, San
106 Leandro, CA, USA). The equipment delivers monopolar exponential-wave pulses from
107 a capacitor of 0.1 μ F at a frequency of 0.1 Hz. The treatment chamber consists of a
108 parallelepiped methacrylate container (0.2 x 0.08 m) with two parallel stainless steel
109 electrodes separated by a gap of 10 cm. Tomatoes were placed into the treatment
110 chamber filled with tap water (conductivity of 0.03 S m^{-1}). Different electric field
111 strengths (40, 120 and 200 kV m^{-1}) and number of pulses (5, 18 and 30 pulses) were
112 applied. The specific energy input corresponding to each treatment was calculated
113 according to Luengo, Condón-Abanto, Álvarez, & Raso (2014b) and is displayed in
114 Table 1. Untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes were immediately stored at 4°C for 24 h,
115 as previously described by Vallverdú-Queralt et al. (2013). Respiratory activity and
116 physicochemical properties of tomatoes were then measured. Afterwards, tomatoes

117 were ground for 20 seconds in a blender (Solac Professional Mixer BV5722, Spain),
118 immediately freeze-dried and stored at $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ prior to carotenoids analysis.

119 **2.4. EXTRACTION AND ANALYSIS OF CAROTENOID COMPOUNDS**

120 **2.4.1. Extraction**

121 Carotenoids were extracted following the methodology proposed by Odriozola-Serrano
122 et al., (2007) with slight modifications. Freeze-dried tomato samples (0.2 g) were
123 weighed and mixed with 20 mL of 1 % (w/v) of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) in
124 ethanol:hexane (4:3 v/v). The mixture was homogenized at 6 xg for 15 min at $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in a
125 Beckman Coulter centrifuge (Avanti J-26 XP, California, United States). Then, 3 mL of
126 distilled water were added and the mixture was shaken and kept at room temperature to
127 allow phase separation. The organic phase was collected and used to determine total
128 carotenoids and lycopene contents as well as lipophilic antioxidant capacity. All the
129 extractions were repeated twice. All procedures were performed in dim lighting in order
130 to prevent carotenoids photodegradation.

131 **2.4.2. Determination of total carotenoids**

132 Total carotenoids content (TCC) was determined spectrophotometrically (CECIL CE
133 2021; Cecil Instruments Ltd., Cambridge, UK) following the methodology proposed by
134 Talcott & Howard (1999). The absorbance of the organic phase was measured in
135 triplicate at 470 nm versus a blank of hexane. TCC was calculated using the following
136 equation (1):

$$137 \quad \text{Total carotenoids content (mg kg}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A_{470} \times V \times 10^4}{A_{1\%}^{1\text{cm}} \times G} \quad (1)$$

138 where A_{470} is the absorbance at 470 nm, V is the total volume of extract (mL), $A_{1cm}^{1\%}$ is
139 the extinction coefficient of a mixture of carotenoids established in 2500 by Gross
140 (1991) and G is the sample weight (g). Total carotenoids were expressed as $mg\ kg^{-1}$.

141 **2.4.3. Determination of lycopene**

142 Lycopene content (LC) was determined spectrophotometrically following the
143 methodology proposed by Fish, Perkins-Veazie, & Collins (2002). The absorbance of
144 the extracts was measured at 503 nm using hexane as a blank. LC was calculated
145 according to equation 2.

$$146 \quad \text{Lycopene content (mg kg}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A_{503} \times MW \times DF \times 10^6}{\epsilon \times L} \quad (2)$$

147 where A_{503} is the absorbance at 503 nm, MW is the molecular weight of lycopene
148 ($536.9\ g\ mol^{-1}$), DF is the dilution factor, ϵ is the molar extinction coefficient for
149 lycopene ($17.2 \times 10^4\ L\ mol^{-1}\ cm^{-1}$) and L is the pathlength (1 cm). Lycopene content
150 was expressed as $mg\ kg^{-1}$.

151 **2.4.4. Lipophilic antioxidant capacity**

152 LAC was evaluated on the same extract used for TCC and LC determination using the
153 colorimetric method reported by Vallverdú-Queralt et al. (2012) which is based on the
154 free radical scavenging effect of 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH). Ten microliters
155 of tomato extract were mixed with 90 μ L of distilled water and 3.9 mL of DPPH
156 solution. The mixture was shaken vigorously in a vortex and kept in the dark for 30
157 min. The absorbance was measured at 515 nm. Results were expressed as Trolox
158 equivalents (μ mol kg^{-1}).

159 2.5. RESPIRATORY ACTIVITY

160 The respiratory activity of both untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes was determined
161 using a static system. Just after PEF treatments, three tomatoes from each treatment (ca.
162 130 g) were individually placed in hermetic containers (0.5 L of capacity) for 24 h at 4
163 °C. Changes in the composition of the headspace were measured twice using a gas
164 analyser (490 Micro GC, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA). A 1.7 mL sample
165 was withdrawn from the headspace atmosphere through an adhesive rubber septum with
166 a syringe. Portions of 0.25 and 0.33 mL were injected for O₂ and CO₂ determination,
167 respectively. The O₂ content was analysed with a CP-Molsieve 5Å column (10 m x 0.32
168 mm, df = 30 µm) at 60 °C and 100 kPa. For quantification of CO₂, ethylene (C₂H₄) and
169 acetaldehyde (C₂H₄O), a Pora-PLOT Q column (10 m x 0.32 mm, df = 10 µm) at 70 °C
170 and 200 kPa, was used. Both columns were equipped with a thermal conductivity
171 detector. Respiration as oxygen consumption (R_{O₂}) and carbon dioxide production
172 (R_{CO₂}) was expressed as mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹ according to Fonseca, Oliveira, & Brecht (2002).
173 In addition, the production of ethylene (µg h⁻¹ kg⁻¹) and acetaldehyde (ng h⁻¹ kg⁻¹) was
174 determined.

175 2.6. PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES

176 **Colour.** The CIELab parameters (lightness, L^* ; green-red chromaticity, a^* ; and blue-
177 yellow chromaticity, b^*) were utilized to characterise the external colour of three
178 tomato fruit from each PEF-treatment using a Minolta colorimeter (Minolta CR-400,
179 Konica Minolta Sensing, Inc., Osaka, Japan). The apparatus was set up for a D65
180 illuminant and 10° observer angle. A white standard plate ($Y = 94.00$, $x = 0.3158$, $y =$
181 0.3322) was used for calibration. The colour was assessed by measuring the lightness
182 (L^*) and the a^*/b^* ratio.

183 **Firmness.** Whole tomato firmness was determined in three fruit with a TA-XT2 texture
184 analyser (Stable Micro Systems Ltd., Surrey, England), with a 4-mm-diameter steel
185 probe at a penetration speed of 5 mm s⁻¹. Results were expressed in Newtons (N).

186 **pH.** pH was determined using a Crison 2001 pH-meter (Crison Instruments S.A., Alella,
187 Barcelona, Spain) at 25 °C.

188 **Soluble solids.** Total soluble solids content (TSS) was determined by measuring the
189 refraction index with an Atago RX-1000 refractometer (Atago Company Ltd., Tokyo,
190 Japan) at 25 °C. The results were expressed as % of soluble solids.

191 **2.7. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

192 Statistical analyses were carried out using the JMP Pro v.12.0.1 software (SAS Institute,
193 Cary, NC, USA). Each PEF treatment replicate was obtained from two fruits. Three
194 different replicates for each assayed condition were used. For the reproducibility, each
195 analysis was conducted twice (n = 6). Results were reported as the mean ± standard
196 deviation. Results were subjected to a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed
197 by Tukey–Kramer *post hoc* test in order to establish statistical differences among mean
198 values. The relationship between variables was determined using the Pearson
199 correlation coefficient. The statistical significance level was set up at p < 0.05.

200 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

201 **3.1. EFFECTS OF PEF ON CAROTENOIDS AND LIPOPHILIC** 202 **ANTIOXIDANT CAPACITY OF TOMATO FRUIT**

203 The application of PEF treatments significantly enhanced (p < 0.05) total carotenoids
204 (TCC) and lycopene (LC) concentrations in tomato fruit (Figures 1 and 2). TCC and LC

205 were significantly ($p < 0.001$) influenced by the specific energy input applied. The
206 electric field strength was the main treatment parameter affecting the TCC and LC of
207 tomato, regardless the pulse number applied. Thus, TCC and LC were remarkably
208 higher in tomatoes subjected to 200 kV m^{-1} . The maximum enhancement in TCC was
209 attained in tomatoes subjected to treatments delivering an energy input of 2.31 kJ kg^{-1}
210 (200 kV m^{-1} - 30 pulses), leading to a 50 % increase in comparison to the content in
211 untreated fruit. However, tomatoes treated with specific energy inputs of 0.02 kJ kg^{-1}
212 (40 kV m^{-1} - 5 P), 0.09 kJ kg^{-1} (40 kV m^{-1} - 30 P) and 0.83 kJ kg^{-1} (120 kV m^{-1} - 30 P),
213 did not exhibit any significant ($p > 0.05$) change in TCC with respect to untreated fruit.
214 Lycopene concentration increased by 53 % when tomatoes were treated at 2.31 kJ kg^{-1}
215 (200 kV m^{-1} - 30 P). A similar trend was already observed by Vallverdú-Queralt et al.
216 (2013) in tomato fruits *cv.* Daniella. Authors found that PEF treatments conducted at
217 120 kV m^{-1} and 5 pulses led to maximum increases in α -carotene, 9- and 13-cis-
218 lycopene, as well as in total carotenoid concentrations, which was attributed to both the
219 activation of carotenoids metabolic pathway and the increase in the extractability from
220 the food matrix due to the permeabilization of the cell membranes. However, they
221 reported that treatments conducted at 200 kV m^{-1} resulted in a decrease in trans-
222 lycopene and 9-, 13- and 15-cis-lycopene, as well as in total carotenoid concentrations,
223 probably as a result of the irreversible electroporation of cell membranes. These
224 observations differ from those obtained in this work and may be linked to the different
225 varietal response of tomato fruits to PEF treatments.

226 The increased concentration of carotenoids by PEF was also accompanied by an
227 enhancement of the LAC of tomato fruit compared to the baseline values found in the
228 untreated fruits. This increase in LAC values correlated well with the accumulation of
229 TCC ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$) and LC ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.001$) (Supplementary table 1). Thus,

230 PEF treatments produced a significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in LAC values of tomato
231 (Figure 3), ranging from 17 % (0.02 kJ kg^{-1}) to 60 % (0.38 kJ kg^{-1}). The electric field
232 strength was the main treatment parameter affecting the LAC of tomato fruit. Thus,
233 treatments carried out at 200 kV m^{-1} led to the highest increase in LAC values,
234 regardless the number of pulses applied. The maximum enhancement in LAC was
235 attained after applying 5 pulses at 200 kV m^{-1} (0.38 kJ kg^{-1}) thus reaching values of 2.78
236 $\pm 0.08 \text{ mmol kg}^{-1}$, TE. This is in line with the results reported by Vallverdú et al. (2012)
237 who also found an increase in the antioxidant capacity, ranging from 10.4 to 37.4 % in
238 PEF-processed tomato fruits.

239 **3.2. EFFECTS OF PEF ON THE RESPIRATORY ACTIVITY OF TOMATO** 240 **FRUIT**

241 The effect of PEF on the respiratory activity of tomato fruit is displayed in Table 2. The
242 application of PEF treatments to tomato fruits had a determinant impact on the
243 modification of the respiration rate, leading to increased oxygen consumption (R_{O_2}) and
244 carbon dioxide production (R_{CO_2}). Statistical analysis revealed that R_{O_2} or R_{CO_2} of
245 tomato fruits were strongly affected by the electric field strength. A peak value in
246 oxygen consumption in tomatoes subjected to 200 kV m^{-1} and 5 pulses (0.38 kJ kg^{-1})
247 (Table 2) was found, corresponding to a 156 % increase with respect to that found in
248 those untreated fruits. Similarly, CO_2 production markedly rose after the application of
249 0.38 kJ kg^{-1} ($200 \text{ kV m}^{-1} - 5 \text{ P}$), thus reaching a maximal R_{CO_2} value of $7.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ mg h}^{-1}$
250 kg^{-1} of CO_2 . Further increase in the amount of energy delivered resulted into a
251 progressive reduction of the respiratory rates compared to the reported peak values
252 (Table 2). In line with our results, Dellarosa et al., (2016) reported that PEF treatments
253 with electric field strengths of 10 kV m^{-1} triggered the increase in R_{O_2} and R_{CO_2} of fresh-

254 cut apples, whereas more intense treatments led to a sharp decrease of both R_{O_2} and
255 R_{CO_2} as a consequence of a severe loss of cell viability. The increased respiratory
256 activity in plants under abiotic stress has been observed by many authors, proving that
257 respiration plays a special role in the metabolic adaptation of plants to adverse
258 conditions (Fraire-Velazquez and Emmanuel, 2013; Łukaszuk, E. & Ciereszko, 2012;
259 Rakhmankulova et al., 2003; Sabbagh et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2016).

260 The significant correlations ($p < 0.01$) found between TCC and both R_{O_2} ($r = 0.41$) and
261 R_{CO_2} ($r = 0.36$) (Supplementary table 1) indicate that the acceleration of respiratory
262 activity of tomatoes after PEF treatments may be connected to the activation of the
263 carotenoids biosynthetic pathway as a way to overcome oxidative stress. However, the
264 lack of a strong correlation found could be explained by the complexity of chemical
265 reactions occurring in natural systems as well as by the severe structural injuries caused
266 beyond a certain energy input value, which would lead to cell death and the subsequent
267 reduction of respiratory rates.

268 Ethylene production was significantly influenced by the application of PEF treatments
269 (Table 2). Ethylene concentration was remarkably higher in tomatoes treated with the
270 lowest electric field strength. A maximum 53 % increase was reached after the
271 application of treatments with an energy input of 0.09 kJ kg^{-1} ($40 \text{ kV m}^{-1} - 30 \text{ P}$).
272 Further increase in the intensity of PEF treatments led to a depletion in ethylene
273 concentration. This fact could be associated to the sharp rise in CO_2 (Table 2), which
274 has been suggested to act as a competitive inhibitor of ethylene (Soliva-Fortuny et al.,
275 2004). Ethylene biosynthesis has already been reported to be involved in several
276 processes such as ripening as well as pathogen and wounding responses, leaf senescence
277 and biotic or abiotic stress responses (Alexander and Grierson, 2002). This allows

278 confirming the hypothesis proposed by Vallverdú-Queralt et al., (2013a) who suggested
279 that PEF could evoke ethylene production and in turn, the activation of carotenoids
280 biosynthesis. Moreover, the drop in ethylene concentration and the deceleration of the
281 R_{O_2} and R_{CO_2} (Table 2) when tomatoes were treated with the highest energy inputs
282 suggests that these processing conditions trigger a severe loss of cell viability. It has
283 been reported that increasing the treatment intensity would promote formation of large
284 pores and reversible permeabilisation would turn into irreversible breakdown, leading to
285 the loss of cell viability (Soliva-Fortuny et al., 2009)

286 It is worth highlighting the induction of acetaldehyde synthesis when tomatoes were
287 subjected to specific energy inputs above 0.38 kJ kg^{-1} , reaching the maximum values
288 ($1.41 \pm 0.15 \text{ ng h}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$) in tomatoes treated with 0.83 kJ kg^{-1} ($120 \text{ kV m}^{-1} - 30 \text{ P}$). The
289 presence of acetaldehyde confirms the triggering of anaerobic processes, which was
290 possibly associated to the flooding of intracellular spaces as a result of the leaking of
291 cellular contents. This is in line with the results obtained by Dellarosa et al., (2016) who
292 confirmed that anaerobic fermentative metabolism took place in fresh-cut apples treated
293 with electric field strengths ranging from 10 to 40 kV m^{-1} .

294 **3.3. EFFECTS OF PEF ON PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF** 295 **TOMATO FRUIT**

296 PEF processing had a significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on the physicochemical properties of
297 tomato fruit (Table 3). With regard to colour, both L^* and a^*/b^* ratio significantly
298 changed 24 h after the application of PEF. Statistical analysis indicated that the electric
299 field strength was the main PEF processing parameter affecting tomato colour ($p <$
300 0.001). However, a correlation between colour parameters and pulse number or specific
301 energy input delivered could not be drawn. On the one hand, the application of PEF led

302 to a decrease in lightness values, especially after delivering energy inputs beyond 0.14
303 kJ kg⁻¹ ($E \geq 120$ kV m⁻¹). Changes in tomato lightness could be triggered by a
304 decompartmentalization process which allows enzymes to come into contact with their
305 substrates as a consequence of electroporation-driven migration of cell contents
306 (Asavasanti et al., 2010). On the other hand, high energy inputs, especially those
307 corresponding to 200 kV m⁻¹ treatments, promoted an increase in a^*/b^* values. This
308 change was related to an increase in a^* values, which ranged from 8.3 ± 1.8 (untreated
309 tomatoes) to 15.3 ± 0.9 (2.31 kJ kg⁻¹) (data not shown). A significant ($p < 0.001$)
310 correlation between a^*/b^* ratio and both TCC ($r = 0.67$) and LC ($r = 0.73$)
311 (Supplementary table 1) was found, which is consistent with the well-established
312 relationship between the reddening of tomato and the accumulation of carotenoids
313 (Arias et al., 2000).

314 The structural integrity of tomato tissues was strongly related to the specific energy
315 input of the treatment (Table 3). Hence, the higher the treatment intensity the greater the
316 softening effect. Thus, the most intense PEF treatment assessed (2.31 kJ kg⁻¹: 200 kV m⁻¹
317 ¹ – 30 P) cause an 80 % reduction in firmness values. Nevertheless, the firmness of
318 tomato fruit was dramatically affected even for low energy treatments. This is in
319 agreement with previous works which found that the application of electric fields of 0.1
320 to 500 kV m⁻¹ can induce severe tissue damage through membrane breakdown
321 (Asavasanti et al., 2010). Additionally, the inverse correlation found between the
322 firmness of tomato and both TCC ($r = - 0.60$, $p < 0.001$) and LC ($r = - 0.63$, $p < 0.001$)
323 (Supplementary table 1) suggests that those conditions leading to the highest carotenoid
324 content were also those resulting into the highest firmness loss. This could in turn
325 favour the extraction of carotenoids from the food matrix, as reported for other

326 vegetable tissues after the application of PEF treatments (Luengo et al., 2014a; Zderic
327 et al., 2013).

328 PEF treatments also induced changes in total soluble solids (TSS) content of tomato.
329 The initial TSS of untreated fruit was 4.6 ± 0.4 % and was significantly ($p < 0.05$)
330 influenced by both the electric field strength and the number of pulses applied (Table 3).
331 Thus, TSS values rose by 24 % and reached highest values in those fruit subjected to the
332 most intense treatments (2.31 kJ kg^{-1} : $200 \text{ kV m}^{-1} - 30 \text{ P}$). It is known that soluble
333 sugars act as metabolic and structural components of cells, however, they also take part
334 in some processes linked to growth, development and metabolic responses of plants
335 (Rosa et al., 2009). As soluble sugars are very sensitive to stress factors, it has already
336 been reported an active accumulation of solutes in response to osmotic stress (Atkinson
337 et al., 2011; Fraire-Velazquez and Emmanuel, 2013). According to Toepfl et al., (2005)
338 the membrane rupture triggered by PEF produce osmotic imbalances in cells. Therefore,
339 the accumulation of sugars in PEF-treated tomatoes may play a role in osmoregulation
340 as a strategy of tomato to restore the cell activity (Galindo et al., 2009, 2007). In
341 addition, the increased concentration of soluble solids could be linked with the
342 acceleration of tomato ripening associated to the increased metabolic activity induced
343 by PEF. Moreover, the application of these treatments may produce the disorganization
344 of cell wall polysaccharides and molecular bonds (Cholet et al., 2014) which could lead
345 to the release of soluble solids into the aqueous phase at membrane interfaces,
346 modifying the TSS content.

347 PEF treatments also modified the natural pH of tomato. The pH of untreated tomatoes
348 was 4.06 ± 0.01 and significantly ($p < 0.05$) increased when tomatoes were subjected to
349 PEF treatments delivering energy inputs beyond 0.09 kJ kg^{-1} ($40 \text{ kV m}^{-1} - 30 \text{ P}$). The

350 maximum pH values were found in tomatoes treated at 200 kV m⁻¹ and 5 pulses (0.38 kJ
351 kg⁻¹). After such treatments, tomato fruit also exhibited their maximum peak on both
352 R_{O2} and R_{CO2}. Therefore, the increased pH values could be related to higher respiration
353 rate after PEF treatments where organic acids were used as substrate. To the best of our
354 knowledge there are no previous studies explaining the changes in pH when PEF
355 treatments were applied to whole fruit, even though Kader and Lindberg, (2010)
356 reported that changes in intracellular pH acts as secondary messenger in response of
357 plants to different stress conditions. In addition, the modification of pH in PEF-treated
358 tomatoes may be attributed to the electrical breakdown of cell membranes, which could
359 become more permeable to molecules and ions that are sufficiently small to traverse
360 membrane pores (Garner et al., 2007). However, the complexity of pH signalling
361 against stress factors makes necessary to carry out additional studies in order to clarify
362 the specific role of pH in plant defence mechanism to PEF-induced stress.

363 **CONCLUSIONS**

364 Pulsed electric field (PEF) treatments enhanced the amount of carotenoids in tomato
365 fruit. PEF treatments conducted at 200 kV m⁻¹ and 30 pulses (2.31 kJ kg⁻¹) led to the
366 maximum increase in total carotenoids (50 %) and lycopene (53 %) concentration. The
367 stress-induced accumulation of carotenoids was accompanied by changes in the
368 respiratory activity as well as in the main physicochemical properties of tomato fruit.
369 Increased values of pH and TSS, as well as changes in the surface colour were found
370 after applying PEF treatments. However, irreversible damage in tomato tissue promoted
371 by PEF led to a dramatic loss of firmness, which in turn affected the appearance and
372 overall quality of tomato fruit. Therefore, PEF could be proposed as a pre-processing
373 treatment to produce tomato-based products with high antioxidant potential. However,

374 the precise control of processing conditions is fundamental for the feasible application
375 of this promising technology.

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525 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

- 526 • *Table 1. PEF-processing treatment conditions.*
- 527 • *Table 2: Effect of PEF treatment conditions on the respiratory activity of tomato.*
- 528 • *Table 3: Physicochemical properties of untreated and PEF-treated tomato.*

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544 **Table 1.** *PEF-*
545 *treatment*

processing
conditions

	Electric field strength (kV m⁻¹)	Number of pulses	Specific energy input (kJ kg⁻¹)
547	0	0	Untreated
	40	5	0.02
548	40	18	0.06
	40	30	0.09
549	120	5	0.14
	120	18	0.50
550	120	30	0.83
551	200	5	0.38
552	200	18	1.38
553	200	30	2.31

554 **Table 2:** Effect of PEF treatment conditions on the respiratory activity of tomato

Specific energy input (kJ kg ⁻¹)	Electric field strength (kV m ⁻¹)	Number of pulses	Oxygen consumption (mg h ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	Carbon dioxide production (mg h ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	Ethylene production (µg h ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	Acetaldehyde production (ng h ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)
Untreated	-	-	2.09 ± 0.51 ^c	2.80 ± 0.16 ^c	1.70 ± 0.87 ^{bc}	ND ^c
0.02	40	5	2.29 ± 0.24 ^c	3.97 ± 0.26 ^{abc}	2.19 ± 0.89 ^{ab}	ND ^c
0.06	40	18	2.75 ± 0.58 ^{bc}	3.80 ± 0.13 ^{bc}	1.90 ± 0.90 ^{abc}	ND ^c
0.09	40	30	2.26 ± 0.25 ^c	4.09 ± 0.22 ^{abc}	2.59 ± 0.94 ^a	ND ^c
0.14	120	5	3.15 ± 0.64 ^{abc}	5.40 ± 0.34 ^{abc}	1.29 ± 0.54 ^{bcd}	ND ^c
0.38	200	5	5.37 ± 0.40 ^a	7.48 ± 0.48 ^a	1.31 ± 0.60 ^{bcd}	1.09 ± 0.12 ^{abc}
0.5	120	18	3.24 ± 0.79 ^{abc}	6.33 ± 0.34 ^{ab}	1.88 ± 0.73 ^{bc}	0.67 ± 0.01 ^{abc}
0.83	120	30	3.29 ± 0.47 ^{abc}	4.78 ± 0.17 ^{abc}	1.73 ± 0.26 ^{bc}	1.41 ± 0.15 ^a
1.38	200	18	3.10 ± 0.30 ^{ab}	4.33 ± 0.14 ^{abc}	1.21 ± 0.15 ^{cd}	0.32 ± 0.03 ^{bc}
2.31	200	30	2.11 ± 0.67 ^c	3.83 ± 0.26 ^{abc}	0.72 ± 0.45 ^d	1.10 ± 0.29 ^{ab}

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556 Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (n = 6). Different letters within the same column mean statistically significant differences (p < 0.05)

557 between treatments. ND: no detected.

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560 **Table 3:** Physicochemical properties of untreated and PEF-treated tomato

Specific energy input (kJ kg ⁻¹)	Electric field strength (kV m ⁻¹)	Number of pulses	Fruit colour		Firmness (N)	Soluble solids (%)	pH
			<i>L</i> *	<i>a</i> */ <i>b</i> *			
Untreated	-	-	43.9 ± 2.4 ^a	0.40 ± 0.11 ^d	17.4 ± 2.1 ^a	4.6 ± 0.3 ^d	4.06 ± 0.01 ^{ef}
0.02	40	5	43.6 ± 2.1 ^a	0.48 ± 0.18 ^{cd}	14.2 ± 2.7 ^{bc}	4.9 ± 0.1 ^{cd}	4.10 ± 0.07 ^{de}
0.06	40	18	42.5 ± 1.9 ^{ab}	0.54 ± 0.22 ^{bcd}	14.9 ± 1.8 ^{ab}	5.2 ± 0.3 ^{abc}	4.05 ± 0.01 ^f
0.09	40	30	41.9 ± 1.3 ^{ab}	0.56 ± 0.15 ^{bcd}	10.7 ± 2.0 ^c	4.8 ± 0.1 ^{cd}	4.13 ± 0.02 ^{cd}
0.14	120	5	41.1 ± 1.8 ^{abc}	0.92 ± 0.15 ^a	8.7 ± 1.7 ^{cd}	4.7 ± 0.3 ^{cd}	4.11 ± 0.03 ^{cd}
0.38	200	5	39.1 ± 4.7 ^{bc}	0.90 ± 0.09 ^a	6.3 ± 0.4 ^{de}	4.7 ± 0.1 ^{cd}	4.70 ± 0.10 ^a
0.5	120	18	36.9 ± 0.9 ^c	0.78 ± 0.08 ^{ab}	6.1 ± 1.2 ^{de}	5.0 ± 0.7 ^{bcd}	4.18 ± 0.05 ^b
0.83	120	30	39.2 ± 1.4 ^{bc}	0.71 ± 0.11 ^{abc}	5.9 ± 0.7 ^{de}	5.3 ± 0.2 ^{abc}	4.20 ± 0.10 ^{bc}
1.38	200	18	38.7 ± 0.6 ^{bc}	0.92 ± 0.17 ^a	6.8 ± 1.6 ^{de}	5.6 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	4.10 ± 0.10 ^{cd}
2.31	200	30	40.5 ± 1.9 ^{abc}	0.88 ± 0.08 ^a	3.1 ± 0.7 ^e	5.7 ± 0.9 ^a	4.15 ± 0.06 ^{bc}

561 Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (n=6). Different letters within the same column represent statistically significant differences (p < 0.05)
 562 between treatments.

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565 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

- 566 • **Figure 1:** *Total carotenoid content (mg kg^{-1}) of untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes.*
- 567 • **Figure 2:** *Lycopene content (mg kg^{-1}) of untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes.*
- 568 • **Figure 3:** *Lipophilic antioxidant capacity ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) of untreated and PEF-treated*
- 569 *tomatoes measured by DPPH assay.*

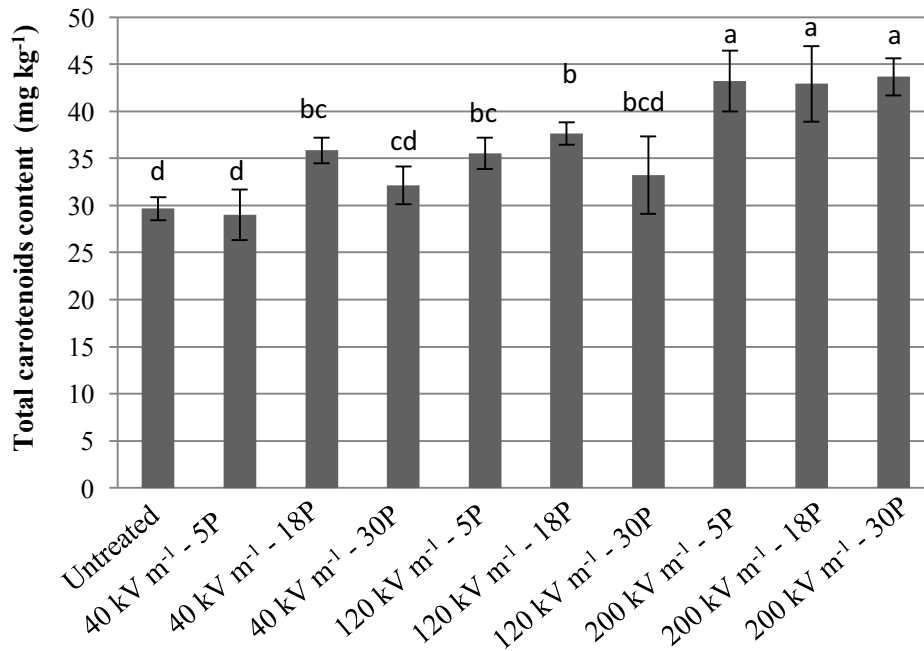
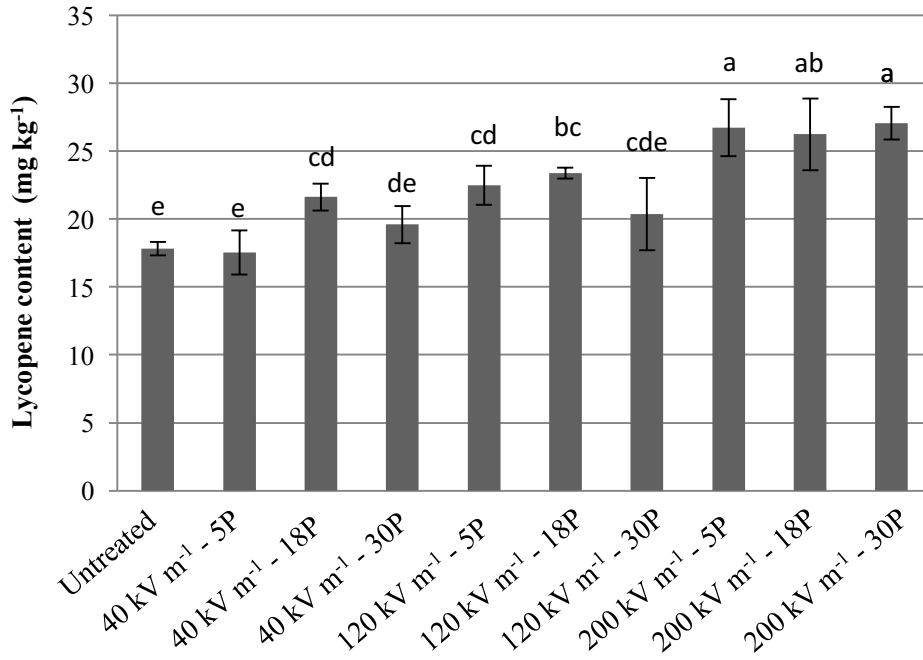


Figure 1: Total carotenoid content (mg kg⁻¹) of untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes.

Fruits were subjected to different electric field strength (kV m⁻¹) and number of pulses (P). Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (n = 6). Different letters mean significant differences (p < 0.05) on TCC between treatments.



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571 **Figure 2:** Lycopene content (mg kg⁻¹) of untreated and PEF-treated tomatoes. Fruits were
 572 subjected to different electric field strength (kV m⁻¹) and number of pulses (P). Values are
 573 expressed as mean ± standard deviation (n = 6). Different letters mean significant differences (p
 574 < 0.05) on LC between treatments.

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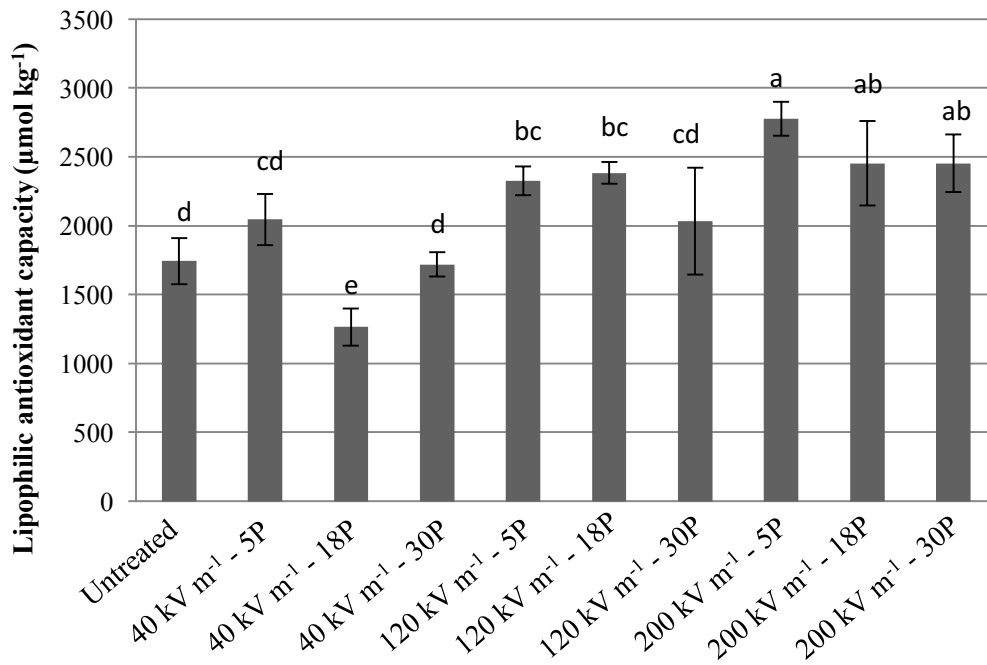
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585 **Figure 3:** Lipophilic antioxidant capacity (LAC) ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}, \text{TE}$) of untreated and PEF-treated

586 tomatoes measured by DPPH assay. Values are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation ($n = 6$).

587 Different letters mean significant differences ($p < 0.05$) on LAC between treatments.

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601 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

- 602 • ***Supplementary table 1. Pearson correlation coefficients between carotenoids***
603 *content, lipophilic antioxidant activity, respiratory activity and the quality*
604 *attributes of tomato fruit*

605 *Supplementary table 1. Pearson correlation coefficients between carotenoids content, lipophilic antioxidant activity, respiratory activity and the*
 606 *quality attributes of tomato fruit*

	TCC	LC	LAC	Ro ₂	Rco ₂	Ethylene	Acetaldehyde	L*	a*/b*	Firmness	TSS
TCC											
LC	0,9858***										
LAC	0,6***	0,6195***									
Ro ₂	0,4084**	0,4084**	0,3799**								
Rco ₂	0,3552**	0,3539**	0,3823**	0,6755***							
Ethylene	-0,3841**	-0,3848**	-0,2597*	0,0971	0,0527						
Acetaldehyde	0,2162	0,2406	0,2451	0,0858	-0,0196	-0,1983					
L*	-0,4637***	-0,4599***	-0,4089	-0,179	-0,3994*	0,2417	-0,1031				
a*/b*	0,6983***	0,7315***	0,532***	0,2604*	0,3597**	-0,3923**	0,1724	-0,6352***			
Firmness	-0,6041***	-0,6303***	-0,633***	-0,2779*	-0,327*	0,3211*	-0,3778**	0,55***	-0,6492***		
TSS	0,4377***	0,4183***	0,2322	0,0401	-0,1311	-0,1801	0,355**	-0,2457	0,2836*	-0,3735**	
pH	0,4592***	0,461***	0,561***	0,3679*	0,4712***	-0,156	0,1327	-0,304*	0,3747**	-0,3828**	-0,234

608 Significant correlation at p < 0.05 (*), p < 0.01 and (**) and p < 0.001(***). TCC, total carotenoids concentration; LC, lycopene concentration;
 609 LAC, lipophilic antioxidant capacity; Ro₂, oxygen consumption; Rco₂, carbon dioxide production; L*, lightness; TSS, total soluble solids.

610