

Simulations on the prediction of cod (Gadus morhua) freshness from an intelligent packaging sensor concept

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1	Simulations on the prediction of cod (Gadus morhua) freshness from		
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26 Abstract

27 A non-destructive method that monitors changes in the freshness status of packed cod 28 fillets has potential for the development of an intelligent packaging concept. The 29 method is based on monitoring volatile compounds that dissolve and dissociate in the 30 sensing aqueous phase. A mathematical model was developed to predict the freshness 31 of the packed fish from the sensor signal (based on trimethylamine (TMA)). The 32 model is based on physical and (bio)chemical principles of biological formation, mass 33 transport, partitioning, and dissociation of TMA. The parameters in the model are 34 derived partly from physical chemical properties, partly estimated from fitting the 35 non-destructive sensor measurements in the aqueous phase and destructive TMA 36 measurements in cod fillets. The model predicts a TMA increase in the aqueous phase 37 comparable with sensor measurements from experimental storage trials. The initial 38 freshness of fish is variable and taken into account in the model in the predictions of 39 the freshness status of the packed fish.

40 The model was used to test different scenarios for sensor design. This showed clearly
41 that minimizing the aqueous phase will strongly improve the sensitivity of the sensor.
42 Reducing the package headspace can further improve the sensitivity.

In conclusion, the model can make accurate freshness predictions at a constant temperature of 0 °C and also in case of temporally temperature abuse, but needs a temperature-dependent correction for higher temperatures. Therefore combining the conductivity-sensor with a temperature sensor enables this model to be used in the development of an intelligent packaging to monitor the freshness of fish.

48

49

50 Keywords

51 Mathematical modelling, trimethylamine (TMA), fish freshness, dynamic models,
52 temperature effect, intelligent packaging sensor

53

54 **1.** Introduction

Dynamic information about the quality status of foods supplied by intelligent 55 56 packaging can contribute substantially to the optimization of supply chain 57 management (Realini & Marcos, 2014). Intelligent packaging for foods requires the 58 development of sensors that monitor and communicate freshness from the moment of 59 packaging until the day the fish is spoiled (Kuswandi et al., 2011). Foods like fresh 60 fish, with a highly variable quality on the moment of packaging, require sensors 61 monitoring compounds directly correlated with food quality (Heising, Dekker, 62 Bartels, & Van Boekel, 2014b). Freshness is a very important factor determining the 63 quality of fish and freshness can be evaluated by different approaches, e.g. from 64 analysis of volatiles (Ólafsdóttir et al., 1997).

65 An intelligent packaging sensor concept that consists of a non-destructive method to monitor changes in the freshness of packed cod fillets has been introduced in a 66 previous study (Heising, Dekker, Bartels, & Van Boekel, 2012). The principle of this 67 68 method is the introduction of an aqueous phase in the headspace of the fish package. 69 In this aqueous phase, changes in the electrical properties can be monitored by 70 electrodes, e.g. by using a conductivity electrode (Heising, Bartels, Van Boekel, & 71 Dekker, 2014a). The changes in the electrical properties of the aqueous phase were 72 related to the total volatile basic nitrogen content (TVB-N) of the fish itself, which has 73 proven to be a good indicator for the freshness of many marine fish (Botta, Lauder, & 74 Jewer, 1984).

The increase in the TVB-N content is mainly caused by the formation of trimethylamine (TMA) in fish, the compound that is one of the dominant components of spoiling fish and that has a typical fishy odour (Huss, 1995; Howgate, 2010). The TMA content is strongly correlated to the sensory quality of cod (Burt, Gibson, Jason, & Sanders, 1976; Gill, 1990).

80 In this article, we describe the framework for a mathematical model to predict the 81 sensor response of the intelligent packaging concept from the TMA content in the 82 aqueous phase inside a fish package. The model was fitted on data of the electrode 83 response measured during a trial when fish was stored at 15 °C. Furthermore, 84 simulations were conducted using the model with changes in the parameters in order 85 to predict the sensor response on miniaturization, a necessary step in the further 86 development of the intelligent packaging concept (Vanderroost, Ragaert, Devlieghere, 87 & De Meulenaer, 2014).

In a previous publication models for TMA formation were developed, based on microbial growth models (Heising, Van Boekel, & Dekker, 2014c). The aim of this research is to develop a mathematical model, based on physical and biochemical principles of mass transport, to translate the sensor signal of an intelligent packaging concept into a prediction of fish freshness and to simulate the miniaturized intelligent packaging concept.

94

- 95 2. <u>Materials and Methods</u>
- 96

97 **2.1 Data collection**

98

99 2.1.1 Storage trial of cod fillets

Data for parameter estimation were collected in the experimental trials with cod fillets
stored at 0-15 °C as described by Heising et al. (2014a),.

102 Cod (Gadus morhua) was bought at a wholesale in IJmuiden (NL) in May 2008. The 103 cod was caught in the North Sea off the Netherlands, gutted on board the fishing 104 vessels, stored on ice and brought to IJmuiden. After the auction, the wholesaler 105 prepared skinned fillets from the cod and the fillets were transported on ice to the 106 laboratory in ~3 hours. Purchase, fillet preparation and transport all took place the 107 same morning. Immediately after arriving in Wageningen, the fillets were prepared 108 for analysis and storage, and from this moment the storage trial started. The batch of 109 fish was used for both the non-destructive and destructive analysis during the trial.

110

111 2.1.2 Non-destructive method

112 The non-destructive measurement setup consisted of a glass-cell with holes in the lid 113 for air tight fitting of the electrodes to analyze an aqueous phase in a beaker separate 114 from the fish (Figure 1) (Heising et al., 2012).

Cod fillets (~375 g) sliced into pieces of approximately 30 g, were put in the glass cell. Each experiment contained randomly mixed pieces from different cod fillets. The glass cell contained a conductivity electrode (TetraCon 325 conductivity electrode with inoLab Cond 730 precision conductivity meter, WTW) with the electrode-tip in 65 ml Milli-Q (deionized) water in the beaker. The conductivity electrode was logged automatically at time-intervals of 15 minutes.

121 The glass cells were placed in a cryostat set at temperatures from 0 till 15 °C, filled

122 with water and antifreeze, located in a room that was temperature controlled.

123

124 2.1.3 Destructive TMA analysis

The fish samples for the destructive TMA analysis were packed separately in aluminum boxes, one box for each measurement day. After arrival in Wageningen, the fillets were sliced into pieces of approximately 30 g, the pieces were mixed and 120 g fish was put into each box with a lid for storage. The boxes were stored in a refrigerator at temperatures from 0 till 15 °C. The temperature of the fillets and the storage rooms was monitored with Automatic wireless temperature loggers as described in Heising et al. (2012).

132 The TMA content was determined in duplicate in an extract of the cod fillet according 133 to the steam distillation method from Malle & Tao (1987) as described in Heising et 134 al. (2012). 20 ml of ~36% aqueous formaldehyde-solution (Fluka 47630) 135 (formaldehyde complexes with primary and secondary amines, but not with tertiary 136 amine TMA) was added to 25 ml of filtrate, followed by 5 ml of 10% (w/v) NaOH. 137 Steam distillation (Gerhard Vadopest 12-Kjedahl type distillatory) was carried out for 138 7.3 minutes on the TCA extract. A beaker containing 10 ml of a 4% aqueous boric 139 acid solution (Merck 1.00165) and 0.04 ml of Mixed indicator 5 for ammonia 140 titrations (Merck 1.06130) was placed at the end of the condenser. The boric acid 141 solution turned green when alkalinized by the distilled TMA. The green alkaline 142 distillate was titrated using a digital burette (Schott type T80 /20) containing an 143 aqueous 0.1N hydrochloric acid solution (Merck 1.09973). Complete neutralization 144 was obtained when the colour turned pink on the addition of a further drop of 145 hydrochloric acid. This procedure was repeated for duplicate analysis.

146

147 **2.2 Parameter estimation and simulations**

The mass transfer of TMA in packed cod fillets was modelled using sets of algebraic and differential equations. Simulations and parameter estimation from numerical integration of the differential equations, including the statistical evaluation of the parameters and performance of the complete model, were obtained by least squares regression with the help of the software package Athena Visual Workbench (Stewart et al., 1992; <u>www.athenavisual.com</u>).

156

- 157 **3.** <u>Results and Discussion</u>
- 158
- 159 **3.1 Model development**
- 160

161 The modelling approach is based on the formation of volatile compounds. In freshly 162 caught cod the volatile NH_3 and some other volatile compounds are present. During 163 subsequent storage the content of volatiles increases, mainly due to the formation of 164 TMA. In a later stage, when the fish is already spoiled, NH_3 is increasing further. This 165 formation of volatiles can be linked to the freshness and quality of fish (Ólafsdóttir et 166 al., 1997). We realize that quality is a broad concept and the combined analysis of 167 several quality attributes (e.g. protein and fat degradation, microbial growth and 168 sensory aspects) could lead to more accurate description of the quality status. 169 However for the development of a sensor a non-destructive approach is required. 170 Volatiles can be measured non-destructively. The TMA content is a good indicator 171 since it is correlated to the freshness status and also other quality attributes (Burt et 172 al., 1976).

The non-destructive method consists of an aqueous phase in which electrodes measure the changes in the electrical properties of the aqueous phase (Figure 1). These changes are caused by volatiles produced by the packed fish fillet, that will partition in the headspace and dissolve in the aqueous phase.

178

179 3.1.1 Formation of TMA

180 TMA is produced on fresh cod fillets stored at chilled and higher temperatures (in the

range 0-15 °C) by the micro-organisms *Shewanella putrefaciens* and *Photobacterium phosphoreum* and the formation can be described by a dynamic model (Heising et al.,
2014c):

184
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}C_{TMA}}{\mathrm{d}t} = \mu_{\mathrm{max}} C_{TMA} \left(1 - \left(\frac{C_{TMA}}{C_{\mathrm{max}}} \right) \right)$$
(1)

185

186 With:

187
$$C_{TMA}$$
 concentration of TMA at time t (mg TMA-N per 100 g fish)

188 *t* time (hours)

189 C_{max} upper asymptote concentration (mg TMA-N per 100 g fish)

190 μ_{max} maximum specific formation rate coefficient (hours⁻¹)

191

192 With parameter for initial value in the numerical integration:

193
$$C_0$$
 initial concentration at time $t=0$ (mg TMA-N per 100 g fish)

194

195 The parameter C_0 incorporates the initial freshness status and the effect of natural

196 variation in the quality that influences the freshness of fish and C_{max} was estimated to

197 be 62.2 mg N/100 g cod (Heising et al., 2014c). Since TMA is a metabolite formed by

microbial growth, microbiological models and parameter estimations were used to describe the effect of temperature on the formation of TMA on fish. The effect of temperature on the maximum formation rate μ_{max} of the formation of TMA could be described by a model that is analogous to the microbiological extended square root model of Ratkowsky (Ratkowsky, Lowry, McMeekin, Stokes, & Chandler, 1983) (equation 2):

204
$$\mu_{max} = (b(T - T_{\min})(1 - exp^{c(T - T_{max})}))^2$$
(2)

- 205
- 206 With:

207 T_{min} minimum temperature at which the rate of TMA formation is zero (°C)

208 T_{max} maximum temperature at which the rate of TMA formation is zero (°C)

209 *b* regression coefficient (°C
$$h^{-1}$$
)

210
$$c$$
 additional parameter for fit (°C h⁻¹)

211

The parameter estimate for T_{max} was 25 °C (taken from Dalgaard (1993)) and was based on the maximum growth temperature of the bacteria *Photobacterium phosphoreum*. The parameter estimates for the parameters T_{min} , b and c were -4 °C, 0.029 °C h⁻¹ and 0.12 °C h⁻¹, respectively (Heising et al., 2014c).

- 216
- 217 3.1.2 Dissociation of TMA in fish

The TMA that is formed by the micro-organisms will partly dissolve and dissociate in the fish tissue and a part will be present in the free form being able to partition to the headspace of the package. The dissociation reaction of TMA is:

221

 $222 \quad (CH_3)_3N + H_2O \leftrightarrow (CH_3)_3NH^+ + OH^- \tag{1}$

The fraction of the total TMA that is formed (from equation 1, formation model) that remains in the undissociated form can be expressed according to equation 3. The density ρ_f of cod (1.0541 g/ml (Lowndes, 1955)) was used for converting the unit of mg N/100 g fish from equation 1 to the unit of mg/l.

228

229
$$F = \frac{[TMA]}{[\Sigma TMA]} = \frac{[TMA]}{[TMA] + [TMAH^+]}$$
 (3)

230

231 With:

232
$$F$$
 fraction of TMA in Σ TMA of the fish (-)

- 233 [*TMA*] concentration of undissociated TMA (mg l^{-1})
- 234 $[TMAH^+]$ concentration of dissociated TMA (mg l⁻¹)
- 235 [ΣTMA] concentration of total TMA from equation X (mg Γ^{-1})
- 236

The dissociation equilibrium is described by the dissociation constant, which isexpressed as (equation 4):

239
$$K_a = \frac{[TMA][H^+]}{[TMAH^+]}$$
 (4)

240

241 With:

- 242 K_a dissociation constant
- 243 $[H^+]$ concentration of hydrogen ion (mg l^{-1})

244

The dissociation constant pK_a (=-log K_a) for TMA at 25 °C is 9.81. The dissociation constant depends on the temperature of the fish. Equation 5 describes the temperature dependence of the pK_a of TMA. This equation was adapted from the temperature 248 dependence of the pK_a of NH₃ (Emerson, Russo, Lund, & Thurston, 1975), assuming 249 the same temperature coefficient for TMA as was reported for NH₃ (Howgate, 2010). $pK_a = 0.6516 + 2729.2T^{-1}$ 250 (5) 251 252 With: dissociation constant of TMA 253 pK_a 254 Т temperature (K) 255 256 The pH of the fish changes during storage, e.g. due to autolytic reactions or dissolving 257 gases. For the modelling and simulations a pH of 6.9 for raw cod fillets was used 258 (Sivertsvik, Rosnes, & Jeksrud, 2004). 259

260 *3.1.3 Partitioning of TMA between the fish and the headspace*

When TMA is formed by micro-organisms on the surface of the cod fillets, part of the TMA will be released to the headspace of the fish package. The partitioning between the fish and the headspace is based on the total TMA content that is formed.

264

265 The ratio of volatiles between the fish and the headspace can be described by K_{hf} .

266
$$K_{hf} = \frac{c_f}{c_h} = k_H * RT$$
 (6)

267 or rewritten to equation 7 (Sander, 1999):

268
$$T * k_H = 12.2 * K_{hf}$$
 (7)

269

270 With:

271 K_{hf} ratio of concentrations in headspace and fish (-)

- c_h concentration of TMA in headspace (mg Γ^1)
- c_f concentration of TMA in fish (mg l⁻¹)
- k_H Henry's Law constant (mol l⁻¹ atm⁻¹)
- *R* gas constant (8.314 J K^{-1} mol⁻¹)
- T temperature (K)

The Henry's Law constant for TMA between water and gas phase at 25 °C is 9.6 (mol L^{-1}) atm⁻¹ (Sander, 1999), it was assumed that the effect of dissolved salts in the fish on this constant can be neglected. This value needs to be calculated for the temperature at which the packed fish is stored. The temperature dependence of the Henry constant can be described by the van 't Hoff equation (Equation 8):

$$283 \qquad \frac{d\ln k}{d_T^1} = -\frac{\Delta H^{\ominus}}{R} \tag{8}$$

285 In integrated form (Equation 9):

286
$$\ln\left(\frac{k_2}{k_1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H^{\ominus}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right)$$
(9)

```
288 With:
```

R gas constant (8.314 J K⁻¹ mol⁻¹)

- *T* temperature (K)
- 291 k Henry constant (mol l^{-1} atm⁻¹)
- ΔH^{\ominus} standard enthalpy change (J mol⁻¹)

The value taken for the slope $\frac{d \ln k}{d_T^1}$ was 4100 M atm⁻¹ (Sander, 1999), assuming the temperature dependence of TMA to be similar to that of NH₃. After the Henry's law 296 constant has been adjusted for the storage temperature of the fish, equation 6 is used 297 to calculate the ratio K_{hf} of concentration of TMA in the fish and in the headspace.

298

299 3.1.4 Mass transfer coefficient

300 On the surface of the fish that is exposed to the headspace, the release of TMA will 301 take place when there is a driving force if the concentrations of undissociated TMA in 302 the fish and in the headspace are not in equilibrium. The rate of change of TMA 303 concentration in the fish per unit of time (h^{-1}) is described by equation 10:

$$304 \qquad V \frac{dc_{TMA}}{dt} = K_L A_f (c_f - c_h) \tag{10}$$

305

306 With:

307 c_{TMA} concentration of dissolved TMA in fish (mg l⁻¹)

308 *V* volume of fish $(=M_f/\rho_f)$ (=0.36 l)

309 K_L mass transfer coefficient (mm h⁻¹)

- 310 A_f surface of fish exposed to headspace (= 0.02 m²)
- 311

312 The mass transfer coefficients of TMA were assumed to be similar to the mass 313 transfer coefficient for NH₃. Since there is no airflow inside the package, the overall 314 mass transfer rate is mainly dependent on the diffusion coefficient. The diffusion 315 coefficient changes proportionally with the temperature change (according to the 316 Stokes-Einstein equation, the other parameters of the Stokes-Einstein equation were 317 assumed to remain constant in the sensor for the temperature range of 0-15 $^{\circ}$ C). In the 318 model, the the mass transfer coefficient $K_{\rm L}$ at temperature T (K) was estimated from K_{Lref} , using the experimental data (Heising et al., 2014a) at a reference temperature of 319 320 15 °C (Equation 11).

$$321 K_L = K_{Lref} * \frac{T}{T_{ref}} (11)$$

323 With:

324 K_L mass transfer coefficient (mm h⁻¹)

- 325 K_{Lref} reference mass transfer coefficient at 15 °C (mm h⁻¹)
- 326 *T* temperature (K)
- 327 T_{ref} reference temperature (=288 K)
- 328

329 *3.1.5 Mass transfer of TMA from the headspace to the sensor aqueous phase*

The same equations as described above for the mass transfer between the fish and the headspace can be established for the mass transport of TMA from the headspace to the sensing aqueous phase as well. These equations need to be based on the dissociation and partitioning of TMA between the headspace and the sensor aqueous phase, but the dissociation constants and Henry constants are assumed to be similar for the fish and the aqueous phase (but the pH of the sensing aqueous phase is assumed to be 6.0).

The mass transfer of TMA in the fish package is schematically shown in figure 2.

338

339 3.1.6 Sensor measurement

According to the reaction 1 ions are formed when TMA dissolves in the aqueous phase. These ions cause an increase in the conductivity (molar conductivity of TMA is $47.2 \text{ S-cm}^2/\text{mol}$ and that of OH⁻ is 199.1 S-cm²/mol) (Coury, 1999). The molecular weight of TMA of 59.11 g mol⁻¹ was used for converting the unit of mg TMA to the unit moles. The conductivity in the aqueous phase is monitored by the conductivity electrode, from which the TMAH⁺ concentration in the aqueous phase is calculated.
From this signal the freshness stage of the fish is predicted.

347

348 3.1.7 Model equations

349 The formation and mass transfer of TMA from the fish to the aqueous phase of the 350 sensor is described by differential equations, based on the equations described above. 351 The model equations are based on mass balances, for example the TMA content in the 352 fish is based on the formation of TMA from microbial growth minus the release of 353 TMA from the fish to the headspace. The mass balances are described separately for 354 the TMA in the fish, the headspace and the sensing aqueous phase. Finally, a 355 dissociated TMAH⁺- concentration in the sensing aqueous phase can be calculated at 356 each time t resulting in a conductivity value. This conductivity value represents the 357 freshness status of the fish.

358

359 The differential equations are numerically integrated with the software in order to

360 simulate the TMA content in the fish, the headspace and the sensing aqueous phase.

361 The initial conditions for numerical integration of the differential equations are:

362 U(1) initial concentration of TMA in fish at time $0 = C_{0*}\rho_f (\text{mg l}^{-1})$

363 U(2) initial concentration of TMA in headspace at time $0 = 0 \text{ (mg } 1^{-1})$

364 U(3) initial concentration of TMA in aqueous phase at time $0 = 0 \text{ (mg l}^{-1})$

365 U(4) initial concentration of TMAH⁺ in aqueous phase at time $0 = 0 \text{ (mg } l^{-1})$

366

367 3.2 Model application



The model was fitted on the measurements of conductivity during a storage trial (Figure 3). The fits of the model and the measurements are quite similar, therefore the general trend of the measurements is confirmed by the model.

373

374 The value for the parameter mass transfer coefficient from the release of TMA from the fish to the headspace was $3.81*10^{-3} \pm 2.0*10^{-4} \text{ mm}*\text{h}^{-1}$ and from the uptake of 375 TMA from the headspace into the sensing aqueous phase was $6.93*10^{-3} \pm 2.7*10^{-4}$ 376 mm*h⁻¹ (both values were estimated from least squares regression of the model on the 377 378 measured data). It was not expected that the release from the fish proceeds slower 379 than the uptake in the sensing aqueous phase, but the parameters are strongly 380 correlated (-0.998) and perhaps the matrix of the fish tissue plays a role in the release 381 of TMA.

382 The mass transfer coefficient is dependent on the dimensions of the system. Since 383 convection does not play a role in the transport of TMA in the package, molecular 384 diffusion is expected to influence the mass transfer coefficient the most (Equation 12):

$$385 K_L = \frac{D}{\delta} (12)$$

386

With

388 D diffusion coefficient (m²/s)

389 δ distance across diffusion occurs (m)

390

391 TMA-H⁺ that is dissolved in the fish fillet and is released to the headspace is expected 392 to diffuse over a small distance, since it was assumed that spoilage changes are 393 normally present and most active on the surface of the fish, therefore most TMA will 394 be accumulated at the surface zone (Dyer, Sigurdsson, & Wood, 1944). The estimated 395 mass transfer coefficients for the release of TMA from the fish is in the order of 10^{-9}

396 m/s, which is in the same order as diffusion coefficients for NH₃ reported by Frank,

397 Kuipers, & Van Swaaij (1996), but is expected to be higher because of the low δ .

398

399 The conductivity in the aqueous phase is measured by the sensor, but the conductivity 400 electrode is non-specific and can measure all volatile compounds that dissolve and 401 dissociate in the aqueous phase. Therefore, also other volatile compounds, e.g. NH_3 , 402 CO₂, and H₂S that can be formed by the fish can influence the signal that is measured 403 by the sensor. Furthermore, from reaction 1 it can be seen that OH⁻ ions are formed 404 together with the TMAH⁺. Besides, the compounds can interact with each other, e.g. 405 the carbonic acid from dissolved CO₂ can react with the hydrogen ions formed from 406 the dissociation of trimethylamine in the aqueous phase.

407 Furthermore, the parameter μ_{max} for the formation of TMA at different temperature is 408 estimated from equation 2. Small deviations in this parameter will influence the rate 409 of TMA formation and TMA concentrations in the fish, headspace and aqueous phase 410 strongly. This might influence the predictions for the mass transfer coefficient as well. 411 Despite these drawbacks very characteristic profiles of the electrode signals were 412 observed during various storage trials at temperatures between 0 and 15 °C, which 413 proofs the reliability of this method.

414

415 *3.2.2 Simulations with geometry*

416 Simulations at 0 °C were conducted with the model to study the effect of the 417 geometric parameters. The parameters sensor volume and surface, and headspace 418 volume were varied and compared with the standard laboratory experimental setup 419 (Figure 1), except when other values for geometry parameters are mentioned. The

simulation results need to be validated during the future experimental design of thesensors.

422

423 <u>3.2.2.1 Effect of sensor volume and surface</u>

424 In the standard experimental setup the sensor had a large volume of 65 ml with a surface of sensor exposed to headspace of 3.85×10^{-3} m². To convert this laboratory 425 426 setup into an intelligent packaging sensor the sensing aqueous phase and electrodes 427 need to be minimized (Vanderroost et al., 2014). Simulations at 0 °C were conducted 428 with the model to study the effect of the geometric parameters. When the volume of 429 the aqueous phase decreases, the surface of the aqueous phase decreases as well. The 430 surface exposed to the headspace depends on the shape of the aqueous phase, however 431 for the simulations we used equation 13 to calculate the surface belonging to the 432 reduced volume.

433
$$A_2 = A_1 \left(\frac{V_2}{V_1}\right)^{2/3}$$
 (13)

434

In the sensor in the laboratory setup, dissolved TMA needs to diffuse over ~10 mm before being measured. When the geometry of the sensor changes, this diffusion distance will change as well. To take this effect on the mass transfer coefficient of the sensor uptake into account in the simulations, the mass transfer coefficient was corrected according to equation 14:

440
$$K_{L2} = K_{L1} \left(\frac{V_2}{V_1}\right)^{1/3}$$
 (14)

441

When the volume of the aqueous phase is reduced, the concentration of TMA in the aqueous phase increases (Figure 4). This increased TMAH⁺ concentration in the 444 aqueous phase will increase the sensitivity of the sensor response to different stages of

445 freshness. So when minimizing the sensor, the signal will be optimized as well.

446

447 <u>3.2.2.2 Effect of headspace volume</u>

448 In the non-destructive setup in the laboratory, a glass cell with a large volume (1.6 L) 449 compared to the mass of the packed fish (0.375 kg) was used. A ratio between the volume of a gas and volume of food product (G/P ratio) in a modified atmosphere 450 451 packaging for cod is usually 2:1 or 3:1 (Sivertsvik, Jeksrud, & Rosnes, 2002). In the 452 simulations the volume of the headspace was varied from a ratio of 1:1 until 3:1 and 453 compared with the laboratory experimental setup (4.3:1). In the simulations a volume of 0.1 ml and surface of 5.13×10^{-5} were taken as values to simulate the parameters of 454 a minimized sensor. From figure 5 it can be seen that the signal of the electrode will 455 456 increase when the headspace volume is decreased, therefore the sensor sensitivity will 457 improve when the concept is applied on a package with a regular volume, but it will 458 only be a small effect.

459

460

461 3.2.3 Simulations with variation in initial freshness on the prediction of freshness

462 *in the supply chain*

TMA is produced on fresh cod fillets stored at chilled temperatures by microorganisms. The species and number of microorganisms on fish on the moment of catch varies greatly; A normal range of 10^2-10^7 cfu/cm² on the skin surface and between 10^3 and 10^9 cfu/g on both the gills and the intestines have been reported (Huss, 1995). This variability is influenced by (partially) uncontrollable factors, like season and environmental conditions (e.g. pollution, temperature) of place of catch 469 (Gram & Huss, 1996). Besides, the time and temperature between catch and moment of packaging varies, resulting in differences in the initial freshness status of the fish 470 471 fillets. The initial freshness is incorporated in the model of the formation of TMA in the value of parameter C_0 , which is the initial TMA concentration (mg l⁻¹) in the 472 473 packed fish. The effect of natural variation in the initial freshness status was simulated 474 using different values for the parameter C_0 (Figure 6), the range of the values for C_0 taken from parameter estimations from real trials from Heising et al., 2014c. To 475 simulate minimized sensor conditions a volume of 0.1 ml and surface of 5.13*10⁻⁵ 476 were taken and the headspace volume was set on 750 ml (G/P ratio 2:1). A higher C_0 477 478 will lead to a faster increase in the sensing aqueous phase. But the simulations also 479 show that the initial freshness status does have a large impact on the freshness 480 predictions at advanced storage times since the concentrations still increase 481 exponentially.

482

483

484 3.2.4 Simulations with dynamic temperatures on the prediction of freshness in the
485 supply chain

In the simulations above the temperature was set at 0 °C. Figure 7 shows that according to simulations with other temperatures (with other parameters set for a miniaturized sensor), the dissociated TMA in the sensing aqueous phase increases strongly with increasing storage temperature.

490

However, the temperature fluctuates in the cod supply chain (Hafliðason, Ólafsdóttir,
Bogason, & Stefánsson, 2012). A chain with temperature abuse was simulated: In a
simulation (with a sensor with miniaturized conditions) fish was stored at 0 °C, but

494 after 100 hours, the temperature increased to 15 °C for 10 hours, and then returned to 495 0 °C. The temperature abuse is clearly seen in a sudden fast increase in the TMA 496 concentration in the packed fish (Figure 8A). This sudden increase is not seen directly 497 in the aqueous phase, but after the temperature abuse the concentration of dissociated 498 TMA in the sensing aqueous phase is considerably higher compared to the simulation 499 at constant 0 °C (Figure 8B).

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502 3.2.5 Practical considerations to translate the predicted sensor outcome to a 503 freshness signal

The non-destructive method has potential to be developed into an intelligent packaging. Taken this in perspective, the predicted sensor signal needs to be translated into a freshness signal that can be communicated as freshness status of the packed fish.

Although a level of 30 mg TMA 100 g^{-1} has been found at rejection level for packed 508 cod (Dalgaard, 1995), the spoilage level was set to the acceptability limit for chilled 509 cod of 15 mg TMA 100 g⁻¹ reported by Venugopal, 2002 to calculate the moment of 510 511 spoilage according to the sensor predictions (this acceptability limit is taken to 512 illustrate the principle, every other TMA value can be taken as well). However, 513 different TMA acceptability limits have been reported in literature, since this depends 514 on the definition of the rejection point that is regarded as unacceptable (e.g. Dalgaard, Gram, & Huss (1993) found a level of $>30 \text{ mg TMA } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ as rejection point, but the 515 rejection point was defined as the point when 50% of the panelists rejected the fillets, 516 517 which might not be realistic in commercial practice).

518 Simulations where performed with the miniaturized parameter conditions, the 519 temperature and initial TMA concentration in the fish were varied for the simulations 520 of different scenarios. The freshness predictions based on the TMA content of the fish 521 were compared to the model prediction of the content of TMAH⁺ in the aqueous 522 phase.

At a constant temperature of 0 °C, the spoilage limit of 15 mg N TMA 100 g⁻¹ fish 523 524 was reached after 387 h. At this time, the $TMAH^+$ in the sensing aqueous phase was 525 0.0552 mg l^{-1} (Table 1). In the temperature abuse simulation (fish stored at 0 °C, the 526 temperature increases to 15 °C for 10 hours after 100 hours, then returns back to 0 °C 527 for remaining time) the fish reached the spoilage limit after 278 hours, which is more 528 than 100 hours earlier compared to the simulation at a constant temperature of 0 °C. At 278 hours the TMAH⁺ concentration in the sensing aqueous phase is 0.0503 mg l^{-1} , 529 the TMAH⁺ concentration of 0.0552 mg l^{-1} (comparable to TMAH⁺ concentration in 530 531 aqueous phase at spoilage moment at 0 °C constant) is reached after 286 hours. If one would base the spoilage limit on 0.055 mg l^{-1} in the aqueous phase, this would give a 532 533 difference in the remaining shelf life of 8 hours.

The sensor should also give accurate predictions with different initial TMA concentrations C_0 . A higher initial TMA concentration will lead to a shorter remaining shelf life. When the initial TMA concentration was increased in the simulation from 1.53 mg l⁻¹ to 3 mg l⁻¹ the fish reached the spoilage limit of 0.055 mg l⁻¹ in the aqueous phase after 334 hours. At this time also the spoilage limit of 15 mg N TMA 100 g⁻¹ fish in the packed fish was reached. This shows that the sensor is able to give accurate freshness predictions with a variable initial freshness status.

When a simulation was conducted at a constant 4 °C storage temperature, the fish would reach the spoilage limit after 142.3 hours. But the TMAH⁺ concentration in the aqueous phase is only 0.015 mg Γ^{-1} . The TMAH⁺ concentration of 0.0552 mg Γ^{-1} is reached after 269 h when the fish is far beyond spoilage. This implies that the freshness of the fish cannot be estimated solely from the sensor signal in the aqueous phase. Also information on the storage temperature is necessary to determine the cutoff point.

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So the sensor signal at higher temperatures can still be translated into a freshness status of the fish, but the sensor needs to be combined with a temperature sensor. When the sensor signal is combined with the temperature history the model can be used to calculate the initial freshness C_0 and from here a remaining shelf life can be predicted.

555 The simulation results can be used in the future experimental design of the sensors, 556 during this development the results need to be validated.

557

558 **4.** Conclusions

This manuscript presents the framework for a mathematical model that describes the mass transport of TMA that is formed on packed fish, released in the headspace and dissolves and dissociates in the sensing aqueous phase. This model is necessary to predict the freshness of the packed fish from the data produced by a non-destructive sensor that monitors TMA in the sensing aqueous phase.

The model predicts an TMA increase in the sensing aqueous phase comparable with sensor measurements from a storage trial at 15 °C. Model outcomes from simulations with variation of the sensor geometry show that minimizing the sensing aqueous

phase and the package headspace will improve the sensitivity of the sensor to differentfreshness stages.

569 The model can make accurate freshness predictions at a constant temperature of 0 °C 570 and also in case of temporarily temperature abuse. The initial freshness of fish is 571 variable, the model can be used to estimate it based on the data and use this parameter 572 in the predictions of the freshness status of the packed fish. At 4 °C and higher, the freshness of the packed fish can be estimated when the temperature history is also 573 574 measured. For variable storage temperatures, the conductivity-sensor has to be 575 combined with a temperature sensor in order to use this model for the development of 576 an intelligent packaging to monitor the freshness of fish.

577

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582

583 **<u>References</u>**

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672 Figure 1: Systematic picture of the measurement set-up with geometric parameter

673 values (M = mass, V = Volume, A = Surface, T=Temperature) of fish (subscript f),

headspace (subscript h) and sensor (subscript s).



677 Figure 2: Schematic picture of mass transfer of TMA in the fish package



680 Figure 3: Fit of the model on sensor measurements of TMAH⁺-concentration from a

681 storage trial with cod stored at 15 °C.



684 Figure 4: Effect of volume and surface of sensor exposed to headspace (with 685 corrected K_L) on the concentration of TMA (mg/l) in the sensing aqueous phase from 686 simulations at 0 °C.



689 Figure 5: Effect of headspace volume on the concentration of TMAH⁺ in the sensing

690 aqueous phase from simulations at 0 °C ($V_s=0.1 \text{ ml}; A_s=5.13*10^{-5}$).



693 Figure 6: Effect of parameter C_0 on the concentration of $TMAH^+$ in the sensing

694 aqueous phase from simulations at 0 °C ($V_s=0.1 \text{ ml}$; $A_s=5.13*10^{-5}$; $V_h=750 \text{ ml}$).

695



698 Figure 7: Effect of storage temperature on the concentration of TMAH⁺ in the sensing

699 aqueous phase from simulations at 0, 2 and 4 °C ($V_s=0.1 \text{ ml}; A_s=5.13*10^{-5}; V_h=750$

ml).



704

Figure 8: Effect of abuse temperature on the concentration of TMA in the packed fish

(A) and of TMAH⁺ in the sensing aqueous phase (B) from a simulation at 0 °C except for 10 hours at 15 °C compared to a simulations with a constant T of 0 °C ($V_s=0.1$

708 $ml; A_s = 5.13 * 10^{-5}; V_h = 750 ml$).

710	Table 1: Results of the simulations of the different scenarios, with varying
711	temperature and initial content: Time when fish is spoiled, corresponding content of
712	TMA in packed fish, and corresponding sensor signal $TMAH^+$ in aqueous phase
713	(simulations performed with miniaturized sensor conditions: $V_s=0.1$ ml; $A_s=5.13*10^{-1}$
714	$^{5};V_{h}=750 ml)$

Simulation T	Time	TMA in packed	$TMAH^+$ in aqueous
	(hours)	fish	phase
		$(\operatorname{mg} \Gamma^{1})$	$(\operatorname{mg} \operatorname{I}^{-1})$
0 °C constant	387	142.3	0.0552
T abuse	278	142.3	0.0503
	286	153.3	0.0552
4 °C constant	105	142.3	0.015
	269	654.4	0.0552
$C_0 = 3 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$	334	144.4	0.0552