



Selenium Nanoparticle Treatments Alleviate Chilling Injury and Preserve the Quality of Valencia Orange Fruit in Cold Storage

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we evaluated the effects of selenium nanoparticles on chilling injury and improving the shelf life of Valencia orange (*Citrus sinensis*) fruit. Treatments included 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ selenium nanoparticles, with three replicates per treatment and six replicates in total. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS, with data analyzed by one-way ANOVA and mean separations by Duncan's new multiple-range test. Results showed that samples treated with selenium at 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ significantly decreased lipid peroxidation (55 and 62%, respectively) compared to control samples. Selenium treatments also increased the activity of antioxidant enzymes, including CAT (twice and four times), peroxidase (2.5 and 4 times), APX (about 0.5 and 2.5 times), and SOD (by 4 and 6 times), with consistent results in DPPH radical scavenging (by 2.5 and 3.5 times) in the orange fruits. Selenium at both concentrations effectively reduced the incidence of chilling injury in Valencia orange fruits during six months of storage at 3 °C. Chilling injury was best reduced at 1 mg L⁻¹. This study proved that selenium can enhance orange fruit quality and increase its tolerance to cold storage conditions, potentially leading to selenium-enriched fruits with health benefits for consumption.

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Abbreviation: Ascorbate peroxidase (APX), Catalase (CAT), Chilling injury (CI), 2,2-dihydroxy-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), Glutathione reductase (GR), Malondialdehyde (MDA), Peroxidase (POD), Reactive oxygen species (ROS), Se (Selenium), Superoxide dismutase (SOD)

Introduction

Chilling injury (CI) is a primary postharvest problem for orange (*Citrus sinensis* L.) and many other horticulture crops in storage (Salcini and Massantini, 2005; Wang, 1993; Manners et al., 2003; Zhang and Tian, 2010). Washington Navel orange fruits are susceptible to CI during storage below 5 °C (Syvertsen, 1982). Their main CI

symptoms are surface pitting, browning, discoloration, and decay (Schirra et al., 2005; Gualanduzzi, 2009). Several promising methods have been developed to alleviate CI symptoms in orange fruits. These include postharvest physical treatments with UV-C (Odriozola-Serrano et al., 2007; Slaughter et al., 2008), modified atmosphere packaging (Manners et al., 2003),

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temperature conditioning (Obenland et al., 2012), and chemical treatments with plant growth regulators (Montesinos-Herrero and Palou, 2010; Schirra et al., 2005).

Oxidative stress from excess reactive oxygen species (ROS) has associations with the appearance of chilling damage in fruits (Hodges et al., 2004). ROS changes by reactions with numerous cell components, coursing a cascade of oxidative reactions and inactivating enzymes, lipid peroxidation, protein degradation, and DNA damage (Nadarajah, 2020). Aerobic organisms have developed defense systems to establish a fine-tuned balance between ROS production and removal. Plants are protected against ROS effects by a complex antioxidant system. This involved both lipid-soluble antioxidant (α -tocopherol and carotenoids) and water-soluble reductants (glutathione and ascorbate) and enzymes, such as catalase (CAT), glutathione reductase (GR), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), Superoxide dismutase (SOD) and peroxidase (POD) (Apel and Hirt, 2004; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020). Oxidative damage only ensues when these complex systems fail to limit ROS accumulation. Previous studies have shown a positive relationship between the activity of antioxidant enzymes and the chilling tolerance in harvested fruits (Sala, 1998; Wang, 1995). These results suggest that enhanced antioxidant enzyme systems and reduced membrane lipid peroxidation may be involved in chilling tolerance in harvested fruit.

Selenium (Se) is an essential trace element with fundamental importance to human health and antioxidant properties for humans and animals (Jezek et al., 2012). Selenium is present in trace amounts in both organic and inorganic forms in soil and environment, which can be uptake and translocated in various parts of plants (Kikkert and Berkelaar, 2013). Selenium is also an essential constituent of selenoproteins that play a vital role in many biological functions with antioxidant properties, such as antioxidant defense, formation of thyroid hormones, DNA synthesis, fertility and reproduction, HIV treatment, free radical-induced diseases, and protection from toxic heavy metals (Fairweather-Tait et al., 2011).

Selenium is reportedly beneficial to crops. It mainly exists in four different oxidation states: selenide (SeO^{2-}), selenium (SeO), selenite (SeO_3^{2-}), and selenate (SeO_4^{2-}). Se nanoparticles have less toxicity than other forms of selenium due to their high reactivity, wide specific surface area, and good adsorption capability (Deng et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020; Poldma et al., 2011). Researchers found that the function of

selenium nanoparticles in plant growth and metabolism is much more effective than its usual forms, such as selenate and selenite. However, using these nanoparticles at high concentrations causes toxicity (Hu et al., 2018; Babajani et al., 2019; Zahedi et al., 2019).

Se increases plant growth and protects crops against specific biotic and abiotic stresses such as drought, salinity, heavy metals, etc. The physiological and antioxidant properties of Se have raised the curiosity of biologists in the recent past. It plays a beneficial role in plants by enhancing plant growth (Cartes et al., 2010; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2010), reducing damage caused by UV-induced oxidative stress (Yao et al., 2013), increasing chlorophyll and carotenoids in plant leaves (Dong et al., 2013), stimulating enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant system against cadmium-toxicity (Kumar et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2012) and improving plant tolerance to drought stress by regulating water status (Yao et al., 2009). Low levels of Se stimulate the antioxidant machinery in plants, but it acts as a prooxidant at high levels (Feng et al., 2013). Selenium can regulate reactive oxidative species (ROS) levels in stressed plants through three pathways. These include stimulating the spontaneous dismutation of O_2^- into H_2O_2 , prompting a direct reaction between selenium-containing compounds and ROS, and reducing excess ROS generation in plants exposed to different environmental stresses while regulating antioxidative enzymes. ROS regulation by selenium may be a key mechanism for preventing plant stress (Cartes et al., 2010). Selenium nanoparticles reportedly alleviated various abiotic stresses caused by metals, drought, and temperature (Ikram et al., 2020; Zahedi et al., 2019).

Improving productivity and reducing postharvest losses in the fruit industry is crucial, and scientific studies have shown that techniques like biotechnology and nanotechnology could be the solution. Nanotechnology is especially promising, potentially enhancing agricultural productivity through nano fertilizers, efficient herbicides, pesticides, soil feature regulation, wastewater management, and pathogen detection. It also offers benefits for industrial food processing, including improved production, market value, nutrition, safety, and antimicrobial protection. Additionally, nanotechnology can increase the shelf life of fruits and reduce post-farming losses. However, like all technologies, it is essential to consider any unintended effects that could harm the environment or human health before implementing them broadly. While nanoparticles

may have unique properties that could impact toxicity, it is essential to note that not all engineered nanoparticles are more toxic than fine-size particles of the same chemical composition. With careful consideration and research efforts, nanotechnology can benefit the fruit industry and relevant industries (Upadhyay et al., 2022; Fadiji et al., 2022; Neme et al., 2021). This study aimed to assess the effects of selenium nanoparticles on postharvest quality and shelf life of Valencia orange (*Citrus sinensis* L.) fruits in cold storage (3 °C).

Materials and Methods

Valencia orange fruit and treatments

Valencia orange (*Citrus sinensis* L.) fruits were harvested at commercial maturity from a commercial orchard in Kerman, Iran, and transported to Shahid Bahonar University, Kerman, 2021. On the same day, orange fruits without wounds or rot were selected based on uniformity of size and absence of physical injury or disease. The harvested fruits were disinfected with 1% sodium hypochlorite (v/v) for 2 min, washed, and air-dried. Subsequently, they were randomly divided into 3 groups. Two groups were immersed in aqueous solution containing 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ Se nanoparticles for 5 min according to preliminary experiments. Selenium nanoparticles were purchased from Pishgaman Company, Mashhad, Iran. A third group was immersed in distilled water for 5 min and was considered the control group. All fruits were enclosed in plastic boxes with polyethylene film bags to maintain relative humidity at about 95% and were stored at 3 °C.

Evaluation of chilling injury (CI)

Chilling injury (%) was calculated by the following formula (Obenland et al., 2009):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Chilling injury (\%)} \\ &= \frac{(\text{Total number of fruits in each treatment} \\ & - \text{number of fruits with no chilling injury})}{(\text{total number of fruits in the treatment})} \\ & \times 100 \end{aligned}$$

Measurement of lipid peroxidation content

Lipid peroxidation content was determined and expressed as malondialdehyde (MDA) equivalents, according to a method by Rajinder et al. (1981), with slight modifications. Pulp and peel tissues (4.0 g) from orange fruits were homogenized with 20 mL of 10% trichloroacetic acid and then centrifuged for 10 min at 5000 × g. One ml of the supernatant was mixed with 3 mL of 0.5% thiobarbituric acid (TBA) dissolved

previously in 10% trichloroacetic acid. The reaction mixture was heat-treated for 20 min at 95 °C, cooled immediately, and then centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 × g to clarify precipitation. Absorbance at 532 nm was measured and subtracted from the non-specific absorbance at 600 nm. The amount of MDA was calculated using an extinction coefficient of 155 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹ and expressed as mM g⁻¹ FW.

Hydrogen peroxide assay

An assay for H₂O₂ content was carried out by the procedure described by Prasad (1996). Fresh tissues (2 g) were homogenized with 10 mL of acetone at 0 °C. The supernatant phase was collected after centrifugation for 15 min at 6000 g at 4 °C. The supernatant (1 mL) was mixed with 0.1 mL of 5% titanium sulphate and 0.2 mL ammonia and then centrifuged for 10 min at 6000 g and 4 °C. The pellets were dissolved in 3 mL of 10% (v/v) H₂SO₄ and centrifuged for 10 min at 5000 g. The absorbance of the supernatant phase was measured at 410 nm. H₂O₂ content was calculated using H₂O₂ as standard. The results were expressed as µg g⁻¹ FW (Prasad, 1996).

Antioxidant enzyme assay (catalase and peroxidase activity)

Catalase and peroxidase activity was analyzed according to Xing et al. (2011), with slight modifications. The reaction mixture consisted of 2 mL sodium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0), 0.5 mL H₂O₂ (40 mM) and 0.5 mL enzyme extract. The decomposition of H₂O₂ was measured by absorbance decline (A) at 240 nm. CAT activity was expressed as U kg⁻¹ of FW, where U = ΔA at 240 nm per second. Regarding POD determination, 0.5 mL enzyme extract was incubated in 2 mL buffered substrate (100 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.4 and 8 mM guaiacol) for 5 min at 30 °C, and the increasing absorbance was measured at 460 nm every 30 s for 120 s after adding 1 mL of H₂O₂ (24 mM). POD and CAT activity was expressed as U mg⁻¹ protein.

Superoxide dismutase

Superoxide dismutase activity was assayed according to Misra and Fridovich (1972). About 200 mg fresh tissues were homogenized in 5 mL of 100 mM K-phosphate buffer (pH 7.8) containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, and 2% (w/v) polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP). The extract was filtered through muslin cloth and centrifuged at 10000 g for 10 min at 4-8 °C. The supernatant was dialyzed in cellophane membrane tubing against a cold extraction buffer for 4 h with carbonate/bicarbonate buffer and

then was used in assaying. The assay mixture in a total volume of 3 mL contained 50 mM sodium carbonate/bicarbonate buffer (pH 9.8), 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.6 mM epinephrine and enzyme. Epinephrine was the last component to be added. Four minutes later, the adrenochrome formation was recorded at 475 nm in a UV-Vis spectrophotometer. One unit of SOD activity was expressed as an enzyme required to cause 50% inhibition of epinephrine oxidation under experimental conditions. The specific activity of the enzyme is expressed as U mg⁻¹ protein.

Ascorbate peroxidase

Ascorbate peroxidase was assayed according to Nakano and Asada (1981). The reaction mixture in a total volume of 1 mL contained 50 mM K-phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 0.2 mM ascorbic acid, 0.2 mM EDTA, 20 mM H₂O₂ and enzyme. H₂O₂ was the last component to be added, and the decrease in absorbance was recorded at 290 nm (extinction coefficient of 2.8 Mm cm⁻¹) using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer. A correction was illustrated for low, non-enzymatic oxidation of ascorbic acid by H₂O₂. Specific enzymatic activity was expressed as U mg⁻¹ protein.

DPPH radical scavenging activity

DPPH (2,2-dihenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl) radical scavenging activity was done according to Oliveira et al. (2009) with some modifications. Each treatment on fresh tissue sample (0.5 g) was homogenized in 4 mL absolute methanol at 4 °C. After centrifugation, an aliquot (0.3 mL) of the methanol extract was mixed with 2.7 mL of methanolic solution containing DPPH radicals (0.1 mmol L⁻¹). The reaction mixture was shaken and incubated for 120 min at room temperature, and the absorbance was read at 517 nm against a blank. The scavenging ability was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{scavenging activity} = \frac{A_{517} \text{ of control} - A_{517} \text{ of sample}}{A_{517} \text{ of control}} \times 100$$

α-tocopherol was used as a standard antioxidant analyzed at the same time. The final results were calculated and expressed as α-tocopherol equivalents per gram on a fresh weight basis.

Selenium analysis

After harvesting, 0.5 g of fruit tissue was homogenized for selenium analysis. The samples were acid-digested with 10 mL of concentrated

H₂SO₄ (Wolf, 1982) and digestion tubes were incubated overnight at room temperature. Then, 0.5 mL of H₂O₂ (35%) was added to the tubes and heated at 350 °C in a digestion block until fumes were produced. They were further heated for 30 min. Then, 0.5 mL of H₂O₂ was slowly added in cooled tubes and placed back into the digestion block. The above step was repeated until the cooled digested material turned colorless. Extract volume was maintained up to 50 mL in volumetric flasks. Whatman No. 40 filter paper was used for filtering the extract to determine selenium contents in the fruit tissue.

Data analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS version 13.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Data at each time point were analyzed by one-way ANOVA, and mean separations were performed by Duncan's new multiple range test. Differences at p<0.05 were considered significant. Each treatment consisted of three replicates and the experiment was repeated six times.

Results

Effect of Se on CI of orange fruit

Data showed that untreated control orange fruits displayed signs of CI symptoms, such as surface pitting and browning, after a month of storage. Furthermore, the CI index in control oranges was found to be as high as 49.29% after 6 months. However, orange fruits treated with 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ Se showed CI symptoms only after 60 days of storage. It was also observed that the Se treatment decreased 50% and 70% in the CI index in 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 1).

Lipid peroxidation and H₂O₂ content

MDA content as a lipid peroxidation index can be used as direct indicators of membrane injury, which is often associated with CI. We observed a continuous increase in lipid peroxidation in both control and treated orange fruits stored at 3 °C. However, the Se treatment significantly delayed the increase in lipid peroxidation during storage. It was also noted that at the end of the storage period (Day 180), the lipid peroxidation of samples that were treated with Se at 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ decreased significantly (55 and 62%, respectively) compared to the control samples (Fig. 2).

The findings showed that the initial H₂O₂ content in the orange fruit pulp was low, ranging from 7.1 to 7.25 µg g⁻¹ FW. Through storage time, the H₂O₂ content increased as well. At the end of the 180-day storage period, the control samples had an

H₂O₂ content of 29.10 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW in pulp flesh, while the Se-treated samples showed an H₂O₂ content of 18 and 12 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW in response to 0.5

and 1 mg L⁻¹ Se nanoparticles, respectively (Fig. 3).

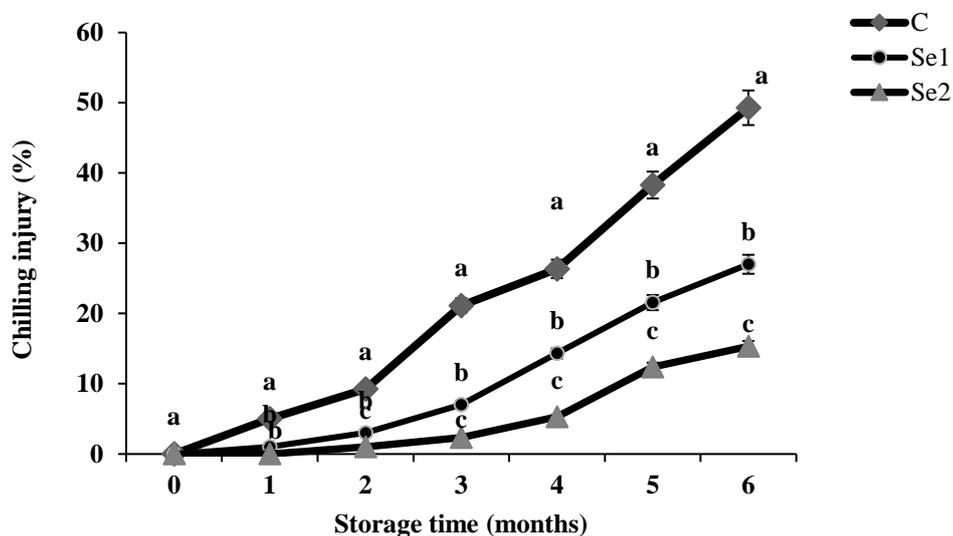


Fig. 1. Effect of selenium (Se) on chilling injury of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Mean values followed by similar letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviations of mean values.

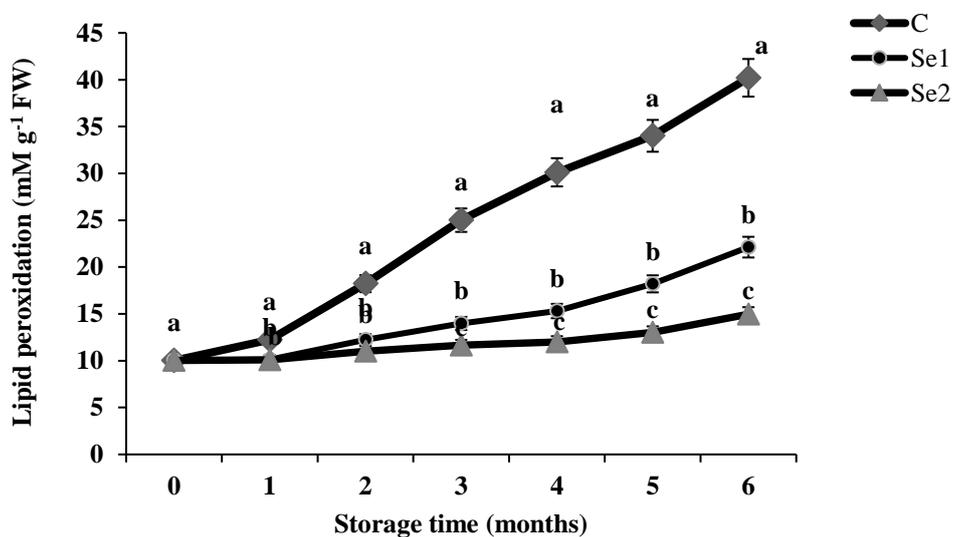


Fig. 2. Effect of selenium (Se) on lipid peroxidation of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

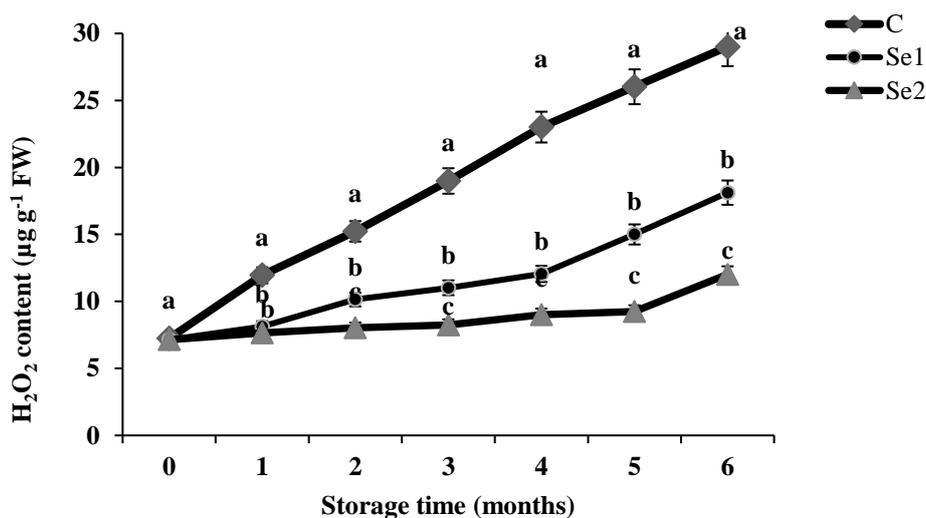


Fig. 3. Effect of selenium (Se) on H₂O₂ content of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

Effect of Se on induction of antioxidant enzymes

Se treatments at both 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ led to an increase in the activity of antioxidant enzymes in orange fruit pulp. The CAT, POD, SOD, and PAX enzymes all demonstrated a similar pattern, with the highest activity levels occurring in the fourth month and decreasing over time. However, samples treated with Se showed a more significant increase in activity compared to control samples. At the end of the experiment, CAT enzyme activity increased by two and four

times, respectively, with Se pretreatment at 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Peroxidase enzyme activity also increased by 2.5 and 4 times under the treatment of Se 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹, respectively in orange fruit on the 180th day of treatment (Fig. 5). Additionally, the APX enzyme activity increased about 2.5 times in response to 1 mg L⁻¹ Se at the end of the experiment (Fig. 6). Finally, the activity of the SOD enzyme increased by 4 and 6 times in these fruits in response to 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ Se, respectively (Fig. 7).

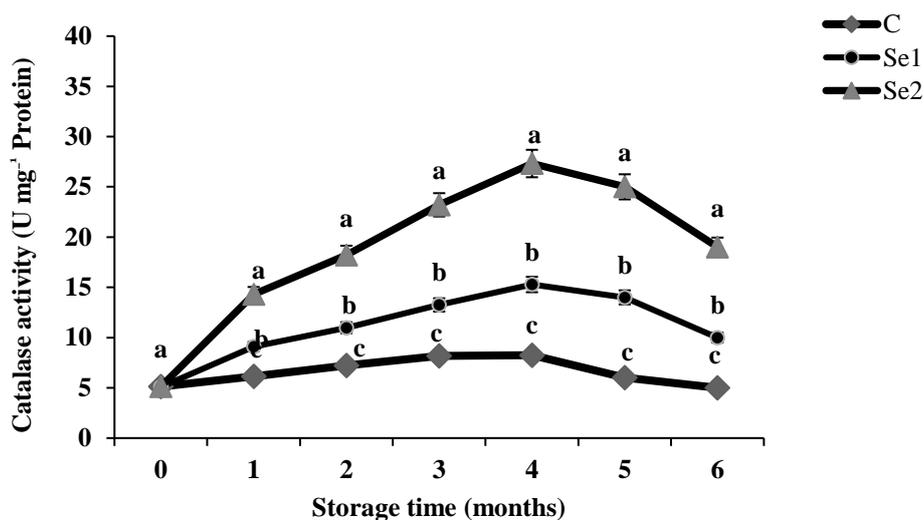


Fig. 4. Effect of selenium (Se) on catalase activity enzyme of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

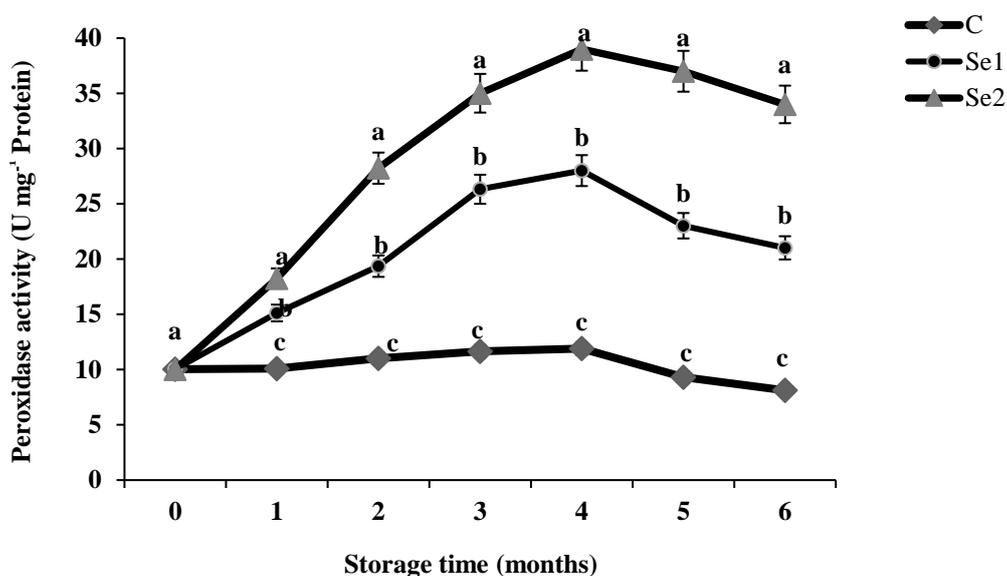


Fig. 5. Effect of selenium (Se) on peroxidase activity enzyme of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit; Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

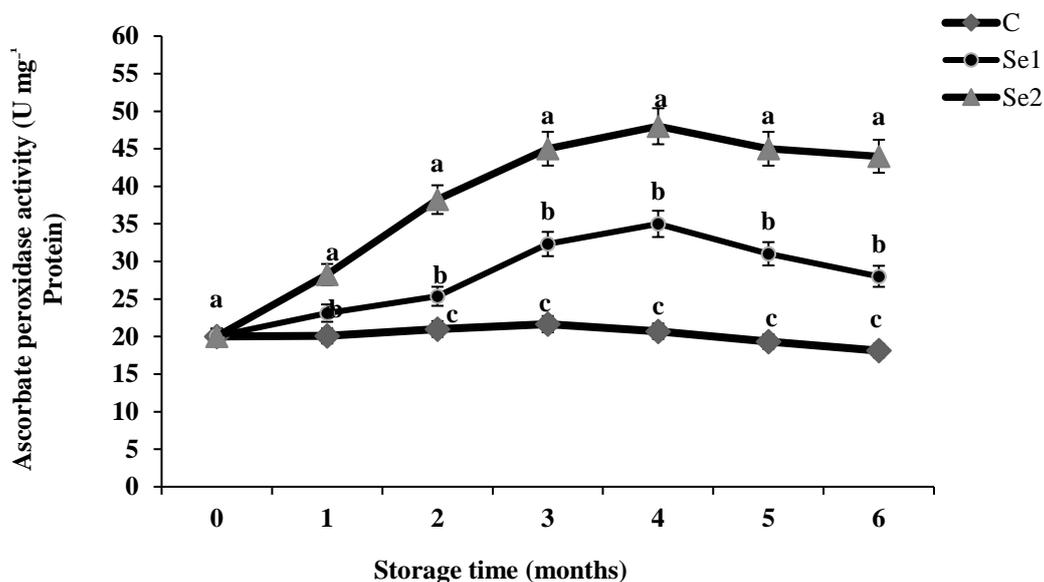


Fig. 6. Effects of selenium (Se) on ascorbate peroxidase activity enzyme of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

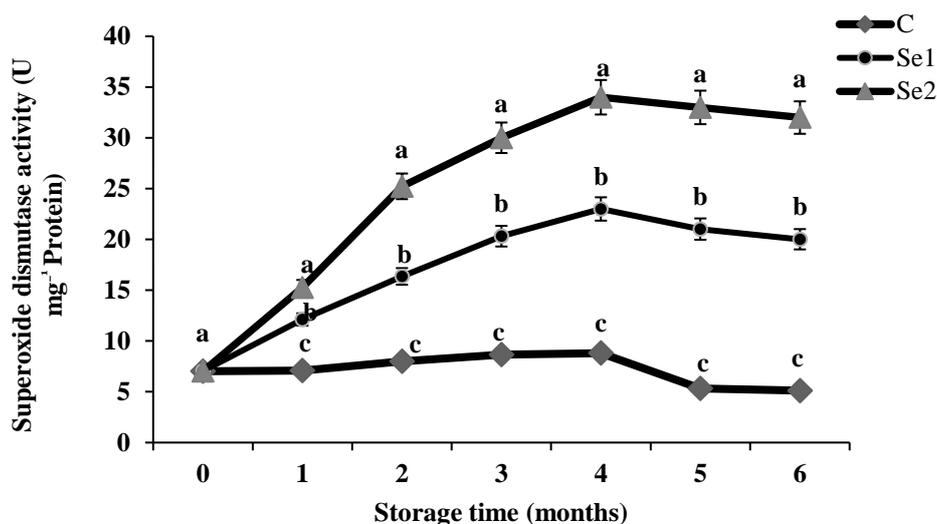


Fig. 7. Effects of selenium (Se) on superoxide dismutase activity enzyme of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

Effect of Se on DPPH radical scavenging activity

Enzyme activities showed that after treating fruits with Se for four months, the DPPH radical scavenging activity in orange fruit stored at 3 °C increased significantly. In response to

concentrations of 0.5 and 1 mg L⁻¹ Se, the activity increased by 2.5 and 3.5 times, respectively, before showing a decrease. However, even at the end of the experiment, the treated samples still showed higher DPPH activity than the control samples (Fig. 8).

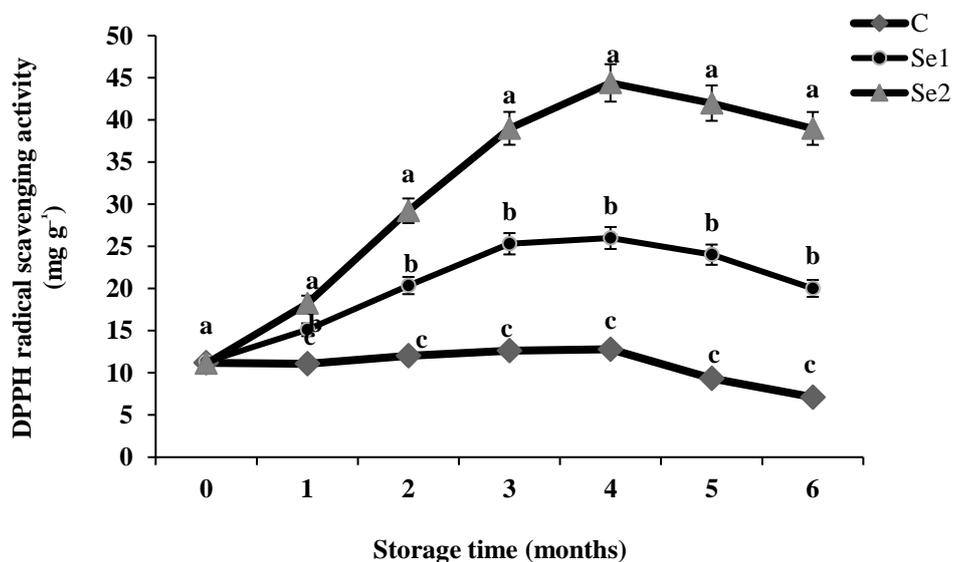


Fig. 8. Effects of selenium (Se) on DPPH radical scavenging activity of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

Effect of Se treatment on selenium concentration of Valencia orange fruit

Based on the measurements, it was found that the amount of Se in fruits significantly increased after treating orange fruits with selenium for 180 days.

The increase was 2 to 3 times greater than the control samples (Fig. 9). These findings suggest that incorporating selenium into fruit production may have potential benefits for enhancing the nutritional value of oranges.

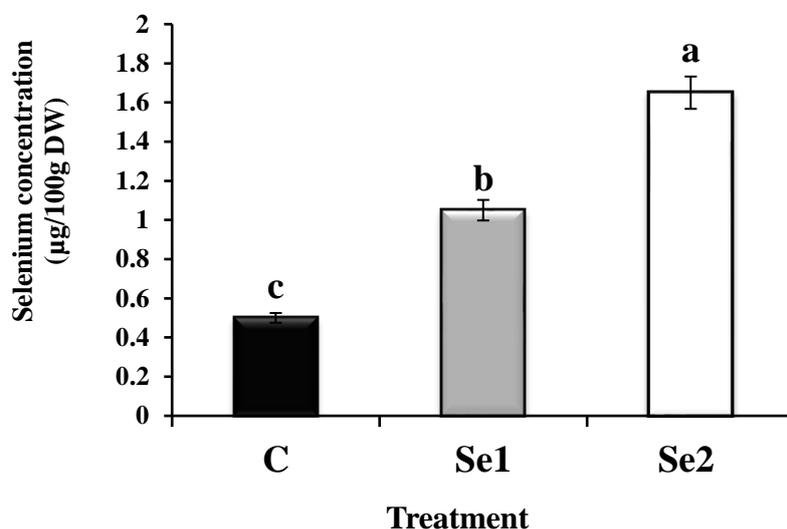


Fig. 9. Effects of selenium (Se) on selenium concentration of Valencia orange fruit during storage under low temperature (C: control fruit, Se1: selenium 0.5 mg L⁻¹, Se2: selenium 1 mg L⁻¹). Means followed by same letters are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test. Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

Discussion

Researchers have found that selenium is an essential element for animals and humans. It can also benefit plants in nutritional ways. When applied at lower concentrations, it protects plants by conferring tolerance to specific abiotic and biotic stresses. However, higher concentrations can lead to phytotoxicity (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2010; Kikkert and Berkelaar, 2013). Studies have shown that selenium can increase the vase life of *Lilium longiflorum* cut flowers (Lu et al., 2020), enhance the shelf life of tomatoes and olive fruit (Neysanian et al., 2020) and olive fruit (Regni et al., 2021), and control postharvest gray mold in tomatoes (Wu et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2016). Nanotechnology has provided a promising solution to improve crop productivity and protection. Selenium nanoparticles are more effective than their usual forms, such as selenate and selenite (Hu et al., 2018; Babajani et al., 2019; Zahedi et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020). However, it is essential to note that high concentrations of these nanoparticles can be toxic, so the optimal concentration should be carefully determined. In this research, we aimed to evaluate the impact of Se nanoparticles on the occurrence of oxidative stress, activation of the antioxidant defense system, and storage life of Valencia orange fruits.

By monitoring H₂O₂ and MDA content as an oxidative index in the cell membrane of orange fruits, we observed that Se-treated fruits showed a decrease in MDA and H₂O₂ content, which improved fruit quality. This finding indicates the antioxidant properties of Se nanoparticles. Several studies have also demonstrated the protective role of selenium against oxidative stress in plants. For instance, Jozwiak and Politycka (2019) reported that Se increased the activities of SOD, POD, and CAT in cucumber roots under drought stress. Tognon et al. (2016) found that Se increased postharvest performance and vase life in snapdragon cut flowers by decreasing lipid peroxidation and alleviating oxidative damage. In our study, the high activity of antioxidant enzymes such as SOD, CAT, GPX, and APX, along with the increased shelf life of oranges in the Se-supplemented fruits, can be attributed to the higher efficiency of Se in enhancing the antioxidant system compared to non-treated fruits. Recent studies have also shown that Se improves the ability of many plants to scavenge ROS through the enzymatic system (Chi et al., 2017; Pereira et al., 2018). Wu et al. (2017) reported that Se enhanced the activities of SOD and CAT in the roots and leaves of Chinese cabbage exposed to cadmium stress. Overall, our

research findings agree with previous studies that have reported the beneficial effects of Se nanoparticle treatment in activating the antioxidant system and improving fruit quality. Neysanian et al. (2020) reported that tomato plants treated with Se nanoparticles improved enzymatic antioxidants in tomato and showed that Se nanoparticles are more effective than selenate in activating the antioxidant system. It is interesting to note that the consumption of selenium-enriched products has become increasingly important due to the role of selenium on human health. Recent data from a study on Se measurement evaluating Valencia orange fruits showed that Se increased in fruits treated with Se nanoparticles while using a safe concentration. The estimated value for Se daily intake is 55 µg (Nysanian et al., 2020). Based on the results of this research, treating fruits such as oranges with Se nanoparticle solution can increase the quality and longevity of shelf life. It can assist in producing Se-enriched oranges. Consuming these fruits can benefit human health in response to selenium.

Acknowledgments

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Conflict of Interest

The authors indicate no conflict of interest for this work.

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