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Fresh-cut produce quality: implications for a systems approach

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(Article begins on next page)



Postharvest Handling

A Systems Approach

Third Edition

Edited by

Wojciech J. Florkowski, Robert L. Shewfelt,
Bernhard Brueckner and Stanley E. Prussia



1 **FRESH-CUT PRODUCE QUALITY: IMPLICATIONS FOR A SYSTEMS**
2 **APPROACH**

3

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8

9 RUNNING TITLE

10 Quality of Fresh-Cut Produce

11

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30 KEYWORDS

31 Ready-to-eat, minimally processed, safety, sanitation systems, raw material production,
32 cultivation systems, HACCP, shelf life.

33

34 **SUMMARY**

35 Fresh-cut fruit and vegetables represent an important food segment of interest to growers,
36 processors, retailers and consumers. Fresh-cut products are more perishable than whole
37 produce because they are physically altered from their original state during processing
38 operations. Although they remain in a fresh state, fresh-cut products are living tissues
39 characterized by an accelerated metabolism. Quality in the fresh-cut products preparation and
40 distribution is crucial in terms of food safety, quality and the environmental impact.
41 Cultivation is still a fundamental part of the supply chain, but the complex market dynamics
42 require detailed knowledge of all stages in the supply chain. In the last twenty years, the fruit
43 and vegetable market has developed a rich array of new products. At the same time,
44 consumers have become more concerned about health and a proper diet (see also Chapters 3
45 and 5) and have increased the demand for healthy fruit and vegetables and guaranteed
46 products. Globalization has shown that production systems need a new approach that should
47 focus on safety and quality rather than quantity and has shown that a fully integrated and
48 complex supply chain must be able to fulfill the consumers' needs. This chapter has
49 considered the critical points concerning the safety and quality of produce that should be
50 controlled by growers, who represent the first stage in the fresh-cut supply chain, and the
51 technologies used by processors to maintain quality and guarantee safety. An optimal
52 cultivation management on the farm, an efficient and rapid harvesting, proper postharvest
53 handling and storage are key factors that favor the quality of the raw material. Quality raw
54 material enhances processing and final product quality leading to increased competitiveness
55 in the market for the fresh-cut producer. This, in turn, leads to increased bargaining power of,
56 in particular, processors and retailers.

57

58 **I. INTRODUCTION**

59 Fresh-cut produce implies fruit or vegetables that have been prepared and subsequently
60 packaged to provide convenient and safe ready-to-eat products for consumers, while
61 maintaining their live, fresh state. Fresh and raw vegetables and fruits are subjected to
62 minimal process operations such as cutting, trimming, shredding, peeling, washing,
63 decontamination, dipping, rinsing, and packaging. Fresh-cut products, thus, are highly
64 perishable, but also agronomically and technologically more susceptible to quality
65 deterioration than whole vegetables or fruit. The processing operations eliminate any inedible
66 parts, but reduce the edible product shelf life by several weeks or months, depending on the
67 raw material. The nutritional and sensory quality should be comparable to the unprocessed

68 product. Leafy vegetables, particularly baby leaves, are the consumers' favorite, but they are
69 very delicate and susceptible to process manipulations. Control and innovation technology
70 implementation needs to be pursued to optimize all the fresh-cut production and processing
71 procedures.

72 A fresh-cut product is physically altered from its original state during trimming, peeling,
73 washing and cutting operations. However, it remains in a fresh state and is thus characterized
74 by living tissues that undergo or are susceptible to enzymatic activity, texture decay,
75 undesirable volatile compound production and microbial contamination, which reduce the
76 shelf life. In the fresh-cut industry, shelf life is the time required by a fresh-cut product to
77 lose quality attributes, such as freshness, firmness, texture, color, aroma, and nutritional
78 value, below a level acceptable to the consumer. The relative importance of each quality
79 factor varies according to the product and market. The final potential postharvest quality and
80 shelf life of fresh produce are determined before harvesting. Processing practices, e.g.,
81 packaging and storage temperature, do not improve quality; they can only slow the rate at
82 which deterioration occurs. Practices such as washing, sorting, and sizing are services
83 performed with the consumer in mind, and generally do not improve the inherent quality
84 (Brecht et al., 2003). The first and most important aspect that affects the subsequent
85 postharvest processing and shelf life phases is the raw material quality at harvest.

86 Fresh produce in general, and fresh-cut produce in particular, is perishable. Once
87 harvested, quality deterioration occurs leading to raw material losses even before the produce
88 reaches the consumer. Fresh fruit and vegetable postharvest losses have been estimated
89 between 2% and 20% in developed countries and between 24% and 40% in developing
90 countries, respectively (Sirivatanapa, 2006). High levels of waste result in higher prices for
91 the final product. Improper handling during the harvest on farms causes quality deterioration.
92 Quality in the supply chain is crucial in terms of food safety, quality and environmental
93 impact. Low input and efficient cultural practices, postharvest technologies and supply chain
94 management contribute to “making the difference” in an industry that wishes to be efficient
95 and competitive. The critical points that need to be improved in the fresh-cut sector include:

- 96 • early cold chain implementation;
- 97 • storing and shipping conditions prior to reaching the processing plant;
- 98 • logistics;
- 99 • processing inputs;
- 100 • handling in distribution.

101 For these reasons, innovative technologies have been developed to enhance raw material
102 production, preserve quality, guarantee safety, prolong shelf life, and diversify the fresh-cut
103 products available to consumers.

104

105 **A. Consumer trends and fresh-cut market**

106 Most fruit and vegetables are low-cost food that contain low levels of fat and high levels of a
107 number of nutritionally important compounds, such as vitamins, minerals, fiber, bioactive
108 compounds, etc., many of which cannot be synthesized by the human body. Changing eating
109 habits such as snacking, year-round product availability and a growing trend towards
110 vegetarianism and healthy eating have resulted in an increasing demand for convenient
111 products that fit into the modern consumer lifestyle, while offering healthy food. Fresh-cut
112 products, especially vegetables, have, thus, become very popular.

113 In recent years, the consumer demand for fruit and vegetables decreased in Europe (see
114 also Chapter 7). However, instead of a decrease, the ready-to-eat product sector reported an
115 increase in sales. In the past few years, fresh-cut produce has seen an increase in sales
116 throughout the world. Out of the total produce sales, fresh-cut sales have an estimated share
117 of 18% in Europe, of 9% in the United States, and of 5% in Australia, respectively (Premier,
118 2007; Premier et al., 2007). Fresh-cut produce sales in the United States are ca \$12 billion,
119 according to the International Fresh-cut Produce Association reported by
120 fruitgrowersnews.com professional portal (Fruitgrowersnews, 2013), with an increase of
121 more than 50% in the last decade. This is an indication that the fresh-cut industry remains the
122 fastest growing segment in the produce sector. The fresh-cut segment supplies both the food
123 service industry and retail outlets in the United States. Approximately 60% of fresh-cut
124 produce ends up in the food service industry and 40% in the retail market. Of the retail
125 market, 62% consists of salads, 31% of vegetables, and 7% of fruit, respectively (Premier,
126 2007). The fresh-cut industry keeps growing in many European countries with the UK, Italy
127 and France leading in terms of market share. The Rabobank estimated the value of the
128 European fresh-cut fruit and vegetables market at about €3.4 billion (Van Rijswick, 2010).
129 The market volume growth in the European Union (EU) is estimated of 4% year-to-year.
130 Currently, the EU market volumes are represented by 50% fresh-cut salads, 40% other fresh-
131 cut (stir-fry, crudités, etc.), and 10% fresh-cut fruit. The UK is the market leader in Europe
132 with €1.1 billion in fresh-cut fruit and vegetables sales and one-third of total EU fresh-cut
133 fruit and vegetables consumption (ca 480,000 tons, elaborated data).

134 In Italy, the second most important country after the UK for market value in Europe, the
135 fresh-cut production reached 90,000 tons in 2008, with a corresponding value of ca €700
136 million (Pirazzoli and Palmieri, 2011). These values remained constant until 2012 when an
137 increase of 4.4% was registered compared to the previous year, reaching 98,000 tons and
138 €767 million (Aldinucci, 2013). Spain is the European country with the highest and
139 constantly increasing production and market value in the latest years. In 2008, the Spanish
140 fresh-cut market value was €200 million with a production of almost 57,500 tons, of which
141 25% for food service and 75% for retail market (Andujar Sánchez et al., 2010). The sector
142 continued to grow at the pace of 4-6% per year reaching 70,000 tons in 2010 and a market
143 value of more than €300 million (Fabbri, 2011; Van Rijswijk, 2010).

144 Consumer demand for fresh-cut fruit and vegetables increased significantly in 2011
145 according to a survey of the Hartman Group commissioned by the Produce Marketing
146 Association (PMA) (FreshFruitportal, 2012). The survey results showed that 22% and 15% of
147 consumers were buying, respectively, more fresh-cut vegetables and fruit compared to 2010.
148 The fresh-cut fruit and vegetables consumption per capita varies from 3 kg in Europe to 30 kg
149 in the USA (Andujar Sánchez et al., 2010). Among the leading European countries for fresh-
150 cut industry, the consumption per capita is 12 kg in the UK, 6 kg in France, 3.7 kg in Italy
151 and 1.5-2.0 kg in Spain, respectively.

152 The fresh-cut production is widespread throughout the world; in some countries it is
153 devoted to exports aimed at western countries (e.g., Thailand to the UK, Mexico to the
154 United States). Fresh-cut market is developing in the South-East Asia and Latin America. In
155 Asia, fresh-cut product sales are driven by demand in countries like Japan, Singapore, and the
156 Republic of Korea. Sales of fresh-cut produce in Japan have grown from approximately \$1
157 billion in 1999 to \$2.6 billion in 2005, of which 89% consisted of fresh-cut vegetables and
158 11% of fresh-cut fruits (Kim, 2007). In 2011 sales were \$1.9 billion, of which ca 37% was
159 sold in retail outlets, ca 49% in food service industry and ca 14% in others (Izumi, 2013,
160 personal communication from Agriculture and Livestock Industries Corporation). In the
161 Republic of Korea, sales have grown from \$0.5 billion in 2003 to \$1.1 billion in 2006. These
162 sales implied the production of 110,000 tons of which 33% consists of vegetable salads,
163 42.1% of ready-to-cook vegetables, 8.7% of wild vegetables, 15.6% of fruit, and 0.3% of
164 mushrooms. It has been reported that fresh-cut produce has been increasing in China since
165 the late 1990s, with an annual growth rate estimated at 20%, although no exact figures are
166 available (Zhang, 2007). Despite the opportunity that this sector can offer the overall produce

167 industry, the lack of reliable published data makes it difficult to appreciate the importance of
168 fresh-cut business around the world.

169

170 **B. Food safety risks in the fresh-cut chain**

171 The fresh-cut vegetable safety is related to inherent anti-nutritional substances, such as nitrate
172 and oxalate, accumulated during growth (Reinink and Blom-Zanstra, 1989; Weerakkody,
173 2003), and external microbial (see Chapter 12) and chemical contamination during
174 postharvest (Cantwell and Ermen, 2006). These critical factors can be controlled throughout
175 the entire chain by implementing targeted cultural techniques and observing sanitation
176 programs. Good agricultural practices (GAPs) and good manufacturing practices (GMPs)
177 provide recommended guidelines that guarantee a minimum safety level; the hazard analysis
178 critical control point (HACCP), which includes good hygiene practices (GHPs), is regulated
179 in the EU by EU-Reg. N. 852-853-854/2004. Produce sanitation should start in the field and
180 should encompass all growing, harvesting, handling and processing areas and a
181 documentation of all the procedures applied should be recorded by the producer (logbook).

182 Food safety management in the fresh-cut chain is expected before processing, thus the
183 food safety risks depend on cultivation site location, planting materials (e.g., seeds, seedlings,
184 bulbs, shrubs, trees), process technology, crop production practices, pre- and postharvest
185 technology, and food quality management (Kirezieva et al., 2013). From 1996 to 2006, 26%
186 of all food-borne disease outbreaks caused by the consumption of fresh produce implicated
187 fresh-cut produce (FDA, 2007). Most of the outbreaks linked to fresh produce from 2005 to
188 2011 were caused by *Salmonella*, *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, *Listeria monocytogenes*, and
189 *Shigella sonnei* (Olaimat and Holley, 2012). In Europe over 400 cases of Salmonellosis
190 occurred from baby spinach and alfalfa sprouts and 3911 cases of *E. coli* from vegetable
191 sprouts in 2011; in the USA over 2000 cases of Salmonellosis occurred from tomatoes,
192 spinach, cantaloupe, sweet pepper, and over 500 cases of *E. coli* from leafy vegetables.

193 A larger volume and greater variety of fresh-cut products have become available because
194 of the fresh-cut sector growth. Fresh fruit and vegetables normally contain high amounts of
195 microorganisms at harvesting before processing. Soil, water, air and insects all contribute to
196 the microflora of vegetables, but their importance differs according to the edible part of the
197 plant. For example, leaves are primarily exposed to water, whereas roots have more contact
198 with the soil. The numbers and the species of microorganisms found on fresh produce, and
199 specifically on fresh-cut products, are highly variable. Fresh produce is considered to be a
200 possible source of food-borne outbreaks caused by a variety of pathogens. Several specific

201 pathogen-food combinations have emerged in recurrent outbreaks, such as *Salmonella*
202 infections from melons and tomatoes, *E. coli* O157:H7 infections from leafy green
203 vegetables, *Cyclospora* infections from raspberries and hepatitis A infections from green
204 onions (Lynch et al., 2009). The range of the contamination depends on the harvest time,
205 weather conditions at harvesting, applied fertilizer, handling by workers during harvest,
206 hygiene worker's conditions, sorting, and the subsequent processing, e.g., the contact with
207 cutting knives, transport belts, boxes or water used for washing.

208 The difficulties involved in killing and removing microorganisms from raw material can
209 originate from preharvest sources, such as feces, soil, sewage and sludge, irrigation water,
210 water used to apply fungicides, insecticides and herbicides, improper manure, dust, wild and
211 domestic animals and human handling (Beuchat, 2007). The control of these contamination
212 sources can enhance the successful management of microbial safety risk in the fresh-cut
213 industry. Four types of microbes are present on the surface of fresh-cut produce (see also
214 Chapter 12):

- 215 1. useful microbes, such as some lactic acid bacteria, which should not be removed or
216 killed;
- 217 2. spoilage microbes, such as pectinolytic Gram negative bacteria belonging to
218 *Pseudomonadaceae* or *Enterobacteriaceae* and yeasts with fermentative metabolism
219 like *Saccharomyces* spp., found on fruit, which should be minimized during
220 processing because they reduce shelf life;
- 221 3. pathogens (e.g., *Clostridium botulinum*, *Escherichia coli*, *Listeria monocytogenes*,
222 *Salmonella* spp., *Staphylococcus aureus*) responsible for food-borne disease
223 outbreaks;
- 224 4. commensal organisms, with no positive or harmful effect on either humans or plant
225 and plant pathogens with no harmful effect on humans.

226 The aim of the fresh-cut industry is to prevent the presence of pathogens and assure that
227 they are not introduced during the processing system. Because of their growth, internalization
228 and infiltration behavior, sanitizer treatments are not effective and cannot assure safety, thus
229 GAPs, GMPs and HACCP are essential to prevent human pathogen contamination.

230

231 **II. CULTIVATION MANAGEMENT FOR THE FRESH-CUT INDUSTRY**

232

233 **A. Raw material quality for the fresh-cut industry**

234 Any preharvest condition that stresses a plant will affect the quality and shelf life of the final
235 product. The understanding of these conditions is crucial to assess the postharvest potential of
236 fresh produce, especially those that will be further stressed by fresh cutting. The raw material
237 going to the fresh-cut industry must be in a perfect state with regard to safety, physiology,
238 extrinsic and internal quality before processing. The most important prerequisites concern:

- 239 • the absence of insects, soil, metals and weeds, which increase the length and the cost
240 of the washing phase and jeopardize the quality;
- 241 • a low level of microbial contamination that accelerates metabolic processes which
242 reduce the shelf life;
- 243 • the absence of pathogens that cannot be either controlled or eliminated during
244 processing;
- 245 • a high quality standard in terms of appearance, texture, flavor, and nutritional value.

246 Cultivation conditions, such as the culture system, irrigation, climate and fertilization,
247 influence the quality of the raw material and can modify its physiological behavior and
248 suitability for fresh-cut processing. The preharvest and harvest conditions that affect
249 vegetable quality and shelf life are related to:

- 250 • genetically controlled factors (cultivar, strain);
- 251 • climatic conditions (light, temperature, relative humidity (RH), etc.);
- 252 • soil conditions (type of soil, pH, moisture, microflora, soil-borne diseases, etc.);
- 253 • culture systems (open field cultivation, protected cultivation, soil-less system, etc.);
- 254 • agricultural practices (use and kind of fertilizers, pesticides, growth regulators, irrigation,
255 etc.);
- 256 • harvesting (harvest timing and temperature, mechanical harvest, manual harvest, etc.).

257 The influence of genome, growing conditions, maturity at harvest, and storage regime are
258 critical factors that determine the ultimate quality level in fresh produce before fresh-cut
259 processing (Kader, 2008). Climatic conditions (temperature, light, rain, wind) and cultural
260 practices (planting density, tree pruning, fruit thinning, plant nutrition, cultural system,
261 control of weeds, diseases and pests) allow to reach high yield, but can be detrimental to
262 produce inherent quality. It is necessary to identify the optimal cultural practices that
263 maximize both quality and yield avoiding nutrient and water excess, and to encourage the
264 growers to adopt cultural practices that will enhance produce quality even with a reduction in
265 yield, for providing premium quality raw material for fresh-cut processing. Raw material

266 variability remains a challenge: cultivars, growing conditions, climatic conditions,
267 preprocessing handling and storage all affect the visual quality, shelf life, flavor and the
268 compositional and textural quality (Cantwell and Ermen, 2006).

269

270 **B. Cultivars**

271 Choosing the proper cultivar is not an easy task because various parties in the fresh-cut
272 production and distribution have often conflicting needs. Breeding selects cultivars that can
273 solve problems of growers and processors (see also Chapter 20), reduce production costs and
274 optimize postharvest technology efficiency. In recent years, breeding programs have been
275 focused on developing new varieties and selections especially for yield, fruit size, disease
276 resistance, long shelf life, minimum harvest maturity, lowest storage and shipping
277 temperatures. All these parameters are crucial for growers, processors, buyers and retailers,
278 but can have negative consequences on flavor quality of the product (Kader, 2008).

279 Growers want cultivars that are resistant to biotic and abiotic factors, while assuring a
280 high yield, suitability for mechanical harvesting, plant size uniformity, low waste and
281 uniform maturity. The absence of biotic and abiotic damage reduces both the metabolic
282 processes after harvest and microbial contamination at any stage. Resistance to biotic and
283 abiotic factors allows not only reduction of pesticide use, but also production of unblemished
284 raw material. Breeders have selected *Cichorium intybus* L. (chicory) cultivars with high
285 bolting tolerance and frost resistance without any variation in color. Cultivars with high
286 bolting tolerance satisfy commercial and organoleptic maturity requirements and lead to a
287 reduction in the discarded material, thus lowering postharvest losses. Baby leaf cultivars of
288 lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) have been selected because of their resistance to different *Bremia*
289 *lactucae* strains, while spinach (*Spinacia oleracea* L.) cultivars have been selected because of
290 their resistance to *Peronospora farinosa*.

291 Processors want cultivars with low respiration and enzymatic rates and with tolerance to
292 stress due to mechanical operations, such as washing, sorting, cutting, and drying. Selecting
293 varieties with low respiration rates and lowering the respiration rate after harvest are very
294 useful tools to extend the shelf-life of the fresh produce. Seefeldt et al. (2012) studied the
295 effect of variety and harvest time on respiration rate of broccoli florets (*Brassica oleracea*,
296 Italica group) and found that the respiration rate among the tested broccoli varieties can be
297 related to the structure of the heads and the inflorescences size. Varieties with low respiration
298 rate for oxygen (RRO₂) had small inflorescence gathered in a compact head, while those with
299 high RRO₂ had a large inflorescence in loose heads. In addition, the varieties with high dry

300 matter contents had also high RRO₂ within the same species. Also preferred are cultivars
301 tolerant of low temperatures used in the supply chain. For instance, head vegetables (e.g.,
302 lettuce, chicory) are preferred to baby leaves (e.g., rocket, *Eruca sativa* Mill; corn salad,
303 *Valerianella olitoria* L.) because they are more resistant to mechanical stress and extended
304 storability prior to processing. The latter feature improves logistic management of the
305 produce flow. However, the recent consumer demand for softer leaves with variation in taste,
306 color, and shape has encouraged the development of new lettuce typologies. **Martínez-**
307 **Sánchez et al. (2012)** compared the whole-head lettuce, as the most common raw material for
308 the fresh-cut industry, with baby-leaf and multi-leaf as the newest baby-sized lettuce leaves
309 (Green Leaf, Red Leaf and Lollo Rosso cultivars). The new baby-sized leaves both at
310 immature and mature stages have been developed as high quality lettuce varieties for the
311 fresh-cut sector.

312 Baby-sized lettuce compared to the whole-head lettuce presents some advantages:

- 313 • greater efficiency due to the higher percentage of usable product;
- 314 • easier and faster processing because the entire leaf is harvested and processed;
- 315 • more attractive presentation in the packaging because of 3-D structure;
- 316 • minimal oxidation due to the smaller stem diameter.

317 **Martínez-Sánchez et al. (2012)** recommended the development of baby-sized lettuce
318 varieties because of excellent sensory characteristics and nutritional quality; they meet fresh-
319 cut specific requirements in terms of visual quality, microbial load and high content of
320 phytochemicals.

321 Leaf shape often depends on cultivar and can facilitate cleaning and washing operations
322 during processing. This is typical the case of spinach. Spinach cultivars are often classified
323 according to leaf shape, i.e., smooth, savoy or semi-savoy. The smooth leaf and semi-savoy
324 types are mainly used for processing, while the savoy type is used for the fresh market. The
325 savoy types are preferred for shipping because they are less likely to wilt or turn yellow
326 before reaching the market. The smooth type spinach cultivars are suitable for canned, frozen
327 or fresh-cut produce, because the leaves are easy to clean before processing.

328 Enzymatic rates can depend on cultivar. **Cantwell and Ermen (2006)** described lettuce
329 cultivars that differed according to their enzymatic browning rate and the phenylalanine
330 ammonia lyase (PAL) activity of the cut pieces. All types of “radicchio”, a chicory cultivar
331 famous for its color and slightly bitter flavor, have a long shelf life associated with a reduced
332 oxidation of the cutting point.

333 Cultivar selection is of great importance in fresh-cut fruit processing, because cultivars
334 can widely differ for flesh texture, skin color, flavor, nutritional value, susceptibility to
335 mechanical damage, and browning potential. The commercial success of fresh-cut peach and
336 nectarine slices (*Prunus persica* [L.] Batsch) has been limited, due to their short shelf life
337 because of cut surface browning and pit cavity breakdown (Gorny et al., 1999). Their shelf
338 life can vary between 2 to 12 days at 0°C, depending on the cultivar. The selection of
339 appropriate cultivars, along with an appropriate maturity at harvest and proper storage
340 conditions, can be considered the most important factors that determine the shelf life of fresh-
341 cut fruits. The shelf life of fresh-cut slices of pear cultivars (*Pyrus communis* L.) varies
342 greatly due to their different degrees of flesh softening and surface discoloration. The shelf
343 life of pear slices is reduced with an increased incidence of cut surface browning. Gorny et al.
344 (2000), when comparing Bartlett, Bosc, Anjou and Red Anjou varieties, stated that Bartlett
345 pears were the most suitable cultivars for fresh-cut processing, because they exhibited the
346 longest post-cutting shelf life of all cultivars tested.

347 Ethylene receptor can be bound by 1-MCP which then can prevent the physiological
348 action of ethylene for extended periods. The effectiveness of 1-MCP is cultivar-specific and
349 influenced by the maturity of the fruit. Calderon-Lopez et al. (2005) found that slices
350 prepared from apple cultivars (*Malus x domestica* Borkh.) treated with 1-MCP had lower
351 ethylene effect and were firmer than those of untreated fruits. Fruit firmness generally
352 decreases with increasing core temperature, but postharvest quality decay due to storage
353 temperature is not only species-specific but, also, cultivar-specific. This is, for instance, the
354 case of apples. Toivonen and Hampson (2009) investigated the response of four apple
355 cultivars (Gala, Granny Smith, Ambrosia, Aurora Golden GalaTM) to fresh-cut processing at
356 core temperature of 1, 5, 13, and 20 °C. It was concluded that Gala apples were best
357 processed at low core temperatures, Ambrosia could be processed at all temperatures tested,
358 and Aurora Golden Gala produced better quality slices when fruit was stored at room
359 temperature (20 °C) before slicing. These results mark the necessity of developing new apple
360 lines directed to their quality as fresh-cut products in addition to the potential storage quality
361 of the intact fruit.

362 Nowadays, it is crucial to satisfy the consumer expectations in terms of quality. One of
363 the main parameters considered by consumers when choosing a product is the color of the
364 product. Consumers associate color with freshness, better taste, flavor, and ripeness, which
365 depend on genotype, growing conditions, harvesting stage, processing, storage and
366 distribution conditions. In fruit, such as apples, cherries (*Prunus avium* L., *Prunus cerasus*

367 L.), and strawberries (*Fragaria x ananassa* Duch.), there has been much interest in breeding
368 fruit varieties with different color, hues, patterns, or with a total anthocyanin content. Red
369 skinned apples are preferred to the other colored apples.

370 Differences between cultivars may give rise to specific different postharvest quality
371 aspects valuable for the fresh-cut industry. Gonzalez-Aguilar et al. (2008) assessed the
372 physiological and biochemical changes of different fresh-cut mango (*Mangifera indica* L.)
373 cultivars (Keitt, Kent, Ataulfo) stored at 5°C. Ataulfo had a much greater shelf life than the
374 other two cultivars, almost double or triple; there was also a correlation between the content
375 of carotene and vitamin C of Ataulfo mango and its longer shelf life compared to the other
376 cultivars. The importance of a high vitamin C content has extensively been indicated as a
377 factor delaying tissue senescence (Lee and Kader, 2000; Bergquist et al., 2007). Wall et al.
378 (2010) evaluated the physicochemical, nutritional and microbial quality of fresh-cut papaya
379 (*Papaya carica* L.) prepared from 5 cultivars with varying resistance to internal yellowing
380 (IY) (Sunrise, SunUp, Rainbow, resistant; Kapoho, Laie Gold, susceptible), a disease caused
381 by *Enterobacter cloacae*, an opportunistic pathogen. A zero-tolerance for food-borne
382 coliforms makes resistance to IY an important criterion in breeding papaya cultivars suitable
383 for fresh-cut food, but because the infection is restricted to the flesh surrounding the seed
384 cavity, infected fruit cannot be sorted from good quality fruit based on external appearance.

385 Microbial quality is fundamental to observe the food safety guidelines and the use of IY-
386 resistant cultivars could eliminate or reduce coliform bacteria load. While Kapoho and Laie
387 Gold cultivars are not good candidates because of susceptibility to IY, although Laie Gold is
388 high in vitamin and sugar contents, Rainbow is one of the IY-resistant cultivars. The latter,
389 in addition, is better than the former for its higher content in vitamin A and sugars, and it
390 does not develop the flesh translucency problem. The authors concluded that the processors
391 of fresh-cut papaya products should choose the best cultivars for processing by considering
392 not only appearance, but also texture, flavor and nutritional content.

393 Raw material for the fresh-cut industry originates a certain amount of waste after sorting
394 and processing that could be valuable as a source of bioactive compounds. The waste amount
395 is species and cultivar dependent. Tarazona-Díaz et al. (2011) tested five fresh-cut
396 watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus* Thumb.) cultivars to determine: 1) the percentage of waste
397 product produced during fresh-cut processing, 2) the difference among the cultivars in terms
398 of their bioactive compounds, and 3) the composition of watermelon rind and flesh, with the
399 possibility of reusing the rind as an additive in functional foods. The authors compared the
400 following cultivars: 1) Fashion, seedless, dark rind, 2) Azabache, seeded, dark rind, 3) Motril,

401 seedless, striped rind, 4) Kudam, micro-seed (open-pollinated cultivar), striped rind, 5)
402 Boston, seedless, striped rind. Results indicated that the amount of by-product generated by
403 processing varied from 31.27% to 40.61% of initial fresh weight depending on the cultivar.
404 All cultivars were poor in total antioxidant content. However, the sensory panel indicated that
405 the five cultivars would have a good acceptance in the market. ‘Fashion’ watermelon had the
406 highest citrulline content (an amino acid that may help regulate blood pressure) and could be
407 used as a source for human consumption as fresh-cut watermelon or for citrulline extraction
408 from discarded rind.

409 In conclusion, during the latest decade processing technologies and distribution chain
410 have driven the demand of cultivar selection and breeding mostly based on yield and post-
411 processing performance in terms of shelf life, leaving at a lower priority the consumer
412 demand for high organoleptic quality, flavor and nutritional values. Nevertheless, there is an
413 increasing interest to select and breed cultivars satisfying production and processing needs of
414 growers and processors as well as satisfying nutritional and organoleptic characteristics
415 requested by the consumer. Furthermore, research has been focused basically on few species
416 that are the core of the fresh-cut industry, such as lettuce, spinach, melon, watermelon, apple
417 and lately on some tropical fruit. There is a need to expand investigations on genetic material
418 for several species that represent a niche in the fresh-cut industry but could gain popularity
419 thanks to ameliorated performance. The constant expansion of the fresh-cut business all over
420 the world can drive the demand for improved and new varieties or even species to be
421 included in the supply chain.

422

423 **C. Growing conditions and raw material production**

424 Climatic conditions, including light and temperature, and soil type have an important
425 influence on the chemical composition of horticultural crops (see also Chapter 5). The
426 amount and intensity of light during the growing season have a definite influence on the
427 amount of ascorbic acid that is formed, thus affecting the postharvest shelf life (Lee and
428 Kader, 2000). A study on baby leaves (spinach, red chard - *Beta vulgaris* L., pea shoots -
429 *Pisum sativum* L., rocket and corn salad) obtained from a grocery store throughout the season
430 showed that total vitamin C content, that is, ascorbic acid (AA) and dehydro-ascorbic acid
431 (DHA), vary significantly between species, between cultivars, and over the season (Mogren
432 et al., 2014). The variations in the chemical composition in spinach due to the season was
433 also found by Conte et al. (2008), who showed that the product harvested in February had a
434 lower AA content than that of March, probably due to the lower solar radiation occurring in

435 February. The total vitamin C levels were very high (1494 mg kg⁻¹ f.w. and 1559 mg kg⁻¹
436 f.w., respectively), most probably because the favorable environmental growing conditions
437 (Southern Italy).

438 High light intensity reduces the amounts of oxalate and nitrate in leaves (Proietti et al.,
439 2004; Conte et al., 2008). Lowest levels of nitrate are accumulated in plants when higher
440 radiation is available during plant growth, because of the high light-dependant activity of the
441 nitrate reductase enzyme in reducing nitrate once taken up by the plants. Light and
442 temperature affect anthocyanin synthesis in several species which, in many instances, is
443 favored by UV wavelengths and low temperatures (Kleinhenz et al., 2003, and citations
444 therein). Sunlight is the most important external factor that regulates anthocyanin synthesis in
445 apple skin (Takos et al., 2006).

446 Environmental conditions and seasonal variation influence vegetable and fruit resistance
447 to biotic and abiotic factors. Adverse conditions that negatively stress a plant make
448 vegetables and fruits unsuitable for processing. Conte et al. (2008) studied the effect of the
449 seasonality on the microbiological quality at harvest of baby leaf spinach grown in open field
450 in a sandy clay soil in three different periods from October to January. The authors found that
451 the growing period did not affect the total mesophilic bacterial contamination, which was
452 equal to 10⁵ cfu g⁻¹ for all the investigated samples. Nicola et al. (2014b) studied the effect of
453 the seasonality on the microbial contamination at harvest (total plate count, TPC; yeast and
454 mould count, YMC) of green lettuce ('Green Lollo') grown in greenhouse with a continuous
455 flotation system (FL) in three different periods (summer, fall and winter). Even in this case
456 the seasonality did not affect the microbial quality at harvest in terms of total plate count
457 (TPC) and of yeast and mould count (YMC), leading to an average contamination of 1.7 10³
458 cfu g⁻¹ and 4.7 10¹ cfu g⁻¹, respectively. At the end of 9 days of shelf life of the fresh-cut
459 species results confirmed no effect due to seasonality (data not published). Rastogi et al.
460 (2012) evaluated the effect of growing season (summer vs. winter), field location (northern
461 region – California, summer season, vs. southern region – Arizona and South California,
462 winter season), and environmental conditions on the variability of the bacterial community
463 composition in open-field grown lettuce. The total bacterial population averaged between 10⁵
464 and 10⁶ per gram of tissue, whereas counts of culturable bacteria were, on average, one
465 (summer season) or two (winter season) orders of magnitude lower. The bacterial core
466 phyllosphere microbiota on lettuce was represented by *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Massilia*,
467 *Arthrobacter* and *Pantoea* genus. Summer-grown lettuce showed an over-representation of
468 *Enterobacteraceae* sequences and culturable coliforms compared to the winter-grown lettuce.

469 In winter samples coliforms were much lower than in summer samples, following the
470 seasonality of *E. coli* O157:H7. The specific mechanisms that allowed a clear separation
471 between summer and winter in terms of the bacterial community composition that
472 characterized the lettuce that was grown in the two regions was however not clear. Seasonal
473 differences such as RH, temperature or irrigation practices can have a different degree or a
474 different mechanism of action on the observed variation in bacterial community composition.
475 Northern or southern production regions could have had, for instance, an influence *per se*
476 rather than the summer or winter season on the observed variation.

477 After harvesting, quality deterioration can be accelerated in produce damaged by pests,
478 fungi, bacteria and viruses, which alter the plant metabolism and increase the risk of a second
479 microbial contamination. Cultivation for fresh-cut processing should take place in areas far
480 from chemical, atmospheric or animal husbandry pollutant sources, which jeopardize the
481 safety of the raw material.

482 Water influences the raw material microbial quality throughout the entire processing
483 cycle. Water used for production and harvest operations can contaminate vegetables if the
484 edible portions have been in direct contact with water containing pathogens harmful to
485 humans or through water-to-soil and soil-to-product contact (Solomon et al., 2003). It is
486 important to assure an appropriate chemical and microbial quality of the irrigation water and
487 the water used in harvest operations. The chemical quality of water can influence plant
488 growth. An example is salinity, which increases the susceptibility of plants to many diseases
489 such as *Fusarium* spp. and *Verticillium* spp. wilts (Besri, 1997). The water should be
490 periodically controlled through microbial and chemical analyses, including tests on the levels
491 of fecal coliforms (i.e. *E. coli*) and heavy metals, whose absence is a safety indicator.
492 However, growers may encounter difficulties in controlling water quality because it
493 originates from source that could become polluted. Irrigation water comes from surface and
494 underground sources that can be contaminated by drift, run off or leaching of water from
495 polluted areas (Lunati, 2001; Steele and Odumeru, 2004).

496 Irrigation methods (e.g., drip irrigation, overhead sprinkler, furrow, sub-irrigation
497 systems) can be chosen according to their potential to introduce or promote the growth of
498 pathogens on produce. Water quality, irrigation and postharvest disinfecting treatments
499 appear to be of paramount importance in reducing the risk of *E. coli* contamination in lettuce
500 (University of Arizona-Cooperative Extension, 2004a). Fonseca (2006) evaluated the
501 postharvest quality and microbial population of iceberg lettuce affected by moisture at
502 harvest. Iceberg lettuce irrigated 4 days before harvest had microbial counts over 0.4 log cfu

503 g⁻¹ higher than on lettuce irrigated 16 days before harvest. In addition, the microbial
504 population of lettuce irrigated 4 days before harvest with overhead sprinklers was much
505 higher than lettuce irrigated using the furrow system. Fonseca et al. (2011) assessed the
506 contamination risk of *E. coli* in commercial lettuce grown under three different irrigation
507 systems (overhead sprinkler, subsurface drip, surface furrow), investigated the survival of the
508 pathogen once the bacterium reaches the soil and determined its potential relationship with
509 irrigation management. Fonseca and co-authors confirmed that the risk of *E. coli*
510 contamination on leafy vegetables increases when sprinkle irrigation is used and water is
511 contaminated. Furthermore, *E. coli* survival in furrow-irrigated soil marks the importance of
512 an early irrigation stopping for both sprinkler and furrow methods. After a 3-year survey, the
513 researchers concluded that the highest risk of finding the pathogen in irrigation water is in
514 warmer periods, but its survival in soil is lower in the same period.

515 Water influences not only the microbial quality, but also the shelf life of vegetables. Some
516 studies suggest that in some cases 'controlled' water stress during plant growth can produce
517 beneficial effects during postharvest storage (University of Arizona-Cooperative Extension,
518 2004b). Moisture stress imposed on broccoli (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. *italica*) during
519 maturity increased their shelf life from 2-3 days to as many as 13 days at 15°C. Similarly,
520 water stress can improve the postharvest quality of carrots (*Daucus carota* L.), melons
521 (*Cucumis melo* L.) and celery (*Apium graveolens* L.), but the positive effect of stress depends
522 on when the plants are subjected to it.

523 Because water influences cell expansion and leaf water status, it might be expected that
524 irrigation affects postharvest quality of leafy vegetables. Luna et al. (2013a) studied the
525 influence of both deficit and excess irrigation on respiration rate, tissue browning and
526 microbial quality of fresh-cut romaine lettuce, the second most important type of lettuce after
527 iceberg. The authors tested six different irrigation regimes set according to a standard
528 irrigation regime (SIR): -35% SIR (<221 mm), -15% SIR (221-265 mm), SIR (266-320 mm),
529 +15% SIR (321-370 mm), +35% SIR (>430 mm), +75% SIR (>430 mm). Irrigation regime
530 influenced significantly not only the raw material at harvest, but also the post-cutting quality
531 and the shelf-life of fresh-cut romaine lettuce. The excess of irrigation increased polyphenol
532 oxidase (PPO) activity, accelerated the cut edge browning and the microbiological growth,
533 while the deficit of irrigation reduced the cut edge browning despite the accumulation of
534 phenolic compounds. Luna and co-authors (2013a) concluded that phenolic compounds in
535 romaine lettuce is not a browning limiting factor, as it was reported in iceberg lettuce in
536 another paper (Luna et al., 2012). The highest respiration rate was observed when lettuce was

537 cultivated under the most severe deficit (−35% SIR) or excess of irrigation (+35% SIR). As
538 expected, the highest deficit of irrigation decreased yield in terms of fresh weight, but also
539 with the most extreme excess of water, as it was indicated by [Fonseca \(2006\)](#). A similar study
540 conducted by the same authors growing iceberg lettuce gave similar results ([Luna et al.,
541 2012](#)). Iceberg lettuce had greater head weight with medium irrigation regime than those
542 cultivated under deficit or excess regime. Browning at the cut edge was increased with
543 storage time particularly when the irrigation regime was increased during plant growth.
544 Increasing the irrigation regime had negative effect on lettuce quality as high enzymatic
545 activities were positively correlated with browning, while irrigation deficit preserved quality
546 and shelf life of fresh-cut iceberg lettuce.

547 The soil type and management affects not only the nutritional quality, but also the safety
548 of the raw material. Frequent soil chemical analyses are essential for an efficient management
549 of the soil-water-plant system to avoid crop production losses and decrease the environmental
550 impact. The soil texture influences the mobility and efficiency of nitrogen and mineral
551 uptake, which in turn has an impact on the quality of the final product. Cantaloupe grown in
552 clay soil produced better-tasting fruit, in terms of sweetness and flavor, with superior fresh-
553 cut quality, in terms of less sour taste and off-flavor, than melons grown in sandy soil ([Bett-
554 Garber et al., 2005](#)). [Mylavarapu and Zinati \(2009\)](#) found that the incorporation of compost
555 improved the physical and chemical properties of sandy soils where parsley (*Petroselinum*
556 *crispum* Mill.) was cultivated as well as increased parsley yields. The compost application
557 resulted beneficial for water and nutrient properties of sandy textured soils.

558 The soil type and management is fundamental also for the prevention of preharvest
559 contamination of fresh produce from pathogens, heavy metals, and pollutants. In order to
560 develop strategies that minimize the risk of pathogen survival and spread within agricultural
561 system and food chain, it is important to understand the fate of pathogens, such as *E. coli*, in
562 environmental substrates like manure-amended soils and how manure-amended soils affect
563 their survival. [Franz et al. \(2008\)](#) studied the effects of manure-amended soil characteristics
564 on the survival of *E. coli* O157:H7 in 36 Dutch soils. Comparing sandy soils to loamy soils
565 the authors observed that the initial rate of decline of *E. coli* O157:H7 is faster in sandy soils,
566 but that decline rate slows down more with progressing time than in loamy soils. The
567 pathogen survival increased in soils with a history of low-quality manure application
568 (artificial fertilizers and slurry) compared to those with high-quality manure application
569 (farmyard manure and compost). The authors concluded that *E. coli* O157:H7 population

570 declines faster in soil with high carbon:nitrogen ratio and consequently a relatively low rate
571 of nutrient release.

572 The pathogen contamination risk is high when growing vegetables, especially for leafy
573 vegetables like spinach, lettuce, rocket, which are in direct contact with the soil and are
574 consumed raw. In general, the presence of pathogens in soil amendments can be solved using
575 stabilizing organic residues instead of fresh organic wastes, ensuring proper composting. The
576 use of animal slurry is rare in intensive vegetable production in Mediterranean regions,
577 mainly due to food safety issues (Nicola et al., 2013). In fact, several food-borne disease
578 outbreaks in the recent decade have discouraged many vegetable growers from manure and
579 slurry use, most probably as a preventive action because the safety of the available slurry and
580 manure can be limited. The survival of food-borne pathogens is a potential threat to humans,
581 far more important than any other quality aspect. Jensen et al. (2013) reported the transfer of
582 *E. coli* from animal slurry fertilizer to lettuce. This occurred in a pilot study for which animal
583 slurry was applied as fertilizer in three Danish agricultural fields, prior to the planting of
584 lettuce seedlings and with *E. coli* serving as an indicator of fecal contamination and as an
585 indicator for potential bacterial enteric pathogens. The study revealed a frequent
586 contamination (44.9%) and levels above 2 log cfu g⁻¹ in 42.4% of the contaminated samples
587 of lettuce grown under natural conditions in slurry-amended soils. This fecal contamination
588 indicates a potential presence of pathogens such as *Salmonella* and *Campylobacter*, which
589 could represent a real hazard to human health. In addition, streptomycin- and ampicillin-
590 resistant *E. coli* were found in 15.0 and 1.4% of the lettuce pools, respectively, which
591 indicates a risk of transferring antimicrobial-resistant genes. Because a relatively high
592 number of *E. coli* in lettuce was found at harvest as compared with the numbers found in the
593 soil, it was suggested that the animal slurry fertilization was not the sole source of fecal
594 contamination, but that the surrounding environment and wildlife played a role in the
595 contamination with *E. coli*.

596 Evidently, all the environmental conditions surrounding plant growth have to be taken
597 into account to set the most appropriate conditions to obtain optimal raw material at harvest.
598 As fresh-cut produce is prepared from a raw material that is in contact with soil, microbial
599 contamination can occur. GAPs and GHPs suggest that land used for grazing livestock is not
600 suitable for growing vegetables and it is recommended that manure and compost are avoided
601 as fertilizers because they can be sources of microbial and heavy metal contamination.

602 Inherent fruit quality parameters, such as sugar and acid content, ripening and storability,
603 and external fruit quality parameters, such as color, shape, stage of growth and firmness, are

604 closely correlated to the main nutrients: nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, and
605 magnesium. The nutrients can be supplied to the plant through distribution on the soil surface
606 or by fertigation. Fertigation increases the efficient use of fertilizers and nutrient availability
607 at root level, and fertigation in particular increases the mobility of potassium and phosphorus.

608 In fruits, nitrogen (N) is negatively correlated with the firmness, dry matter percentage,
609 refractometric index, soluble sugar content and acidity. An excess of N availability causes
610 poor fruit skin color development and increases plant susceptibility to pests and physiological
611 disorders. In vegetables, particularly leafy vegetables, N supplied as nitrate is negatively
612 correlated to the dry matter percentage and directly correlated to the nitrate content in the
613 edible portion (Fontana et al., 2004; Nicola et al., 2005b). In leafy vegetables, N fertilization
614 can be scheduled to reduce the nitrate accumulation in plant parts in order to reach acceptable
615 threshold levels, which are generally below 2500 mg kg⁻¹ f.w. In the EU, specific limitations
616 are set for the nitrate content in the final product for lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.), spinach
617 (*Spinaca oleracea* L.) and rocket (*Eruca sativa*, *Diplotaxis* sp., *Brassica tenuifolia*,
618 *Sisymbrium tenuifolium*) (EU Reg. 1258/2011, amending EU Reg. 1881/2006 that amended
619 EU-Reg. N. 563/2002).

620 Nitrate accumulation in plant parts depends on species, cultivar, season and cropping
621 system and affect product marketability and postharvest shelf-life (Fontana et al., 2004;
622 Nicola et al., 2005b). Koh et al. (2012) compared the levels of nitrate, oxalate, ascorbic acid,
623 vitamin C and flavonoids in 27 varieties of spinach grown in certified organic and
624 conventional cropping systems. The nitrate content varied in organic (316.3-1170.4 mg kg⁻¹
625 f.w.) and conventionally grown spinach (961.3-2453.5 mg kg⁻¹ f.w.) depending on the
626 cultivar. The content of nitrate was significantly higher in the conventionally grown spinach
627 compared to the organically grown spinach and was correlated positively with oxalate and
628 negatively with ascorbic acid, vitamin C, and flavonoids. The cropping systems did not
629 influence the oxalate content in spinach leaves, while it did the ascorbic acid, vitamin C and
630 total flavonoids. For all these parameters spinach grown organically had higher contents than
631 those grown conventionally. Of the 17 flavonoids determined, the levels of 10 were higher in
632 the organic spinach compared to conventional spinach.

633 Among the plant mineral nutrients, potassium (K) is the cation having the strongest effect
634 on fruit quality attributes that determine fruit marketability, consumer preference and the
635 concentration of phytonutrients (Lester et al., 2010, and citations therein). K effects on fruit
636 marketability attributes include maturity, yield, firmness, soluble solids and sugars; on
637 consumer preference they include sugar content, sweetness and texture; on phytochemical

638 concentrations they include ascorbic acid and carotenoid concentrations. All these aspects
639 depend on K application modes (wet, through foliar or hydroponic application, or dry, in
640 soil), doses (applications number) and timing (plant stage, cultural season). Supplementing
641 sufficient soil K with additional foliar K applications during cantaloupe development and
642 maturation improves the fruit marketable quality by increasing firmness and the sugar
643 content, and fruit nutritional quality by increasing ascorbic acid, beta-carotene, and the K
644 levels (Lester et al., 2007).

645 The preharvest nutritional status of fruit, especially with respect to calcium (Ca), is an
646 important factor that affects the potential storage life (Gąstoł and Domagała-Świątkiewicz,
647 2006). Fruits with a high level of Ca have lower respiration rate and longer potential storage
648 life than fruits containing low levels of Ca. Ca plays a key role in the retention of firmness,
649 delaying fruit ripening and reducing physiological disorders. Many physiological disorders in
650 fruits are associated with a Ca deficiency. The easiest way to maximize the Ca level in fruit is
651 to use a foliar spray, although in many instances the uptake and penetration of Ca into the
652 fruit and its movement within the fruit tissues is difficult to achieve (Mengel, 2002).
653 Preharvest Ca sprays on apples increase fruit Ca, and frequently improve flesh firmness at
654 harvest, especially during stressful seasons in which fruit Ca content is suspected to be
655 relatively low, reduce the incidence of bitter pit and lenticel blotch after cold storage (Casero
656 et al., 2009). The total fruit Ca increases in all seasons with Ca treatments, but this increase is
657 not proportional with the number of applications.

658 Leafy vegetables used for the fresh-cut industry are, in general, from open field
659 production. Conversely, in Italy, most of them are from protected cultivations, leading to
660 increased yields and crop cycles, allowing out-of-season production, control the abiotic
661 factors and facilitate pest management. In 2011, it was estimated that 6,500 ha were
662 cultivated under leafy vegetables and greens, most of them in greenhouse (Casati and Baldi,
663 2011). The produce originates from different geographic areas, according to the season. Each
664 geographic area is characterized by different environmental conditions, cultivar availability
665 and cultural practices. These factors can influence not only the quality of the raw material at
666 harvest, but, also, the efficiency of postharvest technologies, such as the choice of operational
667 temperatures and packaging systems. Fruit and vegetables are produced both in open field
668 (Figure 1) and in protected cultivations, either in macro-tunnel or in greenhouse (Figure
669 2a,b); some baby-leaf species (e.g., rocket, corn salad, baby lettuce, spinach) or aromatic
670 plants are produced in soil-less culture such as floating systems (FS) (Figure 3). Compared to
671 the open field system, the protected culture system offers many advantages, for example,

672 protection from damaging winds and other adverse weather conditions such as rain and hail, a
673 reduction in evapotranspiration rate, an increase in photosynthesis rate, and an advance in the
674 harvest date. The covering material of the greenhouses enhances the internal air temperature,
675 and leads to reduced air and soil temperature excursions. All these aspects affect plant health,
676 and improve raw material quality, yield and safety.

677 Voća et al. (2006) compared strawberry crops grown in open field cultivation, soil
678 protected cultivation and soil-less protected cultivation systems, and found that the
679 cultivation system had a great influence on the color and firmness of the strawberry fruit cv.
680 Elsanta. Overall better fruit coloring was obtained in the protected cultivation systems,
681 although the soil-less system gave the lowest fruit firmness. The overall chemical
682 composition of the fruit indicated that the highest quality was reached with the soil protected
683 cultivation.

684 Vegetables usually contain relatively high numbers of microorganisms at harvest because
685 they are in contact with soil during growth (Tournas, 2005). Not all microorganisms are
686 capable to proliferate on vegetables. Several microbial species can break the protective cover
687 of plants and, then, grow and cause spoilage; others can enter the plant tissue through wounds
688 and can grow and damage the vegetable. Some fungal spores can survive for some time in the
689 soil and contaminate plants one season after another; these organisms may cause plant
690 disease in the field, as well as spoilage during storage. In these circumstances, field
691 treatments with fungicides and the use of resistant cultivars are necessary to avoid disease
692 development and spoilage. The avoidance of disease development and spoilage are main
693 factors that favor the development of the soil-less culture system.

694 Protected cultivation is increasingly shifting from traditional culture systems (TCS) in soil
695 to soil-less culture systems (SCS) (Nicola and Fontana, 2007), as SCS, based on the growing
696 media, have some advantages over TCS. Most of the studies comparing TCS to SCS have
697 indicated that SCS increase earliness, yield or both (Incrocci et al., 2001; Santamaria and
698 Valenzano, 2001; Ferrante et al., 2003; Fontana et al., 2004; Nicola et al., 2005a,b; Fontana
699 and Nicola, 2009). The protected SCS allows for higher qualitative and quantitative standards
700 standardization of cultural techniques, and the reduction of both production costs and
701 environmental impact. The system is a valid alternative to the soil cultivation system as it
702 helps to avoid soil-borne diseases, and controls mineral plant nutrition to standardize the
703 qualitative characteristics of the final product. The use of mineral and sterile media with a
704 low environmental impact may be an alternative to the practice of soil disinfection. When
705 investigating a soil-less system, to obtain uniform produce of high quality, it is crucial to

706 adjust the nutrient solution, moisture and water content of the growing medium because they
707 are the most important aspects, apart from growing environmental conditions.

708 The soil-less protected cultivation system is highly productive and has proved to enhance
709 the postharvest shelf life of many fresh-cut vegetables (Fontana et al., 2003, 2004, 2006;
710 Fontana and Nicola, 2008; Fontana and Nicola, 2009; Hoeberechts et al., 2004; Nicola et al.,
711 2003, 2004, 2005a, 2005b; Sportelli, 2003). By comparing soil and soil-less culture systems
712 for lettuce production in open field, Selma et al. (2012) showed that fresh-cut lettuce from
713 SCS had significantly higher antioxidant content and better microbial quality than fresh-cut
714 lettuce from soil. The same research group (Luna et al., 2013b) studied the influence of
715 different nutrient solution ion concentrations (low: 1.40 dS m⁻¹; medium: 1.90 dS m⁻¹; high:
716 2.40 dS m⁻¹) on the quality characteristics of three lettuce genotypes, including one green
717 (butterhead cv. Dagan) and two red-leafed lettuces (lollo rosso cv. Evasion and red oak leaf
718 cv. Jamai), cultivated in a soil-less system in open field in summer and winter. Postharvest
719 shelf-life of the fresh-cut product was also evaluated. The study indicated that quality
720 differences at harvest and post-cutting changes depend more on the seasonal variation and
721 genotypes than on the nutrient solution ion concentration. In summer, maturity index was
722 higher and dry matter lower than in winter. Red-leafed lettuces showed the highest
723 antioxidant content, helping the maintenance of sensory characteristics throughout storage;
724 they are preferred to butterhead because they are more resistant to mechanical stress and have
725 more extended shelf-life, thus red-leafed genotypes could be more adequate for growing
726 under medium nutrient solution ion concentration.

727 Among the different soil-less cultivation systems, the floating system (FS) is a recent
728 growing system that has led scientists and extension specialists to consider it as a way of
729 producing leafy vegetables with characteristics that satisfy the requirements of the entire
730 production chain. The system is suitable for raising vegetables with both short production
731 cycle and high plant density; it can be considered an efficient system to produce leafy
732 vegetables with high added value, processed as fresh-cut produce.

733 The FS is a sub-irrigation system that consists of trays that float on a water bed or nutrient
734 solution (Nicola, 1993; Pimpini and Enzo, 1997; Thomas, 1993) (Figure 3a,b). FS can be
735 implemented either with a continuous flotation (FL) or with an ebb-and-flow flotation (EF)
736 scheduling. EF is scheduled with drying (ebb) periods. A sub-irrigation system increases the
737 precision of fertilizer application to plants by reducing water leaching during irrigation. The
738 FS allows the produce quality at harvest to be improved, reduces microbial contamination
739 and eliminates soil and chemical residue spoilage. Normally, produce obtained from TCS can

740 reach a total bacterial count of 10^6 to 10^9 cfu g^{-1} , which can be reduced by 2-3 log cfu g^{-1}
741 after washing and sanitation practices. On purslane (*Portulaca oleracea* L.) grown in FL, the
742 initial mesophilic load and *Enterobacteria* counts load was 2.7-3.0 log cfu g^{-1} and 2.1-2.2 log
743 cfu g^{-1} , respectively, on processing day (Rodriguez-Hidalgo et al., 2010).

744 FL used to grow green lettuce, red lettuce and spinach, and EF used to grow rocket
745 resulted at harvest in an average TPC of 10^3 cfu g^{-1} and YMC of 10^2 ; only spinach had a
746 higher contamination of TPC (10^6 cfu g^{-1}) (Nicola et al., 2014b). In general, fresh-cut green
747 lettuce at the end of 9 days of shelf-life at 4°C remained with the same magnitude of
748 contamination, while fresh-cut mix of green lettuce and either red lettuce, rocket or spinach
749 increased of two logs. The raw material obtained using FS in confined greenhouse is free of
750 soil residue and dirt, and considering the overall very low microbial contamination, it was
751 hypothesized, that washing is considered a critical point in the production process of the
752 ready-to-eat vegetables. The use of floating systems allows to use softer washing procedures,
753 such as eliminating chlorine from the water sanitation process, with less stress for the leaf
754 tissue.

755 Selma et al. (2012) assessed the microbiological quality of fresh-cut lettuce obtained by
756 soil- and soil-less grown lettuce. Cultivation was in open field and the SCS used was the
757 NGS™ (New Growing System, NGS™ Almería, Spain, patent no. 2.221.636/7). The soil-less
758 culture system was more effective in controlling microbial contamination because soil-less
759 grown lettuce had a lower initial microbial load and slower microbial growth during storage.
760 At the end of intended shelf life period, the differences in microbial counts were 3 and 1.5 log
761 units higher for lactic acid bacteria and total coliforms than in samples from soil grown
762 lettuce. A higher sanitary quality can be provided by the soil-less culture system as an
763 alternative to traditional soil cultivation, because it avoids soil contaminants and achieves
764 lower coliform counts.

765

766 **D. Raw material harvest and handling**

767 Good preharvest and harvest practices are necessary to reduce commodity damage. It has
768 been extensively reported that the quality of a raw material and the storage conditions before
769 processing are very important to keep the quality of a vegetable (Wiley, 1994). The harvest,
770 handling, shipping and storage (HHSS) before processing are stages where low temperature
771 conditions are vital to preserve the quality of the raw material. The cold chain should, in fact,
772 begin as early as possible and be maintained from the field to the processing plant. Low
773 temperatures, in a range from 0 to 10°C, depending on the species and cultivar, keep the

774 turgor in vegetables unaltered and slow microbial contamination. However, production
775 operations are not yet broadly organized or optimized to handle the harvest phase with a
776 minimization lag time before implementing the cold chain.

777 Currently, fresh-cut vegetable shelf life is ca 6-7 days in Italy and in many EU countries.
778 The shelf life of fresh-cut produce in the United States exceeds two weeks, depending on the
779 species. The long shelf life is achieved, apart from the limited range of species and typologies
780 produced, due to prompt cooling and the maintenance of the cold chain (see also Chapter 17),
781 with temperatures generally below 4°C, after harvest during processing, shipping and
782 distribution, while these temperatures are rarely maintained in many European countries.

783 The stage of maturity of fruit and vegetables destined for fresh-cut processing is a critical
784 factor that helps to determine the potential quality and shelf life of the product. The eating
785 quality and shelf life of fresh-cut fruit products are influenced by the stage of ripeness at
786 cutting (Gorny et al., 2000). Leafy vegetables are best tasting when harvested immature,
787 while fruit vegetables and fruits are best tasting when harvested fully ripe (Kader, 2008).
788 Maturity and ripeness stage at harvest are critical issues for fruits. Harvesting fruits before
789 they reach optimal maturity is a common commercial practice because of the higher prices
790 obtained when the supply is low at the beginning of the harvest season. Early harvesting of
791 climateric fruits assures fruits are more resistant to mechanical stresses and store longer.
792 Conversely, harvesting at optimal maturity based on flavor would be more appropriate to
793 allow increase the synthesis of non-volatile and volatile compounds influencing fruit flavor or
794 good eating quality cannot be achieved (Kader, 2008). Currently, customer dissatisfaction
795 with produce flavor contributes to the low consumption of fruits and vegetables (Mitcham,
796 2010). It is necessary to encourage the growers to harvest fruits at partially ripe to fully ripe
797 stage by developing handling techniques to protect fruit from physical damage (Kader, 2008).

798 Currently, the shelf life of fresh-cut fruits is ca 5 days because it is quite difficult for
799 fresh-cut industry to maintain a proper ripening stage on a commercial scale. Fruit is
800 generally harvested at 'partially ripe' stage, which is an imprecise definition (Bai et al., 2009)
801 and varies within the same species according to the species and cultivar. The maturity stage
802 of fruit for fresh-cut industry is much debated: harvesting 'partially ripe' fruit means an easier
803 management of fresh-cut processing and quality control during distribution compared to
804 harvesting 'riper' fruit, which is more flavorful and softer, but more difficult to handle for
805 growers, processors, and retailers. For these reasons, fresh-cut apple offer has rapidly
806 increased in recent years because apples are easier to manage compared to other fruit, such as
807 peach, pear, or tropical fruit. Bai et al. (2009) suggested to harvest pear fruit one month later

808 than the commercial practice for improving the quality of flat flavor, firm and rough texture,
809 and to limit the high potential for browning. Results from experiments showed that by
810 delaying harvesting, the fruit had larger size, lower flesh firmness, lower titratable acidity,
811 lower phenolic content and higher volatiles. These parameters enhance the consumer
812 acceptance and, in fact, a panel preferred the delayed-harvest cut fruit compared to those
813 from commercial harvest, especially in terms of visual quality, flavor, texture and overall
814 quality.

815 In the case of leafy vegetables, there is a wide range of possibilities for harvesting raw
816 material depending on the final destination of the produce, the requested quality attributes
817 and their resistance to the postharvest handling and processing. The maturity indicators of
818 intact leafy vegetables are size, head length, head width, firmness and compactness; while for
819 non-heading lettuces, the number of leaves can be used as a harvest index (Gil et al., 2012,
820 and citations therein). Size is the maturity indicator for Belgian endive, cabbage, endive,
821 iceberg lettuce, radicchio, spinach and Swiss chard. Furthermore, the head compactness is an
822 important maturity indicator for cabbage and iceberg lettuce. In general, different maturity
823 indicators can be used for harvesting lettuce for the fresh-cut industry. Head weight is the
824 main parameter for quality evaluation of head vegetables, while for baby and mature leaves,
825 leaf and petiole length are good maturity parameters to assure the quality of the fresh-cut
826 product. For culinary herbs the harvest maturity can have relevance on the aromatic profile.
827 Early harvesting, fresh-cut processing and shelf life conditions can differently influence each
828 compound improving or worsening the essential oil (EO) quality according to the final use by
829 the industry (Fontana et al., 2010). The aromatic profile of dill (*Anethum graveolens* L.)
830 changed when dill leaves were harvested as young leaves (38 days after sowing), at pre-
831 blossoming and blossoming stage (50-70 days after sowing) or at full fruit maturity (130 days
832 after sowing) (Tibaldi et al., 2010a).

833 The growth stage at harvest can influence the shelf life of the baby leaves harvested at an
834 early growth stage due to market demand. The rate of deterioration has often been related to
835 the metabolic processes and respiration rate, which are usually higher in younger leaves. The
836 high respiration rate explains why it is hard to reach a commercial shelf life longer than seven
837 days. Young and tender baby leaf vegetables of new varieties and species are continuously
838 been developed for fresh-cut industry, but younger plants tend to accumulate more nitrate
839 (Fontana and Nicola, 2008). It is then crucial to establish the harvest maturity indicators to
840 describe the right time for harvesting raw material with high nutritional value and optimal
841 postharvest performance.

842 Harvesting directly affects the appearance and shelf life of the final product. The safety
843 and the quality of fresh-cut produce depend not only on the cultural practices and postharvest
844 conditioning, but also on the harvesting and handling procedures. Factors that can affect the
845 microbial condition in the raw material include the climatic conditions which the plants are
846 produced in, and the temperature and the air conditions at which the produce is stored after
847 harvest. Harvesting in the heat of the day causes wilting, shriveling, softness and a high
848 respiration rate and shortens shelf life considerably (Perkins-Veazie, 1999). Zhan et al.
849 (2009) found that leaving garden cress (*Lepidium sativum* L.) harvested leaves at 28°C for 1
850 h, simulating summer air temperatures, negatively influenced the pigments content, which
851 decreased over time, and caused ca 13% loss in ascorbic acid before packaging. Polyphenol
852 oxidase (PPO) and peroxidase (POD) activities were higher in garden cress leaves kept for 1
853 hr at 28°C than leaves promptly processed. The high air temperature affects the leaf turgidity
854 and increases the susceptibility of leafy vegetables to the physical damage during harvest
855 handling practices. An efficient and rapid harvest handling and storage implementation after
856 the cultivation phase are fundamental factors that favor the quality of the raw material, thus
857 improving the processing and reducing the quality deterioration during shelf-life.

858 Rough handling creates areas that darken, soften and make the product vulnerable to
859 pathogen attacks. Microbes can also readily attach to cut leafy vegetable surfaces (Takeuchi
860 and Frank, 2001) reducing the safety and nutritional quality (see also Chapter 12). At harvest,
861 appropriate measures should be taken to reduce or eliminate the potential risk of pathogen
862 contamination through soil contact at the cut surface. The reduction or elimination of
863 pathogens can be achieved by cleaning the cutters and containers, by increasing the cutting
864 quality, e.g., cutter sharpening, and by guaranteeing the hygiene of the field workers.

865 The harvesting method, whether by hand or mechanical, and the handling can determine
866 the variation in maturity and physical injury and, consequently, can influence the nutritional
867 composition of vegetables. The use of good preharvest, harvest and handling practices is
868 necessary to reduce commodity damage. Harvesting early in the morning, before plants
869 become warm and respiration rate increases, lowers the needed cooling and often lengthens
870 the preprocessing storage. Placing the harvested produce quickly under shade, in opaque or
871 dark boxes, or using white tarpaulins to reflect heat from the filled bins can cut the load
872 temperature by 30% (Perkins-Veazie, 1999). The often disregarded stages of the supply
873 chain, the harvesting and handling, should be optimized and the cool chain implemented as
874 early as possible to maintain product quality (Thompson et al., 2001) in order to guarantee

875 food safety and to reduce the amount of cooling needed afterwards (Figure 4, see also
876 Chapter 17).

877 Fresh fruit and vegetables are living tissues, and subject to continual changes after
878 harvest. Fresh produce consumes photosynthates that were stored in the product before the
879 harvest. The consumption rate depends on the respiratory activity of a particular commodity
880 and its temperature. Delays between harvesting and cooling or processing can result in direct
881 losses due to water loss and microbial contamination and indirect losses, such as flavor and
882 nutritional quality loss (Thompson et al., 2001; Zhan et al., 2009) (See also Chapter 5). The
883 rate of product deterioration is proportional to the rate of respiration, which increases
884 exponentially with the temperature (Cantwell, 2007). Shriveling and the loss of fresh and
885 glossy appearance are two of the most noticeable effects of cooling delays, particularly for
886 commodities that lose water quickly and show visible symptoms at low levels of water loss,
887 like most leafy vegetables. A correlation has been found between the respiration rate and
888 shelf life (Ninfali and Bacchiocca, 2004). Vegetables characterized by low respiratory rates,
889 such as carrots, have a long shelf life. Preprocessing storage conditions are fundamental to
890 preserve raw material quality; the optimal vegetable storage temperature should be observed
891 to avoid chilling injuries, such as browning or pitting, and vegetable thermal shock due to the
892 high temperature gap between the field and the storage room.

893

894 **III. PROCESSING MANAGEMENT FOR THE FRESH-CUT CHAIN**

895 Fresh-cut processing accelerates the color, texture, firmness, flavor and nutritional value
896 deterioration of a product and compromises its shelf life. Moreover, wounded surfaces
897 provide favorable conditions for microbial growth. Therefore, adequate control strategies
898 during the storage of fresh-cut produce should minimize nutritional and sensorial loss and
899 microbial growth. Proper handling, the use of effective sanitizers, adequate temperature
900 storage, and packaging are the main ways of reducing rapid degradation of the fresh-cut
901 produce.

902

903 **A. The postharvest quality of fresh-cut produce**

904 It was previously stated that cultivars, environmental conditions, irrigation practices,
905 fertilizers, and pest control programs affect produce quality. Practices such as washing,
906 sorting (see also Chapter 13), sizing, cutting, blending, and packaging do not change the
907 inherent quality, but add value for the consumer, who is looking for convenience, yet healthy
908 and tasty food (Figure 5a,b). Like any perishable product, fresh-cut fruit and vegetables are

909 characterized by an irreversible deterioration of quality. Therefore, the sensory quality of
910 these types of products cannot improve during further storage; it can only be retained or
911 deterioration can be retarded by applying optimal processing and packaging techniques, a
912 proper storage temperature, and eventually application of enzymatic browning inhibitors
913 (Watada and Qi, 1999) and ethylene or oxygen absorbers (Markarian, 2004). Because
914 consumer preferences differ between consumer segments, part of the postharvest activity is
915 also related to direct the appropriate product to the responsive consumer segment.

916 Fresh products are susceptible to deterioration between harvest and consumption and this
917 may reach very high values after harvest, depending on the species, harvesting and handling
918 methods, processing, length and temperature of storage and distribution, market conditions,
919 etc. A longer shelf life, therefore, depends on a combination of correct cooling storage
920 throughout the entire chain, modified atmosphere packaging conditions and good
921 manufacturing and handling practices (Kader, 2002a). The main objectives of postharvest
922 technology concern quality and safety assurance, and loss reduction in the postharvest chain.

923

924 **B. Cutting**

925 Producing fresh-cut fruit and vegetables involves substantial mechanical injury due to
926 peeling, slicing, dicing, shredding or chopping (Portela and Cantwell, 2001) (Figure
927 6,a,b,c,d). Thus, the physiology of minimally processed fruit and vegetables is essentially the
928 physiology of wounded tissues, which are subjected to an increase in respiration rate and
929 ethylene production, membrane degradation leading to cellular disruption and de-
930 compartmentalization of enzymes and substrates, and accumulation of secondary metabolites.
931 All these biochemical reactions are responsible for changes in quality characteristics, such as
932 texture, color, flavor, and nutritional value (Portela and Cantwell, 2001, and citations
933 therein). Many factors affect the intensity of the wound's response in fresh-cut tissues. These
934 factors include species and cultivar, stage of physiological maturity, temperature, O₂ and CO₂
935 concentrations, water vapor pressure, various inhibitors, and severity of wounding (Cantwell,
936 1992; Brecht, 1995).

937 The severity of wounding depends on the type of cutting, cutting area size and cutting
938 shape. The response of the tissue to processing wounds usually increases as the severity of
939 the injury increases. Peeling and cutting increase the respiration rate from one-fold to seven-
940 fold, compared with the same fresh whole produce (Rivera-Lopez et al., 2005). Del Aguila et
941 al. (2006) measured the differences of respiration rate, ethylene production, and soluble
942 solids between whole and shredded radish (*Raphanus sativus* L. cv. Crimson Gigante) and

943 between shredded and sliced radish. During cold storage, the respiration rate of whole radish
944 remained stable, while oscillations in fresh-cut radish were observed, with a generally higher
945 respiration in shredded radish. Nine hours after processing, ethylene production was higher in
946 the shredded and sliced radish than in the whole radish, and the shredded radish lost more
947 soluble solids than the sliced or whole radish. The decrease in soluble solids was partially
948 attributed to the consumption of carbohydrates during respiration related to the repair of
949 injury, and the higher injured area of shredded radish may have caused an amplification of
950 the response to injury.

951 **Tibaldi et al. (2010b)** comparing two cutting shapes (slice vs. dice) on fresh-cut
952 processing operations of pumpkin (*Cucurbita moschata* Duchesne), packaging the fresh-cut
953 products in 3 films with different permeance to O₂ and storing the packaged bags either at 4°
954 or 8°C, found that fresh-cut pumpkin can be stored for 9 days at 4°C if it is sliced and
955 packaged with a film permeance above 1300 cm³ m⁻² d⁻¹ bar⁻¹ because of its lower respiration
956 rate compared to dice-shaped pumpkin. **Nicola et al. (2014a)** repeated the same experiment
957 on *Cucurbita maxima* Duchesne and confirmed the previous results. The larger cutting area
958 of pumpkin dices than that of pumpkin slices accelerated the quality decay promoting
959 anaerobic process at the end of the shelf-life. **Deza-Durand et al. (2011)** investigated the
960 effect of cutting direction on aroma compounds and respiration rates in fresh-cut iceberg
961 lettuce. During fresh-cut processing operations, lettuce was cut either longitudinally or
962 transversally to the mid-rib and then stored either at 6°C or 10°C for 4 days after having
963 placed the fresh-cut lettuce in jars sealed with punctured films. The results showed that
964 cutting the lettuce transversally to the mid-rib caused more severe damage to the tissue than
965 cutting longitudinally, based on the increase in the levels of volatiles produced through the
966 lipoxygenase (LOX) pathway responsible of off-odors development. **Deza-Durand et al.**
967 **(2011)** hypothesized that, because LOX is a stress-related enzyme, the higher damage in
968 lettuce cut in the transverse direction might indicate a greater disruption of membranes.
969 Higher respiration rate of lettuce was observed for transverse cutting at the beginning of the
970 storage period in comparison with longitudinal cutting, but decreased sharply after 1 day of
971 storage. The respiration rate was not as good an indicator of stress as cutting direction
972 because it was mainly affected by storage temperature.

973 Cutting and shredding should be performed with the sharpest possible knives or blades
974 made from stainless steel (**Allende et al., 2006**). **Saltveit (1997)** considered that very sharp
975 cutting tools could limit the number of injured cells. **Barry-Ryan and O'Beirne (1998)**
976 observed that carrot slices prepared using a sharp blade had a reduced microbial load and off-

977 odor development, and were characterized by a higher microscopic cellular integrity and a
978 longer shelf life than slices prepared using a blunt blade. Portela and Cantwell (2001)
979 evaluated the consequences of blade sharpness and thereby, the degree of wounding on the
980 appearance and physiology of fresh-cut cantaloupe. Pieces prepared using a sharp borer
981 maintained marketable visual quality for at least six days, while those prepared using a blunt
982 borer were unacceptable at six days, due to surface translucency and color changes. Borer
983 sharpness did not affect the changes in decay, firmness, sugar content, or aroma, while blunt-
984 cut pieces had increased ethanol concentrations, off-odor, and electrolyte leakage compared
985 to sharp-cut pieces.

986 Cutting technique quality can influence microbial growth and the bacterial cross-
987 contamination. Gleeson and O'Beirne (2005) evaluated the effects of different slicing
988 methods on the subsequent growth and survival of *E. coli*, *L. innocua*, and background
989 microflora during storage at 8°C on modified atmosphere packaged vegetables (sliced carrot,
990 and sliced iceberg and butterhead lettuce). In general, the slicing method had no significant
991 effect on the initial inoculation levels. *L. innocua* grew better and *E. coli* survived better on
992 vegetables sliced with blades that caused the most damage to cut surfaces. Slicing manually
993 with a blunt knife or with machine blades gave consistently higher *E. coli* and *L. innocua*
994 counts during storage than slicing manually with a razor blade. The effects of hand tearing
995 were similar to slicing with a razor blade. The slicing method also affected the growth of the
996 total background microflora; razor sliced vegetables tended to have lower counts than other
997 treatments. Product respiration was also affected by the slicing method; the use of a razor
998 blade resulted in lower respiration rates.

999 Different new solutions have been tested to prevent the acceleration of decay due to
1000 peeling, cutting or slicing, e.g. the “immersion therapy”, which consists of cutting a fruit
1001 while it is submerged in water. The cutting of a submerged fruit controls turgor pressure, due
1002 to the formation of a water barrier that prevents movement of fruit fluids, while the product is
1003 being cut (Allende et al., 2006). Additionally, the watery environment helps to flush
1004 potentially damaging enzymes away from plant tissues. Another technique is the cutting
1005 operation performed under ultraviolet-C (UV-C) radiation. Lamikanra et al. (2005) observed
1006 that post-cut application of UV improved shelf life of cut cantaloupe, while cutting fruit
1007 under UV-C radiation further improved product quality. More specifically, the study found
1008 that UV-C radiation during processing reduced rancidity and improved firmness retention in
1009 the stored fruit. The UV-C radiation also reduced spoilage microorganisms such as
1010 mesophilic and lactic acid bacteria.

1011 Finally, the “water-jet cutting” method which is successfully used for, e.g., meat, poultry,
1012 and vegetables (McGlynn et al., 2003), can also be used in the fresh-cut industry. This is a
1013 “non-contact” cutting method (Allende et al., 2006) which slices fresh fruit and vegetables
1014 utilizing a high pressure fluid jet that minimizes bruising in the cut pieces and tissue damage
1015 in the vicinity of the cut surface (<http://www.freepatentsonline.com/4751094.html>). This
1016 method reduces the excessive tissue damage caused by compression and tearing the piece
1017 along the cut surfaces. It has been found that in fruit and vegetables sliced with a high
1018 pressure fluid jet, the cell tissue damage is minimized, so that when the fruit or vegetable is
1019 subsequently eaten, it provides essentially the same sensory qualities, odor, texture, and taste
1020 as the freshly harvested fruit or vegetable. This type of slicing, together with proper storage
1021 conditions, allows produce shelf life to be prolonged in comparison to other conventional
1022 cutting methods, such as regular kitchen paring knives, commercial rotary blade cutters, razor
1023 sharp, or thin blade knives. The vegetables particularly adapted to being cut by this method
1024 are fresh root vegetables, leafy vegetables and fruit and vegetables with firm tissue. The
1025 efficiency of this cutting method depends on the orifice size, water pressure, and standoff
1026 distance, which must be tuned according to the inherent characteristics of the species and
1027 cultivar (Bansal and Walker, 1999). McGlynn et al. (2003) assessed the effect of water-jet
1028 cutting on the shelf life of cut watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus* cv. Sangria). A comparison of
1029 pieces cut with a water jet with those cut with a knife showed that the former were firmer
1030 than the latter after seven and ten days of storage, and this difference was presumed to be due
1031 to weight loss. The experiment showed that water-jet-cut watermelon pieces tended to lose
1032 less moisture during storage than knife-cut pieces. The decrease in weight loss due to the loss
1033 of liquid during storage could have a significant impact on the consumer perception of
1034 freshness and texture and could influence microbial control strategies.

1035

1036 **C. Washing, sanitation systems and processing aids**

1037 During processing, pre- and post-cutting washing operations of produce are crucial to
1038 make the product ready-to-eat. The produce has to be clean, free of soil residue, insects,
1039 metals and weeds, and safe. The raw material should be carefully cleaned before processing
1040 because fresh-cut produce is prepared from material grown mostly in contact with soil and
1041 without any strong antimicrobial treatments, such as pasteurization or sterilization. Even
1042 healthy looking products from the field can harbor large populations of pathogens,
1043 particularly during warm weather.

1044 Washing raw material before cutting (fruit and vegetables) and during fresh-cut
1045 processing (leafy vegetables) is the most effective way of minimizing the risk of the presence
1046 of pathogens and of any residue left on the produce from harvest and handling conditions
1047 (Figure 7a,b,c). When fruit and vegetables are exposed to water containing pathogens, they
1048 often become infected and subsequently decay during shipping and handling. Pathogens
1049 present on freshly-harvested products accumulate in recirculated water handling systems and
1050 greatly reduce sanitation efficiency. Fresh-cut produce is highly susceptible to microbial
1051 contamination, because microbial cross-contamination can occur through shredders and
1052 slicers and the inner tissues can be exposed to microbial attachment and growth after cutting.
1053 Many postharvest decay problems result from the ineffective sanitizing of dump tanks,
1054 flumes and hydro-coolers. Moreover, the operations should be conducted at a low
1055 temperature to reduce microbial growth. A delay between pre-washing and subsequent
1056 operations without product refrigeration can allow microbial growth and a subsequent
1057 shortening of the shelf life, as reported by Sinigaglia et al. (1999) concerning cut lettuce salad
1058 and shredded carrots.

1059 The effectiveness of washing to remove soil impurities and microbial contaminations is
1060 related to numerous factors, such as raw material spoilage, the duration of the washing
1061 treatment, the washing water temperature, the method of washing (dipping, rinsing, or
1062 dipping/blowing), the type and concentration of the sanitizer, the type of the sanitation
1063 method (chemical or physical treatment) and the type of fresh-cut fruit or vegetable. At the
1064 moment, the disinfection agents used and tested for water and produce sanitation are chlorine,
1065 ozone, organic acids, hydrogen peroxide, alcohols, phosphoric acids, while the physical
1066 methods used and tested are ultraviolet (UV) light radiation, ultrasound, high pressure (HP),
1067 high-intensity electric field pulses (HEP), radio frequency (RF), ionizing radiation, and hot
1068 water treatments, including the combinations of some of them for synergistic effects (Weyer
1069 et al., 1993; Zhuang and Beuchat, 1996; Beuchat et al., 1998; Sapers and Simmons, 1998;
1070 Day, 2001; Seymour et al., 2002; Allende et al., 2006, and citations therein; Artés et al.,
1071 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Gil et al., 2009; Gopal et al., 2010; Nou and Luo, 2010; Beirão-Da-
1072 Costa et al., 2012; Birmpa et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013; Ramos-Villaruel et al., 2014;
1073 Wulfkuehler et al., 2013).

1074 In the last decade, essential oils (EOs) have also been studied as natural disinfectants or
1075 antimicrobial agents (Roller and Seedhar, 2002, and citations therein; Scollard et al., 2013).
1076 In a review written by Ayala-Zavala et al. (2009) on using the antimicrobial and aromatic
1077 attributes of essential oils to enhance safety and aroma appealing of fresh-cut fruits and

1078 vegetables, the antimicrobial effect of thymol, eugenol, menthol and others compounds
1079 against pathogens and suggested possible combinations of fresh-cut fruit and vegetables with
1080 essential oils are extensively reported. However, the high risk of transference of off-odors
1081 from the essential oils to the commodities raises the needs for further sensorial investigations;
1082 the positive or negative sensorial impact of essential oil on fresh-cut produce should be
1083 additionally considered. Scollard et al. (2013) examined the anti-listerial effectiveness of
1084 selected EOs and shredded herbs (thyme, oregano, and rosemary) on a range of modified
1085 atmosphere packaged fresh-cut vegetables (lettuce, carrot discs, cabbage and dry coleslaw
1086 mix). The authors found that the anti-listerial effects were in the order: thyme EO > oregano
1087 EO > rosemary herb. The antimicrobial effects of EOs varied depending on which EO was
1088 used and the type of fresh-cut vegetable involved. Both anti-listerial and general anti-
1089 bacterial effects were observed for thyme and oregano EOs. Thyme EO was found to be the
1090 most effective treatment against *Listeria*. Oregano EO was also found to have strong anti-
1091 listerial effects, but not as strong as those of thyme EO. Rosemary EO showed no anti-
1092 listerial effects except in the presence of shredded cabbage, and these effects were
1093 considerably smaller than those of the other EOs. By contrast, strong anti-listerial effects
1094 were evident from rosemary herb, but only after stomaching, indicating that the herb is only
1095 effective when it is completely macerated with the vegetable sample in the stomacher.
1096 Furthermore, the efficacy of the treatments varied according to the vegetable tested.

1097 Alternative methods to extract the active compounds became recently available. They
1098 have the advantages of being less time and energy consuming than hydro-distillation, the
1099 traditional procedure used for the industrial extraction of EOs. do not require re-distillation to
1100 obtain the pure product and avoid the problems of compound thermal degradation (Orio et
1101 al., 2012). These techniques include supercritical fluid extraction, ultrasound-assisted
1102 extraction and microwave assisted extraction. Comparison between the extraction methods
1103 have indicated a comparable profile of volatile secondary metabolites in the EOs obtained
1104 from mint species (Orio et al., 2012) and other *Lamiaceae* species (Binello et al., 2013).
1105 Several tests are undergoing testing the efficacy of the EO extracts with these different
1106 methods for studying the anti-microbial effects directly on microbial culture obtained from
1107 organically grown lettuce (Nicola et al., data not published).

1108 Ozone reduces the amount of wastewater, lowers the refrigeration costs of chilled water
1109 because of the less frequent flume water changing, and it can be combined with chlorine,
1110 whose use can be reduced by 25% leaving less residual odor on the product (Strickland et al.,
1111 2010). The main systems for ozone application include the gaseous phase storage or ozonated

1112 dips. Several studies demonstrated that gaseous ozone is generally more effective than in
1113 aqueous solutions (Ramos et al., 2013). The use of ozonated water has been suggested as an
1114 interesting alternative to chlorine due to its efficacy at low concentrations (0.2-5 ppm) and
1115 short contact times (from 15 sec to few minutes). However, the efficacy of ozonated water
1116 depends on ozone solubility, which increases as the water temperature decreases and is
1117 influenced by organic content and pH of the water (Artés et al., 2009; Ölmez and
1118 Kretzschmar, 2009).

1119 Organic acid (e.g., lactic, citric, acetic or tartaric acid) dippings have a much more
1120 residual antimicrobial effect than ozone and chlorine treatments on the microflora of lettuce
1121 during storage (Akbas and Ölmez, 2007). The antimicrobial action of organic acids depends
1122 on several factors, such as a reduction in pH, the ratio of the un-dissociated fraction of the
1123 acid, chain length, cell physiology and metabolism. Organic acid with only one carboxylic
1124 group, such as lactic acid, has been found to be less active than citric acid which has more
1125 carboxylic groups. A calcium lactate treatment has been reported to have potent antibacterial
1126 properties (Saftner et al., 2003). Martín-Diana et al. (2005) compared calcium lactate with
1127 chlorine as a washing treatment for fresh-cut lettuce and carrots. Calcium lactate was not
1128 significantly different from chlorine treatment in terms of maintaining color and texture
1129 during the entire storage period. Furthermore, carotenoid levels were higher in calcium
1130 lactate-treated carrots than chlorine-treated samples after ten days of storage at 4°C.
1131 Ultimately, the mesophilic, psychrotropic and lactic acid bacteria counts were not
1132 significantly different for the calcium lactate and chlorine treatments for either vegetable.
1133 Thus, calcium lactate appears to be a suitable washing treatment, which has no post-treatment
1134 bleaching effect on fresh-cut lettuce and does not cause the appearance of whiteness on the
1135 surface of sliced carrots.

1136 At present, chlorination is used primarily in processing plants, although there have been
1137 many attempts to find alternative washing treatments to chlorine because of the formation of
1138 carcinogenic chlorinated compounds (chloroamines and trihalomethanes) in water.
1139 Furthermore, chlorine compounds can burn the skin and release dangerous chlorine gas into
1140 the work environment (Martín-Diana et al., 2005; Page et al., 1976; Parish et al., 2003;
1141 Suslow, 2006; Wei et al., 1995). However, a sure and conclusive disinfection system that is
1142 able to remove dirt, weeds, pesticide residues and microorganisms, while, at the same time,
1143 not negatively affecting the intrinsic and extrinsic quality of the product has yet to be found.

1144 When planning the concentration of chlorine to be used one should consider its reaction to
1145 organic matter. When the chlorinated solution comes in contact with a cut produce, the

1146 sanitizer will react with the organic matter (such as vegetable tissue, cellular juices, soil
1147 particles, microbes) and the available (free) chlorine will be depleted. The difference between
1148 total chlorine and available chlorine depends on the amount of organic matter and inorganic
1149 compounds that react with the free chlorine (resulting in combined chlorine) during washing
1150 (Pirovani et al., 2004). The smaller the amount of organic cellular compounds released by
1151 cutting the produce, the smaller the difference between the total and available chlorine.
1152 Consequently, the proper concentration of chlorine to be used during sanitation should also
1153 be considered according to the type of produce, cut size and type (e.g., slice, shred, whole
1154 leaf).

1155 The chlorine concentrations and washing times vary to a great extent from processor to
1156 processor, and these differences are mainly related to the different operational temperatures
1157 and the resulting bleaching effects that are tolerated by the consumers in any given market.
1158 Chlorine lethal effect increases with temperature and its effect on microbial removal occurs
1159 when the water is warmer than the produce (Hernandez-Brenes, 2002; Beuchat, 2007).
1160 According to Beuchat (2007), the lethal effect of chlorine occurs within the first few seconds
1161 of treatment, and the population of microorganisms decreases as the concentration of chlorine
1162 increases to about $300\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, above which its effectiveness is not proportional to the
1163 increased concentration. Treatments with $50\text{-}200\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ chlorine and a washing time of 1-2
1164 min can reduce the number of microorganisms by 1-2 log cfu g^{-1} in some instances, but can at
1165 the same time be completely ineffective in others (Hernandez-Brenes, 2002; Roller and
1166 Seedhar, 2002). Most fresh-cut processors in the Mediterranean use a concentration of
1167 chlorine of between 30 and $50\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ to avoid bleaching and fading effects on the products,
1168 with operational water temperatures close to 12°C . Several studies have demonstrated that
1169 chlorine rinses can decrease the bacterial load from <1 log cfu g^{-1} to 3.15 log cfu g^{-1} , and its
1170 efficacy depends on inoculation method, chlorine concentration, contact time, and
1171 microorganism type (Ramos et al., 2013).

1172 Raw material is generally washed in cold water, because low temperatures slow down
1173 plant respiration, transpiration, warming and microbial activity. Water temperatures range
1174 between 4°C and 12°C , although washing hot raw material (e.g., summer in the
1175 Mediterranean) with colder water could cause the vegetable tissues to absorb any chemical
1176 contaminants present in water (Hernandez-Brenes, 2002, and citations therein). Maintaining
1177 the water temperature 5°C above the internal temperature of the produce can prevent this
1178 “suction” effect. One precaution could be an initial air-cooling step before washing to
1179 minimize the temperature gap between the produce and the water temperature.

1180 After washing, with or without a chemical sanitizer, a sanitation physical method or a
1181 dipping treatment could occur on whole or cut or peeled produce. Several studies have
1182 investigated the effect of dipping treatments on quality and safety of fresh-cut fruit and
1183 vegetables. Dipping operations are processing aids used for chemical and physical treatments
1184 and post-cutting application of additives. Heat treatments are becoming very popular in the
1185 fresh-cut industry, especially in preventing the detrimental effects of enzymatic browning
1186 responsible of color, flavor and texture change as well as of nutritional value decrease and in
1187 inhibiting microorganisms growth. Heat treatments can be applied in the form of hot water
1188 treatment, vapor heat treatment, hot air treatment, or hot water rinse brushing (Sivakumar and
1189 Fallik, 2013). The former treatment is currently the most common in fresh-cut industry.
1190 Several studies have investigated the application of heat treatments by dipping for quality
1191 retention and safety control to replace the use of chemical treatments in fresh-cut carrot
1192 (Alegria et al., 2012), melon (Aguayo et al., 2008), broccoli florets (Moreira et al., 2011),
1193 potato (Tsouvaltzis et al., 2011), mango (Djioua et al., 2010), peach (Steiner et al., 2006;
1194 Koukounaras et al., 2008), and kiwifruit (Beirão-da-Costa et al., 2008). In general,
1195 temperatures used for hot water dips on different fresh-cut products can range from 40° to
1196 60°C, while dipping duration ranges from few seconds to many minutes (up to 70 minutes).
1197 The hot water treatment conditions depend on the type of produce (leaf, fruit, root, etc.),
1198 maturity stage, fruit size, cultivar, growing conditions, and on timing of application as pre- or
1199 post-cutting treatment. The selection of appropriate treatment conditions (temperature x
1200 duration) is a crucial factor in determining the overall quality of the horticultural product at
1201 the end of treatment and during shelf life.

1202 Dipping treatments could consist of using a solution containing anti-browning
1203 compounds, such as ascorbic acid or a calcium salt with an organic acid, antimicrobial agents
1204 or edible coatings to extend the post-cutting shelf-life of fruit and vegetables. Edible coating,
1205 a new strategy to prolong the shelf-life and improve food quality of fresh-cut fruits, have
1206 been applied to many fresh-cut products, such as papaya (Tapia et al., 2008), carrots (Vargas
1207 et al., 2009), pears (Oms-Oliu et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2011), banana (Bico
1208 et al., 2009) apple (Rojas-Graü et al., 2007; Freitas et al., 2013), melon (Poverenov et al.,
1209 2013), and mango (Robles-Sánchez et al., 2013). The coating supplies a selective barrier to
1210 moisture transfer, gas exchange or oxidation processes, which slows ripening, reduces weight
1211 loss, and helps to preserve fresh aroma and flavor. One of the most important advantages of
1212 using the edible coating is that several active ingredients can be incorporated into the polymer
1213 matrix and consumed with the food (Rojas-Graü et al., 2009a). Edible coatings are also used

1214 as carriers of active ingredients, such as anti-browning (ascorbic acid), antimicrobial (organic
1215 acids, fatty acids esters, polypeptides, plant essential oils), and texture enhancer (calcium
1216 chloride, calcium lactate, calcium gluconate) compounds, as well as flavors and
1217 nutraceuticals (vitamins, minerals, fatty acids), to improve quality, safety, and nutritional
1218 value of fresh-cut fruits. Among the edible coatings, alginate, chitosan, gellan, and pectin are
1219 the most common coating materials used for fresh-cut fruit industry.

1220 Chitosan (CH) is a natural, non-toxic, biodegradable polymer with antimicrobial activity
1221 and film-forming capacity, even though the functional properties of chitosan films can be
1222 enhanced by combining chitosan with other hydrocolloids, controlled atmosphere or chemical
1223 dip. [Xiao et al. \(2010\)](#) investigated the effects of pure oxygen pretreatment and chitosan
1224 coating containing 0.03% rosemary extracts on the quality of fresh-cut Huangguan pears. The
1225 authors found that the combination of pure oxygen pretreatment prior to slicing and chitosan
1226 coating plus rosemary extract may be a potential method to maintain the fresh-cut fruit
1227 quality and to reduce browning, softening and decay, which are the main problems in fresh-
1228 cut pears during storage. [Xiao et al. \(2011\)](#) evaluated the effects of sodium chlorite dip
1229 treatment and chitosan coatings on the quality of fresh-cut d'Anjou pears. The edible coatings
1230 were prepared from chitosan and its water-soluble derivative carboxymethyl chitosan. The
1231 authors found that the combination of sodium chlorite with carboxymethyl chitosan had
1232 beneficial effects in reducing the cut-surface discoloration and in inactivating *E. coli*
1233 O157:H7. At the moment, the dipping operation to provide anti-browning and antimicrobial
1234 agents, texture enhancer and edible coatings is used only for fruits. After dipping, the cut
1235 fruits are drained and dried by air, then packaged.

1236

1237 **D. Drying systems**

1238 An important factor for the stability of fresh-cut product is moisture control. After washing,
1239 the excess water should be removed from the fresh-cut product before packaging to prevent
1240 rapid microbial development and enzymatic processes that lead to product quality
1241 deterioration. Various methods exist to remove washing water, including the centrifugation,
1242 the passing the produce over vibrating screens with air blasts or blotting. Water remaining on
1243 the product is a critical issue.

1244 The duration and speed of centrifugation need to be adjusted for each product ([Figure 8](#)).
1245 Minimal centrifugation can leave residual water on the produce surface, thus, favoring
1246 microbial growth, while excessive centrifugation can result in cellular damage and cause
1247 cellular leakage. Fresh-cut products are often left with too much moisture, which causes their

1248 rapid deterioration. Pirovani et al. (2003) evaluated the effect of speed (from 0rpm to
1249 1080rpm) and operation duration (from 1 min to 9 min) of spin drying on the excess water
1250 remaining on washed, fresh-cut spinach as well as the microbial growth and sensory
1251 deterioration during storage of fresh-cut packaged spinach. The combination of the
1252 centrifugation speed and operation duration affected the water removal. According to their
1253 results, it is necessary to reach higher centrifugal speeds than 600-700rpm and a duration
1254 longer than four min to obtain an optimal drying level of spinach (i.e., 0.1-0.3% of water
1255 excess).

1256 Luo and Tao (2003) used imaging technology to determine the tissue damage of fresh-cut
1257 iceberg lettuce and baby spinach during a centrifuge drying process. Large differences in
1258 damage were found for fresh-cut iceberg lettuce between the two centrifuge-drying speeds of
1259 150rpm and 750rpm. Furthermore, a significant difference was found at 750rpm depending
1260 on the location of the samples in the centrifuge drying basket; the tissues of samples located
1261 near the side of the drying basket were more damaged than those located at the top, in the
1262 center, or at the bottom. For baby spinach, the damage due to the centrifugal force was
1263 similar to the results for iceberg lettuce, the samples at the bottom of the basket in addition to
1264 those near the side of the basket suffered from severe tissue damage. The damage to the
1265 spinach tissues was possibly influenced by both the centrifuge speed and the weight of the
1266 product in the drying basket.

1267 Drying tunnels with continuous air flows are also used, especially for more delicate
1268 vegetables (Donati, 2003). The critical points when using air drying tunnels are the optimal
1269 adjustment of the air temperature to avoid possible raw material fading, the thermal shock
1270 between air temperature flow and raw material temperature, and the residual water on the raw
1271 material, all of which are factors that could reduce shelf life quality. Some companies have
1272 recently introduced cool-drying tunnels, which are very efficient but require an additional
1273 cost.

1274

1275 **E. Packaging**

1276 Packaging is not only the final operation of fresh-cut processing that allows the products to
1277 be distributed and safely reach the consumers, but also the tool which, together with the cold
1278 chain maintenance, allows the quality of fresh-cut product to be preserved and prolongs its
1279 shelf life (Figure 9). The most studied packaging method is modified atmosphere packaging
1280 (MAP). Low O₂ concentrations (1-5%) reduce the respiration rate, chlorophyll degradation
1281 and ethylene biosynthesis, while high CO₂ concentrations (5-10%) reduce the respiration rate

1282 and slow plant metabolism. The aim of packaging is to create an atmosphere that slows
1283 produce respiration, so that the minimal necessary O₂ concentration or maximum tolerated
1284 CO₂ concentration of the packaged produce is not exceeded, and both fermentation and other
1285 metabolic disorders are avoided (Jacxsens, 2002). However, Rojas-Graü et al. (2009b)
1286 reported that the use of elevated O₂ atmospheres (≥ 70 kPa O₂) has been recently proposed as
1287 an alternative to low O₂ atmospheres to inhibit the growth of naturally occurring
1288 microorganisms, prevent undesired anoxic respiration processes and preserve the fresh-like
1289 quality of fresh-cut produce. According to several authors, high O₂ concentration can
1290 generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) that damage microbial cells and, thus, reduce
1291 microbial growth in packages. However, there is still limited information about the effects of
1292 high O₂ concentrations on the antioxidant content of fresh-cut produce.

1293 A modified atmosphere (MA) is generated by respiration of fresh-cut produce (passive
1294 MAP) or attained by a gas flushing (active MAP) (Bolin and Huxsoll, 1991; King et al.,
1295 1991; Artés, 2000a; 2000b; Kader, 2002a). The passive MAP is applied to fresh-cut
1296 vegetables sealed within bags of semi-permeable films, harnessing the naturally occurring
1297 respiration of the living vegetable tissues, which will obviously modify the atmospheric
1298 conditions (Thomas and O'Beirne, 2000). One of the most important factors of this technique
1299 is the gas permeability of the selected film that must allow an adequate O₂ and CO₂ exchange
1300 between the product and the atmosphere in order to establish the desired gas composition
1301 inside the bag. Due to perishability of freshly processed produce, the MA is often actively
1302 established either by flushing with the desired atmosphere or by creating a slight vacuum and
1303 replacing the package atmosphere with the desired gas mixture (Artés, 2000a; Kader, 2002a).

1304 The choice of packaging film depends on the permeability of the film to the O₂ and CO₂
1305 that must be adapted to the O₂ consumption rate and CO₂ production rate of the produce. If
1306 the permeability for O₂ and CO₂ is perfectly matched to the respiration rate of the produce, an
1307 ideal equilibrium modified atmosphere (EMA) can be established inside the package. The
1308 EMA depends on many factors: the product respiration rate, respiring surface area, storage
1309 temperature, packaging film permeability and equipment, RH, filling weight, pack volume,
1310 film surface area, degree and kind of illumination of the display in the retail store, as well as
1311 the initial microbial load (Artés and Martínez, 1996; Jacxsens et al., 1999; Day, 2000; Kader,
1312 2002a, 2002b; Nicola et al., 2010).

1313 It was previously mentioned that the biological agents that limit the shelf life of
1314 vegetables differ because of a number of factors. Thus, it is expected that the range of
1315 recommended atmosphere composition varies according to the different kinds of products as

1316 well as the success of the atmosphere modification (Saltveit, 1997). The subsequent
1317 maintenance of the optimum atmosphere during storage is, therefore, effective in delaying
1318 quality deterioration, as well as the deterioration during shipping. It has also been observed
1319 that when shipping fresh-cut products by air, the volume of the packages increases with
1320 decreasing external air pressure; the packages can open and, thus, become unmarketable
1321 (Emond, 2007).

1322 At the moment, traditional MAP atmospheres are not sufficient to ensure safety and high-
1323 quality products. Most of currently used MAP systems alone are not effective in preventing
1324 tissue browning, decay processes and slowing the microbial growth. The polymeric films
1325 used in MAP have some limitations because of their structure and permeation properties.
1326 They may cause the water loss, which results in softening, translucency or weight loss, or, on
1327 the contrary, can increase the formation of water condensates that promote microbial growth.
1328 For these reasons, in recent years, research has been focused on increasing the effectiveness
1329 of MAP by combining it with other sanitation technologies, such as ozonation and UV-light,
1330 or with dipping operations, such as the application of edible coating added of anti-browning
1331 and antimicrobial agents (Rojas-Graü et al., 2009b; Chauhan et al., 2011; Krasnova et al.,
1332 2013). In a review, Rojas- Graü and co-authors (2009a) extensively report the scientific
1333 works of the last years on the use of innovative atmospheres and edible coatings for
1334 maintaining freshness and safety of fresh-cut fruit and vegetables.

1335 Packaged fruit and vegetables are usually exposed to different surrounding temperatures
1336 during shipping from the processing plant to the consumer, storage, and display at retail;
1337 MAP is not a substitute for a proper cold chain management, but it can help extend the shelf
1338 life. A change in the environmental temperature creates a specific problem in EMA
1339 establishment because the respiration rate is influenced more by temperature changes than
1340 film permeability to O₂ and CO₂ (Jacxsens et al., 2002).

1341

1342 **F. Temperatures and cold chain**

1343 Temperature for fresh and fresh-cut produce should be maintained below 7-8°C at least to
1344 delay quality loss and to reduce the proliferation of spoilage microorganisms, while often
1345 times we experience temperature abuse. Therefore, an important step in cold chain
1346 management is recording the temperature of fresh produce throughout the entire supply chain
1347 (see also Chapters 1 and 6), helping also a good HACCP implementation and corrective
1348 measures to be taken. One of the research limitations is that research is usually conducted in
1349 simulated situations, that is, in laboratories or controlled cell rooms. There are, however,

1350 some results from investigations conducted in realistic circumstances encountered in the food
1351 industry. Rediers et al. (2009) used time-temperature data loggers to follow endive
1352 temperature from the on-farm refrigerators to the on-processor storage to the distributor
1353 company and to restaurants up to the act of consumption. All these steps were at air
1354 temperature setting of 4°C. In the production facility the processing water was at 4°C and the
1355 facility was at 8°C. The researchers found that in the on-farm refrigerators, where heads were
1356 stored in Euro Pool System (EPS) crates piled up on pallets, the endive was cooled more
1357 rapidly at the top of the pallet than in the middle or in the bottom (2.5 h extra to reach 8°C for
1358 the heads in the middle of the pallet and 3.5 h extra for those in the bottom of the pallet). In
1359 addition, regardless of the refrigeration temperature, endive required 3 h of cooling on a
1360 warm day (temperature range 14-35°C), while only 2 h on a moderate day (temperature range
1361 5-19°C). During transport the endive temperature was 16°C and, once stored in the
1362 processing facility, it took from 5:00 PM to 4:00 AM to reach the temperature of 4°C. At that
1363 point, endive was kept at 4°C during processing and during the transport to the distribution
1364 company, while during the final transport to the three restaurants temperature rose 2-4 °C and
1365 kept fluctuating in the restaurant refrigerators because proximity to ovens and of more often
1366 opening of the door than that of industry refrigerators. In conclusion, it seems that the real
1367 critical points when fresh-cut produce rises its temperature were during transport, from farm
1368 to the processor and from the distributor company to restaurant delivery, and during storage
1369 in restaurants. The levels of all indicator microorganisms and pathogens were confined within
1370 the limits prescribed by EU Reg. EC 2073/2005. Thus, the critical issue is not food safety,
1371 while major factors appear to be cooling costs, product quality and product waste due to
1372 temperature abuse.

1373 Fresh-cut packaged products need to be stored at low temperatures with 95% RH to slow
1374 the respiration rate, enzymatic processes and microbial activity. Storage conditioning
1375 generally refers to the storage or holding temperature, the time/temperature and the RH the
1376 fresh-cut products may encounter. However, other factors can play a role during storage, such
1377 as the effectiveness of the packaging material to preserve food safety and quality, the
1378 technical characteristics of the storage in the processing plant, and the cold chain
1379 implementation from the processing plant to the consumer. The storage temperature required
1380 by fresh-cut products needs to be adjusted not only according to their metabolic and
1381 microbial activities, but also according to the species/cultivar and applied processing
1382 techniques.

1383 Several authors have studied the effects of storage temperature and storage time on
1384 quality and microbial growth. **Lamikanra and Watson (2003)** evaluated the effects of storage
1385 time and temperature (4°C or 15°C) on esterase activity in fresh-cut cantaloupe. The
1386 enzymatic activity, after 24 h in storage, was reduced by 40% and 10% in fruit stored at 4°C
1387 and 15°C, respectively. Pectin methyl esterase activity in cut fruit also decreased by about
1388 25% at both temperatures after 24 h, but greatly increased after 72 h in fruit stored at 15°C.
1389 **Fontana and Nicola (2008)** studied the effect of storage temperature (four, eight or 16°C) on
1390 the freshness of fresh-cut garden cress stored from seven to ten days. The fresh weight loss
1391 increased linearly with increasing temperature, reaching a maximum value of 1.9% at 16°C
1392 after eight days of storage. An optimal temperature was defined as 4°C to guarantee
1393 microbial and sensory quality. **Ukuku and Sapers (2007)** investigated the effects of a waiting
1394 period at room temperature (ca 22°C) before refrigerating fresh-cut watermelon, cantaloupe
1395 and honeydew pieces contaminated with *Salmonella*. The *Salmonella* populations in the
1396 fresh-cut watermelon and honeydew pieces declined by 1 log cfu g⁻¹ when stored immediately
1397 at 5°C for 12 days, while the populations in the fresh-cut cantaloupe did not show any
1398 significant changes. The *Salmonella* populations in the fresh-cut melons stored immediately
1399 at 10°C for 12 days increased significantly from 10² to 10³ cfu g⁻¹ in the watermelon, 10^{1.9} to
1400 10³ cfu g⁻¹ in the honeydew and 10² to 10^{3.6} cfu g⁻¹ in the cantaloupe pieces. Keeping freshly
1401 prepared, contaminated fresh-cut melon pieces at 22°C for three hours or more prior to
1402 refrigerated storage could increase the chances of *Salmonella* growth, especially if the fresh-
1403 cut melons were subsequently stored at an improper temperature.

1404 Storage temperature is found to be of paramount importance for the evolution of the
1405 microbial and visual quality of fresh-cut products. Knowledge on temperature oscillations of
1406 fresh-cut product in the cold chain is necessary to determine the influence of the temperature
1407 on the loss of quality and shelf life. Many European countries lack specific regulation
1408 concerning temperature control for fresh-cut products. Italy is the first EU country that
1409 introduced a National law specifically for the fresh-cut industry (D.L. 13 May 2011, n. 77)
1410 that will have the specific decree in which temperature limits in the distribution chain are set
1411 to be below 8°C, and temperature limit is planned to be written in any package label for
1412 domestic refrigeration storage as well. Fresh-cut products are classified as refrigerated
1413 products, whose storage temperature must be kept at a maximum of 7°C with a tolerance of
1414 up to 10°C in the warmest conditions (**Jacxsens et al., 2002**).

1415 The time/temperature conditions at harvest and during postharvest handling are an
1416 essential critical control point and should be monitored. The air temperature during sorting

1417 and preparation must be lower than 12°C, while during washing, cutting and packaging, the
1418 air temperature should be maintained at between 4°C to 6°C. Temperature ranges ($\geq 10^\circ\text{C}$)
1419 can be found in a fresh-cut product cold chain during shipping and unloading at the
1420 supermarket, storage and display at retail, and in domestic refrigerators. During transport in
1421 refrigerated vehicles, the main problem is to maintain the cold chain as the door may be
1422 opened and closed frequently and the doors may be left open for variable periods of time,
1423 while orders are prepared and delivered. A rapid increase in product temperature can occur
1424 on transfer from temperature-controlled vehicles to ambient conditions during unloading at
1425 the distributor. The control of temperature performance and display units in supermarkets is
1426 rather poor, and the temperature of the fresh-cut product depends on its location on the
1427 chilled display shelf. The temperature distribution in the display environment is critical. The
1428 temperature is usually not optimal (8-10°C), and may accelerate fermentation inside packages
1429 and reduce both the shelf life and the packaging effectiveness (Emond, 2007). Finally,
1430 improper cold chain management continues in home refrigerators. Temperature abuse, such
1431 as storage at ambient temperature and improper cooling, has been identified as the main
1432 cause of microbial and quality deterioration. Nunes et al. (2009) investigated the temperatures
1433 registered inside local distribution trucks or in retailer displays and the effects on improper
1434 temperature management on the produce quality. The study evaluated the segment of the
1435 distribution chain that includes the time the produce arrives from distribution center to the
1436 store, is displayed at the store, and then stored under home conditions. A wide variation of
1437 the temperature measured inside the retail displays was registered depending on the store and
1438 the displays, from -1.2 °C to 19.2°C in refrigerated displays and from 7.6°C to 27.7°C in non-
1439 refrigerated displays. The major cause of produce waste was the improper temperature
1440 management (55%), while the expired date and mechanical damage counted for 45%. Thus,
1441 fruits and vegetables are often kept under improper storage conditions, resulting in produce
1442 with poor quality and shorter shelf-life and in waste increase at retail and consumer levels.

1443 In recent years research has paid attention to the light conditions during shelf-life to
1444 simulate the retail display conditions, especially in leafy vegetables and greens, such as
1445 garden cress, broccoli, cauliflower, Swiss chard leaves, lettuce, celery (Olarte et al., 2009;
1446 Zhan et al., 2009; 2012a; 2012b; 2013a; 2013b; 2013c; Kasim and Kasim, 2012). However,
1447 the information on the effects of the exposure to light at retail store on the physiological
1448 response of fresh-cut products is still poor, and the scientific results are contradictory.
1449 Although the display of vegetables in stores is mostly done in light conditions, several studies

1450 recommend low light intensity conditions or darkness to delay the leaf yellowing of
1451 vegetables in retail markets. Light conditions favor the chlorophyll degradation causing the
1452 leaf yellowing, which is one of the most important factors determining the fresh-like
1453 appearance of the product and, thus, the consumer purchase. Despite this, some studies have
1454 been reported in which continuous light-stored leaves of fresh-cut products retained more
1455 chlorophyll than dark-stored leaves (Noichinda et al., 2007; Zhan et al., 2012a; 2013a;
1456 2013b). Zhan et al. (2013b) found that light-stored leaves of fresh-cut romaine lettuce
1457 preserved more Chl *a* during 7 days of storage at 4°C than-dark stored leaves. Light delayed
1458 the decline of soluble sugar and total soluble solid content and concurrently increased the
1459 dehydroascorbic acid (DHA) and dry matter content in comparison to storing leaves in dark
1460 environment. Studies conducted by Zhan and coworkers highlighted that light exposure
1461 accelerates fresh weight loss during storage; this occurred in broccoli (Zhan et al., 2012a),
1462 romaine lettuce (Zhan et al., 2012b; 2013b) and celery (Zhan et al., 2013a), confirming
1463 similar results in the literature (in Chinese kale, Noichinda et al., 2007; in romaine lettuce,
1464 Martínez-Sánchez et al., 2011). A general tendency was that light conditions preserve or
1465 increase the amount of ascorbic acid compared to dark conditions (Zhan et al., 2012a; 2012b;
1466 2013a; 2013b), as well as an inhibition of PPO and POD and a decrease of browning (Zhan et
1467 al., 2012b; 2013c). Light conditions can affect not only the physiological response of fresh-
1468 cut produce, but also the packaging performance in preserving the sensorial attributes (Olarte
1469 et al., 2009).

1470 Further and detailed studies need to be conducted on the effect of light on physiological
1471 responses of fresh-cut fruit and vegetables. Ultimately, the effect of light and the type of
1472 bulbs used for the experiments should be checked in interaction with the temperature of the
1473 display cabinets, given that most of these are open and, thus, subjected to ambient
1474 temperature (Figure 10a,b,c). The latter is not only often time much higher than refrigeration
1475 temperature, but it can increase also due to the type of bulbs used: incandescent and halogen
1476 bulbs increase ambient temperature, while fluorescent light does not. In-bag product
1477 temperature is expected to be higher than out-bag temperature due to the greenhouse effect,
1478 to the reduced evaporative cooling and trapped warm air if the light is used in open display
1479 cabinet. Lastly, the effect of continuous light should be checked against store opening hours,
1480 that is, the fluctuation of light/dark conditions have not yet been investigated.

1481

1482 **IV. FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS**

1483 The preharvest and postharvest issues described in this chapter highlight the research efforts
1484 that are being made to test and implement innovations to increase fresh-cut sector
1485 competitiveness in terms of safety and quality. A continuous exchange between scientists and
1486 the fresh-cut industry is necessary to guarantee the success of the fresh-cut system. It is
1487 advisable that new experiments would be conducted in real world situations after having been
1488 tested in simulated conditions, that is, in laboratories or controlled cell rooms, to verify the
1489 studies under realistic situations. In addition, there is still little connection between preharvest
1490 and postharvest conditions in the mind of researchers: most of the postharvest research is
1491 conducted by not knowing any preharvest conditions of the raw material, while, in most
1492 cases, being obtained from a grocery store, making unreliable many hypotheses of any
1493 determining cause in the field on postharvest quality.

1494 The fresh-cut sector has progressed tremendously around the world in the last decade,
1495 especially in the fruit sector and, particularly, in tropical and exotic fruit. This development is
1496 in line with the general trend occurring in fresh produce. Thus, the critical issues in the fresh-
1497 cut management are similar to those in the fresh produce management. The wide spread of
1498 fresh-cut fruit and vegetables is visible in many emerging economies even though statistics
1499 are unavailable. In the coming decade, it is expected that the importance of the sector will
1500 increase even more, with most likely increase in the importance of safety rather than quality.
1501 Nevertheless, assessing fresh-cut produce quality remains of great importance because
1502 consumers are expecting more flavor and taste, especially from such high price products as
1503 fresh-cut products. Despite the five years of economic slowdown around the world that has
1504 hit some countries more severely than others, the demand for fresh-cut products keeps rising.
1505 The offer of new species and varieties expands the offer of fresh-cut items. There are
1506 promising innovations both at the farm production level and at postharvest processing level:
1507 cultivation techniques are becoming standardized, environmentally friendly, conserve water,
1508 reduce waste and emphasize the inherent and organoleptic quality of the raw material.
1509 Therefore, research should focus on the implementation of innovative tools and processing
1510 aids in postharvest processing able to preserve the freshness and organoleptic quality
1511 obtained in the field.

1512 Lastly, the sector is facing a striking challenge in the coming years: “waste footprint”.
1513 Food waste is top of the issues when it comes to the food sector’s current sustainability
1514 agenda and fresh-cut products are among the most targeted products for waste production
1515 (Burrows, 2013). In fact, latest figures in the UK indicate that 68% of salad grown for fresh-

1516 cut salad bags is wasted. If it is true that tackling the issue of waste reduction starts from
1517 breeding and ends in homes, it is also true that solutions should be found either by reducing
1518 the discharge of 'not compliant' raw material along the chain or by making better use of it,
1519 such as re-cycling or re-using waste for other purposes, e.g., composting or the extraction of
1520 the bioactive compounds it contains.

1521

1522

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- 1539

1540 **Glossary of acronyms**

1541	AA	-	Ascorbic acid
1542	cfu	-	colony forming unit
1543	DHA	-	dehydroascorbic acid
1544	EMA	-	Equilibrium modified atmosphere
1545	EF	-	Ebb-and-flow system
1546	EO	-	Essential oil
1547	EPS	-	Euro Pool System
1548	EU	-	European Union
1549	FL	-	Continuous flotation system
1550	FS	-	Flotation systems
1551	GAP	-	Good agricultural practices
1552	GHP	-	Good hygiene practices
1553	GMP	-	Good manufacturing practices
1554	HACCP	-	Hazard analysis critical control point
1555	HEP	-	High intensity electric field pulses
1556	HHSS	-	Harvest, handling, shipping and storage

1557	HP	-	High pressure
1558	IY	-	Internal yellowing
1559	LOX	-	Lipoxygenase
1560	MA	-	Modified atmosphere
1561	MAP	-	Modified atmosphere packaging
1562	NFT	-	Nutrient film technique
1563	PAL	-	Phenylalanine ammonia lyase
1564	PPO	-	Polyphenol oxidase
1565	POD	-	peroxidase
1566	RF	-	Radio frequency
1567	RH	-	Relative humidity
1568	ROS	-	Reactive oxygen species
1569	RRO ₂	-	Respiration rate for oxygen
1570	SCS	-	Soil-less culture system
1571	TCS	-	Traditional culture system
1572	TPC	-	Total plate count
1573	UV	-	Ultraviolet
1574	UV-C	-	ultraviolet-C
1575	YMC	-	Yeast and mould count
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