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Cyclic low dose UV-C treatments retain strawberry fruit quality more effectively than conventional pre-storage single high fluence applications

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PII: S0023-6438(18)30189-0

DOI: 10.1016/j.lwt.2018.02.050

Reference: YFSTL 6905

To appear in: LWT - Food Science and Technology

Received Date: 11 September 2017

Revised Date: 16 February 2018

Accepted Date: 17 February 2018

Please cite this article as: Ortiz Araque, L.C., Rodoni, L.M., Darré, Magalí., Ortiz, C.M., Civello, P.M., Vicente, A.R., Cyclic low dose UV-C treatments retain strawberry fruit quality more effectively than conventional pre-storage single high fluence applications, *LWT - Food Science and Technology* (2018), doi: 10.1016/j.lwt.2018.02.050.

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22 Abstract

UV-C irradiation has been shown to reduce fruit decay and delay ripening. Based on an 23 expected higher impact and applicability, UV irradiation treatments have been almost 24 exclusively done before storage at relatively high doses. We evaluated the influence of the 25 pattern of repeated short dose UV-C exposure on quality maintenance of strawberry fruit. 26 Strawberries were subjected to the following treatments: Single-step UV: single 4 kJ m⁻² 27 irradiation prior to storage; two-step UV: two consecutive 2 kJ m⁻² UV irradiations at harvest 28 and after 4 days of storage and *multi-step UV*: five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 days of 29 storage respectively. A non-irradiated group was left untreated. Samples were stored at 0 °C for 30 13 days. All UV-C treatments decreased decay, weight loss and softening. The quality retention 31 was higher in fruit subjected two-step and multi-step UV-C. Multiple low dose UV exposure 32 33 reduced calyx browning more efficiently. Repeated low UV-C dose decreased mold and yeast counts to a higher extent. *Multi-step* UV treated fruit showed higher alcohol insoluble residue. 34 Two-step UV-C treated fruit showed the highest sensorial scores. Repeated low dose UV-C 35 treatments are more effective in preventing strawberry fruit than conventional single high-36 fluence pre-storage irradiation. 37

38 Keywords: Fragaria x ananassa Duch; UV-illumination; ripening; Botrytis cinerea

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40 1. INTRODUCTION

Strawberries are widely appreciated for their bright red color, unique aroma and texture and high antioxidant capacity (**Giné-Bordonaba and Terry 2016**; **Li et al. 2017**). However, continuous distribution of premium berries is challenging due to their high perishability (**Bower et al. 2003**; **Chen et al. 2016**). Though low temperature storage effectively reduce deterioration, even under proper temperature management strawberry shelf-life life rarely exceeds 7-10 days (**Erkan et al. 2008**). To date, no postharvest fungicides have been approved to control *Botrytis*

47 *cinerea* and other wet treatments such as washing are not recommended since they may increase 48 decay susceptibility (Mitcham 2016). Firming agents such as calcium salts (Aguayo et al. 49 2008) which has been effectively shown to delay softening and fungal attack is mainly limited 50 to the fresh-cut industry whereas strategies such as surface coating showing good results at lab 51 scale (Romanazzi et al. 2016) have had difficulties to be up-scaled to commercial settings. 52 Consequently, there is a relatively limited set of strategies to reduce postharvest losses in 53 strawberry limited.

In recent years there have been great interests in the search for non-chemical dry 54 methods that can prevent fruit deterioration (Vicente and Lurie 2014). Several research groups 55 have started to evaluate UV-C treatments as a potential alternative to control spoilage (Civello 56 et al. 2006; Xu et al. 2017). Strawberry pre-storage UV-C treatments at doses ranging from 0.2 57 to 4.2 kJ m⁻² reduced decay (Baka et al. 1999; Erkan et al. 2008; Li et al. 2014; Xu et al. 58 2017). UV-C radiation has been shown to affect fungal metabolism (Bintsis et al. 2000; 59 Trivittayasil et al. 2016). Pan et al. (2004) reported that UV-C radiation (4 kJ m⁻²), reduced the 60 rate of germination of Botrytis and Rhizopus conidia. Besides its direct effect on plant 61 62 pathogens, UV-C radiation has been shown to modulate ripening-associated processes such as softening (Stevens et al. 2004; Pan et al. 2004) and to elicit the accumulation of antioxidants 63 (Erkan et al. 2008) and phytoallexins (D'hallewin et al. 1999). Pombo et al. (2011) reported 64 that UV-C irradiation may increase the expression of chitinases and β -1,3-glucanases. Early 65 66 work by Nigro et al. (2000) also reported the induction phenylpropanoid regulatory enzymes 67 such as phenylalanine ammonia lyase (PAL).

Several factors determining the efficacy of UV treatments have been studied; the maturity stage at which the fruit is irradiated influenced the outcome of UV treatments, with early applications having more dramatic effect delaying ripening (Liu et al. 1993; Charles et al. 2002). However, strawberries must be picked at complete maturity in order to attain full flavor, what narrows the window at which UV treatments could be applied. The UV radiation dose (fluence) applied also affects the benefits of UV-C treatments on fruit quality maintenance. This has been, by far the variable most extensively studied (Civello et al. 2014). Cote et al.

(2013) showed that for a given dose radiation intensity also affects the efficacy of UV-C 75 treatments. Other factors such as the as the pattern of UV exposure have been barely studied. 76 Even though pre-storage applications would be more practical than cyclic UV-C understanding 77 78 the responses of fruit to different irradiation conditions is very important to better understand the physiological effects of postharvest photochemical treatments. No studies have been 79 conducted to determine if small point applications throughout the storage period could improve 80 quality retention relative to conventional single high fluence UV treatments. The aim of this 81 82 work was to determine if repeated short applications throughout the storage period could improve quality retention relative to conventional single high fluence UV treatments 83

84

85 2 MATERIALS & METHODS

86

87 2.1 Plant material, treatments and storage conditions

Strawberry fruit (Fragaria x ananassa cv Camarosa) grown in La Plata, Argentina was 88 89 harvested at commercial maturity and immediately transported to the laboratory. Fruit was put in polyethylene terephthalate (PET) trays, in groups of 10 and was located under an irradiation 90 mobile bank (1.7 m x 0.8 m) consisting a closed cabinet containing on the upper side 12 UV-C 91 lamps (UV-C peak emission at 254 nm, TUV G30T8, 30 W, Philips, Argentina) with a global 92 maximum radiation intensity of 38 W m^{-2} . The fruit was rotated in order to irradiate two 93 opposite sides. Fruit was irradiated at a distance of 30 cm. UV-C radiation dose was evaluated 94 by using a digital UV-C radiometer (ElectroLite Miodel LC 300, USA) located in the central 95 zone of the irradiation zone. The following treatments were applied: 96

97 *i)* Single-step UV: 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage;

98 *ii)* Two-step UV: two 2 kJ m^{-2} applications after 0 and 4 d of storage

99 *iii)* Multi-step UV: five 0.8 kJ m^{-2} applications after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage.

One set of non-irradiated fruit was used as a *Control*. Samples were covered with a perforated plastic lid and stored 0, 10 or 13 days at 0 °C. For those treatments requiring UV exposure during the storage period the bank was used directly into the storage area to avoid oscillations in fruit temperature. Samples were immediately analyzed after sampling or otherwise frozen in liquid N₂ and stored at -80 °C until analysis. Four trays containing 10 fruit each were used for every treatments and storage time. The whole experiment was repeated three times.

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107 2.2. Respiration rate

Samples were taken and held at 20 °C until thermal equilibration. Ten fruits were placed in a 1.5 L glass jar which was hermetically sealed. An IR sensor (Alnor, USA) was used to determine the change in CO_2 in the headspace during a 20 min period. The respiration rate was calculated by determining the mass of CO_2 produced per kg of fruit in an hour. Three measurements were done for each treatment and sampling date.

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114 **2.3. Weight loss**

Individual fruits were weighed at the beginning of the storage period and after 10 or 13 d at 0 °C. Weight loss was calculated as: $WL = 100 \times (W_i - W_f)/Wi$, being W_i the initial sample weight and W_f the final weight. Results were expressed in percentage.

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119 **2.4. Decay**

The percentage of fruit showing incipient symptoms of decay (local tissue maceration) or excessive softening on each tray was recorded. Decay incidence was expressed as percentage of decayed fruits. Four trays containing 10 fruit each were evaluated for each treatment and storage time.

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125 **2.5. Color**

Fruit calyx and receptacle color was measured with a colorimeter (Model CR-400, Minolta, Osaka, Japan) to obtain L*, a* and b* values. The hue angle was calculated as 180 tg^{-1} (b*/a*) and tg^{-1} (b*/a*) for fruit calyx and receptacle respectively. For fruit receptacle color assessment two measurements were conducted on each fruit and averaged. Thirty fruits were evaluated for each treatment and storage time and evaluated for both receptacle and calyx color.

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132 **2.6. Firmness**

Fruit firmness was determined by uniaxial compression tests in a Texture Analyzer (TA.XT2, Stable Micro Systems Texture Technologies, NY, USA) equipped with a 3 mm diameter flat probe. Firmness was determined compressing the fruit tissue 4 mm in equatorial zone at a rate of 1 mm s⁻¹. The maximum force during the test was recorded. Forty measurements were done for each treatment and time analyzed.

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139 2.7. Isolation of cell wall material and determination of alcohol insoluble residue

Cell wall polysaccharides were isolated as previously described (Vicente et al. 2007). 140 Fruit samples were immediately placed in 95% (v/v) ethanol to limit the action of cell wall 141 modifying enzymes isolated with the tissue. Approximately 30 g of tissue (exocarp plus 142 mesocarp) for each developmental stage was homogenized in an UltraTurrax (IKA Werke Janke 143 144 & Kunkel GmbH & Co. KG, Staufen, Germany) with 75 mL of 95% ethanol and boiled for 45 min to ensure the inactivation of enzymes, thus preventing autolytic activity, and to extract low 145 molecular weight solutes. The insoluble material was filtered through Miracloth (Calbiochem, 146 EMD Biosciences, Inc., San Diego, CA) and sequentially washed with 150 mL of boiling 147 ethanol, 150 mL of chloroform/ methanol (1:1 v/v), and 150 mL of acetone, yielding the crude 148

cell wall extract (alcohol insoluble residue, AIR). The AIR was dried overnight at 37 °C and
weighed. Results were expressed as milligrams of AIR per gram of fresh fruit.

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152 **2.8. Titratable acidity**

Fruit pulp was frozen in liquid nitrogen, ground in a mill and 10 g of the resulting powder were added to 100 mL of water. Samples were titrated with 0.1 mol L⁻¹ NaOH until pH 8.2 (**AOAC 1980**). Results were expressed as H⁺ mmol per kg⁻¹ on a fresh weight basis. Three measurements were done for each treatment and storage time.

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158 2.9. Sugars

Approximately 50 g of fruit tissue were ground in a mill and 1 g of the resulting powder 159 was homogenized with 10 mL of ethanol and vortexed for 1 min. The mixture was centrifuged 160 at 9,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C; the supernatant was recovered and filtered through 0.2 mm RC 161 membrane (Cole-Parmer, USA) and brought to 50 mL with deionized water. A high-162 performance liquid chromatograph (HPLC, Waters 1525 Binary HPLC Pump) was used, 163 equipped with a refractive index detector (Waters, IR 2414) and a Hypersil Gold Amino column 164 (4.6 x 250 mm, 5 mm, Thermo Sci., USA). Samples were run with an isocratic flow rate of 1.0 165 mL min⁻¹ of acetonitrile: water (70: 30). Three extracts were analyzed per treatment and storage 166 times and measurements were done in duplicate. Results were expressed as g of sugar per kg. 167

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169 2.10. Ascorbic acid

Samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen, processed in a mill and approximately 1 g of the obtained powder was homogenized with 5 mL of 2.5% m/v metaphosphoric acid. The mixture was vortexed for 1 min and then centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was recovered and filtered through 0.45 μ m (MSI Westboro, MA 01581, 100pk acetate plus)

membrane and ascorbic acid (AsA) determination was done by using a high-performance liquid chromatograph (HPLC, Waters 1525 Binary HPLC Pump), fitted with a photo diode array detector and a C18 column (4.6 x 150 mm, 5 mm, Waters Corp., USA). The mobile phase was 0.5% m/v metaphosphoric acid/acetonitrile (93/7) at an isocratic flow rate of 1.0 mL min¹ and the wavelength for detection was 245 nm. For identification and quantitation a standard AsA solution was employed. Results were expressed as mg of AsA per kg. Two extracts per sample and storage time were obtained. All samples were run twice and averaged.

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182 2.11. Microbiological counts

Approximately 50 g of fruit were put into two sterilized beakers containing 225 mL 0.1% w/v peptone. Samples were stirred for 15 min and from each beaker a series of decimal dilutions was prepared. One mL samples from different dilutions $(10^{-2} \text{ to } 10^{-5})$ were poured in triplicate into the Yeasts and Molds culture medium (PetrifilmTM plates 6407, 3M, St. Paul, Minn., U.S.A.). Plates were incubated at 20 °C. Results were expressed as log of viable colony forming units (CFUs) per g of fresh fruit.

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190 2.12. Sensory evaluation

Fruit visual sensory evaluation was assessed by an acceptability test using a hedonic 191 scale of 9 points. Panelist were simultaneously offered trays containing 10 whole strawberries 192 193 having similar size and shape from control, one step UV, two-step UV and multi-step UV. The fruit was evaluated after 10 day of storage at 0 °C. The panelist were asked to indicate their 194 acceptability on a 9 point hedonic scale, being 1: unacceptable and 9: highly accepted. The 195 196 evaluation considered those attributes that may be considered on an initial purchase decision (calyx color, receptacle color, freshness and overall acceptability). The panel consisted on 100 197 non-trained panelists with equal distribution of men and women and with an age range of 25-35 198 years. 199

200

201 **2.13. Statistical analysis**

202	Samples were analyzed by a ANOVA with the PC-SAS software package (SAS 198
203	Institute Inc., Cary, NC). The model assumptions of homogeneity of variance and normality
204	were tested by means of the Levene and Shapiro-Wilk tests, respectively. Treatment means were
205	compared using Tukey's studentized range test (* $P < 0.05$).

206

207 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

208 3.1 Weight loss, decay, microbial counts and phenolic compounds

UV-C treatments reduced fruit weight loss during storage. After both 10 and 13 days all 209 210 UV treatments reduced dehydration regardless of the mode of application. Remarkably the least water loss values were observed in the case of the fractionated UV treatments (Figure 1). Two-211 step UV-C exposure had a similar effect on fruit weight loss than *multi-step* irradiation. Previous 212 work has showed that high intensity UV radiation treatments, applied before storage, can reduce 213 214 water loss in strawberry (Cote et al. 2013). Whether this effect resulted simply an improved maintenance of fruit integrity or from changes in fruit surface characteristics is unknown. In 215 fresh-cut apple the lower water loss resulting from UV-C was associated with the formation of a 216 thin film on the product surface hindering water evaporation (Manzocco et al. 2011). This was 217 218 not evident at least by direct stereomicroscopic observations (data not shown). Other potential 219 effects induced by UV radiation that can affect the rate of water loss include changes in surface wax deposition (Charles et al. 2008) or modifications in the degree stomata closure (He et al. 220 **2011**). Though these responses seem less likely given the low storage temperature, they could 221 222 not be discarded and further work aimed in understanding the mechanism by which two-step 223 and *multi-step UV-C* irradiation reduces fruit susceptibility to dehydration would be of interest.

After 10 days at 0 °C no differences in fruit decay were found between control and 224 conventionally (one-step) UV-C treated strawberries. In contrast, the both two-step and multi-225 step UV-C treated fruit showed no decay (Figures 2). After 13 days at 0 °C a rapid increase in 226 fruit decay was found in control strawberries. At this sampling date, fruit subjected to single 227 pre-storage UV irradiation presented lower decay incidence than the corresponding control. This 228 is coincident with previous work showing that single UV irradiation at doses ca. 4 kJ m⁻² can be 229 useful to control decay by Botrytis cinerea (Pan et al. 2004; Cote et al. 2013). Interestingly, 230 231 also after long term storage two- and multi-step applications relying on repeated exposure at low radiation fluence were significantly more effective than single pre-storage irradiation to control 232 decay. 233

We subsequently evaluated the viable count of molds and yeast (Figure 3). The colonies 234 counted represented mostly yeasts. At harvest 3.4 CFU g⁻¹ were found. Immediately after the 235 initial irradiation there was a significant decrease in yeast counts all the treatments. The greatest 236 reduction was observed in one step treatments receiving the highest radiation dose at day 0 (4 kJ 237 m^{-2}). Work by Mercier et al. has shown that direct inactivation of microorganisms by UV 238 radiation is highly dependent on radiation dosage (Mercier et al., 2001). The fractionated two-239 step and *multi-step* treatments showed no differences in yeast counts reduction prior to storage. 240 In this case, a significant but modest reduction (ca. 0.25 log cycles) was observed. The counts of 241 control strawberries increased one log cycle during 10 days of storage. Fruit subjected to one-242 243 step UV irradiated also showed an increasing trend. Remarkably, the counts in fruit subjected to low fluence two- and multi-step UV-C showed no changes in yeast counts throughout the 244 storage period, but rather a decrease. This shows that, for a similar total radiation dosage, 245 repeated low dose UV-C exposure in vivo resulted in a better more effective reduction in yeasts 246 247 CFU than one step irradiation. One plausible explanation is that the repeated irradiation, even with low partial doses, was sufficient to exert inhibitory effects on yeast viability and that 248 several treatments was more detrimental (Nhung et al. 2012; Sinha and Häder 2002). Despite 249 of the potential direct effect that repeat low dose UV exposure could exert on fruit pathogens we 250 cannot exclude that fractionated UV could have induced defensive responses. Early work by 251

Ben-Yehoshua (1992) clearly showed that UV-C irradiation induced the accumulation of the 252 phytoalexin scoparone in citrus flavedo. Subsequent studies in even in strawberry reported that 253 UV-C irradiation also increased the activity of enzymes related to active responses such as 254 chitinases and β -1,3 glucanases (**Pombo et al. 2011**) or associated with the biosynthesis of 255 256 antimicrobial phenolics (Nigro et al., 2000; Erkan et al. 2008). For successful colonization, a pathogen must succeed over the fruit's defensive arsenal. This could be done even for a single 257 microorganism by many different mechanisms depending on the prevailing physiological and 258 259 environmental conditions. Prusky et al., (2016) recently suggested that carbon availability in 260 the environment is a key factor triggering the production and secretion of ammonia and organic acids which could modulate the pH and result in completely different pathogenic responses. 261 Then, it would be interesting to evaluate whether the pattern of exposure to UV-C radiation 262 could affect carbon status within the apoplast and contribute to affect pathogen invasion. 263

264

265 3.2 Receptacle and calyx color, respiration, sugars, acidity and ascorbic acid

Fruit receptacle hue and lightness decreased indicating that ripening progressed even 266 during storage at 0 °C (Table 1). The receptacle hue decreases during storage from 45° at the 267 beginning to 30° at the end of storage period. No differences in hue values were recorded 268 between control and UV irradiation fruit for any treatment schedule evaluated (Table 1). This is 269 consistent with the results reported by Pan et al. (2004) who found subtle color changes in UV-270 C treated strawberries. The UV treatments induced a slight reduction in receptacle lightness 271 (L*). However, this effect was very limited compared to the browning recorded during the 13-d 272 storage period. At the last sampling date, the two-step UV-C treatments caused lower lightness 273 loss than control (Table 1). Calyx hue angle dropped in all treatments from values ca. 130 at 274 harvest to 120 at the last sampling date in association with chlorophyll degradation. In 275 accordance with Marquenie et al. (2002) we did find some calyx browning and drying in UV-C 276 treated strawberries. The reduction of calyx L* values was delayed in two- and multi-step UV 277 treatments (Table 1). 278

Fruit respiration rate showed an increasing trend during storage in control and treated 279 280 fruit (Table 2). Though strawberry has a non-climacteric ripening pattern of respiration previous works have reported that CO_2 production can increase especially after long term storage 281 282 (Vicente et al., 2006). This has been mainly related to prolonged stress conditions occurring in the postharvest environment such as water and nutrient deprivation and pathogen challenges 283 that may result in fruit damage (Li and Kader 1989). After 13 d at 0 °C, UV-C irradiated fruit 284 maintained lower respiration levels than the remaining treatments. This indicates that UV 285 irradiation reduced fruit deterioration and may be useful to maintain lower metabolic activity. 286

We further determined changes in acidity sugars and ascorbic acid to determine if these 287 components contributing to fruit taste and nutritional quality were affected by the UV-C 288 treatment schedule. Fruit acidity and ascorbic acid content did show no major changes during 289 storage and were not affected by any of the UV-C treatments evaluated. Glucose and fructose 290 represented 65% of total fruit sugars at harvest (Table 2). During storage, they showed an 291 increasing trend, with a concomitant decrease in sucrose likely probably resulting from 292 invertase action as reported by Basson et al. (2010). However, this trend was similar in control 293 294 in all the UV treatments evaluated. Overall this shows that UV-C treatments did not cause major changes in soluble sugars acid or ascorbic acid metabolism at the whole fruit level. 295

296

297 **3.3 Firmness and cell wall material**

No significant differences were found in firmness prior to cold storage were found among 298 treatments. As expected the fruit soften markedly during storage. Though strawberries subjected 299 to conventional single UV-C irradiation showed a tendency to maintain higher firmness than the 300 control the differences were not statistically significant (Figure 4). Cote et al. (2013) found that 301 for single application of 4 kJ m⁻² the efficacy of UV-C applications in firmness retention is 302 303 highly dependent on the radiation intensity. Previous work showed that UV may delay strawberry softening. However, the effect was much more limited than that reported for other 304 305 physical treatments such as hot air conditioning or high CO₂ atmospheres. Both low dose

fractionated UV treatments improved firmness retention. The delay in fruit softening of cyclic 306 low dose UV-C treatments was still observed after 13 days of storage (Figure 4). The biological 307 basis of the imporved texture of low fluence two- and multi-step treatments occurs deserves 308 309 further studies. Down-regulation of genes coding for cell wall degrading proteins by pre-storage UV irradiation has been reported (Pombo et al., 2009). In this case the inhibitory effect was 310 transient, and normal mRNA levels and enzyme activities recovered after few days. In this 311 scenario if low UV-C doses used for cyclic irradiation are sufficient to disturb normal ripening 312 expression pattern is plausible to hypothesize that the inhibitory effect the biochemical 313 determinants of fruit softening be sustained longer. The effect of UV-C treatment schedule on 314 fruit cell wall degrading proteins has not been reported and deserves further analysis. In any 315 case, it would be valuable to establish the minimal inhibitory treatment conditions (dose and 316 intensity) and the interval between photochemical treatments. In any case, the improved efficacy 317 of fractionated treatments to maintain firmness has great interest given that excessive softening 318 is one of the main factors limiting the postharvest life of strawberry fruit. 319

We also evaluated the residue obtained the residue after extensive extraction in boiling 320 321 ethanol (AIR) which for fruits having low starch levels represents mainly the insoluble cell wall material. Before cold storage the AIR ranged between 1.87 and 2.01% without differences 322 among treatments. No significant changes were found in the AIR of control fruit. In contrast 323 strawberries subjected to fractionated UV exposure showed an increasing trend (Table 3). The 324 325 increase of insoluble material is at least unexpected given that it is know that extensive 326 polysaccharide degradation accompanies fruit softening (El Ghaouth et al. 2003), UV-C treatments are known to induce the formation of reactive oxygen species such as H_2O_2 (Civello 327 et al. 2006) which could contribute to the formation of cross links within the cell walls. 328 329 Oxidative coupling phenolics, and hydroxyproline and tyrosine in wall proteins in response to fungal attack has been reported (Bradley et al. 1992; Charles et al., 2008). The oxidative 330 cross-linking of cell wall structural proteins is thought to be a rapid defense response to 331 strengthen the cell wall against the invading pathogen prior to the activation of other post-332 transcription dependent defense responses (Brisson et al. 1994). The higher levels of AIR in 333

cyclic low dose UV treated fruit suggests that the improved maintenance of fruit cell wall
integrity contributes to reduce fruit susceptibility to pathogen attack as has been shown in other
ripening fruits (Cantu et al. 2008).

337

338 **3.5 Sensory visual evaluation**

We finally conducted a sensory evaluation panel to evaluate whether untrained 339 consumers would detect any differences among control and UV treated strawberries that may 340 affect their purchase decision. After 10 days of storage fruit subjected to two-step UV-C 341 irradiation had the highest scores in fruit color, freshness and overall acceptability (Figure 5). 342 Despite of the lack of differences in instrumental color values consumers preferred UV treated 343 fruit. Based on further analysis of such discrepancy the highest panelists score for irradiated 344 fruits was due to higher gloss which may be more directly related to surface dehydration than to 345 pigment contents. Scores for all the attributes after 13 d of storage were dramatically higher for 346 two-step and multi-step treatments given the reduced decay and dehydration observed in these 347 groups (data not shown). 348

349

350 CONCLUSIONS

351 UV-C treated strawberries showed, after 13 d at 0 °C, lower respiration than the control, suggesting that fruit deterioration was reduced. UV-C exposure also caused a marked decrease 352 in decay, molds, weight loss and softening; with the effect being significantly greater in fruit 353 subjected to two step and multi-step treatments. Instead, the UV-C irradiation schedule did not 354 affect acidity, sugars and ascorbic acid content. Repeated low dose UV exposure was more 355 effective to yeast counts than single pre-storage high fluence irradiation. Multi-step treated 356 strawberries showed an increase in alcohol insoluble material during storage indicating that 357 repeated UV-C irradiation may be inducing *de novo* deposition and/or cross linking of cell wall 358 material. Finally subjected to two-step UV showed highest sensory scores in calyx color, 359

freshness and acceptability when presented to non-trained consumers. Overall, results show that cyclic low dose UV-C treatments retain strawberry fruit quality more effectively than conventional pre-storage single high fluence applications.

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364 Acknowledgements

The authors thank the CONICET (PIP-0098) and the Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (PICT 2015-3690) for financial support. LOA, MG and CMO are Doctoral and Posdoctoral Scholars from CONICET, Argentina. LMR, PMC and ARV are research members of the CONICET, Argentina.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Weight loss in strawberry fruit during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of **P*<0.05. *Control:* Without UV-C application (); *One-step UV:* single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage (); *Two-step UV:* two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage () and *Multi-step:* five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage ().

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Figure 2. Decay in strawberry fruit during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of **P*<0.05. *Control:* Without UV-C application (); *One-step UV:* single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage (); *Two-step UV:* two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage () and *Multi-step:* five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage ().

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Figure 3. Viable colony counts of mold and yeast in strawberry fruit during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of **P*<0.05. *Control:* Without UV-C application (); *One-step UV:* single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage (); *Two-step UV:* two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage () and *Multi-step:* five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage ().

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Figure 5. Sensory scores for color, freshness appearance and overall acceptability in strawberry fruit stored at 0 °C for 10 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of **P*<0.05. Control: Without UV-C application (); One-step UV: single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage (); *Two-step UV*: two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage () and *Multi-step*: five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage ().

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Table 1: Receptacle and calyx color in control or irradiated strawberry fruit (one-step UV: single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage; *two-step UV*: two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage and *multi-step UV*: five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage) during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of *P < 0.05.

			Time at 0 °C (d)	
		0	10	13
	Control	51.9g ±3.2	47.7e ±2.0	44.9a ±3.9
Receptacle	One-step UV	49.9f ±2.9	46.9cde ±2.5	45.3ab ±4.4
lightness	Two-step UV	50.6f ±2.8	46.9de ±2.6	46.3bcd ±2.2
(L*)	Multi-step UV	50.5f ±2.9	46.8cde ±1.9	45.0abc ±3.3
	Control	47.5ef ±5.1	28.4ab ±3.8	31.8c ±4.0
Receptacle	One-step UV	45.8d ±4.3	29.8ab ±3.9	28.6ab ±4.9
°Hue	Two-step UV	46.2de ±3.9	28.3ab ±8.5	29.9bc ±5.2
	Multi-step UV	47.9f ±4.6	28a ±4.0	29.8ab ±4.6
	Control	51.1d ±3.1	49.4c ±2.6	47.2a ±4.0
Calyx	One-step UV	49.4c ±2.5	48.7abc ±3.4	48.7abc ±3.4
lightness	Two-step UV	50.1c ±2.8	47.9ab ±2.8	49.3bc ±2.9
(L*)	Multi-step UV	50c ±2.9	49.4c ±1.7	49.1bc ±2.8
	Control	134d ±4.3	119.3ab ±7.9	121.7b ±6.6
Calyx	One-step UV	133.5cd ±4.3	116.4a ±9.2	116.6a ±12.9
°Hue	Two-step UV	134.2d ±3.4	120.7ab ±10.5	119.4ab ±6.1
	Multi-step UV	132.1c ±5.1	120.8b ±7.2	118.0ab ±10.8

Table 2: Respiration rate, acidity, glucose, fructose, sucrose and ascorbic acid content in control or irradiated strawberry fruit (*one-step UV*: single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage; *two-step UV*: two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage and *multi-step UV*: five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage) during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of **P*<0.05.

			0	10		13	
	Control	24.4ab	± 8.3	45.5b ±9.1	61.1c	±1.2	
Respiration	One-step UV	29.8a	± 0.5	49.8b ±10.3	50.3b	±9.0	
rate	Two-step UV	30.3a	±0.4	53.6b ±3.4	54.7b	±4.7	
$(\mathbf{mL} \mathbf{kg}^{-1} \mathbf{h}^{-1})$	Multi-step UV	23.2a	±11.0	52.2b ±0.6	51.1b	±7.7	
	Control	0.3ab	$\pm 0.3 x 10^{-2}$	0.3ab $\pm 0.9 x 10^{-2}$	0.3a	$\pm 0.3 x 10^{-2}$	
Acidity	One-step UV	0.4 c	$\pm 1.8 \times 10^{-2}$	0.3ab $\pm 2.3 \times 10^{-2}$	0.3ab	$\pm 3.7 \times 10^{-2}$	
$(meq. H^+ kg)$	Two-step UV	0.3bc	$\pm 3.7 \times 10^{-2}$	0.3ab $\pm 1.3 \times 10^{-2}$	0.3ab	$\pm 0.4 x 10^{-2}$	
	Multi-step UV	0.3ab	$\pm 0.2 x 10^{-1}$	0.3ab $\pm 1.3 \times 10^{-2}$	0.3ab	$\pm 0.1 \times 10^{-3}$	
	Control	1.2abc	±0.3	1.5c ±0.1	1.5c	$\pm 4.3 \times 10^{-2}$	
Glucose	One-step UV	1.1ab	±0.1	1.3bc ±0.1	1.4bc	±0.1	
(%)	Two-step UV	1.0a	±0.2	1.2abc ±0.1	1.5c	±0.2	
	Multi-step UV	1.0a	±0.1	1.2abc ±0.4	1.36c	±0.1	
	Control	1.2ab	±0.1	$1.5c \pm 3.7 x 10^{-2}$	1.6c	±0.1	
Fructose	One-step UV	1.1ab	±0.1	1.4bc ±0.1	1.5c	$\pm 8.2 x 10^{-2}$	
(%)	Two-step UV	1.1a	±0.1	1.3abc ±0.2	1.6c	±0.1	
	Multi-step UV	1.0a	±0.3	1.3abc ±0.4	1.5c	±0.1	
	Control	1.5¢	±0.3	1.1a ±0.166	0.7a	±0.2	
Sucrose	Single-step UV	1.5c	$\pm 9.7 \times 10^{-2}$	1.0ab ±0.2	0.8ab	±0.1	
(%)	Two-step UV	1.5c	±0.2	0.9ab ±0.2	0.8ab	$\pm 7 x 10^{-3}$	
	Multi-step UV	1.5c	±0.1	0.8ab ±0.1	0.8ab	±0.1	
	Control	34.7a	±1.2	46.1abc ±3.3	35.0a	±4.6	
Ascorbic	Single-step UV	41.6abc	±1.2	52.2c ±5.1	38.0ab	±9.9	
acid	Two-step UV	39.8bc	±1.7	40.0ab ±10.8	46.1ab	c ±8.2	
$(mg \ 100 \ g^{-1})$	Multi-step UV	45.2abc	± 1.3	48.1bc ±1.5	44.8ab	c ±2.6	

Time at 0 °C (d)

<u>Table 3</u>: AIR (*one-step UV*: single UV-C 4 kJ m⁻² application before storage; *two-step UV*: two 2 kJ m⁻² applications after 0 and 4 d of storage and *multi-step UV*: five 0.8 kJ m⁻² after 0, 2, 4, 6 and 8 d of storage) during storage at 0 °C for 0, 10 and 13 days. Different letters indicate differences based on a Tukey test at a level of significance of *P < 0.05.

		Time at 0 °C (d)						
			0	1	10		13	
	Control	1.81ab	±0.22	1.87ab	±0.04	2.05bc	±0.17	
AIR	One-step UV	2.00ab	±0.0	1.83ab	±0.03	2.27cd	±0.08	
(g 100g ⁻¹)	Two-step UV	1.99ab	±0.21	1.77a	±0.08	2.42d	±0.03	
	Multi-step UV	1.85ab	±0.04	2.01abc	±0.15	2.44d	±0.08	











Highlights

- Low-dose cyclic UV_C exposure extended the postharvest life of refrigerated strawberry
- Two and multi-step UV-C irradiation maintained firmness and markedly reduced decay
- Fruit exposed to repeated low dose irradiation showed highest consumer sensory scores
- For a fixed total dose the irradiation schedule has great impact on the efficacy of UV-C treatments
- Repeated low dose exposure was more effective than conventional single-step irradiation

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