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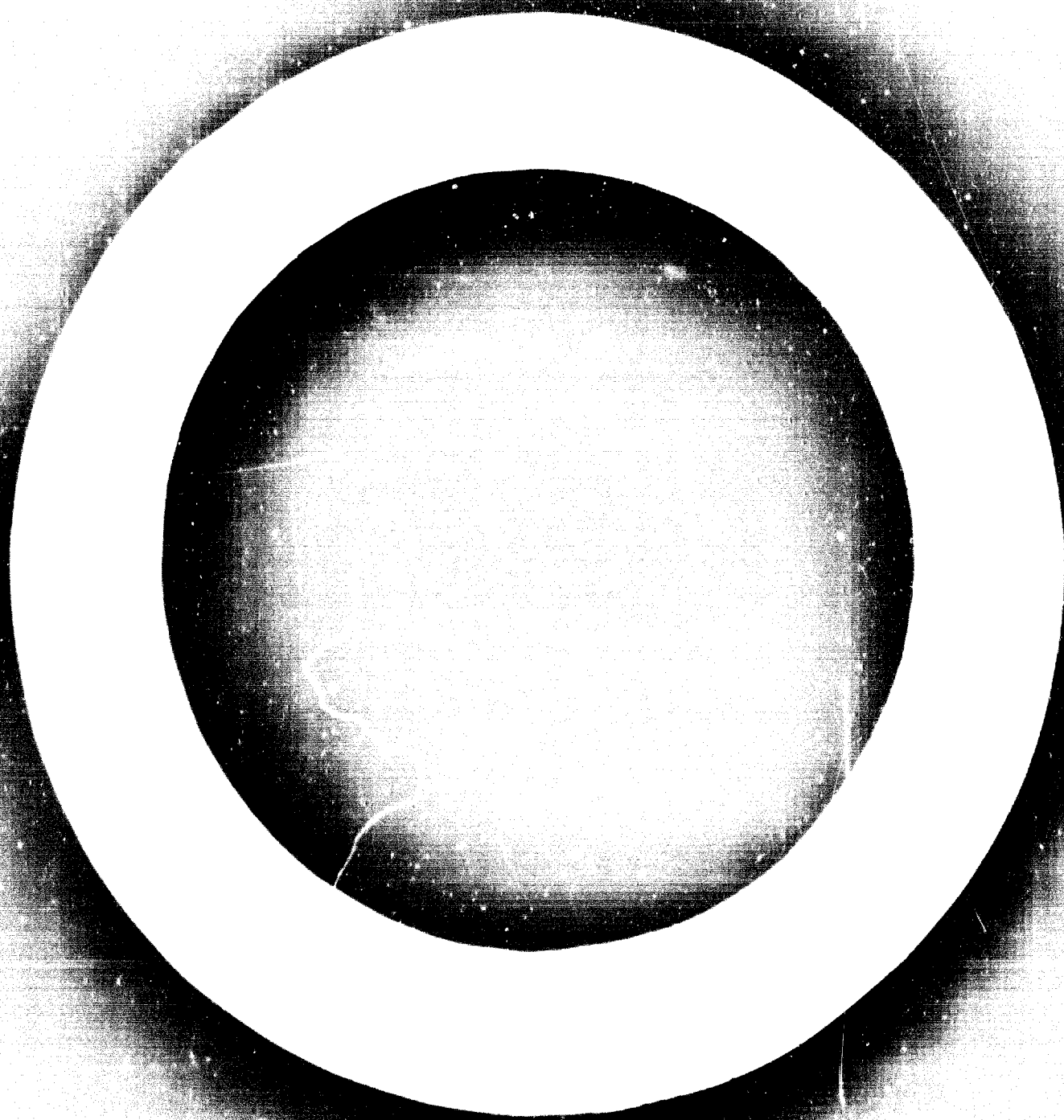
by

Börje Emlsson

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REFRIGERATION OF FRESH VEGETABLES - SOME PROBLEMS IN HAN-
LING, STORAGE AND TRANSPORTATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

by

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1. INTRODUCTION

In selecting the kinds of vegetables to be treated in this paper the following criteria have been applied:

- It should be adapted to production in subtropical and/or tropical areas.
- It should be competitive on consumer's markets as a fresh vegetable (in comparison to processed (canned, deep-frozen, dried etc.) produce).
- It should be produced or marketed in considerable quantities over large areas of the world.

On this basis the following vegetables have been chosen: artichokes, asparagus, carrots, celeriac, cucumbers, eggplants, leeks, radishes, onions, potatoes, radishes, sweet peppers, sweet potatoes and tomatoes. It is realized that selection is somewhat arbitrary and quite open to discussion.

Among the vegetables selected two have an especially importance for their food supply. Number one is potatoes with an annual world production of over 360 million tons (mt.). On this scale about 11% of the production is from developing countries, which here are taken to include Central America, South America, Middle East, Far East (excluding Japan and China) and Africa. Number two is sweet potatoes (including yams) with a world production of about 130 million tons annually. Of this quantity about 30 mt. fall on developing countries.

Far behind these leading vegetables follow tomatoes with an annual world production of about 25 million tons (4.6 mt. in developing countries) and onions with 15 mt. (3 mt. in developing countries).

Some of the vegetables chosen e.g. artichokes, asparagus, eggplants, melons and radishes are - at least in large parts of the world - on the border to luxury items. One important reason to include them is that they appear to offer considerable potential in building up exports from developing to industrialized countries.

2. FUNDAMENTALS

2.1. Vegetable physiology

The storage physiology of fruits is discussed at some length in a recent paper by the present author (BÖRJE EMILSSON: Refrigeration of fresh fruits - problems in handling, storage and transportation with special reference to developing countries. United Expert Group Meeting Vienna February 1969; below for the sake of brevity referred to as FRUITS). Much of the information on fruit physiology given in section 2 of FRUITS applies to vegetables as well and it is recommended that it is read in conjunction with the study of the present paper. Here only some additional data will be provided on a few selected aspects of vegetable physiology.

Like fresh fruits fresh vegetables are alive and carry on within themselves processes characteristic of all living systems, the most important of which are those of respiration. As with fruits the respiration intensity varies very much between different kinds of produce. Among the vegetables discussed here, onions and potatoes have a low rate of respiration - and at the same time a very long storage life. Artichokes and asparagus, on the other hand, have a very high respiration intensity and also a very limited storage life. To illustrate the differences - at 0°C asparagus respire 10 - 20 times as fast as onions.

Most vegetables have a non climacteric pattern of respiration. After harvest the rate of respiration (and heat evolution) gradually declines as the produce ages in storage. Vegetables which are reproduction organs, e. g. potatoes, generally show increased respiration if sprouting is allowed to start during storage. One important exception to the common type of respiration in vegetables is the tomato, which shows a typical climacteric respiration pattern.

Ethylene has a significant effect on many vegetables. It induces ripening in tomatoes and melons just as in many kinds of fruits. In addition it may cause metabolic disturbances resulting in physiological injuries in e. g. carrots, cucumbers and lettuce. It is worth noting that ethylene may cause such disturbances also at temperatures at which it does not normally induce ripening, i. e. below 2° to 3°C (cf. FRUITS, section 2.4).

Vegetables are generally still more liable to lose water during storage than most fruits. For this reason measures to prevent water loss in storage have particular importance in vegetable storage.

Many kinds of vegetables are highly liable to chilling injuries. The physiology of chilling is discussed in FRUITS section 2.6. In vegetables the increased susceptibility to microbial attacks sometimes induced by chilling is of particular importance. Kinds of vegetables liable to chilling injuries include cucumbers, eggplants, melons, sweet peppers, sweet potatoes and tomatoes.

As in fruits, attack of microorganisms - both fungi and bacteria - is probably the most important cause of loss in the storage of vegetables. The vegetables discussed in this paper have widely different problems of culture, field disease control, harvesting methods and handling practices. Therefore, each commodity must be considered separately with regard to the control of postharvest diseases. Some information on this subject as well as important references to the literature are given in section 3 of this paper for most of the vegetables included. A few general aspects will be briefly mentioned here. At harvest each commodity has a natural population of bacteria and fungus spores on its surface; these are a potential hazard to the keeping quality. Subsequent infection and disease development will depend on such factors as commodity vigour,

natural resistance, extent of mechanical injury and of temperature, relative humidity and other conditions in storage. The basis for controlling most storage diseases is disease control during the preparation for and production of the crop. After harvest the necessary measures in general include careful handling practices and prompt and proper temperature and humidity control; in certain situations chemical treatment may also be recommended.

2.2. General procedure in cold storage

Most of the information given in PROFFERS, section 3 is relevant to vegetables also and should be read in conjunction with this section. The optimum storage conditions for different kinds of vegetables are discussed in the next section of the present paper.

In the precooling of vegetables both hydrocooling and vacuum cooling have proved quite useful. Thus, hydrocooling is used for asparagus, celery, topped carrots and radishes. Vacuum cooling is of particular importance in the precooling of lettuce but is also used for celery and radishes.

Some vegetables benefit from very high relative humidity in storage - 95% or more. This applies to such asparagus, carrot and lettuce. Onions, on the other hand, are generally stored in standard fairly dry conditions.

For vegetables susceptible to wilting, protective packaging is widely used to limit water loss. Plastic materials of different kinds are used for wrapping of individual items, e.g. cellophane to three-gum numbers, cellophane size packaging (e.g. radishes) or cellophane or waxed paper (e.g. celery). The application of wax or wax emulsion preparations also proved beneficial for several kinds of vegetables, e.g. melons, cucumbers, sweet peppers, mature green tomatoes, melons and green beans. Often the thickness of wax coating is critical. Too thin a coating may dry the produce if any protective gain of moisture loss, whereas too heavy a coating may increase decay and breakdown. A good review of waxing of vegetables is given by GIBSON (1953), and PLATTEN (1955) and PLATTEN (1956).

Some of the vegetables mentioned in this paper, e.g. onions and potatoes, are sometimes bulk stored. In such a situation most care must be paid to the air distribution in such stores, assuring that the cooling air is evenly distributed through all parts of the bulked produce. Otherwise, there may arise local spots with overheat or resulting in excessive losses through decay or sprouting.

It may sometimes be desirable to store different kinds of vegetables together or together with fruit. For this to be possible, this is only possible when the temperature and humidity requirements are the same for the kinds of commodity involved. Risks of cross-contamination arise by ethylene and cross-transfer of odour. At winter storage temperature is above 32°F ethylene may promote ripening in some kinds of vegetables, e.g. melons and tomatoes. Even at temperatures below 32°F there is a number of inherent physiological diseases, e.g. carrots and lettuce. Therefore, in all these cases it is necessary to arrange mixed storage in such a way that any chance of ethylene reaching spaces stored with produce to produce an effect. Several kinds of vegetables, especially celery, are liable to blight. Dangers in the generation of blight are onions, carrots and potatoes and particularly cherry fruits. These circumstances must be taken into due consideration when arranging mixed storage.

3.3. Controlled atmosphere storage

The physiological background of controlled atmosphere storage as well as techniques available for CA-treatment are reviewed in FRUITS, section 4. 1, to which reference should be made.

So far CA-storage has found very little application to vegetables on a commercial scale. Research on CA-treatment of many kinds of vegetables, however, is in progress in different parts of the world. Fairly promising results have been obtained in some instances.

3.4. Irradiation

The application of irradiation in the storage of fruits is discussed at some length in FRUITS, section 4. 2. It is pointed out that the possible beneficial effects are control of storage diseases and delay of ripening.

With the notable exception to be discussed below, not very much work has so far been carried out on the use of irradiation in vegetable storage. CHAKRABARTI & SURENIVASAN (1966) report very briefly that the ripening of tomatoes could be delayed about 5 to 6 days by an irradiation dose of 20 - 25 krad. SCYMBER & MAXIE (1965), also working with tomatoes, found that fruits irradiated in the preclimacteric state will either fail to ripen or ripen abnormally. When treated in the pink or fully ripe stage with a dosage of 300 - 400 krad, however, tomatoes showed a beneficial extension of shelf life without undue harm to quality. Although not clearly stated by the authors, it appears that the extension is due to delayed incidence of storage rots.

The first interest in the application of irradiation in vegetable storage has been concerned with the possibilities of controlling sprouting in potatoes and onions. Very low doses - 5 to 15 krad - may give a very efficient inhibition of sprout growth. At the same time, however, there are risks for undesirable side-effects. For further details reference should be made to section 3.09, and 3.10.

3. COLD STORAGE OF SELECTED KINDS OF VEGETABLES.

3.01. Artichokes

Artichokes (true artichokes, globe artichokes) are edible buds, made up of a cone of short, thick-stemmed bracts. They should be harvested when they have reached their greatest size prior to the appearance of the floral parts.

The optimum storage temperature is -0.5° to 0°C with a relative humidity of 99 - 95%. Information about the storage life varies: some sources state that it is only a few weeks, while U.S. DEPT. AGRIC. (1968) maintains that artichokes should keep for at least 4 weeks in storage if initially uninjured buds are used and wilting is prevented.

Artichokes should be precooled to below 4°C soonest after harvesting.

Moisture loss and wilting may be retarded by packing the artichokes in perforated polyethylene films.

Preliminary experiments by VAN PRINDE et. al. (1966) indicate that artichokes may benefit from CO_2 -treatment (10% O_2 , 2% CO_2).

No experience is available about long range transportation of artichokes by ship. There appears, however, to be fair possibilities for developing a technique adequate for this purpose.

3.02. Aubergines (eggplants)

Aubergines intended for storage should be harvested when they have a dark purple colour and before they turn brown or yellow, i. e. they should be picked when still firm and immature (RAMSEY 1956, cit. acc. WARDLAW 1957).

The optimum storage temperature of aubergines is 7° to 10°C . Below 7°C they are subject to chilling injuries. These may take the form of surface scald or internal bruising. Aubergines that have been chilled are subject to decay by *Alternaria* when removed from storage.

Aubergines are not adapted to long storage. According to recent information from USA (U.S. DEPT. AGRIC. 1968) they cannot be expected to keep satisfactorily even at optimum temperature for more than about a week and still retain good condition during shipping. WARDLAW (1957), on the other hand, presents evidence indicating a somewhat longer storage life. Anyhow, transoceanic transport of aubergines hardly appears feasible with the technology presently known.

Aubergines are very liable to water loss and shrivelling during storage. Packaging in moisture retentive films may be helpful in this respect.

A review of storage diseases of aubergines is given by RAMSEY et. al. (1952)

3.03. Asparagus

Deterioration of asparagus in cold storage includes excessive wilting, elongation of the spears and opening up of the heads, rotting due to fungi or bacteria and general decline of quality. There is a definite increase in the amount of fibrous material, being most rapid immediately after harvesting. The formation of fibrous material is accelerated at high temperatures and to some extent arrested at low temperatures.

Asparagus deteriorates so rapidly as asparagus at ordinary temperatures. Therefore, asparagus should be precooled immediately after harvest. This is mostly done by hydrocooling.

Temperatures of 0° to 2°C are recommended and may give a storage life of 2 to 3 weeks, according to WARDLAW (1937) or even up to 7 weeks. According to SMITH (1961), AGRIC. (1966) asparagus is liable to chilling injury if kept at 0° or more than 10 days.

It is recommended that the butts of asparagus be placed on wet moss or other non-absorbent material during transit or storage to prevent loss of moisture and to maintain freshness of the spears. The use of moisture retentive packaging material has also been advocated.

There are indications that asparagus may benefit from CA-treatment. Thus, SMITH (1961), et al. (1936) found that asparagus exposed to early treatment with carbon dioxide (i.e. during cooling) showed improved appearance, keeping quality and flavor over untreated control lots. Storage of all-green asparagus in a chamber containing 3 - 10% CO₂ retards soft rot development (LIPTON

et al. 1963). Storage diseases of asparagus and their control is given by SMITH (1961) (bacterial rot not caused by Erwinia carotovora), which may be controlled either the tip or butt of the asparagus is the principal decay. It may be controlled by careful handling to avoid bruising, by rigid cooling of bruised spears, by rapid precooling and optimum storage temperature.

Asparagus is not cold stored for longer periods. It appears un-
economical, whether its economical storage life is sufficiently long to allow long distance transportation by other means than by air.

Carrots

For storage carrots are harvested when mature and after leaves have turned a slightly browned appearance. During harvest carrots are topped to remove green or top of the root. Careful handling during and after harvest and good handling, cutting and breakage will help insure successful storage. Removal of damaged carrots should be removed as they are particularly susceptible to some storage diseases.

Carrots may be stored in bulk, in crates or in pallet boxes. Generally the last mentioned methods are preferable. Good air circulation is important to maintain uniform temperatures. It also aids in preventing condensation.

The optimum storage temperature for carrots is 0°C. It is desirable that the carrots be precooled to this temperature sooner after harvesting.

Carrots lose moisture readily and wilting results. Therefore, humidity in storage should be kept high, but condensation or dripping on the carrots must be carefully avoided as this may lead to decay. In a recent study VAN DEN BERG & LENTZ (1966) found decay, weight loss and changes in quality to be less when the relative humidity was maintained at or near saturation (98 - 100%) than at 90 - 95%.

Carrots are well adapted to long storage. Under optimum conditions most varieties may be held 4 to 5 months.

Ethylene may induce abnormal metabolism in carrots, causing bitterness. Therefore due precautions must be taken to prevent ethylene contamination of the storage air. It has been reported that the bitterness may be removed by holding carrots at room temperature for a few days after removal from storage.

Carrots are attacked by a number of storage diseases, the most important of which are grey mold rot (*Botrytis cinerea*) and watery soft rot (*Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*). Control methods include careful handling, prompt cooling and optimum storage conditions. A pre-storage dip treatment of 0.1% sodium-o-phenylphenate solution has been found beneficial in reducing storage decay. For a detailed discussion of storage diseases in carrots see SMITH et. al. (1966).

The information given above applies to mature carrots. Immature carrots have a shorter storage life. They may keep for 4 to 6 weeks at 0°C, especially if topped, hydrocooled and packaged in polyethylene bags.

3.05 Celery

The optimum storage temperature for celery is 0°C. This is fairly close to the freezing point of celery, which is around -1°C and care must be taken that the temperature does not fall too low. Freezing injury is marked by a general loosening of the epidermis, evident on twisting as injured stem.

Relative humidity should be kept at a high level - 90 to 95% - in order to prevent wilting. The use of perforated polyethylene film crates or cartons provides an effective method to minimize moisture loss. However, the use of film liners is not widespread commercially, perhaps because of interference with precooling. Use of the jacket system (see BRIPPS, section 3.4.) has proven successful for celery storage in Canadian areas.

Celery should be pre-cooled soon after harvesting. Methods used are refrigerated forced air cooling, hydrocooling or vacuum cooling. Hydrocooling is stated to be the most common method and the temperature of the produce should be brought down to be near 0°C as possible. Vacuum cooling is widely used for celery packed in cartons for long distance shipment.

In storage of celery it is essential that good air circulation is maintained around crates or cartons. Otherwise there is danger of local overheating due to heat of respiration.

Some growth takes place in celery while in storage; the central stalks lengthen considerably. In most varieties also some blanching of the stalks occurs during storage.

Especially under unsuitable storage conditions celery is subject to attacks of watery soft rot and other storage diseases. Watery soft rot originates in the field and is caused by a fungus (*Sclerotinia* sp.) that is able to develop to an extent even at 0°C. For further information on storage diseases of celery reference should be made to SMITH et. al. (1966).

Celery should keep well for 2 to 3 months if stored under optimum conditions. Transocean transport by ship is easily feasible.

9.6. Cucumbers

Cucumbers should be harvested at frequent intervals to prevent them from becoming too large or overripe. They are very subject to mechanical injuries and to fungal and bacterial rotting. Care in handling is therefore of great importance. It has been observed (PLATENIUS et al. 1934) that small fruits are considerably more susceptible to disease injury than larger ones. In some instances, mature, fully grown cucumbers kept more than three times as long as immature ones of the same picking.

It has been found that the keeping quality of cucumbers varies considerably between varieties, from season to season and locality to locality. This may explain why differences in opinion have arisen as to the optimal storage conditions.

All authors agree that cucumbers are liable to chilling if kept at temperatures below 10°C or even 12.5°C. Symptoms of chilling are moisture saturated areas developing just below the surface. A few days later the whole area may become soft. In dry air the moisture saturated areas will become soft and this condition is referred to as pitting. Another important symptom of chilling is accelerated yellowing. Chilled cucumbers show increased susceptibility to decay.

The degree of chilling injury depends on the temperature and length of the storage period. Injury may or may not be apparent at the time of removal from storage. The length of time the cucumbers are retained after they have been removed from storage, exerts a strong influence upon symptom development.

WELAND (1966) reports that the sensitivity of cucumbers to chilling may vary considerably. He studied the influence of variety, conditioning and delayed cooling. The term conditioning refers to keeping the fruits for some time at a temperature just above the chilling range, while delayed cooling is the application of temperatures well above the chilling range. The results obtained indicate that all these factors can influence storage life at chilling temperatures. His studies WELAND found some interesting evidence of a correlation between respiratory intensity, level of ethylene production and sensitivity to chilling.

Recommendations as to the optimum storage temperature for cucumbers usually vary between 7°C to 12°C with an emphasis on 10°C (INT. INST. REFRIGERATION 1967; U.S. DEPT. AGRIC. 1968). The storage life in this temperature range is stated to be 1 to 2 weeks. However, sometimes the use of temperatures lower than 7°C has been advocated. There are also reports stating that a longer storage life may be obtained (cf. WARDLAW 1937).

Cucumbers are very susceptible to shriveling and therefore the humidity in storage should be kept high - preferably 90 - 95%. Wax is often applied to reduce water loss and improve appearance. A recommended practice is to use a paraffin-carnauba emulsion containing approximately 7% solids (BAKER & DALY 1962). Wrapping in moisture retentive film may be very beneficial and has in recent years come into extended use in several countries.

Yellowing of cucumbers is accelerated by ethylene. Therefore, all possibilities of ethylene influence on the fruits must be carefully excluded in storage and transportation. Modified atmospheres, particularly 5% O₂ and 5% CO₂, will retard yellowing (WELAND 1961).

The storage life of cucumbers is a little too short to allow safe transoceanic transportation by ship. It may be possible, however, to develop an improved technology creating better keeping properties. This might perhaps include CA-treatment.

3.07. Lettuce

Of the many different kinds of lettuce, only the iceberg variety of the head lettuce type is adapted to long time storage. Therefore, the discussion here will be confined to iceberg lettuce.

The optimum storage temperature for iceberg lettuce is as close to its freezing point as possible without risks for actual freezing. The recommended temperature is 0°C and as lettuce is easily damaged by freezing it is important that all parts of the storage room be kept above the highest freezing point of the produce (-0.2°C). The rate of respiration of lettuce is increased greatly with an increase in storage temperature throughout the temperature range from 0°C to 25°C, which results in a shortened storage life. At the higher temperature, thus, lettuce will keep about twice as long at 0°C as at 13.2°C.

High relative humidity in the store is essential for keeping the lettuce fresh. A relative humidity of 90-95% is recommended. Iceberg lettuce intended for long storage should be packed in suitable form, either as individual head wrapped as cartons or crates lined with polyethylene or other material around the produce and packing. Though, there are some serious moisture build-up problems in the store that favour decay. Films prepared of polyethylene, polypropylene, polyethylene and perforated polyvinyl chloride are used for this purpose. Among these polyethylenes, the most common is the low density polyethylene. Its main advantage is its moisture vapour permeability. The main disadvantage is its low strength. For long storage of iceberg lettuce, storage facilities should be made to fit the standards of FAO/WHO and IARC/US etc. (1961).

Rapid precooling of mature crop immediately after harvest is essential for an early optimum storage life and quality. Precooling lettuce by the traditional method of precooling in ice is too expensive and is not suitable for early marketing. A more rapid and expensive procedure of precooling in vacuum cooling was introduced and today practically all lettuce shipped from California and Arizona is vacuum cooled.

The use of vacuum cooling has made possible important changes in shipping and packaging methods. For example, wooden crates have been replaced by fiberboard boxes.

For vacuum cooling, lettuce previously washed to clear of soil and dirt is placed from which the air is exhausted. The procedure is as follows: pretreats including the lettuce by rinsing in a solution of water from the leaves. The lettuce is then to evacuate the tanks (one or two basins) and placed in a vacuum chamber with a barometric condensers and heater tanks. The total total pressure in the commercial vacuum cooling tanks is about 100 mm Hg. The precooling of lettuce, but some can hold two or three days at 4°C before the lettuce is expected to lose approximately 10% of its weight of water. The precooling at 6°C does not result in a water loss of more than 5%. The precooling at 8°C and above ventilated in a certain time and appears to be more effective. The water loss from the lettuce is about 10% after five vacuum cooling. For further information on vacuum cooling see IARC/WHO (1961-1962).

The optimum maturity at harvest depends to some extent on the demands on length of storage life.

Various criteria of picking maturity are discussed at length by WINTER and DAVIS (1967). The ripening of the available water content (e.g. by a hand refractometer) may provide useful guidance. For strawberries and some other types of malines a light microscope check of the joint where the leaf is attached to the stem is the best approach to maturity. When this area is completely white is the best time to harvest. When this area turns the maximum amount of water content can be harvested at the "fall rip" stage for local markets but must be harvested earlier if they are to be transported to distant markets.

Changes in color and size of fruit and other external signs of maturity, the rate of change, and the time of day, temperature, and humidity of the air are also important. Changes in color from green to gray to brown or yellow, the time of day of change, in relation to other ripening processes, etc. are all important.

The rate of ripening is affected by temperature, humidity, and maturity. It is not always possible to harvest at the optimum maturity because of weather conditions. The optimum maturity is required for harvest in the field.

Strawberries should be harvested when they are reaching their maximum size and are beginning to ripen. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions.

When the fruit is harvested at the optimum maturity, it will ripen more slowly and will have a longer shelf life. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions.

From the time of harvest to the time of consumption, the ripening process continues. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions.

Quality of strawberries is affected by the ripening process. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions.

During the ripening process, the fruit becomes softer and sweeter. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions. The ripening process may be affected by weather conditions.

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Onions

Discussion here refers only to the common onion (Allium cepa L.).

Use of refrigeration is essential for some varieties of onions; others can be in common storage for long periods provided the climatic conditions are not unfavourable. However, even for onions with excellent keeping qualities cold storage may offer practical and economical advantages, e.g. in tropical conditions or when very long storage is intended.

These studies have been made in many countries to determine the keeping qualities of various onion cultivars. These range from very poor to very good. The principal onion cultivars of USA have been investigated by MAGRUBER (1941), who found White Creole, Red Creole and Australian Brown to be the best keeping ones. Other varieties known to have excellent storage qualities are Giza No. 6 (Egypt), Tuhakohu Longkeeper (New Zealand) and Illanyrvy.

For store sell, an onion should mature normally. The neck should be covered by dried and shrunken leaves. "Bottle neck" onions have poor keeping properties.

When onions are placed in storage the tops are usually removed, and frequently the necks. Removal of the necks, especially if they are not dry, increases the risk of rot, where rot organisms can easily enter. Such necks should be carefully dried without delay. This drying procedure is essential for successful storage.

Onion rot is related to humidity, but rot seldom occurs during the storage period. In the south-western USA, (prevalently) rotting is easily and commonly observed in the field. Even under very dry conditions, however, rotting can occur to a moderate extent. It is recommended (MAGRUBER AND WATSON 1933) to circulate air at a rate of 100 ft per hour for each m² of storage space. A good skin colour without scalding, the circulating air must be at a temperature of 49° to 57° and at least 60% relative humidity. Temperatures above 57° and relative humidities above 70% produce good skin colour, but scalding. If air circulation is imperfect, the humidity of the circulation air temperature becomes too low during the process, but does not affect on good skin colour. There are no standards for determining when an onion is cured, but it appears to be that the process is complete when the neck is tight and several paper-bags are dry enough to rustle. Experience shows that onions have lost 10% of their weight when this condition is reached. After curing is complete the temperature of the onions must be lowered as quickly as possible.

Factors influencing the storage life of onions. Under all storage conditions, onions continually lose water and dry matter, but the more serious losses come from storage rot and from sprouting and rooting.

Optimum storage temperature for onions is 0°C. At this temperature they are dormant and reasonably free from decay for extended periods.

Onions are damaged by freezing, which may occur at temperatures below -1°C. There is considerable variation between individual onions in their reaction to frost. In some bulbs in a lot may freeze locally when they reach a temperature of -1°C and show severe injury upon thawing. Others may not be affected if they are frozen they may thaw out without injury. Onions affected

with freezing injury show watersoaked, grayish-yellow fleshy scales when cut. In slight freezing the outer fleshy scales alone are affected, but when the bulbs are exposed to low temperatures for a prolonged period the inner scales may also become watersoaked and discoloured. Onions only slightly frozen may recover with little perceptible injury if allowed to thaw slowly - preferably at a temperature around 5°C - and without handling.

Humidity has a decisive influence on the storage result. High humidity, especially when free water accumulates on the onions, can be disastrous. In a saturated atmosphere diseases spread rapidly, and a decaying bulb may cause infection of those surrounding it. High humidities favour rooting but have little influence on sprouting. On the other hand, water losses during storage increase with increasing vapour pressure deficit of the surrounding air. Generally a comparatively low relative humidity - 50 to 70 % - is recommended for onion storage. However, humidities as high as 85 % in combination with forced air circulation may give satisfactory results.

Condensation occurring on removal from cold storage may favour decay. Warming onions gradually should avoid this difficulty.

The most important microbial storage diseases of onions are bacterial soft rot (*Erwinia carotovora*) and gray mold rot (*Botrytis* spp.). Bacterial soft rot is controlled by careful handling and curing. Low temperature and low humidity in storage. The control of Botrytis neck rot depends largely on weather conditions during the maturing of the tops at the end of the growing period and on adequately curing the neck tissues after harvest. The storage temperature should be kept at 0°C and the relative humidity at 60 - 70 %. However, even the low temperature of 0°C will not completely prevent the development of the rot if one-onion non-infective infections at harvest occur.

Translucent scales is an important physiological disorder and occurs on onions grown in widely separated areas. It is a malady characterized by the grayish watersoaked appearance of a part or all of one or more fleshy scales giving them a translucent appearance. Affected scales may be also used in some cases. Seriously affected scales frequently develop a leathery crown color as viewed in cross section. Translucent scales was previously thought to occur to some extent in the field, but is now believed to develop only after harvest. Onions that show little or none of this disorder when removed to the storage room show an appreciable amount of translucent scales in the market. The cause of the disorder is not known. Evidence so far available indicates that for best control, onions should be stored promptly after they are cured, and cooled quickly and held at 0°C and 60 to 70 % relative humidity.

For a detailed discussion of storage and market diseases in onions reference should be made to SMITH et. al. (1962).

In recent years several chemicals have been tried to prevent or delay sprouting and rooting in stored onions. Of these maleic hydrazide (MH) has been found the most effective (PETERSON & WATSON 1953, COHEN 1961, ISENBERG & ANG 1963). MH should be applied to the field when plants are nearly mature and tops are beginning to fall. MH is beneficial not only on those cultivars that have a short storage life, but is also beneficial in extending the shelf life of good storage types after they have been removed from prolonged cold storage.

Radiation at low doses - about 8000 - 10000 rads - is also effective in the control of sprouting of onions. However, decay is not controlled by this type of dosage. Irradiation may cause discoloration of the internal growing points. (SMITH & SAWYER 1959).

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Under optimum conditions globe onions can be held in storage for 6 to 8 months, and with a sprout inhibiting treatment even longer. Some types have a considerably longer storage life. Long distance transportation of onions affords no particular difficulties provided the recommendations for optimum storage conditions are observed.

Potatoes

Over the world a potato crop is stored without the application of artificial refrigeration. Under certain conditions, e.g. tropical climate, very extended storage and special demands on quality, it is, however, an economical proposition and sometimes even a necessity to store potatoes under refrigeration.

The aims of efficient storage of potatoes are to avoid undesirable chemical changes and to minimize losses by water loss and by respiration, by sprout growth, by frost or high temperature injury and by diseases. The storage physiology of the potato is highly complicated and the literature on the subject is extensive. Here only the most important aspects can be briefly discussed.

The most important chemical changes in stored potato tubers are carbohydrate metabolism. In the tubers occur perpetual conversions of starch into sucrose, of one form of sugar into another, and of sugar into starch. These various conversions reach a state of balance or levels of the different substances which are determined in the first place by the storage conditions, particularly the temperature, but also by other factors such as maturity of tubers, variety and previous storage history.

On storage below 6° to 7°C there occurs a gradual accumulation of sugars in the potato. Both glucose and reducing sugars increase but not necessarily in the same proportions at different temperatures. The maximum values are reached after 6 - 8 weeks storage and may be 13 to 20 times higher in potatoes stored at 0°C as compared to tubers stored at 10°C.

Tubers which have become sweet at a low temperature may be desweetened by storage for about two weeks at a higher temperature, e.g. 15° to 20°C. The change involved in this process is the re-formation of starch from the sugars.

In addition to the increase in sugar content caused by exposure to low temperatures, the concentration of sugar exhibits an upward trend after prolonged storage at higher temperatures. This appears to be a symptom of senescence. The onset of sweetening starts earlier, and is more rapid, the higher the storage temperature. It has been suggested that sweetening is largely induced by the sprout growth. However, this relation is a small claim and has a causal connection, as sweetening occurs to a greater extent if sprouting is suppressed either chemically or by irradiation.

The rate of respiration of potato tubers depends to a great extent on the storage temperature. Over the range 5° to 25°C the respiration rate increases about 50% for every 10°C rise in the temperature. This relation can, however, not generally only obtain for a short period after the tubers have been placed at the various temperatures. During prolonged storage at different temperatures it is obscured by variations in other factors, such as the concentration of sugar, which affect the rate of respiration. As a result of this, respiration rate may well be as rapid as at 20°C.

There is a seasonal rhythm in the respiration, evident even if the temperature

is kept at a constant level during the entire storage period. Generally respiration is at a maximum during the two months following harvest; then it decreases to a lower constant level for some months and starts to increase again after 6 to 8 months of storage.

Respiration causes weight loss in storage. However, under normal conditions it does not account for more than about one tenth of the total physiological weight loss, the predominant part of which is water loss.

Water is lost from potato tubers by evaporation. The rate of loss from any particular sample of potatoes is proportional to the water vapour pressure deficit of the surrounding air. The loss under any given deficit is restricted by the periderm, which is comparatively impermeable to water vapour. Freshly harvested tubers lose water at a greater rate than later in the storage season. This is probably due to breaks in the periderm caused by the harvesting operations, which heal during storage. There may also be changes in the periderm during storage, which render it less permeable to water vapour.

The low rate of evaporation, which is established after the harvest has begun, is maintained until the root growth commences, whereupon it rises again. This is due to the fact that the surrounding air is saturated to a greater extent with water vapour than in the period of dormancy. A. H. G. (1931) has demonstrated a linear relationship between the percentage increase of tuber growth and the rate of water loss. In their experiments the loss of water was 0.05 g/m² per day at a vapour pressure deficit of 10 mm Hg V.P.D. (week⁻¹ at 10 mm Hg V.P.D.) and 0.10 g/m² per day at a deficit of 20 mm Hg V.P.D. (week⁻¹ at 20 mm Hg V.P.D.). The rate of water loss is proportional to the weight of tubers and to the vapour pressure deficit.

When sprouting commences, many of the tubers are in a state of dormancy. As demonstrated above water loss is a result of dormancy and sprouting ceases. Therefore, the control of sprouting has a decisive influence on the storage result.

The sprouting physiology of the potato is highly variable. In general, the tubers generally are in a dormant state until they are stored in a cool, dark place. Under such conditions, the tubers are dormant for a long period. After several months of storage, they begin to sprout, even when stored at low temperatures (see 50).

The most important factors influencing the period of dormancy are the variety of potato and the temperature of storage. There are, however, other factors normally of minor importance, such as the age of the tubers and the effect of light. The rate of sprouting is also influenced by the different varieties of potatoes. In general, the rate of sprouting is higher in older tubers and in certain varieties. The rate of sprouting is also influenced by the temperature of storage. The rate of sprouting is higher at higher temperatures.

Temperature. The rate of sprouting is influenced by the temperature of storage. The rate of sprouting is higher at higher temperatures. The rate of sprouting is also influenced by the variety of potato. The rate of sprouting is higher in older tubers and in certain varieties. The rate of sprouting is also influenced by the temperature of storage. The rate of sprouting is higher at higher temperatures.

... stored by storage at a higher temperature (say 10°C) could result in a shorter dormant period than continuous storage at the higher temperature.

... available data indicate that the influence of the climatic conditions during the growth of the tubers on the length of the dormant period is limited. ... evidence has been found, though, that tubers grown under short day conditions may sprout earlier than those grown under long days.

... points of from -1° to -2 °C) have been recorded for potato tubers. ... of freezing injury vary with the severity of exposure. Tubers which have been only slightly damaged may exhibit a blue-black discoloration ring ... More severe injury leads to a blue-black necrotic network ... In addition to necrosis in the vascular tissue, in the final stage of freezing injury the whole tuber when thawed becomes wet and soft. If ... they may be stored to ... their actual freezing ... indicates that tubers may be held, cooled to ... for 1 to 3 hours ...

... temperatures which are not low enough to freeze the ... has been determined as low temperature breakdown. ... blanches in the flesh of the tuber ...

... This ... of the ...

... of plants ...

... of water ... and ... the ... production of ...

is more readily achieved the lower the temperature of the air, because of the direct relationship between the water holding capacity of air and its temperature.

To sum up the storage requirements for table potatoes - temperature for short term storage 10°C and for prolonged storage 4° to 5°C, the lower temperature being used if uncontrolled sprout growth or rotting due to disease are likely to be major sources of loss. Storage at low temperatures should generally be preceded by 2 weeks or more of curing at 10°C or above. Humidity should be held as high as possible, bearing in mind the dangers of condensation. Unless the air is humidified to a water V. P. D. not exceeding 0.5 mm Hg air circulation should be restricted to the minimum which avoids overheating and too great a temperature scatter. The potatoes must on no account be wet as result of condensation or other factors. Light must be excluded to prevent greening.

The potato processing industry (chips, french fries, dehydrated potato products) in various respects puts special demands on the storage conditions for its raw material. Thus, especially for chips the content of reducing sugars must be held at a very low level. For potatoes destined for processing into chips a storage temperature of 10°C is recommended, often in combination with sprout inhibitors (see below). If reducing sugars do accumulate potatoes may be "cured" by exposure to 18° - 20°C for a week or longer. This procedure, however, is expensive and sometimes not effective for reasons not as yet fully understood. For further information on the storage of potatoes for industrial purposes should be made to FAO BUREAU & SMP (1967).

In some respects the storage requirements for seed potatoes are the same as for table potatoes, e.g. in the avoidance of disease and excessive shrinkage. A number of additional considerations, however, must be taken into account in the storage of seed potatoes. These concern the ways - often characteristic of a variety - in which storage conditions may influence the subsequent behaviour and yield of the seed. The problem of choosing the optimum storage conditions for seed potatoes is highly complicated, the choice being influenced by a large number of factors including, in addition to variety growing conditions, intended utilization of the harvest etc. It cannot be discussed here; for further information see BURTON (1966), who gives a number of additional references.

After 2 to 3 months' storage sprouting can be expected in potatoes stored at temperatures above 5°C. With increasing sprouting storage losses, particularly of carbohydrate, increase steeply. This has prompted the development of sprout inhibitors (chemicals), which are today used commercially to an important extent in many parts of the world. One of these, maleic hydrazide, is applied directly to the potato foliage. Plants must be actively growing in order that the inhibitor can be translocated from the foliage to the tuber. This is one of the advantages of maleic hydrazide, as the maturation of the crop must be completed before the tuber stage. Isocyanoyl-N-t-butylcarbamate (CIPC) is probably the most widely used inhibitor and is available in the United States. It is a stronger inhibitor, however, and in the sprout inhibition field, inhibition is more complete with no sprouts developing under ideal application conditions. It is usually applied as a water dilution as a dust or preferably as an emulsion. Treatment residues do not persist in formation and should not be regarded as a health hazard. In the United Kingdom the use of nonalol has been approved as a temporary measure applied directly to the stored potatoes by evaporating the solution into the atmosphere of the store. For further information on the use of sprout inhibitors reference should be made to BURTON (1966).

Irradiation may be considered as an alternative to chemical sprout inhibition. Commercial control of sprouting can be attained with most varieties at dosages between 5000 and 10000 rad. Detrimental effects may occur, e. g. increased rotting, increased incidence of after cooking darkening and inhibition of young periderm formation, but are generally not serious at the very low dosages recommended. At least at present it appears doubtful, whether irradiation may compete economically with chemical treatments.

The technology of potato storage without the use of artificial refrigeration is highly variable and must be adapted to local conditions. It will not be discussed here; a vast literature is available.

Each of the information necessary in considering refrigerated storage of potatoes has already been given above. This applies e. g. to desirable holding temperatures, the minimum safe temperature and the desirable air humidity. Only a few additional points should be discussed here. On the grounds of maintaining a high humidity in the refrigerating air, and also of avoiding some of the potatoes being at too low a temperature it is preferable to use a refrigerating plant with a large area heat exchanger. This should deliver air almost continuously through the tubers, at a temperature not lower than 1°C below the potato temperature. Alternatively a system may be adapted whereby much colder air is fed into the humid recirculated storage air. The question of desirable rate of air circulation has been the subject of much controversy, and discussed at length by BOKTON (1966), who concludes that in bulk storage an air circulation rate of 50 - 60 m³ per ton and hour will give an acceptable matter of temperature within the stack. Much higher figures than this are quoted in the literature but may lead to excessive losses through evaporation.

In refrigerated houses potatoes may be stored in bulk, in bags or in pallet boxes. The latter method may cause pressure bruises and internal black spot.

Under optimum storage conditions potatoes of good quality will keep for very long periods - 8 months or even longer. Long transportation offers no serious difficulties provided adequate facilities are available.

3.11. Radishes

Only spring radishes are considered here. Bunched radishes have a relatively short storage life because of the perishability of the tops. They can be held at 0°C and a relative humidity of 90 - 95% for 1 to 2 weeks.

Topped radishes are more interesting from the storage point of view. They are generally packed in plastic bags, which prolongs the storage life considerably. Rapid precooling is important, hydrocooling being the preferable method. Black spot is reduced by washing radishes in ethylene treated water. Topped and prepacked radishes can readily be held in 20% packs at 0°C. For such radishes transoceanic transport by ship may be feasible.

3.12. Sweet peppers

Sweet peppers are liable to chilling injury at temperatures below 7°C. At temperatures of 0°C to 2°C they usually develop pitting in a few days. Peppers held at low temperature long enough to cause serious chilling injury generally also develop numerous lesions of alternate rot. Alternaria causes mould and decay of the calyx. Temperatures below 4°C also predispose peppers to attacks of Perizyma. For further information on storage diseases reference should be made to N. C. HILL (HILL 1966).

temperatures above 10°C ripening proceeds rapidly. Attacks of bacterial rot are also stimulated in this temperature range.

General recommendation for the cold storage of sweet peppers is to use a storage temperature of 7° to 10°C (U.S. DEPT. AGRIC. 1968, INT. INST. REFRIGERATION 1987). According to these sources peppers could not be stored longer than 2 to 3 weeks even under the most favourable conditions. However, in spite of the evidence regarding chilling damages referred to above, the authors (cf. WARDLAW 1937) recommend storage at 0°C and indicate that this temperature may give the longest storage life - up to 6 or 7 weeks. On the opposite extreme PUSIKA & SRIVASTAVA (1983) report from studies that 11° to 13°C to be the optimum storage temperature.

The storage life of sweet peppers may be prolonged with about a week by pre-wrapping in moisture-retentive films, e.g. polyethylene. Beneficial effects may also be obtained by waxing. Not only is shrinkage reduced but also shuffling is prevented. Only a thin coating should be applied (for details see HARTMAN & SHIBRO 1955).

Though sweet peppers are not ideally adapted to long time storage, it appears to be possible to reach to develop methods allowing transoceanic ship transportation of the commodity.

Sweet potatoes

Usually, sweet potatoes are stored in non-refrigerated ware houses. The practice of refrigeration, however, is advisable in all cases when ventilation will not maintain low enough temperatures.

The requirements for successful storage of sweet potatoes include sanitary ware houses, avoidance of low temperature injury prior to harvesting and post-harvest, careful handling, exclusion of disease factors, thorough curing, regular inspection and observation of correct conditions of temperature and humidity (WARDLAW 1937).

The skin of sweet potatoes is delicate and easily broken. Wounds in the skin are favourable for entry of organisms. Therefore, a great care should be exercised during harvesting and handling operations to keep wounding and bruising at a minimum.

Though most of the important varieties of sweet potato can be stored successfully, some are consistently less subject to shrinkage and decay than others.

Sweet potatoes are usually stored in slatted crates or barrel baskets. Palletization, unit crates and use of pallet boxes facilitate handling (SALCH & KUSHMAN 1957).

On entering on a prolonged period of cold storage, it is important that all external wounds should be adequately protected from the environment to prevent the development of wound cork. A preliminary curing procedure provide the optimum conditions for cork formation, i.e. high relative humidity and low temperature. Cork formation proceeds most rapidly at temperatures between 15°C and 20°C and a relative humidity of 95-100%. Under these conditions, cork formation begins within two days and is completed within 7-10 days. The curing process should be completed at high relative temperatures with the relative humidity being maintained at 95-100%. The curing process should not be delayed more than two days after harvesting.

After curing the temperature should be reduced to 13° - 15°C. The relative humidity should remain at 85 - 90 % during storage. Most varieties will be satisfactory for 4 to 5 months under these conditions. Weight loss of 2 - 5 % can be expected during curing and about 2 % per month during subsequent storage (MINGES & MORRIS 1953).

Sweet potatoes are subject to chilling if exposed to temperatures below 13°C. Slight injury, indicated by the appearance of internal discoloration, has been observed after an exposure of 10 days at 0°C and after 29 days at 4.4°C. In addition to internal discoloration symptoms of chilling include increased susceptibility to decay, internal breakdown and off-flavours when cooked.

Storage temperatures above 15°C stimulate development of sprouting and may cause internal breakdown.

Several microorganisms are responsible for production of diseases of sweet potatoes in the field and during subsequent storage, others are only storage pathogens. In attempting to control wastage in storage attention must be given to the possibility of the introduction of microorganisms on infected material to establish a storage rotting harvesting and handling operations and to providing suitable storage conditions. Sweet potatoes may be treated with fungicides to reduce rotting and moulding (KUSIMM *et al.* 1953).

There appears to be no large difficulties involved in transportation of sweet potatoes provided proper storage conditions of temperature and humidity can be maintained.

3.14. Tomatoes

There is a great number of commercial varieties of tomatoes with wide range of variation in size, shape, colour and consistency. In respect of the characters significant but varying differences are to be found in the products of different countries. It is important to note that no considerable differences have been found between different varieties grown under the same conditions as to response to storage temperature (VIRRELL 1954).

The demand for tomatoes is maintained all the year round and long distance transport of this vegetable is common. It is essential to know the storage conditions under which the tomato is grown and harvested are many and varied. This also applies to transport and marketing.

According to size of fruit, the seed length, the number of lobes, and shape, may be harvested when a wide range of maturity is reached. Green tomatoes are usually colourless but may be green for a long time and may grow to large size. Green tomatoes are subject to rotting and may be of various sizes. Small differences in colour and shape may be due to the maturity of the fruit to pick a well standardised size and shape of fruit of the desired maturity.

The harvesting of green tomatoes must be carried out in a very careful manner slowly and abnormally slow tend to produce a high percentage of fruit in a poor condition.

It is generally assumed that tomatoes are picked when the vine are mature in day to those picked at night. It is possible to pick tomatoes when the vine are locally green. However, it is generally assumed when a tomato is picked, to be picked green and transported long distances.

... are delicate and must be handled very carefully at all stages from
to packing. Attention to packing shed sanitation and the immediate
... of all diseased, cracked or bruised fruits are important in the
... of wastage.

They repeatedly cross tomatoes introduced by the export WARELAW & MCGUIRE
... mean that the time between harvesting and reaching the temper-
... should be as brief as possible. This not only decreases the
... of ripening and ripening at high temperatures, but fungal pathogens more
... could.

W. A. MCGUIRE (1931) have also studied the operation of the effect of
... cold packs to tropical temperatures during transfer from a processing
... to the ship's hold. They found that exposure for 4 hours at 27° - 30°C
... cold storage packs, previously held at 7°C, resulted in as possible
... of the subsequent storage life. During the period of expo-
... cold, there was a marked increase in the amount of water within the
... and the total mass. Three of the four samples tested in the
... cold pack, which had been stored at 7°C, showed a marked increase in
... weight, and the total mass of the fruit was increased. In order to avoid
... of the fruit, it is suggested that the use of cold packs may
... be used to maintain the fruit at a low temperature.

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Among the physiological disorders befalling tomatoes in storage chilling is the most important one. Some symptoms of chilling injury have already been mentioned but it appears warranted to give a fuller account of this subject. Generally, chilling injury cannot be detected immediately upon removal from the temperature. It does not become apparent until the tomatoes have been in a warmer temperature for 2 or 3 days. At that time tomatoes that have been severely chilled have a dull, lifeless pitted appearance and feel rubbery to the touch. The internal symptoms are a watery, but not toothy, appearance of the tissues and a slightly fermented odor. Alternaria rot in a pattern around the stem scar and in the form of numerous small lesions over the surface usually accompanies chilling injury. TOMKINS (1965) has made an interesting analysis of the relation between true physiological injury and secondary micro-infections in chilling of tomatoes.

Tomatoes is subject to a great number of microbial storage diseases. Of the importance among these are Alternaria rot (*Alternaria tenuis*), bacterial rot (*Erwinia carotovora*), Fusarium rot (*Fusarium* sp.), grey mold rot (*Botrytis cinerea*) and Phoma rot (*Phoma destruens*). Control measures vary according to the measures in the field, gentle handling and proper storage conditions. TOMKINS (1963) obtained promising results in control of storage diseases of glasshouse tomatoes by the use of wraps impregnated with calcium hypochlorite. The wraps were effective even at 10°C. The tomatoes were free from storage rot and

in full account of storage diseases of tomatoes and their control reference should be made to LAMBETH et al. (1962)

It is due to a lack of extensive research the storage physiology of the tomato is not as well known. The influence of storage conditions is complicated by the fact that the response is markedly different in different varieties. Tomatoes from the same variety stored in different conditions. There appears to exist a stability of the response to storage conditions following more extended storage with the same variety. It is not clear whether more extended transportation, such as by air or sea, will be a more warranted consideration.

In order to establish the physiological conditions tomatoes become least sensitive to storage from the temperatures towards ripening.

In establishing the possible beneficial effects of CA-treatment

possibly the possible benefit of a "dynamic temperature" storage technique. The idea here is to use the low ethylene sensitive temperature for storage of green tomatoes and then allowing them to ripen naturally as slowly as possible and then to store at the temperature close to 0°C for the fully ripe tomatoes. A combination with controlled atmosphere appears worthy of consideration.

With reference to transport by ship in the cold sense of the world is hardly to be considered. As indicated, means might be found in the future to

Watermelons

Marketing high quality watermelons is the correct determination. Several methods have been suggested for determining the best ripeness, these are reviewed by WHITACRETT & DAVIS (1962). According to the authors the most reliable field test for ripening maturity is a change in the color of the rind, especially on the part of the melon that is in contact

with the ground - the so called "ground spot". At maturity, the background colour of the rind on this part of the melon changes from greenish white to pale yellow. It is stressed that considerable experience is necessary to harvest watermelons successfully.

Watermelons are not adapted to long storage. At low temperatures they are subject to various forms of chilling injury, while at high temperatures decay limits the storage life. A storage temperature of 9° to 10°C may be regarded as a good compromise. In this range watermelons should keep for 2 - 3 weeks. However, a report from the U. S. S. R. (USATJIR, 1958) indicates that suitable varieties can be kept up to 3 months at 3° to 4°C.

Watermelons lose red colour at low temperatures, even at 10°C, while at 21°C colour is intensified. They decay less at 0°C than at 4°C but tend to become pitted and get an objectionable flavour after 1 week at 0°C.

Flavour of watermelons may be improved by holding them for 7 days at room temperatures.

Attempts to organize long range transport and marketing of watermelons will obviously meet with considerable difficulties.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

1. Packing

Methods in packing of fresh fruits are reviewed in FRUITS, section 6. Much of the general information given there applies to vegetables also but a few special aspects will be considered here.

The traditional packages for most vegetables are bags and wooden cases. Developments in package performance are, however, progressing due to a number of factors such as longer shipping distances, new methods of selling and of transportation and higher requirements on product quality. The use of cartons offers attractive possibilities for packaging improvement for a number of vegetables. It is of importance in this connection that the introduction of vacuum cooling has made possible the use of cartons for products traditionally precooled with ice, e.g. lettuce.

The production of tray-pack or cell-pack cartons has more or less revolutionized the packing of apples and pears. It appears well worth to study the possibilities of applying such types of packages also to some kinds of vegetables, e.g. the first place tomatoes, possibly also green peppers and others.

The use of moisture retentive wrappers is beneficial - in some cases even indispensable - for many vegetables. An example is the wrapping of cauliflower in poly-film, which was introduced in the market some years ago, and is considered by the retail trade to be one of the most successful innovations since the introduction of plastic bags.

For some vegetables, e.g. potatoes and onions, bulk bins (trucks) have developed as an alternative to traditional methods of packing for transport and transportation. Thus, bulk bins holding 400-500 kg. are normally used for potatoes for storage and delivery to the consumer as well as seed potatoes.

2. Transport

Methods of transport of fresh fruits by land, by sea and by air are discussed in FRUITS, section 7. The information given there applies to vegetables as well.

A number of the vegetables treated in this report appeared to offer possibilities for air cargo. Presently only small quantities of iceberg lettuce are carried from USA to Europe. Also artichokes, asparagus, cucumbers, eggplants, and peppers and tomatoes may under certain conditions be profitably carried by air.

Some of the vegetables discussed here, e.g. green peppers and sweet potatoes, with a very long storage life, may be sometimes transported over the ocean without application of refrigeration (see Report 10). This practice, however, as far from ideal as it is, will in the future probably be replaced by the more modern controlled temperature cooling.

3. Marketing

Aspects in marketing of fresh fruits are discussed in FRUITS, section 8. It is recommended that this is studied in connection with the present paper, as much of the information given in FRUITS is relevant to vegetables also.

As with fruits standardized and improved product quality is essential in any scheme for developing the marketing of fresh vegetables. The importance of variety is extremely important and full consideration should be given to the possibilities

of breeding new varieties better adapted to mechanized production and with quality characteristics entirely corresponding to the demands of the national market.

The establishment of official norms for planting density, grading, quality standards, packaging, etc. is an important and indispensable task for developing the vegetable industry as well as the fruit industry. Such norms must be based on local research and experience and an assessment is made of the conditions that must be given to the demands of mechanized export markets.

Adequate transport facilities between production areas and markets are indispensable for increasing production and rationalization of the vegetable industry. A further task, generally in the establishment of packing plants, which, only in cases and in specific examples, is processing, cold storage, grading, packing, etc.

There is a need for a study of the existing and proposed systems of production and distribution of vegetables. This study should be carried out in accordance with the following principles: 1. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 2. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 3. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 4. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 5. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 6. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 7. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 8. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 9. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market. 10. The study should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the national economy and the needs of the national market.





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