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1    **Highlights**

- 2        • Washing with chemical agents gave the highest reduction for bacteria and MNV-1.  
3        • DUVC treatment was the lowest effective technology for pathogenic microorganisms.  
4        • For bacteria, there was a sharp decline in the first 3 days of frozen storage.  
5        • After 90 days, bacteria were not detected on the samples treated with washing treatments.  
6        • MNV-1 was little affected by freezing after 180 days of frozen storage at -25 °C.

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8 **An innovative water-assisted UV-C disinfection system to improve the safety of**  
9 **strawberries frozen under cryogenic conditions**

10  
11 Ortiz-Solà<sup>1</sup>, J., Viñas<sup>1\*</sup>, I., Aguiló-Aguayo<sup>2</sup>, I., Bobo<sup>2</sup>, G., Abadias<sup>2\*</sup>, M.

12 <sup>1</sup>Universitat de Lleida. Food Technology Department, AGROTECNIO-CERCA Center. Rovira  
13 Roure 191, 25198 Lleida.

14 <sup>2</sup>IRTA, Postharvest Programme. Edifici Fruitcentre, Parc Científic i Tecnològic Agroalimentari  
15 de Lleida, Parc de Gardeny, 25003 Lleida, Catalonia, Spain.

16 \* Corresponding autor: M. Abadias ([isabel.abadias@irta.cat](mailto:isabel.abadias@irta.cat)), I. Viñas  
17 ([inmaculada.vinas@udl.cat](mailto:inmaculada.vinas@udl.cat))

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31 **Abstract**

32 Strawberries inoculated with *Salmonella enterica*, *Listeria monocytogenes* ( $10^8$  CFU/mL, 50  $\mu$ L) and  
33 murine norovirus (MNV-1;  $10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL, 50  $\mu$ L), were washed for 2 min in a water-assisted UV-C light  
34 tank (WUVC) combined or not with 40 mg/L of peracetic acid (WUVC+PA), and 200 mg/L of free chlorine  
35 solution (NaClO) with the UV-C lamps switched off. Moreover, a ‘conventional’ dry UV-C treatment  
36 (DUVC) was also tested. After 2-min exposure, washing sanitization with chemical agents gave the highest  
37 reduction for both bacteria (ca.  $\geq 3.3$  log CFU/g) and MNV-1 ( $\geq 1.8$  log TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL). DUVC treatment  
38 proved to be the least effective technology ( $\leq 0.6$  log CFU/g for bacteria and 1.5 log TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL for MNV-  
39 1). Regarding wash water, no presence of *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica* were reported with WUVC+PA  
40 and NaClO sanitization. After disinfection, samples were frozen at  $-70 \pm 2$  °C in a cryogenic freezing  
41 cabinet with liquid nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>). For both pathogens, frozen storage after washing substantially enhanced  
42 their inactivation in the first 3 days (1.1-4.9 log UFC/g) compared to the reductions obtained the following  
43 sampling points (0.0-0.8 log UFC/g). After 90 days, *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica* were not detected  
44 on the samples treated with water-assisted methodologies (WUVC, WUVC+PA and NaClO treatments),  
45 whilst MNV-1 was little affected. Further studies are needed to improve norovirus inactivation on frozen  
46 strawberries.

47 **Industrial relevance.** The present work provides relevant information to the frozen food industry regarding  
48 a suitable decontamination alternative to chlorine sanitation. Low-dose immersion-assisted UV-C allows  
49 inactivation and inhibition of pathogenic microbiota while generates non-toxic byproducts and allows  
50 reusing the process water, contributing to the so-called “smart green growth” attended to provide a more  
51 innovative and sustainable future for the food industry.

52

53 *Keywords:* shelf-life, storage temperature, *Salmonella*, *L. monocytogenes*, Norovirus

## 54        **1. Introduction**

55        The consumption of fruits and vegetables has increased worldwide, driven mainly by the changes  
56        in the life habits of people due to a growing concern for maintaining a more balanced diet (FAO,  
57        n.d; Fruitlogistica, 2020). For that reason, the consumption interests of European consumers have  
58        increased the demand of fruits such as strawberries, focused in the increasingly aware of their  
59        health benefits, rich in antioxidants and other biochemical compounds, which have been  
60        correlated to a reduced risk of heart problems and cancer disease (Battino et al., 2017; Giamperi  
61        et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014). However, their elevated water content (ca. 90%) and high level  
62        of respiration make them vulnerable to microbial growth, mainly spoilage moulds, which results  
63        in a short shelf-life (1-2 days at room temperature) (Samadi et al., 2017; Tournas et al., 2006;  
64        Wright and Kader, 1997). Therefore, strawberries are widely used in the food industry as an  
65        ingredient in other food products or principally as a frozen fruit in many regions of Europe,  
66        preventing its highly deterioration by microbial infection, with the availability to consume this  
67        product year-round (Haffner, 2002). Indeed, total production of frozen berries has been gradually  
68        increasing since 2015, with Europe being the largest market for frozen strawberries in the world,  
69        probably due to the popularity of healthy breakfast option (such as smoothies) (Dira, 2016). In  
70        2017, it has been reported that the European consumers purchased around 1.2 tons of strawberries  
71        per year, being Spain in the 2nd place of the top-5 producers of frozen strawberries in Europe  
72        (CBI, 2019).

73        Even though frozen strawberries are very attractive for the consumers (Janowicz et al., 2007),  
74        they have been linked to human norovirus and hepatitis A virus (HAV) foodborne disease  
75        outbreaks around the world in recent years (Baert et al., 2011; Bernard et al., 2014; Hjertqvist et  
76        al., 2006; Le Guyader et al., 2004; Maunula et al., 2009; Sarvikivi et al., 2012; Severi et al., 2015).  
77        In 2012, frozen strawberries were implicated in large-scale outbreaks of human norovirus and  
78        HAV. Approximately 11,000 people in Germany were affected by human norovirus  
79        gastroenteritis originated by frozen strawberries imported from China (Mäde et al., 2013) while  
80        HAV in frozen mixed berries (including strawberries) from various countries (Canada, Bulgaria,

81 Serbia and Poland) was linked to an increase in cases in Northern Italy (Rizzo et al., 2013).  
82 Moreover, at least 22 notifications related to the presence of viruses on berries have been reported  
83 since 2018 in the RASFF portal (RASFF, 2021). Last mentioned bibliography and recent  
84 publications clearly show that these viruses can survive and remain infectious after freezing  
85 conditions, remaining viable for periods exceeding the shelf-life of products (Bozkurt et al., 2020;  
86 Butot et al., 2008; Tavoschi et al., 2015). Survival of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, *Salmonella* spp.,  
87 and *Listeria monocytogenes* were also plausible on strawberries during refrigeration, and frozen  
88 storage for at least one month (Flessa et al. 2005; Han et al. 2004; Knudsen et al. 2001; Yu et al.  
89 2001). For this reason, even though low temperatures minimize the respiratory rate in fruits, and  
90 the growth of pathogenic bacteria microorganisms, it is not considered as an effective mitigation  
91 strategy for enteric viruses on berries (Butot et al., 2018). This problematic has led to scientists  
92 and industries to find problem-solving approaches, mainly focused on introducing disinfection  
93 and sanitizing methods and preservation procedures in fruit produce workflow that sufficiently  
94 reduce levels of potential microbial contaminants, previous to frozen storage (Leistner, 2000).  
95 Indeed, some berries (strawberries and blueberries) picked for frozen processing are usually  
96 hulled in the field, transported to the processing facility, and washed with sodium hypochlorite  
97 (NaClO) solutions (50 to 200 ppm) to remove debris (e.g., twigs and rocks) with subsequent  
98 frozen storage, improving the advantages of freezing over refrigeration in terms of food safety  
99 and the extension of the fruit shelf-life (Bridges et al., 2019).

100 However, due to concerns regarding consumer and environmental safety of chlorinated washes,  
101 alternative methodologies have become research focuses (Collazo et al., 2018; Goodburn et al.,  
102 2013). Other authors have studied the combination of alternative disinfectants (chloride dioxide,  
103 lactic acid and ozone) with freezing for the reduction of *Salmonella*, *L. monocytogenes* and *E. coli*  
104 on blueberries (Bridges et al. 2019; Tadepalli et al., 2018). Previously, our research group has  
105 studied the efficacy of a water-assisted short-wave ultraviolet (WUVC) technology, alone or  
106 combined with peracetic acid (PA), for the reduction of natural microbiota, *L. monocytogenes* and  
107 *S. enterica* in fresh strawberries (Nicolau-Lapeña et al., 2020; Ortiz-Solà et al., 2020; Ortiz-Solà

108 et al., 2021), obtaining promising results and maintaining the fruit quality. To our knowledge, this  
109 combination technology has not been previously tested against enteric viruses on frozen  
110 strawberry produce.

111 Since the available information of enteric virus and foodborne bacteria survival on frozen  
112 produce, and the efficacy of the implementation of a washing step of current commercial  
113 processes for their removal or inactivation are still lacking, the aims of the present study were (i)  
114 to evaluate the efficacy of the combination of WUVC and PA coupled with an additional freezing  
115 step using a cryogenic cabinet freezer operated with nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), and (ii) determine the survival  
116 of *Salmonella enterica*, *Listeria monocytogenes* and murine norovirus (MNV-1), a human  
117 norovirus surrogate, on strawberries throughout one-year shelf-life at  
118 frozen storage (-25 °C).

119

## 120 2. Materials and methods

### 121 2.1. Fruit

122 Fresh strawberries (*Fragaria × ananassa*) were obtained from local providers in Lleida  
123 (Catalonia, Spain). Fruits were kept in trays overnight in air in the refrigerator (ERC-65, Infrico,  
124 Córdoba, Spain) at  $4 \pm 1$  °C until use. Before the experiment, the peduncle of the fruit was carefully  
125 removed by hand. Only intact, healthy and same-sized (approximately 25 g) strawberries were  
126 selected.

### 127 2.2. Microbial strains, culture conditions and fruit inoculation

128 In the present study, a cocktail of five *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* strains: Agona (ATCC  
129 BAA-707; American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, USA), Michigan (ATCC BAA-709),  
130 Montevideo (ATCC BAA-710), Gaminara (ATCC BAA-711) and Enteritidis (CECT-4300;  
131 *Colección Española de Cultivos Tipo*, Burjassot, Spain), and five *Listeria monocytogenes* strains:  
132 serovar 1a (CECT-4031), serovar 3a (CECT-933); serovar 4d (CECT-940), serovar 4b (CECT-  
133 4032) and serovar 1/2a, which was previously isolated in our laboratory from a fresh-cut lettuce  
134 sample (Abadias et al., 2008), were used. *S. enterica* strains were grown individually in tryptone  
135 soy broth (TSB, Biokar Diagnostics, France) medium for 20-24 h at  $37 \pm 1$  °C. *L. monocytogenes*  
136 strains were grown individually in TSB supplemented with 6 g/L of yeast extract (tryptone yeast  
137 extract soy broth, TSBYE) for 20-24 h at  $37 \pm 1$  °C. Bacterial cells were harvested by  
138 centrifugation at  $9800 \times g$ , 10 min at 10 °C. Identical content of the five *S. enterica* and  
139 *L. monocytogenes* were mixed to obtain a single suspension of *S. enterica* five-strain cocktail and  
140 *L. monocytogenes* five-strain cocktail.

141 The day before the experiment, fresh strawberries were inoculated with a suspension containing  
142  $10^8$  CFU/mL of *L. monocytogenes* or *S. enterica* inoculum by pipetting 50 µL in small droplets  
143 on the fruit surface. Once dried (1-2 h at room temperature), strawberries were stored at  $4 \pm 1$  °C  
144 overnight. Inoculum concentration was confirmed by plating appropriate dilutions onto XLD  
145 (Xylose-Lysine-Desoxycholate Agar, Biokar Diagnostics) for *Salmonella*, and onto PALCAM



146 agar (PALCAM Agar Base with selective supplement, Biokar Diagnostics) for *L. monocytogenes*.  
147 The plates were incubated at  $37 \pm 1$  °C for ca. 24 h for *Salmonella* and ca. 48 h for *L.*  
148 *monocytogenes*.

149 For the virus assay, murine norovirus (MNV-1), a human norovirus surrogate, was assessed.  
150 MNV-1 stocks were propagated at murine macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 (kindly provided by  
151 Prof. H. W. Virgin (Washington University School of Medicine, US)). Briefly, semi-purified  
152 MNV-1 virus was harvested 2 days after infection by three freeze-thaw cycles of infected cells  
153 followed by centrifugation at  $660 \times g$  for 30 min to remove cell debris. RAW 264.7 cells were  
154 cultured in DMEM supplemented as described in Ortiz-Solà et al. (2020) and maintained at  $37 \pm$   
155  $1$  °C in a 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> humidified incubator (NU-4950, NuAire, USA) in T175 flasks (Nunc, Thermo  
156 Fisher, USA) with 85 % of relative humidity (RH).

157 Infectious viruses were enumerated by determining the 50 % tissue culture infectious dose  
158 (TCID<sub>50</sub>) with eight wells per dilution and 20 µL of inoculum per well using the Spearman-Kärber  
159 method (Pinto et al., 1994). Stocks of MNV-1 (1 mL) were frozen until use (-80 °C). Frozen  
160 stocks were thawed and diluted one logarithmic unit ( $2.8 \times 10^7$  tissue culture infective dose  
161 TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL) with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; ThermoFisher, US). Inoculation was done also  
162 as described above; fruits were allowed to dry and used the same day of inoculation.

163 Prior to the experiments, the initial concentration of *S. enterica*, *L. monocytogenes* and MNV-1  
164 in the suspensions was checked as explained below.

## 165 **2.3. Strawberry disinfection**

### 166 **2.3.1. UV-C water-assisted tank equipment**

167 All washing treatments were conducted in the UV-C water-assisted (WUVC) laboratory scale  
168 equipment LAB-UVC-Gama (UV-Consulting Peschl, Castellón, Spain) equipped with 4 UV-C  
169 lamps (17.2 W), an aeration and recirculation system already described in Ortiz-Solà et al. (2020).  
170 Before and after each disinfection treatment, the temperature of water was measured using an  
171 infrared thermometer DualTemp Pro (Labprocess distribuciones, Barcelona, Spain) and the

172 irradiance was measured through an orifice located in the lid of the equipment using a UV-sensor  
173 EasyH1 (Peschl Ultraviolet, Mainz, Germany).

### 174 **2.3.2. Sanitizing treatments**

175 For each sanitization treatment, 20 strawberries (25-g each, approximately) were used. Samples  
176 were washed for 2 min using the WUVC equipment in combination with 40-mg/L (ppm) peracetic  
177 acid (PA) (WUVC+PA), since previous work reported that this combination significantly reduced  
178 pathogenic microorganisms on strawberries (Nicolau-Lapeña et al., 2020). Moreover, WUVC  
179 alone and 200 ppm of sodium hypochlorite (NaClO) (pH 6.5) were also added as control  
180 treatments in the same equipment commented above. For WUVC and WUVC+PA treatments,  
181 lamps were preheated during 10 min until an irradiance of  $10.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ W/m}^2$  was achieved. The  
182 tank was filled with 12 L of cold tap water ( $8 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) with or without PA and recirculation and  
183 aeration system were switched on. Treatment time was set up for 2 min, corresponding to an  
184 irradiation dose of  $1.3 \text{ kJ/m}^2$ . For NaClO treatment, the process was set up at the same conditions  
185 except that the lamps were switched off. After NaClO treatment strawberries were rinsed in tap  
186 cold water for 2 min to eliminate any residual. The free chlorine concentration was checked with  
187 an ion specific meter Hanna Instruments HI 95734-11 (Rhode Island, US) and PA concentration  
188 was determined by iodometric titration with potassium permanganate and sodium hydroxide  
189 (NaOH) 2M (Panreac AppliChem, Barcelona, Spain). Furthermore, pH and ORP (Oxidation  
190 Reduction Potential) values were measured using pH meter (Crison GLP-22, Barcelona, Spain).  
191 After the washing treatments, strawberries were let at room temperature to drain the excess of  
192 water (1-2 h at  $22^\circ\text{C}$ ).

193 Moreover, one-sided dry UV-C (DUV) treatment without water immersion during 2 min was also  
194 tested ( $1.3 \text{ kJ/m}^2$ ) in an UV-C light cabinet, in order to compare it with the novel water-assisted  
195 UV-C technology. A batch of inoculated strawberries was left untreated (control, CK) for the  
196 comparison throughout the experimental time.

197

198        **2.4. Strawberry cryogenic freezing process and storage conditions**

199        Once dried, three strawberries per treatment (n=3) were packaged under polypropylene (PP) trays  
200        (375 mL) sealed with tray-lidding film by a self-sealing lab scale equipment (AK-RAMON TS-  
201        150, Barcelona, Spain). Packaged samples were frozen at  $-70 \pm 2$  °C in a cryogenic freezing  
202        cabinet which operates by injecting liquid Nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) inside (Carbuos Metálicos-Air Products  
203        Group Batch Freezer CM-85/1090, Carbuos Metálicos SA, Barcelona, Spain, Figure 1). With  
204        this equipment, freezing of fruits is done in three phases: (i) cooling from the initial fruit  
205        temperature to freezing point with freezing temperature (FT) (without crystal ice formation); (ii)  
206        super-cooling with a transition phase time with a remaining constant temperature (this is the phase  
207        in which most of the ice forms); (iii) super-chilling when the temperature falls for the mixture of  
208        water and ice, cooling down to a final temperature of approximately -20 °C (Freezing time  
209        (Ftime)). This methodology allows a smaller crystal formation, so cell integrity is maintained and  
210        water is better retained after thawing, offering potential benefits for the preservation of fresh foods  
211        (Comandini et al., 2013; Stonehouse and Evans, 2015; Sun et al., 2019). In the present study, all  
212        trays including three strawberries per tray were first pre-cooled to approximately 0-5 °C in the  
213        cryochamber commented above. Subsequently, strawberries were gradually cooled down to  
214        approximately -1.5 °C by the injection of liquid N<sub>2</sub> (phase 2). During this cooling process,  
215        strawberries took the supercooling state. Finally, strawberries were frozen with a temperature of  
216        approximately  $-70 \pm 2$  °C, to resolve the supercooled state and freeze strawberries completely (-  
217        20 °C). Throughout the whole freezing process, the internal temperature of the fruit was recorded  
218        by placing the probe of the data logger JUMO TDA-300/TDA-3000 (Berlin, Germany) in the  
219        interior of a single fruit. After freezing, packaged samples were stored at  $-25.0 \pm 0.5$  °C for 12  
220        months.

221        **2.5. Microbiological analysis**

222        Populations of *S. enterica*, *L. monocytogenes* and the infectivity of MNV-1 were evaluated before  
223        and after sanitation process and after 3, 90, 180 and 360 days of storage at -25 °C. Before and  
224        after each treatment, three strawberries were randomly taken and weighed. During storage, the

225 day before each sampling time, three strawberries from the same tray (n=3) were taken. Each  
226 strawberry was placed in an individual sterile filter bag (80 mL BagPage®, Interscience  
227 BagSystem, Saint Nom, France) and samples were thawed at 4 °C overnight. Fresh strawberries  
228 or defrost strawberries and exudates were diluted with buffered peptone water 1:4 (w:v) and  
229 mashed in a paddle blender (MiniMix, Interscience, France) for 2 min at 9 strokes/s. Aliquots of  
230 the mixture were serially diluted in saline peptone (SP), plated (0.1 or 1.0 mL for fresh and frozen  
231 strawberries, respectively) in duplicate onto XLD for *S. enterica* and PALCAM agar for *L.*  
232 *monocytogenes* determination. Plates were incubated at  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h and 48 h, respectively.  
233 Results were calculated as colony forming units per g (CFU/g) and expressed as log CFU/g.  
234 Frozen strawberries were left to thaw in the refrigerator (10 °C) overnight in sterile bags in order  
235 to maintain the exudates. Strawberries and their exudates were analysed as previously described.  
236 For the samples analyzed after the decontamination and freezing steps, detection limit was 1.30  
237 log CFU/g whilst that of samples during storage (90, 180 and 360 days) was 0.70 log CFU/g (5  
238 CFU/g). Logarithmic reductions of the pathogens due to the washing treatments were calculated  
239 by the following equation (Eq. 1):

$$240 \quad \text{Log reductions (Log CFU/g)} = \text{Log } (N_0) - \text{Log } (N_t) \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

241 Where  $N_0$  is the mean of the initial population, and  $N_t$  is the population at each sampling time  
242 (CFU/g).

243 Population of bacteria were also determined in wash water after the sanitation treatments.  
244 Duplicate 100  $\mu\text{L}$  samples were plated in XLD and PALCAM as indicated above. In parallel,  
245 duplicate 1-mL samples were added to 9-ml Dey-Engley tubes. Results were expressed as log  
246 CFU/mL. When counts were below the limit of detection (50 CFU/mL), and presence was  
247 confirmed by Dey-Engley colour variation followed by streaking onto XLD or PALCAM, an  
248 arbitrary value of  $\frac{1}{2}$  limit of detection (25 CFU/mL) was attributed.

249 For MNV-1 determination, extraction of the virus from the treated samples (n=3) was performed  
250 as previously described (Ortiz-Solà et al. 2020). Briefly, confluent RAW 264.7 cells with

251 supplemented DMEM 10 % were transferred to 96-well microtiter plates (ThermoFisher, USA).  
252 Micro-plates were stored at  $37 \pm 1$  °C in a 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> and 85 % of humidity relative (HR) conditions  
253 during  $24 \pm 2$  h. Afterwards, DMEM 10 % was removed and 20 µL of the tenfold dilutions with  
254 PBS of each extracted sample were inoculated into 8 wells of a 96-well microtiter plates of  
255 confluent RAW 264.7. Plates were incubated at same conditions commented above. After 1 h  
256 incubation, 150 µL/well of DMEM supplemented with 2 % FBS were added and incubated for  
257 2–3 days at 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> and 85 % of HR. Then, RAW 264.7 monolayers with cytotoxicity effects  
258 were observed by visual examination using the optical inverse microscope. MNV- 1 positive  
259 sample was diluted one log in PBS (2 M NaNO<sub>3</sub>, 1 % beef extract, and 0.1% Triton X-100) and  
260 used as norovirus control. Negative controls were studied using PBS.

261 The MNV-1 infectivity of each treated strawberry was calculated by determining TCID<sub>50</sub> with 8-  
262 wells per dilution and 20 µL of inoculum/well. The number of wells with cytopathic effect were  
263 documented. The reduction of the infectivity was calculated as  $\log (N_0/N_t)$ , where  $N_t$  is the  
264 infectious virus titer after each treatment and  $N_0$  is the initial virus infect titer found in untreated  
265 strawberries (Falcó et al., 2018).

## 266 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

267 All data were analysed for significant differences by applying analysis of variance test (ANOVA).  
268 The criterion for statistical significance was  $P < 0.05$  with the Tukey's Honest Significant  
269 Difference (HSD) test to evaluate the differences during storage conditions after the disinfection  
270 treatments. All statistical analyses were carried out using JMP PRO 14.0.1 (SAS Institute Inc.,  
271 Cary, USA). MNV-1 experiment was repeated twice with 3 replications (n=6).

272

### 273 3. Results and discussion

#### 274 3.1. Foodborne pathogenic bacteria inactivation on strawberries and wash water after 275 disinfection treatments

276 Parameters of the water used to wash strawberries were analysed during each sanitization  
277 treatment (Table 1). There were no differences between pH, ORP, peracetic acid (PA) and  
278 chlorine concentration after 2 min treatment (data not shown). Regarding the effect of the assayed  
279 technologies on microbial populations in the process water after washing for 2 min, foodborne  
280 bacterial pathogens were only found in the water-assisted UV-C (WUVC) treatment without PA,  
281 persisting in populations of  $<1.0$  log CFU/mL for both microorganisms. On the other hand, no  
282 presence of *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica* were reported in wash water after the WUVC  
283 combined with PA at 40 ppm (WUVC+PA), and after chlorine (NaClO) sanitization at 200 ppm.  
284 Undoubtedly, bacterial cells that are washed off from the fruit product are inactivated by the  
285 sanitizer present in the wash solution, thereby reducing the risks for cross contamination. The  
286 three-way action for disinfecting the produce by the synergistic effect of integrated strategies  
287 involving UV-C light, PA, and the simultaneous physical movement of the wash water could  
288 account for the higher efficacy against foodborne pathogens in washing water and fruit (as could  
289 be seen below). Compared to other wash water disinfectants, PA has less potential of producing  
290 degradation by-products, which are easily dissolved in water and non-toxic, thus making this  
291 sanitizer a good alternative to chlorine (Banach et al., 2015).

292 On strawberries, initial counts of *S. enterica* and *L. monocytogenes* population were  $5.7 \pm 0.4$  and  
293  $5.6 \pm 0.2$  log CFU/g, respectively (Fig. 2A and 2B). After 2-min exposure to disinfection  
294 treatments, NaClO sanitization and the combination of WUVC+PA gave the highest reduction of  
295 both bacteria (ca.  $\geq 3.3$  log CFU/g). On the other hand, the non-immersed dry UV-C (DUVC)  
296 technology ( $1.3$  kJ/m<sup>2</sup>) gave reductions about 0.4 and 0.6 log CFU/g for *S. enterica* and *L.*  
297 *monocytogenes*, respectively, being equivalent to the population obtained with the untreated  
298 samples (CK) ( $P > 0.05$ ). This lower inactivation observed with air-transmitted DUVC treatment  
299 were in concordance with previous investigation, reporting  $< 1$  log reduction of *E. coli* O157:H7,

300 *S. enterica* and *L. monocytogenes* on fresh strawberries after 120 s exposure (13.3 kJ/m<sup>2</sup>) of  
301 DUVC (Butot et al., 2018). On the other hand, bacterial population were reduced to 2.6 and 2.2  
302 log for *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica* when strawberries were washed with WUVC alone,  
303 while the addition of 40 ppm of PA increased the reduction range to 1.0 and 2.0 log CFU/g,  
304 respectively. However, there were no significant differences between them ( $P > 0.05$ ). Therefore,  
305 results confirmed the effectiveness of the different washing treatments, since the WUVC and the  
306 combination treatment (WUVC+PA) are comparable to disinfection with free chlorine ( $P > 0.05$ ),  
307 allowing the inhibition of the principal foodborne bacterial pathogens on fresh strawberries after  
308 the different decontamination methodologies tested during 2-min exposure (Nicolau-Lapeña et  
309 al., 2020; Ortiz-Solà et al., 2020).

### 310 **3.2. Foodborne pathogenic bacteria survival after cryogenic freezing process of strawberries** 311 **during shelf-life**

312 Freezing curves and phases of strawberry samples inoculated with *L. monocytogenes*, *S. enterica*  
313 and murine norovirus (MNV-1) frozen at -70 °C in the cryogenic freezing cabinet are represented  
314 in Fig. 3. The process observed using cryogenic technology has been the typical freezing process  
315 used to freeze food at an extremely fast rate in the food industry (Comandini et al., 2013).

316 Cryogenic freezing process, evaluated after 3 days of storage at -25 °C, resulted in a sharp  
317 reduction of *S. enterica* (Fig. 2A) regardless of the disinfection treatment carried out before  
318 freezing, resulting in a final population of < 1.3 log CFU/g in all treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ). Therefore,  
319 the inactivation achieved during the frozen storage was sometimes rather substantial compared to  
320 the inactivation caused the disinfection treatments used. In fact, reductions > 4 log units were  
321 attributed to the freezing process for *S. enterica* in the untreated samples. On the contrary,  
322 cryogenic freezing did not affect in a such way the viability of *L. monocytogenes* (Fig. 2B), with  
323 reductions of 2 log approximately for all treatments, only with remaining populations about < 1.0  
324 log on the surface of frozen strawberries treated with washing procedures.

325 For both pathogens, frozen storage at  $-25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  showed a slower but steady decline of bacterial  
326 counts during the following 90 days. This survival behaviour of *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica*  
327 on frozen strawberries was similar to previous investigations, which reported that a freezing step  
328 had a greatest impact on *L. monocytogenes* and *E. coli* O157:H7 within the first 24 h of storage  
329 at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , when populations in strawberry samples without added sucrose decreased by almost 1  
330 log cycle. However, the short-term (30-day) survival of both pathogens was generally constant  
331 on frozen strawberries (Flessa et al., 2005; Knudsen et al., 2001). On the other hand, the tailing  
332 effect observed in the survival curve could be due to differences in resistance to acid/frozen  
333 storage among the strains included in the 5-strain cocktail (Huang et al., 2013). It was previously  
334 demonstrated that antimicrobial washing (chlorine, chlorine dioxide and lactic acid) combined  
335 with freezing step significantly reduced levels of *E. coli* O157:H7, *Salmonella* Typhimurium, and  
336 *L. monocytogenes* in blueberries compared with what washing alone was capable of achieving in  
337 maximum log reduction. In this study, wash treatments alone resulted maximum log reductions  
338 from 0.4 to 2.0, while additional freezing step increased this to a range from 1.7 to 4.4 log  
339 (Tadepalli et al., 2018). Similarly, Bridges et al. (2019) evaluated the efficacy of different  
340 antibacterial washes coupled with frozen storage against foodborne pathogens on blueberries,  
341 which were treated with sodium hypochlorite ( $\text{NaClO}$ , 200 ppm), chlorine dioxide (15 ppm),  
342 ozone (3 and 5 ppm), or lactic acid (2 %) for short exposure times (10 s, 1 min, or 3 min) with an  
343 additional freezing hurdle at  $-12\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . They found that wash treatments alone resulted in maximum  
344 log reductions from 1.0 to 2.8, while the additional freezing step increased this to a range from  
345 3.7 to 6.6 after 1 week of storage. The greatest reduction of *L. monocytogenes* (6.6 log) and  
346 *Salmonella* Typhimurium (5.3 log) was observed after freezing combined with 3 min of exposure  
347 to 2 % lactic acid or 200 ppm of  $\text{NaClO}$ , respectively (Bridges et al. 2019).

348 After 90 days at frozen storage, *L. monocytogenes* and *S. enterica* were not detected on the  
349 samples treated with water-assisted methodologies (WUVC, WUVC+PA and  $\text{NaClO}$  treatments).  
350 However, the remaining population of *L. monocytogenes* was  $2.8 \pm 0.6$  and  $3.3 \pm 0.8$  log CFU/g  
351 when the samples were treated with non-immersed DUVC treatment and untreated strawberries,



352 respectively. *S. enterica* was detectable by enrichment with 1 out of 3 samples being positive (<  
353 5 CFU/g) after 90 days in the samples treated with DUVC. The results with bacteria on the surface  
354 of the fruit yielded further decreases in *S. enterica* populations on untreated samples (CK)  
355 throughout the experimental time, with reductions ca. 4-log compared to the initial level.  
356 Nonetheless, *L. monocytogenes* population was maintained on CK samples after 180 days ( $1.8 \pm$   
357  $1.6 \log$  CFU/g). These results showed that *L. monocytogenes* could survive on the surface of the  
358 frozen fruit, although the populations declined markedly. Indeed, frozen foods do not support *L.*  
359 *monocytogenes* growth while kept at freezing temperatures, but can survive for extended periods  
360 on other food matrix (*e.g.*, for 120 days at  $-18^{\circ}\text{C}$  on whole and cut cucumbers (Bardsley et al.,  
361 2019) or at least 28 days at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  on whole and cut strawberries (Flessa et al., 2005) particularly  
362 in low acid food, including vegetables (Palumbo and Williams, 1991). Even if some cell injury  
363 may occur, the reduction of the pathogen during the frozen storage of low acid fruits and  
364 vegetables is very limited (ca.  $1 \log_{10}$  in 100 days) (Pappelbaum et al., 2008).

365 After one-year of frozen storage, both pathogens were completely inactivated. Even starting for  
366 populations that are rather unrealistic, the use of WUVC and WUVC+PA before freezing  
367 decreased the population of *L. monocytogenes* below 100 CFU/g (that allowed by EU Regulation  
368 N° 2073/2005 and further amendments) after 3 days of storage.

### 369 **3.3. Effect of the sanitizing treatments on the infectivity of MNV-1 on strawberries after** 370 **sanitation procedures and cryogenic freezing step**

371 The initial virus titer of artificially inoculated strawberries was  $3.4 \pm 0.1 \log$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL. After 2-  
372 min of disinfection treatments, the infectivity of MNV-1 was significantly lower compared with  
373 that obtained with the untreated samples (CK) (Figure 4). Likewise pathogenic bacteria, washing  
374 procedures are needed for the effective inactivation of MNV-1 infectivity, since DUVC treatment  
375 proved to be the lowest effective technology. Reductions obtained with the water-assisted  
376 sanitization treatments ranged between 1.8-1.9 log TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL, whereas those obtained with the  
377 DUVC methodology did not exceed  $1.5 \log$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL ( $P < 0.05$ ).

378 The infectivity of MNV-1 after cryogenic freezing process remained in frozen storage  
379 strawberries (-25 °C) after 90 days, with no significant differences from the titer obtained after  
380 disinfection step (Data not shown). In fact, Butot et al. (2008) observed that HAV and rotavirus  
381 remained unaffected in unwashed fresh strawberries, raspberries, and blueberries, despite 90 days  
382 in frozen storage. Baert et al., (2008) reported that no reduction of MNV-1 on spinach and spring  
383 onions over 180 days of frozen storage. Unlike bacterial pathogens, maintaining the cold chain is  
384 not a mitigation strategy for viral pathogens on fresh produce, as persistence of enteric viruses is  
385 higher at low temperatures and inactivation rates generally increase with the increasing  
386 temperatures (Li et al., 2015). It is not surprising that MNV-1 used in the present study was little  
387 affected by freezing, as the results of our study corroborate data from documented outbreaks  
388 involving HAV and human norovirus and linked with frozen berries (Cotterelle et al. 2005;  
389 Falkenhorst et al. 2005; Hjertqvist et al. 2006; Hutin et al. 1999; Korsager et al. 2005). Indeed,  
390 MNV-1 survived even the harsh conditions of cryogenic freezing with low pH of fruit. It has been  
391 demonstrated that MNV-1 had tolerance to a low pH (pH 2 for 1 h; Li et al., 2013; Verhaelen et  
392 al., 2013).

393 After 180 days, the infectivity of MNV-1 on untreated strawberries (CK) decreased, but remained  
394 statistically higher compared with the frozen strawberries treated with the studied technologies  
395 that were equally effective among them ( $P > 0.05$ ). Results obtained with norovirus, showed again  
396 that the disinfection step is needed, since infectivity of MNV-1 decreased after 360 days by  $> 1.6$   
397 log for both untreated and disinfected samples, with a remaining infectivity of ca. 1.5 and 0.1 log  
398 TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL, respectively. However, even low infectivity of MNV-1 was found on strawberries  
399 after 360 days of storage, some investigations suggest that only 18 to 1,000 virus particles of  
400 human norovirus are necessary to cause the disease (Teunis et al., 2008).

401 The results of the present study reported that WUVC and WUVC+PA treatments were equally  
402 effective than 200 ppm of NaClO sanitization during experimental time ( $P > 0.05$ ). It is well  
403 known that biocides that have activity against both enveloped and non-enveloped viruses include  
404 chlorine releasing agents, peracids and ozone. Their effectiveness depends on the nature of the

405 virus, the surface carrier, the presence of interfering substances such as organic soil or hard water  
406 salts, and contact time (Vasickova et al., 2010). On the other hand, the mechanism involved in  
407 antiviral activity of UV-C is probably the disruption of viral structure that ultimately degrades  
408 viral proteins and RNA (Woo et al., 2019). Previous studies reported that subsequent UV-C  
409 decontamination after other control strategies (*e.g.*, chlorine or peracetic acid) resulting in  
410 synergistic benefits that could lead to increased UV-C induced viral genome damage (Rattanakul  
411 et al., 2015). The effectiveness of UV-C light-based technologies is limited due to the shadow  
412 effect. For this reason, the incorporation of water to the treatment enhanced the efficacy of this  
413 innovative technology. Turbidity of the wash water used could affect UV-C penetration (Abadias  
414 et al., 2021) and to extend exposure times for better UV-C efficacy may not be realistic and should  
415 be further studied. Successful application of this combined technology relies on the light reaching  
416 all the virus particles directly and, if the viruses are present in cracks, crevices or openings in the  
417 surface of the food or surfaces, they could be inactivated with the chemical sanitizer present in  
418 the water.

#### 419 **4. Conclusions**

420 Results from this study indicated that when the antimicrobial disinfection is combined with  
421 freezing, injured bacterial cells that survived the washing step can be eliminated by exposure to  
422 this second hurdle over time. The subsequent use of these frozen strawberries in retail food  
423 operations or at home is particularly important when frozen berries are used in preparation of  
424 smoothies, milkshakes and other foods not intended to go through a thermal process. Moreover,  
425 we also showed that further research is warranted to address specific questions regarding the  
426 effectiveness of disinfection step coupled with frozen storage against MNV-1, since human  
427 norovirus is a highly stable virus that can survive from multiple days up to months on strawberry  
428 surfaces at freezing conditions, making essential the introduction of a washing step in strawberry  
429 processing. On the other hand, the amount of wastewater generated per mass unit of product  
430 depends on the disinfection technique employed, so UV-C irradiation being capable of

431 disinfecting efficiently both the process water and the product, a higher ratio of recycling can be  
432 achieved, with a lower impact on the environment.

433

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442

443 **Conflict of interests**

444 The authors declare no conflict of interests.

445

446 **Authors statement**

447 **Jordi Ortiz-Solà:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation and Writing - Original  
448 Draft. **Inmaculada Viñas:** Validation and Writing- Reviewing and Editing. **Ingrid**  
449 **Aguiló-Aguayo:** Investigation. **Gloria Bobo:** Investigation. **Maribel Abadias:**  
450 Conceptualization, Methodology, Visualization, and Writing- Reviewing and Editing.

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667

668 **Table 1.-** Water parameters: pH, ORP, concentration of sanitizer and *L. monocytogenes* and *S.*  
 669 *enterica* population in washing water after 2 min exposure. Pathogenic bacteria population  
 670 values are the mean of the 4 repetitions  $\pm$  standard deviation.

Treatment <sup>1</sup>	[ ] of free chlorine or PA (mg/L)	pH	ORP (mV)	<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	<i>S. enterica</i>
WUV-C	< 0.01	7.7 $\pm$ 0.6	201.5 $\pm$ 12.1	0.80 $\pm$ 0.59 (3/4) <sup>2</sup>	0.72 $\pm$ 0.52 (3/4) <sup>2</sup>
WUV-C+PA	40.7 $\pm$ 2.7	5.3 $\pm$ 0.2	465.0 $\pm$ 2.8	ND*	ND*
NaClO	184.0 $\pm$ 3.5	6.7 $\pm$ 0.1	879.5 $\pm$ 2.1	ND*	ND*

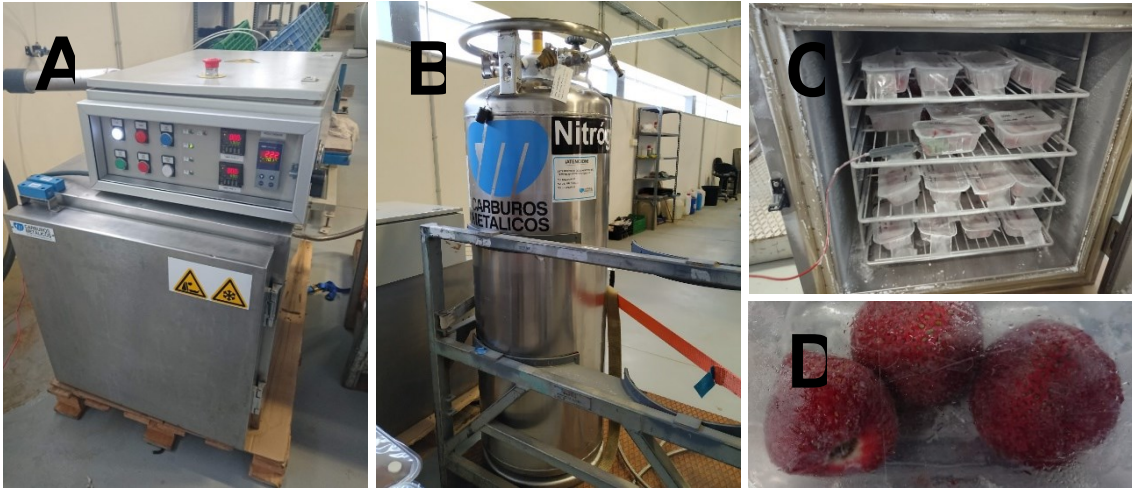
671 <sup>1</sup> WUV-C: water-assisted ultraviolet disinfection, WUV-C + PA: ultraviolet disinfection combined with  
 672 peracetic acid, NaClO: hypochlorite solution.

673 <sup>2</sup>: Number samples that were confirmed positive after enrichment in Dey-Engley / total samples analyzed

674 ND\*: no-detected in the wash water

675

676 **Figure 1.** (A) Cryogenic freezing cabinet (Carbueros Metálicos – Air Products Group model Batch  
677 freezer CM-85/1090) which is cooled by injecting liquid Nitrogen ( $N_2$ ) from Carbueros Metálicos  
678 (B). (C and D) Frozen strawberry samples after freezing process.

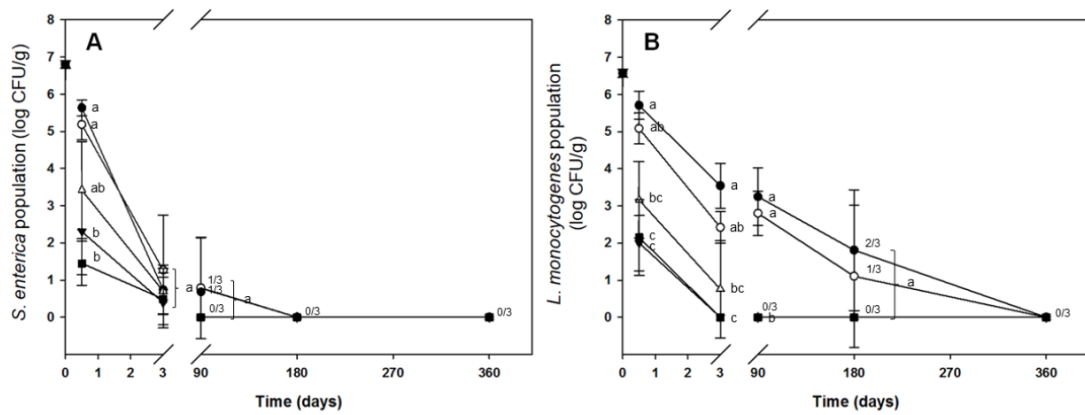


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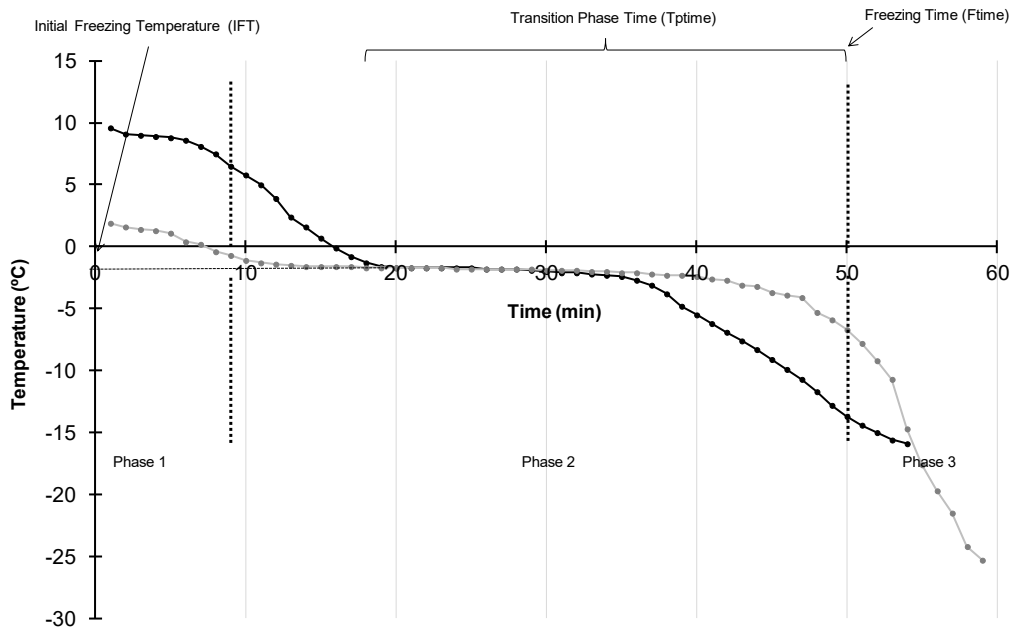
681 **Figure 2.** Population (log CFU/g) of *Salmonella enterica* (A) and *Listeria monocytogenes* (B) as  
 682 a function of the applied disinfection treatments and storage time (n=3). CK: control samples  
 683 (without washing) (●), DUVC: conventional dry ultraviolet disinfection (○), NaClO: hypochlorite  
 684 solution (200ppm) (▼), WUV-C: water-assisted ultraviolet disinfection (▲), WUV-C + PA:  
 685 water-assisted ultraviolet disinfection combined with peracetic acid (40 ppm) (■). For each  
 686 represented time, different letters indicate significant differences among disinfection treatments  
 687 according to the HSD Tukey post-hoc test (p<0.05). Numbers in fraction represent the number  
 688 of samples testing positive after enrichment out of the total analyzed samples (3).



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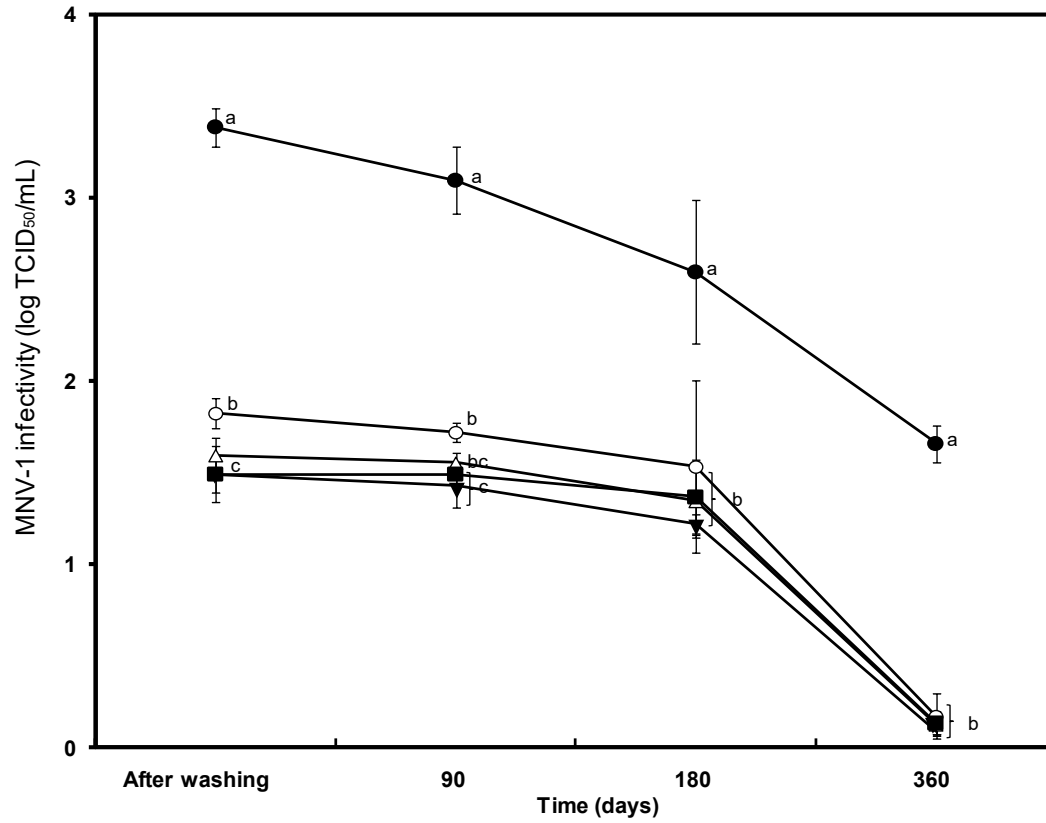
691 **Figure 3.** Freezing parameters and curves of strawberry samples inoculated with *Listeria*  
 692 *monocytogenes* and *Salmonella enterica* (black) and murine norovirus (MNV-1) (grey) frozen at  
 693  $-70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in a cryogenic freezing cabinet comprising liquid nitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ), from the brand Carbueros  
 694 Metálicos – Air products Group model Batch freezer CM-85/1090.



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697 **Figure 4.** Infectivity (log TCID<sub>50</sub>/mL) of the MNV-1 in relation to the applied disinfection  
 698 treatments and different storage time (n=6). CK: control samples (without washing) (●), DUVC:  
 699 conventional dry ultraviolet disinfection (○), NaClO: hypochlorite solution (200ppm) (▼), WUV-  
 700 C: water-assisted ultraviolet disinfection (▲), WUV-C + PA: water-assisted ultraviolet  
 701 disinfection combined with peracetic acid (40 ppm) (■).



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