

# Management of Postharvest Diseases of Vegetables in a Tropical and Sub-Tropical Environment of the Kingdom of Eswatini

## ABSTRACT

Vegetables are important in human diets as a side dish eaten either cooked or raw as in salads. They are important for their nutritional contribution as major sources of minerals, vitamins, nine essential amino acids, beneficial phytochemicals, fibre and interesting colour from an aesthetic point of view. Despite the immense health benefits offered by vegetables there are challenges encountered in their post-harvest handling and storage up to consumption. Challenges include post-harvest losses due to diseases. Some losses occur even at household level when vegetables are not stored appropriately when stored under the sink where humidity can be high leading to an environment which promotes diseases. Diseases in the post-harvest chain are caused by bacteria and opportunistic pathogenic fungi. Post-harvest losses of vegetables are not only a threat to nutritional security but a threat to food security as well. The aim of this research study was to document major post-harvest diseases of vegetables found in the Kingdom of Eswatini and to suggest management or ways of alleviating them.

Keywords: Vegetables, health benefits, post-harvest diseases, losses, management, sustainable development goals (SDGs)

## 1.INTRODUCTION

Eswatini is located in Southern Africa and is member of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). To the North, West and South it is surrounded by South Africa while in the East it shares a boarder with Mozambique [1]. The Kingdom covers an area of 17, 364 square kilometres and has two major towns or cities of Mbabane (the capital city) and Manzini. The 2007 census put the population at 102 million with 0.54 million being female while 0.48 million being male. About 78 percent live in rural areas while 22 percent in urban areas (Swaziland Ministry of Economic Planning and Development, 2007) [2]. The country is landlocked and is

32 divided into four agro-ecological zones which are the Highveld, Middleveld, Lowveld  
33 and Lubombo plateau. Each of these zones has a distinctive climate, rainfall and  
34 geography (Jones 1963, Ogle and Grivetti, 1985) [3 – 4]

35 Vegetables are produced in all the four agroecological zones. Some vegetables are  
36 imported into the country. The importation or exportation of various agricultural  
37 products including vegetables is regulated by the National Agricultural Marketing  
38 Board (NAMBoard) [5].

39  
40 After harvest however, vegetables which are still alive can suffer from various  
41 diseases leading to unwanted losses. This study aimed to document, discuss and to  
42 proffer solutions to various postharvest diseases of vegetables encountered in the  
43 Kingdom of Eswatini.

## 44 2. METHODOLOGY

45 The study was a qualitative one. Desk review of existing literature was done. Informal  
46 surveys were carried out. Observations of vegetables in the postharvest handling  
47 chain were made in both the formal and informal markets.

## 48 3. CATEGORIES OF VEGETABLES

### 49 3.1 Leafy Floral and Succulent Vegetables

50 These are vegetables whose edible portions consist of shoots, leaves buds or floral  
51 organs. Most leafy greens, immature flower heads and succulent crops are found in  
52 this category (Wang, 2003) [6] (Table 1). Taxonomically these vegetables come from  
53 a diverse number of families however most come from the Composita and Cruciferae  
54 [5] (Table 2).

55

### 56 3.2 Immature Fruit Vegetables

57 The important examples of vegetables for which the edible part is botanically an  
58 immature fruit are mostly cucurbits and legumes, along with a Solanaceous vegetable  
59 (eggplant, *Solanum melongena* L.) a member of the Malvaceae family [okra,  
60 *Abelmoschus esculentus* (L.) Moench, and monocotyledon (sweet corn, *Zea mays* L.  
61 Var. *rugosa bonafel* (M & B.) [7] (Table 3)

62

### 63 3.3 Mature Fruit Vegetables

64 Many vegetables are classified botanically as fruit, that is, as the product of ripening  
65 ovary and its associated tissue. Mature fruit vegetables are derived from  
66 taxonomically diverse families, however, the major mature vegetables are dominated  
67 by species from Cucurbitaceae (melons, pumpkins and winter squash) and Solanaceae  
68 (peppers, egg fruit and tomatoes) (Table 4) [8]

### 69 3.4 Underground Storage Organs

70 These are commonly known as root crops where the edible portion is an underground  
71 storage organ (Table 5) [9]. However, the underground storage organs are  
72 taxonomically the most diverse group of vegetables, representing more than a dozen  
73 different families, including both monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants (Table  
74 6) [8]

### 75 3.5 Fresh Cut Vegetables

76 Fresh cut also known as minimally or lightly processed vegetables are vegetables that  
77 have been cut into small size portions and are ready to eat [e.g. broccoli (*Brassica*  
78 *oleracea* L. *Botrytis* group), carrots (*Dacus carota* L.), Lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.)  
79 spinach (*Spinacia oleracea* L.) or to cook [e.g. artichokes (*Cynara scolymus* L.),  
80 broccoli , sweet corn (*Zea mays* L. Var *rugosa bonafae*) peeled potatoes (*Solanum*  
81 *tuberosium*, etc. (Table 7, 8) [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. The physiology of minimally or  
82 lightly processed vegetables is one of wounded tissue (Table 7 and 8) and thus these  
83 vegetables are not only highly perishable but highly susceptible to disease infection  
84 through the wounds.

85

## 86 4. Post-harvest Losses

87 4.1 The magnitude of post-harvest losses in fresh fruits and vegetables is an estimated  
88 5 to 25 percent in developed countries and 20 to 50 percent in developing countries  
89 (Kader) [15] like Eswatini. Huge losses which were not quantified are reported to  
90 occur especially in the informal markets and even at household level. The Kingdom of  
91 Eswatini is a developing country with a vision of becoming a near developed country  
92 by 2022. To reduce these losses, producers and handles must (1) understand the

93 biological and environmental factors involved in deterioration and (2) use post-harvest  
94 techniques that delay senescence and maintain the best possible quality [15].

95

96

97 5. Biotic factors involved in post-harvest losses

98 Biotic factors which cause diseases in plants include viruses, bacteria and fungi  
99 (Agrios, [16] Bartz, Cheng-Iwei [17] Korsten – Wehner [18, 19]

100 5.1 Bacteria

101 The composition of the microbial ecosystem on vegetables in the field, at harvest and  
102 during the marketing and eventual consumption of the vegetable is unknown. During  
103 harvest and handling, vegetables receive various injuries that provide sites for  
104 colonisation by certain saprophytes as well as various post-harvest pathogens. How  
105 these new bacteria fare on the crop depends on the post-harvest environment and  
106 apparently on the existing ecosystem [17].

107 5.2 Bacteria Soft Rots

108 Most post-harvest soft rots of vegetables are caused by strains of pectolytic *Erwinia*  
109 spp or *Pseudomonads* spp. The “soft rot Erwinia group” includes *E atroseptica* and *E*  
110 *chrysanthemi*, whereas the pectolytic *Pseudomonas* include *Pseudomonas marginalis*,  
111 pectolytic strains of *P. fluorescens*, *P. viride flava* and *P. cepacia* [17] *Bacillus* spp  
112 was associated with soft rot of potatoes at high temperatures above 30°C (Lund 1992)  
113 [20]. *Xanthomonas* spp also caused soft rots in bell peppers, tomatoes, cucumber and  
114 papaya.

115 5.3 Discolouration, Slime and Stains

116 Many different bacteria appear to be capable of growing on vegetables in storage,  
117 particularly if the vegetable is wet, senescing or fresh cut [17]. Slime is caused by *L.*  
118 *mensenteroides* while *Xanthomonas* spp or *Serratia marcescens* produce yellow or red  
119 colours respectively.

120 6. Pathogenic Microorganisms in Fresh Vegetables

121 These are various pathogens found on harvested vegetables which can potentially  
122 cause illness in humans.

123 6.1 *Escherichia coli*

124 This bacterium can cause diarrhoea and other illnesses in humans. Pathogenic strains  
125 of *E. coli* are classified as enterotoxic, enterohemorrhagic, enteroinvasive or entero-  
126 pathogenic (Carlson 1991) [21]

127

### 128 6.2 *Listeria monocytogenes*

129 *Listeria* can be found almost everywhere including water, decaying vegetation,  
130 sewage and animal excrement (Holt 1994) [22]. It can also be found on harvested  
131 vegetables and can potentially cause illness in humans. Recent outbreaks of listeriosis  
132 have been reported in Southern Africa. [23]

### 133 6.3 *Salmonella*

134 *Salmonella* may cause diarrhoea (salmonellosis) and may lead to death. *Salmonella*  
135 commonly occurs in eggs, raw poultry, beef and in unwashed vegetables. It has been  
136 reported that it can pose a health risk in vegetables from Mexico [24].

137

### 138 6.4 *Shingella* spp

139 *Shingella* bacteria causes shingellosis in humans this can as a result of consuming  
140 contaminated vegetable salads (Fain, 1994) [25].

## 141 7. Management of bacterial populations in harvested vegetables

142 Bacterial populations in harvested vegetables can be controlled in various ways which  
143 include modified/controlled atmosphere storage, refrigeration, chemical treatments  
144 and irradiation. Sanitation is also important in order to exclude microorganisms from  
145 harvested vegetables. This is needed to follow hazard analysis critical control points  
146 (HACCP) (--) [26, 27. Eswatini Stds]

### 147 7. Fungi

148 Of the more 70 000 fungal species that have been described, only a relatively small  
149 number can be regarded as primary post-harvest pathogens of vegetables [18].  
150 (Korsten Wehner). Most of these belong to Ascomycota or Deuteromycota, with a few  
151 species in the Basidiomycota (all true fungi) or Oomycota (Kingdom Chromista) [18,  
152 19]. Important genera of anamorphic post-harvest pathogens include *Penicillium*,  
153 *Aspergillus*, *Geotrichum*, *Dothiorella*, *Lasiodiplodia* and *Phomopsis* [16,18,

154 19,28](Coates and Johnson, 1997) [18]. **Fungal infection** may occur in the field or  
155 after harvest.

### 156 7.1 Management of Post-harvest diseases

157 These are various ways by which post-harvest diseases may be controlled. Choice of  
158 method of control is very important because it has implications on human health and  
159 the environment and thus subsequently on sustainable development goals (SDGs)  
160 pertaining to people and planet earth.

161

### 162 7.2 Preharvest factors

163 There are factors before harvest which influence post-harvest diseases. These include  
164 the weather, locality, choice of cultivar, cultural practices (pesticide application,  
165 irrigation, fertilization, planting density, mulching, type of production – whether  
166 protected or in the open field etc.) and planting material [16,18,19,28]. (Coates and  
167 Johnson) [19]. These factors may have an indirect or direct influence on infection  
168 either in the field or after harvest. For example, the application of certain nutrients  
169 may improve the strength of the skin of the fruit vegetable so that it becomes less  
170 susceptible to injury and therefore less prone to invasion by wound pathogens.

### 171 7.3 Genetic Factors

172 The genetic makeup of an organism including that of vegetables influences its  
173 physiology as well as its predisposition to attack by pests. For example common  
174 physiological disorders as affected by genotype, of various vegetables found in the  
175 Kingdom of Eswatini have previously been reviewed and ways of alleviating them  
176 suggested (Masa et al. 2009; Masa et al. 2011; Nxuma et al. 2017; Masa et al. 2018)  
177 [29, 30, 31, 32]. The physiological disorders of vegetables were influenced by the  
178 genotype and the environmental (GXE) conditions and subsequent predisposition of a  
179 given vegetable to post-harvest disease infection. On the other hand genetic  
180 manipulation can influence a commodity's post-harvest shelf life. Genetic  
181 manipulation (GM) technologies which interfere with ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) production,  
182 perception and action delays senescence and thus keep harvested fruits and vegetables  
183 in a state not prone to attack by opportunistic pathogens hence prolonged shelf life  
184 which is the utter most desirable goal in post-harvest technology of vegetables. The

185 GM technologies reduce activities associated with cell wall degrading enzymes which  
186 prevent harvested fruits and vegetables from attack by post-harvest opportunistic  
187 diseases and insect pests[33].

#### 188 8.4 Injury Prevention

189 From harvesting through all the post-harvest handling stages up to use by the  
190 consumer injury must be prevented by any means possible. As many post-harvest  
191 pathogens gain entry (ingress) through wounds or infect physiologically damaged  
192 tissue prevention of injury at all stages during production, harvest and post-harvest  
193 handling is critical [16,18,19,28].(Coates and Johnson). Injuries come in many ways.  
194 Injuries can either be mechanical (e.g. abrasions, cuts and bruises), chemical (e.g.  
195 burns), biological (e.g. bird, insect or rodent damage) or physiological (e.g. chilling  
196 injury, heat injury) [16,18,19,28]. (Coates and Johnson). There is needed to prevent  
197 injury of vegetables along the post-harvest handling chain. Injuries can be minimised  
198 by careful harvesting and handling of produce, appropriate packaging of produce,  
199 controlling insect pest in the field, storing produce at the recommended temperatures  
200 and applying post-harvest treatments correctly [16,18,19,28]. (Coates and Johnson).  
201 There is need to expose wounded produce to environmental conditions or treatments  
202 that promote wound healing. The wound periderm serves as a barrier to prevent entry  
203 of disease causing pathogens. Wound healing has been shown to be associated with  
204 resistance to certain post-harvest diseases such as bacterial soft rot of potatoes caused  
205 by *Erwinia* spp [18,19,28].(Coates and Johnson).

#### 206 7.5 Hygiene Practices

207 The practice of keeping the commodity clean from harvest along the post-harvest  
208 chain is crucial. The working environment must be maintained clean at all times.  
209 Good agricultural practices (GAPs) as prescribed in the Global-GAP must be  
210 maintained at all times [27]. Workers may be provided with work suits which are  
211 washed regularly and have their finger cut often so as to avoid wounding of  
212 commodities. Ablution facilities should be provided in the field at harvest and the  
213 grading and packaging shed. Inoculum for infections occurring after harvest  
214 commonly originates from the packing shed and storage environments[18,19,28].  
215 (Coates and Johnson). There is need to disinfect equipment and material used in the



216 post-harvest handling chain. Water used for washing or cooling (hydrocooling)  
217 produce can become contaminated with pathogen propagules if not changed on a  
218 regular basis and if disinfectant such as chlorine is not incorporated [18,19,28].  
219 (Coates and Johnson).

#### 220 7.6 Use of Fungicides

221 The use of fungicides to prevent or control post-harvest diseases of vegetables has  
222 been practiced from the time particular fungicides were discovered. Timing of  
223 application and type of fungicide used depend primarily on the target pathogens and  
224 when infection occurs [19,28].(Coates and Johnson). There is need for strategic or  
225 judicious use of protectant and systemic fungicides during the growing season.

226

227

228 7.7 Manipulation of the post-harvest environment of vegetable commodities presents a  
229 great opportunity of preventing and controlling diseases. What can be controlled  
230 includes temperature and environmental modification. Temperature is perhaps the  
231 single most important factor influencing disease development after harvest [28,34].  
232 (Coates and Johnson). Temperature not only influences the rates of pathogen growth  
233 but also fruit vegetable ripening. Low temperature storage of fruit vegetables is used  
234 extensively to delay ripening and the development of disease, although the  
235 temperatures commonly used for storage are not lethal to pathogens [28,34].(Coates  
236 and Johnson). The ideal temperature for storage depends on the commodity's  
237 sensitivity to chilling injury (CI). For example vegetables of the Solaneous family like  
238 tomatoes, egg fruit and peppers suffer from chilling injury if store above 0° and below  
239 12.5°C. chilling injured vegetables are more susceptible to diseases than those that are  
240 not injured. The gaseous composition of storage environment can be modified.  
241 Modified atmosphere (MA) or controlled atmospheres (CA) mean removal or addition  
242 of gases resulting in an atmospheric composition around commodity that is different  
243 from that of air (78.08 % N, 20.95% O<sub>2</sub>, 0.03% CO<sub>2</sub>). Usually this involves reduction  
244 of oxygen and/or elevation of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentrations (Kader) [28,34].  
245 Atmospheric modification is supplement to temperature management. The potential  
246 benefits of CAs include retardation of senescence, reduction of fruit sensitivity to



247 C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> action. Alleviation of certain physiological disorders, directly or indirectly affect  
248 post-harvest pathogens and consequently delay incidence and severity of diseases  
249 (Kader).

## 250 7.8 Heat Treatments

251 Physical treatments like heat treatment of harvested vegetable commodities have  
252 gained popularity in recent years in replacing the use of chemicals. Hot water or hot  
253 air may be used. Heat works by either killing the pathogen (and or its propagules) or  
254 by suppressing its rate of development following treatment [18,28].(Coates and  
255 Johnson). The pre-requisite for heat treatment is that the commodity is not susceptible  
256 to heat injury. A combination of fungicides and heat treatment has proved to be  
257 effective in some commodities.

## 258 7.9 Radiation

259 Ionizing radiation is another physical treatment that can be used after harvest to  
260 reduce disease in some commodities, like heat, commodities must be able to tolerate  
261 dose of ionizing radiation required to achieve disease control ([28].Coates and  
262 Johnson). However there are consumer concerns in acceptability of irradiated food.

263

## 264 8.0 Novel Technologies for Post-harvested Disease Control

265 New technologies for post-harvest disease control of vegetables have been developed  
266 to answer consumer concerns of the presence of pesticides in food commodities. A  
267 number of new approaches to control post-harvest diseases are currently under  
268 investigation, including biological control, natural fungicides and constitutive or  
269 induced host resistance.

## 270 8.1 Biological Control

271 Biological control can be defined as the control of one organism using another  
272 organism. In recent years, there has been considerable interest in the use of  
273 antagonistic microorganisms for the control of post-harvest diseases [16,18,28].  
274 (Coates and Johnson). Antagonistic microorganisms can be isolated from their natural  
275 habitats like surface of leaves and fermented food products. Wound pathogens can be  
276 controlled by antagonistic microorganisms. To be effective against wound pathogens,  
277 an antagonist must be able to successfully colonise wound sites to the exclusion of the

278 pathogen. Antagonists which act against post-harvest pathogens by competitive  
279 inhibition at wound sites include the yeasts *Pichia guilliermondii*, *Cryptococcus*  
280 *laurentii* and *Candida* spp [16,18,28]. (Coates & Johnson).

## 281 8.2 Natural fungicides

282 Some compounds produced by plants themselves and microorganisms have antifungal  
283 properties. Chitosan, for example, it is not only an elicitor of host defence responses  
284 but also direct fungicidal action against a range of post-harvest pathogens. Various  
285 spp of *Trichoderma* produce antibiotics that have potent antifungal activity against  
286 *Botrytis cinerea*, *Corticium rolfsii* and other plant pathogens [16,18,28].(Coates &  
287 Johnson).

## 288 8.3 Constitutive and Induced Host Resistance

289 Naturally plants possess various morphological and biochemical mechanisms which  
290 are in place before arrival of the pathogen (i.e. constitutive resistance), while others  
291 are only activated in response to infection (i.e. induced resistance) [16,18,19,28].  
292 (Coates & Johnson). Certain antipathogenic compounds which are high in growing  
293 vegetables decline after harvest. Levels of diene compounds can be increased by  
294 applying various treatments such as challenge inoculation with either pathogenic or  
295 non-pathogenic strains of *Colletotrichum* or by treatment with certain antioxidants or  
296 high concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> [16,18,19,28]. (Coates and Johnson).

297 Phytoalexins can be induced in various crops by non-ionizing ultra-C radiation. For  
298 example UV treatment of carrot slices induces production of 6-methoxymellen which  
299 is inhibitor to *Botrytis cinerea* and *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. [16,28].

## 300 8.4 Genetic manipulation

301 Genetic manipulation/ where permissible is the deliberate change of genetic makeup of an  
302 organism in order to obtain desired traits [35,36,37].(Uzogara, Tazeb, Masarirambi 2019). It  
303 has been done in vegetables to prolong shelf life after harvest. Ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) apart from  
304 promoting ripening is known to hasten senescence. Senescing vegetables are more  
305 susceptible to opportunistic postharvest pathogens. Manipulation of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> technologies in  
306 order to suppress its production, perception, signal transduction and action will reduce the  
307 rate of senescence of vegetables [38] and subsequently reduce relative susceptibility to  
308 pathogen attack. Suppression of gene expression through anti-sense technologies of cell wall  
309 degrading enzymes: pectin methyl esterase (PME) and polygalacturonase (PG) will help keep

310 cell walls of vegetables intact [39,40,41] (Seymour et al 2002, O'Donoghue and King 2003,  
311 Redenbaugh et al 1993) . Relatively more intact cell walls are less susceptible to postharvest  
312 diseases.

### 313 9.5 Processing of vegetables

314 An opportunity exists to avoid loss of vegetables due to spoilage by disease causing  
315 organisms. Processing can be done to avoid wastage. Several vegetables are harvested,  
316 handled and processed using indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) at household level. Due to  
317 unaffordability of freezing and chemical processing technologies for preservation, drying has  
318 been the predominant method for traditional vegetable preservation, where the dried product  
319 is known as *umfuso* in siSwati [42].(Masa et al, 2010)

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321

### 322 8.5 Nutritional and Food Security Issues.

323 Food security, as defined by the United Nations' Committee on World Food Security, means  
324 that all people, at all times, have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and  
325 nutritious food that meets their food preferences and dietary needs for an active and healthy  
326 life [43]. (IFPRI, 2019).

327 Reduction of the incidence and severity of postharvest diseases of vegetables has a direct and  
328 indirect effect on nutritional and food security in the Kingdom. Less use or judicious use , or  
329 avoidance of pesticides use on vegetables before and after harvest addresses some of the  
330 SDGs pertaining to planet earth and human health. On the other hand making vegetables  
331 available with a longer shelf life not only for consumption but until sell for income  
332 generation also helps address SDGs pertaining to food and nutritional security for the people  
333 in the Kingdom with the view of attaining 2022 vision in a climate smart way! With the aid  
334 of information and communication technologies (ICTs) harmony and prosperity may be  
335 attained for the people and their aspirations and while also catering for future generations.

336

337

## 338 9. Conclusion

339 Postharvest diseases of vegetables are common in the Kingdom of Eswatini in both  
340 the formal and informal markets. Diseases cause loss of potential food items. Losses  
341 must be avoided by preventing or controlling diseases from the field, through  
342 postharvest handling, storage and marketing. Previously chemicals (fungicides and

343 bactericides) were used to control diseases. However in recent years there has been a  
344 shift to avoid use of pesticides on food items. Novel control methods are preferred  
345 these days such methods include physical methods and biological control which are  
346 environmentally friendly. Alternatively the usually highly perishable vegetables can  
347 be processed before spoilage caused by diseases.

#### 348 10. Recommendation

349 There is need for constant monitoring of postharvest diseases of vegetables by all  
350 stakeholders in the Kingdom of Eswatini. At the border gates where vegetables come  
351 into the country there is need for phytosanitary experts to identify and block entry of  
352 diseased vegetables. Ultimately there may be need to develop a compendium of  
353 postharvest diseases for use in the country.

354

#### 355 COMPETING INTERESTS

356 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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473 **Table 1:** Classification of leafy, floral and succulent vegetables on the basis of their primary  
474 edible plant part

Leaves and associated parts	Stems	Immature flowers
a. Leaf blade- chard, endive, leaf lettuce, spinach	a. Asparagus	a. Artichoke, broccoli, cauliflower
b. Petiole- celery, rhubarb		
c. Bud- Brussels sprouts, cabbage, head lettuce		
d. Shoot- green onion, leeks		

475 Source: Wang 2002

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477 **Table 2:** Taxonomic classification of some leafy, floral and succulent vegetables

Common name	Genus species
<b>Amaryllidaceae family</b>	
Green onion	<i>Allium cepa</i>
Leek	<i>Allium ampeloprasum</i>
<b>Chenopodiaceae</b>	
Beet greens	<i>Beta vulgaris</i>
Spinach	<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>
Swiss chard	<i>Beta vulgaris</i> var. <i>cicla</i>
<b>Asteraceae family</b>	
Artichoke	<i>Cynara scolymus</i>
Chicory, Witloof chicory	<i>Cichorium intybus</i>
Endive and escarole	<i>Cichorium endive</i>
Lettuce	<i>Lactuca sativa</i>
<b>Brassicaceae family</b>	
Broccoli	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i>
Brussels sprouts	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>gemmifera</i>
Cauliflower	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i>
Cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>capitata</i>
Chinese cabbage	<i>Brassica rapa</i> var. <i>pekinensis</i>
Collards and kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i>
Kohlrabi	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>gongylodes</i>
Mustard greens	<i>Brassica juncea</i>
Turnip greens	<i>Brassica rapa</i> var. <i>rapifera</i>
Watercress	<i>Nasturtium officinale</i>
<b>Apiaceae family</b>	
Celery	<i>Apium graveolens</i> var. <i>ducle</i>
Parsley	<i>Petroselinum crispum</i>

478 Source: Wang 2002

479 **Table 3:** Taxonomic classification of some immature fruit vegetables

Common name	Genus and species
<b>Dicots</b>	
Cucurbitaceae family	
Bitter gourd	<i>Momordica charantia</i> L.
Chayote	<i>Sechium edule</i> (Jacq.) Sw.
Cucumber	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.
Soft-rind or summer squash	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i> L.
Fabaceae family	
Broad bean	<i>Vicia faba</i> L.
Green or snap bean	<i>Phaseolus vulgari</i> L.
Lima bean	<i>Phaseolus lunatus</i> L.
Garden pea	<i>Pisum sativum</i> L.
Snow pea	<i>Pisum sativum</i> L. var. <i>macrocarpom</i> Ser.
Malvaceae family	
Okra	<i>Abelmoschus esculentus</i> [L.] Moench
Solanaceae family	
Eggplant	<i>Solanum melongena</i> L.
Green pepper	<i>Capsicum annuum</i> var. <i>annuum</i>
Tomato	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>
<b>Monocots</b>	
Poaceae family	
Sweetcorn	<i>Zea mays</i> convar. <i>saccharata</i> var. <i>rugosa</i>
Baby corn	<i>Zea mays</i> L.

480 Source: Mohammed and Brecht 2002

481 **Table 4:** Taxonomic classification of some important mature fruit vegetables

Common name	Genus and species
Cucurbitaceae family	
Pumpkin, acron squash, ornamental gourds	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i>
Winter squashes and pumpkins (Boston marrow, hubbard, turks turban)	<i>Cucurbita maxima</i>
Winter squashes and pumpkins (green striped cushaw, Japanese pie, Tennessee sweet potato)	<i>Cucurbita argyrosperma</i>
Winter melons, casaba, honeydew	<i>Cucumis melo</i> var. <i>inodorous</i>
Netted muskmelon, cantaloupe, Persian melon	<i>Cucumis melo</i> var. <i>reticulatus</i>
Watermelon	<i>Citrullus lanatus</i>
Solanaceae family	
Pepper, sweet and punget (Ancho, bell, cayenne, chiltepin, Cuban, jalapeno, long wax, New Mexican, pimiento, Serrano)	<i>Capsicum annuum</i> var. <i>annuum</i>
Tomato	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>
Cherry tomato	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> var. <i>cerasiforme</i>

482 Source: Saltveit 2002

483 **Table 5:** Classification of underground storage organ vegetables on the basis of their origin  
 484 and primary edible plant part

<b>I. Temperate origin</b>
a. Roots (taproots and/or hypocotyl) - beet, carrot, celeriac, parsnip, radish, rutabaga, turnip
b. Tubers (underground stems) - Jerusalem artichoke
c. Bulbs (leaf bases) - garlic, onion, shallot
d. Corms (underground stems) - water-chestnut
e. Rhizomes (underground stems)- horse-radish
<b>II. Subtropical origin</b>
a. Roots - cassava, manioc, sweet potato, yam bean
b. Tubers (underground stems) -potato, yam
c. Corms (underground stems) taro, tannia, malanga
d. Rhizomes (underground stems)- ginger

485 Source: Brecht 2002

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487 **Tables 6:** Taxonomic classification of some underground storage organ vegetables

Common name	Genus and species
Amaranthaceae family	
Beet	<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L. spp. <i>vulgaris</i>
Asteraceae family	
Jerusalem artichoke	<i>Helianthus tuberosum</i> L.
Convolvulaceae family	
Sweet potato	<i>Ipoea batatas</i> (L.) Poir
Brassicaceae family	
Horse-radish	<i>Armoracia rusticana</i> P. Gaertn. [stn. <i>Nasturtium armonracia</i> (L.) Fries]
Radish	<i>Raphanus sativus</i> L. var. <i>radicula</i>
Rutabaga	<i>Brassica napus</i> L. var. <i>neobrassica</i>
Turnip	<i>Brassica rapa</i> L. var. <i>rapifera</i>
Euphorbiaceae family	
Cassava	<i>Manihot esculenta</i> Crantz.
Fabaceae family	
Jicama	<i>Pachyrhizus erosus</i> (L.) Urban
Solanaceae family	
Potato	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>
Apiaceae family	
Carrot	<i>Daucus carota</i> L.
Celeriac	<i>Apium graveolens</i> L. var. <i>rapaceum</i> (Mill.) Gaud.
Parsnip	<i>Pastinaca sativa</i> L.
Amaryllidaceae family	
Garlic	<i>Allium sativum</i> L.
Onion	<i>Allium cepa</i> L.
Shallot	<i>Allium cepa</i> L.
Araceae family	
Malanga	<i>Xanthosoma</i> spp.
Taro	<i>Colocasia esculenta</i> (L.) Schott
Cyperaceae family	
Waterchestnut	<i>Eleocharis dulcis</i> (Burm.) Trin. Ex Hens.
Dioscoreaceae family	
Yam	<i>Dioscorea alata</i> L.

Zingiberaceae family	
Ginger	<i>Zingiber officinale</i> Roscoe

488 Source: Brecht 2002

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491 **Table 7:** Immediate physical effects caused by the preparation of fresh-cut vegetables

<p>Mechanical shock to tissue</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bruises, cracks, fractures, tears</li> <li>Hydraulic shocks are dispersed or focused by reflective and refractive properties of non-homogenous tissues within the commodity</li> </ul> <p>Removal of protective epidermal layer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Alters gas diffusion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Water vapour, O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub></li> </ul> </li> <li>Provides entry for contaminants <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Chemicals. micro-organisms</li> </ul> </li> </ul> <p>Liquid on cut surface</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reduces gas diffusion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Elevates CO<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub></li> <li>Reduces O<sub>2</sub></li> </ul> </li> <li>Accelerates water-loss</li> <li>Provides substrate for microbes</li> </ul> <p>Liquid in tissue</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Water in intracellular spaces causes translucent tissue</li> <li>Changes density of the commodity</li> </ul>
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492 Saltveit 2002

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494 **Table 8:** Physical effects caused by the preparation of fresh-cut vegetables

<p>Elimination of natural barriers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Enhanced gas diffusion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reduced CO<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub></li> <li>Elevated O<sub>2</sub></li> </ul> </li> <li>Accelerated water-loss</li> <li>Entry of contamination</li> </ul> <p>Changes in appearance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>White blush formation because of surface debris</li> <li>Uneven surface resulting from uneven water loss by tissues</li> <li>Splitting or fracturing resulting from different changes in turgor</li> <li>Intrusion of water into intracellular spaces causing translucent tissue</li> </ul>
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495 Saltveit 2002

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503 **Table 9:** Examples of common post-harvest diseases and pathogens of vegetables

Disease	Pathogen	
	Anarmorph	Teleomorph
<b>Vegetables</b>		
<b>Cucurbits</b>		
Bacterial soft rots	Various <i>Erwinia</i> spp.	
	<i>Bacillus polymyxa</i>	
	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>	
	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Fusarium rot	<i>Fusarium</i> spp.	
Alternaria rot	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.	
Charcoal rot	<i>Macrophomina phaseolina</i>	
Cottony leak		<i>Pythium</i> spp.
Rhizopus rot		<i>Rhizopus</i> spp.
<b>Tomato, Eggplant and Capsicum</b>		
Bacterial soft rots	Various <i>Erwinia</i> spp.	
	<i>Bacillus polymyxa</i>	
	<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	
	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Fusarium rot	<i>Fusarium</i> spp.	
Alternaria	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.	
Cladosporium rot	<i>Cladosporium</i> spp.	
Rhizopus rot		<i>Rhizopus</i> spp.
Watery soft rot		<i>Sclerotinia</i> spp.
Cottony leak		<i>Pythium</i> spp.
Sclerotium rot	<i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i> (sclerotial state)	<i>Althelia rolfsii</i>
<b>Legumes</b>		
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> B. <i>fabae</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
White mould and watery soft rot		<i>Sclerotinia</i> spp.
Cottony leak		<i>Pythium</i> spp.
Sclerotium rot	<i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i> (sclerotial state)	<i>Althelia rolfsii</i>
<b>Brassicas</b>		
Bacterial soft rots	Various <i>Erwinia</i> spp.	
	<i>Bacillus</i> spp.	
	<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	
	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Alternaria	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.	
Alternaria	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.	
Watery soft rot		<i>Sclerotinia</i> spp.
Phytophthora rot		<i>Phytophthora porri</i>

**Table 9** (continued)

Disease	Pathogen	
	Anarmorph	Teleomorph
<b>Leafy vegetables</b>		
Bacterial soft rots	<i>Various Erwinia spp.</i>	
	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	
	<i>Pseudomonas spp.</i>	
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Watery soft rot		<i>Sclerotinia spp.</i>
<b>Onions</b>		
Bacterial soft rots	<i>Various Erwinia spp.</i>	
	<i>Pseudomonas spp.</i>	
	<i>Lactobacillus spp.</i>	
Black mould rot	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	
Fusarium basal rot	<i>Fusarium oxysporum f.sp. cepae</i>	
Smudge	<i>Colletotrichum circinans</i>	
<b>Carrots</b>		
Bacterial soft rot	<i>Various Erwinia spp.</i>	
	<i>Pseudomonas spp.</i>	
Rhizopus rot		<i>Rhizopus spp.</i>
Grey mould	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Watery soft rot		<i>Sclerotinia spp.</i>
Sclerotium rot	<i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i> (sclerotial state)	<i>Althelia rolfsii</i>
Chalara	<i>Chalara thielavioides</i>	
Thielaviopsis	<i>Thielaviopsis basicola</i>	
<b>Potatoes</b>		
Bacterial soft rot	<i>Erwinia spp.</i>	
Dry rot	<i>Fusarium spp.</i>	<i>Gibberalla spp.</i>
Gangrene	<i>Phoma exigua</i> var <i>exigua</i> and var <i>foveata</i>	
Black scurf	<i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> (sclerotial state)	<i>Thanatephorus cucumeris</i>
Silver scurf	<i>Helminthosporium solani</i>	
Skin spot	<i>Polyscytalium pustulans</i>	

504 Source: Coates and Johnson

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