

1 **A comprehensive study of factors affecting postharvest disorder development in celery**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 Fresh-cut celery is an economically important crop, susceptible to postharvest disorders such
9 as browning at cut ends, which can compromise quality and affect freshness perception. The
10 study herein represents the most comprehensive attempt to date to determine the factors which
11 mediate celery postharvest disorders and uncover the physiological and biochemical
12 mechanisms involved. Three main experiments were conducted over two years, covering the
13 early and late Spanish season and the late UK season. The aim of the experiments was to study:
14 a) the effect of seasonal variation and horticultural maturity on shelf-life (20 °C) of fresh-cut
15 celery: b) the effect of postharvest application of 1-methylcyclopropene (1-MCP) and
16 continuous ethylene supplementation on browning and pithiness development during cold
17 storage (5 °C); and c) the effect of preharvest deficit irrigation on the quality of fresh-cut celery
18 during shelf-life (20 °C). Lesser horticultural maturity increased browning and pithiness;
19 browning severity positively correlated with chlorogenic acid concentrations in celery cut-
20 ends. Ethylene supplementation accelerated the metabolic activity of celery, leading to early
21 senescence. We found that 1-MCP suppressed respiration rate and delayed browning. Deficit
22 irrigation promoted browning, which coincided with a rapid increase in abscisic acid and its
23 main catabolite phaseic acid during storage. Light deficit irrigation promoted the increase of
24 chlorogenic acid after 6d of storage, while severe deficit irrigation did not show this increase.

25 These findings will help growers and retailers standardise industry practices ensuring uniform
26 quality and better shelf-life estimations.

27

28 **Keywords** *Apium graveolens*, physiological disorders, horticultural maturity, deficit irrigation,
29 abscisic acid.

30

31 **Introduction**

32 Celery (*Apium graveolens* L.) is a popular crop valued by consumers for its low calorific
33 content and organoleptic characteristics, such as freshness and crisp texture (Craig 1999; Viña
34 and Chaves, 2003). Fresh-cut celery is often offered as minimally processed sticks or slices in
35 response to consumer demand for healthy, ready-to-eat produce (Álvarez et al., 2015; Massolo
36 et al., 2019). The first signs of quality loss are perceived by consumers by the incidence of
37 browning and pithiness (Gómez and Artés, 2005). Postharvest browning is attributed to
38 phenylpropanoid metabolism, by which phenylalanine ammonia lyase (PAL, EC 4.3.1.5)
39 catalyses the synthesis of phenolic compounds. These phenols can be oxidised into *o*-quinones,
40 the black/brown pigments responsible for the undesirable colour on cut surfaces of fresh
41 products. This process is catalysed by polyphenol oxidase (PPO, EC 1.14.18.1) and peroxidase
42 (POD, EC 1.11.1.7) in the presence of oxygen (McEvily et al., 1992; Landi et al., 2013; Zhan
43 et al., 2013). The main phenol related to browning is chlorogenic acid, a colourless, non-
44 volatile, hydroxycinnamic phenolic acid (Liang and Were, 2020). Chlorogenic acid quinone is
45 the product of the oxidation of chlorogenic acid by PPO, a coloured and key compound in
46 enzymatic browning (Murata et al., 2002).

47 With respect to pithiness, it is considered one of the major problems negatively affecting
48 quality and shelf-life of celery (Saltveit and Mangrich, 1996). It manifests with parenchyma
49 tissue becoming less dense, whitish and fibrous, resulting in formation of aerenchyma. Current

50 evidence indicates that pithiness can be induced by pre-harvest factors. For instance, infrequent
51 drip irrigation during summer periods has been shown to significantly increase pithiness
52 (Breschini and Hartz, 2002; Saltveit and Mangrich, 1996). Also, mechanical perturbation and
53 Ethephon application increased pithiness, especially at the basal part of the petioles (Pressman
54 et al., 1984).

55 Previous research has developed solutions to minimise postharvest browning in celery. For
56 example, heat shock treatments significantly reduced browning potential (Loaiza-Velarde et
57 al., 2003; Viña and Chaves, 2008). Gómez and Artés (2004) showed that celery stalks stored
58 in controlled atmosphere (CA) with high CO₂ concentration (> 7 kPa) maintained a greener
59 colour compared to control. Also, the application of ethylene inhibitors such as 1-
60 methylcyclopropene (1-MCP) together with refrigeration showed promising potential for
61 extending the shelf-life of fresh-cut self-blanching celery (Massolo et al., 2019). This shelf life
62 extension is possible because PAL is regulated by ethylene. When fresh produce are treated
63 with 1-MCP the expression of transcripts for PAL and ethylene receptors decrease (*Pc-PAL*
64 and *Pc-ERS1*, respectively), reducing PAL activity and therefore the formation of quinones
65 precursors (MacLean et al., 2007). It is well-reported that controlling respiration rate is key to
66 delaying senescence. Together with organic acids, sugars are the main substrate for respiration
67 (Falagán and Terry, 2018) and indicators of metabolic processes leading to postharvest
68 disorders. Despite previous research into the causes of browning in fresh-cut celery the
69 underlying physiological and biochemical mechanisms involved have not yet been fully
70 elucidated.

71 In addition, the influence of preharvest factors on the development of postharvest browning are
72 not well understood. Guerra et al. (2010) reported that a delay in celery harvest date increased
73 its browning potential and total quinones content. Research on other crops susceptible to
74 browning, such as lettuce, has indicated that deficit irrigation could reduce the development of

75 this disorder (Luna et al., 2013). Also, the role of phytohormones such as abscisic acid (ABA)
76 and metabolites thereof in the development of celery postharvest disorders has not studied in
77 depth to date. It is well known that ABA is synthesized by plant roots in response to decreases
78 in soil water potential (Sharp, 2002; Steuer et al., 1988). Once produced, ABA is translocated
79 to the leaves, where it stimulates stomatal closure by altering guard cell ion transport, which in
80 turn attenuates transpiration rate, and hence, water loss (Finkelstein, 2013). Additionally, ABA
81 has been shown to induce expression of genes involved in the de novo synthesis of
82 osmoprotectant molecules (Fujita et al., 2011).

83 In this context, the aim of this study was to understand the influence of preharvest factors
84 (maturity at harvest and irrigation regime) and the application of postharvest treatments on the
85 development of postharvest discolouration in fresh-cut celery, taking as reference the cultivars
86 ‘Monterey’, ‘Victoria’ and ‘Imperial’.

87

88 **2. Material and Methods**

89 Three experiments were conducted over two years, exploring the effects of horticultural
90 maturity at harvest, postharvest ethylene treatments under cold storage and postharvest
91 response to preharvest deficit irrigation strategies. These experiments simulated the challenges
92 that industry faces with postharvest disorders in celery.

93 **2.1. Experiment 1: Horticultural maturity stage at harvest**

94 2.1.1. Plant material

95 The aim of this experiment (Exp. 1) was to examine the effect of celery maturity stage at harvest
96 on the development of physiological disorders during shelf-life. Exp. 1 was conducted in
97 collaboration with G’s Fresh Ltd. (Cambs., UK) who provided all the plant material and
98 consisted of three separate field trials, two of which were conducted in Spain (Cartagena,
99 Murcia) and one in the UK (Stretham, Cambs.). The first trial was conducted in the early

100 Spanish spring season [(cv. ‘Monterey’); between 10 March and 7 April], the second in the late
101 Spanish spring season [(cv. ‘Monterey’); between 5 May and 2 June], and the third in the late
102 UK season [(cv. ‘Victoria’); between 11 August and 8 September]. Details of growing
103 conditions, geographical coordinates and harvest frequency are included in **Table S1**.

104 In all three trials, the experimental field was divided into three blocks: top, middle and bottom
105 and samples were randomly harvested from each block. Harvest took place at different
106 horticultural maturity stages: a) two weeks prior to optimum harvest date [HM(-2)], b) one
107 week before optimum harvest date [HM(-1)], c) at optimum harvest date [HM], d) one week
108 after optimum harvest date [HM(+1)] and e) two weeks after optimum harvest date [HM(+2)].

109 Celery was hand-picked using a lightweight field knife. Optimum harvest dates were decided
110 by considering two parameters: stalk length (~ 55 cm) and the expected harvest date indicated
111 in reference schedule tables prepared by G’s Fresh Ltd. every growing season. Plants were then
112 packed directly in the field. Thereafter, they were vacuum-cooled to 3 °C as per standard
113 commercial practice and dispatched (2 h transit) to the Plant Science Laboratory (PSL) at
114 Cranfield University (Beds., UK) via refrigerated freight (5 °C), within three days.

115 Upon arrival, celery plants were washed under running tap water to remove soil and dried with
116 a soft paper towel. Subsequently the celery samples were randomly divided into two batches
117 (for shelf-life and cold storage evaluation).

118

119 2.1.2. Shelf-life assessment

120 The celery plants selected for shelf-life assessment were placed into three different crates
121 (replicates) per horticultural maturity stage in a storage room at constant temperature of 20 °C
122 and 56 RH%. Storage temperature was set up at 20 °C to encourage browning, hence, to
123 represent a worst-case scenario in the supply chain. Thereafter, samples were subjected to
124 visual, physiological and biochemical analysis at regular time intervals. More precisely,

125 samples were analysed upon receipt (baseline), after 6 d and 12 d in storage. Three replicates
126 were taken from each crate for a total of 9 replicates for each sampling day.

127

128 **2.2. Experiment 2: Postharvest treatments under cold storage**

129 2.2.1. Plant material

130 The aim of this experiment (Exp. 2) was to study the effect of postharvest treatments on the
131 development of physiological disorders under cold storage conditions. A subsample of the
132 celery plants at different horticultural maturity stages ([HM(-2)], [HM], [HM(+2)]) harvested
133 for Exp. 1 was used for Exp. 2.

134

135 2.2.2. Ethylene and 1-MCP treatments

136 Celery selected for cold storage were divided into three batches and subjected to the following
137 treatments: a) continuous air (control), b) continuous exogenous ethylene (Et) and c) 1-MCP.
138 All samples were stored at 5 °C and 95% relative humidity (RH) for 10 d in total. For ethylene
139 treatment, samples were placed in water-sealed, 264 L polypropylene boxes covered with
140 polypropylene lids and flushed with continuous exogenous ethylene at 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ concentration.

141 The gas flow was controlled from a 50 L cylinder of 5000 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ certified standard
142 concentration ethylene in nitrogen (BOC, Surrey, UK) and was reduced to 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ by mixing
143 with pure flowing air following Amoah et al. (2017). Analysis was carried out as previously
144 described in Terry et al. (2007a).

145 1-MCP treatment was applied as reported by Downes et al. (2010) with slight modifications.
146 A sample of 1.47 g 1-MCP powder (SmartFresh[®], Rohm and Haas, product code: AFxRD-
147 0014) was mixed with 16.3 mL of warm water (50 °C) and shaken to release 1 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$
148 concentration in water sealed 264 L polypropylene boxes.

149

150 **2.3. Experiment 3: Postharvest response to deficit irrigation**

151 2.3.1. Plant material

152 A 5m-wide, 8 m-long and 2.5 m-high polythene polytunnel (Haygrove Ltd., Hereford, UK)
153 was used to grow celery plants (cv. ‘Imperial’) from 7 July to 20 November. Celery seeds were
154 initially sown in peat block (mixture of black, brown turf and fertilizer), covered with sand and
155 transferred into germination rooms for 6 days at 18 °C. Then, they were moved to a greenhouse
156 at a minimum temperature set up at 16 °C for 27 days. After this period, transplants were
157 transported to Cranfield University and transplanted in the polytunnel. The plants were grown
158 in 12 L capacity plastic pots filled with Fenland peat directly collected from Dimmocks Cote
159 Farm (Stretham, Ely, Cambs., UK) fields (52°19’57.7” N; 0°15’58.3” E; **Table S2**).

160

161 2.3.2. Experimental design and sampling

162 Three different irrigation treatments were applied: 800 (full irrigation), 600 (light water stress)
163 and 400 (heavy water stress) mL every 48 h. The full irrigation treatment was decided
164 according to the standard celery growing practises adopted by G’s Fresh Ltd. and corresponded
165 to the amount of water needed to reach soil field capacity (45% volumetric water content). The
166 other two treatments were applied to induce two different levels of drought stress. Field
167 capacity was derived by watering soil to full saturation, waiting until excess water drained
168 away and measuring the soil moisture with a Thetaprobe meter (ThetaKit type ML2x, Delta-T
169 Devices, Cambridge, UK). Plants were divided into three main blocks, with each arranged in
170 three main plots for each irrigation treatment. Each main plot contained 15 plants [12 for
171 postharvest analyses (3 replicates per treatment) and 3 additional as spare (1 per treatment)].
172 Plots were arranged in a completely randomised design. Harvest dates of 800, 600 and 400 mL
173 per alternate day irrigated plants were 16 October, 3 November, and 20 November, respectively
174 and were all at full maturity according to commercial practice. After harvest, samples were

175 immediately transferred to 20 °C constant temperature. Visual and physiological attributes
176 were assessed immediately after harvest, after 3, 6 and 10 d of storage (baseline, sampling day
177 1, sampling day 2 and sampling day 3 respectively).

178

179 2.3.3. Physiological determinations

180 2.3.3.1 *Respiration rate*

181 Respiration rate (RR) of celery plants was measured at 20 °C as reported by Collings et al.
182 (2013) with slight modifications using a Sable Respirometry System (Model 1.3.8 Pro, Sable
183 Systems International, NV, USA). Samples were incubated in 16 L air-tight polypropylene
184 boxes (L&L NordicOÜ, Estonia) in continuous air flushed by an 80 HP pump (Hiblow, Techno
185 Takatsuki Ltd., Philippines). Boxes were connected through Nalgene PVC tubes of 3 mm
186 internal diameter (Thermo Scientific, Rochester, NY) to the CA-10 carbon dioxide (Firmware
187 version 1.05) and FC-10 oxygen detectors (Firmware version 3.0) of the Sable System to detect
188 O₂ consumption / CO₂ emission real time for 10 min over three cycles. In addition, a water
189 vapour pressure detector (RH-300) was used to measure relative humidity in the outflowing
190 air. Data were analysed with ExpeData software (Release 1.3.8, PRO Version) and reported as
191 nmol CO₂ kg⁻¹ s⁻¹.

192

193 2.3.3.2. *Pithiness*

194 Samples were visually assessed for pithiness at both cut petiole and butt ends of celery. A visual
195 scale from 1 to 4, provided by G's Fresh Ltd., was used to assess pithiness with 1 corresponding
196 to 'no pithiness' and 4 corresponding to 'severe pithiness' (**Figure S1**). Photos of celery
197 samples were taken at both cut ends to be used as references. Prior to visual assessment,
198 samples were cut 5 mm from the apical cut petiole ends and 5 cm from the butt ends.

199

200 2.3.3.3. *Colour*

201 Samples were visually assessed for browning at both cut petiole and butt ends of celery. A
202 visual scale from 1 to 4, was used again in this case to assess browning with 1 corresponding
203 to ‘no browning’ and 4 corresponding to ‘severe browning’. Photos of celery samples were
204 taken at both ends to be used as references (**Figure S2-S3**).

205 Objective colour was measured with a CR-400 Minolta colorimeter and DP-400 data processor
206 (Minolta Co. Ltd, Japan) at both cut petiole and butt ends of each celery head. Each individual
207 measurement was the mean of four measurements randomly taken on both cut surfaces. Data
208 were expressed as chroma (C*), hue angle (H°) and lightness (L*) which were automatically
209 calculated. Calibration of the instrument was done using a Minolta standard white tile CR-400.

210

211 2.3.4. Biochemical analysis

212 2.3.4.1. *Sample preparation for biochemical analysis*

213 Cut celery sticks were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -40 °C prior to freeze-drying
214 (Coolsafe 55-9 Scanvac, Scanlaf A/S, Lynge, Denmark). Lyophilised samples were powdered
215 with a mortar grinder (RM 200, Retsch Ltd., Derby., UK) and stored at -40 °C until further
216 analysis.

217

218 2.3.4.2. *Analysis of individual phenolic compounds*

219 Lyophilised powder (50 mg) were extracted and subjected to HPLC analysis and analysed
220 according to Giné-Bordonaba and Terry (2008). Agilent ChemStation Rev. B.02.01 software
221 was used for data integration and quantification.

222

223 2.3.4.3. *Analysis of soluble sugars*

224 Soluble sugars were extracted and analysed as previously described by Terry et al. (2007b).
225 Freeze-dried celery samples (50 mg) were mixed with 1 mL of extracting solution [62.5:37.5
226 HPLC-grade methanol:water (v/v)] and placed in a shaking water bath for 30 min at 55 °C; the
227 mixture was vortexed every 5 min for 20 s. Then, the extracts were then cooled at ambient
228 temperature and filtered with 2 µm PTFE filter (Jaytee Biosciences Ltd, Kent, UK), storing
229 them in 1.5 mL clear glass vials at -40 °C until biochemical analyses. Sugar content in the
230 extracts was analysed using a HPLC (Agilent Technologies 1260 series, Berkshire, UK) system
231 equipped with ELSD (Evaporative Light Scattering Detector). The stationary phase was
232 constituted by a Prevail carbohydrate Es (250 mm x 4.6 mm, 5 µm diameter particles). The
233 mobile phase was formed by HPLC-grade water (solvent A) and HPLC-grade acetonitrile
234 (solvent B). The program involved a linear increase/decrease of solvent B: 80-50%, 15 min;
235 50-80%, 5 min; 80%, 5 min at a flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹ and column temperature of 30 °C.
236 Eluted compounds were identified and quantified by using commercial standards (fructose,
237 mannitol, glucose and sucrose).

238

239 *2.3.4.4. Analysis of ABA and ABA catabolites*

240 Extraction and quantification of ABA and ABA catabolites was assessed according to the
241 method by Ordaz-Ortiz et al. (2015) with modifications as described in Anastasiadi et al.
242 (2020). Lyophilized celery tissue (100 mg) was mixed with 6 mL 75:20:5
243 methanol:water:formic acid solvent (v/v/v). Then, 30 µL of 400 ng mL⁻¹ internal standard
244 mixture solution (deuterated compounds) was added to the extraction mixture and vortexed for
245 2 min and shaken at 4 °C for 1 h, then centrifuged for 15 min at 4500 rpm. Supernatant was
246 removed and evaporated in a ScanVac freeze-dried overnight at -110 °C. Samples were then
247 reconstituted with 400 µL of 10:99.9:0.1 acetonitrile:water:formic acid solvent, vortexed for
248 30 s, centrifuged for 10 min at 4500 rpm and filtered using 0.2 µm PTFE filters (Jaytee

249 Biosciences Ltd, Kent, UK). The filtrate was put into deactivated silanized amber vials. All
250 operations were done in dark environment to prevent compound inactivation by light.
251 Sample extracts were injected on an Agilent 1290 Infinity UHPLC system coupled with an
252 Agilent 6540 Ultra High Definition Accurate Mass Q-TOF LC–MS System (Agilent
253 Technologies). Stationery phase was constituted by a thermostated Zorbax Rapid Resolution
254 High Definition Eclipse Plus C18 column (2.1 x 50 mm, 1.8 µm particle size). The mobile
255 phase was formed by two solutions: water + 0.1% formic acid (solution A) and acetonitrile +
256 0.1% formic acid (solution B). The program involved a linear increase/decrease of the
257 following solutions: 0 min, 4% B; 1.5 min, 12.6% B; 7.0 min, 26% B; 10 min 40% B and hold
258 for 0.5 min; 10.6 min 100% B and hold for 1 min. Lastly, the column was re-equilibrated for
259 1.35 min (4% B) for a total run time of 13 min. Samples concentration was compared with
260 calibration standard curves prepared using seven calibrations solution levels (10, 25, 50, 75,
261 100, 150, 300 ng mL⁻¹) of each deuterated standard compound. Deuterated standards
262 compounds used were: abscisic acid, phaseic acid, dihydrophaseic acid and trans-zeatin
263 riboside.

264

265 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

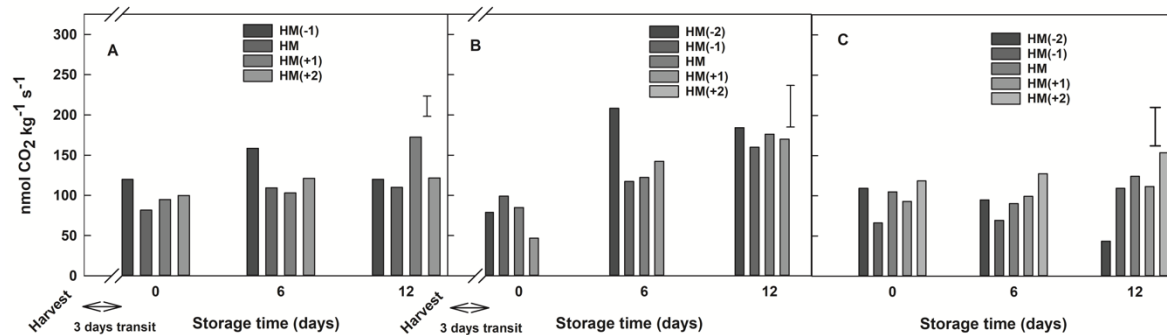
266 Statistical analyses were carried out using Statistica for Windows version 13.2 (StatSoft, Inc.
267 UK). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to identify significant differences ($p < 0.05$)
268 between treatments considering field block randomisation. The Fisher's Least Significant
269 Difference (LSD) procedure was used for pairwise comparisons in order to calculate LSD at
270 95% confidence level.

271

272 **3. Results**

273 **3.1. Experiment 1: Lesser horticultural maturity increases browning in celery**

274 An increase in celery RR was observed during shelf-life for Exp. 1. The increase was most
 275 pronounced in samples harvested before the optimum maturity stage especially for the samples
 276 grown in the late Spanish season (**Figure 1A**).



277

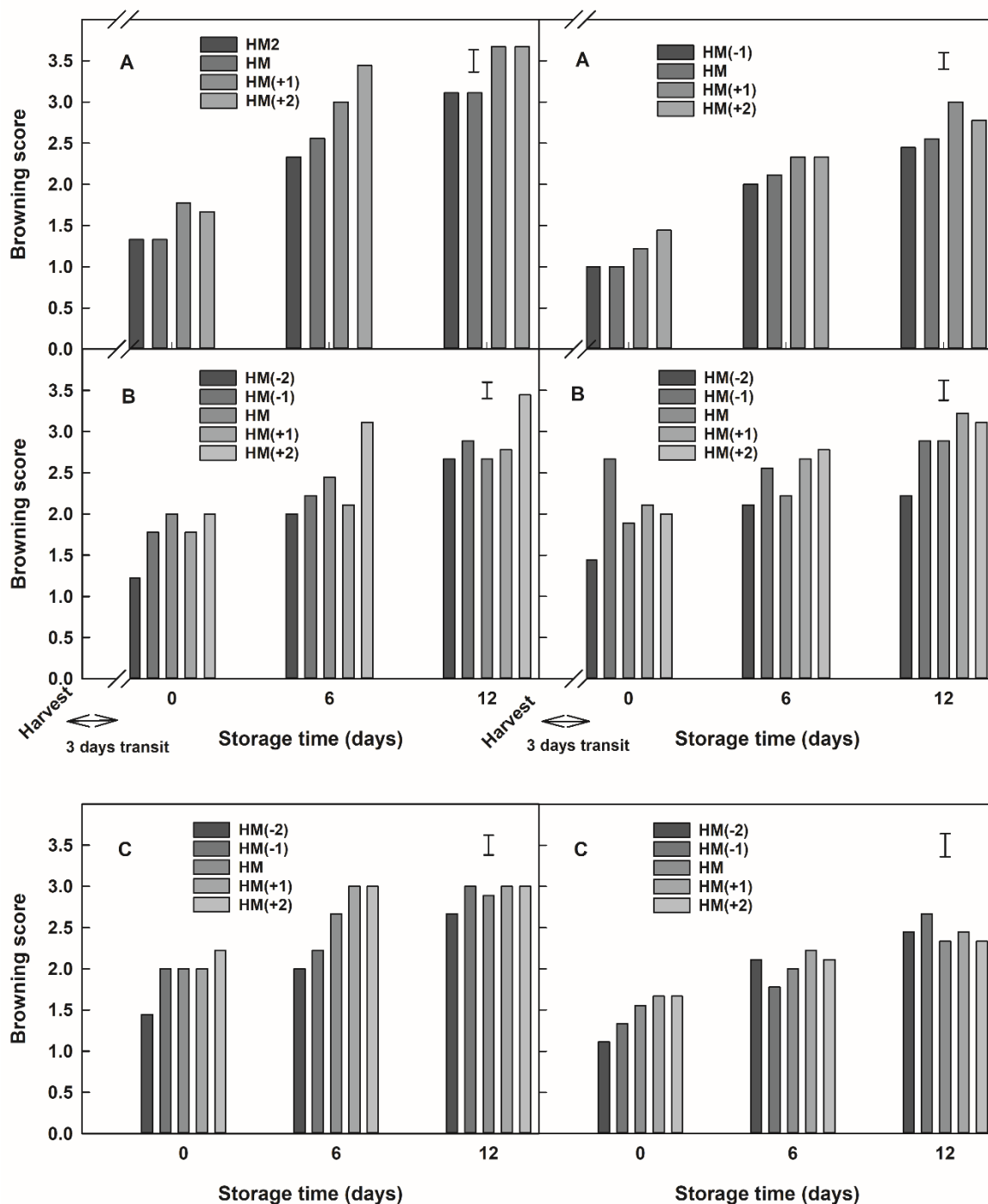
278 **Figure 1.** Respiration rate during shelf-life (20 °C) of celery samples grown in three different
 279 seasons (A: early Spanish season; B: late Spanish season; C: late UK season) and belonging to
 280 five different harvest maturities [HM (-2): two weeks before optimum harvest date; HM (-1):
 281 one week before optimum harvest date; HM: optimum harvest date; HM (+1): one week after
 282 optimum harvest date; HM (+2): two weeks after optimum harvest date]. Error bars represent
 283 least significant differences (LSD).

284

285 Late maturity stage samples showed a rapid increase in pithiness score even in the early stages
 286 of storage (**Figure S4**). UK grown celery showed a more moderate increase in pithiness scores,
 287 compared to Spanish grown celery, but the trend was the same.

288 Celery discolouration (browning development) was assessed using both subjective and
 289 objective methods. Visual scoring results revealed that browning intensified over storage at
 290 both butt and cut petiole ends of celery; with the increase being more pronounced during the
 291 first 6 d (**Figure 2A**). Petiole ends were generally more affected by browning development
 292 than butt ends. Changes in objective colour during shelf-life were mainly observed for H^o
 293 which exhibited a systematic drop from harvest with values stabilising between 75-90 H^o by

294 the end of shelf life (**Figure S5**). This change in H^0 values corresponds to a colour shift from
 295 light yellow to darker yellow/orange. Celery samples harvested prior to optimum maturity also
 296 tended to have higher H^0 values compared to samples harvested after the optimum harvest
 297 period, retaining a lighter yellow colour during shelf-life, especially in the butt ends.

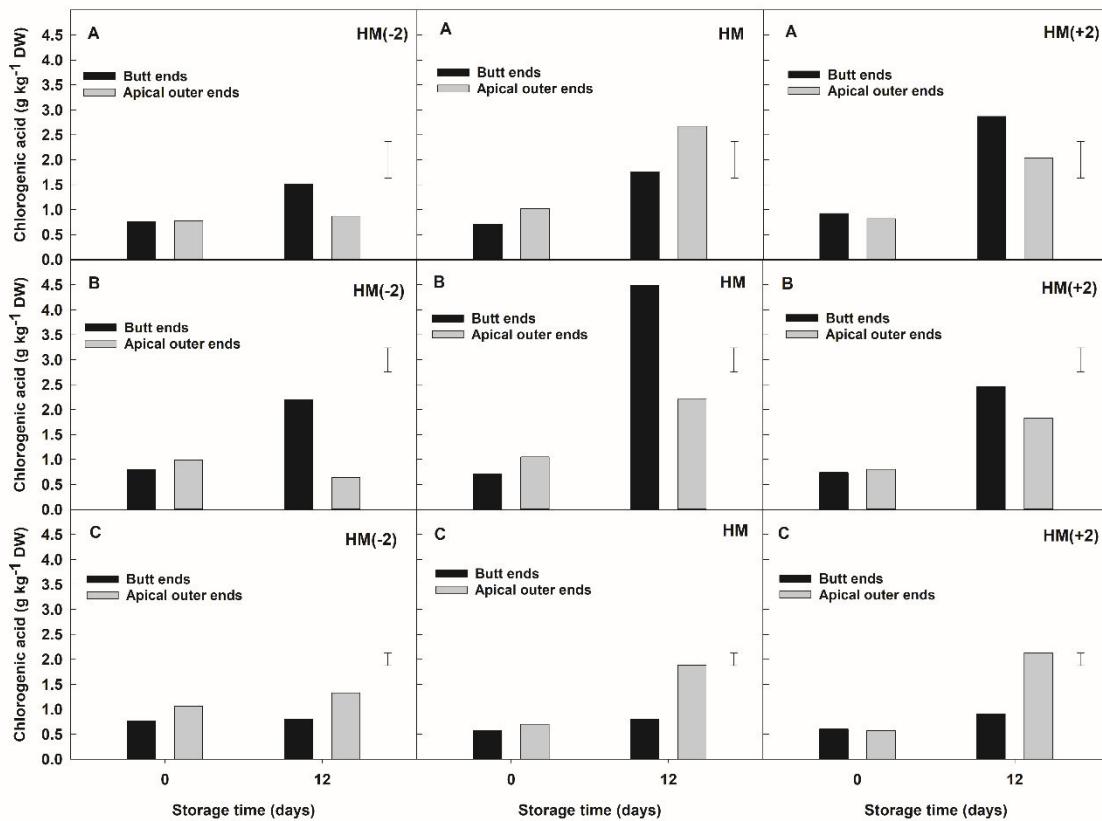


298

299 **Figure 2.** Subjective colour score at 20 °C of celery during shelf-life at cut petiole ends (on the
300 left) and butt ends (on the right), grown in three seasons (A: early Spanish season; B: late
301 Spanish season; C: late UK season) and belonging to five different harvest maturities [HM (-
302 2): two weeks before optimum harvest date; HM (-1): one week before optimum harvest date;
303 HM: optimum harvest date; HM (+1): one week after optimum harvest date; HM (+2): two
304 weeks after optimum harvest date]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

305

306 With respect to phenolic compounds, chlorogenic acid was mainly found in the butt ends and
307 cut petiole ends tissues of celery, rather than middle outer, apical inner and middle inner
308 petioles tissues (**Figure 3**). In general, chlorogenic acid content was relatively low at harvest
309 ($< 1.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ DW}$) irrespective of tissue, maturity level, season or cultivar and increased over
310 storage time at both butt and apical cut petiole ends. The highest concentrations were observed
311 after 12 d of shelf-life in the butt ends of optimum harvested celery plants [HM] grown in the
312 late Spanish season showing a more than 6-fold increase from harvest (**Figure 3B**). A similar
313 pattern was observed in the early Spanish season. In contrast, samples from the UK season
314 deviated from this pattern, with chlorogenic acid in the butt ends remaining either stable or
315 exhibiting a moderate increase during shelf-life. The concentration of chlorogenic acid was
316 positively correlated with the subjective browning score of celery grown in all three seasons
317 with the highest correlation observed for butt ends in the Early Spanish season ($R = 0.77$).



318

319 **Figure 3.** Effect of crop maturity stage on the chlorogenic acid content at butt ends and apical
 320 outer ends of celery (cv. ‘Monterey’) grown in the Early Spanish [A], (cv. ‘Monterey’) grown
 321 in the Late Spanish [B], and (cv. ‘Victoria’) grown in the Late UK season [C]; all stored in air
 322 at 20 °C. HM (-2): two weeks before optimum harvest date; HM: optimum harvest date; HM
 323 (+2): two weeks after optimum harvest date. Error bars represent least significant differences
 324 (LSD).

325

326 3.2. Experiment 2: 1-MCP suppresses respiration rate and delays postharvest browning

327 Two postharvest treatments (1-MCP and continuous ethylene) were further applied to samples
 328 from Exp. 1 in an attempt to decipher the mechanisms affecting postharvest browning
 329 development in celery by measuring physiological and biochemical responses.

330

331 3.2.1. Physiological responses and visual assessment

332 RR measurements during cold storage showed a similar range for samples grown in all three
333 seasons, with results for the early Spanish growing season being the most stable and having the
334 narrowest range. Overall, a clear pattern emerged, where within each crop maturity stage,
335 ethylene-treated samples had the highest RR, whilst 1-MCP-treated had the lowest (**Figures**
336 **S6-S8**).

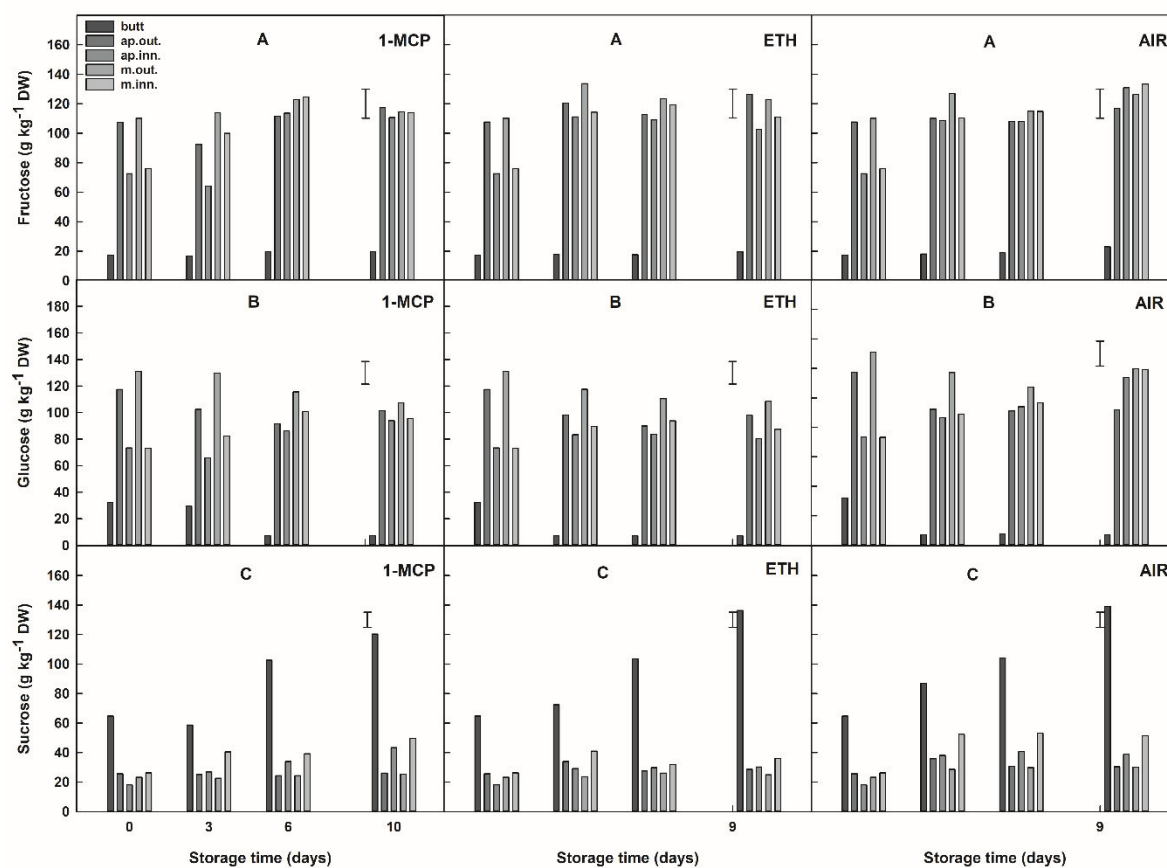
337 The opposite trend was observed for pithiness, whereas it was significantly affected by stage
338 of crop maturity, yet, it was not affected by postharvest treatments. Pithiness scores were
339 particularly high in samples harvested 2 weeks past the optimum maturity stage (**Figure S9-**
340 **S11**). In addition, pithiness scores increased with storage duration irrespective of maturity stage
341 or postharvest treatment. Browning scores showed that browning development was closely
342 related to maturity stage at harvest which agrees with the results presented in section 3.1.
343 Browning was less severe in the most immature [HM (-2)] celery plants compared to the other
344 two maturity stages (**Figure S12-S14**).

345

346 *3.2.2. Individual sugar profile during cold storage*

347 Individual sugar concentrations in different celery sections during cold storage are shown in
348 **Figure 4**. The concentration of fructose and glucose at harvest was *ca.* 6-fold lower in the butt
349 ends compared to the apical and middle petioles irrespective of treatment. Fructose
350 concentrations in the butt ends remained stable throughout storage, while glucose content
351 rapidly declined by 3-fold after 3 d of storage for control and Et treated sample. For 1-MCP
352 samples glucose content was retained up to 3 d but subsequently concentrations dropped to the
353 same levels as Et and control samples after 6 d in storage. Sucrose concentrations in different
354 celery sections followed the opposite pattern to fructose and glucose, being present at *ca.* 65 g
355 kg⁻¹ DW in the butt ends at harvest with concentrations more than doubling by the end of cold
356 storage in all treatments. Apical and middle petiole sections on the other hand started at *ca.* 20

357 g kg⁻¹ DW sucrose at harvest with concentrations increasing to *ca.* 40 g kg⁻¹ DW towards the
 358 end of storage, with the exception of ethylene treated apical sections which after an initial
 359 increase declined to baseline concentrations towards the end of storage. Fructose
 360 concentrations in petiole sections exhibited an increase during storage in all treatments, with
 361 the middle inner and apical inner petioles showing the most significant increase. A similar
 362 pattern was observed for glucose with the concentrations in the middle inner and apical inner
 363 petioles increasing during storage in all treatments to levels similar to the other petiole sections.



364
 365 **Figure 4.** Concentration of fructose (A), glucose (B) and sucrose (C) at different celery sections
 366 harvested at optimum maturity in the late UK season and subjected to different postharvest
 367 treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1 µL L⁻¹ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20 °C, ETH
 368 = 10 µL L⁻¹ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)]. Bars with different colours
 369 represent different portions (butt = butt ends, ap.out = apical outer petioles, ap.inn = apical

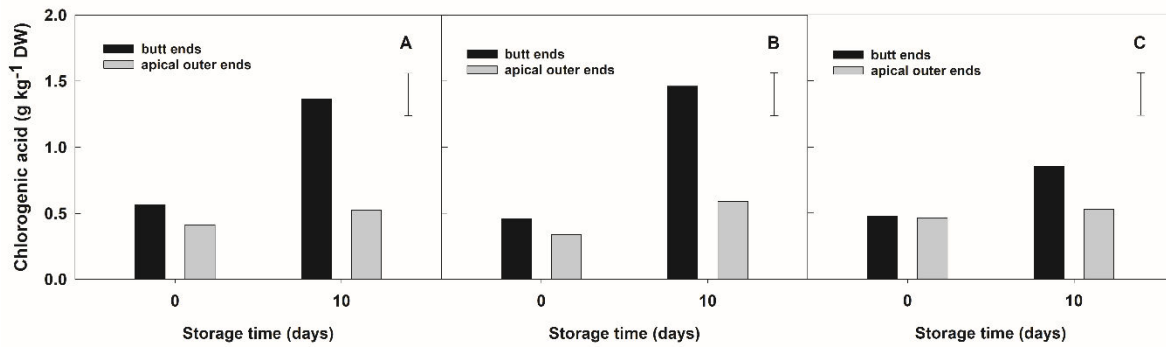
370 inner petioles, m.out = middle outer petioles, m.inn = middle inner petioles). Error bars
371 represent least significant differences (LSD).

372

373 **3.3. Severe water stress increases postharvest browning**

374 In Exp. 3, RR increased in heavily stressed celery plants, which exhibited a 2-fold increase in
375 respiration after 3 d of storage and consistently maintained higher RR throughout the storage
376 period (**Figure S15**). Also, results indicated that increased water stress largely affected
377 browning development in celery butt ends especially at the end of the storage period (**Figure**
378 **S16**). In contrast, water stress or storage duration did not appear to significantly influence
379 pithiness development in celery (**Figure S17**), in contrast with previous studies (Breschini and
380 Hartz, 2002; Saltveit and Mangrich, 1996). This disparity can be related to genotype. Pithiness
381 scores were comparable between water treatments especially in the butt ends, although deficit
382 irrigation seemed to result in less incidents of the disorder, but the results were not statistically
383 significant due to the large variability between biological replicates. It should also be noted
384 that pithiness scores were relatively high for all samples even on harvest day, with scores
385 ranging from 2.5 to 3.5 on day 0. This indicated that the disorder had already developed before
386 optimum maturity was reached.

387 Irrigation regime did not affect chlorogenic content at harvest, but had a significant impact in
388 the development of chlorogenic acid in the butt ends of cut celery during shelf-life. As shown
389 in **Figure 5**, celery samples grown under no water stress (800 mL every after alternate day)
390 and light water stress (600 mL every alternate day) exhibited a greater than 3-fold increase in
391 chlorogenic acid after 6 d in storage (**Figure 5**). Samples grown under heavy water stress (400
392 mL every after alternate day) showed no differences. Chlorogenic acid content in the apical
393 outer ends remained relatively stable during shelf-life irrespective of the irrigation regime
394 applied.



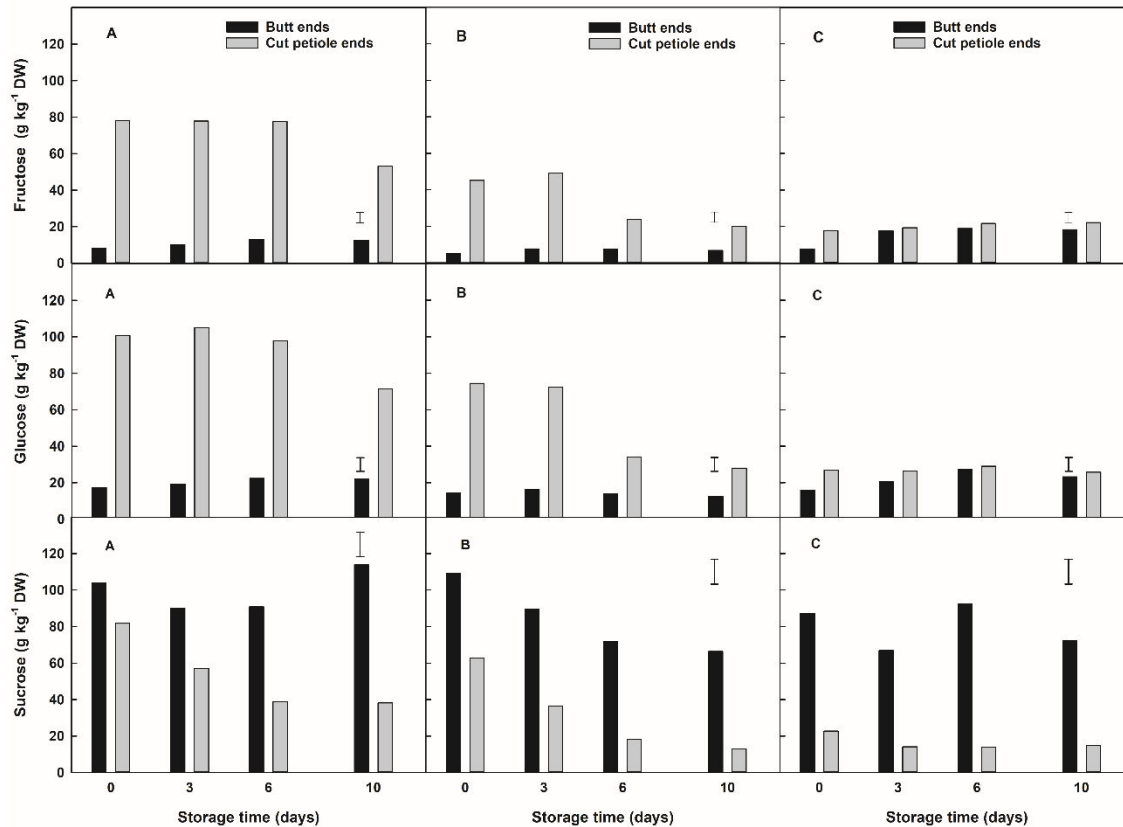
395

396 **Figure 5.** Chlorogenic acid content during shelf-life in the butt ends and apical outer ends of
 397 celery irrigated with 800 mL (A), 600 mL (B) and 400 mL (C) of water every alternate day.
 398 Samples were harvested at optimum maturity and stored in air at 20 °C for 10 d. Error bars
 399 represent least significant differences (LSD).

400

401 With respect to sugars, the irrigation regime decreased individual sugar content of celery
 402 petiole ends at harvest, proportionally to the level of water stress imposed (**Figure 6**). In
 403 contrast, only sucrose levels were marginally lower at harvest in the butt ends of celery
 404 subjected to light water stress.

405 Fructose, glucose and sucrose contents decreased during shelf-life, especially in the cut petiole
 406 ends of celery samples irrigated with 800 and 600 mL, while samples irrigated with 400 mL
 407 had the most stable sugar profile during storage. Glucose and fructose contents in the butt end
 408 region remained stable irrespective of irrigation regime, while sucrose decreased with water
 409 stress (**Figure 6**). The irrigation regime also significantly affected the sugar content in cut
 410 petiole ends with total sugar concentrations at harvest ranging between 280 and 60 g kg⁻¹ DW
 411 with concentrations sharply declining in samples subjected to light and heavy water stress.



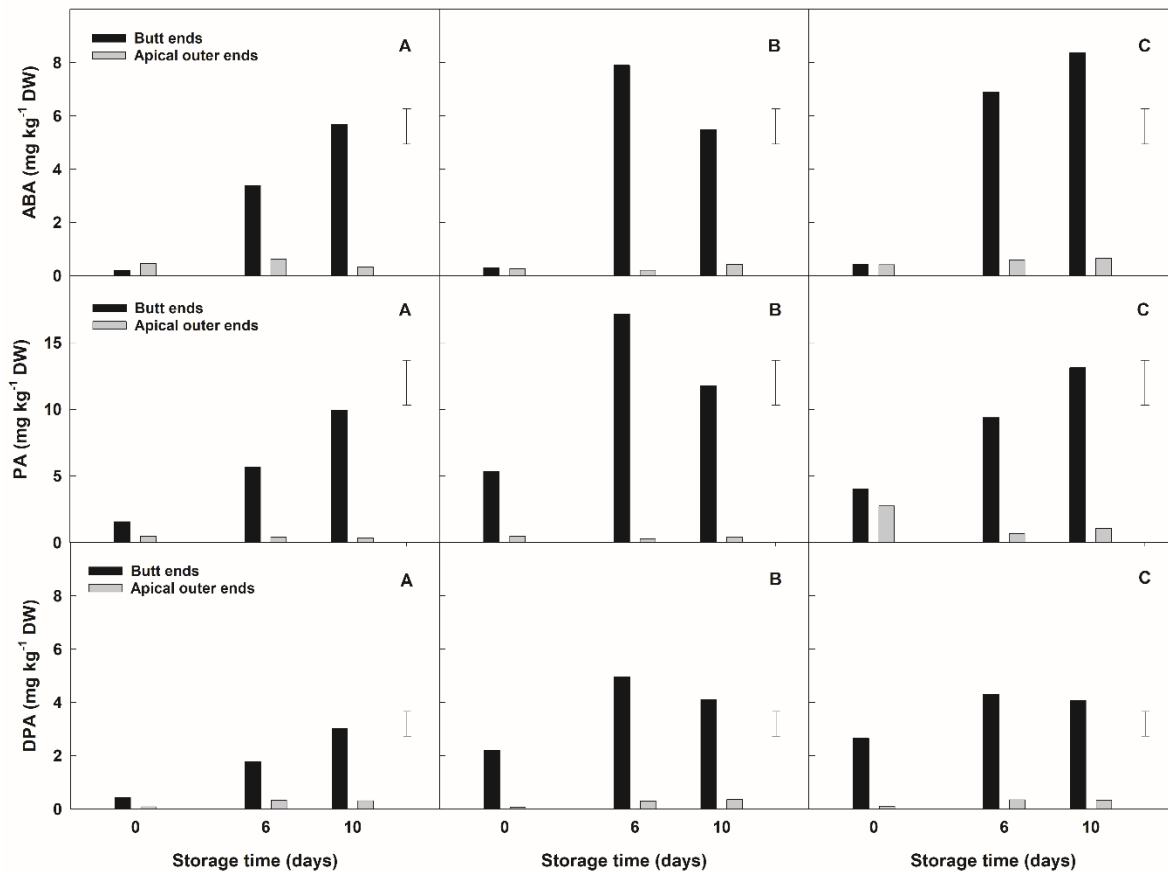
412

413 **Figure 6.** Effect of water treatments on the fructose, glucose, and sucrose concentration at cut
 414 petiole ends and butt ends of celery irrigated with 800 mL (A), 600 mL (B) and 400 mL (C)
 415 every alternate day. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

416

417 Overall, the mean content of ABA and its catabolites was higher in water-stressed plants than
 418 in control-irrigated. ABA and its catabolites PA and DPA were identified and quantified in
 419 Exp. 3 and the results are shown in **Figure 7**. ABA content at harvest was $< 1.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW}$
 420 in all tissues irrespective of irrigation regime with levels remaining stable in apical outer ends
 421 throughout shelf-life. In contrast, ABA concentrations in butt ends exhibited a rapid increase
 422 during shelf-life storage in all treatments with the increase being greater in the samples grown
 423 under light and heavy water stress. The same pattern was observed for PA, the main ABA
 424 catabolite which reached concentrations up to $18 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ in the butt ends of lightly stressed

425 samples, and also in DPA with concentrations reaching up to 5 mg kg⁻¹ DW in the same
426 samples.



427

428 **Figure 7.** Content of ABA, PA and DPA at butt ends and apical outer ends of celery irrigated
429 with 800 mL (A), 600 mL (B) and 400 mL (C) of water every alternate day. Error bars represent
430 least significant differences (LSD).

431

432 Discussion

433 4.1 Development of postharvest browning and pithiness in celery is influenced by 434 preharvest irrigation regime, maturity stage at harvest, and shelf-life duration

435 A series of experiments were conducted in an effort to determine the conditions affecting the
436 development of postharvest physiological disorders in celery and the underlying mechanism
437 involved, in three cultivars taken as a reference.

438 The development of browning and pithiness in celery was positively linked with storage time,
439 maturity stage and water stress. Browning development rose steeply during the first 6 d of
440 storage and was particularly evident in cut petiole ends. Spanish grown celery had higher
441 browning scores compared to UK grown celery, which could be attributed to the longer transit
442 time (3 d) and possibly genotypic variation.

443

444 *4.1.1 Maturity stage at harvest*

445 Physiological measurements showed that immature celery samples from the early and late
446 Spanish season had a steep increase in RR during the first 6 d in storage and generally
447 maintained higher RR throughout storage compared to samples harvested at optimum or post-
448 optimum maturity. This observation was directly linked to the developmental stage of celery
449 plants at the time of harvest with immature plants retaining higher metabolic activity
450 postharvest. High postharvest RR in immature plant tissues has been reported in other crops,
451 such as asparagus spears and broccoli heads, and has been linked to rapid quality deterioration
452 (Kader 1992; Page, Griffiths, & Buchanan-Wollaston, 2001). However, browning severity in
453 celery plants harvested at different maturity stages, was negatively correlated with RR and was
454 positively correlated with chlorogenic acid concentrations, which generally increased in
455 tandem during storage. The latter finding is in contrast with previous work by Viña and Chaves
456 (2006) who reported that chlorogenic acid content in celery sharply decreased at different
457 storage temperatures (0, 4 and 10 °C) over a period of 28 d. This contradiction could be
458 attributed to differences in cultivar (self-whitening ‘Golden Boy’ vs green celery cultivars
459 ‘Monterey’ and ‘Victoria’ studied herein) and storage conditions.

460 The positive correlation of increased browning severity and maturity stage at harvest agrees
461 with Guerra et al., (2010) who also reported that the browning potential of leaf stalks of the
462 self-whitening celery (cv. ‘Golden Clause’) was significantly higher in celery plants harvested

463 124 d after transplantation compared to those harvested 94 d after transplantation. Cut-end
464 browning has not been extensively investigated in celery, yet it has been studied in other
465 economically important crops like lettuce. A study conducted by Chutichudet et al. (2011), on
466 the lettuce (cv. 'Grand Rapids') showed that, in leaves, browning appearances significantly
467 increased with plant developmental stage which coincided with an increase in polyphenol
468 oxidase (PPO) activity, reaching maximum levels at the later harvesting date (73 d after
469 planting). Similar findings had been reported earlier by Kang et al. (2008) who also reported
470 that browning of head lettuce (cv. 'Capitata') stored at 5 °C for 5 weeks was higher in over-
471 mature plants. Zhan et al. (2013) applied light exposure treatment (2,000 lux) to fresh-cut
472 celery, suppressing both PPO and POD activity and therefore, reducing the impact of browning
473 in fresh-cut celery. Cut-end browning is related to the enzymatic activity of PPOs, which
474 oxidase phenolic compounds to produce brown pigments (Queiroz et al., 2008). PPOs and
475 phenolic compounds are normally compartmentalised in plant cells, hence, the browning
476 reaction can only occur when plant tissues are broken or damaged (for instance, after harvest
477 and during handling) or due to loss of cell membrane integrity as a result of advanced
478 senescence. In our study, the increased browning score attributed to later maturity stage celery
479 plants was likely a result of the observed increase in chlorogenic acid content over time,
480 possibly accentuated by elevated PPO activity.

481 Pithiness development in celery has been found to be stimulated by several factors which can
482 induce early senescence, such as irrigation regime (Pressman et al., 1984; Breschini and Hartz,
483 2002) and harvest delay (Guerra et al., 2010). Therefore, we hypothesised that plant
484 developmental stage at harvest affects pithiness in a similar way to cut-end browning by
485 inducing senescence and promoting enzymatic browning and pith breakdown.

486

487 *4.1.2. Deficit irrigation*

488 Changes in the biochemical profile of celery plants grown under different irrigation regimes
489 were investigated during shelf-life. These included sugars (fructose, glucose, and sucrose),
490 phenolic compounds (chlorogenic acid) and plant growth hormones (ABA and catabolites).
491 Although harvest dates for different irrigation regimes were approximately two weeks apart,
492 the statistical analysis considered all the samples simultaneously, as the plants were growing
493 under controlled conditions and shelf-life was conducted in the same rooms under the same
494 conditions.

495 Fructose and glucose were generally higher at cut petiole ends rather than butt ends. This trend
496 was opposite for sucrose, which minimum content was at cut petiole ends. These findings
497 correspond with Keller and Matile (1989) who reported that sucrose concentration was lower
498 in the parenchyma tissue of celery petioles compared to other sugars.

499 The severe browning incidence postharvest recorded for celery plants growing under heavy
500 water stress coincided with significantly higher RR throughout storage indicating elevated
501 metabolic activity which could have led to accelerated senescence. Furthermore, browning
502 incidence in butt ends was most severe in the most water-stressed samples despite the fact that
503 chlorogenic acid content was *ca.* 2-fold lower compared to the other two irrigation regimes.
504 This observation could further support the assumption that water stressed plants were in a more
505 advanced stage of senescence causing disruption of membrane integrity and browning
506 development. In addition, ABA content exhibited a rapid increase in water-stressed samples
507 during shelf-life, compared to control samples (800 mL water every alternate day), which also
508 increased but at a reduced rate. A similar pattern was recorded for PA and DPA. The
509 accumulation of ABA in plant tissues under water stress has also been observed in previous
510 studies (Wang et al., 2019; Faruq et al., 2020). The role of ABA in stomatal regulation as a
511 response to salt/water stress has been well documented (reviewed in Finkelstein, 2013). ABA
512 levels at harvest were similar for all irrigation regimes, indicating that there was no significant

513 water stress during plant development. Also, dry matter content at harvest was almost identical
514 for all three irrigation regimes (*ca.* 12%), but the samples receiving the least amount of water
515 (400 mL every alternate day), exhibited a rapid increase in dry matter content during storage
516 (**Figure S18**). Similar incidences of postharvest increase in dry matter in other species such as
517 asparagus (Mastropasqua et al., 2016) have been attributed to increased transpiration due to
518 longer opening time of stomatal aperture resulting in greater water loss and water stress.
519 Another factor contributing to accelerated senescence rates in plants under deficit irrigation
520 regime, could have been the decreased sugar content at harvest and during storage in the cut
521 petiole ends, compared to the control. Reduced sugar content at harvest due to environmental
522 factors and agricultural practices as well as loss of sugars postharvest, have been associated
523 with reduced shelf-life in celery and other fresh cut products (Gómez and Artés, 2005;
524 Anastasiadi et al. 2020). However, the inverse correlation between the amount of water applied
525 and the sugar content at harvest, reported herein contradicts the majority of previous reports
526 which have found that both dry matter and sugar content increase under water stress, in species
527 such as iceberg lettuce, basil and strawberry (Luna et al., 2012; Bekhradi et al., 2015; Terry et
528 al., 2007b). The main reason driving sugar accumulation in drought conditions is the important
529 role of these molecules as osmotic solutes, attracting water and increasing cell turgor
530 (Rodrigues et al., 1993).

531

532 *4.1.3. Postharvest treatments did not have an effect on browning*

533 The results observed for RR agreed with Massolo et al. (2019), who showed that ethylene
534 treatment (in the form of ethephon) increased the respiration rate of apical celery slices stored
535 at 4 °C, while 1-MCP treated celery slices maintained much lower respiratory rates during 20
536 d in storage, compared to control and ethylene treatment. The same authors also reported a
537 respiratory burst after 13 d in storage in both control and ethylene treated samples which was

538 attributed to advanced senescence. Ethylene treatment of over-mature celery plants, could have
539 accelerated senescence processes causing a similar ethylene burst.

540 In this study, postharvest treatments did not affect the development of browning and pithiness
541 in celery. Statistical analysis of browning and pithiness scores, revealed that the deciding factor
542 for the development of these disorders was maturity stage at harvest, with later-harvested plants
543 [HM (+2)] being the most susceptible, together with irrigation regimes. This is probably an
544 indication that the membrane integrity in over-mature celery plants is already compromised at
545 harvest rendering postharvest treatments such as 1-MCP ineffective.

546

547 **Conclusions**

548 The present study represents the most comprehensive attempt to date to study the preharvest
549 and postharvest factors affecting the development of physiological disorders in fresh-cut
550 celery, taking as physiological models the cultivars ‘Monterey’, ‘Victoria’ and ‘Imperial’.

551 Maturity stage at harvest and irrigation regime were confirmed to be the main factors affecting
552 cut-end browning with browning severity increasing for late harvested plants and the water
553 stress imposed. Postharvest treatment with 1-MCP showed a moderate success in suppressing
554 RR and delaying browning only in celery plants harvested before and at optimum maturity,
555 providing further evidence of the importance of maturity stage for minimising postharvest
556 disorders in fresh-cut celery. These findings can be used by growers and retailers to standardise
557 industry practices ensuring uniform quality and better shelf-life estimations.

558

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563 [https://doi.org/ 10.17862/cranfield.rd.12496946](https://doi.org/10.17862/cranfield.rd.12496946).

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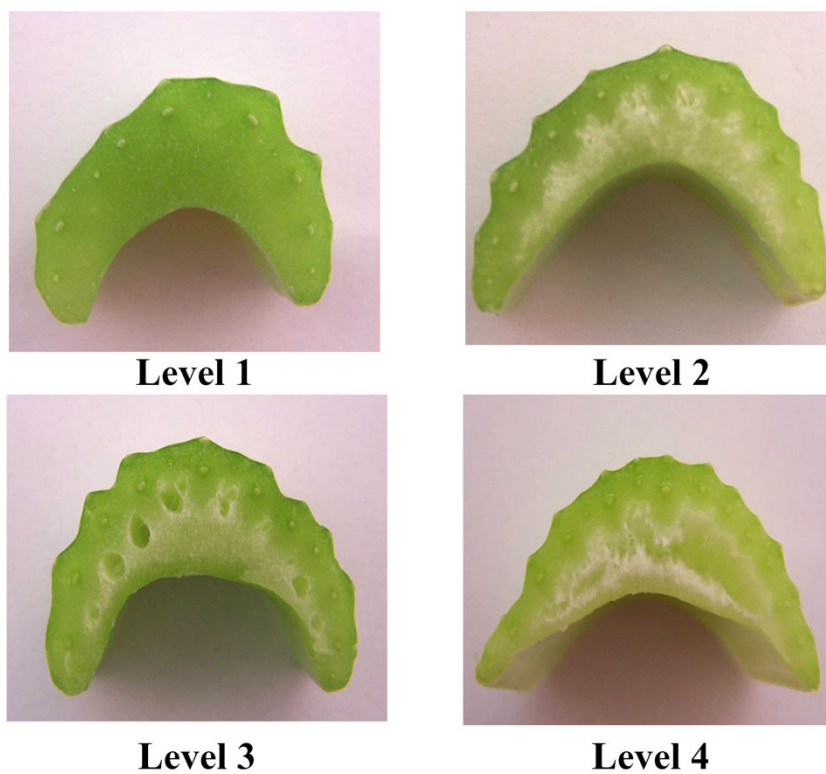
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752 browning and improving capacity of fresh-cut celery (*Apium graveolens* var. dulce). *Food*
753 *Chemistry*, 141, 2473-2478. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.05.035>.
754



756

757 **Figure S1.** Visual scale used to assess pithiness disorder in celery, provided by G's Fresh Ltd.

758 Level 1: 'no pithiness'; Level 2: 'slight pithiness'; Level 3: 'moderate pithiness'; Level 4:

759 'severe pithiness'.



Level 1



Level 2



Level 3



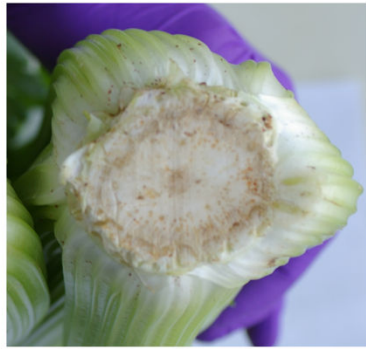
Level 4

760

761 **Figure S2.** Comparative visual scale for assessing browning at cut petiole ends of celery. Level

762 1: 'absent'; Level 2: 'slight', Level 3; 'evident'; Level 4: 'severe'.

763



Level 1



Level 2



Level 3



Level 4

764

765 **Figure S3.** Comparative visual scale for assessing browning at butt ends of celery. Level 1:

766 ‘absent’; Level 2: ‘slight’, Level 3; ‘evident’; Level 4: ‘severe’.

767

768

769

770 **Table S1.** Details of growing conditions, harvest frequency, year and location for Exp 1.

Season	Year	Location	Soil	Weather conditions	Harvest frequency
Early Spanish	March - April 2014	Puntal-Campo de Golf farm, Cartagena, Spain Coordinates: 37°36'42.55" N; 0°47'38.34" W	Soil type: fine texture clay-loam soil, Soil composition: clay: 33.8%, silt: 22.3%, sand: 43.9%, (EcoSur Laboratories, Murcia, Spain), Soil pH: 8.34 at 20 °C.	Avg Temp (°C): 12.5 ± 2.4 Avg Relative Humidity (%): 60.3 ± 13.2 Total rainfall (mm): 41.8	weekly
Late Spanish	May – June 2015	Barranquillo farm, Cartagena, Spain Coordinates: 3 7°44'13.86" N; 0°58'39.08" W	Soil type: medium texture loam soil, Soil composition: clay: 29.4%, silt: 25.2%, sand: 45.4% (EcoSur Laboratories, Murcia, Spain), Soil pH: 8.5 at 20 °C.	Avg Temp (°C): 16.3 ± 3.0 Avg Relative Humidity (%): 56.2 ± 11.0 Total rainfall (mm): 6.0	weekly
Late UK	August – Sept 2014	Dimmocks Cote farm, Cambridgeshire, UK Coordinates: 52°19'57.7" N, 0°15'58.3" E.	Soil type: Fenland peaty soil	Avg Temp (°C): 17.3 ± 2.8 Avg Relative Humidity (%): 69.8 ± 10.8 Total rainfall (mm): 245.7	weekly

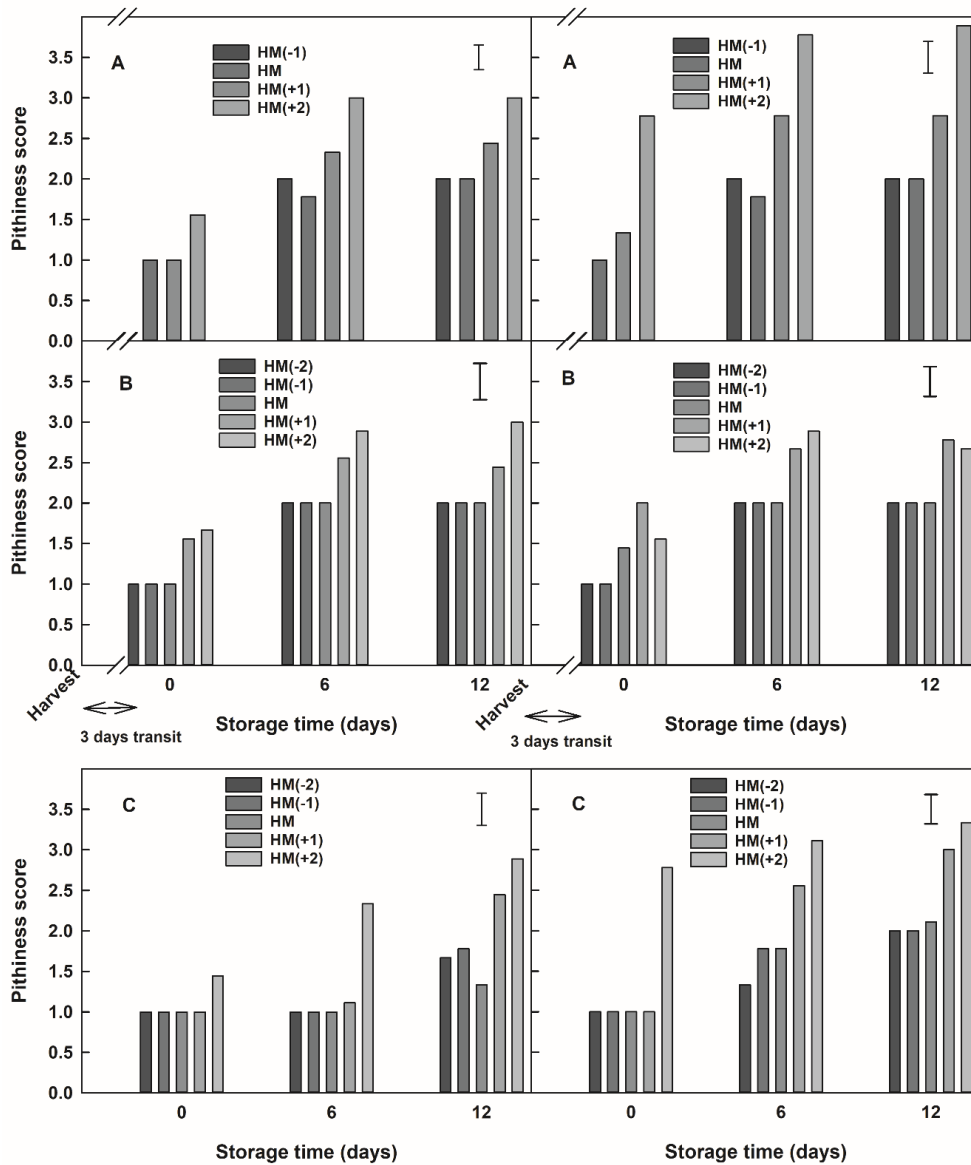
771

772

773 **Table S2.** Details of growing conditions, harvest frequency, year and location for Exp 3.

Year	Location	Soil	Treatments	Harvest
July – Nov 2015	Cranfield University, Bedfordshire, UK Coordinates: 52° 4' 9.1992" N; 0° 37' 52.9068";	Soil type: Fenland peaty soil from Dimmocks Cote Farm (Stretham, Ely, Cambridgeshire) fields (coordinates: 52°19'57.7" N; 0°15'58.3" E)	Fertiliser: NPK 10-10-30 + 3.3 MgO + trace elements water soluble fertilizer (Universol Violet, LBS Horticulture Ltd) Pesticides: Aphox® (2.5g in 5 L of water); Movento® (1 mL in 1 L of water)	At stalk length ~55 cm

774



775

776 **Figure S4 [A-C].** Pithiness score - during shelf-life (20 °C) - of celery samples at cut petiole

777 ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the right), grown in three seasons (A: early Spanish season;

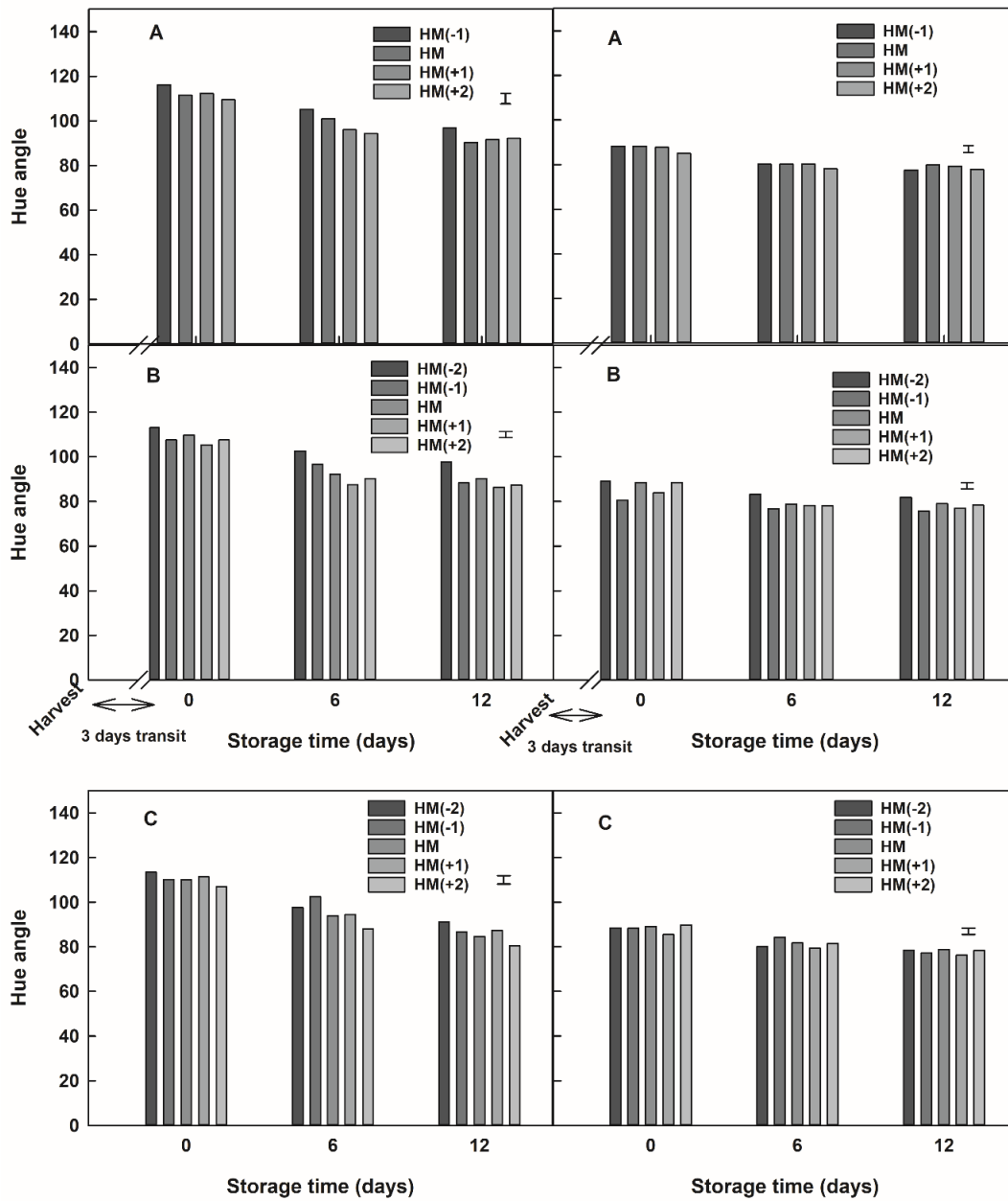
778 B: late Spanish season; C: late UK season) and belonging to five different harvest maturities

779 [HM (-2): two weeks before optimum harvest date; HM (-1): one week before optimum harvest

780 date; HM: optimum harvest date; HM (+1): one week after optimum harvest date; HM (+2):

781 two weeks after optimum harvest date]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

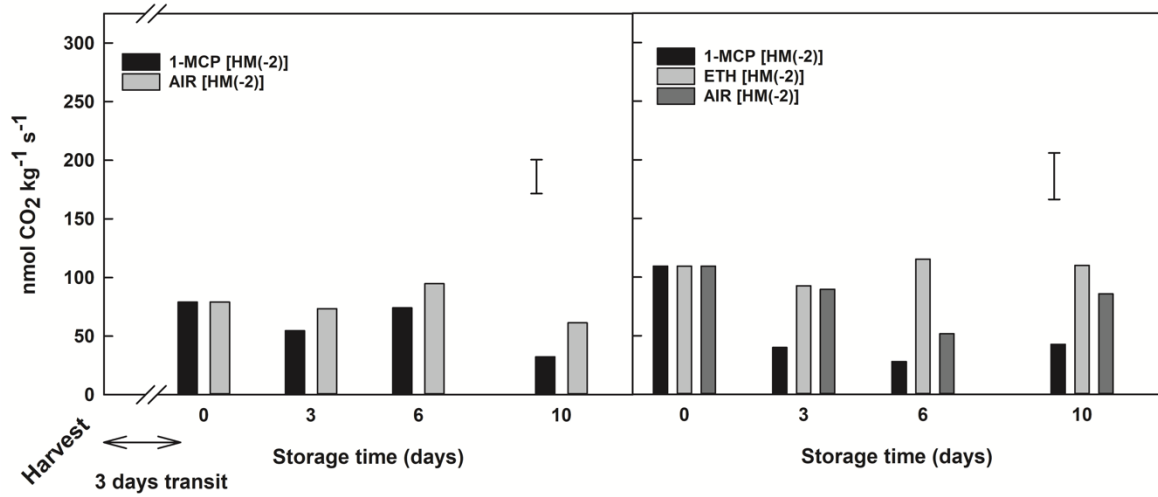
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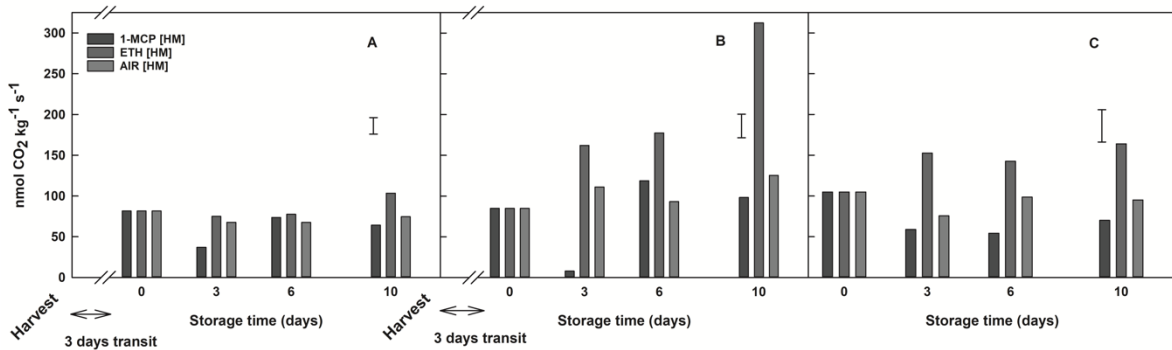
784 **Figure S5.** Objective colour of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the
 785 right), grown in three seasons (A: early Spanish season; B: late Spanish season; C: late UK
 786 season) and belonging to five different harvest maturities [HM (-2): two weeks before optimum
 787 harvest date; HM (-1): one week before optimum harvest date; HM: optimum harvest date; HM
 788 (+1): one week after optimum harvest date; HM (+2): two weeks after optimum harvest date].
 789 Bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

790



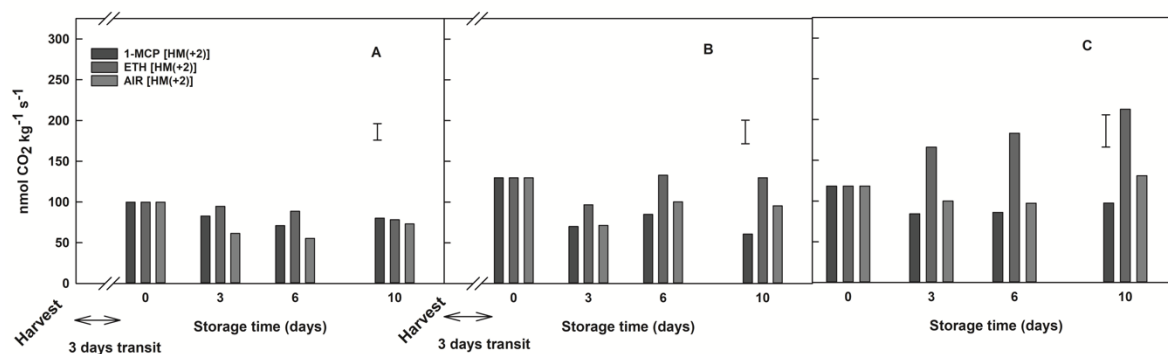
791

792 **Figure S6.** Respiration rate of celery grown in the Late Spanish season (left) and the Late UK
 793 season (right) and harvested two weeks prior to optimum maturity [HM(-2)]. Bar with different
 794 colours indicate different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1
 795 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20 °C, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air
 796 (control)]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



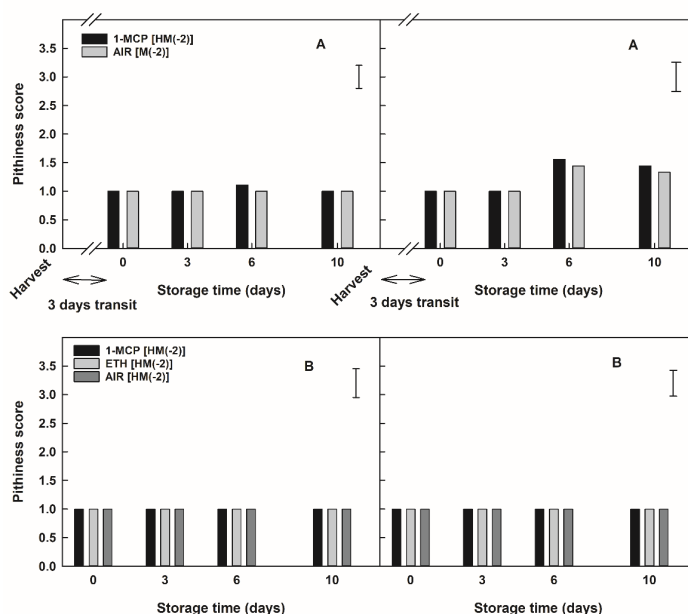
797

798 **Figure S7.** Respiration rate of celery grown in the Early Spanish season (A) Late Spanish
 799 season (B) and the Late UK season (C) and harvested at optimum maturity [HM]. Bar with
 800 different colours indicate different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after
 801 exposure to 1 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20 °C, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR =
 802 continuous air (control)]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



803

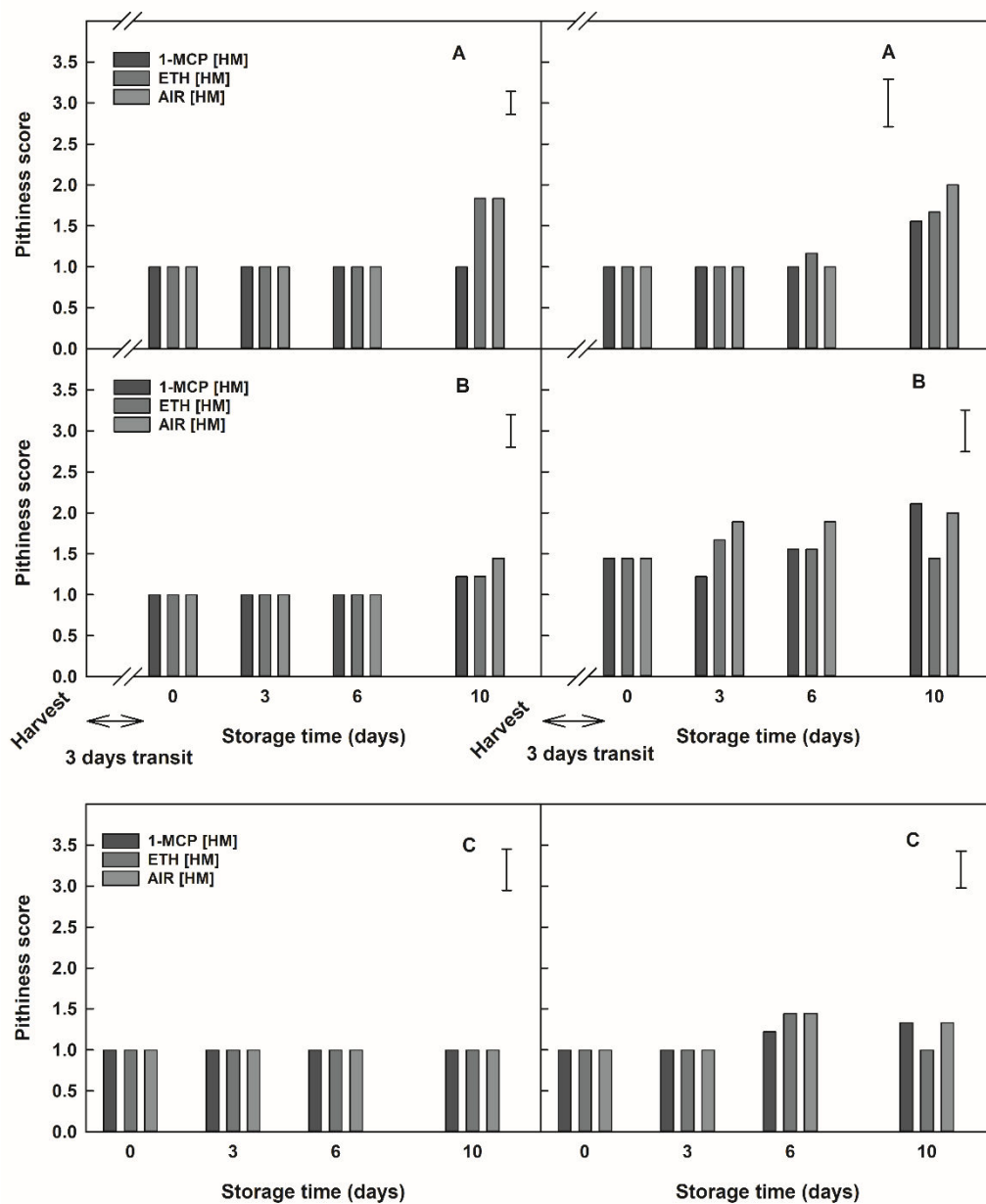
804 **Figure S8.** Respiration rate of celery grown in the Early Spanish season (A) Late Spanish
 805 season (B) and the Late UK season (C) and harvested two weeks after optimum maturity
 806 [HM(+2)]. Bar colour indicates different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after
 807 exposure to $1 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20°C , ETH = $10 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR =
 808 continuous air (control)]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



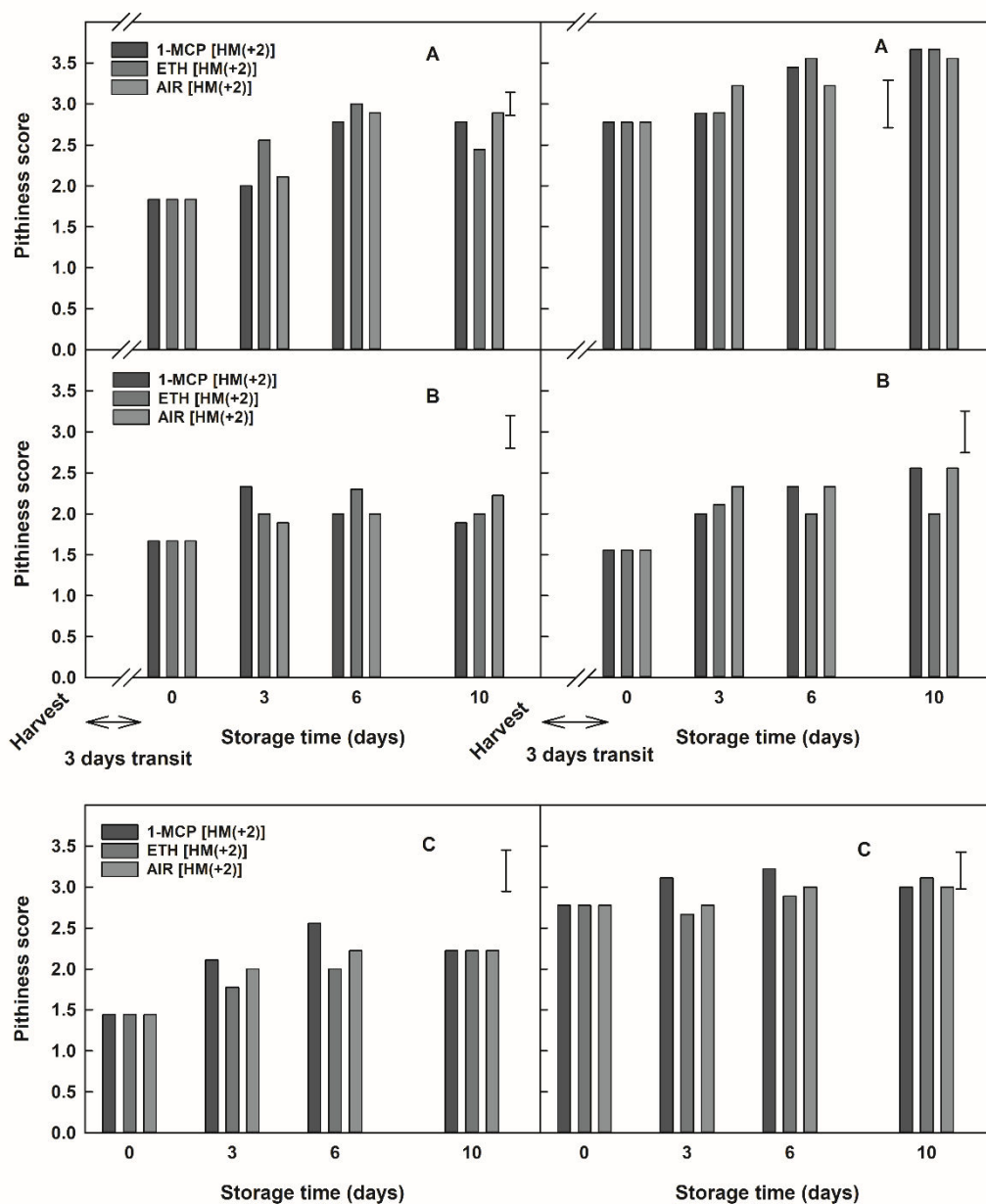
809

810 **Figure S9.** Pithiness score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the right)
 811 and grown in the Late Spanish season (A) and the Late UK season (B) and harvested two weeks
 812 prior to optimum maturity [HM(-2)]. Bars with different colours indicate different postharvest
 813 treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to $1 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20°C , ETH

814 = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)]. Error bars represent least
 815 significant differences (LSD).



816
 817 **Figure S10.** Pithiness score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the right)
 818 and grown in the Early Spanish Season (A), Late Spanish season (B) and the Late UK season
 819 (C) and harvested at optimum maturity [HM]. Bars with different colours indicate different
 820 postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at
 821 20 °C, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)]. Error bars
 822 represent least significant differences (LSD).



824

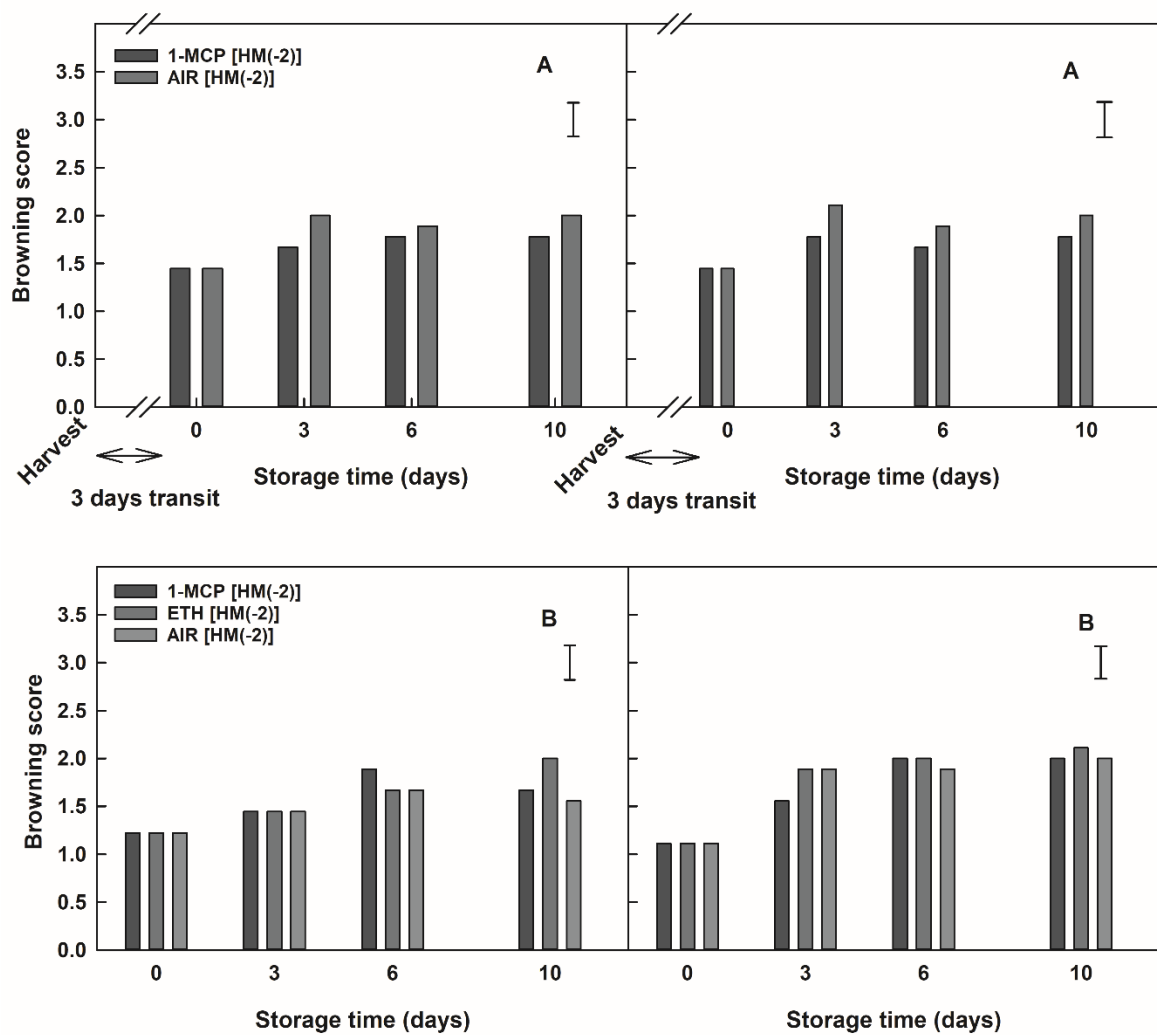
825 **Figure S11.** Pithiness score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the right)

826 and grown in the Early Spanish season (A), the Late Spanish season (B) and the Late UK season

827 (C) and harvested two weeks after optimum maturity [HM(+2)]. Bars with different colours

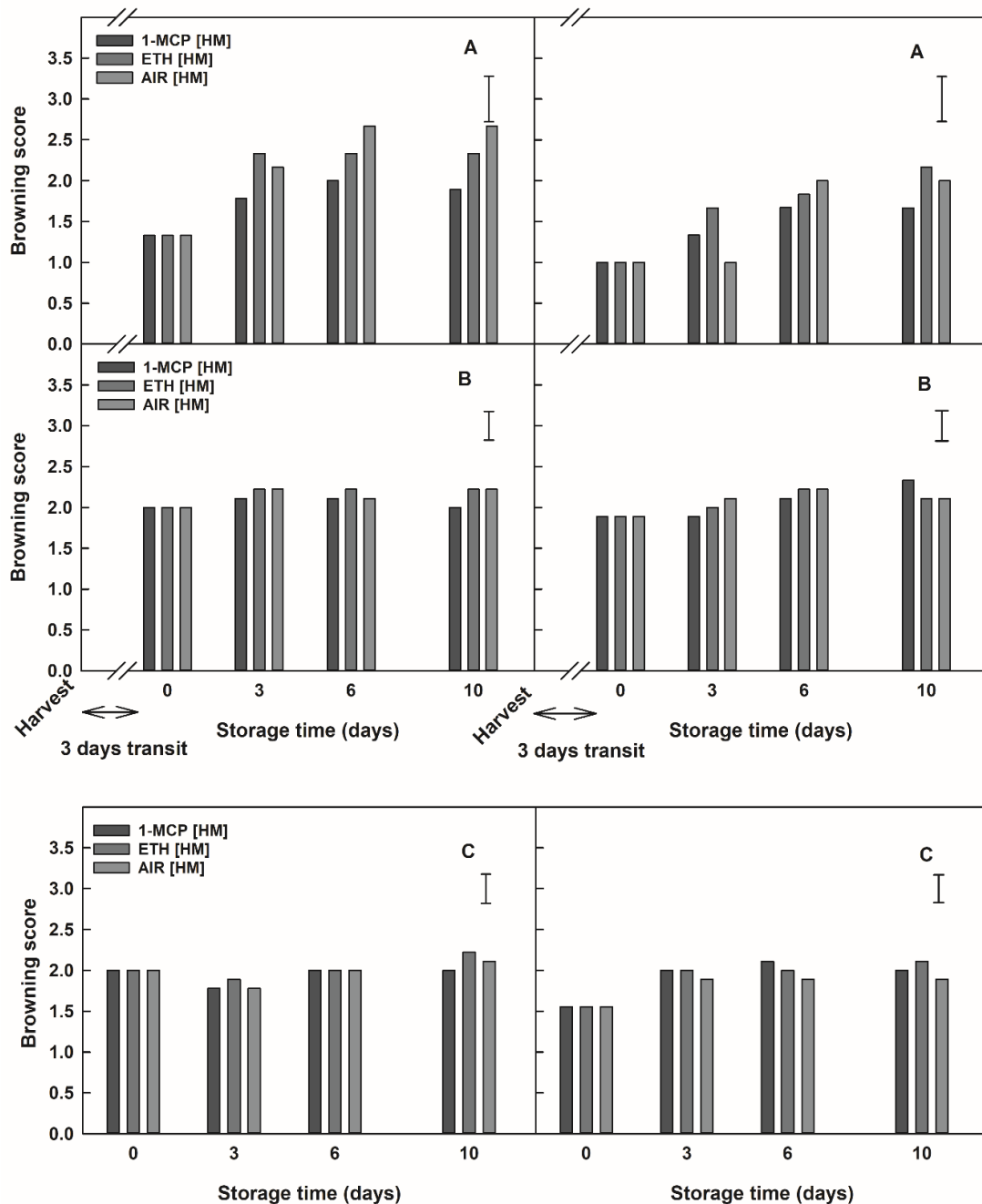
828 indicate different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-829 MCP for 24 h at 20 °C, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)].

830 Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



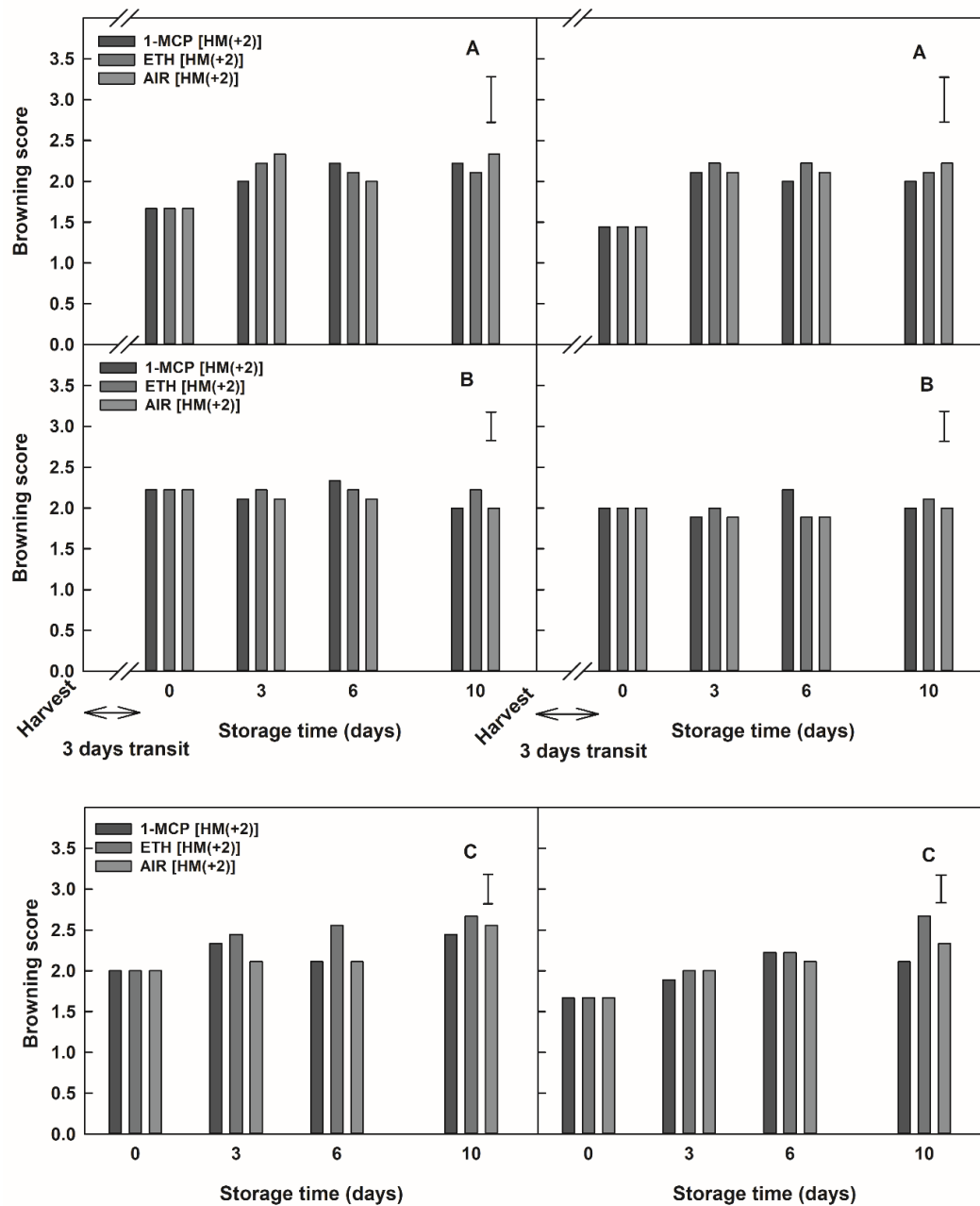
831

832 **Figure S12.** Browning score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the
 833 right) and grown in the Late Spanish season (A) and the Late UK season (B) and harvested two
 834 weeks prior to optimum maturity [HM(-2)]. Bars with different colours indicate different
 835 postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at
 836 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)]. Error bars
 837 represent least significant differences (LSD).



838

839 **Figure S13.** Browning score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the
 840 right) and grown in the Early Spanish Season (A), Late Spanish season (B) and the Late UK
 841 season (C) and harvested at optimum maturity [HM]. Bars with different colours indicate
 842 different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to $1 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for
 843 24 h at 20°C , ETH = $10 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air (control)]. Error
 844 bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



845

846 **Figure S14.** Browning score of celery at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the

847 right) and grown in the Early Spanish season (A), Late Spanish season (B) and the Late UK

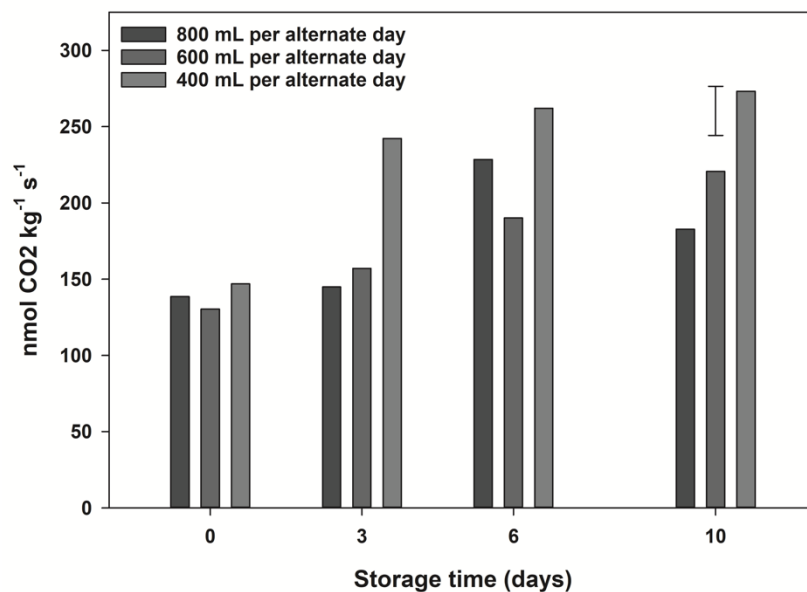
848 season (C) and harvested two weeks after optimum maturity [HM(+2)]. Bars with different

849 colours indicate different postharvest treatments [1-MCP = continuous air after exposure to 1

850 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ 1-MCP for 24 h at 20 °C, ETH = 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ continuous ethylene, AIR = continuous air

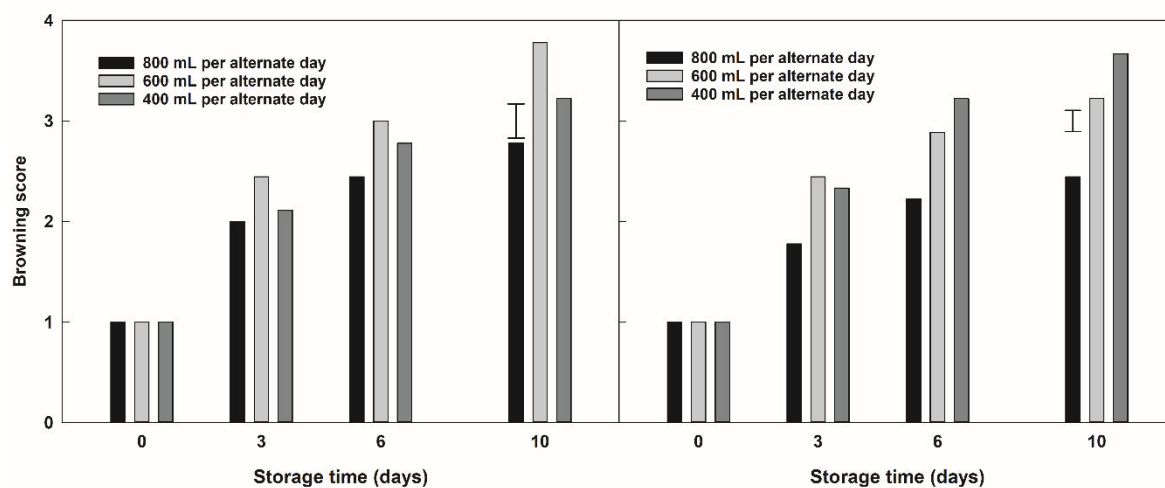
851 (control)]. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

852



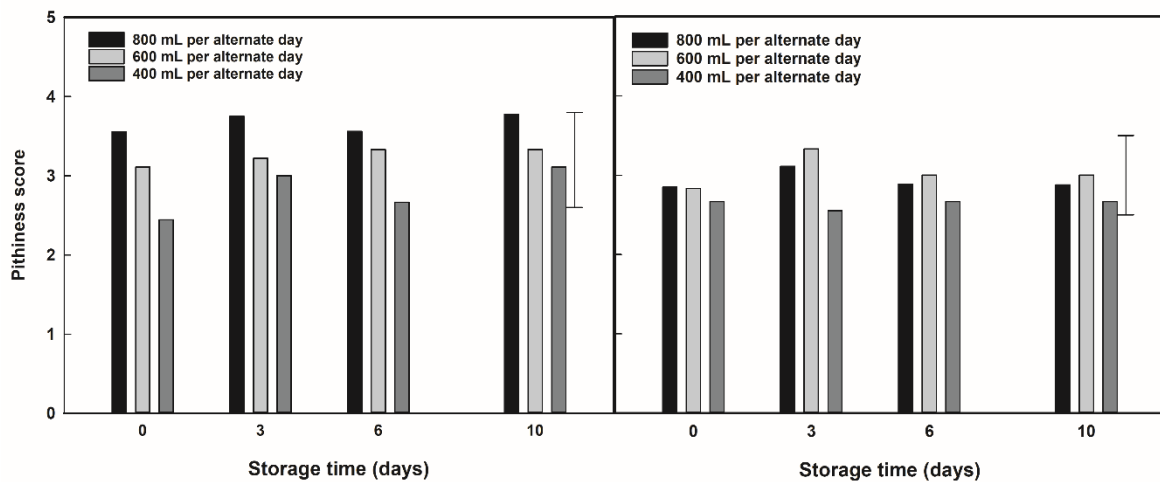
853

854 **Figure S15.** Effect of water treatments on the respiration rate of celery during shelf-life. Bars
 855 with different colours indicate different water treatments: Error bars represent least significant
 856 differences (LSD).



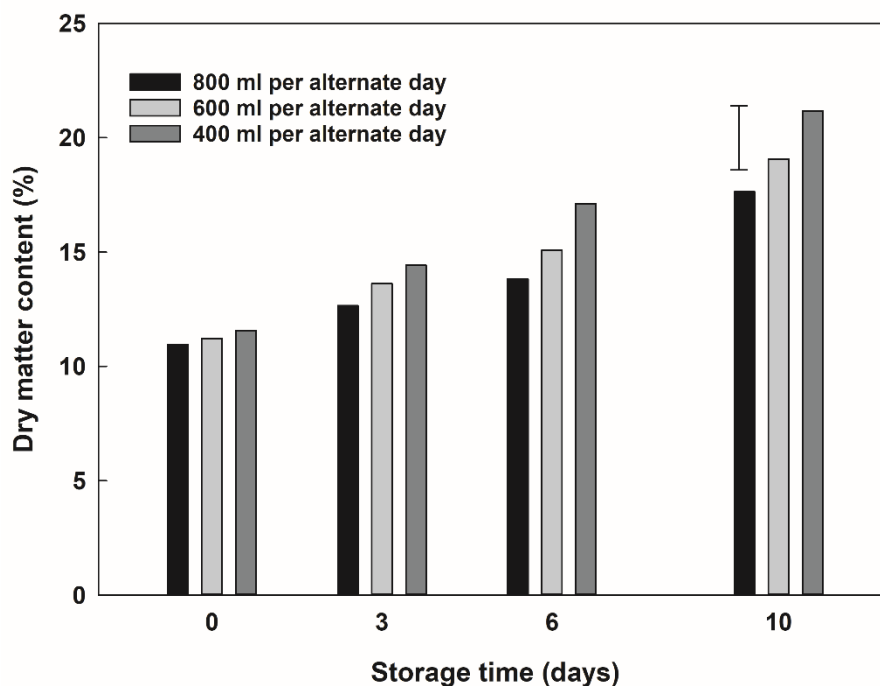
857

858 **Figure S16.** Effect of water treatments on browning development in celery during shelf-life,
 859 at cut petiole ends (on the left) and butt ends (on the right). Bars with different colours indicate
 860 different water treatments: Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).



861 **Figure S17.** Effect of water treatments on pithiness development at cut petiole ends (on the
 862 left) and butt ends (on the right) of celery. Bars with different colours indicate different water
 863 treatments: Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

864



865 **Figure S18.** Effect of water treatments on the dry matter content of celery. Bars with different
 866 colours indicate different water treatments: 800 mL every alternate day, 600 mL every alternate
 867 day and 400 mL every alternate day. Error bars represent least significant differences (LSD).

868