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Temperature control in a horticultural produce supply chain in Thailand and its influence on product quality

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Credit Author Statement

| Author | Contribution |
|---------------------|---|
| Nattawut Chaomuang | Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft Preparation, Visualization, Project administration, Funding acquisition |
| Parinya Singphithak | Investigation, Software, Visualization |
| Onrawee Laguerre | Validation, Formal analysis, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision |
| Rachit Suwapanich | Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Supervision |

31 1. Introduction

32 The supply chain incorporating low-temperature control is referred to as the “cold chain”
33 in which refrigeration is the prime technology used to provide a cold environment (Olatunji &
34 East, 2020). Temperature is by far the most important environmental factor affecting the quality
35 and safety of fruit and vegetables (Watada, Izumi, Luo, & Rodov, 2005). Insufficient use of
36 refrigeration can result in food loss and waste. As reported by the International Institute of
37 Refrigeration (IIR), around 360 million tons of foods are lost annually across the globe due to
38 a lack of refrigeration (IIR, 2009). For fresh fruit and vegetables, poor temperature management
39 may cause produce losses ranging from 25 to 50% (Kelly, Madden, Emond, & do Nascimento
40 Nunes, 2019). Although the total percentages of losses in developed countries may not
41 significantly differ from those in developing countries, the difference becomes significant when
42 one looks into individual stages. In developed countries, losses of fruit and vegetables mostly
43 occur at the supermarket and consumer stages, whereas in developing countries, the losses are
44 mainly at the postharvest and distribution stages (Goedhals-Gerber & Khumalo, 2020; Kitinoja
45 & Kader, 2015; Porat, Lichter, Terry, Harker, & Buzby, 2018). In Thailand, Rattanawong and
46 Ongkunaruk (2018) observed 20 to 50% losses of fresh vegetables during long-distance
47 transport from the production area in the northern region to the packing house in the central
48 region. At least 27% of such losses were due to an unsuitable temperature environment.
49 Temperature control at all stages in the cold chain makes it possible to delay the deterioration
50 of produce quality but poses a great challenge (Mercier, Villeneuve, Mondor, & Uysal, 2017).

51 Although refrigeration is broadly applied in developed countries, numerous published
52 studies show that there are temperature breaks at all stages in the cold chains, particularly at the
53 transport and retail stages (Ndraha, Hsiao, Vlajic, Yang, & Lin, 2018). These temperature break,
54 even for a few hours, may have a significant impact on product organoleptic quality evolution
55 (Loisel, et al., 2021). Field studies similar to those conducted in developed countries are
56 performed to a lesser extent in developing countries (Mercier, Villeneuve, Mondor, & Uysal,
57 2017). The development of cold chains has been observed recently in certain developing
58 countries such as Brazil, China, and India (Salin, 2010, 2018). A similar trend was also observed
59 in Thailand where the cold storage capacity has increased from 0.94 million metric tons in 2015
60 to 1.57 million metric tons in 2021 (DIT, 2019; Ongkittikul, Plongon, Sukruay, &
61 Yisthanichakul, 2019). This progress requires to address the current status of time-temperature
62 conditions in the cold chain so that the stages where temperature abuse arises are identified, and
63 consequently suitable remedial strategy can be implemented in an effective manner (Ndraha, et
64 al., 2018). According to the authors’ knowledge, cold chain field studies together with

65 investigation of the impact of the cold chain on food quality are rare, particularly in Thailand
66 where the ambient temperature is high. The most relevant field study was conducted in Belgium
67 by Rediers, Claes, Peeters, and Willems (2009). In this study, the temperature profile of fresh-
68 cut endive in a real cold chain and its impact on product microbiological safety was evaluated.
69 The objective and the originality of the present study was firstly to acquire knowledge of the
70 temperature conditions in the existing horticultural produce cold chain in Thailand, and
71 secondly to study its impact on product quality. A cold chain for fresh-cut baby corn (*Zea mays*
72 L.) was chosen for a case study because this product is one of the major crops in Thailand and
73 is thus important to the Thai economy. Being the largest exporter, Thailand accounts for 80%
74 of exports of baby corn in the world (Singh, 2019). This product is highly perishable and a shelf
75 life is only six days under ambient storage conditions (25°C) and 21 days under cold storage
76 conditions (4°C) (Sakhornyen, 2009).

77 In this study, postharvest handling was investigated at several growers' premises and at a
78 packing house. Temperature measurements were then undertaken by using temperature
79 dataloggers to monitor baby corn from the growers' premises to an export distribution center.
80 Finally, the effects of such postharvest handling and its temperature conditions on the product
81 quality during storage was evaluated in a laboratory. The knowledge acquired in this study
82 provides an insight into the current status of the cold chain operated by smallholders and could
83 be used as a basis for future research on the development of an efficient cold chain in Thailand.

84 **2. Materials and methods**

85 **2.1 Field investigation**

86 Postharvest conditions in a fresh-cut baby corn cold chain were investigated from
87 growers' premises to an export distribution center. A field investigation was conducted in
88 December 2020 to observe product handling at a packing house and four growers' premises
89 located in Tha Maka district (Kanchanaburi province, eastern region of Thailand). This packing
90 house was chosen based on several reasons including the willingness of the operators to perform
91 the field investigation and to share the data, the presence of a refrigeration facility, and the
92 marketing mode for both the export and domestic supply chains. Interviews were conducted
93 with the operators and the growers in order to obtain detailed information. The exporters and
94 the domestic wholesalers who procured the baby corn from the packing house were also
95 interviewed. The interview questionnaire used in the study was certified by the research ethics
96 committee of King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang (EC-KMITL 63-017) to
97 ensure respondent confidentiality. Based on the information acquired, temperature

98 measurements and a quality assessment were set up with the methodologies described in the
99 following sub-sections.

100 2.2 Temperature measurement

101 Temperature dataloggers (Elitech[®] RC-5, Jiangsu Jingchuang Electronics, Jiangsu,
102 China; $\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ accuracy in the range of $-20^{\circ}\text{C}/+40^{\circ}\text{C}$) were used in the study. Generally, the
103 measured value represents the air temperature adjacent to the product because it is difficult to
104 place this sensor on the surface and at the core of the product due to the sensor size. In order to
105 help interpretation of temperatures measured by the datalogger, an experiment was firstly
106 undertaken in a laboratory refrigerator (PC-1355, Power Cool Systems, Samut Prakan,
107 Thailand, with a temperature setting of 8°C). A comparison of temperatures measured by
108 datalogger (denoted as “DL”) and by three calibrated T-type thermocouples (200 μm diameter,
109 $\pm 0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ accuracy in the range of $-5^{\circ}\text{C}/+30^{\circ}\text{C}$) was carried out. These thermocouples were
110 installed to measure the core (denoted as “CT”) and surface (denoted as “ST”) temperatures of
111 baby corn and the air temperature at 10 mm from the product surface (denoted as “AT”). The
112 thermocouples were connected to a switching unit (34907A, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara,
113 California, USA) for data acquisition of every 10 s. The datalogger and the instrumented baby
114 corn were placed together on a foam tray. Two sets of dataloggers and thermocouples (i.e., six
115 thermocouples in total) were used simultaneously to ensure result consistency.

116 Field temperature measurement was carried out in the baby corn cold chain from the
117 growers’ premises to the export distribution center (referred to as “upstream stages” in this
118 paper). The temperature was recorded every 10 s. Because of practical difficulties, the product
119 temperature at different stages in the supply chain could not be measured continuously.
120 According to the information of postharvest conditions (details in **Section 3.1**), the temperature
121 measurements were therefore separated into four periods and then linked together to represent
122 the entire temperature profile of the cold chain for exported baby corn.

123 In Period I (Stages 1, 2, 3, and 4, **Fig. 1a**), two dataloggers were inserted, one at the top
124 and one at the bottom of four baskets (**Fig. 2a**) from three different growers’ premises. In Period
125 II (Stage 5, **Fig. 1a**), ten baby corn cobs were sampled, and the core temperature was measured
126 prior to and after hydrocooling by using a digital handheld thermometer equipped with two K-
127 type temperature probes (54-IIB, Fluke Corporation, Everett, Washington, USA; $\pm 0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$
128 accuracy in the range of $-10^{\circ}\text{C}/+50^{\circ}\text{C}$). The cooling water temperature was also measured at
129 20 positions in the bath (10 positions at 100 mm and another 10 positions at 400 mm from the
130 surface of the water) using the same sensor. The measurements were undertaken on two batches

131 to ensure result repetition. In Period III (Stages 6 and 7, **Fig. 1a**), five dataloggers were placed
132 on the packaging tables to measure the ambient temperature in a packaging room. Before the
133 packed products were transferred to the cold room, these dataloggers were randomly placed on
134 the top of the five foam boxes (**Fig. 2c**) to monitor the air temperature during storage. The air
135 relative humidity in the cold room were also measured every five minutes using a hygrometer
136 (174H, Testo, Titisee-Neustadt, Germany; $\pm 3\%$ RH accuracy in the range of 2 to 98% RH). This
137 sensor was installed underneath the return air inlet of the refrigeration unit. Due to the lack of
138 permission for intervention with the export products, the dataloggers were withdrawn from the
139 boxes before the boxes were loaded onto the refrigerated truck of the export distributor.
140 Accordingly, in Period IV (Stage 8, **Fig. 1a**), two dataloggers were installed at the mid-height
141 of the front and the rear of the truck to record the air temperature during the time interval
142 between loading at the packing house and unloading at the distribution center. The driver was
143 asked to return the dataloggers to the laboratory.

144 **2.3 Quality assessment**

145 **2.3.1 Sample procurement and preparation**

146 To evaluate the effects of postharvest temperature conditions on the product quality, a
147 quality assessment was conducted on two groups of baby corn cobs: Group 1 (product for
148 export) and Group 2 (product for domestic markets). The differences between these groups
149 were the presence of precooling (hydrocooling) prior to cold storage and the time of packaging
150 as shown in **Fig. 1**. Photos of the retail packaging of Groups 1 and 2 are displayed in **Figs. 2b**
151 and **2d**, respectively. The products in both groups were sampled at the packing house in the
152 same day as the temperature measurement was undertaken and were transported to our
153 laboratory the next morning using a refrigerated truck to prevent product degradation at this
154 stage to the greatest possible extent. The sample of Group 1 was the packed baby corn in a foam
155 box which was randomly chosen from Stage 6 while the sample of Group 2 was fresh baby corn
156 filled in the four instrumented baskets which were taken after Stage 4 and stored in the cold
157 room without precooling. In the foam box, three dataloggers were also installed at the top, in
158 the middle and at the bottom to monitor the internal temperature variation at this stage.

159 At the laboratory, all packs of baby corn were removed from the foam box and
160 individually weighed using digital scales (PB1502-L, Mettler Toledo, Columbus, Ohio, USA;
161 0.01 g readability and ± 0.02 g accuracy). This measured value was considered as the initial
162 weight for the weight loss evaluation. Then, the packs were evenly loaded into two refrigerators
163 (MIR-253, Sanyo, Osaka, Japan) with temperature settings of $2.1 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ and $4.3 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$

164 respectively, prior to the quality assessment. Meanwhile, the fresh baby corn in the baskets was
 165 processed in a similar manner as in the packing house: cleaned, trimmed, and packed in a
 166 Styrofoam tray (190 mm × 105 mm) sealed with polyvinyl chloride (PVC) plastic wrap (**Fig.**
 167 **2d**). Each pack was weighed and stored in the two refrigerators.

168 **2.3.2 Quality measurement**

169 Various physicochemical quality attributes of baby corn including weight loss, visual
 170 appearance, color, firmness, and total soluble solid (TSS) content were evaluated under
 171 temperature-controlled storage. Measurements were undertaken on the day of arrival at the
 172 laboratory (Day 0 – Control) and every two days over the 14-day storage period using the
 173 following procedures. Two packs were randomly sampled from each refrigerator (i.e. four
 174 packs for each group). The quality attributes of the baby corn in the sampled packs were then
 175 measured on each evaluation day. All data were reported as the mean value of n samples ±
 176 standard deviation (SD).

177 **(i) Weight loss.** Each pack was weighed (n = 2) and its weight loss was determined and
 178 expressed as the percentage loss from its initial weight: $\%Loss = (W_{initial} - W_{final}) / W_{initial}$.

179 **(ii) Visual appearance.** Ten baby corn cobs were sampled from each pack and assessed
 180 for visual quality by three trained panels (n = 60). The visual quality was scored on a scale of
 181 5 to 0 according to the quality index describing the extent of browning developed on the baby
 182 corn: 5 refers to no browning, 4 to browning exhibited on 1-10% of the total ear area, 3 to 11-
 183 20%, 2 to 21-30%, 1 to 31-40%, and 0 to more than 40% (adapted from Leelaphiwat (2007)).

184 **(iii) Color.** The kernel color was measured at the mid-length on two sides of five baby
 185 corn cobs sampled from each pack (n = 20) by a spectrophotometer (Color Quest XE,
 186 HunterLab, Reston, Virginia, USA). The color values in the color coordinate (L^* , a^* , b^*) were
 187 recorded and used to calculate hue angle and chroma value with the following formulae: Hue =
 188 $\tan^{-1}(b^* / a^*)$ and Chroma = $(a^{*2} + b^{*2})^{1/2}$. It should be noted that L^* value signifies the
 189 degree of lightness of which the value ranges from 0 (black) to 100 (white). Hue angle and
 190 chroma value signify the extent of browning where the angle of 0° to 90° exhibits the color
 191 span between redness and yellowness, while the chroma value indicates its saturation.

192 **(iv) Firmness.** The same baby corn cobs used for the color assessment were then
 193 determined for their firmness (n = 10) by using a texture analyzer (TA-XT plus, Stable Micro
 194 Systems, Surrey, UK) equipped with a knife blade (HDP/BS) to measure cutting force. The
 195 measurement was performed at 3 cm from the ear tip with the cutting velocity of 120 mm·min⁻¹

196 ¹. The maximum cutting force, expressed in Newton (N), was determined from the time-force
197 profile by using the interfaced software (Exponent version 4.0.9.0, Stable Micro Systems,
198 Surrey, UK).

199 (v) **TSS content.** All baby corn cobs in individual packs were blended and the juice was
200 extracted. The TSS content of the juice, expressed in %Brix, was measured five times ($n = 10$)
201 using a digital refractometer (PAL-1, Atago, Tokyo, Japan; $\pm 0.2\%$ accuracy in the range of 0-
202 53%Brix).

203 3. Results and discussion

204 3.1 Description of postharvest condition

205 The on-site investigation and the in-person interviews took place at the growers' premises
206 and the packing house. Product handling including equipment or facilities used at individual
207 stages along the upstream stages (**Fig. 1**) are presented in detail as follow.

208 The growers begin to harvest baby corn in the morning (5:00 a.m. to 8:00 a.m.). During
209 harvesting, the baby corn cobs are put in sacks and are later transferred using a cart, a scooter
210 with a side trailer, or an open-bed truck to the growers' premises for primary screening and
211 minimal processing. About 3.5 kg of non-defective baby corn cobs are wrapped in a plastic
212 liner and placed in a plastic basket equipped with a lid (**Fig. 2a**). The basket is made of
213 polypropylene, measures 330 mm in width \times 200 mm in length \times 110 mm in height and the
214 perforation area is about 30%.

215 The investigated packing house is a community enterprise where most baby corn is
216 procured from the growers engaged by contract and from other packing houses in nearby
217 districts. Open-bed trucks are commonly used to collect the baby corn without cloth or tarpaulin
218 covers during transport (except in the rainy season). At the packing house, the baby corn is
219 unloaded and stored in an open hall under ambient conditions. Some baby corn is sold to
220 domestic wholesalers in bulk (**Fig. 1b**) while the baby corn for export undergoes further
221 processing in the evening (usually starting at 6:00 to 6:30 p.m.). The product is first precooled
222 in a cold-water tub with the water temperature set at 10°C. No standard precooling procedures
223 such as product quantity for each batch, cooling time, and final product temperature are applied
224 because the operator considers that the procedure has an insignificant effect on the product
225 quality.

226 After precooling, the product is sorted and sized according to the exporter's requirements.
227 The products are then packed on a Styrofoam tray (120 mm \times 120 mm) sealed with PVC plastic

228 wrap (100-110 g per pack, **Fig. 2b**) and placed in an expanded polystyrene foam box (120 packs
229 or about 12 kg per box, **Fig. 2c**). The filled boxes are then transferred to a cold room (with a
230 temperature setting of 2°C). During this stage, all boxes are open in order to promote the cooling
231 of the product by the surrounding air. The boxes are closed just before loading onto the
232 exporter's refrigerated truck the following afternoon (~1:30 p.m.). It is to be noted that the
233 investigated packaging room was equipped with an air conditioning system with a temperature
234 setting of 20°C which provides a reasonable working environment, and product quality
235 deterioration can be slowed down at this stage.

236 The export distributor uses a refrigerated truck (with a temperature setting of 2°C, and no
237 strip curtains on the trailer doors) to collect the baby corn from the packing house. Based on
238 the interviews, the distributor also collects the baby corn from other packing houses on the way
239 back to the export distribution center located in Damnoen Saduak District, Ratchaburi Province
240 (about 70 km and about 3 h from the studied packing house). At the distribution center, some
241 gel packs (no information was available concerning the type and quantity of gel packs used) are
242 placed in all foam boxes prior to transport that night by a refrigerated truck to the airport
243 (Suvarnabhumi International Airport, Bang Phli District, Samut Prakan Province) located at
244 around 120 km from the distribution center. No further information was available thereafter in
245 our study.

246 The data obtained in this study were based on only one packing house because it proved
247 to be difficult to find industrial partners. Despite this, the information was in good agreement
248 with the results reported by several studies (Anonymous, 2006; Koslanund, 2006; Rattanachai,
249 2011; Sakhornyen, 2009) in terms of stages in the cold chain and product handling at a given
250 stage. The methodology developed in this study for time-temperature conditions in the cold
251 chain and its effect on baby corn quality could be applied to other horticultural produce to better
252 represent the current situation in Thailand.

253 **3.2 Interpretation of temperatures measured by the datalogger**

254 As shown in **Fig. 3**, the temperature recorded by the datalogger was in between that of
255 the surrounding air temperature and the product surface temperature measured by the
256 thermocouples. The temperature measured by the datalogger at any given instant was about 0.5-
257 1.6°C higher than the surface temperature and about 1.2-2.3°C higher than the core temperature.
258 Due to the thermal inertia of the datalogger and the baby corn, the difference between the
259 amplitude of the temperature variation of the datalogger and that of the product surface was
260 small ($\Delta T = (T_{\max} - T_{\min}) / 2 \leq 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$), compared with that of the surrounding air ($\Delta T \approx$

261 1.3°C). Thus, the temperature measured by a datalogger in the field was considered to represent
262 an intermediate value between the temperatures of the product surface and the surrounding air.

263 3.3 Time-temperature evolution

264 **Fig. 4** shows the overall temperature conditions in the fresh-cut baby corn cold chain from
265 the growers' premises to the export distribution center (Stages 1 to 8). It was found that these
266 upstream supply stages accounted for approximately 31.3 h during which the temperature
267 varied between 6 and 33°C. The periods during which temperature abuse occurred were the
268 stages prior to precooling, corresponding to the precooling delay of around 9.2 h. For nearly
269 half of the duration of the upstream stages (~ 16.2 h), the baby corn was stored in a cold room
270 in which the time-averaged temperature was approximately $5.7 \pm 1.4^\circ\text{C}$. This temperature is
271 considered high for the storage of baby corn because the recommended storage temperature is
272 at or below 4°C (Sakhornyyen, 2009). A rapid temperature increase during loading onto a
273 refrigerated truck prior to transport to the export distribution center, then substantial
274 temperature fluctuations were also observed. This can be explained by the fact that the truck
275 trailer was not pre-cooled prior to loading. The following information presents the details of
276 temperature conditions at all individual stages.

277 **Fig. 5a** depicts the temperature conditions measured from Stages 1 to 4. The temperature
278 displayed in this figure was the average value between the temperature at the top and at the
279 bottom of individual baskets. At the beginning of Stage 1, the temperature in each basket
280 decreased slightly when the dataloggers were inserted in the basket and increased after the
281 basket was fully packed. The duration of ambient storage (Stage 2) at each grower's premises
282 was different and dependent on their work organization. An increase in temperature of 4-5°C
283 from the initial value was observed during this stage, possibly because of the heat of product
284 respiration which cannot be easily evacuated under calm air conditions. A decrease in
285 temperature was observed during the transport to the packing house (Stage 3) and this could be
286 attributed to the cooling effect of water evaporation induced by airflow during transport. Again,
287 the temperature constantly increased during ambient storage at the packing house (Stage 4). A
288 temperature of more than 30°C was observed in all baskets at the end of this stage. The increase
289 in temperature in these baskets corresponded to the ambient climate conditions across these
290 supply stages where the air temperature was 1-2°C higher than that of the product (data not
291 shown).

292 **Fig. 5b** shows the temperature heterogeneity within the baskets during Period I. For four
293 instrumented baskets, the temperature differences between the top and the bottom were less

294 than 1.0°C in two baskets and more than 3°C in the other two baskets. This difference can be
295 explained by the basket position in the stack: there was a higher temperature difference in
296 baskets located at the top of the stack due to direct exposure to solar radiation during storage at
297 the growers' premises and transport without thermal protection. This may also lead to quality
298 and shelf-life heterogeneity of the product in the same basket.

299 **Table 1** presents the precooling conditions (Stage 5). Two batches of 180-200 kg of baby
300 corn were pre-cooled. It took 16 minutes to cool the first batch and about 13 minutes to cool the
301 second. The average temperature of the cooling water measured between the two batches was
302 around 19.0°C ± 4.5°C. The average core temperature of baby corn decreased from 30.5°C ±
303 0.7°C to 24.1°C ± 1.0°C, corresponding to an average temperature drop of 6.4°C ± 1.0°C. The
304 final product temperature of 24°C was still high, but further cooling was applied in the cold
305 room during the following period.

306 **Fig. 6** shows the temperature evolution during Period III: Stage 6 processing in the
307 packing room and Stage 7 storage in the cold room. The duration of Stage 6 varied depending
308 on the box number. The line confining this stage in **Fig. 6** presents its maximum duration (2 h,
309 from the beginning up until the time at which the last instrumented box was moved to the cold
310 room). The average initial temperature of all instrumented boxes (Boxes 1 to 6) was 21.3 ±
311 0.4°C. A substantial decrease in temperature was observed in all boxes once the boxes were
312 transferred to the cold room. In the cold room (Stage 7), the small temperature fluctuations are
313 related to the “on/off” compressor working cycles. The large fluctuations every 180 min. for a
314 duration of 20 min. are related to the defrost operation during which the compressor was turned
315 off. The onset temperature (4.5 to 8.7°C) and the amplitude of fluctuations (0.5 to 1.7°C) varied
316 depending on the box position in the stack (**Fig. 6a**). The box at the top of the stack (Box 1)
317 had a lower onset temperature and higher fluctuations than the box at the bottom (Box 5)
318 because it was exposed to the cold air in the room to a greater extent. A temperature variation
319 of more than 5°C was observed within the same box (Box 6) during the first few hours of
320 storage in the cold room (**Fig. 6b**). This variation decreased progressively with time until the
321 end of the cold storage period when the temperatures at the bottom and in the middle positions
322 were almost identical at 5°C, whereas the temperature at the top of the box was 2-3°C lower.
323 The results highlighted the issue of temperature heterogeneity reportedly found in a cold room
324 (Bishnoi & Aharwal, 2020; Duret, Hoang, Flick, & Laguerre, 2014) and within a package
325 (Gruyters, et al., 2018; O'Sullivan, et al., 2017; Wu, Cronjé, Verboven, & Defraeye, 2019).

326 The packaged baby corn cobs in Boxes 1-5 were picked up by the export distributor and
327 transported to the export distribution center. **Fig. 7** shows the temperature conditions inside the

328 truck trailer during transport (Stage 8). It was noted that the truck driver ran the refrigeration
329 unit just before the pickup time and it took about 45 min. to cool down the temperature from its
330 initial value (29.6°C) to 10°C. This observation underscores the importance of driver training
331 on temperature abuse, which can be avoided by product loading only after the air temperature
332 has stabilized inside the truck. According to the provided logistic information, the driver
333 collected the baby corn cobs from the other four packing houses after having collected the baby
334 corn cobs at the investigated packing house. This explained four sharp temperature rises (the
335 spikes in **Fig. 7**) due to external air infiltration during door openings. The doors of the truck
336 were not equipped with any protective devices such as air curtains or plastic strips, and this
337 explained the pronounced temperature rises during this period. This effect was studied by de
338 Micheaux, Ducoulombier, Moureh, Sartre, and Bonjour (2015). No temperature measurements
339 were performed after the product delivery to the export distribution center.

340 Unlike Boxes 1-5, Box 6 was delivered to the laboratory by our refrigerated truck for
341 quality assessment (**Fig. 6b**). During the product transfer from the cold room to the truck,
342 temperatures rose 0.6-1.5-°C briefly inside the box and rose 6.6°C outside the box. The
343 refrigeration unit of the refrigerated truck was operated for at least 20 min. prior to loading the
344 products. During the journey that lasted about 3 h, the air temperature outside the box did not
345 significantly fluctuate (average value $2.3 \pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$) and the temperature inside the box was quite
346 homogeneous (average value of $5.6 \pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$).

347 **3.4 Quality evolution during storage**

348 The assessment was performed to evaluate the influence of the postharvest temperature
349 conditions on baby corn quality, which could translate into product marketability. The
350 physiochemical quality attributes of two groups of baby corn cobs (Group 1 for export and
351 Group 2 for domestic markets) were measured during storage under two temperature conditions
352 ($2.1 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ and $4.3 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$) over a period of 14 days. The results are presented in **Figs. 8a** to
353 **8f**.

354 Weight loss was observed in both groups of baby corn cobs and its percentage increased
355 over the storage period (**Fig. 8a**). This could be attributed to moisture loss through transpiration
356 (Attia, Saleh, & El-Shabrawy, 2011). No significant difference in weight loss was found
357 between the baby corn cobs of the same group stored at 2.1°C and 4.3°C. At the end of the
358 storage period, the weight losses seen in Groups 1 and 2 were 4.4-4.8% and 4.6-5.1%,
359 respectively. These percentages could be considered low because no signs of wilting were
360 detected over the course of the evaluation period. The results agreed well with Sakhornyen

361 (2009) who reported that the wilting of baby corn cobs is obvious when the weight loss is more
362 than 10%. Moreover, such low weight loss would also have a negligible effect on the economic
363 value of baby corn cobs as the product is usually purchased on a whole pack and rather than on
364 a weight basis. By performing linear regression, the rate of weight loss was identified based on
365 the slopes ($W = m \cdot t$ where W is weight loss percentage [%], t is time [day], and m is slope
366 [% per day]) (adapted from Tirawat, Flick, Mérendet, Derens, and Laguerre (2017)). As
367 reported in **Table 2**, the rates of weight loss of baby corn cobs in both groups were
368 approximately 0.3-0.4% per day under 2-4°C storage conditions.

369 **Fig. 8b** presents the change in the TSS content of baby corn cobs during storage. An
370 increase in TSS content was observed over the storage period in both groups. The increment
371 might be associated with the continual decrease in moisture, thus leading to a higher sugar
372 concentration (Mukama, Ambaw, Berry, & Opara, 2019; Sakhornyen, 2009). The result
373 suggested that the loss of moisture through transpiration seemed to be more pronounced than
374 the loss of dry matter (e.g. sugars) through the respiration process. The low storage temperature
375 could be the main reason for this change since it causes a deceleration in respiration rates and
376 an increase in the water vapor pressure deficit between the product surface and the air, thereby
377 enhancing transpiration. At both storage temperatures, the TSS content of the baby corn cobs
378 in Group 1 increased from 7.5-7.6 %Brix to 10.4-10.5 %Brix while it increased from 8.5-8.7
379 %Brix to 10.3-10.6 %Brix for the baby corn in Group 2. It was demonstrated that the initial
380 TSS values of the baby corn cobs in Group 1 were slightly lower than those in Group 2. This
381 might be due to the initial level of moisture content in the baby corn cobs on the day of arrival
382 at the laboratory. The baby corn cobs in Group 2 were exposed to the cold environments without
383 a protective layer (e.g. plastic wrap) for a relatively long period compared with the baby corn
384 cobs in Group 1, which were already packaged during the same stages (Stage 7, **Fig. 6b**). Since
385 low temperature exerts a great influence on the moisture loss of unwrapped fresh products
386 (Serrano, Martinez-Romero, Guillen, Castillo, & Valero, 2006), higher moisture loss in the
387 baby corn cobs in Group 2 would be expected when it arrived at the laboratory. It should be
388 noted that air humidity also exerts an influence on product weight loss, but its influence is much
389 less significant compared to that of temperature because of the high relative humidity in the
390 cold room (average of $92.2 \pm 6.0\%$ RH).

391 The firmness of the baby corn cobs in terms of cutting force is shown in **Fig. 8c**. It was
392 observed that firmness did not change appreciably with storage time for the product in Group
393 1. The average cutting force values of the baby corn cobs stored at 2.1°C and 4.3°C lay within
394 the range of 15.9 N to 18.8 N and 15.1 N to 18.7 N, respectively. However, the firmness of the

395 baby corn cobs in Group 2, regardless of the storage temperature, continuously decreased and
396 remained relatively constant after 6 days of storage (roughly from 16 N to 11 N). Again, the
397 moisture content of baby corn cobs might be the reason for the discrepancy in results since
398 moisture loss plays a key role in the textural quality change of fresh horticultural products
399 (Deak, Heaton, Hung, & Beuchat, 1987; Zhu, et al., 2018).

400 **Figs. 8d** and **8e** present the color development of the baby corn cobs in terms of L^* and
401 hue angle, respectively. The results showed that the L^* values of the baby corn cobs in both
402 groups, regardless of the storage temperature, remained almost constant over the storage period.
403 Their averages were in the range of 73.0 to 76.0 (**Fig. 8d**). Despite its trivial change, the hue
404 angle exhibited the slow development of browning on the baby corn cobs in all cases. The
405 average hue angle decreased (i.e. redness became more pronounced) from approximately 88.0°
406 to 86.0° (**Fig. 8e**). The chroma value appeared to be unchanged and its averages varied between
407 29.0 and 32.0 (data not shown). Less discoloration can be attributed to the effect of the
408 packaging with film wrapping. Such packaging helps to slow down moisture loss which is
409 recognized as one of the main causative factors affecting undesirable visual quality involving
410 product discoloration (Supapvanich, Promyou, & Techavuthiporn, 2021).

411 The visual score signifying the extent of browning development on the baby corn cobs
412 was evaluated. The browning reaction usually starts at the tip of baby corn cobs then spreads to
413 the other areas (Leelaphiwat, 2007). The color evaluation was performed at the mid-length of
414 the baby corn cobs (~40 mm); thus, less discoloration was detected in comparison with that at
415 the tip. Browning tended to increase consistently with the prolongation of storage time, i.e. a
416 decrease in the visual score (**Fig. 8f**). For Group 1, the product stored at both storage
417 temperatures had a visual score decreasing from 5.0 to around 3.6-3.7. For Group 2, the final
418 score was slightly lower (~3.1-3.3). The obtained results underlined the development of
419 undesirable visual quality, i.e. browning, exhibited on the baby corn cobs across 10-20% of its
420 total surface area after a 14-day storage period.

421 **3.5 Relationship between postharvest temperature condition and product quality**

422 Overall, the quality evolution of the baby corn cobs in both groups was similar to some
423 extent. The product seemed to be marketable following a 14-day storage period. The weight
424 loss did not exceed the limit that could cause a wilted appearance. The TSS content remained
425 relatively high throughout the storage period, while alteration in the textural quality was minor
426 with some variability. Browning was barely perceived at the mid-length surface of products as
427 the change in hue of color from yellow to red was extremely subtle. However, it was more

428 obvious at the tips according to a consistent decline in visual score. Notwithstanding this
429 decline, the score remained above the tolerable limit (score > 3.0). These results could be
430 translated into a salable lifespan of baby corn cobs of almost two weeks.

431 The results from such analyses should be considered carefully, since quality evolution
432 was based on the field temperature conditions only in the upstream stages (Stages 1 to 6 and
433 three-fourths of the duration of Stage 7). After these stages, the temperature conditions were
434 artificially controlled during transport (< 8.0°C, 3 h) and storage (2.1°C and 4.3°C, 14 days) in
435 our laboratory. These time-temperature conditions during the product transfer to our laboratory
436 seem to be better than the real ones. Under real conditions, the product was subjected to a high
437 temperature with large fluctuations during transport to the export distribution center (Stage 8,
438 **Fig .7**). This stage should have a great impact on product quality but it was not possible to take
439 samples at the end of this stage for quality evaluation due to the lack of exporter participation.
440 According to Rattanachai (2011), the baby corn cobs were exposed to high temperature during
441 storage at the airport cargo terminal, during air transport, and during domestic land transport in
442 destination countries. High temperature during retailing in refrigerated display cabinets can be
443 also expected (Chaomuang, Flick, & Laguerre, 2017). Moreover, microbial contamination can
444 result in an even shorter shelf life (Tikhamram, Prempee, Seewilai, Siri-arayaporn, &
445 Thammavijya, 2016). Therefore, the results from this study could only suggest that the
446 presented postharvest conditions at the upstream supply stages are satisfactory.

447 Furthermore, the results revealed some room for improvement that would allow the
448 prolongation of salable and safe conditions for baby corn cobs. The recommendations include
449 1) minimization of the time interval between primary processing and precooling (~9 h
450 currently); 2) use of thermal protection (e.g. cloth or tarpaulin covers) during ambient storage
451 and non-refrigerated transport to minimize solar radiation effect; 3) a consistent and effective
452 precooling procedure (e.g. cooling temperature, cooling duration, and product quantity in each
453 batch, and use of a temperature monitoring system); 4) pre-cooling of the trailer to the desired
454 temperature before the loading process; and 5) installation of air infiltration protection (e.g. air
455 curtain, plastic air strip) on the truck doors.

456 **4. Conclusions**

457 The fresh baby corn cold chain in Thailand was investigated in the present study. The
458 field investigation together with in-person interviews were performed at the growers' premises
459 and the packing house. The acquired information revealed the details of postharvest conditions
460 at each supply stage from the growers' premises up to the export distribution center.

461 Temperature measurements were carried out for four periods covering the upstream
462 stages of the baby corn cold chain. The results showed that the total duration of these upstream
463 stages was almost 32 h. The baby corn cobs were subjected to temperature variations of 6 to
464 33°C along these supply stages. The cold storage stage accounted for almost half of the total
465 duration, during which the product was kept at an average temperature below 6.0°C with
466 moderate fluctuations due to the working cycles of the compressor and regulated defrost cycles.
467 The time interval prior to precooling was about 9 h, where the products exposed to the
468 temperature above 20°C. Intermittent temperature rises of 5-10°C were also observed in the
469 truck trailer due to the door openings during product loading/unloading. According to the
470 recommended storage temperature for the baby corn (4°C), the monitored temperature
471 condition in these upstream stages appeared to be too high and required improvements.

472 The effect of temperature conditions on the product quality was evaluated. Various
473 physiological quality attributes potentially influencing the marketability of baby corn cobs were
474 measured during storage. Given that the storage temperature was well below 4.0°C and no
475 temperature abuse occurred after the baby corn cobs were dispatched from the packing house,
476 the product subjected to the current temperature control could be commercialized for a salable
477 period of up to two weeks. Under the same conditions, the same salable period was obtained in
478 the case of the product for domestic markets where precooling was absent prior to cold storage
479 and the packaging was done at 18 h behind the case for export. The results lead to a suggestion
480 that the temperature conditions during the upstream stages had significant influence on the
481 product quality at the sale point. Some corrective measures should be therefore implemented
482 so that the postharvest temperature conditions could be improved, thus increasing the salable
483 period. This field study approach could be applied to other products in order to enrich
484 knowledge of the cold chain in Thailand and other developing countries particularly in
485 Southeast Asia where the ambient temperature is high.

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- 594

Table 1. The observed precooling conditions at the packing house

| Batch | Water temperature ⁽ⁱ⁾ | Core temperature of baby corn ⁽ⁱⁱ⁾ | | | Precooling time |
|---------|----------------------------------|---|------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| | | Before precooling | After precooling | Temperature drop | |
| | (Mean \pm SD, °C) | (Mean \pm SD, °C) | | | (min) |
| 1 | 19.8 \pm 4.7 | 30.6 \pm 0.7 | 24.5 \pm 0.8 | 6.1 \pm 0.8 | 16 |
| 2 | 18.2 \pm 4.1 | 30.4 \pm 0.7 | 23.6 \pm 1.0 | 6.8 \pm 1.0 | 13 |
| Average | 19.0 \pm 4.5 | 30.5 \pm 0.7 | 24.1 \pm 1.0 | 6.4 \pm 1.0 | 14.5 |

⁽ⁱ⁾Mean and standard deviation (SD) of 20 measured positions (ten positions at 100 mm and another ten positions at 400 mm from the surface of the water)

⁽ⁱⁱ⁾Mean and SD of ten samples of baby corn

Table 2. The slope value of weight loss variation with time

| Group | Storage temperature (°C) | Slope value* (% per day) | R-squared |
|-------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|
| 1 | 2.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.34 | 0.9846 |
| | 4.3 \pm 0.1 | 0.32 | 0.9686 |
| 2 | 2.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.33 | 0.9940 |
| | 4.3 \pm 0.1 | 0.37 | 0.9877 |

*Based on linear regression

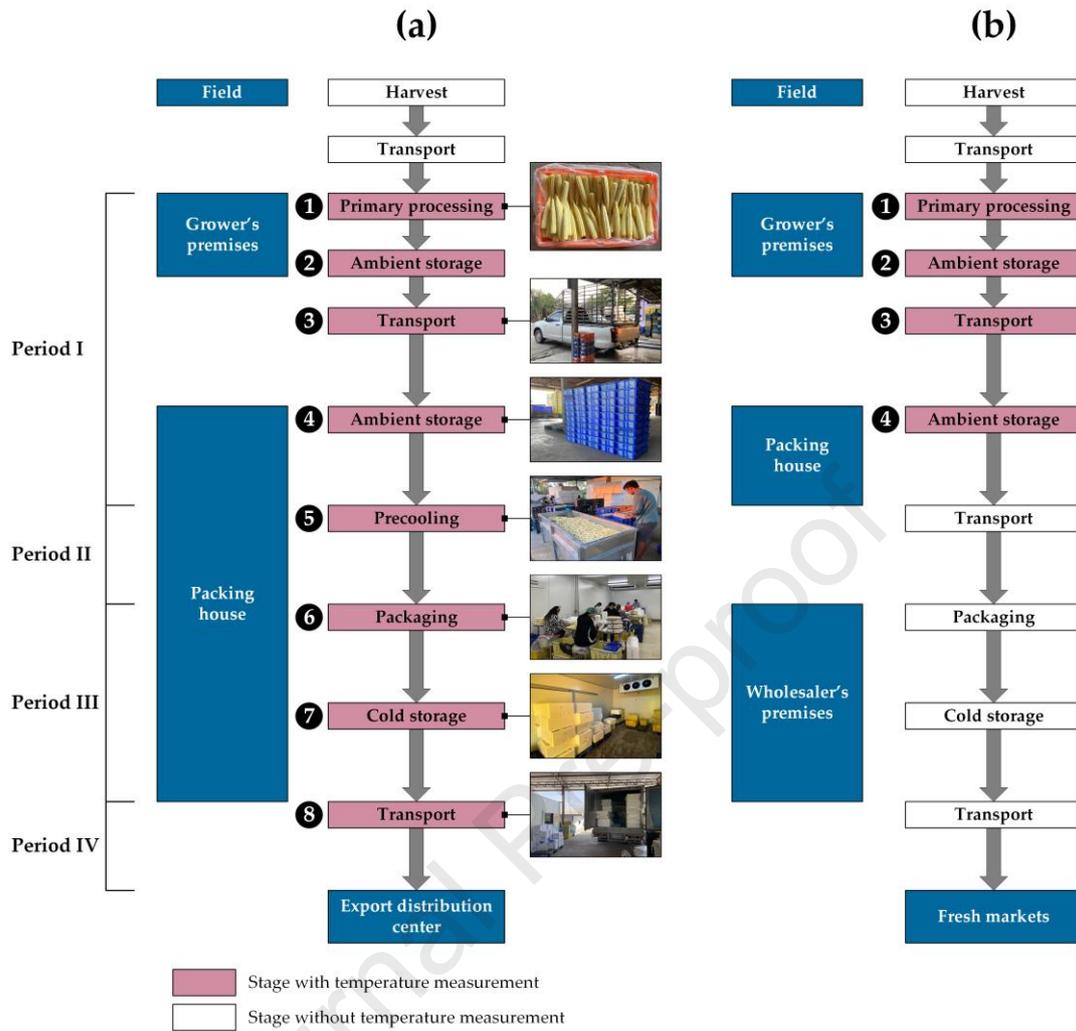


Fig. 1 Flow diagram showing a fresh-cut baby corn supply chain (a) for export and (b) for domestic markets

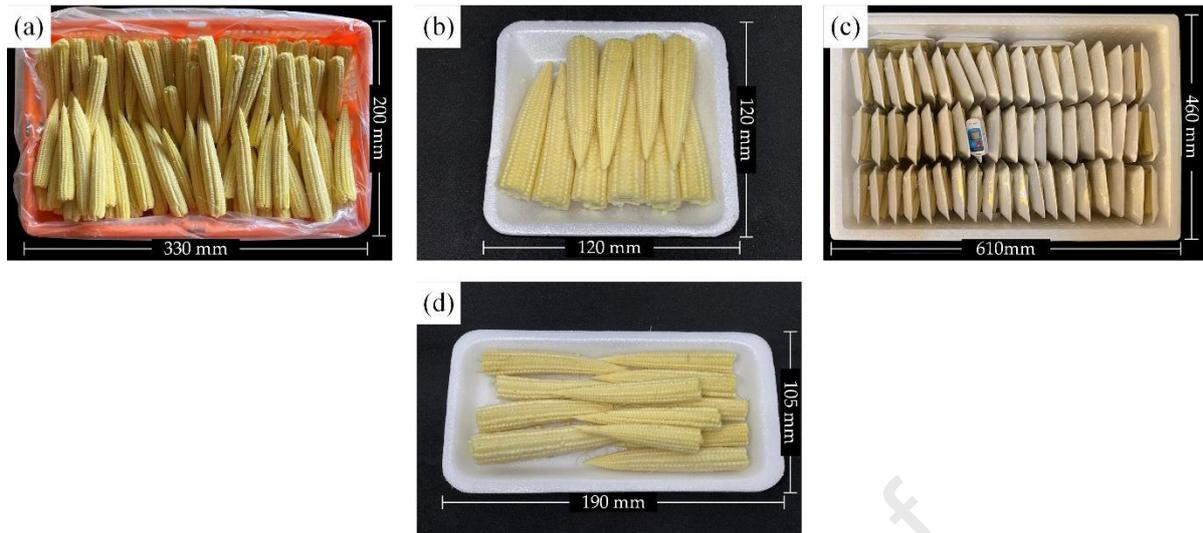


Fig. 2 Forms of baby corn packaging at different supply stages: (a) bulk packaging after processing at growers' premises, (b) retail packaging for export, and (c) bulk packaging after processing at a packing house, and (d) retail packaging for domestic markets.

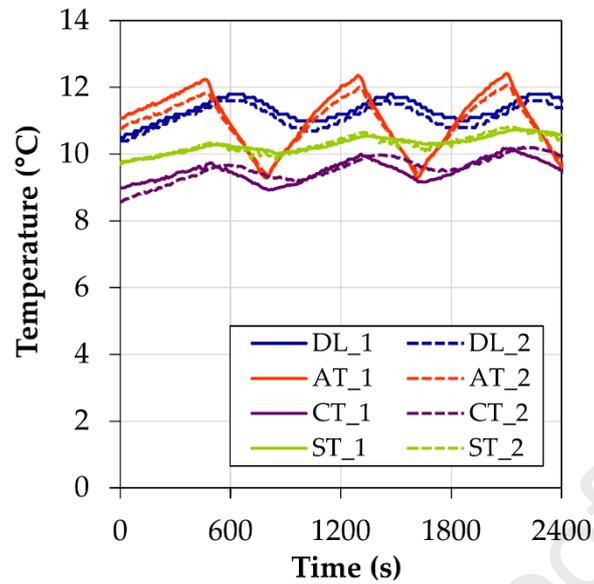


Fig. 3 Comparison between the temperature profiles recorded by dataloggers (Elitech[®] RC-5) and calibrated T-types thermocouples in a refrigerator (temperature setting: 8°C). DL is the temperature recorded by the dataloggers; AT, CT, and ST are the temperatures recorded by the thermocouples for the air, product core, and product surface, respectively. Numerals are the number of the dataloggers or thermocouples used.

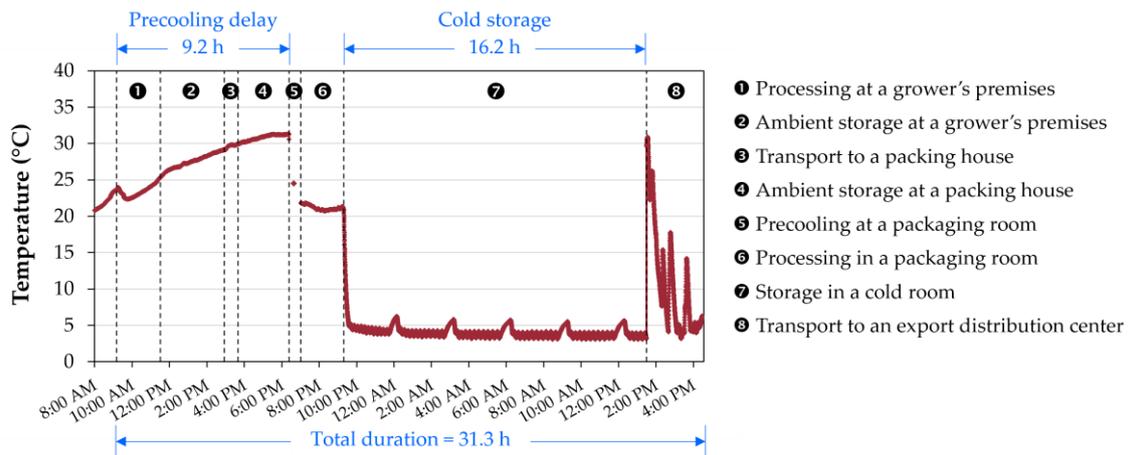


Fig. 4 Temperature evolution of a fresh-cut baby corn from the grower's premises to the export distribution center. The curve is composed of measurements performed during several stages: Stages 1 to 4, temperature recorded in a plastic basket; Stage 5, discrete measured temperature of the first precooled batch; Stages 6 to 7, temperature recordings in a polystyrene box; Stage 8, temperature recorded at the back door of refrigerated truck.

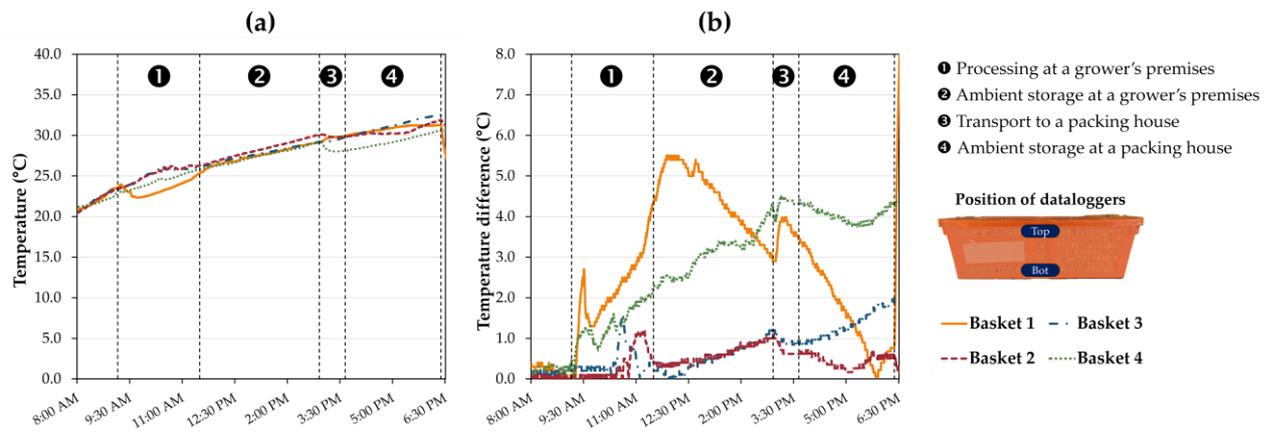


Fig. 5 Temperature conditions in the baskets containing dehusked and silk-removed baby corn cobs from the growers' premises to the packing house: (a) average temperature between the top and the bottom positions of individual baskets and (b) temperature difference between the two positions.

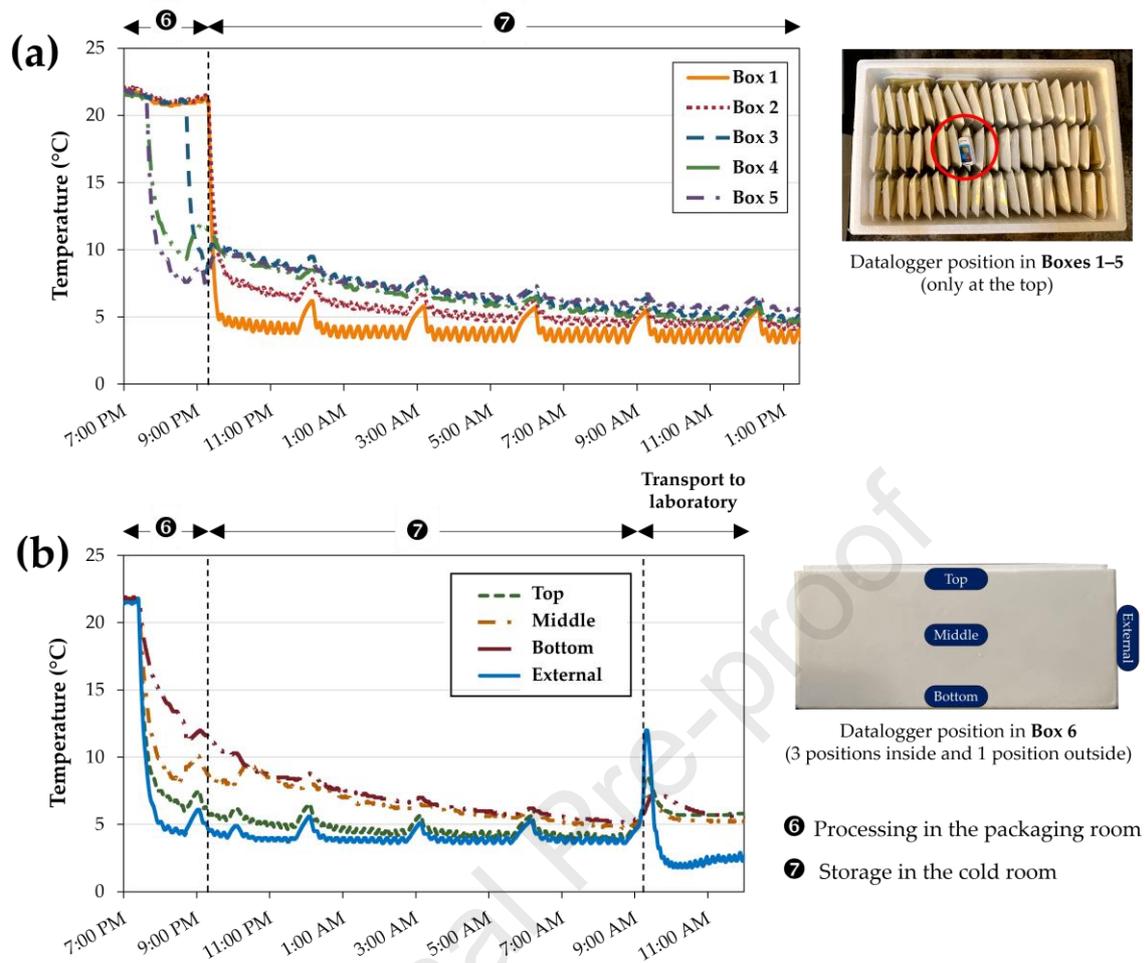
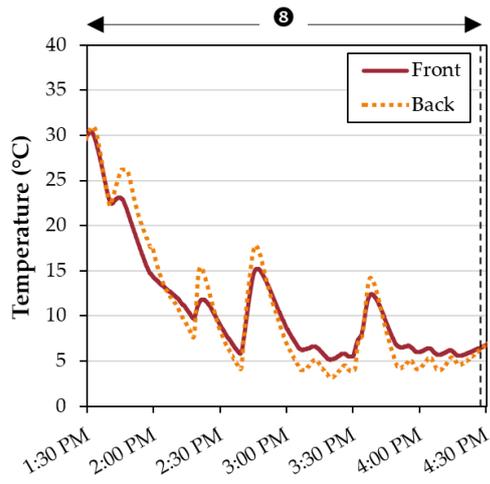


Fig. 6 Temperature evolution in the packaging room (Stage 6) and the cold room (Stage 7). (a) Boxes 1-5 sent to the export distribution center; (b) Box 6 for quality assessment in a laboratory.



8 Transport to the export distribution center

Fig. 7 Temperature conditions at the front and the back positions inside the refrigerated truck trailer during transport to the export distribution center.

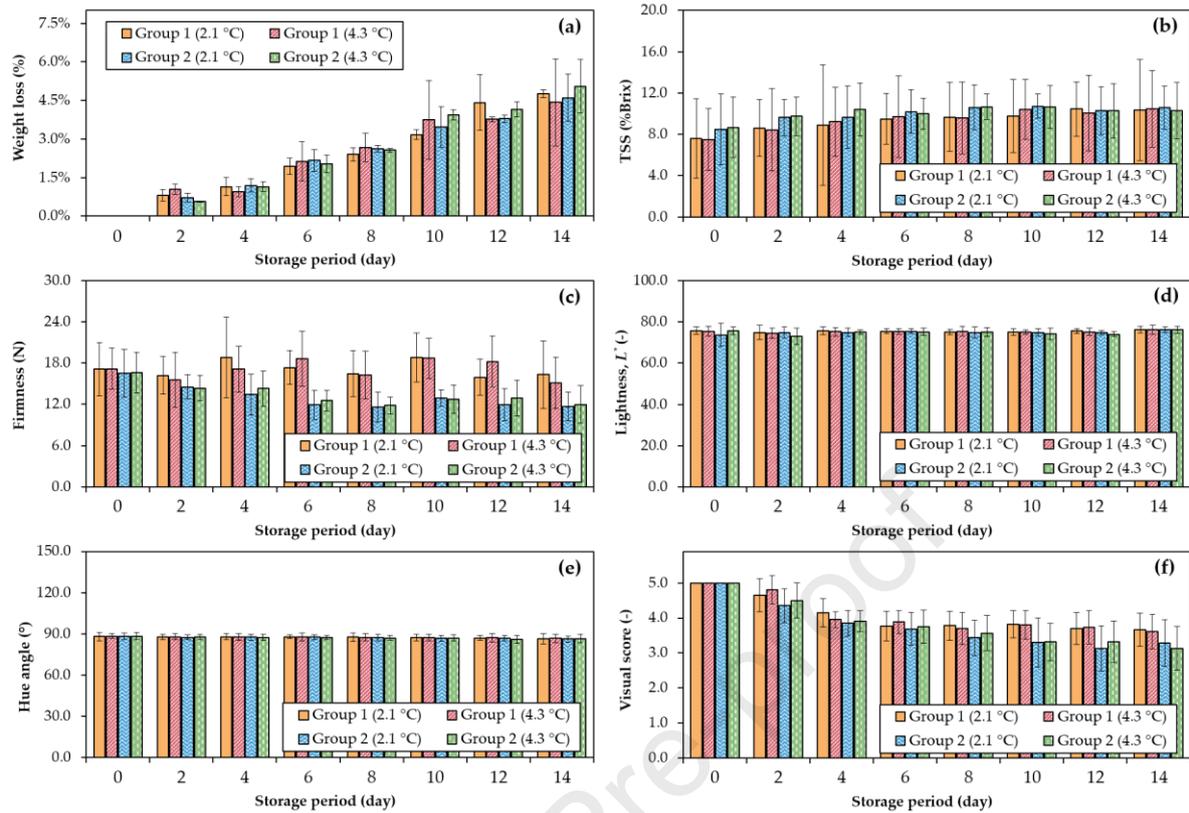


Fig. 8 Evolution of the quality attributes of the baby corn cobs for export (Group 1) and for domestic markets (Group 2) stored at 2.1°C and 4.3°C temperature conditions over a 14-day storage period: (a) Weight loss ($n = 2$), (b) total soluble solids (TSS) content ($n = 10$), (c) firmness (cutting force, $n = 10$), (d) lightness (L^* , $n = 20$), (e) hue angle ($n = 20$), and (f) visual score ($n = 60$). Data are presented as the mean value of n samples with a standard deviation (SD) bar.

Highlights

- The export and domestic fresh baby corn cold chains were investigated.
- Time-temperature profiles at different stages were examined.
- A substantial time interval between harvest and precooling was reported.
- Quality assessment was performed in order to evaluate product marketability.
- Given the storage conditions, the baby corn cobs remained salable for up to two weeks.

Journal Pre-proof

Conflict of Interest and Authorship Conformation Form

Please check the following as appropriate:

- All authors have participated in (a) conception and design, or analysis and interpretation of the data; (b) drafting the article or revising it critically for important intellectual content; and (c) approval of the final version.
- This manuscript has not been submitted to, nor is under review at, another journal or other publishing venue.
- The authors have no affiliation with any organization with a direct or indirect financial interest in the subject matter discussed in the manuscript
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