Woodhead publishing series in food science, technology and nutrition



Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits Volume 4: Mangosteen to white sapote

Edited by Elhadi M. Yahia



Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

Related titles:

Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits Volume 1 (ISBN 978-1-84569-733-4)

While products such as bananas, pineapples and kiwi fruit have long been available to consumers in temperate zones, novel fruits such as litchi and longan are now also entering the market. Tropical and subtropical fruits are vulnerable to postharvest losses and may also be transported long distances for sale. Therefore technologies for quality maintenance postharvest and a thorough understanding of the underpinning biological mechanisms are essential. This authoritative four-volume collection considers the postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruit. Volume 1 focuses on key issues of fruit physiology, quality, safety and handling relevant to all those in the tropical and subtropical fruits supply chain.

Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits Volume 2 (ISBN 978-1-84569-734-1)

Chapters in Volume 2 of this important collection review factors affecting the quality of different tropical and subtropical fruits, concentrating on postharvest biology and technology. Important issues relevant to each specific product are discussed, such as postharvest physiology, preharvest factors affecting postharvest quality, quality maintenance postharvest, pests and diseases and value-added processed products, among other topics.

Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits Volume 3 (ISBN 978-1-84569-735-8)

Chapters in Volume 3 of this important collection review factors affecting the quality of different tropical and subtropical fruits, concentrating on postharvest biology and technology. Important issues relevant to each specific product are discussed, such as postharvest physiology, preharvest factors affecting postharvest quality, quality maintenance postharvest, pests and diseases and value-added processed products, among other topics.

Details of these books and a complete list of Woodhead's titles can be obtained by:

- visiting our web site at www.woodheadpublishing.com
- contacting Customer Services (e-mail: sales@woodheadpublishing.com; fax: +44
 (0) 1223 832819; tel.: +44 (0) 1223 499140 ext. 130; address: Woodhead Publishing Limited, 80 High Street, Sawston, Cambridge CB22 3HJ, UK

Woodhead Publishing Series in Food Science, Technology and Nutrition: Number 209

Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

Volume 4: Mangosteen to white sapote

> Edited by Elhadi M. Yahia



Oxford

Cambridge

Philadelphia

New Delhi

© Woodhead Publishing Limited, 2011

Published by Woodhead Publishing Limited, 80 High Street, Sawston, Cambridge CB22 3HJ, UK www.woodheadpublishing.com

Woodhead Publishing, 1518 Walnut Street, Suite 1100, Philadelphia, PA 19102-3406, USA

Woodhead Publishing India Private Limited, G-2, Vardaan House, 7/28 Ansari Road, Daryaganj, New Delhi – 110002, India www.woodheadpublishingindia.com

First published 2011, Woodhead Publishing Limited © Woodhead Publishing Limited, 2011. Chapter 15 was prepared by US government employees; this chapter is therefore in the public domain and cannot be copyrighted. The authors have asserted their moral rights.

This book contains information obtained from authentic and highly regarded sources. Reprinted material is quoted with permission, and sources are indicated. Reasonable efforts have been made to publish reliable data and information, but the authors and the publisher cannot assume responsibility for the validity of all materials. Neither the authors nor the publisher, nor anyone else associated with this publication, shall be liable for any loss, damage or liability directly or indirectly caused or alleged to be caused by this book.

Neither this book nor any part may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, microfilming and recording, or by any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from Woodhead Publishing Limited.

The consent of Woodhead Publishing Limited does not extend to copying for general distribution, for promotion, for creating new works, or for resale. Specific permission must be obtained in writing from Woodhead Publishing Limited for such copying.

Trademark notice: Product or corporate names may be trademarks or registered trademarks, and are used only for identification and explanation, without intent to infringe.

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

Library of Congress Control Number: 2011929803

ISBN 978-0-85709-090-4 (print) ISBN 978-0-85709-261-8 (online) ISSN 2042-8049 Woodhead Publishing in Food Science, Technology and Nutrition (print) ISSN 2042-8057 Woodhead Publishing in Food Science, Technology and Nutrition (online)

The publisher's policy is to use permanent paper from mills that operate a sustainable forestry policy, and which has been manufactured from pulp which is processed using acid-free and elemental chlorine-free practices. Furthermore, the publisher ensures that the text paper and cover board used have met acceptable environmental accreditation standards.

Cover image: Fruit stand in Malaysia (Photo: Elhadi M. Yahia).

Typeset by RefineCatch Limited, Bungay, Suffolk Printed by TJI Digital Limited, Padstow, Cornwall, UK

Contents

Ca	ontribu	tor contact details	xv
We	odhea	d Publishing Series in Food Science, Technology and Nutrition	xxiii
Fo	reword	<i>i</i>	xxxi
1		gosteen (Garcinia mangostana L.)	1
		tsa, Kasetsart University, Thailand and R. E. Paull,	
	Unive	ersity of Hawaii at Manoa, USA	
	1.1	Introduction	1
	1.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	4
	1.3	Maturity and quality components	10
	1.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	11
	1.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	12
	1.6	Physiological disorders	14
	1.7	Pathological disorders	21
	1.8	Harvesting practices	22
	1.9	Postharvest operations	22
	1.10	Processing	23
	1.11	Conclusions	25
	1.12	Acknowledgements	25
	1.13	References	25
2	Melo	n (Cucumis melo L.)	31
	<i>M</i> . <i>E</i> .	Saltveit, University of California, Davis, USA	
	2.1	Introduction	31
	2.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	33
	2.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	35
	2.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	36
	2.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting fruit quality	36

© Woodhead Publishing Limited, 2011

	2.6	Physiological disorders	38
	2.7	Pathological disorders	39
	2.8	Insect pests and their control	39
	2.9	Postharvest handling practices	39
	2.10	Processing	42
	2.11	Conclusions	42
	2.12	References	43
-	Nanc	e (Byrsonima crassifolia (L.) Kunth)	44
	0. Di	uarte, National Agrarian University, La Molina, Peru	
	3.1	Introduction	44
	3.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	46
	3.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	40
	3.4	Preharvest factors affecting quality	47
	3.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	47
	3.6	Physiological disorders	48
	3.7	Pathological disorders	
	3.8	Insect pests and their control	48
	3.9	Postharvest handling practices	48
	3.10	Processing	48
	3.11	Conclusion	49
	3.12	References	49
	5.12	References	50
4	Noni	(Morinda citrifolia L.)	
	A Ca	rrillo-López, Autonomous University of Sinaloa, Mexico	51
	and F	M. Yahia, Autonomous University of Queretaro, Mexico	
	4.1	Introduction	
	4.2	Introduction	51
	4.3	Fruit growth, development and maturation	55
	4.5	Preharvest conditions and postharvest handling factors	
	4.4	affecting quality	56
	4.4	Pathological disorders	57
		Insect pests and their control	57
	4.6	Postharvest handling practices	57
	4.7	Processing	59
	4.8	Conclusions	59
	4.9	References	60
5	Olive	(Olea europaea L.)	63
	С. Н.	Crisosto and L. Ferguson, University of California,	
	USA a	nd G. Nanos, University of Thessaly, Greece	
	5.1	Introduction	63
	5.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	65
	5.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	67
	5.4	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	70
	5.5	Physiological disorders	71
			1 1

	5.6	Pathological disorders	71
	5.7	Insect pests and their control	72
	5.8	Harvest operations	72
	5.9	Packinghouse handling practices	75
	5.10	Grades and standards for processed olives	80
	5.11	Recommended storage and shipping conditions	83
	5.12	Processing	84
	5.13	Conclusions	84
	5.14	References	84
6	Papa	ya (Carica papaya L.)	86
		Singh, Curtin University of Technology, Australia and	
	D. V.	Sudhakar Rao, Indian Institute of Horticultural	
	Resea	rch, India	
	6.1	Introduction	86
	6.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	90
	6.3	Maturity indices	96
	6.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	96
	6.5	Postharvest factors affecting fruit quality	98
	6.6	Physiological disorders	103
	6.7	Postharvest pathological disorders	104
	6.8	Postharvest insect pests and phytosanitary treatments	107
	6.9	Postharvest handling practices	111
	6.10	Processing	114
	6.11	Conclusions	116
	6.12	References	118
7	Passi	on fruit (<i>Passiflora edulis</i> Sim.)	125
		Schotsmans, Institute of Agricultural Research and	
		ology, Spain and G. Fischer, National University of	
	Color	nbia, Colombia	
	7.1	Introduction	125
	7.2	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	130
	7.3	Postharvest physiology and quality	132
	7.4	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	133
	7.5	Crop losses	135
	7.6	Processing	137
	7.7	Conclusions	138
	7.8	References	138
8		n (Carya illinoiensis (Wangenh.) K. Koch.)	143
		Gardea and M. A. Martínez-Téllez, Research Center for	
		and Development, Mexico and E. M. Yahia, Autonomous	
		ersity of Queretaro, Mexico	g 1334
	8.1	Introduction	143

	8.2	Nutritional value of pecan nuts	145
	8.3	Harvesting, handling and storage	147
	8.4	Current quality grading system	152
	8.5	In-shell and shelled pecan	154
	8.6	Description of main quality attributes	155
	8.7	Storage	156
	8.8	Postharvest physiology factors affecting nut quality	158
	8.9	Potential improvements in handling	160
		Processing	161
	8.10	Conclusions	161
	8.11	Acknowledgements	162
	8.12	References	162
	8.13	References	102
9	Persi	mmon (Diospyros kaki L.)	166
	A. B.	Woolf, The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food	
	Resea	rch Limited, New Zealand and R. Ben-Arie, Israel Fruit	
		ers'Association, Israel	
	9.1	Introduction	166
	9.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	168
	9.3	Maturity, quality at harvest and phytonutrients	170
	9.4	Preharvest factors affecting postharvest fruit quality	172
	9.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting fruit quality	175
	9.6	Physiological disorders	180
	9.7	Pathological disorders	181
	9.8	Insect pests and their control	183
	9.9	Postharvest handling practices	184
	9.9 9.10	Processing	186
		Conclusions	187
	9.11	References	187
	9.12	Keierences	107
10	Pine	apple (Ananas comosus L. Merr.)	194
	A. He	assan and Z. Othman, Malaysian Agricultural Research	
	and I	Development Institute (MARDI), Malaysia and J. Siriphanich,	
	Kase	tsart University, Kamphang Saen, Thailand	
	10.1	Introduction	194
	10.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	196
	10.3	Physical and biochemical changes during maturation	
	1010	and ripening	197
	10.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	201
	10.4	Postharvest factors affecting quality	203
	10.5	Physiological disorders	204
	10.0	Pathological disorders	206
	10.7	Insect pests and their control	206
	10.0		208
	10.1	I ODMANN I COT AND	

	10.10	Processing	211
	10.11	Conclusions	212
	10.12	Acknowledgements	212
	10.13	References	212
11	Pistac	hio (Pistacia vera L.)	218
	M. Ka	shaninejad, Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences	
	and N	atural Resources, Iran and L. G. Tabil, University of	
	Saska	tchewan, Canada	
	11.1	Introduction	218
	11.2	Physiological disorders	228
	11.3	Postharvest pathology and mycotoxin contamination	231
	11.4	Postharvest handling practices	232
	11.5	Processing of fresh pistachio nuts	234
	11.6	Processing of dried pistachio nuts	242
	11.7	References	244
			247
12	Pitah	aya (pitaya) (Hylocereus spp.)	241
		Bellec and F. Vaillant, Centre for Agricultural Research	
		Development (CIRAD), France	247
	12.1	Introduction	247
	12.2	Uses and market	248 248
	12.3	Botany, origin and morphology	248 254
	12.4	Cropping system	
	12.5	Cultivation techniques	255
	12.6	Pests and diseases	259
	12.7	Quality components and indices	260
	12.8	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	262
	12.9	Processing	263
	12.10		266
	12.11	References	267
	D:4	nga (Eugenia uniflora L.)	272
1,	o rital	izzotto and L. Cabral, Brazilian Agricultural Research	
	M. V	poration (EMBRAPA), Brazil and A. Santos Lopes, Federal	
	Univ	ersity of Pará, Brazil Introduction	272
	13.1	Postharvest physiology	274
		Maturity and quality components and composition	276
	13.3		278
	13.4		279
	13.5		280
	13.6		280
	13.7		284
	13.8	References	204

X	Contents

14	Pome	egranate (Punica granatum L.)	287
	M. Er	kan, Akdeniz University, Turkey and A. A. Kader, University	-01
	of Ca	lifornia, Davis, USA	
	14.1	Introduction	287
	14.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	292
	14.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	294
	14.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	295
	14.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	296
	14.6	Physiological disorders	290
	14.7	Pathological disorders	301
	14.8	Postharvest handling practices	302
	14.9	Processing	305
	14.10	Conclusions	305
	14.11	References	307
			507
15	Ramb	outan (Nephelium lappaceum L.)	312
	<i>M. M.</i>	Wall, US Department of Agriculture, Agricultural	JIM
	Resea	rch Service (USDA-ARS), USA, D. Sivakumar, Tshwane	
	Unive	rsity of Technology, South Africa and L. Korsten,	
		rsity of Pretoria, South Africa	
	15.1	Introduction	312
	15.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	313
	15.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	316
	15.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	317
	15.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	317
	15.6	Physiological disorders	319
	15.7	Pathological disorders	320
	15.8	Insect pests and their control	320
	15.9	Postharvest handling practices	324
	15.10	Processing	
	15.11	Conclusions	328
	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	References	328
	10.12	References	329
16	Salak	(Salacca zalacca (Gaertner) Voss)	334
	S. Sup	apvanich, Kasetsart University, Thailand, R. Megia,	334
	Bogor	Agricultural University, Indonesia and P. Ding,	
	Univer	sity of Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	
	16.1	Introduction	224
	16.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	334
	16.3	Changes in quality components during maturation	341
	16.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	341
	16.5	Postharvest factors and physiological disorders affecting	343
	10.5	fruit quality	2.42
	16.6	fruit quality	343
	16.7	Postharvest pathology and entomology Postharvest handling practices	344
	10.7	r ostnarvest nanuning practices	345

	16.8	Processing	347
	16.9	Conclusions	348
	16.10	References	348
17		lilla (Manilkara achras (Mill) Fosb., syn Achras sapota, L.)	351
		Yahia and F. Guttierrez-Orozco, Autonomous University of	
	Quere	taro, Mexico	
	17.1	Introduction	351
	17.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	353
	17.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	354
	17.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	356
	17.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	356
	17.6	Physiological disorders	357
	17.7	Pathological disorders	357
	17.8	Insect pests and their control	358
	17.9	Postharvest handling practices	358
	17.10	Processing	359
	17.11	Conclusions	360
	17.12	References	360
18		op (Annona muricata L.)	363
		Coêlho de Lima and R. E. Alves, Brazilian Agricultural	
		rch Corporation (EMBRAPA), Brazil	
	18.1	Introduction	363
	18.2	Fruit growth and ripening	367
	18.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	370
	18.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	379
	18.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	380
	18.6	Physiological disorders	382
	18.7	Pathological disorders	383
	18.8	Postharvest handling practices	383
	18.9	Conclusions	386
	18.10	References	386
19	Star a	apple (Chrysophyllum cainito L.)	392
	Е. М.	Yahia and F. Guttierrez-Orozco, Autonomous University	
		eretaro, Mexico	
	19.1	Introduction	392
	19.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	395
	19.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	395
	19.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	396
	19.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	396
	19.6	Physiological disorders	396
	19.7	Pathological disorders	396
	19.8	Insect pests and their control	396

ents

Postharvest handling practices	397
Processing	397
Conclusions	397
References	398
	570
apple (Annona squamosa L.) and atemoya	
primola Mill. × A. squamosa L.)	399
ngs-Aree, King Mongkut's University of Technology	577
uri (KMUTT), Thailand and S. Noichinda, King Mongkut's	
sity of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), Thailand	
Introduction	399
Fruit development and postharvest physiology	405
Maturity	408
Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	410
Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	411
Physiological disorders	412
Diseases, insect pests and their control	414
Postharvest handling practices	415
Processing	421
Conclusions	422
Acknowledgements	422
References	423
Constant and make or stars 9.00 (9.85%) (1.6.9)	425
illo (Solanum betaceum (Cav.))	427
chotsmans, Institute of Agricultural Research and	
logy, Spain, A. East, Massey University, New Zealand and	
f, The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research	
, New Zealand	
ntroduction	427
Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	431
Postharvest physiology and quality	432
Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	434
Crop losses	435
Processing	437
Conclusions	438
References	438
a second representation	450
nd (Tamarindus indica L.)	442
nhia, Autonomous University of Queretaro, Mexico	442
KE. Salih, Agricultural Research Corporation, Sudan	
ntroduction	442
ruit growth and ripening	442
Aturity and quality components and indices	448
reharvest factors affecting fruit quality	449
Diseases and pests and their control	449
	TUUT

	22.6	Pos
	22.7	Pos
	22.8	Pro
	22.9	Co
	22.10	
23	Wax	appl
	Wax a L.M.	Peri
	ZH.S	Shü,
	ZHS Nation	nal (
	23.1	Intr
	23.2	Fru
	23.3	
	23.4	
	23.5	Pat
		Inse
	23.7	Pos
	23.8	Cor
	23.9	Ref
24	White	e sap
	Е. М.	Yahi
	of Que	
	24.1	
		Fru
		Ma
	24.4	Pre
	24.5	Pos
	24.6	Phy
	24.7	Patl
	24.8	Inse
	24.9	Pos
	24.10	Pro
	24.11	
	24.12	Ref
Ina	24.12 lex	Ref

	19.9	Postharvest handling practices	397
	19.10	Processing	397
	19.11	Conclusions	397
	19.12	References	398
20	-	apple (Annona squamosa L.) and atemoya	
	(A. ch	erimola Mill. × A. squamosa L.)	399
	C. Wo.	ngs-Aree, King Mongkut's University of Technology	
	Thonb	uri (KMUTT), Thailand and S. Noichinda, King Mongkut's	
	Unive	rsity of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), Thailand	
	20.1	Introduction	399
	20.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	405
	20.3	Maturity	408
	20.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	410
	20.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	411
	20.6	Physiological disorders	412
	20.7	Diseases, insect pests and their control	414
	20.8	Postharvest handling practices	415
	20.9	Processing	421
	20.10		422
	20.11	Acknowledgements	422
	20.12	References	423
21	Tama	rillo (Solanum betaceum (Cav.))	427
	W. C.	Schotsmans, Institute of Agricultural Research and	
		ology, Spain, A. East, Massey University, New Zealand and	
		olf, The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research	
		d, New Zealand	
	21.1	Introduction	427
	21.2	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	431
	21.3	Postharvest physiology and quality	432
	21.4	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	434
	21.5	Crop losses	435
	21.6	Processing	437
	21.7	Conclusions	438
	21.8	References	438
	21.0		150
22	Tama	rind (Tamarindus indica L.)	442
		Yahia, Autonomous University of Queretaro, Mexico	
		. KE. Salih, Agricultural Research Corporation, Sudan	
	22.1	Introduction	442
	22.2	Fruit growth and ripening	442
	22.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	448
	22.3	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	440
	22.4	Diseases and pests and their control	449
	1.1.1	LADAGENES AURI DESIS AURI DELL'ARRENTE	

	22.6	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	451
	22.7	Postharvest handling practices	452
	22.8	Processing	453
	22.9	Conclusions	455
	22.10	References	455
23	Wax a	apple (Syzygium samarangense (Blume) Merr. and	
	L.M.	Perry) and related species	458
	ZH S	Shü, Meiho University, Taiwan, CC. Hsieh and HL. Lin,	
	Nation	nal Chung-hsing University, Taiwan	
	23.1	Introduction	458
	23.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	464
	23.3	Maturity, quality components and indices	464
	23.4	Physiological disorders	464
	23.5	Pathological disorders	467
	23.6	Insect pests and their control	467
	23.7	Postharvest handling practices	469
	23.8	Conclusions	470
	23.9	References	470
24	White	e sapote (Casimiroa edulis Llave & Lex)	474
		Yahia and F. Guttierrez-Orozco, Autonomous University	
		eretaro, Mexico	
	24.1	Introduction	474
	24.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	477
	24.3	Maturation and quality components and indices	477
	24.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	478
	24.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	478
	24.6	Physiological disorders	478
	24.7	Pathological disorders	479
	24.8	Insect pests and their control	479
	24.9	Postharvest handling practices	479
	24.10	Processing	480
	24.11	Conclusions	480
	24.12	References	480
Ina	lex		483

	19.9	Postharvest handling practices	397
	19.10	Processing	397
	19.11	Conclusions	397
		References	398
20	Sugar	apple (Annona squamosa L.) and atemoya	
	(A. ch	erimola Mill. × A. squamosa L.)	399
	C. Wo	ngs-Aree, King Mongkut's University of Technology	
	Thonk	uri (KMUTT), Thailand and S. Noichinda, King Mongkut's	
	Unive	rsity of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), Thailand	
	20.1	Introduction	399
	20.2	Fruit development and postharvest physiology	405
	20.3	Maturity	408
	20.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	410
	20.5	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	411
	20.6	Physiological disorders	412
	20.7	Diseases, insect pests and their control	414
	20.8	Postharvest handling practices	415
	20.9	Processing	421
	20.10		422
	20.11	Acknowledgements	422
	20.12	References	423
21	W. C. Techn	rillo (Solanum betaceum (Cav.)) Schotsmans, Institute of Agricultural Research and ology, Spain, A. East, Massey University, New Zealand and olf, The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research	427
		d, New Zealand	
	21.1		107
	21.1		427
	21.2	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	431
		Postharvest physiology and quality	432
	21.4	Postharvest handling factors affecting quality	434
	21.5	Crop losses	435
	21.6	Processing	437
	21.7	Conclusions	438
	21.8	References	438
22	-	(Cherroreal Country)	
22		rind (Tamarindus indica L.)	442
		Yahia, Autonomous University of Queretaro, Mexico	
		KE. Salih, Agricultural Research Corporation, Sudan	
	22.1	Introduction	442
	22.2	Fruit growth and ripening	448
	22.3	Maturity and quality components and indices	448
	22.4	Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality	449
	22.5	Diseases and pests and their control	450

16

Salak (Salacca zalacca (Gaertner) Voss)

S. Supapvanich, Kasetsart University, Thailand, R. Megia, Bogor Agricultural University, Indonesia and P. Ding, University of Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract: The salak is an indigenous palm found throughout the Indo-Malaysian region. It is a small spiny palm that grows on moist well drained soil with high organic matter content. The fruit is drupe oval or spindle shaped (like a fig) with a distinct tip, tapering towards the top and rounded at the top end. The skin is covered with regularly arranged scale, creating an appearance similar to that of snake skin, from which the name 'snake skin fruit' is derived. The salak is a crunchy fruit that has a taste that combines the flavours of apple, banana, and pineapple. It is a good source of antioxidants that cannot be matched by other tropical fruits.

Key words: salak, Salacca zalacca, Salacca edulis, snake skin fruit, spiny palm, Indo-Malaysia region.

16.1 Introduction

16.1.1 Origin, botany, morphology and structure

The salak (*Salacca zalacca*, syn. *S. edulis, Calamus zalacca*) belongs to the family Palmae or Arecaceae genus *Salacca*, which is the only family in the monocot order Arecales. It is an indigenous palm found throughout the Indo-Malaysian region, i.e. Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, Cambodia and South of Myanmar, Vietnam, Philippines and China (Draft ASEAN Standard for Horticultural Produce, 2009; Lestari and Ebert, 2002; Rangsiruji *et al.*, 2006; Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002; Wijaya *et al.*, 2005). It has been introduced into the countries of New Guinea and Queensland, Australia (Lestari and Ebert, 2002).

There are 21 species and four varieties of *Salacca* (Rangsiruji *et al.*, 2006). In Thailand, the salak is cultivated in the eastern and southern parts of the country and the main commercial species grown are *S. wallichiana* Mart and *S. rumphii*, known as Rakam and Sala, respectively, by Thais (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatuporn,

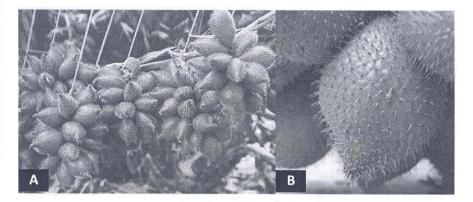


Fig. 16.1 Salacca rumphii Wall (Sala) (A) and Salacca wallichiana Mart (Rakam) (B).

2000) (Fig. 16.1). There are three main species of salak grown commercially in Malaysia, which are *S. glaberescens*, *S. edulis* and *S. sumatrana* (Abu Bakar and Idris, 2006). *S. glaberescens* is known as local salak and there are nine clones being bred for planting (Tables 16.1 and 16.2), while *S. edulis* and *S. sumatrana* are the two species of salak introduced from Indonesia. In Indonesia, the important commercial cultivars for domestic and export markets are *S. zalacca* (Gaertner) Voss with the synonim *S. edulis* (Reinw) (Mogea, 1982) (Fig. 16.2A) and *S. sumatrana* Becc. *S. zalacca* is subdivided into two varieties, var. *zalacca* from Java and var. *amboinensis* (Becc.) Mogea from Bali (Fig. 16.2B) and Ambon. *S. sumatrana* is more commonly known as salak Padang Sidempuan (North Sumatra).

In Indonesia there are more than 30 cultivars of salak, which are often distinguished by their place of origin (eg.: salak 'Bali', 'Suwaru', 'Condet', or 'Enrekang', 'Padang Sidempuan'), fruit taste (eg.: salak 'gula pasir', 'pondoh', or 'madu'), or fruit colour (eg.: salak 'putih' or 'gading'). The cultivar may also be

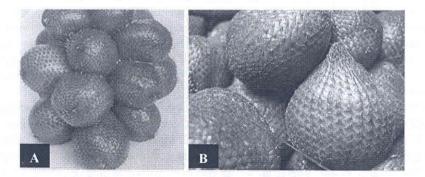


Fig. 16.2 Salacca edulis, Reinw (Salak Pondoh) (A) and Salacca zalacca var. amboinensis (Salak Bali) (B).

Fruit	Clone					
characteristics	SJ15	SJ17	SJ34	SJ36	SJ39	SJ40
Weight (g)	50-62	64-84	65-100	66-85	50-85	
Length (cm)	6-9	7-9	8-10	6-8	6-9	5.7-7.5
Width (cm)	4-6	4-6	4-8	4-6	3-5	5-6.7
Shape	Oval with sharp tip Round	Round	Oval with long sharp tip	Round	Oval with sharp tip Round with sharp tip	Round with sharp tip
Skin colour	Dark brown	Brown	Brown	Red brown	Dark brown	Brown
Flesh colour	White	Light orange	Light yellow	Pale orange	Light orange	Red spot at bottom of flesh
Texture	Firm and juicy	Juicy and crunchy		Firm and slightly juicy	Soft	Firm and juicy
Taste	Sourish sweet	Sourish sweet and aromatic	Sweet with slight astringent and aromatic	Sourish sweet	Sweet with slight astringent	Sweet
Soluble solids concentration (°Brix)	14-18	14-18	16–20	18–20	16–19	16-20
Edible portion (%)	57	61	63	64	69	69

Table 16.1 Physico-chemical characteristics of Malaysian salak, S. glaberescens clones

© Woodhead Publishing Limited, 2011

Fruit	Clone			
characteristics	ST1	ST2	ST3	
Weight (g)	80	75	68	
Length (cm)	8-10	6-8	6-9	
Width (cm)	4-6	4-6	3-5	
Shape	Oval to oblong	Round to oval	Oval with long sharp tip	
Skin colour	Reddish-brown	Reddish-brown	Reddish-brown	
Flesh colour	Creamy white	Creamy white	Creamy white	
Texture	Juicy	Juicy and crunchy		
Taste	Sweet with slight astringent	Sweet	Sweet with slight astringent	
Soluble solids concentration (SSC) (°Brix)	16–20	15–18	17–19	
Titratable acidity (TA) (%)	0.73	0.63	0.73	
SSC/TA ratio	22.5	26.7	22.5	
Water content (%)	81	83	81	
Edible portion (%)	63	64	69	

Table 16.2Physico-chemical characteristics of selected salak clones in Terengganu,Malaysia

divided into sub-cultivars, i.e. salak 'pondoh' is divided into: 'pondoh super', 'pondoh hitam' and 'pondoh manggala'. Some superior salak varieties that have been officially released by the Department of Horticulture, Agricultural Ministry of Indonesia Government include: salak 'pondoh', 'suwaru', 'nglumut', 'enrekang' (Celebes), and 'gula batu' (Bali).

The salak is an extremely spiny palm, which does not form a trunk and which grows on a wide range of soils but prefers moist well-drained soil with high organic matter content (Kueh, 2003). It requires shade and is best intercropped with banana, durian, rubber, oil palm, coconut and cocoa. It is about 6 m tall. The leaves pinnate can reach 10 m long and 1.50 m wide; each leaf has a 2 m long spiny petiole and numerous leaflets measuring 20–89 cm long and 2–11 cm wide. The upper surface of the leaflets is dark green and shiny, while lower surface is light green. Long, strong, grey to blackish spine clusters are distributed along the frond base at intervals of 3–5 cm.

The palm fruits at about 3–4 years after planting. It is usually dioecious, although some have been found to be monoecious (e.g. Salak Bali) where they could self pollinate. The inflorescence is an axillary compound spadix with a stalk: the female inflorescences are 20–30 cm long, and are composed of 1–3 spadices, 7–10 cm long; the male inflorescences are 50–100 cm long, consisting of 4–12 spadices, each measuring 7–15 cm \times 0.7–2 cm. About 20% of the male palms are retained as pollinators, while the rest are removed. Assisted pollination is carried out to improve the fruit set.

338 Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

The fruit of the salak grows in clusters of 15-40 fruits/spadix, at the base of the palm. The fruit is drupe oval or spindle shaped (like a fig) with a distinct tip; it measures $5-8 \text{ cm} \times 5 \text{ cm}$, tapering towards the top and rounded at the top end and fits comfortably into a human palm and weighs about 70g, depending on the species and variety. The skin, which is thin and strong, is covered with regularly arranged scales, which serve to create an appearance similar to that of snake skin, from which the name 'snake skin fruit' is derived. The colour of the fruit skin is reddish-brown to brown or dark brown, depending upon the species and cultivars (the skin of mature Thai Rakam and Sala fruits are reddish-brown [Thangjatuporn, 2000]). To peel the fruit, simply pinch the tip of the fruit and pull away, revealing the garlic-like clove inside, which is arranged in 1-3 irregular sized segments. Before eating the fruit, a paper-thin layer of membrane covering each segment needs to be rubbed off. Usually two of the three segments are bigger and each segment contains a large inedible dark brown seed, while the third segment is smaller and seedless. The taste is usually sweet and acidic with a pineapple, pear or banana-like aroma, and an apple-like texture, which can vary from very dry and crumbly to moist and crunchy or soft, depending on the species and cultivar. Rakam and Sala fruits grown in Thailand have creamy, moist, soft and thin flesh (Thangjatuporn, 2000). The salak fruit is astringent too due to its high tannin content. Generally, most salak fruits, such as Thai Rakam and Sala, have a sour and astringent taste during the immature stages (Supriyadi et al., 2002; Thangjatuporn, 2000) but become sweeter and lose their astringent taste during maturation. An exception to this trend is the Salak Pondoh (Lestari and Ebert, 2002; Wijaya et al., 2005).

The salak is usually propagated from seeds, of which 50% of the seedlings will be males and the fruit produced are not uniform in quality (Abu Bakar and Idris, 2006). By propagating using suckers, it is possible to retain the characteristics of mother palms. Unfortunately, a palm can only produce 2–10 suckers in its life cycle, moreover, the mortality rate is about 40%. Recently, a few propagating techniques have been established to increase the number of seedlings using female palms that have produced a good quality of fruit. Splitting a 6–12 month old young palm into pieces with leaf, pseudostem and roots has been proven as one of the techniques. Inducing the growth of suckers using diesel or methamidophos has been practiced too. This technique removes the apical dominance of female palms by killing the meristem cells.

16.1.2 Worldwide importance and economic value

Salak fruit has become an exotic and prominent fruit with good potential for both the domestic market and for export. The demand for the fruit per year is about 420 000 tons, including fresh consumption, processed fruit and export. Recently, the demand for the fruit in China, Japan, Europe and United States has increased. The popularity of the fruit has increased since Salak Pondoh was recognized and became a commercial fruit. Indonesia produces 60–70% (334 000 tons) of the world's salak fruit and exports about 32 755 tons year⁻¹ (Dimyati *et al.*, 2008). In

Region/Island	Production (tons)		
	Th 2006	Th 2007	
Sumatera	265815	260 702	
Jawa	479898	419298	
Bali and Nusa Tenggara	63 0 7 3	79933	
Kalimantan	19039	28725	
Sulawesi	32600	16111	
Maluku and Papua	1525	1110	
Total	861950	805879	

Table 16.3Production of salak fruit in Indonesia in 2006and 2007

Modified from Dimyati et al. (2008).

Table 16.4	Production	of salak fruit in	Thailand in 2008
-------------------	------------	-------------------	------------------

Average yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Total production (tons)
8356.25	1 507
18062.50	7745
4687.50	15
10181.25	81
41287.50	9348
	8356.25 18062.50 4687.50 10181.25

Modified from Department of Agricultural Extension (2008).

2006, Indonesian salak was being exported to Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong in volumes of about 4–10 tons per week. In 2008, the consumption per capita of the fruit in Indonesia was about 1.64 kg year⁻¹ (Dimyati *et al.*, 2008). The production of salak fruit in Indonesia is shown in Table 16.3. In Thailand, Rakam and Sala cv. 'Nernwong' and 'Saynampueng' are an important commercial fruit in the domestic market and the demand for the fruit both domestically and abroad has been increasing. The fruit has been exported to Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia (Thangjatuporn, 2000). The average yield and total production of salak fruit in Table 16.4.

16.1.3 Culinary use, nutritional value and health benefits

Salak fruit is a good source of antioxidants (Aralas *et al.*, 2009; Leong and Shui, 2002; Lim *et al.*, 2007). With a level higher than that of other tropical fruits such as mangosteen, avocado, orange, papaya, mango, pomelo, lemon, pineapple, rambutan, banana and watermelon (Aralas *et al.*, 2009; Leong and Shui, 2002). The nutritional values of salak fruit are shown in Table 16.5. The high level of antioxidants is due to salak having a high content of phytochemicals such as

Dietary fibre (b)	
Insoluble fibre	$0.75 \pm 0.07 \text{ g} \ 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Soluble fibre	0.35 ± 0.04 g 100 g ⁻¹ fresh weight
Total dietary fibre	1.1 ± 0.1 g 100 g ⁻¹ fresh weight
Total antioxidant capacity (b, c)	
Total DPPH	$110.4\pm7.9\mathrm{mM}\mathrm{TE}100\mathrm{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Total ABTS	260 ± 32.5 AEAC mg 100 g ⁻¹ fresh weight
Flavonoid (b)	0 0 6
Free flavonoids	$14.1\pm0.9\mathrm{mg}\mathrm{CE}100\mathrm{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Total flavonoids	$61.2\pm4.9 \text{ mg CE } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
	01.2±4.9 mg CE 100g mesh weight
Phenolic content (b)	22.2 1.7 010 100 -10 1 11
Free polyphenol	$33.2 \pm 1.7 \text{ mg GAE } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Total phenolic	$217.1 \pm 13.2 \text{ mg GAE } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Ascorbic acid content (a)	$0.73 - 1.28 \text{ mg } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Minerals and trace elements (b)	
Na	$1.9\pm0.1\mathrm{mg}100\mathrm{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
K	$191.2 \pm 12.6 \mathrm{mg} 100 \mathrm{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Mg	7.16 ± 0.5 mg 100 g ⁻¹ fresh weight
Ca	6.11 ± 0.4 mg 100 g ⁻¹ fresh weight
Fe	$301.7 \pm 11.2 \mu g \ 100 \ g^{-1}$ fresh weight
Mn	$249.9 \pm 11.7 \mu g \ 100 g^{-1}$ fresh weight
Zn	$35.1\pm2.9\mu\text{g}100\text{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight
Cu	$8.4\pm0.6\mu\text{g}100\text{g}^{-1}$ fresh weight

Table 16.5	Phytonutrients	and minera	ls in salak fruit
-------------------	----------------	------------	-------------------

Modified from (a) Aralas et al. (2009), (b) and (c) Haruenkit et al. (2007), Leong and Shui (2002).

lignin, flavonols, and gallic acid. These chemicals have been shown to inhibit proliferation and induce selective cytotoxicity and apoptosis in cancer cells (Aralas *et al.*, 2009; Lin *et al.*, 2008; Surh *et al.*, 1999). Gorinstein *et al.* (2009) found there was similarity between salak (cv. 'Sumalee') and kiwi fruit (cv. Hayward) in terms of their antioxidant and antiproliferative effects on two human cancer cell lines (Calu-6 for human pulmonary carcinoma, and SMU-601 for human gastric carcinoma, 90.5–87.6 and 89.3–87.1% cell survival, respectively). In West Java, the boiled skin of salak cv. 'bongkok' is traditionally used to decrease blood glucose concentration for patients with diabetes mellitus (Pratama, 2009). The fruit of the salak cv. bongkok is known for being sour and bitter, so its economic value is low, but the use of this cultivar as a medicinal product can increase the income of farmers and at the same time conserve the genetic diversity of this fruit.

The fruit are not only consumed as fresh fruit, but they are also processed into many food products, such as minimally processed fruit, fruit juice, deseeded-fruit in syrup, canned fruit, jam, fruit candy and pickle, 'dodol', chips or cracker and salak wine (Aralas *et al.*, 2009; Gorinstein *et al.*, 2009; Thangjatuporn, 2000). The young salak can be used to make a salad called 'rujak' in Indonesia.

16.2 Fruit development and postharvest physiology

16.2.1 Fruit development respiration and ethylene production during maturation

A few reports have been published on the postharvest physiology of salak (Dangcham, 1999; Lestari *et al.*, 2004; Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002; Wijaya *et al.*, 2005). The fruit weight of a salak increases continuously during its development and maturation, which is a common phenomenon in fruit. The weight of salak flesh increases gradually during its maturation, whilst the seed size does not change during maturation (Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002).

It is not clear whether salak fruit is climacteric or non-climacteric. Dangcham (1999) reported that the respiratory rate of the Thai Sala fruit at 36 and 37 weeks after pollination increased continuously during storage. At 38 weeks after pollination the fruit showed a respiration peak at day 3 after storage and then it declined. The increase in respiration was concomitant with an increase in ethylene production, where the peak was found to be at day 4. These findings suggested that the salak fruit might be classified as a climacteric fruit; however a further investigation is required to confirm this hyphothesis.

16.3 Changes in quality components during maturation

A combination of the day after pollination and the changes in the concentration of soluble solids, acidity, astringency, odours, skin and seed colours are used as the index for harvesting salak. In Thailand, it is recommended that Sala and Rakam are harvested at 37–39 and 28–30 weeks after pollination, respectively (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatupon, 2000). Supriyadi *et al.* (2002) suggested that the optimum stage for the consumption of salak was 5.5 months after pollination, when the flesh showed high firmness, sugar content and aroma compounds.

16.3.1 Skin and flesh colours

Skin, flesh and seed colours are used as a maturity index for salak. Basically, salak are harvested when the skin colour has changed to blackish brown and seed colour has turned black or blackish brown (Sukewijaya *et al.*, 2009). At immature stages, the flesh colour is white, then it changes to yellowish white when the fruit ripens (Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002). Plate XXX in the colour section between pages 238 and 239 shows immature and mature Salak Pondoh fruit. In Thailand, the skin colour of Sala and Rakam is dark brown in the immature stages, and the colour changes to brownish orange or reddish brown as the maturation increases (Thangjatuporn, 2000), see Plate XXXI in the colour section. The flesh colour of the Thai Sala and Rakam are light yellowish-white in the immature stages, after which the flesh colour changes to creamy or yellowish orange with the increase in maturation (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatuporn, 2000). The seed colour also changes from light brown in the immature stages to blackish brown in the immature stages for light brown in the immature stages to black brown in the immature stages form light brown in the immature stages to blackish brown in the immature stages form light brown in the immature stages to blackish brown or grey-brown when the fruit ripens (Thangjatuporn, 2000).

342 Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

16.3.2 Soluble solids concentration and titratable acidity

The soluble solids concentration of the fruit increases continuously during maturation (Dangcham, 1999; Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002). Supriyadi *et al.* (2002) reported that the Salak Pondoh became sweet when the fruit was 4.5 months after pollination. The glucose and fructose contents of the fruit increased during maturation, whereas the sucrose content increased until 5 months after pollination and then decreased. Similarly, the soluble solids concentration of Thai Sala fruit increased until 37 weeks after pollination and it then slightly declined at 38 weeks (Dangcham, 1999). The reduction of the sucrose content might be associated with the increase in glucose and fructose content during fruit development (Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002), while titratable acidity in the fruit decreases during maturation (Dangcham, 1999; Surpriyadi, 2002; Thangjatuporn, 2000). Dangcham (1999) reported that the titratable acidity of the Thai Sala at 36 and 37 weeks after pollination was higher than that of the fruit at 38 weeks after pollination (Table 16.6).

Weeks after pollination	Firmness (N)	Soluble solids concentration (°Brix)	
36	26.55	17.47	0.81
37	32.72	19.12	0.87
38	25.02	18.79	0.74

 Table 16.6
 Firmness, soluble solids concentration and titratable acidity of Sala fruit during development

Modified from Dangcham (1999).

16.3.3 Firmness

Texture is universally known as a very important factor in evaluating the quality of fruit. During maturation, the firmness of the salak increases and it then declines at the later stages of maturation (Dangcham, 1999; Suprivadi et al., 2002). It is widely accepted that the texture of the Salak Pondoh is firm and crunchy, while the texture of the Thai Sala and Rakam fruits is soft and juicy at full maturation stage. During maturation, the pulp firmness of the salak increased until fruit reached 5.5 months after pollination and by 6 months after pollination the firmness declined (Suprivadi et al., 2002). Similarly, the firmness of the Thai Sala fruit at 37 weeks after pollination was higher than that of the fruit at 36 weeks and the firmness then decreased in the fruit at 38 weeks (Table 16.6). Mahendra and Janes (1993) reported that salak stored at 22-24 °C showed an increase in firmness at day 7 and then decreased throughout storage (it is normally recognized that the loss of firmness during fruit ripening is concomitant with the modification of the cell wall structure). However, Lestari et al. (2004) reported that even though there was a marked increase in the ratio of soluble pectin to insoluble pectin of the salak during ripening, a slight change in the fruit firmness occurred.

16.3.4 Volatile compounds

Aroma is widely known as an important factor affecting the quality of salak and reports have shown that methyl esters of short-chain carboxylic acids are the major volatile compounds in salak (Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002, 2003; Wijaya *et al.*, 2005). The volatile aroma compounds are responsible for the sweaty and fruity character of the fruit (Supriyadi *et al.*, 2002; Wijaya *et al.*, 2005). During maturation, the level of esters and carboxylic acid in the salak increased markedly throughout storage. At the first stage of maturation, methyl dihydrojasmonate and isoeugenol were identified as the key volatile compounds in the fruit (Wijaya *et al.*, 2005). Supriyadi *et al.* (2002) suggested that the unsaturated fatty acids in the salak were oxidized to yield methyl ester of short-chain carboxylic acids, of which the level of the compounds increased remarkably throughout maturation, especially in the fruit at 5 and 5.5 months after pollination. Moreover, Supriyadi *et al.* (2003) reported that the methyl ester formation in the salak during development was associated with the action of pectinmethylesterase providing methanol, which was transferred to Acyl-CoA.

16.3.5 Ascorbic acid content

Salak has moderate ascorbic acid content (about $0.73-2.4 \text{ mg } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Aralas *et al.*, 2009; Leong and Shui, 2002) and the change in the ascorbic acid content in the Thai Sala fruit during storage at various temperatures was reported by Dangcham (1999). Ascorbic acid content in the Thai Sala was about $5.17-5.85 \text{ mg } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and, compared to the salak, the Thai Sala has higher ascorbic acid content. During storage, the ascorbic acid content of the Thai Sala declined remarkably and storage at lower temperatures could delay the reduction of the ascorbic acid content during storage (Dangcham, 1999).

16.4 Preharvest factors affecting fruit quality

Water and sunlight are environmental factors affecting the growth rate of the salak palm, as well as its pollination and fruit quality. The palm requires about 50-70% of full sunshine and an average rainfall of about 200–400 mm month⁻¹, or not less than 1500 mm year⁻¹ (Sukewijaya *et al.*, 2009; Thangjatuporn, 2000). Thangjatuporn (2000) suggested that the Thai Sala palm requires a good irrigation system, especially during pollination, as water deficiency causes the fruit to drop from the bunch during development, producing an undesirably low quality of the fruit.

16.5 Postharvest factors and physiological disorders affecting fruit quality

Storage temperature is widely recognized as a key factor affecting the quality of perishable crops, including the salak. Dangcham (1999) reported that the shelf life

of the Thai Sala stored at room temperature (30 °C) was lower than that of the same fruit stored at cold temperatures (Dangcham, 1999; Mahendra and Janes, 1993). The storage at high temperature and low relative humidity results in dried skin, dark brown or brownish black skin colour, soft and brown flesh and an increasingly astringent taste (Dangcham, 1999). Moreover, high temperature increases the rate of fruit drop from the bunch during storage (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatuporn, 2000). Even though cold storage is recommended to extend the shelf life and quality of the salak, chilling injury during storage must be considered. It is universally accepted that chilling injury is a normal physiological disorder of tropical and subtropical fruit stored at low temperature. The most common symptom of chilling injury occurring in the salak is skin pitting and dark or brownish black skin colour, and the pulp turning brown and soft (Dangcham, 1999; Mahendra and Janes, 1993). Mahendra and Janes (1993) suggested that the chilling injury symptoms of the salak stored at 3-5 °C exhibited after two days, while the chilling injury of the Thai Sala stored at 10 and 12 °C appeared at seven and 14 days, respectively. The symptoms became more severe with increasing storage time. It is recommended that the fruit is stored at a temperature above 15°C to prevent chilling injury (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatuporn, 2000). Mahendra and Janes (1993) reported that no chilling injury symptoms occurred on a salak stored at 15°C.

Exogenous ethylene from the environment causes fruit to drop during storage. Dangcham (1999) reported that the percentage of fruit drop increased with the increase of ethephon concentration and that exogenous ethylene had an effect on the decrease in titratable acidity of the Thai Sala during storage, resulting in the increase in sugar acid ratio. Table 16.7 shows the effect of exogenous ethylene on fruit drop and certain qualities in the Thai Sala.

Ethephon (mg L ⁻¹)	Percentage of fruit drop	Soluble solids concentration, SSC (°Brix)	Titratable acidity, TA (%)	SSC/TA
0	17.11	19.10	0.79	24.18
500	95.36	17.52	0.47	37.81
1,000	100	18.04	0.59	31.30

 Table 16.7
 The percentage of fruit drop and quality of Sala fruit treated with ethephon stored for three days

Modified from Dangcham (1999).

16.6 Postharvest pathology and entomology

Fungi that attack the salak include *Fusarium* sp., *Aspergillus* sp. and *Certocystis* paradoxa (Sukewijaya et al., 2009), while *Marasmius* palmivorus and *Thielaviopsis* paradoxa attack the Thai Sala and Rakam (Thangjatuporn, 2000). The disease spreads rapidly in the rainy season and infects immature fruit on the

tree. The following are common symptoms caused by the fungi in mature fruit: a brownish-black or black, water-soaked area covered with white or pinkish-white mycelium forms on the skin and water-soaked on flesh, and the skin becomes very dry and hard, which causes problems in peeling (Thangjatuporn, 2000). Arbie (2010) had tested the effect of alpinia galangal rhizome as a natural antimicrobe on Salak Pondoh stored in a perforated polyethylene plastic bag sized $25 \text{ cm} \times 16 \text{ cm}$ with a thickness of 40 µm. The result showed that immersion in 5% alpinia galangal extract for 30 s and storage at 15 °C (85-90% relative humidity (RH)) could extend the shelf life of the Salak Pondoh for 21 days, as compared to 14 days in control.

Good agricultural practices, fruit thinning, orchard hygiene, weed and undesired plant management are required to prevent the spread of the disease in the orchard. Fungicides such as thiabendazol and caboxin are also being used to control the disease. Normally, the fungicide is sprayed before the rainy season and the spraying of the fungicide is stopped about 15 days before harvest (Thangjatuporn, 2000).

Pests such as sugarcane white grub (*Lepidiota stigma* (Fabricius)) and *Salacca* beetle (*Rhynchophorus ferrugineus*) could affect the export of the Indonesian salak to China (Dimyati *et al.*, 2008). In order to export the Salak Pondoh to China, The Indonesian Agriculture Quarantine Agency (IAQA) sent a list of pests to the Ministry of Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine (AQSIQ) of China. AQSIQ then sent a team of entomologists to verify the condition of Yogyakarta. After the verification, the Memorandum of Understanding between IAQA and AQSIQ was signed to declare that the exportation of the salak fruit from Indonesia was permitted. Thus, good agricultural practice is crucial in exporting the salak.

16.7 Postharvest handling practices

16.7.1 Harvesting, cleaning and grading

Proper postharvest operations are important to maintain fruit quality and to avoid physical damages and diseases. It is recommended that salak fruit is harvested when the hairs on the skin surface disappear and the skin colour changes to blackish brown for the salak and to reddish-brown for the Thai Sala and Rakam; at maximum fruit size, seed colour turns to black or blackish-brown with a pleasant and aromatic taste (Sukewijaya *et al.*, 2009; Thangjatuporn, 2000). The fruit is harvested using a sharp knife or scissors. The salaks are delivered to the packinghouse immediately after the harvest and the fruit are cleaned by spraying clean water or chlorinated water (50–100 ppm hypochloride) to remove soil, insects and undesired matter (Thangjatuporn, 2000).

Salak fruit are classified as extra class, class I and class II. The extra class fruit must be of superior quality and free from defects with the exception of very slight superficial defects which do not affect the general appearance of the fruit. The class I fruit must be good quality and slight defects in shape, colour and skin should not exceed 5% of the total surface area. The quality of the fruit in class II

346 Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

satisfies the minimum requirements and the fruit may have defects in shape and colour, as well as skin defects, of which the total area of defect should not exceed 10% of the total surface area (Draft Asean Standard for Horticultural Produce, 2009). In Thailand, the Sala are classified into two classes for the domestic market which are class 1 (without physical damage and disease and no fruit drop from the bunch) and class 2 (with some physical damage and fruit drop from the bunch) (Thangjatuporn, 2000).

16.7.2 Ripening and senescence control

The salak does not go through the ripening process as it is eaten when the fruit matures, but a few studies have been carried out to control senescence by prolonging storage life. Trisnawati and Rubijo (2010) conducted a study using fruits, either detached from or still attached with their bunch, wrapped using paper and placed in a braided bamboo basket for 15 days. They found that there was a significant decrease in the vitamin C, total acid, pH and soluble solids concentration as storage duration progressed. In another study, the storage life of Salak Bali fruit coated with 10% beeswax and stored in a bamboo basket at 22–26 °C and 70–75% relative humidity could be extended from seven to 12 days, while qualities of the fruit such as vitamin C, tannin content, organic acids and the pH of the fruit could be retained (Wrasiatil *et al.*, 2001). Water loss or weight loss, and sugar degradation were inhibited, but microbiological decay and loss of firmness or texture still occurred even though the Salak Bali was coated with beeswax.

The astringent taste of the salak may cause an unpalatable sensation to new consumers. The tannin content of the Salak Bali cv 'Nangka' can be significantly reduced by applying 25, 50 and 75% ethanol, both in solution and vapour, in a plastic bag with a volume of 5 L for 24 h (Utama *et al.*, 2009). The efficiency of ethanol in removing the astringent taste is concentration dependent, with high ethanol concentration effective in short period of time and vice versa. In addition to this, soluble solids concentration increased while acidity decreased by treating the salak with ethanol.

16.7.3 Storage

In Thailand, it is recommended that Sala and Rakam fruits are stored at $15 \,^{\circ}$ C (Dangcham, 1999; Thangjatuporn, 2000). Dangcham (1999) suggested that the shelf life of Sala fruit stored at $15 \,^{\circ}$ C could last 28 days without chilling injury, while the fruit stored at $12.5 \,^{\circ}$ C showed slight chilling injury symptoms after 14 days of storage. Mahendra and Janes (1993) reported that the shelf life of salak fruit stored at 3-5 and $7-10 \,^{\circ}$ C would last 15 days, which was longer than that of the fruit stored at $15 \,^{\circ}$ C; however, temperatures of 3-5 and $7-10 \,^{\circ}$ C could cause moderate to severe chilling injury.

In Indonesia, waxing and wrapping the salak cv 'Suwaru' using perforated polyethylene plastic film and placing it either in a cardboard box or a bamboo basket at 15°C could prolong the fruit shelf life for three weeks (Hubeis *et al.*,

1995). Even after 23 days of storage the fruit retained fairly good nutrient values, with a 20% deterioration level and 2.04% weight loss as compared to day 0.

16.8 Processing

16.8.1 Fresh-cut processing

Increasing working activities and salaries affect citizens' preferences, where consumers tend to prefer ready-to-eat fresh fruit or minimally processed fresh fruit. The salak fruit is one of the potential horticultural products for this kind of industry. Coating fresh-cut salak fruit using 1.05% kappa-carrageenan and 0.15% carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) could extend its shelf life by three days as compared to control (Niam, 2009). The processed fresh-peeled fruit could be stored for up to 15 days in 10 °C and 87% RH and up to 9 days in 22 °C and 65% RH. An organoleptic test showed that the panelist could accept the colour, texture, flavour, and taste of fresh cut fruit stored at day 12 in 10 °C and day 6 in 22 °C.

Another study using edible film made of a soya protein isolate and fatty acid showed that the combination of 0.5% soya protein isolate and 0.5% strearatpalmitat gave the lowest water vapour transmission rate to fresh-cut salak fruit (Widyasari, 2000). As a result of these coatings, the shelf life of fresh-peeled Salak Pondoh fruit could be prolonged by up to 10 days at 5 °C compared to only two days at room temperature.

16.8.2 Other processing practices

A number of value-added products are produced from the salak in Indonesia. During the peak season, fruit is processed in order to overcome a surplus of salak production. Processed fruit products include wine, pickle, dried fruit, juices, candy, dodol, chips or crackers and jam (Palupi *et al.*, 2009). Most of these products are processed on the scale of home industry, although some are in middle class industry, such as the production of chips by farmers in the Sleman Regency of Yogyakarta using a vacuum frying technology.

The advantage of the vacuum frying technique was that it resulted in there being little change in the texture, flavour and colour of fruit due to the lower temperature used (85–90 °C) compared to frying under atmospheric conditions that leads to the boiling of the oil at 180–200 °C. Sanjaya (2007) found that the spinner rotation time during the process of de-oiling in vacuum frying technology also played an important role in the rancidity of salak chips obtained and therefore affected their shelf life. The longer (90 as compared to 60 and 30 s) spinner rotation time during de-oiling resulted in the shelf life decreasing. This may be caused by crispy chips absorbing greater amounts of water from their surroundings, so their rancidity hydrolize process is activated sooner. The longer the spinner process, the longer the chips are in contact with metal, which would serve as a catalyst for rancidity. By also comparing the type of packages, the study showed

348 Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

that the shelf life of salak chips obtained by using 30s rotation time during de-oiling was 107, 95 and 81 days, respectively, by using alumium foil and oriented polypropylene packages.

The quality of salak juice was studied by adding pectin and CMC in different concentrations of water (Christandy, 1999) and the result showed that the titrable acidity of the juice increased from 10.7 to 13.5% during storage, while the pH decreased from 4.26 to 4.10. The viscosity of the juice also increased from 0.43 to 0.57 cp. An organoleptic test showed that the panelist prefered the salak juice prepared by addition of 0.45% pectin, 0.45% CMC and two volumes of water. According to the microbiological standard, the juice became unconsumable six weeks after storage at room temperature. The panelist could accept the product after four weeks of storage with organoleptic scores as follows: taste (3.1), colour (2.9) and smell/flavour (3.7).

16.9 Conclusions

The Indo-Malaysian region is very rich in salak germplasm, where traditionally the fruit had been grown for more than 150 years in these countries. However, economically it was still considered to be a minor fruit. With the demand from China, Europe and United States, salak fruit became an important commercial fruit in the Indo-Malaysian region, especially in Indonesia and Thailand. However, there is little information on postharvest technology for the fruit. More studies are needed in order to achieve a better understanding of the postharvest biology and physiology and to develop postharvest technology for this unique fruit.

16.10 References

Abu Bakar H and Idris S (2006), Salak, Selangor, Malaysia, Dawama Sdn Bhd.

- Aralas S, Mohamed M and Bakar M F A (2009), 'Antioxidant properties of selected salak (*Salacca zalacca*) varieties in Sabah, Malaysia', *Nutr Food Sci*, **39**, 243–250.
- Arbie A (2010), *The effect of extract alpine galangal* (Alpinia galanga *L. Swartz*) to extend the shelf life of Pondoh salacca fruit (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Christandy H (1999), *The effect of water, pectin and CMC addition on the quality of bottled salacca juice during storage at room temperature* (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Universitas Juanda, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Dangcham S (1999), *Quality variation, storage and effect of ethephon on abscission of Sala fruit*, Master Special Problem, Kasetsart University, Thailand.
- Department of Agricultural Extension (2008), Agricultural Extension Information Center, Department of Agricultural Extension, the Royal Thai Government. In Thai. Available from http://www.aggriinfo.doae.go.th (accessed 16 February 2010).
- Dimyati A, Suntarsih S, Iswari D and Nurcahya S (2008), 'Meeting the requirements of international market for salacca (case study: export challenge of salacca "pondoh" variety to China)', Directorate General of Horticulture, Ministry of Agriculture of the Republic of Indonesia, 1–17.

- Draft ASEAN Standard for Horticultural Produce (2009), 'Draft Asean Standard for Salacca', in 5th Meeting of the Task Force on the ASEAN Standard for Horticultural Produce, 14–16 April, Puerto Princesa City, Palawan, Philippines.
- Gorinstein S, Haruenkit R, Poovarodom S, Park Y, Vearasilp S, et al. (2009), 'The comparative characteristics of snake and kiwi fruits', *Food Chem Toxicol*, **47**, 1884–1891.
- Haruenkit R, Poovarodom S, Leontowicz H, Leontowicz M, et al. (2007), 'Comparative study of health properties and nutritional value of durian, mangosteen and snake fruit: experiments in vitro and in vivo', J Agri Food Chem, 55, 5842–5849.
- Hubeis M, Sjaifullah and Rulianto A (1995), 'The effect of packaging treatments on maintaining quality of salak cv. Suwaru during storage (in Indonesian),' Bul. Tek. Industri Pangan VI(2), 27–34.
- Kueh H O (2003), *Indigenous fruits of Sarawak*, Sarawak Forest Department, Sarawak, Lee Ming Press Sdn Bhd, 133–134.
- Leong L P and Shui G (2002), 'An investigation of antioxidant capacity of fruit in Singapore markets', Food Chem, 76, 69–75.
- Lestari R and Ebert G (2002), 'Salak (*Salacca zalacca* (Gaertner.) Voss.) The snakefruit from Indonesia preliminary results of an ecophysiological study', in conference on *International Research on Food Security Natural Resource Management and Rural Development*, Deutcher Tropentag 9–11 October, Witzenhausen, Germany.
- Lestari D I (2003), *The effect of different packaging and storage temperature to the quality of salak Wedi* (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Lestari R, Keil H and Ebert G (2004), Physiological changes of Salak fruit [*Salacca zalacca* (Gaertn.) Voss.] during maturation and ripening. Available from http://oek.fbl. fh-wiesbaden.de/dgg-neu/fileadmin/poster-2004/O21.pdf (accessed 16 February 2010).
- Lim Y Y, Lim T T and Tee J J (2007), 'Antioxidant properties of several tropical fruits a comparative study', *Food Chem*, **103**, 1003–1008.
- Lin S, Fuji M and Huo D (2008), 'Molecular mechanism of apoptosis induced schizandraederived lignans in human leukemic HL-60 cells', *Food Chem Toxicol*, **46**, 590–597.
- Mahendra M S and Janes J (1993), 'Incidence of chilling injury in Salacca zalacca', in proceedings of Postharvest Handling of Tropical Fruit – an International Conference, 19–23 July, Chiang Mai, Thai, ACIAR Proceedings No. 50, 402–404.
- Mogea J P (1982), 'Salacca zalacca, the correct name for the salak palm', Principes, 26(2), 70–72.
- Niam R K (2009), *Kappa-carrageenan based edible coating application by addition of CMC to extend shelf life of salacca fruit* (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Palupi S, Hamidah S and Purwanti S (2009), 'Productivity increase of salak processed by secondary diversification to support the development of Agropolitan region (in Indonesian)', *Jurnal Inotek*, **13**(1), 97–11.
- Pratama N R (2009), Activity of antihyperglycemic exocarp and mesocarp extract from snake fruit cv. 'bongkok' (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas MIPA, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Rangsiruji A, Pongpawe T and Donsakul T (2006), 'Karyotypes of some *Salacca* in Thailand and Indonesia', *Srinakarinwirot Uni Sci J*, **22**, 48–61.
- Sanjaya Y (2007), The effect of rotation time on zalacca crispy chips production against estimating shelf life by using packages of orientedpolypropylene (OPP), metalized (Co-PP/Me) and alumunium foil (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Supriyadi S, Suhardi M, Suzuki M, Yoshida K, Muto T, et al. (2002), 'Changes in the volatile compounds and in the chemical and physical properties of snake fruit (Salacca edulis Reinw) cv. Pondoh during maturation', J Agri Food Chem, 50, 7627–7633.

350 Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits

- Supriyadi S, Suzuki M, Wu S, Tomita N, Fujita A and Watanabe N (2003), 'Biogenesis of volatile methyl esters in snake fruit (*Salacca edulis*, Reinw) cv. Pondoh', *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*, 67, 1267–1271.
- Sukewijaya I M, Rai I N and Mahendra M S (2009), 'Development of *salak Bali* as an organic fruit,' *Asian J Food Agro-Industry, Special Issue*, S37–S43.
- Surh Y J, Hurh Y J, Kang J Y, Lee E, Su G K and Lee J (1999), 'Resveratrol antioxidant present in red wine induces apoptosis in human promyelocytic leukemia (HL-60) cells', *Cancer Letter*, 140, 1–10.

Thangjatuporn S (2000), Sala and Sweet Rakam, Bangkok, Thailand, Naka Press.

- Trisnawati W and Rubiyo (2010), 'The effect of packaging and duration of storage to the quality of salak Bali' (*in Indonesian*), *Balai Pengkajian Teknologi Pertanian*, Denpasar, Bali.
- Utama I M S, Bagus I, Gunadnya P and Wrasiati L P (2009), *The effect of ethanol on concentration of tanin, total soluble solid and total acid of the fresh salak fruit* (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Udayana University.
- Widyasari R R L E A (2000), Application of edible film made of soya protein isolate and fatty acid to preserve salak pondoh (in Indonesian), Master Thesis, Fakultas Teknologi Pertanian, Institut Pertanian Bogor, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Wijaya C H, Ulrich D, Lestari R, Schippel K and Ebert G (2005), 'Identification of potent odorants in different cultivars of snake fruit [Salacca zalacca (Gaert.) Voss] using gas chromatography-olfactometry', J Agri Food Chem, 53, 1637–1641.
- Wrasiatil L P, Sutardi and Darmadji P (2001), 'Beeswax coating to maintain quality of snake fruit of Bali', *Mediagama* III(2), (in Indonesian).

Woodhead publishing series in food science, technology and nutrition

Tropical and subtropical fruits are popular products, but are often highly perishable and need to be transported long distances for sale. The four volumes of *Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits* review essential aspects of postharvest biology, postharvest technologies, and handling and processing technologies for both well-known and lesser-known fruits. Volume 1 contains chapters on general issues, while Volumes 2, 3 and 4 contain chapters focused on individual fruits, organised alphabetically.

Chapters in Volume 4 review the factors affecting the quality of different tropical and subtropical fruits from mangosteen to white sapote. Important issues relevant to each product are discussed, including methods of maintaining quality and minimising postharvest losses, recommended storage and transport conditions, and processing methods, among other topics.

With its distinguished editor and international team of contributors, Volume 4 of *Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits*, along with the other volumes in the collection, will be an essential reference work both for professionals involved in the postharvest handling and processing of tropical and subtropical fruits and for academics and researchers working in this area.

Elhadi Yahia is a Professor in the Faculty of Natural Sciences at the Autonomous University of Querétaro, Mexico, and is a consultant to several organisations including the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the World Food Logistics Organization (WFLO), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA).

Woodhead Publishing Limited 80 High Street Sawston Cambridge CB22 3HJ UK www.woodheadpublishing.com



