1	Chicken fillets subjected to UV-C and pulsed UV light: reduction
2	of pathogenic and spoilage bacteria, and changes in sensory quality
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13	Short title: UV light reducing bacteria on chicken fillets
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15	Keywords: chicken, continuous UV-C light, pulsed UV light, ESBL, modified atmosphere

16 packaging

17 Abstract

We have compared the efficacy of continuous UV-C (254 nm) and pulsed UV light in reducing 18 19 the viability of Salmonella Enteritidis, Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, enterohemorrhagic Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas spp., Brochothrix thermospacta, 20 21 Carnobacterium divergens and Extended-Spectrum β -Lactamase (ESBL) producing E. coli inoculated on chicken fillet surface. Fluences from 0.05 to 3.0 J/cm² (10 mW/cm², from 5 to 22 300 s) used for UV-C light resulted in average reductions from 1.1 to 2.8 log CFU/cm². For 23 pulsed UV light, fluences from 1.25 to 18.0 J/cm² gave average reductions from 0.9 to 3.0 log 24 CFU/cm². A small change in the odour characterized as sunburnt and increased concentration 25 of volatile compounds associated with burnt odour posed restrictions on the upper limit of 26 27 treatment, however no changes were observed after cooking the meat. Treatments under 28 modified atmosphere conditions using a UV permeable top film gave similar or slightly lower 29 bacterial reductions.

30

31 **Practical applications**

32 UV light may be used for decontaminating the surface of food products and reduce viability of 33 pathogenic and spoilage bacteria. Exposure of raw chicken fillet surface to various doses of 34 continuous UV-C or pulsed UV light proposed in the present work represent alternatives for microbiological improvement of this product. Chicken fillets can be treated in intact packages 35 covered with UV permeable top film, thus avoiding recontamination of the meat. UV-C light 36 treatment is a low cost strategy with low maintenance, whereas pulsed UV light involves more 37 elaborate equipment, but treatment times are short and less space is required. Both methods can 38 39 be helpful for producers to manage the safety and quality of chicken fillets.

40 1 | INTRODUCTION

41 The desired long shelf life in today's food industry has led to increasing demands in the 42 development of methods for improving microbial safety and quality. According to the Food and 43 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the average annual consumption of 44 chicken meat pro capita worldwide increased from 10.2 kg in 1999 to 13.8 kg in 2015 (FAO, 45 2015). The global meat consumption is projected to rise more than 4% per person over the next 10 years, and for poultry it is predicted to rise more than 10% (OECD/FAO, 2016). As live 46 47 poultry animals contain microorganisms on their skin, feathers, and in their digestive tract, 48 contamination of the carcasses during slaughtering procedures can not be completely avoided 49 when live animals are converted to meat for consumption.

50 Food contamination is a major global burden because of foodborne illnesses that can 51 result from it. Poultry may be the vector of Salmonella spp., Campylobacter spp., 52 Staphylococcus aureus, Listeria monocytogenes, Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli and 53 other pathogens (Capita, Alonso-Calleja, Garcia-Fernandez, & Moreno, 2002; Hafez, 1999; 54 Zhao, Ge, De Villena, Studler, Yeh, Zhao, White, Wagner, & Meng, 2001). The first two mentioned are the most common causes of human foodborne bacterial diseases linked to poultry 55 56 (EFSA, 2015; Hafez, 2005). According to the Community Summary Reports of the European 57 Food Safety Authority (EFSA) and the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control 58 (ECDC), 2008, campylobacteriosis and salmonellosis accounted for 214,779 and 82,694, 59 respectively, confirmed human cases in the EU (EFSA, 2015). The number of confirmed 60 listeriosis cases in humans was 1,763, where a high fatality rate of 15.6% was reported among 61 the cases. Antibiotic-resistant bacteria, such as the Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase 62 (ESBL)-producing E. coli, have become a growing public health threat (Briongos-Figuero, 63 Gomez-Traveso, Bachiller-Luque, Dominguez-Gil Gonzalez, Gomez-Nieto, Palacios-Martin, 64 Gonzalez-Sagrado, Duenas-Laita, & Perez-Castrillon, 2012; Lu, Liu, Toh, Lee, Liu, Ho, Huang, 65 Liu, Ko, Wang, Tang, Yu, Chen, Chuang, Xu, Ni, Chen, & Hsueh, 2012; Picozzi, Ricci, Gaeta, Macchi, Dinang, Paola, Tejada, Costa, Bozzini, Casellato, & Carmignani, 2013; Pitout, 2010). 66 67 The ESBL-producing strains are feared as they produce the enzyme beta-lactamase that has the 68 ability to break down commonly used antibiotics like penicillins and cephalosporins, and render 69 them ineffective for treatment. In 2014, the World Health Organization (WHO) warned that the 70 antibiotic resistance crisis is becoming dire, with diseases that have been curable for decades 71 becoming increasingly difficult to treat (Michael, Dominey-Howes, & Labbate, 2014; WHO,

3

2014). The presence of ESBL genes has been clearly documented in *Enterobacteriaceae*isolated from food-production animals, and especially from chickens (Machado, Coque,
Canton, Sousa, & Peixe, 2008; Overdevest, Willemsen, Rijnsburger, Eustace, Xu, Hawkey,
Heck, Savelkoul, Vandenbroucke-Grauls, van der Zwaluw, Huijsdens, & Kluytmans, 2011;
Smet, Martel, Persoons, Dewulf, Heyndrickx, Catry, Herman, Haesebrouck, & Butaye, 2008).
Occurrence of cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* on poultry in Norway ranged from 8 to 43% (Mo,
Norstrom, Slettemeas, Lovland, Urdahl, & Sunde, 2014).

79 Food rendered unfit for human consumption because of product spoilage results in 80 significant economic losses when products must be removed from the market. The 81 accumulation of metabolic by-products or the action of extracellular enzymes produced by 82 spoilage bacteria multiplying on these foods, leads to deterioration like discoloration, texture 83 change, and formation of off-flavours, off-odours and slime. The meat acquires an offensive odour when the bacterial flora reaches about 10^7 CFU/cm² of the surface, and when reaching 84 85 10⁸ CFU/cm², the surface becomes slimy (Borch, Kant-Muermans, & Blixt, 1996; Holck, Pettersen, Moen, & Sorheim, 2014; Molin, 2000). Common spoilage microorganisms on 86 87 poultry stored aerobically at 4°C are Pseudomonas spp., Brochothrix spp. and Enterobacteriaceae. A widely used strategy for increasing shelf life of poultry meat is modified 88 89 atmosphere packaging (MAP) (Holck, Pettersen, Moen, & Sorheim, 2014; van Velzen & Linnemann, 2008). Storage with high CO₂ (70% CO₂, 30% N₂) can lead to lactic acid bacteria 90 91 like carnobacteria dominating the flora (Holck, Pettersen, Moen, & Sorheim, 2014; Vihavainen, 92 Lundstrom, Susiluoto, Koort, Paulin, Auvinen, & Bjorkroth, 2007). Although some strains of 93 carnobacteria show little influence on the sensory properties of a product, others can spoil the 94 product (Laursen, Bay, Cleenwerck, Vancanneyt, Swings, Dalgaard, & Leisner, 2005; Leisner, 95 Laursen, Prevost, Drider, & Dalgaard, 2007).

96 Various physical and chemical methods to reduce microbes on poultry products have 97 been studied, such as water spraying, air chilling, ultrasound, irradiation, trisodium phosphate, 98 and lactic acid (Capita, Alonso-Calleja, Garcia-Fernandez, & Moreno, 2002; Loretz, Stephan, 99 & Zweifel, 2010). Potential disadvantages using these methods are sensory changes, 100 deterioration of product appearance and quality, and safety concerns. In recent years, there has 101 been a growing interest in using ultraviolet (UV) light for decontamination of poultry. UV light 102 is widely known for its germicidal effect by damaging nucleic acids (Kowalkski, 2009). The 103 high energy associated with short-wavelength UV energy (UV-C), primarily at 254 nm, is absorbed by cellular RNA and DNA. This energy absorption initiates a reaction between
adjacent pyrimidine bases to form dimer lesions, which in turn inhibit replication and
transcription in cells (Harm, 1980; Weber, 2005).

107 As a means for controlling surface microorganisms on food products, regulations in 108 conjugation with using conventional continuous UV-C light (henceforth referred to as UV-C 109 light) in the US are given by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) (FDA, 2010). UV-110 C light can be employed in Europe, however in Germany the use is limited to water, fruit and 111 vegetable products and stored hard cheeses (Anon, 2000). Decontamination of raw boneless, 112 skinless chicken or broiler breast fillets by the use of UV-C light has been reported to reduce 113 bacterial counts of various pathogens by 0.6 to 1.7 log depending on the conditions used (Chun, 114 Kim, Lee, Yu, & Song, 2010; Haughton, Lyng, Morgan, Cronin, Fanning, & Whyte, 2011; 115 Isohanni & Lyhs, 2009; Sommers, Scullen, & Sheen, 2016). High intensity pulsed UV light has been approved by the FDA up to 12 J/cm² (FDA, 2010). The UV energy spectrum of pulsed 116 117 UV light consists of a continual broadband spectrum from deep UV to infrared light, especially 118 rich in UV range below 400 nm, which is germicidal. In addition to creating dimer lesions, 119 pulsed UV light has been proposed to cause cell damage and cell death by inducing damage of 120 the cell membrane and to cause rupture of the bacteria by thermal stress (Krishnamurthy, 121 Tewari, Irudayaraj, & Demirci, 2010; Takeshita, Shibato, Sameshima, Fukunaga, Isobe, Arihara, & Itoh, 2003; Wekhof, 2000). The use of this technology for food decontamination 122 123 has previously been reviewed (Demirci & Panico, 2008; Gomez-Lopez, Ragaert, Debevere, & 124 Devlieghere, 2007). Pathogen reduction on boneless skinless chicken breast has been reported 125 to vary from 1.2 to 2.4 log depending on the conditions used (N. M. Keklik, Demirci, & Puri, 126 2010; Paskeviciute, Buchovec, & Luksiene, 2011). Several investigations have demonstrated 127 the effectiveness of UV light on microbial reduction in vitro, and a wide range of bacterial 128 species were reduced by 5-7 log when treated on petri dishes under different conditions (Farrell, 129 Garvey, Cormican, Laffey, & Rowan, 2010; Gomez-Lopez, Devlieghere, Bonduelle, & 130 Debevere, 2005; Paskeviciute, Buchovec, & Luksiene, 2011; Rowan, MacGregor, Anderson, 131 Fouracre, McIlvaney, & Farish, 1999).

The objective of our investigation was to study and compare the efficacy of UV-C and pulsed UV light against bacteria often found as natural contaminants on fresh chicken meat, of which several of the species have not previously been investigated for UV light treatment on food. To our knowledge, studies on UV light exposure of intact packages of MAP-chicken fillet

- 136 for bacterial reduction have not been reported, thus we aimed at undertaking this issue using a
- 137 UV permeable top film. We also aimed at determining whether the UV light treatments had
- 138 adverse effects on the sensory quality of chicken fillets.

139 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

140

141 **2.1** | Bacterial strains, media and growth conditions

142 The bacterial strains used in this work are listed in Table 1. The strains were maintained at -143 80°C in their respective media supplemented with 20% glycerol (v/v). Rifampicin resistant 144 (Rif^R) derivatives were prepared for all isolates by growing strains in liquid media containing 145 200 µg/ml rifampicin as described by Heir et al. (Heir, Holck, Omer, Alvseike, Hoy, Mage, & 146 Axelsson, 2010), except for the ESBL-producing E. coli strains already resistant to several types 147 of antibiotics. Growth experiments using a Bioscreen C instrument (Labsystems) where the 148 Optical Density (OD) at 600 nm was monitored, showed no significant difference in growth between the original strains and their Rif^R mutants in their respective media and growth 149 conditions. The different bacterial strains of each species were cultured separately. 150 151 Carnobacterium divergens was grown in cystein-deMan Rogosa Sharpe broth (cMRS, Oxoid) 152 with 200 µg/ml rifampicin (Sigma-Aldrich; 48 h incubation, 30°C), ESBL-producing E. coli in 153 Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI; Oxoid) with 50 µg/ml ampicillin (Sigma-Aldrich; 16 h 154 incubation, 37°C), and tryptic soy broth (TSB, Oxoid) with 200 µg/ml rifampicin was used for 155 Pseudomonas spp. (16 h incubation, 30°C), Brochothrix thermospacta (48 h incubation, 30°C), 156 Salmonella Enteritidis, L. monocytogenes, S. aureus and EHEC (16 h incubation, 37°C). Before 157 decontamination experiments, bacterial cultures of each of the different strains of the same 158 species were mixed in equal amounts, e.g. bacterial cultures of each of the four strains of L. 159 monocytogenes were mixed 1:1:1:1. An exception was E. coli, for which the ESBL-producing 160 E. coli strains and the EHEC strains were separated from each other.

161

162 2.1 | UV illumination experiments of chicken and agar surface inoculated with bacterial 163 cells

Fresh skinless chicken breast fillets were purchased from local Norwegian supermarkets. The meat was cut into pieces of 10 cm^2 , and one side of the chicken was inoculated by spreading 15 µl suspension of a multi strain mix of one species (described above) to obtain bacterial levels of 10^5 - 10^7 CFU/cm^2 . The inoculated chicken samples were left at room temperature to dry for 1 h prior to UV light treatment. To assess the indigenous background flora of the chicken,

169 uninoculated samples were also analyzed. For in vitro illumination experiments, serial 10-fold 170 dilutions of each multi strain mix were made and plated onto the respective agar media 171 (described below). In the UV-C light experiments, samples were treated in a custom made 172 aluminium chamber (1.0x0.5x0.6) m³ equipped with two UV-C lamps (UV-C Kompaktleuchte, 173 2x95 W, BÄRO GmbH, Leichlingen, Germany) in the ceiling. The UV-C light was emitted 174 essentially at 253.7 nm, measured using a UVX Radiometer (Ultra-Violet Products Ltd., 175 Cambridge, UK) equipped with a UV-C sensor (model UVX-25, Ultra-Violet Products Ltd., 176 Cambridge, UK). Both sample distance (6 cm) from the lamps and duration of the exposures 177 were chosen with aim to be relevant for industrial production lines. Exposures were thus at 10 178 mW/cm^2 , which is close to a maximum when using commercial lamps, for 5, 10, 30, 60 or 300 179 s, giving fluences of 0.05, 0.1, 0.3, 0.6, 3.0 J/cm², respectively. For the pulsed UV light 180 experiments, a semi-automated intense pulsed UV system instrument XeMaticA-SA1L 181 (SteriBeam Systems GmbH, Kehl-Kork am Rhein, Germany) was used. Samples were placed 182 in the instrument chamber at a 6.5 cm distance from the xenon lamp (19 cm), which was water 183 cooled, had an aluminum reflector (10 cm x 20 cm), and the spectral distribution was 200-1100 184 nm, with up to 45% of the energy being in the UV-region (maximal emission at 260 nm). The 185 fluences were set according to the manufacturers specifications, and were adjusted to 1.25 J/cm² (low) or 3.6 J/cm² (high). The lowest level of exposure would result in limited bacterial 186 187 reductions, and fluences up to and above the limit value of 12 J/cm², which is the maximum 188 permitted dose by FDA (FDA, 2010), were tested. Samples were exposed either once to the low 189 pulse, or one, three or five times to the high pulse (3.6, 10.8 or 18.0 J/cm², respectively). Three 190 parallels of both treated samples and untreated controls were produced for each experiment, 191 and the experiments were repeated three times on different days.

192 For ESBL-producing E. coli and C. divergens, UV light treatments were also performed 193 under modified atmosphere conditions as follows: Chicken sample with inoculated bacteria 194 placed in a tray was packaged using a Polimoon 511VG tray sealing machine (RPC Promens 195 AS, Kristiansand, Norway) and UV permeable top film with 65 µm thickness and an ethylene vinyl alcohol (EVOH) barrier layer (OpalenTM 65, Bemis, Oshkosh, Wisconsion, USA). A gas 196 197 mixture of 60% CO₂ and 40% N₂ (AGA, Oslo, Norway) was used for the packages. The film 198 had an oxygen transmission rate (OTR) of 5 ml/m²/24 h/atm at 23°C/50% RH, and the trays of 199 dimension 208 x 146 x 32 mm had a barrier layer of high density polyethylene (HDPE; RPC Promens 528) with an OTR of 3.5 ml/m²/24 h/atm at 23°C/50% RH. Intact packages (MAP-200

chicken) were exposed to UV light doses similar to the chicken samples treated in air
(unpackaged chicken), allowing for comparison of bacterial reduction between the two. Three
parallels of both treated samples and untreated controls were produced for each experiment.
The experiments were repeated three times on different days.

Temperatures were measured using a Raynger MX infrared thermometer (Raytek Corporation, Santa Cruz, USA). Samples were subjected to microbial and physiochemical analyses as described below. The experiments with pathogens were performed in a Biosafety level 3 pilot plant.

209

210 2.2 | Microbial analyses

211 Chicken samples were added 90 ml of peptone water and the samples were homogenized for 1 212 min in a stomacher (AES Smasher, AES Chemunex, Bruz, France). Serial 10-fold dilutions 213 from each sample were prepared. Quantification of C. divergens (CFU/cm²) was performed 214 using a Whitley Automatic Spiral Plater (Don Whitley Scientific Ltd., West Yorkshire, UK) on 215 cMRS agar (Oxoid) with 200 µg/ml rifampicin (48 h incubation, 30°C), ESBL-producing E. 216 coli on BHI (Oxoid) with 50 µg/ml ampicillin (16 h incubation, 37°C), and tryptic soy agar 217 (TSA, Oxoid) with 200 µg/ml rifampicin was used for Pseudomonas spp. (16 h incubation, 218 30°C), B. thermospacta (48 h incubation, 30°C), S. Enteritidis, L. monocytogenes, S. aureus and 219 EHEC (16 h incubation, 37°C). The number of colonies were determined using an automatic 220 plate reader, and the detection limit was 20 CFU/cm². Since rifampicin resistant strains were 221 used, the indigenous background flora on the chicken was negligible.

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223 2.3 | Packaging film analyses

The UV permeable top film OpalenTM 65 was evaluated for its ability to transmit UV light by measuring UV light at 254 nm (described above). The extended O_2 barrier properties of the top film was evaluated by using empty packages with 100% N₂ that were initially exposed to four different UV-C and pulsed UV light treatments up to 10.8 J/cm² in addition to an untreated control, with five packages per treatment. The packages were analysed for concentrations of residual oxygen at packaging and after 21 days of storage with a Dansensor Checkmate 3 (Dansensor, Ringsted, Denmark). The top films of the trays used for oxygen analysis were also evaluated for structural damages by UV light by scanning electron microscopy, where the samples were mounted on an aluminum stub using double-sided tape coated with carbon, before being coated with gold/palladium using a SC7640 auto/manual high resolution sputter coater (Quorum Technologies, Ashford, UK). An EVO-50-EP environmental scanning electron

- 235 microscope (Zeiss, Cambridge, UK) was used to study the samples at a magnification of x8000.
- 236

237 **2.4** | **Preparation of chicken samples for sensory analyses**

238 Fresh skinless chicken breast fillets obtained from a local producer were mixed to achieve an 239 equal number of CFU per cm² on the surface. One set of chicken samples were exposed to UV 240 light in air (unpackaged chicken), and were thereafter packaged in modified atmosphere, while 241 a parallel set of chicken samples were exposed to UV light under modified atmosphere (MAP-242 chicken), as described above. None of these chicken samples were inoculated with bacterial 243 culture, and both sample sets were then stored at 4°C for 6 days before being used for the 244 sensory analyses described below. The color stability of the chicken fillets were evaluated by 245 visual inspection of the chicken before and after UV light exposure, and after storage.

246

247 **2.5 | Sensory evaluations**

248 Descriptive sensory profiling was conducted by a trained sensory panel of ten assessors at 249 Nofima AS, Norway, according to Generic Descriptive Analysis (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). 250 All panellists were selected and trained in accordance with ISO 8586:2012 (International 251 Organisation for Standardisation, 2007). The following chicken samples treated in air and under 252 modified atmosphere were prepared: untreated control, chicken exposed to UV-C at fluence 0.1 J/cm^2 (10 s at 10 mW/cm²), chicken exposed to UV-C at fluence 0.6 J/cm^2 (60 s at 10 mW/cm²), 253 chicken exposed to pulsed UV light at low intensity at fluence 1.25 J/cm² and chicken exposed 254 255 to pulsed UV light three times at high intensity giving a fluence of 10.8 J/cm². Based on a pre-256 trial performed by the panellists, a consensus list of attributes for the profiling was developed: 257 Smell of raw chicken (sour odour, sunburnt odour, burnt odour, metallic odour, sulphur odour, 258 off-odour, cloying odour and rancid odour) and odour/taste/flavour of cooked chicken 259 (sunburnt odour, burnt odour, sour flavour, burned flavour, metallic flavour, off-flavour, 260 cloying flavour and rancid flavour). Both raw and cooked chicken fillet samples were evaluated. 261 For the raw samples, the panellists were given 1/6 raw chicken fillet served at room temperature 262 on white plastic cups coded by random three-digit numbers. The cooked samples were heated 263 (100°C, 100% steam, 30 min) in an Electrolux Air-o-steam oven (Combi LW 6 GN 1/1 Gas) to a core temperature of $78^{\circ}C \pm 3^{\circ}C$. After heating, the samples rested for five minutes before 264 265 each panellist were served ¹/₄ cooked chicken fillet in a white porcelain bowl with lid marked 266 with a random three-digit number, that had been pre-heated at 65°C. Samples were kept at 65°C 267 for the evaluation. The panellists had unsalted crackers and lukewarm water for rinsing the 268 palate between samples. The coded samples were evaluated in duplicate and served randomized 269 according to sample, panellist and replicate. Each panellist recorded their results at individual 270 speed using an unstructured line scale with labelled endpoints ranging from no intensity (1), to 271 high intensity (9), using the EyeQuestion Software (Logic8 BV, the Netherlands) for direct 272 recording of data.

Changes in the quality or sensory properties of raw chicken as a result of UV light exposure were also assessed by a smaller consumer test. Twenty randomly chosen test persons were asked if they would want to use the chicken samples for dinner. In addition, they assessed the quality of the chicken on a scale ranging from very bad (1), to very good (9).

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278 **2.6** | Dynamic headspace gas chromatography mass spectrometry

279 The same set of raw chicken samples used in the pre-trail sensory evaluation was subjected to 280 dynamic headspace gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) analysis. Based on 281 variation found both in the sensory results and the GC/MS results of the pre-trial, chicken 282 samples that showed the greatest variation were further selected for analysis of volatile organic 283 compounds. These included: untreated control, chicken exposed to UV-C light at fluence 0.60 J/cm^2 (60 s at 10 mW/cm²) and pulsed UV light three times at high intensity giving a fluence 284 285 of 10.8 J/cm² treated in air, and pulsed UV light at low intensity at fluence 1.25 J/cm² treated 286 under modified atmosphere. A gas chromatography analysis was carried out on chicken samples 287 as previously described (Olsen, Vogt, Veberg, Ekeberg, & Nilsson, 2005). Fifteen gram aliquots 288 of homogenized sample (the samples were analyzed in duplicate) were distributed evenly in 289 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. The samples were heated to 70°C in a water bath and purged with 290 100 ml/min nitrogen through a Drechsel-head for 30 min. Volatile compounds were adsorbed 291 on Tenax GR (mesh size 60/80). Water was removed from the tubes by nitrogen flushing (50 292 ml/min) for 5 min in the opposite direction of sampling. Trapped compounds were desorbed at 293 250°C for 5 min in a Perkin Elmer Automatic Thermal Desorption System ATD400 and 294 transferred to an Agilent 6890 GC System with an Agilent 5973 Mass selective detector, which 295 is a quadrupole, operated in electron impact (EI) mode at 70 eV. The scan range was from 33 296 to 300 amu. The compounds were separated on a DB-WAXetr column from J&W 297 Scientific/Agilent (0.25 mm i.d., 0.5 lm film, 30 m). Helium (99.9999%) was used as carrier 298 gas. The temperature program started at 30°C for 10 min, increased 1°C/min to 40°C, 3°C/min 299 to 70°C, 6.5°C/min to 160°C, 20°C/min to 230°C with a final hold time of 4 min. Integration 300 of peaks and tentative identification of compounds were performed with HP Chemstation 301 (G1701CA version C.00.00, Agilent Technologies), Wiley 130 KMass Spectral and NIST98 302 Mass Spectral. Comparison of retention times and mass spectra of the sample peaks with those 303 of pure standards confirmed identities of several of the components. Heptanoic acid ethyl ester 304 was used as internal standard. System performance was checked with blanks and standard 305 samples before, during and after the sample series, and the selected major compounds (80– 306 100%) on a peak area basis were included in the data analysis.

307

308 2.7 | Statistical analysis

Bacterial reductions log CFU/cm² between control and UV light treated samples were calculated. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's multiple comparison test were used to determine statistically significant effects on the reduction by the treatments (R 3.3.2; R Core Team (2017)) using a significance level of 0.05. For sensory evaluation, the same analyses were performed on the descriptive sensory data from the trained panel in order to identify sensory attributes that discriminated between samples.

315

2.8 | Weibull models

For each species, a two-parameter Weibull distribution was fitted to the observed log reductions
to produce predictive models of the effects of UV exposure. The chosen Weibull model is
defined as:

320
$$\log_{10}\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) = \frac{-1}{\log_e(10)} \left(\frac{f}{\alpha}\right)^{\beta},$$

321 where N_0 and N denote the number of bacteria per square cm before and after UV exposure, 322 respectively, *f* is the UV dose (fluence), α is the scale parameter (describes how sharply the

- 323 curve drops in the beginning), and β is the shape parameter (describes the shape of the curve).
- 324 Common models were produced based on log reduction data for all the bacterial species.

325 **3 | RESULTS**

326

327 **3.1** | Bacterial reductions on skinless chicken fillets

We investigated the effect of UV-C and pulsed UV light against microbial flora associated with fresh, skinless chicken fillets. Resulting bacterial log reductions CFU/cm² of the food pathogens S. Enteritidis, *L. monocytogenes*, *S. aureus* and EHEC, and chicken spoilage bacteria *Pseudomonas* spp., *B. thermospacta, C. divergens*, and ESBL-producing *E. coli* applied to chicken meat surface are shown in Figure 1, Figure 2 and Table S1.

UV-C light exposure with fluences from 0.05 to 3.0 J/cm² (10 mW/cm², from 5 to 300 333 334 s), gave the largest reduction of 2.8 log for C. divergens after the highest fluence treatment, 335 while only 1.7 log reduction was obtained for EHEC. The lowest fluence level gave up to 2.2 336 log reduction for S. aureus, and EHEC was reduced the least with 1.1 log. By comparing UV-337 C light results using ANOVA within each species, some of the shorter treatments were 338 considered statistically different from the treatments of longer duration for S. Enteritidis (Figure 339 1a, range 1.6-2.4 log), Pseudomonas spp. (1e, 2.0-2.7 log), C. divergens (1g, 1.9-2.8 log), and 340 ESBL-producing E. coli (1h, 1.7-2.8 log), while none of the treatments were statistically different from each other for L. monocytogenes (1b, 1.5-1.8 log), S. aureus (1c, 2.2-2.6 log), 341 342 EHEC (1d, 1.1-1.7 log) and *B. thermospacta* (1f, 1.7-2.7 log).

Sensitivities against pulsed UV light, where fluences from 1.25 to 18.0 J/cm² were used, 343 344 seemed to be more similar between the different species than for UV-C light. Reductions after 345 pulsed UV light exposure at the highest fluences (10.8 and 18.0 J/cm²) ranged from 1.6 log for 346 L. monocytogenes and C. divergens to 3.0 log for S. aureus, Pseudomonas spp. and B. *thermospacta*. For the low fluence exposure of 1.25 J/cm², reductions ranged from 0.9 log for 347 348 S. Enteritidis to 1.7 log for Pseudomonas spp. ANOVA on the pulsed UV light results within 349 each species defined the treatment at low fluence statistically different from some or all of the 350 higher intensity treatments, thus increased reduction was obtained by increasing the UV dose. 351 The range of reduction was 0.9-2.4 log for S. Enteritidis (Figure 1a), 1.1-2.0 log for L. 352 monocytogenes (1b), 1.3-3.0 log for S. aureus (1c), 1.1-2.9 log for EHEC (1d), 1.7-3.0 log for 353 Pseudomonas spp. (1e), 1.3-3.0 log for B. thermospacta (1f) and 1.3-2.8 log for ESBL-354 producing E. coli (1h). C. divergens deviated from this pattern, for which none of the treatments

were considered statistically different from each other and reductions ranged from 1.5 and 1.8log (Figure 1g).

In the *in vitro* illumination experiments of petri dishes, the UV light treatments inactivated all the bacterial species by 5-7 log, except from *L. monocytogenes* that was able to withstand the low fluence 1.25 J/cm² treatment with pulsed UV light better than the other species, showing approximately 4 log reduction (not shown).

361 Bacterial reductions after exposure with UV-C and pulsed UV light against C. divergens 362 and ESBL-producing E. coli on MAP-chicken, are shown in Figure 2 and Table S1. Samples 363 were stored under an anaerobic atmosphere with 60% CO₂ and 40% N₂, and the UV permeable top film allowed for UV light exposure of intact packages. C. divergens reduction after UV-C 364 365 light treatments ranged from 1.3 to 1.8 log, and after pulsed UV light treatments from 0.5 to 1.5 log. The UV-C light treatments at the lowest fluences (0.05, 0.1, 0.3 J/cm²) resulted in 366 367 approximately 0.7 log lower reduction on MAP-chicken compared with unpackaged chicken, 368 and 1.4 log lower reduction was seen for the highest fluence treatment (3.0 J/cm²). ANOVA on the UV-C light results confirmed the observed differences statistically (results not shown). 369 370 After pulsed UV light exposure, reductions were similar for MAP-chicken and unpackaged 371 chicken samples for the highest fluences (10.8 and 18.0 J/cm²), while for fluences of 1.25 and 3.6 J/cm², 0.9 and 0.7 log lower reductions, respectively, were seen on MAP-chicken, which 372 373 were confirmed statistically by ANOVA (not shown). Reduction of ESBL-producing E. coli 374 after UV-C light treatments ranged from 1.5 to 2.5 log, and after pulsed UV light treatments 375 from 0.6 to 1.7 log. ANOVA on the UV-C light results confirmed statistically that reductions 376 on MAP-chicken and unpackaged chicken samples were similar (not shown). For pulsed UV 377 light, lower reductions were seen for the MAP-chicken samples regardless of UV dose, 0.7, 1.1, 378 0.9 and 1.3 log lower reductions for fluences of 1.25, 3.6, 10.8 and 18.0 J/cm², respectively, confirmed statistically by ANOVA (not shown). The applied UV light up to 10.8 J/cm² did not 379 380 impair the oxygen barrier properties and structural integrity of the UV permeable top film, and 381 the O_2 concentrations of the trays increased from approximately 0.12+/- 0.03% at packaging to 382 0.69+/-0.02% after 21 days, and were similar for the different UV light treatments and the 383 untreated control. Scanning electron microscopy analysis showed no structural damages to the 384 UV treated films (not shown). The ability of the film to transmit UV light was measured as 385 80.5% at 254 nm, which was compensated for by increasing the UV doses accordingly in the 386 illumination experiments.

387 **3.2** | Weibull models describing bacterial reduction

388 Weibull models created to predict the log reduction patterns for the different bacterial species 389 are shown in Figure 3 and parameters for the models are listed in Table 2. RMSE values 390 indicating the goodness of fit, were the lowest for S. aureus exposed to UV-C light (0.20) and 391 the highest for *Pseudomonas* spp. exposed to pulsed UV light (0.55). Determination coefficient 392 (R^2) values ranged from 0.41 to 0.80 for UV-C light and from 0.47 to 0.89 for pulsed UV light. 393 Since R^2 indicates the proportion of variation in log reduction explained by the fitted Weibull 394 model, a value approaching 1 would signify perfect predictability. Since all of the ß (shape 395 parameter) values were less than 1, the Weibull fits of the reduction data were concave upward. 396 The highest ß values were obtained for EHEC and S. Enteritidis (0.32 and 0.31, respectively) 397 for pulsed UV light. The α (scale parameter) values were very small, implying concentrated 398 distribution, as seen by how sharp the curve drops in the beginning. There was a noticeable 399 difference between the two UV methods, where higher α values were obtained for UV-C light 400 than for pulsed UV light, with C. divergens as an exception. Common models based on log 401 reduction values for all the species gave a good fit for the majority of the species, but for L. 402 monocytogenes exposed to both UV-C and pulsed UV light, reduction was overestimated. The 403 same was seen for EHEC exposed to UV-C light and C. divergens exposed to pulsed UV light.

404

405 **3.3** | Sensory evaluation of UV light treated chicken

406 Changes in quality or sensory properties of chicken fillets as a result of UV light treatments 407 were assessed by ten trained assessors. Their evaluation results are shown in Figure 4, where 408 raw chicken samples were evaluated for odour and cooked chicken samples for 409 odour/taste/flavour. A statistically significant difference between the samples was only 410 registered for the odour characterized as sunburnt (p<0.001), which is associated with that of 411 sunburnt human skin. Most notably, treatment with the highest dose of pulsed UV light (10.8 412 J/cm²) in air gave the highest intensity of the sunburnt odour (sensory intensity value score of 413 3.4). After cooking, this effect of the UV light treatment could not be detected. From the 414 consumer test, UV light exposed raw chicken fillet samples assessed by 20 random consumers 415 could not be differentiated from untreated control samples (data not shown). By visual 416 inspection, the color stability was not affected by the treatments at the doses used (data not 417 shown).

Denaturation of proteins in chicken has been considered to be initiated at temperatures higher than 56°C (Murphy, Marks, & Marcy, 1998). Only minor elevation of the temperature was observed, 2.5-4.0°C and 4.0-6.5°C for UV-C light treatments at fluences 0.6 J/cm² and 3.0 J/cm², respectively, and 0.5-2.5°C and 2.5-3.5°C for pulsed UV light treatments at fluences 10.8 J/cm² and 18.0 J/cm², respectively. The rise in surface temperature was only temporary

- 423 since the surface was rapidly cooled by the low temperature of the interior of the chicken fillet.
- 424

425 **3.4 | Volatile organic compounds**

426 Nearly 100 different volatile organic compounds were detected by dynamic headspace/GC-MS 427 in the raw chicken samples that were analyzed, of which approximately 70 compounds could 428 be identified. The major compounds were ketones (C2-C5, C7), alcohols (C2-C8), acids (C2-429 C7), fatty and non-fatty aldehydes (C2-C9), hydrocarbons (C5-C7) and sulfides. Only a few 430 compounds were observed to increase in concentration as a result of exposure to UV light. This 431 included dimethyltrisulfide, pentane, heptane, propanoic acid, 2-pentanone, 1-pentanol and 432 hexanal (Figure 5). Linear correlation with the odour scores were calculated, and gave 433 correlations with the sunburnt odour scores as follows: dimethyltrisulfide r=0.70 (p<0.01), 2-434 pentanone r=0.95 (p<0.0025), 1-pentanol r=0.91 (p<0.005), pentane (r=0.92, p<0.005), heptane 435 (r=0.81, p<0.01), propanoic acid (r=0.98, p<0.001), and hexanal (r=0.81, p<0.01). The sample 436 in which all the compounds increased the most, was chicken exposed to pulsed UV light at 437 fluence 10.8 J/cm^2 treated in air.

438 4 | DISCUSSION

439

440 4.1 | Effect of UV treatment on inoculated bacteria

441 There are large differences between the conventional continuous UV-C light and pulsed UV 442 light with respect to wavelengths, intensities and exposure times. In this work, we have 443 compared the efficacy of continuous UV-C light and pulsed UV light in reducing bacteria on 444 chicken fillet. We used multi strain mixtures of the same species and bacterial cells that were 445 in the same state during the different treatments. In earlier studies, single strains were often 446 used which may not show reductions representative for the species. Differences in reduction 447 within species have been reported, and state of the cells can influence the sensitivity to UV light 448 (Farrell, Garvey, Cormican, Laffey, & Rowan, 2010; Haughton, Lyng, Morgan, Cronin, 449 Fanning, & Whyte, 2011). To avoid possible changes in sensory perception, it is desirable to 450 maximize bacterial reduction without treating the surface of a product more than necessary. 451 Treatment levels employed for both UV methods were practical and relevant within industrial 452 production, from weak exposures resulting in limited bacterial reduction, up to levels exceeding 453 the maximum permitted dose by the FDA for pulsed UV light (FDA, 2010). The fluences are 454 not directly comparable between the two methods, since the different wavelengths in the UV 455 spectrum have different germicidal effectiveness (Bintsis, Litopoulou-Tzanetaki, & Robinson, 456 2000). For UV-C exposure at 0.05 J/cm², the germicidal effect was comparable to a fluence of 457 1.25 J/cm² for the pulsed UV light. UV-C light showed a higher germicidal effect when the 458 same fluence was employed for the two methods, which can be explained by most of the energy 459 being emitted at 254 nm, where the germicidal effect is close to the maximum (Bintsis, 460 Litopoulou-Tzanetaki, & Robinson, 2000).

461 In the range tested, a limited dose-response effect was observed, likely caused by 462 shading effects of the irregular surface structure of the chicken fillet. The increase in reduction 463 with increasing dose was though more apparent for the pulsed UV light. Any substance between 464 the light source and the bacterium that absorbs light will impair the decontamination process 465 (Gomez-Lopez, Ragaert, Debevere, & Devlieghere, 2007). Even when a surface appears 466 smooth to the naked eye, it may harbour crevices and cracks where bacteria are shielded against 467 direct exposure, and bacteria may also be covered by protein or other organic matrices. 468 Moreover, the average size of a bacterium is approximately $1 \mu m \ge 2 \mu m$, and although its

469 spreading was carried out carefully, it is practically impossible to avoid some overlapping. A 470 shielding effect for colonies of L. monocytogenes growing on petri dishes where the upper cells 471 of a colony appeared to protect the lower cells has previously been described (Gomez-Lopez, 472 Devlieghere, Bonduelle, & Debevere, 2005). At high fluence rates, the light should be able to 473 penetrate deeper, but still, the efficiency of using UV light for decontamination of foods is 474 lower than when tested on smooth surfaces. Reductions of 5-7 log achieved on agar in petri 475 dishes was in accordance with previous reports (Farrell, Garvey, Cormican, Laffey, & Rowan, 476 2010; Gomez-Lopez, Devlieghere, Bonduelle, & Debevere, 2005; Paskeviciute, Buchovec, & 477 Luksiene, 2011; Rowan, MacGregor, Anderson, Fouracre, McIlvaney, & Farish, 1999), and the 478 observed higher resistance of L. monocytogenes to pulsed UV light, reduced only 4 log after 479 treatment at low fluence of 1.25 J/cm², has also been reported previously (Gomez-Lopez, 480 Devlieghere, Bonduelle, & Debevere, 2005; Lasagabaster & de Maranon, 2012). In general, the 481 reductions of inoculated bacteria on chicken fillet surface observed in this study correlated well 482 with previous findings, both for UV-C (Chun, Kim, Lee, Yu, & Song, 2010; Haughton, Lyng, 483 Cronin, Morgan, Fanning, & Whyte, 2011; Isohanni & Lyhs, 2009; Sommers, Scullen, & 484 Sheen, 2016) and for pulsed UV light (N. M. Keklik, Demirci, & Puri, 2010; Paskeviciute, 485 Buchovec, & Luksiene, 2011), including for C. divergens, Pseudomonas spp. and B. 486 thermospacta, for which previous reports on UV light inactivation on food surfaces does not 487 exist or are scarce. EHEC seemed to resist the UV-C light treatments better than ESBL-488 producing E. coli, and better than the other species tested as well.

489 The Weibull distribution is suitable for the analysis of bacterial reduction (Chen, 2007; 490 N. M. Keklik, Demirci, Puri, & Heinemann, 2012; Martin, Sepulveda, Altunakar, Gongora-491 Nieto, Swanson, & Barbosa-Canovas, 2007; Ugarte-Romero, Feng, Martin, Cadwallader, & 492 Robinson, 2006; van Boekel, 2002), and was previously demonstrated to be more successful 493 than models such as the log-linear model and first-order kinetic model (Chen, 2007; N. M. 494 Keklik, Demirci, Puri, & Heinemann, 2012; Martin, Sepulveda, Altunakar, Gongora-Nieto, 495 Swanson, & Barbosa-Canovas, 2007). The model seemed to be a useful tool to describe the 496 reduction patterns and give clues to how pathogens and spoilage bacteria on chicken fillet 497 surfaces are likely to respond to UV light treatments. The Weibull fits of the reduction data 498 were concave upward, indicating that exposed cells were destroyed and that the more resistant 499 cells or those shaded from exposure were left undamaged.

500 To our knowledge, studies on UV light treatment of intact packages of MAP-chicken 501 fillet for reducing bacteria on the chicken surface have previously not been reported. UV light 502 reduction of bacteria on various packaging materials have, however, been studied (Haughton, 503 Lyng, Morgan, Cronin, Fanning, & Whyte, 2011), and vacuum-packaged chicken breast 504 inoculated with Salmonella Typhimurium treated with pulsed UV light were shown to give 505 about 2 log reduction, but with double the exposure time (30 s) in comparison with unpackaged 506 samples (15 s) (N. M. Keklik, Demirci, & Puri, 2010). The additional bacterial reduction 507 obtained on ready packaged chicken fillet product would increase shelf life and safety. 508 Treatment after packaging should be simple to implement at industrial packaging lines without 509 reductions in production efficiency.

510

511 **4.2** | Sensory quality of the chicken fillets

Meat exposed to UV light can develop off-flavours caused by the absorption of ozone and 512 513 oxides of nitrogen, or because of photochemical effects on the lipid fractions of the meat 514 (Bintsis, Litopoulou-Tzanetaki, & Robinson, 2000). Lipid oxidative rancidity is regarded as the 515 most important non-microbial factor responsible for meat deterioration, resulting in adverse 516 changes in appearance, texture, odour and flavour (Frankel, 1998). An increase in fatty 517 aldehydes due to lipid oxidation during irradiation of poultry meat has been documented (Du, 518 Ahn, Nam, & Sell, 2000, 2001; Du, Hur, Nam, Ismail, & Ahn, 2001; Kim, Nam, & Ahn, 2002). 519 The major fatty aldehyde hexanal is a typical volatile secondary lipid oxidation product 520 (Beltran, Pla, Yuste, & Mor-Mur, 2003; Jayasena, Ahn, Nam, & Jo, 2013; Shi & Ho, 1994). 521 Although we observed an increase in the concentration of hexanal, particularly for unpackaged 522 chicken exposed to UV light, no significant effect was found on the corresponding rancid 523 related sensory attributes in the proffesional sensory evaluation. This suggests that lipid 524 oxidation does not have a negative impact on the perceived odour and flavour of the chicken 525 meat at the applied UV doses. The higher intensity of the sunburnt odour for chicken exposed 526 to the most intense dose of pulsed UV light, does however seem to pose restrictions on the 527 upper limit of treatment of unpackaged chicken. The sensory intensity value was though only 528 3.4, which is considered relatively low, and for lower doses relevant in industrial application, 529 the odor should not be a problem. Detected changes in concentrations of volatile compounds 530 correlated well with the sensory observations. Increased levels were seen in unpackaged 531 chicken after UV light exposure. Hydrocarbons may be generated during irradiation of poultry 20

meat (Du, Ahn, Nam, & Sell, 2000, 2001; Du, Hur, Nam, Ismail, & Ahn, 2001; Kim, Nam, & 532 533 Ahn, 2002), where increased concentrations of propanol and butanol have been documented 534 (Du, Ahn, Nam, & Sell, 2000, 2001; Du, Hur, Nam, Ismail, & Ahn, 2001). In accordance, we 535 detected increased levels of pentane, heptane and 1-pentanol. Sulfur compounds with low odour 536 thresholds are important to odour associated with irradiation (Angelini, Merritt, Mendelsohn, 537 & King, 1975; Batzer & Doty, 1955; Patterson & Stevenson, 1995). Dimethyltrisulfide, 538 although only detected in small amounts in unpackaged chicken after UV light exposure, was 539 reported by Patterson and Stevenson (Patterson & Stevenson, 1995) to be the most potent off-540 odour compound in irradiated raw chicken. Other compounds that showed an increase and 541 which character could be associated with sunburnt/irradiated odour and flavour, were 2-542 pentanone (roasted sweet) and 1-pentanol (roasted meat) (Brewer, 2009). Together these three 543 compounds likely contribute to the sensory perceived sunburnt odour. Irradiation of poultry 544 meat is though based on irradiation by electrons using an accelerator, representing far higher 545 dose in terms of energy exposure per area compared to our applied UV doses, thus the results 546 may not be directly comparable. Paskeviciute et al. (Paskeviciute, Buchovec, & Luksiene, 547 2011) investigated chemical changes in pulsed UV light treated chicken breasts, and reported 548 that the intensity of lipid peroxidation in control and treated chicken samples differed in 0.16 549 mg malondialdehyde per kilogram of chicken meat. However, taste panellists did not observe 550 any changes in organoleptic properties of treated raw chicken, chicken broth or cooked chicken 551 meat in comparison with control. Although treated raw chicken samples could not be 552 differentiated from an untreated control sample by the 20 random chosen consumers in the 553 present study, more extensive consumer studies could aid in determining whether such UV light 554 treatments are acceptable.

555 The color of raw or cooked poultry meat is by origin pale with a low content of the 556 muscle pigment myoglobin. Furthermore, the color of raw meat is dependent on the oxidation 557 state of myoglobin (Mugler & Cunningham, 1972; USDA, 2013). Chicken breasts exposed to 558 high doses of UV light was previously reported to turn darker, show more redness and a slight 559 increasing amount of yellow coloration (Park & Ha, 2015). The color of the chicken fillets was 560 not affected by the treatments at the doses used in our experiments, as in agreement with other 561 reports (Chun, Kim, Lee, Yu, & Song, 2010; Haughton, Lyng, Cronin, Morgan, Fanning, & 562 Whyte, 2011). Together these results indicate that sensory and quality changes are small or 563 negligible both after UV-C and pulsed UV light treatments.

564 4.3 | Advantages and disadvantages of continuous UV-C and pulsed UV treatments

565 Both UV-C and pulsed UV light treatments provide effective tools for reduction of 566 microorganisms. They are rapid and efficient non-chemical, non-ionizing, and non-thermal 567 surface decontamination treatments and can be used in continuous processing. The methods 568 have been shown as effective technologies for decontamination of stainless steel conveyors and 569 surfaces in the production environment (Haughton, Lyng, Morgan, Cronin, Fanning, & Whyte, 570 2011; Sommers, Sites, & Musgrove, 2010). They can be used on foods and synergistically with 571 other treatments (Mukhopadhyay & Ramaswamy, 2012). The methods require little energy use, 572 are easy to implement and require no increase in work load. UV light is safe to apply, but some precautions have to be taken to avoid exposure of workers to light and to evacuate any ozone 573 574 generated by the shorter UV wavelengths (Gomez-Lopez, Ragaert, Debevere, & Devlieghere, 575 2007). The effect of both UV-C and pulsed UV light is impaired in opaque matter, where 576 bacteria are shielded from direct exposure such as by food surface topography, organic matter 577 or by other bacteria. The UV light treatments of this study did not alter the properties of the 578 EVOH film used, as was also the case with polyethylene, polypropylene and 579 polyvinyldichloride films (Tarek, Rasco, & Sablani, 2015). The top film used transmitted 580 approximately 80% of the UV light, while in previous studies, films with polypropylene and 581 polyethylene barrier layers transmitted 75% (N. M. Keklik, Demirci, & Puri, 2009) and 72% 582 (N. M. Keklik, Demirci, & Puri, 2010), respectively, of pulsed UV light at 1.27 J/cm². By using 583 a packaging film with a high UV transmission, the chicken fillets could be packaged before the 584 UV light treatment, therefore avoiding the risk of recontamination. Both methods would be 585 beneficial for large scale industrial UV decontamination operations. UV-C light treatment is a 586 low cost strategy with low maintenance (N.M. Keklik, Krishnamurthy, & Demirci, 2012). The 587 treatment time is somewhat longer in comparison with pulsed UV light treatment, and therefore 588 the equipment may require more space if installed over for example a conveyor belt. Pulsed UV 589 light provides rapid decontamination, but involves equipment that is more elaborate. The xenon 590 flash lamps used for pulsed UV light are also more environment friendly than the mercury-591 vapor lamps typically used in UV-C light treatment (Gomez-Lopez, Ragaert, Debevere, & 592 Devlieghere, 2007).

593 5 | CONCLUSION

594 Despite good hygiene practices during production of fresh meat, contamination of carcasses 595 with pathogens and spoilage bacteria cannot be completely prevented. There is pressure on the 596 food industry for nutritious, fresh and healthy food products, to maximize the shelf life of the 597 products, and for reducing costs and waste. Antimicrobial interventions that effectively reduce 598 the bacterial load are feasible in slaughter and product processing. They should be safe, economic, and easy to handle. Also, interventions should not change the organoleptic quality 599 600 of the food and should be widely accepted by consumers. The exposure of raw chicken fillet surface to various doses of UV-C or pulsed UV light proposed in this work represents useful 601 602 alternatives for reducing the viability of pathogenic and spoilage bacteria on this product.

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610 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

611 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding publication of this paper.

612 FIGURE LEGENDS

613

614 FIGURE 1 Reductions of (a) S. Enteritidis, (b) L. monocytogenes, (c) S. aureus, (d) 615 enterohemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC), (e) Pseudomonas spp., (f) B. thermospacta, (g) C. divergens 616 and (h) ESBL-producing E. coli on chicken fillet meat after continuous UV-C (white bars) and 617 pulsed UV light (grey bars) exposures at different fluences (J/cm²). Three separate ANOVA were performed for each species, represented by upper case letters (comparing UV-C and 618 619 pulsed UV light treatments), numbers (comparing UV-C light treatments) and lower case letters 620 (comparing pulsed UV light treatments). Samples containing the same letter/number were not 621 considered different.

622

FIGURE 2 Reductions of (a) *C. divergens* and (b) ESBL-producing *E. coli* on MAP-chicken exposed to continuous UV-C (white bars) and pulsed UV light (grey bars) at different fluences (J/cm^2) . A gas mixture of 60% CO₂ and 40% N₂ and a UV permeable top film was used for the packages. Three separate ANOVA were performed for each species, represented by upper case letters (comparing UV-C and pulsed UV light treatments), numbers (comparing UV-C light treatments) and lower case letters (comparing pulsed UV light treatments). Samples containing the same letter/number were not considered different.

630

FIGURE 3 Weibull models for bacterial log reduction as a function of UV exposure. Models
for each species (black continuous line) and common models (red dotted line) are shown for
bacterial reduction on chicken fillet meat after (a) continuous UV-C and (b) pulsed UV light
exposures at different fluences (J/cm²).

635 FIGURE 4 Sensory analysis of (a) raw chicken fillet samples and (b) cooked chicken fillet samples. Chicken samples were exposed to continuous UV-C light at 10 mW/cm² for 10 s 636 (UVC-10) and 60 s (UVC-60), giving fluences of 0.1 J/cm² and 0.60 J/cm², respectively, and 637 pulsed UV light to a low pulse with fluence of 1.25 J/cm² (PUV-L) and three times to a high 638 pulse giving a fluence of 10.8 J/cm² (PUV-Hx3), both in air (O₂) and anaerobic (CO₂:N₂) 639 640 atmospheres, representing unpackaged chicken and MAP-chicken, respectively. The intensities 641 of different odours of raw samples and odour/taste/flavour of cooked samples were registered, 642 1 =no intensity and 9 =high intensity. The letters above the columns indicate grouping according to ANOVA and Tukey multiple comparison test. Samples with the same letter are 643 644 considered being equal for the specific property.

645

FIGURE 5 Volatile organic compounds from chicken which showed an increase in concentration (pg/g) as a result of exposure to UV light. The samples included were chicken exposed to pulsed UV light at low intensity at fluence 1.25 J/cm² (PUV-L) treated under anaerobic ($CO_2:N_2$) atmosphere (MAP-chicken), an untreated control (Untreated), chicken exposed to UV-C light at 10 mW/cm² for 60 s (UVC-60) giving a fluence of 0.60 J/cm² and pulsed UV light three times at high intensity (PUV-Hx3) giving a fluence of 10.8 J/cm² treated in air (O_2). The precision of replicate measurements were within 15%.

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Bacterial species	Strain name ^a	Reference/source/strain/other
Pseudomonas spp.	MF6041	Chicken fillet
	MF6042	Chicken fillet
	MF6043	Chicken fillet
	MF6044	Chicken fillet
B. thermospacta	MF6045	Chicken
	MF6047	Chicken
	MF6049	ATCC11509 ^b
C. divergens	MF3036	DSM20623°
	MF6031	Chicken fillet
	MF6032	Chicken fillet
	MF6034	Chicken fillet
	MF6038	Chicken fillet
ESBL-producing	MF5658	Chicken ^d
E. coli	MF5660	Chicken ^d
	MF5664	Chicken ^d
	MF5670	Broiler ^d
	MF5674	Broiler ^d
S. Enteritidis	MF3817	1049-1-99 ^d
	MF3818	Poultry, 61-358-1 ^e
	MF3824	ATCC13076 ^b
L. monocytogenes	MF3508	2230/92 (Nesbakken, 1995)
	MF3509	167 (Blom, Nerbrink, Dainty, Hagtvedt, Borch, Nissen, & Nesbakken, 1997)
	MF3510	187 (Blom, Nerbrink, Dainty, Hagtvedt, Borch, Nissen, & Nesbakken, 1997)
	MF3571	EGD-e (Glaser, Frangeul, Buchrieser, Rusniok, Amend, Baquero, Berche, Bloecker, Brandt, Chakraborty, Charbit, Chetouani, Couve, de Daruvar, Dehou Domann, Dominguez-Bernal, Duchaud, Durant, Dussurget, Entian, Fsihi, Garci del Portillo, Garrido, Gautier, Goebel, Gomez-Lopez, Hain, Hauf, Jackson, Jones, Kaerst, Kreft, Kuhn, Kunst, Kurapkat, Madueno, Maitournam, Vicente, Ng, Nedjari, Nordsiek, Novella, de Pablos, Perez-Diaz, Purcell, Remmel, Rose, Schlueter, Simoes, Tierrez, Vazquez-Boland, Voss, Wehland, & Cossart, 2001)
S. aureus	MF2123	ATCC25923 ^b
	MF2124	ATCC12600 ^b
	MF2125	ATCC6538 ^b
Enterohemorrhagic <i>E. coli</i> (EHEC)	MF3572	O103, fermented sausage, linked to outbreak in Norway 2006 (Schimmer, Nygard, Eriksen, Lassen, Lindstedt, Brandal, Kapperud, & Aavitsland, 2008) ^f
	MF3574	ATCC43895 ^b , 0157:H7
	MF3576	O111:H ⁻ , semi-dry fermented sausage, outbreak Australia 1995 (Paton, Ratcliff Doyle, Seymour-Murray, Davos, Lanser, & Paton, 1996) ^g
	MF5554	O145 (McLeod, Mage, Heir, Axelsson, & Holck, 2016)

929 TABLE 1 Strains used in this study

^aAntibiotic resistant strains. All strains were grown in their respective medium with 200 μ g/ml rifampicin, except ESBL-producing *E. coli* grown in medium with 50 μ g/ml ampicillin.

^bATCC, American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA.

^cDSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Microorganismen und Zellkulturen, Braunschweig, Germany.

^dKindly received from the Norwegian Veterinary Institute, Oslo, Norway.

^eKindly received from the Technical University of Denmark, the National Veterinary Institute, Denmark.

^fKindly received from the Norwegian School of Veterinary Science, Oslo, Norway.

^gKindly received from Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark.

930

931

- **TABLE 2** Parameters for Weibull models predicting bacterial
- 933 reduction on chicken fillet meat after continuous UV-C and
 934 pulsed UV light exposures, and goodness-of-fit parameters of
 935 the models

	Bacterial species	α	β	RMSE	R ²
	E. coli EHEC	2.03E-06	0.09	0.31	0.75
	L. monocytogenes	2.02E-09	0.07	0.47	0.41
Continuous UV-C light	S. Enteritidis	2.35E-05	0.14	0.41	0.64
D-VU	S. aureus	2.22E-15	0.05	0.20	0.76
snont	Pseudomonas spp.	2.86E-09	0.09	0.39	0.68
Contin	C. divergens	1.45E-08	0.10	0.37	0.74
•	B. thermospacta	1.66E-07	0.11	0.31	0.80
	E. coli ESBL	1.65E-08	0.10	0.38	0.74
	All	9.89E-09	0.09	0.53	0.25

	Bacterial species	α	β	RMSE	R ²
	C. divergens	3.79E-10	0.06	0.29	0.86
	L. monocytogenes	2.27E-04	0.13	0.37	0.63
ht	S. Enteritidis	6.32E-02	0.31	0.42	0.79
Pulsed UV light	E. coli EHEC	5.29E-02	0.32	0.41	0.79
lsed (E. coli ESBL	7.58E-03	0.24	0.28	0.89
Pu	Pseudomonas spp.	1.31E-03	0.20	0.55	0.71
	S. aureus	6.61E-03	0.24	0.47	0.47
	B. thermospacta	9.21E-03	0.26	0.37	0.82
	All	6.23E-03	0.22	0.54	0.46

937 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 938
- 939 **TABLE S1** Bacterial reductions log CFU/cm² on chicken fillet meat after continuous UV-C
- 940 and pulsed UV light treatments at different fluences (J/cm²)
- 941

	Continuous UV-C light treatment ^a , J/cm ²				Pulsed UV light treatment ^a , J/cm ²				
Bacterial species	0.05	0.1	0.3	0.6	3.0	1.25	3.6	10.8	18.0
S. Enteritidis	1.56	1.21	1.81	1.53	2.44	0.90	1.58	2.44	2.23
	(0.15)	(0.13)	(0.16)	(0.23)	(0.17)	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.20)	(0.19)
L. monocytogenes	1.49	1.13	1.82	1.36	1.81	1.08	1.83	2.01	1.63
	(0.13)	(0.14)	(0.22)	(0.16)	(0.27)	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.25)	(0.21)
S. aureus	2.22	2.23	2.56	2.05	2.41	1.25	2.21	2.95	2.61
	(0.18)	(0.22)	(0.20)	(0.26)	(0.16)	(0.09)	(0.16)	(0.33)	(0.25)
E. coli EHEC	1.08	1.34	1.10	1.30	1.65	1.06	1.96	1.98	2.93
	(0.18)	(0.19)	(0.12)	(0.18)	(0.17)	(0.11)	(0.22)	(0.29)	(0.21)
Pseudomonas spp.	2.01	1.85	1.95	2.23	2.66	1.67	2.25	2.45	3.01
	(0.10)	(0.20)	(0.15)	(0.21)	(0.24)	(0.06)	(0.18)	(0.18)	(0.14)
B. thermospacta	1.70	1.74	2.41	2.33	2.68	1.30	2.28	3.00	2.88
	(0.17)	(0.24)	(0.22)	(0.32)	(0.37)	(0.13)	(0.20)	(0.37)	(0.30)
C. divergens	1.90	1.95	2.32	2.04	2.82	1.46	1.59	1.84	1.61
	(0.16)	(0.25)	(0.14)	(0.14)	(0.14)	(0.17)	(0.17)	(0.21)	(0.35)
E. coli ESBL	1.65	1.91	2.43	2.79	2.56	1.34	2.17	2.58	2.83
	(0.11)	(0.11)	(0.20)	(0.15)	(0.22)	(0.09)	(0.17)	(0.17)	(0.25)
C. divergens MAP ^b	1.26	1.30	1.52	1.80	1.38	0.54	0.90	1.35	1.53
	(0.15)	(0.11)	(0.21)	(0.24)	(0.14)	(0.21)	(0.22)	(0.29)	(0.08)
E. coli ESBL MAP ^b	1.46	1.69	2.12	2.49	2.33	0.61	1.09	1.70	1.56
	(0.11)	(0.22)	(0.27)	(0.25)	(0.18)	(0.14)	(0.12)	(0.18)	(0.16)

^aStandard error values are shown in brackets

^bMAP refers to modified atmosphere packaging