

1 **Effects of High-Pressure Carbon Dioxide on Microbial Quality and Germination of Cereal**  
2 **Grains and Beans**

3 Yuan Fang<sup>1</sup>, Claudia Franke<sup>1,2</sup>, Alina Manthei<sup>1,2</sup>, Lynn McMullen<sup>1</sup>, Feral Temelli<sup>1</sup>, and Michael  
4 G. Gänzle<sup>1\*</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup>University of Alberta, Dept. of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Science, Edmonton, AB,  
6 Canada T6G 2P5

7 <sup>2</sup>Technical University of Berlin, Dept. of Food Technology, Berlin, Germany

8 **Running title:** CO<sub>2</sub> inactivation of low a<sub>w</sub> foods

9 <sup>\*</sup>corresponding author footnote

10 Michael Gänzle

11 University of Alberta, Dept. of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Science,  
12 4-10 Ag/For Centre, Edmonton, AB, T6G 2P5, Canada

13 phone: + 1 780 492 0774

14 e-mail: mgaenzle@ualberta.ca

15

16

17        **Abstract**

18            Decontamination of low  $a_w$  foods without impairing the food quality is challenging,  
19 particularly for sprouting seeds. This study aimed to explore the lethality of high pressure carbon  
20 dioxide (HPCD) to *Salmonella enterica*, *E. coli* AW1.7, *A. niger*, *P. roquforti*, and *Fusarium* on  
21 beans, cereal grains, and ground pepper. The optimal antimicrobial effect of HPCD was achieved  
22 by equilibration of the  $a_w$  to 0.75, followed by soaking in water and treatments with water-saturated  
23 CO<sub>2</sub>. HPCD reduced the viable cell counts of *E. coli* and *Salmonella* by 3 to 10 log(CFU/g), and  
24 prevented fungal growth during 10 d of incubation. More than 90% of mung beans germinated but  
25 the germination of oats was impaired after fungicidal or bactericidal treatments with HPCD.  
26 Overall, HPCD can be a promising antimicrobial treatment but treatment parameters need to be  
27 optimized for each type of seed.

28            **Key words:** *E. coli*, *Fusarium*, High-pressure carbon dioxide, malting, *Salmonella*,  
29 spoilage fungi, sprouts

30

## 31 1. Introduction

32 Legumes and cereals are important staple foods worldwide. Microbiological contamination  
33 of legumes and cereal grains occurs during plant growth, harvest, and storage [1]. Microorganisms  
34 present on or in cereals and legumes are derived from plant microbiota, including seed endophytes  
35 [1–3] and phytopathogenic fungi [4] or represent post-harvest contaminants, including storage  
36 molds such as *Penicillium*, *Eurotium*, and *Aspergillus* [5] and low-infectious dose foodborne  
37 pathogens such as Shiga-toxin producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) and *Salmonella* [6,7]. Seed  
38 endophytes include bacterial species with an alternate lifestyle as opportunistic pathogens or  
39 foodborne pathogens; examples include *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Cronobacter sakazakii* and  
40 organisms of the *Bacillus cereus* group [8–10]. Infection with *Fusarium* spp. and storage molds  
41 during plant growth or storage, respectively, results in a loss of grain yield and malt quality and  
42 may support mycotoxin formation during pre- or post-harvest stages [4,11]. *Salmonella enterica*  
43 and *Escherichia coli* are both able to colonize plants after pre-harvest contamination [12,13].

44 Dry storage of legume seeds and cereal grains prevents microbial activity and the  
45 development of filamentous fungi but does not eliminate contaminants. Most post-harvest  
46 disinfection treatments result in a low-level survival of microorganisms on or in seeds [14].  
47 Additionally, bacteria, including pathogenic bacteria are more resistant to heat and other  
48 interventions in the dry state when compared to high moisture environments, making the  
49 decontamination of low water activity ( $a_w$ ) foods including seeds and spices challenging [15]. As  
50 a consequence, the presence of pathogenic or toxin-producing microorganisms on seeds and grains  
51 poses a potential health risk. The health risk associated with microorganisms on legumes and cereal  
52 grains is enhanced by sprouting and malting; first, because environmental conditions for  
53 germination support microbial growth and toxin formation; second, because intervention

54 treatments of seeds intended for sprouting or malting must maintain the viability of the plant  
55 embryo. Sprouts frequently cause outbreaks of foodborne illness [14,16], including infections by  
56 *Salmonella* and STEC [17,18]. Seed decontamination with chlorine retains the germination  
57 capacity but only moderately reduces microbial counts [19,20]. Physical preservation methods,  
58 including thermal treatments and microwave heating, high hydrostatic pressure, or UV light reduce  
59 microbial contaminants but also impair the quality, viability and enzyme activity of seeds [21–23].  
60 Thus, novel and cost-effective approaches to reduce bacterial and fungal contaminants on seeds  
61 are of major interest to the food industry.

62 High-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> (HPCD) treatment is a promising preservation technology for high  
63 moisture food products but only a few studies explored its use for dry foods [24–26]. The lethality  
64 of HPCD depends on the pressure and temperature, and whether liquid, gaseous or supercritical  
65 CO<sub>2</sub> is used [26,27]. The term HPCD is used to encompass CO<sub>2</sub> at pressures above ambient,  
66 regardless of its state. Bacteria in a low moisture environment are more resistant to HPCD when  
67 compared to high moisture environments [26,28]. Remarkably, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is more  
68 bactericidal than gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> in high moisture environments while the opposite was reported for  
69 inactivation of *E. coli* and *Salmonella* under low moisture conditions [24,27]. In addition, the water  
70 activity during treatment was identified as a key determinant of the lethality of HPCD [24]. The  
71 moisture content and the moisture sorption isotherm are specific for different foods [29], and  
72 HPCD treatment parameters must be optimized specifically for each food in question, particularly  
73 if treatments aim to reduce microbial contaminants while maintaining the viability of the plant  
74 embryo. This exploratory study therefore aimed to assess the potential application of HPCD to  
75 inactivate epiphytic, phytopathogenic and toxigenic microorganisms occurring on the surface of  
76 foods, and to evaluate the effects of HPCD on the seed germination. Six representative foods were

77 used in this study; these included coarse ground black peppercorns (ground pepper), and three  
78 types of plant seeds from legumes (soybeans and mung beans), oilseeds (flax seeds), and cereals  
79 (oat and barley grains). Plant seeds were selected to include seeds that are commonly used for  
80 sprouting and major Albertan crops. Target organisms used in this study included *E. coli* AW 1.7  
81 and *Salmonella enterica*, the spoilage molds *Penicillium roqueforti* and *Aspergillus niger*, and  
82 phytopathogenic *Fusarium* spp.. *E. coli* AW1.7 is a non-pathogenic isolate from a meat processing  
83 plant, and its resistance to heat and HPCD is equal to or higher than that of STEC; thus, it is used  
84 as a surrogate organism to STEC [24,30,31]. *Salmonella enterica* was represented by a cocktail of  
85 five strains isolated from human, food and environment, and all of them exhibited high resistance  
86 to dry heat and HPCD [24,32].

## 87 **2. Materials and methods**

### 88 *2.1. Bacterial and fungal strains and culture conditions*

89 Bacterial and fungal strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strains were streaked  
90 out from 30% glycerol stock stored at -80 °C. *E. coli* and *Salmonella* were cultivated on Luria-  
91 Bertani (LB) agar (Fisher Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada) and incubated aerobically at 37 °C for  
92 over 18 h. A single colony was inoculated into 5 mL of LB broth and incubated at 37 °C with  
93 agitation at 200 rpm. To obtain a high cell density inoculum, liquid subcultures of 100 µL were  
94 plated onto the surface of LB agar and incubated at 37 °C for over 18 h. The bacterial lawn was  
95 removed with 1 mL of 0.1% peptone (BD Difco™, Mississauga, ON, Canada). Bacterial cells  
96 were collected by centrifugation and re-suspended in 1 mL of 0.1% peptone water (BD) to obtain  
97 inocula with a final concentration of 10-11 log<sub>10</sub> CFU/mL. To create a cocktail of *Salmonella*,  
98 inocula of 5 strains of *Salmonella* were combined in equal volumes.

99 Fungal strains were cultivated on malt extract agar and incubated aerobically at 25 °C for  
100 7 d. Spores were collected in 5 mL of physiological solution (0.85% NaCl, 0.01% Tween80),  
101 collected by filtration through filter paper (Whatman<sup>®</sup>, Fisher Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada),  
102 harvested by centrifugation, and re-suspended in 1 mL of physiological saline. The spore density  
103 was determined microscopically with a hemocytometer (Fein-Optik, Jena, Germany) and ranged  
104 from from10<sup>3</sup> to 10<sup>6</sup> spores/mL.

## 105 2.2. Sample preparation

106 Legume and flax seeds, and ground pepper (obtained from a local supermarket in  
107 Edmonton, AB, Canada) were decontaminated, and inoculated with bacterial cultures and/or  
108 fungal spores, as outlined below. Barley and oats were not decontaminated or inoculated with lab  
109 strains; therefore, the microorganisms derived from them represent the microbiota naturally  
110 present on these grains. Dehulled oat grains were kindly provided by Ceapro Inc. (Edmonton, AB,  
111 Canada), which were treated with a mild surface heat treatment by the supplier to inactivate surface  
112 enzymes. Hulled barley grains were obtained from an Albertan farm. Approximately 4% of the  
113 barley grains were naturally contaminated with *F. graminearum*. Barley grains that exhibited the  
114 visual characteristics of *Fusarium* head blight were selected manually and apparently healthy  
115 grains were discarded. An overview of the selection of plant material, decontamination treatments,  
116 and the treatments with HPCD is provided in Fig. S1 (bacterial contaminants or inocula) and Fig.  
117 S2 (fungal contaminants or inocula).

118 *Sample decontamination and inoculations.* To reduce microbial contaminants from flax  
119 seeds, soybeans and mung beans, 20 g of each plant seeds were treated with 0.2% chlorine for 15  
120 min, followed by rinsing twice with sterilized H<sub>2</sub>O. Then, plant seeds were air dried in a biosafety  
121 cabinet and stored in a desiccator at room temperature (23 °C) to keep the embryo dry for up to 4

122 months until use. Ground pepper was sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C for 30 min. To ensure  
123 that the decontaminated samples were free of microorganisms, samples (0.1-0.15 g) were  
124 resuspended in 1 mL 0.1% peptone water, and the suspension was plated onto LB to determine the  
125 microbiological contamination. The microbial load was below the detection limit of 200 CFU/g.

126 Decontaminated foods were inoculated with 1 mL of bacterial culture or fungal spores  
127 separately. Bacterial cultures outlined in Section 2.1 were mixed with 1 g of ground pepper or flax  
128 seeds, or 5 g of soybeans or mung beans until the maximum absorption was reached. Another 5 g  
129 of soybeans or mung beans were inoculated with *A. niger*, or *P. roqueforti* with the same methods  
130 as above. After inoculation, samples were immediately air dried in a biosafety cabinet for 2 h and  
131 stored in a desiccator to keep the sample at dry conditions.

132 *Preparation of samples for treatment.* Inoculated foods were kept at dry conditions before  
133 treatments. To increase the water content that aims to achieve an optimal antimicrobial effect by  
134 HPCD, different foods were treated differently to increase the water content. Step 1, for foods  
135 inoculated with bacteria and air dried, 0.1 g of ground pepper or flax seeds, and two mung beans  
136 or one soybean (ca. 0.1-0.15 g) were transferred into a glass vial (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO,  
137 USA) and stored in an air-tight container with a saturated solution of NaCl for 3 d to equilibrate  
138 the sample to  $a_w$  of 0.75. The  $a_w$  of each food was measured by a  $a_w$  meter (AquaLab PRE,  
139 Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA, USA). Step 2, to increase the water content of plant seeds prior  
140 to treatment, 0.1-0.15 g of seeds were soaked in sterile H<sub>2</sub>O for 20 min; whereas, ground pepper  
141 was treated without prior soaking. Initial bacterial cell counts on inoculated samples ranged from  
142 8 to 10 log(CFU/g). All samples inoculated with bacteria (0.1-0.15 g) were treated with heat or  
143 water-saturated CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> in the mobile CO<sub>2</sub> pasteurization apparatus described in Section 2.3.

144 To determine the antifungal effects of HPCD, legumes and cereal grains with fungal  
145 contaminants were soaked in water (Step 2) prior to treatment. At each experiment, 1 soybean and  
146 2-3 mung beans inoculated with the same fungal strains were treated. Two barley grains and two  
147 oats grains were treated simultaneously.

### 148 *2.3. Treatments with pressurized gas*

149 HPCD treatments were carried out in a custom-built mobile CO<sub>2</sub> pasteurization apparatus  
150 described previously [24]. The system was equipped with a syringe pump (Model 260D, Teledyne  
151 ISCO Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) and a high-pressure vessel (V=42.53 mL). The pressure vessel and  
152 the supply lines were heated with electric heating bands (Brisk Heat, Columbus, OH, USA). The  
153 temperature was monitored by thermocouples (CN7500, Spectris Canada, St-Eustache, QC,  
154 Canada) installed before, after and in the vessel, and attached to temperature controllers  
155 (Maxthermo, MC-2438, Taipei, Taiwan). The pressure was controlled by the pump and the  
156 depressurization rate was manually controlled by a micro-metering valve placed at the outlet of  
157 the vessel. A 0.2 µm filter was installed in line at the exit to prevent microbiological contamination.  
158 The system was preheated to 25, 35, or 65 °C and flushed with CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> before pressurization.  
159 The system was kept at atmospheric pressure (1.013 bar) or 57 or 120 bar for 15 min, followed by  
160 de-pressurization at a rate of 60 bar/min. Sterile water was added onto a filter paper placed on the  
161 top shelf of the basket to ensure the CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> in the system was saturated with water as described  
162 previously [24], which is referred to as water-saturated CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>. Dried samples not subjected to  
163 high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> treatments were untreated controls. Dried samples treated at 25, 35 and  
164 65 °C without high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> in the same unit for 15 min serve as temperature controls.

### 165 *2.4. Microbiological determination and seed germination*



166 The lethality of treatments on bacteria and fungi were determined by bacterial enumeration  
167 and visual observation, respectively. To enumerate viable bacterial cells, bacteria on treated food  
168 samples (0.1-0.15 g) and their respective controls were washed off by vortexing in 1 mL of 0.1%  
169 peptone water. The cell suspension was serial-diluted and plated onto LB for *E. coli* and  
170 *Salmonella* inoculated samples. Microorganisms on oats and barley were determined by plating  
171 on LB and Plate Count Agar (PCA). Colonies were counted after aerobic incubation at 37 °C for  
172 18 h.

173 Seed germination and growth of fungi or molds on legumes and cereal grains were  
174 observed for 10 d. Treated and untreated seeds were placed on a filter paper (Whatman®, Fisher  
175 Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada) and transferred to a petri-dish. One-microliter of sterile H<sub>2</sub>O was  
176 added to the filter paper to provide humidity for germination. Then, the petri-dish was sealed with  
177 wrapping film (Parafilm™ M, Fisher Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada) and incubated at 25 °C for  
178 10 d. Development of mycelia was recorded as positive growth of fungi.

### 179 2.5. Data analysis

180 The antifungal effects of treatments were determined as the ratio of mold-free seeds to total  
181 seeds from all treated seeds, corrected for the fraction of moldy seeds in untreated controls.  
182 Individual seeds were considered as experimental units. The number of seeds from each  
183 independent experiment using the same treatment parameters was added up for calculations. The  
184 total number of treated beans is as follows: Twenty-five mung beans or soybeans treated at 65 °C  
185 and 57 bar; three soybeans or mung beans for each fungal strain treated at 25 or 35 °C and 1.013  
186 bar; nine mung beans or soybeans treated at 65 °C and 1.013 bar, 25 or 35 °C and 57 or 120 bar.  
187 A total of six barley and oat grains were included in each HPCD treatment under different  
188 conditions. The treatment effect was calculated using Eq. (1).

189 
$$Treatment\ effect = \frac{\left(\frac{\#\ of\ treated\ and\ non-moldy\ seeds}{\#\ of\ treated\ seeds}\right)}{\left(\frac{\#\ of\ untreated\ and\ moldy\ seeds}{\#\ of\ untreated\ seeds}\right)} \quad (1)$$

190 All experiments were conducted with three or more independent replicates. The bacterial  
191 cell counts were log-transformed and the reduction of cell count was calculated as  $\log_{10}(N_0/N)$  or  
192  $\log_{10}(N_1/N)$ , with  $N_0$  representing the cell counts of culture without any treatment,  $N_1$  representing  
193 the cell counts after inoculation and drying (refer to Section 2.2), and  $N$  representing cell counts  
194 after treatments. Data were analyzed by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Tukey's  
195 test ( $P < 0.05$ ) to determine the statistical differences among means.

### 196 **3. Results**

#### 197 *3.1. Validation of food-specific pre-treatments prior to HPCD*

198 The bactericidal effect of HPCD is mediated by dissolved  $CO_2$  and dependent on the water  
199 activity of foods [24]; therefore, preliminary experiments assessed the effect of equilibration of  
200 the aw of sample and soaking prior to HPCD treatment and water addition during HPCD treatment  
201 on the bactericidal effects by HPCD as described in Sections 2.2 and 2.3. Without equilibration of  
202 the aw of samples and saturation of  $CO_2$  with water, the lethality of HPCD to *E. coli* AW1.7 on  
203 ground pepper was  $0.44 \pm 0.00$  log(CFU/g) (Table 2). When  $CO_2$  was saturated with water, the  
204 lethality to *E. coli* AW1.7 was ca. 1 log(CFU/g) on ground pepper and soybeans, and 2.3 – 3.4  
205 log(CFU/g) on flax seeds and mung beans (Table 2). By testing different water addition strategies  
206 to enhance the antimicrobial effects of HPCD, food-specific methods were developed for each  
207 type of food. In the subsequent experiments, ground pepper was equilibrated to aw 0.75; plant  
208 seeds for bacterial inactivation were equilibrated to aw 0.75, followed by soaking in water for 20  
209 min. All samples were treated with water-saturated high-pressure gas. Plants seeds contaminated  
210 with fungi were soaked in water prior to treatment, without the need for aw adjustment.

211           3.2. *Effect of HPCD on seed germination*

212           The effect of HPCD on seed germination is critical for plant seeds that are used in malting  
213 or sprouting. The effects of treatment pressure and temperature on seed germination are shown in  
214 Table 3. The germination rate of control and treated samples was highly dependent on the type of  
215 seed. Soybean and barley germinated poorly at control conditions with only 8% and 11%  
216 germinated, respectively, which was further reduced by the treatments (Table 3). In contrast,  
217 germination was observed in 96% of mung beans without treatment. Treatment of mung beans  
218 with heat and HPCD did not affect the ability of more than 90% of mung beans to germinate.  
219 Germination was observed for untreated oats (58%) and germination was not affected by heat  
220 treatment, but HPCD treatment strongly reduced the proportion of germinated oat grains.

221           3.3 *Antifungal effects of heat and high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub>*

222           The antifungal effects of treatments were calculated on the basis of the number of mold-  
223 free beans or cereal grains after treatment and incubation for 10 d (Table 4). Mung beans and  
224 soybeans were challenged by inoculation with *A. niger* or *P. roqueforti*. Treatments at 25 and 35  
225 °C were not lethal to *P. roqueforti* and *A. niger*, but an increase in the treatment temperature and/or  
226 pressure enhanced the lethality towards both fungi. The treatment effect of heating to 65 °C alone  
227 was 0.5-0.7 for *A. niger* and 0.3-0.7 for *P. roqueforti*. At low temperatures, an increase in pressure  
228 to 57 bar, which maintains CO<sub>2</sub> in the gas phase, enhanced the lethality of HPCD to *A. niger* to  
229 0.1-0.4 at 25 °C and 0.3-0.7 at 35 °C; the latter one was similar to the effect of heating at 65 °C  
230 alone. At 120 bar, CO<sub>2</sub> is supercritical at temperatures above 31 °C, and the antifungal effects were  
231 diminished to less than 0.5 at 35 °C. In addition, the effect of HPCD at 57 bar against fungi was  
232 generally more effective on mung beans than soybeans, and the lethality to both fungi on mung  
233 bean was greater by at least 0.2 than that on soybean. Maximum lethality (>0.9) to *A. niger* and *P.*

234 *roqueforti* was achieved by HPCD at 65 °C and pressures  $\geq 57$  bar. All mung beans treated with  
235 HPCD at 65 °C remained mold-free.

236 The antifungal effects of HPCD treatment were validated on naturally contaminated  
237 cereals; the barley grains selected for treatment showed visible signs of *Fusarium* head blight.  
238 Similar to *A. niger* and *P. roqueforti*, temperatures of 25 or 35 °C had no or low lethality (<0.3)  
239 against field molds on barley and oat grains. Different from the effect of HPCD against *A. niger*  
240 and *P. roqueforti* on soybean and mung bean, gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at 57 bar and all temperatures  
241 eliminated fungi on oats and barley. Treatment with CO<sub>2</sub> at 120 bar and 35 °C was equally effective  
242 as treatment with CO<sub>2</sub> at 57 and 35 °C (Table 4).

243 *3.4. Bactericidal effects of drying, heat, and high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> on E. coli and*  
244 *Salmonella on seeds*

245 To determine whether the bactericidal effects of HPCD on dry foods are attributed to CO<sub>2</sub>,  
246 the lethality of drying and HPCD at 57 bar and 65 °C was compared to the lethality of heating  
247 without compression, and to the lethality of high-pressure N<sub>2</sub> at the same temperature (Fig. 1).  
248 Bacterial cell counts on seeds after drying and soaking were reduced by less than 1 log(CFU/g)  
249 after inoculation with *E. coli* and *Salmonella*, except for *E. coli* AW1.7 on mung beans (>1 log).  
250 The lethality of treatment at 65 °C varied among the samples tested and was less than 1 log(CFU/g)  
251 for *E. coli* AW1.7 and *Salmonella* cocktail on ground pepper and flax seeds, less than 3 log(CFU/g)  
252 on soybeans, and 3-6 log(CFU/g) on mung beans (Fig. 1). The lethality of treatments with high-  
253 pressure N<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C was similar ( $P>0.05$ ) to that of heating at 65 °C for all the samples tested.

254 Treatments with water-saturated CO<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C reduced cell counts of *E. coli* and *Salmonella*  
255 by 9-10 log(CFU/g) on flax seeds. Cell counts of *E. coli* AW1.7 on ground pepper were reduced  
256 by more than 8 log(CFU/g), while cell counts of the *Salmonella* cocktail were reduced only by 4

257 log(CFU/g) (Fig. 1). On the other foods, the viable cell counts of *E. coli* and the *Salmonella*  
258 cocktail were not different ( $P>0.05$ ) after treatments with heat alone and high-pressure gases (Fig.  
259 1). The treatment effects on mung beans had a very high experimental error; consequently, the  
260 survival of viable cells after treatments was not different ( $P>0.05$ ) compared to the samples after  
261 drying. The lethality of HPCD to bacteria on mung bean and soybean was 5-6 log for *E. coli* and  
262 3-3.5 log for *Salmonella* despite the high variation on mung beans. For soybean, the lethality of  
263 HPCD to *E. coli* AW1.7 was higher ( $P<0.05$ ) than other treatments; however, the effect of HPCD  
264 on *Salmonella* cocktail was only significantly different from the lethality by drying.

### 265 3.5. Bactericidal effects of HPCD against natural microbiota of barley and oat

266 The bactericidal effects of HPCD were further validated on naturally contaminated cereal  
267 grains (Fig. 2). Bacteria on barley grains were more sensitive to high temperature when compared  
268 with *E. coli* AW1.7 and *Salmonella*. Treatments at 25 and 35 °C did not reduce the viable cell  
269 counts compared to other treatments. The lethality of treatments at 35 °C and CO<sub>2</sub> at 57 or 120 bar  
270 did not differ ( $P>0.05$ ). The effects of treatments at 65 °C alone and in combination with gaseous  
271 CO<sub>2</sub> at 57 bar as well as the HPCD treatment at 35 °C were similar and significantly enhanced the  
272 reduction of total counts enumerated on LB and PCA.

273 The initial microbiological load on dehulled oat grains ranged from 3 to 7 log(CFU/g).  
274 After all the treatments, the average cell counts were below the detection limit of 2 log(CFU/g)  
275 (Table S1, Supplementary Material).

## 276 4. Discussion

277 This exploratory study provided proof of concept that HPCD can be used to reduce or  
278 eliminate microbial contaminants on some plant seeds, however, optimization of food-specific

279 pretreatments is crucial to achieve an antimicrobial effect of HPCD. In addition, further  
280 optimization is needed for those seeds targeted for germination since not all seeds germinated after  
281 the HPCD treatment. The treatment conditions that were lethal to bacteria and fungi achieved  
282 >90% germination of mung beans, which is comparable to the traditional NaOCl treatment but  
283 HPCD is more bactericidal to *E. coli* [25,33,34]. Barley grains with hulls are naturally  
284 contaminated with a heavy load of microorganisms [4,5]; using HPCD as a post-harvest  
285 intervention significantly reduced the microbiological load (this study) even though the  
286 germination was reduced after treatments. It is of value to use HPCD for cereal grains that are not  
287 targeted for malting.

288         Seed germination is not only affected by antimicrobial intervention treatments but also  
289 depends on the natural germination capacity of the specific seed type [25,35,36]. The water  
290 absorption of plant embryo is seed-specific due to the different surface topography and water  
291 absorption isotherm [19,37]. In the present study, the effect of HPCD on germination was  
292 evaluated with four types of seeds (soybean, mung bean, barley, oat). The water absorption  
293 capacity of soybeans was 2-5 times higher than that of mung beans [37,38], resulting in different  
294 levels of bean hydration. Germination of barley was completely inactivated when water was added  
295 to the grains during HPCD treatment [36]. Water around and in the seeds in contact with CO<sub>2</sub>  
296 generally lowers the pH in the environment by forming H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and forms bicarbonate complex  
297 with intracellular substances, which causes inactivation of enzymes required for seed germination,  
298 such as α-amylase and lipase [39,40]. Germination of mung beans was the least impacted by HPCD  
299 likely due to their waxy coat and low water absorption capacity, which might help alleviate any  
300 damage to the seed embryo due to the pressure and solubilized CO<sub>2</sub>. Seed-dependent effect on  
301 germination was also demonstrated after high hydrostatic pressure treatment, which had limited

302 damage to seeds with low water absorption capacity [41]. Barley grains germinated poorly even  
303 without treatment in this study; however, Park et al. [36] found that germination of barley was  
304 95% after HPCD at 100 bar and 50 °C. The weak germination level of barley used in the present  
305 study reflects the selection of *Fusarium* infected grains. Soybean germinated poorly for unknown  
306 reasons. Pressure and temperature (>60 °C) also reduced the germination of barley and alfalfa  
307 seeds [33,35,36].

308 Hydration levels of each food likely contributed to the differences in the bacterial reduction  
309 levels. Mucilage on the surface of flax seeds strongly absorbs water during soaking [42], and water  
310 uptake of cereal grains is impacted by the presence of hulls [43], suggesting the highest inactivation  
311 of *E. coli* in flax seeds and lowest on soybeans. Generally, HPCD is bactericidal only in the  
312 presence of water, regardless of increases in pressure and temperature [44–46]. Antimicrobial  
313 effects of HPCD have been facilitated by the membrane disruption, and intra- and extracellular  
314 acidification due to the high diffusion power and solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> [26,35]. Water plays an  
315 important role in the biochemical reaction mediated by dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>; however, in a dry (food)  
316 matrix, such reactions are impeded due to the limited sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> in the lipid and cytoplasm  
317 membrane of microbial cells [26,47]. The use of water and/or ethanol as cosolvents in supercritical  
318 CO<sub>2</sub> increases the polarity of the solvent [48] and substantially increased the treatment lethality  
319 against conidia of *A. niger* [44] and *P. oxalicum* [36], *E. coli* and *Salmonella* [24,27, this study] in  
320 a dry environment. Inactivation of *A. niger* spores depended on the temperature and the amount of  
321 solubilized CO<sub>2</sub> [49]. The fungal and bacterial inactivation was consistently enhanced by adding  
322 water to the food matrix [24,36] or using water-saturated CO<sub>2</sub> [24, this study] during HPCD  
323 treatment. On the time scale typically used for HPCD treatments in this study, the moisture content

324 of microbial cells can be considered to be in equilibrium with the surrounding matrix and thus  
325 serves as a cosolvent dictating the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> absorbed by the cells [47].

326         Recognizing that control of the water in food matrix is critical for the antimicrobial efficacy  
327 of HPCD, seeds used in the present study were equilibrated to *a<sub>w</sub>* 0.75, soaked with water prior to  
328 treatments, and then treated with water-saturated CO<sub>2</sub>. This treatment protocol increased water  
329 availability only on the surface of the seeds, because full hydration of legume seeds and cereal  
330 grains during soaking requires several hours [43,50]. The seeds treated in this study were thus not  
331 in equilibrium with respect to the moisture content, with a hydrated exterior but a dry interior. This  
332 was sufficient for microbial inactivation since microbial contamination was on the surface and not  
333 in the interior, but protected the plant embryo in the interior of the seeds. It is suggested that  
334 equilibration of *a<sub>w</sub>* can be replaced by soaking because equilibration of *a<sub>w</sub>* alone was not as  
335 effective as the case involving the soaking step. In addition, *a<sub>w</sub>* of foods will increase after soaking  
336 in water. Taken together, due to the difference in water absorption of seeds, application of HPCD  
337 requires careful validation of the water content of seeds to optimize the antimicrobial efficacy and  
338 germination rate.

339         The state of CO<sub>2</sub> is associated with different antimicrobial mechanisms owing to the  
340 different density, solubility in aqueous medium, and solvent power of gaseous, liquid and  
341 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [27]. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is lethal to microorganisms in a high moisture  
342 environment [45–47,51,52]; but not in a dry environment [24,27]. The lethality of liquid and  
343 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> on dry foods/matrix generally requires a treatment time of >60 min [25,26];  
344 however treatment with gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C for 15 min achieved a higher bacterial reduction  
345 than supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> [24,27]. The present study adds further evidence that gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at  
346 moderate temperature (65 °C) is bactericidal in dry foods by achieving >5 log reduction of *E. coli*



347 and *Salmonella*. Gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> has a higher diffusion rate than supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, which is further  
348 increased by elevated temperature, thus it diffuses and disrupts cell membranes [53]. Comparing  
349 the treatment lethality of CO<sub>2</sub> with high-pressure / high-temperature treatments or the use of high  
350 temperature only demonstrates that the effect of HPCD is not caused by the combination of  
351 pressure and temperature but depends on the specific properties of CO<sub>2</sub> [24,46,54, this study].

352         The present study extends prior observations in bacteria by demonstrating the inactivation  
353 of fungal conidiospores in dry foods using HPCD and documenting the inactivation of natural  
354 contamination with *Fusarium* spp. Because the contamination of grains with *Fusarium* is almost  
355 invariably related to pre-harvest infection of the plant [4], we employed *Fusarium* infected grains  
356 rather than artificial surface contamination in the laboratory. Few studies reported the lethality of  
357 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with conidiospores of *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* spp. as targets [54–56]. Haas  
358 et al. [57] observed that gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at 45 °C reduced conidiospores of *P. roqueforti* by 5 log  
359 (CFU/g) after 2 h. The present study showed that gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C was lethal to bacteria, fungi  
360 and molds after only 15 min. Treatment at 65 °C alone without pressure had <2.5 log reduction of  
361 conidia of *A.niger* [54], and moderate effects on fungal inhibition on food substrates, which was  
362 similar to the HPCD treatments at 35 °C and 57 bar (this study). When *A. niger* was treated with  
363 supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C and 350 bar, the lethality was equivalent to the treatment at 65 °C [54].  
364 However, the lethality of HPCD to *A. niger* was enhanced by gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> at 65 °C and 57 bar  
365 (this study), which further indicates that the antimicrobial effect depends on the physical state of  
366 CO<sub>2</sub>.

## 367 **5. Conclusions**

368         Although innovative decontamination approaches for seeds have been broadly investigated  
369 [23], achieving decontamination without compromising the viability of the seed embryo remains

370 a significant challenge for treatment of seeds intended for sprouting or malting [58]. Among the  
371 treatments investigated for this purpose, radiation is a promising technology to improve  
372 microbiological safety while retaining a sprouting rate acceptable to the industry [58]. Treatment  
373 with cold atmospheric plasma that maintained germination of lentil seeds reduced bacterial  
374 contaminants by less than 3 log(CFU/g) and was not effective against fungal conidia [59]. The  
375 present study adds HPCD to the toolset with potential use for decontamination of seeds, however,  
376 the antimicrobial efficacy of HPCD varied among the different seeds/grains tested in this study  
377 and also differently affected the ability of seeds to germinate after treatment. Successful seed  
378 decontamination treatment is dependent on the soaking parameters to hydrate the seed surface.  
379 Soaking parameters are likely crucial parameters on maintaining the viability of plant embryo  
380 during treatments. The present study also highlighted the importance of seed hydration on the  
381 antimicrobial effects of HPCD as well as the ability of seeds to germinate. Specifically, treatments  
382 with HPCD that are lethal to fungal spores and bacteria did not compromise the viability of the  
383 embryo of mung beans.

## 384 **6. Acknowledgments**

385 We acknowledge the funding support from Alberta Innovates Bio Solutions and Alberta  
386 Agriculture and Forestry (Grant No. 2016F052R); Michael Gänzle acknowledges support from the  
387 Canada Research Chairs program. We also thank Dr. Ricardo Couto for providing training,  
388 technical support and expertise for the HPCD apparatus, Ceapro Inc. (Edmonton, AB, Canada) for  
389 providing dehulled oat grains, and undisclosed Albertan farmers for providing *Fusarium* infected  
390 barley grains.

## 391 **7. References**

- 392 [1] D. Johnston-Monje, D.S. Lundberg, G. Lazarovits, V.M. Reis, M.N. Raizada, Bacterial  
393 populations in juvenile maize rhizospheres originate from both seed and soil, *Plant Soil*.  
394 405 (2016) 337–355. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-016-2826-0>.
- 395 [2] T.R. Turner, E.K. James, P.S. Poole, The plant microbiome, *Genome Biol.* 14 (2013) 209.  
396 <https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2013-14-6-209>.
- 397 [3] A.R. Torres, W.L. Araujo, L. Cursino, M. Hungria, F. Plotegher, F.L. Mostasso, J.L.  
398 Azevedo, Diversity of endophytic enterobacteria associated with different host plants, *J.*  
399 *Microbiol.* 46 (2008) 373–379.
- 400 [4] B. Kosiak, M. Torp, E. Skjerve, B. Andersen, *Alternaria* and *Fusarium* in Norwegian grains  
401 of reduced quality - A matched pair sample study, *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 93 (2004) 51–62.  
402 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2003.10.006>.
- 403 [5] B. Flannigan, The microflora of barley and malt, in: *Brew. Microbiol.*, Springer US, 1999:  
404 pp. 83–125. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-0038-0\\_4](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-0038-0_4).
- 405 [6] E.T. Russo, G. Biggerstaff, R.M. Hoekstra, S. Meyer, N. Patel, B. Miller, R. Quick, A  
406 recurrent, multistate outbreak of *Salmonella* serotype Agona infections associated with dry,  
407 unsweetened cereal consumption, United States, 2008, *J. Food Prot.* 76 (2013) 227–230.  
408 <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028x.jfp-12-209>.
- 409 [7] S.J. Crowe, L. Bottichio, L.N. Shade, B.M. Whitney, N. Corral, B. Melius, K.D. Arends, D.  
410 Donovan, J. Stone, K. Allen, J. Rosner, J. Beal, L. Whitlock, A. Blackstock, J.  
411 Wetherington, L.A. Newberry, M.N. Schroeder, D. Wagner, E. Trees, S. Viazis, M.E. Wise,  
412 K.P. Neil, Shiga toxin–producing *E. coli* infections associated with flour, *N. Engl. J. Med.*  
413 377 (2017) 2036–2043. <https://doi.org/10.1056/nejmoa1615910>.

- 414 [8] Y. Dong, A.L. Iniguez, E.W. Triplett, Quantitative assessments of the host range and strain  
415 specificity of endophytic colonization by *Klebsiella pneumoniae* 342, in: Plant Soil,  
416 Springer, 2003: pp. 49–59. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1026242814060>.
- 417 [9] M. Schmid, C. Iversen, I. Gontia, R. Stephan, A. Hofmann, A. Hartmann, B. Jha, L. Eberl,  
418 K. Riedel, A. Lehner, Evidence for a plant-associated natural habitat for *Cronobacter* spp.,  
419 Res. Microbiol. 160 (2009) 608–614. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resmic.2009.08.013>.
- 420 [10] J.K. Vessey, T.J. Buss, *Bacillus cereus* UW85 inoculation effects on growth, nodulation,  
421 and N accumulation in grain legumes: Controlled-environment studies, Can. J. Plant Sci. 82  
422 (2002) 283–290. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4141/P01-047>.
- 423 [11] P.M. Oliveira, E. Zannini, E.K. Arendt, Cereal fungal infection, mycotoxins, and lactic acid  
424 bacteria mediated bioprotection: From crop farming to cereal products, Food Microbiol. 37  
425 (2014) 78–95. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2013.06.003>.
- 426 [12] K.M. Wright, S. Chapman, K. McGeachy, S. Humphris, E. Campbell, I.K. Toth, N.J.  
427 Holden, The endophytic lifestyle of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7: Quantification and internal  
428 localization in roots, Phytopathology. 103 (2013) 333–340.  
429 <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO-08-12-0209-FI>.
- 430 [13] A. Hofmann, D. Fischer, A. Hartmann, M. Schmid, Colonization of plants by human  
431 pathogenic bacteria in the course of organic vegetable production, Front. Microbiol. 5  
432 (2014) 191. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00191>.
- 433 [14] A.M. Dechet, K.M. Herman, C. Chen Parker, P. Taormina, J. Johanson, R. V. Tauxe, B.E.  
434 Mahon, Outbreaks caused by sprouts, United States, 1998-2010: Lessons learned and  
435 solutions needed, Foodborne Pathog. Dis. 11 (2014) 635–644.

- 436 <https://doi.org/10.1089/fpd.2013.1705>.
- 437 [15] N. Gruzdev, R. Pinto, S. Sela, Effect of desiccation on tolerance of *Salmonella enterica* to  
438 multiple stresses, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 77 (2011) 1667–1673.  
439 <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02156-10>.
- 440 [16] L.M. Johnston, C.L. Moe, D. Moll, L.-A. Jaykus, The epidemiology of produce-associated  
441 outbreaks of foodborne disease, in: *Microb. Hazard Identif. Fresh Fruit Veg.*, John Wiley  
442 & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, NJ, USA, 2005: pp. 37–72.  
443 <https://doi.org/10.1002/0470007761.ch2>.
- 444 [17] P.J. Taormina, L.R. Beuchat, L. Slutsker, Infections associated with eating seed sprouts: An  
445 international concern, *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 5 (1999) 626–634.  
446 <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid0505.990503>.
- 447 [18] L. Beutin, A. Martin, Outbreak of shiga toxin–producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) O104:H4  
448 infection in Germany causes a paradigm shift with regard to human pathogenicity of STEC  
449 strains, *J. Food Prot.* 75 (2012) 408–418. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-11-452>.
- 450 [19] L. Fransisca, H. Feng, Effect of surface roughness on inactivation of *Escherichia coli*  
451 O157:H7 87-23 by new organic acid-surfactant combinations on alfalfa, broccoli, and radish  
452 seeds, *J. Food Prot.* 75 (2012) 261–269. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-11-279>.
- 453 [20] R. Montville, D.W. Schaffner, Analysis of published sprout seed sanitization studies shows  
454 treatments are highly variable, *J. Food Prot.* 67 (2004) 758–765.  
455 <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X-67.4.758>.
- 456 [21] M.W. Ariefdjohan, P.E. Nelson, R.K. Singh, A.K. Bhunia, V.M. Balasubramaniam, N.  
457 Singh, Efficacy of high hydrostatic pressure treatment in reducing *Escherichia coli* O157

- 458 and *Listeria monocytogenes* in alfalfa seeds, J. Food Sci. 69 (2006) M117–M120.  
459 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2004.tb10718.x>.
- 460 [22] E.J. Rifna, K. Ratish Ramanan, R. Mahendran, Emerging technology applications for  
461 improving seed germination, Trends Food Sci. Technol. 86 (2019) 95–108.  
462 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2019.02.029>.
- 463 [23] M. Schmidt, E. Zannini, E.K. Arendt, Screening of post-harvest decontamination methods  
464 for cereal grains and their impact on grain quality and technological performance, Eur. Food  
465 Res. Technol. 245 (2019) 1061–1074. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-018-3210-5>.
- 466 [24] D.M. Schultze, R. Couto, F. Temelli, L.M. McMullen, M. Gänzle, Lethality of high-  
467 pressure carbon dioxide on Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* and  
468 surrogate organisms on beef jerky, Int. J. Food Microbiol. 321 (2020) 108550.  
469 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.108550>.
- 470 [25] A.M. Mazzoni, R.R. Sharma, A. Demirci, G.R. Ziegler, Supercritical carbon dioxide  
471 treatment to inactive aerobic microorganisms on alfalfa seeds, J. Food Saf. 21 (2001) 215–  
472 223. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4565.2001.tb00320.x>.
- 473 [26] L. Garcia-Gonzalez, A.H. Geeraerd, S. Spilimbergo, K. Elst, L. Van Ginneken, J. Debevere,  
474 J.F. Van Impe, F. Devlieghere, High pressure carbon dioxide inactivation of  
475 microorganisms in foods: The past, the present and the future, Int. J. Food Microbiol. 117  
476 (2007) 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2007.02.018>.
- 477 [27] Y.Y. Chen, F. Temelli, M.G. Gänzle, Mechanisms of inactivation of dry *Escherichia coli*  
478 by high-pressure carbon dioxide, Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 83 (2017) e00062-17.  
479 <https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.00062-17>.

- 480 [28] H. -M Lin, Z. Yang, L. -F Chen, Inactivation of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by supercritical  
481 and subcritical carbon dioxide, *Biotechnol. Prog.* 8 (1992) 458–461.  
482 <https://doi.org/10.1021/bp00017a013>.
- 483 [29] R.M. Syamaladevi, R.K. Tadapaneni, J. Xu, R. Villa-Rojas, J. Tang, B. Carter, S. Sablani,  
484 B. Marks, Water activity change at elevated temperatures and thermal resistance of  
485 *Salmonella* in all purpose wheat flour and peanut butter, *Food Res. Int.* 81 (2016) 163–170.  
486 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2016.01.008>.
- 487 [30] Y. Liu, A. Gill, L. McMullen, M. Gänzle, Variation in heat and pressure resistance of  
488 verotoxigenic and nontoxigenic *Escherichia coli*, *J. Food Prot.* 78 (2015) 111–120.  
489 <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-14-267>.
- 490 [31] R.G. Mercer, J. Zheng, R. Garcia-Hernandez, L. Ruan, M.G. Gänzle, L.M. McMullen,  
491 Genetic determinants of heat resistance in *Escherichia coli*, *Front. Microbiol.* 6 (2015) 932.  
492 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.00932>.
- 493 [32] B. Gautam, B.N. Govindan, M. Gänzle, M.S. Roopesh, Influence of water activity on the  
494 heat resistance of *Salmonella enterica* in selected low-moisture foods, *Int. J. Food*  
495 *Microbiol.* 334 (2020) 108813. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.108813>.
- 496 [33] C.B. Jaquette, L.R. Beuchat, B.E. Mahon, Efficacy of chlorine and heat treatment in killing  
497 *Salmonella stanley* inoculated onto alfalfa seeds and growth and survival of the pathogen  
498 during sprouting and storage, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 62 (1996) 2212–2215.
- 499 [34] Z. Wang, Y. Fang, S. Zhi, D.J. Simpson, A. Gill, L.M. McMullen, N.F. Neumann, M.G.  
500 Gänzle, The locus of heat resistance confers resistance to chlorine and other oxidizing  
501 chemicals in *Escherichia coli*, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* (2020) in press.

- 502 <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02123-19>.
- 503 [35] W.Y. Jung, Y.M. Choi, M.S. Rhee, Potential use of supercritical carbon dioxide to  
504 decontaminate *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, *Listeria monocytogenes*, and *Salmonella*  
505 *typhimurium* in alfalfa sprouted seeds, *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 136 (2009) 66–70.  
506 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2009.08.014>.
- 507 [36] H.S. Park, H.J. Choi, K.H. Kim, Effect of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> modified with water cosolvent  
508 on the sterilization of fungal spore-contaminated barley seeds and the germination of barley  
509 seeds, *J. Food Saf.* 33 (2013) 94–101. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfs.12027>.
- 510 [37] A. Gowen, N. Abu-Ghannam, J. Frias, J. Oliveira, Influence of pre-blanching on the water  
511 absorption kinetics of soybeans, *J. Food Eng.* 78 (2007) 965–971.  
512 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2005.12.009>.
- 513 [38] W. Li, C. Shu, S. Yan, Q. Shen, Characteristics of sixteen mung bean cultivars and their  
514 protein isolates, *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* 45 (2010) 1205–1211.  
515 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2010.02259.x>.
- 516 [39] B. Meyssami, M.O. Balaban, A.A. Teixeira, Prediction of pH in model systems pressurized  
517 with carbon dioxide, *Biotechnol. Prog.* 8 (1992) 149–154.  
518 <https://pubs.acs.org/sharingguidelines> (accessed March 13, 2021).
- 519 [40] S. Damar, M.O. Balaban, Review of dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> technology: microbial and enzyme  
520 inactivation, and effects on food quality, *J. Food Sci.* 71 (2006) R1–R11.  
521 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2006.tb12397.x>.
- 522 [41] E.Y. Wuytack, A.M.J. Diels, K. Meersseman, C.W. Michiels, Decontamination of seeds for  
523 seed sprout production by high hydrostatic pressure, *J. Food Prot.* 66 (2003) 918–923.



- 524 <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X-66.6.918>.
- 525 [42] T. Kaewmanee, L. Bagnasco, S. Benjakul, S. Lanteri, C.F. Morelli, G. Speranza, M.E.  
526 Cosulich, Characterisation of mucilages extracted from seven Italian cultivars of flax, Food  
527 Chem. 148 (2014) 60–69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.10.022>.
- 528 [43] M. Bello, M.P. Tolaba, C. Suarez, Factors affecting water uptake of rice grain during  
529 soaking, LWT - Food Sci. Technol. 37 (2004) 811–816.  
530 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2004.02.014>.
- 531 [44] M. Kamihira, M. Taniguchi, T. Kobayashi, Sterilization of microorganisms with  
532 supercritical carbon dioxide, Agric. Biol. Chem. 51 (1987) 407–412.  
533 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00021369.1987.10868053>.
- 534 [45] S.R. Kim, M.S. Rhee, B.C. Kim, K.H. Kim, Modeling the inactivation of *Escherichia coli*  
535 O157:H7 and generic *Escherichia coli* by supercritical carbon dioxide, Int. J. Food  
536 Microbiol. 118 (2007) 52–61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2007.05.014>.
- 537 [46] K. Nakamura, A. Enomoto, H. Fukushima, K. Nagai, M. Hakoda, Disruption of microbial  
538 cells by the flash discharge of high-pressure carbon dioxide, Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.  
539 58 (1994) 1297–1301. <https://doi.org/10.1080/bbb.58.1297>.
- 540 [47] H. Kumagai, C. Hata, K. Nakamura, CO<sub>2</sub> sorption by microbial cells and sterilization by  
541 high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub>, Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem. 61 (1997) 931–935.  
542 <https://doi.org/10.1271/bbb.61.931>.
- 543 [48] Dobbs, J.M., J.M. Wong, J. Lahlere, P. Johnston, Modification of supercritical fluid phase  
544 behavior using polar cosolvents, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 26 (1987) 56–65.
- 545 [49] M. Shimoda, H. Kago, N. Kojima, M. Miyake, Y. Osajima, I. Hayakawa, Accelerated death

546 kinetics of *Aspergillus niger* spores under high-pressure carbonation, Appl. Environ.  
547 Microbiol. 68 (2002) 4162–4167. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.68.8.4162-4167.2002>.

548 [50] K.H. Hsu, A diffusion model with a concentration-dependent diffusion coefficient for  
549 describing water movement in legumes during soaking, J. Food Sci. 48 (1983) 618–622.  
550 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1983.tb10803.x>.

551 [51] E. Debs-Louka, N. Louka, G. Abraham, V. Chabot, K. Allaf, Effect of compressed carbon  
552 dioxide on microbial cell viability, Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 65 (1999) 626–631.  
553 <https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.65.2.626-631.1999>.

554 [52] S.R. Kim, M.S. Rhee, B.C. Kim, H. Lee, K.H. Kim, Modeling of the inactivation of  
555 *Salmonella typhimurium* by supercritical carbon dioxide in physiological saline and  
556 phosphate-buffered saline, J. Microbiol. Methods. 70 (2007) 132–141.  
557 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mimet.2007.04.003>.

558 [53] S.I. Hong, Y.R. Pyun, Inactivation kinetics of *Lactobacillus plantarum* by high pressure  
559 carbon dioxide, J. Food Sci. 64 (1999) 728–733. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-  
560 2621.1999.tb15120.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1999.tb15120.x).

561 [54] E.A. Noman, N.N.N.A. Rahman, M. Shahadat, H. Nagao, A.F.M. Al-Karkhi, A. Al-  
562 Gheethi, T.N.T. Lah., A.K.M. Omar, Supercritical fluid CO<sub>2</sub> technique for destruction of  
563 pathogenic fungal spores in solid clinical wastes, CLEAN - Soil, Air, Water. 44 (2016)  
564 1700–1708. <https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.201500538>.

565 [55] E. Noman, N. Norulaini Nik Ab Rahman, A. Al-Gheethi, H. Nagao, B.A. Talip, O. Ab.  
566 Kadir, Selection of inactivation medium for fungal spores in clinical wastes by supercritical  
567 carbon dioxide, Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 25 (2018) 21682–21692.

- 568 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-018-2335-1>.
- 569 [56] M. Kamihira, M. Taniguchi, T. Kobayashi, Sterilization of microorganisms with  
570 supercritical carbon dioxide., *Agric. Biol. Chem.* 51 (1987) 407–412.  
571 <https://doi.org/10.1271/bbb1961.51.407>.
- 572 [57] G.J. Haas, H.E. Prescott, E. Dudley, R. Dik, C. Hintlian, L. Keane, Inactivation of  
573 microorganisms by carbon dioxide under pressure, *J. Food Saf.* 9 (1989) 253–265.
- 574 [58] A.M.D. Sikin, C. Zoellner, S.S.H. Rizvi, Current intervention strategies for the microbial  
575 safety of sprouts, *J. Food Prot.* 76 (2013) 2099–2123. [https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-](https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-12-437)  
576 [028X.JFP-12-437](https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-12-437).
- 577 [59] A. Waskow, J. Betschart, D. Butscher, G. Oberbossel, D. Klöti, A. Büttner-Mainik, J.  
578 Adamcik, P.R. von Rohr, M. Schuppler, Characterization of efficiency and mechanisms of  
579 cold atmospheric pressure plasma decontamination of seeds for sprout production, *Front.*  
580 *Microbiol.* 9 (2018) 3164. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.03164>.
- 581 [60] M. Aslam, G.G. Greer, F.M. Nattress, C.O. Gill, L.M. McMullen, Genotypic analysis of  
582 *Escherichia coli* recovered from product and equipment at a beef-packing plant, *J. Appl.*  
583 *Microbiol.* 97 (2004) 78–86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2004.02277.x>.
- 584 [61] A.R. Winter, G.F. Stewart, V.H. Mcfarlane, M. Solowey, Pasteurization of liquid egg  
585 products III. destruction of *Salmonella* in liquid whole egg, *Am. J. Public Heal.* 36 (1946)  
586 451–460.
- 587 [62] C. Zhang, M.J. Brandt, C. Schwab, M.G. Gänzle, Propionic acid production by  
588 cofermentation of *Lactobacillus buchneri* and *Lactobacillus diolivorans* in sourdough, *Food*  
589 *Microbiol.* 27 (2010) 390–395. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2009.11.019>.

591 **Figure legends**

592 **Figure 1.** Effect of treatments on the reduction of *E. coli* AW1.7 (black) and *Salmonella*  
593 cocktail (grey) inoculated onto flax seeds (panel A), ground pepper (panel B), mung beans (panel  
594 C), and soybeans (panel D). Dry foods inoculated with bacterial culture were air-dried. Dried  
595 samples were equilibrated to an aw of 0.75, soaked in water for 20 min and then treated with HPCD  
596 at 57 bar and 65 °C, N<sub>2</sub> at 57 bar and 65 °C , or at ambient pressure at 65 °C for 15 min. Data are  
597 shown as means ± standard deviation (n = 3). The reduction of cell counts after drying alone was  
598 determined as  $\log(N_0/N)$ , where N<sub>0</sub> and N refer to the cell count before and after drying,  
599 respectively. The reduction of cell counts after treatments with heat alone or pressurized gas was  
600 determined as  $\log(N_1/N)$ , where N<sub>1</sub> and N refer to the cell counts of dried bacteria before and after  
601 treatments, respectively. Different letters denote significant differences between strains and among  
602 treatments in the same panel ( $P < 0.05$ ).

603 **Figure 2.** Reduction of bacterial cell counts on barley grains cultivated on LB media (panel  
604 A) and PCA media (panel B). Barley grains were treated with CO<sub>2</sub> at 1.013 (black), 57 (grey), and  
605 120 bar (white) and temperatures at 25, 35, and 65 °C for 15 min. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> was evaluated  
606 at 120 bar and 35 °C only. Data are shown as means ± standard deviation (n = 3-5). Different  
607 letters denote significant differences among different treatments in each panel ( $P < 0.05$ ).

**Table 1.** List of bacterial and fungal strains and their source of isolation.

Strain	Source	Reference
<i>Escherichia coli</i> AW1.7	Beef-packing plant	[60]
<i>Salmonella</i> Typhimurium ATCC13311	Human	ATCC
<i>Salmonella</i> Senftenberg ATCC43845	Eggs	[61]
<i>Salmonella</i> Bareilly FUA1934	Waste water	[24]
<i>Salmonella</i> Enteritidis FUA1946	Waste water	[24]
<i>Salmonella</i> Thompson FUA1955	Waste water	[24]
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> FUA 5001	Spoiled bread	[62]
<i>Penicillium roqueforti</i> FUA 5004	Spoiled bread	[62]

**Table 2.** Effect of HPCD coupled with  $a_w$  equilibration of dry foods and/or saturation of CO<sub>2</sub> on the lethality to *E. coli* AW1.7. After equilibration in the saturated NaCl, the  $a_w$  of beans (0.1-0.15 g) was measured by an  $a_w$  meter. Samples were treated at 65 °C and 57 bar with CO<sub>2</sub>. Water saturation of CO<sub>2</sub> during treatment was achieved by placing 30 µL of water onto a filter paper at the gas inlet of the treatment apparatus. Food samples were not soaked before HPCD treatment. Data from pepper and flax seeds are shown as means ± SD of triplicate experiments; only one replicate was performed with soy and mung beans.

<b>Sample</b>	<b><math>a_w</math> of food</b>	<b>Vol of water added to the system</b>	<b>Reduction of cell counts [log(N<sub>0</sub>/N)]</b>
Pepper	not equilibrated	not applied	0.44±0.001
Pepper	not equilibrated	30-180 µL	1.08±0.03
Flax seeds	0.60-0.63	30 µL	2.27±0.043
Soybean	0.67-0.692	30 µL	0.72
Mung bean	0.551-0.671	30 µL	3.36

**Table 3.** Germination of seeds after treatments. The percentage of seeds that germinated within 10 d after treatments is reported; the total number of seeds is indicated in brackets.

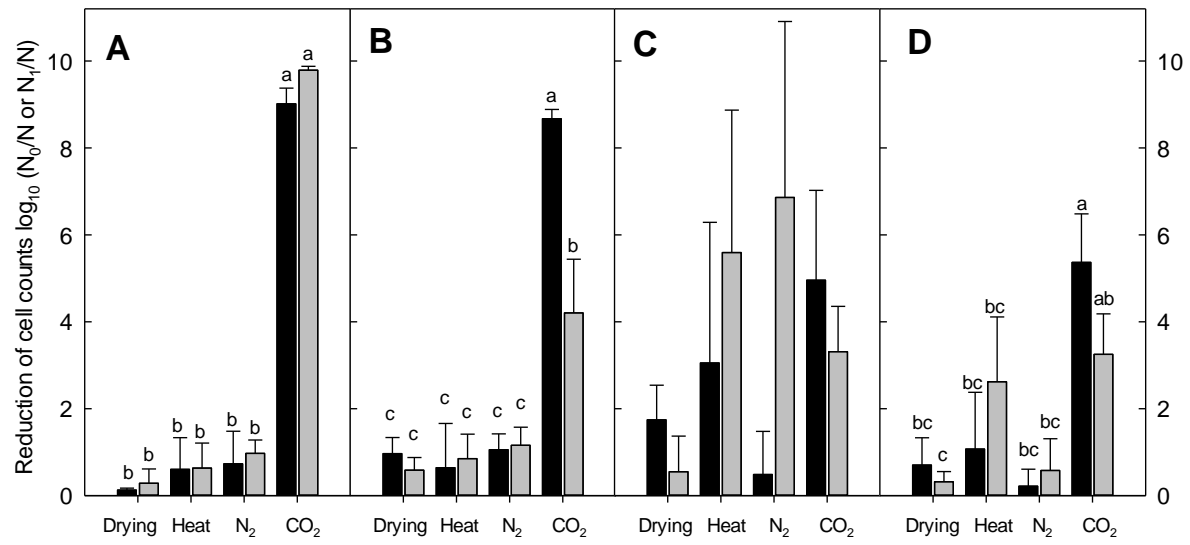
	<b>Percentage of germinated seeds (total number of seeds)</b>			
	<b>Soybean</b>	<b>Mung bean</b>	<b>Barley</b>	<b>Oat</b>
Control	8 (146)	96 (146)	11 (27)	58 (26)
35 and 65°C	0 (24)	96 (24)	0 (26)	50 (26)
CO <sub>2</sub> at 57 bar; 35 and 65°C	2 (86)	90 (86)	0 (17)	6 (17)
CO <sub>2</sub> at 120 bar; 35 and 65°C	0 (34)	97 (34)	0 (6)	0 (6)

**Table 4.** Lethality of temperature and gaseous (57 bar) or supercritical (120 bar) CO<sub>2</sub> to fungal conidia on or in grains or beans. Mung beans and soybeans were surface-inoculated with *A. niger* or *P. roqueforti*. Barley and oat were naturally contaminated with *F.graminearum* and field molds without additional inoculations.

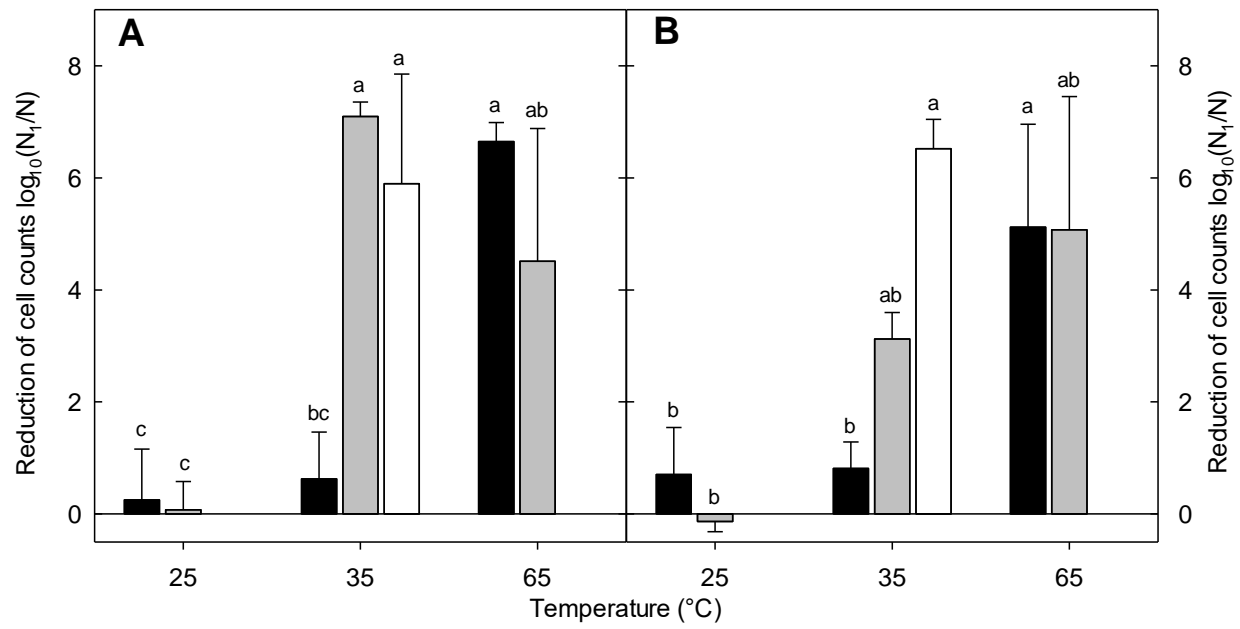
		Treatment effects (total number of seeds)							
Temperature		25 °C		35 °C			65 °C		
Pressure, bar		1.013	57	1.013	57	120	1.013	57	120
<i>A. niger</i>	Soybean	0 (3)	0.1 (9)	0 (3)	0.3 (9)	0.5 (9)	0.5 (9)	0.72 (25)	0.9 (9)
	Mung bean	0 (3)	0.4 (9)	0 (3)	0.7 (9)	0.4 (9)	0.7 (9)	1 (25)	1 (9)
<i>P. roqueforti</i>	Soybean	0 (3)	0.1 (9)	0 (3)	0.1 (9)	0.3 (9)	0.3 (9)	0.72 (25)	0.9 (9)
	Mung bean	0 (3)	0.6 (9)	0 (3)	0.3 (9)	0.5 (9)	0.7 (9)	1.0 (25)	1 (9)
<i>F. graminearum</i>	Barley	0 (6)	1 (6)	0 (6)	1 (6)	1 (6)	1(6)	1(6)	-
Field molds (unknown)	Oat	0.3 (6)	1 (6)	0.3 (6)	1 (6)	1 (6)	1(6)	1(6)	-

Grains or beans were treated with the given conditions for 15 min. Individual seeds were considered as an experimental unit. Treatment effects were calculated by Eq.1 where 1 indicates all seeds remained mold-free over 10 d of storage and 0 means that molds grew on all seeds.





**Figure 1.**



**Figure 2.**

**Online Supplementary Material to**

**Effects of High-Pressure Carbon Dioxide on Microbial Quality and Germination of Cereal Grains  
and Beans**

Yuan Fang, Claudia Franke, Alina Manthei, Lynn McMullen, Feral Temelli, and Michael G. Gänzle

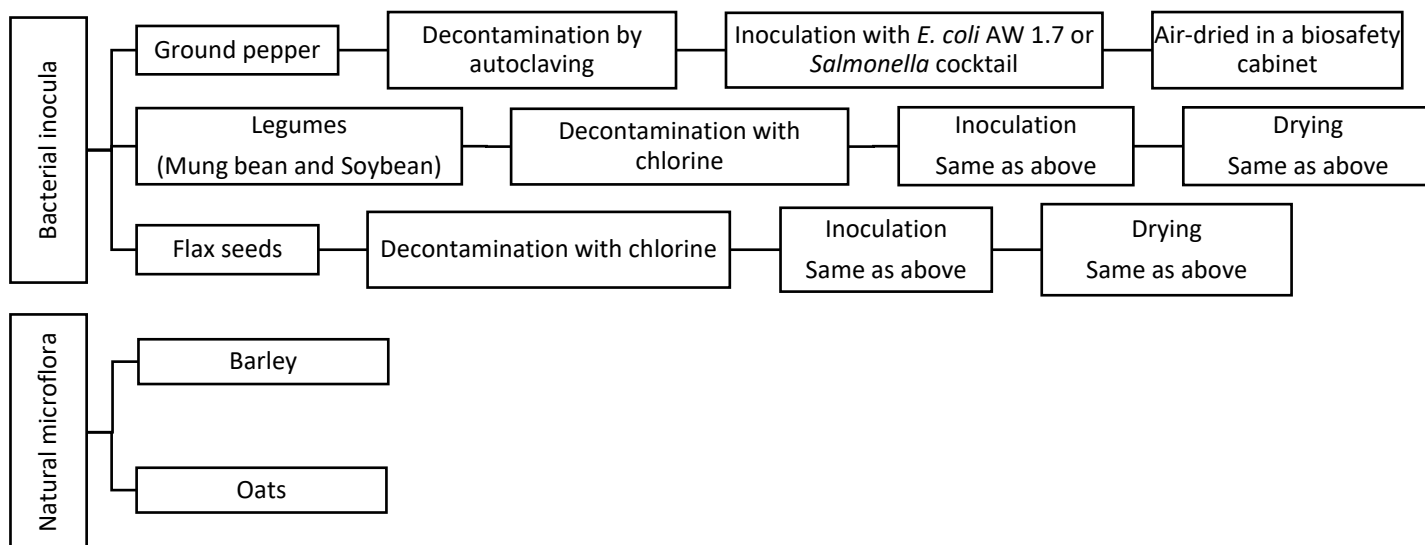
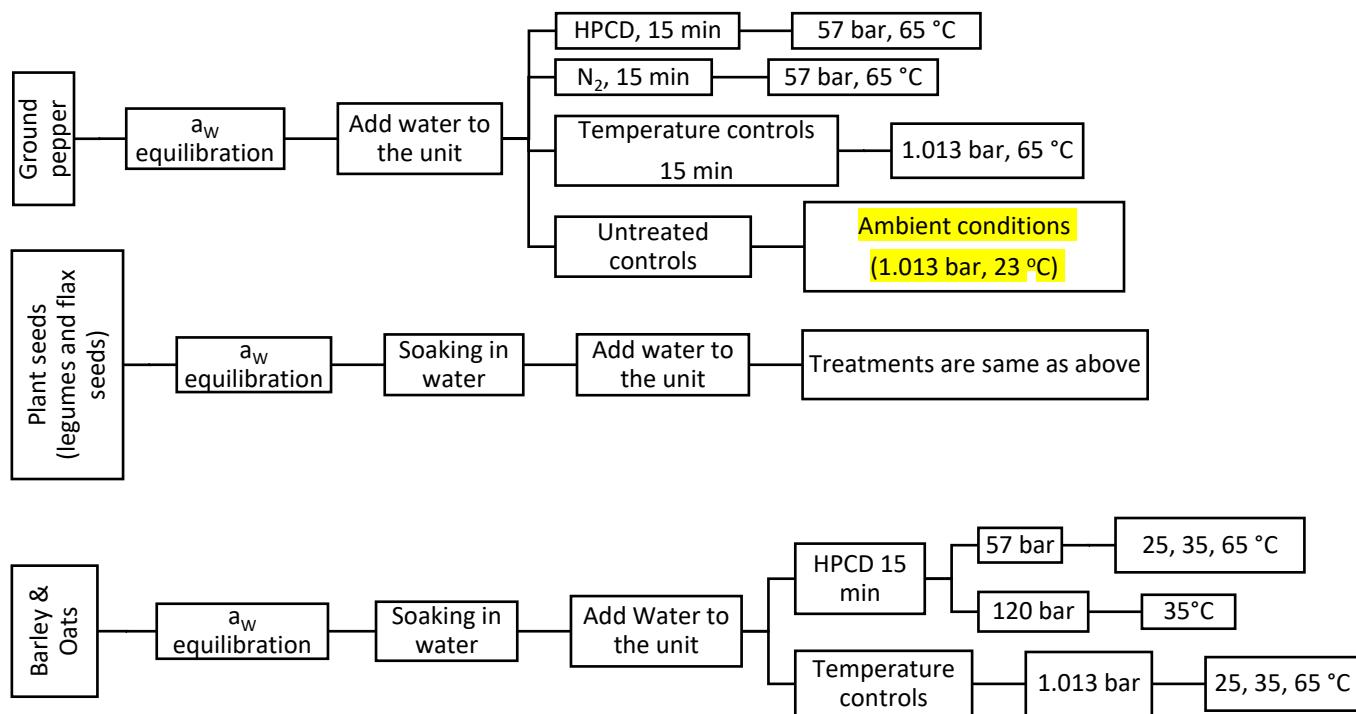
University of Alberta, Dept. of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Science, Edmonton, AB, Canada T6G  
2P5

**Table S1.** Viable cell counts of uninoculated dehulled oat determined on LB media and PCA media. Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SD of 3-5 replicates.

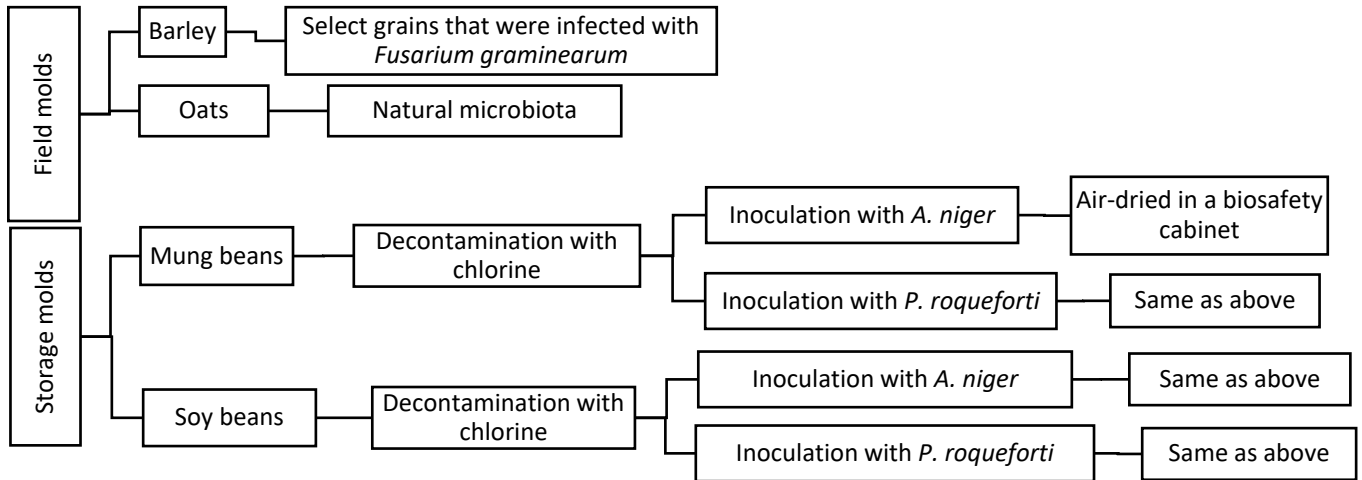
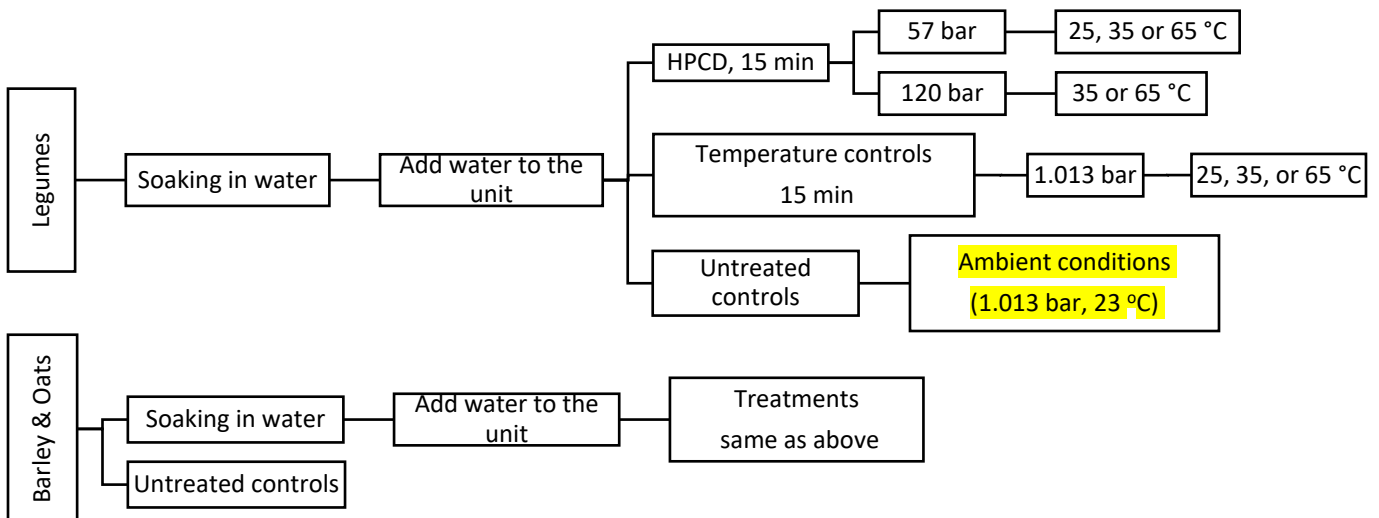
Treatment parameters (gas, °C, bar)	Cell counts [log(CFU/g)]	
	LB	PCA
untreated	5.82 $\pm$ 1.29	5.40 $\pm$ 1.41
CO <sub>2</sub> , 45, 1.013	1.8 $\pm$ 2.5 <sup>a</sup>	1.7 $\pm$ 2.4 <sup>a</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> , 45, 57	n.d.	1.2 $\pm$ 1.7 <sup>a</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> , 55, 1.013	n.d.	n.d.
CO <sub>2</sub> , 55, 57	1.4 $\pm$ 2.0 <sup>a</sup>	1.5 $\pm$ 2.1 <sup>a</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> , 65, 1.013	1.5 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.8 $\pm$ 1.5 <sup>a</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> , 65, 57	1.3 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>	1.2 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>
N <sub>2</sub> , 65, 57	n.d.	n.d.

<sup>a</sup>For average values less than 2 [log(CFU/g)], the cell count of one or more of the replicates was below the detection limit of 200 cells / g; for calculation of the average, the cell count of these samples was assumed to be 0[log(CFU/g)].

n.d., cell counts in all replicates were below the detection limit of 200 cells / g

**A****B**

**Figure S1.** Flowchart depicting (A) the sample preparation for inoculation with bacterial cultures, and (B) treatments with HPCD.

**A****B**

**Figure S2.** Flowchart depicting (A) the sample preparation for fungal inoculation, and (B) treatments with HPCD.