The United Fresh Produce Association appreciates the opportunity to comment on the proposed regulation *Current Good Manufacturing Practice and Hazard Analysis and Risk-Based Preventive Controls for Human Food* ("Preventive Controls rule").

United Fresh represents more than 1,200 companies at the forefront of the fresh and fresh-cut produce industry, including growers, shippers, fresh-cut processors, wholesalers, distributors, retailers, foodservice operators, industry suppliers and allied associations. United Fresh works to increase consumption of fresh produce for public health, shape legislative and regulatory policies that serve the public and provide for a sound business climate for its members, provide scientific and technical leadership in food safety, quality assurance, nutrition and health, and develop educational programs and business opportunities to assist member companies in growing successful businesses.

United Fresh has long been the leader in continual enhancement of produce safety, bringing together food safety experts from across the industry to share understanding and drive process improvement, publish educational materials and best practice documents for multiple commodities and practices, and provide sound scientific input on potential policy actions by local, state, federal and international regulatory bodies.

United Fresh was a strong advocate for the Food Safety Modernization Act (FSMA) during its development. At its Board of Directors meeting January 20, 2007, United Fresh unanimously adopted the following guiding legislative principles for a food safety regulatory framework for produce:

- Produce safety standards must be consistent and applicable to all produce grown anywhere in the United States, or imported into the country.
- Produce safety standards must be mandatory, with sufficient federal oversight, in order to be most credible to consumers.
- Produce safety standards must allow for risk-based, commodity-specific food safety practices based on the best available science.

These principles primarily address matters contained in the Produce Safety rule, for which we have provided FDA extensive comments. Although produce receives less specific attention in the Preventive Controls rule, the proposed rule nevertheless has significant consequences on the industry’s ability to deliver today’s vast array of affordable fresh produce choices to consumers. The fresh produce supply chain entails multiple handlers of produce from field to the consumer’s table. At every stage, facilities that fall under this regulation will be dramatically impacted, making the Preventive Controls rule as significant for the fresh produce industry as the on-farm Produce Safety rule. Fresh produce generally
has a short shelf-life and, despite implementing the best practices that science has identified, has no “kill step” in its processing to reliably eliminate all risks. Consequently, compliance under this rule would pose several unique challenges for the fresh produce industry and FDA, which we identify below.

In preparing our comments on the Preventive Controls rule, we have implemented a widespread and intensive discussion with member companies with expertise at each stage of the produce supply chain from field to table. However, our comments can only address those broad issues that we have heard are of concern to the majority in our industry. We also encourage FDA to seriously consider the comments you receive from groups and associations that address additional specific concerns of warehouse and wholesale operations, refrigerated storage facilities, retail distribution centers, and other facilities that may face unintended consequences from this rule.

In order to ensure that each docket for FSMA’s interlocking rulemakings are complete and that FDA can evaluate how the industry can be effectively and efficiently operate under the new FSMA rules, submitted to this docket as part of these comments is a copy of United Fresh’s comments on Standards for the Growing, Harvesting, Packing, and Holding of Produce for Human Consumption; Docket No. FDA–2011–N–0921; RIN 0910–AG35.

General Comments

1. Facilities Regulated Under Preventive Controls Rule

United Fresh believes that FDA has inappropriately grouped very low-risk produce packing and handling facilities together with food processing facilities under the proposed rule. We understand that FSMA defines the term “facility” to mean “a domestic facility or a foreign facility that is required to register under section 415” and that it is FDA’s intent that “conducting activities outside the definition of ‘farm’ triggers the requirements in the section 415 registration regulations and, thus, brings the facility within the scope of section 418 of the FD&C Act.” That is, FDA intends a sharp division between “facilities” subject to Preventive Controls and “farms” subject to Produce Safety, based on the section 415 registration regulations.

However, we contend that this is an artificial restriction, neither science- nor risk-based. We offer no objection to the current regulation regarding the types of facilities that must register with FDA, but contend that the Congressional intent of FSMA is met if registered facilities that handle, hold, pack or package raw, intact produce are covered by the relevant requirements of the Produce Safety rule instead of Preventive Controls.

FDA has specifically identified these processes as low-risk in the preamble that states: “Small and very small on-farm businesses conducting these low risk activities would be exempt from most of the rule’s requirements. We would define the low-risk activities that qualify for the exemption, including the specific foods to which they relate (such as re-packing intact fruits and vegetables...”)

Although inappropriately restricting the proposed exemption to companies based on size, FDA has nonetheless characterized repacking (and, thus, packing) intact fruits and vegetables as “low-risk.” Activities such as packing or repacking intact fruits and vegetables that are considered low-risk for small and very small on-farm businesses are also low-risk for larger operations. We submit that FDA should extend this exemption to all facilities that handle, hold, pack or package raw, intact produce, recognizing instead that these
operations are clearly covered by the relevant requirements of the Produce Safety rule instead of Preventive Controls.

We believe that FSMA provides authority for such exemptions and modifications to the requirements of section 418 of the FD&C Act. These include provisions related to activities of facilities subject to section 419 of the FD&C Act (Standards for Produce Safety). FDA clearly intends that the proposed Produce Safety rule provides “standards for the safe... packing, and holding of produce on farms”. We therefore contend that the standards in the proposed Produce Safety rule – particularly the personnel qualifications and training requirements in proposed subpart C, health and hygiene requirements in proposed subpart D, and the requirements for equipment, tools, buildings, and sanitation in proposed subpart L – are more than adequate for the safe holding, handling and packing of raw, intact fresh produce, regardless of the commodity, size of the operation or source of the produce.

As a practical matter, designating fruit and vegetable packing and holding operations as facilities required to be covered under Preventive Controls will have dire consequences for public health by shutting down many operations that are currently exempt from 21 CFR part 110 (current Good Manufacturing Practices) because they handle only raw agricultural commodities. There is no evidence that such massive new requirements for packing and holding facilities for raw agricultural commodities is necessary to prevent contamination, as risks associated with these processes and facilities are addressed in the Produce Safety rule.

2. Definition of Farm and Farming Activities

We further contend that the definition of “farm” and farming activities proposed by FDA is too limited. § 1.227(b)(3) defines farm as “a facility in one general physical location devoted to the growing and harvesting of crops...Washing, trimming of outer leaves of, and cooling produce are considered part of harvesting...” The definition ignores that farm activities can also include culling, conveying, sorting, waxing, storing, labeling, packing, packaging and shipping of raw, intact produce, and storing can include crop maintenance activities like fumigation, pest control, sprout inhibition and atmosphere control for ripening or ripening inhibition. In short, any normal handling, holding or packing activity performed on raw, intact produce that results in no significant change in the produce shape or structure, and creates no significant change in the hazard analysis for the product, should be considered consistent with the “farm” definition, and operations that perform only such activities should be covered under the Produce Safety rule.

We understand that the FDA definition of facility (21 CFR 1.227(b)(2)) includes “mobile facility” and that in-field handling and packaging of fresh produce may be perceived as “processing”, subject to Preventive Controls. United Fresh opposes such definition for activities such as “top and tail”, “core in field” and “clean and core”, as such activities should only be considered harvesting; i.e., not scientifically different from the FDA provision that harvesting includes “trimming of outer leaves of”. We contend that the hazard evaluation of such products is not different from raw, intact produce that is harvested without trimming and is subsequently trimmed in a building as part of farming. In both cases, the produce harvesting, post-harvest water quality, equipment and tool sanitation and worker health and hygiene provisions of the proposed Produce Safety rule would all apply and provide adequate protection of public health.

United Fresh is aware of some analysis that the proposed system is mandated by the existing facility registration requirements, 21 CFR part 1, subpart H. If that is the case, United Fresh strongly urges the agency to reconsider and redefine the "farm" definition to include any operation engaged in the primary farm purpose of growing, packing, cooling, and holding intact produce (and the additional activities described above) under the Produce
Safety Rule regardless of source. If the agency declines to take this course, we respectfully request that it provide a full explanation of the legal, regulatory, scientific, and policy bases for doing so, beyond the singular fact that the facility registration requirements put in place pursuant to the Bioterrorism Act predate FSMA.

Finally on this point, we remind FDA that the size of the operation or its location in the supply chain is scientifically irrelevant to whether it is covered by the Produce Safety or Preventive Controls rules. The hazards and controls identified by FDA in the proposed Produce Safety rule can apply equally as well — with strong protection of public health — to packing/repacking operations as they do to an on-farm operation, provided that both operations are limited to handling, holding, packing or packaging raw, intact produce.

Based on the discussion above, United Fresh also opposes the concept of a “farm mixed-type facility” under this Preventive Controls rule.

3. Exclusion of Mandatory Product Testing

United Fresh agrees with the Office of Management and Budget’s and FDA’s decision to exclude from the rule any mandatory microbiological testing of raw or finished product. While such provisions may appear reasonable to operations that thermally process certain FDA-regulated foods, imposing such requirements on fresh produce is not scientifically valid, creates an unnecessary economic hardship, and may increase food safety risk.

As described in our 2010 comments to FDA on Preventive Controls for Fresh Produce (Docket No. FDA-2010-N-0085), microbial testing is neither an intervention nor a risk management practice. Microbial testing may be part of an operation’s food safety or validation plan, but it cannot be used to prove a product is safe.

Currently, there is no scientific validity to any economically feasible sampling scheme to detect anything but gross contamination, and FDA has recognized that attention to GAPs and GMPs is a more reliable approach to preventing gross contamination. Further, raw materials that are raw agricultural commodities are individual entities; testing of one piece of produce is not likely to be representative of others in that “lot”. Even if a “positive” sample is found for an indicator or pathogen, such a result provides no information about the existence, level or extent of contamination of other produce in the same lot. Therefore, testing raw agricultural commodities is not likely to provide useful information.

Current statistical sampling protocols are based on an assumption of uniform contamination throughout a lot. Industry field testing, of which FDA is aware, has demonstrated that, for operations operating in compliance with the requirements of the proposed Produce Safety rule, this assumption does not hold for fresh produce, where each fruit or vegetable is subject to contamination as a unique entity, not a representative part of a lot. Even under conditions of ingredient blending that may lead to uniform contamination (e.g., fresh-cut salads), the number of samples necessary to detect, with a reasonable statistical confidence, contamination at a frequency less than 1% is impractical (ICMSF, volumes 2 or 7). Therefore, any “negative” test result is essentially meaningless. Even using the ICMSF class 15 sampling protocol for lots with uniform contamination (i.e., 60 samples), a negative test result for all samples only supports that any contamination is present at less than 5%. Consequently, even if test results are negative, this does not provide evidence that no product may be contaminated.

The potential consequence of a mandatory testing program is over-reliance on the results. Anecdotal reports of operations that ignore violations in GAPs and safe handling practices (e.g., ill food contact handlers, potential contamination events linked to raw materials,
observations of pests in storage areas) because “the test results were negative” illustrate the potential food safety consequences. Therefore, reliance on controls that limit the introduction of hazards, limit the growth of pathogens, and/or serve to reduce the levels of hazards are preferred to finished product testing. More on this subject can be found in the Microbiological Testing of Fresh Produce White Paper published by the United Fresh Produce Association Food Safety & Technology Council, which is Attachment A here for the record. (www.unitedfresh.org/assets/food_safety/MicroWhite%20Paper-%20Final.pdf).

Finally, any mandatory finished product testing must consider the impact on short-shelf life produce and weigh the ability of an operation to take effective action based on the results. Despite the limitations of testing fresh produce for human pathogens as described above, business risk management will likely require that entire lots of produce be held back from the supply chain, or at subsequent holding points in distribution, until cleared by “negative” test results. Such delays will have significant quality impact on all fresh and fresh-cut produce, potentially lowering consumer acceptability and consumption of healthy foods. Such testing protocols would also require significant capital investment for produce cold storage and economic consequences from shortened shelf-life, both of which were unlikely to have been considered in FDA’s economic impact.

4. Exclusion of Mandatory Environmental Testing

United Fresh agrees with OMB’s and FDA’s decision to exclude from the rule any mandatory environmental testing. While United Fresh agrees that operations vulnerable to harborage and product contamination by pathogens like Listeria monocytogenes should implement effective facility and equipment monitoring and control programs, not all fresh produce handling operations will be susceptible to such harborage. For such operations, mandatory environmental monitoring would be a wasteful economic burden without public health benefit.

Also, United Fresh is opposed to mandatory environmental monitoring until FDA resolves the consequences of a single detection of L. monocytogenes on a product contact surface. Fresh produce poses a unique situation among FDA regulated foods, in that L. monocytogenes is a soil microorganism and its occasional detection on raw produce does not necessarily indicate poor practices or a contamination event. Therefore, occasional detections of transitory L. monocytogenes on food contact surfaces are expected more often than for other FDA-regulated foods and yet do not necessarily represent a heightened public health risk.

As described in our 2008 comments to FDA on its draft Guidance to Industry on Control of Listeria monocytogenes in Refrigerated or Frozen Ready-To-Eat Foods (Docket No. 2007D–0494), if the fresh-cut produce industry were to implement the testing protocols described in the Guidance, the category may disappear. While the testing recommended in the Guidance, and presumably being considered for reincorporation in Preventive Controls, may be appropriate for some ready-to-eat processed foods with longer shelf-life, they could eliminate many short shelf-life fresh and fresh-cut produce items.

Since our 2008 comments were submitted to FDA, there have been two tragic listeriosis outbreaks linked to fresh produce. In both of those cases, FDA concluded that the contamination event leading to the outbreaks occurred in the handling facilities, not necessarily from Listeria acquired during growing and harvesting. Yet it is FDA’s own policy of “no tolerance” for L. monocytogenes detections on food contact surfaces that results in resistance to routine testing of those surfaces. Mandating environmental monitoring without a tolerance for transitory Listeria will lead to practices designed to ensure that Listeria will not be detected, rather than the desired detection of entrenched Listeria. Let us
be clear – the produce industry wants to aggressively prevent harborages of \textit{L. monocytogenes} in any facilities. But, FDA’s current “no tolerance” policy for \textit{L. monocytogenes} has unintended consequences.

5. Exclusion of Mandatory Product and Environmental Testing and Supplier Approval

United Fresh agrees with OMB’s and FDA’s decision to exclude from the rule a mandatory supplier approval program. While United Fresh recommends that operations only use suppliers who follow GAPs and, as appropriate, GMPs and Preventive Controls, it would be an unnecessary economic burden to require special programs. Because of unforeseeable events (e.g., weather events, late harvests, poor quality, food safety issues with the anticipated lot), fresh produce buyers frequently need to purchase raw materials from substitute suppliers. Requiring pre-approval, let alone verification, of substitute suppliers may prevent companies from meeting production requirements and filling customer orders. Further, such a requirement will be unnecessary after full implementation of proposed parts 112 and 117, when lawful suppliers, both domestic and imported, will already be following necessary food safety practices.

Additional Specific Comments

A. § 117.3 Definitions
   a. “The term ‘undesirable microorganisms’ includes those microorganisms...that subject food to decomposition...” The term “undesirable microorganisms” is used in several places in the proposed rule, e.g. § 117.80(c)(3), “Food that can support the rapid growth of undesirable microorganisms must be held at temperatures that will prevent the food from becoming adulterated during manufacturing, processing, packing and holding.” FDA must make clear that decomposition means a degradation of product that is only relevant when it affects the safety of the product, not simple spoilage, which is an unavoidable condition of fresh produce.
   b. The “environmental pathogen” definition (“a microorganism that is of public health significance and is capable of surviving and persisting within the manufacturing, processing, packing, or holding environment”) only addresses surviving and persisting in a facility and does not address likelihood of contaminating product or becoming a public health risk. For example, \textit{C. botulinum} and \textit{C. perfringens} would fit the existing definition but are not reasonably likely to be public health risks in fresh or fresh-cut produce.
   c. The definition of “lot” (“the food produced during a period of time indicated by a specific code”) appears to ignore other potential definitions, e.g., products with common characteristics, such as origin, variety, type of packing, packer, consignor or markings. Also, multiple “lots” can be produced during the same time (e.g., different processing lines) but with different lot designations. We recommend a more flexible, robust definition, such as “a body of food designated by the facility with common characteristics, e.g., origin, variety, type of packing, packer, consignor, markings or time of harvest, packing or processing, which is separable by such characteristics from other bodies of food.”
   d. “Pest”, defined as “any objectionable animals or insects including birds, rodents, flies, and larvae”, is too vague (e.g., what is meant by objectionable?). We recommend that the definition of pest in the Canadian \textit{Pest Control Products Act} provides more clarity: “An animal, plant or other organism that is directly or indirectly injurious, noxious or troublesome, and an injurious, noxious or troublesome condition or organic function of an animal, a plant or other organism (e.g., rats, mice, birds, reptiles, beetles, weeds, disease, etc.).”
e. “Small business means, for purposes of this part 117, a business employing fewer than 500 persons.” “Very small business means, for purposes of this part 117, a business that has less than $250,000/$500,000/$1,000,000 in total annual sales of food, adjusted for inflation.” FDA is aware that these definitions present inconsistent criteria between small and very small businesses, and are inconsistent with those definitions in the proposed Produce Safety rule (“on a rolling basis, the average annual monetary value of food…you sold during the previous 3-year period is no more than $250,000 (very small)/$500,000 (small)”). Should FDA ultimately choose to define the size of a business by number of employees, criteria must be provided for how to account for temporary and seasonal workers, which constitute a major portion of fresh produce workers.

B. 117.40 (c): “Equipment that is in the manufacturing or food-handling area and that does not come into contact with food must be so constructed that it can be kept in a clean condition.” While a good intention (e.g., to prevent zone 3 harborages), it may be difficult to do (e.g., keeping a motor “clean”). We recommend that FDA change “must” to “should, as practicable”.

C. 117.40 (e): “Each ... cold storage compartment used to store and hold food capable of supporting growth of microorganisms must be fitted with an indicating thermometer, temperature-measuring device, or temperature-recording device so installed as to show the temperature accurately within the compartment.” At this time, science has not revealed any raw, intact produce that require temperature control during storage for food safety. We recommend that FDA clarify that this is only for foods that require temperature control for food safety, and does not apply to any intact fruits or vegetables which, when held at specific temperatures, are so held only for quality and shelf-life purposes.

D. 117.80 (a)(1): “All operations in the manufacturing, processing, packing and holding of food (including operations directed to receiving, inspecting, transporting, and segregating) must be conducted in accordance with adequate sanitation principles.” FDA must remember that receiving areas in operations that receive raw produce from the farm may be wet and muddy during operations, but are cleaned daily.

E. 117.80 (b)(1): “...Containers and carriers of raw materials should be inspected on receipt to ensure that their condition has not contributed to cross-contact, contamination, or deterioration of food”. Fresh produce bins can be large and impractical to inspect individually on receipt. Some are emptied mechanically without inspection, relying on suppliers to control the quality of the containers. We recommend that FDA keep this as “should, as practicable”.

F. 117.80 (b)(2): “Raw materials and ingredients must either not contain levels of microorganisms that may render the food injurious to the health of humans, or they must be pasteurized or otherwise treated during manufacturing operations so that they no longer contain levels that would cause the product to be adulterated.” While fresh produce suppliers will follow practices to minimize the risk of contamination, growing produce is not risk free, and fresh produce cannot be pasteurized.

G. 117.93: “Storage and transportation of food must be under conditions that will protect against...deterioration of the food....” Even under the best conditions, produce will spoil/deteriorate.

H. 117.130(b)(4) “Radiological hazards”. We recognize that FSMA directed FDA to consider radiological hazards separately from chemical hazards. FDA has recognized the rarity of
a radiological hazard reasonably likely to occur, and that frequency does not deserve a special category of consideration. Therefore, we recommend that FDA include radiological hazards as a subset within “chemical”, and not require all food safety plans to specifically address the likelihood of radiological hazards. If situations change, FDA has the authority to act in case of special circumstances.

I. 117.145 (b)(1) “Take corrective action to identify and correct the problem to reduce the likelihood that the problem will recur…” Absent a kill step and an identified source of contamination, fresh and fresh-cut operations are unlikely to prevent recurrence of occasional detections of human pathogens, particularly *L. monocytogenes*, which is a soil microorganism whose normal habitat is in the field. Further, FDA recognizes that preventive controls may only be able to “significantly minimize”, which is inconsistent with an expectation to prevent recurrence.

J. 117.150 (a) “…a facility must validate that the preventive controls identified and implemented…are adequate to do so.” Validating fresh and fresh-cut preventive controls to the level expected of thermal and aseptic processes would be cost prohibitive and unlikely to have been considered in FDA’s regulatory impact. FDA must provide clarification on expectations for a validated process.

K. 117.155 (c) “All applicable training must be documented in records, including the date of the training, the type of training, and the person(s) trained.” The provision for records of training cannot be met when the required training is by job experience.

L. Subpart D. Subpart D requires clarification that warehouses and operations that only hold food not exposed to the environment and not requiring temperature control for safety are exempt from Subpart C, and are exempt from both Subparts B and C if only handling raw agricultural commodities, as described in the preamble.

M. In subpart D there is insufficient information regarding FDA’s definition of “exposed”. For example, some produce containers have vent holes to allow for temperature control and for air exchange. Others have only hand holes, while others have unsealed lids, or may be plastic wrapped (e.g. pallets), or be in bags that have microperforations or are sealed but are designed to be permeable to gases or moisture. Most of these are not reasonably likely to be subject to contamination from the environment.

N. 117.305(a) “Records must...be kept in accordance with part 11 of this chapter.” While large operations may maintain records electronically and have invested in part 11-compliant software, small operations, if they use electronic records, often maintain them on open software (e.g., Excel). According to part 11, “Persons who use open systems to create, modify, maintain, or transmit electronic records shall employ procedures and controls designed to ensure the authenticity, integrity, and, as appropriate, the confidentiality of electronic records from the point of their creation to the point of their receipt. Such procedures and controls shall include those identified in 11.10, as appropriate and additional measures such as document encryption and use of appropriate digital signature standards to ensure, as necessary under the circumstances, record authenticity, integrity, and confidentiality.” Operations that are keeping electronic records that are not part 11-compliant will need to invest in expensive computer software or programming consultants to adapt existing systems, or revert to paper for required records. We recommend that FDA delete this requirement from the regulation without disallowing electronic records and provide, in Guidance, how operations should (not shall) protect electronic records from intentional or unintentional falsification. Doing so in no way relieves an operation from its responsibility to maintain accurate records.
O. 117.315 (c) “Except for the food safety plan, offsite storage of records is permitted after 6 months following the date that the record was made if such records can be retrieved and provided onsite within 24 hours of request for official review.” The requirement to keep records on site for 6 months should be deleted. The provision to provide required records within 24 hours of request should suffice, and is more consistent with FDA’s statement that redundant records are not required.

Finally, we also call FDA’s attention to extensive comments on the Preventive Controls rule submitted by the Grocery Manufacturers Association. Other than where specific comments above identify unique considerations, we believe these comments to be particularly appropriate to reflect our views on behalf of the fresh-cut produce sectors and our members who minimally process fresh produce.

The members of United Fresh hope that FDA finds value in these considered comments, and we stand ready to clarify or assist FDA in these recommended changes to the proposed rule.

Respectfully submitted,

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OBJECTIVE

The purpose of this white paper is to briefly identify where a microbiological testing program may be useful and considerations to take for designing and implementing a program.

It is not the intention of this paper to establish specific microbiological testing recommendations or requirements for any fruit or vegetable product or commodity.

This paper was developed based on the best available current knowledge, and implications may change as more data are collected regarding the microbiology of fresh fruit and vegetable products.

INTRODUCTION

Food safety is an integral part of the production of all foods and the shared responsibility of all segments of the supply chain. In recent times there has been increased awareness for the need to evaluate the food safety practices in the production of agricultural products. Consumer demands for fresh and convenient forms of produce have led to the development of “Field to Fork” food safety practices in the fresh produce industry. The use of a microbiological testing program is one tool that may be used in the development and verification of a food safety program.

For purposes of this white paper, the term “produce” is synonymous with “fruits and vegetables”.

BACKGROUND

Microbiological testing is not a guarantee of product safety. It is one component of an overall food safety system. Before microbiological testing is initiated, prerequisite programs must be in place. These should include programs that are appropriate to the specific operation, such as: Good Agricultural Practices (GAP), Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP), Sanitation Practices, Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP), Traceability and Recall Management.

When sampling plans and methodology are properly designed and performed, microbiological testing can provide important information about an environment, a process, and even a specific product lot. However, when not properly designed and performed,
testing can provide inaccurate information that can easily be taken out of context and create unwarranted concerns or false reassurances about the safety of the product.

Proper testing design depends on a number of pre-sample factors, including:

- The intended purpose of the test
- The intended target organism that is being tested for
- Where the sample is in the supply chain
- The commodity under consideration, knowledge of the growing, harvesting, and processing control strategies;
- The region where the product is grown;
- The intended use of the product.
- The level of "stringency" required and level of "confidence" required to demonstrate that level of stringency is being achieved.

The design of microbiological testing programs is a complex process and microbiological testing is not a standalone program.

ASSESSING THE NEED TO TEST

Risk can easily be defined: it is the possibility that an undesirable outcome will occur. However, the quantification of risk in order to develop sound risk management programs is a much more daunting task. Developing a thorough understanding of the probabilities of all alternative outcomes throughout the process is the essential first step in determining the need to test. From a microbial food safety standpoint, this means identifying all the possible sources/points that pathogens may contribute to one of the two final, alternative outcomes: pathogen detected or not detected.

However, it is important to realize that microbiological testing can never determine whether a food is pathogen-free, unless 100% of the food is tested (and then there is nothing left to sell or eat). The most one can achieve with microbiological testing is "pathogen not detected" and understand the levels of sensitivity and confidence provided by the sampling plans and testing methodologies used. International organizations recommend testing only when there is good evidence that there is a microbiological problem and that testing will help to control the problem (Codex and ICMSF). Any misunderstanding in what is achievable by microbiological testing, and the limitations of such testing, will tend to waste resources, product and potentially create a worse food safety situation than if no testing was performed.

Why test?

Any testing program should be science-based and objective driven. Prior to implementation one should know why the testing is being performed, the basic assumptions underlying the test, the relative certainty of detecting an issue, and potential results. This will allow one to identify the type of samples to be collected, the sampling plan to be used, the specific test to be performed, and actions to be taken prior to and after the test results are obtained.

Typical reasons for testing in the fresh produce industry are:

1) Meeting product specifications(inputs and finished product)
2) Baseline development and identification of risk factors,
3) Process capability/validation,
4) Process verification,
5) Investigative testing and remedial activity verification, and
6) Verifying that regulatory guidelines have been met.

(1) Product specifications.

The most common reason for microbiological testing in the fresh produce industry today is to comply with a product specification. Inherent in any product specification are assumptions that the sampling and test methods will provide a standard deviation and level of confidence in test results such that the user of the result will "know" that their specification was or was not met. In reality, specifications are rarely set by statisticians, and users wrongly assume that the number they've selected is an absolute limit. Consequently, test and method developers must take these expectations into consideration when establishing sampling plans and interpretations of the results.

So, in a practical sense, specifications should identify:

- The product to be tested
- The frequency of testing (e.g., every fifth lot shipped to Customer)
- The sample size and how the sample is to be collected (e.g., a 125 g composite of five 25 g samples collected from the beginning, middle and end of the production run)
- The target organism
- Test method
- Acceptance criteria (examples: "not to exceed $10^6$ cfu/g aerobic plate count", "not to exceed 1000 cfu/g yeast and mold", or "no detectable *Salmonella* or *E. coli* O157:H7 in 25 g")
- Actions to be taken in the event that the acceptance criteria are exceeded.

Best practices dictate that any lots tested for pathogens are maintained in the supplier’s control until cleared by the test results.

(2) Baseline determination and identification of risk factors.

Prior to using microbiological testing to assess quality, safety or process verification, it is important to understand what’s statistically "normal". Microbiological testing can be useful to understand the range of microbial populations that can be observed and how they may change by specific type of produce, growing and handling practices, season, weather, geography, environmental controls and other effectors that may not be as obvious. Baseline assessment should take place over a timeframe sufficient to capture the variability of interest, e.g., hourly, daily or seasonally.

Key elements of a baseline assessment are:

- Standardization of test methodology to enable comparing and compiling of data;
- Establishing the frequency, number of tests and/or period of time required to have confidence in the accuracy of the baseline;
- Managing such data through "control charting" (a graphic representation of the data) and/or in a database; and
- Analyzing for trends and patterns

(3) Process capability/validation.
Microbiological testing can be used to “validate” the process’ capability to reduce a particular or overall microbial population, or at least to ensure that the process does not allow microorganisms to grow or spread throughout a lot. Validations most often begin with whatever background microflora that comes with the test lot. It is important to have an accurate assessment of the variability (levels and type) of this target microflora in the starting material. Samples are collected at points in the process, to assess the impact of individual steps. Properly performed, a validation study may conclude that “under the conditions of this study, this process is consistently capable of producing product with an acceptable level of microbial quality.”

The benefits of a validated process are:

1) The operator understands the factors that are critical to control to produce reliable results
2) The operator understands the limits at which those factors must be maintained, and
3) Routine monitoring of the microbiological quality of individual lots can be greatly reduced.

(4) **Process verification.**

Process verification utilizes microbiological testing to “verify” (i.e., confirm) that the “process” performed as anticipated. Process verification differs from validation in that validation utilizes an initial, fixed, predetermined number of repetitions and tests, while verification involves periodic, ongoing testing. Process verification is intended to demonstrate your validated process is functioning as designed, i.e., one is not getting statistically significantly different results than those observed during the validation trials.

(5) **Investigative testing and remedial action verification.**

Microbiological testing can be a very effective tool to investigate sources and causes of an unexpected microbiological result. For example, if a process verification test indicates a much higher aerobic plate count than expected, or if an undesirable and unexpected microorganism is detected in a finished product, targeted microbiological testing can be used to:

a. investigate the source of the unexpected microorganisms
b. verify that remedial action was successful in eliminating the source.

(6) **Verifying that regulatory guidelines have been met.**

Microbiological testing can be used to demonstrate compliance to published regulatory guidelines or requirements.

**A. Why Not to Test**

1) Used as a substitute for sound process controls
2) Repeat testing to negate an unwanted or undesired result
3) “Prove” that a contaminated product is “safe”
(1) Process Control

Microbiological testing is not a substitute for a sound process. Process control, if achievable, will always be more effective and reliable than microbiological testing in assuring microbiological quality and safety.

(2) Unwanted/Undesired Results

An unacceptable microbiological result is always valid unless there is a sound reason (i.e. lab error) that the result may be false. Produce grown outdoors is subject to random environmental factors. This results in the microorganisms present to be non-uniform in distribution. Multiple testing of the same lot can provide very different results. Retesting and getting a “negative” result after getting a “positive” result does not negate the positive result.

(3) Contaminated Product

If a produce product becomes contaminated with a pathogen of public health significance, it is considered adulterated. Unless an acceptable, effective reprocessing method can be employed to eliminate the contaminant, the product cannot be “tested” into safety. The FDA does not currently recognize any reprocessing method, other than diversion to a cooked or otherwise pasteurized product, as an acceptable method to “clear” an adulterated fresh produce product.

B. What to test

In selecting what should be sampled and tested, first understand the objective of the test as noted in section A. Second, select samples or sampling points most likely to achieve that objective.

Items to consider when determining what to test are:

- What is the target microorganism of interest and where may it be observed?
- The expected prevalence of the microorganism in the product, process or environment: Is it commonly found or rarely found?
- The expected distribution of the microorganism in the product, process or environment: Is it uniformly distributed or a sporadic event?
- Are there practices (or failure to follow them), conditions, or events with a history of leading to contamination events? For example: Product flow fails to follow a raw to process pattern, which causes a mingling of raw product and processed product and potential cross contamination of the finished product.

Where answers to these questions may indicate a need for testing, an evaluation must be done to determine the appropriate step in the process where testing may provide information that is most useful.

The following are examples of what could be subject to testing and the rationale for testing:

- Water: Generic E. coli, which may be present in irrigation canal water if fecal contamination has occurred, in levels and distributions depending on the source of the E. coli and, if present in high numbers, may indicate a fecal contamination which indicates the potential presence of human pathogens.
• Compost: Thermotolerant coliforms, which are expected to be present in raw manure in a generally uniform distribution and, if present in composted manure, may indicate incomplete composting.
• Environmental Testing: *Listeria spp.* are not expected to be present in the produce processing area. If present, *Listeria spp.* are expected to be distributed sporadically and, if detected, may indicate harborage of *Listeria monocytogenes*.

**When to test**

As with all aspects of microbiological testing, when to sample, the frequency of sampling/testing and the size/number of samples to analyze, should be objective driven. The timing or frequency of sampling and testing affect the likelihood of achieving the objectives of the testing.

**QUESTIONS TO ANSWER TO DETERMINE WHEN TO SAMPLE AND TEST**

1. What information do we want the test to give us?
2. Where are those test organisms most likely to be found?
3. Do we have any information or evidence of contamination or potential contamination?
4. When is contamination most likely to occur?
5. What is the expected prevalence of the target organism?
6. What is the expected distribution of the test organism?
7. What are the expected levels of the organism, if present?
8. Do we have sampling plans and testing methodologies available that can reliably detect the test organism at the expected distribution and levels, if present?
9. Will the test results be available in time to take action, if needed?

When testing finished product, the best time to sample the product would be after the last potential source of contamination, as defined by a hazard assessment. In the absence of a hazard assessment, then sampling might be performed as soon after completion of the process as feasible; e.g., after packaging or from shipping containers.

**Limitations of testing.**

Just as one should know why the testing is being performed, it is important to know that the reasons for testing are valid and that testing is an effective tool towards achieving the objective.

• **Microbiological testing is not a substitute for a reliable and validated process.** Ongoing, validated process control, if achievable, will be more effective and reliable than microbiological testing in assuring microbiological safety.
  
  o **Example** – real time monitoring and verification of antimicrobial levels in flume water provides actionable information for immediate process control, as opposed to microbiological testing which provides information after the fact and too late to take effective action.

• **Testing cannot assure the absence of pathogens.** There is a natural tendency to believe that a negative test result means the product is safe, even if a process goes out of control and there is reason to believe that the product may be contaminated. Before relying solely on a negative test result to affirm the safety of a material, remember there is truth to the adage, "absence of evidence is not evidence of
absence.” The effectiveness of microbiological testing to detect lots that are contaminated decreases when the defect rate (e.g., the percentage of contamination in a single produce item or lot of items) falls below approximately 5%

- **Product reconditioning.** FDA does not recognize any process (other than diversion to a product that is cooked or will otherwise receive pasteurizing treatment) for reconditioning fresh produce that may have been adulterated with pathogens.

**MICROBIOLOGY**

**C. Which microorganisms to test for**

Many different kinds of microorganisms can be found on fresh produce, and most have little to no effect on humans, even if consumed in large numbers. Only a relative few have the ability to cause human illness. Fresh and fresh-cut produce are not sterile products. The microorganisms present fluctuate greatly depending on the type and variety of produce, the season and weather, the growing conditions and locations, as well as the health and condition of the produce.

**Aerobic Plate Count**

- Aerobic plate count (APC), also known as Total Plate Count (TPC) is used as an indicator of the number of bacteria in a food product. APC only measures those microorganisms capable of growing at 30-37°C in the presence of oxygen.
- Aerobic plate counts are typically incubated at 35±1°C for 48±3 hours, but other temperatures (e.g. 25°C) may be used.
- It is not unusual for Aerobic Plate Counts on produce to range from thousands to millions (10³ to 10⁷/g) depending on the commodity. Many of these organisms cannot grow at the low temperatures used for storing fresh and fresh-cut produce, and fewer can grow in an oxygen-depleted atmosphere. Further, many of the organisms that can grow at low temperatures cannot grow at the higher temperature used for the APC test.
- It is important to remember that microorganisms detected by APC are usually not pathogens, APC results do not correlate well with the potential for pathogen contamination, and are not useful predictors of product safety.

- When to measure:
  1. Trend analysis of finished product microbial ecology
  2. Environmental indicator of sanitation processes
  3. Indicator of process control
  4. Have a reason to suspect that the microbiological quality of the product may be unacceptable.

- When not to measure:
  1. Indicator of safety
  2. Indicator of the presence or absence of pathogens
  3. Routine indicator of initial quality
  4. When baseline studies demonstrate that product or environmental conditions normally have a wide variability in microbial populations

**Psychrotrophs**
Psychrotrophs are microorganisms capable of growing at refrigeration temperatures. They may or may not be able to grow at higher temperatures. The microorganisms capable of spoiling fresh produce under refrigerated conditions are psychrotrophs.

- Incubation parameter for psychrotroph growth is 7°C± 1°C for 4-10 days.
- Total Psychrotrophic Counts have been used by some as an indicator of microbial quality. Total Psychrotrophic Count is not generally considered a good indicator of potential pathogen contamination.

When to measure:
1. Profiling spoilage processes of refrigerated products

When not to measure:
1. Indicator of safety
2. Indicator of the presence or absence of pathogens
3. Indicator of initial quality
4. When rapid results are necessary, because the test takes 4-10 days

Yeast/Mold

- A variety of yeast and molds are commonly found on fresh produce, usually at far lower numbers than bacteria. Yeast and molds tend to have the most effect on fruit quality, because of the higher sugar content and lower pH of many fruits.
- Yeasts and molds are typically grown at 20-25°C for 3-5 days. These organisms tend to grow more slowly than the bacteria detected by APC; slow enough that detection usually requires a test that inhibits the growth of bacteria.
- They are not important spoilage factors in fresh-cut vegetables because their growth is generally far slower than the enzymatic or psychrotrophic bacterial spoilage of the fresh-cut produce.
- It is highly unlikely that the yeast and molds typically found on fresh produce will cause illness, and they are not good indicators of potential pathogen contamination.

When to Measure:
1. Indicator of quality for fruit products
2. Indicator of air quality in coolers and fruit packing facilities

When not to measure:
1. Indicator of safety
2. Indicator of the presence or absence of pathogens
3. When rapid results are necessary, because the test takes 3-5 days

Coliforms

- “Coliforms” includes a wide array of bacterial genera, and were so named because they were originally thought to grow only in an animal’s or human’s colon. It is now known that coliforms grow in a wide variety of environments.
- Incubation for coliforms occurs at 35±1°C for 24-48 hours.
- Because some coliforms are part of the natural flora of produce, they are not an accurate indicator of fecal contamination for these products. Consequently, coliform testing has limited value in fresh produce.

When to measure:
1. Indicator of potable water quality
When not to measure:
1. Indicator of safety of fresh produce
2. Indicator of the presence or absence of pathogens in fresh produce
3. Indicator of initial quality

**Thermotolerant or “fecal” coliforms**

- “Fecal coliforms” are coliforms that are able to grow at higher incubation temperatures
- Incubation for fecal coliforms is typically 44.5 - 45.5°C for 24-48 hours.
- There has been a movement to rename this group “thermotolerant coliforms” because not all so-called fecal coliforms are of fecal origin. Because of this, care must be taken in interpreting the significance of fecal coliform results. For example, it may be very appropriate to verify the adequacy of a manure compost operation using thermotolerant coliforms to ensure that their numbers are reduced; however, testing fresh produce for this group of organisms may have questionable value since they can be part of the normal flora of the plants.
- Detecting thermotolerant coliforms does not necessarily indicate the presence of either fecal matter or pathogens.

When to measure:
1. Indicator of proper compost treatment.

When not to measure:
1. Indicator of safety of fresh produce
2. Indicator of the presence or absence of pathogens in fresh produce
3. Indicator of initial quality

**Generic E. coli**

- Generic *E. coli* are non-pathogenic. These organisms are ubiquitous to most animal, including human, digestive systems and are beneficial to digestive health.
- The minimum growth temperature for generic *E. coli* is about 7°C/45°F, so it is unlikely to become established or grow in a fresh-cut processing environment when the environmental temperature is maintained at <4°C/40°F.
- Testing for generic *E. coli* using traditional most probable number (MPN) and direct plating methods typically take 48 hours at 35±1° C for results. Recent advances in microbiological testing have been able to reduce this time in some cases to a shorter period (e.g. 24 hrs for Colilert® water testing).
- Generic *E. coli* has long been used as an indicator of fecal contamination in water treatment because it is present in almost all fecal samples.
- Generic *E. coli* is generally considered a better indicator of the potential for fecal contact than APC or coliforms, but does not necessarily indicate the presence of pathogens.
- The levels of *E. coli* do not necessarily correspond to the initial level of fecal contamination in food products that support its growth, but may be indicative of conditions (e.g., temperature abuse) that could support the growth of mesophilic pathogenic bacteria.

When to measure:
1. Indicator of water quality
2. Indicator of proper compost treatment
• When not to measure:
  1. Indicator of shelf life
  2. Indicator of initial quality

Pathogen Testing

• A pathogen is any agent (bacteria, virus, etc.) that may cause human or animal illness or disease.
• Technology has advanced to permit direct testing for many pathogens in a relatively rapid manner.
• It is recommended that the selection of pathogen tests be “risk based”. That is, testing should be designed for pathogens that may be present based on historical or lot specific evidence. For example, the human pathogens \textit{Staphylococcus aureus} and \textit{Clostridium perfringens} are responsible for many foodborne illnesses every year, but neither has been identified as a pathogen of concern for fresh produce, so routine testing of fresh produce for either is unlikely to provide value.
• Considerations when testing for pathogens in fresh and fresh cut produce:
  o If present, the pathogens will usually be at such a low level, and so heterogeneously distributed, as to make it a “needle in a haystack” chance of detecting them by anything less than extensive product sampling.
  o A negative result does not necessarily mean that the product lot was pathogen-free. Properly designed, sampling, and testing for pathogens may be able to detect “gross contamination” (i.e., high frequency contamination events in the same field or produce lot at pathogen levels higher than normal), but is often unreliable in detecting the low levels of contamination that have typically been found when pathogens are detected in produce grown under GAPs (Good Agricultural Practices).
  o Since most test results will be negative, little data that can direct continuous improvement efforts are generated through pathogen testing.
  o Whenever testing for a pathogen, it is important to hold that product lot until cleared by the test results.

• When to test:
  1. When there is reason to suspect contamination with pathogens or fecal contact, either directly (e.g., animals) or indirectly (e.g., contaminated water or improperly treated compost).
  2. When there are significant numbers of generic \textit{E. coli} in water that have contacted the edible portion of the plant.
  3. When there is evidence that prerequisite programs have not been properly or adequately followed.
  4. When there is evidence that a food safety process is out of control.

• When not to test:
  1. When there is no reason to suspect contamination

Environmental Testing
Environmental monitoring programs are a commonly used tool to assess microbial contamination and to track sanitation effectiveness in a processing facility.

Aerobic Plate Counts or coliforms are used by some to measure the effectiveness of environmental sanitation, as virtually all non-sporeforming bacteria are expected to be eliminated by an effective sanitation program. However, microbiological testing has largely been replaced by ATP testing procedures, which provide real-time results of sanitation effectiveness. While ATP tests do not reliably correlate with microbial levels, experience has demonstrated the superiority of ATP tests as a sanitation monitoring tool.

Environmental monitoring for pathogens like *E. coli* O157:H7, *Salmonella* or *Shigella* is rarely done in fresh-cut operations because the typical environmental temperature in a fresh-cut operation is less than 40ºF, generally below the minimum growth temperature for most human pathogens, including the three mentioned, so such pathogens are not reasonably likely to be able to become established.

In fresh cut operations, environmental testing is often performed to detect the presence of *Listeria* which is able to grow at temperatures less than 40ºF. While, *Listeria* may be present on produce in the field, experience has demonstrated that, when it occurs, it is predominantly an environmental contaminant of processing facilities with cold and/or wet environments. Consequently, fresh-cut processors, like most ready-to-eat product processors, use environmental testing for *Listeria* spp. as an indicator to detect potential harborage of the pathogenic species *Listeria monocytogenes*.

Although *Listeria monocytogenes* is a potentially dangerous human pathogen, with a high mortality rate, fresh and commercially prepared fresh-cut produce has not been associated with a listeriosis outbreak in the U.S. since the early 1980’s, when listeriosis was first recognized as a foodborne human disease. Consequently, fresh and commercially-prepared fresh-cut produce are not considered high risk for *L. monocytogenes* exposure. However, a prudent fresh-cut processor will maintain an environmental monitoring program in the processing area for *Listeria* spp.

Monitoring for *Listeria* spp. in a raw material area is rarely useful, because transient positives of the organism are expected from field sources. However, with proper trimming, washing and other interventions, low levels of these transient pathogens are not expected to persist through the fresh-cut process.

Any microbiological monitoring is not usually advised in areas where fresh produce is not exposed, e.g., after packaging, as the risk of contamination from the environment is not reasonably likely to occur.

A single positive result for *Listeria* spp. in a non-food contact environmental sample of a processing area would not necessarily be a cause for concern because *Listeria* positives are often transient and non-repeating. However, a repetitive positive would be cause for investigation of the environment for potential harborage points, sanitation practices, and GMPs.

Product testing for *L. monocytogenes* is not often recommended, for the same reasons as noted above for pathogen testing, unless there was reason to believe that the risk of *L. monocytogenes* presence was higher than normal.

When to test:
1. As part of a routine environmental monitoring program of fresh-cut processing areas for *Listeria*.
2. If contamination is suspected.

When not to test:
1. For environmental monitoring of areas where conditions are not typically favorable for the harborage of *Listeria*.
2. When ATP testing can be used to provide real-time results.
3. When the target organism is not reasonably likely to colonize the environment.
4. In raw product areas where transient *Listeria* positives from the field are expected.
5. In areas where finished product is not exposed to a risk of environmental contamination (e.g., fresh-cut salads after packaging).

**D. Test methods to use**

The selection of test method is often dictated by the conditions of the test, such as the target organism, the material or surface to be tested, whether testing for presence/absence or for quantitative levels, and how soon the results are needed.

Standardization of test methods enables comparing and compiling data with others who may be conducting similar tests in different regions. This allows the management of such data in a database that brings more value than the individual test results by facilitating trend analysis, pattern identification, and input for risk analysis. For example, when evaluating the microbiological quality of a common water supply, pooling data for that water supply from a number of sources would accumulate data to establish a baseline of expected results, and more quickly to potentially identify a possible source of contamination. This type of testing has a great potential to identify and prioritize risks, and subsequently control strategies to reduce risks that warrant control.

**Validated Methods**

Ideally, the test method used has been validated for the target organism and for the material being tested to ensure accuracy, precision, and reproducibility.

Important points to consider in the selection of a method:

- It has been validated for the material of interest.
- It has been validated against an internationally recognized official method such as AOAC International or Bacteriological Analytical Method (BAM).
- It has been validated through an independent validation study (internal or third party)

The importance of selecting a properly validated method cannot be overstated. Historically there was little interest in testing fresh produce therefore many available testing methods have not been specifically validated for fresh produce applications. This is particularly true for more recently developed, rapid methods.

**Types of Test Methods**

While there are wide ranges of technologies for the detection of microorganisms, the three most common commercially available types are: cultural, immunoassay, and PCR.

- Cultural Methods
  - Cultural methods are typically tests that allow the target organism, if present, to grow to levels that can be seen or otherwise detected.
  - Historically, cultural methods have been the tests of choice for fresh produce. However, because of recent developments in the methods and validation studies, immunoassay and PCR methods are becoming more accepted.
  - Cultural methods can show the presence/absence of an organism (qualitative) or can provide information on the number of organisms present through plate counts or Most Probable Number/MPN (quantitative).
Produce plating methods can produce a live, isolated sample that can be further tested to verify the results. MPN methods require additional handling to produce a live, isolated sample for further testing. Plating methods are relatively insensitive, with a minimum level of detection of about 10-100 cfu/gm (colony forming units per gram of test material), unless paired with a cultural pre-enrichment. MPN methods can be more sensitive, with a minimum level of detection of about 1 cfu/g.

- Time to obtain results can range from 12 hours to more than a week.

**Immunooassay:**
- One common, commercially available type is ELISA (Enzyme-Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay, i.e. “dip stick” or “pregnancy test” type method or 96-well methods).
- Uses antibodies to detect specific proteins that are expected to be unique to the target microorganism.
- Methods are typically presence/absence tests but some can be quantitative.
- Immunooassay methods are only sensitive if paired with a cultural enrichment.
- Results are usually obtained in 24-48 hrs, including time for cultural enrichment.
- Additional cultural handling is required to produce a live, isolated sample for further testing.
- Have been known to be susceptible to false negative and false positive results with various produce matrices.

**PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) Methods:**
- This type of test recognizes pieces of DNA or RNA that are expected to be unique to the target microorganism.
- PCR methods are typically presence/absence tests but some can be quantitative.
- PCR tests can be rapid and sensitive methods, particularly if paired with a cultural pre-enrichment.
- Results are usually obtained in 24-48 hours, including time for cultural pre-enrichment, although results can be obtained in less than a day if pre-enrichment is not used.
- Additional cultural handling is required to produce a live, isolated sample for further testing.
- Validated PCR tests rarely cross-react with other non-target microorganisms.

### Confirmation Testing

During initial screening of a food product for a pathogen, most microbiological tests, particularly presence/absence tests, are designed to provide either a “negative” result, where no further testing is required, or a “presumptive positive” result, which requires further testing. A presumptive positive result is NOT a positive result until confirmation testing is performed.

Many test kits that are designed to detect the presence of one specific target organism (such as *Salmonella*) can also detect organisms that are similar to, but not, the target organism. This situation yields a “false positive” or “presumptive positive” result.

A false positive is when the test, taken to completion, yields a result that the target organism is present, when it really is not. A key aspect of the method validation process is to determine the frequency and causes of false positive results, so that users of the test can be aware and take steps to detect false positive results.
A presumptive positive, on the other hand, is when the test detects an organism that might be the target and cannot quickly yield a result that the target organism is not present. Many tests are designed with a screening feature, that can indicate that no organism matching the target organism is present, quickly clearing the tested material. When a presumptive positive result occurs, the test must be taken to completion to “confirm” whether the detected organism is the target organism or only an organism that behaves similarly in the test. It is important to understand that a presumptive positive that is confirmed as “negative” is not a false positive; a presumptive positive is only a preliminary indication that the target organism may be present.

There may be occasions that justify using a second validated test to further confirm the results of the first test, such as when a test result is unexpected. However, it is important that such confirmation testing be performed only with the original sample or enrichments from the original sample. Testing a different sample, even if it is a “split sample” of the original, cannot be used to negate a positive finding in the first sample.

II. DEVELOPING A TESTING PROGRAM

Determining the quantity of samples

Selecting an appropriate number of samples to test, and understanding the level of confidence in the result that those samples represent, is one of the biggest weaknesses in microbiological testing of fresh produce today. Too frequently, a testing protocol or customer specification will state the maximum acceptable number (e.g., <1000 coliform/g, or none detected in 25 g) and either provide no number or some low number of samples to test, expecting that any sample tested will provide 100% confidence in the result. The International Commission on Microbiological Specifications for Foods (ICMSF, volume 7) examined the statistical confidence of test results on the basis of samples tested, and reported that the probability that a test result will give a false sense of security depends on what level of contamination is present, what percent of the lot is actually contaminated at that level, and how many samples are tested.

Table 1, adapted from ICMSF volume 7, Table 7-1, shows the probability of accepting a contaminated lot (i.e., getting an acceptable test result on a lot that is actually contaminated) on the basis of contamination rate and the number of samples tested.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Composition of lot</th>
<th>% probability of accepting a defective lot at the number of sample units tested from that lot</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% acceptable</td>
<td>% defective</td>
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<td>98</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>95</td>
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<td>90</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. *< means less than a 0.5% probability

From the table, one can see, for example, that if a test result is based on 3 samples tested, there is less than a 0.5% chance of missing the contamination if the lot is 90% contaminated, but a 94% chance of missing the contamination if the lot is 2% defective (2 of every 100 leaves or fruit or other unit). At contamination rates less than 2%, one is virtually guaranteed to miss the contamination if testing only 3 samples. The table also shows that if one is trying to detect lots that are 2% contaminated, testing 100 samples would still leave you with a 13% chance of missing the contamination (collecting 100 samples and compositing them may or may not improve the chances of detecting contamination, depending on the test and whether it has been validated for compositing). While increasing the number of samples to be tested would seem an obvious solution, the table shows that one would have to test an impractical number of samples to detect low levels of contamination with any reasonable level of confidence. Taken to the extreme, the only way to achieve near 0% chance of missing a lot contaminated at very low levels would be to test everything. So, if one wants to determine if a lot is contaminated based on, for example, 5 samples, one can either accept good confidence of detecting gross contamination (1% chance of missing a lot contaminated at 60%) or poor confidence of detecting low level contamination (90% chance of missing a lot contaminated at 2%).

Ensuring proper sample collection

The accuracy of a test is as dependent on proper sampling technique as on the test itself. Ideally, sample-handling procedures are defined for the specific test method, and all training on sample collection recorded. The following can be used as general guidelines:

- **Training in sample collection** – The sample collector must be trained on how the sample is to be collected, including where and when in the process, how much sample, and specific methods and techniques for collecting the sample.

- **Aseptic technique** – The sample collector must be trained in aseptic sampling procedures. This minimizes the potential for contamination from other sources, including the individual collecting the sample, and from causing a false positive reaction. When aseptic sampling is not practical, such as sampling water at the end of irrigation line, the use of sterile containers and sanitized gloves or handling utensils and careful handling procedures will help minimize the potential for sample contamination.

- **Traceability** – It is essential that all samples, regardless of number, be clearly and accurately identified. At a minimum, a sample should have the following identification information: sampling date and time, sample location or other relative identification, and the person performing the sampling. Depending on the product, additional information such a lot code and sample ID number may be required.

- **Temperature control** – Unless specified otherwise by the test method, fresh produce, water and environmental samples should be chilled (32º-40ºF) as soon after collecting the sample as practical and kept cold, without freezing, until tested. A time/temperature recorder, or other device to verify proper temperature control, is recommended if the samples are shipped or held for more than a few hours before testing.

- **Time Dependency** – Even at low temperatures, microorganisms in the sample may grow or die if held for too long before testing, potentially causing erroneous results. Samples should be tested as soon after collection as practical, but should be within
24 or 48 hrs, depending on the test, with < 30 hrs (1 day) highly recommended, especially for environmental swab samples.

- **Sample Handling** – Even when all sampling procedures and techniques are followed, the result will only be as good as the final sample handling. Samples must be handled in an aseptic manner with sterile supplies. Only sterile bags and dilution bottles are to be used. All media need to be properly sterilized before use and when possible, use pre-made media. Work areas must be sanitized and supplies such as pipettes, used in an aseptic manner.

- **Negative Control** – Negative controls should be included as part of sample collection to ensure that proper technique was employed and cross contamination was avoided. The negative control samples should be handled in a manner identical to that of all other samples within the lot. Collection data, storage and handling should be identical to that of true samples to be tested.

**Selecting a Sample Site**

The selection of a sample site must reflect the intended goal of the testing program. This may include the product itself, product-contact environmental, non-product contact environmental, field or water samples.

Some examples of sample site selection follow:

- **Example 1**: Raw agricultural commodity testing prior to harvest:

  If it is a general field-testing program, samples must be taken from areas that clearly represent the field. On the other hand, if there is a need to identify the possible effect of a localized contamination, such as animal intrusion in a field, then sampling should be restricted to only the affected areas.

- **Example 2**: Measuring the effectiveness of antimicrobial treatments in process wash water at various concentrations:

  If the goal is to validate the effectiveness of an antimicrobial treatment in process wash water, samples taken at the point of the flume where antimicrobial is added may provide misleading results. Sampling should be conducted near the end of the flume in addition to the beginning to clearly identify the treatment’s efficacy.

- **Example 3**: Process verification of sanitation effectiveness.

  Testing can be used for process verification; i.e., was this run of the process as effective as expected? In order to measure how effective sanitation is in a processing environment, product-contact and non-product contact surfaces may be selected as sampling sites.

When identifying sample sites, one must consider:

- Does the site reflect the product in its “intended use” state?
- Can a representative sample be obtained at the site with reasonable control of preventing contamination?
- Is there a more representative site?

**Actions based on results**
Prior to implementing any testing program, identification of what the results will mean and any subsequent actions that will need to be taken must be clearly identified. Unless there is a reason to suspect the result was not accurate (e.g. lab error identified by not following a written laboratory protocol), all results must be considered valid and actionable. One must remember that microorganisms may not be uniformly distributed in samples.

**Examples:**

a. APC in a fresh diced onion sample can have an initial count of 95,000 cfu/g, but when ten samples are analyzed, this 95,000 cfu/g sample is found to range from 75,000 cfu/g to 200,000 cfu/g. All results would be valid.

b. A sample of spinach may have a generic *E. coli* count of 20 cfu/g. But when nine additional samples are tested, all are observed to be <10 cfu/g. Finally, the product is tested using an MPN method and a result of <2.2 MPN/g is observed. The 20 cfu/g is still a valid result. None of the <10/g results rule out the initial result. Looking closer, the average of the 20 cfu/g and the nine <10/ cfu/g is 2 cfu/g, which is also consistent with the MPN reading of <2.2 MPN/g. The 20 cfu/g remains a valid result.

Knowing there is a possibility that an unexpected or undesired result may (and will) occur, a clearly defined course of action must be in place. This may include an applicable pasteurization or sterilization treatment, or destruction of the product.

In all cases, including regulatory sampling, it is highly recommended that product subject to pathogen testing should remain on “hold” status, within company custody and control, until the results of all testing are complete and all results are negative for the product. If there are multiple samples taken of a lot, and one sample is found positive, none of the negative results negates the positive result. The lot is positive for the pathogen and the appropriate predetermined action must be implemented.

**SUMMARY**

Microbiological testing during the processing of fresh produce is a tool that may be of value in verifying the integrity of the product as it passes through each segment of the supply chain. However, if testing is used, it would be but one component in the development of any "Field to Fork" food safety program that includes programs such as Good Agricultural Practices (GAP), Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP), HACCP, Traceability and Recall Management.

A proper testing program must have clearly defined the intended purpose of the test, the organism of concern, logical and defined sampling locations in the supply chain, the use of appropriate and validated methods, and defined actions based on the potential results.

If not properly designed and implemented, microbiological testing can provide unreliable information that can easily be taken out of context and create unwarranted concerns or false assurances about the safety of the product.

Though microbiological testing cannot assure the absence of pathogens, microbiological testing can provide important information about an environment, a process, and even a specific product lot, when sampling plans and methodology are properly designed and performed.
RESOURCES

The following resources may provide additional information and assistance in the development of a microbiological sampling and testing program for fresh product applications. Note: These resources are not all inclusive.


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