

# Microgreens: nutritional properties, health benefits, production techniques, and food safety risks (#89455)

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First submission

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3



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# Microgreens: nutritional properties, health benefits, production techniques, and food safety risks

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“Microgreens” is a hypothetical name given to a new class of edible plants that have become popular in recent years. Microgreens are plants that are larger than sprouts and smaller than baby greens, with an average height of 2-8 cm. They have some advantages, such as the dense and digestible nutrient profile they contain, appeal to vegan and vegetarian individuals, and simple cultivation in a home environment. For microgreens to have a superior nutrient profile, industrial cultivation techniques have been developed under different environmental conditions. Also, the current health benefits of microgreens are noteworthy. On the other hand, they may contain some important food safety risks, especially due to cross-contamination. In this study, a detailed literature review about microgreens, which have become a trend in the last 10 years, was conducted, and the available information was compiled.

1 **Microgreens: nutritional properties, health benefits,**  
2 **production techniques, and food safety risks**

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26 **Abstract**

27 “Microgreens” is a hypothetical name given to a new class of edible plants that have become  
28 popular in recent years. Microgreens are plants that are larger than sprouts and smaller than baby  
29 greens, with an average height of 2-8 cm. They have some advantages, such as the dense and  
30 digestible nutrient profile they contain, appeal to vegan and vegetarian individuals, and simple  
31 cultivation in a home environment. For microgreens to have a superior nutrient profile, industrial  
32 cultivation techniques have been developed under different environmental conditions. Also, the  
33 current health benefits of microgreens are noteworthy. On the other hand, they may contain some  
34 important food safety risks, especially due to cross-contamination. In this study, a detailed  
35 literature review about microgreens, which have become a trend in the last 10 years, was  
36 conducted, and the available information was compiled.

37 **Keywords:** Hydroponic production, microgreens, super nutrients

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50 **Introduction**

51 Food systems cover food production processes, which also include packaging,  
52 transportation, and storage. On the other hand, a substantial portion of the food produced in the  
53 global food chain is subject to deterioration during transportation or storage, and this huge food  
54 waste threatens food security globally (Weber, 2017). In addition, the need for the production of  
55 nutritious food has increased due to malnutrition, which approximately 800 million people  
56 worldwide face, and the nutritional problems of the rapidly increasing global population. Existing  
57 data show that 60%, 30%, and 15% of the world's population have micronutrient deficiencies of  
58 Fe, Zn, and Se, respectively, which is one of the most common nutritional problems in both  
59 developed and developing countries (Frąszczak and Kleiber, 2022; Bhaswant et al., 2023).  
60 Modern agricultural practices have significant disadvantages in terms of environmental damage,  
61 considering the irrigation water and pesticides used. Food production methods that minimize  
62 environmental impacts should be prioritized to ensure sustainable nutrition and protect the  
63 ecosystem (Weber, 2017).

64 Microgreens are a new class of edible plants that are gaining popularity today (Mir, Shah,  
65 & Mir, 2017). Lifestyle changes, increasing concerns about health, the orientation toward healthy  
66 nutrition and functional foods, as well as the decrease in agricultural lands, and the disadvantages  
67 of modern agricultural practices have led to an increased interest in microgreens. Microgreens,  
68 which have many advantages in terms of nutritional properties, have not been associated with  
69 any disease according to the current literature (Teng et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2022; Teng et al.,  
70 2023). With a pleasing color, texture, and flavor, sprouts and microgreens are potentially  
71 therapeutic and functional foods. They have many positive features such as having a short  
72 growth cycle (14 days on average depending on the species) and growing hydroponically (Mir,  
73 Shah, and Mir, 2017; Moraru, Rusu, and Mintas, 2022; Sharma et al., 2022; Allogia et al., 2023).  
74 Sprouts and microgreens can be grown in a wide variety of areas, from home balconies and  
75 gardens to large farms, do not require professional care, and can be grown by anyone (Bhaswant  
76 et al., 2023; Teng et al., 2023). It is predicted that microgreens may also contribute to astronauts'

77 feeding in the future and may benefit the physical and psychological health of the crew during  
78 long space flights (Parasido et al., 2018; Teng et al., 2023).

79 Microgreens have a good potential to improve and diversify human nutrition with their  
80 phytochemical properties (Ebert, 2022). Moreover, unlike baby and mature plants, sprouts and  
81 microgreens do not require additional effort and cost such as large land, soil, fertilization, extra  
82 labor, or professional care and can be produced quite simply and quickly (Bhaswant et al., 2023).  
83 In addition, microgreens are very suitable food, especially for vegan and vegetarian individuals,  
84 and **can easily adapt to city life** (Parasido et al., 2018). Therefore, they have the potential to solve  
85 the malnutrition problem (Pathan and Siddiqui, 2022).

86 Microgreens grow through the germination of seeds in the dark and under high relative  
87 humidity. It was reported that the consumption of seeds in the form of sprouts and microgreens  
88 dated back to the ancient Egyptians, around 3000 BC (Ebert, 2022). The sprouts are harvested  
89 and consumed when the cotyledons are still under-developed and the true leaves are immature,  
90 usually in less than a week (3-5 days) when appropriate conditions are provided. The whole  
91 sprout-seeds, roots, and shoots-is consumed. On the other hand, microgreens are slightly larger  
92 than sprouts (average 2-8 cm tall), smaller than baby and mature plants, and are harvested within  
93 10-12 days with the development of cotyledons under a light environment. The stem, cotyledons,  
94 and the first true leaves are consumed (Ebert, 2022; Bhaswant et al., 2023).

95 Microgreens are often used as garnishes in salads, soups, sandwiches, pizzas, pancakes, and  
96 appetizers (Mir, Shah, & Mir, 2017; Ebert, 2022). They can also be consumed with healthy  
97 smoothies, juices, and other beverages (Gupta et al., 2023).

98 In this review, current literature on the main sources and nutritional properties of  
99 microgreens, their health benefits, production techniques, and food safety risks was investigated.  
100 Microgreens, which is an alternative food for all individuals aiming to eat healthy and those who  
101 prefer to eat vegan, vegetarian and similar diets, are also phytochemically advantageous  
102 compared to mature greens. In addition, when the necessary production conditions are provided,  
103 it can become nutraceutical for people with special needs. Therefore, this study is necessary  
104 because it reveals the potential and health advantages of microgreens, which has become one of

105 the popular disciplines of recent years, to be a solution to the search for alternative food and  
106 nutritional deficiencies all over the world.

## 107 **Survey Methodology**

108 Microgreens is a new discipline that has been popular in recent years, and the available  
109 literature is quite limited. All relevant studies on the production techniques, health benefits,  
110 nutritional properties and food safety risks of Microgreens are summarized in this review. To  
111 identify articles related to microgreens, we conducted searches on the Science Direct, Scopus,  
112 PubMed Web of Science and Google Scholar databases using the keyword 'microgreens'. After  
113 passing the abstract screening, the full text of the found publications was downloaded. Studies  
114 not related to the subject were excluded and only full-text articles were used for data extraction  
115 and analysis.

## 116 **Nutritional properties of microgreens**

117 Microgreens can be produced from the seeds of a wide variety of plants, such as legumes  
118 (i.e., chickpeas, lentils, soybeans, mung beans, and black-eyed peas), grains (i.e., barley, rye,  
119 corn, oats, and rice), pseudo cereals (i.e., quinoa and buckwheat), oilseeds (i.e., sunflower seeds,  
120 hazelnuts, flax seeds, sesame, and almonds), and vegetables (i.e., beetroot, radish, arugula, cress,  
121 fenugreek, basil, spinach, onion, leek, celery, lettuce, mustard, cabbage, and broccoli) (Ebert,  
122 2022). In addition, although it is not used frequently, microgreens can be produced from many  
123 wild species. Due to their phytochemical richness, species belonging to the *Brassicaceae* family  
124 are more preferred and come to the fore (Renna et al., 2018).

125 Microgreens have become common with their nutritional advantages and health benefits in  
126 in-vivo and in-vitro studies conducted in recent years (Ebert, 2022). They are also called 'super  
127 nutrients' since they are very rich in antioxidants, vitamins, minerals, glucosinolates, chlorophyll,  
128 phylloquinone, and flavonoids and anthocyanins, which are two phenolic compounds (Kyriacou  
129 et al., 2022; Alloggia et al., 2023). Microgreens are rich in minerals, such as Fe, Zn, K, Ca, N, P,  
130 S, Mn, Se, and Mo (Bhaswant et al., 2023). They also contain plenty of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, beta  
131 carotene, ascorbic acid, and phylloquinone (vitamin K1). *Brassicaceae* microgreens are also  
132 reported to be a good source of K, Ca, Fe, and Zn in general (Paradiso et al., 2018). In a recent

133 study, Marchioni et al. (2021) examined some species of the *Brassicaceae* family (broccoli,  
134 radish, mustard, arugula, and watercress) comparatively on the basis of some phytochemical  
135 compounds, such as chlorophylls, polyphenols, carotenoids, anthocyanins, ascorbic acid, total  
136 reducing sugar, and antioxidant activity. In the study, broccoli was found to have the highest  
137 nutrient profile and good antioxidant capacity with the highest polyphenol carotenoid and  
138 chlorophyll content, while mustard was characterized by its high ascorbic acid and total sugar  
139 content. Arugula was reported to have the lowest antioxidant content.

140 Sprouts and microgreens are more digestible than seeds (Kyriacou et al., 2022). During the  
141 germination process of the seed, hydrolytic enzymes are activated. They increase the  
142 bioavailability of the product by separating the nutrients from the phytate chelates. The  
143 bioavailability of particularly Fe and Ca and the digestibility of proteins increase as a result of  
144 germination and microgreen growth and the inactivation of phytate, oxalate, and tannins.  
145 Ascorbic acid, tocopherol, beta carotene, and phylloquinone levels increase in microgreens via  
146 photosynthesis (Ebert, 2022).

147 Many studies have proven that microgreens have a better nutrient profile than mature  
148 plants. For example, Ayeni (2021) compared the nutrient content of microgreens/baby leaves of  
149 tropical spinach (*Amaranthus sp.*) and roselle plant (*Hibiscus sabdariffa L.*) with mature leaves.  
150 Compared to mature leaves grown in the field, greenhouse-grown micro/baby greens were found  
151 to be richer in digestible proteins, P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn, and Zn, although poorer in digestible  
152 carbohydrates and Ca. Weber (2017) reported that broccoli microgreens contained more Mg,  
153 Mn, Cu, and Zn than mature plants. Microgreens are known to have four to 40 times higher  
154 concentrations of carotenoids than mature plants (Frąszczak and Kleiber, 2022). It has been  
155 reported that the Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn, Zn, Se, and Mo contents of lettuce microgreens are higher than  
156 those of mature plants (Paradiso et al., 2018). Zou et al. (2021) comparatively investigated  
157 nutritional metabolites in Chinese cabbage (*Brassica rapa subsp. chinensis var. Parachinensis*)  
158 during the growth process from shoot to mature leaves. In the study, while essential amino acids,  
159 folate, and β-cryptoxanthin decreased from sprouts to mature leaves, the total amount of  
160 reducing sugar, carotenoids, and vitamin K1 increased. It was also reported that most of the  
161 important minerals were concentrated in microgreens. Microgreens have a higher nutritional  
162 value compared to mature plants, which is associated with the fact that these nutrients are more

163 intense nutrient sources (Weber, 2017). Compared to the nutrient concentration in mature leaves,  
164 the leaves of microgreens were found to have a higher nutrient content (Xiao et al., 2012).

165 The raw consumption of microgreens and not exposing them to heat treatment prevents  
166 losses in heat-sensitive vitamins such as ascorbic acid. Similarly, the ratio of chlorophyll and  
167 phenolic compounds with antioxidant activity is higher in microgreens compared to sprouts  
168 (Ebert, 2022). Microgreens are also characterized by high absorption of these bioactive  
169 compounds (Frąszczak and Kleiber, 2022). El-Nakhel et al. (2020) comparatively investigated  
170 the phytochemical and antioxidant properties of green and red-pigmented lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*  
171 *L. var. capitata* cultivars) at different developmental stages. In the study, Ca and Mg were found  
172 to be more intense in microgreens than mature leaves, regardless of cultivar. Total polyphenols  
173 were higher in microgreens, especially in the red-pigmented lettuce cultivar. In addition, it was  
174 reported that this density increased in red-pigmented lettuce with higher levels of P, K, nitrate,  
175 chlorophyll, lutein, and beta-carotene in mature leaves.

176 Biological enrichment processes applied to foods can also be applied to microgreens.  
177 Biofortification is a sustainable approach that increases the **bioavailability** for humans by  
178 improving the nutritional quality of plants and has the potential to offer long-term solutions to  
179 minimize **conditions such as** food insecurity and malnutrition (Ma et al., 2022). Frąszczak and  
180 Kleiber (2022) studied the effect of the iron chelate-fortified solution on plant growth and  
181 mineral concentrations of some microgreens (purple kohlrabi, radish, peas, and spinach). In the  
182 study, it was reported that Fe content increased in the leaves of all species except radish, but this  
183 increase reduced the ratio of zinc and copper regardless of genotype. Puccinelli et al (2019)  
184 reported that when microgreens produced from basil seeds enriched with selenium were included  
185 in human nutrition, they could support general immunity by contributing to the antioxidant  
186 defense system. Newman et al. (2022) reported that the total phenol content and antioxidant  
187 capacity could be increased by enriching basil, coriander, and green onion microgreens with  
188 selenium. Kathi et al. (2023) fed broccoli microgreens grown hydroponically on polyethylene  
189 pads with different concentrations of ascorbic acid solutions (0% (control), 0.05%, 0.1%, 0.25%,  
190 and 0.5%) and examined the effect of the treatment on nutrient composition. In the study, it was  
191 reported that ascorbic acid solution increased biomass, carotenoids, chlorophyll amount,  
192 potassium levels, especially ascorbic acid in microgreens, but that this increase in ascorbic acid

193 showed a negative correlation with minerals N, P, Mg, Ca, and S. Therefore, further studies are  
194 needed for the optimization of genotype-specific nutrient enrichment processes.

195 In addition to their highly valuable nutritional compositions, microgreens also meet  
196 consumer demands in terms of their good organoleptic properties, such as sensory intense taste,  
197 lively texture, pleasant aroma, and beautiful appearance. Depending on the variety, their taste  
198 can be bitter, sour, mild, or spicy (Bhaswant et al., 2023). Michell et al. (2020) presented six  
199 types of microgreens (arugula, broccoli, bull beet, red cabbage, red garnet amaranth, and pea  
200 sprouts) to the sensory perception of the consumer and examined their acceptability in a  
201 consumer panel of 99 individuals. In the study, it was reported that all species received **high**  
202 **average ratings** of appreciation from the participants.

## 203 **Health benefits of microgreens**

204 Antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and anticarcinogenic effects of  
205 microgreens have been reported (Gupta et al., 2023). Microgreens containing plenty of  
206 anthocyanins can alleviate chronic low-grade inflammation, especially due to obesity (Lee et al.,  
207 2017). In addition, studies on rats have shown that they are highly effective in improving  
208 Diabetes Mellitus (DM) symptoms and increasing insulin sensitivity, reducing body weight, and  
209 modulating intestinal microbiota and lipid metabolism (Huang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021;  
210 Mohamed et al., 2021; Khattab et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2022)

211 Mohamed et al. (2021) investigated the therapeutic effects of barley microgreens added to  
212 the diet in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats with and without aflatoxin. In the study,  
213 streptozotocin injection and/or aflatoxin administration significantly increased glucose levels,  
214 decreased insulin secretion and beta cell functions, increased oxidative stress, and caused  
215 deterioration in liver and kidney functions. The addition of barley microgreens to the diet,  
216 independent of streptozotocin, improved all these parameters. In another study, Li et al. (2021)  
217 reported that broccoli microgreen juice given to high-fat diet-induced obese C57BL/6J mice for  
218 10 weeks promoted body weight loss by increasing insulin sensitivity and modulating intestinal  
219 microbiota. In the study, it was reported that broccoli microgreen juice significantly increased  
220 the relative abundance of *Bacteroidetes* in the microbiota composition and decreased the ratio of  
221 *Firmicutes* to *Bacteroidetes*, which, in turn, contributed to the production of short-chain fatty

222 acids (SCFA), which are known to have anti-inflammatory effects, in the intestines. Ma et al  
223 (2022) investigated the effect of lyophilized broccoli microgreens on microbiota, blood lipids,  
224 inflammatory factors, and hypoglycemia in rats. In the eighteen-week study, body weight,  
225 glucose homeostasis, blood lipid parameters, antioxidant indices, and inflammatory biomarkers  
226 improved and intestinal microbiota composition developed positively following the consumption  
227 of broccoli microgreens. The authors noted that microgreens might specifically improve  
228 symptoms of Type 2 DM. Similarly, in another eight-week study, it was reported that red  
229 cabbage microgreens increased body weight, and decreased LDL levels, triglyceride, and  
230 cholesterol levels in rats (n:60, male) given a high-fat diet (Huang et al., 2016). These results  
231 suggest that microgreens can reduce body weight gain, regulate cholesterol metabolism, and thus  
232 be protective against cardiovascular disease risks. In addition, Khattab et al. (2022) reported that  
233 powdered and pelleted barley (*Hordeum vulgare L.*) microgreens reduced reproductive  
234 dysfunction and oxidative stress in streptozotocin-induced diabetes and aflatoxicosis in male  
235 mice.

236 Microgreens are also considered a nutraceutical factor. Renna et al. (2018) reported that low  
237 K-containing microgreens could be produced for patients with renal dysfunction. In the study,  
238 chicory (*Molfsella*) and lettuce (*Bionda da taglio*) microgreens were grown hydroponically on  
239 polyethylene pads with phytonutrient solutions containing K at various concentrations.  
240 Regardless of genotype, microgreens grown with nutrient solutions containing less K  
241 successfully contained less K and more nutrient-dense value. The authors reported that the  
242 production of low-K microgreens could be a therapeutic strategy in individuals with kidney  
243 damage.

244 On the other hand, although quite limited, some studies have been conducted to investigate  
245 the effectiveness of microgreens in cancerous cells. Fuente et al. (2020) evaluated the  
246 antiproliferative effect of four hydroponically grown *Brassicaceae* family microgreens (broccoli,  
247 cabbage, mustard, and radish) between normal and colon cancer cells in vitro. While  
248 microgreens did not show any effect in normal cells, they showed an antiproliferative effect in  
249 cancerous cells. Therefore, daily consumption of microgreens with a balanced diet may be a  
250 preventive nutritional strategy to reduce the burden of chronic degenerative diseases such as  
251 colon cancer.

252 No side effects of microgreens have been reported in studies to date. In a study on this  
253 subject, the oral acute (14 days) and subacute (28 days) toxicity of ethanol extract of *Brassica*  
254 *carinata A. Braun* microgreens, which are a type of Ethiopian mustard, was investigated in  
255 Wistar rats. In both acute and subacute toxicity studies, no death, signs of abnormality, or  
256 intervention-related adverse events were observed at doses of 2000 mg/kg, 1000 mg/kg, 500  
257 mg/kg, and 250 mg/kg. The liver, kidney, lungs, and heart were normal when they were  
258 examined histopathologically. In the study, it was reported that the extract was safe and non-toxic  
259 and that it was used in various regions of Sub-Saharan Africa for gastrointestinal disorders  
260 (Nakakaawa et al., 2023).

## 261 **Production techniques of microgreens**

262 Today, microgreens can be grown in simple ways at home and in various environmental  
263 conditions in the food industry (Bhaswant et al., 2023). Fluorescent tubes or high-pressure  
264 sodium lamps are frequently used artificial lighting systems, especially in indoor farming  
265 systems. However, in recent years, light-emitting diodes (Light Emitting Diode-LED) have been  
266 used more widely due to their advantages such as energy saving, minimum heat transfer to the  
267 seed, and durability (Alloggia et al., 2023). In addition, with the development of LED  
268 technology, optimization of spectral quality (wavelength), intensity (photon flux), and  
269 photoperiod, which can increase the phytochemical content of sprouts and microgreens, have  
270 become possible (Kyriacou et al., 2022). Lighting with various wavelengths from the light  
271 spectrum (from ultraviolet (UV) to infrared) can affect the biosynthesis of phytochemicals in  
272 different ways. (Artés-Hernández et al., 2022). Wavelength is very important to stimulating  
273 secondary metabolites by modulating the expression of specific genes (Appolloni et al., 2022).  
274 Plants are exposed to abiotic (UV, light, flood, drought, salinity, heavy metals, extreme heat,  
275 injuries, etc.) and biotic (bacteria, fungi, insects, and other small animals) stress factors during  
276 their growth stages. Under the influence of these stress factors, the transcriptional factors that  
277 form the plant's defense mechanism against stress are triggered (Artés-Hernández et al., 2022).

278 Polyphenols called 'secondary metabolites' produced by plants against stress factors have  
279 subgroups, such as phenolic acids, flavonoids, and anthocyanins. These compounds exhibit

280 antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties as well as free radical scavenging or antimicrobial  
281 activities (Appolloni et al., 2022).

282 Changes in phytochemical compounds can be observed according to the type of UV to  
283 which plants are exposed (Appolloni et al., 2022). Brazaitytė et al. (2019) studied the optimum  
284 growth and phytochemical content of mustard microgreens (*Brassica juncea* L. cv.) by growing  
285 them under UV-A light emitting LEDs of different wavelengths (366 nm, 390 nm, 402 nm) and  
286 photoperiods (10 and 16 hours). In the study, the most positive effect on mineral deposition in  
287 general, except for Fe, was observed at longer UV-A wavelengths (390 nm, 402 nm) in the 16-  
288 hour photoperiod. It was noted that lutein/zeaxanthin and β-carotene content increased in  
289 response to the shortest UV-A wavelength (366 nm) in the 10-hour photoperiod and a longer  
290 UV-A wavelength (390 nm) in the 16-hour photoperiod. On the other hand, Lu et al. (2021)  
291 studied the effect of preharvest UV-B treatment on glucosinolate levels in broccoli microgreens  
292 (*Brassica oleracea* var. *Italica*) grown on a hydroponic pad. In the study, it was reported that the  
293 shelf life of broccoli microgreens that had been applied pre-harvest UV-B and calcium chloride  
294 spray could extend up to 21 days, there was no significant change in glucosinolate levels in this  
295 process, and that the general nutritional quality was preserved. On the other hand, when  
296 preharvest UV-B and postharvest UV-B interventions were compared, it was stated that  
297 preharvest intervention significantly increased glucosinolate biosynthesis genes and decreased  
298 the expression of myrosinase, a gene responsible for the degradation of glucosinolate.

299 Light conditions are of strategic interest in terms of the phytochemical composition of  
300 microgreens (Kyriacou et al., 2022). Many studies have been conducted to examine the effects of  
301 infrared, red, blue, and ultraviolet rays on the ontogeny and chemical composition of plants. It  
302 has been reported that blue light, especially at 400-500 nm, makes photosynthesis efficient while  
303 making the plant shorter, thicker and darker green (Artés-Hernández et al., 2022). In addition, it  
304 has been reported that in some genotypes, blue light can increase the production of phenolic  
305 acids, flavonoids, carotenoids, anthocyanins, anthocyanidins and some vitamins (E and C)  
306 (Appolloni et al., 2022; Artés-Hernández et al., 2022). Liu et al (2022) comparatively  
307 investigated the growth, nutritional quality, and antioxidant properties of two microgreens of the  
308 *Brassicaceae* family (*Brassica oleracea* L./cabbage and *Brassica alboglabra* bailey/Chinese  
309 kale) under different light conditions. The light conditions included red:blue:green light emitting

310 LEDs (1:1:1), 30, 50, 70, and 90  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD values (Photosynthetic Photon Flux  
311 Density/PPFD), and 12, 14, 16, 18, 20-hour photoperiods. In the study, it was reported that the  
312 hypocotyl length was shortened in both species with the increase in light intensity and that the  
313 chlorophyll, carotenoid, soluble sugar, soluble protein, ascorbic acid, and antioxidant capacity of  
314 cabbage microgreens increased in the 14-hour photoperiod at 90  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD. These  
315 optimum data were observed in Chinese kale microgreens at a PPFD of 70  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  in a 16-  
316 hour photoperiod. Yet, little is known about the effects of different LED light wavelengths and  
317 intensities or photoperiods on the growth and nutritional quality of *Brassicaceae* microgreens. In  
318 another similar study, Gao et al (2021) examined the growth and nutritional quality of broccoli  
319 microgreens under red:blue:green light emitting LEDs (1:1:1) at 30, 50, 70, and 90  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
320 PPFD. In the study, it was reported that the most suitable light intensity for the production of  
321 broccoli microgreens was 50  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD but that the best level of phytochemical  
322 accumulation occurred at 70  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD. On the other hand, glucosinolates decreased  
323 significantly as the light intensity increased from 30  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  to 50  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , while it  
324 increased significantly as the intensity of the light increased from 50  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  to 90  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$   
325  $\text{s}^{-1}$ . Therefore, to produce microgreens of the best nutritional quality, more studies are needed for  
326 the optimization of light conditions, which have quite complex effects, according to different  
327 plants. In addition, there are studies conducted to test different wavelengths. Samuolienė et al.  
328 (2019) grew microgreens of the *Brassicaceae* family (kohlrabi, broccoli, and mizuna) in different  
329 light spectral qualities (yellow-orange), in a 16-hour photoperiod, and at 300  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD  
330 and examined the levels of insoluble sugar (hexose and sucrose), ascorbic acid, beta carotene,  
331 non-heme iron, magnesium, and calcium. In the study, the soluble carbohydrate content of  
332 mizuna and broccoli microgreens increased significantly under yellow light at 595 nm, while Fe,  
333 Mg, and Ca increased significantly in all microgreens at 622 nm in orange light. The authors  
334 reported that the accumulation of Fe in microgreens was highly dependent on promoters and  
335 inhibitors of Fe and that they associated positive correlations of Fe-Ca and Fe-Mg in kohlrabi  
336 and broccoli microgreens and negative correlation of Fe-beta carotene and Fe-soluble  
337 carbohydrates in kohlrabi microgreens with this.

338 In addition to light, factors such as substrate, temperature, humidity, and seed genotype  
339 can also affect the nutritional quality, sensory properties, storage, and shelf life of microgreens  
340 (Kyriacou et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2023). Plants need a substrate that will provide them with

341 attachment, water, oxygen, and nutrients while sprouting. Although this substrate is the soil in  
342 traditional agriculture, industrial by-products such as perlite, vermiculture, polyethylene foam,  
343 compost, rock wool, coconut fiber, sugar cane fiber, and other various substrate alternatives have  
344 been developed with the advancement of technology. In addition to all these, biopolymer-  
345 growing fibers are widely used in the production of microgreens (Gupta et al., 2023).

346 Studies into the effect of substrates on the nutritional value of microgreens are very limited  
347 (Alloggia et al., 2023). Saleh et al. (2022) studied the growth and biochemical compositions of  
348 kale (*Brassica oleracea L. var. acephala*), chard (*Beta vulgaris var. cicla*), arugula (*Eruca*  
349 *vesicaria* ssp. *sativa*), and Chinese kale (*Brassica rapa var. chinensis*) grown under different  
350 substrate conditions. In the study, it was reported that the most productive substrate, in general,  
351 was the one containing mostly mushroom compost (30% vermicast + 20% sawdust + 20% perlite  
352 + 30% mushroom compost). In another study, Kyriacou et al. (2020) studied the effect of natural  
353 fiber substrates (agave fiber, coconut fiber, and peat moss) on the nutritional values and  
354 phytochemical composition of coriander, kohlrabi, and Chinese kale microgreens compared to  
355 synthetic substrates (capillary mat and cellulose sponge). In the study, it was reported that peat  
356 moss improved phytochemical composition without sacrificing product performance compared  
357 to other substrates and that natural fiber substrates increased macro-micronutrient concentrations  
358 in microgreens compared to synthetic substrates. In another study, broccoli microgreens were  
359 grown using different growing methods, and their nutritional values were examined. In the study,  
360 it was stated that microgreens grown in vermiculture compost contained more minerals than  
361 microgreens grown hydroponically (Weber, 2017).

362 Some studies have shown that geographic location can also change nutritional quality  
363 parameters in microgreens. Priti et al. (2021) compared the microgreens of mung beans and  
364 lentils grown at low and high altitudes in terms of ascorbic acid, tocopherol, carotenoids,  
365 flavonoid, total phenolics, peroxide activity, proteins, enzymes (peroxidase and catalase), and  
366 micro and macronutrient contents. Most of the parameters studied at high altitudes in the study,  
367 which were observed to have higher temperature amplitude, more photosynthetic active  
368 radiation, and UV-B, were superior.

369 Optimum nutrient content can be achieved in microgreens with appropriate genotype-specific  
370 light intensity, wavelength, and photoperiod (Liu et al., 2022). Today, many studies have focused  
371 on optimizing species-specific light parameters for the best nutritional quality in microgreens  
372 (Alloggia et al., 2023). According to the available literature, the responses and mechanisms of  
373 microgreen genotypes to light conditions are not fully known. However, coincidental similarities  
374 in the reported results allow us to make some inferences (Artés-Hernández et al., 2022).

375 Some procedures that can be applied to microgreens before and after harvest can also  
376 increase their nutritional and functional values (Frąszczak and Kleiber, 2022). Sun et al. (2015)  
377 reported that preharvest application of calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) to broccoli microgreens was  
378 associated with a higher glucosinolate level. In addition, microgreens have a very short shelf life  
379 (Mir, Shah, & Mir, 2017). Paradiso et al. (2018) examined the shelf life of microgreens packaged  
380 using the modified atmosphere packaging method and reported that freshly cut microgreens had  
381 an average shelf life of 10 days at 5°C. In addition, with the developing technology, some  
382 ergonomic and environmentally friendly new packaging techniques can preserve the nutritional  
383 quality of microgreens and extend their shelf life (Ghoora and Srividya, 2020).

### 384 **Current food safety risks in microgreens**

385 Many environmental factors such as soil, irrigation water, seed storage conditions in  
386 microgreens that are generally consumed raw can cause contamination with highly dangerous  
387 pathogens, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* spp., and *Listeriaceae*, through cross-  
388 contaminations (Wright and Holden, 2018; Bergspica et al., 2020). Especially in plants grown  
389 hydroponically, it is usual for viruses present in the feed water to pass into plant tissues.  
390 Therefore, post-harvest washing or sanitation applications may be inadequate microbiologically  
391 (Reed et al. 2018; Fuzawa et al., 2021).

392 Reed et al. (2018) investigated the extent to which alfalfa sprouts and Swiss chard  
393 microgreens grown from seeds contaminated with two *Salmonella enterica* serotypes (Hartford  
394 and Cubana) are affected by various external factors such as seed storage time and growth  
395 environment. They reported that irrigation water and seed storage time had significant effects on  
396 the development of *Salmonella enterica* serotypes in sprouts and microgreens.

397 Naushad et al. (2022) reported that *Listeria monocytogene* strains were isolated from some  
398 microgreen samples grown in Canada. Xiao et al. (2015) studied *E. coli* populations in edible and  
399 inedible parts and substrates by hydroponically growing white radish seeds (*Raphanus sativus*  
400 var. *Longipinnatus*) contaminated with *E. coli* in peat moss (also known as peat) and  
401 polyethylene pads. It was observed that *E. coli* significantly survived and multiplied in various  
402 tissues of the plant in both types of cultivation, with higher levels in the hydroponic medium.  
403 Xiao et al. (2014) investigated the contamination status of sprouts and microgreens grown from  
404 white radish seeds contaminated with *E. coli*. Bacterial growth was reported in both sprouts and  
405 microgreens, but significantly less in microgreens, in the study. Wang and Kniel (2015)  
406 examined the ability of the virus to attach to the edible tissues of microgreens by contaminating  
407 hydroponically grown cabbage and mustard seeds with murine norovirus. In the study, they  
408 reported that the virus could hold on to both roots and edible plant tissues and maintain its  
409 stability for 12 hours after harvest, gradually decreasing on the 8th and 12th harvest days.

410 In light of these studies, it is seen that any microbial contamination caused by environmental  
411 factors during the entire production process in microgreens can cause serious health problems.  
412 This situation creates the need for appropriate sanitation, especially for hydroponically grown  
413 microgreens.

## 414 **Conclusions**

415 Globally changing nutritional behaviors and trends, food insecurity, malnutrition  
416 problems, and above all, climate change and the disadvantages of modern agriculture increase  
417 the need for healthy alternative foods. In this context, microgreens have entered the literature as  
418 'super nutrients', which anyone can grow without the burdens of professional equipment, large  
419 fields, or chemical fertilization, have a very intense nutrient content and short growth cycle  
420 compared to mature plants, and are becoming more and more popular. Very few animal  
421 experiments and cell culture studies point to various health benefits of microgreens, which are  
422 rich in polyphenols and antioxidants, and present them as nutraceuticals. No toxic effects related  
423 to microgreens have been reported in the current literature. Studies have shown that the  
424 phytochemical and antioxidant properties of microgreens are affected by factors, such as light  
425 conditions, substrate, temperature, and seed genotype. The dimensions of these effects remain

426 unclear. For this reason, more studies are needed. On the other hand, microbial contamination  
427 caused by environmental factors in microgreens is a critical issue, and therefore appropriate  
428 sanitation methods should be developed.

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