

1 **Review Article**

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2 **Japanese melons: Cultivation, consumption, and cultivars**

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Melon (*Cucumis melo* L.) is a commercially important horticultural crop worldwide and exhibits
25 an impressive diversity in plant and fruit characteristics. It is divided into ssp. *melo*, which includes
26 western melon cultivars, and ssp. *agrestis*, including oriental melon such as makuwa and conomon
27 groups. The history of cultivation of oriental melon is very old in Japan, and oriental melon has
28 been used as fresh desserts (makuwa melon) and for pickling or cooking (conomon melon).
29 Western melon was introduced into Japan as fresh dessert fruit crop in the late 19th century.
30 Breeding efforts were made to develop good-quality, affordable melon cultivars, and as a result,
31 western melon became popular throughout the country in the 1960s. The cultivation area of
32 western melon in the country reached its peak in 1990 and then has decreased gradually. In this
33 review, we describe the cultivation history and commercial production of Japanese melon as well
34 as agronomic characteristics of major cultivars, with the expectation that the synthesized
35 information will aid in understanding the problems and prospects of melon cultivation in Japan.

36 **Keywords:** Breeding, Cultivation history, Cultural practices, Fruit quality, Genomics

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39 INTRODUCTION

40 Melon (*Cucumis melo* L.) is one of the predominant horticultural crops grown in tropical and
41 temperate climates. It belongs to the gourd family, Cucurbitaceae, which also includes many
42 economically important crops such as cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.), watermelon [*Citrullus*
43 *lanatus* (Thunb.) Matsum. et Nakai], squash and pumpkin (*Cucurbita* spp.), and zucchini
44 (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) (Siskos et al., 2022; Tsuchiya and Mikami, 2022). According to the FAO
45 statistics (FAO, 2024), global melon production was 29.54 million metric tons in 2023. China is
46 the largest producer of melons with 14.5 million tons, followed by India (1.5 million tons), Turkey
47 (1.4 million tons), Kazakhstan (1.37 million tons), Brazil (0.86 million tons), and Guatemala (0.85
48 million tons) (FAO, 2024).

49 The geographic origin and region of domestication of melon have been debating. The high
50 diversity of landraces in India and East Asia suggests the idea of an Asian domestication center
51 (Dwivedi et al., 2010; Schaefer and Renner, 2020). Based on the high number of wild *Cucumis*
52 species in Africa and the identical chromosome number ($2n = 24$) of *C. melo* and wild African
53 species, several researchers have held that *C. melo* is of African origin (Périn et al., 2002; Sebastian
54 et al., 2010). These theories have been challenged, however, by molecular biological evidence
55 which has implied alternate patterns of domestication. Phylogenetic analysis of nuclear and plastid
56 DNA data led Endl et al. (2018) to infer that melon was domesticated at least twice in Africa and
57 Asia. The authors revealed that melon cultivars grown today can be traced back to two wild
58 lineages, with one restricted to Asia (*C. melo* ssp. *melo*), and the other restricted to Africa (*C. melo*
59 ssp. *meloides*). Moreover, the genome resequencing of many diverse *C. melo* accessions suggested
60 two independent domestication events within ssp. *melo*: one event was the origin of the
61 commercially important cultivars and their market types including the most widely cultivated

62 ‘Galia’, ‘Cantaloupe’, and ‘Honeydew’ melon types, and another event was the origin of cultivars
63 grown specifically in East Asia (classified as *ssp. agrestis*) (Siskos et al., 2022; Campos et al.,
64 2023; Li et al., 2023).

65 Cultivated melon genotypes exhibit high genetic diversity in plant and fruit characteristics and
66 are suited to different culinary and consumer preferences (Yashiro et al., 2005; Swamy, 2017). In
67 Japan, melons have been consumed as fresh desserts and for pickling or cooking (Kusakawa,
68 1992). Breeding efforts have been made to develop new cultivars with higher fruit quality, better
69 disease resistance, and other characteristics that enhance acceptability by end users (Sugiyama,
70 2017). It is also worth mentioning that melon fruits are a source of vitamins, minerals, and other
71 health-promoting substances (e.g., amino acids, carotenoids, dietary fiber, and antioxidant
72 enzymes) (Shahwar et al., 2023). However, information regarding the melon production and
73 commercial cultivars in Japan is scattered among individual scientific reports. With this in mind,
74 we herein present an overview of the history, current state, problems, and prospects of melon
75 cultivation in Japan. The paper also describes the agronomic characteristics of representative
76 cultivars.

77 HISTORY OF MELON CULTIVATION IN JAPAN

78 1. Oriental Melon

79 *Cucumis melo ssp. agrestis* is generally divided into five horticultural groups or varieties, viz.
80 makuwa, conomon, chinensis, acidulous, and momordica (Pitrat, 2008). The makuwa and
81 conomon groups are believed to have been introduced into Japan from China in ancient times
82 (Katsumata and Yasui, 1964; Yoshida, 2022). The makuwa melon group appears in an ancient
83 Japanese history book, the Kojiki compiled in 717 (Katsumata and Yasui, 1964). It is likely that
84 the fruits of this crop plant were moderately sweet and fragrant when fully ripened and were

85 commonly eaten fresh as dessert fruit (Fujishita, 1992). At least eight local landraces of makuwa
86 melon were already recognized by the early 1800s (Katsumata and Yasui, 1964). Until the mid-
87 20th century, Japan cultivated a considerable amount of makuwa melon (Yoshida, 2022). In the
88 1960s, however, the domestic production of makuwa melon decreased rapidly. This is attributed
89 to the development of sweeter and affordably-priced western type melon cultivars in the country
90 (see below).

91 Unlike makuwa melons, conomon melons have flesh without sweetness and aroma. Yoshida
92 (2022) reported a description of the conomon melon cultivation in the Wamyō Ruijyūshō, a
93 Japanese encyclopedia published between 931 and 938. Traditionally, immature and mid-ripened
94 fruits of conomon melon have been used for pickling in Japan (Kusakawa, 1992). Conomon
95 melons were also utilized for cooking (Kusakawa, 1992). Commercial production of conomon
96 melon continues to this day, albeit on a small scale; in 2022, the crop was harvested from ca. 80
97 ha with a total yield of ca. 4,800 tons (MAFF, 2024a).

98 **2. Western Melon**

99 The cultivation of western melon genotypes in Japan is relatively recent, with Cantaloup melon
100 being first introduced from France in 1893 (Seko, 1999). This melon produced aromatic fruits but
101 its flesh was not sweet enough, so that its cultivation failed to spread in the country. Thereafter, a
102 number of melon cultivars were introduced from the United Kingdom. Among them, a green-flesh
103 cultivar ‘Earl’s Favourite’, which was introduced in 1925, was characterized by highly desirable
104 sweet taste even though it lacked aromatic or musky odor (Seko, 1999). Moreover, the fruits of
105 this cultivar had comparatively long shelf-life (Seko, 1999). Ethylene, a gaseous phytohormone,
106 increases the respiration rate of fruits, which in turn shortens their shelf-life. The ethylene
107 production in ‘Earl’s Favourite’ fruits is known to be low (Shiomi et al., 1999).

108 ‘Earl’s Favourite’ was suitable for spring cropping and less well-adapted to hot summer weather
109 in central and southwestern Japan. Japanese breeders carried out inter-varietal crossing between
110 ‘Earl’s Favourite’ and a white-flesh UK cultivar ‘British Queen’, leading to the birth of good
111 quality cultivars suited to summer cropping (Seko, 1999). ‘Earl’s Favourite’ and its descendants
112 were commonly grown in glass greenhouses and were available throughout the year; these melon
113 cultivars dominated in almost all western melon-producing areas of the country until the 1960s.
114 ‘Earl’s Favourite’ and its descendants were considered a luxury item at the time and were not easily
115 affordable for common people. Meanwhile, a new cultivar ‘Prince Melon’ was bred by a Japanese
116 private seed company from a cross between a European cultivar ‘Cantalupo di Charentais’ and a
117 makuwa-melon cultivar ‘New Melon’, and was released to commercial markets in 1962
118 (Sugiyama, 2017). ‘Prince Melon’ offered a mild, refreshing sweetness and typical aroma (Chachin
119 and Iwata, 1988) Sweetness and aroma are the major determinants of both fruit quality and
120 consumer acceptance (Khanom et al., 2003; Khanom and Ueda, 2008). ‘Prince Melon’ had slightly
121 salmon pink to reddish orange flesh that was dense and succulent with a melting, soft texture
122 (Chachin and Iwata, 1988). In addition, this cultivar was generally grown outdoors and was able
123 to be mass-produced. After its release, ‘Prince Melon’ was sold at reasonable prices and
124 immediately became most popular commercial melon in Japan; in the mid-1970s, it accounted for
125 more than 50 % of the melons sold to the public in Japan (Aita, 1992).

126 The success of ‘Prince Melon’ gave impetus to the subsequent development of various good-
127 quality melon cultivars that could be easily enjoyed by ordinary households. Since the 1970s,
128 superbly tasty, affordable melon cultivars (e. g., ‘Andes’, ‘Takami’, and ‘Ams’) have been
129 generated. Over time, ‘Prince Melon’ faded from commercial production (Sugiyama, 2017). Over

130 thirty melon cultivars are now grown commercially throughout Japan (Kikkoman Corporation,
131 2025).

132 **Production**

133 From the late 1970s to the 1980s, melon production in Japan increased, reaching its peak in 1990:
134 ca. 420,700 tons of melons were harvested from ca. 18,100 ha (Fig. 1). Thereafter, production
135 decreased gradually, and in 2022, domestic melon-cultivation area covered only 5,800 ha and the
136 harvest amount decreased to 142,400 tons (Fig. 1). The question inevitably arises why melon
137 acreage has continued to decline. The reasons must be numerous, of which we have synthesized a
138 few important ones that have direct implication in the decline in melon cultivation as stated below.

139 Over the past several decades, growth in the demand for labor from non-agricultural sectors
140 such as manufacturing sector has a significant impact on the agricultural labor force (OECD, 2009;
141 Musashi, 2025). Younger populations are leaving rural areas and shortage of farm successors is
142 continuing; the number of farmers decreased from ca. 11.8 million in 1960 to ca. 1.4 million in
143 2020 (Ryan, 2023). Agricultural workforce is aging, and there are not sufficient hands to work in
144 the field. Melon farming is highly labor-intensive (e.g., vine pruning, fruit thinning, and harvest),
145 causing the farmers to reduce melon planting.

146 Another reason is the changes in fruit consumption in Japan. The population in Japan is estimated
147 to have peaked at 128 million in 2008 and then it has been gradually decreasing due to low birth
148 rate (USDA, 2018). The domestic food market is generally in a downward trend with the lower
149 population, and the fresh fruit market is no exception (Japan's MAFF defines "fruit" as fruit
150 produced from perennial trees and plants, and the melon crop is categorized as vegetables.
151 However, melons are popularly consumed as a dessert fruit in the country). Moreover, Japan has
152 progressively liberalized imports of agricultural produce since the 1960s (Kawakubo, 1996). As

153 for fruit, domestic production has decreased significantly and this decrease has been substituted
154 by imports. In 2022, Japan imported fresh fruit weighing 1.63 million tons, accounting for about
155 one-third of total domestic supply (USDA, 2023). The leading imported produce was bananas with
156 a 64 % share, followed by pineapples with 11 %, kiwi fruit with 7 %, oranges with 4 %, and
157 avocados with 3 % (USDA, 2023). Trade liberalization led to diversification of the variety of fruit,
158 and as a result, the gross amount of consumption of melons has declined. It should also be pointed
159 out that Japanese consumers recently prefer foods with greater convenience of preparation, and
160 they tend to opt for easy-to-peel or easy-to-prepare fruit such as bananas and oranges among fresh
161 fruit.

162 **Imports and Exports**

163 Japanese trade statistics show that the amount of melons imported annually into Japan ranged from
164 26,400 tons to 39,000 tons in the late 2000s (Fig. 2). After that, melon imports to Japan continued
165 a generally downward long-term trend and were estimated at 11,600 tons in 2022. In the same
166 year, the major suppliers were led by Australia with 33 %, Honduras with 22 %, Mexico with 18
167 %, and the United States with 17 % (MAFF, 2024b).

168 Most of the fruit and vegetables grown in Japan are known for their high quality, and they are
169 popular, in particular, among Asian countries (USDA, 2018). Japanese melons are also a case in
170 point. As shown in Fig. 2, melon exports have been increasing steadily since 2013 and totaled
171 1,308 tons in 2022. Hong Kong was the largest destination for melons exported from Japan,
172 accounting for a 90 % share of total exports. It was followed by Singapore (5 %), Taiwan (2.5 %),
173 Macao (1 %), and the United States (0.98 %) (MAFF, 2024c; MOF, 2024).

174 **Major Cultivars**

175 In Japan, a UK melon cultivar ‘Earl’s Favourite’ has been frequently used as an excellent breeding
176 material for pure line selection and hybrid breeding (Kato et al., 1998; Yano et al., 2018; Nonaka
177 et al., 2023). The recent breeding effort has produced numerous hybrids aiming to improve fruit
178 yield and quality, storage and shelf-life capacity, and resistance against biotic and abiotic stresses
179 (Sugiyama, 2017). Cytoplasmic male sterility is a widely applied tool for efficient and low-cost
180 hybrid seed production (Moritani et al., 2013; Islam et al., 2014). In melon, however, cytoplasmic
181 male sterility system is not available yet, and thus F1 hybrid seed production requires laborious
182 manual emasculation and pollination (Odera et al., 2022).

183 Melon is basically an outcrossing crop that is also capable of self-pollination (Kato et al., 1998).
184 Imperfect emasculation can result in the contamination of F1 hybrid seeds with selfed seeds of the
185 female parent. To address this issue, several reliable and practicable methods have been developed
186 for testing the genetic purity of hybrid seeds using various DNA markers (Kishor et al., 2020;
187 Odera et al., 2022).

188 Melon cultivars differ in such horticultural traits as fruit shape (e.g., round, elongated, and oblong),
189 fruit rind netting (viz. with rind netting or without netting), and flesh color (e.g., green, orange,
190 and white). In Japan, melon is grown in either protected environments (in glass greenhouse or
191 plastic greenhouse) or uncontrolled environments (outdoors). Table1 shows the main
192 characteristics of representative cultivars currently grown in Japan.

193 **Cultural Practices**

194 Melon should not follow melon and other cucurbits such as watermelon, squash, pumpkin, and
195 cucumber for at least three years. This crop grows best in well-drained, sandy or silt loam soils
196 with a pH between 6.0 and 6.5 (Hide Farm Management Consultant, 2017).

197 Transplanting is the common method used for crop establishment, and seedling production is
198 carried out in glass greenhouse, plastic greenhouse or plastic tunnel. Seeds should be planted after
199 the soil temperature has warmed up sufficiently (28 - 30°C) to promote rapid germination.
200 Commercial melon seedlings are mostly grafted onto the same species (melon-homo grafted
201 combination) or squash (squash hetero-grafted combination) with the aim of reducing crop damage
202 caused by pathogens such as *Fusarium oxysporum* and Melon necrotic spot virus (see below).
203 Seedlings are generally grown in suitable containers such as plastic pots, peat pots or trays to be
204 successfully transplanted. Transplants are planted at a density of 400 to 800 plants per 10 a, and
205 rows should be at least 70 cm apart (MAFF, 2007; Hide Farm Management Consultant, 2017).
206 Many melon cultivars produce extensive vine growth. Pruning of vines is widely performed to
207 achieve a balance between vine growth and fruit set; vine pruning is known to increase average
208 fruit weight while reducing the number of unmarketable fruit (Buwalda and Freeman, 1986; Silva
209 et al., 2019). Melon requires pollination (either honeybee pollination or hand pollination) for fruit
210 set, higher yield, and to prevent misshapen fruit (Duncan and Ewing, 2015). Fruit thinning should
211 begin when fruits grow to the size of a chicken egg. This practice can improve the distribution of
212 photo-assimilates in the plant, resulting in increased fruit production and size, as well as the
213 enhancement of fruit quality (Ganvit et al., 2025). Hydroponic melon cultivation, which involves
214 growing plants without soil and using nutrient solutions, has been also attempted in Japan (Asao
215 et al., 2014). An advantage of hydroponic system is the continuous supply of oxygen and nutrients
216 to the plant roots, which promotes rapid growth and high-quality yields (Phankaen and
217 Kumpanuch, 2025).
218 Melons are harvested by hand, since their skin is tender and easily damaged during harvesting.
219 The appropriate time of harvesting is determined by fruit maturity. Sugar content is the principal

220 measure of maturity (MAFF, 2007). This is expressed as Brix scores, and growers are encouraged
221 to measure Brix content of their crops using a refractometer (Duncan and Ewing, 2015). Other
222 useful indicators of maturity include the formation of the abscission layer between the stem and
223 fruit, skin and flesh color, skin firmness, and netting structure on the skin (MAFF, 2007; Hide Farm
224 Management Consultant, 2017). Melon produces ethylene as it ripens, and ethylene accelerates the
225 ripening process. Consequently, melon fruits are able to continue to ripen after being harvested
226 (Pech et al., 2008). Over-ripening can lead to excessive softening, causing spoilage and damage
227 during shipping and handling. Even when harvested and handled under optimum conditions,
228 melons will be of only fair quality around two weeks after harvest. Ripened melons may be stored
229 at 4°C for three to four weeks (Sugiyama, 2017).

230 **Disease and Pest Problems**

231 Powdery mildew and Fusarium wilt, which are caused by fungal pathogens, *Sphaerotheca*
232 *fuliginea* (Schlechtendal) Pollacci and *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlechtendal f. sp. *melonis* W. C.
233 Synder et H. N. Hansen, respectively, have been the most widespread and serious diseases of melon
234 in Japan (Nonaka and Ezura, 2024). A preventive program combining the use of genetic resistance,
235 agrochemicals, and cultural practices as needed usually helps alleviate disease problems. Many
236 Japanese melon cultivars have resistance to powdery mildew and/or Fusarium wilt. However, it
237 should also be mentioned that resistance efficacy has occasionally been compromised by the
238 emergence of resistance-breaking races of the pathogens (Sakata et al., 2006).

239 Other fungal and bacterial diseases that can result in crop losses include downy mildew [caused
240 by *Pseudoperonospora cubensis* (Berkeley et M. A. Curtis) Rostovzev], angular leaf spot [caused
241 by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *lachrymans* (Smith et Bryan 1915) Young, Dye et Wilkie 1978],
242 secondary root rot [caused by *Pyrenochaeta terrestris* (H. N. Hansen) Gorenz, J. C. Walker et

243 Larson], and gray mold (caused by *Botrytis cinerea* Persoon) (NARO Genebank, 2024). Various
244 viruses are also known to infect melon crops, including Cucumber green mottle mosaic virus
245 (CGMMV; Fukui and Komuro, 1973), Melon yellow spot virus (MYSV; Kato et al., 2000), Melon
246 necrotic spot virus (MNSV; Kishi, 1966), and Cucurbit chlorotic yellow virus (CCYV; Gyoutoku
247 et al., 2009) (Sugiyama, 2013). These viral infections may damage the crop during any given
248 growing season, leading to reduced or poor-quality yields. The solution for the management of
249 viral diseases of melon lies in the strategies of the integration of several methods such as, (i) use
250 of virus-free seeds or seedlings, (ii) grafting on resistant root stocks, (iii) planting resistant melon
251 cultivars, and (iv) interfering with insect vectors using insecticides.

252 Insect pests of melon in Japan include greenhouse whitefly (*Trialeurodes vaporariorum*
253 Westwood), melon aphid (*Aphis gossypii* Glover), leafminer fly (*Liriomyza sativae* Blanchard),
254 and kanzawa spider mite (*Tetranychus kanzawai* Kishida) (MAFF, 2007). It is necessary to protect
255 the plants through traditional insecticide application and integrated pest management strategies
256 (Gyoutoku et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2025). In addition, periodic scouting is recommended for
257 early detection and best management of insect pests.

258 CONCLUDING REMARKS

259 In Japan, the melon improvement programs have been implemented with the main emphasis being
260 on the creation of superior cultivars with high fruit quality and yield, and enhanced disease
261 resistance. Fruit quality greatly affects consumer preferences and the concomitant selection of
262 market-preferred cultivars (Shahwar et al., 2023). Fruit quality consists of many attributes,
263 including internal quality (e.g., flavor/taste, nutritional content, flesh color, and texture) and
264 external features (e.g., shape, rind/skin color, and stripe pattern) (Weng et al., 2020).

265 All current Japanese melon cultivars were developed through conventional breeding methods like
266 pedigree selection, backcrossing, and inter-varietal crossing. The traditional breeding method is,
267 however, time-consuming and laborious, particularly when dealing with complex traits such as
268 fruit quality and yield, as these traits mostly have a multi-genic nature and are vulnerable to
269 environmental influence (Pérez-de-Castro et al., 2012). This method also heavily depends on the
270 phenotype, making selection prone to errors due to the strong influence of genotype-environment
271 (G x E) interactions (Shahwar et al., 2023). To address these challenges, the plant breeding
272 paradigm has shifted and now aims to combine both conventional and molecular breeding
273 approaches with the hope of enhancing the accuracy of breeding practices and saving time.
274 The last decade has witnessed a rapid development of genetic and genomics resources in melon.
275 Since the first melon genome sequence was released (Garcia-Mas et al., 2012), the draft genome
276 assembly has been improved using new technologies and experimental data (Ruggieri et al., 2018;
277 Castanera et al., 2020). With the advancement of sequencing technologies and related research
278 tools, high-resolution genetic maps have been constructed using single nucleotide polymorphisms
279 (SNPs) from genotyping-by-sequencing and re-sequencing data for melon (Weng et al., 2020; Xu
280 et al., 2022). It is also noteworthy that the candidate genes as well as tightly linked molecular
281 markers have been discovered for the traits of rind color, flesh color, and acid content (Xu et al.,
282 2022). These genomic tools will enable the rapid and precise identification of desirable genotypes
283 and accelerate the breeding process.
284 In Japan, the consumption of melons is gradually decreasing (ALIC, 2020). As mentioned above,
285 Japanese melons are regarded for their high standard of quality and safety and are becoming
286 increasingly popular abroad. Hence, it is crucial to expand the exportation of Japanese melons and
287 secure additional demand. The Japanese government has been encouraging the export of

288 domestically produced melons with various programs (USDA, 2018), but the export volume is still
289 limited (see Fig. 2).

290 Japanese melons mostly have a short shelf-life and face challenges when exported to distant
291 overseas market. It is considered that the *ACO* (aminocyclopropane carboxylic acid oxidase) gene
292 is one of the key genes to control the shelf-life of melon fruit (Nonaka and Ezura, 2024). Recently,
293 Nonaka et al., (2023) have succeeded in extending the shelf-life of melon cultivar ‘Earl’s
294 Favourite’ by modifying the *ACO* gene using genome editing technology. Genome editing allows
295 for precise, targeted mutation in one or a few genes without altering the plant’s genetic background
296 (Nonaka and Ezura, 2024). This technology can also overcome many of the public concerns about
297 previous genetic modification techniques because it does not leave foreign genes in the final crops
298 (Khosa et al., 2016; Shahwar et al., 2023). Genome editing is thus expected to play a significant
299 role in future melon improvement.

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304 **CRedit AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

305 Seisuke Motonishi: Conceptualization, writing – review and editing. Tetsuo Mikami:
306 Conceptualization, writing – original draft, review and editing.

307 **DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

308 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests of personal
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319

320 **SAŽETAK**

321 **Japanske dinje: uzgoj, potrošnja i sortiment**

322 Dinja (*Cucumis melo* L.) komercijalno je važna hortikulturna vrsta diljem svijeta te pokazuje
323 impresivnu raznolikost svojstava biljke i samih plodova. Dijeli se na podvrstu ssp. *melo*, koja
324 uključuje zapadne sorte dinje, i podvrstu ssp. *agrestis*, koja uključuje orijentalne dinje poput
325 skupina makuwa i conomon. Povijest uzgoja orijentalne dinje u Japanu vrlo je duga, a orijentalna
326 se dinja upotrebljavala kao svježi desertni plod (*makuwa* dinja) te za kiseljenje ili kuhanje
327 (*conomon* dinja). Zapadna dinja uvedena je u Japan kao svježe desertno voće krajem 19. stoljeća.
328 Provedeni su oplemenjivački naponi radi razvoja kvalitetnih i cjenovno pristupačnih kultivara
329 dinje, a kao rezultat toga zapadna je dinja postala popularna diljem Japana tijekom 1960-ih godina.
330 Površina uzgoja zapadne dinje u Japanu dosegla je vrhunac 1990. godine, a zatim se postupno
331 smanjivala. U ovom preglednom radu opisana je povijest uzgoja i komercijalna proizvodnju
332 japanske dinje, kao i agronomska svojstva glavnih sorata, s očekivanjem da će objedinjene
333 informacije pomoći u razumijevanju problema i perspektiva uzgoja dinje u Japanu.

334

335 **Ključne riječi:** oplemenjivanje, povijest uzgoja, uzgojne prakse, kvaliteta ploda, genomika

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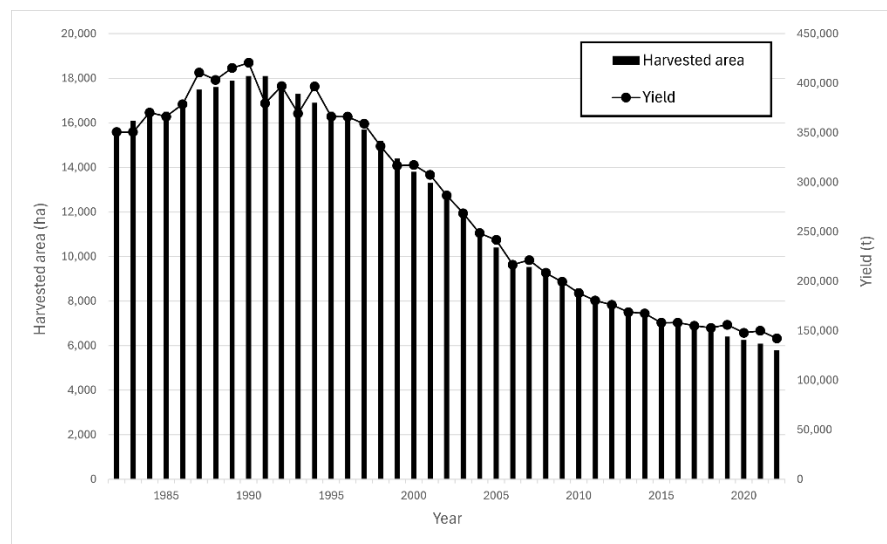
575 Table 1. List of representative melon cultivars presently grown in Japan

| Cultivar | Characteristics | Reference |
|-----------|--|--------------------|
| New Crown | This is an early maturing cultivar which can be usually harvested 35 to 40 days after flowering. It bears nearly round-shaped, small (ca. 500 g in weight) fruits with a grayish white, no-netted rind. Its flesh is pale orange, sweet (Brix: 15 to 16 degrees), and with a pleasing flavor. | Honda (1971) |
| Home Run | An early maturing melon with resistance to downy mildew and powdery mildew. It produces round or slightly oval fruits (1.1 to 1.3 kg in weight) that are smooth-skinned, with white flesh. 'Home Run' offers sweet taste (Brix: 15 to 17 degrees) and melting texture. | Fujiwara (1978) |
| Quincy | 'Quincy' has a good fruit setting and produces uniform, round-shaped, well-netted fruits. The cultivar has salmon-pink, thick and dense flesh with good Brix level (over 16 degrees) and a clean aftertaste. Resistant to Fusarium wilt and powdery mildew. | Itoh (1991) |
| Rupia Red | This is a medium-sized (1.3 to 1.5 kg in weight), oval-shaped melon with a grayish-green ridged skin and dark orange flesh. The flesh is also characterized by its smooth texture and refreshing sweetness (Brix: 16 degrees). Harvest when the abscission layer between the stem and fruit is formed. 'Rupia Red' has resistance to Fusarium wilt and powdery mildew. | Yamaguchi (1991) |
| Takami | The round or slightly oval fruit weighs as much as 1.3 to 1.5 kg. Its deep green rind is finely netted, and flesh is green, dense, very sweet, and with refreshing flavor. The cultivar is resistant to Fusarium wilt and powdery mildew. | Hirabayashi (1991) |
| Tiara | This is a late maturing melon that grows round-shaped fruits with well-netted, grayish green rind. Flesh is salmon colored, thick, juicy, and sweet (Brix: 14 to 16 degrees). 'Tiara' can be harvested 60 to 62 | Horii (2003) |

days after pollination, and exhibits resistance to Fusarium wilt as well as moderate resistance to powdery mildew.

| | | |
|------------|---|-----------------------|
| Lennon | The cultivar produces round fruits with well-netted rind. Flesh is dark orange in color, firm and very sweet (Brix: 15 to 16 degrees). ‘Lennon’ melons have received high praise for their mellow aroma and smooth texture. This is a medium-maturing cultivar that has resistance to Fusarium wilt as well as moderate resistance to powdery mildew. | Horii (2006) |
| Ibaraking | It produces round-shaped, netted melons weighing as much as 1.2 to 1.5 kg. Flesh is opal green in color, and is characterized by its elegant fragrance, sweetness (Brix: 16 degrees), and smooth texture. ‘Ibaraking’ demonstrates resistance to Fusarium wilt. | Ishii (2013) |
| Yubariking | An early maturing cultivar. Its fruit is oval in shape and weighs 1.0 to 2.5 kg. Green colored rind is covered in a fine white mesh. Flesh is orange and less fibrous, and is also characterized by sweetness and rich aroma. | JA Yubari City (2015) |

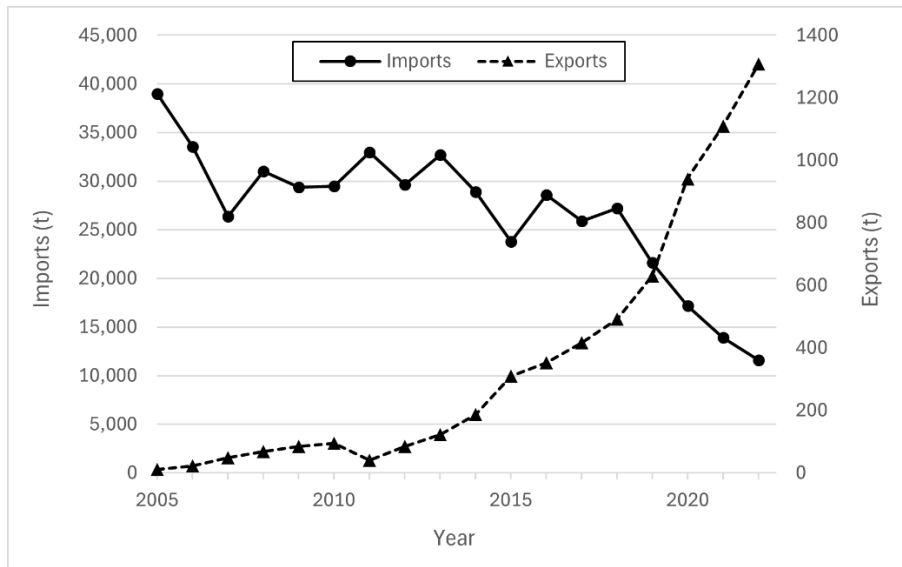
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578 Figure 1. Evolution of harvested area and yield of melon in Japan from 1982 to 2022. Source:

579 MAFF (2025)



580

581 Figure 2. Import and export volumes of melons in Japan from 2005 to 2022. Source: MAFF
582 (2024b, 2024c), MOF (2024)