

**EFFECT OF STORAGE CONDITIONS ON  
THE QUALITY OF EGGS IN OPEN  
MARKETS**

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# **THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

**EFFECT OF STORAGE CONDITIONS ON THE QUALITY OF EGGS IN  
OPEN MARKETS**

**BY**

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**A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF  
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**MAY, 2010**

## **DECLARATION**

This thesis has been compiled by myself and has not been accepted in any previous application for a degree. The work which this thesis records has been done by me and all sources of information have been acknowledged by means of references.



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WILLY KASONKA

MAY, 2010

## **DEDICATION**

I would like to dedicate this project report to my family back home, especially my mother Grace Mulenga Lombe and father William Kasonka for their ever loving support.

## **ABSTRACT**

A study was done to evaluate external and internal egg quality, comparing those stored and sold under informal facilities and those sold in commercial facilities. The quality traits that were examined were egg weight, egg shape index, shell thickness, shell weight, albumin height, albumin pH, yolk pH and yolk width. The eggs used in the study were obtained from three commercial facilities and three informal facilities. These outlets have different storage methods. The effects of source of eggs on the quality traits were found to be significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) for all the traits except egg shape index, yolk width and yolk pH. Egg weights were higher in eggs that were obtained from commercial facilities as compared to those from the informal facilities. Albumen height was lower in eggs from the informal facilities but albumen pH was higher. Therefore, it was concluded that eggs obtained from informal facilities were of lower quality than those from commercial facilities. This implies that storage conditions have significant effects on egg quality. This may affect processing and quality of products in which eggs are included. Further, consumers need to be aware of possible health risks associated with deteriorated quality of eggs stored under open environments.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## **ACRONYMS**

<b>SM1</b>	<b>Supermarket 1</b>
<b>SM2</b>	<b>Supermarket 2</b>
<b>SM3</b>	<b>Supermarket 3</b>
<b>OM1</b>	<b>Open market 1</b>
<b>OM2</b>	<b>Open market 2</b>
<b>OM3</b>	<b>Open market 3</b>

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1.1 Value of eggs**

Eggs have been known to be a marvel of nature. This is because eggs are one of the most complete foods known to humans, as evidenced by the excellent balance of proteins, fats, carbohydrates, vitamins and minerals (Hasler, 2000). They provide a well balanced source of nutrients for persons of all ages. During the rapid growth of infants, children and teenagers, eggs can contribute significantly to the body's nutrient needs. Eggs are sources of nutrition for the developing chick embryo (Cordts et.al., 2002). Unlike mammals, the chick embryo cannot secure needed nutrients from the reserves of the mother; rather it lives in a closed system which must contain all the food needed for development.

Eggs contain an abundance of proteins, vitamins and minerals. The protein fraction of the egg has the highest rating of any food. It has a biological value of 94/100 (Miles and Henry, 2004).

Additionally, eggs are a good source of iron, phosphorus, trace minerals, vitamin A and vitamin E and most of the B-vitamins, including vitamin B-12. Eggs are second only to fish liver oils as a natural source of vitamin D (Jones, 2005).

### **1.2 The poultry industry in Zambia**

There is a growing importance of the livestock sector as more and more people realize that the net annual returns from livestock are high. Poultry is one of the key industries in Zambia. It involves production of poultry meat and eggs. In the center of this are small holder producers, accounting for 65% of the total production (Poultry Association of Zambia: Poultry Schedule,

2007). The poultry industry in Zambia has an annual turnover of K551.7 billion (Poultry Association of Zambia, 2007).

Despite having a huge net annual turnover rate, the industry continues to experience huge economic losses. These losses occur at two levels, that is, production and retail. Related to production losses is poor management. Most of the small holder producers do not regularly pick their eggs and storage of the eggs once they are picked is improper.

Further, retailers owning informal structures do not store eggs properly and these eggs are kept for a long time under conditions that leave the quality highly questionable.

Many small holder producers sell their eggs to open markets and other informal trading places where most consumers buy from. The storage conditions in the open markets are not controlled, thus possibly selling eggs whose quality has deteriorated or posing a health hazard to consumers. Unfortunately, many consumers of eggs are equally not concerned about egg quality. They buy from open markets and other informal trading facilities without considering the environment under which the eggs are being sold.

Eggs for the fresh in shell market must meet strict standards to ensure that only those eggs that are of high quality reach the consumer.

### 1.3 Egg production and consumption in Zambia

According to the Poultry Association of Zambia (2007), egg consumption in Zambia is about 24 eggs per person per month; this corresponds to a total egg consumption of 977,500 eggs per day or 29.3 million eggs per month in Zambia. Of the total egg production, only about 10% is exported to neighbouring countries such as Congo DR, Botswana, Mozambique and Angola (Poultry Association of Zambia, Poultry schedule, 2007).

Egg production in Zambia is mainly done by major corporations like Golden Lay Farm, Cedrics Eggs, Tamba Farms and Bokomo Zambia. The eggs produced by these farms are both for the local market and export market. However, eggs found on the local market are mainly produced and supplied by small holder producers. These producers deliver their eggs in open vans; the eggs are mainly supplied to traders who do not have proper storage facilities. Normally the eggs

are sold to consumers at the stalls without any protection from sunlight or other forms of environmental insults. This situation may lead to faster deterioration of egg quality.

## 1.4 Objectives

Given the above background, the main objective of this study was to investigate internal and external quality of eggs consumed in Lusaka by highlighting the differences in the quality of eggs stored under uncontrolled open markets and those stored in commercial trading facilities.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Physical characteristics of an egg

Typically, an egg is oval shaped with a smooth protective covering known as the shell. Although many are truly ovate, eggs differ considerably in shape. Some are nearly spherical, whereas others are elongated. Some eggs are almost equally pointed or rounded at both ends, others taper sharply from the large end to the small end.

The shell is composed of Calcium Carbonate, with some 6 000-8 000 pores (Roberts and Leary, 1999). The pores permit transfer of volatile components including exchange of air between the outside and inside. The normal egg weighs about 58 grammes and the shell thickness is 0.33-0.40 mm (Staldeman and Cotterill, 1995).

The egg shell has two membranes just below it; these form the inedible part of the egg. The shell color of the eggs of the domestic hen may be white, brown and various shades of brown or yellow. Sometimes very small dark flecks are present on the shell, especially if it is brown. Color of the egg is peculiar to the breed, although tinted eggs occasionally appear in breeds that ordinarily lay white eggs.

The egg yolk (yellow in colour) is surrounded by a membrane called vitelline membrane. The germinal disc, a normal part of every egg, is located on the surface of the yolk. Embryo formation begins here only in fertilized eggs.

##### *2.1.1 Components of the egg*

The characteristic feature of an egg is the shell. The shell is the outer covering of the egg and performs several important functions and tasks. Each individual egg is unique with its own microstructure which provides a wealth of information about the environment in which it was reared (Cordts et al., 2002). The shell protects the contents of the egg from mechanical impact

to some extent and allows a controlled exchange of fluid and gas through the pores. The egg shell also provides protection against microbial entry from the environment and serves as a source of calcium for the development of the embryonic skeleton (in case of fertilized eggs). (Roque and Soares, 1994).

The two membranes below the shell form the second line of defense. The outer shell membrane is located just inside the shell, and the inner shell membrane, is located between the outer shell membrane and the albumin. As the egg cools, the two membranes are pulled apart to form the air sac. The air sac is an empty space located at the large end of the egg. It provides a way of testing the age of an egg: as the air cell increases in size, the egg becomes less dense and the larger end of the egg will rise to increasingly shallower depths when the egg is placed in a bowl of water (Stewart et al., 2006). A very old egg will eventually float in water and should not be eaten.

The most common part of the egg is the egg white or the albumen. It is transparent when the egg is raw but assumes its characteristic white colour when boiled. The egg white surrounds the egg yolk and is comprised of four layers namely: outer thin or liquid white, dense or thick white/albuminous sac, inner thin or liquid white and inner thick white or chalaziferous layer. The four layers can be categorised into two broad classes: thick albumin (the stringy part of the egg white located nearest the yolk) and thin albumin (the watery part of the egg white located farthest from the yolk). Suspended in this gel-like fluid is the yolk. It makes up 33% of the liquid weight of the egg. The yolk is the sole source of food for the developing embryo, in fertilized eggs. The yolk of a freshly laid egg is round and firm. As the yolk ages it absorbs water from the albumen, which increases its size and causes it to stretch and weaken the vitelline membrane (Evenepoel et al., 1998). The resulting effect is a flattened and enlarged yolk shape.

The yolk is held in place by the chalazae. These are spiral bands of tissue that hold the yolk and keep it suspended in the egg white.

### *2.1.2 Biochemical composition of an egg*

The egg contains about 88% water in the egg white. This is not only important for biochemical reactions that take place to maintain the internal egg quality but the high levels of moisture can

redispose the egg to microorganisms, which would proliferate in such an environment (Kimura et al., 2004).

The egg is one of the few foods that naturally contain Vitamin D. All the egg's Vitamin A, D and E are in the yolk (Brothwell et al., 2004). Eggs supply all essential amino acids for humans and provide several vitamins and minerals, including Vitamin A, riboflavin, folic acid, Vitamin B<sub>6</sub>, Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, choline, iron, calcium, phosphorus and potassium (Howe et al., 2004). Table 1 shows the approximate quantities found in the egg.

The egg yolk contains approximately 60 calories (250 kilojoules) while the egg white contains about 15 calories (60 kilojoules) (Li-Chan and Nakai, 1998).

The proteins of the egg white account for about 13% and contain no cholesterol and little, if any, fat (Weggmans et al., 1999). Egg white proteins include Ovalbumin, Conalbumin, Ovomuroid, Globulins, Ovomucin, Flavoprotein, Ovoglycoprotein and Avidin. 27% of the the fat in the egg is saturated fat (Palmitic, Stearic and Myristic acids) that contains LDL cholesterol.

### *2.1.3 Uses of eggs*

Chicken eggs are widely used in many types of dishes. Eggs can be fried, scrambled, pickled, hard-boiled, soft-boiled or refrigerated. Eggs are also widely used in industrial processes to manufacture products like mayonnaise and hollandaise. Eggs are also used in baking. Eggs can add many positive attributes to food products such as: emulsification, leavening, smoothness and flavor (Jones, 2007). However, these factors are affected by the quality of eggs. According to Bull (2002), egg functionality decreases with storage time and temperature. This is due to the decline in yolk solids.

Eggs can be eaten raw, though this is not recommended for people who may be especially susceptible to Salmonella, such as the elderly and pregnant women. In addition, the protein in raw eggs is only 51% bio-available, whereas that of a cooked egg is nearly 91% bio-available, meaning the protein of cooked egg is nearly twice as absorbable as the protein from raw eggs (Evenepoel et al., 1998).

## 2.2 Development of an egg

The egg is the reproductive cell (ovum) of the hen. A unique phenomena exists in the chicken. This is the inherent capacity of the chicken to produce eggs without fertilization. The chicken egg starts as an egg yolk inside a hen. The yolk (called the oocyte at this point) is produced by the hen's ovary in a process called ovulation (Solomon, 1991). The yolk is released into the oviduct. The yolk continues down the oviduct and is covered with a membrane known as vitelline membrane, structural fibres and layers of albumen. This part of the oviduct is called the Magna (Solomon, 1991).

### 2.2.1 *Factors affecting development of egg shell*

A number of environmental influences to which the hens are exposed play an important role in the formation of the egg shell. Shell quality declines as the hen gets older. This deterioration in the egg shell quality is associated with a change in the matrix material, which affects the mechanical properties of the shell (Hester, 1990). In hot weather there is reduced feed intake. During exposure to warm environmental conditions, the hen reacts by increasing breathing in order to cool itself. This causes the lowering of Carbon Dioxide in the blood and produces a condition known as respiratory alkalosis. The pH of blood becomes alkaline and the availability of calcium for the egg shell is reduced (Peebles et al., 1997).

Another reason for poorer shell quality in older hens is their reduced ability to absorb calcium (Cordts et al., 2002). Absorption of calcium is influenced by Vitamin D<sub>3</sub>, which is mainly absorbed from the intestines in association with fats, and requires the presence of bile salts for absorption. It is transported via the portal circulation to the liver, where it accumulates. The first transformation occurs in the liver, where vitamin D<sub>3</sub> is hydroxylated to become 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub> (25-OH-D<sub>3</sub>). This vitamin D<sub>3</sub> metabolite is then transported to the kidney where it is converted to the most active hormonal compound 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub> (1, 25-(OH)<sub>2</sub> D<sub>3</sub>) (Acamovic, 2001). The production of 1, 25 (OH)<sub>2</sub> D<sub>3</sub> is tightly regulated by the Parathyroid hormone in response to serum calcium.

Management regime also affects formation of quality egg shells. Temperature and atmospheric humidity in particular are crucial for the formation of the shell. Failure to get these two parameters right means that the hen will suffer from stress. While genetic predisposition for egg shell quality exists, good genes can be upset by environmental stresses. The shell is formed by the activity of cells lining the oviduct and uterus (Richard et al., 2009). Under stress, the secretions of these cells become acidic and are destroyed or damaged.

The health status of laying hens also plays an important role in achieving good shell quality (Hester, 1990). Respiratory tract infections (Infectious Bronchitis) in particular are of major significance.

## *2.2 Abnormalities in eggs*

When a deviation in the mechanics of egg laying occurs, it results in the creation of abnormal eggs. Some of these abnormalities occur due to management problems or they can also be physiological. Some common abnormalities are:

**Translucent patches:** these are seen when eggs are candled. They are as a result of defects such as the fusion of the crystal columns and channels or holes in the mammillary layer, which allow water from the egg contents to penetrate the thickness of the shell (Solomon, 1991).

**Thin shells:** thickness is dependent on the amount of time it spends in the shell gland and the rate of calcium deposition (Kuhl, 2000). Thin shells are due to deficiency of calcium in the diet. It can also happen if a chicken lays two eggs within a day.

**Soft shelled eggs:** exposure to warm environmental conditions results in the disturbance of acid base balance (Voisey and Hunt, 1996). This disturbance causes an increase in soft-shelled eggs during summer. They can also result when there is calcium deficiency in the diet.

**Double yolked eggs:** it is the result of two yolks ripening on the ovary at the same time and being released simultaneously.

## 2.3 Quality of eggs

Kramer (1951) defined quality as the properties of any given food that have an influence on the acceptance or rejection of this food by the consumer. Quality of any food that is consumed does have an effect on the health and well being of the consumer.

Egg quality is inarguably very important. This is because not only are eggs important in the reproduction process of birds but they are also consumed by humans. Egg quality comprises a number of aspects related to the shell, albumin, and yolk and may be divided into external and internal quality (Kul and Seker, 2004).

Internal quality is evaluated based on the color of the egg white, yolk color, odor and general appearance of the contents. Determination of internal quality is based on Air cell space, albumen quality, yolk quality and the presence of blood spots and meat spots (Richards et.al, 2009). As soon as the egg is laid, its internal quality starts to deteriorate; the longer the storage time the more the internal quality deteriorates (Roberts and Leary, 1999).

The egg white is an important indicator of egg quality. The egg white of a high quality egg must be firm with a rather clear demarcation between the thin and thick albumen (Jones, 2007; Bell et.al, 2007). In a newly laid egg the albumen pH lies between 7.6 and 8.5. During storage the albumen pH increases at a temperature dependent rate to a maximum value of around 9.7 (Heath, 1977). In newly laid eggs, the yolk pH is about 6.0; however, during storage it gradually increases to reach 6.4 to 6.9. This is because as the egg ages, Carbon Dioxide is lost and the pH increases. The Carbon Dioxide loss happens through the shell pores and depends on dissolved Carbon Dioxide, bicarbonate ions, Carbonate ions and protein equilibrium. Bicarbonate and Carbonate ion concentration is affected by the partial pressure in the external environment (Solomon; 1991).

Shell quality is assessed based on the breaking strength, shell thickness and shell weight. Shell quality is one of the most important factors in maintaining egg quality. The shell thickness and porosity regulate the exchange of carbon dioxide and oxygen between the developing embryo and the air during embryo development. Shell thickness also has a very significant effect on moisture loss during storage (Washburn, 1998). Thin-shelled eggs also have a much greater

nce of being cracked during handling. Although shell quality can generally be manipulated through nutrition, there are several other factors that can have an effect, such as:

**Diseases:** diseases have a negative impact on shell quality, among other production traits. The stress caused by disease challenge can reduce water and feed intake of the affected birds (Marion et al., 1990). Reduced feed intake will cause a calcium deficiency, which will cause shell blemishes.

**Management:** temperature during storage has a significant effect on shell quality. Handling can also affect quality after lay. Rough handling can cause small, almost invisible cracks in the shell that make the egg more prone to bacterial infection.

**Nutrition:** one major dietary component affecting eggshell quality is calcium. Each egg contains approximately 2.5g of calcium. Both excess and deficiency of calcium will negatively affect shell quality.

According to Keener et al. (2005) Albumen height is a measure of albumen quality and therefore freshness of the egg and also Silversides et al. (1993) proposed measuring albumen height to determine egg quality. Scott and Silversides (2000) and Jones and Musgrove (2005) reported a decrease in albumen height and weight of eggs with storage leading to decreased egg weight.

**Table-1:** Nutritional value of the chicken egg per 100g

Energy	647Kj (155 calories)
Carbohydrates	1.22g
Fat	10.6g
Protein	12.6g
Water	75g
Vitamin A (equivalent)	140µg (16%)
Thiamine (Vitamin B1)	0.066mg (5%)
Riboflavin (Vitamin B2)	0.5mg (33%)
Pantothenic acid (Vitamin B5)	1.4mg (28%)
Folate (Vitamin B9)	44µg (11%)
Calcium	50mg (5%)
Iron	1.2mg (10%)
Magnesium	10mg (3%)
Phosphorus	172mg (25%)
Potassium	126mg (3%)
Zinc	1.0mg (10%)
Choline	225mg
Cholesterol	425mg

Source: USDA Nutrient Database

# CHAPTER THREE

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 3.1 Data collection

A total of 1,080 eggs were obtained from six major trading areas in Lusaka. Three of the sources were supermarkets (designated SM1, SM2 and SM3) with proper storage facilities and the other three were open markets (designated OM1, OM2 and OM3) without proper storage facilities. Sixty eggs were obtained from each source per week for three weeks over a period of two months. The 60 eggs collected each week were considered a batch. Following collection of eggs, they were transported in carton boxes to the University of Zambia, Animal Science laboratory. The eggs were put on trays, plastics wrapped around them and then refrigerated at 4°C, according to the recommendations of St. John and Flor (1930) as quoted by Jones (2007).

For each batch 10 eggs were selected at random for measurement of each parameter. The parameters measured were; Albumen height, yolk width, albumen pH, yolk pH, colour, shell thickness, shell weight, egg weight and egg shape index.

The eggs were analysed in the Animal Science laboratory within a week of collection. Analysis of external quality was done using the vernier caliper, micrometer screw gauge and sensitive balance. Internal quality analysis was done using pH meter (has a temperature reader), colour reader, vernier caliper and micrometer screw gauge.

#### *3.1.1 Measurement of shell thickness*

After carefully breaking the eggs, the shells were washed and dried in the oven at 50°C, for 24 hours. The shells were then cooled on the desiccators. The shell thickness was then measured according to the methods of Curtis et al. (1986). The method involves collection of three pieces of shells from the narrow, broad and equator. The thickness of these pieces was measured using the micrometer screw gauge. The mean thickness was then taken as the thickness of the particular shell.

### *3.1.2 Measurement of yolk and albumen pH*

A crack, large enough to let the egg white seep through, was made on the egg. The egg white was carefully emptied into a glass cup. Care was taken to ensure that there was no yolk contamination of the albumen. [Note: Even a slight contamination of the albumen with yolk could drastically affect the albumen].

The yolk was put in another cup. The pH was then determined using a pH meter. After every measurement of the yolk and albumen pH, the pH meter was cleaned first with tap water, then distilled water and dried with dry absorbing paper.

### *3.1.3 Measurement of albumen height*

This was measured as the height of the chalazae at a point midway between thinner and outer circumference of egg white with a vertically mounted micrometer screw gauge. Samples of 10 eggs from each batch were weighed and broken onto a white clean tile, for measurement of the albumen height.

**B:** When breaking eggs for internal quality traits, individual eggs were broken out on a flat white tile being cautious not to break the vitelline membrane that encloses the yolk (Cunningham and Cotterill, 1964).

## **3.2 Statistical analysis of data**

The data were pooled for each source of eggs, and analysed using GenStat. The source of eggs was the source of error. The means were then separated using Least Significant Differences.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 1 External quality of Eggs

The results for external quality traits are presented in Table 2. There were significant differences ( $p < 0.001$ ) in egg weight between eggs obtained from open markets and those obtained from commercial facilities. The general decline in egg weight has been reported by Samli et al. (2003), who observed a decrease in egg weight within 10 days. The decrease in egg weight is probably due to loss in moisture from the eggs. Once eggs are laid, they lose water by evaporation (this leads to a decline in albumen height). The rate of weight loss of stored eggs is dependent on both temperature and humidity, with weight loss being greatest at higher temperature and lower humidity (Roberts, 2005). Most informal facilities lack proper facilities in which humidity can be regulated (see Figure 1 and 2). This results in higher losses of moisture and hence decline in egg weight. The changes in egg weight that were observed are consistent with the reports of ACIAR (1998) and Samli et al. (2005).

Another trait important in external quality evaluation is shell thickness. The results show that shell thickness was significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) between eggs obtained from open markets and those obtained from commercial outlets. Scientific evidence shows that egg shell thickness depends on the amount of calcium in the diet and the ability of the hen to re-absorb calcium deposited in the bones. This ability usually deteriorates progressively as the hen ages (Kirchgesner, 1997). However, research has shown that with storage, the incidence of cracks increases. This can be attributed to the decline of shell thickness. In the present study, shell thickness of the eggs collected from different sources showed significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) among the treatments (sources). Decline in shell thickness can be attributed to a number of factors. These include among others; factors due to the hen's physiology, that is, as the hen ages there is reduced ability to absorb calcium from the bones and there is a general increase in egg weight but this is not in proportion with the increase in shell weight (Roberts, 2005). Egg shape index of eggs from open markets and commercial facilities was significantly different. This contrasts with what was found by Jones (2004). He found that extended periods of storage, under

favourable conditions had no effect on the Egg Shape index. The differences in the results could be due to difference in storage time. Whereas we do not know how long the eggs obtained had been stored for, Jones had stored his eggs for more than 28 days. It is possible that our eggs could have been stored for a longer period of time, hence, the change in Egg Shape Index become apparent.

**Table-2.** External quality of eggs obtained from open markets (OM) compared with commercial supermarkets (SM)

quality traits	OM1	OM2	OM3	SM1	SM2	SM3
egg weight	5.67 <sup>c</sup>	5.41 <sup>bc</sup>	5.77 <sup>c</sup>	3.95 <sup>a</sup>	4.17 <sup>ab</sup>	3.69 <sup>a</sup>
egg thickness	0.0493 <sup>b</sup>	0.0473 <sup>b</sup>	0.0550 <sup>c</sup>	0.0346 <sup>a</sup>	0.0340 <sup>a</sup>	0.0359 <sup>a</sup>
egg weight	42.0 <sup>c</sup>	53.5 <sup>a</sup>	41.2 <sup>c</sup>	68.4 <sup>b</sup>	64.1 <sup>b</sup>	52.9 <sup>a</sup>
shape index	0.530 <sup>ab</sup>	0.652 <sup>b</sup>	0.759 <sup>c</sup>	0.429 <sup>a</sup>	0.487 <sup>a</sup>	0.448 <sup>a</sup>

Means within rows with different superscript are significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) different from each other

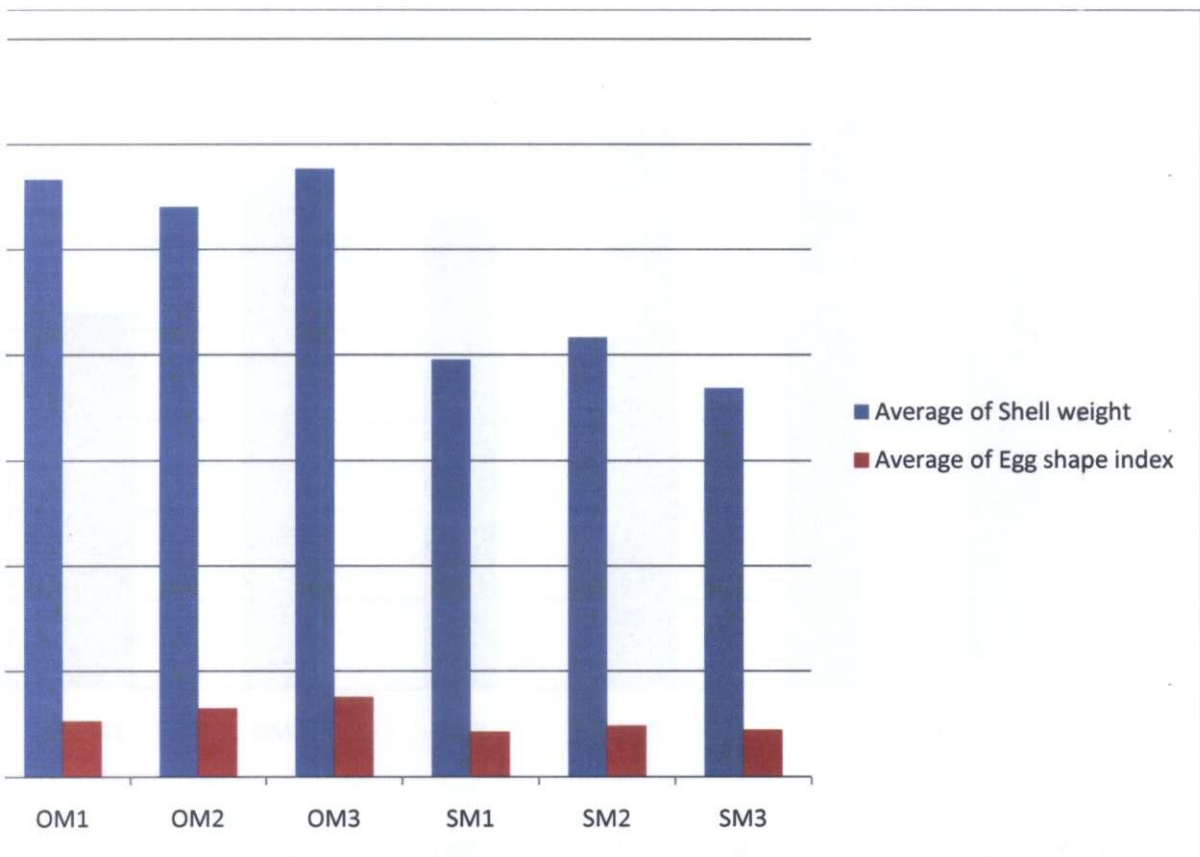
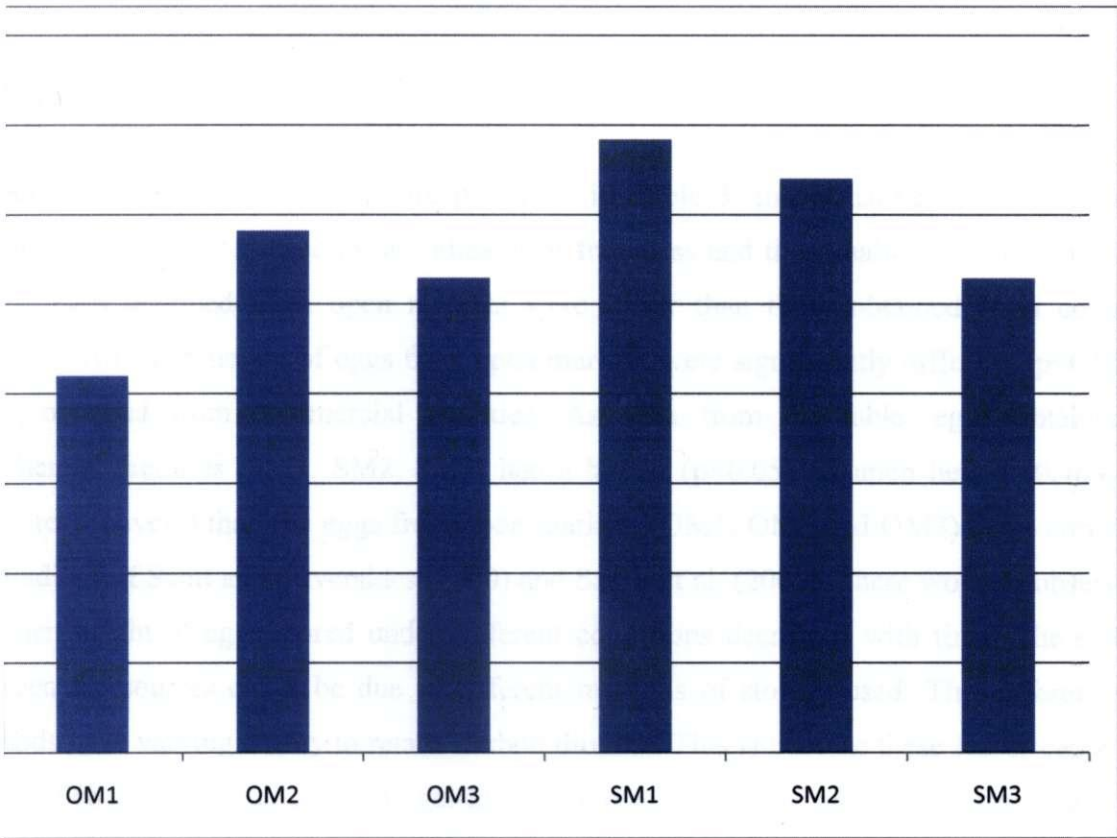


Figure 1: Differences in shell weight and egg shape index of eggs obtained from open markets and commercial supermarkets (SM)



2: Differences in egg weight of eggs obtained from open markets (OM) and commercial markets (SM)

## Internal quality of Eggs

Results for internal quality traits are presented in Table 3. In evaluating internal egg quality, albumen height is often used as an indicator of freshness and thus quality. The albumen heights of eggs obtained from open markets were lower than those obtained from commercial facilities. Albumen height of eggs from open markets were significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) from those obtained from commercial facilities. As seen from the table, eggs obtained from commercial facilities (SM1, SM2, SM3) had a higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) albumen height (0.469, 0.454, respectively) than the eggs from open markets (OM1, OM2 and OM3). This corroborates findings of Scott and Silversides (2000) and Samli et al. (2005). These workers observed that albumen height of eggs stored under different conditions decreased with time. The difference between the sources could be due to different methods of storage used. The different storage methods have varying ability to retard Carbon dioxide. This is because these losses cause Mucin which gives the albumen its gel-like texture to lose their structure and so the albumen becomes watery (Mountney, 1976; Jones, 2009). They further enumerated that as the albumen becomes watery, there is a loss of albumen height, thus a decline in egg quality with storage. The rate of loss is more rapid and drastic if storage conditions are poor. According to Miles and Mott (2004), eggs stored at temperatures higher than  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  are no longer fit for consumption after 4 weeks.

Significant differences were also noted for the albumen pH. Increases in albumen pH can be attributed to the breakdown of carbonic acid into carbon dioxide. The carbon dioxide is lost through the pores in the shell leading to the pH of the albumen becoming alkaline. Interestingly, Jones (2009) noted that regardless of the temperature of the albumen or the yolk, the pH remained constant (Figure 3). Measure of acidity (pH) is an important parameter, which affects metabolism and many other biochemical processes in the egg. Homeostasis is the process which is involved in the maintenance of constant pH. This is important because the egg is a reproductive unit and therefore, requires optimal conditions to ensure proper growth and development of the embryo. Any sudden fluctuations in the internal environment can be disastrous to the embryo.

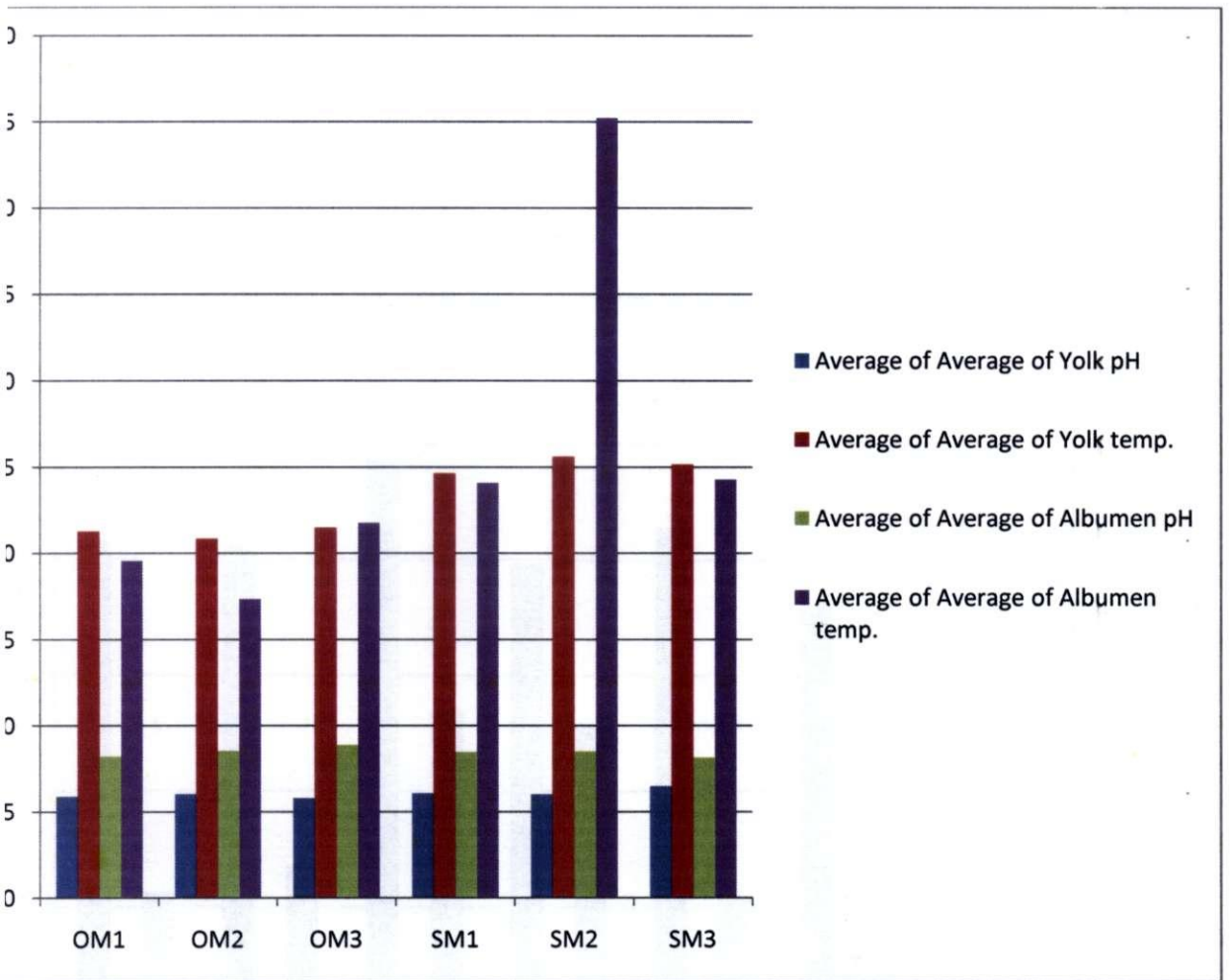
Commercial eggs have many uses and as such eggs need to be of a particular standard and most importantly, must appeal to consumers. This cosmetic characteristic that has economic

Importance was analysed to provide an understanding of changes that occur in colour during storage. Colour has no bearing on the nutritional status of an egg, but some classes of consumers, especially those in the baking and manufacturing sector (mayonnaise), are particular about the aesthetic appearance of the product. In the present study it was shown that the differences in L\*, a\* and b\* colour measurements were minor (Figure 4). There were approximately 3-5 point differences between high and low colour values for each L\*, a\* and b\* values during the study. This was in agreement with the findings of Lechevalier et al. (2005). He found that the effects of storage conditions, on the colour of the yolk, were barely observable by the human eye. In this study therefore, egg to egg variability can be considered to be affected by hen health, nutrition, management practices and other factors such as amount and type of pigments in the feed. Lechevalier et al. (2005) determined that raw materials accounted for 70% of the variability in the colour quality of the yolk, when comparing egg treatments.

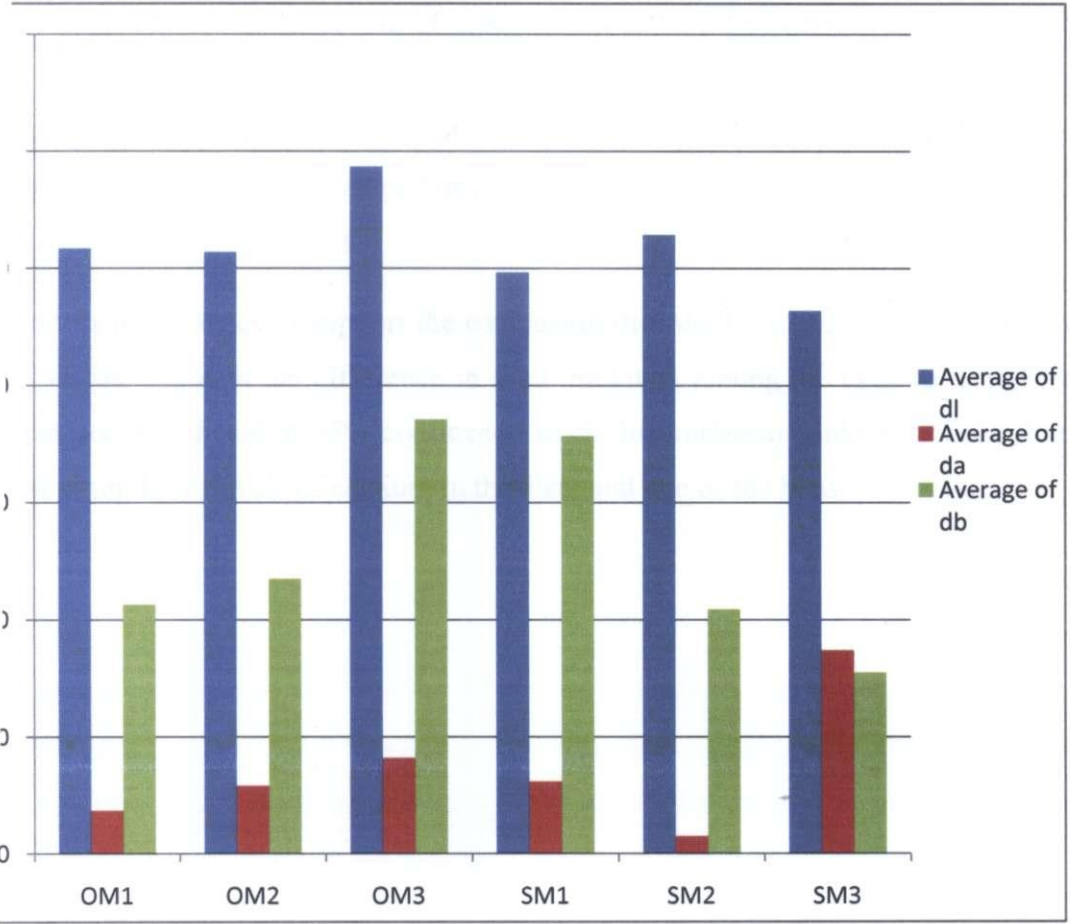
Table-3. Internal quality of eggs obtained from open markets (OM) compared with commercial supermarkets (SM)

quality traits	OM1	OM2	OM3	SM1	SM2	SM3
Yolk Height	0.213 <sup>b</sup>	0.253 <sup>b</sup>	0.258 <sup>b</sup>	0.465 <sup>a</sup>	0.454 <sup>a</sup>	0.331 <sup>ab</sup>
Yolk pH	5.87 <sup>a</sup>	5.47 <sup>a</sup>	5.78 <sup>a</sup>	4.32 <sup>a</sup>	4.28 <sup>a</sup>	4.63 <sup>a</sup>
Yolk width	3 <sup>a</sup>	4 <sup>a</sup>	3 <sup>a</sup>	3 <sup>a</sup>	4.875 <sup>a</sup>	3 <sup>a</sup>
Albumen pH	8.20 <sup>bc</sup>	7.73 <sup>b</sup>	8.87 <sup>c</sup>	6.04 <sup>a</sup>	6.07 <sup>a</sup>	5.81 <sup>a</sup>

Means within rows with different superscript are significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) different from each other



**Figure 3:** Differences in yolk pH and Albumen pH of eggs obtained from open markets (OM) and commercial supermarkets (SM), with varying temperatures



re-4. Effect of source of eggs on L\*, a\* and b\* values

### 3.3 Implication of results

Results obtained indicated that variations in the albumen height, albumen pH, egg weight, and shell weight and shell thickness of the eggs from informal as compared to commercial facilities are largely due to storage conditions at the trading facilities. Eggs at informal facilities are kept for long periods under unfavourable conditions. This not only leads to rapid deterioration of quality but also reduces the nutritional value of the egg. Deteriorated egg quality may have serious implications on the health of consumers. Further, the domestic and industrial use of such eggs may be compromised. It is also possible that poor management by small holder producers of eggs could contribute to the lower quality of eggs in informal trading facilities. Poor management includes irregular picking of eggs, lack of routine checks to examine the birds and poor disease control measures.

There was no evidence to support the conclusion that shell thickness was affected by storage. In other words, although the difference in shell thickness among the eggs collected from different sources was significant at 95% confidence level, this variation could have been due to variation in hen physiology, levels of calcium in the diets and age of the hens.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Conclusion

In the study it was observed that eggs from informal facilities had smaller albumen heights, lower shell weights and egg weights, and higher albumen pH (more Alkaline). The significant differences in these egg quality traits are in agreement with the findings of Fosenko et al. (1995); Mwirira et al. (2003) and Miles and Henry (2004) who observed that when eggs are stored under unfavourable and uncontrolled conditions, there is a decline in albumen height and increase in albumen pH. The results are further supported by Scott and Silversides (2000) who reported that weight changes are significant when stored under room temperature and high temperatures (>20°C). It can be concluded that storage conditions at different retail facilities, in Lusaka, do affect the internal and external quality of eggs. Therefore, consumers are buying and consuming eggs of poor quality, because eggs are being stored under conditions that lead to rapid deterioration of quality.

#### Recommendations

To the best knowledge of the author, this is the first time a study looking at the quality of eggs produced and consumed in Lusaka is being done. It is, therefore, recommended the research be extended to look at the quality of eggs produced by different breeds reared in Zambia. The study should also be extended to analyse eggs produced by smallholder producers at farm level. The findings would be useful in raising awareness among retailers on the importance of proper storage of eggs, to retard egg quality deterioration. Further, the results will enlighten consumers on the dangers of consuming eggs which have been stored under unfavourable conditions and the risks this may pose to their health.

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## APPENDIX

**Table-3: ANOVA table for albumen height**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
treatment	5	2.67177	0.53435	9.54	<.001
Residual	67	3.75356	0.05602		
Total	72	6.42533			

**Table-4: ANOVA table for yolk pH**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
treatment	5	31.644	6.329	1.17	0.331
Residual	67	360.915	5.387		
Total	72	392.558			

**Table-5: ANOVA table for yolk width**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
t	5	9.334E+07	1.867E+07	0.83	0.531
Residual	67	1.502E+09	2.241E+07		
Total	72	1.595E+09			

**Table-6: ANOVA table for shell weight**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
t	5	52.270	10.454	2.02	0.087
Residual	67	347.371	5.185		
Total	72	399.641			

**Table 7: ANOVA table for shell thickness**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
	5	0.0046755	0.0009351	2.59	0.033
Residual	67	0.0241576	0.0003606		
Total	72	0.0288331			

**Table 8: ANOVA table for egg weight**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
Treatment	5	33372.5	6674.5	37.93	<.001
Residual	67	11791.3	176.0		
Total	72	45163.8			

**Table-9: ANOVA table for egg shape index**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
	5	0.9508	0.1902	1.61	0.170
Residual	67	7.9272	0.1183		
Total	72	8.8780			

**Table-10: ANOVA table for albumen pH**

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
	5	100.219	20.044	2.01	0.088
Residual	67	667.580	9.964		
Total	72	767.800			