

1 **Fraud detection in hen housing system declared on the eggs' label: An**  
2 **accuracy method based on UV-VIS-NIR spectroscopy and chemometrics**

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10

11 **ABSTRACT**

12 EU regulation classifies egg production in four hen housing systems:  
13 organic, free range, barn and cages. However, there are no analytical methods  
14 for a complete detection of the housing systems declared on the eggs' label.  
15 This work describes a new method for this task. A lipid extract was obtained,  
16 and eggs classified in the four housing systems by UV-VIS-NIR spectroscopy  
17 and chemometrics. A total of 192 spectra were analysed. Eggs were classified  
18 by Support Vector Machine classification and Linear and Quadratic Discriminant  
19 Analysis (LDA and QDA, respectively). The cholesterol concentration did not  
20 allow to classify correctly the four farming systems. However, the yolk lipid  
21 extract successfully classified the eggs of the hen housing system. Results  
22 showed 100% accuracy by UV-VIS-NIR spectrum of the yolk lipid extract with  
23 the QDA statistical analysis. **These results indicate that this lipid extract is a**  
24 **promising tool for analytical verification of the farming system.**

25

26 Keywords: egg; fraud; cholesterol; farming methods; organic production;  
27 chemometrics, spectroscopy

28

## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 Fraud in food trading has been common since ancient times. Financial  
31 reasons or to camouflage the bad appearance and taste of rotten food were the  
32 initial motivations. Through the ages, fraudulent practices have been refined  
33 and become more sophisticated, following or anticipating advances in the  
34 analytical sciences (Oliveri & Downey, 2012). In addition, due to the  
35 globalization and expansion of food supply chains, the prevalence and impact  
36 of food fraud have increased over recent years (Johnson, Sidwick, Pirgozliev,  
37 Edge, & Thompson, 2018). Food fraud is a collective term that includes the  
38 deliberate and intentional substitution, addition, tampering, or misrepresentation  
39 of food, food ingredients, or food packaging; or false or misleading statements  
40 made about a product for economic reason (Spink & Moyer, 2011). In the last  
41 year, it has been published several cases of misrepresentation of the hen  
42 farming method on the eggs' label (Joint Research Centre, 2018c, 2018b,  
43 2018a). Although several techniques have been developed and used to detect  
44 this kind of egg fraud, there is still much to be done regarding its detection.

45 Eggs are consumed worldwide. They are well known as a source of  
46 vitamins, minerals, phospholipids and high-quality proteins. They are included in  
47 a healthy diet. For instance, eggs were included in the 87% of the available  
48 European food-based dietary guidelines (Montagnese et al., 2015). In the  
49 European Union, eggs are produced by hens of the species *Gallus gallus*. The  
50 introduction of the Council Directive 1999/74/CE establishes the minimum

51 standards for the welfare protection of laying hens in free range, barn and cage  
52 housing systems. In addition, the Commission Directive 2002/4/EC set four  
53 codes for the farming systems: 0- for organic production, 1- for free range, 2- for  
54 barn and 3- for cages. The Commission Regulation 589/2008 (EC) describes  
55 detailed rules on marketing standards for eggs. It sets the four types of eggs  
56 that can be found in the European market according to the hen housing system  
57 cited above.

58         Organic eggs are produced according to the requirements of organic  
59 production. This method has specific principles that include the observance of a  
60 high level of animal welfare, feed ingredients grown without synthetic fertilizers  
61 and no products from genetically modified organism (European Council, 2007).  
62 Organic systems are a specific form of free-range hens where they also have  
63 access to a pasture. They are kept in no more than 6 hens per m<sup>2</sup> usable area  
64 (European Commission, 2008).

65         Free-range eggs are from hens that must have continuous daytime  
66 access to open-air runs. This space must be mainly covered with vegetation  
67 and the maximum stocking density is one hen per 4 m<sup>2</sup> at all times.

68         Barn eggs are produced in systems that required the same conditions as  
69 free range except for the open-air runs and the maximum of 9 hens per m<sup>2</sup>  
70 usable area. They are from hens that are kept in houses that might have  
71 multiple aviaries with nest boxes and perches, and the floor is covered with litter  
72 material.

73         Eggs from caged hens are from hens rearing in enriched cages and they  
74 must have at least 750 cm<sup>2</sup> of cage area per hen. Intensive systems have  
75 facilitated the production of animal-based products at relatively low prices.

76 However, they have been increasingly considered to be responsible for a  
77 dramatic reduction in animal welfare, as indicated by the high prevalence of  
78 brittle bones in hens and lameness in broilers (Napolitano, Serrapica, &  
79 Braghieri, 2013).

80 Due to differences in stocking density, feed costs and consumption,  
81 mortality and productivity, the production costs are lower in cage and barn  
82 systems, intermediate in free-range systems and higher in organic systems  
83 (Leenstra et al., 2014). Nowadays population is concerned about animal  
84 welfare. In most European countries, organic and free range production are  
85 increasing compared to other systems due to consumer preferences.  
86 Consumers in developed countries are demanding high-quality food, produced  
87 under more environmentally friendly conditions. Then, producers face the  
88 opposing demands of the need to increase food production while reducing  
89 ecological impact of intensive production methods (Abín, Laca, Laca, & Díaz,  
90 2018).

91 Furthermore, in Switzerland, non-cage systems for layers are obligatory  
92 since 1992 and in Spain some big supermarket chains have decided to stop  
93 selling eggs from caged hens. These circumstances could force producers to  
94 shift to an extensive production method. But, as it was reported at the  
95 beginning, it has also claimed the attention of fraudsters.

96 As the demand of extensive production method has increased, the  
97 potential financial gain is higher for fraudsters. However, the risk of getting  
98 caught is low as the current identification method is purely administrative.  
99 Testing the traceability is the available technique to determine where the egg is  
100 from and what kind of hen houses are in the farm of origin. A comprehensive

101 literature search on techniques for verifying egg authenticity showed that there  
102 are already described procedures to discriminate organic eggs from  
103 conventional eggs. Techniques based on carotenoids profiling (Van Ruth et al.,  
104 2011; Van Ruth et al., 2013), fatty acid composition (Samman et al., 2009; Tres,  
105 O'Neill, & Van Ruth, 2011) or mineral content (Borges et al., 2015; Küçükyilmaz  
106 et al., 2012; Vincevica-Gaile, Gaga, & Klavins, 2013) were developed. However,  
107 the current risk is not only fraud with organic eggs. Because organic production  
108 has a robust legislation that dissuade fraudsters. Besides, in some countries the  
109 consumer prefers free-ranges eggs over organic eggs (Zakowska-Biemans &  
110 Tekień, 2017), and these rouse fraudsters' interest on free-range products.  
111 Other relevant studies discriminated 1-, 2- , 3- coded eggs through fluorescent  
112 patterns on egg surface or stable nitrogen isotope composition (Gregory, Gepp,  
113 & Babidge, 2005). Furthermore, eggs from caged hens were differentiated from  
114 the others based on physical and chemical egg features such as protein content  
115 or foam consistency (Hidalgo, Rossi, Clerici, & Ratti, 2008). Nevertheless, none  
116 of these methods allowed a complete classification of the four legal farming  
117 methods in UE.

118 UV-VIS spectroscopy is widely implemented in most food quality control  
119 laboratories and it is useful as an electronic eye for correlating visual  
120 parameters to specific geographical regions or food varieties. Although this  
121 technique has some limitations for characterization and authentication  
122 purposes, its combination with NIR and/or MIR spectroscopy can enhance the  
123 results (Borràs et al., 2015). NIR spectroscopy is an analytical technique, which  
124 has increasing popularity in the food processing industry due to its advantages.  
125 It is a non-destructive, environmental friendly and rapid technique capable for

126 on-line application with low running costs (Porep, Kammerer, & Carle, 2015).

127 In our study, UV-VIS-NIR spectroscopy was applied. This technique has  
128 already been used to prevent food fraud. For instance to discriminate wines  
129 from controlled designation of origin (Martelo-Vidal, Domínguez-Agis, &  
130 Vázquez, 2013), or typify vinegar from protected designation of origin” (Ríos-  
131 Reina, García-González, Callejón, & Amigo, 2018).

132 The cholesterol is contained in the egg yolk. An average of 10.85 mg of  
133 cholesterol are obtained from 1 g of egg yolk (Puertas & Vázquez, 2018). Due  
134 to its relevance presence in egg and the willing to detect whether there is any  
135 influence of the farming system on the amount of cholesterol, the lipid extract  
136 with cholesterol was chosen as target in this study.

137 Thus, the aim of this study was to classify eggs in the four farming  
138 systems by UV-VIS-NIR spectroscopy and chemometric tools as a quick  
139 method to detect fraud. From our knowledge, this is the first study developing a  
140 quick, easy and practical method to classify eggs for the four farming systems.  
141 As secondary, it was **studied** if differences in the cholesterol concentration of  
142 eggs due to the hen housing system **exist**.

143

## 144 **2. Materials and methods**

### 145 **2.1. Raw materials**

146 The eggs (n = 48) were bought from local supermarkets or supplied by  
147 Granja Campomayor (Lugo, Spain). For each farming system two different  
148 farms were analysed. From each farm, six eggs were employed. Each sample  
149 was analysed in duplicate. Fresh eggs yolks were separated manually from egg  
150 whites. The albumen residuals were eliminated from the yolk using a blotting

151 paper and the vitelline membrane was removed with a scalpel.

152

## 153 **2.2. Lipid extraction and cholesterol quantification**

154 All yolk samples were homogenised at 5600 rpm for 1 min using a high  
155 performance homogenizer (Ultra Turrax®, IKA, Staufen, Germany). Afterwards,  
156 0.5 mg was weighted for saponification and further quantification. Cholesterol  
157 esters hydrolysis was based on previous studies. It was demonstrated that 30  
158 min saponification at 80 °C is not enough time to hydrolyse sterol esters and  
159 released all free cholesterol (Hansen & Wang, 2015). Therefore, it was  
160 increased incubation time to 3 h at 80 °C in a water bath. Besides, the amount  
161 of solvents was enlarged to 30 ml of Isopropanol 99% for spectroscopy analysis  
162 and 20 ml of 1 M methanolic potassium hydroxide solution. This solution was  
163 freshly prepared with methanol and potassium hydroxide (Thermo Fisher  
164 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). After saponification, samples were cooled at  
165 room temperature, filtered through 0.45 µm membrane filter and the clear  
166 solution was employed for cholesterol quantification and UV-VIS-NIR  
167 spectroscopy.

168 Cholesterol was quantified by enzymatic kit method (Enzytec™, R-  
169 Biopharm AG, Darmstadt, Germany). The enzymatic kit was employed following  
170 manufacturer instructions.

171

## 172 **2.3. Spectral analysis**

173 Samples were directly measured after filtration for UV-VIS-NIR  
174 spectroscopy. Spectral measurements were performed in a V-670  
175 spectrophotometer (Jasco Inc., Hachioji, Tokyo, Japan). UV-VIS-NIR spectra

176 were acquired in transmittance mode (T) at 2 nm intervals in the region range of  
177 190 to 2500 nm using a cuvette with a 1 mm path length. The ultraviolet (UV)  
178 region was considered from 190 to 380 nm. The visible (VIS) light ranging  
179 extended from 380 to 780 nm. And the near infrared (NIR) region covered  
180 wavelengths from 780 nm up to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  (Porep et al., 2015). Each sample was  
181 measured twice. Thus, a total of 192 spectra were obtained. The spectral data  
182 were collected with Spectra Manager™ II software (Jasco Inc., Hachioji, Tokyo,  
183 Japan).

184

#### 185 **2.4. Data processing and statistical analysis**

186 Tukey HSD test was performed on the cholesterol content data obtained  
187 with the enzymatic kit. UV-VIS-NIR spectra were exported from Spectra  
188 Manager™ II software to Unscrambler® software Version 10.5 (Camo, Oslo,  
189 Norway) for pre-processed treatments and chemometric analysis.

190 On the spectra, mean centering (MC) and standard deviation scaling  
191 (SDS) was performed. In addition, two other pre-treatments were tested:  
192 Savitzky-Golay Smoothing (7 points) and second polynomial order (SGS) to  
193 reduce random noise and Standard Normal Variate (SNV) to correct for  
194 baseline variations due to the different scattering of the samples (Martelo-Vidal  
195 et al., 2013; Ríos-Reina et al., 2018).

196 Principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out prior to any  
197 classification approach. It performs a reduction in the data dimensionality to  
198 facilitate the visualization of the data, retaining as much as possible the  
199 information present in the original data (Tres & Van Ruth, 2011). It is an  
200 exploratory analysis of the data to detect outliers, recognize patterns in samples

201 distribution and relationships between variables and classes (Ríos-Reina et al.,  
202 2018).

203         The classification methods used in our work to spectra were Support  
204 Vector Machine classification (SVM) and Linear and Quadratic Discriminant  
205 Analysis (LDA and QDA). SVM is a pattern recognition method supervised,  
206 because the number of categories and samples in each category are previously  
207 defined. It defines a function that describes the limit to separate classes by  
208 maximising the distance between them. SVM can work with linear and non-  
209 linear multivariate analysis. This method employs linear equations instead of  
210 quadratic programming to obtain the support vectors. This method is effective  
211 for modelling non-linear data and uses an iterative training algorithm to achieve  
212 the separation of different classes (Martelo-Vidal et al., 2013). It aims to  
213 construct an optimal separating plane by mapping the original data points from  
214 the input space into a high-dimensional feature space. The distances from all  
215 the data points to the separating plane are minimum. The kernel function, which  
216 performs the nonlinear mapping, plays an important role in the procedure. In  
217 SVM, radial basis function (RBF) was adopted as the kernel function of SVM  
218 classification because of its effectiveness and speed in calibration process  
219 (Yang et al., 2018).

220         LDA and QDA are also supervised classification techniques. LDA  
221 maximizes the between-class variance over the within-class variance, in order  
222 to create a linear decision boundary between them (Carvalho et al., 2018). The  
223 boundary produce by QDA is a quadratic curve, which, unlike LDA, may consist  
224 of two separate sections of boundary lines. This means it is thus able to  
225 correctly classify samples from a class even if they lie in separate regions in

226 variable space. This is due to the difference in the variance-covariance matrix.  
227 LDA uses the pooled variance–covariance matrix and does not take into  
228 account different variance structures for the classes, whereas QDA forms a  
229 separate variance model for each class (Dixon & Brereton, 2009). In order to  
230 reduce the thousands of variables that have been recorded from the spectra  
231 and to allow the calculation of the inverse of the variance–covariance matrix for  
232 LDA and QDA, PCA is employed. A key feature of this technique is its ability to  
233 reduce large multivariate data matrices down to a few orthogonal principal  
234 components (PC), which still contain the majority of the information held in the  
235 original raw data (Dixon & Brereton, 2009). The number of PC would still need  
236 to be less than the number of objects in each class. It permits the determination  
237 of the best-fit parameters for classification of samples by a developed model  
238 (Martelo-Vidal et al., 2013). The results of this classification methods were  
239 validated based on segmented cross validation.

240

### 241 **3. Results**

#### 242 3.1 Classification by cholesterol concentration in yolk.

243 As a first approach to detect differences in the hen housing system,  
244 cholesterol was quantified for each type of farming system. Figure 1 shows the  
245 results expressed on mg of cholesterol per gram of egg yolk. The low average  
246 cholesterol content was obtained in the eggs of hens from the housing system  
247 3- cages ( $13.64 \pm 0.650$  mg/g) and the highest for the eggs of hens from 2- barn  
248 ( $14.78 \pm 1.175$  mg/g). Intermediate values were obtained for 0- organic  
249 production ( $14.28 \pm 1.646$  mg/g) and 1- free range ( $14.09 \pm 0.825$  mg/g). These  
250 results are higher than the reference values but in line with the article on which

251 the sample pretreatment was based on (15.3 mg/g) (Hansen & Wang, 2015)  
252 and our previous results (13.92 mg/g) (Puertas, Cazón, & Vázquez, 2018).  
253 Although average values were different for the four housing systems, the Tukey  
254 HSD test showed only a statistical significant difference in cholesterol between  
255 eggs from hens housing system of 2- barn and of 3- cages (p-value < 0.01).  
256 These results disagreed with the studies where the cholesterol level in organic  
257 eggs was found higher than in conventional eggs (Minelli, Sirri, Folegatti,  
258 Meluzzi, & Franchini, 2007; Mugnai et al., 2014). However, they are in  
259 concordance with those where cholesterol content of free-range and cage-  
260 produced eggs were compared and no significant difference was found  
261 (Anderson, 2011). Our results showed that the amount of cholesterol could be a  
262 discriminant parameter to detect frauds only on eggs's labels of barn eggs and  
263 eggs from caged hens. Then the amount of cholesterol in egg yolk cannot be a  
264 single marker to discriminate between the four farming methods. However,  
265 cholesterol extracts can contain other lipophilic compounds.

266

### 267 3.2 Classification by spectral analysis of yolk lipid extract

268 The whole lipid extract could be a complex marker to discriminate  
269 between the four farming methods. The spectral analysis could discriminate  
270 between each housing system. Figure 2 shows the flowchart of the proposed  
271 procedure to classify by the four housing systems by UV-VIS-NIR spectral  
272 analysis.

273 The average UV-VIS-NIR spectrum of each housing system is shown on  
274 Figure 3. Absorbance is higher at the NIR range and greater variability is  
275 detected in the VIS spectral data. To clearly visualize it, in Figure 3 it was

276 zoomed from 780 to 380 nm wavelength. Transmittance is slightly minor for free  
277 raged eggs. PCA analysis revealed that 93% of the raw data was explained with  
278 2 components. Results were improved up to 96 % when PCA was applied to  
279 SNV data.

280 SVM was firstly applied over the full UV-VIS-NIR spectra raw and  
281 pretreated. Table 1 shows the results of the classification. The percentage of  
282 properly classified samples is indicated in each classification analysis. The best  
283 training and validation accuracies obtained were achieved with MC and SDS  
284 pretreatments. Even it did not get 100% accuracy for the four types of samples,  
285 it classified properly more than 95 % of the organic and barn eggs. In contrast,  
286 with raw data, using SNV or SGS pre-treatments only barn egg samples were  
287 classified with 100% accuracy. A spectrum range analysis was performed with  
288 MC and SDS pretreatment. Results are shown on Table 1. Using alone the UV  
289 range, the accuracy was better than using the NIR or VIS ranges alone. Better  
290 results were obtained when the spectra ranges were wider, like UV-VIS or VIS-  
291 NIR ranges. Nevertheless, the best method accuracy was achieved using the  
292 full UV-VIS-NIR spectra analysis.

293 Discriminant analysis was also applied. Results from LDA and QDA  
294 classification method with raw and pretreated UV-VIS-NIR spectral data are  
295 shown in Table 2. PCA is previously applied with the goal of reducing the data  
296 matrix to explain the maximum variance with the fewest number of principal  
297 component (Dixon & Brereton, 2009). Results are disclosed for 16 PC because  
298 it was the minimum number of PC to obtain 100 % accuracy. That accuracy was  
299 achieved with QDA. While LDA best result was 94.8 % accuracy with 16 PC  
300 and SNV pretreatment.

301 In order to detect differences between the previous data treatment for  
302 QDA, it was studied the minimum number of components to obtain more than  
303 95% accuracy with each. MC & SDS did not achieve 100% accuracy with 16 PC  
304 (Table 2). Results on Table 3 includes the percentage of properly classified  
305 samples in each farming method. None difference was detected between raw  
306 and SGS data. However, SNV data obtained more than 95 % accuracy with  
307 only 7 PC. That is in accordance with the literature because SNV is one of the  
308 most suitable methods to reduce within-class variability (Wu et al., 1996).

309 QDA was performed with SNV data at different spectrum ranges and  
310 compared with raw data. From each region of the UV-VIS-NIR spectrum, it was  
311 obtained the minimum number of components to obtain more than 95%  
312 accuracy, the percentage of samples that were properly classify in each farming  
313 method and the number of PC needed for 100% accuracy. Results are shown in  
314 Table 3. It was observed that the accuracy was improved when reducing the  
315 range, in contrast to SVM method. Better results were obtained using the VIS  
316 and UV ranges, rather than using NIR range. It was also remarkable that raw  
317 data obtained better results than SNV data at VIS and UV ranges. Those results  
318 are explained due to the number of variables that each region contains. The  
319 whole spectrum contains 2310 variables (wavelegths), NIR range contains 1720  
320 variables, whereas the VIS contains 400 and the UV only 190 variables. As the  
321 variables are reduced the data pre-processing changed. Previous data  
322 pretreatment with SNV did not produce better results because the non-relevant  
323 variability had been also reduced with the decrease of the number of variables  
324 (Wu et al., 1996). Raw data obtained slightly better results when analysing the  
325 percentage of eggs correctly predicted using the VIS range. Barn eggs were

326 classified with 100 % accuracy using VIS range with raw data and nearly 98 %  
327 with SNV data. Succeeding data reduction with PCA needed less PC to  
328 preserve the information caused by the main sources of data variability (Wu et  
329 al., 1996). Like that when the VIS or UV ranges were employed for  
330 classification, only 9 and 12 PC, respectively, were necessary to infer the  
331 farming method with 100 % accuracy.

332 Then VIS range for QDA employed more variables, less PC and  
333 obtained higher accuracy. Subsequently, hen farming method can be inferred  
334 with 100% accuracy when VIS spectroscopy and QDA, as statistical method,  
335 are employed.

336

#### 337 **4. Discussion**

338 Each egg unit has a unique composition, which is distinctive due to the  
339 intrinsic metabolism of each hen that originated it (de Oliveira Mendes, Porto,  
340 Almeida, Fantini, & Sena, 2019). However, described factors that modify egg  
341 size and composition are: diet, hen's age, strain and other environmental  
342 factors (Samman et al., 2009). In this work, hen's age and strain could not be  
343 controlled because it was a consumer survey of products available in  
344 supermarkets and, as such, specific characteristics of the laying hens are not  
345 known (Samman et al., 2009). Diet was considered through the rearing system.  
346 As housing conditions would definitely control feed consumption and  
347 conversion. For example, organic and free range hens have access outdoors.  
348 They are exposed to sunlight, and they are expected to have access to other  
349 food sources (such as insects or seeds from vegetation) (Basmacioğlu & Ergül,  
350 2005; Tres et al., 2011). On the basis of this assumption, housing system would

351 be expected to influence the composition of eggs. In addition, it has been  
352 demonstrated that changes in dietary lipids influenced cholesterol and fatty acid  
353 composition much more than the strain (González-Muñoz et al., 2009;  
354 Washburn, 1979). Then this lipid extract was chosen to infer the housing  
355 system because of their capacity to reflect hen feed over strain.

356 A technique based on carotenoids profiling obtained success  
357 classification rates for organic, free range, and barn eggs respectively (n = 48)  
358 with right classification of 100 %, 100 %, and 84 %, respectively (Van Ruth et  
359 al., 2011). In other study with the same technique, sample size covered Europe  
360 (n=69) and non-EU farms (n = 25). Discriminating organic eggs from  
361 conventional eggs, there were reached classification rates up to 98% and 72%,  
362 respectively (Van Ruth et al., 2013).

363 When analyzing fatty acid composition, it was detected that organic eggs  
364 had higher percentage of palmitic and stearic acids, but no differences in mono  
365 and polyunsaturated fatty acids were detected (Samman et al., 2009). A  
366 classification technique employing fatty acid fingerprints and chemometric tools  
367 was able to identify organic eggs with 92 % accuracy and conventional eggs  
368 with 87.5 % (n = 48) (Tres et al., 2011). Same classification, organic *versus*  
369 conventional eggs, was improved to 100% accuracy through mineral content  
370 fingerprints and chemometrics (n = 60) (Borges et al., 2015). These results are  
371 justify with the significant differences in macro and trace element composition  
372 found between organic and conventional eggs (Küçükyılmaz et al., 2012;  
373 Vincevica-Gaile et al., 2013). Other parameters were studied to differentiate  
374 inside the conventional eggs group.

375 A method based on probabilities in the analysis of fluorescent patterns

376 on egg surface was developed to discriminate 3- coded eggs from 1- and 2-  
377 coded. It was detected that if five or more eggs in a sample of 90 eggs had  
378 double fluorescent lines, it could be concluded with 99,9% probability that the  
379 batch contains some cage-laid egg (Gregory et al., 2005). All these methods  
380 only allowed discriminating two or three of the four legal rearing systems in UE.

381 Scarce previous works tried to find differences between the four hen  
382 housing systems by eggs. When physical and chemical egg features were  
383 analysed only cage eggs were characterised with 100% accuracy (n = 28)  
384 (Hidalgo et al., 2008). Stable isotopes were also study to classify eggs. Nitrogen  
385 isotope composition of eggs was reported as a promising indicator to  
386 differentiate eggs from caged hens, barn hens and free-range hens (n = 36)  
387 (Rogers, 2009). However, theses authors did not report accuracy values.

388 In our study, the four legal farming methods were correctly classified. The  
389 cholesterol concentration was not useful for this goal. However, the UV-VIS-NIR  
390 spectra of the lipid extract successfully classified the hen housing system with  
391 100% accuracy. The lipid extract contained more components than cholesterol,  
392 for example **fatty acids and** carotenoids. As it has been studied for human  
393 consumption, the lipid matrix of the egg yolk enhanced the bioavailability of  
394 valuable carotenoid pigments, including lutein and zeaxanthin (Zaheer, 2017).  
395 Furthermore, the profile of carotenoids, **fatty acids** and cholesterol in egg yolk is  
396 highly dependent on the hens' diet (González-Muñoz et al., 2009; Zaheer,  
397 2017). Then their values can significantly change with the hen farm system.  
398 Thus, these facts can justify the excellent classification (100% accuracy) of the  
399 hen housing system obtained with the UV-VIS-NIR spectra of egg lipid extracts.  
400 **Further research with eggs from different countries would make this method**

401 robust to be regulatorily implemented to avoid fraud in the eggs' label  
402 information following the same strategy of other studies (Van Ruth et al., 2013).

403

## 404 **5. Conclusion**

405 The method described in this work is the first analytical technique that  
406 classifies eggs according to the four legal farming methods in UE by UV-VIS-  
407 NIR spectroscopy. Results showed that it is feasible to classify the hen housing  
408 system with 100% accuracy employing the lipid extract of egg yolk by UV-VIS-  
409 NIR spectrum and QDA statistical analysis.

410 The best results for reducing PC numbers were obtained using the VIS  
411 region. The method proposed is quick, easy and cheap because only minimal  
412 laboratory equipment is needed. It holds great potential for classification  
413 through reliable analytical system. Further research with eggs from different  
414 countries would make this method robust to be regulatorily implemented to  
415 avoid fraud in the eggs' label information.

416

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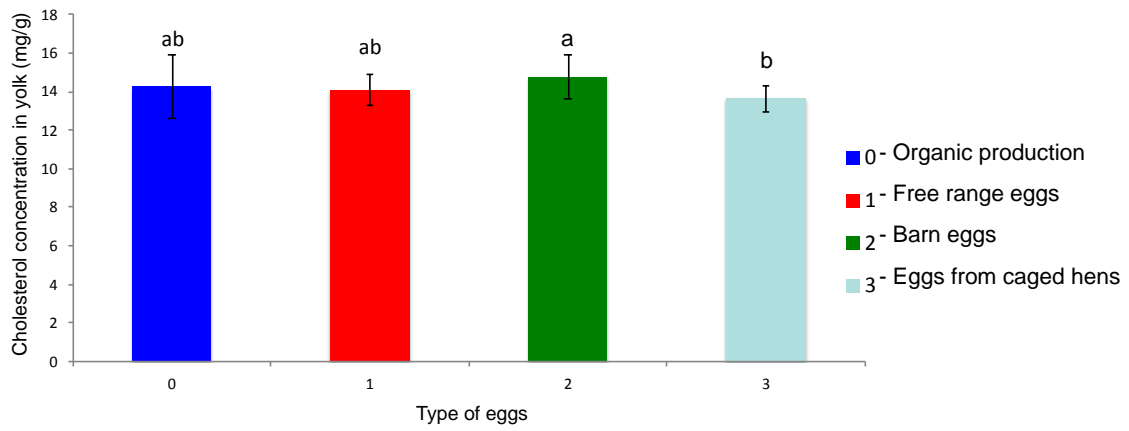
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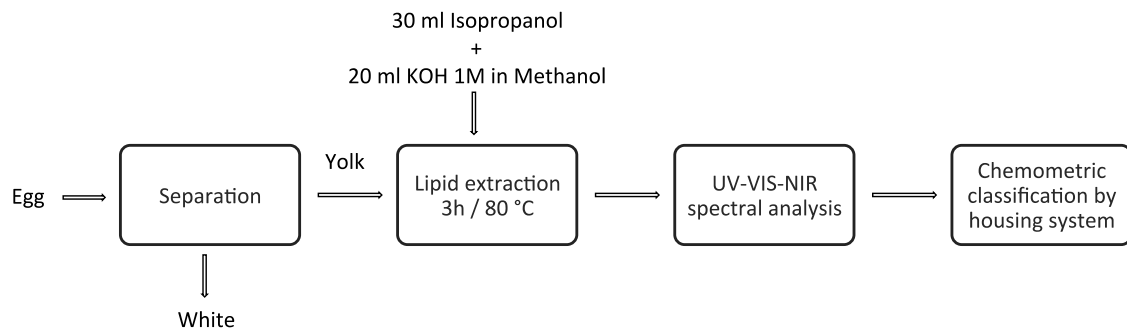
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593 FIGURE 1. Cholesterol results for yolk eggs of the four housing systems (n =  
594 48). Bars with different letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.01$ ).

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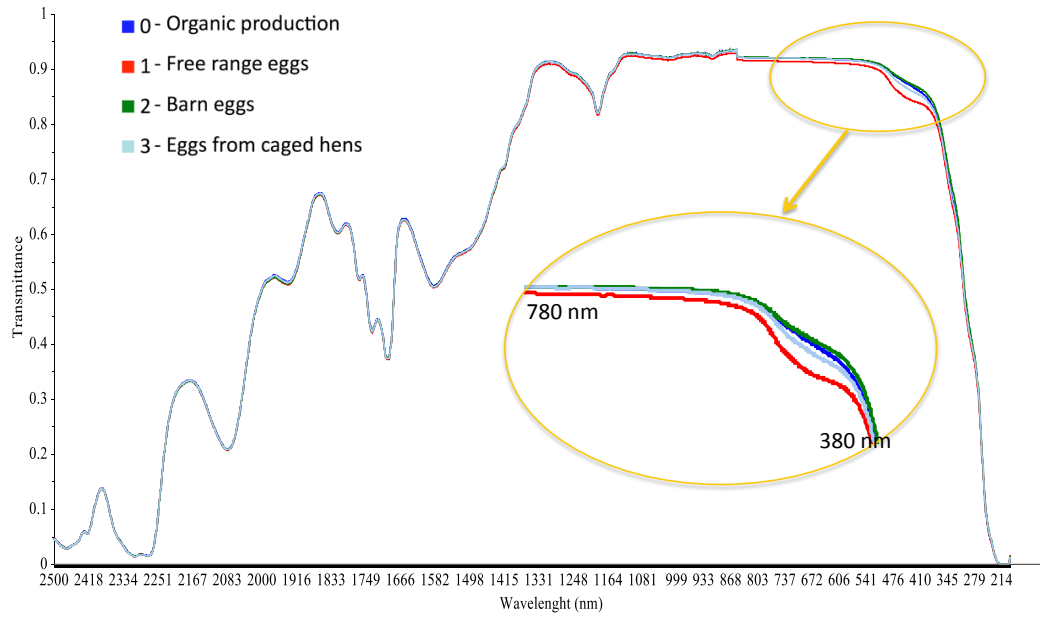


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600 FIGURE 2. Flowchart of the proposed procedure for classification of egg by the  
 601 four housing systems by UV-VIS-NIR spectral analysis.

602



603

604 FIGURE 3. Average UV-VIS-NIR spectra of yolk lipid extracts of eggs from the  
 605 four housing systems.

606

607 TABLE 1. SVM results with all the spectrum and at the different spectrum  
 608 regions with MC & SDS data.

Data pretreatment	Spectrum region	Accuracy (%)		Type of eggs correctly predicted (%)			
		Training	Validation	0	1	2	3
Raw	UV-VIS-NIR	39.1	33.3	8.3	29.2	100	18.8
MC & SDS	UV-VIS-NIR	91.2	81.8	100	91.7	97.9	75.0
SNV	UV-VIS-NIR	37.5	26.0	2.1	29.2	100	18.8
SGS	UV-VIS-NIR	39.1	33.3	8.3	29.2	100	18.8
Spectrum region	Accuracy (%)		Type of eggs correctly predicted (%)				
	Training	Validation	0	1	2	3	
UV	86.5	80.2	89.6	87.5	91.7	77.1	
VIS	65.1	58.3	58.3	85.4	79.2	37.5	
NIR	72.9	64.1	93.8	50.0	72.9	75.0	
UV-VIS	87.0	80.7	97.9	81.3	100	68.8	
VIS-NIR	87.5	81.8	100	83.3	87.5	79.2	

609

610 Farming method: type 0- organic production, type 1- free range, type 2- barn  
 611 and type 3- cages. MC is mean centering, SDS is Standard Deviation Scaling,  
 612 SNV is Standard Normal Variate and SGS is Savitzky-Golay Smoothing 7  
 613 points and second polynomial order.

614

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616

617 TABLE 2. LDA and QDA results for UV-VIS-NIR spectra and 16 PC.

Data pretreatment	LDA	QDA
	% Accuracy	% Accuracy
Raw	89.1	100
SNV	94.8	100
MC & SDS	74.5	98.4
SGS	88.5	100

618

619 MC is mean centering, SDS is Standard Deviation Scaling, SNV is Standard

620 Normal Variate and SGS is Savitzky-Golay Smoothing 7 points and second

621 polynomial order.

622

623

624 Table 3. QDA results for raw, SNV and SGS pretreatments with all the spectrum  
 625 and at the different spectrum regions with raw and SNV data.

DP	No. PC for >		Accuracy (%)	Type of eggs correctly predicted (%)			
	95 % accuracy			0	1	2	3
Raw	9		97.4	100	93.8	100	95.8
SNV	7		95.3	100	81.3	100	100
SGS	9		97.4	100	93.8	100	95.8

DP	SP	PC for >		Accuracy (%)	Type of eggs correctly predicted (%)				PC for 100 % accuracy
		95 % accuracy			0	1	2	3	
Raw	UV	7	96.9	95.8	95.8	100	95.8	12	
SNV	UV	7	96.6	91.7	93.8	100	100	12	
Raw	VIS	7	95.8	100	83.3	100	100	9	
SNV	VIS	7	95.3	100	83.3	100	97.9	9	
Raw	NIR	16	95.3	97.9	91.7	95.8	95.8	> 20	
SNV	NIR	15	96.4	100	91.7	97.9	95.8	>20	

626

627 Housing method: type 0- organic production, type 1- free range, type 2- barn  
 628 and type 3- cages. DP is data pretreatment. SNV is Standard Normal Variate  
 629 and SGS is Savitzky-Golay Smoothing 7 points and second polynomial order.

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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: