1	Running head: Breed and feed affect yolk amino acid
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3	Breed and feed affect amino acid contents of egg yolk and eggshell
4	color in chickens
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25 ABSTRACT

Genetic and environmental factors regulate hen egg traits. To demonstrate the 26possibility of producing designer eggs through genetic and environmental factors, we 27investigated the effects of breed and feed on egg traits using two chicken breeds, Rhode 2829Island Red (RIR) and Australorp (AUS), and two feeds, mixed feed and fermented feed. 30 Forty eggs were collected at 33 weeks of age (0 months under mixed feed) and 1-, 1.5-, and 2-months after switching to fermented feed. Two-way ANOVA mixed design was 31used to evaluate 10 egg traits: weight, length of the long axis, length of the short axis, 3233 eggshell weight, yolk weight, albumen weight, eggshell thickness, eggshell lightness, redness, and yellowness, and 19 yolk amino acids. The results revealed significant breed 3435 effects on eggshell redness and yellowness, with higher values of these traits in RIR eggs compared with AUS eggs. There was a significant effect of feed on eggshell 36 lightness, with a lighter color observed under fermented feed compared with mixed feed. 37 Significant effects of breed and breed \times feed were found for yolk cysteine content. Eggs 38 from AUS had a higher yolk cysteine content than those from RIR. The cysteine content 39 40 in AUS eggs increased gradually after starting fermented feed, although RIR remained relatively constant over time. These findings suggest it is possible to produce designer 41 42eggs with enriched components, including volk amino acids, by adjusting both genetic and environmental factors. This represents a first step in understanding the mechanisms 4344 underlying the production of value-added eggs in chickens.

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Key words: chickens, breed, egg traits, feed, yolk amino acids.

INTRODUCTION

Domestic chickens provide the population with eggs, which are an important 52source of animal protein. Eggs are often referred to as a "complete food", because they 53provide a balance of essential nutrients that help to sustain both life and growth (Zaheer, 542015). The production of eggs from hens in 2017 exceeded 80 million tons worldwide, 5556and this number has increased annually (FAOSTAT, 2019). Although food production is 57increasing, 821 million people globally do not receive sufficient food to lead a normal active life (Hunger Map, 2018). To deal with hunger, eggs easily obtained from hens 5859may help to provide foods obtained from livestock worldwide. A large body of evidence indicates that genetic and environmental factors 60 61influence egg production and egg quality traits in chickens (Roberts, 2004; Wilson, 2017; Goto and Tsudzuki, 2017). Heritability estimates of quality and production traits, 62 including egg weight, eggshell strength, and weights of albumen and yolk, have been 63 reported as approximately 0.30-0.70 (Wolc et al., 2010, 2012; Zhang et al., 2005). This 64 suggests that 30-70% of phenotypic variance is affected by genetic factors and the 65 66 remaining environmental contributions vary from 30 to 70%, which is almost equal to 67 the influence of genetic factors. Thus, both genetic and environmental factors are crucial for modifying egg traits. 68

Manipulation of egg nutrients has resulted in the production of eggs with enriched yolk and albumen. Worldwide, egg-production companies generate original brands of "designer eggs" to meet consumer demand (Zaheer, 2015). In Japan, there are more than 1,000 brands of eggs, including eggs enriched in iodine, minerals, and alpha-linolenic acid. Hen diet has a large effect on the enrichment of eggs with omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 PUFA) (Fraeye et al., 2012). Since long-chain n-3 75PUFAs in eggs, such as eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), provide various health benefits to humans, eggs with high PUFA contents are produced 76 by changing hen diet in several countries (Fraeye et al., 2012). Yin et al. (2008) reported 77the effects of dietary linoleic acid on yolk components using different breeds of layers, 78and showed that hen diet and breed have significant effects on the fatty acid and 7980 cholesterol content of yolk. Therefore, both breed and feed have the potential to 81 influence the abundance of some components in yolk and albumen. Knowledge about it will be useful for both egg producers and consumers in the future livestock industry. 82

83 There is a unique fermented feed in Obihiro, Japan, although almost all layers in Japan are fed mixed feed, which contains imported corn and some components. The 84 85 fermented feed is made from food residue generated by food-related industries. Potato peel and wastes from sweets factory, cotton and seeds of pumpkin from food processing, 86 87 and sake lees from the sake-making process are mixed with wheat and fermented by lactic acid bacteria. After making these fermented components, soybean, yam, scallop, 88 rice bran, starch powder, fish meal, and beet lees are added and mixed to be the 89 90 fermented feed for layers. Since these feed materials of the fermented feed are 100% from Japan, the fermented feed has potential for sustainability in the local livestock 91 industry. One of the originality of this study is to search some advantages of the adapted 92fermented feed in egg traits. We hypothesize that both breed and feed affects some egg 93 94traits including egg yolk amino acids.

In this study, we investigated the effects of breed and feed as genetic and environmental factors on egg traits, including the content of amino acids in egg yolk from chickens. The aim of this study was to evaluate the production of designer eggs using genetic and environmental factors in chickens.

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Animals

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Rhode Island Red (RIR; n = 5) and Australorp (AUS; n = 5) hens were purchased at 22 102 103 weeks of age from the Animal Research Center, Agricultural Research Department, 104 Hokkaido Research Organization, Japan. After introduction to the experimental farm in Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Japan, all hens were reared 105in individual cages with free access to diet and water. The photoperiod was included a 106 107 cycle of 16 h light and 8 h dark. Body weights (mean ± standard deviation) at 35 weeks of age were 3.69 \pm 0.57 and 1.58 \pm 0.09 kg for RIR and AUS, respectively (F_{1,8} = 108 67.324, P = 3.6E-05). Daily management was performed following the Standards 109 110 Related to the Care and Management of Experimental Animals (Prime Ministers' Office, Japan, 1980) and the Guide for the Use of Experimental Animals in Universities (The 111 Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture, Japan, 1987). This experiment was 112approved by the Animal Experiment Committee in the Obihiro University of 113114 Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (Authorization Number 19-31).

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116 Experimental Design

To evaluate the effects of breed and feed, RIR and AUS hens were maintained using two kinds of feed. Mixed feed for layers (Rankeeper; Marubeni Nisshin Feed Co., Ltd., Japan) was provided from 22 to 33 weeks of age. From 34 weeks of age to the end of the experiment, fermented feed (Kusanagi Farm Limited Company, Japan) was provided. The fermented feed was made especially using a silage preparation additive, WS360 (Protocol Japan Ltd., Japan), which contains lactic acid bacteria and cellulolytic enzyme. The ingredients in both mixed and fermented feeds (Table 1) were analyzed at the Institute of Chemurgy in the Tokachi Federation of Agricultural Cooperatives, Japan. As shown in Figure 1, eggs from hens of each breed (RIR and AUS) were collected at four different stages: during the mixed feed period (0 month), 1 month, 1.5 months, and 2 months from the start of the fermented feed period. To investigate the effects of feed on egg traits, we collected five eggs/stage from four stages (20 eggs per breed). Since two breeds were used, egg traits were measured in a total of 40 eggs.

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131 Egg Traits

Ten egg traits were measured using 40 eggs, and included weight, length of the 132133long axis, length of the short axis, eggshell weight, yolk weight, albumen weight, eggshell thickness, and eggshell lightness (L^{*}), redness (a^{*}), and yellowness (b^{*}). Size 134was measured using a digital caliper (P01 110-120; ASONE, Japan). Eggshell color and 135thickness were measured by a chromameter (CR-10 Plus Color Reader; Konica Minolta 136137 Japan, Inc., Japan) and a Peacock dial pipe gauge P-1 (Ozaki MFG Co., Ltd., Japan), 138respectively. After measuring yolk weight, the yolk was diluted 5-fold with distilled water. The yolk solution was mixed with a hand blender (MultiQuick 5, Braun, 139140 Germany) and then kept in a tube at -30°C until use.

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142 Yolk Amino Acid Traits

Yolk solution (5 mL) was mixed with 5 mL of 16% trichloroacetic acid solution (FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals, Japan). After vortexing, the samples were centrifuged at 1,400 g for 15 min using a table-top centrifuge, model 2410 (KUBOTA Corporation co., ltd., Japan). The supernatant was collected using a 5 mL syringe (NIPRO Corporation,

Japan) and filtered through a disposable cellulose acetate membrane filter unit with a 1470.45 µm pore size (DISMIC-25CS; Advantec Toyo Kaisha, Ltd., Japan). After heating 148 at 40°C for 60 min in a vacuum oven (VOS-201SD, Eyela, Japan), 20 mL of mixing 149150solution (ethanol:DW:TEA = 2:2:1) was added to the tube and then mixed for 20 min using a micro tube mixer MT-360 (Tomy Seiko Co. Ltd., Japan). The sample was 151heated at 40°C for 60 min in a vacuum to dry. After adding 20 mL of mixing solution 152(Ethanol:DW:TEA:PITC = 7:1:1:1) and mixing for 20 min, the sample was re-heated at 15340°C for 60 min in a vacuum to dry. After preprocessing, the sample tube was 154155maintained at -30°C until the sample was analyzed.

Amino acids were analyzed by HPLC (LC-2010CHT; Shimadzu Co. Ltd., Japan). Solutions of amino acid standards (Types H and B), L-aspartic acid, and L-glutamic acid (FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals, Japan) were prepared following the same protocol used for sample preprocessing. The standard samples were analyzed before every 30 samples. The absolute concentration of amino acids in yolk was calculated from the peak ratio between sample and standard.

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163 Statistics

Data were analyzed by two-way mixed design analysis of variance (ANOVA) with breed group (RIR and AUS) as the between-subjects factor and feed group (mixed feed, and three stages of fermented feed) as the within-subject (repeated) factor (*e.g.*, Olejnik and Algina, 2003; Franz and Loftus, 2012; Nikiforuk et al., 2016), to determine the main-effects of breed and feed and their interaction (P < 0.05). Data are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation. Statistical analyses were conducted using R software (R Core Team, 2018).

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RESULTS

173 Egg Traits

To determine the effects of breed and feed on egg traits, 10 traits of eggs from 174RIR and AUS hens were analyzed at four different stages (Table 2). Two-way ANOVA 175mixed design revealed a significant effect of feed ($F_{1,24} = 3.334$, P = 0.021) on eggshell 176 lightness. Compared with eggs from the mixed feed groups, those in the fermented feed 177group presented a higher value of eggshell lightness. Conversely, significant breed 178179effects were found for eggshell redness and yellowness ($F_{1,24} = 14.913$ and 47.849, P =2.0E-04 and 8.8E-11, respectively). RIR hens produced eggs with higher redness and 180181 yellowness values compared with those produced by AUS hens. There were no significant main or interaction effects for egg weight, length of the long axis, length of 182183 the short axis, eggshell weight, yolk weight, albumen weight, and eggshell thickness (P > 0.05; Table 2). 184

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186 Yolk Amino Acid Traits

Egg yolk samples contained 19 amino acids: aspartic acid, glutamic acid, 187 188 asparagine, serine, glutamine, glycine, histidine, arginine, threonine, alanine, proline, tyrosine, valine, methionine, cysteine, isoleucine, leucine, phenylalanine, and lysine 189(Table 3). There were significant effects of breed ($F_{1,24} = 4.629$, P = 0.041) and breed \times 190 feed ($F_{3,24} = 3.924$, P = 0.021) on yolk cysteine content. Yolk cysteine contents in eggs 191 192from AUS hens were higher than those from RIR hens. RIR eggs contained stable levels 193of cysteine across the four stages analyzed. Conversely, in AUS eggs, there was a gradual increase in the cysteine content of yolk after fermented feed was given. 194

195 Two-way mixed design ANOVA revealed no significant feed effect on these 19 yolk 196 amino acids (P > 0.05).

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DISCUSSION

In this study, we aimed to investigate the effects of breed and feed on egg traits, including size and weight traits and yolk amino acids traits, using two chicken breeds (RIR and AUS) and two feeds (mixed feed and fermented feed). We observed significant effects of breed on eggshell redness and yellowness, and yolk cysteine content. In addition, a significant effect of feed was found for eggshell lightness, and a significant effect of breed \times feed for yolk cysteine content. Thus, these results suggest that some egg traits, including yolk amino acids, can be modified by breed and feed.

206 Although the average body weight of RIR (3.69 kg) and AUS (1.58 kg) chickens differs at 35 weeks of age, the size and weight of their eggs are comparable, indicating 207 that AUS hens have potential to produce eggs larger than expected based upon body 208 209 size. Goto et al. (2014, 2019) reported that Oh-Shamo, Japanese Large Game (2.91 kg), 210and White Leghorn (1.54 kg) chickens with average body weight at 36 weeks of age produced 53.8 ± 4.2 g and 47.4 ± 2.3 g of egg weight at 300 days of age, respectively. 211212In this study, eggs from RIR and AUS hens weighed 54.6 ± 3.1 and 51.6 ± 4.6 g, respectively, after 2 months, which equals 300 days of age. Therefore, this population of 213214AUS chickens has a body size comparable to that of White Leghorn, but produced larger eggs compared to the classical type of White Leghorn. 215

Significant effects of breed were found for eggshell color between RIR and AUS hens in this study. Eggshell color, which varies from white to brown, is a heritable quantitative trait (Roberts, 2004; Samiullah et al., 2015; Wilson, 2017; Goto and

Tsudzuki, 2017). Heritability estimates of brown eggshell color have been reported at 2192200.32–0.72 in several layer populations (Zhang et al., 2005; Wolc et al., 2012; Mulder et al., 2016). Sheppy (2011) suggested that brown eggs were introduced by some of the 221Asian breeds brought to the West in the 19th century, most notably the Langshan breed, 222223which produces dark brown eggs. In addition, Hillel et al. (2003) reported that brown egg layers have a broad genetic base, mainly derived from the RIR, New Hampshire, 224Plymouth Rock, and AUS breeds, whereas white egg layers are derived from White 225Leghorn. This study found that eggshells of AUS eggs are tinted, lighter, and paler than 226227 those of RIR. Therefore, RIR may share most alleles in several quantitative trait loci (QTLs) affecting eggshell color with Langshan, whereas AUS may share fewer alleles 228229in the QTLs with Langshan. In addition, eggshell lightness was changed by feed effect 230in this study. After switching to the fermented feed, the eggshell showed lighter color. There are some evidences that feeding probiotics and enzymes influence eggshell color 231in brown layers (Samiullah et al., 2015; Wilson, 2017). Since some feed materials and 232233gut microbiome may potentially influence the eggshell lightness, it needs to be 234investigated the relationship among them.

In this study, 19 amino acids were identified in egg yolk. Ohta et al. (2001) 235236injected amino acids in ovo and reported an effect on the contents of 17 amino acids in 237broiler yolk after 7 and 14 days of incubation. Nimalaratne et al. (2011) studied 19 238amino acids in yolk to determine the effect of cooking methods on their content. Yolk amino acids found in the present study are consistent with those in the previous studies. 239240The results of the present study revealed that yolk cysteine content can be altered using genetically different breeds from RIR to AUS. Cysteine is a precursor for 2412-methyl-3-furanthiol, which is responsible for the meaty flavor of chicken broth 242

(Jayasena et al., 2015). Given that some differences exist among breeds in egg components such as yolk cysteine, this may lead to differences in the flavor and taste of eggs. Since flavor and taste are associated with many factors, further analysis is needed to identify the responsible egg components in order to meet consumer satisfaction.

247There is a marked difference in water content between mixed and fermented feed. 248Fermented feed is made from food wastes e.g., potato peel and wastes from sweets factory, cotton and seeds of pumpkin from food processing, and sake lees from the 249sake-making process, using fermentation by lactic acid bacteria. Since mixed feed is 250251made from corn and some components which are almost 100% imported in Japan, the fermented feed has great potential for sustainability in the future livestock industry. 252253Because hen diet has a large effect on the n-3 PUFA content in eggs (Fraeye et al., 2012), we anticipated that the quantity of some egg components would be affected by 254hen feed. However, we cannot rule out a main effect of feed on yolk amino acids 255contents in this study. In future studies, we will analyze another component rather than 256amino acids in yolk and albumin of eggs to reveal the effect of feed. 257

258A breed \times feed interaction effect on yolk cysteine content was found in this study. We speculate that combination of gut microbiome in genetically different breeds and 259some feed materials potentially influence the composition of yolk and albumin. Pandit 260et al. (2018) have revealed chicken breed-specific variation in enteric bacterial 261262occurrence and diversity using commercial broilers and indigenous Indian chickens, and indicated a possibility to enhance productivity from low value diets by using 263264 host-microbiome interactions. Therefore, it is important to investigate the relationship 265between many indigenous chicken breeds which may have breed-specific microbiome and some feed materials in the future sustainable livestock industry. In addition, this 266

interaction effect suggested that it may be possible to produce eggs enriched in some 267268components modified through genetic and environmental factors. Although we focused on breed and feed as genetic and environmental factors in this study, there is evidence 269270that the vitamin A, E, and fatty acid composition of eggs differs between caged and 271pastured hens (Karsten et al., 2010). Therefore, future studies will focus on other 272environmental factors, because the Tokachi area in Japan contains some poultry farms under original floor-rearing environments. Further knowledge is needed to elucidate the 273mechanism underlying changes in egg composition by genetic and environmental 274275factors.

In conclusion, this study revealed that breed and feed affect yolk cysteine content and eggshell color. This finding indicates that designer eggs can be produced by adjusting both genetic and environmental factors. To reveal better combinations between commercial and indigenous breeds and several feed materials should be investigated in local livestock industry. This is a first step to understanding the mechanism to produce value added eggs in chickens.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

291 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

370 Figure 1. Experimental design.

Eggs from Rhode Island Red (RIR) and Australorp (AUS) hens fed mixed feed were collected at 33 weeks of age (0 month). After switching to fermented feed at 34 weeks of age, eggs from RIR and AUS were collected 1-month, 1.5-months, and 2-months later. Five eggs were collected at four different stages from each breed; 10 egg traits and 19 yolk amino acid traits were measured from 40 eggs in total. These data were analyzed by two-way mixed design analysis of variance (ANOVA) with breed group as the between-subjects factor and feed group as the within-subject factor.

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		Fermented		Mixed	
Ingredient	Mixed feed	feed	Ingredient	feed	Fermented fee
Crude protein (%)	17.50	20.60	Total fiber (%)	9.40	13.90
Binding protein (cp%) Neutral-detergent insoluble protein	3.50	3.40	Arginine (%)	0.66	0.85
(CP%)	13.20	20.90	Glycine (%)	0.84	1.39
Neutral-detergent fiber (%)	13.00	16.20	Histidine (%)	0.39	0.33
Acid-detergent fiber (%)	5.90	6.40	Isoleucine (%)	0.65	0.85
Acid-detergent lignin (%)	1.60	2.10	Leucine (%)	1.62	1.49
Starch (%)	45.00	37.50	Lysine (%)	0.96	0.87
Nonfibrous carbohydrate (%)	51.90	46.80	Methionine (%)	0.35	0.34
Crude fat (%)	5.90	6.90	Phenylalanine (%)	0.83	0.95
Crude ash (%)	14.00	13.80	Tyrosine (%)	0.07	0.17
Calcium (%)	4.06	4.69	Valine (%)	0.81	1.11
Phosphate (%)	0.54	1.22	Serine (%)	0.85	0.93
Magnesium (%)	0.19	0.43	Alanine (%)	1.02	1.56
Potassium (%)	0.73	1.10	Aspartic acid (%)	1.30	1.36
TDN (%)	76.50	76.90	Glutamic acid (%)	2.80	2.99
NE I (Mcal/kg)	1.76	1.81	Proline (%)	1.22	1.35
NE m (Mcal/kg)	1.88	1.92	Threonine (%)	0.71	0.76
NE g (Mcal/kg)	1.24	1.28	Water (%)	11.90	36.20
Cell content (%)	76.70	72.30	Vitamin A (β-carotene) (IU/kg)	171.70	2321.00

Table 1. Analysis of ingredients in mixed feed and fermented feed¹

¹%, percentage in dry matter.

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	Rh	ode Island	Red (RIR	2)		Australorp	(AUS)	P-value from ANOVA			
Traits	Mixed	Mixed Fermented				I	Fermented			Main effect	
Traits	0 month	1 month	1.5 month s	2 month s	0 month	1 month	1.5 month s	2 month s	Breed	Feed	n effect Breed* Feed
Egg weight (g)	53.4 ±	52.2 ±	53.1 ±	54.6 ±	49.2 ±	50.2 ±	54.8 ±	51.6 ±			
	2.4	2.6	2.0	3.1	3.7	5.1	3.5	4.6	0.821	0.155	0.575
length of long axis of the	55.9 ±	56.6 ±	56.5 ±	57.7 ±	54.9 ±	54.9 ±	56.9 ±	56.9 ±			
egg (mm)	2.1	1.6	2.5	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.9	0.556	0.059	0.121
length of short axis of the	41.9 ±	41.1 ±	41.6 ±	41.7 ±	41.2 ±	41.1 ±	41.5 ±	41.9 ±			
egg (mm)	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.7	0.750	0.381	0.090
Volk weight (g)	15.7 ±	16.8 ±	16.0 ±	17.0 ±	13.3 ±	14.2 ±	15.5 ±	16.0 ±			
Yolk weight (g)	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.0	0.7	1.8	0.127	0.215	0.885
Fareball weight (a)	6.1 ±	6.3 ±	6.4 ±	6.7 ±	6.1 ±	6.5 ±	6.8 ±	6.9 ±			
Eggshell weight (g)	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.446	0.807	0.993
	29.7 ±	26.1 ±	29.5 ±	29.5 ±	28.3 ±	29.9 ±	30.4 ±	27.2 ±			
Albumen weight (g)	1.7	1.0	2.2	2.2	3.5	2.3	4.3	4.1	0.999	0.543	0.371
	0.39 ±	0.36 ±	0.42 ±	0.40 ±	0.40 ±	0.45 ±	0.41 ±	0.41 ±			
Eggshell thickness (mm)	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.092	0.458	0.900
–	62.7 ±	65.6 ±	67.3 ±	65.6 ±	70.4 ±	73.6 ±	73.7 ±	74.5 ±			
Eggshell color L*	4.3	4.9	5.7	4.2	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.5	0.083	0.021	0.934
–	14.2 ±	12.6 ±	11.2 ±	12.4 ±	9.2 ±	7.1 ±	6.6 ±	6.9 ±			
Eggshell color a*	2.7	3.6	4.4	2.3	1.1	0.9	1.3	1.2	2.0E-04	0.068	0.700
	22.3 ±	21.5 ±	20.1 ±	20.4 ±	15.2 ±	12.8 ±	12.0 ±	12.8 ±			
Eggshell color b*	2.9	3.4	4.5	2.1	1.5	1.7	1.7	2.0	8.8E-11	0.106	0.351

Table 2. Traits of eggs from Rhode Island Red and Australorp hens at four different stages

Yolk amino acid	Rł	node Island	Red (RIR	2)	_	Australor	o (AUS)	P-value from ANOVA			
(µg/ml)	Mixed	Fermented		Mixed	Fermented			Main effect		Interaction effect	
	0	1	1.5	2	0	1	1.5	2			Breed*
	month	month	months	months	month	month	months	months	Breed	Feed	Feed
	21.9 ±	26.3 ±	20.3 ±	19.5 ±	15.7 ±	15.7 ±	19.4 ±	22.7 ±			
Aspartic acid	2.7	10.5	11.9	2.0	3.3	2.8	13.6	14.2	0.683	0.822	0.760
-	60.6 ±	81.1 ±	64.7 ±	59.8 ±	58.0 ±	59.7 ±	61.9 ±	59.8 ±			
Glutamic acid	6.4	32.1	34.9	4.9	4.8	16.9	23.1	22.1	0.451	0.493	0.931
	13.0 ±	15.6 ±	12.8 ±	11.8 ±	14.2 ±	13.8 ±	13.5 ±	12.8 ±			
Asparagine	1.7	6.5	7.2	1.5	1.0	2.8	2.4	2.3	0.390	0.544	0.907
	24.3 ±	30.7 ±	24.6 ±	22.6 ±	24.0 ±	23.3 ±	23.1 ±	21.8 ±			
Serine	3.0	12.2	13.5	2.5	1.9	6.0	2.7	3.3	0.756	0.403	0.984
	22.7 ±	26.6 ±	24.3 ±	23.6 ±	26.0 ±	26.2 ±	26.1 ±	23.0 ±			
Glutamine	2.9	10.7	10.8	2.4	1.4	5.1	3.6	4.8	0.726	0.868	0.514
	8.4 ±	11.3 ±	9.1 ±	8.2 ±	8.9 ±	8.6 ±	8.9 ±	8.9 ±			
Glycine	0.9	4.7	5.3	1.1	0.7	2.0	1.2	1.1	0.737	0.421	0.968
•	3.7 ±	6.5 ±	4.5 ±	3.0 ±	12.7 ±	10.6 ±	12.1 ±	11.2 ±			
Histidine	0.9	3.0	3.6	1.9	1.0	2.0	1.1	0.8	0.082	0.338	0.222
	31.8 ±	42.0 ±	32.2 ±	28.6 ±	35.2 ±	33.9 ±	34.1 ±	27.5 ±			
Arginine	4.3	17.1	19.5	4.5	3.5	6.8	5.6	14.6	0.719	0.307	0.754
-	23.3 ±	29.3 ±	23.6 ±	21.9 ±	15.4 ±	17.9 ±	15.2 ±	14.6 ±			
Threonine	2.5	11.9	13.1	2.3	0.9	8.3	2.1	2.6	0.803	0.284	0.957
	14.5 ±	18.8 ±	14.9 ±	13.7 ±	14.6 ±	14.3 ±	14.6 ±	13.8 ±			
Alanine	1.9	7.7	8.8	2.1	1.3	3.1	2.6	2.3	0.730	0.512	0.947
	16.0 ±	20.3 ±	16.5 ±	16.3 ±	13.6 ±	14.7 ±	14.2 ±	14.1 ±			
Proline	1.7	7.3	8.1	1.6	1.1	4.3	2.1	2.1	0.940	0.341	0.953
	28.4 ±	36.9 ±	28.8 ±	24.8 ±	30.9 ±	30.1 ±	30.4 ±	30.7 ±			
Tyrosine	3.5	15.0	16.5	3.6	2.2	4.9	4.6	3.8	0.725	0.344	0.777
•	23.8 ±	29.7 ±	24.1 ±	22.6 ±	22.6 ±	24.2 ±	23.2 ±	22.9 ±			
Valine	2.4	11.6	12.9	2.7	1.0	5.6	3.9	3.2	0.823	0.391	0.900
	8.8 ±	10.9 ±	9.1 ±	8.5 ±	10.3 ±	10.1 ±	10.0 ±	9.0 ±			
Methionine	1.1	4.3	4.7	1.2	0.9	2.0	1.9	2.3	0.891	0.463	0.894

Table 3. Yolk amino acid traits of eggs collected from Rhode Island Red and Australorp hens at four different stages

Table 3. (Continued)											
	0.4 ±	0.8 ±	0.3 ±	0.7 ±	4.2 ±	3.3 ±	4.1 ±	5.1 ±			
Cysteine	0.1	0.9	0.3	0.9	0.4	1.7	0.9	3.3	0.041	0.329	0.021
	19.7 ±	24.9 ±	20.1 ±	19.1 ±	18.0 ±	19.4 ±	18.4 ±	18.7 ±			
Isoleucine	2.3	9.4	10.4	2.1	1.2	4.6	3.2	2.6	0.890	0.299	0.882
	39.4 ±	49.2 ±	39.4 ±	36.2 ±	33.6 ±	35.6 ±	32.6 ±	32.6 ±			
Leucine	5.1	19.8	22.0	4.9	1.8	8.9	6.1	4.5	0.981	0.356	0.930
	23.6 ±	28.7 ±	23.6 ±	21.6 ±	22.4 ±	23.3 ±	21.6 ±	22.2 ±			
Phenylalanine	1.8	9.2	10.2	1.8	1.7	4.5	3.8	2.1	0.749	0.299	0.875
	32.7 ±	45.5 ±	35.8 ±	30.9 ±	37.8 ±	37.5 ±	36.7 ±	35.8 ±			
Lysine	5.2	20.4	22.3	5.4	2.8	8.8	5.4	5.1	0.677	0.379	0.978

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