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► **To cite this version:**

Noël Durand. Study on ochratoxin A contamination of coffee batches in the Kenyan context, in relation to cultivation methods and post harvest processing treatments. Food additives & contaminants. Part A. Chemistry, analysis, control, exposure & risk assessment, 2010, 27 (06), pp.836-841. 10.1080/19440040903571770 . hal-00593895

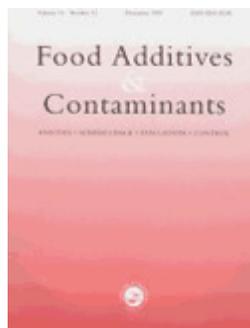
HAL Id: hal-00593895

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Submitted on 18 May 2011

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Study on ochratoxin A contamination of coffee batches in the Kenyan context, in relation to cultivation methods and post harvest processing treatments

Journal:	<i>Food Additives and Contaminants</i>
Manuscript ID:	TFAC-2009-366.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	11-Dec-2009
Complete List of Authors:	Durand, Noël; CIRAD, UMR Qualisud
Methods/Techniques:	Chromatography - HPLC, Clean-up - affinity columns
Additives/Contaminants:	Mycotoxins – ochratoxin A
Food Types:	Coffee

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Study on ochratoxin A contamination of coffee batches in the Kenyan context, in relation to cultivation methods and post-harvest processing treatments

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Abstract

This study set out to assess the relative importance of sound beans and unsound beans in a batch of coffee with regard to ochratoxin A (OTA) contamination. In first stage, unsound beans were found to account for 95% of contamination in a batch of coffee, whatever the methods used for post-harvest processing. It was also found that beans displaying traces of attacks by *Colletotrichum kahawae* were the greatest contributors to OTA contamination. In a second stage, the study compared the contamination of sound beans with that of beans attacked by *Colletotrichum kahawae*. On average, beans attacked by *Colletotrichum kahawae* had a statistically higher OTA content than sound beans ($18.0 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ as opposed to $1.2 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$). In addition, the average OTA content in unsound beans varied depending on growing conditions

Keywords: *Coffea arabica*, unsound beans, coffee berry disease, ochratoxin A

Introduction

OTA existence in coffee beans can be considered in relation to harvesting conditions (Moreas et al. 2003), post-harvest processing conditions (Bucheli et al. 2000; Joosten et al. 2001; Suarez-Quiroz et al. 2004; Romani et al. 2004), especially during dry processing (Moreas et al. 2003; Suarez-Quiroz et al. 2004; Bucheli et al. 1998; Urbano et al. 2001), and storage and transportation conditions (Bucheli et al. 1998). In the literature cited, OTA quantification was generally carried out on unsorted coffees (Urbano et al. 2001) sampled after processing. This coffee always contains varying proportions of unsound beans depending on the quality of cultural and technological production factors. On the other hand, no OTA quantification is done on samples taken before processing assuming that OTA contamination occurs only during the processing. Now, OTA has been detected in beans extracted from fresh cherries with, sometimes, high levels of OTA ($> 5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). This observation (not published) lets suppose that OTA contamination occurs in orchard and might affect certain beans. The hypothesis which has been formulated is that defects might significantly contribute to OTA contamination in a batch of unsorted beans. To verify it, a study has been carried out in Kenya where there is a perfect traceability of coffee and where two processing methods are commonly used.

Coffee production in Kenya is shared between producers grouped in farmer cooperative societies (FCS) and estates (E). FCS farmers practise extensive cultivation of a few acres of coffee trees and use very few or no inputs. Conversely, estates practise intensive coffee cultivation, where estates are kept in good phytosanitary condition by regular applications of fungicides and insecticides. Kenyan producers retain ownership of their coffee up to its sale to exporters or roasters. The price paid for coffee depends on its quality when it goes up for auction. That therefore calls for perfect traceability of the coffee from the production unit to the warehouses in which the coffee entering the market is stored.

The production unit is defined as being the structure comprising the plantation from which the cherries are harvested, and the washing stations where the cherries undergo their first post-harvest treatment. In the case of the FCSs, the production unit involves several hundred to several thousand farmers, who deliver their production to a community washing station. For the estates, the plantation and washing station belong to the same person.

A production unit produces coffee in the form of dry cherries (mbuni) and parchment coffee at a moisture content of 10-11%. The coffee is referenced then and sent to hulling and

grading units where it undergoes a second process to prepare commercial batches for export. Whilst the farming systems in Kenya might be highly contrasting, coffee cherries undergo the same post-harvest processing treatments (figure 1), during which perfectly codified procedures are applied identically, irrespective of the production unit or hulling factory.

Material and methods

The study was conducted in two stages :

- firstly, distribution by bean type (sound and unsound beans) and their contamination by OTA were assessed on coffee samples (S1a and S1b) obtained directly from production units, after initial post-harvest processing (figure 1).
- secondly, coffee samples (S2) were taken from the hulling factories (figure 1), in order to assess OTA contents for different types of defects encountered, and to study the contamination of a particular defect chosen in line with the results of the previous study. The type of defect selected for the second phase of the study contributed most to the overall contamination of a coffee batch.

Coffee samples

- *Coffee from production units*

After picking, cherries were brought to the washing station (figure 1) where they were first sorted by hand. Sound and slightly damaged cherries were pulped and the mucilage removed by fermentation for 12 hours (wet processing). They were then washed and sun dried. That gave parchment coffee. During washing, heavy parchment coffee (P1) was separated by densimetric sorting from light parchment coffee (PL). Unripe, overripe and cherries severely damaged by insects or diseases were separated off and spread on dryers (dry processing). After drying, dry cherries, or mbuni, were obtained. Both processing methods existed side by side in the same production unit and application of either method depended on initial cherry quality.

130 kg of light parchment coffee (S1a) and 200 kg of mbuni (S1b) were collected from two different cooperatives, i.e. the equivalent of 100 kg of beans (or green coffee) per cooperative. Light parchment coffee and mbuni were chosen to increase the probability of obtaining a sufficient quantity of defective beans. After hulling, the coffee was sorted by hand and classed into different bean categories. For each bean category, a 100 to 150-g sample was

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3 taken for OTA quantification. The samples were then placed in paper bags and sent to the
4 laboratory.
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9 • *Coffee from hulling and grading factories*

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12 Coffee from the washing stations was first hulled and the beans were separated from
13 the shell or parchment. They were then passed on to densimetric sorting tables, where they
14 were classed according to their density and size (grading), then sorted by colorimetry to
15 separate unsound beans (stained beans, broken beans, abnormally coloured beans) from sound
16 beans. As the aim was to add as much value as possible to each producer's coffee, each batch
17 of heavy parchment, light parchment and mbuni from the same production unit was processed
18 separately. Each initial batch of parchment coffee thus gave different categories of green
19 coffee. The upper categories corresponding to commercial grades AA, AB, C and PB
20 contained large, sound beans without defects, and the intermediate categories (commercial
21 grades C, T and TT) contained smaller beans and a small percentage of defects (<2-3%).
22 However, the lower categories (grade SB) comprised a mixture of sound beans and varying
23 proportions of unsound beans, apart from those strictly refused by roasters. Coffee produced
24 from mbuni was roughly sorted to remove undesirable black beans and stinkers.
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35 In order to collect enough unsound beans, samples (S2) (figure 1) were taken from
36 coffees in the lower categories (SB) derived from light parchment coffee (S2a) and mbuni
37 (S2b). For each sample, the number of the processed batch was recorded in order to know its
38 origin: type of production unit (FCS or estate), post-harvest processing method. A total of 75
39 1- to 2-kg bean samples, were taken at random during processing at the hulling and sorting
40 factories. The beans were sorted and classed into sound beans and seven different types of
41 defects, ultimately giving 229 sub-samples on which OTA contents were determined.
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50 **Analyses of OTA in beans**

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53 Coffee samples were frozen at -80°C then ground to pass through a 0.5 mm sieve and
54 analysed for OTA (Nakajima *et al.* 1997). The samples were extracted for 30 min with a
55 solution of methanol/3% sodium bicarbonate (50:50); the extracts were filtered and diluted
56 with phosphate-buffered saline and applied to an immunoaffinity column (Ochratest[®], Rhône
57 Diagnostics, Scotland). OTA was eluted with 3 ml HPLC grade methanol. The eluate was
58 evaporated to dryness under a stream of nitrogen at 70°C and the residue was redissolved in
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3 1 ml of HPLC mobile phase then quantified by HPLC (Shimadzu LC-10ADVP, Japan, with a
4 fluorescence detector). The mobile phase consisted of distilled water/acetonitrile/glacial acetic
5 acid (51:48:1). The flow rate was 1 ml/min. OTA was detected at an excitation wavelength of
6 333 nm and an emission wavelength of 460 nm, and a retention time of 13.3 – 13.5 min.
7 Standard OTA curves were established with an ochratoxin standard (1000 ng.ml⁻¹; (ref PD
8 226 R. Biopharm Rhône Ltd, Scotland); the detection limit was 0.03 ng.ml⁻¹.
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15 16 **Statistical analyses**

17 Analyses of variance were performed after $x \rightarrow \ln(x)$ log transformation, where x was
18 the OTA content of the sample expressed in $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$. For non-quantifiable contents (traces),
19 OTA content was fixed arbitrarily at the detection limit (0.03 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$). The software used was
20 R (The R Manuals edited by the R Development Core Team, R Foundation for Statistical
21 Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2006, ISBN3-900051-07-0, www.R-project.org)
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28 29 **Results and discussion**

30 31 32 **Coffee from production units**

- 33 • *Types and distribution of defects:*

34 At the end of manual sorting, seven categories of beans were identified, for both
35 parchment coffee (PL) and mbuni coffee (table 1). Sound beans accounted for 75.3% of total
36 bean weight in parchment coffee and 64.9% of total bean weight in mbuni. That result tallied
37 with the preliminary sorting of cherries on arrival at the washing station.
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42 Of the six categories of defects, beans attacked by *Colletotrichum kahawae* (diseased
43 beans) and insect damaged beans were defects of agronomic origin. Hulled ears were due to
44 polyembryony. Foxy beans and stinkers came from a lack of care during post-harvest
45 processing and were defects systematically eliminated from commercial batches. As sorting
46 criteria were mostly based on bean colour, it was often impossible to distinguish between
47 foxy beans and diseased beans with certainty, and the proportion of these latter defects was
48 probably underestimated. The origin of black beans was poorly determined and may have
49 been agronomic or technological.
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56 Defects of agronomic origin were the most frequent, with a strong predominance of
57 diseased beans. Those beans, which were characterized by brownish patches on the surface of
58 the beans, came from cherries subjected to late coffee berry disease (CBD) attacks. In fact,
59 beyond the 26th or 27th week after flowering (i.e. around 1.5 months before harvest),
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3 fungicide treatments were halted because the disease does not lead to harvest losses but to
4 external cherry damage. The larger proportion of diseased beans in mbuni (59% as opposed to
5 46% for parchment coffee) confirmed the merits of sorting before post-harvest processing.
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11 • **OTA contamination:**

12 All in all, the sound beans had a very low OTA content ($0.2 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ for parchment
13 coffee and $0.4 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ for mbuni), while the weighted contamination for defects reached 8.8
14 and $10.3 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ respectively (table 1). Under our study conditions, the existence of defects
15 could account for more than 98% of the contamination in a batch of coffee. Diseased beans
16 appeared to be a major contributor to contamination in parchment coffee, and probably in
17 mbuni given the uncertainty surrounding foxy beans. Defects of technological origin were
18 weakly contaminated and there did not seem to be any post-harvest process effect on
19 contamination levels, thereby confirming the hypothesis put forward by Suarez-Quiroz et al.
20 2004. Lastly, eliminating the defect contributing most to average batch contamination would
21 appear to reduce contamination to $1.0 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ for parchment coffee (PL) and $6.4 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ for
22 mbuni, as opposed to $9.2 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ and $12.0 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$.
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34 **Coffees from hulling and grading factories**

35 The average OTA contents of sound beans and the seven types of defects were
36 grouped into five categories (table 2) and confirmed earlier observations. Apart from foxy
37 beans, which can be confused with beans damaged by CBD, defects of agronomic origin were
38 the most contaminated. Statistical analyses were performed to compare the OTA contents of
39 sound beans and diseased beans, based on the processing method applied to cherries (dry or
40 wet), the growing system (intensive, extensive). Remember that beans were sorted by hand
41 before post-harvest processing and the process applied depended solely on the initial
42 condition of the cherries, which was judged visually.
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50 • **Wet processing versus dry processing:**

51 Whatever the post-harvest process the farming system, diseased beans were
52 statistically more contaminated than sound beans (18.0 and $1.2 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ respectively).
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54 Given that each batch of coffee delivered by the production units to the
55 hulling/grading factories was perfectly identified and processed separately, it was possible to
56 ascertain the background of each sample. It was therefore possible to compare the two types
57 of beans and the post-harvest processing methods applied (table 3). Diseased beans from
58 mbuni or parchment coffee had OTA contents of 29.7 and $10.6 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ respectively and there
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was a significant difference between the dry method and the wet method. That same statistical difference was also found for sound beans (1.9 and 1.0 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ respectively). Those differences could be explained by the fact that the most contaminated beans came from cherries processed by the dry method (mbuni) where less care is applied along drying course, thereby confirming the effect of the post-harvest process (Moreas *et al.* 2003; Bucheli *et al.* 2000; Joosten *et al.* 2001). However, as the most severely damaged beans were processed into mbuni, it was logical to find greater contamination in that type of coffee.

- ***Intensive estate system versus extensive FCS system***

CBD symptoms on cherries indicate that fruit integrity has not been preserved, thereby facilitating the installation of saprophytic fungi. In brief, CBD development in the absence of any control by fungicides leads to substantial fruit-fall up to the 24th-26th week after flowering. Thereafter, attacks are considered as late and, in principle, they do not cause harvest losses but can leave traces on beans. Spraying contact fungicides monthly up to the 6th or 7th month after flowering effectively controls the disease (Masaba *et al.* 1992; Bieysse *et al.* 2002). It was mentioned earlier that the degree of intensification in coffee plantations was relatively low among smallholders. In particular, input use was very low or nonexistent for a great majority of them. Consequently, berries were not protected or inadequately protected from CBD.

The statistical analyses shown in table 4 reveal a significant difference between OTA contents for diseased beans (29.3 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$) and sound beans (1.2 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$) in the case of the FCSs and no difference in the case of the estates (4.3 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ as opposed to 1.2 $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$). OTA contents in diseased beans were also statistically different between the FCSs and the estates, whilst sound beans have similar OTA contents. It therefore seems that preventive measures against CBD also have a favourable effect as regards OTA contamination. During this study, it was not possible to elucidate how the fungicides used against CBD acted in the reduction of OTA contamination. It may have involved late contamination by toxigenic moulds leading to relatively low OTA production, or direct action against the moulds, with the fungicides used slowing down their development. It should be noted that the producers used both contact fungicides (copper-based or synthetic) and systemic fungicides.

A final series of statistical analyses (table 4) was carried out to check the impact of sorting before post-harvest processing. For the FCSs, diseased beans and sound beans derived from mbuni were always more contaminated than those derived from parchment coffee (PL). For the estates, no significant difference was noted, be it for sound beans or diseased beans.

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3 This result confirmed the merits of sorting prior to post-harvest processing, especially in the
4 case of the FCSs. On the other hand, it is likely that the processing method, dry or wet, only
5 had a negligible influence. It would therefore seem that the degree of bean contamination at
6 the end of post-harvest processing depended considerably on cherry contamination at the
7 moment they were harvested.
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12 13 14 **Conclusions**

15 Given the very good traceability of Kenyan coffee, it was possible to show that bean
16 contamination by OTA is probably highly dependent upon the quality and sanitary condition
17 of cherries at the moment they are harvested. In particular, defects of agronomic origin could
18 be the main contributors to OTA contamination. In Kenya, CBD-damaged beans are without
19 any doubt the cause of high OTA contents that can be found in inferior quality batches.
20 Insect-damaged beans (CBB, *Antestia*, fruit flies) could definitely play a role in coffee
21 contamination (Vega et al. 1999) when commercial batches are only roughly sorted. The
22 results presented in this study need to be compared to those obtained on grapevines and wine
23 (Rousseau 2003). Indeed, it has been shown that grapes damaged by fruit flies are more
24 contaminated than sound grapes. The results of this study could provide the basis for field
25 trials, more particularly to assess the impact of effective phytosanitary protection in terms of
26 food safety.
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39 **Acknowledgements**

40 This study was made possible through the project entitled "Enhancement of coffee quality
41 through the prevention of mould formation", launched by the Common Fund for Commodities
42 and executed by FAO under the aegis of the International Coffee Organization. Thanks to the
43 Coffee Research Foundation for collecting all the samples, and to the processors who allowed
44 their collection.
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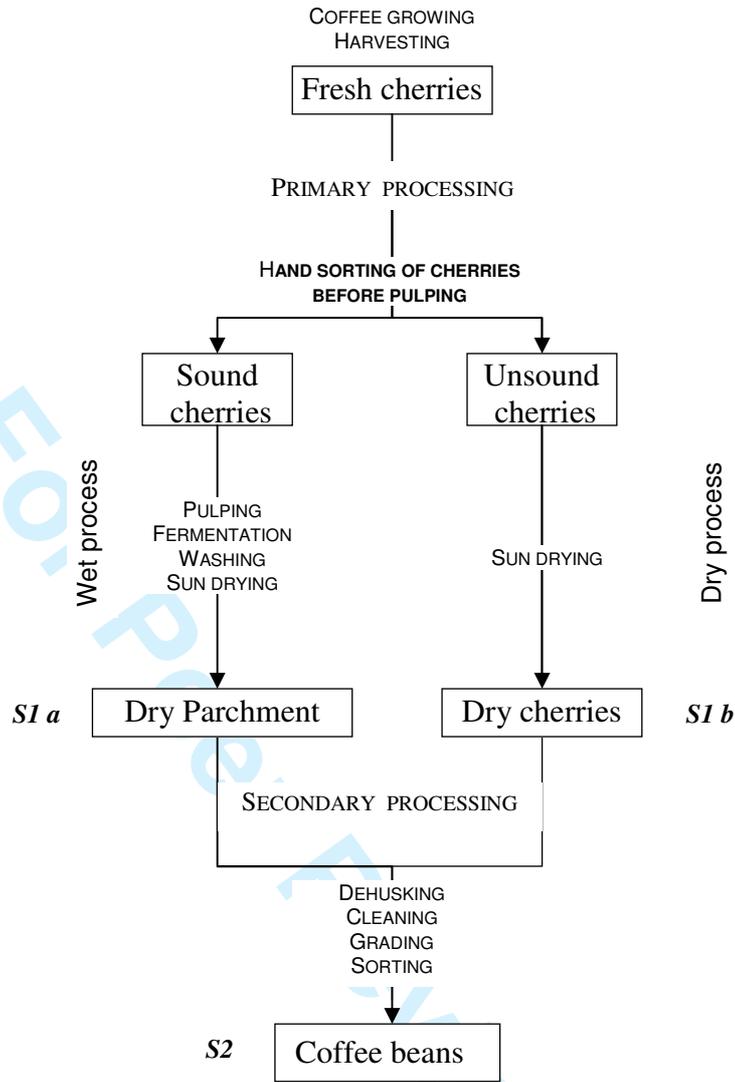


Figure 1: Coffee flow and processing steps from fresh cherries to coffee beans in Kenya
S1 a, S1 b et S2 : sampling steps

Table 1 : Percentage of different types of beans after hand sorting, OTA contents in $\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ and weighted contamination of beans from PL and Mbuni

Types of coffee	Parchment light (PL)				Mbuni			
Types of beans	Weight (%)	OTA ($\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$)		% cont.	Weight (%)	OTA ($\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$)		% cont.
		a	b			a	b	
Black beans	1,8	2,4	1,85	0,37	7,6	1,6	1,63	1,04
Diseased beans	11,3	71,3	73,29	90,41	20,6	37,5	33,65	57,65
Foxy beans	0,6	5	2,79	0,19	1,4	291,6	315,19	37,89
Hulled ears	10,3	0,4	0,39	0,43	3,9	0,9	0,58	0,19
Insect damaged beans	0,5	46,2	134,91	7,52	1,2	9	9,17	0,89
Stinkers	0,1	3,1	3,73	0,05	0,3	2,3	1,43	0,04
Defects	24,7	na	8,79	98,97	35,1	na	10,31	97,70
Sound beans	75,3	0,2	0,13	1,03	64,9	0,4	0,43	2,30
Total	100,0	na	9,2	-	100,0	na	12,0	-

a Means of 2 replicates x 2 batches of 100 kg of beans

b Weighted means

% cont. : contribution (%) of each defect in total contamination

Table 2: Means by class of OTA contamination for each type of beans

Types of beans (total of samples)		Means of OTA contents ($\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$) by class				
		traces	<1	1-9,9	10-99,9	≥ 100
Sound beans 75	number	6	47	22	-	-
	mean	na	0.3	3.6	-	-
	s.d.	na	0.2	2.4	-	-
Diseased beans 62	number	8	19	21	11	3
	mean	na	0.4	3.7	54.7	142.9
	s.d.	na	0.3	2.1	26.4	11.6
Black beans 32	number	1	11	16	2	2
	mean	na	0.4	2.6	37.2	118.1
	s.d.	na	0.3	1.2	35.2	18.9
Insect damaged beans 16	number	3	4	4	4	1
	mean	na	0.5	3.6	29.3	499.3
	s.d.	na	0.3	1.7	30.9	na
Foxy beans 16	number	2	2	4	3	4
	mean	na	0.2	5.3	29.7	389.8
	s.d.	na	0	1.7	18.9	248.4
Stinkers 10	number	-	1	8	1	-
	mean	-	0.1	3.1	32.1	-
	s.d.	-	na	1.3	na	-
Hulled ears 14	number	1	10	2	1	-
	mean	na	0.4	1.7	29.6	-
	s.d.	na	0.2	0	na	-
Others 4	number	-	-	3	1	-
	mean	-	-	2.4	-	-
	s.d.	-	-	2.3	na	-

na : not available – s.d. : standard deviation

Table 3 : OTA contents ($\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$) in diseased and sound beans in buni and PL for both sectors of production

Source of variation		Mean	Statistics (p=0.95)		Conclusions
			df	F	
All beans	Diseased	18.0	1-135	15.277	Diseased >Sound
	Sound	1.2			
Diseased	Buni	29.7	1-60	10.308	Buni > PL
	PL	10.6			
Sound	Buni	1.9	1-73	5.381	Buni > PL
	PL	1.0			

In bold, significant difference

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Table 4 : OTA contents ($\mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$) in diseased and sound beans from FCS and Estates

Source of variation		Mean	Statistics ($p=0.95$)		Conclusions
			df	F	
FCS	Diseased	29.3	1-67	13.506	Diseased >Sound
	Sound	1.2			
E	Diseased	4.3	1-66	3.330	Diseased =Sound
	Sound	1.2			
Diseased	FCS	29.3	1-60	5.067	FCS>E
	E	4.3			
Sound	FCS	1.2	1-73	0.938	FCS = E
	E	1.2			
Diseased FCS	Buni	38.7	1-32	10.966	Buni > PL
	PL	20.0			
Diseased Estates	Buni	8.0	1-26	0.076	Buni = PL
	PL	3.0			
Sound FCS	Buni	2.0	1-33	16.307	Buni > PL
	PL	0.6			
Sound Estates	Buni	1.1	1-26	0.706	Buni = PL
	PL	0.5			

In bold, significant difference