Nutritional Analyses of Domestic and Poultry Chickens and Evaluation of the Subsequent Effects on Lowering Blood Glucose Levels in Alloxan-Induced Wister Rats

Mahbuba Khatun¹, Md. Motiar Rahman²*, M. Manirujjaman³, Meftah Uddin⁴, Mst. Gulshan Ara⁴, Ismail Hossain⁴, Masudul Hasan Khan⁴ and Mohammad Amirul Islam⁴*

¹Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Gono Bishwabidyalay, Savar, Bangladesh.
²Shenzhen Institute of Advanced Technology (SIAT) of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS), Shenzhen 518055, P.R. China.
³Department of Internal Medicine, Saga Medical School, Saga University, 5-1-1 Nabeshima, Saga, 849-8501, Japan.
⁴Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Rajshahi, Rajshahi-6205, Bangladesh.

Authors’ contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author MAI designed and supervised the study. Author MK conducted the experiments and analyzed the data. Authors MU and MM assisted in the laboratory experiments. Authors MGA, IH and MHK analyzed the data of the study. Author MMR wrote the manuscripts and extensively analyzed the data. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

ABSTRACT

In the recent decades, peoples concentrate more on reduced-consumption of diets containing saturated fatty acids and replace them with essential polyunsaturated ones, including omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids, due to their promising nutritional benefits. Therefore, the production of chicken meat having lower fat compositions, and riches in pro-healthy fatty acid and other macro-and micronutrients deserves great attention in the food industry. The research aimed to characterize
meat oils of two commercially available, domestic and poultry, chickens in the Northern part of Bangladesh (Rajshahi), followed by the investigation of their nutritional compositions and hypoglycemic effect in vivo. In this work, the oil was isolated from the dried meat sources by Soxhlet extractor and purified using a rotary evaporator. We subsequently characterized meat oil in terms of various parameters, such as iodine value, saponification number, unsaponifiable matter, free fatty acid (FFA) contents, peroxide value, and acid value. Besides, the nutritional parameters of chicken oil were investigated as percentages of essential fatty acids and several other micro-and macronutrients using gas-liquid chromatography and other conventional methods. Finally, Alloxan-induced Wister rats were fed with oil and chicken flesh to investigate the hypoglycemic effects. The experimental analyses show that chicken oil possesses a significant proportion of omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acid, macro-and micronutrients. Besides, oil and flesh were found to lower blood glucose levels in diabetic rats despite flesh could not significantly show hypoglycemic properties.

Keywords: Domestic chicken; poultry chicken; fatty acid; quality control; nutrients; diabetes.

1. INTRODUCTION

The production of animal meat with low-fat content as well as healthy fatty acid profiles and other essential nutrients is a matter of huge interest in the food industry [1–3]. A US-based survey demonstrates that about 60% of meat consumers prefer to have meat with low animal fat content and 40% of consumers have reduced beef meat consumption since the beef meat contains a higher quantity of unhealthy constituents, including triglycerides and low-density lipoprotein (LDL)-cholesterol [4]. Meats from the various animal kingdom are characterized mostly by their essential fatty acid content, and other macro-and micronutrient compositions such as vitamins, minerals, etc [5].

In the last few decades, consumption of both poultry and domestic chicken meats has been boosted significantly, and it is assumed that it would continue to increase in the near future, especially in the developing nations [6]. Meats consumers are generally interested in chicken diets especially from poultry stains as it is, cost effective, low fat content (5g/100g raw meat without skin), valuable sources of healthy fatty acids, proteins (20g/100g raw meat without skin) fat-soluble vitamins and inorganic minerals [7]. It has been reported that poultry chicken meat with low-saturated fat content may assist to resolve major global public health complications including diabetes [8,9]. Feskens et al. have summarized interesting correlations among insulin resistance, hyperinsulinemia and the ingestion of saturated fats from animal sources [10].

In developing countries diabetes is prevalent in adult and has become one of the major causes of death due to its association with elevated risk of cardiovascular diseases. In 2000, it was reported that diabetes had affected about 171 million people worldwide, and it was anticipated that by 2030 this figure would cross 366 million [11]. A previous report has mentioned that, in Bangladesh, the figures of diabetes would increase from 3.2 million to 11.1 million from 2000 to 2030 [12]. The consumption of red meats with high-fat content may block glucose uptake, leading to the development of insulin resistance as well as diabetes [13]. Compare to white meat, red meat contains higher heme-iron, a pro-oxidant that triggers oxidative stress, free radicals, and inflammation in the body. Heme-iron plays dual roles in the case of glucose metabolism, it disturbs glucose storage in the tissues, and influences hepatic glucose production which results in elevated blood glucose levels and pancreatic β-cells destruction. [14]. Moreover, red meat contains high levels of harmful cholesterol, responsible for the blockage of arteries and puts the diabetic subjects at high risks of developing coronary heart disease [15–17]. This phenomenon has influenced to replace red meat diets with low-saturated fat-containing white meat diets like chicken [18]. However, for many peoples in developing countries, consuming domestic chicken meat is much difficult due to its high prices in the local market. For this reason, a large number of people in the underdeveloped countries depend on poultry meat to replenish the high-quality nutrients in the body. The step-up demand for poultry meat has exerted pressure on farmers and, breeders to increase breast-meat production [6].

From these perspectives, consumers are conscious about the labeling of food with proper
nutritional profiles [19] One effective way to meet consumers’ demand is the analyses of nutritional properties of marketed meat followed by processing and proper labeling, which needs effective analyses with efficient methods. Secondly, there is a strong belief among the common people that domestic chickens are much more beneficial for animal health when compared to hybrid chickens. Therefore, specific and comparative studies are required to understand their nutritional composition as well as other pharmacological properties of these chicken species. For this purpose, the authors aim to determine and compare the nutritional properties of two commercially available meat resources such as, domestic and poultry chickens, in the Northern part of Bangladesh (Rajshahi). Besides, the chemical properties of isolated fats from the chicken oils have been investigated in details. As an essential composition, the fatty acid content of both domestic and poultry chicken oils has been determined. Finally, we comparatively analyzed the effects of chicken oils and flesh of both domestic and poultry chickens on blood glucose levels in alloxan-induced Wister rats.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Sample Collection

Domestic and poultry chickens, ten of each, were purchased from the Binodpur Bazar, Rajshahi, Bangladesh. The chickens were immediately cleaned, air-dried, labeled, and stored in a deep fridge for future experiments. For analyses, only the meat portion of chicken was used.

2.2 Extraction of Oil

Oils were extracted from both poultry and domestic chickens using solvents under Soxhlet extractor [20]. Briefly, fresh selected chickens were sun-dried for removal of moisture and then crushed into pests. The oil was extracted as follows: the sample was placed in a porous thimble covered with cotton wool and the weight of the sample was measured before it was further placed in an inner tube of the apparatus and fitted to a round bottom flask containing n-hexane solvent. The sample was then heated and boiled for 1 hour. While heating, the solvent inside the flask was started boiling within 5 minutes and water begins to drop from the top to the sample in the thimble. When the solvent reached the top of the tube, it siphoned over into the flask and then removes the oil portion extracted in the refluxing process. The solvent used in a round bottom flask of the Soxhlet apparatus and the oil extracts were collected and measured (Fig. 1). The extract was evaporated under reduced pressure (rotary evaporator) to obtain the oil.

2.3 Purification of Crude Oil

About 100 g of oil was taken in a separating funnel, followed by the addition of 100 ml of water, 200 ml of ether, and 25 ml of saturated sodium chloride solution. The solution was then stirred and kept at room temperature until two distinct layers appeared. The aqueous layer was discarded and the remaining solution was stirred with 100 ml of distilled water followed by the addition of 25 ml of sodium chloride. The ether layer was separated in a conical flask and dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate. The extract was then evaporated by a rotary evaporator at 40°C to get the purified oil [21].

2.4 Quality Control

The iodine value of oils was measured by the Hanus method [22]. Saponification value, unsaponifiable matter, acid value, peroxide value, and percentage of FFA were determined according to Viswanathan [23]. The fatty acid composition of extracted oil was determined by Gas-liquid chromatography [24]. GC-2025 gas chromatograph with AOC-20i Auto-Injector (Shimadzu Co, Japan) was used for quantitative analysis of chicken oil under condition (temperature; 280°C, pressure; 175.4KPa, total flow; 165 ml/min, purge flow; 3ml/min, column temperature; 270°C). The area of fatty acids contents was expressed as the relative percentage of fatty acids, which were calculated by the following formula:

\[
\text{The relative percentage of fatty acid} = \frac{\text{Area of fatty acid} \times 100}{\text{Total area of detected fatty acids}}
\]

2.5 Nutrients Content Measurement

Moisture and ash contents were determined according to ICOMR [25] and AOAC method [26], respectively. Lipid, total sugar, reducing sugar, glycogen, total protein, and mineral contents were determined by Blight and Dyer method [27], Anthrone method [28], Dinitr salicylic acid [29], Anthrone method [28], micro-Kjeldahl method [26] and atomic absorption spectrophotometer [30], respectively.
2.6 Experimental Animals

Female Wister strain rats weighing about 100–150 g and 21-28 days old were bought from Bangladesh Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (BCSIR), Chittagong. All the animals were maintained at (22±2ºC) temperature, humidity (45.75%), and 12 hours:12 hours day:night cycle, and were allowed free access to standard pellet diet and water ad libitum. The animals were divided into seven groups containing six rats in each group as mentioned below:

- NCD - Normal or non-diabetes rats
- DC - Control (Alloxan induced diabetic rats with no treatment)
- DG - Diabetic + glibenclamide
- DDO - Diabetic + domestic chicken oil (1% of the total diet)
- DPO - Diabetic + poultry chicken oil (1% of the total diet)
- DDF - Diabetic + domestic chicken flesh (1% of the total diet)
- DPF - Diabetic + poultry chicken flesh (1% of the total diet)

2.7 Diabetes Induction and Oil Treatment

Diabetes was induced by a single intraperitoneal injection of freshly prepared Alloxan Hydrate (55 mg/kg BW) in 0.9% saline solution. After three days of alloxan administration, serum glucose levels of each rat were determined. Rats with a fasting plasma glucose levels 280–350 mg/dL were considered diabetic and included in the study. NDC and DC rats were fed with normal diet and plenty of water; DG rats were treated with glibenclamide (0.6 mg/kg body weight); DDO, DPO, DDF, and DPF rats were fed with domestic chicken oil (1% of the total diet), poultry chicken oil (1% of the total diet), domestic chicken flesh (1% of the total diet), and poultry chicken flesh (1% of the total diet), respectively. Blood was drawn every week throughout the three weeks from the tail vein (Fig. 3ab). The serum was separated by centrifugation at 4000 rpm for 15 min and estimated serum glucose level using a semi-autoanalyzer (Microlab 300).  

2.8 Statistical Analysis

All the results were expressed as mean ± SEM. The difference between the groups was calculated by using an independent t-test at 95% confident interval. P<0.05 was considered as significant.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Characterization of Chicken Oil

The analyses show that the average amount of oil content in domestic and poultry chickens was 3.54% and 4.84%, respectively. Chemical characteristics of oils were investigated using various parameters, including iodine value, saponification value, acid value, peroxide value, and percentage free fatty acid. Iodine number
and unsaponifiable value were higher in poultry chicken (77.92 and 248.6) compared to domestic chicken (60.56 and 303.15). In addition, saponification value, acid value, peroxide value, and percentage FFA content in domestic chicken were higher compared to poultry chicken by 22%, 15%, 14%, and 15%, respectively (Table 1).

3.2 Fatty Acid Compositions

GC analyses show that both the domestic and poultry chicken oils contain oleic acid (C18) as major fats. These oils contain the bulk of saturated fatty acids like palmitic acid (C16) and stearic acid (C18). Poultry chicken oil possesses monoenoic palmitoleic acid (C16), but domestic chicken possesses no palmitoleic acid. Both the oils contain a small quantity of arachidonic acid although domestic chicken contains a little higher than poultry chicken. Besides, these oils contain a small quantity of myristic acid and behenic acid (Fig. 2).

3.3 Nutritional Analysis of Chicken Oils

The macronutrients of domestic and poultry chicken oils were mentioned in Table 2 and micronutrient contents were shown in Table 3. The results show the moisture and ash contents in domestic chicken were 73.89% and 2.25%, respectively, whereas in poultry chicken these contents were 75.22% and 2.4%, respectively. The total lipid content in domestic and poultry species was 2.82% and 4.78%, respectively. Besides, the total protein contents in domestic chicken and poultry chicken were 12.84% and 13.75%, respectively. Domestic chicken meat contains a considerable amount of glycogen.

Table 1. Chemical characteristics of the domestic and poultry chicken oil

| Parameters            | Domestic chicken | Poultry chicken | Difference (%) |
|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Oil content           | 3.54             | 4.84            | 26            |
| Iodine value          | 60.56            | 77.92           | 23            |
| Acid value            | 32.47            | 28.24           | 15            |
| Saponification value  | 303.15           | 248.6           | 22            |
| Unsaponifiable matter | 3.5              | 11.14           | 67            |
| Peroxide value        | 81.62            | 71.87           | 14            |
| Free fatty acid (%)   | 16.25            | 14.55           | 15            |

Fig. 2. Fatty acid composition in domestic and poultry chicken oil
(0.039%), free sugar (0.1%), and reducing sugar (0.002%). In poultry chicken these contents were 0.041%, 0.13% and 0.002%, respectively. It seems that all macronutrients, including ash, moisture, total protein, lipid, total carbohydrate, and total lipid were found to be higher in the poultry chicken. It was also noted that lipid content was about 40% higher in poultry chicken compared to domestic chicken.

Minerals are inorganic substances required for the organism in very small amounts for their growth and maintenance of functional activities. Food and vegetables are important sources of minerals for human beings and exist in food as organic and inorganic combinations. In our study, we show that the chickens contain many essential micronutrients including iron, calcium, zinc, and lead. These contents were higher in domestic chicken (32 µg/kg iron; 105.2 µg/kg calcium; 17.84 µg/kg zinc and 38.28 µg/kg lead) when compared to poultry chicken (27.0 µg/kg iron, 97.5 µg/kg calcium, 9.11 µg/kg zinc and 37.17 µg/kg lead). However, potassium and manganese were found to be higher in poultry chicken (127.8 µg/kg and 9.74 µg/kg, respectively) than domestic chicken (86.83 µg/kg and 6.83 µg/kg, respectively) (Table 3).

3.4 Chicken Oils in Lowering Blood Glucose Levels in Diabetic Rats

For this experiment Alloxan-induced diabetes rats were fed chicken oil and flesh of both domestic and poultry species for 21 days. After the first week of treatment, chicken oil and flesh did not show significant effect on blood glucose levels. However, the treatment showed that oil and flesh significantly lower blood glucose levels at 21st day. The blood glucose levels were decreased by 12% and 10% by domestic and poultry chicken oil, respectively, which was comparable to glibenclamide administration (16%). On the other hand, the decrease rate was only 8% and 9% by domestic and poultry chicken flesh, respectively (Table 4).

4. DISCUSSION

Moisture plays a significant role in the cell since the protoplasm contains about 75% water that is required for the growth and metabolism of animal cells. It is also necessary for the absorption and transport of nutrients, and for the regulation of fluidity in living systems [31]. It serves as an essential part of life like other biomolecules such as carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, etc. Moisture is further necessary for most biological reactions that occur in animal tissues. Recently, Sorland et al. [32] carried out NMR analyses using six samples of pork meat and reported that it possesses at least 60% of moisture. Urh et al. [33] showed beef, pork, chicken, turkey possess 60-75% of water. Our analyses also show that both the domestic and poultry meats contain about 75% of water, which supports the recent findings. Ash serves as the source of most inorganic minerals. A study reported that hybrid meat contains 1.19% whereas polverara meats possess 1.31% of ash [34]. Edris et al. [35]
Fig. 3. In vivo animal model of diabetes treatment. (a) Mode of diabetes induction, oral treatment, and biochemical analysis; (b) roadmap of diabetes treatment; (c) mechanism of how diabetes treatment changes histological alteration of pancreatic \( \beta \)-cells to induce insulin secretion (adapted from reference [73])

Table 4. Effects of oil and flesh of domestic and poultry chicken on fasting blood glucose level of experimental rats

| Treatment Group | 7\(^{th}\) day | 14\(^{th}\) day | 21\(^{st}\) day |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| NDC             | 5.7±0.4      | 5.6±0.46     | 5.5±0.57     |
| DC              | 17.7±1.5     | 21.2±1.98    | 25.0±1.4     |
| DG              | 16.0±1.12    | 13.7±0.82    | 10.9±0.81*   |
| DDO             | 15.6±1.09    | 14.5±1.29    | 11.9±0.7*    |
| DPO             | 16.11±0.71   | 14.13±0.77   | 12.8±0.56*   |
| DDF             | 16.4±0.46    | 15.1±0.45    | 13.1±0.46    |
| DPF             | 16.7±0.6     | 14.8±0.7     | 13.9±0.51    |

* Indicate significance change compared with the normal control group (\(P<0.05\)). The results are expressed as ±SEM

has demonstrated that the breast, thigh, and drumsticks portion of chicken possess 2.37%, 2.52%, and 3.56% of ash, respectively. Our analyses also show that domestic and poultry meats contain 2.25% and 2.406% of ash, respectively (Table 2).

Our findings demonstrate that poultry oil possesses a higher iodine value (78) compared to domestic chicken oil (61), which indicates the presence of large number of long-chain unsaturated fatty acids because a greater number of double bonds give more sites for oxidation [36]. Gheisar [36] has also reported that chicken oil possesses a higher iodine number (80) than cattle (52) and camel (40). Feddern et al. [37] have found that chicken contains (73-85) higher iodine value than beef (35-48) and pig (55-68). Our results support these findings. Poultry meat contains lower saponification number (249) than domestic chicken oil (303). Saponification value is a quality indicator of the fatty acid chain, low saponification number indicates the presence of long chain fatty acids [38]. Feddern et al. [37] have reported the saponification number of chicken skin and chicken meat oil was 216 and 190-196, respectively, which closely match with our finding.

Acid value, peroxide value, and percentage of free fatty were higher for domestic chicken than poultry chicken by 15%, 14%, and 15%, respectively (Table 1). Lipids readily undergo oxidation to form peroxides. Peroxides are intermediates of several reaction products that may react to generate odorous aldehydes and ketones, an indicator of rancidity. In long-chain unsaturated fats, the number of peroxide intermediates remains low. In this case, although the peroxides primarily yielded from unsaturated fats, which are highly unsaturated as well as unstable, and therefore, quickly react to generate secondary oxidation products. Low peroxide values might also be received for any highly rancid products; however, the peroxides yielded in the initial step have all subsequently undergone oxidation reactions [39]. On the other hand, FFA content is an estimation of the extent to which rancidity has occurred in a sample. It
Some minerals including iron may form a complex with the organic molecule to generate hemoglobin, others are necessary for bone regeneration and teeth formation. Some inorganic nutrients are components of diverse regulatory compounds, including vitamins, hormones, and enzymes [62]. For example, succinate dehydrogenase and lipase require calcium for their functions. Calcium is also important for accurate functioning of muscles and nerve, formation of fingernails and hair, blood clotting, and maintains healthy body fluids and membranes, and sometimes, calcium may help to prevent cardiovascular disease by lowering blood pressure [63]. Iron is needed for many enzymatic functions including ferredoxin catalase, aldehyde oxidase, indophenol oxidase, etc. Some minerals also exist in both intra- and extra-cellular spaces [62]. Zinc is an essential component to boost immune response in the body, and also involves numerous enzyme systems as well as a component of insulin [64–66]. Potassium assists to control extracellular body fluid, regulate blood pressure, transmit nerve impulses and help the heart and muscles to contract [67,68]. Manganese is an essential constituent of diverse enzymes and is required for metabolism, tendon formation, and growth of bones [69]. Food and vegie are essential sources of various minerals and present in food as inorganic and organic salt. In our study, we show that chicken possesses significant quantities of mineral, which have been supported by several other findings [70,71].

Alloxan has been being applied for inducing diabetes in vivo models for a long time. The intraperitoneal injection partly damages pancreatic β-cells, which affects insulin production leading to the development of diabetes mellites (Fig. 3C, middle) [72]. Our result shows that both poultry chicken and domestic chicken oil lower the blood glucose levels in alloxan-induced diabetes to near the control levels. The blood glucose levels were decreased by 12% and 10% for domestic and poultry chicken oil administered subjects whereas 8% and 9% for domestic and poultry chicken flesh administered subjects, which is close to glibenclamide administered subject (16%). The result indicates that the treatment with domestic and poultry chicken oil significantly reduced blood glucose levels through similar mechanisms of glibenclamide. However, the flesh could not significantly reduce sugar levels. We could not identify the exact reason(s) for this phenomenon, we are assuming the presence of...
lower quantities of hypoglycemic constituents in flesh portion of the chickens. Further studies are essential to resolve this interesting problem. Another limitation of our experiment is that we could not find out the exact mode of action of chicken oils on lowering blood glucose levels. Some authors have proposed that diabetes condition might be improved either through the regeneration of affected pancreatic β-cells by antidiabetic compounds (Fig. 3, right) [73], or by release of bound insulin from pancreatic cells by blocking ATP-sensitive-K⁺ (potassium ion) channels [74]. Similar mechanism(s) on blood glucose reduction might be exerted by chicken oils. However extensive studies are necessary to trace the exact mechanism(s) of actions of chicken oils on diabetes.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, chickens are the sources of several nutrients, including total sugar, glycogen, protein, essential fatty acids, and minerals. Besides, it prevents diabetes in alloxan-induced diabetes (Wister) rats. Considering the health benefit as well as taste, it should be considered as good food for our healthy life.

CONSENT

It is not applicable.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

This research work was approved by the Institutional Animal, Medical Ethics, Bio-Safety and Bio-Security Committee (IAMEBBC) for Experimentations on Animal, Human, Microbes, and Living Natural Sources, memo no. 118/320-IAMEBBC/IBSc on 19/03/2019. Institute of Biological Sciences, University of Rajshahi, Bangladesh.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Boschetti E, Bordoni A, Meluzzi A, Castellini C, Dal Bosco A, Sirri F. Fatty acid composition of chicken breast meat is dependent on genotype-related variation of FADS1 and FADS2 gene expression and desaturating activity. Animal. 2016;10(4):700–8.
2. Goldberg JP, Tanskey LA, Sanders EA, Smith Edge M. The IFIC foundation food and health survey 2015: 10-year trends and emerging issues. J Acad Nutr Diet. 2017;117(3):358–60.
3. Martins T da S, Lemos MVA de, Mueller LF, Baldi F, Amarim TR de, Ferrinho AM, et al. Fat deposition, fatty acid composition, and its relationship with meat quality and human health. Meat Science and Nutrition; 2018.
4. I.F.I.C. Foundation. Consumer attitudes toward food, nutrition and health. International Food Information Council Foundation. Washington, DC, USA; 2009.
5. Kouba M, Mourtot J. A review of nutritional effects on fat composition of animal products with special emphasis on n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids. Biochimie. 2011;93:13–7.
6. Petracci M, Sirri F, Mazzoni M, Meluzzi A. Comparison of breast muscle traits and meat quality characteristics in 2 commercial chicken hybrids. Poul Sci. 2013;92(9):2438–47.
7. Grashorn MA. Functionality of poultry meat. J Appl Poul Res. 2007;16(1):99–106.
8. Marangoni F, Corsello G, Cricelli C, Ferrara N, Ghiselli A, Lucchin L, et al. Role of poultry meat in a balanced diet aimed at maintaining health and wellbeing: An Italian consensus document. Food Nutr Res. 2015;59:27606.
9. Ley SH, Sun Q, Willett WC, Eliassen AH, Wu K, Pan A, et al. Associations between red meat intake and biomarkers of inflammation and glucose metabolism in women1-3. Am J Clin Nutr. 2014;99:352–60.
10. Feskens EJM, Sluijk D, Van Woudenbergh GJ. Meat consumption, diabetes, and its complications. Curr Diab Rep. 2013;13:298–306.
11. Rheeder P. Type 2 diabetes: The emerging epidemic. South African Fam Pract. 2006;48(10):20.
12. Wild S, Roglic G, Green A, Sicree R, King H. Global prevalence of diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2004;27(5):1047–53.
13. Micha R, Wallace SK, Mozaffarian D. Red and processed meat consumption and risk of incident coronary heart disease, stroke, and diabetes mellitus: A systematic review.
and meta-analysis. Circulation. 2010;121(21):2271–2283.

14. Zhao Z, Li S, Liu G, Yan F, Ma X, Huang Z, et al. Body iron stores and heme-iron intake in relation to risk of type 2 diabetes: A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2012;7(7): e41641.

15. Ekmekcioglu C, Wallner P, Kundi M, Weisz U, Haas W, Hutter HP. Red meat, diseases, and healthy alternatives: A critical review. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr. 2018;58(2):247–61.

16. Pan A, Sun Q, Bernstein AM, Schulze MB, Manson JAE, Willett WC, et al. Red meat consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes: 3 Cohorts of US adults and an updated meta-analysis. Am J Clin Nutr. 2011; 94:1086–96.

17. Roizen MF. Red meat consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes: 3 cohorts of US adults and an updated meta-analysis. Yearb Anesthesiol Pain Manag. 2012;19–20.

18. Keeton JT, Dikeman ME. "Red" and "white" meats-terms that lead to confusion. Anim Front. 2017;7(4):29–33.

19. Ali ME, Razzak MA, Hamid SBA. Multiplex PCR in species authentication: Probability and prospects—a review. Food Anal Methods. 2014;7(10):1933–49.

20. Arun Bahl, Bahl BS. A textbook of organic chemistry. 2001:895.

21. Toncer O, Karaman S, Diraz E, Tansi S. Essential oil composition of Ocimum basilicum L. at different phenological stages in semi-arid environmental conditions. Fresenius Environ Bull. 2017; 26:5441–6.

22. Klee L, Harvey Benham G. The determination of the true iodine numbers of oils containing conjugated double-bond systems. J Am Oil Chem Soc. 1950;27(4):130–3.

23. Viswanathan MB, Thangadurai D, Tamil Venden K, Ramesh N. Chemical analysis and nutritional assessment of Teramnus labialis (L.) Spreng. (Fabaceae). Plant Foods Hum Nutr; 1999.

24. Stoffel W, Chu F, Ahrens EH. Analysis of long-chain fatty acids by gas-liquid chromatography. Anal Chem. 1959;31(2):307–308.

25. International A, AOAC: Official methods of analysis, 1980. Assoc Off Agric Chem Washington, DC. 1980;70(4):468–468.

26. Shamanna Ranganna. Handbook of analysis and quality control for fruit and vegetable products - S. Ranganna - Google Books. Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited New Delhi. 1986;1112.

27. Bligh EG, Dyer WJ. A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. Can J Biochem Physiol. 1959; 37:911–7.

28. Ekwenye UN. Nutrition composition of palm oil from different varieties of oil palm and health. J Food Technol. 2006; 4:172–3.

29. Miller GL. Use of dinitrosaliclyc acid reagent for determination of reducing sugar. Anal Chem. 1959;31(3):426–428.

30. Robinson JW. Determination of sodium by atomic absorption spectroscopy. Anal Chim Acta. 1960; 23:458–61.

31. Omolara O, Oluwaniyi, Omotayo O. DOSUMU. Preliminary Studies on the effect of processing methods on the quality of three commonly consumed marine fishes in Nigeria. Biokemistri. 2009; 21:1–7.

32. Sorlønd GH, Larsen PM, Lundby F, Rudi AP, Guiheneuf T. Determination of total fat and moisture content in meat using low field NMR. Meat Sci. 2004;66(3):543–50.

33. Leffler TP, Moser CR, McManus BJ, Urh JJ, Keeton JT, Claffin A, et al. Determination of moisture and fat in meats by microwave and nuclear magnetic resonance analysis: Collaborative study. J AOAC Int. 2008;91(4):2008.

34. Zotte AD, Gleeson E, Franco D, Cullere M, Lorenzo JM. Proximate composition, amino acid profile, and oxidative stability of slow-growing indigenous chickens compared with commercial broiler chickens. Foods. 2020; 9:546.

35. Edris AM, Hemmat MI, Shaltout FA, Elshater MA, Eman FMI. Chemical analysis of chicken meat with relation to its quality. Benha Vet Med J. 2012;23(1):87–93.

36. Gheisari HR. Correlation between acid, TBA, peroxide and iodine values, catalase and glutathione peroxidase activities of chicken, cattle and camel meat during refrigerated storage. Vet World. 2011;4(4):153–7.

37. Feddem V, Kupski L, Cipolatti EP, Giacobbo G, Mendes GL, Badiale-Furlong E, et al. Physico-chemical composition, fractionated glycerides and fatty acid
profile of chicken skin fat. Eur J Lipid Sci Technol. 2010; 112:1277–1284.

38. Baião N, Lara L. Oil and fat in broiler nutrition. Rev Bras Ciência Ácicola. 2005;7(3):129–41.

39. Gotoh N, Wada S. The importance of peroxide value in assessing food quality and food safety. JAOCS, J Am Oil Chem Soc. 2006;83(5):473–4.

40. Ogunsola OO, Omojola AB. Nutritional evaluation of a dehydrated shredded meat product, (Danbunama). Pakistan J Nutr. 2008;7(4):554–6.

41. Piette G, Hundt M, Jacques L, Lapointe M. Processing and products: Influence of extraction temperature on amounts and quality of rendered chicken fat recovered from ground or homogenized skin. Poul Sci. 2001; 80:496–500.

42. Abraham J, Saravanakumar VR, Kulkarni VV., Sivakumar K, Singh AP, Visha P. Yield and quality characteristics of rendered chicken oil for biodiesel production. JAOCS, J Am Oil Chem Soc. 2014;91(1):133–41.

43. Mobley AR, Mobley SL. Understanding Nutrition. J Nutr Educ Behav. 2015;47(5): 484.e7.

44. Stillwell W, Shaikh SR, Zerouga M, Siddiqui R, Wassal SR. Docosahexaenoic acid affects cell signaling by altering lipid rafts. Reprod Nutr Dev. 2005;45(5):559–579.

45. Watson JE, Kim JS, Das A. Emerging class of omega-3 fatty acid endocannabinoids and their derivatives. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat. 2019; 143:106337.

46. Calder PC. n-3 fatty acids, inflammation, and immunity - Relevance to postsurgical and critically ill patients. Lipids. 2004;39(12):1147–1161.

47. Reiffel JA, McDonald A. Antiarrhythmic Effects of Omega-3 Fatty Acids. Am J Cardiol. 2006;98(4A):50i–60i.

48. Landmark K, Alm CS. Alpha-linolenic acid, cardiovascular disease and sudden death. Tidsskr Nor Laegeforen. 2006;126(21):2792–2794.

49. Honoré E, Barhanin J, Attali B, Lesage F, Lazdunski M. External blockade of the major cardiac delayed-rectifier K+ channel (Kv1.5) by polyunsaturated fatty acids. Proc Natl Acad Sci US A. 1994;91(5):1937–1941.

50. Shahidi F, Ambigaipalan P. Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and their health benefits. Annu Rev Food Sci Technol. 2018; 9:345–81.

51. Fahy E, Subramaniam S, Murphy RC, Nishijima M, Raetz CRH, Shimizu T, et al. Update of the LIPID MAPS comprehensive classification system for lipids. J Lipid Res. 2009;50: S9-14.

52. Subramaniam S, Fahy E, Gupta S, Sud M, Byrnes RW, Cotter D, et al. Bioinformatics and systems biology of the lipidome. Chem Rev. 2011;111(10):6452–6490.

53. Mashaghi S, Jadidi T, Koenderink G, Mashaghi A. Lipid nanotechnology. Int J Mol Sci. 2013;14(2):4242–4282.

54. Radzicka A, Wolfenden R. A proficient enzyme. Science (80). 1995;267(5194):90–3.

55. Lodish H, Berk A, SL Z. Molecular cell biology 5th Ed. W. H. Freeman. 2000; 1150.

56. Samar S, Nusrat A. Regulation of epithelial apical junctional complex by Rho family GTPases. Front Biosci. 2009;14(3):1129–42.

57. Valsta LM, Tapanainen H, Männistö S. Meat fats in nutrition. Meat Sci. 2005;70(3):525–30.

58. Nelson DL, Cox MM. Lehninger principles of biochemistry 7th. In: WH Freeman and Company. 2017; 2:721-1722.

59. De Vizcarro DO, de Padilla FC, Eduardo Martín G. Fatty acid composition of beef, pork, and poultry fresh cuts, and some of their processed products. Arch Latinoam Nutr. 1998;48(4):354–8.

60. Pestana JM, Costa ASH, Alfaia CM, Costa P, Martins SV., Alves SP, et al. Lipid composition and nutritional quality of intramuscular fat in Charneca-PDO beef. Eur Food Res Technol. 2012; 234:187–196.

61. Benedict RC. Determination of nitrogen and protein content of meat and meat products. J Assoc Off Anal Chem. 1987;70(1):69–74.

62. Deb A. Fundamentals of biochemistry, 7th Edition 7th Edition. 2001;951.

63. Becker W, Lyhne N, Pedersen AN, Aro A, Fogelholm M, Phórsdottir P, et al. Nordic nutrition recommendations 2004 - integrating nutrition and physical activity. Food Nutr Res. 2004;48(4):178–87.
64. Myers SA, Nield A, Myers M. Zinc transporters, mechanisms of action and therapeutic utility: Implications for type 2 diabetes mellitus. J Nutr Metab. 2012; 13.

65. Clemens S, Deinlein U, Ahmadi H, Höreth S, Uraguchi S. Nicotianamine is a major player in plant Zn homeostasis. BioMetals. 2013; 26:623–632.

66. Trampczynska A, Küpper H, Meyer-Klaucke W, Schmidt H, Clemens S. Nicotianamine forms complexes with Zn(ii) in vivo. Metallomics. 2010;2(1):57–66.

67. Whelton PK, He J, Cutler JA, Brancati FL, Appel LJ, Follmann D, MK. Effects of oral potassium on blood pressure. JAMA. 1997;277(20):1624–32.

68. Dyer AR, Elliott P, Shipley M, Stamler R, Stamler J. Body mass index and associations of sodium and potassium with blood pressure in INTERSALT. Hypertension. 1994;23(6):729–36.

69. Soetan KO, Olaiya CO, Oyewole OE. The importance of mineral elements for humans, domestic animals and plants: A review. African J Food Sci. 2010;4(5):200–22.

70. E Silva MEMP, Paton I, Trigo M, Von Atzingen MCBC, Kira CS, Inomata EI, et al. Mineral and vitamin content of beef, chicken, and turkey hydrolysates mineral and vitamin content of protein hydrolysates. Quim Nova. 2008;31(1):41–3.

71. Belhaj K, Mansouri F, Ben Moumen A, Sindic M, Fauconnier ML, Boukharta M, et al. Proximate composition, amino acid profile, and mineral content of four sheep meats reared extensively in Morocco: A comparative study. Sci World J. 2021; 11.

72. Yin P, Wang Y, Yang L, Sui J, Liu Y. Hypoglycemic effects in alloxan-induced diabetic rats of the phenolic extract from mongolian oak cups enriched in ellagic acid, kaempferol and their derivatives. Molecules. 2018;23:1046.

73. Marmouzi I, Karym EM, Saidi N, Meddah B, Kharbach M, Masrar A, Bouabdellah M, Chabraoui L, Alali KE, Cherrah Y, Faouzi MEA. In Vitro and In Vivo Antioxidant and Anti-Hyperglycemic Activities of Moroccan Oat Cultivars. Antioxidants. 2017;6:102.

74. Chen WP, Chi TC, Chuang LM, Su MJ. Resveratrol enhances insulin secretion by blocking K$_{ATP}$ and K$_V$ channels of beta cells. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 2007;568(1-3):269-277.