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Sacha inchi (*Plukenetia volubilis* L.) oil inclusion in slow-growing broiler diets: impacts on performance, serum biochemistry, carcass, meat quality and fatty acid profile

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ABSTRACT

1. The objective of this trial was to examine the effect of Sacha inchi oil (SIO), extracted from local nut sources common to the Amazon region, in broiler diets. The oil was substituted for soybean oil (SBO) within diets of slow-growing broilers and the effects on growth performance, carcass traits, serum biochemistry, objective meat quality and meat fatty acid profile were assessed.

2. A total of 400, mixed sex, 56 d old, crossbred Ho × Luong Phuong broilers were randomly allocated to one of four experimental diets: a control diet (CON) containing 4.5% SBO and three experimental diets with SIO at substitution levels of 33.3% (SI1), 66.7% (SI2) and 100% (SI3) instead of SBO for a feeding period of 56 days. Each diet was replicated in four replicated pens of 25 birds, comprising two pens of males and two pens of females.

3. Growth variables were recorded every two weeks. Blood samples were collected *via* puncture of the brachial vein one day prior to the completion of the experiment to determine serum biochemical indices. At the end of the study, four birds per pen were humanely slaughtered to evaluate carcass traits and breast samples were collected for assessments of meat technological quality and fatty acid profile.

4. The inclusion of SIO increased the proportion of *n*-3 PUFA, lowered the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio and cholesterol content in breast muscle and reduced serum triglyceride and low-density lipoprotein levels, without detrimental effects on growth, carcass traits or meat quality variables.

5. The results demonstrated that SIO is a promising alternative lipid source for improving the nutritional value of poultry meat without adversely affecting productive performance or carcass characteristics.

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Performance; oil; breast muscle; fatty acids

Introduction

Poultry production is the second-largest contributor to total meat production in Vietnam after pig production, with slow-growing indigenous chicken breeds comprising over 80% of the national flock (Birhanu et al. 2021). Chicken and its products are a dietary staple, consumed by 94.7% of households (Phuong et al. 2014). In recent years, increases in household incomes and population growth have increased the demand for local broiler meat (Dai et al. 2022). Vietnamese consumers show a strong preference for slow-growing indigenous chickens and their crossbreeds (*e.g.*, Ho × Luong Phuong) because these birds produce meat with a firmer texture, more pronounced flavour and lower fat content compared with fast-growing, commercial broilers. These characteristics align closely with traditional Vietnamese culinary expectations, particularly for dishes that emphasise firm, flavourful meat, such as boiled chicken commonly served during festive occasions. Demand is increasing for nutritionally superior chicken, particularly those which are higher in omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (*n*-3 PUFA) and lower in cholesterol (Oanh et al. 2022). Consequently, slow-growing local broilers command a market price approximately four times higher than that of fast-growing, commercial breeds (Birhanu et al. 2021).

Chicken meat is typically considered low in *n*-3 PUFA, but levels can be enhanced through dietary modification (Kanakri et al. 2017). Additionally, supplementing broilers can increase deposition of *n*-3 PUFA in meat and derived products (Alagawany et al. 2019, 2022). Higher dietary consumption of *n*-3 PUFA has been linked to reduced risk of various human health conditions, including cardiovascular disorders (Alagawany et al. 2019; Nguyen et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2025). Primary sources of *n*-3 PUFA comprise fish, fish oil, seafood, marine algae and certain plant-based oils (*e.g.*, linseed, chia seed and rapeseed), which can be incorporated into animal feed to enrich meat and other edible products with *n*-3 PUFA (Nguyen et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2025). However, while fish and seafood oils are rich sources of *n*-3 PUFA, their inclusion in poultry diets may adversely impact sensory characteristics, such as a fishy odour and taste, reducing consumer acceptability (Alagawany et al. 2019; Zamora et al. 2025). Therefore, there are recommendations using plant-based oils rich in PUFA as alternatives to fish oil in poultry nutrition (Oanh et al. 2022).

Sacha inchi (*Plukenetia volubilis* L.), known as the Inca nut or Sacha peanut, is a species indigenous to the Peruvian Amazon. It is taxonomically classified within

the Euphorbia-ceae family, which comprises approximately 300 genera and 7500 species (Cárdenas et al. 2021). It is cultivated at elevations between 200 and 2000 m above sea level, with its growth largely influenced by the geoclimatic conditions of these environments (Mai et al. 2020). It is grown in Asian countries such as Thailand, China and Vietnam, as well as throughout Central and South America, where it serves as both a nutritional resource and as a driver of economic development (Cárdenas et al. 2021; Mai et al. 2020). Its fruit is star-shaped, measuring 2–4 cm in diameter, and is characterised by an expanded central region with compressed, star-like lobes. As the nut matures, its colour transitions from green to blackish-brown and the extracted oil correspondingly exhibits a darker colouration (Mai et al. 2020).

In Vietnam, Sacha inchi is recognised as a medical plant by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MARD 2019). Due to its high nutritional value, it is considered as a ‘super herbal plant’ in Vietnam (Tien et al. 2019). In addition to its high PUFA content (78.0–84.2%), Sacha inchi seeds are a rich source of essential amino acids, high-quality proteins, phytosterols, tocopherols, phenolic compounds and minerals (Goyal et al. 2022; Lu et al. 2025; Torres Sánchez et al. 2023). Furthermore, extracted sachal inchi oil (SIO) is rich in bioactive compounds including PUFA, tocopherols and sterols (Lu et al. 2025; Mai et al. 2020). It contains a high *n*-3 PUFA proportion especially alpha-linolenic acid (ALA, C18:3n-3), followed by linoleic acid (LA, C18:2n-6) (Oanh et al. 2022; Zamora et al. 2025). Consequently, the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio of SIO, ranging from 0.81 to 1.12 (Goyal et al. 2022), is close to the optimal 1:1 ratio recommended for human health (D’angelo et al. 2020). Consumption of SIO has been associated with multiple benefits in both humans and animals. In human, consuming SIO has been linked to reduced total serum cholesterol, decreased low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, lowered blood pressure (Silalahi 2022) and significant improvements in cognitive functions related to attention and memory (Cárdenas et al. 2021).

In broiler production, SIO supplementation has shown promising effects on broiler performance. Nájera et al. (2018) demonstrated that feed conversion ratio (FCR) and average daily gain (ADG) were improved in broilers fed a diet containing 6% SIO for 49 d compared to those fed the control diet without SIO. Similarly, Lucas et al. (2011) reported that adding 5% SIO to broiler diets improved immune function and growth performance. In a recent study, dietary replacement of 2% soybean oil (SBO) with SIO combined with 1% herbal plant powder decreased cholesterol concentration and increased the *n*-3 PUFA content in slow-growing broilers (Oanh et al. 2022). González Sepúlveda et al. (2024) demonstrated that including up to 9% SIO in the diet of Ross 308 broilers did not cause adverse influences on their ADG and FCR, compared to equivalent levels of palm and chicken oil. However, research evaluating the impacts of SIO supplementation and its replacement levels on broiler growth performance, meat quality and fatty acid (FA) level remains limited. Therefore, the objective of the present study was to evaluate the impacts of dietary SIO inclusion on growth performance, FCR, blood parameters, carcass characteristics, meat quality and FA profile in low-growing broilers.

Materials and methods

Ethical statement

This experiment was carried out from October 2023 to February 2024 at the research station of the Faculty of Animal Science, the Vietnam National University of Agriculture (VNUA), Hanoi, Vietnam. The experimental protocols and methodology were approved by the VNUA Animal Ethics Committees (Approval No. VNUA-2023/03).

Animals, experimental design and diets

A total of 400 crossbred Ho × Luong Phuong (H × LP) broilers (1751 ± 15.8 g live weight, 56 days old, mixed sex) were used in this study. These birds were selected from 600, one-day-old chicks, which were raised under uniform feeding conditions at the same experimental station until 56 d of age. The birds were fitted with individually numbered plastic leg rings and randomly allocated into four treatment groups. Each treatment group comprised 100 birds (50 males and 50 females) housed in four replicates (3 × 4 m) each containing 25 birds as two separate sex pens. Each pen was fitted with two automatic drinkers and two plastic feeders. Each pens served as an experimental unit. The ambient temperature in the animal house ranged from 20°C to 28°C throughout the experiment. All birds were vaccinated against Newcastle, Gumboro and Marek’s diseases prior to the experiment.

The four isonitrogenous and isocaloric experimental diets included CON (a basal diet containing 4.5% SBO (as-fed basis), SI1 (a basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% SIO), SI2 (a basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO) and SI3 (a basal diet containing 4.5% SIO). All diets were formulated in accordance with the nutrient ranges recommended in the Cobb 500 Lineage Handbook (Cobb-Vantress 2018). Final formulations were adjusted to meet local nutritional recommendations for slow-growing broiler strains. The diet ingredients (as-fed basis) are presented in Table 1.

All solid components were ground into powder through a 2 mm screen and thoroughly mixed to form a feed mash, which was blended daily with the treatment oils. The designated feed mixtures were divided into two equal portions and provided at 07:30 and 13:30 each day during the trial. The feeding period lasted for 56 d, with a one-week adaptation period. The animals had *ad libitum* access to feed and water throughout the trial, with daily feed adjustments based on residual feed weight.

Sampling and measurements

The diet samples were collected separately on d 1, 28 and 56 of the experiment and stored at –20°C until analysis feed composition and FA profile. After the trial finished, the three timepoint samples were pooled and ground through a 1 mm screen. The dietary composition including dry matter, crude protein, ash, crude fibre and ether extract was analysed following the methods of AOAC (1990). Currently, no metabolisable energy (ME) value for SIO has been officially published in the poultry nutrition literature, so determining the ME of SIO was beyond the scope of the present study. However, the ME values of commonly used vegetable oils (e.g., canola, soybean, sunflower, corn and palm oils) fall within a narrow range of 36.7–37.0 MJ/kg (Shoib et al. 2023). Therefore, an average ME was adopted based on

Table 1. Ingredients and nutrient composition of experimental diets.

Ingredients (% as-fed basis)	CON	SI1	SI2	SI3
Maize	50	50	50	50
Rice bran	25	25	25	25
Soybean meal	15	15	15	15
Fish meal	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Limestone	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4
L-lysine HCl 98.5%	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
DL-methionine 98%	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Premix ¹	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Salt	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Soybean oil (SBO)	4.5	3.0	1.5	0
Sacha inchi oil (SIO)	0	1.5	3.0	4.5
Total	100	100	100	100
<i>Nutritional compositions (% DM)</i>				
Dry matter	88.9	89.1	89.1	89.0
Crude protein	16.9	16.8	16.7	16.7
Ash	6.74	6.75	6.86	6.96
Crude fibre	3.90	3.90	3.92	3.91
Ether extract	9.50	9.50	9.50	9.50
Metabolisable energy ² (MJ/kg)	13.50	13.50	13.50	13.50

Note: CON: diet containing 4.5% SBO, SI1: diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% SIO, SI2: diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: diet containing 4.5% SIO. ¹Premix in 1 kg: 250–300 mg CuSO₄; 250–300 mg ZnSO₄; 150–200 mg MnSO₄ and FeSO₄; 150–200 mg biotin; 8 mg enzyme; 100 g coarse sand; 2% carrier for 1 kg; 10% moisture. ²Metabolisable energy: estimated values.

these oils (approximately 36.82 MJ/kg) as an estimate for SIO when calculating the dietary values. The ME of the diets was estimated using the EC 152/2009 annex VII formulae of European Union (2009). Diet composition is displayed in Table 1.

Growth performance

To measure live body weight (LBW), the birds were weighed individually in the morning before feeding at the beginning, fortnightly and the end of the experiment using an electronic scale (maximum capacity 5 kg; accuracy 0.01 g; Vibra Shinko DJ5000TW, Japan) to determine ADG for each period and overall. The amount of feed provided and left-over was weighed at the end of each day to determine daily feed intake (FI) and calculate FCR for each period and for the entire experiment.

Blood serum analysis

One day before the end of the experiment, 32 broiler chickens (eight birds per treatment group, two birds per pen) were randomly selected for the blood collection *via* puncture of the brachial vein using sterile needles and syringes. The samples were collected separately in 2 ml serum tubes. The serum tubes were then centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 10 min to obtain purified serum. The purified serum was analysed using the Cobas 8000 modular analyser series (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland) for the following biochemical parameters; aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), total bilirubin, total proteins, albumin, urea, creatinine, triglycerides, total cholesterol (TCH), high-density lipoprotein (HDL) and low-density lipoprotein (LDL).

Carcass measurements

Upon completion of the trial, after 8 h of feed deprivation, 64 birds (16 birds per treatment) were randomly selected, four from each pen, for slaughter. Slaughtering was performed according to the Vietnamese standard

procedures (Doan et al. 2011). Carcass and cut-up traits were recorded and weighed including live body, carcass, skin-on breast muscle, skin-on and bone-in thigh, heart, gizzard, liver, spleen, lung, abdominal fat and shank weight. Carcass and cut yield were calculated relative to the LBW prior to slaughter. Thigh meat (skinless, deboned and with visible fat removed) and skinless breast meat samples were collected from the carcasses immediately *post-mortem*. For each breast muscle, two similar subsamples were taken. One was stored at 4°C for evaluating technological quality traits after 24 hours *post-mortem*. And the other was kept at –80°C for later analysis of chemical composition and FA profile.

Meat quality

The pH of raw breast muscles at 15 min (pH15) and 24 h (pH24) was determined using a portable pH meter (pH-STAR, Matthäus, Germany) calibrated with standard buffer solutions of pH 4.0 and 7.0 before each measurement. The colorimetric parameters of raw breast muscle surface including lightness (L*), redness (a*) and yellowness (b*) were recorded at 24 h *post-mortem* using a portable colorimeter (CR-410, Konica Minolta, Osaka, Japan; illuminant D65) according to the method outlined by Semjon et al. (2020). Drip and cooking losses from breast samples at 24 h *post-mortem* were measured following the method of Oanh et al. (2022). Six cylinder subsamples (1.27 cm in diameter) were collected from the centre of each breast sample, aligned longitudinally with the muscle fibres, for shear force (SF) evaluation. A Warner-Bratzler blade mounted on a Mecmesin basic force gauge 500N (BFG 500N) (PPT Group UK Ltd, West Sussex, UK) was used and the average SF values (expressed as N) were obtained from six measurements on each breast sample.

Nutritional composition, fatty acid profile and cholesterol content of breast muscle

Prior to analysis, frozen breast subsamples were thawed at 4°C for 8 h. The nutrient composition of breast muscle was

analysed for dry matter, crude protein, ether extract, ash and crude fibre (AOAC 1990). Cholesterol concentration was determined using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) following the procedure outlined by Derewiaka and Obiedziński (2010). A modified method of Bligh and Dyer (1959) were used to solvent-extract total lipids in 1 g of pooled feed and breast muscle, as described in detail by Nguyen et al. (2017a) and Nguyen et al. (2017b). Total lipids were extracted overnight in a single-phase solution of CH₂Cl₂:MeOH:Milli-Q H₂O (1:2:0.8 v/v), followed by phase separation with CH₂Cl₂:saline Milli-Q H₂O (1:1 v/v). The lipids were recovered by rotary evaporation at 40°C and aliquots were subsequently methylated to fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) by heating with dichloromethane (DCM), methanol and hydrochloric acid. This was extracted into an organic solvent, washed with water and centrifuged to separate phases. The organic layer was collected through repeated extractions, concentrated under a nitrogen gas stream and dissolved in DCM containing 0.1 ml of an internal standard (19:0 FAME). The FAME profiles were analysed using an Agilent 6890 plus gas chromatography system (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, U.S.A.) equipped with a flame ionised detector and a SP®-2560 capillary column. Fatty acid proportions were expressed as percentages of the total peak area:

$$\text{FA}(\%) = (\text{area of individual FA} / \text{total FA area}) \times 100$$

Individual FA that were not detected in all samples were not reported.

Statistical analysis

Experimental data were analysed using the PROC MIXED procedure of the statistical analysis system software (SAS, v 9.4; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, U.S.A.). The statistical model

included dietary treatments as fixed effects and pens and birds as random effects. For feed data, the pen was considered the experimental unit. For live weight, serum biochemical properties, carcass traits, meat quality, chemical composition and fatty acid composition, the individual animal considered the experimental unit. Multiple comparisons of means was performed using Tukey's adjustment. Orthogonal polynomial contrasts were applied to evaluate linear and quadratic effects of increasing dietary SIO levels. Results were reported as least squared means with their corresponding standard errors of the mean (SEM). Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$, with trends indicated when $0.05 < P < 0.10$.

Results

Fat profiles

The FA profile of the supplemental oil sources and experimental diets are shown in Table 2. The proportion of *n*-3 PUFA in SIO was approximately 18-fold higher than that in SBO. In contrast, the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio in SIO was approximately 14-fold lower than that in SBO. Linoleic acid (LA) was the predominant PUFA in SBO, whereas both LA and alpha-linolenic acid (ALA) were the predominant PUFA in SIO. Among the experimental diets, the *n*-3 PUFA percentage of the CON diet was 2.02%, which was approximately 4-, 6- and 9-fold lower than that in the SI1 (7.63%), SI2 (12.85%) and SI3 (17.53%) diets, respectively. Conversely, the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio in CON (17.89) was approximately four-, six- and eight-fold higher than that in SI1 (4.88), SI2 (3.08) and SI3 (2.32), respectively. The UFA/SFA ratio increased from 2.91 in CON to 5.47 in SI3, reflecting a more favourable lipid profile in diets with higher SIO inclusion.

Table 2. Fatty acid proportions of soybean oil, Sacha inchi oil and experimental diets, expressed as % of total.

Fatty acids	SBO	SIO	CON	SI1	SI2	SI3
Saturated fatty acids (SFA)	33.00	8.83	25.59	22.82	18.53	15.46
Butanoic acid (C4:0)	nd	nd	nd	0.03	nd	nd
Caproic acid (C6:0)	nd	nd	nd	0.03	nd	0.03
Octanoic acid (C8:0)	nd	nd	nd	0.05	nd	0.04
Capric acid (C10:0)	nd	nd	nd	0.04	nd	0.03
Lauric acid (C12:0)	0.08	nd	0.09	0.13	0.08	0.11
Myristic acid (C14:0)	0.54	0.02	0.46	0.53	0.32	0.30
Pentadecanoic acid (C15:0)	0.03	nd	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	27.00	5.36	19.88	16.65	13.11	10.80
Margaric acid (C17:0)	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.11
Stearic acid (C18:0)	4.27	2.81	3.56	3.55	3.17	3.16
Arachidic acid (C20:0)	0.54	nd	0.72	0.85	0.94	nd
Behenic acid (C22:0)	0.26	0.33	0.36	0.39	0.39	0.37
Lignoceric acid (C24:0)	0.12	0.19	0.33	0.36	0.38	0.42
Unsaturated fatty acids (UFA)	67.00	91.17	74.41	77.17	81.47	84.54
Monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA)	34.99	13.24	36.35	32.30	28.97	26.35
Palmitoleic acid (C16:1)	nd	0.06	0.25	0.27	0.24	0.24
Oleic acid (C18:1n-9)	34.82	12.81	35.82	31.69	28.35	25.64
Eicosenoic acid (C20:1)	0.17	0.36	0.27	0.34	0.39	0.44
Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA)	32.01	77.94	38.06	44.88	52.50	58.19
Linoleic acid (C18:2n-6, LA)	29.92	39.34	36.01	37.22	39.61	40.63
Alpha linolenic acid (C18:3n-3, ALA)	2.05	38.54	1.69	7.26	12.51	17.24
Eicosadienoic acid (C20:2n-6)	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.04
Eicosatrienoic acid (C20:3n-6)	nd	nd	0.02	nd	nd	nd
Eicosapentaenoic acid (C20:5n-3, EPA)	0.02	nd	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.08
Docosahexaenoic acid (C22:6n-3, DHA)	nd	nd	0.24	0.25	0.25	0.21
<i>n</i> -3 PUFA	2.07	38.54	2.02	7.63	12.85	17.53
<i>n</i> -6 PUFA	29.94	39.39	36.05	37.25	39.65	40.66
<i>n</i> -9 PUFA	34.82	12.81	35.82	31.69	28.35	25.68
<i>n</i> -6/ <i>n</i> -3 PUFA	14.46	1.02	17.89	4.88	3.08	2.32
UFA/SFA	2.03	10.33	2.91	3.38	4.40	5.47

Growth performance

The experimental broilers remained in good health and showed no visible signs of disease throughout the 56 d trial period. Bird growth performance was shown in Table 3. There were no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) in LBW and ADG among the dietary treatments at any of the time points (d 1, 14, 28, 42 and 56) and throughout the experimental period. Broiler FI was significantly influenced by dietary treatment only during the initial two weeks, where those fed the CON diet had higher FI (101.4 g/bird/d) compared to the other treatments (linear, $p = 0.030$). However, no differences in FI were observed during later growth phases (d 15–28, 29–42 and 43–56) or over the entire period (d 1–56; $p > 0.05$). There was a similarity in FCR among treatments across all growth phases, except for the 15–28 d period, during which an increased trend for FCR with inclusions of 3.0% and 4.5% SIO was observed (linear, $p = 0.051$). Overall, replacement of SBO with SIO at different inclusion levels had a minimal impact on growth performance parameters in broiler chickens over the 56-day experimental period.

Dietary supplementation with SIO significantly influenced some serum biochemical parameters of the slow-growing broilers (Table 4). In particular, a significant reduction was observed in ALT (total and linear, $p < 0.01$), where birds fed SI2 and SI3 diets had lower levels compared to the CON diet. Serum creatinine and triglyceride levels were significantly reduced in SIO containing diets compared to the control diet ($p < 0.05$). Additionally, a significant decrease in LDL was observed (total and linear, $p < 0.05$) with increasing SIO levels. These results suggested that dietary SIO positively modulated lipid metabolism markers, particularly by lowering ALT, creatinine, triglyceride and LDL concentrations in broiler chickens. No significant effects were found for AST, total protein, albumin, urea, total cholesterol and HDL ($p > 0.05$).

Carcass, meat, organs and tissues

Carcass traits and organ yields are presented in Table 5. No significant effects ($p > 0.05$) were observed among treatments for LBW, carcass weight or the weights of

Table 3. Production performance of broilers fed different oil supplemented diets.

Item	Treatment				P-value		
	CON	SI1	SI2	SEM	T	L	Q
Day 1	1746	1749	1756	83.5	0.989	0.781	0.882
Day 14	2093	2094	2090	138.1	0.996	0.830	0.903
Day 28	2417	2405	2382	164.3	0.905	0.548	0.740
Day 42	2730	2717	2681	196.8	0.856	0.631	0.589
Day 56	2935	2929	2899	198.4	0.923	0.734	0.685
Days 1–14	24.8	24.6	23.9	4.15	0.940	0.538	0.987
Days 15–28	23.2	22.3	20.8	2.00	0.421	0.302	0.273
Days 29–42	22.4	22.3	21.4	2.61	0.805	0.922	0.476
Days 43–56	14.7	15.1	15.6	1.60	0.928	0.645	0.652
Days 1–56	21.3	21.1	20.4	2.09	0.758	0.535	0.542
Days 1–14	101.4 ^a	97.3 ^b	89.7 ^c	7.15	0.105	0.030	0.481
Days 15–28	104.8	107.9	107.9	8.91	0.635	0.238	0.911
Days 29–42	127.7	123.4	119.8	13.27	0.884	0.874	0.484
Days 43–56	108.0	115.8	115.2	10.74	0.611	0.258	0.665
Days 1–56	110.5	111.1	108.1	7.67	0.638	0.908	0.478
Days 1–14	4.3	4.1	4.0	0.42	0.407	0.193	0.292
Days 15–28	4.5	4.8	5.2	0.24	0.192	0.051	0.482
Days 29–42	5.7	5.6	5.6	0.22	0.949	0.731	0.705
Days 43–56	7.4	7.6	7.6	0.41	0.927	0.544	0.955
Days 1–56	5.5	5.5	5.6	0.16	0.767	0.314	0.993

Note: CON: basal diet containing 4.5% soybean oil (SBO), SI1: basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% Sacha inchi oil (SIO), SI2: basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: basal diet containing 4.5% SIO; SEM: Standard error of the mean; T: total effect; L: linear; Q: Quadratic. Values with different letters in the same row demonstrate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. Serum parameters of slow-growing broilers fed supplemented diets.

Item	Treatment				P-value			
	CON	SI1	SI2	SI3	SEM	T	L	Q
AST (U/L)	221.8	216.1	216.7	227.0	6.78	0.379	0.466	0.125
ALT (U/L)	22.7 ^a	16.7 ^{ab}	13.3 ^b	13.7 ^b	1.61	0.008	0.002	0.074
Total bilirubin (µmol/L)	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.09	0.177	0.960	0.037
Total protein (g/L)	48.2	43.8	48.2	47.9	2.07	0.093	0.536	0.136
Albumin (g/L)	15.2	14.5	14.1	16.1	1.16	0.509	0.636	0.191
Urea (mmol/L)	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.05	0.683	0.565	0.961
Creatinine µmol/L	31.2 ^a	26.5 ^b	26.4 ^b	26.8 ^b	0.98	0.021	0.015	0.029
Triglyceride (mmol/L)	7.0 ^a	3.0 ^b	3.9 ^b	3.8 ^b	0.75	0.004	0.008	0.007
TCH (mmol/L)	3.1	2.8	2.8	2.7	0.19	0.311	0.085	0.625
HDL (mmol/L)	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.15	0.649	0.306	0.519
LDL (mmol/L)	1.6 ^a	1.2 ^b	1.1 ^b	1.1 ^b	0.17	0.022	0.009	0.079

Note: $n = 8$; CON: basal diet containing 4.5% soybean oil (SBO), SI1: basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% Sacha inchi oil (SIO), SI2: basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: basal diet containing 4.5% SIO. AST: Aspartate aminotransferase, ALT: Alanine aminotransferase, TCH: total cholesterol, HDL: high-density lipoprotein, LDL: low-density lipoprotein, SEM: Standard error of the mean, T: total effect, L: linear, Q: Quadratic. Values with different letters in the same row demonstrate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$).

thigh and breast. The weights of head, shank and internal organs including gizzard, heart, gall bladder, liver, spleen, lung and abdominal fat, as well as meat cuts and organ weights did not differ significantly among treatments ($p > 0.05$). Carcass yield remained stable (73.9–74.4%) and the proportions of thigh, breast and most edible cuts showed minimal variation. Overall, the inclusion of SIO in broiler diets did not significantly affect carcass traits.

Meat quality

The physical and chemical properties of broiler breast muscle are presented in Table 6. Dietary SIO had limited impact on most meat quality parameters, with the exception of cholesterol content and redness. Cholesterol in the breast muscle was significantly reduced in all SIO-supplemented groups compared to the control (total and linear, $p < 0.01$) and trend towards a quadratic response was observed ($p = 0.071$). This indicated that cholesterol reduction may not have been dose-dependent.

No significant differences were observed among treatments for initial (15 min) or ultimate (24 h) pH, dry matter, crude protein, ash and lipid contents of the meat ($p > 0.05$). The inclusion of SIO did not result in any substantial changes ($p > 0.05$) in shear force, drip or cooking losses. In terms of colorimetric parameters, lightness (L^*) and yellowness (b^*) of the breast muscle were unaffected by dietary treatment ($p > 0.05$). However, redness (a^*) increased with SIO inclusion (total and linear, $p < 0.05$), which suggested enhanced colour intensity.

These results demonstrated that feeding SIO can beneficially modulate the cholesterol content and colour intensity of broiler meat without adversely affecting its basic objective quality properties.

Fatty acid composition of breast muscle

Dietary inclusion of SIO significantly affected the FA proportion of breast muscle in slow-growing broilers (Table 7). Total SFA percentage decreased with increasing SIO levels (total and linear, $p < 0.01$), dropping from 48.64% in the CON to 39.96% in the SI3 group. This reduction was primarily driven by a decline in palmitic ($p < 0.05$) and stearic acid (total and quadratic, $p < 0.01$), which were the dominant SFA. In contrast, the total UFA proportion increased significantly (total and linear, $p \leq 0.001$), reaching 60.04% in samples from the SI3 group, largely due to elevated levels of PUFA ($p < 0.01$).

Both LA and ALA showed marked increases with SIO inclusion (total and linear, $p \leq 0.001$), with ALA rising from 0.30% in CON to 3.75% in SI3. Similarly, the levels of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) were significantly elevated (total and linear, $p \leq 0.01$) in samples from birds receiving SIO. As a result, the $n-3$ PUFA percentage substantially increased from 0.66% in the CON broiler meat to 4.39% for SI3 while the $n-6/n-3$ PUFA ratio dropped significantly from 14.90 in CON to 4.13 in SI3 ($p < 0.01$). Conversely, there was a significant increase in the UFA/SFA ratio when the level of SIO increased in the diets (total and linear, $p \leq 0.001$).

Discussion

The results showed that feeding broilers with SIO-containing diets did not substantially impact broiler growth performance (LBW, ADG, FI or FCR) throughout the 56 d experimental period. The findings aligned with Lopes

Table 5. Carcass variables of slow-growing broilers fed diets supplemented with various levels of Sacha inchi oil.

	Treatment					P-value		
	CON	SI1	SI2	SI3	SEM	T	L	Q
<i>Weight (g)</i>								
Live body	2981	3013	2996	3040	210.6	0.954	0.646	0.936
Carcass	2203	2241	2226	2255	173.9	0.955	0.647	0.950
Thigh	499.6	525.2	520.9	523.4	51.84	0.733	0.416	0.531
Breast	334.0	319.3	315.1	321.2	21.02	0.861	0.564	0.529
Head	68.7	76.1	86.9	72.7	13.88	0.310	0.471	0.134
Gizzard	57.1	61.1	58.9	59.6	2.93	0.773	0.685	0.545
Heart	16.1	16.7	15.3	15.7	2.80	0.931	0.696	0.947
Gall bladder	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.1	0.36	0.879	0.867	0.457
Liver	50.1	48.5	47.1	48.1	2.75	0.784	0.436	0.541
Spleen	6.4	6.6	5.7	5.7	0.81	0.741	0.361	0.932
Lung	15.6	17.1	16.7	15.9	1.46	0.797	0.912	0.351
Abdominal fat	50.0	44.9	40.3	37.0	10.45	0.529	0.146	0.889
Shank	121.7	128.6	126.6	124.2	16.43	0.525	0.731	0.185
<i>Yield (% of live body weight)</i>								
Carcass	73.9	74.4	74.2	74.0	0.72	0.939	0.972	0.566
Thigh	22.5	23.3	23.3	23.2	0.69	0.552	0.319	0.316
Breast	15.4	14.3	14.2	14.2	0.59	0.424	0.168	0.398
Head	3.1	3.3	3.8	3.2	0.42	0.422	0.509	0.192
Gizzard	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.8	0.29	0.935	0.685	0.774
Heart	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.08	0.906	0.747	0.885
Gall bladder	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.02	0.845	0.894	0.481
Liver	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	0.10	0.737	0.334	0.592
Spleen	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.03	0.654	0.296	0.830
Lung	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.05	0.854	0.941	0.403
Abdominal fat	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.7	0.57	0.463	0.120	0.862
Shank	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.4	0.35	0.538	0.866	0.152

Note: $N = 16$; CON: basal diet containing 4.5% soybean oil (SBO), SI1: basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% Sacha inchi oil (SIO); SI2: basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: basal diet containing 4.5% SIO.

Table 6. Objective quality of the breast muscle of broilers fed diets supplemented with various levels of Sacha inchi oil.

Item	CON	Treatment			SEM	T	P-value	
		SI1	SI2	SI3			L	Q
<i>Chemical property</i>								
pH at 15 min	5.7	5.6	5.9	5.9	0.13	0.414	0.140	0.765
pH at 24 h	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	0.03	0.303	0.308	0.162
Dry matter (%)	27.3	27.0	27.6	27.2	0.27	0.489	0.827	0.769
Crude protein (%)	89.9	89.9	88.7	90.6	0.72	0.364	0.788	0.226
Lipid (%)	4.9	4.3	4.1	4.3	0.61	0.205	0.108	0.154
Ash (%)	4.0	4.2	4.1	4.2	0.19	0.792	0.465	0.757
Cholesterol (mg/100 g fresh sample)	486.5 ^a	438.7 ^b	436.8 ^b	420.5 ^b	7.70	0.001	0.001	0.071
<i>Physical property</i>								
Drip loss (%)	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.2	0.35	0.916	0.743	0.825
Cooking loss (%)	12.2	13.4	13.9	13.2	0.77	0.287	0.214	0.139
Shear force (N)	17.9	17.3	16.9	16.5	1.22	0.860	0.398	0.940
<i>Colorimetric parameter</i>								
L*	61.5	60.4	60.1	60.5	0.69	0.520	0.312	0.275
a*	12.1 ^b	12.7 ^{ab}	13.7 ^a	13.9 ^a	0.51	0.049	0.007	0.706
b*	13.1	13.2	13.0	14.2	0.53	0.336	0.183	0.315

Note: N = 16; CON: basal diet containing 4.5% soybean oil (SBO), SI1: basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% Sacha inchi oil (SIO), SI2: basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: basal diet containing 4.5% SIO; SEM: Standard error of the mean, T: total effect, L: linear, Q: quadratic, values with different letters in the same row demonstrate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$).

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Table 7. Fatty acid proportions in the breast muscle of slow-growing broilers fed oil supplemented diets.

Fatt acids (as % total)	CON	Treatment			SEM	T	P-value	
		SI1	SI2	SI3			L	Q
Saturated fatty acids (SFA)	48.64^a	46.33^{ab}	43.63^{bc}	39.96^c	1.067	0.002	0.001	0.537
Caproic acid (C6:0)	0.11 ^a	0.09 ^{ab}	0.08 ^{ab}	0.05 ^b	0.008	0.009	0.002	0.696
Octanoic acid (C8:0)	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.08	0.023	0.434	0.349	0.272
Capric acid (C10:0)	0.09	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.022	0.597	0.282	0.594
Lauric acid (C12:0)	0.52	0.40	0.46	0.48	0.126	0.918	0.899	0.588
Myristic acid (C14:0)	1.19 ^a	1.00 ^{ab}	1.01 ^{ab}	0.94 ^b	0.088	0.279	0.087	0.547
Pentadecanoic acid (C15:0)	0.15	0.17	0.18	0.11	0.017	0.052	0.148	0.018
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	36.1 ^a	30.1 ^b	30.9 ^b	28.2 ^b	0.668	0.001	0.001	0.038
Margaric acid (C17:0)	0.45 ^a	0.35 ^a	0.0 ^{ab}	0.34 ^{ab}	0.114	0.020	0.149	0.009
Stearic acid (C18:0)	9.32 ^b	13.5 ^a	10.2 ^b	9.13 ^b	0.518	0.001	0.125	0.001
Arachidic acid (C20:0)	0.29	0.39	0.29	0.20	0.037	0.078	0.095	0.055
Behenic acid (C22:0)	0.29 ^b	0.21 ^c	0.29 ^b	0.37 ^a	0.024	0.001	0.001	0.001
Lignoceric acid (C24:0)	nd	nd	0.05	0.03	na	na	na	na
Unsaturated fatty acids (UFA)	51.36^c	53.67^b	56.37^{ab}	60.04^a	0.359	0.001	0.001	0.538
<i>MUFA</i>								
Myristoleic acid (C14:1)	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.010	0.813	0.009	0.401
Palmitoleic acid (C16:1)	1.34 ^b	1.69 ^{ab}	1.72 ^{ab}	1.94 ^a	0.101	0.035	0.007	0.574
Trans-elaidic acid (C18:1)	0.13	0.13	0.11	0.11	0.076	0.441	0.203	0.786
Oleic acid (C18:1n-9)	38.4 ^a	37.1 ^{ab}	35.8 ^{ab}	34.5 ^b	0.379	0.045	0.007	0.991
Eicosenoic acid (C20:1)	0.37	0.41	0.44	0.39	0.011	0.255	0.341	0.101
Nervonic acid (C24:1n-9)	1.26 ^{ab}	1.65 ^a	1.05 ^{ab}	0.56 ^b	0.056	0.007	0.005	0.024
<i>PUFA</i>								
Linoleic acid (C18:2n-6, LA)	8.98 ^d	12.70 ^c	17.24 ^b	22.50 ^a	0.337	0.001	0.001	0.002
Alpha linolenic acid (C18:n-3, ALA)	0.30 ^d	1.19 ^c	2.23 ^b	3.75 ^a	0.216	0.001	0.001	0.135
Beta linolenic acid (C18:3n-6)	nd	nd	nd	0.03	na	na	na	na
Eicosadienoic acid (C20:2n-6)	0.14 ^a	0.10 ^b	0.15 ^a	0.16 ^a	0.012	0.001	0.004	0.002
Eicosatrienoic acid (C20:3n-6)	0.03 ^b	0.01 ^c	0.03 ^b	0.09 ^a	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
Eicosapentaenoic acid (C20:5n-3, EPA)	0.06 ^{ab}	0.03 ^b	0.09 ^{ab}	0.14 ^a	0.008	0.010	0.005	0.050
Docosadienoic acid (C22:2n-6)	0.08	0.04	0.12	0.07	0.017	0.338	0.716	0.897
Docosahexaenoic acid (C22:6n-3, DHA)	0.29 ^c	0.34 ^b	0.41 ^b	0.51 ^a	0.021	0.001	0.001	0.101
n-3 PUFA	0.66 ^d	1.55 ^c	2.73 ^b	4.39 ^a	0.229	0.001	0.001	0.071
n-6 PUFA	9.23 ^d	11.16 ^c	14.51 ^b	18.11 ^a	0.343	0.001	0.001	0.028
n-9 PUFA	39.75 ^a	38.85 ^{ab}	36.96 ^{ab}	35.19 ^b	0.374	0.016	0.002	0.614
n-6/n-3 PUFA	14.90 ^a	7.32 ^b	5.74 ^b	4.13 ^b	0.519	0.001	0.001	0.007
UFA/SFA	1.06 ^c	1.16 ^{bc}	1.29 ^b	1.50 ^a	0.050	0.001	0.001	0.246

Note: N = 8; CON: basal diet containing 4.5% soybean oil (SBO), SI1: basal diet containing 3.0% SBO and 1.5% Sacha inchi oil (SIO), SI2: basal diet containing 1.5% SBO and 3.0% SIO, SI3: basal diet containing 4.5% SIO; SEM, Standard error of the mean, T: total effect, L: linear, Q: quadratic, nd: not detected, na: not available; values with different letters in the same row demonstrate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$).

et al. (2013), who found that partially or fully replacing SBO with linseed oil (LSO) in the diet had no influence on LBW, ADG and FCR in broiler chickens. Similarly, Lucas et al. (2011) observed no significant effects on LBW and FCR in broilers fed 5% SIO compared to those receiving 5% conventional fat. A previous study (Oanh et al. 2022) demonstrated no differences in ADG, FI and FCR when 2% SBO was replaced with 2% SIO in H × LP broilers. Similar results were reported by Rahbari et al. (2025), who replaced

vegetable oil with salmon oil (rich in n-3 PUFA) at levels of up to 3% in Ross 308 broiler diets. The similarity in growth performance was attributed to the isonitrogenous and isocaloric levels among dietary treatments. These studies involved partial or complete oil substitutions in diets with similar metabolisable energy and crude protein levels, the two most essential nutritional factors influencing growth performance (Geng et al. 2023). Other studies have reported that ALA enriched diets were linked to improved growth

and/or FCR in certain growing periods (González Sepúlveda et al. 2024; Kanakri et al. 2017). The contradiction among these studies indicated that the impact of fat on growth performance depends on the type, profile and levels of the sources, as well as the age of the chickens (Attia et al. 2020). The broilers receiving SIO had a decreased trend for FI during the initial 14 d period, which was attributed to early palatability or adaptation issues, as previously reported for PUFA-rich oils (Schumacher et al. 2022; Selim et al. 2021). Therefore, the majority of studies suggested that dietary SIO is not deleterious to broiler growth performance.

Serum biochemical parameters serve as indicators of nutrient metabolism and, in particular, immune and antioxidant status, thereby indirectly reflecting the overall health of the bird. Among these, serum levels of AST and ALT are valuable markers of organ health and are associated with the quality of the diet (Geng et al. 2023). In the current study, the lack of differences in total protein, albumin and urea contents among diets indicated that the SIO replacement did not affect the diet quality and the protein metabolic status within the body. Additionally, low serum urea content reflected optimal protein metabolism. Increasing SIO inclusion led to a reduction in serum triglyceride and LDL levels. A decrease in serum triglycerides was reported by Zamora et al. (2025) who fed laying hens with a diet containing 3% SIO for 8 weeks, compared to those fed a negative control diet. The benefits of SIO on triglyceride and LDL may have been due to its high content of non-saponifiable components, including sterols and tocopherols (Lu et al. 2025; Selim et al. 2021). These bioactive compounds facilitate the formation of HDL transporter proteins, which subsequently enhances anabolic steroid hormone levels, resulting in reduced concentrations of LDL and triglycerides (Qassim et al. 2022).

Carcass characteristics are critical indicators in poultry production because they reflect nutrient deposition in the body and enable meat yield evaluation (Aprianto et al. 2023). Sriksa et al. (2024) concluded that key measures, such as dressing percentage, organ-to-LBW ratios and edible meat yield, provide valuable insights into nutrient utilisation, meat yield and quality and the overall health status of birds. This ensures high-quality products and optimisation of production systems. Factors influencing these carcass traits include LBW and the size of non-carcass components, such as head, shank, internal organs and abdominal fat (Bai et al. 2022). In the current study, dietary inclusion of SIO did not cause differences in any carcass characteristics. These findings agreed with previous studies (Oanh et al. 2022; Sriksa et al. (2024), who found no impact on the carcass traits when feeding slow-growing native broilers diets containing SIO and black soldier fly larvae oil, respectively. This was attributed to the similarity in BLW in the current study, as Park et al. (2021) reported that carcass characteristics were closely related to LBW at slaughter. Meat quality is a key factor influencing both nutritional and economic value of meat products (Sriksa et al. 2024). Mhlongo and Mnisi (2023) identified three indicators, including physical, biological and chemical characteristics, in determining meat quality. Together, these properties affect the overall acceptability and appeal of meat products, contributing to market demand and consumer preferences (Xie et al. 2022). Although the meat

pH at 24 h *post-mortem* (5.58 – 5.60) observed in this study was slightly lower than the normal ultimate pH range for chicken breast (5.7 and 6.1 (Beauclercq et al. 2022); they were similar among treatment groups. Substitution of dietary SBO with SIO did not negatively affect meat quality properties, which indicated that SIO inclusion did not compromise the quality of meat products. In agreement with these findings, supplementation of 2% SIO in H × LP broiler diet had no influence on quality properties but significantly reduced the cholesterol content of breast meat (Ivanova et al. 2022; Selim et al. 2021) who fed broilers with diets to compare SIO with flaxseed oil and rice bran oil, respectively. The absence of dietary effects on these characteristics was attributed to the similar muscle pH values across the treatment groups in these studies, given the established significant correlation between muscle pH and these quality traits (Beauclercq et al. 2022; Mhlongo and Mnisi 2023). Choi et al. (2023) showed that the difference in pH levels at 24 h *post-mortem* could significantly affect the lightness, shear force and cooking loss of breast meat. In addition, broilers a fed diet supplemented with SIO exhibited increased muscle redness (a*) values, which was attributed to the capacity of PUFA-rich SIO to slow myoglobin oxidation (Long et al. 2020). Thus, the presence of bioactive compounds in SIO, including tocopherols and sterols, was expected to enhance the overall meat quality (Mhlongo and Mnisi 2023).

It is accepted that FA profiles of broiler meat are influenced by the dietary profile (Aprianto et al. 2023; Oanh et al. 2022; Verge-Mèrida et al. 2022). Mirshekar et al. (2021) stated that the ALA significantly increased the total *n*-3 PUFA level in broiler meat. Based on this, many studies have been conducted to modify the FA composition of meat from the diet to produce healthier animal products for human nutrition (Alagawany et al. 2022; Choi et al. 2023; Ivanova et al. 2022). In the present study, substitution of SBO with SIO produced healthier FA profiles in breast muscle. The results showed that fully replacing SBO with SIO over 56 days increased *n*-3 PUFA proportion in breast meat approximately sevenfold, while *n*-6 PUFA proportion roughly doubled. The improvement in *n*-3 PUFA content of the H × LP broilers fed 2% SIO diets was reported in a previous study (Oanh et al. 2022). Similarly, Zamora et al. (2025) demonstrated that increasing the inclusion of SIO up to 4% in hens' diets led to a higher total *n*-3 PUFA content in eggs. When adding 3.0% flaxseed oil to male Ross 308 broiler diets for 42 d, Ivanova et al. (2022) found that levels of PUFA increased drastically in both breast and thigh meat. Such increases in *n*-3 PUFA and *n*-6 PUFA were attributed to the higher concentrations of ALA and LA in SIO compared to SBO. Mirshekar et al. (2015) suggested that the increased PUFA content in broiler meat fed plant-based oil diets resulted from the rapid and direct absorption of ALA that escaped gut biohydrogenation. Another possible explanation is that the rise in PUFA levels could stem from enhanced *de-novo* synthesis of these FA (Mirshekar et al. 2021). The current findings revealed that SIO could be successfully incorporated into broiler diets to increase health-beneficial *n*-3 PUFA and balance the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio in meat without detrimental impacts on health status, growth performance or meat quality.

Conclusions

This study demonstrated that the partial or entire replacement of SBO with SIO in slow-growing broiler diets improved the nutritional quality of breast meat. This was manifested as increasing *n*-3 PUFA levels such as ALA, EPA and DHA and lowering the *n*-6/*n*-3 PUFA ratio and cholesterol content without compromising growth performance, carcass traits and technological meat quality. Additionally, SIO inclusion modulated selected serum biochemical markers, notably reducing triglyceride and LDL levels, which indicated a positive effect on lipid metabolism and overall health status. This suggested that SIO is a promising plant-based lipid source for producing healthier poultry meat while maintaining production efficiency.

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Data availability statement

The data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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