

# 18

## UNDERSTANDING POULTRY AND GAME BIRDS

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The versatility, popularity, and relatively low cost of poultry items make them ideal for all kinds of food-service operations, from high-end restaurants to cafeterias and fast-food restaurants. Also, chicken and turkey are popular among diet-conscious people because they are lower in fat and cholesterol than other meats. Game birds, such as pheasant, are also increasing in popularity and availability because they are now raised domestically by many producers. Farm-raised game birds are similar, in many ways, to chicken, so learning techniques for cooking and handling chicken teaches you a great deal about handling these other birds as well.

Learning about poultry is, in some ways, easier than learning about meats like beef and lamb. Because chickens, turkeys, and other poultry are much smaller, they are not cut up in such detail.

However, poultry has its own cooking problems, so it is important to observe both the similarities and the differences between meat and poultry.

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### AFTER READING THIS CHAPTER, YOU SHOULD BE ABLE TO

1. Identify poultry products with respect to composition and structure, classification, and grade.
2. Explain how to handle poultry products correctly when storing, cutting, and cooking.



## IDENTIFICATION

### COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE

The flesh of poultry and game birds is muscle tissue, as is the flesh of beef, lamb, veal, pork, and game. Its composition and structure are essentially the same as those of meat.

Review the section on meat composition and structure (Chapter 16, pp. 458–459). Remember that muscle tissue is composed of

- Water (about 75 percent)
- Protein (about 20 percent)
- Fat (up to 5 percent)
- Other elements, including carbohydrate, in small quantities

Remember that muscles consist of muscle fibers held together in bundles by connective tissue.

### Maturity and Tenderness

We learned in Chapter 16 that the tenderness of a piece of meat—or poultry—is related to connective tissue and that connective tissue increases with

- Use or exercise of the muscle.
- Maturity or age of the animal or bird.

1. Use or exercise is of less concern in poultry. Most poultry is so young that it is relatively tender throughout. However, there are differences, discussed in the next section, between **light meat** and **dark meat**.

2. **Maturity** is a major consideration when selecting poultry. Young, tender birds are cooked by dry-heat methods, such as broiling, frying, and roasting, as well as by moist-heat methods. Older, tougher birds need slow, moist heat to be made palatable.

Maturity is the major factor in categorizing each kind of poultry (p. 537).

Skin color is determined by diet and is not related to the flavor or tenderness of the poultry.

#### FREE-RANGE VERSUS CAGE-FREE

Some poultry products, especially eggs, are marketed as “cage-free.” How does this differ from free-range?

Cage-free simply means the birds aren’t kept in cages, but they *are* kept indoors. To be called free-range, they must be allowed outdoors.

### Free-Range Chickens

Most chickens on the market are produced by large operations that house their poultry indoors in carefully controlled environments and feed them scientifically monitored diets. This process enables the industry to raise healthy chickens quickly and in large numbers to meet the great demand. Many people feel these chickens lack flavor because they are not allowed to move around outdoors. Some farmers, in response, offer **free-range** chickens, which are allowed to move around freely and eat outdoors in a more natural environment.

It is important to note that there is no legal definition of **free-range**, and that free-range chickens are considerably more expensive than ordinary chickens. Many people, however, feel free-range chickens are more flavorful and worth the extra cost. Because quality varies from producer to producer, it is necessary to do careful taste-testing to determine whether you want to purchase free-range poultry for your operation.

A term related to free-range is **organic**, which has recently been defined by the USDA as food produced without using most conventional pesticides, fertilizers made with synthetic ingredients or sewage sludge, bioengineering, or ionizing radiation. See page 282 for additional information on organic foods.

### Light Meat and Dark Meat

Poultry is not divided into as many small cuts as are meats. Chicken and turkey, however, are usually thought of as consisting of two kinds of parts, depending on the color of the meat. These color differences reflect other differences:

“Light meat”—breast and wings

- Less fat
- Less connective tissue
- Cooks faster

“Dark meat”—legs (drumsticks and thighs)

- More fat
- More connective tissue
- Takes longer to cook

Duck, goose, and squab have all dark meat, but the same differences in connective tissue hold true.

The dark color of dark meat is due to a protein called *myoglobin*. This protein stores oxygen for muscles to use during periods of great activity. The breast muscles of birds are used for flying, and because chickens and turkeys rarely, if ever, fly, these muscles don't need a great deal of myoglobin. In flying birds, such as ducks, the breast muscles have more myoglobin and thus are darker. Active muscles, in addition to being darker, also have more connective tissue.

The cook must observe these differences when preparing poultry.

### 1. Cooking whole birds.

Everyone has tasted chicken or turkey breast so dry it was difficult to swallow. In fact, light meat is overcooked more often than not because it cooks faster than the legs and is done first. In addition, the breast has less fat than the legs, so it tastes much drier when cooked (or overcooked).

*A major problem in roasting poultry is cooking the legs to doneness without overcooking the breast.* Chefs have devised many techniques to help solve this problem. Here are some of them.

- Basting with fat only, not with water or stock. Fat protects against drying, but moisture washes away protective fat.
- Barding, or covering the breast with a thin layer of pork fat. This is usually done with lean game birds.
- Separating breast from leg sections and roasting each for a different time. This is often done with large turkeys.
- Roasting breast-down for part of the roasting period. Gravity draws moisture and fat to the breast rather than away from it. Note that, although this method is effective, it has too many disadvantages to be used often in food service. Roasting breast down prevents the breast from browning and crisping attractively and leaves marks from the roasting rack. Also, it is very awkward for large birds. The method is best used only if the cooked meat is to be used for other purposes and appearance is not an issue.

### 2. Cooking poultry parts.

Many recipes have been devised especially for certain poultry parts, such as wings, drumsticks, and boneless chicken breasts. These recipes take into account the different cooking characteristics of each part. For example, flattened boneless chicken breasts can be quickly sautéed and remain juicy and tender. Turkey wings, when braised, release enough gelatin to make a rich sauce.

Many of these items have especially high customer appeal, especially boneless chicken breast, and are served in the most elegant restaurants.

Several of the chicken and turkey recipes in Chapter 19 are for specific parts. Those that use cut-up whole chickens can easily be adapted for specific parts. For example, you may want to buy whole chickens, braise the leg sections, and reserve the breasts for other preparations.

## INSPECTION AND GRADING

Like meat, poultry is subject to federal **inspection** and **grading**. (Note: Unlike those for meats, poultry inspection and grading stamps are not stamped on the birds but instead are printed on tags and packing cases.)



FIGURE 18.1 USDA inspection stamp for poultry.



FIGURE 18.2 USDA grade stamp for poultry.

## Inspection

1. Inspection is a guarantee of wholesomeness (fit for human consumption).
2. That the poultry passed inspection is indicated by a round stamp (Fig. 18.1).
3. Inspection is required by U.S. law.

## Grading

1. Grading is a *quality* designation.
2. The grade is indicated by a shield stamp and letter grade (Fig. 18.2).
3. Grading is not required by U.S. law.

U.S. grades are A, B, and C, A being the best. Grades are based on the following:

Shape of carcass (lack of defects)	Pinfeathers (present or absent)
Amount of flesh	Skin tears, cuts, broken bones
Amount of fat	Blemishes and bruises

Most poultry used in food service is Grade A. Lower grades are used by canners and processors.

## CLASSIFICATION AND MARKET FORMS

The following terms are used to classify poultry:

**Kind**—the species, such as chicken, turkey, or duck.

**Class**—the subdivision of kind, depending on age and sex.

**Style**—the amount of cleaning and processing.

Live: almost never purchased in food service.

Dressed: killed, bled, and plucked. Also rarely seen in food service.

Ready to cook: dressed and eviscerated, with head and feet removed.

- Whole
- Cut up, or parts

**State of refrigeration**—chilled or frozen.

Table 18.1 describes the kinds and classes of domestic poultry. **Chicken** is the most common kind of poultry in the kitchen. As indicated in the table, age or maturity determines the differences among the classes of chicken. **Rock Cornish game hens** (usually called Cornish hens), **broilers**, and **fryers** are young, tender chickens suitable for sautéing, broiling, or frying, while **roasters** and **capons** are larger chickens that are usually roasted. Older **hens** and (rarely marketed) **roosters** must be simmered or braised to make them tender.

In addition to the common classes of chicken listed in the table, you may also find **poussin** (poo-san) on the market in certain localities. Similar to Rock Cornish game hen but often smaller, a poussin is a young chicken weighing 1 pound (450 g) or less. It commands a fairly high price because of the special techniques required for raising it.

**Turkeys** are larger birds that are usually roasted, although the cooking of turkey parts is increasingly common. For example, legs may be stewed or braised for special dishes (such as Mole Poblano, p. 583), while breasts are cut into cutlets or scaloppine and sautéed like veal cutlets.

**Ducks** and **geese** also are usually roasted, although duck parts are sometimes cooked separately. Boneless breast of duck is sautéed or broiled and served rare, sliced into small medallions, and the legs may be braised. Ducks and geese have a thick layer of fat under the skin. Compared with chicken and turkey, they have a low yield. For example, a 4-pound duck yields about 1 pound raw lean meat, and a 4-pound chicken yields about 2 pounds raw lean meat.

Most ducks marketed in North America are a breed called **White Pekin**; this includes the well-known Long Island duck. A specialty item available in some markets is **magret** (mah-gray). This is the boneless breast of a breed of duck called **moulard**. It is thicker and meatier than the breast of a regular Pekin.

**TABLE 18.1 Domestic Poultry Classes and Characteristics**

Kind/Class	Description	Age	Weight range
<b>Chicken</b>			
Rock Cornish game hen	Special breed of young chicken, very tender and delicate.	5 weeks or less	¾–2 lb (0.34–0.9 kg)
Broiler or fryer	Young chicken of either sex. Tender flesh and flexible cartilage. Smooth skin.	6–10 weeks	Broiler: 1½–2½ lb (0.7–1.1 kg) Fryer: 2½–3½ lb (1.1–1.6 kg)
Roaster	Young chicken of either sex. Tender flesh and smooth skin, but less flexible cartilage.	3–5 months	3½–5 lb (1.6–2.3 kg)
Capon	Castrated male chicken. Flesh very tender and well flavored. Large breast. Expensive.	Under 8 months	5–8 lb (2.3–3.6 kg)
Hen or fowl	Mature female. Tough flesh and coarse skin. Hardened breastbone cartilage.	Over 10 months	3½–6 lb (1.6–2.7 kg)
Cock or rooster	Mature male. Coarse skin. Tough, dark meat.	Over 10 months	4–6 lb (1.8–2.7 kg)
<b>Turkey</b>			
Fryer-roaster	Young bird of either sex. Tender flesh, smooth skin, and flexible cartilage.	Under 16 weeks	4–9 lb (1.8–4 kg)
Young turkey (hen or tom)	Young turkeys with tender flesh but firmer cartilage.	5–7 months	8–22 lb (3.6–10 kg)
Yearling turkey	Fully matured turkey that is still reasonably tender.	Under 15 months	10–30 lb (4.5–14 kg)
Mature turkey or old turkey (hen or tom)	Old turkey with tough flesh and coarse skin.	Over 15 months	10–30 lb (4.5–14 kg)
<b>Duck</b>			
Broiler or fryer duckling	Young tender duck with soft bill and windpipe.	Under 8 weeks	2–4 lb (0.9–1.8 kg)
Roaster duckling	Young tender duck with bill and windpipe just starting to harden.	Under 16 weeks	4–6 lb (1.8–2.7 kg)
Mature duck	Old duck with tough flesh and hard bill and windpipe.	Over 6 months	4–6 lb (1.8–2.7 kg)
<b>Goose</b>			
Young goose	Young bird with tender flesh.	Under 6 months	6–10 lb (2.7–4.5 kg)
Mature goose	Tough old bird.	Over 6 months	10–16 lb (4.5–7.3 kg)
<b>Guinea</b>			
Young guinea	Domestic relative of the pheasant. Tender.	3–6 months	¾–1½ lb (0.34–0.7 kg)
Mature guinea	Tough.	Up to 12 months	1–2 lb (0.45–0.9 kg)
<b>Pigeon</b>			
Squab	Very young pigeon with light, tender meat.	3–4 weeks	Under 1 lb (0.45 kg)
Pigeon	Older pigeon with tough, dark meat.	Over 4 weeks	1–2 lb (0.45–0.9 kg)



Clockwise from left: duckling, free-range chicken, poussin, guinea fowl, squab, quail

**Guineas** are a domestically raised descendant of the pheasant. They taste like a flavorful chicken and are usually cooked and handled like young chickens.

**Squabs** are young, domestically raised pigeons, usually weighing less than 1 pound (450 g). Their rich, dark meat, which is usually cooked slightly rare to avoid dryness, has a somewhat gamey flavor that combines well with flavorful brown sauces.

### Game Birds and Specialty Products

In recent years, the availability of such birds as quail and squab has increased dramatically, and they are seen regularly on restaurant menus. The poultry items discussed in this section are classified as game birds, but they are all, in fact, raised domestically. While farm-raised pheasants and partridge lack the full gamey flavor of their wild cousins, they do have a richer, more gamelike taste compared to chicken. With bland, factory-raised chickens dominating the market, cooks and eaters are turning more and more to exotic poultry and are willing to pay the higher price.

Traditionally, true wild game is hung and allowed to age, usually before plucking and dressing. The purpose is essentially the same as for aging beef, namely to allow the natural enzymes in the meat to tenderize it and to develop flavor. Often, game is hung until it becomes high, to the point where spoiled meat is mistaken for aged meat. With today's farm-raised game birds, this procedure is not appropriate. Anyway, most customers prefer a fresh taste to a strong, gamey one.

**Quail** are small, weighing 4–5 ounces (110–140 g) each. A normal main-course portion is two birds. They have meaty breasts for their size, but not much meat on the legs. Quail are richly flavored without being gamey. The French name is *caille*.

**Partridges** are about the size of Rock Cornish game hens, weighing about 1 pound (450 g) each. It is important to look for young, tender birds because mature partridge is likely to be tough. They have excellent flavor, but they are not as delicate as squab or pheasant. The French names are *perdreau* (young partridge) and *perdrix* (mature partridge).

**Pheasant** is a popular game bird, and farm-raised pheasant is widely available. Most pheasant sold weighs 2–2½ pounds (900–1200 g), but young pheasant weighing 1 pound (450 g) or less is also available. This bird has delicate, light-colored meat with subtle flavor similar to that of chicken.

Most recipes for chicken are also suitable for pheasant, but the simplest preparations are usually the best, because the flavor stands well on its own and is easily covered by too many spices. Pheasant can be dry if overcooked. The French name is *faisan*.

Many varieties of **wild duck** are eaten, but mallard is the most common. Farm-raised mallards weigh 1½–3 pounds (700–1400 g). Unlike domestic duck, wild duck is very lean. It has dark, flavorful flesh.

Handling game birds is easy if you remember that their structure is basically the same as the structure of chickens. All the cutting and trussing techniques you learn for chicken can be applied to these other birds.

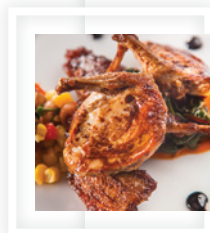
Because farm-raised game birds are usually young and tender, they can be roasted, sautéed, grilled, and barbecued. The most important thing to remember about them is they are usually very lean. Therefore, they are best served slightly rare. If cooked to well done, they become dry. This is especially true of wild duck, which is almost inedible if overcooked. Wild duck is usually left rarer than the other birds discussed here. Its meat is then red and juicy.

Pheasant is also very dry if well done. Its light-colored meat is best if still slightly pink at the bone. Quail doesn't become as dry, but it too has the best flavor if still slightly pink at the bone.

Another category of farm-raised birds is the category technically known as **ratites**. **Ostrich** and **emu** are the most familiar members of this category. Although these meats have lost some popularity in recent years, they may still be available in some markets. The meat of both birds is lean and red and resembles venison or very lean beef in appearance, although it is slightly lighter in color than venison.

Because ostrich and emu are so lean, they are best cooked to the medium rare or, at most, medium stage to avoid dryness. Recommended safe internal temperature is 155°–160°F (68°–71°C). Grilling, sautéing, and pan-frying are the best cooking methods for small, tender cuts, while larger tender cuts can be roasted. Moist-heat methods, especially braising, are sometimes recommended for less tender cuts, but this often results in excessively dry meat because it is so lean. Take care to avoid overcooking if you braise ostrich or emu. Another option is to grind the less tender cuts. Mixed with seasonings and added moisture, ground emu and ostrich can make excellent burgers, meatballs, and meatloaf.

Ostrich and emu are best cooked like other lean red meats and game. Recipes for venison, in particular, are often excellent when applied to these meats, as are recipes for grilled or sautéed beef. Ostrich producers often recommend cooking their product like veal. This may be slightly misleading because veal is often cooked medium well or well done. Nevertheless, grilled, sautéed, and roast veal recipes can often be used for ostrich and emu as well, as long as the meat is not overcooked. Two recipes developed specifically for ostrich or emu are included in Chapter 19 as a sample. For other cooking ideas, look for appropriate recipes in Chapter 17 based on the guidelines just described.



### KEY POINTS TO REVIEW

- How do the differences between light meat and dark meat affect how you cook different poultry parts?
- What are four ways to keep breast meat from becoming too dry when cooking whole poultry?
- What is the significance of inspection and grading of poultry products?
- What do the terms *kind*, *class*, and *style* mean with respect to poultry? What are the major kinds and classes of domestic poultry used in food service?
- What are the most important kinds of farm-raised game birds used in food service? Describe each kind.

# HANDLING AND COOKING

## STORAGE

### Fresh Poultry

1. Fresh poultry is extremely perishable. It should arrive well chilled, ideally at 32°F (0°C), and kept well chilled until used.
2. Ideally, use poultry within 24 hours of receiving. Never hold it for more than 4 days.
3. Poultry often carries salmonella bacteria. Wash all equipment and cutting surfaces after handling poultry to avoid contamination of other foods.

### Frozen Poultry

1. Store frozen poultry at 0°F (−18°C) or lower until ready to thaw.
2. Thaw in original wrapper in refrigerator, allowing 1–2 days for chickens, 2–4 days for larger birds. If pressed for time, thaw in cold, running water in original wrapper.
3. Do not refreeze thawed poultry.

## DONENESS

Domestic poultry is almost always cooked well done (except squab and sautéed or grilled duck breast). Many cooks, however, cannot tell the difference between well done and overcooked. Chicken and turkey are low in fat, so they quickly become dry and unpalatable when overcooked. Even duck and goose, which are very fatty, taste dry and stringy if cooked too long.

Skilled chefs with years of experience can often tell the doneness of a roast chicken or turkey just by looking at it. Nevertheless, the only way to be certain of proper doneness is to use a thermometer.

### For Large Roasted Birds

**Internal temperature**, as tested with a thermometer, is the most accurate guide to doneness. The thermometer should be inserted into the thickest muscle of the inner part of the thigh, away from the bone. The thigh is tested rather than the breast because the thigh is the last part of the bird to become fully cooked.

The recommended safe internal temperature (p. 30) for roast whole poultry is 165°F (74°C). However, the more usual practice is to aim for a final temperature of 180°F (82°C). This higher temperature provides a margin of safety to allow for the difficulty of measuring poultry temperatures accurately. (Most customers do not like to see red or pink at the bone joints of chicken and turkey.) Depending on the size of the bird, removing it from the oven when the thermometer reads between 165° and 175°F (74° and 79°C) should result in a final temperature of 180°F (82°C) after carry-over cooking.

### For Smaller Birds, Cooked by Any Method

Doneness of smaller birds is determined in the following ways:

1. Looseness of joints. The leg moves freely in its socket.
2. Clear juices. Juices inside the cavity of a roasted bird are clear yellow rather than cloudy and red or pink.
3. Flesh separating from bone. Muscles begin to pull away from bones, especially breastbone and leg bones. Excessively shrunken flesh means it's overcooked and dry.
4. Firmness to touch. Test with finger pressure as you would a steak (p. 481). This method is especially useful for sautéed boneless chicken breasts.
5. As for large roasted birds, testing with a properly calibrated thermometer is the most accurate way to determine doneness. Minimum temperature is 165°F (74°C).

**Not recommended:** Do not test by piercing deeply with a fork and twisting the flesh. Too many valuable juices will be lost.

## TRUSSING METHODS

**Trussing** means tying the legs and wings against the body to make a compact, solid unit. It has two main purposes:

1. Even cooking. Extended legs and wings cook too quickly.
2. More attractive appearance, especially when presented or served whole or carved in the dining room.

One of many trussing methods is illustrated in Figure 18.3. Your instructor may wish to show you other methods.

**FIGURE 18.3** Trussing chicken



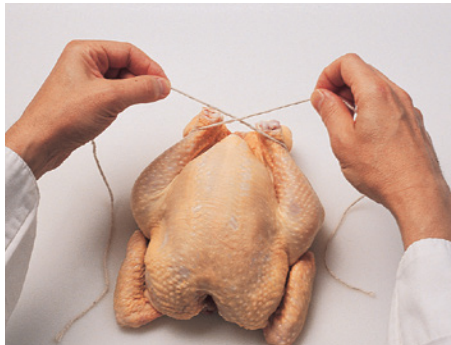
(a) Place the chicken breast up, with the neck end toward you. Tuck the first joint of the wings behind the back.



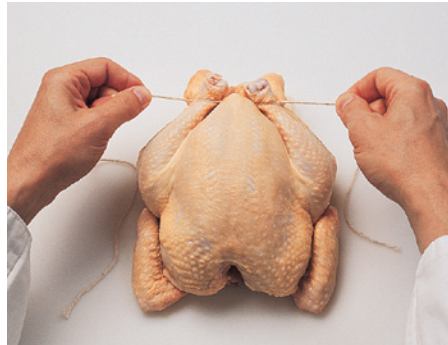
(b) Press the legs forward and down against the body.



(c) Pass the center of a length of twine under the hip bone just ahead of the tail.



(d) Bring the twine up and across the ends of the legs.



(e) Pass the twine under the ends of the legs as shown and pull tight.



(f) Bring the ends of the twine toward the neck end of the bird. Pull firmly on the twine while pressing on the breast portion with the thumbs as shown.



(g) Tie the twine tightly.



(h) The stub of the neck holds the twine in place, preventing it from slipping behind the back.



(i) The trussed chicken.

## CUTTING UP CHICKEN

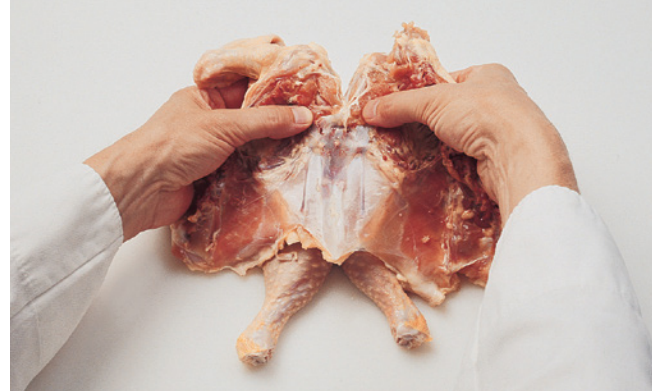
There are many ways to cut up chickens. Every chef has his or her preferred methods. Some of these methods are illustrated, step by step, in Figures 18.4, 18.5, and 18.6. These show how to split a chicken for broiling and how to cut whole chickens into quarters and eighths, for both bone-in parts and semi-boneless pieces. Cutting chicken apart at the joints is also known as *disjointing*.

As with meats, it is important to know the bone structure of chicken in order to cut it up. The best way to learn this is to practice cutting chickens.

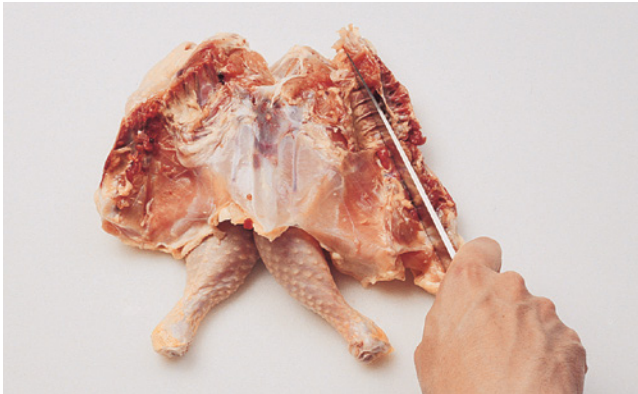
**FIGURE 18.4** Splitting chicken for broiling



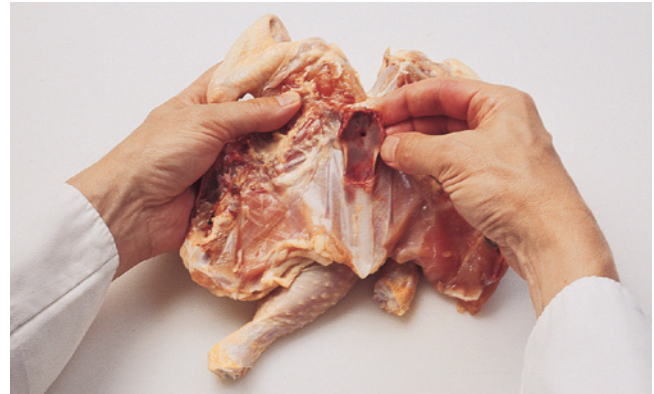
(a) Hold the chicken up by the tail. Cut through the bones to one side of the backbone, all the way to the neck.



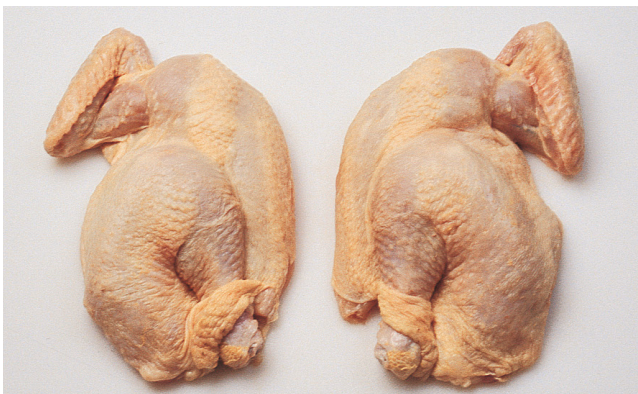
(b) Split the chicken open.



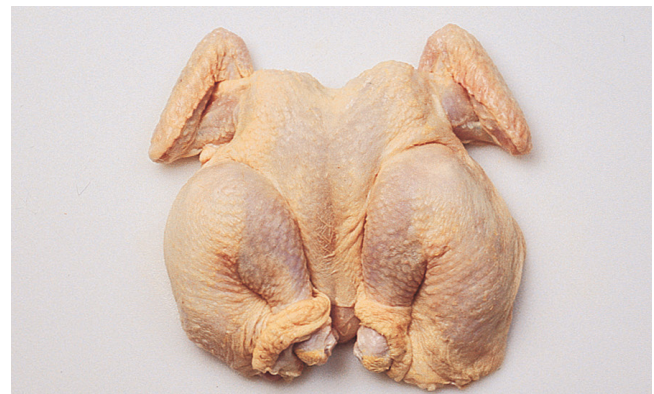
(c) Cut off the backbone as shown.



(d) Pull out the breastbone or keel bone. This helps the chicken lie flat and cook evenly.



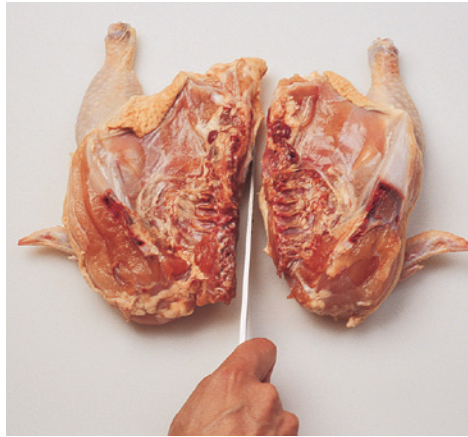
(e) For a portion size of one-half chicken, cut the chicken in half down the center of the breast. Make a split in the skin below the leg and slip the end of the leg through it as shown to hold the chicken in shape.



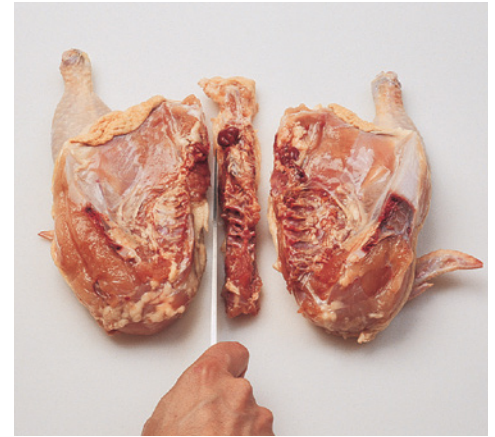
(f) Portion-size Cornish game hens are left whole.

**FIGURE 18.5** Cutting chicken into quarters and eighths, bone in

(a) Place the chicken on the cutting board breast up. Split the chicken down the center of the breast with a heavy knife, as shown.



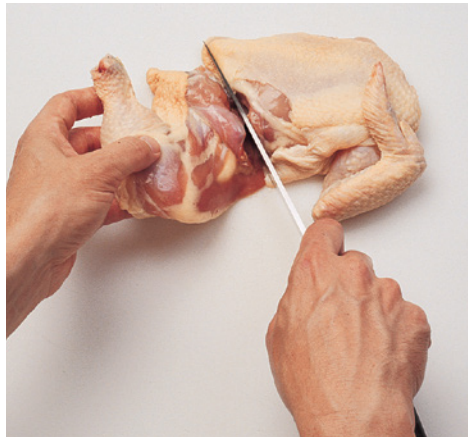
(b) Spread the chicken open and cut through the bones on one side of the backbone.



(c) Cut off the backbone completely. Save for stocks.



(d) Cut through the skin between the leg and the breast.



(e) Pull the leg back and cut off the entire leg section. Repeat with the other half. The chicken is now in quarters.



(f) To cut into eighths, cut the drumstick and thigh apart at the joint.



(g) Cut the breast and wing quarter into two equal pieces. (Another method is simply to cut off the wing.)



(h) The chicken cut into eighths. Note that the first joint of each wing has been cut off.

**FIGURE 18.6** Cutting up chickens, semi-boneless

(a) Cut off the wings at the second joint. Save for stocks.



(b) Cut through the skin between the leg and the body.



(c) Turn the chicken on its side and pull the leg back. Carefully start to cut the flesh from the bone, being sure to get the "oyster," the little nugget of tender meat in the hollow of the hip bone. Cut through the ligaments at the hip joint.



(d) Holding the chicken steady with the knife, pull off the leg. Repeat with the other leg.



(e) Turn the breast portion upright. Cut down along one side of the ridge of the breastbone to separate the breast meat from the bone.



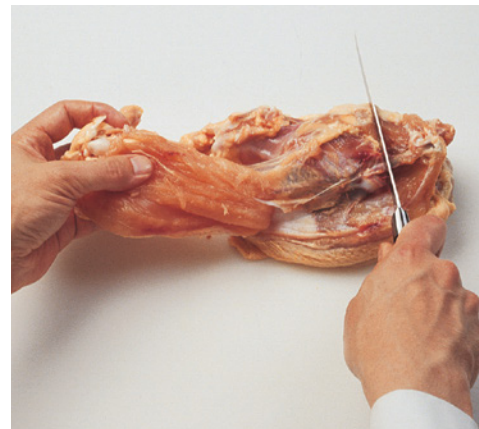
(f) Continue the cut along the wishbone to the wing joint.



(g) Holding the chicken by the wing, cut through the wing joint.



(h) Holding the carcass steady with the knife, pull back on the wing and breast meat.



(i) Pull the breast meat completely off the bone. Be sure to hold onto the small "tenderloin" muscle inside the breast so it doesn't separate from the rest of the meat. Repeat with the other side.



(j) If desired, remove the thigh bone. Cut down along both sides of the bone to separate it from the meat.



(k) Lift out the bone and cut it off at the joint.



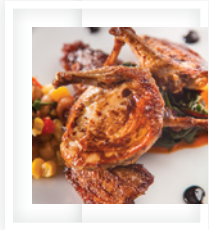
(l) For a neater appearance, chop off the end of the wing bone with the heel of the knife.



(m) A semi-boneless breast with the wing bone left in is known as a **suprême** or an airline breast. The wing bone may be left as is or frenched (meat scraped off), as in the illustration.



(n) The cut-up chicken. From left: breast portions without and with wing bone; leg portions without and with thigh bone; wing sections and carcass for stockpot. The drumstick and thigh (bone-in) may be cut apart at the joint, as in Figure 18.5.



### KEY POINTS TO REVIEW

- How is fresh poultry properly stored? How is frozen poultry stored and handled?
- How is doneness of poultry determined?
- Why is whole poultry often trussed before cooking?
- What methods are used for cutting up poultry? Describe as thoroughly as possible how to cut chicken into bone-in and semi-boneless parts.



## TERMS FOR REVIEW

**light meat**  
**dark meat**  
**maturity**  
**free-range**

**organic**  
**inspection**  
**grading**  
**magret**

**ratite**  
**trussing**  
**suprême**

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why are hens or fowl not roasted in commercial kitchens?
2. Why is the breast section so often dry when whole chickens and turkeys are roasted? Can you suggest ways to remedy this problem?
3. Give a brief description of each of the following classes of poultry. Be sure to mention relative tenderness and approximate size.
 

Capon	Roaster	Yearling turkey
Roaster duckling	Young tom turkey	Hen or fowl
Broiler/fryer	Rock Cornish hen	
4. How should fresh and frozen poultry be stored?
5. Describe five methods for determining doneness in poultry items.
6. What is the purpose of trussing poultry?
7. Why are most game birds better if not cooked until well done?