÷

NUTRITIONAL AND SENSORIAL QUALITY OF COOKIES FOTRIFIED WITH DEFATTED FLAXSEED AND SESAME SEED MEALS

Khattab, R. Y. and A. A. Zeitoun Food Sci. Dept., Fac. of Agric., (Saba Bacha), Alexandria University.

ABSTRACT

Cookies made of wheat flour (72% extraction) fortified with defatted flaxseed meal (DFM) and defatted sesame seed meal (DSM) (1:1 w/w) at levels of 0, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25% were nutritionally and organoleptically evaluated. The crude protein contents of DFM and DSM were as high as 38.80 and 40.00%, respectively as compared to that of wheat flour (11.26%) with a highly favorable amino acid profile, with high essential amino acid content. Adding defatted flaxseed-sesame seed meal (DFSM) had significantly increased crude protein, ash, calcium, phosphorus, magnesium and potassium contents of the produced cookies as compared to the control cookies (100% wheat flour). Essential amino acid content and protein quality parameters including protein efficiency ration (PER), biological value (BV), chemical score (CS) and essential amino acid index (EAAI) were also improved obviously in cookies fortified with different levels of DFSM. Results of sensory evaluation of cookies revealed that levels up to 15% substitution of wheat flour with DFSM produced highly acceptable cookies comparable to the control. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the under-utilized negligible high protein DFM and DSM could be incorporated successfully at 5 - 15% levels into bakery products like cookies to combat protein deficiency and improve the nutrition and health status.

INTRODUCTION

Fortification of foods can be an effective way to combat nutrient deficiencies in the developing countries. The purpose of food fortification is to increase the intake of a specific nutrient or nutrients that have been identified as inadequate in the food supply (Subar *et al.*, 1998).

The increased costs and limited supplies of animal proteins, have necessitated contemporary research efforts geared towards the study of food properties and potential utilization of protein from locally available food crops, especially from under-utilized or relatively neglected high protein oilseeds and legumes (Enujiugha and Ayodele-Oni, 2003).

Flaxseed meal has three major components making it beneficial in human and animal nutrition: (1) a high content of α -linolenic acid (ω -3 essential fatty acid); (2) a high percentage of dietary fiber, both soluble and insoluble; and (3) the highest content of plant "lignans" of all plant or seed products used for human food (Lay and Dybing, 1989). Crude protein content of flaxseed meal was reported to be 48.90% (Madhusudhan and Singh, 1983). Oomah and Mazza (1995) reported that the protein fraction of flaxseed meal contains a favorable ratio of amino acids. It is also a good source of sulfuric amino acids methionine and cystine. Thus, flaxseed meal is considered as a potential source of high-quality plant protein for incorporation into food products. It was found that flaxseed meal protein has biological value (BV), digestibility, protein efficiency ratio (PER) and protein score of 77.40, 91.60, 1.76 and 82.00, respectively (Bell

and Keith, 1993). In addition to their nutritional characteristics, flaxseed meal proteins provide prominent functional roles in food including solubility, rheological behaviour, emulsifying capacity and foaming and whipping ability (Oomah and Mazza, 1995). Moreover, flaxseed meal is a good source of a number of minerals and vitamins especially magnesium, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, vitamin C and some B vitamins (USDA, 1999). Compared to all fruits, vegetables and grains tested to date, flaxseed meal is the richest source of lignans, containing between 0.6 to 1.8 g/100g whole flaxseed (Parasad, 1999). Lignans are phytoestrogens which have weak estrogenic and antiestrogenic properties and may, therefore, help prevent hormone-sensitive cancers (Rose, 1993).

It is well investigated that flaxseed has several benefits in the prevention and curing of a large deal of diseases (Hall *et al.*, 1993; Haggans *et al.*, 2000; Lemay *et al.*, 2002).

Flaxseed is mechanically pressed to recover its oil fraction which presents about 30 - 45% of seed weight (Madhusudhan and Singh; 1983; USDA, 1999). The oil is directed either for human consumption or processed for industrial uses. The produced defatted flaxseed meal, however, is an under-utilized by-product of flaxseed oil extraction.

Defatted sesame seed meal is an edible, creamy and light brown powder from sesame seeds. It has high protein content (about 47.1%) and about 10 – 12% sesame oil (Janick and Whipkey, 2002). Sesame seeds contain three times more calcium than a comparable measure of milk (Home Cooking 1998). The amino acid composition of sesame seed meal is unique and unusual among the oilseed proteins, due to its high content of sulfur-containing amino acids methionine and cysteine (Johnson *et al.*, 1979). Many nutraceutical uses have been discovered for sesame. Sesame lignans have antioxidant and health promoting activities (Kato *et al.* 1998).

On the other hand, cereal grains are rich in carbohydrates but deficient in essential amino acids such as lysine, the limiting amino acid in wheat (Kent and Evers, 1994), thus making their protein quality poorer than that of animals (Horn and Schwartz, 1961). The total protein content and the contribution that essential amino acids make to the total are the most important factors from a nutritional point of view. The nutritional quality can be improved by increasing protein content and limiting amino acids especially lysine (Anium et Hence, the enrichment of cereal-based foods with oilseed and legume protein has received considerable attention. Wheat bread and cookies are widely accepted and consumed in many developing countries and therefore offer a valuable supplementation vehicle for nutritional improvement; however, cookies have been suggested as a better use of composite flour than bread because of their ready-to-eat form, wide consumption and relatively long shelf-life (Lorens et al.,, 1979). Enriched cookies are attractive for target areas, such as child-feeding programs, low-income groups and disaster relief operations (Claughton and Pearce, 1989). Cookies with these characteristics have been produced from blends of wheat and cowpea (McWatters et al., 2003) or soybean and wheat (Shrestha and Noomhorm, 2002).

Therefore, the aim of this study was to fortify cookies with the highly nutritive defatted flaxseed and sesame seed meals and to evaluate the nutritional and sensorial quality of the fortified cookies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Defatted flaxseed meal (DFM) and sesame seed meal (DSM) (2 kg. each) were obtained from a private commercial press, El-Mahalla El-Kobra, Gharbia Gov., Egypt. Wheat flour (72% extraction) (5 kg. packed in polypropylene bags) was purchased from a local market, Alexandria, Egypt. It was stored at room temperature until using. Casein (analytical grade) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich.

Experimental Procedures

Blends formulation and preparation of cookies

Defatted flaxseed and sesame seed meals were dried overnight at 40 \pm 2°C in an air-draft drying oven (WT-binder labortechnic GMBH). The samples were cleaned, ground, sieved through 32 mesh sieve to get powder with similar characteristics of flour 72% extraction rate. To get use of the tremendous benefits previously mentioned for DFM and DSM, they were equally blended together (1:1 w/w) to form the defatted flaxseed-sesame seed meal (DFSM). Blends of wheat flour and DFSM powder, (containing 0%, 5%, 10%, 15%, 20% and 25% DFSM powder, on a replacement basis), were prepared. The choice of these levels was based on the report of Dreuiter (1978) that the maximum level of wheat flour substitution that would produce an acceptable baked product was 25%. They were then packed in polyethylene bags, sealed and kept at $-18\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ until using.

Cookies were prepared according to the procedure described by McWatters et al. (2003). The basic ingredients used were 190 g of flour blend, 50 g vegetable shortening, 112.50 g of granulated sugar, 10.50 g of beaten whole egg, 1.88 g of salt, and 0.90 g of baking powder. The dry ingredients were weighed and mixed thoroughly in a bowl by hand for 3-5 min. Shortening was added and rubbed in until uniform. The eog was added and dough was thoroughly kneaded in a mixer for 5 min. The dough was formed into different shapes using the cookies machine (Amaizing DT 906, China). The produced dough pieces were baked on greased pans at 160°C for 15 min in a baking oven. The prepared cookies were cooled to room temperature (24 ± 2°C), packed in high density polyethylene bags and stored at room temperature until analysis and sensory evaluation. Results of the sensory evaluation showed that increasing DFSM level over 15% produced cookies with undesirable dark colour. In order to conquer this predicament, cookies were produced according to the procedure mentioned above but with adding cocoa powder (1% of the formula). The produced cookies were sensorially tested for their colour.

Chemical composition of flours and cookies

Triplicate samples of wheat flour, DFM, DSM and produced cookies were tested for their proximate composition in terms of moisture, crude fat, crude protein, crude fiber, and ash contents according to AACC (2000). Nitrogen-free extract (NFE) was calculated by difference. Results were expressed as means of the three replicates.

Amino acid compositions of wheat flour, DFM, DSM, Casein (as a standard protein) and produced cookies were determined according to the Association of Analytical Chemists (1990) using an AAA 400 automatic amino acid analyzer (INGOS, Czech Republic). Prior to analysis, samples were subjected to acid hydrolysis in the presence of 6 M HCl at 105°C for 24 hours. Sulphur-containing amino acids were determined separately in 6 M HCl after oxidative hydrolysis (formic acid + hydrogen peroxide, 9:1 v/v, 20 h at 4°C). Tryptophan was quantified on an alkaline digest according to the method described in the Official Methods of Analysis of the Association of Analytical Chemists (1990).

Minerals were determined after wet ashing by concentrated nitric acid and perchloric acid (1:1, v/v). K and Ca were determined by flame photometer (Corning 410, England), while Mg was determined using an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Perkin–Elmer, Model 2380, USA). Phosphorus was estimated photometrically via the phosphorus molybdate complex described by Taussky and Shorr (1953).

Evaluation of protein quality

A. Protein efficiency ratio (PER)

PER values were calculated according to the following regression equation proposed by Alsmeyer *et al.* (1974):

$$PER = -0.468 + 0.454 \text{ Leu} - 0.105 \text{ Tyr.}$$

B. Biological value (BV)

Biological values were calculated according to Eggum et al. (1979) using the following regression equation:

BV (%) =
$$39.55 + 8.89 \times \text{lysine}$$
.

C. Chemical score (CS)

The chemical score (CS) was calculated on the basis of the procedure described previously by Rakowska *et al.* (1978), based on comparison of the concentration ratio of the amino acid having the shortest supply a_i (restrictive amino acid) to the concentration of this amino acid in the standard a_s :

$$CS = (a_i/a_s) \times 100.$$

Casein was used as a standard protein considered a complete and balanced food and fodder protein according to FAO/ WHO (1991).

D. Essential amino acid index (EAAI)

The essential amino acid index (EAAI) was calculated as follows:

Where log EAA has the description (after Rakowska et al., 1978):

log EAA = 0.1(log $a_1/a_{1s} \times 100 + \log a_2/a_{2s} \times 100 + \dots + \log a_n/a_{ns} \times 100$). Where $a_1 \dots a_n$: the contents of exogenous amino acids including Lys, Meth + Cys, Thr, Ileu, Trp, Val, Leu, His and Phe + Tyr in the sample protein, while $a_{1s} \dots a_{ns}$: the contents of these amino acids in the standard protein.

Sensory evaluation of cookies

Cookies were organoleptically evaluated for their appearance, colour, odour, taste, texture, after-taste and overall acceptability, according to the preference method of lhekoronye and Ngoddy (1985). Twelve laboratory staff

members evaluated the cookies on a 5- point hedonic scale. The triangle test was performed on the cookies produced with adding cocoa powder to examine weather there were differences in colour.

Statistical analysis

Data were statistically analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) according to Steel *et al.*, (1997). Means were separated by least significant difference (LSD), Significance was accepted at $p \le 0.05$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chemical composition of flours used for cookies preparation

Proximate chemical composition (%) and mineral contents (mg/100g) of different flours used for preparing cookies are shown in table (1). Data revealed that wheat flour had the highest moisture content (11.00%) and nitrogen free extract (84.75%) and the lowest crude fat (1.60%), crude protein (11.26%), crude fiber (1.31%) and ash (1.08%) contents.

Table (1): Proximate chemical composition (%) and mineral contents (mg/100g) of flours used for cookies preparation.

	Wheat flour	DFM	DSM		
Moisture	11.00 ^a	6.60°	5.80°		
Crude fat	1.60 ^a	6.20 ^b	9.80°		
Crude protein	11.26ª	38.80 ^b	40.00 ^b		
Crude fibers	1,31 ^a	5.00 ^b	4.60 ^b		
Ash	1.08 ^a	7.00 ^b	11.20°		
Nitrogen free extract	84.75 ^a	43.00 ^b	34.40 ^c		
Calcium	29.20 ^a	306.15 ^b	153.10°		
Phosphorus	350.00 ^a	766.15 ^b	774.26 ^b		
Magnesium	127.30 ^a	556.92 ⁵	346.08°		
Potassium	390.10 ^a	1047.70 ^b	406.32ª		

Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different (p \leq 0.05).

The proximate composition of both defatted flaxseed meal (DFM) and defatted sesame seed meal (DSM) differed significantly with that of wheat flour. There were no significant differences between DFM and DSM in their moisture, crude protein and crude fiber contents while they had significantly differed between each other in their contents of crude fat, ash and nitrogen free extract. DSM had the highest crude protein (40.00%), crude fat (9.80%) and ash (11.20%) contents. DFM, on the other hand, had the highest crude fiber content (5.00%).

In respect of mineral contents, data showed that DFM had the highest calcium (306.15), phosphorus (766.15), magnesium (556.92) and potassium (1047.70 mg/100g) contents. The lowest values were recorded for wheat flour (29.20, 350.00, 127.30 and 390.10 mg/100g, respectively). Mineral contents of both DFM and DSM differed significantly with that of wheat flour except for potassium content in which there was no significant difference

Results are means of three replicates calculated on dry weight basis.

^{*} DFM = Defatted flaxseed meal. DSM = Defatted sesame seed meal.

between wheat flour and DSM. Significant differences were found between DFM and DSM in their calcium, magnesium and potassium contents. Results of proximate composition and mineral contents are in conformity with those reported by Madhusudhan and Singh (1983), USDA (1999) and Janick and Whipkey (2002).

Amino acid composition and protein quality of flours used for cookies preparation

The amino acid profiles of wheat flour, DFM and DSM are shown in table (2). Data revealed that DFM was rich in essential amino acids such as lysine, phenylalanine, threonine, leucine, isoleucine, valine and tryptophane compared with the reference protein (casein). DFM had the highest total essential amino acid content (33.57%) followed by DSM (32.25%) while the lowest value was that of wheat flour (25.20%). DSM had the highest content of sulfur-containing amino acids (5.04%) followed by DFM (3.38%) and wheat flour (3.10%).

Table (2): Amino acid composition (%) and protein quality parameters of

nours used for cookies preparation.						
Amino acids	Wheat flour	DFM	DSM	Casein*		
Lysine	2.00	4.14	3.17	6.39		
Methionine ^a	1.10	1.66	3.17	2.35		
Phenylalanine	5.30	4.98	4.42	4.31		
Threonine	2.30	3.56	3.74	3.52		
Leucine	6.50	6.96	7.11	7.68		
Isoleucine	3.20	4.29	3.74	4.00		
Tryptophane	1.20	2.10	1.85	1.17		
Valine	3.60	5.88	5.05	5.24		
Total Essential amino acids	25.20	33,57	32.25			
Arginine	5.40	9.30	13.19	3.89		
Aspartic acid ^b	5.80	9.00	8.15	7,25		
Glutamic acid ^c	36.30	21.30	19.28	23,84		
Serine	4.50	4.18	5.04	5.86		
Proline	8.40	3.98	3.74	11.99		
Cystine	2.00	1.72	1.87	0.30		
Tyrosine	4.00	2.88	3.74	4.65		
Glycine	3.70	5.90	6.29	1.96		
Alanine	2.80	5.40	3.96	3.17		
Histidine	1.90	2.77	2.49	2.43		
Total Non-essential amino acids	74.80	66.43	67.75			
Total sulfur amino acids	3.10	3.38	5.04			
Protein quality parameters*						
PER	2.15	2.21	2.28			
BV	57.33	76.35	67.73			
cs	46.81	70.64	158.12			
EAAI	49.77	66,28	64.44			

DFM = Defatted flaxseed meal. DSM = Defatted sesame seed meal.

Casein was used as a standard protein.

a = Methionine + Cysteine. b = Aspartic acid + Asparagine.

c = Glutamic acid + Glutamine.

PER = Protein efficiency ratio. BV = Biological value. CS = Chemical score. EAAI = Essential amino acid index.

Methionine was restrictive in both wheat flour and DFM, while the restrictive amino acid in DSM was tryptophane (1.85%). These results strongly advocate the use of DFM and DSM to complement those protein sources that are low in lysine, sulfuric amino acids and other essential amino acids such as cereal proteins. These obtained results are in agreement with those stated by Johnson *et al.* (1979) and Abdel-Aal and Hucl (2002).

Quality evaluation by amino acid scoring procedures is considered to be more accurate than animal assay used for predicting protein quality of foods (Dillon, 1992). Wheat flour protein had the lowest values for all estimated quality parameters. Protein efficiency ratio (PER), based on leucine and tyrosine availability was 2.15, 2.21 and 2.28 for wheat flour, DFM and DSM, respectively. DFM protein had the highest biological value (76.35) followed by DSM protein (67.73) and wheat flour (57.33).

The chemical protein scores (CS) of the studied flours were calculated from the comparison of less abundant amino acid to a standard. CS values were 46.81, 70.64 and 158.12 for wheat flour, DFM and DSM, respectively. The highest essential amino acid index (EAAI) was estimated for DFM protein (66.28) followed by that of DSM (64.44).

Chemical composition of produced cookies

Chemical composition and mineral contents of the produced cookies are shown in table (3). Data revealed that protein contents of the cookies, prepared from DFSM blends were significantly higher than the protein content of control cookies (100% wheat flour). The protein content of the cookies prepared from these blends was also higher (12.10 - 18.15%) than those (6.00 - 12.00%) reported for conventional cookies (Shrestha and Noomhorm, 2002).

These results are in accordance with those of Inyang and Wayo (2005) who found that the protein content of cookies prepared from blends of wheat flour with 10, 20, 30 and 40% dehulled sesame seed meal increased from 12.52% with wheat flour to 16.86% with 40% substitution. Addition of DFSM resulted in an increase in ash content of cookies up to 3.06% and crude fiber content up to 2.60%. There were no significant differences in moisture contents of cookies.

Supplementation of cookies with DFSM also significantly increased the levels of calcium, phosphorus, magnesium and potassium to 88.10, 453.60, 213.80 and 470.16 mg/100 g, respectively.

All the cookies supplemented with DFSM were found to be nutritious on the basis of these parameters. This was because the consumption of about 100 g of each product formulation would provide more than half of the recommended daily requirement for protein (25–30 g/day), as recommended by FAO/WHO (1973) for children aged between 5 and 19 years. This fact suggests that cookies supplemented with DFSM may be useful as food supplements for the alleviation or prevention of protein malnutrition in developing countries. Shearer and Davies (2005) concluded that using flaxseed meal (at level of 5%) in preparing whole-wheat muffins and batter had enhanced the nutritional value without detrimentally changes in freshness or storage properties.

Table (3): Proximate chemical composition (%) and mineral contents (mg/100g) of cookies made of wheat flour fortified with different levels of defatted flaxseed-sesame seed meal (DFSM).

	···········		DFSM	levels (%)	
Moisture Crude fat Crude protein Crude fibers Ash Nitrogen free extract	0 8.80 ^a 14.00 ^a 11.00 ^a 1.86 ^a 1.12 ^a 72.02 ^a	5 8.88 ^a 14.12 ^a 12.10 ^b 2.00 ^a 1.49 ^b 70.29 ^a	10 8.98 ^a 14.22 ^a 14.00 ^c 2.15 ^a 1.87 ^c 67.76 ^b	9.20° 14.34° 15.36° 2.32° 2.20° 65.78°	20 9.52 ^a 14.40 ^a 16.68 ^d 2.45 ^b 2.66 ^e 63.81 ^b	25 10.05 ^b 14.50 ^a 18.15 ^d 2.60 ^c 3.06 ^f 61.68 ^c
Calcium Phosphorus Magnesium	132.50°		164.10 ^c	68.40 ^d 410.90 ^d 180.00 ^d	77.90 ^e 433.00 ^e 197.10 ^e	88.10 ^f 453.60 ^f 213.80 ^f
Potassium	382.40°	400.60	415.90°	435.20°	452.00	470.16

^{*} Results are means of three replicates calculated on dry weight basis. Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different (p ≤ 0.05).

Amino acid composition and protein quality of produced cookies

Amino acid composition and protein quality of produced cookies are shown in table (4).

Table (4): Amino acid composition (%) and protein quality parameters of cookies made of wheat flour fortified with different levels of defatted flaxseed-sesame seed meal (DFSM).

delatied hassed-sesame seed mear (DFSM).						
Amino acids	DFSM levels (%)					
		5	10	15	20	25
Lysine	1.64	1.78	1.86	1.96	2.01	2.08
Methionine ^a	1.08	1.15	1.21	1.28	1.34	1.42
Phenylalanine Phenylalanine	5.38	5.35	5.32	5.30	5.26	5.23
Threonine	2.48	2.56	2,63	2.75	2.77	2.85
Leucine	6.10	6.50	6.53	6.55	6.58	6.61
Isoleucine	3.00	3.04	3.07	3.14	3,15	3.20
Tryptophane	1.16	1.20	1.24	1.31	1.32	1.36
Valine	3.12	3.20	3.29	3,39	3,44	3.53
Total essential amino acids	23.96	24.77	25.13	25 .66	25.85	26.26
Arginine	6.79	7.15	7.53	7.89	8.26	8.61
Aspartic acid ^o	5.29	5.42	5.54	5.67	5.80	5.92
Glutamic acid ^e	36.80	35.61	34.80	34.00	33,19	32.36
Serine	4.50	4.51	4,52	4.53	4,54	4.53
Proline	8.80	8.56	8.32	8.08	7.84	7.60
Cystine	2.00	1.99	1.98	1.97	1.96	1.95
Tyrosine	3.86	3.75	3.71	3.68	3,64	3.62
Glycine	3.50	3.61	3.72	3.83	3.94	4.04
Alanine	2.60	2.69	2.78	2.86	2.94	3.03
Histidine	1.90	1.94	_1.97	2.01	2.04	2.08
Total non-essential amino acids	76.04	75.23	74.87	74.34	74.15	73.74
Total sulfur amino acids	3.08	3.14	3.19	3.25	3.30	3.37
Protein quality parameters*						
PER	1.896	2.089	2.107	2.119	2 137	2.153
BV	54.13	55,37	56.08	56.97		58.04
CS	45.96	48.94	51.49	54.47	112.82	116.24
EAAI	47.56	48.91	49.75	50.96		52.29

a = Methionine + Cysteine. b=Aspartic acid+Asparagine. c = Glutamic acid + Glutamine.
* PER = Protein efficiency ratio. BV = Biological value. CS = Chemical score.

EAAI = Essential amino acid index.

Data revealed that adding DFSM had increased sulfuric amino acids and the total essential amino acids as compared to the control cookies. The total essential amino acids increased gradually with increasing DFSM levels up to 25%. This could be attributed to the high content of these amino acids in both DFM and DSM as shown in table (2).

Lysine, which is considered to be the most heat sensitive amino acid (Civitelli et al., 1992), was decreased by about 18%. Lysine losses can approach 20% depending on the temperature and duration of baking of balady bread (El-Samahy and Tsen, 1981) and pizza crusts (Tsen et al., 1982). Lysine deficiency in wheat products is also aggravated by losses from browning reactions during baking. Quail (1996) described that amino acids are involved in maillard reaction.

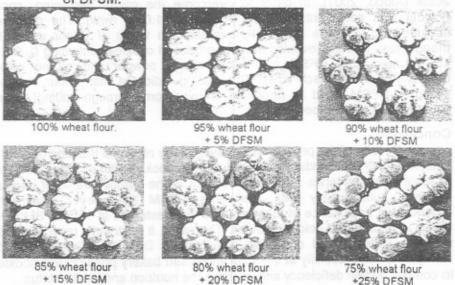
Therefore, high temperature and maillard reaction are the main reasons for lysine losses occurred during baking of cookies. Data also clarified that adding DFSM had obviously improved all quality parameters of the protein including PER, BV, CS and EAAI. This improvement increased with increasing DFSM levels up to 25%.

Sensory evaluation of cookies

The organoleptic properties of cookies are critical as they are the specific quality attributes that attract the consumer. The various sensory quality attributes of cookies are appearance, texture, taste, colour and odour. Among them, texture is the most important (Bourne, 2002).

Cookies prepared from wheat flour (72% extraction) fortified with different levels of DFSM (Fig. 1) were organoleptically evaluated in terms of appearance, colour, odour, taste, texture, after-taste and overall acceptability. Data of sensory evaluation (Table 5) revealed that acceptable cookies that closely resembled the control (100% wheat flour) cookies were produced from wheat flour containing up to 15% DFSM flour.

Fig. (1): Cookies produced from wheat flour fortified with different levels of DFSM.



Khattab, R. Y. and A. A. Zeitoun

Data showed that adding DFSM up to 25% did not significantly affect the taste of cookies but it had been improved (compared to the control) up to 15% DFSM. Texture of cookies was also improved by adding DFSM up to 15%. The highest texture scores were recorded for cookies containing 10% DFSM. They were described as fragile and easy to swallow. However, increasing DFSM up to 20 – 25% produced unaccepted more flaccid cookies. These textural changes were accompanied by unpleasant after-taste because of the amylaceous slimy sensation caused by the mucilage gum contained in DFM.

Table (5): Mean values of sensory scores* of cookies made of wheat flour fortified with different levels of defatted flaxseed-sesame seed meal (DFSM).

JUJUIII .	5554 11154					
	DFSM levels (%)					
Attributes	0	5	10	15	20	25
Appearance	4.72 ^a	4.90 ^{ab}	4.47 ^{ac}	3.98 ^d	3.24 ^e	2.88 ^f
Colour	5.00 ^a	4.83 ^a	4.25 ^b	3.75°	3.02 [₫]	2.41 ^e
Odour	4.55 ^a	4.74 ^{ab}	4.88 ^b	4.07 ^c	3,57 ^d	2.99 ^e
Taste	4.49 ^a	4.64 ^a	4.75 ^a	4.49 ^a	£,39ª	4.13 ^a
Texture	4.65ª	4.76 ^a	4 ^ a	4. V • a	3.95 ^b	2.05°
After-taste	4.38 ^a	4.76 ^a	4.91 ^a	4.73 ^a	2.69 ^b	1.85°
Overall acceptability	4.68ª	4.76ª	4.84 ^a	4.69ª	3.34 ⁰	2.11°

Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different (p \leq 0.05).

The overall acceptability of cookies had consequently improved up to 15% DFSM but significantly decreased when increasing DFSM levels over 15%. The low sensory scores of the cookies from blends containing more than 15% DFSM flour was attributed, by the panelists, to a rough flabby texture and darkening. Colour darkening of cookies could be attributed to sugar caramelization and the Maillard reactions between sugars and amino acids (Alobo, 2001). In order to overcome the colour darkening, cocao powder was added into cookies formula as 1.00% (w/w). The produced cookies (Fig. 2) were sensorially evaluated in terms of colour using the triangle test. Results revealed that the produced cookies containing 0, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25% DFSM and 1.00% cocao powder showed no colour differences among each other. This finding indicated that colour changes owing to DFSM could be improved or over come through adding natural colourants like cocoa powder.

Conclusion

Results of the present study have clearly revealed that adding DFSM flour to wheat flour produced highly nutritious cookies with elevated contents of protein and minerals. This improvement in the nutritive value of cookies exceeds subsequently with increasing DFSM flour level while, the organoleptic acceptance of these cookies was restricted at 15% DFSM level owing to texture and colour changes. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the under-utilized negligible high protein DFM and DSM could be incorporated successfully at 5 – 15% levels into bakery products like cookies to combat protein deficiency and improve the nutrition and health status.

^{*1=} the lowest score while 5= the highest score.

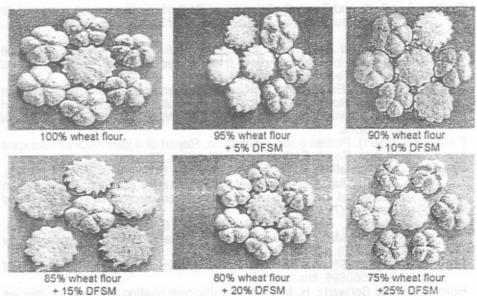


Fig. (2): Cookies produced from wheat flour fortified with different levels of DFSM with added cocao powder.

REFERENCES

- AACC (2000). Approved methods of analysis. St. Paul, Minnesota: The American Association of Cereal Chemists.
- Alobo, A. P. (2001). Effect of sesame seed flour on millet biscuit characteristics. Plant Foods for Human Nutrition, 56: 195–202.
- Alsmeyer, R.H., Cunningham, A.E. and Happich, M.L. (1974). Equations predict PER from amino acid analysis. *Food Technol.*, 28: 34-40.
- Anjum, F. M., Ahmed, I., Butt, M. S., Sheikh, M. A. and Pasha, I. (2005). Amino acid composition of spring wheats and losses of lysine during chapati baking. J. of Food Composition and Analysis, 18: 523 – 532.
- Bell, J. M. and Keith, M.O. (1993). Nutritional evaluation of linseed meals from flax with yellow or brown hulls, using mice and pigs. *Animal Feed Sci. Technol.*, 43: 1 – 18.
- Bourne, M. C. (2002). Food texture and viscosity: concept and measurement, 2nd ed., New York State Agricultural Experiment Station and Institute of Food Science. Cornell University, Geneva, New York, pp. 171–189.
- Civielli, R., Villareal, D. T. and Agneusdei, D. (1992). Dietary L- lysine and calcium metabolism in humans. *Nutrition*, 8: 400 404.
- Claughton, S. M. and Pearce, R. J. (1989). Protein enrichment of sugarsnap cookies with sunflower protein isolate. *J. Food Science*, 54: 354–356.
- Dillon, J, C. (1992). Methods for estimating nutritive value of protein for human consumption: a new method recently recommended by FAO/WHO. Cahiers de Nutrition et de Dietetique France, 27 (1): 54. (Nutrition Abstract Review Series A 62 (11): 7132 (1992).
- Dreuiter, A. (1978). Composite flour. In "Advances in Cereal Science and Technology", Pomeranl, Y. (Ed.), (pp. 349–385). St. Paul, MN, USA: AACC.
- Eggum, B.O., Villegas, E.M. and Vasal, S.K. (1979). Progress in protein quality of maize. J. Sci. Food Agric., 30: 1148 1153.

- El-Samahy, S. K. and Tsen, C. C. (1981). Effect of varying baking temperature and time on the quality and nutritive value of balady bread. *Cereal Chem.*, 58: 546 548.
- Enujiugha, V. N. and Ayodele-Oni, O. (2003). Evaluation of nutrients and some anti-nutrients in lesser known, underutilized oilseeds. *Intern. J. Food Science and Technol*, 38: 525–528.
- FAO/WHO (1973). Energy and protein requirements. Nutrition meeting report (Series 52), Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of United Nations; Technical Report (Series 522), World Health Organization of United Nations.
- FAO/WHO (1991). Protein quality evaluation. Report of a joint FAO-WHO expert consultation. Rome, FAO, Food and Nutrition, 51.
- Haggans, C.J., Travelli, E.J., Thomas, W., Martini, M.C. and Slavin, J.L. (2000). The effect of flaxseed and wheat bran on urinary estrogen metabolites in premenopausal women. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention., 9 (7): 719 – 725.
- Hall, A.V., Parbtani, A., Clark, W.F., Spanner, E. and Keeney, M. (1993). Abrogation of MRL/lpr lupus nephritis by dietary flaxseed. *Amer. J. Kidney Disease.*, 22 (2): 326 332.
- Home Cooking. (1998). Sesame seeds. www. homecooking.about.com/library/ weekly/ aa060898. htm.
- Hom, P. J. and Schwartz, H. M. (1961). Kaffir corn malting and brewing studies 9: amino composition of kaffir corn grain and malt. *J. Food Sci.*, 40: 65.
- Ihekoronye, I. A., and Ngoddy, P. O. (1985). Integrated Food Science and Technology for the Tropics. London: Macmillan (pp. 341–349).
- Inyang. U. E. and Wayo, A. U. (2005). Fortification of cookies with dehulled sesame seed meal. *Tropical Science*, 44 (3): 103 105.
- Janick, J. and Whipkey, A. (2002). Trends in New Crops and New Uses. ASHS Press, Alexandria, VA.
- Johnson, L. A., Suleiman, T. M. and Lusas, E. W. (1979). Sesame protein: a review and prospectus. J. Amer. Oil Chem. Soc., 56: 463 – 468.
- Kato, M.J., Chu, A., Davin, L.B., Lewis, N.G. (1998). Biosynthesis of antioxidant lignans in Sesamum indicum seeds. *Phytochemistry* 47: 583–591.
- Kent, N. L. and Evers, A. D. (1994). Technology of Cereals, 4th ed., Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- Lay, C.L. and Dybing. D.D. (1989). Linseed in Oil Crops of the World. Robbelen, G., Downey, R.K. and Ashri, A. (Eds.). McGraw Hill, New York.
- Lemay, A., Dodin, S. and Kadri, N. (2002). Flaxseed dietary supplement versus hormone replacement therapy in hypercholesterolemic menopausal women. *Obstet. Gynecol.*, 100: 495 504.
- Lorens, K., Dilsaver, W. and Wolt, M. (1979). Faba bean flour and protein concentrate in baked goods and in pasta products. Bakers Digest, 53: 39– 42.
- Madhusudhan, K.T. and Singh, N. (1983). Studies on linseed proteins. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 31: 959 963.
- McWatters, K. H., Ouedraogo, J. B., Resurrection, A. V. A., Hung, Y. C. and Philips, R. D. (2003). Physical and sensory characteristics of sugar cookies containing mixtures of wheat, fonio (*Digitaria exilis*) and cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*) flours. *Intern. J. Food Science and Technol.*, 38: 403– 410.
- Official Methods of Analysis of the Association of Analytical Chemists (1990). Kenneth Helrich (Ed.), 15th ed., Arlington, Virginia, USA.
- Oomah, B.D. and Mazza, G. (1995). Functional properties, uses of flaxseed protein. *INFORM*, 6 (11): 1246 1252.

- Parasad, K. (1999). Reduction of serum cholesterol and hypercholesterolemic atherosclerosis in rabbits by secoisolariciresinol diglycoside isolated from flaxseed. *Circulation*, 99 (10): 1355 1362.
- Quail, K. J. (1996). Arabic bread production. American Association of Cereal Chemists, Inc., St. Paul, Minnesota.
- Rakowska, M., Szkilladziowa, W. and Kunachowicz, M. (1978). Biologiczna wartosc białka zywności. WN-T, Warszawa.
- Rose, D.P. (1993). Ďiet, hormones, and cancers. Annual Review of Public Health. 14: 1 17.
- Shearer, A. E. H. and Davies, C. G. A. (2005). Physicochemical properties of freshly baked and stored whole-wheat muffins with and without flaxseed meal. *J. Food Quality*, 28 (2): 137.
- Shrestha, A. K. and Noomhorm, A. (2002). Comparison of physicochemical properties of biscuits supplemented with soy and Kinema flours. *Intern. J. Food Science and Technol*, 37: 361–368.
- Steel, R. G. D., Torrie, J. H. and Dickey, D. A. (1997). Principles and procedures of statistics, a biometrical approach (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill Book Co. Inc..
- Subar, A. F., Krebs-Smith, S. M., Cook, A. and Kahle, L. L. (1998). Dietary sources of nutrients among US adults. *J. Am Diet Assoc.* 98:537–547.
- Taussky, H.H., Shorr, E. (1953). A microcolorimetric method for the determination of inorganic phosphorus. J. Biological Chemistry, 202: 675– 682
- Tsen, C. C., Bates, L. S., Wall Sr, L. L. and Gehrke, C. W. (1982). Effect of baking on amino acid in pizza crust. *J. Food Sci.*, 47: 674 675.
- USDA (United States Department of Agriculture), Agriculture Research Service. (1999). USDA Nutrient Database for Standard Reference, Release 13. Nutrient Data Laboratory Home Page: www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/foodcomp.

الجودة التغاوية والحسية للكعك المدعم بكسب الكتان والسمسم ربيع يوسف خطاب وأشرف عبد المنعم زيتون قسم علوم الأغذية - كلية الزراعة - سابا باشا - جامعة الإسكندرية

تم اجراء هذا البحث بينف تقييم استخدام كسب الكتان والسمسم كمادة مدتمة للكك. تسم تقييم الكعك المصنع من دقيق القدح (استخلاص ٧٧) والمدعم بكسب الكتان والسمسم (١:١ وزن/زن) بنبئة و - ٢٥ ثونين المواد المستخدمة (دقيق القمح، كسب الكتان، وكسب السمسم) وكذلك الكعك الناتج، ومؤشرات جودة اليروتين المود المستخدمة (دقيق القمح، كسب الكتان، وكسب السمسم) وكذلك الكعك الناتج، أوضحت النتانج أن نسب البروتين الخام في كسب الكتان، وكسب السمسم كانت مرتفعة (١٨٨٠، ١٠٠٠؛ ش، على الترتيب) مقارنة بدقيق القصح (١١,٢١٥). كسا كسان السمسم كانت مرتفعة (١٨٨٠، ١٠٠٠؛ ش، على الترتيب) مقارنة بدقيق القصح (١١,٢١٥). كسا كسان مخلوط كسب الكتان والسمسم الى زيادة معنوية في محتوى البروتين الخام، الرماد، الكالسيوم، الفوسفور، الفوسفور، الفوسفور، النوتين والموسنية الأساسية وحدوث تحسن ماحوظ في معايير جودة البروتين (نسبة كفاءة البروتين المحتوى الكعك النات ايضا الى المحتوى الكعك من الأهينية الأساسية وحدوث تحسن ملحوظ في معايير جودة البروتين ودليسل للأحماض الأهينية الأساسية وحدوث تحسن ملحوظ في معايير جودة البروتين (نسبة الأحماض الأهينية الأساسية وحدوث تحسن ملحوظ في معايير جودة البروتين (نسبة الأحماض الأمينية الأساسية من ٥٠ - ٢٥٠٠، أوضحت نتائج التقييم الحسي الكتان والسمسم من ٥ - ٢٠٥٠، أوضحت نتائج التقييم الحسي الكتان والسمسم من ٥ - ٢٠٥٠، أوضحت نتائج التقييم الحسي الكتان والسمسم عن ٥١٥٠ الناز الكمك المضاف اليه مسحوق الكاكاو عند المستويات المختلفة من مخلوط كسب الكتان والسمسم وحيث أن هذه المضاف اليه مسحوق الكاكاو عند المستويات المختلفة من مخلوط كسب الكتان والسمسم وحيث أن هذه المضاف اليه مسحوق الكاكاو عند المستويات المختلفة من مخلوط كسب الكتان والسمسم وحيث أن هذه المضاف اليه مناوية منخوط كسب الكتان والسمسم وحيث أن هذه المضاف اليه والتحد هي الدراسة باستخدام مخلوط كسب الكتان والسمسم وحيث أن هذه المواد هي التابع والصحية.