

NUTRITIONAL, PHYTOCHEMICAL, AND SENSORY CHARACTERIZATION OF GLUTEN-FREE COOKIES DEVELOPED FROM RICE, CHICKPEA, AND BANANA PEEL COMPOSITE FLOUR

Shabahat Iqbal¹, Anum Urooj^{*1}, Maryyum Afzal², Areeba Bashir¹,
Muhammad Mudassir Rasheed³, Mahmood Khan¹, Muhammad Asif⁴, Nimra Arshad¹,
Arawat Fatima⁵

¹National Institute of Food Science and Technology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, Pakistan.

²Department of Botany, University of Okara, Okara, Pakistan.

³Department of Allied Health Sciences, The University of Chenab, Gujrat, Pakistan.

⁴Department of Food Science and Technology, UAF Constituent College, Burewala, Pakistan.

⁵Department of Food Science and Technology, Government College, University, Faisalabad, Pakistan.

^{*1}anumurooj.uaf@gmail.com

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Corresponding Author: *

Anum Urooj

Abstract

Cereal grains are widely consumed to meet human energy requirements; however, gluten proteins present in Wheat, Rye, Barley, and Triticale can trigger health issues such as Celiac Disease. This study aimed to develop nutritionally enriched gluten-free cookies using composite flours of Rice Flour, Chickpea Flour, and Banana Peel Powder in different proportions. Proximate analysis showed improved nutritional composition with increasing chickpea and banana peel flour, including higher protein (6.13–14.97%), fat (7.14–19.23%), fiber (1.82–7.38%), ash (1.03–4.48%), and moisture (2.44–5.43%). The health-promoting properties include total phenolic contents (50.01–125.55 mg GAE/100g), total flavonoid contents (20.40–60.54 mg QE/100g), and antioxidant activity (6.82–8.62%). Physical properties such as weight, diameter, thickness, and spread ratio significantly effect ($p < 0.05$) with the addition of composite flour. Sensory evaluation showed the highest overall acceptability for cookies containing 40% rice flour, 50% chickpea flour, and 10% banana peel flour, demonstrating potential for nutritious and consumer-acceptable gluten-free products.

Introduction

Celiac disease (CD), also known as gluten-sensitive enteropathy, is a chronic immune-mediated autoimmune disorder that primarily affects the small intestine in genetically predisposed individuals (Bai & Ciacci, 2017; Caio et al., 2019). It is triggered by the ingestion of gluten, a storage protein found in wheat, barley, and rye (Shewry & Hey, 2015). In individuals carrying HLA-DQ2 and/or HLA-DQ8 haplotypes, partially digested gluten peptides, particularly gliadin, induce a T-

cell-mediated immune response that leads to villous atrophy, crypt hyperplasia, and impaired nutrient absorption. Clinically, CD presents with a wide spectrum of manifestations ranging from classic gastrointestinal symptoms such as diarrhea, abdominal pain, and weight loss to extra-intestinal complications including iron-deficiency anemia, osteoporosis, dermatitis herpetiformis, and neurological disorders (Singh et al., 2018) Globally, CD affects approximately 1% of the population, with pooled seroprevalence and

biopsy-confirmed prevalence estimated at 1.4% and 0.7% (Singh et al., 2018). The incidence has increased in recent decades due to improved diagnostic awareness and possible epidemiological growth (Agarwal et al., 2020). Asia indicates prevalence rates between 0.5% and 1.6%, while studies from Pakistan suggest that nearly 1.3% of the population may be affected (Mohta et al., 2021). Owing to its chronic nature and associated nutritional deficiencies and complications, CD shows a growing global public health concern (Akhtar et al., 2021).

Gluten is a structural storage protein present in wheat, barley, rye, and spelt, mainly composed of gliadins and glutenins that provide viscoelastic properties to dough (Shewry & Hey, 2015; Ciaccio et al., 2015). In genetically predisposed individuals carrying HLA-DQ2 or HLA-DQ8 haplotypes, gluten ingestion triggers an abnormal immune response that leads to inflammation of the small intestinal mucosa and autoimmune enteropathy (Sapone et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2020). Highly immunogenic α -gliadin peptides play a crucial role in this process by activating immune responses that cause villous atrophy and impaired nutrient absorption (Jafari et al., 2018; Cabanillas, 2020; Sapone et al., 2012).

Currently, a lifelong gluten-free diet (GFD) remains the only effective management strategy for individuals with CD; however, it may lead to several nutritional challenges (Gun et al., 2021; Choina et al., 2022). Nutrient deficiencies can arise from both intestinal malabsorption and the restrictive nature of the GFD (Pinto-Sanchez & Bai, 2019). Common deficiencies at diagnosis include iron, folate, vitamin B12, vitamin D, and zinc, with iron deficiency reported in up to 28% of pediatric patients (Wessels et al., 2016). Impaired absorption of calcium and fat-soluble vitamins may also contribute to reduced bone mineral density and an increased risk of fractures. Inadequate intake may persist due to limited dietary diversity and the poor nutritional composition of many gluten-free products (Verma, 2021).

Gluten-containing cereals are important sources of iron, folate, calcium, and B-complex vitamins; therefore, their exclusion from the diet may

increase the risk of micronutrient deficiencies. Many commercial gluten-free products are often lower in protein, higher in fat, less frequently fortified, and more expensive than conventional products (Allen & Orfila, 2018). Adherence to a GFD can also be challenging due to limited availability, high cost, and insufficient dietary awareness, particularly in developing countries (Hassan & A-Kader, 2014; Salih et al., 2021). Consequently, nutritional monitoring, professional dietary guidance, and the development of nutritionally enriched gluten-free foods are essential for improving health outcomes in individuals with CD (Choina et al., 2022).

The global demand for gluten-free products has increased considerably due to the rising prevalence of CD, gluten sensitivity, and growing consumer health awareness. Market analyses indicate that the gluten-free market expanded from USD 4.18 billion in 2017 to USD 6.47 billion in 2023. Data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) (2009–2012) showed that approximately 0.9% of participants followed a gluten-free diet, although most did not have a confirmed diagnosis of CD (Mardini et al., 2015), indicating increasing consumption of gluten-free products among the general population.

Despite the growing demand for gluten-free bakery products, these foods are often more expensive, less accessible, and nutritionally inferior to conventional products, particularly in terms of protein and micronutrient content (Allen & Orfila, 2018; Muir et al., 2019). To improve their nutritional quality, the incorporation of nutrient-dense ingredients such as legumes, cereals, and fruit by-products has been widely explored (Woomer & Adedeji, 2021; Mir et al., 2016). In developing countries, including Pakistan, the limited availability and high cost of gluten-free products highlight the need to develop affordable and nutritionally enriched bakery products using locally available ingredients (Atsawarungruangkit et al., 2020).

Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is widely used as a gluten-free substitute for wheat due to its hypoallergenic nature, high digestibility, and desirable sensory properties. However, rice flour is relatively low in

protein and deficient in lysine, which limits its nutritional value (Jiao et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2021). To improve its nutritional quality, rice flour can be combined with legume-based flours such as chickpea (*Cicer arietinum*), which is rich in protein, dietary fiber, minerals, and bioactive compounds. Incorporation of chickpea flour has been reported to enhance protein content and resistant starch in gluten-free products without adversely affecting sensory quality (El-Sohaimy et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021). Banana (*Musa sapientum*) peel (an agro-industrial waste) flour has gained attention as a functional ingredient due to its high levels of dietary fiber, polyphenols, carotenoids, and essential minerals (Gomes et al., 2022).

Despite the increasing prevalence of CD and the growing demand for gluten-free foods, nutritionally balanced and affordable gluten-free bakery products remain limited, particularly in developing countries. Many commercial gluten-free products are expensive and nutritionally inferior, often containing low protein and limited micronutrient fortification. Although rice flour is widely used in gluten-free formulations, its low protein content reduces the overall nutritional quality of the final product. Therefore, the development of nutritionally enriched gluten-free cookies using composite flours. Subsequently, the effect of composite flour on chemical

composition, physical properties, biofunctional characterization, and sensorial attributes of gluten free cookies

Materials and methods

Procurement of raw material

Raw materials (rice grains, chickpea seeds, and banana peels) were purchased from the local market in Faisalabad. Other baking ingredients, including sugar, salt, baking powder, eggs, butter, and flavoring agents were purchased from local shops. All chemicals and reagents used for analyses were purchased of analytical grade (Merck, Germany). All raw materials were stored at room temperature (25 ± 2 °C) before analysis.

2.2 Preparation of raw material

Rice grains and chickpea seeds were manually cleaned to remove extraneous matter, such as dust and stones. Samples were ground using a laboratory mill and passed through a standard sieve to obtain a uniform particle size. Banana fruits were washed thoroughly with distilled water, peeled, and sliced. Banana peels were dried in a hot-air oven at 60–70°C until constant weight, then ground to a fine powder (60-mesh sieve), following the procedure described by Urooj et al. (2026a). All flours were stored in airtight polythene bags to prevent moisture absorption and contamination.



Figure 1: Flow diagram for preparation of rice, chickpea, and banana peel flours

Cookies Development

Cookies were prepared using varying concentrations of rice, chickpea, and banana peel flour by following the method outlined by Oyeyinka et al. (2018). Cookie dough was prepared by mixing composite flour (rice flour, chickpea flour, and banana peel flour), sugar, salt, baking powder, eggs, butter, vanilla essence, and water using a laboratory mixer for 10 minutes to obtain a homogeneous dough consistency. The dough was rested for 10-15 minutes to improve

dough viscoelastic properties. The dough was then sheeted to approximately 5 mm thickness and cut using standard cookie molds. Baking was performed at 180-220 °C for 15-25 minutes according to treatment design. After baking, the cookies were cooled at ambient temperature (25 ± 2 °C) and packed in polythene bags for subsequent analysis, following the study method of gluten-free approach to cookies preparation as described by Kohli et al. (2023)

Table 1. Development of cookies using composite flours

Treatments	Rice flour (%)	Chickpea flour (%)	Banana peel flour (%)
T ₀	100	0	0
T ₁	70	20	10
T ₂	40	50	10
T ₃	10	80	10

Product characterization

Proximate composition analysis

The proximate composition of cookies, including moisture, crude protein, crude fat, crude fiber, ash, and carbohydrate content, was determined according to the standard methods of the AOAC (2019).

Physical properties

The diameter of cookies was measured using a vernier caliper at different positions, and the average diameter was recorded. The thickness was determined by stacking three cookies on top of each other and measuring their combined height using a vernier caliper. The measurements were repeated by rearranging cookies, and the average thickness was calculated. The spread ratio is determined by dividing the diameter by the thickness (Zahid et al., 2025).

$$\text{Spread Ratio} = \frac{\text{Diameter}}{\text{Thickness}}$$

Phytochemical characterization

Preparation of Extracts

For the extraction of bioactive compounds, 2 g of the cookie sample was mixed with 20 mL of 80%

methanol. The mixture was placed on a mechanical shaker and agitated at 200 rpm for 2 hours to facilitate the extraction of phenolic and flavonoid compounds. Subsequently, the mixture was centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 10 minutes, after which the supernatant was carefully collected and used for the determination of total phenolic content (TPC), total flavonoid content (TFC), and DPPH radical scavenging activity, following the method described by Asif et al. (2024).

Total phenolic contents (TPC)

Total phenolic content of the cookie samples was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteu (FC) colorimetric method following the procedure described by Asif et al. (2023) and Urooj et al. (2026a). The sample extract was mixed with Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (1:1, v/v), followed by the addition of 2.5 mL sodium carbonate solution (7.5%). The sample mixture was incubated at room temperature for 30 min to allow color development. The absorbance of the resulting solution was then measured at 765 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Total phenolic content was expressed as milligrams of gallic acid

equivalents (mg GAE/100 g) of sample based on the calibration curve of gallic acid.

Total flavonoid content (TFC)

Total flavonoid content of the cookie samples was determined using the method outlined by Asif et al. (2025b). 0.25 mL of the sample extract was mixed with 0.75 mL of 5% sodium nitrite and 1.25 mL of distilled water, and the mixture was allowed to stand at room temperature for 6 min. Subsequently, 150 µL of 10% aluminum chloride solution was added, and the total volume was adjusted to 2.5 mL with distilled water. The absorbance of the resulting solution was measured at 510 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Total flavonoid content was expressed as milligrams of quercetin equivalents (mg QE/100 g) of the sample based on the quercetin calibration curve.

$$DPPH\ Radical\ Scavenging\ Activity(\%) = \frac{(AB - AS)}{AB} \times 100$$

Where:

AB = Absorbance of blank

AS = Absorbance of sample

Color analysis

Color characteristics of cookie samples were determined using a calibrated colorimeter following standard instrumental color measurement techniques by Naqvi et al. (2025)



Free radical scavenging activity (DPPH)

The antioxidant activity of the cookie samples was determined using the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging assay spectrophotometric analysis following the modified method described by Tüter et al. (2025). Briefly, cookies samples were extracted using methanol, and appropriate aliquots of extract (75-200 µL) were diluted with methanol to obtain a final volume of 200 µL. The extract solutions were then mixed with 3.8-4.0 mL of DPPH working solution (6×10^{-5} mol/L). The reaction mixtures were incubated in the dark at room temperature for 30-60 minutes. After incubation, absorbance was measured using a spectrophotometer at 515 nm against 95% methanol as a blank. Antioxidant activity was expressed as percentage DPPH radical scavenging capacity.

and Saadoudi et al. (2024). Measurements were taken from different surface points of each cookie sample. Color difference (ΔE), chroma (C^*), and whitening index (WI) were calculated using the following equations:

$$\Delta E = \sqrt{(L^* - L^*_{std})^2 + (a^* - a^*_{std})^2 + (b^* - b^*_{std})^2}$$

$$C^* = \sqrt{(a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2}$$

$$WI = 100 - \sqrt{(100 - L^*)^2 + (a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2}$$

Here, std indicates the standard sample.

Sensory evaluation

Sensory evaluation of cookie samples was conducted using a 9-point hedonic scale following methods reported by Urooj et al. (2026b), with semi-trained panelists. A total of 20-25 panelists participated in the evaluation. Panelists were trained to evaluate sensory attributes, including color, taste, flavor, texture, mouthfeel, crispness, and overall acceptability. Cookie samples were presented in coded, randomized order to avoid

bias. Panelists were instructed to rinse their mouths with water between samples to minimize carryover effects. Sensory scores were recorded using a structured 9-point hedonic scale, where 9 = like extremely and 1 = dislike extremely.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were conducted in triplicate, and the results were expressed as mean values \pm standard deviation (SD). Significant differences

were determined using Tukey’s Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test for pairwise comparison of treatment means at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. Different superscript letters within the same column of tables indicate statistically significant differences among treatments. All statistical analyses were performed using Statistix 8.1 software (Analytical Software, USA) (Urooj et al., 2026; Naqvi et al., 2024; Asif et al., 2024).

Results and discussion

Chemical composition of cookies

The chemical composition of gluten-free cookies was significantly affected by the incorporation of chickpea flour and banana peel powder ($p < 0.05$), as presented in Table 2. Moisture content increased from 2.44% in T_0 to 5.43% in T_3 , which may be attributed to the higher water-holding capacity of chickpea flour and the fiber-rich nature of banana peel powder as reported in legume-

enriched bakery products (Dahal et al., 2022), although increased moisture may reduce shelf stability due to greater microbial susceptibility (Javed et al., 2021). Fat content also increased significantly, ranging from 7.14% in T_0 to 19.23% in T_3 , likely due to the higher lipid content of chickpea flour (Jabeen et al., 2022). Similarly, crude fiber content increased from 1.82% to 7.38%, reflecting the substantial dietary fiber contribution of chickpea flour and banana peel powder (Bayomy & Alamri, 2022; Jabeen et al., 2022). Ash content increased from 1.03% to 4.48%, indicating enhanced mineral content in composite flour formulations compared with rice flour (Dhankhar et al., 2021). Likewise, protein content increased significantly from 6.13% to 14.97%, primarily due to the high protein content of chickpea flour (18-25%). Similar improvements in protein levels following legume flour incorporation have been reported by Sofi et al. (2019).

Table 2. Chemical Composition of Cookies supplemented with composite flour

Treatments	Moisture (%)	Fat (%)	Fiber (%)	Ash (%)	Protein (%)
T_0	2.44±0.0124 ^d	7.14±0.0163 ^d	1.82±0.0125 ^d	1.03±0.0163 ^d	6.13±0.0082 ^d
T_1	3.87±0.0124 ^c	10.35±0.0124 ^c	3.34±0.008 ^c	2.14±0.0047 ^c	8.18±0.0125 ^c
T_2	4.67±0.0124 ^b	14.81±0.0124 ^b	5.36±0.0125 ^b	3.32±0.0169 ^b	11.57±0.0169 ^b
T_3	5.43±0.0124 ^a	19.23±0.0205 ^a	7.38±0.0125 ^a	4.48±0.0082 ^a	14.97±0.0125 ^a

Physical properties

The physical properties of gluten-free cookies, including spread ratio, diameter, thickness, and weight, were significantly influenced by composite flour substitution, as presented in Table 3.

The weight of cookies increased significantly ($p < 0.05$) from 6.44 ± 0.02 g in T_0 to 9.93 ± 0.02 g in T_3 . This increase may be due to the higher protein and fiber contents of chickpea and banana peel flour, which enhance water absorption and retention in the dough matrix as outlined by Kaur & Gill (2020). The diameter of cookies increased slightly from 5.12 ± 0.01 cm in T_0 to 5.25 ± 0.02 mm in T_3 . This increase may be associated with enhanced water absorption and changes in dough

structure due to higher protein and fiber content in the composite flour. Similarly, cookie thickness increased significantly ($p < 0.05$) from 4.23 ± 0.01 cm (T_0) to 4.66 ± 0.02 cm (T_3). The increase in thickness may be attributed to the formation of a stronger dough resulting from protein enrichment, which improves structural stability during baking (Dogruer et al., 2023a; Soni et al., 2018). The spread ratio increased significantly ($p < 0.05$) from 5.23 ± 0.01 in T_0 (control) to 10.14 ± 0.01 in T_3 . The increase in the spread ratio may be attributed to modifications in the dough viscoelastic properties caused by the incorporation of chickpea flour, as reported by Soni et al. (2018).

Table 3. Physical characteristics of cookies prepared from composite flour

Treatments	Weight (g)	Diameter (mm)	Thickness (mm)	Spread Ratio (-)
T ₀	6.44 ± 0.02 ^d	5.12 ± 0.01 ^b	4.23 ± 0.01 ^b	5.23 ± 0.01 ^d
T ₁	7.30 ± 0.01 ^c	5.14 ± 0.01 ^b	4.50 ± 0.08 ^b	6.99 ± 0.01 ^c
T ₂	8.61 ± 0.01 ^b	5.23 ± 0.02 ^a	4.53 ± 0.01 ^a	8.29 ± 0.01 ^b
T ₃	9.93 ± 0.02 ^a	5.25 ± 0.02 ^a	4.66 ± 0.02 ^a	10.14 ± 0.01 ^a

Phytochemical characterization

The phytochemical properties of gluten-free cookies were evaluated through total phenolic content (TPC), total flavonoid content (TFC), and DPPH radical scavenging activity as presented in Table 4. TPC increased significantly from 50.01 mg GAE/100 g in T₀ to 125.55 mg GAE/100 g in T₃, which may be attributed to the high concentration of phenolic compounds present in banana peel powder and legumes. Similar increases in phenolic content following plant-based fortification of bakery products have been reported by Shahwar et al. (2012). A comparable trend was observed for TFC, which increased from 20.40 mg QE/100 g in T₀ to 60.54 mg QE/100 g

in T₃, indicating enrichment of bioactive flavonoids from chickpea flour and banana peel powder. The DPPH radical scavenging activity ranged from 6.82% to 8.62%, with the highest activity observed in T₁ (8.62 ± 0.05%). The improved antioxidant capacity of composite formulations may be associated with the presence of phenolic and flavonoid compounds. However, the slight reduction at higher substitution levels (T₃) may be due to thermal degradation of phenolics or phenolic-protein interactions during baking. Similar observations have been reported in plant-fortified bakery products (Shalaby et al., 2022).

Table 5. Phytochemical characterization of cookies prepared from composite flour

Treatments	TPC (mg GAE/100 g)	TFC (mg QE/100 g)	DPPH (%)
T ₀	50.01 ± 0.2 ^a	20.40 ± 0.5 ^a	6.82 ± 0.03 ^d
T ₁	80.04 ± 0.3 ^b	35.55 ± 0.2 ^b	7.52 ± 0.01 ^c
T ₂	110.05 ± 0.4 ^c	50.40 ± 0.5 ^c	7.79 ± 0.02 ^b
T ₃	125.55 ± 0.5 ^d	60.54 ± 0.3 ^d	8.62 ± 0.05 ^a

Color analysis

Color is an important quality attribute affecting the consumer acceptability of baked products. The color parameters of gluten-free cookies showed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among treatments, as presented in Table 5. The total color difference (ΔE) increased from 0.00 to 6.08, indicating noticeable color variation between the control and composite formulations. It may be attributed to the natural pigments' hydrolysis, non-enzymatic browning, which contributes to browning during baking. Chroma (C*) values showed only minor variation (27.38–28.63), indicating a reduction in color saturation, due to the higher redness (a*) of supplemented cookies. The decrease in Chroma may be due to the dilution of yellow pigments (b*) and increased fiber content affecting light

reflection (Hernández et al., 2016). The whiteness index (WI) also showed a significant increase from 37.11 in the control to 42.40 in T₃. Although composite flours generally tend to darken bakery products, the specific balance of rice flour with chickpea and banana peel components may have influenced light scattering and surface characteristics, resulting in higher WI values. Changes in moisture content and surface structure during baking may also affect the reflection of light, contributing to variations in whiteness. These findings are consistent with Dogruer et al. (2023b) showing that the incorporation of chickpea flour significantly influences the CIELAB color parameters of gluten-free cookies due to ingredient pigments and Maillard browning reactions during baking.

Treatments	ΔE	Chroma (C*)	WI
T ₀	0±0.00 ^d	27.38±0.08 ^b	37.11±0.15 ^d
T ₁	2.09±0.05 ^c	28.02±0.10 ^{ab}	38.55±0.10 ^c
T ₂	4.89±0.07 ^b	28.63±0.12 ^a	41.80±0.12 ^b
T ₃	6.08±0.08 ^a	28.69±0.09 ^a	42.40±0.11 ^a

Sensory Evaluation

Sensory evaluation of gluten-free cookies was conducted to assess color, texture, taste, flavor, and overall acceptability. The results indicated that the incorporation of chickpea flour and banana peel powder significantly influenced the sensory characteristics of the cookies (Figure 2). Color scores increased from 6.11 ± 0.0125 (T₀) to 7.74 ± 0.0125 (T₃), which may be attributed to the natural pigments of chickpea flour and enhanced Maillard browning reactions during baking. Similar effects of legume flour on color development have been reported by Sibian and Riar (2020). Texture scores also improved with increasing levels of chickpea flour, rising from 7.49 ± 0.0125 (T₀) to 8.57 ± 0.0125 (T₃), possibly due to the higher protein and dietary fiber content contributing to a desirable crisp texture. Comparable findings were reported by Benkadri et al. (2018). Taste and flavor scores ranged from

7.02 ± 0.0169 to 8.17 ± 0.0163 and 7.02 ± 0.0205 to 7.81 ± 0.0082, respectively, indicating that the composite flour formulation enhanced sensory perception. Similar observations regarding the influence of fiber-rich ingredients on sensory properties were reported by Paciulli et al. (2018) and Sharma and Devi (2021). Overall acceptability followed a similar trend, with the highest score observed for T₃ (8.23 ± 0.0163) compared to 7.60 ± 0.0817 in T₀. These results suggest that the incorporation of chickpea flour and banana peel powder improved the sensory quality of the cookies, with T₃ identified as the most acceptable formulation. A review on the application of legumes in gluten-free foods indicates that the inclusion of legume and high-fiber flours can influence sensory attributes such as color, texture, and overall acceptability, particularly when appropriately balanced with other ingredients (Imam et al., 2024).

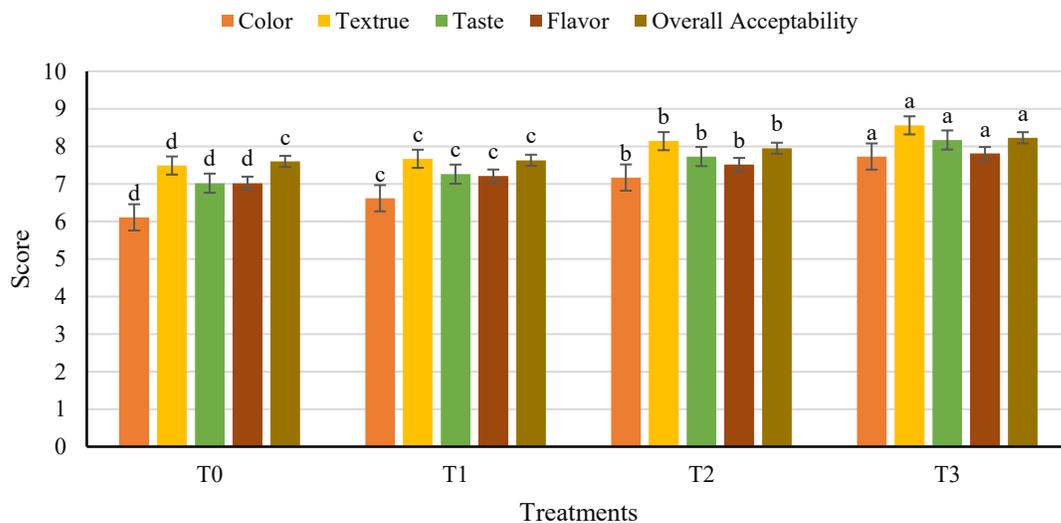


Figure 2. Effect of various concentration of gluten-free cookies prepared from composite flour

Conclusion

The study developed nutritionally enriched gluten-free cookies using composite flours of Rice Flour, Chickpea Flour, and Banana Peel Powder. Incorporation of chickpea and banana peel flour significantly improved the nutritional composition by increasing protein, dietary fiber, fat, and mineral content, along with better moisture retention. Phytochemical analysis showed that moderate levels of these flours enhanced antioxidant activity, indicating the functional potential of banana peel powder. Physical properties such as spread ratio, cookie diameter, thickness, and hardness were also positively influenced, resulting in desirable structural characteristics. Color analysis demonstrated acceptable variations in lightness, redness, and yellowness, contributing to product appeal. Sensory evaluation revealed good consumer acceptance, with improvements in color, texture, flavor, taste, and overall acceptability at higher substitution levels. Overall, composite flour from rice, chickpea, and banana peel offers a cost-effective, locally available ingredient for producing nutritionally balanced gluten-free cookies suitable for individuals with Celiac Disease and health-conscious consumers.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no known conflict of interest.

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