



## The effect of amaranth oil on proteinuria in lupus prone mice

Danik Martirosyan<sup>\*1,2</sup>, Jack Hutcheson<sup>1</sup>, Deena Sajitharan<sup>1</sup>, Samantha Williams<sup>2</sup>, Chandra Mohan<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, The University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA; <sup>2</sup>Functional Food Center/Functional Food Institute, Dallas, TX, USA

**\*Corresponding Author:** Danik Martirosyan, PhD, Functional Food Center/Functional Food Institute, Dallas, TX, USA

**Submission Date:** September 29<sup>th</sup>, 2021; **Acceptance Date:** October 25<sup>th</sup>, 2021; **Publication Date:** October 26, 2021

**Please cite this as:** Martirosyan D., Hutcheson J., Sajitharan D., Williams S., Mohan C. The effect of amaranth oil on proteinuria in lupus prone mice. *Functional Food Science* 2021. 1(10): 39-49. DOI: <https://www.doi.org/10.31989/ffs.v1i10.848>

### ABSTRACT

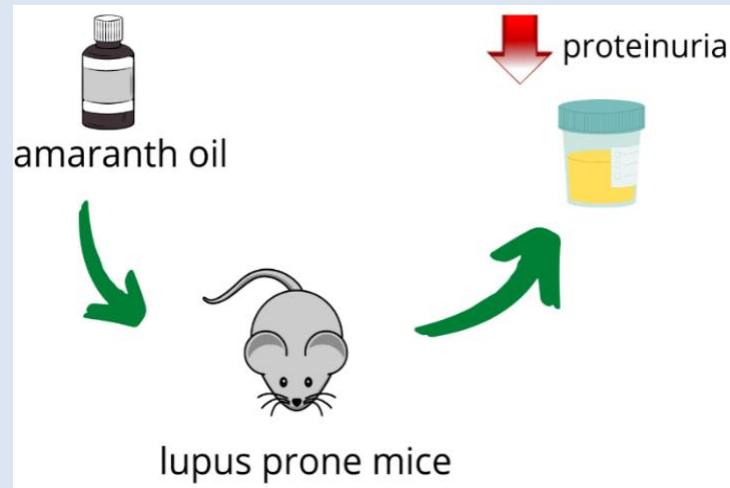
**Background:** Kidney disease is a leading cause of death in the United States and the world. Proteinuria signifies kidney damage and can exacerbate kidney disease. It has become an important indicator of kidney disease; reducing proteinuria results in renoprotective effects and slows renal disease. Existing treatments do not work for every patient.

**Aim of Study:** Amaranth is a tropical plant that was regularly consumed in the ancient Central American diet. It has a plethora of health effects and is a strong functional food candidate. This study examines whether a regular oral dose of amaranth oil decreased proteinuria concentration in murine subjects.

**Methods:** Mice in the experimental group (n = 3) were given 4 $\mu$ l of amaranth oil per gram of mouse weight for 5 days a week over 84 days. Control mice (n = 2) were sham treated on the same schedule with no oil. Urine protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay, measuring absorbance at 595nm, then comparing with a BSA standard curve.

**Results:** The experimental group showed decreased proteinuria levels throughout the entire 84 days of study

**Conclusion:** Results show amaranth oil may help decrease proteinuria levels in lupus prone murine subjects. Given the small sample size, the data are preliminary. More research is needed to validate the results and determine the optimal dose and treatment schedule.



**Key words:** proteinuria, amaranth oil, renoprotective, kidney disease, renal disease, lupus, functional food

©FFC 2021. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>)

## INTRODUCTION

Kidney disease is the 8th leading cause of death in the United States and 10th in the world [1-2]. Proteinuria is defined as the presence of proteins in the urine [3]. It signifies kidney damage and can exacerbate kidney disease [4-6]. In addition, proteinuria has been shown to increase the risk of renal impairment, hypertension, and cardiovascular disease [5, 7-10]. It has become an important indicator of kidney disease, may help diagnose preeclampsia, and is common in kidney transplant recipients [5, 8-9, 11-14]. In kidney transplant patients, proteinuria is associated with decreased kidney survival, significantly greater risk of graft loss, and increased patient death [14-17]. Reducing proteinuria results in renoprotective effects and slows renal disease [5, 18]. Conditions that can lead to proteinuria include immune disorders, such as systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), as

well as preeclampsia, diabetes, and increased oxidative stress [19-20].

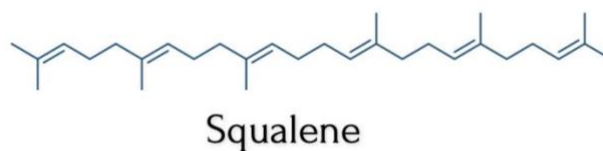
Current treatments include various medications and dietary changes [7, 18]. The general treatment of choice is to inhibit the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) via an angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or angiotensin II receptor blocker, but it can be unsafe or ineffective for certain patients [9, 21-25]. Another treatment is anti-vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) therapy, but it may be related to kidney injury and chronic use can exacerbate interstitial fibrosis [9, 26]. Specific treatments include angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, angiotensin receptor blockers, restricting dietary protein and sodium, lowering blood pressure, renin inhibitors, aldosterone antagonists, non-dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers, and pentoxifylline [14, 25, 27-34]. In kidney transplant

patients, ACE inhibitors, angiotensin receptor blockers, and restricting dietary protein have also been shown to decrease proteinuria [14]. While further study might be warranted for these treatments, it would be ideal to have alternatives. In other studies, hydroxychloroquine and curcumin were successful in decreasing proteinuria [35-36].

The SLE autoimmunity and inflammatory processes are related to changes in the lipid profile, specifically alteration in lipid metabolism and increased oxidative stress [37-38]. Notably, in patients with lupus, oleic acid is decreased and linoleic acid is associated with higher disease activity [39-40]. In addition to anticancer and anti-inflammatory qualities, conjugated linoleic acid has previously been shown to decrease SLE related oxidative stress via activating detoxifying enzymes and improving antioxidant status [41]. Additionally, past studies found that SLE patient serum had lower  $\alpha$ -tocopherol concentration, as well as decreased plasma antioxidant status due to lower plasma superoxide dismutase, and glutathione peroxidase activity [38, 42-43].

Amaranth is an ancient tropical plant that was regularly consumed by the Aztecs, Inca, and Maya [44-45]. The food value of 100g of amaranth oil is noted in Table 1. Notably, compared to cereal alternatives, the grain has more proteins, lipids, and minerals [46]. It is rich in antioxidants and phytochemicals, and has previously been shown to have antihypertensive, antidiabetic, and anticholesteremic effects [47-52]. These properties have been attributed to amaranth having ample monosaturated fatty acids, polyunsaturated fatty acids,

squalene, linoleic acids, and essential amino acids [47-48, 53]. Major fatty acids in amaranth oil include palmitic acid (19.1–23.4%), oleic acid (18.7–38.9%), and linoleic acid (36.7–55.9%) [47, 54]. It was also reported to have 2.4-8% squalene, more than other vegetable oils [54]. The chemical structure of squalene is shown in Figure 1. Furthermore, amaranth contains tocopherols and tocotrienols [47, 52, 55-57], which are isoforms of vitamin E and exhibit antioxidant activity [58]. Particularly, they can protect against lipid peroxidation on cell membranes, preventing oxidative damage [59].



**Figure 1.** The chemical structure of squalene. Amaranth oil is particularly rich in squalene (2.4-8%).

In addition, the omega-6 to omega-3 ratio for amaranth ranges from 54.9 to 68.63, considerably higher than that of many cereals [60]. Martirosyan and co-authors found that changes in the fatty acid composition of erythrocyte membranes due to amaranth oil were only evident with 18ml of oil daily; these changes were partly due to squalene [47]. Lee et al found that while omega-3 fatty acid supplementation did not seem to affect proteinuria in diabetes mellitus patients, it did result in significantly higher oleic acid and omega-6 fatty acid erythrocyte membrane contents [61].

Finally, amaranth contains bioactive peptides [46, 62-64]. Previous researchers found amaranth derived peptides and tetrapeptides with ACE-inhibitory activity

[65-67]. Others found a variety of potential effects including antihypertensive, antioxidative, and antithrombotic [65, 68]. Moreover, a number of researchers investigated emulsions and foods made with amaranth and found they still show antihypertensive effects [46, 63, 69-72]. Overall, amaranth has considerable potential as a functional food and warrants further research. This study examines whether a regular oral dose of amaranth oil decreased proteinuria concentration in murine subjects.

#### METHODS and MATERIALS

**Mice:** B6.Sle1.Sle2.Sle3 mice (n = 5) were bred and housed at University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center. Mice were aged to 7-9 months of age prior to the start of the study and all experiments were performed on male mice. All studies were conducted with the prior approval of the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

This study did have a 1 $\mu$ l experimental group (data not presented), which showed results in line with the presented data. It is also important to note that the mice in this study were lupus prone, so it is possible that results may differ in non-lupus prone subjects.

**Amaranth Oil Treatment:** Amaranth oil extracted from *Amaranthus hybridus* L. was obtained from Russian Oliva, Voronezh Russian Federation. Mice in the experimental group (n = 3) received 4 $\mu$ l of amaranth oil per gram of

mouse weight by oral gavage 5 days per week over the course of 84 days. Control mice (n = 2) were sham treated on the same schedule with an oral gavage needle containing no oil.

**Table 1.** Food Value of 100g Amaranth Oil (modified from [47])

Food Value	Amaranth Oil
Squalene (g)	5.9
Phospholipids (g)	8
Phytosterols (g)	2
Sum of tocopherols (vitamin E), in mg	300

**Proteinuria:** Urine was collected biweekly from mice placed in metabolic cages for 24 hours. Mice fasted for the duration of the urine collection to prevent chow debris from contaminating the urine samples with protein. Urine volume was recorded at the time of collection and protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). Five microliters of urine was added in duplicate to a 96-well microplate and 200 microliters of Bradford reagent was mixed on top of each sample. The absorbance was read at 595 nm and the protein concentration was determined by comparison with a BSA standard curve. Each protein concentration ( $\mu$ g/ml) was then multiplied by the recorded volume to determine the final concentration ( $\mu$ g/24 hours).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The experimental group showed decreased proteinuria levels throughout the entire 84 days of study, shown in Figure 2. As depicted in Table 2, proteinuria levels were

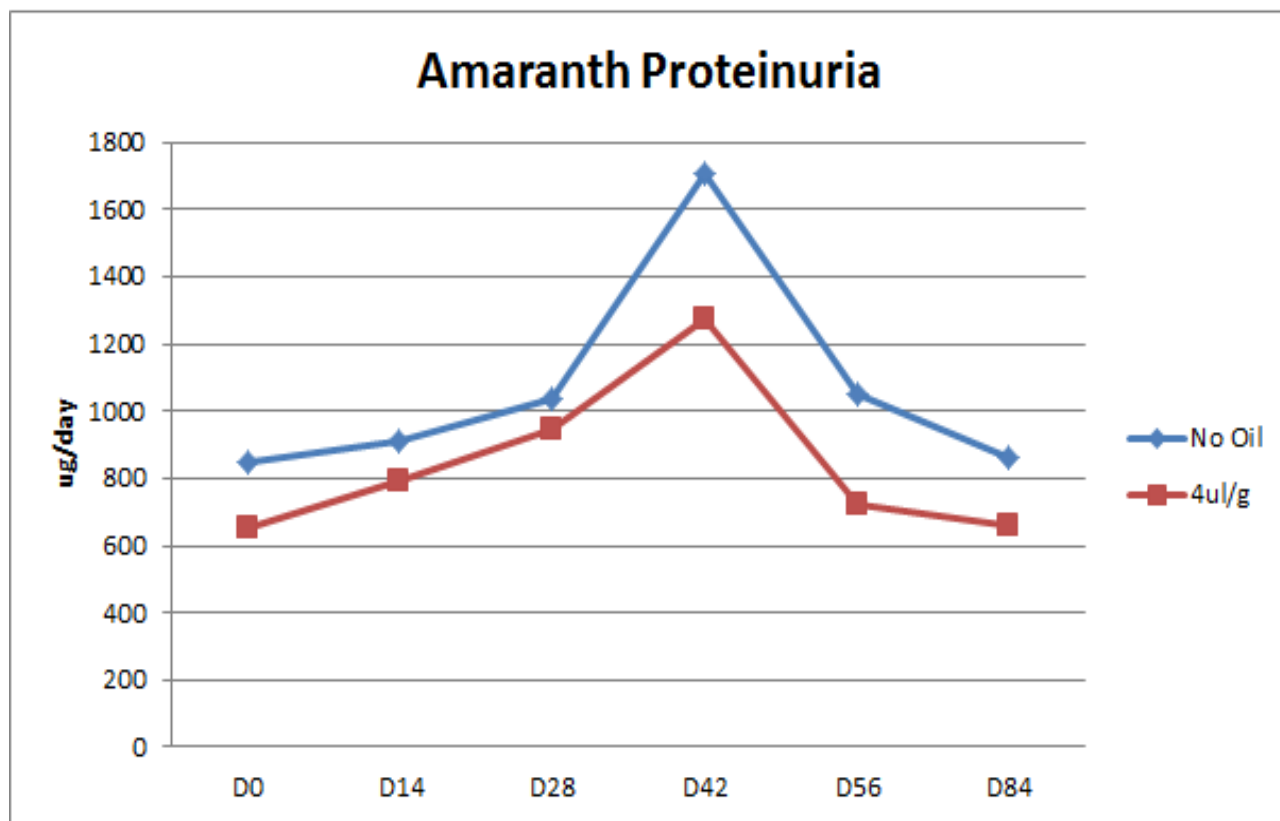
on average 226.9µg lower per day; the smallest difference observed was 93.2µg on the 28th day, while the largest difference was 427.16µg on the 42nd day.

**Table 2.** Urine protein levels (µg/day) for experimental and control groups over the 84 days of study.

	D0	D14	D28	D42	D56	D84	Average
<b>No Oil</b>	847.8203	911.6238	1038.337	1704.216	1048.22	862.0306	1068.7078
<b>4µl/g</b>	652.9582	794.9571	945.1064	1277.058	719.4237	661.2754	841.79636
<b>Difference</b>	194.8621	116.6667	93.23017	427.158	328.7964	200.7552	226.91143

The proteinuria difference started at 194.86µg, but lessened to 116.67µg on day 14, and further reduced to 93.23µg on day 28. On day 42, the difference increased

to 427.16µg, then lessened to 328.8µg on day 56, before decreasing to 200.76µg on day 84.



**Figure 2.** Proteinuria levels for experimental and control groups over the 84 days of study.

The experimental group had lower proteinuria levels than that of the control throughout the entire length of the study, with the biggest difference observed on day 42. From day 0 to day 28, the difference gradually reduced until increasing on day 42. The difference lessened from day 42 to day 56 and continued to do so between day 56 to day 84.

The study originally had two dosage groups, 4 $\mu$ l and 1 $\mu$ l, with three mice each, as well as a control group with two mice. Two mice in the 1 $\mu$ l group passed away, resulting in n = 1 for that group; the data are hence not reported, but are in line with the presented data. The presented data thus include n = 3 for the 4 $\mu$ l experimental group and n = 2 for the control group.

Previously, it has been shown that curcumin decreased proteinuria levels [35], but such data with amaranth oil has not been presented. Results show that compared to the control, the group receiving 4 $\mu$ l amaranth oil per gram of mouse weight had decreased proteinuria levels for the entire 84 days of study. Given amaranth's various health benefits, the results are not too surprising. However, the exact cause of these effects is not certain.

As mentioned earlier, amaranth possesses phytochemicals and antioxidants [47, 49, 52]. Numerous studies have illustrated the renoprotective effects of antioxidative and phytochemical agents [73-77]. Particularly, amaranth oil has been shown to reduce oxidative stress and lend an antioxidant protective effect in rat kidney, plasma, and pancreas [73, 78]. Similarly, it has been observed that grain amaranth's antioxidant activity protects blood, kidney, and liver tissues in mice with diabetes mellitus [50, 73]. Kosozi et al suggested that this is because grain amaranth aids calcium homeostasis in blood, kidney, and liver leading to antidiabetic effects [50].

Additionally, proteinuria can be decreased with ACE and renin inhibitors [14, 25, 27-28, 34]. Past studies demonstrated that the bioactive peptides in amaranth proteins display ACE inhibiting effects *in vitro* and *in vivo* [46, 62-63]. Quiroga et al found that amaranth peptides also inhibit renin of the RAAS in dose-response fashion via competitive inhibition; inhibition efficacy was determined to be directly related to peptide hydrophobicity [46, 64]. Though ACE and RAAS inhibitory activity has been observed, amaranth's effects on proteinuria were not previously explored.

Proteinuria is an important indicator of kidney damage and disease, as well as hypertension and cardiovascular disease. It is also associated with several negative outcomes in kidney transplant patients. Reducing proteinuria helps protect the kidney and is effective in slowing renal disease. However, current treatments can be unsafe or ineffective, so alternatives would be ideal.

Amaranth oil is a strong functional food candidate. In addition to numerous health benefits, it exhibits antioxidant protective effects and contains several bioactive compounds, including squalene. Several investigations showed amaranth oil's health properties and functionality. Particularly, it was shown that it can decrease the amount of total cholesterol, low density cholesterol (LDL), and triglycerides significantly [47]. In addition, it was shown that amaranth oil has hepatoprotective effects, which were confirmed by biological and morphological examination [79]. In the current investigation, we have shown that amaranth oil may help decrease proteinuria levels in lupus prone murine subjects. However, according to the Functional Food Center's/Dr. Martirosyan's definition of functional foods, we should determine exactly which bioactive compounds and what non-toxic dosages provide a

clinically proven and documented health benefit, utilizing specific biomarkers [80-82]. At this point, our data are preliminary, based on a very small sample size, and also clinically were not approved for lupus patients, so we are not able to claim amaranth/amaranth oil functionality in the case of lupus disease. In the future, similar investigations using a larger sample size will be needed, and if it is confirmed that amaranth oil decreases proteinuria levels in lupus prone murine subjects, then several clinical studies should be done to confirm amaranth oil effectiveness for proteinuria.

In conclusion, our results show that amaranth oil may help decrease proteinuria levels in lupus prone murine subjects. However, the data are preliminary. Future studies should determine if the effects are observed in other subjects and in a larger sample size. The optimal dosage and treatment schedule should also be investigated.

**Abbreviations:** RAAS: renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, VEGF: anti-vascular endothelial growth factor, ACE: angiotensin-converting enzyme, SLE: systemic lupus erythematosus, LDL: low density cholesterol

**Conflicts of Interest:** There are no conflicts of interest associated with this study.

**Authors' contribution:** The original idea was conceived by DM and was discussed with CM. The main focus and ideas of the experiments finally agreed with JH and DS. The experiments were conducted and analyzed by DS, JH and DM. Experimental data was analyzed by DS and JH, and discussed with DM and CM. The main text of the paper including methods were written by SW, JH, and DM. The manuscript was revised, edited, and formatted by DM and SW.

**Acknowledgement:** We would like to thank the Department of Internal Medicine at The University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center for their support, making this scientific investigation related to the effect of amaranth oil on proteinuria in lupus prone mice possible.

## REFERENCES

1. The top 10 causes of death. [<https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/the-top-10-causes-of-death>] Retrieved September 7, 2021.
2. Leading Causes of Death. [<https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/fastats/leading-causes-of-death.htm>] Retrieved September 7, 2021.
3. Grauer GF. Proteinuria: Measurement and Interpretation. *Top Companion Anim Med* 2011, 26(3):121-127. <https://www.doi.org/10.1053/j.tcam.2011.04.002>
4. Gorritz JL, Martinez-Castelao A. Proteinuria: detection and role in native renal disease progression. *Transplant Rev Orlando Fla* 2012, 26(1):3-13. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.trre.2011.10.002>
5. Cravedi P, Remuzzi G. Pathophysiology of proteinuria and its value as an outcome measure in chronic kidney disease. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2013, 76(4):516-523. <https://www.doi.org/10.1111/bcp.12104>
6. Hebert LA, Spetie DN, Keane WF. The urgent call of albuminuria/proteinuria: Heeding its significance in early detection of kidney disease. *Postgrad Med* 2001, 110(4):79-96. <https://www.doi.org/10.3810/pgm.2001.10.1047>
7. Calabuig AS, Guirado L, Ramos D. Prognostic significance and diagnosis of proteinuria in renal transplantation. *Transplant Rev* 2012, 26(1):30-35. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.trre.2011.07.008>
8. Haynes J, Haynes R. Proteinuria. *BMJ*. 2006, 332(7536):284. <https://www.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.332.7536.284>
9. Toblli JE, Bevione P, Di Gennaro F, Madalena L, Cao G, Angerosa M. Understanding the Mechanisms of Proteinuria: Therapeutic Implications. *Int J Nephrol* 2012, 2012:1-13. <https://www.doi.org/10.1155/2012/546039>
10. Pagana KD, Pagana TJ. *Mosby's Manual of Diagnostic and Laboratory Tests*. Fifth edition. Elsevier Mosby; 2014.

11. Dong X, Gou W, Li C, et al. Proteinuria in preeclampsia: Not essential to diagnosis but related to disease severity and fetal outcomes. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2017, 8:60-64. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.preghy.2017.03.005>
12. Yılmaz Baran Ş, Alemdaroğlu S, Durdağ GD, et al. Reappraisal of the relationship between 24-hour proteinuria and preeclampsia in terms of the maternal and perinatal outcomes. *Hypertens Pregnancy* 2020, 39(2):82-88. <https://www.doi.org/10.1080/10641955.2020.1725038>
13. Tanacan A, Fadiloglu E, Beksac MS. The importance of proteinuria in preeclampsia and its predictive role in maternal and neonatal outcomes. *Hypertens Pregnancy* 2019, 38(2):111-118. <https://www.doi.org/10.1080/10641955.2019.1590718>
14. Knoll GA. Proteinuria in Kidney Transplant Recipients: Prevalence, Prognosis, and Evidence-Based Management. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2009, 54(6):1131-1144. <https://www.doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2009.06.031>
15. Fontán MP, Rodríguez-Carmona A, Falcón TG, Valdés F. EARLY PROTEINURIA IN RENAL TRANSPLANT RECIPIENTS TREATED WITH CYCLOSPORIN: *Transplantation* 1999, 67(4):561-568. <https://www.doi.org/10.1097/00007890-199902270-00013>
16. Roodnat JI, Mulder PGH, Rischen-Vos J, et al. PROTEINURIA AFTER RENAL TRANSPLANTATION AFFECTS NOT ONLY GRAFT SURVIVAL BUT ALSO PATIENT SURVIVAL: *Transplantation* 2001, 72(3):438-444. <https://www.doi.org/10.1097/00007890-200108150-00014>
17. Fernández-Fresnedo G, Escallada R, Rodrigo E, et al. The risk of cardiovascular disease associated with proteinuria in renal transplant patients. *Transplantation* 2002, 73(8):1345-1348. <https://www.doi.org/10.1097/00007890-200204270-00028>
18. Remuzzi G, Benigni A, Remuzzi A. Mechanisms of progression and regression of renal lesions of chronic nephropathies and diabetes. *J Clin Invest* 2006, 116(2):288-296. <https://www.doi.org/10.1172/JCI27699>
19. U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health, National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases. Proteinuria. Published online 2009. <https://permanent.fdlp.gov/gpo8128/proteinuria.pdf>
20. Duni A, Liakopoulos V, Roumeliotis S, Peschos D, Dounousi E. Oxidative Stress in the Pathogenesis and Evolution of Chronic Kidney Disease: Untangling Ariadne's Thread. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019, 20(15):E3711. <https://www.doi.org/10.3390/ijms20153711>
21. Ruggenenti P, Perna A, Gherardi G, et al. Renoprotective properties of ACE-inhibition in non-diabetic nephropathies with non-nephrotic proteinuria. *The Lancet* 1999, 354(9176):359-364. [https://www.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(98\)10363-X](https://www.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(98)10363-X)
22. Toblli JE, DeRosa G, Cao G, Piorno P, Pagano P. ACE inhibitor and angiotensin type I receptor antagonist in combination reduce renal damage in obese Zucker rats. *Kidney Int* 2004, 65(6):2343-2359. <https://www.doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1755.2004.00661.x>
23. Maschio G, Alberti D, Janin G, et al. Effect of the Angiotensin-Converting-Enzyme Inhibitor Benazepril on the Progression of Chronic Renal Insufficiency. *N Engl J Med*. 1996, 334(15):939-945. <https://www.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199604113341502>
24. Brenner BM, Cooper ME, de Zeeuw D, et al. Effects of Losartan on Renal and Cardiovascular Outcomes in Patients with Type 2 Diabetes and Nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 2001, 345(12):861-869. <https://www.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa011161>
25. Lewis EJ, Hunsicker LG, Clarke WR, et al. Renoprotective Effect of the Angiotensin-Receptor Antagonist Irbesartan in Patients with Nephropathy Due to Type 2 Diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2001, 345(12):851-860. <https://www.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa011303>
26. Raina S, Honer M, Krämer SD, et al. Anti-VEGF antibody treatment accelerates polycystic kidney disease. *Am J Physiol-Ren Physiol* 2011, 301(4):F773-F783. <https://www.doi.org/10.1152/ajprenal.00058.2011>
27. Lewis EJ, Hunsicker LG, Bain RP, Rohde RD. The Effect of Angiotensin-Converting-Enzyme Inhibition on Diabetic Nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 1993, 329(20):1456-1462. <https://www.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM19931113292004>
28. Jafar TH, Stark PC, Schmid CH, et al. Progression of Chronic Kidney Disease: The Role of Blood Pressure Control, Proteinuria, and Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibition: A Patient-Level Meta-Analysis. *Ann Intern Med* 2003, 139(4):244. <https://www.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-139-4-200308190-00006>



29. Vogt L, Waanders F, Boomsma F, de Zeeuw D, Navis G. Effects of Dietary Sodium and Hydrochlorothiazide on the Antiproteinuric Efficacy of Losartan. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2008, 19(5):999-1007.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2007060693>
30. Bianchi S, Bigazzi R, Campese VM. Long-term effects of spironolactone on proteinuria and kidney function in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 2006, 70(12):2116-2123. <https://www.doi.org/10.1038/sj.ki.5001854>
31. Bakris GL, Mangrum A, Copley JB, Vicknair N, Sadler R. Effect of Calcium Channel or  $\beta$ -Blockade on the Progression of Diabetic Nephropathy in African Americans. *Hypertension* 1997, 29(3):744-750  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1161/01.HYP.29.3.744>
32. McCormick BB, Sydor A, Akbari A, Fergusson D, Doucette S, Knoll G. The Effect of Pentoxifylline on Proteinuria in Diabetic Kidney Disease: A Meta-analysis. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2008, 52(3):454-463.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2008.01.025>
33. Parving H-H, Persson F, Lewis JB, Lewis EJ, Hollenberg NK. Aliskiren Combined with Losartan in Type 2 Diabetes and Nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 2008, 358(23):2433-2446.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa0708379>
34. Kunz R, Friedrich C, Wolbers M, Mann JFE. Meta-analysis: Effect of Monotherapy and Combination Therapy with Inhibitors of the Renin–Angiotensin System on Proteinuria in Renal Disease. *Ann Intern Med* 2008, 148(1):30.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-148-1-200801010-00190>
35. Wahono C, Susianti H, Wahyuni Z, et al. The effect of adding curcumin on vitamin d3 supplementation on anti-dsDNA levels and proteinuria, in SLE patients with hypovitamin D. In: Poster Session. Lupus Foundation of America, 2017:A119.2-A120.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1136/lupus-2017-000215.257>
36. Takahashi H, Nasa Y, Takamasu E, Sugii S, Yokogawa N. The effect of hydroxychloroquine on reducing proteinuria in stable SLE patients. In: SLE, Sjögren's and APS – Treatment. BMJ Publishing Group Ltd and European League Against Rheumatism, 2018:1415.2-1415.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1136/annrheumdis-2018-eular.2249>
37. Posadas-Romero C, Torres-Tamayo M, Zamora-González J, et al. High insulin levels and increased low-density lipoprotein oxidizability in pediatric patients with systemic lupus erythematosus: High Insulin Levels and High LDL Oxidizability in SLE. *Arthritis Rheum* 2004, 50(1):160-165.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1002/art.11472>
38. Shin TH, Kim H-A, Jung J-Y, et al. Analysis of the free fatty acid metabolome in the plasma of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus and fever. *Metabolomics* 2018, 14(1):14.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s11306-017-1308-6>
39. Yan B, Huang J, Zhang C, et al. Serum metabolomic profiling in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus by GC/MS. *Mod Rheumatol* 2016, 26(6):914-922.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.3109/14397595.2016.1158895>
40. Ferreira HB, Pereira AM, Melo T, Paiva A, Domingues MR. Lipidomics in autoimmune diseases with main focus on systemic lupus erythematosus. *J Pharm Biomed Anal* 2019, 174:386-395.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2019.06.005>
41. Bergamo P, Maurano F, Rossi M. Phase 2 enzyme induction by conjugated linoleic acid improves lupus-associated oxidative stress. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2007, 43(1):71-79.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2007.03.023>
42. Comstock GW, Burke AE, Hoffman SC, et al. Serum concentrations of alpha tocopherol, beta carotene, and retinol preceding the diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis and systemic lupus erythematosus. *Ann Rheum Dis* 1997, 56(5):323-325. <https://www.doi.org/10.1136/ard.56.5.323>
43. Hsieh C-C, Lin B-F. Opposite effects of low and high dose supplementation of vitamin E on survival of MRL/lpr mice. *Nutrition* 2005, 21(9):940-948.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2004.11.021>
44. Coelho LM, Silva PM, Martins JT, Pinheiro AC, Vicente AA. Emerging opportunities in exploring the nutritional/functional value of amaranth. *Food Funct* 2018, 9(11):5499-5512.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1039/C8FO01422A>
45. Tucker JB. Amaranth: The Once and Future Crop. *BioScience* 1986, 36(1):9-13. <https://www.doi.org/10.2307/1309789>

46. Nardo AE, Suárez S, Quiroga AV, Añón MC. Amaranth as a Source of Antihypertensive Peptides. *Front Plant Sci* 2020, 11:578631. <https://www.doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2020.578631>
47. Martirosyan DM, Miroshnichenko LA, Kulakova SN, Pogojeva AV, Zolodov VI. Amaranth oil application for coronary heart disease and hypertension. *Lipids Health Dis* 2007, 6(1):1. <https://www.doi.org/10.1186/1476-511X-6-1>
48. Chmelík Z, Šnejdrová M, Vrablík M. Amaranth as a potential dietary adjunct of lifestyle modification to improve cardiovascular risk profile. *Nutr Res* 2019, 72:36-45. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2019.09.006>
49. Kim HK, Kim MJ, Cho HY, Kim E-K, Shin DH. Antioxidative and anti-diabetic effects of amaranth (*Amaranthus esculantus*) in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Cell Biochem Funct* 2006, 24(3):195-199. <https://www.doi.org/10.1002/cbf.1210>
50. Kasozi KI, Namubiru S, Safiriyu AA, et al. Grain Amaranth Is Associated with Improved Hepatic and Renal Calcium Metabolism in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus of Male Wistar Rats. *Evid-Based Complement Altern Med ECAM* 2018, 2018:4098942. <https://www.doi.org/10.1155/2018/4098942>
51. Chaturvedi A, Sarojini G, Devi NL. Hypocholesterolemic effect of amaranth seeds (*Amaranthus esculantus*). *Plant Foods Hum Nutr Dordr Neth* 1993, 44(1):63-70. <https://www.doi.org/10.1007/BF01088483>
52. Tang Y, Tsao R. Phytochemicals in quinoa and amaranth grains and their antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and potential health beneficial effects: a review. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 2017, 61(7):1600767. <https://www.doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201600767>
53. Nasirpour-Tabrizi P, Azadmard-Damirchi S, Hesari J, Piravi-Vanak Z. Amaranth Seed Oil Composition. In: Y. Waisundara V, ed. *Nutritional Value of Amaranth*. IntechOpen, 2020. <https://www.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.91381>
54. He H-P, Cai Y, Sun M, Corke H. Extraction and Purification of Squalene from *Amaranthus* Grain. *J Agric Food Chem* 2002, 50(2):368-372. <https://www.doi.org/10.1021/jf010918p>
55. Kraujalis P, Venskutonis PR. Optimisation of supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of amaranth seeds by response surface methodology and characterization of extracts isolated from different plant cultivars. *J Supercrit Fluids* 2013, 73:80-86. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2012.11.009>
56. León-Camacho M, García-González DL, Aparicio R. A detailed and comprehensive study of amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus* L.) oil fatty profile. *Eur Food Res Technol* 2001, 213(4-5):349-355. <https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s002170100340>
57. Niro S, D'Agostino A, Fratianni A, Cinquanta L, Panfili G. Gluten-Free Alternative Grains: Nutritional Evaluation and Bioactive Compounds. *Food* 2019, 8(6):208. <https://www.doi.org/10.3390/foods8060208>
58. Aggarwal BB, Sundaram C, Prasad S, Kannappan R. Tocotrienols, the vitamin E of the 21st century: Its potential against cancer and other chronic diseases. *Biochem Pharmacol* 2010, 80(11):1613-1631. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2010.07.043>
59. Mocchegiani E, Costarelli L, Giacconi R, et al. Vitamin E—gene interactions in aging and inflammatory age-related diseases: Implications for treatment. A systematic review. *Ageing Res Rev* 2014, 14:81-101. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2014.01.001>
60. Amare E, Grigoletto L, Corich V, Giacomini A, Lante A. Fatty Acid Profile, Lipid Quality and Squalene Content of Teff (*Eragrostis teff* (Zucc.) Trotter) and Amaranth (*Amaranthus caudatus* L.) Varieties from Ethiopia. *Appl Sci* 2021, 11(8):3590. <https://www.doi.org/10.3390/app11083590>
61. Lee SM, Chung SH, Park Y, et al. Effect of Omega-3 Fatty Acid on the Fatty Acid Content of the Erythrocyte Membrane and Proteinuria in Patients with Diabetic Nephropathy. *Int J Endocrinol* 2015, 2015:1-8. <https://www.doi.org/10.1155/2015/208121>
62. Valenzuela Zamudio F, Segura Campos MR. Amaranth, quinoa and chia bioactive peptides: a comprehensive review on three ancient grains and their potential role in management and prevention of Type 2 diabetes. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* Published online December 11, 2020:1-15. <https://www.doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2020.1857683>
63. Suárez S, Aphalo P, Rinaldi G, Añón MC, Quiroga A. Effect of amaranth proteins on the RAS system. In vitro, in vivo and ex vivo assays. *Food Chem* 2020, 308:125601. <https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.125601>
64. Quiroga AV, Aphalo P, Nardo AE, Añón MC. In Vitro Modulation of Renin-Angiotensin System Enzymes by Amaranth (*Amaranthus hypochondriacus*) Protein-Derived Peptides: Alternative Mechanisms Different from ACE Inhibition. *J Agric Food Chem* 2017, 65(34):7415-7423. <https://www.doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.7b02240>
65. Montoya-Rodríguez A, Gómez-Favela MA, Reyes-Moreno C, Milán-Carrillo J, González de Mejía E. Identification of Bioactive Peptide Sequences from Amaranth (*Amaranthus hypochondriacus*) Seed Proteins and Their Potential Role in the Prevention of Chronic Diseases: Bioactive peptides in

- amaranth proteins.... Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf 2015, 14(2):139-158.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1111/15414337.12125>
66. Tovar-Pérez EG, Guerrero-Legarreta I, Farrés-González A, Soriano-Santos J. Angiotensin I-converting enzyme-inhibitory peptide fractions from albumin 1 and globulin as obtained of amaranth grain. Food Chem 2009, 116(2):437-444.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.02.062>
67. Vecchi B, Añón MC. ACE inhibitory tetrapeptides from *Amaranthus hypochondriacus* 11S globulin. Phytochemistry 2009, 70(7):864-870.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.phytochem.2009.04.006>
68. Silva-Sánchez C, de la Rosa APB, León-Galván MF, de Lumen BO, de León-Rodríguez A, de Mejía EG. Bioactive Peptides in Amaranth (*Amaranthus hypochondriacus*) Seed. J Agric Food Chem 2008, 56(4):1233-1240.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1021/jf072911z>
69. Ontiveros N, López-Teros V, Vergara-Jiménez M de J, et al. Amaranth-hydrolyzate enriched cookies reduce the systolic blood pressure in spontaneously hypertensive rats. J Funct Foods 2020, 64:103613.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2019.103613>
70. Sabbione AC, Suárez S, Añón MC, Scilingo A. Amaranth functional cookies exert potential antithrombotic and antihypertensive activities. Int J Food Sci Technol 2019, 54(5):1506-1513. <https://www.doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.13930>
71. Valdez-Meza, Raymundo, Figueroa-Salcido, et al. Pasta Enrichment with an Amaranth Hydrolysate Affects the Overall Acceptability while Maintaining Antihypertensive Properties. Foods 2019, 8(8):282.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.3390/foods8080282>
72. Suárez S, Añón MC. Amaranth proteins emulsions as delivery system of Angiotensin-I converting enzyme inhibitory peptides. Food Hydrocoll 2019, 90:154-161.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2018.11.046>
73. Paško P, Bartoń H, Zagrodzki P, et al. Effect of amaranth seeds in diet on oxidative status in plasma and selected tissues of high fructose-fed rats. Food Chem 2011, 126(1):85-90.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.10.081>
74. Błaszczuk I, Grucka-Mamczar E, Kasperczyk S, Birkner E. Influence of Fluoride on Rat Kidney Antioxidant System: Effects of Methionine and Vitamin E. Biol Trace Elem Res 2008, 121(1):51-59. <https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s12011-007-8030-6>
75. Talas ZS, Ozdemir I, Yilmaz I, Gok Y. Antioxidative effects of novel synthetic organoselenium compound in rat lung and kidney. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 2009, 72(3):916-921.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2007.11.012>
76. Wongmekiat O, Leelarugayub N, Thamprasert K. Beneficial effect of shallot (*Allium ascalonicum* L.) extract on cyclosporine nephrotoxicity in rats. Food Chem Toxicol 2008, 46(5):1844-1850.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2008.01.029>
77. Bouderbala S, Lamri-Senhadj M, Prost J, Lacaille-Dubois MA, Bouchenak M. Changes in antioxidant defense status in hypercholesterolemic rats treated with *Ajuga iva*. Phytomedicine 2008, 15(6-7):453-461.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.phymed.2007.10.001>
78. Caselato-Sousa VM, Amaya-Farfán J. State of Knowledge on Amaranth Grain: A Comprehensive Review. J Food Sci 2012, 77(4):R93-R104. <https://www.doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2012.02645.x>
79. Nikolaevsky VA, Martirosyan DM, Muzalevskaya EN, Miroshnichenko LA, Zolodov VI. Hepatotropic, antioxidant and antitoxic action of amaranth oil. Funct Foods Health Dis 2014, 4(5):159. <https://www.doi.org/10.31989/ffhd.v4i5.18>
80. Martirosyan D, Kanya H, Nadalet C. Can functional foods reduce the risk of disease? Advancement of functional food definition and steps to create functional food products. Funct Foods Health Dis 2021, 11(5):213.  
<https://www.doi.org/10.31989/ffhd.v11i5.788>
81. Sadohara R, Martirosyan D. Functional Food Center's vision on functional food definition and science in comparison to FDA's health claim authorization and Japan's Foods for Specified Health Uses. Funct Foods Health Dis 2020, 10(11):465. <https://www.doi.org/10.31989/ffhd.v10i11.753>
82. Martirosyan D, Liufu J. FFC's Advancement of the Establishment of Functional Food Science. Funct Foods Health Dis 2020, 10(8).  
<https://www.doi.org/10.31989/ffhd.v10i8.729>