

Learn and taste what's coming next in the future of food at IFT19!



1,000 Global Food Solution Suppliers

Be immersed in the industry's largest collection of food ingredient, equipment, processing, technology and packaging solution providers, all conveniently assembled under one roof.



100+ scientific sessions with 12 topical tracks 700+ research poster presentations 9 pre-event short courses

Gain insights, learn skills, get solutions to real-world challenges that impact your work, and meet the people who are driving innovation across the science of food.



Consumer Insights and Trends

Be one of the first to hear the latest research and consumer insights from business intelligence and analyst experts from Innova Market Insights and Mintel Market Intelligence.



Traceability Central

Hear firsthand about the latest advancements, technologies, and platforms being developed to address the world's food traceability and security challenges.



IFT19 FEED YOUR FUTURE

Event: June 2-5 | Food Expo: June 3-5 | New Orleans, Louisiana

Register today and save! iftevent.org

Early registration and hotel discounts available for a limited time.



Chia Seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) as a Source of Proteins and Bioactive Peptides with Health Benefits: A Review

Mariana Grancieri, Hercia Stampini Duarte Martino, and Elvira Gonzalez de Mejia 

Abstract: The consumption of chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) has increased in recent years due its high content of omega-3 fatty acids and dietary fiber. This seed also has a high concentration of proteins and essential amino acids, becoming a promising source of bioactive peptides. The objective of this review was to identify the composition and the beneficial effects of chia seeds (*S. hispanica* L.), their proteins, peptides, and their potential impact on human health. The UniProt database was used to identify the chia proteins and their amino acid sequences. The BIOPEP database was used to analyze the peptides's bioactive potential. A total of 20 proteins were cataloged in chia seed, 12 of those were involved in the regular metabolic processes of the plant cells. However, eight proteins were specifically related to production and storage of plant lipids, thus explaining the high concentration of lipids in chia seeds (around 30%), especially omega-3 fatty acids (around 20%). The analyses of amino acid sequences showed peptides with bioactive potential, including dipeptidyl peptidase-IV inhibitors, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, and antioxidant capacity. These results correlated with the main health benefits of whole chia seed in humans such as antioxidant capacity, and hypotensive, hypoglycemic, and anticholesterolemic effects. Such relation can be associated with chia protein and peptide compositions and therefore needs further investigation *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Keywords: antioxidant, bioactive peptides, chia seed, linolenic acid, linoleic acid, protein

Introduction

History, classification, and botanical description of chia

Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) is an herbaceous plant that belongs to the order Lamiales, family Lamiaceae, subfamily Nepetoideae, and genus *Salvia* (Arctos Specimen Database, 2018). The *Salvia* genus is considered the most numerous in the family Lamiaceae. It consists of approximately 900 species widely distributed throughout several regions of the world, including Southern Africa, Central America, North America, South America, and South-East Asia (Takano, 2017). The chia plant is native to northern Guatemala and southern Mexico and today is cultivated in Australia, Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala, Peru, Argentina, and Mexico, the latter being the world's largest producer (Busilacchi et al., 2013).

Pre-Columbian populations consumed chia in the 16th century to provide energy, endurance, and strength. During the battles and expeditions, Aztec soldiers consumed chia to meet their nutritional needs. The oil extracted from the seeds has been used to produce cosmetics. In addition, chia seed was an offering to the gods in religious ceremonies or used as a form of payment of taxes

(Ayerza, 2009). Other parts of the plant, such as the branches, leaves and roots, were used less commonly to fight respiratory infections (Sosa, 2016).

The chia plant is about 1 m tall and has simple leaves, which measure 4 to 8 cm long and 3 to 5 cm wide, oval-elliptical shape, pubescent, and with acute apex. A chia seed is quasi-oval, with a length between 1 and 2 mm, a diameter between 0.8 and 1.3 and a width between 0.8 and 1.4 mm. It has a smooth and shiny peel and coloring that can be black, brown, gray, black-spotted, or white. The mucilage is present inside the epidermal cells of mature chia seeds and when they come into contact with water it immediately expands rupturing the primary cell layer that protrudes from these epidermal cells thus surrounding the seed, which increases its size and imparts a characteristic gel appearance to chia (Figure 1) (Muñoz, Cobos, Diaz, & Aguilera, 2012).

The largest cultivation of seeds of this genus occurs in mountainous regions from temperate to subtropical (Capitani, Spotorno, Nolasco, & Tomás, 2012). The chemical composition and nutritional value of chia seed may vary according to climatic conditions, geographic location, nutrients, and soil conditions, as well as year of cultivation (Ayerza, 2009; Ayerza & Coates, 2009; da Silva et al., 2017). For example, the composition of fatty acids varies according to climate and the altitude of the plant; the colder and higher the region, the higher the content of omega-3 unsaturated fatty acids (Ayerza h & Coates, 2011).

CRF3-2018-0270 Submitted 11/13/2018, Accepted 12/26/2018. Authors Grancieri and Martino are with the Dept. de Nutrição e Saúde, Univ. Federal de Viçosa, Viçosa, MG, Brazil. Authors Grancieri and Gonzalez de Mejia are with the Dept. of Food Science & Human Nutrition, Univ. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL, U.S.A. Direct inquiries to author de Mejia (E-mail: edemejia@illinois.edu).

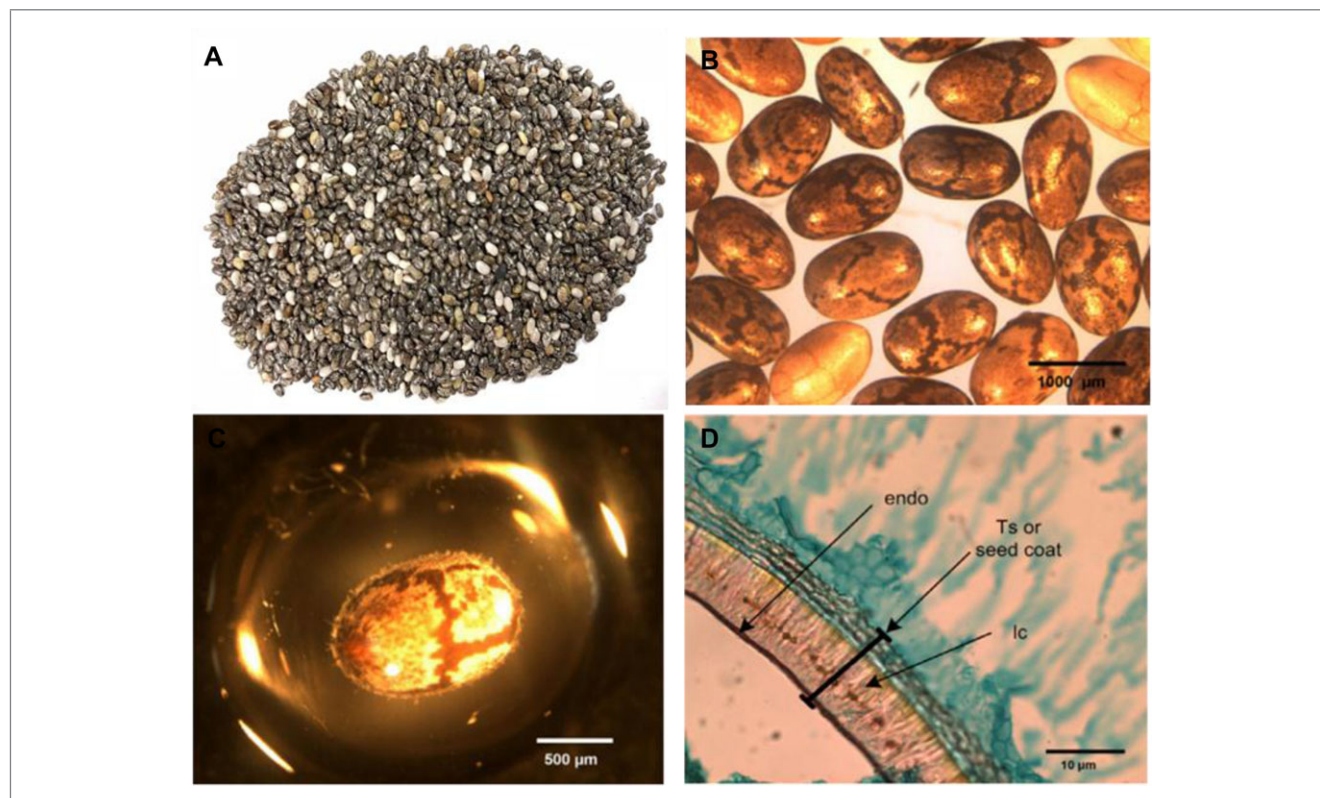


Figure 1—Chia seed. (A) Seeds in full-size; (B) whole dry seed (approximate image); (C) whole seed hydrated with mucilaginous capsule around; (D) inside the seed: the three layers of rectangular cells forming the seed shell are observed; endo: endocarp layer; lc: sclereid layer. Source: Adapted from Muñoz et al. (2012) with permission from Elsevier.

Chia seed uses

The consumption of chia has been increasing over the years, given its health benefits related to chronic diseases such as obesity, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and cancer (Ixtaina, Nolasco, & Tom, 2008; Poudyal, Panchal, Ward, & Brown, 2013; Vázquez-Ovando, Rosado-Rubio, Chel-Guerrero, & Betancur-Ancona, 2010). These benefits result mainly from the high concentrations in chia seeds of essential fatty acids, dietary fibers, proteins, antioxidants, vitamins, carotenoids, and minerals (Ayerza & Coates, 2011; Reyes-Caudillo, Tecante, & Valdivia-López, 2008). Today, the chia seed is consumed whole or in the form of flour, alone (*in natura*), added to other foods, such as yogurts, salads, and fruits (Cahill, 2004; Vuksan et al., 2007), in preparations such as breads, cakes, granola bars, beverages, and others (Figure 2).

In general, the incorporation of chia in foods improve their physicochemical and sensory characteristics, especially their nutritional properties. The incorporation of chia seeds in tortillas reduces the rate of enzymatic hydrolysis of starch and the glycemic index (Rendón-Villalobos, Ortiz-Sánchez, Solorza-Feria, & Trujillo-Hernández, 2012). The chia seeds in bakery products increase their concentrations of proteins, unsaturated fatty acids, antioxidants, and dietary fiber (Iglesias-Puig & Haros, 2013; Segura-Campos, Salazar-Vega, Chel-Guerrero, & Betancur-Ancona, 2013). The gum present in chia seed has the ability to hold water and oil as well as having emulsifier and stabilizer potential (Segura-Campos, Ciau-Solís, Rosado-Rubio, Chel-Guerrero, & Betancur-Ancona, 2014). Furthermore, chia seed when added to wheat bread increases its antioxidant activity, nutritional content, textural properties (higher moisture content and lower hardness), color, and sensory profiles with 3.7 points in global acceptability

score (1 to 5) (Sayed-Ahmad et al., 2018). Similarly, the use of 10% of chia flour in gluten-free bread received an overall acceptability scores of 8.1 on a 10 cm scale, and increased the levels of lipid, protein and dietary fiber in comparison with white gluten-free bread (Sandri, Santos, Fratelli, & Capriles, 2017). The use of 30% chia seed flour (w/w) in a gluten-free noodle formulation increased the content of protein, fat, antioxidant activity and total phenolic compounds in comparison to the control sample. Phytic acid and phytate phosphorus increased 889.39 and 250.81 mg/100 g, respectively. In this study, the content of Ca, P, K, Mg, Fe, and Zn increased in noodles containing chia seed and there was a decrease of surface smoothness, appearance and chewiness score of raw and cooked noodle samples (Levent, 2017).

The protein-rich fraction obtained from the seeds has shown high thermal stability, between 70.4 and 125.0 °C, and good water-holding (4.06 g/g) and oil-holding (4.04 g/g) capacities (Olivos-Lugo, Valdivia-López, & Tecante, 2010). This high stability is associated with hydrophobic interactions between amino acids (Olivos-Lugo et al., 2010). The protein-rich fraction has high emulsifying activity independent of pH, but at pH 8 and 10 the emulsion stability has been shown to be the highest, about 92%. These protein fractions also had good foam stability and viscosity (Vázquez-Ovando, Betancur-Ancona, & Chel-Guerrero, 2013). Furthermore, due to the ability of the fractions to form a gel, chia proteins are promising for food processing by providing consistency and thickening to various foods (Borneo, Aguirre, & León, 2010). These characteristics indicate that the proteins from chia seed are promising food additives that can help improve food quality and extend the shelf-life of foods (Valdivia-López & Tecante, 2015).

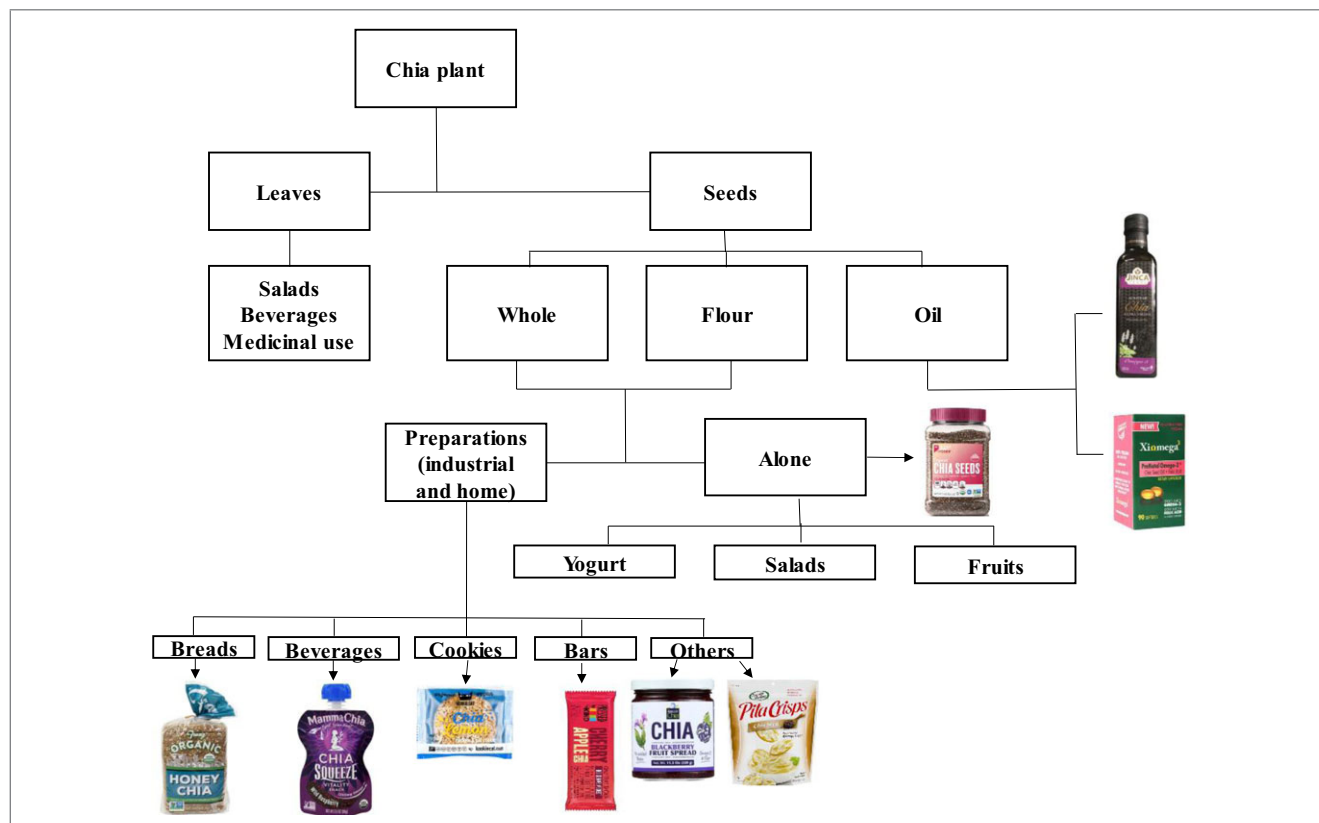


Figure 2—Uses of chia plant and some products obtained from chia seed.

Chia seed oil is also commercially exploited because of its rich content of essential fatty acids, such as alpha-linolenic (omega-3 or n-3) and alpha-linoleic acids (omega-6 or n-6) (Mohd Ali et al., 2012). The residual content of the oil extraction process is a source of dietary fiber (36.97 to 39.94 g/100 g) and polyphenolic compounds [chlorogenic acid (0.05 to 0.102 g/100 g), caffeic acid (0.01 to 0.003 g/100 g), phenolic glycoside-Q (0.25 to 0.31 g/100 g), and phenolic glycoside-K (0.40 to 0.50 g/100 g)] with antioxidant activity. In this way, chia seed can be used as a source of natural antioxidants with commercial applications (Reyes-Caudillo et al., 2008).

The objective of this review was to identify the composition and the beneficial effects of chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.), their proteins, peptides, and their potential impact on health.

As a descriptive review, the information presented is related mainly to protein and bioactive peptides from chia seed only. Scopus and PubMed databases were used to locate publications with the descriptors: “chia seed,” “*Salvia hispanica*,” “chia seed” AND either “composition,” “health benefits,” “cholesterol,” “oxidative stress,” “hypertension,” “glycemia,” “protein,” “bioactive peptides,” “amino acids,” or “simulated digestion”; “*Salvia hispanica*” AND either “composition,” “health benefits,” “cholesterol,” “oxidative stress,” “hypertension,” “glycemia,” “protein,” “bioactive peptides,” “amino acids,” or “simulated digestion.” Furthermore, Uniprot database was used to identify proteins using “*Salvia hispanica* L.” as a keyword. BIOPEP database was used to identify the bioactive potential of amino acid sequences from each identified protein. In the topic “Benefits of chia seed,” research on chia seed from human studies were included. Studies about chia oil were excluded.

Bioactive Compounds of Chia

Although the nutritional composition of chia depends on the cultivation conditions, it has, in general, a good nutritional value and promising bioactive compounds for human health (Table 1). Chia seed has low amounts of carbohydrates (3.4%) and high protein (18.9%) and lipid (31.2%) contents. There are high contents of alpha-linolenic (omega-3 or n-3) (19.5%) and alpha-linoleic acids (omega-6 or n-6) (around 5.2%), both essential nutrients since the human organism cannot synthesize them. The proportion n-6/n-3 in Brazilian chia seeds has been reported as 1:3 (da Silva et al., 2017). This high concentration of n-3 is associated with reduced risk of coronary artery disease, hypertension, type 2 diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, autoimmune diseases, and cancer (Meyer & Groot, 2017).

In addition, chia seed is rich in vitamins such as riboflavin (0.17 mg/100 g), niacin (8.83 mg/100 g), and thiamine (0.62 mg/100 g) at levels above those of other seeds (Muñoz et al., 2012). Chia also has high concentrations of calcium (455 mg/100 g), phosphorus (585 mg/100 g), potassium (585 mg/100 g), magnesium (340 mg/100 g), iron (8.54 mg/100 g), and zinc (3.70 mg/100 g) (da Silva et al., 2017). The concentration of calcium in chia seeds is higher than that found in milk, as well as the concentration of iron, which is higher than found in good sources of this mineral such as liver (Ullah et al., 2016).

Despite the high concentration of minerals in chia seed, its consumption by Wistar rats for 35 days revealed lower calcium balance and lower calcium absorption and retention rates in comparison with the group of animals that received calcium carbonate (control group) (da Silva et al., 2019). However, male Sprague-Dawley rats fed a longer term (13 month) with 10% chia seed,

Table 1—Composition of Brazilian chia seeds.

Components	Content in Brazilian chia seeds ^a	Content in Mexican chia seeds ^b
Total dietary fiber (g/100g)	33.37 ± 0.26	41.41 ± 0.2
Soluble dietary fiber (g/100g)	2.89 ± 0.09	6.84 ± 0.9
Insoluble dietary fiber (g/100g)	30.47 ± 0.35	34.90 ± 0.9
Lipids (g/100g)	32.16 ± 0.29	35.13 ± 0.04
18:2 (n-6) (g/100g)	5.69 ± 0.42	58.07
18:3 (n-3) (g/100g)	20.37 ± 1.38	68.52 ± 0.02
Proteins (g/100g)	18.18 ± 1.20	24.11 ± 0.43
Moisture (g/100g)	7.14 ± 0.26	6.82 ± 0.13
Carbohydrates (g/100g)	4.59 ± 0.34	1.51 ± 0.08
Total phenolics compounds (mg GAE)	0.97 – 0.99	0.757
Tannins (mg GAE/g)	14.93 – 19.08	n.d
Phytates (g 100 g ⁻¹)	0.96 – 1.16	n.d
Carotenoids (μg 100 ⁻¹)	57.01	n.d
Flavones (μg 100 ⁻¹)	6.07 – 16.03	n.d
Flavanones (μg 100 ⁻¹)	4.39 – 9.34	n.d
Vitamin E (μg 100 ⁻¹)	8169.50 – 8237.64	n.d

^aAdapted from Silva et al. (2017).

^bAdapted from Segura-Campos et al. (2014) and Reyes-Caudillo, Tecante, Valdivia-Lopez (2008). n.d: not determined.

versus a conventional isocaloric diet, showed higher bone mineral content and improved morphology of hepatocytes and gut tissue (Montes Chañi et al., 2018). This study provided new data suggesting the potential benefits associated with the long-term intake of chia seed. Furthermore, the consumption of chia showed an iron bioavailability similar to ferrous sulfate (control group) (da Silva et al., 2016a).

Another characteristic of chia seed is its high concentration of antioxidant compounds, mainly phenolic acids and flavonoids. It is now known that rosmarinic acid is the phenolic compound present in the greatest amount (0.927 mg/g), followed by protocatechuic acid (0.747 mg/g), caffeic acid (0.027 mg/g), and gallic acid (0.012 mg/g) (Martínez-Cruz & Paredes-López, 2014). Flavonoids are present, in great number, as flavones and flavanones. Tannins and phytates are present in small quantity, but other antioxidant compounds such as carotenoids and vitamin E appear in high amounts (da Silva et al., 2017; Oliveira-Alves et al., 2017) (Table 1).

Chia seed is also a source of dietary fiber (35%) (da Silva et al., 2017) in higher levels than other seeds, such as amaranth (7.3%), quinoa (7.0%), and corn (8.3%) (Srichuwong et al., 2017). Insoluble fiber is also present in greater quantity in chia (Table 1). It is primarily composed of lignin, cellulose, and hemicellulose, whereas mucilage is the main type of soluble fiber of the seed (Reyes-Caudillo et al., 2008). This mucilage has high capacity for water absorption and can absorb about 27 times its own weight (Muñoz et al., 2012).

Benefits of Chia Seeds

Despite the existence of some chia protein studies that include bioactive peptides, most investigations have been focused on research regarding the whole seed. As described in Table 2, several beneficial effects to living organisms, including humans, have been reported when consuming chia seed.

Antioxidant capacity

Chia seeds have numerous antioxidant compounds, such as vitamins, polyphenols, and peptides. These compounds can inhibit the activation of the NF-κB transcription factor *in vitro*, thus reducing the inflammatory and carcinogenic processes (Aggarwal & Shishodia, 2006; Ellulu, 2017; Rahman, Biswas, & Kirkham, 2006) and protecting against the attack of reactive oxygen species or nitrogen (ROS) (Kampa et al., 2002). These antioxidant ac-

tions can protect the organism from pathologies, like neurological diseases, inflammation, immunodeficiency, ischemic heart disease, strokes, Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases, and cancer (Marcinek & Krejpcio, 2017).

It has been demonstrated that rats fed a high-fat diet including chia seeds for 6 or 12 weeks experienced a decrease of thiol levels and plasma catalase and glutathione peroxidase activities, while liver levels of the glutathione reductase became enhanced (Marineli, Lenquiste, Moraes, & Maróstica, 2015a). Rats that received a long-term sucrose-rich diet and were fed chia seeds, returned to the same activities of antioxidant enzymes catalase, superoxide dismutase, and glutathione reductase as control values (de Souza Ferreira, de Sousa Fomes, da Silva, & Rosa, 2015). In addition, increases in superoxide dismutase and IL-10 plasma concentrations were observed when Wistar rats consumed chia seed flour plus a high-fat diet for 35 days in comparison with a control group (calcium carbonate) (da Silva et al., 2019). In healthy humans who had received chia seeds (12 weeks) a better plasma antioxidant activity was observed compared to hypertensive (Toscano et al., 2014) or overweight patients (Nieman et al., 2009).

It has been demonstrated that germinated chia showed increased protein quality, as measured by protein efficiency ratio (PER). The amount of the γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA), total phenolic content, and antioxidant activity increased even more in the flour of germinated seeds (Gómez-Favela et al., 2017), as well as in normal chia flour (da Silva et al., 2017; Martínez-Cruz & Paredes-López, 2014; Sargi et al., 2013). The albumin and globulin fractions showed a high antiradical activity against DPPH and prolamin as well as globulin ability to chelate ferrous ions (Orona-Tamayo, Valverde, Nieto-Rendón, & Paredes-López, 2015).

Anticholesterolemic

High concentrations of blood serum HDL-cholesterol (HDL-c) are directly associated with the development of cardiovascular disease (CVD) in humans (Rasheed & Cummins, 2018). The consumption of chia seed has shown promise for reducing the levels of serum cholesterol, since it has high concentrations of dietary fiber and unsaturated omega-3 fatty acids (da Silva et al., 2017). Most recently, it has been demonstrated that chia proteins and chia bioactive peptides can block key markers of cholesterol synthesis, such as 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase (HMG-CoA reductase) (Coelho et al., 2018).

Table 2—Health benefits of whole chia seeds in humans.

Population	Age (years)	Dose	Duration (weeks)	Effects	Reference
Antioxidant capacity					
29 hypertensive and overweight	35-65	35 g/day	12	↓ plasma MDA ↓ plasma nitrite	(Toscano et al., 2014)
76 overweight	20-70	50 g/day	12	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2009)
Anticholesterolemic					
10 postmenopausal women	53-60	25 g/day	7	↑ ALA ↑ EPA	(Jin et al., 2012)
29 overweight and obesity participants	35-65	35 g/day	12	↓ TC ↓ VLDL-c ↑ HDL-c	(Toscano et al., 2015)
76 overweight	20-70	50 g/day	12	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2009)
62 postmenopausal women	53-60	25 g/day	10	↑ ALA ↑ EPA	(Nieman et al., 2012)
Anti-hypertensive					
29 Hypertensives and overweight	35-65	35 g/day	12	↓ MBP ↓ DBP ↓ SBP	(Toscano et al., 2014)
76 Overweight	20-70	50 g/day	12	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2009)
20 participants with type-2 Diabetics	18-75	37 g/day	12	↓ DBP ↓ SBP	(Vuksan et al., 2007)
Anthropometrics					
77 overweight or obese participants with type 2 diabetes	35-75	30 g/1000 kcal	24	↓ body weight ↓ waist circumference ↑ adiponectin	(Vuksan et al., 2017b)
29 overweight and obese participants	35-65	35 g/day	12	↓ body weight ↓ % body fat	(Toscano et al., 2015)
76 overweight	20-70	50 g/day	12	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2009)
29 hypertensive and overweight	35-65	35 g/day	12	No effects	(Toscano et al., 2014)
62 postmenopausal women	53-60	25 g/day	10	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2012)
20 participants with type-2 diabetics	18-75	37 ± 4 g/day	12	No effects	(Vuksan et al., 2007)
Hypoglycemic					
13 healthy participants	–	7, 15 or 24 g	acute	↓ iAUC	(Ho et al., 2013)
11 healthy participants	–	7, 15 or 24 g	acute	↓ iAUC ↓ blood glucose	(Vuksan et al., 2010)
15 healthy participants	23.9 ± 3	25 g	acute	↓ AUC ↓ glucose peak ↑ time to glucose peak	(Vuksan et al., 2017a)
62 postmenopausal women	53-60	25 g/day	10	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2012)
29 overweight and obese patients	35-65	35 g/day	12	No effects	(Toscano et al., 2015)
76 overweight	20-70	50 g/day	12	No effects	(Nieman et al., 2009)
77 overweight/obese patients with type 2 diabetes	35-75	30 g/1000kcal	24	No effects	(Vuksan et al., 2017b)

MDA: malondialdehyde; ALA: alpha-linolenic acid; EPA: docosahexaenoic acid; TC: total cholesterol; VLDL-c: very low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HDL-c: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; MMP: mean blood pressure; DBP: diastolic blood pressure; SBP: systolic blood pressure; iAUC: incremental area under the curve; AUC: area under the curve.

In a clinical study, 10 postmenopausal women who ingested 25 g/day of milled chia seed over a 7-week period showed increased plasma levels of alpha-linolenic acid (ALA) and docosahexaenoic acid (EPA) by 138% and 30%, compared to baseline levels, respectively (Jin et al., 2012). Also, the consumption of 35 g of chia flour/day by overweight and obese adults resulted in a reduction in total cholesterol and very-low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (VLDL-c), and an increase in HDL-c (Toscano, Toscano, Tavares, Oliveira, & Silva, 2015). Furthermore, 62 postmenopausal women had increased plasma levels of ALA and EPA after ingestion of 25 g/day milled chia for 10 weeks (Nieman et al., 2012).

In animal studies, chia consumption has resulted in better lipid redistribution associated with cardioprotection and hepatoprotection. This was observed in rats receiving a hyperlipidic and hyperglycemic diet, who also presented an inhibition of enzyme stearoyl-CoA 9-desaturase index in liver and heart (Poudyal, Panchal, Waanders, Ward, & Brown, 2012). Another investigation with rats also found improvement in dyslipidemia and insulin resistance induced by the consumption of a sucrose-rich diet (62.5%) after ingestion of chia seeds (Chicco, D’Alessandro, Hein, Oliva, & Lombardo, 2009). Wistar rats fed both conventional and thermally treated chia, had lower glucose concentrations,

triacylglycerides, LDL-c, VLDL-c, and increased levels of HDL-c, hypertrophy of intestinal muscle layers, and good protein digestibility (da Silva et al., 2016b). Another study evaluated the effect of chia seed on rats fed a sucrose-rich diet in the long-term with consequent adipose tissue dysfunction. The authors observed that chia reduced epididymal fat and normalized dyslipidemia and insulin sensitivity induced by sucrose (de Souza Ferreira et al., 2015). In a separate study, a sucrose-rich diet and containing chia seed fed to Wistar rats for either 3 or 5 weeks reduced the epididymal fat, normalized dyslipidemia and insulin sensitivity (Rossi, Oliva, Ferreira, Chicco, & Lombardo, 2013). In this study, the consumption of chia by the animals prevented (3 months) or normalized (5 months) dyslipidemia, liver TAG, FAS, ACC (acetyl-CoA carboxylase), and G-6-PDH (glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase) activities and PPARα and SREBP-1 proteins levels. Also, chia seed increased fatty acid oxidase (FAO) and CPT-1 activities (carnitine-palmitoyl-transferase-1).

In a pregnant rats study in which corn oil was replaced by chia seed in a sucrose-rich diet, the offspring showed lower liver steatosis, hypertriglyceridemia, and hypercholesterolemia. Furthermore, CPT-1 and ACC enzyme activities and free fatty acid were reduced in the plasma of offspring from progenitors fed the chia seed containing diet (Fortino, Oliva, Rodriguez, Lombardo, & Chicco,

2017). Similarly, male rats that received chia seed instead of corn oil in the sucrose-rich diet improved heart lipotoxicity, increased FAT/CD36 (fatty acid transporter) proteins levels and M-CPT1 (muscle-type carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1) activity. In addition, there was a reduction in the PPAR α proteins and plasma fatty acids (FAs) levels. Authors suggested that the normalization of dyslipidemia by chia was due to the prevention of translocation of FAT/CD36 that reduced the influx of FAs, decreasing elevation of M-CPT1 activity and lipid storage, thus improving glucose oxidation in cardiac muscles (Creus, Ferreira, Oliva, & Lombardo, 2016). Furthermore, the consumption of chia seed flour for 35 days reduced TC, LDL-c, and VLDL-c, but increased PPAR- α protein levels in Wistar rats fed with a high-fat diet (da Silva et al., 2019).

Antihypertensive

Together with dyslipidemias, hypertension or high blood pressure (BP) is one of the most important risk factors for CVDs (Fowokan et al., 2018). Some studies have shown a promising potential of chia seeds to reduce BP. In hypertensive adults, the consumption of 35 g/day of chia flour for three months reduced BP, lipid peroxidation, and plasma nitrite concentrations. These effects were attributed to a large amount of n-3 fatty acids in chia that exerted antioxidant and antiinflammatory effects (Toscano et al., 2014). Also, patients with type-2 diabetes had a reduction of systolic and diastolic pressure after consumption of 35 g/day of chia for a period of 12 weeks (Vuksan et al., 2009). However, some studies have not found a change in BP after treatment with chia seeds in humans (Nieman et al., 2009; Toscano et al., 2015).

In a study with pregnant rats in which corn oil was replaced by chia seed in a sucrose-rich diet, the offspring showed a lower incidence of hypertension, liver steatosis, hypertriglyceridemia, and hypercholesterolemia. These results were associated with a high concentration of the omega-3 in chia seeds (Fortino et al., 2017). Similarly, male rats that received chia seeds instead of corn oil in the sucrose-rich diet had, among other effects, normalization of blood pressure after 3 months of treatment (Creus et al., 2016). Male rats that received a high-fat and high-fructose diet, for 8 weeks plus 8 weeks with 5% of the diet with chia seeds as treatment, showed several benefits regarding markers of CVDs. In addition, there were improvements in insulin sensitivity and glucose tolerance, reduced visceral adiposity, decreased hepatic steatosis and reduced cardiac and hepatic inflammation and fibrosis, but there was no change in blood pressure (Poudyal et al., 2012).

Furthermore, chia seeds have shown a hypotensive effect by enzymatic analysis. The chia protein hydrolysate has the same blocking activity of angiotensin-converting enzyme I (ACE-I) as done by synthetic ACE-I inhibitors. The authors of this study observed that the hydrophobic residues of chia protein had a similar action to that of synthetic ACE-I inhibitors, likely because they block the production of angiotensin II (Segura Campos, Peralta González, Chel Guerrero, Betancur Ancona, & Betancur Ancona, 2013). In addition, the C-terminal amino acids were believed to be responsible for the higher inhibitory ACE activity (Segura-Campos et al., 2013).

Anthropometrics

Due to the composition of chia, high in dietary fiber and low in carbohydrates, this seed has demonstrated the ability to increase satiety and reduce the desire to eat (Ayaz et al., 2017; Vuksan et al., 2017a). These observations can be associated with other results that

have demonstrated that the consumption of 30 g/1000 kcal of chia seed during six months by overweight and diabetic adults resulted in weight loss, reduction of waist circumference and C-reactive protein and increase in adiponectin (Vuksan et al., 2017b). Moreover, overweight and obese adults who received 35 g/day for 12 weeks had reductions in weight and percent fat (Toscano et al., 2015).

However, in one other study, overweight adults who consumed 25 g/day of chia did not have a reduction in their body mass index, waist circumference, or insulin resistance (Nieman et al., 2009). Also, the consumption of 35 g/day of chia seed by overweight adults for 12 weeks did not promote any significant change in body mass index or waist circumference (Toscano et al., 2014). Similarly, individuals with type 2 diabetes who consumed 37 g/day chia did not have changes in body weight (Vuksan et al., 2007). Furthermore, 62 postmenopausal women had no changes in their body composition after consumption of 25 g/day milled chia for 10 weeks (Nieman et al., 2012).

In a Wistar rat experiment in which soybean oil and cellulose contained in a standard basal diet were replaced by chia flour and heat-treated or untreated chia seeds, experienced weight loss as compared to the group of animals consuming the standard control diet (da Silva et al., 2016b). However, in another investigation, chia flour did not reduce the weight of Wistar rats fed with a high-fat diet (HFD) (da Silva et al., 2016a; Marineli et al., 2015a). It has also been reported that chia seed consumption for 13 months increased the body weight in rats as compared to a control group (Montes Chañi et al., 2018; Poudyal et al., 2012). Although chia seeds increased the weight in rats fed a HFD, it also reduced the visceral adiposity index and decreased the retroperitoneal and omental fat depositions (Poudyal et al., 2012).

Hypoglycemic

High levels of glycemia in blood can activate pathways related to overproduction of reactive oxygen species that induce a biochemical cascade resulting in increased inflammation and endothelial dysfunction. These conditions are associated with the development of diseases such as diabetes and cardiovascular problems (Nazarian-Samani, RDE, Lorigooini, & Rafeian-Kopaei, 2018).

In an acute study, healthy adults who consumed 25 g of ground chia, together with a glucose challenge, had a reduced blood glucose area under the curve (AUC) over 120 min and a reduction of peak glucose and increased time to peak compared with the control (Vuksan et al., 2017a). Also, ground and whole chia were incorporated in bakery products (7, 15, and 24 g) and consumed by healthy individuals after 10 to 12 hr of fasting, and there were reduced blood glucose incremental areas under the curve (iAUC) as compared to the control (Ho et al., 2013) and postprandial glycemia (Vuksan et al., 2010). However, individuals with type 2 diabetes who consumed 30 g/100 kcal chia for 6 months did not experience changes in glycosylated hemoglobin or fasting glucose (Vuksan et al., 2017b). Similar results were observed in overweight or obese individuals who ingested, for 12 weeks, 35 g/day chia flour (Toscano et al., 2015) or 25 g/day chia seeds (Nieman et al., 2009). Furthermore, consumption of 25 g/day of chia seed by postmenopausal women over 10 weeks did not show any effects on serum glucose (Nieman et al., 2012). These results demonstrate a positive action of chia in acute studies, but not in chronic studies in humans.

In animal studies, both, chia seed and chia flour (heat-treated and untreated), reduced plasma glucose in normal Wistar rats after 14 days of treatment (da Silva et al., 2016b). In one of these

studies, a group of animals received a HFD together with chia flour for 12 weeks (prevention group). The other group was fed initially only a high-fat and high-fructose (HFF) diet for 6 weeks, followed by an additional 6 weeks with HFF diet containing chia seed (treatment group). On the final day of the study, the consumption of chia seeds had improved glucose and insulin tolerance for both groups, prevention and treatment (Marineli et al., 2015b). These results may be associated with the expression of HSP70, HSP25 (heat shock proteins) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator-1 α (PGC-1 α) in skeletal muscle. Both of these proteins protect against insulin intolerance, increase control of energy homeostasis and glucose metabolism (Marineli et al., 2015b). Similar results were observed in Wistar rats fed with a high-fat and high-carbohydrate diet and 5% of chia seeds during 8 weeks in comparison with a control group (Poudyal et al., 2012).

Proteins from Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.)

Nutritional quality

Proteins from animal sources are of good quality, but costly, and in some individuals can cause allergies or intolerances, such as egg or milk proteins. Plant proteins can be a good source of essential amino acids, complementing or even replacing animal sources (Montoya-Rodríguez, Gómez-Favela, Reyes-Moreno, Milán-Carrillo, & González de Mejía, 2015; Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013). The chia seed contains around 19% protein, and therefore it is considered a good source of this nutrient (Table 1). The protein concentration is greater than that found in other traditional grains, such as wheat (14%), barley (9.2%), oats (15.3%), corn (14%), and rice (8.5%) (Monroy-Torres, Mancilla-Escobar, Gallaga-Solórzano, Medina-Godoy, & Santiago-García, 2008).

Moreover, chia protein has a good digestibility (78.9%), similar to that of casein (88.6%) (Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013) and beans (77.5%), and higher than maize (66.6%), rice (59.4%), and wheat (52.7%) proteins (Betancur-Ancona, Gallegos-Tintoré, & Chel-Guerrero, 2004), but less than amaranth (90%) (Grobelnik-Mlakar, Turinek, Jakop, Bavec, & Bavec, 2009). The digestibility value of chia protein is a general indicator of the nutritional quality of its proteins, and it may be associated with their chemical structures which make them more or less susceptible to proteolytic enzymes (López, Galante, Robson, Boeris, & Spelzini, 2018).

Chia seeds contain all essential amino acids for human nutrition: isoleucine, leucine, lysine, methionine, phenylalanine, threonine, tryptophan, histidine, and valine (Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013). Among all amino acids, glutamine is in highest concentration and histidine is the least present. The chemical score of chia seeds is 100% satisfactory for the sulfur amino acids and the coverage for the remaining essential amino acids ranges from 52% to 76%. The content of essential amino acids in seed flour varies from 66% to 126%. Lysine is the limiting amino acid with the lowest coverage of requirement (Table 3) (FAO/WHO/UNU, 2008; Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013).

Seed proteins can be classified based on different criteria such as function and differential solvent solubility, among others. The storage proteins are those proteins which are present to supply intermediary nitrogen compounds for biosynthesis at a metabolically active stage of seed development (López et al., 2018). The main storage proteins present in chia are prolamins, glutelins, albumins, and globulins, the latter two are found in greater quantity than the others (Kačmárová, Lavová, Socha, & Urmínská, 2016; Orón-Tamayo et al., 2015; Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013).

Table 3—Amino acid composition of chia seed and contribution of essential amino acids with requirement patterns for infants and adults.

Amino acid	Content in the seed flour (mg/g raw protein)	Contribution of essential amino acids (%)			
		Infants (0.5-1 year)		Adults (>18 years)	
		RP	% CR	RP	%CR
Aspartate	47.3 ± 0.9				
Glutamine	70.8 ± 1.1				
Serine	26.2 ± 0.3				
Glycine	22.8 ± 0.7				
Arginine	42.3 ± 0.4				
Alanine	26.8 ± 0.3				
Proline	19.9 ± 0.7				
Histidine	13.7 ± 0.1	20	69	15	91
Threonine	18.0 ± 0.2	31	58	23	78
Valine	25.5 ± 0.4	43	66	39	73
Methionine + cysteine	27.8 ± 0.5	28	99	22	126
Isoleucine	24.2 ± 0.4	32	76	30	81
Leucine	41.5 ± 0.6	66	63	59	70
Phenylalanine + tyrosine	38.8 ± 0.5	52	75	38	102
Lysine	29.9 ± 0.5	57	52	45	66

RP = requirement patterns (mg/g raw protein) (FAO/WHO/UNU, 2008); CR = coverage of requirement for that specific essential amino acid in percentage according of age. Source: Adapted by Sandoval-Oliveros, Paredes-López, 2013.

The amount of protein may vary according to the botanical source, plant variety, preparation of the meal, extraction method, and other factors (Vázquez-Ovando et al., 2010). The protein fractions in chia seed have been shown to contain mostly 11S and 7S proteins whose molecular sizes range from 15 to 50 kDa, under native conditions. The presence of the globulins 7S and 11S in ingredients may confer nutritional and physiological characteristics to foods that are dependent on their structural sequence and physicochemical properties (Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013).

The denaturation temperatures of crude albumins, globulins, prolamins, and glutelins are 103, 105, 86, and 91 °C, respectively, thus indicating an excellent thermal stability for albumins and globulins (Sandoval-Oliveros & Paredes-López, 2013). The stability at high temperatures can be an indicator of hydrophobic bonds between the amino acids that make up the proteins, since hydrophobic interactions are entropy-driven and endothermic; they are stabilized at a high temperature (60 to 70 °C), but destabilized at a low temperature (Olivos-Lugo et al., 2010). Moreover, the denaturation peak temperature (T_d) has been reported as single and high (97°C), but the thermal stability of chia proteins was improved (108.6°C) when it interacted with chia seed gum by complex coacervation (Timilsena, Adhikari, Barrow, & Adhikari, 2016).

Chia protein isolates showed a good water-holding capacity, which is the amount of water withheld by the hydrated protein after having applied an external force. Isolates also have an excellent oil-holding capacity, which is the union of fat by means of the lateral nonpolar protein chains. These characteristics indicate the presence of hydrophobic amino acids and demonstrate the possibility of using chia in emulsions and bakery products (Olivos-Lugo et al., 2010).

Identified proteins from chia seeds

Twenty proteins from chia seeds have been identified in the literature based on their amino acids sequences (www.uniprot.org). Twelve of these proteins are responsible for the metabolic functions needed for the existence of the seed: as metabolism, cell division, and pathways. Eight proteins are related to lipid

Table 4–Proteins identified from chia seed (*Salvia hispanica*).

Protein	ID	Sequence	AAR	MW
Ribulose biphosphate carboxylase large chain	Q36769	MSPQTETKASVGFKAGVKEYKLYTPEYETKDTDLAAFRVTPQPGVPEEAGAAV AAESSTGTWTTVWTDGLTSLDRYKGRCYHIEPVPEKDDQYICYVAYPLDLFEEGSVT NMFTSIVGNVFGFKALRALRLEDLRIPVAYVKTFQGGPPHGIQAERDKLNKYGRPLL CTIKPKLGLSAKNYGRAVYECLRGGLDFTKDDENVNSQPFRWRDRFLFCAEAIYKS QAETGEIKGHYLNATAGTCEEMMKRAIFARELGVPIVMHDYLTGGFTAVTSLAHYCR DNGLLLIHHRAMHVIDROKNHGMHFRVLAKALRLSGGDHHSQVTKLEGREDIT LGFVDLLRDDFVEKERSRGIYFTQDWVSLPGVIPVASGGIHWVHMPALTEIFGDDSV LQFGGGTLGHPWGNAPGAVANRVAVEACVLARNEGRDLAAEGNAIIREACKWSPELA AACEVWKEIKFEFPAMD	473	52,390
Oleosin	AOA0F6PN28	MADQHYGQFQSRPHHLQHHPRSHQMVKAAATAVTAGGSLVLSGLTLAATVIALTIAT PLLVIKSPVLPVPAALAVFALAGGFLASGGFVAALSLSWIYKYMGTGKHPVADQLDT ARTKLAGKARDMKDRVDHNVSAQSS	142	14,894
Fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 2	AOA1Z1EC60	MAVSSGADAHHGHAQYEHLGKRAADKFDPAAPPFFKIADIRAAIPPHCWVKDPLRSL SYVAWDVFFVVAALLAAAFDWSWIFWPIYWAAQGTMFWALFVLGHDCGHSFSDNTTL NNVVGHVHSSILVPYHGWRISHRTHHQNHHGVENDESWVPLTENLYKQDFSTKFLR YKIPFPMFAYPLYLWYRSPGKSGSHFNPSYSLFKPNERDLVITSTICWAAMVACLLYA STIVGPTMLFKLYGVPIYLVVWLDVTYTLHHHGVDKLPWYRSKEWSYLRGGLTTVD QDYGIFNKIHHDIGTHVVHLLFPQIPHYHLVEATREAKRVLGNYYREPRKSGAVPFHL VPTLLKSLSRDHYVSDNGDIVYYQTDGELFSSKEI	386	43,983
Fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 1	AOA1Z1EC53	MAVSSGARLSESGAEGGEPYAGQCEHLEGIKRAADKFDPAAPPFFKIADIRAAIPPH CWVKDPLRSLSYVAWDLIAVAALLAAAFDWSWIFWPIYWAAQGTMFWALFVLGHDC CGHSFSDNTLNNVVGHVHSSILVPYHGWRISHRTHHQNHHGVENDESWVPLTEN NLYKQDFSTKFLRYKIPFPMFAYPLYLWYRSPGKSGSHFNPDSSLFKPNERDLVI TSTVCWAAMVAFLLYASTIVGPTMLFKLYGVPIYLVVWLDVTYTLHHHGVDKLP WYRSKEWSYLRGGLTTVDQDYGIFNKIHHDIGTHVIHHLFPQIPHYHLVEATREAK RVLGNYYREPRKSGVPFHLIPTLLKSLSRDHYVSDNGDIVYYQTDSQLFSS KEI	393	44,873
Fatty acid desaturase 7 isoform 1	AOA1Z1EC64	MASVWLSGGCKLPLPRIYPMPRTVSSPNPSKLRISTADFSSDSSLSVGRGRNWGL NVSAPLRFQEVGEEENEERESEVNGFGGDDGDFPGAPPPFKLADIRAAIPKHCWVK NPWKSMSYVVRDVAVVFLGAAAAAYLNNWAVWPLYWFAQGTMFWALFVLGHDC GHGFSFNDPKLNSVAGHLLHSSILVPYHGWRISHRTHHQNHHGVENDESWHPLSEK IYKQDFVTKKLRFPLPMLAYPIYLWRSRSPGKSGSHFHPDSDLFVPIVNERKDVIT STVCWTAMVAILAGLSFVMGPIQLLKYGIPYFGFVAWLDLVTYLHHGHGDKLPW YRGKEWSYLRGGLTTLDLDRDYGWNNIHHDIGTHVIHHLFPQIPHYHLIEATEAAK VLGKYKPEKQSGPLPLYLGLVLAWSMCKDHYVSDTGDIVYYQTDKPLN	440	49,789
Fatty acid desaturase 8	AOA1Z1EC52	MASFVISGCKLPLPRIYPKPRVQNSFSTSNLRISRPNOFSSSISGINQKRNVGLGVSAP LRIQPLEEENEEDFPAAPPFFKLSIDKAAIPKHCWVKDPLRSLVYVVRDVAVLGMMA AAAAFYNSWVWPLYWFAQSTMFWALFVLGHDCGHSFSDNPKLNSVFGHFLHSSIL VPYHGWRISHRTHHQNHHGVENDESWHMPPEKIYNSLDSMAKLRFTLPPMLAYPI YLWTRSPGKSGSHYHPDSDLFVPAERKDVITSTVCWTAMAALLVGLSFVMGPIQLL LYGIPYLGFAWLDVTYTLHHHGDKLPWYRGKEWSYLRGGLTTLDLDRDYGLNIIH HDIGTHVIHHLFPQIPHYHLIEATEAAKVLGKYREPKKSGPLPLHLLGLDLVRSK KDHYVSDTGDVYYQTDQPLNGGQKS	429	48,721
Fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 2	AOA1Z1EC55	MGAGGRMSVPPAEKAAKSDIVQRPVPHTKPFTLGDIKKAIIPPHCFKRSIPRSFSYVVY DLVFAFLFYVATNYIHQLPHPLSPAWILYIGICQGCILTVVWVIAHECGHHAFFSDYQ WLDLDTVGLILHSFLLVPFFSWKYSHRRHHSNTGSLERDEVFVKVKTGVSAAKYMNN PPGRITLVVQLTLGWPLYLMFNVSGRPYDRFACHFDPNPSPIYSDRERAQIFSDAGI LAVTYGLRYSVAKGLAWVLCVYGGPLLNVNGLVLIITFLQHTHPHSDSEWDLW RGALSTVDRDYGILNTVFHNITDTHVAHHLFSTMPHYHAMEATKVIKIPGLKYYQFDG TPVFKAMFREVK ECIYVEPDEG EENKGVFWYN NKL	383	43,717
Fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 1	AOA1Z1EC46	MGAGGRMSVPPADKKAASDVQIRVPHAKPPFTL EIKKAIIPPHCFKRSIPRSFSYVVYDLIASLFFYVATNYIHQLPQPLSYLAWTLYG ICQGCILTVVWVLAHECGHHAFFSDYQWLDLDTVGLILHSFLLVPFFSWKYSHRRHHS NTGSLERDEVFVKVKSQVSWTAKYMNNPPGRVITLIVQLTLGWPLYLMFNVSGRP YDRFACHFDPKSPIYSDRERAQIFISDAGILAVLYGLYRMSVAKGLAWVLCVYGGP LLVNGFLVLIITFLQHTHPALPHYDSEWDLRGALATVDRDYGILNTIFHNITDT HVAHHLFSTMPHYHAMEATKAIKPIGLKYYQLDETVPVFKAMFREV E CIYVEPDEG EENKGVFWYN NKL	383	43,788
Monoacylglycerol acyltransferase	AJW67342.1	MSPENPSNFWGDTPEEYASQGVNRNSKSYFDS HGRFLTQSFPLDPTRPVKASVFMTHYGGSDSSWMFKQFCISYAAWGYAVFAADML GHGRSDGIRCYMGDLPKVAASLAFRFRVRSDEYKDLPAFLVGVESMGLATLLMY FQSEKDLWTGLIFSAPLFIPEMMSPKVVHFAYGMLFGLADTWAAMPDNKMGVKA IKDPEKLVIASNPMRYTGKPRVGTMRRELRQTEYAQNDFDKVITPFFAHTGSDG LAEWSGSQMLYDKASSEDKTLKLYEGMYHSLIQGEPDENANLVLADMRAWIDERVE RYGKKN	320	36,009
Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit E	AOA2R4LNR4	MASKYDLTPRIAPNLDRLHVFLLFLEQERGLYPE EDILKAKIELLNHTNMVDYAMDHKSLYHSDVPODMIDRRAEVVGRKLALEDGAAP LIGFLQNPNAVQELRADKQYNLQMLKDRYQIQPEQIDALYDYAKFQECGNYSGAAD YLYQYRALCTNSDKLSALWGLAAEVLQMNWDIALEELNRLKEIISDNFSSPLN VQSRIWLMHWSLFIFFNHDNGRTQIIDLFDQDKYLNAIQTNAPHLRLRYLATAFIVNK RRRPFQKFEIKVIQEQEYSHEDPITFLACIYVNYDFDGAQKKMKECEEVILNDPFL GKRIIEGNFTTVPLRDEFLEPSYTNVYEQLIDHTKALSTRYKIVHQLLENAPQTA RCRIHQRIDMGVLADKLNLNLYEEAERWIVNLIKRTSKLEAKIDSKLGTIIME N ARLFIFETY	438	51,240

(Continued)

Table 4–Continued.

Protein	ID	Sequence	AAR	MW
S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase proenzyme	A0A2R4LNQ8	MDMPVSAIGFEGYEKRLEISFVEPGVFADPDGCGY LRALTKAQLDEILDPAQCTIVASLKNDDVDVSVLSESLFVSYKILKTCGTTKL LLSIPPLRLADGLGLTVSSVRYRSGSFIFPGAQPFPHRSFNEEVAVLDDHFSKLG LMSEAYVMGDADEHEKWHVYSAYLEPSSDVEPVYTTLEMCMTNLDQKKASVFFKNQS SSATIMTDASGIRNILEPESEICDFDFPCGYSMNSIEGGAVSTIHVTPEDFGFSYAS FETGGYDFEKVDLTLQVERVLACFNPAKFSVAVRASIAGKELDSAFKLDIAKYGCA GRRCEVLGDGGSVIYCNFTSATGCCSPRSTLHLWCSESEDEIEEK	360	39,453
Tubulin beta chain	A0A2R4LNR5	MREILHIQGGQCGNQIGSKFWEICDEHGVDPGTG RYKGDGSESDTQLERINVYFNEASGGRYVPRAVLMDLEPGTMDIRSIRPGYQIFRP DNFVFGQSGAGNNWAKGHYTEGAELIDSVLDVVRKEAENCDCDQGFQVCHSLGGGT GSGMGTLLISKIREEYPDRMMLTFSVFPSPKVSVDVTVETYNATLSVHQLVENADEC MVLNDEALYDICFRTLKLTSPSFGDLNHLISATMSGVTCCLRFPQQLNSDLRKLAV NLIPFPRLHFFMVGFAPLTSRGQHYISLTVPELTQQMWDKSNMMCAADPRHGRYLT ASAMFRGKMSTKEVDEQMLNVQNKNNVKSVCDDIPPTGLKMSSTFVGNSTSIQEMF RRVSEQFTAMFRKAFHLHWYTGEGMDEMEFTEAESNMNDLVAEYQQYQD A TADEEEDYE EDGAEGEYEDSSYFVWIPN	450	50,485
Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase	A0A2R4LNR0	MSGNHMISIVIAMVCGVFRGSITAIATVPELGS ARVVFQTNYGDIIEFGFYHSVAPKTVEHIFKLVRLGGYNTNHFFRVD K GFVAQVADVGGGRTAPMNE VQRLEAEKTV VGEFSDV KHV RGLISMGRYSDPSAQSSSILLGDAPHLDGQYAFGKVTKGD ETLSKMEEVPTRKEGIFVMPITERITFSTYYYDTETESCEDDRLEKRRILASAVE IEKQRMKCFP	229	25,507
Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase	A0A2R4LNQ7	MPGHGDLDRQIEQLMECKPLSEAEVKILCDQARA ILVEEWNVQPVKCPVTVCGDIHQGFYDLIELFRIGGNAPDTNYLFMGDYVDRGYS VETVTLVALKVRYRDRITLRGNHESRQITQVYGFYDECLRKYGNANVWKFDDL FDYPLTALIESQVFCFLHGGSPSLDLDNIRALDRMQEVPHEGPMCDLLWSDPDD RCGWGISPRGAGYTFGQDIAAQFNHTNGLTISRHAQLVMEGFNWQCQKNNVTVFS APNYCYRCGNMAAILEIGEHEM QNFLQDFPAP RQIEP DTRK TPDYFL	306	35,001
Elongation factor 1-alpha	A0A2R4LNQ6	MGKEKHISIVIGHVDSGKSTTGHLYKLGIDK RVIERFEKEAAEMNKRFSKYAWVLDKKAERERGITIDIALWKFETTKYCTVIDAPG HRDFIKNMITGTSQADCAVLIIDSTTGGFEAGISKDQGTREHALLAFTLVGKQMICCC NKMDATTPKYSKARYDEIIEKVSYLKKGVYNEKIPFVPSIGFEGDNMIERSTNLWD YKGPLLEALDAVQEPKRPSPDKPLRLPLQDYKIGIGITVPVGRVETGVKIPGCMVVTF GPTGLTTEVKSVEMHHEALQEALPGDNVGFNVKNVAVKDLKRGFVANSKDDPAKAE ANFTSQVIIMNHPQIGNGYAPVLDCHTSHIAVKFSELMTKIDRRSGKELEKEPKFLKN GDAGMVKMIPTKPMVVETFSQYPLGRFAVRDMRQTVAVGVKISVEKDPGSAKV TKAAAKGKAK	449	49,408
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	A0A2R4LNR9	MAKIKIGINGFRIGRLVARVALQRDDVELVAVN DPFITVDYMTYMFKYDSVHGQWKHHELKVKDEKTLTLLFGEKPVTVFGFRNPEEIPWA STGAEYIVESTGVFTDKDKAAHLKGGAKKVVISAPSKDAPMFVGVNKSYPDL DIVSNASCTTINCLAPLAKVINDRFIVGELMTTVHSITATQKTVDGSPAKDWRGGR AASFNIIPSTGAAKAVGKVLPAINGKLTGMAFRVPTVDVSVVDLTVRLEKEATYD EIKAAKKESEGNLKGILGYTEDDVVSTDFVGDNRSSIFDAKAGIALSKNFVKLVS WYDNEW GYSTRVVDLI KHIHSTQ	337	36,706
Actin	A0A2R4LNQ3	MADAEDIQLVCDNGTGMVKAGFAGDDAPRAVF PSIVGRPRHTGVMVGMGQKDAYVGDQAQSKRGILTLYPIEHGIVSNWDDMEKIW HHTFYNELRVAPEEHPILLTEAPLNPKANREKMTQIMFETFNTPAMYAIAQAVLS LYASGRTTGIVLDSGDGVSHTVPIYEGYALPHAILRDLAGRDLDLSMLKILTER GYMFTTTAEREIVRDIKEKLAYIALDYEQELETAKTSSAVEKNYELPDGQVITIG AERFRCPEVLFQPSMIGMEAAGIHETTYNSIMKCDVDIRKDYGNIVLSGGSTMF PGIADRMKSKEITALAPSSMKIKVVPAPPERKYSVWIGGSILASLSTFQQMWIAKAE YDESGPS IVHRKCF	377	41,738
Clathrin adaptor complex	A0A2R4LNR7	MPLAASAIYFLNLRGDVLINRLRYDDVGGNMVD AFRVHIMQTKELGTCVPRQIGGCSFFYMRISNVYIVVSSNANVACAFKVVVEA VTLKSYFGGSFDEDAIRNFFLYELLDEIMDFGYPQLNSPEILKLYITQEGYR SPFSSKTADKVPVNPATLQVTGAVGWRRLEGLVYKKNVFLDIVESVNLMLSSKGSV LRCDVTGKILMKCFLSGMPDLKGLNDKIGLEKESQLKSRPAKSGKTIELDDVTF HQCVNLTFRNSEKTVSFVPPDGEFELMKYRITEGVNLPRVLPITIKELGRTRMEV NVKVSVFGAKMFALGVVVIKIPVKQTAKTFSQVTSKGAKYSPSIDCLVWKIRKF PGQTEPTLSAEVELISTITEKKSWTRPPIQMEFQVPMFTASGLRVRFLKVVWEKSG YNTVEWVRYITK AGSYEVRC	438	49,311
Alpha-tubulin	A0A2R4LNS8	MISNNTAVEVFSRIDHKFDLMYSKRAVFHWYV GEGMEEGEFSEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGAEGVDDDEDE GEDY	74	8,488
FtsH protease	A0A2R4LNS4	FDRNIVVNPDPVEGRRIQLESHMSKVLKGEDVDIE IIARGTPGFSGAELANLVNVAAIKAAAMDGAKAVSMADLEHAKDKIVMGSERKSAVIS DESRRNTAYHEGGHALVAMFTD GALPVHKATIVPRGNALGMVSQLPKDQTSVSRKQ MLARLDVCMGGRVAEELIFGESEVTSGASSDLESATRMARSMVTRYGMSKQLGFVSH DYNDNGRSMSTETRLLEIEQEVKDLLEKAYNNAKILTHTSKELHALANELLDKETLT GAQVKALLENVKAQNTQ QKQKQIVT	289	31,473

AAR = Amino acid residues; MM = Molecular mass (Da). Amino acid nomenclature: C, cysteine; H, his; histidine; I, ile; isoleucine; M, met; methionine; S, ser; serine; V, val; valine; A, ala; alanine; G, gly; glycine; L, leu; leucine; P, pro; proline; T, thr; threonine; F, phe; phenylalanine; R, arg; arginine; Y, tyr; tyrosine; W, trp; tryptophan; D, asp; aspartic acid; N, asn; asparagine; B, asx; either of D or N; E, glu; glutamic acid; Q, gin; glutamine; Z, glx; either of E or Q; K, lys; lysine; X, undetermined amino acid. Protein sequence was obtained from UniProt database (<http://www.uniprot.org>).

production and storage (Table 4). The main functions of these proteins are described below.

Fatty acid desaturases. The desaturase enzymes are responsible of dehydrogenation reactions, they introduce a double bond between defined carbons of fatty acyl chains. These enzymes can be

soluble and are found in the plant plastid acting as acyl–acyl carrier protein desaturases (Dar, Choudhury, Kancharla, & Arumugam, 2017; Sharma & Chauhan, 2012).

The seed-specific delta-12 fatty acid desaturase 2 (FAD2) is a bi-functional hydroxylase/desaturase and tri-functional acetylenase

responsible for inserting a double bond at the delta-12 position of oleic acid, thereby producing linoleic acid (omega-6). The FAD2 is a multifunctional enzyme that acts in the biological membrane systems: signaling, energy storage, thermal adaptation, and resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses in plants (Sharma & Chauhan, 2012). The fatty acid desaturases 3, 7, and 8 (FAD3, FAD7, FAD8) are key enzymes responsible for producing α -linolenic acid (ALA), also called omega-3 in plants. The FAD3 catalyzes the introduction of a third double bond at the delta-15/ omega-3 carbon position of linoleic acid in the endoplasmic reticulum, and the FAD7 and FAD8 in plastids (Xue et al., 2018). Fatty acid desaturases 2 (FAD2) and 3 (FAD3) are the main enzymes responsible for the delta-12 and delta-15 desaturation in plants (Radovanovic, Thambugala, Duguid, Loewen, & Cloutier, 2014). The FAD 2, 3, 7, and 8 are different by nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the conserved region (Dehghan Nayeri & Yarizade, 2014).

Monoacylglycerol acyltransferase (MGAT). The lipids produced by FAD are organized into molecules as triacylglycerol (TAG) formed by several enzymes. First, the glycerol-3-phosphate is acylated by G3P acyltransferase (GPAT) in two free hydroxyl positions to produce lysophosphatidic acid (LPA). This one is acylated by LPA acyltransferase (LPAT), producing phosphatidic acid (PA). Both, LPA and PA, can be dephosphorylated to monoacylglycerol (MAG) and diacylglycerol (DAG). MAG is converted to DAG by MAG acyltransferase (MGAT) that transfers an acyl moiety from acyl-CoA to MAG. Finally, DAG is then acylated by DAG acyltransferase (DGAT) to produce TAG (Sreedhar, Priya, Sunny, Ram, & Malathi, 2015; Vijayaraj et al., 2012).

The MGAT can be soluble, as above, or associated with oleosin. In this case, MGAT has a role to form TAG that will be stored in oleosin (Sreedhar et al., 2015). Because of this, MGAT can have a role in preserving unsaturated fatty acids in plants, such as *Ricinus communis*, *Brassica napus*, and maize (Baud & Lepiniec, 2010). While DAG is a signaling molecule and an intermediate for the synthesis of neutral and membrane lipids, the MGAT pathway may operate for storage purposes. Also, it has been demonstrated that MGAT activity is more evident with unsaturated than saturated fatty acids (Vijayaraj et al., 2012).

Oleosin. In plants, more specifically in seeds, the triacylglycerol (TAG) is typically stored in lipid droplets that are stabilized by associated proteins, as oleosins (Winichayakul et al., 2013). Oleosins contain the amphipathic N- and C-terminal domains exposed to cytosol, and a hydrophobic central domain formed by a long chain of non-polar amino acids. This structure stabilizes the lipids inside the cells, protecting, for example, against phospholipases and desiccation (Huang, 2017).

Chia seeds have a high concentration of lipids, on average 31%, and the main type of fatty acid found in chia seed is the omega-3 (around 20%), followed by omega-6 (about 6%) (da Silva et al., 2017). This seed is one of the most efficient omega-3 sources for enriching foods, its proportion of omega-3:omega-6 is the highest among crop sources (Segura-Campos et al., 2014). The high concentration of omega-3 fatty acid desaturases (FAD3, FAD7, and FAD8) and the presence of oleosin and MGAT may be responsible for the elevated production and storage of omega-3 in chia seed.

Ribulose biphosphate carboxylase large chain. Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) is a bifunctional multimeric plant metabolic enzyme that converts carbon dioxide from the biosphere into organic carbon in a rate-limiting step of the Calvin cycle and photorespiration, depending on its affinity

for carbon dioxide or molecular oxygen (Andersson & Backlund, 2008). The RuBisCO structure is a heterohexadecamer with eight large subunits with high molecular weight, and eight small subunits with low molecular weight. In chia, only large chains have been detected (Table 4) (Udenigwe et al., 2017). This enzyme is made up of about 50% soluble proteins in the plant leaf and can be found in autotrophs, including bacteria and algae; RuBisCO is the most abundant protein on earth (Andersson & Backlund, 2008).

RuBisCO is a good source of bioactive peptides that have demonstrated beneficial effects for health promotion both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Udenigwe et al., 2017). Rubiscolin, a δ -opioid peptide with sequence YPLDLF shows a memory-consolidating effect, since it is blocked by naltrindole and raclopride, antagonists of the δ -opioid receptor and dopamine D2-receptor, respectively (Yoshikawa, 2015). Rubiscolin also shows anorexigenic effects (Kaneko et al., 2014).

Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit E. This protein is required for some steps in the initiation of protein synthesis and it is required for the disassembly and the recycling of post-termination ribosomal complexes. Also, the "eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit E" is involved in the pathway of cell proliferation (Consortium, 2017)

S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase proenzyme. It is a key rate-limiting enzyme in the polyamine biosynthesis required for plant growth, development, and protection in response to stress (Gupta, Yadav, Raj, Freilich, & Varadwaj, 2017).

Alpha and beta tubulin chain. This protein is the major constituent of microtubules, responsible of several cell functions, such as mitosis, cell expansion and division, and movement of organelles and vesicles. It binds two moles of GTP, one at an exchangeable site on the beta chain and one at a non-exchangeable site on the alpha chain (Chu et al., 2018).

Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase. This ubiquitous enzyme is found in all kingdoms of life, responsible for catalyzing a rate-limiting step in the protein-folding by *cis-trans* isomerization of proline peptide bonds (Consortium, 2017; Thongnak et al., 2017).

Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase. In plants, many cellular functions are controlled by the phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of target proteins by the serine/threonine-protein phosphatase family. These proteins are involved in a variety of biological processes, such as transcriptional control, cell cycle regulation, and signal transduction (Park et al., 2011).

Elongation factor 1-alpha. During protein biosynthesis, this protein promotes the GTP-dependent binding of aminoacyl-tRNA to the A-site of ribosomes. Also, this protein can be part of messenger ribonucleoprotein particle (mRNP) complexes, part of the valyl-tRNA synthetase complex, bind to actin, to be associated with the endoplasmic reticulum or the mitotic apparatus, and to be involved in protein degradation or ribosome association (Consortium, 2017).

Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase. This protein is involved in the glycolysis pathway by synthesis of pyruvate from D-glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. Also, GAPDH has roles in plant development, abiotic stress, and immune responses in plants (Zeng et al., 2018).

Actin. This protein is part of the cellular cytoskeleton and acts in cell division and expansion, vesicle trafficking, organelle movement, and cell growth (Paez-Garcia, Sparks, de Bang, & Blancaflor, 2018).

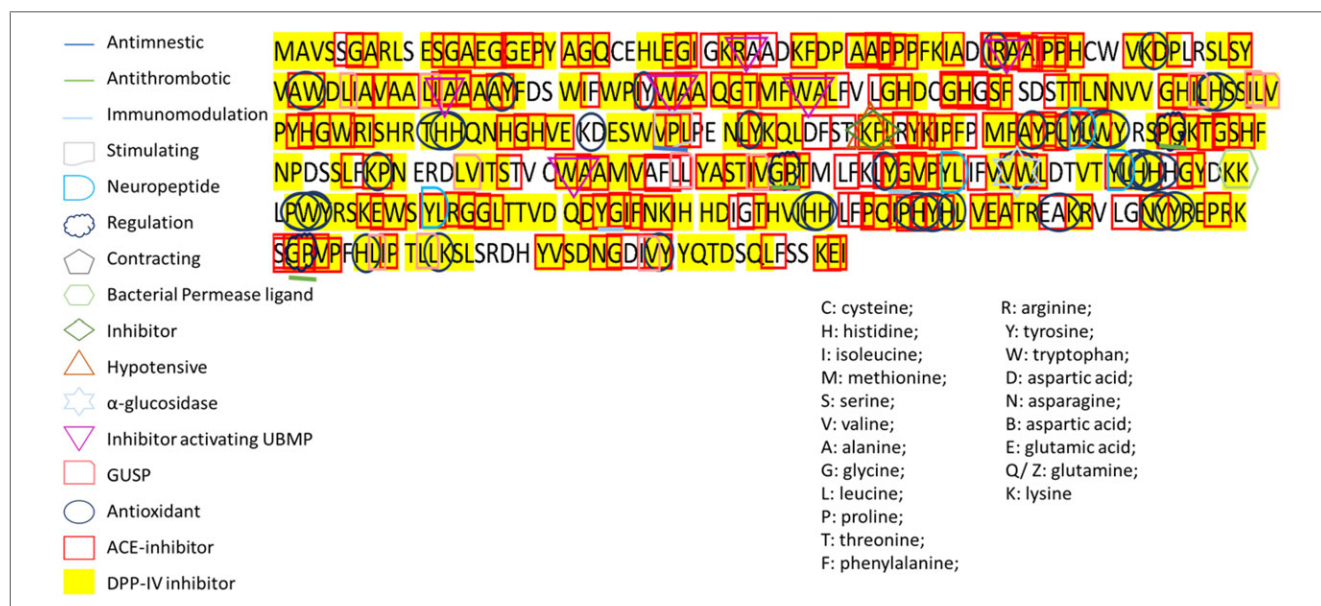


Figure 3–Bioactivity effect map of FAD3i.

Clathrin adaptor complex. This is a complex of proteins that regulates of the movement of proteins and lipids between the cellular membranes and has a role in the signaling and homeostasis, defining the interactions of cells with their surroundings (Jackson et al., 2010).

FtsH protease. It is an inner membrane-embedded zinc-dependent metalloprotease, involved in the egradation and assembly of protein complexes in the photosynthetic electron-transport pathways, and it acts on chloroplast manutention (Kato & Sakamoto, 2018).

Analysis of Bioactive Peptides from Chia Seed Proteins

Bioactive peptides are inactive within the sequence of the parent protein from plants, animals, or marine foods. However, after fermentation, enzymatic, chemical hydrolysis, or gastrointestinal digestion, peptides can be released (Meisel, 1997; Udenigwe & Aluko, 2012). On the other hand, peptides formed by gastrointestinal digestion, may act as regulatory compounds with hormone-like activity, as well as hypotensive, hypocholesteremic, anticancer, immunomodulatory agents, among others (Cicero, Fogacci, & Colletti, 2017). Thus, peptides represent potential health-enhancing nutraceuticals for food and pharmaceutical applications (Meisel, 1997).

For this review, all protein sequences, including the protein related to lipid and general metabolism in chia seed had their profile of active peptides evaluated using the database BIOPEP (<http://www.uwm.edu.pl/biochemia>). Each protein showed many effects and, as an example, Figure 3 shows the bioactivity effect map of FAD3i1. The results presented in Figure 4 were calculated as follows:

$$\% \text{occurrence of frequency} = \frac{n^\circ \text{ amino acids of each bioactive effects}}{\text{total } n^\circ \text{ of amino acids with bioactive effects}}$$

The peptides found demonstrated mainly hypoglycemic and hypotensive activity, since most of them presented dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP IV inhibitor) and angiotensin-converting-enzyme (ACE) inhibitor activities, respectively (Figure 4, Tables 5 and 6).

The antioxidant effect and the glucose uptake stimulating peptide (GUSP) had a high occurrence of frequency (5.9 and 2.7%, respectively). The other effects, for example, antimnemonic, stimulating vasoactive substance release, neuropeptides, and immunomodulating had a frequency of occurrence of less than 1% (Figure 4).

The number of studies using isolated peptides from chia are limited but show beneficial promising health effects. A protein hydrolysate from chia seed, produced by enzymatic hydrolysis, with alcalase and/or Flavourzyme, demonstrated antibacterial activity, reducing the velocity of enzymatic reaction of and 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase (HMG-CoA reductase) (Coelho et al., 2018). The chia protein hydrolysate has also shown ACE-inhibitory and antioxidant activities (Chim-Chi, Gallegos-Tintoré, Jiménez-Martínez, Dávila-Ortiz, & Chel-Guerrero, 2018; Segura Campos et al., 2013; Segura-Campos et al., 2013). In another study, peptides with molecular weight <15 kDa were produced from a chia seed coproduct, generated during oil production, by digestion with papain. Peptides showed a potent radical scavenging effect against 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and 2,2'-azino-bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) diammonium salt (ABTS) radicals in comparison with non-digested samples (Cotabarren et al., 2019).

The simulated digestion of chia to produce protein hydrolysates and, consequently, peptides, can be performed with such enzymes as alcalase and Flavourzyme. These are commercial enzymes obtained from bacteria, for example, *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*. They act by interacting with peptide bonds through a serine residue at the active site (Ottesen & Svendsen, 1970). However, digestion with the enzymes trypsin, chymotrypsin, and pepsin demonstrates a hydrolytic physiological process, since the human gastrointestinal system produces such enzymes. This allows to evaluate the production of the bioactive peptides after normal consumption of food proteins (Udenigwe & Aluko, 2012). These enzymes, under optimum pH and temperature conditions, break the bonds between specific amino acids and release peptides and free amino acids that can be absorbed (Gardner, 1984).

Table 5—Identification of peptides in metabolic proteins from chia seed.

Bioactive Potential	RuBisco	ELF-3e	AdoMetDC	TBc	PPctl	STPp	EF1a	GAPH	Actin	CadC	a-tubulin	Ftsh
Antiamnestic	PG, GP	VPL, PG, GP	PG	PG, GP	–	PG	PG, GP	GP	PG, GP	PG	–	PG
Antithrombotic	GP, PG	GP, PG, NQDK	PG, DEE	GP, PG, DEE	–	PG	GP, PG	GP	GP, PG	PG	–	–
Immunomodulating	YG	EAE	YG	YG, EAE	YG, EAE	YG, EAE	KRP	–	YG	–	–	YG
Stimulation	EEE, SSS, EE	VPL, EE	SSS, EE, SE	EEE, EE, SE	–	EE, SE	SE	EE, SE	EE	SE	EE, SE	EE, SE
Neuropeptide Regulation	GQ DY, GP, PG	GQ, YL GFL, GLY, DY, GP, PG	YL PG	GQ, YL DY, GP, PG	GQ	GQ, YL DY, PG	GQ, YL GP, PG	GQ LGY, DY, GP	GQ DY, PG, GP	GQ PG	– DY	– DY, PG
Contracting	PLRP	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bacterial permease ligand	KK	KK	KK	–	–	–	KK	KK	–	KK	–	–
Inhibitor	EF	IR, KF, EF	IR, KF	IR, KF	EF	IR, KF	KF	–	IR	IR, KF, EF	KF, EF	–
Hypotensive	EF	IR, KF, EF	IR, KF	IR, KF	EF	IR, KF	KF	–	IR	IR, KF, EF	KF, EF	–
α-glucosidase inhibitor	VW	–	–	–	–	VW	–	–	VW	VW	–	–
activating UBMP GUSP	LA, WA VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, LL	RA, LA VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, II, LL	RA, LA VL, LV, IV, IL, LL	RA, LA, WA VL, LV, IL, LI, LL	LA LV, IV, IL, LL	RA LV, IL, LI, LL	LA VL, LI, II, LL	RA, LA, WA VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, II, LL	LA VL, IV, IL, LL	LA VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, LL	RA, LA –	LA VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, II, LL
Antioxidant	LHH, LH, HL, HH, AY, LY, IY, WY, IHH, HYH, THH, YYQ, VYY, LHL, LWT, PHY, PWY, KD, PW, LKP, LK, KP, TY, VY, VW, LW, WG	HL, LY, IY, EL, YDY, YQY, LWG, RHL, RWI, EAK, KVI, KD, RW, IR, LK, TY, PHY, PWY, VY, LW, LLR, GAA, WG, LAC	LH, HL, AY, IY, EL, YSY, LHL, PHR, YVL, IR, LK, VY	LH, EL, LHF, LHI, LHW, IR, LK, TY, VY, MM	HL, EL, YYD, YYY, TYY, PHL, LK, TY	LH, GYY, AH, EL, YYS, YCY, LHG, LWS, PHE, IR, KP, VY, VW, LW, WG, FC	HL, HH, IY, EL, MHH, KYY, YYC, LWK, KD, LK, KP, VY, AW, LW, QYP	HL, HH, AH, EL, WY, HIH, KHH, PWA, KVI, KD, PW, LK, KP, TY, GAA	HH, AY, LY, IY, EL, LY, IY, EL, IR, LK, RHT, MY, KD, IR, LK, TERGY, WDDMEK, LDY, VW, YVGD	HH, AY, LY, IY, EL, LY, IY, EL, IR, LK, RHT, MY, KD, IR, LK, TERGY, WDDMEK, LDY, VW, YVGD	WY, MY, KD	LH, AY, EL, LARL, KD, LK
ACE inhibitor	IYP, PLP, LKL, AAP, AKK, LY, IY, VF, LW, VW, YW, VY, HY, FP, LVR, GY, PR, YL, LF, YG, LAY, AY, LA, KR, VP, AA, GF, VG, IG, GI, GM, GL, GH, HL, KG, FG, GS, GV, MG, GQ, GK, WG, HG, GG, SG, LG, GF, TG, EA, NG, PG, VR, VAV, GHF, QK, SY, SF, KY, KL, KA, IPY, KP, RY, IE, VE, LN, PPPQ, EW, EK, KE, HP, PH, IQP, FVP, AV, LEE, GSH, LPF, AVL, DY, YV, IL, YH, WA, WL, MGP, SGP, RG, ST, YN, GHG, LR, LGV	RL, IR, RY, LY, IY, LW, VY, FP, PR, LAA, YL, LF, FNQ, YP, GP, PL, IW, LYP, YQY, PSY, IA, LKA, RW, RP, AF, AP, LA, KR, VP, RA, YA, AA, GF, GF, IF, IG, GI, YA, AA, GF, IF, IG, GA, GL, HL, GR, DA, GS, GV, MG, GK, GT, CG, DA, MG, GQ, GK, GT, WG, SG, LG, EG, EA, NG, PG, LRY, QK, DG, NY, NF, SY, KY, KF, KL, YK, RR, KA, YK, NK, RR, AR, KA, IAP, EI, IE, EV, VE, EQ, PP, EK, LN, TQ, PQ, KE, PH, AI, VRY, AV, ME, KE, PH, ASL, FNE, AQL, DGL, AVL, TP, DF, DM, YV, YE, IL, RG, ST, LR	NILP, ILP, RL, IR, RY, IY, VF, KW, VY, FP, GGY, IPP, GY, PR, YL, LF, YG, AY, YGL, IA, IP, AF, LA, KR, RA, YA, GF, IF, IG, GI, AA, GF, FR, IF, VG, IG, GM, GA, GL, GH, HL, GR, DA, GS, GV, MG, GR, KG, FG, GS, GV, GQ, GK, GT, HG, TG, EG, PG, GE, GG, QG, IAK, VR, VAV, QK, DG, NF, SY, SF, KF, KL, YK, RR, KA, LVE, VIY, CF, EI, IE, EV, VE, TQ, PP, EK, TE, LQ, LN, VRY, AV, ME, KE, TF, AV, FNE, AFL, AVL, DY, TP, VVF, FQ, FQ, YV, YE, IL, MM, AEL, WA, MW, SGP, RG, GTG, ST, YN, LR	RL, IR, LKL, RY, VF, MF, FAP, RF, VY, HY, FP, PR, YL, YG, YP, GP, PL, VFPS, VK, IA, IP, AF, LA, LA, VP, RA, AA, GF, FR, IF, VG, IG, GM, GA, GL, GH, HLGR, KG, FG, DA, HG, GE, GG, GD, EG, EA, NG, PG, VR, GK, GE, KY, KF, AR, LVE, KP, EI, IE, EV, VE, VRY, DY, TP, EW, ME, PH, EP, TF, AI, VRY, DY, TP, YV, IL, RG, GHG, LFR, LR	VMP, RL, FGK, RY, VF, TAP, GDAP, FP, VAP, LVR, YG, VK, IA, AP, LA, VP, YA, AA, GF, FR, IF, IG, GI, GA, CL, AC, GH, FG, GQ, WG, HG, GE, GG, GD, EG, EA, NG, PG, VR, PAP, NY, NF, KY, KF, AR, LVE, KP, EI, IE, EV, VE, VRY, DY, TP, EW, ME, PH, EP, TF, AI, VRY, DY, TP, YV, IL, RG, GHG, LFR, LR	IR, RY, VF, LW, VW, VY, GY, LSP, IRA, YL, LF, YG, FY, TQVY, PL, VK, IA, GW, AP, VP, RA, AA, GF, FR, IF, IG, GI, GA, CL, AC, GH, FG, GQ, WG, HG, GE, GG, GD, EG, EA, NG, PG, VR, PAP, NY, NF, KY, KF, AR, LVE, KP, EI, IE, EV, VE, VRY, DY, TP, EW, ME, PH, EP, TF, AI, VRY, DY, TP, YV, IL, RG, GHG, LFR, LR	RL, AKK, RY, IY, LW, RF, VY, GY, YL, YP, PLG, LPG, GP, PL, AW, VK, IA, LKA, IP, VP, RA, AA, GF, FR, IF, IG, GI, GA, CL, AC, GH, FG, GQ, WG, HG, GE, GG, GD, EG, EA, NG, PG, VR, GK, GT, GG, VY, VAV, TTN, QK, DG, NF, SY, SF, KY, KL, AR, NG, PG, VR, KA, EY, KP, EI, VE, TE, LQ, LN, PT, TQ, AH, EW, EK, KE, AV, LEK, VSW, VE, TE, LQ, DY, TP, DF, IL, WA, RG, ST	VLP, RL, AKK, VF, MF, RF, GY, GP, PL, AW, VK, IA, LKA, IP, VP, RA, AA, GF, FR, IF, IG, GI, GA, CL, AC, GH, FG, GQ, WG, HG, GE, GG, GD, EG, EA, NG, PG, VR, GK, GT, GG, VY, VAV, TTN, QK, DG, NF, SY, SF, KY, KL, AR, NG, PG, VR, KA, EY, KP, EI, VE, TE, LQ, LN, PT, TQ, AH, EW, EK, KE, AV, LEK, VSW, VE, TE, LQ, DY, TP, DF, IL, WA, RG, ST	RL, IR, FQP, ALPHA, RY, LY, IY, VF, FP, VPP, GY, MY, VW, RF, FP, VAP, GY, PR, LNP, LF, YG, FY, LAY, AY, YP, GP, PL, IW, IA, LAP, RP, AP, LA, KR, VP, YA, AA, GF, FR, VG, IG, AG, GR, KG, IA, LAP, RP, AP, LA, KR, VP, YA, AA, GF, FR, VG, IG, AG, GR, KG, YV, YE	VLP, RL, IR, LKL, RY, LY, IY, VF, VW, RF, VY, FP, VPP, GY, LAA, LSP, LF, FY, YP, VPK, PL, VK, GW, IP, RP, AF, LA, VP, AA, FR, VG, IG, GM, GA, GL, GM, GF, DA, GS, AA, GF, FR, VG, IG, GM, GA, GT, GE, GG, SG, LG, GD, GV, MG, GQ, TG, EG, EA, PG, VR, LIY, DG, NF, SY, SF, KY, KF, KL, YK, RR, KA, CF, KP, KA, CF, EY, VVWIG, EI, IE, VE, TE, LN, PT, TQ, PP, PQ, EW, ME, EK, KE, HP, PH, VRSR, VRY, LQY, AV, DF, FQ, YE, IL, RG, ST, YN, AGS	VF, MY, AF, LA, KR, VAA, PR, YG, RA, VG, AY, VK, IA, GM, GV, LA, VP, AA, GE, EG, GF, IF, GM, EA, KF, GA, GH, GR, AR, EV, KG, FG, GS, ME, EK, MG, GE, CG, HK, AV, SC, LG, TG, LEK, DY, IFG, QK, DG, YV, YE, RR, AR, KA, EG, NG, PG, ALP, LEK, IL, YH, AEL, RG, ST, YN	RL, RY, MF, VAA, PR, YG, AY, VK, IA, LA, VP, AA, GF, IF, GM, GA, GH, GR, KG, FG, GS, MG, GE, CG, SC, LG, TG, IFG, QK, DG, RR, AR, KA, EG, NG, PG, ALP, LEK, IL, YH, AEL, RG, ST, YN

(Continued)

Table 6—Identification of peptides in protein related to lipids metabolism from chia seed.

Biologic activity	Oleosin	FAD2i1	FAD2i2	FAD3i1	FAD3i2	FAD7i1	FAD8	MGAT
Antiamnestic	–	PG, GP	PG, GP	VPL, PG, GP	VPL, PG, GP	PG, GP	PG, GP	
Antithrombotic	–	GP, PG	GP, PG	GP, PG	GP, PG	GP, PG	GP, PG	
Immunomodulating	YG	YG, YGG	YG, YGG	YG	YG	YG	YG	YG
Stimulating	–	EE, SE	EE, SE	VPL	VPL	EE, SSS, SE	EEE, EE, SSS	EEE, EE, SE
Neuropeptide	GQ	YL	YL	GQ, YL	YL	YL	GQ, YL	
Regulation	–	GLY, DY, GP, PG	GFL, GLY, DY, GP,	GP, PG	GP, PG	DY, GP, PG	GP, PG	
Contracting	–	–	–	–	–	PLPR	PLPR	
Bacterial permease ligand	–	KK	KK	KK	KK	KK	KK	KK
Inhibitor	–	–	–	PPPF, IR, KF	PPPF, IR, KF	PPPF, IR	EF	IR, KF
Hypotensive	–	–	–	IR, KF	IR, KF	IR	EF	LW, FT, LR, IR, KF
α-glucosidase inhibitor	–	–	–	VW	VW	VW	VW	
Activating UBMP GUSP	–	RA, LA	RA, LA, WA	RA, LA, WA	RA, LA, WA	RA, LA, WA	LA, WA	RA, LA
Antioxidant	VL, LV, LL PHH, HL, HH, IY, QHH, KD	VL, LV, IV, IL, LI, II LH, HL, HH, IKK, LY, IY, AH, WY, AHH, HYH, GHH, KYY, YYV, YYQ, FYY, RHH, LHS, PHA, PHY, KAI, KP, VY, AW, YQLD, YQL, YVE	VL, LV, IL, LI, LL LH, HL, HH, IKK, LY, IY, AH, WY, AHH, HYH, GHH, KYY, YYV, YYQ, FYY, RHH, LHS, PHT, PHY, KAI, KVI, KP, TY, VY, AW, YVE	LV, IV, IL, LI, LL LHH, LH, HL, HH, AY, LY, IY, WY, IHH, HYH, THH, YYR, NYY, HHH, LHS, LWY, PHY, PWY, GGE, EAK, KD, PW, IR, LK, KP, VY, AW, VW	VL, LV, IV, IL, LL LHH, LH, HL, HH, VHH, AY, LY, IY, EL, WY, HYH, THH, YYR, NYY, HHH, LHS, LWY, PHY, PWY, EAK, KD, PW, IR, LK, KP, VY, AW, VW, LW	VL, LV, LI, LL LHH, LH, HL, HH, AY, ADF, LY, IY, WY, IHH, HFH, THH, KYY, YYK, YYQ, VYY, HHH, LHS, PHY, PWY, KD, WPL, PW, IR, LKP, LK, KP, TY	VL, LV, IL, LI, LL LHH, LH, HL, HH, AY, LY, IY, WY, IHH, HYH, THH, YYQ, VYY, LHL, LWT, PHY, PWY, KD, PW, LKP, LK, KP, TY, VY, VW, LW, WG	HLAY, LY, AH, EYY, YYA, LWT, PHG, MY, KAI, KD, IR, LK, KP, TW, AW, LW, LLR, FC
ACE inhibitor	IY, HY, PR, LAA, YG, LQO, HHL, PL, VK, IA, RP, LA, VP, AA, GF, IF, VG, GL, AG, HL, FG, GS, GV, GQ, GK, GG, SG, TG, KY, AR, KA, FAL, LQ, HP, PH, LSW, AV, TP, DM, FQ	LY, IY, VF, MF, LVL, RF, VY, HY, YL, LF, YG, FY, YGL, VPK, HHL, VFK, GPL, GP, PL, IKP, AW, VK, IA, GW, IP, RP, AF, LA, KR, VP, RA, GF, FR, IF, VG, GI, GA, GL, AG, GH, HL, GR, KG, DA, GS, GV, MG, GK, GE, GG, QG, SG, LG, TG, EG, EA, NG, PG, NPP, YGG, KYY, NKL, NY, SY, SF, KY, KL, NK, RR, KA, CF, KP, EI, EV, VE, LQ, LN, AH, PP, PQ, EW, HP, PH, AI, RPY, FVP, AV, ASL, ALP, GLY, YVA, IVQ, VLY, AVL, VSW, DY, TP, YV, IL, YH, WL, RG, ST, YN, FKR	RL, IKP, LY, IY, VF, MF, LVL, RF, VY, HY, YL, LF, YG, FY, YP, YGL, VPK, HHL, VFK, GPL, GP, PL, AW, VK, IA, GW, IP, RP, AF, LA, KR, VP, RA, AA, GF, FR, IF, VG, GI, GA, GL, AG, GH, HL, GR, KG, DA, GS, GV, MG, GK, GT, GG, QG, SG, LG, GD, TG, EG, EA, NG, PG, NPP, YGG, KYY, NKL, DG, NY, SY, SF, KY, KL, NK, RR, KA, CF, KP, EI, EV, VE, LQ, LN, AH, PP, EW, EK, HP, PH, VIKP, AI, RPY, FVP, AV, ASL, GLY, YVA, VSW, DY, TP, YV, IL, YH, WA, WL, RG	PLP, RL, IR, AAP, RY, LY, IY, MF, LW, VW, YW, VY, HY, FP, VAA, IPP, GY, PR, LAA, IRA, YL, LF, YG, AY, AIP, YP, GP, PL, IVY, AW, GPV, GEP, VK, IA, GW, IP, AF, AP, LA, KR, VP, RA, YA, AA, IF, VG, IG, GI, GA, GL, AG, GH, HL, GS, GV, GQ, GK, GT, HG, GE, GG, QG, SG, LG, GD, TG, EG, EA, NG, PG, LRY, AIPP, DG, NY, SY, SF, KF, KL, YK, NK, KP, EI, VE, TE, LN, EI, VE, LN, PT, PP, PQ, EW, KE, PH, VAF, AI, AFLL, GSH, AFL, VGP, DY, DF, YV, IL, YH, WA, WL, SGP, PPP, RG, ST, GHG	IR, VP, AAP, RY, LY, IY, VF, MF, LW, VW, YW, VY, HY, FP, VAA, IPP, GY, PR, LAA, IRA, YL, LF, YG, AY, AIP, YP, GP, PL, IVY, AW, VK, IA, GW, IP, AF, AP, LA, KR, VP, RA, YA, AA, IF, VG, IG, GI, GA, GL, GH, HL, DA, GS, GV, GK, GT, HG, GE, GG, QG, SG, LG, GD, EA, NG, PG, LRY, AIPP, DG, NY, SY, SF, KF, KL, YK, NK, KP, EI, VE, TE, LN, PT, PP, PQ, EW, KE, PH, VAV, KYY, IYK, QK, DG, SY, SF, KY, KL, YK, KP, RIY, IE, EV, VE, TE, LQ, LN, PP, PQ, EK, KE, HP, PH, AI, VWPP, AV, DY, DF, FQ, YV, YH, WA, WL, MGP, SGP, PPP, RG, ST, GHG, FGG, AVV, LR, LGV	IYP, PLP, IR, LKL, LY, IY, MF, VW, YW, RF, VY, HY, FP, PR, LAA, IRA, YL, LF, YG, LAY, AY, AIP, YP, HHL, HLL, GPL, GP, PL, AW, LKP, VK, GW, IP, AP, LA, VP, RA, AA, GF, VG, IG, GI, GA, GL, AG, GH, HL, GR, KG, FG, GS, GV, MG, GK, GT, WG, HG, GG, SG, LG, GD, TG, EA, NG, PG, QG, SG, LG, GD, TG, EA, NG, PG, VR, VAV, GHF, QK, SY, SF, KY, KL, KA, IY, KP, RIY, IE, VE, LN, PP, PQ, EW, EK, KE, HP, PH, IQP, FVP, AV, LEE, GSH, LPF, AVL, DY, YV, IL, YH, WA, WL, MGP, SGP, RG, ST, YN, GHG, LR, LGV	RL, IR, RY, LY, VF, MF, MY, LW, GKP, VAA, GY, PR, LF, YG, AY, PL, DLP, AW, GEP, VK, IA, IP, AF, AP, LA, RA, YA, AA, FR, IF, VG, GI, GM, GL, GH, HL, GR, FG, GS, GV, MG, GK, GT, HG, GE, CG, QG, SG, GD, TG, EG, VR, QK, DG, NF, SY, SF, KF, KL, YK, NK, KA, EY, KP, VE, TE, PT, AH, EW, EK, PH, AI, AV, ASL, FDK, DGL, TP, DM, FQ, YE, YH, WM, GHG, LR,	

(Continued)

Table 6—Continued.

Biologic activity	Oleosin	FAD2i1	FAD2i2	FAD3i1	FAD3i2	FAD7i1	FAD8	MGAT
DPP-IV inhibitor	VA, MA, KA, LA, FA, VP, LL, GQ, TP, SP, RP, HP, IA, TA, FL, HL, AL, SL, GL, AA, PL, ALAV, WI, AD, AG, AS, AT, AV, DQ, FQ, GF, GG, GV, HH, HY, KH, KY, LT, LV, MK, MV, NV, PH, PV, QF, QH, QL, QQ, SH, SV, SW, TG, TI, TK, TL, VD, VF, VG, VI, VK, VL, VS, VT, YG, YM	LA, GP, PP, MP, VA, KA, LA, FA, PA, LP, VP, LL, VV, HA, IP, TP, SP, RP, KP, HP, GA, IA, RA, EP, NP, TA, QP, FL, WV, HL, AL, SL, GL, PL, PPG, WK, WL, WY, WT, VGL, AW, AD, AF, AG, AH, AS, AT, AV, DP, DR, EC, EI, ET, EV, EW, FN, FR, GE, GF, GG, GH, GI, GV, GW, HE, HF, HH, HR, HS, HT, HV, HY, IH, IL, IQ, KG, KK, KR, KS, KY, LH, LI, LM, LN, LT, LV, MF, MG, MN, NG, NN, NT, NV, NY, NT, NV, NY, PG, PH, PI, PK, PQ, PY, QG, QH, QI, QL, QW, RG, RH, RM, RR, SF, SI, SV, SW, SY, TD, TG, TH, TI, TK, TL, TM, TN, TV, VD, VE, VF, VG, VI, VK, VL, VN, VQ, VS, VY, WD, YD, YF, YG, YH, YI, YL, YM, YN, YQ, YS, YV, YY, LPQ	GP, PP, MP, VA, KA, LA, FA, PA, LP, VP, LL, VV, HA, IP, TP, SP, RP, KP, HP, YP, GA, IA, RA, WA, EP, NP, FL, WV, HL, EK, AL, SL, GL, AA, PL, PPG, WK, WL, WI, WY, VGL, AW, AE, AF, AG, AH, AS, AT, AV, DP, DR, EC, EV, EW, FN, GF, GG, GH, GI, GV, GW, HE, HF, HH, HR, HS, HT, HV, HY, IH, IL, KG, KK, KR, KS, KT, KV, KY, LH, LI, LM, LN, LT, LV, MF, MG, MN, NG, NN, NT, NV, NY, PF, PG, PH, PI, PK, PY, QF, QG, QH, QI, QL, QW, RG, RH, RL, RM, RR, SF, SI, SV, SW, SY, TD, TG, TH, TK, TL, TM, TN, TV, TY, VD, VE, VF, VG, VI, VK, VL, VN, VQ, VS, VT, VY, WD, YD, YG, YH, YI, YL, YM, YN, YQ, YS	GP, PP, VA, MA, LA, FA, AP, LP, VP, LL, VV, VPL, GQ, IP, WP, SP, FP, KP, YP, GA, IA, RA, WA, EP, NP, FL, WV, HL, AL, SL, GL, WRI, AA, PL, WR, WL, WI, WY, WS, LW, AW, AD, AE, AF, AG, AS, AT, AV, AY, DN, DP, EG, EH, EI, ES, FN, GE, GG, GH, GI, GV, GW, GY, HD, HF, HH, HI, HR, HS, HV, HY, IH, IL, IR, KE, KF, KI, KR, KS, KT, LH, LI, LN, LT, LV, MF, MV, NG, NH, NL, NN, NV, NY, PF, PG, PH, PI, PN, PQ, PT, PV, PW, PY, QD, QG, QI, QL, QN, QT, QY, RG, RI, RK, RL, SF, SH, SI, SK, SW, SY, TD, TG, TH, TI, TL, TM, TR, TS, TT, TV, VD, VE, VG, VH, VI, VK, VL, VS, VT, VW, VY, WD, YA, YD, YF, YG, YH, YK, YL, YQ, YR, YV	GP, PP, VA, MA, LA, FA, AP, LP, VP, LL, VV, HA, VPL, IP, WP, SP, FP, KP, YP, GA, IA, RA, WA, EP, NP, FL, WV, HL, AL, SL, GL, WRI, AA, PL, WR, WL, WI, WY, WS, LW, AW, AD, AE, AF, AS, AT, AV, AY, DN, DP, EH, EI, ES, EW, FN, GG, GH, GI, GV, GW, GY, HD, HF, HH, HR, HS, HV, HY, IH, IL, IR, KE, KF, KI, KR, KR, LH, LN, LT, LV, MF, MV, ND, NG, NH, NL, NN, NT, NV, NY, PF, PG, PH, PI, PN, PQ, PT, PW, PY, QD, QG, QI, QL, QN, QT, QY, RG, RI, RK, SF, SH, SI, SK, SW, SY, TD, TE, TH, TI, TL, TM, TR, TS, TT, TV, VD, VE, VF, VG, VH, VI, VK, VL, VS, VT, VW, VY, WD, YA, YD, YE, YG, YH, YK, YL, YQ, YR, YS, YV, YW, YY	GP, PP, VA, MA, LA, FA, AP, LP, VP, LL, VV, IP, WP, SP, FP, KP, HP, YP, GA, RA, WA, EP, NP, TA, WV, HL, EK, AL, SL, GL, VR, WRI, LPL, AA, PL, WR, WK, WL, WI, WY, WT, WS, AW, WG, AD, AG, AS, AT, AV, AY, DP, DR, ES, EV, FQ, GE, GF, GG, GH, GI, GV, GW, HD, HE, HF, HH, HR, HS, HV, HY, IH, IN, IR, KE, KG, KH, KI, KK, KS, KY, LH, LI, LN, LT, LV, MF, MG, MK, ML, MV, ND, NE, NG, NH, NN, NV, NW, PF, PG, PH, PI, PK, PM, PN, PQ, PS, PV, PW, PY, QE, QG, QI, QL, QN, QT, QY, RG, RI, RK, RN, SF, SI, SV, SW, SY, TD, TE, TG, TH, TK, TL, TM, TS, TT, TV, TY, VE, VG, VI, VK, VL, VM, VN, VS, VT, VW, VY, WH, YF, YG, YH, YK, YL, YQ, YR, YV, YW, YY	GP, PP, MP, VA, MA, KA, LA, FA, AP, PA, LP, VP, LL, VV, GQ, IP, SP, FP, RP, KP, HP, YP, WA, EP, NP, TA, QP, FL, WV, HL, EK, AL, SL, GL, VR, WRS, WRI, AA, PL, WR, WL, WI, WY, WT, WS, LW, WF, IQP, VGL, WG, AE, AS, AT, AV, AY, DP, DR, ES, EW, FN, GF, GG, GH, GI, GV, GY, HD, HE, HF, HH, HR, HS, HV, HY, IH, IL, IN, IQ, KE, KG, KH, KI, KK, KR, KS, KY, LH, LI, LN, LT, LV, MG, ML, ND, NE, NG, NH, NL, NN, NQ, NW, PF, PG, PH, PI, PK, PM, PN, PQ, PW, PY, QL, QN, QS, QT, RG, RI, RK, RN, SF, SH, SI, SV, SW, SY, TD, TG, TH, TL, TM, TR, TS, TT, TV, TY, VE, VF, VG, VI, VK, VL, VM, VQ, VS, VT, VW, VY, WH, YF, YG, YH, YL, YN, YQ, YR, YV, YW, YY	MP, VA, KA, LA, FA, AP, PA, LP, LL, IP, TP, SP, KP, IA, RA, EP, NP, TA, FL, HL, EK, SL, GL, VR, LPL, AA, PL, WI, WM, WT, WS, LW, AW, YT, AD, AF, AH, AS, AT, AV, AY, DN, DP, EG, ES, EW, EY, FQ, FR, GE, GG, GH, GI, GV, GY, HS, IR, KF, KK, KS, KT, KA, LI, LM, LV, MF, MG, ML, MR, MV, MY, NA, NF, NL, PF, PH, PK, PM, PS, PT, PV, QG, QN, QS, QT, RL, RN, SF, SK, SV, SW, SY, TE, TG, TH, TI, TL, TM, TR, TS, TW, VE, VF, VG, VH, VI, VK, VL, VS, VT, YA, YD, YE, YF, YG, YH, YK, YM, YY

Sequences identified in BLAST tool[®] Program and analyzed in BIOPEP[®] database. ACE inhibitor: angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor; DPP-IV inhibitor: dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitor; Activating UBMP: Activating ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis; GUSP: Glucose uptake stimulating peptide; SVSR: Stimulating vasoactive substance release; Regulation: peptide regulating the stomach mucosal membrane activity. FAD3i1: fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 1; FAD3i2: fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 2; FAD7i1: fatty acid desaturase 7 isoform 3; FAD2i2: fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 2; FAD8: fatty acid desaturase 8; MGAT: monoacylglycerol acyltransferase.

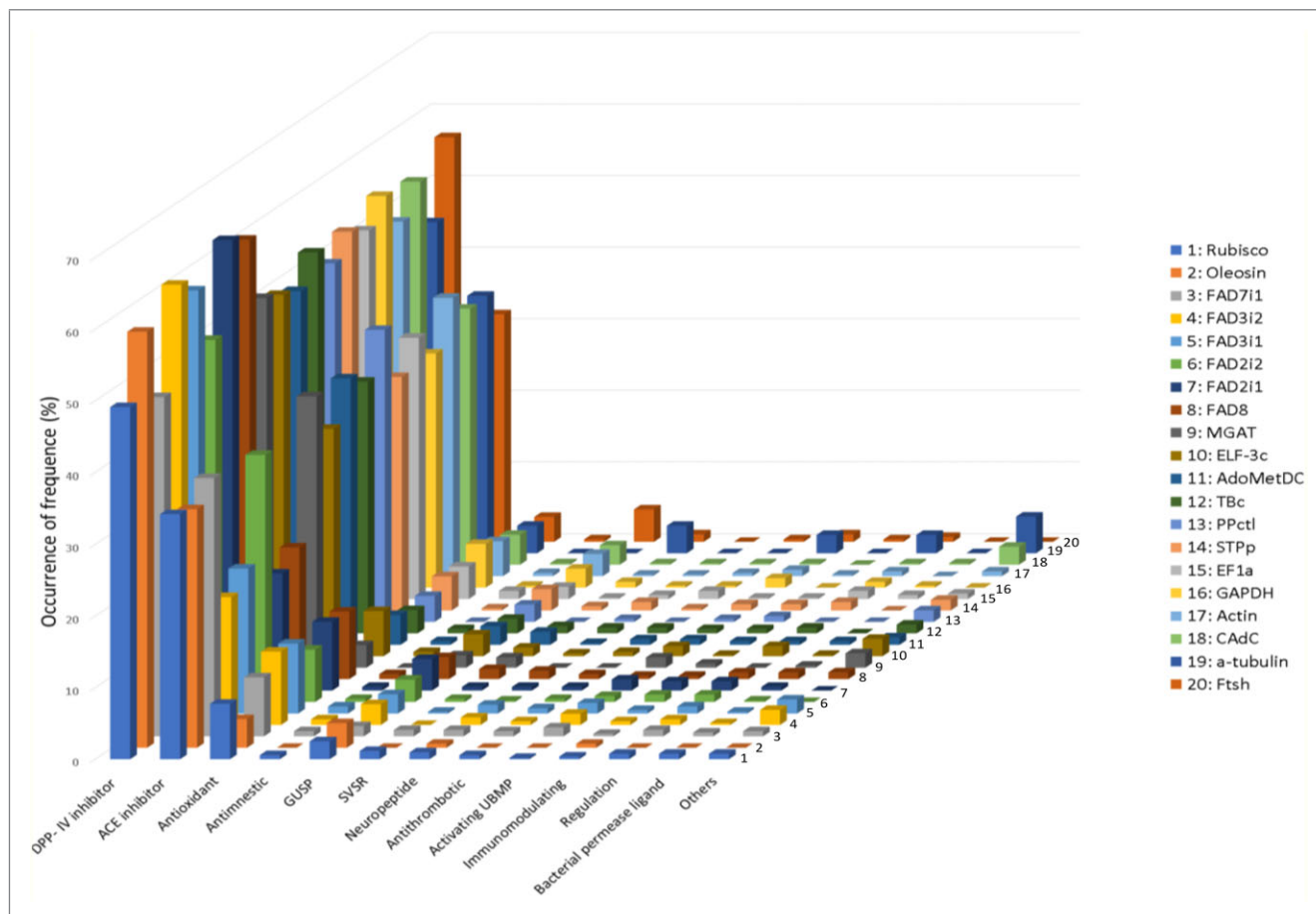


Figure 4–Bioactive potential of peptides sequenced found in chia protein. Sequences identified in BLAST tool® Program and analyzed in BIOPEP® database. DPP IV inhibitor: dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitor; ACE inhibitor: angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor; GUSP: Glucose uptake stimulating peptide; SVSR: Stimulating vasoactive substance release; Activating UBMP: Activating ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis; Regulation: peptide regulating the stomach mucosal membrane activity; RuBisCO: ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit; FAD7i1: fatty acid desaturase 7 isoform 1; FAD3i2: fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 2; FAD3i1: fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 1; FAD2i2: fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 2; FAD2i1: fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 1; FAD8: fatty acid desaturase 8; MGAT: monoacylglycerol acyltransferase; ELF-3c: eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit E; AdoMetDC: S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase; Tbc: Tubulin beta chain; PPctI; Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase; STPp; Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase; eEF1a: elongation factor 1-alpha; GAPDH: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate-dehydrogenase; CAdC: clathrin adaptor complex.

The processing conditions, as hydrolysis time, degree of hydrolysis of the proteins, kind of enzyme, enzyme–substrate ratios, and pretreatment of the protein prior to hydrolysis can influence the bioactive properties of the peptides. Peptide properties can also be influenced by net charge, hydrophobicity and the size of the peptide, which are factors that affect their absorption across the enterocytes (Udenigwe & Aluko, 2012).

Chia protein fractions have been also separated and hydrolyzed with pepsin and pancreatin. Each of the resulting fractions, after gastrointestinal digestion, presented different compositions of bioactive peptides with different physiological actions (Orona-Tamayo et al., 2015). In this study, the highest anti-radical activity against 2,20-azinobis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) and 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) was by peptides from albumin and globulin. Moreover, prolamin and globulin fractions showed the most potent ability to chelate ferrous ion. These results highlight the antioxidative and antihypertensive potential of peptides from chia (Orona-Tamayo et al., 2015).

Conclusions

This review shows that all proteins identified in chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.) and their peptide sequences have auspicious biological potentials, mainly antioxidative, antihypertensive, and hypoglycemic properties. Among other bioactive compounds that may exert biological functions, these peptides can be responsible for the positive effects found in research studies in humans that consumed the whole chia seed; although, many results are still inconclusive. New investigations that focus on chia proteins and their bioactive peptides are necessary to demonstrate specifically the mechanisms of action that contribute to the observed health benefits.

Acknowledgments

To the “Conselho Nacional de Ciência e Tecnologia Brasileira (CNPq)” – Brazil for MG’s scholarship [grant number 200739/2017-4] and HSDM Research Productivity’s fellowships. This study was financed in part by the “Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior”- Brazil (CAPES) [grant number 001] and ACES International Joint Research Program, Univ. of Illinois [Research was supported by the USDA-NIFA-HATCH project 1014457].

Author Contributions

Mariana Grancieri: compiled data and prepared the initial draft; Hercia Stampini Duarte Martino: critical analysis; Elvira de Mejia: overall concept, editing of the manuscript, and critical analysis. All authors critically revised the manuscript and gave their attention, conclusions, and final approval for submission.

Nomenclature

ACE inhibitor	angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor
Activating UBMP	activating ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis
AdoMetDC	S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase
ALA	alpha-linolenic acid
AUC	area under the curve
CAdC	clathrin adaptor complex
DBP	diastolic blood pressure
DPP IV inhibitor	dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitor
eEF1a	elongation factor 1-alpha
ELF-3e	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit E
EPA	docosahexaenoic acid
FAD2i2	fatty acid desaturase 2 isoform 2
FAD3i1	fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 1
FAD3i2	fatty acid desaturase 3 isoform 2
FAD7i1	fatty acid desaturase 7 isoform 3
FAD8	fatty acid desaturase 8
GAPDH	glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate-dehydrogenase
GUSP	glucose uptake-stimulating peptide
HDL-c	high-density lipoprotein cholesterol
iAUC	incremental area under the curve
MDA	malondialdehyde
MGAT	monoacylglycerol acyltransferase
MBP	mean blood pressure
Omega-3	acid alpha-linolenic
Omega-6	acid linoleic
PPcti	peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase
Regulation	peptide regulating the stomach mucosal membrane activity
RuBisCO	ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit
SBP	systolic blood pressure
STPp	serine/threonine-protein phosphatase
SVSR	stimulating vasoactive substance release
TBc	tubulin beta chain
TC	total cholesterol
VLDL-c	very-low-density lipoprotein cholesterol.

References

- Aggarwal, B. B., & Shishodia, S. (2006). Molecular targets of dietary agents for prevention and therapy of cancer. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 71(10), 1397–1421. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2006.02.009>
- Andersson, I., & Backlund, A. (2008). Structure and function of rubisco. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*, 46(3), 275–291. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2008.01.001>
- Arctos Specimen Database. (2018). *Collaborative collection management solution*. Retrieved from <http://arctos.database.museum/name/Salvia%20hispanica#ArctosPlants> Accessed: September, 10, 2018.
- Ayaz, A., Akyol, A., Inan-Eroglu, E., Cetin, A. K., Samur, G., & Akbiyik, F. (2017). Chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) added yogurt reduces short-term food intake and increases satiety: Randomised controlled trial. *Nutrition Research and Practice*, 11(5), 412–418. <https://doi.org/10.4162/nrp.2017.11.5.412>
- Ayerza, R. (2009). The seed's protein and oil content, fatty acid composition, and growing cycle length of a single genotype of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) as affected by environmental factors. *Journal of Oleo Science*, 58(7), 347–354. <https://doi.org/10.5650/jos.58.347>
- Ayerza, R., & Coates, W. (2005). *Chia: Rediscovering a forgotten crop of the Aztecs*. USA: University of Arizona Press. ISBN 10: 0816524882 ISBN 13: 9780816524884
- Ayerza (h). R., & Coates, W. (2009). Influence of environment on growing period and yield, protein, oil and α -linolenic content of three chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) selections. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 30(2), 321–324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2009.03.009>
- Ayerza, h. R., & Coates, W. (2011). Protein content, oil content and fatty acid profiles as potential criteria to determine the origin of commercially grown chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Industrial Crops and Products*, 34(2), 1366–1371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2010.12.007>
- Baud, S., & Lepiniec, L. (2010). Progress in lipid research physiological and developmental regulation of seed oil production. *Progress in Lipid Research*, 49(3), 235–249. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plipres.2010.01.001>
- Betancur-Ancona, D., Gallegos-Tintoré, S., & Chel-Guerrero, L. (2004). Wet-fractionation of phaseolus lunatus seeds: Partial characterization of starch and protein. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 84(10), 1193–1201. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.1804>
- Borneo, R., Aguirre, A., & León, A. E. (2010). Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) gel can be used as egg or oil replacer in cake formulations. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 110(6), 946–949. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2010.03.011>
- Busilacchi, H., Quiroga, M., Bueno, M., Di Sapio, O., Flores, V., & Severin, C. (2013). Evaluación de salvia hispanica l. cultivada em el sur de santa fe (Republica Argentina). *Cultivos Tropicales*, 34(4), 55–59. Retrieved from <http://scielo.sld.cu/pdf/ctr/v34n4/ctr09413.pdf>
- Cahill, J. P. (2004). Genetic diversity among varieties of Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Genetic Resources and Crop Evolution*, 51(7), 773–781. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:GRES.0000034583.20407.80>
- Capitani, M. I., Spotorno, V., Nolasco, S. M., & Tomás, M. C. (2012). Physicochemical and functional characterization of by-products from chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) seeds of Argentina. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 45(1), 94–102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2011.07.012>
- Chicco, A. G., D'Alessandro, M. E., Hein, G. J., Oliva, M. E., & Lombardo, Y. B. (2009). Dietary chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) rich in α -linolenic acid improves adiposity and normalises hypertriglycerolaemia and insulin resistance in dyslipaemic rats. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 101(1), 41–50. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S000711450899053X>
- Chim-Chi, Y., Gallegos-Tintoré, S., Jiménez-Martínez, C., Dávila-Ortiz, G., & Chel-Guerrero, L. (2018). Antioxidant capacity of Mexican chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) protein hydrolyzates. *Journal of Food Measurement and Characterization*, 12(1), 323–331. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-017-9644-9>
- Chu, Z., Chen, J., Nyporko, A., Han, H., Yu, Q., & Powles, S. (2018). Novel α -Tubulin Mutations Conferring Resistance to Dinitroaniline Herbicides in *Lolium rigidum*. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 9, 97.
- Cicero, A. F. G., Fogacci, F., & Colletti, A. (2017). Potential role of bioactive peptides in prevention and treatment of chronic diseases: A narrative review. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, 174(11), 1378–1394. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bph.13608>
- Coelho, M. S., Soares-Freitas, R. A., Areas, J. A., Gandra, E. A., & Salas-Mellado, M., & de las, M. (2018). Peptides from chia present antibacterial activity and inhibit cholesterol synthesis. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 73, 101–107. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11130-018-0668-z>
- Consortium, T. U. (2017). UniProt: The universal protein knowledgebase. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 45, D158–D169.
- Cotabarren, J., Rosso, A. M., Tellechea, M., García-Pardo, J., Rivera, J. L., Obregón, W. D., & Parisi, M. G. (2019). Adding value to the chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) expeller: Production of bioactive peptides with antioxidant properties by enzymatic hydrolysis with papain. *Food Chemistry*, 274, 848–856.
- Creus, A., Ferreira, M., Oliva, M., & Lombardo, Y. (2016). Mechanisms involved in the improvement of lipotoxicity and impaired lipid metabolism by dietary α -linolenic acid-rich *Salvia hispanica* L. (salba) seed in the heart of dyslipemic insulin-resistant rats. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 5(2), 18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm5020018>
- da Silva, B. P., Anunciação, P. C., Matyelka, J. C. da S., Della Lucia, C. M., Martino, H. S. D., & Pinheiro-Sant'Ana, H. M. (2017). Chemical composition of Brazilian chia seeds grown in different places. *Food Chemistry*, 221, 1709–1716. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.10.115>
- da Silva, B. P., Dias, D. M., de Castro Moreira, M. E., Toledo, R. C. L., da Matta, S. L. P., Lucia, C. M., . . . Pinheiro-Sant'Ana, H. M. (2016b). Chia seed shows good protein quality, hypoglycemic effect and improves the lipid

- profile and liver and intestinal morphology of wistar rats. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 71(3), 225–230. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11130-016-0543-8>
- da Silva, B. P., Matyelka, J. C. D. S., Moreira, M. E. D. C., Toledo, R. C. L., Della Lucia, C. M., Pinheiro-Sant'Ana, H. M., & Martino, H. S. D. (2016a). A high-fat diet does not affect the iron bioavailability in Wistar rats fed with chia and increases gene expression of iron metabolism proteins. *Food and Function*, 7(12), 4861–4868. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c6fo00759g>
- da Silva, B. P., Toledo, R. C. L., Grancieri, M., de Castro Moreira, M. E., Medina, N. R., Silva, R. R., . . . Martino, H. S. D. (2019). Effects of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) on calcium bioavailability and inflammation in Wistar rats. *Food Research International*, 116, 592–599. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.08.078>
- Dar, A. A., Choudhury, A. R., Kancharla, P. K., & Arumugam, N. (2017). The FAD2 Gene in plants: Occurrence, regulation, and role. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 8, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2017.01789>
- de Souza Ferreira, C., dd Sousa Fomes, L. de F., da Silva, G. E. S., & Rosa, G. (2015). Effect of chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) consumption on cardiovascular risk factors in humans: A systematic review. *Nutricion Hospitalaria*, 32(5), 1909–1918. <https://doi.org/10.3305/nh.2015.32.5.9394>
- Dehghan Nayeri, F., & Yarizade, K. (2014). Bioinformatics study of delta-12 fatty acid desaturase 2 (FAD2) gene in oilseeds. *Molecular Biology Reports*, 41(8), 5077–5087. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11033-014-3373-5>
- Ellulu, M. S. (2017). Obesity, cardiovascular disease, and role of vitamin C on inflammation: A review of facts and underlying mechanisms. *Inflammopharmacology*, 25(3), 313–328. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10787-017-0314-7>
- FAO/WHO/UNU. (2008). *Protein and amino acids requirements in human nutrition*. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO Library Cataloguing. Retrieved from http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/43411/WHO_TRS_935_eng.pdf?ua=1
- Fortino, M. A., Oliva, M. E., Rodriguez, S., Lombardo, Y. B., & Chicco, A. (2017). Could post-weaning dietary chia seed mitigate the development of dyslipidemia, liver steatosis and altered glucose homeostasis in offspring exposed to a sucrose-rich diet from utero to adulthood? *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes and Essential Fatty Acids*, 116, 19–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plefa.2016.11.003>
- Fowokan, A. O., Sakakibara, B. M., Onsel, N., Punthakee, Z., Waddell, C., Rosin, M., & Lear, S. A. (2018). Correlates of elevated blood pressure in healthy children: A systematic review. *Clinical Obesity*, 8(5), 366–381. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cob.12271>
- Gardner, M. L. G. (1984). Intestinal assimilation of intact peptides and proteins from the diet—A neglected field? *Biol Rev*, 59, 289–331.
- Gómez-Favela, M. A., Gutiérrez-Dorado, R., Cuevas-Rodríguez, E. O., Camizales-Román, V. A., del Rosario León-Sicaños, C., Milán-Carrillo, J., & Reyes-Moreno, C. (2017). Improvement of chia seeds with antioxidant activity, GABA, essential amino acids, and dietary fiber by controlled germination bioprocess. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 72(4), 345–352. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11130-017-0631-4>
- Grobelnik-Mlakar, S., Turinek, M., Jakop, M., Bavec, M., & Bavec, F. (2009). Nutrition value and use of grain amaranth: Potential future application in bread making. *Agricultura*, 6, 43–53.
- Gupta, S., Yadav, B. S., Raj, U., Freilich, S., & Varadwaj, P. K. (2017). Transcriptomic analysis of soil grown *T. aestivum* cv. root to reveal the changes in expression of genes in response to multiple nutrients deficiency. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 8, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2017.01025>
- Ho, H., Lee, A. S., Jovanovski, E., Jenkins, A. L., Desouza, R., & Vuksan, V. (2013). Effect of whole and ground Salba seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.) on postprandial glycemia in healthy volunteers: A randomized controlled, dose-response trial. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 67(7), 786–788. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2013.103>
- Huang, A. H. C. (2017). Plant lipid droplets and their associated oleosin and other proteins: Potential for rapid advances. *Plant Physiology*, 176, 1894–1918. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.17.01677>
- Iglesias-Puig, E., & Haros, M. (2013). Evaluation of performance of dough and bread incorporating chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *European Food Research and Technology*, 237(6), 865–874. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-013-2067-x>
- Ixtaina, V. Y., Nolasco, S. M., & Tom, M. C. (2008). Physical properties of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) seeds. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 28(3), 286–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2008.03.009>
- Jackson, L. P., Kelly, B. T., McCoy, A. J., Gaffry, T., James, L. C., Collins, B. M., . . . Owen, D. J. (2010). A large-scale conformational change couples membrane recruitment to cargo binding in the AP2 clathrin adaptor complex. *Cell*, 141(7), 1220–1229. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2010.05.006>
- Jin, F., Nieman, D. C., Sha, W., Xie, G., Qiu, Y., & Jia, W. (2012). Supplementation of milled chia seeds increases plasma ala and epa in postmenopausal women. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 67(2), 105–110. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11130-012-0286-0>
- Kačmárová, K., Lavová, B., Socha, P., & Urmiňská, D. (2016). Characterization of protein fractions and antioxidant activity of chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Potravinarstvo*, 10(1), 78–82. <https://doi.org/10.5219/563>
- Kampa, M., Nistikaki, A., Tsaousis, V., Maliaraki, N., Notas, G., & Castanas, E. (2002). A new automated method for the determination of the Total Antioxidant Capacity (TAC) of human plasma, based on the crocin bleaching assay. *BMC Clinical Pathology*, 16, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6890-2-3>
- Kaneko, K., Mizushige, T., Miyazaki, Y., Lazarus, M., Urade, Y., Yoshikawa, M., . . . Ohinata, K. (2014). δ -Opioid receptor activation stimulates normal diet intake but conversely suppresses high-fat diet intake in mice. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology*, 306(4), R265–R272. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpregu.00405.2013>
- Kato, Y., & Sakamoto, W. (2018). FtsH Protease in the thylakoid membrane: Physiological functions and the regulation of protease activity. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 9, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2018.00855>
- Levent, H. (2017). Effect of partial substitution of gluten-free flour mixtures with chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) flour on quality of gluten-free noodles. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 54(7), 1971–1978.
- López, D. N., Galante, M., Robson, M., Boeris, V., & Spelzini, D. (2018). Amaranth, quinoa and chia protein isolates: Physicochemical and structural properties. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 109, 152–159. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2017.12.080>
- Marcinek, K., & Krejpcio, Z. (2017). Chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica*): Health promoting properties and therapeutic applications—A review. *Rocznik Panstw Zakl Hig*, 68(2), 123–129. Retrieved from http://wydawnictwa.pzh.gov.pl/roczniki_pzh/
- Marineli, R. da S., Lenquiste, S. A., Moraes, É. A., & Maróstica, M. R. (2015a). Antioxidant potential of dietary chia seed and oil (*Salvia hispanica* L.) in diet-induced obese rats. *Food Research International*, 76, 666–674. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2015.07.039>
- Marineli, R. da S., Moura, C. S., Moraes, E. A., Lenquiste, S. A., Lollo, P. C. B., Morato, P. N., . . . Maróstica, M. R. (2015b). Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) enhances HSP, PGC-1 α expressions and improves glucose tolerance in diet-induced obese rats. *Nutrition*, 31(5), 740–748. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2014.11.009>
- Martínez-Cruz, O., & Paredes-López, O. (2014). Phytochemical profile and nutraceutical potential of chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.) by ultra high performance liquid chromatography. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1346, 43–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2014.04.007>
- Meisel, H. (1997). Biochemical properties of bioactive peptides derived from milk proteins: Potential nutraceuticals for food and pharmaceutical applications'. *Livestock Production Science*, 50, 125–138.
- Meyer, B., & Groot, R. (2017). Effects of omega-3 long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation on cardiovascular mortality: The importance of the dose of DHA. *Nutrients*, 9(12), 1305. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu9121305>
- Mohd Ali, N., Yeap, S. K., Ho, W. Y., Beh, B. K., Tan, S. W., & Tan, S. G. (2012). The promising future of chia, *Salvia hispanica* L. *Journal of Biomedicine and Biotechnology*, 2012, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/171956>
- Monroy-Torres, R., Mancilla-Escobar, M. L., Gallaga-Solórzano, J. C., Medina-Godoy, S., & Santiago-García, E. J. (2008). Protein digestibility of chia seed *Salvia hispanica* L. *Revista Salud Pública y Nutricion*, 9(1), 1–9.
- Montes Chañi, E. M., Pacheco, S. O. S., Martínez, G. A., Freitas, M. R., Ivona, J. G., Ivona, J. A., . . . Pacheco, F. J. (2018). Long-term dietary intake of chia seed is associated with increased bone mineral content and improved hepatic and intestinal morphology in sprague-dawley rats. *Nutrients*, 10(7), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10070922>
- Montoya-Rodríguez, A., Gómez-Favela, M. A., Reyes-Moreno, C., Milán-Carrillo, J., & González de Mejía, E. (2015). Identification of bioactive peptide sequences from amaranth (*Amaranthus hypochondriacus*) seed proteins and their potential role in the prevention of chronic diseases. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 14(2), 139–158. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.12125>
- Muñoz, L. A., Cobos, A., Diaz, O., & Aguilera, J. M. (2012). Chia seeds: Microstructure, mucilage extraction and hydration. *Journal of Food*

- Engineering, 108(1), 216–224.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2011.06.037>
- Nazarian-Samani, Z., RDE, S., Lorigooini, Z., & Rafieian-Kopaei, M. (2018). Medicinal plants with multiple effects on diabetes mellitus and its complications: A systematic review. *Current Diabetes Reports*, 18(10), 72. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11892-018-1042-0>
- Nieman, D. C., Caya, E. J., Austin, M. D., Henson, D. A., McNulty, S. R., & Jin, F. (2009). Chia seed does not promote weight loss or alter disease risk factors in overweight adults. *Nutrition Research*, 29(6), 414–418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2009.05.011>
- Nieman, D. C., Gillitt, N., Jin, F., Henson, D. A., Kennerly, K., Shanelly, R. A., . . . Schwartz, S. (2012). Chia seed supplementation and disease risk factors in overweight women: A metabolomics investigation. *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 18(7), 700–708. <https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2011.0443>
- Oliveira-Alves, S. C., Vendramini-Costa, D. B., Betim Cazarin, C. B., Maróstica Júnior, M. R., Borges Ferreira, J. P., Silva, A. B., . . . Bronze, M. R. (2017). Characterization of phenolic compounds in chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) seeds, fiber flour and oil. *Food Chemistry*, 232, 295–305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.04.002>
- Olivos-Lugo, B. L., Valdivia-López, M. Á., & Tecante, A. (2010). Thermal and physicochemical properties and nutritional value of the protein fraction of mexican chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Food Science and Technology International*, 16(1), 89–96. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1082013209353087>
- Orona-Tamayo, D., Valverde, M. E., Nieto-Rendón, B., & Paredes-López, O. (2015). Inhibitory activity of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) protein fractions against angiotensin I-converting enzyme and antioxidant capacity. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 64(1), 236–242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2015.05.033>
- Ottesen, M., & Svendsen, I. (1970). The subtilisins. *Methods in Enzymol*, 19, 199–215.
- Paez-García, A., Sparks, J. A., de Bang, L., & Blancaflor, E. B. (2018). Plant actin cytoskeleton: New functions from old scaffold. In V. P. Sahi & F. Baluška (Eds.), *Concepts in cell biology - history and evolution* (pp. 103–137). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-69944-8_6
- Park, J. H., Lee, S. Y., Kim, W. Y., Jung, Y. J., Chae, H. B., Jung, H. S., . . . Lee, S. Y. (2011). Heat-induced chaperone activity of serine/threonine protein phosphatase 5 enhances thermotolerance in arabidopsis thaliana. *New Phytologist*, 191(3), 692–705. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2011.03734.x>
- Poudyal, H., Panchal, S. K., Waanders, J., Ward, L., & Brown, L. (2012). Lipid redistribution by α -linolenic acid-rich chia seed inhibits stearyl-CoA desaturase-1 and induces cardiac and hepatic protection in diet-induced obese rats. *Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry*, 23(2), 153–162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnutbio.2010.11.011>
- Poudyal, H., Panchal, S. K., Ward, L. C., & Brown, L. (2013). Effects of ALA, EPA and DHA in high-carbohydrate, high-fat diet-induced metabolic syndrome in rats. *Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry*, 24(6), 1041–1052. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnutbio.2012.07.014>
- Radovanovic, N., Thambugala, D., Duguid, S., Loewen, E., & Cloutier, S. (2014). Functional characterization of flax fatty acid desaturase fad2 and fad3 isoforms expressed in yeast reveals a broad diversity in activity. *Molecular Biotechnology*, 56(7), 609–620.
- Rahman, I., Biswas, S. K., & Kirkham, P. A. (2006). Regulation of inflammation and redox signaling by dietary polyphenols. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 72(11), 1439–1452. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2006.07.004>
- Rasheed, A., & Cummins, C. (2018). Beyond the foam cell: The role of LXRS in preventing atherogenesis. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 19(8), 2307. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19082307>
- Rendón-Villalobos, R., Ortíz-Sánchez, A., Solorza-Feria, J., & Trujillo-Hernández, C. A. (2012). Formulation, physicochemical, nutritional and sensorial evaluation of corn tortillas supplemented with chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Czech Journal of Food Sciences*, 30(2), 118–125.
- Reyes-Caudillo, E., Tecante, A., & Valdivia-López, M. A. (2008). Dietary fibre content and antioxidant activity of phenolic compounds present in Mexican chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) seeds. *Food Chemistry*, 107(2), 656–663. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2007.08.062>
- Rossi, A. S., Oliva, M. E., Ferreira, M. R., Chicco, A., & Lombardo, Y. B. (2013). Dietary chia seed induced changes in hepatic transcription factors and their target lipogenic and oxidative enzyme activities in dyslipidaemic insulin-resistant rats. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 109(9), 1617–1627.
- Sandoval-Oliveros, M. R., & Paredes-López, O. (2013). Isolation and characterization of proteins from chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 61(1), 193–201. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf3034978>
- Sandri, L. T., Santos, F. G., Fratelli, C., & Capriles, V. D. (2017). Development of gluten-free bread formulations containing whole chia flour with acceptable sensory properties. *Food Science & Nutrition*, 5(5), 1021–1028.
- Sargi, S. C., Silva, B. C., Santos, H. M. C., Montanher, P. F., Boeing, J. S., Santos Júnior, O. O., . . . Visentainer, J. V. (2013). Antioxidant capacity and chemical composition in seeds rich in omega-3: Chia, flax, and perilla. *Food Science and Technology*, 33(3), 541–548. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0101-20612013005000057>
- Sayed-Ahmad, B., Talou, T., Straumite, E., Sabovics, M., Kruma, Z., Saad, Z., . . . & Merah, O. (2018). Evaluation of nutritional and technological attributes of whole wheat based bread fortified with chia flour. *Foods*, 7(9), 135.
- Segura-Campos, M. R., Ciau-Solis, N., Rosado-Rubio, G., Chel-Guerrero, L., & Betancur-Ancona, D. (2014). Chemical and functional properties of chia seed (*Salvia hispanica* L.) gum. *International Journal of Food Science*, 2014, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/241053>
- Segura-Campos, M. R., Salazar-Vega, I. M., Chel-Guerrero, L. A., & Betancur-Ancona, D. A. (2013). Biological potential of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) protein hydrolysates and their incorporation into functional foods. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 50(2), 723–731. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2012.07.017>
- Segura Campos, M. R., Peralta González, F., Chel Guerrero, L., Betancur Ancona, D., & Betancur Ancona, D. (2013). Angiotensin I-converting enzyme inhibitory peptides of chia (*Salvia hispanica*) produced by enzymatic hydrolysis. *International Journal of Food Science*, 2013, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/158482>
- Sharma, A., & Chauhan, R. S. (2012). In silico identification and comparative genomics of candidate genes involved in biosynthesis and accumulation of seed oil in plants. *Comparative and Functional Genomics*, 2012, <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/914843>
- Sosa, A. (2016). Chia crop (*Salvia hispanica* L.): Its history and importance as a source of polyunsaturated fatty acids omega-3 around the world: A review. *Journal of Crop Research and Fertilizers*, 1(1), 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.17303/jcrf.2016.104>
- Sreedhar, R. V., Priya, K., Sunny, D. R., Ram, R., & Malathi, S. (2015). Exploring triacylglycerol biosynthetic pathway in developing seeds of chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.): A transcriptomic approach. *PLoS ONE*, 10(4), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0123580>
- Srichuwong, S., Curti, D., Austin, S., King, R., Lamothe, L., & Gloria-Hernandez, H. (2017). Physicochemical properties and starch digestibility of whole grain sorghums, millet, quinoa and amaranth flours, as affected by starch and non-starch constituents. *Food Chemistry*, 233, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.04.019>
- Takano, A. (2017). Taxonomic study on Japanese *Salvia* (Lamiaceae): Phylogenetic position of *S. akiensis*, and polyphyletic nature of *S. lutescens* var. *intermedia*. *PhytoKeys*, 80, 87–104. <https://doi.org/10.3897/phytokeys.80.11611>
- Thongnak, L., Pongchaidecha, A., Jaikumkao, K., Chatsudthipong, V., Chattipakorn, N., & Lungkaphin, A. (2017). The additive effects of atorvastatin and insulin on renal function and renal organic anion transporter 3 function in diabetic rats. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1), 13532. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-13206-5>
- Timilsena, Y. P., Adhikari, R., Barrow, C. J., & Adhikari, B. (2016). Physicochemical and functional properties of protein isolate produced from Australian chia seeds. *Food Chemistry*, 212, 648–656. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.06.017>
- Toscano, L. T., da Silva, C. S. O., Toscano, L. T., de Almeida, A. E. M., da Cruz Santos, A., & Silva, A. S. (2014). Chia flour supplementation reduces blood pressure in hypertensive subjects. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 69(4), 392–398. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11130-014-0452-7>
- Toscano, L. T., Toscano, L. T., Tavares, R. L., Oliveira, C. S., & Silva, A. S. (2015). Chia induces clinically discrete weight loss and improves lipid profile only in altered previous values. *Nutrición Hospitalaria*, 31(3), 1176–1182. <https://doi.org/10.3305/nh.2015.31.3.8242>
- Udenigwe, C. C., & Aluko, R. E. (2012). Food protein-derived bioactive peptides: Production, processing, and potential health benefits. *Journal of Food Science*, 77(1), R11–R24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2011.02455.x>

- Udenigwe, C. C., Okolie, C. L., Qian, H., Ohanenye, I. C., Agyei, D., & Aluko, R. E. (2017). Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase as a sustainable and promising plant source of bioactive peptides for food applications. *Trends in Food Science and Technology*, 69, 74–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2017.09.001>
- Ullah, R., Nadeem, M., Khaliq, A., Imran, M., Mehmood, S., Javid, A., & Hussain, J. (2016). Nutritional and therapeutic perspectives of Chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.): A review. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 53(4), 1750–1758. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-015-1967>
- Valdivia-López, M. Á., & Tecante, A. (2015). *Chia (Salvia hispanica): A review of native mexican seed and its nutritional and functional properties. advances in food and nutrition research* (1st ed., Vol. 75). USA: Elsevier Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.afnr.2015.06.002>
- Vázquez-Ovando, J. A., Rosado-Rubio, J. G., Chel-Guerrero, L. A., & Betancur-Ancona, D. A. (2010). Procesamiento en seco de harina de chía (*Salvia hispanica* L.): Caracterización química de fibra y proteína. *CYTA - Journal of Food*, 8(2), 117–127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19476330903223580>
- Vázquez-Ovando, A., Betancur-Ancona, D., & Chel-Guerrero, L. (2013). Physicochemical and functional properties of a protein-rich fraction produced by dry fractionation of chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *CYTA - Journal of Food*, 11(1), 75–80. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19476337.2012.692123>
- Vijayaraj, P., Jashal, C. B., Vijayakumar, A., Rani, S. H., Venkata Rao, D. K., & Rajasekharan, R. (2012). A bifunctional enzyme that has both monoacylglycerol acyltransferase and acyl hydrolase activities. *Plant Physiology*, 160(2), 667–683. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.112.202135>
- Vuksan, V., Whitham, D., Sievenpiper, J. L., Jenkins, A. L., Rogovik, A. L., Bazinet, R. P., . . . Hanna, A. (2007). Supplementation of conventional therapy with the novel grain salba (*Salvia hispanica* L.) improves major and emerging cardiovascular risk factors in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 30(11), 2804–2810. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc07-1144>
- Vuksan, V., Choleva, L., Jovanovski, E., Jenkins, A. L., Au-Yeung, F., Dias, A. G., . . . Duvnjak, L. (2017a). Comparison of flax (*Linum usitatissimum*) and Salba-chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) seeds on postprandial glycemia and satiety in healthy individuals: A randomized, controlled, crossover study. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 71(2), 234–238. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2016.148>
- Vuksan, V., Jenkins, A. L., Brissette, C., Choleva, L., Jovanovski, E., Gibbs, A. L., . . . Hanna, A. (2017b). Salba-chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) in the treatment of overweight and obese patients with type 2 diabetes: A double-blind randomized controlled trial. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 27(2), 138–146. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2016.11.124>
- Vuksan, V., Jenkins, A. L., Dias, A. G., Lee, A. S., Jovanovski, E., Rogovik, A. L., & Hanna, A. (2010). Reduction in postprandial glucose excursion and prolongation of satiety: Possible explanation of the long-term effects of whole grain Salba (*Salvia hispanica* L.). *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 64(4), 436–438. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2009.159>
- Winichayakul, S., Scott, R. W., Roldan, M., Hatier, J.-H. B., Livingston, S., Cookson, R., . . . Roberts, N. J. (2013). In Vivo packaging of triacylglycerols enhances arabidopsis leaf biomass and energy density. *Plant Physiology*, 162(2), 626–639. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.113.216820>
- Xue, Y., Chen, B., Win, A. N., Fu, C., Lian, J., Liu, X., . . . Chai, Y. (2018). Omega-3 fatty acid desaturase gene family from two ω -3 sources, *Salvia hispanica* and *Perilla frutescens*: Cloning, characterization and expression. *PLoS ONE*, 13(1), 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0191432>
- Yoshikawa, M. (2015). Bioactive peptides derived from natural proteins with respect to diversity of their receptors and physiological effects. *Peptides*, 72, 208–225. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.peptides.2015.07.013>
- Zeng, H., Xie, Y., Liu, G., Lin, D., He, C., & Shi, H. (2018). Molecular identification of GAPDHs in cassava highlights the antagonism of MeGAPCs and MeATG8s in plant disease resistance against cassava bacterial blight. *Plant Molecular Biology*, 97(3), 201–214. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11103-018-0733-x>