

Adaptive responses of *Populus przewalskii* to drought stress and SNP application

Yanbao Lei · Chunying Yin · Chunyang Li

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Abstract In this study we used the cuttings of *Populus przewalskii* Maximowicz as experimental material and sodium nitroprusside (SNP) as nitric oxide (NO) donor to determine the physiological and biochemical responses to drought stress and the effect of NO on drought tolerance in woody plants. The results indicated that drought stress not only significantly decreased biomass production, but also significantly increased hydrogen peroxide content and caused oxidative stress to lipids and proteins assessed by the increase in malondialdehyde and total carbonyl contents, respectively. The cuttings of *P. przewalskii* accumulated many amino acids for osmotic adjustment to lower water potential, and activated the antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase, guaiacol peroxidase and ascorbate peroxidase to maintain the balance of generation and quenching of reactive oxygen species. Moreover, exogenous SNP application significantly heightened the growth performance of *P. przewalskii* cuttings under drought treatment by promotion of proline accumulation and activation of antioxidant enzyme activities, while under well-watered treatment the effect of SNP application was very little.

Keywords Antioxidant enzymes · Drought stress · Osmotic adjustment · Proline accumulation

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Y. Lei · C. Li
Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden,
Chinese Academy of Sciences, Mengla,
Yunnan 666303, People's Republic of China

Y. Lei (✉) · C. Yin
Chengdu Institute of Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
P.O. Box 416, Chengdu 610041, People's Republic of China
e-mail: leiyy@cib.ac.cn; leiyanbao@hotmail.com

Abbreviations

APX	Ascorbate peroxidase
C=O	Carbonyl content
GPX	Guaiacol peroxidase
H ₂ O ₂	Hydrogen peroxide
MDA	Malondialdehyde
NO	Nitric oxide
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
SNP	Sodium nitroprusside
SOD	Superoxide dismutase

Introduction

Drought stress is a major limitation for plant survival and growth in the arid and semi-arid regions (Kramer and Boyer 1995). Several physiological and biochemical mechanisms are involved in the adaptation to drought by plants (Centritto 2005). One way many plants cope with osmotic stress is to synthesize and accumulate compounds termed osmoprotectants, including certain polyols, sugars, amino acids, betaines and related compounds (Bohnert and Jensen 1996). Free proline, one of the most important osmolytes, has been observed in response to a wide range of abiotic and biotic stresses in plants. The mechanism of proline action has not been fully understood yet, but it is suggested that the increased accumulation permits osmotic adjustment, as well as provides protection for enzymes and biological membranes (Sharma et al. 1998; Basak et al. 2001). Therefore, it is considered to be one of the first metabolic responses to stress, and also function as a second messenger (Hare and Cress 1997).

Another common effect of drought stress is the disturbance between the generation and quenching of reactive

oxygen species (ROS) (Smirnov 1993). ROS, such as superoxide radicals ($O_2^{\cdot-}$), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$), are highly reactive and in the absence of effective protective mechanism, can seriously damage plants by lipid peroxidation, protein degradation, breakage of DNA and cell death (Beligni and Lamattina 1999). To keep the levels of active oxygen species under control, plants possess antioxidative systems which are composed of metabolites such as ascorbate, glutathione, tocopherol, etc., and enzymatic scavengers such as superoxide dismutases, peroxidases and catalases (Asada 1999). There are many cases that plants growing in hostile environments exhibit increased oxy-stress enzyme activities to combat the deleterious effect of ROS (Jebara et al. 2005).

Nitric oxide (NO) is a water and lipid soluble small gas molecule and in recent years it has emerged as a major signaling molecule of ubiquitous importance (Durner et al. 1999). Many previous studies have reported its presence in the plant kingdom and its involvement in growth, development (Beligni and Lamattina 1999) and defense responses to drought stress (Leshem 1996; Haramaty and Leshem 1997), osmotic stress (Xing et al. 2004), heat stress (Leshem et al. 1998), heavy metal toxicity (Hsu and Kao 2004), disease resistance (Delledonne et al. 1998), and apoptosis (Pedroso et al. 2000). As a free-radical molecule, NO is either protective or toxic depending on its concentration and different tissues it acts (Beligni and Lamattina 1999). The application of exogenous NO to whole plants or cell cultures has allowed obtaining valuable information on how this molecule affects some physiological and biochemical processes.

Altogether, we hypothesized that there could be a large set of parallel changes in the physiological and biochemical responses when plants were exposed to drought stress, exogenous NO application in a certain concentration could enhance the drought tolerance in plants. In this study we used the cuttings of *Populus przewalskii* Maximowicz as experimental material and sodium nitroprusside (SNP) as NO releaser to determine the physiological and biochemical responses to drought stress and the effect of NO on drought tolerance in trees.

Materials and methods

Plant material and experiment design

The cuttings of *P. przewalskii* Maximowicz were collected from Aba region (32°57'N, 101°56'E, 3,290 m altitude), Sichuan Province, Southwest China. The mean annual rainfall and mean annual temperature in this region are 712 mm and 3.3°C, respectively. After sprouting and growing for about 1 month, the healthy cuttings of

approximately equal height were selected and replanted into 5-l plastic pots filled with homogenized soil. And then they were grown in a naturally lit greenhouse under the semi-controlled environment with a temperature range of 18.0–32.0°C and relative humidity range of 50–80% during 1 May to 1 August 2005.

The experimental designs were completed as follows: 60 pots under well-watered treatment were watered to 100% of field capacity by supplying an amount of water equal to transpiration losses every day, another 60 pots under drought treatment were maintained at 25% of field capacity by watering every day. In each watering treatment, half of the cuttings were sprayed with 10 ml exogenous 0.2 mM SNP (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) per day, another half of the cuttings were sprayed with 10 ml water per day as control. Each treatment included five replications and six cuttings per replication were used. Following periods of rapid growth, an empirical relationship between plant fresh weight (Y , g) and plant height (X , cm): $Y = 0.975 + 0.112X$ ($R^2 = 0.968$, $P < 0.001$) (Li et al. 2004), was used to correct pot water for changes in plant biomass.

Growth measurements

All cuttings were harvested at the end of the experiment and the total leaf area was determined by a Portable Laser Area Meter (CI-203, CID Inc., Camas, WA). Biomass samples were dried (80°C, 48 h) to constant weight and weighed.

Detection of indices of stress damage

The relative water content (RWC) of leaves was calculated according to the following formula: $100 \times [(fresh\ weight - dry\ weight)/(saturated\ weight - dry\ weight)]$. Saturated weight was determined after incubation of the leaf in water for 24 h at room temperature. Dry weight was measured following oven drying at 80°C until constant weight. H_2O_2 content was measured colorimetrically as described by Jana and Choudhuri (1982). H_2O_2 was extracted by homogenizing 0.5 g leaf samples with phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 6.5) containing 1 mM hydroxylamine. The homogenate was centrifuged at 6,000×g for 20 min. To determine H_2O_2 content, the extracted solution was mixed with 0.1% titanium chloride in 20% (v/v) H_2SO_4 . The mixture was then centrifuged at 10,000×g for 25 min. The absorbance was measured at 415 nm. Absorbance values were calibrated to a standard curve generated using known concentrations of H_2O_2 . Leaf oxidative damage to lipids was expressed as equivalents of MDA contents. About 0.5 g leaf segments were homogenized in 10 ml of 10% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), and centrifuged at 12,000×g for 10 min. After that, 2 ml 0.6% thiobarbituric acid (TBA) in 10% TCA was

added to an aliquot of 2 ml from the supernatant. The mixture was heated in boiling water for 30 min, and then quickly cooled in an ice bath. After centrifugation at $10,000\times g$ for 10 min, the absorbance of the supernatant at 450, 532 and 600 nm was determined. The MDA content was calculated according to Hodges et al. (1999). Oxidative damage to protein was quantified as total protein carbonyl content as described by Levine et al. (1994). One gram leaves were homogenized in 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 1 mM EDTA, 2 mM dithiothreitol, 0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100 and 1 mM PMSF. Homogenates were filtered through two layers of Miracloth and centrifuged $10,000\times g$ for 20 min and the supernatants were incubated with 0.03% (v/v) Triton X-100 and 1% (w/v) streptomycin sulphate for 20 min to remove the nucleic acids. After then centrifuging at $2,000\times g$, supernatants (200 μ l) were mixed with 300 μ l of 10 mM DNPH (2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine) in 2 M HCl. After 1 h incubation at room temperature, proteins were precipitated with 10% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and the pellets were washed three times with 500 μ l of ethanol/ethylacetate (1:1). The pellets were finally dissolved in 6 M guanidine hydrochloride in 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer and the absorption at 370 nm was measured.

Contents of free proline and total amino acids determination

Free proline was extracted and determined as described by Bates et al. (1973); 0.5 g leaves were homogenized in a mortar after the addition of a small amount of quartz sand and 10 ml of a 3% (w/v) aqueous sulfosalicylic acid solution. The homogenate was centrifuged at $3,000\times g$ for 20 min. The supernatant was treated with acid ninhydrin (2.5 g ninhydrin/100 ml of a solution containing glacial acetic acid, distilled water and *ortho*-phosphoric acid 85% at a ratio of 6:3:1) boiled for 1 h, and the reaction was terminated in a water bath of room temperature (25°C) for 10 min. Then absorbance at 520 nm was determined using L-proline as standard. Contents of proline were expressed as $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry weight (DW).

The quantitative measurement of total amino acids of the supernatant was done using the ninhydrin reaction (Correia et al. 2005). Two milliliters of buffered ninhydrin solution (0.8 g of ninhydrin and 0.12 g of hydrindantin dissolved in 30 ml of 2-methoxyethanol plus 10 ml of acetate buffer 4 M, pH 5.5) were added to 1 ml of supernatant and heated in a boiling water bath for 15 min. The mixture was cooled to room temperature. Three milliliters of 50% ethanol were added and the absorbance was read at 570 nm after 10 min. The amount of amino acids was determined by reference to a standard curve previously prepared with arginine.

Antioxidant enzyme activities assay

Frozen leaf segments about 0.5 g were crushed into a fine power under liquid nitrogen. Soluble proteins were extracted by homogenizing the powder in 10 ml of 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing 1 mM EDTA and 1% polyvinylpyrrolidone, with the addition of 1 mM ASA in the case of APX assay. The homogenate was centrifuged at $12,000\times g$ for 20 min at 4°C and then the supernatant was used for the following enzyme assays. (1) SOD (EC 1.15.1.1) activity was assayed by monitoring the inhibition of photochemical reduction of nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) as described by Giannopolitis and Ries (1977). The 3 ml reaction mixture contained 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.8), 13 mM methionine, 75 μ M NBT, 2 μ M riboflavin, 0.1 mM EDTA and 0.1 ml enzyme extract. The reaction mixtures were illuminated for 15 min at light intensity of $75 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. One unit of SOD activity was defined as the amount of enzyme required to cause 50% inhibition of the reduction of NBT as monitored at 560 nm. (2) GPX (EC 1.11.1.7) activity was based on the determination of guaiacol oxidation (extinction coefficient $26.6 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$) at 470 nm by H_2O_2 . The reaction mixture contained 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5), 16 mM guaiacol and 0.1 ml of 10% H_2O_2 in a 3 ml volume. The reaction was initiated by adding 50 μ l enzyme extract and was followed for 3 min (Lin and Wang 2002). (3) APX (EC 1.11.1.11) activity was analyzed by following the decrease in A290 (extinction coefficient $2.8 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$) for 1 min in 3 ml of a reaction mixture containing 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM ASA (sodium ascorbate), 2.5 mM H_2O_2 and 200 μ l enzyme extract (Nakano and Asada 1981). In addition, total soluble protein contents were determined as described by Bradford (1976), using bovine serum albumin as a calibration standard.

Statistical analysis

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) for all variables from measurements were used for testing the possible differences between the treatments. Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationships between variables using individual data. Statistical analysis was done with SPSS 11.0 for windows statistical software package.

Results

Morphological properties

Drought significantly decreased these morphological properties including shoot height (Sh), basal diameter (Bd),

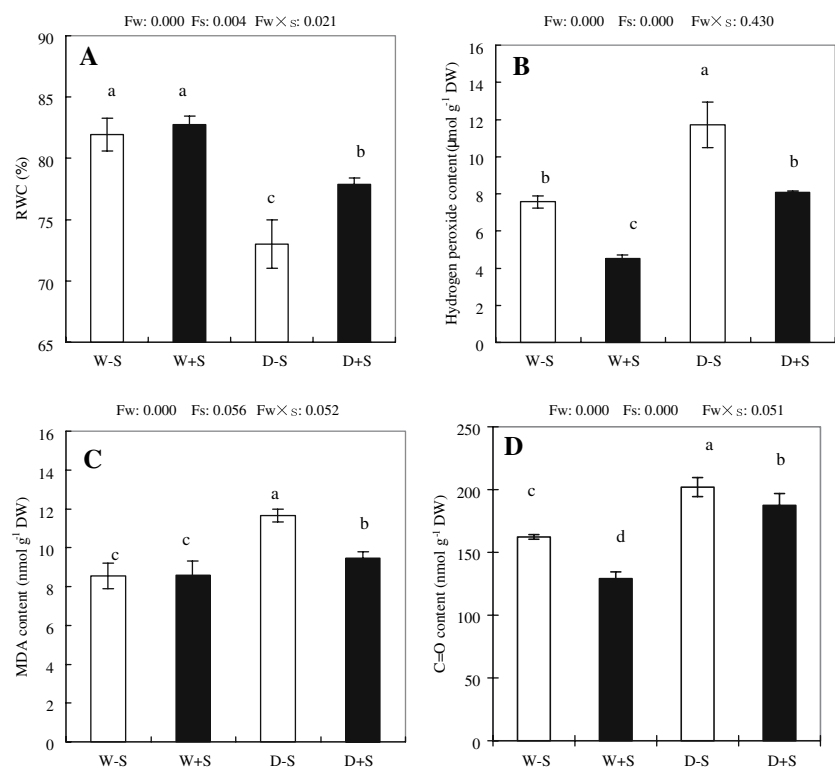
Table 1 Shoot height (Sh), basal diameter (Bd), total biomass (Tb), leaf number (Ln), total leaf area (Tla) and average leaf area (Ala) in *P. przewalskii* cuttings as affected by drought stress and exogenous SNP application

	Shoot height (cm)	Basal diameter (mm)	Total biomass (g)	Leaf number	Total leaf area (dm ²)	Average leaf area (cm ²)
Water	104.67 ± 3.44 b	8.65 ± 0.59 a	27.29 ± 2.82 b	32.30 ± 4.72 a	2138.3 ± 176.4 a	66.72 ± 4.23 a
Water + SNP	123.07 ± 3.08 a	8.94 ± 0.67 a	33.75 ± 2.13 a	33.33 ± 3.58 a	2384.3 ± 185.5 a	72.96 ± 11.26 a
Drought	36.00 ± 9.51 d	3.17 ± 0.29 c	4.98 ± 0.34 d	15.20 ± 4.15 b	498.9 ± 34.3 c	32.32 ± 3.36 c
Drought + SNP	69.20 ± 11.12 c	6.16 ± 0.35 b	11.24 ± 0.28 c	22.40 ± 1.52 b	941.1 ± 90.9 b	42.02 ± 5.89 b
Fw	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Fs	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.356	0.028	0.016
Fw × s	0.037	0.000	0.960	0.210	0.502	0.529

Values (means of five replicates ± SE) followed by different letters are significantly different from each other at the $P < 0.05$ level

Fw watering effect; Fs SNP effect; Fw × s watering × SNP interaction effect

Fig. 1 RWC (a), H₂O₂ (b), MDA (c) and C=O (d) contents of *P. przewalskii* cuttings as affected by drought stress and exogenous SNP application. Values (five mean ± SE) followed by different letters are significantly different from each other at the $P < 0.05$ level. Fw, watering effect; Fs, SNP effect; Fw × s, watering × SNP interaction effect. W, well-watered treatment; D, drought treatment; open square, no SNP application; filled square, 0.2 mM SNP application



total biomass (Tb) and leaf number (Ln), total leaf area (Tla) and average leaf area (Ala) ($P < 0.001$). Under well watered treatment SNP application showed no obvious effect, while it significantly increased these parameters under drought treatment ($P < 0.001$) (Table 1).

Stress indices

Drought also significantly decreased RWC and increased the H₂O₂, MDA and C=O contents ($P < 0.001$). Under well watered treatment SNP application had no obvious effect on RWC, and MDA, while it significantly increased RWC and decreased MDA content under drought treat-

ment. SNP application significantly decreased the C=O and H₂O₂ contents under both well watered and drought treatments ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 1).

Proline and total amino acids contents

Drought significantly increased the contents of free proline and total amino acids ($P < 0.001$). SNP application significantly increased total amino acids under both well watered and drought treatments. SNP application also significantly increased proline content under drought treatment, while little effect on proline content under well-watered treatment (Fig. 2).

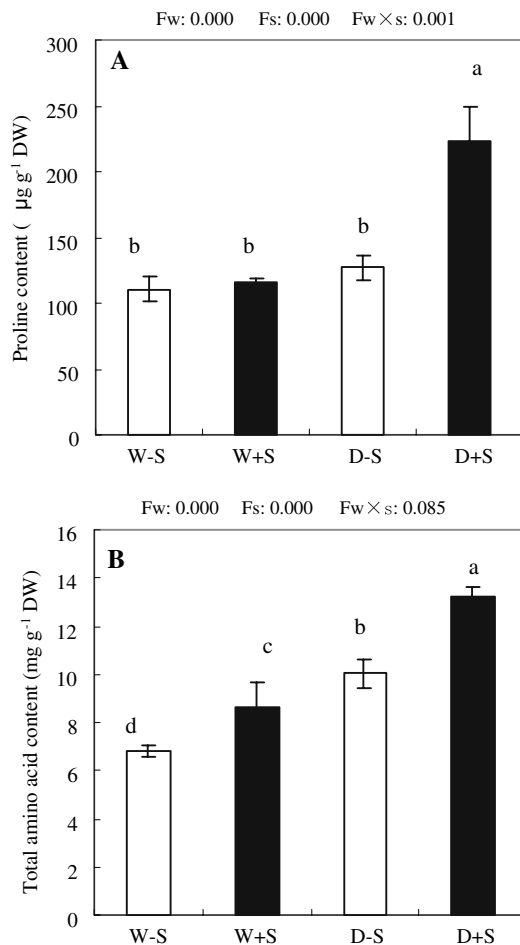


Fig. 2 Proline (a) and total amino acids (b) contents of *P. przewalskii* cuttings as affected by drought stress and exogenous SNP application. Values (five mean $\pm$ SE) followed by different letters are significantly different from each other at the $P < 0.05$ level. Fw, watering effect; Fs, SNP effect; Fw $\times$ s, watering $\times$ SNP interaction effect. W, well-watered treatment; D, drought treatment; open square, no SNP application; filled square, 0.2 mM SNP application

Antioxidant enzyme activities

Drought activated the antioxidant enzymes including SOD, GPX and APX. Under well-watered treatment, SNP application had no obvious effect on these parameters, while under drought treatment SNP application significantly increased the three enzyme activities further (Fig. 3).

Relationships between RWC and physiological and biochemical properties

RWC was negatively correlated with H_2O_2 , MDA, SOD, GPX and APX activities under control and exogenous SNP application. However, RWC was negatively correlated with free proline and total amino acids contents under

control, and negatively correlated with C=O under exogenous SNP application (Table 2).

Discussion

Plants usually respond to drought stress through structural modifications and growth pattern adjustment, including a reduction in total dry mass accumulation and limitation on leaf numbers and leaf areas. Our results showed that drought stress significantly decreased Sh, Bd, Tb, Ln, Tla and Ala in *P. przewalskii* cuttings, which was consistent with many previous studies (Yin et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2004). Another consequence of drought stress in *P. przewalskii* cuttings was the decrease of leaf RWC, it could be interpreted as a mechanism that concentrates solutes in the cell sap, thereby lowering the osmotic potential and contributing to osmotic adjustment (Lissner et al. 1999). On the other hand, drought stress also induced oxidative burst as manifested by the increase of H_2O_2 content in *P. przewalskii* cuttings (Fig. 1). At low concentration, H_2O_2 and other ROS may function in cellular signaling process as secondary messengers to induce a number of genes and proteins involved in stress defenses (Jiang and Zhang 2001), while at high amounts they lead to lipid peroxidation and protein modification as indicated by the increase in MDA and C=O contents, respectively (Fig. 1).

Under drought stress, contents of total amino acids in *P. przewalskii* cuttings were significantly increased, which might contribute to osmotic adjustment and allow plant to maintain turgor pressure and adapt to limited water availability. Many higher plants have been found to accumulate proline under various stressful conditions due to its many advantages (Delauney and Verma 1993; Yin et al. 2005), while whether proline levels are reliable indicators of stress tolerance have been the subject of numerous discussions and are still vigorously debated (Hare and Cress 1997). And Kiyosue et al. (1996) also found that severe dehydration in *Arabidopsis* was associated with induction of both proline dehydrogenase and P5C synthetase, with no net accumulation of free proline, which is similar to our result that there was no significant proline accumulation under drought stress. On the other hand, H_2O_2 as secondary messenger may only occur under subtoxic condition and at higher concentration they are still harmful to plant survival. Therefore, plants have evolved an entire set of antioxidant systems to keep them under control. Drought stress caused an increase in enzyme activities such as SOD, GPX and APX in *P. przewalskii* cuttings to coordinate the AOS concentrations (Fig. 3). The role of antioxidant enzymes under stressful conditions has already been reported by many earlier studies (Schwanz et al. 1996; Kronfub et al. 1998; Duan et al. 2005; Yin et al. 2005).

Fig. 3 SOD (a), GPX (b) and APX (c) activities of *P. przewalskii* cuttings as affected by drought stress and exogenous SNP application. Values (five mean $\pm$ SE) followed by different letters are significantly different from each other at the $P < 0.05$ level. *Fw*, watering effect; *Fs*, SNP effect; *Fw* $\times$ *s*, watering $\times$ SNP interaction effect. *W*, well-watered treatment; *D*, drought treatment; *open square*, no SNP application; *filled square*, 0.2 mM SNP application

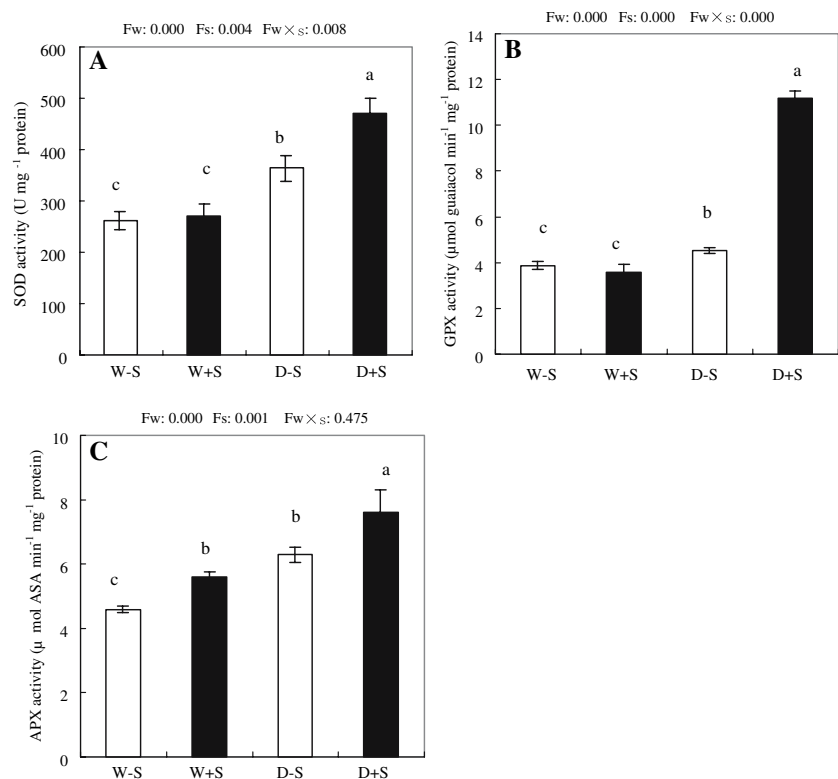


Table 2 Correlation coefficients between RWC and physiological and biochemical properties of *P. przewalskii* cuttings under control and exogenous SNP application

RWC	H ₂ O ₂	MDA	C=O	Pro	TAA	SOD	GPX	APX
Control	−0.902*	−0.960**	−0.811 ^{NS}	−0.951**	−0.912*	−0.920**	−0.922**	−0.913*
SNP	−0.919**	−0.944**	−0.974**	−0.646 ^{NS}	−0.787 ^{NS}	−0.917**	−0.886*	−0.908*

RWC relative water content; H₂O₂ hydrogen peroxide; MDA malondialdehyde; C=O carbonyl content; Pro free proline; TAA total amino acids; SOD superoxide dimutase; GPX guaiacol peroxidase; APX ascorbate peroxidase; NS not significant

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$

In a series of studies, exogenous SNP proved to be capable of alleviating some consequences of stressful condition. For example, SNP-treated rice seedlings permitted higher survival rate under salt and heat stresses (Uchida et al. 2002), SNP-treated potato plants were resistant to oxidative stress (Beligini and Lamattina 1999) and SNP-treated wheat seedlings enhanced adaptive responses against drought stress (Garcia-Mata and Lamattina 2001). And NO was also found to stimulate seed germination and counter the inhibitory effect of heavy metals and salinity on root growth of *Lupinus luteus* (Kopyra and Gwozdz 2003). In our study, under drought treatment exogenous SNP significantly increased growth and dry mass accumulation in *P. przewalskii* cuttings, while under well-watered treatment its effect was very little, which is consistent with report of Ruan et al. (2004) who found that 0.1 mM SNP hardly affected wheat seedlings grown in

Hoagland's solution, while SNP application significantly enhanced its salt tolerance under 150 mM NaCl solution.

Exogenous SNP also altered some physiological and biochemical responses, including proline accumulation and ROS metabolism, which might, in part, account for its protective effect on *P. przewalskii* cuttings under drought stress. SNP increased the proline content under drought stress, which was in well agreement with Ruan et al. (2004) who found that 0.1 mM SNP effectively induced proline accumulation in wheat seedlings under salinity stress. Moreover, two NO scavengers, hemoglobin and 2-(4-carboxyphenyl)-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide (c-PTIO) inhibited the effect of SNP. Uchida et al. (2002) also found that the expression of *P5CS* (Δ^1 -pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase), the key enzyme in proline synthesis, was increased in response to SNP in rice seedlings, which could promote proline accumulation and

confer increased tolerance to salt stress. Furthermore, previous studies reported that abscisic acid (ABA) increased significantly in many higher plants under drought stress, and it was strongly proposed to be involved in proline accumulation (Hare et al. 1999). It was showed that NO could activate the synthesis of endogenous ABA in wheat seedling leaves under salt stress, therefore, NO might induce proline accumulation via ABA transduction cascade through activation of ABA synthesis (Ruan et al. 2004). Moreover, NO may enhance the adaptive plant responses against drought stress through the induction of stomatal closure as suggested by Garcia-Mata and Lamattina (2001). They found that 150 mM SNP retained up to 15% more water than the control, which was consistent with a 20% decrease in the transpiration rate.

As is now commonly accepted NO as a second messenger in plants, it is supposed that low concentration of NO might be a signal molecule to induce/stabilize the expression of many antioxidative enzymes including SOD and CAT which are proven in many animal and plant materials (Frank et al. 2000). It was evidenced in our study that NO significantly increased the activities of SOD, GPX and APX in *P. przewalskii* cuttings under drought stress (Fig. 3). The protective effect of NO may also be related to its ability to react with some ROS, such as O_2^- . Through abrogating O_2^- mediated cytotoxic effects through the conversion of O_2^- into $ONOO^-$, NO thus act as a chain breaker and show its proposed antioxidant properties (Conner and Grisham 1996). In addition, it has also been reported that NO can react with lipid alcoxyl ($LO\cdot$) and peroxy ($LOO\cdot$) radicals, leading to the expectation that NO could stop the propagation of radical-mediated lipid oxidation in a direct fashion (Lamotte et al. 2004). Therefore, NO may help plants to survive under stressful conditions through its action as signaling molecule to activate antioxidative enzymes and reaction with active oxygen and lipid radicals directly.

In conclusion, drought stress significantly decreased growth, biomass accumulation and relative water content in *P. przewalskii* cuttings; free proline was accumulated for osmotic adjustment to lower water potential for continued water uptake. Drought stress also significantly increased the H_2O_2 content and caused oxidative stress to lipids and proteins in *P. przewalskii* cuttings. The antioxidant enzymes, including SOD, GPX and APX, were activated to maintain the favorable redox state for survival under drought stress. Exogenous SNP application conferred drought tolerance by promotion of proline accumulation and activation of antioxidant enzyme activities. However, the mechanism of NO function needs to be further elucidated maybe using NO gas, other NO donors and NO scavengers.

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