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1 **Adverse Vascular Remodelling is More Sensitive than Endothelial**
2 **Dysfunction to Hyperglycaemia in Diabetic Rat Mesenteric Arteries**

3

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 Increased vascular stiffness and reduced endothelial nitric oxide (NO^{*})
28 bioavailability are characteristic of diabetes. Whether these are evident at a more
29 moderate levels of hyperglycaemia has not been investigated. The objectives of
30 this study were to examine the association between the level of glycaemia and
31 resistance vasculature phenotype, incorporating both arterial stiffness and
32 endothelial function. Diabetes was induced in male Sprague Dawley rats with
33 streptozotocin (STZ; 55mg/kg i.v.) and followed for 8 weeks. One week post STZ,
34 diabetic rats were allocated to either moderate (~20 mM blood glucose, 6-7
35 U/insulin s.c. daily) or severe hyperglycaemia (~30 mM blood glucose, 1-2
36 U/insulin s.c. daily as required). At study end, rats were anesthetized, and the
37 mesenteric arcade was collected. Passive mechanical wall properties were
38 assessed by pressure myography. Responses to the endothelium-dependent
39 vasodilator acetylcholine (ACh) were assessed using wire myography. Our results
40 demonstrated for the first time that mesenteric arteries from both moderate and
41 severely hyperglycaemic diabetic rats exhibited outward hypertrophic
42 remodelling and increased axial stiffness compared to arteries from non-diabetic
43 rats. Secondly, mesenteric arteries from severely (~30 mM blood glucose), but not
44 moderately hyperglycaemic (~20 mM blood glucose) rats exhibit a significant
45 reduction to ACh sensitivity compared to their non-diabetic counterparts. This
46 endothelial dysfunction was associated with significant reduction in endothelium-
47 derived hyperpolarisation and endothelium-dependent NO^{*}-mediated relaxation.
48 Interestingly, endothelium-derived nitroxyl (HNO^{*})-mediated relaxation was
49 intact. Therefore, moderate hyperglycaemia is sufficient to induce adverse

50 structural changes in the mesenteric vasculature, but more severe
51 hyperglycaemia is essential to cause endothelial dysfunction.

52

53 **Key words (5)** – endothelial function, arterial wall stiffness, diabetes, differential

54 hyperglycaemia, mesenteric artery

55

56 **Non-standard abbreviations and acronyms**

57

58 AGE, advanced-glycation endproducts; BH₄, tetrahydrobiopterin; BK_{Ca}, large
59 conductance calcium-activated potassium channel; COX, cyclooxygenase; EDH,
60 endothelium-derived hyperpolarisation; eNOS, endothelial nitric oxide synthase;
61 GHB, glycated haemoglobin; HNO, nitroxyl; HXC, hydroxocobalamin; IK_{Ca},
62 intermediate conductance calcium-activated potassium channel; K_v, voltage-gated
63 potassium channel; KcaB, a cocktail of TRAM-34, apamin and iberiotoxin; KPSS,
64 potassium physiological saline solution; L-Cys, L-cysteine; MHG, moderate
65 hyperglycaemia; NG, normal glycaemia; NO[•], nitric oxide; NOS, nitric oxide
66 synthase; Nox2, NADPH oxidase 2; ODQ, 1H-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxaline-
67 1-one; pEC₅₀, negative log of half-maximal effective concentration; PGI₂,
68 prostacyclin; R_{max}, maximum relaxation; SHG, severe hyperglycaemia; sGC, soluble
69 guanylate cyclase; SK_{Ca}, small conductance calcium-activated potassium channel;
70 SNP, sodium nitroprusside; STZ, streptozotocin; WT, wall thickness

71

72 **1. Introduction**

73 Cardiovascular complications (both micro and macrovascular) are the leading
74 cause of diabetes-related morbidity and mortality (1). These vascular
75 complications, including arterial stiffness (caused by adverse vascular
76 remodelling) and endothelial dysfunction are regarded as critical initiating factors
77 in the development of diabetic vascular complications (2, 3), and may represent
78 surrogate markers of prognosis.

79

80 Streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetes is a well-established animal model of
81 experimental diabetes (4, 5). STZ causes pancreatic beta cell death due to DNA
82 alkylation (6, 7), resulting in marked hyperglycaemia in rodents (4).
83 Hyperglycaemia-induced oxidative stress causes arterial stiffness and endothelial
84 dysfunction (8). Although these vascular complications are well characterised in
85 STZ-induced hyperglycaemic rats, the majority of studies only address severely
86 hyperglycaemic rats (blood glucose ≥ 30 mM) (9-12); the potential effects of more
87 moderate hyperglycaemia on the vasculature are largely not considered.
88 Therefore, understanding of the relationship between the level of glycaemia and
89 vascular structure and function is incomplete.

90

91 Arterial wall stiffness is a common hallmark of diabetes and can increase the risk
92 of further cardiovascular events such as myocardial infarction or stroke (13). This
93 increased stiffness results from adverse arterial remodelling, secondary to
94 changes in the composition and structure of the arterial wall and resultant altered
95 passive mechanical wall properties (14). Diabetes increases the formation of
96 advanced-glycation endproducts (AGEs) (15-17) which, by forming cross-links

97 with the extracellular matrix protein collagen, renders the artery wall more rigid
98 and less able to stretch (18). Additionally, increased vascular collagen content
99 (19) further exacerbates vascular stiffness (20, 21) .

100

101 The key role of the endothelium in regulating normal vascular tone is well-known;
102 the release of the vasoactive factors such as prostacyclin (PGI₂), nitric oxide (NO^{*})
103 and endothelium-derived hyperpolarisation (EDH) all contribute to vascular
104 regulation. Reduced production of these endothelial-derived relaxing factors
105 leads to endothelial dysfunction (2, 22). Emerging evidence suggests that the one-
106 electron-reduced and protonated form of NO^{*}, nitroxyl (HNO), is likely produced
107 endogenously in the vasculature (23-25) and contributes to endothelium-
108 dependent relaxation (26, 27). HNO stimulates soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) in
109 a similar manner to NO^{*} to elicit vasodilation (26, 28, 29). In addition, it has been
110 demonstrated that HNO activates K_v channels in vascular smooth muscle to
111 stimulate hyperpolarisation and subsequent vasorelaxation (26, 29).

112

113 In diabetic mesenteric arteries, it is well-established that EDH-type relaxation is
114 impaired (9-12). The residual component of relaxation, after the inhibition of both
115 cyclooxygenase (COX) and calcium-activated potassium channels (K_{Ca}), is likely to
116 be attributed to endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS)-derived NO^{*}, which is
117 also reported to be impaired by diabetes (9, 10, 12). Although both NO^{*} and HNO
118 can be produced by eNOS, previous studies have failed to identify which nitrogen
119 oxide is impacted by diabetes (9, 10, 12). Thus it remains unclear whether NO^{*}-
120 mediated, HNO-mediated relaxation, or both, are impaired in diabetes-induced
121 endothelial dysfunction in resistance vessels.

122

123 The aims of this study were to characterise the differential changes in arterial wall
124 stiffness and endothelial function in the mesenteric artery induced by moderate
125 versus severe hyperglycaemia in a rat model of experimental diabetes.
126 Furthermore, as HNO offers greater resistance than NO[•] to the detrimental
127 consequences of oxidative stress (30, 31), which is evident in diabetes (30, 32, 33).
128 Thus, we also sought to investigate if endothelium-derived HNO-mediated
129 relaxation remains intact under hyperglycaemic conditions.

130

131 **2. Methods**

132 *2.1 Animals*

133 This investigation complied with the National Health and Medical Research
134 Council (NHMRC) of Australia code of practice for the care and use of animals for
135 scientific purposes. All procedures involved in this project were approved by the
136 Alfred Medical Research Educational Precinct (AMREP) Animal Ethics Committee
137 (approved E/1519/2014/B). Type 1 diabetes was induced in rats as previously
138 described (34). Briefly, adult male outbred Sprague Dawley rats (n= 50) obtained
139 from AMREP animal services (bodyweight ~230g; approximately 6 weeks of age)
140 were randomly assigned to receive STZ to induce diabetes (55mg/kg i.v., n=35) or
141 citrate buffer (normal glucose (NG), n=15) via the tail vein following an overnight
142 fast. One week following STZ, diabetic rats were further assigned to two groups:
143 severe hyperglycaemia (SHG, n=16) and moderate hyperglycaemia (MHG, n=19)
144 using a single daily insulin (Eli Lilly) injection (long-lasting Humulin NPH) to
145 titrate blood glucose levels to >28 mM (1-2 units, s.c. per day) and ~20 mM (6-7
146 units, s.c. per day) as required, respectively. Blood glucose and body weight were
147 monitored weekly. Following 8 weeks of diabetes or non-diabetic control, rats
148 were euthanised with an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine-xylazine (100 and
149 12 mg/kg, respectively) and the mesenteric arcade was collected. Blood glucose
150 and glycated haemoglobin (GHB) levels were measured using a one touch
151 glucometer (Roche, Sydney, NSW, Australia) and Cobas HbA1c analyser (Roche,
152 Sydney, NSW, Australia), respectively.

153

154 *2.2 Passive Mechanical Wall Properties ex vivo*

155 Following euthanasia, a section of the mesenteric arcade was immediately placed

156 in an ice-cold Ca²⁺-free physiological saline solution (14.9 mM NaCl, 4.7 mM KCl,
157 1.7 mM NaHCO₃, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.7 mM MgSO₄, 5 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES and
158 2 mM EGTA) and cleared of fat and connective tissue. Third order mesenteric
159 arteries were cleared of fat and connective tissue and leak-free segments were
160 mounted on the cannula of a pressure myograph (Living Systems Instrumentation,
161 Burlington, VT, USA). The lumen was gently flushed to remove any remaining
162 blood, and the distal end occluded. Arteries were incubated at 37°C for 20 minutes
163 before measures of vessel wall parameters (vessel length, outer diameter [OD]
164 and wall thickness [WT] were obtained, in 10 mmHg increments from 5mmHg to
165 120mmHg). Inner diameter (ID), wall stress and wall strain were calculated as
166 described previously (35). Volume distensibility was calculated as $\Delta \text{volume}/([\Delta$
167 $\text{cross-sectional area} \times \text{length}] \times \Delta \text{Pressure})$, where cross-sectional area was
168 calculated as $(\pi \times \text{ID}^2)/4$ (35, 36). The % change in length with pressure was
169 calculated using the following equation: $\% \text{length} = [(\text{value at pressure})/(\text{value at}$
170 $\text{baseline})] \times 100$ (37).

171

172 *2.3 Vascular Reactivity ex vivo*

173 The remaining mesenteric arcade was immediately placed in an ice-cold Krebs's
174 bicarbonate solution containing (in mmol/l) NaCl 120, KCl 5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄
175 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25, D-glucose 11.1, CaCl₂ 2.5, EDTA 0.0026. Indomethacin (10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$),
176 a non-selective cyclooxygenase (COX) inhibitor to inhibit the synthesis of
177 prostanoids, was present in the Krebs's solution at all times. Third order
178 mesenteric arteries were cleared of connective fat and tissue, cut into 2mm rings
179 and mounted on a Mulvany-Halpern wire myograph (model 610M; Danish Myo
180 Technology, Aarhus, Denmark). Arteries were allowed to stabilise at zero tension

181 before normalisation as described previously (38). All experiments were
182 performed at 37°C and the baths were continuously bubbled with 95% O₂ and 5%
183 CO₂.

184

185 Thirty minutes after normalisation, arteries were maximally contracted using K⁺
186 physiological saline solution (KPSS, 100 mmol/l) and the integrity of the
187 endothelium was determined as described previously (39). After further washout,
188 arteries were again precontracted to similar levels (70-80% of KPSS response)
189 using either the combination of phenylephrine (0.1-3 μmol/l) or U46619 (0.1-1
190 μmol/l) where indicated. In some cases, arteries were precontracted using
191 depolarising solution (30 mmol/l K⁺) to globally block all K⁺ channels. The impact
192 of MHG and SHG on mesenteric artery function was determined via the
193 construction of cumulative concentration-response curves to the endothelium-
194 dependent vasodilator, acetylcholine (ACh; 0.1 nmol/l-10 μmol/l), NO donor,
195 Diethylamine nonoate (DEANO; 0.1 nmol/l-10 μmol/l), HNO donor,
196 isopropylamine-NONOate (IPANO; 0.1 nmol/l-10 μmol/l) and the endothelium-
197 independent vasodilator, sodium nitroprusside (SNP; 0.1 nmol/l-10 μmol/l).
198 Responses to ACh were also assessed following 20 minute incubations with nitric
199 oxide synthase inhibitor, N^ω-Nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (L-NAME; 200 μmol/l)
200 either alone or in combination with, L-cysteine, a selective HNO scavenger (3
201 mmol/l, added for the final 3 minutes), hydroxocobalamin, a selective NO[•]
202 scavenger (HXC; 100 μmol/l), 1H-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxaline-1-one, a
203 soluble guanylate cyclase inhibitor (ODQ; 10 μmol/l). A cocktail of inhibitors of
204 calcium-activated potassium channels (K_{Ca}), 1-[(2-
205 chlorophenyl)diphenylmethyl]-(1H)-pyrazole (TRAM34; 1 μmol/l), apamin (1

206 $\mu\text{mol/l}$) and iberiotoxin ($0.1 \mu\text{mol/l}$) was also incubated for 20 minutes either
207 alone or in combination as indicated.

208

209 *2.4 Assessment of Basal nitrogen oxide, NO^{*} and HNO bioavailability ex vivo*

210 In a separate series of experiments, the impact of glycaemic level on basal levels
211 of eNOS-derived nitrogen oxides, as well as basal bioavailability of NO^{*} and HNO
212 were examined through the addition of L-NAME ($200 \mu\text{mol/l}$), HXC ($100 \mu\text{mol/l}$)
213 or L-cysteine (3 mmol/l) in endothelium-intact rings submaximally-contracted
214 with phenylephrine ($10\text{-}100\text{nmol/l}$ to $\sim 20\%$ of KPSS) (40). Under these
215 conditions, a contractile response to L-NAME was considered to reflect the level
216 of basal eNOS-derived nitrogen oxides, which includes both NO^{*} and HNO. The
217 contractile responses to HXC or L-cysteine were considered to reflect the basal
218 level of NO^{*} or HNO, respectively.

219

220 *2.5 Drugs*

221 All drugs were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA) except for
222 iberiotoxin (Tocris Bioscience, Bristol, UK), U46619 and ODQ (Cayman Chemical,
223 Ann Arbor, MI, USA). All drugs were dissolved in distilled water, with the
224 exception of indomethacin, which was dissolved in 0.1 mol/l sodium bicarbonate,
225 ODQ and TRAM34, which was dissolved in 100% DMSO (final concentration less
226 than 0.1% DMSO) and U46619, which was dissolved in 100% ethanol (final
227 concentration less than 0.1% ethanol) as 1 mmol/l stock solution and subsequent
228 dilutions were in distilled water.

229

230 *2.6 Statistical Analyses*

231 Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and n represents the number of animals per
232 group. Concentration-response curves were computer-fitted to a sigmoidal curve
233 using non-linear regression (Prism 5.0; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA),
234 and the sensitivity of each agonist (pEC_{50}) was calculated. Maximum relaxation
235 (R_{max}) to vasodilators was measured as a percentage of precontraction. Group pEC_{50} ,
236 R_{max} and systemic characteristics were compared via one-way ANOVA with post-hoc
237 analysis using Dunnett's test or Tukey's test as appropriate. Stress-strain curves and
238 pressurised wall parameters (WT, ID and OD) were analysed with repeated
239 measures two-way ANOVA (treatment vs. strain) with Bonferroni post hoc
240 analysis. Volume distensibility and arterial lengthening were analysed using a
241 two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc analysis. $P < 0.05$ was considered
242 statistically significant.

243

244 **3. Results**

245 *3.1 Systemic Characteristics at Endpoint in vivo*

246 Body weight gain after 8 weeks, was significantly lower in the SHG rats compared
247 to both NG and MHG rats (Table 1). Both %GHB and blood glucose levels were
248 significantly increased in the SHG rats compared to NG and MHG rats.
249 Interestingly, although MHG rats exhibited significantly increased %GHB and
250 blood glucose levels compared to non-diabetic NG rats, this was not associated
251 with retarded body weight gain (Table 1).

252

253

254 **Table 1.** Systemic characteristics at study endpoint *in vivo*: A comparison of body
255 weight gain, endpoint blood glucose and glycated haemoglobin (GHB) levels from
256 normal glucose (NG), moderate hyperglycaemic (MHG) and severe
257 hyperglycaemic (SHG) rats. Results are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P<0.05 versus NG,
258 #P<0.05 versus MHG, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc analysis. N/A: below
259 the detection limit of the assay (4% for GHB).

260

	NG	MHG	SHG
Body Weight gain (g)	138 \pm 6	150 \pm 6	18 \pm 5**
Blood glucose (mM)	7.0 \pm 0.2	21.6 \pm 0.9*	30.1 \pm 0.8**
GHB (%)	N/A	4.33 \pm 0.08	7.19 \pm 0.17#

261

262

263

264

265 *3.2 Impact of Diabetes on Vascular Remodelling and Axial Stiffness*

266 Mesenteric arteries from diabetic rats, exhibited a significant ($P < 0.0001$) increase
267 in inner diameter (ID), outer diameter (OD) and wall thickness at baseline (5
268 mmHg) regardless of the degree of hyperglycaemia (Figure 1A-1C). This increase
269 in vessel diameter also persisted over the full range of pressures studied,
270 indicating outward hypertrophic remodelling. Interestingly, this was evident even
271 in arteries isolated from the moderate hyperglycaemic rats, with no significant
272 differences in vessel dimensions between MHG and SHG mesenteric arteries.
273 These findings suggest that vascular remodelling is particularly sensitive to
274 impaired glycaemic control (Figure 1). The stress-strain relationship was not
275 significantly different between the three groups (Figure 2A), indicating that
276 increasing blood glucose levels does not impact on circumferential vascular
277 stiffness. There was however, a significant reduction in volume distensibility in
278 mesenteric arteries from hyperglycaemic compared to non-diabetic rats, over the
279 physiological pressurisation range (50-120 mmHg, $P < 0.01$) (Figure 2B, C).
280 Interestingly, this was again evident even in arteries isolated from MHG rats, with
281 no further impact evident in SHG mesenteric arteries. To assess whether the
282 effects of diabetes on volume distensibility were associated with changes in axial
283 stiffness, the % change in arterial length over the full range of pressures studied
284 was determined. In both MHG and SHG, mesenteric arteries exhibited a modest
285 but statistically significant reduced ability to lengthen at physiological to high
286 pressure range (80 – 120 mmHg) compared to NG (Figure 2D, $P < 0.05$), again with
287 no further differences in the length-pressure relationship with more marked
288 hyperglycaemia (Figure 2). Together these data suggest that passive mechanical
289 wall properties are particularly sensitive to impaired glycaemic control.

290 Specifically, hyperglycaemia promotes axial stiffening to reduce mesenteric artery
291 distensibility.

292

293 *3.3 Pharmacological characterisation of Hydroxocobalamin and L-Cysteine*

294 The NO^{*} donor, DEANO and the HNO donor, IPANO caused concentration-
295 dependent relaxation in mesenteric arteries from NG, MHG and SHG rats
296 (Supplementary Table 1). Regardless of glycaemic status, the NO^{*} scavenger, HXC
297 (100 μmol/l) or HNO scavenger, L-cysteine (3 mmol/l) significantly decreased the
298 sensitivity but not maximum relaxation to DEANO or IPANO respectively,
299 confirming the specificity of these pharmacological scavengers. Therefore, the
300 HXC-sensitive and L-cysteine-sensitive pathway is likely to be attributed to NO^{*}
301 and HNO, respectively. Interestingly, the sensitivity to DEANO but not IPANO was
302 significantly decreased in mesenteric arteries from SHG rats in comparison to
303 either NG or MHG rats (Supplementary Table 1).

304 *3.3 Impact of Diabetes on Basal Nitrogen Oxide/NO^{*}/HNO Bioavailability*

305 The contraction evoked by KPSS (100mmol/l) in rat mesenteric arteries was not
306 significantly different between the 3 groups (NG, MHG and SHG; Figure 3A). In
307 contrast, L-NAME and HXC-induced arterial contractions were significantly
308 reduced in mesenteric arteries from both MHG and SHG compared to NG rats
309 (Figure 3B-3C, both P<0.05). However, L-cysteine-induced contraction, likely
310 attributed to basal levels of HNO, was not significantly different between the 3
311 groups (Figure 3D). Together these findings suggest that the bioavailability of
312 endogenous eNOS-derived nitrogen oxides, namely NO^{*}, is particularly sensitive
313 to impaired glycaemic control, whereas basal HNO bioavailability is unaffected by
314 hyperglycaemia.

315 **Supplementary Table 1.** Pharmacological characterisation of NO[•] and HNO scavengers *ex vivo*: A comparison of sensitivity (pEC₅₀) and
 316 maximum relaxation (R_{max}) to DEANO and IPANO in the absence or presence of HXC or L-cysteine in endothelium-intact mesenteric
 317 arteries isolated from normal glucose (NG), moderate hyperglycaemic (MHG) and severe hyperglycaemic (SHG) rats. n= the number of
 318 experiments. Results are shown as mean ± SEM. *P<0.05 versus control, unpaired Student's t-test. #P<0.05 versus NG or MHG, one-way
 319 ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc analysis. ND: Not determined.

320

321

DEANO	NG			MHG			SHG		
	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)
Control	6	7.29±0.08	99±1	6	7.32±0.08	100±1	4	6.87±0.06 [#]	99±1
HXC	6	6.46±0.15*	99±1	6	6.58±0.15*	98±1	4	5.59±0.26*	98±1
IPANO									
Control	5	6.58±0.14	96±1	5	6.72±0.12	99±1	4	6.42±0.11	97±1
L-cysteine	5	6.11±0.04*	93±2	5	6.20±0.16*	98±1	4	6.01±0.06*	96±2

322

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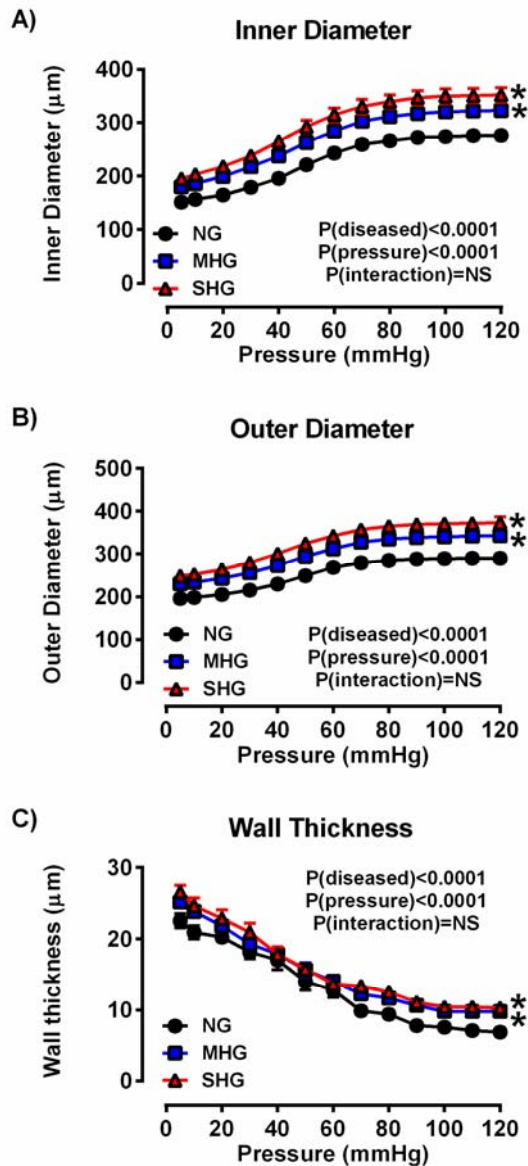
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Figure 1

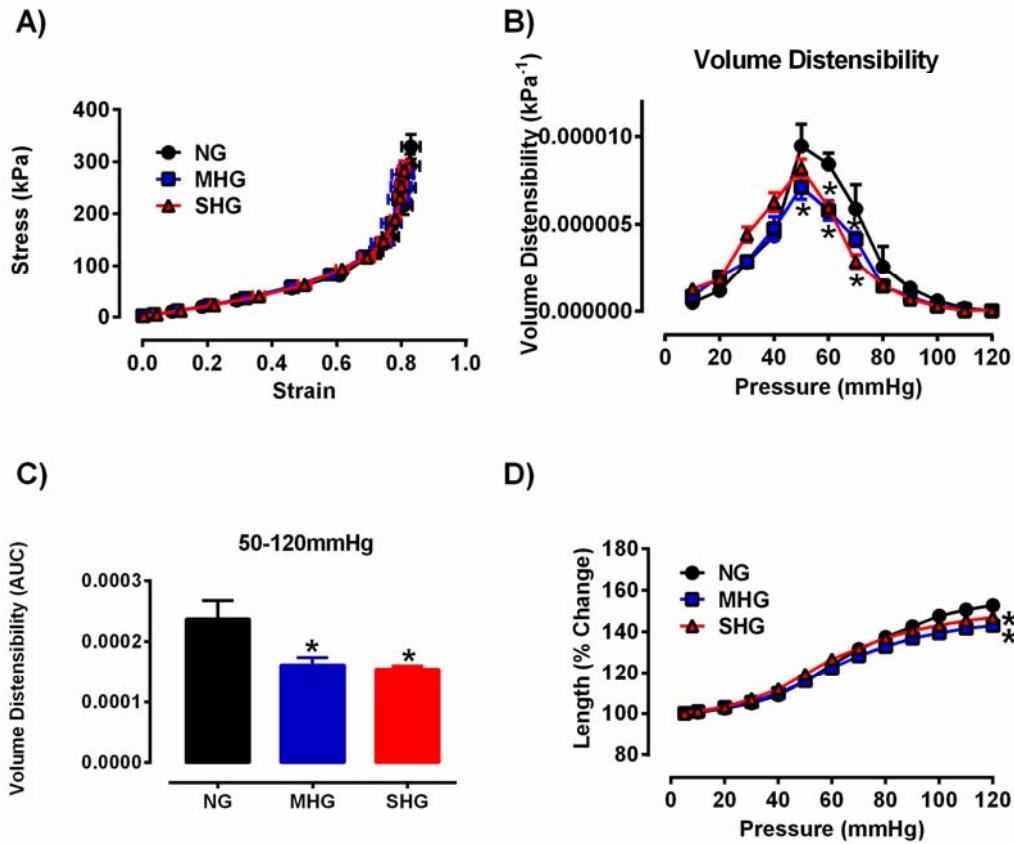


328
329 **Figure 1. Sensitivity of Passive Mechanical Wall Properties to**
330 **Hyperglycaemia**

331 Hyperglycaemia significantly increased each of (A) inner diameter (ID); (B) outer
332 diameter (OD) and (C) wall thickness (WT) against intraluminal pressure in the
333 rat mesenteric artery compared to arteries from normoglycaemic (NG) non-
334 diabetic rats. These increases were evident in vessels isolated from both moderate
335 (MHG) and severe (SHG) hyperglycaemic rats. Values are mean \pm SEM. n= 7-11 per
336 group *P<0.05 vs NG (2-way repeated measures ANOVA, Bonferroni post hoc
337 analysis).

338

Figure 2



339

340

341 **Figure 2. Sensitivity of Vascular Stiffness to Hyperglycaemia**

342 Although chronic hyperglycaemia *in vivo* had no effect on the (A) stress-strain

343 relationship *ex vivo*, hyperglycaemia reduced (B) volume distensibility over the

344 full range of pressures studied (0-120mmHg) and (C) the area-under-curve (AUC)

345 for this pressure-volume relationship over physiological pressure range (50-

346 120mmHg). (D) This was associated with a modest but significant

347 hyperglycaemia-induced reduction in the percentage change in vessel length with

348 increasing pressure in both MHG and SHG mesenteric arteries compared to NG.

349 Values are mean \pm SEM. n=7-11 per group *P<0.05 vs NG (2-way repeated

350 measures ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc analysis).

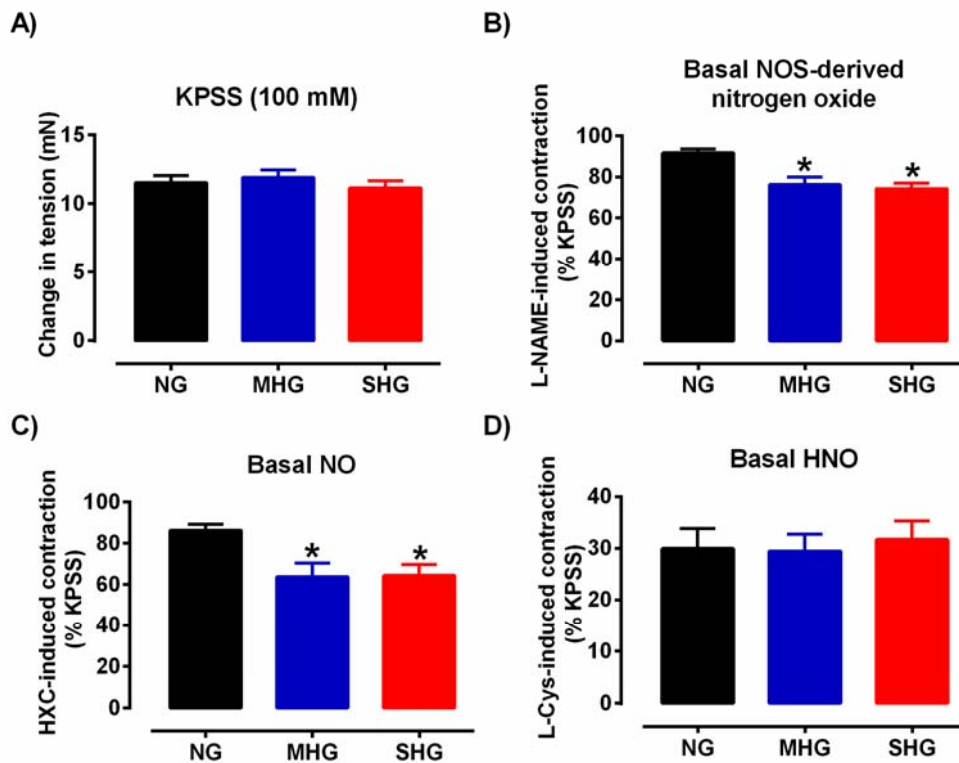
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353

354

Figure 3



355

356

357 **Figure 3. Impact of Hyperglycaemia on the bioavailability of eNOS-derived**
358 **nitrogen oxides, HNO and NO• in rat mesenteric arteries**

359 Hyperglycaemia did not affect maximum contraction to (A) high-potassium
360 physiological saline solution (KPSS), but was associated with loss in endogenous
361 bioavailability of both (B) eNOS-derived nitrogen oxide, which includes both NO•
362 and HNO and (C) NO•. (D) Basal HNO bioavailability was resistant to
363 hyperglycaemia in rat mesenteric arteries. In each group of experiments,
364 mesenteric arteries were precontracted with phenylephrine to similar levels,
365 prior to the addition of L-NAME (NOS inhibitor; n = 7-9 per group; B), HXC (NO•
366 scavenger, n = 7-8 per group; C) and L-cysteine (HNO scavenger, n = 6-9 per group;
367 D). Values are mean ± SEM. * P<0.05 vs NG (1-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test).

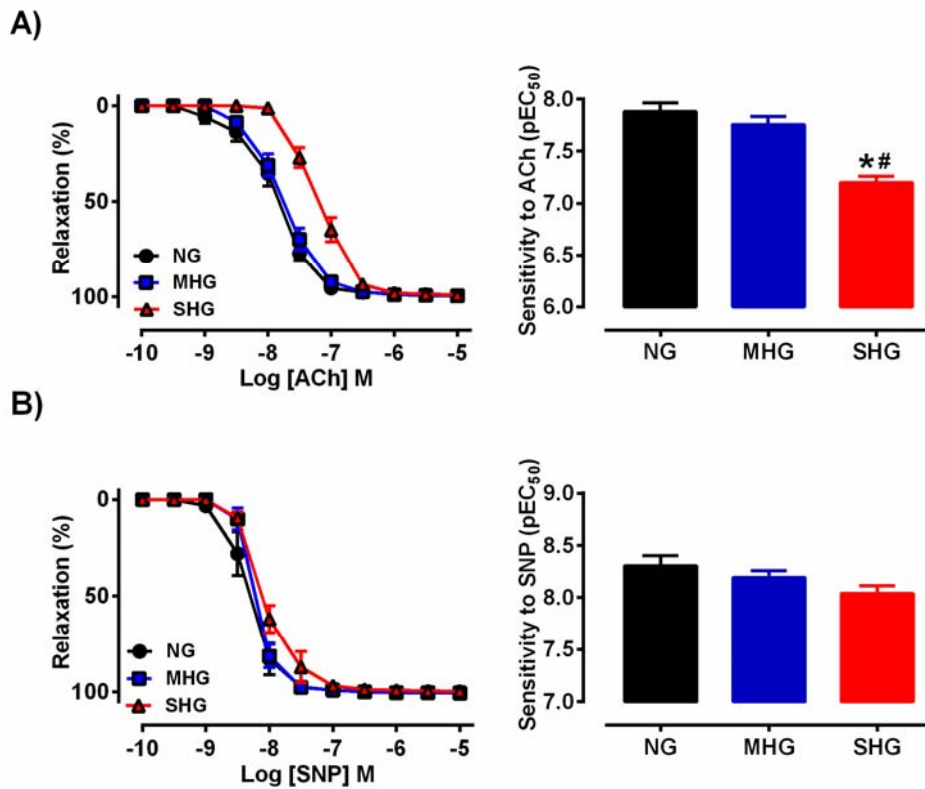
368

369 *3.4 Severe Hyperglycaemia is Required to Induce Endothelial Dysfunction*

370 Severe hyperglycaemia significantly reduced the sensitivity, but not the maximum
371 relaxation response, to ACh compared to both NG and MHG (Figure 4A), indicating
372 that SHG is required to cause endothelial dysfunction in the mesenteric artery.
373 However, responses to the endothelium-independent agonist, SNP were not
374 significantly different between the 3 groups (Figure 4B), indicating that vascular
375 smooth muscle function was unaffected by diabetes.

376

Figure 4



377

378 **Figure 4. Sensitivity of Endothelial Dysfunction to Hyperglycaemia in Rat**
379 **Mesenteric Arteries.**

380 Severe hyperglycaemia, but not moderate hyperglycaemia, decreased the
381 sensitivity (pEC₅₀) to (A) ACh, but had no effect on the sensitivity to (B) SNP,
382 indicating endothelial dysfunction. Indomethacin (10 μM) was always present in
383 the Krebs buffer. Values are mean ± SEM. n= 4-19 per group *P<0.05 vs NG, #
384 P<0.05 vs MHG (1-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test).

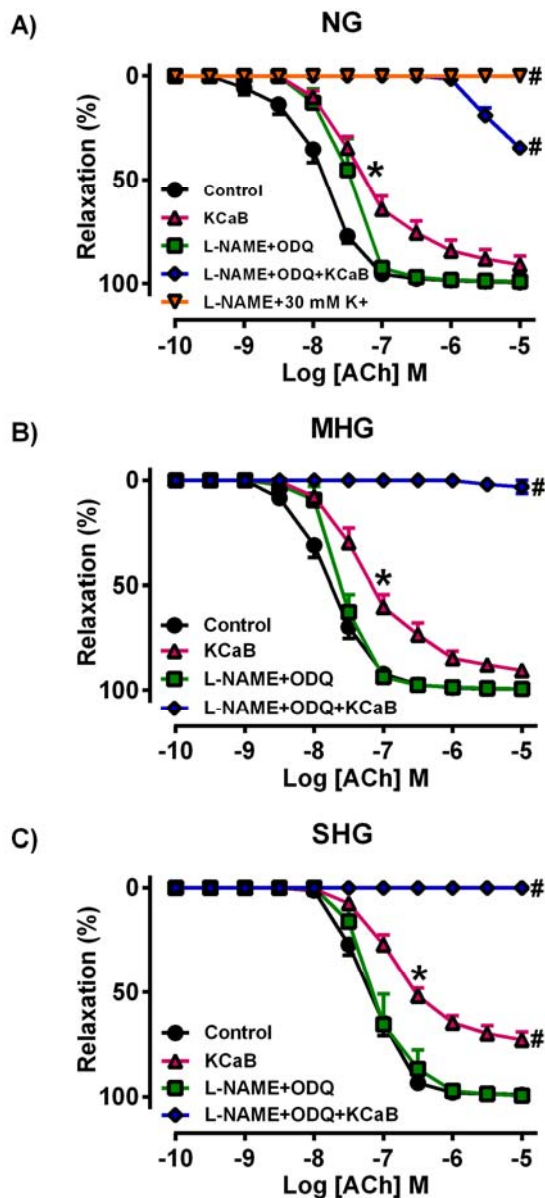
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386 *3.5 Impact of Hyperglycaemia on the Relative Contribution of EDH to ACh-Evoked*
387 *Relaxation*

388 Vascular reactivity to ACh was further examined in the presence of either the
389 combination of calcium-activated potassium channel blockers (KCaB; iberiotoxin,
390 apamin, and TRAM-34) or the combination of L-NAME and ODQ, to assess the
391 relative contribution of EDH and NOS-derived nitrogen species respectively, to
392 endothelium-dependent relaxation in NG, MHG and SHG rat mesenteric arteries
393 (Figure 5, Table 2). In mesenteric arteries from all groups, ACh-evoked relaxation
394 was significantly inhibited by the presence of KCaB but not by the combination of
395 L-NAME and ODQ, indicating that EDH (rather than NOS-derived nitrogen species)
396 is the predominant endothelium-derived vasodilator (Figure 5A-5C, Table 2). To
397 further examine whether EDH-mediated vascular relaxation was differentially
398 affected by the degree of hyperglycaemia, reactivity to ACh was assessed in the
399 presence of L-NAME + ODQ. We observed that the sensitivity to ACh in the
400 presence of concomitant L-NAME and ODQ, but not R_{max} , was significantly reduced
401 by hyperglycaemia compared to NG but only in SHG mesenteric arteries; MHG
402 arteries studied in the presence of L-NAME + ODQ retained full sensitivity to ACh
403 (Table 2). Furthermore, ACh-induced relaxation was abolished in the presence of
404 the L-NAME+ODQ+KCaB combination, in both MHG and SHG mesenteric arteries
405 (Figure 5B-5C). In contrast, a residual component of relaxation remained in NG
406 arteries (Figure 5A). This residual relaxation response to ACh in the
407 normoglycemic NG arteries was abolished by the combination of L-NAME + 30mM
408 K^+ (Figure 5A).

409

Figure 5



410

411 **Figure 5. Relative Contribution of EDH and NOS-Derived Nitrogen Species to**
 412 **Relaxation in Rat Mesenteric Arteries: Impact of Hyperglycaemia**

413 Concentration-response curves to ACh in the absence (control) and presence of
 414 TRAM-34, apamin and iberiotoxin (KCaB), L-NAME + ODQ, L-NAME, ODQ + KCaB,
 415 and L-NAME + 30mM K⁺ where any residual response remained. Mesenteric
 416 arteries isolated from (A) NG; (B) MHG; and (C) SHG rats. Indomethacin (10 μM)
 417 was always present in the Krebs buffer. Values are mean ± SEM. n = 4-12 per group
 418 * pEC₅₀, # R_{max} vs control (P<0.05, 1-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test). See
 419 table 2 for pEC₅₀ and R_{max} values.

420 **Table 2.** Pharmacological parameters of endothelial function *ex vivo*: A comparison of sensitivity (pEC₅₀) and maximum relaxation (R_{max})
 421 to ACh in the absence or presence of various inhibitors in endothelium-intact mesenteric arteries isolated from normal glucose (NG),
 422 moderate hyperglycaemic (MHG) and severe hyperglycaemic (SHG) rats. All experiments were conducted in the presence of indomethacin
 423 (10 µM). n= the number of experiments. Results are shown as mean ± SEM. *P<0.05 versus NG, #P<0.05 versus MHG, one-way ANOVA
 424 with Tukey's post-hoc analysis. † P<0.05 versus control within each group, one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test. ND: Not determined.

425

426

ACh	NG			MHG			SHG		
	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)	n	pEC ₅₀	R _{max} (%)
Control	15	7.88±0.09	99±1	19	7.76±0.08	99±1	17	7.20±0.06*#	99±1
L-NAME+ODQ	8	7.50±0.12	99±1	9	7.61±0.09	99±1	8	7.09±0.14*#	99±1
KCaB	10	7.05±0.18†	91±4	12	7.03±0.13†	90±2	12	6.22±0.12*#†	73±4*#†
KCaB+HXC	5	ND	55±7†	5	ND	38±7†	6	ND	38±10†
KCaB+L-Cys	8	6.96±0.13†	91±2	8	6.95±0.18†	87±3	9	6.38±0.12*#†	75±3*#†
KCaB+HXC+L-Cys	4	ND	0±0	4	ND	14±14†	5	ND	7±6†
L-NAME+KCaB	5	ND	65±13†	5	ND	67±13†	4	ND	0±0*#†
L-NAME+ODQ+KCaB	4	ND	35±3†	5	ND	3±3†	4	ND	0±0†

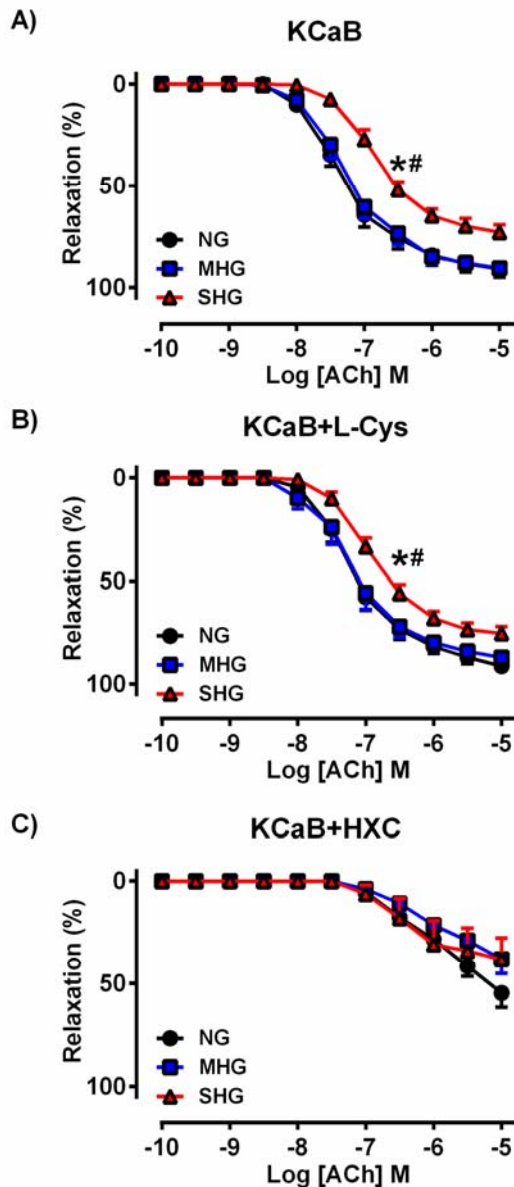
427 *3.6 Impact of Hyperglycaemia on the Relative Contribution of Endothelium-derived*
428 *NO[•] and HNO to Mesenteric Relaxation*

429 In the presence of KCaB, the sensitivity and R_{max} to ACh-evoked relaxation were
430 significantly reduced in SHG mesenteric arteries compared to both NG and MHG
431 arteries (P<0.05, Figure 6A, Table 2). To determine if the relative contributions of
432 endothelium-derived NO[•] vs HNO in the mesenteric artery were differentially
433 affected by hyperglycaemia, cumulative concentration responses to ACh were
434 performed in the presence of KCaB with either HXC (to scavenge NO[•]) or L-
435 cysteine (to scavenge HNO). In the presence of KCaB + L-cysteine, the residual
436 relaxation responses to ACh are mediated by NO[•] but not by HNO (Figure 6B, Table
437 2). Comparison of the responses to ACh suggests that both the sensitivity and R_{max}
438 to ACh were significantly decreased in SHG mesenteric arteries compared to NG
439 and MHG (Figure 6B, Table 2). Conversely, in the presence of KCaB and NO[•]
440 scavenger HXC, the residual relaxation response to ACh is attributed to HNO.
441 When the contribution of NO[•] was eliminated by HXC (Figure 6C, Table 2), the R_{max}
442 to ACh were not significantly different between all groups, indicating that HNO-
443 mediated relaxation was not affected by hyperglycaemia. Furthermore, the
444 combination of KCaB, HXC and L-cysteine abolished ACh-induced relaxation in
445 mesenteric arteries from NG, MHG and SHG rats (Table 2).

446

447

Figure 6



448

449 **Figure 6. Relative Contribution of HNO and NO^{*} to ACh-Induced Relaxation in**
450 **Rat Mesenteric Arteries: Impact of Hyperglycemia**

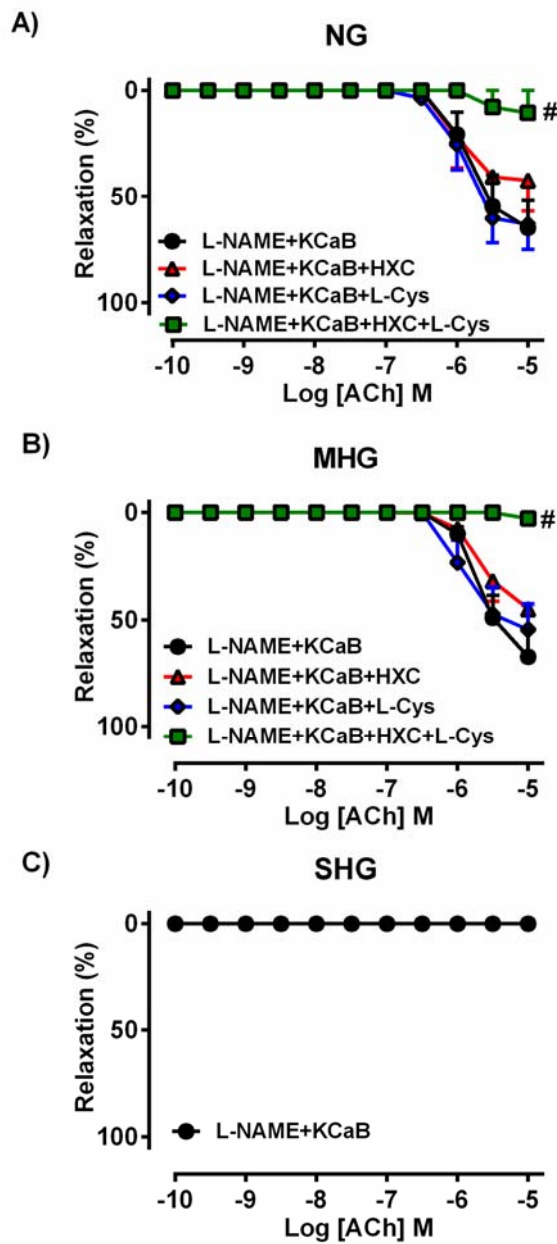
451 Severe hyperglycaemia, but not moderate hyperglycaemia, decreased the
452 sensitivity and maximum relaxation to ACh in the presence of (A) KCaB and (B)
453 KCaB + L-cysteine but not (C) KCaB + HXC, indicating that ACh-evoked relaxation
454 mediated by NO^{*}, but not HNO^{*}-induced was impaired. Indomethacin (10 μ M) was
455 always present in the Krebs buffer. Values are mean \pm SEM. n = 4-12 per group
456 *P < 0.05 vs NG and # P < 0.05 vs MHG (1-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test). See
457 table 2 for pEC₅₀ and R_{max} values.

458 *3.7 Relative Contribution of Non-NOS Sources of NO^{*}/HNO to Relaxation*

459 The component of ACh-evoked relaxation remaining in the presence of KCaB + L-
460 NAME was evident in both NG and MHG mesenteric arteries but this was abolished
461 in SHG (Figure 7A-C, Table 2). The complete combination of KCaB+L-NAME+L-
462 cysteine + HXC was required to abolish this component of ACh-induced relaxation
463 in both NG (Figure 7A) and MHG (Figure 7B). This suggests that there is a non-
464 NOS source of HNO and NO^{*} that contributes to mesenteric relaxation. There was,
465 however, no significant difference between the combination of KCaB+L-NAME+L-
466 cysteine or the combination of KCaB+L-NAME+HXC compared to KCaB + L-NAME
467 alone (Figure 7A-B).

468

Figure 7



469

470 **Figure 7. Role of non-NOS source of NO[•] and HNO in Rat Mesenteric Artery**
471 **Relaxation**

472 Concentration-response curves to ACh in mesenteric arteries isolated from (A)
473 NG, (B) MHG, and (C) SHG rats, obtained in the presence of L-NAME + KCaB, alone
474 or with the further addition of either HXC, L-Cysteine, or HXC + L-Cysteine.
475 Indomethacin (10 μ M) was always present in the Krebs buffer. Values are mean \pm
476 SEM. n = 4-7 per group # R_{max} vs L-NAME + KCaB (P < 0.05, 1-way ANOVA,
477 Dunnett's post-hoc test).

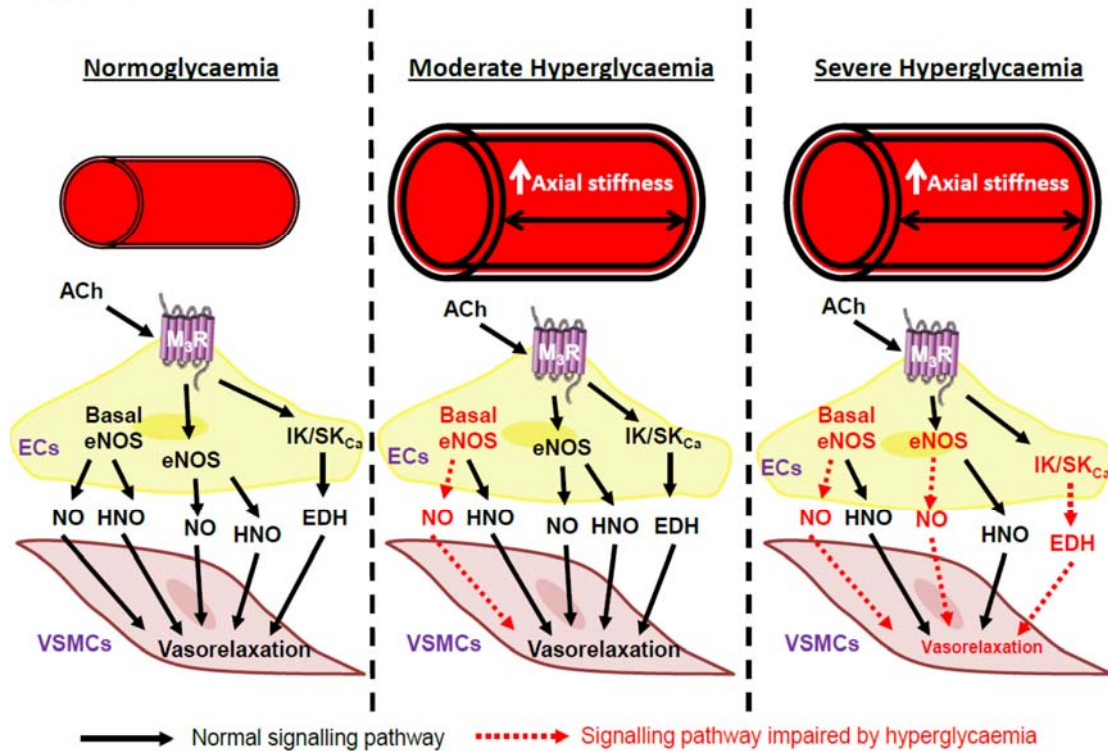
478

479 **4. Discussion**

480 The key findings obtained in this study were that a moderate degree of
481 hyperglycaemia is sufficient to elicit diabetes-induced vascular remodelling
482 (outward hypertrophic) and vascular axial stiffness (reduced volume
483 distensibility and ability for the arteries to lengthen). In contrast, endothelial
484 function was only impaired in mesenteric arteries isolated from severely
485 hyperglycaemic but not moderately hyperglycaemic rats, despite the significantly
486 elevated blood glucose and GHB levels compared to non-diabetic rats. These
487 observations reveal that adverse vascular remodelling is more sensitive than
488 endothelial dysfunction to hyperglycaemia in the rat mesenteric vascular bed.
489 Furthermore, this endothelial dysfunction was underpinned by impaired NO⁻-
490 mediated and EDH-type relaxation, but not endothelium-derived HNO-mediated
491 relaxation (Figure 8).

492

Figure 8



493

494 **Figure 8. Schematic diagram to summarise the impact of differential level of**
 495 **glycaemia on mesenteric artery structure and function.**

496 Both moderate and severe hyperglycaemia induces outward hypertrophic
 497 vascular remodelling, leading to increase axial wall stiffness of mesenteric
 498 arteries. Interestingly, only severely hyperglycaemia, but not moderate
 499 hyperglycaemia, is required to cause endothelial dysfunction of mesenteric
 500 arteries. Endothelial dysfunction of severe hyperglycaemic mesenteric
 501 arteries is underpinned by impaired NO[•]- and EDH-mediated relaxation. However,
 502 endothelium-derived HNO-evoked vasorelaxation remain intact regardless of
 503 glycaemia levels.

504

505 *4.1 Considerations of the Animal Model Utilised*

506 The characteristics of STZ-induced diabetes are well known. STZ increases blood
507 glucose and GHB levels, with a concomitant retarded body weight gain,
508 particularly in rats (5). The majority of previous studies using STZ to induce
509 diabetes have only assessed the impact on vascular pathology and function in the
510 context of severe glycaemia (~30mM) (9, 10, 40, 41). It is well established that the
511 regimen and route of application as well as the nature of insulin (short or long
512 lasting) plays an important role in regulating blood glucose levels. For example, a
513 previous study has shown that 4-5 U/d of insulin are enough to reduce BG to levels
514 of 200 mg/dL and less (42). Furthermore, daily administration with 1.5-10 U/d of
515 insulin therapy for 1 week completely normalized blood glucose levels and
516 diabetic complications in STZ rats (43). Similarly, continuous infusion of 2.5 U/d
517 of insulin by osmotic minipumps for 2 weeks also completely normalized blood
518 glucose levels and vascular complications in STZ rats (44). In this study, we
519 specifically included a group of rats in which we tightly regulated blood glucose
520 levels with daily injection of long acting insulin (6-7 U/d) to achieve a more
521 moderate degree of hyperglycaemia, in addition to the conventional normal
522 glucose and severely hyperglycaemic (30mM) groups. Interestingly, moderately
523 hyperglycaemic rats exhibited comparable body weight gain compared to non-
524 diabetic rats; both had significantly higher body weights compared to severely
525 hyperglycaemic rats. As the MHG rat cohort exhibited blood glucose and GHB
526 increases part way between the non-diabetic and SHG rats, they were considered
527 to exhibit the general characteristics of a milder degree of diabetes.

528

529 *4.2 Hyperglycaemia Induces Vascular Stiffness*

530 Increased arterial wall stiffness is an important vascular complication of diabetes
531 and is a risk factor for many adverse cardiovascular events (45). This diabetes-
532 induced increased arterial stiffness is particularly well-characterised in large
533 conduit vessels (46, 47); the impact of a more moderate degree of hyperglycaemia
534 in small resistance arteries was previously largely unknown. This study now
535 reveals that even moderate hyperglycaemia is sufficient to increase both inner and
536 outer vessel diameter, indicating outward hypertrophic remodelling.
537 Furthermore, the increased wall thickness is suggestive of vascular smooth
538 muscle cell hypertrophy. Despite the changes in circumferential measurements
539 (OD, ID and wall thickness), there was no diabetes-induced change in the
540 mesenteric stress-strain relationship, indicating a lack of a diabetes-induced
541 increase in circumferential wall stiffness. Our observations are in contrast to the
542 diabetes-induced increased circumferential wall stiffness observed in rat
543 cremaster arterioles (48) and femoral arteries (12), but are consistent with
544 previous findings specific to mesenteric arteries (12). Hence, diabetes-induced
545 arterial stiffness is likely vascular-region dependent. It is well-documented that
546 this diabetes-induced arterial stiffness results from vascular hypertrophy (20, 21),
547 increased collagen content (19) and an increased in AGEs (15-17). AGEs form
548 cross-links with the extracellular matrix protein collagen, to increase arterial wall
549 stiffness (18). Although lack of tissue availability precluded further morphological
550 analysis (e.g. examination of changes in vascular AGE and/or collagen content),
551 our findings confirm that neither moderate nor severe hyperglycaemia altered
552 circumferential stiffness in rat mesenteric arteries. Arterial remodelling can also
553 be evoked by increased blood flow (49). Diabetes has been reported to increase
554 blood flow to the small intestine (50), associated with outward mesenteric arterial

555 remodelling (51, 52). It is possible that hyperglycaemia-induced vascular
556 remodelling observed here occurred secondary to altered intestinal blood flow.
557 Potential mechanisms of diabetes-induced vascular remodelling were however
558 not investigated.

559

560 Despite the absence of diabetes-induced changes in circumferential wall stiffness,
561 even moderate hyperglycaemia was sufficient to impair the ability of the
562 mesenteric artery to lengthen, reducing volume distensibility. Decreased vascular
563 distensibility is a well-established prognostic indicator, associated with increased
564 risk of further adverse cardiovascular events (53). Impaired arterial compliance
565 and distensibility are evident in diabetic patients (54, 55) and in the STZ diabetic
566 aorta (47). However, the effect of differential levels of hyperglycaemia on arterial
567 distensibility specifically in resistance vessels (such as mesenteric arteries)
568 remains unknown. Our data show for the first time that not only do mesenteric
569 arteries exhibit reduced volume distensibility and ability to lengthen in response
570 to diabetes, indicative of increased axial stiffness, but that even a more moderate
571 degree of hyperglycaemia was sufficient to cause this remodelling.

572

573 *4.3 Hyperglycaemia Induces Endothelial Dysfunction*

574 Endothelial dysfunction is a well-known hallmark of diabetes (2), and is
575 particularly well-characterised in the STZ-induced model of experimental
576 diabetes (10, 11, 40, 56). In the present study, mesenteric arteries isolated from
577 hyperglycaemic rats exhibited reduced sensitivity to the endothelium-dependent
578 agonist ACh, but a more severe degree of hyperglycaemia (~30 mM blood glucose)
579 was required to elicit this dysfunction. Responses to the endothelium-

580 independent vasodilator, SNP, were however not affected by STZ-induced
581 diabetes, indicating that endothelial function was selectively impaired. There are
582 various reports on the duration required following STZ treatment for endothelial
583 dysfunction to be evident (57-59). For example, STZ-induced endothelial
584 dysfunction might not be evident after 6 weeks (58, 59), but longer periods such
585 as 8-10 weeks after STZ treatment are sufficient (10, 11, 32, 40, 56). In the present
586 study, despite significant vascular remodelling, no impairments in the
587 mechanisms of endothelium-dependent relaxation were apparent in mesenteric
588 arteries after 8 weeks of a more moderate level of hyperglycaemia (~20 mM).
589 Adverse vascular remodelling is thus more sensitive than (and may precede)
590 vascular dysfunction to hyperglycaemia-induced impairments, at least in the
591 mesenteric artery.

592

593 *4.4 Mechanisms of Hyperglycaemia-Induced Endothelial Dysfunction*

594 In resistance arteries such as the mesenteric artery, EDH is the main contributor
595 to ACh-evoked relaxation (26, 60). We observed here that hyperglycaemic
596 mesenteric arteries exhibited reduced responses to ACh in the presence of L-
597 NAME+ODQ+indomethacin compared to normoglycaemic mesenteric arteries,
598 indicating that EDH-type relaxation was impaired. The mechanism underlying the
599 impairment of EDH-type relaxation in the diabetic mesenteric arteries is well-
600 characterised, which may include oxidative stress-mediated inhibition of KCa
601 channels, leading to diminished KCa channel activity (9, 10, 56). Furthermore, the
602 combination of KCaB+L-NAME abolished endothelium-dependent relaxation in
603 mesenteric arteries from hyperglycaemic rats, but had a lesser effect on
604 endothelium-dependent relaxation in normoglycaemic and moderately

605 hyperglycaemic arteries. This suggests that there is a component of non-classical
606 EDH-type relaxation in normoglycaemic and moderate hyperglycaemic arteries
607 (61) but lost in the hyperglycaemia group, which is consistent with a previous
608 report (9).

609

610 Traditionally, the vasodilator actions of endothelium-derived nitrogen species
611 have been solely attributed to NO[•]. It has however now become apparent that the
612 redox sibling of NO[•], HNO, is produced endogenously as well and contributes to
613 the control of vascular tone (26, 27). In the present study, we observed a
614 significant reduction in basal nitrogen oxide and NO[•] bioavailability as a result of
615 hyperglycaemia, even in moderate hyperglycaemic mesenteric arteries. In
616 contrast, there was no significant difference in basal HNO level between all three
617 groups, highlighting the preservation of the HNO contribution to basal tone in
618 conditions of hyperglycaemia. Although previous studies have reported
619 inconsistent findings regarding the impact of STZ-induced diabetes on NOS-
620 dependent relaxation (9, 10, 41), none of these sought differentiation between
621 potential contributions of NO[•] vs HNO to endothelium-dependent relaxation. In
622 the presence of KCaB+indomethacin, residual vascular relaxation was attributed
623 to NOS-derived nitrogen species such as NO[•] and HNO. We specifically
624 incorporated the ability to distinguish between NO[•] and HNO-mediated relaxation
625 into our study design, by utilising well-established pharmacological tools, the
626 selective scavenger for NO[•] (HXC) and the selective scavenger for HNO (L-
627 cysteine) (26, 62, 63). In the presence of KCaB+L-cysteine, responses to ACh were
628 significantly reduced in arteries isolated from severely hyperglycaemic animals
629 compared to non-diabetic and moderately hyperglycaemic rats, specifically

630 suggesting that NO^{*}-mediated relaxation was impaired by severe hyperglycaemia.
631 Conversely, there were no differences in the responses to ACh between all 3
632 groups in the presence of KCaB+HXC, excitingly revealing that HNO-mediated
633 relaxation was resistant to hyperglycaemia.

634

635 There are extensive reports to demonstrate that diabetes increases vascular
636 superoxide production and impairs NO^{*}-mediated relaxation, with putative
637 contributing mechanisms, including eNOS uncoupling and/or reduced
638 NO^{*} bioavailability, central to diabetes-induced endothelial dysfunction (64, 65).

639 In contrast to NO^{*}, HNO is resistant to scavenging by superoxide (30, 31) and in
640 further contrast to NO^{*} there is also evidence suggesting potential HNO generation
641 from uncoupled eNOS (66). Therefore, it is possible that neither endogenous HNO
642 production nor HNO vasodilator actions are affected in conditions associated with
643 oxidative stress. Indeed, previous studies have shown that the vasodilator actions
644 of HNO are preserved in diabetic aortae (30), hypertension (67) and
645 hypercholesterolemia (68), all diseases associated with oxidative stress.
646 Furthermore, HNO reduces Nox2 (NADPH oxidase 2) expression and suppresses
647 superoxide production in cardiomyocytes (69, 70) and cerebral arteries (71),
648 whilst also preserving myocardial function in diabetes (72).

649

650 Despite the exciting findings obtained regarding the impact of diabetes on HNO
651 and NO-mediated relaxation in the mesenteric arteries, there were some
652 limitations to this conclusion. The conclusion that endothelium-derived HNO-
653 mediated relaxation is not affected by diabetes was relied on the use of only 1
654 pharmacological inhibitor, L-cysteine and HXC. Both L-cysteine and HXC may have

655 potential non-selective effects such as interaction with S-glutathionylated
656 enzymes and/or reactive oxygen species respectively. Furthermore, the
657 endogenous production of HNO in intact microvessels will not be proven
658 conclusively until direct detection methods for HNO production are available (73).
659 Although direct and indirect measurement for NO production in intact blood
660 vessels are possible, these experiments are not performed due to limited animal
661 tissues. Nonetheless, future studies relying on pharmacological tools to
662 characterize NO or HNO-mediated relaxation should use at least 2 different
663 pharmacological inhibitors.

664

665 4.5 Conclusion

666 We now demonstrate, for the first time, that moderate hyperglycaemia is sufficient
667 to induce vascular remodelling, and subsequent increased axial stiffness, in
668 diabetic rat mesenteric arteries. Interestingly, although these morphological
669 changes are evident after 8 weeks of moderate hyperglycaemia (~20mM), a more
670 severe hyperglycaemia (~30mM) is required to induce endothelial dysfunction in
671 rat mesenteric arteries. This is attributed to impaired NO[•] and EDH mechanisms.
672 In contrast, HNO mechanisms of vasorelaxation remain intact. Taken together, our
673 findings suggest that adverse arterial remodelling precedes endothelial
674 dysfunction in the context of experimental diabetes.

675

676 **Additional Information**

677

678 *Competing Interests*

679 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

680

681 *Author Contributions*

682 N.K, R.H.R, C.H.Q, H.H.N and C.H.L designed the research, N.K, J.A, E.J, H.H.N and

683 C.H.L collected and analysed the data, N.K, R.H.R, L.J.P, B.K.K-H, C.H.Q, H.H.N, M.J

684 and C.H.L interpreted the data. N.K, C.H.Q, R.H.R and C.H.L drafted the manuscript.

685 All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

686

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