

Received: 17 June 2014 • Accepted: 05 July 2014



doi:10.15412/J.JBTW.01030802

Response of free amino acids in four legumes plants to air pollution

Ibrahim A.A. Almohisen*

Shqra University, College of Science and Humanitarian Studies, Qwaieah 11971, Saudi Arabia

*correspondence should be addressed to Ibrahim A.A. Almohisen, Shqra University, College of Science and Humanitarian Studies, Qwaieah 11971, Saudi Arabia; Tell: +966506488462 ; Fax: +96; Email: ibraheem@su.edu.sa.

ABSTRACT

The study was intended to investigate the effect of ambient air pollution on four legumes species. The investigated legumes species were *Pisum sativum* L. (green pea), *Vicia faba* L. (broad bean), *Glycine max* (soya bean) and *Vigna sinensis* (cow pea). The four types of legumes were grown during the summer season, in four sites affected by the high traffic intensity and industrial activities in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. The results depict an increase in air pollution (O_3 , NO_2 and SO_2); as traffic density and industrial activities increased. Mostly free amino acids contents gradually increased in the plant's leaves as pollutants increased. This study concludes that the changes in free amino acids contents indicate the high levels of air pollution in three sites. Accumulation of free amino acids may act as a protective mechanism to air pollution stress.

Key words: Air pollution, Amino acid, Proline, Legumes

Copyright © 2014 Ibrahim A.A. Almohisen. This is an open access article distributed under the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

1. INTRODUCTION

Recently air pollution has been signified as a worldwide environmental health problem. It can be defined as the fluctuation in any atmospheric constituent from the value that would be existed without human activity (1). The air pollution problem arises mainly from industrialization (2). The primary origins of air pollution are automobiles, aircraft, industrial plants, power generation systems, construction projects and solid wastes. These sources added pollutants like NO_2 , SO_2 , dust, metals and other chemicals (3). Plants are an integral basis for whole ecosystems, largely affected by air borne pollution, which are named as the organisms with the most likely to experience impacts from ambient air contamination. Air pollutants are responsible for vegetation injury and crop yield losses (4). When plants were exposed to airborne pollutants, most of them experienced physiological changes before exhibiting visible damage to leaves (5). Plants that are constantly exposed to environmental pollutants absorb, gather and integrate these pollutants into their system. It reported that depending on their sensitivity level, plants show visible changes which would include modifications in the biochemical processes or accumulation of certain metabolites (6). Agbaire and Esiefarienrhe (7) reported that pollutants can cause leaf injury, decrease photosynthetic activity, disturb membrane permeability and reduce growth and yield in sensitive plant species (7). The sound effects of the pollutants are caused

by the production of reactive oxygen species of plants, which cause peroxidative destruction of cellular constituents (8). It has been reported that proline act as a free radical scavenger to protect plants away from damage by oxidative stress (9). Ozone one (O_3) is considered to be the most important air pollutant affecting the plant productivity in all parts of the world (10, 11). The resulting economic losses and threat to food security has become an issue of concern in several regions of the globe where the expanding economy has led to an increased emission of air pollutants in general and O_3 precursors in particular (12). O_3 is a phytotoxic, a secondary air pollutant formed as a result of catalytic reactions of nitrogen oxides with carbon monoxide, methane and non-methane compounds (volatile organic compounds) in the presence of sunlight (13). O_3 is known to directly oxidize the individual amino acid and thus affect the metabolism of protein synthesis (14). Sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) are the most phytotoxic pollutants which enter leaves through stomata, following the same diffusion pathway as CO_2 (15). Nitrogen oxides result in growth stimulation in low concentration and growth reduction at higher concentration. Proline accumulation often occurs in a variety of plants in the presence of different stresses. For instance, it accumulates in leaves of plants exposed to SO_2 fumigation (16), heavy metals (9) and salt stress (17). The amino acids have numerous roles in plants, for instance they act as osmolytes, detoxify heavy metals, regulate ion transport,

stomatal opening, affect the synthesis and activity of enzymes (18). The information about the effects of air pollution on plants is generally based on experiments where plants have been exposed to high concentrations of air pollutants for short periods under experimental conditions. However, less may know about responses of plants to air pollutants for long durations in field conditions. The present work was proposed to increase the understanding of change in amino acid content of plants under ambient air pollution in sites. To measure their response to such condition and uses these plants as indicators of air pollution in the study sites affected high traffic and industrial activities.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Sampling sites

The survey was conducted in four sites in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. The metrological data revealed that the city characterized by high temperature and low relative humidity and rainfall during the summer season. Likewise, low temperature and moderate relative humidity during the winter season (Figure 1). Sampling sites were placed to represent gradual sources of air pollution, such as, traffic intensity per day, industrial activity, and site without a direct source of air pollution further away from the city center, to represent the control (Table 1).

Table 1: Sampling sites number, location and description

Sampling site number	Location and description of sampling site
S1	Located at 40 km from city with very low traffic density
S2	in center of the city, characterized by high traffic density
S3	Southern Ring Road near cement factory
S4	Southeastern of the city near industrial city

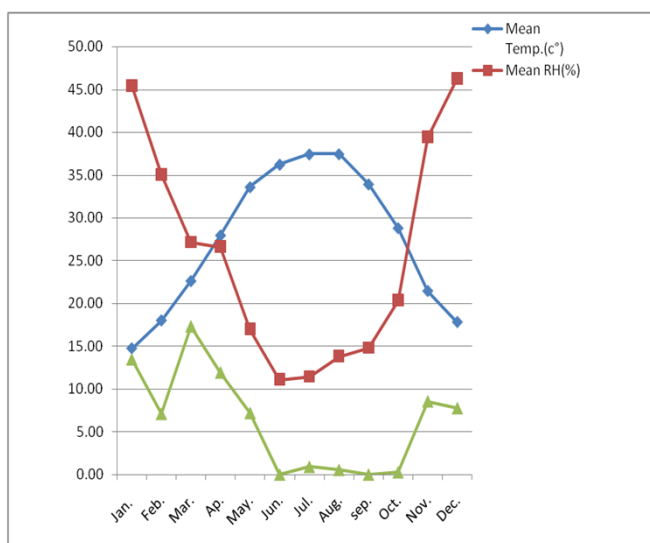


Figure 1: Monthly mean maximum, relative humidity and total rainfall in Riyadh

2.2. Plants

Plants tested during winter seasons were *Pisum sativum* L. and *Vicia faba* L. and during summer season were *Glycine max* and *Vigna sinensis*. 15 seeds were sown in plastic pots (40 cm) with 50% clay, 50% sand and pH was adjusted to 8.4. After germination, five uniform plants per pot were selected and 10 pots from each species were transferred to each sampling sites. Peters, NPK: 4/25/35 plus micro metals was added to prevent nutritional deficiencies. Winter plants and summer plants were exposed to ambient air for three months on their respective season.

2.3. Gases monitoring

The gas concentrations of ozone, sulfur dioxide and nitrogen dioxide were measured per day for each sampling site period from December to march for winter experiment and from April to September for summer experiment. O₃ concentration was monitored using O₃ analyzer Model UV -100 Serial # 111. Eco sensors, Inc. USA; NO₂ and SO₂ were measured by using Aeroqual Series Monitor with multi head. Then average of data were calculated and recorded.

2.4. Free amino acids

Free amino acids were extracted from dry plant materials (oven dry at 105°C for 24 h) using ethyl alcohol (80%, v/v) according to Malik and Singh. The qualitative and quantitative determinations of amino acids were carried out using LKB 415 alpha plus amino acid analyzer according to Christias *et al.* (19). Standard amino acids were used as reference.

2.5. Statistical analysis

ANOVA was used to test the effect of sampling sites and LSD was used for mean separation. In addition, the generalized linear model (GLM) was used to test the interaction between species and sampling sites. All statistical analyses were carried out using SAS statistical package.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Air pollution gases

During winter season, the average monthly values of O₃, NO₂ and SO₂ concentration - 110.4, 29.3 and 29.1 ppb respectively. In sampling site 4 it was higher during February and March compared to all other sampling sites. Minimum pollutants concentrations were measured in the control site (S1). During the summer season, as in August the pollutants increased in the site near industrial area (S4), which was characterized by high ozone (150.1ppb). Higher NO₂ and SO₂ - 36.4 and 28.2 ppb respectively during the month of September. But overall highest NO₂ concentration (30.4 ppb) was measured in S2 (site with high density of traffic) compared to other sites and control (Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, Figure 5). The studied air pollution gases (O₃, NO₂ and SO₂) concentration was

higher during summer season, which characterized by high temperature and low relative humidity (Figure 1). The finding of this study was matched with previous results. Ozone is strongly correlated with temperature (20). Camalier et al. (21) found that as much as 80% of the variance in the maximum daily 8-h average ozone in the eastern U.S. can be explained by a generalized linear model with temperature and relative humidity as the two most important variables. Sulfate concentrations increase in temperature (20), nitrate and organic semi-volatile compound change from the particle phase to the gas phase with increasing temperature (22). As found in the outcome of this study O₃, NO₂ and SO₂ concentration (ppb) in sampling sites was increased as traffic density and industrial activities increased. The site S4 and S3 were characterized by high concentrations of O₃, NO₂ and SO₂ respectively compared to control S1. The higher level of ozone in these sites which were characterized by high air pollution sources (such as industrial activities) was explained by increasing emission of ozone precursor gases such as CO, NO_x, and volatile organic compounds as a result of industrial activities. The transport sector is responsible for high amounts of ozone precursors emitted to the atmosphere from the urban area. Traffic rush hours clearly behave as a sink of ozone due to the emissions of NO_x (23). Air pollution is arising mainly from industrialization.

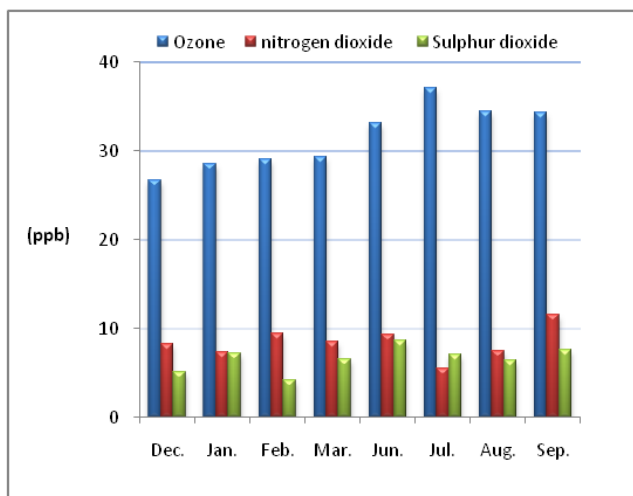


Figure 2: pollutants concentration in S1

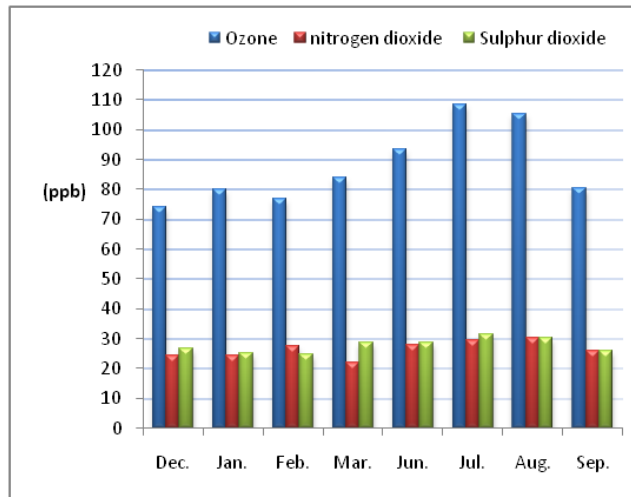


Figure 3: Pollutants concentration in S2

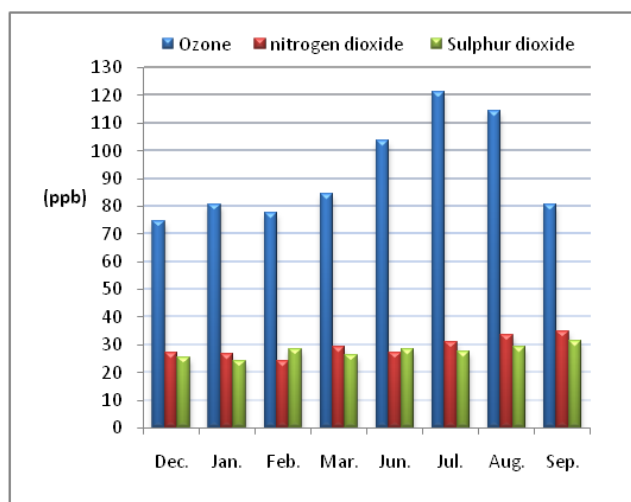


Figure 4: pollutants concentration in S3

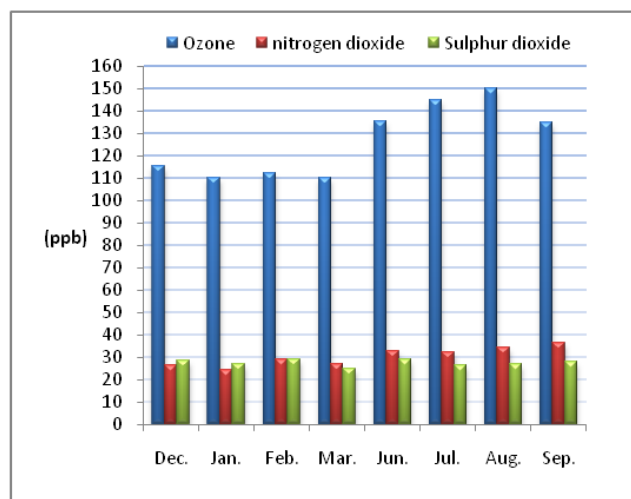


Figure 5: pollutants concentration in S4

3.2. Free amino acids

Table 2 showed highly significant differences between plants in their response to air pollution to accumulate essential free amino acids except threonine ($p > 0.9128$). Alanine content in three plants not significantly affected by air pollution in all sites, but *V. sinensis* accumulated high content (1.227 mg g⁻¹) in S2 compared to other sites.

Pollutants increased arginine content in all plants leaves significantly. Nevertheless, the high content (0.845, 0.840 and 0.790 mg g⁻¹) found in leaves of *V.faba*, *G.max*, *V. sinensis* respectively in S4 compared to control plants (table 2). Cystine content decreased significantly (p>0.001) as air pollution increased in all species leaves. However, the reduction in two species *V. faba* and *G. max* was higher compared to other species. *V. faba* and *G. max* accumulated more content of glutamic acid when air pollution, increased under the effect of S4. Increased trend of glycine was observed in all species, but *V.faba* and *G.max* grown in S2, S3 and S4 accumulated more content (i.e. 0.913 ,1.067, 1.148, in *G.max* leaves and 0.980 1.064 and 1.154 mg g⁻¹). Isoleucine increased as pollutants increased. The leaves of *V. sinensis* accumulated 0.735 mg g⁻¹as high isoleucine content under effect of S2 compared to other species (table 2). Phenylalanine content was high (1.747 and 1.545 mg g⁻¹) in the leaves of *V. sinensis* under effect of pollutants in the S3 and S4 respectively and 1.559 mg g⁻¹in *P. sativum* leaves in S4. In all species, Proline contents increased significantly, as pollution increased. In *P. sativum* the increase was 135 % in S3 and 153 % in S4. In *V. sinensis* proline increased approximately by 96, 109 and 138% in S2, S3 and S4 respectively. In both species *V. faba* and *G. max* proline increased approximately by 16% in S4 compared to control (Table 2). Serine content slightly increased in all species as the air contained more pollutants. *V.faba* leaves showed decreasing manner as the high contents present in control. Although there is an increasing trend in the threonine content of *V.faba* and *G.max* as pollution increased but there is no significant effect on any plants. Tryptophan content was higher in all species as pollution increased. However, the two species *V. sinensis* and *P. sativum* accumulated higher concentration (2.143 and 1.972 mg g⁻¹) respectively under effect of air pollution in S4. Tyrosine contents increased significantly (p>0.001) as pollution, increased especially in S4. As general trend all free amino acids contents showing an increasing trend in all species as air pollution, increased compared to control, except alanine, cysteine (decreased as pollution increased) and threonine (no significant effect). Although in *V. sinensis* accumulated more alanine contents in S2. The most affected species among the studied species was *V. sinensis* in terms of more accumulated free amino acids content under air pollution. The effects of amino acid contents, which showed escalating trend under the issue of increasing air pollution. It may be attributed to defense mechanisms of the tested species to the air pollution. Which can cause deleterious effects of the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in plants, which cause peroxidative destruction of cellular constituents (8). The study results agree with many other fields, which reported that proline act as a free radical scavenger to protect plants away from damage by oxidative stress. Although the scavenging reaction of ROS with other amino acids, such as tryptophan, tyrosine and so on are more effective compared with proline. It is of special interest as its

extensive accumulation in plants during environmental stress (9). Jahan, and Iqbal (24) observed that plants growing in the urban areas are affected greatly by pollutants such as nitrogen, sulfur oxides, hydrocarbon, ozone, particulate matters. Proline level in the polluted leaves significantly increased, for triggering the protective mechanism in these plants under air pollution, stress. The observed responses are viewed as adaptive and compensating for the adverse effects of aviation contamination (25). Previously Ito *et al.*, (26) observed change in amino acid composition of *Vicia faba* after NO₂ fumigation. Plants evolved several enzymes that convert amino acids, amides, keto-acids to be utilized as carbon source under environmental stress conditions when carbon shortage becomes a determining element for development and evolution (27). The regulation of biosynthesis of several minor amino acids was related to the coordination of different metabolic functions. Proline accumulation often occurs in a variety of plants in the presence of different stresses. For instance, proline accumulation in leaves of plants are exposed to SO₂ fumigation (16) , heavy metals (9) and salt (17). It has been found that the synthesis and accumulation of low molecular weight metabolites, such as free amino acids, is an ubiquitous mechanism for reducing various biotic and abiotic stresses in plants (28). Amino acids as well act as an important part in plant stress tolerance via regulating intracellular pH and ion transport, modulating stomatal conductance, and detoxifying ROS (18). The increasing content of glycine in all tested species and glutamic acid in some of them may play role in plants. Some biochemical process as mentioned by Zhang *et al.*, (29) in the family of free amino acids, glycine and glutamine are fundamental metabolites involved in the process of chlorophyll synthesis .

Table 2: Free amino acids content (mg g⁻¹) in the leaves of the studied species

Amino acid	Sampling sites	Species			
		<i>P. sativum</i>	<i>V.faba</i>	<i>G.max</i>	<i>V. sinensis</i>
Alanine	S1	0.270 ^b	0.148 ^b	0.226 ^b	0.317 ^b
	S2	0.272 ^b	0.225 ^b	0.256 ^b	1.227 ^a
	S3	0.190 ^b	0.313 ^b	0.262 ^b	0.256 ^b
	S4	0.169 ^b	0.392 ^b	0.305 ^b	0.219 ^b
	P value > 0.01				
Arginine	S1	0.502 ^{ef}	0.468 ^f	0.619	0.555 ^{cdef}
	S2	0.553 ^{def}	0.609 ^{bcd}	0.650	0.598 ^{bcde}
	S3	0.606 ^{bode}	0.726 ^{ab}	0.764 ^{ab}	0.661 ^{bcd}
	S4	0.708 ^{bcd}	0.845 ^a	0.840 ^a	0.790 ^{abc}
	P < .0001				
Cystine	S1	0.144 ^{fg}	0.758 ^a	0.702 ^{ab}	0.154 ^{fgh}
	S2	0.067 ^{gh}	0.608 ^{cd}	0.666 ^{bc}	0.123 ^{fg}
	S3	0.028 ^h	0.534 ^d	0.615 ^{bc}	0.063 ^{gh}
	S4	0.013 ^h	0.413 ^e	0.523 ^{de}	0.024 ^h
	P value > 0.0001				
Glutamic acid	S1	0.227 ^e	1.079 ^d	1.500	0.282 ^e
	S2	0.369 ^e	1.383 ^{cd}	1.528	0.300 ^e
	S3	0.294 ^e	1.492	1.599 ^{abc}	0.329 ^e
	S4	0.348 ^e	1.643 ^{ab}	1.708 ^a	0.391 ^e
	P value > 0.0001				
Glycine	S1	0.209 ^{de}	0.593 ^{ab}	0.159 ^e	0.265 ^{cd}
	S2	0.244 ^{de}	0.913 ^{ab}	0.978 ^a	0.284 ^{cd}
	S3	0.294 ^{cde}	1.067 ^{ab}	1.064 ^a	0.329 ^{cd}
	S4	0.337 ^{bcd}	1.148 ^a	1.154 ^a	0.384 ^{bc}

	P value > 0.001				
Isoleucine	S1	0.147 ^c	0.482 ^d	0.565 ^{bc}	0.491 ^d
	S2	0.208 ^c	0.561 ^{bc}	0.609 ^b	0.735 ^a
	S3	0.413 ^d	0.630 ^b	0.651 ^{ab}	0.607 ^b
	S4	0.547 ^c	0.661 ^{ab}	0.710 ^a	0.522 ^{bc}
	P < .0001				
Phenylalanine	S1	1.317 ^b	0.478 ^a	0.735 ^{def}	1.338 ^b
	S2	1.387 ^b	0.711 ^{defg}	0.799	1.449 ^b
	S3	1.450 ^b	0.778 ^{cd}	0.848 ^{cd}	1.545 ^a
	S4	1.559 ^a	0.845 ^{cd}	0.970 ^{cd}	1.747 ^a
	P < .0001				
Proline	S1	0.617 ^d	0.845 ^b	0.835 ^c	0.738 ^c
	S2	1.387 ^a	0.711 ^c	0.799 ^{bc}	1.449 ^a
	S3	1.450 ^a	0.778 ^c	0.848 ^{bc}	1.545 ^a
	S4	1.559 ^a	0.978 ^b	0.970 ^b	1.747 ^a
	P < .0001				
Serine	S1	0.054 ^d	1.046 ^a	0.610 ^{bc}	0.136 ^d
	S2	0.035 ^d	0.515 ^{bc}	0.566 ^{bc}	0.029 ^d
	S3	0.201 ^d	0.623 ^{bc}	0.648 ^{bc}	0.270 ^d
	S4	0.348 ^{cd}	0.682 ^{bc}	0.730 ^{bc}	0.459 ^{bc}
	P value > 0.001				
Threonine	S1	0.438 ^a	0.541 ^a	0.542 ^a	0.575 ^a
	S2	0.389 ^a	0.573 ^a	0.602 ^a	0.448 ^a
	S3	0.441 ^a	0.616 ^a	0.667 ^a	0.484 ^a
	S4	0.492 ^a	0.784 ^a	0.806 ^a	0.537 ^a
	P > 0.9128				
Tryptophan	S1	1.578 ^{cd}	0.934 ^f	1.249 ^{def}	1.679 ^{ab}
	S2	1.664 ^{ab}	1.230 ^{def}	1.325 ^{ode}	1.229 ^{def}
	S3	1.816 ^{ab}	1.300 ^{odef}	1.372 ^{cde}	1.929 ^a
	S4	1.972 ^a	1.358	1.441 ^c	2.143 ^a
	P < .0001				
Tyrosine	S1	0.625 ^{bc}	0.629 ^{bc}	0.431 ^d	0.683 ^{ab}
	S2	0.665 ^{ab}	0.425 ^d	0.468 ^{cd}	0.696 ^{ab}
	S3	0.712 ^{ab}	0.484 ^{cd}	0.536 ^{bc}	0.776 ^{ab}
	S4	0.781 ^{ab}	0.551 ^{bc}	0.612 ^{bc}	0.802 ^a
	P < .0001				

Mean values on each column and row followed by the same letter do not differ significantly (P<0.05).

4. CONCLUSION

The present investigation clearly shows the levels of air pollution gases in the sampling sites and pollution sources such as traffic and industrial activities. Although all the species showed significant variation in all the amino acids contents, the extent up to which plant species were affected varies from species to species and site to site. Nevertheless, almost all the species showed maximum accumulation of amino acids, in severe air pollution site (S4). In addition, the results demonstrate a clear relation between changes in the tested plants free amino acid contents and urban ambient air pollution. Substantial variation occurred which varied from species to species and site-to-site. It can be due to species tolerance or sensitivity to air pollution, stress by increasing amino acids content to cope with pollution stress. The obtained results may used to monitor the air contamination levels in Riyadh using such types of plants. However, investigations may need to study the effect of air pollution on many plant biochemical parameters to screen the sensitivity, suitability and ability of using these species as to air contamination.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

No mentioned any acknowledgment by authors.

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this article.

REFERENCES

1. Tripathi A, Gautam M. Biochemical parameters of plants as indicators of air pollution. *Journal of Environmental Biology*. 2007;28(1):127.
2. Bakiyaraj R, Ayyappan D. AIR POLLUTION TOLERANCE INDEX OF SOME TERRESTRIAL PLANTS AROUND AN INDUSTRIAL AREA.
3. Javed MT, Basra SM, Afzal I. Crop air pollution assessment methodology. 2009.
4. Joshi P, Swami A. Physiological responses of some tree species under roadside automobile pollution stress around city of Haridwar, India. *The Environmentalist*. 2007;27(3):365-74.
5. Soltuzu B, Olteanu Z, Ivănescu L, Toma C, Zamfirache M-M. MORPHOLOGICAL AND BIOCHEMICAL CHANGES AT FOLIAR LEVEL INDUCED BY ATMOSPHERIC POLLUTANTS ON SAMPLES OF AESCULUS HIPPOCASTANUM L. FROM IAȘI CITY AREA. *Analele Stiintifice ale Universitatii "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" din Iasi Sec II a Genetica si Biologie Moleculara*. 2013;14(4):25-30.
6. Liu Y-J, Ding H. Variation in air pollution tolerance index of plants near a steel factory: Implication for landscape-plant species selection for industrial areas. *WSEAS Transactions on Environment and development*. 2008;4(1):24-32.
7. Agbaire P, Esiefarienrhe E. Air Pollution tolerance indices (apti) of some plants around Otorogun Gas Plant in Delta State, Nigeria. *Journal of Applied Sciences and Environmental Management*. 2009;13(1).
8. Tiwari S, Agrawal M, Marshall F. Evaluation of ambient air pollution impact on carrot plants at a sub urban site using open top chambers. *Environmental monitoring and assessment*. 2006;119(1-3):15-30.
9. Wang F, Zeng B, Sun Z, Zhu C. Relationship between proline and Hg2+-induced oxidative stress in a tolerant rice mutant. *Archives of environmental contamination and toxicology*. 2009;56(4):723-31.
10. Mittal ML, Hess PG, Jain S, Arya B, Sharma C. Surface ozone in the Indian region. *Atmospheric environment*. 2007;41(31):6572-84.
11. Feng Z, Pang J, Kobayashi K, Zhu J, Ort DR. Differential responses in two varieties of winter wheat to elevated ozone concentration under fully open-air field conditions. *Global Change Biology*. 2011;17(1):580-91.
12. Wang X, Mauzerall DL. Characterizing distributions of surface ozone and its impact on grain production in China, Japan and South Korea: 1990 and 2020. *Atmospheric environment*. 2004;38(26):4383-402.
13. Averyn S, Mauzerall D, Liu J, Horowitz L. Global crop yield reductions due to surface ozone exposure: 2. Year 2030 potential cro production losses and economic damage under two scenarios of O3 pollution. *Atmos Environ*. 2011;45:2297-309.
14. Mudd J, Leavitt R, Ongun A, McManus T. Reaction of ozone with amino acids and proteins. *Atmospheric Environment* (1967). 1969;3(6):669-81.
15. Zeiger E, Taiz L. The effect of air pollution on plants. *Plant Physiology*, Fourth Edition (On line). 2006.
16. Tankha K, Gupta R. Effect of water deficit and sulphur dioxide on total soluble proteins, nitrate reductase activity and free proline content in sunflower leaves. *Biologia plantarum*. 1992;34(3-4):305-10.
17. Woodward AJ, Bennett IJ. The effect of salt stress and abscisic acid on proline production, chlorophyll content and growth of in vitro propagated shoots of *Eucalyptus camaldulensis*. *Plant cell, tissue and organ culture*. 2005;82(2):189-200.
18. Rai V. Role of amino acids in plant responses to stresses. *Biologia plantarum*. 2002;45(4):481-7.
19. Christias C, Couvaraki C, Georgopoulos S, Macris B, Vomvoyanni V. Protein content and amino acid composition of certain fungi evaluated for microbial protein production. *Applied microbiology*. 1975;29(2):250-4.
20. Cox WM, Chu S-H. Assessment of interannual ozone variation in urban areas from a climatological perspective. *Atmospheric environment*. 1996;30(14):2615-25.
21. Kleeman MJ. A preliminary assessment of the sensitivity of air quality in

- California to global change. *Climatic Change*. 2008;87(1):273-92.
22. Tsigaridis K, Kanakidou M. Secondary organic aerosol importance in the future atmosphere. *Atmospheric environment*. 2007;41(22):4682-92.
23. İm U, Tayanç M, Yenigün O. Interaction patterns of major photochemical pollutants in Istanbul, Turkey. *Atmospheric Research*. 2008;89(4):382-90.
24. IQBAL MZ. S. JAHAN. *Journal of Islamic Academy of Sciences*. 1992;5(1):21-3.
25. Seyyednejad SM, Koochak H. Some morphological and biochemical responses due to industrial air pollution in *Prosopis juliflora* (Swartz) DC plant. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*. 2013;8(18):1968-74.
26. Ito O, Okano K, Totsuka T. Effects of NO₂ and O₃ exposure alone or in combination on kidney bean plants: amino acid content and composition. *Soil science and plant nutrition*. 1986;32(3):351-63.
27. Miflin BJ, Habash DZ. The role of glutamine synthetase and glutamate dehydrogenase in nitrogen assimilation and possibilities for improvement in the nitrogen utilization of crops. *Journal of Experimental Botany*. 2002;53(370):979-87.
28. Cuin TA, Shabala S. Amino acids regulate salinity-induced potassium efflux in barley root epidermis. *Planta*. 2007;225(3):753-61.
29. Zhang P, Fu J, Hu L. Effects of alkali stress on growth, free amino acids and carbohydrates metabolism in Kentucky bluegrass (*Poa pratensis*). *Ecotoxicology*. 2012;21(7):1911-8.