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## Hydrogen Sulfide and Ischemia - Reperfusion Injury

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### Abstract

Gasotransmitters are lipid soluble, endogenously produced gaseous signaling molecules that freely permeate the plasma membrane of a cell to directly activate intracellular targets, thus alleviating the need for membrane-bound receptors. The gasotransmitter family consists of three members: nitric oxide (NO), carbon monoxide (CO), and hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S). H<sub>2</sub>S is the latest gasotransmitter to be identified and characterized and like the other members of the gasotransmitter family, H<sub>2</sub>S was historically considered to be a toxic gas and an environmental/occupational hazard. However with the discovery of its presence and enzymatic production in mammalian tissues, H<sub>2</sub>S has gained much attention as a physiological signaling molecule. Also, much like NO and CO, H<sub>2</sub>S's role in ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury has recently begun to be elucidated. As such, modulation of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and administration of exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S has now been demonstrated to be cytoprotective in various organ systems through diverse signaling mechanisms. This review will provide a detailed description of the role H<sub>2</sub>S plays in different model systems of I/R injury and will also detail some of the mechanisms involved with its cytoprotection.

### 1. Overview of Gasotransmitters

Cellular signaling often involves complex systems, whereby interactions between membrane-bound proteins and signaling molecules lead to the activation of intracellular molecules. These intracellular molecules act as secondary messengers, which then relay a signal to a specific destination. A set of endogenous gaseous molecules called gasotransmitters possesses similar signaling capabilities as other signaling molecules but does not require the regular string of regulatory mechanisms to transmit a signal [1]. Gasotransmitters are lipid soluble, endogenously produced, and freely permeate the plasma membrane of a cell to pass the message directly to an intracellular target [2]. Nitric oxide (NO) was the first gasotransmitter to be recognized as a signaling molecule, when it was identified as both a smooth muscle relaxer through the actions of acetylcholine [3] and an activator of macrophages [4]. NO is synthesized by the enzyme nitric oxide synthase (NOS) from the oxidation of the guanidine group of L-arginine [5]. There are three known isoforms of NOS that have been characterized, purified and cloned: neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS), involved with neuronal signal transmission [6]; inducible nitric oxide synthase

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(iNOS), responsible for macrophage activation [7]; and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), plays a role in vasorelaxation [8]. Calcium-calmodulin pathways regulate the eNOS and nNOS isoforms whereas iNOS is independent of these actions [9]. When NO is produced it diffuses through the endothelial cell membrane into smooth muscle cells (SMCs) where it activates guanylyl cyclase to produce cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) [10]. Since these discoveries it has been shown that increasing NO by the administration of NO donors [11], inhaled gas therapy [12], or overexpression of eNOS protects against ischemic injury (heart, brain, liver, etc.). Preconditioning with NO has also been shown to be protective in cerebral [13], intestinal [14], and hepatic [15] ischemia.

Following the discovery of NO as a gasotransmitter, carbon monoxide (CO) was found to have similar roles. CO is formed endogenously by the enzyme heme oxygenase (HO) through the degradation of heme. There are three known isoforms of HO: HO-1, inducible under cellular stress; HO-2, homeostatic form; and HO-3, recently found in rat brain but no gene for HO-3 has yet to be found [16]. HO-1 is responsible for degrading heme into biliverdin and CO. Biliverdin is quickly reduced in the cell to bilirubin, which is a very important antioxidant. Induction of HO-1 through pharmacological agents has been shown to significantly reduce myocardial infarct size *in vivo* [17]. Yet *et al.* [18] demonstrated that a cardiac specific HO-1 transgenic mouse is also protected in myocardial ischemia/reperfusion (MI/R) injury [18]. CO, like NO, is also a known vasodilator through the activation of guanylyl cyclase [19]. However, some evidence suggests calcium-activated potassium channels are targets of CO in the context of vasorelaxation [20]. The cytoprotective effects of CO are also not limited to the heart, as it has been shown that CO contributes to central nervous system mediated blood pressure regulation [21], protects against pulmonary [22] and renovascular hypertension [23], modulates atherosclerosis [24], improves both allograft and xenograft survival following organ transplantation [25], and exerts a restorative effect on the pathologic remodeling response after balloon angioplasty [26].

## 2. Emergence of H<sub>2</sub>S as the Third Gasotransmitter

The third member of the gasotransmitter family to be identified was hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), a fetid smelling molecule long thought of as a toxic gas. Warenycia *et al* [27] first reported that H<sub>2</sub>S was produced in very low concentrations endogenously when they were investigating acute H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning in the brain. Soon after this discovery, evidence of a physiological role of H<sub>2</sub>S began to unravel. Skrajny *et al* [28] found increased levels of serotonin and reduced levels of norepinephrine in the frontal cortex of a rat when chronically exposed to 20 ppm of H<sub>2</sub>S and in 1996, Abe *et al* [29] suggested that H<sub>2</sub>S was an endogenous neuromodulator, as they showed that physiological concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S enhanced NMDA receptor-mediated responses and aided in the induction of hippocampal long-term potentiation. Shortly after, Hosoki *et al* [30] reported that an enzyme, which produces H<sub>2</sub>S, is present in the ileum, portal vein, and thoracic aorta and proposed that H<sub>2</sub>S may be an endogenous smooth muscle relaxant. Accompanying these discoveries was an interest in the physiological role of H<sub>2</sub>S in biological systems.

### 2.1 Physiological Role of H<sub>2</sub>S in Biological Systems

There are three known enzymes that produce H<sub>2</sub>S endogenously in mammalian tissue: cystathionine β-synthase (CBS), cystathionine γ-lyase (CGL or CSE), and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfur transferase (3MST). In most tissues, CBS and CSE are responsible for catalyzing the production of H<sub>2</sub>S. CBS and CSE are both pyridoxal-5'-phosphate-dependent enzymes that utilize L-cysteine and homocysteine as substrates to liberate ammonium, pyruvate, and H<sub>2</sub>S [1]. It was originally believed that CBS was responsible for H<sub>2</sub>S production in the brain through the activation of the Ca<sup>2+</sup>/calmodulin pathway [31], but

the discovery that approximately 90% of H<sub>2</sub>S in the brain is produced by 3MST [32] has changed the perceived role of CBS in H<sub>2</sub>S production. H<sub>2</sub>S is produced by 3MST from L-cysteine and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate through the metabolism with cysteine aminotransferase (CAT) [32]. Although 3MST is responsible for the majority of H<sub>2</sub>S production in the brain, it is localized mainly in neurons, whereas CBS is located in astrocytes, suggesting that some H<sub>2</sub>S signaling in the brain may require CBS.

Under physiological conditions, two thirds of H<sub>2</sub>S is dissociated into H<sup>+</sup> and HS<sup>-</sup> and the remaining one third is in its undissociated form ( $\text{H}_2\text{S} \rightleftharpoons \text{HS}^- + \text{H}^+$ , pKa = 6.9) [33]. There are three major fates of H<sub>2</sub>S in the body. First, most of the H<sub>2</sub>S produced in the body is oxidized in the mitochondria to an end product of sulfate [34]. The remaining H<sub>2</sub>S is either methylated by thiol S-methyltransferase (TSMT) to methanethiol and dimethylsulfide [35] or binds to methemoglobin to form sulfhemoglobin [36]. Sulfate and thiosulfate are the major end product of H<sub>2</sub>S and are excreted in urine [34].

### 3. Cytoprotective Effects of Endogenous/Exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S

The physiological actions of H<sub>2</sub>S make this gas ideally suited to protect the heart, brain, liver, kidney, and lungs against injury during ischemia/reperfusion (I/R). In recent years, the cytoprotective effects of endogenous and exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S have been investigated in models of *in vitro* [37,38] and *in vivo* [39–45] ischemic injury (summarized in the Table). The effects of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S have primarily been studied by pharmacologically inhibiting CGL and by genetically targeting CGL in mice, whereas the effects of exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S have been studied through the administration of H<sub>2</sub>S in the form of sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS), sodium sulfide (Na<sub>2</sub>S), or H<sub>2</sub>S gas.

#### 3.1 Cardioprotective Effects of H<sub>2</sub>S

A number of studies have demonstrated the cytoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S in myocardial I/R (MI/R) injury [37,39–41,46–50]. The first study to show cytoprotection against MI/R injury was Johansen *et al* [46] who examined the hypothesis that the protective actions of H<sub>2</sub>S are mediated by ATP-sensitive potassium channel (K<sub>ATP</sub>) opening. In this study, the authors performed a dose response study using the Lagendorff hanging heart model with rat hearts. They observed an approximate 20% reduction in infarct size when treatment with NaHS (1  $\mu$ M) was started 10 minutes prior to reperfusion and maintained until 10 min of reperfusion. Using K<sub>ATP</sub> blockers they also provide evidence to support the involvement of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel opening as the mechanism of action. Another study executed by Bian *et al* [37] examined the effect of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and exogenous application of NaHS on cardiac rhythm in isolated rat hearts subjected to low-flow ischemia. In this study, NaHS was administered prior to ischemia at a concentration of 100  $\mu$ M in the perfusate (3 min/each cycle separated by 5 min of recovery). The hearts were then subjected to 30 min of low-flow ischemia followed by 10 min of reperfusion. They found that the NaHS-treated group had a significantly decreased duration and severity of I/R-induced arrhythmias. Isolated rat cardiac myocytes were also investigated using a simulated ischemia solution [i.e., glucose-free Krebs buffer containing 10 mM 2-deoxy-D-glucose (2-DOG) and 10 mM sodium dithionite (Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>)] and were found to have a significantly increased viability and cell shape when treated with NaHS (10–100  $\mu$ M). Bliksoen *et al.* [41] examined the protective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S in global I/R in the heart, the mechanistic role of H<sub>2</sub>S in ischemic preconditioning, and the involvement of protein kinase phosphorylation with H<sub>2</sub>S. In this study, the authors blocked H<sub>2</sub>S production from CSE by using D,L-propargylglycine (PAG) in a Lagendorff perfusion model. A 38% increase in myocardial infarct size was observed after 40 min of low flow ischemia in the PAG-treated (prior to ischemia) hearts when compared to the control hearts. The dramatic increase in infarct size indicates that endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S plays a key role in protecting the heart from MI/R injury. Evidence supporting cardioprotection of both

exogenous and endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S has also been observed *in vivo*. Sivarajah *et al.* [40] were the first to show that endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S could be protective in myocardial injury. In this study mice were subjected to 25 min of regional myocardial ischemia followed by 2 hr of reperfusion. H<sub>2</sub>S was administered as NaHS (3 mg/kg) 15 min prior to ischemia. A 26% reduction in infarct size was observed in the treated group when compared to the vehicle. Shortly after, Elrod *et al.* [39] investigated the potential of H<sub>2</sub>S as a cardioprotective agent when given at the time of reperfusion. In this study mice subjected to 30 min of left coronary artery (LCA) ischemia and 24 hr reperfusion displayed a 72% reduction in infarct size when administered H<sub>2</sub>S in the form of Na<sub>2</sub>S (50 µg/kg) at the time of reperfusion. Elrod *et al.* also tested the cardioprotective effects of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S by subjecting mice with a cardiac-specific over expression of CGL (about a 2 fold increase in myocardial H<sub>2</sub>S) to MI/R. After 45 min of left coronary artery occlusion and 72 hr reperfusion, the CGL transgenic mice displayed a 47% reduction in infarct size. This implies that increasing the production of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S can have similar cardioprotective effects as exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S. Intriguingly inhibition of the endogenous production of H<sub>2</sub>S has also been shown to cause hypertension and diminish endothelium-dependent vasodilatation [51] as well as exacerbates MI/R injury in mice [52]. These *in vitro*, *ex vivo*, and *in vivo* studies clearly show that exogenous and endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S have cardioprotective effects and provide evidence that H<sub>2</sub>S may be a potential therapeutic agent for the treatment of cardiovascular disease.

### 3.2 Neuroprotective Effects of H<sub>2</sub>S

It has been reported that oxidative stress associated with I/R injury causes major damage to neurons [53]. An *in vitro* study of the efficacy of H<sub>2</sub>S protection against oxidative stress in neurons was performed using glutamate (1mM) and demonstrated that NaHS (100 µM) protects neurons from glutamate toxicity [38]. Kimura *et al* [54] also suggested that H<sub>2</sub>S may not itself function as an antioxidant in neuronal cells, but instead induces the production of the potent antioxidant glutathione (GSH). Another study on the neuroprotective role of H<sub>2</sub>S was completed on a clonal hippocampal nerve cell line, HT22, using a model of oxidative stress [55]. HT22 cells exposed to glutamate (5 mM) that were treated with NaHS (10–300 µM) showed improved survival over untreated cells. Furthermore, Tyagi *et al* [56] investigated the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on methionine (Met)-induced oxidative stress in mouse brain endothelial cells (bEnd3). They found that pre-treatment with NaHS (0.05 and 0.1mM) attenuated cell death as well as peroxynitrite and superoxide anion formation in cells treated with Met (1.14 mM). Further *in vivo* studies have revealed additional roles of H<sub>2</sub>S in the brain. For example, an elevated level of one of the cerebral substrates of H<sub>2</sub>S, plasma homocysteine (Hcy), is a known risk factor for acute stroke [57]. Qu *et al.* [58] tested the effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on the development of infarction in rats using a focal cerebral ischemic stroke model by inducing a permanent unilateral occlusion of the left middle cerebral artery (MCA) and found that administration of NaHS (0.18 mmol/kg) 10 min prior to the occlusion increased the infarct volume by approximately 150% compared to the control. Additionally, inhibition of the H<sub>2</sub>S producing enzymes CBS and CSE using pharmacological inhibitors (in order of potency: aminooxyacetic acid [AOAA], hydroxylamine [HA], PAG, β-cyanoalanine [β-CNA]) significantly reduced infarct volume. However more recent studies have shown a protective role for H<sub>2</sub>S *in vivo* at much lower concentrations. Florian *et al* [42] examined the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S administered after cerebral ischemia by exposing rats to 2 days of H<sub>2</sub>S gas (80 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S in 19.5% O<sub>2</sub>). The exposure of H<sub>2</sub>S increased the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S in the brain from 1.12 ± 4.6 µg/g to 2.70 ± 5.3 µg/g, induced a state of hypothermia (30.8 ± 0.7 °C) and reduced infarct size by 50%. Kimura *et al* [59] studied the effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on GSH levels in the brains of fetal mice using an intrauterine I/R (5 min/24 hr) model. Intrauterine I/R caused a 24% decrease in GSH levels. However, mice treated with NaHS (0.4375 µmol/kg, i.p.) 15 min before fetal ischemia showed improved fetal brain levels of GSH compared to the untreated mice, suggesting that H<sub>2</sub>S protects by reinstating GSH

levels that were lowered during intrauterine I/R. Minamishima *et al* [60] used a murine model to study the neuroprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S (Na<sub>2</sub>S, 0.55 mg/kg) after cardiac arrest/ cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CA/CPR). They observed improved neurological function, decreased activation of the apoptotic protein caspase-3 in the hippocampus, and enhanced phosphorylation (activation) of the anti-apoptotic protein GSK-3 $\beta$  in the brain cortex in mice injected with Na<sub>2</sub>S via a femoral venous line 1 min prior to CPR.

The above studies reveal a variety of neuroprotective roles of H<sub>2</sub>S. *In vitro and in vivo* studies demonstrate that low concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S can mediate oxidative stress by restoring GSH levels in the brain, whereas higher concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S have been shown to have effects that range from magnifying cerebral damage in the ischemic stroke model to inducing a state of neuroprotective. Studies aimed at investigating the role of 3MST in cerebral I/R injury could potentially elucidate the role H<sub>2</sub>S plays in modulating cerebral ischemia.

### 3.3 H<sub>2</sub>S and Hepatoprotection

The cytoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S can also be seen in the liver. Jha *et al* [43] tested the hepatoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S in a murine model of hepatic I/R by subjecting mice to 60 min of ischemia followed by 5 hr of reperfusion. Na<sub>2</sub>S was administered intravenously 5 min before reperfusion and serum aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels were measured to quantify liver injury. Na<sub>2</sub>S treatments reduced AST levels by 71% and ALT levels by 69% suggesting that H<sub>2</sub>S attenuates hepatic I/R injury. The authors also demonstrated that the hepatoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S were mediated by a decrease in lipid peroxidation levels, an increase in antioxidant signaling, and an increase in anti-apoptotic signaling. While this study provides evidence for exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S therapy it does not address the ability of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S to affect hepatic injury. Therefore additional studies are warranted to fully elucidate the hepatoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S.

### 3.4 H<sub>2</sub>S and Renal Ischemia

There has been a collection of studies that suggest exogenous and endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S is protective against renal I/R injury. Tripatara *et al* [44] investigated the effects of endogenous and exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in renal I/R. They treated rats with PAG (1ml/kg, i.p.) 1 hr before ischemia to inhibit CSE and found that animals displayed increased serum creatine levels signifying a decrease in renal function. Next they performed a bilateral renal occlusion, this time treating the mice with NaHS topically on the kidneys 15 prior to ischemia. A significant increase in renal function was observed, indicating that H<sub>2</sub>S plays a key role in protection against renal ischemia. Xu *et al*. [45] examined if renal injury was caused by the reduction in activity of CBS in the kidney during I/R by measuring H<sub>2</sub>S and creatine levels after 45 min of renal ischemia and 6 hr of reperfusion. A significant decrease of H<sub>2</sub>S and an increase in plasma creatine levels were observed in the rats subjected to the ischemia, indicating that during ischemia, H<sub>2</sub>S levels drop along with kidney function. The activity of CBS and CGL were also measured in the rats after ischemia; CBS activity levels were significantly decreased while CGL activity was not significantly changed. These data suggest that not only does H<sub>2</sub>S play a role in renal ischemia, but also a major enzyme responsible for H<sub>2</sub>S production is inhibited. Moreover, because CBS is being inhibited, there is an accumulation of Hcy causing a worsening in renal I/R injury [61].

### 3.5 H<sub>2</sub>S and Pulmonary Ischemia

Only a small number of studies have investigated the role of H<sub>2</sub>S in pulmonary I/R injury. Fu *et al* [62] explored the potential of H<sub>2</sub>S as a lung protective agent. They measured endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S generation in the rat lung under I/R injury and found that ischemia caused a 46% increase in CSE activity resulting in a 54% increase in H<sub>2</sub>S levels. They also perfused

the rat lungs with H<sub>2</sub>S gas (50 μmol/l, 100 μmol/l) 5 min prior to ischemia and found that the pretreated mice displayed pulmonary protection as assessed by lung morphology. H<sub>2</sub>S also decreased I/R-induced lung histological injury, increased lung perfusion flow rate, lowered lung wet/dry weight ratio, and improved lung compliance. Malondialdehyde (MDA) levels were also measured to determine the amount of oxidation in the cells and it was found that H<sub>2</sub>S had significantly lowered MDA levels, suggesting that H<sub>2</sub>S attenuated oxidative stress in the lung.

### 3.6 Limitations of Pharmacological Inhibitors of H<sub>2</sub>S Producing Enzymes

Although multiple pharmacological inhibitors of H<sub>2</sub>S biosynthesis are available, the potency, selectivity, and permeability of the compounds could be challenging when using these inhibitors to suppress a particular H<sub>2</sub>S producing enzyme. PAG and β-CNA are commonly used to inhibit CSE. Unfortunately, they have low potency (25–100 mg/kg) and selectivity in most organs with limited cell membrane permeability [63]. Also, AOAA and HA frequently used inhibitors of CBS, target the pyridoxal-binding site of the enzyme and therefore have the potential of affecting other enzymes in biological systems [64]. Lastly, hydrogen peroxide and tetrathionate are used to inhibit 3MST by interfering with its catalytic cysteine residue. However, many enzymes use cysteines in the catalytic sites and would thus be inhibited by these chemicals [65]. Therefore, there is much room for the development of more specific and potent inhibitors of H<sub>2</sub>S producing enzymes in which could aid in expanding the field's understanding of the endogenous role of H<sub>2</sub>S.

## 4. Mechanisms of Action and the Diverse Physiological Profile of H<sub>2</sub>S

It is shown above that H<sub>2</sub>S is protective in many biological systems. The mechanisms through which H<sub>2</sub>S can protect these systems are important to understand in order to utilize its effectiveness as a cytoprotection agent. H<sub>2</sub>S has a wide range of physiological roles in mammalian tissue. In the nervous system, H<sub>2</sub>S has been shown to function as a neuromodulator [29], modulate NMDA receptors (NMDAR) by inducing the production of cyclic-adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) [66], and act as an inhibitor of peroxynitrite (ONOO<sup>-</sup>) [67]. In the cardiovascular system, numerous roles for H<sub>2</sub>S have been identified: vasorelaxant [68] and antiapoptotic [69] properties by opening of K<sub>ATP</sub> channels, proangiogenic factor through the phosphorylation of Akt [70], modulator of leukocyte-mediated inflammation [71], upregulator of antioxidant signaling [43], and involved in cytoprotection through the preservation of mitochondrial function [39].

### 4.1 K<sub>atp</sub> Channel – Vasodilation or Calcium Handling

K<sub>ATP</sub> channels are located on the sarcolemma [72], the inner mitochondrial membrane [73], and nuclear membrane [74] and play an important role in glucose metabolism in the cell by membrane hyperpolarization. K<sub>ATP</sub> channels are composed of two types of subunits: four inwardly rectifying potassium channels K<sub>ir</sub>6 (K<sub>ir</sub>6.1, K<sub>ir</sub>6.2) and four sulfonylurea receptors (SUR1, SUR2A, SUR2B) [75]. K<sub>ir</sub>6 subunits form the pore of the channel and are capable of opening and closing to regulate ion flow [73]. SUR receptors are a high affinity receptor sensitive to [ATP/ADP] that facilitates the opening/closing of the K<sub>ir</sub>6 subunits [76] and are the target of many pharmacological compounds. It has been proposed that H<sub>2</sub>S-stimulated vasorelaxation occurs through the opening of the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel [68]. Zhao *et al* [68] attempted to assess the physiological role of H<sub>2</sub>S in the regulation of vascular contractility, the modulation of H<sub>2</sub>S production in vascular tissues, and the underlying mechanism involved. To achieve this, Zhao *et al.* gave an intravenous bolus injection of NaHS (2.8 and 14 μmol/kg) to rats and observed a decrease in mean arterial blood pressure similar to an injection of pinacidil (2.8 μmol/kg), a known K<sub>ATP</sub> channel opener. Supporting this hypothesis, H<sub>2</sub>S has also been shown to increase K<sub>ATP</sub> channel currents in isolated smooth

muscle cells [77]. Cardioprotection, however, may be limited only to specific  $K_{ATP}$  channels. In an *in vitro* study, Bian *et al.* [37] used the mitochondrial  $K_{ATP}$  blocker 5-hydroxydecanoate (5-HD) to demonstrate that mitochondrial  $K_{ATP}$  channels were not responsible for the cardioprotective effects of  $H_2S$ . However, they found that inhibition of the sarcolemmal  $K_{ATP}$  channels took away the cardioprotective effects of  $H_2S$ . Sivarajah *et al.* [69] recently performed an *in vivo* MI/R study to investigate the effect NaHS on infarct size and apoptosis caused by ischemia (25 min) and reperfusion (2 hr). Sivarajah *et al.* inhibited the mitochondrial  $K_{ATP}$  channel with 5-HD and found, contradictory to Bian *et al.*, that  $H_2S$  did not protect the heart when the mitochondrial channel blocker was applied intravenously. These results suggests a new method in studying mitochondrial  $K_{ATP}$  channels must be developed to obtain more consistent results before any conclusions can be taken from these experiments.

In MI/R models,  $Ca^{2+}$  handling is critical in controlling cellular damage. During ischemia, excess  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Na^+$  builds up in the cytosol of the cell [78]. Due to the large  $[Ca^{2+}]$  in the cell at the onset of reperfusion, the reoxygenation of the cell causes myofibrils to generate a large amount of force, called hypercontraction [79]. The excessive force irreparably damages the cytoskeleton. Therefore,  $Ca^{2+}$  handling is essential in controlling reperfusion damage in the cell. Protein kinase C (PKC) has been shown to be involved with  $Ca^{2+}$  handling and protects against I/R damage. There are three isoforms of PKC in the heart [80]: PKC $\alpha$ , PKC $\epsilon$ , and PKC $\delta$ . Recently, Pan *et al.* [81] examined the regulatory effect of PKC on intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  handling in  $H_2S$ -preconditioning and demonstrated that  $H_2S$  preconditioning in rat myocytes activates all three isoforms of PKC, lowers intracellular  $[Ca^{2+}]$  and protects the cardiomyocytes from damage. However an *in vivo* model of  $H_2S$  and PKC activation during I/R should be completed to solidify their roles in mediating intracellular  $[Ca^{2+}]$ .

## 4.2 $H_2S$ and Apoptosis

The mechanism behind the cardioprotective effects of  $H_2S$  is not limited to modulation of  $K_{ATP}$  channels and  $Ca^{2+}$  handling. There is much evidence to suggest that  $H_2S$  also has anti-apoptotic roles in the cell during M/IR. The activation of two important cell survival pathways, extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK1/2)/mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI-3-kinase), can inactivate pro-apoptotic pathways through interaction with PKC $\epsilon$  [82] or inhibition of Bad and caspase-9 [83], respectively. The activation of the ERK1/2 and PI-3-kinase pathways has been found to be influenced by  $H_2S$  [84,85]. Additionally, activation of the PI-3-kinase/Akt pathway increases the production of the cardioprotective gasotransmitter NO [86]. In an attempt to elucidate the signaling mechanism of  $H_2S$  in the ERK1/2 pathway during cardioprotection, Hu *et al* [85] found that preconditioning rat myocytes with NaHS (1–100  $\mu$ M) not only increased cell viability, but that the blockade of ERK1/2 or Akt during preconditioning or ischemia significantly decreased the cardioprotection of  $H_2S$ . Western blot analysis also revealed that  $H_2S$  preconditioning increased the phosphorylation status of ERK1/2 and Akt, further activating the protein's pro-survival mechanisms. Elrod *et al* [39] performed an *in vitro* experiment with isolated adult myocytes, which were subjected to 6 hr of hypoxia and 12 hr reoxygenation to further examine the role of  $H_2S$  on apoptotic pathways. They found that myocytes treated with NaHS displayed a decreased activation of caspase-3 and a decrease in the number of nuclei with fragmented DNA (a result of apoptotic signaling cascades). These data suggest that  $H_2S$  inhibited the progression of apoptosis after MI/R injury. Additionally, Sivarajah *et al* [69] demonstrated that regional MI/R on rat hearts increased the phosphorylation of p38, MAPK, and JNK1/2, pro-apoptotic proteins in the heart, but the administration of NaHS 15 min prior to ischemia significantly reduced the phosphorylation of p38, MAPK, and JNK caused by I/R injury. Cytochrome C, another pro-

apoptotic protein, is an essential part of the electron transport chain, but when subjected to pro-apoptotic stimuli, it transports out of the mitochondria into the cytosol. There it activates other apoptotic proteins, including caspase-3, an activator of apoptosis [87]. To determine the effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on the cytochrome C apoptotic pathway during I/R injury, Calvert *et al* [47] performed a study where mice were given either saline (vehicle) or Na<sub>2</sub>S 24 hr prior to ischemia. After 45 min of ischemia and 24 hr of reperfusion, the tissue isolated from the vehicle treated mice hearts, when compared to sham operated mice, had a significant decrease in the expression of uncleaved caspase-3 (inactive) and a significant increase in the expression of cleaved caspase-3 (active), as well as an induced translocation of cytochrome C from the mitochondria to the cytosol. The mice treated with Na<sub>2</sub>S exhibited a preservation of uncleaved caspase-3, a reduction in cleaved caspase-3, and a reduction in the translocation of cytochrome C to the cytosol (compared to the vehicle treated mice). Therefore, Na<sub>2</sub>S protects the heart tissue from undergoing apoptotic signaling during MI/R.

The Signal Transducers and Activators of Transcription (STAT) pathway has also been shown to be an important part of the myocardium response to myocardial infarction [88] and an overexpression of the STAT isoform STAT-3 has been shown to be cardioprotective [89]. Inhibition of STAT-3 has also been shown to increase caspase-3 expression in the heart, thereby increasing I/R injury [90]. Calvert *et al* demonstrated *in vivo* that H<sub>2</sub>S activates PKC $\epsilon$  and STAT-3 by altering their phosphorylation, inhibiting the proapoptotic factor Bad, upregulating pro-survival factors Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL, and upregulating heat shock proteins (HSPs) [47]. Therefore, evidence suggests H<sub>2</sub>S has many anti-apoptotic roles in MI/R.

### 4.3 H<sub>2</sub>S and Mitochondrial Protection

The life of a cell is dependent on the degree of mitochondrial functionality. During I/R, mitochondria are subjected to oxygen deprivation, reactive oxygen species (ROS) overproduction, and mitochondrial membrane potential ( $\Delta\Psi_m$ ) depolarization [91]. Roth *et al* [92] have shown that H<sub>2</sub>S at high levels (80 ppm) can induce a state of hypothermia in mice by inhibiting cytochrome c oxidase, in turn decreasing their metabolic rate and core body temperature. They also showed that inducing this “suspended animation” state can prevent ischemic damage to cells. Elrod *et al* [39] evaluated potential mechanisms of H<sub>2</sub>S-mediated mitochondrial preservation using an *in vitro* model of Na<sub>2</sub>S treatment. They found that isolated mitochondria, after 30 min of hypoxia, treated with Na<sub>2</sub>S (10  $\mu$ M) had a greater recovery of posthypoxic respiration rate. Similarly mice that were given Na<sub>2</sub>S at reperfusion displayed a reduction in mitochondrial swelling and an increase in matrix density suggesting preservation in mitochondrial function.

Under myocardial ischemia, the production of ROS is accelerated and all of the cell's antioxidants become depleted. H<sub>2</sub>S is a cytochrome C oxidase inhibitor and therefore inhibits respiration [93]. Inhibition of respiration has been shown to decrease the production of ROS thereby maintaining  $\Delta\Psi_m$  [94]. Thus H<sub>2</sub>S, at low concentrations, can decrease the production of ROS and preserve mitochondrial function [52,95]. Another factor concerning cellular injury is Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx. The Ca<sup>2+</sup> uniporter is the main pathway for Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx [96] during myocardial ischemia. Pan *et al* [81] demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S activates PKC and lowers intracellular [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] in cardiomyocytes protecting the cells from injury. H<sub>2</sub>S also has the ability to activate other pathways. The PI3K-Akt and Erk 1/2 pro-survival kinase cascades (Reperfusion Injury Salvage Kinase, RISK pathway) are activated during I/R and launches anti-apoptotic responses [97]. A major target of the RISK pathway is the mitochondrial permeability transition pore (mPTP) [97]. Opening of the mPTP occurs during reperfusion and is a terminal cellular event contributing to myocardial injury [96]. H<sub>2</sub>S can overactivate Akt, a major kinase in the RISK pathway [85]. Akt then activates eNOS which evidence



suggests inhibits the opening of mPTP [97]. Therefore, H<sub>2</sub>S acts to preserve mitochondrial function, thereby imparting cytoprotection.

#### 4.4 H<sub>2</sub>S and Inflammation

Inflammatory responses are an important part of early I/R injury [98]. Li *et al* [99] investigated the effects of a H<sub>2</sub>S donor, S-diclofenac, on anti-inflammatory activity by administering the proinflammatory bacterial endotoxin lipopolysaccharide (LPS, 10 mg/kg intraperitoneally) to rats, with a group being treated with S-diclofenac (47.2 μmol/kg, i.p.) 60 min prior to LPS injection. They found that the H<sub>2</sub>S donor significantly reduced the rise in plasma concentrations of proinflammatory interleukin-1β (IL-1β) and tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) while also augmenting the rise in plasma concentrations of the anti-inflammatory cytokine interleukin-10 (IL-10). Other studies have investigated the pathways that may be involved in the anti-inflammatory effects of H<sub>2</sub>S. After I/R, early inflammatory effects are derived from leukocyte adhesion to endothelial cells [100]. Zanardo *et al* [71] examined H<sub>2</sub>S as an endogenous regulator of leukocyte-endothelial interactions. They pretreated rats intragastrically with Na<sub>2</sub>S (1–100 μmol/kg) or NaHS (100 μmol/kg) 30 min before administering the leukocyte adhering aspirin and Formyl-Methionyl-Leucyl-Phenylalanine (fMLP). They found that rats treated with H<sub>2</sub>S dose-dependently decreased leukocyte adherence to endothelial cells. Additionally, Zanardo *et al* revealed that the rats pretreated with the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel antagonist glibenclamide did not have a decrease in leukocyte adherence suggesting that the anti-inflammatory effects of H<sub>2</sub>S was through K<sub>ATP</sub> channel activation. Yusof *et al* [101] studied the effects of preconditioning with H<sub>2</sub>S on leukocyte rolling (2<sup>nd</sup> step in leukocyte-endothelial interactions during ischemia [102]) and adhesion induced by ischemia. They injected NaHS (14 μmol/kg, i.p.) 24 hr before ischemia, 1 hr before ischemia, and at reperfusion in mice receiving 45 min of superior mesenteric artery ischemia and 60 min reperfusion. They observed that H<sub>2</sub>S initiated late-phase preconditioning (tolerance to ischemia 12–24 hr after preconditioning stimulus) and through Western blot analysis revealed a significant increase in phosphorylation (activation) of eNOS and p38 MAPK. These data suggests that the anti-inflammatory effects of preconditioning with H<sub>2</sub>S are eNOS and p38 MAPK pathway dependent since the protective roles of eNOS and p38 MAPK have already been established [103,104]. More mechanistic studies of H<sub>2</sub>S in inflammation could provide insight into preventing inflammatory tissue damage after I/R.

### 5. Summary and Perspective concerning H<sub>2</sub>S in Ischemic Disorders

Whether it is endogenous or exogenous, H<sub>2</sub>S has a wide range of protective functions after I/R injury throughout the body. Mechanisms of protection include control of intracellular [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] by stimulating K<sub>ATP</sub> channel opening, anti-apoptotic pathway (ERK1/2/MAPK, PI-3 kinase/Akt, JAK-STAT) activation, mitochondrial protection through preservation of ΔΨ<sub>m</sub> and inhibition of mPTP opening, and antiinflammatory effects by activation of eNOS and p38 MAPK. Since the discovery of the cytoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, developing methods to up-regulate endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S production or provide efficacious treatments of H<sub>2</sub>S donors is becoming a focus of scientists and clinicians alike. Ikaria Holdings Incorporated has two clinical trials beginning based on an H<sub>2</sub>S drug, IK-1001 (Na<sub>2</sub>S). The first ongoing study is the reduction of I/R mediated cardiac injury in patients undergoing coronary artery bypass graft surgery (CABG) to evaluate the capability of IK-1001 as a robust treatment for abbreviating surgical injury. Patients undergoing surgery will receive intravenous infusion for six hours while having the CABG surgery and will be evaluated six months later. The other clinical trial by Ikaria Holdings Inc. that is beginning is a pharmacokinetic assessment of Na<sub>2</sub>S in patients with impaired renal function. In this study patients with healthy, mild, and moderately impaired renal function will be injected intravenously with IK-1001 (1.5 mg/kg/hr) for 3 hours while patients with severely impaired renal function will receive IK-1001

(1.0 mg/kg/hr) for 3 hours intravenously. The patients will then be followed over a seven-day period to investigate any restoration in renal function.

Though H<sub>2</sub>S shows therapeutic potential in I/R injury, an underlying problem with the H<sub>2</sub>S field is that the conventional H<sub>2</sub>S donors, NaHS and Na<sub>2</sub>S, are short acting and do not give a continuous release of H<sub>2</sub>S. Recent studies are suggesting that garlic derivatives could provide an answer to this problem. Garlic has been used for prevention and treatment of atherosclerosis, hyperlipidemia, thrombosis, hypertension, and diabetes [105]. Garlic contains a number of sulfur rich chemical compounds including diallyl disulfide (DADS) and diallyl trisulfide (DATS). Benavides *et al* [106] conducted a study that demonstrated that DADS and DATS induced H<sub>2</sub>S production and are responsible for the vasoactivity of garlic. However, exhaustive studies demonstrating the protective effects of DADS and DATS in I/R injury have yet to be published.

Although the physiological and cytoprotective effects of H<sub>2</sub>S have been examined, the mechanisms involved are not fully understood. In the past 20 years, H<sub>2</sub>S has come from a reputation as a toxic gas to potentially a therapeutic drug for the treatment I/R injury. Recent research has revealed many beneficial roles for H<sub>2</sub>S in ischemia for a variety of tissues. For example, H<sub>2</sub>S has been shown to be cardioprotective through both endogenous and exogenous applications at or prior to ischemia, neuroprotective via H<sub>2</sub>S-induced hypothermia, hepatoprotective by decreasing lipid peroxidation, increasing antioxidant and anti-apoptotic signaling, renal protective through the actions of CBS, and protective against pulmonary ischemia injury by the activity of CSE. Although much progress has been made in the H<sub>2</sub>S field regarding its physiological roles in different organ systems, there is room still available for more advancement to be made. First, the enzymes responsible for the endogenous production of H<sub>2</sub>S (CBS, CGL, and 3MST) need to be investigated further for other functions and regulatory mechanisms they may have inside biological systems. Knowing an enzyme's specific role and localization in each individual organ system will allow for the targeting of that enzyme to modify endogenous concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S suitable for the treatment of I/R injury in that tissue. Second, improvement in H<sub>2</sub>S donors could allow for treatments to mimic the endogenous protective effects that H<sub>2</sub>S has in the body. As a result, traditional treatments aimed at combating I/R injury could be challenged with the development of new therapeutic strategies designed capitalize on the potential protective effects of endogenous and exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S.

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Table

Summary of H<sub>2</sub>S in Ischemia/Reperfusion Injury

Organ	Experimental Model*	Treatment**	Effects	Ref.
Heart	Langendorff hanging heart model (30 min I/2 hr R)	NaHS (1 μM) in perfusate 10 min prior to R	20% reduction in infarct size	46
	Perfused rat heart (30 min I/90 min R)	NaHS (1 μM) at onset of R	Significant decrease in myocardial infarct size	50
	Langendorff hanging heart model (30 min I/10 min R)	NaHS (100 μM) in perfusate prior to I	Decreased duration and severity of I/R-induced arrhythmias	37
	Isolated rat cardiac myocytes	NaHS (10–100 μM) with stimulated I solution	Increased myocyte viability and shape	37
	Langendorff hanging heart model (40 min I/2 hr R)	PAG-treated (prior to I)	38% increase in myocardial infarct size	41
	<i>in vivo</i> (25 min I/2 hr R)	NaHS (3 mg/kg, i.v.) 15 min prior to I	26% reduction in myocardial infarct size	40
	<i>in vivo</i> (30 min I/24 hr R)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (50 μg/kg, i.c.) at R	72% reduction in infarct size	39
	<i>in vivo</i> (45 min I/24 hr R)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (100 μg/kg, i.v.) 24 hr before I	46% reduction in infarct; reduction of oxidative stress; decreased anti-apoptotic signaling	47
	<i>in vivo</i> (60 min I/2 hr R)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (100 μg/kg, i.v.) 10 min before R	2.3-fold reduction in infarct size in porcine model	48
	<i>in vivo</i> (60 min I/2 hr R)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (2 mg/kg per hr, i.v. infusion) at I	significantly decreased the area of necrosis; higher expression of cell survival proteins; decrease apoptosis	49
Brain	Primary cultures of cortical neurons	NaHS (100 μM) with glutamate	Protects neurons from glutamate toxicity	38
	Cultured hippocampal HT22 cells	NaHS (300 μM) with glutamate	Improved survival of HT22 cells	55
	Cultured brain endothelial cells	NaHS (0.05 and 0.1 mM) with methionine	Attenuated cell death and radical formation	56

Organ	Experimental Model*	Treatment**	Effects	Ref.
	<i>in vivo</i> (24 hr I of MCA)	NaHS (0.18 mmol/kg, i.p.) 10 min prior I	Increased infarct volume 150%	58
	<i>in vivo</i> (90 min I of MCA)	2 days of H <sub>2</sub> S gas (80 ppm)	Reduced infarct size by 50%	42
	<i>in utero</i> (5 min I/24 hr R of BUA)	NaHS (0.4375 μmol/kg, i.p.)	Protects fetal brains by reinstating the GSH levels decreased by <i>in utero</i> I/R	59
	<i>in vivo</i> (8 min CA followed by CPR)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (0.55 mg/kg i.v.) 1 min before CPR	Improved neurological function; decreased apoptotic proteins and activation of anti-apoptotic proteins	60
Liver	<i>in vivo</i> (60 min I/5 hr R)	Na <sub>2</sub> S (1 mg/kg, i.v.) 5 min prior to R	Reduced AST and ALT levels, LPO levels, increase in antioxidant signaling and decrease in anti-apoptotic signaling	43
	<i>in vivo</i> (45 min I/72 hr R)	PAG (1 ml/kg, i.p.) NaHS (100 μmol/kg) topically on kidney	PAG decreased renal function; NaHS treatment increased renal function	44
Kidney	<i>in vivo</i> (45 min I/6 hr R)	--	Ischemia decreased CBS activity and H <sub>2</sub> S levels	45
Lung	<i>in vivo</i> (45 min I/45 min R of PA)	H <sub>2</sub> S gas (50, 100 μmol/l) 5 min prior to I	Pulmonary protection; decreased histological injury; increased perfusion flow rate; lowered lung wet/dry ratio; improved lung compliance; lowered MDA levels	62

\* I = Ischemia; R = Reperfusion; CA = Cardiac Arrest; CPR = Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation; MCA = Middle Cerebral Artery; BUA = Bilateral Uterovarian Artery; PA = Pulmonary Artery; LV = left ventricle;

\*\* I, j, v. = right jugular vein; i. c. = intracardiac; i. v. = intravenous; i. p. = intraperitoneal; f. v. = femoral venous