

# Hydrogen sulfide: its production, release and functions

Hideo Kimura

Received: 31 October 2009 / Accepted: 29 January 2010 / Published online: 27 February 2010  
© Springer-Verlag 2010

**Abstract** Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), which is a well-known toxic gas, has been recognized as a signal molecule as well as a cytoprotectant. It is produced by three enzymes, cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase, cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase along with cysteine aminotransferase. In addition to an immediate release of H<sub>2</sub>S from producing enzymes, it can be stored as bound sulfane sulfur, which may release H<sub>2</sub>S in response to physiological stimuli. As a signal molecule, it modulates neuronal transmission, relaxes smooth muscle, regulates release of insulin and is involved in inflammation. Because of its reputation as a toxic gas, the function as a cytoprotectant has been overlooked: the nervous system and cardiovascular system are protected from oxidative stress. In this review, enzymatic production, release mechanism and functions of H<sub>2</sub>S are focused on.

**Keywords** H<sub>2</sub>S · Cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase · Cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase · 3-Mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase · Bound sulfane sulfur · Neuromodulator · Neuroprotectant · Cardioprotectant · Smooth muscle relaxant · EDRF

## Introduction

The first toxic gas identified as a signal molecule is nitric oxide (NO), which is produced from arginine by NO synthase (Furchgott and Zawadzki 1980). Another toxic gas,

carbon monoxide (CO), is produced from biliverdin by heme oxygenase (Verma et al. 1993). Both NO and CO were identified as smooth muscle relaxants, and recognized later as neurotransmitters (O'Dell et al. 1991; Stevens and Wang 1993). Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), which is produced from cysteine or homocysteine, was initially found to be a neuromodulator (Abe and Kimura 1996). It facilitates the induction of hippocampal long-term potentiation (LTP) by enhancing the activity of NMDA receptors in neurons and increases the influx of Ca<sup>2+</sup> into astrocytes. Like NO and CO, H<sub>2</sub>S relaxes the thoracic aorta, portal vein and the ileum, which mainly express cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE) (Hosoki et al. 1997). Hypertension is observed in CSE knockout mice, confirming that H<sub>2</sub>S is a smooth muscle relaxant and suggesting that it may regulate blood pressure (Yang et al. 2008).

## Enzymatic regulation of H<sub>2</sub>S production

H<sub>2</sub>S can be produced from cysteine by pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP)-dependent enzymes, including cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase (CBS) and cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE) (Abe and Kimura 1996; Hosoki et al. 1997; Stipanuk and Beck 1982; Zhao et al. 2001). CBS and CSE are expressed in many tissues including the liver and the kidney. Although the expression of CSE in the brain is controversial, both CBS and CSE were reported to be expressed in the brain and produce H<sub>2</sub>S from cysteine (Abe and Kimura 1996; Diwakar and Ravindranath 2007; Ishii et al. 2004; Vitvitsky et al. 2006). CBS and CSE also catalyze the condensation reaction of homocysteine with cysteine to produce H<sub>2</sub>S (Chen et al. 2004; Chiku et al. 2009). H<sub>2</sub>S production by CBS changes depending on the extent of allosteric activation of S-adenosylmethionine, and the contribution of

---

H. Kimura (✉)  
National Institute of Neuroscience, 4-1-1 Ogawahigashi,  
Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan  
e-mail: kimura@ncnp.go.jp

CBS is decreased under hyperhomocysteinemic conditions (Singh et al. 2009).

Cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase (CBS) is expressed in the liver, kidney, brain, ileum, uterus, placenta and pancreatic islets. In the brain, CBS is mainly localized to the cerebellar Bergmann glia and astrocytes (Enokido et al. 2005; Ichinohe et al. 2005). CBS is localized to neuroepithelial cells in the ventricular zone at the early developmental stages, but its localization changes to radial glial cells and astrocytes during the late embryonic and neonatal periods. The expression of CBS is enhanced by epidermal growth factor (EGF), transforming growth factor- $\alpha$  (TGF- $\alpha$ ), cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and dexamethasone in astrocytes (Enokido et al. 2005). In addition to the transcriptional up-regulation of CBS, a CBS activator, *S*-adenosyl methionine enhances the enzymatic production of H<sub>2</sub>S (Abe and Kimura 1996).

Cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE) produces H<sub>2</sub>S from cysteine or homocysteine. Under normal conditions, approximately 70% of H<sub>2</sub>S is produced from cysteine and the remaining 30% is from homocysteine. However, under conditions with higher concentrations of homocysteine such as homocysteinemia, homocysteine rather than cysteine becomes the preferred source for H<sub>2</sub>S production (Chiku et al. 2009).

Cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE) is expressed in the liver, kidney, thoracic aorta, ileum, portal vein, uterus, brain as well as pancreatic islets and the placenta (Diwakar and Ravindranath 2007; Hosoki et al. 1997; Kaneko et al. 2006; Patel et al. 2009; Vitvitsky et al. 2006). The expression of CSE is increased by the NO donor, *S*-nitroso-*N*-acetylpenicillamine (SNAP), and the enzymatic activity of CSE is enhanced by another NO donor, sodium nitroprusside (SNP) (Zhao et al. 2001), although these effects of NO on CSE are controversial (Chiku et al. 2009). Although the requirement for Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations was high (1 mM), a recent study showed that CSE activity was regulated by calcium calmodulin (Yang et al. 2008). Since the interaction between CSE and calmodulin is abolished by EGTA and the calmodulin inhibitor W7, the enhanced activity of CSE may be caused by its direct binding to calmodulin.

We recently found that H<sub>2</sub>S is produced from cysteine with brain homogenates of CBS knockout mice and that the production depends on the presence of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (Shibuya et al. 2009b). These observations suggest that there is another H<sub>2</sub>S-producing enzyme, which is neither CBS nor CSE, in the brain. 3-Mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3MST) along with cysteine aminotransferase (CAT), which is identical with aspartate aminotransferase (AAT), can produce H<sub>2</sub>S from cysteine in the presence of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (Cooper 1983; Frendo and Wrobel 1997; Kuo et al. 1983). The production of H<sub>2</sub>S by 3MST along with CAT in the presence of cysteine and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate

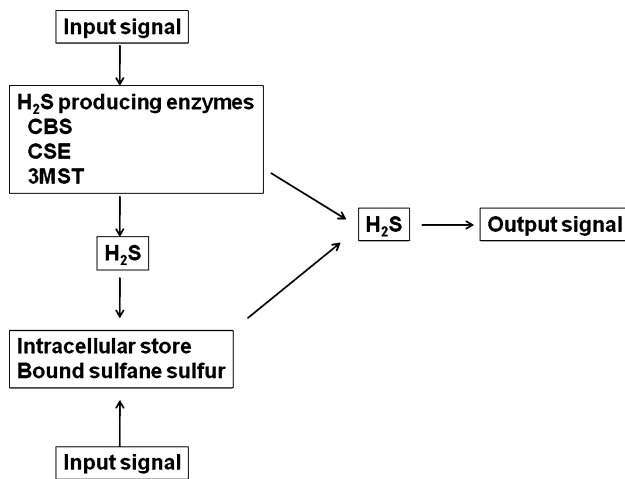
supports the existence of 3MP, which has not been identified. The existence of 3MP has been implicated based solely on the release of mercaptolactate-cysteine disulfide, a metabolite of 3MP, to urine. Our observation that the pathway produces H<sub>2</sub>S even without the addition of 3MP indicates the existence of 3MP as an intermediate (Shibuya et al. 2009b).

3MST is localized to the liver, kidney, heart, lung, thymus, testis, thoracic aorta and the brain (Nagahara et al. 1998; Shibuya et al. 2009a, b). 3MST with CAT efficiently produces H<sub>2</sub>S from cysteine and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate, and this production is suppressed by a competition with aspartate, a preferred substrate for CAT or AAT.

### Mechanism of H<sub>2</sub>S release

There are at least two mechanisms for the release of H<sub>2</sub>S. H<sub>2</sub>S is immediately released after its production by enzymes. Another possible mechanism is that the produced H<sub>2</sub>S is stored and released in response to a physiologic signal. Two forms of sulfur stores in cells have been identified (Ogasawara et al. 1993; Toohey 1989). Acidic conditions release H<sub>2</sub>S from acid-labile sulfur. Another form of storage is called bound sulfane sulfur, which releases H<sub>2</sub>S under the reducing conditions (Ogasawara et al. 1994). Acid-labile sulfur is mainly sulfur atoms in the iron-sulfur complexes, which play a critical role in a wide range of redox reactions in enzymes of the respiratory chain in mitochondria. The critical pH below which H<sub>2</sub>S is released from acid-labile sulfur is 5.4 (Ishigami et al. 2009). Because mitochondrial pH is between 7 and 8, which is higher than the critical pH, acid-labile sulfur may not release H<sub>2</sub>S under physiologic conditions.

The sulfur of H<sub>2</sub>S can be incorporated into proteins as bound sulfane sulfur, which is divalent sulfur bound only to the other sulfur, such as outer sulfur atoms of the persulfides and inner chain atoms of polysulfides. Cysteine is metabolized to produce sulfide that is incorporated into a pool of bound sulfane sulfur (Daniels and Stipanuk 1982). Exogenously applied free H<sub>2</sub>S is immediately absorbed in a sulfur store as bound sulfane sulfur, suggesting that enzymatically produced H<sub>2</sub>S may also be stored as bound sulfane sulfur (Ishigami et al. 2009). Cells expressing 3MST and CAT increase the levels of bound sulfane sulfur, while cells expressing a defective mutant of 3MST, which does not produce H<sub>2</sub>S, maintain the levels of bound sulfane sulfur at the control levels (Nagahara and Nishino 1996; Shibuya et al. 2009b). The intracellular levels of bound sulfane sulfur are dependent on the H<sub>2</sub>S producing activity of 3MST, and that H<sub>2</sub>S produced by 3MST is stored as bound sulfane sulfur in the cells (Fig. 1).



**Fig. 1** Bound sulfane sulfur is a store of H<sub>2</sub>S. H<sub>2</sub>S produced by enzymes functions as a signal molecule. It can also be stored as bound sulfane sulfur, which in turn may release H<sub>2</sub>S when cells receive certain physiological signals

In the presence of major cellular reducing substances, glutathione and cysteine at their physiologic concentrations, H<sub>2</sub>S is released from lysates of cultured neurons and astrocytes at pH 8.4 (Ishigami et al. 2009). Because the reducing activity of thiols is greater in alkaline conditions than at a neutral pH, H<sub>2</sub>S release is observed at pH higher than 8.4. Although the systemic pH approximately changes up to 0.2 in either alkalosis or acidosis, it is possible that pH can locally be changed more greatly. When neurons are excited, sodium ions enter and potassium ions exit from cells, resulting in high potassium concentrations in the extracellular environment. It depolarizes the membrane of surrounding astrocytes and activates their Na<sup>+</sup>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> cotransporters. Entrance of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> causes the alkalinization of the cells (Brookes and Turner 1994). Although H<sub>2</sub>S has not been detected, approximately 10% of the primary cultures of astrocytes responded well to 10 mM K<sup>+</sup> and shifted their intracellular pH to 8.4 (Ishigami et al. 2009).

### Neuromodulator, the signal function in the nervous cells

Since H<sub>2</sub>S is enzymatically produced from cysteine, H<sub>2</sub>S was predicted to have a physiological function in the brain (Abe and Kimura 1996). The studies of H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity showed that H<sub>2</sub>S suppressed synaptic potentials and modified K<sup>+</sup> channels (Kombian et al. 1993). Although H<sub>2</sub>S does not affect the excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) at low concentrations, it induces hippocampal LTP when simultaneously applied with a weak titanic stimulation, which alone does not induce LTP (Abe and Kimura 1996). LTP induced in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S shares common mechanisms with LTP induced by a regular electrical

stimulation. H<sub>2</sub>S activates LTP at active, but not quiescent, synapses, and may be involved in associative learning as defined by Hebb in which the synergistic effect is observed between two inputs simultaneously entered into the same neuron (Hebb 1949). Although H<sub>2</sub>S, like other gaseous messengers, NO and CO, facilitates the induction of LTP (O'Dell et al. 1991; Stevens and Wang 1993), the mechanism of action of H<sub>2</sub>S is different from those of NO and CO. NO and CO activate soluble guanylyl cyclase and increase intracellular cGMP (Verma et al. 1993), while H<sub>2</sub>S does not (Abe and Kimura 1996). It is well known that the activation of NMDA receptors is required for the induction of LTP. NO and CO, which function as retrograde neurotransmitters, do not require NMDA receptor activation (Zhuo et al. 1993), while H<sub>2</sub>S does not facilitate the LTP induction under the blockade of NMDA receptors (Abe and Kimura 1996). H<sub>2</sub>S facilitates the induction of LTP by enhancing the activity of NMDA receptors.

Disulfide bonds play a role in modulating the function of many proteins, including NMDA receptors (Aizenman et al. 1989). It is possible that H<sub>2</sub>S reduces disulfide bonds or makes bound sulfane sulfur in NMDA receptors. A high concentration of dithiothreitol (DTT) facilitates the induction of LTP, while even a low concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S further facilitates the induction of the greater amplitudes of LTP. Since H<sub>2</sub>S further facilitates the induction of LTP enhanced by DTT, mere reducing activity of H<sub>2</sub>S may not contribute to its facilitating effect on the induction of LTP. The formation of bound sulfane sulfur at thiols of NMDA receptors may be a possible mechanism.

### Glial mediator for the interaction with neurons

Although cells with no electrical changes have been thought to be glia, recent studies have shown that glia are electrically active cells, which have neurotransmitter receptors and respond to transmitters (Cornell-Bell et al. 1990). There are reciprocal interactions between neurons and glia. Neural activity evokes glial calcium waves, and glial calcium waves drive neuronal activity (Dani et al. 1992). The glia communicate with each other by propagating their signals as Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves (Parri et al. 2001). The Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves often appear to be initiated at sites of contact with neurons, suggesting that the glial Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves are initiated by neuronal excitation (Charles 1994).

Astrocytes, a type of glia, respond to a neurotransmitter released from neurons. In neurons, H<sub>2</sub>S shows modulatory function by enhancing the activity of NMDA receptors activated by a neurotransmitter, glutamate (Abe and Kimura 1996). In astrocytes, H<sub>2</sub>S elicits direct activation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx (Nagai et al. 2004). Because astrocytes elicit intercellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves by electrical stimulation of nearby

neurons as well as by the activation of neurons by NMDA, it has been suggested that astrocytes respond directly to a neurotransmitter released from neurons (Dani et al. 1992; Haydon 2001). NMDA induces  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in astrocytes only in the presence of neurons, and TTX suppresses the induction, suggesting that neuronal excitation is required to release  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Nagai et al. 2004). Neuronal excitation induces  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in astrocytes, which are propagated to neighboring astrocytes and reach nearby synapse and may modulate its activity.

Although the sensitive molecule or receptors for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in astrocytes has not been identified, considering the facts that responses to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  were suppressed by  $\text{La}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Gd}^{3+}$  and ruthenium red, which are known as blockers of voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels or TRP channels, TRP channels may mediate the responses to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Nagai et al. 2004). Contraction of the detrusor muscle is regulated by capsaicin-sensitive primary afferent neurons in the urinary bladder. Contraction induced by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is suppressed by unselective TRP channel blocker, ruthenium red, suggesting that TRP channels may be involved in the responses to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Patacchini et al. 2005). The release of a neuropeptide and contraction induced by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the airways are significantly attenuated by a TRPV1 channel blocker, capsazepine. TRPV1 channels may mediate contraction induced by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . The other example that supports TRP channels as a group of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -sensitive molecules or receptors is that CHO cells expressing TRPA1 channels respond to NaHS (Streng et al. 2008).

### Smooth muscle relaxant

The production of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  by the thoracic aorta, portal vein and the ileum was suppressed by CSE inhibitors, and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  relaxes these tissues (Hosoki et al. 1997). Relaxation occurs mostly by opening ATP-dependent  $\text{K}^+$  channels in a non-ATP-associated manner (Zhao et al. 2001). Deficiency of CSE causes hypertension in mice, suggesting that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is a physiologic vascular smooth muscle relaxant and may regulate blood pressure (Yang et al. 2008). Smooth muscle of the other tissue that was recently demonstrated to be regulated by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is the corpus cavernosum smooth muscle (di Villa Bianca et al. 2009). Both CBS and CSE are expressed in human penile tissue, and homogenates of the tissue produce  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . Exogenously applied  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and cysteine cause a concentration-dependent relaxation of strips of human corpus cavernosum. Cysteine-induced relaxation is suppressed by a CBS inhibitor, aminooxyacetate. In rats,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and cysteine promote penile erection, and the response to cysteine is blocked by a CSE inhibitor, propargylglycine. A functional cysteine/ $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  pathway may be involved in mediating penile erection in humans and other mammals.

Although the relaxation effect of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  alone is weak, there is a synergy between NO and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  on vascular smooth muscle relaxation (Hosoki et al. 1997). A similar synergistic effect between  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO was observed in the inhibition of the twitch responses of the ileum to electrical stimulation (Teague et al. 2002). In addition to the synergistic effect of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  with NO, CSE activity is also enhanced by NO. CSE contains 12 cysteine residues that are potential targets for *S*-nitrosation, which may enhance the activity of CSE (Koenitzer et al. 2007).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -induced vasorelaxation was partially attenuated either by removal of the endothelium, by blockade of NO synthase or by the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent  $\text{K}^+$  channel blockers, suggesting that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  might stimulate endothelial cells to release certain factors that facilitate the relaxation of smooth muscle (Zhao and Wang 2002). This observation also supports the finding that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  enhances relaxation activity of NO.

Oxygen modulates the sensitivity of vessels to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -induced relaxation.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  relaxes vessels under physiological  $\text{O}_2$  conditions (Koenitzer et al. 2007) and causes contraction of aortic smooth muscle at high  $\text{O}_2$  levels, while  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  induces rapid relaxation at lower physiological  $\text{O}_2$  levels. Peripheral vessels with a smaller diameter and wall thickness have greater proportion of smooth muscle cells than collagen compared with the aorta and higher rate of  $\text{O}_2$  consumption. However, the levels of  $\text{O}_2$  in periphery are lower. Peripheral arteries normally operate at lower  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations than the aorta, and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  efficiently relaxes arteries under low  $\text{O}_2$  conditions. *S*-nitrosothiols in vascular tissue caused by liberated NO may also contribute to vessel tone (Koenitzer et al. 2007).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  catalyzes the release of NO from *S*-nitrosoglutathione in an  $\text{O}_2$ -dependent manner (Koenitzer et al. 2007). This observation further supports the interaction between  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO.

In contrast to these observations,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  has been reported to suppress the activity of NO to relax smooth muscle. For example,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  may induce vascular constriction by scavenging endothelial NO and increase the mean arterial pressure in rats (Ali et al. 2006). Pretreatment with  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  inhibits the relaxation of aortic tissues induced by SNP (Zhao and Wang 2002).

### A candidate of EDRFs

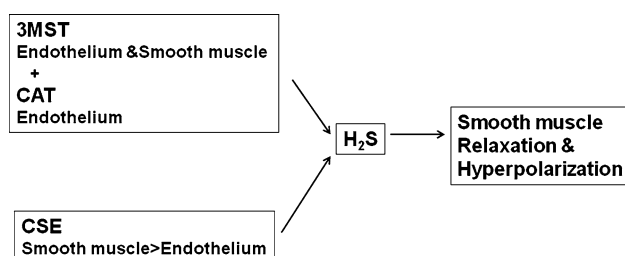
Since the relaxation effect of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  on vascular smooth muscle was not affected or slightly enhanced in the presence of endothelium, it was thought that exogenously applied  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  might stimulate the endothelium to release EDRF or EDHF and interact with them (Hosoki et al. 1997; Zhao et al. 2001). Because  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  still significantly relaxes vascular tissues after endothelium removal, the contribution of endothelium to the relaxation effect of exogenously

applied H<sub>2</sub>S must be low (Hosoki et al. 1997; Zhao and Wang 2002).

The possibility that EDRF is not identical to NO has been raised based on the following observations. NO relaxed nonvascular smooth muscles, but EDRF released from cultured endothelial cells did not (Shikano et al. 1988). The activity of EDRF is lost on passage over anionic exchange resins, but that of NO is not. In addition, EDRF hyperpolarizes smooth muscle, but NO does not have such an effect. These observations suggest that EDRF consists of more than one component. One of components, which could cause hyperpolarizing of the membrane of the smooth muscle, is designated as EDHF (Chen et al. 1988). Although H<sub>2</sub>S has properties similar to those of EDRF (its major producing enzyme CSE is localized to the smooth muscle), it has not been thought to be a component of EDRF (Hosoki et al. 1997; Zhao et al. 2001). Although species were different, it was recently reported that CSE was found in endothelial cells of mice, bovine and humans (Yang et al. 2008). Western blot analysis and immunohistochemistry in rats show that 3MST and CAT, which we recently demonstrated as H<sub>2</sub>S producing enzymes in the brain, are localized to the vascular endothelium (Shibuya et al. 2009a, b). Lysates of endothelial cells produce H<sub>2</sub>S from 3MP as a substrate and also from cysteine in the presence of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate. Since H<sub>2</sub>S production in endothelium is highly dependent on  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate, 3MST along with CAT rather than CSE may be a major enzyme that produces H<sub>2</sub>S in the endothelium at least in rats. H<sub>2</sub>S is a candidate for a component of EDRFs (Shibuya et al. 2009a) (Fig. 2).

### Neuroprotectant, the cytoprotective function in the nervous cells

Cells can be rescued from oxidative stress by mechanisms that are either dependent on or independent of glutathione metabolism. Vitamine E protects cells from oxidative



**Fig. 2** H<sub>2</sub>S is a candidate of EDRFs. It can be produced by 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3MST) along with cysteine aminotransferase (CAT) or cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE) localized to the vascular endothelium. H<sub>2</sub>S relaxes smooth muscle and hyperpolarizes its membrane

glutamate toxicity by acting directly as an antioxidant even when the intracellular glutathione levels are decreased (Murphy et al. 1989). In contrast, dihydroxyphenylglycine, an agonist of group 1 metabotropic glutamate receptors, protects neurons by up-regulating glutathione (Sagara and Schubert 1998). Extracellular H<sub>2</sub>S protects cells from oxidative stress by enhancing the production of glutathione, and H<sub>2</sub>S produced by 3MST and CAT may suppress oxidative stress in mitochondria (Kimura et al. 2010; Kimura and Kimura 2004).

There are two forms of glutamate toxicity: ionotropic receptor-initiated excitotoxicity and non-receptor mediated oxidative glutamate toxicity (Choi 1988; Murphy et al. 1989). Oxidative glutamate toxicity is a well-studied programmed cell death pathway that is independent of ionotropic glutamate receptors (Murphy et al. 1989). It has been observed in primary cultures of neuronal cells (Kimura and Kimura 2004), neuronal cell lines (Kimura et al. 2006; Murphy et al. 1989) and brain slices (Vornov and Coyle 1991).

Sulfur-containing substances, dimethylsulphonioipionate (DMSP) and its enzymatic cleavage product dimethylsulphide (DMS), have recently been identified as endogenous scavengers for hydroxyl radicals and other reactive oxygen species in marine algae (Sunda et al. 2002). H<sub>2</sub>S, a reducing agent that readily reacts with hydrogen peroxide, may suppress reactive oxygen species (Devai and Delaune 2002). H<sub>2</sub>S-producing enzymes 3MST and CAT are mainly localized to the mitochondria, which are a major source of oxidative stress and play a key role in cell death pathways (Shibuya et al. 2009b). Most of cell death signals may converge on the mitochondria (Murphy and Steenbergen 2007). Perturbation of the mitochondrial function causes the release of apoptogenic factors such as cytochrome C into the cytosol and ultimately results in cell death. Mitochondrial dysfunction caused by oxidative stress leads to numerous neurodegenerative diseases (Lin and Beal 2006). Neuronal cells expressing 3MST and CAT show significant resistance against oxidative glutamate toxicity (Kimura et al. 2010), suggesting that H<sub>2</sub>S produced by 3MST along with CAT can scavenge reactive oxygen species in mitochondria and protect cells from oxidative stress.

H<sub>2</sub>S increases the levels of glutathione, which is decreased under oxidative stress caused by glutamate (Kimura and Kimura 2004). The gradient of glutamate drives cystine import by cystine/glutamate antiporter that can be impaired under conditions where extracellular glutamate concentrations are increased (Bannai and Kitamura 1980). Elevated extracellular glutamate inhibits the import of cystine that is a substrate for the production of glutathione. H<sub>2</sub>S enhances the activity of cystine/glutamate antiporter to increase the levels of cysteine, resulting in the

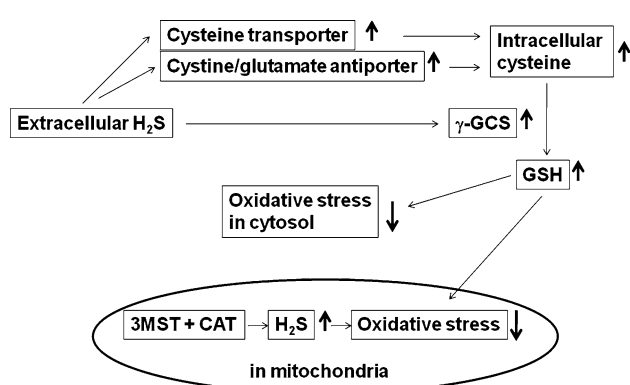


increased production of glutathione (Kimura and Kimura 2004).

In addition to the cystine transport, cysteine is also efficiently transported into cells by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . It has been thought that cysteine normally exists as its oxidized form, cystine, in the extracellular space. However, significant amounts of cysteine (approximately  $20\text{ }\mu\text{M}$ ) were measured in plasma and blood (Richie and Lang 1987).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  produced in the cells can be released into the extracellular space and reduces cystine to cysteine that can readily be imported into cells by cysteine transporters and used for glutathione production (Kimura et al. 2010; Mathai et al. 2009).

Glutathione is produced through sequential metabolism by two enzymes,  $\gamma$ -glutamyl cysteine synthetase ( $\gamma$ -GCS) and glutathione synthetase (GS).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  enhances the activity of  $\gamma$ -GCS and increases the levels of  $\gamma$ -glutamyl cysteine, but it has no effect on GS (Kimura and Kimura 2004) (Fig. 3). The levels of  $\gamma$ -GCS mRNA or protein are not changed in cells exposed to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and the activity of  $\gamma$ -GCS in brain homogenates is not affected in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Kimura et al. 2010). These observations indicate that the enhancement of  $\gamma$ -GCS activity by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is caused by neither transcriptional regulation nor the direct contact of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  with  $\gamma$ -GCS. Since the activity of  $\gamma$ -GCS is enhanced only when cells are exposed to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , it may activate some receptors on the cell surface to initiate an intracellular signal that may enhance the activity of the enzyme.

In addition to the protection from oxidative glutamate toxicity,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  protects cells from broader oxidative stress including that caused by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Kimura et al. 2010). Another example of protection from cell injury is that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  suppresses cell death induced by rotenone, a commonly used toxin to establish Parkinson's disease models by



**Fig. 3**  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is a neuroprotectant. It increases the levels of glutathione (GSH) by enhancing the activity of cystine/glutamate antiporter, cysteine transporter and  $\gamma$ -glutamyl cysteine synthetase ( $\gamma$ -GCS).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  produced by 3MST along with CAT suppresses oxidative stress in mitochondria

stabilizing mitochondrial membrane potential (Hu et al. 2009).

$\text{H}_2\text{S}$  protects fetal brains by reinstating GSH levels decreased by oxidative stress caused by ischemia–reperfusion of maternal–fetal blood supply (Kimura et al. 2010). All the fetal brains 24 h after reperfusion from the ischemia were macerated, and the GSH levels in the fetal brains were severely decreased to 24% of the control. In contrast, brains of only one-fourth of fetuses were macerated by a treatment of NaHS prior to the ischemia–reperfusion. Although the GSH levels of macerated brains even with an NaHS application before ischemia–reperfusion were decreased to 36% of that of the control, those of non-macerated brains were maintained at approximately 90% of that of the control. These in vivo data support the in vitro results that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  protects brains by reinstating the GSH levels decreased by oxidative stress (Kimura et al. 2010).

In addition to mechanisms of suppressing oxidative stress in mitochondria and increasing glutathione levels,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  also protects cells by stabilizing membrane potentials (Kimura et al. 2006).  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels are involved in protection against ischemia and excitotoxicity (Heurteaux et al. 1993). A  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channel opener, pinacidil, suppresses glutamate toxicity, and the protection is increased by the simultaneous application of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Kimura et al. 2006). Because a blocker selective to mitochondrial  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels, 5-hydroxydecanate, does not modulate protection by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels localized to plasma membrane, but not those to mitochondria, may mediate  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -induced neuroprotection.

CFTR  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels and a component of  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels belong to the ATP-binding cassette superfamily, and both channels share significant sequence homologies (Higgins 1995). The  $\text{Cl}^-$  channel blockers suppress protection by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and an opener of  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels efficiently suppresses glutamate toxicity (Kimura et al. 2006). CFTR  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels are also involved in protection by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  against oxidative stress with the same mechanism as with  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels.

### Cardioprotectant, the cytoprotective function in the cardiovascular cells

As  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  protects neurons from oxidative stress (Kimura and Kimura 2004), it protects cardiac muscle from ischemic injury. Exogenously applied  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  decreases the myocardial necrosis induced by isoproterenol and the rate of mortality (Geng et al. 2004). It also attenuated the isoproterenol-induced decrease in myocardial contractility. NaHS decreased the size of infarction induced by left coronary artery ligation and the protection was abolished by  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channel blockers (Johansen et al. 2006). The activation of

K<sub>ATP</sub> as well as CFTR Cl channels protects neurons from oxidative stress by stabilizing membrane potential (Kimura et al. 2006), and the same mechanism may be also involved in the protection of the myocardium from ischemic injury. Episodes of sublethal ischemia make myocardium less sensitive to the subsequent more severe ischemic insult. Blockade of H<sub>2</sub>S production by propargylglycine, a CSE inhibitor, reduced the protective effect of ischemic preconditioning (Bian et al. 2006).

Application of H<sub>2</sub>S at the time of reperfusion limits infarct size and preserves left ventricular function (Elrod et al. 2007). Cardiac-specific transgenic mice with over-expression of CSE increased myocardial levels of H<sub>2</sub>S and have a reduction in infarct size after ischemia reperfusion injury. Histological analysis shows that the administration of H<sub>2</sub>S substantially decreased hemorrhage and necrosis as well as the number of leukocytes within the ischemic zone. H<sub>2</sub>S also decreased myocardial levels of interleukin-1 $\beta$  and leukocyte–endothelial cell interactions in vivo. Inhibition of leukocyte transmigration is one possible mechanism by which H<sub>2</sub>S restrains the extent of inflammation and limits the extent of myocardial infarction (Elrod et al. 2007). Another important function of H<sub>2</sub>S is the preservation of mitochondrial function. H<sub>2</sub>S reversibly decreased mitochondrial oxygen consumption in a dose-dependent manner. Mitochondria isolated from mice applied H<sub>2</sub>S at the time of reperfusion displayed preserved mitochondrial function, and mitochondrial swelling was decreased and matrix density increased in mice receiving H<sub>2</sub>S (Elrod et al. 2007).

## Conclusion

H<sub>2</sub>S is produced by three enzymes, CBS, CSE and 3MST. Although CSE has been reported to be regulated by calcium/calmodulin, the regulation of the activity of CBS and 3MST has not been understood well. H<sub>2</sub>S may function as a signal molecule immediately after release from the enzyme; it is also stored as bound sulfane sulfur, which may in turn release H<sub>2</sub>S when cells receive a certain physiological signals. Although the levels of free H<sub>2</sub>S were thought to be relatively high, it was recently clarified that free H<sub>2</sub>S is maintained at low levels in the basal conditions that may be necessary for cells to properly respond to H<sub>2</sub>S (Furne et al. 2008; Ishigami et al. 2009). The long exposure to relatively high concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S may cause desensitization of sensitive molecules or exert toxic effects.

H<sub>2</sub>S was initially found as a neuromodulator, which facilitated the induction of hippocampal LTP by enhancing NMDA-induced currents. The direct effect of H<sub>2</sub>S was found on astrocytes. H<sub>2</sub>S induces the influx of Ca<sup>2+</sup>, which propagates as calcium waves to the surrounding astrocytes.

There are reciprocal interactions between glial calcium waves and neuronal activity, and glial cells are integral modulatory elements in synaptic transmission. H<sub>2</sub>S may mediate the interaction and modulate synaptic activity.

H<sub>2</sub>S also functions as signal molecule in smooth muscle relaxation. It relaxes tissues consisting of smooth muscle, including the thoracic aorta. Since CSE was the only enzyme known to be expressed in smooth muscle, but not in endothelium of the thoracic aorta in rats, H<sub>2</sub>S has not been thought to be a component of EDRFs. However, recently 3MST and CAT were found to be localized to the endothelium and even CSE was reported to be in the endothelium of mice, humans and bovine. Based on these observations, it has been proposed that H<sub>2</sub>S is a candidate of EDRFs.

In addition to the function as a signal molecule, H<sub>2</sub>S also functions as a cytoprotectant in neurons and cardiac muscle. It increases the levels of glutathione and redistributes it to the mitochondria. H<sub>2</sub>S produced by 3MST and CAT, which localize to the mitochondria, also suppresses oxidative stress in mitochondria and preserves the function of this organelle. The application of H<sub>2</sub>S and the regulation of endogenous production may be of clinical benefit.

**Acknowledgments** This work was supported by a grant from the National Institute of Neuroscience.

## References

- Abe K, Kimura H (1996) The possible role of hydrogen sulfide as an endogenous neuromodulator. *J Neurosci* 16:1066–1071
- Aizenman E, Lipton SA, Loring RH (1989) Selective modulation of NMDA responses by reduction and oxidation. *Neuron* 2:1257–1263
- Ali MY, Ping CY, Mok YY, Ling L, Whiteman M, Bhatia M, Moore PK (2006) Regulation of vascular nitric oxide in vitro and in vivo; a new role for endogenous hydrogen sulphide? *Br J Pharmacol* 149:625–634
- Bannai S, Kitamura E (1980) Transport interaction of L-cystine and L-glutamate in human diploid fibroblasts in culture. *J Biol Chem* 255:2372–2376
- Bian JS, Yong QC, Pan TT, Feng ZN, Ali MY, Zhou S, Moore PK (2006) Role of hydrogen sulfide in the cardioprotection caused by ischemic preconditioning in the rat heart and cardiac myocytes. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 316:670–678
- Brookes N, Turner RJ (1994) K(+)-induced alkalinization in mouse cerebral astrocytes mediated by reversal of electrogenic Na(+)-HCO<sub>3</sub>- cotransport. *Am J Physiol* 267:C1633–C1640
- Charles AC (1994) Glia-neuron intercellular calcium signaling. *Dev Neurosci* 16:196–206
- Chen G, Suzuki H, Weston AH (1988) Acetylcholine releases endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor and EDRF from rat blood vessels. *Br J Pharmacol* 95:1165–1174
- Chen X, Jhee KH, Kruger WD (2004) Production of the neuromodulator H<sub>2</sub>S by cystathionine beta-synthase via the condensation of cysteine and homocysteine. *J Biol Chem* 279:52082–52086
- Chiku T, Padovani D, Zhu W, Singh S, Vitvitsky V, Banerjee R (2009) H<sub>2</sub>S biogenesis by human cystathionine gamma-lyase

- leads to the novel sulfur metabolites lanthionine and homolanthionine and is responsive to the grade of hyperhomocysteinemia. *J Biol Chem* 284:11601–11612
- Choi DW (1988) Glutamate neurotoxicity and diseases of the nervous system. *Neuron* 1:623–634
- Cooper AJ (1983) Biochemistry of sulfur-containing amino acids. *Annu Rev Biochem* 52:187–222
- Cornell-Bell AH, Finkbeiner SM, Cooper MS, Smith SJ (1990) Glutamate induces calcium waves in cultured astrocytes: long-range glial signaling. *Science* 247:470–473
- Dani JW, Chernjavsky A, Smith SJ (1992) Neuronal activity triggers calcium waves in hippocampal astrocyte networks. *Neuron* 8:429–440
- Daniels KM, Stipanuk MH (1982) The effect of dietary cysteine level on cysteine metabolism in rats. *J Nutr* 112:2130–2141
- Devai I, Delaune RD (2002) Effectiveness of selected chemicals for controlling emission of malodorous sulfur gases in sewage sludge. *Environ Technol* 23:319–329
- di Villa Bianca R, Sorrentino R, Maffia P, Mirone V, Imbimbo C, Fusco F, De Palma R, Ignarro LJ, Cirino G (2009) Hydrogen sulfide as a mediator of human corpus cavernosum smooth-muscle relaxation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106:4513–4518
- Diwakar L, Ravindranath V (2007) Inhibition of cystathionine-gamma-lyase leads to loss of glutathione and aggravation of mitochondrial dysfunction mediated by excitatory amino acid in the CNS. *Neurochem Int* 50:418–426
- Elrod JW, Calvert JW, Morrison J, Doeller JE, Kraus DW, Tao L, Jiao X, Scalia R, Kiss L, Szabo C et al (2007) Hydrogen sulfide attenuates myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury by preservation of mitochondrial function. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:15560–15565
- Enokido Y, Suzuki E, Iwasawa K, Namekata K, Okazawa H, Kimura H (2005) Cystathionine beta-synthase, a key enzyme for homocysteine metabolism, is preferentially expressed in the radial glia/astrocyte lineage of developing mouse CNS. *FASEB J* 19:1854–1856
- Frendo J, Wrobel M (1997) The activity of 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase in erythrocytes from patients with polycythemia vera. *Acta Biochim Pol* 44:771–773
- Furchgott RF, Zawadzki JV (1980) The obligatory role of endothelial cells in the relaxation of arterial smooth muscle by acetylcholine. *Nature* 288:373–376
- Furne J, Saeed A, Levitt MD (2008) Whole tissue hydrogen sulfide concentrations are orders of magnitude lower than presently accepted values. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 295:R1479–R1485
- Geng B, Chang L, Pan C, Qi Y, Zhao J, Pang Y, Du J, Tang C (2004) Endogenous hydrogen sulfide regulation of myocardial injury induced by isoproterenol. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 318:756–763
- Haydon PG (2001) Glia: listening and talking to the synapse. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2:185–193
- Hebb DO (1949) The organization of behavior. Wiley, New York
- Heurteaux C, Bertina V, Widmann C, Lazdunski M (1993) K<sup>+</sup> channel openers prevent global ischemia-induced expression of c-fos, c-jun, heat shock protein, and amyloid beta-protein precursor genes and neuronal death in rat hippocampus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 90:9431–9435
- Higgins CF (1995) The ABC of channel regulation. *Cell* 82:693–696
- Hosoki R, Matsuki N, Kimura H (1997) The possible role of hydrogen sulfide as an endogenous smooth muscle relaxant in synergy with nitric oxide. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 237:527–531
- Hu LF, Lu M, Wu ZY, Wong PT, Bian JS (2009) Hydrogen sulfide inhibits rotenone-induced apoptosis via preservation of mitochondrial function. *Mol Pharmacol* 75:27–34
- Ichinohe A, Kanaumi T, Takashima S, Enokido Y, Nagai Y, Kimura H (2005) Cystathionine beta-synthase is enriched in the brains of Down's patients. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 338:1547–1550
- Ishigami M, Hiraki K, Umemura K, Ogasawara Y, Ishii K, Kimura H (2009) A source of hydrogen sulfide and a mechanism of its release in the brain. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 11:205–214
- Ishii I, Akahoshi N, Yu XN, Kobayashi Y, Namekata K, Komaki G, Kimura H (2004) Murine cystathionine gamma-lyase: complete cDNA and genomic sequences, promoter activity, tissue distribution and developmental expression. *Biochem J* 381:113–123
- Johansen D, Ytrehus K, Baxter GF (2006) Exogenous hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) protects against regional myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury—evidence for a role of K ATP channels. *Basic Res Cardiol* 101:53–60
- Kaneko Y, Kimura Y, Kimura H, Niki I (2006) L-cysteine inhibits insulin release from the pancreatic beta-cell: possible involvement of metabolic production of hydrogen sulfide, a novel gasotransmitter. *Diabetes* 55:1391–1397
- Kimura Y, Kimura H (2004) Hydrogen sulfide protects neurons from oxidative stress. *FASEB J* 18:1165–1167
- Kimura Y, Dargusch R, Schubert D, Kimura H (2006) Hydrogen sulfide protects HT22 neuronal cells from oxidative stress. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 8:661–670
- Kimura Y, Goto Y, Kimura H (2010) Hydrogen sulfide increases glutathione production and suppresses oxidative stress in mitochondria. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 12:1–13
- Koenitzer JR, Isbell TS, Patel HD, Benavides GA, Dickinson DA, Patel RP, Darley-Usmar VM, Lancaster JR Jr, Doeller JE, Kraus DW (2007) Hydrogen sulfide mediates vasoactivity in an O<sub>2</sub>-dependent manner. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 292:H1953–H1960
- Kombian SB, Reiffenstein RJ, Colmers WF (1993) The actions of hydrogen sulfide on dorsal raphe serotonergic neurons in vitro. *J Neurophysiol* 70:81–96
- Kuo SM, Lea TC, Stipanuk MH (1983) Developmental pattern, tissue distribution, and subcellular distribution of cysteine: alpha-ketoglutarate aminotransferase and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase activities in the rat. *Biol Neonate* 43:23–32
- Lin MT, Beal MF (2006) Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature* 443:787–795
- Mathai JC, Missner A, Kugler P, Saparov SM, Zeidel ML, Lee JK, Pohl P (2009) No facilitator required for membrane transport of hydrogen sulfide. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106:16633–16638
- Murphy E, Steenbergen C (2007) Preconditioning: the mitochondrial connection. *Annu Rev Physiol* 69:51–67
- Murphy TH, Miyamoto M, Sastre A, Schnaar RL, Coyle JT (1989) Glutamate toxicity in a neuronal cell line involves inhibition of cystine transport leading to oxidative stress. *Neuron* 2:1547–1558
- Nagahara N, Nishino T (1996) Role of amino acid residues in the active site of rat liver mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase. CDNA cloning, overexpression, and site-directed mutagenesis. *J Biol Chem* 271:27395–27401
- Nagahara N, Ito T, Kitamura H, Nishino T (1998) Tissue and subcellular distribution of mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase in the rat: confocal laser fluorescence and immunoelectron microscopic studies combined with biochemical analysis. *Histochem Cell Biol* 110:243–250
- Nagai Y, Tsugane M, Oka J, Kimura H (2004) Hydrogen sulfide induces calcium waves in astrocytes. *FASEB J* 18:557–559
- O'Dell TJ, Hawkins RD, Kandel ER, Arancio O (1991) Tests of the roles of two diffusible substances in long-term potentiation: evidence for nitric oxide as a possible early retrograde messenger. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 88:11285–11289



- Ogasawara Y, Ishii K, Togawa T, Tanabe S (1993) Determination of bound sulfur in serum by gas dialysis/high-performance liquid chromatography. *Anal Biochem* 215:73–81
- Ogasawara Y, Isoda S, Tanabe S (1994) Tissue and subcellular distribution of bound and acid-labile sulfur, and the enzymic capacity for sulfide production in the rat. *Biol Pharm Bull* 17:1535–1542
- Parri HR, Gould TM, Crunelli V (2001) Spontaneous astrocytic Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillations in situ drive NMDAR-mediated neuronal excitation. *Nat Neurosci* 4:803–812
- Patacchini R, Santicioli P, Giuliani S, Maggi CA (2005) Pharmacological investigation of hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) contractile activity in rat detrusor muscle. *Eur J Pharmacol* 509:171–177
- Patel P, Vatish M, Heptinstall J, Wang R, Carson RJ (2009) The endogenous production of hydrogen sulphide in intrauterine tissues. *Reprod Biol Endocrinol* 7:10
- Richie JP Jr, Lang CA (1987) The determination of glutathione, cyst(e)ine, and other thiols and disulfides in biological samples using high-performance liquid chromatography with dual electrochemical detection. *Anal Biochem* 163:9–15
- Sagara Y, Schubert D (1998) The activation of metabotropic glutamate receptors protects nerve cells from oxidative stress. *J Neurosci* 18:6662–6671
- Shibuya N, Mikami Y, Kimura Y, Nagahara N, Kimura H (2009a) Vascular endothelium expresses 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase and produces hydrogen sulfide. *J Biochem* 146:623–626
- Shibuya N, Tanaka M, Yoshida M, Ogasawara Y, Togawa T, Ishii K, Kimura H (2009b) 3-Mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase produces hydrogen sulfide and bound sulfane sulfur in the brain. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 11:703–714
- Shikano K, Long CJ, Ohlstein EH, Berkowitz BA (1988) Comparative pharmacology of endothelium-derived relaxing factor and nitric oxide. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 247:873–881
- Singh S, Padovani D, Leslie RA, Chiku T, Banerjee R (2009) Relative contributions of cystathionine beta-synthase and gamma-cystathionase to H<sub>2</sub>S biogenesis via alternative trans-sulfuration reactions. *J Biol Chem* 284:22457–22466
- Stevens CF, Wang Y (1993) Reversal of long-term potentiation by inhibitors of haem oxygenase. *Nature* 364:147–149
- Stipanuk MH, Beck PW (1982) Characterization of the enzymic capacity for cysteine desulphhydration in liver and kidney of the rat. *Biochem J* 206:267–277
- Streng T, Axelsson HE, Hedlund P, Andersson DA, Jordt SE, Bevan S, Andersson KE, Hogestatt ED, Zygmunt PM (2008) Distribution and function of the hydrogen sulfide-sensitive TRPA1 ion channel in rat urinary bladder. *Eur Urol* 53:391–399
- Sunda W, Kieber DJ, Kiene RP, Huntsman S (2002) An antioxidant function for DMSP and DMS in marine algae. *Nature* 418:317–320
- Teague B, Asiedu S, Moore PK (2002) The smooth muscle relaxant effect of hydrogen sulphide in vitro: evidence for a physiological role to control intestinal contractility. *Br J Pharmacol* 137:139–145
- Toohy JI (1989) Sulphane sulphur in biological systems: a possible regulatory role. *Biochem J* 264:625–632
- Verma A, Hirsch DJ, Glatt CE, Ronnett GV, Snyder SH (1993) Carbon monoxide: a putative neural messenger. *Science* 259:381–384
- Vitvitsky V, Thomas M, Ghorpade A, Gendelman HE, Banerjee R (2006) A functional transsulfuration pathway in the brain links to glutathione homeostasis. *J Biol Chem* 281:35785–35793
- Vornov JJ, Coyle JT (1991) Glutamate neurotoxicity and the inhibition of protein synthesis in the hippocampal slice. *J Neurochem* 56:996–1006
- Yang G, Wu L, Jiang B, Yang W, Qi J, Cao K, Meng Q, Mustafa AK, Mu W, Zhang S et al (2008) H<sub>2</sub>S as a physiologic vasorelaxant: hypertension in mice with deletion of cystathionine gamma-lyase. *Science* 322:587–590
- Zhao W, Wang R (2002) H(2)S-induced vasorelaxation and underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 283:H474–H480
- Zhao W, Zhang J, Lu Y, Wang R (2001) The vasorelaxant effect of H(2)S as a novel endogenous gaseous K(ATP) channel opener. *EMBO J* 20:6008–6016
- Zhuo M, Small SA, Kandel ER, Hawkins RD (1993) Nitric oxide and carbon monoxide produce activity-dependent long-term synaptic enhancement in hippocampus. *Science* 260:1946–1950