



## HYDROGEN SULFIDE (H<sub>2</sub>S): THE NEW MEMBER OF GASOTRANSMITTER FAMILY

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*Recent studies indicate that apart from nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO), hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) is the third gaseous mediator in mammals. H<sub>2</sub>S is synthesized from L-cysteine by either cystathionine β-synthase (CBS) or cystathionine γ-lyase (CSE), vitamin B<sub>6</sub>-dependent enzymes also involved in homocysteine metabolism. H<sub>2</sub>S stimulates ATP-sensitive potassium channels (K<sub>ATP</sub>) in vascular smooth muscle cells, neurons, cardiomyocytes and pancreatic β-cells. H<sub>2</sub>S is involved in neurotransmission, regulation of vascular tone and blood pressure, regulates gastrointestinal motility and secretory function and inhibits insulin secretion. Deficiency of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S was observed in various models of arterial and pulmonary hypertension, gastric mucosal injury and liver cirrhosis. Exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S or its donors decrease blood pressure and reduce vascular hypertrophy in spontaneously hypertensive rats, inhibit neointima formation induced by arterial injury, ameliorate myocardial dysfunction associated with ischemia/reperfusion, and reduce gastric mucosal damage induced by anti-inflammatory drugs. On the other hand, excessive production of H<sub>2</sub>S may contribute to the pathogenesis of inflammatory diseases, septic shock, cerebral stroke and mental retardation in patients with Down syndrome, and reduction of its production may be of potential therapeutic value in these diseases. **Biomed Rev 2007; 18: 75-83.***

**Key words:** hydrogen sulfide, vascular tone, neurotransmission, arterial hypertension, atherosclerosis, inflammation

### INTRODUCTION

The long-lasting paradigm in biomedical sciences stated that all hormones, mediators and neurotransmitters are specialized organic molecules synthesized by specific enzyme systems. Therefore, it was a great surprise when endothelium-derived relaxing factor was identified as nitric oxide (NO) – a simple

inorganic molecule. Soon thereafter, the second inorganic gaseous compound, carbon monoxide (CO), was recognized as an endogenously produced mediator and neurotransmitter. CO, together with biliverdin, is a product of heme catabolism by heme oxygenase (HO). Recent studies indicate that another gas, hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), is also a physiological mediator

Received 2 November 2007, accepted 11 December 2007.

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in mammalian tissues. H<sub>2</sub>S is a water-soluble, colorless and flammable gas with a strong odor of rotten eggs, known for decades only as a toxic environmental pollutant. The main mechanism of its toxicity is a potent inhibition of mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase (1). That H<sub>2</sub>S may operate as an endogenous neurotransmitter was first suggested in 1996 by Abe and Kimura who described the enzymatic mechanism of H<sub>2</sub>S production in the brain, its biological effects at physiological concentrations, and its specific cellular targets (2). Now, H<sub>2</sub>S is increasingly recognized as a member of a growing family of “gasotransmitters”, together with its two “older brothers”, NO and CO.

Several comprehensive reviews about H<sub>2</sub>S have been published recently (3–6). Herein, I will briefly highlight only mainstream aspects of H<sub>2</sub>S research including new important findings published during the recent 12 months.

### CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF H<sub>2</sub>S, ITS SYNTHESIS AND METABOLISM

Under physiologically relevant conditions, i.e. in aqueous solutions and at pH 7.4, one third of H<sub>2</sub>S is undissociated and two thirds dissociate into H<sup>+</sup> and HS<sup>-</sup> (hydrosulfide ion). Sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS) is commonly used experimentally as a H<sub>2</sub>S donor since it dissociates into Na<sup>+</sup> and HS<sup>-</sup>; the latter than partially combines with H<sup>+</sup> to form H<sub>2</sub>S. H<sub>2</sub>S is lipophilic and freely permeates plasma membranes. H<sub>2</sub>S is detectable in serum and most tissues at a relatively high concentration (about 50 μM), and even three-fold higher concentrations are found in the brain.

H<sub>2</sub>S is synthesized from L-cysteine by either cystathionine β-synthase (CBS, EC 4.2.1.22) or cystathionine γ-lyase (CSE, EC 4.4.1.1), both being vitamin B<sub>6</sub>-dependent enzymes. CBS and CSE also act sequentially to form cysteine from homocysteine; the so-called transsulfuration pathway of homocysteine metabolism (7). CBS is the major H<sub>2</sub>S-generating enzyme in the nervous system, whereas CSE catalyzes H<sub>2</sub>S production in the cardiovascular system. In some tissues such as the liver and kidney, both enzymes are expressed in comparable amounts. In general, H<sub>2</sub>S production from cysteine by either CBS or CSE constitutes only a minor fraction of cysteine metabolism. Most cysteine is catabolized by cysteine oxidase with its thiol group being directly oxidized to sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), which is rapidly oxidized to sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) by sulfite oxidase (SO, EC 1.8.3.1). However, in some tissues such as renal tubules desulfhydration of cysteine to H<sub>2</sub>S accounts for up to 50% of cysteine metabolism (8).

Both CBS and CSE are regulated by various factors at both transcriptional and posttranslational levels (4). Interestingly, NO and CO are potent CBS inhibitors and it is suggested that CBS may be a major target for CO in the brain (9). In contrast, NO donors acutely stimulate CSE-dependent H<sub>2</sub>S generation in a cGMP-dependent manner in the rat aorta (10), and increases CSE mRNA and protein expression in the long run (11). H<sub>2</sub>S is rapidly oxidized to thiosulfate (SSO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) in mitochondria, but the mechanism of this reaction is unclear. Thiosulfate is further converted to sulfite by thiosulfate sulfurtransferase (TST, rhodanese, EC 2.8.1.1), and sulfite is then oxidized to sulfate by sulfite oxidase. The second pathway of H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism is its methylation by thiol S-methyltransferase (TSMT, EC 2.1.1.9) to methanethiol (CH<sub>3</sub>SH) and dimethylsulfide (CH<sub>3</sub>SCH<sub>3</sub>) (4). Finally, H<sub>2</sub>S may bind to methemoglobin to form sulfhemoglobin. Because hemoglobin may also bind NO and CO, it is a common “sink” for all three gasotransmitters.

Colonic mucosa is continuously exposed to high concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S produced by enteric bacteria, and is equipped with extraordinarily high amounts of TST and TSMT. Genotoxicity of H<sub>2</sub>S (12) and reduced expression of H<sub>2</sub>S-metabolizing enzymes in patients with colorectal cancer (13), suggesting that impaired H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism may contribute to the pathogenesis of this disease. In addition, colonic epithelial cells are able to use H<sub>2</sub>S as an electron donor for the mitochondrial respiratory chain (14). This is a first described example of mitochondrial oxidation of inorganic substrate in mammalian cells since previously only bacteria, worms and fish adapted to high H<sub>2</sub>S concentration were known to utilize sulfide as an electron donor.

### SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION MECHANISMS

The best characterized molecular targets stimulated by H<sub>2</sub>S are ATP-sensitive potassium channels (K<sub>ATP</sub>) composed of inwardly rectifying potassium channel Kir6.2 and tissue-specific isoforms of sulfonylurea receptor (SUR). K<sub>ATP</sub> are cellular energy sensors activated under conditions of ATP depletion such as hypoxia to drive potassium efflux from the cell. H<sub>2</sub>S also reacts with other molecular targets. As a strong reductant, H<sub>2</sub>S may protect protein sulfhydryl groups from oxidation, although until now little data support it as a mechanism of physiological effects of this gas. Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>S reacts with reactive oxygen and nitrogen species such as superoxide anion radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), peroxynitrite (ONOO<sup>-</sup>) and hypochlorite (ClO<sup>-</sup>), and thus protects cells from being damaged by these noxious molecules (15–18).

Activated neutrophils generate O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> which reacts with H<sub>2</sub>S to form sulfite – an important bactericidal compound which may also contribute to tissue damage in inflammatory states. Indeed, increased sulfite concentration is observed in patients with septic shock (19). H<sub>2</sub>S has also been demonstrated to stimulate heme oxygenase, to stimulate or inhibit inducible NO synthase, and to activate or suppress extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERK), however, it is unclear if these effects are primary or result from activation of other signaling pathways such as K<sub>ATP</sub> channels (4).

### H<sub>2</sub>S IN THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

Several effects of H<sub>2</sub>S in the nervous system have been described, suggesting that it may function as a neurotransmitter/neuromodulator. H<sub>2</sub>S facilitates hippocampal long-term potentiation, a synaptic model of learning and memory (2), at least in part by increasing the sensitivity of N-methyl D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors to their ligand, glutamate (20). In addition, H<sub>2</sub>S stimulates Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx to astrocytes (21) and neurons (22) from the extracellular space. Accumulating body of evidence suggests that H<sub>2</sub>S stimulates capsaicin-sensitive sensory nerves and evokes the release of tachykinins such as substance P and neurokinin-A. This effect is mediated by transient receptor potential vanilloid receptor-1 (TRPV-1) calcium channel (23), a nonselective cation channel which serves as a nonspecific receptor of sensory terminals for various noxious physical and chemical stimuli.

Abnormalities of H<sub>2</sub>S production have been implicated in certain nervous system diseases. Human CBS-encoding gene is located on chromosome 21 and, therefore, H<sub>2</sub>S is overproduced in the brain of patients with Down syndrome. Indeed, urinary excretion of thiosulfate is increased two-fold in patients with Down syndrome in comparison to healthy individuals (24). It is hypothesized that excess of H<sub>2</sub>S exerts a toxic effect on neurons through the inhibition of cytochrome c oxidase and/or overstimulation of NMDA receptors, and thus contributes to a progressive mental retardation in patients with 21 trisomy (25). Qu et al. (26) have observed that administration of NaHS or L-cysteine aggravates, whereas CBS or CSE inhibitors reduce the volume of brain infarct induced by cerebral artery occlusion. In addition, H<sub>2</sub>S concentration in the cerebral cortex increased in this model of stroke. These data suggest a detrimental effect of H<sub>2</sub>S in experimental stroke. Indeed, H<sub>2</sub>S may induce neuronal cell death by overactivating NMDA receptors (27).

However, H<sub>2</sub>S may also be protective for neurons under certain conditions, and thus its deficiency in the brain may

be detrimental. In particular, H<sub>2</sub>S protects neurons against neurotoxicity of glutamate independent of the stimulation of excitatory amino acid receptors. Overproduction of glutamate is observed in certain pathological conditions, such as seizures, brain ischemia, trauma, etc., and may damage neurons not only by activating specific membrane receptors but also in the receptor-independent manner referred to as “oxytosis”. Cystine is transported to the cell by the x<sub>c</sub><sup>-</sup> system (cystine/glutamate antiporter), which drives import of cystine coupled to export of glutamate. Extracellular glutamate inhibits this exchange, leading to intracellular cysteine deficiency. Since cysteine is a rate-limiting substrate for glutathione (GSH) synthesis, excess glutamate induces GSH depletion which renders the cell more sensitive to oxidative stress. NaHS increases intracellular GSH concentration in rat cortical neurons and protects these cells against ischemia or glutamate-induced death (28, 29). H<sub>2</sub>S may also protect neurons by scavenging reactive oxygen and/or nitrogen species (17, 18). Interestingly, H<sub>2</sub>S concentration in the brain of patients with Alzheimer disease is severely depressed in comparison to control individuals, which may contribute to cognitive impairment and progressive neuronal injury (30).

### METABOLIC EFFECTS OF H<sub>2</sub>S

Recently, it has been demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S inhaled at low concentrations induces a hibernation-like phenotype in mice, characterized by reduced metabolic rate, decrease in body temperature, heart and respiratory rates, most likely by inhibiting mitochondrial respiration (31). These data suggest that protective effect of H<sub>2</sub>S in some experimental models may result, at least partially, from reduced oxygen demand. Indeed, pretreatment with H<sub>2</sub>S improved survival of mice subsequently exposed to low oxygen tension (32). The similar protective effect was observed in a rat model of rapid lethal hemorrhage (3). In addition, H<sub>2</sub>S added to the incubation medium reduces injury of the donor rat heart used for transplantation (33). This metabolic effects may also contribute to increased life span of *Caenorhabditis elegans* exposed to low H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations (34). However, it is unclear if the analogous effect will be observed in large animals such as primates, who spend much less energy for thermoregulation (35).

### H<sub>2</sub>S IN THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM

Initial studies have unequivocally indicated that H<sub>2</sub>S has a hypotensive/vasodilating activity. Intravenously injected H<sub>2</sub>S induces a transient dose-dependent decrease in mean arterial pressure (11). *In vitro*, H<sub>2</sub>S and NaHS relax isolated rat arter-

ies and veins (36). In contrast to NO and CO, H<sub>2</sub>S does not stimulate soluble guanylate cyclase but activates K<sub>ATP</sub> channels in vascular smooth muscle cells, which results in hyperpolarization of plasma membrane, reduction of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx, and attenuation of the contractile response. Vasodilatory effect of H<sub>2</sub>S is abolished by K<sub>ATP</sub> channel antagonist, glibenclamide (11). Moreover, patch-clamp studies have demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S increases K<sub>ATP</sub>-dependent current by increasing channel's open probability, but has no effect on its conductance (37). Interestingly, CSE inhibitors reduce K<sub>ATP</sub> channel-dependent current indicating that endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S continuously stimulates the channel under baseline conditions. It seems that H<sub>2</sub>S activates K<sub>ATP</sub> channels directly and no intermediate signaling mechanism is involved, however, the specific molecular background of channel activation is not known.

Recent studies suggest that H<sub>2</sub>S has a more complex effect on vascular tone. First, O<sub>2</sub>-dependent effect on rat thoracic aorta was observed, i.e. H<sub>2</sub>S constricted it at high but relaxed at low O<sub>2</sub> concentration (38). Second, both *in vivo* (39) and *in vitro* (40) studies indicate that low H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations may induce vasoconstriction and blood pressure elevation by inactivating endothelial NO which combines with H<sub>2</sub>S to form inactive nitrosothiol (41). Finally, H<sub>2</sub>S directly inhibits endothelial NO synthase (42). Other effects of H<sub>2</sub>S in the cardiovascular system include augmentation of baroreceptor reflex (43), decrease in myocardial contractility (44), and stimulation of angiogenesis (45). H<sub>2</sub>S also inhibits angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) – a zinc-containing protein – by binding Zn<sup>2+</sup> cations (46).

Plasma H<sub>2</sub>S concentration as well as aortic CSE expression are lower in spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) than in control Wistar-Kyoto rats. In addition, chronic administration of NaHS lowers blood pressure in SHR but not in normotensive rats (47). The similar results were obtained in rats with experimental hypertension induced by chronic NO synthase blockade (48). Plasma H<sub>2</sub>S level is lower in patients with essential hypertension than in normotensive controls (49). Taken together, these data suggest that deficiency of H<sub>2</sub>S may contribute to the pathogenesis of arterial hypertension.

Both NO and CO produced in the arterial wall inhibit atherogenesis through their anti-inflammatory, antiplatelet, and antiproliferative activities. Therefore, the question arises if H<sub>2</sub>S is also involved in atherogenesis. Indeed, H<sub>2</sub>S exerts some effects potentially associated with suppressing atherogenesis. H<sub>2</sub>S inhibits proliferation (50) and induces apoptosis (51) of vascular smooth muscle cells, suppresses oxidative modifica-

tion of low-density lipoproteins (52), inhibits platelet aggregation (53), attenuates prooxidant effect of homocysteine (54), and may inhibit vascular inflammatory reactions, although the latter is controversial (see below). *In vivo*, NaHS attenuates vascular remodeling and inhibits neointima formation after balloon-induced injury of the rat carotid artery (55), and ameliorates experimentally-induced vascular calcifications (56). Further studies are required to elucidate if H<sub>2</sub>S production is impaired in human atherosclerosis. It should be noted that low CBS/CSE activity will promote not only H<sub>2</sub>S deficiency but also homocysteine excess, so low H<sub>2</sub>S may accompany at least some forms of hyperhomocystinemia. Dissecting the role of homocysteine vs. H<sub>2</sub>S deficiency in atherogenesis will be an important and demanding aspect of future research in this field.

Myocardial cells contain large amounts of K<sub>ATP</sub> channels consisting of Kir6.2 and a sulfonylurea receptor, SUR2A. Activators of K<sub>ATP</sub> channels have documented a protective effect in myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury (57). Several studies have demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S donors reduce myocardial damage and improve hemodynamic function in various models of ischemia-reoxygenation in isolated cardiomyocytes, isolated perfused heart, and in intact animals (58,59). Perfusion of isolated rat heart with H<sub>2</sub>S before ischemia prevented arrhythmias induced by the subsequent ischemia/reperfusion episode, and protected isolated cardiac myocytes against death induced by subsequent hypoxia (60). In addition, blockade of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S production reduced the protective effect of modest ischemia against deleterious effect of subsequent severe ischemia, suggesting that endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S is involved in the phenomenon of “ischemic preconditioning”.

Finally, H<sub>2</sub>S deficiency is observed in experimental pulmonary hypertension induced by hypobaric hypoxia (61) or by high pulmonary blood flow (62), and sodium hydrosulfide attenuates vascular remodeling and right ventricular hypertrophy as well as reduces pulmonary arterial pressure in these models (63,64).

## H<sub>2</sub>S AND INFLAMMATION

H<sub>2</sub>S seems to play a very complex role in the inflammatory reactions. Both pro- and anti-inflammatory effects of H<sub>2</sub>S have been described both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, depending on the experimental model and dose/concentration of this gasotransmitter (reviewed in 3,4,65). For example, H<sub>2</sub>S is overproduced in experimental models of septic shock and may contribute to hypotension, impaired myocardial contractility, and lung and

liver damage (66–68). Suppressing H<sub>2</sub>S production reduces inflammatory reaction and improves survival in these models. In addition, increased CSE expression/activity and H<sub>2</sub>S production are observed in experimental caerulein-induced pancreatitis (69). H<sub>2</sub>S may also induce “neurogenic inflammation”, especially in the airways, by activating TRPV1 in sensory nerve endings and increasing local release of substance P, neurokinin-A and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP). These mediators induce a series of inflammatory responses including vasodilation, extravasation of plasma proteins, edema, bronchoconstriction, mucus secretion and recruitment of inflammatory and immune cells (70,71). Plasma H<sub>2</sub>S concentration is increased by almost 50% in patients with stable chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease (COPD) in comparison to the control group (72). Interestingly, in patients with exacerbated COPD, H<sub>2</sub>S level is lower than in those with stable disease and is inversely correlated with pulmonary artery systolic pressure, suggesting that pulmonary hypertension *per se* has a deleterious effect on H<sub>2</sub>S production in humans. Finally, H<sub>2</sub>S concentration in exhaled breath is increased in patients with chronic pancreatitis (73).

### INSULIN SECRETION AND DIABETES MELLITUS

Apart from vascular smooth muscle cells and cardiomyocytes, K<sub>ATP</sub> channels are abundantly expressed in insulin-secreting pancreatic  $\beta$  cells. Pancreatic K<sub>ATP</sub> channels, consisting of Kir6.2 and SUR1, play an important role in the regulation of glucose-induced insulin secretion. Glucose increases intracellular ATP concentration leading to K<sub>ATP</sub> channel blockade, plasma membrane depolarization, Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx through the voltage-sensitive Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, and insulin release. Several studies have demonstrated that both exo- and endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S inhibits insulin release by activating K<sub>ATP</sub> channels in  $\beta$ -cells (74, 75). Moreover CBS expression and H<sub>2</sub>S production are increased in pancreas of rats with streptozotocin-induced diabetes, suggesting that excess of H<sub>2</sub>S may contribute to abnormal insulin secretion (76). H<sub>2</sub>S was not measured in diabetic humans, but plasma L-cysteine as well as the expression of CBS and CSE in various tissues are increased in patients with diabetes (77).

### H<sub>2</sub>S IN THE GASTROINTESTINAL SYSTEM

Both acetylsalicylic acid (ASA) and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) reduce CSE expression and H<sub>2</sub>S production in the gastric mucosa. NaHS attenuates gastric lesions induced in the rat by ASA or NSAIDs (78).

Serosal application of NaHS or L-cysteine stimulates luminal chloride secretion by guinea pig and human colonic tissues. This effect results from TRPV1-mediated stimulation of the enteric nervous system (79). Recently, Distrutti *et al* (80) have demonstrated that NaHS ameliorates visceral nociception evoked in the rat by colorectal distension. Fiorucci *et al* (81) have shown that H<sub>2</sub>S attenuates norepinephrine-induced vasoconstriction in the liver of healthy rat as well as in animals with experimental liver cirrhosis induced by bile duct ligation. Experimental cirrhosis is associated with reduced CSE expression, decreased H<sub>2</sub>S production by liver homogenates, and decrease in plasma H<sub>2</sub>S concentration (81). Deficiency of H<sub>2</sub>S may thus contribute to enhanced hepatic vascular resistance and to the development of portal hypertension.

### THERAPEUTIC IMPLICATIONS

According to the experimental studies mentioned above, elevating H<sub>2</sub>S may be beneficial in diseases such as arterial and pulmonary hypertension, atherosclerosis, myocardial infarction, gastrointestinal ulcer and some inflammatory diseases, whereas suppressing H<sub>2</sub>S production may be indicated in conditions such as septic shock, pancreatitis, cerebral stroke or diabetes. Although there are attempts to use gaseous NO and CO in some diseases such as pulmonary hypertension, H<sub>2</sub>S application via this route may be more difficult due to problems with precise control of concentration, low therapeutic index, manufacturing and formulation difficulties and, last but not least, a very unpleasant smell even at low concentrations. Such therapy may be considered only in acute states such as myocardial infarction. Most of problems with gaseous H<sub>2</sub>S will also emerge while trying to administer H<sub>2</sub>S solutions parenterally. NaHS, although widely used as a research tool, releases H<sub>2</sub>S quickly and is thus a short-lasting donor. In addition, rapid release of H<sub>2</sub>S may cause acute changes in blood pressure. Ideal H<sub>2</sub>S donors, from therapeutic point of view, should release H<sub>2</sub>S slowly in moderate amounts. Such compounds are, unfortunately, still not available. Recently, two H<sub>2</sub>S-releasing derivatives of currently used drugs were synthesized: mesalamine derivative, ATB-429, and S-diclofenac. They differ from their parent compounds in that they contain a H<sub>2</sub>S-releasing moiety, and initial results suggest that this augments their antiinflammatory properties while reducing deleterious effects on the gastrointestinal system (82). The other possible approach is pharmaco- or gene therapy aimed to increase CBS/CSE expression. Interestingly, biologically active garlic component, S-allylcysteine, is a H<sub>2</sub>S precursor *in*

*vivo*, and H<sub>2</sub>S seems to drive its beneficial effects on vascular tone on myocardial ischemic insults (83,84).

Therapeutic approach based on suppressing H<sub>2</sub>S-generating enzymes is a matter of future. Currently used CSE and CBS inhibitors are unsuitable for pharmacotherapy and non ideal even for research. First, they are not completely specific and inhibit also other vitamin B<sub>6</sub>-dependent enzymes. Second, the most commonly used CSE inhibitor, propargylglycine, is a lead-containing compound and may be toxic after long-term administration. Finally, most inhibitors have a very limited ability to permeate plasma membranes. However, even completely specific CBS or CSE inhibitors will not only reduce H<sub>2</sub>S level but also impair homocysteine metabolism, which may be unbeneficial in certain circumstances. Thus, their administration may be considered only for a short time.

ASA and NSAIDs have an inhibitory effect on the CSE-H<sub>2</sub>S pathway in gastrointestinal mucosa (78), which may contribute to mucosal injury induced by these drugs but, on the other hand, may be involved in their antineoplastic effect of these medications in the gastrointestinal tract. NSAIDs reduce CSE expression also in renal epithelial cells, and NaHS exerts a protective effect against NSAIDs-induced injury in these cells (78). These data are intriguing in view of high expression of H<sub>2</sub>S-producing enzymes in the kidney and the well-known nephrotoxic effect of NSAIDs. Because K<sub>ATP</sub> channels mediate many effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, sulfonylurea derivatives widely used in the treatment of type 2 diabetes may interfere with the effects of this gasotransmitter by blocking K<sub>ATP</sub> channels outside the pancreas. In this context, it should be noted that some sulfonylurea derivatives have adverse effects in experimental myocardial ischemia and increase the amount of cardiovascular events in clinical trials (85). Thus, unbeneficial modulation of H<sub>2</sub>S signaling may also contribute to adverse effects of certain drugs. Finally, taking into account the potential role of H<sub>2</sub>S deficiency in arterial hypertension and atherosclerosis, the effect of drugs currently used in pharmacotherapy of cardiovascular diseases on H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism is of great interest.

## CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

H<sub>2</sub>S emerges as an important regulator of many physiological functions, and is also involved in the pathogenesis of certain diseases. However, our knowledge about its role in physiology and pathology is far from being complete. Some aspects of its activity are controversial and the results are often contradictory depending on the experimental conditions. Only few studies demonstrated alterations in H<sub>2</sub>S level in human diseases, and

in most cases it was done indirectly by measuring H<sub>2</sub>S-related compounds such as thiosulfate, sulfite or sulfhemoglobin rather than H<sub>2</sub>S itself. The most important issues for future research are: (i) improvement of methods used for measurement of H<sub>2</sub>S concentration in biological samples, (ii) more detailed characterization of specific molecular targets for this transmitter, (iii) unraveling the mechanisms which regulate H<sub>2</sub>S-producing and H<sub>2</sub>S-degrading enzymes, (iv) more systematic analysis of H<sub>2</sub>S system in human diseases, including prospective studies focused on its role as a cardiovascular risk factor, and (v) synthesis of H<sub>2</sub>S donors and CBS/CSE inhibitors more suitable for research and potentially for therapy than currently used compounds. Great progress made in this field in the last five years allows to hope that we will be able to answer many unresolved questions in the near future.

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