

1 **Oxygen tension, H₂S, and NO bioavailability: Is there an interaction?**

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Running Title: O₂ tension, H₂S, and NO bioavailability

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1 **Abstract**

2 Molecular oxygen (O₂) is an essential component for the survival and
3 development of many organisms. Mammalian and other vertebrate systems have
4 evolved to maintain O₂ homeostasis and respond to changes in O₂ concentrations.
5 Variation in O₂ levels leads to changes in molecular signaling and ultimately affects the
6 physiological functions of many organisms. Nitric oxide (NO) and hydrogen sulfide
7 (H₂S) are two gaseous cellular signaling molecules that play key roles in several
8 physiological functions involved in maintaining vascular homeostasis including
9 vasodilation, anti-inflammation, and vascular growth. Apart from the aforementioned
10 functions, NO and H₂S are believed to mediate hypoxic responses and serve as O₂
11 chemosensors in biological systems. In this literature review, we briefly discuss the
12 roles of NO and H₂S during hypoxia.

13

14 **Introduction**

15 Oxygen (O₂) is one of the key factors required for cellular respiration, growth,
16 and development of organisms. It serves as a modulator of various cellular signaling
17 and physiological functions. In contrast to ambient O₂ concentrations (21%), O₂ tension
18 in tissues ranges between 0 and 9%, directly relating to the metabolic demand of a
19 given cell type in a given organ (32, 55). The mechanism of cellular response and
20 adaptation to changing O₂ concentrations, such as hypoxia, is a subject of continuous
21 interest to basic scientists and medical professionals alike.

22 In cells, O₂ acts as the primary electron acceptor in multiple intracellular
23 biochemical reactions, including the generation of ATP by mitochondria for survival.
24 However, low O₂ conditions play an integral role in both pathophysiological and
25 physiological functions, such as embryonic development, including differentiation of
26 embryonic stem cells and progenitor cells (20). A low O₂ environment can result from
27 insufficient blood flow to the tissue leading to inadequate tissue oxygenation, tissue
28 hypoxia, and a reduction of mitochondrial respiration or oxidative metabolism (83).
29 Ultimately, chronic exposure of tissue to hypoxic conditions can lead to necrosis. Cells
30 respond to these ischemic conditions through stimulation of several molecules that
31 regulate various physiological functions including proliferation, migration, vascular
32 regulation, growth, and remodeling (51). Recently two more gases, nitric oxide (NO)
33 and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), have been studied as potential therapeutic due to a
34 complicated interplay each other and with O₂.

35 In ancient times Greeks, Egyptians, and Romans regularly bathed in natural
36 sulfur springs as treatments for disease (59). The levels of H₂S in these sulfur springs
37 vary based on the microbiota and O₂ content (74) and have been noted to have several
38 beneficial effects such as anti-inflammatory, anti-microbial and vasodilatory properties
39 (53). Between the well-documented historical reports and the modern day studies of
40 organosulfur compounds, such as garlic having health benefits like lowering blood
41 pressure and cholesterol, it is clear that H₂S can have cardiovascular benefits (5, 6).
42 The use of nitrite (a precursor to NO) has also been documented since ancient times,
43 first showing up as an additive in gunpowder in ancient China. Nitrite has also been

44 used as a food additive; its documented use as a cardiovascular therapeutic occurred
45 around 1791 when it was used as a treatment for angina (12).

46 NO and H₂S are two major gaseous signaling molecules that play pivotal roles in
47 the regulation of vascular tone and remodeling, anti-inflammation, and neurological
48 functions. NO is highly reactive and circulating pools of nitrite are typically reported to
49 demonstrate the bioavailability of nitric oxide, plasma levels of nitrite are in the high
50 nanomolar range (68). H₂S is found in blood and tissues at concentrations below 1 μM,
51 however there is contention in the field over this number with much higher values being
52 reported; the conflicting data reflects the lack of a standard measuring technique (39).
53 Recent literature reflects an increased study of the interactions and co-adducts of NO
54 and H₂S (45, 46). Although the individual roles these two gaseous molecules play in
55 both physiological and pathophysiological function is appreciated, consequences of
56 their interactions are less well known. Understanding the interactions between these
57 two molecules will provide a better understanding of their therapeutic effects. The
58 present review focuses primarily on the probable interactions between NO and H₂S on
59 pathophysiological functions under hypoxic conditions.

60 **Mitochondrial Respiration/Cytochrome C Oxidase:**

61 Cells generate ATP through the electron transport chain. The final enzyme in the
62 respiratory electron transport chain is cytochrome c oxidase (CcO) or Complex IV (91).
63 CcO is a large transmembrane protein complex that is found in bacteria and eukaryotic
64 mitochondria. It contains two heme centers, cytochrome a, cytochrome a₃, and two
65 copper centers (Cu_A and Cu_B). O₂ is reduced at cytochrome a₃ and one copper center

66 (Cu_B) in the cell, this is the interaction we focus on for figure 1 as NO and H₂S both
67 interact with this reaction. CcO is found in its oxidized (active) form when O₂ is in
68 sufficient supply (figure 1 panel A), but is found mainly in the reduced form as O₂
69 becomes scarce (91). When CcO is in its reduced state O₂ binding is decreased, yet
70 NO binds to heme in its ferrous state (Fe²⁺). However, when CcO is in its oxidized form,
71 O₂ is bound to the heme while NO binds one of the two copper centers. Both of these
72 binding modifications are reversible. Interestingly, binding of NO to the oxidized CcO
73 results in oxidation of NO to nitrite. As O₂ concentrations decrease, NO is no longer
74 bound to the oxidized CcO and thus is no longer converted to nitrite. The available NO
75 molecules compete with the O₂ molecules, ultimately inhibiting CcO activity (figure 1
76 panel B). A protective mechanism of NO is then engaged and soluble guanylate
77 cyclase is activated, leading to vasodilation, thereby enhancing O₂ delivery through
78 increased bulk blood flow in an effort to combat the NO competition (91).

79 Mitochondrial interactions of H₂S are complex and poorly understood. H₂S can
80 act as both an inhibitor and an electron donor for CcO, depending on the
81 concentrations of O₂ and H₂S in the system (61). H₂S concentrations are low (≥10–
82 20nM) in normoxic concentrations, but are increased in hypoxic conditions. At low H₂S
83 concentrations, H₂S is oxidized by sulfide quinone reductase (SQR), which protects
84 CcO from inactivation (18, 30). However, hypoxia leads to increases in H₂S levels that
85 subsequently inhibit CcO (figure 1 panel D). This inhibition of CcO may result in the
86 generation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species as observed under hypoxic

87 conditions. In contrast to the competitive inhibition of CcO by the binding of NO and
88 O₂, the inhibition of CcO by H₂S is noncompetitive with O₂ (18, 30).

89 At low concentrations and normoxic conditions, H₂S can rapidly reduce Fe³⁺,
90 Cu²⁺, and cytochrome c, the biological reductant of CcO (17, 30). A recent study
91 correlating H₂S to the hibernation of brown bears, *Ursus arctos*, shows that alteration
92 of H₂S metabolism and intracellular GSH leads to aerobic metabolic suppression
93 during hibernation (76). Other recent studies have demonstrated that mitochondrial
94 inhibition may lead to a suspended animation-like state (9) with decreased O₂
95 consumption and metabolism. By exploiting this hypometabolic phenomenon,
96 protection from ischemic reperfusion injury could be provided (10, 31). The complex
97 interplay between O₂, NO and H₂S does not end with influencing of CcO; O₂
98 concentrations alone can directly influence the production of NO and H₂S as well.

99 **Effects of O₂ on H₂S production:**

100 H₂S can be generated endogenously through multiple pathways, including: L-
101 cysteine by pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP) dependent enzymes, cystathionine γ-lyase
102 (CSE), cystathionine β-synthase (CBS) and from 3-mercaptopyruvate by 3-
103 mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3-MST) with cysteine aminotransferase (CAT) (44).
104 These various biosynthetic mechanisms have previously been described thoroughly in
105 the literature. Interestingly, through direct and indirect interactions, O₂ influences the
106 production of H₂S and the aforementioned mechanisms. Previously it was reported
107 that the CBS enzyme has a regulatory heme cofactor that acts as a redox-dependent
108 gas sensor (36). In its ferrous form (Fe²⁺), the heme moiety of CBS can bind with

109 gaseous molecules such as CO and NO, leading to the inhibition of CBS catalytic
110 activity (36). However, in the presence of O₂ it can be converted from the ferrous to
111 ferric heme state (Fe³⁺), thereby leading to a recovery of CBS enzymatic activity (36).
112 Under hypoxic conditions the activity of CBS is increased through diminished Fe-CO
113 interactions; an apparent result of this hypoxia-induced activity of CBS is the inhibition
114 of the CO producing enzyme, hemoxygenase-2 (HO-2) (56).

115 The bioavailability of H₂S, whether in the context of steady state *in vivo*
116 concentrations or supplementation via exogenous administration, is dictated by O₂
117 concentrations. O₂ has an antagonistic effect on H₂S, leading to its oxidation (48) and
118 consequently attenuating its biological actions (85). The spontaneous reaction of H₂S
119 with O₂, while slow, can cause an appreciable decrease in H₂S concentrations; tissues
120 with relatively high O₂ concentrations may have less H₂S compared to tissues with
121 lower O₂ tensions (63). This has implications in pathological states of hypoxia such as
122 ischemia-reperfusion, where the availability and signaling effects of H₂S may be
123 augmented; various studies have reported that H₂S production is enhanced during
124 hypoxia and attenuated in the presence of O₂ (63, 97). Our group has previously
125 demonstrated that O₂ concentration affects sulfide stability and its measurements from
126 biological samples, apart from pH (79, 80). At a given pH of 9.5, the presence of 21%
127 O₂ decreases the stability of sulfide to an approximate level of 70%; at 1% O₂, sulfide
128 increases to >90% stability (80).

129

130 **Effects of O₂ on NOS and NO production:**

131 NO is an uncharged, small and membrane-permeable molecule that participates
132 in cellular events either by directly modifying proteins via S-nitrosylation or by
133 activating specific signaling pathways. The synthesis of cellular NO is enzyme driven
134 and requires L-arginine and O₂ as substrates. In addition, cofactors such as
135 tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄), flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), flavin mononucleotide
136 (FMN), and reducing equivalents donated by NADPH are essential for NO production.
137 NO is synthesized by the enzyme NO synthase (NOS) that exists in three isomeric
138 forms, namely endothelial NOS (eNOS), inducible NOS (iNOS), and neuronal NOS
139 (nNOS). Although the three isoforms generate NO, each enzyme maintains different
140 binding affinities for substrates and differential cell type-specific expressions (29). The
141 substrate L-arginine is hydroxylated enzymatically to N^ω-hydroxy-L-arginine, which
142 then converts into L-citrulline and NO in a process requiring two molecules of O₂ (92).
143 Each of the NOS enzymes are heme containing flavoproteins that produce NO in a
144 calcium-dependent manner.

145 The catalysis of NOS, leading to the biosynthesis of NO, depends on the
146 oxidation state of iron (Fe) in heme. Briefly, upon reduction of iron from its ferric state
147 (Fe³⁺) to its ferrous state (Fe²⁺), Fe²⁺ binds with O₂ to form a Fe²⁺-O₂ complex, which
148 then reacts with N^ω-hydroxy-L-arginine to generate Fe³⁺ and NO. However, some of the
149 NO formed by the reaction reacts with heme and forms a more stable Fe²⁺-NO
150 complex. The liberation of NO from the Fe²⁺-NO complex and the regeneration of Fe³⁺
151 heme in the first step of the reaction requires O₂ (84, 88, 93). Interestingly, the release
152 of NO is governed by the rate constant for the initial reaction of O₂ and Fe²⁺, the rate

153 constant for NO dissociation, and the rate constant for reduction of heme (88). Each of
154 the NOS isoforms have different K_mO_2 values; in terms of enzymatic activity, K_mO_2 of
155 NOS is the amount of O_2 that is required to drive NOS catalysis to half of its maximal
156 velocity (93). The isoform with the highest rate constant is nNOS at 350 μ M, followed
157 by iNOS with a value of 135 μ M (21), and eNOS with the lowest rate constant at 23 μ M.
158 The varying K_mO_2 values for the different NOS isoforms suggest that there is a
159 difference in NO production, dependent on the partial pressure of O_2 (29).

160 It is important to note that O_2 tension varies from tissue to tissue, resulting in
161 varying levels of NO production from each different NOS isoform. Based on their
162 respective K_mO_2 values, nNOS is the most sensitive and eNOS is the least sensitive to
163 changes in physiological O_2 tension levels (93). Using stop-flow experiments, Abu-Soud
164 et al. showed that the release of NO, trapped as Fe^{2+} -NO, through nNOS activity is
165 dependent on O_2 concentration; O_2 was demonstrated to be an important rate-limiting
166 factor in NO bioavailability (84).

167 As outlined above, the production of NO and H_2S is dependent on changes in
168 oxidative status and O_2 concentrations in a tissue or cell, an important factor to
169 consider in developing therapeutic treatment. Conditions that affect NO production
170 have also been shown to influence H_2S production; however, NO- H_2S interactions are
171 still poorly understood. Although research studying H_2S and NO interactions has
172 steadily increased in recent years, more studies must be conducted in order to identify
173 some of these complex interaction; a deeper understanding of the interactions

174 between the two gases would enable the scientific community to better explore
175 potential therapeutic applications of H₂S and NO.

176 From the literature it is clear that both NO and H₂S regulate various
177 pathophysiological conditions and are capable of influencing corresponding signaling
178 mechanisms that are related in this process. Additionally, O₂ concentrations play an
179 important role in production of NO and H₂S as discussed in the previous section. The
180 following sections will discuss the regulation and status of NO and H₂S under varied O₂
181 levels during transport of oxygen, vasoregulation, and in cardiovascular and cerebral
182 pathophysiology.

183

184 **Hemoglobin**

185 Hemoglobin (Hb) has a prominent role in the circulatory system, O₂ transport in
186 blood. The transport of O₂ by hemoglobin is tightly regulated and the loading and
187 unloading of O₂ is sensitive to pH, temperature, O₂ concentration, and several other
188 physical factors, including H₂S. H₂S binds to Hb in red blood cells to form
189 sulfhemoglobin, which decreases the affinity of hemoglobin for O₂ and thereby inhibits
190 O₂ transport (7, 15). A reduction in the O₂ transport capacity of Hb then sets off a chain
191 of reactions, adversely affecting electron flow and mitochondrial ATP formation as H₂S
192 and HS⁻ ligate the heme a₃ of CcO (62), which can then activate the K_{ATP} channels (16).
193 H₂S further affects hemoglobin under certain conditions, such as a significant decrease
194 in Hb saturation (arterial O₂ saturation) during hypoxia (86, 87) as shown by Stein et. al.

195 H₂S further decreased Hb saturation under hypoxic conditions, decreasing O₂ transport
196 capacity and thereby inducing a state of hypometabolism or suspended animation.

197 Reduction of the ferric (Fe³⁺) center to ferrous (Fe²⁺) in hemes appears to be a
198 common reaction for all heme proteins that generate the highly reactive HS⁻ molecule,
199 eventually producing protein persulfides or inorganic polysulfides (60). A recent study
200 by the Banerjee lab showed that Hb plays an interesting role in facilitating oxidation of
201 H₂S (94). In its ferric state, Hb in red blood cells (RBCs) catalyze the oxidation of H₂S,
202 which then produces thiosulfate and hydropolysulfides. This study also demonstrated
203 that H₂S produced in RBCs is generated via the 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase
204 (MST) pathway that facilitates the oxidation of H₂S in the presence of hemoglobin. The
205 methemoglobin-dependent sulfide oxidation cycle is completed by
206 NADPH/flavoprotein/methemoglobin reductase, which restores hemoglobin back to its
207 oxy-Hb state (94).

208 H₂S can also modify hemes in myoglobin and hemoglobin by reacting with the
209 oxyhemoglobin to generate sulfhemoglobin, a dangerous complex that disrupts O₂
210 loading in the blood (72). ‘Sulfhemoglobinemia’ is a medical condition (67) in which
211 heme is modified to form a sulfheme derivative (77). Sulfheme is likely irreversible and
212 impairs the O₂ binding capacity of the metal centers, leading to potentially lethal
213 cyanosis. On the other hand, reversible sulfide binding to Hb could be an area of
214 scientific interest as manipulating reversible sulfide binding could potentially regulate
215 the levels of free H₂S and maintain reserve pools in the circulation and decrease toxic
216 levels of sulfide. However, the role of hemoglobin–sulfide interactions and their kinetics

217 is still unclear. More studies focused on understanding heme-sulfide interaction and
218 sulfide oxidation under physiological conditions must be performed in order to facilitate
219 a more accurate understanding of the complex mechanisms that regulate O₂ transport.

220 Deoxygenated red blood cells are able to reduce nitrite to form NO, however
221 oxygenated red blood cells oxidize nitrite to nitrate (43). During this reaction
222 methemoglobin is formed. During periods of redox imbalance methemoglobin can also
223 be formed by direct oxidation of hemoglobin by NO (28). The ferrous center of heme is
224 oxidized to the ferric form and unable to bind oxygen during the formation of
225 methemoglobin. Figure 2 represents the anticipated oxygen hemoglobin dissociation
226 curve for a patient presenting with either mild methemoglobinemia or mild
227 sulfhemoglobinemia. Sulfhemoglobin is unable to carry oxygen however high levels of
228 sulfhemoglobin can be still be well tolerated due to the rightward shift (figure 2) of the
229 oxygen hemoglobin dissociation curve (promoting oxygen unloading for tissues) (3). In
230 contrast to sulfhemoglobin, methemoglobin causes a leftward shift (decreasing oxygen
231 release) of the oxygen hemoglobin dissociation curve (figure 2), high levels will result in
232 severe tissue oxygen deprivation (3).

233 The presence of an iron center in hemoglobin makes it an ideal candidate to
234 study H₂S/NO interactions. Furthermore, hemoglobin is extremely sensitive to shifting
235 O₂ concentrations in the blood milieu due to conditions such as ischemia, cellular
236 metabolic demand, and hypoxia. More studies on the interactions between hemoglobin
237 and the cellular signaling molecules NO and H₂S hold immense potential for creating a
238 better understanding of O₂ depletion-related pathologies, the applicable

239 cardioprotective properties of H₂S and NO, and novel therapeutic strategies. For
240 example, areas of blocked blood flow might benefit from delivery of extra H₂S and/or
241 NO to the location, stimulating vasodilation and increasing the amount of blood
242 delivered. This more effective delivery system could be utilized therapeutically.

243

244 **Vasoregulation**

245 The vasoregulatory effects of H₂S have been recently studied (33, 90). H₂S acts
246 as a hyperpolarizing factor on blood vessels via the regulation of K⁺ channel activity
247 and elevation of cGMP, a second messenger molecule that relaxes smooth muscle
248 cells and thereby increases blood flow (96). The effects of physiological O₂
249 concentrations and H₂S on vessel regulation and varied O₂ levels should also be
250 considered; reports indicate that H₂S induced vasorelaxation at physiological O₂ levels
251 is further potentiated at low O₂ conditions (43, 63).

252 However, with higher than normal O₂ levels, H₂S has the tendency to induce
253 vasoconstriction (43), which could be due to oxidation of sulfide to sulfite. Possible H₂S
254 interactions with NO and variations in nitrosothiols may also explain the differential
255 effects of H₂S (2, 19, 23). It was shown that nitrosothiol formation causes hypoxic
256 vasodilation, often mediated by red blood cells (19). However, a few studies report that
257 the formation of nitrosothiol may cause vasoconstriction (2). Future studies that focus
258 on H₂S - NO interactions with vasodilation should be performed in order to reconcile
259 such discrepancies in the literature. Further elucidation of interactions between

260 physiological regulators of blood pressure and vasodilation would open numerous
261 possibilities of therapeutic delivery and agents through H₂S - NO mechanisms.

262

263 **Cardiovascular disease and I/R injury:**

264 The formation of atherosclerotic plaques deprives the circulatory system of O₂,
265 leading to reduced tissue perfusion and ischemia. Progression of this condition leads
266 to severe vascular dysfunctions such as peripheral vascular disease (PVD), coronary
267 artery disease (CAD), and myocardial injury. Models of atherosclerosis and
268 cardiovascular dysfunction in the literature suggest that a decrease in bioavailable H₂S
269 is a consequence of reduced expression of the enzyme cystathionine-γ-lyase (CSE)
270 (52, 71, 98). Extensive studies have demonstrated the cytoprotective effects of H₂S
271 under ischemic reperfusion (I/R) injury in the heart (13, 14, 22, 42, 64, 66, 81, 82).
272 Sulfide-based therapies have been shown to ameliorate the metabolic changes that
273 contribute to cardiovascular disease and these protective effects have been
274 demonstrated in various animal species (13, 14, 22, 42, 64, 66, 81, 82).

275 H₂S therapy improves multiple cardiac functions such as collateral formation,
276 improved left ventricular (LV) pressures, suppression of leucocyte infiltration,
277 attenuation of fibroblast hyperplasia, and the preservation of mitochondrial O₂
278 consumption. In a myocardial infarction model using cardiac-specific CSE^{-/-} and CSE
279 overexpressed mice, Lefer and colleagues demonstrated that CSE interactions with
280 H₂S increase the survival of mice through reduced oxidative stress and enhanced

281 cardiac function (13, 22, 42). However, H₂S as a treatment for chronic and end stage
282 cardiovascular diseases requires more elaborate research.

283 In models of ischemia reperfusion, NO bioavailability is reduced due to many
284 factors, such as oxidation, which results in a poor prognosis. Investigators have shown
285 in cardiac ischemia reperfusion models that a healthy tissue phenotype can be
286 restored by supplementing NO prodrugs (38). In murine models of peripheral artery
287 disease, nitrite therapy augmented angiogenesis in a NO dependent manner (8, 40, 47,
288 68, 69). During myocardial ischemia reperfusion, eNOS derived-NO production is
289 important in the attenuation of neutrophil recruitment and decreased infarct sizes (35).

290 NO can be found in the circulation in many different forms and can change
291 forms at different sites in the body. In the plasma, the oxidation of NO forms nitrite
292 (NO₂⁻) ions and can undergo further oxidation to form nitrate (NO₃⁻) ions. NO also reacts
293 very rapidly with superoxide to form the potent peroxynitrite vasoconstrictor (ONOO⁻),
294 which is responsible for loss of NO bioavailability (78). The exact mechanisms of NO
295 and H₂S in cardiovascular disease and I/R injury are not completely known and further
296 investigation of the interactions between NO and H₂S in the context of O₂ is warranted.

297

298 **Cerebral I/R injury:**

299 Ischemic cerebrovascular disease is a serious health complication with high
300 morbidity. Multiple studies have demonstrated that severe neurological conditions,
301 such as stroke and Alzheimer's disease, are the result of a variety of vascular
302 abnormalities (26). Several factors, including impairment of neurovascular coupling and

303 blood-brain barrier leakage, are responsible for the neurodegeneration that may lead to
304 chronic cerebral ischemia, thereby causing cognitive decline and behavioral changes
305 (4, 70).

306 Abe and Kimura were the first to demonstrate the function of H₂S as a
307 neuromodulator, serving as a potential physiological signal regulator at low
308 concentrations and a toxic gas at high concentrations (1). Normal regulation of
309 neuronal and cerebrovascular functions is dependent on H₂S (41). The effect of H₂S on
310 the brain varies depending on its concentration and the extent of hypoxia/ischemia-
311 induced injuries. Levels of S-adenosylmethionine, a molecule made from ATP which
312 plays an integral role in anabolic reactions, are reduced in patients with Alzheimer's
313 disease, possibly due to reduced CBS activity and H₂S production (50,58). CBS is
314 linked to neurodegenerative diseases caused by genetic defects such as
315 Homocystinuria, Down Syndrome, and Huntington's Disease (11, 37). These
316 observations suggest that neuronal dysfunction is directly related to the abnormal
317 regulation of H₂S production.

318 A variety of protective effects of H₂S are mediated by endogenous and
319 exogenous concentrations of H₂S. H₂S may function as a neuromodulator by
320 enhancing the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor-mediated responses and
321 subsequent hippocampal long-term potentiation (LTP) (1). Studies demonstrate that
322 H₂S reduces infarct size, inflammation and apoptosis, as well as, improves neurological
323 function by reducing hippocampal damage in cerebral occlusion models (24, 49, 75,
324 99). Additional protective effects have also been demonstrated in the overexpression of

325 H₂S producing enzymes, such as CSE and CBS, which delay cerebral ischemic injury
326 and improve neurological function (27, 54). Production of H₂S by CSE causes post-
327 ischemic cerebral vasodilation and plays a significant role in early disruption of the
328 blood brain barrier following cerebral ischemia (34).

329 Several studies have demonstrated that an excess production of H₂S can lead
330 to severe cerebral damage. A study in a rat cerebral ischemia model showed that
331 increased CBS expression and corresponding H₂S levels resulted in a damaged cortex
332 region with an increased infarct volume. However, upon administration of CBS/CSE
333 inhibitors that reduced cortical H₂S production, a correlating reduction in infarct size
334 was observed (73). Similarly, in a global cerebral ischemia model, abnormally high
335 concentrations of H₂S treatments enhanced neuronal injury, while low concentrations
336 attenuated damage (75). This biphasic response should be further researched to
337 discover the precise role of H₂S in cerebral I/R disease and the corresponding
338 concentrations of H₂S during ischemic events.

339 Shortly following cerebral ischemia, typically caused by a stroke, eNOS releases
340 NO locally leading to vasodilation as a protective mechanism (57). However, in long-
341 term stroke-induced ischemia an overproduction of NO by nNOS and iNOS leads to
342 exacerbated injury (57). The biphasic nature of NO release has led to a variety of
343 therapeutic strategies during stroke-induced ischemia. The ideal time to administer
344 NO-releasing drugs has been determined to be during the initial or protective phase
345 (25), which would then ideally followed be by an inhibition of NO to prevent damage
346 during the second or detrimental phase.

347 In addition, both H₂S and NO have been found to have a biphasic relationship in
348 the brain. Early production of NO and low levels of H₂S are found to have a beneficial,
349 protective result, while late production (excess NO) and high levels of H₂S have been
350 found to be detrimental. While this provides an opportunity for the therapeutic delivery
351 of both of these gaseous molecules, possible interactions of H₂S and NO must be
352 taken into consideration while designing potential therapy. If H₂S and NO influence one
353 another either in production or in chemical interaction, therapeutic doses of one
354 without considering the effects of the other could result in a non-therapeutic outcome.

355 H₂S protection and recovery from an I/R mediated injury and oxidative stress is
356 a well-studied phenomenon. Several studies have been carried out using genetic or
357 pharmacological approaches in multiple organs such as the heart and brain to
358 elucidate the role of H₂S in I/R injury, oxidative stress, and apoptosis. However, the
359 mechanisms that mediate H₂S-induced protection, specifically via interactions with NO,
360 remain unknown and require further study.

361

362 **Conclusion**

363 Over the past decade, there have been several studies that demonstrate the
364 physiological effects of H₂S in mammalian systems. Therapeutic potential of H₂S has
365 been exploited for treating multiple defects including cardiovascular dysfunction,
366 inflammation, ischemia-reperfusion injury and shock (89, 95). There are many H₂S-
367 producing compounds that regulate various biological functions and likely interact with
368 NO (39). In this review we have discussed both the endogenous and exogenous effects

369 of H₂S on pathophysiological functions, focusing on the hypoxic/ischemic setting.
370 However, a comprehensive mechanism of H₂S-mediated effects and its interactions
371 with NO under varied O₂ conditions has yet to be studied. Research on the interactions
372 of NO and H₂S under varied O₂ conditions would prove immensely beneficial in
373 developing novel therapeutic strategies.

374

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378

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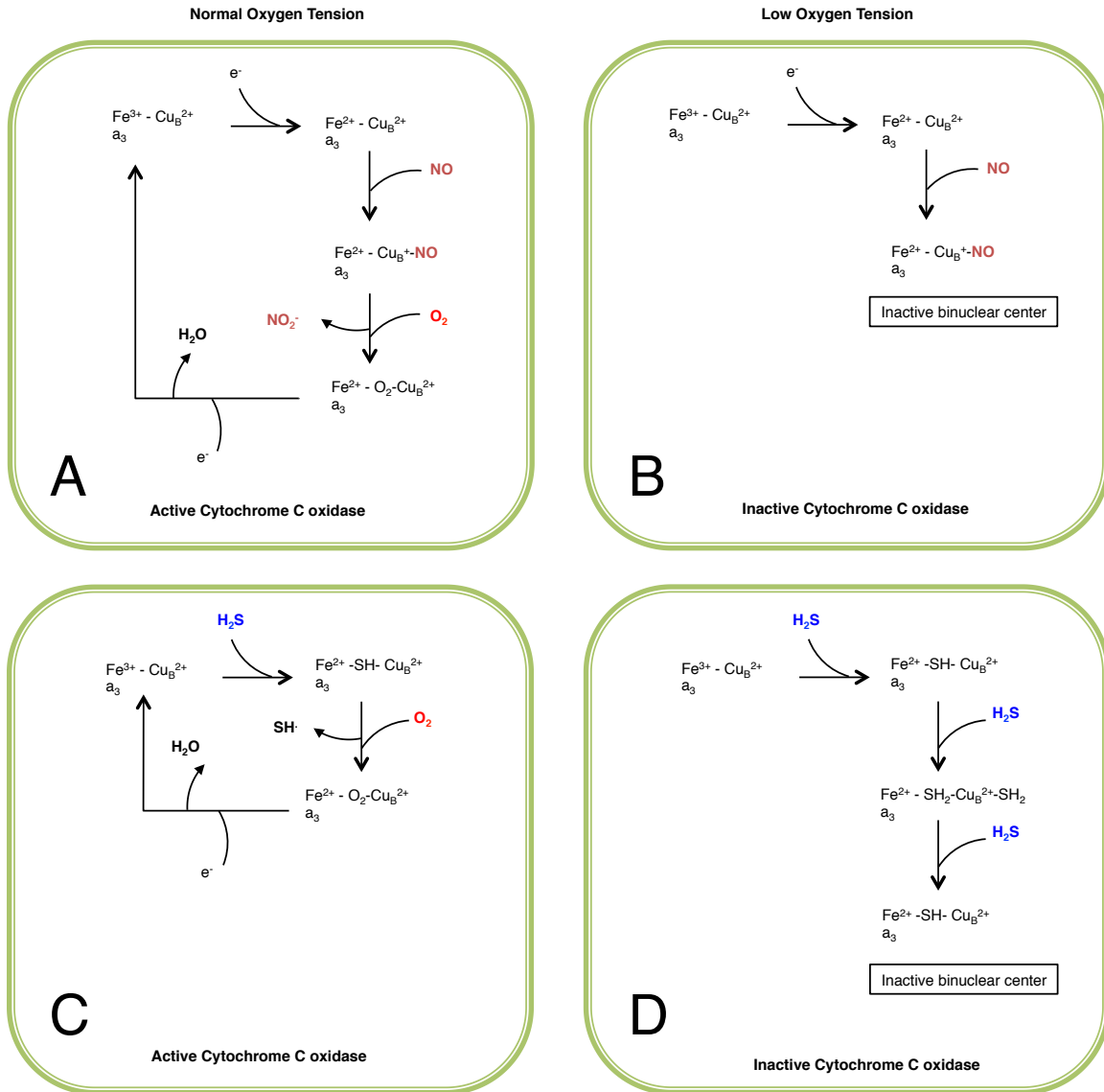


Figure 1: NO interaction with CcO under normoxic conditions (A), and low oxygen conditions (B). H₂S is shown reacting with CcO under normoxic (C), and hypoxic (D) conditions. NO, nitric oxide; H₂S, hydrogen sulfide; Fe, iron; Fe³⁺ (oxidized), Fe²⁺ (reduced); Cu, copper; e⁻, electron; SH, sulfhydryl group.

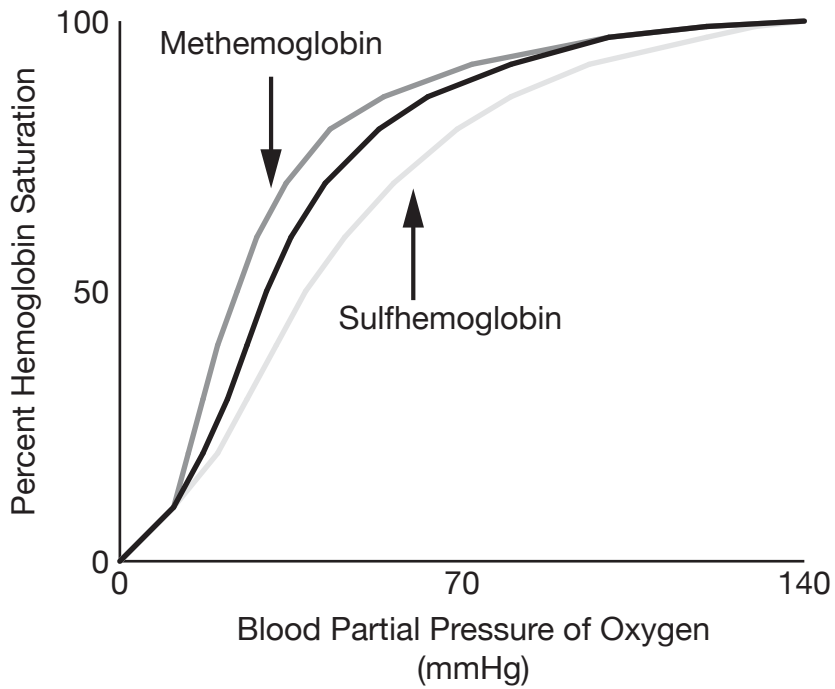


Figure 2: Hydrogen sulfide interaction with hemoglobin (sulfhemoglobin) causes a rightward shift in the oxyhemoglobin dissociation curve, however NO interaction with hemoglobin (methemoglobin) causes a leftward shift.