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## Original Contribution

## Hydrogen sulfide and nitric oxide metabolites in the blood of free-ranging brown bears and their potential roles in hibernation

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## ABSTRACT

During winter hibernation, brown bears (*Ursus arctos*) lie in dens for half a year without eating while their basal metabolism is largely suppressed. To understand the underlying mechanisms of metabolic depression in hibernation, we measured type and content of blood metabolites of two ubiquitous inhibitors of mitochondrial respiration, hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) and nitric oxide (NO), in winter-hibernating and summer-active free-ranging Scandinavian brown bears. We found that levels of sulfide metabolites were overall similar in summer-active and hibernating bears but their composition in the plasma differed significantly, with a decrease in bound sulfane sulfur in hibernation. High levels of unbound free sulfide correlated with high levels of cysteine (Cys) and with low levels of bound sulfane sulfur, indicating that during hibernation H<sub>2</sub>S, in addition to being formed enzymatically from the substrate Cys, may also be regenerated from its oxidation products, including thiosulfate and polysulfides. In the absence of any dietary intake, this shift in the mode of H<sub>2</sub>S synthesis would help preserve free Cys for synthesis of glutathione (GSH), a major antioxidant found at high levels in the red blood cells of hibernating bears. In contrast, circulating nitrite and erythrocytic S-nitrosation of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, taken as markers of NO metabolism, did not change appreciably. Our findings reveal that remodeling of H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism and enhanced intracellular GSH levels are hallmarks of the aerobic metabolic suppression of hibernating bears.

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Hibernating bears lie in dens for almost half a year without eating or drinking while relying on body fat reserves before they emerge relatively unharmed in the spring [1–3]. During winter hibernation, bears become essentially self-containing units with little or no exchange with the environment, and, to prolong body energy reserves, they reach a profound hypometabolic state, with

lowered body temperatures and minimum metabolic rates down to ~25% of the basal levels [3,4]. During hibernation, lowered heart and ventilation rates [4,5] and increased blood O<sub>2</sub> affinity, due in part to the reduced body temperature and in part to reduced levels of red cell 2,3-diphosphoglycerate [6], reduce O<sub>2</sub> supply, thus matching the reduced tissue O<sub>2</sub> consumption. Because of these adjustments, hibernators most likely remain essentially aerobic and experience little or no hypoxia [2]. Whereas in small hibernators body temperature drops to only a few degrees above zero [3], bears hibernate at much less reduced body temperatures (i.e., with regular oscillations between ~30 and 36 °C) [4,7], despite having the same weight-specific low metabolic rate as small hibernators [3]. This suggests a significant temperature-independent component in the metabolic depression of hibernating bears [4].

**Abbreviations:** CSE, cystathionine γ-lyase; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; RBC, red blood cell; DTPA, diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid; SNO, S-nitrosothiol; ROS, reactive oxygen species; GSH, reduced glutathione; GSSG, oxidized glutathione; BSS, bound sulfane sulfur; SBD-F, 4-fluoro-7-sulfolbenzofurazan; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography

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The remarkable ability of bears and other mammalian species to hibernate has remained poorly understood in terms of the underlying mechanisms. After some early attempts to identify a circulating “trigger” molecule in the blood from hibernators [8,9], a first clue to understanding the key to metabolic depression in hibernation came from experiments [10] showing that mice inhaling ~80 ppm hydrogen sulfide (sulfane, H<sub>2</sub>S) underwent drastic but fully reversible reductions in metabolic rate, body temperature, lung ventilation, O<sub>2</sub> consumption, and CO<sub>2</sub> production. The dramatic changes observed, albeit artificial, were strikingly similar to those of natural hibernators. This hypometabolic effect has been ascribed to the known ability of H<sub>2</sub>S to reversibly inhibit mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase when present at low levels [10–12]. However, it was not known whether levels of H<sub>2</sub>S and of its physiological in vivo metabolites in fact change in natural hibernators such as bears.

Suppression of O<sub>2</sub> consumption in hibernation necessarily originates from the mitochondria, where ~90% of whole-animal O<sub>2</sub> consumption takes place [13]. In principle, other signaling molecules capable of reversible inhibition of cytochrome c oxidase could also be involved in the metabolic suppression of hibernators. One such molecule is nitric oxide (nitrogen monoxide, NO). H<sub>2</sub>S and NO are ubiquitous signaling molecules synthesized by naturally occurring enzymes (including cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase for H<sub>2</sub>S and nitric oxide synthases for NO) with profound physiological effects on mitochondrial respiration, blood pressure regulation, and cytoprotection [14,15]. Because of their reactivity, both these signaling molecules generate in vivo a broad range of oxidative products, each with distinctive biological activities. The complex in vivo effects of NO and its products, in particular nitrite and S-nitrosothiols (SNOs<sup>2</sup>; formed when Cys thiols are modified by NO), are known in good detail [16,17] because highly sensitive (e.g. chemiluminescence and biotin switch) methods have been available for some time for the detection of their low-nanomolar in vivo levels [18,19]. These methods have revealed important roles for circulating nitrite as a storage pool of NO, from where NO can be regenerated during hypoxia and contribute to vasodilation and cytoprotection [16,20,21], and for S-nitrosation as a site-specific redox-dependent protein modification in mammals [17] and in ectotherm vertebrates [22–24]. In contrast, the biological roles of H<sub>2</sub>S and its metabolites in vivo have remained more elusive owing to technical limitations for their detection [25,26] and new methods are being currently developed to obtain reliable measures of physiological levels of H<sub>2</sub>S and related compounds [14,27].

As fluctuations in respiratory rates are associated with oxidative stress, physiological metabolic suppression is tightly linked with antioxidant capacity. Hibernating bears most likely possess enhanced tolerance against oxidative stress and regenerative capacity as known for other animals capable of prolonged metabolic suppression [2,28]. Enhanced oxidative stress typically occurs whenever mitochondrial activity varies independent of available O<sub>2</sub> and potentially damaging reactive oxygen species (ROS) are generated as a product [29]. The ubiquitous tripeptide glutathione (GSH) is a key element in the thiol-dependent cellular defense against ROS and redox imbalance. For instance, ectotherms experiencing seasonal periods of prolonged hypoxia and severe oxidative stress at arousal are known to possess much higher levels of GSH compared to their hypoxia-intolerant counterparts [28].

In this study, we report measurements of a large number (23 in total) of blood parameters taken from winter-hibernating and summer-active free-ranging brown bears (the same individuals in winter and summer), with the intent to identify which parameters could be involved in hibernation. Specifically, we examined the circulating levels of major H<sub>2</sub>S and NO metabolites; the activity of the enzyme cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE), an important enzyme catalyzing the production of H<sub>2</sub>S from L-Cys in the circulation; and

the levels of free L-Cys and GSH and other thiols. We have also investigated levels, activity, and S-nitrosation of the enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), a key glycolytic enzyme known to undergo S-nitrosation [30], as a marker of targeted S-nitrosation-dependent control of energy metabolism and potentially involved in the reduction of downstream 2,3-diphosphoglycerate in RBCs during hibernation [6]. All of the investigated parameters were subjected to a stringent statistical analysis to test for significant differences and mutual correlations between hibernating and summer active individual bears. The findings of this exploratory study unveil distinct potential roles of H<sub>2</sub>S and NO-dependent signaling in physiological metabolic suppression.

## Materials and methods

### Animals and blood samples

Animal handling and sampling were approved by the Swedish Ethics Committee on Animal Research (C212/9) and the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency. Blood samples were collected from seven 3- to 5-year-old (two males and five females) free-ranging anesthetized Eurasian brown bears (*Ursus arctos*) in Dalarna and Gävleborgs Counties, Sweden. The bears were previously equipped with global-positioning system collars as well as radio transmitters for tracking. Bears were immobilized by darting in the den during winter (February 2013) and the same bears again by darting from a helicopter during summer (June 2013). Anesthetics used in winter were a mixture of tiletamine–zolazepam (1.1 mg/kg), medetomidine (0.03 mg/kg), and ketamine (1.3 mg/kg) and in summer a mixture of tiletamine–zolazepam (4.7 mg/kg) and medetomidine (0.09 mg/kg) [7]. The medetomidine was antagonized with 5 mg antisedan for each milligram of medetomidine after the procedures were finished and after placing the bears back into the dens in winter [6,7]. Blood was taken from the jugular vein using heparinized vacuum tubes and immediately centrifuged in the field (4 min, 9000g) to separate plasma from RBCs. For each individual, RBC aliquots were immediately frozen in dry ice for later measurement of GAPDH activity or treated before freezing as described below under *H<sub>2</sub>S products* and *NO products*. All processing and freezing of blood samples were done in the field within 10 min of blood sample collection. Samples were protected from light during processing. All chemicals were from Sigma–Aldrich unless otherwise stated.

### H<sub>2</sub>S products

Biochemical forms of H<sub>2</sub>S were measured using the HPLC monobromobimane (MBB) assay as previously reported [27,31]. Aliquots of RBCs and plasma from individual bears were immediately diluted 1:5 in rubber cap-sealed anaerobic Eppendorf vials containing previously degassed 100 mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9.5, 0.1 mM diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA) and frozen in dry ice for later measurement of H<sub>2</sub>S products, total GSH, cysteine, and homocysteine concentrations [27,31,32]. Additional RBC and plasma samples were frozen without further treatment immediately after centrifugation for measurement of CSE activity. All samples were stored in liquid N<sub>2</sub> and analyzed within 2 weeks of collection [33].

### Measurement of total GSH, Cys, and homocysteine

Total GSH, Cys, and homocysteine were measured after thiol reduction and derivatization with 4-fluoro-7-sulfobenzofurazan (SBD-F) as described [32,34]. Briefly, samples were reduced by

incubation with 30 mM tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine hydrochloride at room temperature for 30 min. Trichloroacetic acid (100 mg/ml) was added to precipitate proteins. After centrifugation for 10 min, the supernatants were derivatized with 90 mM SBD-F and the fluorescent thiol derivatives were separated on a C<sub>18</sub> column by reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography and detected by fluorescence (extinction 385 nm, emission 515 nm).

#### CSE activity

CSE activity was measured as previously reported [35]. Briefly, tissue lysates were mixed with 2 mM cystathionine, 0.25 mM pyridoxal 5'-phosphate in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer and incubated for 60 min at 37 °C. Trichloroacetic acid (10%) was added to the reaction mixture and spun down. The supernatant was then mixed with 1% ninhydrin reagent and incubated for 5 min in a boiling-water bath. The solution was then cooled on ice for 2 min and the absorbance measured at 455 nm using a Smart Spect Plus spectrophotometer (Bio-Rad). CSE activity was expressed as nanomoles of cystathionine consumed per milligram of total protein per hour of incubation.

#### NO products

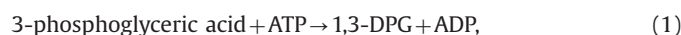
Aliquots of RBCs from individual bears were diluted 1:5 with a SNO/nitrite-stabilizing solution containing 4 mM ferricyanide (K<sub>3</sub>FeIII(CN)<sub>6</sub>), 10 mM *N*-ethylmaleimide, 0.1 mM DTPA [18] and frozen in dry ice. Thawed hemolysate and plasma were vortexed and centrifuged (2 min, 16,000g, 4 °C), and supernatants were immediately measured. NO metabolites were measured by reductive chemiluminescence using a Sievers (Boulder, CO, USA) nitric oxide analyzer (Model 280i) and previously described procedures [18,36]. Levels of SNO, iron-nitrosyl, and *N*-nitrosyl compounds were below the detection limit (approximately 10 nM at the volume and dilution used). Nitrite was subsequently determined on samples deproteinized with ice-cold ethanol (1:1). Nitrite peaks were integrated with Origin software (OriginLab Corp., Northampton, MA, USA).

#### Biotin switch

RBC samples were stored at -80 °C in stabilization solution containing 10 mM *N*-ethylmaleimide. The biotin switch assay was performed as described [19,37] and pull-downs from Neutravidin resin (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA) were probed for the presence of GAPDH by Western blotting. Total GAPDH was tested in RBC samples before processing samples for biotin switch.

#### GAPDH activity

GAPDH activity was assessed at 25 °C in the absence and presence of 0.3 mM dithiothreitol by monitoring the time-dependent decrease in NADH absorbance at 340 nm (extinction coefficient 6.22 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) following the Sigma enzymatic assay protocol (EC 1.2.1.12, Sigma-Aldrich) [37]. The assay proceeds in two steps, catalyzed by 3-phosphoglyceric phosphokinase (step 1) and GAPDH (step 2):



Reactions were completed after 150 s. For each sample, the GAPDH activity reported is expressed as units per milligram of total hemoglobin, measured at 540 and 576 nm using known extinction coefficients [38].

#### Statistical analysis

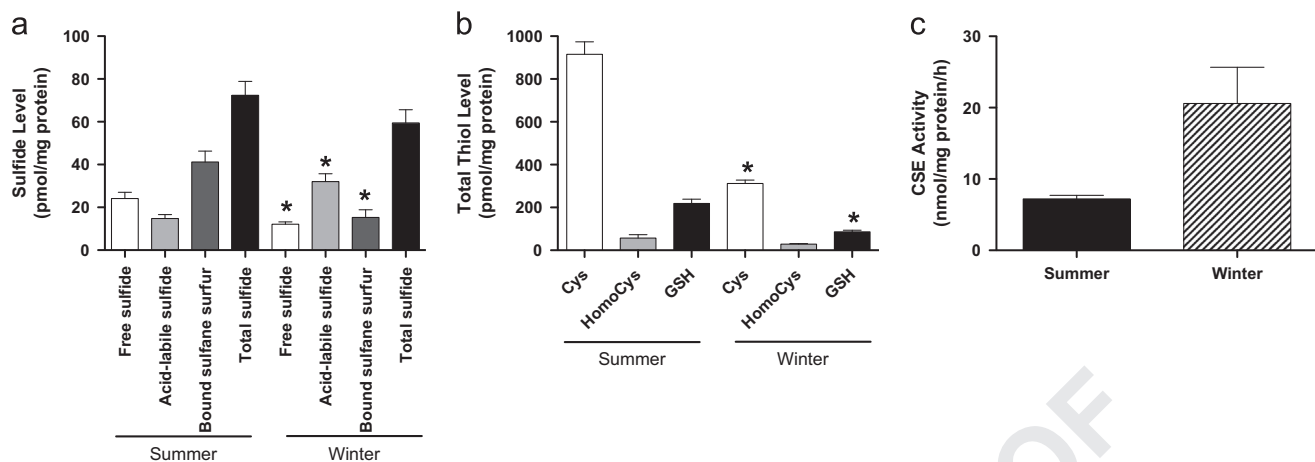
Statistical differences between plasma and RBC parameters of the same seven individual winter-hibernating and summer-active bears were assessed by parametric paired *t* test with a significance level set at *P* < 0.002 to account for multiple tests. Because of the high number of parameters measured on the same samples, a low *P* value of <0.002 (~0.05/23) is required to validate that differences between parameters measured in hibernating and summer-active bears are significant. Nonparametric paired Wilcoxon signed rank tests produced similar results (significance level *P* < 0.016). To search for relationships between pairs of individual parameters measured in winter-hibernating and summer-active bears, pairwise Pearson correlations were calculated. The most interesting pairs were determined based on the strength (*r* > 0.7 or *r* < -0.7) and significance (*P* < 0.05) of the correlation. Statistical analyses were performed with SAS software, version 9.3 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

#### Results

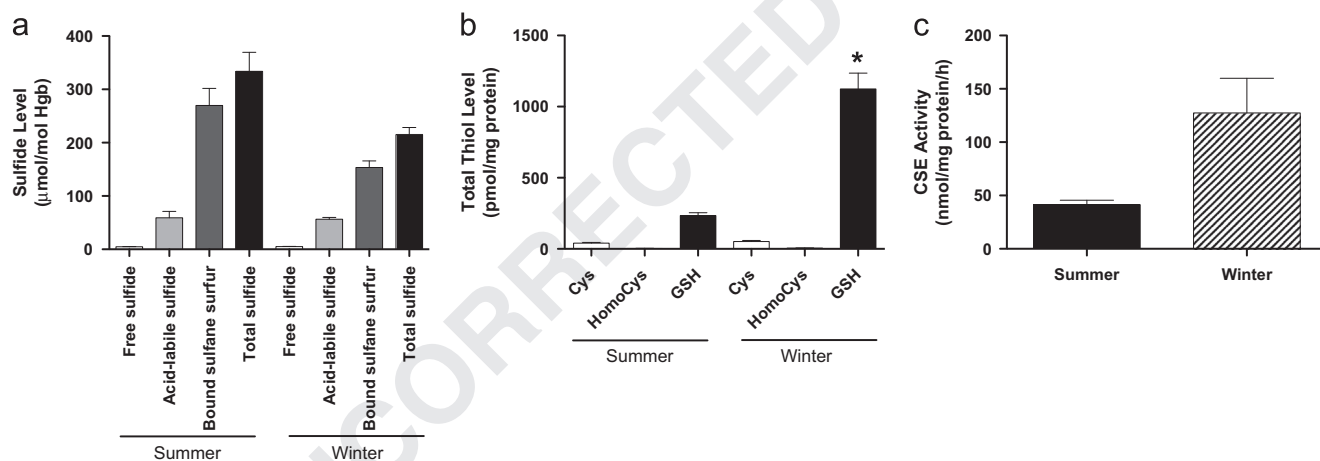
We used the recently developed MBB method for the detection of physiological levels of various H<sub>2</sub>S metabolites [31] in plasma and RBCs isolated from the same individual hibernating and summer-active brown bears. H<sub>2</sub>S metabolites can be divided into (1) acid-labile sulfur, which mainly contains Fe-S clusters and persulfides and is converted into H<sub>2</sub>S under acidic conditions; (2) bound sulfane sulfur (BSS), which contains thiosulfate and polysulfides and is converted into H<sub>2</sub>S under reducing conditions; and (3) free sulfide, containing mainly freely dissolved H<sub>2</sub>S and HS<sup>-</sup> [14]. We found that in winter-hibernating bears, plasma contained significantly (*P* < 0.002) lower BSS and free sulfide and significantly (*P* < 0.002) higher acid-labile sulfane than in summer-active bears (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Marked changes were also found when measuring thiols. Levels of plasma Cys (the most abundant plasma thiol) and total GSH decreased significantly (*P* < 0.002) during hibernation (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Less pronounced changes were found in other plasma parameters, such as an increase in CSE activity (*P*=0.033) (Fig. 1C) and a decrease in total sulfane sulfur (*P*=0.0035) and nitrite (*P*=0.043) (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2), all approaching significance. Conversely, in RBCs, all parameters examined remained relatively constant with the exception of total GSH, which increased significantly (*P* < 0.002) during hibernation (Figs. 2A and B; Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). CSE activity was higher in RBCs than in plasma and possibly increased in hibernating bears (Fig. 2C; *P*=0.05). RBC nitrite also increased during hibernation, albeit not significantly (*P*=0.05; Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). Despite the level of total SNO compounds being below the detection limit, S-nitrosated GAPDH was detected in RBCs by the biotin switch method (Fig. 3A), but its levels did not change significantly during hibernation and showed a large individual variation (Fig. 3B, Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). Consistently, GAPDH activity was similar in hibernating and summer-active bears (Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). Changes approaching statistical significance were found in RBC bound and total sulfane sulfur (*P*=0.0072 and 0.0087, respectively), total homocysteine (*P*=0.03), and GAPDH content (*P*=0.0032) (Supplementary Tables S3 and S4).

We then analyzed all pairwise Pearson correlations for plasma and RBC variables (Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2) within individual hibernating and summer-active bears to search for significant patterns (*r* higher than 0.7 for direct correlations and less than -0.7 for inverse correlations). Selected correlations are shown in Fig. 4. In hibernating bears plasma, BSS, and free sulfide were inversely correlated (*r* = -0.77; Fig. 4A), whereas Cys was positively correlated with GSH





**Fig. 1.** Plasma concentrations of  $H_2S$  metabolites and thiols and CSE activity in summer-active and winter-hibernating free-ranging bears. Concentrations (means  $\pm$  SEM) of (A) sulfide (free sulfide, acid labile sulfide, bound sulfane sulfur, and total sulfide) and (B) total thiols (Cys, homocysteine, and total GSH). (C) CSE activity in plasma of the same summer-active and winter-hibernating bears ( $n=7$ ). Significant differences between summer and winter values are indicated ( $P < 0.002$ ). (A) The composition of  $H_2S$  metabolites but not of total sulfide and (B) the levels of Cys and total GSH changed significantly upon hibernation, whereas (C) CSE activity increased, albeit not significantly ( $P=0.033$ ).



**Fig. 2.** RBC concentrations of  $H_2S$  metabolites and thiols and CSE activity in summer-active and winter-hibernating free-ranging brown bears. RBC concentrations (means  $\pm$  SEM) of (A) sulfide (free sulfide, acid labile sulfide, bound sulfane sulfur and total sulfide) and (B) total thiols (Cys, homocysteine, and GSH). (C) CSE activity in the same summer-active and winter-hibernating bears ( $n=7$ ). Significant differences between summer and winter values are indicated ( $P < 0.002$ ). (A) Whereas  $H_2S$  metabolites did not change, (B) total GSH increased significantly in RBCs upon hibernation. (C) CSE activity increased, but not significantly ( $P=0.05$ ).

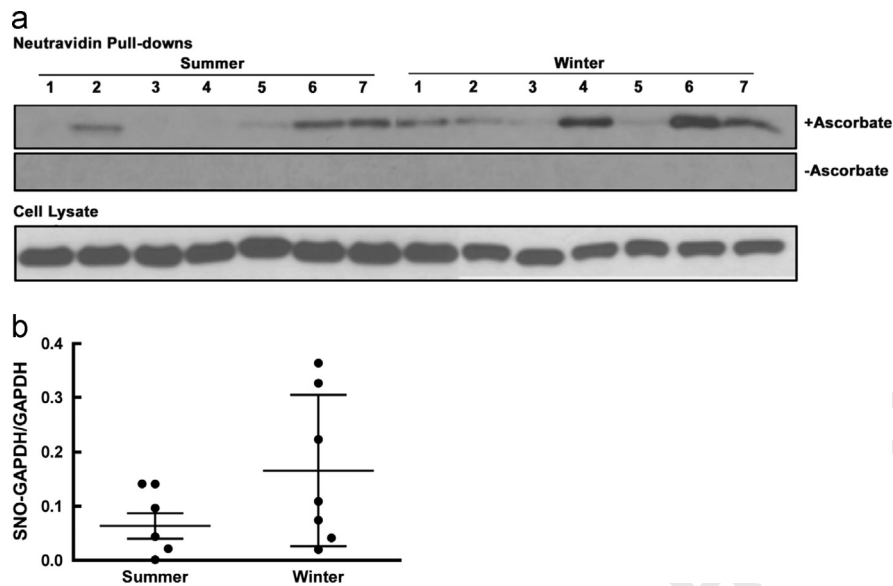
( $r=0.89$ ; Fig. 4B) and free sulfide ( $r=0.87$ ; Fig. 4C). Within RBCs, GSH was positively correlated with Cys ( $r=0.82$ ) in hibernating bears (Fig. 4D). None of these parameters were significantly correlated in summer (Figs. 4A–D). These correlations suggest that during hibernation plasma Cys availability is important for the generation of free sulfide and GSH (as also in RBCs) and that plasma BSS is used as a source of free sulfide. Furthermore, nitrite and SNO-GAPDH levels were not correlated (Supplementary Fig. S2), suggesting a nitrite-independent mechanism for S-nitrosation in this enzyme. Other correlations, albeit significant, are not clearly interpretable in terms of seasonal patterns of their variations. We note, however, that a strong correlation between two parameters indicates that they are equivalent in what they are measuring. For example, in both hibernating and summer-active bears, total and bound sulfane sulfur were tightly correlated ( $r=0.91$  in plasma and 0.94 and 0.96 in RBCs; Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2), meaning that the amount of variation in one variable is largely due to the other variable (as given by  $r^2$ ). In other words, in these samples measuring total sulfane sulfur is largely equivalent to measuring bound sulfane sulfur.

## Discussion

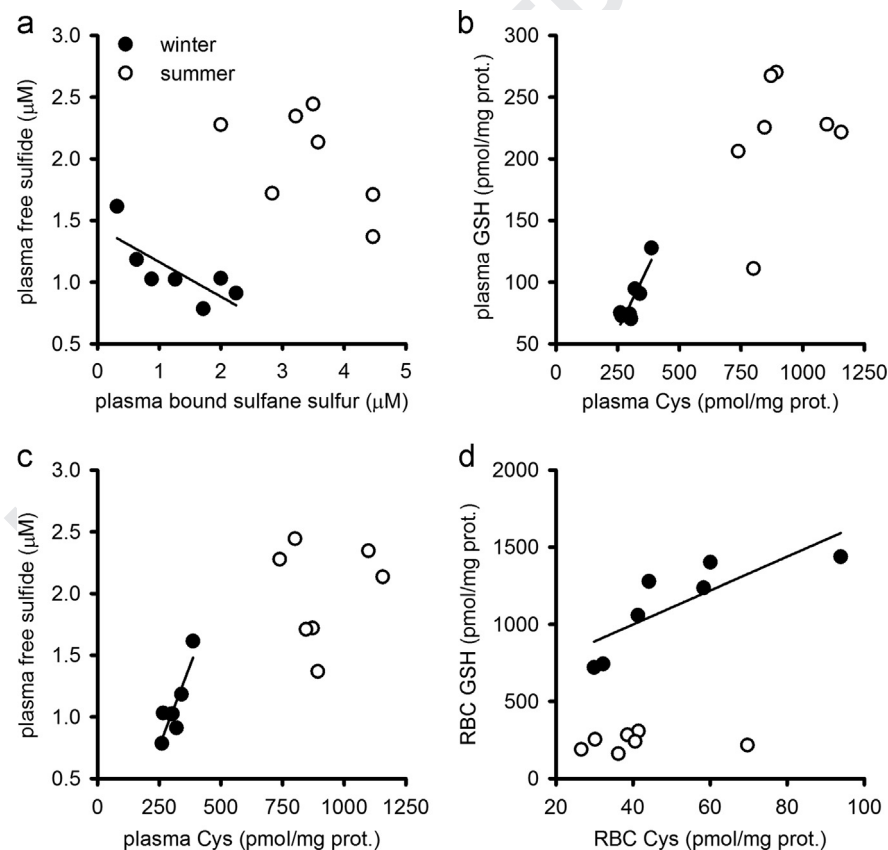
How brown bears and other mammalian hibernators are capable of drastically reducing their metabolic rate for long periods of time while still preserving organ integrity is largely unknown. A major finding of this study is that hibernation in free-ranging brown bears is associated with highly significant changes in plasma  $H_2S$  metabolites and enhanced intracellular GSH levels.

### The possible origin of $H_2S$ in hibernation

Overall, total sulfide did not change significantly in either plasma (Fig. 1A) or RBCs (Fig. 2A) upon hibernation, indicating that the balance between  $H_2S$  generation and consumption is largely the same. Plasma values of  $\sim 5 \mu M$  total sulfide in bears are about the same as those found in mice ( $\sim 4.5$ – $4.8 \mu M$ ) [31]. These results indicate that it is not a general increase in  $H_2S$  levels that is associated with hibernation, but rather a shift in the way it is produced and consumed. Consistent with this interpretation, the



**Fig. 3.** (A) RBC S-nitrosated GAPDH was pulled down by Neutravidin resin after lysates were treated with biotin-HDPD in the presence and absence of ascorbate. Eluates and cell lysates were probed for GAPDH. GAPDH was observed in the eluates from ascorbate-treated lysates but not in the absence of ascorbate. Cell lysates showed similar GAPDH content in summer-active and winter-hibernating bears. (B) Densitometric analysis of the Western blots showed not significantly different S-nitrosated GAPDH normalized to total GAPDH between summer-active and winter-hibernating bears.



**Fig. 4.** Correlations between selected pairs of parameters in individual winter-hibernating and summer-active free-ranging brown bears. Pairwise Pearson correlations were selected based on the strength ( $r > 0.7$  or  $r < -0.7$ ) and significance ( $P < 0.05$ ). (A) Plasma bound sulfane sulfur and free sulfide ( $r = -0.77$ ); (B) plasma Cys and GSH ( $r = 0.89$ ); (C) plasma Cys and free sulfide ( $r = 0.87$ ); (D) RBC Cys and GSH ( $r = 0.82$ ). The pairs of variables shown were significantly correlated in hibernating bears (shown by continuous lines) but not in summer-active ones. All other pairwise correlations are reported in [Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2](#).

relative composition of  $H_2S$  metabolites changed markedly in plasma ([Fig. 1A](#)) but not in RBCs ([Fig. 2A](#)), with more sulfide present in the plasma as the acid-labile fraction and less as free sulfide or BSS ([Fig. 1A](#)). The significant decrease in the plasma BSS pool ([Fig. 1A](#)) and the negative correlation between BSS and free

sulfide found in hibernating bears ([Fig. 4A](#)) are interesting, as these results suggest that  $H_2S$  is generated at the expense of the BSS pool, whereas in summer bears, there is no obvious correlation between these two parameters. Polysulfides and thiosulfate ( $S_2O_3^{2-}$ ) are major products of  $H_2S$  oxidation contained in the BSS

fraction [14,25,39] that can be recycled back to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  under reducing conditions [14,25], and enzymes catalyzing the conversion of thiosulfate to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , including a ubiquitous GSH-dependent thiosulfate reductase [25] and mitochondrial rhodanase and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfur transferase [40], have been identified. A recent study [40] has reported  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  formation from thiosulfate and various reducing agents in tissue homogenates, indicating a biological role for thiosulfate in its reduction to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . Although future studies will be needed to identify the BSS source of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in hibernating bears, the regeneration of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  from one or more of its oxidative products would be of particular physiological importance for the hibernating bear, as it would help preserve levels of Cys for protein and GSH synthesis during hibernation. This strategy would also contribute to preservation of body nitrogen stores and sustain protein synthesis despite the absence of dietary intake of amino acids [9,41].

Fig. 5 shows a plausible model for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  origin and fate consistent with our findings. In the blood of summer-active bears,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  generated in RBCs from the CSE-catalyzed conversion of Cys freely diffuses out into plasma and is rapidly metabolized to generate thiosulfate and other oxidized products [14,39]. Because of its propensity to become oxidized [42,43], at normal  $\text{O}_2$  levels most  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  generated would be inactivated before reaching cytochrome c oxidase in the mitochondria of perfused tissues. During hibernation, part of the plasma BSS pool is transferred to the RBC, where it is converted to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , a reaction that is favored by reduced GSH [25]. The low arterial  $\text{O}_2$  tension [7] and high hemoglobin  $\text{O}_2$  affinity [6] in hibernating brown bears indicate conditions of low  $\text{O}_2$ , under which  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  would be able to diffuse into nearby cells and contribute to suppressing mitochondrial respiration. It can be envisaged that similar  $\text{O}_2$ -linked processes could also take place in cells and tissues other than blood.

#### Generation of $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ from Cys

Although the BSS may function as an alternative source of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , the positive correlation between plasma free sulfide and Cys (Fig. 4C) indicates that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is still produced by erythrocytic CSE, possibly even functioning at higher rates (Fig. 2C), whereas the lower CSE activity in plasma (Fig. 1C) would reflect a release from hepatocytes and endothelium [44]. Other enzymes, including

cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase, 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase, and cysteine aminotransferase, may also synthesize  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  from Cys in various tissues and cellular compartments [45], and CSE may even translocate to mitochondria and improve ATP production in vascular muscle cells [46], a process that may well occur in vivo in hibernating animals. Taken together, these results indicate that plasma may contain circulating available pools of BSS and Cys for uptake into RBCs and tissues where they can be used in  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  synthesis and for mitochondrial function during hibernation.

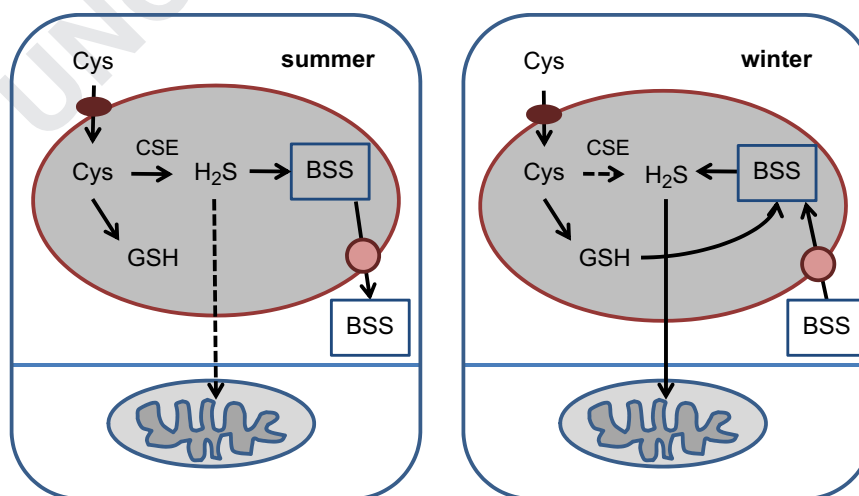
#### Effects of $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ on mitochondrial respiration

Several studies have consistently reported lower mitochondrial respiration rates in several hibernating ground squirrel species, especially in the liver [47,48] and in the skeletal muscle in 13-lined ground squirrels [49]. In this species, the suppressed  $\text{O}_2$  consumption was not due to phosphorylation of respiratory complexes [50], thus supporting that a soluble factor, such as  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , could be involved. Interestingly, mitochondrial respiration in cardiac muscle and brain was not depressed in hibernating ground squirrels [51], suggesting that during winter hibernation energy resources are preferentially allocated to these two vital organs.

$\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is a weak reversible inhibitor of the ferrous heme of cytochrome c oxidase in mitochondria, with estimated affinity constants in the physiological micromolar range (0.2–12.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) [11,12]. In binding to cytochrome c oxidase with low affinity, it is readily displaced by stronger ligands, such as  $\text{O}_2$ . Inhalation of ~80 ppm gaseous  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  that induced suspended animation in mice [10] corresponds to ~1  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  [39], levels that are compatible with those found in this study (1.08 and 2.00  $\mu\text{M}$  free sulfide for winter-hibernating and summer-active bears, respectively; Supplementary Table S1). The results of this study extend the original conclusion that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is involved in hibernation [10] by showing that in hibernating brown bears  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  may in part originate from plasma BSS.

#### Effects of $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ on the circulation

In addition to inhibiting mitochondrial respiration,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  also has marked effects on the circulation, by acting as a hypoxic vasoconstrictor or vasodilator in the pulmonary and systemic circulation,



**Fig. 5.** Proposed role of blood  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the control of metabolic rate in summer-active and winter-hibernating brown bears. Cys enters the RBC through a  $\text{Na}^+$ -dependent membrane transporter and is converted to GSH and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  by the enzyme cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE). In summer-active bears (left),  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  freely diffuses through membranes and is largely inactivated (discontinuous arrow) before reaching cytochrome c oxidase in the inner membrane of perfused tissues mitochondria, whereby  $\text{O}_2$  consumption is not inhibited.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is also oxidized to bound sulfane sulfur (BSS) and exported to the plasma. In winter-hibernating bears (right), RBC  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  originates in part from the reduction of plasma BSS, a reaction that is favored by reduced GSH, and in part from the CSE-mediated conversion of Cys. Plasma BSS may then function as an available pool of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  bioactivity. The low substrate Cys concentration in the RBCs of winter-hibernating bears available for the CSE-catalyzed reaction (discontinuous arrow) suggests that Cys is preferentially used to generate high levels of GSH. At low tissue  $\text{O}_2$  levels during hibernation,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  generated (from either BSS or Cys) may inhibit mitochondrial  $\text{O}_2$  consumption and contribute to metabolic depression during hibernation.

respectively [42]. Although H<sub>2</sub>S is a potent vasodilator of isolated systemic vessels [52], its effect in living hibernating animals would probably be overwhelmed by a strong adrenergic tone that may constrict peripheral systemic blood vessels. In the systemic circulation, an increase in the peripheral resistance would then maintain adequate blood pressure despite the reduced cardiac output and prolong body energy stores by redistributing blood flow to the most demanding organs, representing a conserved adaptive trait in diving and hibernating mammals [1,2]. Conversely, in the lung circulation, H<sub>2</sub>S may contribute to hypoxic vasoconstriction [42] thereby helping to maintain a high arterial O<sub>2</sub> saturation at the low ventilation rates occurring during hibernation [2,4]. Understanding the physiological processes occurring in hibernating bears, including the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on metabolism and circulation, will help in improving therapeutic applications of hypothermia and hypometabolism in human diseases and preventing organ damage during cardiac arrest [53], immune suppression [54,55], and major surgery [56].

### GSH and hibernation

Another important finding of this study is the large increase in erythrocytic total GSH found in hibernating bears (Fig. 2B). Total GSH was highly dependent on the availability of Cys in plasma and RBCs (Figs. 4B and D) and, consistent with these results, the rate of synthesis of GSH is rate limited by the levels of Cys present in human plasma and RBCs, which Cys enters through a Na<sup>+</sup>-dependent transporter [57]. Thiol-containing GSH is an essential component of the defense against oxidative stress in that it reacts with ROS to generate oxidized GSSG, which is then reduced back to GSH via NADPH-dependent GSH reductase or actively exported from the erythrocyte [57]. Although relying on aerobic metabolism, hibernating animals undergo periodic oscillations in their metabolic rates, with inevitable mismatches between local O<sub>2</sub> supply and consumption and resulting generation of potentially damaging ROS [4,28]. Although we could not measure oxidized vs reduced GSH because of the time delay in collection and analysis of samples from the free-ranging bears, a large pool of total GSH available in RBCs (Fig. 2B) and probably in other tissues during the hibernation period would help limit periodic oxidative damage. We note that reduction of any oxidized GSSG back to GSH predicts that sufficient NADPH is available as a reducing agent, whereby glucose reserves (not the primary energy fuel during hibernation) might be diverted away from glycolysis to fuel the NADPH-generating pentose–phosphate pathway. In this process, reversible inactivation of phosphofructokinase, a key enzyme of glycolysis, mediated by low temperature and pH may well play a role in hibernating bears as found in a small hibernating rodent [58]. This would also explain our earlier finding of a substantial reduction in RBC 2,3-diphosphoglycerate, a side product of glycolysis, during hibernation in brown bears [6].

### H<sub>2</sub>S and NO: a comparison between two signaling molecules

Perhaps surprisingly, we did not find significant changes in the major NO metabolite nitrite in plasma or RBCs nor in S-nitrosation levels or activity of erythrocytic GAPDH, although we cannot rule out that some of the changes (for example plasma nitrite with  $P=0.043$ ; Supplementary Table S2) may become statistically significant in separate studies with a lower number of parameters investigated (where  $P < 0.05$  instead of  $P < 0.002$  is sufficient). Other parameters that were not investigated here may also reveal a role for NO in the control of hibernation, such as changes in NOS activity, nitrate, or targeted S-nitrosation of key proteins or enzymes in blood or other tissues. Previous studies have shown that H<sub>2</sub>S and NO share some important characteristics: they both originate enzymatically from amino acids (L-Cys and L-Arg,

respectively) [59,60], can be regenerated from their respective oxidative products [40,61], and interact in the control of vasodilation [62] and in cytoprotection [63]. However, results from this and previous investigations suggest that these two signaling molecules may operate in different physiological and pathological contexts [64]. Under hypoxia, the enzymatic rate of NO synthesis from L-Arg decreases (as O<sub>2</sub> is a cosubstrate), whereas conversion of nitrite to NO increases, a process also favored by acidic conditions. Such conditions are present during acute exercise and heart ischemia in mammals or even during prolonged acclimation to extreme hypoxic and anoxic conditions as achieved by some fish and turtles [28]. Accordingly, in these hypoxia-tolerant ectotherms, levels of plasma nitrite are constitutively higher than in mammals and hypoxia-intolerant species, and plasma nitrite is shifted to tissues and used for NO synthesis during hypoxia and anoxia [22,36,65]. Conversely, mammalian hibernators use stored fat as the major energy fuel to sustain a hypometabolic state in which little O<sub>2</sub> is consumed and supplied, without becoming hypoxic. As a result, blood pH and lactate remain relatively stable under hibernation in brown bears [6,7]. Although the role of NO in mammalian hibernation is less clear than that of H<sub>2</sub>S, we speculate that H<sub>2</sub>S-dependent inhibition may prevail in aerobic metabolic suppression, as it occurs in hibernating bears, whereas NO-dependent inhibition may be dominant in hypoxic or even anoxic metabolic suppression, as it occurs in a few ectotherm species, such as crucian carp [22] and turtle [23,65], that overwinter in a total lack of O<sub>2</sub>. These complementary abilities of H<sub>2</sub>S and NO to induce controlled and reversible hypometabolic states and to protect cells and organs against O<sub>2</sub> deprivation would have far-reaching consequences in biology and medicine.

### Conclusion

In summary, our study is the first to show that in a hibernating species in its natural environment, hibernation is associated with (1) a significant remodeling of H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism consistent with generation of H<sub>2</sub>S from both BSS and Cys and (2) a large increase in the intracellular GSH pool available. Although the role of NO in hibernation remains to be conclusively established, these findings highlight the emerging importance of sulfane metabolism in metabolic depression and antioxidant defense and provide a rare snapshot into the physiological processes underlying the fascinating phenomenon of mammalian hibernation.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary Information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2014.05.025>.

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