

# A Bioluminescent Probe for H<sub>2</sub>S Detection in Tumor Microenvironment

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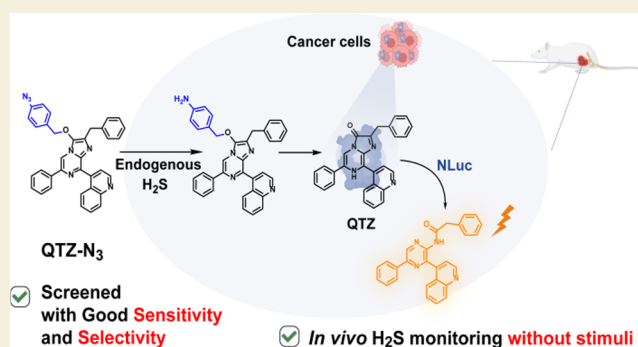
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**ABSTRACT:** Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) is an endogenous gaseous signaling molecule that regulates various physiological functions, and its abnormal levels have been closely linked to the onset and progression of numerous diseases including renal cell carcinoma (RCC). RCC is the most common malignant tumor of the kidney, accounting for 85–90% of all kidney cancer cases. However, studies using H<sub>2</sub>S as a biomarker for monitoring RCC progression at the molecular level remain relatively limited. Most current H<sub>2</sub>S luminescent probes suffer from low sensitivity and often need external stimuli, such as cysteine, to artificially elevate H<sub>2</sub>S levels, thereby reducing their effectiveness in detecting H<sub>2</sub>S in cells or in vivo. Although bioluminescent imaging probes are gaining attention for their specificity and high signal-to-noise ratio, no existing probes are specifically designed for detecting H<sub>2</sub>S in RCC. Additionally, many bioluminescent probes face challenges such as short emission wavelengths or dependence on complex conditions such as external adenosine triphosphate (ATP). Herein, through “caging” the luciferin substrate QTZ with H<sub>2</sub>S recognition groups, a H<sub>2</sub>S-sensitive bioluminescent probe QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> with good sensitivity (~0.19 μM) and selectivity was prepared. QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> can effectively detect endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-NLuc renal cancer cells and sensitively monitor H<sub>2</sub>S levels in the RCC xenograft nude mouse model without requiring stimuli like cysteine. Furthermore, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> allows for the real-time monitoring of H<sub>2</sub>S during tumor progression. This work lays a solid foundation for future understanding of the biological functions of H<sub>2</sub>S in vivo.

**KEYWORDS:** hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), renal cell carcinoma (RCC), bioluminescence, bioluminescent imaging, biological imaging, tumor microenvironment, luciferase



## INTRODUCTION

Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), a renowned messaging transmitter, is endogenously generated from cysteine (Cys)-related substrates by enzymes including cystathionine-γ-lyase (CSE), cystathionine-β-synthase (CBS), and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfur transferase (3-MST)/cysteine aminotransferase (CAT).<sup>1,2</sup> H<sub>2</sub>S is a lipophilic molecule that can permeate cell membranes without transporters and acts as a signaling messenger in regulating vital processes.<sup>3</sup> Homeostasis of H<sub>2</sub>S is involved in cell protection pathways, such as antioxidant, antiapoptosis, and anti-inflammation.<sup>4–7</sup> Nevertheless, uncontrolled production of H<sub>2</sub>S, especially in renal cell carcinoma (RCC), can regulate inflammatory responses, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction, ultimately leading to kidney injury and fibrosis.<sup>8,9</sup> RCC, which accounts for 85–90% of adult renal malignancies, is the most common form of kidney cancer.<sup>10,11</sup> Despite its prevalence, the molecular biology of RCC remains complex and poorly understood, with many signaling pathways yet to be

identified.<sup>12,13</sup> Considering the significance of H<sub>2</sub>S in biological systems, particularly in RCC, the development of a tool to detect H<sub>2</sub>S in RCC for molecular biological research is highly desirable.

Currently, several methods for detecting H<sub>2</sub>S exist, including colorimetric,<sup>14</sup> gas chromatography,<sup>15</sup> electrochemical,<sup>16</sup> and voltammetric methods.<sup>17</sup> However, these methods have inherent drawbacks such as poor compatibility with live cells due to postmortem tissue or cell lysate damage, making real-time in vivo H<sub>2</sub>S detection challenging. Furthermore, small-molecule fluorescent probes face limitations in biological

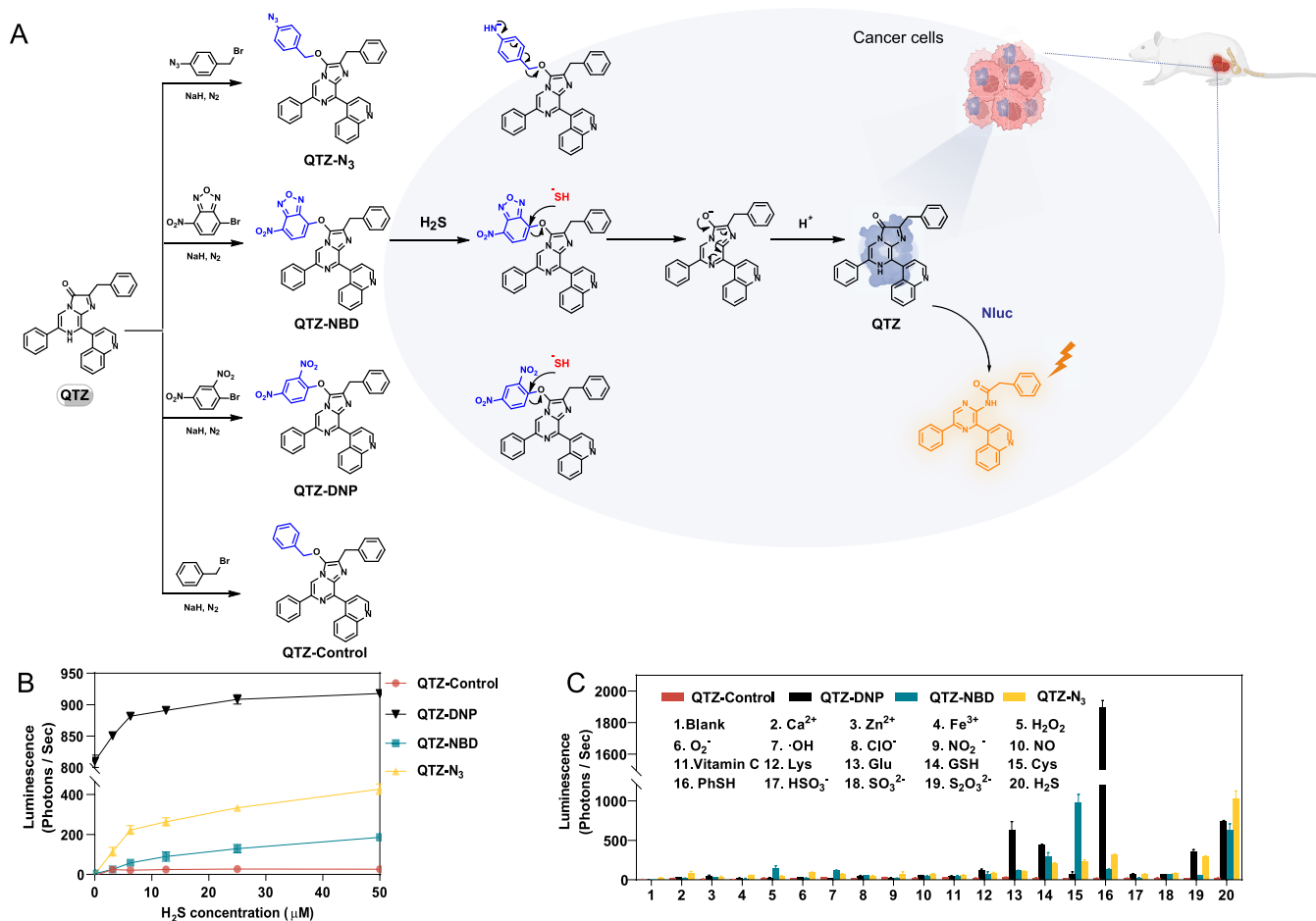
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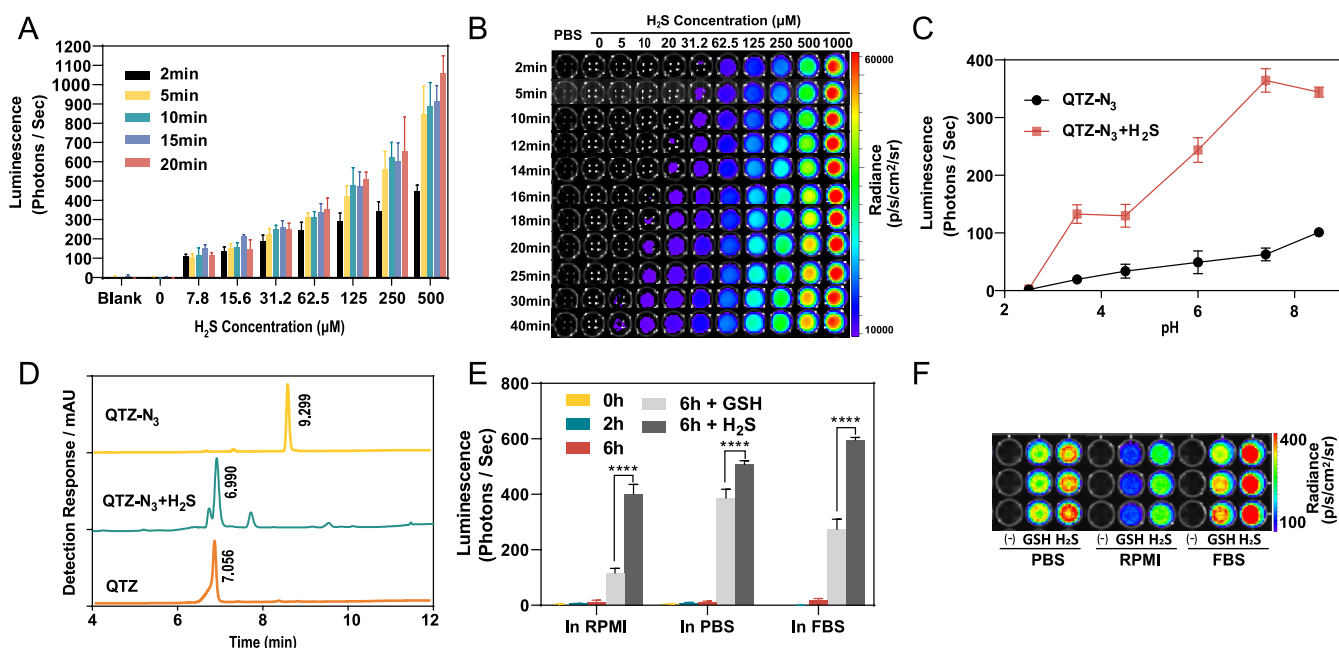


**Figure 1.** (A) Synthetic route and screening of the bioluminescent  $H_2S$  probes (**QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>**, **QTZ-DNP**, **QTZ-NBD**) and **QTZ-Control**; (B) Comparison of the luminescent reactivities of four compounds (**QTZ-Control**, **QTZ-DNP**, **QTZ-NBD**, and **QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>**) ( $100 \mu M$ ) with different concentrations of NaSH and  $0.5 \mu g/mL$  Nluc in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 10 mM) after incubation at  $37^\circ C$  for 30 min; (C) Bioluminescence responses of four compounds (**QTZ-Control**, **QTZ-DNP**, **QTZ-NBD**, and **QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>**) ( $100 \mu M$ ) toward different analytes in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 10 mM) after incubation at  $37^\circ C$  for 30 min: blank (1),  $100 \mu M$  metal ions (2–4:  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$ , and  $Fe^{3+}$ ),  $100 \mu M$  RONS (5–10:  $H_2O_2$ ,  $O_2^-$ ,  $\cdot OH$ ,  $ClO^-$ ,  $NO_2^-$ ,  $NO$ ),  $1 mM$  biological reductants (11–15: vitamin C, Lys, Glu, GSH, Cys),  $1 mM$  reactive sulfur species (16–19: PhSH,  $HSO_3^-$ ,  $SO_3^{2-}$ , and  $S_2O_3^{2-}$ ), and  $500 \mu M H_2S$  (20). Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 3$ ).

applications due to autofluorescence and poor tissue penetration.<sup>18–20</sup> These probes also tend to lack the sensitivity needed to detect low  $H_2S$  levels typically found in biological systems.<sup>21</sup> Previous  $H_2S$  probes were only capable of detecting high  $H_2S$  concentrations in mouse models induced by stimuli such as lipopolysaccharides or cysteine. This limitation restricts their utility for studying  $H_2S$  under physiological conditions in vivo.<sup>22–25</sup> In contrast, bioluminescence, produced by the reaction of luciferin with luciferase, offers high signal-to-noise ratios and can be genetically encoded to target specific cells or tissues, providing more sensitive and specific detection.<sup>26–28</sup> Scientists use “caging” chemical modifications to temporarily block luciferase–luciferin reactions, which restore upon encountering specific analytes (enzymes,<sup>29</sup> and some chemicals<sup>30–32</sup>), and then generate bioluminescence. Firefly luciferin has been “caged” with aryl azide or 2,4-dinitrophenyl (DNP) for the detection of  $H_2S$  in cells and mice.<sup>33–35</sup> However, the inherent adenosine triphosphate (ATP) dependence of the firefly luciferase–luciferin system limits its applicability in cellular applications. In contrast, marine luciferases, like Renilla luciferase, do not rely on ATP, making them more suitable for imaging analysis in biological systems.<sup>36</sup> Recently, researchers have developed marine luciferase variants with higher catalytic

activity and stability, such as NanoLuc luciferase (Nluc)–furimazine (FRZ). Despite progress, the short-wavelength blue emission ( $\sim 450 nm$ ) of the Nluc–FRZ pair limits its widespread application for in vivo studies. To achieve a red-shift of Nluc emissions into the in vivo optical imaging window ( $600–950 nm$ ), researchers are exploring various strategies, including the chemical modification of FRZ to form QTZ.<sup>37</sup> The QTZ luciferin and paired Nluc variant exhibit bright bioluminescence with a peak emission at  $\sim 585 nm$ . The Nluc–QTZ system offers advantages of ATP independence, high stability, and red-shifted emission, enabling tumor imaging in xenograft mouse models.<sup>37</sup>

Herein, we report the design, synthesis, and evaluation of a  $H_2S$ -sensitive bioluminescent probe with good sensitivity and selectivity for monitoring  $H_2S$  levels at the physiological level in vivo. Specifically, we designed  $H_2S$ -responsive probes using three “caged” groups: DNP, 7-nitrobenzofurazan (NBD), and benzyl azide. In the presence of  $H_2S$ , these “caged” luciferins undergo a self-cleavage process and generate QTZ, which can be catalyzed by Nluc to produce bioluminescence. Through sensitivity and selectivity screening, we demonstrated that **QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>** exhibits the best capability to selectively detect  $H_2S$  over other biologically relevant reactive sulfur species (RSS).



**Figure 2.** (A) Bioluminescent response of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μM) when treated with increased NaSH concentrations and Nluc (0.5 μg/mL) in PBS buffer (10 mM, pH 7.4) for different incubation times at 37 °C. (B) Representative bioluminescence images of (A) shown in 96-well black plates. (C) Bioluminescent signal of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (50 μM) in the absence and presence of NaSH (20 μM) and 0.5 μg/mL Nluc over a wide pH range. (D) High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) traces of the incubation mixture of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μM) in the absence (upper panel) or presence (middle panel) of NaSH (200 μM) in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 10 mM) for 5 min at 37 °C and HPLC traces of QTZ (60 μM) (lower panel) in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 10 mM). Wavelength: 254 nm. (E) Stability test of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in PBS buffer (pH 7.4), cell culture medium RPMI 1640, and fetal bovine serum (FBS), as well as the bioluminescence response test with GSH (10 mM) and NaSH (100 μM). (F) Representative bioluminescence images of figure (E) are shown in 96-well black plates. Data are presented as mean ± SD (*n* = 3).

We further evaluated the utility of this probe in monitoring changes in H<sub>2</sub>S levels in RCC cells as well as living animals (Figure 1A).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

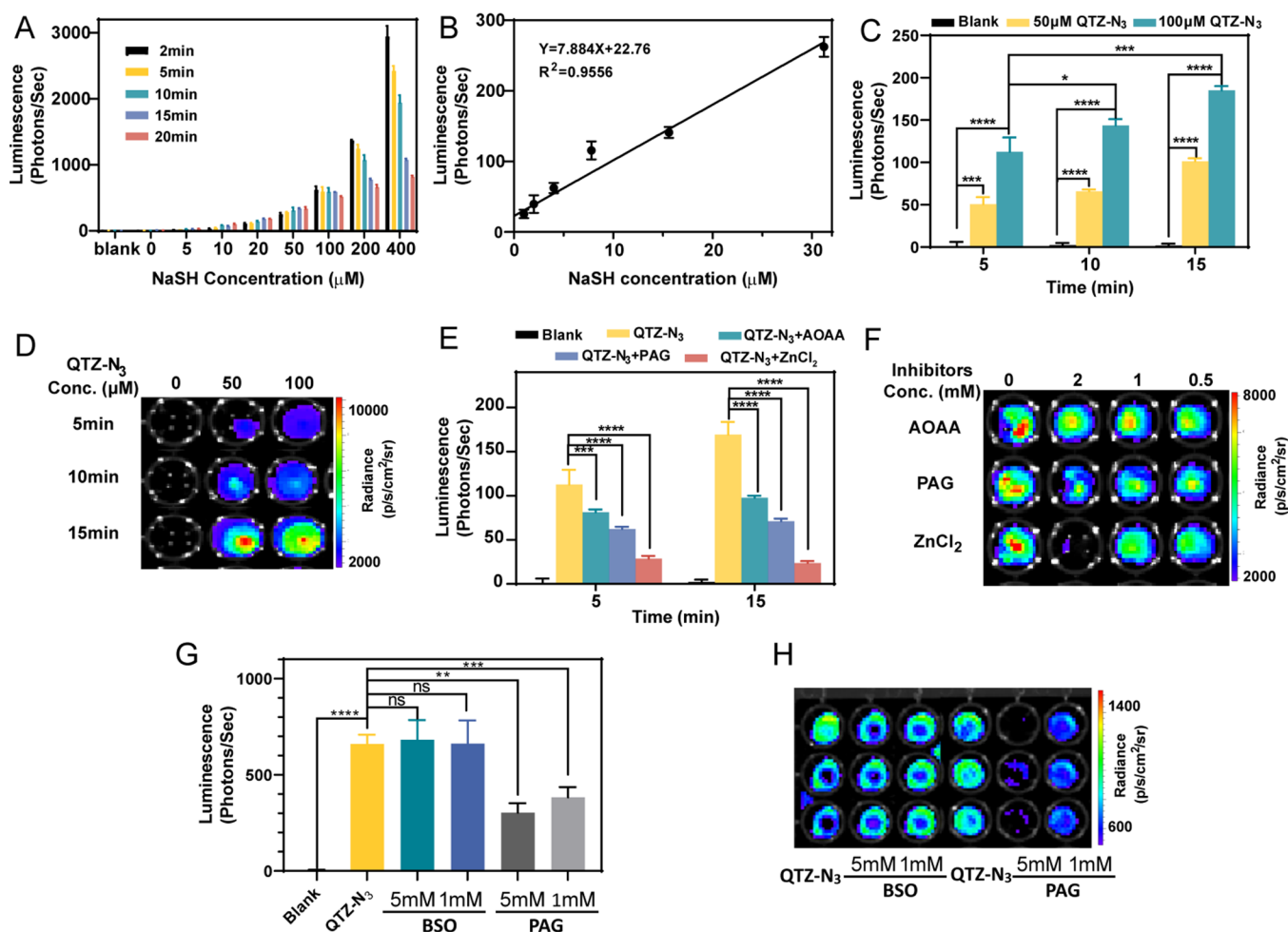
### Design and Characterization of Bioluminescent H<sub>2</sub>S Probes

In 2022, Ai and co-workers reported the discovery of QTZ for molecular imaging of tumor-associated antigens.<sup>37</sup> QTZ offers several advantages: (1) extended conjugations in the imidazopyrazinone core cause red-shifted bioluminescence when paired with Nluc, resulting in improved performance for imaging deep-tissue targets in living mice; and (2) with a molecular weight of only 19 kDa, the constructed QTZ-Nluc system demonstrates high physical stability and good reactivity.<sup>38</sup> Despite the above advantages, researchers are developing new QTZ-based platforms that can respond to specific analytes, thereby expanding their biological application. One common approach is the “caging” of luciferins, where chemically protective groups are introduced at the enolized keto position on the C-3 carbon of the imidazopyrazinone core to stabilize the luciferin.<sup>39</sup> Consequently, various bioluminescent probes have been developed using this caged luciferin strategy, and when these protective groups are cleaved by specific targets, such as enzymes or biomolecules, the caged luciferin is converted into its free form, thereby emitting bioluminescence.<sup>39–41</sup> To develop a H<sub>2</sub>S-responsive bioluminescent probe for the QTZ-Nluc system, we modified QTZ by attaching H<sub>2</sub>S recognition groups, which are expected to react specifically with H<sub>2</sub>S, thus triggering an electron cascade that reveals the parent QTZ. The synthesis of QTZ

began with 5-bromo-3-iodopyrazin-2-amine, which underwent two Suzuki coupling steps to form the key pyrazine core (5-phenyl-3-(quinolin-4-yl) pyrazin-2-amine), and this pyrazine core was then condensed with a diethoxy derivative in ethanol and concentrated HCl to generate QTZ. In our H<sub>2</sub>S-responsive bioluminescent probes, we selected three H<sub>2</sub>S recognition sites based on thiolysis or azide reduction mechanisms, including DNP, NBD, and benzyl azide.<sup>42–45</sup> QTZ underwent nucleophilic substitution with the halogen atoms of these recognition groups to produce the target compounds QTZ-DNP, QTZ-NBD, and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (Figure 1A). To verify the effectiveness of the recognition groups and their “caging” ability on the luciferin QTZ, we synthesized a control compound, QTZ-Control, using benzyl bromide (Figure 1A). Detailed synthesis steps and characterization are provided in the Supporting Information.

### Reactivity and Selectivity Screening of Bioluminescent H<sub>2</sub>S Probes toward H<sub>2</sub>S

With four candidates in hand, we first evaluated the reactivities of these compounds toward H<sub>2</sub>S under physiological conditions (Figure 1B). Since H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in cells are estimated to be in the nanomolar to low micromolar range, examining the sensitivity of the probe is crucial.<sup>46</sup> NaSH was used as the H<sub>2</sub>S donor in our experiments, given its similar ion distribution to H<sub>2</sub>S in physiological aqueous solutions.<sup>47</sup> Under physiological pH, H<sub>2</sub>S predominantly exists as HS<sup>−</sup>. We performed both time- and concentration-response analyses. QTZ-DNP exhibited stronger luminescence signals with increasing H<sub>2</sub>S concentration and a rapid response within 15 min (Figure S2A). However, QTZ-DNP emitted a high luminescence (~800 photons/seconds) in phosphate-buffered



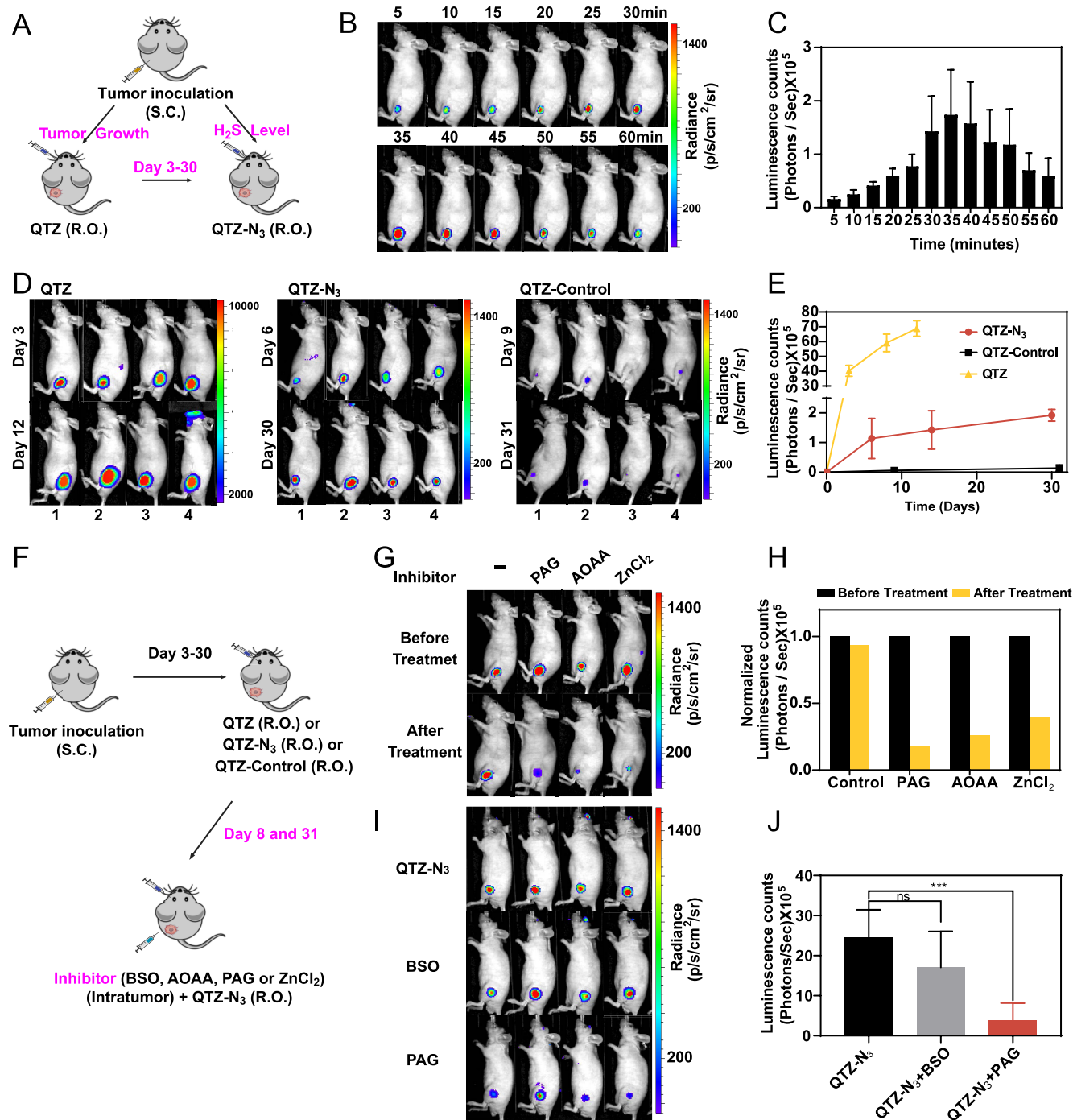
**Figure 3.** (A) Exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S bioluminescent response of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μM) when treated with increased NaSH concentrations in 786-O-Nluc cells for different incubation times at 37 °C. (B) Concentration-dependent luminescence changes after an incubation time of 5 min. The linear relationship is described as  $y = 7.884x + 22.76$  ( $R^2 = 0.9556$ ), and the linearity range of H<sub>2</sub>S is from 0.54 to 30 μM. (C) Bioluminescent response of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-Nluc cells toward different concentrations of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (0, 50, and 100 μM) for different incubation times (5, 10, and 15 min), respectively, at 37 °C. (D) Representative bioluminescence images of figure (C) are shown in 96-well black plates. (E) Inhibitory effect of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> on endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S production in 786-O-Nluc cells at different times (5 and 15 min). Groups: 786-O-Nluc cells only treated with 100 μM QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> for 30 min at 37 °C; pretreated with 2, 1, or 0.5 mM AOAA, PAG, or ZnCl<sub>2</sub> for 2 h, followed by incubation with 100 μM QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> for 30 min at 37 °C. (F) Representative bioluminescence images of figure (E) are shown in 96-well black plates at 15 min. (G) Comparison of inhibitory effects of PAG (5 or 1 mM) on endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and BSO (5 or 1 mM) on endogenous GSH in 786-O-Nluc cells incubated with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>. (H) Representative bioluminescence images of figure (G) are shown in 96-well black plates. Data are presented as mean ± SD ( $n = 3$ ).  $P$  values were determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ .

saline (PBS) (pH 7.4, 10 mM) even in the absence of NaSH. This suggested that QTZ-DNP is relatively unstable under mild conditions, prone to decomposition, and can generate false-positive signals, which limits the accurate detection of H<sub>2</sub>S in biological systems. For the other three compounds, compared to QTZ-NBD, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> provided a stronger luminescent signal, demonstrating good concentration-dependent enhancement (0–50 μM) (Figures 1B, 2A,B, and S2B) and time-dependent increase (30 min) (Figures 2A, 2B, and S2B). The limit of detection of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> toward H<sub>2</sub>S in an aqueous solution is 0.19 μM (Figure S4). In contrast, the QTZ-control did not react with H<sub>2</sub>S and exhibited nondetectable luminescent signal (Figure 1B).

Due to the diversity of interfering ions in biological research, the selectivity of H<sub>2</sub>S probes is a crucial parameter. More importantly, some SH<sup>-</sup> containing biomolecules, such as glutathione (GSH) and Cys, may participate in the thiolysis of DNP, NBD, and azide reduction, reducing the selectivity of the

probe.<sup>42</sup> Therefore, to detect the selectivities of QTZ-DNP, QTZ-NBD, and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>, probes were incubated in PBS (pH 7.4, 10 mM) with millimolar levels of GSH, Cys, and Glu, as well as micromolar levels of H<sub>2</sub>S. In addition, thiophenol was tested as well since its overproduction can lead to various diseases such as central nervous system damage, coma, and even death.<sup>48,49</sup> The results indicated that QTZ-DNP was more affected by thiophenol and Glu, and its reactivity toward thiophenol was ~1.8 times higher than that of H<sub>2</sub>S (Figure 1C). This might be due to the strong electron-withdrawing DNP ethers being prone to thiolysis. QTZ-NBD demonstrated a higher reactivity toward Cys than H<sub>2</sub>S (Figure 1C), which is due to the fact that H<sub>2</sub>S and thiols readily undergo nucleophilic aromatic substitution with electrophilic NBD derivatives to produce NBD-SH and NBD-SR compounds.<sup>50</sup> In contrast, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> showed better selectivity for H<sub>2</sub>S over multiple RSS (Figures 1C and S3). The good selectivity is likely due to the different pK<sub>a</sub> values of H<sub>2</sub>S, Cys, and GSH at physiological pH





**Figure 4.** (A) Schematic illustration of the 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor mouse model using QTZ and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>; (B) Bioluminescence imaging of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor-bearing mice. The mice were intravenously injected with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM). (C) Relative bioluminescence intensity in figure (A). (D) Tumor growth monitored using the luciferin substrate QTZ (100 μL, 1 mM) on days 3 and 12. Fluctuations of H<sub>2</sub>S in the tumor monitored using QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM) on days 6 and 30 and with QTZ-Control (100 μL, 1 mM) on days 9 and 31 in 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor-bearing mice. (E) Relative bioluminescence intensity of three groups in figure (D) and Figure S10. (F) Schematic illustration of the 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor mouse model using inhibitors. (G) Bioluminescence imaging of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor-bearing mice. Mice in the control group were intravenously injected with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM), while mice in the inhibitor groups were intratumorally injected with PAG, AOAA, or ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (50 μL, 2 mM) and then intravenously injected with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM). (H) Relative bioluminescence intensity in (G). (I) Inhibitory effects of PAG (5 and 1 mM) and BSO (5 and 1 mM) in 786-O-Nluc xenograft tumor-bearing mice. Mice in the control group were intravenously injected with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM), while mice in the inhibitor groups were intratumorally injected with PAG or BSO (50 μL, 2 mM) and then intravenously injected with QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μL, 1 mM). (J) Bioluminescence intensity in figure (I). Data are presented as mean ± SD (*n* = 4). *P* values were determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. \*\*\**P* < 0.001.

(Figure S1). Other substances tested, such as amino acids (Lysine), vitamin C, reactive oxygen species (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, etc.),

various anions, and metal ions, had negligible effects on QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>. We also found that QTZ-Control had almost no reactivity

toward H<sub>2</sub>S and other species (Figure 1C), indicating the designed H<sub>2</sub>S recognition groups are effective for H<sub>2</sub>S detection. Thus, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> was chosen for H<sub>2</sub>S detection in further studies due to its good stability, sensitivity, and selectivity.

#### Bioluminescence Imaging of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> toward H<sub>2</sub>S In Vitro

To further determine QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>'s performance, we conducted a study of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> with H<sub>2</sub>S in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 10 mM). The time- and concentration-dependent luminescence spectra (Figure 2A,B) revealed that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μM) exhibited a strong response to H<sub>2</sub>S under 0.5 μg/mL Nluc in PBS buffer. Moreover, the addition of 5.0 equiv of NaSH induced a rapid luminescence response within 20 min, with an emission wavelength of 467 nm (Figure S5). We also explored the pH stability of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (Figure 2C), observing that the optimal response occurred at physiological pH (7.4). Next, we verified the mechanism by which H<sub>2</sub>S triggers the release of QTZ from QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (Figures 2D and S6). The reaction products were recorded using liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC–MS), and the retention time of the product (6.990 min) matched closely with that of QTZ. The mass spectrum peak at 429.2 confirmed that the product was QTZ ([M + H]<sup>+</sup> calculated for C<sub>28</sub>H<sub>21</sub>N<sub>4</sub>O: 429.17). The proposed mechanism suggests that the aromatic azide of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> is reduced to an amine. This is followed by cascade reactions and rearrangement-elimination processes, resulting in the release of QTZ.<sup>51</sup> Subsequently, QTZ is catalyzed by Nluc, generating light (Scheme S1).<sup>37</sup> Furthermore, the concentration of endogenous GSH can reach up to 10 mM, while the endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S level is estimated to be in the low μM range. To evaluate the selectivity of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>, its response to 10 mM GSH and 100 μM H<sub>2</sub>S over time was measured in different media. Notably, negligible changes in luminescence intensity were observed in PBS (pH 7.4, 10 mM), RPMI 1640 cell culture medium, or FBS after 6 h of incubation, indicating the good stability of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>. After adding 10 mM GSH and 100 μM H<sub>2</sub>S for 40 min, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> showed better reactivity toward H<sub>2</sub>S than GSH (Figure 2E). These results confirm that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> exhibits good sensitivity, selectivity, and stability, providing a solid foundation for H<sub>2</sub>S detection using QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in cells and living organisms.

#### Bioluminescence Imaging of H<sub>2</sub>S in Living Cells

Next, we evaluated the capability of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> to detect the H<sub>2</sub>S level in living cells. 786-O cells, commonly used in RCC research, were employed in this study.<sup>52</sup> First, we used lentivirus-mediated transduction and clonal single-cell proliferation techniques to successfully introduce Nluc into 786-O cells, creating a 786-O-Nluc cell line with a stable expression of Nluc. Detailed experiments are provided in the Supporting Information (Tables S1 and S2). Then, we studied the cytotoxicity of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in 786-O-Nluc cells. Results showed that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> has a relatively low cytotoxicity with cell viability over 80% at 500 μM, indicating its good compatibility and suitability for cell imaging (Figure S7). To detect exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-Nluc cells, we incubated the cells with 100 μM QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> and different concentrations of NaHS. Luminescence response fluctuations were measured at 2, 5, 10, 15, and 20 min. Results indicated that the bioluminescence intensity correlated with the NaHS concentration (Figure 3A), detecting H<sub>2</sub>S as low as 0.34 μM in living cells (Figure 3B). The faster luminescence response in cells than that in PBS buffer is due to the rapid consumption of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>. Incubation

of 50 μM QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in 786-O-Nluc cells resulted in significant luminescence, likely due to endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S produced by live cells. The bioluminescence intensity increases as the concentrations of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> rise (Figure 3C,D). Similarly, longer incubation times led to a stronger luminescent signal. These results demonstrated that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> had good cell permeability and capability to monitor endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S. We also quantified the endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S content in 786-O-Nluc using a methylene blue colorimetric assay (Table S3 and Figure S8).<sup>33</sup> To further examine whether endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S triggered luminescence, we pretreated 786-O-Nluc cells with two H<sub>2</sub>S-generating enzyme inhibitors, aminooxyacetic acid (AOAA)<sup>53</sup> and propargylglycine (PAG),<sup>54</sup> as well as the H<sub>2</sub>S scavenger ZnCl<sub>2</sub>.<sup>23</sup> After incubating 786-O-Nluc cells with AOAA, PAG, or ZnCl<sub>2</sub> for 30 min, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (100 μM) was added for cellular bioluminescence imaging. Compared to untreated cells, the bioluminescence of cells treated with inhibitors significantly decreased, with the signal of PAG dropping from 169.3 ± 15.6 to 71.0 ± 3.0 (*P* < 0.0001), AOAA was decreased to 97.7 ± 2.3 (*P* < 0.0001), and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> to 23.7 ± 2.7 (*P* < 0.0001) at 15 min, indicating that PAG and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> are more effective inhibitors (Figure 3E,F). Indeed, PAG is reported to be a specific CSE inhibitor, while AOAA inhibits both CSE and CBS.<sup>55</sup> Considering that the GSH concentration in living organisms can reach up to 10 mM, we next assessed the ability of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> to specifically detect H<sub>2</sub>S, rather than GSH, in 786-O-Nluc cells. γ-Glutamylcysteine synthetase (γ-GCS) is responsible for GSH synthesis in cells, and the γ-GCS inhibitor L-buthionine sulfoximine (BSO) is known to effectively deplete intracellular GSH.<sup>56</sup> To eliminate the effect of GSH, we pretreated the cells with BSO and measured the bioluminescence intensity. The results in Figure 3G,H show that BSO had no significant effect on the bioluminescence level of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in 786-O-Nluc cells, while the PAG-treated group exhibited luminescence decrease (*P* < 0.01 and *P* < 0.001). These findings suggest that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> can serve as a sensitive and specific probe to identify endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S of living cells.

#### Bioluminescence Imaging in 786-O-Nluc Xenograft Nude Mice

After confirming the excellent H<sub>2</sub>S response of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in aqueous solutions and cells, we explored whether this probe could serve as a reporter for H<sub>2</sub>S in vivo. We constructed an RCC mouse model by injecting 786-O-Nluc cells into the flank of NU/J female mice. We intravenously injected QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> into the tumor-bearing mice, and then the bioluminescent imaging was measured (Figure 4A). To determine the optimal imaging time, we performed bioluminescence imaging on nude mice at various intervals from 5 to 60 min (Figure 4B,C). The results showed that the luminescence intensity increased gradually, peaked at 35 min, and remained stable for about 5 min, after which the intensity began to decline due to the consumption of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, we selected 35 min as the optimal time point for subsequent imaging to ensure maximum signal intensity and image quality. Importantly, QTZ serves as an effective substrate for Nluc, allowing for the detection of tumor occurrence and progression, while QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> sensitively responds to H<sub>2</sub>S levels in the tumor microenvironment. To quantify fluctuations of H<sub>2</sub>S during tumor growth, we alternated intravenous injections of QTZ and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> on different days. The results revealed that luminescent intensity from the tumors gradually increased on days 3, 8, and 12,

indicating the growth of RCC (Figures 4D,E and S10), and tumor size measurements further confirmed the successful establishment of the RCC model (Figure S9). Additionally, the signal of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> also increased on days 6, 14, and 30 (Figures 4D,E and S10). These findings strongly suggest that, during renal cancer progression, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> can noninvasively monitor H<sub>2</sub>S levels in real time, highlighting its potential as a valuable tool for assessing tumor microenvironments. Notably, currently available H<sub>2</sub>S probes often require the use of Cys as an inducer for H<sub>2</sub>S generation,<sup>20,22</sup> which significantly reduces the effectiveness of these probes for in situ monitoring of H<sub>2</sub>S at physiological conditions in vivo. As a control, 786-O-Nluc xenograft mice injected with QTZ-Control showed a weak bioluminescent background (Figure 4D,E), confirming that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> is a robust tool for detecting H<sub>2</sub>S in vivo. Furthermore, we evaluated the efficacy of H<sub>2</sub>S-generating enzyme inhibitors in vivo (Figure 4F). We pretreated tumor sites with inhibitors (PAG and AOAA) and a scavenger (ZnCl<sub>2</sub>) for 4 h. As shown in Figure 4G,H, compared to the control group, the bioluminescence inhibition ratio in PAG-pretreated mice (82.1%) was significantly lower than that observed in the AOAA (74.5%) and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (60.9%) groups. Finally, we evaluated the specificity of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in detecting H<sub>2</sub>S. To eliminate the impact of high GSH concentrations, we injected BSO into mice to lower the GSH levels. The results in Figure 4I,J showed that BSO treatment did not significantly affect the tumor imaging of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>, whereas the PAG group exhibited a significant difference ( $P < 0.001$ ). These findings provide strong evidence of the specificity of QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> in detecting H<sub>2</sub>S in vivo. Altogether, these results demonstrate that QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> can be used to monitor H<sub>2</sub>S in vivo, thereby facilitating further investigation into its biological functions.

## CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a H<sub>2</sub>S sensor library, including QTZ-DNP, QTZ-NBD, and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>, was designed by caging a QTZ luciferin with three H<sub>2</sub>S reactive groups. Through sensitivity and selectivity screening, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> exhibits the best sensitivity of H<sub>2</sub>S and good selectivity against various sulfur-containing reducing species. Unlike other bioluminescent probes for H<sub>2</sub>S detection, this new Nluc-QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> sensing system does not require external ATP, simplifying the experimental conditions. Additionally, it can sensitively detect H<sub>2</sub>S at physiological concentrations in both live cells and animals without requiring stimuli like Cys. Considering the critical role of H<sub>2</sub>S as a signaling molecule in cancer progression, our study will provide essential insights on the potential biological functions of H<sub>2</sub>S.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### General Procedures

All reagents were used without further purification and purchased from commercial suppliers (unless otherwise specified). Ultrapure water was purified by the Milli-Q system with a resistivity of 18.25 MΩ·cm. The <sup>1</sup>H NMR (600 MHz) and <sup>13</sup>C NMR (151 MHz) spectra recorded at 25 °C using Bruker AV 600 MHz spectrometers were reported as parts per million (ppm) from tetramethylsilane as the internal standard. High-resolution mass spectra (HRMS) were determined by a Bruker MicroToF ESI LC-MS System in the positive-ion mode. HPLC (Agilent Technologies, USA) was conducted. Purities of new compounds 4, 5, 6, and 7 reached at least >95% purity by HPLC (Figures S21, S25, S29, and S33). FBS, RPMI 1640 medium, and other cell culture reagents were purchased

from Gibco (Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA). UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded on a ThermoFisher Evolution 220 UV-vis spectrophotometer in 1 cm path-length quartz cells.

**Preparation of Various Analyses.** Various RSS or RONS were prepared according to the reported literature.<sup>20</sup> The testing solutions of NaHSO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, NaSH, Vitamin C, Lys, Glu, GSH, and Cys were prepared by dissolving or diluting each of them in ultrapure water. ClO<sup>-</sup> was prepared by dilution of commercial NaClO solution in ultrapure water, and the concentration was determined by measuring the absorbance at 209 nm. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was prepared by dilution of the commercial H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution, and the concentration was determined by measuring the absorbance at 240 nm. •OH was freshly generated by the Fenton reaction from ferrous ammonium sulfate and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> was obtained by dissolving KO<sub>2</sub> in DMSO to make a 2 mM stock solution. NO was produced by slowly adding 4 M sulfuric acid to sodium nitrite solids, and the NO gas was purified before use by passing it through a NaOH solution to eliminate NO<sub>2</sub>. All test solutions in the presence of nanoluciferase (Nluc) (0.5 μg/mL or 0.5 ng/mL) were allowed to stand for 20 min for measurement after being treated with RSS and other biomolecules.

**Cell Culture.** The 786-O-Nluc cells were maintained in an RPMI 1640 medium with 10% FBS and 1% antibiotic (penicillin-streptomycin) at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. The medium was changed every 24–48 h. The cells were subcultured at 90% confluence with 0.25% trypsin (w/v) every 2–3 days. Luciferase activities were determined using a multimode microplate reader (Infinite 200 PRO, Tecan). Total bioluminescent intensity counts are integrated over wavelengths from 400 to 800 nm, and the exposure time is 1000 ms.

**Mice Model.** NU/J female mice (6 weeks old) were purchased from Jackson Laboratory. All mouse protocols were in accordance with NIH guidelines and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Rice University. Animals were imaged using an IVIS Lumina II (Advanced Molecular Vision), following the recommended procedures and manufacturer's settings. To generate tumor xenografts in mice, the 786-O-Nluc cells (1 × 10<sup>7</sup>) were implanted subcutaneously under the left flank region of each 7-week-old female nude mouse.

**Imaging of Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in 786-O-Nluc Xenograft Nude Mice.** During the experiment, the nude mice were anesthetized with isoflurane. For monitoring the tumor growth, on the 3rd, 8th, and 12th days, QTZ (1 mM, 100 μL) was intravenously (retro-orbital (R.O.)) injected into four nude mice. For endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S detection, QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> (1 mM, 100 μL) was intravenously (R.O.) injected into four nude mice on the 7th, 14th, and 30th days. On the 9th and 31st days, QTZ-Control (1 mM, 100 μL) was intravenously (R.O.) injected into nude mice. As the experiments with inhibitors, on the 31st day, 50 μL of AOAA (2 mM), PAG (2 mM), and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (2 mM) was intratumorally injected into the mice. On the 8th day, 50 μL of BSO (2 mM) and PAG (2 mM) were intratumorally injected into the mice. Bioluminescence intensity was then measured for 300 s using the IVIS Imager. For the inhibition ratio, it can be calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Inhibition ratio} = \frac{\text{BL}_{\text{before treatment}} - \text{BL}_{\text{after treatment}}}{\text{BL}_{\text{before treatment}}} \times 100\%$$

where BL<sub>before treatment</sub> is the luminescence intensity of the control mice (without inhibitor) and BL<sub>after treatment</sub> is the luminescence intensity of the mice with inhibitor treatment.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsbiomedchemau.4c00102>.

Other experimental details; photoluminescent properties of QTZ-DNP, QTZ-NBD, and QTZ-N<sub>3</sub>; reaction mechanism between QTZ-N<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S; other details



about cell experiments and animal experiments; and synthesis, NMR, HRMS, and HPLC data (PDF)

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<sup>†</sup>K.L. and Y.W. contributed equally to this work. CRediT: **Kang Lu** conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, validation, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Yixian Wang** conceptualization, methodology, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Chenhang Wang** conceptualization, investigation, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Rui Liu** data curation, investigation; **Kaiqiang Yang** data curation, formal analysis, investigation; **Xuanchenye Zhang** data curation, formal analysis; **Han Xiao** conceptualization, funding acquisition, project administration, resources, supervision, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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