

NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

Pediatr Res. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2013 November 13.

Published in final edited form as:

Pediatr Res. 2009 April; 65(4): . doi:10.1203/PDR.0b013e3181994b85.

URINARY PROSTASIN: A POSSIBLE BIOMARKER FOR RENAL PRESSURE NATRIURESIS IN BLACK ADOLESCENTS

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Abstract

Prostasin is a membrane-bound/secretive serine protease interacting with aldosterone and the epithelial sodium channel in the kidney. We and others have previously proposed the concept of stress-induced pressure natriures (SIPN) where increased urinary sodium excretion $(U_{Na}V)$ is coupled with elevated blood pressure (BP) in response to behavioral stress in normotensive adolescents. This study thus aimed to test the relationship between prostasin and pressure natriuresis using the SIPN model. A cohort of 102 normotensive black adolescents (mean age: 17.0±1.2 years; 56% females) were placed on a controlled sodium (4000±200 mg/day) and potassium (2600±200 mg/day) diet for three days before testing. The SIPN protocol consisted of a one-hour baseline period, a one-hour stress period (competitive video games), and a one-hour recovery period. During the stress period, BP elevation was coupled with an increase in $U_{N_2}V$. Urinary prostasin concentration had more than a two-fold reduction from baseline (38.4±32.7 ng/ ml) to stress $(17.2\pm16.0 \text{ ng/ml})$, and further declined during recovery $(12.1\pm16.2 \text{ ng/ml})$ (p<0.001). Urinary prostasin was inversely correlated with U_{Na}V during stress (r=-0.43, p=0.0001), even after being normalized by urinary creatinine. Our data suggest that urinary prostasin could be a novel biomarker and/or mechanism for renal pressure natriuresis in normotensive black adolescents.

Keywords

prostasin; adolescents; pressure natriuresis; blood pressure; urinary sodium excretion

INTRODUCTION

Renal pressure natriuresis, one of the key mechanisms of blood pressure (BP) homeostasis (1), is critically dependent upon the activity of sodium channels and transporters expressed in the nephron. Chief among these are the epithelial sodium channels (ENaC) consisting of three subunits, ENaC, ENaC and ENaC in the cortical collecting duct (2, 3). Although sodium reabsorption by ENaC accounts for only a relatively small proportion (less than 5%), it constitutes the rate-limiting step and the final renal adjustment to sodium balance (4).

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Multiple mechanisms such as hormones, intracellular factors, and accessory regulatory proteins regulate ENaC function (2, 3). Aldosterone stimulates ENaC expression and activates an ENaC-regulating protein kinase, serum and glucocorticoid-regulated kinase 1 (SGK1). SGK1 inhibits ENaC ubiquitination by an ubiquitin ligase, the neural precursor cell expressed developmentally down-regulated 4-like protein (Nedd4L), and subsequently prevents channel degradation. A series of studies previously indicated that numerous proteases such as prostasin, a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored serine protease expressed in the distal nephron, are involved in the proteolytic processing and activation of ENaC subunits in Xenopus oocytes and a mouse cortical collecting duct cell line (5-16). Prostasin was thought to induce cleavage of an inhibitory peptide from ENaC to activate the channel fully in the cell (16–18). Of interest, aldosterone enhanced the expression of prostasin mRNA and protein in the cultured mouse cortical collecting duct cell line and in rats (19). In contrast, a single injection of adenovirus carrying the human prostasin gene caused a prolonged (3 to 4 weeks) increase in BP and plasma aldosterone concentration in rats, indicating that prostasin may cause BP elevation via the stimulation of aldosterone (20). Furthermore, a decrease in urinary prostasin excretion by a synthetic prostasin inhibitor resulted in an increase in urinary sodium excretion in Sprague-Dawley rats (21). These findings suggest that prostasin may participate in tubular sodium reabsorption and pressure natriuresis via either direct effects on ENaC or interactions with aldosterone.

Comparable data in humans are scarce. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among prostasin and renal pressure natriuresis in normotensive adolescents by using our stress-induced pressure natriuresis (SIPN) model (22-27). This model examines changes in pressure natriuresis induced by mental stress, which consists of a onehour baseline period, a one-hour stress period (competitive video games), and a one-hour recovery period. The SIPN hypothesis postulates that a stress-induced increase in BP leads to a corresponding increase in urinary sodium excretion ($U_{Na}V$). Impaired stress-induced sodium regulation and resultant extracellular volume expansion may lead to the future development of hypertension and its sequelae. The second goal of this study was to examine the interaction between aldosterone and prostasin during SIPN. We examined healthy normotensive black adolescents because 1) healthy normotensive adolescents may not have yet developed significant target organ damage, which can mask or compromise the normal response pattern; 2) the pressure natriures concept is particularly appealing owing to the greater sensitivity of BP to sodium in blacks compared to their white counterparts (28, 29); and 3) urinary prostasin could be used as a possible biomarker to screen adolescents at risk of BP elevation.

METHODS

Subject recruitment

The protocol was approved by the Human Assurance Committee of the Medical College of Georgia. A sample of 102 healthy normotensive black adolescents including 45 males and 57 females were recruited from local public high schools in the Augusta-Richmond County area via school announcements, flyers, handout, or word of mouth. Written informed parental consent and subject assent were obtained before testing. Black race (African American) was identified by self-report of each subject, and by parent if the subject was under 18 years of age. Normotension was based on BP screening, namely, <95th percentile for age, sex and height, or <140/90 mmHg for subjects aged 18 years or older (30). Other exclusion criteria included any chronic illness, medication use, or a positive pregnancy test.

Protocol

Weight, height, and BP were obtained at a screening visit before initiating the study protocol. The SIPN protocol has been previously described in detail (25–27). Briefly, subjects were placed on a controlled sodium and potassium diet for 3 days before testing. To do this, we met with the subjects before the week of their scheduled testing and planned each meal for each day, based on an average sodium and potassium intake of 4000±200 mg/ day and 2600±200 mg/day, respectively. Girls were not tested while on their menses, and were tested on the week following the completion of menstrual flow to ensure all girls were tested in the same phase of their menstrual cycle. During the test week the meals were packed into coolers each day and the subjects or parents picked up the coolers from the Georgia Prevention Institute. Overnight urine collection was used to estimate the subject's compliance with the sodium-controlled diet. On the fourth day the subjects performed the stress test, after having a breakfast provided. They were seated in a comfortable chair for the entire protocol, and ambulation was only allowed for collection of urine samples. The subjects emptied their bladders at the beginning of the baseline period. The protocol included a baseline period of one-hour (hour 1) during which the subjects watched a move. This was followed by a one-hour stress period (hour 2) during which a competitive video game task (Snowboard, Sony Corp., Foster City, CA) was played for a monetary reward between two subjects. Finally, there was a one-hour post-stress recovery period (hour 3) that was the same as the baseline period. Urine samples were obtained hourly, and hour 1 was considered as baseline U_{Na}V to insure that the subjects had similar urinary flow rates. Hour 2 and hour 3 were considered stress U_{Na}V and recovery U_{Na}V, respectively. BP was measured by a Dinamap monitor (Dinamap Compact Monitor, Tampa, FL) at an interval of 15 minutes. The individual BP values during each hour were averaged to obtain baseline BP (hour 1), stress BP (hour 2), and recovery BP (hour 3). The subjects were required to drink 250 ml of water every hour to insure that they remained hydrated and provided adequate urine samples.

Human urinary prostasin measurement

Urinary levels of immunoreactive human prostasin were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) prepared with the previously described antibody to human prostasin (31). Microtiter plates (96-well) were coated with anti-prostasin immunoglobulin G (IgG) (1 µg/mL, 100 µL per well) overnight at 4 °C. Purified prostasin standards 0.16–10 ng) or samples were added to individual wells in a total volume of 100 µL of phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.05% Tween 20 and 0.5% gelatin (dilution buffer and incubated at 37 °C for 90 minutes. Biotin-labeled anti-human prostasin IgG was added in each well at a concentration of 1 µg/mL in a total of 100 µL and incubated at 37 °C for 60 minutes. Peroxidase–avidin at a concentration of 1 µg/mL in a total volume of 100 µL was added and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. The color reaction was performed by adding 100 µL of freshly prepared substrate solution [0.03% 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) and 0.03% H₂O₂ in 0.1 M sodium citrate (pH 4.3)] to each well and incubating the mixture at room temperature for 30 minutes. The plates were read at 405 nm with a plate reader (Titertek Instruments Inc., Huntsville, AL).

Aldosterone, electrolyte and creatinine measurements

Aldosterone levels were determined using a competitive enzyme RIA kit (Diagnostic Systems Laboratories, Webster, TX). The sensitivity of the assay was 12 pg/ml. Intra-assay coefficient of variation was 7.1%; and inter-assay coefficient of variation was 13.2%.

Electrolytes and creatinine were analyzed by the ion selective electrode technique using a NOVA 16 Analyzer (NOVA Biomedical, Waltham, MA). The NOVA has an intra-assay coefficient of variation of less than 3% and an inter-assay coefficient of 4%.

Statistical analyses

The general characteristics of subjects were presented as mean \pm SD. The variations of clinical phenotypes among baseline (hour 1), stress (hour 2) and recovery (hour 3) were analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA, with adjustment of age, sex and body mass index (BMI). The correlations between urinary prostasin concentration and urinary prostasin concentration normalized by urinary creatinine, and U_{Na}V or plasma aldosterone were tested by simple bivariate correlation analyses, or partial correlation analyses to adjust for potential confounders such as age, sex and BMI. Log-transformation was performed to obtain approximation of normal distribution when necessary. A value of p < 0.05 was deemed statistically significant. The statistical analyses were performed with STATA 8.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX).

RESULTS

The subject characteristics are presented in Table 1. Subjects were normotensive black adolescents aged 17.0 ± 1.2 years. The average height of the subjects was 170.2 ± 8.7 cm, and the average BMI was 25.3 ± 5.4 kg/m². The values of plasma creatinine and plasma aldosterone were within normal ranges. Urinary prostasin was detectable in every subject, regardless of sex.

As shown in Table 1, the increment of systolic BP (SBP) and diastolic BP (DBP) from baseline (hour 1) to stress (hour 2) was approximately 4 to 5 mmHg, and both SBP and DBP dropped significantly during recovery (hour 3) as compared to stress (Ps<0.001). Similarly, $U_{Na}V$ was increased almost two-fold from baseline (7.0±4.1 mEq/hr) to stress (12.9±8.5 mEq/hr) (p<0.001), and declined during recovery (9.9±6.8 mEq/hr) as compared to stress (p=0.04). Conversely, urinary prostasin concentration had more than a two-fold reduction from baseline (38.4±32.7 ng/ml) to stress (17.2±16.0 ng/ml), and continuously declined during recovery (12.1±16.2 ng/ml) as compared to stress (p<0.001). As shown in Figure 1, urinary prostasin was inversely correlated with $U_{Na}V$ during stress (r=-0.43, p=0.0001), even after being normalized by urinary creatinine. Urinary prostasin did not correlate with $U_{Na}V$ at baseline (r=0.06, p=0.60) or $U_{Na}V$ during recovery (r=0.07, p=0.3).

Plasma levels of aldosterone were significantly reduced during stress (99.9 \pm 57.1 pg/ml) compared to baseline (115.1 \pm 61.0 pg/ml) and remained lower during recovery (101.5 \pm 55.2 pg/ml) (p<0.001). We did not find any significant correlations between aldosterone, and U_{Na}V or prostasin at baseline, stress or recovery.

DISCUSSION

For sodium balance to be maintained in the face of increased arterial pressure, there must be a shift of renal pressure natriuresis to higher BP (1, 32). The laboratory-based pressure natriuresis model (SIPN) exhibited a higher rate of $U_{Na}V$ when BP was elevated, which is a normal natriuretic response in healthy normotensive adolescents. We undertook the present study to test for the relationship between urinary prostasin and the natriuretic process in response to stress-induced BP elevation, after controlling dietary sodium and potassium intake. Our data demonstrated that there was a decrease in urinary prostasin concentration from baseline to stress, and from stress to recovery. In particular, from baseline to stress, urinary prostasin concentration decreased two-fold, while $U_{Na}V$ increased almost two-fold. Furthermore, prostasin was inversely correlated with $U_{Na}V$ during stress, that is, lower prostasin was associated with higher $U_{Na}V$. These findings suggest that prostasin could be involved in renal sodium reabsorption, and thus the renal-body fluid control of arterial pressure. Zhu et al.

Discovered more than a decade ago, prostasin is one of the only two known mammalian serine proteases that are attached to the plasma membrane via a GPI anchor (10, 33, 34). It has been predominantly studied in the pathological development of tumors and cancer such as prostate, breast, and ovarian cancer (10, 31, 35). Prostasin has recently attracted substantial attention as a potential mechanism underlying sodium and volume homeostasis and subsequent BP regulation, although the production, secretion and clearance of distal tubular prostasin and urinary prostasin are largely unknown. It is believed that prostasin has channel activating properties via the proteolytic cleavage of ENaC (16–18). Indeed, at the post-translational level, proteolytic processing is thought to be important if not essential to ENaC activation.

On the other hand, aldosterone regulates sodium balance, extracellular fluid volume, and BP (2, 36, 37). Aldosterone increases the rate of tubular sodium reabsorption across epithelia at the distal nephron by enhancing ENaC activity. Previously, Narikiyo et al showed that urinary prostasin secretion was substantially increased in three patients with primary aldosteronism, and that adrenalectomy significantly reduced urinary prostasin secretion (19). In an independent study, Olivieri *et al* demonstrated that spironolactone (100 mg), the traditional aldosterone receptor inhibitor, decreased urinary prostasin in five normotensive white adults in whom the renin/aldosterone axis was activated by low sodium intake (defined by urinary sodium<150 mmol/day in 24-hour urine), but it was ineffective in five subjects with high sodium intake (defined by urinary sodium>150 mmol/day in 24-hour urine) (38). Of note, urinary prostasin was evaluated by SDS-PAGE 2D gels, and Western blotting, which are generally considered to be less accurate and robust at the population level as compared to the ELISA technique used in this present study. We placed our subjects on a sodium- and potassium- controlled diet, yet failed to identify a significant correlation between aldosterone and prostasin at baseline, during stress, or recovery. Wang et al evaluated the effects of adenovirus-mediated gene transfer of human prostasin on BP regulation and sodium reabsorption in Wistar rats. Elevated plasma aldosterone levels were detected 3 days after gene transfer before the development of hypertension, indicating that stimulation of mineralocorticoid production was a primary target of prostasin (20). Alternatively, prostasin might modulate the pressure natriuresis relation, independent of aldosterone.

This study has some limitations. First, plasma and urine samples were collected and assayed only hourly throughout the SIPN protocol. Sample collections at more time points may enable us to reveal the dynamic relationship between prostasin and $U_{Na}V$ better. Second, the basal levels of urinary prostasin in our subjects were not examined because we did not collect urine samples prior to the start of the sodium-controlled diet. Decreased dietary sodium intake might exaggerate the role of prostasin via the activation of aldosterone. On the other hand, in our SIPN model, aldosterone was suppressed in response to stress, which might mask the true relationship between aldosterone and prostasin under stress. The dynamic relationship among urinary prostasin, salt intake, and aldosterone in normotensive adolescents needs to be studied using a salt sensitivity test, e.g., low salt diet (50 mmol/day) for five days followed by high salt (150 mmol/day) supplementation for ten days (39, 40). Third, as discussed above, since plasma aldosterone was only measured hourly, we cannot exclude the role of aldosterone in the pressure natriuresis relation over time in the SIPN model, even though no significant correlations between aldosterone and $U_{Na}V$ were found across baseline, stress and recovery.

Nonetheless, there have been only few studies investigating the role of prostasin in sodium balance in humans, although prostasin expressed in the distal nephron has been suggested to be an ENaC regulatory mechanism in vitro and in animals since the late 1990s. Our data are the first to indicate that prostasin is likely involved in pressure natriuresis at the population

level, specifically in black adolescents. Clinically, considering that urine is easily collected and represents a medium with a relatively low number of interfering proteins, urinary prostasin may be used as a possible biomarker for renal pressure and natriuresis. Our data in black adolescents warrant replication in other populations including white adolescents, normotensive adults, and patients with essential hypertension. Finally, although the crosssectional correlation between prostasin and stress-induced $U_{Na}V$ was recognized, a longitudinal study with repeated measures over time is under way to elucidate the contribution of prostasin to pressure natriuresis and BP further in youth.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by a grant from National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (HL077230).

ABBREVIATIONS

| BP | blood pressure |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------|
| ENaC | epithelial sodium channel |
| SIPN | stress induced pressure natriuresis |
| U _{Na} V | urinary sodium excretion |

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Figure 1.

Correlations between urinary prostasin normalized by creatinine and $U_{Na}V$ during stress. There were significant and negative correlations between urinary prostasin excretion (urinary prostasin concentration normalized by urinary creatinine concentration) and $U_{Na}V$ during stress (r=-0.43, p=0.0001) (adjusted for age, sex and body mass index).

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Table 1

General Clinical Characteristics

| | Baseline | Stress | Recovery | $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{overall}}$ | $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{b-s}}$ | $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{s}\cdot\mathbf{r}}$ |
|--|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Age, years (n=102) | 17.0±1.2 | | | | | |
| Male/female | 45/57 | | | I | | |
| Height, cm | 170.2 ± 8.7 | | | I | | |
| Body mass index, kg/m ² | 25.3±5.4 | I | I | I | | I |
| Systolic BP, mm Hg | 110 ± 12 | 115 ± 12 | 109 ± 11 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 |
| Diastolic BP, mm Hg | 60 ± 6 | 64 ± 6 | 60 ± 6 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 |
| Plasma sodium, mmol/L * | 136.7 ± 5.6 | 135.8 ± 6.0 | 136.2 ± 5.1 | 0.441 | 0.205 | 0.631 |
| Plasma potassium, mmol/L st | 4.4 ± 0.3 | 4.3 ± 0.4 | 4.3 ± 0.3 | 0.911 | 0.888 | 0.775 |
| Plasma creatinine, mg/dL * | 1.0 ± 0.4 | 0.9 ± 0.4 | 0.9 ± 0.4 | 0.038 | 0.046 | 0.685 |
| Plasma aldosterone, pg/ml * | 115.1 ± 61.0 | 99.9 ± 57.1 | 101.5 ± 55.2 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.521 |
| Urinary creatinine, mg/dL^* | 114.8 ± 95.0 | 65.0 ± 49.4 | 53.4 ± 46.5 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 |
| Urinary prostasin concentration, ng/ml | 38.4 ± 32.7 | 17.2 ± 16.0 | 12.1 ± 16.2 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 |
| Urinary prostasin excretion, ng/mg | 28 ± 11 | 26 ± 11 | 23 ± 10 | 0.005 | 0.038 | 0.014 |
| U _{Na} V, mEq/hr* | 7.0 ± 4.1 | 12.9 ± 8.5 | 9.9 ± 6.8 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.041 |
| | | : | | | | . |

Pediatr Res. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2013 November 13.

Values = means ± SD. The repeated ANOVA analyses were applied to analyze the overall and subgroup differences in variables across baseline (hour 1), stress (hour 2) and recovery (hour 3), with adjustment of age, sex and body mass index. Pb-s: baseline to stress; Ps-r: stress to recovery.

 $\overset{*}{}_{}$ Analyses were performed based on log transformed data;

** Urinary prostasin excretion was calculated as urinary prostasin concentration divided by urinary creatinine concentration.