Identification of an enzyme in human kidney that correctly processes prorenin

(renin/processing/proenzyme/secretory granule)

TATSUO SHINAGAWA*, YUNG S. Do*, JOHN D. BAXTERt, CYNTHIA CARILLIt, JAMES SCHILLINGt, AND WILLA A. HSUEH*

*Department of Medicine, Los Angeles County/University of Southern California Medical Center, Los Angeles, CA 90033; and tCalifornia Biotechnology, Mountain View, CA ⁹⁴⁰⁴³

Communicated by Irvine H. Page, October 30, 1989

ABSTRACT Using pure recombinant human prorenin as a substrate, we have identified an enzyme in human kidney that accurately processes prorenin to active renin (EC 3.4.23.15). In the crude homogenate, the predominant activity of this potential renin-processing enzyme (RPE) converted the M, 47,000 inactive prorenin to M_r 44,000 active renin and had a pH optimum of \approx 6. The activity was blocked by cysteine protease inhibitors, but not by pepstatin, EDTA, or serine protease inhibitors. This RPE activity was not detected in a similarly prepared homogenate of human chorion decidua tissue, which produces primarily prorenin, or in human plasma. The activity was purified 100-fold by ammonium sulfate precipitation, p-chloromercuribenzoate affmity chromatography, and chromatofocusing. The partially purified enzyme has a M_r of \approx 27,000 and an isoelectric point in the pH 4.8-5.6 range. The activity in the purified RPE preparation had the same pH optimum as that in crude homogenate, cleaved the prosegment at the same site used by the kidney in vivo based on aminoterminal sequencing of the processed renin, and did not degrade prorenin or renin. These data suggest that the cysteine protease we have isolated is a candidate for authentic renal RPE.

Generation of renin (EC 3.4.23.15) from its inactive biosynthetic precursor, prorenin, may play a crucial role in the production of the active form of this enzyme by the kidney $(1, 1)$ 2). Renin regulates the production of angiotensin ^I and, hence, angiotensin II, which is a major determinant of blood pressure and intravascular volume (3). Its availability determines overall activity of the system. The conversion of prorenin to renin may be of regulatory importance, since the relative plasma concentrations of prorenin and renin vary under different conditions (1, 2), and in diabetic nephropathy prorenin may be released without substantial release of renin (4). The generation of renin from prorenin involves partial proteolytic cleavage of the 43-amino acid prosegment after the dibasic residues, Lys-Arg, leaving leucine as the first amino acid in renin (5, 6). This processing step probably occurs in the storage granules of the renal juxtaglomerular cells, since prorenin is present in immature granules and disappears as the granules mature (7). Thus, physicochemical properties of the renin-processing enzyme include: (i) localization in the juxtaglomerular cells, (ii) activation of prorenin, and (iii) cleavage of the 43-amino acid prosegment without further destruction of active renin.

Several enzymes have been demonstrated to activate human prorenin (reviewed in refs. ¹ and 8). These include trypsin, plasmin, plasma and tissue kallikrein, epidermal growth factor, pepsin, and cathepsin B. However, the data

available to date do not establish whether any of these enzymes is the authentic renal prorenin-processing enzyme. Of those examined, only trypsin has been shown to cleave prorenin at the same site used by the kidney (9, 10). However, trypsin also cleaves prorenin at other sites, will degrade renin, and has not been found in human kidney (1). Kallikrein has been found in high concentrations in the cells of the vascular pole of the glomerulus but not in the juxtaglomerular cells (11). Cathepsin B, ordinarily a lysosomal enzyme (12), has been found in the juxtaglomerular cells (13); by methods similar to those used for purifying hepatic cathepsin B, Slater et al. (14) purified a cathepsin B-like enzyme from human kidney that activated plasma prorenin, although the site of cleavage was not determined.

In this study, we started with crude homogenate of human kidney to characterize and partially purify the predominant enzyme that activates prorenin. The availability of recombinant prorenin as a substrate has allowed us to avoid potential problems of contaminating plasma proteases and has provided enough material to determine the precise site of cleavage. The results indicate that the predominant processing activity is a thiol protease, that it activates prorenin by cleaving the same site clipped in native renin, and that it neither cleaves prorenin at other sites nor degrades the mature enzyme.

METHODS

Purification of Recombinant Prorenin. Recombinant prorenin was obtained from cultured Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells transfected with a vector that expresses the human renin gene (15). Medium (40 L) from these cells was concentrated by a Pellicon concentrator (Millipore, model 42 00K 50) to ¹ liter equilibrated against ²⁰ mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.0) containing the protease inhibitors EDTA (10 mM), phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF, 2 mM), 8 hydroxyquinoline (1 mM), aprotinin (20 kallikrein inhibitor units/liter), and benzamidine (20 mM). All purification steps were at 4° C. The concentrated medium (280 ml) was adjusted to ¹ M NaCl and applied to ^a phenyl Sepharose column (2.5 \times 10 cm) (Pharmacia). The column was washed with 3 column vol of the same buffer and prorenin eluted with 25% (vol/vol) ethylene glycol in water. The prorenin-containing fractions were pooled (38 ml), dialyzed against ²⁰ mM sodium acetate (pH 6.0) at 4° C for 24 hr, and applied to a pepstatin Sepharose affinity column (2.5 \times 6 cm), which removed active renin (6). The pepstatin pass-through fractions were combined (110 ml) and applied to cibacron blue affinity column $(1.5 \times 10 \text{ cm})$ (ref. 16; Bio-Rad). The bound prorenin eluted with a NaCl gradient $(0-1 \text{ M})$ in 25 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). The eluted fractions (23 ml) were

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: PMSF, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; RPE, reninprocessing enzyme; GU, Goldblatt unit(s).

See Methods for details. SA, specific activity expressed for prorenin concentration.

concentrated to ¹ ml on a Centricon-10 (Amicon) concentrator and subjected to gel filtration HPLC on ^a 30-cm TSK-3000 (Bio-Rad) preparative column (16).

Isolation and Assay of Renin-Processing Enzyme (RPE) Activity. Human renal cortex (10 g) was obtained from cadaver kidneys, frozen, and stored at -20° C, homogenized by Polytron (Brinkmann) in ²⁵ mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) at 4° C (1 g of tissue per 2 ml of buffer), and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. Twenty milliliters of the supernate (28 mg of protein per ml) was applied to a pepstatin affinity column $(1.5 \times 6$ cm) to remove endogenous active renin \lceil <10⁻⁵ Goldblatt units (GU)/ml]. Pepstatin pass-through fractions (50 μ l; 25 mg of protein per ml) were then incubated in the same buffer at 37° C for 2 hr with pure recombinant human prorenin (1-3 GU) prepared as described above.

Measurement of Active Renin Generated by RPE in Kidney Homogenates. The active renin concentration in the incubate was measured after radioimmunoassay of angiotensin ^I (Al) generated from sheep angiotensinogen (6); in this assay, 120,000 ng of $Al\text{-}ml^{-1}\text{-}hr^{-1}$ represents 1 GU of renin as determined against renal renin (68-356 GU) from the National Institute of Biological Standards and Controls (Holly Hill, London). The total renin concentration (prorenin plus renin) was determined by measurement of the active renin concentration after treatment with optimal concentrations of trypsin (1). In the enzyme assay, the prorenin concentration of the kidney preparation (usually $\langle 10 \text{ mGU/ml} \rangle$ is subtracted from the preparation incubated with recombinant prorenin.

Determination of Prorenin Cleavage by RPE. Recombinant prorenin (1-3 GU) was incubated with pepstatin-treated renal cortical homogenate (50 μ l). Ten microliters of this mixture was subjected to immunoblot analysis developed with an antibody against pure human renal renin, which cross-reacts with both renin and prorenin (17). In these assays, endogenous renin is undetectable (1 ng of renin is required) and endogenous prorenin is barely detectable and contributes negligibly to the total prorenin. Conversion of M_r 47,000 prorenin to M_r 44,000 renin indicated the presence of RPE activity.

Characterization of the RPE. The pH optimum of activity was determined by immunoblot analysis of recombinant prorenin incubated with pepstatin-treated kidney homogenate at pH 4.0-8.0 for ² and 24 hr at 37°C. The effects of protease inhibitors to inhibit RPE activity were tested at the pH optimum for ² hr at 37°C. Inhibitors included the metalloprotease inhibitor EDTA (10 mM); the aspartyl protease inhibitor pepstatin (1 mM); serine protease inhibitors benzamidine (20 mM), PMSF (0.2 mM), aprotinin (0.1 ng/ml), and soybean trypsin inhibitor (0.1 mg/ml) ; and thiol protease inhibitors leupeptin (1 mM), E-64 (0.1 mM), p-hydroxymercuribenzoic acid (0.1 mM), 2,2-dithiodipyridine (1 mM), and iodoacetic acid (1 mM). The isoelectric point of RPE was assessed by activity in fractions following chromatofocusing (Pharmacia) of pepstatin-treated kidney homogenate. The molecular weight was estimated by gel-filtration HPLC.

The site of RPE cleavage of recombinant prorenin was determined by amino-terminal sequencing of pure renin obtained after incubation of semipurified RPE with pure recombinant prorenin at 37°C and pH 6.0 for 24 hr. RPE was semipurified as described in Results, once the enzyme inhibitor profile of renin-processing activity was identified. Active processed renin was purified from the incubate by affinity chromatography with H-77, a synthetic octapeptide renin inhibitor (6, 18). Amino acid sequencing was performed on the Applied Biosystems model 370A gas-phase microsequencer (19). The phenylthiohydantoin (PTH) derivative was analyzed by the on-line PTH analyzer (Applied Biosystems model 120).

RESULTS

Purification of Recombinant Prorenin. A scheme for the purification of human recombinant prorenin is given in Table 1. Nearly half of the total renin in the concentrated CHO medium was active; this was removed by pepstatin affinity chromatography (6). Renin in the pepstatin pass-through fractions was 97% inactive at 0°C or 37°C and remained as such during subsequent steps. The prorenin bound to Affi-Gel Blue and eluted with 0.5 M NaCl (16). Prorenin eluted from HPLC with a single band of M_r 47,000, characteristic of recombinant prorenin (16). The purification resulted in 170 μ g of prorenin with ^a specific activity of ⁹⁸⁰ GU per mg of protein and an overall yield of 18%. SDS gel electrophoresis demonstrated a major protein band with a molecular weight the same as that determined by HPLC (Fig. 1). This band shows some broadening, perhaps because of variations in glycosylation (9, 15). However, a band corresponding to active renin is not detectable. Thus, enzyme activity of the purified prorenin is primarily due to that of intact prorenin. The first 11 amino acids of pure recombinant prorenin were sequenced and were identical to those predicted by the cDNA sequence (20-23). Thus, the intact 43-amino acid prosegment was present in the purified prorenin.

Characterization of Renin Processing Activity. RPE activity in renal cortical homogenate passed through a pepstatin column was maximal at pH 4.0-6.0 (Fig. 2A) with some activity at pH 7.0, which markedly decreased at pH 8.0. The conversion at pH 6.0 was found to be time dependent with nearly complete conversion by 2 hr (data not shown). With

 $M_r \times 10^{-3}$ 130 - 75 - 50 - 39 27 17

FIG. 1. Pure human renal renin (6) and pure recombinant prorenin run on SDS/PAGE stained with silver nitrate. Recombinant prorenin has a M_r of 47,000, while renal renin has a M_r of 44,000 with M_r 22,000 and 18,000 fragments. AR PR **AR, active renin; PR, prorenin.**

prolonged incubation overnight there was destruction of prorenin and renin at pH 4.0 and 5.0 but no significant destruction at pH 6.0. The time course of generation of renin activity is shown in Fig. 2B. At 0 hr, 17% of the prorenin was active, probably due to activation while sitting with pepstatin-treated kidney homogenate in a 4°C ice bath for the duration of the experiment. With time of incubation at pH 4.0-7.0, there was increasing generation of enzymatically active renin, while negligible generation occurred at pH 8.0. The maximal rate of generation appeared to occur at pH 6.0 with 85% of the recombinant prorenin activated by 2 hr. When incubated alone at pH 4.0-8.0, 37°C pure recombinant prorenin levels remained stable at ²¹ GU as determined by trypsin activation with no change in its molecular weight by immunoblot analysis. That the generation of active renin was dependent on the RPE in the homogenate was also indicated by the finding that dilution of the preparation led to progressive loss of RPE activity (data not shown). Activity was nearly abolished when the extract was diluted 1:16. In addition, when recombinant prorenin was incubated with a homogenate of human chorion decidua prepared under the same conditions as kidney cortex or normal human plasma, at pH 6.0 and 37°C for ² hr, no processing of prorenin was detected (data not shown).

The enzyme class of renin processing activity was determined by the effectiveness of enzyme inhibitors as followed by immunoblot analysis (Table 2). No inhibition of prorenin processing was seen with EDTA, pepstatin, or a variety of serine protease inhibitors. In contrast, the cysteine and serine protease inhibitor, leupeptin, was found to exhibit dosedependent inhibition of processing that was complete at ¹

FIG. 2. (A) Immunoblot analysis demonstrating effect of pH on the ability of RPE to convert M_r 47,000 recombinant prorenin to M_r 44,000 renin. The reaction was performed for 2 hr at 37°C. (B) Effect of pH and time on generation of active renin from inactive recombinant prorenin at 37°C by pepstatin-treated kidney homogenate passed through pepstatin. Each point represents three measurements performed in duplicate. The total renin determined by trypsin treatment was 21 GU.

Table 2. Effects of inhibitors of the renin-processing enzyme

	Concentration	Type of protease inhibitor
	No inhibition	
Benzamidine	20 mM	Serine
EDTA	$10 \text{ }\mathrm{mM}$	Metallo
Pepstatin	1 mM	Aspartyl
PMSF	$0.2 \text{ }\mathsf{mM}$	Serine
Aprotinin	0.1 mg/ml	Serine
Soybean trypsin inhibitor	0.1 mg/ml	Serine
	Inhibition	
Leupeptin	$1 \text{ }\mathbf{m}$ M	Thiol
E-64	$0.1 \text{ }\mathsf{mM}$	Thiol
p-Hydroxymercuribenzoic acid	$0.1 \text{ }\mathrm{mM}$	Thiol
2,2-Dithiodipyridine	1 mM	Thiol
Iododiacetic acid	1 mM	Thiol

Inhibitors were tested at the indicated concentration during incubation of crude renal cortical homogenate (see text for details of preparation) with recombinant prorenin at pH 6.0 and 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 hr.

mM leupeptin (Fig. 3). Leupeptin also inhibited generation of renin enzyme activity from inactive prorenin but did not interfere in the renin assay. Other cysteine protease inhibitors, E-64, p-hydroxymercuribenzoic acid, 2,2-dithiodipyridine, and iododiacetic acid were also effective inhibitors of RPE activity. The finding that RPE activity in the crude homogenate was completely blocked by the thiol protease inhibitors suggests that almost all of the extractable RPE in the kidney at pH 6.0 is of this class of enzyme.

Partial Purification of the RPE. The putative RPE was partially purified by homogenizing human renal cortex (730 g) in ²⁰ mM sodium phosphate buffer (1500 ml) (pH 6.0) containing ¹ mM EDTA. All procedures were performed at 4°C. After ammonium sulfate precipitation, the 25-65% fractions were dissolved in ⁵⁰ mM sodium acetate (150 ml) (pH 6.0) containing ¹ mM EDTA, dialyzed overnight against the same buffer, and applied to a p-chloromercuribenzoate agarose affinity column $(2.5 \times 12.0 \text{ cm})$ (Pierce). The column was washed with ³ column vol of ⁵⁰ mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 6.0) containing ¹ mM EDTA and 0.5 M NaCl and the bound RPE eluted with ²⁰ mM cysteine in the same buffer. The eluted fractions were combined (70 ml total); dialyzed against 4 liters of 25 mM histidine hydrochloride (pH 6.0) containing ¹ mM EDTA; and applied to ^a chromatofocusing column $(1.5 \times 10.0 \text{ cm})$ (PBE-94, Pharmacia), which was eluted with a pH gradient 6.6-4.2 (Polybuffer 74-HCl, Pharmacia). RPE activity was detected in fractions spanning pH 4.8-5.6 with major peaks at 5.0 and 5.3. The combined fractions contained 48 mg of protein in 60 ml of buffer. One milliliter of this preparation generated 2.5 GU of renin from 3.0 GU of prorenin, whereas ¹ ml of kidney homogenate generated 0.7 GU of renin from the same amount of prorenin. This suggests approximately a 100-fold purification of the processing enzyme. This RPE preparation was used for determination of molecular weight and for preparation of processed renin for amino-terminal sequencing. Incubation

Leupeptin, M

FIG. 3. Leupeptin inhibition of prorenin processing by pepstatin treated kidney homogenate. No inhibition occurs with 10 mM leupeptin.

of the semipurified preparation of RPE with prorenin was generally performed with ⁵ mM cysteine. It eluted as ^a single peak with an estimated M_r of 27,000 following gel filtration HPLC (Fig. 4).

To determine whether RPE destroys active renin, semipurified RPE (50 μ l; 0.8 μ g of protein per ml) was incubated with 5 μ l (30 μ g/ml) of pure active renal renin at pH 6.0 and 37°C for 2 hr. Although prorenin was converted to active renin under these conditions, neither this renin nor renal renin was further degraded to lower molecular weight forms as judged by immunoblot analysis (Fig. 5). In addition, renin concentration of the pure renal renin preparation was 150 mGU before and ¹⁴⁰ mGU after incubation with RPE.

Amino-Terminal Sequencing of the Processed Renin. Six hundred micrograms of pure recombinant prorenin was obtained from several purifications and incubated overnight at pH 6.0 and 37 $^{\circ}$ C with a semipurified RPE preparation containing \approx 550 μ g of protein in a final vol of 13 ml. Ninety-five percent of the prorenin was activated. Purification of the processed renin by H-77 affinity chromatography resulted in 360μ g of protein demonstrating a triplet on SDS/PAGE (Fig. 5, lane A) with a M_r of \approx 44,000 and a specific activity of 1200 GU per mg of protein. This represents an overall recovery of 63% of the processed renin, consistent with previous results for renal renin (6). The heterogeneity of processed renin is likely due to variations in glycosylation $(9, 15)$, since microsequencing of this material indicated a single amino terminus, shown in Fig. 6B. Amino acid 5, a known glycosylation site, was not identified, since our microsequencing method does not consistently detect glycosylated amino acids. Thus, RPE clips the complete 43-amino acid prosegment from the amino terminus of prorenin after paired basic residues Lys-Arg.

DISCUSSION

The availability of human recombinant prorenin is a key development to study the putative RPE. Using a five-step procedure, we purified human recombinant prorenin. The specific activity of the trypsin-treated material was ⁹⁸⁰ GU per mg of protein, which is similar to that reported for human active renal renin (6, 24-26) and is in general agreement with that reported for semipurified and pure preparations of recombinant prorenin (9, 27, 28). Pure prorenin was $\approx 97\%$ inactive and the residual renin activity appeared to be due to prorenin rather than contaminating renin based on SDS/ PAGE analysis of the preparation. This activity of prorenin may result from an equilibrium between inactive and active prorenin (10), since amino-terminal sequencing indicated that the 43-amino acid prosegment of purified prorenin was intact. Therefore, pure recombinant prorenin resembles the native

FIG. 4. Gel filtration HPLC of semipurified RPE. Arrows denote molecular weight markers $(\times 10^{-3})$. The molecular weight estimate of RPE is 27,000.

FIG. 5. Pure recombinant prorenin and pure human renal renin were incubated without (lane A, prorenin; lane B, active renin) and with (lane C, active renin; lane D, prorenin) semipurified RPE (see text) at 37°C and pH 6.0 for ² hr. Although prorenin was processed to active renin (lane D), no change or destruction of native active renin occurred (lane B is not changed from lane C). The M_r 22,000 and 18,000 subunits have been described (6).

substrate seen by RPE in terms of its amino acid sequence and low enzyme activity.

Using recombinant prorenin as a substrate, we assayed homogenates of human renal cortex for RPE activity identified by conversion of M_r 47,000 prorenin to M_r 44,000 active renin. In crude homogenates, the pH optimum for the RPE was between ⁴ and 6. At pH 6.0 there was negligible destruction of the active renin generated, although the possibility of contaminating proteases was suggested by the finding that at pH 4.0 and 5.0 there was some destruction of renin with prolonged incubation. Cleavage and activation of prorenin by RPE is time and concentration dependent. Inhibitor studies indicate that essentially all of the RPE present in the kidney homogenate at pH 6.0 is of the cysteine protease class. Thus, this enzyme class is the predominant one present in the renal cortex that can cleave prorenin to renin.

The RPE was further purified 100-fold. The partially purified enzyme had an isoelectric point between pH 4.8 and 5.6 and an estimated M_r of 27,000. The amino-terminal sequence of the active renin generated by partially purified RPE was identical to that of native active renal renin, indicating that this RPE correctly processes prorenin. Furthermore, under conditions in which the RPE converts 95% of the prorenin to active renin, there was no detectable conversion of this renin or of pure human renal renin to lower molecular weight degraded forms, suggesting that this activity resembles that in vivo.

B

Leu Thr Leu Gly X X X Ser Ser Val AR: Leu Thr Leu Gly X ^X ^X Ser Ser Val lie Leu Thr Asn Tyr Met Asp Thr Gin PR: Leu Thr Leu Giy X Thr Thr Ser Ser Val Ile

FIG. 6. (A) SDS/PAGE of pure active human renal renin (AR) and pure recombinant prorenin treated with RPE (processed renin, PR). Both have a M_r of 44,000. (B) Amino-terminal sequence of PR compared to that of AR (7).

The renal juxtaglomerular cells are the major source of circulating active renin, since nephrectomy results in an acute and profound drop in the plasma active renin concentration (29). Whether any of the extrarenal sites of prorenin production (30) process prorenin to renin has not been established. However, renin has been localized to secretory granules in the rat adrenal and in human pituitary (31). As discussed earlier, the secretory granule is likely the intracellular site of prorenin to renin processing. The intracellular pH of the renin secretory granules is unknown. In the pancreas, the insulin secretory vesicles have a pH of 5.0-6.0 with proinsulin to insulin conversion occurring at a greater rate in the more acidic vesicles (32). In our studies, RPE activity was optimal in the pH 4-6 range with greatly decreased activity at pH 8. In contrast, chorion decidua from normal pregnant women produces primarily prorenin, rather than active renin, which is secreted constitutively by membrane-bound vesicles (33). The finding that no RPE activity could be detected in plasma or in homogenate of human chorion decidua, a tissue that primarily produces prorenin, handled in an identical manner as renal cortical homogenate could imply that RPE is specific for certain tissues and that processing of prorenin is not the result of nonspecific tissue proteases in general for all tissues.

It is not possible to know whether any of the other enzymes that have been demonstrated to activate inactive prorenin in *vitro* $(1, 8)$ are identical to the RPE we have isolated. These previous studies used impure preparations of human prorenin, which made it difficult to determine the exact site of the cleavage. In fact, prorenin can be activated by cleavage at other sites. For example, we have found that after exposure to pH 3.0 recombinant prorenin in CHO cell culture medium can be cleaved to an intermediate form of fully active renin with 11 amino acids of the prosegment still present (34). Heinrickson et al. (10) also reported the existence of active forms of renin containing prosegment sequences. Thus, the cleavage site specificity is an important requirement for the identification of the renal RPE. Furthermore, our studies with the protease inhibitors, PMSF and benzamidine, indicate that RPE is not a serine protease and, with aprotinin, suggest that RPE is also not kallikrein.

The thiol protease inhibitors leupeptin, *p*-chloromercuribenzoate, E-64, iodoacetate, and 2,2-dipyridyl sulfate are potent inhibitors of the RPE we have isolated. This inhibitor profile is similar to that of the lysosomal cysteine proteases cathepsins B, H, and L (12). The RPE we identified differs slightly from cathepsin B in that EDTA did not inhibit its activity (35). Previous studies suggested that a renal thiol protease and cathepsins B, H, and L can convert higher molecular weight prorenin to a lower molecular weight and activate human plasma prorenin (14, 36, 37). The kidney contains large amounts of cathepsin B, which has been localized to renin-containing granules in the rat (13). However, the exact site of cleavage of prorenin by cathepsin B has not been identified. Thiol proteases, which cleave after dibasic residues, have been implicated in the processing of other mammalian prohormones such as proinsulin (38) and proalbumin (39). Thus, the RPE we have identified could be cathepsin B.

In summary, we have identified and partially purified a potential RPE in human kidney with the requisite properties for the authentic RPE. Ultimate confirmation of the enzyme we have characterized as the RPE lies in complete purification and identification of the enzyme, as well as localization

of this enzyme to the renin-containing granules in the juxtaglomerular cells of the kidney.

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grants DK37684 and HL35706, and by a gift from Wyeth Pharmaceuticals.

- 1. Sealey, J. E., Atlas, S. A. & Laragh, J. H. (1980) Endocrinol. Rev. 1, 365-391.
- 2. Goldstone, R., Hsueh, W. A., Carlson, E. J. & Horton, R. (1983) J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab. 56, 264-268.
- 3. Page, I. H. & Bumpus, F. J. (1974) Angiotensin: Handbook of Experi-mental Pharmacology (Springer, New York), Vol. 37.
- 4. Luetscher, J. A., Kraemer, F. B., Wilson, D. M., Schwartz, H. C. & Bryer-Ash, M. (1985) N. Engl. J. Med. 312, 1412-1418.
- 5. Hirose, S., Kim, S.-J., Miyazaki, H., Park, Y.-S. & Murakami, K. (1985) J. Biol. Chem. 260, 16400-16405.
- 6. Do, Y. S., Shinagawa, T., Tam, H. & Hsueh, W. A. (1987)J. Biol. Chem. 262, 1037-1043.
- 7. Taugner, R., Murakami, K. & Kim, S. J. (1986) Histochemistry 85, 107-109.
- 8. Inagami, T., Okamoto, H., Ohtsuki, K., Shimamoto, K., Chao, J. & Margolius, H. S. (1982) J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab. 55, 619-623.
- 9. Carilli, C. T., Wallace, L. C., Smith, L. M., Wong, M. A. & Lewicki, A. (1988) J. Chromatogr. 444, 203-208.
- 10. Heinrickson, R. L., Hui, J., Zurcher-Neely, H. & Poorman, R. A. (1989) Am. J. Hypertens. 2, 367-380.
- 11. Xiong, W., Chao, L. & Chao, J. (1989) Kidney Int. 35, 1324-1329.
- 12. Barrett, A. J. & Kirschke, H. (1981) Methods Enzymol. 80, 535-580.
13. Taugner, C., Biihrle, C. P., Nobiling, R. & Kirschke, H. (1985) H
- Taugner, C., Biihrle, C. P., Nobiling, R. & Kirschke, H. (1985) Histochemistry 83, 103-108.
- 14. Slater, E. E., Gounaris, A. D. & Haber, E. (1979) Clin. Sci. 57, 93s-96s.
- 15. Fritz, L., Arfsten, A., Carilli, C., Baxter, J. & Ponte, P. (1986) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83, 4114-4118.
- 16. Hsueh, W. A., Do, Y. S., Shinagawa, T., Tam, H., Ponte, P. A., Baxter, J. D., Shine, J. & Fritz, L. C. (1986) Hypertension 8, Suppl. 2, 78-82.
- 17. Do, Y. S., Sherrod, A., Lobo, R. A., Paulson, R. J., Shinagawa, T., Chen, S., Kjos, S. & Hsueh, W. A. (1988) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85, 1957-1%1.
- 18. McIntyre, G. D., Leckie, B., Hallett, A. & Szelke, M. (1983) Biochem. J. 211, 519-522.
- 19. Hewick, R. M., Hunkapiller, M. W., Hood, L. E. & Dreyer, W. J. (1981) J. Biol. Chem. 256, 7990-7997.
- 20. Imai, T., Miyazaki, H., Hirose, S., Hori, H., Hayashi, T., Kageyama, R., Ohkubo, H., Nakanishi, S. & Murakami, K. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 7405-7409.
- 21. Soubrier, F., Panthier, J. J., Corvol, P. & Rougeon, F. (1983) Nucleic Acids Res. 11, 7181-7190.
- 22. Hardman, J. A., Hort, Y. J. & Catanzaro, D. F. (1984) DNA 3, 457-468. 23. Hobart, P. M., Fogliano, M., O'Connor, B. A., Schaefer, I. M. &
- Chirgwin, J. M. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81, 5026-5030. 24. Yokosawa, H., Holladay, L. A., Inagami, T., Haas, E. & Murakami, K.
- (1980) J. Biol. Chem. 255, 3498-3502.
- 25. Slater, E. E. & Strout, H. V., Jr. (1981) J. Biol. Chem. 256, 8164-8171.
26. Galen, F. X., Devaux, C., Guyenne, T., Menard, J. & Corvol, P. (1979) 26. Galen, F. X., Devaux, C., Guyenne, T., Menard, J. & Corvol, P. (1979) J. Biol. Chem. 254, 4848-4855.
- 27. Evan, D. B., Weighous, T. F., Cornette, J. C., Tarpley, W. G. & Sharma, S. K. (1987) Biotechnology 5, 705–708.
28. Ishizuka, Y., Saito, M., Hori, H., Poorman, R. A., Yoshida, S. &
- Murakami, K. (1988) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 152, 849-856. 29. Derkx, F. H. M., Verhoeven, R. P. & Wenting, G. J. (1978) Clin. Sci.
- Mol. Med. 55,1295-1365. 30. Re, R. N. (1984) Arch. Intern. Med. 144, 2037-2041.
-
- 31. Saint-Andre, J. P., Rohner, V., Pinet, F., Rousselet, M. C., Bigorgne, J. C. & Corvol, P. (1989) Histochemistry 91, 291-297.
- 32. Orci, L., Ravazzola, M., Amherdt, M., Madsen, O., Perrelet, A., Vassalli, L. D. & Anderson, R. G. W. (1986)J. CellBiol. 103, 2273-2281.
- 33. Shaw, K., Do, Y. S., Kjos, S., Anderson, P. W., Shinagawa, T., Dubeau, L. & Hsueh, W. A. (1989) J. Clin. Invest. 83, 2085-2092.
- 34. Shinagawa, T., Do, Y. S., Baxter, J., Shine, J. & Hsueh, W. A. (1987) Clin. Res. 35, 449A (abstr.).
- 35. Szego, C. M., Seller, B. J. & Smith, R. E. (1976) J. Biochem. 69, 463-474.
- 36. Takahashi, S., Murakami, K. & Miyake, Y. (1982) J. Biochem. 91, 419-422.
- 37. Luetscher, J. A., Bialek, J. W. & Grislis, G. (1982) Clin. Sci. Mol. Med. A4, 2149-2159.
- 38. Docherty, K., Hutton, J. H. & Steiner, D. F. (1984) J. Biol. Chem. 259, 6041-6044.
- 39. Bathurst, L. C., Brennan, S. O., Carrell, R. W., Cousens, L. S., Brake, A. J. & Barr, P. J. (1987) Science 235, 348-350.