

Platelet regulation of thrombin generation in cardiovascular disease

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Platelets are intimately involved in the events leading to cardiac ischemia through their release of bioactive substances, aggregation, and support of procoagulant reactions at sites of atherosclerotic plaque formation and rupture. This review article will focus on what is currently known about the regulation of thrombin generation on the surface of activated platelets, and how it relates to thrombus formation.

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Cardiac ischemic events, such as myocardial infarction, are characterized by thrombosis associated with atherosclerotic plaque rupture¹⁻⁵. Exposure of subendothelial matrix proteins subsequent to plaque rupture initiates adhesion of, and consequently, activation of platelets. Platelet activation results in a myriad of events involved in atherosclerotic lesion formation⁶. Activated platelets release the contents of their α - and dense-granules, which contain cytokines and growth factors that contribute to the migration and proliferation of smooth muscle cells and monocytes⁷. Arachidonic acid is formed, which can be transformed into prostaglandins such as thromboxane A₂, a potent vasoconstricting and platelet-aggregating substance, or into leukotrienes, which can amplify the inflammatory response involved in atherosclerosis⁶. Activated platelets aggregate via the crosslinking of platelets through fibrinogen interactions with activated α IIb β ₃ that is expressed on the platelet surface. This important event results in recruitment of additional platelets to the growing, platelet-rich thrombus⁸. Activated platelets also express binding sites for the assembly of procoagulant enzyme complexes resulting in thrombin generation.

Thrombin is an important bioregulatory molecule, which, beyond its role in blood coagulation, promotes numerous cellular effects including chemotaxis, proliferation, cytokine release, and extracellular matrix turnover⁹. All of these cellular effects of thrombin have been implicated in inflammatory and fibroproliferative disorders

such as atherosclerosis⁹. Typically, thrombin formation requires a series of zymogen to protease conversions catalyzed by select enzymatic complexes assembled on the surface of activated platelets or perhaps damaged endothelium, as well as thrombogenic surfaces exposed subsequent to atherosclerotic plaque rupture. The plasma serine protease factor VIIa binds to tissue factor expressed on subendothelial cells such as pericytes¹⁰, fibroblasts¹¹, and smooth muscle cells¹¹; or smooth muscle cells and macrophages within the atherosclerotic plaque^{6,11,12}. The tissue factor/factor VIIa complex catalyzes the formation of factors IXa and Xa¹³. Factors IXa and Xa interact with their required cofactors resulting in thrombin formation.

Role of the activated platelet in regulation of thrombin generation

Activated platelets promote the assembly and function of the procoagulant enzyme complexes intrinsic tenase and prothrombinase to effect the generation of factor Xa and thrombin, respectively¹⁴. To function effectively, both complexes require the Ca²⁺-dependent formation of a stoichiometric (1:1), platelet-bound complex of a cofactor protein (factor VIIIa or Va) and serine protease (factor IXa or Xa, respectively)¹⁵. Multiple studies suggest that specific platelet receptors for factors Va and Xa are expressed on the surface of activated platelets. Although factor Va is required, it is not sufficient to mediate binding of factor Xa. Instead, factors Va and Xa

bind to discrete binding sites on activated platelets whose expression is independently regulated as a function of agonist concentration. Assembly of functional prothrombinase is regulated further by anionic phospholipid made available subsequent to platelet activation¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Platelet activation also results in the expression of a prothrombin-binding site proposed by Walsh and colleagues¹⁹. Prothrombin's occupancy of this site has no effect on binding of factors Va and Xa. Thus, platelets modulate the assembly of prothrombinase at their surface through activation-dependent events that independently regulate both factors Va and Xa binding²⁰.

Several other studies support the notion that factors Va and Xa interact with specific receptors on the surface of activated platelets. For example, factor V does not bind to activated platelets until it is activated to the functional cofactor²¹. Factor X, factor IXa, and prothrombin do not compete with factor Xa for platelet binding²². Furthermore, various mutations in factor X or factor Xa have different effects on the ability of the protease to interact with factor Va on platelets as compared to factor Va on phospholipid vesicles^{23,24}. We demonstrated that effector cell protease receptor-1 (EPR-1), a factor Xa receptor shown to be expressed by select leukocyte subpopulations^{25,26}, and vascular endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells²⁷, is important in mediating factor Xa binding to platelets using specific anti-EPR-1 MoAbs²⁰. The presence of EPR-1 on collagen-adherent platelets, and fibrinogen-adherent platelets activated by thrombin was recently confirmed using a monoclonal antibody against a peptide²⁸ that corresponds to the factor Xa binding site on EPR-1 expressed by human umbilical vein endothelial cells²⁹. However, this antibody, as well as the synthetic EPR-1 peptide it was directed against, had no effect on thrombin generation on the surface of thrombin-activated, fibrinogen-adherent platelets. We have made similar observations with this peptide using thrombin-activated, non-adherent platelets³⁰. However, it is important to note that in contrast to other cell types, platelet activation is required for EPR-1 expression. Furthermore, factor Xa binding to activated platelets is absolutely dependent upon platelet-bound factor Va. Clearly, EPR-1 or an EPR-1-like molecule expressed by platelets is more complex than that expressed by human umbilical vein endothelial cells. Thus, based on all the data described to date, and the ability of antibodies that inhibit factor Xa binding to leukocytes to inhibit platelet prothrombinase, we hypothesize that the receptor for factor Xa assembly into prothrombinase at the activated platelet surface consists *minimally* of EPR-1 or an EPR-1-like molecule, factor Va and anionic phospholipids^{20,30}.

In contrast to what has been observed for factors Va and Xa, unactivated platelets appear to support the binding of prothrombin, via its RGD sequence, to α IIb β ₃ – an interaction that appears to accelerate pro-

thrombinase-catalyzed thrombin generation³¹. The authors hypothesized that prothrombin bound to α IIb β ₃ on circulating platelets may play an important physiological role in the early events of thrombin generation. However, this point remains controversial as earlier studies were not able to demonstrate prothrombin binding to resting platelets^{32,33}.

Platelet activation may not be sufficient to define coagulation complex assembly and function. Discrete subpopulations of platelets have been identified, which differentially regulate the expression of prothrombinase³⁴. When platelets are thrombin-activated to a level consistent with expression of maximal prothrombinase activity and saturating concentrations of factors Va and Xa are added, factor Va and factor Xa colocalize to a subset of activated platelets and, as expected, no factor Xa binding is observed in the absence of factor Va binding. These results extend those of Alberio et al.³⁵ who demonstrated that a fraction of platelets express very high levels of surface-bound, platelet-derived factor Va on simultaneous activation with thrombin and convulxin. These combined data clearly indicate that a population of platelets exists that are fully activated and express P-selectin at their surface, but cannot assemble a functional prothrombinase complex. This concept is supported by *post-mortem* examination of individuals subsequent to myocardial infarction⁴. Examination of coronary arteries from these individuals revealed the presence of two kinds of thrombi: those that were platelet-rich and lacked fibrin, and others that contained platelets and fibrin. These combined observations suggest that platelets may express different procoagulant phenotypes and, therefore, are under distinct hematopoietic regulation. Alternatively, the presence of fibrin-poor and fibrin-rich thrombi in the same individual may be a result of a lack of thrombin formation at some sites of thrombus formation because of: deficient tissue factor expression; inadequate factor Xa formation via the intrinsic tenase; or insufficient activation of platelets to effect procoagulant enzyme complex assembly and function.

Role of platelet-derived factor Va

The thrombin-activated, human platelet surface not only plays an important role in promoting and regulating the procoagulant response, but also in sustaining it by modulating the effects of activated protein C^{36,37} and plasmin³⁸, potent proteolytic inactivators of factor Va. On the activated platelet surface, both platelet- and plasma-derived factor Va are inactivated by activated protein C at substantially slower rates than when bound to phospholipid vesicles^{36,37}. Plasmin, on the other hand, effects a dramatic increase in the activity expressed by the thrombin-activated platelet-derived cofactor bound to activated platelets³⁸. The increased cofactor activity can be sustained for several hours, fol-

lowed by its gradual decline. The plasmin-induced increase in cofactor activity is unique to both activated platelet membranes and the platelet-derived cofactor.

Like plasmin, platelet-derived factor Va also modulates the effects of activated protein C^{36,37}. In contrast to observations made using plasma-derived factor Va, complete inactivation of the platelet-derived cofactor is never achieved, such that substantial cofactor activity remains at the platelet surface, suggesting that the plasma and platelet-derived cofactor pools represent different substrates for activated protein C^{36,37}.

The studies described above illustrate that platelet prothrombinase assembly and function is regulated by their release of factor V(a). The platelet-derived cofactor is stored in the α -granule in complex with multimerin³⁹ as a partially cleaved molecule⁴⁰. In marked contrast to plasma-derived factor V, platelet-derived factor V expresses significant cofactor activity subsequent to its release from the platelet⁴⁰, which parallels expression of a putative factor Va receptor that is competent to bind either platelet- or plasma-derived factor Va²⁰. Thus, at an injury site, the release of platelet-derived factor Va initiates prothrombinase assembly and function without the need for thrombin-catalyzed activation of the plasma-derived cofactor. Factor Xa generated at a site other than the platelet surface does not appear to contribute significantly to thrombin generation⁴¹, thus, effective channeling of factor Xa, produced via intrinsic tenase, to platelet-bound factor Va to form prothrombinase, would result in thrombin generation at the activated platelet surface. Clinical observations support the notion that the platelet-derived cofactor plays a more important role in hemostasis^{42,43}.

Consequently, studies have been initiated to determine what physical differences make the two factor Va pools function differently in hemostasis. Purified plasma factor V can be readily phosphorylated at Ser692 by casein kinase 2⁴⁴ whereas the purified, platelet-derived molecule is resistant to phosphorylation (Silveira and Tracy, unpublished observations). Again, in contrast to plasma-derived factor V, the platelet-derived cofactor shows little intrinsic phosphorylation at that site. We hypothesize that platelet-derived factor V is *O*-linked glycosylated on Ser692 making it resistant to phosphorylation. How, and if, these physical differences contribute to the distinct functional phenotypes of the two molecules requires rigorous assessment.

The notion that plasma- and platelet-derived factor V are physically distinct is consistent with their purported sites of synthesis. Plasma-derived factor V is known to be synthesized by the liver^{45,46}, while early studies suggested that platelet-derived factor V was synthesized by megakaryocytes⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹. However, recent studies using two patients heterozygous for factor V Leiden, who underwent allogeneic transplantation from homozygous wild-type factor V donors (bone marrow or liver), demonstrated that the secretable

platelet-derived factor V phenotype mirrored the plasma-derived factor V phenotype, and was independent of the megakaryocyte factor V gene⁵⁰. These observations were confirmed by more recent analysis of the platelet-derived factor V from a patient homozygous for factor V Leiden who received a wild-type liver⁵¹. These combined studies demonstrate unequivocally that the *majority* of platelet-derived factor V is endocytosed by megakaryocytes from plasma. Thus, we hypothesize that the functional and physical differences in plasma- and platelet-derived factor V are a result of "retailoring" of the posttranslational modifications of the platelet-derived cofactor subsequent to its endocytosis from the plasma by megakaryocytes.

Implications for future therapy

The ability of anti-platelet agents, which inhibit platelet activation or aggregation, to prevent cardiac ischemic events such as myocardial infarction clearly demonstrates the importance of platelets in thrombus formation¹². However, coronary thrombosis is a complex process involving the vessel wall, platelets, and the coagulant response culminating in a substantial increase in local concentrations of thrombin and formation of a platelet/fibrin plug at the injured site. These combined studies described above demonstrate that platelets are active participants in effecting thrombin generation. Platelets appear to perform these functions in part through the regulated "receptor"-mediated assembly of proteolytic activities at their membrane surface subsequent to platelet activation. Alternatively, proteins may be released or constitutively expressed that modulate platelet responsiveness and function. Thrombin, once formed, not only catalyzes fibrin formation, but also accelerates additional platelet activation therefore supporting a positive feedback mechanism. Furthermore, platelets sustain thrombin formation by protecting the proteases and cofactors from inactivation/inhibition by various constitutive plasma inhibitors or formed activators. Thus, regulation of platelet activity and thrombin generation are considered important goals in clinical therapy for cardiovascular diseases.

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