

Special Article - Platelets

Roles of Prostanoids in the Regulation of Platelet Function

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Prostanoids consisting of Prostaglandins (PGs) and Thromboxane (TX) exert a wide range of actions in the body through their respective receptors. Regulation of platelet function is one of the actions of prostanoids. Platelets participate critically in the pathogenesis of thrombotic diseases. Activated platelets aggregate and release various bioactive substances. Aggregation is the most notable criterion for evaluation of platelet activation. In this article, the effects of PGD₂, PGE₁, PGE₂, PGI₂ and TXA₂ on platelet aggregation are reviewed.

Keywords: Prostaglandin; Thromboxane; Platelet Aggregation; Hemostasis; Thrombosis

Abbreviations

ADP: Adenosine Diphosphate; cAMP: Cyclic Adenosine Monophosphate; CRTH2: Chemoattractant Receptor-Homologous Molecule Expressed on Th2 Cells; DP: Prostaglandin D₂ Receptor; EP: Prostaglandin E₂ Receptor; FP: Prostaglandin F_{2α} receptor; IP: Prostaglandin I₂ receptor; PG: Prostaglandin; PLC: Phospholipase C; TP: Thromboxane A₂ receptor; TX: Thromboxane

Introduction

Platelets are involved not only in hemostasis but also in pathological thrombus formation. Activated platelets achieve their roles by both aggregating and releasing various bioactive substances such as growth factors, lysophospholipids and chemokines [1-3]. Accordingly, platelets play a critical role in several pathological conditions such as atherosclerosis, cerebral thrombosis and myocardial infarction [4-6].

Prostanoids consisting of Prostaglandins (PGs) and Thromboxane (TX) are lipid mediators that bind to cognate receptors named DP, EP, FP, IP and TP that are specific for PGD₂, PGE₂, PGF_{2α}, PGI₂ (prostacyclin) and TXA₂, respectively [7]. There are four subtypes of EP: EP₁, EP₂, EP₃ and EP₄ [8-11]. In these four subtypes, EP₃ is unique and has several isoforms derived from alternative splicing [12,13]. In addition to these eight types and subtypes of prostanoid receptors, a novel PGD₂ receptor that has been isolated from type 2 T helper cells and named CRTH2 (DP₂) has no significant sequence homology of amino acids with DP (DP₁) and other prostanoid receptors [14].

Prostanoids exert a variety of actions in various tissues and cells [15] *via* their respective receptors. Regulation of platelet function is one of the most well-known actions of prostanoids [16,17].

Expression of prostanoid receptors in platelets

Several prostanoid receptors have been reported to be expressed in platelets. EP₂, EP₃, EP₄, IP and TP were shown to be expressed in murine platelets [18], and human platelets were shown to express DP1 along with EP₂, EP₃, EP₄, IP and TP [19,20].

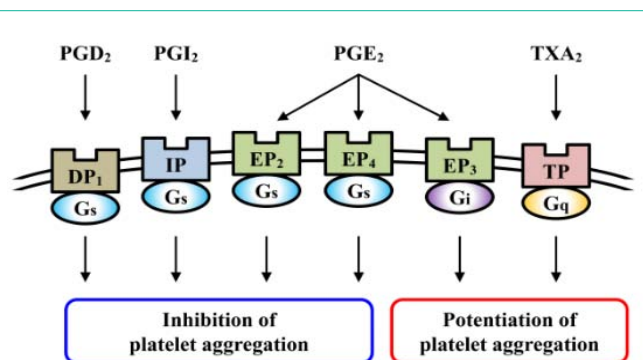


Figure 1: Effects of prostanoids on platelet aggregation.

Prostanoids play a role in the regulation of platelet aggregation *via* respective receptors. EP₃ and TP are stimulatory receptors, whereas DP₁, EP₂, EP₄ and IP are inhibitory receptors in aggregation.

Stimulatory effect of TXA₂ on platelet aggregation

TXA₂ is well known as a potent stimulator of platelets [4]. TP couples to G_q and activates phospholipase C (PLC), leading to elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations. In human and rabbit platelets, a stable TXA₂ mimetic induced platelet aggregation and release of granule contents from platelets [21]. Platelets express TP constitutively and produce TXA₂ when activated with collagen, Adenosine Diphosphate (ADP), epinephrine, thrombin and TXA₂.

Therefore, TXA₂ plays an important role in the regulation of platelet function, working as a positive feedback regulator. In mice lacking TP, bleeding time was significantly prolonged compared with that in wild-type mice [22], suggesting that TXA₂ plays an important role in hemostasis.

Inhibitory effect of PGI₂ on platelet aggregation

In contrast to TXA₂, PGI₂ efficiently inhibits platelet aggregation [17]. The inhibitory potency of PGI₂ in platelet aggregation is higher than that of the other inhibitory prostanoids, PGD₂ and PGE₁ [23]. IP couples to G_s and increases intracellular Cyclic Adenosine Monophosphate (cAMP) concentrations, leading to activation of

Table 1: Prostanoid receptor types and subtypes.

Prostanoid	Type	Subtype	G-protein	Main signal
PGD ₂	DP (DP ₁)		G _s	cAMP ↑
	CRTH2 (DP ₂)		G _i	cAMP ↓
PGE ₂	EP	EP ₁	G _q	PLC ↑
		EP ₂	G _s	cAMP ↑
		EP ₃	G _i	cAMP ↓
		EP ₄	G _s	cAMP ↑
PGF ₂ α	FP		G _q	PLC ↑
PGI ₂	IP		G _s	cAMP ↑
TXA ₂	TP		G _q	PLC ↑

cAMP: Cyclic Adenosine Monophosphate; CRTH2: Chemoattractant Receptor-Homologous Molecule Expressed on Th2 Cells; DP: Prostaglandin D₂ Receptor; EP: Prostaglandin E₂ Receptor; FP: Prostaglandin F₂α Receptor; IP: Prostaglandin I₂ receptor; PG: Prostaglandin; PLC: Phospholipase C; TP: Thromboxane A₂ Receptor; TX: Thromboxane.

protein kinase A and inhibition of platelet aggregation. Bleeding time in mice lacking IP was not different from that in wild-type mice, but the susceptibility of mice lacking IP to thrombosis was increased, suggesting that PGI₂ is vital for the prevention of thrombus formation [24].

Inhibitory effect of PGD₂ on platelet aggregation

In addition to PGI₂, PGD₂ is also known as an inhibitor of platelet aggregation [25]. The inhibitory effect of PGD₂ on aggregation is observed in human and rabbit platelets but not in murine platelets due to the presence or absence of DP₁ coupling to G_s. In human platelets, the inhibitory potency of PGD₂ was two-times higher than that of PGE₁ but much less than that of PGI₂ [23,25].

Inhibitory effect of PGE₁ on platelet aggregation

Previous studies showed that PGE₁ stimulates cAMP synthesis and inhibits platelet aggregation [26,27]. In human platelets, PGE₁ can bind to IP as well as EPs [28]. The rank order of affinity of PGE₁ for murine EPs and IP was EP₃>EP₄>EP₂>EP₁, IP [29]. However, the inhibitory effect of PGE₁ on human platelet aggregation was blocked by an IP antagonist but not by an EP₄ antagonist [30], suggesting that PGE₁ inhibits platelet aggregation *via* IP but not EP₄, the role of which will be described below.

Biphasic effect of PGE₂ on platelet aggregation

PGE₂ has been reported to have a biphasic effect on platelet aggregation; PGE₂ potentiates the aggregation at lower concentrations and inhibits it at higher concentrations [31,32]. However, PGE₂ alone could not induce platelet aggregation [18]. It has been thought that G_i- and G_q-mediated signaling activates platelets and that G_s-mediated signaling inhibits platelet activation. Accordingly, among the EP subtypes expressed in platelets, EP₃ (mainly G_i) is regarded as a stimulatory receptor, whereas EP₂ (G_s) and EP₄ (G_s) are regarded as inhibitory receptors in aggregation. Furthermore, EP₄ signaling has been reported to activate phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase, leading to activation of protein kinase B (Akt) [33].

Potentiating effect of PGE₂ at lower concentrations on platelet aggregation: First, the role of EP₃ in the regulation of platelet function was examined because the expression level of EP₃ mRNA was the highest among EP subtypes in platelets. In murine platelets

lacking EP₃, the potentiating effect of PGE₂ at lower concentrations on platelet aggregation completely disappeared. In platelets prepared from wild-type mice, a specific EP₃ agonist enhanced aggregation induced by a TP agonist in a concentration-dependent manner [18]. These results indicate that EP₃ is involved in the potentiating effect of PGE₂ on platelet aggregation. In agreement with the potentiating effect of PGE₂ *via* EP₃, the bleeding time was significantly prolonged and the mortality after induction of arachidonic acid-induced acute thromboembolism was remarkably reduced in mice lacking EP₃ compared with those in wild-type mice. Moreover, the formation of thrombi in pulmonary arterioles and alveolar hemorrhage observed after injection of arachidonic acid were alleviated in mice lacking EP₃ [18]. Similarly, venous thrombosis induced by periaortic application of arachidonic acid was almost completely abolished, although the bleeding time was not significantly prolonged in mice lacking EP₃ [34]. Furthermore, a previous study showed that atherosclerotic plaque-produced PGE₂ activated platelets through EP₃ and promoted atherothrombosis when the plaque was mechanically ruptured [35]. These results indicate that PGE₂ plays an important role in thromboembolism through activation of platelets *via* EP₃.

Inhibitory effect of PGE₂ at higher concentrations on platelet aggregation:

It has been suggested that the inhibitory effect of PGE₂ on platelet aggregation is mediated by IP [36,37]. In fact, the inhibitory effect of PGE₂ was significantly blunted but was not entirely abolished in murine platelets lacking IP [38]. Meanwhile, specific agonists for EP₂ or EP₄ potently inhibited aggregation of murine and human platelets [38-41]. These results suggest that selective activation of EP₂ or EP₄ leads to inhibition of platelet aggregation. It is noteworthy that the inhibitory potency of an EP₄ agonist was two rank orders higher than that of an EP₂ agonist and was as high as that of an IP agonist in human platelets [38].

Conclusion

Anti-platelet agents having various mechanisms of action have been developed and used to prevent the recurrence of thrombotic diseases such as cerebral thrombosis and myocardial infarction, which have been major causes of death in developed countries [42,43]. The targets of these agents including aspirin, prasugrel and cilostazol are cyclooxygenase, ADP receptor P2Y₁₂ and phosphodiesterase, respectively. Although an IP agonist (PGI₂ or PGE₁ analogue) and a TX synthase inhibitor have been used for anti-platelet therapy, there are still no anti-platelet agents targeting EPs. Previous studies showed roles of EP₃ in thromboembolism [18,34,35] and higher inhibitory potency of an EP₄ agonist in platelet aggregation [38], suggesting a potential of EP₃ antagonists and EP₄ agonists as novel anti-platelet agents [41,44,45].

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