The coagulation system and its function in early immune defense

Tom van der Poll¹; Heiko Herwald²
¹Center of Experimental and Molecular Medicine & Division of Infectious Diseases, Academic Medical Center, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, Netherlands; ²Division of Infection Medicine, Department of Clinical Sciences, Lund University, Biomedical Center, Lund, Sweden

Summary
Blood coagulation has a Janus-faced role in infectious diseases. When systemically activated, it can cause serious complications associated with high morbidity and mortality. However, coagulation is also part of the innate immune system and its local activation has been found to play an important role in the early host response to infection. Though the latter aspect has been less investigated, phylogenetic studies have shown that many factors involved in coagulation have ancestral origins which are often combined with anti-microbial features. This review gives a general overview about the most recent advances in this area of research also referred to as immunothrombosis.

Keywords
Bacterial infection, coagulation factors, disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), immunity, infectious diseases

Introduction
Blood clotting is initiated only seconds after vascular injury which makes it one of the fastest tissue repair systems in our body (1). Its main purpose, sealing an injured vessel, is accomplished by an aggregation of platelets at the site of the lesion. This will then lead to a loose platelet plug, which is further stabilised by the formation of a fibrin network. Both events, also known as primary and secondary haemostasis, not only help prevent the efflux of blood cells and plasma proteins into the surrounding tissue, but also trigger wound healing and tissue regeneration processes. As bleeding sites are potential ports of entry for microorganisms, coagulation is also one of the first humoral regulatory systems that encounters an intruder. Evidence is accumulating that activation of coagulation triggers also other immune defense machineries at a very early stage of microbial invasion which in turn should help diminish the risk of systemic microbial invasion. In fact, mammals have established a manifold arsenal of defense mechanisms which are mobilised when coagulation is activated. These include for instance the release of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) from platelets (2) or their generation during clot formation (3). In addition, cellular responses are triggered; for example an intact platelet-fibrinogen plug can provide an active surface that allows the recruitment, attachment, and activation of phagocytising cells (4), and many coagulation factors are able to induce pro- and anti-inflammatory reactions by activating so-called protease activated receptors (PAR) on immune cells (5). These findings have lately attracted considerable attention and have led to a novel area of research which is now referred to as "immunothrombosis" in the literature (6). The present review aims to provide an overview of the role of the coagulation system in the early immune response to bacterial infection (Figure 1).

Haemostasis and inflammation
Haemostasis and inflammation are tightly interwoven and can regulate each other in a concerted action when activated during infection (7). The efficacy to eradicate the invading pathogen is to a great deal dependent on the amplitude of the coagulative and inflammatory responses of the host. Both systems are normally down-regulated under non-infectious conditions. However, as soon as an invading pathogen is sensed, they can become activated and start initiating immune reactions and wound healing processes. In order to guarantee an efficient elimination of the pathogen, the amplitude of these responses has to be in a physiologically relevant range. Under certain conditions, host control mechanisms can fail and systemic activation of coagulation and inflammatory cascades can reach pathological dimensions. These complications are often caused by massive platelet aggregation and systemic activation of coagulation followed by intense bleeding due to the consumption of platelets and coagulation factors. Notably, these conditions are combined with high morbidity and mortality and are almost impossible to treat (8).

Extrinsic pathway of coagulation
Tissue factor (TF), also referred to as CD142 or thromboplastin, is a membrane-spanning glycoprotein and the principal activator of

Correspondence to:
Heiko Herwald
Department of Clinical Sciences, Lund
Division of Infection Medicine, BMC B14
Lund University, Tornavägen 10
SE-221 84 Lund, Sweden
Tel.: +46 46 222 4182, Fax: +46 46 157 756
E-mail heiko.herwald@med.lu.se

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the extrinsic pathway of coagulation. The protein is constitutively expressed on many extravascular cells, such as fibroblasts, pericytes, and epithelial cells, while it is found at low levels, or in an encrypted form, on cells which are in constant contact with plasma proteins (9). Some cell types such as monocytes and endothelial cells can up-regulate TF on their surface under inflammatory conditions (10). Apart from its essential role in activating the coagulation cascade, TF shares structural homology with class II cytokine receptors (11) and can evoke a number of inflammatory reactions (12). It was as early as 1995 when it was reported for the first time that binding of factor VII to TF triggers the mobilisation of cytosolic calcium in many cell types (13). Today it is known that TF can signal via a PAR-dependent and independent pathway involving two completely different modes of action (14). The PAR-dependent pathway engages TF as a cofactor and docking protein that is required for interaction of factors VII and X with PAR2 (15). The PAR-independent pathway on the other hand is activated by an alternatively spliced form of TF which interacts with integrins and leads to an activation of members of the mitogen activated protein kinase family (16). Both pathways have been shown to evoke inflammatory responses such as the release of cytokines, chemokines, and adhesion factors (17, 18). Activation of TF can be part of the host defense to infection and a protective role for TF in infectious disease models was, for instance, described by Deyan Luo et al. who published that mice with low TF activity succumb to yersiniosis (19). Although these findings point to a critical role of TF in the host defense against *Yersinia enterocolitica*, TF is not an interesting target for drug development as its systemic activation bears the risk of life-threatening complications, as discussed later.

In addition to TF, its regulators are also involved in the early immune defense. Papareddy et al., for example, reported in 2010 that the carboxy-terminal part of tissue factor pathway inhibitor 1 (TFPI-1) has antimicrobial properties that can kill a number of pathogens including Gram negative (*Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) and Gram-positive bacteria (*Bacillus subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*), as well as a number of fungal species (*Candida albicans* and *Candida parapsilosis*) (20). The same authors reported that tissue pathway inhibitor 2 (TFPI-2), a homologue of TFPI-1, also explores antibacterial activity upon proteolytic processing (21). TFPI-2 is a weak TF inhibitor, but it interacts with a wide range of other coagulation factors and is up-regulated under inflammatory conditions (22, 23).

**Intrinsic pathway of coagulation**

In 2003, Esmon and Opal stated that the “pattern recognition molecules of the innate immune system function in a manner that is remarkably similar to that of contact factors of the intrinsic clotting system” (24). Indeed during the last two decades, the list of bacterial pathogens that are recognised by the contact system is steadily increasing and it includes all types of microorganisms (25). Contact activation at the bacterial surface leads to the gener-

![Figure 1: The disturbed haemostatic balance in sepsis. Sepsis results in an inflammatory response in the microvasculature triggered by bacteria or bacterial components. This infection and inflammation-induced response is associated with microvascular thrombosis due to concurrent activation of coagulation (mediated by tissue factor) and impairment of anticoagulant mechanisms as a consequence of reduced activity of endogenous anticoagulant pathways mediated by activated protein C (APC), antithrombin and tissue factor pathway inhibitor (TFPI), plus impaired fibrinolysis due to enhanced release of plasminogen activator inhibitor type I (PAI-1). The capacity to generate activated protein C is impaired at least in part due to reduced expression of the endothelial receptors thrombomodulin (TM) and the endothelial protein C receptor (EPCR). Thrombus formation is further facilitated by neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) released from dying neutrophils. Loss of endothelial barrier function is at least in part caused by a disturbed balance between sphingosine 1 phosphate receptor 1 (S1P1) and S1P3 within the vascular wall at least in part due to preferential induction of S1P3 via protease activated receptor 1 (PAR1) secondary to a reduced APC/thrombin ratio.](https://www.thrombosis-online.com)
The common pathway of coagulation

The final step in the clotting cascade starts with the processing of fibrinogen by factor Xa-activated thrombin. This will eventually lead to the formation of a fibrin clot which is further stabilised by the action of factor XIIIa (32). Concomitantly, thrombin activates protein C and thereby initiates repression of haemostasis (33). As mentioned before, PAR receptors are an important link between coagulation and inflammation. While factor Xa targets PAR1 and PAR2, thrombin can also activate PAR3. In both cases, activation triggers pro-inflammatory reactions such as the inductions of interleukin (IL)-6, IL-8, transforming growth factor-β, and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (34). The activation of PAR1 by activated protein C (APC) is more complicated and requires a docking protein, endothelial protein C receptor (EPCR). In contrast to PAR1 activation by factor Xa or thrombin, APC evokes anti-inflammatory reactions, including for instance inhibition of leukocyte adhesion and maintaining endothelial barrier function (35). The molecular mechanisms underlying different PAR1 signalling are not completely understood, but several modes of actions have been proposed as summarised by a review article from Versteeg et al. (1). In addition to PAR1 activation, a recent study has shown that APC cleaves and neutralises extracellular histones in a murine infection model thereby preventing lethality in these animals (36). Notably, APC has been used as a treatment in patients suffering from severe infectious diseases, but due to lack of efficiency it was withdrawn from the market in 2011 (37).

Many coagulation factors, including factor X and prothrombin, contain a sequence at their carboxyterminal region of the catalytic domain that gains antimicrobial activity when generated by proteolytic processing (38). In the case of thrombin, such a peptide was found to be released under *in vitro* and *in vivo* conditions (20) and when injected into mice the peptide was able to modulate inflammatory reactions and protect animals from endotoxin-induced shock (39). These findings suggest that coagulation factors, such as prothrombin, have also many functions that are of great importance in the host response to infection. Notably, phylogenetic analyses revealed that vertebrate coagulation factors, including factor X and prothrombin, have an ancient ancestry shared with complement proteins. It has therefore been concluded that blood clotting has emerged as a byproduct of the innate immune system (40). It is worth noting that fibrinogen-like proteins have also been described to have an important role in ancestral immunity. Proteins containing fibrinogen motifs have been found in numerous invertebrate organisms. While these proteins play a critical role in the immune response to infection, they are not involved in blood clotting. A role for fibrinogen in haemostasis has occurred evolutionarily and only recently, with the first description being in deuterostomes (41). In vertebrates, processing of fibrinogen leads to a number of immune reactions such as the release of antimicrobial peptides, chemotactic responses triggered by fibrinogen-derived peptides, and neutrophil recruitment and adhesion (4, 42, 43). Apart from triggering these immune reactions, fibrinogen when processed to fibrin, can also act as a physical barrier that entraps bacteria within a formed clot. Additional crosslinking of the captured microorganisms by the action of coagulation factor XIIIa, a transglutaminase, helps to immobilise the pathogen in the clot and prevent its further dissemination (44).

Procoagulant microparticles

Microparticles (MPs, also referred to as microvesicles or ectosomes) are vesicles measuring 0.1 to 2 μm that are shed from the plasma membrane of multiple cell types upon activation or apoptosis by a process that involves reorganisation of the membrane lipid composition and the translocation of phosphatidylserine to the outer leaflet (45, 46). MPs lack a nucleus and express antigens
of the cell from which they are derived, allowing investigations of the function of cell-specific MPs in various disease states. MPs represent a circulating pool of biologically active molecules, containing proteins, messenger and microRNAs, as well as lipids; the MP content may vary depending on cellular origin and disease state. Apart from exerting a large variety of proinflammatory and procoagulant properties, they can also function to transfer biological information between cells and organs. MPs can be detected at low levels in the circulation of healthy individuals, predominantly originating from platelets, where they induce low-grade thrombin generation (47). Upon disruption of the integrity of the vascular endothelial barrier, platelet-derived MPs are important for primary haemostasis. The outer surface of MPs is enriched in phosphatidyserine, which provides a catalytic surface for the assembly of contact factors and vitamin K-dependent enzyme complexes of the coagulation system (factors VII, IX, and X) (45, 46, 48). While intact platelets are essential for triggering blood coagulation, platelet MPs offer an additional phospholipid platform that has approximately 50- to 100-fold more procoagulant activity (49). Moreover, MPs are the most important reservoir for blood-borne TF. MPs can transfer and deliver TF to target cells, including platelets and neutrophils, thereby amplifying and disseminating the procoagulant response. As such, notwithstanding their physiological role in the prevention of bleeding, abundant release of procoagulant MPs clearly can contribute to thrombotic events. Mice deficient for lactadherin, an opsonin that is important for the clearance of platelet MPs, have elevated concentrations of circulating MPs and produced two-fold more thrombin under basal conditions (50). Importantly, lactadherin-deficient mice had a shorter venous occlusion time in an endothelial cell injury model, indicating that impaired clearance of platelet MPs results in a hypercoagulable state (50). In accordance, platelet MPs contributed to thrombus growth in a mouse model of venous thrombosis (51).

Bacterial agonists and proinflammatory cytokines can fuel the shedding and the procoagulant properties of MPs. Stimulation of endothelial cells causes shedding of MPs that express ultra-large von Willebrand factor multimers, which potently promote the formation of platelet aggregates and increase their stability (52). Stimulation of monocytes with endotoxin results in the release of TF-expressing MPs (53). Accordingly, administration of endotoxin to mice (54) or humans (55) results in the appearance of TF-bearing MPs in the circulation, and a variety of studies have reported increased circulating levels of MPs of various cellular origin in patients with sepsis (56-58).

A recent investigation conducted in patients with septic shock found that while total MP levels were high regardless of the presence of disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), endothelial and leukocyte-derived MPs positively correlated with DIC status (59). The functional relevance of MPs has been demonstrated in a number of in vivo transfer studies. Infusion of MPs harvested from septic rodents reproduced part of the septic host response in healthy animals (60). Similarly, administration of MPs from septic patients induced differential effects in different organs of healthy mice, which at least in part mimicked the organ dysfunction observed in patients with septic shock (61). Conversely, inhibition of MP release through transgenic overexpression of calpastatin, a specific inhibitor of calpain—a protease that plays an essential role in MP release, attenuated the systemic proinflammatory response and DIC in mice with polymicrobial abdominal sepsis by reducing the number of circulating procoagulant MPs (62). It should be noted that MPs are able to develop immunoprotective properties in animal models of sepsis, as they can explore antimicrobial activity, entrap bacteria, and prevent their dissemination from the local focus of infection (63). In addition, increased circulating MPs have been shown to diminish vascular hyperreactivity complications in endotoxin-treated mice (58). It has been therefore suggested that MPs have a beneficial effects during the early phase of sepsis (64).

It is also important to note that MPs have anticoagulant potential. Indeed, anionic phospholipids exposed by MPs can not only assist in the assembly of procoagulant enzyme complexes, but also promote the association of anticoagulant proteins, including TFPI, thrombomodulin, EPCR and protein S. APC can induce MPs from endothelial cells, which support efficient inactivation of factors Va and VIIa facilitated by EPCR expressed by MPs. The release of anticoagulant MPs required both APC and PAR1 active sites and could also be observed on monocyte-derived MPs (65). Several cytotoxic effects linked to APC could be induced by APC positive MPs in vitro (66). Moreover, evidence indicates that the infusion of recombinant human APC, until recently a registered drug for the treatment of severe sepsis, results in an increase in circulating APC positive MPs, suggesting that part of the in vivo effects of APC may be mediated by anticoagulant and cytoprotective MPs (67). MPs can also harbour fibrinolytic activity, adding to their regulatory role in the haemostatic system (68). The net effect of MPs on fibrinolysis in vivo remains to be determined; MPs can express both pro-fibrinolytic activity (e.g. tissue-type plasminogen activator [t-PA], urokinase plasminogen activator [u-PA] and plasminogen binding sites) as well as anti-fibrinolytic properties (e.g. plasminogen activator inhibitor type I [PAI-1] and α2-macroglobulin).

Neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs)

Once activated neutrophils can release their intra-granular content including antimicrobial peptides, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and a number of serine and metalloproteinases (69). In 2004 Brinkmann et al. published that under certain circumstances the cells also mobilise their chromatin that together with the granule proteins forms so-called NETs (70). These structures have high affinity for Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and it has been suggested that NETs play an important role in innate immunity though there are conflicting data on the antimicrobial activity on NETs (71). Like MPs, NETs have procoagulant activities by promoting adhesion, activation, and aggregation of platelets (72) and activating the contacts system leading to the release of bradykinin and activation of the intrinsic pathway of coagulation (73). NETs can cause collateral damage in conditions of uncontrolled immune activation, such as in sepsis. NETs can promote platelet and red blood cell adhesion, and engage clotting factors,
Coagulation and anticoagulation during systemic and local infection

Severe infection can lead to an injurious host response and tissue injury, resulting in the clinical syndrome generally referred to as sepsis (8). The procoagulant response to sepsis is characterised by enhanced coagulation together with impaired anticoagulant mechanisms (74). The main route by which infection and inflammation initiate coagulation is via TF. Indeed, inhibition of the TF/factor VIIa pathway in humans and non-human primates strongly reduced activation of the coagulation system after infusion of endotoxin or bacteria, while in lethal primate sepsis TF inhibition in addition prevented multiple organ failure and mortality (74). In accordance, mice with very low TF expression demonstrated diminished coagulation, inflammation and mortality upon administration of high-dose endotoxin (75).

The tendency towards enhanced thrombus formation during severe infection is further increased due to impaired functioning of the three main anticoagulant pathways, i.e. antithrombin, TFPI and the protein C system (74). The regulatory function of the endogenous protein C system in infection has been demonstrated in a variety of studies (76). Inhibition of protein C activation aggrivated the response to *Escherichia coli* and converted a sublethal model into a lethal DIC-associated model (77). Similarly, baboons treated with an anti-EPCR monoclonal antibody displayed an exacerbation of a sublethal *Escherichia coli* infection to lethal sepsis with massive coagulation activation (78). Notably, the anticoagulant effects of APC are not essential for prevention of lethality in endotoxaemic or septic mice: recombinant APC mutants with selective cytoprotective properties (and almost no anticoagulant effects) were as protective against lethality as wild-type APC (79). Of interest, recombinant APC protected mice against endotoxin-induced lethality by an effect on EPCR and PAR1 in haematopoietic cells (80). By contrast, haematopoietic EPCR deficiency did not increase the susceptibility of mice to endotoxin (80, 81), indicating that the effects of pharmacological doses of (exogenous) recombinant APC on immune cells may be different from the effects of endogenous APC.

Local infection results in haemostatic alterations at the site of the infection that are remarkably similar to those found in the circulation during systemic infection; this has particularly been well-studied in pneumonia (82). Patients with respiratory tract infections demonstrate enhanced activation of coagulation in their bronchoalveolar space together with locally impaired anticoagulant mechanisms (83-85). Mouse studies have revealed the important role of TF in pulmonary coagulation during bacterial pneumonia (85, 86). Interference with local haemostasis has differential effects on the outcome of experimental pneumonia. In accordance with finding after intravenous infusion of *Escherichia coli* (77), inhibition of endogenous protein C worsened survival, increased coagulation activation, facilitated bacterial growth and dissemination and enhanced the inflammatory response during pneumonia-derived sepsis caused by *Burkholderia pseudomallei*, the causative agent of melioidosis (87). Intriguingly, transgenic overexpression of APC also resulted in enhanced susceptibility to *Burkholderia pseudomallei* infection, as evidenced by a strongly increased mortality accompanied by enhanced bacterial loads and increased inflammation, in spite of attenuated coagulation (88), suggesting that while low endogenous APC levels are essential for an adequate host defense, sustained high APC concentrations are harmful. In support of a potential detrimental effect of APC, mice with transgenic overexpression of EPCR, which is expected to enhance APC generation, showed an impaired host defense during pneumonia caused by either *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (89) or *Burkholderia pseudomallei* (90). Clearly, the exact role of local coagulation and anticoagulation during localised infections requires further research.

Fibrinolysis

Haemostasis is controlled by the fibrinolytic system, which generates plasmin to degrade fibrin clots. Plasmin is generated from the zymogen protein plasminogen by different proteases, in particular t-PA and u-PA. Other enzymes that can convert plasminogen into plasmin include factor XIIa and kallikrein, thereby linking the contact system with fibrinolysis (91). Besides plasmin, other proteases can degrade fibrin, especially neutrophil elastase, generating cross-linked fibrin fragments that are different from those produced by plasmin. Inhibition of the fibrinolytic system occurs at the level of plasminogen activation by plasminogen activator inhibitors (especially PAI-1), or at the level of plasmin activity by circulating protease inhibitors, of which α2-antiplasmin is the most important. Fibrinolysis is further regulated by thrombin-activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor (TAFI), which is activated by thrombin and the thrombin-thrombomodulin complex on endothelial cells (92). Activated TAFI inhibits fibrinolysis by removing C-terminal lysine and arginine residues from partially degraded fibrin, thereby inhibiting the high-affinity binding of plasminogen to fibrin and the subsequent facilitated conversion into the active protease plasmin.

Induction of systemic inflammation by either bacteria, bacterial products or proinflammatory cytokines is associated with a transient activation of the fibrinolytic system characterised by a brisk rise in plasminogen activator activity in the circulation, which is subsequently shut off by the systemic appearance of PAI-1 (93). Similar observations have been done in baboons with lethal bacteraemia and human sepsis, the net result being suppression of fibrinolysis. While the original assumption was that the fibrinolytic response represents a reaction to the formation of thrombin and fibrin under these conditions, several lines of evidence support the fact that the procoagulant and the fibrinolytic response to systemic inflammation at least in part are induced independently. In humans and non-human primates infusion of endotoxin or *Escherichia coli* caused a rapid and transient activation of the fibrinolytic
system, as indicated by a marked increase in the plasma concentrations of t-PA, that preceded the activation of the coagulation system (93). In addition, abrogation of coagulation by inhibition of TF or factor VIIa did not affect activation of fibrinolysis during human or primate endotoxaemia (93-95). Finally, inhibition of plasmin generation by tranexamic acid did not impact on the procoagulant response to intravenous endotoxin in healthy humans (96). In experimental endotoxaemia the fibrinolytic response is dependent on endotoxin-induced tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α release, as reflected by a strongly inhibited release of both t-PA and PAI-1 in humans and primates injected with endotoxin and treated with a neutralising anti-TNF-α antibody; this intervention does not influence activation of the coagulation (97, 98). Thus, at least in these systemic challenge models the fibrinolytic response is not directly linked to the clotting cascade.

Impaired fibrinolysis and as a consequence thereof, inadequate fibrin removal are likely to contribute to the development of microvascular thrombosis in sepsis (93). Indeed, the functional relevance of the fibrinolytic system for inflammation-induced coagulation in sepsis has been shown by experiments in genetically modified mice, showing that t-PA and u-PA deficient mice challenged with endotoxin have increased fibrin deposition in their organs compared with wild-type mice, while the opposite was true for PAI-1-deficient mice (99). In infection models, components of the fibrinolytic system have been shown to impact on host response pathways distinct from fibrinolysis. While elevated circulating PAI-1 levels are highly predictive for an unfavourable outcome in sepsis patients (93), investigations using PAI-1-deficient mice and mice with transiently enhanced expression of PAI-1 have pointed to a protective rather than a detrimental role of this mediator in severe Gram-negative pneumonia and sepsis (100). PAI-1 deficiency impaired host defense during Klebsiella pneumonia and sepsis as reflected by enhanced lethality and increased bacterial growth and dissemination in mice with a targeted deletion of the pai-1 gene. Conversely, transgenic overexpression of PAI-1 in the lung using a replication defective adenoviral vector markedly improved host defense against Klebsiella pneumonia and sepsis (100). PAI-1 deficiency also impaired host defense in experimental pneumococcal pneumonia (101) and Gram-negative sepsis caused by Burkholderia pseudomallei (102). Likewise, deficiency of the other main inhibitor of fibrinolysis α2-antiplasmin resulted in a strongly disturbed host response during Burkholderia pseudomallei sepsis, as reflected by enhanced bacterial growth and dissemination, exaggerated systemic inflammation and coagulation, increased distant organ injury, and enhanced lethality (103). Remarkably, t-PA may in some infection models also improve host defense:

Table 1: The role of procoagulant mediators and their byproducts in innate immunity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protein/peptide</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tissue factor</td>
<td>activation of PAR2</td>
<td>(15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>activation of mitogen activated protein kinase family</td>
<td>(16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tissue factor pathway inhibitor 1/2</td>
<td>antimicrobial activity</td>
<td>(20, 21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contact system factors</td>
<td>pattern recognition molecules</td>
<td>(25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high-molecular-weight kininogen</td>
<td>precursor of peptides with antimicrobial activity</td>
<td>(3, 30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bradykinin</td>
<td>inflammatory mediator (chronic)</td>
<td>(27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>des-Arg⁹-bradykinin</td>
<td>inflammatory mediator (acute)</td>
<td>(27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>factor Xa</td>
<td>activation of PAR receptors</td>
<td>(34)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>precursor of peptides with antimicrobial activity</td>
<td>(38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thrombin</td>
<td>activation of PAR receptors</td>
<td>(34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>precursor of peptides with antimicrobial activity</td>
<td>(20)</td>
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<tr>
<td>activated protein C</td>
<td>activation of PAR1 receptor</td>
<td>(35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>factor XIIIa</td>
<td>immobilisation of bacteria inside a clot</td>
<td>(44)</td>
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<tr>
<td>microparticles (MPs)</td>
<td>antimicrobial activity and entrapment of bacteria</td>
<td>(63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diminish vascular hyporeactivity complications</td>
<td>(58)</td>
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<tr>
<td>neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs)</td>
<td>activation of the contact system</td>
<td>(73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adhesion, activation, and aggregation of platelets</td>
<td>(72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAFI</td>
<td>conversion of bradykinin to des-Arg⁹-bradykinin escaping from fibrin-mediated physical entrapment</td>
<td>(110)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
tPA-deficient mice had an impaired defense after infection with either Escherichia coli (104) or Burkholderia pseudomallei (105), as indicated by higher bacterial loads and a reduced survival. In Escherichia coli sepsis, the protective function of t-PA was independent of its capacity to convert plasminogen into plasmin since plasminogen gene-deficient mice were indistinguishable from wild-type mice in this model (104). u-PA and its receptor (u-PAR) are involved in cell migration. u-PAR mediates leukocyte adhesion to the vascular wall and components of the extracellular matrix and the expression of u-PAR on leukocytes is strongly associated with their migratory capacity (106). Experiments in u-PAR deficient mice have shown the relevance of this receptor for the regulation of the inflammatory response to infection; for example, u-PAR (but not u-PA) deficient animals demonstrated a strongly diminished neutrophil influx into to lungs after induction of bacterial pneumonia (107).

Some pathogens can activate plasminogen by producing plasminogen receptors and plasminogen activation by complex formation or proteases, and/or by binding plasminogen at their surface with subsequent activation by host-derived t-PA and u-PA (108). Plasmin expressed at the bacterial cell surface can be used by bacteria for proteolytic degradation of extracellular matrix components, thereby facilitating bacterial dissemination to distant organs. Bacteria can also produce plasminogen activators, e.g. streptokinase produced by group A, C and G streptococci, and Pla produced by Yersinia pestis (108). In addition, several glycolytic enzymes expressed by bacteria interact with plasminogen. Discussion of the impact of distinct bacterial enzymes on the virulence of various micro-organisms is beyond the scope of this review (see [108]).

TAFI plays a role in the host response to infection by a mechanism that is likely not linked to its presumptive function as a natural inhibitor of fibrinolysis. TAFI-deficient mice did not show differences in Escherichia coli-induced activation of coagulation or fibrinolysis in vivo, as measured by plasma levels of thrombin-anti-thrombin complexes and D-dimer and the extent of fibrin deposition in lung and liver tissues; however, TAFI-deficient mice were protected from liver necrosis as indicated by histopathology and clinical chemistry (109). Sepsis pathogens can activate TAFI, which may contribute to their virulence. For example S. pyogenes has been found to use TAFI to modulate the kallikrein/kinin system. Specifically, S. pyogenes can recruit and activate TAFI, followed by induction of the contact system at the streptococcal surface (110). On the other hand, some pathogens may inactivate TAFI. For example, the protease Pla expressed by Yersinia pestis can degrade TAFI, which may assist in escaping from fibrin-mediated physical entrapment (111).

Conclusions

Recent years have shown that coagulation is much more than a glue that seals an injured blood vessel. While it has been known for a long time that its systemic activation can lead to devastating conditions such as disseminated intravascular coagulation with high mortality rates, an important role of the coagulation system in the early host response to infectious diseases has been only recently begun to be appreciated (Table 1). The profound knowledge about the molecular mechanisms involved in these processes may help to develop novel therapeutic strategies that not only prevents a systemic induction of the coagulation cascade, but also help to eliminate to the pathogen at a very early time point of the disease progression.

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Conflicts of interest

None declared.

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