

REVIEW ARTICLE

Platelet integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$: activation mechanisms

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Summary. Integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ plays a critical role in platelet aggregation, a central response in hemostasis and thrombosis. This function of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ depends upon a transition from a resting to an activated state such that it acquires the capacity to bind soluble ligands. Diverse platelet agonists alter the cytoplasmic domain of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ and initiate a conformational change that traverses the transmembrane region and ultimately triggers rearrangements in the extracellular domain to permit ligand binding. The membrane-proximal regions of α_{IIb} and β_3 cytoplasmic tails, together with the transmembrane segments of the subunits, contact each other to form a complex which restrains the integrin in the resting state. It is unclaspings of this complex that induces integrin activation. This clasping/unclaspings process is influenced by multiple cytoplasmic tail binding partners. Among them, talin appears to be a critical trigger of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation, but other binding partners, which function as activators or suppressors, are likely to act as co-regulators of integrin activation.

Keywords: $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, integrins, platelets.

Introduction

Integrins are a large family of adhesion receptors that mediate cell-extracellular matrix (ECM) and cell-cell interactions. Occupancy of integrins by ECM ligands or counter-receptors induces multiple intracellular signaling pathways, which play critical roles in regulating complex cellular responses [1]. $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, the major integrin on platelets, is essential for platelet aggregation, and, thereby, is centrally involved in hemostasis and thrombosis [2,3]. The function of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ in platelet aggregation depends upon its capacity to undergo activation, a transition from a low to a high affinity state for its ligands. This transformation allows $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ to bind fibrinogen and von Willebrand factor (VWF), ligands that can bridge platelets together, or other ligands, such as vitronectin and fibronectin,

which can modulate aggregation. Activation of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ is tightly regulated through a process termed ‘inside-out signaling’, in which agonists, such as ADP and thrombin, which engage G-protein coupled receptors, or other adhesive proteins, such as collagen or VWF, which engage GPIb-IX-V or GPVI, initiate intracellular signaling events that ultimately impart ligand competency to the extracellular domain of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. This review focuses on the inside-out signaling events that render $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ competent to bind ligands. The pathway of ‘outside-in’ signaling, which is induced by ligand binding to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, has been examined in other reviews (e.g. [4]).

Structural basis of integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation

All integrins, including $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, are α/β heterodimers. Mature α_{IIb} is composed of 1008 amino acids and β_3 of 762 amino acids. Each subunit consists of a large extracellular region, a single transmembrane spanning region and a short cytoplasmic tail. In a landmark publication, the Arnaout group solved crystal structures of the extracellular domain of $\alpha_V\beta_3$, without and with a bound RGD ligand [5,6]. The extracellular domain of the α -subunit is composed of the N-terminal β -propeller domain, the thigh domain and two calf domains (Fig. 1). The extracellular portion of β_3 subunit is composed of an A domain, PSI (plexin/semaphorin/integrin) domain, hybrid domain, four EGF domains and a membrane-proximal β TD domain [5]. The 12 domains of the α and β subunits assemble into an ellipsoid ‘head’ and two ‘tails’. The head is formed by interaction of the seven-bladed β -propeller of the α -subunit and the β_3 A domain (Fig. 1).

Changes in the extracellular domain

The crystal structures of $\alpha_V\beta_3$ and subsequent crystal structures of portions of the extracellular domain of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [7] document the similarities in organization and ligand binding mechanism of the two β_3 integrins. Bound ligands nestle into the interface between the β -propeller and the A domain [5–7].

While crystal structures provide solutions of integrin structures, the snapshots do not necessarily capture the conformational intermediates or final products, and, hence, the structural mechanism underlying ligand binding remains uncertain. In the presence of Ca^{2+} , the crystal structure of the extracellular domain of $\alpha_V\beta_3$ was severely bent at the ‘genu’,

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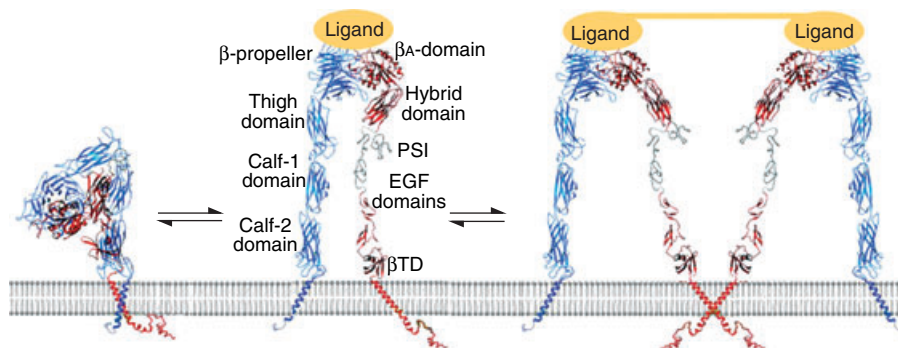


Fig. 1. Structural organization and activation of β_3 integrins. The crystal structure of the extracellular domain, a molecular model of the transmembrane region and NMR structures of the cytoplasmic tails have been adjoined to create a depiction of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. An equilibrium between a bent and an extended form illustrates the 'switchblade' hypothesis of activation [8,95].

forming a compact 'V' shape. In the presence of Mn^{2+} , a cation that activates integrins, or a ligand peptide, most $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ observed by electron microscopy were in an extended conformation [8]. These observations gave rise to the 'switchblade' hypothesis, in which the extended conformation represents the active state and the bent form is the resting state (Fig. 1), and were supported by disulfide cross-linking experiments showing that stabilization of the bent conformation prevented integrin activation [8]. Nonetheless, a subsequent electron microscopic study using $\alpha v\beta_3$ and a fibronectin fragment indicated that the bent conformation was also capable of binding an activation-dependent ligand [9]. Furthermore, most micrographs of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ failed to detect a severely bent conformation [10–14].

There is long-standing literature suggesting that disulfide bond rearrangements may be involved in integrin activation, and differences in the free thiol content were found between resting and activated $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [15]. Protein disulfide isomerase [16] or disulfide isomerase activity intrinsic to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [17] have been proposed as mediators of such disulfide rearrangements, but how the generation of free thiols integrates into the structure of integrins and inside-out signaling remains uncertain.

Changes in the transmembrane (TM) domain

The TM of α_{IIb} and β_3 are predicted to form helices, and the two helices are believed to interact with each other in the resting state [14,18], and several mutagenesis studies support this model [19–21]. Recently, it has been shown that peptide mimetics of the α_{IIb} TM induce $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ -mediated platelet aggregation, supporting the role of the TM in activation of the integrin [22]. In addition to changes in heterodimerization, the TM of α_{IIb} or β_3 subunit have a propensity to oligomerize [23–25]; multimeric forms of the α_{IIb} and β_3 TM have been detected by ultracentrifugation and gel analyses. Such interactions may contribute to oligomerization of integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [26], which may in itself induce integrin activation [27].

Changes in the cytoplasmic tail (CT) domain

The structures of the individual CT in aqueous solution and/or membrane mimetic micelles have been examined by various

biophysical approaches, including circular dichroism [28,29] and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) [30,31]. These studies have detected helices in the membrane-proximal regions of both α_{IIb} and β_3 CT within membrane environments, in aqueous solution with helix promoting sequences, mimicking extension of the TM helices, or in helix promoting agents. Furthermore, in aqueous solution, when the two CT are added together, a complex forms between their membrane-proximal helices [32,33]. This interaction is maintained by multiple hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions [32], including a salt bridge between $\alpha_{IIb}R^{995}$ and β_3D^{723} that was predicted by mutational analyses [34] (see Fig. 2A). The 'clasp' between the membrane-proximal α_{IIb} and β_3 CT helices must be weak and was not detected by other groups using similar approaches [35]. However, a series of independent mutational studies support the existence of the clasp between the membrane proximal CT regions, which stabilizes the integrin in a resting state. Selected point mutations that disrupt the hydrophobic or electrostatic bonds between the α_{IIb} and β_3 CT lead to activation of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [36–39]. Indeed, disruption of both the electrostatic and hydrophobic bonds is necessary for full activation of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [39] (see Fig. 2B). As the membrane proximal sequences within the clasp are highly conserved among integrins, it is likely that changes in the association-dissociation equilibrium of the clasp provide a general mechanism for regulating integrin activation.

The membrane distal region of the α_{IIb} CT has two significant structural features, a divalent ion binding site [28] and a turn formed by NRPP⁹⁹⁹ [30]. The significance of both of these structural features remains uncertain. Mutational analyses in which PP⁹⁹⁹ were substituted with AA have led to variable results, ranging from activation [40] to minimal activation [36,39]. Termination of the C-terminus of α_{IIb} CT at residue R⁹⁹⁵ also led to minimal activation [36,39]. The latter results are consistent with NMR studies that showed minimal effects of the PP mutations on the membrane proximal clasp [30]. However, other mutational studies [41], as well as independent approaches, do suggest a role of the C-terminus of α_{IIb} CT in $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation [30,42]. Clearly, further investigation is needed.

The membrane-distal region of β_3 CT contains two NXXY motifs, sequences that induce a turn structure, are important to

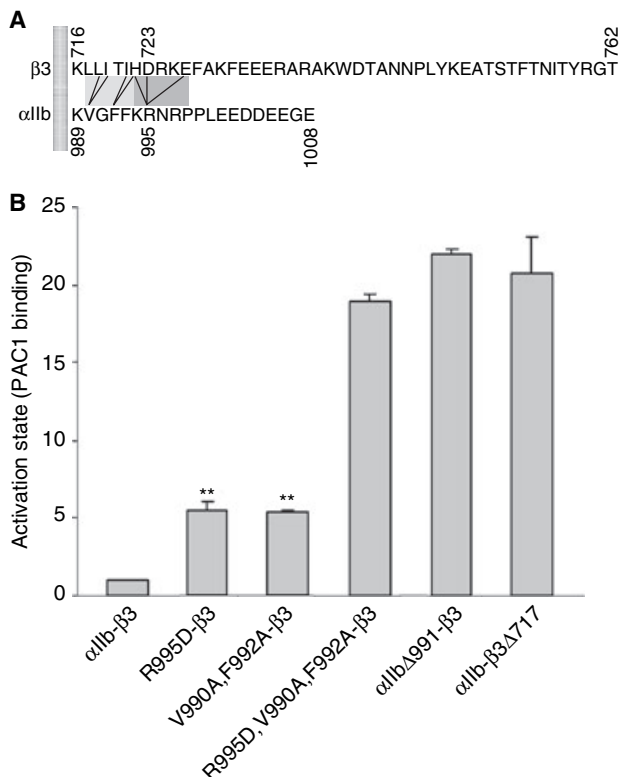


Fig. 2. Unclasp of the $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ membrane-proximal CT complex regulates integrin activation. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) detects both hydrophobic and electrostatic bonds between the α_{IIb} and β_3 cytoplasmic tails (A). Disruption of both classes of non-covalent interactions by mutations in the α_{IIb} CT (electrostatic by R⁹⁹⁵D, hydrophobic by V⁹⁹⁰A, F⁹⁹²A, or both by R⁹⁹⁵D, V⁹⁹⁰A, F⁹⁹²A) is required for the integrin to reach a fully activated state as defined by the extent of activation attained with deletions (Δ) of the α_{IIb} or β_3 CT (B). Modified from reference 39.

the functions of many receptors, and are highly conserved in integrin β subunits. NXXY motifs serve recognition sites for proteins containing phosphotyrosine binding (PTB) domains, which include many intracellular signaling proteins [43,44]. A major structural feature of the β_3 CT structure is a long membrane-proximal helix (K⁷¹⁶-A⁷³⁵), which extends beyond the membrane proximal clasp helix. The helix is followed by a flexible loop [31,45], which terminates at the first NXXY motif, NPLY⁷⁴⁷, that forms an inverse turn followed by the second helix region intervening between the first and second NXXY motif, a NITY⁷⁵⁹. The significance of the C-terminal structures has been demonstrated by the effects of Y⁷⁴⁷A and S⁷⁵²P mutations, which disrupt the C-terminal structures and impair integrin activation [39,46–48]. The structural features of the β_3 CT are observed in membrane mimetic micelles and are less apparent in aqueous solution [35]. The fact that a naturally occurring S⁷⁵²P mutation induces Glanzmann thrombasthenia in which $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ does not activate and that this effect can be explained by disruption of the C-terminal helix, supports the validity of the structure observed in micelles. An additional structural feature of the β_3 CT observed in micelles is a second membrane contact in addition to its N-terminal insertion. This

second contact occurs in the vicinity of the NPLY⁷⁴⁷. The significance of this second insertion is uncertain. However, mutations of the NPLY⁷⁴⁷, which are often interpreted in terms of disruption of its interactions with PTB binding partners, may be due to disruption of this second membrane contact [31].

Post-translational modifications of β_3 cytoplasmic tail

Post-translational modifications occur in the membrane-distal region of β_3 CT. The modifications include tyrosine and/or threonine phosphorylations and cleavages by calpain. Functional effects have been ascribed to each of these changes. Phosphorylation of both tyrosine residues, Y⁷⁴⁷ and Y⁷⁵⁹, in the β_3 CT occurs. Platelet aggregation or adhesion to immobilized fibrinogen can trigger phosphorylation of these tyrosines [49,50]. Studies of the DiYF mice in which the two tyrosine residues of β_3 CT are replaced by phenylalanines show impaired platelet responses dependent on outside-in signaling across $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ [51]. For the most part, inside-out signaling is unaffected in platelets from these mice [52]. β_3 CT undergoes cleavage by activated calpain in aggregated platelets. Four calpain cleavage sites were mapped [53], and tyrosine phosphorylation regulates the susceptibility of these sites to cleavage [54].

Threonine phosphorylation at T⁷⁵¹ and T⁷⁵³ has been detected during platelet activation [55–57]. Currently, the regulatory role of these modifications is not well understood. However, inhibitors of threonine/serine kinases have negative effects on integrin activation, and T⁷⁵³ phosphorylation appears to regulate Shc binding [58,59].

Integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ cytoplasmic tail binding partners

With no intrinsic enzymatic activity ascribable to the CT, cytoplasmic proteins that bind to the CT must play a critical role in initiating and propagating the bidirectional signaling events across $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. More than 20 cytoplasmic proteins have been identified as binding partners of the α_{IIb} or β_3 CT (Table 1) [60]. Most of the binding partners have been linked to outside-in signaling. At present, the one interacting molecule that has been most firmly linked to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation is talin. Talin is an abundant cytosolic protein (3% of total platelet protein) capable of linking integrins to the actin cytoskeleton and plays a critical role in integrin-mediated focal adhesion formation [61–63]. Talin's location changes from a uniform distribution to a plasma membrane localization during platelet activation [64]. Talin is composed of a 47 kDa head domain (talin-H) and a 190 kDa rod domain (talin-R). These align in an antiparallel arrangement to form a homodimer. Talin-H is composed of a FERM domain [62], which consists of three subdomains, F₁, F₂ and F₃ [65]. Multiple interactions of talin with the CT of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ have been demonstrated [66–69]. A crystal structure of the talin F₂-F₃ domain fused to a NPLY peptide has been published [68]. A second interaction of the talin F₃ domain with the membrane proximal region on β_3 CT has been detected [32,70,71], and a structure of the F₃ domain in complex with a membrane-proximal β_3 CT peptide was

Table 1 Integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ associated partners

Proteins/class*	Binding site
Cytoskeletal proteins	
Talin	β_3
Myosin	β_3 -P
Skelemin	β_3
Filamin	β_3
α -actinin	β_3
F-actin	β_3
Adaptor and signaling proteins	
Paxillin	β_3
Shc	β_3 -P
Grb2	β_3 -P
Protein kinases and phosphatase	
Src	β_3
Csk	β_3
Syk	β_3
ILK	β_3
FAK	β_3
PP1c	α_{IIb}
Others	
BiP	$\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$
Calreticulin	α_{IIb}
CIB	α_{IIb}
Icln	α_{IIb}
β_3 -endonexin	β_3
Aup1	α_{IIb}
Protein phosphatase 1	IIb
Transmembrane proteins	
CD9	
CD36	
CD47/IAP	
CD63	
CD98	
CD151	
CD31	

*Because of length constraints, reference citations cannot be given. We apologize to authors for this necessity. The table is adapted from reference 60.

published recently [72]. Talin-PTB appears to recognize the NPXY⁷⁴⁷ motif and is believed to subsequently interact with the membrane-proximal region of β_3 CT. The membrane proximal binding site of talin in the β_3 CT overlaps extensively with the α_{IIb} binding site and can displace the α_{IIb} CT from the β_3 CT, initiating integrin activation [32]. Although the PTB-like domain of talin-H that binds to the NPXY⁷⁴⁷ motif, is homologous to PTB domains in other proteins, such as Dok, Numb or Kindlerin, which also can bind to the NPLY⁷⁴⁷ motif [67,73], these other binding partners lack a structure unique to talin-H that interacts with the membrane-proximal region [72]. The talin story is far from fully unraveled. A binding site for the β_3 CT also is localized in the C-terminal region of rod domain [68,71,74], and cooperative binding of the talin-H and talin-R domains to the β_3 CT has been suggested [75]. In addition, it has been suggested that talin also associates with the α_{IIb} CT [70]; however, several other studies have failed to detect such interaction [32,68,71].

The β_3 CT binding site in talin-H is masked in intact talin, and an exposing event is required for talin-H to become an activator of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. Calpain cleavage [75], RIAM (Rap 1

interacting adaptor molecule) association [76] or phosphoinositide binding [77] are such exposing events. Calpain itself becomes activated as a consequence of increases in cytosolic Ca^{2+} , which occurs upon agonist stimulation of platelets, and cleavage of talin is detected within activated platelets [78]. Alternatively, activation of Rap1 via the PKC pathway facilitates RIAM, an effector of Rap1, to associate with talin, supporting talin binding to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. [76] The integrin binding sites in talin can also be exposed by its binding of phosphoinositide PI4,5P₂ [77]. These events permit the talin-H domain to bind to the NPLY⁷⁴⁷ motif and the membrane-proximal region of β_3 tail to displace α_{IIb} CT from β_3 CT and initiate integrin activation [32,68,71].

Multiple cytoplasmic proteins can associate with β_3 CT (see Table 1). Besides talin, several other β_3 CT-associated cytoskeletal proteins, α -actinin, myosin and filamin, can interact [50,61,79–82]. As the platelet cytoskeleton plays a role in $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation [83], proteins that can link the integrin to the actin cytoskeleton may play a role in inside-out signaling in addition to their more well-defined roles in outside-in signaling. Some of the associations are regulated by post-translational modifications of the β_3 CT. For example, GRB2 or myosin binding to β_3 CT requires both Y⁷⁴⁷ and Y⁷⁵⁹ phosphorylation [49,50]; SHC association with β_3 CT is Y⁷⁵⁹ phosphorylation dependent [49,84] and can be perturbed by T⁷⁵³ phosphorylation [59]. Filamin interaction with the threonine-rich region between two NXXY motifs can be inhibited by threonine phosphorylation. Interestingly, c-Src kinase can directly associate with β_3 CT in platelets [85], suggesting a potential role in regulating other β_3 CT associations.

Several α_{IIb} tail binding proteins have been identified (Table 1). All are present in platelets, appear to bind to the membrane-proximal region of the α_{IIb} CT, and, hence, could play a role in regulating integrin activation. CIB is the most extensively characterized of these but has been reported to be both an inhibitor [86] and an inducer [87] of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation. As it is unlikely that these binding partners could associate simultaneously with this narrow sequence of α_{IIb} , temporal engagement must be envisioned if they are to play a role in activation.

In addition to cytoplasmic proteins, several membrane proteins also associate with $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ (see Table 1). Of these, CD98 is most strongly implicated in integrin activation. This was demonstrated by a genetic screening approach seeking proteins that reversed the inhibitory effect of the β_{1A} CT on $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation [88].

Besides these numerous protein partners, the platelet membrane bilayer may regulate integrin activation [31]. The membrane-proximal regions of the α_{IIb} and β_3 CT are hydrophobic and their positioning in the cytosol or within the membrane can vary [89]. Movement of these proximal sequences into or out of the membrane may be part of the activation mechanism. In addition, the β_3 CT region containing the NPLY motif also binds to DPC (dodecylphosphocholine), providing an additional site at which the platelet membrane may regulate integrin activation.

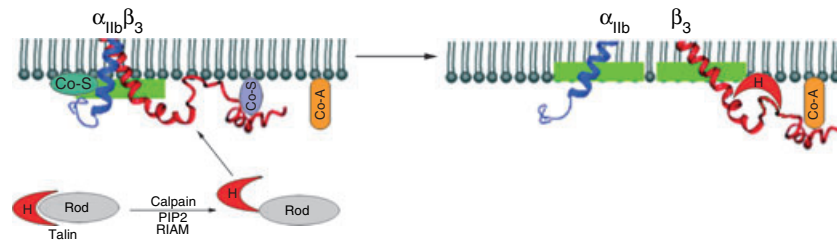


Fig. 3. Model for integrin activation. Activation is initiated by the talin-H, which binds to the NPLY⁷⁴⁷ and a site within the membrane proximal region, to unclasp the CT complex. Activation is influenced by co-activators (Co-A), which cooperate with talin-H, or suppressors (Co-S) of activation. Separation of the CT complex may induce membrane insertion and trigger separation of the TM complex, propagating the inside-out signal to the extracellular domain.

In addition to the interest in defining a basic molecular mechanism, the activation of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ represents a potential therapeutic target that might have a more favorable profile than inhibitors of ligand binding to the receptor. Such considerations have provided and are likely in the future to provide an impetus for proteomic approaches to search for additional binding partners and regulators of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation [90]. A recent application of such a strategy has identified peptides derived from CD226 as inhibitors of inside-out signaling [91].

Model of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation

$\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation on platelets can be initiated by engagement of various agonist receptors. The multiple signaling cascades that are induced converge at the CT of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. Based on current data, integrin activation at the CT entails a clasping/unclasping mechanism (see Fig. 3). The clasp is formed between helices on the α_{IIb} and β_3 subunits and is predicted to extend into the TM helices. Unclasping initiated in the CT and extending into the TM provides the driving force to trigger the conformational changes in the extracellular domain. Upon exposure of the talin-H by any one of a series of events (see above), it can interact with the β_3 CT and initiate unclasping. Talin-H interacts with the NPLY⁷⁴⁷ motif and the membrane-proximal helix of the β_3 CT, displacing the α_{IIb} CT from the clasp. It is unclear whether an interaction of the talin-R domain with β_3 CT or talin-H with the α_{IIb} CT influences activation. Nonetheless, unclasping appears to be the event that initiates activation.

Clasping/unclasping is an equilibrium-controlled process, implying reversibility and a potential return to the resting state. Talin-H favors unclasping and its continued association with the CT would impede return to the resting state, thereby pushing the equilibrium toward the activated state. Although talin is clearly implicated in the activation process, several lines of evidence indicate critical roles for other binding partners, both working cooperatively with talin-H as co-regulators and as suppressors of integrin activation. Observations supporting a mechanism more complex than mediated by talin-H alone are: (i) the C-terminus of β_3 CT, far beyond the talin-H binding sites, is critical for inside-out as well as outside-in signaling [92]; (ii) some point mutations, such as S⁷⁵²P in the β_3 CT, which have no effect on talin-H

binding and its unclasping function, still dramatically impair integrin activation [39]; (iii) over-expression of talin-H does not achieve full activation of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, relative to that induced by deletion of either the α_{IIb} or β_3 CT [39]; (iv) mathematical modeling predicts that talin alone is insufficient to enable ligand-dependent integrin activation [93] and (v) intuitively, other CT binding partners, which may not possess the molecular features needed to initiate unclasping, may still bind and/or displace talin. One such potential co-regulator may be β_3 -endonexin, a 111 amino acid protein present in platelets, which binds to the C-terminal NITY⁷⁵⁹ motif [94]. On the other hand, filamin A binds to the distal region of the β_3 CT and appears to function as a suppressor of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation [82]. Thus, roles for both multiple activators and suppressors, collectively co-regulators, all evolving from direct interactions with the CT, must be incorporated into the model of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation (see Fig. 3). In simplistic terms, their functions can be to shift the equilibrium in one direction, the clasped, resting state, or the other, the unclasped, activated state.

How does unclasping lead to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation? One possibility is that the next event triggered by unclasping is insertion of the newly exposed sequences in the α_{IIb} and β_3 CT, which contain several hydrophobic residues, into the membrane. NMR experiments in micelles show such an insertion of the α_{IIb} K⁸⁹⁸-F⁹⁹³ and the β_3 K⁷¹⁶-I¹²¹ into the membrane [31]. This insertion would be energetically favorable, burying hydrophobic sequences, and the membrane itself would impede reclasping. The insertion could also provide the impetus to disrupt the associations between the α_{IIb} and β_3 TM helices, thereby propagating the inside-out signal. Interestingly, when modeling the talin-PTB/ β_3 CT complex onto the membrane, Wegener *et al.* [72] also found that the membrane-proximal KLLITI should be embedded in the membrane bilayer in the activated state of the integrin. This is consistent with the previous NMR finding and suggestion [31] that membrane insertion might occur during the clasping/unclasping process. Also influencing the equilibrium between states may be the second membrane contact within the β_3 CT. This contact may act as a damper of integrin activation by anchoring the β_3 CT and suppressing spontaneous separation of the CT clasp. This contact overlaps extensively with the talin binding site at NPLY⁷⁴⁷, such that talin could compete with the membrane to bind the β_3 CT during activation.

Once traversing the TM, the inside-out signal induces conformational rearrangements that result in activation of ligand binding site in the head domain of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. The 'switchblade' motion of the head region, translocation of helix-7 within the β_3 A domain and repositioning of the PSI domain, may contribute to the generation of the activated state. As the activated state represents a shift in an equilibrium reaction, in a global sense, events that stabilize the activated state will favor movement of more molecules into the activated state. Hence, events that are usually attributed to outside-in signaling, such as integrin clustering, may also favor the conversion of resting $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ into an activated state.

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Disclosure of Conflict of Interests

The authors state that they have no conflict of interest.

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