

Glycobiology

Review Article

Open Access

Pseudomyxoma Peritonei: Uninvited Goblet Cells, Ectopic MUC2

Afshin Amini, Samar Masoumi Moghaddam, Anahid Ehteda and David Lawson Morris*

Department of Surgery, St George Hospital, The University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia

Abstract

Pseudomyxoma peritonei (PMP) is a challenging clinical syndrome characterized by multifocal peritoneal collections of extracellular mucins. Mucins are high molecular weight, heavily glycosylated proteins differentially expressed by various types of epithelial cells. In this pathological condition, goblet cells originating from a mucinous tumor of the appendix gain access to the peritoneal cavity where they secrete mucin ectopically. Secreted mucin thus accumulates and forms the characteristic feature of the disease. Therefore, goblet cells and secreted mucins constitute the two key elements of the disease. MUC2 is the PMP's specific, predominant mucin. It is a highly viscous, gel-forming mucin that accounts for the characteristic appearance of PMP mucinous deposits as compared to the mucinous implants of ovarian origin. Mucin deposits are the real cause of PMP's morbid complications irrespective of the site of origin, the mechanism of peritoneal spread, or the level of neoplastic transformation. In this article, role of mucin in gastrointestinal physiology and PMP pathology are reviewed and the potential of MUC2 as a therapeutic target are discussed.

Keywords: Pseudomyxoma peritonei; PMP; Mucin; Goblet cells; MUC2

Introduction

Mucosal surfaces throughout the body are coated by a mucus layer. Mucus is a slimy, viscoelastic secretion which serves as a protective barrier against harmful substances and acts as a lubricant between the lumen and the cell surface. The most abundant constituents of mucus are mucins. Also termed MUC glycoproteins, mucins are a diverse family of high molecular weight, heavily glycosylated proteins which are differentially expressed by various types of epithelial cells in a relatively organ- and cell type-specific manner [1]. To date, over 20 different *MUC* genes have been identified which encode the protein backbone of mucins (Table 1) [2]. MUC glycoproteins are categorized into *membrane-associated* as well as *secreted* mucins, with the latter being subdivided into *gel-forming* and *non-gel-forming* types [3,4].

MUC1 is the best-characterized membrane-associated mucin. It consists of an extracellular region (ectodomain), a transmembrane domain, and a cytoplasmic, signaling tail and is expressed on the apical surface of most epithelial cells [5,6]. Membrane-associated mucins establish the molecular composition of the cell surface, communicate information about extracellular status as receptors or sensors of the environment and mediate intracellular signal transduction [7]. They also play an important role in the renewal and differentiation of the epithelium, cell adhesion and immune response [2]. Near the cell surface, the membrane-associated mucin layer might be in contact through interactions with the secreted mucins, contributing to physicochemical protection of the epithelial cell surface from adverse conditions.

Secreted mucins, on the other hand, are synthesized and secreted by specialized epithelial cells at the mucosal surfaces of digestive, respiratory and reproductive tracts by the secretory epithelia of the liver, pancreas, gall bladder, kidney, salivary glands, lacrimal glands and eye [8]. MUC2, a characteristic secreted mucin which participates in the formation of extracellular gels, is a site-specific mucin synthesized by the intestinal goblet cells [2].

At the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, mucins form part of a dynamic, interactive defense system active at the mucosal surface. Structural characteristics and integrity of the mucus layer play an essential role in physiological function of this integrated innate and adaptive immunity [9].

Qualitative and/or quantitative abnormalities of Goblet cell-

secreted mucins have been implicated in various GI disorders, including inflammatory and neoplastic diseases [10,11]. Among these, of particular interest in our research group, is pseudomyxoma peritonei (PMP), a rare clinical syndrome the characteristic feature of which is the progressive accumulation of mucin in the peritoneal cavity. In this article, biology of intestinal mucins in health and PMP disease is reviewed and potential of MUC2 as a therapeutic target is discussed.

Physiology of Intestinal Mucins

Goblet cells and GI mucus

The GI tract is a complex ecosystem generated by the alliance of the epithelial cells, immune cells and resident microbiota. A balanced, dynamic interaction among these components is essential for the maintenance of intestinal homeostasis and the normal function and activity of digestive system [12]. The GI epithelium in association with the overlying mucus layer acts as a barrier that protects the internal milieu against potential physical and chemical hazards in the harsh luminal environment [13]. Mucus in stomach and colon is composed of two layers. The outer, loose layer is the habitat of the commensal flora and is degraded by the commensal flora that finally degrades and associates with intestinal contents. The inner, dense layer is firmly attached to the epithelium and is free from bacterial colonization. Thus, bacteria normally do not reach the epithelial cells and are well separated from the immune system [14]. Mucus is generally composed of mucins, water, inorganic salts, immunoglobulins and secreted proteins. As the main product of goblet cells and the major component of mucus, secreted mucins account for most of biochemical and biophysical properties of mucus. They not only facilitate the transit of intestinal contents [15], but also participate in the front line of the enteric host defense [16]. The GI secreted mucins primarily function as a protective gel barrier between the underlying epithelium and the

*Corresponding author: David Lawson Morris, Department of Surgery, St George Hospital, The University of New South Wales, Level 3, Pitney Clinical Sciences Bldg, Gray St., Kogarah, NSW 2217, Sydney, Australia, E-mail: david.morris@unsw.edu.au

Received April 29, 2013; Accepted May 25, 2013; Published May 27, 2013

Citation: Amini A, Masoumi Moghaddam S, Ehteda A, Morris DL (2013) Pseudomyxoma Peritonei: Uninvited Goblet Cells, Ectopic MUC2. J Glycobiol S1: 002. doi:10.4172/2168-958X.S1-002

Copyright: © 2013 Amini A, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Page 2 of 8

Type of mucin	Designation	Site of expression			
Membrane-associated	MUC1	Almost all glandular epithelial surfaces of respiratory, female reproductive and gastrointestinal tracts, middle ear, salivary gland mammary gland and normal pancreatic intralobular ducts			
	MUC3A	Gastrointestinal epithelia			
	MUC3B	Gastrointestinal epithelia			
	MUC4	Respiratory tract, salivary glands, stomach, colon, eye, vagina, ectocervix, uterus, and prostate			
	MUC11	Gastrointestinal, respiratory, reproductive and urinary tracts, liver and thymus			
	MUC12	Colon, stomach, pancreas, prostate, and uterus			
	MUC13	Gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts, middle ear, and kidney			
	MUC15	Placenta, salivary gland, thyroid gland, trachea, esophagus, kidney and testis			
	MUC16	Ocular surface, respiratory and female reproductive tract epithelia and middle ear			
	MUC17	Gastrointestinal tract, fetal kidney, and conjuctival epithelium			
	MUC20	Kidney, placenta, lung, prostate, liver, colon, esophagus, rectum and middle ear			
	MUC21	Respiratory tract, thymus, colon, and testis			
Secreted gel-forming	MUC2	Goblet cells of small intestine and colon			
	MUC5AC	Tracheobronchial goblet cells, gastric epithelial cells, conjunctiva and lacrimal glands			
	MUC5B	Salivary glands, tracheobronchial and esophageal epithelia, pancreatobiliary and endocervical epithelia			
	MUC6	Gastric mucosa, duodenal Brunner's glands, hepatobiliary tract, pancreatic centroacinar cells and duct, basal endometrial and endocervical glands			
Secreted non-gel- forming	MUC19	Salivary glands, submucosal gland of the tracheal tissue, corneal and conjunctival epithelia, and lacrimal gland tissue			
	MUC7	Epithelium of the oral cavity, minor salivary gland, respiratory tract, submucosal glands of the bronchus, conjunctivae and pancreas			
	MUC8	Normal human Nasal epithelial (NHNE) cells and middle ear epithelium			
	MUC9	Fallopian tubes (non-ciliated oviductal epithelial cells)			

Table 1: Classification of mucin family.

lumen. Similar to the cell surface receptors, the oligosaccharide chains of the mucins bind and trap microorganisms and prevent them from accessing the mucosal surface [17].

Goblet cells, together with absorptive enterocytes, Paneth cells and enteroendocrine cells, comprise the four principal differentiated cell types of the intestinal mucosal epithelia, all of which arise from a multipotent stem cell located near the base of the mucosal crypts [18]. Both absorptive enterocytes and intestinal goblet cells express a variety of membrane-associated mucins with structural similarity, including MUC1, MUC3, MUC4, MUC12, MUC13, and MUC17. Goblet cells, in addition, are the specific source of secretory MUC2 and MUC5AC. Goblet cells are morphologically characterized by the distended theca containing the mucin granules located below the apical membrane. Along with an increase in the number of commensal microorganisms, the proportion of goblet cells among intestinal epithelial cell types increases caudally from duodenum (4%) to distal colon (16%) [19]. Goblet cells synthesize and secrete such bioactive components of mucus as secreted mucins, trefoil peptides [20], resistin-like molecule β (RELM β) [21], and Fc- γ binding protein (Fcgbp) [22]. Two secretory mechanisms are employed by goblet cells: constitutive (or basal) secretion, which is low-level, continuous secretion depending on cytoskeletal movement of secretory granules, and stimulated (or regulated) secretion, which involves exocytosis of granules in response to external stimuli [23].

MUC2 is specifically expressed by goblet cells of the small intestine and colon. It is the substantial component of the two layers of intestinal mucus. MUC2 is released and expanded in volume to form the inner mucus layer from bottom. It is then transported and converted to the outer loose mucus layer at a sharp border and then expanded in volume in the outer loose mucus layer, where it is finally dissolved by bacterial enzymes and transported away with the fecal stream. This mucus bilayer is organized by proteolytic cleavage of MUC2. The more densely packed inner layer attached to the epithelium is comprised of uncleaved MUC2. Therefore, loss of MUC2 confers a microenvironment in which bacteria can activate an inflammatory response at the epithelial surface [14,24].

Structure, synthesis and degradation of MUC2

MUC2 was the first human secreted mucin to be identified and characterized [25,26]. MUC2 gene is clustered with MUC5AC, MUC5B, and MUC6 genes on chromosome 11p15.5 [27]. Accordingly, MUC2 shares structural and physicochemical features with MUC5AC, MUC5B and MUC6 which are expressed in gastric and respiratory glandular epithelium. As illustrated in Figure 1, MUC2 core protein has more than 5100 amino acids and consists of 5 different regions. There are two central repetitive regions rich in potential O-glycosylation sites, to which branched carbohydrate chains of 4-12 sugars are O-glycosidically linked to form a closely packed sheath around the central protein core. The first region, also known as VNTR domain, is a large domain that contains 50-100 "variable number of tandem repeats (VNTRs)" of 23 amino acids, in particular, threonine. The second repetitive region, also called PTS domain, is a 347 amino acid domain, containing irregular repeats rich in proline, threonine and serine. These two highly glycosylated segments are linked together by a 148 amino acid, cysteine containing segment. On their lateral sides, too, VNTR and PTS domains are flanked, respectively, by a 984 amino acid, C-terminal domain and a 1400 amino acid, N-terminal domain, both of which are rich in cysteine. These regions are the presumed sites for end to end polymerisation of mucin subunits to form the linear native polymeric mucin molecule. Within C- and N-terminal regions, MUC2 monomer also contains four cysteine rich D-domains with sequence homology to von Willebrand platelet aggregating factor (vWF), of which three (D1-D3) exist within the N-terminal region and one (D4) resides in the C-terminal region.

In the N-terminal region, MUC2 also contains a putative disulphide isomerase activity sequence as well as a signal sequence. The C-terminal region contains a cysteine knot of 11 conserved cysteine residues and a heparin binding site sequence. Moreover, 31 potential N-glycosylation sites (oligosaccharide chains with mannose core N-glycosidically linked to asparagine) are present in MUC2. Of these N-glycosylation sites, 10 and 18 sites are located in the N-terminal and C-terminal regions, respectively, and three are found in the 148 amino acid region between VNTR and PTS domains [24,28].

Page 3 of 8

The first stage in the biosynthesis of MUC2 is the formation of MUC2 monomer as an N-glycosylated apoprotein, O-glycosylated with just galNAc, in the endoplasmic reticulum. Subsequently, MUC2 dimers form when intermolecular disulfide bonds bridge between the C-terminal cysteine knot domains. During transit through the Golgi apparatus, MUC2 dimers become heavily O-glycosylated. Complete glycosylation of the dimers occurs in the Golgi where trimerization through disulfide bonds at the N-terminus forms protease-resistant trimers. The fully glycosylated and processed MUC2 mucin is densely packed and stored in secretory granules/vesicles and released by the two pathways described earlier (Figure 2). Massive secretion of MUC2 mucin by exocytosis in stimulated secretion is triggered by a wide

array of bioactive factors, including cholinergic agonist, hormones (neuropeptides), microbes and microbial products and toxins, inflammatory cytokines, and reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. These mucin secretagogues signal via secondary messengers such as intracellular Ca^{2+} , cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), and diacylglycerol that activates protein kinase [19].

The degradation of gastrointestinal mucins is complex. GI proteases slowly dissolve the adherent mucus gel throughout the gut. This results in the release of highly glycosylated mucin fragments that are resistant to further proteolytic degradation. Enzymatic breakdown of the oligosaccharide chains of the highly glycosylated mucin fragments,

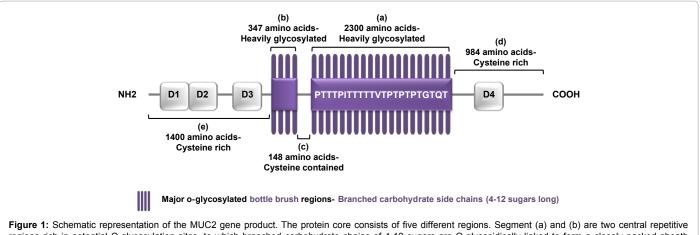


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the MOC2 gene product. The protein core consists of five dimerent regions. Segment (a) and (b) are two central repetitive regions rich in potential O-glycosylation sites, to which branched carbohydrate chains of 4-12 sugars are O-glycosidically linked to form a closely packed sheath around the central protein core. Segment (a), also known as VNTR domain, is a large domain that contains 50-100 "variable number of tandem repeats (VNTRs)" of 23 amino acids, in particular, threonine. Segment (b), also called PTS domain, is a 347 amino acid domain, containing irregular repeats rich in proline, threonine and serine. These two segments are linked together by segment (c) a 148 amino acid, cysteine containing region. Segments (d) and (e) are extensive peptide chains rich in cysteine located at the C and N terminal ends, respectively. They contain D domains which have sequence homology to the von Willebrand factor. These regions are the presumed sites for end to end polymerisation of mucin subunits to form the linear native polymeric mucin molecule.

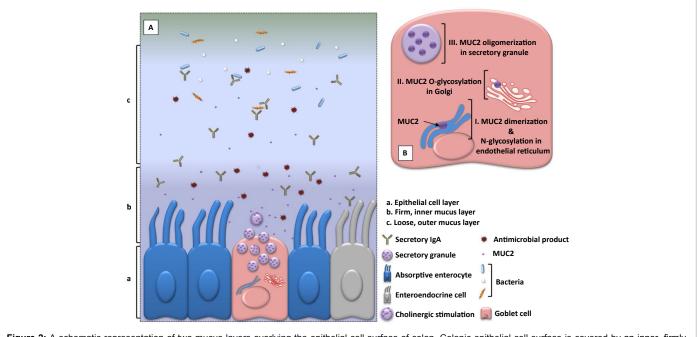


Figure 2: A schematic representation of two mucus layers overlying the epithelial cell surface of colon. Colonic epithelial cell surface is covered by an inner, firmly attached layer surrounded by an outer, loosely adherent layer. This mucus coating is largely made of a MUC2 mucin network produced by the goblet cells, combined with other host defense molecules produced by goblet cells, enteroendocrine cells and absorptive enterocytes. Microorganisms are associated with the outer, but not the inner, layer.

mediated by the gut microflora, occurs only in the colon. Finally, the remnant protein core, deglycosylated and exposed to colonic proteases, undergoes hydrolysis [28].

Pseudomyxoma Peritonei

Pseudomyxoma peritonei (PMP) is a clinical syndrome characterized by accumulation of grossly evident mucin within the peritoneal cavity as well as mucinous implants on the peritoneal surfaces and omentum. The incidence of the disease is estimated 1 per million per year, with a peak incidence in the 5th decade of life [29,30]. The earliest description of the condition was by Weaver [31]. Later in 1884, Werth introduced the term "pseudomyxoma peritonei" when describing the syndrome in association with an ovarian mucinous tumor [32]. In patients with PMP, organizing pools of mucin gradually form within the peritoneal fat or on the serosal surfaces of the viscera. The progressive collection of viscous, gelatinous material with no place of drainage gives rise to the characteristic appearance of jelly belly [33]. PMP is microscopically characterized by large, relatively acellular or cellular mucin aggregates, the latter of which may be presented as mucin aggregates containing strips of mucinous epithelium, mucinous epithelium encircling glands and cysts, or clusters of mucinous epithelium lying within mucin pools [34].

Etiology and classification of PMP

Initial reports described PMP as a syndrome in association with an ovarian tumor [32], or an appendiceal mucocele [35]. Since then, the controversy has been surrounding PMP's entity and origin, hence lack of a coherent classification [36]. The term PMP has been used by many clinicians to describe any condition leading to extensive intraperitoneal accumulation of mucin, thus incorporating mucinous tumors of different origins, in particular the appendix and ovaries, with different levels of neoplastic transformation. As this ambiguity has resulted in ongoing confusion in both differential diagnosis of the disease and optimal care of the patients [37], many scholars have attempted in their investigations to minimize uncertainty over the etiology of the disease and/or to offer a unified classification for PMP.

Despite the debates, a consensus has been reached throughout the past two decades [38-43] that PMP originates from an appendiceal mucinous tumor, which may or may not have been diagnosed earlier, and that ovaries are secondarily involved in PMP. Moreover, a number of studies strongly suggest that PMP is a generally low-grade neoplastic process, where extraperitoneal metastases and solid organ involvement are uncommon. [36]. According to a clinicopathological classification suggested by Ronnett et al. [44], PMP cases are categorized into three groups. These include a benign category termed disseminated peritoneal adenomucinosis (DPAM), a malignant group called peritoneal mucinous carcinomatosis (PMCA) and a third, hybrid category named peritoneal mucinous carcinomatosis with intermediate or discordant features (PMCA I/D), also known as intermediate features group (IFG). Soon after, however, Sugarbaker et al. and Ronnett et al. [45,46] suggested a more restricted definition with PMP just including benign peritoneal tumors with copious mucin secretion arising from primary appendiceal mucinous adenomas (disseminated peritoneal adenomucinosis or DPAM) with a significantly more favourable prognosis. As follows, this notion has been challenged by O'Connell et al. [42] who described mucin production as a process independent of malignant transformation of goblet cells.

Pathogenesis of PMP

Under normal conditions, mucin is constitutively expressed by the

goblet cells and secreted into the intestinal lumen where it eventually degrades and washes away in the fecal stream. In PMP, however, it is believed that appendiceal goblet cells gain access to the peritoneal cavity where they produce ectopic mucin that is unable to drain away [45-47]. In brief, goblet cells arising from a primary mucinous tumor of the appendix grow and proliferate. With the appendiceal lumen being obstructed and mucus being trapped inside, the appendix becomes distended and an appendiceal mucocele subsequently develops. As intraluminal pressure rises, either a small perforation of the appendiceal wall or blow-out of the mucocele releases mucus and tumor cells into the peritoneal cavity. This event is considered as the initial step and the key incident towards development of the clinical syndrome of PMP. Although the perforation of the appendix may become resealed and invisible, indolent free or intraperitoneally seeded tumor cells continue to proliferate for months or even years and produce a large amount of mucin with no place to drain. This eventually gives rise to the characteristic manifestation of PMP as locoregional dissemination of tumor implants and mucin deposits throughout the peritoneal cavity.

Page 4 of 8

As compared to nonmucinous metastases from primary cancers, PMP displays a unique pattern of peritoneal dissemination. This pattern forms according to a redistribution phenomenon that complies with adhesive properties of the tumor cells, intraperitoneal fluid reabsorption pathway, and, gravity [47]. Mucinous epithelial tumor cells do not have adhesion molecules exposed on the cell surface. This lack of "stickiness" means that the tumor cell will not actively attach to an abdominal or pelvic surface. Instead, the exfoliated tumor cells and their mucinous product will be passively circulated by the peritoneal fluid current and deposited at the sites of the peritoneal fluid reabsorption (inferior surface of the right hemidiaphragm as well as the greater and lesser omentum) and, by gravity, within the dependent portions of the peritoneal cavity (such as the rectovesical pouch, the right retrohepatic space and the paracolic gutters).

MUC2 in Pseudomyxoma Peritonei

Through immunocytochemical studies, in situ hybridization and digital image analysis, O'Connell et al. [42,48] indicated that primary ovarian mucinous tumors essentially express MUC5AC whereas all solitary mucinous tumors of the appendix, as well as the different categories of PMP studied, express both MUC2 and MUC5AC. These findings not only supported earlier studies suggesting an appendiceal rather than ovarian origin for PMP [38-41], but more precisely implicated MUC2-expressing goblet cells as the putative cells of the origin in the pathogenesis of the disease. MUC2 is dramatically overexpressed in PMP through an epigenetic, rather than genetic, mechanism. Using pooled cases of PMP, O'Connell et al. [42], reported high levels of steady-state MUC2 mRNA with no corresponding gene rearrangement or amplification. On the other hand, they indicated that the constitutive level of MUC2 expression observed in normal goblet cells of the appendix is maintained by the proliferating tumor cells, irrespective of degree of their malignant tendency. On this basis, they concluded that PMP is a neoplastic disease of MUC2-expressing goblet cells in which tumor cells collectively, but not individually, overexpress MUC2 due to an increase in their number [42]. O'Connell et al. [42] also showed that PMP expression of MUC2 can be epigenetically regulated. They found that primary PMP cells upregulated MUC2 expression in response to 5-azacytidine, a DNA methylation inhibitor, and, more potently, after exposure to Pseudomonas aeruginosa lipopolysaccharides (LPS). These expression-enhancing effects were suppressed by genistein, a potent tyrosine kinase inhibitor. These studies alongside the ensuing investigations evaluating the expression of mucin subtypes in PMP (Table 2) have collectively implicated MUC2

Page 5 of 8

as a key element in the pathogenesis of the disease with potential use as a molecular marker and a therapeutic target.

MUC2, MUC5AC, and MUC5B are the three gel-forming mucins reportedly expressed in PMP (Table 2). MUC2, however, is the PMP's specific and predominant mucin. With PMP and ovarian cancer both expressing MUC5AC, it is MUC2 which differentiates mucinous deposits of the former from mucinous implants of the latter. On an equimolar basis, MUC2 is more extensively glycosylated, hence more voluminous, than MUC5AC, thus responsible for the high degree of gelation in PMP. This gives rise to a significant difference between mucin:cell ratio of their mucinous secretions, that is 10:1 in PMP vs 1:1 in ovarian cancer [42]. In PMP, the accumulation of extracellular mucin is the real cause of the morbid, and potentially fatal, complications, irrespective of the site of origin, the mechanism of peritoneal spread, or the level of neoplastic transformation. The progressive accumulation of intra-abdominal mucin and its associated inflammatory/fibrotic reaction leads to intestinal obstruction, which is the major complication of the disease. Most of the tumor cells in the peritoneal cavity are surrounded by a mucin barrier, which help them move freely with the normal flow of the peritoneal fluid, "redistribute" around the peritoneal cavity and accumulate at specific abdominal and pelvic sites to create the distinctive feature of PMP. Additionally, the tumor cells are shielded by this barrier against immune recognition or chemotherapeutic effects [59].

MUC2: A Potential Therapeutic Target in PMP

Based on the clinicopathological features of PMP, the standard of care is centered on the maximal removal of tumor/mucin mass. This currently includes cytoreductive surgery This currently includes cytoreductive surgery followed by hyperthermic (or heated) intraoperative peritoneal chemotherapy (*HIPEC*) [60]. Despite aggressive therapies, PMP frequently recurs. This warrants novel therapeutic interventions, in particular those targeting mucin as a key player in the pathophysiology of PMP. Targeted reduction of MUC2 may provide a unique strategy for disease control and could potentially improve the efficacy of conventional therapies [59]. Since MAPK pathway has been implicated in MUC2 hypersecretion [61,62], MEK inhibitors (e.g., RDEA119, BAY 86-9766) may represent a novel strategy to decrease MUC2 production. Because of cross-talk between MAPK and other inflammation-associated signaling pathways, multitargeted agents (e.g., Rapamycin, BAY 11-7085) may be more effective [63]. Cytokines have been implicated in goblet cell hyperplasia/ metaplasia and mucin hypersecretion [64-66]. Glucocorticoids have been shown to directly inhibit MUC2 production via glucocorticoid response elements (GREs) in the promoter region and indirectly via transrepression of inflammation-associated transcription factors [67,68]. Similarly, COX-2 is overexpressed in a number of tumors including PMP [69]. Therefore, chronic anti-inflammatory drugs like dexamethasone and celebrex may control MUC2 secretion in PMP by suppressing the inflammatory environment that is conducive to mucin production [70]. The extent of MUC2 promoter methylation closely correlates with MUC2 expression in colorectal cancer cell lines, with mucinous cell lines exhibiting low-level methylation as compared to non-mucinous cell lines. This provides another potential target for the manipulation of MUC2 expression [71]. The Sp-family of transcription factors inhibits MUC2 promoter methylation, thereby augmenting MUC2 expression. The Sp1 binding site inhibitor mithramycin effectively blocks MUC2 expression in colorectal cancer [62,72].

Along with offering state-of-the-art services to patients with PMP [73-79], our team at St George Hospital is also extensively involved in different areas of cancer research, with PMP comprising a field of particular interest. We are currently conducting a comprehensive

Chudu	Year	Number of PMP cases	Percentage of cases exhibiting the expression of mucins	
Study			MUC2	Other forms of mucins
O'Connell et al. [48]	2002	25	96%	MUC5AC 92%
O'Connell et al. [42]	2002	100	98%	MUC5AC 95%
Mohamed et al. [49]	2004	33	97%	MUC1 57.5%
Kinkor et al. [50] *	2005	3	?	-
Nonaka et al. [51]	2006	42	100%	MUC5AC 100%
Mall et al. [52]	2007	1	100%	MUC5AC 100% MUC5B 100%
Ferreira et al. [53]	2008	7	100%	MUC1 28.6% MUC5AC 100% MUC6 28.6%
Semino-Mora et al. [54] [¶]	2008	16	N/A‡	N/A ^{‡‡}
Flatmark et al. [55]	2010	5	100%	MUC1 0% MUC5AC 40% MUC4 100%
Guo et al. [56]	2011	35	94.3%	MUC1 0%
Mall et al. [57]	2011	1	100%	MUC1 0% MUC4 100% MUC5AC 100% MUC5B 100% MUC6 0%
Chang et al. [58] ¹	2012	4	64% †	MUC5AC 43% ††

* Full-text article, in Czech, not accessible. Results of IHC study not available.

¶ This study reports the expression of MUC2 and MUC5A as the volumetric density of apomucin (Vvi/10⁴µm) in such compartments of DPAM and PMCA tissues as epithelium, lymphoid aggregates, stroma vessels and free mucin, respectively, as follows:

 \pm MUC2: in DPAM: 264 \pm 60, 47 \pm 16, 31 \pm 14 and 261 \pm 51; in PMCA: 356 \pm 90, 170 \pm 26, 117 \pm 25 and 1043 \pm 282.

‡‡ MUC5AC: in DPAM: 90 ± 13, 345 ± 20, 65 ± 17, 37 ± 6; in PMCA: 56 ± 12, 246 ± 17, 50 ± 15 and 48 ± 9.

1 In this study, among a total of 14 patients with mucinous adenocarcinoma, 4 cases have reportedly exhibited PMP syndrome. Results of the expression of MUC2 and MUC5AC, however, are reported in total, with no data individually available regarding the PMP cases.

+, ++ Data shown is the percentage of MUC2/MUC5AC expression in all patients with mucinous adenocarcinoma, including PMP ones.

Table 2: A number of studies investigating the expression of mucin subtypes in pseudomyxoma peritonei.

PMP project, including preclinical and clinical studies, to develop new approaches and techniques to complement the conventional interventions. As the key factor in the pathogenesis of the disease and its morbid complications profoundly affecting the patients' survival and quality of life, mucin comprises a major part in our investigations. A number of ongoing studies are as follows: I. We are currently testing some novel mucolytic preparations with cytotoxic effects on mucin-producing tumor cells to be administered intraperitoneally for microscopic loco-regional cytoreduction purposes [80]. II. An animal model of PMP has already been established [81] and other models of PMP-like syndromes and peritoneal carcinomatosis are being developed for preclinical assessment of the mucolytic agents. III. An enzymatic formulation (bromelain combined with N-acetyl cysteine) has been also developed with promising preliminary results on mucin samples from PMP cases as well as on mucin-secreting in vitro models (unpublished data). Anticipated potential benefits of our novel approach include enhancement of surgical procedures in reducing tumor burden and mucin deposits, alleviation of morbidity, and potentiation of chemotherapy. These are currently being tested in preclinical and clinical settings.

Conclusion

PMP is a clinical syndrome with debilitating complications. Ectopic mucin-expressing goblet cells exfoliated from a primary mucinous tumor of the appendix are evidently putative cells of origin. Although PMP exhibits a low-grade neoplastic nature, it is progressive and recurrent. In PMP, tumor cells rarely invade and metastasize. However, they keep producing mucin regardless of the level of neoplastic transformation. Ectopic mucin is secreted into the peritoneal cavity where it is unable to drain away and thus accumulates. Due to the nature of tumor cells, multifocal collections develop within the peritoneal cavity. Recurring mucin deposits are responsible for morbid complications of the disease.

MUC2 is the major player in PMP. It forms voluminous, gelatinous collections with compressive effects on vital organs. MUC2 also protects tumor cells against immune response and chemotherapeutic-induced cytotoxicity. Progressive nature of the disease together with morbidity severely impact patient's survival and quality of life. Despite invasive cytoreductive surgery and peritonectomy, PMP relapses. Over the progression of the disease, suitable therapeutic options become more and more limited. This warrants novel therapeutic strategies to complement conventional approaches. Targeted therapies directed against upstream and downstream of different regulatory pathways of MUC2 expression and efficient mucolytic agents capable of dissolving mucin are among strategies of potential benefit which warrant further investigation.

References

- 1. Gum JR Jr (1992) Mucin genes and the proteins they encode: structure, diversity, and regulation. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol 7: 557-564.
- Rachagani S, Torres MP, Moniaux N, Batra SK (2009) Current status of mucins in the diagnosis and therapy of cancer. Biofactors 35: 509-527.
- Rose MC, Voynow JA (2006) Respiratory tract mucin genes and mucin glycoproteins in health and disease. Physiol Rev 86: 245-278.
- Williams OW, Sharafkhaneh A, Kim V, Dickey BF, Evans CM (2006) Airway mucus: From production to secretion. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol 34: 527-536.
- Gendler SJ, Spicer AP, Lalani EN, Duhig T, Peat N, et al. (1991) Structure and biology of a carcinoma-associated mucin, MUC1. Am Rev Respir Dis 144: S42-47.
- Ho SB, Niehans GA, Lyftogt C, Yan PS, Cherwitz DL, et al. (1993) Heterogeneity of mucin gene expression in normal and neoplastic tissues. Cancer Res 53: 641-651.

- Hollingsworth MA, Swanson BJ (2004) Mucins in cancer: protection and control of the cell surface. Nat Rev Cancer 4: 45-60.
- Forstner JF (1978) Intestinal mucins in health and disease. Digestion 17: 234-263.
- 9. Corfield AP, Carroll D, Myerscough N, Probert CS (2001) Mucins in the gastrointestinal tract in health and disease. Front Biosci 6: D1321-1357.
- Corfield AP, Myerscough N, Longman R, Sylvester P, Arul S, et al. (2000) Mucins and mucosal protection in the gastrointestinal tract: new prospects for mucins in the pathology of gastrointestinal disease. Gut 47: 589-594.
- 11. Kim J, Khan W (2013) Goblet Cells and Mucins: Role in Innate Defense in Enteric Infections. Pathogens 2: 55-70.
- McCracken VJ, Lorenz RG (2001) The gastrointestinal ecosystem: a precarious alliance among epithelium, immunity and microbiota. Cell Microbiol 3: 1-11.
- Dharmani P, Srivastava V, Kissoon-Singh V, Chadee K (2009) Role of intestinal mucins in innate host defense mechanisms against pathogens. J Innate Immun 1: 123-135.
- 14. Johansson ME, Larsson JM, Hansson GC (2011) The two mucus layers of colon are organized by the MUC2 mucin, whereas the outer layer is a legislator of host-microbial interactions. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108 Suppl 1: 4659-4665.
- 15. Cone RA (2009) Barrier properties of mucus. Adv Drug Deliv Rev 61: 75-85.
- Lievin-Le Moal V, Servin AL (2006) The front line of enteric host defense against unwelcome intrusion of harmful microorganisms: mucins, antimicrobial peptides, and microbiota. Clin Microbiol Rev 19: 315-337.
- Allen A, Pearson JP (1993) Mucus glycoproteins of the normal gastrointestinal tract. European Journal of Gastroenterology & Hepatology 5: 193-199.
- Gordon JI, Schmidt GH, Roth KA (1992) Studies of intestinal stem cells using normal, chimeric, and transgenic mice. FASEB J 6: 3039-3050.
- Kim YS, Ho SB (2010) Intestinal goblet cells and mucins in health and disease: recent insights and progress. Curr Gastroenterol Rep 12: 319-330.
- Thim L, Madsen F, Poulsen SS (2002) Effect of trefoil factors on the viscoelastic properties of mucus gels. Eur J Clin Invest 32: 519-527.
- Steppan CM, Brown EJ, Wright CM, Bhat S, Banerjee RR, et al. (2001) A family of tissue-specific resistin-like molecules. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98: 502-506.
- Kobayashi K, Ogata H, Morikawa M, Iijima S, Harada N, et al. (2002) Distribution and partial characterisation of IgG Fc binding protein in various mucin producing cells and body fluids. Gut 51: 169-176.
- Davis CW, Dickey BF (2008) Regulated airway goblet cell mucin secretion. Annu Rev Physiol 70: 487-512.
- 24. Kufe DW (2009) Mucins in cancer: function, prognosis and therapy. Nat Rev Cancer 9: 874-885.
- Gum JR, Byrd JC, Hicks JW, Toribara NW, Lamport DT, et al. (1989) Molecular cloning of human intestinal mucin cDNAs. Sequence analysis and evidence for genetic polymorphism. J Biol Chem 264: 6480-6487.
- 26. Gum JR Jr, Hicks JW, Toribara NW, Rothe EM, Lagace RE, et al. (1992) The human MUC2 intestinal mucin has cysteine-rich subdomains located both upstream and downstream of its central repetitive region. J Biol Chem 267: 21375-21383.
- Pigny P, Guyonnet-Duperat V, Hill AS, Pratt WS, Galiegue-Zouitina S, et al. (1996) Human mucin genes assigned to 11p15.5: identification and organization of a cluster of genes. Genomics 38: 340-352.
- Allen A, Hutton DA, Pearson JP (1998) The MUC2 gene product: a human intestinal mucin. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 30: 797-801.
- Mukherjee A, Parvaiz A, Cecil TD, Moran BJ (2004) Pseudomyxoma peritonei usually originates from the appendix: a review of the evidence. Eur J Gynaecol Oncol 25: 411-414.
- Esquivel J, Sugarbaker PH (2000) Clinical presentation of the Pseudomyxoma peritonei syndrome. Br J Surg 87: 1414-1418.
- 31. Weaver CH (1937) Mucocele of the appendix with pseudomucinous degeneration. Am J Surg 36: 523-526.
- Werth R (1884) Klinische und anatomische untersuchungen zur lehre von den bauchgeschwülsten und der laparatomie. Archiv Fur Gynakologie24: 100-118.

- Panarelli NC, Yantiss RK (2011) Mucinous neoplasms of the appendix and peritoneum. Arch Pathol Lab Med 135: 1261-1268.
- 34. Young RH (2004) Pseudomyxoma peritonei and selected other aspects of the spread of appendiceal neoplasms. Semin Diagn Pathol 21: 134-150.
- Fraenkel E (1901) Ueber das sogennante pseudomyxoma perotonei. Munch med wochenschr. 48: 965-971.
- Misdraji J (2010) Appendiceal mucinous neoplasms: controversial issues. Arch Pathol Lab Med 134: 864-870.
- Moran BJ, Cecil TD (2003) The etiology, clinical presentation, and management of pseudomyxoma peritonei. Surg Oncol Clin N Am 12: 585-603.
- Guerrieri C, Frånlund B, Boeryd B (1995) Expression of cytokeratin 7 in simultaneous mucinous tumors of the ovary and appendix. Mod Pathol 8: 573-576.
- 39. Cuatrecasas M, Matias-Guiu X, Prat J (1996) Synchronous mucinous tumors of the appendix and the ovary associated with pseudomyxoma peritonei. A clinicopathologic study of six cases with comparative analysis of c-Ki-ras mutations. Am J Surg Pathol 20: 739-746.
- Guerrieri C, Frånlund B, Fristedt S, Gillooley JF, Boeryd B (1997) Mucinous tumors of the vermiform appendix and ovary, and pseudomyxoma peritonei: histogenetic implications of cytokeratin 7 expression. Hum Pathol 28: 1039-1045.
- 41. Szych C, Staebler A, Connolly DC, Wu R, Cho KR, et al. (1999) Molecular genetic evidence supporting the clonality and appendiceal origin of Pseudomyxoma peritonei in women. Am J Pathol 154: 1849-1855.
- O'Connell JT, Tomlinson JS, Roberts AA, McGonigle KF, Barsky SH (2002) Pseudomyxoma peritonei is a disease of MUC2-expressing goblet cells. Am J Pathol 161: 551-564.
- Smeenk RM, van Velthuysen ML, Verwaal VJ, Zoetmulder FA (2008) Appendiceal neoplasms and pseudomyxoma peritonei: a population based study. Eur J Surg Oncol 34: 196-201.
- 44. Ronnett BM, Zahn CM, Kurman RJ, Kass ME, Sugarbaker PH, et al. (1995) Disseminated peritoneal adenomucinosis and peritoneal mucinous carcinomatosis. A clinicopathologic analysis of 109 cases with emphasis on distinguishing pathologic features, site of origin, prognosis, and relationship to "pseudomyxoma peritonei". Am J Surg Pathol 19: 1390-1408.
- 45. Sugarbaker PH, Ronnett BM, Archer A, Averbach AM, Bland R, et al. (1996) Pseudomyxoma peritonei syndrome. Adv Surg 30: 233-280.
- 46. Ronnett BM, Yan H, Kurman RJ, Shmookler BM, Wu L, et al. (2001) Patients with pseudomyxoma peritonei associated with disseminated peritoneal adenomucinosis have a significantly more favorable prognosis than patients with peritoneal mucinous carcinomatosis. Cancer 92: 85-91.
- 47. Sugarbaker PH (1994) Pseudomyxoma peritonei. A cancer whose biology is characterized by a redistribution phenomenon. Ann Surg 219: 109-111.
- O'Connell JT, Hacker CM, Barsky SH (2002) MUC2 is a molecular marker for pseudomyxoma peritonei. Mod Pathol 15: 958-972.
- Mohamed F, Gething S, Haiba M, Brun EA, Sugarbaker PH (2004) Clinically aggressive pseudomyxoma peritonei: a variant of a histologically indolent process. J Surg Oncol 86: 10-15.
- Kinkor Z, Michal M (2005) [Syndrome of pseudomyxoma peritonei--description of three cases and survey of the problem]. Ceska Gynekol 70: 67-72.
- Nonaka D, Kusamura S, Baratti D, Casali P, Younan R, et al. (2006) CDX-2 expression in pseudomyxoma peritonei: a clinicopathological study of 42 cases. Histopathology 49: 381-387.
- Mall AS, Chirwa N, Govender D, Lotz Z, Tyler M, et al. (2007) MUC2, MUC5AC and MUC5B in the mucus of a patient with pseudomyxoma peritonei: biochemical and immunohistochemical study. Pathol Int 57: 537-547.
- 53. Ferreira CR, Carvalho JP, Soares FA, Siqueira SA, Carvalho FM (2008) Mucinous ovarian tumors associated with pseudomyxoma peritonei of adenomucinosis type: immunohistochemical evidence that they are secondary tumors. Int J Gynecol Cancer 18: 59-65.
- 54. Semino-Mora C, Liu H, McAvoy T, Nieroda C, Studeman K, et al. (2008) Pseudomyxoma peritonei: is disease progression related to microbial agents? A study of bacteria, MUC2 AND MUC5AC expression in disseminated peritoneal adenomucinosis and peritoneal mucinous carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 15: 1414-1423.

55. Flatmark K, Davidson B, Kristian A, Stavnes HT, Førsund M, et al. (2010) Exploring the peritoneal surface malignancy phenotype--a pilot immunohistochemical study of human pseudomyxoma peritonei and derived animal models. Hum Pathol 41: 1109-1119.

Page 7 of 8

- Guo AT, Song X, Wei LX, Zhao P (2011) Histological origin of pseudomyxoma peritonei in Chinese women: clinicopathology and immunohistochemistry. World J Gastroenterol 17: 3531-3537.
- Mall AS, Lotz Z, Tyler M, Goldberg P, Rodrigues J, et al. (2011) Immunohistochemical and biochemical characterization of mucin in pseudomyxoma peritonei: a case study. Case Rep Gastroenterol 5: 5-16.
- Chang MS, Byeon SJ, Yoon SO, Kim BH, Lee HS, et al. (2012) Leptin, MUC2 and mTOR in appendiceal mucinous neoplasms. Pathobiology 79: 45-53.
- Choudry HA, O'Malley ME, Guo ZS, Zeh HJ, Bartlett DL (2012) Mucin as a therapeutic target in pseudomyxoma peritonei. J Surg Oncol 106: 911-917.
- Sugarbaker PH (2006) New standard of care for appendiceal epithelial neoplasms and pseudomyxoma peritonei syndrome? Lancet Oncol 7: 69-76.
- 61. Li JD, Feng W, Gallup M, Kim JH, Gum J, et al. (1998) Activation of NF-kappaB via a Src-dependent Ras-MAPK-pp90rsk pathway is required for Pseudomonas aeruginosa-induced mucin overproduction in epithelial cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 95: 5718-5723.
- 62. Perrais M, Pigny P, Copin MC, Aubert JP, Van Seuningen I (2002) Induction of MUC2 and MUC5AC mucins by factors of the epidermal growth factor (EGF) family is mediated by EGF receptor/Ras/Raf/extracellular signal-regulated kinase cascade and Sp1. J Biol Chem 277: 32258-32267.
- Orlowski RZ, Baldwin AS Jr (2002) NF-kappaB as a therapeutic target in cancer. Trends Mol Med 8: 385-389.
- 64. Enss ML, Cornberg M, Wagner S, Gebert A, Henrichs M, et al. (2000) Proinflammatory cytokines trigger MUC gene expression and mucin release in the intestinal cancer cell line LS180. Inflamm Res 49: 162-169.
- 65. Kim YD, Kwon EJ, Kwon TK, Baek SH, Song SY, et al. (2000) Regulation of IL-1beta-mediated MUC2 gene in NCI-H292 human airway epithelial cells. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 274: 112-116.
- 66. Iwashita J, Sato Y, Sugaya H, Takahashi N, Sasaki H, et al. (2003) mRNA of MUC2 is stimulated by IL-4, IL-13 or TNF-alpha through a mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway in human colon cancer cells. Immunol Cell Biol 81: 275-282.
- 67. Kai H, Yoshitake K, Hisatsune A, Kido T, Isohama Y, et al. (1996) Dexamethasone suppresses mucus production and MUC-2 and MUC-5AC gene expression by NCI-H292 cells. Am J Physiol 271: L484-488.
- Schoneveld OJ, Gaemers IC, Lamers WH (2004) Mechanisms of glucocorticoid signalling. Biochim Biophys Acta 1680: 114-128.
- Brown JR, DuBois RN (2005) COX-2: a molecular target for colorectal cancer prevention. J Clin Oncol 23: 2840-2855.
- Choudry HA, Mavanur A, O'Malley ME, Zeh HJ, Guo Z, et al. (2012) Chronic anti-inflammatory drug therapy inhibits gel-forming mucin production in a murine xenograft model of human pseudomyxoma peritonei. Ann Surg Oncol 19: 1402-1409.
- Okudaira K, Kakar S, Cun L, Choi E, Wu Decamillis R, et al. (2010) MUC2 gene promoter methylation in mucinous and non-mucinous colorectal cancer tissues. Int J Oncol 36: 765-775.
- Aslam F, Palumbo L, Augenlicht LH, Velcich A (2001) The Sp family of transcription factors in the regulation of the human and mouse MUC2 gene promoters. Cancer Res 61: 570-576.
- 73. Chua TC, Yan TD, Smigielski ME, Zhu KJ, Ng KM, et al. (2009) Long-term survival in patients with pseudomyxoma peritonei treated with cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: 10 years of experience from a single institution. Ann Surg Oncol 16: 1903-1911.
- 74. Saxena A, Yan TD, Chua TC, Morris DL (2010) Critical assessment of risk factors for complications after cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy for pseudomyxoma peritonei. Ann Surg Oncol 17: 1291-1301.
- 75. Chua TC, Baker B, Yan TD, Zhao J, Morris DL (2010) Palliative effects of an incomplete cytoreduction combined with perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Am J Clin Oncol 33: 568-571.
- 76. Chua TC, Al-Zahrani A, Saxena A, Glenn D, Liauw W, et al. (2011) Determining

Page 8 of 8

the association between preoperative computed tomography findings and postoperative outcomes after cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy for pseudomyxoma peritonei. Ann Surg Oncol 18: 1582-1589.

- 77. Chua TC, Liauw W, Zhao J, Morris DL (2011) Upfront compared to delayed cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy for pseudomyxoma peritonei is associated with considerably lower perioperative morbidity and recurrence rate. Ann Surg 253: 769-773.
- Chua TC, Liauw W, Morris DL (2012) Early recurrence of pseudomyxoma peritonei following treatment failure of cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy is indicative of a poor survival outcome. Int J Colorectal Dis 27: 381-389.
- 79. Chua TC, Moran BJ, Sugarbaker PH, Levine EA, Glehen O, et al. (2012) Early- and long-term outcome data of patients with pseudomyxoma peritonei from appendiceal origin treated by a strategy of cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. J Clin Oncol 30: 2449-2456.
- Amini A, Ehteda A, Masoumi Moghaddam S, Akhter J, Pillai K, et al. (2013) Cytotoxic effects of bromelain in human gastrointestinal carcinoma cell lines (MKN45, KATO-III, HT29-5F12, and HT29-5M21). Onco Targets Ther 6: 403-409.
- Chua TC, Akther J, Yao P, Morris DL (2009) In vivo model of pseudomyxoma peritonei for novel candidate drug discovery. Anticancer Res 29: 4051-4055.

Submit your next manuscript and get advantages of OMICS Group submissions

Unique features:

- User friendly/feasible website-translation of your paper to 50 world's leading languages
- Audio Version of published paper
 Digital articles to share and explore

Special features:

- 250 Open Access Journals
- 20,000 editorial team
- 21 days rapid review process
- Quality and quick editorial, review and publication processing
- Indexing at PubMed (partial), Scopus, EBSCO, Index Copernicus and Google Scholar etc
 Sharing Option: Social Networking Engabled
- Sharing Option: Social Networking Enabled Authors, Reviewers and Editors rewarded with online Scientific Credits
- Authors, Reviewers and Editors rewarded with
 Better discount for your subsequent articles
- Submit your manuscript at: http://www.omicsonline.org/submission/

Citation: Amini A, Masoumi Moghaddam S, Ehteda A, Morris DL (2013) Pseudomyxoma Peritonei: Uninvited Goblet Cells, Ectopic MUC2. J Glycobiol S1: 002. doi:10.4172/2168-958X.S1-002

This article was originally published in a special issue, **Cancer Glycobioogy** handled by Editor(s). Prof. Giuseppina Simone, Health Care University of Napoli, Italy; Shashikala R.Inamdar, Karnatak University Dharwad, India