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Modulation of CD4 cell cytokine production by colon cancer-associated mucin

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Abstract Purpose: Mucins have been implicated in tumor-associated immunosuppression. The possibility that colon cancer mucin (CCM) may modulate T-helper 1 (TH1) activity was evaluated by investigating its effect on the production of interleukin-2 (IL-2) by CD4⁺ cells, a process that requires antigen-specific and costimulatory signals. **Methods:** CCM was purified from human colorectal cancer cells by gel-exclusion fast-pressure liquid chromatography. Cytokine production of purified CD4⁺ cells was evaluated at the protein and gene level in the presence of a phorbol ester or an anti-CD3 monoclonal antibody (mAb) plus mAb against the CD28 costimulatory receptor to mimic two-signal activation. **Results:** Soluble CCM, which contains mucins MUC2 as well as MUC1, inhibited IL-2 mRNA expression and secretion of CD4⁺ stimulated with a phorbol ester or an anti-CD3 mAb plus anti-CD28 mAb. Pretreatment of CD4⁺ cells with anti-CD28 mAb abrogated the suppressive effects of CCM on IL-2 production, and flow cytometry showed decreased binding of anti-CD28 mAb to its receptor in the presence of mucin. In addition, Ca²⁺ mobilization after T cell receptor cross-linking with anti-CD3 mAb was maintained in the presence of CCM. Although interferon γ production was also diminished, CCM did

not induce a general inhibition of cytokine production, nor did it decrease cell viability. Macrophage inflammatory protein 1 α production was up-regulated; the production of IL-10 and transforming growth factor β was unchanged. **Conclusions:** The results indicate that CCM can alter TH1 activity and suggest that the modulation of costimulatory interactions is involved. They provide another mechanism of immunosuppression mediated by these highly expressed tumor products.

Key words T-helper cells · Costimulation · CD28 · Interleukin-2 · Macrophage inflammatory protein 1 α

Introduction

Despite the expression of molecules that are capable of activating host immune responses, colorectal tumors still grow and overwhelm the host. Several lines of evidence suggest that this may be the result of inadequate, tumor-specific, T-helper 1 (TH1) activity. Expanded TH2 activity and suppressed TH1 activity have been observed in colorectal patients [5, 34]. Tumor rejection can be effected in animal models when TH1 activity is provided by exogenous cytokines, such as interleukin-2 (IL-2) [10]. The efficient activation of TH1 cells, which are predominantly CD4⁺, requires simultaneous signaling through the T cell receptor as well as costimulatory signals, which, if absent, will result in T cell unresponsiveness [38]. The basis of costimulation for paracrine production of IL-2 involves B7 molecules on the antigen-presenting cells interacting with the CD28 and CTLA-4 receptors on CD4⁺ cells [11, 18, 29, 30]. Signaling is mediated through a unique cytoplasmic pathway, which may up-regulate IL-2 gene expression and/or increase IL-2 mRNA $t_{1/2}$ by decreasing RNase activity and which appears to be resistant to cyclosporin A (CsA) [32, 46]. The introduction of B7-1 (CD80) and B7-2 (CD86) into tumors, which normally do not express costimulatory ligands, to stimulate TH1 activity

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in situ has resulted in T-cell-mediated tumor rejection in animal models [8, 21, 41].

Colorectal tumors and other tumors of epithelial origin express and shed mucins, large ($M_r > 200\,000$) molecules that consist of a core protein moiety and a number of O-linked carbohydrates. Tumor-associated mucins are aberrantly glycosylated, which exposes normally cryptic core polypeptides, rendering them highly immunogenic [4]. Although mucin molecules are potential targets for immunotherapeutic approaches, the expression of high levels often correlates with rapid tumor progression [15]. Mucins have been shown to have a variety of immunosuppressive effects. Agrawal et al. have reported that MUC1 mucin, affinity-purified from ascites obtained from ovarian cancer patients, and synthetic MUC1 core peptides suppress the human T cell proliferative response. This suppression could be reversed by the addition of exogenous IL-2 or anti-CD28 monoclonal antibody (mAb) [2].

We have previously presented evidence suggesting that tumor-associated mucins may inhibit the production of IL-2 [26]. The purpose of this study was to test the effect colon cancer mucin (CCM) on TH activity by investigating its effect on the production of IL-2 and other cytokines by CD4⁺ cells. CCM contains MUC2, a secretory mucin that differs physiochemically from MUC1 [39]. The results suggest that soluble CCM can inhibit TH1 activity by modulating costimulatory interactions.

Materials and methods

Mucins

Isolation and purification of CCM were performed, using a modification of the published technique [40]. Human colon cancer cell lines were established from tumors obtained from two patients with mucinous adenocarcinomas of the colon. The tumor cells were passaged in RPMI-1640 medium, L-glutamine, 10% fetal calf serum and antibiotic (Gibco, Grand Island, N.Y.), grown to confluence, and then centrifuged at 14 000 rpm for 15 min. The supernatant was subject to 41% NH₄SO₄. The precipitated protein was pelleted by centrifugation, resuspended in 1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (pH = 7.1), and dialyzed against polyethylene glycol, using large-pore dialysis tubing, for 4 h and then against PBS overnight (12 h). The dialyzed solution was subjected to fast-pressure liquid chromatography in a Sephadex CL4B column (Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) with a M_r exclusion limit of 2×10^7 . The sample volume was 2 ml, the flow rate was 2 ml/min, and the column pressure did not exceed 13.8 kPa. The void peak and subsequent peaks were serially collected into 1-ml samples and stored at 4 °C until further analysis. Protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay (BioRad, Hercules, Calif.).

Solid-phase enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) as well as sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot analysis confirmed the mucin content with the anti-TAG-72 mucin mAb, CC49 (Cancer Treatment Evaluation Program, National Cancer Institute), and anti-MUC1 and anti-MUC2 mAb (Accurate Chemical & Scientific Corp., Westbury, N.Y.). Primary antibodies were added at 0.1 µg/well for 1 h and washed three times with PBS. A goat anti-(mouse I_g) secondary antibody and substrate were used, and absorbance at 544 nm was determined after overnight incubation. The fractions

with the highest CC49 reactivity were tested by Western blot analysis by electrophoresis on a 4% polyacrylamide/SDS denaturing gel, transfer to nylon membrane (Amersham Pharmacia, Piscataway, N.J.) and blockade for 1 h using 5% bovine serum albumin. After washings, the nylon membrane was incubated with mAb CC49 as the primary antibody followed by goat anti-(mouse alkaline phosphatase) as the secondary antibody. Substrate was added and, after 1–4 h, the reaction was terminated.

Synthetic peptides corresponding to MUC1 (H₂N-PDTRPAP-GSTAPPAHGVTSA-COOH) and MUC2 (H₂N-PTTTPITTTTT-VTPTPTGTGT-COOH) were synthesized by the Ohio State University Peptide Laboratory. CCM that was deglycosylated or desialylated by published methods was also evaluated [20, 27]. In brief, CCM was dissolved in one part anisole and two parts trifluoromethane sulfonic acid (Aldrich Chemical Co., Milwaukee, Wis.) under nitrogen for 3 h, neutralized with aqueous pyridine, and dialyzed against several changes of ammonium acetate buffer for deglycosylation. CCM was treated with *Clostridium perfringens* neuraminidase (200 µu/ml PBS type X; Sigma, St. Louis, Mo.) for 1 h for desialylation.

CD4⁺ cell purification

Lymph nodes, obtained from patients with colorectal cancer in accordance with institutional guidelines and processed into single-cell suspensions, and peripheral blood were subjected to Ficoll-Hypaque (Pharmacia) gradient centrifugation for 30 min at 750 g. Cells recovered from the interface were washed in Hank's balanced saline solution (HBSS), passed over a nylon-wool column, and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C. Nonadherent cells were collected by washing the column with two volumes of warm RPMI medium. CD4⁺ cells were then isolated by immunodepletion using magnetic beads. Nylon-wool-depleted lymphocytes were incubated with 0.1 µg antibodies to CD8, CD19, CD57 and CD14 (Becton Dickinson, Sunnyvale, Calif.) for 1 h at 4 °C. Cells were then washed and incubated with anti-(mouse Fc) immunomagnetic beads for 1 h, diluted into 10 ml HBSS, and separated in a magnet apparatus (Dynal, Oslo, Norway). The resulting nonadherent cell population was more than 90% CD4⁺, as determined by flow cytometry.

Cytokine secretion

CD4⁺ cells were incubated with 10 ng/ml phorbol myristate acetate and plate-bound anti-CD28 mAb (Becton Dickinson) in six-well plates for 12 h at 37 °C and 5% humidified CO₂. The various mucin reagents and CsA were added, and RPMI medium with 10% human serum for a final volume of 2 ml. After 12 h of incubation, the supernatant was collected, and cytokine secretion was assessed. IL-2 secretion was measured by the CTLL-2 bioassay [14]. CTLL-2 cells were incubated in 96-well plates at 2000/well with culture supernatants for 24 h, pulsed with 0.1 µCi [³H] thymidine, and harvested onto nylon filters 12 h later with an automated harvester, and radioactivity was counted on a gamma counter. Human recombinant IL-2 (Chiron, Emeryville, Calif.) was used as a positive control. Interferon γ (IFNγ), IL-10, transforming growth factor β (TGFβ), and macrophage inflammatory protein 1α (MIP-1α) secretion was determined by ELISA kits according to the recommendations of the manufacturer (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, Minn). The limits for detection were 5 pg/ml for IFNγ and 10 pg/ml for IL-10, MIP-1α, and TGFβ.

Cytokine gene expression

Cytokine gene expression of cultured CD4⁺ cells was determined by the reverse transcription/polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as previously described [9]. Total RNA was isolated by a modification of the phenol/chloroform technique. Total RNA was quantified by UV spectrophotometry, and 1 µg was reverse-transcribed, by 20 U

Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Gibco) in 2.0 mM KCl with TRIS/HCl buffer at 23 °C for 1 h. Samples comprising 5 µl cDNA were then amplified using 2 mM dNTP, 2 mM MgCl₂, 1 nM [α -³²P] dCTP, and 2 U Taq polymerase (Boehringer-Mannheim, Indianapolis, Ind.). Cycle parameters were 94 °C for 1 min, 60 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C for 1 min for 20 cycles. PCR amplicons were then subjected to Sephadex G-50 gel filtration to remove unincorporated nucleotides, and the products were run on a 1.8% agarose/TRIS/EDTA gel. cDNA was transferred to nylon membranes by a semi-dry electroblotter (BioRad), and UV-crosslinked by a Stratalinker (Stratagene, La Jolla, Calif.) prior to autoradiography. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase cDNA was amplified for each sample to serve as a positive control.

Flow cytometry

CD4⁺ were incubated with fluorescein-isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-CD28 and anti-CD3 mAb (Becton-Dickinson) (100 ng/10⁶ cells) for 1 h at 4 °C. Cells were then pelleted by centrifugation and washed in triplicate with HBSS. Experiments using soluble CCM were performed by pretreating the CD4⁺ cells with soluble CCM for 1 h at 4 °C followed by replacement with fresh HBSS prior to immunostaining. The tumor cell lines from which the CCM was purified were also assessed for binding of anti-CD3, CD28, MUC1, and MUC2 mAb. Cells were analyzed with an Epics Elite cytometer (Coulter, Hialeah Fl.) using the 525-nm line of an argon ion beam. Histograms were processed by Coulter software and stored in list mode. Control samples were performed at the beginning of each run, and gating was checked so that controls had less than 5% positive staining.

Ca²⁺ mobilization

Ca²⁺ mobilization was determined by flow cytometry with the Ca²⁺-sensitive indicator, Indo-1 (Calbiochem; La Jolla, Calif.), as has been previously described [28]. Purified CD4⁺ cells (10⁶) were loaded with Indo-1 (1 µM) for 20 min in HBSS containing 1.3 nM Ca²⁺ and 0.8 mM Mg²⁺. After washing, CD4⁺ cells were resuspended in the presence or absence of Ca²⁺ and analyzed by flow cytometry using UV line excitation. The ratio of blue (495 nm) to violet (405 nm) fluorescence was used to determine Ca²⁺ mobilization. After baseline measurements had been obtained, cells were treated with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 mAb (1 µg/ml) and goat anti-[mouse F(ab')] for crosslinking, both in the

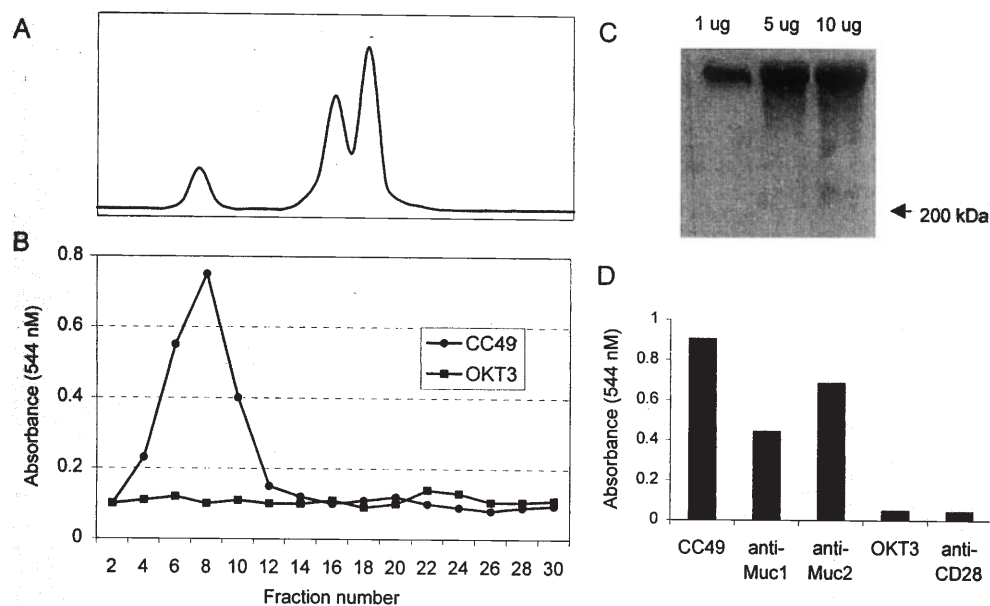
presence and absence of soluble CCM (50 µg/ml). Ionomycin C (1 µg/ml) was used as a positive control.

Results

Effect on IL-2 production

TAG-72-expressing CCM of M_r greater than 200 000 was purified from human colon cancer cell lines (Fig. 1). The CCM purified expressed both MUC1 and MUC2, as determined by ELISA (Fig. 1D); in addition, the tumor cell lines were positive for MUC1 and MUC2 by flow cytometry (data not shown). The effect of CCM on the production of IL-2 by purified CD4⁺ cells stimulated in vitro in conditions to mimic two-signal T-cell activation was evaluated [24]. Lymph-node CD4⁺ cells stimulated with PMA to activate protein kinase C signaling, as well as plate-bound anti-CD28 mAb to provide co-stimulation via the CD28 receptor resulted in the secretion of significant amounts of IL-2. Secretion under similar conditions was significantly less in the presence of CCM (Fig. 2A). (Both sources of CCM had inhibitory effects.) In other experiments purified CD4⁺ cells derived from peripheral blood were stimulated with plate-

Fig. 1A–D Colon cancer mucin (CCM) purification. **A** Fractionation of colon cancer cell supernatant precipitate by gel filtration FPLC over a Sephadex CL-48 column. Absorbance was determined at 280 nM. **B** The resulting fractions were then tested in a solid-phase enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using the anti-TAG-72 mucin mAb, CC49, and absorbance was determined by spectrophotometry. The anti-CD3 mAb, OKT3, was used as a negative control. **C** Fractions containing high mAb CC49 reactivity were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis analysis using 3% stacking and 4% resolving gels. Western blotting was performed using mAb CC49 as the primary and goat anti-(mouse alkaline phosphatase) as the secondary antibody. The fractions were quantified by the Lowry assay. **D** Binding of CC49 and anti-MUC1, MUC2, CD3 (OKT3), and CD28 mAb to CCM as determined by solid-phase ELISA



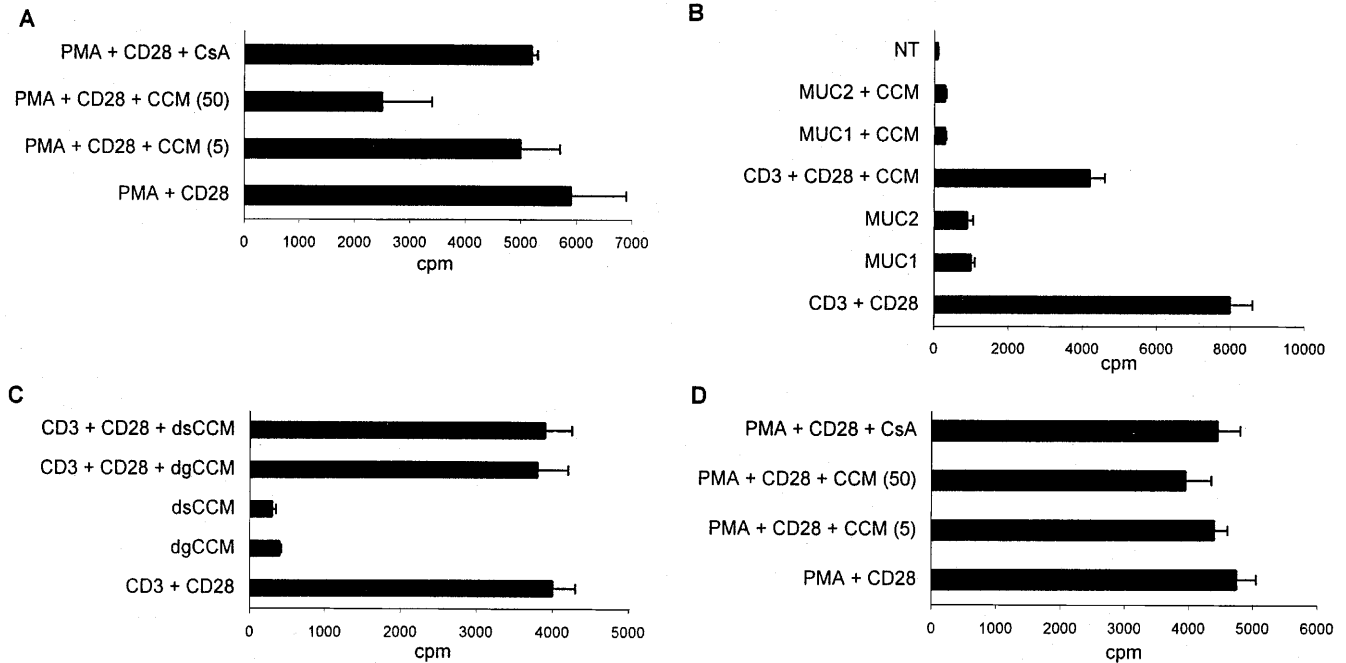


Fig. 2A–D Interleukin-2 (IL-2) secretion of CD4⁺ cells as measured by CTLL-2 bioassay. **A** CD4⁺ lymph node cells were stimulated with phorbol myristate acetate (PMA; 10 ng/ml) and plate-bound anti-CD28 mAb (CD28) in the presence of soluble CCM (5 or 50 µg/ml) or cyclosporin A (CsA; 10 ng/ml). Data represent means ± SD of triplicate samples of a representative experiment. Experiments with CCM were repeated three times, and experiments with CsA were repeated once. **B** CD4⁺ peripheral blood cells were stimulated with plate-bound anti-CD3 (CD3) plus anti-CD28 mAb and synthetic MUC1 and MUC2 peptides (10 µg/ml), in the presence and absence of CCM (50 µg/ml) (NT no treatment). Data represent means ± SD of triplicate samples of a representative experiment, which was repeated once. **C** CD4⁺ peripheral blood cells were stimulated with plate-bound anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 mAb in the presence and absence of deglycosylated CCM (dgCCM; 50 µg/ml), and desialylated CCM (dsCCM; 50 µg/ml). Data represent means ± SD of triplicate samples of a representative experiment, which was repeated once. **D** CD4⁺ lymph node cells were pretreated with plate-bound anti-CD28 mAb (CD28) prior to incubation with soluble CCM (5 or 50 µg/ml) and CsA (10 ng/ml). Data represent means ± SD of triplicate samples of a representative experiment, which was repeated once with similar results

bound anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 mAb. Again, the production of IL-2 under these conditions was significantly diminished in the presence of CCM (Fig. 2B). Control experiments were performed in order to determine whether the observed decrease in IL-2 secretion was due to CCM directly inhibiting the proliferative response of CTLL-2 cells to IL-2. CCM did not inhibit the proliferative response of CTLL-2 cells, even at low concentrations of IL-2 (1 U/ml), suggesting that CCM was not binding IL-2 or the IL-2 receptor (data not shown). There was no evidence of decreased cell viability, as measured by trypan blue exclusion in CCM-treated cultures, when compared with experiments performed in the absence of CCM, nor of apoptotic bodies.

The use of deglycosylated or desialylated CCM did not similarly inhibit IL-2 secretion nor did the addition

of synthetic peptides corresponding to a single repeat of apomucins encoded by *MUC1* and *MUC2* genes, suggesting that the large glycoprotein was necessary for the inhibitory effects observed (Fig. 2B, C). In contrast, the synthetic MUC1 and MUC2 stimulated IL-2 production; this stimulation was abrogated in the presence of CCM (Fig. 1B). IL-2 production was also tested in the presence of CsA, which inhibits IL-2 production via a CD28-independent mechanism. In contrast to CCM, CsA did not alter IL-2 secretion by CD4⁺ cells stimulated under similar conditions (Fig. 2A).

The kinetics of IL-2 gene transcription of the CD4⁺ cells in this in vitro model of CD4⁺ cell activation was evaluated. Up-regulation of IL-2 mRNA was observed within 2 h following stimulation with PMA and anti-CD28 mAb; IL-2 mRNA persisted over a period of 8 h (Fig. 3A). In contrast, IL-2 mRNA of CD4⁺ cells treated with PMA and anti-CD28 mAb in the presence

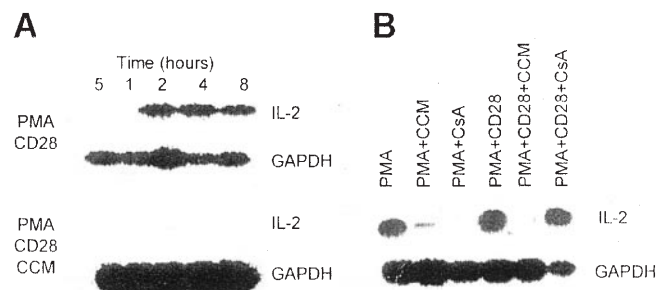


Fig. 3A, B Kinetics of IL-2 gene expression as measured by reverse transcription/polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). **A** CD4⁺ lymph node cells were treated with PMA and plate-bound anti-CD28 mAb (CD28), alone and in the presence of CCM (50 µg/ml). **B** IL-2 gene expression after 4 h of treatment with PMA, plate-bound anti-CD28, CCM (50 µg/ml), and/or CsA (10 ng/ml). Glyceraldehyde phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*) was used as a control

of CCM demonstrated diminished levels and $t_{1/2}$ (Fig. 3A). $CD4^+$ cells treated with PMA and anti-CD28 mAb maintained IL-2 gene expression in the presence of CsA (Fig. 3B). These results are consistent with the observation that IL-2 gene expression and cytokine secretion by $CD4^+$ cells is diminished in the presence of soluble CCM by a mechanism separate from that of CsA.

Effect on $CD4^+$ cell costimulation

The following experiments were performed to test whether modulation of the costimulatory pathway was involved in the inhibitory effects of CCM. CCM did not bind anti-CD3 or anti-CD28 mAb, as determined by ELISA (Fig. 1D); the tumor cell lines from which CCM was purified did not bind anti-CD3 or anti-CD28 mAb, as determined by flow cytometry (data not shown). $CD4^+$ lymph node cells were incubated with PMA and anti-CD28 in the presence of CCM and CsA as described above. However, in this set of experiments, $CD4^+$ cells were pretreated with anti-CD28 mAb for 15 min prior to exposure to CsA and CCM (Fig. 2D). This pretreatment of the $CD4^+$ cells with anti-CD28 mAb abrogated the suppressive effects of CCM on IL-2 secretion, suggesting that CCM may be modulating CD28 costimulation.

Flow cytometry was performed to evaluate whether soluble CCM interfered with binding of anti-CD28 mAb

to its receptor. Incubation of $CD4^+$ cells with anti-CD28 mAb in the presence of soluble CCM resulted in a diminished number of positive cells (Fig. 4) as well as diminished fluorescence intensity of binding to CD28 (mean fluorescence in the presence of CCM, 1.07; in the absence of CCM, 1.77; control, 0.692). In contrast, CCM did not substantially modulate anti-CD3 mAb binding using the same cells, suggesting that the inhibition of binding of anti-CD28 mAb by CCM was not due to nonspecific interactions of the CCM glycoprotein and the antibodies.

In order to test whether CCM was interfering with signaling through the T cell receptor and the protein kinase C pathway, Ca^{2+} mobilization of $CD4^+$ cells was determined after stimulation with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 mAb in the presence and absence of soluble CCM (Fig. 5). These experiments show that $CD4^+$ cells show significant influx of Ca^{2+} shortly after incubation with cross-linked anti-CD mAb. Addition of CCM at various concentrations (5, 10, and 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) did not inhibit Ca^{2+} mobilization, suggesting the CCM does not inhibit signaling via the T cell receptor. Additional experiments using anti-CD28 mAb alone did not show Ca^{2+} mobilization, consistent with previous reports [31].

Effect on other cytokines

In order to determine whether the effect of CCM on IL-2 production represented a general inhibition of cytokine

Fig. 4 Binding of anti-CD28 and anti-CD3 mAb to purified $CD4^+$ lymph node cells as determined by flow cytometry in the presence and absence (NT) of CCM (50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) or ovalbumin (OVA; 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). Control isotype control. FITC fluorescence isothiocyanate

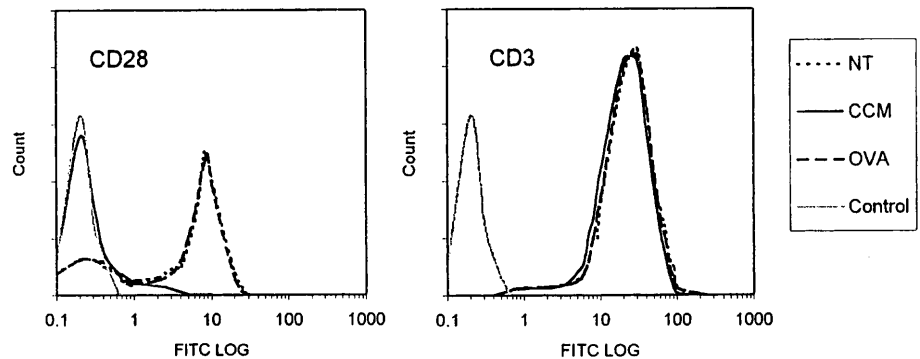
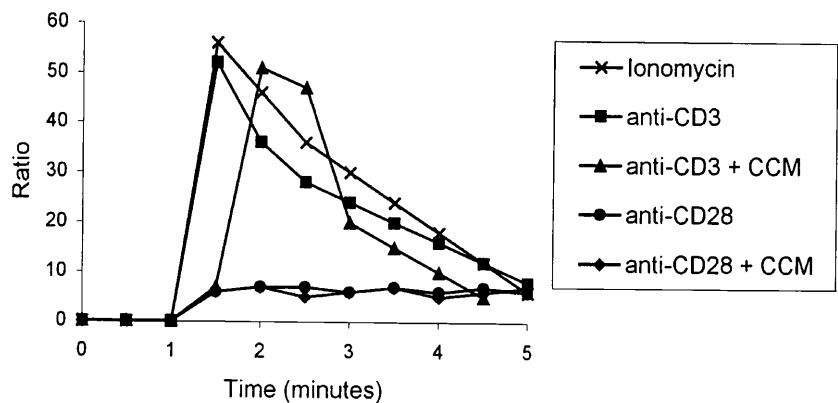


Fig. 5 Ca^{2+} mobilization of $CD4^+$ cells to stimulation with crosslinked anti-CD3 or anti-CD28 mAb in the presence and absence of CCM (50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). Cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} was determined by Indo-1 and is presented as the ratio of fluorescence at 495 nm to that at 405 nm over time. Reagents were added 1 min after establishing a baseline level. Ionomycin C (10 ng/ml) was used as a positive control



production, the effects of CCM on the production of other cytokines, including $\text{IFN}\gamma$, IL-10, $\text{TGF}\beta$, and MIP-1 α were compared at the mRNA and protein level (Figs. 6, 7). Although $\text{IFN}\gamma$ mRNA expression was not substantially modulated by CCM, its secretion was. MIP-1 α mRNA as well as MIP-1 α secretion was up-regulated in the presence of CCM. The production of IL-10 and $\text{TGF}\beta$ was not significantly modulated.

Discussion

Tumor-associated mucins have been implicated in a number of immunosuppressive activities, in addition to suppressing T cell proliferation [2]. These include the suppression of the interactions between cytolytic T lymphocytes and their targets [44], sensitivity to natural killer cell cytotoxicity [33], adhesion of eosinophils to

antibody-coated targets [19], and delayed-type hypersensitivity reactions [12]. The release of mucins may also lead to a “decoy” phenomenon, in which mucin-specific effectors are preoccupied with circulating soluble mucin molecules and do not efficiently engage tumor cells [25]. The results of our study indicate that CCM regulates cytokine production of CD4^+ cells. Modulation of TH cytokine production is another mechanism by which these highly expressed molecules can act as immunosuppressives and by which a tumor may evade immune effector mechanisms despite the expression of antigenic determinants.

Agarwal et al. found that MCU1 induced anergy, which could be reversed by adding IL-2 [2]. Our observations with CCM are consistent with those of Agrawal et al. and the induction of anergy and not apoptosis. Significant lymphocyte death or apoptotic bodies were not observed over the short-term culture period, and CCM did not lead to a general decrease in cytokine production. The decrease of IL-2 secretion and concomitant increase of MIP-1 α secretion would be consistent with induction of T-cell unresponsiveness of the CD4^+ cells [37]. In other aspects, our results vary from those of Agrawal et al., who found that MUC1-inhibited T cells retained their ability to secrete $\text{IFN}\gamma$ in response to an antigenic challenge and suggested that “split tolerance” was being observed, whereby T cell proliferation was inhibited but cytokine secretion was unaffected. In addition, they found that MUC1 did not block the stimulatory effect of anti-CD28 antibody on the proliferative response. Our studies with anti-CD28 antibody were performed with resting CD4^+ cells. The studies of Agrawal et al. used peripheral blood T cells that had been cultured for 6–7 days with allogeneic lymphocytes. CD28 expression by these allo-antigen-stimulated cells was likely higher and presumably included a substantial proportion of CD8^+ cells. There is evidence of functional differences between the CD28 molecule expressed on CD4^+ and CD8^+ cells [13]. The production of $\text{IFN}\gamma$ by CD8^+ cells may not require CD28-mediated costimulation [17]. Finally, different sources of mucin were used. The mucin studied herein was derived from patients with mucinous colorectal cancers and contained MUC2, the predominant mucin produced by the human colon [43]. In contrast to MUC1, which is expressed by the apical membranes of most polarized epithelial cells of the respiratory, digestive and genitourinary tract, including breast tissue, MUC2 is secreted by goblet cells of the colon, small intestine, and bronchus. MUC2 is a gel-forming mucin with domains containing high levels of cysteines and mannose-rich *N*-glycans [39]. Other large, secretory glycoproteins produced by the colon, such as MUC4, may also have been present. There are similarities in the effects of CCM observed to the effects of another tumor-derived product, namely, gangliosides, which are large, sialic-acid-containing glycosphingolipids. Gangliosides have been shown to block IL2 and $\text{IFN}\gamma$ gene transcription without inhibiting the production of IL-10 mRNA [23].

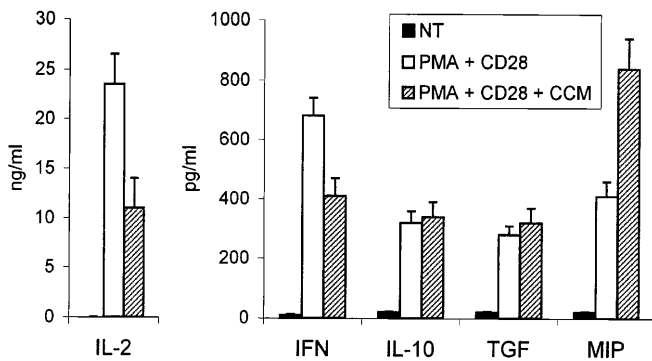


Fig. 6 RT-PCR of cytokine mRNA of CD4^+ cells treated with PMA and anti-CD28 mAb in the presence of CCM (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) or CsA (10 ng/ml). GAPDH was used as a control. *IFN* interferon, *TGF* transforming growth factor β , *MIP* macrophage inflammatory protein 1 α

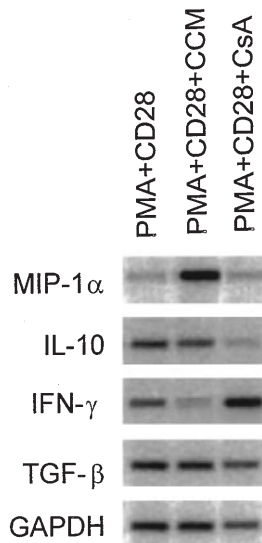


Fig. 7 Cytokine production of CD4^+ cells in response to PMA and anti-CD28, in the presence and absence of CCM (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$). Data are presented as mean values \pm SD for triplicate samples

The costimulatory signal generated through CD28 results in IL-2 production. Depending of the stimulus and the responding cells the production of other cytokines, including IFN γ , TNF α , granulocyte/macrophage-colony-stimulating factor, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, and IL-10, can also be modulated [45]. The switch of TH1-associated cytokines, namely IL-2 and IFN γ , to TH2-associated cytokines, namely IL-4, IL-5, and IL-10, has been suggested to play a role in the escape of tumors from immune effectors, including that in patients with colorectal cancer [34]. Although IL-2 and IFN γ production could still be detected and although up-regulation of IL-10 was not observed, the production of IL-10 was not inhibited, which suggests that CCM would promote TH2-associated, humoral responses. An increase in soluble IL-2 receptor levels has been implicated in the TH1 to TH2 switch observed in colorectal cancer patients [5]. It has recently been reported that MUC1 induces a CTL response in mice but an antibody response in humans [3]. This switch in the immune response appears to be caused by cross-reacting antibodies that are present in humans but not in mice. In addition, transgenic mice expressing *MUC1*, which are tolerant to MUC1 protein, fail to exhibit any switching of immunoglobulin class to the IgG subtypes, a process that requires TH activity [36].

The mechanism by which CCM modulate immune responses will require further study. That CCM did not interfere with signaling through the TCR and that pre-treatment of CD4⁺ with anti-CD28 mAb abrogated the suppressive effects of CCM on IL-2 secretion suggest that CCM may modulate costimulatory signals. In addition, CCM decreased the binding of an anti-CD28 mAb, although it is possible that other antibodies may not be affected. How CCM affects CD28 but not CD3 is not known. The large size and anti-adhesive properties of mucins have been implicated in their immunosuppressive effects. Suppression of IL-2 production by CCM was dependent on the maintenance of its glycosylation and sialylation. In animal models inhibition of mucin glycosylation greatly reduces the metastatic potential of mucin-producing tumors [7]. B7-1 and B7-2 are highly glycosylated molecules and alterations in their glycosylation have been demonstrated to alter their binding properties to CD28 and CTLA-4 [22]. Soluble MUC1 mucin has been shown to inhibit the adhesion of cancer cells to endothelium through ICAM-1, which suggests the possibility that CCM can induce anergy by interfering with the costimulatory interaction of lymphocyte-function-associated antigen (LFA-1) with ICAM-1 [6, 35].

Whether these and other observations of the immunosuppressive effects of mucins made in vitro and in animal models are relevant to human cancer will also require further study. A CD4⁺ cell pleocytosis is often detected in the draining lymph nodes of patients with colorectal cancer [1, 42]. Our results would indicate that the ability of these CD4⁺ cells to mediate TH1 activity effectively is compromised. The capacity of CCM to

modulate cytokine production of resting CD4⁺ cells by inhibiting costimulatory interactions has implications for the immunotherapy of human adenocarcinomas. Circulating CCM would be predicted to limit the capacity of vaccine approaches using oligopeptides corresponding to MUC1 or MUC2 to elicit cellular immune responses effectively. Although it has been demonstrated that poorly immunogenic murine tumor cells can be rejected in vivo when transformed to express costimulatory ligands, this approach, as well as the use of specific cytokines which increases circulating levels of CCM [16], will be ineffective in mucin-secreting tumors: the expansion of sufficient TH1 activity in situ may be continually abrogated.

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