

1 *Review*

2 **Airway Mucus and Asthma: The Role of MUC5AC** 3 **and MUC5B**

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10 **Abstract:** Asthma is characterized by mucus abnormalities. Airway epithelial metaplasia results in
11 changes in stored and secreted mucin and the production of a pathologic mucus gel. Mucus
12 transport is impaired culminating in mucus plugging and airway obstruction, a major cause of
13 morbidity in asthma. The polymeric mucins MUC5AC and MUC5B are integral components of
14 airway mucus. *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* gene expression is altered in asthma and recent work sheds
15 light on their contribution to asthma pathogenesis. Herein we review our current understanding of
16 the role of MUC5AC and MUC5B in mucus dysfunction in asthma.

17 **Keywords:** MUC5AC; MUC5B; asthma

19 **1. Asthma**

20 Asthma is a common, chronic, non-communicable disease that affects ~334 million people
21 of all ages, races and ethnicities worldwide [1]. Dramatic increases in the prevalence of atopy and
22 asthma have occurred in Westernized countries, and incidence is rising in less-developed countries
23 [2]. Asthma causes approximately 250 000 deaths annually, is a major cause of lost school and work
24 days, and imposes a substantial economic burden, particularly in low- to middle-income countries
25 [3,4]. Asthma symptoms include wheezing, breathlessness (dyspnea), chest tightness and cough; all
26 result from obstruction in airflow arising from a combination of inflammation induced airway
27 smooth muscle constriction and impaired mucociliary clearance [5].

28 **2. Mucociliary clearance**

29 The conducting airways of the lung are lined by a pseudostratified columnar epithelium
30 extending from the nasal cavity to the lower airway [6]. The epithelium is populated by several cell
31 types. Ciliated cells are interspersed with secretory cells [6], which include club and goblet cells,
32 and contribute secretions to the apical mucus gel [7]. In larger airways, the surface epithelium is
33 contiguous with submucosal glands, which are situated between smooth muscle and cartilage
34 plates [7]. Mucous cells within gland acini are a major mucus source [7] and mucous cells are also
35 found within ducts which deliver gland secretions to the airway lumen. Basal cells anchor the
36 epithelium to the underlying matrix and function as stem/progenitor cells for other airway cell
37 types during natural turnover and in response to injury [8].

38 Together, the ciliated epithelium, periciliary layer and airway mucus gel form the
39 mucociliary escalator [9]. Individual cilia atop ciliated cells beat in concert within the periciliary
40 layer to propel airway mucus up and out of the lung [10]. In addition to providing a favorable
41 environment for ciliary activity, the periciliary layer prevents compression from the overlying
42 mucus gel layer, and provides a water reservoir to control water distribution [11]. Airway mucus is
43 a hydrogel that functions as molecular flypaper, protecting the underlying epithelium by trapping
44 potentially harmful inhaled particles, pathogens and dissolved chemicals within it [12].

45 Effective mucociliary clearance is essential for maintaining an uninfected and unobstructed
46 airway, and relies on ciliary activity and the physiochemical properties of the periciliary layer and
47 mucus gel [9,12]. Failure of any component of the mucociliary apparatus can render clearance
48 defective and lead to obstruction. For example, in primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD), cilia absence
49 and/or immotility impair mucociliary clearance, while in cystic fibrosis (CF) periciliary liquid
50 depletion manifests as mucostasis [11]. In asthma, 'pathologically the outstanding feature of the
51 asthmatic lung lies in the failure of clearance of the bronchial secretions' [13]. In fact, the principal
52 cause of death in asthma is asphyxiation from intraluminal airway obstruction by mucus plugs [14–
53 16]. Defective mucociliary clearance is observed even in mild stable asthma [17–19] and is also
54 significantly impaired during acute exacerbation [20].

55 3. Polymeric mucins

56 Mucins are the products of secretory cells and the primary macromolecular components of
57 mucus. Mucins are heterogeneous, densely glycosylated high molecular weight molecules [21]. To
58 date ~20 mucin-like genes have been identified and fall into 2 broad classes: membrane-bound or
59 cell surface mucins, and secreted mucins. Secreted mucins are further subdivided into polymeric
60 and non-polymeric glycoconjugates [22]. 4 polymeric MUC genes, *MUC2*, *MUC5AC*, *MUC5B* and
61 *MUC6*, are present in tandem on a conserved cluster of human chromosome 11p15 and likely arose
62 by gene duplication [23]; the fifth, *MUC19*, is found on 12q12 [21,24].

63 Polymeric mucin gene products have complex, multidomain polypeptide structures
64 important to their function [21]. They possess cysteine-rich von Willebrand factor (vWf) -like D-
65 domains including 3 D-domains (D1,2 and 3) at the N terminus and a fourth at the C terminus (D4);
66 a partial D domain (D') lies between the D2 and D3 domain [21,25]. Additional cysteine rich vWf-
67 like domains (B, C, CK) are located at the C terminus. These domains are sites of mucin
68 dimerization and polymerization, with mucin monomers forming disulfide-bonded polymers in
69 both mass (2-50 mDa) and length (0.5-10 μ m) [9]. The capacity of polymeric mucins to polymerize is
70 crucial to their gel-forming properties.

71 The hallmark of these proteins are the tandem repeat domains, encoded by a single large
72 central exon and rich in proline, serine and threonine residues [9]. These regions are the site of O-
73 glycosylation; the repetitive sequences create a dense array of glycan structures which contribute
74 50-90% weight by mass of the glycoprotein [21]. The extensive glycosylation extends and stiffens
75 the mucin polypeptide chain. Terminal sulfation and sialylation of the O-glycans results in charge
76 repulsion between neighboring oligosaccharide groups. Mucins therefore have a large
77 hydrodynamic volume in solution, which is important for gel formation [21]. Charged polymers
78 like mucins are also very effective lubricants in aqueous environments [26].

79 As aforementioned, mucins share sequence similarity with vWF, which also polymerizes
80 through N and C-terminal disulfide linkages [25]. Studies on intact mucins, recombinant N and C
81 terminal domains, as well as studies on porcine submaxillary mucin (PSM) have shown that
82 polymeric mucins also share some basic pattern of polymer assembly with vWF [27–30]. The latter
83 stages of assembly involving multimerization and packaging into secretory granules are less clearly
84 resolved. Polymeric mucins are packaged highly condensed and dehydrated into secretory
85 granules; calcium ions enable this through shielding charge on the polyanionic mucins [31,32]. A
86 recent study characterized an additional association between *MUC5B* N-terminal D3 domains that
87 enables secretory granule storage; uncoupling of the D3-mediated results in expansion during
88 exocytosis [33]. As all polymeric mucins share sequence identity it is possible that the assembly
89 mechanism is also shared.

90 Additionally, the mechanisms leading to mucus formation post-exocytosis are poorly
91 understood. A 2-phase model has been proposed to explain the rapid and massive mucin expansion
92 that occurs on secretion [34]. Following secretory granule fusion with the plasma membrane,
93 calcium ions are exchanged by monovalent cations such as sodium and potassium and/or
94 sequestered by bicarbonate [35,36]. This exposes the negatively charged terminal sugars on adjacent
95 mucins, leading to their mutual repulsion and further expansion [36]. This process is followed by

96 changes in mucin morphology, the molecules unfurling to attain a linear polymeric form in a
97 process coined 'maturation' [34].

98 4. MUC5AC and MUC5B

99 In the airway, MUC5AC and MUC5B predominate, with little MUC2 detected and low
100 level MUC19 expression reported; MUC6 is the only polymeric mucin not expressed [21,37].
101 MUC5B is produced by mucous cells in submucosal glands, and to a lesser extent secretory cells
102 within the surface airway epithelium [38–40]. MUC5AC is produced by specialized secretory cells
103 in the surface epithelium called goblet cells; MUC5AC staining can also be observed in the terminal
104 secretory ducts of submucosal glands [38–40]. MUC5AC and MUC5B are secreted from different
105 cells, or from different granules within the same cell, and remain largely segregated after secretion
106 into the lumen [41,42]. They may also form distinct morphologic structures: lectins preferentially
107 recognizing each mucin suggest MUC5B forms strands and MUC5AC threads and sheets in a
108 porcine model.

109 As the major matrix-forming macromolecules in airway mucus, the viscoelastic properties
110 of airway mucus depend on MUC5AC and MUC5B [9]. Electron microscopy revealed that
111 MUC5AC and MUC5B polymers are long, flexible linear threads [43,44]. However, MUC5AC and
112 MUC5B differ in charge and shape [45]. MUC5B exists as 2 glycoforms, differing in charge due to
113 glycosylation [46]. The high charge MUC5B variant has been identified in a subpopulation of
114 submucosal gland cells suggesting a distinct cellular origin and glycosyltransferase repertoire [40].
115 MUC5AC has a lower sedimentation rate than MUC5B. As both form polymers of similar size, the
116 difference in sedimentation is likely determined by the shape of the molecules: MUC5AC behaves
117 more rod-like or extended in solution compared to MUC5B [44]. This characteristic of MUC5AC
118 likely explains why MUC5AC polymers appear less polydisperse than MUC5B polymers as the
119 extended structure gives poorer separation by sedimentation rate [40,44].

120 Targeting mouse mucin genes has provided insights into the roles of MUC5AC and
121 MUC5B in the airway. MUC5B is critical for mucociliary clearance and airway defense [47].
122 MUC5B-deficient mice accumulate aspirated materials in the airway and develop chronic bacterial
123 infections, severe inflammation, and airway obstruction [47]. Loss of MUC5B also inhibits innate
124 inflammatory responses suppressing IL-23 that results in accumulation of alveolar macrophages
125 whose phagocytosis and clearance of *Staphylococcus aureus* was impaired [47]. The role of MUC5B
126 was also explored by crossing MUC5B-deficient mice with *Scnn1b*-Tg mice, which exhibit mucus
127 hyperconcentration and airway surface adhesion due to overexpression of the epithelial sodium
128 channel (ENAC) [48]. The magnitude of mucus obstruction in *Scnn1b*-Tg mice was significantly
129 reduced in the absence of MUC5B, however mucus adhesion persisted and MUC5B deletion did not
130 alleviate bacterial burden. Absence of MUC5B in *Scnn1b*-Tg mice was associated with increased
131 airway inflammation suggesting that MUC5B is required to maintain immune homeostasis and is
132 important in ant-bacterial defense.

133 MUC5AC-deficient mice have normal mucociliary transport and anti-bacterial defense and
134 are protected from mucus plugging in an allergic asthma model [47,49]. Overexpression of
135 MUC5AC confers resistance to viral infection but does not cause metaplasia or obstruction
136 suggesting mucus hypersecretion alone is insufficient to trigger plugging [50]. However, MUC5AC
137 appears to be detrimental in acute lung injury, enhancing neutrophil trafficking and inflammation
138 [51].

139 Whether the polymeric mucins function similarly in humans has yet to be established. As
140 aforementioned, the airways of normal mice more resemble human distal airways in respect to their
141 diameter [52]. Additionally, the distribution of secretory cells differs between human and mice;
142 submucosal glands are limited to the laryngeal region of trachea in mice [53]. Based on these cross-
143 species anatomical differences one could hypothesize that MUC5B may perform baseline barrier
144 and clearance functions in human distal airways, but its function may be augmented by MUC5AC
145 in the proximal airways where MUC5AC production is greater. Notably, the proportion of

146 MUC5AC and MUC5B varies with the state of health and the effects of this in asthma are discussed
147 below.

148 5. Regulation of *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* expression in asthma

149 Variants in the 11p15 *MUC5B* and *MUC5AC* locus have been associated with AHR in
150 asthma (6). Many individuals with asthma have increased *MUC5AC* mRNA levels but decreased
151 *MUC5B* mRNA levels [54]. *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* expression is sensitive to a wide variety of
152 stimulants and developmental cues. Of particular pertinence to asthma are type 2 immune cells,
153 including type 2 T helper (Th2) cells and innate lymphoid cells (iLC2s), which orchestrate allergic
154 airway remodeling in asthma. IL-13 is produced by these cells during allergic inflammation,
155 inducing characteristic changes in airway epithelial mRNA [55–57] and miRNA expression [58] in
156 airway epithelial cells. The IL-13 transcriptional signature can be used to identify individuals with
157 Th2 high and Th2 low asthma; approximately 50% of people with asthma are Th2 high [54,56].
158 Individuals with Th2 asthma have elevated levels of *MUC5AC* compared with healthy controls or
159 individuals with Th2 low asthma; a substantial decrease in *MUC5B* expression is also observed in
160 Th2 high asthma [54,59]. IL-13 significantly and consistently increases expression of *MUC5AC* in
161 human airway epithelial cells in vitro and expression of *Muc5ac* in murine models [41,55,57,60,61].
162 The effect of IL-13 on *MUC5B* is more variable. IL-13 (and allergen challenge) induces *Muc5b* in
163 mouse models but IL-13 frequently decreases *MUC5B* in cultured human airway epithelial cells
164 [41,59].

165 The link between type 2 inflammation and airway structural cell dysfunction is
166 incompletely understood. A recent study has suggested that Th2 inflammation is necessary but not
167 sufficient for allergic asthma, and that the airway epithelium is more responsive to Th2
168 inflammation in people with asthma as measured by *MUC5AC* [62]. Whether this is because
169 asthma cells are intrinsically more sensitive to type 2 inflammation or develop altered responses in
170 a chronic inflammation environment remains undetermined [62].

171 Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) signaling is also required for mucus production
172 in vitro and in vivo [57,63,64]. EGFR levels are increased in individuals with asthma and expression
173 correlates with disease severity [65]. Various stimuli (bacterial products, viruses, cigarette smoke
174 and inflammatory cell products) and various ligands (EGF, TGF- α , amphiregulin) can trigger EGFR
175 signaling in airway epithelial cells. EGFR signaling induces *MUC5AC* expression while EGFR
176 tyrosine kinase inhibition blocked *MUC5AC* expression [63].

177 Recently, a murine inbred strain study revealed that a large fraction of the variation in
178 secreted *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* was attributable to strain specific genetic differences indicating
179 heritability [66]. Although *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* mRNA levels were strongly correlated, likely due
180 to shared transcriptional regulation, neither mRNA correlated with protein production suggesting
181 post-transcriptional events were important in mucin regulation [66]. Quantitative trait locus (QTL)
182 mapping identified distinct, *trans* protein QTL for *MUC5AC* (chromosome 13) and *MUC5B*
183 (chromosome 2) explaining 18% and 20% of phenotypic variance, respectively, indicating separate
184 distal regulatory control [66]. Identifying additional QTL loci will inform mucin regulation further.

185 6. Goblet cell fate in asthma

186 A key feature of airway epithelial remodeling in asthma is increased goblet cell number,
187 which accompanies the aforementioned increase in *MUC5AC* copy number. In fatal asthma a 30-
188 fold increase in goblet cell number was reported [67]; increased goblet cell number is readily
189 observed in mild to moderate disease too [68]. The mechanisms mediating goblet cell differentiation
190 are incompletely understood with both hyperplasia and metaplasia proposed. In the human
191 airways, understanding of secretory cell fate is limited and much of our knowledge derives from
192 mouse models. During normal development, epithelial cells are thought to differentiate into ciliated
193 and secretory lineages from basal and club cells that are considered to function as progenitor/stem
194 cells. In the proximal airways, basal cells are the progenitors of ciliated and secretory cells [8]. The
195 proportion of basal cells in the airway is highest in the large airways and progressively decreases

196 down the tracheobronchial tree, where club cells likely act as progenitors [69]. In murine models,
197 where airways more resemble human distal airways, transition from both ciliated and club cells has
198 been evidenced suggesting variable lineage [70,71].

199 Pathologic remodeling is caused by dysregulation of signaling cascades that govern normal
200 differentiation. Notch signaling is an evolutionary conserved pathway that regulates cell fate
201 decisions during development. Notch recently emerged as a pivotal regulator of basal cell
202 differentiation in conducting airways with activation of secretory over ciliated lineages [72]. Notch2
203 is a common node downstream of IL-13 and is absolutely required for goblet cell metaplasia in vitro
204 and in vivo [73]. Inhibition of Notch2 inhibits IL-13 and allergen driven goblet cell metaplasia in
205 vivo [73]. In a mouse model of respiratory disease, inhibition of JAG, a ligand for the
206 transmembrane Notch receptor, reduced goblet cell metaplasia when administered prior to an
207 inflammatory stimulus, and reversed goblet cell metaplasia when administered post-stimulus (i.e.
208 once metaplasia was established) [74].

209 At the transcriptional level, a number of transcription factors are thought to be involved in
210 increased *MUC5AC* expression and mucous metaplasia. Sam pointed domain-containing ETS
211 transcription factor (*SPDEF*) is sufficient and necessary for goblet cell metaplasia and for increasing
212 *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* expression [75]. *SPDEF* expression is increased in airway epithelial cells of
213 patients with asthma compared to healthy controls [76], remains increased in spite of anti-
214 inflammatory treatment, and is upregulated following IL-13 stimulation [77]. *SPDEF* induction
215 following IL-13 stimulation was accompanied by DNA hypomethylation of several CpG sites
216 within the *SPDEF* promoter [78]. Epigenetic editing of *SPDEF* suppressed *MUC5AC* expression in
217 human airway epithelial cells [79]. In *SPDEF* deficient mice, goblet cells are absent, whilst
218 overexpression of *SPDEF* causes goblet cell metaplasia [80].

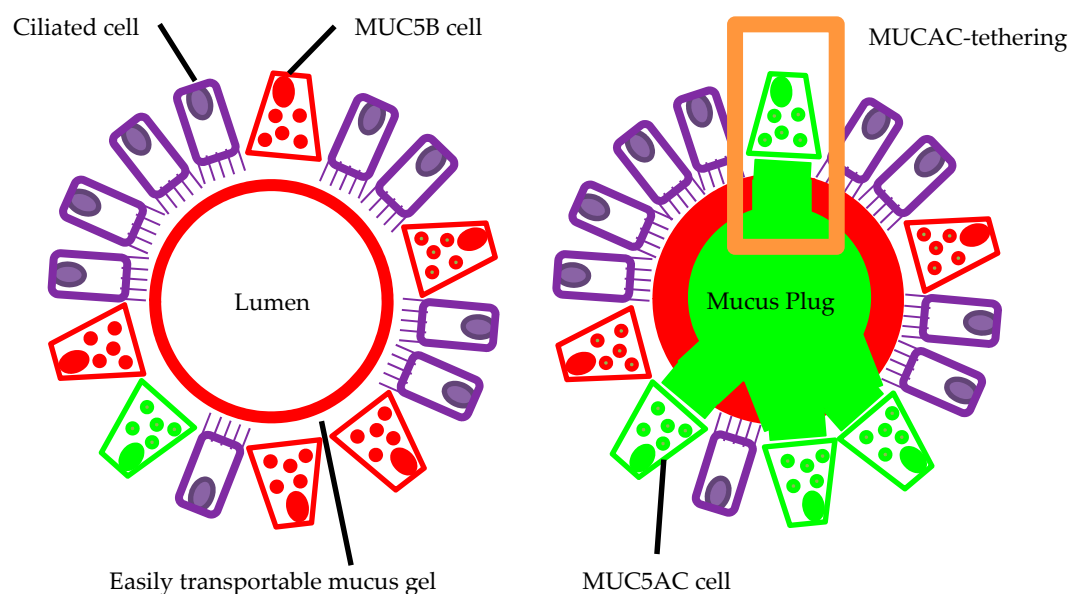
219 Several forkhead box family members have also been implicated in airway polymeric
220 mucin expression and mucous metaplasia. Forkhead box protein A2 (*FOXA2*) is negatively
221 regulated by *SPDEF* and *MUC5AC* expression, and is a potent inhibitor of goblet cell differentiation
222 [81]. *FOXA2* is also regulated by DNA methylation [78]. Interestingly, both IL-13 and EGFR
223 signaling cascades converge on *FOXA2* inhibition, perhaps representing a common pathway for IL-
224 13 and EGFR-induced mucous metaplasia [10]. Another family member, *FOXA3*, also functions as a
225 goblet cell metaplasia regulator: it is highly expressed in patients with asthma, and is IL-13 and
226 rhinovirus inducible [76]. HIF-1 is also downstream of IL-13 and EGF stimulation, plus a HIF-1
227 binding motif is conserved in mammalian *MUC5AC* promoters [82].

228 7. Altered *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* properties

229 Abnormalities in goblet cell number are accompanied by changes in stored and secreted
230 mucin. In asthma as in health, *MUC5AC* is produced in goblet cells from the surface epithelium,
231 while *MUC5B* is largely produced in the submucosal glands. However, changes in the relative
232 proportion of *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* are observed in asthma (Figure 1). As at the gene expression
233 level, elevated *MUC5AC* production is consistently reported, but there are conflicting reports
234 regarding *MUC5B*. Increased *MUC5AC* and *MUC5B* protein have been reported in sputum from
235 individuals with asthma [83]. Another study identified *MUC5B* as the predominant mucin in
236 healthy secretions, while *MUC5AC* concentration increased and *MUC5B* decreased in individuals
237 with asthma, including those in exacerbation [42]. Interestingly, within the asthma cohort, a higher
238 ratio of *MUC5AC* to *MUC5B* correlated with type 2 inflammation (>2% eosinophils) [42]. In
239 pediatric asthma, similar observations were made: increased *MUC5AC* was reported in children
240 with both stable and acute asthma vs healthy controls. Median *MUC5B* concentration was non-
241 significantly reduced, however, overrepresentation of a low-charge glycoform of *MUC5B* was
242 observed [84]. A study on viscous mucus exudate from a patient who died in *status asthmaticus*
243 demonstrated that the *MUC5B* low charge glycoform was the major constituent suggesting mucin
244 glycosylation status may also be important in asthma [85]. Additionally, in mild asthmatics, large
245 amounts of glandular *MUC5B* extracellular mucus was observed [86]. The contribution of glandular
246 *MUC5B* to mucus dysfunction in asthma requires further exploration.

247 It has been noted that asthmatic sputum is abnormally viscous [87]. Rheological
 248 measurements of sputum from patients with asthma during acute exacerbation demonstrated
 249 increased elastic and viscous moduli; the increased elastic response dominated suggesting
 250 increased crosslinking of mucin polymers as demonstrated recently in CF [88,89]. These differences
 251 are most visible in the form of mucus plugs, which occlude airways and prevent mucociliary
 252 clearance. Although mucins are primarily responsible for the biophysical properties of the gel, other
 253 constituents including DNA and albumin may also contribute to the increased viscoelasticity
 254 reported in asthma [87,88]. Several studies have compared the size distribution of MUC5AC and
 255 MUC5B in sputum from patients with asthma yet no discernible difference has been observed
 256 [84,88]. It has been suggested that mucin degradation is inhibited in asthma: protease dependent
 257 mucin degradation was inhibited at the height of exacerbation but restored during recovery [88].
 258 Alterations in protease and antiprotease expression has been reported in asthma suggesting
 259 imbalance could affect mucus clearance and contribute to tethering and plugging.

260 Despite substantial plugging observed in the majority of patients with fatal asthma, the
 261 biochemical and biophysical mechanisms by which secreted mucus occludes airways is not fully
 262 understood. An autopsy study demonstrated a large increase in the frequency of goblet cells in
 263 continuity with intraluminal mucus in individuals with asthma [90]. We found that extracellular
 264 domains of MUC5AC-rich mucus were intimately associated or tethered to epithelial mucous cells,
 265 markedly impairing mucociliary transport [41]. Images from allergic mouse airways [49] are also
 266 consistent with tethering. MUC5AC-tethering probably leads to progressive luminal accumulation
 267 of mucus and airway plugging (Figure 1). The mechanism by which MUC5AC is tethered requires
 268 further investigation. It is possible that exocytosed MUC5AC is not fully released or expanded from
 269 goblet cells leading to tethering of mucus to the epithelium.



270

271 **Figure 1.** Alterations in MUC5AC and MUC5B contribute to mucus dysfunction in asthma. In health (left),
 272 MUC5B (red) is the predominant mucin expressed and the principal component of the airway mucus gel.
 273 The MUC5B-rich gel is readily transported by the ciliated epithelium (purple) maintaining an unobstructed
 274 and uninfected airway. In asthma (right), mucin expression is altered: MUC5AC (green) expression is
 275 upregulated, while MUC5B expression is reduced. This leads to the production of a heterogeneous airway
 276 mucus gel comprising distinct MUC5AC and MUC5B domains. Extracellular MUC5AC-domans remain
 277 tethered to MUC5AC-producing cells (orange box) compromising mucociliary clearance. Mucus
 278 accumulates forming mucus plugs which occlude the airway. Airway obstruction manifests clinically as
 279 breathlessness and wheeze; in some patients, intraluminal occlusion by mucus plugging can lead to
 280 asphyxiation.

281 Interestingly, mucins from a viscous mucus plug appeared as ‘tangled masses condensed
282 around nodes from which many chains emanate’, contrasting with the classic view of polymeric
283 mucins as linear threadlike molecules [85]. These mucins resembled freshly secreted mucins
284 implicating improper unpackaging of mucins post-secretion as a contributor to tethering [34].
285 Defective postsecretory maturation of MUC5B has been reported in CF [91]. Altered luminal pH
286 could also contribute since sputum samples collected during asthma exacerbation have been shown
287 to be more acidic compared with samples from people with stable asthma or with other respiratory
288 diseases [90,92]. As aforementioned, a plethora of transcriptional alterations are observed in asthma
289 which likely alter ciliary transport and ion transport and could impact airway surface pH, mucus
290 adhesivity and mucociliary transport. The implications of altered pH on mucociliary transport is
291 adequately demonstrated in cystic fibrosis [11].

292 We also demonstrated that MUC5AC and MUC5B form distinct extracellular domains and
293 that IL-13 induces a heterogeneous gel, which could have implications for mucociliary clearance in
294 asthma [41]. Differences in the biophysical properties of extracellular MUC5AC- and MUC5B-
295 containing domains could be attributable to intrinsic properties of the MUC5AC and MUC5B core
296 proteins. Other potentially important factors include posttranslational mucin modifications
297 including glycosylation (low-charge MUC5B [84]) or disulfide cross-linking, hydration- and
298 bicarbonate-mediated mucin expansion, non-mucin mucus constituents (e.g. intelectin-1 [93]), or
299 other differences in the secretory cell or the luminal environment. Additionally, differences in
300 airway mucus may be caused by differences in the clinical features of asthma, including
301 exacerbation, severity, duration, smoking, and treatment.

302 8. Therapeutics

303 Together with smooth muscle contraction, mucus obstruction is a major cause of airway
304 obstruction in asthma [10]. A mucoactive drug is an agent capable of modifying mucus production,
305 secretion, properties, or its interactions with the mucociliary epithelium [94]. Mucoactive agents
306 facilitate mucus clearance (mucolytics) or inhibit mucus production or secretion (muco regulators)
307 [95,96].

308 No effective mucolytic treatments for asthma exist. Hypertonic saline is associated with
309 mucus clearance but modest improvements in airflow [97]. The reducing agent N-acetylcysteine
310 (NAC) is sometimes used as a mucolytic therapy but exhibits low efficacy (low mucolytic activity at
311 high mucus concentrations and neutral pH) and tolerability: N-acetylcysteine can irritate the
312 airways and cause bronchospasm in hyperreactive patients [98–103]. Thiol-modified carbohydrates
313 have been proposed as novel mucolytics for CF and other lung diseases [89]. Pulmozyme, a human
314 DNase, improves pulmonary function and reduces pulmonary exacerbation in CF [104,105], but
315 there is no evidence it is effective in other diseases, presumably since it does not target the mucins
316 themselves. Recent evidence suggests mucin-specific approaches could be of benefit: complete
317 MUC5B removal from the airway may be detrimental [48], whilst the identification of MUC5AC as
318 an essential non-contractile mediator of AHR [49] and the role of MUC5AC in tethering [41] suggest
319 MUC5AC-specific therapies could be of benefit in asthma.

320 There is rationale for development of cytokine specific antibodies as muco regulators. For
321 example, a recent trial with anti-IL-13 (lebrikizumab) demonstrated improved airflow
322 (prebronchodilator FEV1) in patients with Th2 asthma. However anti-IL-13 only met its primary
323 endpoint of significantly reducing exacerbation rates in one of two parallel Phase III studies, despite
324 significantly improving FEV1 in both [106,107]. Although other mechanisms likely contribute,
325 improved FEV1 could represent reduced mucus obstruction. An agent that inhibits a common
326 subunit of IL-13 and IL-4 receptors also had beneficial effects in a clinical trial. Agents that reduce
327 production of IL-13, including corticosteroids and antibodies against the epithelial-derived type 2-
328 promoting cytokine TSLP likely act in part by inhibiting production of pathologic mucins [59,108].

329 Other approaches to regulating mucus obstruction might include specific targeting of
330 mucin (especially MUC5AC) gene transcription or protein processing or blocking the differentiation
331 of mucus-producing goblet cells. For example, targeting Notch through Jagged antagonism

332 reversed goblet cell metaplasia in a preclinical model [74]. Although controlling mucus
 333 hypersecretion is attractive therapeutically, a therapy which completely disrupts secretion and
 334 inhibits MUC5B may be detrimental. Overall, it is unclear which mucoactive drugs would offer
 335 optimal benefit [109] and further research is required.

336 9. Conclusions

337 MUC5AC and MUC5B are principal components of airway mucus. In the airway, their
 338 production is spatially separated, and they serve different functions (at least in mice). Altered
 339 MUC5AC and MUC5B gene expression is consistently observed in both asthma models and
 340 individuals with disease. Increases in goblet cell number accompany changes in mucin gene
 341 expression, which result in altered mucus composition and organization. These changes are
 342 associated with increased gel viscoelasticity, and are sufficient to impair mucus transport through
 343 MUC5AC-tethering, likely contributing to airway obstruction and mucus plugging. Continued
 344 research to understand the mechanisms underlying goblet cell fate and MUC5AC-tethering are
 345 crucial for the development of effective mucoactive agents.

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