

Ocular sebaceous gland carcinoma: an update of the literature

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Abstract

Purpose To review and summarize the newest update on ocular sebaceous gland carcinoma (SGC) focusing on diagnosis and treatment.

Methods A PubMed search was carried out using the terms “Sebaceous Carcinoma”, “Meibomian Gland Carcinoma”, “Sebaceous Cell Carcinoma”, and “Sebaceous Gland Carcinoma”. All studies published in English up to October 2017 were included in this review.

Results Globally, the overall incidence of SGC is increasing making it the third most common eyelid malignancy after basal cell carcinoma (BCC) and squamous cell carcinoma. The mainstay of treatment of ocular SGC is wide surgical resection under frozen section or Moh’s micrographic surgery control followed by eyelid reconstruction. Based on histopathological features, SGC can be classified according to growth pattern, cell type, and cytoarchitecture. Based on the growth pattern, they can be classified as trabecular, lobular, papillary, and BCC-like. The cell type can be classified as basaloid, basosquamous, and epidermoid. The SGC cytoarchitecture presents either as a nodular or as an infiltrative lesion. Based on immunohistochemistry, the overexpression of ZEB2,

BAG3, androgen receptor, and C-erbB-2 oncoprotein is associated with poor prognosis. The tumor is associated with systemic metastasis in 8–14% and death in 10–30%.

Conclusion Ocular SGC is an aggressive tumor associated with poor prognosis. Early identification and appropriate treatment may help improve the prognosis. New insight into its pathogenesis and the immunohistochemical profile may lead to the development of new effective treatment strategies, along with traditional therapies.

Keywords Eye · Eyelid · Tumor · Sebaceous gland carcinoma · Meibomian gland carcinoma · Eyelid tumor · Ocular oncology

Introduction

First described by Allaire in 1891, sebaceous gland carcinoma (SGC) is a highly malignant and potentially lethal tumor of sebaceous glands [1, 2]. High recurrence rates and tendency for local spread and distant metastases make correct diagnosis and prompt appropriate treatment extremely important for these patients [3]. Mean delay from onset of the lesion to diagnosis still ranges from 1 to 2.9 years [4]. However, progressive education about this disease has reduced the mortality rate from 50% to around 2–10%, according to more recent reports [5, 6]. The aim of

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this review is to give the newest update on this disease entity, focusing on diagnosis and treatment.

Literature search

A PubMed engine search was carried out using the terms “Sebaceous Carcinoma”, “Meibomian Gland carcinoma”, “Sebaceous Cell Carcinoma”, and “Sebaceous Gland Carcinoma”. All studies published in English up to October 2017, irrespective of their publication status, were included in this review.

Epidemiology

SGC represents 1–3% of all malignant tumors and 0.6–10.2% of eyelid tumors [7]. Such a large range is explained by the different prevalence of SGC among different ethnicities. SGC is more common in the Chinese and Japanese, followed by the Indian and Singapore population [8–13]. In India, SGC represents nowadays the most common malignant ocular lesion (37%), followed by SCC (21%) [14]. On the contrary, SGC accounts only for less than 1–5.5% of eyelid malignancies in Caucasians [1, 15].

The overall incidence of SGC is increasing significantly. In 2012, it was 3.2 (male) and 1.6 (female) per 1 million person/years, versus 1–2 cases per 1 million individuals/year estimated in 2009, making it the third most common eyelid malignancy after basal cell carcinoma (BCC) and squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) globally [15, 16].

Clinical presentation

The tumor typically arises in the sixth–seventh decade of life (57–72 years), but cases in younger age groups have also been described [17, 18]. History of periocular irradiation represents a documented risk factor, while gender predilection is still an object of debate [5, 12, 19, 20]. Clinical associations with Muir–Torre syndrome (MTS) [21], immunosuppression [22], familial retinoblastoma [23], human immunodeficiency virus, and human papilloma virus infection have also been reported [24, 25].

According to the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) study from 2002 to 2012, SGC can be classified into two groups: ocular type and extraocular type [26]. Extraocular sites account for only a quarter of the cases of SGC, predominantly

located in areas of skin covered by hair, such as the head, trunk, and genitalia [27, 28]. The analysis of extraocular phenotype is beyond the scope of this review.

Ocular SGC arises mainly from the Meibomian glands of the upper eyelid (39–50% of cases), due to the presence of a greater number of glands compared to the lower eyelid [15, 29]. It can also arise from the glands of Zeis of the eyelid margin (10%), at the caruncle (< 10%), or in the skin of the eyebrow; around 12% were multicentric with no obvious source of origin [30, 31]. The clinical appearance of ocular SGC is highly heterogeneous; it often mimics other ocular benign conditions, such as chalazion, posterior blepharitis, superior limbic keratoconjunctivitis, keratitis [32, 33]. SGC can be confused also with other malignancies, including SCC, BCC, or Merkel cell tumors.

Classically, this lesion appears as a firm, painless, indurated thickening of the eyelid, with a yellow hue due to the high concentration of intracellular lipids [34]. Upon eyelid eversion, the lesion appears as a multinodular protruding or fungating mass. Madarosis, unilateral blepharoconjunctivitis, forniceal shrinkage due to diffuse infiltration of the palpebral or the bulbar conjunctiva, and invasion of the cornea are generally associated with the intraepithelial spread of tumor cells.

Multiple SGCs represent a common feature of the MTS, an autosomal dominant condition characterized by sebaceous tumors (sebaceous adenoma, basal cell epithelioma with sebaceous differentiation, and sebaceous carcinoma) associated with gastrointestinal, endometrial, and urologic malignancies [21, 35, 36].

Tumor staging is assessed using the TNM (tumor node metastasis) definitions as provided by the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) recommendations [37]. The recent staging of SGC based on the eighth edition of AJCC classification is listed in Table 1 [37].

Histopathology

An eyelid biopsy should be executed in every suspected case of SGC, especially when associated with recurrent chalazion, eyelid thickening, lash loss, mass on lid eversion, or ulceration of the eyelid is present. The histopathological diagnosis of SGC is

Table 1 Definitions of TNM for eyelid carcinoma, AJCC cancer staging manual, eighth edition *Source:* [37]

Primary tumor (T), lymph node (N), systemic metastasis (M)	Definition
TX	Cannot assess the primary tumor
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor ≤ 10 mm in greatest dimension
T1a	No invasion of tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T1b	Tumor invades the tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T1c	Tumor involves full thickness of the eyelid
T2	Tumor > 10 but ≤ 20 mm in greatest dimension
T2a	No invasion of tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T2b	Tumor invades the tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T2c	Tumor involves full thickness of the eyelid
T3	Tumor > 20 but ≤ 30 mm in greatest dimension
T3a	No invasion of tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T3b	Tumor invades the tarsal plate or eyelid margin
T3c	Tumor involves full thickness of the eyelid
T4	Tumor invading ocular, orbital, or facial structures
T4a	Tumor invading ocular or intraorbital structures
T4b	Tumor with erosion of bony orbital walls, or those with paranasal sinus extension, or those invading lacrimal sac or nasolacrimal duct, or those invading the brain
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Lymph node tumor extension involving a single ipsilateral regional lymph node but < 3 cm in greatest dimension
N1a	Metastasis based on clinical evaluation or imaging
N1b	Histopathology-proven metastasis
N2	Lymph node tumor extension involving a single ipsilateral regional lymph node but > 3 cm in greatest dimension or involving bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes
N2a	Metastasis based on clinical evaluation or imaging
N2b	Histopathology-proven metastasis
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

challenging, and this lesion has been often misinterpreted as poorly differentiated SCC or BCC [3, 38].

SGC encompasses a broad variety of different features, ranging from well-differentiated sebaceous neoplasms to highly undifferentiated tumors. Foamy sebocyte-like cells with vacuolization of the cytoplasm represent the hallmark of well-differentiated lesions; these cells are mainly located in the center of the lobules with an outer zone of non-vacuolated, basaloid cells. On the contrary, poorly differentiated tumor cells are characterized by basophilic

pleomorphic cells with prominent nucleoli, high number of mitotic figures, and degree of apoptosis. “Squared-off” or angulated nuclei, and so-called appliqué pattern, made of solid aggregations of necrotizing neoplastic cells in the periphery of the tumor, have also been described in 100 and 32% of periocular SGC, respectively [39].

Morphologically, SGC can be classified according to growth pattern, cell type, and cytoarchitecture. Four morphological patterns can be recognized at low magnification: trabecular, lobular, papillary, and

BCC-like; a combination of two or more of these patterns can be seen in a single lesion [40]. The lobular pattern, with variable size of lobules within the same tumor, is the most common [4, 40]. The lobules display no evidence of differentiating arrangements (i.e., the formation of lumens), and some of them surround areas of central necrosis (comedonecrosis), which correspond to foci of exaggerated holocrine secretion rather than true necrosis [42].

The three main cell types encountered in SGC are: basaloid, epidermoid, and basosquamous [41]. The basaloid type originates from the outer germinal cells of the secretory alveoli and shows a high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio; it is the most common cell type in infiltrative lesions and the percentage of basaloid cells is inversely correlated with the level of differentiation. The epidermoid cell type displays scattered dyskeratotic cells or nonkeratinizing cellular whorls; the basosquamous cell type shows intermediate cytoplasmic features of the basaloid and epidermoid types.

Based on cytoarchitecture, SGC presents either as a nodular or as an infiltrative lesion [43–45]. The infiltrative spread, called “pagetoid”, is characterized by malignant cells diffusion to the adjacent epithelium apparently separated from main tumor [6, 46].

Special stains and immunohistochemistry

Traditional stains, such as Oil Red O, Sudan IV, and Leu-m1, help in confirming the diagnosis of SGC. The major limitation of Oil Red O is that it relies on the availability of fresh frozen tissue, as intracellular lipids are dissolved during standard preparation of paraffin-embedded sections. Moreover, the Oil Red O staining is often negative in poorly differentiated lesions [38]. Based on these major flaws, immunostaining on paraffin-embedded sections has been looked at as a potential resource, especially in more undifferentiated tumors or in case of pagetoid spread (Table 2) [47–49].

SGC specific immunophenotype

Sebaceous lineage cells are related to the production of lipids (mainly triglycerides). The positivity of SGC for three proteins associated with lipid droplets, such as adipophilin (ADP), perilipin, and TIP47/PP17, has demonstrated high specificity (around 100%) and moderate sensitivity (8.3–77%) [50]. These molecules

localize in the phospholipid monolayer membrane surrounding the intracytoplasmic triglyceride droplets. ADP detection seems to be the best method of proving sebaceous differentiation, while perilipin appears to be more specific but less sensitive [50, 51]. Positive reaction is defined by a vacuolar, vesicular-rimming pattern, while granular staining is considered non-specific. ADP staining intensity may vary throughout the different areas of the tumor, depending on cell differentiation grade, from fine non-vacuolar granular staining to complete immunonegativity [52].

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) are members of the nuclear hormone receptor family and are important mediators in epidermal growth, differentiation, and lipid metabolism. In a study of 31 SGC cases, immunohistochemical evaluation revealed nuclear overexpression of PPAR- γ in 87% of cases, with an inverse correlation between the degree of expression and tumor differentiation [53].

While perforin has shown contradictory results [54], nuclear factor XIIIa (AC-1A1) has been proved to be a sensitive and specific marker for sebaceous differentiation, with diagnostic utility exceeding that of ADP [55]. On the contrary, given to the ubiquity of cytokeratin (CK) in epithelial malignancies, attempts to employ these markers in SGC have not shown high reliability in the differential diagnosis [56–59].

SGC versus BCC and SCC

Poorly differentiated SGC can be distinguished from BCC and SCC by staining epithelial antigens. The two epithelial markers considered to be most useful in the differential diagnosis of SGC are the epithelial membrane antigen (EMA) and Ber-Ep4 [49, 60]. EMA is a cell membrane-associated glycoprotein first isolated in breast carcinoma cells, expressed in glandular structures and squamous epithelium, but not in follicular structures. EMA is prominently expressed in SGC and SCC, while being predominantly negative in BCC. Ber-Ep4 is a monoclonal antibody directed toward the epithelial cell adhesion molecule, expressed in the secretory portion of eccrine glands and follicular germinative cells in normal skin and eyelids. SGC and SCC are negative for Ber-Ep4 in 74–94 and 100% of cases, respectively, and, BCC shows immunostaining in 70–100% of cases [47, 48]. More recently, the terminal deoxynucleotidyl

Table 2 Immunoreactivity of sebaceous gland carcinoma

Author(s), year of publication	Sample size	CK	EMA	Perforin	Adipophilin	BerEP-4	AR	Factor XIIIa	Cam5.2
Ansai et al. [48, 58]	35	na	+	na	+	–	+	na	na
Jakobiec et al. [60, 73]	12	na	+	na	+	na	+	na	na
Mulay et al. [69, 74]	56	+	+	na	+	–	+	na	na
Plaza et al. [49]	27	na	+	na	+	–	±	–	na
Mittal et al. [54]	11	+	+	+	+	+	na	na	na
Schmitz et al. [52]	4	+	+	±	+	na	+	na	+
Tjarks et al. [55]	30	na	na	na	+	na	na	+	na

CK cytokeratin, EMA epithelial membrane antigen, AR androgen receptor, na not applicable, + positive reaction, ± weak reaction, – negative reaction

transferase (TdT), a DNA polymerase expressed in immature, lymphoid, or haematopoietic neoplastic cells and in neuroendocrine carcinoma, has been found only in cells with sebaceous cell differentiation, in comparison to BCC or SCC cells [61].

Genetic immunomarkers and prognostic implications

Recently, some authors have investigated the role of genetic aberrations as immunomarkers of SGC. The p53 transcription factor, which induces apoptosis when DNA damage occurs, is encoded by the onco-suppressor gene p53. Approximately 67% of SGC tumors harbor missense or nonsense mutations in this gene, and immunoreactivity has been reported in 50–100% of SGC cases [62, 63]. P53 overexpression has been advocated as a diagnostic clue in the differential diagnosis of SGC from benign sebaceous proliferation (11%), BCC (20%), and SCC (50–60%) [64–67]. Similar role has been attributed to p16 [67].

The fraction of Ki-67-positive tumor cells (called Ki-67 proliferation index, PI) of SGC has been estimated as 38–72%, a slightly higher value compared with other solid malignancies (25–50%) [68]. High Ki-67 PI correlates with a poor clinical outcome concerning tumor recurrence and regional lymph node metastasis [69].

High levels of the Bcl-2-associated athanogene 3 (BAG3) and ZEB2/SIP1 have been detected in SGC cases [70]. ZEB2 is a transcription factor related to the epithelial to mesenchymal transition phenomenon that represses the E-cadherin gene expression [71]. The presence of immunohistochemical overexpression of ZEB2, as well as loss of E-cadherin and CDH1

promoter methylation, has been correlated with major risk of lymph node metastasis, orbital invasion, large tumor size, advanced stage, and poorest survival. Multivariate analysis has shown that ZEB2 is the best poor prognostic indicator for eyelid SGC. Similarly, the overexpression of BAG3 has been related to the development of cancer, invasiveness, metastasis, angiogenesis, tumor adhesion, migration, and resistance to chemotherapy [72].

Hormonal immunophenotype

Hormonal panel has revealed immunostaining for estrogen, progesterone, and androgen receptors (AR), in 43, 26, and 81% of cases, respectively [73–75]. Immunoreactivity for these proteins provides a possible therapeutic opportunity for SGC in the future. Positive staining for AR has been found in a variable nuclear or cytoplasmic pattern of SGC cell, in particular in those tumors featuring a pagetoid spread [52]. This marker can be of particular help when differentiating SGC from SCC (predominantly negative, 90–100%) and BCC (occasionally positive, 50–86%) [73, 76]. Recently, it has been shown that a high AR score carries a greater risk of cancer recurrence after excision [69, 74]. Similarly, C-erbB-2 oncoprotein, an important oncogene in breast carcinoma, has been shown to be overexpressed in 85% cases of SGC, mostly associated with ERBB2 amplification detected by fluorescence in situ hybridization [77, 78].

Immunophenotype in syndromic SGC

The immunohistochemical screening for mismatch repair proteins (MMRP) aberration is an easy and convenient way to diagnose MST [79, 80]. This syndrome is caused by an autosomal dominant inherited defect in one of the genes encoding for MMRP, resulting in genomic microsatellite instability. A second hit somatic mutation or methylation suppression of the remaining functioning allele invariably leads to carcinogenesis [81]. Deficient immunohistochemical expression of MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2 suggests an urgent counseling for hereditary neoplasia.

In conclusion, a panel of immunohistochemical stains is recommended in the diagnosis of SGC, as a specific combination of markers characterizes this entity. A potential stain panel to discriminate SGC from BCC is presented by EMA, Ber-Ep4, AR, and adipophilin, while to distinguish SGC from SCC, the expression of AR and adipophilin should be tested. Two other useful markers for the differential diagnosis are p53 and erb-b2, both of which will be predominantly immunopositive in SGC (Table 3).

Treatment

The mainstay of treatment of SGC is surgical resection followed by eyelid reconstruction [31, 82]. Careful analysis of the margins may be carried out with wide local excision (WLE) and frozen section or Mohs' micrographic surgery (MMS), although it might occasionally be complicated by the multifocal nature of the tumor [83–87]. A surgical margin of 5–6-mm in WLE and a 2-mm margin in MMS are recommended

Table 3 Patterns of immunostaining of sebaceous gland carcinoma

	EMA	ADP	BerEP-4	AR	p53	ERBB2
SGC	+	+	–	+	+	+
BCC	–	–	+	±	±	–
SCC	+	–	–	–	±	–

SGC sebaceous cell carcinoma, BCC basal cell carcinoma, SCC squamous cell carcinoma, EMA epithelial membrane antigen, ADP adipophilin, AR androgen receptor, + positive reaction, ± weak reaction, – negative reaction

[88]. In the setting with no frozen section or MMS control, another useful management protocol for SGC is excision with 3- to 5-mm surgical margins, paraffin section control, and delayed reconstruction [29, 89, 90].

Map biopsies should be taken from 17 sites: four clock hours of the limbus, three from the upper and lower forniceal conjunctiva, three from upper and lower tarsal conjunctiva, and one from the caruncle [91, 92]. After a complete review of all biopsies, pagetoid disease can be addressed with cryotherapy, mitomycin-C in cases with limited involvement and in cases with diffuse pagetoid spread or associated orbital involvement, and orbital exenteration may be indicated [93]. Obtaining clear margins is an important goal of orbital exenteration; clear margin status, however, is not always associated with lower risk of recurrence in patients with SGC and orbital invasion [94].

Different non-invasive imaging techniques have been used in the attempt to precisely localize the lesion, to exclude a potential orbital spread, to follow its progression, or some combination of these. Computed tomography is well tolerated, can be rapidly obtained at most medical centers, and gives clues to the specific diagnosis. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) signal intensity and pattern of contrast enhancement allow to distinguish between similar appearing lesions [95, 96]. Recently, advanced imaging techniques such as MRI diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI), 18-FDG-PET CT, and MRI PET are being used in the pre-therapeutic workup and monitoring of patients with eyelid and orbital malignancies, including SCG [97–99]. The DWI technique aids in the distinction of benign and malignant lesions by quantifying different apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) thresholds and represents a promising tool in the correct staging of the disease [100].

Due to the tendency to give locoregional lymph node metastasis, the use of sentinel lymph node biopsy (SNLB) as a part of tumor staging has been advocated for this malignancy [101]. SLNB allows for the identification of micrometastases and influences the AJCC stage of the tumor as well as the treatment approach. The procedure is effective, reliable, and associated with very low risk (e.g., temporary weakness of the marginal mandibular branch of the facial nerve) [102].

SNLB or at least strict regional lymph node surveillance is recommended in patients with tumors

of 10 mm or more in greatest dimension. Radical neck dissection is indicated in SGC patients with regional lymph node metastases, followed by radiation therapy [103].

Radiation (50–66.6 Gy) administered as a primary treatment on the tumor site is effective in achieving a prolonged survival, a better tumor control, and a more cosmetic preservation of the eyelid, or as an adjuvant treatment following orbital exenteration [104, 105]. Adjuvant reirradiation with modest doses (30–45 Gy) may be considered in tumor recurrences to provide disease control and long-term survival [106, 107]. In very advanced cases with or without locoregional lymph node metastasis, neoadjuvant chemotherapy with 5-fluorouracil and carboplatin/cisplatin may allow local resection of advanced tumors otherwise requiring more invasive procedures [108, 109].

Finally, recent studies on expression of estrogen, progesterone, and androgen receptors may suggest a potential role of hormonal therapy in the treatment of SGC. Future larger-scale studies are needed to evaluate their utility in locally advanced or metastatic disease.

Prognosis

The overall mortality rate of SGC is 5–10%, being as high as 29% in certain populations, owing to early recurrence and metastatic spread [110]. A recurrence rate of 11–36% in 5 years and an 18–30% 5-year mortality has been reported with WLE of 5–6-mm margins, and 38% of these recurrences are locally invasive [76]. On the contrary, MMS has been shown to be associated with lower rate of recurrence (7%), with a metastatic rate of 4% [30].

Snow and colleagues have reported an overall metastasis rate of 8% (4/49) in a review up to 2002; the higher risk is carried by advanced tumor [111]. Metastatic sites include lung, regional lymph nodes, liver, brain, and bone. The time from diagnosis of ocular SGC to metastasis may range from 0 to 62 months [103]. According to a recent study published by our group, locoregional lymph node metastasis was noted in 23% of patients, while systemic metastasis in 14% and death due to metastasis was 10% over a mean follow-up period of 29 months [12].

Clinical prognostic risk factors include medial canthal involvement, location at both upper and lower eyelids, multicentric origin, orbital invasion, duration

of symptoms > 6 months, and tumor size > 10 mm [11, 12, 90, 112]. The T category, as defined by the AJCC, and a prolonged interval from symptoms appearance to the correct diagnosis have also a role in the overall prognosis [37, 113, 114]. Histopathologically, a pagetoid infiltrative pattern of the skin and conjunctiva [76, 108], vascular or lymphatic invasion, non-lobular growth pattern [90], and poor differentiation [115] is associated with worse prognosis. Human telomerase RNA (hTR) has been shown to be a marker of undifferentiated disease [116].

On the contrary, tumors originating from the glands of Zeis and those associated with MTS have a better prognosis [30, 110]. The factors predictive of locoregional lymph node and systemic metastasis are medial canthal involvement, lateral canthal involvement, tumor basal diameter > 10 mm, and perivascular invasion [12, 114]. The factors predictive of death due to metastasis are medial canthal involvement and tumor basal diameter > 10 mm [12, 114].

Conclusion

Ocular SGC is an uncommon, aggressive tumor associated with poor prognosis. Early identification of negative prognostic factors may help to eradicate the lesion before locoregional and systemic metastasis. New insight into its pathogenesis and the immunohistochemical profile may lead to the development new effective treatment strategies, along with traditional therapies.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest No conflicts of interest.

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