

A Review on Epigenetic Therapy and Implications in Cancer Tumor

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ABSTRACT

In this article, migration, invasion and pre-metastatic niche formation are all important events that occur in metastasis of a primary tumor and understanding all aspects of this process is essential to prevent cancer-related deaths, including melanoma. This review explored the significance, causes and treatments of melanoma, and summarized recent publications that highlight the role of melanoma-derived exosomes in the progression of the disease.

Keywords: Epigenetic; melanoma; tumor; cytotoxic.

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improving the diagnosis, prognosis and treatment of melanoma patients[2].

Molecular assays such as: Fluorescent In-Situ Hybridization (FISH), Comparative Genome Hybridization (CGH), Quantitative Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR), Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) and detection of exosomes have been shown to be of great value for melanoma detection. Melanoma tumor cells are characterized by certain chromosomal aberrations. The FISH technology uses various fluorescent probes to distinguish between benign and melanoma tumors in unambiguous samples (87% and 95%, respectively), however its efficacy in ambiguous samples is yet to be demonstrated.

Another method of melanoma diagnosis is CGH, this method involves extracting normal and tumor DNA and fluorescently labeling each DNA sample with fluorophores of different colors. The next step is to use the differentially labeled DNA probes and hybridize control DNA using either the metaphase chromosomes or DNA microarrays. The hybridization of the different colored fluorescence probes to the control DNA will allow the determination of any chromosomal region gain or loss based on the colors. CGH allows for the better view of the genome allowing it to detect multiple chromosomal anomalies compared to FISH, which can only detect limited loci.

qRT-PCR and NGS are technologies which may have diagnostic values, however they are still in relatively early stages of development. qRT-PCR in a clinical setting will be used to determine the gene expression patterns of tumor samples. The

I. INTRODUCTION

Melanoma is derived from melanocytes, the pigment-forming cells of the skin, hair follicles, uvea, inner ear, nervous system and heart. Melanocytes originated from neural crest cells and can produce melanin through a specialized membrane bound organelle known as a melanosome. Phenotypically, melanocytes are oval shaped, have dendritic arms and are typically 7 micrometers in diameter. Dendritic arms found on melanocytes allow for cell-cell interaction with keratinocytes, enabling the transfer of melanin-containing melanosomes from the melanocyte to the keratinocytes[1]. This transfer of melanin to keratinocytes determines the color of the skin and hair of an individual. Melanin functions as perinuclear protection against harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation in keratinocytes, store ions, as a free radical scavenger, and couples' oxidation-reduction reactions. Interestingly, melanin has been demonstrated to have detrimental effects in vitro in normal human melanocytes, where it was shown to enhance single stranded DNA breaks, which could be explained by the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during photo-oxidation of melanin in experimental settings. Results from these studies suggest that the complex functions of melanin may be cell type dependent. Normally, melanoma is detectable by the irregular shapes in pigmented lesions on the skin; however, there are exceptions that are difficult to differentiate. Several techniques have been developed over the years to better detect melanoma before it advances to metastasis, which is crucial in

successfully suppresses NOTCH activation. However in phase 2 trials, only a modest responsiveness to GSI was observed in metastatic melanoma patients[6].

When melanoma patients undergo chemotherapy, the tumors are frequently known to adapt and become resistant against monotherapies. In order to increase the efficacy of therapeutic treatments, combination therapies are commonly administered. In preclinical studies, BRAF inhibitor-resistant mutated BRAF melanoma cells were developed as an experimental model system to mimic BRAF inhibitor-resistant melanoma patients and to study the mechanisms of resistance. These cells were treated with a combination of GSI and BRAF inhibitor, a reduction in cell growth and an increase in senescence were seen in these resistant cells, however, when they were weaned off GSI during the study, there was an increase in cell growth. These pre-clinical findings suggest that in a

combination therapy, which inhibits both MAPK and NOTCH pathways, may improve the efficacy of melanoma patients who develop BRAF inhibitor-resistance but both inhibitors must be present to sustain the anti-tumor progression responses.

Stage III melanoma patients along with surgery can be offered immunotherapy with interferon, which functions to enhance immune response, or the anti-cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein. For stage IV melanoma patients, they can undergo immunotherapy sessions in conjunction with other targeted drug chemotherapy, and in some cases radiotherapy. Immunotherapies utilize the host's immune system to elicit a tumor-specific immune response to combat cancer malignancies. Recent focus for immunotherapies has been on dendritic cell (DC)-based cancer vaccinations. DCs are of great interest in cancer because of their ability to uptake, process and present antigens, which enables them to elicit an immune response. In the case of potential cancer vaccines, this immune response is against the cancer cells. Specifically, the use of dendritic derived-exosomes (DEXO), which are nanovesicles released from DCs, and have shown promise, as they contain the machinery required to activate potent antigen-specific immune response. Damo et al. showed that DEXOs from DCs that were incubated with both a ligand for TLR-3 to stimulate the cytotoxic natural killer cells as well as the CD8+ cells, and melanoma antigens from necrotic B16F10 cells, the DEXOs were then injected into mice bearing B16F10 tumors and resulted in a significant reduction in growth of the tumors[7].

Another focus of immunotherapy is targeting immune checkpoints that function as

tumor sample is given a score based on the gene expression measurement, and it will be categorized as a benign lesion or malignant melanoma based on the given score. Furthermore, it could also allow physicians to distinguish between melanoma subtypes[3].

Additionally, the qRT-PCR is being utilized to better diagnose and design treatments for patients by way of predicting the metastatic risks in Stage I or II melanomas. NGS could be a great diagnostic tool, due to its ability to sequence tumor DNA, not only in the coding regions that make up proteins, but also the regulatory regions that control the timing and levels of a given protein. These techniques will allow the clinicians to determine mutation-specific treatments; it will be interesting to see how these approaches impact the treatment outcome of human cancers[4].

Treatment Methods

The treatment for primary melanoma patients is surgical removal of the tumor(s). Treatment options for late-stage melanoma patients include targeted drug therapies with or without radiation or immunotherapies. Many of the targeted therapies involve components of the MAPK/ERK pathway[5].

A well-known target is the mutated BRAF protein and small molecule inhibitors have been developed against it. The well-known BRAF inhibitors, vemurafenib/zelboraf (PLX4720/PLX4032), have been shown to improve survival rates for many melanoma patients. There have been various inhibitors developed against other components of the MAPK pathway. In vivo, the MEK inhibitor, selumetinib, has shown to reduce melanoma xenograft tumor growth. Inhibitors of ERK have been shown to successfully inhibit the MAPK pathway in MEK-inhibitor resistant cells, since ERK is downstream of MEK. It has not been possible to develop an inhibitor towards RAS. Difficulties in inhibition of RAS has led to the development of other targets to indirectly inhibit the effector molecules of RAS by way of development of inhibitors of the RAF-ERK-MEK pathway such as farnesyltransferase, Rce1, lcmt1, PI3K-AKT-mTOR pathway and RalGEF-Ral pathway.

Malignant melanoma cells were shown to have higher levels of NOTCH signaling when compared to normal melanocytes, indicating its role in melanoma pathogenesis. Under normal conditions, NOTCH signaling is required in the maintenance of Melanoblast and melanocyte stem cells, however, in mature melanocytes, low or undetectable levels of NOTCH expression are found. The gamma secretase inhibitor, GSI, was developed to target NOTCH signaling pathway and

cytoplasm of the cells they are released from, which naturally would suggest that the contents of melanoma-derived exosomes are unique when compared to other tumor types, and even the normal cell counterpart. A study exploring this utilized 2D-PAGE analysis of both melanoma-derived exosomes and cell lysates from which they originated, strikingly different proteomic profiles were observed. The exosomes

contained drastically less or were absent of lysosomal and mitochondrial proteins that were present in the cell lysates. In contrast, the proteins that were enriched in the exosomes of SK-MEL-28 and MeWo melanoma cell lines included p120 catenin, radixin, and immunoglobulin superfamily member 8 (PGRL). Exosomes

that were prominin-1 positive were isolated and analyzed, and were found to contain, along with Cancers **2016**, 8, 110 9 of 18 exosome-specific proteins, multiple pro-metastatic proteins, including CD44, MAPK4K, GTP-binding proteins, ADAM10 and Annexin A2 [8-9].

In clinical samples, exosomes were isolated from melanoma patients and found to contain higher concentrations of Melanoma Inhibitory Activity (MIA), a small protein secreted by malignant melanoma cells and S100B, a calcium binding protein involved in cell cycle progression and differentiation, expressed by melanoma cells, when compared to healthy volunteers. Exosomes from liver perfusates of patients with metastatic uveal melanoma contained the protein melan-A. Not only are certain proteins enriched in melanoma exosomes, studies show a multitude of miRNAs and their expression profiles are specific to these vesicles. A study by Ragusa et al. revealed that exosomes derived from uveal melanoma patients contained a common miRNA in the exosomes, miR-146a, within the vitreous humor, as well as those circulating through the body. Another

miRNA in exosomes, miR-126b, was down-regulated only in patients with advanced melanoma compared to healthy donors. In another study, Felicetti et al. demonstrated that the metastatic ability of melanoma cell lines was proportional to the amount of miR-222 within the exosomes. In a clinical setting, exosomes derived from the plasma of sporadic metastatic melanoma patients displayed elevated levels of miR-17, -19a, -21, -126 and -149 compared to those with familial melanoma or healthy controls. Additionally, there was no differential expression of miRNAs seen in familial melanoma patients and unaffected group. These results suggest that in familial melanoma, genetic predisposition instead of miRNAs plays a critical component in the onset and progression of

regulators of T-cell activation through receptor/ligand complexes. Another checkpoint target is the receptor/ligand, program death-1 (PD-1) and program death ligand-1 (PD-L1). Targeting this checkpoint pair was shown to have anti-tumor activity in melanoma patients. PD-1 receptors interaction with its ligands, PD-L1 and PD-L2 in peripheral tissues, which induces a reduction in T-cell effector function and enhances apoptosis. In metastatic melanoma, PD-L1 is upregulated along with tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes and IFN-production; suggest a process by which melanoma tumors evade immune system attack. A phase I trial with the monoclonal anti-PD-1 antibody, nivolumab, showed that 28% of the patients with advanced melanoma had a partial or complete response to treatment and out of those, 72% who received nivolumab for more than a year were responsive to treatment that lasted for a year or more.

An alternative approach in conjunction with immunotherapies is natural compounds that have been explored as additional treatment options. Curcumin, a plant based chemical, has been shown to have anti-cancer effects including anti-angiogenic, pro-apoptotic and the ability to modify the immune system. Curcumin, being a natural product, is generally less toxic than other synthetic drugs, but the bioavailability in the body for curcumin is low. Several groups are developing novel delivery systems such as nanoparticles, liposomes, micelles and phospholipid complex to increase its bioavailability. Curcumin has been shown to mediate its anti-cancer effects by modulating the MST1, JNK, BIM-1, FOXO3, BCL-2, JAK-2/STAT-2, and BAX pathways, in in vitro models.

Specifically, in melanoma cells, curcumin was shown to induce apoptosis in a dose and time dependent manner. In an advanced melanoma murine model, it was shown that treatment with amphiphilic curcumin-based micelle led to remodeled tumor microenvironment and enhance vaccine efficacy.

A combination therapy using amphiphilic curcumin with vaccine therapy resulted in a downregulation of immunosuppressive factors as well as increased the efficacy of the vaccine treatment where there was a 7-fold increase in INF- γ and increase in cytotoxic T-cell response.

Exosomes and Cancer

There are numerous ways that have been proposed for melanoma-derived exosomes to participate in the survival, proliferation, and metastasis of melanoma. 8.1. Unique Composition of Melanoma Exosomes The composition of exosomes often reflects the contents of the membrane and

invasiveness of the MSCs. Xiao et al. also found that normal melanocytes could gain the ability to invade when incubated with exosomes from melanoma cells. The pro-metastatic protein, Met72, was detected in the highly metastatic clone of B16 melanoma cells (B16-10). B16-10 exosomes express Met72 and can be taken up by the poorly metastatic clone of B16, B16-F1, which then begins to express Met72 and exhibit metastatic activity similar to B16-10 cells. Another example of a pro-metastatic phenotype transferred to another cell via exosomes involves WNT5A [11-12].

In malignant melanoma cells WNT5A induces a calcium-dependent release of exosomes that contain immuno-modulatory and pro-angiogenic factors involved in metastasis that have the ability to induce immune suppression and angiogenesis. It is hypothesized that melanoma exosomes induce the release of vascular endothelial cell derived tumor necrosis factor alpha which causes the lymphatic endothelial cells to tolerate tumor growth within the nodes.

Interestingly, exosomes from other cell types have the ability, through exosome release, to increase pro-metastatic phenotypes. Exosomes released by adipocytes contain proteins involved in fatty acid oxidation (FAO), which are only found in these exosomes. They can be taken up by melanoma cells induced elevated FAO levels and increased in migration and invasion. In another report, neural cell exosomes were shown to have the ability to affect the morphology and physiology of melanoma cells including activation of MAPK pathway within the cell, modulating melanogenesis and dendrite-like outgrowths of the cells, supporting the notion that exosomes from one cell type is able to influence the differentiation and cell signaling of another.

Melanoma cell-derived exosomes have been shown to manipulate primary tumor microenvironment by: (1) supporting the epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) of the cells in the melanocytic microenvironment, promoting metastasis, through autocrine/paracrine signaling activating the MAPK pathway. miRNAs involved in this transition, let-7i, mir191 and let-7a, were shown to be present in circulating exosomes from stage 1 melanoma patients but not in exosomes from non-melanoma patients; (2) Affecting the differentiation of immune cells by enhancing the maturation of dendritic cells and T-cell proliferation; (3) Activating macrophages when treated with melanoma-derived

exosomes and exhibit a different cytokine and chemokine profile than when exposed by other activators such as LPS or IL-4; and (4) increasing migration of endothelial cells and inducing

the disease, miRNAs could be used as a prognostic and diagnostic tools in patients with non-familial metastatic melanoma [10-11].

Not only do exosomes contain special proteins and miRNA, the lipid bilayer that encases the exosome macromolecules are unique to melanoma exosomes. Melanoma exosomes are composed of lipid bilayers that contain a high concentration of sphingomyelin and high levels of tetraacaine proteins, which is hypothesized to be the determinant in the release of the exosomes.

Many studies have shown that exosomes from melanoma cells and of plasma from melanoma patients contain certain proteins and miRNAs. This has tremendous potential in diagnosis and prognosis of melanoma. For example, patients with an increased concentration of MIA in their circulating exosomes correlated with a shorter median survival rate. Additionally, detection of metastasis has great potential using these vesicles; a group found that the profiling of exosomal miRNA from metastasis in the liver showed differences when compared to the primary tumor. Understanding the unique composition of melanoma exosomes has the potential in detecting lesions and influencing the course of treatment of melanoma patients and continues to contribute to our understanding of the progression of the disease. The unique composition of exosomes released from melanoma cells may contribute to their ability to manipulate other cells. Melanoma cell derived exosomes have been shown to induce tumorigenesis or induce pro-metastatic behaviors in other melanoma cells, as well as normal cells. These exosomes seem to contain different determinants from the cells they originate from, which may be involved in promoting metastatic behavior. For example, miR-222 has been shown to play a tumorigenic role in melanoma, by its ability to induce the PI3K/AKT pathway and this miRNA can be transferred from the exosomes to the recipient cell and cause subsequent induction of the PI3K/AKT pathway.

Interestingly, Nieto and colleagues identified several unique proteins only found in exosomes from highly metastatic melanoma cell lines. These proteins are known to be involved in cell motility, angiogenesis and immune responses, suggesting the transfer of pro-migratory proteins from the highly metastatic exosomes to the less aggressive ones.

Indeed, the characteristics of a cell line that exhibits a metastatic phenotype has the ability to transfer proteins to recipient cells that gain some of those characteristics. For example, exposure of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) to exosomes from Prominin-1-positive melanoma cells resulted in a *Cancers* **2016**, 8, 110-10 of 18 increased

immune cells have been shown to interact with melanoma exosomes; RNA from either melanoma cells or Lewis lung carcinoma cell-derived exosomes are taken up by lung epithelial cells and result in activation of Toll-like receptor-3 (TLR3) in these cells and causes the infiltration of neutrophils. This infiltration promotes pre-metastatic niche (PMN) formation in the lung. TLR3-deficient mice do not form lung metastases and have a reduction in PMN formation due to a decrease in neutrophil infiltration.

Melanoma exosomes have also been implicated in the promotion of angiogenesis by regulating endothelial cells from a distance and manipulate cytokine expression profiles to establish an immunosuppressive environment. Commonly, when patients are undergoing various treatment regimens, the tumor initially shrinks, then seems to spontaneously develop resistance and begins to resume growth, regardless of continuation of treatment. There have been recent studies suggesting the involvement of melanoma-derived exosomes in treatment resistance. Melanoma cells also have the ability to create an acidic microenvironment. This reduction in pH is a mechanism of inducing resistance for these cells from cisplatin treatment. When the cells are co-treated with proton pump inhibitors and cisplatin, exosome release is reduced, in addition to a higher pH, and an increased amount of uptake of cytotoxic cisplatin by the cells. Melanoma cells have also been shown to accumulate chemotherapeutic agents within vesicular compartments and release them in exosomes, as shown by Chen et al. with cisplatin treatment. Melanosome release is enhanced in the presence of cisplatin where they are exploited for cisplatin removal from the cell.

II. CONCLUSIONS

In this review, we discuss on epigenetic therapy and implications in cancer tumor. Cancer is the second leading cause of death in the United States, and about 6% of the estimated cancer diagnoses this year will be melanoma cases. Melanomas are derived from transformation of the pigment producing cells of the skin, melanocytes. Early-stage melanoma is usually curable by surgical resection, but late stage or subsequent secondary metastatic tumors are treated with some success with chemotherapies, radiation and/or immunotherapies. Most cancer patients die from metastatic disease, which is especially the case in melanoma.

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angiogenesis, perhaps by transfer of miR-9 from the melanoma cells to endothelial cells via exosomes [12-14].

In addition to the ability of melanoma-derived exosomes to affect the local cellular environment, these exosomes also have been shown to travel throughout the body and accumulate in distant organs. Peinado et al. demonstrated the distribution and metastatic potential of B16-derived melanoma exosomes in the lung and was supported by results from Morishita and colleagues where they demonstrated the distribution of inoculated radio-labelled B16BL6 murine melanoma-derived exosomes throughout the body, and found that after a very short half-life in circulation, these radio-labelled exosomes accumulated in the lung, spleen and liver. Similar observations were made earlier with the gLuc-LA-coupled B16BL6-exosomes [15].

The premetastatic niche (PMN) is the site of possible secondary metastasis. This microenvironment is made up of multiple different cell types, including fibroblasts, infiltrating immune cells, endothelial cells, and other cells that comprise the blood and lymph vessels. These and the extracellular matrix must create a supportive microenvironment for the arrival, growth and establishment of a secondary tumor from the circulating tumor cell destined to arrive there. Melanoma exosomes may play an important role in the formation of the PMN. They have been shown to induce vascular leakiness at pre-metastatic sites, an event that is important in the formation of the niche. Exosomes injected into xenograft tumor bearing mice showed changes in mRNA profiling of the lungs, mainly in those that are involved in various steps in pre-metastatic niche formation. *Bone Cancers* **2016**, 8, 110-11 of 18 marrow progenitor cells also accumulated in pre-metastatic niches. These exosomes probably induce molecular signals that help melanoma cells prepare sentinel lymph nodes for metastasis, recruit other critical molecules, ECM deposition and vascular proliferation within the nodes [16].

Tumor-derived exosomes are hypothesized to also be involved in manipulating interactions between the origin tumor cells, and the surrounding tissue stroma to promote malignancy. Specifically, these exosomes have the ability to interact with immune cells, which then help manipulate the microenvironment to be conducive for metastatic growth. For example, human melanoma and colorectal carcinoma-derived microvesicles have been shown to promote the differentiation of monocytes to myeloid-derived suppressor cells that support the growth of the tumor and the ability to escape immune surveillance. Other

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