REVIEW ARTICLE

Exosomal communication in glioma - a review

Hongsheng Xu^{1*}, Kezhong Zhang^{2*}, Hailiang Zong¹, Ming Shang¹, Kai Li¹, Xiaoguang He¹

¹Department of Neurosurgery, Central Hospital of Xuzhou, the Affiliated Hospital of Southeast University, Xuzhou, Jiangsu, China; ² Department of Neurosurgery, the First Affiliated Hospital of Nanjing Medical University, Nanjing, China *These authors contributed equally to this work

Summary

Cancer research has revealed the existence of cancer stem cells (CSCs). However, the influence of the surrounding stromal cells present in the microenvironment on CSCs is still poorly understood. The latest studies on gliomas suggested that the microenvironment of human gliomas contains both glioma stem cells (GSCs) and glioma associated (GA)-mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs; (GA-MSCs). Also, studies have suggested that na-

no-sized vesicles, termed exosomes, have been recently observed to contribute towards intercellular communication within the tumor niche. The present review article will highlight the current view of exosomal communication in gliomas.

Key words: gliomas, microenvironment, exosomal communication

Introduction

The mode of intercellular communication in the form of ions, proteins etc, has been well studied and understood in various recent studies [1-4]. Moreover, stress is also being given to alternative forms of communication like exosomes. Exosomes belong to a class of extracellular vesicles, and are the smallest in the group. An exosome is a 40-100 nm diameter particle lipid bi-layer membrane from the originating cell [5]. The formation of exosomes takes place intracellularly within the endosomal/lysosomal system, after which they are excreted from the cell via exocytosis (Figure 1). This process also distinguishes exosomes from larger micro-vesicles and apoptotic bodies, which are formed by external membrane budding or blebbing, and fragmentation of the plasma membrane, respectively [6].

Exosomes were first described as a smaller subset of a group of larger micro-vesicles derived

from the C-6 rat glioma cell line with the help of electron microscopy [7]. The process basically involved recycling of unutilized receptors within the cell, which then were excreted into the extracellular space in exosomes [8]. So, exosomes are part of cell biology, and since that time the literature on exosomes has increased exponentially. Exosomes are formed within the endosomal system. This system is responsible for intracellular protein trafficking between various organelles and the cell membrane. The formation of exosomes initially involves the recycling of plasma membrane receptors and proteins, via clathrin-associated endocytosis, resulting in the extracellular domain of membrane proteins now within the intra-endosomal compartment. This process signifies the creation of the early endosomes in the cytosol [9]. Early endosomes then follow one of two pathways, depending on their content and

Correspondence to: Hongsheng Xu, PhD. Department of Neurosurgery, Central Hospital of Xuzhou, the Affiliated Hospital of Southeast University, Xuzhou, Jiangsu, 221009, China. Tel: 0516-83956044, Fax: 0516-83956048, E-mail: xu_hongsheng111@163.com Received : 07/07/2016; Accepted : 31/07/2016



Figure 1. Intracellular process of exosome formation.



Figure 2. Initialization of endocytosis for internalization as well as fusion of exosomes with the plasma membrane of the recipient cell for the release of their contents into the cytoplasm.

function. The first pathway involves fusion with a lysosome, resulting in degradation and recycling of intra-endosomal contents (Figure 2) [9]. The second pathway involves lysosomal escape, which is signaled by specific endosomal membrane components. Lysosomal escape results in the eventual maturation of early endosomes into late endosomes. The membrane of late endosomes then undergoes the process of reverse endosomal budding, which is essentially endocytosis of the endosomal membrane. This process forms smaller vesicles within the endosome, which now have the extracellular domain of recycled plasma membrane proteins in the extra-vesicular compartment. The formation of these intra-endosomal vesicles, which are future exosomes, signifies the creation of the multi-vesicular body (MVB). MVBs then traffic their cargo of exosomes through the cytoplasm to the plasma membrane.

Fusion of MVBs with the cell membrane occurs in an energy-dependent, calcium-mediated process [10]. This process is similar to the mechanism used by neurons to release pre-packaged neurotransmitter vesicles from the axon terminal into the synaptic space. After the MVB fuses with the plasma membrane, the exosomes are released with similar, but not identical, membrane receptors and proteins characteristic of the originating cell. Once in the extracellular milieu, exosomes are able to bind to target cells and complete the intercellular interaction by transferring their internal cargo.

One key aspect of exosome formation, which remains unclear, is the molecular mechanism of cellular elements systematic packaging in the exosomal membrane. The composition of the exosomal membrane is not identical to that of the cell membrane from which it was derived. Although the two membranes are similar to each other, exosomal membranes lack many of the common clusters of differentiation (CD) and fragment crystallizable (Fc) surface proteins, as well as various integrins, that are present on the plasma membrane [11]. Thus, the components of the membrane are altered during protein recycling and exosome formation, with certain lipids and proteins being removed or concentrated. For instance, compared to the cell of origin, exosomes have an increased concentration of ceramide, an important lipid membrane constituent capable of cellular signaling [12]. This indicates that the composition of the exosome membrane is distinctive and purposeful, and is not indiscriminately compiled. Similarly, the intra-exosomal content is comparable, but

not identical, to that of the parental cell [13]. The packaging of cellular elements into exosomes has been linked to the ESCRT (endosomal sorting complex required for transport) machinery, which is part of the endosomal system and responsible for trafficking of proteins and remodeling of cellular membranes during exosome formation [14]. Variations in this process can lead to either enrichment or depletion of exosomal content depending on the needs of the cell. For instance, specific nucleotide motifs on RNA molecules can be recognized by ribonucleoproteins (RNPs), which lead to the cell preferentially packaging messenger-RNA (mRNA) or microRNA (miRNA) into exosomes [15]. The unique differences between the composition of exosomes and the cell of origin indicate that exosome formation is not a random process, and that both the membrane constituents and intra-exosomal content are assembled for a distinct purpose in cellular biology.

Cellular elements in exosomes

Exosomes are known to contain widely variable cellular elements in the exosomal membrane (Figure 3) [16]. Likewise, the function of these membrane constituents is broad. Evidence shows that exosome membrane can contain integrins, which can mediate binding in the extracellular space and may play a role in internalization by a recipient cell [17]. Additionally, studies show that the membranes of exosomes can contain major histocompatibility complexes (MHC) which could participate in antigen presentation and immune responses to infection and cancer [18]. Many other membrane proteins have been described in exosomes, some of which have no known or accepted function at this time. Specifically, proteins in the tetraspanin family, which are thought to be membrane scaffold proteins, have been ubiquitously described in exosomes. However, the role of these proteins in exosomes is still under investigation. Included in the tetraspanin family are various cluster of differentiation proteins, including CD9, CD37, CD63, and CD81, which are all used as surface markers for exosomes [19]. CD63 is one of the most utilized tetraspanin surface markers in exosomes from a variety of cell types, and has been linked to antigen presentation via association with MHC molecules [20]. This assortment of proteins represents only a fraction of the exosomal membrane constituents, and new functional components are still being discovered. Similar to the exosomal membrane components, the intra-exosomal compartment is home to a wide variety of cellular elements. However, unlike the membrane components, the roles of nearly all cellular elements within exosomes are well known. The glycolytic enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is known to play a major role in intracellular vesicular trafficking, and may also indicate a metabolic role for exosomes [21]. The intra-exosomal compartment can also contain functional genetic elements, not present in exosomal membranes. The transfer of mRNA via exosomes has been described in a variety of disease processes, including cancer.

Role of MSCs in intracellular communication

The findings from studies investigating the role of MSCs in gliomas, and thus the intercellular communication between MSCs and GSCs, is limited to the description of soluble tumor-promoting

proteins by MSCs. However, one key component of paracrine intercellular interactions that has been overlooked is that of exosome communication. Although the physiologic and pathologic release of exosomes has recently been investigated in a variety of disease processes, including cancer, the function of exosomes secreted from non-cancer cells within the tumor niche has never been explored. This research disparity, combined with the extensive evidence describing the various contents of exosomes, highlights a gap in knowledge as to the function of MSC-derived exosomes. Thus, further examination is necessary to evaluate this novel intercellular exosomal communication pathway between MSCs and GSCs.

Exosomes and microenvironment

Currently, there are only two reports investigating the role of tumor stroma- derived exosomes within the microenvironment. In 2013, Luga et al.



Figure 3. Variety of biomolecules in the exosomal membrane.

found that exosomes released from cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) in breast cancer increased the invasion and motility of breast cancer cells [22]. This effect was linked to the activation of the Wnt-planar cell polarity (Wnt-PCP) signaling pathway, via Wnt11 molecules packaged in CAF-derived exosomes. Luga and colleagues concluded that this intercellular communication system led to enhanced metastatic capabilities of breast cancer [23]. This is the first study demonstrating the tumorpromoting capabilities of exosomes derived from stromal cells isolated from the tumor microenvironment. Recently, in 2014, Wang and colleagues, demonstrated that exosomes from gastric carcinoma-mesenchymal stem cells (GC-MSCs) were capable of increasing the growth and migration of human gastric carcinoma (HGC) cells [24]. These effects were found mediated by the delivery of miR-221 to HGC cells by GC-MSC-derived exosomes. The onco-miRNA miR-221 is linked to the down-regulation of certain cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors and anti-apoptotic factors. Together, these two studies demonstrate the tumor-promoting role of stroma-derived exosomes, and define a mechanism by which the exosomal contents can mediate the tumor-enhancing effects.

Another study published by Roccaro et al. showed the tumor-promoting properties of BM-MSC-derived exosomes in multiple myeloma (MM), albeit using cells that were not part of the microenvironment in the primary tumor [25]. Here the researchers found that MSCs harvested from the bone marrow (BM-MSCs) of patients with MM had different genetic and proteomic profiles than BM-MSCs harvested from normal subjects. These differences carried over to differences in the genetic and proteomic profiles of exosomes derived from both BM-MSC lines. Roccaro and colleagues found that BM-MSC-derived exosomes from MM patients had higher levels of levels of oncogenic proteins, cytokines and adhesion molecules, when compared to BM-MSC-derived exosomes from normal subjects. These tumor promoting proteins were shown to transfer to plasma cells in both in vitro and in vivo mouse models [25]. Importantly, the BM-MSCs of MM patients were harvested from abnormal bone marrow, not primary tumor sites, and therefore were not associated with the microenvironment.

However, MM is thought to arise from abnormal bone marrow, and these abnormal BM-MSCs may play a role in the initial malignant transformation of plasma cells in MM. Nevertheless, this study demonstrates the tumor-promoting capabilities of exosomes derived from BM-MSCs, which can be recruited to, and engrafted in gliomas.

In 2012 Zhu et al. investigated the tumor promoting effects of BM-MSC- derived exosomes on human gastric carcinoma and colon cancer cell lines [26]. They found that tumor stem cells treated with BM-MSC-derived exosomes had increased proliferation *in vitro*, and promoted tumorigenicity in *in vivo* mouse xenografts. Additionally, they showed that these results were due to the increased expression of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) in the cancer stem cells, via exosomal activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2). Their findings suggested a novel mechanism by which intercellular communication could take place within a tumor.

Although the Roccaro and Zhu articles demonstrate the tumor promoting properties of BM-MSC-derived exosomes, these cells are not the most accurate representation of MSCs in the tumor microenvironment. Once recruited and entrenched in the tumor niche, BM-MSCs are influenced by neighboring CSCs and undergo specific changes that alter their biology [27]. Although they still exhibit the classical MSC morphology, surface markers, and tri-differentiation capabilities, TA- MSCs differ from normal BM-MSCs in proliferation rate and genetic signature [27]. Therefore, the efficacy of these studies could be improved by investigating the effects of TA-MSC-derived exosomes on the progression of malignancy.

Conclusions

From the above citations it can be concluded that exosomal mode of communication plays an important role during gliomas. However, more detailed studies are still required in order to develop better therapeutic strategies targeting exosomes.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no confict of interests.

References

- 1. Brightman M, Reese T. Junctions between intimately apposed cell membranes in the vertebrate brain. Cell Biol 1969;648-677.
- 2. Cohen S. A nerve growth-stimulating factor isolated from sarcoma. PNAS 1954;40:1014-1018.
- 3. Rodbell M. The role of hormone receptors and GTP-reg-

ulatory proteins in membrane transduction. Nature 1980;284:17-22.

- 4. Von Euler U. On the specific vaso-dilating and plain muscle stimulating substances from accessory genital glands in man and certain animals; prostaglandin and vesiglandin. Physiology 1936;88:213-234.
- Stoorvogel W, Kleijmeer M, Geuze H, Raposo G. The biogenesis and functions of exosomes. Traffic 2002;3:321-330.
- 6. Cocucci E. Shedding microvesicles: artefacts no more. Trends Cell Biol 2008;19:43-51.
- Trams E, Lauter C, Salem N, Heine U. Exfoliation of Membrane Ecto- Enzymes in the Form of Micro-Vesicles. Biochim Biophys Acta 1981;645: 63-70.
- Pan B, Johnstone R. Fate of the transferrin receptor during maturation of sheep reticulocytes in vitro: selective externalization of the receptor. Cell 1983;33:967-978.
- 9. Thery C. Exosomes: composition, biogenesis and function. Nat Rev Immunol 2002;2:569-579.
- 10. Savina, A. Exosome release is regulated by a calcium-dependent mechanism in K562 cells. Biol Chem 2003;278:20083-20090.
- Thery C, Amigorena JS. Proteomic analysis of dendritic-cell-derived exosomes: a secreted subcellular compartment distinct from apoptotic vesicles. Immunology 2001;166:7309-7318.
- 12. Trajkovic KF. Ceramide triggers budding of exosome vesicles into multivesicular endosomes. Science 2008;319:1244-1247.
- 13. Thery CP. Molecular characterization of dendritic-cellderived exosomes: selective accumulation of the heatshock protein hsc73. Cell Biol 1999;147: 599-610.
- 14. Colombo MP. Analysis of ESCRT functions in exosome biogenesis, composition and secretion highlights the heterogeneity of extracellular vesicles. Cell Sci 2013;126:5553-5565.
- 15. Villarroya-Beltri C. Sumoylated hnRNPA2B1 controls the sorting of miRNAs into exosomes through bind-

ing to specific motifs. Nat Commun 2013;4:1-10.

- Hu G, Drescher K, Chen X. Exosomal miRNAs: biological properties and therapeutic potential. Frontiers Genet 2012;3:1-9.
- 17. Rieu S. Exosomes release during reticulocyte maturation bind to fibronection via integrin $\alpha 4\beta 1$. Eur J Biochem 2000;267:583-590.
- Yang C, Ruffner M, Kim S, Robbins P. Plasma-derived MHC class II+ exosomes from tumor-bearing mice suppress tumor antigen-specific immune responses. Eur J Immunol 2012;42:1778-1784.
- 19. Rana S. Towards tailored exosomes: the exosomal tetraspanin web contributes to target cell selection. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 2012;44:1574-1584.
- 20. Petersen S. The role of tetraspanin CD63 in antigen presentation via MHC class II. Eur J Immunol 2011;41:2556-2561.
- 21. Tisdale E. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase is required for vesicular transport in the early secretory pathway. Biol Chem 2001;276:2480-2486.
- 22. Corrado C, Raimondo S, Chiesi A, Ciccia F, De Leo G, Alessandro R. Exosomes as intercellular signaling organelles involved in health and disease: basic science and clinical applications. Int J Mol Sci 2013;14:5338-5366.
- 23. Luga V, Zhang L, Viloria-Petit A et al. Exosomes mediate stromal mobilization of autocrineWnt-PCP signaling in breast cancer cell migration. Cell 2012;151:1542-1556.
- 24. Wang M, Zhao C, Shi H et al. Deregulated microRNAs in gastric cancer tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells: novel biomarkers and a mechanism for gastric cancer. Br J Cancer 2014;110:1199-1210.
- 25. Roccaro AM, Sacco A, Maiso P et al. BM mesenchymal stromal cell-derived exosomes facilitate multiple myeloma progression. J Clin Invest 2013;123:1542-1555.
- 26. Zhu W, Huang L, Li Y et al. Exosomes derived from human bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells promote tumor growth in vivo. Cancer Lett 2012;315:28-37.
- 27. Bibber B. A review of stem cell translation and potential confounds by cancer stem cells. Stem Cells Int 2013:1-8.