Mechanically stimulated osteocytes maintain tumor dormancy in bone metastasis of non-small cell lung cancer by releasing small extracellular vesicles

Jing Xie[1,2,5], Yafei Xu[1,5], Xuhua Liu[4], Li Long[2], Ji Chen[2], Chunyan Huang[2], Yan Shao[4], Zhiqing Cai[2], Zhimin Zhang[2], Ruixin Zhou[2], Jiarong Leng[3], Xiaochun Bai[2, 4 ✉] and Qiancheng Song[2, 3 ✉]

[1]General Practice Centre, The Seventh Affiliated Hospital, Southern Medical University, Foshan, Guangdong, 528000, China.

[2]Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Bone and Joint Degeneration Diseases, Department of Cell Biology, School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southern Medical University, Guangzhou, 510515, China.

[3]Department of Neurosurgery, Institute of Brain Diseases, Nanfang Hospital of Southern Medical University, Guangzhou, 510515, China.

[4]Academy of Orthopedics, Guangdong Province, Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Bone and Joint Degeneration Diseases, The Third Affiliated Hospital of Southern Medical University, Guangzhou, 510630, China.

[5]These authors contributed equally: Jing Xie, Yafei Xu.

✉email: baixc15@smu.edu.cn; songqc@smu.edu.cn

Abstract

Although preclinical and clinical studies have shown that exercise can inhibit bone metastasis

progression, the mechanism remains poorly understood. Here, we found that non-small cell lung

cancer (NSCLC) cells adjacent to bone tissue had a much lower proliferative capacity than the

surrounding tumor cells. Subsequently, it was demonstrated that osteocytes, sensing mechanical

stimulation generated by exercise, inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation and sustain the dormancy

thereof by releasing small extracellular vesicles with tumor suppressor microRNAs, such as

miR-99b-3p. Furthermore, mechanical loading of the tibia inhibited the bone metastasis

progression of NSCLC. Notably, bone metastasis progression of NSCLC was inhibited by

moderate exercise, and combinations with zoledronic acid had additive effects. Moreover, exercise

preconditioning effectively suppressed bone metastasis progression. This study significantly

advances the understanding of the mechanism underlying exercise-afforded protection against

bone metastasis progression.

Introduction

Lung cancer is the second most common cancer type and the leading global cause of cancer mortality (18.0% of the total cancer deaths) [1]. Approximately 85% of lung cancer patients have a group of histological subtypes collectively termed non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) [2]. Despite important advancements in NSCLC treatment that have been achieved over the past two decades, prognosis remains poor owing to the presence of locally advanced or widely metastatic tumors in most patients at the time of diagnosis [2]. Approximately 20%–30% of patients with NSCLC present with bone metastases at diagnosis, and 35%–60% will develop them during their disease course [3,4]. Bone metastases are frequent events associated with advanced-stage malignancies and often cause skeletal-related events (SREs) such as severe bone pain, pathological fractures, spinal cord compression, and hypercalcemia, which reduce the quality of life and predict a poor prognosis [3,5,6]. In general, bone metastases are incurable; goals of management include maximizing symptom control, preserving function, minimizing SREs, and enhancing local tumor control [2,7]. A multi-disciplinary treatment approach is required, including pain management, osteoclast inhibitors and other bone-specific therapy, systemic anti-cancer therapy, surgery, radiation, and interventional techniques. Although there have been many advances in treatment, the median survival from diagnosis of bone metastases has been reported to be very short in patients with lung cancer [2,7]. Therefore, it is of considerable clinical significance to elucidate the mechanism of bone metastasis and to find new drugs and combination therapies for bone metastasis prevention and treatment in NSCLC.

Many preclinical and clinical studies have shown that exercise can reduce the incidence of various cancers, inhibit cancer progression, reduce symptom burden, mitigate side effects of

cancer treatment, and improve survival and the quality of life in patients with cancer [8-11]. In

contrast, sedentary behavior and lack of physical activity is positively associated with an increased

risk for cancer and mortality [12,13]. Exercise is safe perioperatively, and multiple international

organizations have published exercise recommendations for patients with cancer [10,11,14]. The

evidence to-date suggests a benefit of exercise in all stages of lung cancer and lung cancer

survivors [10]. Exercise has the potential to improve physical function and the quality of life in

individuals with bone metastases and appears safe and feasible when it includes an element of

supervised exercise instruction [11,15]. The optimal exercise prescription for patients with bone

metastases is currently undefined [14,16]. Each patient with cancer may require a more personalized

exercise prescription. Therefore, a clearer understanding of the mechanisms by which exercise

modulates tumors is required.

Exercise induces systemic changes involving every system over the entire body, including

circulating substances, the immune system, and metabolism [17-19]. Throughout life, the skeleton

undergoes continuous remodeling, which is a balance between the resorption of mineralized bone

by bone-resorbing cells (osteoclasts) and new bone formation by bone-forming cells (osteoblasts)

[20]. Osteocytes, the most abundant cell type in bone, are terminally differentiated osteoblasts that

have become buried in their own matrix. During this process, their morphology changes to stellate,

facilitating the formation of an extensive interconnected network throughout the bone matrix

termed the lacunar-canalicular network (LCN) [21-23]. Through the LCN, osteocytes sense

mechanical stimulus and translate them into biochemical signals, and appropriately control bone

homeostasis by regulating the function of both osteoclasts and osteoblasts. Therefore, the

osteocyte is now recognized as a major orchestrator of the bone remodeling process. However, the

understanding of the relationship between osteocytes and bone metastasis remains limited.

Bone metastasis is a multistage process. Long before the development of clinically detectable

metastases, circulating tumor cells settle and enter a dormant state in normal vascular and

endosteal niches present in the bone marrow, which provide immediate attachment and shelter,

and the cells only become active years later as they proliferate and alter the functions of

osteoclasts and osteoblasts, promoting skeletal destruction [24]. The endosteal niche, including

osteoblasts and osteoclasts, has been reported to provide tumor cells with an environment

supporting their survival and outgrowth, however, the role of osteocytes has been rarely addressed

[5]. Tumor cell dormancy is defined as an arrest in the cell cycle [25,26]. The details of niches and

signals that support tumor cell dormancy in bone metastasis are largely unknown. In the current

study, we discuss the effect of exercise on bone metastasis of NSCLC, and investigated the

potential effects and mechanisms of the osteocyte on the dormancy of bone metastasis NSCLC

cells.

Results

Osteocytes inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation.

To study the spatial distribution of NSCLC cell proliferation in bone metastasis, bone metastasis

tissues of six NSCLC patients were obtained. Bone destruction was found in the presence of bone

metastasis in NSCLC (Supplemental Figure 1a). Surprisingly, immunohistochemical staining

showed that Ki-67 was much lower in tumor cells adjacent to bone tissue than in the surrounding

tumor cells (Figure 1a). An intraosseous model was used to investigate the biological progression

of NSCLC cells in a bone microenvironment via direct tibial implantation of A549 in nude mice.

The results of biophotonic imaging, micro-CT, and hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining

indicated that the model was successfully established 21 days after modeling (Supplemental

Figure 1, b – d). Consistent with the result in the clinical samples, Ki-67 expression was much

lower in tumor cells adjacent to bone tissue than in the surrounding tumor cells (Figure 1b). The

above results indicated that NSCLC cells adjacent to bone tissue have a much lower proliferative

capacity than the surrounding tumor cells. Therefore, we hypothesized that bone tissues release

some substance that inhibits tumor growth.

To determine which type of cell inhibits proliferation after NSCLC cells have invaded bone

tissue, A549 was co-cultured with MLO-Y4, MC3T3-E1 and NCM460 (as a negative control)

cells for 48 h, respectively (Figure 1c). We found that the A549 migration ability was improved

after co-culture with MLO-Y4, with the promotional effect being much significantly stronger on

co-culture with MC3T3-E1 (Supplemental Figure 1e). More importantly, NSCLC cell

proliferation was inhibited after co-culture with MLO-Y4, whereas no inhibitory effect was found

after co-culture with MC3T3-E1 (Figure 1d, e and Supplemental Figure 1f), indicating that it is

osteocytes that inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation. Moreover, MLO-A5, another osteocyte-like cell,

also inhibited the proliferation of NSCLC cells (Supplemental Figure 1g). Surprisingly,

MC3T3-E1 proliferation was effectively enhanced on co-culture with MLO-Y4 (Figure 1f), which

indicated that the effect of osteocytes on NSCLC cell and osteoblast proliferation were different.

Taken together, these data suggested that it is osteocytes that inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation in

the endosteal niche.

Osteocyte small extracellular vesicles inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation.

To investigate the mechanism by which osteocytes inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation,

osteocyte-conditioned medium (CM) was separated into soluble factor (SF), large extracellular

vesicles (lEVs), and small extracellular vesicles (sEVs) fractions by serial ultracentrifugation and

ultrafiltration as performed previously with some modifications [27] (Figure 2a). The purified sEVs

were verified by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), NanoSight analysis, and

immunoblotting for protein markers (CD9, Alix, and TSG101), according to the proposal of the

International Society of Extracellular Vesicles (Supplemental Figure 2a – c). sEVs were labeled

with PKH67 and were observed to be internalized by NSCLC cells (Supplemental Figure 2d).

Subsequently, we treated the NSCLC cells with fractions derived from osteocyte CM, with

EV-depleted media as a negative control (fetal bovine serum [FBS] 10%). Interestingly, sEVs

from osteocyte CM had a much significantly greater potential to inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation

than the other groups (Supplemental Figure 2e, f), whereas sEVs from osteoblast CM had no

inhibitory effect on NSCLC cell proliferation (Figure 2 b, c).

To confirm the role of sEVs in osteocyte inhibition of NSCLC cell proliferation, GW4869 was

used to inhibit sEVs secretion. The significant reduction of sEVs released from MLO-Y4 on

GW4869 treatment was confirmed by NanoSight Analysis and western blotting (Figure 2d, e).

More importantly, it was found that GW4869 effectively eliminated the inhibitory effect of

MLO-Y4 on NSCLC cell proliferation (Figure 2f, g), which suggested that sEVs release was

required for osteocytes to inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation. Due to the complexity of the bone

marrow microenvironment, we examined the effect of bone marrow-derived sEVs on NSCLC

cells proliferation by CCK-8 assay. The results showed that bone marrow-derived sEVs could

promote the proliferation of NSCLC cells (Supplemental Figure 2g, h). Taken together, osteocytes

inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation by releasing sEVs.

Osteocyte sEVs miR-99b-3p inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation by directly targeting murine

double minute2 (MDM2)

Subsequently, we performed micro-RNA (miRNA) sequencing to investigate how

osteocyte-derived sEVs inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation. The miRNAs, which can be abundantly

encapsulated in sEVs, are key regulators of cancer cell proliferation. To identify the specific

miRNAs involved, we compared the miRNA profiles of MLO-Y4-sEVs and MC3T3-E1-sEVs,

the results of which are shown as heatmaps (Supplemental Figure 3a). Four of the maximally

upregulated miRNAs and two of the downregulated miRNAs were validated by real-time

quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) (Figure. 3a).

These four upregulated miRNA sequences are identically conserved in the human and mouse.

To determine the effects of these miRNAs on NSCLC cell proliferation, A549 and NCI-H23 cells

were transfected with miRNA mimics or negative controls. We found that both miR-99b-3p and

miR-193a-5p significantly inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation 48 h after transfection (Figure 3b),

with miR-99b-3p having the most significant inhibitory effect. Inhibitors of miR-99b-3p, by

contrast, promoted NSCLC cell proliferation (Figure 3c, d). These data indicated that sEVs

released by osteocytes carried tumor suppressor miRNAs, such as miR-99b-3p.

Notably, in situ hybridization analysis demonstrated high miR-99b-3p expression in the cortical

bone of patients with bone metastases of NSCLC (Supplemental Figure 3b). To identify the

targets of miR-99b-3p, first, we applied PicTar and TargetScan to search for putative targets,

and > 100 mRNAs were predicted to be regulated by miR-99b-3p. Among these candidates, six

genes are involved in cell cycle or proliferation regulation. To determine whether miR-99b-3p

targets these genes directly, we cloned the 3'UTRs of the putative target into a dual luciferase

assay system. MDM2, as a negative regulator of p53, has been shown to exert oncogenic activity

[28]. A reporter assay using A549 cells revealed that miR-99b-3p significantly repressed MDM2

3'UTRs. Mutations of the putative miRNA sites in MDM2 3'UTRs abrogated the responsiveness

to miRNA (Figure 3e). Furthermore, transfection of miR-99b-3p mimicked reduced endogenous

MDM2 protein levels in A549 cells. By contrast, inhibition of miR-99b-3p significantly increased

the MDM2 protein level (Figure 3f).

Taken together, these results suggested that miR-99b-3p derived from osteocyte sEVs directly

down-regulates MDM2 expression through its 3'UTR, by which osteocytes inhibited NSCLC cell

proliferation.

Mechanical stimulation increased osteocyte sEVs release and enhanced the inhibitory effect

of osteocytes on NSCLC cell proliferation

Osteocytes are thought to be the principal mechanosensors of bone by translating mechanical

stimuli into molecular signals and appropriately controlling the downstream remodeling balance.

Exercise has the potential to improve physical function and the quality of life in individuals with

bone metastases. To determine whether osteocytes inhibit tumor proliferation by receiving

mechanical stimulation, MLO-Y4 cells were subjected to sinusoidal stretching at 12% strain at a

1.25 Hz frequency for 12 h, and sEVs were extracted from the CM. Interestingly, sEVs released

from mechanically-stimulated MLO-Y4 cells significantly inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation

compared to static osteocyte sEVs (Figure 4a, b and Supplemental Figure 4a, b). Moreover, the

mechanically-stimulated osteocytes sEVs had the most significant effect on the proliferation of

NSCLC cells compared with SF and lEVs components (Supplemental Figure 4c, d). Notably, the

concentration of sEVs of mechanically-stimulated osteocytes was much significantly higher than

that of static osteocyte sEVs (Figure 4c, d). Moreover, the miR-99b-3p content of osteocyte sEVs

increased significantly after stretching (Figure 4e).

To identify the effect of mechanical stimulation on bone metastasis of lung cancer in vivo,

mechanical loading (1 N at 2 Hz for 10 min per day, 5 days per week for four weeks) was applied

to the tibiae with bone metastasis induced by direct tibial implantation of GFP-LLC in mice. The

biophotonic imaging showed that tumor growth was inhibited by mechanical loading (Figure 4f).

Consistent with this, Ki-67 expression in NSCLC cells in the mechanical loading group was much

lower than that of the control group (Figure 4g). Dentin matrix protein 1 (DMP1), specifically

expressed in osteocytes, was used as a specific molecular marker of osteocytes in this study.

Meanwhile, CCND3 and GFP were selected for co-localization staining to confirm the above

phenomena, the results showed that mechanical loading could effectively inhibit tumor growth

(Supplemental Figure 4e). The micro-CT analysis of the proximal tibia showed that the

mechanical loading effectively protected bone integrity and delayed its destruction in the presence

bone metastasis in NSCLC, specifically reflected in the bone volume / total volume (BV/TV),

trabecular thickness (Tb.Th), and cortical thickness (Ct.Th) (Figure 4h and Supplemental Figure

4f). Furthermore, we found that AntagomiR-99b-3p could effectively rescue the inhibitory effect

on NSCLC cell proliferation, indicating that miR-99b-3p plays an important role in the

mechanically-inhibited proliferation of NSCLC cells (Figure 4i-k and Supplemental Figure 4g, h).

Taken together, these results suggested that mechanical stimulation enhanced the inhibitory effect

of osteocytes on bone metastasis progression by increasing the release of sEVs containing

proliferation-suppressive miRNA.

Moderate exercise combined with zoledronic acid effectively suppressed bone metastasis progression of NSCLC

Exercise is one of the ways in which the body senses mechanical stress, so we evaluated the effect of exercise in a mouse bone metastasis model. An intraosseous mouse model was used to investigate the biological progression of NSCLC cells in a bone microenvironment by direct tibial implantation of murine Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC) cells expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP). These mice were subsequently randomized into tumor-bearing only (control), zoledronic acid (ZA), treadmill running, and treadmill running combined with ZA (treadmill running+ZA) groups. Moderate exercise was provided by treadmill running for mice, which were involuntarily placed on a 12-lane rodent treadmill for 30 min per day at a speed of 15cm/s for at least 5 days per week, and were euthanized after 4 weeks. Biophotonic imaging showed that tumor progression in the three treated groups was significantly slower than that in the control group, among which, the treadmill running+ZA group suppressed the growth of tumors in the tibia most effectively (Figure 5a). Tumor growth inhibition by the ZA and treadmill running groups was similar, with no statistical difference. Ki-67 protein has been widely used as a proliferation marker for tumor cells. In this study, immunofluorescence assessment results of Ki-67 and CCND3 were largely consistent with those of biophotonic imaging (Figure 5b, Supplemental Figure 5). The Ki-67 and CCND3 expression level was the lowest in the treadmill running+ZA group lung cancer cells in the tibia, which confirmed that in the treadmill running+ZA group, tumor growth in the tibia was suppressed most effectively. The micro-computed tomography (microCT) analysis showed that treadmill running and/or ZA protected bone integrity and delayed bone destruction in the presence of bone metastasis in NSCLC, among which, the treadmill running+ZA group displayed the

strongest effect, specifically reflected in the BV/TV, Tb.Th and Ct.Th (Figure 5c–e). The

protective effect of bone integrity in the ZA and treadmill running groups was similar, with no

statistical difference. Taken together, these results demonstrated that moderate exercise

significantly suppressed bone metastasis progression of NSCLC. Furthermore, moderate exercise

combined with ZA displayed additive effects.

Exercise preconditioning effectively suppressed bone metastasis progression of NSCLC

Physical exercise offers therapeutic potentials for bone metastasis. However, it remains mostly

unknown whether and how exercise preconditioning affects bone metastasis progression. In this

study, we examined the effects of preconditioning on bone metastasis progression in mature adult

mice using treadmill running. Male, 8-week-old C57BL/6J mice were subjected to 4 weeks of

treadmill exercise followed by tibial implantation of NSCLC cells. Mice were randomized into

tumor-bearing only (control), treadmill running before and after tibial implantation of NSCLC

cells (exercise preconditioning), and treadmill running after tibial implantation of NSCLC cells

(treadmill running) groups (Supplemental Figure 6a). The biophotonic imaging showed that tumor

growth in the two exercise groups was significantly slower than that in the control group, with the

exercise preconditioning group suppressing the tumor growth more significantly effectively than

treadmill running only after tibial implantation of NSCLC cells, which were consistent in

C57BL/6J and nude mice (Figure 6a). Regarding the proliferation marker, the Ki-67 and CCND3

immunofluorescence assessment results were largely consistent with those of the biophotonic

imaging (Figure 6b, Supplemental Figure 6b). The Ki-67 and CCND3 expression level in NSCLC

cells in the exercise preconditioning group was much significantly lower than that in the other

groups, which indicated that exercise preconditioning could effectively inhibit tumor growth. The

micro-CT analysis showed that the exercise protected bone integrity and delayed bone destruction

in the presence of bone metastasis in NSCLC, with the exercise preconditioning group having a

stronger effect than the other group, specifically reflected in the BV/TV, Tb.Th, and Ct.Th (Figure

6c–e). The micro-CT analyses of C57BL/6 mice and nude mice were consistent.   Therefore,

these results suggested that maintaining exercise habits may effectively prevent bone metastasis of

NSCLC.

Discussion

Although many preclinical and clinical studies have shown that exercise can inhibit bone

metastasis progression [11,15], the mechanism remains poorly understood. Clarifying the mechanism

of action is essential to determine optimal exercise programs, design appropriate combination

therapy with standard therapy regimens, or identify specific targets for new treatment. In this

study, we found that NSCLC cells adjacent to bone tissue had a much lower proliferative capacity

than the surrounding tumor cells, thus we hypothesized that bone tissues release some substance

that inhibits tumor growth and sustains tumor dormancy in bone metastasis. Next, we

demonstrated that osteocytes inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation by releasing sEVs containing tumor

suppressor miRNAs, such as miR-99b-3p. Meanwhile, both in vitro and in vivo experiments

demonstrated that mechanical loading stimulated osteocytes to release more sEVs and

miR-99b-3p to delay the progression of bone metastasis of NSCLC. In addition, we showed that

bone metastasis progression of NSCLC was inhibited by moderate exercise, and combinations

with ZA had additive effects. Furthermore, exercise preconditioning effectively suppressed bone

metastasis progression of NSCLC. Taken together, our work elucidated a mechanism for the

clinical observation that bone metastasis was inhibited by moderate exercise.

In bone metastasis, only a limited number of disseminated tumor cells survive following bone

colonization, and these are retained in a dormant state for prolonged periods through engagement

in specialized endosteal niches before becoming reactivated to form overt metastases [5]. Currently,

molecular mechanisms for tumor cell dormancy in the endosteal niche remain poorly understood,

representing both a challenge and an opportunity for therapeutic targeting [29]. Bone metastases

occur from a complex interplay between cancer cells and bone cells. Interestingly, here we found

that NSCLC cells adjacent to bone tissue have a much lower proliferative capacity than the

surrounding tumor cells. Therefore, we hypothesized that bone tissues release some substance that

inhibits tumor growth and sustains NSCLC cell dormancy in bone metastasis.

Osteoclast and osteoblast functions in bone metastases have been well characterized; however,

the role of osteocytes needs to be elucidated [30]. Osteocytes act as mechanosensors to control

responses to mechanical loading of the skeleton. For bone metastases, osteocytes may play a

pivotal role in the interaction between mechanical loading and SREs. Here we demonstrated that it

is osteocytes that inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation in the endosteal niche, but not osteoblasts.

Furthermore, we demonstrated that osteocytes inhibit NSCLC cell proliferation by releasing sEVs

containing tumor suppressor miRNAs, such as miR-99b-3p. Recent studies showed that

miR-99b-3p functions as a potential tumor suppressor in oral squamous cell carcinoma and gastric

cancer [31,32]. We found that osteocyte sEVs miR-99b-3p inhibited NSCLC cell proliferation by

directly targeting MDM2. As a negative regulator of the p53, the most extensively studied human

tumor suppressor, MDM2 has been shown to exert oncogenic activity [28]. To date, three regions of

interaction between MDM2 and p53 have been identified, by which MDM2 inhibits the binding of

p53 to the transcriptional machinery. MDM2 is significantly highly expressed in lung

adenocarcinoma tissues compared with adjacent tissues, and is regarded as a proto-oncogene [33,34].

Our findings identified MDM2 as a direct target of miR-99b-3p, emphasizing the crucial role of

miRNA in bone metastases. Interestingly, the miR-99b-3p content in osteocyte sEVs increased

dramatically after mechanical loading, suggesting that miR-99b-3p may play a role in the

inhibition of bone metastases by exercise.

SREs resulting from bone metastasis are a major clinical problem that significantly harm patient

outcomes, and are commonly considered an incurable consequence of terminal malignancies.

Bone metastases from lung cancer represent the majority of cases, followed by prostate cancer and

breast cancer [35]. A recent animal study showed that in vivo exercise was protective against

metastatic bone loss and inhibited breast cancer progression in bone [36]. However, there was no

report about the effect of exercise on bone metastasis of lung cancer until recently. In the present

study, we showed that bone metastasis progression in lung cancer was inhibited by exercise. More

interestingly, exercise preconditioning effectively suppressed bone metastasis progression of

NSCLC, suggesting that maintaining exercise habits affords protection against bone metastasis.

Bisphosphonates are the standard of care in patients with bone metastases. Our study

demonstrated that moderate exercise and ZA have additive effects.

Exercise is quite complex because it involves multiple organs of the body. The bone can sense

the mechanical stress stimulus in the process of exercise. Using in vivo models, mostly breast

cancer bone metastasis models, several studies suggested that mechanical stimulation of the tibia

can contribute to inhibiting bone metastatic colonization and cancer progression in bone [36,37].

Tibial compression has been used to stimulate bone formation and study the interplay between

mechanical stimuli and SREs. One study showed that moderate tibial loading, but not overloading,

protected adult murine bone from destruction by metastasized breast cancer [36]. Consistent with

this, our work showed that mechanical loading of the tibia inhibited bone metastasis progression

of NSCLC. Although many preclinical and clinical studies have shown that exercise can inhibit

cancer progression, the ideal mechanism of implementation remains to be determined. The

prescription of exercise for patients with cancer requires further research, including exercise type,

frequency, duration, intensity, and whether it is supervised [14,16]. Exercise has been underutilized in

patients with advanced cancer despite the benefits, particularly for those with bone metastases

because of concerns over skeletal complications [38,39]. Multiple studies showed that individuals

with NSCLC were engaged in significantly less physical activity than similar-aged healthy

individuals [40,41]. Exercise models such as running are more realistic for healthy people, but

mechanical loading such as tibial compression provides for isolating the impacts of mechanical

stimuli on bone tissue in the context of SREs, which are more effective and safer for patients with

advanced cancer. Previous studies have shown that either exercise or mechanical loading can lead

to increased bone mass, which may be another reason for the attenuated erosion of NSCLC cells

and deserves our further exploration [42].

In conclusion, our study provides new insights into understanding the mechanism underlying

exercise-afforded protection against bone metastasis progression. Bone metastasis progression of

NSCLC was inhibited by moderate exercise. Osteocytes, sensing mechanical stimulation

generated by exercise, inhibit the proliferation of NSCLC cells and sustain their dormancy by

releasing sEVs containing tumor-suppressive miRNAs (Figure 7). Understanding the mechanism

underlying tumor dormancy may provide the foundation for the development of strategies to

prevent dormant bone metastasis from emerging as overt bone metastasis.

Materials and Methods

Patients

Lung cancer patients with a diagnosis of bone metastases (six patients, radiologically confirmed)

were recruited by the Third Affiliated Hospital of Southern Medical University (Guangzhou,

China) from January 2020 to January 2021. All patients were fully informed of the study, and they

provided written consent prior to participation. Surgically resected bone metastatic tumor tissue

was collected from all patients. The obtained bone metastatic tumor tissue was trimmed to an

appropriate size and rapidly transferred to formalin solution for storage until processing. We

confirm that our study was compliant with the "Guidance of the Ministry of Science and

Technology (MOST) for the Review and Approval of Human Genetic Resources". Ethics

approval was granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Third Affiliated Hospital

of Southern Medical University. The study was conducted in accordance with the principles and

guidelines of The Declaration of Helsinki.

Cell lines

A549, LLC, NCM460, MLO-A5 and MLO-Y4 cells were purchased from the American Type

Culture Collection (Rockville, MD, United States) and grown in dulbecco's modified eagle

medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, United States) containing 10% FBS and 1%

penicillin and streptomycin. MC3T3-E1 cells were purchased from the American Type Culture

Collection and were cultured in α Minimum Essential Medium (α-MEM) (Invitrogen) with 10%

FBS and 1% penicillin and streptomycin. These cell lines were not authenticated after purchase

but routinely tested negative for mycoplasma contamination.

Animal models

All animal experimental protocols were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of the

Southern Medical University, Guangzhou, China. C57BL/6 and nude athymic mice were obtained

from the Experimental Animal Center of the Southern Medical University in Guangzhou, China.

Animal care was in accordance with the guidelines of the US National Institutes of Health and the

Chinese National Institute of Health. All surgical interventions were performed under anesthesia

with a mixture of 13.3% urethane and 0.5% chloralose (0.65 ml/100 g body weight). All efforts

were made to reduce the number of animals used and to minimize animal discomfort.

For in situ studies, 25×10^4 LLC cells or A549 cells were injected into the tibiae of 8-week-old

C57BL/6 mice or nude mice. In brief, 25×10^4 LLC cells and A549 cells suspended in

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were injected into the tibia of C57BL/6 mice and nude mice,

respectively. Mice were euthanized on day 21 for analyses, unless otherwise indicated. For

stress-induced experiments, after 2 days of recovery, tibiae loading was performed daily on the

tumor-inoculated tibiae. Using an ElectroForce device (Bose, Framingham, MA, United States),

the tibiae of the mask-anesthetized mice were given daily loads of 1 N (peak-to-peak) at 2 Hz for

10 min, 5 days per week for 4 weeks. The tibias of a subset of mice were injected with

AntagomiR-NC or AntagomiR-99b-3p (GenePharma, Shanghai, China, 3 nmol per tibia, once a

week for 3 weeks) after 2 days of recovery.

For zoledronic acid experiments, starting on day 3 after lung cancer cell transplantation, mice

were treated with subcutaneous injection of 100 μg/kg zoledronic acid (Novartis, Basel,

Switzerland) or saline (other groups) every 3 days for 3 weeks, after which they were euthanized.

For exercise experiments, exercised mice were involuntarily placed on a 12-lane rodent treadmill

for 30 min per day at a speed of 15 cm/s for at least 5 days per week unless otherwise stated.

During the 3 days prior to euthanasia, the exercising mice underwent obligatory exercise,

regardless of how many consecutive days they had previously exercised. Two days after surgery,

all mice except the control group began moderate exercise by treadmill running, whereby they

were involuntarily placed on a 12-lane rodent treadmill for 30 min per day at a speed of 15 cm/s

for at least 5 days per week, and were euthanized after 4 weeks. For exercise preconditioning,

mice were additionally subjected to 4 weeks of treadmill exercise prior to tibial implantation of

NSCLC cells. In the matched experiment, the control mice were placed on a stationary (0 cm/s)

treadmill for the same time duration as the experimental mice.

We examined the effects of preconditioning on bone metastasis progression in mature adult

mice using treadmill running. Male 8-week-old C57BL/6J mice were subjected to 4 weeks of

treadmill exercise followed by tibial implantation of NSCLC cells.

Lung cancer cell preparation and in situ injection

We used clones derived from the GFP-tagged LLC cells and A549 cells. The cells were

maintained in DMEM containing 10% FBS and 0.1 mg/ml penicillin-streptomycin at 37 °C under

5%–8% CO_2. Cells were passaged at 80%–90% confluence and re-plated at a 1:10 dilution, which

was approximately every 72 h. Before in situ injection, cells were trypsinized at 80%–90%

confluence with 0.15% trypsin / ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) (0.5% Gibco trypsin

EDTA diluted 1:2 in PBS). Cells were immediately removed from the plate with 10 ml ice-cold

DMEM containing 10% FBS, pipetted into a 15 ml conical tube, and centrifuged at $200 \times g$ for 5

min. The pellet was resuspended in a 50 ml conical tube in 25 ml ice-cold PBS (without Ca or Mg)

and counted. This was centrifuged to re-pellet, and finally resuspend at 25×10^4 cells/10 μl in

ice-cold PBS.

The mice were anesthetized using a mixture of 13.3% urethane and 0.5% chloralose (0.65

mL/100 g body weight). Both legs were cleaned with 10% povidone/iodine swab/solution,

followed by ethanol, repeated twice. The skin was wetted with 70% ethanol to increase visibility

of the underlying patellar ligament, which should be visible as a distinct, thick, white line. While

firmly grasping the ankle/leg of the mouse, a 28g ½ needle was inserted under the patella, through

the middle of patellar ligament, and into the anterior intercondylar area in the top of the tibia. A

gentle, lateral movement of the needle was applied to ensure it was in tibia and passed through the

growth plate. The plunger was slowly depressed to inject 10 μl of cell solution. After 3 min, the

needle was slowly extracted. The treated mice were kept on a heating pad until revived.

Mechanical stress stimulation of MLO-Y4 cells

MLO-Y4 cells were transferred to a Biofex six-well plate (Flexcell, Burlington, NC, USA) and

allowed to adhere to the membrane until they attained 90% confluence. The cells were subjected

to sinusoidal stretching (Flexcell) at 12% strain and 1.25 Hz frequency for 12 h. Experiments were

performed at 37 °C under 5% CO_2. Following 48 h of stretching, the CM (or control medium) was

collected for sEVs extraction.

Bio-photon imaging and micro-CT imaging

Tumor-bearing mice were euthanized 30 days after tumor cell injection, and their hind limb bones

were imaged by biophotonics. Fluorescence imaging for GFP-labeled tumor cells in these bones

was performed using the optical imaging system, Fx Pro (Bruker BioSpin MRI GmbH, Ettlingen,

Germany). For anatomical orientation, a white light/grayscale picture was performed and used

with the fluorescent signal (Cy3.5: excitation = 570 nm; emission = 620 nm). For data analysis,

molecular imaging software 7.1.3 (Bruker BioSpin MRI GmbH) was used. Regions of interest

(ROIs) were defined around the bone and analyzed compared to the background of PBS injection

to calculate the signal to noise ratio.

Micro-CT was performed using the Skyscan 1172 (Bruker-MicroCT, Kontich, Belgium). The

X-Ray tube settings were 80 kV and 500 µA and images were acquired at the highest resolution

without charge coupled device binning, resulting in a voxel size of 9.44 µm. A 0.66° rotation step

through a 195° angular range with 6500 msec exposure was used. After processing with a

three-dimensional Gaussian filter to reduce noise, the ROIs were manually segmented such that

they corresponded to the cortical and trabecular bone regions. Cortical ROIs comprised 470 µm

thick regions (50 slices, 9.4 µm thickness per slice) located 3 mm distal to the growth plate, while

300 µm thick trabecular sections began 0.27 mm distal to the growth plate.

Histological analysis, immunohistochemistry, and immunofluorescence staining

Bone samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS and decalcified in a 10% EDTA

solution. They were subsequently dehydrated through a series of graded alcohols, cleared in

xylene, and embedded in paraffin. Sagittal sections of 2–5 µm were prepared for histological

analyses. Following deparaffinization and rehydration, H&E staining were performed on the tissue

sections. The tissue sections were imaged using an FSX100 microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

For immunohistochemistry, sections were incubated in 10 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for 30

min at 90 °C or treated with 200 mg/mL proteinase K (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, United

States) for 10 min at 37 °C to unmask antigen. Subsequently, the sections were treated with 3%

hydrogen peroxide for 15 min. Thereafter, the sections were permeabilized with 0.1% Triton

X-100 in PBS for 5 min at room temperature and blocked with 1% sheep serum at room

temperature for 1 h. We incubated the sections with a primary antibody that recognized Ki67 (Cell

Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, United States, cat. #: 9129, 1:200) overnight at 4 °C.

Subsequently, we used a horse radish peroxidase-labeled secondary antibodies (1:200 in 1%

bovine serum albumin [BSA], 1 h) at 37°C. Diaminobenzidine was used as a chromogen and

hematoxylin as the counterstain.

For immunofluorescence, we incubated primary antibodies that recognized Ki67 (Cell

Signaling Technology, cat. #: 9129, 1:200), DMP1 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, United

States, cat. #: AF4386, 1:100), GFP (ABclonal, Wuhan, China, cat. #:AE012, 1:100) and CCND3

(Bioss, Woburn, MA, United States, cat. #: bs-0660R, 1:100) overnight at 4 °C. For secondary

reactions, species-matched Alexa Fluor 488- and Alexa Fluor 594-secondary antibodies were used

(1:500 in 1% BSA, 1 hour) at 37 °C in the dark. The secondary antibodies for

immunofluorescence staining were goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 (Invitrogen, cat#A-11008)

and donkey anti-Sheep Alexa Fluor 594 (Invitrogen, cat#A-11016). The sections were mounted

with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, United States) before

imaging and we examined more than five different microscopic images (per section) under a

confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

In situ hybridization.

In situ hybridization was performed to determine the expression of miR-99b-3p using miRCURY

LNA miRNA Detection, Optimization Kit 2 (miR-99b-3p) (Exiqon, Vedbæk, Denmark),

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Sections were serially cut to 4 μm thicknesses, the

tissues were subjected to pepsin (1.3 mg/mL, Sigma Aldrich) for 30 min. After washing in PBS,

the slides were submerged in 99.7% ethanol and air-dried. Slides were hybridized with 40 nM

miR-99b-3p in an incubation chamber at 37℃ for 16 – 18 h, followed by stringent washes with

saline-sodium citrate buffer at 37℃. For immunodetection, slides were blocked with digoxigenin

blocking reagent (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) in maleic acid buffer containing 2% sheep serum

at ambient temperature for 60 min and then incubated with sheep anti-digoxigenin conjugated to

ALP (diluted 1:800 in blocking reagent) at ambient temperature for 60 min, resulting in dark-blue

staining. The NBT/BCIP reaction mixture1 was incubated within a humidified chamber at 37℃

for 2 h and the reaction was stopped with KTBT buffer, and then washed in PBS three times,

dehydrated, and mounted for microscopy.

Western blot analysis.

Cells and sEVs were lysed with 2% Sodium dodecyl sulfonate (SDS), 2 M urea, 10% glycerol, 10

mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 10 mM dithiothreitol, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. The

lysates were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and blocked with BSA.

Following blotting onto a nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, United

States), the membrane was incubated with primary antibodies that recognized TSG101 (Abcam,

Cambridge, United Kingdom cat. #: ab83, 1:1,000), CD63 (Abcam, cat. #: ab193349, 1:1,000),

CD9 (Abcam, cat. #: ab223052, 1:1,000), Alix (Abcam, cat. #: ab76608, 1:1,000), β-actin (Cell

Signaling Technology, cat. #: 4970S, 1:4000), MDM2 (Proteintech, Wuhan, China cat. #:

66511-1-IG, 1:1000), and GAPDH (Cell Signaling Technology, cat. #: 2118, 1:5000) overnight at

4 °C. Secondary antibodies for western blot were anti-rabbit IgG, (cat# 7074, dilution 1:2000)

from Cell Signaling Technology and anti-mouse IgG, (cat# A9044, dilution 1:2000) from Sigma

Aldrich (1 hour at 37 °C). The membrane was analyzed using specific antibodies and visualized

using an enhanced chemiluminescence 50 kit (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ, United

States).

Transwell assay.

The migration capacity of cancer cells was determined using a 24-well plate, Transwell chambers

(Thermo Fisher) with an 8-μm pore size, and Matrigel (100 μg·mL^{-1}). Approximately 5×10^4

cells in 200 μL serum-free DMEM were plated in the upper chambers, and 800 μL CM was added

to the lower chambers. After 48 h, the cells that had invaded to the lower side of the membrane

were stained with crystal violet. At minimum of five randomly selected images were acquired, and

the mean number of stained cells was determined.

Luciferase assays.

A549 cells were cultured at 1×10^5 cells/well in 12-well plates. The cells were co-transfected with

miR-99b-3p mimic (50 nM) or miRNA mimic negative control (50 nM) and 0.2 μg

psiCHECK™-1-UTR. Transfection was performed using Lipofectamine 3000. After 48 h, cells

were collected and luciferase activity was determined using the DualLuciferase reporter assay

system (Promega, Madison, WI, United States) with the dual luciferase assay reporter-ready

luminometer (Promega). The assays were performed in triplicate.

TEM and nanosight tracking analysis.

The morphology of the sEVs was observed by TEM. Briefly, the sEVs suspension was mixed with

an equal amount of 4% paraformaldehyde. Following washing with PBS, 4% uranyl acetate was

added for chemical staining of sEVs, and images were captured using a Hitachi H-7650 TEM

(Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). Nanosight tracking analysis was performed to determine the size and

concentration of the isolated sEVs using the NanoSight NS500 (Malvern, Westborough, MA,

United States), according to the operating instructions, without any changes. The sEVs were

diluted to be within the recommended concentration range. Five 60 s videos were captured for

each sample during flow mode (camera settings: slider shutter 890, slider gain 146). SEVs were

diluted and loaded onto the NS500 instrument by a syringe. The videos were analyzed with the

NTA 3.2 software (Malvern). All measurements were performed at room temperature.

RNA isolation

RNA was extracted from cells using the QIAzol Lysis Reagent (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany)

according to the user guidelines. Briefly, cells were collected in a reaction tube, lysed with QIAzol,

and mixed with chloroform. Following centrifugation at 12,000 × g for 15 min at 4 °C, the upper

aqueous phase was transferred to an RNeasy Mini spin column in a 2 mL collection tube and

mixed with 100% ethanol. Following washing at 7500 × g for 5 min at 4 °C, the total RNA was

collected for qRT-PCR analysis. RNA was extracted from sEVs fractions using the Qiagen

miRNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with a final elution

volume of 50 μL.

MiRNA sequencing

Total RNA extraction from the samples was conducted using the miRNeasy Kit (Qiagen),

according to standard operating procedures provided by the manufacturer. The quality and

integrity of the total RNA were determined using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer and the RNA 6000

Nano LabChip Kit (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, United States). A sequencing RNA library was

constructed by performing a 3′-end linker, a 5′-end linker, reverse transcription, amplification,

530 cDNA library size selection, and purification steps using total RNA. Cluster generation and first

531 stage sequencing primer hybridization were performed on the cBot of the Illumina HiSeq

532 sequencer from Shanghai Biotechnology (Shanghai, China), according to the corresponding

533 procedure in the cBot User Guide. Subsequently, the sequencing reagent was prepared following

534 the Illumina User Guide and the flow cell carrying the cluster was loaded into the machine.

535 Single-end sequencing was performed using the single-read program. The sequencing process was

536 controlled by the data collection software provided by Illumina that performed real-time data

537 analyses.

538 **RT-PCR and qRT-PCR**

539 RNA samples were quantitated and qualified using a NanoDrop analyzer (ThermoFisher). Equal

540 quantities (5 ng) of total RNA from each sample were used for cDNA synthesis using the

541 PrimeScript®RT reagent kit (TaKaRa, Tokyo, Japan). The reverse transcriptions of miRNAs were

542 performed using looped miRNA-specific RT primers for miRNAs. qRT-PCR was performed with

543 the Step One Plus (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA, United States, using an SYBR Green I

544 Real-Time PCR Kit (GenePharma) for miR-99b-3p. Dissociation curves were generated to ensure

545 the specificity of each qRT-PCR reaction. The relative expression levels of miRNAs in each

546 sample were calculated and quantified using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method after normalization for expression

547 of the positive control.

548 **Co-culture experiments**

549 Well inserts with a 0.4 mm pore size filter (BD Falcon, Franklin Lake, NJ, United States) for

550 six-well plates were used following the manufacturer's instructions. MLO-Y4 and MC3T3-E1

551 cells were seeded into the well inserts (5×10^5 cells/well) with DMEM medium. LLC, A549, and

MLO-Y4 cells were also seeded into six-well plates (1×10^6 cells/well). After 48h of co-culture,

cells in 6-well plates were subjected to the next experiments. All co-culture experiments were

conducted in DMEM with sEVs-free FBS (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, United States).

Differential ultracentrifugation of several fractions from CM and sEVs isolation

To isolate the different CM fractions, 1×10^6 cells were plated in a 10 cm dish (10 ml medium).

After 72 h we either separated the conditioned media or isolated sEVs. For isolated bone

marrow-derived sEVs, suspensions were obtained by flushing mouse bone marrow with medium.

The supernatant was aspirated after settling, and impurities and cells from the bone marrow were

removed by centrifugation ($300 \times g$ for 5 min and $600 \times g$ for 10 min, subsequent steps were

performed as for CM). For the dissection of the CM, whole CM (10 ml for one 10 cm dish) was

collected by pipetting from the 10 cm dish into 50 mL falcon tubes, centrifuged at low speed

($2,000 \times g$ for 20 min) to eliminate dead cells and cellular debris prior to use, and divided into two.

One half was used as whole CM, concentrated with a 10 KD ultrafiltration device (Millipore,

Billerica, MA, United States) at $5000 \times g$ for 15 min and were transferred to 12 wells of a 96-well

plate, while the remaining half was further processed. From the second half, lEVs were collected

after a $10,000 \times g$ centrifugation step for 1 h, washed in 15 mL PBS, and centrifuged again at

$10,000 \times g$ for 1 h. The SF was filtered through a 0.22 mm filter prior to a $100,000 \times g$

centrifugation step. The SF was collected after a 80 min $100,000 \times g$ centrifugation step and

concentrated using a 10 KD ultrafiltration device (Millipore) at $5000 \times g$ for 15 min, obtaining

concentrated factor. The final $100,000 \times g$ pellet (sEVs) was washed once in 15 ml PBS and

resuspended in 10% EV-depleted FBS medium for the functional cell culture experiments. Each

individual SF, lEVs, and sEVs fraction was used were transferred to 12 wells of a 96-well plate.

SEVs from 10 ml of conditioned media were added either to 6 wells of a 96-well plate or one well

of a 12-well plate. Media with EV-depleted serum (10% FBS) was used as a negative control in

most experiments.

Cell counting kit-8 assay

The Cell Counting Kit-8 assay (CCK-8) was used to determine cell viability. In total, 2×10^3 cells

were seeded in 96-well plates and allowed to adhere overnight. Following incubation with the

compounds under evaluation for 24h, 48h, 72 h and 96h (the bar chart shows the results at 72 h) ,

10 μL CCK-8 dye was added to each well, and the cells were incubated for 1 h at 37 °C.

Subsequently, the absorbance was determined at 450 nm (BioTek Synergy-HTX, Winooski, VT,

United States).

Flow cytometry

Approximately 10,000 cells were seeded in 12-well plates on day 1. Treatment was added on day

2, and cell proliferation was examined using a fluorescence-based cell proliferation kit (Cell-Light

EdU Apollo488 In Vitro Flow Cytometry Kit, Ribobio, Guangzhou, China) on day 4. Following

fluorescence labeling, the ratio of the number of fluorescently labeled cells to the total number of

cells was determined by flow cytometry (Beckman, Brea, CA, United States).

SEVs labeling and cellular uptake

SEVs were labeled using the PKH67 Green Fluorescent Cell Linker Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) by

following the manufacturer's protocol. The isolated sEVs diluted in PBS was added to 0.5 mL

Diluent C. Subsequently, 2 μL PKH67 dye was added and incubated for 4 min at room

temperature. Two milliliters of 1% BSA/PBS was added to bind excess dye. The labeled sEVs

were washed at 100,000 × g for 70 min, and the sEVs pellet was suspended in PBS and used for

uptake experiments. We subsequently co-cultured these PKH67 sEVs with A549. After the indicated time of co-culture, we stained the A549 with DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich) and observed them by confocal microscopy.

Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed for statistical significance using GraphPad Prism 6.0 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, United States). The P value was determined by the Student's t-test for two-group, or one-way analysis of variance test for multiple group comparisons. It was considered indicative of statistical significance when $P < 0.05$. All experiments were repeated a minimum of three times. Quantitative data were expressed as mean ± standard error of the mean.

Data availability statement

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this submitted article and its additional files.

Author contributions

QCS and XCB designed the experiments. JX, YFX, XHL, LL, and JC performed the experiments and analyzed the data. QCS, XCB, and JX wrote the original manuscript. YS, RXZ, and JRL assisted with cell culture and in vivo experiments. YFX, ZQC, and ZMZ assisted with the collection of patient samples and editing of the manuscript. QCS, JX and CYH supplemented the experiments and revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

Acknowledgments

We thank the Central Laboratory, Southern Medical University for providing facilities and technical support. This work was supported by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 81991511 and No. 82202930).

Competing interests

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

References

1. Sung, H*., et al.* Global cancer statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *Ca-a Cancer Journal for Clinicians* **71**, 209-249 (2021).

2. Herbst, R.S., Morgensztern, D. & Boshoff, C. The biology and management of non-small cell lung cancer. *Nature* **553**, 446-454 (2018).

3. Cetin, K., Christiansen, C.F., Jacobsen, J.B., Norgaard, M. & Sorensen, H.T. Bone metastasis, skeletal-related events, and mortality in lung cancer patients: a Danish population-based cohort study. *Lung Cancer* **86**, 247-254 (2014).

4. Riihimaki, M*., et al.* Metastatic sites and survival in lung cancer. *Lung Cancer* **86**, 78-84 (2014).

5. Zhang, W.J., Bado, I., Wang, H., Lo, H.C. & Zhang, X.H.F. Bone Metastasis: Find Your Niche and Fit in. *Trends in Cancer* **5**, 95-110 (2019).

6. Sowder, M.E. & Johnson, R.W. Bone as a Preferential Site for Metastasis. *JBMR plus* **3**, e10126 (2019).

7. Knapp, B.J., Devarakonda, S. & Govindan, R. Bone metastases in non-small cell lung cancer: a narrative review. *J Thorac Dis* **14**, 1696-1712 (2022).

8. Pedersen, L*., et al.* Voluntary Running Suppresses Tumor Growth through Epinephrine- and IL-6-Dependent NK Cell Mobilization and Redistribution. *Cell Metab* **23**, 554-562 (2016).

9. Schmitz, K.H*., et al.* Exercise is medicine in oncology: Engaging clinicians to help patients move through cancer. *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians* **69**, 468-484 (2019).

10. Bade, B.C., Thomas, D.D., Scott, J.B. & Silvestri, G.A. Increasing physical activity and exercise in lung cancer: reviewing safety, benefits, and application. *J Thorac Oncol* **10**, 861-871 (2015).

11. Ligibel, J.A*., et al.* Exercise, Diet, and Weight Management During Cancer Treatment: ASCO Guideline. *J Clin Oncol* **40**, 2491-2507 (2022).

12. Kerr, J., Anderson, C. & Lippman, S.M. Physical activity, sedentary behaviour, diet, and cancer: an update and emerging new evidence. *Lancet Oncol* **18**, e457-e471 (2017).

13. Cao, C., Friedenreich, C.M. & Yang, L. Association of Daily Sitting Time and Leisure-Time Physical Activity With Survival Among US Cancer Survivors. *JAMA Oncol* **8**, 395-403 (2022).

14. Stout, N.L., Santa Mina, D., Lyons, K.D., Robb, K. & Silver, J.K. A systematic review of
rehabilitation and exercise recommendations in oncology guidelines. *CA Cancer J Clin* **71**,
149-175 (2021).

15. Weller, S.*, et al.* Exercise for individuals with bone metastases: A systematic review. *Crit*
Rev Oncol Hematol **166**, 103433 (2021).

16. Cavalheri, V. & Granger, C.L. Exercise training as part of lung cancer therapy. *Respirology*
25, 80-87 (2020).

17. Wang, Q.Y. & Zhou, W.L. Roles and molecular mechanisms of physical exercise in cancer
prevention and treatment. *J Sport Health Sci* **10**, 201-210 (2021).

18. Zhu, C.M.*, et al.* Exercise in cancer prevention and anticancer therapy: Efficacy, molecular
mechanisms and clinical information. *Cancer Letters* **544**(2022).

19. Ruiz-Casado, A.*, et al.* Exercise and the Hallmarks of Cancer. *Trends in Cancer* **3**, 423-441
(2017).

20. Wang, L.J., You, X.L., Zhang, L.L., Zhang, C.Q. & Zou, W.G. Mechanical regulation of bone
remodeling. *Bone Research* **10**(2022).

21. Prideaux, M., Findlay, D.M. & Atkins, G.J. Osteocytes: The master cells in bone
remodelling. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* **28**, 24-30 (2016).

22. Schaffler, M.B., Cheung, W.Y., Majeska, R. & Kennedy, O. Osteocytes: master
orchestrators of bone. *Calcif Tissue Int* **94**, 5-24 (2014).

23. Robling, A.G. & Bonewald, L.F. The Osteocyte: New Insights. in *Annual Review of*
Physiology, Vol 82, Vol. 82 (eds. Nelson, M.T. & Walsh, K.) 485-506 (2020).

24. Clezardin, P.*, et al.* Bone metastasis: mechanisms, therapies, and biomarkers. *Physiol Rev*
101, 797-855 (2021).

25. Phan, T.G. & Croucher, P.I. The dormant cancer cell life cycle. *Nature Reviews Cancer* **20**,
398-411 (2020).

26. Blasco, M.T., Espuny, I. & Gomis, R.R. Ecology and evolution of dormant metastasis.
Trends in Cancer **8**, 570-582 (2022).

27. Fafian-Labora, J.A., Rodriguez-Navarro, J.A. & O'Loghlen, A. Small Extracellular Vesicles
Have GST Activity and Ameliorate Senescence-Related Tissue Damage. *Cell Metab* **32**,
71-+ (2020).

28. Karni-Schmidt, O., Lokshin, M. & Prives, C. The Roles of MDM2 and MDMX in Cancer.
Annual review of pathology **11**, 617-644 (2016).

29. Clezardin, P.*, et al.* Bonemetastasis: Mechanisms, Therapies, and Biomarkers.
Physiological Reviews **101**, 797-855 (2021).

30. Atkinson, E.G. & Delgado-Calle, J. The Emerging Role of Osteocytes in Cancer in Bone.
JBMR plus **3**, e10186 (2019).

31. He, K.*, et al.* miRNA-99b-3p functions as a potential tumor suppressor by targeting
glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta in oral squamous cell carcinoma Tca-8113 cells. *Int J*
Oncol **47**, 1528-1536 (2015).

32. Chang, S.E.*, et al.* miR-99b-3p is induced by vitamin D3 and contributes to its
antiproliferative effects in gastric cancer cells by targeting HoxD3. *Biol Chem* **400**,
1079-1086 (2019).

33. Ni, L.W.*, et al.* MiR-221-3p-mediated downregulation of MDM2 reverses the paclitaxel
resistance of non-small cell lung cancer in vitro and in vivo. *Eur J Pharmacol* **899**(2021).

34.   Chen, B.*, et al.* SHANK1 facilitates non-small cell lung cancer processes through
698   modulating the ubiquitination of Klotho by interacting with MDM2. *Cell Death Dis*
699   **13**(2022).

700   35.   Ryan, C.*, et al.* Epidemiology of bone metastases. *Bone* **158**(2022).

701   36.   Wang, S.*, et al.* Moderate tibial loading and treadmill running, but not overloading,
702   protect adult murine bone from destruction by metastasized breast cancer. *Bone* **153**,
703   116100 (2021).

704   37.   Fan, Y.*, et al.* Skeletal loading regulates breast cancer-associated osteolysis in a loading
705   intensity-dependent fashion. *Bone Res* **8**, 9 (2020).

706   38.   Cheville, A.L., Kornblith, A.B. & Basford, J.R. An examination of the causes for the
707   underutilization of rehabilitation services among people with advanced cancer. *Am J*
708   *Phys Med Rehabil* **90**, S27-37 (2011).

709   39.   Ten Tusscher, M.R.*, et al.* Education Needs of Dutch Physical Therapists for the Treatment
710   of Patients With Advanced Cancer: A Mixed Methods Study. *Phys Ther* **100**, 477-486
711   (2020).

712   40.   Granger, C.L., Denehy, L., McDonald, C.F., Irving, L. & Clark, R.A. Physical activity
713   measured using global positioning system tracking in non-small cell lung cancer: an
714   observational study. *Integr Cancer Ther* **13**, 482-492 (2014).

715   41.   Granger, C.L.*, et al.* Low physical activity levels and functional decline in individuals with
716   lung cancer. *Lung Cancer* **83**, 292-299 (2014).

717   42.   Robling, A.G., Castillo, A.B. & Turner, C.H. Biomechanical and molecular regulation of
718   bone remodeling. *Annu Rev Biomed Eng* **8**, 455-498 (2006).

Figures

Figure 1

Figure 1. Osteocytes inhibited the proliferation of NSCLC cells.

a. Representative immunohistochemical staining and quantification of Ki-67 in bone metastasis site of patients with NSCLC. The dashed line indicates the boundary between bone and tumor. Scale bars: 50 μm. Blue arrows, low expression or negative of Ki67. Red arrows, high expression of Ki67. Tumor cells ⩽50 μm from bone tissue were defined as adjacent cells, and those > 50 μm from bone tissue were defined as surrounding cells. n=6; Student's two-sided unpaired t test.

b. An intraosseous model of bone metastasis was used via direct implantation of NSCLC cells A549 into tibia of nude mice. Three weeks after implantation, mice were sacrificed. Representative immunohistochemical staining and quantification of Ki-67 in tibia of tumor-bearing nude mice. The dashed line indicates the boundary between bone and tumor. Scale bars: 50 μm. Blue arrows, low expression or negative of Ki67. Red arrows, high expression of Ki67. Tumor cells ⩽50 μm from bone tissue were defined as adjacent cells, and those > 50 μm from bone tissue were defined as surrounding cells. n=6; Student's two-sided unpaired t test.

c. Schematic diagram of co-culture.

d. CCK-8 assays were performed to evaluate the effects of MLO-Y4 cells, MC3T3-E1 or NCM460 cells on the proliferation of A549 cells in the co-culture system. n=6; one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

e. EdU flow cytometry were performed to evaluate the effect of MLO-Y4 cells on the proliferation of A549 cells in the co-culture system.

f. CCK-8 assays were performed to evaluate the effect of MLO-Y4 cells on the proliferation of MC3T3-E1 cells in the co-culture system. n=6; Student's two-sided unpaired t test.

no significance (ns) P>0.05, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Osteocyte sEVs inhibited the proliferation of NSCLC cells.

a. Schematic diagram of serial centrifugation and concentration of culture medium. Conditioned

medium (CM) was separated into soluble factor (SF), large extracellular vesicles (lEVs), and

small extracellular vesicles (sEVs) fractions, by serial ultracentrifugation and ultrafiltration.

b. CCK-8 assays were performed to evaluate the effect of sEVs on the proliferation of NSCLC

cells. n=4, two-way analysis of variance with Sidak's multiple comparisons test.

c. EdU flow cytometry were performed to evaluate the effect of sEVs on the proliferation of

NSCLC cells.

d. Western blot analysis of the typical sEVs markers CD63, TSG101, and Alix. n=3; Student's

two-sided unpaired t test.

e. The concentration of the sEVs were detected by NanoSight Analysis. n=3; Student's two-sided

unpaired t test.

f. CCK-8 assays were performed to evaluate the rescue effect of GW4869 on the proliferation of

NSCLC cells co-cultured with MLO-Y4 cells. n=4, two-way analysis of variance with Sidak's

multiple comparisons test.

g. EdU flow cytometry were performed to evaluate the rescue effect of GW4869 on the

proliferation of NSCLC cells co-cultured with MLO-Y4 cells.

no significance(ns) P>0.05, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

 Figure 3

Figure 3. Osteocyte sEVs miR-99b-3p inhibited the proliferation of NSCLC cells by directly

targeting MDM2.

a. Comparison of relative miR-365-1-5p, miR-99b-3p, miR-193a-5p, miR-125a-3p, miR-690,

miR-1195, miR-122-5p, miR-140-3p content between MLO-Y4-sEVs and MC3T3-E1-sEVs by

qRT-PCR. n=3, student's two-sided unpaired t test.

b. NSCLC cells were transfected with miR-365a-5p, miR-30c-1-3p, miR-193a-5p, miR-99b-3p

mimics, or NC (negative control) in DMEM medium. 48 hours later, CCK-8 assays were

performed. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

c, d. NSCLC cells were transfected with miR-99b-3p mimics, NC mimics, miR-99b-3p inhibitor

and NC inhibitor.   48 hours later, EdU flow cytometry were performed. CCK-8 assays were

performed at different points in time after transfection. n=6, two-way analysis of variance with

Sidak's multiple comparisons test.

e. Schematic diagram of putative miR-99b-3p binding sites in the MDM2 3′-UTR. Green letters

denote mutation sites. Relative luciferase activities of wild-type (WT) or mutant (MUT) MDM2

3′-UTRs were determined in A549 cells, which were co-transfected with the miR-99b-3p mimics

or negative control. Luciferase activity was normalized using Renilla. n=4, Student's two-sided

unpaired t test.

f. MDM2 protein in A549 cells were analyzed by Western blot 72 hours after transfection. n=3;

one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

no significance(ns) P>0.05, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

 Figure 4

Figure 4. Mechanical stimulation increased the release of sEVs from osteocytes and

enhanced inhibitory effect of osteocytes on the proliferation of NSCLC cells.

a. MLO-Y4 cells were mechanically stimulated by stretching at 12% strain at a 1.25 Hz frequency

for 12 h, and sEVs were extracted from the conditioned medium. CCK-8 assays were performed

to evaluate the effect of sEVs on the proliferation of A549 cells. n=4, two-way analysis of

variance with Sidak's multiple comparisons test.

b. EdU flow cytometry were performed to evaluate the effect of sEVs on the proliferation of A549

cells.

c. Western blot analysis of the typical sEVs markers CD63, TSG101, and Alix. n=3, student's

two-sided unpaired t test.

d. Concentration of sEVs was detected by NanoSight analysis. n=3, student's two-sided unpaired t

test.

e. Mechanical loading was applied to the tibiae with bone metastasis via direct implantation of

GFP-LLC into tibia of mouse. qRT-PCR identification of miR-99b-3p in sEVs. n=3, student's

two-sided unpaired t test.

An intraosseous model of bone metastasis was used via direct implantation of murine Lewis lung

carcinoma (LLC) cells expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP) into tibia of mouse. Mice were

subsequently randomized into tumor-bearing only (control), tibial loading, tibial

loading+antagomiR-NC and tibial loading+antagomiR-99b-3p groups. Four weeks later, mice

were sacrificed.

f, i. Representative biophotonic images and quantification of fluorescence signal in hindlimb

bones of mice. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

g, j. Representative immunofluorescence staining images of Ki-67(green), DMP1(red), and DAPI

(blue) in the tibia of mice with bone metastases and quantification of the number of Ki-67-positive

cells in the images. The dashed line indicates the boundary between bone and tumor. Scale bars:

50 μm. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

h, k. Representative micro-CT imaging and quantitation of the tibia (bone/total volume) in mice.

n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

no significance(ns) $P>0.05$, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, $****P < 0.0001$.

 Figure 5

Figure 5. Moderate exercise combined with zoledronic acid effectively suppressed the

progression of bone metastasis of NSCLC.

An intraosseous model of bone metastasis was used via direct implantation of murine Lewis lung

carcinoma (LLC) cells expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP) into tibia of mouse. Mice were

subsequently randomized into tumor-bearing only (control), zoledronic acid (ZA), treadmill

running, and treadmill running combined zoledronic acid (treadmill running+ZA) groups. Four

weeks later, mice were sacrificed.

a. Representative biophotonic images and quantification of fluorescence signal in hindlimb bones

of mice. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

b. Representative immunofluorescence staining images of Ki-67(green), DMP1(red), and DAPI

(blue) in the tibia of mice with bone metastases and quantification of the number of Ki-67-positive

cells in the images. The dashed line indicates the boundary between bone and tumor. Scale bars:

50 μm. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

c-e Representative micro-CT imaging and quantitation of the tibia (bone/total volume, cortical

bone thickness, trabecular bone thickness) in mice. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with

Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

no significance (ns) P>0.05, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Exercise preconditioning effectively suppressed the progression of bone metastasis of NSCLC.

An intraosseous model of bone metastasis was used via direct implantation of NSCLC cells (LLC and A549) into tibia of mouse. Mice were subsequently randomized into tumor-bearing only (control), treadmill running before and after implantation of NSCLC cells into tibia (exercise preconditioning), and treadmill running after implantation of NSCLC cells into tibia (treadmill running) groups. For exercise preconditioning group, mice were subjected to 4 weeks of treadmill exercise before implantation of NSCLC cells into tibia of mouse. Four weeks after implantation, mice were sacrificed.

a. Representative biophotonic images and quantification of fluorescence signal in hindlimb bones of mice. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

b. Representative immunofluorescence staining images of Ki-67(green), DMP1(red), and DAPI (blue) in the tibia of mice with bone metastases and quantification of the number of Ki-67-positive cells in the images. The dashed line indicates the boundary between bone and tumor. Scale bars: 50 μm. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

c-e Representative micro-CT imaging and quantitation of the tibia (bone/total volume, cortical bone thickness, trabecular bone thickness) in mice. n=6, one-way analysis of variance with Turkey's multiple comparisons test.

no significance (ns) $P>0.05$, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$.

Figure 7

Figure 7. A hypothetic model depicting osteocytes induce and maintain tumor dormancy in

bone metastasis of non-small cell lung cancer.

Osteocytes, sensing mechanical stimulation generated by exercise or mechanical loading, inhibit

the proliferation and sustain the dormancy of NSCLC cells by releasing sEVs with tumor

suppressor miRNAs, such as miR-99b-3p, which inhibits the proliferation of NSCLC cells by

directly targeting MDM2.