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REVIEW

Nanomedicine strategies for cuproptosis: Metabolic reprogramming and tumor immunotherapy



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Abstract Cuproptosis, a recently discovered form of regulated cell death involving copper ion metabolism, has emerged as a promising approach for tumor therapy. This pathway not only directly eliminates tumor cells but also promotes immunogenic cell death (ICD), reshaping the tumor microenvironment (TME) and initiating robust anti-tumor immune responses. However, translating cuproptosis-based therapies into clinical applications is hindered by challenges, including complex metabolic regulation, TME heterogeneity, and the precision required for effective drug delivery. To address these limitations, nanoparticles offer transformative solutions by providing precise delivery of cuproptosis-inducing agents, controlled drug release, and enhanced therapeutic efficacy through simultaneous modulation of metabolic pathways and immune responses. This review systematically discusses recent advancements in nanoparticle-based cuproptosis delivery systems, highlighting nanoparticle design principles and their synergistic effects when integrated with other therapeutic modalities such as ICB, PTT, and CDT. Furthermore, we explore the potential of cuproptosis-based nanomedicine for personalized cancer treatment by emphasizing strategies for TME stratification and therapeutic optimization tailored to

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patient profiles. By integrating current insights from metabolic reprogramming, tumor immunotherapy, and nanotechnology, this review aims to facilitate the clinical translation of cuproptosis nanomedicine and significantly contribute to the advancement of precision oncology.

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1. Introduction

Cuproptosis, as an emerging form of regulated cell death, has garnered increasing attention in cancer therapy due to its distinctive biological mechanisms. Unlike traditional forms of cell death modalities, cuproptosis disrupts mitochondrial homeostasis through intracellular copper accumulation, triggering oxidative stress and leading to proteotoxicity¹. Importantly, cuproptosis has been identified as a promoter of immunogenic cell death (ICD), facilitating tumor antigen release, reshaping the tumor immune microenvironment (TME), and initiating robust anti-tumor immune response². Nevertheless, translating cuproptosis into clinical practice presents significant challenges, particularly in maximizing its immunostimulatory potential while preserving therapeutic safety and efficacy.

Tumor cells frequently exhibit metabolic reprogramming to adapt to the harsh microenvironment, enabling rapid proliferation and immune evasion³. By disrupting metabolic homeostasis—particularly mitochondrial function and glucose metabolism—cuproptosis propels tumor cells into a highly oxidized state¹. This metabolic imbalance not only drives tumor cell death but also amplifies immune activation, suggesting that metabolic modulation could synergistically enhance cuproptosis-induced immune responses⁴. However, given the metabolic plasticity of tumor cells and the complexity inherent in the TME, effectively harnessing and modulating cuproptosis-induced metabolic disruptions remain significant obstacles⁵.

Nanocarriers, with their unique physicochemical properties, offer promising solutions to address these therapeutic challenges⁶. Though precise drug delivery, controlled release, and modulation of the tumor microenvironment, nanoformulations enhance the efficacy of cuproptosis-targeted therapies and optimize immune activation⁷. Additionally, nanoparticles can synergize with immune checkpoint blockade (ICB)⁸, photothermal therapy (PTT)⁹, chemodynamic therapy (CDT)¹⁰, and other therapeutic modalities, further amplifying anti-tumor efficacy^{11,12}. Consequently, nanomedicine emerges as a crucial tool for cuproptosis-based immunotherapy, improving drug bioavailability, modulating tumor metabolism and reshaping immune responses (Fig. 1).

Building upon recent foundational reviews that detail the biological mechanisms, copper homeostasis, mitochondrial metabolism, and prognostic significance of cuproptosis across various cancers^{13,14}, this review expands the discussion toward the therapeutic potential of cuproptosis. Specifically, we emphasize its intrinsic relationship with tumor metabolism and immune regulation, two interdependent cancer hallmarks^{15,16}. Notably, cuproptosis is distinct from other regulated cell death forms such as ferroptosis, disulfidoptosis, and autophagy-dependent cell death, as it selectively targets mitochondrial lipoylated proteins, resulting in proteotoxic stress and enhanced immunogenicity¹⁷. Recognizing the tight interplay between metabolic pathways and immune activity, we propose a dual-track framework centered around

metabolic reprogramming and immune activation to guide the rational development and application of nanomedicine in cuproptosis therapies. Furthermore, we highlight emerging innovations such as real-time treatment monitoring through liquid biopsy, aiming to accelerate the translation of mechanistic insights into clinically viable, personalized oncology strategies.

2. Major challenges in the development and immunological application of cuproptosis-related drugs

Cuproptosis shows considerable promise in tumor immunotherapy; however, numerous challenges persist in developing and applying its drugs, especially in achieving effective immunomodulatory outcomes and addressing the complexity of tumor metabolism. The distinct mechanisms of cuproptosis, including its capacity to induce oxidative stress and modulate the tumor immune microenvironment, offer potential to strengthen anti-tumor immunity. However, gaining a deeper understanding of these mechanisms—and designing drugs that precisely trigger cuproptosis while circumventing metabolic barriers—remains a major challenge.

2.1. Molecular mechanisms of cuproptosis and their immunological implications

Cuproptosis is a unique form of regulated cell death characterized primarily by mitochondrial dysfunction triggered by excessive copper accumulation. This accumulation impairs mitochondria respiration, reducing ATP synthesis, increasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, and promoting oxidative stress¹⁸. Under hypoxic conditions, this effect is further amplified by the activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), which decreases cellular ATP levels and increases the AMP:ATP ratio¹⁹. Additionally, copper accumulation facilitates Fenton-like reactions, generating excessive ROS, exacerbating mitochondrial damage, and perpetuating a destructive cycle leading to cell death²⁰.

Beyond directly influencing tumor cell viability, cuproptosis holds significant implications for tumor immunology, notably through the induction of ICD. ICD results from the oxidative stress and extensive ROS production associated with cuproptosis²¹, causing damage to critical cellular structures, including the endoplasmic reticulum and cell membrane. This cellular damage facilitates the release of danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), such as HMGB1, ATP, and heat shock proteins (HSP70 and HSP90). These DAMPs are recognized by Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs) of innate immune cells, thereby initiating potent anti-tumor immune responses². Furthermore, mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) released into the cytoplasm due to mitochondrial disruption activates the cyclic GMP—AMP synthase (cGAS)—STING pathway²². Activation of this pathway triggers a phosphorylation cascade (TBK1 → IRF3), leading to type I interferon secretion and dendritic cell (DC) maturation²³,

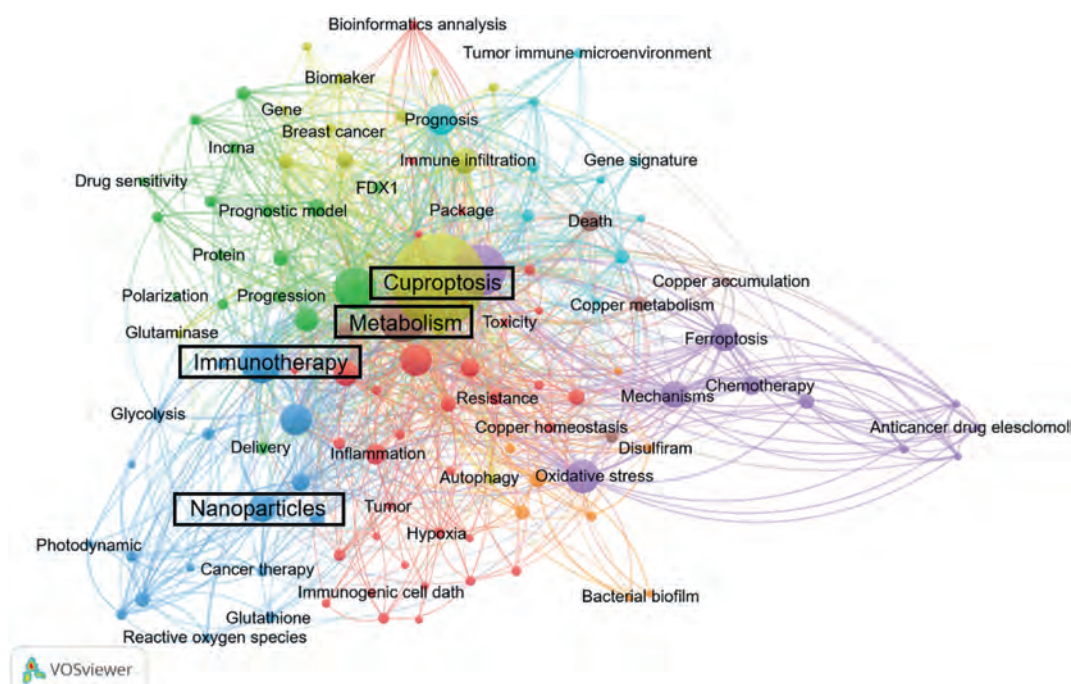


Figure 1 Term co-occurrence network analysis of cuproptosis-related research using VOSviewer. This visualization underscores the central role of cuproptosis in tumor metabolism and immunotherapy, emphasizing its links to nanoparticles, immunogenic cell death, and copper metabolism. The network uses color-coding to differentiate major thematic clusters: purple denotes molecular mechanisms of copper-induced cell death, blue centers on nanoparticle delivery systems and cancer therapy, green addresses metabolic reprogramming and immune responses, and yellow emphasizes bioinformatics and prognostic modeling in cancer research.

thus significantly enhancing their antigen-presenting ability and driving CD8⁺ T cell infiltration into tumors¹⁶. In addition to its role in activating DCs and enhancing T-cell responses, cuproptosis reshapes the tumor microenvironment by modulating macrophage polarization²⁴. Specifically, cuproptosis promotes the conversion of tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) from an immunosuppressive M2 phenotype toward an immunostimulatory M1 phenotype. This repolarization significantly reduces the prevalence of myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), further enhancing anti-tumor immune responses and improving the overall immune landscape of tumors (Fig. 2).

Interestingly, copper-induced oxidative stress can intersect with other cellular processes, especially ferroptosis. Copper and iron both contribute to ROS accumulation *via* similar Fenton reactions, thereby driving oxidative stress and cell death²⁵. Growing evidence indicates that copper is involved in ferroptosis, especially under cuproptosis conditions. For instance, elesclomol-induced cuproptosis reportedly inhibits colorectal cancer (CRC) by targeting ATP7A and regulating ferroptosis²⁶. Similarly, DSF/Cu triggers ferroptosis in nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells *via* ROS/MAPK and p53 pathways²⁷. In hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), DSF/Cu acts synergistically with sorafenib to inhibit NRF2 and MAPK kinase signaling, resulting in ferroptosis²⁸. Notably, ferroptosis also initiates ICD, and its combination with cuproptosis represents a promising avenue for improving tumor immunotherapy²⁹.

2.2. Progress in the development of drugs related to cuproptosis

The development of therapeutic agents targeting copper metabolism for cancer treatment includes strategies designed either to reduce copper bioavailability or enhance copper accumulation

within tumor cells, thus triggering cuproptosis. Copper chelators, such as D-penicillamine (D-Pen), tretinoin, and tetrathiomolybdate ammonium (TTM), have been investigated for their potential in regulating copper homeostasis and influencing cuproptosis. For instance, D-Pen attenuates copper-induced cytotoxicity by chelating copper ions and increases the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-6, and IL-23, which activate macrophages and augment autoimmune responses^{30,31}. On the other hand, TTM binds to ATOX1 to form a complex that blocks the transport of copper to LOX and inhibits its activity, which leads to cell death³². TTM also induces autophagy by stimulating autophagosome formation through activation of the AMPK/mTOR/ULK1 signaling pathway, and enhances the antioxidant capacity of tumor cells by elevating NRF2 expression, indirectly influencing immune regulation by modulating copper metabolism³³. Thus, the potential of these copper chelators in regulating copper homeostasis and immune responses provides strong support for an in-depth study of immune mechanisms induced by cuproptosis.

Cuproptosis-related drugs are generally classified into two main groups: copper-containing compounds and copper ion carriers, both capable of inducing cuproptosis by modulating copper metabolism within tumor cells (Table 1^{21,34-57}). Copper-containing compounds directly release copper ions into the TME, thereby activating cuproptosis and stimulating anti-tumor immune responses. Among the copper ion carriers, disulfiram (DSF) and elesclomol (ES) have attracted substantial research interest. DSF, historically employed for alcohol dependence treatment, exhibits promising anti-tumor properties⁵⁸. It is metabolized hepatically to produce DTC, which forms Cu(DTC)₂ complexes upon binding with copper ions, significantly enhancing anti-tumor effects⁵⁹. However, endogenous copper concentrations in tumor tissues often remain insufficient to

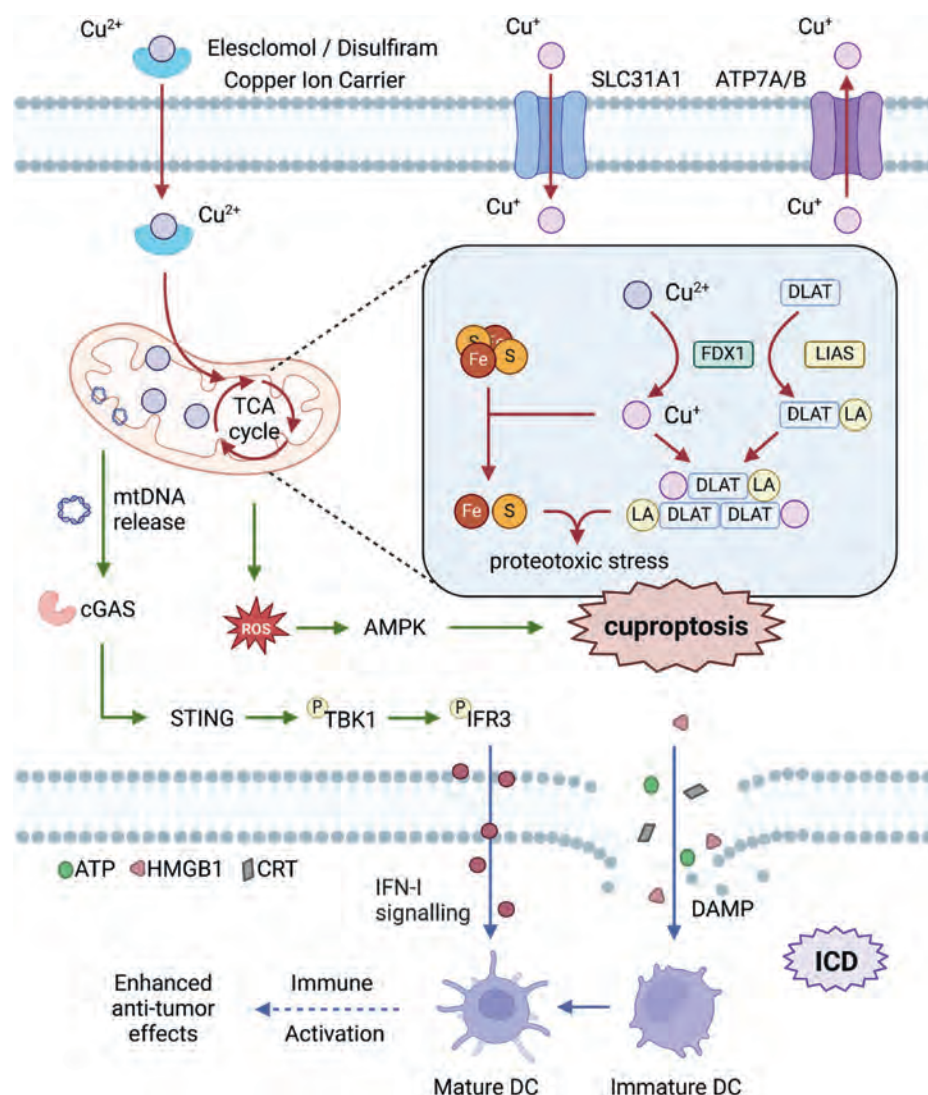


Figure 2 Biological mechanisms of cuproptosis and its effects on immune activation and ICD in tumor cells. Copper ion transport and accumulation result in cuproptosis, generating ROS, and activating the cGAS–STING and AMPK pathways. Subsequent proteotoxic stress drives immune activation by promoting DC maturation, which then augments the immune response and boosts anti-tumor efficacy. Red arrows signify cuproptosis mechanisms, green arrows depict metabolic process, and blue arrows represent immune pathways.

induce cuproptosis effectively. Consequently, separately delivering copper ions alongside DSF to form $\text{Cu}(\text{DTC})_2$ complexes *in vivo* could substantially increase therapeutic efficacy⁶⁰.

ES represents another promising copper ion carrier, although its precise mechanism and impact on the tumor immune micro-environment require further clarification. ES targets mitochondria and facilitates cuproptosis through the formation of ES–Cu complexes⁵⁵. Notably, melanoma cells lacking electron transport chain activity exhibit resistance to ES, indicating that the drug's effectiveness might depend upon mitochondrial functionality. This observation underscores the necessity for additional research to optimize ES's therapeutic potential, possibly through combination with other cuproptosis-inducing agents⁶¹.

2.3. Challenges of cuproptosis in tumor metabolism and immune regulation

Tumor cells exhibit remarkable metabolic plasticity, allowing them to survive and proliferate despite harsh microenvironmental

stresses, including those triggered by cuproptosis. This adaptive capacity involves enhancing antioxidant defenses⁶², reprogramming glycolysis⁶³, and altering lipid metabolism⁶⁴ to withstand hypoxia and nutrient deprivation. These metabolic shifts collectively reduce the therapeutic effectiveness of cuproptosis-based treatments by helping tumor cells resist induced cell death. Additionally, excess copper ions used to trigger cuproptosis can accumulate in non-target organs such as the liver, kidney, and nervous system, resulting in systemic toxicity and further compromising the safety and efficacy of this therapeutic strategy⁶⁵.

Although cuproptosis has the potential to activate anti-tumor immune responses, its effectiveness is significantly limited by immunosuppressive components within the TME. Cells such as Tregs and MDSCs suppress immune activation⁶⁶, while inhibitory cytokines like TGF- β and IL-10 create an immunosuppressive milieu⁶⁷. Furthermore, hypoxic and acidic conditions prevalent in the TME inhibit the activity and infiltration of immune effector cells. Tumor cells may also increase the expression of immune checkpoint proteins, such as PD-L1, facilitating immune escape

Table 1 Overview of drugs inducing cuproptosis: types, mechanisms, immunological effects, and clinical Applications.

Types	Drugs	Advantages	Immunological Effect	Limitations	Clinical Application
Copper compound	Copper nanoparticles (CuCl ₂)	Direct supply of copper ions ³⁴	Upward revision of PD-L1 ³⁵ , induction of ICD	Highly toxic; Lack of specific targeting ³⁴	Used in preclinical studies for the diagnosis and treatment of PCA ³⁶ , BC ³⁷ , GBM ³⁸ , etc.
	Copper oxide (CuO, Cu ₂ O, Cu ₂ O ₂)	High stability; release of copper ions in TME ²¹	Cuproptosis-dependent macrophage death ³⁹	Poor solubility; release rate difficult to control; Uneven distribution of organisms ⁴⁰	Preclinical studies for the treatment of ccRCC ⁴¹ , COAD ⁴² , LC ⁴³ , etc.
	Copper-sulfur compounds (Cu ₂ -S, CuSO ₄ , Cu ₂ Se)	Strong photothermal conversion capacity ⁴⁴	Photothermal response induced ICD ⁴⁵	Poor solubility and stability; Restrictions on direct application ⁴⁶	Preclinical studies for MEL ⁴⁷ , BC ^{48,49} , etc.
Copper ion carrier	DSF	Targeted delivery of copper ions to the body; Exhibits anti-cancer properties; Suppression of stemness-associated transcription factors ⁵⁰ ; Activation of the MAPK signalling pathway ⁵¹	Activation of T cell receptors enhances tumor immunity of CD8 ⁺ T cells ⁵² ; inhibition of the NF-κB/NLRP3 signalling pathway ⁵³	Short half-life; lacks tumor targeting ability; CuET poor solubility ⁵⁴	Clinical trials for MEL (NCT00256230), refractory sarcoma (NCT05210374), BC, (NCT03323346), glioma (NCT02678975)
	ES	Translocates copper ions to mitochondria ⁵⁵	Delivery of copper ions into mitochondria induces ICD ⁵⁵	High lipophilicity; short half-life; Cannot cause cuproptosis when used alone ⁵⁶	Clinical trials for MEL (NCT00522834) ⁵⁷

and further weakening the immune-mediated anti-tumor effects of cuproptosis⁶⁸. Thus, strategies relying solely on cuproptosis induction may not achieve sufficient immune activation to fully control tumor progression.

In addition to biological challenges, the clinical translation of cuproptosis-inducing agents faces substantial hurdles related to drug delivery. Conventional cuproptosis inducers often undergo rapid metabolism and clearance *in vivo*, resulting in subtherapeutic concentrations in tumor tissues and unintended accumulation in healthy tissues, leading to off-target toxicities⁶⁹. To overcome these issues, the development of advanced drug delivery systems is critical. Specifically, there is an urgent need for innovative delivery platforms that can enhance selective tumor targeting, precisely control drug release within the TME, and minimize systemic side effects, thereby significantly improving the therapeutic outcomes and clinical applicability of cuproptosis-based therapies.

3. Nanopreparations for cuproptosis: mechanisms of metabolic reprogramming and immune activation

Nanopreparations serve as powerful carrier systems that precisely regulate the onset of cuproptosis and modulate the tumor immune microenvironment through metabolic reprogramming. These nanoparticles can be engineered to target specific metabolic pathways in tumor cells, such as mitochondrial stress, glycolysis, lipid metabolism, and amino acid metabolism. By fine-tuning these processes, nanocarriers enhance copper accumulation, induce oxidative stress, and promote ICD, which collectively improve the anti-tumor immune response (Fig. 3).

3.1. Metabolic distinctions between cuproptosis, ferroptosis, and apoptosis

The core metabolic mechanism of cuproptosis lies in the fact that intracellular copper ion overload leads to abnormal aggregation of lipoylated proteins of DLAT, a key enzyme of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, which triggers a toxic gain of function¹. Cuproptosis directly targets mitochondrial metabolism and is particularly advantageous for selective killing of tumor cells that rely on aerobic respiration. Notably, cuproptosis differs from ferroptosis and apoptosis in the mechanism of metabolic regulation (Table 2^{1,70-72}). Ferroptosis is driven by iron-dependent lipid peroxidation involving ACSL4-mediated synthesis of polyunsaturated fatty acid phospholipids and failure of the GPX4 antioxidant system^{73,74}. Whereas apoptosis is dependent on caspase protease cascade reactions and mitochondrial membrane permeabilization^{75,76}. This is in contrast to cuproptosis, which disrupts energy metabolism by interfering with lipid acylation modifications.

For therapeutic applications, cuproptosis exhibits a unique window of metabolic vulnerability. Copper ion carriers synergistically target copper ions specifically to tumor cells, whereas normal cells can be less toxic due to the protective effect of the copper homeostasis regulatory proteins ATP7A/B⁷⁷. In contrast, ferroptosis is susceptible to Acyl-CoA Synthetase Long-Chain Family Member 4 (ACSL4) and ferroptosis suppressor protein 1 (FSP1)^{78,79}, whereas apoptosis is dependent on a protein hydrolysis cascade reaction in the death receptor or mitochondrial pathway^{80,81}. In addition, cuproptosis activates anti-tumor immune responses through the release of DAMPs. Whereas a number of previous studies have suggested that ferroptosis belongs to the ICD, the characteristics of the ICD are questionable and more

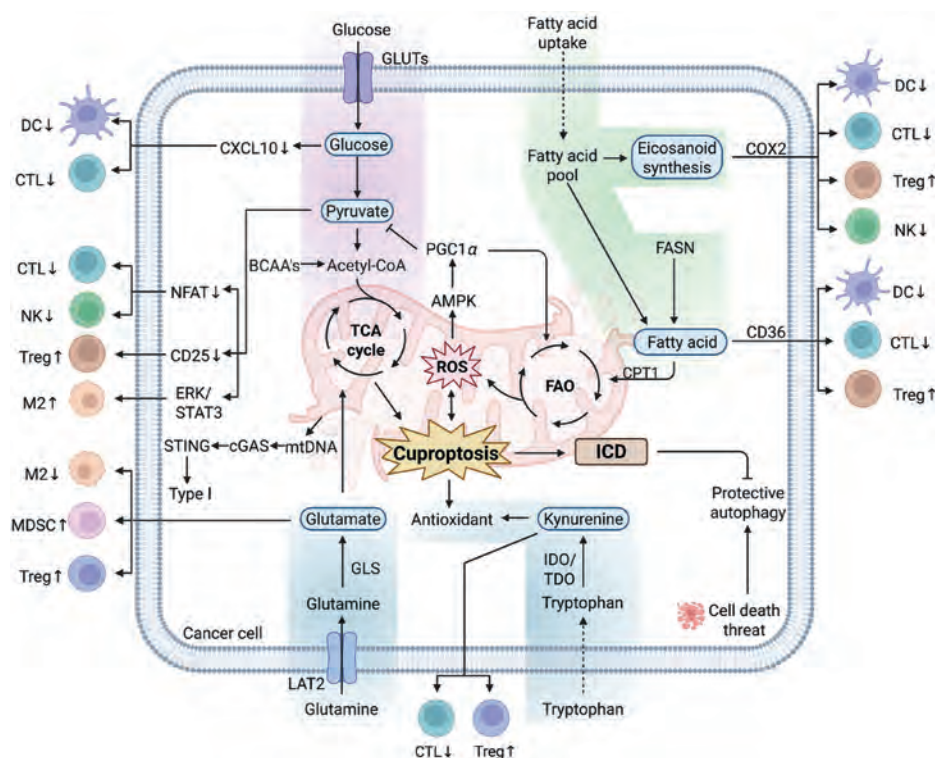


Figure 3 Metabolic reprogramming in tumor cells and immune microenvironment modulation *via* cuproptosis-induced cell death nano-preparations. Tumor cells produce immunosuppressive metabolites by metabolizing nutrients, thereby creating tumor-promoting conditions in the TME. Nanopreparations targeting cuproptosis can inhibit tumor growth and restore immune cell function by altering tumor cell metabolism. Cuproptosis is connected to three primary metabolic pathways: glucose metabolism (purple), lipid metabolism (green), and amino acid metabolism (blue).

Table 2 Comparison of cuproptosis, ferroptosis, and apoptosis in metabolic pathways and therapeutic implications.

Feature	Cuproptosis	Ferroptosis	Apoptosis
Core triggers	Copper ion-mediated disruption of the TCA cycle	Iron-dependent lipid peroxidation	Caspase activation
Morphological characteristics	Mitochondrial atrophy, membrane rupture	Mitochondrial shrinkage, cristae loss, membrane rupture	Cell membrane blebbing, apoptotic body formation
Key regulatory factors	FDX1, LIAS, DLAT	GPX4, ACSL4, FSP1, SLC7A11	BCL-2 family, caspases, APAF-1
Metabolic targeting	TCA cycle in mitochondria	Synthesis and peroxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acid-containing phospholipids	Mitochondrial membrane permeabilization, cytochrome <i>c</i> release
Potential for therapeutic applications	Targeting tumors with active mitochondrial metabolism	Targeting tumors with GPX4 deficiency or aberrant lipid metabolism	Broadly used to induce programmed tumor cell death
Immuno-activating properties	ICD <i>via</i> release of mitochondrial DAMPs	Controversial role in ICD induction	Generally considered immunologically silent
Ref.	1	70, 71	72

recent studies have suggested that it may suppress anti-tumor immunity⁷⁰. Apoptosis usually mediates immune silencing through phosphatidylserine ectopics⁸². This immune-activating property provides a potential advantage for combined immuno-therapeutic means of cuproptosis.

3.2. Mitochondrial stress and immune activation

Mitochondria are key sites for the initiation of cuproptosis. Copper accumulation leads to mitochondrial dysfunction, reducing

ATP synthesis and increasing ROS production, which activates immune cells through PRRs⁸³. This process promotes the maturation and antigen-presenting function of DC and activates the STING pathway *via* the release of mtDNA, further amplifying immune responses^{22,84,85}.

Nanopreparations can enhance mitochondrial stress by targeting mitochondria specifically. Mitochondria-targeted nanoparticles, such as those functionalized with triphenylphosphine (TPP), exploit the high lipophilicity and negative potential of the mitochondrial membrane, facilitating copper ion accumulation

and boosting ROS generation⁸⁶. Additionally, mitochondria-targeted synthetic macrofractions such as OPDEA and mitochondria-targeted peptides⁸⁷, which can further enhance tumor permeability⁸⁸⁻⁹⁰, allowing more efficient induction of cuproptosis and stronger immune activation.

This mitochondrial stress enhances immune responses by promoting the infiltration of effector T cells and suppressing MDSCs⁹¹. Moreover, ROS accumulation in the TME shifts immune cells from immunosuppressive (*e.g.*, Treg cells and M2-type macrophages) to immune-activating phenotypes (*e.g.*, M1 macrophages), significantly improving anti-tumor immunity^{92,93}. Furthermore, the combination of cuproptosis inducers and immune checkpoint inhibitors (*e.g.*, anti-PD-1/PD-L1 antibodies) can counteract immune escape mechanisms, enhancing immune surveillance⁹⁴.

3.3. Glucose metabolism and immune effects

The core mechanism of cuproptosis lies in the binding of copper ions to lipoylated proteins in the mitochondrial TCA cycle, which inhibits their activity and triggers metabolic disorders¹. FDX1 is closely related to glucose metabolism, and its high expression promotes oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), which enhances the cellular susceptibility to cuproptosis⁹⁵. As well as p53 inhibits PKM2 activity by up-regulating *circFRMD4A* expression, shifting glycolytic metabolism to the TCA cycle, thereby increasing sensitivity to cuproptosis⁹⁶. Cells dependent on mitochondrial respiration are more susceptible to cuproptosis than glycolytic cells, so in lung cancer cells, increased glucose uptake promotes glycolysis and inhibits cuproptosis¹.

Abnormal glucose metabolism in tumor cells contributes not only to rapid tumor growth but also to the establishment of an immunosuppressive TME⁹⁷. The increased glucose uptake and glycolysis in tumor cells produce excess lactate, acidifying the TME, which inhibits CD8⁺ T cell and DC function^{98,99}. This low pH environment also stabilizes HIF-1 α and arginase, polarizing tumor-associated TAMs to the M2 phenotype and promoting the differentiation of Treg cells, further promoting immune evasion^{100,101}.

Nanopreparations can target and modulate glucose metabolism in tumor cells, overcoming these metabolic barriers and enhancing immune response^{102,103}. Binding of glucose oxidase (GOx) to cuproptosis nanopreparations depletes glucose and inhibits glycolysis, thereby enhancing cuproptosis. In addition, it can be combined with glycolysis inhibitors⁸⁷ or lactate oxidase (LOx)⁴¹ to remodel tumor metabolism, shifting the energy production from glycolysis to OXPHOS¹⁰⁴. This reduces lactate production, alleviates TME acidity, and restores immune cell function¹⁰⁵.

Surface modifications of nanocarriers can also enhance tumor-targeting specificity¹⁰⁶. Ligands such as hyaluronic acid or folic acid can bind to overexpressed receptors (*e.g.*, CD44 or folate receptors) on tumor cells, increasing nanoparticle accumulation at the tumor site and enhancing the efficacy of metabolic modulation^{107,108}. By targeting glucose metabolism directly, nanoparticles synergize with cuproptosis inducers, boosting immune activation and the release of DAMPs from cuproptosis.

3.4. The role of lipid metabolism in immune regulation

Lipid metabolism in tumor cells play a pivotal role in regulating immune responses and the TME. High cholesterol levels in the TME can induce CD8⁺ T cell exhaustion, while fibroblast growth

factor 21 (FGF21) secreted by tumor cells exacerbates cholesterol accumulation in CD8⁺ T cells, leading to dysfunction¹⁰⁹. Arachidonic acid metabolites also promote immune evasion by activating the PPAR γ pathway, which increases PD-L1 expression on DC, supporting immune suppression^{110,111}.

During cuproptosis, lipid peroxidation and fatty acid oxidation (FAO) are promoted, generating large amounts of ROS¹¹². These products, including lipid peroxides (LPO), act as danger signals to activate DC and effector T cells, enhancing the anti-tumor immune response^{113,114}. Nanopreparations play a critical role in modulating lipid metabolism by targeting lipid metabolic pathways. Nanocarriers can enhance ROS generation through FAO and facilitate the upregulation of copper ions, which activates the AMPK–PGC1 α –PPAR α signalling pathway, promoting FAO and amplifying both cuproptosis and immune activation^{115,116}.

Nanoparticles such as copper metal–organic frameworks (Cu-MOFs), loaded with mitofloxacin and axitinib, can synergistically drive cuproptosis versus ferroptosis *via* Fenton-like reactions, generating hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot$ OH) and enhancing the overall immunotherapeutic effect¹¹⁷. These nanoparticles precisely target lipid metabolism, increasing oxidative stress and potentiating both ICD and immune activation.

3.5. Amino acid metabolism and regulation of the immune microenvironment

Tumor cells regulate amino acid metabolism to support their growth and suppress immune responses, particularly through glutamine metabolism and tryptophan metabolism. Glutamine is converted to glutamate *via* glutaminase (GLS), which is further involved in the TCA cycle¹¹⁸. Cuproptosis indirectly affects glutamine metabolism by interfering with the TCA cycle. GLS acts as a negative regulator in the process of cuproptosis, and its high expression negatively correlates with the susceptibility to cuproptosis¹¹⁹. Additionally, glutamine promotes the differentiation of CD4⁺ T cells into the Treg phenotype and CD8⁺ T cells into the memory T cell phenotype, contributing to immune evasion¹²⁰.

Nanopreparations can target and modulate glutamine metabolism, enhancing immune responses in the TME. Copper-doped polypyrrole nanoparticles modified with PM-coated BPTES (a GLS inhibitor) have been shown to inhibit glutamine metabolism, increasing ROS production and enhancing ICD¹²¹. This not only enhances tumor cell death but also reduces MDSC recruitment and promotes macrophage M1 polarization, boosting the anti-tumor immune response¹²².

Tryptophan metabolism has a potent immunosuppressive function, and its main metabolic pathway is the kynurenine (KYN) pathway¹²³. Among them, the IDO1 enzyme catalyzes the degradation of tryptophan, generating KYN, a metabolite that inhibits T and NK cell activity and promotes the expansion of Treg cells, enhancing immunosuppression¹²⁴⁻¹²⁶. Studies have shown that kynurenine enzyme promotes gastric cancer cell proliferation, invasion and resistance to cuproptosis, and reduces cuproptosis sensitivity by down-regulating LIAS¹²⁷. Moreover, tryptophan 2,3-dioxygenase (TDO2), the rate-limiting enzyme of the KYN pathway, is sensitive to oxidative stress¹²⁸, and its activity may be inhibited by cuproptosis induced oxidative stress, thereby restoring immune cell function.

In addition, branched-chain amino acids (BCAA) are converted to α -keto acids by branched-chain amino acid transaminase (BCAT) and enter the TCA cycle¹²⁹. Increased BCAA catabolism

promotes M2 macrophage polarization, and its dysregulation hinders CD8⁺ T cell function^{130,131}. By interfering with the TCA cycle, cuproptosis may indirectly affect the utilization efficiency of BCAA metabolites. Nano-formulations aimed at modulating BCAA metabolism can shift immune cell polarization towards an immune-activated M1 phenotype, enhancing tumor immunotherapy, and can be used for BCAT1 inhibitor delivery to enhance antitumor function of CD8⁺ T cells¹³².

3.6. The role of autophagy in immune regulation

Autophagy plays a dual role in immune regulation by both suppressing and enhancing immune responses. In the TME, autophagy promotes tumor cell survival by activating AMPK under hypoxic conditions, and tumor cells can evade immune surveillance by degrading MHC class I molecules^{133,134}. However, autophagy also enhances immune activation by promoting antigen presentation¹³⁵. Autophagic vesicles process intracellular antigens and present them *via* MHC I and MHC II molecules, activating CD8⁺ T cells¹³⁶.

Nanopreparations can modulate autophagy to enhance immunogenic cell death. By targeting autophagy pathways, nanocarriers can trigger ROS-induced autophagy, enhancing the release of DAMPs such as HMGB1 and ATP, which increase DC maturation and immune cell activation¹³⁷. Copper-based nanoparticles, like the copper (II) complex (LCU) are able to effectively kill HeLa cells *via* the ROS-triggered autophagy pathway¹³⁸. In addition, synergizing these nanoparticles with cuproptosis inducers enhance overall immune activation and improves the efficacy of cancer immunotherapy.

3.7. Summary of the differential impact of cuproptosis on tumor metabolism and immune activation

We explored the pivotal role of nanopreparations in mediating cuproptosis-induced metabolic reprogramming and immune activation. Nanocarriers target mitochondrial stress, glucose metabolism, lipid metabolism, amino acid metabolism, and autophagy to regulate the tumor microenvironment and promote immune responses. Cuproptosis enhances ROS generation *via* Fenton reaction, activates mitochondrial stress and promotes immune cell activation. Nano-formulations regulate glucose metabolism by inhibiting glucose transport or enhancing OXPHOS, etc., alleviating the acidic environment of TME and restoring immune cell function. Lipid metabolism further promotes immune response by inducing lipid peroxidation and activating NLRP3 inflammatory vesicles¹³⁹. Regulation of amino acid metabolism further disrupts cellular antioxidant homeostasis and enhances cellular sensitivity to cuproptosis. Autophagy enhances antigen presentation and amplifies ICD, boosting tumor recognition and clearance by the immune system (Table 3^{1,41,84,86,87,98,104, 114,117,121,130,131,133,138,140-150}).

While cuproptosis affects tumor cell metabolism, it also regulates immune cell function, especially TAM polarization and Treg metabolism. Cuproptosis affects TAM metabolic reprogramming and polarization through mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress. M2-type TAM is dependent on OXPHOS and FAO¹⁵¹, and accumulation of cuproptosis disrupts the function of OXPHOS and inhibits metabolic adaptations in M2-type TAM. The mtDNA released by cuproptosis activates the cGAS–STING pathway, induces type I IFN production, promotes M1 polarization, and remodels the immunosuppressive microenvironment^{23,152}. In addition, TCA circulatory disorders and oxidative

Table 3 Impact of cuproptosis on tumor metabolism and immune regulation: mechanisms, nanopreparation strategies, and metabolic reprogramming effects.

Metabolic pathway	Affected mechanism	Impact on immune response	Key nanopreparation strategies	Metabolic reprogramming impact
Mitochondrial stress	Mitochondrial dysfunction, decreased ATP, increased ROS ¹	Enhanced DC maturation, T-cell infiltration, immune activation ⁸⁴	Targeting mitochondria (<i>e.g.</i> TPP) ⁸⁶	Mitochondrial dysfunction, increased ROS ¹
Glucose metabolism	Increased glucose uptake, lactic acid production, TME acidification ⁹⁸	Glucose inhibits CTL and DC function ¹⁴⁰ , lactate inhibits T cell and NK cell function ¹⁴¹ , promotes Treg recruitment and macrophage M2 polarization ^{142,143}	Inhibits glucose uptake, inhibits glycolysis ⁸⁷ , depletes lactic acid ⁴¹	Inhibits glycolysis, reduces lactic acid accumulation, promotes OXPHOS, restores immune cell function ¹⁰⁴
Lipid metabolism	Promotes FAO, fatty acid oxidation, increased ROS ¹¹⁴	Fatty acids promote DC and CTL inactivation ¹⁴⁴ , increase Treg activity ¹⁴⁵	Inhibits cholesterol metabolism, promotes FAO ¹¹⁷	Enhanced FAO, increased oxidative stress, enhanced DC activation and T cell function ¹¹⁴
Amino acid metabolism	GLS metabolism, BCAA metabolism, Idol tryptophan metabolism, promoting immune escape ¹⁴⁶	Glu promotes Treg and MDCS recruitment ¹⁴⁷ , macrophage M2 polarization ¹⁴⁸ , Kyn promotes increased Treg ¹⁴⁹ , BCAA catabolism enhances M2 polarization and inhibits CD8 ⁺ T cell function ^{130,131}	Inhibits GLS activity, blocks glutamine ¹²¹ , inhibits Idol ¹⁵⁰ , inhibits BCAT activity	Breaks down immunosuppression, promotes T-cell activation, macrophage M1 polarization ¹⁴⁶
Autophagy	Facilitates tumor cell survival ¹³³ , modulates immune response ¹³⁸	Evasion of immune surveillance, protective autophagy ¹³³	Inhibits protective autophagy, promotes autophagic ICD ¹³⁸	Triggering autophagy-dependent cell death, enhancing tumor immunity ¹³⁸

stress triggered by cuproptosis can inhibit glutamine and kynurenine metabolism, which in turn inhibits Treg proliferation. Whereas Treg depends on lactate metabolism to maintain immunosuppression, its elevation promotes Treg proliferation¹⁰¹. The synergistic action of copper ions with LOx depletes lactate and impairs Treg function, enabling cuproptosis-immunotherapy¹⁵³.

The strategic combination of cuproptosis inducers with metabolic modulators and immune checkpoint inhibitors further strengthens immune responses, overcoming immune escape mechanisms. In a BC model, cuproptosis significantly increases CD8⁺ T cell infiltration and enhances therapeutic efficacy by optimizing reprogramming of glucose metabolism and lipid metabolism in conjunction with PD-1 antibody¹⁵⁴. Nanopreparations offer a promising therapeutic approach by precisely targeting these metabolic alterations, enhancing immune activation, and improving the overall efficacy of cancer immunotherapy.

4. Design of cuproptosis-based nanoparticles

Nanotechnology-based immunomodulatory nanopreparations for cuproptosis offer a promising strategy to enhance cuproptosis induction and immune responses in cancer therapy. These advanced delivery systems not only allow precise control over drug release but also enable the targeted delivery of cuproptosis inducers to the tumor site, increasing their efficacy while minimizing off-target effects. The ability of nanoparticles to modulate the TME and induce ICD presents a significant opportunity for improving tumor immunotherapy (Fig. 4).

4.1. Organic nanoparticles

Organic nanomaterials are particularly well-suited for promoting cuproptosis and enhancing immune responses due to their excellent biocompatibility, modifiable surface properties, and controlled drug release capabilities¹⁵⁵. These nanoparticles can significantly increase the stability and efficacy of cuproptosis-inducing agents, reduce toxic side effects, and precisely regulate immune responses through metabolic reprogramming of tumor cells.

4.1.1. Polymer nanoparticles

Polymeric materials commonly used as nanoparticle coatings, such as polyethylene glycol (PEG)-modified polymers and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), provide nanoparticles with 'stealth' characteristics. These stealth properties prevent rapid clearance by the immune system, thereby extending circulation times and enhancing drug bioavailability¹⁵⁶. For instance, DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀-NH₂ can be stably encapsulated on the surface of ES/CuO nanoparticles through covalent bonding. This dual protection strategy not only improves biocompatibility but also prolongs nanoparticle circulation, creating favorable conditions for the effective inducing cuproptosis²¹.

Moreover, polymeric nanoparticles can be designed to respond specifically to the oxidative stress generated during cuproptosis, primarily through Fenton-like reactions and associated ROS production. ROS-responsive polymers release additional copper ions under oxidative stress, enhancing copper accumulation in tumor cells and intensifying the cytotoxic effects associated with cuproptosis²⁴. Polydopamine (PDA)-modified DTC nanoparticles

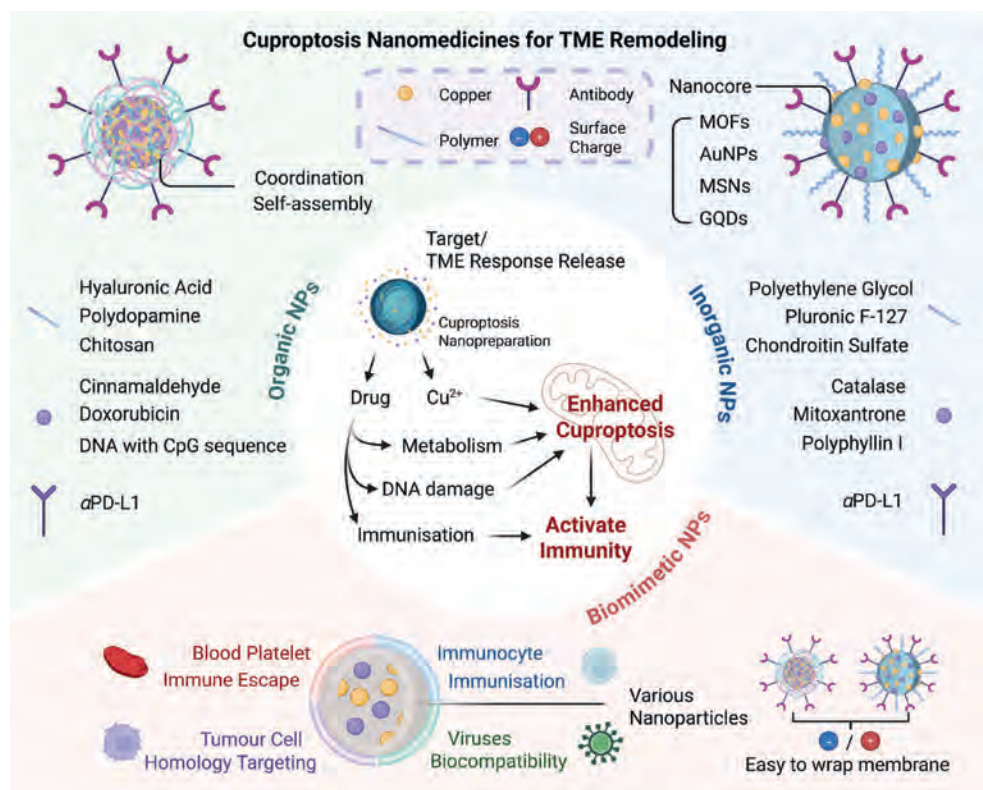


Figure 4 Cuproptosis nanoplatforms for TME modulation to enhance antitumor therapy. Cuproptosis nanoplatforms are carefully engineered to induce cuproptosis and reshape the immune microenvironment through multiple strategies, including targeted copper ion delivery, TME modulation, metabolic interference, and immune adjuvant integration.

can simultaneously accumulate copper within cells and inhibit copper export, significantly augmenting cuproptosis-mediated immunotherapy in 4T1 mouse BC model¹⁵⁷. Similarly, hyaluronic acid (HA)-functionalized Cu-Pic nanopillars enhance the anti-tumor immune response by blocking polyamine synthesis and uptake, causing intracellular polyamine depletion, and thereby promoting both cuproptosis and pyroptosis (Fig. 5¹⁵⁸).

Certain polymers also actively modulate immune response. For instance, polylactic acid-hydroxyacetic acid (PLGA) nanoparticles are efficiently internalized by antigen-presenting cells (APCs), leading to accumulation in peripheral immune organs such as lymph nodes. This accumulation facilitates the activation and differentiation of T cells¹⁵⁹. Additionally, polymers like chitosan and sodium alginate assist in nanoparticle delivery to immune cells, stimulating cytokine and growth factor production^{160–162}. These cytokines promote the differentiation and proliferation of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, significantly enhancing antitumor immunity¹⁶³. An illustrative example includes low molecular weight heparin tocopherol succinate nanoparticles loaded with chitosan and DSF, which activate the cGAS–STING signaling pathway upon inhalation. This activation promotes dendritic cell maturation and triggers potent antitumor immune responses driven by enhanced CD8⁺ T-cell activity¹⁶⁴.

4.1.2. Liposomes

Liposomes are versatile, lipid bilayer-enclosed vesicles composed of amphiphilic lipids or phospholipids, enabling them to encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic agents¹⁶⁵. Their structural flexibility makes them ideal carriers for cuproptosis inducers, facilitating precise delivery to tumor cells. In particular, liposomes are well-suited for combination therapies, outperforming traditional carriers in targeting tumor sites more effectively¹⁶⁶. For instance, during radiotherapy, tumor cells often exhibit varying degrees of damage, which can reduce uptake efficiency of conventional carriers. Liposomes, however, can fuse directly with cell membranes, enhancing drug internalization and ensuring efficient delivery to tumor cells¹⁶⁷. Furthermore, liposomes co-loaded with copper ions and cinnamaldehyde exhibit photothermal properties and, upon light exposure, generate ROS. This promotes LPO and establishes a positive feedback loop of ROS production by mediating HSP suppression, ultimately contributing to ICD and strengthening the effects of immunotherapy¹⁶⁸.

Additionally, liposomes can be functionally modified to achieve targeted release of cuproptosis inducers. This can be accomplished through the B-cell/antibody recognition pathway or by leveraging cancer-specific peptides presented on MHC-I molecules for T cell targeting^{169,170}. Such targeted strategies amplify

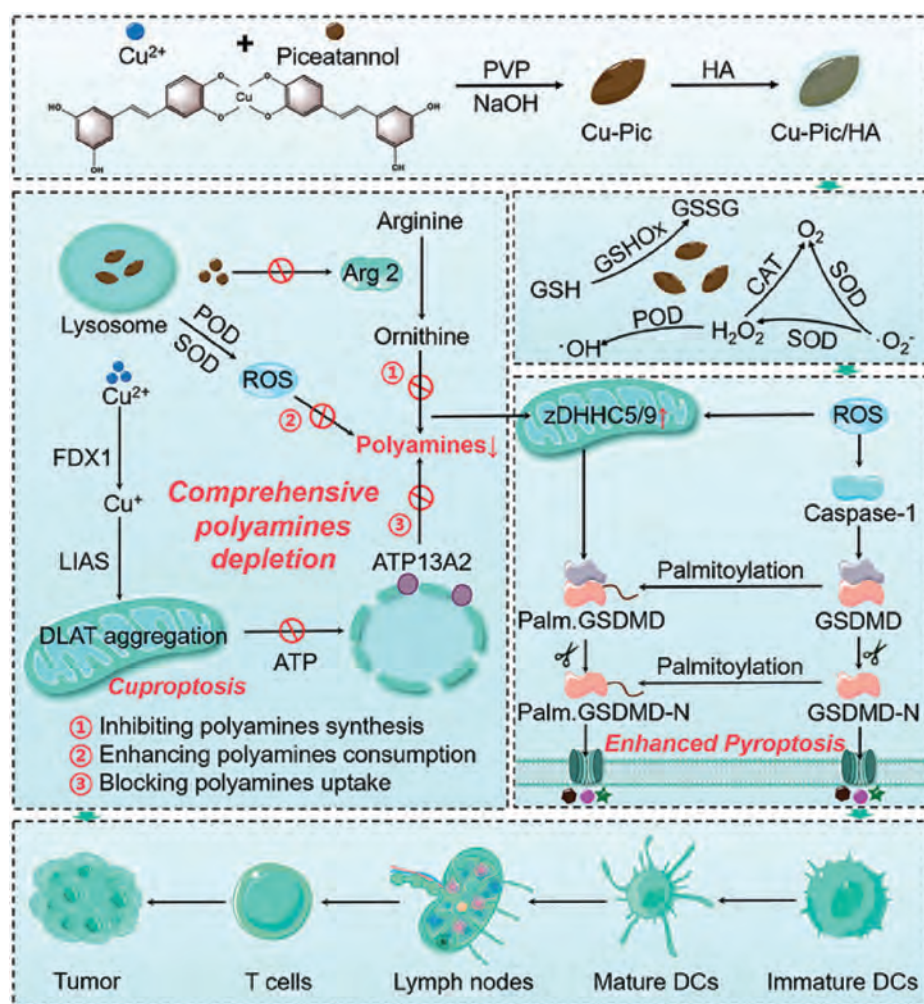


Figure 5 Schematic illustration of the mechanism by which Cu-Pic/HA nanoparticles enhance pyroptosis and cuproptosis via polyamine depletion and thereby activate tumor immune responses. Reprinted with the permission from Ref. 158. Copyright © 2024 Wiley Online Library.

the immune-activating of cuproptosis and enhance the overall efficacy of tumor immunotherapy. By improving both drug delivery precision and immune engagement, modified liposomes represent a promising nanopatform for advancing cuproptosis-based combination therapies.

4.1.3. Polyelectrolyte complexes

Polyelectrolyte complexes are used to encapsulate copper ions, facilitating their prolonged circulation and enhancing their ability to trigger cuproptosis in tumor cells. The positively charged regions of these nanoparticles interact with the negatively charged cell membrane, promoting the uptake of the encapsulated drugs and enhancing copper ion delivery directly to the mitochondria of tumor cells.

In addition to their role in cuproptosis induction, polyelectrolyte complexes can be engineered for gene therapy. For example, delivery of STING agonists through these complexes activates dendritic cells and T cells, enhancing tumor immunogenicity while simultaneously promoting cuproptosis¹⁷¹. Similarly, the delivery of *p53* gene can regulate oxidative stress and increase the sensitivity of tumor cells to copper-induced death¹⁷². Polyelectrolyte complexes can also deliver long single-stranded DNA (Papt) containing multivalent epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EpCAM) aptamers, specifically targeting tumor cells and improving drug targeting¹⁷³. Additionally, CpG sequence-based DNA can be delivered to activate TLR-9, increasing DC maturation, enhancing antigen presentation, and promoting T-cell activation, thereby potentiating the immune response triggered by cuproptosis¹⁷⁴.

4.2. Inorganic nanoparticles

Inorganic nanoparticles are particularly advantageous in cuproptosis-based therapy due to their high structural stability, optical and thermal properties, and catalytic activity. These properties make them ideal for both drug delivery and immune activation, especially in combination with photothermal and photodynamic therapies. The ability of metal nanoparticles to catalyze the Fenton reaction effectively promotes ICD, enhancing the anti-tumor immune response. Moreover, the integration of organic and inorganic materials through hybridization allows for multifunctional capabilities that improve drug efficacy and therapeutic outcomes.

4.2.1. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs)

MOFs are a promising class of inorganic nanomaterials that can be engineered to load copper ions, cuproptosis inducers, and immunomodulatory agents, making them an effective platform for both drug delivery and immune system activation. MOFs can be synthesized using impregnation-phosphorylation, solvothermal, and electrochemical methods¹⁷⁵⁻¹⁷⁷. Making it loaded with copper ions with ES triggers cuproptosis by depleting FDX1 and increasing mitochondrial ROS in tumor cells. This leads to ICD, activation of DC, and increased infiltration of CD8⁺ T cells, resulting in a systemic immune memory and enhanced tumor immune responses¹⁷⁸.

MOFs can be modified to optimize immune activation. Spike-like Cu-MOFs, for instance, can physically interact with the tumor cell membrane, triggering mechanical stimulation-sensitive cellular responses, including DNA damage and activation of the cGAS-STING pathway, which enhances immune system activation¹⁷⁹. The structural defects in MOFs allow for the formation of electron-distributed single metal catalytic sites, which enhance enzyme-like catalytic activity and ROS generation, further accelerating cuproptosis and improving immune activation¹⁸⁰. These

modifications provide new strategies for effective cancer therapy by simultaneously enhancing oxidative stress and immune responses.

In addition, OPDEA coating can be performed outside the Cu-MOFs to increase the cell membrane affinity of the nanoparticles through surface modification and promote effective uptake by tumor cells⁸⁷. Coating tumor cell membranes can likewise improve the biocompatibility of nanoparticles and enable homologous targeting¹⁸¹. Chondroitin sulphate (CS) can also be modified for CD44 receptor-mediated tumor-specific targeting and hyaluronidase-responsive charge reversal for effective cellular internalization (Fig. 6)¹⁸². All of these strategies can enhance the cuproptosis effect and thus induce immune activation.

4.2.2. Mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs)

MSNs are highly porous materials with large surface areas, making them ideal for drug delivery and immune modulation¹⁸³. Their porous structure allows for efficient loading and controlled release of cuproptosis inducers. MSNs can be used to APCs and enhance immune responses, significantly improving Th1 and Th2 anticancer immunity *in vivo*, as well as effector memory T-cells¹⁸⁴.

In cuproptosis immunotherapy, MSNs can deliver CuO₂ and cisplatin (DDP), enhancing drug loading and prolonging the action of the drugs *in vivo*¹⁸⁵. The acid-sensitive Si-O-Si bonds in MSNs enable them to respond to the acidic TME, facilitating the release of copper ions when the nanoparticles are exposed to low pH environments. Additionally, CuO₂-MSNs can decompose tannic acid (TA)-copper complexes at the TME, resulting in glutathione (GSH) depletion, inducing a severe redox imbalance, and significantly enhancing cuproptosis¹⁸⁶.

4.2.3. Layered inorganic nanoparticles

Layered inorganic nanoparticles, such as Cu-layered double hydroxides (LDHs), offer significant advantages in terms of high drug loading and cell surface affinity. The positively charged lamellar structure of Cu-LDHs facilitates interactions with negatively charged cell membranes, promoting effective cellular uptake. After internalization, it is suitable for causing copper ion release in the extremely acidic environment of lysosomes, triggering mitochondrial damage and enhancing the cuproptosis effect. Intratumoral administration can continuously acidify the tumor microenvironment, impede the lysosome-dependent autophagy process in tumor cells, and increase the number of anti-tumor TAMs and T cells, effectively inhibiting BC proliferation *in vivo*¹⁸⁷.

Layered inorganic nanoparticles (*e.g.*, MXenes) can be functionalized, *e.g.*, by binding targeting ligands (*e.g.*, aptamers, antibodies, etc.) to improve tumor targeting and enhance immunomodulation. Combining them with PD-L1 antibodies allows the materials to be preferentially enriched at the tumor site, blocking the PD-1/PD-L1 pathway, lifting immunosuppression, and promoting the activation and infiltration of effector T cells to further enhance the anti-tumor immune response¹⁸⁸.

4.2.4. Other inorganic nanoparticles

AuNPs have unique physicochemical properties that make them ideal carriers for cuproptosis inducers. AuNPs are capable of binding to copper ions and immunotherapeutic agents *via* electrostatic or covalent bonding, delivering a high concentration of immune adjuvants and antigens to tumor cells¹⁸⁹. This enhances immune responses and facilitates tumor cell killing, while improving the therapeutic efficacy of cuproptosis-based therapies.

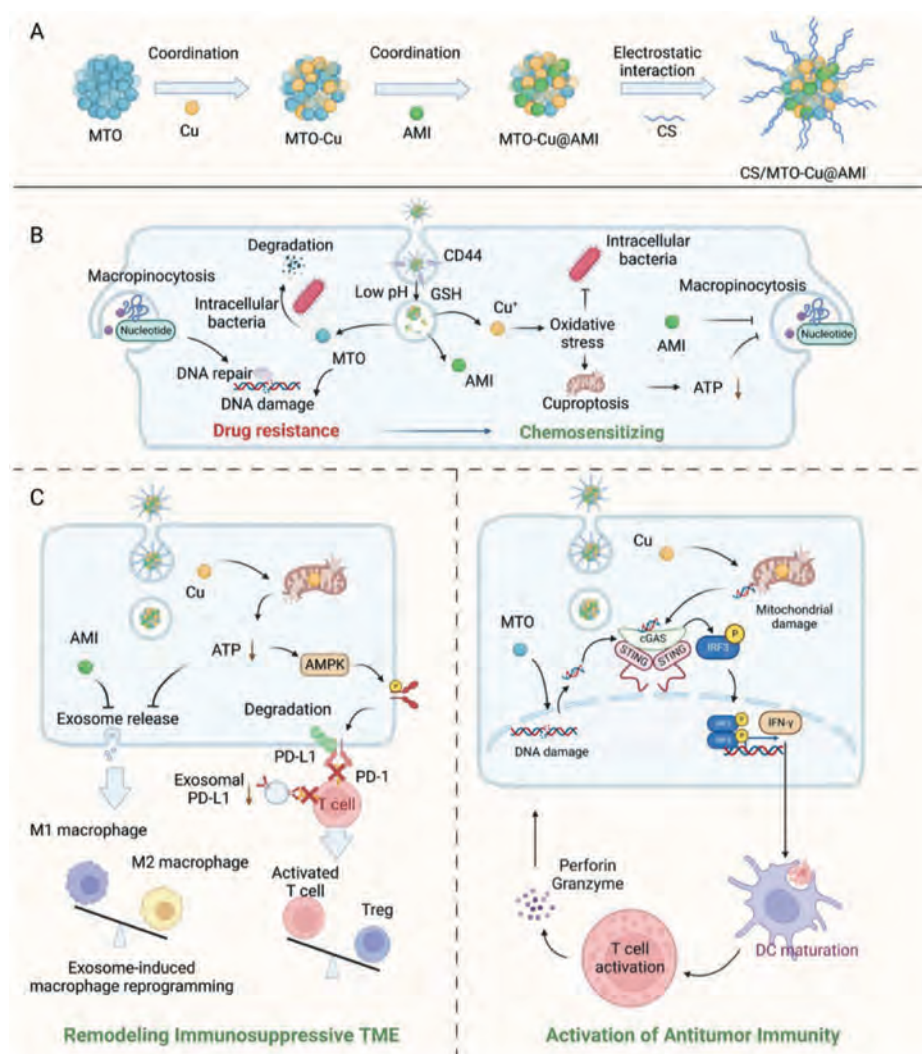


Figure 6 CS/MTO-Cu@AMI nano-adjuvant reverses chemoresistance and activates anti-tumor immunity through cuproptosis-induced mitochondrial damage, inhibition of megaloblast action and exosome release. Reprinted with the permission from Ref. 182. Copyright © 2023 Wiley Online Library.

The localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) effect of AuNPs plays a crucial role in immune activation. By absorbing specific wavelengths of light and converting them into thermal energy, AuNPs can induce ICD in tumor cells, activating the anti-tumor immune response¹⁹⁰. Combining gold nanocages with Cu-HSA and exposing them to near-infrared (NIR) laser irradiation enhances ROS generation and drug loading, triggering a strong immune response¹⁹¹. In addition, compared to spherical DSF-loaded copper-doped mesoporous silica-shelled gold nanorods, such rod-shaped AuNPs exhibit higher uptake efficiencies, allowing them to be adapted to different therapeutic conditions and to enhance the efficacy of cancer immunotherapy¹⁹².

Semiconducting ferroelectric materials combine ferroelectric and semiconducting properties to efficiently transport copper ions and catalyze ROS generation to promote cuproptosis. By introducing copper vacancies in Bi_2CuO_4 , these materials enhance piezoelectric and ferroelectric catalytic properties, which help to induce ICD by decreasing mitochondrial ATP levels, inhibiting copper ion efflux, and facilitating the release of HMGB1. This process promotes dendritic cell maturation, M1-type macrophage polarization, and T-cell differentiation, which enhances immune

memory and remodels the immune microenvironment. The synergistic effect of ferroelectricity and copper ion delivery provides a new strategy to overcome immunosuppression and enhance tumor immunotherapy (Fig. 7¹⁹³).

Graphene quantum dots (GQDs) are stable *in vivo* and effectively protect Cu_2O from degradation, reducing side effects on normal cells. GQDs also target tumor DNA and inhibit topoisomerase I/II, leading to DNA damage. Z-type heterojunctions formed by GQDs with Cu_2O inhibit electron-hole pair complexation and enhance the acoustic kinetic activity of Cu_2O , making it efficient in generating ROS that triggers cuproptosis and activates ICD, reverses immunosuppressive TME, and induces systemic immune responses¹⁹⁴.

4.3. Biomimetic nanoparticles

Biomimetic nanoparticles, which mimic the natural components of cell membranes, have emerged as a promising tool in cancer therapy. These nanoparticles take advantage of the unique properties of cells from various origins, allowing for targeted delivery and immune system evasion. By utilizing cell membranes or their

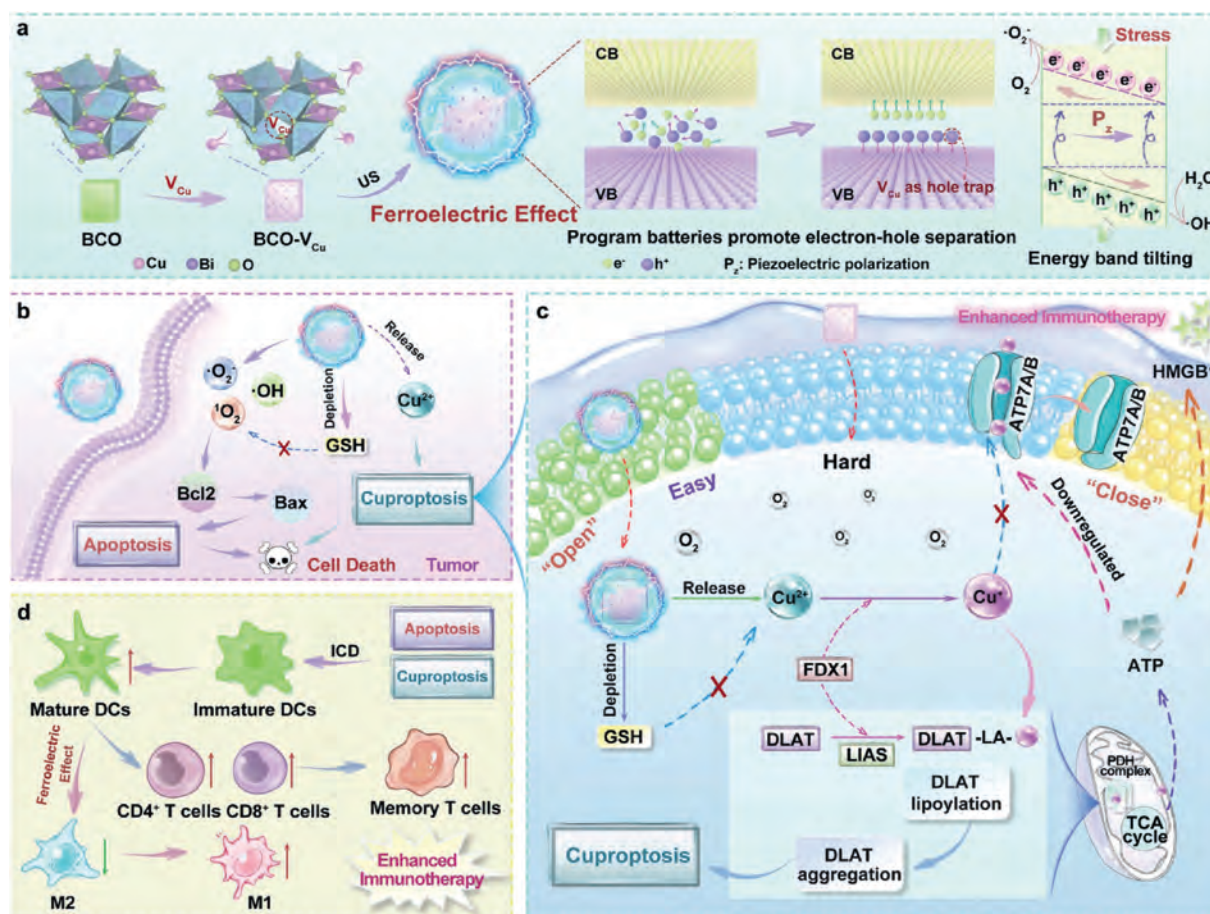


Figure 7 Schematic diagram of the ferroelectric effect of BCO–VCu and the mechanism of tumor immunotherapy. Reprinted with the permission from Ref. 193. Copyright © 2024 Wiley Online Library.

components, these nanoparticles can evade immune clearance, prolong circulation time, and enhance the efficacy of cuproptosis while simultaneously promoting immune activation.

4.3.1. Platelet membrane-camouflaged nanoparticles

Platelets naturally express surface proteins such as CD47, CD55, and CD59, which allow them to evade immune recognition and phagocytosis by macrophages^{195,196}. By using platelet membrane-camouflaged nanoparticles, Cu₂O and TBP-2 can be modified to carry P-selectin proteins that specifically target CD44 receptors on tumor cells. This cell-mimetic design ensures that nanoparticles can evade the immune system and specifically target solid tumors, enhancing the delivery of cuproptosis inducers while protecting them from premature immune clearance¹⁹⁷.

4.3.2. Tumor cell membrane-camouflaged nanoparticles

Membranes derived from tumor cells offer superior protection against immune surveillance compared to platelet membranes, allowing for more efficient targeting of solid tumors. For example, CuO@Gd₂O₃ nanoparticles loaded with LOx can be camouflaged with Renca tumor cell membranes to selectively target renal clear cell tumors. This biomimetic design not only enhances the precision of copper-based cuproptosis induction but also activates immune responses by promoting antigen presentation and enhancing T cell infiltration into the tumor microenvironment (Fig. 8⁴¹). By utilizing tumor cell membranes, nanoparticles can

homologously target cancer cells, improving the therapeutic efficacy and reducing off-target effects.

4.3.3. Microbial membrane-coated nanoparticles

Another innovative approach is the use of bacterial membranes for nanoparticle coating. *Escherichia coli*-based microbial nano-hybrids, when combined with Cu₂O nanoparticles, have demonstrated good biocompatibility and the ability to accumulate at tumor sites. These microbial membrane-coated nanoparticles are capable of inducing cuproptosis upon intravenous injection, specifically targeting colon tumors and reversing immunosuppression in the tumor microenvironment⁴². This strategy allows for the targeted induction of cuproptosis and enhances the anti-tumor immune response by promoting immune cell activation and ROS generation.

4.3.4. Immune cell membrane-coated nanoparticles

Biomimetic nanoparticles coated with immune cell membranes offer another layer of specificity and immune activation. For example, T-cell membrane-coated nanosheets loaded with DSF/Cu²⁺ can mask PD-L1 overexpression triggered by DSF/Cu²⁺, creating a positive feedback mechanism that enhances ICD and boosts tumor responsiveness to immunotherapy¹⁸⁸. DC and natural killer (NK) cells can also be used as nanoparticle coatings, further enhancing immune activation^{159,198}. Notably, NK cells and their surface proteins (e.g., RANKL) can interact with

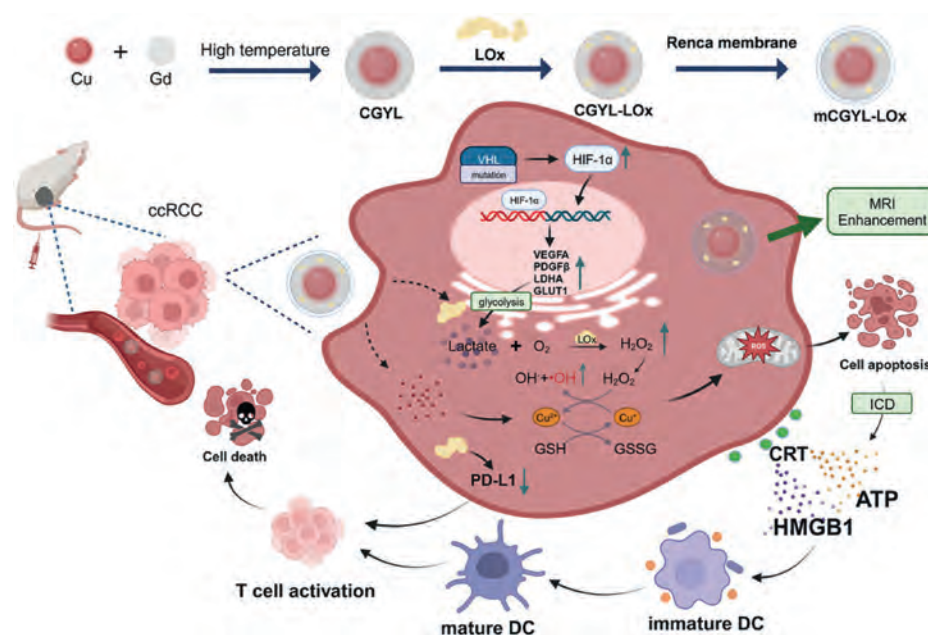


Figure 8 mCGYL-LOx exerts antitumor effects by inducing cuproptosis and CDT and is used in tumor immunotherapy. Reprinted with the permission from Ref. 41. Copyright © 2023 Wiley Online Library.

macrophage membranes to promote polarisation of pro-inflammatory M1 phenotypes and enhance tumor killing¹⁹⁹. By integrating immune cell membranes, nanoparticles can trigger synergistic immune activation in addition to cuproptosis, improving the overall tumor immunotherapy efficacy.

4.4. Overview of nanopreparations for cuproptosis induction and immune modulation

Nanopreparations are crucial for enhancing cuproptosis and modulating immune responses in the TME. Various nanopreparations induce cuproptosis through multiple mechanisms, including ROS and copper ion release, each providing distinct benefits for targeted drug delivery and immune modulation (Table 4^{24,41,158,167,168,174,179,180,182,185–188,190,191,197,200–217}). Organic nanoparticles (*e.g.*, polymer-based, liposomal) exhibit favorable biocompatibility and controlled release, whereas inorganic systems (*e.g.*, MOFs, gold nanoparticles) deliver enhanced catalytic activity and photothermal effects to boost ROS generation.

These diverse nanocarriers enhance drug delivery and immune activation, promoting antigen presentation and T-cell infiltration. The capacity to customize nanopreparations for specific tumor types and immune contexts underscores their promise in advancing personalized immunotherapy. Overall, incorporating these nanoparticles into cuproptosis-based treatment strategies offers a promising solution for overcoming tumor therapy challenges and enhancing clinical outcomes.

5. Synergistic application of cuproptosis nanopreparations with immunotherapy

Cuproptosis presents a promising avenue for tumor immunotherapy by triggering immune responses and enhancing the efficacy of traditional therapies. When combined with other therapeutic modalities, such as ICB, PTT, and sonodynamic

therapy (SDT), cuproptosis has demonstrated synergistic effects, providing a more effective and personalized treatment strategy (Fig. 9).

5.1. Combination with immune checkpoint blockade (ICB)

In the TME, tumor cells inhibit T cell activation by expressing PD-L1, which binds to PD-1 on T cells²¹⁸. ICB therapy lifts this immunosuppression, enhancing T cell recognition and killing of tumor cells. However, ICB monotherapy often faces challenges such as low tumor immunogenicity and insufficient T-cell infiltration²¹⁹. As illustrated in Fig. 9, sustained elevation of copper ion levels can promote PD-L1 expression on tumor cells, thus laying the foundation for improving the effectiveness of anti-PD-L1 therapy³⁵. In addition, cuproptosis further enhances the anti-tumor immune response by inducing mitochondrial damage, depriving energy supply, and then activating the AMPK pathway to promote PD-L1 degradation¹⁸². Therefore, the combination of cuproptosis and ICB not only promotes T-cell infiltration and activation, but also doubly regulates PD-L1 expression, thereby synergistically enhancing the efficacy of tumor immunotherapy²²⁰.

Nanopreparations provide an efficient way to deliver both cuproptosis inducers and immune checkpoint inhibitors simultaneously. CuP/Er nanoparticles promote lipid peroxidation by inhibiting aerobic glycolysis, depleting GSH, and generating ROS, which induces cuproptosis along with ferroptosis¹⁵⁴. By combining αPD-L1, the proliferation and activation of T cells can be enhanced, thus providing a more effective antitumor immunotherapy strategy.

Mitoxantrone was liganded with copper ions and loaded with amiloride for topical targeting of CS modification. Cu²⁺ triggered cuproptosis-induced mitochondrial dysfunction, which activated AMPK pathway-mediated degradation of PD-L1 proteins, and amiloride inhibited megaloblastoid action and exocytosis, thus effectively increasing the susceptibility to immunotherapy. In addition, dsDNA damaged during treatment activates the

Table 4 Comparison of various nanopreparations for cuproptosis induction and immunomodulation.

Type	Mechanism of cuproptosis induction	Type function characteristics	Disadvantages	Mechanisms of immunity	Clinical phase
Polymer nanoparticles	Targeted delivery of copper ions, interferes with copper metabolism ¹⁵⁸	High drug stability, biocompatibility, targeting and controlled release, immunomodulatory function ^{24,158}	Complex synthesis, potentially toxic ¹⁵⁸	Copper ions and ROS-induced ICD enhance immunity ²⁴	Albumin-bound paclitaxel Abraxane [®] for pancreatic cancer (NCT00691054) and metastatic BC (NCT00308178) ²⁰⁰
Liposomes	Encapsulation of cuproptosis drugs, induction of oxidative stress and cell death ¹⁶⁸	Biocompatible, low immunogenicity, suitable for combination therapy ¹⁶⁷	Challenges to large-scale production, high preparation costs ¹⁶⁷	Avoid clearance by the immune system, combine with other therapies, enhance ICD ¹⁶⁷	Doxil [®] for recurrent ovarian cancer (NCT00248248) and human immunodeficiency virus-induced Kaposi's sarcoma (NCT05567601) ^{201,202} , Marqibo against acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (NCT00495079) ²⁰³ , Depcyte [®] against tumorous meningitis (NCT00854867) ²⁰⁴
Polyelectrolyte complexes	Charge interactions promote drug uptake ¹⁷⁴	High transfection efficiency, easy functionalisation, enhanced immune system activation, combined with gene therapy ¹⁷⁴	More complex design, potentially higher immune response ¹⁷⁴	Combined gene therapy enhances immunisation ¹⁷⁴	Widely used in preclinical experiments such as mesothelioma ²⁰⁵ , hepatocellular carcinoma ²⁰⁶
Metal-organic frameworks	Porous structure efficiently loaded with copper ions, structural changes to promote uptake ^{179,180}	High surface area and structural tunability, good drug loading capacity and release control, significant immunomodulatory effect ^{179,182}	Complex preparation process, high production cost ¹⁸⁰	Structural adjustments to improve immune activation and high drug loads to promote immunological effects of cuproptosis ^{179,180}	Widely used in preclinical experiments, such as triple-negative BC ²⁰⁷ , pancreatic cancer ²⁰⁸ , rectal cancer ²⁰⁹
Mesoporous silica nanoparticles	High cuproptosis death drug load, released under acidic conditions ¹⁸⁶	Large specific surface area with nanopores, TME responsiveness, as an immunoadjuvant ¹⁸⁶	Requires more complex surface modification and functionalization ¹⁸⁶	Enhances antigen presentation and T-cell activation, improve immune response ¹⁸⁵	In phase II clinical trials, cRGDY-PEG-Cy5.5-nanoparticles were used for head and neck melanoma sentinel lymph node detection (NCT02106598) ²¹⁰
Layered inorganic nanoparticles	Laminar patch structure promotes copper ion accumulation ²¹¹	High aspect ratio, high surface area, high drug loading capacity, strong cell surface affinity ¹⁸⁸	Still need to optimize functionalization, complex synthesis process ¹⁸⁸	Promotes tumor cell uptake and enhances the immune effects of cuproptosis ¹⁸⁷	Widely used in preclinical experiments, such as BC ²¹² , sarcoma osteoma ²¹³
Other (gold nanoparticles)	SPR effect generates thermal energy, activates copper ion release and triggers oxidative stress ¹⁹¹	High biocompatibility, surface modifiable, flexible morphology control, photothermal effect ^{190,191}	High cost, lower productivity ¹⁹¹	Photothermal and ROS effects promote immune activation ¹⁹¹	Widely used in preclinical studies such as bladder cancer ²¹⁴ , cervical cancer ²¹⁵
Biomimetic nanoparticles	Mimics natural cells to promote drug uptake ¹⁹⁷	Mimics cellular components for precise targeted delivery, enhanced immune surveillance ^{41,188}	Complex preparation, high difficulty in large-scale production ¹⁸⁸	Enhance tumor cell uptake, activate and enhance immune cell function ^{41,188}	Widely used in preclinical experiments, such as BC ²¹⁶ , glioblastoma ²¹⁷

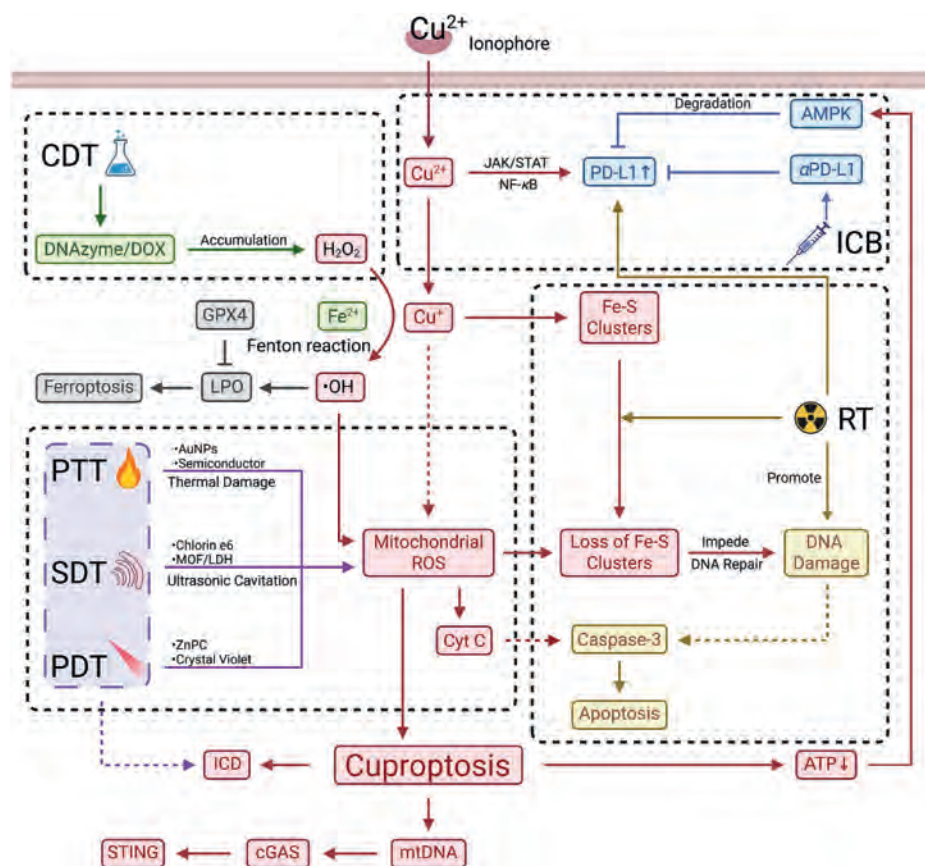


Figure 9 Synergistic mechanisms between cuproptosis and combined therapeutic modalities in enhancing anti-Tumor immunity. Multiple therapeutic strategies synergize with cuproptosis by elevating ROS levels, inducing oxidative stress, and disrupting organelle homeostasis (including mitochondria, nucleus, endoplasmic reticulum, and lysosomes). These effects collectively enhance tumor immunogenicity and relieve immunosuppression, thereby potentiating anti-tumor immune responses. (i) Chemodynamic therapy (CDT) synergizes with cuproptosis primarily through Fenton-like reactions, thereby enhancing tumor chemosensitivity. (ii) Photothermal therapy (PTT), sonodynamic therapy (SDT), and photodynamic therapy (PDT) synergize with cuproptosis by promoting mitochondrial ROS accumulation. (iii) Radiotherapy (RT) synergizes with cuproptosis by disrupting Fe–S clusters and activating caspase-3-mediated apoptosis. (iv) Immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) synergizes with cuproptosis through pathways such as JAK–STAT and NF- κ B, enhancing immune activation.

cGAS–STING pathway, further stimulating anti-tumor immunity¹⁸².

5.2. Combination with photothermal therapy (PTT)

PTT uses NIR light to generate heat, which induces tumor cell death by disrupting cellular structures. The thermal effect also activate immune responses by triggering heat shock protein (HSP) transcription and promoting NK recruitment^{221,222}. However, the immunostimulatory effect of PTT itself is more limited. When combined with cuproptosis agents, as presented in Fig. 9, PTT enhances the release of ROS and promotes the release of copper ions from nanocarriers, which accelerates the onset of cuproptosis, thereby inducing ICD and enhancing anti-tumor immune responses. And tumors are more sensitive to heat and cuproptosis due to their hypoxic and weakly acidic microenvironment²²³. Thus, the combination therapy of PTT and cuproptosis is more effective in synergistically suppressing tumors by expanding ICD, increasing ROS accumulation, and disrupting tumor cell homeostasis.

Organic semiconductor polymers have high photothermal conversion efficiency, NIR-II ultra-small polymer dots (Pdts)

bind to DOX and enhance cuproptosis and ICD effects through Cu (II)-mediated ligand self-assembly by utilizing the NIR-II absorption properties and releasing copper ions and ROS under laser irradiation. GSH depletion makes the tumor cells more sensitive to oxidative stress, and the synergistic effect of DOX further enhancement of ICD, combined with α PD-L1 can activate the immune response and improve the therapeutic effect²²⁴.

Copper-sulfur compounds and copper oxide are excellent photothermal materials but poorly water-soluble. Cu₂-xS nano-preparations were prepared by glucose-mediated biomineralization to target tumors using the high glucose metabolism of tumor cells, and NIR-II laser irradiation releases copper ions to react with GSH to generate ROS, induce ICD and activate systemic immune responses²²⁵.

5.3. Combination with chemodynamic therapy (CDT)

CDT induces tumor cell death using Fenton or Fenton-like reactions to generate $\cdot$ OH within the tumor²²⁶. However, low levels of H₂O₂ in the tumor may limit the effectiveness of CDT²²⁷. As shown in Fig. 9, H₂O₂ generation was promoted by the addition of drugs capable of generating H₂O₂, whereas copper ions, due to

their higher Fenton reaction rate and stability over a wide pH range, accelerated the decomposition of H_2O_2 and promoted the accumulation of ROS, thus enhancing oxidative stress and inducing cuproptosis²²⁸. Excess ROS generated during this process can deplete intracellular GSH, weakening the antioxidant defense of tumor cells and further exacerbating oxidative damage. Therefore, the combination of cuproptosis and CDT significantly enhances ROS generation, disrupts cellular homeostasis, promotes immune activation, and improves tumor therapeutic efficacy.

Copper nanoparticles, based on Fenton-like reactions, enhance the generation of hydroxyl radicals ($-\text{OH}$) and O_2 , thereby amplifying oxidative stress. Disulfide-bonded hybrid copper/iron amorphous metal–organic framework (HaMOF), an amorphous MOF that lacks long-range ordering and has excellent catalytic activity, amplifies oxidative stress, increases H_2O_2 production, depletes GSH, and triggers cuproptosis, ferroptosis, and apoptosis²²⁸.

The generation of Cu^{2+} and H_2O_2 by copper oxides in acidic tumor microenvironments further expands the application of CDT. Cu_2O nanocomplexes with ZIF-8 as a carrier, which adsorbed DNase on its surface, enhanced the effect of cuproptosis by specifically cleaving CAT-associated RNA to increase intracellular H_2O_2 levels²²⁹. This combination enhances the immune response and promotes the synergistic effect of cuproptosis and CDT.

5.4. Combination with photodynamic therapy (PDT)

PDT kills tumor cells by generating singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$) through photosensitizers (PS) upon light activation. Although it has been used in clinical practice, its therapeutic effect is often limited by the hypoxia of the TME, and the shallower penetration depth of light in the tissue also affects its killing effect on deeper tumors²³⁰. Cuproptosis can form a synergy with PDT to compensate for these deficiencies. As depicted in Fig. 9, Copper ions enhance PDT-induced oxidative damage by enhancing the Fenton reaction to increase the efficiency of ROS generation and by triggering oxidative stress in the deeper layers of the tumor independently of the area of light exposure. In addition, PDT promotes the release of tumor antigens and immunostimulatory molecules, while cuproptosis also induces ICD, both of which work together to activate the immune system and further enhance anti-tumor therapeutic effects²³¹.

Some nanomaterials can be excellent photosensitizers in their own right. Nano-heterostructures consisting of heterogeneous carbon nitride nanosheets (HCN) and copper-loaded 1T-MoS₂ nanosheets (CuMS) have strong reducing properties with high specific surface area and sulfur-rich sites, and this structure enhances NIR light-induced catalytic activity and ROS generation, inducing potent cuproptosis²³².

MOF-derived materials, such as copper-loaded mesoporous structures, improve the efficiency of PDT by maximizing photosensitizer loading and enhancing ROS generation. Dispersion of single-atom nanoenzymes (SAzymes) in MOF maximizes catalytic activity and induces cuproptosis and ferroptosis, thereby reversing the TME¹⁸¹. By synergizing with cuproptosis, these agents can overcome the limitations of PDT, improve immune responses, and enhance the efficacy of cancer immunotherapy.

5.5. Combination with sonodynamic therapy (SDT)

SDT uses ultrasound (US) to activate acoustic sensitizers, which generate ROS and trigger a cavitation effect, thereby promoting

tumor cell death. Although it has a similar mechanism of ROS generation as in PDT and the antitumor immune effects are also limited by the hypoxic conditions of TME, SDT has greater tissue permeability and catalytic properties²³³. As demonstrated in Fig. 9, after the synergistic application of SDT and cuproptosis, the cavitation effect of SDT can enhance the generation of ROS, and the stability and persistence of ROS can be improved by the Fenton reaction of cuproptosis, which can form a synergistic amplification effect^{45,231}. Moreover, cuproptosis and SDT can jointly induce ICD and promote DC maturation and antigen presentation, thus enhancing anti-tumor immune response and therapeutic efficacy.

MOF-derived materials with high surface area and porous structure enhance the ultrasound cavitation effect, facilitating ROS generation under US irradiation. $\text{Cu}_2\text{-xSe@cMOF}$ nanoparticles promote cuproptosis and selenium ion release under ultrasonic irradiation, selenium ion conversion to H_2Se , which further promotes cell death *via* gas therapy and further enhances immune response in combination with ICB therapy⁴⁵.

LDH due to its unique layered structure permits optimization of its acoustic-dynamic therapeutic properties through chemical composition and structural modulation. Copper-substituted ZnAl ternary LDH nanosheets (ZCA NS) exhibit a strong Jahn-Teller effect that provides additional active sites to promote ROS generation. ZCA NS exhibits excellent ICD properties under ultrasound irradiation and enhances immune effects by increasing cuproptosis and SDT sensitivity through GSH depletion (Fig. 10²¹¹).

5.6. Combination with radiotherapy (RT)

RT induces DNA damage by ionizing radiation, ultimately leading to apoptosis. Notably, the expression of cuproptosis-related proteins (FDX1 and LIAS) was up-regulated in residual tumor tissues after radiotherapy, increasing the sensitivity of tumor cells to cuproptosis²³⁴. As depicted in Fig. 9, Cu^{2+} in cuproptosis impairs cellular DNA repair by inhibiting the synthesis of Fe–S cluster proteins. Radiotherapy induced DNA damage is more difficult to repair in this situation, resulting in cells that are more sensitive to radiotherapy²³⁵. And RT was able to increase the expression of PD-L1 in tumor cells, which provided the basis for further combination therapy with ICB²³⁶.

A copper-containing polymetallic oxygenate material (PWCu) was designed as a nanocapsule structure. Its ultra-high specific surface area of CuO_6 octahedron, which is highly susceptible to reduction by water-radiated reductants, releases Cu ions to induce cuproptosis when activated by X-ray irradiation, further stimulating immune responses and optimizing RT effects to improve tumor selectivity and killing efficiency²³⁴.

PVP-coated copper (Cu^{2+}) and hafnium-doped nanoparticles amplify ROS generation, induce DNA damage, cuproptosis, and enhance immune response under radiation. This combination likewise optimizes the RT effect and improves tumor selectivity and killing efficiency²³⁷.

5.7. Overview of synergistic strategies for cuproptosis-based immunotherapy

The clinical translation of cuproptosis nanopreparations still faces significant challenges, particularly regarding the long-term cumulative toxicity of metal ions. In healthy adults, serum copper levels typically range from 70 to 140 $\mu\text{g/dL}$ ²³⁸, and prolonged exposure to elevated copper concentrations can result in metabolic

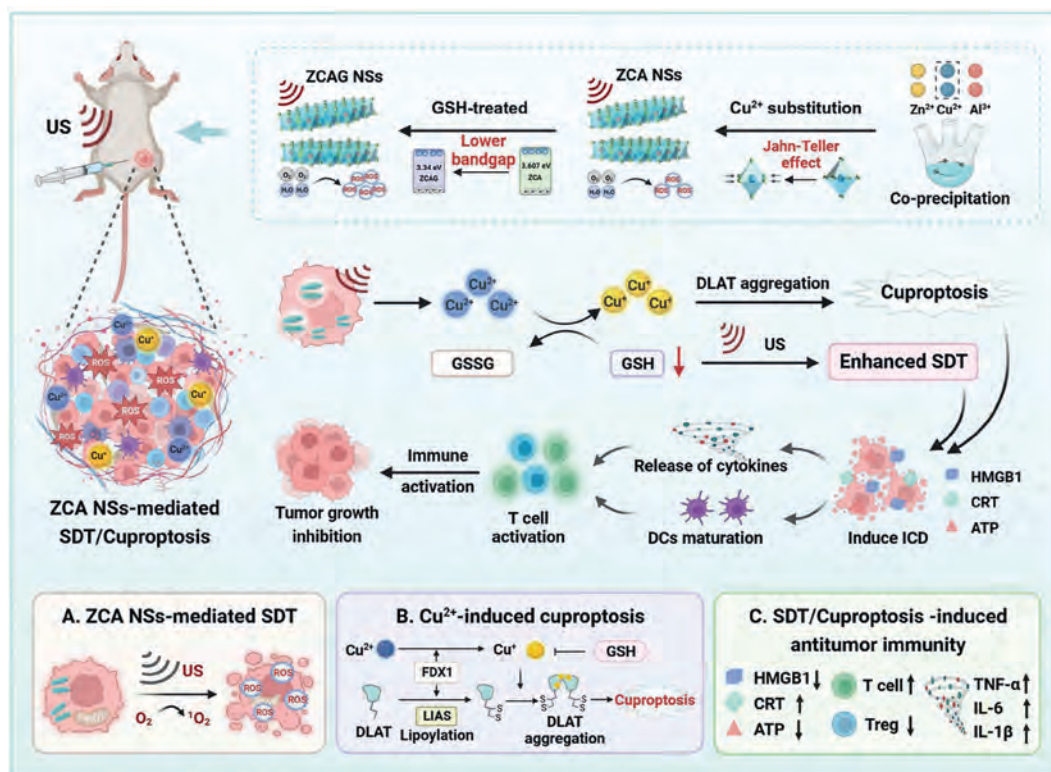


Figure 10 Schematic representation of the underlying mechanism of SDT/Cuproptosis tumor immunotherapy synergistic therapy mediated by ZCA NSs. Reprinted with the permission from Ref. 211. Copyright © 2024 American Chemical Society.

disorders, liver damage and even conditions such as Wilson's disease²⁰. However, it is important to note that the mechanism underlying cuproptosis relies on mitochondrial proteolipid acylation and the destabilization of iron-sulfur cluster proteins, meaning that even small amounts of copper ions entering cells and accumulating in mitochondria are sufficient to induce cell death—thus reducing the need for large systemic copper large doses and minimizing toxicity risks¹. Additionally, many nanomaterials used in cuproptosis delivery systems possess high biocompatibility and can effectively buffer copper-related toxicity, improving the overall safety of these therapies²³⁹. Despite these advantages, clinical studies investigating cuproptosis remain limited. To date, no clinical trials have specifically evaluated its application in cancer; the only registered trial involving cuproptosis focuses on acute myocardial infarction (NCT06833918). Current oncology-related studies explore the combined use of disulfiram (DSF) and copper in the treatment of refractory sarcoma and breast cancer (NCT05210374 and NCT03323346). While preclinical animal models have provided encouraging data, the absence of validation in human tissues remains a critical barrier to clinical translation.

Commonly used nanocarriers in these studies include polymeric nanoparticles and Cu-MOF, which enable controlled release and reduced systemic toxicity. Notably, most preclinical efforts favor combination therapies over monotherapies, leveraging synergistic mechanisms to enhance the efficacy of cuproptosis (Table 5^{21,42,87,94,164,167,185,188,194,235,240-252}). For example, integrating cuproptosis with immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) has been shown to improve T-cell activation and tumor suppression, while photothermal therapy (PTT) and chemodynamic therapy (CDT) increase ROS production, facilitating immunogenic cell death (ICD) and further stimulating immune responses. Similarly,

photodynamic therapy (PDT) and sonodynamic therapy (SDT) help overcome hypoxic limitations by enhancing ROS levels, making them particularly effective for deep-seated tumors. Radiotherapy (RT) can also augment immune responses by increasing tumor sensitivity to cuproptosis. Collectively, these combinatorial strategies not only enhance the therapeutic effectiveness of cuproptosis but also address persistent challenges in oncology, such as immune evasion and insufficient treatment precision. Therefore, the integration of cuproptosis with complementary therapies holds broad developmental potential and is anticipated to emerge as a clinically translatable anti-tumor strategy.

6. Perspectives of cuproptosis nanopreparations in the immune microenvironment and individualized therapy

Precision medicine has significantly advanced cancer therapies, particularly individualized tumor immunotherapy. However, variable copper metabolism among tumor cells creates challenges, affecting patient responses to cuproptosis-based therapies. Precise patient screening and tailored treatment regimens based on individual metabolic profiles are essential for maximizing the effectiveness of cuproptosis-mediated immunotherapy.

6.1. Metabolomics-guided precision therapy for cuproptosis and clinical translation

Metabolomics, as central tool in precision medicine, systematically analyzes dynamic metabolite changes in tissues and biofluids, capturing genome, environmental, and microbiome

Table 5 Comparison of cuproptosis combination therapies with immunotherapy.

Combination therapy	Therapeutic mechanism	Nanomedicine types	Cuproptosis reagents	Encapsulated drug	Immune pathways	Tested model	Ref.
Combination with ICB	Cuproptosis increases ROS and PD-L1 expression, enhances T cell responses and immune checkpoint inhibition	Polymer NPs	Cu ²⁺	DTPH, CaO ₂ , JQ-1, DSPE-PEG-FA	Glycolysis ↓, ATP7B ↓, reverse TIME, αPD-1 ↑	CT26 cell, CT26 hormonal mice	240
		Polymer NPs	Cu ²⁺ , DSF	LMWH-TOS, chitosan	Augment cGAS-STING activity, mature DC ↑, CTLs ↑, NK ↑, αPD-1 ↑, ATP7B ↓	B16F10 cell, B16F10 hormonal mice	164
		Polymer NPs	Cu ²⁺ , ES	Amphiphilic biodegradable polymer	Mature DC ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑, reverse TIME, αPD-1 ↑	BIU-87 cell (human source), MB49 cell-hormonal mice	94
		Polymer NPs	CuO, ES	Glycol polymer	CTLs ↑, reverse TIME, αPD-1 ↑	B16 cell, B16 hormonal mice	21
		Cu-MOF	Cu-based MOF of MOF-199	DDM	ATP7B ↓, mature DC ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑, reverse TIME, αPD-1 ↑	GL261 cells, GL261-luc hormonal mice	241
Combination with PTT	Photothermal effect induces copper ion release, ROS generation, and promotes immune cell activation	Cu-MOF	Cu(NO ₃) ₂	OPDEA, 2-methylimidazole, Zn(NO ₃) ₂ ·6H ₂ O, siPDK	Glycolysis ↓, mature DC ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑, reverse TIME, αPD-1 ↑	B16F10 cell, B16F10 hormonal mice	87
		Bionic NPs	Cu ²⁺	HPB, Au-Pt nanozymes, cancer cell membrane	Caspase-1, TNF-α, Calreticulin, HSP70, HSP90, ATP ↑, PD-L1 ↓	CT26 cell, CT26 hormonal mice	235
		Self-assembly NPs	Cu ²⁺	MoO ₄ ²⁻ , SDS	Multienzyme activities ↑, cooperative ferroptosis, reverse TIME	MCF-7 cell (human source), 4T1 hormonal mice	242
		Nanozymes	Cu-O ₂ /Cu-O ₄	DMONs, phloretin	Glycolysis ↓, ATP7B ↓	CT26 cell, CT26 hormonal mice	243
		Nanozymes	Cu ₂ O	Mn ₃ Cu ₃ O ₈	Multienzyme activities ↑, cooperative ferroptosis, HSP70 ↑	CT26 cell, CT26 hormonal mice	244
Combination with CDT	Fenton reaction generates ROS, increases GSH consumption, and enhances ICD	Bionic NPs	Cu ²⁺ , DSF	PD-1 overexpressing T cell membrane, Mxene	Mature DC ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑, reverse TIME, PD-L1 ↓	4T1 cell, 4T1 hormonal mice	188
		Cu-MOF	Cu ²⁺	DOX, hyaluronate acid	ROS ↑, mature DC ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑	4T1 cell, 4T1 hormonal mice	245
Combination with PDT	Photosensitizer activation generates ROS and synergistically enhances ICD	MSN	CuO ₂	DDP, SiO ₂	HIF-1 ↓, reverse TIME	H22 cell, H22 hormonal mice	185
		LDH	Copper –aluminum layered double Cu ²⁺	5-FU, hydroxide, hyaluronic acid	Reverse TIME, M1 phenotype ↑, CD4 ⁺ T cells ↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells ↑	4T1 cell, 4T1 hormonal mice	246
		Hydrogel		Glycyrrhizic acid, norcantharidin	Reverse TIME	HepG2 cell (human source), Hepa 1–6 hormonal mice	247

Combination with SDT	High-frequency acoustic waves induce ROS generation and ultrasonic cavitation enhances ICD	Quantum dot	Cu ₂ O	GQD	ROS↑, reverse TME, DNA damage	4T1 cell, 4T1 hormonal mice	194
Combination with RT	Induces DNA damage, generates ROS, and enhances immune effects	Bionic NPs	Cu ²⁺	Capsaicin, Pdzyme, zeolitic imidazolate framework-8	Mature DC↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells↑, reverse TIME	MC38 cell, MC38 hormonal mice	167
Combination with PTT and ICB	Increased temperature induces heat stress, relieves immunosuppression and promotes immune cell activation	Nanozymes	CuI	Bi ₂ Se ₃	Multienzyme activities↑, mature DC↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells↑, αPD-1↑	PC-3 cells, PC-3 hormonal mice (human source)	248
Combination with PTT and CDT	Heating promotes catalytic reaction to produce ROS and exacerbates immune response	Bionic NPs	Cu ₂ O	<i>E. coli</i>	Cooperative ferroptosis, mature DC↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells↑, reverse TIME	MC38 cell, MC38 hormonal mice	42
		Cu-MOF	Cu ²⁺	H ₃ tbc-TEA, F-127	GSH↓, ATP7B↓, GSDME↓	CT26 cell, CT26 hormonal mice	249
Combination with PTT, CDT and ICB	Heating and catalysis promote ROS generation and release immunosuppression	Polymer NPs	Cu ₂ O, ES	PEG	Mature DC↑, CD8 ⁺ T cells↑, reverse TIME	4T1 cell, 4T1 hormonal mice	250
Combination with PTT, CDT and PDT	Triple ROS generation for enhanced ICD	Self-assembly NPs Hydrogel	Cu ²⁺ CuCl ₂	ZnPe; thioketal, 1-MT, DOX NAC, 4-mercaptopbenzoic acid, HAuCl ₄ , NaOH, NaBH ₄	ROS↑, ATP7B↓, reverse TIME, αPD-1↑ Reverse TIME	PC-3 cells, PC-3 hormonal mice (human source) HepG2 cell (human source), H22 hormonal mice	251 252

influences^{253,254}. Tumor metabolic reprogramming is linked to drug resistance and immune evasion, and metabolomics can identify specific metabolic phenotypes to guide patient stratification and therapy²⁵⁵. In CAR-T therapies, metabolomics has identified metabolic signatures like low glutamate levels associated with rapid cytokine release syndrome²⁵⁶, highlighting the shift from static genic profiling to dynamic phenotype analysis.

Cuproptosis disrupts the TCA cycle, induces lipid peroxidation, and collapses energy metabolism, producing unique metabolic fingerprints characterized by impaired TCA enzyme function, glutathione depletion, oxidative stress, and disrupted ATP synthesis¹. These metabolic features provide a basis for patient stratification and support the clinical validation of cuproptosis. In hepatocellular carcinoma PDX models, epigallocatechin gallate combined with copper ion carriers significantly suppressed tumor growth, accompanied by HSP70 upregulation and ATP7B inhibition, confirming cuproptosis induction²⁵⁷. Similarly, in cervical cancer PDX models, tretinoin promoted copper accumulation *via* the XIAP/COMMD1/ATP7B axis and triggered depletion of FDX1 and DLAT, highlighting the potential of cuproptosis in precision therapy²⁵⁸. These signatures facilitate precise patient stratification and guide combination therapies due to cuproptosis-induced ICD²⁵⁹. Metabolomics thus offers two-dimensional insights into metabolism–immunity interactions, enhancing therapy personalization.

Humanized models are also essential for preclinical validation of cuproptosis nanoformulations, accurately replicating human immune environments and metabolic profiles²⁶⁰. In the Hu-PBL-CDX NSCLC model, the LDH inhibitor oxamate augments the anti-tumor efficacy of Pembrolizumab, increases CD8⁺ T-cell infiltration, and improves NSCLC immunotherapy outcomes, thereby providing a preclinical rationale for combination therapy²⁶¹. By integrating metabolomics data, researchers can dynamically track metabolic shifts and immune responses driven by cuproptosis, thereby elucidating the immunometabolic synergy of nanoformulations. Moving forward, combining multi-omics analysis with high-throughput screening in humanized mice is anticipated to overcome the limitations of conventional models and expedite the clinical translation of cuproptosis-based therapies²⁶².

6.2. Patient screening based on tumor copper metabolic profile

Copper metabolism biomarkers, including cuproptosis-related genes (CRGs, *e.g.*, FDX1, LIAS, DLAT)¹, copper transporters (*e.g.*, CTR1, ATP7A/B)²⁶³, and long-stranded noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) regulating cuproptosis²⁶⁴, show notable prognostic and therapeutic potential across cancers (Table 6^{265–274}). In triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC), elevated ATP7A and LIAS levels correlate with worse overall survival (OS), whereas high LIPT1 expression indicates a favorable prognosis²⁶⁵. In HCC, elevated expression of certain lncRNAs correlates with immunosuppression and chemotherapy resistance. Moreover, ATP7A/B directly mediates chemoresistance by binding and effluxing platinum drugs²⁶⁷. In NSCLC, high CTR1 expression increases the likelihood of benefiting from platinum-based chemotherapy²⁷⁵, and targeting ATP7B regulated by miR139 reduces platinum resistance in ovarian cancer²⁷⁶. Collectively, these studies support individualized treatment approaches.

Tumors exhibiting abnormal copper metabolism (*e.g.*, HCC and TNBC) are potential candidates for cuproptosis-mediated immunotherapy. HCC displays copper accumulation,

copper–protein complex formation, elevated copper-binding proteins (CBPs), and reduced copper transport proteins such as ATP7A/B and SLC31A1/2^{277,278}. TNBC also exhibits similar copper metabolic abnormalities²⁷⁹. COX17 expression in HCC correlates with immune cell infiltration and immune checkpoint expression²⁸⁰. Tumors with abundant lipoylated proteins show heightened sensitivity to cuproptosis, and FDX1 expression correlates with the amount of these lipoylated proteins-providing a basis for metabolic typing of cuproptosis drugs²⁸¹. The clinical value of these biomarkers can be validated using TCGA, GEO, and other multicenter cohort data, establishing a basis for precise screening and optimization of cuproptosis nanomedicines^{282,283}.

Beyond conventional biomarker testing, advanced imaging techniques like PET/CT are crucial for evaluating copper metabolism. PET/CT integrates functional and anatomical data to monitor tumor metabolism in real time²⁸⁴. The development of the PET copper ion probe ⁶⁴Cu-liposome, which functions as both a radiotracer and a targeted drug delivery system, has shown promise. In a hamster oral cancer model, this probe effectively identifies early lesions pre-metastasis and shows higher sensitivity to abnormal mucosa, facilitating early diagnosis²⁸⁵. This imaging approach could enable novel strategies for monitoring immune responses linked to cuproptosis. Despite its efficacy in animal models, clinical use of PET copper metabolism imaging is constrained by issues such as probe stability, resolution, and cost²⁸⁶. Future improvements in immune molecular probe design may bolster the precision and clinical feasibility of cuproptosis-based immunoassessment.

6.3. Hierarchical modulation of the immune microenvironment and therapeutic optimization

TME is a critical determinant of tumor immunotherapy efficacy. The TME's heterogeneity can markedly influence tumor responses, underscoring the need for precise environmental modulation in individualized therapy. In highly aggressive tumors (*e.g.*, breast and colorectal cancers), the TME often exhibits strong immunosuppression, marked by limited T-cell infiltration, elevated Treg and M2-type macrophage levels, and secretion of inhibitory factors (TGF- β , IL-10) that undermine anti-tumor immunity^{287,288}.

Cuproptosis helps counter these challenges by inducing oxidative stress in the TME, driving the of M2-to M1-macrophage polarization and bolstering anti-tumor immune responses²⁴. Combining cuproptosis with ICB and Treg-targeted therapies can further restore immune function and bolster tumor suppression²¹. For highly immunogenic tumors, such as renal cell carcinoma and non-small cell lung cancer^{289,290}, cuproptosis can induce immunity *via* ICD. Moreover, adding immunostimulants (*e.g.*, STING or TLR agonists) can further amplify the immune response^{174,179}. Tailoring TME modulation to each tumor's specific immune environment is vital for optimal therapeutic outcomes, enabling precise and individualized immunotherapy.

Additionally, tumors frequently experience hypoxia, which activates angiogenic factors (*e.g.*, VEGF) that drive tumor growth and metastasis. Tumors like lung cancer and BC often overexpress HIF-1 α or VEGF, fostering tumor angiogenesis^{291,292}. Anti-angiogenic therapies aimed at VEGF signaling can normalize tumor vasculature, thereby increasing immune cell infiltration, especially tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs)²⁹³. Combining anti-VEGF drugs (*e.g.*, axitinib) with cuproptosis inducers promotes vascular normalization, further inhibiting tumor growth and

Table 6 Clinical implications of cuproptosis-related biomarkers across different cancer types.

Cancer type	Biomarkers	Function in cuproptosis	Regulation direction	Clinical implication	Biomarker analysis	Ref.
TNBC	ATP7A, DLST, LIAS; LIPT1, PDHA1; LINC01614/miR-204-5p/SLC31A1 axis	Copper transport, copper metabolism, energy metabolism	ATP7A, DLST, LIAS; LIPT1, PDHA1 upregulated	Prognostic, Predictive	High ATP7A/DLST/LIAS expression → poor OS; high LIPT1/PDHA1 → better prognosis; SLC31A1 axis predicts immune cell infiltration & chemo-sensitivity	265, 266
HCC	ATP7A/B, SLC31A1/2; ATP7A mRNA, SLC31A1/2 mRNA	Copper transport	ATP7A/B, SLC31A1/2, SLC31A1/2 mRNA downregulated; ATP7A mRNA upregulated	Prognostic, Predictive	Decreased ATP7A/B, SLC31A1/2 linked to tumor progression and poor survival	267
LC	DLD, DLAT, PHDA1, PHDB, CDKN2A	Lipid metabolism, cell cycle	Upregulated	Prognostic	High DLD/DLAT/PDHA1/PHDB/CDKN2A → poor OS; DLD/DLAT/CDKN2A → high risk indicator	268
SKCM	LIPT1, PDHA1, SLC31A1	Lipid metabolism, energy metabolism, copper transport	Upregulated	Prognostic, Immunologic	High LIPT1/PDHA1/SLC31A1 → better prognosis; high LIPT1 → increased PD-L1 expression and decreased Treg infiltration	269
ccRCC	ATP7B, DLAT, DLD, LIAS, SLC31A1, DBT, FDX1, PDHB	Copper transport, copper metabolism, energy metabolism	ATP7B, DLAT, DLD, LIAS, SLC31A1 upregulated; DBT, FDX1, PDHB downregulated	Prognostic, Immunologic	High DLAT and low DBT/PDHB → poor OS; ATP7B/DBT/DLAT/LIS/PDHB are associated with immune status	270
ESCA	SLC25A5, SLC23A2, PDHX, COX7B, PH1D2, FDX1, ATP7A, NDUFB1	Copper transport, copper metabolism, energy metabolism	Upregulated	Prognostic, Immunologic	High SLC25A5/SLC23A2/PDHX/ATP7A/COX7B → poor OS and more immune infiltration; high PH1D2 → long OS	271
COAD	FDX1; CKDN2A, SDHB, CCS, ULK1, CMC1	Copper metabolism, energy metabolism, cell cycle	Upregulated	Prognostic, Immunologic	FDX1 positively correlates with OS, TME remodeling and immune cell infiltration; CKDN2A, SDHB, CCS, ULK1, CMC1 predict prognosis by immunologic microenvironment	272, 273
CC	ATP7A, DBT, DLAT, FDX1, SLC31A1, GCSH, LIPT1, PDHA1, PDHB	Copper transport, copper metabolism, energy metabolism	ATP7A, DBT, DLAT, FDX1, SLC31A1 upregulated; GCSH, LIPT1, PDHA1, PDHB downregulated	Prognostic	DBT/FDX1/LIPT1/PDHA1 → positive prognosis; ATP7A/DLAT/GCSH → negative prognosis	274

augmenting the immunogenic response to cuproptosis¹¹⁷. This strategy not only refines the TME but also optimizes therapy, offering a robust avenue for individualized cancer treatment.

6.4. AI-driven design of cuproptosis nanopreparations

Artificial intelligence (AI) can synergize data-driven predictions with domain-specific knowledge to play a key role in the design of cuproptosis nano-formulations. Inspired by advanced platforms such as FormulationDT, researchers can use machine learning to analyze structural correlations between drug molecules and their formulation properties to optimize copper-based nanocarriers²⁹⁴. FormulationDT demonstrated how the PU-Decide framework can address the challenge of positive unlabeled learning in pharma datasets even with limited negative samples to build robust classification models (average ROC_AUC >0.91)²⁹⁴. This approach can be applied to cuproptosis formulations by training models for copper ion interactions, metabolic enzyme binding modes, and nanocarrier compatibility to identify the best drug candidates for enhanced tumor targeting.

These platforms are typically based on large amounts of drug formulation data for training and learning. The FormulationAI platform, for example, covers exhaustive data on six major drug formulation systems and can accurately predict a wide range of key properties of formulations²⁹⁵. For cuproptosis therapies, such systems can predict the suitability of nanocarriers based on copper chelation capacity, metabolic pathway regulation, and tumor microenvironment penetration. Simulation of absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion (ADME) through hybrid models such as PBPK and Meta Tox, combined with the PASS (Prediction of Activity Spectrum of Substances) algorithm, enables prediction of the bioactivity profiles of compounds and their

metabolites^{296,297}. Artificial intelligence can optimize the pharmacokinetics of nanoparticles while minimizing off-target toxicity.

Artificial intelligence can also predict cell abundance within a wide range of tumors, using deep neural network (DNN) models to predict cell proportions by analyzing the gene expression profiles of tumor cells, thus providing a basis for targeted tumor therapy²⁹⁸. The use of SHAP analysis improves the interpretability of models, revealing the overall impact of molecular features on the design of formulation strategies, as well as key molecular features of immune activation²⁹⁹. This is consistent with the principle of “structure determines function” and enables tailored modifications to expand the ICD triggered by cuproptosis. In addition, AI-driven patient stratification based on a multimodal cancer treatment response prediction model that integrates clinical information, treatment history, genomic and imaging data, etc., may be able to identify patients who are the most responsive to the cuproptosis–immunotherapy combinations in the most responsive populations^{300,301}. Artificial intelligence-driven design has the potential to overcome key barriers in metabolic regulation and immune activation, bringing us closer to optimizing the clinical application of cuproptosis nano-formulations.

6.5. Cuproptosis and liquid biopsy: real-time monitoring and efficacy prediction

Incorporating copper metabolic profiles with liquid biopsy offers a powerful approach to monitor the process of cuproptosis and evaluate its therapeutic efficacy in real time. By tracking copper ion levels in the bloodstream, liquid biopsies not only reflect the initiation of cuproptosis but also provide insight into changes in copper metabolism within tumor cells, especially in the context of sugar and lipid metabolism^{302,303}. Modulating these metabolic

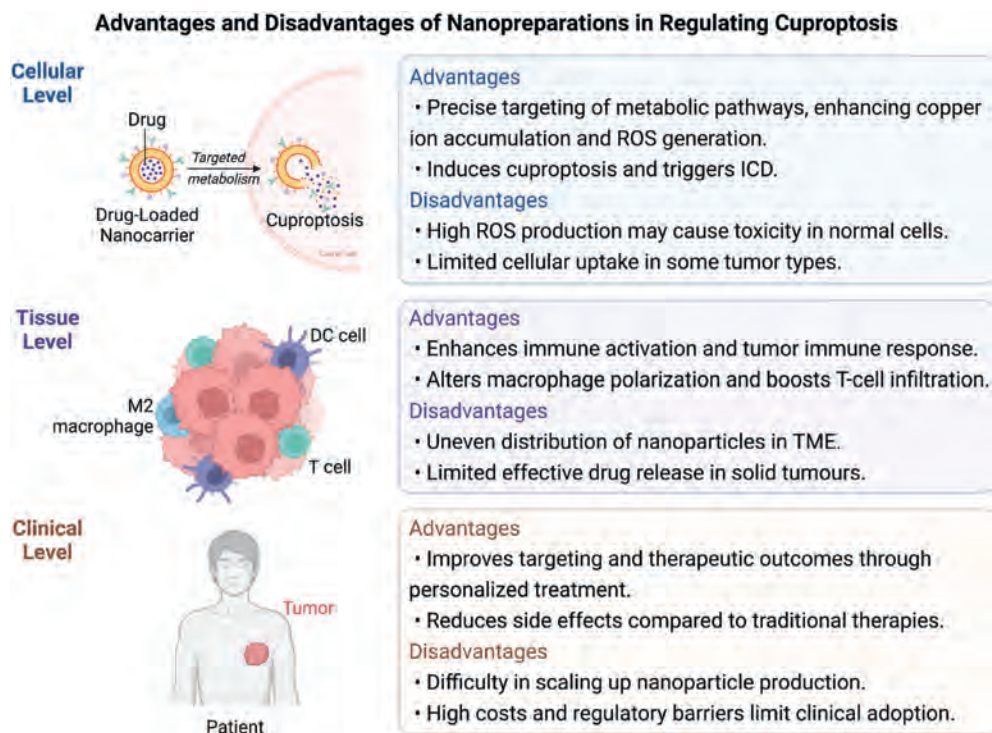


Figure 11 Advantages and disadvantages of nanopreparations in regulating cuproptosis-induced tumor metabolism and immunity at cellular, tissue, and clinical levels.

pathways induces an oxidative state in tumor cells, thereby accelerating cuproptosis and triggering immune responses. The levels of ROS and GSH during oxidative stress can serve as key indicators for monitoring cuproptosis progression.

Liquid biopsies can detect changes in DAMPs such as HMGB1 and ATP, which signal immune activation triggered by cuproptosis. Liquid biopsy also offers valuable information about immune responses by assessing the expression of immune cells like T cells, dendritic cells, and macrophages, as well as immune factors such as IFN- γ , TNF- α , and IL-2, which are indicative of immune infiltration³⁰⁴. Monitoring immune checkpoint molecules like PD-1 and PD-L1 is critical for identifying immune escape, which can provide a foundation for combining cuproptosis with ICB therapy³⁰⁵.

Moreover, multidrug resistance (MDR), a common challenge in cancers such as hepatocellular carcinoma and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma, can be effectively addressed by liquid biopsy^{306–308}. For instance, TPGS/CS-CA nanoparticles delivering ES-Cu complexes can bypass P-glycoprotein (P-gp)-mediated efflux and enhance cuproptosis immunotherapy in drug-resistant cancer cells. These nanoparticles also induce the polarization of macrophages towards the M1 phenotype, enhancing immune surveillance and clearance³⁰⁹. Liquid biopsy allows for early detection of drug resistance and enables the timely adjustment of treatment regimens by tracking biomarker changes over time³¹⁰. This approach provides a comprehensive solution for the precision and individualization of future cancer treatments, supporting more targeted and effective therapeutic strategies based on real-time monitoring of cuproptosis, immune activation, and drug resistance.

In conclusion, cuproptosis-induced tumor immunotherapy holds great promise, particularly with the advancement of precision medicine. Nanopreparations play a key role in modulating copper metabolism and tumor immunity, offering targeted therapeutic benefits. These treatments can improve tumor immune responses by inducing ICD and reprogramming tumor metabolism, which enhances the effectiveness of immune therapies. Personalized treatment approaches, informed by individual tumor characteristics and copper metabolic profiles, are crucial for optimizing cuproptosis therapies. Technologies like liquid biopsies and AI-driven design can further refine these treatments. The advantages and limitations of nanopreparations in regulating cuproptosis and immune activation, underscore the need for tailored strategies to maximize treatment efficacy and improve clinical outcomes (Fig. 11).

7. Summary and outlook

The discovery of cuproptosis as a novel mode of cell death, first identified by Tsvetkov and colleagues¹ in 2022, has opened new avenues for cancer therapy. Distinct from traditional cell death mechanisms, cuproptosis uniquely combines tumor cell death with the activation of robust immune response, highlighting its promise for tumor immunotherapy. Its integration with various immunotherapeutic strategies, especially when facilitated by advances in nanotechnology, has demonstrated significant potential for enhancing treatment specificity and efficacy. Despite this promising outlook, several important challenges remain. Excessive copper accumulation, essential for initiating cuproptosis, can lead to tissue damage and oxidative stress, posing significant safety concerns for clinical applications. Consequently, rigorous biosafety studies-including thorough *ex vivo* and *in vivo* assessments-are necessary to precisely determine safe copper dosage

ranges and minimize adverse off-target effects. Furthermore, while nanomedicines significantly improve copper ion delivery to tumors, additional optimization is required to achieve higher drug delivery efficiency and specificity, thereby enhancing therapeutic safety and effectiveness.

To realize the full potential of cuproptosis-based nanomedicine strategies, future research must address critical scientific questions and technical bottlenecks on multiple fronts. First, the mechanistic relationship between cuproptosis and immune regulation needs comprehensive and systematic analysis. Specifically, studies should clarify whether the metabolic signaling pathways directly influence immune cell phenotype remodeling or if their effects on the TME occur indirectly through mitochondrial and endoplasmic reticulum stress responses. Employing integrated multi-omics approaches will be essential for resolving these complexities. If non-metabolic regulatory pathways are involved this could affect the targeting strategies employed by nanomedicine formulations, necessitating reassessment of their therapeutic suitability. Second, translating cuproptosis-induced immune activation into effective anti-tumor responses remains challenging due to the involvement of complex molecular networks and signaling pathways. Thus, strategies to optimize cuproptosis-mediated immunomodulation through rational combination with other therapeutic modalities are essential for enhancing overall therapeutic efficacy. Finally, clinical validation of cuproptosis-related therapies is still in its infancy, and transitioning from fundamental research to large-scale clinical trials remains a significant hurdle. Consequently, future studies should prioritize mechanism elucidation, nanoformulation optimization, and rational combination therapies to expedite clinical translation.

In conclusion, cuproptosis presents an exciting and innovative strategy for advancing cancer immunotherapy. With ongoing technological improvements and deeper mechanistic insights, cuproptosis-mediated immunotherapies have substantial potential to evolve into more effective and personalized cancer treatments, ultimately benefiting patients through improved clinical outcomes.

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Ruixuan Zhang, Yunfei Li and Hui Fu framed the synthesis. Chengcheng Zhao and Xiuyan Li collected literature and sifted through articles. Ruixuan Zhang, Yunfei Li and Hui Fu wrote the manuscript and draw diagrams. Yuming Wang, Yujiao Sun and Yingpeng Li proposed the project and revised the manuscript. All authors have contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

Conflicts of interest

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