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REVIEW

Analysis of intratumoural bacteria: Opportunities and challenges for cancer therapy

Xiaowen Jiang^{a,b}, Chunyan Zhang^c, Simeng Cao^a, Yeheng Peng^a,
Mingyi Zhao^b, Xuyao Zhang^{a,d,*}, Yuan Gao^{a,d,*}

^aSchool of Pharmaceutical Science, Fudan University, Shanghai 201203, China

^bSchool of Clinical Pharmacy, Shenyang Pharmaceutical University, Shenyang 110016, China

^cDepartment of Stomatology, Qingdao Municipal Hospital, Qingdao 266011, China

^dState Key Laboratory of Advanced Drug Formulations for Overcoming Delivery Barriers, Shanghai 201206, China

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Abstract Intratumoural bacteria have been shown to play conflicting roles within tumours, especially in the modulation of immune responses. Moreover, bacteria have been linked to a variety of cancer types and have different prognostic values depending on the cancer. This heterogeneity is not only shaped by tumour molecular subtypes, spatial location, cancer progression stage, genetic alterations, and the presence of multiple subclones, but is also influenced by variations in angiogenesis, oxygen levels, microbial sources, endocytosis and micropinocytosis. In this review, we describe the diversity of intratumoural bacteria across 25 cancer types covering an extensive spectrum of analyzed intratumoural bacteria. Furthermore, the dual roles and mechanisms of their involvement in tumour progression and anticancer activity are summarized. Additionally, interventions and applications of engineered bacteria in cancer therapy, especially strategies used in clinical trials, are illustrated. This work describes the roles of intratumoural bacteria and their metabolic byproducts as regulators within the tumour microenvironment and highlights the potential translation of bacteria for cancer therapy.

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*Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: yuan_gao@fudan.edu.cn (Yuan Gao), xuyaozhang@fudan.edu.cn (Xuyao Zhang).

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1. Introduction

As critical modulators, intratumoural bacteria have received widespread attention because of their function in cancer initiation, progression, and therapeutic response based on their ability to alter the balance of cell proliferation and apoptosis, and their immunological as well as metabolic interplay within the tumour microenvironment (TME)^{1–4}.

Recent advancements in high-resolution sequencing and spatially analytical metagenomics have facilitated the detection of microorganisms at tumour sites by measuring the DNA/RNA in the tumour tissue, which has revealed an unexpectedly high diversity of microbial communities across different tumour types^{4,5}. The effects of intratumoural bacteria are also context-specific, with some bacteria promoting tumour growth and others inhibiting it. For example, in one study, the presence of *Bacteroides*, *Lactobacillus* and *Peptoniphilus* are linked to fewer tumour-infiltrating T lymphocytes that tested positive for CD4, CD8, and CD45RO in human pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), where the bacterial niches are favourable for immune evasion⁶. *Clostridium perfringens* initiates epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and promotes oral squamous cell carcinoma metastasis⁷. Conversely, melanoma cells are colonized by the commensal bacteria *Lactobacillus reuteri* (*L. reuteri*), and one of the metabolites released by this bacterium increases anti-cancer immune responses and improves the effectiveness of immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs)⁸. The potential of intratumoural bacteria to serve as prognostic biomarkers has also been demonstrated. Intratumoural *Escherichia* has been linked to significantly longer overall survival (OS) in advanced non-small cell lung cancer patients treated with ICIs alone⁹. In contrast, high intratumour levels of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* (*F. nucleatum*) are associated with poor OS and progression-free survival in patients with cervical carcinoma¹⁰. Nevertheless, why these intratumoural bacteria play conflicting roles within tumours remains poorly understood. Despite this, microbial-driven therapeutic strategies, including leveraging intratumoural pathogenic bacteria or exogenously engineered bacteria, have also been widely explored. Over the past two decades, antibiotics and biological products such as bacteriophages have been demonstrated to selectively erase the cancer-promoting bacteria¹¹. Meanwhile, lots of engineered bacteria such as programmable attenuated bacteria have been employed as cancer vaccines and drug delivery vehicles, due to

their unique attributes including immunogenicity and precise tumour targeting ability¹².

Previous reviews have summarized intratumoural microorganisms in cancers and have focused on the origins of intratumoural bacteria as well as their role in tumour initiation, mechanisms of progression, and cancer immunotherapy^{1,3,4,13,14}. Nevertheless, the roles of microorganisms within tumours are controversial, and their different prognostic values require further investigation. In this review, we summarize the history and diversity of the tumour microbiota across different tumour types. Moreover, we collect and identify 20 publications for analysis of the relative abundances of intratumoural bacteria (Supporting Information Fig. S1 and Table S1). Furthermore, the function and mechanisms of the impact of intratumoural bacteria on tumour biology as well as therapeutic strategies are illustrated. Finally, the current challenges and future directions are discussed, highlighting the possibility of bacteria-based cancer treatment.

2. Landmark events in the discovery of intratumoural bacteria

Over the past two centuries, microbial detection technologies have shaped our understanding of intratumoural bacteria (Fig. 1 and Supporting Information Fig. S2). As early as the 19th century, pioneers such as Robert Koch and Louis Pasteur reported the presence of bacteria at tumour sites¹⁵. In 1886, Doyen reported the identification of spherical *Micrococcus neoformans* in malignant tissues¹⁶. Controversially, Thomas Glover and Virginia Livingston-Wheeler (1990) reported that culturable bacteria exist in tumours, but their theories were later shown to be false^{17,18}. In the same year, the US Food and Drug Administration approved intravesical *Bacillus Calmette-Guérin* (BCG) for the treatment of carcinoma *in situ* of the bladder¹⁹. Concurrently, clinical evidence revealed that the microbiome was linked to cancer: Wotherspoon's 1991 discovery of *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) in 92% of gastric mucosa-linked lymphoid tissue lymphomas underscored the role of bacteria as oncogenic drivers²⁰. Since 2006, large-scale initiatives—The Cancer Microbiome Atlas²¹, The Cancer Genome Atlas, and the UK Biobank—have harmonized multi-omics data with microbial sequencing, revealing the spatial and taxonomic complexity of intratumoural bacteria²². These resources have allowed researchers to explore the contributions of microbes to tumour heterogeneity and therapy resistance.

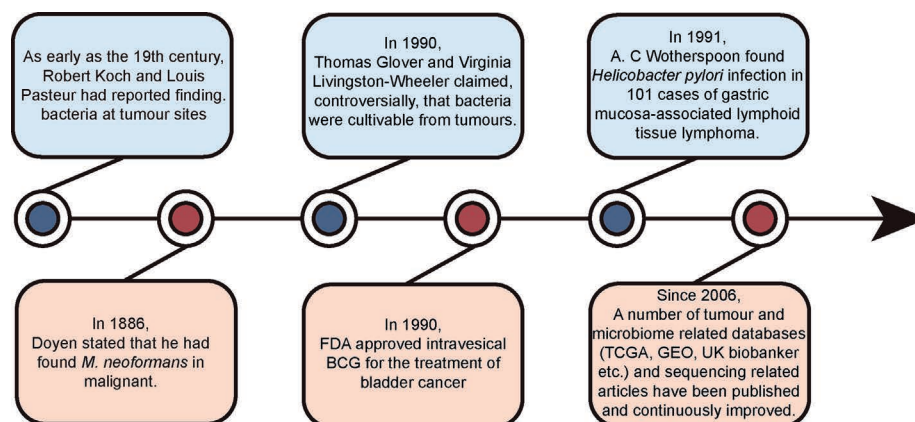


Figure 1 A milestone event for intratumoural bacteria discovery.

3. Characterization of bacteria in different tumours and their prognostic role

The intratumour microbes reported thus far typically enter tumours *via* three possible routes²³, which have been fully summarized in other reviews^{3,13,24}: 1) from mucosal locations across the mucosal barrier of some organs, which have a cavity that is externally exposed; 2) from normal adjacent tissue; and 3) through haematogenous dissemination. Nevertheless, other studies have indicated that the intratumoural microbiota is likely an intrinsic and integral component of the TME rather than a secondary manifestation of pathogenic infections³.

Moreover, high heterogeneity of intratumoural bacteria was reported, which was not only shaped by tumour molecular subtypes, spatial location, progression stage, genetic alterations, and the presence of multiple subclones, but also influenced by variations of angiogenesis, oxygen levels, microbial sources, endocytosis, and micropinocytosis^{25,26}. To illustrate the diversity of intratumoural bacteria in various cancers, the primary bacterial genera or species found in several malignancies with a proportional quantity of bacteria across cancers at the genus level were analyzed according to the available data^{27–45} (Fig. 2, Table 1, and Table S1). As shown in Fig. 2 and Table 1, intratumoural bacteria display spatial and temporal heterogeneity, which drives variability in chemotherapy efficacy, immune evasion, and mutation accumulation^{46,47}. Therefore, the presence of intratumoural bacteria can predict tumour progression and therapeutic responses (Fig. 3).

3.1. Genitourinary cancers

3.1.1. Renal cell carcinoma (RCC)

In RCC, *Ochrobactrum* (21.23%), *Acinetobacter* (9.89%), and *Sediminibacterium* (6.77%) are the most frequently detected bacterial genera³³. Among the three different subtypes of RCC, the most represented genera in clear cell RCC are *Cutibacterium* (10.90%), *Sphingomonas* (7.57%), and *Staphylococcus* (5.91%). In papillary RCC, the identified bacteria include *Cutibacterium* (13.52%), *Corynebacterium* (9.16%), *Escherichia–Shigella* (5.95%), and *Clavibacter* (5.41%). In chromophobe RCC, the most common genera are *Escherichia–Shigella* (14.28%), *Novosphingobium* (12.35%), *Cutibacterium* (9.22%), *Psychrobacter* (7.14%), and *Lactococcus* (5.44%)³⁴ (Fig. 2A). Four genera (*Colletotrichum*, *Leuconostoc*, *Gluconobacter*, and *Parabacteroides*) are associated with a poor prognosis, whereas three genera (*Cytobacillus*, *Alicyclobacillus*, and *Verrucomicrobium*) are associated with a favourable prognosis⁴⁹.

3.1.2. Bladder cancer

Paenibacillus, *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Peptoclostridium*, *Acinetobacter*, *Brevibacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, *Prevotella*, *Azotobacter*, and *Actinoplanes* have been reported to be present in bladder cancer⁵⁰. *Brachybacterium* and *Haloparvum* are much more abundant in muscle-invasive bladder cancer⁵¹, whereas *Pseudomonas* (13.20%), *Staphylococcus* (6.52%), and *Mycobacterium* (6.04%) comprise the majority of the intratumoural bacteria in bladder urothelial carcinoma⁵² (Table 1, Fig. 2B).

3.1.3. Prostate cancer

In prostate cancer, *Xanthomonas albilineans* GPE PC73, *Bradyrhizobium japonicum*, and *Methylobacterium radiotolerans* JCM 2831 are negatively correlated with tumour-node-metastasis

stage, prostate-specific antigen level, and androgen receptor expression, respectively⁵³ (Fig. 3).

3.2. Gastrointestinal cancer

3.2.1. Colorectal cancer (CRC)

In CRC patients, *F. nucleatum*, *Streptococcus salivarius*, *Bacteroides*, and *Blautia* have been identified as the most prevalent species and genera^{28,54}. The abundances of the genera *Fusobacterium*, *Bacteroides*, and *Escherichia–Shigella* were reported to be relatively high in samples from rectal cancer patients²⁹. Moreover, tumour bacterial populations vary significantly between young-onset and elderly-onset CRC patients. While elderly-onset CRC patients exhibit higher abundances of *Bacillus*, *Staphylococcus*, *Listeria*, *Enterococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Escherichia–Shigella*, the tumour bacteria of younger patients are more likely to be of the genera *Akkermansia* and *Bacteroides*³⁰ (Table 1, Fig. 2C).

In addition, the abundances of *Prevotella*, *Fusobacterium*, *Selenomonas*, *Fretibacterium*, *Porphyromonas*, *Peptostreptococcus*, *Leptotrichia*, and *Porphyromonas gingivalis* are correlated with short OS^{55–57}. *Dialister*, *Casatella*, *F. nucleatum*, and *H. pylori* are linked to microsatellite instability, increased tumour immunity, and mutational burden^{58–61}. Among them, *F. nucleatum* is associated with a poor outcome in CRC patients treated with oxaliplatin-based adjuvant chemotherapy^{62,63}. However, a high *F. nucleatum* load is an independent positive sign among individuals with anal squamous carcinoma who undergo abdominoperineal resection⁶⁴ (Fig. 3).

3.2.2. Gastric cancer

Streptococcus, *Acinetobacter*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Brevundimonas* are the predominant intratumoural bacteria in gastric cancer^{65–70}. Shao et al.⁴¹ reported that *Prevotella* accounts for 23.3% of the total intratumoural bacteria in gastric cardia adenocarcinoma. Several common types of bacteria, including *Lactobacillus*, *Bacteroides*, *Mucispirillum*, *Parabacteroides*, *Enterococcus*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Prevotella*, are common in gastrointestinal stromal tumours⁷¹ (Table 1, Fig. 2D). Moreover, *F. nucleatum* can serve as a prognostic marker of poor outcomes⁷², and *H. pylori* is a strong biomarker for poor prognosis and low therapeutic efficacy in gastric cancer patients^{73–76}. Additionally, a higher abundance of the *Klebsiella* genus has been linked to an improved OS probability in patients with gastric adenocarcinoma⁷⁷ (Fig. 3).

3.2.3. Oesophageal carcinoma

In oesophageal carcinoma, the abundances of *Fusobacteria*, *Lactobacillus*, *Proteobacteria*, *Negativicutes*, *Clostridia*, and *Leptotrichia* are linked to clinical characteristics^{78,79}. High intratumoural concentrations of *F. nucleatum* are associated with poor recurrence-free survival (RFS)^{80,81}, while high *Streptococcus* levels enhance anti-programmed cell death protein 1 (anti-PD-1) treatment responsiveness and extend disease-free survival⁸². Recent 16S rRNA gene sequencing analyses reveal that the *Comamonas* (10%), *Parvimonas* (8.3%), *Gemmatimonas* (8.1%), and *Streptophyta* (5.4%) genera are predominant in oesophageal squamous carcinoma^{35,41} (Fig. 2E). Additionally, the genera *TM7x*, *Sphingobacterium*, and *Prevotella* can serve as predictors of neoadjuvant therapy outcomes in patients with locally advanced oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma⁸³ (Fig. 3).

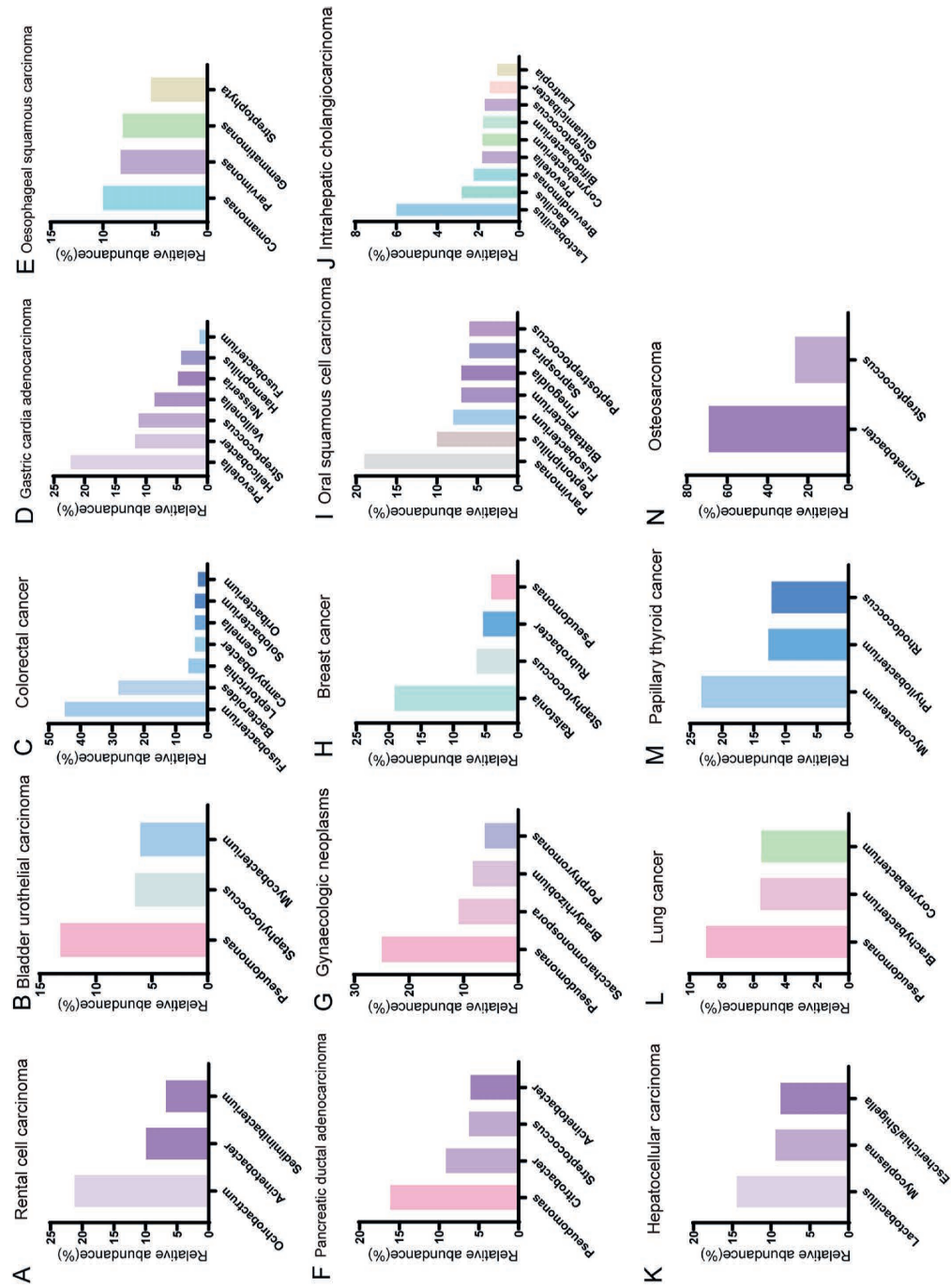


Figure 2 The intratumoural bacteria in 14 cancer types were summarized based on their relative abundances.

Table 1 The main intratumoural bacteria genera or species existing in 14 cancer types.

Bladder cancer	Colorectal cancer	Gastric cancer	Pancreatic cancer	Cervical cancer	Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma	Oral squamous cell carcinoma
<i>Actinoplanes</i>	<i>Acinetobacter</i>	<i>Acinetobacter</i>	<i>Actinomyces</i>	<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Porphyromonas</i>
<i>Acinetobacter</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>Campylobacter</i>	<i>Lactobacillus</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>	<i>Prevotella</i>
<i>Azotobacter</i>	<i>Casatella</i>	<i>Brevundimonas</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>
<i>Bacillus</i>	<i>Cupriavidus</i>	<i>Burkholderia</i>	<i>Granulicatella</i>	<i>Ralstonia</i>	<i>Parvimonas</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>
<i>Brachybacterium</i>	<i>Dialister</i>	<i>Enterococcus</i>	<i>Haemophilus</i>		<i>Treponema</i>	<i>Leptotrichia</i>
<i>Brevibacillus</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>	<i>Escherichia/Shigella</i>	<i>Prevotella</i>			<i>Haemophilus</i>
<i>Corynebacterium</i>	<i>Gemella</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>	<i>Veillonella</i>			<i>Rothia</i>
<i>Haloparvum</i>	<i>Lachnospirillum</i>	<i>Helicobacter</i>	<i>Pseudoxanthomonas</i>			<i>Capnocytophaga</i>
<i>Paenibacillus</i>	<i>Lactococcus</i>	<i>Lactobacillus</i>	<i>Streptomyces</i>			<i>Campylobacter</i>
<i>Peptoclostridium</i>	<i>Leptotrichia</i>	<i>Methylobacterium</i>	<i>Saccharopolyspora</i>			<i>Neisseria</i>
<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Malassezia</i>	<i>Mucispirillum</i>	<i>Acinetobacter</i>			
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<i>Oscillobacter</i>	<i>Oceanobacter</i>	<i>Pseudomonas</i>			
	<i>Phocaeicola</i>	<i>Parabacteroides</i>	<i>Porphyromonas</i>			
	<i>Porphyromonas</i>	<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Helicobacter</i>			
	<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Pseudomonas</i>				
	<i>Roseburia</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>				
	<i>Ruminococcus</i>	<i>Syntrophomonas</i>				
	<i>Sphingobium</i>					
	<i>Sphingomonas</i>					
	<i>Streptococcus</i>					
Gingival squamous cell carcinoma	Nasopharyngeal carcinoma	Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma	Hepatocellular carcinoma	Lung cancer	Adenoid cystic carcinomas	Melanoma
<i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i>	<i>Corynebacterium</i>	<i>Acidovorax</i>	<i>Escherichia-Shigella</i>	<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<i>Neisseria</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>
<i>Streptococcus gordonii</i>	<i>Staphylococcus</i>	<i>Staphylococcus</i>	<i>Methylobacterium</i>	<i>Acinetobacter</i>	<i>Leptotrichia</i>	<i>Staphylococcus</i>
		<i>Bdellovibrio</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Sphingomonas</i>	<i>Actinomyces</i>	<i>Paracoccus</i>
		<i>Roseimicrobium</i>	<i>Cutibacterium</i>	<i>Methylobacterium</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>	
		<i>Roseburia</i>	<i>Acinetobacter</i>	<i>Enterobacter</i>	<i>Rothia</i>	
			<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<i>Propionibacterium</i>	<i>Veillonella</i>	
			<i>Ralstonia</i>	<i>Corynebacterium</i>		
			<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	<i>Micrococcus</i>		
			<i>Phyllobacterium</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>		
			<i>Enterococcus</i>	<i>Staphylococcus</i>		
			<i>Helicobacter</i>			

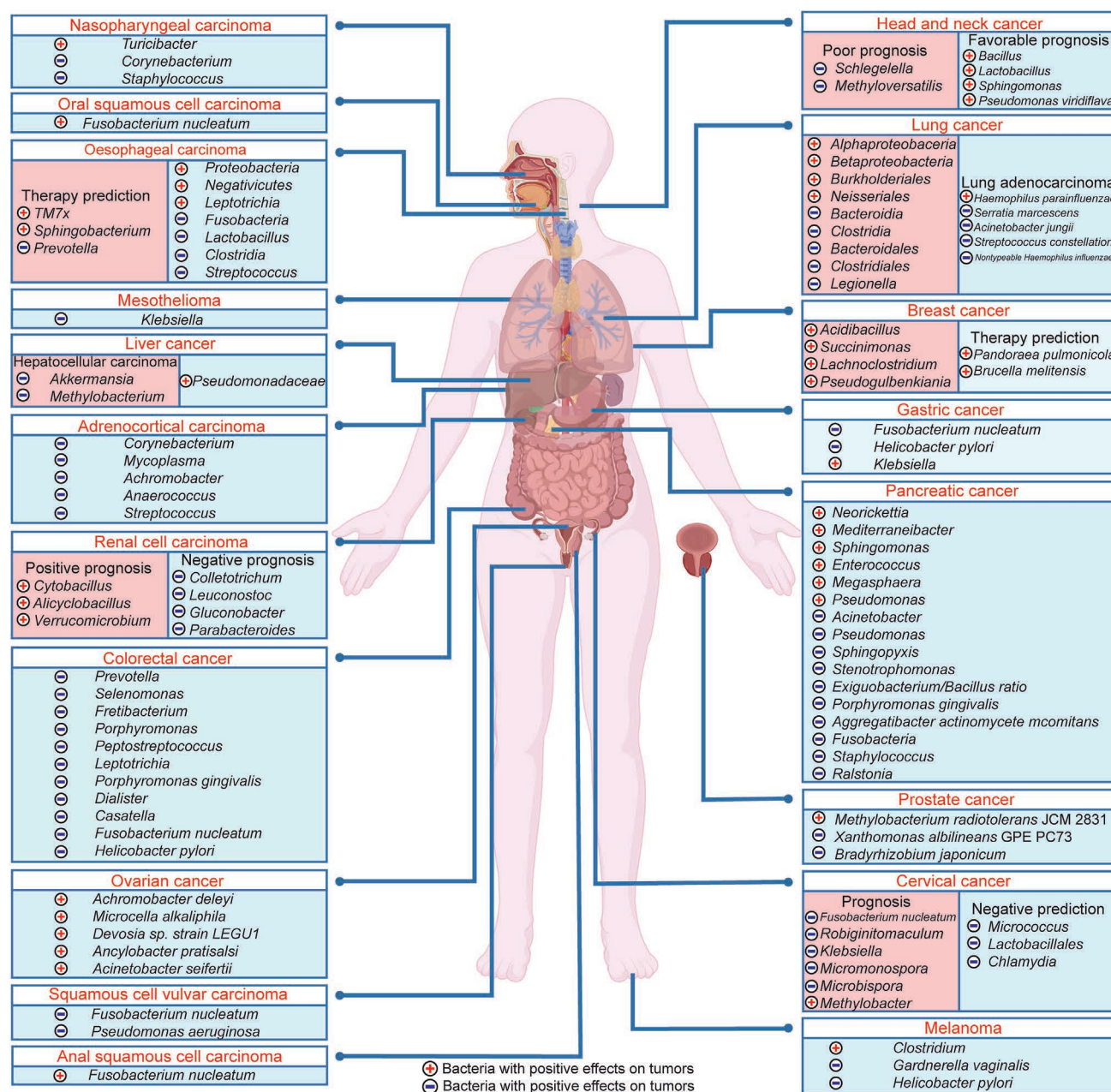


Figure 3 The summary of intratumoural bacteria with predictive value involves 19 types of cancer. Created with BioGDP.com⁴⁸.

3.2.4. Pancreatic cancer

Actinomyces, *Campylobacter*, *Fusobacterium*, *Granulicatella*, *Haemophilus*, *Prevotella*, *Veillonella*, *Pseudoxanthomonas*, *Streptomyces*, and *Saccharopolyspora* are identified through 16S RNA sequencing and internal transcribed spacer sequencing of pancreatic tumour samples^{84–86}. Another study revealed that compared with healthy individuals, patients with pancreatic cancer exhibit a notably greater concentration of *Porphyromonas* according to 16S rRNA sequencing⁸⁷. Moreover, samples from the pancreas, stomach, and duodenum of patients with pancreatic cancer contain the ribosomal DNA of *Helicobacter* species⁸⁸. Among the species of microbes, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), *Cutibacterium acnes*, *Methylobacterium radiotolerans*, *Achromobacter piechaudii*, and *Verminephrobacter eiseniae* have been identified in pancreatic cancer patients⁸⁹ (Table 1). In pancreatic

tissue, elevated levels of *Acinetobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Sphingopyxis*, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, and *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* are strongly correlated with tumourigenesis^{90,91}, whereas *Fusobacterium* species may serve as prognostic biomarkers in this malignancy⁹² (Fig. 3).

PDAC comprises approximately 90% of all pancreatic cancers⁹³. *Pseudomonas* (16.12%), *Citrobacter* (9.13%), *Streptococcus* (6.26%), and *Acinetobacter* (6.06%) have been reported to be the predominant bacterial genera in PDAC³⁹ (Fig. 2F). Moreover, the presence of *Sphingomonas*, *Enterococcus*, *Megasphaera*, *Pseudomonas*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Ralstonia* in the tumours can predict the survival and prognosis of PDAC patients^{94,95}. Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) produced mainly by gram-negative bacteria may negatively impact the efficacy of gemcitabine in advanced PDAC⁹⁶. *Stenotrophomonas* and a high *Exiguobacterium/Bacillus*

ratio are associated with reduced survival of PDAC patients, whereas *Neorickettsia* and *Mediterraneibacter* are associated with extended survival^{97,98}.

In all gastrointestinal cancers, *Fusobacterium* is the most common bacterium, especially *F. nucleatum*. Therefore, the elimination of *Fusobacterium* from the digestive tract may alleviate cancer progression and drug resistance.

3.3. Gynaecologic neoplasms

In gynaecologic neoplasms, the top 10 most abundant genera account for 44.14%–52.12% of the total microbiome²⁷. Determination of the relative abundance of bacteria has revealed that *Pseudomonas*, *Saccharomonospora*, *Bradyrhizobium*, and *Porphyromonas* are all present in the three most common gynaecological malignancies (cervical carcinoma, ovarian cancer, and endometrial cancer) (Fig. 2G). Among these genera, *Pseudomonas* is significantly more abundant in endometrial cancer than in cervical carcinoma. At the same time, *Bradyrhizobium* and *Saccharomonospora* are more prevalent in patients with ovarian cancer than in those with endometrial cancer. The abundance of *Lactobacillus* is markedly greater in patients with cervical carcinoma than in patients with endometrial cancer. At the same time, the *Porphyromonas* level is higher in patients with cervical carcinoma than in patients with both ovarian cancer and endometrial cancer^{27,40,42}. Moreover, more bacterial species are present in ovarian cancer tissue than in adjacent normal tissue⁹⁹.

In cervical carcinoma, the predominant taxa of bacteria include *Pseudomonas*, *unidentified_Chloroplast*, *Lactobacillus*, *Bacteroides*, and *Ralstonia*¹⁰⁰ (Table 1). *Robiginotomaculum*, *Methylobacter*, *Klebsiella*, *F. nucleatum*, *Micromonospora*, and *Microbispora* have prognostic value in patients with cervical carcinoma^{10,101}. Among these, *Methylobacter* and *F. nucleatum* are negatively associated with mortality risk, and the other four are positively associated with mortality risk. The genera *Micrococcus* and *Lactobacillales* are associated with poor survival outcomes, whereas *Chlamydia* exhibits an even stronger negative correlation with OS^{102–104}. Moreover, *F. nucleatum* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* have been identified as tumour-promoting bacteria in squamous cell vulvar cancer, and are linked to rapid tumour progression¹⁰⁵ (Fig. 3). Additionally, in terms of the relative abundance of bacteria in gynaecologic neoplasms, *Pseudomonas* is the most abundant type of bacteria (relative abundance ~25%), as this genus is more than twice as abundant as other intratumoural bacterial genera (Fig. 2G).

3.4. Breast cancer

Ralstonia, *Rubrobacter*, *Lactobacillus*, *Streptococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Staphylococcus* are the most dominant intratumoural bacteria in patients with breast cancer^{32,106}. Among these, *Ralstonia* has the highest relative abundance, which is three times greater than that of the other bacteria (Fig. 2H). Moreover, the abundances of *Acidibacillus*, *Succinimonas*, *Lachnoclostridium*, and *Pseudogulbenkiania* have been reported to be positively associated with prognosis, immune gene expression, sensitivity to chemotherapy drugs, tumour-infiltrating immune cell abundance, and the effectiveness of immunotherapy in patients with breast cancer¹⁰⁷. *Brucella melitensis* and *Pandora pulmonicola* have been identified as significant positive indicators of the response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy¹⁰⁸. Furthermore, *Escherichia*, *Streptomyces*, *Clostridium*, *Ralstonia*, and *Salmonella* have been shown

to reside in tumour epithelial cells in patients who achieve a nonpathological complete response¹⁰⁹ (Fig. 3). In addition, *Bacteroides*, *Alloprevotella*, and *Prevotella* are the dominant genera across ER[−]/HER2⁺, ER⁺/HER2⁺, and ER⁺/HER2[−] tumours, whereas *Lactobacillus* is extremely prevalent in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC)³¹.

3.5. Head and neck cancer

Several varieties of head and neck cancers are known, including head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, gingival squamous cell carcinoma, oral squamous cell carcinoma, and nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC). *Schlegelella* and *Methyloversatilis* are typically found in the tumours of head and neck cancer patients with a poor prognosis. Additionally, patients with a good prognosis have high concentrations of *Bacillus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Sphingomonas*, and *Pseudomonas viridiflava*^{110,111} (Table 1, Fig. 3).

3.5.1. Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma

Prevotella, *Fusobacterium*, *Streptococcus*, *Parvimonas*, and *Treponema* are shown to be elevated in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma tissues^{112–115} (Table 1). Moreover, the abundance of *Fusobacterium* has been linked to a worse prognosis and a greater inflammatory impact. Compared with normal tissues, tumour tissues have a greater abundance of *Parvimonas*^{113,114} (Fig. 3). Additionally, in laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma, the relative abundances of *Alloprevotella*, *Peptostreptococcus*, and *Porphyromonas* are strongly linked to an increased risk of nasopharyngeal recurrence¹¹⁶ (Table 1).

3.5.2. Oral squamous cell carcinoma and gingival squamous cell carcinoma

The most dominant bacterial genera, *Parvimonas* (19%), *Peptoniphilus* (10%), *Fusobacterium* (8%), and *Finegoldia* (7%), are detected in data obtained from 10x Visium RNA-sequencing of oral squamous cell carcinoma³⁷. High levels of *Porphyromonas*, *Prevotella*, *Fusobacterium*, *Streptococcus*, *Leptotrichia*, *Haemophilus*, *Rothia*, *Capnocytophaga*, *Campylobacter*, and *Neisseria* are identified by 16S rRNA sequencing and fluorescence *in situ* hybridization^{117–119}. Moreover, *F. nucleatum*—associated oral squamous cell carcinoma is characterized by a distinct immune microenvironment, is observed primarily in elderly individuals with no alcohol consumption, and is correlated with a better prognosis¹²⁰ (Table 1, Fig. 2I). Moreover, *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Streptococcus gordonii* were reported in malignant oral epithelium, which indicates a possible link between these bacteria and gingival squamous cancer¹²¹ (Table 1).

3.5.3. Nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC)

Bacteria present within NPC include *Sphingomonas*, *Burkholderia*, *Pseudomonas*, *Streptococcus*, *Corynebacterium*, and *Staphylococcus*^{122,123}. The abundances of *Fusobacterium*, *Prevotella*, and *Porphyromonas* are greater in older NPC patients, the abundance of *Glutamicibacter* is greater in advanced-stage patients, and the abundance of *Pseudomonas* is greater in male patients¹²⁴. In addition, *Turicibacter* has been identified as a possible independent prognostic predictor for NPC patients¹²⁵. *Corynebacterium* and *Staphylococcus* have been linked to reduced disease-free survival and distant metastasis-free survival¹²² (Table 1, Fig. 3).

The majority of head and neck cancers are squamous cell carcinomas. *Parvimonas* is shown to be highly abundant in head

and neck squamous cell carcinoma and oral squamous cell carcinoma, and could serve as a potential target for tumour treatment¹²⁶.

3.6. Liver cancer

It was reported that decreasing the prevalence of antitumour bacterial families and genera, such as *Pseudomonadaceae*, in tumour tissue could improve outcomes in patients with primary liver cancer¹²⁷ (Fig. 3). Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) are the two main types of liver cancer. In ICC, the most prevalent bacteria were reported at the genus level and include *Lactobacillus* (5.99%), *Bacillus* (2.81%), and *Brevundimonas* (2.22%)¹²⁸. Moreover, *Rhodococcus*, *Ralstonia*, *Paraburkholderia*, *Pseudomonas*, *Thermomonas*, *Acinetobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Sphingomonas*, *Methylobacterium*, *Enterococcus*, and *Acidovorax* were reported to be the most common genera found in liver tumour tissue¹²⁹. Shorter RFS and OS can be predicted by higher tumour microbial α diversity, which is also linked to lymph node metastases³⁶ (Table 1, Fig. 2J). In HCC, the predominant bacteria at the genus level are *Lactobacillus* (14.42%), *Mycoplasma* (9.44%) and *Escherichia*—*Shigella* (8.87%)⁴³. Another study reported that the genera *Helicobacter*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Acinetobacter*, *Phyllobacterium*, and *Enterococcus* are most prevalent in HCC and that these bacteria may be associated with malignancy development^{130,131}. Moreover, low levels of *Akkermansia* and *Methylobacterium* are associated with poor long-term outcomes in patients with HCC¹³² (Table 1, Figs. 2K, and Fig. 3).

3.7. Lung cancer

The predominant bacteria at the genus level in lung cancer are *Brachybacterium* (5.56%), *Corynebacterium* (5.49%), and *Pseudomonas* (8.97%)⁴⁴ (Fig. 2L). Yang et al.¹³³ reported that numerous microbial genera, including *Blastomonas*, *Gemmatimonas*, *Mesorhizobium*, *Microbacterium*, *Mycobacterium*, *Mycoplasma*, *Parvimonas*, *Porphyromonas*, *Sphingomonas*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Veillonella*, are linked to the development of lung cancer (Fig. 3). Moreover, *Streptococcus* is found to predict survival in lung cancer¹³⁴. In normal lung tissues, elevated levels of *Bacteroidia* (genus), *Clostridia* (genus), *Bacteroidales* (orders), and *Clostridiales* (orders) are shown to be associated with worse RFS, whereas greater quantities of *Alphaproteobacteria* (classes), *Betaproteobacteria* (classes), *Burkholderiales* (orders), and *Neisseriales* (orders) are shown to be linked with better RFS¹³⁵. The genus *Thermus* is more abundant in tissues from patients with advanced-stage disease (stages IIIB and IV), whereas *Legionella* is more prevalent in patients who develop metastases¹³⁶ (Table 1, Fig. 3).

Furthermore, the most frequent genera in lung adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma are *Acinetobacter*, *Sphingomonas*, *Methylobacterium*, *Pseudomonas*, *Enterobacter*, *Propionibacterium*, *Micrococcus*, *Corynebacterium*, *Streptococcus*, and *Staphylococcus*¹³⁷. Shi et al.¹³⁴ and Su et al.¹³⁸ reported that the abundances of *Streptococcus*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Luteibacter*, *Caldicellulosiruptor*, and *Serratia* are notably greater in lung adenocarcinoma patients. Four bacteria (*Serratia marcescens*, *Haemophilus parainfluenzae*, *Streptococcus constellation*, and *Acinetobacter junii*) are found to have prognostic value. Of these, *Haemophilus parainfluenzae* is associated with positive two-year survival, while the other three are related to negative survival¹³⁹. Nontypeable *Haemophilus influenzae* induces the expression of

interleukin-17C (IL-17C) in the lungs, which may be a biomarker of poor prognosis¹⁴⁰ (Fig. 3).

3.8. Other types of cancer

The main bacterial genera in papillary thyroid carcinoma (PTC) include *Mycobacterium* (23.28%), *Phyllobacterium* (12.71%), and *Rhodococcus* (12.19%)⁴⁵ (Fig. 2M). Dysbiosis of the bacteria in specific types of PTC may account for the observed differences in PTC progression and pathogenesis^{141,142}. In metastatic osteosarcoma, *Acinetobacter* (69.2%) and *Streptococcus* (26.3%) are the most important bacterial genera³⁸ (Fig. 2N). In adenoid cystic carcinomas, *Leptotrichia*, *Actinomyces*, *Neisseria*, *Streptococcus*, *Veillonella*, and *Rothia* are significantly elevated¹⁴³. *Roseburia* and *Alloprevotella* are shown to be enriched in malignant tumours¹⁴⁴ (Table 1). In melanoma, the abundances of *Fusobacterium*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Paracoccus* were reported to be most strongly correlated with tumour progression¹⁴⁵. While *Clostridium* is regarded as a protective factor, *Gardnerella vaginalis* and *H. pylori* are risk factors^{146,147} (Fig. 3). In mesothelioma, the *Klebsiella* signature is shown to be more abundant in low-risk survivors¹⁴⁸. Six genera (*Fusobacterium*, *Longibaculum*, *Intestinimonas*, *Pasteurella*, *Limosilactobacillus*, and *Arthrobacter*) are substantially more common in glioma cells than in nearby normal brain regions¹⁴⁹. Additionally, *Corynebacterium*, *Mycoplasma*, *Achromobacter*, *Anaerococcus*, and *Streptococcus* are risk factors associated with OS in patients with adrenocortical carcinoma¹⁵⁰ (Fig. 3).

In summary, recent years have witnessed a surge in studies on the predictive significance of bacteria within tumours, revealing their potential to predict cancer stage and OS^{1,151}. However, the significance of intratumoural bacteria is complex and context-dependent, as some bacteria enhance immune responses and improve survival outcomes in certain contexts³. The possibility of using intratumoural bacteria as prognostic biomarkers is highlighted by these findings, which also address the need for more studies to elucidate their functions and determine their role in cancer treatment by altering the tumour microbiota. Additionally, the knowledge of which tumour-associated bacteria are genuinely relevant to the function also needs further exploration.

4. The function and mechanism of intratumoural bacteria

Multiple facets of tumour biology, such as immune evasion, metabolic reprogramming, and TME regulation, are linked to the intricate interactions between bacteria and cancer growth^{152–154}. As a result, the intratumoural bacteria and their metabolites modulate both positive and negative effects on tumour progression.

4.1. Tumour-promoting roles of intratumoural bacteria and their mechanism

Intratumoural and commensal bacteria are pivotal factors that shape cancer aggressiveness and act through pathways involving genetic mutation and modifications, immune evasion, activation of signalling pathways that promote tumour growth¹⁵⁵ (Fig. 4).

4.1.1. The impact of intratumoural microbes on tumour initiation and progression

4.1.1.1. Genetic mutation and modifications. Bacteria and their metabolites promote tumourigenesis by damaging

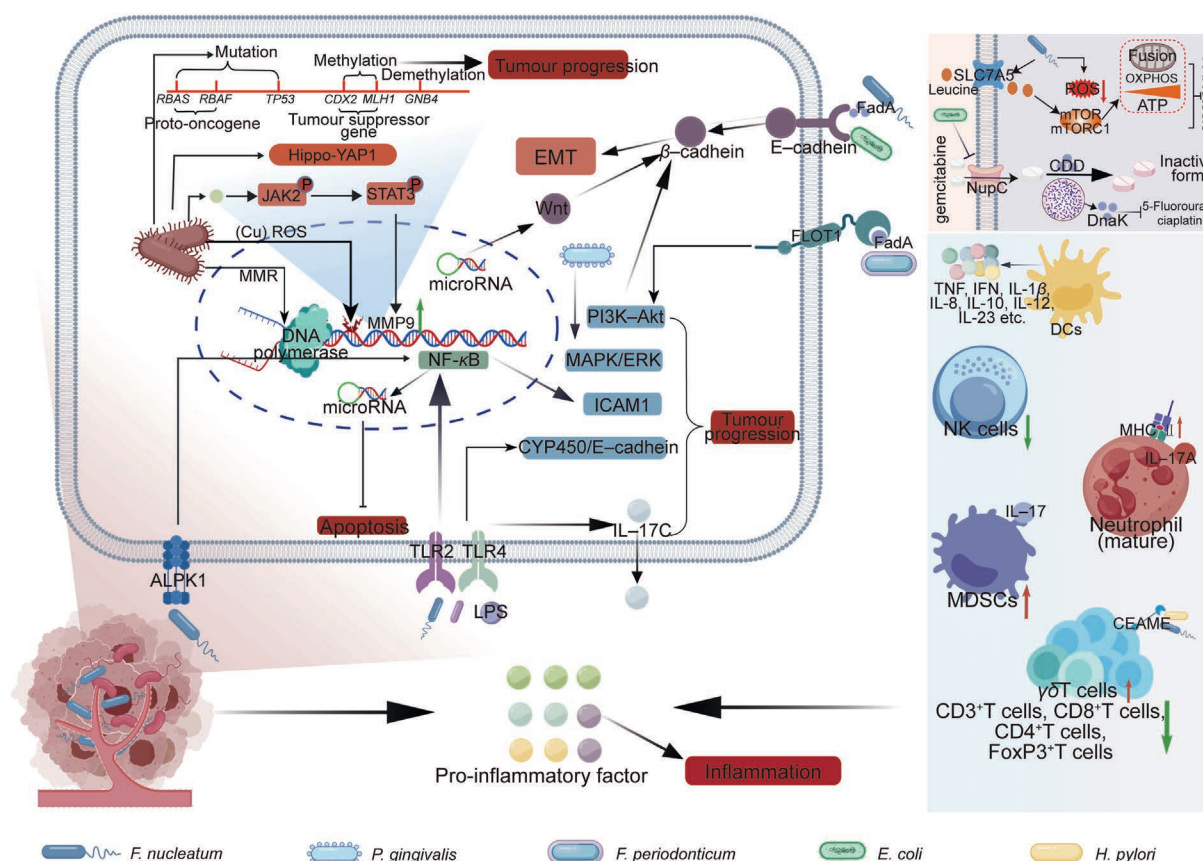


Figure 4 The mechanism by which bacteria promote cancer progression. Bacteria affect genetic status to cause cancer, including by mutating proto-oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes, increasing the burden on tumours through gene demethylation, influencing tumour mismatch repair, promoting gene damage through the synthesis of reactive oxygen species (ROS); Bacteria regulate the cancer immune microenvironment by binding to receptors such as Alpha kinase 1, Toll-like receptor (TLR), Flotillin 1, and E-cadherin to activate related pathways; Bacteria promote the secretion of inflammatory factors, thereby promoting tumour progression and inhibiting tumour apoptosis; Some bacteria enhance drug tolerance by metabolizing drugs (Gemcitabine, 5-Fluorouracil, and Cisplatin) and inhibiting pathways that drug enter intracellular; Leucine secreted by bacteria could also inhibit PANoptosis. Created with BioGDP.com⁴⁸.

genes^{156–158}. For example, *pks*⁺ *E. coli* and enterotoxigenic *Bacteroides fragilis* encode and secrete carcinogenic toxins that induce DNA damage, which results in faster tumour onset and greater mortality¹⁵⁶. *F. nucleatum* is strongly linked to mutations in the proto-oncogenes *KRAS* and *BRAF*^{159,160}, and *Acidovorax* and *Massilia* are enriched in *TP53*-mutated tumours in lung cancer, especially in squamous cell carcinoma^{161,162}. Meanwhile, *F. nucleatum* causes DNA damage and promotes oral cancer cell growth through the Ku70/p53 pathway¹⁶³. Moreover, *Bacteroides fragilis* and *F. nucleatum* increase ROS levels and DNA damage in breast cancer and CRC models^{164–166}, and macrocyclic colibactin causes copper-mediated oxidative cleavage, which results in DNA double-strand breaks in colon tumours¹⁶⁷.

Furthermore, some studies have reported that intratumoural bacteria directly regulate host epigenetic modifications. For example, a mutual mediation effect between the intratumoural bacteria and host DNA methylation variations is identified in stomach adenocarcinoma⁷⁴. Subsequently, *Hungatella hathewayi* and *F. nucleatum* mediate epigenetic modification of the host epigenome through upregulation of DNA methyltransferases, thus promoting hypermethylation and silencing of tumour-suppressor genes like *CDX2* and *MLH1* in CRC^{159,160}. Besides, an *E. coli* effector protein—EspF and *H. pylori* can modulate the DNA

mismatch repair pathway in CRC and gastric cancer models^{168–170}, and the induction of aberrant DNA methylation is the main pathway involved in *H. pylori* infection-mediated gastric adenocarcinoma^{171,172}.

4.1.1.2. Activation of signalling pathways that promote tumour growth. Intratumoural bacteria activate cancer progression and metastasis signalling pathways. The intratumour *Campylobacter* production of genotoxin triggers JAK2/STAT3/MMP9 signalling pathway, which promotes CRC metastasis¹⁷³. By triggering the Hippo–YAP1 pathway, *H. pylori*-induced aberrant demethylation and overexpression of GNB4, which promotes the development of gastric cancer¹⁷¹. Similarly, enterotoxin from *Clostridium perfringens* suppresses the phosphorylation of YAP1 and promotes YAP1 nuclear translocation, causing oral squamous cell carcinoma progression⁷. During EMT, the E-cadherin/β-catenin complex is downregulated. Through their modulation of the E-cadherin/β-catenin signalling pathway, *E. coli* and FadA in *F. nucleatum* may promote the spread of cancer^{174,175}. Moreover, CRC cells infected with *F. nucleatum* facilitate tumour metastasis by selectively harbouring *miR-1246*, *miR-92b-3p*, and *miR-27a-3p*, which target GSK3β and activate the Wnt/β-catenin pathway¹⁷⁶. Similarly, through FadAL adhesin-mediated Flotillin

1 binding and palmitic acid accumulation, *F. periodonticum* enhances Wnt3A palmitoylation, which induces hyperactivation of Wnt/ β -catenin signalling to drive EMT and therapeutic resistance¹⁷⁷. Furthermore, *P. gingivalis*, an anaerobic bacterium, promotes Akt-mediated tumour progression in pancreatic cancer¹⁷⁸. 5-Fluorouracil-resistance in CRC is enhanced by butyrate generated from the intratumour microbiota. This resistance is attributed to the PI3K–AKT signalling pathway activated by butyrate¹⁷⁹. Additionally, intracellular *P. gingivalis* increases the growth of CRC cells by activating MAPK/ERK signalling. Similarly, *F. nucleatum* activates the MAPK signalling pathway in breast cancer^{180,181}.

Inflammation can also promote tumour progression. When the tumour immune environment is modified, bacteria within tumours increase the release of several inflammatory factors, such as tumour necrosis factor (TNF), interferon (IFN), IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, IL-12, IL-17, IL-23, and IL-1 β ^{182–187}. NF- κ B is an important mechanism through which intratumoural bacteria promote inflammation. In HCC, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* causes a senescence-associated secretory phenotype in hepatic stellate cells via TLR4/NF- κ B-dependent NLRP3 inflammasome activation, which results in the release of protumorigenic inflammatory mediators that accelerate cancer progression¹³¹. Meanwhile, lactate overproduction by *E. coli* triggers RIG-I lactylation, blunting NF- κ B-dependent transcription of *Nlrp3* in macrophages. This suppression of inflammasome activity locked macrophages into an M2 state, fostering immune tolerance and metastatic outgrowth¹⁸⁸. Furthermore, *F. nucleatum* activates ALPK1/NF- κ B/ICAM1 signalling, which increases CRC cell adherence to endothelial cells and promotes tumour metastasis¹⁸⁹. In prostate epithelial cells, the NF- κ B and STAT3 transcription factor-related pathways constitute key pathways involved in tumorigenesis. Both protumoural myeloid cell infiltration triggered by *Bacteroides fragilis* toxin and the production of cytokines or chemokines such as IL-6 and IL-8 induced by *Propionibacterium acnes* are induced by NF- κ B and STAT3-related pathways^{190,191}. Through the activation of IL17/NF- κ B/RelB signalling, *F. nucleatum* recruits tumour-associated neutrophils to increase the growth of gastric cancer and immune evasion¹⁹². As we know, TLRs, which function as pattern-recognition receptors, significantly contribute to the immune therapy evasion of tumours by bacteria, especially by those that express TLR2 and TLR4¹⁹³. It was reported that extracellular vesicles (EVs) of *F. nucleatum* promote tumour development and metastasis in patients with breast cancer via TLR4¹⁹⁴. Moreover, *F. nucleatum* activates the cytochrome P450/epoxyoctadecenoic acid axis through the TLR4/Keap1/NRF2 signalling pathway. Meanwhile, *F. nucleatum* targets certain microRNAs and the innate immune signalling pathways MYD88 and TLR4 to alter the autophagy process in CRC^{195–197}. TLRs also play a role in cytokine secretion. *S. choleraesuis* markedly increases the production of IFN- γ , as well as the IFN-inducible chemokines CXCL9 and CXCL10, via TLR4 activation¹⁹⁸ (Fig. 4). Concurrently, *Propionibacterium acnes* promotes epithelial ovarian cancer progression by activating the Hedgehog signalling cascade, which triggers TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 production, promoting a cytokine-rich niche that enhances cancer cell invasion and proliferation¹⁹⁹. Additionally, *F. nucleatum*-Dps promotes CRC metastasis via CCL2/CCL7-induced Hedgehog signalling²⁰⁰.

4.1.1.3. Stimulation of immune-evasive pathways. Persistent immune homeostasis depends on the cross-interaction between

bacteria and their host. Intratumoural bacteria can evade the immune response and affect tumourigenesis by promoting an immunosuppressive TME and immune cell inactivation¹³.

Bacteria promote the secretion of inflammatory factors and immune escape through bacteria themselves and their secretions, including major *H. pylori* virulence factors (*e.g.*, CagA, VacA, BabA, and SabA) and other outer membrane proteins (neutrophil-activating protein and gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase)²⁰¹. Besides this, *S. multivorum* was reported to encourage tumour cells to release the chemokines CCL20 and CXCL8. Tumour immune escape is promoted by CCL20 released in the TME, which decreases CD8⁺ T cell invasion and promotes the recruitment of Treg cells²⁰². *F. nucleatum* infection induces both normal pancreatic epithelial cells and PDAC cells to secrete increased amounts of the cytokines GM-CSF, CXCL1, IL-8, and MIP-3 α . GM-CSF/IL-8-driven paracrine network dampened CD8⁺ T cell activity in pancreatic cancer^{203–205}. Moreover, commensal bacteria trigger Myd88-dependent production of IL-1 β and IL-23, which drive the activation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, and the subsequent release of cytotoxic effectors such as IL-17 to promote an inflammatory immunosuppressive environment in the lung tumour model²⁰⁶.

Furthermore, intratumoural bacteria exert an inhibitory effect on immune cells. *H. pylori* and *F. nucleatum* attenuate antitumour immune responses by engaging CEACAM1, an inhibitory receptor that is mostly produced by natural killer (NK) cells and activated T cells^{207–209}. *F. nucleatum* regulates the tumour immune microenvironment by selectively aggregating tumour-infiltrating myeloid cells, including CD11b⁺ myeloid cells, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs), classical myeloid dendritic cells (DCs), and CD103⁺ regulatory DCs, thereby potentiating tumourigenesis²¹⁰. Similarly, *Citovorax temperans* alter neutrophil maturation and induce polarization of helper T cell 17 cells, thereby contributing to the development of lung cancer^{211,212}. Sequentially, *F. nucleatum* promotes the growth of oral squamous cell carcinoma by enhancing lactate production via GLUT1²¹³; the lactate receptor HCAR1 facilitates the attraction of immunosuppressive PMN–MDSCs and TAMs²¹⁴. The recruitment of MDSCs is linked with a notable reduction in the numbers of CD3⁺ T cells, CD4⁺ T cells, CD8⁺ T cells, and FoxP3⁺ T cells, as well as a decrease in peritumoural tertiary lymphoid structures and M1 macrophage differentiation in CRC^{210,215–218}. Another study reported that *F. nucleatum* exploited multiple mechanisms to subvert immune surveillance: its Fap2 protein inhibited TIGIT-expressing tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes, while recruitment of MDSCs via CXCL1 autocrine signalling in pancreatic cancer^{203–205}. Besides, some bacterial metabolites also promote immune cell inactivation. For example, microbiota-derived butyrate increases expression of H19 in lung cancer cells through inhibiting HDAC2 and increasing H3K27 acetylation at the H19 promoter, and induces M2 macrophage polarization²¹⁹. Tryptophan-derived indole compounds generated by *Lactobacillus* can activate immunosuppressive TAMs via aryl hydrocarbon receptor signalling, leading to impaired antitumour CD8⁺ T cell responses in PDAC mouse models²²⁰.

4.1.2. The influence of intratumoural bacteria on therapeutic response and treatment efficacy

Intratumoural bacteria exert a protective effect on tumours through metabolism and the absorption of drugs, which may cause

therapeutic resistance²²¹. Gammaproteobacteria exemplify this metabolic warfare: their expression of cytidine deaminase converts gemcitabine—a frontline chemotherapeutic—into its inactive metabolite, 2',2'-difluorodeoxyuridine, which effectively disarms this drug in pancreatic and colorectal malignancies^{39,222,223}. *E. coli* upregulates the nucleoside permease NupC to sequester gemcitabine within bacterial cells, thereby reducing its bioavailability and decreasing its therapeutic efficacy in cocultured tumours²²⁴.

Moreover, bacteria promote tumour drug resistance by influencing the target sites of drugs. *N*-(3-Oxo-dodecanoyl) homoserine lactone, a quorum-sensing signalling molecule secreted by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, induces TGF- β signalling, triggers ErbB2 phosphorylation and its downstream target activation, and overcomes the inhibitory effect of trastuzumab on ErbB2 in breast cancer²²⁵. *F. nucleatum* exploits host stress responses by activating bacterial DnaK chaperones, which stabilize and enhance cancer cell DNA repair pathways. This intervention counteracts cisplatin- and 5-fluorouracil-induced DNA damage, enabling tumour cells to evade apoptosis²²⁶. Moreover, *F. nucleatum* orchestrates radio-resistance in NPC by hijacking nutrient-sensing pathways via the following mechanism: the SLC7A5 transporter shunts leucine into the mTORC1 signalling pathway, which suppresses PAN-optosis—a coordinated cell death program triggered by radiation—and fosters tumour cell survival²²⁷ (Fig. 4).

4.2. Anti-tumour roles of intratumoural bacteria and their mechanism

Emerging evidence highlights the capacity of intratumoural bacteria and their metabolic byproducts to enhance antitumour activity via various mechanisms, including metabolism regulation, programmed cell death, stimulating STING signalling, inhibiting PD-1/PD-L1, and enhancing immune activity, etc. (Fig. 5).

Bacteria induce the programmed cell death of tumour cells, including apoptosis and pyroptosis²²⁸. In HCC, Hpn, a protein released by *H. pylori*, suppresses USP5 expression and activates P14–P53 signalling, both of which contribute to apoptosis²²⁹. Butyrate, a product of *Clostridium butyricum*, triggers super-oxidative stress and intracellular lipid accumulation, increasing the vulnerability of PDAC to ferroptosis²³⁰ (Fig. 5A). In TNBC, microbial-derived TMAO induces tumour cell pyroptosis, a type of controlled cell death in which damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) are released. These DAMPs activate CD8⁺ T cells, whose cytotoxic function is further potentiated by commensal microbiota, suggesting a synergistic interplay between microbial metabolites and resident flora in enhancing immunotherapy efficacy²³¹.

Moreover, the STING signalling pathway plays an essential part in the innate immune response. *Bifidobacterium* converts the immune responder for anti-CD47 immunotherapy in a STING and

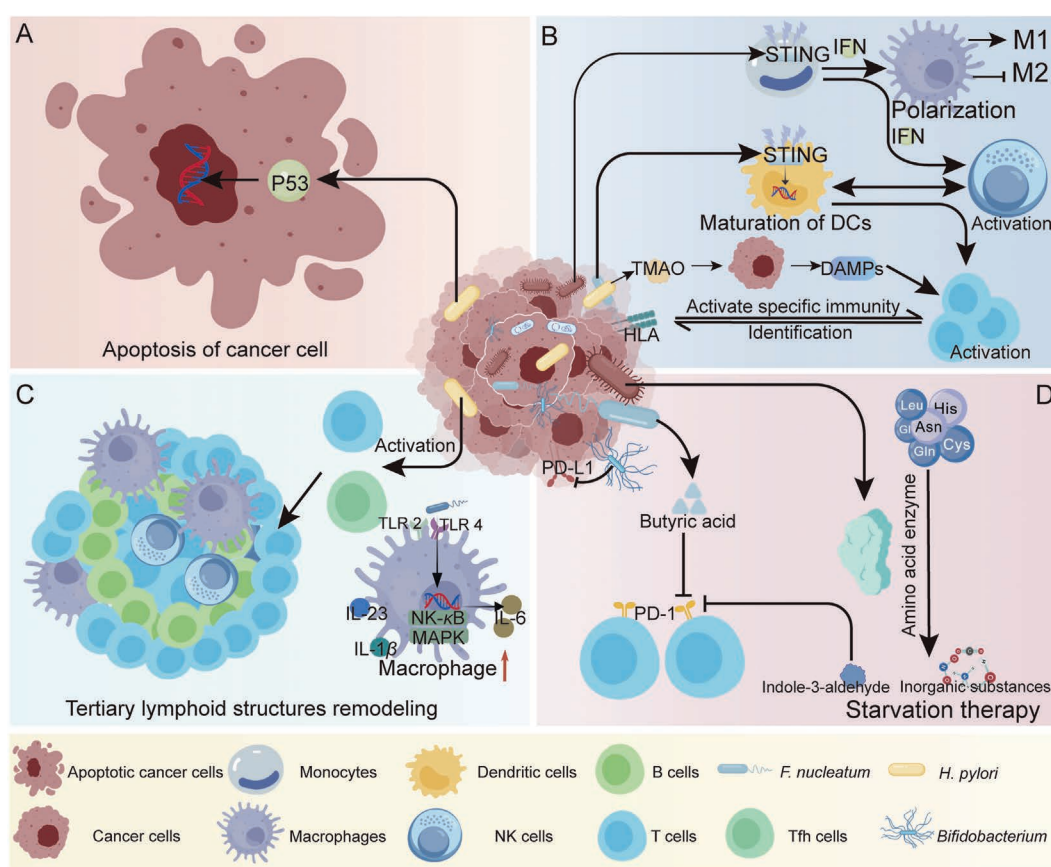


Figure 5 The role of bacteria in cancer therapy. (A) *H. pylori* activates the P14–P53 signal, stimulating cell apoptosis in HCC. (B) Bacteria trigger STING signal and activate specific immunity; Microbial-derived trimethylamine *N*-oxide (TMAO) induces tumour cell pyroptosis; Tumour bacteria are displayed by human leukocyte antigen (HLA) molecules in tumour cells. (C) Peritumoural tertiary lymphoid structures are enlarged by tumour-adjacent lymphoid structures and T follicular helper cells specialized to bacteria. (D) Microbial secretions or bacteria inhibit ICI; Microbial enzymes are used in amino acid deprivation therapy. Created with BioGDP.com⁴⁸.

IFN-dependent model. Intratumoural bacteria-derived STING agonists induce IFN-I production by intratumoural monocytes to regulate macrophage polarization and NK cell–DCs cross-talk^{232,233}. Interestingly, intracellular bacteria activate bacterial-specific immunity, which was reported in 41 distinct species of intracellular bacteria, displayed by HLA class I and II molecules in tumour cells, promoting antigen presentation, thereby triggering immune responses in melanoma²³⁴ (Fig. 5B).

Furthermore, bacteria inhibit the expression of PD-1/PD-L1 and promote the infiltration of tumour immune cells. In microsatellite-stable CRC, *F. nucleatum*-derived butyrate suppresses histone deacetylase 3/8 activity in CD8⁺ T cells. This epigenetic reprogramming drove H3K27 acetylation at the *Tbx21* promoter, transcriptionally repressing PD-1. Similarly, his receptor PD-L1 could be inhibited by *Bifidobacterium* in melanoma. *F. nucleatum*-driven CX3CR1⁺ PD-L1⁺ phagocytes routed to CRC tissues and reshaped TME²³⁵. By alleviating PD-1/PD-L1-mediated inhibition, bacteria such as *F. nucleatum* and *Bifidobacterium* enhance T cell proliferation and activation, enabling sustained immune responses to tumour^{236–238}.

In addition, tumour bacteria link other cellular programs and immunity, including NK/T cells and effector T cells activation in pancreatic cancer²³⁴. Spatiotemporal modulation of immune cell trafficking is exemplified by *Clostridia* in bile tract cancers. By recruiting MDSCs and activating the PI3K–CCL2–CCR2 pathway, *Clostridium* alters the TME to improve CD8⁺ T lymphocyte infiltration, a crucial component of antitumour immunity²³⁹. Other ways bacteria activate immunity^{240,241}, such as: mediating bacteria-specific T follicular helper cells and tumour-adjacent lymphoid structures, and expanding peritumoural tertiary lymphoid structures, which in turn promote anti-tumour immunity²⁴². TLR2/4 and MyD88 signalling pathways are required for optimal NF-κB and MAPK activation in macrophages in response to *F. nucleatum* and *A. actinomycetemcomitans*²⁴³ (Fig. 5C).

Interestingly, the intratumoural bacteria inhibit tumour progression by metabolizing amino acids. In melanoma, *L. reuteri* colonizes tumour niches and metabolizes dietary tryptophan into indole-3-aldehyde. This metabolite drives localized expansion of IFN-γ-producing CD8⁺ T cells, synergizing with ICIs to overcome immunosuppressive barriers⁸. Tumour expansion reduces the expression of certain enzymes (*e.g.*, microbial L-asparaginase), causing auxotrophy for specific amino acids. Tumour development is specifically hindered by this decrease because normal cells produce these amino acids *via* regular routes²⁴⁴ (Fig. 5D).

Overall, intratumoural bacteria and their metabolic byproducts amplify anti-tumour activity through various mechanisms. Understanding these mechanisms will help expand existing therapeutic regimens for cancer therapy.

5. Treatment opportunities

5.1. Elimination of tumour-promoting bacteria

To overcome microbial-driven impact, innovative strategies have been developed to selectively eliminate intratumoural pathogenic bacteria, thereby sensitizing tumours to conventional therapies.

5.1.1. Antibiotic-based therapy

Conventional antibiotics are used in conjunction with antitumour medications to disrupt bacteria-driven therapy resistance, which further increases tumour cell death (Table 2). For example, metronidazole reverses *F. nucleatum*-induced EMT during liver metastasis and improves the efficacy of oxaliplatin in a CRC model²⁴⁵. Similarly, co-delivery of ferritin-caged doxorubicin with metronidazole highly resensitizes breast cancer to PD-L1 therapy²⁴⁶, and metronidazole is covalently linked to fluorouridine to form a conjugate through which a synergistic cytotoxic effect is achieved in a CRC model²⁴⁷. Moreover, the concurrent use of ampicillin to deplete *Staphylococcus epidermidis* enhances outcomes in breast cancer patients treated with paclitaxel²⁴⁸. Further, colistin-crosslinked gemcitabine or doxycycline nanoparticles (NPs) have been used to eliminate *F. nucleatum* and *E. coli* in breast cancer^{249,250}. Additionally, doxycycline is co-delivered with doxorubicin to prevent cancer metastasis by controlling the abundance of intratumoural *Staphylococcus* and *Lactobacillus* in TNBC²⁵¹. Other antibiotic complexes such as silver-tinidazole allow the targeted eradication of tumour-associated *F. nucleatum* in both primary and metastatic CRC lesions without disrupting the gut microbiota²⁵².

Notably, antibiotic-based combined therapy for cancer treatment has already undergone clinical trials (Supporting Information Table S2). For example, aztreonam and vancomycin, in combination with pembrolizumab for the treatment of right-sided colon cancer and colon adenoma, are tested in a phase II clinical trial (NCT04312360) with promising results. In a phase II study, metronidazole or chlorhexidine was demonstrated to regulate the inflammation caused by intratumoural bacteria in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (NCT06627270).

5.1.2. Biological products and other antimicrobial substances

Biological products redefine bacterial eradication in tumours and surpass traditional antibiotics (Table 3). Magnetic nanocatalytic agents exemplify this innovative therapy: in CRC, arginyl-glycyl-aspartic acid and 3-carboxypropyl triphenylphosphonium surface-modified particles generate localized hydroxyl radicals *via* Fenton reactions under alternating magnetic fields, which leads to the selective disintegration of *F. nucleatum* and the induction of DCs maturation, while healthy tissue is spared²⁵³. Concurrently,

Table 2 The strategic integration of traditional antibiotics with antineoplastic agents.

Antibacterial substance	Drug delivery system	Ref.
Metronidazole	Metronidazole and oxaliplatin were encapsulated within poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) NPs.	245
Metronidazole	Doxorubicin coloaded into a nanovehicle was ferritin-nanocaged.	246
Metronidazole	Metronidazole–fluorouridine NPs.	247
Ampicillin	Oral ampicillin and paclitaxel	248
Colistin	Colistin and doxycycline loaded into <i>F. nucleatum</i> -mimicking nanovehicles.	249
Colistin	Colistin crosslinked gemcitabine micelle.	250
Doxycycline	Doxycycline and doxorubicin were combined to create a multifunctional nanoplatform.	251
Silver-tinidazole	A silver-tinidazole complex encapsulated in liposomes.	252

Table 3 Biological products and other substances that remove bacteria.

Antibacterial substance	Drug delivery system	Ref.
Amino acid	A monodispersed, superparamagnetic nanocatalytic drug was created by combining 3-carboxypropyl triphenylphosphonium bromide with arginyl-glycyl-aspartic acid.	253
<i>Lactobacillus rhamnosus</i> GG	Gallium polyphenol network-equipped <i>Lactobacillus rhamnosus</i> GG probiotics.	254
Antibody	Mesoporous silica NPs functionalized with bacterial lipoteichoic acid antibodies for targeted delivery to bacteria.	255
Anti-TNF α	The anti-TNF α medication was accommodated, and Au NPs were anchored using Nb ₂ C nanosheets to create the composite.	256
Antibody	A light-responsive hydrogel was composed of a hyaluronic acid-coated microshell and a core modified by bacteria-targeting LPS antibody and heat-responsive plate.	257
Nanozyme	A new protein-supported copper single-atom nanozyme was created, utilizing metal elements as the active core.	258
LL37	A human antimicrobial peptide was produced <i>in situ</i> by cancer-associated fibroblasts using an optogenetic technology.	259
Bacteriophages	Targeting <i>Enterococcus hirae</i> phage.	261
Bacteriophages	Targeting <i>E. coli</i> phage.	262
Silver	Epirubicin was loaded into the mesopores of dendritic mesoporous silica NPs to form the antibacterial-antineoplastic NPs.	263
Vermiculite/copper telluride	Vermiculite/copper telluride bio-heterojunctions.	264
D-Penicillamine	Chelating the copper chelator D-penicillamine with Zn ²⁺ .	265
Ellagic acid	Ellagic acid-protein nano-complex.	266
Allicin	Glucose oxidase and allicin co-loaded into an acid-stable adhesive hydrogel.	267
Lauric acid	A nanodrug delivered the platinum prodrug and antimicrobial lauric acid.	268
Tellurium	An oral dose form of tellurium-containing NPs loaded with cisplatin.	269
Berberine	A double-bundle DNA tetrahedron-based nanocarrier was created to deliver berberine to intratumoural bacteria.	270

metabolic interference strategies involve the use of engineered probiotics such as *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG coated with gallium–polyphenol networks, which disrupt iron respiration in tumour-promoting *Proteobacteria* and neutralize microbiota-derived LPS, resensitizing pancreatic tumours to immunotherapy²⁵⁴. Targeted drug delivery is also achieved through bacteria-specific nanocarriers. In a breast cancer model, mesoporous silica NPs decorated with lipoteichoic acid antibodies can target *Peptostreptococcus anaerobius* and deliver irinotecan to kill tumours²⁵⁵. Multimodal phototherapy platforms, such as Nb₂C/Au nanocomposites, disrupt *E. coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* metabolism *via* photothermal effects while generating immunogenic microbial neoantigens that prime tumour-specific CD8⁺ T cells in CRC and breast cancer models²⁵⁶. In osteosarcoma, light-responsive hydrogels containing nanomicrostructures trigger bacterial LPS, which upregulates the expression of CD4 and CD8²⁵⁷. In a CRC model, the novel copper single-atom nanozyme BSA–Cu SAN generates ROS and reduces glutathione levels, which effectively scavenge pathogen-tumour symbionts such as *F. nucleatum*²⁵⁸. The human antibacterial peptide LL37 is generated by engineering cancer-associated fibroblasts *in situ* to eliminate *F. nucleatum* while also encoding an *HSP* gene to reduce breast cancer volume²⁵⁹.

Furthermore, bacteriophages are exploited as antibiofilm agents and antimicrobial adjuvants while rarely inducing bacterial resistance, making them an invaluable asset in the era of antibiotic resistance²⁶⁰. Bacteriophages can be used to encapsulate anti-tumour drugs or to eliminate intratumoural bacteria directly. For example, a phage strain isolated from human saliva that can specifically lysed *F. nucleatum* can be engineered to deliver irinotecan to CRC¹¹. Targeting *Enterococcus hirae* phage activates MHC-restricted antigens, enhancing cyclophosphamide or anti-PD-1 efficacy²⁶¹. Moreover, bacteriophages that target *E. coli* have been used to deliver PD-1²⁶².

Other antimicrobial strategies, such as the combination of antibacterial silver NPs and epirubicin, result in *F. nucleatum* eradication and CRC apoptosis²⁶³. Vermiculite/copper telluride bio-heterojunctions generate substantial amounts of ROS *via* photodynamic/chemodynamic activation, which effectively scavenges *E. coli* within CRC cells and initiates autophagy in tumour cells²⁶⁴. Moreover, natural compounds such as ellagic acid, berberine, and D-penicillamine have been repurposed into tumour-targeted NPs, as they selectively deplete intratumoural *F. nucleatum*, *E. coli*, or *Staphylococcus aureus* to resensitize tumours to subsequent therapies in breast cancer patients^{265,266}. Allicin and glucose oxidase work in concert to increase intracellular oxidative stress and disulfide stress, which causes ferroptosis and disulfidptosis and eliminates *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterococcus*, *E. coli*, and *Staphylococcus aureus* in breast cancer²⁶⁷. The co-delivery of lauric acid and a platinum prodrug synergistically prompts biofilm disruption against *F. nucleatum* by generating ROS through peroxidase-like activity and improves the efficacy of platinum treatment in CRC²⁶⁸. Tellurium and berberine has also been proven to have antibacterial properties^{269,270}.

In summary, antibiotics and biological products eliminate intratumoural pathogenic bacteria, thereby sensitizing tumours to conventional therapies. By overcoming the limitations of traditional antibiotics, bacteriophage-based therapies offer a personalized and potent approach to cancer treatment.

5.2. Engineered bacteria

With the unique advantages of bacteria, including rapid proliferation, precise tumour targeting ability, genetic manipulability, and genetic stability, attenuated bacteria expand rapidly, driven by physical, chemical, and synthetic biology engineering²⁷¹. Currently, the application of engineered bacteria is mainly focused on the following fields.

5.2.1. Cancer immunotherapy

The strategic deployment of engineered bacteria to activate anti-tumour immunity represents a paradigm shift in oncology and builds on historical precedents such as the BCG and tetanus vaccines^{272,273}. New approaches have leveraged engineered bacteria to function as dynamic anti-cancer immunomodulators that directly reprogram the TME and systemic immunity. Attenuation of *Salmonella typhimurium* strains, for example, is shown to enhance CD4⁺ T-cell infiltration in a CRC model²⁷⁴ and to upregulate caspase-11-driven noncanonical inflammasome signalling in a melanoma model²⁷⁵. These strains also synergize with photothermal therapy²⁷⁶ or calcium carbonate-mineralized platforms to generate autologous breast cancer vaccines *in situ*²⁷⁶. *E. coli* has emerged as a versatile ally, as the intratumoural injection of *E. coli* or its outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) normalizes tumour vasculature^{277,278}, polarizes macrophages towards proinflammatory M1 phenotypes, and recruits cytotoxic T lymphocytes through CCL5-dependent chemotaxis in advanced-stage solid tumours²⁷⁹. Similarly, engineered *E. coli* variants—such as aptamer-conjugated strains²⁸⁰ or attenuated bacteria²⁸¹—deliver hepatitis B surface antigens to HCC²⁸², drive DCs maturation, and stimulate systemic helper T cell 1/cytotoxic T lymphocytes responses in bladder cancer²⁸³. Besides, *Lactococcus lactis* increases CD103⁺ DCs in melanoma-draining lymph nodes²⁸⁴, and *Peptostreptococcus anaerobius*-inspired biomimetic nanovaccines suppress MDSCs and M2-like macrophages to prevent CRC recurrence²⁸⁵. Notably, EVs derived from *Bacteroides fragilis*

activate cGAS–STING signalling to increase DC immunogenicity in breast cancer²⁸⁶.

Additionally, bacteria engineered to cancer vaccine. Flagellate bacteria act as antigens at tumour margins to prime adaptive immunity in melanoma²⁸⁷. Anaerobe-targeted therapies, such as *Cutibacterium acnes*, *Clostridium novyi-NT* spores, *Salmonella* or *Propionibacterium acnes*, exploit hypoxic niches to induce immunogenic cell death, M1 macrophage polarization, and granuloma-associated helper T cell 1 cytokine storms (e.g., TNF- α , IFN- γ)^{288–291}. *Staphylococcus aureus* α -haemolysin enhances the expression of PD-L1 and the infiltration of facilitated CD8⁺ T cells in TNBC²⁹². Antigen vaccines with several bacteria have been directly constructed to inhibit breast cancer metastasis and activate immunity²⁹³. Moreover, in breast cancer, the *F. nucleatum* membrane has been used as a vaccine adjuvant to activate immunity²⁹⁴. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* contains pathogen-associated molecular patterns recognized by antigen-presenting cells and adhesion molecules that are shown to facilitate the invasion of antigen-presenting cells by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in a breast cancer model²⁹⁵ (Fig. 6 and Supporting Information Table S3).

5.2.2. Engineered bacteria for drug delivery

Engineered bacteria for drug delivery are rapidly expanding for cancer therapy^{195,296}. As a living drug uniquely equipped with the ability to colonize solid tumours and overcome barriers²⁹⁷, this self-guided targeting of bacteria enables the precise delivery of

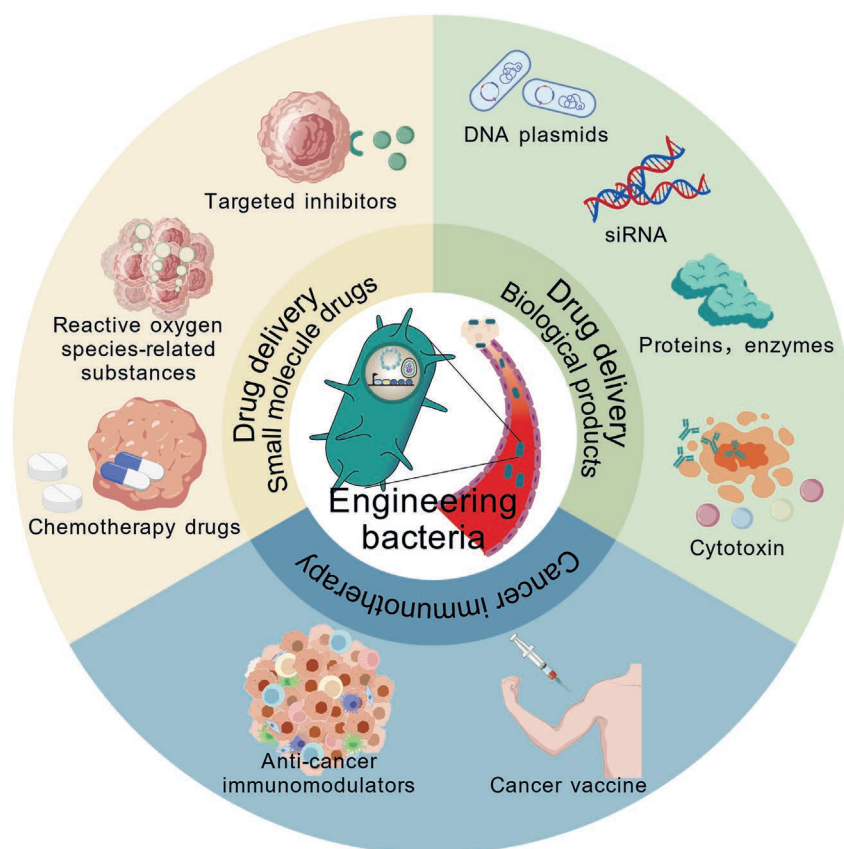


Figure 6 Bacteria used in cancer immunotherapy or act as carriers for delivery of small molecule drugs and biological products. (A) Bacterial vectors carry small-molecule drugs: chemotherapy drugs, ROS-related substances, and targeted inhibitors. (B) Engineered bacteria carry biological products: DNA plasmids, small interfering RNAs (siRNAs), proteins, enzymes, and cytotoxins. (C) Bacteria are used in cancer immunotherapy: anti-cancer immunomodulators and cancer vaccines. Created with BioGDP.com⁴⁸.

therapeutic small molecule drugs and biological products, bypassing systemic toxicity²⁹⁸. Moreover, engineered bacteria have been programmed to release therapeutic cargo in response to tumour-specific stimuli (e.g., low oxygen concentration, acidic pH), synchronizing drug activation with microenvironmental cues. Bacteria can also preferentially reach necrotic or hypoxic areas of tumours. Notably, by harmonizing localized immune activation and spatiotemporally controlling drug release, bacterial vectors transcend passive delivery systems and offer a paradigm shift towards adaptive, microenvironment-responsive cancer therapy²⁹⁹ (Fig. 6).

Bacteria can be engineered for the targeted delivery of small molecule anticancer drugs, including chemotherapy drugs³⁰⁰, ROS-related substances^{301,302}, and targeted inhibitors, based on the pathogenic characteristics of the tumours³⁰³ (Fig. 6). Radioiodine-labelled, inactivated *Salmonella* can deliver internal radiotherapy (¹²⁵I/¹³¹I) to both cancer cells and TAMs in CRC³⁰⁴. Parallel approaches have exploited *E. coli* Nissle 1917 to ferry bacteria-specific radiopharmaceuticals into breast tumours³⁰⁵. Doxorubicin encapsulated in a magnetic NPs–*E. coli* conjugate has been delivered to melanoma and breast cancer cells^{306,307}. Meanwhile, *Bifidobacterium longum* and *E. coli* MG1655 have been used for the targeted delivery of small molecule drugs, such as cytosine deaminase and tyrosinase, to tumours^{303,308,309}. Moreover, natural anaerobic sulfate-reducing *Desulfovibrio* is constructed to dissimilate sulfate into sulfide, which amplifies oxidative stress to trigger ferroptosis and apoptosis in breast cancer cells³¹⁰.

Engineered bacteria can also be used for the delivery of biological products, including DNA plasmids, siRNAs, proteins, enzymes, cytotoxins, collagenase, or gene-editing machinery, into malignant sites. For example, engineered *S. typhimurium* secretes a fusion toxin TGF- α –PE38 (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* exotoxin A) that selectively eradicates EGFR-overexpressing breast cancer^{311,312}. *S. choleraesuis*, *E. coli* MG1655, *E. coli* Nissle 1917, and *Salmonella* VNP20009 have been used to deliver endostatin DNA and cytolysin from haemolysin E DNA plasmids, L-arginine DNA, CD47 and SIRP α siRNA, respectively, to tumours^{313–316}. Moreover, hypoxia-targeting *E. coli* drives therapeutic payloads such as thioredoxin-binding protein-2 into tumour cores, to induce selective tumour damage in the hypoxic niche of colon tumours³⁰². Probiotic *E. coli* or *Staphylococcus epidermidis* expressing catalase catalyzed H₂O₂ decomposition into O₂, alleviating hypoxia to radiosensitize tumours^{317–321}. An engineered *Lactobacillus acidophilus* is developed for the codelivery of lactate oxidase and horseradish peroxidase to disrupt lactate homeostasis in breast cancer³²². Additionally, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Clostridium* species, and *E. coli* strains have been reprogrammed to secrete bacterial collagenases or *Streptomyces omiyaensis* trypsin, which degrade tumour extracellular matrix components such as collagens I and IV^{323–326}. Furthermore, strains such as *Brevibacillus choshinensis*, *Salmonella typhimurium* VNP20009, *Clostridium sporogenes*, *Salmonella*, and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* that have been transfected with DNA plasmids, secrete cytokines such as IFN- α/γ , IL-2, IL-10, IL-18, IL-15, and GM-CSF. This triggers systemic tumour antigen-specific responses^{327–329}, and amplifies T/NK cell cytolytic activity and proliferation^{330–334}, which reverses T-cell exhaustion and directly suppresses tumour metastasis^{335–338}. Additionally, *E. coli* Nissle 1917 can express ICIs that target PD-1, PD-L1, or CTLA-4, which each disrupt immunosuppressive checkpoints. Beyond live bacteria, the role of microbial EVs in

microbiota–host interactions are also important. An anti-EGFR scFV plasmid loaded in *E. coli* BL21-derived OMVs is developed for TNBC²⁷⁷.

5.2.3. Engineered bacteria for cancer therapy in clinical trials
Recent research highlights nearly 70 engineered bacteria-based therapies in clinical trials stage for cancer treatment, such as pancreatic cancer, lung cancer, urothelial carcinoma, gastrointestinal, pancreas, bone, and gynaecologic cancers. These clinical trials cover more than 16 bacterial species, with *L. monocytogenes* and *Salmonella enterica* the most extensively exploited³³⁹. Notably, among these 70 clinical trials, 58 are for cancer vaccines, four are associated with anti-cancer immunomodulators, six are related to bacteria-based drug delivery vectors, and the other two are associated with probiotics for microecological modulation (Supporting Information Table S4).

Listeria monocytogenes is one of the most common bacteria that has been studied in current clinical studies. *Listeria monocytogenes* is advantageous for cytosolic antigen processing and presentation on MHC-I, as it is specialized to enter the cytosol of infected cells, thereby activating desirable immune-sensing pathways. ADXS11–001 is a vaccine based on an attenuated live strain of the *Listeria monocytogenes*, which is administered to 290 patients with HPV associated cancers. 62.5% of the patients show a T-cell response in a phase II study (NCT02002182). Another cancer vaccine, *Clostridium novyi-NT* spores, enhances a drug response and triggers inflammatory signals in individuals with drug-resistant solid tumours, which induce tumour shrinkage in 41% of patients and stable disease in a total of 81% in a phase I study (NCT01924689). Moreover, BCG entered phase III clinical trials for bladder cancer treatment (NCT06241755, NCT06747455) with positive results in phase I/II.

Moreover, as an anti-cancer immunomodulator, EXL01 is designed based on a single strain of *F. prausnitzii*, which is expected to improve nivolumab treatment for non-small cell lung cancer patients in a phase I/II clinical trial (NCT06448572). Meanwhile, *Salmonella typhimurium* VNP20009, an L-mentholase expression-deficient mutant strain, is being constructed for patients with malignant pleural and abdominal effusions via intravitreal injection as part of an early-stage phase I study (NCT06178003).

Furthermore, six engineered bacteria for drug delivery of biological products, including IL-2, STING agonist, deaminase, and TLR protein, are currently in clinical trials. A phase I/II clinical trial for a combination of *Salmonella* expressing cytosine deaminase and 5-fluorocytosine shows promising results in locally transforming 5-fluorocytosine to its active form in solid tumours³⁰³. Subsequently, a phase I study of oral attenuated *Salmonella typhimurium* containing human IL-2 increase peripheral blood NK cell counts in patients with metastatic gastrointestinal cancers (NCT01099631). Additionally, two probiotic products, *Lactobacillus lactis* and a combination of eight probiotics (VSL#3[®]), have entered the clinical trial stage, which is designed to enhance the response of existing therapy (NCT06097468, NCT01579591). The phase III clinical trial of VSL#3[®] reported encouraging results in patients receiving concurrent pelvic radiation therapy.

Together, all these advance reveals good trends for clinical translation of engineered bacteria-based products. Nevertheless, among these 70 clinical trials based on engineered bacteria, 17 trials were terminated, one study was suspended, and two studies were withdrawn.

6. Discussion and future perspectives

The tumour microbiome is now recognized as a pivotal player in cancer biology, including driving progression, modulating therapeutic responses, and serving as a therapeutic target³⁴⁰. Tumour-associated bacteria exhibit spatiotemporal heterogeneity. For example, *F. nucleatum* and *Bacteroides* are frequently detected in the invasive margin in CRC, a region associated with increased tumour cell motility and metastatic potential. In the tumour periphery, which has increased vascularity and immune cell activity, a more diverse microbiota that includes *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* is present; this may exert antitumour effects through metabolite production²⁵. Another study showed that the intratumoural bacteria content at the OTU level in ICC tumour tissue was nearly 34% higher than that in the paracancerous tissues⁹⁴, indicating the high diversity of bacteria composition across different regions of the same tumour. Moreover, bacterial composition can vary across the various stages of tumour progression. For example, early-stage CRC is often characterized by a relative enrichment of bacteria involved in inflammation and DNA damage, such as *F. nucleatum* and *pks*⁺*E. coli*. These bacteria contribute to oncogenic processes by inducing chronic inflammation and genotoxic stress. As tumours advance to later stages (TNM III–IV), the microbiota further shifts. Late-stage CRC is associated with increased abundances of *Streptococcus anginosus*, *Peptostreptococcus anaerobius*, and *Veillonella parvula*, which are linked to increased metastatic potential and poor prognosis. These heterogeneities are due to the various tumour molecular subtypes, spatial location, progression stage, genetic alterations, and the presence of multiple subclones. Still, they are also influenced by variations of angiogenesis, oxygen levels, microbial sources, endocytosis, and micropinocytosis^{25,26}. Notably, Udayasuryan et al. introduced the tissue-engineered models, which could illustrate the host-microbiota interactions in cancer³⁴¹. These models not only maintain the genetic constitution of the host but also do so in a physiologically relevant 3D structure that consists of multiple, differentiated cell types functioning in synergism as in native tissue, which helps to investigate the role of individual bacterial interactions with the host.

Intratumoural bacteria affect the entire process of tumour development. The intratumoural bacteria inhibit tumour growth by appropriating the nutrients needed for tumour proliferation, which triggers apoptosis. The apoptotic substances of the tumour serve as antigens to regulate the immune response. In contrast, intratumoural bacteria produce some substances necessary for tumour proliferation, reprogramming tumour metabolism, and tumour progression. The lactic acid secreted by intratumoural bacteria changes the TME through the Warburg effect, promoting tumour angiogenesis and drug resistance. Moreover, bacteria affect tumour cells through multiple pathways. The molecular mechanisms involving STAT3, NF- κ B, Hippo, and Wnt/ β -catenin pathways are dysregulated in gastric cancer caused by *H. pylori*, while *H. pylori* induces oxidative stress, DNA damage, chronic inflammation, and cell apoptosis—key cellular events that pave the way for carcinogenesis³⁴². Additionally, altered nutrients and signals in the TME can lead to metabolic immune suppression of effector cells and promote regulatory immune cells³⁴³.

Therapeutic approaches leveraging intratumoural or exogenously engineered bacteria remain a valid potential option for overcoming the limitations of conventional cancer treatments. Over the past two decades, antibiotics and biological products have been developed to eradicate the cancer-promoting bacteria.

Nevertheless, traditional antibiotics may disrupt the homeostasis of the microbiome. Microbial depletion strategies—*via* antibiotics or catalytic nanomedicine—resensitize tumours to conventional therapies by dismantling bacteria-driven resistance mechanisms. The development of new antibacterial substances that specifically target a particular genus of bacteria will precisely eliminate specific bacteria within tumours while enhancing the efficacy of drugs without affecting the regulatory system of the body. Meanwhile, more engineered bacterial products should be explored to meet the unmet need for clinical cancer treatments. For example, similar to oncolytic viruses, oncolytic bacteria have the potential to be developed as an anti-cancer strategy³⁴⁴. Notably, EVs also have the potential value not only for cancer antiopathogenesis but also for cancer theranostics, which may have lots of clinical translational opportunities due to their unique attributes³⁴⁵.

Currently, seven clinical trials for antibiotic-based combined therapies targeting tumour-associated bacteria, and 70 clinical trials for engineered bacteria therapies have entered the clinical trial stage for cancer treatment (Tables S2–S4). There are 58 clinical trials related to cancer vaccines, four studies for anti-cancer immune regulators, six trials related to engineered bacteria-based drug delivery vectors, and two studies for probiotics. Notably, 14 clinical trials for cancer vaccines based on *Clostridium novyi-NT* spores or *Listeria monocytogenes* by intravenous injection were terminated due to insufficient clinical efficacy, serious adverse events, or mortality. These serious adverse events may due to the bacterial attenuation process not being thorough enough. For example, LPS is not only a major virulence factor of *Clostridium novyi-NT* spores but also the primary substance that stimulates TNF secretion. *Listeria monocytogenes* has been made safer by deleting *prfA*, the master virulence regulator gene. Nevertheless, *prfA*-deficient *Listeria monocytogenes* cannot escape from the phagosome into the cytosol of the infected cells, which would prevent the tumour antigens expressed by the vaccine strains from accessing the cytosol for processing and cell surface presentation³⁴⁶.

Despite the rapid development of bacterial-based technologies, several key challenges and future work should be considered. First, the mechanism of crosstalk between intratumoural microbes and the host microenvironment, as well as the origins of intratumoural bacteria, requires further investigation. This includes examining whether oral microbiota or gut microbes alter the composition of intratumoural microbes. The characteristics of the host microenvironment also need identification^{1,85}. Second, the mechanism of spatiotemporal heterogeneity warrants in-depth exploration, particularly regarding the diversity of intratumoural bacteria within the same cancer. Notably, bacteria at different stages of cancer exhibit distinct functions, and the same bacteria in different cancers yield different outcomes. These aspects will help in biomarker-driven drug development in the era of personalized therapies. Moreover, the efficacy of engineered bacteria is likely to vary depending on the administration route^{92,347}. Third, the safety of engineered bacteria needs to be monitored, which may induce the adverse effects associated with current immunotherapies (particularly ICIs), including systemic immune responses, hypertension, body temperature rise, and fatigue (NCT00623831). The use of attenuated bacteria systemically may bring some additional toxicity risk, such as potential symptomatic infections and off-target effects. Thus, using engineered probiotics or direct intratumoural administration may enhance safety in the future. Fourth, live bacteria exhibit several limitations, including inaccurate effective doses, poor bacterial positioning³⁴⁸, accumulation

in the liver and kidneys³⁴⁹, low gene transfection efficiency, and instability. For example, similar to the live cell products, live bacteria show unique dose-response relationships that differ from those of traditional drugs. The effective dose of bacteria may depend more on the individual conditions within the target tumour as well as the attribute that live bacteria proliferate in target tissues rather than the delivered dose³⁵⁰. Therefore, future efforts should focus on developing safer and highly reliable targeted bacterial carriers for drug delivery, reducing the side effects and the accumulation of bacteria in target organs, especially with regard to tumour colonization upon systemic administration. For example, locally delivered strategies, such as engineered bacterial targeting respiratory tract tumours and microneedles targeting skin tumours, may overcome some side effects³⁵¹. Moreover, establishing a correlation between the optimal dose of bacteria and the improved pharmacokinetic parameters in the context of the specific target cancer type is essential. Furthermore, modifying the vector and gene may improve low gene transfection efficiency and gene instability. Additionally, reducing costs for future clinical applications could benefit from the high efficiency of plasmid integration in engineered bacteria. Additionally, combining multiple therapeutic modalities in a single bacterial strain with improved pharmacokinetics will enhance efficacy.

7. Methods

The methods and abbreviation list are saved in the Supporting Information

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, Xiaowen Jiang, Chunyan Zhang, and Simeng Cao collected the literature and drafted the manuscript. Yeheng Peng, Mingyi Zhao assisted in organizing literature for treatment and put forward valuable suggestions. Xuyao Zhang, Yuan Gao conceived and designed the study. The final draft of the work was approved by all authors.

Declaration of generative AI in scientific writing

Artificial intelligence (AI) and AI-assisted technologies were not used in writing this manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supporting information to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsb.2026.03.022>.

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