

# Gut and Intratumoral Microbiomes in Tumor Metastasis

Subjects: Oncology

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Cancer cell dissemination involves invasion, migration, resistance to stressors in the circulation, extravasation, colonization, and other functions responsible for macroscopic metastases. By enhancing invasiveness, motility, and intravasation, the epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) process promotes the generation of circulating tumor cells and their collective migration. Preclinical and clinical studies have documented intensive crosstalk between the gut microbiome, host organism, and immune system. According to the findings, polymorphic microbes might play diverse roles in tumorigenesis, cancer progression, and therapy response. Microbial imbalances and changes in the levels of bacterial metabolites and toxins promote cancer progression via EMT and angiogenesis. In contrast, a favorable microbial composition, together with microbiota-derived metabolites, such as short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), can attenuate the processes of tumor initiation, disease progression, and the formation of distant metastases.

Keywords: gut microbiome ; intratumoral microbiota ; cancer progression ; metastasis ; epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition ; angiogenesis ; microbiota modulation

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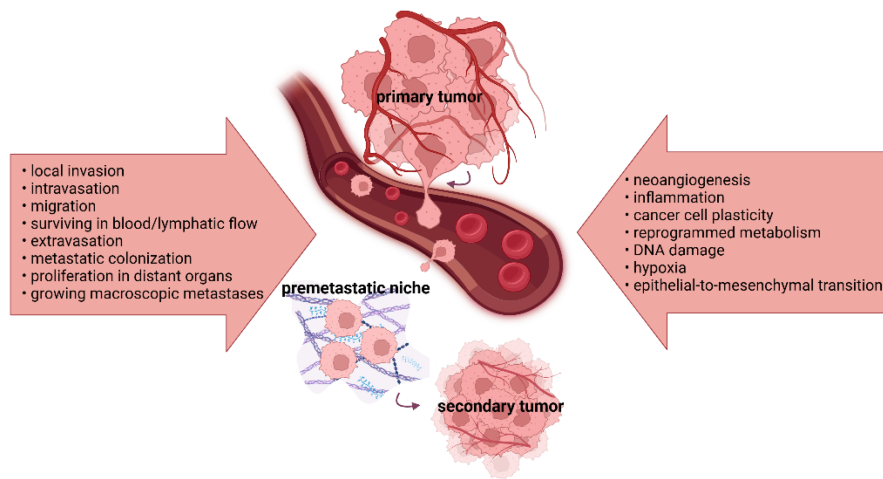
## 1. Introduction

The emerging trend of microbiome research in oncology results from studies uncovering the role of microorganisms in the etiology of several malignancies. Preclinical and clinical studies have also revealed a significant impact of the gut and tumor microbiomes on the efficacy of antitumor therapy and treatment-induced toxicity <sup>[1]</sup>. Moreover, mounting research focuses on the analysis of the microbiome composition in metastatic disease <sup>[2]</sup>. The significant role of the microbiome in oncogenesis and treatment underlines the fact that polymorphic microbiomes, including intestinal, oral, skin, tumor, lung, and vaginal microbiomes, were added to the extended comprehensive concept termed “The Hallmarks of Cancer”, which summarizes the key characteristics of tumors. The microbiome directly interacts positively or negatively with other hallmarks of malignancies, such as inflammation, immune impairment, genomic instability, and resistance to antitumor therapy <sup>[3]</sup>.

The study of metastasis biology at the cellular, molecular, biochemical, and physical levels has undergone dramatic growth over the last 20 years. While the precise pathways are still under investigation, recent research has indicated new roles of cancer cells, which involve promoting genes with metastasis-driving mutations, cancer stem cells, circulating tumor cells (CTCs), epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), and the metastatic dormancy and dynamic plasticity of cancer cells <sup>[4][5]</sup>. Various studies also demonstrated that the following drive metastatic spread: systemic inflammation; immune system modulation; specific interactions between cancer cells, immune cells, and cells in the tumor microenvironment; the avoidance of anoikis; immune checkpoint regulation; self-seeding, and other mechanisms. Mounting research highlights the role of the intratumoral and mucosal microbiomes in the progression of metastatic processes.

## 2. The Mechanisms of Tumor Progression and Metastasis

Tumor progression and metastasis represent multi-step processes, resulting in cancer cell changes that enable them to grow, spread, and establish secondary tumors at distant body sites (**Figure 1**).



**Figure 1.** The key processes involved in tumor progression and metastasis. A deep understanding of the crucial events and corresponding mechanisms leading to the formation of distant metastases is essential for developing treatment modalities to target different stages of cancer development and improve patient outcomes.

The activation of invasion and metastasis is initiated by epigenetic changes, cell–cell interactions, growth factors, cytokines, signals from extracellular matrix components, extracellular matrix mechanical pressures, and the intratumoral microbiota [6].

The metastatic cascade includes the detachment of cancer cells from the primary tumor and the gaining of an invasive phenotype, local invasion into surrounding tissue, intravasation into the circulation, systemic transportation, extravasation, and the formation of colonies at distant sites, with adaptation and proliferation in secondary organs.

CTCs typically arise from epithelial tumor cells that undergo EMT, resulting in the loss of cell–cell adhesion and apical–basal polarity, the reorganization of the cytoskeleton, acquiring properties of tumor stem cells, and resistance to therapy. This process is regulated by transcription factors in tumor cells (Snail 1, Slug, ZEB1, Twist, FOXC2, etc.) and signaling pathways from the tumor microenvironment (WNT, Notch, Hedgehog, TGF $\beta$ , FGF, EGF, HGF signaling, etc.). Additionally, the hypoxia and activation of specific signaling pathways, including PI3K, WNT/ $\beta$ -catenin, and MAPK, affect EMT regulation [7][8]. Many studies focus not only on CTC detection and enumeration but also on CTC biomarkers, among which EMT markers are of great interest [9][10][11]. The most aggressive CTCs are related to the infiltration of the primary tumor or established metastasis in a process of “self-seeding”. Self-seeding in metastasis is the recruitment of cancer cells and the re-seeding of primary tumors and existing metastases by aggressive cancer cell clones [12][13].

Cancer cells can induce neutrophils to release neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs), which sequester CTCs and promote the metastatic process [14][15][16][17][18]. A certain number of CTCs can be eliminated by anoikis, the programmed apoptosis of cells [19]. However, cells can develop an anoikis-resistant state via oncogene activation (e.g., *ERBB2* and *RAS*), an integrin switch (e.g., the downregulation of  $\alpha v \beta 3$  integrin expression), the constitutive activation of antiapoptotic pathways (e.g., the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway), the triggering of EMT, microRNAs (e.g., the downregulation of the miR200 family), high oxidative stress (e.g., activated growth factor receptors increase intracellular reactive oxygen species production by activating enzymes such as NADPH oxidase and lipoxygenase), hypoxia, the modulation of extracellular matrix stiffness, and the metabolic reprogramming of cancer cells [20]. Tumor cells can attach to specific distant organs/tissues and form colonies through distinct adhesion molecules, including proteoglycans (e.g., CD44), mucins (e.g., MUC16), integrins (e.g.,  $\alpha 2 \beta 1$ ), and the members of the immunoglobulin superfamily (e.g., ICAM1, VCAM1, and L1CAM) [21].

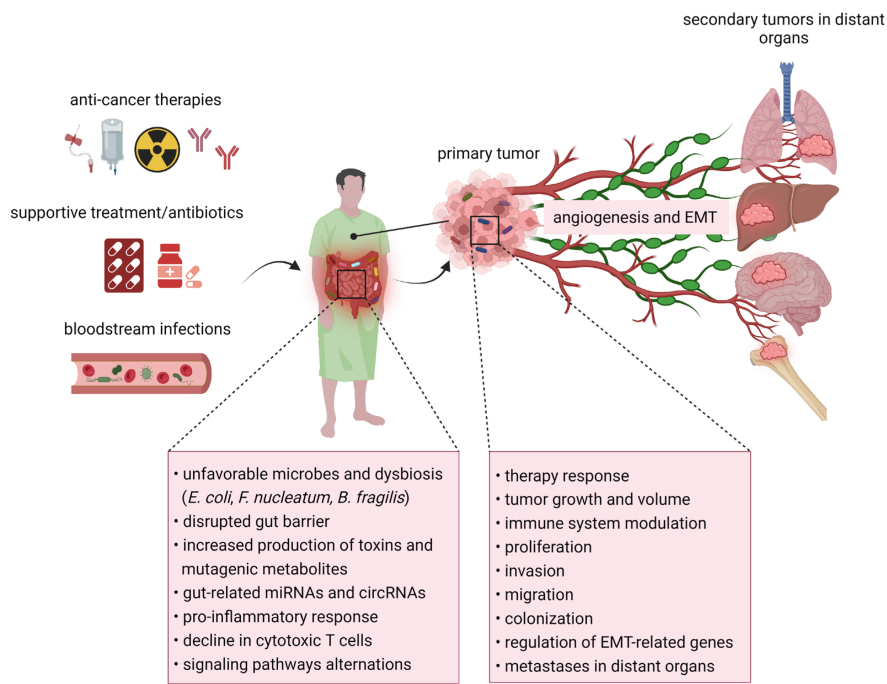
Before the arrival of tumor cells from primary tumors to the premetastatic niche [22], hematopoietic progenitor cells (VEGFR1-positive) travel from the bone marrow into the circulation and establish themselves in secondary organs, where they adhere to fibronectin, produced by fibroblasts and fibroblast-like cells [23]. The adherence is mediated by the integrin VLA-4, expressed by hematopoietic progenitor cells [24]. The nidation of tumor cells is primarily influenced by stromal-derived factor 1 (SDF-1), binding to the chemokine receptor CXCR4 [25]. CXCR4 receptor expression on breast cancer tumor cells is a typical determinant of bone metastasis [26][27]. Its activation results in pseudopodia formation and integrin modulation, followed by the recruitment of endothelial cells (VEGFR2-positive) to the distant site [28].

Cancer cells and the tumor microenvironment produce factors that influence angiogenic processes, with the key drivers being VEGF-A [29][30] binding to VEGFR2 receptor [31]. Alterations of protooncogenes (*RAS* and *SRC*) and tumor suppressor genes (*TP53* and *VHL*) correlate with VEGF overproduction by tumor cells. Hypoxia is the principal stimulator of VEGF production, and hypoxia-inducible transcription factors (HIF-1 $\alpha$  and HIF-2 $\alpha$ ) play a central role in VEGF

regulation. Other angiogenesis inducers, such as FGF1, EGF2, PDGF-B, PDGF-C, and EGF, bind to their respective receptors on blood vessel endothelial cells and induce proliferation and migration [32]. Besides the conventional angiogenic mediators, BMP9 signaling and Shh signaling also participate in the process [33]. In addition, exosomes released by cancer and immune cells may transport various proangiogenic molecules like VEGF, MMPs, and microRNAs [34].

### 3. The Relationship between Microbiome and Cancer Progression-Related Processes

In recent years, the correlation between the microbiome, cancer, and metastatic disease has gained more attention (Figure 2). Many studies confirmed that certain microbes and their metabolites are associated with a better/worse therapy response and patient outcomes.



**Figure 2.** The involvement of the gut and intratumoral microbiome in metastatic processes. Not only cancer development but also the type of anti-cancer therapy affects the diversity of microbial composition in the gastrointestinal tract and alters microbial-associated metabolites. The deregulated thickness of the gut mucosal layer might be responsible for bacterial translocation and development of bloodstream infections. Gastrointestinal dysbiosis results in the inflammation that promotes cancer cell spread due to changed immune responses. Microbes within the tumor microenvironment affect the progression of cancer via modulated immunity and changed inflammatory signaling pathways. Moreover, studies observed the relationship between intratumoral bacteria and metastasis via increased resistance to mechanical stress. Abbreviations: EMT, epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition.

Understanding the mechanisms by which unfavorable microbes have an impact on tumor progression is an active area of recent research. Therefore, intensive research in numerous ongoing clinical trials might shed more light on prognostic microbial markers for treatment outcomes in metastatic disease (Table 1). The identification of microbial biomarkers will help to understand how the microbiome is implicated in cancer progression.

**Table 1.** Exploring the microbial markers associated with treatment outcomes in advanced or metastatic cancer patients (according to <https://ClinicalTrials.gov/>, accessed on 18 October 2023).

| Study       | Study Design                       | Disease                  | Purpose  | Patients (n)            | Intervention  | Study Status |
|-------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|--|-------------------------|---|--------------|
| NCT03941080 | An observational prospective study | Metastatic CRC           | To confirm the microbial taxa associated with treatment response and side effects in metastatic or irresectable disease  | 300 adults/older adults | Enrolled patients will be newly diagnosed with an indication for standard palliative systemic treatment.                            | Recruiting   |
| NCT04579484 | An observational prospective study | Metastatic breast cancer | To determine the gut microbiome in fecal samples of patients with ER <sup>+</sup> HER2 <sup>-</sup> breast cancer and assess the relationship between dietary factors and microbiome | 20 adults/older adults  | Patients will receive endocrine therapy with an aromatase inhibitor combined with an inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinases 4 and 6. | Recruiting   |
| NCT04804956 | An observational prospective study | Metastatic rectal cancer | To identify the profile of the mesorectal microbiome and correlation with poor prognosis prediction  | 100 adults              | Participants will receive neoadjuvant treatment.  | Recruiting   |
| NCT04579978 | An observational prospective study | Metastatic solid cancer  | To study changes in the gut microbial community after ICI and evaluate bacterial species associated with treatment efficacy  | 60 adults/older adults  | Patients will be enrolled in the study for planned standard-of-care ICI.  | Recruiting   |
| NCT05878977 | An interventional open-label study | Metastatic melanoma      | To define novel markers for the prediction of therapy response   | 150 adults/older adults | Immunotherapy will consist of PD-1 and CTLA-4 inhibitors.   | Recruiting   |
| NCT05635149 | An observational prospective study | Metastatic CRC           | To assess the composition of the gut microbiome and its association with treatment efficacy  | 100 adults/older adults | Patients will be treated with Fruquintinib, ICI plus RT, or Fruquintinib and ICI alone.   | Recruiting   |

| Study       | Study Design   | Disease  | Purpose   | Patients (n)                     | Intervention  | Study Status |
|-------------|--|--|---|----------------------------------|---|--------------|
| NCT05753839 | An interventional randomized open-label study with parallel assignment | Metastatic clear cell renal cell carcinoma/kidney cancer                   | To correlate the gut and urine microbiome compositions with OS, PFS, and ORR                                | 40 adults/older adults           | Patients will receive ICI followed by maintenance therapy with ICI or cytoreductive nephrectomy ± metastasectomy after ICI.   | Recruiting   |
| NCT04090710 | An interventional randomized study with parallel assignment            | Metastatic renal cell carcinoma  | To investigate the changes in the gut microbiome via analysis of stool samples                              | 78 children/adults/older adults  | Patients will undergo cytoreductive stereotactic body RT with a combination of ICIs vs. one ICI alone.  | Recruiting   |
| NCT04243720 | An observational prospective study                                     | Metastatic solid cancer  | To determine changes in the gut microbiome associated with resistance to immunotherapy                      | 100 adults/older adults          | Only participants who progressed on immunotherapy will be enrolled in this study.   | Recruiting   |
| NCT04148378 | An observational case-only prospective study                           | CRC neoplasms/<br>metastatic CRC/<br>colorectal sarcoma/<br>adenocarcinoma | To correlate microbiome composition with type of disease  | 100 children/adults/older adults | There is no intervention for the study.   | Unknown      |
| NCT04516135 | An interventional randomized open-label study with parallel assignment | Metastatic gynecologic cancers   | To describe overall diversity, richness, and specific microbial dynamics in the gut and vaginal microbiomes | 108 adults/older adults          | Females will be treated with 3D conformal RT/intensity-modulated RT/volume-modulated arc therapy at the physician's discretion for 1 fraction in the absence of RT-induced toxicities or progression. | Recruiting   |

| Study       | Study Design   | Disease  | Purpose   | Patients (n)                             | Intervention   | Study Status               |
|-------------|--|--|---|--|--|----------------------------|
| NCT04214015 | An observational case-only prospective study                           | Metastatic mesothelioma  | To analyze the relative abundance of bacterial members in the gut microbiome  | 100 children/<br>adults/<br>older adults | There is no intervention for the study.  | Unknown                    |
| NCT03818061 | An interventional non-randomized study with parallel assignment        | Metastatic HNSCC   | To characterize the gut microbiome in immunotherapy using whole-metagenome sequencing   | 33 adults/<br>older adults               | Patients with/without human papillomavirus will receive atezolizumab combined with bevacizumab.  | Active, but not recruiting |
| NCT03698461 | An interventional open-label study with single-group assignment        | Metastatic neoplasms/<br>colorectal neoplasms/<br>colonic neoplasms/<br>rectal neoplasms | To determine fecal microbial profile in different time frames   | 20 adults/<br>older adults               | Anti-cancer treatment will consist of atezolizumab with bevacizumab, levoleucovorin, oxaliplatin, and 5-fluorouracil.                  | Active, but not recruiting |
| NCT03977571 | An interventional randomized open-label study with parallel assignment | Metastatic renal cell carcinoma/<br>kidney cancer/<br>synchronous neoplasm               | To correlate the gut microbiome with OS, PFS, and ORR   | 400 adults/<br>older adults              | Patients will receive deferred cytoreductive nephrectomy/no surgery following nivolumab with ipilimumab or tyrosine kinase inhibitors. | Recruiting                 |
| NCT04636775 | An observational prospective study                                     | Metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer  | To assess the correlations between gut microbiome composition and adverse effects and differences between responders and non-responders | 46 adults/<br>older adults               | Patients will be treated with immunotherapy using ICI.   | Recruiting                 |

| Study       | Study Design   | Disease             | Purpose  | Patients (n)            | Intervention  | Study Status               |
|-------------|--|---------------------|--|-------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| NCT04219137 | An observational prospective study                                     | Metastatic EGA      | To study the microbiome in feces and rectal swab samples   | 120 adults/older adults | Participants will undergo platinum-based chemotherapy.  | Unknown                    |
| NCT03161756 | An interventional non-randomized study parallel assignment             | Metastatic melanoma | To explore associations between the gut microbiome and therapy response  | 72 adults/older adults  | Nivolumab alone or in combination with ipilimumab will be administered intravenously plus denosumab subcutaneously.             | Active, but not recruiting |
| NCT04720768 | An interventional open-label study with sequential assignment          | Metastatic melanoma | To identify fecal biomarkers associated with therapy response/resistance   | 78 adults/older adults  | Patients will receive combined treatment with encorafenib, binimetinib, and palbociclib.  | Recruiting                 |
| NCT03340129 | An interventional randomized open-label study with parallel assignment | Metastatic melanoma | To observe the diversity and composition of the gut microbiome and to determine the correlation between mucosal integrity and microbes | 218 adults/older adults | Treatment will include ipilimumab and nivolumab with concurrent intracranial stereotactic RT or ipilimumab and nivolumab alone. | Recruiting                 |

Abbreviations: CRC, colorectal cancer; CTLA-4, cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4; EGA, esophagogastric adenocarcinoma; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma; ICI, immune checkpoint inhibitors; ORR, overall response rate; OS, overall survival; PD-1, programmed cell death protein 1; PFS, progression-free survival; RT, radiotherapy.

## 4. The Studies of Microbiome Composition in Metastatic Disease

Recently, Hilmi et al. studied samples obtained from the lymph nodes, lungs, and livers of patients suffering from different cancer types, such as breast, lung, and colorectal malignancies. A higher presence of *F. nucleatum* was specific to lung metastases. The microbial load in lymph node metastases was lower than in liver and lung metastases. However, the authors did not observe a relationship between the type of primary tumor and the microbial composition in metastases [35]. The level of *Eubacterium halli* in stool samples is negatively associated with fatigue in patients with advanced, metastatic, unresectable colon, ovarian, cervical, and non-small-cell lung cancers [36]. In vivo experiments confirmed that gut microbial depletion via a broad-spectrum antibiotic cocktail reduced the incidence of metastases in melanoma, pancreatic, or colon cancer murine models [37]. Spakowicz et al. performed a retrospective analysis of 690 patients treated with immunotherapy for metastatic melanoma or non-small-cell lung cancer. The results showed that antibiotics and corticosteroids reduced overall survival (OS), but no direct microbiome measurements were performed [38].

The fundamental studies focusing on the microbiome composition in metastatic disease are summarized in **Table 2**.

**Table 2.** Detection of specific microorganisms in advanced/metastatic cancer. The table summarizes fundamental preclinical/clinical studies and their major findings.

| Malignancy                            | Study Type<br>Preclinical/Clinical | Intervention                    | Changes in Microbial<br>Composition  | Major Findings   | Ref. |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|--|------|
| CRC with<br>liver/lung<br>metastases  | Patients                           | Regorafenib<br>plus toripalimab | <i>Fusobacterium</i> , <i>Alistipes</i> ,<br><i>Bilophila</i> , and <i>Acidaminococcus</i>   | A higher level of specific<br>bacteria was observed in non-<br>responders. Shorter PFS<br>correlated with a higher amount<br>of <i>Fusobacterium</i> .   | [39] |
| FAP                                   | Patients/<br>mice                  | No intervention<br>provided     | <i>E. coli</i> and <i>ETBF</i>   | Both bacterial taxa were biofilm<br>members in FAP tissues from<br>patients. Colonization with <i>E. coli</i><br>and <i>ETBF</i> increased DNA<br>damage and IL-17 production in<br>carcinogen-treated mice.   | [40] |
| CRC with<br>liver/lung<br>metastases  | Patients                           | Quxie capsules                  | Actinobacteria, <i>Oscillibacter</i> ,<br><i>Eubacterium</i> , and<br><i>Lachnospiraceae</i> | Capsules increased butyrate-<br>producing, immunity-<br>stimulating, and anti-cancer<br>bacterial taxa and enhanced Th<br>cells, both CD4 and CD8 cells.   | [41] |
| PDAC with<br>lymph node<br>metastases | Patients                           | No intervention                 | <i>Leuconostoc</i> , <i>Sutterella</i> ,<br><i>Comamonas</i> , and <i>Turicibacter</i>       | Lower levels of <i>Leuconostoc</i><br>and <i>Sutterella</i> were<br>documented in tumors with a<br>size $\geq 3$ cm. An increase in<br>lymph node metastases<br>correlated with a higher<br>abundance of <i>Comamonas</i> and<br><i>Turicibacter</i> . On the contrary,<br><i>Streptococcus</i> dominated<br>recurrence-free tumors. | [42] |
| Hepatocellular<br>carcinoma           | Mice                               | NpRg3                           | Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia,<br>and Firmicutes  | Developed NpRg3 remodeled<br>gut microbiome via reduced<br>Firmicutes and increased<br>Bacteroidetes and<br>Verrucomicrobia in stool<br>samples. Moreover, NpRg3<br>attenuated tumor development<br>and lung metastatic formation in<br>dimethylnitrosamine-induced<br>spontaneous murine carcinoma.                                 | [43] |



| Malignancy  | Study Type<br>Preclinical/Clinical | Intervention  | Changes in Microbial<br>Composition   | Major Findings   | Ref. |
|---|------------------------------------|---|---|--|------|
| Lung cancer                                       | Patients                           | Systemic<br>therapy/surgical<br>resection   | <i>Legionella</i> and <i>Thermus</i>  | <i>Thermus</i> was abundant in the lung microbiome in patients with advanced cancer stages, while <i>Legionella</i> was enriched in patients with developed metastases. Alpha diversity in tumor tissues was lower than in non-malignant lung tissue samples.  | [44] |
| Hormone<br>receptor-<br>positive<br>breast cancer | Mice                               | Antibiotic<br>cocktail<br>(vancomycin,<br>ampicillin,<br>metronidazole,<br>neomycin, and<br>gentamicin) | <i>Blautia</i> , <i>Alistipes</i> , <i>Blautia</i> ,<br><i>Escherichia/Shigella</i> , and<br><i>Bilophila</i>   | Orally gavaged antibiotics caused commensal dysbiosis with a higher abundance of specific genera in poorly metastatic mice. Antibiotics promoted tumor cell dissemination to the lungs/peripheral blood/and lymph nodes.   | [45] |
| Breast cancer                                     | Patients                           | No intervention   | <i>Streptococcus</i> , <i>Campylobacter</i> ,<br><i>Moraxellaceae</i> , <i>Lactobacillales</i> ,<br><i>Bacilli</i> , <i>Epsilonproteobacteria</i> ,<br><i>Veillonella</i> , <i>Acinetobacter</i> ,<br><i>Pseudomonadales</i> ,<br><i>Megamonas</i> , and <i>Akkermansia</i> | Listed bacteria, except for <i>Megamonas</i> and <i>Akkermansia</i> , were increased in stool samples of patients with bone metastases. However, the results showed lowered levels of <i>Megamonas</i> and <i>Akkermansia</i> . Bacterial diversity was reduced in the order of normal controls, patients without metastases, and patients with bone metastases. | [46] |
| Breast cancer                                     | Patients                           | Neoadjuvant<br>chemotherapy   | <i>Streptococcus</i> , <i>Pseudomonas</i> ,<br><i>Brevundimonas</i> , and<br><i>Staphylococcus</i>  | Chemotherapy decreased intratumoral <i>Streptococcus</i> and increased <i>Pseudomonas</i> . The development of distant metastases correlated with a higher presence of <i>Brevundimonas</i> and <i>Staphylococcus</i> in primary breast tumors.  | [47] |

| Malignancy                                   | Study Type<br>Preclinical/Clinical | Intervention  | Changes in Microbial<br>Composition   | Major Findings  | Ref. |
|--|------------------------------------|---|---|---|------|
| Oral<br>squamous cell<br>carcinoma           | Patients                           | Therapeutic<br>neck dissection<br>due to positive<br>lymph node<br>metastases       | <i>Tannerella</i> , <i>Fusobacterium</i> ,<br><i>Prevotella</i> , <i>Stomatobaculum</i> ,<br><i>Bifidobacterium</i> , <i>Finnegoldia</i><br><i>Peptostreptococcaceae</i> , and<br><i>Shuttleworthia</i>                   | Two taxa— <i>Tannerella</i> and<br><i>Fusobacterium</i> —were enriched<br>in the oral microbiome of<br>patients without metastases.<br>Other genera from the listed<br>panel increased in patients with<br>developed lymph node<br>metastases. Differences in<br>alpha diversity between the oral<br>microbiome of 2 analyzed<br>groups were not significant.                       | [48] |
| Castrate-<br>resistant<br>prostate<br>cancer | Patients                           | Immune<br>checkpoint<br>inhibitor<br>(pembrolizumab)                                | <i>A. muciniphila</i> , <i>B.</i><br><i>thetaiotaomicron</i> , <i>B. fragilis</i> ,<br>and <i>R. unassigned</i>   | <i>A. muciniphila</i> was depleted in<br>pembrolizumab responders,<br>while other listed microbes were<br>higher in responding patients.  | [49] |
| Renal cell<br>carcinoma                      | Patients                           | Immune<br>checkpoint<br>inhibitor<br>(nivolumab or<br>nivolumab plus<br>ipilimumab) | <i>A. muciniphila</i> , <i>B. adolescentis</i> ,<br><i>B. intestinihominis</i> , <i>Odoribacter</i><br><i>splanchnicus</i> , <i>Bacteroides</i><br><i>ovatus</i> , and <i>Eggerthella lenta</i>                           | <i>A. muciniphila</i> , <i>B. adolescentis</i> ,<br><i>B. intestinihominis</i> , and <i>O.</i><br><i>splanchnicus</i> correlated with<br>clinical benefit in metastatic<br>patients, while <i>B. ovatus</i> and <i>E.</i><br><i>lenta</i> were associated with no<br>clinical benefit from<br>immunotherapy.  | [50] |
| Renal cell<br>carcinoma                      | Patients                           | Immune<br>checkpoint<br>inhibitor   | <i>Akkermansia</i>  | The presence of <i>Akkermansia</i><br>was documented in both<br>responding and non-responding<br>patients to immunotherapy.<br>Therefore, host-specific or<br>tumor factors might affect<br>therapy response.   | [51] |
| Melanoma                                     | Patients                           | Immune<br>checkpoint<br>inhibitor   | <i>Lactobacillales</i> ,<br><i>Clostridiales/Ruminococcaceae</i> ,<br><i>Faecalibacterium</i> ,<br><i>Bacteroidales</i> , <i>B.</i><br><i>thetaiotaomicron</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , and<br><i>Anaerotruncus colihominis</i> | <i>Lactobacillales</i> dominated the<br>oral microbiome of all<br>metastatic patients.<br><i>Clostridiales/Ruminococcaceae</i> ,<br><i>Faecalibacterium</i> , and alpha<br>diversity were greater in<br>responders, while<br><i>Bacteroidales</i> , <i>B.</i><br><i>thetaiotaomicron</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , and <i>A.</i><br><i>colihominis</i> were abundant in<br>non-responders. | [52] |

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## 5. Microbiota Modulation and Cancer Progression

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