



The Anticancer Properties of Probiotic Species

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Abstract

The maintenance of homeostasis can be influenced by the gut microbiota. An imbalance in the gut microbiota, known as gut microbiota dysbiosis, can result in the deterioration of the mucosal layer and the integrity of the intestinal epithelial barrier. Consequently, this can lead to the infiltration of bacteria into the lamina propria. The disruption in the gut microbiota balance can also trigger innate immune responses, causing inflammation. Consequently, this inflammation has the potential to initiate various types of cancers. Numerous studies have indicated that probiotics play a direct or indirect role in regulating immune responses by modulating the gut microbiota. Hence, they can be employed as a preventive measure against cancer. This review aims to explore the potential of probiotics in countering cancer metastasis and inhibiting the proliferation of cancer cells in different types of cancer including hepatocellular carcinoma, colorectal cancer, gastric cancer, esophageal cancer, breast cancer, bladder cancer, and cervical cancer.

Keywords: Cancer, Carcinoma, Gut Microbiota, Probiotic, Anticancer

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Introduction

In the field of tumor research, William Cooley was the first to demonstrate the antitumor effects of a combination of microbial products, specifically *Streptococcus pyogenes* and *Serratia marcescens*.¹ The gut microbiota represents an ecological system consisting of various commensal microorganisms that metabolize residual food, intestinal secretions, and digestive juices, and shed colonocytes. In the large intestine, proteolytic fermentation increases with a high intake of dietary protein, resulting in the production of substances such as phenolic compounds, amines, ammonia, N-nitroso compounds, and indoles. These compounds can exert carcinogenic effects on the differentiation and proliferation of epithelial cells.^{2,3} The microbiota also influences the expression of numerous human genes. For instance, specific strains of Bifidobacteria, Lactobacillus, and *Escherichia coli* can impact mucin gene expression, toll-like receptor (TLR) signaling in dendritic cells and macrophages, as well as caspase expression, thereby modulating immune activity and apoptosis. The interaction between commensal bacteria and immune cells establishes a balance between proinflammatory genes, proto-oncogenes, anti-inflammatory genes, and tumor suppressor genes.³⁻⁵ An

imbalance in the intestinal microbiota disrupts the normal functioning of bacteria, leading to an attack on the intestinal lining and surrounding tissues, resulting in inflammation.⁶ This inflammatory process plays a significant role in promoting tumor growth, facilitating the invasion of tumor cells, and eventually leading to metastasis. Certain inflammatory cytokines have the ability to directly damage the DNA of epithelial cells, contributing to the development of inflammation-related cancers.⁷ The exposure to carcinogens and other cancer-causing molecules is a crucial factor in cancer development. For instance, diet can impact the diversity of the gut microbiome. That the consumption of high-fat diets among healthy young individuals can lead to unfavorable changes in the intestinal microbiota. Moreover, certain types of bacteria have been associated with tumor formation under specific conditions. Alterations in the intestinal microbiota, through various pathways, can influence susceptibility to different types of cancer. Furthermore, bacteria and their metabolites not only contribute to the development of cancer but can also impact the therapeutic efficacy of anticancer drugs (Figure 1).⁸⁻¹¹ The intestinal microbiota also has an impact on the side effects associated

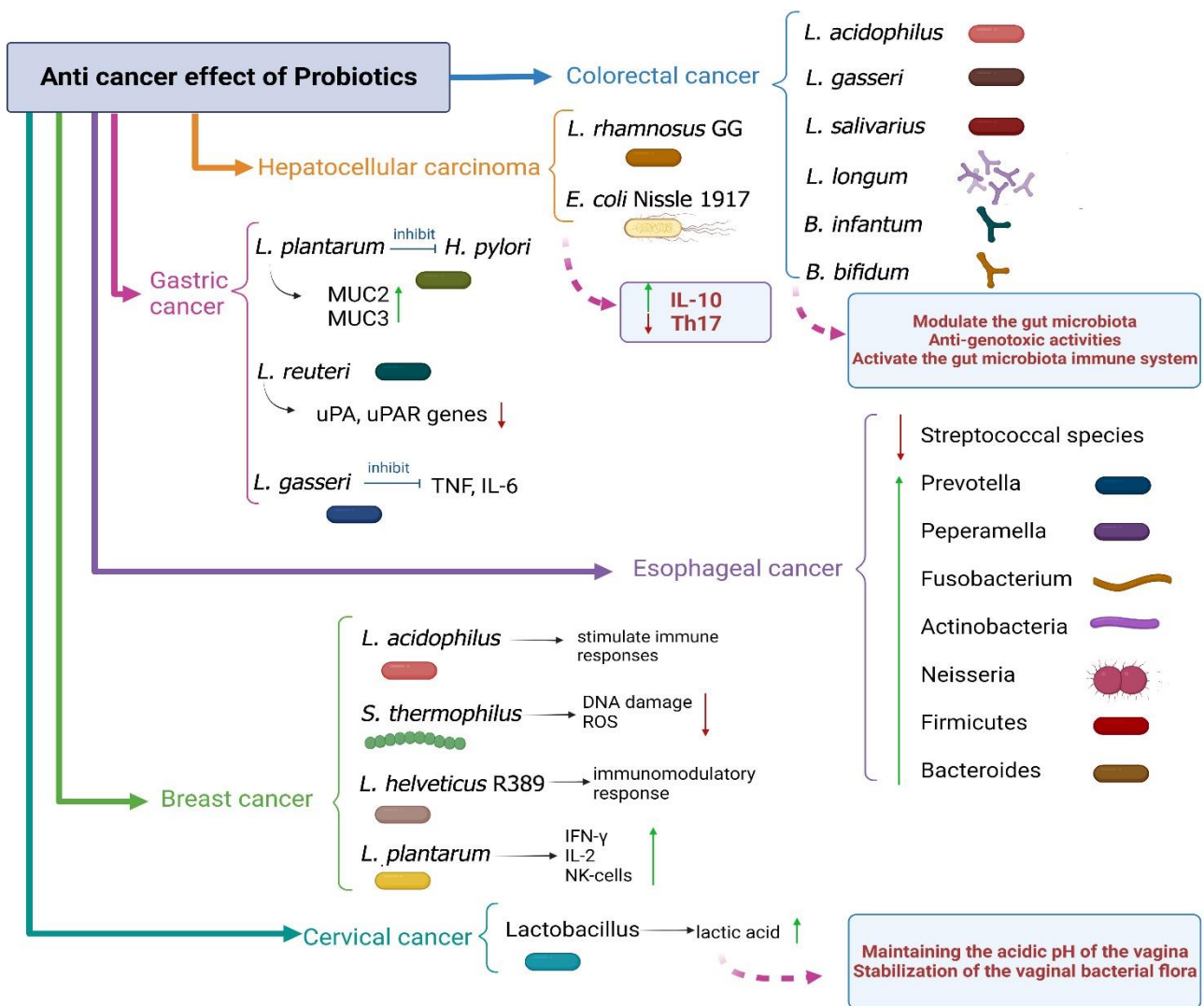


Figure 1. Anticancer Activity of Probiotics in Various Cancers.

with cancer treatments. For example, chemotherapy can lead to damage to the mucosal layer and the integrity of the intestinal epithelial barrier, allowing bacteria to penetrate into the lamina propria. The transfer of these bacteria can activate the innate immune system, triggering inflammation. This inflammation not only influences cancer progression but also affects the response to cancer treatments such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and immunotherapy. Modulating the gut microbiota represents a novel approach to optimize individual responses to cancer treatments and reduce the susceptibility to toxic side effects.¹² Cancer is a leading cause of death in societies, and its development involves a combination of various factors, including chemical, radiation, viral, and genetic influences.¹³ Any intervention that involves the removal, inhibition, or inactivation of mutational substances associated with cancer is highly valuable.¹⁴ It is noteworthy that cancer ranks as the first and second leading cause of death in developed and developing countries, respectively.¹⁵ Among the prevalent types of cancer

worldwide, colon cancer holds significant importance. Colorectal cancer, which includes colon cancer, is the third most commonly diagnosed cancer in both men and women. Approximately 75% of patients with colorectal cancer have sporadic forms of the disease.¹⁶ Another noteworthy type of cancer is hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), which represents one of the most common and perilous forms of liver cancer. HCC ranks as the fifth most common cancer globally and stands as the second leading cause of death from tumors worldwide.^{17,18} Gastric cancer is another prevalent and highly dangerous type of cancer. In terms of incidence, stomach cancer ranked as the fifth most common type of cancer diagnosed in 2018. It also accounted for 8.2% of all cancer-related deaths in 2018, making it the third leading cause of cancer-related mortality after lung cancer (18.4%) and colorectal cancer (9.2%).^{19,20} The side effects of drugs, time-consuming, expensive, and complete ineffectiveness of these treatment methods justify the need to search for new methods and solutions to prevent infection. According to the

mentioned cases, it is important to provide alternative solutions for the treatment and prevention of malignancies and different types of cancers. Among the alternative solutions that are proposed for the treatment and prevention of cancer, we can mention the use of microbial products. More than 100 trillion microorganisms form a wide and diverse microbial community in the human digestive system, which are defined as intestinal microbiota.²¹ Probiotics are a group of living microorganisms that, if consumed in a certain amount, create beneficial effects on the health of consumers. Lactobacillus bacteria are the most microorganisms that have been used as probiotics. Studies have shown that probiotics, including Lactobacilli, inhibit the growth of many types of pathological cells. These bacteria, which have been proposed as probiotics, increase the host's immune response and also have preventive effects on cancer and inhibit the growth of cancerous tumors.²² The use of probiotics is considered a very positive way to treat and prevent cancers. Probiotics are living microorganisms that can be effective in host health in certain amounts.^{23,24} Based on the explanations given and the importance of the topic, we decided to investigate probiotics and their anticancer effects on various cancers.

Association of Gut Microbiota and Cancer

The gut microbiota refers to the community of microorganisms that inhabit the gastrointestinal ecosystem. The gastrointestinal tract microbiota consists primarily of 10^{14} bacteria, along with various archaea, eukaryotes, and viruses.²⁵ This microbiota plays a crucial role in numerous essential functions, including the production of vitamins, metabolism of food components, maintenance of immune homeostasis, and acting as a biological barrier within the intestine. It also has the potential to modulate the therapeutic effects of anticancer immunomodulating agents like cyclophosphamide and may influence anticancer immunotherapy.²⁶⁻²⁸ By reducing the systemic inflammatory index through proinflammatory cytokines and inflammatory cells, intestinal bacteria may inhibit the primary carcinogenic processes in the distal intestinal epithelium.²⁹ Studies have revealed that mice depleted of their gut microbiota exhibit reduced expression of genes related to inflammation and immunity in tumors, as well as a decrease in the population of inflammatory myeloid cells within the tumor microenvironment. Restoring the microbiota through oral gavage with *Alistipes shahii* reinstated tumor inflammation in microbiota-deficient mice.³⁰ Furthermore, it has been reported that *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* inhibits the secretion of interleukin-6 (IL-6) and the phosphorylation of Janus kinases 2 (JAK2)/signal transducers and activators of transcription 3 (STAT3) in breast cancer cells, thereby suppressing their growth. This inhibition occurs through the IL-6/STAT3 pathway.²⁹ However, disruption of gut microbial communities, known

as dysbiosis, can lead to various inflammatory, immune, and infectious diseases and may be associated with the development of malignancies, including lymphoma, breast cancer, colorectal cancer, and even chemotherapy-related complications.^{29,31,32} Dysbiosis has the potential to increase the susceptibility to infection by opportunistic pathogens that secrete toxins capable of contributing to genomic instability, tumor initiation, and progression in susceptible cells.³³ For instance, pathogenic *E. coli* carrying pks toxicity genes have been linked to local tissue inflammation and colon carcinogenesis.³⁴ Recent studies have highlighted the differences in gut microbiota composition between cancer patients and healthy individuals.³⁵ Certain bacteria, such as colibactin-producing *E. coli*, *Bacteroides fragilis*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, and *Providencia*, have been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis, while there is a significant decrease in butyrate-producing bacteria like *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium*.³⁶ The gut and oral microbiota of pancreatic cancer (PC) patients differ from those of healthy individuals, and the bacteria present in PC tissues are associated with patient prognosis.³⁰ Xenografted mouse models treated with gemcitabine have shown proinflammatory changes in the gut microbiota, with an increase in Proteobacteria and Veromicrobia and a decrease in Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes. Furthermore, the NF- κ B inflammatory pathway is activated in tumor tissue.³⁵ Numerous studies suggest that breast cancer (BC) is associated with bacterial dysbiosis in both the intestinal microenvironment and breast tissue.³² Interestingly, the gastrointestinal microbiome can modulate systemic estrogen levels, and gut dysbiosis has been linked to breast cancer through interactions with elevated circulating estrogen levels.²⁹ In terms of the relationship between gut and breast microbiota, researchers have hypothesized that the transfer of bacteria from the gut to breast tissue is a mechanism by which distinct breast tissue microbiomes associated with malignancy are established.³³ It is further hypothesized that changes in the composition and function of specific species of breast and gut bacteria may contribute to the development and progression of breast cancer through multiple pathways.³² The immune responses of neutrophils to the gut microbiome have a significant impact on the progression of carcinogenesis in non-intestinal tissues, including mammary glands.²⁹ Toll-like receptor 5 (TLR5) receptors, highly expressed in breast carcinoma, can be activated by flagellin ligands, leading to strong anti-tumor activity and inhibition of breast cancer cell proliferation. Gut bacteria have the ability to upregulate Toll-like receptors (TLRs) and activate NF- κ B, which plays a crucial role in regulating inflammation. TLRs are involved in the initiation and promotion of breast cancer.³² Dendritic cells may transport bacteria to the breast tissue through intestinal translocation.²⁹ BC metastasis is associated with an increase in circulating lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which can activate monocytes and promote endothelial adhesion of

circulating cancer cells.³³ Infection of mice deficient in *Rag2*-deficient C57BL/6 *Apc^{min/+}* with the enteric bacterial pathogen *Helicobacter hepaticus* significantly induces breast cancer and increases the frequency of intestinal adenoma through tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α)-dependent mechanisms.²⁹ Chronic inflammation, which is associated with tumor growth, is believed to be the mechanism by which gut bacteria can promote breast cancer.³² Xuan et al. found that *Methylobacterium radiotolerans* was enriched in breast tumor tissue, while the total bacterial DNA load in the tumor was reduced compared to paired healthy breast tissue. Interestingly, the bacterial DNA load was inversely associated with advanced disease, which could have implications in breast cancer diagnosis and staging.³⁴ The gut microbiota can influence the clinical outcomes and side effects of primary breast cancer treatment.³⁷ Cachexia, a wasting syndrome, is associated with significant changes in the composition and diversity of the intestinal microbiota in mouse models of leukemia and colon cancer.³⁸ Animal studies suggest that the intestinal microbiota plays a role in the pathogenesis and manifestation of cancer cachexia, but human data is limited.³⁸ Studies have shown significant differences in the gut microbiota composition of colorectal cancer patients compared to healthy individuals, characterized by higher species richness and an increase in many potentially carcinogenic species (such as *Fusobacterium*, *Bacteroides*, *Porphyromonas* and *Escherichia*) and a decrease in potentially protective species.³⁹ *F. nucleatum*, for example, can adhere to and invade colonic epithelial cells and promote carcinogenesis through the action of FadA, which can bind to E-cadherin, activate β -catenin signaling, and modulate inflammatory and oncogenic responses.^{36,40} *Enterococcus faecalis* has also been found to be significantly higher in patients with colorectal cancer compared to healthy individuals.⁴¹ A study conducted by Khodavardi et al. in 2021 investigated the relative frequency of enterotoxigenic *B. fragilis* and *E. faecalis* in colorectal tissue samples from colorectal cancer patients and healthy individuals, revealing a significant increase in these bacteria in individuals with colorectal cancer. The frequency of these bacteria was higher in the advanced stages (III/IV) of cancer compared to the early stages (I/II).⁴²

In a study conducted by Ellatif and colleagues in 2022, the probiotic efficacy and anticancer activities of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* ESSG1 (MZ683194.1) and *Lactiplantibacillus pentosus* ESSG2 (MZ683195.1), isolated from dairy products, were evaluated. Their study showed that strains 12B and 13B with 16S rRNA sequencing as *L. plantarum* ESSG1 (MZ683194.1) and *L. pentosus* ESSG2 (MZ683195.1) were the most promising, and their extracts were excellent, safe, and effective substitutes for antimicrobial, antioxidant, and anti-tumor agents.⁴³ In the study by Kumar Bhukya, the anticancer effects of the probiotic bacterium *Pediococcus*

pentosaceus OBK05 were investigated. It was found that this specific bacterium has anticancer properties and by inhibiting the transfer from G1 to S phase, it can stop the cell cycle. In addition, the anticancer activities of this bacterium *in vivo* were confirmed in BALB/c mouse models.⁴⁴

Alan and his colleagues, in 2022, concluded that the postbiotic metabolites of all strains of *Leuconostoc pseudomesenteroides* had good anticancer activity, with Y4 and Y6 generally showing better activity than control groups. Therefore, the Y6 strain, which had the best probiotic properties, exhibited good biological activity. It is believed that this isolate will be supported by new *in vivo* studies and ultimately be used in the food and health industries.⁴⁵

Various metabolites derived from gut bacteria, such as butyrate and secondary bile acids, have different effects on colorectal carcinogenesis.³⁶ Recent studies have shown a significant relationship between colorectal cancer development and gut microbiota. The dietary risk of colorectal cancer is probably related to the dysbiosis of gut microbiota and their metabolites and can be a factor in the initiation and progression of colorectal cancer. Secreted bacterial toxins have been shown to increase the risk of cancer through toxin-mediated DNA damage.^{46,47} The gut microbiota has also been implicated in pancreatic diseases, including acute pancreatitis, chronic pancreatitis, and pancreatic cancer, although human data is still limited.⁴⁸ Recent data suggest that the gut microbiota is involved in the metabolism of chemotherapy drugs and the tumor microenvironment, which can affect the efficacy of conventional chemotherapy and immunotherapy for pancreatic cancer. Chemotherapy can induce intestinal inflammation and changes in permeability, leading to alterations in the gut microbiome composition, including reduced diversity and a shift towards species associated with proinflammatory activity. The imbalanced gut microbiota can contribute to inflammation and psychological distress following chemotherapy.³¹ Several bacterial metabolites have been found to potentially regulate pancreatic cancer, immune system function, and treatment resistance.³⁵ *Microbacterium* and *Stenotrophomonas* have been detected in pancreatic cancer tissues and are connected to microbes found in feces and saliva. *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was abundant in the stool microbiota of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma patients.³⁰ Overall, dysbiosis of the gut microbiota, particularly a reduction in SCFA-producing bacteria, worsens the severity of acute pancreatitis in both patients and mice.²⁸ Removing *E. coli* through ciprofloxacin treatment has been observed to enhance the anticancer effects of gemcitabine in a mouse cancer model.³⁰ Consequently, targeting the intestinal microbiota holds promise as a new treatment approach for cancer patients.²⁷ The microbiota may also serve as an effective, non-invasive, cost-effective, and suitable biomarker for cancer prognosis.³⁹ Table 1 lists some of the anticancer properties associated with probiotic species.

Table 1. The Anticancer Properties of Probiotic Species

Probiotic	Type of cancer	Effects	Ref.
<i>VSL#3, Lactobacillus acidophilus, Bifidobacteria longum, L. gasseri</i>	Colorectal cancer	Reduction of tumor burden and size	84
<i>L. acidophilus, B. bifidum and B. infantum</i>		Reducing tumor incidence, tumor multiplicity, tumor size and preventing colorectal cancer progression	85
<i>L. salivarius</i> Ren		Antimicrobial effects against carcinogenic microorganisms, anti-genotoxic activities against internal and external carcinogens, activation of intestinal mucosal immune system and anti-tumor effects.	75
<i>L. rhamnosus</i> GG, <i>Escherichia coli</i> Nissle 1917 and heat-inactivated VSL#3	Hepatocellular Carcinoma	Induction of anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 secretion and suppression of Th17 cell differentiation in intestine, modulation of intestinal microbiota and reduction of angiogenesis in liver tumor and tumor growth arrest	97
<i>L. plantarum</i>		Reducing the expression of TLR4, CXCL9 and PREX-2, reducing the expression of TLR-induced inflammation and improving liver function	91,98
<i>L. plantarum</i>	Gastric cancer	Reducing the expression of AKT gene and increasing the expression of PTEN gene, inhibition of gastric cancer related to <i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	101
<i>L. plantarum</i> and <i>L. rhamnosus</i>		Increasing the expression of MUC2 and MUC3 genes, restoring the permeability of the gastric mucosa and inhibiting the adhesion of pathogenic bacteria, including <i>H. pylori</i> .	101
<i>L. reuteri</i>		Reducing the expression of uPA and uPAR genes involved in cancer metastasis, inhibiting the proliferation of cancer cells	106
<i>L. strains</i>		Reducing the attachment and invasion of <i>H. pylori</i> to gastric epithelial cells and reducing the production of interleukin 8	107
<i>Lactobacilli</i>	Esophageal cancer	Modulatory effects on signaling pathways related to cancer, apoptosis, metastasis and cell cycle control	109,161
<i>L. rhamnosus</i>		Inhibition of tumor growth by affecting genes involved in signal transduction pathways	118
<i>L. s acidophilus</i>	Breast Cancer	Stimulating immune responses by producing proinflammatory cytokines such as IFN- γ and inhibiting the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-10 anticancer activity in mammary tumor bearing mice	162,163
<i>B. animalis, L. acidophilus, B. infantis, L. paracasei, B. bifidum</i>		Reduction of cancer cell growth in MCF 7 cells	14,164
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i>		Reducing DNA damage and neutralizing reactive oxygen species, anticancer properties	165,166
<i>L. helveticus</i> R389		Immune system response modulator in BC carrier mice	167
<i>L. plantarum</i>		Increasing the level of IFN- γ and IL-2 and increasing the activity of NK cells, inhibiting tumor progression	168,169
<i>Butyricococcus pullicaecorum</i>	Bladder Urothelial cancer	Regulation of cell cycle and apoptosis and molecular effects of butyrate on urinary bladder cancer, induction of anticancer effect and prevention of cancer progression	141
<i>L. casei</i> and <i>L. rhamnosus</i> GG	Bladder Urothelial cancer	Cytotoxic effect on growth, prevention of bladder cancer	140,144
Lactobacillus and pediococcus	Cervical cancer	Production anticancer metabolites such as short-chain fatty acids, lactic acid and bacteriocin anticancer activity	170

Immunomodulatory Activity of Probiotics

One particularly appealing aspect of probiotics is their ability to modulate the immune system. Consequently, several probiotic species have been utilized in the production of functional dairy products, aiming to maintain immune homeostasis in the host.⁴⁹ *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* are the predominant probiotic microorganisms used in the food and pharmaceutical industries, with various strains from these genera demonstrating beneficial properties.⁵⁰ Studies have shown that probiotics can increase the proliferation of spleen cells in mice, specifically T and B cells, in response to mitogens. They also stimulate the production of cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-12, IL-6, and IFN- γ in immune cells.^{51,52} Furthermore, probiotics have been found to activate natural killer (NK) cells by promoting IL-12 production by monocytes/macrophages.⁵³ The immunomodulatory properties of probiotics have been demonstrated in inducing the production of IL-10 and regulatory T (Treg) cells, thereby reducing allergies, inflammatory bowel disease

(IBD), autoimmune diseases, and inflammatory responses.⁵⁴ In addition, certain non-pathogenic strains of *E. coli* (G3/10), known as probiotics, have been shown to inhibit the growth of pathogenic bacteria and secrete potent antimicrobial peptides like bacteriocin and microcin S. These antimicrobial substances are effective against harmful gastrointestinal pathogens such as *Helicobacter pylori*, *Campylobacter*, *Clostridium difficile*, and rotavirus.⁵⁵ Probiotics can also enhance the immune system's response to colon cancer by inducing the production of interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) and interleukin-10 (IL-10) in a mouse model of 1,2-dimethyl hydrazine (DMH)-induced colon cancer.⁵⁶ Notably, probiotics have been observed to decrease the production of interferon- γ (INF- γ) and TNF- α by Peyer's patch lymphocytes, while reducing the production of proinflammatory cytokines by spleen cells in mice. Treatment with a combination of *L. paracasei* and *L. reuteri* in IL-10-deficient mice infected with *H. hepaticus* resulted in reduced mucosal proinflammatory cytokines and a subsequent decrease in colitis development.⁵⁷

Furthermore, the increased secretion of IL-2 by *L. plantarum* KLDS1.0318 has been found to stimulate T cell proliferation and IFN- γ production, thereby enhancing the immune response against cancer and pathogen-infected cells.⁵¹ Polysaccharide A, present on the surface of vesicles secreted by *B. fragilis*, directly signals through TLR2 on Foxp3+ regulatory T cells, promoting immune tolerance and the conversion of CD4(+) T cells into Foxp3(+) cells. This induction of Treg cells leads to an IL-10 response in intestinal T cells, inhibiting the expansion of TH17 cells responsible for intestinal wall disruption and reducing intestinal inflammation.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ Additionally, *Bifidobacterium infantis* has been found to effectively reduce chemotherapy-induced intestinal mucositis by suppressing Th1 and Th17 responses and promoting the response of CD4+ CD25+ Foxp3+ regulatory T cells.⁶¹ *In vitro* analyses using immune cells have demonstrated that the exopolysaccharide (EPS) synthesized by *F. prausnitzii* HTF-F mediates its anti-inflammatory potential through the production of IL-12 and IL-10 in antigen-presenting cells, in a TLR-2-dependent manner. Similarly, the EPS synthesized by *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* IF1-03 can modulate the Treg/Th17 axis regulated by macrophages, providing protection against DSS-colitis in mice.⁵⁷ There is increasing evidence suggesting that probiotics, through their interaction with Toll-like receptors (TLRs), stimulate the production of proinflammatory cytokines, induce TNF production in epithelial cells, inhibit NF- κ B activation in macrophages, and affect the requirements for neutrophil use.⁶² Probiotics can also inhibit the binding of lipopolysaccharides to the CD14 receptor, thus reducing overall NF- κ B activation and the production of proinflammatory cytokines.⁶³ Recently, seven peptides from the supernatant of *F. prausnitzii*, collectively known as microbial anti-inflammatory molecule (MAM), have been identified. These peptides have demonstrated the ability to inhibit the NF- κ B pathway *in vitro* and exhibit anti-inflammatory properties in a DiNitroBenzene Sulfate (DNBS)-induced colitis model.⁵⁸ Probiotics have been extensively studied and have been reported to modulate humoral, cellular, and non-specific immunity, while also enhancing the immune barrier.⁵⁴ The bacterial cells of probiotics and their soluble factors likely induce systemic immune responses by stimulating antigen-presenting cells in the gastrointestinal tract.⁵³ *Lactobacillus* species, such as *L. plantarum* and *L. salivarius* CICC 23174, have been found to significantly increase the proliferation of spleen cells, enhance the conversion rate of spleen lymphocytes, promote the production of secretory IgA (sIgA), and increase the number of CD11c+ CD80+ positive cells, thereby influencing immune activities.⁵¹⁻⁶⁴ It has been reported that the administration of probiotics leads to a significant increase in IgA and IgG concentrations in mice, although this effect is dose-dependent.⁵⁴ Furthermore, the oral administration of *Bacillus polyfermenticus* to humans

stimulates IgG production and modulates the number of CD4+, CD8+, or natural killer (NK) cells.⁶⁵ Probiotics have the ability to modulate dendritic cells (DCs) into regulatory cells, contributing to immune tolerance and balance. DCs can uptake probiotics and present short antigenic peptides to T cells, thereby stimulating the differentiation of Th1, Th2, Th17, and/or Treg cells.⁵⁵ Exposure of dendritic cells to *Bifidobacterium bifidum* cell wall extracts has been observed to induce Treg differentiation.⁵⁷ *Bifidobacterium breve* has been shown to promote the generation of IL-10-producing T cells, with this effect being mediated by CD103+ DCs.⁶⁶ Probiotic lactobacilli have the ability to stimulate macrophages and dendritic cells, leading to the secretion of cytokines such as IL-12 and IL-10, which help regulate the host's immune responses.⁴⁹ Lactic acid bacteria can also promote the production of IFN- γ by NK cells through the involvement of dendritic cells.⁶⁰ Binding of lipopolysaccharides (LPS) to toll-like receptors (TLR 2 and 4) on endothelial cells, dendritic cells, and macrophages results in activation and increased expression of inflammatory markers. Treatment with probiotics can help reduce intestinal dysbiosis and intestinal permeability, thereby reducing the production of inflammatory biomarkers and mitigating immune system overstimulation. The prominent mechanisms through which probiotics exert their immune and biological effects involve the increase of anti-inflammatory cytokines and T-regulatory (Treg) cells, along with the reduction of proinflammatory cytokines.⁶⁷

Lactobacillus and *Bifidobacterium* species play a crucial role in innate immunity by enhancing the cytotoxicity of natural killer cells, promoting macrophage phagocytosis, interacting with enterocytes and dendritic cells, and modulating acquired immunity through interactions with Th1, Th2, and Treg cells.⁵⁴ *F. prausnitzii* inhibits IL-1 β -induced IL-8 secretion in Caco-2 cells and induces IL-10, which inhibits the production of proinflammatory cytokines. Bacteroidetes has also been shown to suppress proinflammatory IL-17.⁶⁸ Moreover, *L. plantarum* CGMCC 1.557 has been found to be the most active strain in enhancing macrophage phagocytic activity, while *L. salivarius* CICC 23174 is the most effective strain in maintaining Th1/Th2 balance.⁶⁴ Clinical and preclinical observations have demonstrated the anti-inflammatory activity of *L. plantarum* and its potential in regulating host immune responses upon ingestion.⁶⁹ Recently, two new probiotic *Lactobacillus* strains (s193 and s292) have been found to increase β -8 integrin on mesenchymal dendritic cells, thereby strongly promoting the differentiation of CD4+ T cells into Treg cells.⁵⁵

Lactococcus lactis expressing pili proteins from *B. bifidum* has been associated with decreased IL-10 and increased tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) in an *in vivo* mouse model, while the simultaneous use of flagellin and *L. casei* Shirota strain increased IL-12 production.⁵⁷ Two proteins (p75 and p40) purified from the probiotic *L. rhamnosus* GG have been

shown to prevent TNF-induced epithelial cell apoptosis by activating Akt and inhibiting the activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), thus promoting cell growth.⁷⁰ Furthermore, *B. adolescentis* SPM0212 has been found to enhance TNF production and may have utility in enhancing the immune system in the human intestinal tract.⁷¹ *L. reuteri* ATCC PTA 6475 can suppress the production of TNF- α induced by LPS through the inhibition of the c-Jun pathway regulated by MAPK and activator protein-1.⁶⁰ *In vitro* studies using *L. salivarius* CICC 23174 and *L. plantarum* CGMCC 1.557 have demonstrated the effective inhibition of TNF- α -induced IL-8 production in Caco-2 cells, as well as the prevention of proinflammatory responses caused by *S. typhimurium*.⁶⁴ In a study using Caco-2 cells, it was observed that *L. sakei* induced the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β , IL-8, and TNF- α , while *L. johnsonii* influenced the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine TGF- β .⁵⁴ Another study by Lores et al. demonstrated that *L. lactis* NCDO 2118 reduced IL-1 β -induced IL-8 secretion in Caco-2 cells, suggesting an anti-inflammatory effect. However, in mice with induced colitis, oral administration of *L. lactis* NCDO 2118 increased IL-6 levels in the colon. Interestingly, it ameliorated aberrant TNF- α levels induced by DSS (dextran sulfate sodium) almost to control levels, indicating an immunomodulatory effect.⁶⁶ Lactobacilli have been shown to enhance immunity in mice, but the effectiveness of a specific probiotic in modulating immunity can vary depending on the dose and strain. Furthermore, individual responses to probiotics may differ among people.^{49,51} Animal and human studies have provided evidence that probiotics can significantly impact immune and inflammatory mechanisms. However, the precise underlying mechanisms are not yet fully understood.⁶⁰

Effect of Probiotic Bacteria Strains on Anticancer Immune Response Based on *In Vivo* and *In Vitro* Studies Colorectal Cancer

Colorectal cancer is a serious disease and one of the most common gastrointestinal malignancies. Its development has been associated with various environmental and genetic factors, including sedentary lifestyle, obesity, high body mass index (BMI), high-fat and low-fiber diets, alcohol consumption, smoking, use of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), and family history. While surgery is the primary treatment for colorectal cancer, probiotics have emerged as a potential adjunct therapy for this condition.^{20,72-74} These studies suggest a special relationship between probiotics and colorectal cancer, as probiotics can modulate the intestinal microbiota and prevent cancer development.⁷⁵ Probiotics exert their anticancer effects through various mechanisms, such as modifying the metabolic activities and physicochemical conditions of the large intestine, eliminating carcinogenic substances, producing anti-tumor

or anti-mutagenic compounds, and enhancing the host's immune response.⁷⁶⁻⁷⁸ The gut microbiome has a significant impact on the immune system, and several studies have highlighted the role of *F. nucleatum* in colorectal cancer. *F. nucleatum* can suppress the response of human T cells to mitogens and antigens, inhibit the cell cycle in the G1 phase, induce apoptotic cell death in certain immune cells, and modulate the tumor immune environment, thereby inhibiting tumor progression. The immunosuppressive effects of *F. nucleatum* may influence the mortality of colorectal cancer patients.⁷⁹⁻⁸³ In a study by Compare and Nardone, probiotics including VSL#3, *L. acidophilus*, *Bifidobacterium longum*, and *L. gasseri* were found to improve colon cancer by reducing tumor burden and size. Consumption of inulin along with *B. longum* and *Bifidobacterium lactis* demonstrated a reduction in chemically-induced colorectal cancer and increased apoptotic response.⁸⁴ In another study by Kuugbee et al., the probiotics *L. acidophilus*, *B. bifidum*, and *B. infantum*, in combination with oligofructose and maltodextrin (referred to as LBB), modulated the intestinal microbiota and inhibited the expression of Cox-2 and β -catenin in an animal model of colorectal cancer. The results indicated that LBB prevented colorectal cancer progression by reducing tumor incidence, multiplicity, and size.⁸⁵ The use of a probiotic mixture is more effective than prescribing a single strain of a single probiotic, this is because probiotics increase the diversity of the intestinal microbiota and cause synergy between probiotic strains for better results and the promotion of a healthy natural microbiota by multi-strain probiotics.⁸⁶ In 2020, Kenfack Momo and colleagues investigated a new derivative of pyran with antioxidant and anticancer properties isolated from the probiotic strain *L. plantarum* H24. The compounds were screened for their antioxidant and cytotoxic activities against colon cancer cells (Caco-2), and they concluded that it could be a useful anticancer compound. Thus, *L. plantarum* H24 could be used for preventing oxidative stress and its related damages and improving human health.⁸⁷ In 2022, Sheng and colleagues investigated a new exopolysaccharide derived from the probiotic strain *L. pantheris* TCP102 with immune-boosting and anticancer activities. They demonstrated that these exopolysaccharides significantly induced the production of nitric oxide (NO), TNF- α , and IL-6 in Ana-1 cells and peritoneal macrophages, indicating immune-boosting and anticancer activities. Meanwhile, the exopolysaccharides significantly suppressed the proliferation of HCT-116, BCG-803, and especially A-2780 cells. The results suggest that the three new exopolysaccharides isolated from *L. pantheris* TCP102 can be considered as potential applications in functional foods and natural anti-tumor drugs.⁸⁸

L. salivarius Ren has also shown promising effects in preventing colorectal cancer by exerting antimicrobial effects against cancer-causing microorganisms, exhibiting

anti-genotoxic activities against internal and external carcinogens, and activating the intestinal mucosal immune system. Zhang et al. demonstrated that *L. salivarius* Ren effectively countered adverse changes in the colon microbiota induced by dimethylhydrazine (DMH) injection and suppressed DMH-induced colon cancer in mice.⁷⁵

Hepatocellular Carcinoma (HCC)

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the most common form of primary liver cancer and is often a severe complication of chronic liver disease. Recent studies, both experimental and clinical, have highlighted the significance of the gut-liver axis in the development of chronic liver diseases, including HCC. HCC typically arises in chronically damaged liver tissues as a result of ongoing inflammatory and regenerative processes that contribute to the initiation and progression of the disease.⁸⁹ Probiotics have emerged as a potential biological treatment for HCC. Probiotics consist of beneficial microorganisms that colonize the human intestines and reproductive system. By modulating the host's intestinal microbiota, probiotics promote the growth of beneficial microbes while inhibiting the growth of harmful microbes. This modulation of the gut microbiota has the potential to reduce the risk of HCC and can be used as a biological treatment approach.⁹⁰⁻⁹⁴ Probiotics exert anticancer effects through various mechanisms, including the production of anticancer compounds, enhancement of the immune system, improvement of the intestinal barrier function, inhibition of cancer cell proliferation, and induction of apoptosis in cancer cells. Consumption of probiotic strains that promote health can help improve liver disorders that may arise from interactions between bacterial components and liver receptors.⁹⁴⁻⁹⁶ In a study by Li et al., a novel probiotic mixture called Prohep, which includes *L. rhamnosus* GG, *E. coli* Nissle 1917, and heat-inactivated VSL#3, significantly reduced HCC growth in mice. Prohep exerted its anti-tumor function by inducing the secretion of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10, suppressing Th17 cell differentiation in the intestine, modulating the intestinal microbiota, depleting Th17 cells from the intestine, and attenuating angiogenesis in liver tumors, ultimately leading to suppressed tumor growth.⁹⁷ In an *in vitro* study by Elshaer, early administration of *L. plantarum* in Wistar rats with thioacetamide-induced liver cirrhosis resulted in reduced expression of Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), CXCL9, and PREX-2, along with improved liver function. The decreased expression of TLR4 indicated reduced inflammation.^{91,98} Another study by Kumar et al. investigated the chemopreventive effect of milk fermented with probiotics and chlorophyllin on HCC induced by aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) in rats. The use of probiotics led to decreased levels of c-myc, bcl-2, cyclin D1, and ras-p21, as well as reduced incidence of HCC. This study demonstrated the protective capacity of probiotics

against AFB1-induced liver cancer.⁹⁹ In addition to directly modulating the intestinal microbiota, probiotics can exert their anticancer effects by modulating immunity, reducing bacterial translocation, improving intestinal barrier function, and exhibiting anti-inflammatory and anti-pathogenic activities. They also contribute to the reduction of tumor formation and metastasis.^{92,100}

Gastric Cancer

Gastric cancer is a leading cause of death globally, and *H. pylori* infection is often involved in its development as it colonizes the stomach mucosa.¹⁰¹ Probiotics have shown potential in improving *H. pylori*-related diseases. They can modulate immune responses, including neutrophils, lymphocytes, plasma cells, and macrophages, and stimulate inflammatory responses against *H. pylori*. Probiotics can significantly increase the levels of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β , IL-2, IL-6, IL-8, and tumor necrosis factor α in the gastric mucosa.¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³ Probiotics can prevent the proliferation of *H. pylori* by competing with the bacteria for host surface receptors, thus impairing its adhesion to epithelial cells. Additionally, probiotics can combat *H. pylori* through the secretion of antibacterial compounds, including lactic acid, bacteriocins, hydrogen peroxide, short-chain fatty acids, and antibiotic-like substances such as rotrin and rotricycline.^{101,103} Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium are among the most commonly used probiotic bacteria, and lactobacilli, in particular, have been shown to inhibit *H. pylori* through various immunological and non-immunological mechanisms.^{101,104,105} Studies have investigated the effects of probiotics on stomach cancer. Maleki-Kaklar et al. demonstrated that probiotics, especially *L. plantarum*, may play a role in *H. pylori*-associated gastric carcinogenesis by regulating the PTEN/AKT signaling pathways¹⁰¹. Laboratory studies with probiotics such as *L. plantarum* and *L. rhamnosus* have shown increased expression of MUC2 and MUC3 genes, indicating their ability to restore gastric mucosal permeability and inhibit the adhesion of pathogenic bacteria.¹⁰¹ Rasouli and colleagues showed that *L. reuteri* can reduce the expression of uPA and uPAR genes involved in cancer metastasis, thereby inhibiting cancer cell proliferation.¹⁰⁴ The results of the studies by Rasouli et al., showed that *L. reuteri* is able to reduce the expression of uPA and uPAR genes, which are involved in cancer metastasis, and can show beneficial effects by inhibiting the proliferation of cancer cells.¹⁰⁶ Chen et al. found that treatment with Lactobacillus strains significantly reduced the attachment and invasion of *H. pylori* to gastric epithelial cells, as well as the production of IL-8.¹⁰⁷ Zhang et al. demonstrated that *L. gasseri* inhibits the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines TNF and IL-6 in macrophages, and probiotics play a role in inhibiting pathogens by increasing IgA levels and strengthening the mucosal barrier.¹⁰⁸

Esophageal Cancer

Esophageal cancer is a serious malignancy affecting the tissue of the esophagus, and it is classified into two main types: squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma.¹⁰⁹ Squamous cell carcinoma typically occurs in the upper or middle part of the esophagus, while adenocarcinoma arises from gland cells in the lower esophagus.¹¹⁰ As the cancer progresses, patients may experience symptoms such as chronic cough, indigestion, vomiting, fatigue, and heartburn.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹³

Research has indicated that the microbial diversity in the esophagus undergoes significant changes during esophagitis or esophageal cancer. The abundance of streptococcal species decreases, while gram-negative anaerobic bacteria or microaerophiles such as *Peperamella*, *Prevotella*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Neisseria* increase in esophageal cancer.¹¹⁴ Deng et al. observed a decrease in energy metabolism pathways in patients with esophageal cancer compared to healthy individuals. Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), including acetate, propionate, and butyrate, are common metabolites produced by bacteria in the gastrointestinal tract. SCFAs are considered important regulators of inflammation, differentiation, and apoptosis in host cells, and they play a crucial role in bacterial energy metabolism and overall health. Furthermore, SCFAs act as molecular signals and exhibit anticancer properties.¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁷ Deng's study also showed that patients with esophageal cancer had high abundances of Firmicutes and Actinobacteria, but decreased levels of Bacteroides, leading to an increased ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteroides. These changes in the intestinal microbiota may be associated with dysbiosis and inflammation in patients with esophageal cancer.¹¹⁵

Lactobacilli are commonly used probiotic microorganisms known for their potent anti-tumor properties. They can kill many cancer cells through cytoplasmic extracts, heat-killed cells, and cell wall peptidoglycans. Cytoplasmic extracts of *L. casei* and *Bifidobacterium* have been shown to affect the growth of cancer cell lines and inhibit cancer cell proliferation. *L. rhamnosus* has also been found to inhibit tumor growth by affecting genes involved in signal transduction pathways.^{109,118,119} Signal transduction pathways play a crucial role in the initiation and progression of cancer, and targeting these pathways can be a promising approach for cancer treatment. The Wnt pathway, in particular, is a critical signaling pathway that is often dysregulated by mutations in various cancers.¹²⁰⁻¹²³

Breast Cancer (BC)

Breast cancer (BC) is one of the most common cancers in women, and various factors such as genetics, hormone replacement therapy, lifestyle, eating habits, and age contribute to its development.^{124,125} Several animal studies have demonstrated the beneficial effects of probiotics against BC. For instance, oral administration of *L. acidophilus* can

stimulate immune responses by producing proinflammatory cytokines like IFN- γ and inhibiting the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-10. Other animal studies have reported that oral administration of *L. acidophilus* exhibits anticancer activity in mice with mammary tumors.^{126,127} The microbiota plays a crucial role in maintaining overall health, and disruption of the microbiota can lead to pathobiological changes, including BC. Gastrointestinal bacteria have an important role in modulating estrogen levels by influencing the reabsorption of estrogens, the liver-intestinal blood circulation, and the production of β -glucuronidase, an enzyme involved in the conversion of estrogen into its free form.¹²⁸⁻¹³⁰ Probiotics can serve as natural agents for cancer treatment, and specific strains such as *Bifidobacterium animalis*, *L. acidophilus*, *B. infantis*, *L. paracasei*, and *B. bifidum* have been shown to inhibit the growth of cancer cells in MCF7 cells.^{131,132} Lactobacillus and Streptococcus are more commonly found in the breast microbiota of healthy individuals, and these bacteria play a role in regulating tumor progression by stimulating the activity of natural killer (NK) cells. Additionally, *Streptococcus thermophilus* produces antioxidants that exhibit anticancer properties by reducing DNA damage and neutralizing reactive oxygen species (ROS).^{133,134}

In a study by Alejandra et al., an *in vitro* study involving BC-bearing mice demonstrated that oral administration of fermented milk containing *L. helveticus* R389 elicited an immunomodulatory response, suggesting its potential use as immunoadjuvant therapy for protection against malignancies.¹³⁵ In 2022, Pakbin and colleagues investigated the anticancer properties of the supernatant of *Saccharomyces boulardii* probiotic on human breast cancer cells. They found that suppression of survivin gene expression should be one of the main molecular tumor suppression mechanisms that help induce apoptosis in breast cancer cells. However, the anticancer activity of supernatant of *S. boulardii* was more effective against MCF-7 cells than MCF-7/MX cells. They suggested that the supernatant of *S. be* considered as a future anticancer drug for the treatment of human breast cancer. Further research, especially *in vivo* studies, are strongly recommended to identify other tumor-suppressing mechanisms of SBS against breast carcinoma.¹³⁶ In 2021, Vinothkanna studied the properties, antioxidant and anticancer activities of exopolysaccharides produced by the probiotic *Bacillus albus* DM-15, isolated from Ayurvedic Fermented Dasamoolarishta. They found that the exopolysaccharide produced by the probiotic *B. albus* DM-15 exhibited promising cytotoxic activity against lung cancer cells (A549), and subsequent cellular staining showed the characteristics of necrosis and apoptosis in damaged A549 cells. The purified exopolysaccharide from *B. albus* DM-15 could be further studied and used as a potential carbohydrate polymer in food, cosmetic, pharmaceutical, and biomedical applications.¹³⁷

Another study by Yazdi et al. investigated the administration of selenium nanoparticles enriched with *L. plantarum* in mice, showing increased levels of IFN- γ and IL-2, as well as enhanced activity of NK cells, which were beneficial in inhibiting tumor progression. Furthermore, Yazdi et al. conducted another study demonstrating that oral administration of selenium nanoparticles enriched with *L. brevis* resulted in improved prognosis among mice with highly metastatic breast tumors.^{138,139}

Bladder Cancer

Bladder cancer is a common malignancy associated with significant morbidity and mortality, with major risk factors including environmental or occupational exposure to carcinogens, particularly tobacco. Bladder cancer can be categorized into different histological types, including urothelial carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, small cell carcinoma, plasmacytoid carcinoma, and squamous cell carcinoma. The disease is also divided into two main categories: non-muscle invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) and muscle invasive bladder cancer (MIBC). The microbiome has diverse effects on bladder cancer at different stages of its development and modulates the endogenous antitumor immune response, making it a potential biomarker and therapeutic target in bladder cancer.¹⁴⁰ The microbiota isolated from the urine of bladder cancer patients is associated with bladder tumors, and certain bacteria found in urine may serve as therapeutic targets for bladder cancer. Most of the microbiota resides in the colon, where they play a clinically important role in human health and pathogenesis. Dysbiosis in the colon has been implicated in the regulation of bladder cancer.¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴³ Butyrate, a short-chain fatty acid (SCFA), is a potent inhibitor of bladder cancer proliferation. It is synthesized from dietary carbohydrates through bacterial fermentation in the colon. Butyrate may impact the expression of tumor suppressors involved in chemotherapy treatment.^{141,142} In a study by Wang et al., *Butyricoccus pullicaecorum* was found to induce its anticancer effect and inhibit cancer progression by regulating cell cycle and apoptosis. Supplementation with *B. pullicaecorum*, which secretes the specific SCFA butyrate, may offer therapeutic opportunities for various bladder cancers.¹⁴¹ Recent studies have explored the effects of probiotics on bladder cancer. For example, Seow et al. discovered that Lactobacillus species, especially *L. casei* and *L. rhamnosus* GG (LGG), exert a cytotoxic effect that inhibits the growth of bladder cancer cells.^{140,144} Kandasamy et al. suggested that lactobacilli can stimulate the immune system through actions such as stimulating neutrophils to secrete cytokines, promoting dendritic cell maturation, and inducing the production of antigen-specific cytotoxic T cells against cancer cells. Using selected bacteria to induce antigen-specific cytotoxicity could potentially become another therapeutic option against cancer cells,

alongside recombinant cytokines.^{140,145} In an *in vitro* study by Fraglie et al., recombinant Salmonella was utilized to treat bladder cancer in mice. They inserted IL-2 or/and TRAIL genes into the genome of an attenuated Salmonella strain (SL3261) and investigated the effect of this recombinant strain on bladder cancer in mice. The study found that the recombinant strain SL3261 caused cell membrane damage, increased nitric oxide (NO) production, and promoted apoptosis in mouse bladder cancer M49 cells.^{146,147}

Cervical Cancer

Cervical cancer is a common malignancy that poses a significant threat to women's health. It is one of the leading malignant tumors of the female genital tract and is often diagnosed between the ages of 35 and 44, in middle age. In the early stages, cervical cancer is typically asymptomatic, but as it progresses, symptoms such as discomfort during intercourse, pelvic pain, irregular vaginal bleeding, fatigue, and leg swelling may arise.^{148,149} Studies have demonstrated that alterations in the vaginal microbiome play a crucial role in the development of cervical cancer. Additionally, the presence of probiotics can affect the clearance of human papillomavirus (HPV), a potential cause of cervical cancer, and induce apoptosis of cancer cells and other anticancer activities. Thus, probiotics play an important role in fighting against cancer.¹⁵⁰⁻¹⁵² The immune system plays a critical role in preventing and controlling cancer cells. Bacteria can influence the immune system in various ways, including inducing the production of gamma interferon by T helper cells, increasing immunoglobulin A (IgA) secretion, boosting the number of natural killer (NK) cells, and enhancing phagocytic activity. A balanced relationship between the host's immune system and the microbiota present in the genital tract is necessary, as any disruption in this balance can lead to cervical cancer, particularly in the presence of infectious agents.^{152,153} Lactobacillus and Pediococcus are lactic acid bacteria known as probiotics. Lactobacillus is the most abundant natural flora associated with the vaginal mucous surface. By binding to the vaginal epithelium, it competes against the colonization of pathogens. Additionally, Lactobacillus produces lactic acid, which helps maintain the acidic pH of the vagina, stabilizes the vaginal bacterial flora, and prevents diseases. Therefore, it has been introduced as a vaginal probiotic.^{149,154,155} Numerous studies have demonstrated that probiotic bacteria such as *L. casei*, *L. plantarum*, *L. rhamnosus* GG, and *L. acidophilus* exert their anticancer effects by activating NK cells and promoting dendritic cell maturation. For instance, a study by Dallal et al. showed that milk containing *L. rhamnosus* and *B. lactis* can increase NK cell activity in elderly individuals.¹⁵⁶ Oral administration of *L. casei* has been found to significantly increase the production of IL-12, interferon-gamma, and NK cells in mice with cancer.¹⁵²

Bacteria can inhibit the cell cycle through various mechanisms and prevent the proliferation of cervical cancer cells. For example, *Bacillus anthracis* and *Bordetella pertussis* secrete adenylate cyclase toxins, which reduce the expression of Cyclin D1, a factor that inhibits the cell cycle. The cycle inhibitory factor (Cif) produced by *E. coli* also causes cell cycle arrest. Studies have shown that *L. casei* can regulate G1/S checkpoints by reducing the expression of Cyclin E1, while *Bifidobacterium breve* reduces the expression of Cyclin D1 and E1.¹⁵⁷ Moreover, there are mechanisms that prevent the migration of tumor cells. For example, Li et al. reported that incubation of HeLa and U14 cell lines with lactobacilli can inhibit cell migration. This inhibitory effect was attributed to increased expression of E-cadherin protein and inhibition of tumor cell invasion.¹⁵⁸ Nowak and colleagues in 2022 conducted a laboratory study titled "Anticancer potential of post-fermentation media and cell extracts of probiotic strains." Their aim was to evaluate the anti-proliferative mechanism of post-biotics, post-fermentation media (PFM), and cell extracts (CEs) of multiple strains of lactic acid bacteria on colon (Caco-2) and cervical (HeLa) cancer cell lines. They found that these strains had anticancer activity, and the anticancer activity of PFM and CEs LAB and the ability to induce apoptosis were specific to certain strains.¹⁵⁹

In another study, it was found that *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* mannose-sensitive hemagglutinin (PA-MSHA) can arrest HeLa cells in the G2/M phase, ultimately preventing cell invasion and metastasis.¹⁶⁰

Conclusion

The modulation of the immune system is regarded as a crucial health benefit associated with probiotics. Several probiotic strains, such as *B. animalis*, *L. acidophilus*, *B. infantis*, *L. paracasei*, *B. bifidum*, *L. plantarum*, *L. paracasei*, and *B. longum*, have been found to possess the ability to inhibit the growth of cancer cells. Consequently, these probiotics have potential applications as natural agents for cancer treatment, leading to a reduction in tumor incidence, tumor multiplicity, and tumor size. Additionally, probiotics have been shown to downregulate the expression of genes involved in cancer metastasis. By inhibiting the proliferation of cancer cells, probiotics exhibit beneficial effects in combating cancer.

Authors' Contributions

RG, MK, and HEGG contributed to design of study. RG, MK, MAA, HEGG, and HMH performed acquisition and evaluation of data, and preparation of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Ethical Approval

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of

Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences (IR.BMSU. BLC.1401.054).

Conflict of Interest Disclosures

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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