

Strategies and mechanisms of radiosensitization in cancer therapy

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Abstract More than 50% of patients with malignant tumors require radiotherapy (RT). However, its efficacy is often hindered by inherent or acquired radioresistance and damage to surrounding normal tissues. Radiosensitizers offer the potential to enhance the therapeutic efficacy of radiotherapy while minimizing toxicity to normal tissues. This review provides a comprehensive overview of the current understanding of the multi-dimensional mechanisms underlying radiosensitization. Additionally, we discuss the synergistic role of physicochemical interventions and advanced delivery systems in improving radiosensitization. Advances in clinical translation are summarized, highlighting several radiosensitizers that have entered clinical trials. Despite considerable progress, challenges such as delivery efficiency and tumor heterogeneity remain. Future research should focus on multi-targeted strategies, biomarker-guided patient selection, and integration with immunotherapy to achieve precise and effective radiosensitization.

Keywords Tumor radiotherapy, Radiosensitization, DNA damage repair, Drug delivery, Tumor microenvironment

INTRODUCTION

Radiotherapy (RT) is one of the most effective cytotoxic therapies available for the treatment of localized solid cancers. More than 50% of patients with malignant tumors require RT. RT is widely used throughout all cancer treatment stages in the forms of adjuvant RT, neoadjuvant RT, radical RT, and palliative RT (Zhou *et al.* 2023). Typically, RT utilizes high-energy ionizing radiation (IR), including X-rays and gamma (γ) rays, and particle radiation (alpha (α) or beta (β) particles, carbon ion, electron, proton, or neutron beams). IR damages biomolecules, including proteins, lipids, and particularly DNA, leading to structural damage of biomolecules, such as single-strand breaks (SSBs) or double-strand breaks (DSBs) of DNA and cross-linking of DNA–DNA or DNA–protein, eventually resulting in the termination of cell division and even cell death.

Although it demonstrates strong efficacy against

certain tumor subtypes, RT alone is challenged by limited therapeutic efficacy with a high rate of tumor metastasis and recurrence for many patients. Radioresistance represents a major cause of RT failure (Hu *et al.* 2018). The therapeutic efficacy of RT relies on the radiation dose, but increasing the dose will aggravate the radiation damage to normal tissues and organs (Akhunzianov *et al.* 2025). Refining radiotherapy techniques and exploring ideal radiosensitization approaches to improve prognosis have become research hotspots in the field of radiotherapy in recent years. Diverse radiosensitizers have been developed to maximize RT efficacy and minimize side effects. This review provides a comprehensive overview of the multi-dimensional mechanisms underlying radiosensitization, including inhibition of DNA damage repair, promotion of free radical generation, induction of G2/M cell cycle arrest, enhancement of various cell death pathways, modulation of the tumor microenvironment, immune regulation, targeting of cancer stem cells, and

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involvement of the gut microbiota. It summarizes the latest strategies in radiosensitization methods. Furthermore, it introduces radiosensitizers in clinical translation, aiming to provide new insights and directions for future radiotherapy research.

PRINCIPLES OF RADIOSENSITIZATION

Interference with DNA damage repair

The DNA damage repair capacity of tumor cells post-radiotherapy determines their sensitivity to radiotherapy, which is one of the key factors influencing therapeutic outcomes. Radiation directly induces DNA damage, including DNA SSBs and DSBs, with DSBs being the most lethal form (Fig. 1A). SSBs primarily rely on poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) for repair and

may progress into DSBs. DSBs are mainly repaired through non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) and homologous recombination (HR) (Huang and Zhou 2020). Disruption of DNA damage repair leads to cell cycle arrest, impaired repair, cellular senescence, or death, offering substantial radiosensitization potential. DNA damage repair-associated proteins, such as ATM, DNA-PK, RAD51, and PARP-1, have been identified as potential targets for radiosensitization (Huang and Zhou 2020; Nickoloff *et al.* 2021).

Beyond directly inhibiting the expression of DNA repair proteins, an alternative approach involves epigenetic regulation, such as histone modifications and interference with non-coding RNA expression to modulate DNA repair protein levels. For instance, miR-205 inhibits DNA damage repair by targeting ZEB1 and the ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme Ubc13 (Zhang *et al.* 2014). miR-521 modulates the expression levels of the

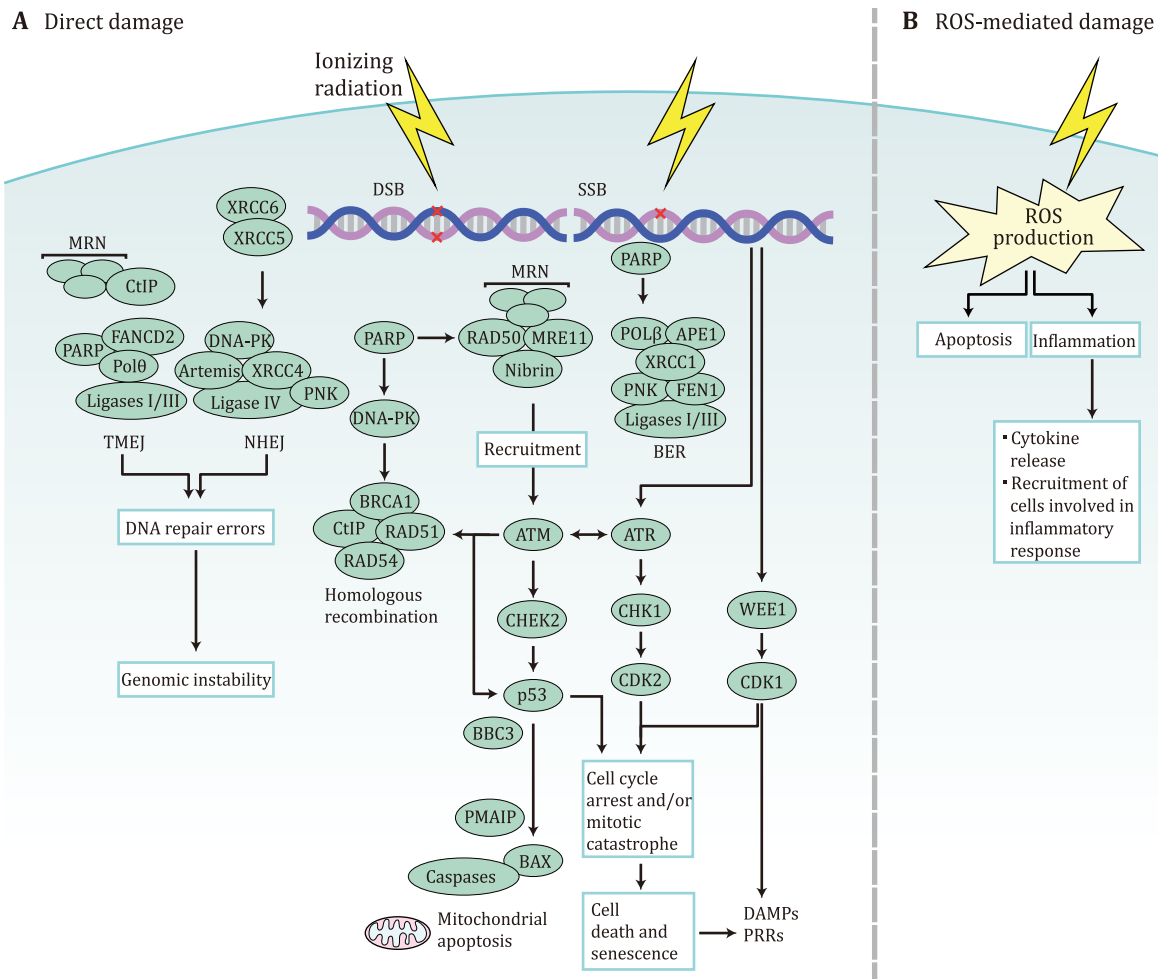


Fig. 1 Mechanism of biological action of ionizing radiation (Price *et al.* 2023). Radiation damages cells via direct damage to DNA (A) and indirect damage via the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (B)

DNA repair protein CSA and plays an important role in the radiosensitivity of prostate cancer cell lines. Thus, miR-521 can be a potential target for enhancing the effect of radiation treatment on prostate cancer cells (Josson *et al.* 2008). A study reported that radiation-resistant individuals exhibit global histone deacetylation along with changes in histone deacetylase (HDAC) and histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activities. However, HDAC activity also shows heterogeneity among different individuals. Tumoral HDAC activity should be assessed before radiotherapy, and patients with high activity are suitable candidates for radiosensitization using HDAC inhibitors (Sharda *et al.* 2020). Furthermore, regulatory proteins have been found to influence DNA damage repair. The Hsp90 inhibitor PU-H71 suppresses DNA repair via homologous recombination and non-homologous end joining, sensitizing cancer cells to heavy-ion radiation (Lee *et al.* 2016; Li *et al.* 2016).

In summary, DNA damage repair is a primary cause of radiotherapy resistance, and targeting relevant genes or proteins to inhibit or block associated signaling pathways is a classical method to enhance tumor radiosensitivity.

Promotion of free radical generation/ inhibition of endogenous radioprotective systems

Radiotherapy induces cell damage not only through direct DNA injury but also via indirect free radical damage, primarily mediated by water radiolysis generating reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Fig. 1B) (Sanche 2009). ROS, natural byproducts of normal cellular metabolism, are characterized by oxygen-derived free radicals exhibiting high reactivity and concentration-dependent functionalities (Jiang *et al.* 2023). Under physiological conditions, ROS play pivotal roles in cell signaling and maintaining intracellular homeostasis. To counter elevated ROS levels from diverse sources, cells frequently upregulate antioxidant defense systems, including the thioredoxin and glutathione systems, to counteract oxidative stress. Numerous studies emphasize that cancer cells often demonstrate significantly elevated ROS levels relative to normal cells (Du *et al.* 2015; Fath *et al.* 2011; Wondrak 2009; Zhang *et al.* 2017).

Certain radiosensitizers amplify radiation-induced cytotoxicity by enhancing ROS generation. Examples include: nitroimidazole derivatives that capture electrons to impair DNA repair under hypoxia, as in mitochondria-targeted probes (Chen *et al.* 2021); Catalytic systems generating reactive nitrogen species (RNS) through ROS-NO coupling (*e.g.*, peroxynitrite

formation) (Liu *et al.* 2022); Metal complexes catalyzing hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$) production via Fenton/Fenton-like reactions (Lin *et al.* 2018). These strategies trigger endogenous radical bursts, exacerbating oxidative stress to promote apoptosis and potentiate RT-induced cell death.

Other radiosensitizers function by inhibiting endogenous radioprotective substances. Glutathione (GSH) functions as a versatile protector in radioprotection. Several distinct mechanisms by which GSH confers radioprotection can be delineated, including radical scavenging, restoration of damaged molecules via hydrogen donation, reduction of peroxides, and maintenance of protein thiols in their reduced state. Among these, hydrogen donation to DNA radicals is likely the most critical (Bump and Brown 1990). Due to the rapid kinetics of competing reactions, this mechanism demands a high concentration of GSH. Xiang *et al.* engineered a proalkylating agent prodrug (designated BamCS) based on H_2O_2 -activated boronic acid ester concurrently with the utilization of silica-coated bismuth nanoparticles to generate ROS. This prodrug can be activated by elevated H_2O_2 levels in tumor cells, releasing *p*-quinone methide to irreversibly deplete GSH (Xiang *et al.* 2021).

The thioredoxin (Trx) system is a key antioxidant system responsible for eliminating excessive reactive oxygen species (Arnér and Holmgren 2000). The Trx system is upregulated post-radiotherapy in cancer cells, contributing significantly to radiation resistance, as widely demonstrated (Cao *et al.* 2024). TrxR, the sole enzyme catalyzing oxidized Trx reduction to its reduced form, maintains redox homeostasis via NADPH oxidation to NADP^+ (Arnér and Holmgren 2006). Elevated TrxR expression pre- and post-radiotherapy enhances radioprotection in malignancies. Trx function relies on the redox state. Radiation-induced TrxR activation promotes reduced Trx nuclear translocation, modulating AP-1 and NF- κB to bolster resistance (Karimpour *et al.* 2002; Pennington *et al.* 2007; Wang *et al.* 2011; Wei *et al.* 2000). Inhibiting TrxR disrupts antioxidant capacity, triggering ROS accumulation, oxidative stress, and apoptosis, thereby sensitizing cancer cells to radiotherapy, validating its potential as a radiosensitizer target (Bian *et al.* 2019; Liang *et al.* 2014; Rodman *et al.* 2016).

In summary, suppression of cellular antioxidant capacity leads to the accumulation of free radicals, thereby rendering cancer cells highly vulnerable to radiotherapy. Consequently, promoting free radical generation or inhibiting endogenous radioprotective systems represents a promising strategy for developing radiosensitizers, warranting further investigation.

Induction of G2/M cell cycle arrest

Tumor cells exhibit differential radiosensitivity across cell cycle phases. Specifically, cells in M and G2 phases demonstrate higher radiosensitivity compared to those in S and G1 phases (Pawlik and Keyomarsi 2004). Forcing tumor cells to accumulate in radiation-sensitive phases (*e.g.*, G2/M) can amplify the cytotoxic effects of radiotherapy. During the S phase, enhanced DNA repair capacity is observed, whereas this capability is relatively suppressed in G2/M phase. Consequently, G2/M arrest impedes timely DNA damage repair, leading to apoptosis or permanent cellular inactivation. In contrast, normal cells exhibit a lower frequency of rapid division; thus, G2/M phase blockade imposes minimal impact on them. This selectivity mitigates RT-associated side effects, improving therapeutic safety and efficacy (Dillon *et al.* 2014; Pawlik and Keyomarsi 2004). Ding *et al.* demonstrated that X-ray irradiation promotes tumor cell uptake of nanoparticles, while cisplatin induces arrest in radiation-sensitive G2/M phases (Ding *et al.* 2021).

Ionizing radiation-induced DNA damage activates the G1/S checkpoint, subsequently triggering cell cycle arrest at the G1/S phase through signaling pathways such as ATM/p53/p21 and Chk2. This arrest facilitates DNA damage repair, ultimately contributing to radiotherapy resistance (Shiloh 2003). However, tumor cells frequently harbor p53 mutations, leading to G1/S checkpoint dysfunction. Consequently, the G2/M checkpoint represents an especially attractive therapeutic target.

Following exposure to G2/M checkpoint inhibitors, p53-proficient cells, such as normal cells, initiate efficient cell cycle arrest predominantly at the G1 phase to facilitate DNA repair. Consequently, they manifest relative resistance to pharmacological G2/M checkpoint inhibition, although those normal cells that have progressed beyond the G1/S checkpoint remain susceptible to mitotic catastrophe upon G2/M inhibition. In contrast, p53-deficient cancer cells are particularly sensitive to inhibition of residual S and G2/M checkpoints (Levesque and Eastman 2007). These cells enter mitosis with unrepaired radiation-induced DNA damage, leading to mitotic catastrophe and cell death. Therefore, G2/M checkpoint inhibitors can mediate synthetic lethal interactions with ionizing radiation in p53-pathway-deficient tumors. Larsen *et al.* demonstrated that irradiated tumor cells activate caspase-dependent DNases to induce self-inflicted DNA breaks, promoting G2-phase arrest and prolonging DNA damage duration (Larsen *et al.* 2022). Milciclib exhibits anti-tumor activity as a monotherapy in CRC cells and

enhances radiotherapy efficacy in combination. It disrupts the G2/M checkpoint and compromises DNA repair mechanisms (Ma *et al.* 2025).

Collectively, potentiating G2/M arrest before radiotherapy and inhibiting post-radiotherapy G2/M arrest constitute an effective strategy to enhance tumor radiosensitivity.

Promotion of cell death

Previous studies indicate that radiation-induced cell death primarily manifests as apoptosis (Ning *et al.* 2024; Wang *et al.* 2023a). Enhancing apoptosis has been extensively investigated for radiosensitization (Muschel *et al.* 1998). Whether radiation induces other unrecognized forms of cell death and their roles in radioresistance remains a critical research focus. Recently, radiobiologists have begun exploring the involvement of radiation-induced ferroptosis, necroptosis, pyroptosis, cuproptosis and autophagy (Fig. 2).

Radiotherapy elevates intracellular ROS levels, promoting the accumulation of lipid peroxidation. It activates ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (ATM) kinase and upregulates intracellular ATM expression to induce tumor cell ferroptosis (Chen *et al.* 2020; Lang *et al.* 2019). Additionally, radiation-mediated p53 activation influences post-radiotherapy ferroptosis (Jiang *et al.* 2015; Liu and Gu 2022). Recently, Shen *et al.* reported that radiotherapy generates double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) to activate the cyclic GMP-AMP synthase (cGAS) signaling pathway, downregulating SLC7A11 and GPX4 expression and thereby promoting tumor ferroptosis (Shen *et al.* 2022). The mechanistic basis for ferroptosis in radiosensitization requires further investigation. Current literature implicates three primary pathways: induction of iron overload, suppression of glutathione synthesis and promotion of cellular lipid peroxidation (Ivanov *et al.* 2015; Lang *et al.* 2019; Lei *et al.* 2020; Pan *et al.* 2019; Shibata *et al.* 2019; Xu *et al.* 2021; Ye *et al.* 2020; Zhao *et al.* 2020).

The mechanism underlying radiotherapy-induced necroptosis remains to be fully elucidated. Necroptosis in tumor cells during radiotherapy exhibits a dual role in cancer therapy: Necroptosis inducers can enhance tumor cell radiosensitivity and therapeutic efficacy (Wang *et al.* 2018). A retrospective study demonstrated improved overall survival (OS) in patients more susceptible to radiotherapy-induced necroptosis. Bioinformatics analyses further revealed better OS in tumor patients with elevated expression of necroptosis-related genes (Li *et al.* 2022a). Conversely, studies indicate that radiation-induced tumor cell necroptosis may promote tumor progression (Wang *et al.* 2019),

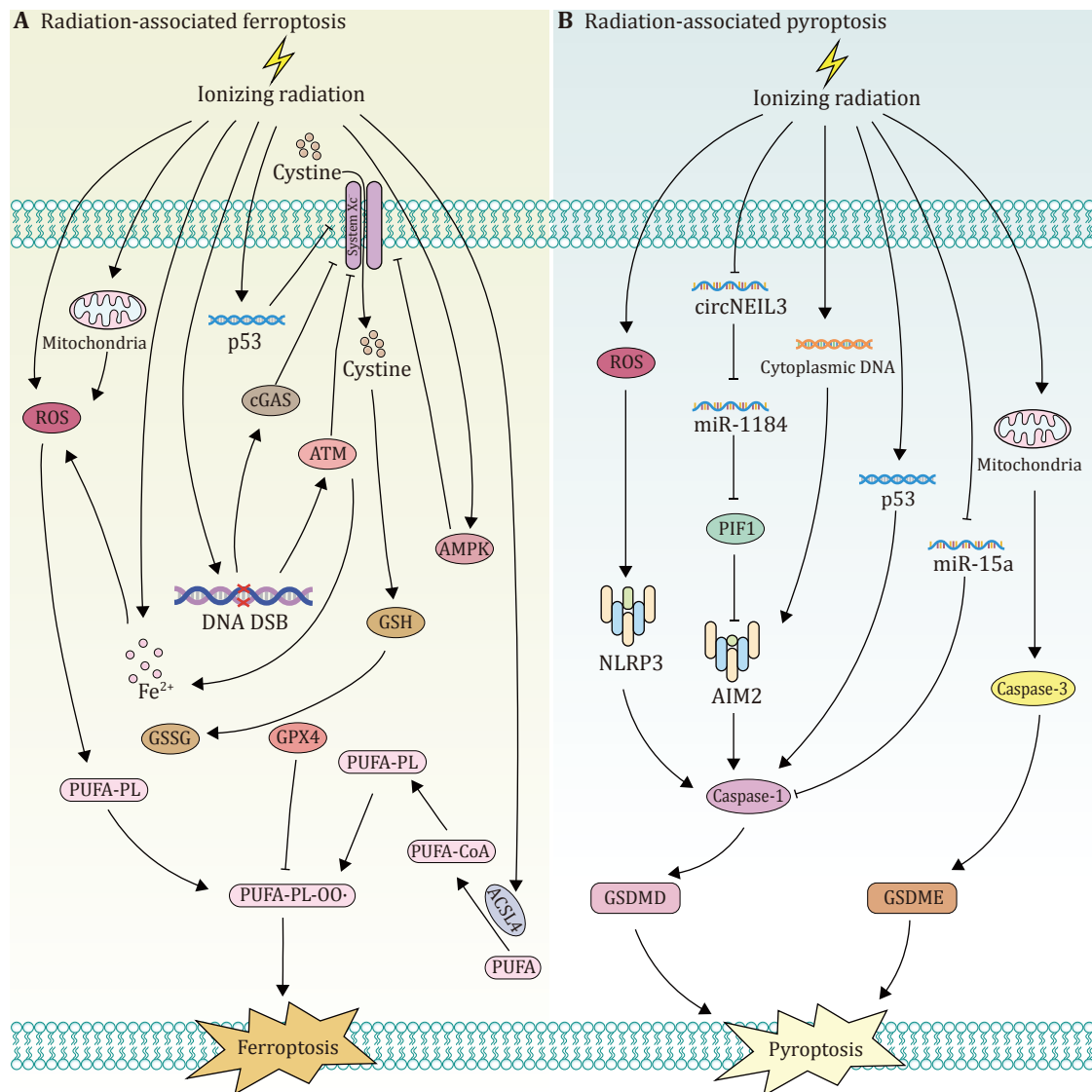


Fig. 2 Known and potential mechanisms of radiation-associated ferroptosis and pyroptosis (Wang *et al.* 2023a). **A** RT promotes PUFA biosynthesis, induces ROS accumulation, elevates iron levels, and suppresses the GPX4-dependent defense system, thereby triggering ferroptosis in tumor cells. **B** RT induces tumor cell pyroptosis through ROS/caspase-1/GSDMD activation, cytoplasmic DNA/inflammasome signaling, p53-mediated caspase-1 activation, miR-15a suppression leading to caspase-1/GSDMD pathway, AIM2 inflammasome activation and caspase-3/GSDME pathway

highlighting the need for further discussion on its context-dependent roles.

DNA damage activates the absent in melanoma 2 (AIM2) inflammasome, inducing GSDMD-mediated pyroptosis in tumor cells (Zhang *et al.* 2022). Rana *et al.* reported that radiation-induced tumor cell pyroptosis is associated with miR-15a expression (Rana *et al.* 2020). High-dose radiation reduces intracellular miR-15a levels, activates the caspase-1 inflammasome, increases Gasdermin D, and induces tumor cell pyroptosis. Ionizing radiation also triggers anti-tumor immunity by

inducing Gasdermin E-mediated pyroptosis in tumor cells (Cao *et al.* 2023). It is also found that radiation enhances Caspase-3 activity, recruiting NK cells and activating anti-tumor immunity through the Caspase-3/Gasdermin E pyroptotic pathway, thereby increasing radiosensitivity in colorectal cancer cells (Tan *et al.* 2022). Consequently, upregulating Gasdermin E expression in cancer cells while downregulating it in normal tissues may achieve tumor radiosensitization and mitigate radiation-induced damage to healthy tissues.

Cuproptosis, a newly discovered form of cell death, relies on intracellular copper accumulation to induce cell death by disrupting mitochondrial metabolism and protein homeostasis (Li *et al.* 2025; Zhang *et al.* 2024). Studies demonstrate that residual tumors post-radiotherapy exhibit upregulation of key cuproptosis regulators FDX1 and LIAS, thereby enhancing tumor cell sensitivity to cuproptosis (Liao *et al.* 2024). This suggests leveraging cuproptosis to potentiate radiotherapy efficacy. Researchers developed copper-containing sandwich polyoxometalate (PWCu), which releases copper ions during radiotherapy to trigger cuproptosis, overcome tumor radiation resistance, and activate immunogenic cell death (ICD) to elicit anti-tumor immunity (Liao *et al.* 2024). Notably, cuproptosis is highly sensitive to oxygen presence. To address this, investigators engineered an oxygen-generating copper-delivery carrier ($^{Cu/APH-M}$) that elevates intratumoral oxygen levels, amplifies cuproptosis, and synergizes with radiotherapy to enhance anti-tumor immune responses (Pei *et al.* 2024). Current research on cuproptosis-mediated radiosensitization remains in its nascent phase, yet its therapeutic potential in oncology has gained significant traction.

In recent years, the combination of autophagy inducers with ionizing radiation has emerged as a promising strategy to enhance the radiosensitivity of cancer cells. Autophagy is recognized as one of the earliest cellular processes activated in response to radiation exposure. However, the role of autophagy in cancer cells varies significantly with the stage and progression of tumors. In the initial stages of tumorigenesis, autophagy primarily functions as a tumor-suppressive mechanism (Russo and Russo 2018). Conversely, in established tumors, autophagy promotes cytoprotection, enabling cancer cells to survive under various stressors and acquire treatment-resistant phenotypes (Singh *et al.* 2018).

Thus, while combining autophagy inducers with therapy may exert anticancer effects during early malignancies, autophagy inhibitors could yield superior radiosensitizing outcomes in advanced disease stages. Consequently, despite their potential, the strategic application of autophagy modulators in cancer therapy remains challenging and has not yet gained widespread adoption as a standard treatment modality (Roy *et al.* 2022).

Among the non-apoptotic pathways, ferroptosis and pyroptosis currently possess the strongest preclinical and translational evidence supporting their roles in radiosensitization. Immunogenic cell death, such as pyroptosis, releases damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), initiating an anti-tumor immune

response that amplifies the initial radiation effect. While necroptosis, cuproptosis, and autophagy also contribute to radiation responses, their roles in radiosensitization remain less defined or context-dependent.

Modulating the tumor microenvironment

Previous research on enhancing the efficacy of radiotherapy has predominantly focused on cancer cells, often overlooking the intricate biological interplay between cancer cells and the tumor microenvironment (TME). The TME constitutes a distinct niche formed by cancer cells, infiltrating immune cells, cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), blood and lymphatic vessels, secreted factors, and the extracellular matrix (ECM) (de Palma *et al.* 2017; Koelwyn *et al.* 2017). Understanding and modulating the interactions between RT and the TME are crucial for maximizing radiotherapeutic outcomes (Barker *et al.* 2015).

Tumor hypoxia, a common characteristic of the solid tumor microenvironment, arises from rapid tumor cell proliferation and aberrant vascular architecture (Li *et al.* 2021; Wang *et al.* 2020; Zhuang *et al.* 2023). Hypoxia significantly diminishes RT efficacy because ionizing radiation primarily inflicts DNA damage indirectly through the generation of free radicals, a process critically dependent on oxygen (Guo *et al.* 2024). Furthermore, hypoxia induces the expression of hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs), which subsequently promote tumor growth, invasion, metastasis, and therapy resistance (Bigos *et al.* 2024; Gonzalez-Avila *et al.* 2023).

Strategies to alleviate tumor hypoxia primarily include: (1) Utilizing oxygen carriers or generators to deliver oxygen to tumor regions (Li *et al.* 2023; Zhu *et al.* 2018). For instance, Ma *et al.* loaded myoglobin (Mb) into Gd-NTs (Mb@Gd-NTs), resulting in efficient relief of tumor hypoxia and significant enhancement of Gd-Tex radiosensitization (Fig. 3) (Ma *et al.* 2023). (2) Promoting vascular normalization. Normalizing the tumor vasculature to improve blood flow and oxygen delivery, consequently enhancing radiosensitivity (Guo *et al.* 2024; Une *et al.* 2021). (3) Applying hyperbaric oxygen therapy (HBOT). Increasing oxygen concentration in tumor regions by elevating inspired oxygen tension. HBOT has been investigated as a means to ameliorate hypoxia and enhance RT efficacy (Braks *et al.* 2015; Fernández *et al.* 2021). (4) Targeting HIF signaling to mitigate hypoxia-driven tumor aggressiveness and treatment resistance (Zhuang *et al.* 2023).

To meet the demands of rapid proliferation, tumor cells undergo metabolic reprogramming, preferentially

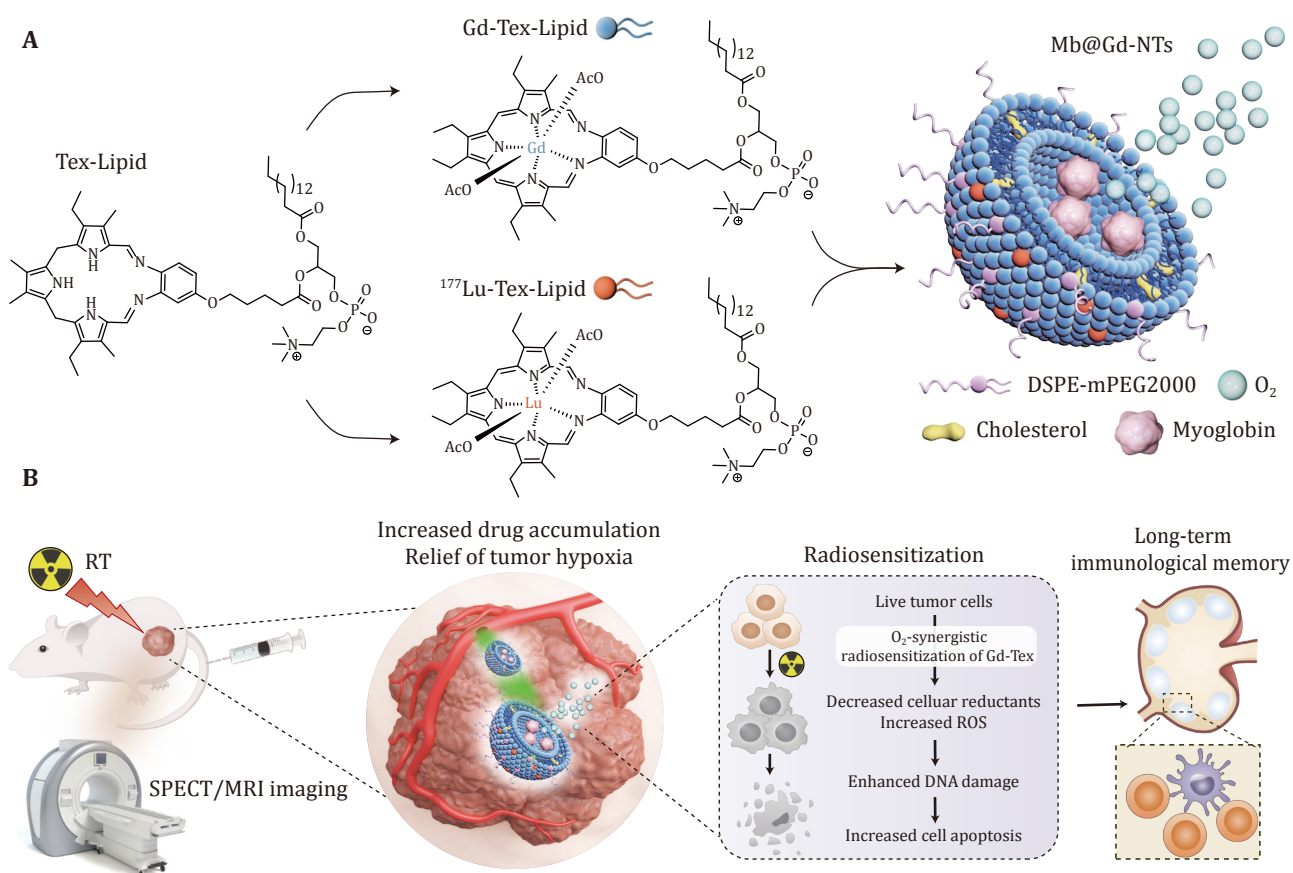


Fig. 3 Utilizing oxygen carriers to relieve tumor hypoxia for radiosensitization (Ma *et al.* 2023). **A** Diagram of the fabrication of myoglobin-loaded gadolinium nanotextaphyrins (Mb@Gd-NTs). **B** Illustration of oxygen synergy and imaging-guided radiosensitization therapy. Mb@Gd-NTs enables SPECT/MRI dual-modality imaging, significantly increases the tumor accumulation of radiosensitizer gadolinium-texaphyrins (Gd-Tex), and obviously relieves tumor hypoxia. O₂ synergistically enhances the radiosensitization effect of Gd-Tex, causing enhanced cell apoptosis, eventually inducing long-term immunological anti-tumor memory

utilizing glycolysis even under aerobic conditions (Warburg effect) (Liberti and Locasale 2016). This metabolic alteration not only provides energy and biosynthetic precursors for tumors but also influences TME parameters, including pH and lactate levels, thereby promoting radiation resistance (van Gisbergen *et al.* 2021). Furthermore, extracellular enzymes associated with nutrient consumption, such as indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase 1 (IDO-1), CD73, and arginase 1, are overexpressed in the TME to accommodate accelerated tumor growth (Zhen *et al.* 2023). This adaptation enables solid tumors to evade immune surveillance by inducing exhaustion and apoptosis of T cells and NK cells, while simultaneously stimulating immunosuppressive cells, including Tregs, tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs), and myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs).

Metabolic regulators have the potential to reprogram

the immunosuppressive nature of TME, thereby enhancing the efficacy of radiotherapies. For example, IDO-1 inhibitors enhance radiotherapy efficacy by remodeling the immunosuppressive TME induced by kynurenine (Kyn) accumulation (Lu *et al.* 2018). Targeting glycolytic enzymes or glucose transporters can force glycolytic tumor cells toward oxidative phosphorylation, enhancing their radiosensitivity (Shen *et al.* 2015). Inhibitors targeting different OXPHOS complexes can potentiate radiation response (Ashton *et al.* 2018). Additionally, modulation of nucleotide metabolism, arginine metabolism, fatty acid (FA) metabolism and one-carbon metabolism can increase tumor cell radiosensitivity (de Lima Luna and Forti 2021; Deng *et al.* 2025; Jin *et al.* 2021; Marullo *et al.* 2021; Read *et al.* 2022).

ECM is a critical component of the tumor microenvironment. Its aberrant proliferation and remodeling

not only constitute a physical barrier that impedes the infiltration of therapeutic agents and immune cells but also directly or indirectly promotes tumor immunosuppression (Chen *et al.* 2022; Zhen *et al.* 2023). Dense ECM can restrict the infiltration of effector immune cells (*e.g.*, T lymphocytes) into tumor cores, thereby attenuating anti-tumor immune responses. CAFs, in conjunction with other ECM components, form an impermeable barrier that prevents therapeutic drugs and immune cells from penetrating tumors (Chen and Song 2019; Kalluri 2016). In pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), the dense fibrotic stroma is a hallmark feature that creates a physical barrier, preventing access of chemotherapeutic drugs and cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) to the TME while promoting hypoxia, which induces therapy resistance in cancer cells (Ahmad *et al.* 2021).

Enzymatic digestion of ECM, targeting ECM-associated molecules, or modulating CAF functions may enhance radiotherapy efficacy. For instance, in gastric cancer, SERPINE1 deposition correlates with poor prognosis. Downregulating ECM components and reducing interstitial fluid pressure via Losartan can improve radio-immunotherapy outcomes (Zaheer *et al.* 2025). Ni *et al.* designed a bismuth (Bi)-based nanoscale metal-organic framework (nMOF) capable of modulating intratumoral biomechanical properties to amplify RT-RDT (radiodynamic therapy)-mediated immune responses (Ni *et al.* 2022). Fibroblast activation protein (FAP) represents one of the most promising targets for selective CAF intervention. FAP-activated prodrugs demonstrate potential in targeting CAFs and suppressing tumor growth across multiple models (Hou *et al.* 2021; LeBeau *et al.* 2009). FAP-targeted ligands are extensively utilized in radioactive tracers and targeted radionuclide therapy (Lindner *et al.* 2021; Zhao *et al.* 2024).

In summary, ameliorating the tumor microenvironment represents a pivotal strategy for enhancing radiotherapy efficacy, with ameliorating hypoxia, modulating metabolism, and regulating the extracellular matrix serving as critical entry points. Hypoxia alleviation has the clearest evidence for radiosensitization. Future research should delve deeper into understanding the complex interactions among the components of the tumor microenvironment and develop multi-target combination strategies to overcome treatment resistance and improve patient survival rates.

Immune regulation

In 1953, Mole and colleagues first proposed that RT can induce the abscopal effect, referring to tumor responses

occurring outside the irradiated field during RT. It is widely acknowledged that RT exerts immunomodulatory effects capable of inducing the abscopal phenomenon (Wang *et al.* 2024b). Anti-tumor immune response acts as an endogenous amplifier of radiosensitivity. However, abscopal effects triggered solely by RT represent rare occurrences in human patients, likely attributable to limited immune activation elicited by RT alone. Numerous therapeutic modalities have been combined with RT to augment the abscopal response, aiming to achieve effective systemic anti-tumor efficacy (Turchan *et al.* 2021). An ideal radiosensitizer should amplify immune activation mechanisms, thereby influencing tumor cells beyond the irradiated region to promote the abscopal effect.

The cyclic GMP-AMP synthase–stimulator of interferon genes (cGAS–STING) pathway modulates innate immune responses, with cGAS catalyzing the conversion of pathogen-derived or self-DNA in the cytosol to generate 2',3'-cyclic GMP-AMP (cGAMP). cGAMP activates STING to induce type I interferons (IFN-I) and other inflammatory cytokines through the activation of TANK-binding kinase 1 (TBK1)/interferon regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) and I κ B kinase (IKK)/NF- κ B signaling cascades (Yum *et al.* 2020). Via cytokine production, STING agonists — including cyclic dinucleotides (CDNs) such as c-diGMP, c-diAMP, and cGAMP — activate dendritic cell maturation and tumor antigen cross-presentation, fostering anti-tumor immunity (Corrales *et al.* 2016; Su *et al.* 2019). Upon exposure to high-dose X-rays, damaged DNA escapes from the nucleus of cancer cells into the cytosol, facilitating cGAMP production and STING activation. The combination of RT and STING pathway activation may yield synergistic anti-tumor effects (Luo *et al.* 2022; Yan *et al.* 2022).

Immune Checkpoint Blockade (ICB) is a therapeutic strategy that aims to restore exhausted T cells by targeting immune checkpoint molecules, such as PD-1 and CTLA-4, thereby rejuvenating anti-tumor immunity and inducing the abscopal effect (Liu *et al.* 2018). Major classes of immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) include agents targeting PD-1 (*e.g.*, nivolumab and pembrolizumab), PD-L1 (*e.g.*, durvalumab and atezolizumab), and CTLA-4 (*e.g.*, ipilimumab or tremelimumab). Inhibition of PD-1 or PD-L1 primarily reverses T cell exhaustion, whereas anti-CTLA-4 agents suppress the immunosuppressive activity of regulatory T (Treg) cells and enhance the CD8⁺ T cell to Treg cell ratio within the tumor microenvironment (Topalian *et al.* 2016). Multiple studies have demonstrated that ICIs can be combined with radiotherapy (RT) to improve therapeutic outcomes (Fig. 4) (Verma *et al.* 2024; Wang *et al.* 2024a; Yang *et al.* 2022; Zheng *et al.* 2024).

Radiation dose and fractionation profoundly determine the extent of synergy with immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) and STING agonists. High-dose radiation induces robust immunogenic tumor cell death, leading to the release of tumor-associated antigens (TAAs) and DAMPs that initiate dendritic cell activation and antigen presentation. Moderate doses are optimal for activating the cGAS–STING–type I interferon (IFN)

pathway without triggering excessive expression of the DNA exonuclease Trex1, which degrades cytosolic DNA and attenuates IFN signaling, thereby potentiating synergy with ICIs (Vanpouille-Box *et al.* 2017). Low-dose radiation primarily promotes inflammatory cytokine release and DAMPs, altering endothelial cell adhesion receptor expression and immune cell trafficking and activation (Jagodzinski *et al.* 2024).

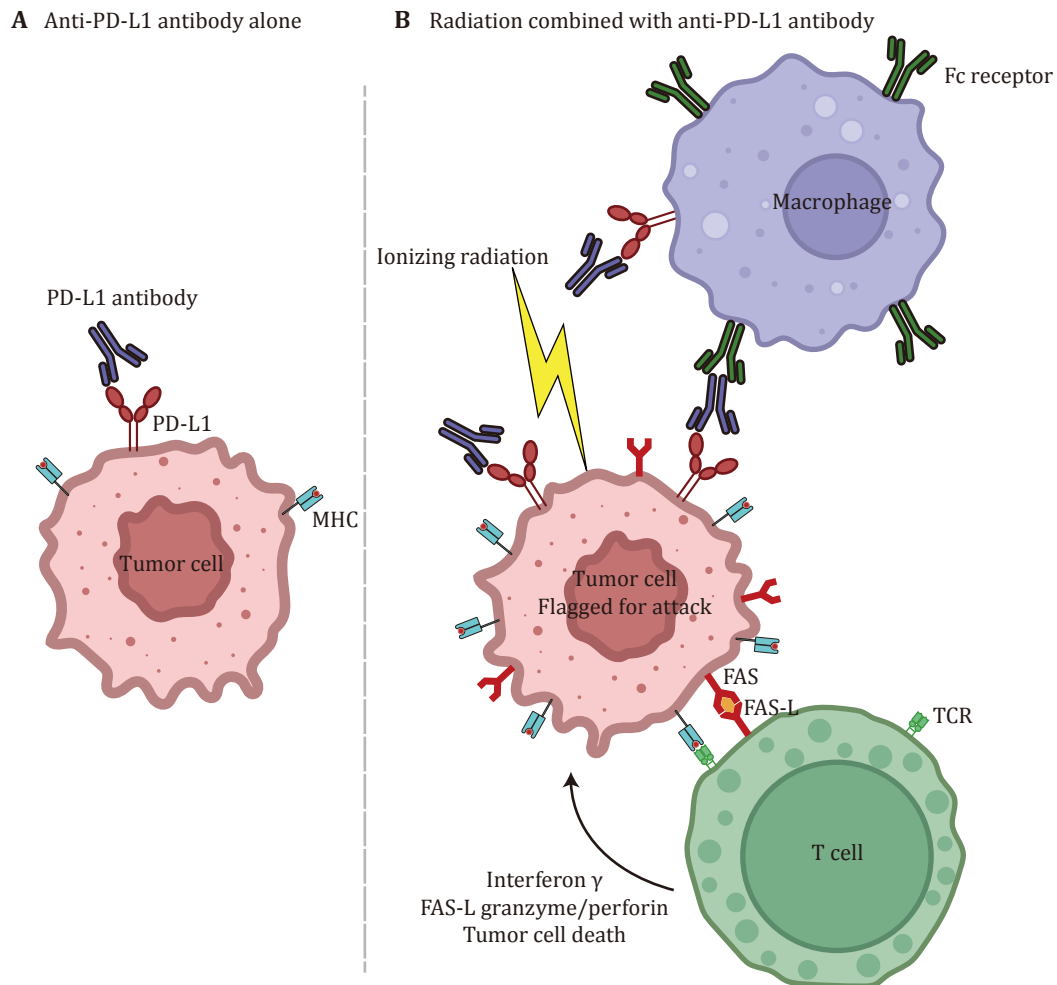


Fig. 4 Radiotherapy combined with immune checkpoint blockade enhances tumor cell susceptibility to T-cell-mediated cytotoxicity (Sharabi *et al.* 2015). **A** Monotherapy with anti-PD-L1 does not exhibit significant direct cytotoxic effects. **B** The combination of radiotherapy and anti-PD-L1 upregulates MHC and FAS, thereby augmenting susceptibility to immune-mediated cell death

Additionally, the tumor microenvironment harbors various immunosuppressive cells, including Tregs, MDSCs, and TAMs. These cells inhibit anti-tumor immune responses by secreting immunosuppressive molecules, inducing apoptosis in immune cells, or altering metabolic states (DeNardo and Ruffell 2019;

Gabrilovich and Nagaraj 2009; Li *et al.* 2020; Xue *et al.* 2021). Suppression of the function of these immune cells or depletion of their numbers constitutes a key strategy to enhance radiotherapy efficacy (Feng *et al.* 2022; Ji *et al.* 2020; Ma *et al.* 2022b; Zhang *et al.* 2020). Inhibition of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs)

formation can also sensitize tumors to radiotherapy (Wang *et al.* 2023a).

However, recent research demonstrates that large radiation doses that are clinically relevant to SBRT induce the expression of the EGFR ligand amphiregulin in tumor cells, which promotes distant metastasis growth (Piffkó *et al.* 2025). This challenges traditional conjectures regarding the mechanism of the abscopal effect. In summary, modulating the immune system constitutes a critical research direction for enhancing radiotherapy sensitivity. Future studies necessitate an in-depth investigation into the molecular mechanisms underpinning these processes, coupled with the development of more efficacious and precise strategies, ultimately to improve the efficacy of cancer therapy.

Targeting cancer stem cells

With the rapid advancement of sequencing technologies, our understanding of tumor heterogeneity — particularly its role in cancer recurrence and therapeutic resistance — has deepened substantially. Accumulating evidence indicates that cancer stem cells (CSCs), a distinct subpopulation within tumors characterized by self-renewal and differentiation capacities, are considered pivotal drivers of tumor initiation, maintenance, metastasis, and therapy resistance. Critically, CSCs demonstrate enhanced survival post-radiotherapy, thereby contributing to relapse (Krause *et al.* 2017; Saw *et al.* 2024).

Given the central role of CSCs in recurrence, targeting these cells to potentiate radiotherapy efficacy represents a major research focus. Multiple strategies have been proposed to eliminate CSCs and enhance radiosensitivity. Platelet membrane-biomimetic manganese carbonate nanoparticles effectively clear breast cancer stem cells, thereby augmenting radiotherapy response (Jiang *et al.* 2024). The small-molecule drug CBL0137 sensitizes glioblastoma stem cells to radiation by inhibiting the FACT complex (Tallman *et al.* 2020). Engineered UniCAR T cells significantly suppress radio-resistant cancer stem cell growth in immunodeficient mice (Arndt *et al.* 2020). Combined genetic and pharmacological inhibition of MYC synergizes with BMI1 targeting, enabling sustained CSC eradication and relapse prevention (Qin *et al.* 2025). A self-assembled nanodrug activated by aldehyde dehydrogenase — composed of disulfide-linked all-trans retinoic acid and a photosensitizer — enables targeted diagnosis and treatment of CSC-enriched tumors (Li *et al.* 2024).

Targeting cancer stem cells in combination with radiotherapy represents a critical strategy for enhancing the efficacy of cancer treatment and preventing

recurrence. Future research should advance the understanding of the biological properties of CSCs and their interactions with the tumor microenvironment, enabling the development of more specific and efficient CSC-targeted therapies and novel radiosensitizers.

Gut microbiota

The gut microbiota is a complex ecosystem of microorganisms that significantly influences host health and disease states, including the occurrence, progression, and response to treatment of cancers (Nobels *et al.* 2025; Yang *et al.* 2023). In recent years, an increasing number of studies have shown that the gut microbiota can modulate tumor sensitivity to radiotherapy. It exerts radiosensitizing effects or protects normal tissues from radiation damage by influencing the immune system and the TME (Dong *et al.* 2022; Li *et al.* 2022b; Yi *et al.* 2023). These findings provide novel strategies and potential targets for optimizing cancer radiotherapy via modulation of the gut microbiota.

The gut microbiota and its metabolites can regulate the host immune system. For instance, the gut microbiota influences the activation and function of T cells, thereby enhancing or suppressing anti-tumor immune responses (Lu *et al.* 2022). Research indicates that specific compositions of the gut microbiota are associated with patient response rates to radiotherapy. RT-induced cGAS-STING signal transduction in dendritic cells (DCs) may be modulated by metabolites produced by the gut microbiome. Dysbiosis of the gut microbiota impacts radiotherapy efficacy by downregulating host anti-tumor cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) responses and suppressing the activation of IFN- γ related pathways (Li *et al.* 2022b).

Metabolites produced by the gut microbiota, such as short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), particularly butyrate, play a pivotal role in regulating radiotherapy outcomes. SCFAs upregulate the expression of the sodium/iodide symporter (NIS) through epigenetic modifications, promoting iodine (I^-) uptake, which is beneficial for ^{131}I therapy (Samimi and Haghpanah 2020). The bacterium *g_Dorea* is an independent predictor influencing the efficacy of ^{131}I therapy in thyroid cancer. Increasing the relative abundance of *g_Dorea* and *g_Bifidobacterium* in the gut microbiota may improve the response to ^{131}I therapy in thyroid cancer patients (Zheng *et al.* 2023). The commensal bacterium *Roseburia intestinalis* sensitizes CRC to radiotherapy by producing butyrate. Butyrate promotes autophagy through the OR51E1/RALB axis to induce tumor cell death (Dong *et al.* 2024).

Based on the role of gut microbiota in regulating

radiotherapy efficacy, diverse strategies such as microbiota transplantation (MT), dietary intervention and modulation of gut microbiota metabolites have been proposed for achieving radiotherapy sensitization (Dong *et al.* 2024; Then *et al.* 2024; Wu *et al.* 2019).

Physicochemical synergy

Some methods focus on enhancing energy deposition at the physical level or regulating reactions at the chemical level for radiotherapy sensitization. High atomic number (high-Z) materials, owing to their strong X-ray absorption capability, allow high-Z metal nanocrystals to generate more secondary electrons and Auger electrons under radiation, thereby causing more severe DNA damage in tumor cells and achieving physical sensitization (Zheng *et al.* 2021). Gold nanoparticles (GNPs) are representative examples of high-Z materials, and their sensitization effects have been extensively studied (Wang *et al.* 2023b; Zhang *et al.* 2019). The morphology and size of GNPs significantly influence sensitization efficacy. Acid-triggered aggregation strategies can enhance their accumulation and retention within tumor cells, thereby improving radiotherapy sensitization outcomes (Zhang *et al.* 2019). Furthermore, these nanomaterials serve as carriers for loading multiple drugs and immune inhibitors. Research on hafnium oxide nanoparticles demonstrates that a surface-modified nanoplateform enables efficient siRNA delivery while retaining high atomic number inherent physical sensitization properties, exhibiting enhanced radiotherapy efficacy (Shin *et al.* 2025).

Exploiting the catalytic activity of nanomaterials to modulate the tumor microenvironment represents another crucial physicochemical sensitization strategy. For instance, catalytic reactions can deplete GSH within tumor cells or promote hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) decomposition to generate more ROS, thereby exacerbating oxidative stress damage (Wu *et al.* 2022). Manganese dioxide (MnO_2) nanozymes can respond to tumor microenvironment characteristics and enhance radiotherapy efficacy by activating the STING pathway (Tan *et al.* 2024). Cu_2WS_4 -PEG nanozymes function in enhancing breast cancer radiotherapy through multiple enzymatic activities, the high atomic number tungsten (W) and their ability to induce ferroptosis (Fu *et al.* 2024).

Other physical stimuli have also been explored for radiotherapy sensitization. Low-intensity ultrasound (LIUS) has been investigated to enhance tumor sensitivity to radiation through multiple mechanisms (Xu *et al.* 2024). Tumor Treating Fields (TTFields), as a

physical therapeutic approach, have been shown to inhibit DNA damage pathways and increase replication stress, thereby creating a conditionally vulnerable environment during interphase that renders cells more sensitive to radiotherapy (Bokstein *et al.* 2020; Karanam *et al.* 2023).

The *in vivo* biodistribution and metabolic properties of nanomaterials require further investigation to ensure efficient accumulation in tumor sites and low toxicity in normal tissues. Additionally, the complexity and heterogeneity of the tumor microenvironment impose higher demands on the design and application of nanomaterials. Future research needs to deepen the understanding of interactions between physicochemical factors and tumor biology, developing more targeted and intelligently responsive sensitization strategies.

Novel delivery strategies

Novel delivery strategies for tumor radiosensitization aim to improve radiation sensitivity and minimize damage to normal tissues. By precisely modulating the tumor microenvironment and external factors, stimuli-responsive nanomaterials can enhance radiosensitization through mechanisms such as size and shape transformations, structural degradation, and controlled drug release. These nanomaterials for enhanced radiotherapy are categorized into four types, including endogenous stimuli-responsive strategies, exogenous stimuli-responsive strategies, dual stimuli-responsive strategies, and multi-stimuli-responsive strategies (Xiao *et al.* 2024). Endogenous stimuli include pH, hypoxia, GSH, ROS, and enzymes (Ding *et al.* 2020; Hua *et al.* 2018; Li *et al.* 2019; Lin *et al.* 2021; Zhang *et al.* 2019). Exogenous stimuli encompass X-rays, light, and ultrasound (Du *et al.* 2023; Song *et al.* 2016; Zhong *et al.* 2019). Dual stimuli-responsive systems combine pH/enzyme, pH/ultrasound, or ROS/light (Ma *et al.* 2022a; Yang *et al.* 2019; Zhang *et al.* 2021). Multi-stimuli-responsive approaches integrate pH/ROS/GSH or X-ray/ROS/GSH (Pan *et al.* 2023; Yuan *et al.* 2022).

Engineered bacteria, as drug carriers, demonstrate significant potential in tumor radiosensitization. These bacteria can not only actively target tumors and penetrate complex microenvironments but also be genetically modified to serve as multifunctional platforms for radiosensitizer delivery and hypoxia alleviation (Liang *et al.* 2022). The use of engineered bacteria to deliver gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) can markedly enhance tumor radiosensitivity while minimizing damage to healthy tissues (Lei *et al.* 2025). Engineered bacteria can modulate the tumor

microenvironment through multiple mechanisms to improve radiotherapy efficacy. For instance, certain engineered bacteria can metabolize intratumoral substances, alleviating hypoxia and thereby increasing radiosensitivity (Han *et al.* 2023). Additionally, engineered bacteria can release immunomodulatory factors to activate anti-tumor immune responses (Chen *et al.* 2024).

Biologically derived carriers also serve as excellent tools for radiosensitization. Studies have shown that M1 macrophage-derived exosomes with catalase (CAT) and anti-PD-L1 nanobody expressed on their membrane, along with DNA damage repair inhibitor (DDRi) encapsulated inside, can significantly enhance radiotherapy efficacy (Ma *et al.* 2022b).

Despite the growing body of research on these novel delivery systems, their practical application in clinical settings remains limited. The intricate strategies for achieving enhanced precision radiotherapy pose significant challenges when transitioning from laboratory experiments to real-world applications.

CLINICAL TRANSLATION OF RADIOSENSITIZERS

Over decades of research, substantial efforts have been dedicated to improving tumor cell radiosensitivity through radiosensitizing agents. Although extensive

preclinical investigations have demonstrated the therapeutic potential of various radiosensitizers in oncology, their precise mechanisms for enhancing radiation response remain incompletely elucidated, with only a limited number of compounds progressing to clinical validation (Zhao *et al.* 2025).

The clinical development of chemical radiosensitizers originated in the 1970s. Metronidazole emerged as the first clinically tested agent in 1974, though subsequent studies revealed limited therapeutic benefits (Dische 1985). Subsequent research identified efaproxiral (RSR13), initially developed as a hypolipidemic agent, as a promising radiosensitizer (Suh 2004). Multiple clinical trials have evaluated its efficacy in patients receiving radiotherapy for metastatic tumors and locally advanced unresectable malignancies, yielding partially favorable outcomes. Targeted therapies, including cetuximab and alpelisib (BYL719) have been investigated as radiosensitizers in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma management (Dunn *et al.* 2020). Nelfinavir has demonstrated intrinsic radiosensitizing properties, showing tolerable toxicity profiles and improved survival outcomes when combined with chemoradiotherapy in pancreatic cancer treatment (Wilson *et al.* 2016). Notably, pyrotinib administration has been associated with enhanced radiosensitivity in HER2-positive breast cancer with cerebral metastases (Tian *et al.* 2022). (Table 1)

Table 1 Clinically evaluated radiosensitizers and their proposed mechanisms of action

Class	Radiosensitizer	Proposed mechanism of action
Nitroimidazoles	Metronidazole (Dische 1985)	Restores the radiosensitivity of hypoxic cells
Synthetic allosteric hemoglobin modulator	Efaproxiral (RSR13) (Suh 2004)	Enhances the oxygenation of hypoxic tumors by facilitating the release of oxygen from hemoglobin
Anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody, PI3K α inhibitor	Cetuximab, alpelisib (BYL719) (Dunn <i>et al.</i> 2020)	BYL719 is an α -specific PI3K inhibitor that is synergistic and efficacious when combined with cetuximab
PI3K/AKT inhibitor	Nelfinavir (Wilson <i>et al.</i> 2016)	Reduces hypoxia and improves vascularity
Pan-ErbB inhibitor	Pyrotinib (Tian <i>et al.</i> 2022)	Pyrotinib is an irreversible pan-ErbB inhibitor

SUMMARY AND PERSPECTIVES

Radiotherapy continues to serve as a principal modality for cancer treatment, yet its therapeutic efficacy is frequently compromised by tumor radioresistance and off-target toxicity. The emergence of radiosensitization strategies provides a valuable framework to overcome these barriers. Over the past few decades, a diverse array of radiosensitization mechanisms has been

identified, ranging from molecular-level interventions — such as inhibition of DNA repair, ROS modulation, and cell cycle control — to tumor microenvironment remodeling and immune activation.

Importantly, non-apoptotic forms of cell death, including ferroptosis, pyroptosis, necroptosis, and cuproptosis, offer novel avenues for radiosensitization, especially in apoptosis-resistant tumor subtypes. Likewise, targeting cancer stem cells, modulating metabolic

and hypoxic features of the tumor microenvironment, and leveraging the immunological effects of radiotherapy significantly enhance therapeutic response. Recent studies also underscore the role of gut microbiota and its metabolites in regulating tumor radiosensitivity, suggesting opportunities for microbiota-targeted interventions.

Novel delivery strategies such as responsive nano-carriers, engineered bacteria and biologically derived carriers offer precise, stimuli-triggered radiosensitization platforms. In addition to biological strategies, physicochemical approaches employing high-Z nano-materials and physical stimuli show the potential of interdisciplinary application in radiosensitization. These advances collectively highlight the growing interdisciplinarity of the field, integrating oncology, materials science, immunology, and synthetic biology.

Despite these developments, several key challenges remain. These include variability in patient response, lack of predictive biomarkers, delivery barriers in solid tumors, and limited clinical translation of promising preclinical findings. To address these issues, future research should prioritize: (1) personalized radiosensitization based on tumor molecular profiling; (2) combination regimens with immunotherapies and targeted therapies; (3) development of biomimetic and programmable delivery systems; and (4) large-scale, multicenter clinical trials to validate safety and efficacy.

Ultimately, advancing radiosensitization strategies holds significant promise for improving radiotherapy outcomes, minimizing collateral damage, and contributing to a more effective and personalized paradigm in cancer treatment.

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Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of interest Gaoyuan Xie, Xiaotu Ma and Fan Wang declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Human and animal rights and informed consent This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

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