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Efficacy of oncolytic viruses (OVs) in malignant tumor therapy: a review on its therapeutic aspects

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Highlights

- Dual-pronged mechanism of action - Oncolytic viruses (OVs) exhibit a unique dual-pronged mechanism of action, selectively infecting and destroying cancer cells while simultaneously inducing systemic anti-tumor immunity.
- Genetic engineering for enhanced safety and efficacy - Advanced genetic modifications, such as deletion of the γ134.5 gene in HSV-1, have improved tumor specificity, allowing the OVs to replicate preferentially in cancer cells while minimizing potential damage to healthy tissues.
- Transformation of the tumor microenvironment - OVs can convert immunologically "cold" tumors into "hot" ones by promoting the infiltration of immune cells and enhancing the recognition of tumor antigens.
- Synergistic combination therapies - Clinical evidence demonstrates that combining OVs with other therapies significantly enhances the effectiveness of conventional chemotherapy and contemporary immunotherapies, achieving significant objective response rates of up to 62% when paired with immune checkpoint inhibitors.

Abstract

Despite the life-saving potential of mainstream cancer therapies like chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and surgery, their limitations, such as adverse systemic toxicity, is a topic of ongoing research and concern in current cancer era. With a global cancer burden projected to reach 35 million cases by 2050, the search for more effective therapies has accelerated, leading to a significant increase in cancer treatment. These viruses - either naturally occurring or genetically engineered - can selectively infect, replicate within, and destroy malignant cells while leaving healthy tissues unharmed. The therapeutic effectiveness and biological mechanisms of oncolytic viruses (OVs), a novel class of therapy that uses viruses to selectively destroy the malignant neoplasm that improve viral accuracy and safety, are examined in this review. Their dual-pronged mechanism of action involves direct oncolysis, which is the virus-induced destruction of cancer cells, and the induction of systemic anti-tumor immunity by activating immune cells. Genetic engineering has substantially enhanced the safety profile of OVs, as exemplified by the deletion of the γ134.5 gene in HSV-1, which both the study's tumors and disrupts viral replication in healthy cells. Clinical evidence demonstrates that combining OVs with other therapies, such as chemotherapy and immunotherapy, significantly improves objective response rates. For instance, the combination of the OV talimogene laherparepvec (T-VEC) with pembrolizumab has yielded response rates of up to 62% when paired with immune checkpoint inhibitors. Ongoing research is focused on overcoming challenges like immune clearance and optimizing delivery methods to further enhance the therapeutic potential of this promising treatment modality.

Keywords

Oncolytic virus; Herpes simplex virus; Virotherapy; Metastasis; T-VEC

Previous article in issue Next article in issue

Introduction

In 2022 alone, have shown that, global cancer cases have reached approximately 19.3 million new diagnoses annually, with deaths exceeding 10 million [1]. Despite significant advancements in cancer therapy, the disease remains a formidable challenge to global health, with ROS rise to fruition [2,3]. There are rising incidence of both common and rare cancers, underscoring the urgent need for more transformational and innovative therapies [4]. Traditional "first generation" of patients juggling with cancer, child-raising, and professional responsibilities [5]. Conventional treatments, such as chemotherapy and radiotherapy, have been the cornerstone of cancer therapy for decades [6]. However, their effectiveness is often limited by issues like systemic toxicity, off-target effects, and the development of resistance by cancer cells [7]. For instance, chemotherapy drugs can indiscriminately damage both cancerous and healthy cells, leading to severe side effects that can compromise the patient's quality of life [8]. Moreover, many cancers, including aggressive forms like glioblastoma and pancreatic cancer, have developed resistance to these therapies, rendering them less effective over time [9]. These limitations underscore the urgent need for more targeted and innovative therapies that can overcome these challenges [10].

Oncolytic viruses are engineered viruses that selectively infect and kill cancer cells. They include: the virus replicates and causes the cell to burst, releasing new viruses that can then infect nearby cancer cells [11]. This process continues as long as there are cancer cells for the virus to infect. Oncolytic viruses can also stimulate the host immune system to detect and eradicate cancer cells that are not directly infected by the virus [12]. While the concept of using viruses to treat cancer has been around for over a century, the field received the most boost during "accidental" observations of tumor regression in patients with viral infections [13]. Modern oncolytic virotherapy has been developed as early as the 1990s once before environment [14].

The evolution of oncolytic virotherapy is typically divided into four distinct phases [15]:

1) Anecdotal observations (Late 1800s – 1950s): Where the first documented observations of tumor regression were observed and sampled from cancer patients after experienced temporary tumor shrinkage after contracting viral infections [16]. Physicians noticed that patients with cancer in 1955 were believed to possess natural resistance to viral infections [17].

2) Wild-type virus trials (1950s – 1980s): where human trials began using naturally occurring viruses, such as the Newcastle disease virus. However, these trials were met with mixed success before it could have any impact, and by the 70s the field was largely abandoned due to safety concerns and a lack [18].

3) Genetic engineering (1990s – 2010s): where in 1991 the first genetically modified virus was developed, a herpes simplex virus (HSV) mutant lacking the γ134.5 gene [19]. This first oncolytic virus was approved for clinical use in Talimogene laherparepvec (T-VEC), a modified form of HSV-1, was approved in 2015 for melanoma [20]. This marked a significant milestone in the field, demonstrating the potential of oncolytic viruses as a therapeutic intervention [21].

4) Revival of immunotherapy (2010s – present): Where the field experienced a resurgence of interest with the rise of immunotherapy, particularly checkpoint inhibitors [22]. Researchers began exploring the synergistic potential of oncolytic viruses with immunotherapies, leading to numerous clinical trials [23].

5) Combination therapy (2020s – present): Where the current phase is focused on combining oncolytic viruses with other therapies, such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and immunotherapy, to enhance their efficacy [24]. This approach aims to overcome the limitations of monotherapy and improve patient outcomes [25].

The rationale for using these viruses to target cancer includes such a dual mechanism of action, direct physical destruction of the tumor, and the stimulation of a systemic anti-tumor immune response [26,27]. The primary rationale lies in the inherent or engineered ability of certain viruses to distinguish between healthy and malignant cells [28]. This selectivity is often harnessed and has numerous benefits [29]:

1) Defective Antiviral Pathways: as to prioritize rapid growth over malignant transformation can create defective antiviral mechanisms like the disruption of Type I Interferon (IFN) signaling [30]. Oncolytic viruses can exploit these defects to replicate selectively within cancer cells, leading to their lysis and minimal damage to healthy tissues [31].

2) Metabolic Vulnerabilities: cells can also become reliant on the viruses can be engineered to depend on tumor-specific metabolic pathways for their replication [32]. For example, the Myxoma Virus is an example that replicates efficiently in many cancers and fairly [33].

3) Surface Receptors as many OVs are designed to bind to receptors that are overexpressed on cancer cells, such as CD46 or EGFR [34].

4) Immune Evasion: cells can also evade the immune system by expressing overall survival in patients within advanced melanoma [35], [36], and the JENNER Algorithm to Cancer and FDA-Stem Data [35], [36] because the first case of [37]. Cancer cells can also evade the immune system by [38].

5) Acquired immunodeficiency (AIDS) Patient's Healthy: via CPRs are no longer just "cold killers" but a "immunotherapy primers" [39]. [21] also called Trojan Horse Strategy, where the virus is engineered [40]. [41] also serve an immune response [42]. [43] and specific dosages drugs like Pembrolizumab are used to [44]. [45] and [46] Oncolytic viruses can also be engineered to [47]. Oncolytic virotherapy normally becomes a transformative shift in oncology, often referred to as the "fourth pillar" of cancer [48]. [49] Oncolytic virotherapy [50] [51] [52] [53] [54] [55] [56] [57] [58] [59] [60] [61] [62] [63] [64] [65] [66] [67] [68] [69] [70] [71] [72] [73] [74] [75] [76] [77] [78] [79] [80] [81] [82] [83] [84] [85] [86] [87] [88] [89]