

Histone deacetylases: Function in tumor development and therapeutic prospects (Review)

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Abstract. Histone deacetylases (HDACs), as key epigenetic regulators, serve a central role in tumorigenesis and progression by modulating chromatin architecture and gene transcription. In recent years, notable advances have been made in elucidating the pan-cancer mechanisms of HDACs and their inhibitors (HDACis), as well as in performing clinical studies, with their antitumor activity becoming a major research focus. The present review summarized the classification and molecular mechanisms of HDACs alongside their roles in various malignancies including ovarian cancer, endometrial carcinoma, glioma, osteosarcoma and multiple myeloma. The present review specifically elaborated on the relationship between particular isoforms, such as HDAC3, HDAC5, HDAC7 and HDAC11, and tumor progression, detailing associated signaling pathways. The present review

systematically evaluated the current clinical applications of HDACis, examining both monotherapy and combination therapy efficacy alongside existing challenges. Furthermore, the present review discussed recent progress in structural modifications aimed at enhancing selectivity while reducing toxicity, as well as novel targeting strategies. Concluding with perspectives on HDAC-based therapies, the present review underscores the key importance of precision targeting and combinatorial approaches to improve patient outcomes in the future.

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Abbreviations: AKT, protein kinase B; AML, acute myeloid leukemia; Bcl-2, B-cell lymphoma-2; CRC, colorectal cancer; CXCL10, C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10; DLBCL, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma; DNMTis, DNA methyltransferase inhibitors; DNMTs, DNA methyltransferases; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; EMT, epithelial-mesenchymal transition; FGF18, fibroblast growth factor 18; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HDACs, histone deacetylases; HDACis, HDAC inhibitors; HMTis, histone methyltransferase inhibitors; HSP90, heat-shock protein 90; MDSCs, myeloid-derived suppressor cells; MM, multiple myeloma; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; NSCLC, non-small cell lung cancer; PARP, poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase; PARPis, PARP inhibitors; PD-1, programmed cell death protein-1; PI3K, phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PROTACs, proteolysis-targeting chimeras; SATB1, special AT-rich sequence-binding protein 1; TIME, tumor immune microenvironment; TNBC, triple-negative breast cancer; USP38, ubiquitin-specific peptidase 38; VPA, valproic acid

Key words: HDACs, HDACis, combination therapy

1. Introduction

Histone deacetylases (HDACs), acting as key epigenetic regulators, control chromatin structure and gene expression by removing acetyl groups from histones. HDACs participate in fundamental cellular processes such as proliferation and apoptosis. Dysregulation of their activity is associated with tumorigenesis and progression, endowing them with dual importance both as therapeutic targets and biomarkers (1,2). Within the HDAC family, functional roles and expression patterns exhibit tumor-specific variability. For instance, upregulation of HDAC1 and HDAC2 enhances tumor invasiveness and chemoresistance (3,4). HDACs interact with other enzymes, such as lysine acetyltransferases and DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs), which renders the analysis of the relevant mechanisms more complex (5,6). HDAC inhibitors (HDACis) represent promising therapeutic agents. Notably, several HDACis have gained approval from the USA Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for hematological malignancies. However, their efficacy in solid tumors remains limited

due to off-target effects, poor sensitivity and acquired resistance (7,8). Current research priorities include investigating resistance mechanisms and exploring combination therapies, approaches whose potential have already been demonstrated across multiple tumor types. The development of novel HDACis with enhanced specificity and reduced toxicity is actively being investigated (9-13). The present review comprehensively examines the functions, mechanisms and therapeutic potential of HDACs to inform ongoing research and strategic development.

2. Classification and molecular mechanisms of HDACs

Classification and structural features of the HDAC family. The HDAC family is classified into class I, IIa, IIb and IV, with each subclass exhibiting distinct cellular localization, substrate specificity and functional roles. Members of class I, including HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3, are predominantly localized in the nucleus and serve key roles in regulating gene expression, cell cycle progression and apoptosis. Notably, HDAC3 markedly influences both cell cycle regulation and apoptotic pathways, emerging as a key contributor to tumorigenesis and progression (14). The class IIa subgroup comprises HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC7 and HDAC9. These enzymes shuttle dynamically between the nucleus and cytoplasm to participate in the modulation of diverse signaling cascades. For instance, HDAC5 and HDAC7 engage with pathways implicated in cancer metastasis, underscoring their oncological relevance (15-17). Class IIb HDACs, represented by HDAC6 and HDAC10, reside primarily in the cytoplasm, where they mediate non-histone deacetylation events, affecting processes such as cell motility and stress responses. Among these, HDAC6 has garnered attention as a promising therapeutic target due to its association with cancer and neurodegenerative disorders (18-20). Class IV histone deacetylase comprises only one isoform, HDAC11. Although the development of selective inhibitors faces numerous challenges due to the lack of crystal structure data, accumulating evidence indicates that this protein is involved in the initiation and progression of tumors and inflammatory diseases. The chemical space, scaffold diversity and key structural features of HDAC11 have been systematically characterized, providing core structural basis and a foundation for the design of selective inhibitors targeting this protein (21). The enzymatic activity of HDAC11 mediates resistance to MEK inhibitors in uveal melanoma, serving as an important molecule driving malignant progression of this tumor (22). In Hodgkin lymphoma cells, HDAC11 plays a central regulatory role in the expression of OX40 ligand, acting as a key factor involved in the formation of the tumor inflammatory microenvironment (23). Structural divergence among HDAC isoforms markedly impacts their interaction profiles with substrates and enzymatic activity. Conserved motifs and specialized domains dictate substrate-binding affinity and specificity, features that are fundamental to their cellular functions. Comprehensive understanding of these classification schemes and structural characteristics is essential in designing selective HDACis, enabling tumor-specific targeting for cancer therapy and other pathologies. Elucidating their precise mechanisms will establish a robust foundation for novel therapeutic interventions in the future (24,25).

HDAC-mediated deacetylation and chromatin remodeling. HDACs exert a central role in regulating chromatin structure and gene expression by catalyzing the deacetylation of lysine residues on histones. This process induces compaction of chromatin conformation, thereby reducing the accessibility of transcriptional machinery to DNA templates and subsequently repressing the transcriptional activity of tumor suppressor genes. HDAC-mediated histone deacetylation enhances the electrostatic interaction between histones and DNA, rendering the chromatin structure more compact and thereby restricting the binding of transcription factors to gene promoters. This process is one of the key epigenetic mechanisms that regulate gene expression in cancer cells (26).

Aberrant expression of HDACs is implicated in various malignant neoplasms. For example, in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), dysregulated histone acetylation drives tumorigenesis and progression by silencing tumor suppressor genes (27,28). Furthermore, HDACs extend their regulatory influence beyond histones through deacetylation of non-histone proteins, including transcription factors, thereby modulating cell signaling pathways and altering transcriptional activity. Such post-translational modifications can either enhance or repress target gene expression involved in cell survival, proliferation and metastasis (29,30). This dual regulatory capacity underscores the pivotal role of HDACs in maintaining chromatin dynamics and cellular signaling networks, establishing them as compelling therapeutic targets for cancer treatment. Additionally, HDACs interact with chromatin-remodeling complexes such as switch defective/sucrose non-fermentable; these interactions are key to preserving chromatin architecture and governing gene expression programs. Notably, recruitment of HDACs to specific genomic loci can displace chromatin remodelers, thereby reinforcing transcriptionally repressive environments (31).

Recent studies have revealed the synergistic role of combinatorial histone modifications in chromatin regulation, offering a novel dimension in understanding HDAC function (32,33). Notably, histone modifications can exert synergistic effects through combinatorial modification coding, while HDAC-mediated deacetylation may disrupt the balance of the acetyl-methyl lysine dual modification, thereby altering chromatin accessibility at transcription start sites. The existence of this acetyl-methyl lysine modification has been confirmed in relevant studies (34). For example, in endometrial carcinoma, HDAC1 forms a complex with enhancer of zeste homolog 2. Through deacetylation-methylation, this complex silences tumor suppressor genes such as p21. HDAC1-mediated histone deacetylation compacts chromatin to create conditions for methylation, therefore blocking cell cycle regulatory pathways (35). Furthermore, HDACs do not act independently in epigenetic regulation, but exhibit a close crosstalk with histone methyltransferases and DNMTs. In acute myeloid leukemia (AML), combining HDACis with DNMT inhibitors (DNMTis) disrupts the epigenetic repressive network, reactivates tumor suppressor genes and inhibits cancer cell proliferation (36). In lung cancer models, the interaction between HDAC3 and lysine-specific demethylase 1 affects enhancer activity by regulating histone H3 lysine 4 monomethylation levels, thus highlighting the key role of crosstalk between HDACs and other epigenetic regulators in tumorigenesis (37).

Interaction between HDACs and tumor-associated signaling pathways. HDACs interact with key signaling pathways involving factors such as nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), p53 and heat-shock protein 90 (HSP90), thereby modulating cellular responses to stress and proliferation signals. For instance, within the constitutively activated NF- κ B pathway frequently observed in cancer, HDACs exert post-translational modifications on pathway components via deacetylation, which is an action that fosters tumor cell survival and proliferation (38,39). Similarly, the tumor-suppressive functionality of the classical guardian protein p53 undergoes negative regulation by HDACs. Inhibition of p53 transcriptional activity through deacetylation enables cancer cells to evade apoptosis (5,40). A specific example during cancer progression involves crosstalk between HDAC5 and special AT-rich sequence-binding protein 1 (SATB1), a chromatin architect regulating tumor suppressor gene expression. Previous studies have demonstrated that, in lung adenocarcinoma, HDAC5-mediated deacetylation of SATB1 represses tumor suppressor genes thus not only promoting neoplastic growth and metastasis but also conferring chemoresistance (41,42). The aberrant expression patterns of HDACs across multiple malignancies, including lung cancer, underscore their dual role in oncogenic signaling, acting both as drivers of carcinogenesis and promising therapeutic targets (Fig. 1). Deciphering the intricate interactions between HDACs and these key regulators along with associated signaling cascades offers promising avenues for the development of enhanced cancer treatment modalities. Notably, combining HDACis with conventional therapies represents a strategic approach to overcome drug resistance and improve patient outcomes (19,43,44).

In summary, various subtypes of the HDAC family form a mechanism-phenotype regulatory network through chromatin remodeling, non-histone modification and regulation of signaling pathways (such as the NF- κ B and p53 pathways). Aberrant activation of class I HDACs (such as HDAC1/3) can promote cell proliferation by silencing tumor suppressor genes. Class II HDACs (such as HDAC5/7) are involved in tumor metastasis through regulating epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and angiogenesis. The bidirectional role of class IV HDAC11 is dependent on the specificity of the tumor microenvironment. These mechanistic foundations provide a core theoretical framework for subsequent analysis of the functional differences of HDACs in diverse tumor types.

3. Role of HDACs in different tumor types

This section focuses on ovarian cancer, endometrial cancer, glioma, osteosarcoma and multiple myeloma (MM). These specific cancers were selected to provide a broad yet distinct perspective on HDAC biology across diverse tumor contexts. They represent major malignancies from different organ systems (gynecologic, central nervous system, bone/bone marrow) with unique etiologies, clinical challenges and patterns of HDAC expression/function. This comparative approach allows us to analyze conserved vs. tumor-specific roles of HDACs and their inhibitors, which is crucial for informing future cross-tumor targeting strategies. This section aims to analyze in detail the tumor-specific expression patterns of HDAC subtypes in each cancer type (including

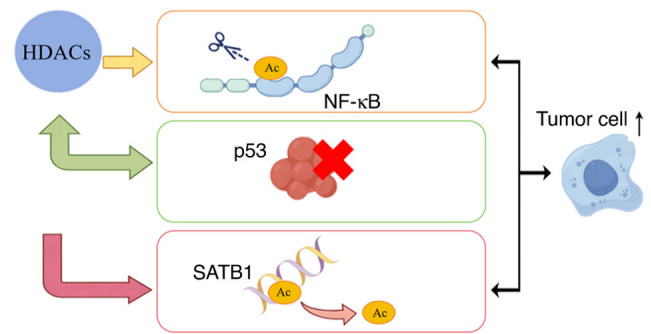


Figure 1. Interaction between histone deacetylases and tumor-related signaling pathways. HDACs can interact with key signaling pathways such as NF- κ B and p53, thereby regulating the cellular response to stress and growth signals. HDACs can also deacetylate components of the NF- κ B pathway, thus promoting the survival and proliferation of tumor cells. By inhibiting the transcriptional activity of p53, HDACs enable cancer cells to evade apoptosis. Additionally, HDACs can deacetylate SATB1, thereby inhibiting tumor suppressor genes (\uparrow , promotion). HDACs, histone deacetylases; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; SATB1, special AT-rich sequence-binding protein 1; Ac, acetylation.

the subtype-specific functions of HDAC9 in ovarian cancer and the mechanism by which HDACs regulate ferroptosis in glioma). Additionally, this section aims to compare the core oncogenic pathways mediated by HDACs and the differences in therapeutic responses to HDACis across these different tumor types, thereby providing a reference for cross-tumor targeting strategies in the future.

Ovarian cancer. HDACs have emerged as pivotal regulatory factors in the pathogenesis of ovarian cancer, particularly implicated in late-stage diagnosis and chemoresistance (45,46). Dysregulated expression of HDACs is associated with tumor aggressiveness. Their hyperactivation induces chromatin condensation and transcriptional repression of tumor suppressor genes (47,48). This dysregulation markedly contributes to poor clinical outcomes in patients with advanced ovarian cancer by enhancing cancer cell survival under conventional chemotherapy regimens. Notably, elevated expression levels of HDAC9 are associated with adverse prognosis in patients with serous ovarian carcinoma (49). By contrast, this enzyme exhibits tumor-suppressive effects in non-serous subtypes, highlighting histological subtype-specific functionalities among HDAC family members (49). Furthermore, interactions between HDACs and signaling pathways involving forkhead box protein O1 or transforming growth factor- β underscore their role in promoting cell migration and invasion, which are key hallmarks of metastatic progression in ovarian malignancy (50).

At the therapeutic strategy level, HDACis have demonstrated promising potential in pre-clinical studies, exhibiting notable anticancer activity against ovarian cancer cells (51-53). However, clinical trials have reported limitations in the efficacy of HDACis when administered as monotherapy, which is a finding that has driven research into combination regimens to enhance therapeutic outcomes. For example, combining HDACis with other anticancer agents has emerged as a highly prospective approach capable of overcoming the constraints associated with single-agent treatments. This

strategy leverages synergistic effects between distinct drugs to amplify therapeutic efficacy while potentially mitigating toxicity associated with high-dose monotherapy (54,55). Recent research has focused on elucidating the combinatorial potential of HDACis with poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPis) and other agents; such regimens have demonstrated enhanced cytotoxic effects in ovarian cancer cell lines (56,57). Furthermore, novel dual-target inhibitors targeting both HDAC and complementary signaling pathways, such as the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) pathway, are under development, reflecting an evolutionary trend towards increasingly personalized and efficient treatment modalities for ovarian cancer (Fig. 2) (58).

Endometrial carcinoma. HDACs serve a key role in the pathogenesis of endometrial carcinoma, with their mediated histone deacetylation processes closely associated with tumor invasion and poor clinical outcomes (35). As the most common malignant tumor in the female genital tract, endometrial cancer has a global incidence of ~20.2 per 100,000 women, accounting for 30-40% of all female genital tract malignancies. This tumor typically exhibits an aberrant histone acetylation pattern. Among histone deacetylases, HDAC6 acts as a key member and is highly expressed in 76.8% of endometrial cancer tissues. Such aberrant acetylation serves as a critical factor driving aggressive phenotypes including deep myometrial invasion and lymph node metastasis, as well as advanced-stage disease (46.0% at stages III-IV). It is also closely associated with reduced 5-year disease-free survival (41.3%), representing a key molecular feature underlying poor prognosis (59). Disrupted histone acetylation is strongly associated with high-grade tumors, which are characterized by enhanced invasiveness and metastatic propensity (60). Elevation in HDAC levels is markedly associated with advanced disease stages and diminished survival rates, positioning them as potential prognostic biomarkers (61). Furthermore, upregulation of specific HDAC isoforms (such as HDAC1 and HDAC6) promotes EMT, which enhances cancer cell invasive capabilities. Based on these mechanistic insights, therapeutic strategies targeting HDAC activity emerge as key interventions in restraining tumor progression in endometrial carcinoma (35,62).

The therapeutic potential of HDACis in endometrial carcinoma has garnered notable attention, primarily due to their capacity to induce cell-cycle arrest and apoptosis in cancerous cells. Compounds such as suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid and romidepsin, which are prominent members of the HDACis family, have demonstrated efficacy in pre-clinical models by restoring acetylation levels and reactivating epigenetically silenced tumor suppressor genes (35,60,63). These agents not only suppress tumor growth but also sensitize endometrial cancer cells to conventional chemotherapeutic drugs, thus generating synergistic cytotoxic effects. For instance, combinatorial regimens incorporating HDACis with standard chemotherapy have been reported to enhance DNA damage responses and promote apoptotic pathways in endometrial cancer cell lines (35). Ongoing clinical trials evaluating such combination therapies in patients have yielded preliminary results indicating improved tumor regression rates and overall survival outcomes (35,60,64,65). The strategic deployment of

HDACis, particularly when integrated with other treatment modalities, represents a promising approach to enhance therapeutic efficacy and overcome drug resistance in endometrial carcinoma (38,66).

Glioma. HDACs occupy a central position in the regulatory networks governing glioma cells, particularly regarding ferroptosis (a form of regulated cell death driven by iron-dependent lipid peroxidation) (67). As integral components of this pathway, HDACs directly influence tumor progression and therapeutic responses. Inhibition of HDAC activity elevates both histone and non-histone protein acetylation levels, disrupting cellular homeostasis and promoting ferroptotic cell death in glioma cells (68). This mechanism holds particular importance for glioblastoma, which is characterized by high invasiveness and resistance to conventional therapies. The prevalent dysregulation of iron metabolism observed in gliomas is exacerbated by aberrant upregulation of HDACs, thereby sustaining tumor cell survival and proliferation (69,70).

Targeting HDACs to induce ferroptosis represents a promising therapeutic strategy, as previous studies have demonstrated that HDACis enhance the sensitivity of glioma cells to this form of cell death, simultaneously suppressing tumor growth and potentiating the efficacy of existing treatments (67,71). HDACis have emerged as potential therapeutic agents for glioma due to their ability to alter acetylation status in both histone and non-histone proteins, thereby modulating gene expression profiles and cellular behavior. For example, valproic acid (VPA) exhibits notable antineoplastic effects in *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of glioma, demonstrating capabilities to inhibit cell proliferation while increasing responsiveness to radiotherapy and chemotherapy, effects that are likely mediated through the regulation of survival/apoptosis signaling cascades (8,72,73). Mechanistically, HDACis operate via multiple pathways, including reactivating epigenetically silenced tumor suppressor genes, down-regulating oncogenic drivers to alter cellular dynamics and driving tumor cell death. Additionally, HDACis contribute to enhancing antitumor immune responses by remodeling the tumor microenvironment and facilitating infiltration of immune effector cells (74,75). Clinically, HDACis have demonstrated promise in improving patient outcomes, particularly for isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH)-mutant glioma subtypes, where malignant cells display increased sensitivity to HDAC inhibition (76,77). Their therapeutic synergy with immune checkpoint inhibitors further underscores their value in glioma management, while highlighting the increasing demand for personalized medicine based on individualized molecular profiling of tumors.

Osteosarcoma. Osteosarcoma, a highly aggressive bone malignancy predominantly affecting children and adolescents, exhibits HDAC-driven progression through enhanced tumor cell migration and invasion, primarily via regulation of EMT. For example, HDAC6 is markedly upregulated in doxorubicin- and cisplatin-resistant osteosarcoma cells, directly associating with their increased metastatic potential (78). Mechanistically, HDAC6 interacts with estrogen receptor-related proteins to modulate their acetylation status and stability, thereby elevating cancer-cell survival rates

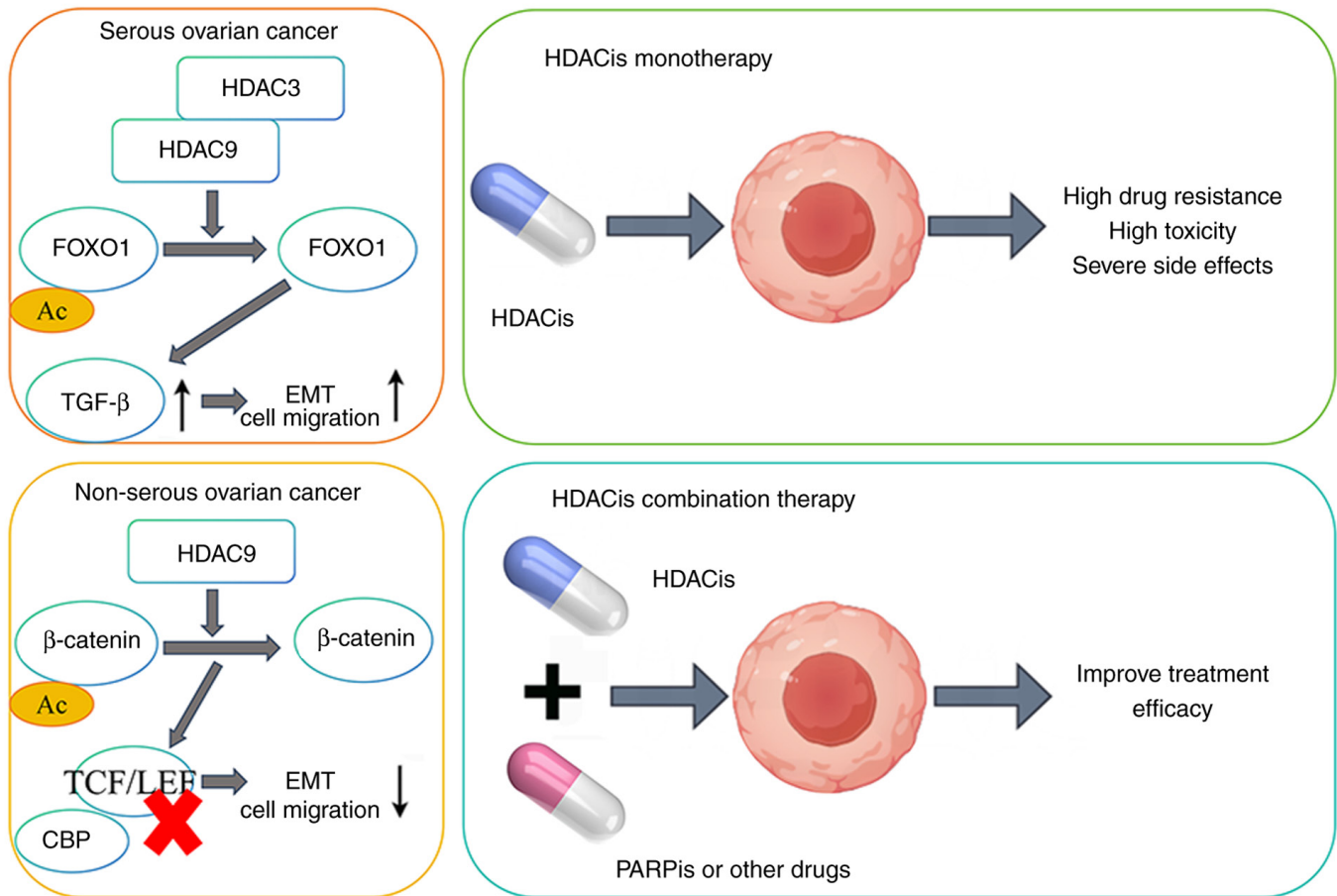


Figure 2. Role of HDACs in ovarian cancer. In serous ovarian cancer, HDAC9 promotes the expression levels of TGF- β by deacetylating FOXO1 and increasing its nuclear accumulation. The upregulated TGF- β enhances cell migration by activating EMT. In non-serous ovarian cancer, HDAC9 inhibits EMT and cell migration by deacetylating β -catenin and reducing its nuclear localization (\uparrow , promotion; \downarrow inhibition). Clinical trials have demonstrated that the efficacy of HDACis as a single-agent therapy is limited, while the combination of HDACis with PARPis and other drugs can improve the efficacy of cancer treatment and overcome drug resistance. FOXO1, forkhead box protein O1; TGF- β , transforming growth factor- β ; HDACs, histone deacetylases; HDACis, HDAC inhibitors; PARPis, poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors; EMT, epithelial-mesenchymal transition; TCF, transcription factor; Ac, acetylation; CBP, CREB-binding protein; LEF, lymphoid enhancer-binding factor.

and conferring apoptosis resistance (79,80). Furthermore, HDACs contribute to the development of chemoresistance and, therefore, inhibiting their activity restores sensitivity to conventional chemotherapeutics, which is a key finding due to the poor prognosis associated with this aggressive disease despite intensive treatment protocols (81). Elevation of HDAC expression in drug-resistant cell lines underscores their promise as therapeutic targets (79,82). Notably, HDACis such as vorinostat and entinostat synergize with doxorubicin in pre-clinical models, enhancing treatment efficacy (83). These agents exert antitumor effects by altering histone/non-histone acetylation landscapes, including reactivating silenced tumor suppressor genes and activating pro-apoptotic pathways; furthermore, when combined with chemotherapy, HDACis exhibit potent combination therapeutic effects, thereby markedly reducing the viability of osteosarcoma cell lines and inducing their apoptosis (84). Additionally, HDACis impede tumor cell motility and invasion (85), while promoting autophagy-induced autonomous cell death (86). Ongoing clinical trials evaluating the safety and efficacy of HDACis combined with standard chemotherapy aim to overcome chemoresistance, improve response rates and, ultimately, enhance patient outcomes in the future (87,88).

MM. HDACis represent a cornerstone therapeutic class for MM, with regulatory approval from the USA FDA for the clinical use of vorinostat, belinostat and romidepsin. Their mechanism of action involves HDAC suppression to disrupt key pathways governing tumor growth and survival, including inhibition of NF- κ B signaling cascades, upregulation of cell cycle regulators (including p21 and p53), downregulation of the anti-apoptotic protein B-cell lymphoma-2 (Bcl-2) and induction of apoptotic programs in myeloma cells (89). Concurrently, HDACis enhance antitumor immunity and promote autophagy-mediated cancer cell clearance (90,91). Therapeutic synergy emerges when HDACis are combined with immunomodulatory agents, conventional chemotherapy or targeted therapies, which markedly improves treatment outcomes in patients with MM. For instance, combinatorial regimens incorporating HDACis with proteasome inhibitors (such as bortezomib) demonstrated increased antimyeloma activity and improved survival rates (92), effectively mitigating drug resistance while simultaneously targeting multiple pathogenic pathways implicated in MM pathogenesis. As a classic HDAC inhibitor, vorinostat in combination with the immunomodulatory drug lenalidomide can enhance lenalidomide-mediated CRBN pathway activity through epigenetic

regulation, upregulate the expression of NKG2D ligands and promote the cytotoxic function of NK cells, thereby synergistically inhibiting the proliferation of MM cells (93). When combined with the conventional chemotherapeutic agent bortezomib, vorinostat blocks HDAC-mediated protein deacetylation and jointly inhibits the proteasome/aggregate degradation system with bortezomib, thus overcoming bortezomib resistance and inducing synergistic apoptosis in MM cells (94). The HDAC6 inhibitor ACY-241 in combination with the anti-CD38 targeted therapeutic daratumumab shows unique advantages: It can upregulate CD38 expression on the surface of MM cells, significantly enhance the antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity effect of daratumumab and effectively improve the efficiency of targeted elimination of MM cells (95).

4. Key HDAC isoforms in tumor function and mechanisms

HDAC3. HDAC3 is a key regulatory factor in cancer biology. By catalyzing histone deacetylation, it promotes chromatin condensation and represses the transcription of genes associated with the cell cycle and apoptosis, thus disrupting the balance between cell proliferation and death. In colorectal cancer (CRC), HDAC3 regulates cancer stem cell-associated genes, thereby influencing tumor cell plasticity and chemoresistance. Ubiquitin-specific peptidase 38 (USP38) modulates HDAC3 stability, while pharmacological or genetic inhibition of USP38 induces HDAC3 degradation and promotes the development of aggressive tumor phenotypes. These findings suggest that targeting the HDAC3-USP38 axis may be an effective strategy to overcome chemoresistance (96-98). HDAC3 also impacts the tumor microenvironment via an NF- κ B/p65-dependent mechanism, which silences the chemokine gene C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10 (CXCL10), thus impeding CD8⁺ T-cell infiltration and fostering an immunosuppressive microenvironment. This mechanism is particularly prominent in KRAS-mutant lung cancer and represents a major cause of its low response rate to immune checkpoint inhibitors (99). Inhibiting HDAC3 increases CXCL10 expression and its combination with anti-programmed cell death protein-1 (PD-1) antibodies markedly enhances tumor regression and T-cell infiltration (37,100). Additionally, HDAC3 inhibition directly induces apoptosis in cancer cells (including breast and lung cancer). Selective HDAC3 inhibitors have demonstrated notable preclinical efficacy; compared with pan-HDAC inhibitors, HDAC3 inhibitors exhibit fewer off-target effects and optimize the therapeutic index (101-103).

HDAC5. HDAC5 serves a key role in transcriptional regulation and is closely associated with the pathogenesis of various cancer types, including lung adenocarcinoma. The core mechanism is that HDAC5 reduces the transcriptional activity of SATB1 via deacetylation at the K411 residue in lung adenocarcinoma, thereby suppressing the expression of tumor suppressor genes and promoting cancer cell migration (42). Downregulation of SATB1 activity enhances metastatic potential by promoting lung adenocarcinoma cell migration. Pharmacological or genetic inhibition of HDAC5 reverses these effects; this not only impedes tumor cell migration, but also reactivates silenced tumor suppressor genes (42).

This positions HDAC5 as a promising therapeutic target to prevent invasiveness and restore key antitumor pathways in lung adenocarcinoma. Furthermore, HDAC5 suppression induces cell-cycle arrest, effectively blocking the uncontrolled proliferation of malignant cells (104-106). This dual functionality (simultaneously blocking metastasis and restricting tumor growth) highlights the therapeutic potential of HDAC5 inhibitors. Since aberrant cell cycle progression constitutes a hallmark of malignancy, targeting HDAC5 offers notable value in cancer therapy (Fig. 3). Such intervention could enhance existing treatment modalities and improve patient outcomes, underscoring the need for further investigation into HDAC5 inhibitors as adjunctive therapeutic agents in oncology (107).

HDAC7. HDAC7 is a key regulator driving tumor growth, metastasis and drug resistance through mechanisms intrinsically associated with angiogenic microenvironment modulation. Evidence has demonstrated that HDAC7 is often upregulated in malignancies such as non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and CRC, where these elevated levels are associated with advanced disease stages and poor clinical outcomes (15,108). In NSCLC specifically, HDAC7 potentiates oncogenic signaling by intersecting with fibroblast growth factor 18 (FGF18) pathways, thus enhancing both proliferative capacity and metastatic spread (15). Mechanistically, HDAC7 stabilizes β -catenin (a central mediator of Wnt signaling), facilitating its nuclear translocation and transcriptional complex formation with transcription factor 4 to activate FGF18 expression (Fig. 4) (15). Targeting this axis could disrupt pro-tumorigenic cascades, highlighting the therapeutic vulnerability of HDAC7.

Beyond cellular autonomy, HDAC7 orchestrates extracellular niche formation via dual regulation of angiogenesis and antitumor immunity within the microenvironment. For instance, its role in macrophage polarization and inflammatory reprogramming notably supports metastatic progression (109,110). By engineering pro-vasculature ecosystems conducive to tumor expansion, HDAC7 creates therapeutic challenges through desmoplastic stroma development. Clinically, HDAC7 can serve as both a prognostic biomarker and a therapeutic target. Its high expression predicts poor survival outcomes in patients with various malignancies, including diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), NSCLC, CRC and breast cancer, and can be used for patient risk stratification (108,111). The core mechanism is that high expression of HDAC7 promotes tumor cell proliferation, anti-apoptosis, invasion and metastasis by activating oncogenic pathways such as NF- κ B, PI3K/AKT and β -catenin-FGF18, regulating the EMT process and cell cycle-related proteins. Meanwhile, it remodels the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment and enhances resistance to cancer therapy. Consequently, high HDAC7 expression is closely associated with adverse pathological features including advanced clinical stage, lymph node metastasis and distant metastasis, ultimately leading to shortened overall survival and progression-free survival in patients with DLBCL, NSCLC, CRC and other malignancies, making it a key molecular marker for predicting poor survival outcomes (108,111). Preclinical models have demonstrated that selective inhibition of HDAC7 can sensitize cancer cells to chemotherapy and immunotherapy by disrupting cell survival-related signaling

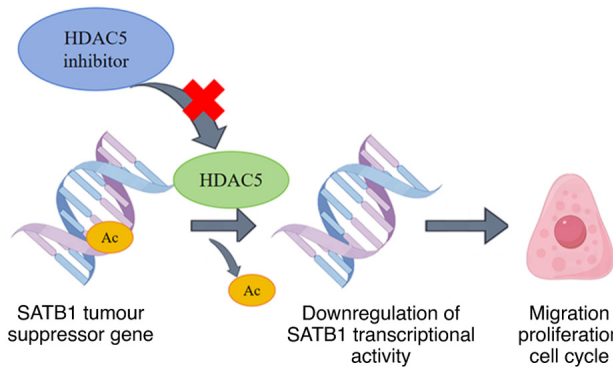


Figure 3. Role of HDAC5 in lung adenocarcinoma. HDAC5-mediated deacetylation of SATB1 reduces its transcriptional activity. The downregulation of SATB1 activity can enhance the migratory ability of lung adenocarcinoma cells, thereby promoting tumor metastasis (↑, promotion). HDAC, histone deacetylase; SATB1, special AT-rich sequence-binding protein 1; Ac, acetylation.

pathways including PI3K/AKT, NF- κ B and Wnt/ β -catenin, providing a highly promising combination therapeutic strategy to overcome treatment resistance (2,112).

HDAC11. Previous research has revealed the dual role of HDAC11 in oncology, functioning as either an oncogene or tumor suppressor gene depending on the cancer type and micro-environmental context. In HCC, HDAC11 maintains cancer stemness and confers resistance to sorafenib therapy via the microRNA (miR)-145-5p/HDAC11 axis. Downregulation of miR-145-5p elevates HDAC11 expression, thereby enhancing HCC cell survival and proliferative capacity under therapeutic stress (113,114). Within sorafenib-resistant HCC cell lines, dysregulated HDAC11 is associated with augmented drug metabolism and altered signaling pathways driving metastasis. Furthermore, the regulatory influence of HDAC11 over EMT underscores its importance in metastatic progression across multiple malignancies. Its crosstalk with non-coding RNAs, particularly miR-145-5p, forms a key determinant of treatment response in HCC cells, suggesting that the therapeutic targeting of this axis could improve efficacy and overcome chemoresistance (114,115). Clinically, HDAC11 upregulation is associated with poor prognosis in HCC by sustaining stem-like properties and enabling metabolic adaptation for survival under unfavorable conditions. Mechanistically, miR-145-5p suppression elevates HDAC11 levels, which reinforce sorafenib resistance and metastatic potential; by contrast, pharmacological inhibition of HDAC11 restores miR-145-5p abundance, resensitizing HCC cells to sorafenib while attenuating their metastatic abilities (Fig. 5) (113,116). Adding complexity to its functional repertoire, HDAC11 modulates immune evasion pathways and tumor-stroma interactions within the microenvironment, implying that multidimensional therapeutic strategies against HDAC11 may yield notable clinical benefits (116-118).

5. Clinical applications and challenges of HDACis

Pharmacological mechanisms of HDACis. HDACis exert antitumor effects by targeting the active site of HDACs or regulating their interaction with substrates to reverse

aberrant epigenetic modifications. Marked differences exist in the mechanisms of action and subtype selectivity among different types of HDACis. Classified by chemical structure and mechanism of action, HDACis mainly fall into four categories: i) Hydroxamic acid derivatives (such as vorinostat), which achieve pan-subtype inhibition of class I and II HDACs by chelating zinc ions in the active site of HDACs. In cutaneous T cell lymphoma, hydroxamic acid derivatives can induce excessive histone acetylation to activate the transcription of tumor suppressor genes such as p21 (119,120); ii) benzamide derivatives (such as entinostat), which exhibit higher selectivity for class I HDACs (HDAC1/2/3). In osteosarcoma models, benzamide derivatives enhance the cytotoxicity of the chemotherapeutic drug doxorubicin by specifically inhibiting HDAC3 (83); iii) cyclic peptide derivatives (such as romidepsin), which bind to the active pocket of HDACs via their unique cyclic peptide structure. In MM, cyclic peptide derivatives can downregulate the expression level of the anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 by inhibiting the NF- κ B signaling pathway (89); and iv) fatty acid derivatives (such as VPA), which inhibit HDAC activity in a non-competitive manner. In glioma, fatty acid derivatives can promote the expression level of ferroptosis-related genes and enhance the radiosensitivity of tumor cells (67,71). Beyond regulating histone acetylation, HDACis also exert pleiotropic effects through non-histone modifications: i) In lung adenocarcinoma, HDACis can acetylate the transcription factor SATB1, enhancing its regulatory activity on tumor suppressor genes and reversing the pro-metastatic effect mediated by HDAC5 (42); and ii) in CRC, HDACis disrupt the interaction between HSP90 and its target proteins [namely, protein kinase B (AKT)] by acetylating HSP90, thereby inhibiting cell proliferation signaling pathways (96). These mechanisms collectively form the molecular basis for the antitumor activity of HDACis and provide a target basis for the development of subtype-selective inhibitors.

Clinical application status of HDACis. The clinical efficacy of HDACis differs notably between hematological malignancies and solid tumors, with marked limitations in monotherapy and combination therapy has become the core strategy to improve therapeutic outcomes. In terms of monotherapy, the USA FDA has approved five HDACis for clinical use, including: i) Vorinostat, which is approved for cutaneous T cell lymphoma, with an objective response rate (ORR) of 30-40%, but it is associated with dose-limiting toxicities such as fatigue and gastrointestinal disturbances (119,120); ii) belinostat and romidepsin, which are used for peripheral T cell lymphoma, with ORRs of 25 and 35%, respectively, but their survival benefits for advanced patients are limited (121,122); iii) panobinostat, which is combined with bortezomib for MM and as monotherapy, its ORR is <20%; therefore, it is only used as a salvage treatment option for drug-resistant patients (89,92); and iv) VPA. Phase II clinical trials of VPA in glioma have reported that monotherapy achieves a disease control rate (DCR) of ~40%, but it fails to markedly prolong the progression-free survival (PFS) of patients (74,75). Overall, HDACi monotherapy has poor efficacy in solid tumors. For example, the ORR of vorinostat monotherapy in ovarian cancer is only 12% and the DCR of romidepsin

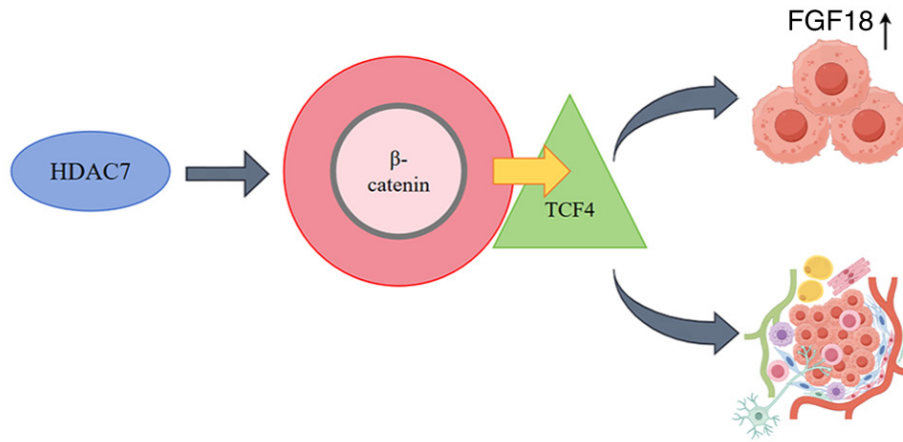


Figure 4. Role of HDAC7 in tumors. HDAC7 is a key regulatory factor that promotes tumor growth, metastasis and drug resistance, and its mechanism of action is closely related to the regulation of the vascular microenvironment. In non-small cell lung cancer, HDAC7 maintains the stability of β -catenin, promotes its nuclear translocation, and subsequent binding to TCF4, thereby activating the expression levels of FGF18. Inhibiting HDAC7 may block this oncogenic signaling cascade. The regulatory role of HDAC7 also extends to the tumor microenvironment, participating in disease progression by influencing angiogenesis and immune responses (\uparrow , promotion). HDAC, histone deacetylase; TCF4, transcription factor 4; FGF18, fibroblast growth factor 18.

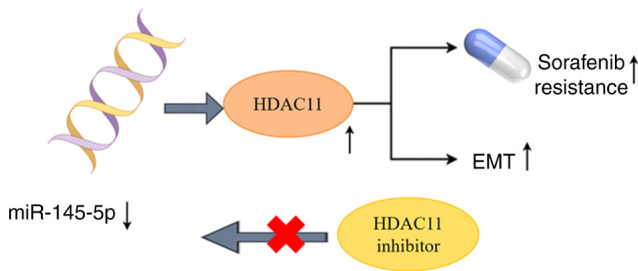


Figure 5. Role of HDAC11 in tumors. In HCC, the inhibition of miR-145-5p leads to an increase in HDAC11 levels, which in turn enhances resistance to sorafenib and the metastatic potential of HCC cells. However, inhibiting HDAC11 activity can restore the level of miR-145-5p, rendering HCC cells sensitive to sorafenib and reducing their metastatic ability (\uparrow , promotion; \downarrow , inhibition). HDAC, histone deacetylase; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; miR, microRNA; EMT, epithelial-mesenchymal transition.

monotherapy in endometrial cancer is <30% (35,54,55,62). Combination therapy strategies have demonstrated synergistic effects in various tumors. In ovarian cancer, the combination of HDACis and PARPis can inhibit the DNA damage repair pathway, increasing the ORR of patients with wild-type BRCA from 15 to 45% without markedly increasing the risk of myelosuppression (56,57). In osteosarcoma, the combination of vorinostat and doxorubicin can downregulate HDAC6 expression, reverse chemoresistance in tumor cells and increase the DCR from 38 to 65% (83,85). In MM, the triple regimen of panobinostat, bortezomib and dexamethasone can markedly prolong the PFS of patients from 9.5 to 12.5 months (92,123). In glioma, the combination of VPA and immune checkpoint inhibitors (anti-PD-1 antibodies) can enhance the infiltration of CD8⁺ T cells in the tumor microenvironment, increasing the ORR from 18 to 35% (76,77). Furthermore, dual-target inhibitors (for example CUDC-907) that concurrently target HDACs and pathways such as PI3K have exhibited enhanced antitumor activity in preclinical models of ovarian and breast cancer, offering a novel avenue for combination therapy (58,124).

Core challenges in clinical translation. Although HDACis exhibit potential in combination therapy, their clinical translation is limited by three core challenges, namely: i) Drug resistance; ii) off-target toxicity; and iii) a lack of biomarkers. Drug resistance is the primary cause of HDACi treatment failure, with three main mechanisms, including: i) Compensatory upregulation of HDAC subtypes. For example, in AML, prolonged use of pan-HDACis leads to increased HDAC3 expression, which maintains tumor cell survival via enhancement of NF- κ B pathway activity (98,125). In osteosarcoma, HDAC6 expression is markedly higher in doxorubicin-resistant cell lines compared with that in doxorubicin-sensitive cells, thus contributing to doxorubicin resistance. This phenotype can be reversed by combination with HDAC6-selective inhibitors (79,85); ii) adaptive activation of signaling pathways. For instance, HDACi treatment induces PI3K/AKT pathway activation in lung cancer (102) and triggers compensatory NF- κ B pathway activation in MM (89,92); and iii) tumor microenvironment remodeling, such as increased infiltration of myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) in pancreatic cancer following HDACi treatment (126). Furthermore, tumor genomic heterogeneity driven by abnormal mutagenic processes exacerbates HDACi resistance; HDAC dysregulation may impair DNA repair capacity, forming an epigenetic dysregulation, which leads to genomic instability, and in turn induces the drug resistance cascade (127). Off-target toxicity limits dose escalation of HDACis. Due to a lack of subtype selectivity, pan-HDACis cause multi-organ adverse effects, including thrombocytopenia (30%) and neutropenia (25%) in the hematological system (128,129); gastrointestinal disturbances (45%) in the digestive system (130); and grade 3+ fatigue (30%) in systemic reactions (131). The grading and classification of adverse events in this article were based on the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events, the universal standard in clinical oncology. Clinically, adverse effects are mitigated by adjusted dosing regimens (such as twice-weekly vorinostat, low initial dose with gradual escalation of VPA) (74,128) or combination with symptomatic drugs. Certain HDACis (such as vorinostat)

also carry cardiotoxicity risk (QT interval prolongation) (120). The absence of biomarkers hinders precise patient stratification. No clear molecular biomarkers for the prediction of HDACi efficacy exist. The correlation between HDAC9 expression and HDACi sensitivity in ovarian cancer (49,50), IDH mutation status and HDACi efficacy in glioma (76,77) and p53 mutation and HDACi-bortezomib synergy in MM (89) remain unconfirmed, leading to treatment blindness and increased ineffective treatment rates.

Optimization directions for therapeutic strategies. To address the challenges in the clinical translation of HDACis, current research focuses on three key directions: i) Structural modification; ii) targeted delivery; and iii) optimization of combination strategies, aiming to enhance the selectivity and efficacy of HDACis while reducing toxicity.

Structural modification is key to developing subtype-selective HDACis. HDAC3 inhibitors, with an introduced isoquinoline structure, inhibit tumor growth in CRC models without affecting platelet production (103,132). HDAC6 inhibitors, with optimized hydroxamic acid side chain lengths, reduce metastasis rates in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) without causing notable gastrointestinal toxicity (18,133). Thiophene derivatives (as HDAC11 inhibitors) can reverse sorafenib resistance in HCC (21,113,114). By contrast, the novel mechanism by which kelch repeat and BTB domain-containing 4 mutations disrupt the ubiquitin-dependent regulation of HDACs suggests that HDAC drug development should consider both HDAC catalytic activity and regulatory networks (134). Furthermore, proteolysis-targeting chimeras (PROTACs) technology enables specific degradation of HDAC subtypes. For example, HDAC7 PROTACs inhibit tumors with low toxicity in lymphoma and overcome compensatory HDAC upregulation in solid tumors (112,134,135).

Targeted delivery focuses on nanocarriers. Liposomes increase drug concentration in osteosarcoma by 8-fold via the enhanced permeability and retention effect (136,137). Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-targeted polymeric nanocarriers cross the blood-brain barrier, boosting drug concentration in glioma brains by 12-fold (74,138). Inorganic nanocarriers combined with photothermal effects achieve a 55% ORR in breast cancer (135,139). Liver-specific carriers enhance intrahepatic drug concentration in HCC by 6-fold (140,141).

Combination strategies rely on mechanistic synergy. In epigenetic combinations, HDACis plus DNMTis increase ORR from 30 to 60% in AML (36,142). In immune combinations, HDACis plus anti-PD-1 antibodies raise ORR from 25 to 50% in melanoma (143,144). In targeted combinations, HDACis plus PI3K inhibitors improve ORR from 20 to 45% in patients with ovarian cancer who exhibit PI3K pathway activation (58,145).

6. Future research directions and clinical prospects

Based on the aforementioned analysis, three unresolved gaps remain in current HDAC research, including: i) Mechanisms of subtype-specific functions in more solid tumors, which have not been clarified; ii) lack of biomarkers in predicting the efficacy of combination therapy; and iii) relatively low clinical

translation efficiency of novel inhibitors. Considering this, the following section proposes future research directions from four dimensions: i) Precise targeting; ii) multi-target combination; iii) immune microenvironment regulation; and iv) drug development.

Precision targeting of HDAC isoforms. The development of HDAC isoform-selective inhibitors represents a novel research direction in cancer therapy. As core molecules in epigenetic regulation, HDACs modulate key cellular processes through deacetylation. Notably, different HDAC isoforms exhibit distinct expression patterns and functions across tumors. For instance, the upregulation of class I HDACs in TNBC is associated with poor prognosis and therapeutic resistance, making them a precise target for intervention. This therapeutic approach not only enhances efficacy but also avoids the off-target effects commonly observed with pan-HDACis (146).

The mechanisms underlying acquired resistance to HDACis are complex, such as the compensatory upregulation of alternative HDAC isoforms in AML (125). Researchers are accelerating the development of novel drugs through various strategies, including combining HDACis with chemotherapy/targeted agents, dynamically adjusting treatment regimens via biomarker monitoring and structure-based drug design or dual-target inhibitors. Additionally, multi-target compounds provide a novel pathway in preventing drug resistance (145,147).

To advance clinical translation, three key research areas should be prioritized over the next 3-5 years: i) Developing HDAC11-selective inhibitors by using structural biology to characterize its active site, addressing sorafenib resistance in HCC and reducing off-target toxicity; ii) establishing patient stratification models based on HDAC isoform expression profiles; for example, designing screening protocols for populations with high class I HDAC expression in TNBC, constructing a multi-dimensional classification system and developing convenient detection kits; and iii) exploring interactions between HDAC isoforms and non-coding RNAs, analyzing key mechanisms such as the miR-145-5p/HDAC11 axis and identifying novel therapeutic targets and candidate biomarkers. These efforts will improve the therapeutic system from three different perspectives.

Combination therapies targeting multiple epigenetic modifiers. The oncology field has increasingly prioritized combinatorial regimens involving HDACis, DNMTis and histone methyltransferase inhibitors (HMTis). This multifaceted approach involves synergistic targeting of interconnected epigenetic pathways driving tumorigenesis. Preclinical evidence demonstrates that co-administration of HDACis with DNMTis achieves coordinated reversal of aberrant epigenetic silencing, reactivating tumor suppressor genes frequently muted in malignancies (36,148). When these epigenetic modifiers are combinatorially inhibited, the tumor microenvironment undergoes notable alterations. This not only enhances the antitumor immune response of the body (preclinical studies have confirmed that HDACis combined with immunotherapy can increase the immunogenicity of tumor cells) but also further improves the therapeutic efficacy of immune checkpoint inhibitors (89,149,150). Mechanistically, this

multi-drug combination strategy can simultaneously block multiple aberrantly activated oncogenic signaling pathways, among which the PI3K/AKT and NF- κ B pathways are the most representative targets (151). Incorporating HMTs into combination frameworks amplifies therapeutic impact through layered epigenetic reprogramming. Dual modulation of histone acetylation and methylation status enables comprehensive restoration of silenced tumor suppressor networks key to apoptosis induction (35,152,153). This multitarget strategy overcomes limitations inherent to monotherapy by exploiting synergistic interactions across parallel epigenetic regulatory axes (154). Ongoing clinical trials systematically evaluate diverse combinations with conventional chemotherapy and novel agents, aiming to maximize efficacy while minimizing chemotoxicities associated with traditional cytotoxic regimens (155-159). The integration of multimodal epigenetic therapies represents a paradigm shift towards precision medicine in cancer treatment.

Deciphering the role of HDACs in the tumor immune micro-environment (TIME). HDACs are key regulators of the TIME. By epigenetically modifying immune regulatory genes, HDACs modulate the dynamics of immune cells and facilitate tumor immune evasion. Elevated HDAC activity reduces the infiltration of effector cells such as natural killer and CD8⁺ T cells, thereby establishing an immunosuppressive micro-environment (12,38,160). Dysregulated HDAC function further exacerbates immune evasion by inhibiting tumor suppressor pathways and upregulating molecules such as programmed cell death-ligand 1 (143,161). For instance, in pancreatic adenocarcinoma, upregulated HDACs impede T cell-mediated antitumor immune responses and recruit MDSCs to form an immune barrier (126).

HDAC-targeted therapy has notable immunomodulatory potential. Combining HDACis with immune checkpoint blockade therapy can reverse immunosuppression (151,162). At the molecular level, HDAC inhibition increases the expression levels of major histocompatibility complex class I molecules on tumor cells and enhances the activity of key components in the antigen-processing system, thus improving T-cell recognition efficiency (2,44). It also reprograms tumor-associated macrophages from the immunosuppressive M2 phenotype to the pro-inflammatory M1 phenotype, thus weakening the ability of the tumor to evade immunity (149,163).

Additionally, HDACs regulate the function of regulatory T cells (Tregs) by interacting with forkhead box protein P3 (FOXP3) regulators. For example, HDAC3 forms a complex with FOXP3 negative regulators to inhibit FOXP3 activity, while HDACis disrupt this complex to relieve the inhibition, reducing Treg-mediated immunosuppression and enhancing the cytotoxicity of effector T cells. The identification of the HDAC-FOXP3-Treg axis provides a theoretical basis for the combination of HDAC-targeted therapy with immunotherapy (164).

Development and evaluation of novel HDACis. Currently, the research and development of novel HDACis focuses on enhancing subtype selectivity, reducing toxicity and overcoming drug resistance, driven by interdisciplinary technologies. By resolving the active pocket structures of HDAC

subtypes using X-ray crystallography and cryo-electron microscopy, combined with high-throughput screening, candidate molecules can be rapidly identified. For instance, tetrapheno(α)3-methyl derivatives exhibit nanomolar-level inhibitory activity against HDAC1/6 and demonstrate anti-proliferative effects in various cancer cell lines (165,166). Using molecular docking and molecular dynamics simulations to optimize compound structures, dual-target drugs such as 4-arylaminoquinoline derivatives have also been developed, which can simultaneously target the HDAC and EGFR pathways (124,167,168). Additionally, PROTACs technology has emerged as a novel direction; for example, HDAC7 PROTAC degraders can specifically degrade HDAC7 in DLBCL, with antitumor activity >10-fold higher compared with that of traditional inhibitors and low toxicity to normal cells (169).

Preclinical evaluation of novel HDACis requires multi-dimensional validation across the molecular-cell-animal spectrum. At the molecular level, the selectivity for target subtypes is verified; at the cellular level, the effects on drug-resistant strains and other cell types are assessed; and at the animal level, *in situ* xenograft models are used to monitor efficacy and drug distribution. Meanwhile, toxicity to systems such as the hematological, digestive and nervous systems is closely monitored as well. Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic models are employed to optimize dosing regimens or targeted delivery technologies are used to increase drug concentrations in tumor tissues and reduce systemic toxicity. For clinical trials, cancer types and patient groups are selected based on the properties of the drug. For example, HDAC11 inhibitors are first investigated in HCC (113-116), while dual-target drugs are administered to patients with pathway abnormalities (58,124,167,168). In combination therapy trials, relevant molecular markers need to be monitored (37,56,57,100). Although challenges exist, such as the lack of structural data for certain HDAC subtypes and the difficulty of preclinical models in simulating tumor heterogeneity, these can be addressed through homology modeling and patient-derived xenograft models. In the future, integrating biomarker stratification should facilitate the advancement of more HDACis with high efficacy and low toxicity into clinical practice. The key results of recent clinical trials of therapeutic regimens based on histone deacetylase inhibitors are summarized in Table I.

7. Discussion

Mechanistic insights, therapeutic innovations and unresolved questions in HDAC-targeted cancer therapy.

The present review systematically analyzed the role of HDACs in cancer and their therapeutic prospects, demonstrating notable complementarity to and expansion of previous studies (170,171). In terms of research scope, it collates the mechanisms of action of HDAC isoforms across five cancer types, including ovarian cancer, while specifically dissecting the functional differences and regulatory networks of class I isoforms such as HDAC1 and HDAC3. Building on previous studies focused on lung cancer (172), this review further extends the analysis of common mechanisms across cancer types. For instance, HDAC6 can enhance drug resistance in various solid tumors-including lung, breast, hepatocellular, ovarian, pancreatic cancers and CRC-via deacetylation of

Table I. Clinical research on HDAC inhibitors therapy.

Clinical trial no.	Treatment	Cancer	Target
NCT02290431	Drugs: LBH589 (panobinostat); bortezomib and dexamethasone	Relapsed/refractory multiple myeloma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7, HDAC8, HDAC9, HDAC10, HDAC11, proteasome and GR
NCT01582009	Drugs: Panobinostat and everolimus	Metastatic renal cell carcinoma	mTOR, HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7, HDAC8, HDAC9, HDAC10 and HDAC11
NCT02654990	Drugs: Panobinostat capsules, bortezomib injection and dexamethasone tablets	Relapsed or relapsed and refractory multiple myeloma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7, HDAC8, HDAC9, HDAC10, HDAC11, 26S proteasome and GR
NCT01742988	Drugs: Fimepinostat, rituximab and venetoclax	Refractory or relapsed lymphoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC6 and phosphoinositide 3-kinase
NCT00901147	Drug: Panobinostat and bortezomib	Relapsed/refractory peripheral T Cell lymphoma or NK/T cell lymphoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC11 and 26S proteasome
NCT00724984	Drug: PCI-24781	Lymphoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC6, HDAC8 and HDAC10
NCT00426764	Drug: Romidepsin	Peripheral T cell lymphoma	HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT02035137	Radiation: 131I-MIBG; drugs: Vincristine, Irinotecan and vorinostat	Neuroblastoma	Noradrenergic neuron-specific marker, tubulin, topoisomerase I, HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and HDAC6
NCT00843167	Dietary supplement: Broccoli sprout extract; other: Placebo	Breast cancer	Nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2-antioxidant response element signaling pathway, NF- κ B inflammatory signaling pathway, cell cycle and apoptosis-related molecules, HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and HDAC6
NCT00918333	Drugs: Panobinostat and everolimus	Relapsed multiple myeloma, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, or Hodgkin lymphoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC11 and mTOR
NCT02115282	Drugs: Entinostat, exemestane, goserelin and goserelin acetate	Locally advanced or metastatic relapsed hormone receptor-positive breast cancer	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and ER/PR
NCT02833155	Drugs: Entinostat and exemestane	Breast cancer	HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT00676663	Drugs: Entinostat, exemestane and placebo	Breast cancer	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and ER
NCT00574587	Drugs: Vorinostat, paclitaxel, trastuzumab, doxorubicin and cyclophosphamide	Breast cancer	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC6, tubulin and DNA
NCT02349867	Drug: Gemcitabine, sorafenib and vorinostat	Pancreatic cancer	Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2/epidermal growth factor receptor, multiple RTKs, HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and HDAC6
NCT03250273	Drug: Entinostat and nivolumab	Unresectable or metastatic cholangiocarcinoma or pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and PD-1
NCT02836548	Drug: Vorinostat	Resistant advanced melanoma with BRAF V600 mutation	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and HDAC6

Table I. Continued.

Clinical trial no.	Treatment	Cancer	Target
NCT02697630	Drug: Pembrolizumab and entinostat	Metastatic uveal melanoma	PD-1, HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT03215264	Drugs: Hydroxychloroquine, entinostat and regorafenib	Colorectal cancer	RTKs, Raf kinase, autophagy-related pathway, HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT02512172	Drugs: Oral CC-486, romidepsin and MK-3475	Colorectal cancer	PD-1, HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT00550277	Drug: LBH589	Refractory clear cell renal cell carcinoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7 and HDAC11
NCT02236195	Drug: Mocetinostat	Urothelial carcinoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3
NCT01075308	Drug: HDAC inhibitor SB939	Prostate cancer	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7 and HDAC11
NCT02632071	Drugs: ACY-1215 and nab-paclitaxel	Metastatic breast cancer	HDAC6
NCT03018249	Drugs: Entinostat and medroxyprogesterone acetate	Endometrial cancer	PR, HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3
NCT04357873	Drugs: Pembrolizumab and vorinostat	Recurrent and/or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma	PD-1, HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3 and HDAC6
NCT02551185	Drug: ACY-241	Advanced solid tumors	HDAC6 and tubulin
NCT04631029	Biological: Atezolizumab; drugs: Carboplatin, entinostat and etoposide	Extensive stage lung small cell carcinoma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, programmed cell death-ligand 1, DNA and DNA topoisomerase II
NCT02420613	Drugs: Temsirolimus and vorinostat	Diffuse intrinsic pontine glioma	HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, HDAC6 and mTOR
NCT02780804	Drug: Entinostat	Relapsed or refractory solid tumors (including central nervous system tumors and lymphomas)	HDAC1, HDAC2 and HDAC3

HDAC, histone deacetylase; RTKs, receptor tyrosine kinases; PD-1, programmed cell death protein-1; PR, progesterone receptor; ER, estrogen receptor; GR, glucocorticoid receptor; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; NK, natural killer T cells.

α -tubulin (173,174), thereby providing a solid theoretical basis for the development of pan-cancer HDAC-targeted therapeutic strategies (37).

Beyond the expansion of the research scope, the present review also highlighted notable innovations in combination therapy strategies: It proposes a novel HDACi + dual-target drug regimen (for example, combining HDACis with EGFR/PI3K dual-target inhibitors). This strategy achieves synergistic antitumor effects by simultaneously blocking two critical oncogenic pathways: The EGFR signaling pathway and the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway, addressing a key limitation of previous studies that only focused on the combination of HDAC7 PROTAC degraders with immunotherapy (112,175). Notably, a preclinical study on AML reported a synergistic mechanism between HDACs and DNMTs mediated by an acetylation-demethylation crosstalk, further verifying the scientific validity of the multi-targeted epigenetic regulator targeting strategy proposed in the present review (36).

Although this review comprehensively summarizes the research and therapeutic advances related to HDACs, it has certain limitations. First, the tumor coverage is limited, as the functional mechanisms of HDAC isoforms in high-incidence solid tumors such as lung and liver cancer and more hematological malignancies have not been systematically investigated, making it difficult to reflect their pan-cancer regulatory characteristics. Second, research on isoforms such as HDAC8 and HDAC10 is superficial, and the regulatory networks among isoforms remain unclear, precluding a complete understanding of their overall regulatory patterns. Third, clinical data are mostly from traditional regimens, with insufficient data on emerging therapies and Phase III trial evidence for solid tumors. Fourth, tumor microenvironment analysis only focuses on core immune cells, ignoring other components and their cross-regulation with microenvironmental characteristics. Fifth, the clinical validation limitations of potential biomarkers have not been thoroughly

analyzed, nor has the establishment of combined detection systems been explored, which fails to meet the needs of precise treatment.

Due to the complexity of HDAC-related regulatory networks and the multi-faceted challenges in clinical translation, the present review concluded by clarifying the core mechanisms and therapeutic potential of HDACs, while putting forward innovative therapeutic strategies. It also suggested that interdisciplinary collaboration, integrating insights from molecular biology, pharmacology and clinical oncology, is expected to overcome key hurdles in HDAC-targeted therapy, including off-target toxicity, acquired drug resistance and the lack of reliable biomarkers. Therefore, such efforts will accelerate the translation of HDAC-targeted research from basic science to clinical practice and potentially improve the prognosis of patients with cancer in the future.

8. Conclusion

HDACs, as core factors in epigenetic regulation, serve a key role in the oncogenic mechanisms, disease progression and therapeutic resistance of various malignant tumors. Their ability to reshape chromatin structure and regulate gene expression programs makes them highly promising therapeutic targets, a finding that has been validated by the clinical application of HDACis in hematological malignancies; however, translating these advantages into solid tumor therapy remains challenging due to tumor heterogeneity, complex microenvironmental interactions and differences in cellular responses, a discrepancy that underscores the urgency of dissecting subtype-specific functions in different cancer contexts. A key to future progress lies in the development of subtype-selective HDACis that can precisely modulate oncogenic pathways while minimizing off-target effects, as well as rational combination therapy regimens (such as pairing HDACis with immunotherapies, targeted agents or chemotherapy) that hold notable potential through synergistic mechanisms (for example, combination therapy with immune checkpoint blockade can activate antitumor immune responses). Elucidating resistance mechanisms, including compensatory signal activation, altered drug metabolism and microenvironmental adaptation, is equally key to overcoming treatment failure and the identification of biomarkers that predict treatment response or resistance is expected to enable personalized dosing strategies and stratified patient care. Emerging research paradigms advocate for multidisciplinary combination therapies, integrating HDAC-targeted approaches with innovative modalities such as PROTAC degradation systems and dual epigenetic inhibitors. By integrating cutting-edge insights from tumor biology, precision medicine and clinical pharmacology, well-validated HDAC-targeted strategies (supported by rigorous mechanistic studies and clinical trials) have the potential to transform cancer treatment outcomes, with the convergence of these elements expected to shift HDACis from promising experimental tools to core components of modern cancer treatment regimens.

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Authors' contributions

RL designed the review article, researched references and wrote the majority of the manuscript. YZ researched references and wrote the manuscript. HL revised and edited the manuscript. FL revised the manuscript and acquired funding. Data authentication is not applicable. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Patient consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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