

1 **Title: Phenotype switching through epigenetic conversion**

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12 **Abstract**

13

14 Different cell types have been suggested as candidates for regenerative medicine. Embryonic  
15 pluripotent cells can give rise to all cells of the body and possess unlimited self-renewal.  
16 However they are unstable, difficult to control and show a risk of neoplastic transformation.  
17 Adult stem cells are safe but show limited proliferation and differentiation abilities, and, usually  
18 are not in easy access. In the last years, induced pluripotent cells became a new promising tool.  
19 However, the use of transgene vectors, commonly required for their creation, seriously limits  
20 their use in therapy. The same problem accompanies cells obtained through trans-differentiation.  
21 The developing knowledge of the mechanisms controlling epigenetic regulation of cell fate has  
22 boosted the use of epigenetic modifiers that drive the cells into a “highly permissive” state. We  
23 recently set up a new strategy for the conversion of an adult mature cell into another. We  
24 increased cell plasticity using 5-aza-cytidine and took advantage of a brief window of epigenetic  
25 instability to re-address cells to a different lineage. This approach is designated “epigenetic  
26 conversion”. It is a simple, direct and safe way to obtain cells for therapy avoiding gene  
27 transfection and a stable pluripotent state.

28

29 **Keywords: Epigenetic, cell conversion, cell plasticity, regenerative medicine**

## 30 **Gene expression and epigenetic mechanisms**

31 All cells within a complex multicellular organism contain the same genome. However the body is  
32 composed of many different types of cells obtained through the adoption of a specific fate and  
33 specialization in several tissues. For instance, starting from a single cell with a half-genome from  
34 each parent, it is possible to obtain a wide variety of cell types different from each other, without  
35 any permanent loss of genetic material or alteration in the sequence of DNA. This is the result of  
36 cell differentiation processes that are regulated by the expression of different sets of genes,  
37 responsible for a distinct phenotype. More in detail, gene expression is regulated by factors both  
38 extrinsic and intrinsic to the cell (Swain, P. S., *et al.* 2002). Cell-extrinsic factors include  
39 environmental cues that can originate from other cells within the organism (such as small  
40 molecules, secreted proteins) or from the organism's environment (temperature and oxygen). By  
41 contrast cell-intrinsic regulation takes place through the cell's own machinery that chemically  
42 modifies the DNA. These changes are described as epigenetic modifications because they do not  
43 alter the primary DNA sequence, but instead affect gene expression by changing the accessibility  
44 of genes to transcription factors, in either a positive or a negative manner. They are responsible  
45 for heritable changes that stably maintain the genomic region activity state.

46 Two major mechanisms are involved in these regulatory processes: DNA methylation and histone  
47 modifications (Goldberg, A. D., *et al.* 2007). The first consists of a biochemical process where a  
48 methyl (CH<sub>3</sub>) group is added to the cytosine or adenine DNA nucleotides. The covalent addition  
49 of a CH<sub>3</sub> group at the 5-carbon of the cytosine ring is controlled at several different levels and is  
50 carried out by a family of enzymes know as DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs). In particular,  
51 DNMT3a and DNMT3b are required for the establishment of new or de novo DNA methylation  
52 patterns (Okano, M., *et al.* 1999), while DNMT1 appears to be responsible for their maintenance  
53 (Takeshita, K., *et al.* 2011). DNA methylation rate differs strongly among species and it is

54 between 60% and 90% of all CpGs in mammals (Bird, A. P. 1986). These modalities of DNA  
55 modifications may affect the transcription of genes in two different ways. It may physically  
56 impede the binding of transcriptional proteins to the gene (Choy, M. K., *et al.* 2010) or it may be  
57 bound by proteins, known as methyl-CpG-binding domain proteins (MBDs), that recruit  
58 additional proteins to the locus, remodeling histones and forming compact, inactive chromatin,  
59 termed heterochromatin.

60 A second mechanism involved in the transcriptional regulation processes is the histone  
61 modification. Histones are subject to a complex and dynamic set of covalent modifications,  
62 including acetylation, phosphorylation, methylation, SUMOylation, citrullination, ADP  
63 ribosylation, and ubiquitination (Spivakov, M. and Fisher, A. G. 2007). The attachment of the  
64 different molecules on the histone tail allows or prevents transcription factors and other proteins  
65 to access the DNA.

66 All these modifications cause differences in gene expression that drive embryo development and  
67 cell differentiation. The acquisition of epigenetic marks culminates with the fixation of a specific  
68 lineage fate that has been considered stable and potentially irreversible for many years.

69

## 70 **Reversion of cell fate**

71 Mature cells of an adult organism acquire the differentiated state through a specification process  
72 that takes place during the embryo/fetus developmental phases. This process is characterized by  
73 differential gene expression and epigenetic restrictions that gradually limit cell differentiative  
74 potency (Hemberger, M., *et al.* 2009) to a more limited phenotype-related expression pattern,  
75 resulting in a progressive restriction in cell options (Zhou, Q. and Melton, D. A. 2008) and finally  
76 producing highly specialized committed populations.

77 Conrad Hal Waddington proposed a nice metaphor to describe epigenetics (Waddington, C. H.  
78 1942) as "the branch of biology which studies the causal interactions between genes and their  
79 cellular product and puts the phenotype into being" . Based on these observations it is easy to see  
80 that, while the genotype is static and stable, the phenotype is dynamic and plastic. "Genetics  
81 proposes and epigenetics disposes", observed the Medawar in their philosophical dissertation on  
82 biology "From Aristotle to Zoos," in 1983, referring to the possibility of obtaining different  
83 phenotypes from the same DNA sequence (Medawar, P. B. and Medawar, J. S. 1983).

84 In Waddington's allegory the embryonic cell is represented by a ball that rolls from a non-  
85 committed state (pluripotent state) down a hill marked by slopes and valleys, that symbolize the  
86 many different and complex mechanisms involved in cell differentiation process. Rolling down,  
87 the ball is addressed, by slopes and valleys, towards a progressively more restricted potency  
88 pathway, down to a tissue specific differentiated state (unipotent state) (Waddington, C. H.  
89 1957).

90 This final state is achieved and maintained through the epigenetic mechanisms that regulate gene  
91 expression (Li, M., *et al.* 2012). Furthermore, since this serie of events is extremely stable, a  
92 complete reversal of cell fate requires a wide reprogramming process that makes it inefficient and  
93 prone to errors (Plath, K. and Lowry, W. E. 2011). Indeed, although cellular differentiation is  
94 usually unidirectional *in vivo*, it can be reverted *in vitro* (De Carvalho, D. D., *et al.* 2010).

95 Over 30 years ago preliminary experiments demonstrated that human fibroblasts retain some  
96 plasticity and, in the presence of specific factors, they are able to express genes specific of  
97 another lineage (Chiu, C. P. and Blau, H. M. 1984). This study was the first evidence that  
98 differentiation is a bi-directional process and, more recent reports have expanded the knowledge  
99 about the reversibility of the process, showing that it is possible to force mature cells back to an  
100 increased potency state and stably maintain it (Chiu, C. P. and Blau, H. M. 1985). Using the

101 Waddington's landscape metaphor, it is possible to describe this event as the possibility to push  
102 the ball from the bottom of the valley up to the top of the hill in a counter-current direction.  
103 To this end terminally differentiated somatic cells can be reprogrammed using defined factors to  
104 generate induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells. Cell reprogramming requires higher levels of gene  
105 expression than the levels needed once the pluripotent state is reached, and equivalent to what is  
106 defined as “activation energy” (namely the energy necessary to initiate reprogramming even and  
107 required to surmount the cascades in an upstream, counter-current direction to create states of  
108 increased potency) (Hemberger, M., *et al.* 2009). This reflects the necessity to initiate epigenetic  
109 reprogramming events through the use of retroviral vectors carrying the transcription factors  
110 needed to reach the pluripotent state, namely OCT4, kruppel-like factor 4 (KLF4), SOX2 and  
111 MYC (Meissner, A., *et al.* 2007;Okita, K., *et al.* 2008;Takahashi, K., *et al.* 2007;Takahashi, K.  
112 and Yamanaka, S. 2006). Retroviral vectors integrate in the host genome and force ectopic over-  
113 expression of the reprogramming factors, resulting in the reactivation of endogenous genes and  
114 regaining a developmental potency akin to that of embryonic stem cells (ESCs).

115 Unfortunately this approach suffers from a number of severe limitations that prevent its possible  
116 use in regenerative medicine (Yamanaka, S. 2009). In particular, the need of potentially harmful  
117 genome integrating viruses to deliver reprogramming factor transgenes (Okita, K., *et al.*  
118 2007;Takahashi, K. and Yamanaka, S. 2006) is associated with the risk of tumor formation and  
119 unsafe to human health. To by-pass this problem alternative gene factor delivery systems have  
120 been proposed, including non-integrating adenoviruses (Stadtfield, M., *et al.* 2008), plasmid  
121 transfection (Okita, K., *et al.* 2008), doxycycline-inducible excisable piggyBac (PB) transposon  
122 system (Woltjen, K., *et al.* 2009), and non-integrating episomal vectors (Kaji, K., *et al.* 2009).  
123 Nonetheless other concerns associated with the risk to cause a tumor remain unsolved. Indeed,  
124 iPSs show low differentiation efficiency, that rarely exceeds 30%, leaving mature cells mixed

125 with undifferentiated ones (Cohen, D. E. and Melton, D. 2011). Caution is also suggested by the  
126 fact that the four factors used to induce reprogramming are strictly speaking oncogenes,  
127 increasing the risk of transformation to a cancer phenotype (Ibarretxe, G., *et al.* 2012).  
128 Furthermore the acquisition of a stable pluripotent state is not physiological and appears to be  
129 difficult to control.

130 To circumvent the latter problem a new technique, designated “trans-differentiation”, has been  
131 introduced. This method consists in the direct inter-conversion of one fully differentiated adult  
132 cell type into another without an intermediate pluripotent state or progenitor cell type, but  
133 through a simultaneous down-regulation of one genetic programme and a concomitant up-  
134 regulation of the new one (Jopling, C., *et al.* 2011).

135 Several studies demonstrated the ability of the myogenic factor MyoD to reprogram different cell  
136 types into myogenic cells (Weintraub, H., *et al.* 1989), as well as the possibility to convert  
137 pancreatic cells into hepatocytes (Shen, C. N., *et al.* 2000;Zhou, Q., *et al.* 2008) or macrophages  
138 (Xie, H., *et al.* 2004), and fibroblasts into neurons (Vierbuchen, T., *et al.* 2010) or  
139 cardiomyocytes (Ieda, M., *et al.* 2010). All these promising approaches involve however the use  
140 of retrovirus for the overexpression of one or more specific transcription factors (Cohen, D. E.  
141 and Melton, D. 2011), leading to several limitations and making cells unsuitable for cell therapy  
142 and regenerative medicine.

143 To overcome all the problems described above, virus-free protocols for iPS derivation (Okita, K.,  
144 *et al.* 2011;Stadtfield, M., *et al.* 2008) or cell trans-differentiation were proposed, but, at present,  
145 they are technically demanding, less efficient (Lengner, C. J. 2010) and do not solve the problems  
146 arising from the use of transgenes.

147

148 **Epigenetic direct conversion**

149 During the last years several protocols that avoid the use of virally/non-virally introduced  
150 exogenous factors have been developed. A first study demonstrated that germ line cells could  
151 acquire pluripotency without the addition of exogenous transcription factors, using specific cell  
152 culture conditions (Sterneckert, J., *et al.* 2012). A following report showed that epiblast stem cells  
153 (EpiSCs) could be reverted to ESC using a chemical approach (Zhou, H., *et al.* 2010). More in  
154 detail Zhou et al. found that the TGF $\beta$  signaling pathway or histone demethylase LSD1 inhibition  
155 with small molecule was able to induce morphological changes in EpiSCs toward ESC  
156 phenotype, with simultaneous activation of inner cell mass-specific gene expression (Zhou, H., *et*  
157 *al.* 2010). Verma's lab also reported a novel technique for isolating ESCs from mammalian pre-  
158 implantation embryos by altering the epigenotype of embryonic explants with 5-aza-cytidine (5-  
159 aza-CR) (Lim, M. L., *et al.* 2011). The protocol was shown to work both in mouse and bovine  
160 and led to the generation of pluripotent cell lines. Further studies demonstrated that the inhibitor  
161 of histone deacetylases (HDACi) Trichostatin A (TSA) was very effective for the derivation of  
162 EG cells and accelerated the process of their dedifferentiation (Surani, M. A., *et al.* 2008) (see  
163 Table 1).

164 These findings have opened the way to new approaches in which small molecules and, more  
165 recently, epigenetic modifiers (Table 1) are used in order to directly convert cells from one type  
166 into another.

167 In 2007, Moschidou et al. demonstrated that cells isolated from amniotic fluid, which are not  
168 pluripotent (De Coppi, P., *et al.* 2007), can be reverted to a pluripotent state, without the use of  
169 ectopic reprogramming factors, but simply culturing them on matrigel in low growth factor  
170 medium (ESC medium) supplemented with the HDACi valproic acid (VPA) (De Coppi, P.  
171 2013; Moschidou, D., *et al.* 2012). With this transgene-free technique, 82% of treated cells shared  
172 transcriptome identity with ESCs after long-term expansion, and were able to form embryoid



173 bodies (EBs) and teratomas, as well as to differentiate into lineages deriving from the three germ  
174 layers. Similar results were also obtained by treating adult human dermal fibroblasts with VPA  
175 (Rim, J. S., *et al.* 2012) (see Table 1). In this work the authors demonstrated the up-regulation of  
176 endogenous pluripotency transcription factor genes in the absence of any transgenes, while less  
177 encouraging results were obtained after incubation with zebularine, a de-methylating agent  
178 recently tested as a prototype of epigenetic therapy for cancer chemoprevention (Yoo, C. B., *et*  
179 *al.* 2008) (see Table 1).

180 It is however important to remember that the achievement of a stable and persistent pluripotent  
181 state is not physiological, does not occur during embryonic development, where pluripotency is  
182 limited to a short window of time (Wu, S. C. and Zhang, Y. 2010), and may lead to cell  
183 instability.

184 In this perspective alternative protocols have been recently developed in order to directly convert  
185 an adult mature cell into another differentiated cell type, avoiding a stable pluripotent state and  
186 the related limitations (Brevini, T. A., *et al.* 2014; Harris, D. M., *et al.* 2011; Pennarossa, G., *et al.*  
187 2013; Pennarossa, G., *et al.* 2014) . Based on the concept that DNA methylation plays a  
188 fundamental role both during early embryonic development and cell lineage specification, we  
189 investigated and demonstrated that a brief exposure to a demethylating agent can push cells to a  
190 less committed state, increasing their plasticity. To this end we selected 5-aza-CR, a well-  
191 characterized DNA methyltransferase inhibitor, previously used to “boost” progenitor cell  
192 differentiation (Galvez, B. G., *et al.* 2008; Lefebvre, B., *et al.* 2010; Naeem, N., *et al.* 2013). This  
193 drug, mainly used in the treatment of myelodysplastic syndrome, is a chemical analogue of the  
194 cytosine and it is known to be a direct inhibitor of methyltransferase activity at low doses, as well  
195 as of methylation in newly synthesized DNA. These features give 5-aza-CR the ability to induce  
196 DNA hypomethylation, since the molecule substitutes for cytosine into DNA blocking DNA

197 methyltransferase function (Stresemann, C. and Lyko, F. 2008). This capability has been  
198 previously shown in mouse fibroblasts (Jones, P. A. 1985), where the drug has been  
199 demonstrated to remove the epigenetic “blocks” that are responsible for tissue specification.  
200 Furthermore, earlier studies also used this compound in order to modify gene expression and  
201 reactivate the transcription of silent genes (Jones, P. A. 1985), triggering phenotype changes in  
202 eukaryotic cells (Glover, T. W., *et al.* 1986; Taylor, S. M. and Jones, P. A. 1979). In line with  
203 these observations, Harris et al., successfully used 5-aza-CR to transform mesenchymal stromal  
204 cells and fibroblasts into hematopoietic cells (Harris, D. M., *et al.* 2011).

205 We recently demonstrated that adult skin fibroblasts and granulosa cells exposed to 5-aza-CR for  
206 18 hours dramatically changed their phenotype, exhibiting reduced dimensions, increased nuclear  
207 volume (Figure 1) and displaying highly decondensed chromatin (Brevini, T. A., *et al.* 2014).  
208 These morphological features are distinctive of a high permissive state with cells containing more  
209 loosely packed chromatin than their differentiated counterparts, in order to maintain genes in a  
210 potentially open state and prepare them for future expression (Tamada, H., *et al.* 2006). These  
211 morphological modifications were accompanied by a specific and consistent gene regulatory  
212 response, that highlighted the acquisition of an increased plasticity. All these observations  
213 indicate that, in response to an epigenetic modifier, such as 5-aza-CR or valpoic acid, cells are  
214 pushed into a brief and transient “highly permissive state”. Once entered into this higher  
215 plasticity window, they can easily be addressed toward a different phenotype if they are exposed  
216 to specific differentiation stimuli. Notably, if cells are returned to their standard culture medium,  
217 they revert to their original phenotype, suggesting the involvement of a reversible and non-toxic  
218 process.

219 With recent experiments we were able to convert fibroblasts exposed to 5-aza-CR toward the  
220 endodermic lineage commitment using a three step induction protocol that allows cells to transit

221 from early pancreatic differentiation stage to mature endocrine cells expressing the main  
222 hormones specific of the pancreatic tissue (Pennarossa, G., *et al.* 2013). This resulted in cell's  
223 rearrangement with the formation of large 3D spherical structures that tended to detach and float  
224 freely in the culture medium, reminiscent of in vitro cultured pancreatic islets (Figure 1). Most  
225 importantly epigenetically converted cells also expressed hormone (Figure 1) and glucose sensor  
226 genes distinctive of mature endocrine cells. Furthermore  $35 \pm 8.9\%$  of cells were able to trigger  
227 active release of C-Peptide and Insulin after exposure to 20mM glucose, showing a dynamic  
228 response similar to pancreatic beta-cells, in which changes in ambient glucose represent the  
229 primary and physiological stimulus for insulin secretion. Converted cell functionality was also  
230 demonstrated in vivo after injection in immunodeficient SCID mice, whose  $\beta$ -cells had been  
231 selectively destroyed with streptozotocin. Cell transplantation was indeed able to restore normal  
232 glycemic levels in these diabetic animals and to stably maintain them (Pennarossa, G., *et al.*  
233 2013).

234 A very recent report describes the possibility to transdifferentiate skin fibroblasts into insulin-  
235 expressing clusters only based on drug induction, avoiding both the necessity of using transgenic  
236 strategies and epigenetic modifications (Pereyra-Bonnet, F., *et al.* 2014). This approach is  
237 undoubtedly a promising one. However it should be considered with caution since no evidence  
238 about the involved mechanism is understood and further characterization of the  
239 transdifferentiated cells is still needed.

240 The possibility to apply epigenetic conversion to different cell types has been recently proved  
241 with the conversion of human granulosa cells (GCs) into muscle cells, through the use of 5-aza-  
242 CR followed by a 15 day culture with human recombinant VEGF (Brevini, T. A., *et al.* 2014).  
243 Over 80% cells changed their original phenotype, acquired elongated shape and became  
244 multinucleated. This was accompanied by molecular changes that demonstrated a switch from the

245 GC specific expression pattern (CYTOKERATIN17, HAS2, GREM1 and PTX3) to the one  
246 distinctive of muscle (DESMIN, MHC and MYOD).

247 The results obtained indicate that the conversion protocol may find wide application to different  
248 cell types suggesting a very promising potential for this approach as a safe option for the cure of  
249 several and diverse degenerative diseases (Figure 2).

250 Interestingly, the possibility to interact and modify cell phenotype through epigenetic remodeling  
251 has been shown in species other than the human, such as the porcine (Pennarossa, G., *et al.* 2014),  
252 the mouse, the dog and the cat (manuscript in preparation), with very encouraging and  
253 reproducible results.

254 In our understanding all these evidences further support the impact of epigenetic cell conversion  
255 and widen its application in human as well as veterinary regenerative medicine.

256

## 257 **Conclusions**

258 The increasing knowledge in epigenetic mechanisms has provided important insights for the  
259 understanding of cell commitment and, more in general, stem cell biology. In particular it is more  
260 and more evident that epigenetic events such as chromatin remodeling, histone modification and  
261 DNA methylation may impose flexible but precise control over the expression of important  
262 regulatory genes, allowing a dynamic interfacing between genotype and phenotype. The growing  
263 understanding of these aspects has greatly boosted the efficiency in cell reprogramming and  
264 transdifferentiation and has paved the way to the use of epigenetic modifiers for cell direct  
265 conversion.

266 These new developments in stem cell research promise to have important implications for better  
267 understanding of epigenetic cell fate control as well as for regenerative medicine advances,  
268 opening new avenues to cell therapy for human and animal diseases.

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## 427 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

428 **Figure 1. Epigenetic converted cells are generated by exposing fibroblasts to 5-aza-CR and**  
429 **culturing them in pancreatic induction medium for 36 days. The brief exposure to the**  
430 **epigenetic modifier induces phenotype changes with cells exhibiting reduced dimensions**  
431 **and increased nuclear volume. After 36 days of pancreatic differentiation large 3D**  
432 **spherical structures, reminiscent of in vitro cultured pancreatic islets, become clearly**  
433 **visible. Cell immune-staining confirm the morphological changes with positivity for**  
434 **Vimentin (fibroblast-specific marker), Oct4 (pluripotency-related marker) and C-Peptide**  
435 **(mature pancreatic marker) at different time points of the conversion protocol.**

436

437 **Figure 2. Epigenetic modifiers can be used to generate different cell types. An adult mature**  
438 **cell can be pushed into a “highly permissive” state and then re-addressed towards different**  
439 **cell lineages and phenotypes.**