Cancer arises through the accumulation of both genetic and epigenetic alterations. Although the causal role of genetic mutations on cancer development has been established in vivo, similar evidence for epigenetic alterations is limited. Moreover, mutual interactions between genetic mutations and epigenetic alterations remain unclear. Cellular reprogramming technology can be used to actively modify the epigenome without affecting the underlying genomic sequences. Here we introduce recent studies that have utilized this property for cancer research. We propose that just as it has potential for regenerative medicine and disease modeling, cell reprogramming could also be a powerful tool for dissecting the role of the cancer epigenome in the development and maintenance of cancer cells.
murine colonic crypts. Similarly, *Helicobacter pylori* infection, which is closely associated with gastric cancer development in both humans and rodents, causes abnormal DNA methylation in normal gastric mucosa. Notably, a subset of epigenetic alterations caused by such infection are consistent with those in cancer cells, suggesting that environmental factors may contribute to cancer development by inducing epigenetic alterations. Considering that these environmental factors are independent of any genetic abnormalities in cancer cells, inflammation-dependent epigenetic alterations could be an independent cancer driver of genetic abnormalities.

All together, both genetic mutations and environmental factors can induce epigenetic alterations in cancer cells. Given that the correction of genetic mutations is not a feasible cancer therapy, epigenetic alterations caused by environmental factors may make better targets. However, it remains unclear to what extent environmental factors inducing epigenetic modifications play in cancer development (Fig. 1).

The study of this relationship may benefit tremendously from cell reprogramming methods, of which there are three. In the first method, nuclear transplantation, the nucleus of a somatic cell is transferred into an enucleated oocyte. In the second method, cell fusion, a somatic cell is fused with an embryonic stem cell (ESC) with the melanoma nucleus of tetracycline-inducible *HRAS* transgenic mice, demonstrating that the cancer genome is reprogrammable into the pluripotent stem cell state. However, ntESC could not be generated when using nuclei from other types of cancer cells, such as leukemia, lymphoma and breast cancer cells. This inability suggests that cancer cells exhibit refractoriness to nuclear reprogramming. Notably, there are several reports that have succeeded to establish iPSC from cancer cells. These studies have revealed interesting insights of the cancer epigenome with regards to the lineage specificity of oncogenes and recapitulation of cancer progression and cancer cell heterogeneity (Fig. 2).

### Lineage specification of oncogenes

Specific cancers are often associated with mutations at specific genes. For example, *HER2* amplification is preferentially observed in breast cancers, and *EGFR* mutation is frequently detectable in lung cancers. Patients with familiar adenomatous polyposis (FAP) show a mutation in the *APC* gene and develop cancers predominantly in the colon, although cells throughout the patient body will harbor mutations in this gene. These observations suggest that the genetic mutations require the specific cell type to exert cancer properties.

Carette et al. established iPSC from human chronic myeloid leukemia (CML) cells that harbor the BCR-ABL fusion gene. CML-derived iPSC lost sensitivity to tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKI) that targeted BCR-ABL despite expression of the BCR-ABL gene. Intriguingly, the TKI sensitivity was recovered when CML-iPSC were differentiated into hematopoietic cell lineages. Given that the iPSC and hematopoietic lineage cells share the same genetic context, these results indicate that TKI sensitivity depended on the differentiation status of cells with distinct epigenetic regulation.

Similarly, Strickter et al. established glioblastoma (GBM)-derived iPSC from GBM-derived neural stem cells. Re-differentiation of the GBM-iPSC into neural progenitors resulted in highly malignant cells when injected into immunocompromised mice. However, GBM-iPSC did not exhibit the malignant phenotype when differentiated into non-neural lineage cells. These results too suggest that genetic mutations render the cells malignant only when a particular cell type with the unique epigenetic state is met.

Recapitulation of human cancer progression. *In vivo* cancer models are often used to study the molecular mechanisms for the cancer initiation and progression, but species differences between humans and rodents have compromised the development of effective cancer therapies and the recapitulation of oncogenesis in human cancer cells. For this reason, iPSC may make a better model.

Kim et al. succeeded in establishing iPSC from human pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas (PDAC) that can be main-

---

**Fig. 1.** Crosstalk between genomic and epigenetic abnormalities during cancer development. Cancer arises from a somatic cell accumulating genetic and epigenetic abnormalities. During its progression, external factors cause additional genetic and epigenetic changes in the cell. The genetic abnormalities can regulate the epigenetics via alterations in transcriptional networks. In contrast, the epigenetic abnormalities can regulate genomic integrity through chromosomal instabilities.
tained under the low level expression of exogenous 4Fs. Upon the induction of differentiation, the PDAC-iPSC differentiated into three germ cell layers and formed teratomas, reflecting their pluripotency. Interestingly, these PDAC-iPSC-derived teratomas contributed to endodermal ductal structures, which exhibited a similar histology to pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PanIN), a premalignant lesion of PDAC. The authors proposed that PDAC-iPSC can recapitulate the early stage of pancreatic cancer development upon their differentiation, and that this disease model could be useful for studying the progression of human pancreatic cancer cells. Furthermore, it was shown that the HNF4a is involved in the pancreatic cancer progression and invasion, and, thus, could be a therapeutic target. Taken together, multipotent cancer cells established by reprogramming technology have provided a useful platform for studying human cancer genome–epigenome interactions and discovering key molecules in cancer progression.

Hierarchical of heterogeneous cancer cells. Cancer cells are notoriously heterogeneous, a property that can be attributed to their genetic and epigenetic variations. It has been suggested that heterogeneity could be a driving force in cancer progression and is a fundamental basis of the cancer stem cells (CSC) concept. In this concept, a CSC population resides atop the hierarchy and has the potential to give rise to heterogeneous cancer cells and reconstitute tumor mass. However, the hierarchy of heterogeneous cancer cells is not fully understood. Suvà et al. report that differentiated glioma cells can be converted into CSC-like populations by the forced expression of a specific set of transcription factors (POU3F2, SOX2, SALL2, and OLIG2), which are highly expressed in stem-like glioma cells. The forced expression of these factors in non-CSC-like glioma cells reorganized the transcription network and epigenetic landscape into a CSC-like state. Furthermore, the authors also identified LSD1 and RCOR1, which mediate the demethylation of H3K4, as an epigenetic switch for the conversion of non-CSC-like glioma cells into CSC-like glioma cells. Consistently, they showed that an LSD1 inhibitor induced the ablation of stem-like glioma cells and that LSD1 knockdown have prolonged survival time and reduced tumorigenic potential in vivo. These findings support the concept that control of CSC-like glioma cells and differentiated glioma cells is governed by epigenetic regulation. Similarly, a recent study demonstrated that biological interconversion between glioma stem-like cells and differentiated glioma cells is reversible and functionally plastic. Notably, this interconversion is accompanied by gain or loss of PRC2-mediated H3K27me3
on developmental genes. All together, these results suggest that hierarchical control of heterogeneous cancer cells could be bidirectional and that such interconversion could be a promising target for efficient cancer treatment.

Induction of Dedifferentiation In Vivo Using Reprogramming Technology

In vivo reprogramming systems have provided a unique platform for studying the role of dedifferentiation in cancer development and provided the first in vivo evidence that epigenetic abnormalities can be a driving force for cancer development.\(^{(59)}\)

Reprogramming systems in vivo. Stadtfeld et al.\(^{(60)}\) generated mice containing lentivirus-mediated transgenic alleles for doxycycline (Dox) inducible reprogramming factors. The transgenic mice often developed teratomas consisting of differentiated cells of three different germ layers even without Dox treatment, presumably because of the leaky expression of 4Fs. Considering that pluripotent stem cells are capable of teratoma formation, this observation strongly suggested that somatic cells can be reprogrammed into pluripotent stem cells in vivo. In a later study, Abad et al.\(^{(61)}\) established germline-transmitted mice with lentivirus-mediated Dox-inducible reprogrammable alleles and found that these mice form teratomas in response to Dox treatment, again suggesting in vivo reprogramming. Notably, these mice formed various types of tumors (Wilms’ tumor, skin papilloma, urothelial carcinoma and intestinal polyps) as well as teratomas upon Dox treatment of various periods.

Ohnishi et al.\(^{(59)}\) also established another reprogrammable mouse model in which the expression of reprogramming factors can be controlled by Dox and visualized by the fluorescent protein mCherry.\(^{(62)}\) In this system, the induction of reprogramming factors for 28 days resulted in multiple formations of teratomas in various organs. Importantly, in vitro culture of teratoma tissue led to the derivation of iPSC that could be used for the generation of adult chimeric mice, demonstrating that somatic cells are reprogrammable in vivo with this system. All together, these results showed that the expression of reprogramming factors in vivo can alter the cellular identity of adult somatic cells into the pluripotent state in living mice.

Premature termination of in vivo reprogramming. In reprogrammable mice, the long-term expression of 4Fs resulted in the establishment of pluripotent stem cells. Interestingly, the in vivo phenotype varied with the length of time of the 4F expression. A short-term induction of 4Fs caused the emergence of dysplastic cancer-like cells exhibiting abnormal proliferation. However, the dysplastic cells disappeared after withdrawal of 4F expression and reverted to normal-looking cells. The reversion of the dysplastic phenotype indicates that continuous expression of 4Fs is required for the maintenance of the dysplastic cells and further suggests that early dysplastic cells retain epigenetic memory. However, prolonging the induction of the reprogramming factors to a period that remains shorter than that required for teratoma development caused 4F-independent tumor formation in various organs. These tumors consisted of dysplastic cells that were distinct from teratoma cells. Moreover, the dysplastic cells had an invasion phenotype and in particular cases metastasized into the lymph node, suggesting that they behave like cancer cells. Furthermore, the late dysplastic cells exhibited activation of ESC-Core and ESC-Myc modules, indicating that acquisition of the transcription network of pluripotent stem cells is associated with the tumor development.\(^{(63)}\)

Interestingly, 4F-independent tumors resemble human pediatric cancers, such as Wilms’ tumor-like tumor in the kidney, hepatoblastoma-like tumors in the liver and pancreatoblastoma-like tumors in the pancreas. Wilms’ tumor is the most common pediatric kidney cancer (Fig. 3). Although genetic mutations, such as WT1 and WTX, have been identified in Wilms’ tumors, the overall incidence of these mutations is not high.\(^{(64)}\) In contrast, it has been shown that abnormal DNA methylation patterns at imprinting loci are frequently detectable in Wilms’ tumors.\(^{(65,66)}\) Of note, the failed reprogram-
ming-associated tumors lacked detectable genetic mutations in cancer-related genes, but often exhibited a biallelic expression of imprinting genes, which was accompanied by abnormal DNA methylation patterns. These observations suggest that epigenetic alterations related to the cellular reprogramming might be involved in the development of a subset of pediatric cancers.

Proof of concept for epigenetics-driven cancer development in vivo. Considering that somatic cell reprogramming does not require particular genetic alterations, but rather a reorganization of the epigenome, cancer development through the transient expression of reprogramming factors raises the possibility that epigenetic alterations drive carcinogenesis. Notably, upon the re-induction of reprogramming factors, failed reprogramming-associated cancer cells were reprogrammed into iPSC with higher efficiency and shorter latency, presumably reflecting the partial reprogramming state of these cells. Of particular note, kidney cancer-derived iPSC were able to give rise to non-neoplastic kidney cells after injection into blastocyst. Given that iPSC derivation and differentiation do not require genetic mutations, the contribution of cancer-iPSC to non-neoplastic kidney has provided the first experimental evidence for epigenetics-driven cancer development in vivo (Fig. 4). However, considering that endogenous Oct3/4 is deeply silenced in somatic cells, it is unlikely that expression of Yamanaka 4 factors is directly involved in the development of human cancers. It should be noted that somatic cell reprogramming can be achievable with other sets of transcription factors, which do not include Yamanaka 4 factors. In this context, it would be of great interest to identify environmental factors that induce such transcription factor expression, which might eventually cause cellular reprogramming. Further analyses using human samples are needed to clarify the role of reprogramming in human cancer development.

Conclusion
Induced pluripotent stem cell technology has already gained strong interest for its potential in regenerative medicine and disease modeling. It is becoming increasingly clear that this technology can also advance cancer research by uncovering the role of epigenetic alterations in cancer development and cancer cell maintenance. Given that the epigenome can be modified with small chemical compounds, understanding its role should contribute to effective cancer-treatment strategies.

Acknowledgments
We are grateful to P. Karagiannis for critical reading of this manuscript. The authors were supported in part by P-DIRECT, by a Grant-in-Aid from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan, by the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan, by the SICORP, by the Takeda Science Foundation and by the Naito Foundation.

Disclosure Statement
The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

References
1 Vogelstein B, Kinzler KW. Cancer genes and the pathways they control. Nat Med 2004; 10: 789–99.
2 Jones PA, Baylin SB. The fundamental role of epigenetic events in cancer. Nat Rev Genet 2002; 3: 415–28.
3 Hattori N, Ushijima T. Compendium of aberrant DNA methylation and histone modifications in cancer. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2014; 455: 3–9.
4 Kondo Y, Katsushima K, Ohka F, Natsume A, Shinjo K. Epigenetic deregulation in glioma. Cancer Sci 2014; 105: 363–9.
5 Feinberg AP, Vogelstein B. Hypomethylation distinguishes some human cancers from their normal counterparts. Nature 1983; 301: 89–92.
6 Feinberg AP, Tycko B. The history of cancer epigenetics. Nat Rev Cancer 2004; 4: 143–53.
7 Ushijima T. Detection and interpretation of altered methylation patterns in cancer cells. Nat Rev Cancer 2005; 5: 223–31.
8 Chen RZ, Pettersson U, Beard C, Jackson-Grusby L, Jaenisch R. DNA hypomethylation leads to elevated mutation rates. Nature 1998; 395: 89–93.
9 Schmid M, Haaf T, Grunert D. 5-Azacytidine-induced undercondensations in human chromosomes. Hum Genet 1984; 67: 257–63.
10 Edén A, Gaudet F, Waghmare A, Jaenisch R. Chromosomal instability and tumors promoted by DNA hypomethylation. Science 2003; 300: 455.
11 Gaudet F, Hodgson JG, Edén A et al. Induction of tumors in mice by genomic hypomethylation. Science 2003; 300: 489–92.
12 Belinsky SA, Nikula KJ, Palmissano WA et al. Ablerrant methylation of p16 (INK4a) is an early event in lung cancer and a potential biomarker for early diagnosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1998; 95: 11891–6.
13 Reynolds PA, Sigaudomidou M, Zardo G et al. Tumor suppressor p16INK4A regulates polycomb-mediated DNA hypermethylation in human mammary epithelial cells. J Biol Chem 2006; 281: 24790–802.
14 Herman JG, Latif F, Weng Y et al. Silencing of the VHL tumor-suppressor gene by DNA methylation in renal carcinoma. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1994; 91: 9700–4.
15 Esteller M, Silva JM, Dominguez G et al. Promoter hypermethylation and BRCA1 inactivation in sporadic breast and ovarian tumors. J Natl Cancer Inst 2000; 92: 564–9.
16 Esteller M, Avizienyte E, Corn PG et al. Epigenetic inactivation of LKB1 in primary tumors associated with the Peutz-Jeghers syndrome. Oncogene 2000; 19: 164–8.
17 Laird PW, Jackson-Grusby L, Fazeli A et al. Suppression of intestinal neoplasia by DNA hypomethylation. Cell 1995; 81: 197–205.
18 Yamada Y, Jackson-Grusby L, Linhart H et al. Opposing effects of DNA hypomethylation on intestinal and liver carcinogenesis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2005; 102: 13590–5.
19 Lin H, Yamada Y, Nguyen S et al. Suppression of intestinal neoplasia by deletion of Dnmt3b. Mol Cell Biol 2006; 26: 2976–83.
20 Linhart HG, Lin H, Yamada Y et al. Dnmt3b promotes tumorigenesis in vivo by gene-specific de novo methylation and transcriptional silencing. Genes Dev 2007; 21: 3110–22.
21 Tomita H, Hirata A, Yamada Y et al. Suppressive effect of global DNA hypomethylation on gastric carcinogenesis. Carcinogenesis 2010; 31: 1627–33.
22 Baba S, Yamada Y, Hatano Y et al. Global DNA hypomethylation suppresses squamous carcinogenesis in the tongue and esophagus. Cancer Sci 2009; 100: 1186–91.
23 Hatano Y, Semi K, Hashimoto K et al. Reducing DNA methylation suppression colon carcinogenesis by inducing tumor cell differentiation. Carcinogenesis 2015; 36.
24 Ley TJ, Ding L, Walter MJ et al. DNMT3A mutations in acute myeloid leukemia. N Engl J Med 2010; 363: 2424–33.
25 Schwartzentruber J, Korshunov A, Liu XY et al. Driver mutations in histone H3.3 and chromatin remodelling genes in paediatric glioblastoma. Nature 2012; 482: 226–31.
26 Martinez-Garcia E, Licht JD. Deregulation of H3K27 methylation in cancer. Nat Genet 2010; 42: 100–1.
27 McCabe MT, Ott HM, Ganji G et al. EZH2 inhibition as a therapeutic strategy for lymphoma with EZH2-activating mutations. Nature 2012; 492: 108–12.
28 Morin RD, Johnson NA, Severson TM et al. EZH2 (Tyr641) in follicular and diffuse large B-cell lymphomas of germinal center origin. Nat Genet 2010; 42: 181–5.
29 Ernst T, Chase AJ, Score J et al. Inactivating mutations of the histone methyltransferase gene EZH2 in myeloid disorders. Nat Genet 2010; 42: 722–6.
30 Delhommeau F, Dupont S, Della Valle V et al. Mutation in TET2 in myeloid cancers. N Engl J Med 2009; 360: 2289–301.
31 Oyama T, Yamada Y, Hata K et al. Further upregulation of beta-catenin/Tcf transcription is involved in the development of macroscopic tumors in the colon of ApcMin/+ mice. Carcinogenesis 2008; 29: 666–72.
Review

Reprogramming technology for cancer research

Chan AO, Lam SK, Wong BC et al. Promoter methylation of E-cadherin gene in gastric mucosa associated with Helicobacter pylori infection and in gastric cancer. Gut 2003; 52: 502–6.

Maekita T, Nakazawa K, Mihara M et al. High levels of aberrant DNA methylation in Helicobacter pylori-infected gastric mucosae and its possible association with gastric cancer risk. Clin Cancer Res 2006; 12: 989–95.

Feil R, Fraga MF. Epigenetics and the environment: emerging patterns and implications. Nat Rev Genet 2011; 13: 97–109.

Gurdon JB. The developmental capacity of nuclei taken from intestinal epithelium cells of feeding tadpoles. J Embryol Exp Morphol 1962; 10: 622–40.

Tada M, Takahama Y, Abe K, Nakatsuji N, Tada T. Nuclear reprogramming of somatic cells by in vitro hybridization with ES cells. Curr Biol 2001; 11: 1553–8.

Takahashi K, Yamanaka S. Induction of pluripotent stem cells from mouse embryonic and adult fibroblast cultures by defined factors. Cell 2006; 126: 663–76.

Takahashi K, Tanabe K, Ohnuki M et al. Induction of pluripotent stem cells from adult human fibroblasts by defined factors. Cell 2007; 131: 861–72.

Hanna J, Wernig M, Markoulaki S et al. Treatment of sickle cell anemia mouse model with iPSCs cells generated from autologous skin. Science 2007; 318: 1920–3.

Assawachamanont J, Manda M, Okamoto S et al. Transplantation of embryonic and induced pluripotent stem cell-derived 3D retinal sheets into retinal degenerative mice. Stem Cell Reports 2014; 2: 662–74.

Yoshida Y, Yamanaka S. Recent stem cell advances: induced pluripotent stem cells for disease modeling and stem cell-based regeneration. Circulation 2010; 122: 80–7.

Egawa N, Kitaoka S, Tsukita K et al. Drug screening for ALS using patient-specific induced pluripotent stem cells. Sci Transl Med 2012; 4: 145ra83.

Yamashita A, Moriksa M, Kishi H et al. Statin treatment rescues FGFR3 skeletal dysplasia phenotypes. Nature 2014; 513: 507–11.

Pollo JM, Anderssen E, Walsh RM et al. A molecular roadmap of reprogramming somatic cells into iPSCs. Cell 2012; 151: 1617–32.

Papp B, Plath K. Reprogramming to pluripotency: stepwise resetting of the epigenetic landscape. Cell Res 2011; 21: 486–501.

Hochedlinger K, Blleloch R, Brennan C et al. Reprogramming of a melanoma genome by nuclear transplantation. Genes Dev 2004; 18: 1875–85.

Carette JE, Pruszak J, Varadarajan M et al. Generation of iPSCs from cultured human malignant cells. Blood 2010; 115: 4039–42.

Steinberg SH, Feber A, Engstrom PG et al. Widespread resetting of DNA methylation in glioblastoma-initiating cells suppresses malignant cellular behavior in a lineage-dependent manner. Genes Dev 2013; 27: 654–69.

Kim J, Hoffman JP, Alspaugh RK et al. An iPSC line from human pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma undergoes early to invasive stages of pancreatic cancer progression. Cell Rep 2013; 3: 2088–99.

Suvà ML, Rheinbay E, Gillespie SM et al. Reconstructing and reprogramming the tumor-propagating potential of glioblastoma stem-like cells. Cell 2014; 157: 580–94.

Garraway LA, Sellers WR. Lineage dependency and lineage-survival oncogenes in human cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 2006; 6: 593–602.

Colomer R, Lupo R, Bacus SS, Gelmann EP. erbB-2 antisense oligonucleotides inhibit the proliferation of breast carcinoma cells with erbB-2 onco-gene amplification. Br J Cancer 1994; 70: 819–25.

Lynch TJ, Bell DW, Sordella R et al. Activating mutations in the epidermal growth factor receptor underlying responsiveness of non-small-cell lung cancer to gefitinib. N Engl J Med 2004; 350: 2129–39.

Taron M, Ichinose Y, Rosell R et al. Activating mutations in the tyrosine kinase domain of the epidermal growth factor receptor are associated with improved survival in gefitinib-treated chemoresistant lung adenocarcinomas. Clin Cancer Res 2005; 11: 5878–85.

Fodde R. The APC gene in colorectal cancer. Eur J Cancer 2002; 38: 867–71.

Meacham CE, Morrison SJ. Tumour heterogeneity and cancer cell plasticity. Nature 2013; 501: 328–37.

Kreso A, Dick JE. Evolution of the cancer stem cell model. Cell Stem Cell 2014; 14: 275–91.

Natsume A, Ito M, Katsushima K et al. Chromatin regulator PRC2 is a key regulator of epigenetic plasticity in glioblastoma. Cancer Res 2013; 73: 4559–70.

Ohnishi K, Semi K, Yamamoto T et al. Premature termination of reprogramming in vivo leads to cancer development through altered epigenetic regulation. Cell 2014; 156: 663–77.

Stadtfeld M, Maherali N, Borkent M, Hochedlinger K. A reprogrammable mouse strain from gene-targeted embryonic stem cells. Nat Methods 2010; 7: 53–5.

Abad M, Mosteiro L, Pantoca C et al. Reprogramming in vivo produces teratomas and iPSC cells with totipotency features. Nature 2013; 502: 340–5.

Beard C, Hochedlinger K, Plath K, Wutz A, Jaenisch R. Efficient method to generate single-copy transgenic mice by site-specific integration in embryonic stem cells. Genesis 2006; 44: 23–8.

Kim J, Woo AJ, Chu J et al. A Myc network accounts for similarities between embryonic stem and cancer cell transcription programs. Cell 2010; 143: 313–24.

Rathouz EC, Robinson SM, Huff V. Wilms tumor genetics: mutations in WT1, WTX, and CTNNB1 account for only about one-third of tumors. Genes Chromosomes Cancer 2008; 47: 461–70.

Ogawa O, Eccles MR, Szeto J et al. Relaxation of insulin-like growth factor II gene imprinting implicated in Wilms’ tumour. Nature 1993; 362: 749–51.

Stenman MJ, Rainier S, Dobby CJ, Grundy P, Horon IL, Feinberg AP. Loss of imprinting of IGFI2 is linked to reduced expression and abnormal methylation of H19 in Wilms’ tumour. Nat Genet 1994; 7: 433–9.

Ohnishi K, Semi K, Yamada Y. Epigenetic regulation leading to induced pluripotency drives cancer development in vivo. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2014; 455: 10–5.

Yamada Y, Haga H, Yamada Y. Concise review: dedifferentiation meets cancer development: proof of concept for epigenetic cancer. Stem Cells Transl Med 2014; 3: 1182–7.

Maherali N, Sridharan R, Xie W et al. Directly reprogrammed fibroblasts show global epigenetic remodeling and widespread tissue contribution. Cell Stem Cell 2007; 1: 55–70.

Buganim Y, Faddah DA, Cheng AW et al. Single-cell expression analyses during cellular reprogramming reveal an early stochastic and a late hierarchical phase. Cell 2012; 150: 1209–22.

Buganim Y, Markoulaki S, van Wietmarschen N et al. The developmental potential of iPSCs is greatly influenced by reprogramming factor selection. Cell Stem Cell 2014; 15: 295–309.