

# Evolutionary dynamics of adult stem cells: Comparison of random and immortal-strand segregation mechanisms

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This paper develops a point-mutation model describing the evolutionary dynamics of a population of adult stem cells. Such a model may prove useful for quantitative studies of tissue aging and the emergence of cancer. We consider two modes of chromosome segregation: (1) random segregation, where the daughter chromosomes of a given parent chromosome segregate randomly into the stem cell and its differentiating sister cell and (2) “immortal DNA strand” co-segregation, for which the stem cell retains the daughter chromosomes with the oldest parent strands. Immortal strand co-segregation is a mechanism, originally proposed by [Cairns *Nature (London)* **255**, 197 (1975)], by which stem cells preserve the integrity of their genomes. For random segregation, we develop an ordered strand pair formulation of the dynamics, analogous to the ordered strand pair formalism developed for quasispecies dynamics involving semiconservative replication with imperfect lesion repair (in this context, lesion repair is taken to mean repair of postreplication base-pair mismatches). Interestingly, a similar formulation is possible with immortal strand co-segregation, despite the fact that this segregation mechanism is age dependent. From our model we are able to mathematically show that, when lesion repair is imperfect, then immortal strand co-segregation leads to better preservation of the stem cell lineage than random chromosome segregation. Furthermore, our model allows us to estimate the optimal lesion repair efficiency for preserving an adult stem cell population for a given period of time. For human stem cells, we obtain that mispaired bases still present after replication and cell division should be left untouched, to avoid potentially fixing a mutation in both DNA strands.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

The generation and maintenance of tissues in mammals is currently a topic of intense investigation by experimental and theoretical biologists. Besides its intrinsic scientific interest, an understanding of tissue cell kinetics, architecture, and development has important implications for aging and cancer.

In vertebrate animals, many tissues and organs are generated by what are known as adult (or equivalently, somatic) stem cells. Adult stem cells are rare, undifferentiated cells that divide asymmetrically to renew differentiated cells in adult tissues. They divide to produce the original stem cell and a differentiating progeny cell. The differentiating progeny cell then proceeds, through a series of division and differentiation steps (see Fig. 1), to produce a large collection of mature tissue cells.

At this point, it is not clear how adult stem cells emerge in multicellular organisms, nor is it known how this method of generating tissue cells evolved. Nevertheless, it is believed that this mechanism may serve to delay the emergence of cancer in mammals.

Mature skin cells, for example, are continually regenerated by adult stem cells. The tissue cells, after undergoing a prespecified number of divisions, cease dividing (a process known as terminal differentiation) and are eventually shed.

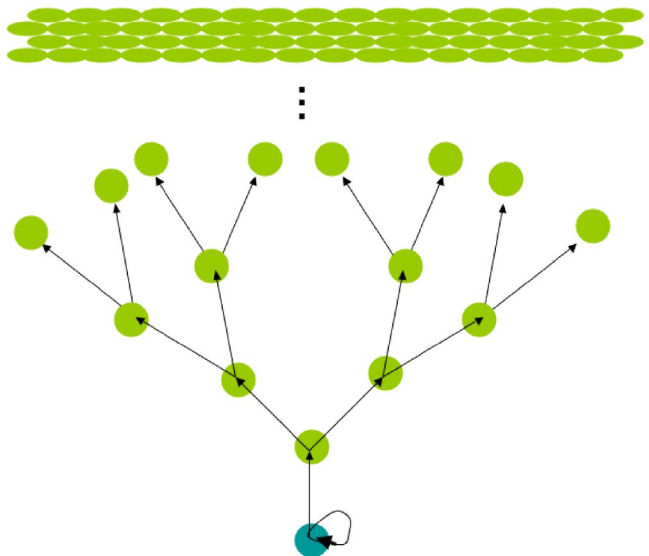


FIG. 1. (Color online) Generation of differentiated tissue cells (green/lighter gray) from an adult stem cell (blue/darker gray).

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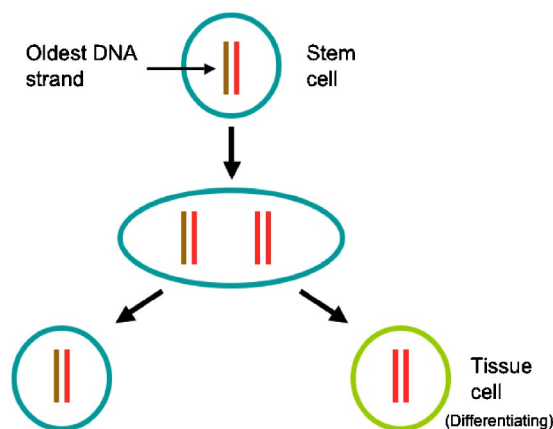


FIG. 2. (Color online) Illustration of immortal DNA strand chromosome segregation. The red/dark gray lines represent newer strands, while the brown/lighter gray line represents the oldest template strand.

Thus, any potentially cancerous mutation in differentiated skin tissue cells will eventually leave the body, thereby reducing the risk of skin cancer.

In order to effectively reduce mutation rates, however, there must exist a mechanism or collection of mechanisms that protects the genetic integrity of the adult stem cell population. Otherwise, because adult stem cells are long-lived in the body, they will eventually accumulate a sufficient number of mutations to become cancerous, or become genetically inferior stem cells.

One important mechanism by which adult stem cells protect the integrity of their genomes is through a form of asymmetric chromosome segregation during cell division, known as *immortal DNA strand* co-segregation. The immortal strand hypothesis was originally proposed by Cairns [1]. It states that when an adult stem cell divides to form a stem cell and a differentiating tissue cell, the stem cell retains the chromosomes with the oldest DNA strands of the genome (see Fig. 2). Presumably, the oldest DNA strands of the genome provide the most accurate template for daughter strand synthesis, and hence their preferential segregation into the adult stem cells ensures optimal maintenance of stem cell genetic integrity and overall tissue health.

The immortal strand mechanism was recently confirmed experimentally [2,3]. The confirmation of this segregation mechanism has motivated the authors to develop a mathematical model describing the evolutionary dynamics of a population of adult stem cells.

We are interested in three aspects of stem cell evolutionary dynamics: First of all, we seek to develop a set of ordinary differential equations describing the evolutionary dynamics of a population of adult stem cells. This is done in the following section. For simplicity, we assume an infinite population, continuous time model. While strictly speaking this is not correct, stochastic simulations show good agreement already at populations with as few as 10 000 stem cells.

Second, we wish to rigorously show that immortal strand co-segregation is necessary to preserve the stem cell lineage. Immortal strand co-segregation can only provide an advantage, however, if, during a process known as *lesion repair*,

not all postreplication DNA mismatches are corrected. Otherwise, daughter-strand synthesis errors can become fixed as mutations in both parent and daughter strands, thereby eliminating the advantage of keeping the oldest template strand in the stem cell [4–7].

Finally, because a high lesion repair efficiency reduces the overall mutation rate, while low lesion repair efficiency preserves the information in the parent strand, there is an optimal lesion repair efficiency for maximally preserving the stem cell lineage for a given period of time. In our case, the period of time of interest is a human lifetime, which we take to be on the order of 80 years.

In the following section, we derive the finite sequence length equations describing the evolutionary dynamics of adult stem cells, for the cases of random segregation versus immortal strand co-segregation. In particular, we develop an ordered strand pair formulation of the dynamics, analogous to the ordered strand pair formulation of the quasispecies equations for semiconservative replication with imperfect lesion repair [5–7]. For random segregation, the equations derived are similar to the corresponding quasispecies equations. For immortal strand co-segregation, the equations are qualitatively different. Nevertheless, despite the age dependence of the chromosome segregation mechanism, for immortal strand co-segregation it is still possible to develop an ordered strand pair formulation of the dynamics.

In Sec. III, we derive the infinite sequence length form of the evolutionary dynamics equations, for a class of fitness landscapes defined by a master genome. These equations are analogous to the equations developed for semiconservative replication with imperfect lesion repair [7]. We then proceed to obtain the system of differential equations governing the decay of the stem cell population with the master-genome genotype.

We continue in Sec. IV, where we use the master-genome equations to determine the optimal lesion repair efficiency for preserving the stem cell lineage for a given amount of time. In particular, we show that lesion repair should be turned off in stem cells. That is, postreplication DNA mismatches should be left uncorrected in stem cells.

We conclude in Sec. V with a summary of our results, and plans for future research.

## II. DERIVATION OF THE FINITE SEQUENCE LENGTH EQUATIONS

### A. Definitions

We consider a population of  $N_S$  replicating adult stem cells. As is illustrated in Fig. 1, each of these stem cells generates a lineage of differentiated tissue cells.

We assume that each stem cell has a genome consisting of a single, double-stranded DNA molecule. A given genome may then be given by the set  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ , where  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  denote the two strands. In principle, DNA consists of two antiparallel, complementary strands. Thus, a genome of length  $L$  should consist of the strands  $\sigma$  and its complement  $\bar{\sigma}$ , where  $\sigma = b_1 \cdots b_L \Leftrightarrow \bar{\sigma} = \bar{b}_L \cdots \bar{b}_1$ . ( $\bar{b}_i$  denotes the complement of  $b_i$ . For the four bases used in DNA, complementarity is defined

by the Watson-Crick pairs Adenine:Thymine (A:T) and Guanine:Cytosine (G:C). See Fig. 1 in [5].) However, due to mutations, it is possible that the two strands of a given genome are not perfectly complementary, and so we have to relax this restriction.

We also assume first-order growth, so that with each genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  is associated a first-order growth rate constant  $\kappa_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$ . The collection of all first-order growth rate constants is known as the *fitness landscape*. For simplicity, we assume in this paper a *static* or time-independent landscape.

As with all cells with double-stranded DNA genomes, we assume semiconservative replication, where the genome of each cell unzips to form two strands, each of which serves as a template for the synthesis of the complementary daughter strands. The end result is two new daughter genomes, one of which is retained by the stem cell, while the other becomes the genome of the differentiating sister. When genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  replicates, then we assume that with daughter strand synthesis there is associated a per-base mismatch probability of  $\epsilon_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$ .

After replication is complete, and stem cell division has occurred, there may still be some errors in the daughter strands that were missed by various error-correction mechanisms (DNA polymerase proofreading and mismatch repair). These mismatches result in lesions along the DNA chain, which may be recognized and repaired by various maintenance enzymes in the cell. It should be noted that in this case, the cell cannot distinguish between parent and daughter strands (which it does during daughter strand synthesis). Thus, a given error in the daughter strand has a 50% probability of being corrected, but it also has a 50% probability of being communicated to the parent strand. When this happens, the mutation is said to be *fixed* in the genome. Lesion repair is generally not perfect, and so we assume that when genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  replicates, a postreplication mismatch in the resulting daughter genomes is repaired with probability  $\lambda_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$ .

Errors during daughter strand synthesis and lesion repair result in a probability distribution for the possible daughter genome which can be generated from a given parent strand. Thus, we define  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), \{\sigma, \sigma'\})$  to be the probability that parent strand  $\sigma''$ , as part of genome  $\{\sigma'', \sigma'''\}$ , forms the daughter genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ .

We may also note that  $\sigma''$  can form  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  by either becoming  $\sigma$ , with daughter strand  $\sigma'$ , or  $\sigma'$ , with daughter strand  $\sigma$ . The probability of the former process is denoted by  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma, \sigma'))$ , and the probability of the latter process is denoted by  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma', \sigma))$ . Note that if  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$ , then  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), \{\sigma, \sigma'\}) = p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma, \sigma')) + p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma', \sigma))$ , while  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), \{\sigma, \sigma\}) = p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma, \sigma))$ . An expression for  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma, \sigma'))$  was derived in [7].

Finally, because stem cell division (more properly, asymmetric self-renewal) results in a constant value for  $N_S$ , it is equivalent to look at population fractions. We therefore define  $x_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$  to be the fraction of the stem cell population (at a given time  $t$ ) with genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ .

For immortal strand co-segregation, the preceding definitions need to be somewhat modified, since we need to also keep track of the ages of the strands. To this end, we let  $\sigma^{(T)}$

denote a strand that has been the template (parent) strand at least once, while  $\sigma^{(N)}$  denotes a strand that has never been the template for the synthesis of a daughter strand. For immortal strand segregation, then, we consider genomes of the form  $\{\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}$  and  $\{\sigma^{(T)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}$ . We do not consider genomes of the form  $\{\sigma^{(T)}, \sigma'^{(T)}\}$ , since, if our population initially consists of genomes that have never been involved in daughter strand synthesis, then such genomes can never appear in the population. The reason for this is that when a parent strand serves as the template for daughter strand synthesis, then it should be clear that the daughter strand automatically receives the ‘‘N’’ designation. Thus, two ‘‘T’’ strands can never be paired with one another.

## B. Random segregation

For random chromosome segregation, each of the parent strands of a replicating genome has an equal probability of becoming incorporated into the stem cell. The random segregation equations are then given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}x_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\{\sigma'', \sigma'''\}} \kappa_{\{\sigma'', \sigma'''\}}x_{\{\sigma'', \sigma'''\}} \\ & \times [p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), \{\sigma, \sigma'\}) + p((\sigma''', \sigma''), \{\sigma, \sigma'\})]. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The term  $-\kappa_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}x_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$  arises from the observation that, in semiconservative replication, the separation of the parent strands corresponds to the effective destruction of the original genome. The second term gives the rate at which  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  is produced, due to replication and mutation, by all genomes in the population. The factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$  arises because for random chromosome segregation, both parent strands  $\sigma''$  and  $\sigma'''$  of a replicating genome  $\{\sigma'', \sigma'''\}$  have an equal probability of being retained by the stem cell.

The above equations are fairly cumbersome for direct analysis, since the dynamics occurs over a space of double-stranded genomes. If the strands are completely correlated, so that in a genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$  we always have  $\sigma' = \bar{\sigma}$ , then, following the derivation in [5], it is possible to convert the dynamics over the space of double-stranded genomes into an equivalent dynamics over the space of single strands. This conversion is not possible when the assumption of complementarity does not hold. Nevertheless, following the derivation in [7], we can convert the dynamics over the space of double-stranded genomes into an equivalent dynamics over the space of ordered strand pairs. Specifically, given some genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ , define

$$y_{(\sigma, \sigma')} = y_{(\sigma', \sigma)} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}x_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}} & \text{if } \sigma \neq \sigma', \\ x_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}} & \text{if } \sigma = \sigma'. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Furthermore, define an ordered strand pair fitness landscape via  $\kappa_{(\sigma, \sigma')} = \kappa_{(\sigma', \sigma)} = \kappa_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$ . The random segregation equations then become

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy_{(\sigma,\sigma')}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{(\sigma,\sigma')}y_{(\sigma,\sigma')} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')} \\ & \times [p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) + p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma',\sigma))]. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

### C. Immortal strand co-segregation

To derive the evolutionary dynamics for a stem cell population replicating with immortal strand segregation, we have to take into account the ages of the strands. In this case, we have to separately derive the dynamics for genomes where neither strand has been used as a template for daughter strand synthesis, and where one of the strands has been used as a template for daughter strand synthesis. The resulting system of equations is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx_{\{\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{\{\sigma,\sigma'\}}x_{\{\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}}, \\ \frac{dx_{\{\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{\{\sigma,\sigma'\}}x_{\{\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}} \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \kappa_{\{\sigma'',\sigma'''\}}x_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \\ & \times [p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) + p((\sigma''',\sigma''),(\sigma,\sigma'))] \\ & + \sum_{\{\sigma''^{(T)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \kappa_{\{\sigma'',\sigma'''\}}x_{\{\sigma''^{(T)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \\ & \times p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Note that genomes of the form  $\{\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}$  cannot be produced via replication, since replication occurs via a parent strand which has then been used as a template for daughter strand synthesis at least once.

Note also that when a genome  $\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}$  replicates, strands  $\sigma''$  and  $\sigma'''$  have an equal probability of being retained by the stem cell. Of course, when a genome  $\{\sigma''^{(T)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}$  replicates, then it is strand  $\sigma''$  that is retained by the stem cell.

Finally, note in the second equation that we are not considering probabilities  $p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),\{\sigma,\sigma'\})$ , but rather probabilities  $p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma'))$ . The reason for this is that in considering the production of genome  $\{\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}$ , strand  $\sigma$  is explicitly marked as the template strand, while strand  $\sigma'$  is explicitly marked as the newly synthesized daughter strand. Therefore, to form  $\{\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}$ , it is clear that the parent (template) strand  $\sigma''$  must become  $\sigma$ , with daughter strand  $\sigma'$ .

As with the random segregation equations, we may define an equivalent dynamics over the space of ordered strand pairs. We do this in two steps. First, define,

$$y_{(\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)})} = y_{(\sigma'^{(N)},\sigma^{(N)})} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}x_{\{\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}} & \text{if } \sigma \neq \sigma', \\ x_{\{\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}} & \text{if } \sigma = \sigma', \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

and

$$y_{(\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)})} = x_{\{\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)}\}}. \quad (6)$$

The ordered strand pair fitness landscape is defined as for random segregation. The result is the transformed system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy_{(\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)})}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{(\sigma,\sigma')}y_{(\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)})}, \\ \frac{dy_{(\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)})}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{(\sigma,\sigma')}y_{(\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)})} \\ & + \sum_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})} \\ & \times p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) \\ & + \sum_{(\sigma''^{(T)},\sigma'''^{(N)})} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma''^{(T)},\sigma'''^{(N)})} \\ & \times p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')). \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The key equality to note in deriving the transformed dynamics is,

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \kappa_{\{\sigma'',\sigma'''\}}x_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \times [p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) + p((\sigma''',\sigma''),(\sigma,\sigma'))] \\ & = 2 \sum_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\},\sigma'' \neq \sigma'''} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})}p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) + \kappa_{(\sigma''',\sigma'')}y_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})}p((\sigma''',\sigma''),(\sigma,\sigma')) \\ & + 2 \sum_{\{\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)}\}} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})}p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')) = 2 \sum_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma''^{(N)},\sigma'''^{(N)})}p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Finally, if we define  $y_{(\sigma,\sigma')} = y_{(\sigma^{(N)},\sigma'^{(N)})} + y_{(\sigma^{(T)},\sigma'^{(N)})}$  then we obtain

$$\frac{dy_{(\sigma,\sigma')}}{dt} = -\kappa_{(\sigma,\sigma')}y_{(\sigma,\sigma')} + \sum_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')} \kappa_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}y_{(\sigma'',\sigma''')}p((\sigma'',\sigma'''),(\sigma,\sigma')). \quad (9)$$

Note that the ordered strand pair population fractions are defined somewhat differently for immortal and random chromosome segregation. For random chromosome segregation, the age of the strands is irrelevant to the division kinetics. Given a genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ , there is no canonical ordering of the strands  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$ . If  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$ , then the ordered pairs  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  and  $(\sigma', \sigma)$  should receive identical contributions from the genome  $\{\sigma, \sigma'\}$ .

For immortal strand segregation, the above argument holds for genomes of the form  $\{\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}$ . However, for genomes of the form  $\{\sigma^{(T)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}$ , a canonical ordering of the strands exists. Namely, we place the older strand before the younger in the ordered strand pair representation. This means that, for immortal strand co-segregation, we may regard  $y_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$  to be the total fraction of stem cells with template strand  $\sigma$  and daughter strand  $\sigma'$ . The only potential problem with this interpretation is the inclusion of  $y_{(\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)})}$  as part of this population fraction. However, this may be resolved by noting that while  $\{\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}$  has not yet undergone a replication cycle, when it does, either  $\sigma^{(N)}$  or  $\sigma'^{(N)}$  will be segregated into the original stem cell. Therefore, we may effectively *preassign* a “T” designation to either  $\sigma$  or  $\sigma'$ . If  $\sigma = \sigma'$ , then  $\sigma$  is the preassigned template strand for all genomes, while if  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$ , then  $\sigma$  is the preassigned template strand for half of the genomes. This interpretation for  $y_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$  is consistent with the definition for  $y_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$  ( $1/2x_{\{\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}} + x_{\{\sigma^{(T)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}}$  for  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$ , and  $x_{\{\sigma^{(N)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}} + x_{\{\sigma^{(T)}, \sigma'^{(N)}\}}$  if  $\sigma = \sigma'$ ).

In contrast to random chromosome segregation, for immortal strand segregation it is not generally true that  $y_{(\sigma', \sigma)} = y_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$ . The reason for this is that in the case of  $(\sigma, \sigma')$ ,  $\sigma$  is the template strand that has been present through all stem cell divisions (though perhaps mutated to something different from the original strand). In the case of  $(\sigma', \sigma)$ , it is  $\sigma'$  that has remained in the stem cell. If  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  are different, there is no reason to expect an identical evolutionary pathway for the two strands, hence it is incorrect to assume that  $y_{(\sigma, \sigma')} = y_{(\sigma', \sigma)}$ .

#### D. Equivalence of random and immortal strand segregation when lesion repair is perfectly efficient

Under very general conditions, it is possible to show that when lesion repair is perfect, then random and immortal strand segregation yield identical stem cell dynamics. We need only make the following assumptions: (1) For any ordered strand pair  $(\sigma, \sigma')$ , we have  $\kappa_{(\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}')} = \kappa_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$ . (2) For any two ordered strand pairs  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  and  $(\sigma'', \sigma''')$ , we have  $p((\sigma'', \sigma'''), (\sigma, \sigma')) = p((\bar{\sigma}'', \bar{\sigma}'''), (\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}'))$ . (3) For any ordered strand pair  $(\sigma, \sigma')$ , we have  $y_{(\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}')} = y_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$ .

Because taking the complement of a strand essentially amounts to a relabelling of the bases and a change in the direction in which the strand is read, there is no reason to assume that conditions (1–3) should not hold in general. Indeed, cases where properties (1–3) do not hold indicate a strand asymmetry, a condition which results from specific, and presumably nongeneric, base orderings.

If we assume that the fitness and “mutation” landscapes are chosen so that properties (1) and (2) are met, then our

population initially satisfies property (3) (obtained with a lesion-free population, for example), it is possible to show that property (3) holds for all time. The proof of this is similar to the proof of the analogous statement for quasispecies dynamics with imperfect lesion repair [7], and will therefore be omitted here.

When lesion repair is perfect, then an initially lesion-free population remains lesion free.

In this case we have,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})}}{dt} &= -\kappa_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})}y_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')} \kappa_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}y_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}p((\sigma', \bar{\sigma}'), (\sigma, \bar{\sigma})) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')} \kappa_{(\bar{\sigma}', \sigma')}y_{(\bar{\sigma}', \sigma')}p((\bar{\sigma}', \sigma'), (\bar{\sigma}, \sigma)) \\ &= -\kappa_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})}y_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')} \kappa_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}y_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}p((\sigma', \bar{\sigma}'), (\sigma, \bar{\sigma})) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')} \kappa_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}y_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}p((\sigma', \bar{\sigma}'), (\sigma, \bar{\sigma})) \\ &= -\kappa_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})}y_{(\sigma, \bar{\sigma})} \\ &+ \sum_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')} \kappa_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}y_{(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}')}p((\sigma', \bar{\sigma}'), (\sigma, \bar{\sigma})), \quad (10) \end{aligned}$$

which coincides with the immortal strand equations.

### III. THE “MASTER-GENOME” FITNESS LANDSCAPE

#### A. Infinite sequence length equations

Following the derivation of the quasispecies equations with imperfect lesion repair [7], we will now develop the infinite sequence length equations for a class of fitness landscapes defined by a “master” genome  $\{\sigma_0, \bar{\sigma}_0\}$ . For simplicity, we assume that  $\epsilon_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$  and  $\lambda_{\{\sigma, \sigma'\}}$  are genome independent, and may respectively be denoted by  $\epsilon$  and  $\lambda$ .

Following the convention used with quasispecies dynamics, we derive the infinite sequence length equations with  $\mu \equiv L\epsilon$  held constant. This is equivalent to fixing the genome replication fidelity, given by  $e^{-\mu}$ , in the limit of infinite sequence length.

The derivation of the infinite sequence length equations from the finite sequence length equations for stem cell division parallels the derivation of the infinite sequence length equations for semiconservative replication with imperfect lesion repair. We therefore refer the reader to [7] for details. In this paper, we only provide the necessary definitions for understanding the final form of the infinite sequence length equations.

To begin, we note that the “master” genome  $(\sigma_0, \bar{\sigma}_0)$  gives rise to the ordered sequence pairs  $(\sigma_0, \bar{\sigma}_0)$  and  $(\bar{\sigma}_0, \sigma_0)$ . In the limit of infinite sequence length, the two master strands

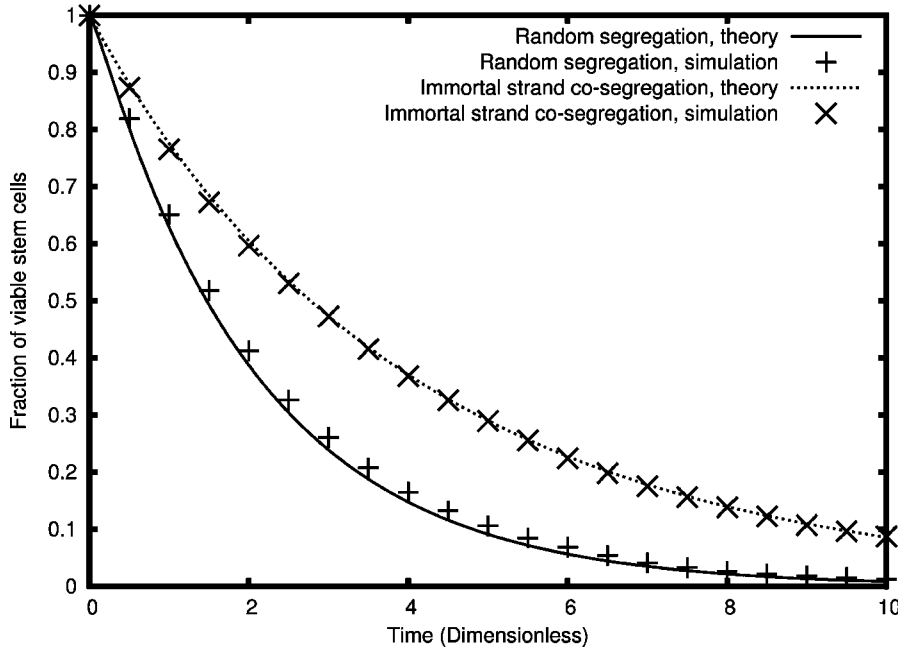


FIG. 3. A comparison of theory and simulation for a population of 10 000 stem cells with genomes of sequence length 20. We assume  $k_+=10$ ,  $k_-=1$ ,  $\mu=0.1$ , and  $l=1$ . We iterated in time steps of length 0.001 out to a time of 10.

$\sigma_0$  and  $\bar{\sigma}_0$  become infinitely separated from each other in Hamming distance, hence we may regard  $(\sigma_0, \bar{\sigma}_0)$  and  $(\bar{\sigma}_0, \sigma_0)$  as infinitely separated from each other in the ordered sequence pair space.

We may therefore group all sequence pairs  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  into one of three classes: A sequence pair  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  is said to be of the *first class* if  $D_H(\sigma, \sigma_0)$  and  $D_H(\sigma', \bar{\sigma}_0)$  are both finite. A sequence pair  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  is said to be of the *second class* if  $D_H(\sigma, \bar{\sigma}_0)$  and  $D_H(\sigma', \sigma_0)$  are both finite. Finally, a sequence pair not belonging to either one of the first two classes is said to belong to the *third class*.

A given sequence pair  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  of the first class can be characterized by the four parameters, denoted  $l_C$ ,  $l_L$ ,  $l_R$ , and  $l_B$ . The first parameter,  $l_C$ , denotes the number of positions where  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  are complementary, yet differ from the corresponding positions in  $\sigma_0$  and  $\bar{\sigma}_0$ , respectively. The second parameter,  $l_L$ , denotes the number of positions where  $\sigma$  differs from  $\sigma_0$ , but the complementary positions in  $\sigma'$  are equal to the corresponding ones in  $\bar{\sigma}_0$ . The third parameter,  $l_R$ , denotes the number of positions where  $\sigma$  is equal to the ones in  $\sigma_0$ , but the complementary positions in  $\sigma'$  differ from the corresponding ones in  $\bar{\sigma}_0$ . Finally, the fourth parameter,  $l_B$ , denotes the number of positions where  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  are not complementary, and also differ from the corresponding positions in  $\sigma_0$  and  $\bar{\sigma}_0$ . These definitions are illustrated in Fig. 3 of [7]. A sequence pair of the second class may be

similarly characterized (except  $\sigma_0$  and  $\bar{\sigma}_0$  are swapped in the definitions given above).

We assume that the fitness of a given sequence pair of the first class is determined by  $l_C$ ,  $l_L$ ,  $l_R$ , and  $l_B$ , hence we may write that  $\kappa_{(\sigma, \sigma')} = \kappa_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, l_B)}$ . The fitness of a sequence pair  $(\sigma', \sigma)$  of the second class is determined by noting that  $(\sigma', \sigma)$  is of the first class, and that  $\kappa_{(\sigma, \sigma')} = \kappa_{(\sigma', \sigma)}$ . We take the third class sequence pairs to be unviable, with a first-order growth rate of 1.

We also assume that  $\kappa_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, l_B)} = \kappa_{(l_C, l_R, l_L, l_B)}$ . This is a natural assumption to make if one assumes symmetry between the two master strands. In [7], we show that this assumption implies that  $\kappa_{(\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}')} = \kappa_{(\sigma, \sigma')}$ .

We allow our system to come to equilibrium starting from the initial condition  $y_{(\sigma_0, \bar{\sigma}_0)} = y_{(\bar{\sigma}_0, \sigma_0)} = 1/2$ . This initial condition corresponds to an initially mutation-free stem cell population.

We may sum over the population fractions of all first class sequence pairs characterized by a given set of  $l_C$ ,  $l_L$ ,  $l_R$ , and  $l_B$ , and reexpress the quasispecies dynamics in terms of these quantities. We define  $z_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, l_B)}$  to be the total population fraction of first class sequence pairs characterized by  $l_C$ ,  $l_L$ ,  $l_R$ , and  $l_B$ . We similarly define  $\bar{z}_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, l_B)}$  to be the total population fraction of second class sequence pairs characterized by  $l_C$ ,  $l_L$ ,  $l_R$ ,  $l_B$ . Following the derivation in [7], we then obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, 0)}}{dt} = & -\kappa_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, 0)} z_{(l_C, l_L, l_R, 0)} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{l_L!} [\mu(1-\lambda)]^{l_L} \delta_{l_R 0} + \frac{1}{l_R!} [\mu(1-\lambda)]^{l_R} \delta_{l_L 0} \right) e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)} \\ & \times \sum_{l'_C=0}^{l_C} \frac{1}{l'_C!} \left( \frac{\lambda\mu}{2} \right)^{l'_C} \sum_{l'_1=0}^{l'_C} \sum_{l'_2=0}^{l'_C-l'_1} \kappa_{(l'_1, l'_C-l'_1-l'_2, 0)} z_{(l'_1, l'_C-l'_1-l'_2, 0)} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

for random segregation, and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz_{(l_C,0,l_R,0)}}{dt} &= -\kappa_{(l_C,0,l_R,0)}z_{(l_C,0,l_R,0)} + \frac{1}{l_R!}(\mu(1-\lambda))^{l_R}e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)} \\ &\times \sum_{l'_C=0}^{l_C} \frac{1}{l'_C!} \left(\frac{\lambda\mu}{2}\right)^{l'_C} \sum_{l''_1=0}^{\infty} \kappa_{(l_C-l'_C,0,l''_1,0)}z_{(l_C-l'_C,0,l''_1,0)} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

for immortal strand co-segregation. An analogous set of equations may be derived for the  $\bar{z}_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}$ . Using the fact that  $y_{(\bar{\sigma},\bar{\sigma}')}=y_{(\sigma,\sigma')}$  we have  $\bar{z}_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}=z_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}$ .

An interesting feature to note from comparison of these two equations is that for random chromosome segregation, it is possible for  $l_L>0$ , while for immortal strand co-segregation, we have  $l_L=0$ . In the case of random segregation, the ordered strand pairs  $(\sigma,\sigma')$  and  $(\sigma',\sigma)$  are equivalent, hence we have  $\bar{z}_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}=z_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}$ , which implies that  $z_{(l_C,l_R,l_L,l_B)}=z_{(l_C,l_L,l_R,l_B)}$ . In the case of immortal strand segregation, the first strand of the ordered strand pair represents the parent strand. Because the parent strand differs from  $\sigma_0$  (or  $\bar{\sigma}_0$  when looking at the  $\bar{z}$  equations) in only a finite number of positions, in the limit of infinite sequence length the probability that a mismatch occurs where the parent strand differs from  $\sigma_0$  is 0. Therefore, any lesions that occur will be due to an error made in the daughter strand, where the corresponding bases of the parent strand are identical to those of  $\sigma_0$ . Thus,  $l_L$  remains 0, but  $l_R$  can become positive.

Finally, from these equations it is possible to show that a population of adult stem cells will eventually degrade unless lesion repair is turned off and chromosome segregation occurs via the immortal strand mechanism. For random chromosome segregation, a given stem cell will periodically retain an erroneous daughter strand, resulting in a steady degradation of the genome. For immortal strand co-segregation with nonzero lesion repair efficiency, mistakes in the daughter strands will periodically be communicated to the parent strand via lesion repair. The result is again a steady degradation of the genome.

### B. Decay of the master-genome population

We may derive a set of differential equations describing the decay of the master genome population. We consider a fitness landscape where the viable genomes have a first-order growth rate constant  $k_+$ , and the unviable genomes have a first-order growth rate constant  $k_-<k_+$ . An ordered strand pair is taken to be viable if  $l_C\leq l_{C,max}$ , and if  $l_L+l_R+l_B\leq l$ . Thus, an ordered strand pair is viable if it has no more than  $l_{C,max}$  fixed mutations, and no more than  $l$  lesions. Otherwise, the strand pair is unviable.

Defining  $z_0=z_{(0,0,0,0)}$ ,  $z_1=\sum_{l'=0}^l z_{(0,0,l',0)}$ , and  $z_2=\sum_{l''=0}^{\infty} z_{(0,0,l'',0)}$ , we obtain, for random segregation, that

$$\frac{dz_0}{dt} = -k_+z_0 + \frac{1}{2}e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)}[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2],$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz_1}{dt} &= -k_+z_1 + \frac{1}{2}[1+f_l(\mu,\lambda)]e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)}[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2], \\ \frac{dz_2}{dt} &= -\left(1-\frac{1}{2}(e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)}+e^{-\mu\lambda/2})\right)[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2]. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

For immortal strand segregation, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz_0}{dt} &= -k_+z_0 + e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)}[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2], \\ \frac{dz_1}{dt} &= -k_+z_1 + f_l(\mu,\lambda)e^{-\mu(1-\lambda/2)}[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2], \\ \frac{dz_2}{dt} &= -(1-e^{-\mu\lambda/2})[(k_+-k_-)z_1+k_-z_2]. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

We may solve Eqs. (13) and (14) using standard numerical methods, for the initial condition  $z_0=z_1=z_2=1/2$ . This corresponds to an initial stem cell population consisting entirely of the master genome genotype.

In Fig. 3 we show a comparison of the numerical solution of Eqs. (13) and (14) with the results of stochastic simulations of dividing stem cells. The lesion repair probability  $\lambda$  is taken to be 0.5 in this case.

### IV. OPTIMAL LESION REPAIR PROBABILITIES

We can use Eq. (14) to determine the optimal lesion repair probability for preserving the stem cell line out to a given time  $T$ . We use  $z_0$  as our measure for the extent of the preservation of the stem cell line. The higher the value of  $z_0$ , the better the stem cell line is preserved. To this end, for simplicity, we also take  $k_-=0$ , i.e., we assume that unviable stem cells do not replicate at all. We also rescale the time by defining  $\tau=k_+t$ . We then obtain

$$z_0(\tau) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-\tau} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{f_l(\mu,\lambda)} (e^{f_l(\mu,\lambda)\exp[-\mu(1-\lambda/2)]\tau} - 1) \right). \quad (15)$$

Therefore, maximizing  $z_0(T)$  is equivalent to maximizing  $g_l(\lambda;\mu,T) \equiv (e^{f_l(\mu,\lambda)\exp[-\mu(1-\lambda/2)]T} - 1)/f_l(\mu,\lambda)$ .

It is instructive to consider the behavior of  $g_l$  for  $l=0$  and  $l=\infty$ . For  $l=0$ , we have  $g_0=e^{\exp[-\mu(1-\lambda/2)]T}-1$ , which is clearly maximized for any  $\mu$  and  $T$  when  $\lambda=1$ . This makes sense because, when  $l=0$ , then any lesion renders the stem cell unviable. Preserving the information in the parent strand by reducing the lesion repair efficiency does not help maintain the population of master genomes, since an unviable stem cell does not replicate. Therefore, in this case, it is optimal to make lesion repair maximally efficient, thereby reducing the overall mutation rate away from the master genome.

For imperfect lesion repair to allow for better preservation of the stem cell population within our model, we must therefore assume that  $l>0$ . While typical values of  $l$  for cellular

organisms are not available (the matter is also complicated by additional repair mechanisms such as SOS response), we may note that the smaller the value of  $\mu$ , the fewer errors are made during replication (an average of  $\mu$  are made). Thus, in practice, for small  $\mu$ , one may assume that  $l=\infty$ , since a large number of lesions will not be produced in any case [mathematically, this is equivalent to the observation that the series  $\{f_l(\mu, \lambda)\}$  converges to  $f_\infty(\mu, \lambda)=e^{\mu(1-\lambda)}$  more quickly at smaller values of  $\mu$  than at larger values of  $\mu$ ]. Since cells have various error correction mechanisms that keep the overall number of replication errors to on the order of 1 or less per replication cycle, the assumption that  $l=\infty$  seems to be a reasonable one, and will be used here.

For  $l=\infty$ , we then have  $g_\infty=e^{-\mu(1-\lambda)}(e^{\exp(-\mu\lambda/2)T}-1)$ . For a given  $\mu$  and  $T$ , we define  $y=e^{-\mu\lambda/2}T$ , giving  $g_\infty=e^{-\mu y}T^2(e^y-1)/y^2$ . The function  $(e^y-1)/y^2$  goes to  $\infty$  at  $y=0$  and  $y=\infty$ . It has a unique point where its derivative vanishes, corresponding to a global minimum. Thus, on any given interval, the maximum value of  $(e^y-1)/y^2$  occurs at one of the endpoints. In particular, this implies that  $g_\infty$  is maximized for a given  $\mu$  and  $T$  at either  $\lambda=0$  or  $\lambda=1$ .

To determine whether the optimal  $\lambda$  is 0 or 1 for given values of  $\mu$  and  $T$ , we note that  $\lambda=0$  corresponds to  $y=T$ , while  $\lambda=1$  corresponds to  $y=e^{-\mu/2}T$ . The minimum value of  $(e^y-1)/y^2$  occurs before  $y=2$ , hence, once  $e^{-\mu/2}T>2$ ,  $(e^y-1)/y^2$  becomes monotone increasing on  $[e^{-\mu/2}T, T]$ , so that  $g_\infty$  is maximized for  $\lambda=0$ . For human cells, the genome length is of the order of  $3 \times 10^9$  base pairs, giving  $\mu \approx 3$  [4]. Therefore, if  $T>2e^{-3/2} \approx 9$ , then optimal preservation of the stem cell line occurs for  $\lambda=0$ . Current estimates place the number of adult stem cell divisions over a human lifetime at around 5000 [8]. In our rescaled time coordinates, this gives  $T=5000 \gg 9$ . Clearly, then, to optimally preserve the stem cell line, our model indicates that lesion repair should be turned off during cell division.

We should note that, at short times, it is optimal to keep  $\lambda=1$ , independent of  $l$  (this can be shown by expanding  $g_l$  out to first order in  $T$ , and optimizing). Also, for finite values of  $l$ , it is possible to show that, at sufficiently long times, the optimal lesion repair efficiency can be made arbitrarily close to 1 by making the mutation rate  $\mu$  arbitrarily large. This makes sense, because, at high mutation rates, it is necessary to prevent the formation of more than  $l$  lesions during replication, which renders the adult stem cell unviable.

For our purposes, however, the  $l=\infty$  simplification seems appropriate, since it is reasonable to assume that  $\mu=3$  is considerably less than the number of mismatches that a human adult stem cell can tolerate before becoming unviable.

It is important to note that, by lesion repair, we specifically refer to mismatched base-pairs along the DNA chain. The underlying assumption, however, is that each of the bases is chosen from one of the four standard bases (A, T, G, C). Thus, when considering lesions in this model, we are not considering lesions caused by chemical modifications of bases, due to, for example, radiation or oxidative damage. In principle, these lesions can be correctly repaired, assuming that the damage is localized to only one of the strands, because the chemical changes to the bases allows the cellular repair mechanisms to determine on which strand the lesion is present.

Thus, in determining that, for human stem cells, lesion repair should be turned off during cell division, we mean that mismatches along the DNA genome should be left alone, so as not to risk fixing a mutation in both strands.

While it is possible that distinct cellular mechanisms exist for repairing postreplication mismatches and lesions due to DNA damage, it is also possible that both types of modifications to a DNA genome are handled by the same repair pathways (nucleotide excision repair, for instance [4]). Thus, it is possible that the way by which adult stem cells suppress correction of mismatches along the DNA chain is by a general suppression of lesion repair. In this case, adult stem cells should be more susceptible to the effects of agents that can damage DNA. This increased susceptibility to DNA damage has been hypothesized by Cairns [9], and does indeed appear to be a property of adult stem cells [9].

## V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper developed a set of ordinary differential equations describing the evolutionary dynamics of a population of adult stem cells. For simplicity, we considered stem cell genomes consisting of a single double-stranded DNA molecule, i.e., one chromosome.

We considered two possible mechanisms of chromosome segregation. In the first case, we assumed that chromosomes randomly segregate into the adult stem cell and undifferentiated tissue cell. In the second case, we assumed that the stem cell retains the chromosome containing the oldest DNA strand of the genome. This co-segregation mechanism, termed the immortal strand hypothesis, was originally proposed by Cairns in 1975 [1] as a mechanism by which stem cells preserve the integrity of their genomes.

For the case of random segregation, we derived a set of equations analogous to the quasispecies equations for semi-conservative replication with imperfect lesion repair. In particular, the ordered strand pair formalism developed in [7] was used.

For immortal strand co-segregation, we showed that an analogous ordered strand pair formalism is possible, though in contrast to random segregation, the labelling of parent and daughter strands leads to a canonical method for constructing an ordered strand pair from a given genome. This results in a different set of equations describing the dynamics over the space of ordered strand pairs.

Following the approach taken with the semiconservative quasispecies equations with imperfect lesion repair [7], we developed the infinite sequence length equations for the stem cell population, assuming a fitness landscape defined by a master genome. From both the random and immortal strand equations it is readily shown that immortal strand segregation with imperfect lesion repair helps to maintain a population of stem cells.

From the infinite sequence length equations, we obtained the differential equations governing the decay of the master genome population, and developed a criterion for determining the optimal lesion repair probability for maximizing the population of stem cells with the genotype defined by the master genome. Based on parameters for human stem cells,



we predict that lesion repair should be completely turned off in adult human stem cells. This result, of course, is in the end a prediction made by a highly simplified model and needs to be experimentally tested. Furthermore, because it appears that postreplication mismatches and lesions due to DNA damage are repaired by the same biochemical pathways [9], future research will need to explicitly incorporate DNA damage in order to refine our estimate for optimal lesion repair efficiency in adult stem cells.

We should also add that an additional effect which further complicates the dynamical model presented here is a process known as *sister chromatid exchange* (SCE), which, even when lesion repair is completely suppressed, leads to the accumulation of mutations in immortal DNA strands. While this effect will need to be incorporated in future models of adult stem cell division, we must emphasize that the proposed evolutionary basis for immortal DNA strands in adult stem cells is to *reduce* the rate of carcinogenesis sufficiently, so that mammals survive for effective reproduction [1,8,10,11]. Thus, while SCEs can and do occur, and may indeed be responsible for the observed cancer rates, immortal strand co-segregation nevertheless acts to reduce the overall accumulation rate of mutations in adult stem cells to a level that allows the organism to survive long enough in order to reproduce. The reduction in overall mutation rate as a result of immortal strand co-segregation and suppressed lesion repair is clearly captured by our model. Thus, despite the simplifying assumptions made in this work, we regard this paper as an important first step toward a quantitative modeling of stem cell evolutionary dynamics.

In this paper, we assumed that the stem cell and tissue genomes consist of only one chromosome. While one chro-

mosome is sufficient for studying immortal strand co-segregation, in reality vertebrate cells contain numerous chromosomes. Furthermore, it is known that certain free-living organisms, such as *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* variants (Baker's yeast), segregate chromosomes according to the immortal strand mechanism [12]. For single-chromosome genomes, the immortal strand mechanism cannot be applied to free living cells, since there is no qualitative distinction between the two daughter cells (such as "stem" and "tissue"). However, with multiple chromosomes, it is possible for asymmetric segregation to occur so that one of the daughter cells retains the chromosomes with the oldest DNA strands. Thus, the study of immortal strand co-segregation for multiply chromosomed genomes is an important extension of the model presented here and the imperfect lesion repair quasispecies equations presented in [7].

Finally, we should also point out that the tissue architecture topology illustrated in Fig. 1 is a specific instance of what is known as an *evolutionary graph*. The study of mutation and selection on graphs of arbitrary topology is known as *evolutionary graph theory*. There has been some recent work on how the structure of evolutionary graphs can change the effective accumulation rate of mutations in a population [13]. Another important extension of the model presented here is to incorporate semiconservative replication and additional effects (imperfect lesion repair, immortal strand co-segregation) into evolutionary graph theory.

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