



Calculus from the past: Multiple Delay Systems arising in Cancer Cell Modelling

by

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CALCULUS FROM THE PAST: MULTIPLE DELAY SYSTEMS ARISING IN CANCER CELL MODELLING

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Abstract

Non-local calculus is often overlooked in the mathematics curriculum. In this paper we present an interesting new class of non-local problems that arise from modelling the growth and division of cells, especially cancer cells, as they progress through the cell cycle. The cellular biomass is assumed to be unstructured in size or position, and its evolution governed by a time-dependent system of ordinary differential equations with multiple time delays. The system is linear and taken to be autonomous. As a result, it is possible to reduce its solution to that of a nonlinear matrix eigenvalue problem. This method is illustrated by considering case studies, including the model of the cell cycle developed in Simms K, Bean N, & Koeber A. [10]. The paper concludes by explaining how asymptotic expressions for the distribution of cells across the compartments can be determined and used to assess the impact of different chemotherapeutic agents.

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1 Introduction

Non-local calculus is a general term used to describe situations (arising in models) where cause and effect are separated explicitly in time (a delay), space, age, or even size, depending on how the cohort or state variables are structured. The simplest case considered here is a time-delay where the current evolutionary dynamics depend, in an explicit way, on the state of the system at an earlier time. We consider this situation here, albeit in a system which has many compartments.

Models can have point delays or these can be distributed over earlier intervals. The former have a long history, see for example Bellman and Cooke [4]. In the second case, which in [6, 8] are called distributed-delay-differential equations (DDDEs), one can often eliminate the non-local effect by a simple transformation. Point delays generally resist this and thereby preserve their capacity to model simply quite complex behaviour. In this paper we focus on point time-delays for linear equations. We provide a generic procedure for obtaining an exact analytic solution (these multiple delay linear systems then need some simple numerical analysis to determine the detailed solution). In particular, when applied to the multistage cell-cycle model in [1, 2, 3] our method provides asymptotic expressions for the proportions of cells in the different cell cycle compartments. These results constitute a useful underpinning procedure for evaluating experimentally the effectiveness of potential new drugs for chemical treatment of cancer cells, when they are administrated ‘in *vitro*’ [7].

2 A simple example

The classic textbook problem, see [4]

$$y'(t) = y(t - T), t, T > 0; \tag{1}$$

illustrates nicely the richness that delay problems exhibit. This is particularly useful when one is seeking a suitably simple formulation for modelling complex phenomena. In particular, the spanning set of equation (1) is the countably infinite set

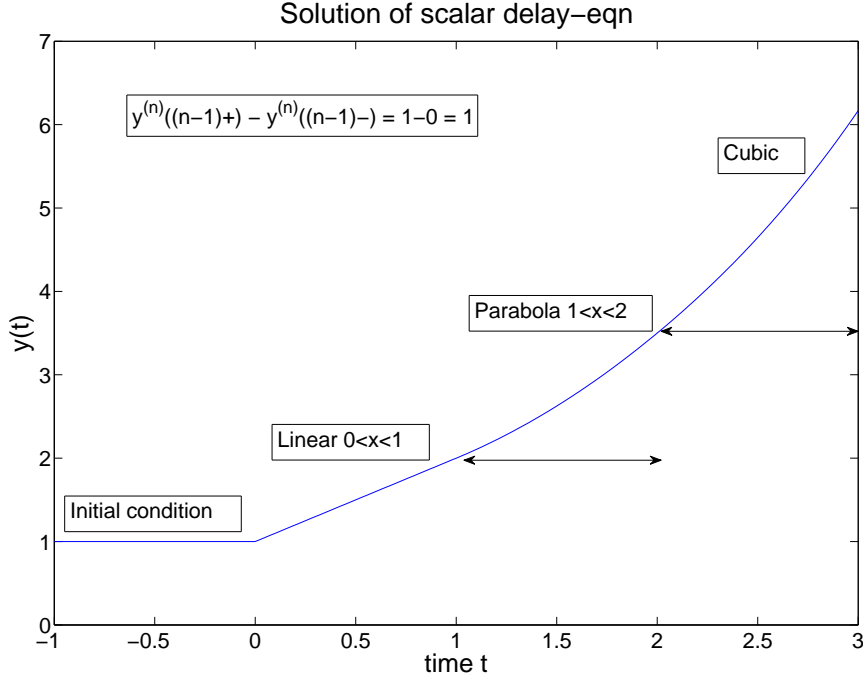


Figure 1: *Solution of equation (1) with unit step time-delay and constant initial condition for $-1 \leq t \leq 0$ obtained by iteration, over successive time-intervals.*

$$\Omega = \{e^{\lambda t} : \lambda \in \Lambda\} \text{ where } \Lambda = \{\lambda : e^{-\lambda T} = \lambda\}. \quad (2)$$

The equation in Λ for λ has only one real (positive) root λ_0 ($= 0.5671$ when $T = 1$) and an infinite number of complex roots in complex conjugate pairs with negative real part. This enables the problem to be well-posed with an arbitrary initial condition

$$y(t) = y_0(t), \quad -T \leq t \leq 0.$$

(In contrast, when $T = 0$, the spanning set is of one-dimension).

Clearly then, we have the asymptotic behaviour, for a

$$y(t) \sim K_0 e^{\lambda_0 t} \text{ for large } t, \quad (3)$$

where the constant K_0 depends in an explicit way on $y_0(t)$. This result, which is easily obtained by Laplace transforms, is far from obvious from the piecewise integration of equation (1), which when $T = 1$ and $y_0(t) \equiv 1$, gives $y(t)$ as a polynomial of degree n in $nT < t < (n+T)$, with discontinuities in

higher derivatives as n increases at the end points. This is shown in Figure 1. The pattern shown there gives no suggestion that the long-term behaviour is as in equation (3). There is nothing here that suggests that $x(t) \sim e^{-0.57t}$ for t large.

The general solution of equation (1) is obtained by finding the set Λ in equation (3). When $T = 1$ this gives the transcendental equation $\lambda = e^{-\lambda}$. If we let $\lambda_1 = \text{Re}(\lambda)$, $\lambda_2 = \text{Im}(\lambda)$ these satisfy the simultaneous equations

$$(i) \lambda_1 = e^{-\lambda_1} \cos(\lambda_2); \text{ and } (ii) \lambda_2 = -e^{-\lambda_1} \sin(\lambda_2). \quad (4)$$

These loci are drawn in Figure 2, with (i) in red and (ii) in blue. The roots are thus the intersections of the red and blue lines.

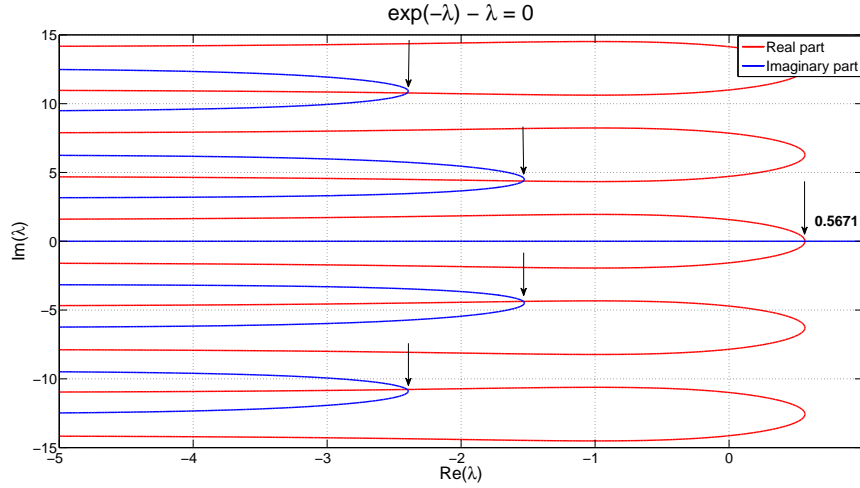


Figure 2: The roots of the transcendental equations in equation (4). The only roots shown are $\lambda = 0.5671, -1.543 \pm 4.375i, -2.402 \pm 10.776i$.

3 Multiple delays : a case-study

There can be multiple delays in systems. In Section 3.1 we give an example from Cell-cycle population dynamics, from Simms *et al* [10]. This model can be generalised. We now give the general method for such a system. This is abstracted and written as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t - [\mathbf{T}]), \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{x}(t)$ is a column vector of functions $\{x_1(t), \dots, x_i(t), \dots, x_n(t)\}$, \mathbf{A} is a $n \times n$ (constant) matrix, $\mathbf{T} = (T_{ij})$ and $[\mathbf{T}] = T_{ij}, j = 1, \dots, n$ when $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow x_i$. This explains $[\mathbf{T}]$, that is, in component form, we have

$$dx_i/dt = \sum_j a_{ij}x_j(t - T_{ij}). \quad (6)$$

To solve equation (6) we let $\mathbf{x}(t) = \exp(\lambda t)\mathbf{c}$. This is analogous to that developed in Hale *et al* [5] but significantly different from their approach. Although they get the same sort of result. Then we have $\lambda\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{B}(\lambda)\mathbf{c}$, where $\mathbf{B}(\lambda) = a_{ij}e^{-\lambda T_{ij}}$. So

$$\lambda \in \{\lambda : \det(\mathbf{B}(\lambda) - \lambda I) = 0\} = \Lambda. \quad (7)$$

This is a “nonlinear in λ ” eigenvalue problem with a countable infinity of “eigenvalues”, and $\mathbf{c}(\lambda)$ is the corresponding “eigenvector” of $\mathbf{B}(\lambda)$.

So the general solution of $d\mathbf{x}/dt = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t - [\mathbf{T}])$, is therefore

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} e^{\lambda t} \mathbf{c}(\lambda). \quad (8)$$

We note the following properties which are inferred from examples only:

- If $T_{ij} \geq 0$ (as in the tumour model below), for all i, j ; then there are a finite number of real eigenvalues, which are positive, and all others (an infinite number) are complex occurring in conjugate pairs, with smaller real part.
- Then, we get the asymptotic behaviour $\mathbf{x}(t) \sim e^{\lambda_0 t} \mathbf{c}(\lambda_0)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, where λ_0 is the “eigenvalue” with largest real part.
- This gives as $x_1(t) : x_2(t) : \dots : x_n(t) \sim c_1 : c_2 : \dots : c_n$, as $t \rightarrow \infty$, that is, we have constant proportions asymptotically. This is important in applications, especially in relation to chemical therapy for cancer treatment.

3.1 Model Development

In cell cycling there are the usually three distinct populations of cells: the G1 (Gap, written as G), S (DNA replication) and G2/M (Gap/Mitosis, written as M) phases. These are, in the model of Simms *et al* [9, 10], broken further into sub-compartments of storage and non-storage phases. The latter are the ones in which the cells are responsive to their environment. These are shown

in the Figure below, from Simms *et al* [10].

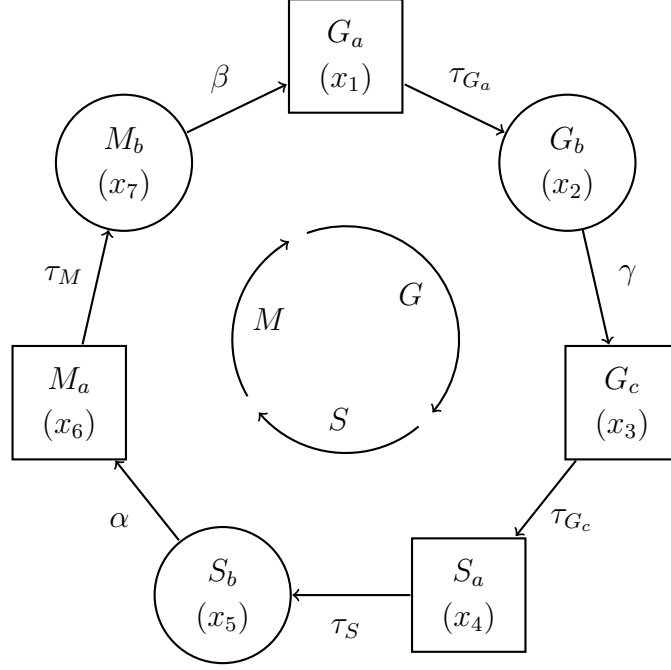


Figure 3: Cell cycle progression through the seven model phases. Each model phase is associated with an actual cell cycle phase (inner cyclic arrows). Model phases in square boxes represent storage phases and model phases in circles represent non-storage phases. The parameters on arrows from storage phases represent the fixed time that a cell spends in that model phase, while the parameters on arrows from a non-storage phase represents the rate of transition from that phase.

This leads to the following system of equations:

Letting $N_{G_a}(t) = x_1(t)$, $N_{G_b}(t) = x_2(t)$, ..., $N_{M_b}(t) = x_7(t)$ represent the number of cells in the G_a, G_b, \dots, M_b phases at time t respectively, and recalling that $\frac{dX(t)}{dt}$ represents the rate of change of $X(t)$ with respect to time, we write our model equations as follows:

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = 2\beta x_7(t) - 2\beta x_7(t - \tau_1), \quad (9a)$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = 2\beta x_7(t - \tau_1) - \gamma x_2(t), \quad (9b)$$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = \gamma x_2(t) - \gamma x_2(t - \tau_3), \quad (9c)$$

$$\frac{dx_4}{dt} = \gamma x_2(t - \tau) - \gamma x_2(t - \tau_3 - \tau_s), \quad (9d)$$

$$\frac{dx_5}{dt} = \gamma x_2(t - \tau_3 - \tau_s) - \alpha x_5(t), \quad (9e)$$

$$\frac{dx_6}{dt} = \alpha x_5(t) - \alpha x_5(t - \tau_M), \quad (9f)$$

$$\frac{dx_7}{dt} = \alpha x_5(t - \tau_M) - \beta x_7(t). \quad (9g)$$

These equations fit the generic pattern embodied in equation (5). In the next two sections we will apply the method in the first part of Section 3 to solve this problem.

3.2 Model simplification and analysis

Close scrutiny of the seven equations in the above section show that all four of the storage phases x_1, x_3, x_4 , and x_6 do not appear on the RHS and so the system is effectively driven by a smaller three-by-three system of equations (9b, 9e and 9f). Following the process outlined at the beginning of Section 3 the “eigenvalues” satisfy the transcendental equation

$$\lambda^3 + (\alpha + \beta + \gamma)\lambda^2 + (\alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \gamma\alpha)\lambda + \alpha\beta\gamma(1 - 2e^{-\lambda(\tau_1 + \tau_2 + \tau_3 + \tau_4)}) = 0. \quad (10)$$

This could easily be solved and the corresponding eigenvectors obtained. However, we will not do this here as actually we need to find the fraction of cells in each of all seven compartments (including the storage compartments) which is able to be done for the full system in one step. We observe that $\lambda = 0$ is not a solution of equations (9a-9g) showing there are no constant solutions of this core solution. Further there is just one real solution which is positive, and it will drive the dynamics of the solution in the long-term if the system is not perturbed. This will be shown in the next section where all of the equations will be included.

3.3 Full System

Here we use the same method to solve the whole system in the seven equations in (9a-9g).

It is important to note, however, that the transcendental equation in equation (9a-9g) will be the same as that in equation (10) apart from the

fact that $\lambda = 0$ will be an “eigenvalue” of geometric multiplicity four showing that there are constant solutions (not growing in time) as well as possibly some with slower (algebraic) growth in time.

Secondly, by writing $X = \sum_i x_i$, for the total number of cells, we see on adding the seven equations in equations (9a-9g), we have

$$dX/dt = \beta x_7. \quad (11)$$

So the total number of cells mirrors that of its constituent components with the same asymptotic behaviour.

Before proceeding to solve the full system by the same procedure, we observe that some of the components have more than one delay. There is one component x_2 which have all of: no delay and elsewhere has two different delays. This means we need to adapt the method above to a system of the form

$$d\mathbf{x}/dt = \mathbf{A}^{(1)}\mathbf{x}(t - [T^{(1)}]) + \mathbf{A}^{(2)}\mathbf{x}(t - [T^{(2)}]) + \mathbf{A}^{(3)}\mathbf{x}(t - [T^{(3)}]), \quad (12)$$

that is, there are three different “matrices of delay times”. With values from the experimental situation [10] given in the following table:

Symbol	Value and Units
α	0.6700 hr ⁻¹
β	2.3100 hr ⁻¹
γ	0.3284 hr ⁻¹
τ_1	5.75 hrs
τ_2	1.00 hrs
τ_3	9.00 hrs
τ_4	3.40 hrs

Table 1: *Parameters from the Cancer Cell lines in Simms et al [10].*

This gives the six very sparse seven-by-seven matrices below.

$$\begin{aligned}
A_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4.6200 \\ 0 & -0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.6700 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.6700 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -2.3100 \end{bmatrix} \\
T_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
A_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -4.6200 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4.6200 \\ 0 & -0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.6700 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.6700 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
T_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1.0000 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1.0000 \\ 0 & 5.7500 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5.7500 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3.4000 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3.4000 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
A_3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3284 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

$$T_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 14.750 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 14.750 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From the corresponding equation $F(\lambda) = \det(\mathbf{B}(\lambda) - \lambda I) = 0$, we obtain the diagram in Figure 4.

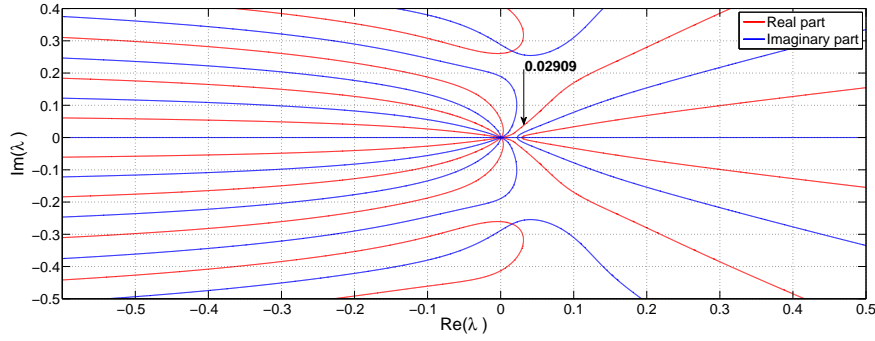


Figure 4: Loci for $F(\lambda) = 0$. The real part of $F(\lambda) = 0$ is shown in red and the imaginary part of $F(\lambda) = 0$ is in blue.

So $\mathbf{x} \sim e^{\lambda_{max} t} \mathbf{c}$: with $\lambda_{max} = 0.02909 \text{ hr}^{-1}$. Then we just need to find $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_7)$ such that

$$\mathbf{B}(\lambda_{max}) \mathbf{c} = \lambda_{max} \mathbf{c}. \quad (13)$$

In this example

$\mathbf{c} = \text{vector} =$	0.0442 : G_a
	0.1218 : G_b } 60.3% in the G-phase long-term
	0.4380 : G_c }
	0.2680 : S_a }
	0.0373 : S_b } 27.5% in the S-phase long-term
	0.0809 : M_a }
	0.0097 : M_b } 12.2% in the M-phase long-term
<hr/>	
Total =	0.9999 ~ 1

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution vector } \mathbf{x} = & \begin{aligned} & 0.044176 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.12183 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.43801 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.26802 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.037317 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.080944 e^{0.02909t} \\ & 0.0097006 e^{0.02909t} \end{aligned} \end{aligned}$$

This gives the asymptotic fraction of cells in each of the cells in each compartment.

4 Conclusion

This has set out an explicit method of solving systems of the form in equations (5) and extensions of the form in equations (12). The method produces a countable number of solutions which span the set of all solutions. When the dimension of the system is odd (here 7 or 3) there is one real positive time-constant which gives an exponential solution which dominates the long-term behaviour of the solution. In the case study discussed above this enables the determination of the proportion of cells in each of the cell phases for long time. This enables estimates of the effect of the targeted treatments for chemotherapy to be determined.

This has neglected the effects of logistic inputs. The complex roots of $F(\lambda) = 0$ give damped oscillatory behaviour.

This seemingly simple example illustrates the fact that delay, and especially multiple-delay systems can explain quite complex behaviour.

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