

Research with Mathematical Models

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1.1 Models as Functions of Parameters

How do we view the model

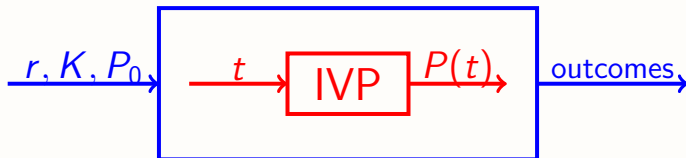
$$\frac{dP}{dt} = rP \left(1 - \frac{P}{K} \right), \quad P(0) = P_0 > 0, \quad r, K > 0?$$

► **Narrow** view:

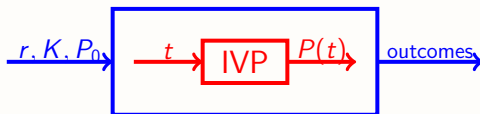
Initial value problem for $P(t)$, with parameters r , K , and P_0 .

► **Broad** view:

Function that maps parameters r , K , and P_0 to outcomes.



1.1 Models as Functions of Parameters



- ▶ **Narrow** view: Math problem with fixed parameters.
 - The narrow view is used to determine the outcomes.
 - Narrow view questions are trivial: "Given $K = 10$, $R = 1$, and $P_0 = 1$, when does the population reach $P = 5$?"
- ▶ **Broad** view: Outcomes as functions of parameters.
 - The important questions are in the broad view.
 - Do solutions with any initial condition always approach K ?
 - At what point is the population growth the fastest?

1.2 Model Design: Choosing Outcomes

- ▶ Maximum number of new infections?
- ▶ Maximum number of hospitalizations per million?
(compared to an average of 2800 hospital beds per million)
 - Serves as a measure of the stress on the health care system
- ▶ Percent deaths? (0.06% is 200,000 people)
 - Serves as a measure of the human cost
- ▶ Final fraction of susceptibles?
 - Serves as a measure of the risk of a new outbreak
- ▶ Times for any of these events?

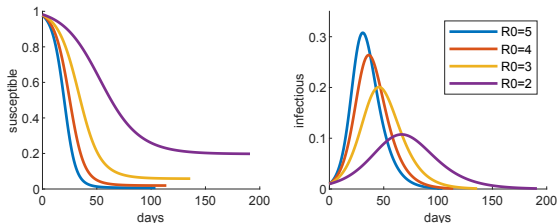
1.2 Model Design: Asking and Addressing Questions

- ▶ Models must be designed to answer specific questions.
 - If we want to know the impact of COVID-19 on health care resources, we need to modify the SEIR model to track hospitalizations and/or ICU patients.
- ▶ Some common question types:
 - Is a specific claim supported by modeling or not?
 - What effect does parameter x have on outcome y ?
- ▶ Strategies for addressing questions
 - Run simulations for several values of a parameter and compare simulation plots.
 - Calculate an outcome y for a large set of values of parameter x and plot y vs x .

- └ 1. General Principles of Modeling
 - └ 1.2 Designing a Model for a Specific Purpose

1.2 Simulations

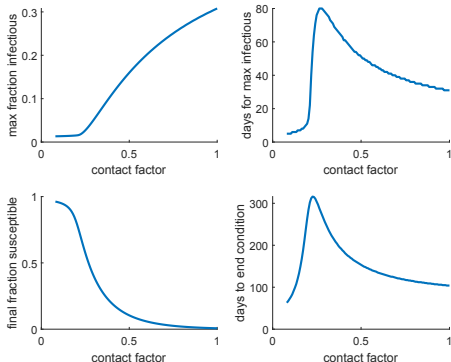
- ▶ Simulations require known parameter values.
 - Plots show model behavior.
 - Results only guaranteed to apply to the specific parameter set.
 - Multiple simulations can *help* us understand the generality of the results and the effects of the parameters.



- 1. General Principles of Modeling
 - 1.2 Designing a Model for a Specific Purpose

1.2 Parameter Studies

- ▶ Parameter studies systematically explore the impact of a parameter on one or more outcomes.
 - They show outcome vs parameter, not individual simulation results.



1.3 Reporting Results and Answering Questions

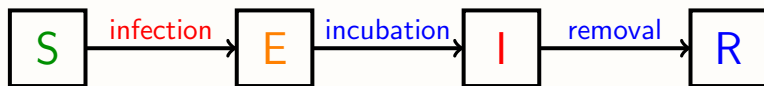
- ▶ Graphs must be informative and not misleading.
 - No negative values for populations or parameters.
 - Axes must be labeled.
 - Sometimes multiple curves on the same axes are more informative than multiple graphs.
 - Measured data should be plotted as points; simulation results should be plotted as dot-to-dot 'curves'.
- ▶ Answers to *math* questions are often numbers or formulas.
Modeling questions require verbal answers, supplemented with visual aids.
 - 'The graph goes up and then comes down' is merely a *description*. An *explanation* connects to the real world scenario and **offers a reason** for the observed results.

2.1. Class Structure

- ▶ Individuals in a population are divided into classes. These can vary from one model to another. Examples:
 - **S**: *Susceptible* – can be infected
 - **E**: *Exposed* – infected but not infectious
 - **I**: *Infectious* – can transmit the disease to susceptibles
 - **R**: *Removed* – no longer infectious
- ▶ Sometimes the names are misleading.
 - '*Exposed*' should be '*Latent*'
 - *Removed* includes people who are still sick and may include people who are deceased
- ▶ Models are designated by the class structure: SIR, SIS, SEIR, SEAIR, SEAIRHD etc

2. Processes

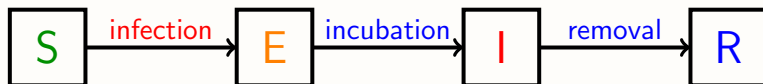
- ▶ Processes move individuals from one class to another.
 - Some models have processes that bring individuals into or out of the system.
- ▶ Example: Basic SEIR model



- Rate of change of S is $-\text{infection}$
- Rate of change of E is $\text{infection} - \text{incubation}$
- Rate of change of I is $\text{incubation} - \text{removal}$
- Rate of change of R is removal

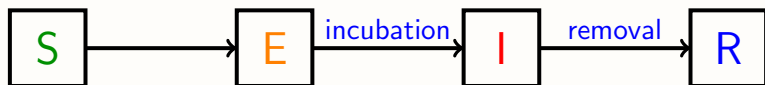
2. Processes – Two Types

- Processes are either **transmissions** or **transitions**.



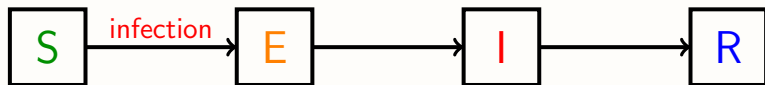
- **Transmissions** require interaction with another class.
 - Susceptibles are infected by Infectives.
- **Transitions** happen without any interaction.
 - Incubation of Latent (E) individuals and removal of Infectious individuals happen spontaneously.

2.2 Processes – Transitions



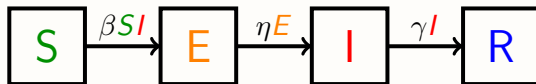
- ▶ Transition rates are usually assumed to be proportional to the **leaving** class
 - incubation rate = constant * $E = \eta E$
 - removal rate = constant * $I = \gamma I$
- ▶ **Rate constants are reciprocals of average time in class.**
 - Average removal time 10 days $\rightarrow \gamma = 0.1$

2.2 Processes – Transmissions



- ▶ Transmission rates are proportional to the **leaving** class size
 - infection rate = force of infection * **S** = λS
- ▶ The force of infection is proportional to the **transmitting** class total(s) (just **I** for SEIR)
 - force of infection = constant * **I** = βI
- ▶ The infection rate is $\beta I * S = \beta SI$

2.2 Summary – SEIR epidemic model



$$S' = -\beta SI$$

$$E' = \beta SI - \eta E$$

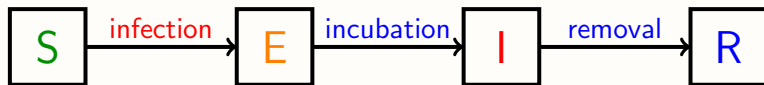
$$I' = \eta E - \gamma I$$

$$R' = \gamma I$$

- ▶ Let $N = S + E + I + R$. Then $N' = 0$, so N is constant.
 - The R equation is not needed because $R = N - S - E - I$.

2.3 Time Frames – Epidemic

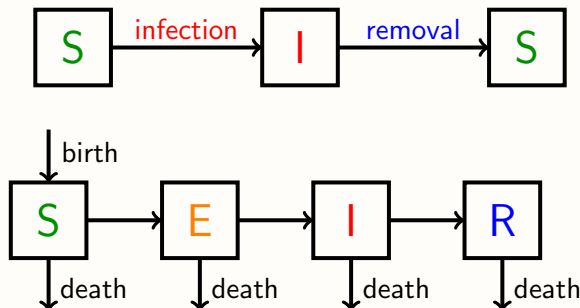
- ▶ **Epidemic** models have no means for replenishment of susceptibles.
 - These do not have births or natural deaths, so they are intended only for short time intervals (up to a few years).



- ▶ Including deceased individuals as 'Removed' makes the total population constant, which simplifies the model.

2.3 Time Frames – Endemic

- **Endemic** models have some means for replenishment of susceptibles.
 - The focus of analysis is on determining long term behavior.



2.4. Basic Reproduction Number

- ▶ **Basic reproduction number \mathcal{R}_0 :**
the average number of secondary infections caused by one primary infective in a fully susceptible population.
 - $\mathcal{R}_0 > 1$ is needed to start an epidemic.
- ▶ The total number is the average rate times the average time.
- ▶ Calculation of average transmission rate:
 - Recall that the **transmission rate** is βSI
 - Transmission rate **per infective**: βS
 - Rate per infective in a **fully-susceptible population**: βN

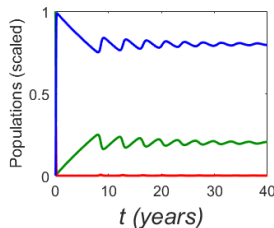
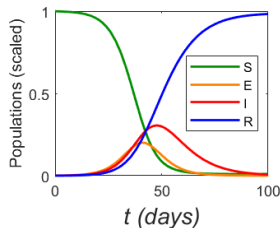
2.4. Basic Reproduction Number

- ▶ **Basic reproduction number \mathcal{R}_0 :**
transmission rate per infective in a fully susceptible population multiplied by average time in the Infectious class.
- ▶ Average transmission rate: βN
- ▶ Calculation of average time:
 - Recall that the **removal rate** is γI .
 - The average time is $1/\gamma$.

$$\mathcal{R}_0 = \beta N \cdot \frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\beta N}{\gamma}.$$

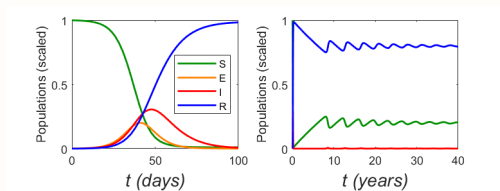
- ▶ Other diseases (like COVID-19) can be more complicated.

2.5 Typical Disease Model Behavior



- ▶ The plot on the left shows the initial epidemic.
 - With the chosen parameters, $E + I \approx 0.5$ at peak.
- ▶ After the epidemic, S slowly grows to about 0.25.
 - This triggers a new wave.
- ▶ Eventually, the disease becomes an endemic childhood disease.

2.5 Two Time Scales



- ▶ The fast time scale (days) shows the epidemic phase.
 - Demographic changes are negligible.
 - Plots on the fast time scale show no clue to endemic behavior.
 - Infectious population fractions are significant.
- ▶ The slow time scale (years) shows the long-term behavior.
 - Both demographics and disease processes are important.
 - On the slow scale, the epidemic behavior appears at $t = 0$.
 - Infectious populations are very small.

3.1 Autonomous Systems

- ▶ An **autonomous system** is a system of differential equations in which the derivatives are functions of the state of the system, and not the time:

$$S' = -\beta SI$$

$$I' = \beta SI - \gamma I$$

$$R' = \gamma I$$

- ▶ Seasonality makes a system **non-autonomous**:

$$S' = - \left(\beta + \delta \sin \frac{2\pi t}{365} \right) SI$$

$$I' = \left(\beta + \delta \sin \frac{2\pi t}{365} \right) SI - \gamma I$$

$$R' = \gamma I$$

3.1 Equilibria of Autonomous Systems

- An **equilibrium point** for an autonomous system is a point where the derivatives are all 0.

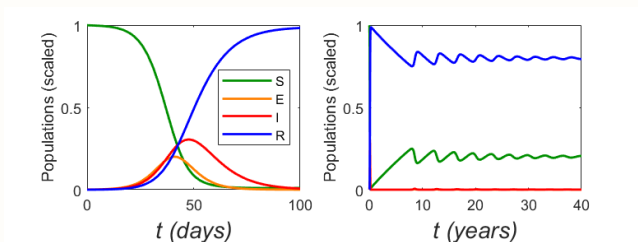
$$0 = S' = 1 - S - \mathcal{R}_0 SI$$

$$0 = I' = (\mathcal{R}_0 S - 1)I$$

- There is a disease-free equilibrium (DFE) that has $I = 0$ and an endemic disease equilibrium (EDE) that has $I > 0$.
 - The DFE is $I^* = 0$, $S^* = 1$.
 - The EDE is $S^* = \mathcal{R}_0^{-1}$, $I^* = 1 - \mathcal{R}_0^{-1}$.
- The DFE always exists; the EDE requires $\mathcal{R}_0 > 1$.

3.1 Stability of Equilibria

- ▶ Each equilibrium point in the state space corresponds to an equilibrium solution of the system.
- ▶ Equilibria can be (asymptotically) stable or unstable, depending on regions in the parameter space.
 - ▶ Over time, most systems tend toward a stable equilibrium.
 - ▶ The EDE for the endemic SEIR model is stable whenever it exists ($\mathcal{R}_0 > 1$).



3.2 The Jacobian Matrix

- ▶ Near each equilibrium, the system is represented by a different matrix, called the Jacobian.
- ▶ The Jacobian is the matrix of partial derivatives of the DE functions.

$$X' = \Gamma(bSY - \rho X)$$

$$Y' = \Gamma(\rho X - Y)$$

$$S' = 1 - S - bSY$$

$$J(X, Y, S) = \begin{pmatrix} -\rho\Gamma & bS\Gamma & bY\Gamma \\ \rho\Gamma & -\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -bS & -(1 + bY) \end{pmatrix}$$

3.2 The Jacobian Matrix

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} -\rho\Gamma & bS\Gamma & bY\Gamma \\ \rho\Gamma & -\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -bS & -(1 + bY) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J_{DFE} = \begin{pmatrix} -\rho\Gamma & b\Gamma & 0 \\ \rho\Gamma & -\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -b & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J_{EDE} = \begin{pmatrix} -\rho\Gamma & \Gamma & bY\Gamma \\ \rho\Gamma & -\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -(1 + bY) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $Y = 1 - \mathcal{R}_0^{-1}$

► Tip 1: Better to have extra symbols than messier formulas.

3.2 Stability Example

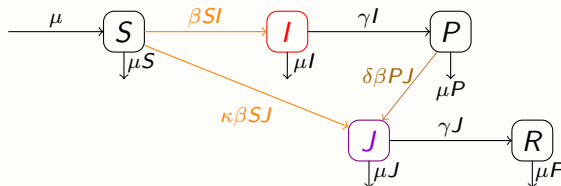
$$J_{DFE} = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} -\rho\Gamma & b\Gamma & 0 \\ \rho\Gamma & -\Gamma & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -b & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

- ▶ Stability requires all eigenvalues to have negative real part.
- ▶ The block structure decouples the eigenvalue problem.
 - One eigenvalue is $-1 < 0$.
 - The other submatrix has trace $-(\rho + 1)\Gamma < 0$ and $\det J = \rho\Gamma^2(1 - b)$. Stability (for 2×2 matrices) requires negative trace and positive determinant.
 - The DFE is stable if and only if $b < 1$.

4.1 A Research Problem Inspired by COVID-19

- ▶ Biological question: Why did the omicron COVID-19 variant displace the delta variant so quickly?
 1. It could be more contagious.
 2. It could have advantages that offset being less contagious.
- ▶ Research Question: What features would a less contagious disease need to outcompete a more contagious one?
- ▶ Research Plan: Add a second variant to the **simplest** endemic disease model.
 - Make the **new variant** less contagious to (S)usceptibles.
 - But give it some compensatory advantage.
 - Inspiration from COVID-19: Maybe immunity to the **original variant** doesn't protect against the **new variant**.

4.1 Variant Competition Model



- Population is constant with equal birth and death rates (μ).
- Both variants have the same mean recovery time ($1/\gamma$).
- The invader (J) is less contagious to Susceptibles ($\kappa < 1$).
- Recovery from I confers at most partial immunity against J .
 - $\delta \leq \kappa < 1$.

4.1 Variant Competition Model Equations (T is time)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{dI}{dT} &= -(\gamma + \mu)I + \beta SI \\
 \frac{dJ}{dT} &= -(\gamma + \mu)J + \kappa\beta SJ + \delta\beta PJ \\
 \frac{dS}{dT} &= \mu(1 - S) - \beta SI - \kappa\beta SJ \\
 \frac{dP}{dT} &= \gamma I - \mu P - \delta\beta PJ \\
 1 &= S + I + J + P + R
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

► Parameters and Scaling:

$$\epsilon = \frac{\mu}{\gamma + \mu} \ll 1, \quad b = \frac{\beta}{\gamma + \mu} > 1, \quad t = \mu T \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dT} = \mu \frac{d}{dt}.$$

- ϵ is the ratio of disease duration $1/(\gamma + \mu)$ to lifespan $1/\mu$.
- b is the basic reproduction number for the resident (I).
- $t = \mu T$ selects the slow time scale.

4.1 Scaling Example: The S Equation

$$\frac{dS}{dT} = \mu(1 - S) - \beta SI - \kappa\beta SJ$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{\mu}{\gamma + \mu} \ll 1, \quad b = \frac{\beta}{\gamma + \mu} > 1, \quad t = \mu T \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dT} = \mu \frac{d}{dt}.$$

- Substitute $\mu \frac{d}{dt}$ for $\frac{d}{dT}$:

$$\mu \frac{dS}{dt} = \mu(1 - S) - \beta SI - \kappa\beta SJ$$

- Divide by μ (note $\frac{\beta}{\mu} = \frac{b}{\epsilon}$):

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = (1 - S) - \epsilon^{-1}bS(I + \kappa J)$$

4.1 Rescaling Infectious Populations

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = (1 - S) - \epsilon^{-1} b S (I + \kappa J)$$

- ▶ This scaling is fine for simulations.
- ▶ For analysis, long-term behavior with $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ and other parameters/variables $O(1)$ should make sense.

- Here, $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ reduces the S equilibrium equation to

$$b S (I + \kappa J) = O(\epsilon) \quad \Rightarrow \quad I, J = O(\epsilon).$$

- I and J should be rescaled with $I = \epsilon Y$ and $J = \epsilon Z$.

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = (1 - S) - b S (Y + \kappa Z)$$

- This correctly implies that all terms are equally important.

4.1 Final (Rescaled and Approximate) Model

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y' &= \Gamma Y(-1 + bS) \\
 Z' &= \Gamma Z(-1 + bQ) \\
 S' &= 1 - S(1 + bX) \\
 P' &= Y - P - \delta bPZ
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where

$$X = Y + \kappa Z, \quad Q = \kappa S + \delta P, \quad \Gamma = \epsilon^{-1}. \tag{3}$$

- Y is the resident and Z is the invader.
- Tip 2: Better to have extra symbols than messier formulas!

4.2 Mathematical Agenda

- ▶ Our research began with a **biological** question. This led to a model. For the analysis, we need a **mathematical** agenda.
- ▶ We have three principal parameters, b , κ , δ .
 - Larger b makes both variants more contagious in general.
 - Larger κ decreases the advantage of I for infecting S .
 - Larger δ decreases the value of immunity from I against J .
- ▶ Mathematical question: How do the values of κ and δ affect the competition between variants?
- ▶ Strategy: Pick a value of b . Determine the regions in the $\kappa\delta$ plane that produce different outcomes.
 1. Identify possible end states in different regions of the $\kappa\delta$ plane.
 2. Determine which are stable in each region.

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4.2 Details for EDE-YZ

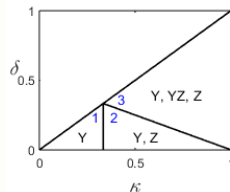
► Define $w = bW$ for $W \in \{Y, Z, S, P\}$.

► The equations decouple to give $s, p > 0$ and

$$\delta z = \delta(b-1) - (1-\kappa), \quad y = (b-1) - \kappa z.$$

► $z < 0$ in regions 1 and 2. $y > 0$ in all regions \Rightarrow

◦ EDE-YZ exists in region 3.



4.2 The Jacobian

The Jacobian for the YZSP system is

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} -(1-s)\Gamma & 0 & y\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -(1-q)\Gamma & \kappa z\Gamma & \delta z\Gamma \\ -s & -\kappa s & -\bar{x} & 0 \\ 1 & -\delta p & 0 & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4)$$

where

$$x = y + \kappa z, \quad q = \kappa s + \delta p, \quad \Sigma = 1 + \delta z, \quad \bar{w} = w + 1 \quad (\forall w).$$

► Tip 3: Better to have extra symbols than messier formulas!!

4.2 Stability for the DFE

- The Jacobian for the disease-free equilibrium simplifies to

$$J_{DFE} = \begin{pmatrix} -(1-b)\Gamma & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -(1-\kappa b)\Gamma & 0 & 0 \\ -b & -\kappa b & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The matrix is lower triangular \Rightarrow the eigenvalues are

$$(b-1)\Gamma, \quad (\kappa b-1)\Gamma, \quad -1, \quad -1.$$

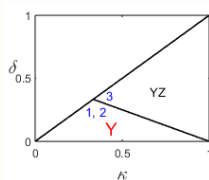
- The DFE is stable when $b < 1$ (recall $\kappa < 1$).
- The basic reproduction numbers are b for Y and $\kappa b < b$ for Z .

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|cc|c} -(1-q)\Gamma & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & y\Gamma & 0 \\ -\kappa & -1 & -b & 0 \\ \hline -\delta p & 1 & 0 & -1 \end{array} \right) \quad \begin{array}{l} p = b - 1 > 0 \\ q = \kappa + \delta p \end{array}$$

-

- $$J_Z = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} -(1-s)\Gamma & 0 \\ \hdashline \dots & J_{234} \end{array} \right), \quad J_{234} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \kappa_Z \Gamma & \delta_Z \Gamma \\ -\kappa_S & -\bar{x} & 0 \\ -\delta_P & 0 & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\lambda_1 = (s-1)\Upsilon = \dots > 0 \Rightarrow$ EDE-Z is never stable.



- The **resident** always persists for this model ($b > 1$). 😞
- But maybe the **variant** can also. 😐

4.2 Stability for EDE-YZ

The Jacobian for EDE-YZ is

$$J_{YZ} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & y\Gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \kappa z\Gamma & \delta z\Gamma \\ -1 & -\kappa & -b & 0 \\ 1 & -\delta p & 0 & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix}$$

► There is no decoupling. 😞

- How do we manage a 4×4 characteristic polynomial?
 - The char. poly. theorem! 😊 With asymptotics! 😊 😊
- How do we find Routh-Hurwitz stability conditions for a 4×4 characteristic polynomial?
 - The Routh array! 😊 With asymptotics! 😊 😊

4.2 Stability Results for EDE-YZ

- ▶ A LOT of algebra eventually yields a single stability requirement for EDE-YZ:

$$b\Sigma\zeta^2 > \delta\xi(b + \Sigma)^2,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma &= \delta x + \kappa, & \zeta &= \delta x - (\kappa + \delta)\pi, & \xi &= \kappa\pi(1 + \pi), \\ \delta p &= 1 - \kappa, & x &= b - 1, & \delta z &= \delta x - \delta p, & \pi &= (\delta p)(\delta z).\end{aligned}$$

- Given a value of b , we can plot the stability region in the $\kappa\delta$ plane.
- ▶ Tip 4: Better to have extra symbols than messier formulas!!!

4.3 Conclusions

1. We did not achieve the goal of finding a scenario in which a less infectious variant could replace a more infectious one. 😞
2. We did find some surprising results. 😊
3. For our next try, we need to give the variant an additional advantage.
 - Loss of immunity for the fully recovered does the job. 😊
4. **It is much better to have extra symbols than messier formulas.** 😊