

Asynchronous oscillations due to antigenic variation in Malaria Pf

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Outline

Introduction

Modeling

Synchronous oscillations

Asynchronous oscillations

Summary

Additional material

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Delays in disease

- Physical origins
 - + Latency time between compartments.
Incubation time. Infectious time. Temporary Immunity.
 - + “Transit time” of biological process.
- Modeling
 - + Constant coefficient ODEs: exponential distribution.
“Easy” to analyze.
 - + Integro-differential Es: arbitrary distributions.
“Hard” to analyze.
 - + Delay DEs: step distributions.

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Delay induced oscillations

- ODE: $x(t)' = rx(t)$
 - + Let $x(t) \sim \exp(\lambda t)$.
 - + Characteristic equation: $\lambda = r$.
 - + There exists a single real value λ , implying exponential growth or decay.
- DDE: $x(t)' = rx(t - \tau)$
 - + Let $x(t) \sim \exp(\lambda t)$.
 - + Characteristic equation: $\lambda = re^{-\lambda\tau}$.
 - + Let $\lambda = \sigma + i\omega$

$$\sigma = re^{-\sigma\tau} \cos(\omega\tau), \quad \omega = -re^{-\sigma\tau} \sin(\omega\tau)$$

- + Transcendental equations with multiple solutions
- + Allows for oscillatory solutions to a first-order DDE.

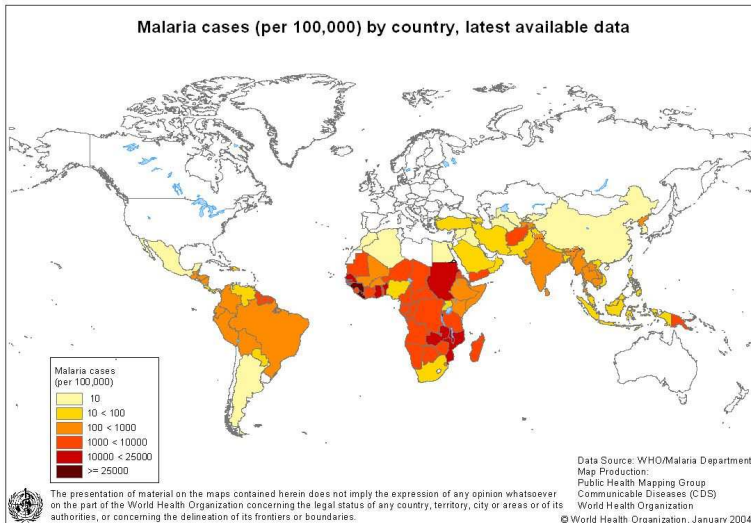
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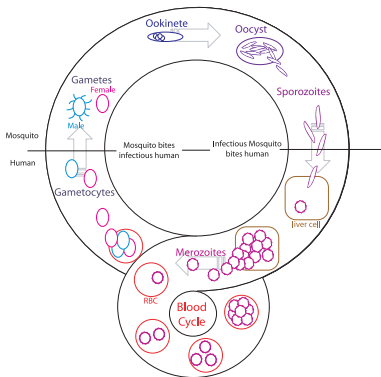
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Malaria Map



Malaria Life Cycle



- Inter-host vs. **Intra-host**
- **Blood cycle**
- Parasitized RBCs rupture → 10-30 new parasites.
- Parasite generations lead to fever, etc.
- PRBCs avoid splenic removal by cytoadhering to arterial walls.
- Must attack with immune response. Antibodies and T-Lymphocytes recognize antigens displayed on PRBCs.

Plasmodium Falciparum

- Four strains of malaria in humans.
- *P. vivax* is the most common.
- *P. falciparum* is the most dangerous.
 - + Highest parasite load in host.
 - + Cytoadhering leads to clogging of arteries in cerebrum.
cerebral malaria
 - + Leading cause of death in humans by malaria

Antigenic variation in Pf

- Evade the host's IR and prolonged infection by changing the dominate genetic variant.
 - + Parasite varies the major epitope on antigen PfEMP1.
 - + Epitope: binding sites for immune response effectors.
- In the population there are ~ 60 variants defined by unique major epitopes
 - + An individual will have < 60 (10-20) variants.
 - + Variants will share minor epitopes.
- Individuals exhibit switching (oscillations) of the dominant variant.
 - + Sequential dominance.
 - + Prevents IR from maintaining a prolong attack against a single variant.
 - + Evolutionary survival strategy.

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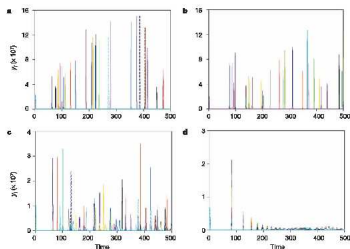
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Antigenic variation in Plasmodium Falciparum

- Molecular switching mechanisms in a single cell are known.
- Coordination of the parasite population is not well understood.
- Recker et al. proposed an interaction between the variants via the minor epitopes.
 - + Switching occurs as a natural dynamic of the *hosts* IR.
 - + No external switching mechanism or rule is needed.

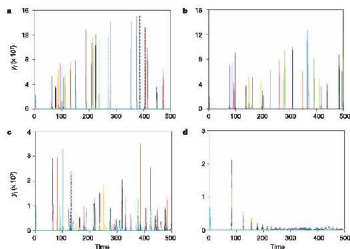


Recker et al.,

Nature (2004) 429:555-558

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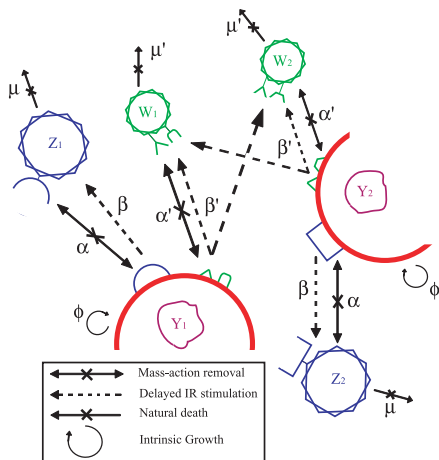
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Model of Recker and Gupta

Bull. Math. Bio (2006) 68: 821-835



- Y_j : variant j parasitized red-blood cells.
- Z_j : variant j specific immune response.
- W_j : cross-reactive immune response affecting variant j .

Model of Recker and Gupta

Parasitized RBCs: proliferation - removal due to IR.

$$\frac{dY_j}{dT} = \phi Y_j - \alpha Y_j Z_j - \alpha' Y_j W_j$$

Variant specific IR: stimulation - natural degradation.

$$\frac{dZ_j}{dT} = \beta Y_j|_{\mathcal{T}} - \mu Z_j$$

Cross-reactive IR: multi-variant stimulation - natural degradation.

$$\frac{dW_j}{dT} = \beta' \sum_k \xi_{jk} Y_k|_{\mathcal{T}} - \mu' W_j$$

Delayed activation of IR (Mitchell & Carr)

$$Y_k|_{\mathcal{T}} = Y_k(t - \mathcal{T})$$

Some assumptions

- Specific IR (z) is long lived relative to the **cross-reactive IR** (w).

$$0 < \mu \ll \mu' \ll 1$$

- Complete sharing of minor epitopes \Rightarrow global coupling.

$$\sum_k \xi_{jk} Y_k|_{\mathcal{T}} \text{ with } \xi_{jk} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n Y_k|_{\mathcal{T}}$$

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Steady states

- Disease free: $(Y_j, Z_j, W_j) = (0, 0, 0)$. **Unstable.**
- Nonuniform: $(Y_j, Z_j, W_j) \neq 0$. **Unstable.**
- Uniform: $(Y_j, Z_j, W_j) = (Y_0, Z_0, W_0)$. **Stable.**

Rescale and nondimensionalize

New variables are deviations from the
 uniform steady-state $(y_j, z_j, w_j) = (0, 0, 0)$

$$\frac{dy_j}{dt} = -(z_j + w_j)(1 + y_j)$$

$$\frac{dz_j}{dt} = \frac{c}{n} y_j|_{\tau} - a z_j$$

$$\frac{dw_j}{dt} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n y_k|_{\tau} - a b w_j,$$

$$a = \sqrt{\frac{d\mu}{\phi}}, \quad b = \frac{\mu'}{\mu}, \quad c = \frac{\alpha\beta}{\alpha'\beta'} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau = \sqrt{\frac{\mu\phi}{d}} \mathcal{T}.$$

$$0 < \mu \ll \mu' \ll 1$$

Synchronous vs. Asynchronous

- Synchronous: $y_j(t) = y(t)$, etc.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n y_k|_{\tau} = y(t)$$

- Asynchronous: $y_j(t) \neq y_k(t)$, etc
- The plan...
 - + Synchronous linear stability
 - + Asynchronous linear stability
 - + Asynchronous nonlinear dynamics

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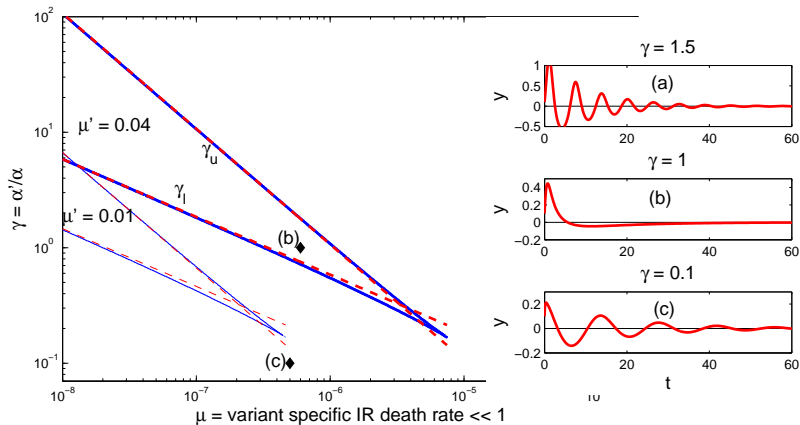
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Synchronous linear stability

Decay: oscillatory or monotonic?



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$$\gamma \equiv \frac{\alpha'}{\alpha} = \frac{\text{removal rate due to cross-reactive IR}}{\text{removal rate due to specific IR}}$$

- If γ is sufficiently large or small then there are oscillations.
- Decreasing (increasing) the number of shared of minor epitopes n , shifts both critical values up (down).
- μ can be set such that there are always decaying oscillations.
 - The **variant-specific IR** can be quite slow, while still being large enough to guarantee oscillations.

Decay: rates

$$\text{Decay rate} \sim ab = \left[\left(\frac{E_Z + E_W}{E_W} \right) \left(\frac{\mu'}{\phi} \right) \right]^{1/2},$$

$$E_Z \equiv \frac{\alpha\beta}{\mu} \text{ and } E_W \equiv \frac{\alpha'(n\beta')}{\mu'}.$$

- $E_{Z,W}$ = efficacy of the **specific** and **cross-reactive IR**.
- The farther away one moves from the triangular region the variants oscillate with faster decay.
- Increasing the **specific efficacy** relative to the **cross-reactive efficacy** leads to faster decay.

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Delayed IR

$$\lambda^3 + a(1 + b)\lambda^2 + a^2b\lambda + e^{-\lambda\tau}[(1 + q)\lambda + a(1 + qb)] = 0.$$

$$\mathcal{T}_h = \frac{1}{\phi} \left(\frac{E_z + E_w}{E_w} \right).$$

- Parasite generation rate $\phi \uparrow \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}_h \downarrow$.
System is more susceptible to delay induced oscillations.
- $E_z \gg E_w \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}_h \uparrow$.
Decreases the sensitivity of the system.
- $E_z \ll E_w \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}_h \sim 1/\phi$.
- Thus, just as a strong parasite generation rate and a strong cross-reactive IR lead to decaying oscillations in the case of instantaneous IR, they also decrease the minimum value of delay necessary to excite persistent oscillations.

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- Characteristic equation with $3 \times n$ roots.

$$[F_1(\lambda) F_{ap}(\lambda, \tau)]^{n-1} F_s(\lambda, \tau) = 0$$

$$F_1(\lambda) = \lambda + ab$$

$$F_{ap}(\lambda, \tau) = \lambda^2 + a\lambda + \frac{c}{n} e^{-\lambda\tau}$$

$$F_s(\lambda, \tau) = \lambda^3 + a(1+b)\lambda^2 + a^2 b\lambda + e^{-\lambda\tau} \left[\lambda \left(1 + \frac{c}{n} \right) + a \left(1 + \frac{bc}{n} \right) \right].$$

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Sync vs. Antiphase eigenvectors

$$[F_1(\lambda)F_{ap}(\lambda, \tau)]^{n-1} F_s(\lambda, \tau) = 0$$

- $n - 1$ roots from F_1 . Always stable.
- 3 roots from F_s .
 - + Same as synchronous case with “synchronized” eigenvector $v_j = v$.
- $2(n - 1)$ roots from F_{ap} .
 - + “ap” = antiphased eigenvectors

$$\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^{(y)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad v_{jm}^{(y)} = e^{i2\pi jm/n},$$

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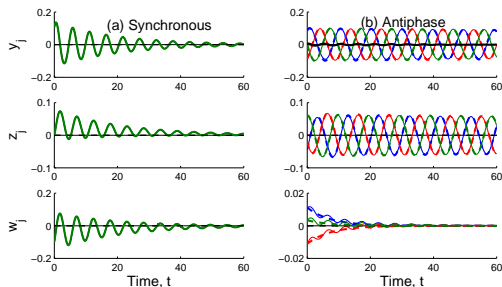
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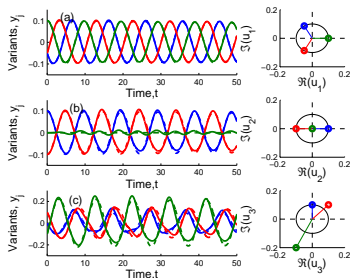
Decay rates, NO DELAY



- Antiphase: $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \dots$
- Decay rates: synchronous vs. asynchronous

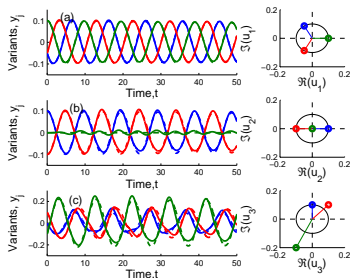
$$\sigma_s \sim -\frac{1}{2}\mu' \quad \text{faster than} \quad \sigma_{ap} \sim -\frac{1}{2}\mu$$

Long-time observation is async: NO DELAY



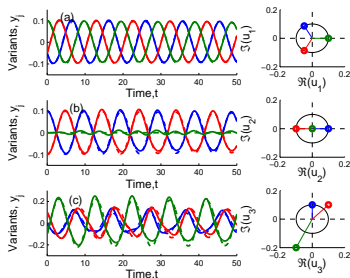
- Given an arbitrary initial condition. . .
- Complex oscillations can be decomposed into a sum of synchronous and antiphase oscillatory modes . . .
- The synchronous component decays fast . . .
- Observe some combination of antiphase oscillations . . .
 ⇒ observe asynchronous oscillations.

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Linear stability: $\tau \neq 0$

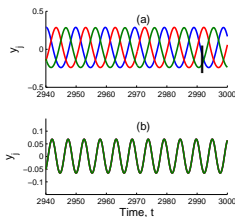
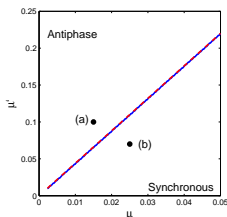
- Hopf bifurcation to persistent oscillations.
- Synchronous:

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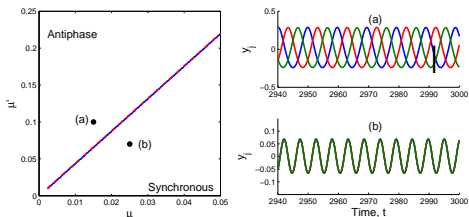
Sync vs. Antiphase: $\tau \neq 0$



$$\text{slope} = \frac{n\alpha'\beta'}{\alpha\beta}$$

- Increasing $\mu \Rightarrow$ weakens specific IR
 - + Cross-reactive IR \gg specific IR
 - \Rightarrow Couples variants
 - \Rightarrow synchronous.
- Increasing $\mu' \Rightarrow$ weakens cross-reactive IR
 - + Specific IR \gg cross-reactive
 - \Rightarrow Decouples variants
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Hopf bifurcation to asynchronous oscillations

- Near Hopf point.

$$\tau = \tau_h + \epsilon^2 \tau_2.$$

- Multiple time scales t and $s = \epsilon^2 t$.
- Expand $y = \epsilon y^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 y^{(2)} + \dots$
- Expand the delay term:

$$y_j(t - \tau, s - \epsilon^2 \tau) = y_j|_{\tau_h} - \epsilon^2 \left(\tau_2 \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial t} \Big|_{\tau_h} + \tau_h \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial s} \Big|_{\tau_h} \right) + O(\epsilon^4),$$

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Antiphase oscillations as basis

- The leading order, $O(\epsilon)$ problem is linear.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{Y}^{(1)} = J|_{\tau_h} \cdot \vec{Y}^{(1)},$$

- Solution decomposed as a sum of the antiphase eigenvectors.

$$x_j^{(1)} = -i\omega_h y_j^{(1)} + \text{e.d.t.},$$

$$y_j^{(1)} = \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} A_m(s) v_{jm} e^{i\omega_h t} + \text{c.c.} + \text{e.d.t.},$$

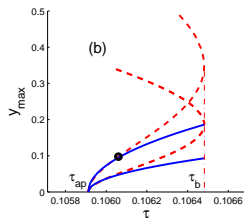
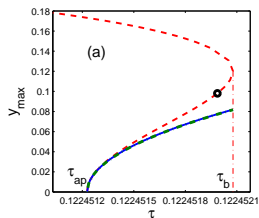
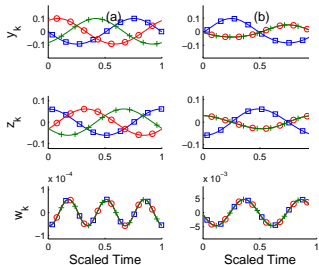
$$w_j^{(1)} = 0 + \text{e.d.t.},$$

- $A_m(s)$, $m = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ are slowly varying amplitudes.
- Determined by solvability condition at $O(\epsilon^3)$.

$$\frac{dA_m}{ds} = \tau_2 (f_2 + ig_2) A_m + (f_3 + ig_3) \hat{A}_m + (f_4 + ig_4) \tilde{A}_n A_{n-m}^*,$$

Two examples for $n = 3$

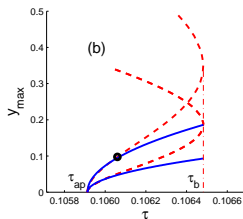
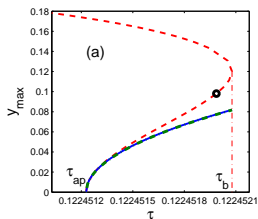
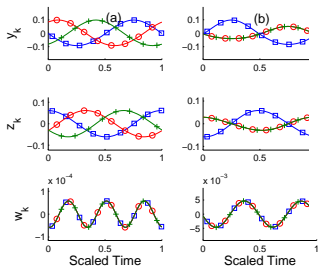
- (a) *Pure antiphase* with $A_1 \neq 0, A_2 = 0$
 $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \dots$
- (b) *Combination of basis* $A_1 = A_2 \neq 0$
 $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \dots \oplus 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \dots$



Two examples for $n = 3$

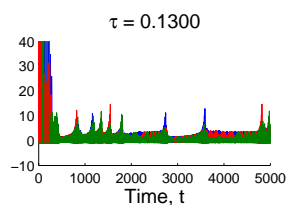
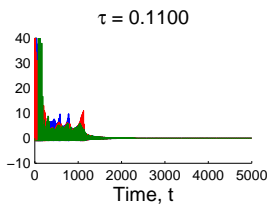
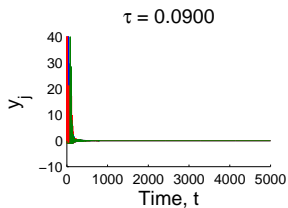
$$(a) \vec{y} \sim 2\sqrt{-\frac{f_2 \cdot (\tau - \tau_h)}{f_3}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\left(\theta(t) + \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \\ \cos\left(\theta(t) + \frac{4\pi}{3}\right) \\ \cos(\theta(t) + 0) \end{pmatrix} \quad (b) \vec{y} = 2\sqrt{-\frac{f_2 \cdot (\tau - \tau_h)}{f_3 + 2f_4}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \cos \theta(t).$$

$$y_{\max} \sim \frac{\phi E_Z}{E_Z + E_W} \sqrt{\frac{6}{\mu} (\mathcal{T} - \mathcal{T}_{ap})}$$



- ϕ or $E_Z \uparrow \Rightarrow$ larger amplitude.

Transient and persistent chaotic oscillations



Outline

Introduction

Modeling

Synchronous oscillations

Asynchronous oscillations

Summary

Additional material

Summary: synchronous oscillations

- Key model assumptions:
 - + Variant specific + cross-reactive IR \Rightarrow sequential dominance.
 - + Variant specific $\mu \ll$ cross-reactive μ' .
- Synchronous oscillations:
 - + Identify IR efficacies as useful parameters.

$$E_Z \equiv \frac{\alpha\beta}{\mu} \text{ and } E_W \equiv \frac{\alpha'(n\beta')}{\mu'}.$$

- + A large parasite generation rate and a strong cross-reactive IR favors oscillations.
 - + Increases the sensitivity to persistent oscillations due to external “forces” such as a delayed IR.
- Pulsating solutions $\Rightarrow Y \approx 0$ for long times.
Poorly timed measurements of the system could be misleading.

Summary: sync. vs async. oscillations

- Asynchronous oscillations = \sum antiphase.
- Synchronous: decay rate E_W and is fast.
Antiphase: decay rate E_Z and is slow.
Given arbitrary ICs, the likely observation is asynchronous oscillations.
- The frequency of async. is higher than synchrony.
Forces the immune system to respond faster.
- Inc/dec E_W relative to E_Z strengthens/weakens coupling.
 - + Strong coupling: synchronous oscillations.
 - + “Balanced” coupling: sequential dominance.
 - + Very weak coupling: uncoordinated oscillations.

Open questions

- Less than complete set of minor variants.
Dynamics on network.
- Stronger physiologically based model.

Outline

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Additional material

Model of Recker and Gupta

- Recker et al., *Nature* (2004) 429:555-558
- Recker and Gupta, *Bull. Math. Bio* (2006) 68: 821-835
- De Leenheer and Pilyugin, *J. Biological Dynamics* (2008) 2:102-120
- Mitchell and Carr, *Bull. Math. Bio.* (2009) 72:590-610
- Blyuss and Gupta, *J. Math. Biol.* (2009) 58:923-937
- Mitchell and Carr, *submitted*

Warning! Taylor series with delay can be misleading

From R.D. Driver, "Ordinary and Delay Differential Equations"

$$x' = -2x(t) + x(t - \tau)$$

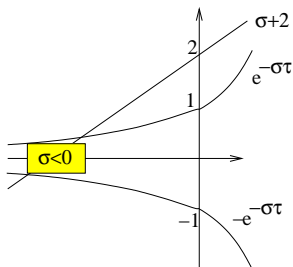
Let $x = e^{\lambda t}$

$$\lambda = -2 + e^{-\lambda\tau}$$

$$\sigma + 2 = e^{-\sigma\tau} \cos(\omega\tau), \quad \omega = -e^{-\sigma\tau} \sin(\omega\tau)$$

Consider the real-part equation

$$|\sigma + 2| \leq e^{-\sigma\tau}$$



$\sigma < 0$: Exponentially decaying solutions

Small delay: $\tau \ll 1$

$$x' = -2x(t) + x(t - \tau)$$

$$x' = -2x(t) + [x(t) - \tau x'(t) + \frac{1}{2}\tau^2 x''(t) + \dots]$$

Let $x = e^{\lambda t}$ and keep $O(\tau^2)$

$$\lambda = -2 + [1 - \tau\lambda + \frac{1}{2}\tau^2\lambda^2]$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\tau^2\lambda^2 - (\tau + 1)\lambda + 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{(\tau + 1) \pm \sqrt{(\tau + 1)^2 - 2\tau^2}}{\tau^2}$$

$\lambda_+ > 0$ for all τ : Exponentially growing solutions.

Must validate analytical results with numerical simulations.