Passing to the limit 2D-1D in a model for metastatic growth

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Abstract

We prove the convergence of a family of solutions to a two-dimensional transport equation with a nonlocal boundary condition modeling the evolution of a population of metastases. We show that when the data of the repartition along the boundary tends to a dirac mass then the solution of the associated problem converges and we derive a simple expression for the limit in term of the solution of a 1D equation. This result permits to improve the computational time needed to simulate the model.

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1 Introduction

In the dynamical evolution of a cancer disease, some cancerous cells can detach from the primary tumor and spread in the organism to form secondary tumors, called metastases. These metastatic tumors can remain very small and beyond the detectable threshold with medical imaging techniques, for instance in the case of the breast cancer, yet existence of occult micrometastases at diagnosis is established [12].

A fundamental process in the tumoral growth, called neo-angiogenesis, consists in establishing a vascular network which ensures to the tumor supply of nutrients and the possibility to spread metastases in the organism. Thus a therapeutic approach first proposed by J. Folkman [10] intends to block this process, aiming at starving the tumor by depriving it from nutrient supply. Though, the clinical question of optimal schedules for anti-angiogenic drugs is still open and is of fundamental importance [9, 17, 15].

In this perspective, the use of a mathematical model can lead to an interesting tool for the study in silico of the temporal administration protocols. Various models have been introduced for the evolution of the primary tumor, that can be separated between two classes : mechanistic models like [13, 5] try to integrate the whole biology of the involved processes and comprise a large number of parameters; on the other hand phenomenological models aim to describe the tumoral growth without taking into account all the complexity levels (see [18] for a review and [11, 8, 2] for examples). In 2000, Iwata et al. proposed a phenomenological model for the evolution of the population of metastases, which was then further studied in [1, 6]. This model did not include the angiogenic process in the tumoral growth, hence we combined it with the tumoral model introduced by Hahnfeldt et al. [11] which takes into account angiogenesis. The resulting partial differential equation is part of the so-called structured population dynamics (see [16] for an introduction to the theory), it is a transport equation with a nonlocal boundary condition. The population of metastases is represented by a density $\rho(t, X)$ with $X$ being the structuring variable, here two-dimensional $X = (x, \theta)$ with $x$ the size (=number of cells) and $\theta$ the so-called “angiogenic capacity". The behavior of each individual of the population, that is the growth rate $G(X)$ of each metastasis is taken from [11] and is designed to take into account for the angiogenic process (see below for its expression).

The equation writes

$$\begin{align*}
\partial_t \rho(t, X) + \text{div}(\rho(t, X)G(X)) &= 0, & (t, X) \in [0, T] \times \Omega
- G \cdot \nu(\rho(t, \sigma) = N(\sigma) \{ \int_{\Omega} \beta(X) \rho(t, X)dX + f(t) \}, & (t, \sigma) \in [0, T] \times \partial \Omega
\rho(0, X) = 0, & X \in \Omega.
\end{align*}$$

(1.1)

where $\Omega$, the birth rate $\beta(X)$, the repartition along the boundary $N(\sigma)$ and the source term $f(t)$ will be specified in the sequel, $T$ is a positive time and $\nu$ is the unit external normal vector to the boundary $\partial \Omega$. The theoretical study of this equation (existence, uniqueness, regularity and asymptotic behavior) has been performed in [3] and in the case of a non-autonomous growth velocity field $G(t, X)$, theoretical and numerical study of the model can be found in [4].

We formulate the biological assumption that the metastases are all born with size 1 and an angiogenic capacity close to a given value $\theta_0$. This is translated in the model by considering a density $N$ (repartition along the boundary) very concentrated around the value $(1, \theta_0)$, for instance $N^\varepsilon(\sigma) = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sigma = (1, \theta_0)\}}$ with $\varepsilon$ being a small parameter. In this paper, we demonstrate that the family of solutions $\{N^\varepsilon\}$ to the problem (1.1) with data $N^\varepsilon$ converges when $\varepsilon$ goes to zero, to the measure solution $\rho(t, dX)$ of the equation (1.1) with the measure boundary data $N(\sigma) = \delta(\sigma = (1, \theta_0))$. Moreover, we derive a simple expression for $\rho(t, dX)$ involving the solution of a one-dimensional renewal equation. This permits to simulate only the 1D equation rather than the 2D one in the applications and greatly improves the computational times.

2 Model

In this section, we describe the modeling approach used to take into account for angiogenesis in the growth of each tumor taken from [11] and its combination with the metastatic model of [14, 1, 6].
2.1 The model of tumoral growth under angiogenic control (Hahnfeldt et al. [11])

Let \( x(t) \) denote the size (number of cells) of a given tumor at time \( t \). The growth of the tumor is modeled by a gompertzian growth rate and the equation is:

\[
\frac{dx}{dt} = g_1(t, x) = ax \ln \left( \frac{\theta}{x} \right),
\]

where \( a \) is a parameter representing the velocity of the growth and \( \theta \) the carrying capacity of the environment. The idea is now to take \( \theta \) as a variable of the time, representing the degree of vascularization of the tumor and called "angiogenic capacity". The variation rate for \( \theta \) derived in [11] is:

\[
\frac{d\theta}{dt} = g_2(t, x, \theta) = cx - d\theta x^{3/2}
\]

where the terms \( cx \) and \( -d\theta x^{2/3} \) represent respectively the endogenous stimulation and inhibition of the vasculature. The factor \( 2/3 \) comes from the analysis of [11] which concluded that the ratio of the stimulation rate over the inhibition one should be homogeneous to the tumoral radius to the square.

2.2 Renewal equation for the density of metastasis

We denote \( X = (x, \theta) \) and \( G(X) = (g_1(x, \theta), g_2(x, \theta)) \). We define \( b = \left( \frac{g}{\theta} \right)^2 \) and \( \Omega = (1, b) \times (1, b) \) where \( b \) is the maximal reachable size and angiogenic capacity for \( (x(t), \theta(t)) \) solving the system (2.1)-(2.2) (see [7] for a qualitative study of this ODE system). We consider that each tumor is a particle evolving in \( \Omega \) with the velocity \( G \). Writing a balance law for the density \( \rho(t, X) \) we have:

\[
\partial_t \rho + \text{div}(\rho G) = 0, \quad \forall (t, X) \in [0, T] \times \Omega
\]

that we endow with a null initial condition (no metastases at the initial time).

Metastasis do not only grow in size and angiogenic capacity, they are also able to emit new metastasis. We denote by \( b(\sigma, x, \theta) \) the birth rate of new metastases with size and angiogenic capacity \( \sigma \in \partial \Omega \) by metastases of size \( x \) and angiogenic capacity \( \theta \), and by \( f(t, \sigma) \) the term corresponding to metastases produced by the primary tumor. Expressing the equality between the number of metastases arriving in \( \Omega \) per unit time (l.h.s. in the following equality) and the total rate of new metastases created by both the primary tumor and metastases themselves (r.h.s.), we should have for all \( t > 0 \)

\[
- \int_{\partial \Omega} \rho(t, \sigma) G(t, \sigma) \cdot \nu d\sigma = \int_{\partial \Omega} \int_{\Omega} b(\sigma, X) \rho(t, X) dX + f(t, \sigma) d\sigma.
\]

We assume that the emission rate of the primary and secondary tumors are equal and thus take \( f(t, \sigma) = b(\sigma, X_0(t)) \) where \( X_0(t) \) represents the primary tumor and solves the ODE system (2.1)-(2.2) endowed with suitable initial conditions. We also assume that the newly created metastases have size \( x = 1 \) and that there is no metastasis of maximal size \( b \) nor maximal or minimal angiogenic capacity because they should come from metastasis outside of \( \Omega \) since \( G \) points inward all along \( \partial \Omega \). An important feature of the model is to assume that the vasculature of a neo-metastasis is independent from the one which emitted it. This means that \( b(\sigma, X) = N(\sigma) \beta(X) \) with \( N(\sigma) \) having its support in \( \{ \sigma \in \partial \Omega; \sigma = (1, \theta), 1 \leq \theta \leq b \} \) and describing the angiogenic distribution of the metastases at birth. We assume that all the metastases are born with an angiogenic capacity close to a given value \( \theta_0 \). Thus, we take \( N \) uniformly centered and concentrated around a mean value \( \theta_0 \)

\[
N(1, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \chi_{[\theta_0-\epsilon, \theta_0+\epsilon]},
\]

with \( \epsilon \) a small parameter of dispersion of the new metastases around \( \theta_0 \). Following the modeling of [14] for the colonization rate \( \beta \) we take

\[
\beta(x, \theta) = mx^\alpha,
\]
with $m$ the colonization coefficient and $\alpha$ the so-called fractal dimension of blood vessels infiltrating the tumor. The parameter $\alpha$ expresses the geometrical distribution of the vessels in the tumor. For example, if the vasculature is superficial then $\alpha$ is assigned to $2/3$ thus making $x^\alpha$ proportional to the area of the surface of the tumor (assumed to be spheroidal). Else if the tumor is homogeneously vascularised, then $\alpha$ is supposed to be equal to 1. Assuming the equality of the integrands in (2.4) in order to have the equality of the integrals, we obtain the boundary condition of (1.1) where we denoted $f(t) = \beta(X_p(t))$.

3 Limit 2D-1D

Figure 1: Phase plan of the system (2.1)-(2.2). The solution is zero out of the stared characteristics coming from points of the boundary $(1, \theta)$ with $\theta \in [\theta_0 - \varepsilon, \theta_0 + \varepsilon]$. The values of the parameters are chosen for illustrative purposes and are not realistic ones: $a = 2$, $c = 5.85$, $d = 0.1$, $\theta_1 = 200$, $\varepsilon = 100$.

A modeling hypothesis consists in considering that the newly created metastases are all born with the same given vasculature $\theta_0$ and not distributed around this value. At least, the distribution $N(\sigma)$ should be very concentrated around the value $\sigma_0 = (1, \theta_0)$. In this case, we would like to know if we can replace the function $N$ by a dirac mass centered in $\sigma_0$, in the equation (1.1). Mathematically, the problem is to determine whether the family of solutions $\{\rho^\varepsilon\}$ to the problems

$$
\begin{align*}
&\partial_t \rho^\varepsilon + \text{div}(\rho^\varepsilon G) = 0 \\
&-G \cdot \nu(\sigma)\rho^\varepsilon(t, \sigma) = N^\varepsilon(\sigma) \left\{ \int_\Omega \beta(X)\rho^\varepsilon(t, X) + f(t) \right\} \\
&\rho^\varepsilon(0) = 0
\end{align*}
$$

with $N^\varepsilon(\sigma) = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}1_{\{\sigma = (1, \theta); \theta \in [\theta_0 - \varepsilon, \theta_0 + \varepsilon]\}}$ converges when $\varepsilon$ goes to zero and to determine its limit. See figure 1 for an illustration. The theorem of this section demonstrates that the family $\{\rho^\varepsilon\}$ converges to the measure solution $\rho(t, dX) \in \mathcal{C}(\[0, T\]; \mathcal{M}(\Omega))$ (see below for the definition of $\mathcal{M}(\Omega)$) of the problem

$$
\begin{align*}
&\partial_t \rho + \text{div}(\rho G) = 0 \\
&-G \cdot \nu(\sigma)\rho(t, \sigma) = \delta_{\{\sigma = \sigma_0\}} \left\{ \int_\Omega \beta(X)\rho(t, dX) + f(t) \right\} \\
&\rho(0) = 0
\end{align*}
$$

and gives a simple expression for the limit. For $\Omega = \Omega$, $\partial \Omega$ or $[0, T] \times \partial \Omega$, we will denote $\mathcal{M}(\Omega) := C^b_0(\Omega)$ the set of continuous linear forms on the Banach space of bounded continuous functions on $\Omega$. We denote $\mathcal{C}(\[0, T\]; * - \mathcal{M}(\Omega))$ the set of continuous functions with values in $\mathcal{M}(\Omega)$, the continuity being taken in
the sense of the weak-∗ topology. We give now the definition of weak solution to the problem (1.1) when
N is a measure on ∂Ω.

Definition 1. (Weak solution) Let N(da) ∈ M(∂Ω). We say that a measure ρ(t, dX) ∈ C([0, T]; M(Ω)) is a weak solution of the problem (1.1) if for all ψ ∈ C(0, T] × Ω) with ψ(T, ·) = 0

\int_0^T < ρ(t, ·), \partial_t ψ + G · ∇ψ > dt + \int_0^T < N, {B(t, ρ) + f(t)} > dt = 0

where B(t, ρ) = < ρ(t, ·), β > and < ·, · > denote the duality crochet between a measure space and its
associated space of continuous functions.

The proof of the theorem requires the following technical lemma.

Lemma 1. Let \{ε_k\}_k∈N be a sequence going to zero, N^k(σ) = N^ε_k(σ) and \{n^k(t, τ)\}_k∈N be a sequence of functions of C([0, T]; L^1([0, T])) such that n^k \xrightarrow[k→∞]{} n. Then

N^k ≪ δ_σ=σ_0 ∩ n(t, τ)dτ, in C([0, T]; * - M([0, T] × ∂Ω)).

Proof. We compute, for t ∈ [0, T] and ψ ∈ C_0([0, T] × ∂Ω) :

\left| \int_0^T n^k(t, τ) \int_{∂Ω} N^k(σ)ψ(τ, σ)dσ - n(t, τ)ψ(τ, σ_0)dσdτ \right| ≤

\int_0^T \int_{∂Ω} |N^k(σ)ψ(τ, σ)dσ| |n^k(t, τ) - n(t, τ)| dτ

+ \int_0^T |n(t, τ)| \int_{∂Ω} |N^k(σ)(ψ(τ, σ) - ψ(τ, σ_0))dσ| dτ

≤ ||ψ||_{L^∞([0, T] × ∂Ω)} ||n^k(t, ·) - n(t, ·)||_{L^1([0, T])}

+ ||n(t, ·)||_{L^1([0, T])} \sup_{τ ∈ [0, T]} \sup_{σ ∈ [σ_0 - ε_k, σ_0 + ε_k]} |ψ(τ, σ) - ψ(τ, σ_0)|.

Taking the supremum in t and passing to the limit k → ∞ gives the result.

We establish now the theorem of this paper.

Theorem 1. (Convergence) Let G being defined by (2.1)-(2.2), β ∈ C(Ω), f ∈ L^1([0, T]) and N^ε given by (2.5). Let ρ^ε be the weak solution of the equation (3.1). Then

ρ^ε → ρ ∈ C([0, T]; M(Ω)),

the convergence being in C([0, T]; * - M(Ω)) for all T > 0. The expression of ρ is given by : for all ψ ∈ C_0(Ω)

< ρ(t, ·), ψ > = \int_0^∞ ψ(Φ^τ(σ_0))n(t, ρ)dτ

with Φ^τ(σ) the solution of the differential equation \frac{dX}{dτ} = G(X) with initial condition σ and n the solution of the following 1D problem

\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\partial_t n + \partial_τ n = 0, \\
n(t, 0) = \int_0^∞ β(Φ^τ(σ_0))n(t, τ) + f(t), \\
n(0, τ) = 0,
\end{array}\right. t > 0, τ > 0

Moreover, the measure ρ is the weak solution of (3.2).
Proof.
• Step 1. Simplification of the problem. Let \( \{ \varepsilon_k \}_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \) be a sequence going to zero, \( T > 0 \) and let \( \rho^k := \rho^{\varepsilon_k} \).
We suppose for now that \( f \in C^1 \) and \( f(0) = 0 \) in order to have regular solutions \( \rho^k \in C^1([0, \infty); L^1(\Omega)) \cap C([0, \infty]; W_{div}(\Omega)) \) to the problem (3.1) (see [3]), where \( W_{div}(\Omega) := \{ V \in L^1(\Omega); \ div(GV) \in L^1(\Omega) \} \). We define
\[
\tilde{\rho}^k(t, \tau, \sigma) = \rho(t, \Phi_\varepsilon(\sigma))|J_\Phi|
\]
where \( \Phi_\varepsilon(\sigma) \) is the solution of the differential equation \( \frac{dX}{dt} = G(X) \) with initial condition \( \sigma \). As proved in [3], this application is a locally bilipschitz homeomorphism between \( \Omega \) and \( [0, T] \times \partial \Omega \setminus (b, b) \) and hence can be used as a change of variable. We denote \( J_\Phi = \det(D\Phi) \) the jacobian of \( \Phi \) which verifies \( \partial_\tau J_\Phi = \text{div}(G)|J_\Phi| \). Then \( \tilde{\rho}^k \) solves the equation
\[
\begin{cases}
\partial_t \tilde{\rho}^k + \partial_\tau \tilde{\rho}^k = 0 \\
\tilde{\rho}^k(t, 0, \sigma) = N^k(\sigma) \left\{ \int_0^\infty \int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\beta}(\tau, \sigma') \tilde{\rho}^k(t - \tau, \tau', \sigma') d\tau' ds' + f(t - \tau) \right\}
\end{cases}
\]
(3.6)
set for \( (t, \tau, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+ \times \partial \Omega \) and where \( \tilde{\beta}(\tau, \sigma) = \beta(\Phi_\varepsilon(\sigma)). \)
• Step 2. Convergence for the sequence \( \tilde{\rho}^k \). From the expression of the solutions given by the method of characteristics we have:
\[
n^k(t, \tau) = \int_0^\infty \int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\beta}(\tau', \sigma') \tilde{\rho}^k(t - \tau, \tau', \sigma') d\tau' ds' + f(t - \tau)
\]
(3.7)
where \( N^k = N^{\varepsilon_k} \). Now we define
\[
n^k(t, \tau) = \int_0^\infty \int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\beta}(\tau', \sigma') \tilde{\rho}^k(t - \tau, \tau', \sigma') d\tau' ds' + f(t - \tau)
\]
(3.8)
which we recognize being the solution of the following 1D problem:
\[
\begin{cases}
\partial_t n^k + \partial_\tau n^k = 0 & t > 0, \tau > 0 \\
n^k(t, 0) = \int_0^\infty B^k(\tau) n^k(t, \tau) d\tau + f(t) & t \geq 0 \\
n^k(0, \tau) = 0 & \tau \geq 0
\end{cases}
\]
(3.9)
with \( B^k(\tau) = \int_{\partial \Omega} N^k(\sigma) \tilde{\beta}(\tau, \sigma) d\sigma \). Indeed, the partial differential equation comes from differentiating the expression of \( n^k \) and the boundary condition follows from
\[
n^k(t, 0) = \int_0^\infty \int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\beta}(\tau', \sigma') \tilde{\rho}^k(t - \tau, \tau', \sigma') d\tau' ds' + f(t)
\]
\[
= \int_0^\infty \int_{\partial \Omega} \tilde{\beta}(\tau', \sigma') N^k(\sigma') n^k(t, \tau') d\tau' ds' + f(t)
\]
where we used \( \tilde{\rho}^k(t, \tau', \sigma') = N^k(\sigma') n^k(t, \tau') \) from (3.7). Now we have that since the data \( f \) is regular and satisfies the compatibility condition, \( n^k \in C^1([0, T]; L^1([0, T])) \cap C([0, T]; W^{1,1}([0, T])) \), and the following bound stands:
\[
||n^k(t, \cdot)||_{L^1} \leq e^{\varepsilon_k ||B^k||_1} \int_0^t e^{-\varepsilon_k ||B^k||_1 ||f(s)||} ds \leq e^{\varepsilon_k ||\beta||_1} \int_0^t ||f(s)|| ds, \ \forall k
\]
(3.10)
where we used that \( ||B^k||_1 \leq ||\beta||_1 \) for all \( k \). Differentiating in time the equation (legitimate since the solution is regular), we also have bounds on the derivatives:
\[
||\partial_t n^k(t, \cdot)||_{L^1} \leq e^{\varepsilon_k ||\beta||_1} \int_0^t ||f'(s)|| ds, \ ||\partial_\tau n^k(t, \cdot)||_{L^1} \leq e^{\varepsilon_k ||\beta||_1} \int_0^t ||f'(s)|| ds.
\]
Using the compact embedding of $W^{1,1}(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d)$ into $L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d)$, we obtain that for each $t$, the sequence $n^k(t,\cdot)$ is relatively compact in $L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d)$ and then, since $\partial_t n^k$ is bounded in $C([0,T];L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d))$ the Ascoli theorem proves that there exists a subsequence which converges in $C([0,T];L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d))$ to a function $n$. Now we pass to the limit in the expression $n^k(t,\tau) = \int_0^t B^k(r)n^k(t-r,\tau)dr + f(t-\tau)$ to see that $n$ satisfies
\[
n(t,\tau) = \int_0^t \beta(\Phi_{t-\tau}(\sigma_0))n(t-\tau,\tau')d\tau' + f(t-\tau)
\]
that is, $n \in C([0,T];L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d))$ is the solution of
\[
(3.11) \quad \begin{cases}
\partial_t n + \partial_{\tau} n = 0 & t > 0, \tau > 0 \\
n(t,0) = \int_0^\infty \beta(\Phi_{\tau}(\sigma_0))n(t,\tau)d\tau + f(t) & t \geq 0 \\
n(0,\tau) = 0 & \tau \geq 0
\end{cases}
\]
By uniqueness of the solution to this equation, we obtain that the whole sequence $n^k$ converges to $n$. Now, from $\tilde{\rho}^k(t,\tau,\sigma) = N^k(\sigma)n^k(t,\tau)$, using the lemma 1, we get
\[
(3.12) \quad \tilde{\rho}^k(t,\tau,\sigma) \rightarrow \tilde{\rho}(t,\tau,\sigma) = \delta_{\sigma=\sigma_0} \otimes n(t,\tau)d\tau, \text{ in } C([0,T],* - M([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)).
\]
We remark from its expression that we have $\tilde{\rho} \in C([0,T];M([0,T]\times \partial \Omega))$ as well as the following bound :
\[
(3.13) \quad \|\tilde{\rho}(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} \leq \epsilon \|\tilde{\rho}\|_{M} \int_0^t |f(s)|ds.
\]
\begin{itemize}
    \item **Step 3. Back to weak solutions.** For a general data $f \in L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d)$, we consider a regularized sequence $f_m \in C^1([0,T])$ with $f_m(0) = 0$ which converges to $f$ in $L^1(0,T;\mathbb{R}^d)$, and define $\tilde{\rho}^k_m$ the associated solution. For each $m$, the previous step gives a measure $\tilde{\rho}^k_m = \delta_{\sigma=\sigma_0} \otimes n^k_m(t,\tau)d\tau$, with $n^k_m$ the solution of the problem (3.11) with data $f_m$. The bound (3.13) shows that the sequence $\tilde{\rho}^k_m$ is a Cauchy one, thus it converges in $C([0,T];\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega))$ to a measure $\tilde{\rho} \in C([0,T];\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega))$. Then we can write, for $\psi \in C_0([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)$ :
\[
\|\tilde{\rho}^k(t,\cdot) - \tilde{\rho}(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} \leq C \|\tilde{\rho}^k_m(t,\cdot) - \tilde{\rho}_m(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} \leq C \|f - f_m\|_{L^1} (\text{see [3] for a similar bound as (3.10) in the two-dimensional case of the equation (3.1))}.
\]
Thus for all $m$ we have, using that $\|\tilde{\rho}^k(t,\cdot) - \tilde{\rho}_m(t,\cdot)\|_{L^1} \leq C \|f - f_m\|_{L^1}$ (see [3] for a similar bound as (3.10) in the two-dimensional case of the equation (3.1))
\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} \|\tilde{\rho}^k(t,\cdot) - \tilde{\rho}(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} \leq C \|f - f_m\|_{L^1} \|\psi\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} + \|\tilde{\rho}^k_m - \tilde{\rho}_m(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)} \leq \|\tilde{\rho}^k_m - \tilde{\rho}_m(t,\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega)}.
\]
Choosing now $m$ large enough shows that $\tilde{\rho}^k \rightarrow \tilde{\rho}$ in $C([0,T];* - \mathcal{M}([0,T]\times \partial \Omega))$. Passing to the limit in the expression of $\tilde{\rho}$, we see that the expression (3.12) is still valid.
\begin{itemize}
    \item **Step 4. Back to $\rho^k$.** Denoting also $\rho^k$ the measure on $\Omega$ with density $\rho^k$ and in the same way $\tilde{\rho}^k$ the measure on $[0,\infty[\times \partial \Omega$ with density $\tilde{\rho}^k$, we observe from the following identity, where $\Phi$ is the map $[0,\infty[\times \partial \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$, $(\tau,\sigma) \mapsto \Phi_{\tau}(\sigma)$
\[
\int_A \rho^k = \int_A \rho^k(t,x,\theta)d\theta = \int_{\Phi^{-1}(A)} \rho^k(t,\Phi_{\tau}(\sigma))d\tau d\sigma = \int_{\Phi^{-1}(A)} \tilde{\rho}^k, \quad \forall A \subset \Omega
\]
that $\rho^k$ is the push-forward of the measure $\tilde{\rho}^k$ by $\Phi$, that we denote $\tilde{\rho}^k_{\Phi}$. Thus we have $\rho^k = \tilde{\rho}^k_{\Phi} \rightarrow \rho_{\Phi} := \rho$, the convergence being in $C([0,T];* - \mathcal{M}(\Omega))$. The measure $\rho(t,dX)$ is given by : for all $t > 0$ and all $\psi \in C_0(\Omega)$
\[
\langle \rho(t,\cdot), \psi \rangle := \int_0^\infty \psi(\Phi_{\tau}(\sigma_0))n(t,\tau)d\tau.
\]
Direct computations with this expression in the weak formulation of solutions to the equation (3.2) (or passing to the limit in the weak formulation of solutions to the equation (3.1)) shows that $\rho$ solves the problem (3.2).
Remark 1. (Uniqueness for (3.2)) In the proof of the previous theorem, we didn’t need to address the question of uniqueness of solutions to the problem (3.2). However, there is uniqueness and it can be proved by the standard method of establishing existence of regular solutions to the adjoint problem. Indeed here the adjoint problem for a measure data $N \in \mathcal{M}(\partial \Omega)$ and a source term in $S \in C^1_c([0,T] \times \Omega)$ writes
\[
\partial_t \psi + G \cdot \nabla \psi + \beta < N, \psi|_{\partial \Omega}(t, \cdot) >= S.
\]
It can be shown using the method of characteristics and a fixed point argument that this equation admits a regular solution $\psi \in C^1([0,T] \times \Omega)$, with $\psi(T, \cdot) = 0$. Using this solution in the week formulation (3.3) for a null boundary data gives that $\int_0^T < \rho(t, \cdot), S > dt = 0$. This identity being true for all $S \in C^1_c([0,T] \times \Omega)$ gives the result.

Remark 2. (Linear density) To model directly the situation where all the metastases are born with the same angiogenic capacity $\theta_0$, we could consider that the metastases evolve on the one-dimensional curve $\gamma := \{ \Phi_\tau(\sigma_0); \tau \geq 0 \}$ and model the number of metastases via a linear density $\rho_1 : [0,T] \times \gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then the number of metastases on the curve between the points $X_1 = \Phi_{\tau_1}(\sigma_0)$ and $X_2 = \Phi_{\tau_2}(\sigma_0)$ would be given by $\int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} \rho_1(t, \Phi_\tau(\sigma_0)) |G(\Phi_\tau(\sigma_0))| d\tau$, since $\partial_\tau \Phi_\tau(\sigma_0) = G(\Phi_\tau(\sigma_0))$. Comparing this approach to the previous one where, after passing to the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, the number of metastases between $X_1$ and $X_2$ is $\int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} n(t, \tau) d\tau$ (from formula (3.4)), the analogy would be to identify $n(t, \tau) = \rho_1(t, \Phi_\tau(\sigma_0)) |G(\Phi_\tau(\sigma_0))|$ and thus this last quantity would solve the problem (3.11). In the linear density approach, it would not be possible to derive a simple equation on $\rho_1$ since $\partial_\tau |G(\Phi_\tau(\sigma_0))|$ has not a simple expression comparing to $\partial_\tau |J_{\Phi_0}| = \text{div}(G)|J_{\Phi_0}|$ which gives the equation (2.3) in the 2D modeling approach.

4 Numerical illustration

In [4], we developed a numerical scheme to simulate the problem (1.1). It is a Lagrangian scheme based on the method of characteristics which consists in discretizing the boundary and simulating the equation along each characteristic curve coming from the boundary, after having straightened it. Because the equation is two-dimensional simulating the equation can have a high computational cost, especially for large times. Thanks to the theorem 1 if we make the biological assumption that all the metastases are born with an angiogenic capacity close to the value $\theta_0$, then the total number of metastases at time $t$ is close to $\int_0^t n(t, \tau) d\tau$, with $n$ being the solution of (3.5). Thus we only have to simulate this last equation, which with our scheme consists in simulating along only the characteristic coming from the point $(1, \sigma_0)$. The convergence of the theorem (1) is illustrated in the figure 2. It is plotted the relative difference for the total number of metastases at the end of the simulation, between the simulation in 1D and the one in 2D for various values of $\varepsilon$. That is, if $T$ is the end time of the simulation :
\[
\frac{\left| \int_0^T n(T, \tau) d\tau - \int_0^T \rho_1\tau(T, X) dX \right|}{\int_0^T n(T, \tau) d\tau}.
\]
We see that it decreases to zero as $\varepsilon$ goes to zero.

In the table 1 are given various computational times on a personal computer for the simulation in 2D and in 1D. The simulations were performed with the same parameters as in the figure 2 and for the 2D simulations we used $\varepsilon = 0.1$ and $M = 10$ points of discretization of the boundary.

| $T$ | 2D       | 1D       |
|-----|----------|----------|
| 15 days, dt=0.1 | 67 sec  | 10.69 sec |
| 15 days, dt=0.01 | 1h42 min | 11 min   |
| 100 days, dt=0.1 | 46 min  | 4.7 min  |

Table 1: Computational times on a personal computer of various simulations in 1D and 2D.
Figure 2: Relative difference between the 1D simulation and the 2D one, for 4 values of $\varepsilon$: 100, 50, 10, 1 and 0.1. The values of the parameters for the growth velocity field $G$ are from [11] and correspond to mice data: $a = 0.192$, $c = 5.85$, $d = 0.00873$, $\theta_0 = 625$. For the metastasis parameters, we used: $m = 0.001$ and $\alpha = 2/3$. The total time of the simulation is $T = 15$, with a time step $dt = 0.1$. For the 2D simulations, we discretized the boundary with $M = 10$ points.

We observe that simulating in 1D improves greatly the computational times, especially for the large time simulations. Since the evolution of a cancer disease can be very slow, it is important to be able to simulate the model for large times (say, more than a year in the human case). Here the times are in days and we see that thanks to the convergence of the theorem 1, the numerical method for simulating the model can be greatly improved in terms of the computational cost.

5 Conclusion

We proved the convergence of the family $\{\rho^\varepsilon\}$ of the solutions to the problem (3.1), to the one of the problem (3.2), and established a simple expression for the limit in term of the solution of a 1D equation. This is of great importance in view of the applications since we can simulate only the 1D equation and thus highly improve the computational cost. The model is now ready to be a useful tool with two main possible applications.

First it can be used as a diagnostic tool, to refine the actual classifications like TNM or SBR, which deal only with the visible metastases. Indeed, identifying the parameters $m$ and $\alpha$ for a given patient could determine the metastatic aggressiveness of its cancer. A fundamental problem in this direction that needs to be addressed is the mathematical parameter identifiability (inverse problem). Efficient numerical methods have also to be developed to achieve practical parameter identification, which will permit to confront the model to real data in order to study its validity as a phenomenological model.

The second main application of the model is its use in the rationalization of the temporal administration protocols for an anti-angiogenic drug alone as well as in combination with a cytotoxic drug. Finding the optimal schedule for these issues is still a clinical open question. The associated optimization problems through the model have to be solved both at theoretical and numerical levels.

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