Numerical Solutions to Differential Equations Lecture Notes $\#5\frac{1}{2}$ — Application of RK Methods to Lotka-Volterra Models

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- 1 Lotka Volterra Predator-Prey Models
 - Introduction; Modeling
 - Equilibrium Analysis
- 2 Modeling and Fitting with Real Data...
 - The Data Set
 - Initializing
 - Finding Optimal Parameters

Acknowledgment: This lecture adopted from Joe Mahaffy's notes from Math 636: Mathematical Modeling.

Introduction

The Lotka^[1]-Volterra^[2] predator-prey model was introduced by Lotka in 1910 (for chemical reactions), and extended by Volterra in 1920 to model organic systems; the equation form famous today was introduced in 1925.



Google scholar returns 18,400 hits for the search "lotka volterra" with the restriction "since 2000."

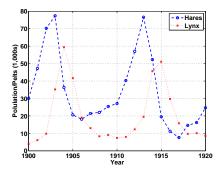
We will examine mathematical models and Runge-Kutta based simulations for two species that are intertwined in a predator-prey or host-parasite relationship.

The discussion will be fairly complete, but we will gloss over (some) theoretical details that are not the focal point of *this class*.

^[1] Alfred James Lotka (March 2, 1880 December 5, 1949)

^[2] Vito Volterra (3 May 1860 11 October 1940)

The Lynx-Hare system has been extensively studied, mainly because the Hudson Bay company kept careful records of all furs from the early 1800s into the 1900s^[1]. [RIGHT] Graph of the partial data-set, 1900-1920.



[1] Charles Elton and Mary Nicholson, *The Ten-Year Cycle in Numbers of the Lynx in Canada*, Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 11, No. 2 (Nov., 1942), pp. 215-244.

Let H(t) be the population of hares, and L(t) be the population of lynx.

The rate of change in a population is equal to the net increase (births) into the population minus the net decrease (deaths) of the population.

In a naive model we have: (1) The primary growth in the hare population is Malthusian (the population grows in proportion to its own population) $a_1 H(t)$. (2) Predation, being the only reason for hare population decline, modeled by assuming random Lynx-Hare contact, $-a_2H(t)L(t)$; so

$$\frac{dH(t)}{dt} = a_1H(t) - a_2H(t)L(t).$$

Assuming that hares are the main food source for lynx: the growth of the lynx population is similar to the death rate for the hare population with a different constant of proportionality: $b_2H(t)L(t)$. The loss of lynx is presumed to be a type of reverse Malthusian growth. That is, in the absence of hares, the lynx population declines in proportion to their own population, which mathematically is given by the negative modeling term, $-b_1L(t)$; so

$$\frac{dL(t)}{dt} = -b_1L(t) + b_2H(t)L(t).$$

Note: The model ignores the role of climate variation and the interactions of other species, including human disturbance. Other significant factors that are ignored in this modeling effort are the ages of the animals and the spatial distribution.

$$\frac{dH(t)}{dt} = a_1H(t) - a_2H(t)L(t)$$
$$\frac{dL(t)}{dt} = -b_1L(t) + b_2H(t)L(t).$$

By inspection we see that we have equilibria for the cases

$$(H, L) \in \{ (0, 0), (b_1/b_2, a_1/a_2) \}.$$

These equilibria do not help explain the oscillatory behavior of the lynx and snowshoe hare. We examine the stability of these solutions, by computing the **Jacobian**:

$$J(H,L) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 - a_2 L(t) & -a_2 H(t) \\ b_2 L(t) & -b_1 + b_2 H(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Stationary Points & Behavior

We find

$$J(0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ 0 & -b_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_1 = a_1, \ \xi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \ \lambda_2 = -b_1, \ \xi_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which shows that (0,0) is a saddle node, with exponential growth along the Hare(t) axis, and decay along the Lynx(t) axis. 4 nanoseconds of thought confirms that's what we should expect!

$$J(b_1/b_2, a_1/a_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{a_2b_1}{b_2} \\ \frac{a_1b_2}{a_2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{1,2} = \pm i\sqrt{a_1b_1} = \pm i\omega$$

To linear order this generates periodic solutions

$$\begin{bmatrix} H_L(t) \\ L_L(t) \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\omega t) \\ A\sin(\omega t) \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} \sin(\omega t) \\ -A\cos(\omega t) \end{bmatrix}, \ A = \frac{b_2}{a_2} \sqrt{\frac{a_1}{b_1}}.$$

The linear solution produces a structurally unstable model, because small perturbations from the nonlinear terms result in the solution either spiraling toward or away from the equilibirum.

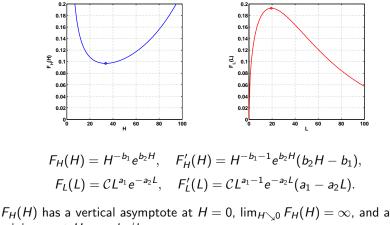
However, there are periodic **limit cycles** for all initial conditions in the 1^{st} quadrant: formally divide the equations (taking time out of the picture)

$$\frac{dH}{dL} = \frac{a_1H - a_2HL}{-b_1L + b_2HL}$$

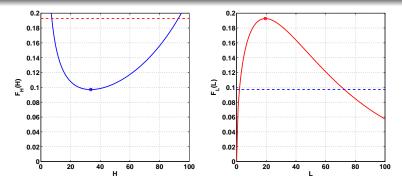
which has the implicit solution

$$\underbrace{H^{-b_1}e^{b_2H}}_{F_H(H)} = \underbrace{\mathcal{C}L^{a_1}e^{-a_2L}}_{F_L(L)}.$$

Characterizing the Solution



minimum at $H_{\min} = b_1/b_2$. $F_L(L)$ has a maximum at $F_{\max} = a_1/a_2$, $F_L(0) = 0$, and $\lim_{L\to\infty} F_L(L) = 0$.

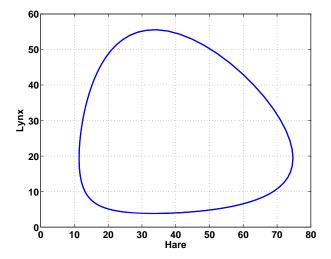


These functions are equal (with $F_L(L)$ shifting depending on the integration constant, C.) This can only happen on the range

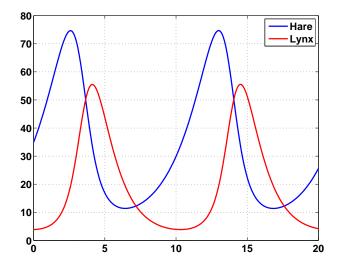
 $[\min F_H(H), \max F_L(L)].$

Since $F_L(L)/F_H(H)$ takes two values at the min/max of $F_H(H)/F_L(L)$, it follows that there must be a periodic orbit.

Periodic Orbits



Periodic Orbits



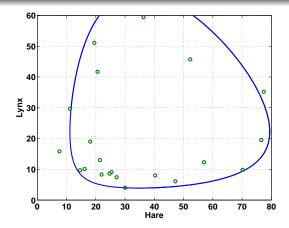
Year	Hare (1,000)	Lynx (1,000)	Year	Hare (1,000)	Lynx (1,000)
1900	30	4	1911	40.3	8
1901	47.2	6.1	1912	57	12.3
1902	70.2	9.8	1913	76.6	19.5
1903	77.4	35.2	1914	52.3	45.7
1904	36.3	59.4	1915	19.5	51.1
1905	20.6	41.7	1916	11.2	29.7
1906	18.1	19	1917	7.6	15.8
1907	21.4	13	1918	14.6	9.7
1908	22	8.3	1919	16.2	10.1
1909	25.4	9.1	1920	24.7	8.6
1910	27.1	7.4			

One might wonder what the parameters a_1 , a_2 , b_1 , and b_2 are???

We set our initial conditions to H(0) = 30, and L(0) = 4 (from the data).

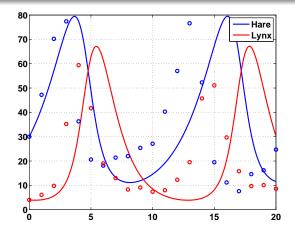
By averaging the data over one period (eye-balled at about 12 years), and looking at snapshots of rapid growth/decay in the populations, it is possible (see Math 636 for the real discussion) to come up with some useful estimates to get things going, *e.g.*

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_{\min} &= rac{b_1}{b_2} pprox \mathcal{H}_{ ext{mean}} pprox 34.6, \quad \mathcal{L}_{ ext{max}} &= rac{a_1}{a_2} pprox \mathcal{L}_{ ext{mean}} pprox 22.1, \ && \mathbf{a_1 b_1} pprox rac{\pi^2}{36} pprox 0.274, \ && \mathbf{a_1} = \mathbf{0.397}, \quad \mathbf{b_1} = \mathbf{0.786}, \quad a_2 = 0.018, \quad b_2 = 0.023. \end{aligned}$$



 $H(0) = 30, \ L(0) = 4, \ a_1 = 0.397, \ a_2 = 0.018, \ b_1 = 0.786, \ b_2 = 0.023$

Periodic Orbits; Guessed Parameters



 $H(0) = 30, L(0) = 4, a_1 = 0.397, a_2 = 0.018, b_1 = 0.786, b_2 = 0.023$

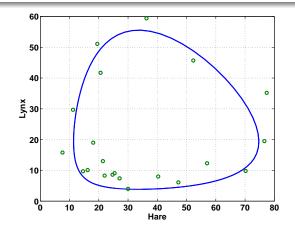
Using a bit of black-box technlogy (Matlab's fminsearch) related to Math 693a, and RKF45 (known as ode45 in Matlab) we can set up a search for the optimal (as measured in the sum-of-squares-sense) parameters

 $H_0^*,\ L_0^*,\ a_1^*,\ a_2^*,\ b_1^*,\ b_2^*.$

```
Matlab Code: Fragment #2 - Optimize
% This finds the min...
[p,fval,exitflag] = fminsearch(@leastcomp,p,[],td,hare,lynx);
%Compute the least squares error of current guess
function J = leastcomp(p,tdata,xdata,ydata)
[t,y] = ode45(@lotvol,tdata,[p(1),p(2)],[],p(3),p(4),p(5),p(6));
errx = y(:,1) - xdata';
erry = y(:,2) - ydata';
J = sum( abs(errx).<sup>2</sup>) + sum(abs(erry).<sup>2</sup>);
% Predator and Prev ODE Model
function dydt = lotvol(t,y,a1,a2,b1,b2)
tmp1 = a1*y(1) - a2*y(1)*y(2);
tmp2 = -b1*y(2) + b2*y(1)*y(2);
dydt = [tmp1; tmp2];
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$\langle\langle$ play with matlab code $\rangle\rangle$

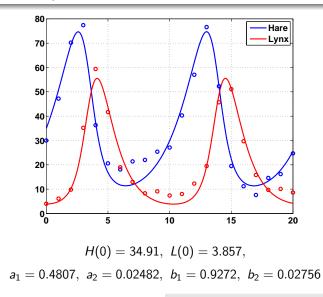
Periodic Orbits; Optimal Parameters



 $H(0) = 34.91, \ L(0) = 3.857,$ $a_1 = 0.4807, \ a_2 = 0.02482, \ b_1 = 0.9272, \ b_2 = 0.02756$

Application of RK Methods to Lotka-Volterra - (21/23)

Periodic Orbits; Optimal Parameters



Using ode23 (2nd-3rd order RK) we get

H(0) = 34.91, L(0) = 3.857,

 $a_1 = 0.4807, \ a_2 = 0.02482, \ b_1 = 0.9272, \ b_2 = 0.02756$

with a sum-of-squares error of 594.9.

Using ode45 (4nd-5th order RK) we get

$$H(0) = 36.90, L(0) = 3.029,$$

 $a_1 = 0.4121, \ a_2 = 0.02249, \ b_1 = 1.089, \ b_2 = 0.03170$

with a sum-of-squares error of 651.6.