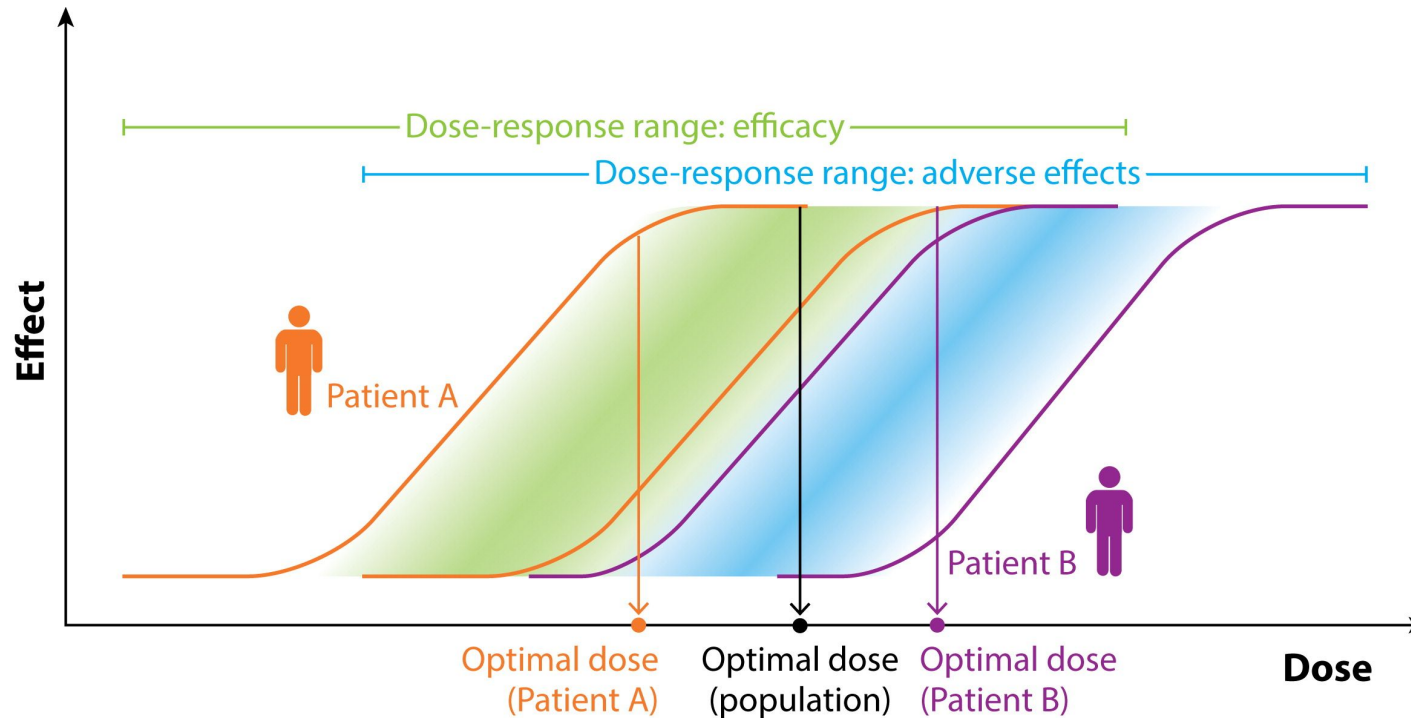


AMIDD Lecture 9: Population Modelling and Clinical Trials



Peck, Richard W. 2018. "[Precision Medicine Is Not Just Genomics: The Right Dose for Every Patient.](#)" *Annual Review of Pharmacology and Toxicology* 58 (1): 105–22..

AR Peck RW. 2018.
Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 58:105–22

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A linear model has one level of variability

The frequentist's language

$$y_i = f(x) + \epsilon$$

$$f(x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$$

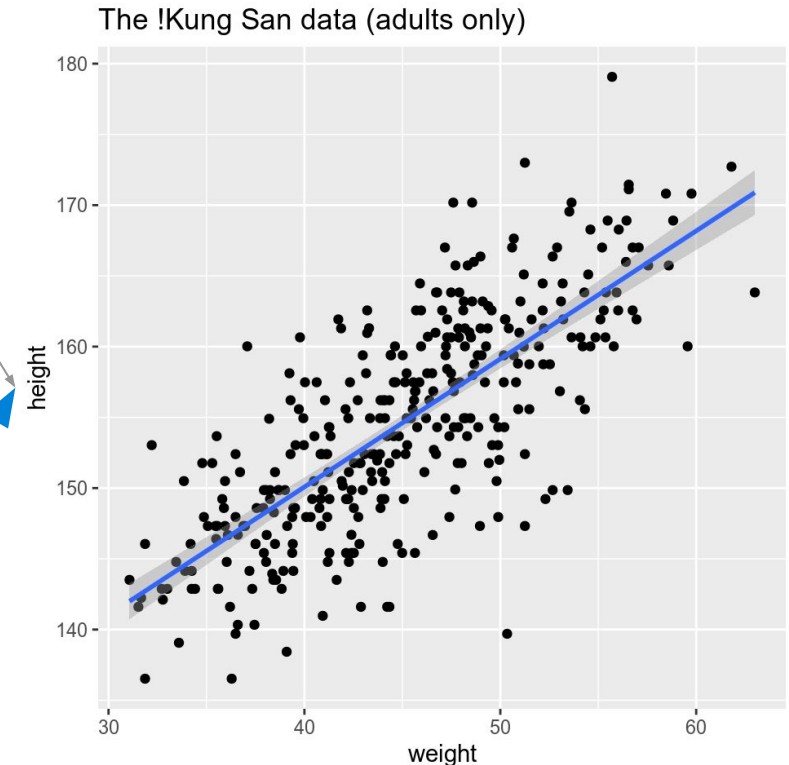
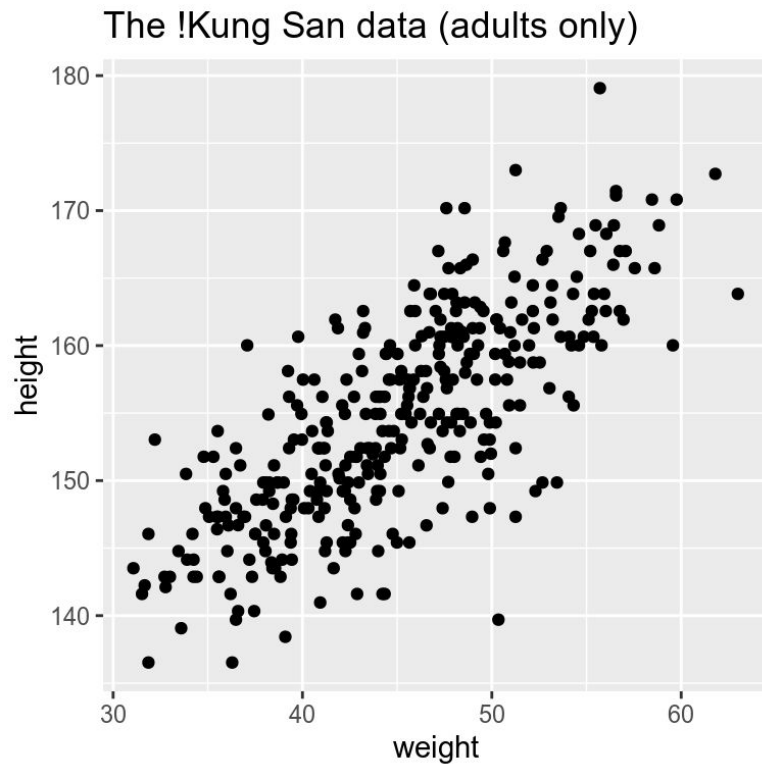
The Bayesian's language,
with some personal priors

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

$$\mu = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

$$\alpha \sim \mathcal{N}(169, 20)$$

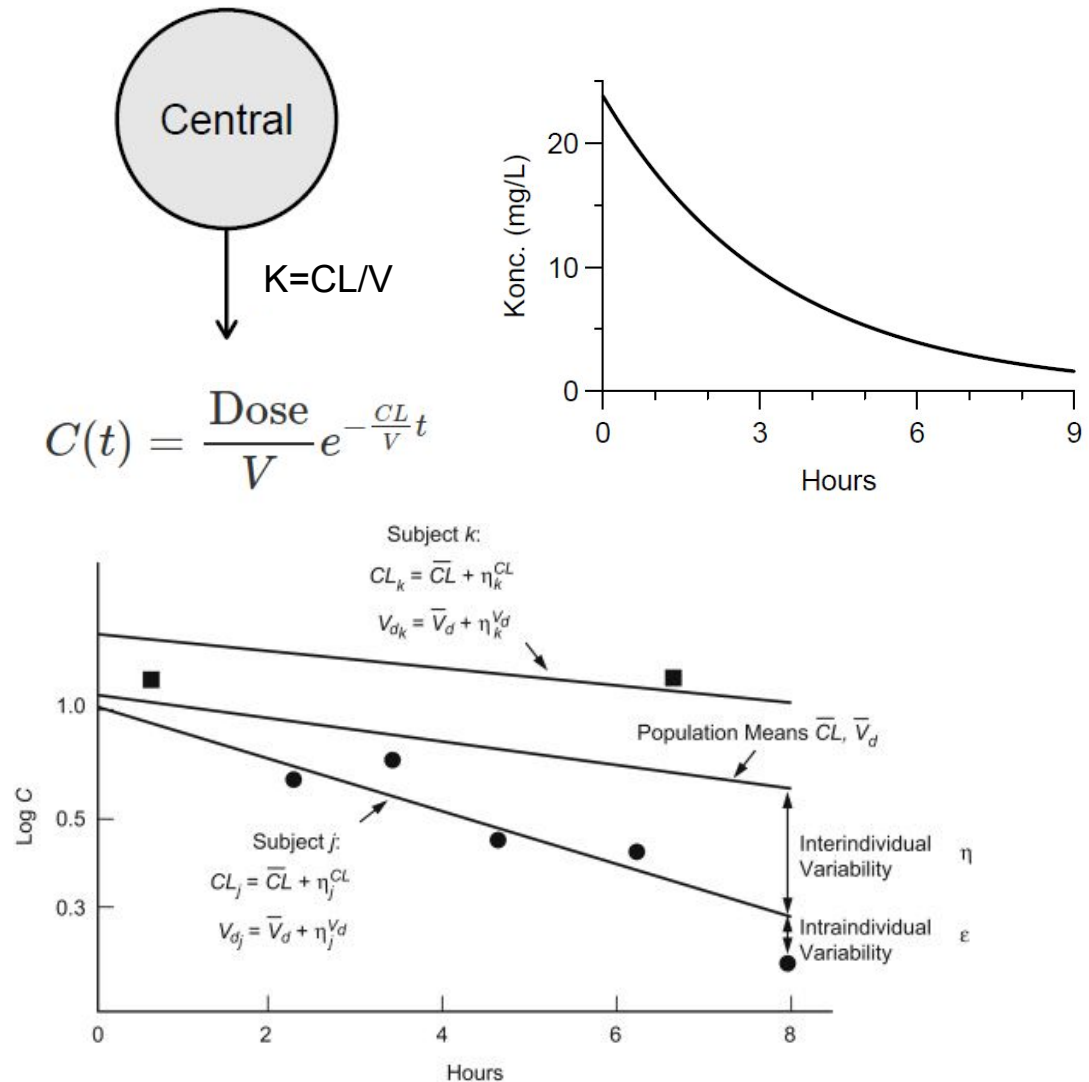
$$\sigma \sim \text{Unfoirm}(0, 50)$$



Example inspired by the *Statistical Rethinking* book by Richard McElreath

In population modelling, we deal with two levels of variability, which calls for mixed-effect models

- Consider a simple one-compartment model, with an intravenous bolus dose (right).
- Two types of variability**
 - Between-subject variability**, e.g. the differences in clearance rate among patients
 - Between-occasion variability**, e.g. the differences from one time point to the other within each patient.
- A **mixed-effect model** (mixed=fixed+random effect model, a type of hierarchical model or *multilevel model*) is needed to model such data.
- If we assume that V_D is a constant value that is the same for all subjects, but clearance varies between subjects (for instance due to ethnicity), then V_D is a fixed-effect parameter and CL is a random-effect parameter.
- If we assume that both V_D and CL vary between subjects, then both are random-effect parameters.



Bottom figure: Raymond Miller, in Principles of Clinical Pharmacology (Third Edition), 2012

A general form of nonlinear mixed-effect models

The Bayesian language

$$y_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{ij}, \Sigma_i)$$

$$\mu_{ij} = f(t_{ij}, \beta_i, d_i)$$

$$\beta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta, D)$$

- y_{ij} is the j^{th} response for the i^{th} subject
- f is a scalar function nonlinear with regard to β
- β is a $k \times 1$ parameter vector, giving PK parameters such as absorption, V_D , and CL .
- t_{ij} is the j^{th} time of measurement for the i^{th} subject
- d_i is the dose of the i^{th} subject
- j ranges from 1 to n_i
- D is a $k \times k$ covariance matrix
- Σ_i is an $n_i \times n_i$ covariance matrix

The Frequentist's language

$$y_{ij} = f(t_{ij}, \underline{\beta}_i, d_i) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$\underline{\beta}_i \sim N(\underline{\beta}, D)$$

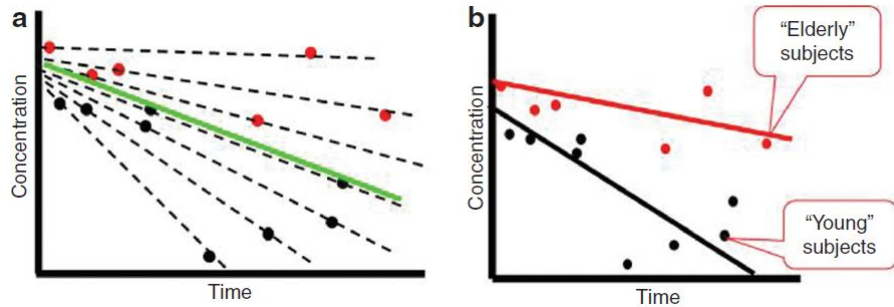
$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(\underline{0}, R_i)$$

- y_{ij} is the j^{th} response for the i^{th} subject
- f is a scalar function nonlinear in $\underline{\beta}$
- $\underline{\beta}$ is a $k \times 1$ parameter vector
- t_{ij} is the j^{th} time for the i^{th} subject
- d_i is the i^{th} subject's dose
- j ranges from 1 to n_i
- ε_{ij} is residual error
- D is a $k \times k$ covariance matrix
- R_i is an $n_i \times n_i$ covariance matrix

In practice, maximum-likelihood estimation (MLE) based modelling fitting is performed by numerical methods including *Laplace approximation* and *Gaussian quadrature*.

One of the mostly used software is **NONMEM** (non-linear mixed effects modeling), a commercial software. Other platforms are being actively developed, for instance GTS and ITS.

NLME modelling helps understanding clinical PK-PD parameters



Top: Mould, D R, and R N Upton. 2012. "[Basic Concepts in Population Modeling, Simulation, and Model-Based Drug Development](#)." CPT: Pharmacometrics & Systems Pharmacology 1 (9): 1–14.

Right: Zhang, Weijiang, Dominik Heinzmann, and Joseph F. Grippo. 2017. "[Clinical Pharmacokinetics of Vemurafenib](#)." Clinical Pharmacokinetics 56 (9): 1033–43. AUC_8 and AUC_{168} : AUC from time zero to 8h or 168 h.

	Vemurafenib			
	240 mg bid	480 mg bid	720 mg bid	960 mg bid
Day 1	$n = 12$	$n = 12$	$n = 12$	$n = 16$
AUC_8 ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{mL}$)	8.3 ± 6.13 (73.9)	13.8 ± 7.72 (55.8)	21.9 ± 12.97 (59.3)	27.0 ± 18.87 (69.9)
AUC_{24} ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{mL}$)	40.9 ± 23.43 (57.3)	62.4 ± 35.71 (57.2)	111.6 ± 34.22 (30.7)	130.6 ± 71.78 (55.0)
C_{\max} 0–8 h ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$)	1.9 ± 1.66 (85.3)	2.6 ± 1.56 (60.5)	4.4 ± 1.98 (44.6)	4.8 ± 3.34 (69.8)
t_{\max} 0–8 h (h)	4.0 (1.92–8.00)	4.0 (1.95–5.00)	5.0 (2.00–8.08)	5.0 (2.00–8.00)
Day 15	$n = 10$	$n = 10$	$n = 9$	$n = 11$
AUC_8 ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{mL}$)	117.8 ± 50.52 (42.9)	233.8 ± 106.93 (45.7)	343.3 ± 151.23 (44.1)	392.2 ± 126.37 (32.2)
AUC_{168} ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{mL}$)	920.3 ± 538.35 (58.5)	2243.5 ± 1336.15 (59.6)	3127.1 ± 1789.97 (57.2)	3530.3 ± 1811.43 (51.3)
C_{\max} 0–168 h ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$)	17.2 ± 7.43 (43.1)	35.4 ± 17.44 (49.2)	52.7 ± 22.40 (42.5)	61.4 ± 22.76 (37.1)
$t_{1/2}$ (h)	31.5 ± 19.05 (60.4)	38.4 ± 24.18 (63.0)	34.9 ± 19.48 (55.9)	34.1 ± 19.66 (57.7)
Accumulation ratio (AUC_8 on day 15/day 1)	24.9 ± 29.4 (118)	23.3 ± 16.0 (68.7)	18.8 ± 12.4 (66.0)	23.2 ± 16.5 (71.1)

Clinical studies and clinical trials

- A **clinical study** is research using human volunteers (*i.e.* participants), with the intention to add to medical knowledge.
- Two main types of clinical studies: **clinical trials** (also called interventional studies) and observational studies. In clinical trials, participants are assigned to specific **interventions** by the investigator, which is not the case in observational studies.
- **Most drug and vaccine candidates fail.**
- Only drugs undergoing successful clinical studies are approved by regulatory agencies. For instance, FDA usually requires that a drug must show statistical significance in two ‘adequate and well-controlled’ pivotal Phase III studies as a precondition of its approval.

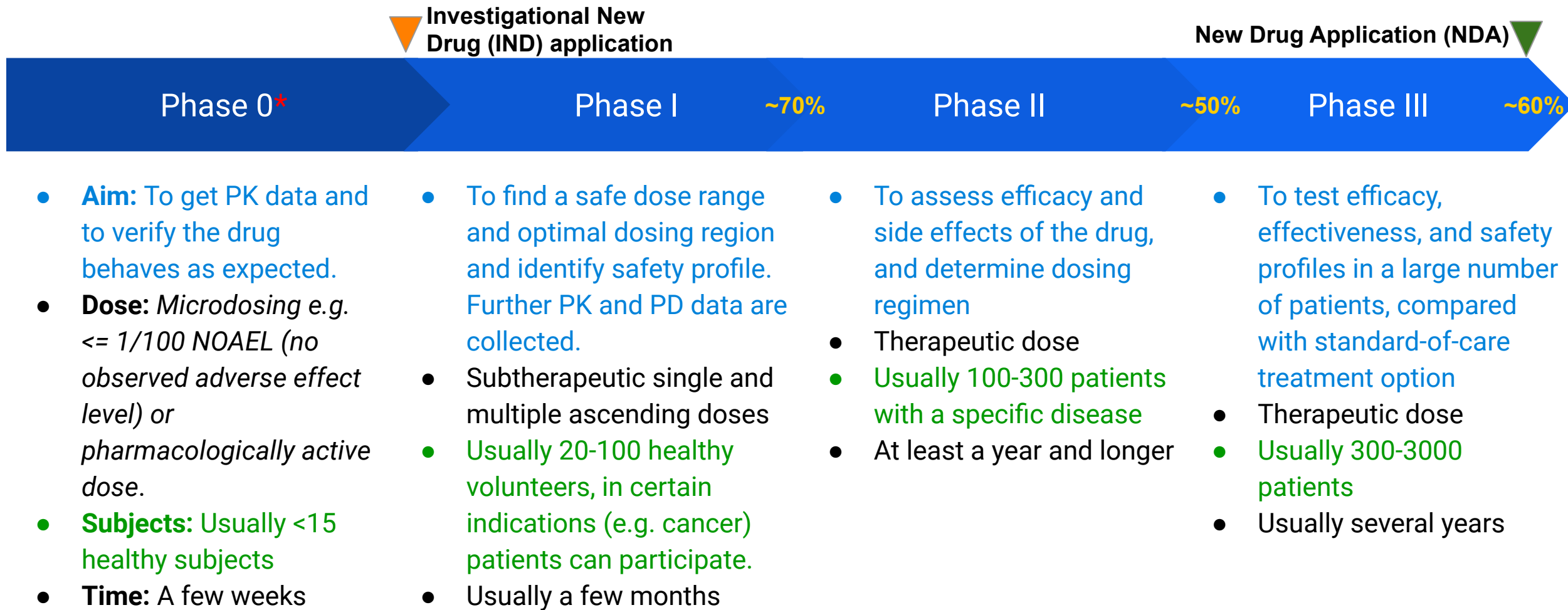
Probability of Success² by Clinical Trial Phase and Therapeutic Area

	<i>P1 to P2</i>	<i>P2 to P3</i>	<i>P3 to Approval</i>	<i>Overall</i>
<i>Oncology</i>	57.6	32.7	35.5	3.4
<i>Metabolic/Endocrinology</i>	76.2	59.7	51.6	19.6
<i>Cardiovascular</i>	73.3	65.7	62.2	25.5
<i>Central Nervous System</i>	73.2	51.9	51.1	15.0
<i>Autoimmune/Inflammation</i>	69.8	45.7	63.7	15.1
<i>Genitourinary</i>	68.7	57.1	66.5	21.6
<i>Infectious Disease</i>	70.1	58.3	75.3	25.2
<i>Ophthalmology</i>	87.1	60.7	74.9	32.6
<i>Vaccines (Infectious Disease)</i>	76.8	58.2	85.4	33.4
<i>Overall</i>	66.4	48.6	59.0	13.8
<i>Overall (Excluding Oncology)</i>	73.0	55.7	63.6	20.9

Source: Chi Heem Wong, Kien Wei Siah, Andrew W Lo. "Estimation of clinical trial success rates and related parameters." *Biostatistics* 20(2): April 2019, Pages 273-286. Published online: 31 January 2018. DOI: 10.1093/biostatistics/kxx069

Data between 2000 and 2015 of 406,038 trials (of which 185,994 were unique) and well over 21,000 compounds were collected. The table was formatted by [ACSH](#).

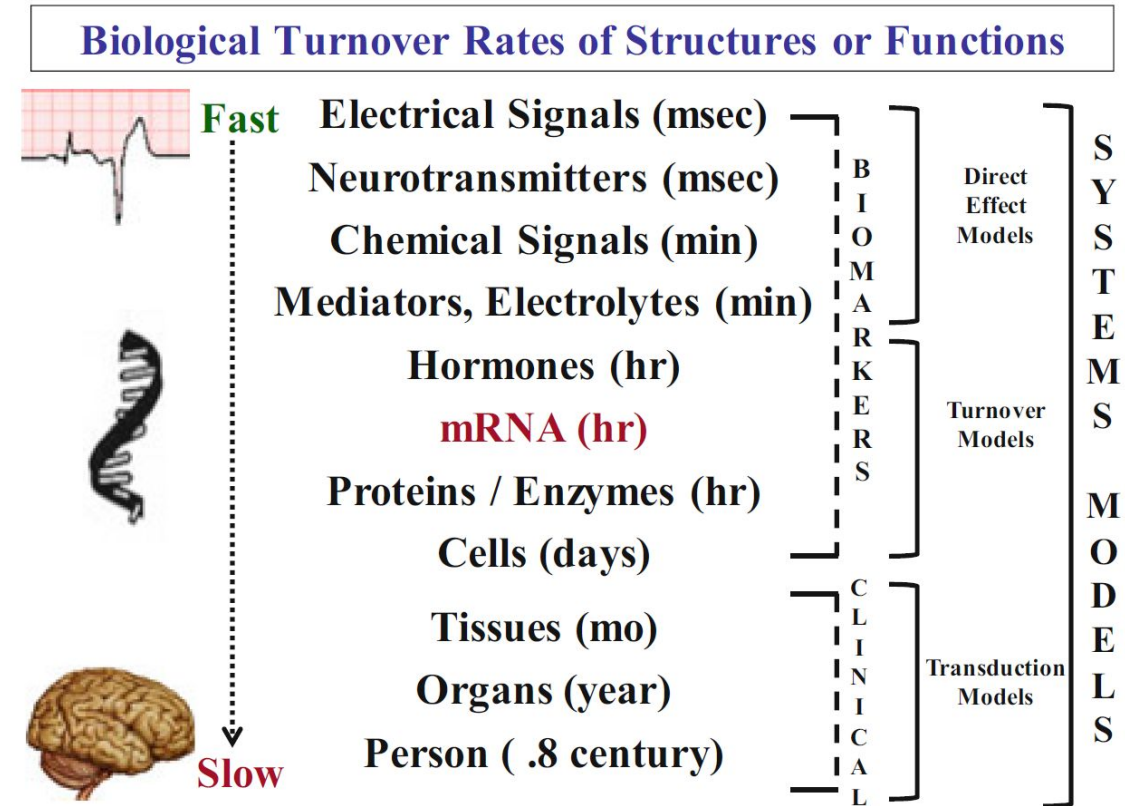
Phases of clinical trials prior to approval



* Since early 2000. See an update-to-date review by Burt, Tal, Graeme Young, Woojin Lee, Hiroyuki Kusuhara, Oliver Langer, Malcolm Rowland, and Yuichi Sugiyama. 2020. "[Phase 0/Microdosing Approaches: Time for Mainstream Application in Drug Development?](#)" Nature Reviews Drug Discovery 19 (11): 801–18.

We use clinical endpoints, biomarkers, and surrogate endpoints to judge whether a drug works or not

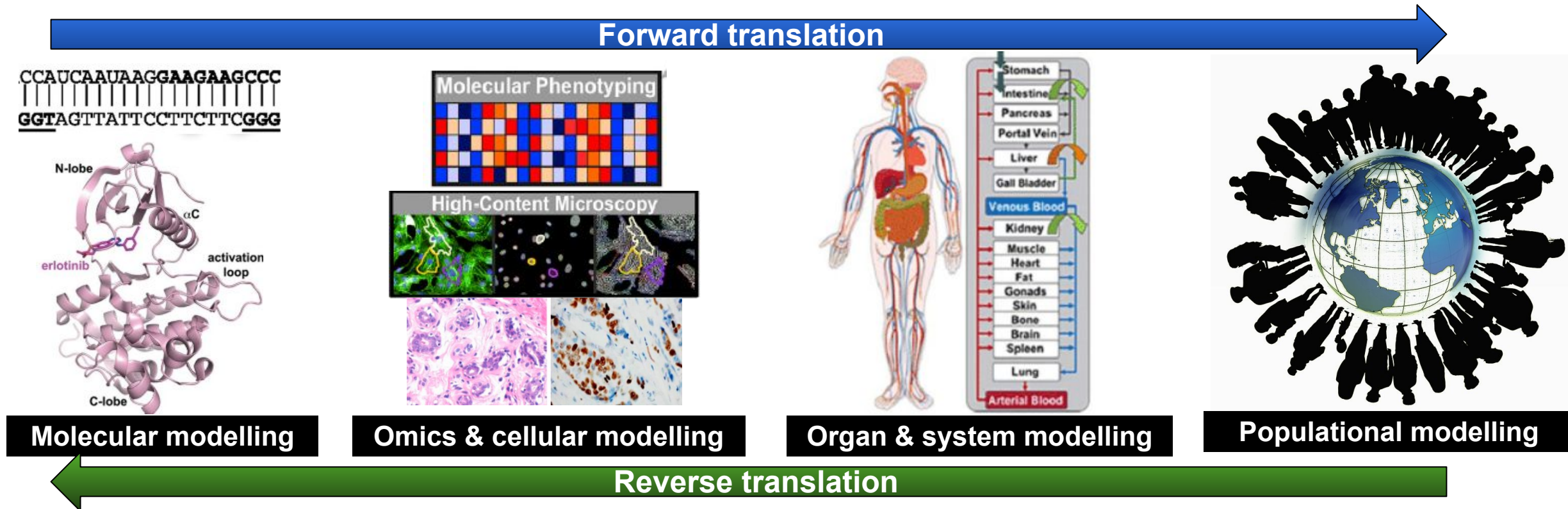
- **Clinical endpoints:** direct evidence of clinical outcome, reflecting how a patient feels (e.g. relieve of anxiety and depression), functions (e.g. hospitalization), responds to pathogens (e.g. infection rate), or how long a patient survives (e.g. progression-free survival, overall survival). It can be expensive and take long to measure them.
- **Biomarkers:** objectively measured and evaluated as an indicator of normal biological, pathogenic processes or pharmacological response to a drug, which can take many forms
 - **Biochemical**, e.g. alanine aminotransferase (ALT), CD4+, cholesterol
 - **Anatomical/morphological**, e.g. tumor Size, artery diameter, and imaging results of PET, CT-Scan, MRI, *etc.*
 - **Histological**, e.g. biopsy pathology, whole blood count (WBC)
 - **Other measurements**, e.g. Blood pressure, pain relief, QT interval in electrocardiogram, *etc.*
- **Surrogate endpoints:** biomarkers supported by strong evidence so that they may substitute a clinical end point when obtaining registration, e.g. neutralising antibodies against spike proteins of the coronavirus in the plasma as a surrogate of reduced rate of infection.



Jusko, William J. 2016. "[Foundations of Pharmacodynamic Systems Analysis](#)." In Systems Pharmacology and Pharmacodynamics, edited by Donald E. Mager and Holly H.C. Kimko, 161–75. AAPS Advances in the Pharmaceutical Sciences Series. Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Conclusion of the course

Multiscale Modelling of Drug Mechanism and Safety



Thank you for...

- Attending the course virtually;
- Giving me and the course feedback;
- Hopping between disciplines together with me;
- Reading (maybe too) much material;
- Taking time for offline activities;
- Asking and answering questions;
- Googling strange terms that you have never heard of;
- Bearing with my accent, speaking speed, and poor drawing;
- Being interested in applied mathematics and informatics in drug discovery.

Backup

Increased success rate in since 2014?

