

**Assessing joint action of combination therapy in
Synthetic and experimental PDX data using
Global-Two-Stage regression and SAEM**

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8 Abstract

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10 **1. Introduction**

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2. Method

2.1. Growth / Drug effect model

We assume that log tumor growth rate is relevant to natural growth of tumor and its decay by drug treatment. Mathematically, it can be represented as ordinary differential equation:

$$\frac{dL(t)}{dt} = (Tumor\ growth) - (Drug\ effect)$$

where $L(t)$ is the logarithm of tumor volume and t is time. Let $V = \exp(L)$ to be the tumor volume, then the changing in tumor size over time dV/dt can be calculated as:

$$\frac{dV(t)}{dt} = \frac{dV(t)}{dL(t)} \frac{dL(t)}{dt} = (Tumor\ growth)V(t) - (Drug\ effect)V(t)$$

This equation aligns with the series of mixed-effect models presented by Ribba et al. (2014) to quantify the effects of anticancer drug treatment. In this model, we assume that the tumor growth follows the Gompertz growth model, and the delay in tumor growth is proportional to the drug concentration at a constant rate. Additionally, we assume that the drugs act independently. Specifically, the tumor growth without drug intervention is modeled using the Gompertz equation, while the drug-induced effects are incorporated through exponential decay terms that represent the reduction in tumor growth rate due to the drugs.

$$\frac{dL(t)}{dt} = \begin{cases} \alpha_1 - \alpha_2(L(t) - L_0) & g = C \text{ (control)} \\ \alpha_1 - \alpha_2(L(t) - L_0) - \beta_g \exp(-k_g t) & g = A \text{ or } B \\ \alpha_1 - \alpha_2(L(t) - L_0) - \beta_A \exp(-k_A t) - \beta_B \exp(-k_B t) & g = AB \text{ (mixture)} \end{cases}$$

where α_1 is the growth rate, α_2 is the deceleration rate, and L_0 is the logarithmic volume of the tumor at the initial time. β_A and β_B are the drug effect parameters for drugs A and B respectively,

31 while k_A and k_B represent the rate constants for the drug effect decay over time.

32 Integrating the differential equations with respect to t ,

33 $L(t)$

$$34 = \begin{cases} L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}(1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) + C & g = C \\ L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}(1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) - \frac{\beta_g}{\alpha_2 - k_g} \exp(-k_g t) + C & g = A \text{ or } B, k_g \neq \alpha_2 \\ L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}(1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) - \beta_g t \exp(-\alpha_2 t) + C & g = A \text{ or } B, k_g = \alpha_2 \\ L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}(1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) - \frac{\beta_A}{\alpha_2 - k_A} \exp(-k_A t) - \frac{\beta_B}{\alpha_2 - k_B} \exp(-k_B t) + C & g = AB, k_g \neq \alpha_2 \\ L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}(1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) - \beta_A t \exp(-\alpha_2 t) - \beta_B t \exp(-\alpha_2 t) + C & g = AB, k_g = \alpha_2 \end{cases}$$

35

36 2.2. Simulation

37 To assess the behavior of the growth and drug effect model, synthetic tumor growth data were
 38 generated based on the model described in section 2.1. The simulation procedure began by using
 39 the model parameters, including the tumor growth rate (α_1), deceleration rate (α_2), drug effect
 40 parameters for drugs A (β_A) and B (β_B), the decay rates for the drug effects (k_A and k_B), and the
 41 initial tumor volume (L_0). The tumor volume was simulated over a predefined time period, with
 42 data points collected at regular intervals as denoted in each simulation, starting from $t = 0$.

43 For the drug-treated groups, drugs A and B were administered at specific time points, with the
 44 drug concentration decay modeled using exponential functions characterized by the parameters
 45 k_A and k_B . The tumor growth for each simulated individual was computed using the Gompertz
 46 growth model, incorporating the effects of the drugs as described in the equation from section

2.1. Normal measurement errors were added to the simulated tumor volumes, assumed to be normally distributed $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$, which generated synthetic observed data that resemble real-world experimental measurements. The number of simulated individuals, N , was set to 5, 10, and 50, representing different sample sizes to evaluate the model's performance under varying conditions. Each individual was simulated with a varying number of observations, n_i , where 10, 25, and 50 observations were used per individual during the specific time. The detailed parameters used in the synthetic data generation is described in [Table 1](#).

2.3. Estimation of population parameters

2.3.1. Model structure and rationale

To estimate the population-level parameters of the tumor growth model, we employed a modified Global-Two-Stage (GTS) approach. The tumor volume for individual i at time t_{ij} is denoted as y_{ij} , and is described as:

$$y_{ij} = L(\psi_i, t_{ij}) + \epsilon_{ij}$$

where $L(\psi_i, t_{ij})$ is the predicted log tumor volume from the models described in section 2.1, and $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ is the independent measurement error.

The individual-specific parameter $\psi_i \in \mathbb{R}^6$ which include the tumor growth and drug effect coefficients ($\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_A, \beta_B, k_A, k_B$) are assumed to follow a multivariate normal distribution:

$$\psi_i = \bar{\psi} + \eta_i$$

$$\eta_i \sim N(0, \Omega)$$

where $\psi_i \in \mathbb{R}^6$ represents the mean vector (fixed effects), and $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$ is the covariance matrix describing inter-individual variability.

The GTS approach proceeds in two stages. In the first stage, we estimate individual parameters $\hat{\psi}_i$ and their associated uncertainty using nonlinear least squares (NLS) fits for each animal. In the second stage, we infer the population-level distribution $(\bar{\psi}, \Omega)$ by treating the $\hat{\psi}_i$ as noisy observations and accounting for their estimated variances.

2.3.2. Global Two-Stage (GTS) Regression

For each individual j in the dataset, the vector of observed tumor volumes is defined as:

$$y_j = \begin{pmatrix} y_{j,t_1} \\ y_{j,t_2} \\ \vdots \\ y_{j,t_{n_j}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$L(t, \theta_j) = \begin{pmatrix} L(t_1, \theta_j) \\ L(t_2, \theta_j) \\ \vdots \\ L(t_{n_j}, \theta_j) \end{pmatrix}$$

with additive error:

$$\epsilon_j \sim N_{n_j}(0, \sigma^2 I_{n_j})$$

The individual parameters ψ_j are estimated by minimizing the residual sum of squares:

$$Q(\theta_j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (y_{j,t_i} - L(t_i, \theta_j))^2$$

Under regularity conditions, the estimator $\hat{\psi}_j$ satisfies the asymptotic distribution:

$$\sqrt{n_j}(\hat{\theta}_j - \theta_j) \sim N_k(0, \hat{\sigma}^2 \left[\frac{1}{n_j} \nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j} L(t, \hat{\theta}_j) \nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j} L(t, \hat{\theta}_j)^T \right]^{-1})$$

where:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n_j - k} \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (y_{j,t_i} - L(t_i, \hat{\theta}_j))^2$$

and:

$$\nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j} L(t, \hat{\theta}_j) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial L(t_1, \hat{\theta}_j)}{\partial \theta_j^{(1)}} & \dots & \frac{\partial L(t_1, \hat{\theta}_j)}{\partial \theta_j^{(k)}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L(t_{n_j}, \hat{\theta}_j)}{\partial \theta_j^{(1)}} & \dots & \frac{\partial L(t_{n_j}, \hat{\theta}_j)}{\partial \theta_j^{(k)}} \end{pmatrix}$$

The Hessian matrix is approximated by:

$$\nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j}^2 Q(\hat{\theta}_j) \approx \nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j} L(t, \hat{\theta}_j) \nabla_{\hat{\theta}_j} L(t, \hat{\theta}_j)^T$$

We defined \hat{S}_j^{-1} as the individual Fisher information matrix. To align parameter dimensionality across groups, the estimated parameters $\hat{\psi}_j$ are mapped into a 6-dimensional vector:

$$\theta_j = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1,j} \\ \alpha_{2,j} \\ \beta_{A,j} \\ k_{A,j} \\ \beta_{B,j} \\ k_{B,j} \end{pmatrix}$$

For the groups where certain parameters are not estimable (e.g. no drug A in group B), zeros are inserted in the corresponding positions, and zero rows/columns are added to \hat{S}_j^{-1} accordingly.

95 For example, in the control group (group C):

$$96 \quad \hat{\theta}_j = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1,j} \\ \alpha_{2,j} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$97 \quad \hat{S}_j^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} s_{11} & s_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ s_{21} & s_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

98 In group B (only drug B is treated):

$$99 \quad \hat{\theta}_j = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1,j} \\ \alpha_{2,j} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \beta_{B,j} \\ k_{B,j} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$100 \quad \hat{S}_j^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} s_{11} & s_{12} & 0 & 0 & s_{15} & s_{16} \\ s_{21} & s_{22} & 0 & 0 & s_{25} & s_{26} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ s_{51} & s_{52} & 0 & 0 & s_{55} & s_{56} \\ s_{61} & s_{62} & 0 & 0 & s_{65} & s_{66} \end{pmatrix}$$

101

102 Then, the individual level estimation was used to estimate population level parameters. Assume
103 that

$$104 \quad \psi_j \sim N_6(\psi, C_0)$$

105 we estimate the population mean θ_0 and covariance matrix C_0 by minimizing the following
 106 objective function:

$$107 \quad O(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^M [(\hat{\psi}_j - \psi_0)^T (\hat{S}_j + C_0)^{-1} (\hat{\psi}_j - \psi_0) + \log (\det (\hat{S}_j + C_0))]$$

108 This is solved iteratively using the following rules. At iteration $n + 1$, the empirical Bayes
 109 estimate for each individual is updated as:

$$110 \quad \hat{\psi}_j^{(n+1)} = (\hat{S}_j^{-1} + (C_0^{(n)})^{-1})^{-1} (\hat{S}_j^{-1} \hat{\theta}_j + (C_0^{(n)})^{-1} \psi_0^{(n)})$$

111 The population mean is then updated by:

$$112 \quad \psi_0^{(n+1)} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \hat{\psi}_j^{(n+1)}$$

113 and the covariance matrix is updated by:

$$114 \quad C_0^{(n+1)} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M (\hat{\psi}_j^{(n+1)} - \psi_0^{(n+1)})(\hat{\psi}_j^{(n+1)} - \psi_0^{(n+1)})^T + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M (\hat{S}_j^{-1} + (C_0^{(n)})^{-1})^{-1}$$

115 These steps are repeated until ψ_0 and C_0 converges, yielding estimates of the fixed effects and
 116 their inter-individual variability.

117

118 **2.3.3. Stochastic Approximation Expectation Maximization (SAEM)**

119 The individual- and population- level parameters can also be estimated simultaneously by
 120 utilizing SAEM algorithm. Let $\theta = (\hat{\psi}, \Omega, \sigma^2)$. Maximum likelihood estimation of θ consists of

maximizing with respect to θ :

$$L(\theta, y) = p(y; \theta) = \int p(y, \psi; \theta) d\psi = \prod_{i=1}^N \int p(y_i | \psi_i; \theta) p(\psi_i; \theta) d\psi$$

SAEM was implemented to maximize the likelihood function, using saemix package in R.

2.4. Equivalence to Bliss Independence Model

Bliss independence principle is based on the probabilistic interpretation of the drug effect, where the presence of one drug does not affect the probability of another drug's effect on tumor growth decay. We note that the additive model is in concordance with Bliss independence model using the Treatment-to-control ratio. Let $E(A)$ and $E(B)$ represent the probability of cell growth inhibited by drug A and B respectively. Under Bliss independence, $E_{AB} = E_A + E_B - E_A E_B$

where the effect $E_g = 1 - \frac{V_g(t)}{V_c(t)}$, indicating the proportion of tumor being inhibited, and

$V_g(t) \left(L_g(t) \right)$ is the log tumor volume in g, where $g \in A, B, C, AB$. This equation is equivalent to

$$\frac{V_{AB}(t)}{V_c(t)} = \frac{V_A(t)}{V_c(t)} \frac{V_B(t)}{V_c(t)}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \log(V_{AB}(t)) = \log(V_A(t)) + \log(V_B(t)) - \log(V_c(t))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow L_{AB}(t) = L_A(t) + L_B(t) - L_C(t)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow L_{AB}(t) = \begin{cases} L_0 + \alpha_1 t + D_A(t) + D_B(t), & \alpha_2 = 0 \\ L_0 + \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2} (1 - \exp(-\alpha_2 t)) + D_A(t) + D_B(t), & \alpha_2 \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

138

139 **2.5. Hypothesis testing and model evaluation**

140 After estimation of population parameters through the Global-Two-Stage (GTS) regression, we
141 performed hypothesis testing and model evaluation to determine the statistical significance and
142 adequacy of the proposed tumor growth model under combination treatments.

143

144 **2.5.1. Normalized Prediction Distribution Errors (NPDE)**

145 We first evaluated the adequacy of the fitted model to capture tumor growth curves in the
146 combination therapy group, assuming the two drugs act independently under the Bliss
147 independence hypothesis (null hypothesis). We used Normalized Prediction Distribution Errors
148 (NPDE) to assess model fitting. NPDE transforms observations to values expected to follow a
149 standard normal distribution, thus allowing model diagnostics through established statistical
150 methods.

151 The predictive distribution of the observations can be computed as:

$$152 \quad p(y_i; \hat{\theta}) = \int p(y_i | \psi_i; \hat{\theta}) p(\psi_i; \hat{\theta}) d\psi_i$$

153 where $\hat{\theta}$ denotes the maximum likelihood estimator obtained from the population parameter
154 estimation.

155 For Monte Carlo approximation, this predictive distribution was computed as:

$$156 \quad pd_{ij} = F_{ij}(y_{ij}) \approx \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K I[y_{ij}^{sim(k)} < y_{ij}]$$

157 with $y_{ij}^{sim(k)}$ simulated from the predictive distribution. The pd_{ij} values thus represents the
158 percentile of each observation y_{ij} within its predictive distribution.

159 We then transformed these percentiles into NPDE as follows:

160
$$npde_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(pd_{ij})$$

161 Due to repeated measurements within individuals, correlation between observations was
162 expected. To address this, decorrelation was performed using the empirical mean and variance-
163 covariance matrix of simulated data:

164
$$a = E[Y_i] = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K Y_i^{sim(k)}$$

165
$$var[Y_i] = \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{k=1}^K (Y_i^{sim(k)} - a)(Y_i^{sim(k)} - a)^T$$

166 The decorrelated data were then obtained by:

167
$$Y_i^{sim(k)*} = var[Y_i]^{-\frac{1}{2}} (Y_i^{sim(k)} - a)$$

168 We conducted the following statistical tests on the NPDE distribution; rank test to evaluate if the
169 mean equals zero, Fisher variance test to determine if the variance equals one, and Shapiro-Wilk
170 test to verify normality. A global test combining the above tests with a Bonferroni correction was
171 applied. Alternatively, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to directly assess normality (mean
172 = 0, variance = 1). The Type-I error rate was computed as the proportion of simulations
173 incorrectly rejected at a significance level $\alpha = 0.05$.

174

2.5.2. Distance-based statistics

We then employed a distance-based measure to quantify discrepancies between observed tumor volume data and the values predicted by the fitted model. For each individual mouse j , we define the distance statistics D_j as:

$$D_j = \frac{1}{n_j} [y_j - L(t, \theta_j)]^T [Cov(y_j)]^{-1} [y_j - L(t, \hat{\theta}_0)]$$

This distance statistics follows an asymptotic chi-square distribution:

$$n_j D_j \sim \chi_{n_j}^2$$

To assess the goodness-of-fit of the nonlinear mixed-effects model across control and single-drug treatment groups, we calculated the aggregated distance:

$$\sum_{j \in A, B, C} n_j D_j \sim \chi_{\sum j \in A, B, C}^2$$

For the combination group (AB), the distance statistic specifically tested whether the additive model was correctly specified under the null hypothesis of additive drug interaction:

$$\sum_{j \in A, B, C} n_j D_j \sim \chi_{\sum j \in AB}^2$$

These aggregated statistics were compared to their respective chi-square distributions to formally evaluate the model adequacy. Type-I error rate was calculated as the proportion of simulations with distance statistics exceeding the critical chi-square value at $\alpha = 0.05$.

2.5.3. Prediction interval

Finally, we assessed the model's predictive performance using a prediction interval approach. We derived the 90 % prediction interval from the predictive distribution generated through Monte Carlo simulation. Specifically, for each time point and individual, we simulated 1,000 tumor volume observations based on the fitted model parameters. We tested whether the proportion of observed data points falling outside a pre-defined 90% prediction interval significantly differed from the expected proportion (10%) using a binomial test. The type-I error rate was determined by the proportion of simulations showing significant binomial test results ($P < 0.05$).

2.6. Implementation with Real PDX data

To demonstrate the practical applicability of our approach, we applied the proposed methodology to real patient-derived xenograft (PDX) data from an in vivo preclinical experiment involving tumor-bearing mice randomly assigned to control, single-drug (A or B), and combination treatment (AB) groups. Individual and population-level parameters were estimated using the previously described Global-Two-Stage (GTS) method. Model adequacy and the validity of the additive assumption (Bliss independence) were evaluated through NPDE analysis, distance-based tests, and prediction interval diagnostics as outlined above.