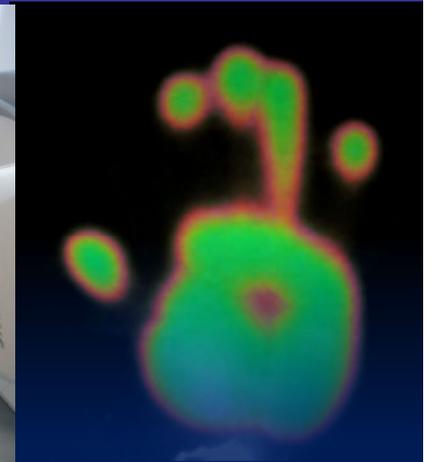
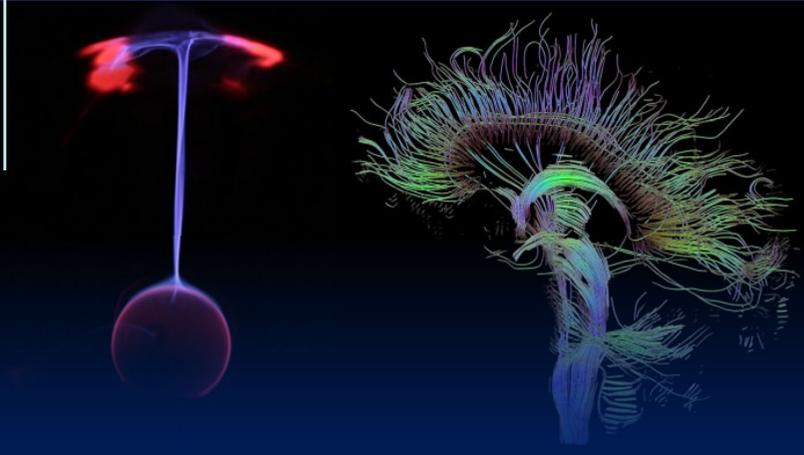
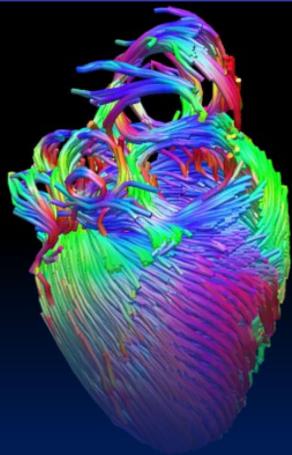


# Bio- & Pharmacokinetics

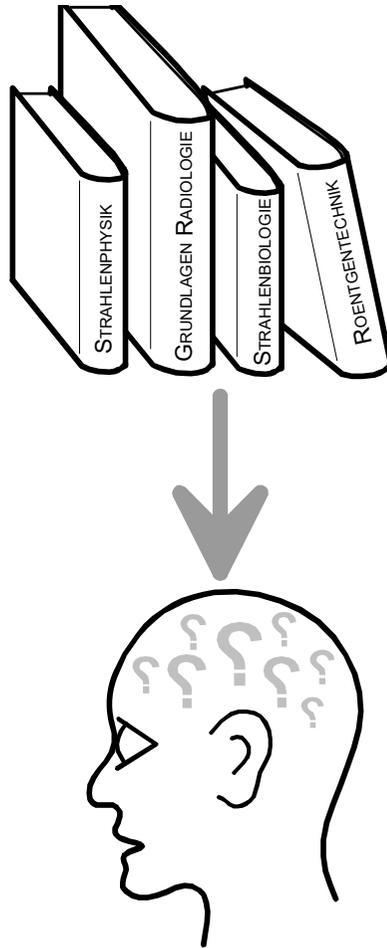
Hyperboost Training Course Model-based  
Data Analysis for Clinical Applications

Stephan Scheidegger  
Medical Biophysics Group ZHAW  
2024



# CONTENT MBDA

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Model-based data analysis for clinical application – Modelling and Biological Systems:

Day 1

0920-1100: Modelling and Biological Systems

1320-1400: Using Graphical Model Editors

1400-1450: Using Python for Model Fitting

Day 2

**1110-1200: Biokinetic / Biodynamic Modelling** (→ Lab2: Model-based Data Analysis of PET Images)

Day3

0900-1100: Radiobiological Models

# CONTENT

---

Bio- & Pharmacokinetics:

Definition of a compartment

Single compartment and elimination

Clearance

Clearance and different elimination pathways

Resorption

2-compartment models

Non-linear kinetics, Michaelis-Menten kinetics

# Learning Objectives



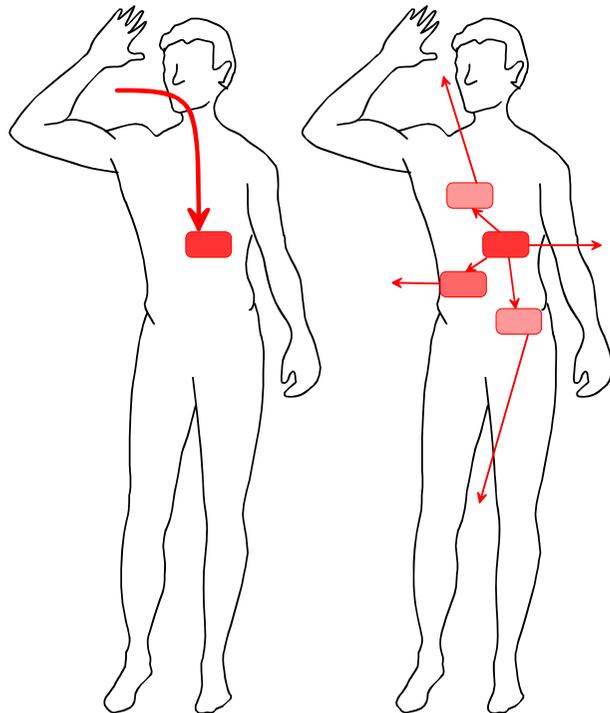
Students are able to

- to implement multi-compartmental bio-kinetic models
- to calculate the clearance based on elimination measurements
- to model enzymatic activity or carrier systems
- to model kinetics of radio-isotopes
- to calculate the effective half life of an isotope (bound to a tracer)

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---

The human body can be regarded as a compartmental system. Biokinetics can be considered as the exchange of substances (drugs) between these compartments. Key processes are:



- Resorption
- Transfer
- Elimination

---

Fig.1. Human body as a compartmental system

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

## Definition of a compartment:

- Exchange with environment (neighboring compartments) much slower than equilibration of concentration inside
- Depending on the speed of resorption-, distribution and elimination, compartments may not correspond to a specific organ in all cases (e.g. contrast-media in the blood circulation vs. plasma concentration of drugs)

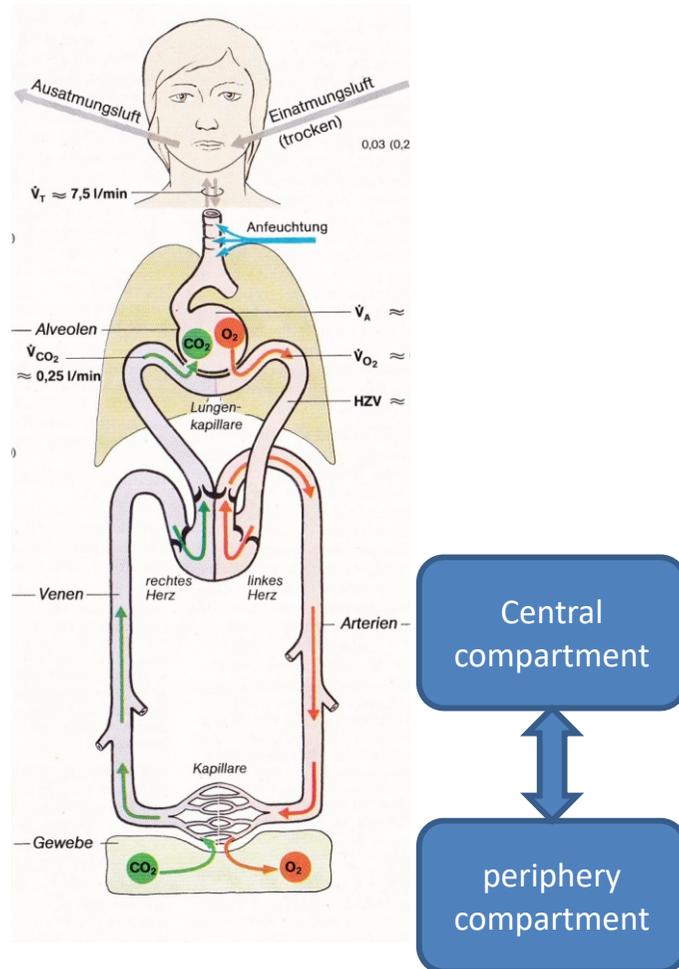
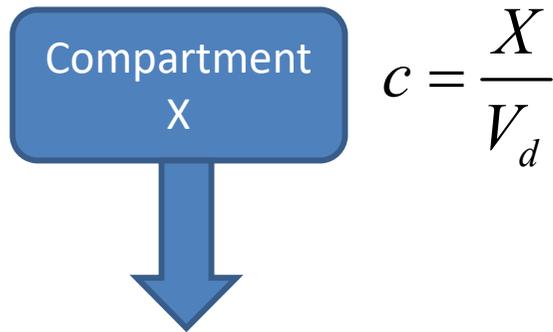


Fig.2. blood circulation and compartmental system (Faller & Schünke, 1988; modified)

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

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$$\frac{dX}{dt} = -k_e X$$

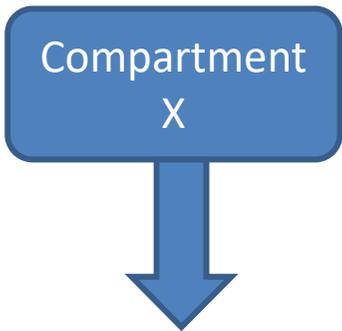
Single compartment and elimination:

- $X$  = amount of drug,  $c$  = concentration inside compartment with volume  $V_d$
- $k_e$  = elimination constant, first order kinetics is assumed here

---

Fig.3. Flow chart for a simple 1-compartment system with elimination only

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

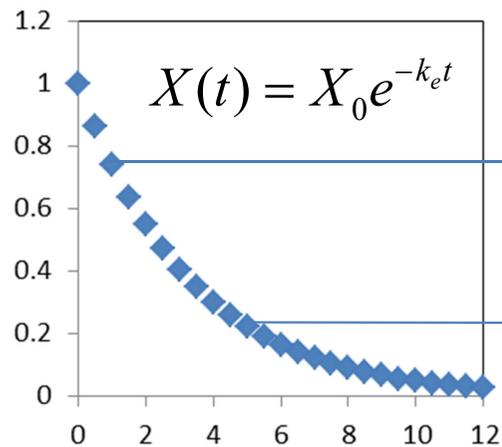


$$c = \frac{X}{V_d}$$

The elimination constant  $k_e$  can be determined by the measurement of the concentration at two different time points:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = -k_e X$$

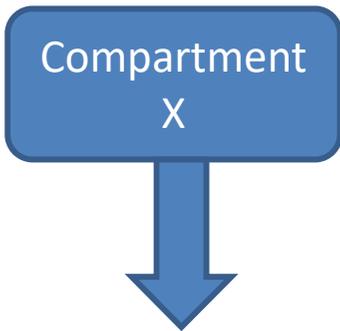
$$k_e = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{c_p(t_1)}{c_p(t_2)}\right)}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\ln[c_p(t_1)] - \ln[c_p(t_2)]}{\Delta t}$$



# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---

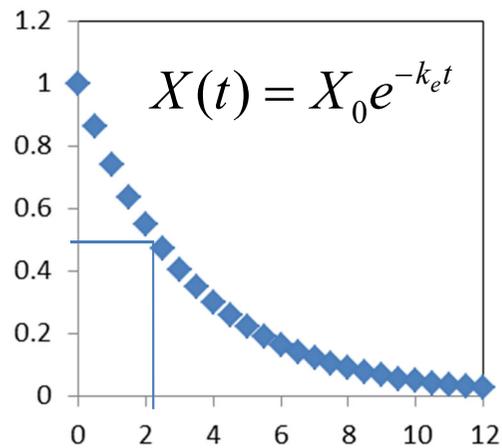
The half life is given by:



$$c = \frac{X}{V_d}$$

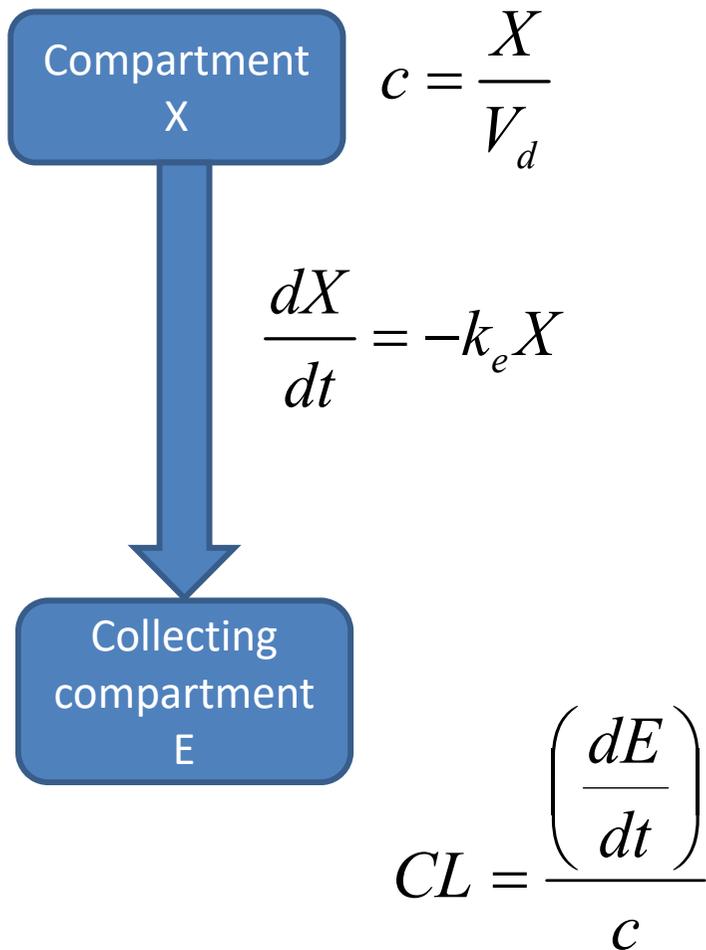
$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln(2)}{k_e}$$

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = -k_e X$$



# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



Clearance  $CL$ :

- is a measure for the elimination speed (in case of first-order kinetics)
- corresponds to the volume which is cleared from the drug
- In case of complete renal elimination, the (renal) clearance gives the renal blood perfusion rate

**Aufnahme:**

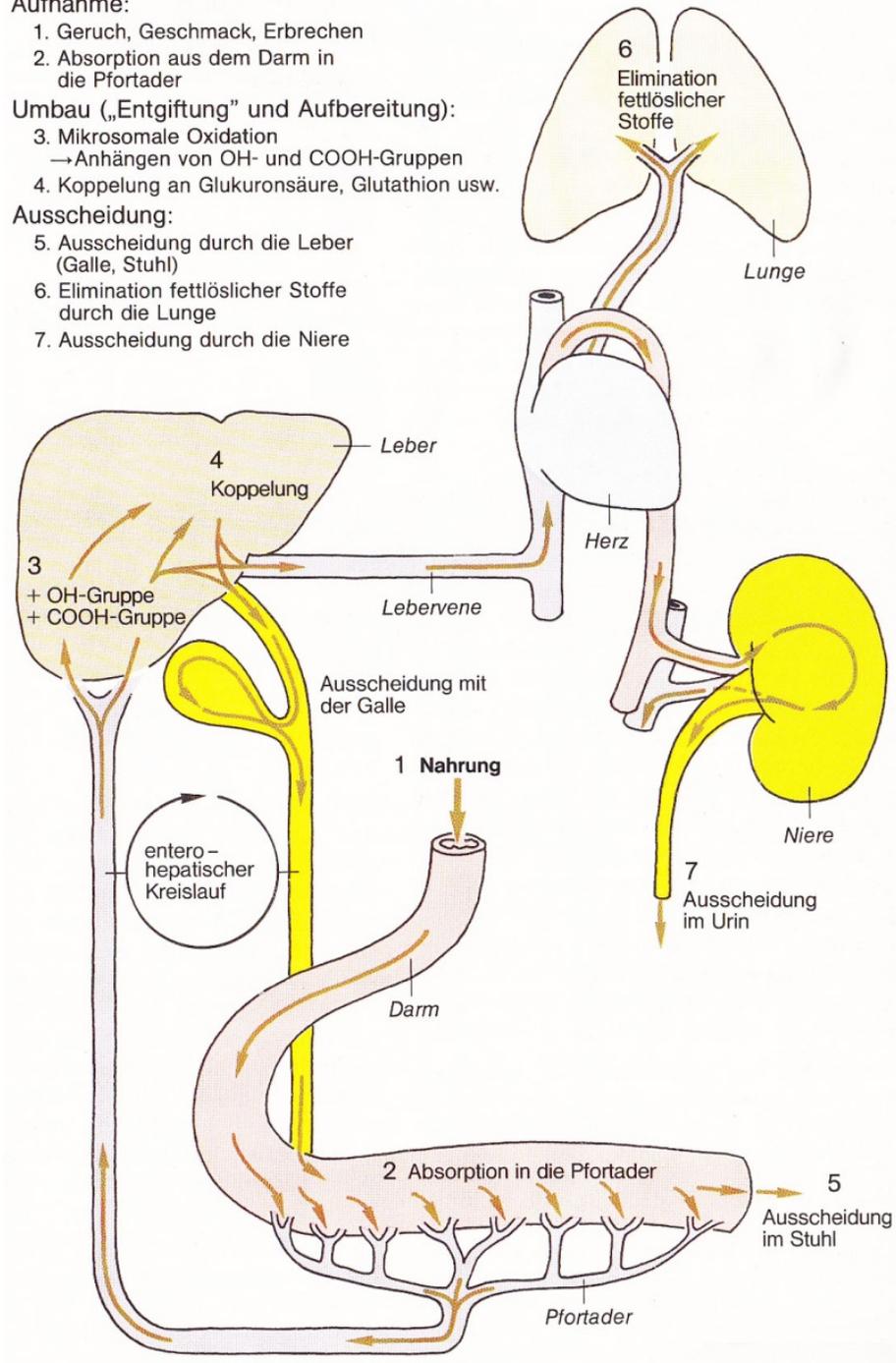
1. Geruch, Geschmack, Erbrechen
2. Absorption aus dem Darm in die Pfortader

**Umbau („Entgiftung“ und Aufbereitung):**

3. Mikrosomale Oxidation  
→Anhängen von OH- und COOH-Gruppen
4. Koppelung an Glukuronsäure, Glutathion usw.

**Ausscheidung:**

5. Ausscheidung durch die Leber (Galle, Stuhl)
6. Elimination fettlöslicher Stoffe durch die Lunge
7. Ausscheidung durch die Niere



# Biokinetics

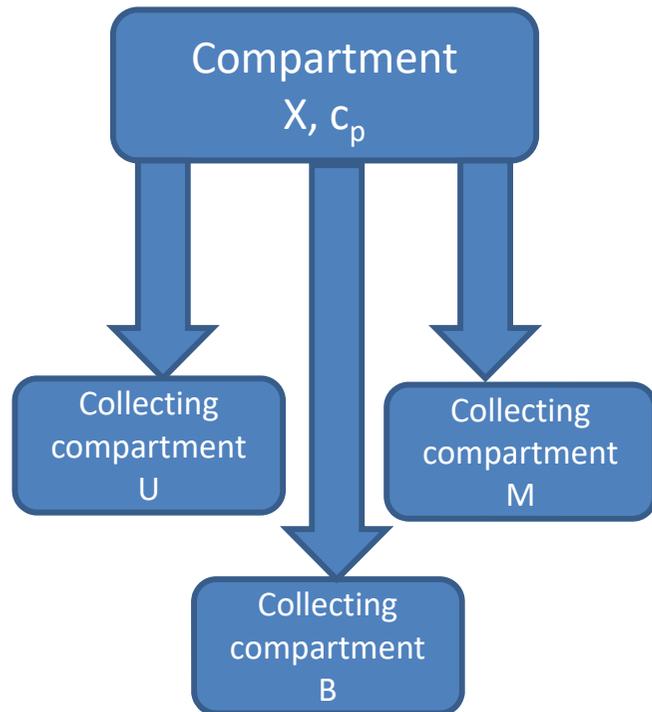
Main elimination pathways are:

- Renal elimination via kidneys
- expiration
- Biliary elimination via GIT
- Metabolic pathway, mainly via liver

Fig.4. elimination pathways (Silbernagel & Despopoulos, 1979)

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



Clearance in case of different elimination pathways:

- Renal elimination:  $U(t)$
- Biliary elimination:  $B(t)$
- Metabolic elimination:  $M(t)$

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = -k_e \cdot X$$

$$\frac{dB}{dt} = k_B \cdot X$$

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = k_R \cdot X$$

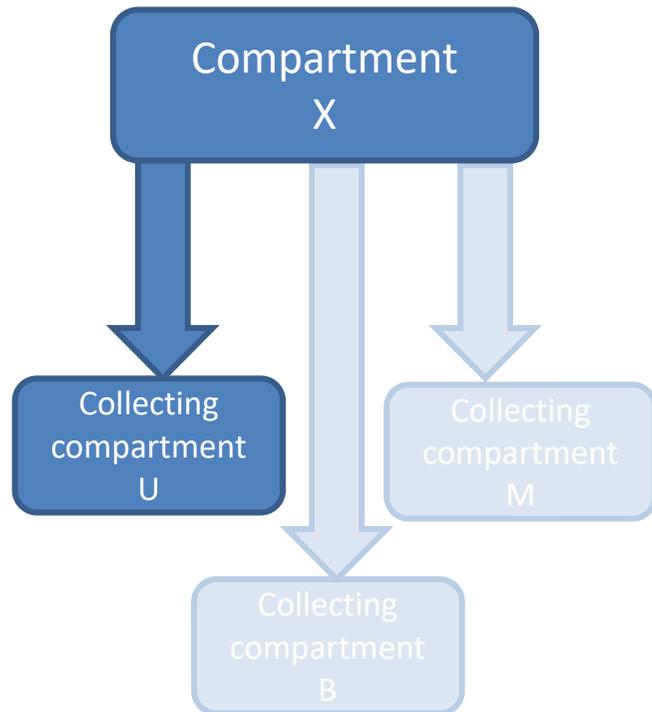
$$\frac{dM}{dt} = k_M \cdot X$$

---

Fig.5. Compartmental system with different elimination pathways

# Bio- and Pharmakokinetics

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Clearance in case of different elimination pathways:

- Renal elimination → renal clearance  $CL_R$ :

$$U(t) = \frac{k_R}{k_e} D \cdot (1 - e^{-k_e \cdot t})$$

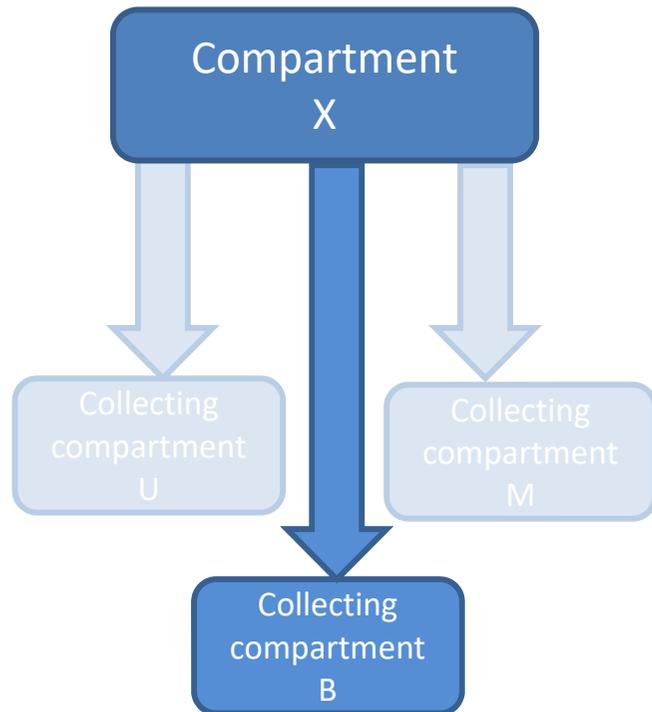
$$CL_R = \frac{1}{c_p} \cdot \left( \frac{dU}{dt} \right) = k_R \cdot V_d$$

---

Fig.5. Compartmental system with different elimination pathways

# Bio- and Pharmakokinetics

---



Clearance in case of different elimination pathways:

- Biliary elimination → biliary clearance  $CL_B$ :

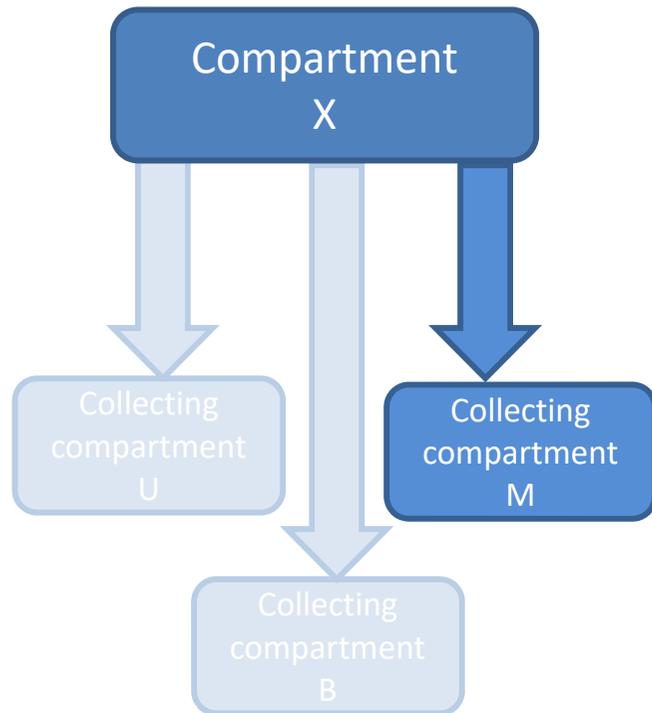
$$CL_B = \frac{1}{c_p} \cdot \left( \frac{dB}{dt} \right) = k_B \cdot V_d$$

---

Fig.5. Compartmental system with different elimination pathways

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



Clearance in case of different elimination pathways:

- Metabolic elimination  $\rightarrow$  metabolic clearance  $CL_M$ :

$$M(t) = \frac{k_M}{k_e} \cdot D \cdot (1 - e^{-k_e t})$$

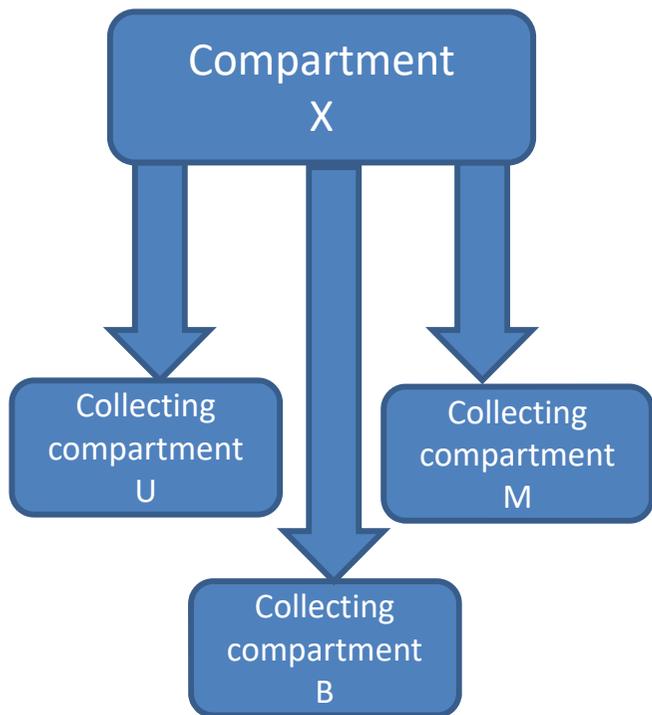
$$CL_M = \frac{1}{c_p} \cdot \left( \frac{dM}{dt} \right) = k_M \cdot V_d$$

---

Fig.5. Compartmental system with different elimination pathways

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



The total clearance is the sum of:

- Renal clearance
- Biliary clearance
- Metabolic clearance

$$CL_{tot} = \frac{\dot{E}}{c_p} = \frac{k_e X}{c_p} = \frac{(k_R + k_B + k_M) \cdot X}{c_p}$$

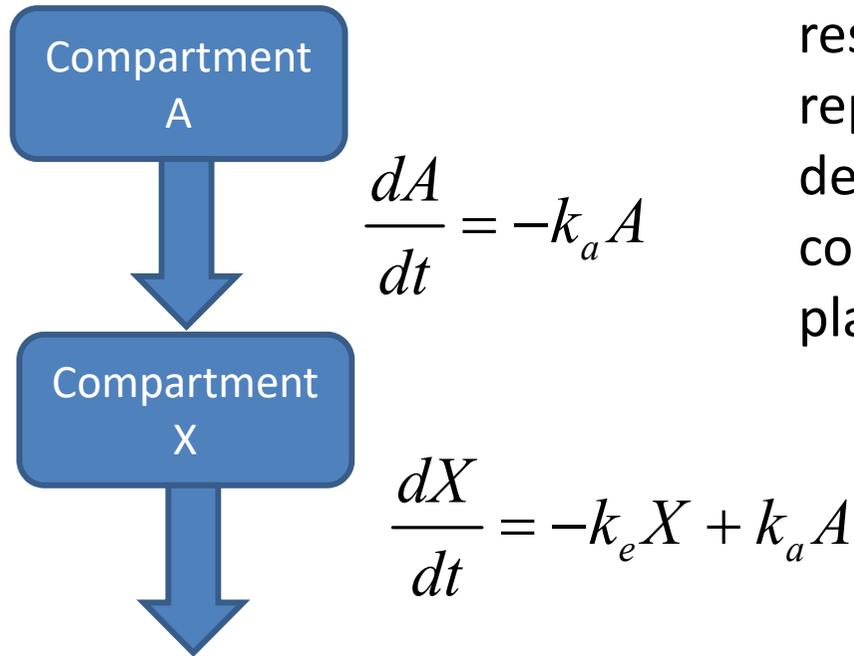
➔  $CL_{tot} = CL_B + CL_M + CL_R$

---

Fig.5. Compartmental system with different elimination pathways

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



Resorption can be modelled by adding a resorption compartment, which can represent the GIT, subcutaneous drug depot etc. In most of the cases, the compartment with the amount X is the plasma (central) compartment.

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Fig.6. Flow chart for a “1”-compartment system with resorption and elimination

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

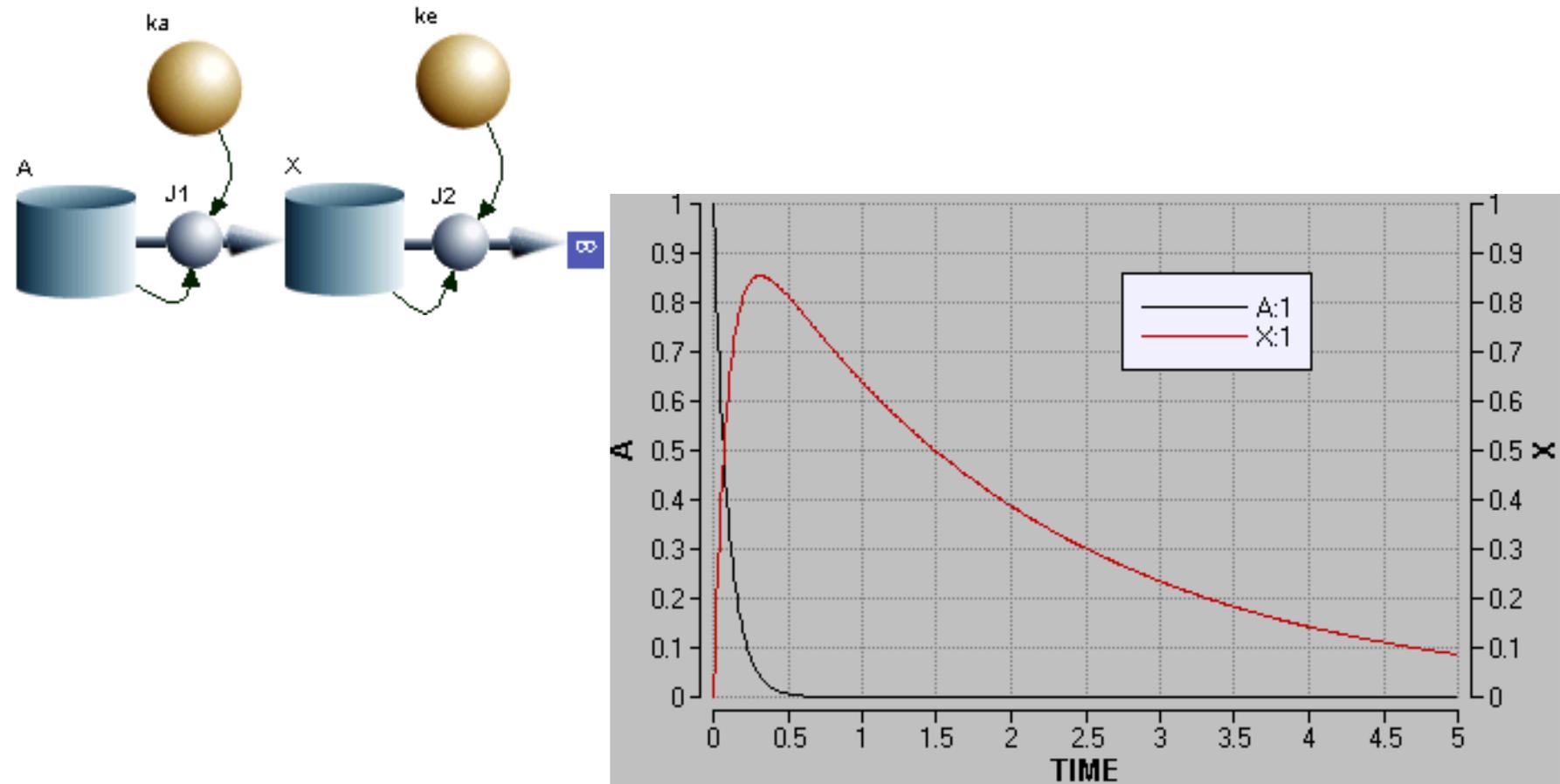
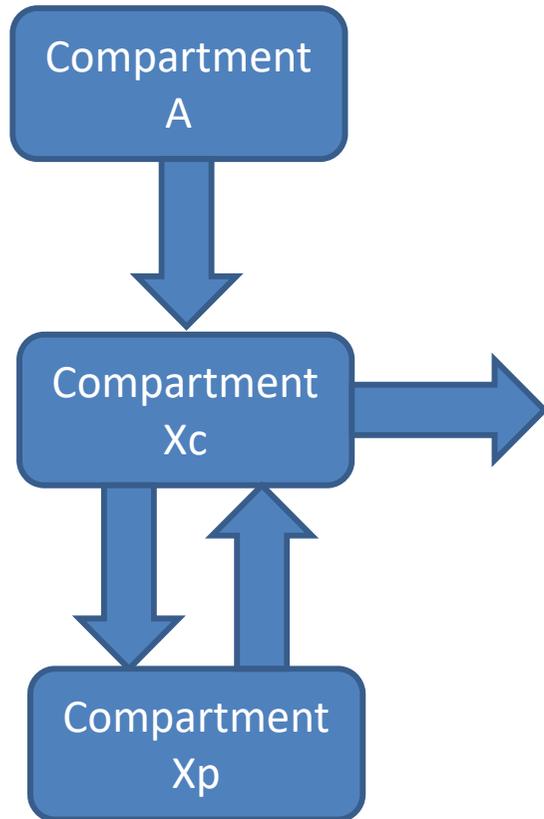


Fig.7. BM-Flow chart for a “1”-compartment system with resorption and elimination (left) and numerical solutions (left)

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



2-compartment model:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -k_a A$$

$$\frac{dX_c}{dt} = k_a A + k_{pc} X_p - (k_{cp} + k_e) \cdot X_c$$

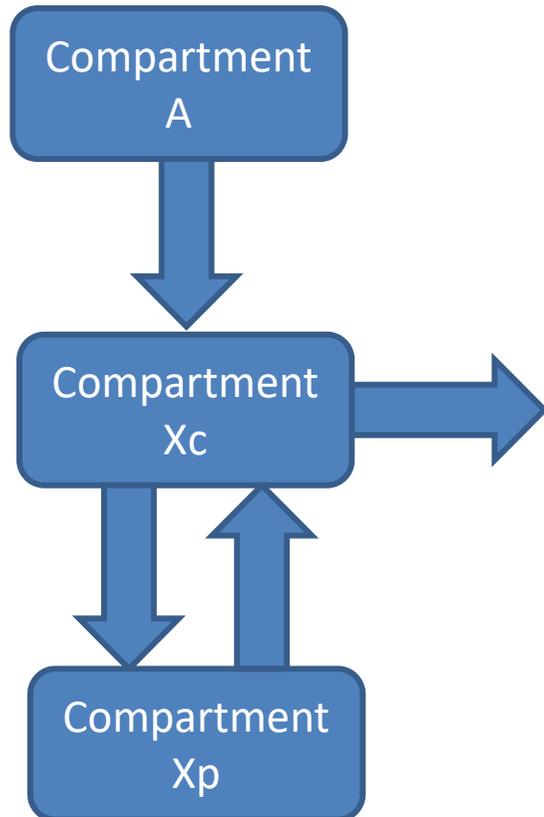
$$\frac{dX_p}{dt} = k_{cp} X_c - k_{pc} X_p$$

---

Fig.8. Flow chart for a 2-compartment system with resorption and elimination

# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

---



2-compartment model with non-linear kinetics:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -f(A)$$

$$\frac{dX_c}{dt} = f(A) + g_{pc}(X_p) - g_{pc}(X_c) - h(X_c)$$

$$\frac{dX_p}{dt} = -g_{pc}(X_p) + g_{pc}(X_c)$$

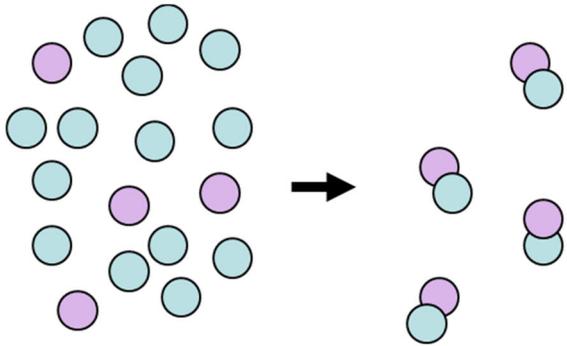
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Fig.8. Flow chart for a 2-compartment system with resorption and elimination

# Enzymatic Reactions & Carrier Transport

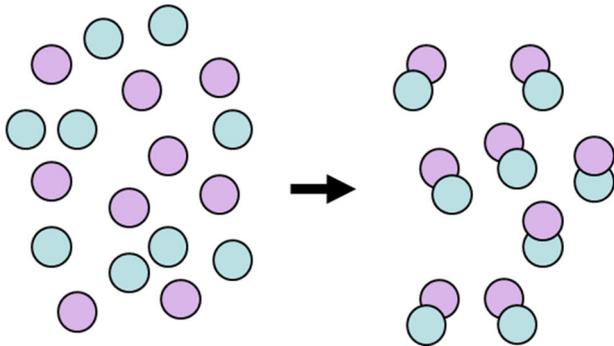
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Enzymatic (catalytic) reactions follow the so-called Michaelis-Menten kinetics:



$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -\frac{v_m \cdot c}{(k_m + c) \cdot V_d}$$

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{v_m \cdot c}{(k_m + c) \cdot V_d} \right) = \frac{v_m}{k_m} \cdot c$$



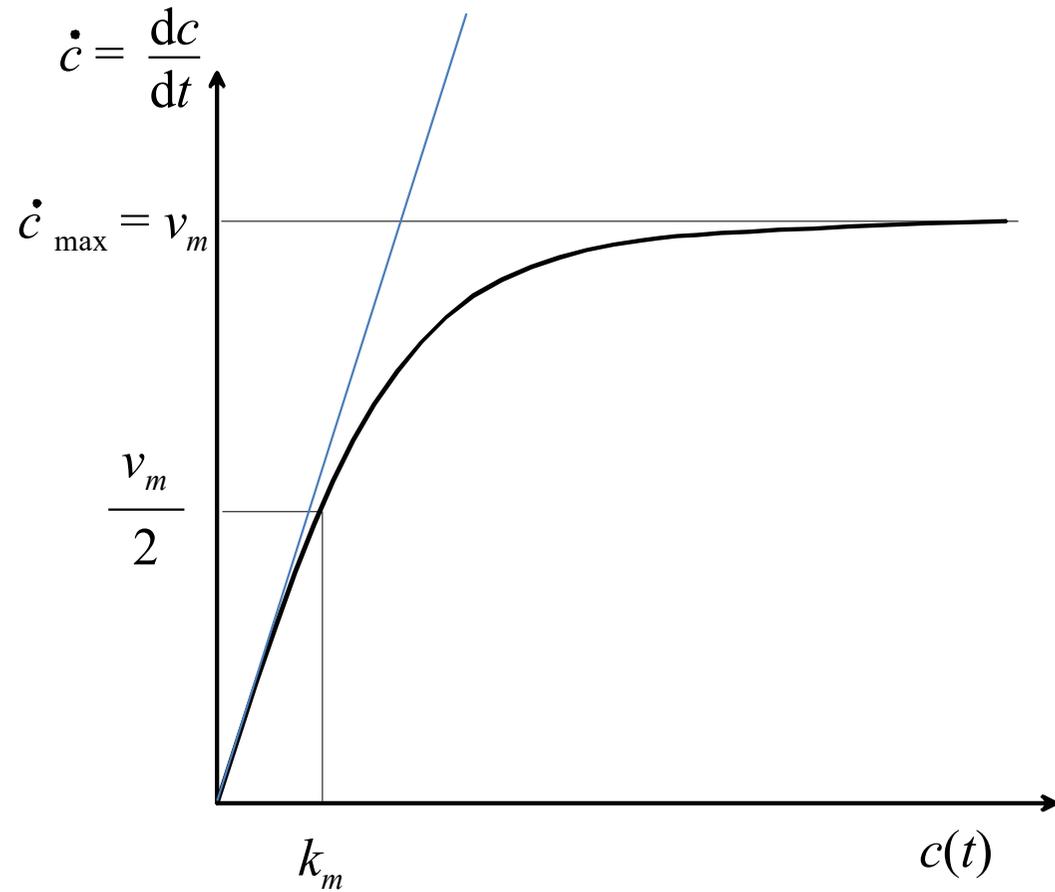
$$\lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{v_m \cdot c}{(k_m + c) \cdot V_d} \right) = \frac{v_m}{V_d}$$

# Enzymatic Reactions & Carrier Transport

---

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{v_m \cdot c}{(k_m + c) \cdot V_d} \right) = \frac{v_m}{V_d}$$

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{v_m \cdot c}{(k_m + c) \cdot V_d} \right) = \frac{v_m}{k_m \cdot V_d} \cdot c$$



# Bio- and Pharmacokinetics

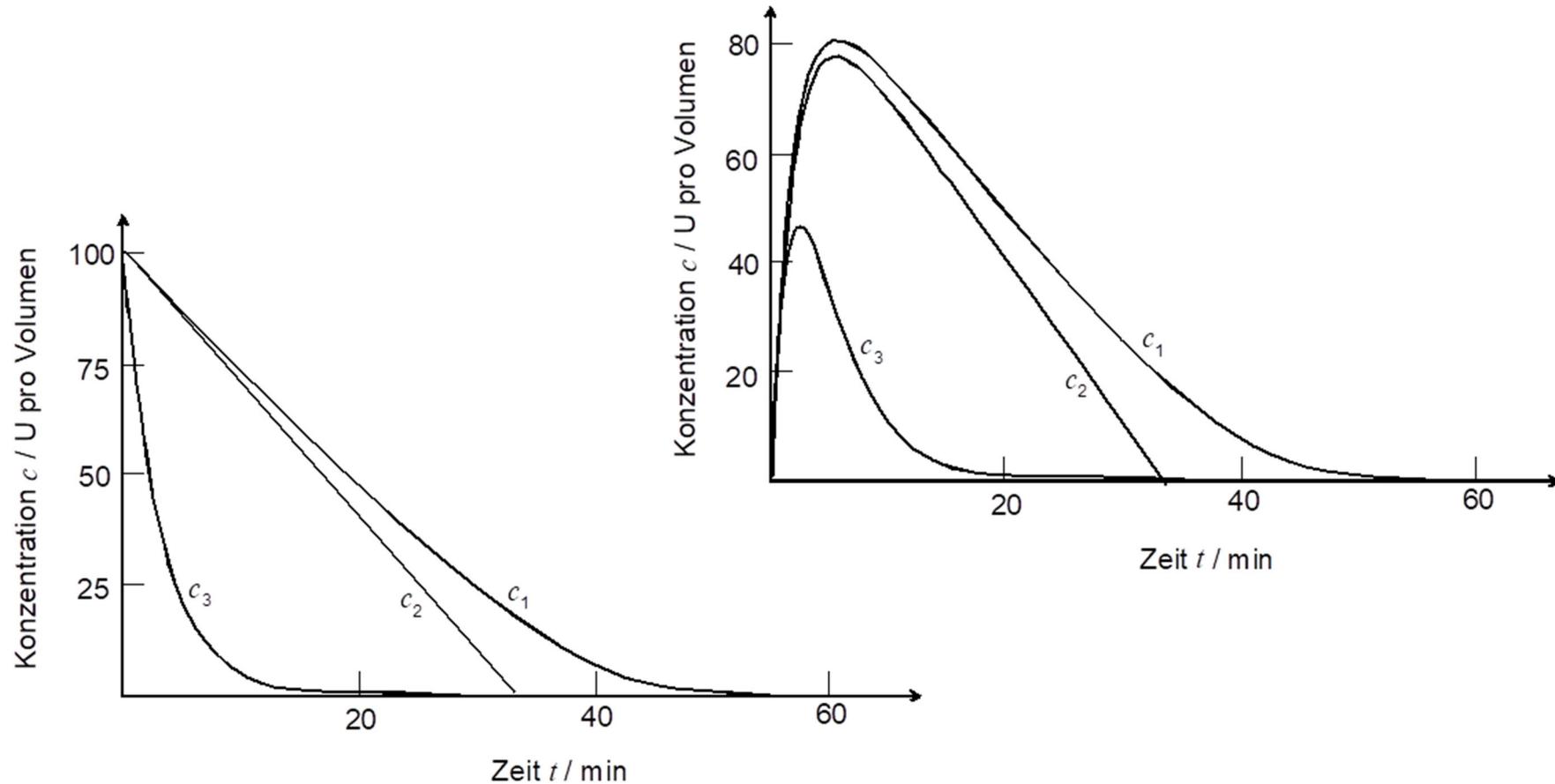


Fig.9. first-order and Michaelis-Menten kinetics without (lower left) and with resorption (upper right)

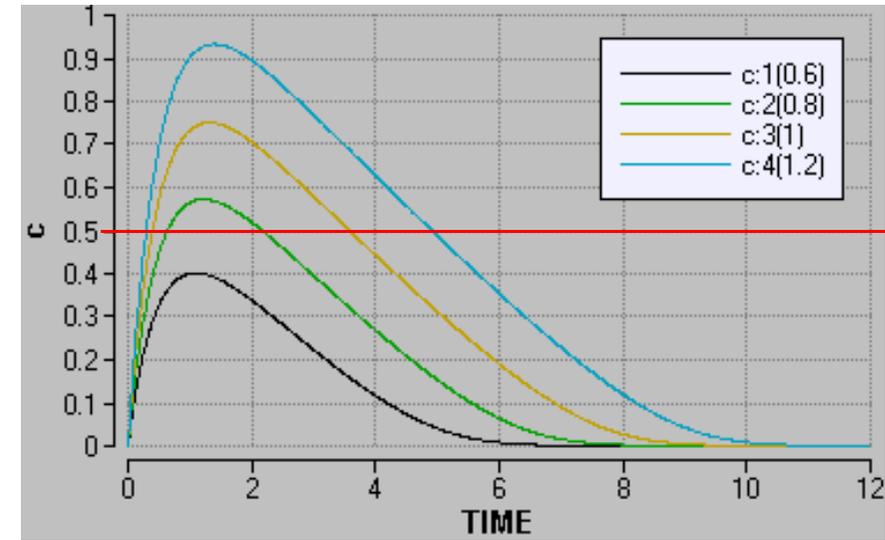
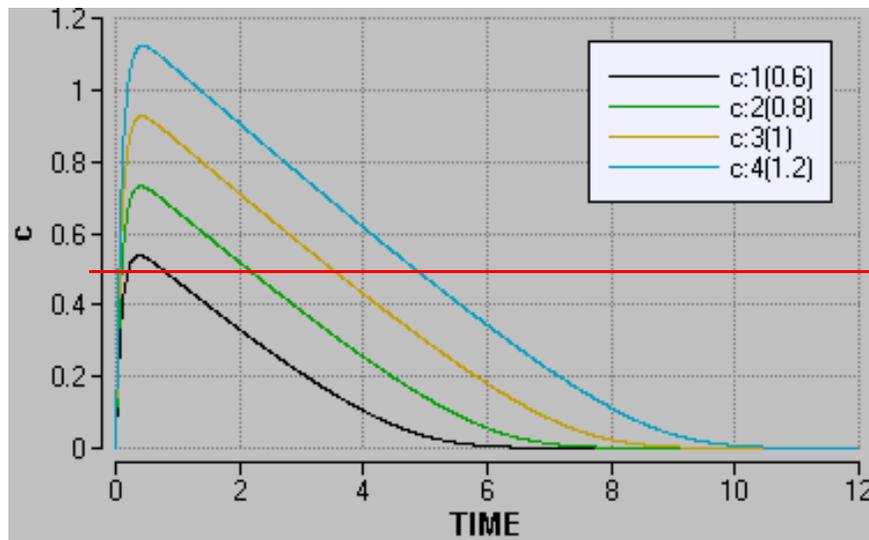
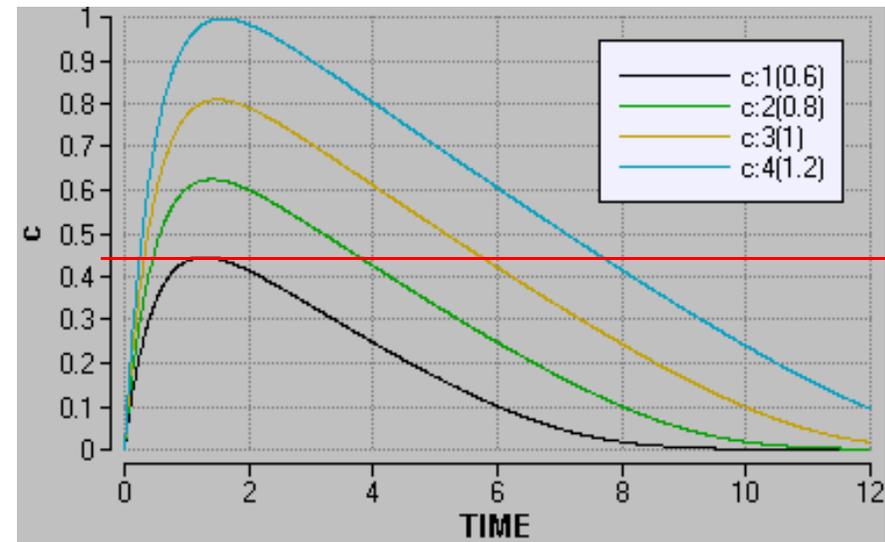
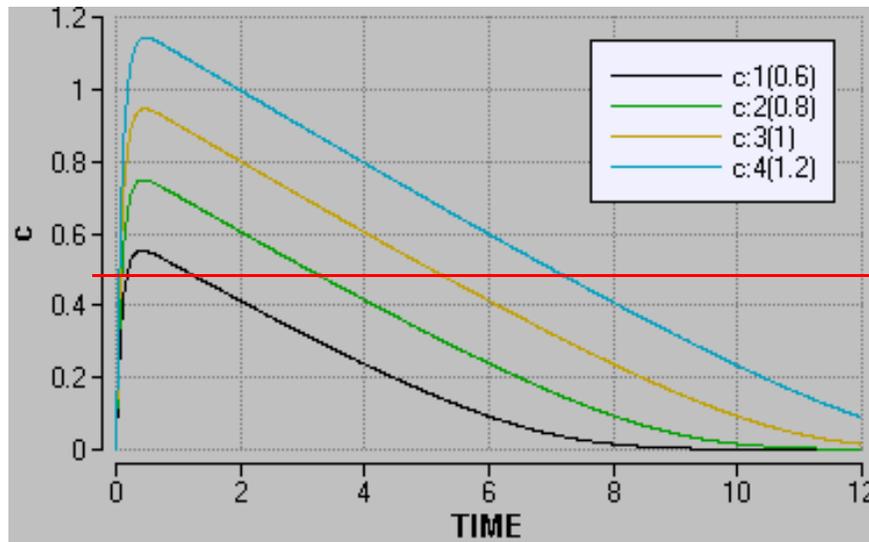


Fig.10. elimination of alcohol in dependence of the initial blood concentration for different resorption - and elimination parameters (left:  $k_a = 10 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ; right:  $k_a = 2 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) and  $v_m = 0.55$  (upper) and  $0.8 \text{ bap-l/h}$  (lower)

Imaging in nuclear medicine – a  
way to catch bio-kinetics

# PET & SPECT: Tomography in Nuclear Medicine

---

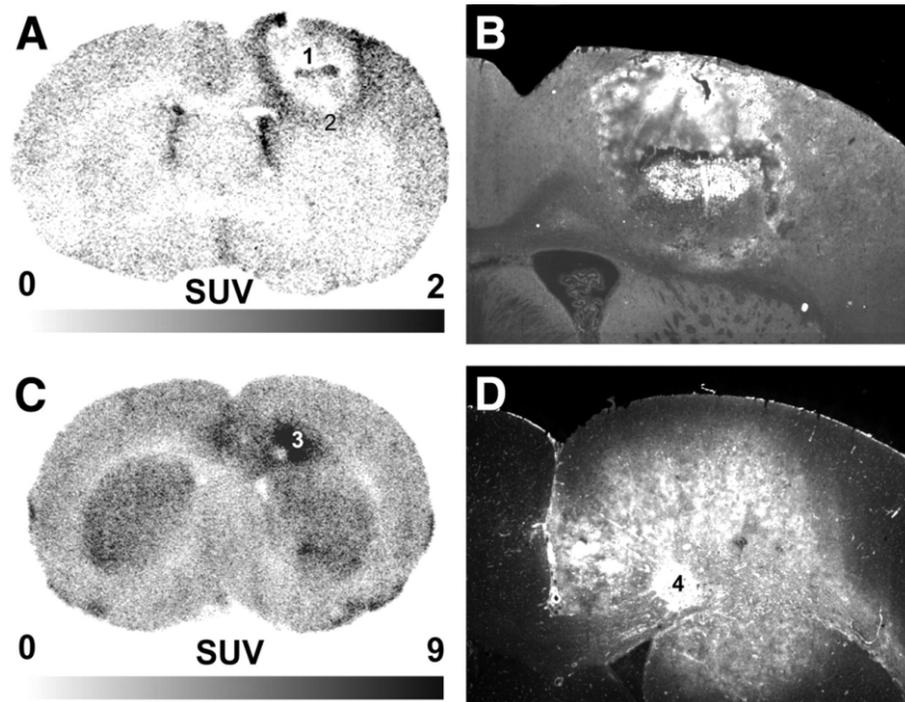


## Applications / Indications:

- Metabolic information (tracer principle)
- $^{18}\text{F}$ -FDG for PET brain imaging or cancer metastasis search
- $^{99\text{m}}\text{TcO}_4$  for bone micro fractions or metastasis search
- Cardiology
- Theranostics

# PET & SPECT: Tomography in Nuclear Medicine

---



Types of Tracers / Molecules that can be labelled with radioisotopes:

- Glucose
- Neurotransmitters (neuronal activity)
- Hormones (endocrine system)
- Cytokines (immune system)

Uptake of  $^{18}\text{F}$ -FET (A) and  $^{18}\text{F}$ -FDG (C), together with the corresponding (B and D, respectively) Evans blue fluorescence scans.

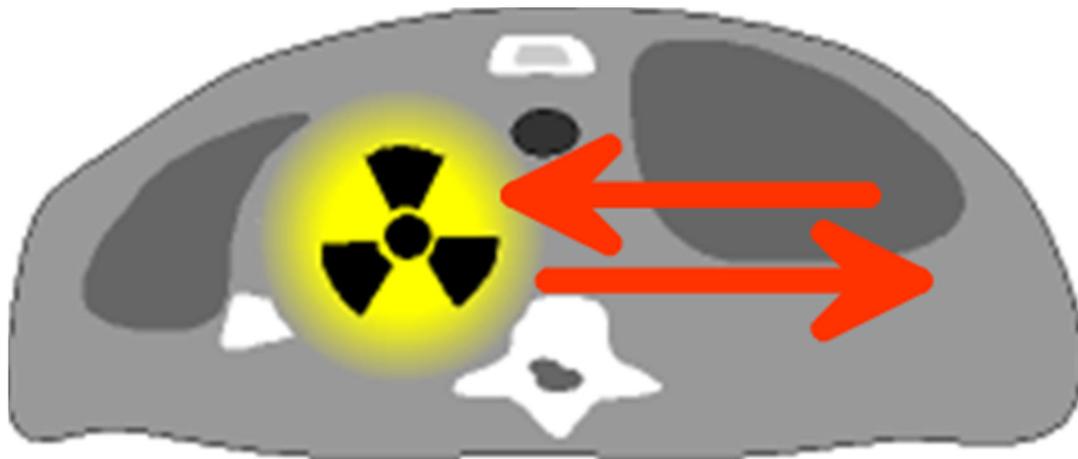
Spaeth, N, Wyss, MT, Weber, B, Scheidegger, S, Lutz, A, Verwey, J, Radovanovic, I, Pahnke, J, Wild, D, Westera, G, Weishaupt, D, Hermann, DM, Kaser-Hotz, B, Aguzzi, A, Buck A (2004): Uptake of  $^{18}\text{F}$ -Fluorocholin,  $^{18}\text{F}$ -Fluoroethyl-L-Tyrosine, and  $^{18}\text{F}$ -FDG in Acute Cerebral Radiation Injury in the Rat: Implications for Separation of the Radiation Necrosis from Tumor Recurrence. *J. Nucl. Med.*, **45**, 1931-1938

# PET & SPECT: Tomography in Nuclear Medicine

---

Principle of tracer and imaging:

- Tracer (specific molecule defines biokinetics)
- Tracer accumulates in certain structures (e.g. metastasis or active brain region)
- Isotope defines radiation energy and characteristics: For PET, a positron emitter has to be used

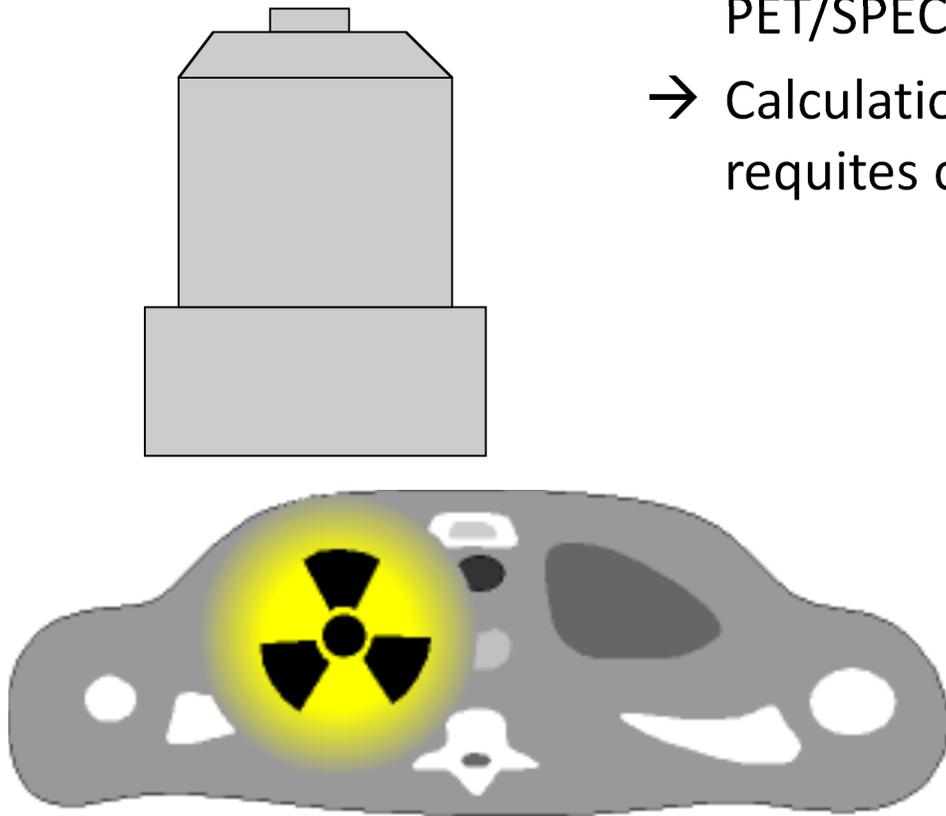


# PET & SPECT: Tomography in Nuclear Medicine

---

Principle of measurement:

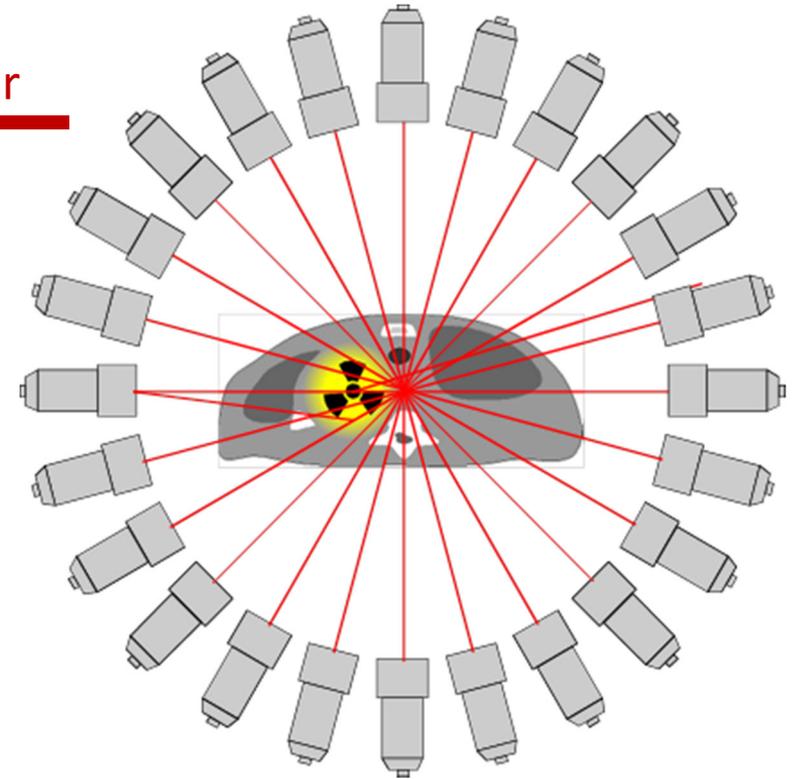
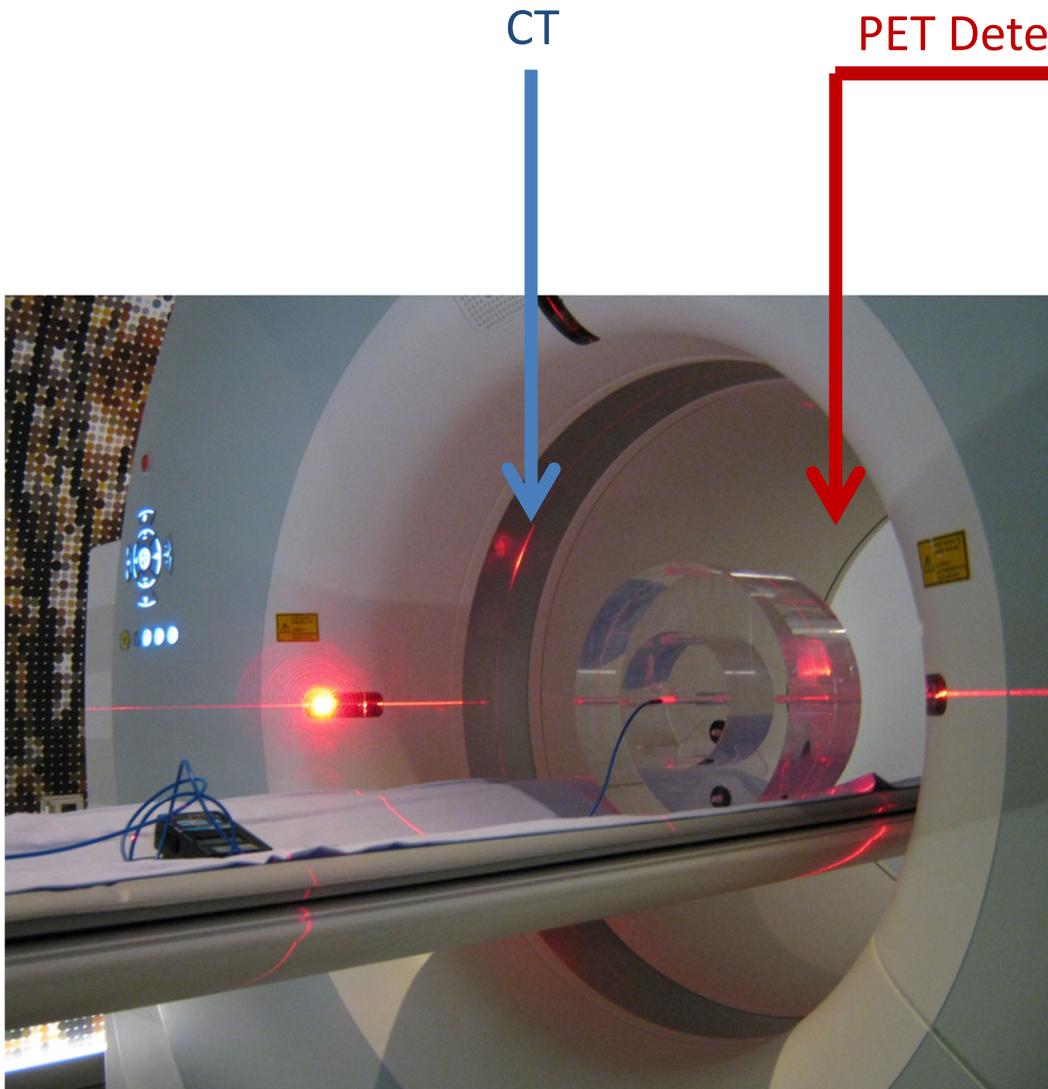
- Measurement of  $\gamma$ -radiation emitted by isotopes by a Gamma Camera or PET/SPECT
- Calculation of activity distribution requires calibration

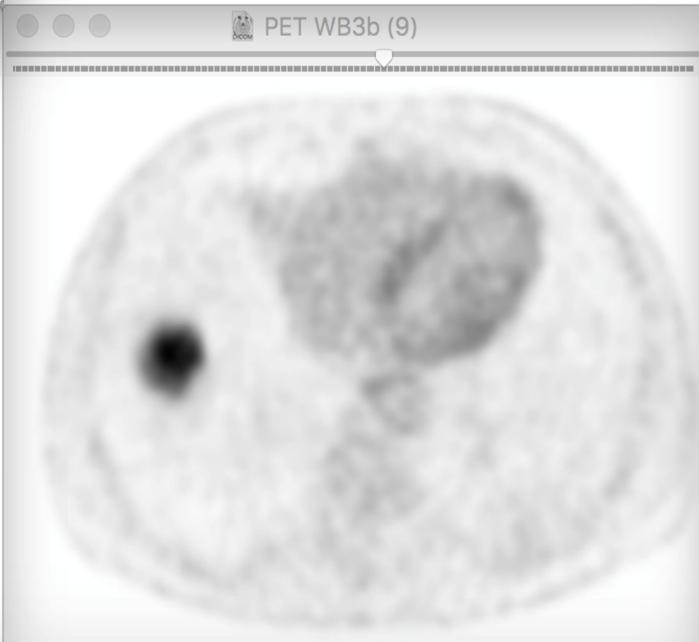
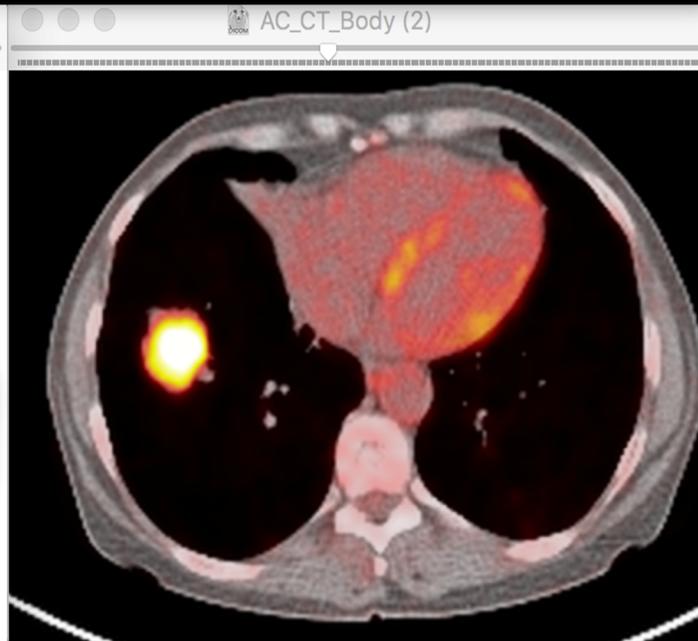
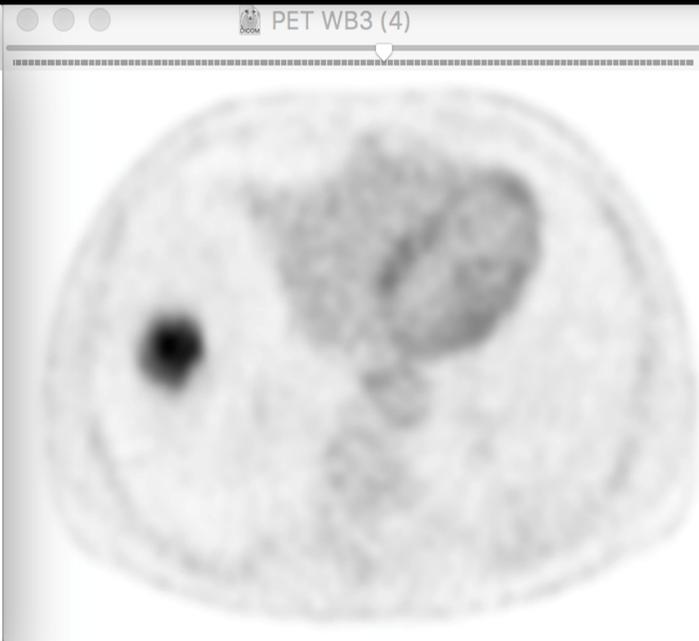




# PET: Positron Emission Tomography

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# Nuclear Medicine: Radioactive Decay

---

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N$$

$$A(t) = \dot{N}$$

$$A(t) = -\lambda N(t)$$


$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -\lambda A$$

Modelling of decay:

- Activity  $A$  [Bq] = number of decaying nuclei  $dN$  per second (time  $dt$ )
- Probability of decay is given by quantum mechanics of the nucleus and is independent from neighboring nuclei
- Decay is directly proportional to the number of remaining nuclei  $N$

# Nuclear Medicine: Radioactive Decay

---

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -\lambda A$$

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = -(k_e + \lambda)A$$

$$A(t) = A_0 \cdot e^{-(k_e + \lambda)t}$$

Modelling of decay:

- In addition to the radioactive (physical) decay, radio-isotopes are eliminated by biological processes of the body (elimination rate constant  $k_e$ )
- This contribution has to be added to the physical decay constant  $\lambda$
- The solution  $A(t)$  can be found by separation and integration and is described by an exponential decay

# Nuclear Medicine: Radioactive Decay

---

$$A(t) = A_0 \cdot e^{-(k_e + \lambda)t}$$

Modelling of decay:

$$T_{1/2}^{eff} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_e + \lambda}$$

→ The effective half-life is dependent on the physical- and biological half-life

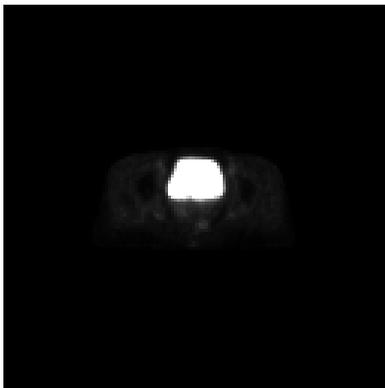
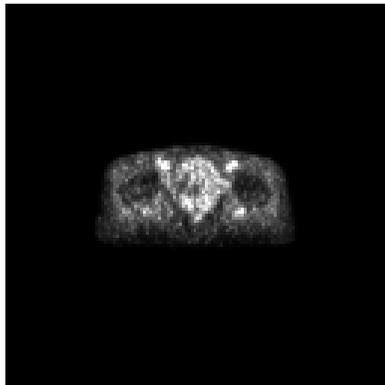
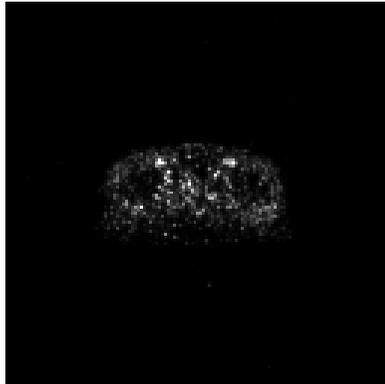
$$\frac{1}{T_{1/2}^{eff}} = \frac{k_e + \lambda}{\ln 2} = \frac{k_e}{\ln 2} + \frac{\lambda}{\ln 2} = \frac{1}{T_{1/2}^{bio}} + \frac{1}{T_{1/2}^{phy}} = \frac{T_{1/2}^{bio} + T_{1/2}^{phy}}{T_{1/2}^{bio} \cdot T_{1/2}^{phy}}$$



$$T_{1/2}^{eff} = \frac{T_{1/2}^{bio} \cdot T_{1/2}^{phy}}{T_{1/2}^{bio} + T_{1/2}^{phy}}$$

# Problems

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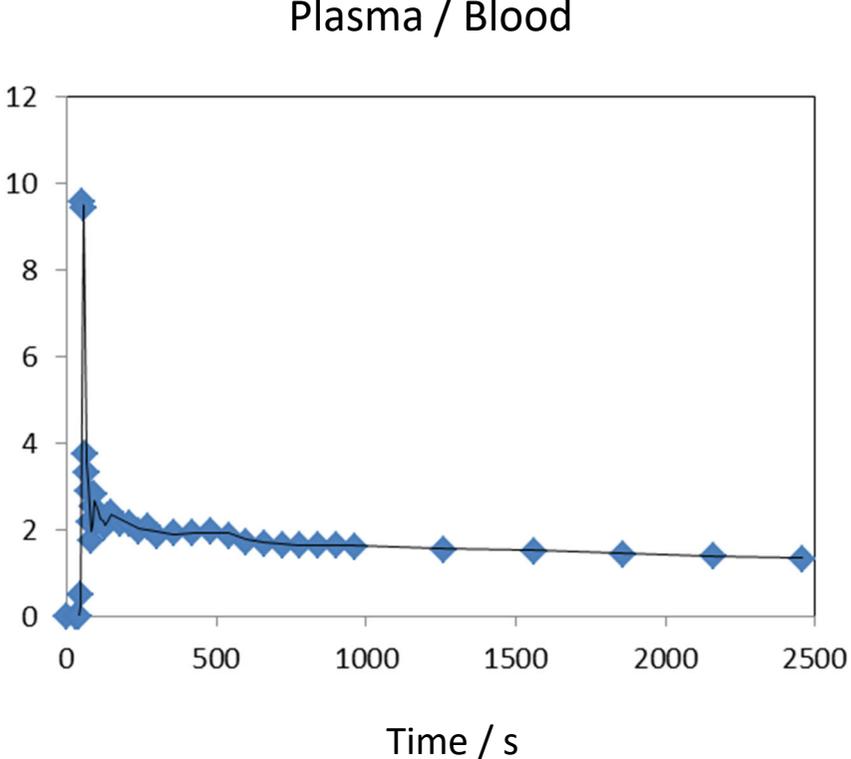
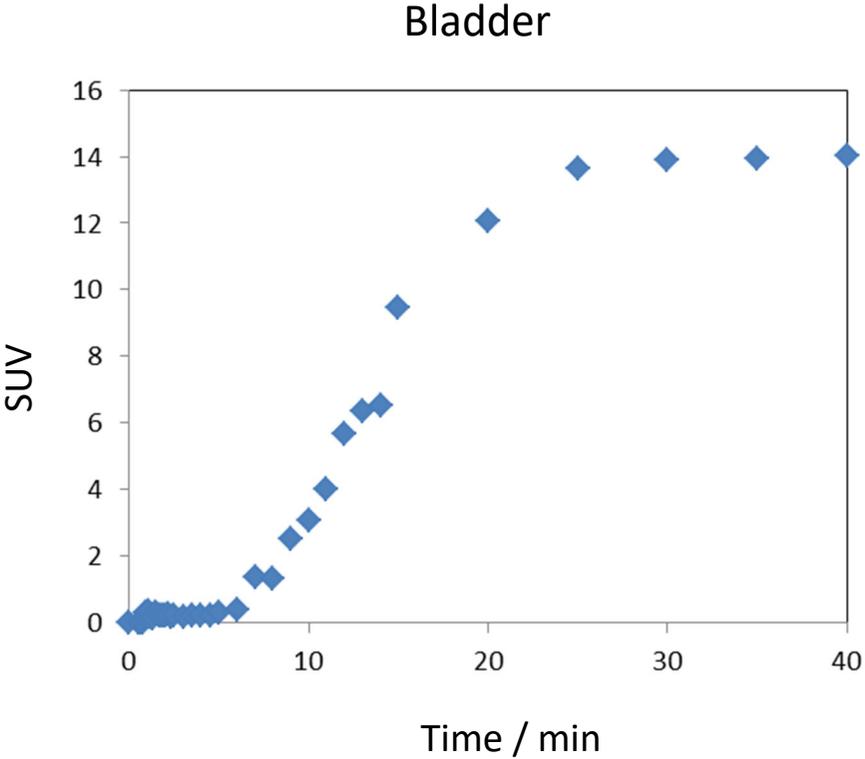


Model-based data analysis of Tracer accumulation and elimination (s. data set provided by materials week 6)

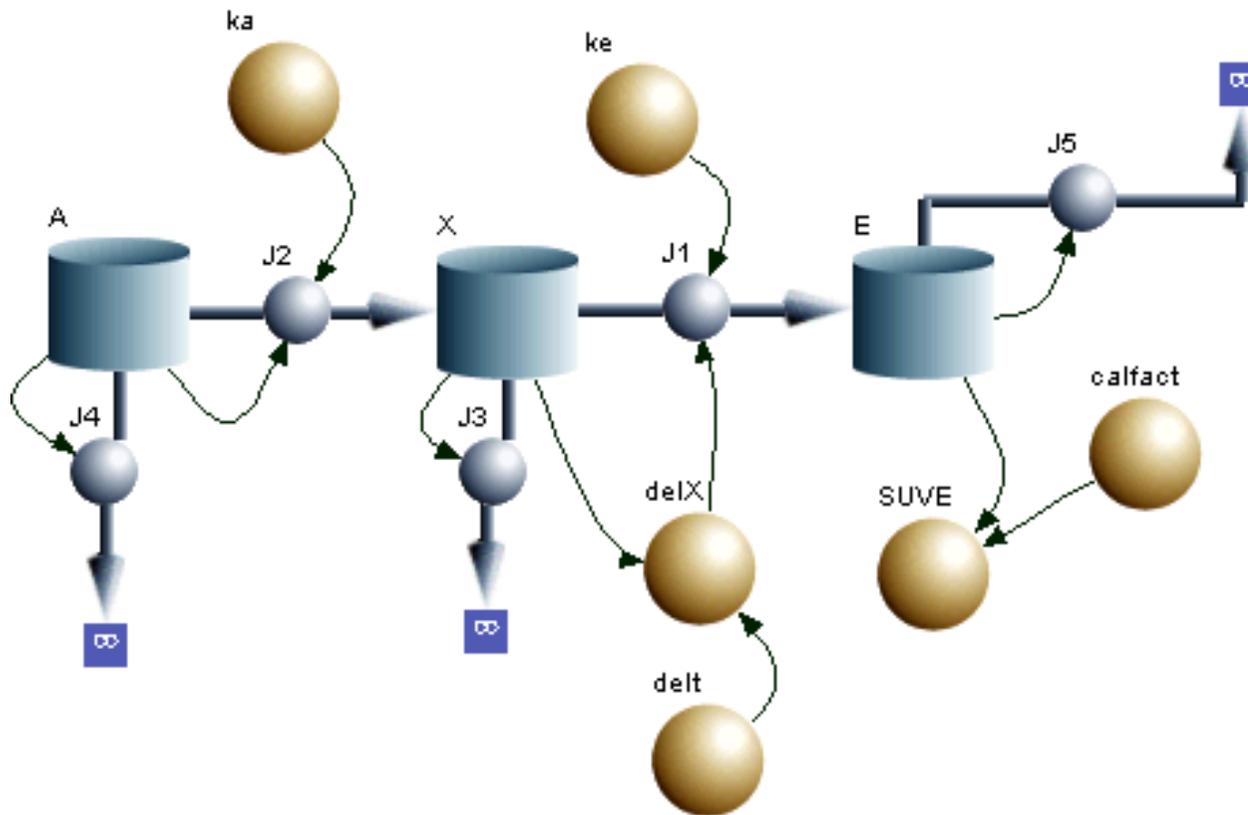
- Implementation of 2-Compartment model
- Calibration
- Fit of measured activities (measurements of SUV by a DICOM viewer)

# Measurements of SUV in Bladder and Plasma Compartment

---



# Modelling of SUV in Bladder and Plasma Compartment



{Top model}

{Reservoirs}  
 $d/dt (X) = - J1 + J2 - J3$   
 INIT X = 0  
 $d/dt (E) = + J1 - J5$   
 INIT E = 0  
 $d/dt (A) = - J2 - J4$   
 INIT A = 1

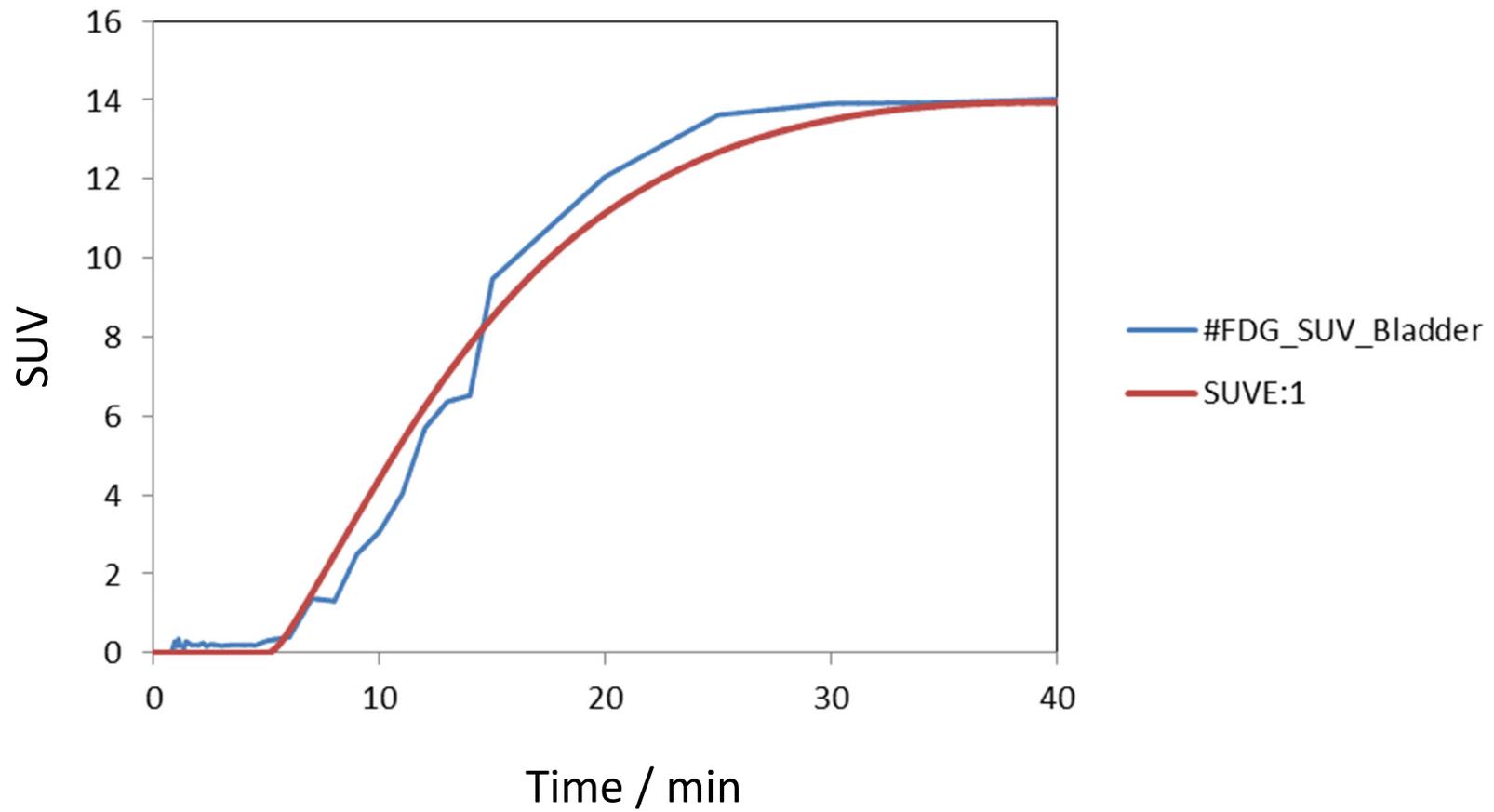
{Flows}  
 $J1 = ke * delX$   
 $J2 = ka * A$   
 $J3 = kr * X$   
 $J4 = kr * A$   
 $J5 = kr * E$

{Functions}  
 $ke = 0.1$   
 $ka = 2$   
 $SUVE = calfact * E$   
 $calfact = 19$   
 $delt = 5$   
 $delX = DELAY(X, delt)$

{Globals}  
 $kr = \text{logn}(2)/109$   
 {End Globals}

# Simulation of SUV in Bladder $E(t)$

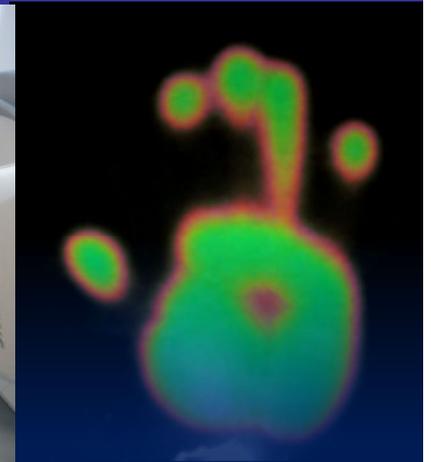
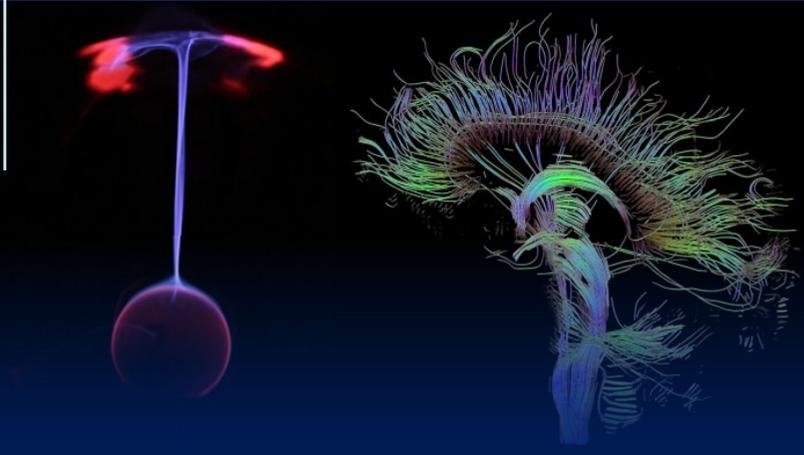
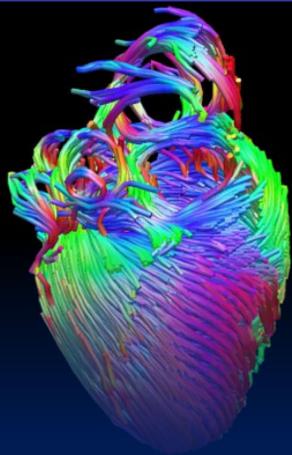
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# Pharmacodynamics

Hyperboost Training Course Model-based  
Data Analysis for Clinical Applications

Stephan Scheidegger  
Medical Biophysics Group ZHAW  
2024



# CONTENT

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## Pharmacodynamics

Introduction: PK-PD models

Different types of PD-models

- Fixed effect models
- Linear and loglinear models
- Emax models
- Sigmoidal Emax models
- LQ models
- TCP and NTCP

Combined PK-PD models for therapy simulation

# Learning Objectives

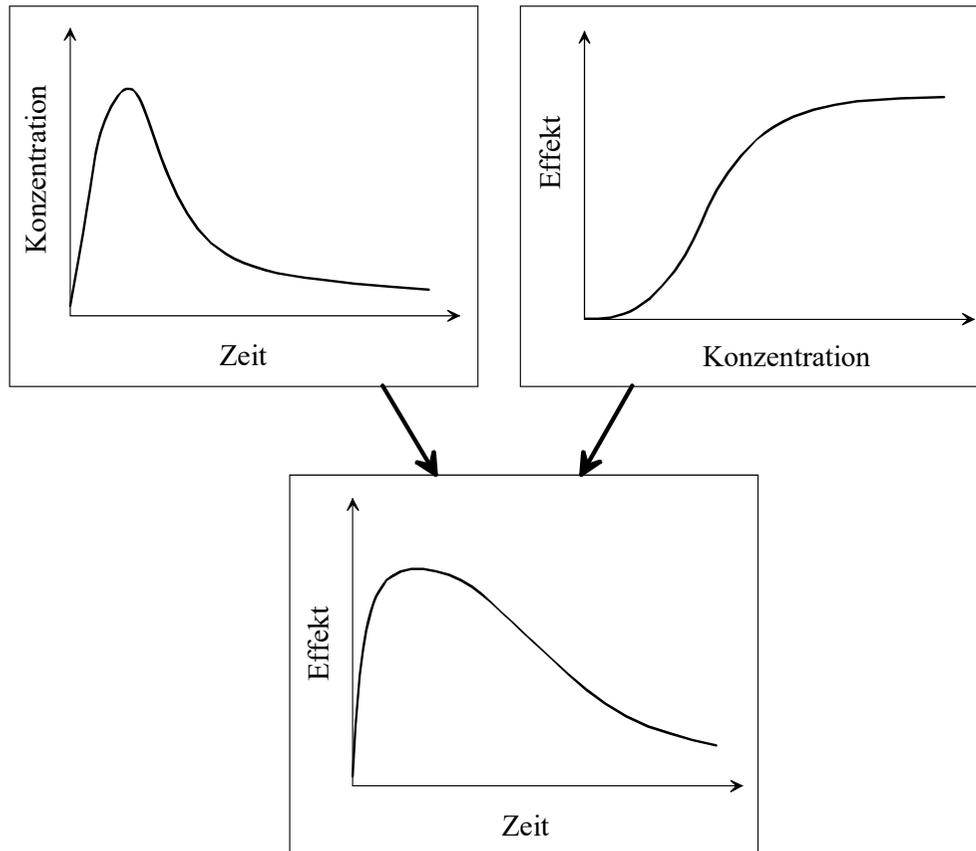


Students are able

- to explain the different PD models and their limitations
- to analyze biological data
- to model biological combined PD-PK systems

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Modelling the effect of therapies: Pharmacodynamics (PD) consider the effect of a drug to the body, pharmacokinetics (PK) model the effect of the body to the drug.

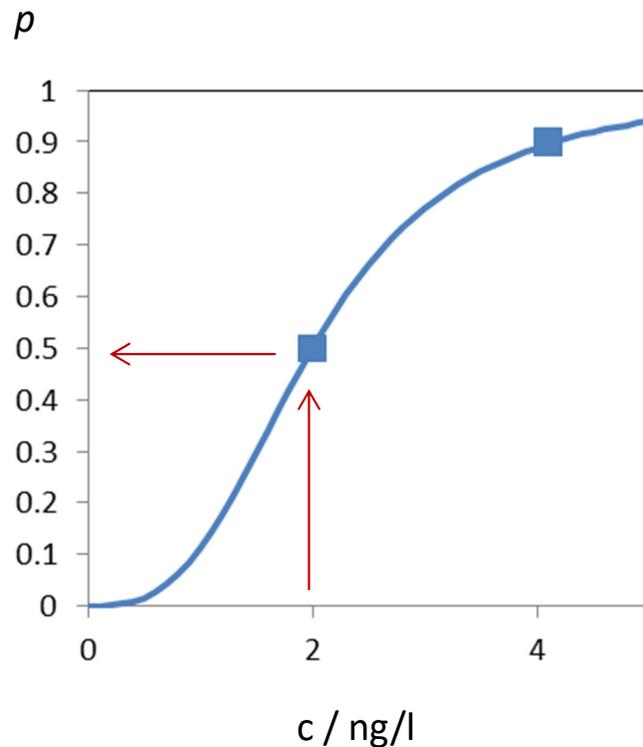
To model the dynamic response during a treatment, pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic models can be connected to a combined PK-PD model.

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Fig.1. Therapy response as a combination of a PD and a PK model

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Different types of PD-models:

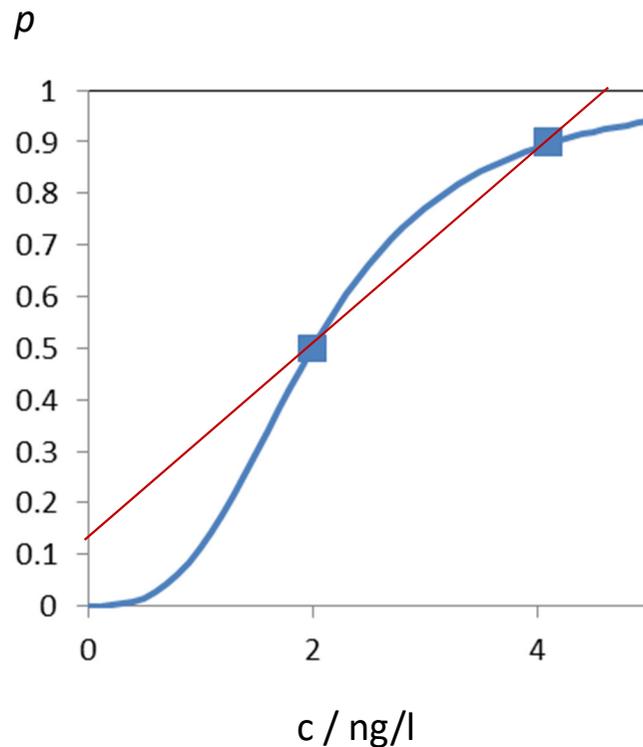
- fixed effect models give a probability for adverse reactions at a defined plasma concentration.
- Example for a fixed effect model: A plasma concentration of 2 ng/l digoxin is related to a probability of 50% and 4.1 ng/l to a probability of 90% adverse reaction.

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Fig.2. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$ .

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Different types of PD-models:

- Linear models: In most of the cases, the linear relation does not describe the data as soon as more concentrations are measured.

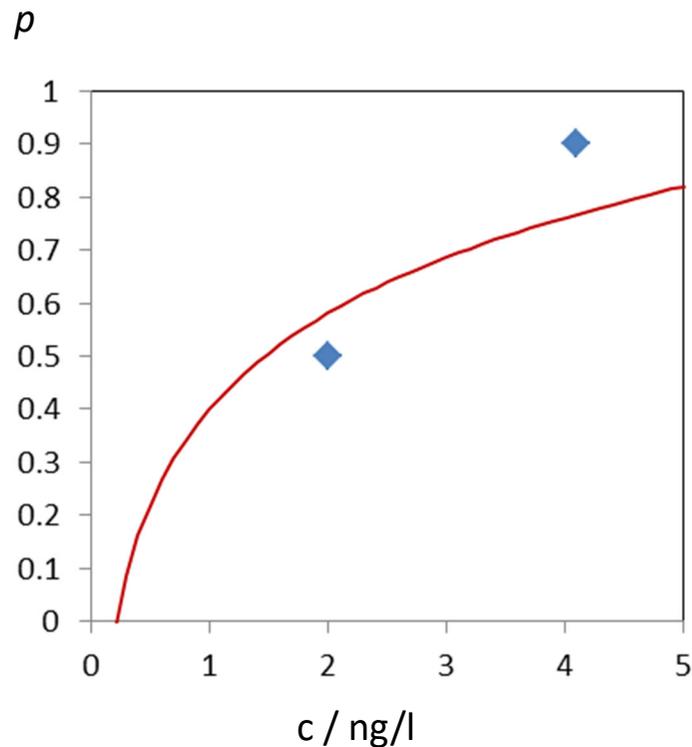
$$E = k \cdot c + E_0$$

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Fig.3. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  and with linear model.

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Different types of PD-models:

- logLinear models: depending on the parameters  $b$  and  $k$ , the effect at  $c = 0$  can be negative or positive, this do not correspond to the often observed sigmoidal relationship.

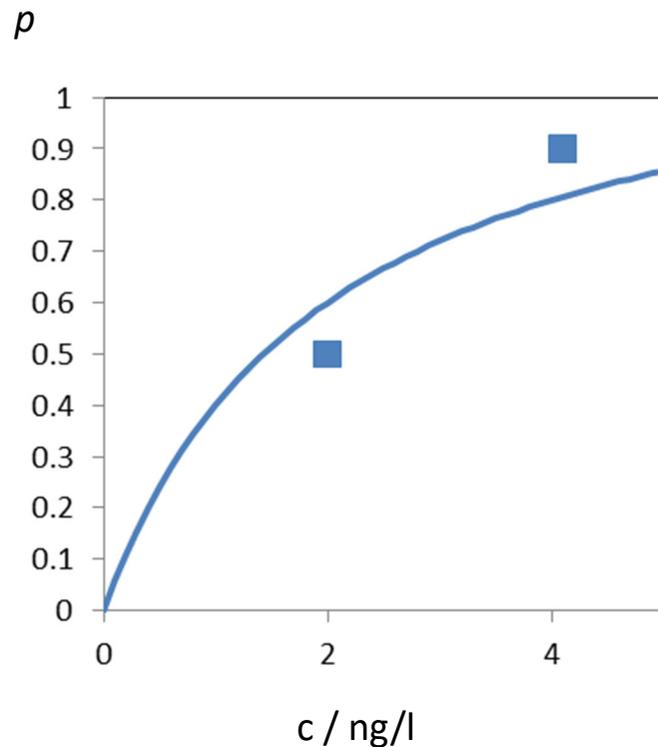
$$E = k \cdot \log c + b$$

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Fig.4. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  with a loglinear model.

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Different types of PD-models:

- $E_{\max}$ - models:  $E(c=0)$  or  $p(c=0) = 0$ ; but often do not really represent the data.

$$E = \frac{E_{\max} \cdot c}{c(E_{50}) + c}$$

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Fig.5. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  with an  $E_{\max}$ - model.

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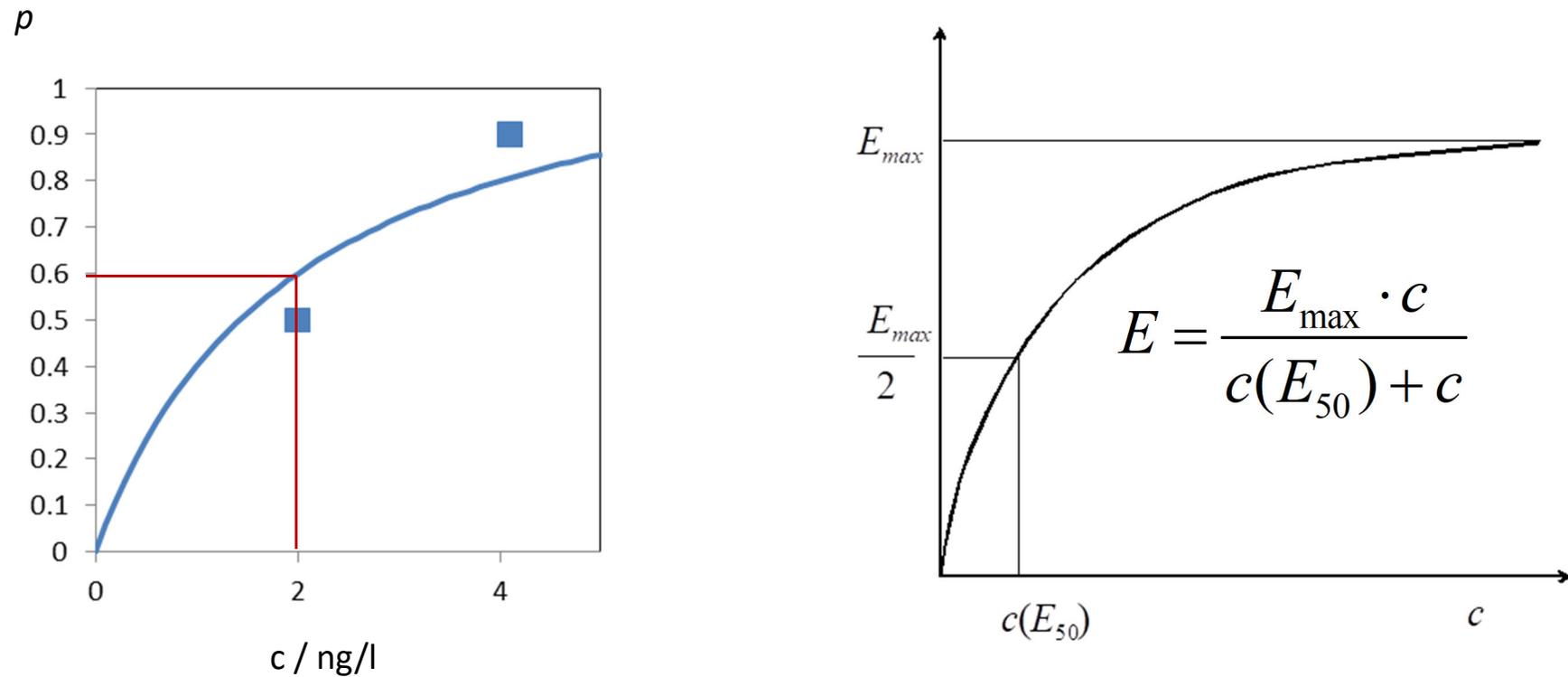
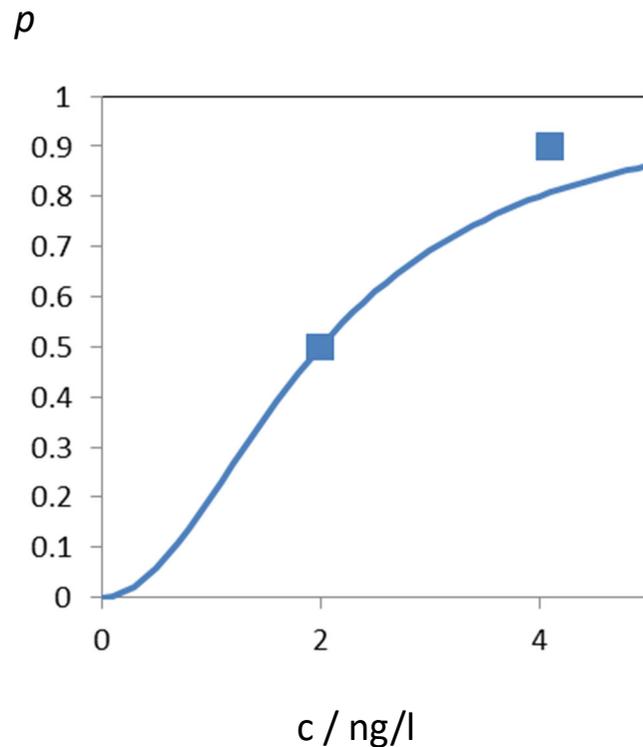


Fig.6. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  with an  $E_{max}$  – model: The meaning of the parameter values is visible in the right diagram.

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Different types of PD-models:

- Sigmoidal  $E_{\max}$ - models:  $E(c=0)$  or  $p(c=0) = 0$ ; depending on the hill factor  $n$ , these models show the often observed sigmoidal shape.

$$E = \frac{E_{\max} \cdot c^n}{c^n (E_{50}) + c^n}$$

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Fig.7. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  with an sigmoidal  $E_{\max}$ - model with  $n = 2$ .

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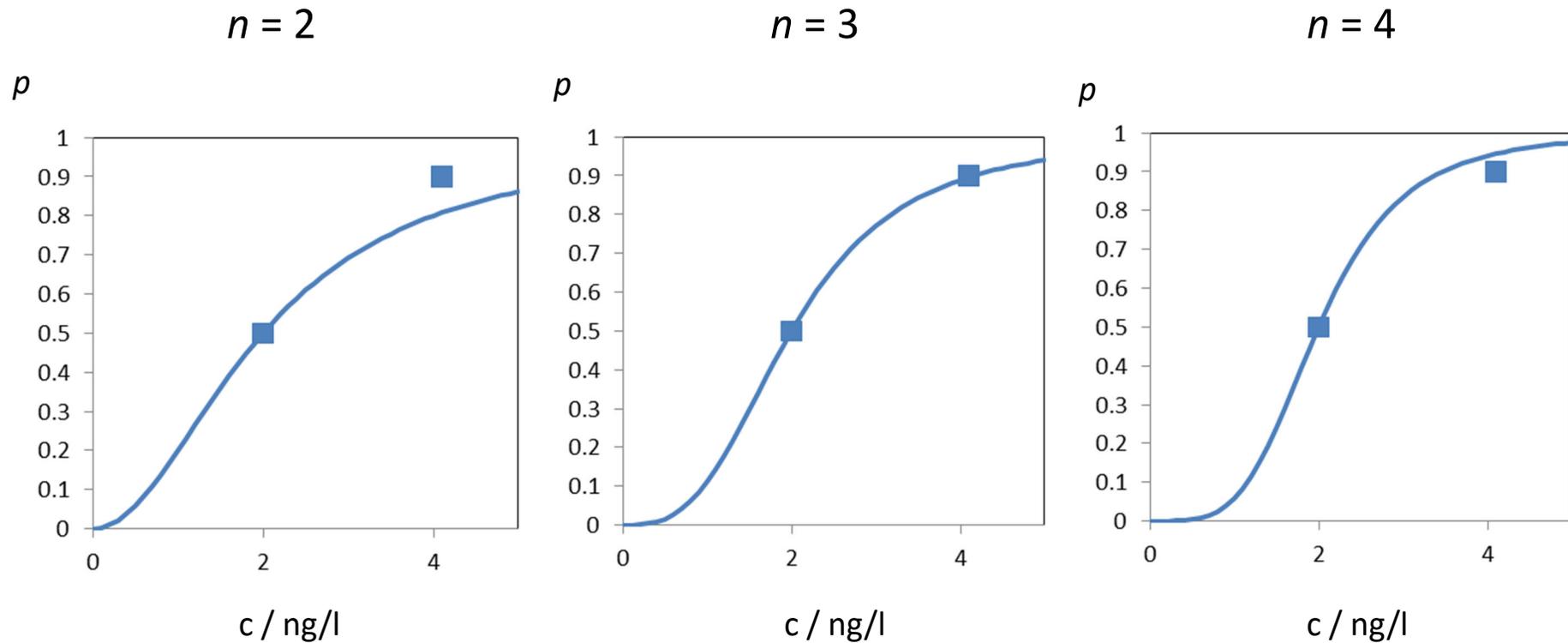
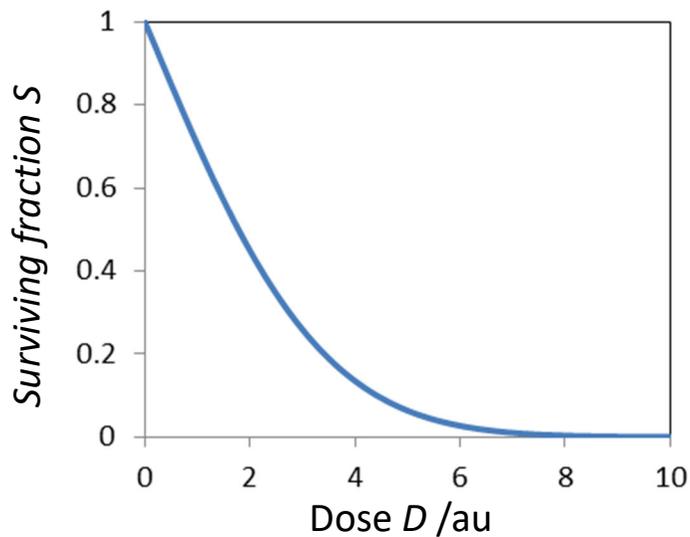


Fig.8. Probability  $p$  for adverse reactions (= effect  $E$ ) as a function of the plasma concentration  $c$  with an sigmoidal  $E_{\max}$  – model with varying  $n$ .

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Different types of PD-models:

- Linear-quadratic (LQ) models: Often used for anticancer treatments using chemo- or radiation therapy.
- Survival (surviving fraction of cancer cells  $S$ ) is modelled as function of the dose  $D$ :

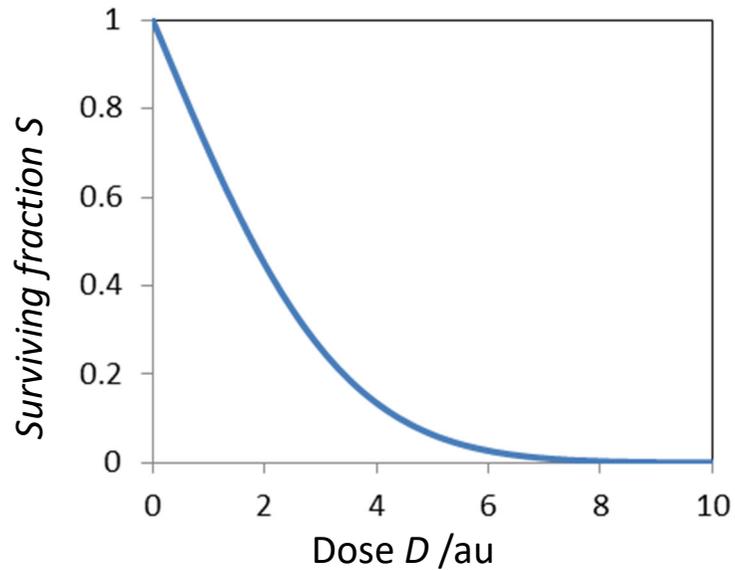
$$S = \frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-(\alpha D + \beta D^2)}$$

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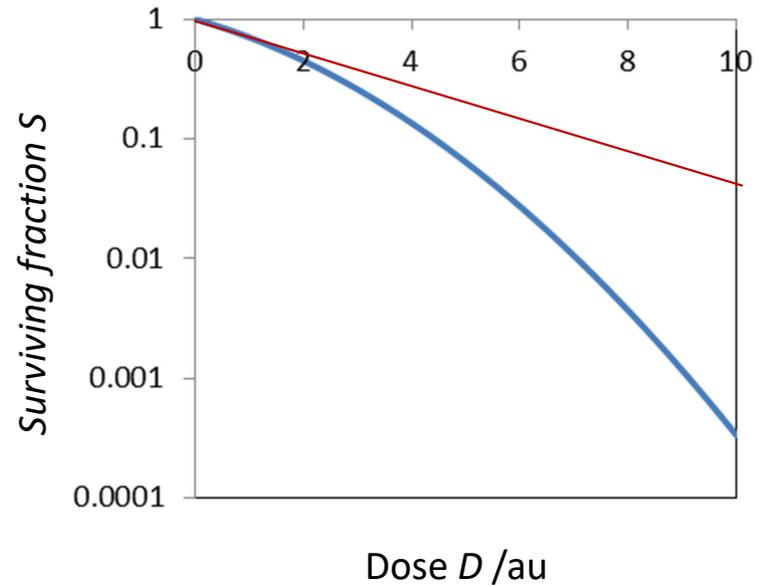
Fig.9. Surviving fraction  $S$  as a function of the dose  $D$  with a linear quadratic model (linear scales).

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$$S = \frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-(\alpha D + \beta D^2)}$$

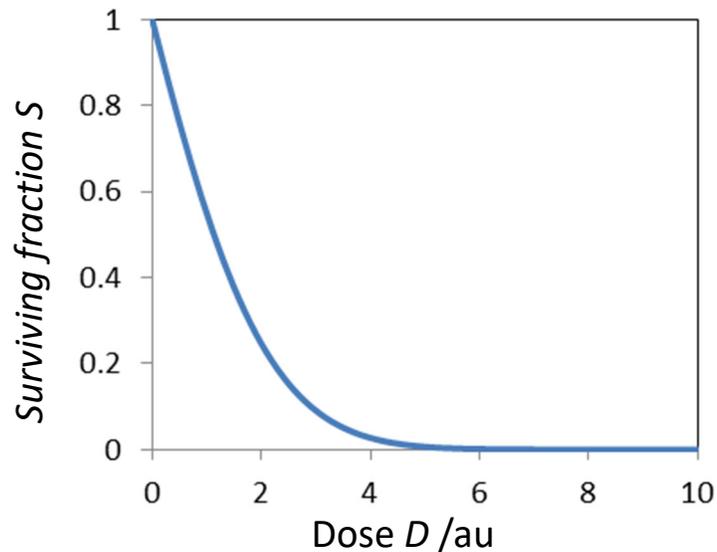


$$\log S = -(\alpha D + \beta D^2)$$

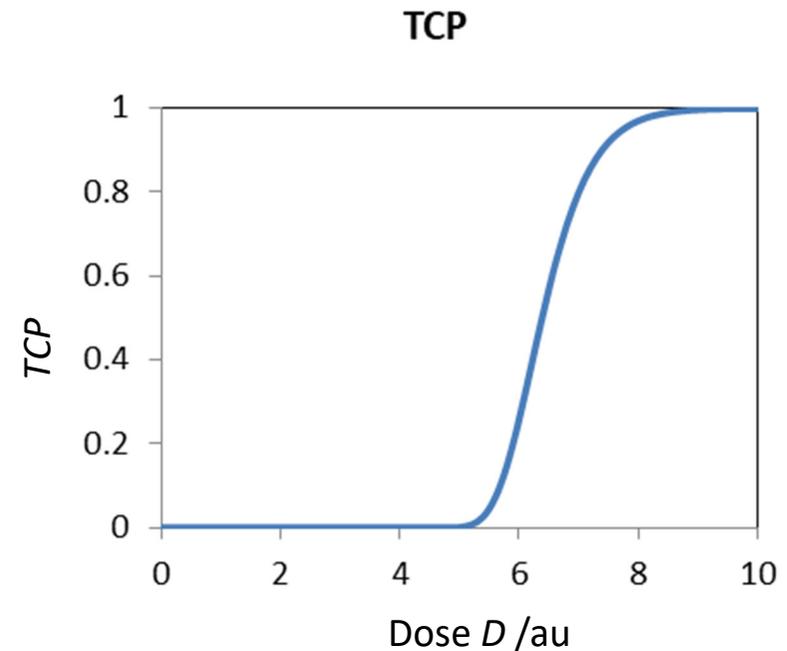
Fig.10. Surviving fraction  $S$  as a function of the dose  $D$  with a linear quadratic model, left: linear scale, right: log-scale;  $\alpha = 0.3$  / au;  $\beta = 0.05$  / au<sup>2</sup>.

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$$S = \frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-(\alpha D + \beta D^2)}$$

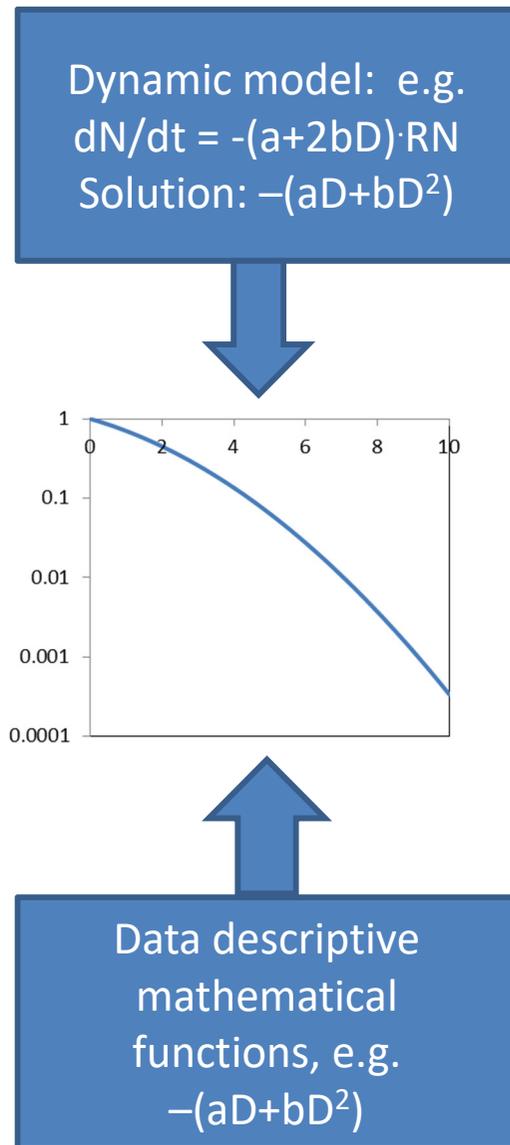


$$TCP = e^{-N} = e^{-N_0 S}$$

Fig.11. Surviving fraction  $S$  (left) and the Tumour Control Probability TCP (right) as a function of the dose  $D$ ;  $\alpha = 0.5$  / au;  $\beta = 0.1$  / au<sup>2</sup>.;  $N_0 = 1000$  cells (for solid tumours,  $N_0$  can exceed  $10^{12}$  cells!).

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## Different types of PD-models:

- Direct link models: the momentarily concentration leads to a momentarily effect.
- Indirect link models: momentarily plasma concentration does not correspond to the effect in time → hysteresis.  
→ the discussed PD models are all data descriptive models using a fitting formula and DO NOT describe the dynamic process behind the effect!