Colloque du club SMAC – Cancéropôle GSO « Statistiques et mathématiques appliquées au cancer » Modélisation et simulation d'essais cliniques

AN INTRODUCTION TO MODELS AND METHODS IN PK-PD

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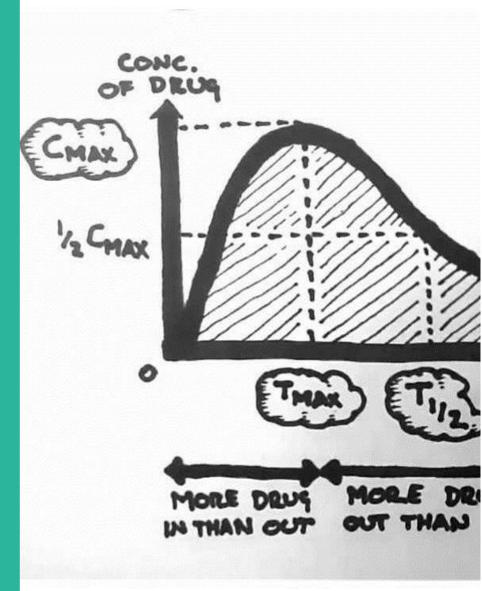




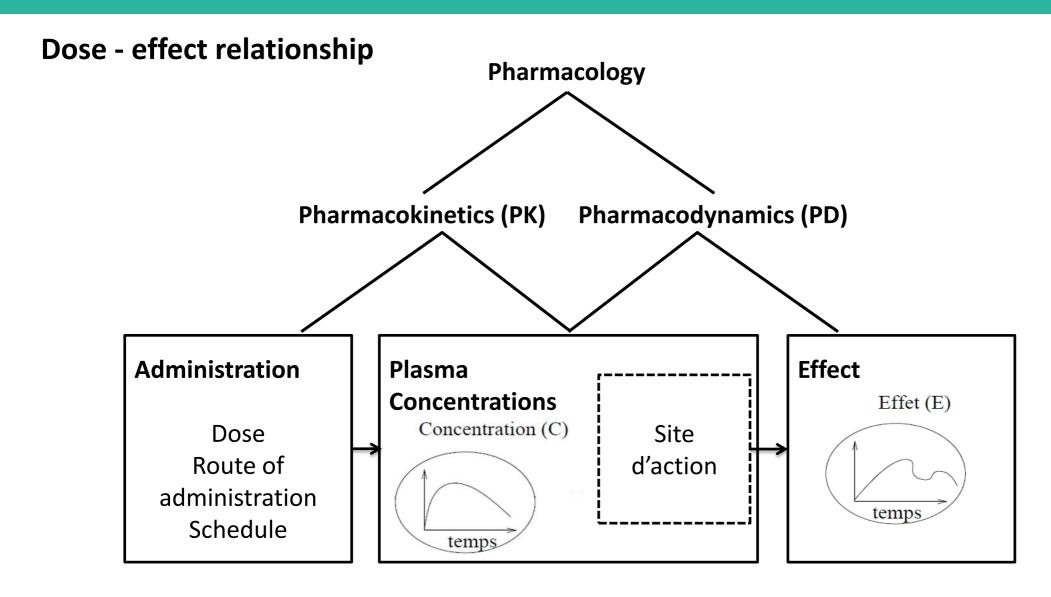


- 1. Models in pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics
- 2. Statistical methods
 Pharmacometrics
- 3. Treatment individualization
- 4. Design optimization
- 5. Conclusion

MODELS IN
PHARMACOKINETICS
AND
PHARMACODYNAMICS



PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS PHARMACOKINETICS & PHARMACODYNAMICS



PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS PHARMACOKINETICS & PHARMACODYNAMICS

Pharmacokinetics (PK): « What the body does to the drug»

- Descriptive and quantitative study of the fate of substances in the body
 - drug concentrations over time

Pharmacodynamics (PD): « What the drug does to the body or the pathogen»

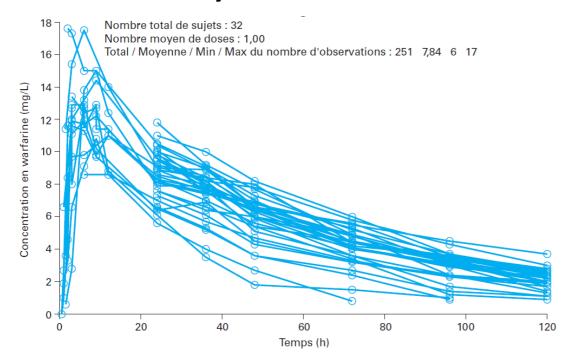
- > relationship between drug concentration and effect of the drug
- > the effect of the drug depends on its concentration on the site of action
- generally the blood is considered as a reflect of the drug concentration on the site of action
- > this is why it is critical to know what drives this concentration
- Variety of markers depending on the context
 - biological markers, pathogen concentration (viral load)
 - clinical markers (pain)
 - continuous, discrete, categorical

TYPICAL DATA IN PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

Warfarin: anticoagulant

32 healthy volunteers

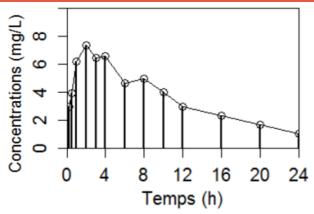
- PK data: plasma concentration after a unique oral administration
- objective: characterization of a median profile and the between-subjects variability



Holford, N. H. Clinical pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of warfarin. Understanding the dose-effect relationship. *Clin. Pharmacokinet.* **11**, 483–504 (1986).

ANALYSIS OF PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

Non-compartimental analysis



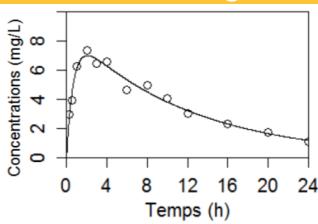


- area under the curve (AUC)
- maximum Concentration (C_{max})
- terminal half-life (t_{1/2})

Directly on the observed concentrations:

- few assumptions
- > 10 concentrations per subject
- calculation using trapezoidal method (linear or log-linear)

Modeling



Model the **whole course** of drug concentrations

The body is considered as a set of compartments

- homogeneous kinetics in a compartment
- transfers between the compartments
- requires to understand the main determinants of the drug PK

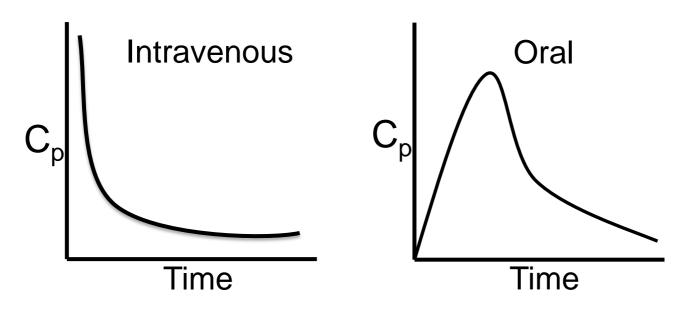
The transfers between the compartments are modeled using **differential equations**:

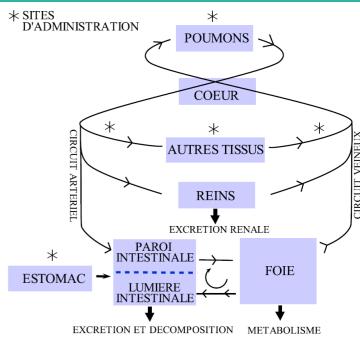
- parameters have a biological meaning
- models are non-linear

Absorption

Transfer of the drug from the site of administration to the blood

The route of administration will impact on:



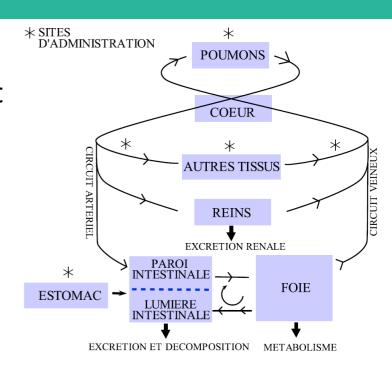


- The fraction of the dose reaching in the circulation (F = bioavailability)
- The time to reach the circulation (absorption)

Distribution

Diffusion of the drug through the blood in the different organs and tissues

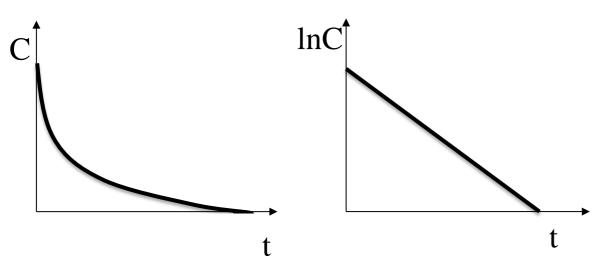
Volume of distribution (V): theoretical volume that a drug would have to occupy to provide the same concentration as it currently is in blood plasma

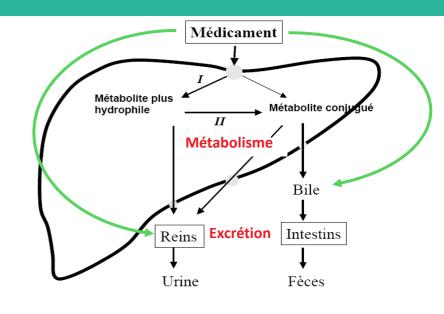


$$V = \frac{\text{Total amount of drug reaching the circulation}}{\text{Plasma concentration}} = \frac{A}{C}$$

Elimination

Metabolism (transformation of the drug) **Excretion** (elimination of the drug)





Generally the elimination is a first-order process

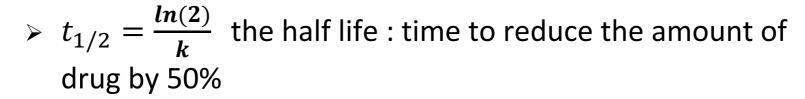
$$\rightarrow C(t) = C(0)e^{-kt}$$

Elimination

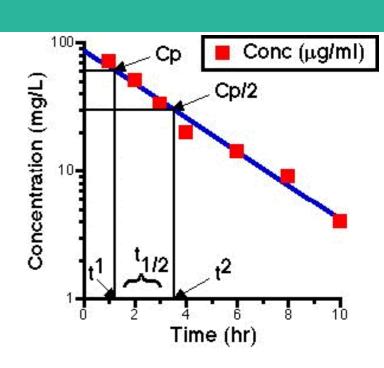
Metabolism (transformation of the drug) **Excretion** (elimination of the drug)

Generally the elimination is a first-order process

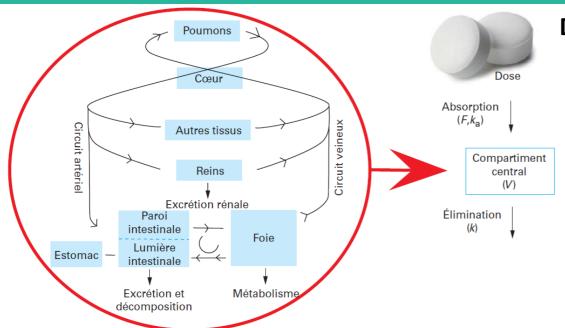
$$\Rightarrow \frac{dC}{dt} = -\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{C}$$



 $\succ Cl = k.V$ the drug clearance : the volume of blood cleared per unit of time



PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS PHARMACOKINETIC MODEL



Differential equations = mass balance

$$\frac{dA(1)}{dt} = -ka \times A(1)$$

$$A(1)_{t=0} = F \times Dose$$

$$\frac{dA(2)}{dt} = ka \times A(1) - k \times A(2)$$

$$A(2)_{t=0} = 0$$

$$k = \frac{CL}{V}$$

A(1): drug quantity in depot compartment (gut)

A(2): drug quantity in central compartment (measure compartment)

• observed concentration $C(t) = \frac{A(2)}{V}$

Analytical solution (Laplace transformation):

$$C(t) = \frac{F \times Dose}{V} \frac{ka}{(ka - \frac{CL}{V})} \left(e^{-\frac{CL}{V}t} - e^{-kat}\right)$$

PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS PHARMACOKINETIC MODEL

Empirical models Central Simplification of the ADME process > 1 to 3 compartments 100 -Concentration Central Peripheric $C(t) = Ae^{-\alpha t}$ $C(t) = Be^{-\beta t}$ $C(t) = Ce^{-\gamma t}$ Peripheric 1 Central Peripheric 2 60 120 180 240 Minutes since bolus injection

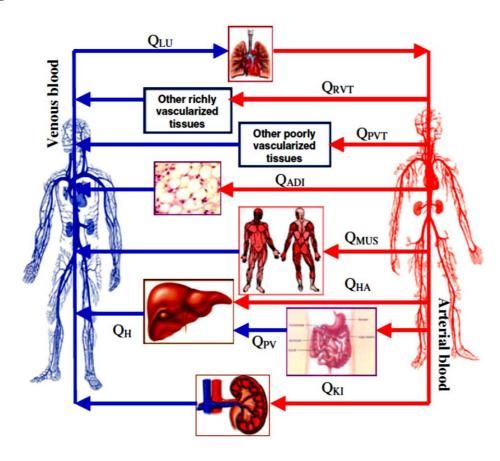
PK profile represented on log-scale

Number of decreasing slopes = number of compartments

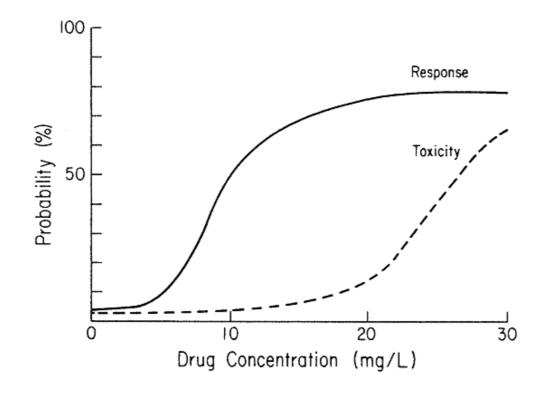
PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

Physiological models

- PBPK: Physiologically Based PharmacoKinetics
 - > using biologic and in vitro data



- Direct or indirect relationship between drug concentrations and effect
- A too high drug exposure increases the risk of toxicity
- Purpose: find the best therapeutic window, i.e. a balance between drug efficacy and toxicity



Direct response model

Direct relationship between drug concentrations and effect

$$E(t) = E_0 \left(1 + E_{max} \frac{C}{C + C_{50}} \right)$$

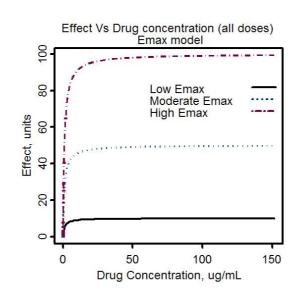
E(t): observed effect

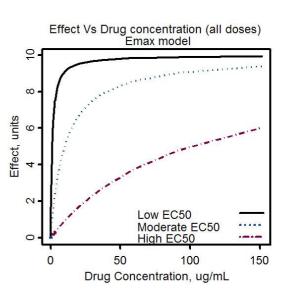
 E_0 : response without treatment (baseline)

 E_{max} : maximal effect

 C_{50} : concentration to reach $\frac{E_{max}}{2}$

C : drug concentrations



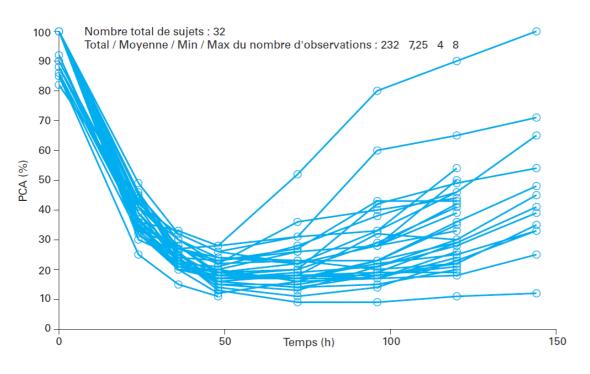


Indirect response model

Lag between the drug action and the effect observed on the marker

Warfarin: inhibition of vitamin K recycling

- > prevents formation of coagulation factors
- decrease of PCA (Prothrombin Complex Activity)



$$\frac{R_{\text{in}}}{1 - I_{\text{max}} \frac{C(t)^{\gamma}}{C_{50}^{\gamma} + C(t)^{\gamma}}}$$
 Effet

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = R_{in} \left(1 - \frac{C(t)^{\gamma}}{C_{50}^{\gamma} + C(t)^{\gamma}} \right) - k_{out} E$$

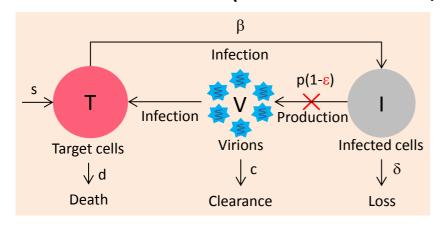
$$E(t = 0) = \frac{R_{in}}{k_{out}}$$

 R_{in} : Input (production of coagulation factors)

 k_{out} : Loss (degradation of coagulation factors)

Viral kinetic model

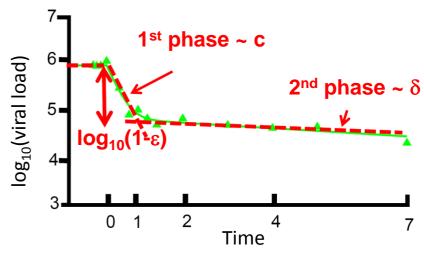
• A basic model (Neumann et al, Science. 1998)



$$\frac{dT}{dt} = s - dT - \beta VT$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta VT - \delta I$$

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = (1 - \varepsilon)pI - cV$$



s: production rate of target cells

d: death rate of target cells

 β : infection rate

p: production rate per infected cell

c: clearance rate of free virus

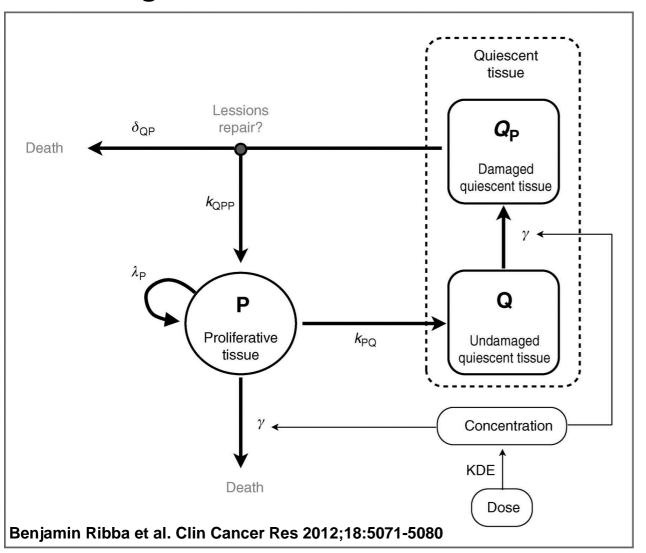
 δ : loss rate of infected cells

ε: treatment effectiveness

MODELS IN PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

PHARMACODYNAMIC MODEL

Tumor growth inhibition model



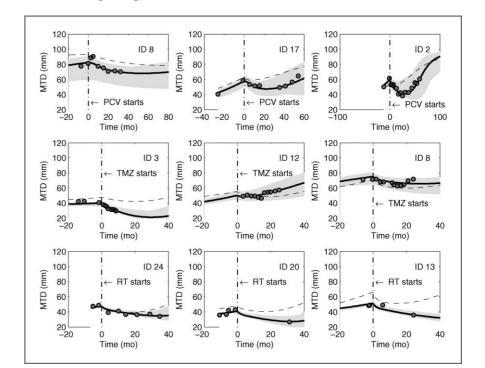
$$\frac{dC}{dt} = -KDE \times C$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \lambda_p \times P\left(1 - \frac{P^*}{K}\right) + k_{Q_PP} \times Q_P - k_{PQ} \times P - \gamma_P \times C \times KDE \times P$$

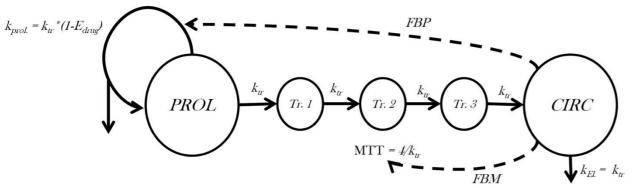
$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = k_{PQ}P - \gamma_Q \times C \times KDE \times Q$$

$$\frac{dQ_P}{dt} = \gamma_Q \times C \times KDE \times Q - k_{Q_PP}Q_P - \delta_{QP} \times Q_P$$

$$P^* = P + Q + Q_P$$



Drug-induced thrombocytopenia model



$$\frac{dPROL}{dt} = k_{prol} \cdot (1 - E_{drug}) \cdot FBP \cdot PROL - k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot P1$$

$$\frac{dTr \ 1}{dt} = k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot PROL - k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 1$$

$$\frac{dTr \ 2}{dt} = k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 1 - k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 2$$

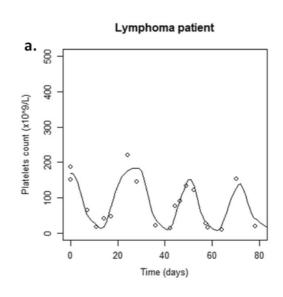
$$\frac{dTr \ 3}{dt} = k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 2 - k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 3$$

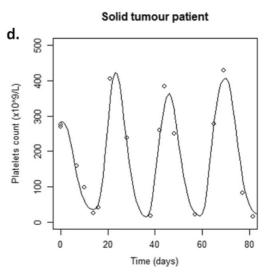
$$\frac{dCIRC}{dt} = k_{tr} \cdot FBM \cdot Tr \ 3 - k_{El} \cdot CIRC$$

$$E_{drug} = \frac{IMAX \cdot Conc}{IC_{50} + Conc}$$

$$FBP = \left(\frac{BASE}{CIRC}\right)^{\gamma} \quad FBM = \left(\frac{BASE}{CIRC}\right)^{\delta}$$

$$If \ solid \ tumour \ patients : BASE = BASE_{0 \ EV} - \frac{IMAT \cdot t}{IT_{50} + t}$$



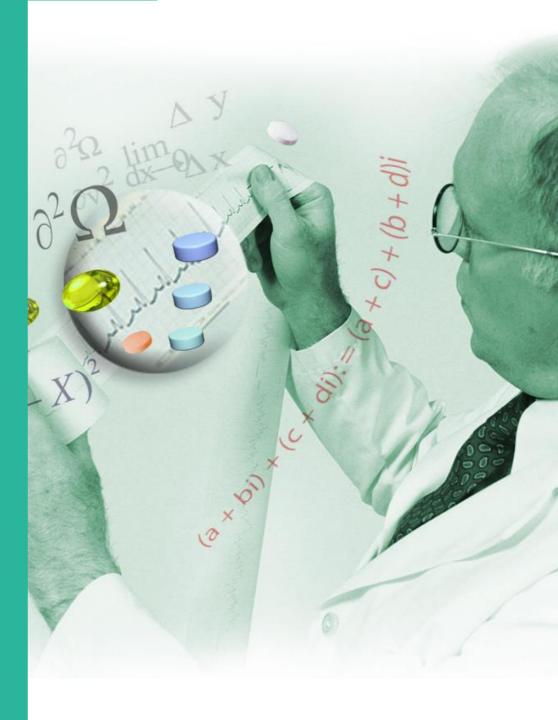


INTERESTS FOR MODELING

- Quantitative summary of the evolution of profile across time through physiological parameters
- Better predictive / simulation ability for other doses, special populations...
- Analysis of all longitudinal data in clinical trials (not only the endpoint): more powerful to detect drug effect and less bias through the inclusion of dropouts
- Test of hypothesis on effect mechanism of drugs
- Comparison of groups of patients through statistical comparison of parameters
- Statistical issues: nonlinear models, high interindividual variability
 - → Nonlinear mixed effects models for parameters estimation

STATICAL METHODS

PHARMACOMETRICS

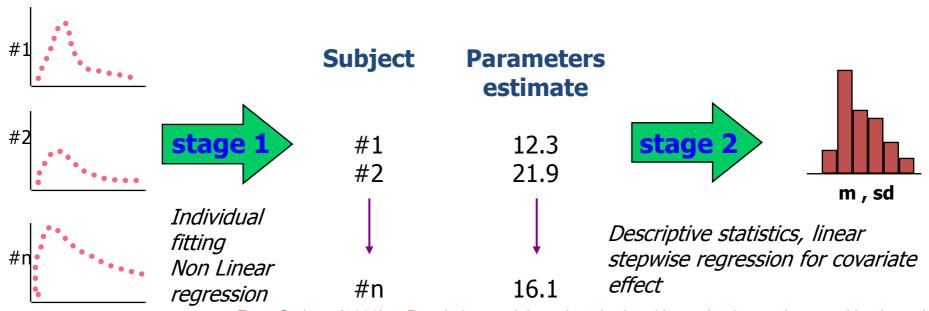


PHARMACOMETRICS

Science of quantitative pharmacology

- Quantify the pharmacologic activity of a drug and its variability between subjects and/or between occasions
 - two-stage method
 - population approach
 - main tool : nonlinear mixed effects models

TWO - STAGES METHOD



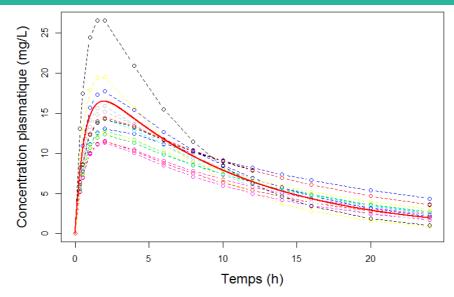
From Steimer (1992): « Population models and methods, with emphasis on pharmacokinetics », in M. Rowland and L. Aarons (eds), *New strategies in drug development and clinical evaluation, the population approach*

1. Individual nonlinear regression

- Estimation of individual parameters: require a large number of samples per subject
- 2. Statistical summary (mean, variance)
 - Overestimate the variability (do not distinguish the variability between individuals of the residual error)

3. Relations with covariates (gender, weight...)

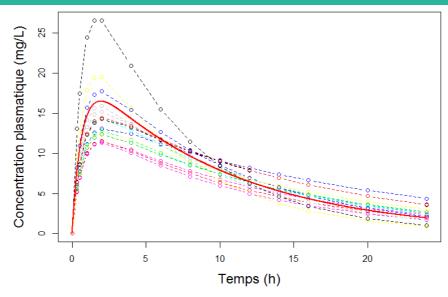
PHARMACOMETRICS POPULATION APPROACH



Nonlinear mixed effects models

- Simultaneous analysis of all observations
 - reduce number of samples per subject
- Estimation of mean parameters and their variabilities (without bias)
- Identification of covariates influencing the variability
 - determination of relationships between covariates and model parameters

PHARMACOMETRICS POPULATION APPROACH



Nonlinear mixed effects models

- Based on several statistical and mechanistic hypotheses
 - structural model (nonlinear function)
 - variability model
 - > residual error model

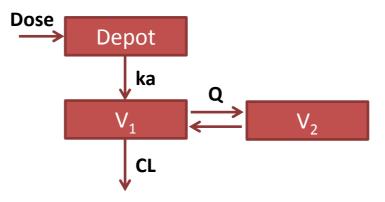
Notations

Concentration y_{ij} for subject i observed at time t_{ij} :

$$y_{ij} = f(\theta_i, t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

f: structural model

- The same for all subjects
 - > One equations system for all subjects
- a specific vector of parameters $\theta_i = \{ka, V_1, Q, V_2, CL\}$ for subject i
 - $\triangleright \theta_i$: individual parameters



 ε_{ij} : residual error

Notations

 θ_i : individual parameters

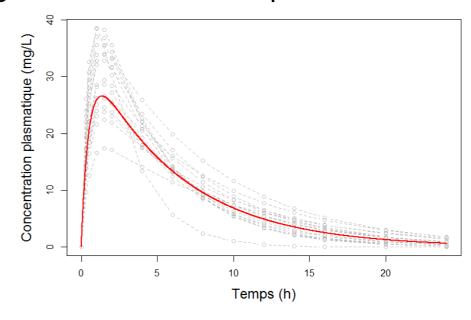
$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}$$

 μ : fixed effect (mean parameter)

Estimated from observations of all subjects

Mean profile predicted by integrating the mean values of parameters in

the model $(\{ka, V_1, Q, V_2, CL\})$



Notations

 θ_i : individual parameters

$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}$$

 μ : fixed effect (mean parameter)

 η_i : random effects

• hypothesis: we assume the distribution of random effects is known

$$\eta_i \sim N(0, \omega^2)$$

- $\triangleright \theta_i = \mu + \eta_i, \theta_i$ follow a normal distribution
- $> \theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}, \theta_i$ follow a log-normal distribution ($\theta_i > 0$)

Notations

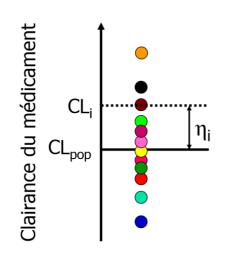
 θ_i : individual parameters

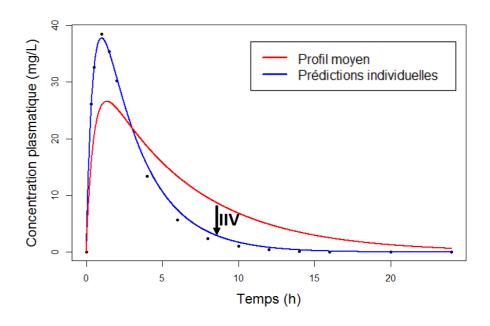
$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}$$

 μ : fixed effect (mean parameter)

 η_i : random effects

interindividual variability





PHARMACOMETRICS

NONLINEAR MIXED EFFECTS MODELS

Notations

$$y_{ij} = f(\theta_i, t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

 θ_i : individual parameters

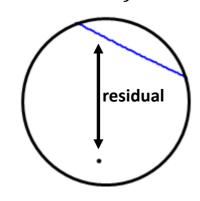
$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}$$

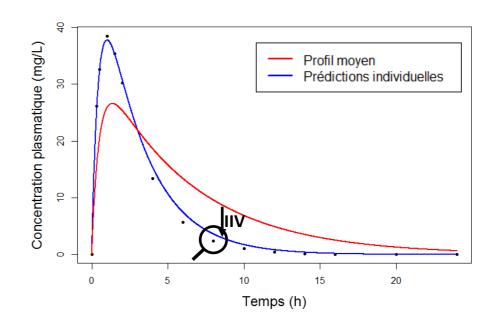
 μ : fixed effect (mean parameter)

 η_i : random effects

 ε_{ii} : residual error

• hypothesis : $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$





Notations

 θ_i : individual parameters

$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i}$$

μ: fixed effect (mean parameter) $η_i$: random effects, $η_i \sim N(0, ω^2)$

 ε_{ij} : residual error, $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Distinction between interindividual variability and residual error

Parameters to estimate:

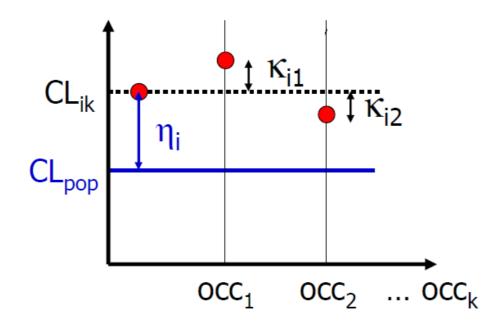
$$\{\mu, \boldsymbol{\omega}^2, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\}$$

Intraindividual variability

 κ_i : interoccasion variability

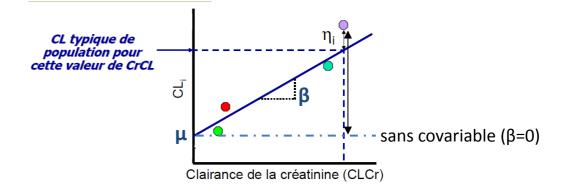
- data collected at different periods
 - > Different visits
 - Changing in treatment schedule, trial arm

$$\theta_i = \mu e^{\eta_i + \kappa_i}$$



Covariates

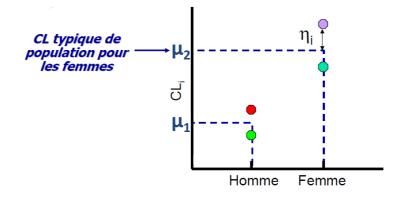
- Physiological, biological, pharmacological specificities...
- Explain the sources of parameters variability
- Continuous covariates $CL_i = \mu + \beta \times CLCr_i + \eta_i$



Binary covariates

$$CL_{i,homme} = \mu_1 + \eta_i$$

 $CL_{i,femme} = \mu_2 + \eta_i$



Estimation

$$C(t) = \frac{F \times Dose}{V} \frac{ka}{(ka - \frac{CL}{V})} \left(e^{-\frac{CL}{V}t} - e^{-kat}\right)$$

$$\theta_{F} = \mu_{F}e^{\eta_{F_{i}}}, \eta_{F_{i}} \sim N(0, \omega^{2}_{F})$$

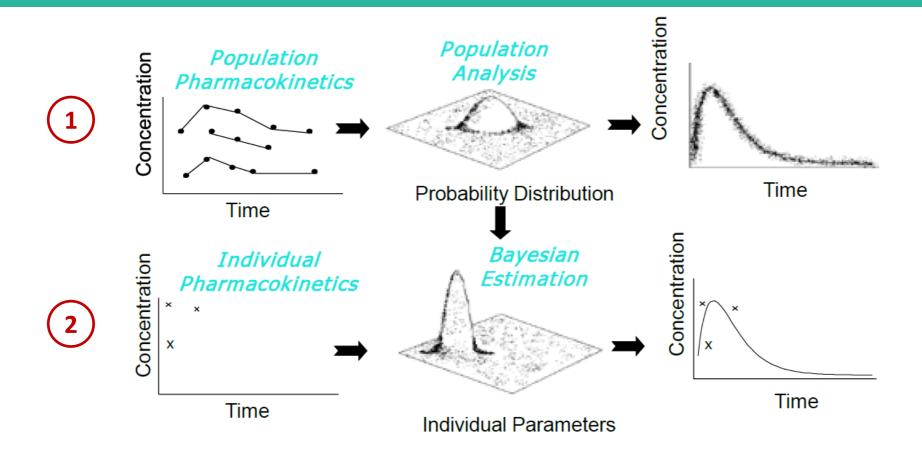
$$\theta_{ka} = \mu_{ka}e^{\eta_{ka_{i}}}, \eta_{ka_{i}} \sim N(0, \omega^{2}_{ka})$$

$$\theta_{V} = \mu_{V}e^{\eta_{V_{i}}}, \eta_{V_{i}} \sim N(0, \omega^{2}_{V})$$

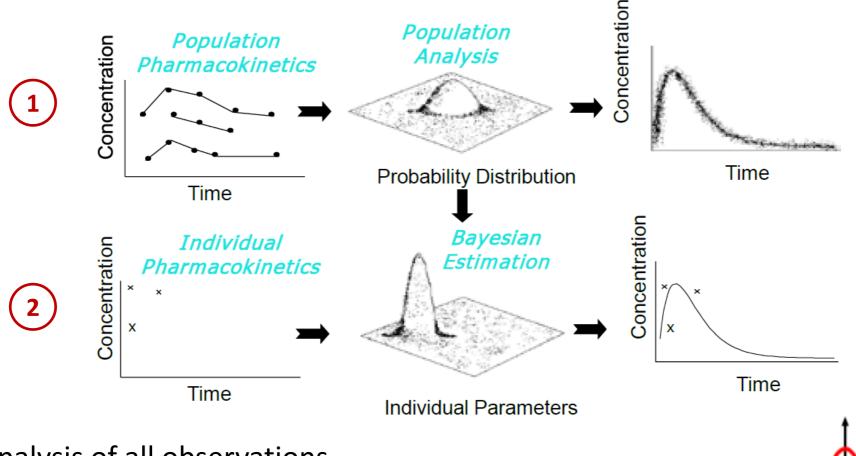
$$\theta_{CL} = \mu_{CL}e^{\eta_{CL_{i}}}, \eta_{CL_{i}} \sim N(0, \omega^{2}_{CL})$$

$$\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^{2})$$

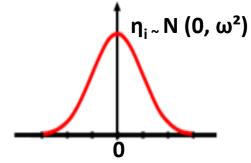
Estimation of fixed and random effects?



Steimer JL, Vozeh S, Racine Poon A, Holford N, O'Neil R: The population approach: rationale, methods and applications in clinical pharmacology and drug development. *In P.G. Welling & L. Balant (eds), Handbook of experimental pharmacology (vol 110 : Pharmacokinetics of drugs, Berlin : SpringVerlag, 1994, 405-451)*

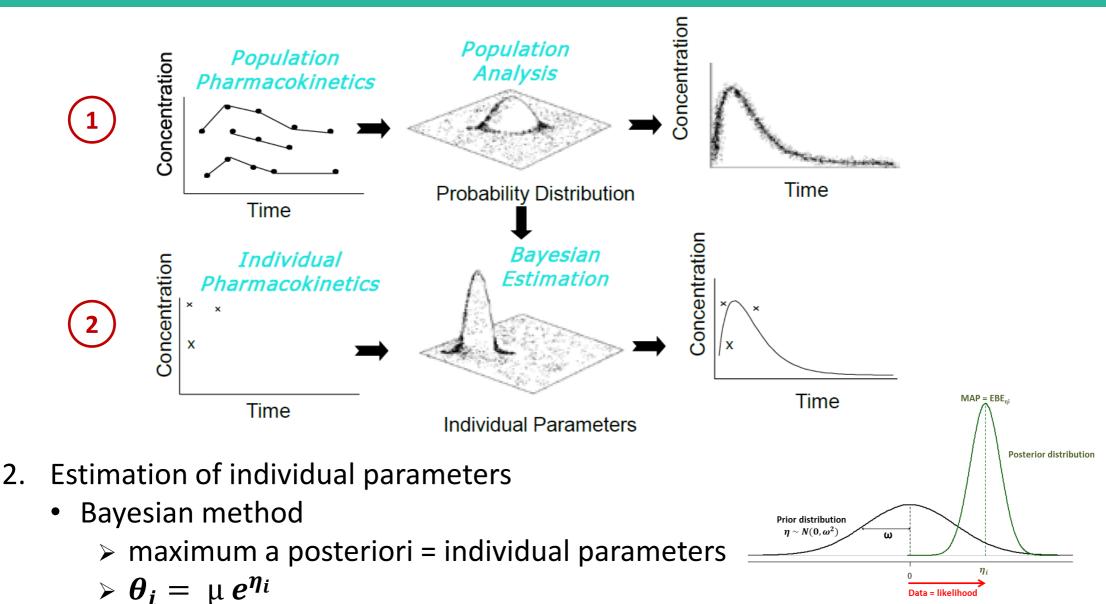


- 1. Analysis of all observations
 - Estimation of population parameters (μ , ω^2 , σ^2)
 - > maximum likelihood
 - > prior distribution



PHARMACOMETRICS

NONLINEAR MIXED EFFECTS MODELS



Likelihood

$$L(\theta, y) = p(y/\theta)$$

- Probability to observe y knowing θ
- Maximum likelihood : estimate the parameters θ for model predictions are as close as possible to the observed data

Issue

- *f* is nonlinear in its parameters
 - no analitycal expression of the likelihood
 - required to approximate the likelihood
 - estimation algorithms

First estimation method

NON linear Mixed Effects Model L. Sheiner & S. Beal, UCSF

1972: Concept and FO method

Sheiner, L. B., Rosenberg, B. & Melmon, K. L. Modelling of individual pharmacokinetics for computer-aided drug dosage. *Comput. Biomed. Res. Int. J.* **5**, 411–459 (1972).

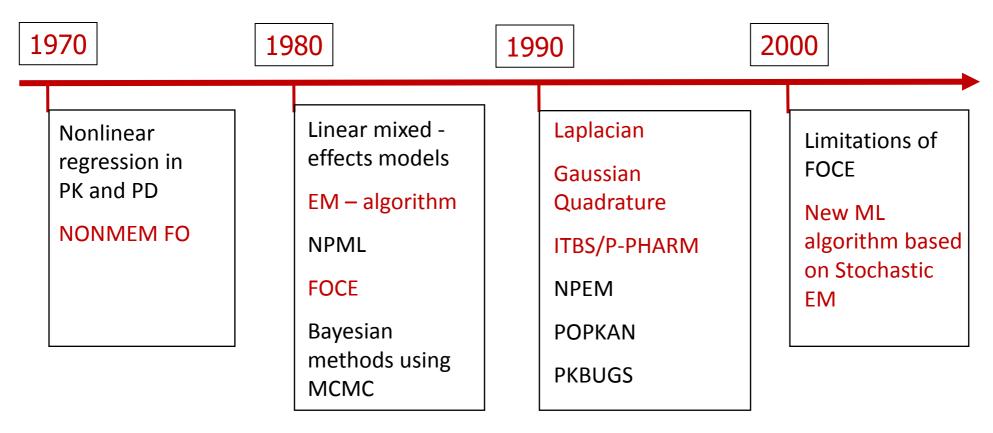
• 1977: First publication

Sheiner, L. B., Rosenberg, B. & Marathe, V. V. Estimation of population characteristics of pharmacokinetic parameters from routine clinical data. *J. Pharmacokinet. Biopharm.* **5,** 445–479 (1977).

• 1980: NONMEM - first software

Beal, S. L. & Sheiner, L. B. The NONMEM system. *Am Stat.* **34,**118-119 (1980). Beal, S. L. & Sheiner, L. B. Estimating population kinetics. *Crit. Rev. Biomed. Eng.* **8,** 195–222 (1982).

Development of estimation methods



Pillai, G. C., Mentré, F. & Steimer, J.-L. Non-linear mixed effects modeling - from methodology and software development to driving implementation in drug development science. *J. Pharmacokinet. Pharmacodyn.* **32**, 161–183 (2005).

PHARMACOMETRICS NONLINEAR MIXED EFFECTS MODELS

Estimation softwares for nonlinear mixed effects models

Tableau 2 – Logiciels de population les plus utilisés			
Logiciel	Algorithmes disponibles	Туре	Interface
Monolix	SAEM	Mixte (1)	Oui
NONMEM	FO, FOCE, Laplace, SAEM, Bayes	Payant	Non
Phoenix	FOCE	Payant	Oui
R (librairies)	nlme, Ime4 (FOCE, Laplace), saemix (SAEM)	Gratuit	Non (2)
SAS	NLMIXED (FO, FOCE, AGQ)	Payant	Oui
WinBugs	Bayes	Gratuit	Non

⁽¹⁾ Licence gratuite pour les universitaires et étudiants.

⁽²⁾ R n'a pas d'interface graphique spécifique mais des outils comme Rstudio peuvent être utilisés pour le faire tourner.

Model development

Find the model which describes adequately the data, by determining:

- Structural model
- Variability model (inter and intraindividual)
- Residual error model
- Covariates

No consensus on building method

- Development of a basic model without covariates
- Analysis and integration of significant covariates in model

Model selection

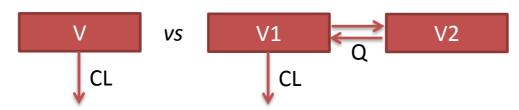
Parsimony: the model which best describe the data with the lower number of parameters

Statistical criteria:

- $-2LL = -2 \log(likelihood)$
 - > approximate of likelihood to minimize
- Other criteria: AIC, BIC

Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT)

- Reduced model (p parameters) : $-2LL_{reduced}$
- Full model (p + q parameters) : $-2LL_{full}$
- Under $H_0: -2LL_{reduced} -2LL_{full} \sim \chi^2 \ (ddl = q)$



Model evaluation

Estimation precision

$$RSE \text{ (\%)} = \frac{Standard Error}{Parameter estimate}$$

Graphical evaluation

- Comparison of model predictions to observed data
- Residuals evaluation
- Simulations based evaluation
 - VPC (Visual Predictive Check)
 - NPDE (Normalized prediction distribution errors)

Numerical evaluation

- data splitting
- bootstrap
- Jack-knife

TREATMENT INDIVIDUALIZATION



PHOTOGRAPH BY ADAM VOORHES

THERAPEUTIC INTERESTS

Same diagnosis, same prescription









Administer the right dose for each patient depending on its features and characteristics of the drug (therapeutic range)

Methods

- a priori adaptation
- a posteriori adaptation through Bayesian method

A PRIORI ADAPTATION

Model: structure, variability, covariates

Patient: no PK data, only subject characteristics (age, weight, biology...)

- Predict the patient PK parameters using model and covariates values
 - Predict concentrations for this subject
 - Limited when variability is high or with a limited number of covariates in model

Prediction of carboplatin clearance :

4 covariates associated to carboplatin clearance

$$\textit{CL} = \textbf{0.134} \times \textit{weight} + \frac{\textbf{218} \times \textit{weight} \times (\textbf{1} - \textbf{0.00457} \times \textit{age}) \times (\textbf{1} - \textbf{0.314} \times \textit{sex})}{\textit{serum creatinine}}$$

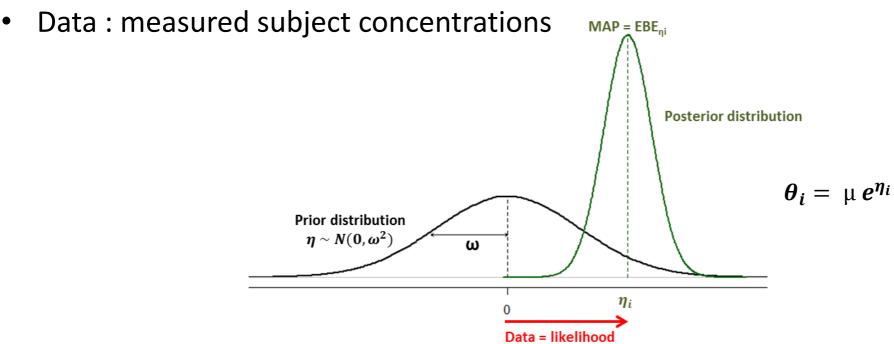
AUC = Dose/CL: determine the dose to reach the targeted l'AUC?

Chatelut, E. et al. Prediction of carboplatin clearance from standard morphological and biological patient characteristics. J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 87, 573–580 (1995).

A POSTERIORI ADAPTATION: BAYESIAN APPROACH

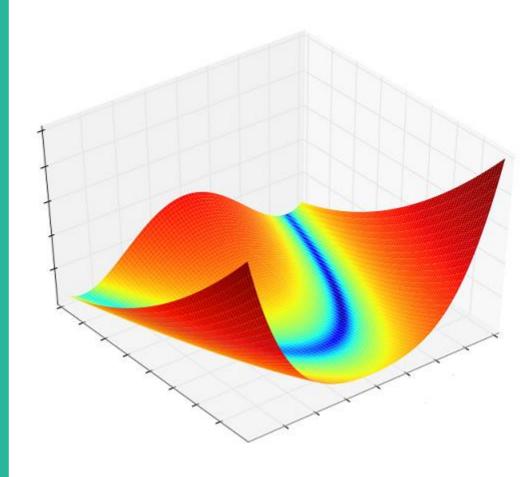
$prior \propto data = posterior distribution$

• Prior: population model parameters (mean μ and variance ω^2)



- Posterior distribution: individual PK parameters
 - Prediction of next concentrations
 - determine the next dose
 - periodic evaluation to optimize dose on intraindividual variability

DESIGN OPTIMIZATION



DESIGN OPTIMIZATION DESIGN FOR POPULATION PK-PD ANALYSIS

Importance of the choice

- Influence the precision of parameters estimation
- Poor design can lead to unreliable studies
- All the more important in pediatric studies
 - > severe limitations on the number of samples to be taken
 - > ethical and physiological reasons

Problem: choice of population design

- number of patients?
- number of sampling times?
- sampling times?

Recommendations on design in the FDA guidance

EVALUATION OF POPULATION DESIGN

Two approaches

- simulation studies: cumbersome!
- methodology based on the Fisher Information matrix (FIM) in NLMEM

Expression of MF for population PK

- complex
- based on a linearisation of the model around the fixed effects (Mentré, Mallet & Baccar. Biometrika, 1997) (Retout, Mentré & Bruno. Stat Med, 2002)

Principle

- to compute M_F and its inverse for each population design to be evaluated
 - from the population model
 - from a priori value of the population parameters
- expected standard errors on the parameters = root mean square of the diagonal of M_F^{-1}

OPTIMIZATION OF POPULATION DESIGN

Design comparisons

- objective: to have the "smallest" M_F-1 or the "largest" M_F
- criteria for matrix comparison
 - > D-optimality, the most usual one: det (M_F)

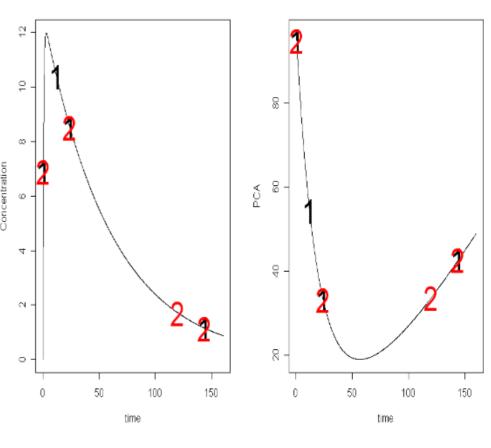
Optimization of exact or statistical designs

- Maximization of det(M_F)
 - > Find the best design for a given value of the population parameters
- Optimization of both the sampling times and the group structure
 - > Fedorov-Wynn (specific algorithm), Simplex algorithm..

OPTIMIZATION OF POPULATION DESIGN

PFIM software www.pfim.biostat.fr

```
*************************** OPTIMISED DESIGN **********
Optimised population design:
Sample times for response: A
            prot.opti subjects.opti Subjects
1 c(0.5, 12, 24, 144) 0.6768466 21.65909
2 c(0.5, 24, 120, 144) 0.3231534 10.34091
Sample times for response: B
            prot.opti subjects.opti Subjects
1 c(0.5, 12, 24, 144) 0.6768466 21.65909
2 c(0.5, 24, 120, 144) 0.3231534 10.34091
Associated optimised criterion: 580.1989
     ----- Fixed Effects Parameters
             StdError
   1.600 0.263353095 16.459568 %
   0.133 0.006533504 4.912409 %
    7.950 0.322403263 4.055387 %
Rin 5.410 0.437881955 8.093936 %
C50 1.200 0.052867047 4.405587 %
Kout 0.056 0.001737771 3.103163 %
            ----- Variance of Random Effects ------
              StdError
     Omega
   0.7010 0.206505767 29.45874 %
   0.0634 0.017561742 27.69991 %
    0.0206 0.012226360 59.35126 %
Rin 0.1900 0.050298864 26.47309
C50 0.0129 0.016460059 127.59736 %
Kout 0.0167 0.007665362 45.90037 %
               ----- Variance of residual error ------
           SIG StdError
sig.slope& 0.20 0.0216894 10.84470 %
sig.interB 3.88 0.4677695 12.05591 %
```



- → Two groups with 22 and 10 subjects
- → Total of 256 sampling times

CONCLUSION

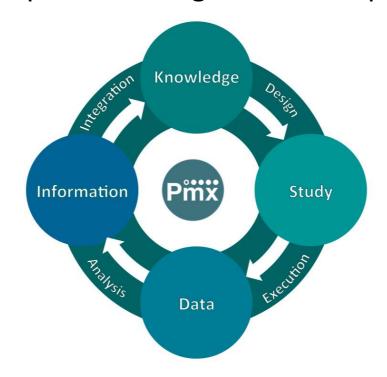


INTERESTS FOR PHARMACOMETRICS

- Empirical or mechanistic description of data and PK-PD relationships
 - Now common method in the drug authorization application files
- Analysis of pharmacodynamic data (E_{max}, EC₅₀)
- Analysis of sparse data (phase II and phase III)
- Estimation of variability and sources of variability (covariates)
- Prediction: other dosage schemes (schedule, dose, administration route...),
 sub-population (children, renal impairments...)
- Planning of next studies (clinical trial simulations, optimal design)
- Treatment individualization

Model-Based Drug Development

Guiding the drugs development through the use of pharmacometrics



CONCLUSION

- Increasing role of quantitative analysis of data through models in drugs evaluation
- Cooperative work
 - biologists, pharmacologists, clinicians
 - > engineers, mathematicians, statisticians

· Pharmacometricians

Many open methodological problems...