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Influence of the uncertainty in the validation of PBPK models: A case-study for PFOS and PFOA

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26

27 Physiologically-based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) models are mathematical representations of
28 the human body aimed at describing the time course distribution of chemicals in human
29 tissues. Since parameterization of PBPK models is based on empirical estimation and
30 experimental data, simulation results may have high degree of uncertainty. As a
31 consequence, the reliability of model validation is highly affected. In this study, the
32 parametric uncertainty associated with PBPK models developed for perfluorooctane
33 sulfonic acid (PFOS) and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) were analyzed and the different
34 validation approaches were discussed for a case-study in Tarragona County (NE of Spain).
35 Physicochemical parameters and dietary intake of PFOS and PFOA were estimated from
36 previous investigations performed in Tarragona County. A sensitivity analysis (SA) was
37 performed to understand the degree of influence of input parameters on the final outcomes.
38 The uncertainty of the PBPK models' outcome was assessed by propagating the parametric
39 uncertainty using the Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) technique. The elimination
40 constants (T_m and K_t) as well as the *Free fraction* and the *Intake*, were the most influential
41 parameters according to the SA results, being up to 83% for PFOS and 99.9% for PFOA.
42 The validation of the PBPK model, which was performed using different approaches,
43 showed clear discrepancies in the visual validation when compared with the statistical
44 analysis.

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48 **KEY WORDS:** Physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model, perfluorooctane
49 sulfonic acid (PFOS), perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA), uncertainty analysis, model
50 validation

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53 1. INTRODUCTION

54

55 Physiologically-based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modeling is extensively used
56 nowadays in drug development and human health risk assessment (Chiu et al., 2007;
57 Rowland et al., 2011). PBPK models are aimed at simulating the time course concentration
58 of chemical compounds in the human body (Nestorov, 2007). In PBPK modeling, tissues
59 are considered compartments linked by the blood flow, where the chemical concentrations
60 are described by mathematical equations that can be solved computationally (Thompson
61 and Beard, 2011; Thompson and Beard, 2012). The complexity of the PBPK models
62 depends on the administration, distribution, metabolism and elimination (ADME) processes
63 of the chemicals in the human body. Although the first PBPK model was developed by
64 Teorell (1937), the mathematical resolution of the equations was not achieved until the
65 1970s (Bischoff et al., 1970; Jones and Rowland-Yeo, 2013). However, the scarcity of
66 pharmacokinetic data as well as the implementation of *in vivo* and *in silico* tools to estimate
67 critical model parameters, have delayed an extensive use of PBPK models (Mumtaz et al.,
68 2012; Rowland et al., 2011).

69 PBPK modeling involves the use of input parameters generated by experimental
70 assays. Therefore, it owes a certain degree of variability and uncertainty associated with the
71 measurements. Variability is the inter-individual differences in the anatomical and
72 physiological characteristics among individuals (Holzkaemper et al., 2009; Linares et al.,
73 2010), whereas uncertainty give a value of the precision and accuracy of the parametric
74 estimates. Although variability cannot be reduced, a better understanding can be provided
75 by increasing the set of experimental values. This also allows a reduction of the uncertainty
76 (Bois et al., 2010). In the past, a number of approaches have been used to estimate the

77 variability and uncertainty of PBPK models, such as Monte-Carlo simulation, Fuzzy
78 simulations, and Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) (Gueorguieva et al., 2005;
79 Hack, 2006; Sweeney et al., 2001; Woodruff et al., 1992). Moreover, a clear differentiation
80 of uncertainty and variability in modelling has been also conducted (Chiu et al., 2009;
81 Holzkaemper et al., 2009; Huizer et al., 2012; Mörk et al., 2009). The sensitivity of the
82 parameters has been identified as a key aspect in the evaluation of the variability and
83 uncertainty of input parameters. Sensitivity analysis (SA) provides a quantitative
84 assessment of the degree of influence of input parameters on the model results (Loizou and
85 McNally, 2010; McNally et al., 2011).

86 Validation is the process of evaluation of a model with the reliability and relevance
87 of a particular approach, which is established within its domain of applicability (Chiu et al.,
88 2007; WHO, 2010). Although PBPK models can be validated by using different methods, a
89 single approach has not been yet accepted by regulatory agencies. Uncertainty plays a key
90 role in the validation of the PBPK models. Validity relates to the correctness of the basic
91 structure of a model as well as parameter values. A model can be completely invalid if it is
92 incorrectly structured, even if it happens to give an answer that is close to correct with
93 some set of inputs. Although, in general closeness is the most important criteria and
94 simulations within a factor of 2 of experimental results may be considered as valid (WHO,
95 2010). The most common approach is the visual comparison of the experimental data with
96 the simulated results (Chiu et al., 2007; Loccisano et al., 2011). However, this approach is
97 highly affected by the structural and parametric uncertainties of the PBPK models.
98 Normally, high parametric uncertainty can increase the range of the model outputs and
99 most of the experimental values (validation data) may fall within the range of simulation
100 output and inferred as valid. As a result the model may be erroneously considered as a

101 valid. Since the uncertainty associated to PBPK model parameterization is very high (Chiu
102 et al., 2007; Farrar et al., 1989; Nestorov, 2001), the validation of PBPK models without a
103 proper consideration of uncertainty might be invalid.

104 Taking this into account, this study was aimed at estimating the uncertainty
105 associated to PBPK modeling parameterization, prior to its validation. Parametric
106 uncertainty in this study represents both variability and uncertainty and “uncertainty” has
107 been used as a generic term to whole range uncertainty estimated from existing
108 information. The model for this study comes from a previous study, where PBPK models
109 for perfluorooctane sulfonate acid (PFOS) and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) in humans
110 were developed. and tested for a case-study in Tarragona County (NE of Spain) (Fàbrega et
111 al., 2014). PFOS and PFOA are the two most well-known perfluoroalkyl substances
112 (PFASs), a group of chemical pollutants currently of great environmental concern.
113 Although they are easily absorbed via oral route, they are not metabolized in human body,
114 being poorly eliminated. The mechanism of elimination of PFASs is mainly through urine
115 elimination in the majority of the congeners. The excretion in the feces and the amount that
116 undergo to enterohepatic circulation is negligible in comparison with the urine elimination
117 for most of the congeners (Zhang et al., 2013). However, there is a resorption mechanism
118 from urine to plasma (Andersen et al., 2006; Loccisano et al., 2011; Tan et al., 2008).
119 Moreover, PFASs strongly bind to serum albumin (Chen and Guo, 2009), being only a
120 small fraction (unbound free fraction) available to move to tissues and susceptible to
121 elimination (Bischel et al., 2010; Chen and Guo, 2009; Han et al., 2003).

122 The objective of the present paper is to assess the uncertainty of a previous PBPK
123 model developed for PFOS and PFOA and to compare the process of visual validation
124 (commonly used in development of many published PBPK models) with the statistical

125 validation included in this work. In a first step, a SA was done and the most sensitive
126 parameters were identified. Secondly, the uncertainty of the PBPK model was assessed by
127 propagating the parametric uncertainty, using the Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS).
128 Finally, the uncertainty of PBPK models' simulation was statistically validated with
129 experimental values collected from the population living in the case study area under
130 evaluation.

131

132 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

133

134 **2.1. PBPK model for PFOS and PFOA**

135 In a recent study, we developed a PBPK model to estimate the distribution of PFOS and
136 PFOA within the human body (Fàbrega et al., 2014). The previous model structure,
137 equation and data set of the PBPK model were maintained in the present work. However,
138 the range of parametric uncertainty derived from previous study has been included in order
139 to perform sensitivity analysis and assess the uncertainty of the model. The PBPK model,
140 whose structure is depicted in Fig.1, is based on 10 differentiated compartments: plasma,
141 gut, liver, kidney, filtrate, storage, fat, brain, lungs and rest of the body. The PBPK model
142 was tested for a case-study in Tarragona County (NE of Spain). The intake of PFOS and
143 PFOA was assumed to exclusively occur by the consumption of food and water (Domingo
144 et al., 2012a; Domingo et al., 2012b), while other potential exposure pathways, such as air
145 inhalation or dermal exposure, were considered as negligible. Experimental data regarding
146 PFOS and PFOA in human tissues other than plasma and breast milk are very scarce
147 (Karrman et al., 2010; Maestri et al., 2006; Pérez et al., 2013). For validation purposes,
148 concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in human tissues were obtained in the framework of

149 previous biological monitoring studies in Tarragona County (Ericson et al., 2007; Pérez et
150 al., 2013). Levels of PFOS and PFOA were analyzed in samples of plasma from 48 donors,
151 with an average age of 40 years old (aged 20-60) (Ericson et al., 2007). Complementarily,
152 the concentrations of the same PFASs were previously assessed in autopsy samples of liver,
153 brain, lung, bone marrow and kidney from 20 individuals, who at the time of their death
154 had been living in Tarragona County for at least 10 years (Pérez et al., 2013). At the time of
155 death, the average age of the individuals was 57 years old, ranging between 28 and 86 years
156 old. The partition coefficients (P_{ks}), defined as the concentration of a chemical in a tissue
157 over its concentration in plasma, were identified as the key parameters of the PBPK model.
158 P_{ks} values were estimated by using available data of PFOS and PFOA in plasma and
159 human tissues from the previous biological monitoring studies (Ericson et al., 2007; Pérez
160 et al., 2013). The elimination was based on a resorption mechanism in kidney. Similarly to
161 P_{ks} , the elimination constants, maximum resorption (T_m) and affinity constant (K_t), were
162 also calculated according to experimental values in human autopsy tissues (Fàbrega et al.,
163 2014). T_m is the maximum amount of PFOS or PFOA that can be resorbed from urine to
164 plasma, while K_t is obtained when $V(K_t)$ is equal to $V_{max}/2$, in the trend of the reaction,
165 analogous to the Michaelis-Menten curve. T_m and K_t are analogous parameters to the
166 maximum velocity (V_{max}) and Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m), respectively, in the
167 Michaelis-Menten kinetics. While PFOS and PFOA are strongly bound to plasma albumin,
168 the remaining unbound fraction was called Free fraction, being one of the key parameters in
169 the distribution of PFOS and PFOA in PBPK modelling.

170

171 **2.2. Case-study**

172 The mean dietary intake of PFOS in adults living in Tarragona County (Spain) was
173 previously estimated in 158.2 ng/day, with minimum and maximum values of 109.9 and
174 316 ng/day, respectively (Domingo et al., 2012b). With respect to PFOA, the average
175 intake was 327.6 ng/day, ranging between 58.1 and 1330 ng/day. In addition to food intake,
176 the contribution of water consumption, as another potentially important exposure pathway
177 of PFOS and PFOA, was also studied. The concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in samples
178 of drinking water were also determined, being 1.8 and 2.4 ng/L, respectively (Domingo et
179 al., 2012a). Considering a daily consumption of water of 1.23 L day (US EPA, 2011), the
180 mean intake of PFOS for adults living in Tarragona County was estimated in 0.17µg/day
181 (range: 0.11-0.32 µg /day), while that of PFOA was calculated in 0.33 µg/day (range: 0.06-
182 1.33 µg/day) (Domingo et al., 2012a; Domingo et al., 2012b). Due to the lack of lifetime
183 intake data, the constant rate of intake with different uncertainty scenarios was considered
184 along the lifetime of the individual. .

185 **2.3. Sensitivity Analysis (SA)**

186 SA of the PBPK model was performed to identify the degree of influence of input
187 parameters on the model outputs (Evans and Eklund, 2001). SA was carried out by using
188 the method of sensitivity index (SI), defined as the absolute value of the difference between
189 the maximum and minimum output values over the maximum output value of the model
190 output (Hamby, 1994):

$$191 \quad SI = \left| \frac{D_{\max} - D_{\min}}{D_{\max}} \right| \quad (1)$$

192 The whole range of PBPK model parameters was evaluated in the SA, including
193 body weight (BW), volume of each human tissue, cardiac output to liver, brain, lungs, and
194 kidney, elimination constants (Tm and Kt), Free fraction, and Intake. Moreover, the Pk

195 value of PFOS and PFOA in gut, liver, kidney, fat, brain, lungs and the rest of the body,
196 were also taken into account. These were previously assessed using experimental data
197 obtained in human tissues (Fàbrega et al., 2014; Maestri et al., 2006). In addition,
198 physiological data of tissue volumes and cardiac output were obtained from Huizer et al.
199 (2012) and Brown et al. (1997). The mean and uncertainty range (minimum – maximum)
200 for the parametric data was assessed using the set of data provided by Fàbrega et al., 2014;
201 Maestri et al., 2006; Huizer., 2012 and Brown et al., 1997. The values were summarized in
202 Table 1. Data of elimination constants (T_m and K_t) and Free fraction were taken from our
203 previous study (Fàbrega et al., 2014) and a coefficient of variation (CV) of 0.3 (30%) was
204 used for these parameters, according with the CV used in previous studies (Allen et al.,
205 1996; Brochot et al., 2007; Sweeney et al., 2001). The duration of the simulation exposure
206 was the maximum age (90 years) where all the parameters had achieved the convergence.
207 The contribution of each parameter to the total sensitivity was assessed as percentage of
208 individual sensitivity (SI) of the total sensitivity (sum of SIs) of all the parameters. PFOS
209 and PFOA concentration in plasma/blood is used as output variable of interest for the
210 sensitivity analysis.

211

212 **2.4. Uncertainty analysis**

213 The uncertainty of the PBPK model was assessed for the most contributive
214 parameters, according to the SA results. Uncertainty analysis was performed using Latin
215 Hypercube Sampling (LHS) method. LHS is a stratified sampling methodology used to
216 reduce the number of runs necessary for a Monte Carlo (MC) simulation, thus achieving a
217 distribution with an acceptable number of calculation. (McKay et al., 1979). In the LHS, the
218 range of each variable is divided into N intervals, where N is the number of iterations of the

219 MC simulation. Then, a random value is obtained for each segment following uniform
220 distributions which are randomly grouped for each MC simulation. The 1000 parametric
221 samples of T_m , K_t , Free fraction and Intake were sampled using LHS method assuming
222 lognormal distribution (Table 2) and used to simulate the concentrations of PFOS and
223 PFOA in human tissues using respective PBPK model. For the given set of parameters, we
224 assumed that there were no correlation between the values of different uncertain parameters
225 used in the model simulation. The input parameters set from stratified sampling exercise
226 were used to simulate the minimum and maximum concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in
227 the selected human tissues (plasma, liver, brain, lung and kidney). In case of non-
228 convergence simulation, T_m , K_t and Free were recalibrated to get a stable solution. The
229 minimum and maximum simulation bands were used to validate the experimental results by
230 comparing the experimental data with the simulation results obtained through the PBPK
231 model (Chiu et al., 2007).

232

233 2.5. Statistical analysis

234 To assess the statistical validity of the PBPK model for the given case study data, a
235 Student's t -test was performed between the simulated results obtained by the PBPK model
236 and the experimental data. This test is used to determine if the means of two populations
237 are equal (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989), according to the following expression:

$$238 \quad t = \frac{\bar{x} + \bar{y}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_x^2}{n} + \frac{s_y^2}{m}}} \quad (2)$$

239 where x and y are the means, s_x and s_y are the standard deviations, and "n" and "m"
240 are the size of the samples. When data variances are different, the statistical test under the

241 null hypothesis has a Student's distribution. Therefore, the sample standard deviation is
242 replaced by the pooled standard deviation, following this equation:

$$243 \quad s = \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)s_x^2 + (m-1)s_y^2}{n+m-2}} \quad (3)$$

244 To test the validity of the statistical hypothesis (in this case the model validity for a
245 given case study data), test output as p-value is compared with α -value. The p-value is a
246 probability function derived from the observed sample results that the observed statistic
247 occurred by chance alone. A level of significance, which is called alpha (α), need to be set.
248 Alpha explains how the observed extreme results must be in order to reject the null
249 hypothesis of the t -test. Alpha is associated to the confidence level of the t -test. Commonly,
250 alpha has a value of 0.05 or 0.01, indicating a level of confidence of 95% or 99%,
251 respectively. . To test the significance, α is compared with the p-value to accept or reject
252 the null hypothesis.

253

254 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

255

256 3.1 Sensitivity analysis

257 SA was performed to identify the degree of influence of input parameters on the
258 model outputs. SA outcomes are summarized in Table 1, in which the parameters are
259 ranked according to their sensitivity. For PFOS, the highest values of SA were obtained for
260 cardiac output to kidney (Q. kidney), Free Fraction, affinity constant (Kt), followed by
261 maximum resorption (Tm), Partition Coefficient (Pk) for the rest of the body, and oral
262 intake. For PFOA, the parameter with the highest contribution to the SA was Free fraction,

263 and K_t followed by oral intake, T_m , Q_{kidney} , and P_k for the rest of the body. In general
264 terms, cardiac output and volumes of tissues showed the smallest contribution, with the
265 only exception of Q_{kidney} . The reason of the high sensitivity of Q_{kidney} might be due
266 to the fact that kidney is the elimination tissue, and it has been reported that Q_{kidney} is a
267 physiological parameter with a low uncertainty (Huizer et al., 2012). Similarly, P_k of all the
268 individual tissues showed a relatively low sensitivity, with the only exception of the rest of
269 the body. This could be due to the fact that this compartment is a lumped tissue, which
270 receives all the uncertainty of all other tissues (Thompson and Beard, 2012). There is no
271 plausible kinetic mechanism can be found for higher sensitivity of Free fraction and K_t in
272 PFOA than in PFOS. We believe that this may be due to different uncertainty range of data
273 for these four parameters for PFOS and PFOA. Intake was also identified as a sensitive
274 parameter for PFOS and PFOA. The study of the uncertainty was focused on the most
275 sensitive parameters (or the parameters with the highest contribution to the model output),
276 namely elimination constants (T_m and K_t), Free fraction, as well as Intake. Though
277 Q_{kidney} is one of the most sensitive parameter for PFOS and PFOA, it most was not
278 considered for general uncertainty analysis as it is linked to particular organ and may
279 influence the results only for particular organ. For PFOS, around 83% of the uncertainty
280 comes from these four parameters. Regarding PFOA, the percentage of SA contribution of
281 these four parameters was 99.9%.

282

283 3.2. Uncertainty assessment of parametric data

284 The mean, minimum and maximum concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in plasma,
285 liver, brain, lung and kidney were simulated and compared with experimental data (Fig. 2-
286 6). The parameters under study were selected from the SA outcomes with higher SI score

287 and representing the influential input parameters with more than 80% contribution to output
288 uncertainty. These parameters were elimination constants (T_m and K_t), Free fraction and
289 Intake. In many cases, the result was a set of non-converging simulations. For those set of
290 unconverged simulation, recalibrations of T_m , K_t , Free Fraction and intake values were
291 performed to get a stable solution. These multi-parameters calibrations were performed in
292 the reported uncertainty range of these parameters. This process of calibration may
293 underestimate the final value for the true range of uncertainty. However, it allows obtaining
294 simulations that converges (more stable) with close approximation to the true range of
295 uncertainty.

296 The behaviour of the elimination parameters, T_m and K_t , are analogous to the
297 maximum velocity of reaction (V_{max}) and the Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m),
298 respectively, in the Michaelis-Menten reactions (Kou et al., 2005). T_m is the maximum
299 amount of PFOS or PFOA that can be resorbed from urine to plasma, while K_t is obtained
300 when $V(K_t)$ is equal to $V_{max}/2$, in the trend of the reaction, analogous to the Michaelis-
301 Menten curve. When T_m increases, the final concentration values in tissues also increase.
302 In turn, the concentration in tissues decreases when K_t increases. Free Fraction (or unbound
303 chemical) is available for passive diffusion to extravascular or tissue sites where the
304 toxicological effects of the chemical take place. Therefore, the *Free Fraction* typically
305 determines chemical concentration at the active site and, thus, efficacy. On the other hand,
306 when the intake is high, the amount of bound chemical approaches an upper limit
307 determined by the number of available binding sites. For a highly tissue-bound chemical, a
308 higher intake results in a higher concentration in human.

309 The degree of influence of Pks on the tissue concentrations was very high. A
310 number of mathematical algorithms were used to provide a good estimation of Pks for

311 different chemicals. Unfortunately, the amphiphilic structure of PFOS and PFOA makes it
312 difficult to predict the Pks , because the algorithms are not optimized for amphiphilic
313 substances (Peyret et al., 2010). This left us with the use of experimental data as the only
314 way to estimate the Pks for PFOS and PFOA. The Pks value used in this study were
315 previously calculated by dividing the concentrations in each tissue by the level in plasma
316 (Fàbrega et al., 2014; Maestri et al., 2006). Simulated concentrations found in some tissues
317 were far from experimental values. For instance, mean PFOS concentration estimated in
318 lung and kidney tissue was much lower than that found experimentally. It demonstrated that
319 these Pks should be better estimated by an improved mathematical algorithm and more
320 experimental data. Considering the high sensitivity of Pks , and the relatively good fitting
321 between simulation and experimental results in plasma, it can be safely assumed that one of
322 the main factors responsible for the relatively poor results obtained in tissues, other than
323 plasma, were the Pks , being added to the small contribution of other parametric
324 uncertainties.

325

326 **3.3. Model validation**

327

328 *3.3.1 Visual validation*

329 The most common process of model validation in the PBPK models is the visual
330 comparison of the simulation results with experimental values (Chiu et al., 2007). The
331 simulation of the mean, minimum and maximum values was conducted in plasma, liver,
332 brain, lung and kidney for PFOS and PFOA, and compared with the experimental values
333 found in Tarragona Country (Ericson et al., 2007; Pérez et al., 2013). The comparison of
334 experimental and simulation data are depicted in Fig. 2-4. The simulations were run for 90

335 years, being this the maximum age among all the evaluated subjects. All the simulation
336 trends followed a hyperbolic profile, similar to the Michaelis-Menten saturation curve (Kou
337 et al., 2005). It reaches convergence when the age of the population is between 10 and 60
338 years old. Simulation for the minimum concentration range converges earlier (close to 10
339 years old), whereas the maximum concentration range convergence is at an older age (close
340 to 60). Most modelled results were within the range of experimental data. The differences
341 between the minimum and maximum values of the experimental results were statistically
342 significant ($p < 0.05$). The minimum and maximum concentrations levels in the steady state
343 for PFOS ranged 0.03-150, 0.002-14.32, 0.001-8.7 and 0.01-84.57 ng/g w.w. and for PFOA
344 ranged 0.0005-47, 0.0001-7.74, 0.0006-57.84 and 0.0005-64 ng/g w.w. in liver, brain, lung
345 and kidney, respectively. A visual validation was established considering that the
346 experimental values should be between the minimum and the maximum values found in the
347 simulations. In plasma, all the experimental results were between the maximum and
348 minimum estimated levels of PFOS and PFOA (Fig. 2), and most of them being close to the
349 mean. With respect to PFOA, the distribution of the experimental plasma concentrations
350 was more aligned to the mean than PFOS, for which a higher dispersion was noted. Results
351 for the other tissue compartments are shown in Fig. 3-4. In case of PFOS, results are varied
352 with liver, brain and kidney are showing good agreement with experimental values,
353 whereas in lung, most experimental samples are out of the simulated range (Fig. 3). In case
354 of PFOA, the experimental concentrations for the whole set of samples were in the
355 uncertainty range of simulated levels except lung (Fig. 4). In both cases, lung has shown
356 poor agreement with experimental data. Overall, visual inspections confirm that simulations
357 results are in accordance with experimental data, validating the PBPK model. Moreover,

358 PFOA results were slightly better than the estimations for PFOS, because most of the
359 experimental results are within the range of the PBPK simulations.

360 A second visual validation was performed by depicting the results in box plots (Fig.
361 5-6). A box plot is a tool to graphically depict a set of numerical data using their quartiles.
362 Box plots in Fig.5-6 are constructed using a box where the lower and upper ends of the box
363 represents the first and third quartile (Q1 and Q3), and the vertical line within the box
364 represent the median. Moreover, two horizontal lines are constructed in the ends of the box
365 that represent the minimum and maximum values. In plasma, experimental data of both
366 PFASs were grouped in two clusters, according to the age of the subjects: 1) population
367 from 20 to 30 years old, with an average age of 25 years, and 2) population from 50 to 60
368 years old, aging 54 years old as a mean. An important number of outliers were found in the
369 simulation box plots of plasma. However, the simulated and experimental box plots were
370 very coincident in the ranges. In the other tissues, the box plots showed, in general terms, a
371 larger dispersion of the results when compared to simulation results. This spread higher in
372 lungs for both compounds, as well as in kidney for PFOS. The analysis of the box plots
373 were in agreement with the above-shown simulation trends, however it reveals some more
374 statistical facts than previous visual validation.

375

376 3.3.2. Statistical validation

377 To assure the statistical validity of the final results, the Student's *t*-test was
378 performed between steady state simulated results and experimental data. Results for plasma
379 are summarized in Table 3, while those corresponding to other human tissues are shown in
380 Table 4. Two levels of statistical significance ($\alpha=1\%$ and $\alpha=5\%$) were established. In

381 plasma, two subpopulation groups were differentiated according to the mean age, either 25
382 or 54 years old. The p values were 0.69 and 0.86 for PFOS and PFOA, respectively,
383 assuming an equal variance. Therefore, there were no significant differences between the
384 experimental and the simulated results. Similarly, if an unequal variance is assumed, p
385 values ranged from 0.53 to 0.73 for PFOS and PFOA, respectively, showing a lack of
386 significant differences between the experimental data and the simulation results. In other
387 tissues, the validity of the model was dependant on the level of significance. For $\alpha=1\%$,
388 significant differences for PFOS were found in lung and kidney, as well as in brain and
389 lung for PFOA. For $\alpha=5\%$, significant differences were observed in liver, lung and kidney
390 for PFOS, and in liver, brain and lung, for PFOA. In contrast with the visual validation, it
391 seems that the PBPK model was only validated for the simulation of PFASs in plasma,
392 while varied degrees of disagreement were registered for data in other tissues. The results
393 of the model validation, either visual or statistical, differed notably. It must be highlighted
394 that, in a visual validation, most of the simulation results are considered valid when most
395 experimental values fall in the range of simulation results. In contrast, in the statistical
396 analysis that avoids human biases in judgment, the results may significantly differ in many
397 tissue compartments and put the PBPK model validation in question. Although visual
398 analysis is the predominant method in PBPK modelling, statistical analysis should be
399 incorporated to avoid biases in the visual validation.

400

401 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

402 The parametric uncertainty and the statistical validation of a specific PBPK model
403 were studied and applied to a case-study, where the body burdens of PFOS and PFOA in

404 the adult population of Tarragona County (Spain) were estimated. The elimination
405 constants (T_m and K_t) as well as the *Free fraction* and the *Intake*, were the most influential
406 parameters according to the SA results, being up to 83% for PFOS and 99.9% for PFOA.
407 The validation of the PBPK model, which was performed using different approaches,
408 showed clear discrepancies in the visual validation when compared with the statistical
409 analysis. According to the visual validation, the concentrations of both, PFOS and PFOA,
410 fell within the range of the model simulations, resulting in the PBPK model being
411 considered valid. In turn, according to the Student's *t*-test, the model was not validated for
412 PFOS in lungs and kidney, as well as for PFOA in brain and lungs. It clearly indicates that
413 the statistical analysis is an important step in the validation process of PBPK modelling to
414 avoid potential biases. The study of the uncertainty depends on the parametric data and the
415 structure of the model, becoming then model-dependent. Therefore, the conclusions cannot
416 be extrapolated to all the PBPK models. However, our findings may help PBPK modelers
417 to know the most uncertain parameters and the influence of the uncertainty in their models.
418 Further, greater confidence in uncertainty and variability analyses will result if the
419 parameter distributions, correlations among parameters, etc., are based on the best available
420 biological understanding of the systems. Therefore, the real uncertainty associated to the
421 PBPK parameters may be underestimated. There are enormous possibilities of
422 improvement. However, the present study has presented discrepancies in our scientific
423 reporting of model validation, putting forward a strong argument to consider the
424 uncertainty in the PBPK modelling and need of statistical analysis to be incorporated or
425 substituted for the predominant visual validation in the process of PBPK model validation.

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539 **Table 1.** Mean, range and sensitivity of the parameters used in the PBPK model

Parameter	PFOS			Parameter	PFOA		
	Mean	Range	Sensitivity		Mean	Range	Sensitivity
Free	0.03	9.45E-7-7.0E-2	0.999	Free	0.03	9.46E-7-7.0E-2	0.999
Kt	0.018	3.30e-7-5.0E-5	0.999	Kt	0.116	1.12E-4-3.0E-2	0.998
Q. kidney	0.17	0.118-0.265	0.999	Intake	0.331	0.061-1.33	0.952
Tm	3.50	0.617-17.2	0.957	Tm	6	1.46-20.9	0.929
Pk Rest body	0.2	0.0007-17.9	0.781	Q. kidney	0.177	0.118-0.265	0.801
Intake	0.161	0.109-0.316	0.624	Pk Rest body	0.12	0.0002-40.2	0.664
Pk fat	0.033	0.004-15.0	0.438	BW	71.4	64.7-79.1	0.139
BW	71.4	64.7-79.1	0.136	Pk fat	0.467	0.008-16.2	0.055
Pk gut	0.57	0.013-17.7	0.073	Pk gut	0.05	9.97E-6-33.7	0.025
Pk brain	0.255	0.002-16.8	0.017	Pk liver	1.03	0.077-14.1	0.002
Pk lung	0.155	0.0003-24.8	0.017	Pk brain	0.17	0.0005-20.8	0.0008
Pk liver	2.67	0.494-13.6	0.007	Pk kidney	1.17	0.096-11.5	0.0006
Pk kidney	1.26	0.105-14.7	0.003	Volume plasma	0.04	0.026-0.059	0.0004
Volume brain	0.021	0.014-0.032	0.001	Volume lung	0.014	0.009-0.021	0.0003
Q. brain	0.117	0.078-0.176	0.0008	Volume liver	0.023	0.015-0.034	0.0003
Volume liver	0.023	0.015-0.034	0.0007	Pk lung	1.27	0.105-13.723	0.0002
Q. liver	0.189	0.126-0.283	0.0005	Q. liver	0.189	0.126-0.283	0.0002
Q. lung	0.034	0.023-0.051	0.0002	Volume kidney	0.004	0.003-0.006	0.0002
Volume plasma	0.04	0.026-0.059	0.0002	Q. brain	0.117	0.078-0.176	0.0002
Volume kidney	0.004	0.003-0.006	0.0001	Q. lung	0.034	0.023-0.051	0.0002
Volume lung	0.014	0.009-0.021	0.0001	Volume brain	0.021	0.014-0.032	0.0001

540 BW: Body weight (kg); Tm: Resorption maximum ($\mu\text{g}/\text{h}$); Kt: Affinity constant ($\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$); Free: free fraction (unitless); Pk: partition coefficient (unitless); Intake
541 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{day}$), Q: cardiac output. Cardiac output to tissues and tissue volumes are given according to the fraction of total cardiac output and total volume.

542 **Table 2.** Parametric Distribution data for PFOS and PFOA used in the PBPK model for uncertainty
 543 assessment.

Parameters	Distribution	PFOS		PFOA	
		Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
Tm ^a	Lognormal	3.5	1.03	6	1.34
Kt ^a	Lognormal	0.02	0.08	0.12	0.20
Free ^a	Lognormal	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.09
Intake ^b	Lognormal	0.16	0.11	0.33	0.67

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545 Tm: Maximum Resorption ($\mu\text{g/h}$); Kt: Affinity constant ($\mu\text{g/L}$); Free: Unbound Free Fraction (unitless);
 546 Intake ($\mu\text{g/day}$); Std: Standard Deviation; ^a based on assumption of CV=0.3 from previous studies (Allen et
 547 al., 1996; Brochot et al., 2007; Sweeney et al., 2001); ^b Intake of PFOS and PFOA was based on previous
 548 study of Domingo et al., (2012a) & Domingo et al., (2012b)

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572 **Table 3:** Two sample *t*- test of simulated and experimental concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in
 573 plasma for different age subpopulation groups, assuming equal and unequal variances.

	Mean age	Equal variances			Unequal variances		
		$H_{\alpha} = 1\%$	$H_{\alpha} = 5\%$	P	$H_{\alpha} = 1\%$	$H_{\alpha} = 5\%$	P
PFOS	25 years	0	0	0.69	0	0	0.61
	54 years	0	0	0.69	0	0	0.53
PFOA	25 years	0	0	0.86	0	0	0.72
	54 years	0	0	0.85	0	0	0.73

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598 **Table 4:** Two sample *t*- test of simulated and experimental concentration of PFOS and PFOA.

Tissue	PFOS			PFOA		
	$H_{\alpha=1\%}$	$H_{\alpha=5\%}$	P	$H_{\alpha=1\%}$	$H_{\alpha=5\%}$	P
Liver	0	1	0.027	0	1	0.05
Brain	0	0	0.34	1	1	1.56E-15
Lung	1	1	5.42E-07	1	1	0.003
Kidney	1	1	5.23E-04	0	0	0.162

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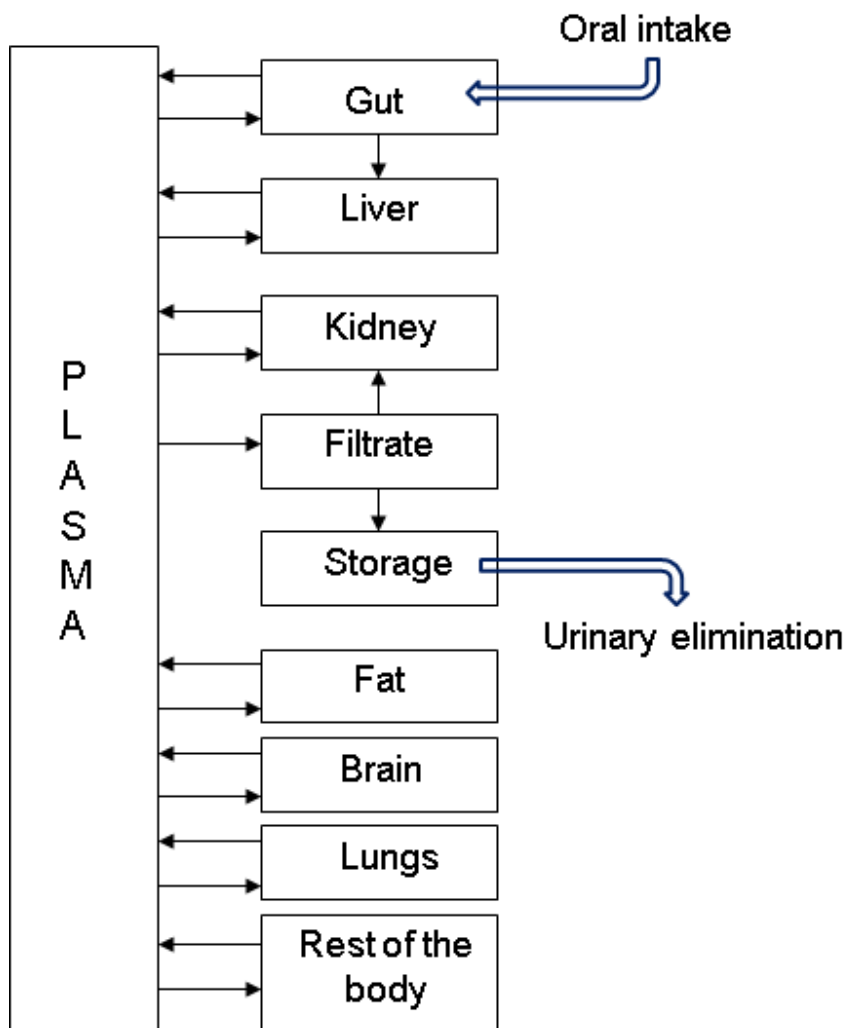
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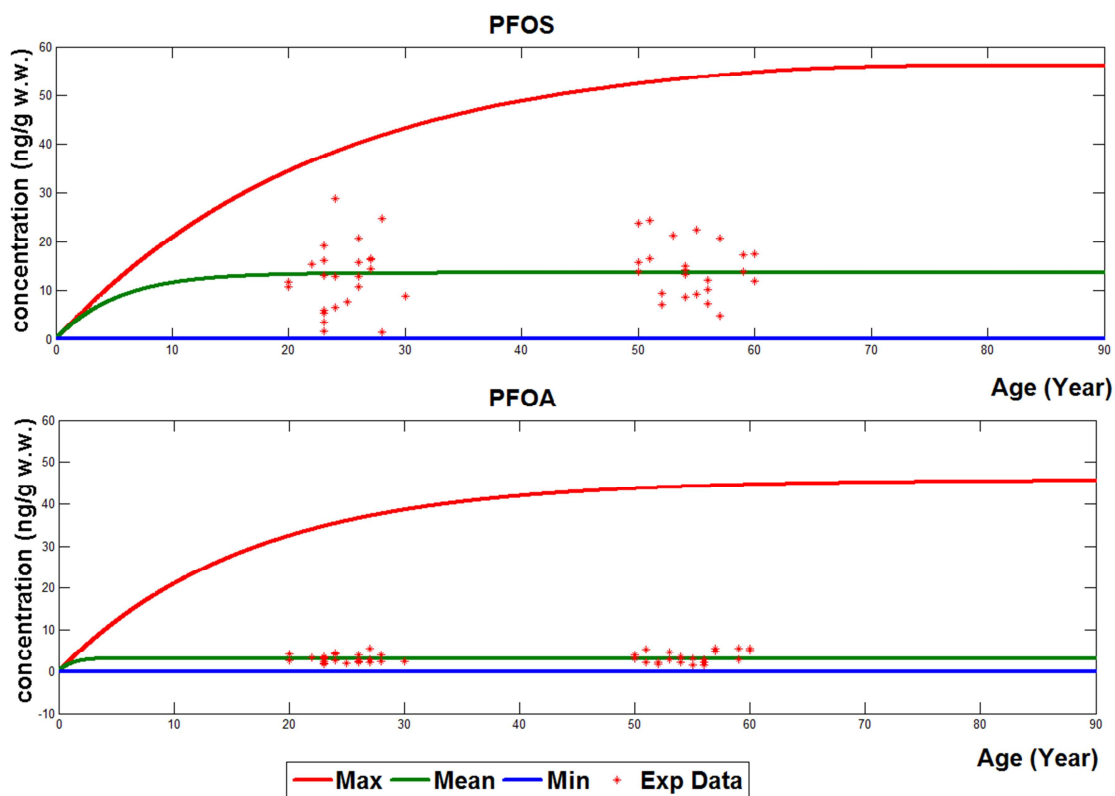
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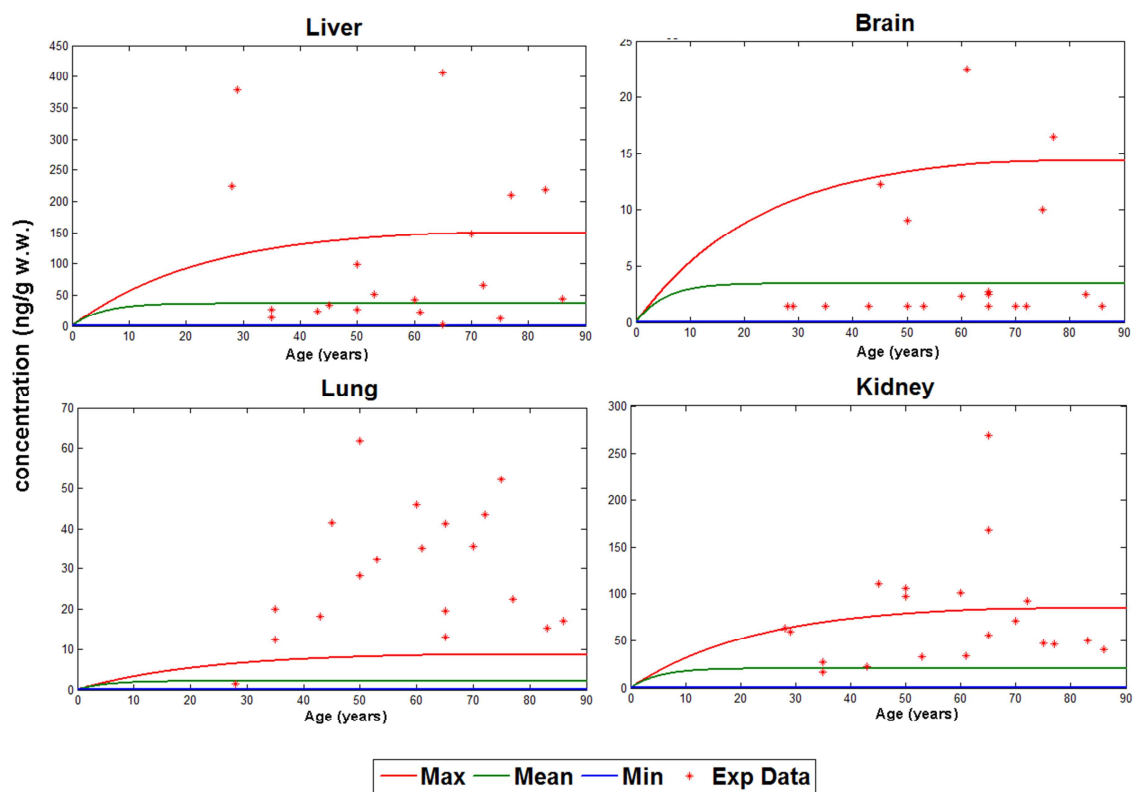
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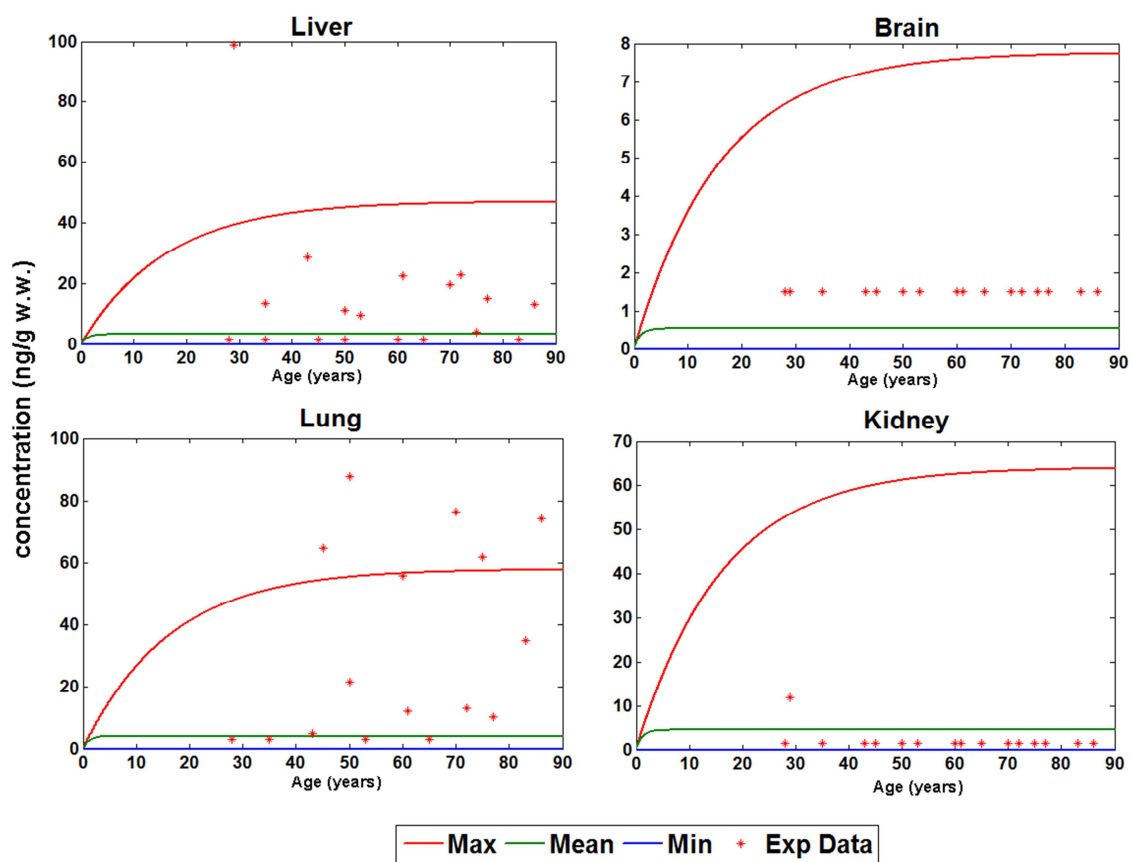
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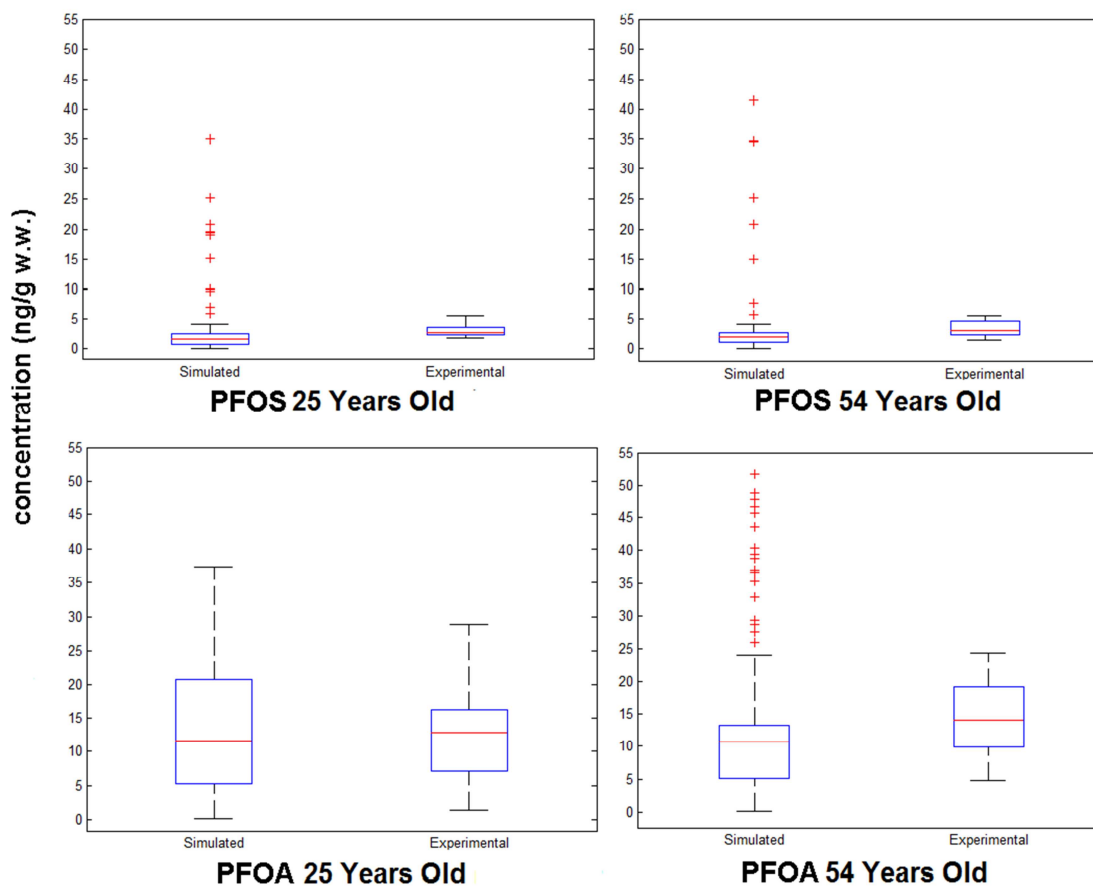
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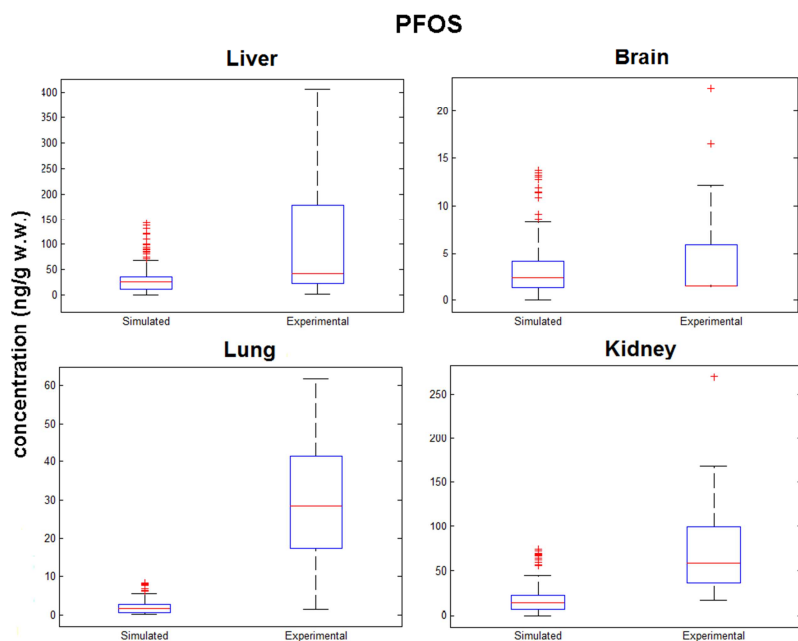
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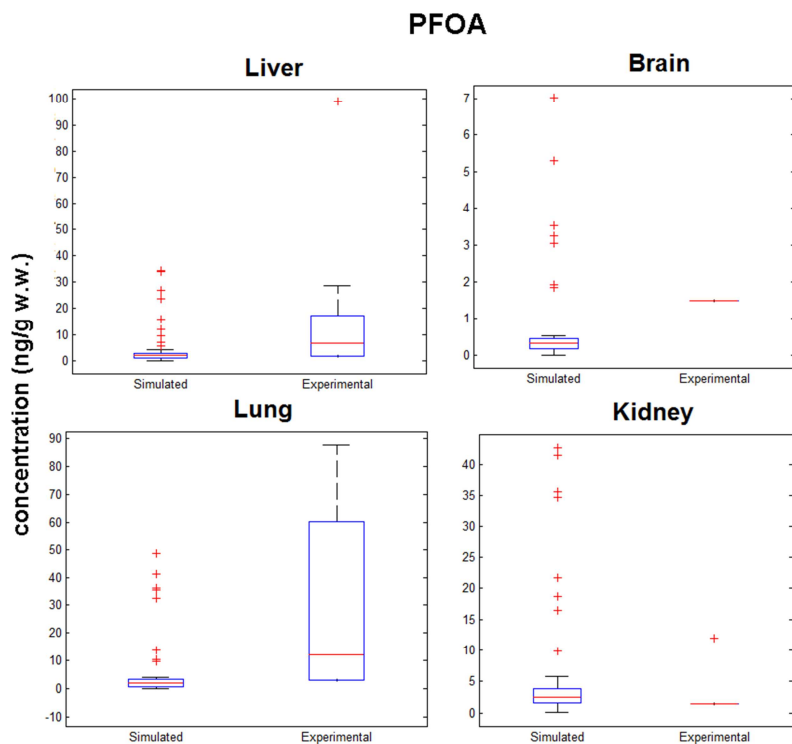
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Fig. 1. Compartmental Physiologically-based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model structure.

Fig. 2. Time course simulated concentrations (mean, minimum and maximum) vs. measured concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in plasma.

Fig. 3. Time course Simulated concentrations (mean, minimum and maximum) vs. measured concentrations of PFOS in liver, brain, lung and kidney.

Fig. 4. Time course simulated concentrations (mean, minimum and maximum) vs. measured concentrations of PFOA in liver, brain, lung and kidney.

Fig. 5. Box plots showing the Simulated vs. experimental concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in plasma in two groups of data samples with age range of 20- 30 and 50-60 years old.

Fig. 6. Box plots showing the Simulated vs. experimental concentrations of PFOS and PFOA in liver, brain, lung and kidney in two groups of data samples with age range of 20- 30 and 50-60 years old.

Highlights

- **PBPK models for PFOA and PFOS were validated.**
- **Different validation techniques were compared.**
- **Visual validations of models are often erroneous.**
- **Validation of PBPK models are highly influenced by parametric uncertainty.**
- **Model validation should increase transparency and reduce discrepancies in scientific reporting.**