

1 Introduction

2 Gastrointestinal (GI) fluid volume is a key factor in the dissolution and absorption process of oral drug
3 products. For solid oral dosage forms, the local quantity of fluid can affect disintegration, dissolution, and
4 absorption. Because local GI fluid volume varies significantly due to transit, secretion, and absorption,
5 characterizing the *in vivo* environment is essential to accurately model the oral drug dissolution and
6 absorption process. An accurate model of the oral drug product dissolution and absorption process can
7 facilitate lead drug candidate selection, establish formulation development strategies, and support
8 development of regulatory policies (1).

9 To predict oral drug absorption, models have incorporated physiological parameters of the GI tract (2, 3).
10 The Compartment Absorption and Transit (CAT) model utilized a small intestine mean residence time to
11 define transit rate (4). The Advanced Compartment Absorption and Transit (ACAT) model utilized mass
12 balance approximations to define each compartment's volume and transit (5). The Advanced Dissolution
13 Absorption and Metabolism (ADAM) utilized volumes reported by water-sensitive magnetic resonance
14 imaging (MRI) to define the volume of each compartment (6).

15 The Dynamic Fluid Compartment Absorption and Transport (DFCAT) model was developed to
16 characterize the fluid volume and its dynamic changes in the human GI tract from MRI imaging of fluid
17 volume and to evaluate its accuracy of *in vivo* fluid transport based on human GI local concentration of
18 the non-absorbable marker phenol red from a human intubation study. The MRI study quantified the
19 content of water in the stomach and small intestine after dosing healthy human volunteers with 240mL of
20 water (8). The human intubation study measured local GI concentration (stomach, duodenum, proximal
21 jejunum, middle jejunum) of phenol red in healthy human volunteers after dosing 240 mL water with
22 phenol red. These two studies in addition to literature data served to verify and validate the DFCAT
23 model. In future applications, the DFCAT model can be expanded to estimate the *in vivo* drug dissolution
24 process and therefore predict oral drug absorption of oral drug products.

25 Materials and Methods

26 A mathematical model, described in detail in the following sections, was derived to capture the essential
27 features of GI fluid transport. The model consists of 62 nonlinear ordinary differential equations (ODE).
28 The stomach is represented by two ODEs (dissolved drug and fluid) with the small intestine represented
29 by 60 ODEs representing a 30-compartment model (each compartment connected in series with a
30 dissolved drug and fluid component). 30 compartments were selected to represent the localized fluid
31 volume as well as capture most cases of small bowel fluid pocket counts observed in the MRI fluid study
32 (7). The conceptualization of a large number of compartments also reflects the long length vs diameter
33 ratio of the small intestine representing the local physiological situation of the small fluid volumes
34 available for dissolution. An illustration of the proposed compartment model and avenues of transport is
35 drawn in **Figure 1**. **Matlab 2017a** was used for both the simulation of model ODEs and the prediction of
36 rate coefficient parameters. A fixed step ODE solver from the Simulink Package (ODE4) was used in **1s**
37 intervals. Calculations were run in parallel model using the parfor method. Visualized data graphics were
38 rendered using Matlab's plot and surf packages. **Table 1** summarizes the parameters obtained and used in
39 the model.

40 *Stomach Compartment Fluid Compartment*

41 The stomach compartment is represented by one ODE for transport of fluid and one ODE for transport of
42 solubilized drug. Fluid transport in the stomach was assumed to be a component of gastric emptying and

43 net gastric secretion (secretion > absorption). A first order process was used to approximate the typical
 44 gastric emptying process (8, 9). Based on the observed trend, secretion on average was assumed to be
 45 constant. The result is a fluid transport ODE (**Equation 1**) that is defined by a first order gastric emptying
 46 and a zero-order gastric secretion process.

$$47 \quad \frac{dV_S}{dt} = - \underbrace{k_{qS}V_S}_{\text{Emptying into Intestines}} + \underbrace{k_{sS}}_{\text{Stomach Secretion}} \quad (1)$$

48 V_S is the volume of fluid in the stomach compartment, k_{qS} is the first order gastric emptying rate constant,
 49 and k_{sS} is zero order gastric secretion rate (table 1).

50 *Stomach Compartment Dissolved Drug Compartment*

51 The MRI study quantified fluid as the available free water. However, it is well known that the stomach
 52 environment is lined with mucus which can contribute to dissolved drug transport. The model assumed
 53 dissolved drug equilibrated instantaneously between the mucosal layer and the fluid. A mucus volume
 54 (V_{bS}) was estimated to be a static entity that lines the wall of the stomach but has not yet been fully
 55 quantified by clinical measurements. Mucus volume was estimated to be 40mL based on a cylindrical
 56 abstraction of the stomach with an average capacity of 0.94L, 10cm diameter, and 1mm thick mucosal
 57 layer (10).

58 Transport of solubilized drug was assumed to follow the gastric emptying process of fluid based on the
 59 fraction available in free water. Drug absorption in the stomach is typically assumed to be negligible
 60 relative to the small intestine and as such, there is no drug absorption term for the stomach. Drug
 61 degradation was also assumed to be minimal. **Equation 2** defines the transport of drug in the stomach
 62 compartment.

$$63 \quad \frac{dM_S}{dt} = - \underbrace{k_{qS}M_S \left(\frac{V_S}{V_S + V_{bS}} \right)}_{\text{Emptying into Intestines}} \quad (2)$$

64 M_S is the mass of drug in the stomach compartment.

65 *Small Intestine Fluid Compartments*

66 The small intestine was represented by thirty compartments each with one ODE for transport of fluid and
 67 one ODE for transport of solubilized drug. Fluid transport in the small intestine was assumed to consist of
 68 transit, absorption, and secretion. Small intestine transit behavior was modeled using first order to
 69 characterize the forward (anterograde) and reverse (retrograde) transit observed in human physiology
 70 (11). Water absorption was characterized by a deuterium-labeled water to approximate a first order
 71 absorption process with an absorption rate of 0.0715 min^{-1} (12) (table 1). Net secretion was assumed to
 72 occur primarily in the duodenal region from bile and pancreatic secretions. **Equation 3** defines the
 73 behavior for a small intestine compartment (the temporal zero order secretion term for the first
 74 compartment is not shown).

75

$$76 \quad \underbrace{\frac{dV_n}{dt}}_{\text{Net Volume}} = + \underbrace{k_{tF}V_{n-1}}_{\text{Forward In}} - \underbrace{k_{tF}V_n}_{\text{Forward Out}} + \underbrace{k_{tR}V_{n+1}}_{\text{Reverse In}} - \underbrace{k_{tR}V_n}_{\text{Reverse Out}} - \underbrace{k_{aw}V_n}_{\text{Absorption}} \quad (3)$$

77 The forward and reverse transit rate constants are defined by k_{tF} and k_{tR} respectively. The first order
 78 water absorption rate constant is defined as k_{aw} (table 1).

79 *Small Intestine Dissolved Drug Compartments*

80 Transport of dissolved drug in the small intestine was assumed to mimic the mucosal behavior in the
81 stomach compartment as various clinical studies have observed a range of thicknesses of the mucosal
82 layer in the GI tract ranging from 200 to 400 μm (13-15). Based on an average small intestine length of
83 6.35m, a small intestine diameter assumption of 2.48cm and an average thickness of 300 μm , the volume
84 of the mucosal layer in the small intestine was estimated to be 5mL (16, 17). The resulting **Equation 4**
85 describes the behavior of drug with M_n as the mass of the drug presently in n compartments. Absorption
86 is assumed to be first order processes with rate coefficients of k_a .

$$87 \quad \underbrace{\frac{dM_n}{dt}}_{\text{Net Drug}} = + \underbrace{k_{tF}M_{n-1} \left(\frac{V_{n-1}}{V_{n-1}+V_b} \right)}_{\text{Forward In}} - \underbrace{k_{tF}M_n \left(\frac{V_n}{V_n+V_b} \right)}_{\text{Forward Out}} + \underbrace{k_{tR}M_{n+1} \left(\frac{V_{n+1}}{V_{n+1}+V_b} \right)}_{\text{Reverse In}} - \underbrace{k_{tR}M_n \left(\frac{V_n}{V_n+V_b} \right)}_{\text{Reverse Out}} - \underbrace{k_a \left(\left(\frac{M_n}{V_n+V_b} \right) - \left(\frac{M_{\text{central}}}{V_d} \right) \right)}_{\text{Absorption}} \quad (4)$$

88 *Model Verification*

89 The DFCAT model was fitted to the small intestine mean residence time (MRT) distribution and observed
90 GI fluid content from an MRI clinical study conducted at the University of Nottingham (7). The study
91 consisted of twelve healthy and fasted individuals. Each individual was administered 240mL and the
92 subsequent GI fluid volumes were measured via MRI at designated intervals over 120 minutes. The
93 variables in the model such as duodenal secretion was adjusted to best fit the average observed fluid over
94 time in the study. Small intestine MRT distribution was obtained from existing models that aggregated
95 clinical data (7, 18). The inclusion of small intestine MRT in the DFCAT model mirrors a major design
96 verification criteria of the original CAT model.

97 *Human Intubation Clinical Study for Model Validation*

98 The DFCAT Model was validated based on the local GI concentration acquired through a human clinical
99 intubation study at the University of Michigan using the non-absorbable marker phenol red.

100 *Ethics Statement*

101 The study was approved by University of Michigan IRBMED HUM00085066 and the Food and Drug
102 Administration (RIHSC protocol 14-029D). Study volunteers provided written informed consent. The
103 study was in accordance with study protocol, the International Conference on Harmonization of Good
104 Clinical Practice guidelines, and applicable local regulatory requirements. The ClinicalTrials.gov
105 identifier is NCT02806869.

106 *Materials*

107 USP grade phenol red (phenolsulfonphthalein) was purchased from USP (Rockville, MD, USA) and
108 Avantor Performance Materials (Center Valley, PA, USA). The 0.1 mg/ml phenol red solution was
109 prepared in 250 ml of water. Phenol red was dispensed by the Investigational Drug Service (IDS) at the
110 University of Michigan.

111 *Study Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria*

112 Healthy human volunteers between the ages of 18 and 55 were eligible for the study. Volunteers
113 completed a physical exam and medical history screening by physician to confirm study eligibility.
114 Volunteers all had normal values for vital signs, electrocardiogram, urine drug screen, serum pregnancy
115 test (women only), comprehensive metabolic panel, complete blood count with platelet and differential,
116 and lactate dehydrogenase.

117 Volunteers were excluded if any of the following applied: inability to consent; mentally incapacitate;
118 prisoners; significant clinical illness within 3 weeks prior to screening; use of concomitant medications

119 including but not limited to prescription drugs, herbal and dietary supplements, over the counter
120 medications and vitamins within 2 weeks prior to study; received an investigational drug within 60 days
121 prior to study; history of allergy to ibuprofen or other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDS);
122 pregnant or lactating females; history of severe allergic diseases including drug allergies; history of drug
123 addiction or alcohol abuse within 12 months; clinically significant abnormal lab values during screening;
124 any other factor, condition, or disease including but not limited to, cardiovascular, renal, hepatic or
125 gastrointestinal disorders that may, in the opinion of the investigator, jeopardize the safety of the patient
126 or impact the validity of the results.

127 *Study Procedure*

128 Clinical procedures were conducted at either the Michigan Clinical Research Unit or the Medical
129 Procedures Unit of the University of Michigan hospital. Volunteers were instructed to fast 14 hours prior
130 and to avoid consuming water 11 hours prior to dosing. A physical exam was performed to ensure the
131 health of subject prior to GI catheter intubation procedure. Volunteers received a topical anesthetic (1mL
132 of 4% lidocaine before catheter insertion. Lubricating jelly was applied to the GI catheter which was then
133 orally inserted into the GI tract of the volunteer. Catheter placement was confirmed under abdominal
134 fluoroscopy to ensure proper positioning in the GI tract. Upon placement completion, the GI catheter was
135 taped and kept open with saline solution throughout the study duration.

136 Volunteers were administered a single oral dose of ibuprofen (800 mg tablet) administered with 250 mL
137 of phenol red. This was swallowed by the volunteer and not administered through catheter. GI fluid
138 samples were collected through aspiration of available ports from the catheter. Prior to sample collection,
139 contents from previous aspirations were collected and discarded. This discard volume ranged from 1.7mL
140 to 3.2mL. If air bubbles were observed, at least 30 cc of air/fluid mixture was collected and discarded. GI
141 sample collection times include 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 hours post dose.
142 Supernatant was collected after sample centrifugation at 21,000 x g for 5 minutes and stored at -80°C.
143 The GI catheter was removed from the volunteer at 7 hours.

144 *HPLC analysis of Phenol Red in GI Fluid*

145 All samples of phenol red were analyzed with an Agilent 1200 series HPLC system HPLC system
146 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). The HPLC system consisted of Agilent pumps (1100 series), an
147 Agilent autosampler (1200 series), and an Agilent UV-Vis detector (1100 series) controlled by
148 Chemstation® 32 software (version B.01.03). Samples were resolved in Agilent Eclipse XDB-C18
149 reverse-phase column (3.5 µm, 4.6 × 150 mm) equipped with a guard column for phenol red. The mobile
150 phase consisted of 0.1% TFA/water (Solvent A) and 0.1% TFA/acetonitrile (Solvent B) with the solvent
151 B gradient changing from 0–56% at a rate of 2%/min during a 14-minute run. Standard curves generated
152 for phenol red were utilized for quantitation of integrated area under peaks. The detection wavelength was
153 430 nm.

154 **Results**

155 *Gastric Secretion and Emptying*

156 Average gastric emptying behavior was observed to be first order and net fluxes were attributed to either
157 be emptying or secretion. Temporal stomach fluid content data from the MRI study was fitted using
158 Matlab's fitting toolbox. The equation for fitting is defined in **Equation 5**. The fitted equation is illustrated
159 in **Figure 2**.

$$160 \quad V(t) = (242) * e^{-k_{qS} * t} + \frac{k_{sS}}{k_{qS}} \quad (5)$$

161 The initial stomach volume was based on the first observed time point (242mL). The resulting fit found
162 the coefficients for k_{SS} and k_{qS} to be 1.425 mL/min and 0.0699min^{-1} respectively (table 1). The R square
163 for the goodness of fit was 0.993. This is within the range of the typical daily adult gastric secretion of 2-
164 3L or 1.39 to 2.08mL/min. (19)

165 *Small Intestine Transit Rates*

166 To determine the optimal transit rate coefficients, a compartment model was used to simulate the transit
167 of drug through the small intestine based on a 199 min mean residence time (50% exit from small
168 intestine to colon) determined by a previous study (20). Due to having more than one transit variable to
169 solve, a range of forward and reverse rate coefficients were evaluated. A 3D visualization of residual fit
170 as a function of forward and reverse rate coefficients is shown in **Figure 3a**. Figure 3a visualizes the
171 natural relationship between the forward and reverse coefficients which minimizes the predicted transit
172 vs. experimental measurement. The combination of forward and reverse rate transit coefficients with the
173 lowest residual was chosen as the optimized values (0.92min^{-1} forward and 0.269min^{-1} reverse) (table 1).
174 The optimized transit rates were then used in the model. The resulting cumulative drug exit in **Figure 3b**
175 closely resembles the **small intestine MRT** of the original CAT approach.

176 *Small Intestine Secretion Rate*

177 Assuming net absorption throughout the small intestine, the resulting term that allows for the variation
178 necessary to govern total small intestine volume is duodenal secretion. Duodenal secretion was assumed
179 to change over time and the values for duodenal secretion were determined via an optimization algorithm
180 to determine an estimate for duodenal secretion based on the total volumes observed in the simulation.
181 Values for duodenal secretion rate range from 0 to 4.5mL/min (table 1). The final secretion value
182 represents the duodenal secretion necessary to return the system to the basal volume observed in the
183 beginning of the fluid MRI study. Secretion below the pylorus is roughly 4 liters daily (1 liter bile and 3
184 liter pancreatic) (21) This translates to roughly 2.78 mL/min which is reasonable with the values used in
185 the model.

186 *Average Gastrointestinal Fluid Volume Over Time*

187 Model verification was conducted based on fluid MRI study data that ranged from 0 to 120 minutes. The
188 observed and simulated stomach and small intestine physiological fluid volumes over time are shown in
189 **Figure 5**. The upper and lower small intestine were categorized by the MRI study as the proximal
190 duodenum to proximal jejunum and distal jejunum to distal ileum respectively. This was recognized in
191 model form as small intestine compartments 1-4 and 5-30 respectively based on the approximate distance
192 for each compartment (roughly 20 cm). The observed and simulated stomach and small intestine
193 physiological fluid volumes over time (excluding mucosal volume) are shown in **Figure 4**.

194 The simulation of stomach volume generally fit within the standard error of the mean (SEM) as the
195 volume decreased after the initial water dose. The use of first order gastric emptying and zero order
196 gastric secretion appear to capture the average transport behavior in the stomach. In comparison, the
197 simulated small intestine results do not follow the experimental profile as well as the stomach volumes.
198 This could be due to the use of an absorption rate constant from another clinical study with a different
199 population, mixing of water with the fluid layer lowering observed fluid volume, and/or large variation in
200 regional absorption. In addition to these possibilities, the observation differences between simulated and
201 experimental fluid volumes in the upper and lower small intestine can also be explained by the natural
202 formation and transport process of fluid pockets in the GI tract.

203 Model validation with Non-absorbable Phenol Red in the GI

204 Since phenol red is a non-absorbable marker in the GI tract, the GI local concentration change of phenol
205 red after oral dosing of 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ solution is only affected by the GI fluid volume change and transit.
206 Therefore, phenol red GI local concentration is used to validate the DFCAT model. A simulation was
207 conducted for fluid volume and phenol red transit replicating the dosing scenario observed in the phenol
208 red intubation clinical study. The average phenol red concentration was used. The initial dose volume was
209 274 mL with an average phenol red dose of 23.4mg (85 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). The simulated volume (excluding
210 mucosal layer), mass, and concentration are shown in **Figure 5**. The blue line corresponds with the first
211 compartment or duodenum.

212 The design validation results of comparing simulation with experimental results are shown in **Figure 6**.
213 The predicted concentration generally falls within the average and standard error of the mean observed
214 phenol red concentrations. While the behavior cannot be considered ideal in the proximal and mid
215 jejunum as the simulation results in a higher concentration at the early time points, the study volunteers
216 and physiology as well as stochastic variation differ between the two clinical studies. The closeness of the
217 trend was considered well replicated by the simulation.

218 While the duodenum is the first compartment to peak in terms of total phenol red content, other
219 compartments follow rapidly as it transports down the small intestine, and there is an extensive
220 distribution of phenol red through the small intestine. Within two hours, there is significant phenol red
221 distribution throughout the small intestine. On the other hand, the large initial quantity of fluid ingested
222 means that initial compartments do not experience the highest concentration possible. This occurs in the
223 later compartments where water absorption has contributed significantly to alter the fluid volume in the
224 GI tract.

225 The frame of an animation of the DFCAT model (supplement 1) is shown in **Figure 7**. The transit of
226 phenol red is rapid, reaching past the middle small intestine by 30 minutes. On an average basis, there is
227 fluid distribution throughout the small intestine with 10mL in the duodenal compartment and just over
228 5mL in the last ileum compartment. After the initial dosing of water, the average basis fluid volumes do
229 not change rapidly in the small intestine and as such, lead to an overall shape of the mass profile that is
230 similar to the concentration profile over all the small intestine compartments.

231 Discussion

232 Recent research efforts have been focused on clarifying the numerous complexities in the oral drug
233 absorption process. The OrBiTo project is such an initiative dedicated to establishing new frameworks
234 and tools for predictive biopharmaceutics regarding oral drug delivery (22). One topic of interest is the
235 local GI fluid volumes within the gut lumen resulting from fluid intake, secretion, and reabsorption. This
236 is a critical factor in the oral absorption process as the change of fluid volume within the gut lumen can
237 have a significant effect on the dissolution of the drug and hence the concentration presented to enzymes
238 and transporters within the enterocyte (2). While MRI studies have provided quantification of GI fluid
239 volumes, the dynamic change of the fluid volume as well as the intermediate process of fluid absorption,
240 secretion, and transit that occurs GI tract remains difficult to characterize.

241 Understanding the dynamics of GI fluid transport is essential to improvements in predicting *in vivo*
242 dissolution from mechanistic models. Measurement of GI fluid volume through imaging has provided
243 valuable knowledge of GI fluid quantification. However, the data obtained remains as snapshots in time
244 and does not detail the degree of absorption, secretion, and transit that occurs. The DFCAT model was
245 established to mechanistically interpret the dynamic changes and intermediate knowledge using a

246 methodical approach based on design verification and validation using phenol red concentration in the GI
247 tract.

248 Design verification was based on the GI fluid quantification via MRI. The MRI method (23) used to
249 obtain the *in-vivo* fluid volume (7) measured only freely mobile water with long transverse relaxation
250 time, hence fluid components with restricted mobility and shorter transverse relaxation times (e.g. water
251 in mucous) were not accounted for. If the mixing of fluid and mucus prevents the fluid from being
252 quantified, it would explain why the total volume of fluid measured was underestimated and that the
253 simulated volume may be closer to reality. This could explain the significant drop when assessing the
254 mass balance of fluid from the stomach into the small intestine. The quantity of mucus in the GI tract has
255 not been well characterized and is not usually considered a major contributor to drug dissolution and oral
256 drug absorption. However, the weight of evidence from this model suggests the mucus layer is present
257 and its volume can affect local GI concentrations given the surface area of the small intestine.

258 In addition, in the MRI measured fluid volume, a minimum threshold of 0.5 mL per fluid pocket was
259 applied to the quantitation in (7). This was done since the contribution of very small pockets of fluid in
260 the small bowel comprised only 0.5% of the total volume detected in the small bowel whilst their
261 inclusion confused the display and interpretation of data. The 0.5mL is not a lower detection limit, but
262 rather a single MRI image pixel of adequate brightness against the validated calibration (23). Therefore,
263 the total volume of fluid measured by MRI was likely be underestimated.

264 Other imaging techniques such as Positron Emission Tomography (PET) have obtained an average
265 volume of 313mL which is significantly larger than the MRI derived volume of 105 mL (24, 25).
266 However, this tends to overestimate the total volume as the marker can spread along the small intestine
267 walls. This difference can be explained by the presence of a mucus layer and would suggest that an
268 estimated volume of 150 mL is reasonable to describe the small intestine mucus layer. Design validation
269 of DFCAT was based on the experimentally determined local GI concentrations of phenol red. Despite
270 the variation that was observed between the simulated and experimental fluid profiles, the simulation and
271 experimentally observed phenol red concentrations in the GI tract were similar suggesting the model is
272 representative. It is critical to note that there is a significant variation in the GI local phenol red
273 concentration due to the stochastic nature of the GI tract. The use of a continuous model was to simplify
274 the approach to characterize average tendencies and trends. In this regard, the DFCAT model can explain
275 the change in local GI fluid volumes.

276 A primary assumption in the DFCAT model is that transport is defined by first order kinetics. First order
277 kinetics was used in the model to define gastric emptying, transit rate in the small intestine, and water
278 absorption. Of these processes, only gastric emptying and water absorption have been experimentally
279 determined to be well approximated by first order kinetics (8, 9, 12). The transit rate in the small intestine
280 has only noted to be faster in the proximal regions and slower in the more distal regions (26). The use of
281 first order kinetics can mathematically approximate this behavior to a certain extent but certainly does not
282 mimic the complete peristaltic effect observed in the small intestine.

283 The use of verification and validation in establishing the DFCAT model also presents limitations. The
284 model presently is only designed to simulate the fluid volume after intake of water in the fasted state.
285 There are numerous physiochemical aspects in the GI tract such as conductivity, pH, and osmolality that
286 can impact oral drug delivery (26). Changing the drink or simulating a fed state may result in a
287 significantly different profile with different GI secretions. Each change in study conditions would require
288 a new MRI fluid study to quantify the fluid model as well as a new intubation study to obtain the local GI
289 concentrations under fed condition.

290 The DFCAT as presented is a methodology to model GI fluid transport based on experimentally obtained
291 fluid volume, which is also validated by local phenol red concentration in the GI tract. While the
292 verification and validation do not include drug absorption, the framework can be expanded to predict drug
293 dissolution and oral drug absorption as referenced in the compartmental equations. Since local GI fluid
294 content is critical to drug dissolution and oral absorption, the approach used to construct the DFCAT
295 model can be integrated with existing physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) models. Along with
296 the fundamental knowledge of the GI tract developed by the OrBiTo project, the integration of local GI
297 fluid and other physiological considerations can integrate in vitro and in silico approaches to improve the
298 oral drug development process.

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