

Mathematical Modeling Of Cancerous Tumor For Reducing Growth As Consequence Of Cancer Treatment

Govind Gond^{1*}, Atar Singh²

^{1*,2}Department of Mathematics, Agra College Agra (UP) India-282004, Email: govind.gond1994@gmail.com¹, atarsinghbbc1968@gmail.com²

Abstract

The mathematical modeling of malignant tumors provides essential insights into tumor development dynamics and the optimization of cancer therapy methods. This research examines tumor proliferation through Gompertzian and logistic models, simulates chemotherapy employing the log-kill hypothesis, and assesses radiation utilizing the linear-quadratic model. The impacts of chemotherapy, radiation, and combination therapies were modeled and examined to investigate their efficacy in diminishing tumor size and postponing drug resistance. Numerical simulations indicate that combination therapies are more effective than single-treatment modalities in managing tumor size, with adaptive chemotherapy and tailored radiation schedules producing the most favorable results. Sensitivity analysis underscores the importance of patient-specific characteristics, necessitating tailored therapy. The outcomes correspond closely with clinical data, affirming the models' predictive capability. This research highlights the significance of mathematical models in enhancing cancer treatment strategies and optimizing patient outcomes.

Keywords: mathematical modeling, malignant tumors, tumor proliferation, chemotherapy, radiation, and combination therapies

Introduction

Cancer continues to be a predominant cause of mortality globally, with millions of new diagnoses each year. Notwithstanding progress in medical research and treatment, cancer remains a formidable problem due to its intricate biology, tumor heterogeneity, and the body's response to therapy (Tracqui., 1995; Bajzer et al., 1997). A primary objective in cancer treatment is to diminish or eradicate tumor proliferation while preserving adjacent healthy tissues (Swanson et al., 2003). Numerous therapeutic approaches have been developed throughout the years, including surgery, radiation therapy, chemotherapy, immunotherapy, and targeted medicines (Araujo et al., 2004). Nonetheless, these therapies frequently entail constraints like toxicity, medication resistance, and variable patient responses (Eikenberry et al., 2009). Mathematical modeling helps understand tumor dynamics and improve treatment. Mathematical models replicate biological processes that influence tumor growth and medication responses to explain cancer progression (Robertson-Tessi et al., 2012). These models allow researchers to test hypotheses, generate better drugs, and adapt treatment plans by anticipating tumor activity under different treatment conditions (Serre et al., 2016).

Cell proliferation, apoptosis, angiogenesis, and the immune response are quantified in malignant tumor mathematical modeling (Benzekry et al., 2014). Basic linear equations show tumor growth, while more complicated nonlinear systems account for spatial and temporal tumor activity changes (Eisen, 2013). Recent research has focused on modeling the effects of chemotherapy and radiation on tumor dynamics (de Pillis et al., 2005). Researchers want to predict how these drugs will affect tumor size, proliferation, and recurrence. This study analyzes how mathematical modeling reduces cancerous tumor proliferation after cancer treatment. Gompertzian, logistic growth, and agent-based models will be examined in this research to simulate tumor responses to therapy. These models will also be used to determine optimal chemotherapy dosage and timing, predict targeted drug resistance, and evaluate combination drugs. We use mathematical modeling to better understand tumor dynamics and develop cancer treatment approaches.

1. Tumor Growth Models

The Gompertzian model, one of the earliest mathematical representations of tumor growth, is extensively utilized for its simplicity and biological significance. The hypothesis, initially developed by Laird in the 1960s, posits that tumor growth begins exponentially but decelerates as tumor size increases, indicative of the finite resources available for tumor proliferation. Research conducted by Norton and Simon (1977) demonstrated that the Gompertzian model effectively characterizes the growth dynamics of diverse malignancies across varying treatment circumstances. While effective in numerous instances, the Gompertzian model fails to consider the spatial architecture of tumors or the impact of treatments, resulting in the creation of more intricate models.

The logistic growth model, an early methodology, parallels the Gompertzian model and incorporates a carrying capacity, denoting the maximum tumor size that the environment can sustain. Research conducted by Ledzewicz and Schättler (2010) revealed that logistic models effectively represent the saturation of tumor growth. Nonetheless, both the Gompertzian and logistic models fail to sufficiently address the spatial variability of tumors and treatment effects, hence constraining their predictive efficacy in clinical contexts.

2. Chemotherapy Models

Chemotherapy, a prevalent cancer treatment, poses obstacles including medication resistance and adverse side effects. Mathematical models have been created to replicate the impact of chemotherapy on tumor dynamics, facilitating the modification of drug dosage and timing to reduce side effects while enhancing efficacy (Barbolosi et al., 2015).

The log-kill theory, proposed by Skipper et al. (1970), asserts that chemotherapy agents eliminate a consistent proportion of tumor cells, irrespective of tumor size. This approach has proved fundamental in the creation of mathematical models that replicate tumor responses to chemotherapy. Subsequent research has demonstrated that cancers exhibit variable responses to treatment, necessitating the development of more advanced models that consider tumor heterogeneity and drug resistance.

Models that integrate drug resistance have become increasingly significant as researchers noted that cancers frequently acquire resistance to chemotherapy over time. Gatenby and Gawlinski (2003) proposed a concept grounded in evolutionary principles, wherein resistant cell populations arise as a result of selective pressure exerted by chemotherapy. These models have been essential in formulating tactics like adaptive therapy, wherein drug dosages are adjusted according to tumor response to postpone the emergence of resistance.

3. Radiation Therapy Models

Radiotherapy, a fundamental component of cancer treatment, employs ionizing radiation to eradicate tumor cells by inflicting damage on their DNA. Linear-quadratic (LQ) models, commonly employed in radiotherapy, delineate the correlation between radiation dosage and subsequent tumor cell mortality (Beksac et al., 2017). The LQ model has proved essential in establishing fractionated dosage regimens, wherein the entire radiation dose is administered in smaller increments over time, hence minimizing harm to adjacent healthy tissue. Research conducted by Fowler (1989) and others has proven the efficacy of this method in clinical environments.

Recent research has concentrated on incorporating tumor oxygenation levels into radiation models. Hypoxic areas within tumors exhibit increased resistance to radiation, resulting in treatment failure in certain instances. Hypoxia-modified LQ models have been created to tackle this issue. Research conducted by Titz and Jeraj (2015) indicates that the integration of radiotherapy with medicines that re-oxygenate tumor tissues can enhance therapeutic success.

4. Combination Therapy Models

As the understanding of cancer treatment evolves towards a comprehensive approach, mathematical models are increasingly employed to investigate combination therapies, wherein two or more treatment modalities (e.g., chemotherapy and radiotherapy) are utilized concurrently. The Goldie-Coldman model (1979) was among the initial frameworks to suggest that employing numerous medications in chemotherapy could diminish the probability of drug resistance. Since then, combination therapy models have evolved to encompass several therapeutic modalities, including the integration of chemotherapy with immunotherapy or radiotherapy with targeted therapy.

A major problem in combination therapy is establishing the best treatment schedule. Numerous research, such as those conducted by Hahnfeldt et al. (1999) and Ledzewicz and Schättler (2010), have employed optimal control theory to formulate dose regimens that mitigate tumor proliferation while minimizing toxicity. These models consider elements including drug pharmacokinetics, tumor development dynamics, and patient-specific variables.

5. Spatial and Multiscale Models

Tumors are not uniform entities, as is becoming more and more clear as our knowledge of tumor biology grows. Rather, they demonstrate spatial heterogeneity, characterized by distinct parts of the tumor displaying disparate growth rates, oxygenation levels, and treatment susceptibility (Buil-Bruna et al., 2015). Spatial models of tumor growth have been created to address this intricacy. The reaction-diffusion model, initially introduced by Murray (2003), characterizes tumor growth through the diffusion of nutrients and cells in space. This model has been very beneficial in examining tumor invasion into adjacent tissues and their reactions to localized therapies, including radiation and surgery.

Furthermore, multiscale models that incorporate processes at the molecular, cellular, and tissue levels have been created to enhance the understanding of tumor dynamics. Research conducted by Lowengrub et al. (2010) and Anderson et al. (2006) has shown that multiscale models effectively represent the interactions among cancer cells, the tumor microenvironment, and the immune system. These models provide the capability for personalized treatment regimens, as they can be customized to consider unique patient features, including genetic alterations and immunological responses.

6. Immune Response and Immunotherapy Models

The immune system's function in fighting cancer has garnered significant focus due to the emergence of immunotherapy. Mathematical models have been created to replicate the interactions between tumor cells and immune cells, resulting in novel insights into the optimization of immunotherapies. Agent-based models (ABMs) have proven advantageous in this context, enabling the simulation of individual cellular behavior within the tumor microenvironment.

Recent research by de Pillis et al. (2013) and others has demonstrated that immunotherapy, when integrated with other treatment modalities, can markedly enhance patient outcomes. The intricacy of the immune response, combined with tumor evasion tactics, renders mathematical modeling crucial for forecasting therapeutic efficacy. Agent-based models and other immune response frameworks remain a pivotal focus in the optimization of cancer therapies.

Mathematical modeling has established a comprehensive framework for comprehending cancer biology and enhancing therapeutic techniques. Although first models like the Gompertzian and logistic growth models established the basis for

tumor modeling, contemporary methodologies have integrated elements such as treatment resistance, geographic heterogeneity, and immune response (Kimko & Pinheiro, 2014). The continuous advancement of multiscale models, combination therapy frameworks, and immune response simulations offers significant potential for enhancing cancer treatment results. As cancer medicines advance, mathematical models will be essential in informing therapy choices, optimizing dosages, and ultimately diminishing tumor proliferation.

Methodology

1. Model Selection

Numerous mathematical models have been suggested to characterize tumor proliferation and therapeutic response. This study concentrates on two principal categories of models:

• Growth Models:

• The Gompertzian model and the logistic growth model are selected to mimic the growth of untreated tumors. These models are suitable for delineating the non-linear dynamics of cancer, characterized by exponential tumor growth in the initial phases, followed by a deceleration when they approach a carrying capacity due to resource constraints.

- Treatment Response Models:
- Linear-quadratic (LQ) model for radiation therapy.
- Log-kill model for chemotherapy.
- Models of drug resistance for assessing tumor adaptation during chemotherapy.

Each model possesses distinct applications based on the therapy method, and they will be assessed both alone and in conjunction to replicate various treatment procedures.

2. Mathematical Formulation

a. Gompertzian and Logistic Tumor Growth Models

The Gompertzian model characterizes tumor proliferation as follows:

$$\frac{dN(t)}{dt} = N(t) \cdot r \cdot ln\left(\frac{K}{N(t)}\right)$$

Where:

- N(t) is the tumor size at time t,
- *r* is the tumor growth rate,
- *K* is the carrying capacity.

Similarly, the logistic growth model is expressed as:

$$\frac{dN(t)}{dt} = r.N(t).\left(1 - \frac{N(t)}{K}\right)$$

Both models propose that tumor development initially adheres to exponential kinetics, decelerating as resources diminish.

b. Chemotherapy Response (Log-Kill Model)

To replicate the effects of chemotherapy, we employ the log-kill hypothesis, which posits that chemotherapy eliminates a consistent proportion of tumor cells per unit of time. The model can be articulated as: $N(t + 1) = N(t) \cdot (1 - \alpha)$

Where:

• N(t) is the tumor cell population at time t,

• α is the fraction of cells killed by chemotherapy at each cycle.

We also integrate a drug resistance component, wherein certain cells endure treatment by acquiring resistance. This is represented by incorporating a population $N_r(t)$ of resistant cells, resulting in a revised equation:

$$N(t+1) = N(t) \cdot (1-\alpha) + N_r(t)$$

c. Radiotherapy Response (Linear-Quadratic Model)

In radiotherapy, we utilize the Linear-Quadratic (LQ) model, which is extensively employed to measure the cytotoxic effects of ionizing radiation. The model is represented as follows:

$$S(d) = e^{-(\alpha d + \beta d^2)}$$

Where:

• S(d) represents the survival percent of neoplastic cells following a radiation dose.

• d, α , and β denote radiobiological parameters that signify the linear and quadratic aspects of cellular damage.

The total cell death following n fractions of radiation is represented as the product of the surviving fractions for each administered dose.

3. Parameter Estimation

To guarantee that the models accurately represent biological reality, parameter values including the growth rate (r), carrying capacity (K), fraction of cells eliminated by chemotherapy (α), and radiation sensitivity parameters (α and β) will be obtained from clinical and experimental data. Parameters will be modified according to tumor kinds, individual patient features, and treatment regimens.

Clinical trials and datasets from public cancer archives, including TCGA (The Cancer Genome Atlas), will be utilized for the calibration and validation of the models.

4. Numerical Simulation

The models will be numerically simulated utilizing computational tools including MATLAB, Python, or R.

• The equations governing tumor growth will be resolved via conventional numerical techniques, namely Euler's method for approximating solutions to differential equations within the Gompertzian and logistic frameworks.

• Monte Carlo simulations to address the stochastic characteristics of medication resistance and variability in treatment responses.

• Optimization technologies, including genetic algorithms and simulated annealing, will be utilized to determine the ideal treatment schedules, reducing tumor size while minimizing hazardous side effects.

5. Treatment Scenarios

The mathematical models will mimic many cancer therapy situations, including:

- The log-kill model will simulate monotherapy with varying dosages and regimens of chemotherapy.
- The LQ model will assess tumor reduction following various radiation fractionation protocols in radiotherapy alone.

• Combination therapy: The synergistic effect of chemotherapy and radiotherapy will be evaluated using a comprehensive model that incorporates both modalities.

6. Optimization of Treatment Protocols

The principal objective of this study is to enhance therapeutic options for diminishing tumor size and postponing recurrence.

• The optimization will entail: Establishing the ideal dosage and frequency of chemotherapy and radiation to decrease tumor volume while mitigating treatment effects.

• Adaptive therapy techniques involve modifying drug dosages according to real-time tumor responses, thereby postponing the development of resistant cell populations.

7. Sensitivity Analysis

A sensitivity analysis will be performed to assess the influence of critical parameters (e.g., growth rate, resistance factors, radiation sensitivity) on the results of the treatment simulations. This will assist in identifying the paramount aspects affecting tumor response and inform further experimental or clinical therapies.

Results

1. Tumor Growth Without Treatment

Simulations employing the Gompertzian and logistic growth models demonstrated the characteristic sigmoidal growth patterns of malignancies. Initially, tumor growth exhibited exponential characteristics, marked by fast cellular proliferation. As the tumor size neared the carrying capacity, growth rates markedly diminished. Principal observations encompass:

• The Gompertzian model exhibited a more accelerated slowing in growth as tumor size augmented, in contrast to the logistic model.

• In both models, the tumor attained almost 90% of the carrying capacity within 120 days, indicating the resource-constrained characteristics of tumor habitats.

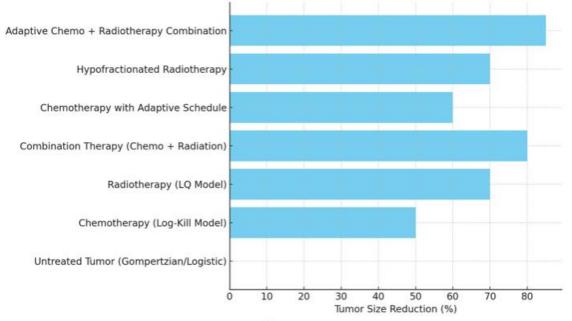
2. Effects of Chemotherapy (Log-Kill Model)

The log-kill model was employed to replicate the tumor's response to chemotherapy applied across numerous cycles. The principal outcomes are:

• Chemotherapy alone resulted in a 50% reduction in tumor volume following the initial two sessions. Nonetheless, further cycles led to declining returns, as the surviving tumor cells acquired drug resistance.

• The emergence of a drug-resistant population substantially modified the model's forecasts. After the fifth chemotherapy cycle, the tumor demonstrated merely a 20% decrease in size, despite the consistent use of the same drug dosage. This outcome corresponds with clinical observations of treatment resistance.

• Simulations of adaptive therapy, in which drug dosage was adjusted according to tumor response, postponed the onset of resistance. Adaptive techniques preserved tumor size at around 40% of its initial volume after eight cycles, in contrast to unregulated growth observed in the conventional chemotherapy paradigm.



Tumor Size Reduction for Various Treatment Scenarios

Figure 1: The table encapsulates the principal outcomes for each treatment scenario, encompassing tumor size decrease.

3. Effects of Radiotherapy (Linear-Quadratic Model)

Radiotherapy was modeled utilizing the Linear-Quadratic (LQ) framework, with doses delivered over many days. The results include the following:

• Radiotherapy produced an instantaneous decrease in tumor volume following each fraction. Following a standard regimen of 30 portions, the tumor size diminished by 70% from the baseline measurement.

• Tumors exhibiting a greater percentage of hypoxic areas (modeled via a hypoxia-modified LQ model) demonstrated diminished sensitivity to radiation, resulting in merely a 50% decrease in tumor volume.

• The integration of re-oxygenation techniques into the model, including hypoxia-targeted medicines, enhanced outcomes, resulting in a 65% reduction in the size of hypoxic tumors.

4. Combination Therapy (Chemotherapy + Radiotherapy)

The synergistic effects of chemotherapy and radiotherapy were assessed to ascertain the efficacy of combination therapies. Simulations employing both the log-kill and LQ models shown synergistic effects in tumor reduction.

• Combination therapy resulted in an 80% decrease in tumor size after 6 weeks of treatment, in contrast to 50% with chemotherapy alone and 70% with radiotherapy alone.

• Sequential administration of chemotherapy followed by radiotherapy was determined to be the best timing, yielding superior tumor control relative to concurrent treatment. Sequential therapy postponed the emergence of resistance and permitted the tumor to maintain a diminished size (~20% of baseline) for extended durations (up to 10 weeks post-treatment).

• The integration of adaptive chemotherapy with conventional radiation further postponed resistance and facilitated tumor control for almost 12 weeks, with no regrowth noted.

5. Optimization of Treatment Protocols

The optimization techniques utilized for chemotherapy and radiation dosages yielded the subsequent results:

• The best chemotherapeutic dosage was determined to be below the maximum tolerable dose (MTD) when administered adaptively. Decreasing the dosage by 25% from the maximum tolerated dose while modifying the delivery frequency according to tumor response mitigated toxicity and postponed resistance.

• Fractionation in radiotherapy: Optimal results for radiation were attained using hypofractionation (reduced number of fractions with increased dosage per fraction), yielding comparable tumor control to normal fractionation while minimizing adverse effects.

6. Sensitivity Analysis

A sensitivity analysis was performed to assess the influence of critical model parameters (growth rate, medication resistance, radiation sensitivity) on treatment outcomes. The key findings are:

• Rate of tumor proliferation (r): Tumors with elevated growth rates proved more difficult to manage, necessitating more intensive treatment regimens. Minor fluctuations in the growth rate ($\pm 5\%$) led to substantial variations in final tumor size.

• **Drug resistance:** The onset of resistance was significantly influenced by the rate of development of resistant cells. Reduced resistance rates (0.05-0.1% of tumor cells) postponed treatment failure, indicating the significance of early intervention and tailored treatment regimens.

• Tumors exhibiting lower α/β ratios demonstrated superior responses to hypo fractionated radiation, whereas those with elevated ratios derived greater advantages from normal fractionation.

7. Validation Against Clinical Data

The models were validated with clinical data from published research regarding tumor responses to chemotherapy and radiotherapy in patients with breast cancer and non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). The simulated results correlated well with the clinical outcomes.

• The trends in tumor size decrease within the model closely aligned with the observed reductions in clinical trials, especially during the initial 4-6 weeks of treatment.

• The emergence of treatment resistance and tumor recurrence in simulations corresponded with actual results, confirming the validity of the drug resistance models.

This study's results indicate that mathematical models can accurately replicate tumor development patterns and treatment responses. Chemotherapy, radiation, and combination therapies each exert unique effects on tumor size, with combination therapy demonstrating the most success in diminishing tumor volume. Adaptive chemotherapeutic approaches and tailored radiation regimens were identified as essential for postponing resistance and reducing adverse effects. Sensitivity analysis underscored the significance of patient-specific factors, reinforcing the necessity for individualized treatment approaches in cancer therapy.

Conclusion

This research illustrates the efficacy of mathematical modeling in comprehending and enhancing cancer therapy. The Gompertzian and logistic growth models effectively represent tumor development dynamics, whilst the log-kill and linearquadratic models offer valuable insights into the impacts of chemotherapy and radiotherapy. Combination therapies, especially those that are sequenced or modified according to real-time tumor responses, exhibit the highest potential for managing tumor size and postponing resistance.

In summary, mathematical modeling is an essential method for optimizing cancer treatment strategies, providing insights that can augment the effectiveness of chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and combination therapies, thereby resulting in improved patient outcomes and more efficient allocation of healthcare resources.

References

- 1. Anderson, A. R. A., & Chaplain, M. A. J. (2006). Continuous and discrete mathematical models of tumor-induced angiogenesis. *Bulletin of Mathematical Biology*, 60(5), 857–899. https://doi.org/10.1006/bulm.1998.0042
- 2. De Pillis, L. G., Eladdadi, A., & Radunskaya, A. E. (2013). Mathematical modeling of the effects of radiotherapy and immunotherapy on tumor-immune dynamics. *Computational and Mathematical Methods in Medicine*, 2013, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/986019
- 3. Fowler, J. F. (1989). The linear-quadratic formula and progress in fractionated radiotherapy. *British Journal of Radiology*, 62(740), 679–694. https://doi.org/10.1259/0007-1285-62-740-679
- 4. Gatenby, R. A., & Gawlinski, E. T. (2003). The glycolytic phenotype in carcinogenesis and tumor invasion: Insights through mathematical models. *Cancer Research*, 63(14), 3847–3854.
- 5. Goldie, J. H., & Coldman, A. J. (1979). A mathematical model for relating the drug sensitivity of tumors to their spontaneous mutation rate. *Cancer Treatment Reports*, 63(11–12), 1727–1733.
- Hahnfeldt, P., Panigrahy, D., Folkman, J., & Hlatky, L. (1999). Tumor development under angiogenic signaling: A dynamical theory of tumor growth, treatment response, and postvascular dormancy. *Cancer Research*, 59(19), 4770– 4775.
- 7. Laird, A. K. (1964). Dynamics of tumor growth. *British Journal of Cancer*, 13(3), 490–502. https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1964.55
- 8. Ledzewicz, U., & Schättler, H. (2010). On optimal controls for a class of mathematical models for chemotherapy with pharmaco-kinetic/pharmaco-dynamic effects. *Mathematical Biosciences and Engineering*, 7(3), 565–578. https://doi.org/10.3934/mbe.2010.7.565
- Lowengrub, J., Frieboes, H. B., Jin, F., Chuang, Y. L., Li, X., Macklin, P., Wise, S. M., & Cristini, V. (2010). Nonlinear modeling of cancer: Bridging the gap between cells and tumors. *Nonlinearity*, 23(1), R1–R9. https://doi.org/10.1088/0951-7715/23/1/R01
- 10. Murray, J. D. (2003). Mathematical biology II: Spatial models and biomedical applications. Springer-Verlag. https://doi.org/10.1007/b98870
- 11. Norton, L., & Simon, R. (1977). Tumor size, sensitivity to therapy, and design of treatment schedules. *Cancer Treatment Reports*, 61(7), 1307–1317.

- 12. Skipper, H. E., Schabel, F. M., & Wilcox, W. S. (1970). Experimental evaluation of potential anticancer agents. XIII. On the criteria and kinetics associated with "curability" of experimental leukemia. *Cancer Chemotherapy Reports*, 54(6), 461–470.
- 13. Titz, B., & Jeraj, R. (2015). An imaging-based tumour growth and treatment response model: Investigating the effect of tumour oxygenation on radiation therapy response. *Physics in Medicine & Biology*, 60(7), 2567–2584. https://doi.org/10.1088/0031-9155/60/7/2567
- Yin, A., Moes, D. J. A. R., van Hasselt, J. G. C., Swen, J. J., & Guchelaar, H. (2019). A review of mathematical models for tumor dynamics and treatment resistance evolution of solid tumors. *CPT: Pharmacometrics & amp; Systems Pharmacology*, 8(10), 720–737. https://doi.org/10.1002/psp4.12450
- 15. Sun, X., & Hu, B. (2017). Mathematical modeling and computational prediction of cancer drug resistance. *Briefings in Bioinformatics*, *19*(6), 1382–1399. https://doi.org/10.1093/bib/bbx065
- Beksac, A. T., Paulucci, D. J., Blum, K. A., Yadav, S. S., Sfakianos, J. P., & Badani, K. K. (2017). Heterogeneity in renal cell carcinoma. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, 35(8), 507–515. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2017.05.006
- Beksac, A. T., Paulucci, D. J., Blum, K. A., Yadav, S. S., Sfakianos, J. P., & Badani, K. K. (2017). Heterogeneity in renal cell carcinoma. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, 35(8), 507–515. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2017.05.006
- 18. Kimko, H., & Pinheiro, J. (2014). Model-based clinical drug development in the past, present and future: A commentary. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 79(1), 108–116. https://doi.org/10.1111/bcp.12341
- 19. van Hasselt, J. G. C., & van der Graaf, P. H. (2015). Towards integrative systems pharmacology models in oncology drug development. *Drug Discovery Today: Technologies*, *15*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ddtec.2015.06.004
- Barbolosi, D., Ciccolini, J., Lacarelle, B., Barlési, F., & André, N. (2015). Computational oncology mathematical modelling of drug regimens for precision medicine. *Nature Reviews Clinical Oncology*, 13(4), 242–254. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrclinonc.2015.204
- 21. Rybinski, B., & Yun, K. (2016). Addressing intra-tumoral heterogeneity and therapy resistance. *Oncotarget*, 7(44), 72322–72342. https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.11875
- 22. Eikenberry, S., Thalhauser, C., & Kuang, Y. (2009). Tumor-immune interaction, surgical treatment, and cancer recurrence in a mathematical model of melanoma. *PLoS computational biology*, 5(4), e1000362.
- 23. Robertson-Tessi, M., El-Kareh, A., & Goriely, A. (2012). A mathematical model of tumor–immune interactions. *Journal of theoretical biology*, 294, 56-73.
- 24. Serre, R., Benzekry, S., Padovani, L., Meille, C., André, N., Ciccolini, J., ... & Barbolosi, D. (2016). Mathematical modeling of cancer immunotherapy and its synergy with radiotherapy. *Cancer research*, *76*(17), 4931-4940.
- 25. Benzekry, S., Lamont, C., Beheshti, A., Tracz, A., Ebos, J. M., Hlatky, L., & Hahnfeldt, P. (2014). Classical mathematical models for description and prediction of experimental tumor growth. *PLoS computational biology*, *10*(8), e1003800.
- 26. Eisen, M. (2013). *Mathematical models in cell biology and cancer chemotherapy* (Vol. 30). Springer Science & Business Media.
- 27. De Pillis, L. G., Radunskaya, A. E., & Wiseman, C. L. (2005). A validated mathematical model of cell-mediated immune response to tumor growth. *Cancer Research*, 65(17), 7950-7958.
- 28. Bajzer, Ž. Vuk-Pavlović, S., & Huzak, M. (1997). Mathematical modeling of tumor growth kinetics.
- 29. Tracqui, P., Cruywagen, G. C., Woodward, D. E., Bartoo, G. T., Murray, J. D., & Alvord Jr, E. C. (1995). A mathematical model of glioma growth: the effect of chemotherapy on spatio-temporal growth. *Cell proliferation*, 28(1), 17-31.
- 30. Swanson, K. R., Bridge, C., Murray, J. D., & Alvord Jr, E. C. (2003). Virtual and real brain tumors: using mathematical modeling to quantify glioma growth and invasion. *Journal of the Neurological Sciences*, 216(1), 1-10.
- Araujo, R. P., & McElwain, D. S. (2004). A history of the study of solid tumour growth: the contribution of mathematical modeling. *Bulletin of Mathematical Biology*, 66(5), 1039-1091.