RESEARCH ARTICLE

Online ISSN 1976-3786 Print ISSN 0253-6269

Physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modeling of piroxicam with regard to *CYP2C9* **genetic polymorphism**

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Received: 30 April 2022 / Accepted: 20 May 2022 / Published online: 31 May 2022 © The Pharmaceutical Society of Korea 2022

Abstract Piroxicam is a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug used to alleviate symptoms of osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis. *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism signifcantly infuences the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam. The objective of this study was to develop and validate the piroxicam physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model related to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism. PK-Sim® version 10.0 was used for the PBPK modeling. The PBPK model was evaluated by predicted and observed plasma concentration–time profles, fold errors of predicted to observed pharmacokinetic parameters, and a goodness-of-ft plot. The turnover number (k_{cat}) of CYP2C9 was adjusted to capture the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes. The population PBPK model overall accurately described and predicted the plasma concentration–time profles in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes. In our simulations, predicted AUCinf in *CYP2C9*1/*2*, *CYP2C9*1/*3*, and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotypes were 1.83-, 2.07-, and 6.43-fold higher than *CYP2C9*1/*1* genotype, respectively. All fold

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error values for AUC, C_{max} , and $t_{1/2}$ were included in the acceptance criterion with the ranges of 0.57–1.59, 0.63– 1.39, and 0.65–1.51, respectively. The range of fold error values for predicted versus observed plasma concentrations was 0.11–3.13. 93.9% of fold error values were within the two-fold range. Average fold error, absolute average fold error, and root mean square error were 0.93, 1.27, and 0.72, respectively. Our model accurately captured the pharmacokinetic alterations of piroxicam according to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism.

Keywords Physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model · Piroxicam · CYP2C9 · Genetic polymorphism · Pharmacokinetics

Introduction

Piroxicam is a non-steroidal anti-infammatory drug used to alleviate symptoms of osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis (Weintraub et al. [1977](#page-14-0); Dessain et al. [1979\)](#page-11-0). Piroxicam reduces the synthesis of prostaglandins via inhibition of both cyclooxygenase-1 (COX-1) and cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) (Berg et al. [1999](#page-11-1); Blanco et al. [1999\)](#page-11-2). The most common adverse events of piroxicam are nausea, constipation, fatu-lence, abdominal pain, and diarrhea (Pfizer [2016](#page-13-0)). The risk of serious cardiovascular adverse events, including myocardial infarction and stroke, and serious gastrointestinal adverse events such as bleeding, ulceration, and perforation are increased by piroxicam (Dean [2019](#page-11-3)). It should be used for the shortest possible duration at the lowest efective dose (Pfzer [2016\)](#page-13-0).

Piroxicam is primarily metabolized to 5'-hydroxypiroxicam by cytochrome P450 2C9 (CYP2C9) (Brogden et al. [1981\)](#page-11-4). CYP2C9 is involved in the metabolism of various clinically used drugs, including glipizide (Kim et al. [2022](#page-12-0)), losartan (Bae et al. [2011b,](#page-11-5) [2012](#page-11-6)), meloxicam (Bae et al. [2011a;](#page-11-7) Lee et al. [2014](#page-12-1)), and *S*-enantiomer of warfarin (Rettie et al. [1992](#page-13-1)). CYP2C9 is genetically polymorphic and approximately 85 allele variants for *CYP2C9* (*CYP2C9*1B* to *CYP2C9*85*) have been identifed to date [\(https://www.](https://www.pharmvar.org/gene/CYP2C9) [pharmvar.org/gene/CYP2C9\)](https://www.pharmvar.org/gene/CYP2C9). Among them, *CYP2C9*2* (rs1799853, c.430C>T, p.Cys144Arg) and **3* (rs1057910, $c.1075A > C$, p.Ile359Leu) alleles are the most common variants with overall frequency of 9.14% and 6.37% worldwide, respectively (Daly et al. [2017](#page-11-8)). These allele variants show impaired enzyme activity toward a number of substrates both in vitro and in vivo (Tang et al. [2001](#page-13-2); Kirchheiner et al. [2004;](#page-12-2) Choi et al. [2012](#page-11-9); Lee et al. [2015](#page-12-3); Wang et al. [2015;](#page-14-1) Kim et al. [2017\)](#page-12-4). Tracy et al. ([2002\)](#page-14-2) demonstrated that the *CYP2C9*3* allele variant reduces enzyme activity for 5'-hydroxylation of piroxicam in vitro. Perini et al. ([2005](#page-13-3)) reported significantly higher exposures and lower clearances for piroxicam in individuals carrying *CYP2C9*2* or *CYP2C9*3* alleles compared to homozygous *CYP2C9*1* allele in vivo. Especially, exposure and halflife $(t_{1/2})$ in the *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype were increased by 5.31- and 8.75-fold compared to the *CYP2C9*1/*1* genotype, respectively (Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006](#page-13-4)). In vivo studies presented notable diferences not only in the pharmacokinetics but also pharmacodynamics of piroxicam according to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism (Perini et al. [2005](#page-13-3); Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006](#page-13-4)). The drug label for piroxicam recommends the dose reduction in CYP2C9 poor metabolizers (CYP2C9PM) because they may have abnormally high plasma levels (Pfizer [2016](#page-13-0)). These studies suggest that responses of piroxicam could be varied according to the genetic polymorphism of *CYP2C9*.

Physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modeling is a mechanistic approach for the prediction of the pharmacokinetics of drugs (Zhuang and Lu [2016](#page-14-3); Kim et al. [2018](#page-12-5)). It is a useful tool to guide dose adjustment in various clinical scenarios such as pediatric populations (Yellepeddi et al. [2019](#page-14-4); Verscheijden et al. [2020](#page-14-5)), pregnancy (Abduljalil and Badhan [2020](#page-11-10); Coppola et al. [2021](#page-11-11)), organ impairments (Suri et al. [2015](#page-13-5); Heimbach et al. [2021](#page-12-6)), and the efects of genetic polymorphisms (Rüdesheim et al. [2020](#page-13-6); Cho et al. [2021a;](#page-11-12) Jung et al. [2021](#page-12-7); Xu et al. [2021](#page-14-6)). Previously, PBPK models for several NSAIDs including celecoxib (Kim et al. [2021\)](#page-12-8), furbiprofen (Loisios-Konstantinidis et al. [2020](#page-12-9)), and meloxicam (Cho et al. [2021b\)](#page-11-13) were established in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes. However, the piroxicam PBPK model related to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism has not been reported. In this study, we developed and validated the PBPK model for piroxicam in the populations carrying the most two common *CYP2C9* allele variants.

Methods

Software and data source

PBPK model of piroxicam was developed and validated using PK-Sim® version 10.0 (Bayer AG, Leverkusen, Germany). Previously published concentration–time profles were digitized with Engauge Digitizer® version 12.1 ([https://marku](https://markummitchell.github.io/engauge-digitizer/) [mmitchell.github.io/engauge-digitizer/](https://markummitchell.github.io/engauge-digitizer/)) according to the proposed digitization algorithm in Wojtyniak et al. ([2020](#page-14-7)). Pharmacokinetic parameters which were not obtained from the publications were estimated via non-compartmental analysis (NCA) with the BA Calc 2007 analysis program (MFDS, Cheongju, Republic of Korea).

Previous publications were extensively investigated to obtain information on the absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) process, physicochemical characteristics, and clinical pharmacokinetic data for piroxicam. In this study, we only gathered the clinical studies in which the administration of piroxicam was an oral route. Among the collected clinical pharmacokinetic data, only two articles contain pharmacogenomic data (Perini et al. [2005;](#page-13-3) Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006\)](#page-13-4). The data of the two articles were used for model development and the others were used for model validation. Information on the collected clinical data for the development and validation of the PBPK model is presented in Table [1.](#page-2-0)

Model building

The "middle-out" strategy was used for the PBPK model building. The physicochemical parameters were obtained from drug databases or previous studies. The specifc intestinal and organ permeabilities were calculated in the software (Thelen et al. [2011,](#page-14-8) [2012](#page-14-9); Hindmarsh et al. [2021\)](#page-12-10). Fraction metabolized by CYP2C9 (f_m, c_{YP2C9}) was estimated as 81.1% using the area under the plasma concentration–time curve from 0 to infinity (AUC_{inf}) values in *CYP2C9*1/*1* and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotypes (Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006\)](#page-13-4) based on previously reported methods (Ito et al. [2005;](#page-12-11) Huang et al. [2017\)](#page-12-12). In the estimation, it was assumed that *CYP2C9*1/*1* and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotypes are translated into CYP2C9 extensive metabolizer (CYP2C9EM) and CYP2C9PM phenotypes, respectively. The turnover number (k_{cat}) was optimized to capture the estimated $f_{m, \text{CYP2C9}}$ value and Michaelis–Menten constant (K_m) obtained from Tracy et al. [\(2002\)](#page-14-2) was used. The reference concentration of CYP2C9 was 3.84 μmol/L (Rodrigues [1999\)](#page-13-7). Relative expression values in each organ were obtained from the reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) data (Nishimura et al. [2003;](#page-13-8) Nishimura and Naito [2005](#page-13-9), [2006](#page-13-10)). Renal clearance value was determined to capture the profle of cumulative

Table 1 Clinical studies used for the development and validation of the piroxicam PBPK model

References	Administration	Number of Prandial Subjects		CYP2C9 Genotype	Proportion of Age (year) Female $(\%)$		Weight (kg)
Development							
Perini et al. (2005)	Single 20 mg	17	Fasted	$*1/*1$	31	N/A	N/A
Perini et al. (2005)	Single 20 mg	9	Fasted	$*1/*2$	31	N/A	N/A
Perini et al. (2005)	Single 20 mg	9	Fasted	$*1/*3$	31	N/A	N/A
Perini and Suarez-Kurtz (2006)	Single 20 mg	$\mathbf{1}$	$\rm N/A$	$*3/*3$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	$\rm N/A$
Validation - Adult populations							
Al-Shakargi (2012)	Single 20 mg	15	Fasted	N/A	N/A	45 ± 12	$77 + 5$
Benveniste et al. (1990)	Single 20 mg	6	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$20 - 31$	N/A
Boudinot and Ibrahim (1988)	Single 20 mg	N/A	$\rm N/A$	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	N/A
Calvo et al. (2016)	Single 20 mg	10	N/A	N/A	70	31.7 ± 9.9	N/A
Campbell et al. (1985)	Single 20 mg	12	Fed	N/A	N/A	$18 - 40$	N/A
Dixon et al. (1984)	Single 20 mg	3	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	N/A
Dixon et al. (1990)	Single 20 mg	18	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$18 - 36$	$55 - 93$
Ferry et al. (1990)	Single 20 mg	8	N/A	N/A	38	23 ± 1	N/A
Guentert et al. (1988)	Single 20 mg	8	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$26 - 36$	N/A
Hasan et al. (1997)	Single 20 mg	20	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$19 - 36$	55-90
Helmy and El-Bedaiwy (2014)	Single 20 mg	24	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$16 - 31$	$55 - 95$
Hobbs and Twomey (1979)	Single 40 mg	20	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	N/A
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	Single 30 mg	4	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	21.3 ± 0.5	61.4 ± 2.0
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	Single 60 mg	4	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	21.3 ± 0.5	61.4 ± 2.0
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	Single 30 mg	9	Fed	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	20.2 ± 0.4	59.0 ± 1.5
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	Single 60 mg	10	Fed	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	20.2 ± 0.4	59.0 ± 1.5
Jeon et al. (1998)	Single 20 mg	8	Fasted	$\rm N/A$	38	$20 - 35$	$45 - 90$
Macek and Vácha (1987)	Single 20 mg	11	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Palma-Aguirre et al. (2010)	Single 20 mg	28	Fasted	N/A	46	$19 - 35$	$47.5 - 81.9$
Piscitelli et al. (1998)	Single 20 mg	16	Fasted	N/A	19	$22 - 28$	$60 - 90$
Rahman et al. (2004)	Single 20 mg	12	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$21 - 48$	$62 - 88$
Rasetti-Escargueil and Grangé (2005)	Single 20 mg	16	N/A	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$21 - 30$	$64 - 84$
Richardson et al. (1985)	Single 20 mg	6	Fasted	N/A	100	25.5 ± 2.0	62.8 ± 5.4
Richardson et al. (1985)	Single 20 mg	6	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	23.3 ± 1.0	74.6 ± 1.3
Riedel and Laufen (1983)	Single 20 mg	N/A	$\rm N/A$	N/A	$\rm N/A$	N/A	N/A
Rudy et al. (1994)	Single 20 mg	10	Fasted	N/A	$80\,$	27 ± 4	69.3 ± 16
Said and Foda (1989)	Single 20 mg	12	Fasted	N/A	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$21 - 36$	N/A
Shahbaz et al. (2018)	Single 20 mg	30	N/A	N/A	0	$19 - 24$	N/A
Song et al. (2009)	Single 20 mg	$28\,$	Fasted	N/A	21	22.1 ± 3.7	63.8 ± 6.5
Wanwimolruk et al. (1991)	Single 30 mg	$18\,$	$\rm N/A$	$\rm N/A$		$18 - 36$	N/A
Blocka et al. (1988)	Multiple 20 mg/day	$23\,$	$\operatorname*{Fed}% \nolimits_{\operatorname*{Mod}}$	$\rm N/A$	$\boldsymbol{0}$		$\rm N/A$
					61 $71\,$	$27 - 79$	
Darragh et al. (1985)	Multiple 20 mg/day	21	Fed	N/A		$30 - 59$	N/A
Richardson et al. (1987)	Multiple 20 mg/day	6	Fasted	N/A	50	$23 - 33$	N/A
Rogers et al. (1981)	Multiple 20 mg/day	8	Fed	$\rm N/A$	50	$26 - 38$	$46.5 - 80$
Rudy et al. (1994)	Multiple 20 mg/day	9	Fasted	$\rm N/A$	$80\,$	27 ± 4	69.3 ± 16
Tilstone et al. (1981)	Multiple 20 mg/day	8	Fed	$\rm N/A$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$24 - 36$	$60 - 80$
Tilstone et al. (1981)	Multiple 20 mg/day	8	Fasted	$\rm N/A$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$24 - 36$	$60 - 80$
Validation - Pediatric populations							
Dix et al. (2004)	Single 0.4 mg/kg	12	Fasted	N/A	N/A	$3 - 16$	N/A
Dix et al. (2004)	Single 1.0 mg/kg	$10\,$	Fasted	N/A	N/A	$3 - 16$	$\rm N/A$
Mäkelä et al. (1991)	Multiple 0.4 mg/kg/day	10	N/A	N/A	80	$7 - 16$	$20 - 63$
Validation - Geriatric populations							
Caldwell (1994)	Single 20 mg	14	Fasted	$\rm N/A$	73	63 ± 4	N/A

Demographic data are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation or range (min–max) *N/A* not available

excretion as unchanged form in urine within the ranges presented in Ishizaki et al. ([1979\)](#page-12-20). Dissolution times (80% dissolved) were adjusted based on dissolution profles in biorelevant media (Li et al. 2019). Partition coefficients and cellular permeabilities were estimated as Schmitt and PK-Sim[®] standard methods, respectively (Schmitt [2008](#page-13-24); Hindmarsh et al. 2021). k_{cat} values were optimized in different *CYP2C9* genotypes based on the previous pharmacogenetic studies (Perini et al. [2005](#page-13-3); Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006\)](#page-13-4). Parameter optimization was performed as the Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm in the PK-Sim® software. The PBPK model was developed for the diferent populations and dose regimens in the development dataset and verifed using the validation dataset. Clinical studies without information on *CYP2C9* genotype were assumed that all subjects of the studies were carrying homozygous *CYP2C9*1* allele.

Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis was performed in the PK-Sim® software. In the analysis, a total of 861 parameters were assessed for AUC_{inf} and maximum plasma concentration (C_{max}) . The sensitivity was calculated by the following Eq. [1.](#page-3-0)

$$
S = \frac{\Delta PK}{PK} \div \frac{\Delta p}{p}
$$
 (1)

where *S* is the sensitivity, *PK* is the initial values of the pharmacokinetic parameter, $\Delta P K$ is the change of the pharmacokinetic parameters from initial values, *p* is the initial values of the assessed input parameter, and Δp is the change of assessed input parameters from initial values, respectively. A sensitivity of $+1.0$ indicates that $+10\%$ change

of an assessed input parameter causes $+10\%$ change of the predicted pharmacokinetic parameters.

Model evaluation

The PBPK model was evaluated using visual and numerical methods. Observed plasma concentration–time profles were graphically compared with the predicted profles by plotting the geometric mean and 5th to 95th percentiles for a virtual population ($n=100$). Demographic ranges for virtual populations were adjusted to be similar to those of the observed population. If the age and proportion of female (%) range had not been obtained from the clinical studies, it was assumed as 19 to 65 years and 50%, respectively. Others were generated via the implemented algorithm in the PK-Sim® software. The standard deviation for the reference concentration of CYP2C9 was assigned as 1.15 μmol/L to refect moderate variability (30% of the mean). The PBPK model was numerically evaluated by comparing observed and predicted AUC, C_{max} , and $t_{1/2}$ values. A two-fold error range was used as the acceptance criterion for the model. In other words, the PBPK model could be justifed if the fold error (predicted value divided into observed value) is within the 0.5–2 range. Geometric mean values for virtual populations were used as predicted values and reported values in clinical studies or estimated values based on the NCA were used as observed values. Lastly, the overall performance of the PBPK model was evaluated via a goodness-of-ft plot for the predicted versus observed plasma concentrations. Average fold error (AFE), absolute average fold error (AAFE), and root mean square error (RMSE) were used to evaluate the prediction accuracy and precision, respectively. AFE, AAFE, and RMSE were calculated according to Eqs. $(2-4)$ $(2-4)$.

$$
AFE = 10^{\frac{1}{N} \sum \log \left(\frac{\text{Predicted}}{\text{Observed}} \right)} \tag{2}
$$

Table 2 Summary of input parameters used in the piroxicam PBPK model

Log P logarithm of octanol/water partition coefficient, pK_a negative logarithm of acid dissociation constant, f_u fraction unbound in plasma, K_m Michaelis–Menten constant, k_{cat} turnover number

$$
AAFE = 10^{\frac{1}{N} \sum \left| \log \left(\frac{\text{Predicted}}{\text{Observed}} \right) \right|} \tag{3}
$$

$$
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (Predicted - Observed)^2}{N}}
$$
 (4)

Results

A total 54 of clinical data were collected. Clinical trial data of various doses, administration period, and age of subjects were included. Most of the clinical studies recruited healthy subjects, but several clinical studies targeted patients with osteoarthritis or rheumatoid arthritis. Data of two pharmacogenomic studies (Perini et al. [2005](#page-13-3); Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006\)](#page-13-4) were used for development of PBPK model.

The summary of input parameters for the PBPK model is presented in Table [2.](#page-4-1) The fraction unbound (f_u) value was adjusted to be 0.01% lower value than the minimum value of Blocka et al. [\(1988\)](#page-11-19) to capture the plasma-concentration time profles more accurately. Simulation for the individual PBPK model after the administration of 20 mg single oral dose properly captured not only the plasma concentration–time profles but also the metabolized and excreted

Fig. 1 Predicted and observed plasma concentration–time profles of piroxicam after a single oral dose of piroxicam 20 mg. Solid, dashed, and dotted lines indicate predicted plasma concentration, fraction excreted to urine, and fraction metabolized by CYP2C9, respectively. The open circles and error bars indicated observed mean and standard deviation (or standard error), respectively. Observed plasma concentration and fraction excreted to urine data were obtained from Perini et al. [\(2005](#page-13-3)) and Ishizaki et al. ([1979\)](#page-12-20), respectively. Fraction metabolized by CYP2C9 data was estimated based on Perini and Suarez-Kurtz ([2006\)](#page-13-4)

Fig. 2 Predicted and observed plasma concentration–time profles of piroxicam after a single oral dose of piroxicam 20 mg in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes. Solid and dashed lines indicate geometric mean and 5th to 95th percentiles, respectively. Open circles and error bars indicate observed mean and standard deviation (or standard error), respectively. Observed plasma concentration data except *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype was obtained from Perini et al. ([2005\)](#page-13-3) and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype was obtained from Perini and Suarez-Kurtz ([2006\)](#page-13-4). Plasma concentration–time profles are expressed using linear and semi-logarithmic plots

fractions (Fig. [1\)](#page-4-2). The estimated volume of distribution (V_d) was 0.15 L/kg which is almost consistent with the previously reported value (0.14 L/kg) (Pfizer [2016](#page-13-0)).

Predicted plasma concentration–time profles in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes were visually similar to the observed profiles (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0). Predicted AUC_{inf} in *CYP2C9*1/*2*, *CYP2C9*1/*3*, and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotypes were 1.83-, 2.07-, and 6.43-fold higher than *CYP2C9*1/*1* genotype, respectively, and significant differences for predicted Cmax in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes were not identifed (1.89–1.96 μ g/mL) (Table [3](#page-6-0)) (Fig. [3\)](#page-8-0). In addition, PBPK model overall accurately described and predicted the plasma concentration–time profles in pediatric, adult, and geriatric populations who received a single or multiple-dose regi-mens (Fig. [4](#page-10-0)). All fold error values for AUC, C_{max} , and $t_{1/2}$

were included in the acceptance criterion with the ranges of 0.57–1.59, 0.63–1.39, and 0.65–1.51, respectively (Table [3](#page-6-0)).

Sensitivity analysis shown in Fig. [3](#page-8-0) presented that dose had an equal impact on AUC_{inf} and C_{max} (1.00). Lipophilicity which had the highest impact in C_{max} (−1.82) was identified as having a relatively low impact in $AUC_{\text{inf}} (0.03)$. The parameters related to the enzymatic pathway of CYP2C9, including k_{cat} , K_m , reference concentration, and ontogeny factor, had an impact on the AUC_{inf} and C_{max} with higher influences for AUC_{inf} than C_{max} . Several organ volumes were identifed as sensitive physiological characteristics.

Among the collected articles, except for the two papers used for model establishment, all other papers did not include pharmacogenomic data, so model validation for each genotype using PK data not used for model establishment could not be performed. Therefore, model validation was

Table 3 Results for the development and validation of the piroxicam PBPK model

References	AUC (µg*hr/mL)			$C_{max} (\mu g/mL)$			$t_{I\slash 2}$ (hr)		
	Obs	Pred	Fold error#	Obs	Pred	Fold error#	Obs	Pred	Fold error#
Development									
Perini et al. (2005)	154	135.1	0.88	2.5	1.89	0.76	48	60.5	1.26
Perini et al. (2005)	256	246.8	0.96	$2.2\,$	1.92	0.87	70.9	96.1	1.36
Perini et al. (2005)	259	279.8	1.08	2.4	1.93	0.80	80	107.2	1.34
Perini and Suarez-Kurtz (2006)	817	868.1	1.06	2.5	1.96	0.78	420	315.6	0.75
Validation - Adult populations									
Al-Shakargi (2012)	$91.0^{\$}$	93.6	1.03	2.66	2.00	0.75	44.9	52.5	1.17
Benveniste et al. (1990)	140.7	119.6	0.85	2.13	2.02	0.95	50.3	47.9	0.95
Boudinot and Ibrahim (1988)	144.0	130.7	0.91	2.57	1.98	0.77	77.1	63.4	0.82
Calvo et al. (2016)	78.7	119.6	1.52	2.28	1.96	0.86	50.7	41.7	0.82
Campbell et al. (1985)	$\rm N/A^a$	139.6	$\rm N/A$	2.31	2.12	0.92	57.1	52.1	0.91
Dixon et al. (1984)	110.4	127.5	1.15	1.68	1.98	1.18	46.7	44.7	0.96
Dixon et al. (1990)	133.4	126.7	0.95	$2.1\,$	1.97	0.94	53.6	56.7	1.06
Ferry et al. (1990)	138.9	133.7	0.96	1.60	2.22	1.39	53.1	48.0	0.90
Guentert et al. (1988)	75.8	120.9	1.59	$2.0\,$	1.91	0.96	46.8	54.4	1.16
Hasan et al. (1997)	124.0	143.2	1.15	2.1	2.25	1.09	45.0	42.7	0.95
Helmy and El-Bedaiwy (2014)	135.8	162.2	1.19	$2.3\,$	2.31	1.00	40.5	53.5	1.32
Hobbs and Twomey (1979)	273.9	228.3	0.83	4.3	3.48	0.81	56.8	45.3	$0.80\,$
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	214.8	211.9	0.99	4.43	3.39	0.77	36.5	48.0	1.32
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	388.4	424.4	1.09	7.23	6.78	0.94	38.5	48.0	1.25
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	189.9	193.3	1.02	2.98	3.36	1.13	32.9	43.9	1.33
Ishizaki et al. (1979)	312.8	386.9	1.24	6.39	6.71	1.05	32.9	43.9	1.33
Jeon et al. (1998)	$57.3^{\$}$	43.9	0.77	$3.5\,$	2.28	0.65	28.9	35.2	1.22
Macek and Vácha (1987)	128.2	152.6	1.19	2.19	2.11	0.96	39.5	49.0	1.24
Palma-Aguirre et al. (2010)	169.8	132.0	0.78	2.63	2.09	0.79	49.4	49.4	1.00
Piscitelli et al. (1998)	181.5	131.5	0.72	$2.0\,$	1.91	0.96	76.4	51.5	0.67
Rahman et al. (2004)	206.5	126.6	0.61	2.9	2.14	0.74	59.0	49.9	0.85
Rasetti-Escargueil and Grangé (2005)	135.0	113.9	0.84	1.90	1.92	1.01	53.1	51.3	0.97
Richardson et al. (1985)	147.1	133.8	0.91	2.36	2.19	0.93	44.9	54.0	1.20
Richardson et al. (1985)	130.0	132.4	1.02	1.74	1.92	1.10	51.9	57.6	1.11
Riedel and Laufen (1983)	151.2	114.4	0.76	2.05	2.04	1.00	33.9	39.5	1.16
Rudy et al. (1994)	151.2	128.6	0.85	1.9	2.07	1.09	66.7	43.9	0.66
Said and Foda (1989)	64.5	45.5	0.71	3.34	2.40	0.72	37.4	33.0	0.88
Shahbaz et al. (2018)	104.1	158.3	1.52	1.97	2.35	1.20	54.8	47.0	0.86
Song et al. (2009)	123.1	141.2	1.15	2.20	2.20	1.00	48.6	50.5	1.04
Wanwimolruk et al. (1991)	290.0	166.1	0.57	$3.8\,$	2.97	0.78	57.3	45.3	0.79
Blocka et al. (1988)	N/A^a	147.7	N/A	N/A^a	7.19	$\rm N/A$	53	46.1	$0.87\,$
Darragh et al. (1985)	196	191.3	0.98	9.6	9.22	0.96	55.2	46.9	$0.85\,$
Richardson et al. (1987)	165.0	150.7	0.91	7.93	7.40	0.93	54.9	59.9	1.09
Rogers et al. (1981)	119.3	122.1	1.02	7.49	6.95	0.93	52.9	44.4	0.84
Rudy et al. (1994)	188.9	158.8	0.84	9.3	7.84	0.84	50.9	51.7	1.01
Tilstone et al. (1981)	178.9	133.9	0.75	7.81	6.79	0.87	46.2	36.4	0.79
Tilstone et al. (1981)	173.7	144.4	0.83	7.82	7.15	0.91	46.2	39.0	0.84
Validation - Pediatric populations									
Dix et al. (2004)	$25.9^{\$}$	21.5	0.83	3.06	2.44	$0.80\,$	N/A^b	37.7	$\rm N/A$
Dix et al. (2004)	$56.8^{\$}$	53.6	0.94	7.52	6.11	0.81	N/A^b	37.9	N/A
Mäkelä et al. (1991)	121.2	178.4	1.47	6.5	8.95	1.38	32.6		49.2 1.51

Table 3 (continued)

AUC are reported as AUC_{inf} or $AUC_{0-t, ss}$ in single or multiple dose administration, respectively

Fold error indicates predicted value divided by observed value (Pred/Obs)

 Λ Neit single dose administration, AUC are reported as AUC_{0-t}

 $a_{t_{1/2}}$ could not be estimated by non-compartmental analysis

b Plasma concentration–time profles not available in the publication

 $AUC_{0,t}$ area under the plasma concentration–time curve from 0 to time *t*, AUC_{inf} area under the plasma concentration–time curve from 0 to infinity, AUC_{0-t}, since under the plasma concentration–time curve over the dosing interval at steady state, C_{max} maximum plasma concentration, $t_{1/2}$ half-life, *Obs* observed value, *Pred* predicted value, *N/A* not available

performed using PK data without pharmacogenomic information. The goodness-of-ft plot for a total 674 of predicted versus observed plasma concentration data is illustrated in Fig. [5](#page-10-1). The range of fold error values for plasma concentrations was 0.11–3.13. 93.9% of fold error values were within the two-fold range. AFE, AAFE, and RMSE were 0.93, 1.27, and 0.72, respectively.

Discussion

Genetic polymorphisms of drug metabolizing enzymes and transporters cause the inter-individual variations in drug response to varying degrees (Byeon et al. [2019;](#page-11-22) Bae et al. [2020](#page-11-23); Jung et al. [2020a](#page-12-25); Shin et al. [2020;](#page-13-25) Kim et al. [2022](#page-12-0)). Also, drug interactions signifcantly infuence the pharmacokinetics of clinically used drugs (Byeon et al. [2018](#page-11-24); Lee et al. [2019](#page-12-26); Jung et al. [2020b](#page-12-27)). According to the advance in computational technology, a personalized dose administration strategy considering physiological characteristics of individuals or populations, genetic polymorphisms of drug metabolizing enzymes or transporters, and drug interactions has been proposed via the PBPK modeling approach (Li et al. [2020;](#page-12-28) Rüdesheim et al. [2020](#page-13-6); Cho et al. [2021a](#page-11-12), [2021b](#page-11-13); Jung et al. [2021;](#page-12-7) Wojtyniak et al. [2021](#page-14-13); Xu et al. [2021](#page-14-6)).

CYP2C9 is primarily responsible for the metabolism of a number of NSAIDs including ibuprofen, lornoxicam, meloxicam, furbiprofen, and celecoxib and signifcant efects of *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism on the pharmacokinetics or pharmacodynamics of these drugs have been reported (Bae et al. [2011a;](#page-11-7) Choi et al. [2011](#page-11-25); Lee et al. [2014,](#page-12-1) [2015;](#page-12-3) Ochoa et al. [2015](#page-13-26); Kim et al. [2017\)](#page-12-4). Like these NSAIDs, piroxicam is mainly metabolized by CYP2C9 and the infuences of *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism on the piroxicam actions are known (Perini et al. [2005;](#page-13-3) Perini and Suarez-Kurtz [2006;](#page-13-4) Calvo et al. [2017\)](#page-11-26). *CYP2C9* genotype is potentially involved in the adverse events given the relationship between exposure and toxicity of the NSAIDs (Smith et al. [2022](#page-13-27)). Piroxicam has a longer $t_{1/2}$ than other NSAIDs metabolized by CYP2C9 such as celecoxib, furbiprofen, and meloxicam (Theken et al. [2020](#page-13-28)). This amplifes the potential risks in the patients with reduced CYP2C9 metabolism and hampers dose titration due to lack of data (Theken et al. [2020](#page-13-28)). Drug label and Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium (CPIC) guidelines for piroxicam recommend the consideration of dose reduction or the alteration to other NSAIDs which are not metabolized by CYP2C9 or metabolized by CYP2C9 with short half-life in CYP2C9PM group, respectively (Pfzer [2016;](#page-13-0) Theken et al. [2020\)](#page-13-28).

Fig. 3 Results of sensitivity analysis toward AUC_{inf} **A** and C_{max} **B**. *x-axis* and *y-axis* indicate sensitivity and lists of sensitive parameters, respectively

To overcome the potential risk in patients carrying *CYP2C9* allele variants and fulfll the lack of data related to piroxicam and *CYP2C9* genotype to some extent, we developed and validated the frst PBPK model for piroxicam according to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism. In the model development, physicochemical and ADME properties for piroxicam were incorporated. In vitro enzyme kinetic data (Tracy et al. [2002](#page-14-2)) signifcantly under-estimated in vivo clearance of piroxicam in *CYP2C9*1/*1* genotype. Hence, we estimated the fraction metabolized by CYP2C9 based on the previously reported pharmacogenetic study (Perini and Suarez‐Kurtz 2006). CPIC assigned *CYP2C9*1/*1* genotype as CYP2C9EM phenotype and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype as CYP2C9PM phenotype, respectively (Theken et al. [2020](#page-13-28)). Accordingly, the fraction was calculated based on the ratio of AUCinf in *CYP2C9*1/*1* and *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotypes

(Ito et al. [2005](#page-12-11); Perini and Suarez‐Kurtz 2006; Huang et al. [2017](#page-12-12)). Minor enzymatic pathways such as dealkylation and glucuronidation of piroxicam were identifed, but it is not well reported and no candidate genes have been published (Brogden et al. [1981](#page-11-4); Milligan et al. [1993\)](#page-13-29). Thus, only the 5'-hydroxylation of piroxicam, the principal metabolic pathway mediated by CYP2C9, was applied in our model.

Our model successfully captured the pharmacokinetic alterations according to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism. Especially, the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in the *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype which had been traced for an extremely long period (120 days), were properly captured in this model. Furthermore, the range of fold error values for the pharmacokinetic parameters (AUC 0.57–1.59, C_{max}) 0.63–1.39, and $t_{1/2}$ 0.65–1.51) was within the acceptance criterion (Table [3\)](#page-6-0) and the goodness-of-ft plot showed that the predicted data were overall in agreement with the observed data (AFE 0.93, AAFE 1.27, and RMSE 0.72). It suggests the present model was properly established for single and multiple doses of 0.4 or 1.0 mg/kg in children and 20–60 mg in adults, including the elderly, in both fasting and eating conditions. Although the sample size used for the modeling of the *CYP2C9*3/*3* genotype was very small $(n=1)$, the present model could provide an insight for grasping the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam, simultaneous considering genetic and non-genetic factors.

Several modeling studies for the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in humans have been reported (Wang et al. [2000](#page-14-14); Tvrdonova et al. [2009;](#page-14-15) Li et al. [2019](#page-12-24)). Wang et al. [\(2000\)](#page-14-14) reported population pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic model for piroxicam and piroxicam-*β*-cyclodextrin to investigate the pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic relationship of piroxicam. In their model, the physiological and anatomical characteristics of human were not incorporated because it was conducted as a "top-down" approach based on clinical data. Tvrdonova et al. [\(2009](#page-14-15)) showed a physiologically motivated time-delay model. This study accurately captured the multiple peak phenomenon of piroxicam, but in vitro data of piroxicam was not considered. Li et al. ([2019\)](#page-12-24) developed the PBPK model to predict the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in beagle dogs and performed interspecies extrapolation to humans. Albeit a successful model, the application of the PBPK model to pediatric or geriatric populations could not be certain since it was only verifed with clinical data on an adult population. In the present study, we developed the PBPK model for piroxicam by incorporating in vitro and in vivo data, robustly validated using a number of clinical studies, and demonstrated the applicability of the PBPK model for almost the entire age populations.

In this study, the PBPK model for only the two most common *CYP2C9* allele variants (**2* and **3*) was developed because of the lack of available pharmacogenetic studies. Two pharmacogenetic studies used for the PBPK

Fig. 4 Representative predicted and observed plasma concentra-◂ tion–time profles of piroxicam for diferent populations and dose regimens. Solid and dashed lines indicate geometric mean and 5th to 95th percentiles, respectively. Open circles and error bars indicate observed mean and standard deviation (or standard error), respectively. Observed data in Mäkelä et al. ([1991\)](#page-13-23) are depicted as individual values

modeling were performed in the Brazilian population (Perini et al. [2005;](#page-13-3) Perini and Suarez‐Kurtz 2006). *CYP2C9*13* $(rs72558187, c.269 T>C, p. Leu90Pro)$ allele variant, found only in East Asians with a frequency of 0.5% (Bae et al. [2011b\)](#page-11-5), signifcantly infuences the plasma exposures for various CYP2C9 substrates (Bae et al. [2011a,](#page-11-7) [2012;](#page-11-6) Choi et al. [2011](#page-11-25), [2012\)](#page-11-9). Previous studies reported the PBPK models related to *CYP2C9*13* allele variants for celecoxib (Kim et al. [2021\)](#page-12-8), meloxicam (Cho et al. [2021b](#page-11-13)), and candesartan (Jung et al. [2021](#page-12-7)) based on the clinical trials performed in the healthy Korean population. Further pharmacogenetic and modeling studies would be needed for the proper prescription of piroxicam in the East Asian population carrying the *CYP2C9*13* allele.

There were several limitations in the present study. First, physiological diferences between healthy volunteers and subjects with arthritis were not considered. Several studies were performed on the subjects with osteoarthritis or rheumatoid arthritis (Darragh et al. [1985;](#page-11-20) Blocka et al. [1988](#page-11-19); Mäkelä et al. [1991;](#page-13-23) Caldwell [1994\)](#page-11-21), but we developed and

validated the PBPK model based on the parameters used in healthy volunteers without any modifcations for these diseases. Second, in most clinical studies, all subjects were assumed to be carrying homozygous *CYP2C9*1* allele due to the low frequencies of *CYP2C9*2* or **3* allele variants (Daly et al. [2017\)](#page-11-8). Nevertheless, a few of the subjects in the clinical data could be carrying allele variants and it could be one of the causes for the discrepancies between the predicted and observed data. Third, digitized plasma concentration–time profles could be discrepant with the raw data. Wojtyniak et al. [\(2020\)](#page-14-7) reported the greatest pitfall for the data digitizing comes from the pre-existing errors and they recommended making published data available as raw values. However, raw data for the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam were not available and the resolution of the piroxicam profles was relatively low since the most of clinical studies used in this study were reported a long time ago. It would be better to interpret the results of the modeling under the consideration of these potential limitations.

In conclusion, the PBPK model for piroxicam related to *CYP2C9* genetic polymorphism was properly established and described the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in diferent *CYP2C9* genotypes. It could be used as a cornerstone to predict the pharmacokinetics of piroxicam in a number of clinical scenarios. We expect the present model could contribute to personalized pharmacotherapy for patients treated with piroxicam.

Fig. 5 Goodness-of-ft plot of predicted versus observed plasma concentrations. Solid and dashed lines indicate line of unity and two-fold range, respectively

Acknowledgements This research was supported by the Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Science, ICT, and Future Planning (NRF-2019R1A2C1004582).

Declarations

Confict of interest The authors declare that they have no confict of interest.

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