

REVIEW

Impact of OATP transporters on pharmacokinetics

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Membrane transporters are now recognized as important determinants of the transmembrane passage of drugs. Organic anion transporting polypeptides (OATP) form a family of influx transporters expressed in various tissues important for pharmacokinetics. Of the 11 human OATP transporters, OATP1B1, OATP1B3 and OATP2B1 are expressed on the sinusoidal membrane of hepatocytes and can facilitate the liver uptake of their substrate drugs. OATP1A2 is expressed on the luminal membrane of small intestinal enterocytes and at the blood-brain barrier, potentially mediating drug transport at these sites. Several clinically used drugs have been identified as substrates of OATP transporters (e.g. many statins are substrates of OATP1B1). Some drugs may inhibit OATP transporters (e.g. cyclosporine) causing pharmacokinetic drug–drug interactions. Moreover, genetic variability in genes encoding OATP transporters can result in marked inter-individual differences in pharmacokinetics. For example, a single nucleotide polymorphism (c.521T > C, p.Val174Ala) in the *SLCO1B1* gene encoding OATP1B1 decreases the ability of OATP1B1 to transport active simvastatin acid from portal circulation into the liver, resulting in markedly increased plasma concentrations of simvastatin acid and an enhanced risk of simvastatin-induced myopathy. *SLCO1B1* polymorphism also affects the pharmacokinetics of many other, but not all (fluvastatin), statins and that of the antidiabetic drug repaglinide, the antihistamine fexofenadine and the endothelin A receptor antagonist atrasentan. This review compiles the current knowledge about the expression and function of human OATP transporters, their substrate and inhibitor specificities, as well as pharmacogenetics. *British Journal of Pharmacology* (2009) **158**, 693–705; doi:10.1111/j.1476-5381.2009.00430.x; published online 28 September 2009

Keywords: organic anion transporting polypeptide; OATP; OATP1B1; *SLCO1B1*; repaglinide; statin; simvastatin; transporter; pharmacogenetics

Abbreviations: AUC, area under the plasma concentration-time curve; BCRP, breast cancer resistance protein; BSEP, bile salt export pump; C_{max} , peak plasma concentration; CYP, cytochrome P450; HMG-CoA, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A; hPGT, human prostaglandin transporter; LST, liver-specific transporter; MDR1, multidrug resistance protein 1; MRP, multidrug resistance-associated protein; NTCP, sodium taurocholate co-transporting polypeptide; OAT, organic anion transporter; OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide; OCT, organic cation transporter; *SLC*, solute carrier family; *SLCO*, solute carrier organic anion transporter family; SN-38, active metabolite of irinotecan; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism

Role of transporters in pharmacokinetics

After an orally administered drug is dissolved, it crosses the intestinal wall, reaches the liver via portal blood flow and subsequently enters the systemic circulation, which distributes the drug to the various tissues of the body (Tozer and Rowland, 2006). The drug is eliminated from the body by metabolism, which occurs mainly in the liver, and by excretion into bile or into urine. During these pharmacokinetic processes, a drug molecule passes through several biological membranes. The extent of drug movement through these membranes is generally affected by the physicochemical properties of a drug, namely size, lipophilicity and charge (or

degree of ionization). In addition, membrane transporters have a significant role in facilitating or preventing drug movement (Ho and Kim, 2005).

Transporters may be classified as influx (uptake into cell) and efflux (out of cell) transporters, which are typically located either at the basolateral or apical membrane in polarized cells. Interplay of influx and efflux transporters together with phase I and II metabolism may be required for the sequential traverse of the basolateral and apical membranes (Giacomini and Sugiyama, 2006). For example, in the liver, an uptake transporter such as organic anion transporting polypeptide 1B1 (OATP1B1) may extract its drug substrates from the portal blood into hepatocytes. After metabolism, other drug transporters, such as multidrug resistance protein 1 (MDR1, also known as P-glycoprotein) may be important in efflux of the metabolite from the hepatocyte (Ho and Kim, 2005) (Figure 1). Drug transporters can therefore be regarded as completing the phase I and II enzyme-based detoxification

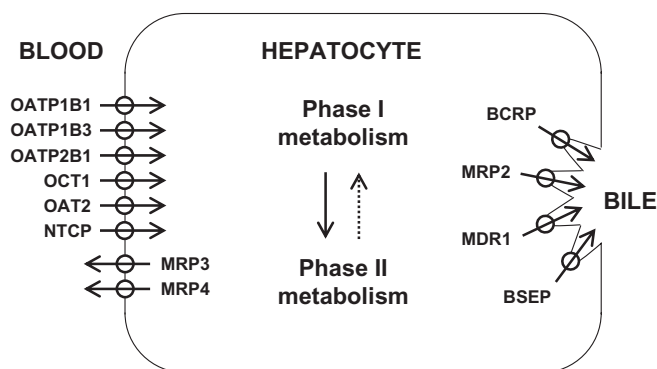


Figure 1 Role of transporters affecting hepatic uptake and excretion of drugs and the interplay of hepatic transporters with phase I and phase II metabolism in the hepatic elimination of drugs. BCRP, breast cancer resistance protein; BSEP, bile salt export pump; MDR, multidrug resistance protein; MRP, multidrug resistance-associated protein; NTCP, sodium taurocholate co-transporting polypeptide; OAT, organic anion transporter; OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide; OCT, organic cation transporter.

system; drug uptake delivers the drug to the detoxification system to facilitate metabolism, whereas drug efflux decreases the load on detoxification enzymes (Nies *et al.*, 2008).

Organic anion transporting polypeptides (OATPs)

OATPs are membrane influx transporters that regulate cellular uptake of a number of endogenous compounds and clinically important drugs (Niemi, 2007). The first discovered human member of the OATP/Oatp family was OATP1A2, which was cloned as an ortholog of rat Oatp1a1 (Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 1995). OATPs/Oatps within the same family share $\geq 40\%$ amino acid sequence identity and are designated by Arabic numbering (e.g. OATP1) (Hagenbuch and Meier, 2004). Individual subfamilies include OATPs/Oatps with amino acid sequence identities $\geq 60\%$ and are designated by letters (e.g. OATP1B). Individual gene products (proteins) within the same subfamily are designated by additional Arabic numbering (e.g. OATP1B1).

The human OATP family consists of 11 members: OATP1A2, 1B1, 1B3, 1C1, 2A1, 2B1, 3A1, 4A1, 4C1, 5A1 and 6A1 (Hagenbuch and Meier, 2003; Mikkaichi *et al.*, 2004a; König *et al.*, 2006) (Table 1). Of these, the roles of OATP1B1, 1A2, 1B3 and 2B1 in drug pharmacokinetics are best characterized. OATP1A2 may facilitate the entry of its substrates through the duodenal wall into circulation (Glaeser *et al.*, 2007). OATP1B1, 1B3 and 2B1 are mainly located at the sinusoidal membranes of human hepatocytes and mediate the influx of their substrates from blood into the hepatocytes, and may thus represent an important step preceding elimination of drugs by metabolism or biliary excretion (Niemi, 2007).

According to computer-based hydrophathy analysis, all OATPs share a very similar transmembrane domain organization, with 12 predicted transmembrane domains and a large fifth extracellular loop (Hagenbuch and Meier, 2003) (Figure 2; OATP1B1). Based on a comparative analysis of OATPs from multiple species, the transport of all OATPs/Oatps has been suggested to occur through a central, posi-

Table 1 Human OATP transporters, their gene names, chromosomal localization and tissue distribution. Modified from Niemi, 2007

OATP	Gene name	Gene locus	Tissue distribution
OATP1A2	<i>SLCO1A2</i>	12p12	Brain, kidney, liver, intestine
OATP1B1	<i>SLCO1B1</i>	12p12	Liver
OATP1B3	<i>SLCO1B3</i>	12p12	Liver
OATP1C1	<i>SLCO1C1</i>	12p12	Brain, testis, ciliary body
OATP2A1	<i>SLCO2A1</i>	3q21	Ubiquitous
OATP2B1	<i>SLCO2B1</i>	11q13	Liver, placenta, intestine, heart, skin
OATP3A1	<i>SLCO3A1</i>	15q26	Ubiquitous
OATP4A1	<i>SLCO4A1</i>	20q13.1	Ubiquitous
OATP4C1	<i>SLCO4C1</i>	5q21	Kidney
OATP5A1	<i>SLCO5A1</i>	8q13.1	Unknown
OATP6A1	<i>SLCO6A1</i>	5q21	Testis

OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide.

tively charged pore in a so-called rocker-switch type of mechanism (Meier-Abt *et al.*, 2005). However, the exact transport mechanism of OATPs/Oatps has not been established (Mahagita *et al.*, 2007).

OATPs are encoded by genes of the *SLCO* family (previously *SLC21*) (Hagenbuch and Meier, 2004). The genes encoding human OATP1 family members are located in the short arm of chromosome 12, whereas genes encoding other OATPs are located in chromosomes 3, 5, 8, 11, 15 and 20. Numerous sequence variations, such as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), have been identified in *SLCO* genes (Tirona *et al.*, 2001; Niemi *et al.*, 2004; Lee *et al.*, 2005; Niemi, 2007). These polymorphisms may lead to significant consequences on drug pharmacokinetics, for example by decreasing uptake activity of the corresponding OATP (König *et al.*, 2006; Seithel *et al.*, 2008).

Many studies investigating drug–drug interactions have focused on inhibition or induction of drug-metabolizing enzymes, most notably those of the cytochrome P450 (CYP) families. However, it has become evident that significant drug–drug interactions may result from inhibition and probably also from induction of transporter function (Ho and Kim, 2005). The estimation of the role of a single transporter in drug–drug interaction may be challenging, since, for example, many OATP1B1 substrates are also substrates of other drug transporters and often subject to metabolism by CYP enzymes (Smith *et al.*, 2005a; Kivistö and Niemi, 2007).

OATP1B1

OATP1B1 (previously known as OATP2, OATP-C and LST-1) is mainly expressed on the sinusoidal membrane of human hepatocytes (Abe *et al.*, 1999; Hsiang *et al.*, 1999; König *et al.*, 2000a). *SLCO1B1* mRNA has been detected also in other tissues, including small intestinal enterocytes (Glaeser *et al.*, 2007). *In vitro*, OATP1B1 has been shown to transport both unconjugated and conjugated bilirubin (Cui *et al.*, 2001; Briz *et al.*, 2003, 2006), although in one study, no differences in bilirubin transport existed between OATP1B1-transfected and non-transfected cells (Wang *et al.*, 2003). Other endogenous OATP1B1 substrates include bile acids (cholate and taurocholate), conjugated steroids (estradiol-17 β -glucuronide,

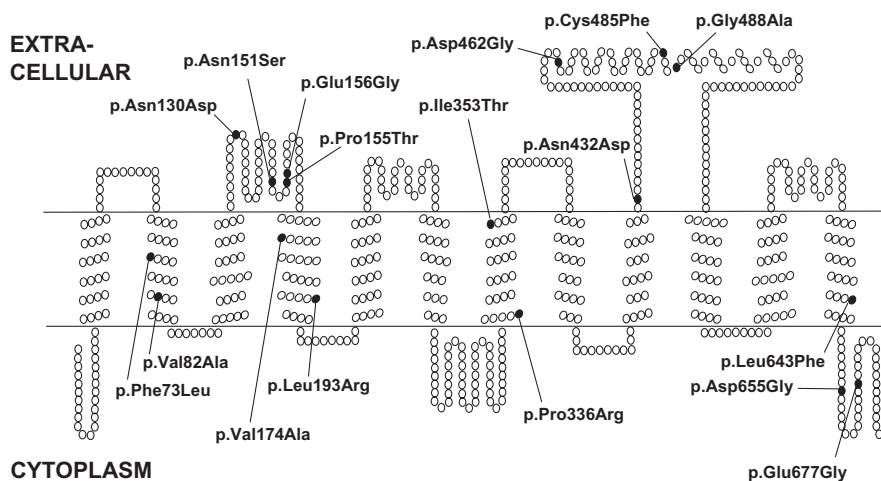


Figure 2 Schematic representation of the secondary structure of human organic anion transporting polypeptide 1B1, depicting the positions of known amino acid exchanges. Reprinted from Kallioloski, 2008 with permission of the copyright holder.

estrone-3-sulfate and dehydroepiandrosterone-3-sulfate), eicosanoids (leukotrienes C4 and E4, prostaglandin E2 and thromboxane B2) and thyroid hormones (thyroxine and triiodothyronine) (Abe *et al.*, 1999; Hsiang *et al.*, 1999; König *et al.*, 2000a; Tamai *et al.*, 2000; Cui *et al.*, 2001). Examples of *in vitro* OATP1B1 drug substrates include several HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors, or statins, angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, and angiotensin II receptor antagonists (Table 2).

SLCO1B1 (OATP1B1) pharmacogenetics

The OATP1B1 protein consisting of 691 amino acids is encoded by the *SLCO1B1* gene (Abe *et al.*, 1999; Hsiang *et al.*, 1999) (Figure 2). A large number of SNPs and other sequence variations have been described in the *SLCO1B1* gene, and their allele frequencies vary markedly between different populations (Tirona *et al.*, 2001; Niemi, 2007; Pasanen *et al.*, 2008). For example, the c.388A > G (p.Asx130Asp) SNP is quite common in all populations, with an allele frequency ranging from ~40% in Europeans to ~80% in Sub-Saharan Africans and East Asians, whereas the c.521T > C (p.Val174Ala) SNP, relatively common in Europeans and Asians (allele frequency ~10–20%), is less frequent in Sub-Saharan Africans (~2%) (Pasanen *et al.*, 2008).

The two common *SLCO1B1* SNPs, c.521T > C (p.Val174Ala) and c.388A > G (p.Asx130Asp), together form four functionally distinct haplotypes: *SLCO1B1**1A (c.388A-c.521T, reference haplotype), *1B (c.388G-c.521T), *5 (c.388A-c.521C) and *15 (c.388G-c.521C) (Tirona *et al.*, 2001; Nozawa *et al.*, 2002; Nishizato *et al.*, 2003; Niemi *et al.*, 2004). The *SLCO1B1**15 haplotype can be further subclassified on the basis of two promoter SNPs, g.-11187G > A and g.-10499A > C, forming the *15 (GAGC), *16 (GCGC), and *17 (AAGC) haplotypes (Niemi *et al.*, 2004). The haplotype frequencies for the *SLCO1B1**1A, *1B, *5, *15, *16 and *17 were 52, 27, 2.7, 2.4, 7.9 and 6.9%, respectively, in a population of 468 healthy Finns genotyped for 11 *SLCO1B1* SNPs (Pasanen *et al.*, 2006b).

*SLCO1B1**5 and *SLCO1B1**15 haplotypes have been associated with reduced transport activity of OATP1B1 *in vitro* in

studies performed with several OATP1B1 substrates in different cell lines (Kameyama *et al.*, 2005; Nozawa *et al.*, 2005). The *SLCO1B1**1B haplotype has, however, been associated with increased OATP1B1 transport activity *in vitro* in studies performed with bromosulphophthalein and estrone-3-sulfate (Michalski *et al.*, 2002; Kameyama *et al.*, 2005), whereas no change or reduced transport activity has been seen in other studies with different substrates (Tirona *et al.*, 2003; Nozawa *et al.*, 2005). The effect of the c.521T > C SNP appears to dominate over that of the c.388A > G SNP, as the *SLCO1B1**15 haplotype (including both SNPs) has been consistently associated with reduced transport activity of OATP1B1 (Kameyama *et al.*, 2005). In addition to the *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C and c.388A > G SNPs, some of the other non-synonymous *SLCO1B1* SNPs have been associated with altered (decreased) transport function of OATP1B1 *in vitro* (Tirona *et al.*, 2001; Michalski *et al.*, 2002), but their clinical significance is either negligible or unestablished, partly because most of them have low allele frequencies (Niemi, 2007; Pasanen *et al.*, 2008).

Of the endogenous substrates of OATP1B1, only bilirubin transport has been reported to be altered (decreased) *in vivo* in subjects with the *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C variant allele, but the findings have been controversial (Huang *et al.*, 2004, 2005; Ieiri *et al.*, 2004; Ho *et al.*, 2007). More conclusive data are available on the effect of *SLCO1B1* polymorphism on the pharmacokinetics of several drugs, notably the meglitinide analog oral antidiabetic drug repaglinide and HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors.

In one study in healthy volunteers, the AUC of 0.25 mg repaglinide was 188% larger in participants with the *SLCO1B1* c.521CC than in those with the c.521TT genotype (Niemi *et al.*, 2005b). In subsequent prospective genotype panel studies in healthy volunteers, the AUC of 0.5 mg repaglinide was ~70% larger in *SLCO1B1* c.521CC participants and ~30% lower in *SLCO1B1**1B/*1B (c.388GG-c.521TT) participants than in *SLCO1B1**1A/*1A (c.388AA-c.521TT) participants (Kallioloski *et al.*, 2008a,c) (Figure 3A). In each study, after repaglinide administration, there was a tendency towards lower blood glucose concentrations in c.521CC participants than in *SLCO1B1**1A/*1A participants and higher blood glucose concentrations in *SLCO1B1**1B/*1B participants than

Table 2 Drug substrates for OATP1B1, OATP1A2, OATP1B3 and OATP2B1

OATP	Substrate	K _m (μM)	Reference
OATP1B1	Atorvastatin	12.4	Kameyama <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Atrasentan	–	Katz <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Benzylpenicillin	–	Tamai <i>et al.</i> , 2000
	Bosentan	44	Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Caspofungin	–	Sandhu <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Cerivastatin	–	Shitara <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	Enalapril	262	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Ezetimibe glucuronide	–	Oswald <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Fexofenadine	–	Matsushima <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Fluvastatin	1.4–3.5	Kopplow <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Noe <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Methotrexate	–	Abe <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Olmesartan	12.8–42.6	Nakagomi-Hagihara <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Yamada <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Pitavastatin	3.0–6.7	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Deng <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Pravastatin	13.7–35	Hsiang <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Nakai <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Rifampicin	1.5–13	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	Rosuvastatin	4.0–7.3	Simonsen <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
	SN-38	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Temocapril	–	Maeda <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Troglitazone sulfate	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004b
	OATP1A2	Valsartan	1.39
Erythromycin		–	Franke <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Fexofenadine		6.4	Cvetkovic <i>et al.</i> , 1999
Imatinib		–	Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Levofloxacin		136	Maeda <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Methotrexate		457	Badagnani <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Ouabain		5.5	Bossuyt <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Pitavastatin		3.4	Fujino <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Rocuronium		–	van Montfoort <i>et al.</i> , 1999
Rosuvastatin		2.6	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
Saquinavir		36.4	Su <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Thyroxine		8.0	Fujiwara <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Unaprostone		–	Gao <i>et al.</i> , 2005
OATP1B3	Atrasentan	–	Katz <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Bosentan	141	Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Digoxin	–	Kullak-Ublick <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Docetaxel	–	Smith <i>et al.</i> , 2005b
	Enalapril	–	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Erythromycin	–	Franke <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Fexofenadine	108	Shimizu <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Fluvastatin	7.0	Kopplow <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Imatinib	–	Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Methotrexate	24.7	Abe <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Olmesartan	71.8	Nakagomi-Hagihara <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Ouabain	–	Kullak-Ublick <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Paclitaxel	6.8	Smith <i>et al.</i> , 2005b, 2007
	Pitavastatin	3.3	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Pravastatin	–	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Rifampicin	2.3	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Rosuvastatin	9.8	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
	Telmisartan	0.8	Ishiguro <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	SN-38	–	Yamaguchi <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Thyroxine	–	Kullak-Ublick <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Valsartan	18.2	Yamashiro <i>et al.</i> , 2006	
OATP2B1	Atorvastatin	0.2	Grube <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Benzylpenicillin	–	Tamai <i>et al.</i> , 2000
	Bosentan	202	Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Fexofenadine	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004a
	Fluvastatin	0.7	Kopplow <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Glibenclamide	6.3	Satoh <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Pravastatin	2.3	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004a
	Rosuvastatin	2.4	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
	Unaprostone	–	Gao <i>et al.</i> , 2005

–, not provided; K_m, Michaelis-Menten kinetic constant; OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide.

in *SLCO1B1**1A/*1A participants (Figure 2B), although these differences were not statistically significant. After ingestion of single repaglinide doses ranging from 0.25 to 2 mg, the AUC of repaglinide was 60–110% larger in participants with the

c.521CC genotype than in those with the *SLCO1B1**1A/*1A genotype (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008b). Furthermore, the pharmacokinetics of repaglinide proved to be linear as a function of repaglinide dose in both *SLCO1B1* genotype groups.

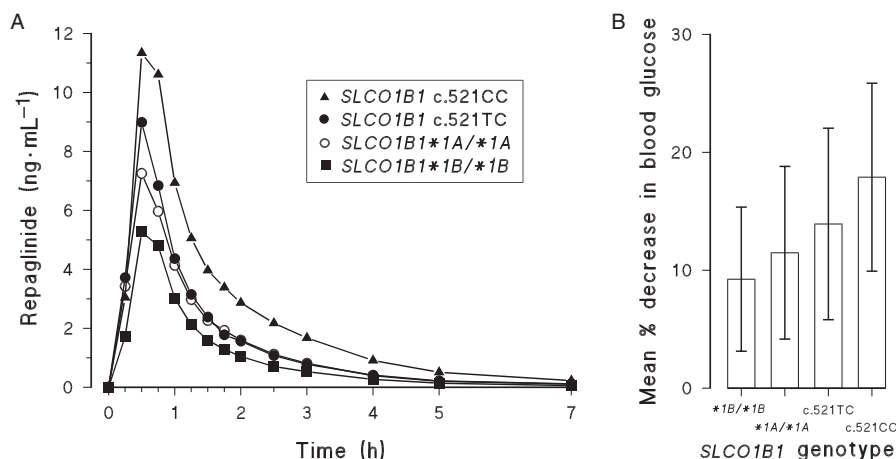


Figure 3 Mean plasma concentrations (A) and mean % decrease (\pm s.d.) in blood glucose 0–3 h (B) after ingestion of a single oral 0.5 mg dose of repaglinide in healthy participants with the *SLCO1B1* c.521CC ($n = 4$, solid triangles), c.521TC ($n = 12$, solid circles), *1A/*1A (c.388AA-c521TT; $n = 16$, open circles) and *1B/*1B (c.388GG-c.521TT; $n = 8$, solid squares) genotypes. Modified from Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008a,c.

Therefore, the effect of *SLCO1B1* polymorphism persists over a wide dose range and patients with the c.521CC genotype may be more susceptible, than patients with the c.521TT or c.521TC genotype, for the blood glucose-lowering effect of repaglinide.

Although repaglinide appears to be transported via OATP1B1 *in vivo*, direct *in vitro* evidence of this is lacking. *In vitro* data on the role of OATP1B1 in hepatic uptake are also lacking for nateglinide, the concentrations of which were increased in individuals with the *SLCO1B1* c.521TC and c.521CC genotypes when investigated in a small group of healthy Chinese subjects (Zhang *et al.*, 2006). These results could, however, not be reproduced in a larger group of healthy Caucasian volunteers (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008c). Moreover, the *SLCO1B1**1B/1B genotype did not significantly affect pharmacokinetics of nateglinide (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008a). The pharmacokinetics of rosiglitazone and pioglitazone also remained unaffected by the *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C SNP in healthy Caucasian subjects (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008d), although these drugs are potential OATP1B1 substrates (Nozawa *et al.*, 2004b; Chang *et al.*, 2005).

One of the most studied drugs with respect to the *SLCO1B1* polymorphism *in vivo* in humans is pravastatin, the plasma concentrations of which have been markedly increased in individuals of different ethnic backgrounds carrying one or especially two *SLCO1B1* c.521C alleles (Mwinyi *et al.*, 2004; Niemi *et al.*, 2004; Igel *et al.*, 2006; Ho *et al.*, 2007; Deng *et al.*, 2008). In one study, *SLCO1B1* c.521CC participants had a 91 and 74% larger pravastatin AUC than those with the c.521TT or c.521TC genotype respectively (Niemi *et al.*, 2006a). Furthermore, the plasma concentrations of active simvastatin acid, pitavastatin, atorvastatin and rosuvastatin have been 221, 162, 144 and 65% higher in c.521CC homozygotes than in c.521TT homozygotes (Pasanen *et al.*, 2006a, 2007; Deng *et al.*, 2008). However, the *SLCO1B1* genotype had no significant effect on the pharmacokinetics of fluvastatin (Niemi *et al.*, 2006a).

In addition, the AUCs of atrasentan and fexofenadine have been higher and the non-renal clearance of torsemide has been lower in healthy volunteers with the *SLCO1B1* c.521CC

genotype than in those with the c.521TT genotype (Niemi *et al.*, 2005a; Katz *et al.*, 2006; Vormfelde *et al.*, 2008). *SLCO1B1* genotype may also affect the pharmacokinetics of ezetimibe glucuronide (Oswald *et al.*, 2008).

Data on the relevance of *SLCO1B1* polymorphism in the pharmacokinetics of different drugs in patients are emerging. For example, in Asian patients, the *SLCO1B1**15 haplotype has been associated with increased concentrations of SN-38, an active metabolite of anticancer drug irinotecan, which may be reflected in a higher risk of toxicity (Xiang *et al.*, 2006; Takane *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Han *et al.*, 2008). The most convincing data on the clinical significance of the *SLCO1B1* polymorphism comes from a recent genome-wide association study investigating simvastatin-induced myopathy (Link *et al.*, 2008). More than 300 000 genetic markers were determined in 85 patients who had developed myopathy while receiving 80 mg simvastatin daily and in 90 control patients without myopathy. A non-coding *SLCO1B1* SNP, which is in nearly complete linkage disequilibrium with the *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C SNP, was the only strong marker associated with myopathy. More than 60% of the myopathy cases could be attributed to the c.521C variant, and the odds ratio for myopathy was 4.5 per copy of the c.521C allele. This association was replicated in a study of 20 000 patients receiving 40 mg simvastatin daily. Furthermore, the c.521C allele was associated with a slightly reduced and the c.388G allele with a slightly increased cholesterol-lowering effect of simvastatin. Therefore, knowledge on the patient's *SLCO1B1* genotype might be useful in tailoring of drug therapy.

Role of OATP1B1 in drug–drug interactions

Many drugs have been identified *in vitro* as OATP1B1 inhibitors (Table 3). There are some *in vivo* interactions where OATP1B1 inhibition can be regarded as an important mechanism (Table 4). Cyclosporine has increased the plasma concentrations of atorvastatin and several other statins, probably partly due to OATP1B1 inhibition (Neuvonen *et al.*, 2006). Other mechanisms are likely also involved in these

Table 3 Selected OATP1B1, OATP1A2, OATP1B3 and OATP2B1 inhibitors

OATP	Inhibitor	IC ₅₀ (μM)	Reference
OATP1B1	Atorvastatin acid	0.87	Hsiang <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Atorvastatin lactone	2.6	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Carbamazepine	188	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Caspofungin	–	Sandhu <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Clarithromycin	8.26 ^a –96	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Clotrimazole	9.0	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Cyclosporine	0.2 ^a –2.2	Shitara <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Campbell <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Simonson <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b; Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Digoxin	31.7 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Erythromycin	11.4 ^a –217	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Gemfibrozil	4.0–72	Schneck <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Shitara <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b; Noe <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Gemfibrozil-1-O-glucuronide	22.6 ^a –24	Shitara <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Glibenclamide	0.746 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Hyperforin	0.82	Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	Indinavir	5.84–18.4 ^a	Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Campbell <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Irinotecan	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Ketoconazole	19.2 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Lovastatin	6.1	Hsiang <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Sandhu <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Lovastatin acid	4.0	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Lovastatin lactone	28	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Metyrapone	–	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Mifepristone	3.3	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Nelfinavir	0.93	Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	Paclitaxel	0.03	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Pioglitazone	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004b
	Pravastatin	–	Hsiang <i>et al.</i> , 1999
	Repaglinide	2.2	Bachmakov <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Rifampicin	0.477 ^a –17 ^a	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Lau <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Rifamycin SV	0.171 ^a –2 ^a	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Campbell <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Ritonavir	0.71–0.781 ^a	Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Rosiglitazone	6.0	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004b; Bachmakov <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Roxithromycin	153	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Saquinavir	1.2 ^a –1.56 ^a	Tirona <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Campbell <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Sildenafil	1.5	Treiber <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Simvastatin	–	Hsiang <i>et al.</i> , 1999
	Simvastatin acid	3.6	Nakai <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Simvastatin lactone	9.7	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	SN-38	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Tacrolimus	0.611 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Telithromycin	121	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Telmisartan	0.436 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Troglitazone	1.2	Gui <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Troglitazone sulfate	–	Nozawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004b
	Valsartan	8.96 ^a	Hirano <i>et al.</i> , 2006
OATP1A2	Apple juice	–	Dresser <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Grapefruit juice	–	Dresser <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Hesperidin	2.7	Bailey <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Naringin	3.6	Bailey <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Orange juice	–	Dresser <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Rifampicin	51	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Rifamycin SV	11 ^a	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
OATP1B3	Verapamil	2.6 ^a	Bailey <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Clarithromycin	32	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Cyclosporine	0.06	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
	Erythromycin	34	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Rifampicin	5 ^a	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Rifamycin SV	3 ^a	Vavricka <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	Roxithromycin	37	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
OATP2B1	Telithromycin	11	Seithel <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Cyclosporine	0.07	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b
	Gemfibrozil	8	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 2006b

^aK_i provided instead of IC₅₀.–, not provided; IC₅₀, inhibitor concentration producing 50% inhibition of transporter activity; OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide; SN-38, an active metabolite of irinotecan.

Table 4 Examples of the possible involvement of OATP1B1 inhibition in clinical drug-drug interactions

Inhibitor	Substrate	Fold AUC increase	Reference	
Atorvastatin Cyclosporine	Repaglinide	1.2	Kalliokoski, <i>et al.</i> , 2008e	
	Bosentan	2	Binet <i>et al.</i> , 2000	
	Caspofungin	1.4	Cancidas prescribing information	
	Atorvastatin		7.4 ^a	Åsberg, <i>et al.</i> , 2001
			8.7	Hermann <i>et al.</i> , 2004
			15.3	Lemahieu <i>et al.</i> , 2005
		Cerivastatin	3.8 ^a	Mück <i>et al.</i> , 1999
		Fluvastatin	3–4	Park <i>et al.</i> , 2001
		Lovastatin	20 ^a	Olbricht <i>et al.</i> , 1997
		Methotrexate	1.2	Fox <i>et al.</i> , 2003
		Pitavastatin	5	Hasunuma <i>et al.</i> , 2003
		Pravastatin	10	Regazzi <i>et al.</i> , 1993
			5–7	Olbricht <i>et al.</i> , 1997
		9.9	Hedman <i>et al.</i> , 2004	
	Repaglinide	2.4 ^a	Kajosaari <i>et al.</i> , 2005b	
Rosuvastatin	7.1	Simonson <i>et al.</i> , 2004		
Simvastatin	2.6 ^a	Arnadottir <i>et al.</i> , 1993		
Gemfibrozil		8 ^a	Ichimaru <i>et al.</i> , 2001	
	Atorvastatin	1.2	Backman <i>et al.</i> , 2005	
	Cerivastatin	4.4 ^b	Backman <i>et al.</i> , 2002	
	Fluvastatin	no change	Spence <i>et al.</i> , 1995	
	Lovastatin	2.8	Kyrklund <i>et al.</i> , 2001	
	Pitavastatin	1.5	Mathew <i>et al.</i> , 2004	
	Pravastatin	2	Kyrklund <i>et al.</i> , 2003	
	Repaglinide	8.1 ^b	Niemi <i>et al.</i> , 2003a	
	Rosuvastatin	1.9	Schneck <i>et al.</i> , 2004	
	Simvastatin	2.9	Backman <i>et al.</i> , 2000	
Rifampicin ^c	Atorvastatin	7.3	Lau <i>et al.</i> , 2007	

^aCYP3A4 inhibition also involved.

^bCYP2C8 inhibition is considered the main mechanism of interaction.

^c600 mg rifampicin administered as a 30-min iv infusion immediately before atorvastatin administration.

AUC, area under the plasma concentration-time curve; CYP, cytochrome P450; OATP, organic anion transporting polypeptide.

interactions since cyclosporine inhibits several influx and efflux transporters, such as OATP1B3, OATP2B1, MDR1 and MRP2, and CYP3A4. However, fluvastatin, pitavastatin, pravastatin and rosuvastatin are not significantly metabolized by CYP3A4, and cyclosporine has increased their mean AUC ~4–20-fold in organ transplant patients (Regazzi *et al.*, 1993; Park *et al.*, 2001; Hasunuma *et al.*, 2003; Simonson *et al.*, 2004). In addition to statins, cyclosporine has increased the mean AUC of repaglinide ~2.5-fold in healthy subjects (Kajosaari *et al.*, 2005b). Interestingly, the increase was 42% lower in subjects with the *SLCO1B1* c.521TC genotype than in those with the c.521TT genotype. This finding may be explained by the reduced activity of OATP1B1 in carriers of the variant *SLCO1B1* c.521C allele. Cyclosporine has also modestly (up to twofold) increased the AUCs of other OATP1B1 substrates, including bosentan, caspofungin and methotrexate (Binet *et al.*, 2000; Fox *et al.*, 2003; Niemi, 2007).

Gemfibrozil has also increased the plasma concentrations of several OATP1B1 substrates (Niemi, 2007). Although gemfibrozil and its 1-O- β -glucuronide metabolite both inhibit OATP1B1 *in vitro* (Shitara *et al.*, 2004), the glucuronide metabolite is a very potent mechanism-based inhibitor of CYP2C8 *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Backman *et al.*, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2002; Ogilvie *et al.* 2006; Tornio *et al.* 2008). Gemfibrozil has increased the AUC of repaglinide, which is metabolized by CYP2C8 and CYP3A4, up to eightfold in healthy subjects (Niemi *et al.*, 2003a), and this interaction has been observed

even when the last dose of gemfibrozil was ingested 12 h before repaglinide (Tornio *et al.*, 2008). In a prospective genotype panel study, the mean increase in the repaglinide AUC by gemfibrozil has been ~50% larger in *SLCO1B1* c.521CC participants than in c.521TT participants, but the relative (seven- to eightfold) increases in the repaglinide AUC did not differ significantly between the genotype groups (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008e). Gemfibrozil has also increased the AUC of drugs that are not at all or only partly metabolized by CYP2C8, including pravastatin, rosuvastatin and simvastatin, ~2–3-fold in healthy subjects (Backman *et al.*, 2000; Kyrklund *et al.*, 2003; Schneck *et al.*, 2004).

Rifampicin is a potent inducer of drug-metabolizing enzymes (Niemi *et al.*, 2003b). Rifampicin 600 mg daily administered orally for 5 days has decreased the AUC of repaglinide by ~60% (Niemi *et al.*, 2000). At high concentrations, rifampicin also inhibits the elimination of repaglinide *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Bidstrup *et al.*, 2004; Kajosaari *et al.*, 2005a). In addition to inhibiting CYP enzymes, rifampicin is an inhibitor of OATP1B1 and OATP1B3 *in vitro* (Vavricka *et al.*, 2002) and also *in vivo*, if administered intravenously immediately before the 'victim' drug. Intravenous rifampicin has increased the AUC of atorvastatin ~7-fold (Lau *et al.*, 2007), whereas oral treatment with rifampicin over 5 days has decreased the AUC of atorvastatin by ~80%, probably due to induction of CYP3A4 (Backman *et al.*, 2005). Although rifampicin is a substrate of OATP1B1 (Tirona *et al.*, 2003), the *SLCO1B1* genotype has had no effect on the induction of

CYP3A4 by rifampicin, as measured by the plasma concentrations of 4 β -hydroxycholesterol, an endogenous marker of CYP3A4 activity (Niemi *et al.*, 2006b). These data suggest that OATP1B3 or other uptake transporters can compensate for reduced uptake of rifampicin by OATP1B1. Rifampicin also appears to have a modest inductive effect on OATP1B1 *in vitro* (Jigorel *et al.*, 2006; Sahi *et al.*, 2006).

In healthy subjects, atorvastatin has slightly increased the AUC of repaglinide in *SLCO1B1*1A/*1A* participants (by ~20%) and the C_{max} of repaglinide in *SLCO1B1*1A/*1A* (~40%) and *SLCO1B1 c.521TC* (by ~30%) participants (Kalliokoski *et al.*, 2008e). Atorvastatin had no statistically significant effect on the blood glucose-lowering response to repaglinide, although some subjects experienced low blood glucose concentrations when repaglinide was administered together with atorvastatin. Based on the repaglinide metabolite findings of the study, atorvastatin is not a potent inhibitor of CYP3A4 or CYP2C8 *in vivo* and the most likely explanation for the effect of atorvastatin on repaglinide pharmacokinetics is inhibition of the OATP1B1-mediated hepatic uptake of repaglinide.

OATP1A2

OATP1A2 (previously known as OATP-A) is expressed in various tissues, including the brain, liver, kidneys and intestine (Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 1995; Glaeser *et al.*, 2007), although one study found no detectable levels of *SLCO1A2* mRNA in the duodenum (Meier *et al.*, 2007). Endogenous substrates of OATP1A2 include bile acids, thyroid hormones, and steroid hormones and their conjugates (Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 1995, 1998; Bossuyt *et al.*, 1996; Fujiwara *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, OATP1A2 also transports several drugs (Table 2). Some *SLCO1A2* (encoding OATP1A2) SNPs have shown decreased *in vitro* transport activity towards the OATP1A2 substrate estrone-3-sulfate (Lee *et al.*, 2005), but the significance of these findings *in vivo* in humans is unknown. Several drugs, such as saquinavir, lovastatin, verapamil, dexamethasone and naloxone, have inhibited OATP1A2-mediated substrate uptake *in vitro* (Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 1998; Cvetkovic *et al.*, 1999; Gao *et al.*, 2000). Interestingly, also the flavonoids naringin, found in grapefruit juice, and hesperidin, found in orange juice, as well as these juices (at 5% soft drink strength) have inhibited OATP1A2-mediated fexofenadine uptake *in vitro* (Dresser *et al.*, 2002; Bailey *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, in studies in healthy subjects, the AUC of fexofenadine has been decreased by 25% by ingestion of naringin, and by 40–70% due to ingestion of grapefruit or orange juice (Dresser *et al.*, 2002, 2005; Bailey *et al.*, 2007), consistent with inhibition of OATP1A2 at the apical membrane of enterocytes.

OATP1B3

OATP1B3 (previously known as OATP8 and LST-2) was cloned based on sequence homology to the OATP1B1 (80% amino acid homology), and, similar to OATP1B1, it is mainly expressed on the sinusoidal membrane of human hepatocytes (König *et al.*, 2000b; Abe *et al.*, 2001). Endogenous substrates of OATP1B3 are similar to those of OATP1B1: bilirubin, bile

acids, conjugated steroids, eicosanoids and thyroid hormones (König *et al.*, 2000b; Abe *et al.*, 2001; Cui *et al.*, 2001; Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 2001), but the gastrointestinal peptide cholecystokinin is exclusively transported by OATP1B3 (Ismair *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, the drug substrates of OATP1B3 overlap those of OATP1B1, but OATP1B3 seems to be the only hepatic OATP transporting digoxin, docetaxel and paclitaxel (Table 2). OATP1B3, in contrast to OATP1B1 and OATP2B1, has also been identified *in vitro* as capable of transporting amanitin, a toxin present in *Amanita* mushrooms (Letschert *et al.*, 2006). The *SLCO1B3* gene (encoding OATP1B3) is polymorphic (Iida *et al.*, 2001), and some sequence variations have been associated with decreased transport activity of OATP1B3 *in vitro* (Letschert *et al.*, 2004; Schwarz *et al.*, 2006; Smith *et al.*, 2007). In addition to inhibiting OATP1B1, cyclosporine is also an inhibitor of OATP1B3 *in vitro* (Ho *et al.*, 2006b) and might thus interact with OATP1B3 substrates.

OATP2B1

OATP2B1 (previously OATP-B) is expressed at the sinusoidal membrane of hepatocytes in the liver, but also in other tissues, for example intestine and heart (Tamai *et al.*, 2000; Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 2001; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2003; Grube *et al.*, 2006). Endogenous substrates of OATP2B1 include dehydroepiandrosterone-3-sulfate, estrone-3-sulfate and prostaglandin E2 (Tamai *et al.*, 2000; Kullak-Ublick *et al.*, 2001). Several drugs are substrates of OATP2B1 (Table 2). There is currently no data on the clinical relevance of *SLCO2B1* polymorphism, although some *SLCO2B1* sequence variations have been associated with altered transport activity of the protein *in vitro* (Nozawa *et al.*, 2002; Ho *et al.*, 2006a). Cyclosporine and gemfibrozil inhibit OATP2B1 *in vitro* (Ho *et al.*, 2006b). In a study where glibenclamide was identified *in vitro* as a substrate for OATP2B1, grapefruit juice (at a concentration of 5%) significantly inhibited the OATP2B1-mediated uptake of estrone-3-sulfate by 80% (Satoh *et al.*, 2005). However, grapefruit juice has had no effect on the pharmacokinetics of glibenclamide in healthy subjects (Lilja *et al.*, 2007).

Other OATPs

OATP1C1 (previously OATP-F) is expressed in the human brain, testis and ciliary body, and shows a high affinity for thyroid hormones (Pizzagalli *et al.*, 2002; Gao *et al.*, 2005). OATP2A1 (hPGT) is broadly expressed in different tissues and acts as a prostaglandin transporter (Lu *et al.*, 1996), but currently no drugs have been identified as its substrates. OATP3A1 (OATP-D) is expressed in two splice variants, and the shorter variant lacking 18 amino acids in the carboxyl terminus appears to be expressed only in the testis and brain, whereas the longer variant is ubiquitously expressed (Adachi *et al.*, 2003; Huber *et al.*, 2007). OATP3A1 transports estrone-3-sulfate, prostaglandin E2, thyroxine, vasopressin and benzylpenicillin (Tamai *et al.*, 2000; Huber *et al.*, 2007).

OATP4A1 (OATP-E) is ubiquitously expressed and it transports oestrogens, prostaglandins, thyroid hormones, taurocholate, benzylpenicillin and unaprostone (Tamai *et al.*, 2000;

Fujiwara *et al.*, 2001; Gao *et al.*, 2005). OATP4C1 (OATP-H) is localized at the basolateral membrane of human proximal tubule cells, and therefore it may mediate the uptake of its substrates from the blood into the kidney (Mikkaichi *et al.*, 2004b). OATP4C1 transports thyroid hormones, digoxin, methotrexate and the antidiabetic drug sitagliptin (Mikkaichi *et al.*, 2004b; Chu *et al.*, 2007). OATP5A1 (OATP-J) is known only at the cDNA level (Hagenbuch and Meier, 2004), and mRNA of *SLCO6A1* (OATP-I) has been detected in the testis (Lee *et al.*, 2004).

Conclusion

OATP transporters, especially OATP1B1, 1A2, 1B3 and 2B1, may play important roles in the pharmacokinetics of several drugs. Therefore, genetic variation in OATP-encoding genes and inhibition of OATP function may have clinically significant consequences on drug therapy. The *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C (p.Val.174Ala; *5 or *15 haplotype) variant allele is associated with reduced hepatic uptake and increased plasma concentrations of several OATP1B1 substrates, including repaglinide and several statins. The *SLCO1B1**1B haplotype appears to be associated with enhanced hepatic uptake and reduced plasma concentrations of OATP1B1 substrates. *SLCO1B1* c.521T > C SNP is strongly associated with simvastatin-induced myopathy. Inhibition of OATP1B1 is involved in the drug–drug interactions of cyclosporine, gemfibrozil and rifampicin with OATP1B1 substrates. OATP1A2 may facilitate the intestinal absorption of drugs, such as fexofenadine, and OATP1B3 and 2B1 may be important for hepatic uptake of their substrates drugs.

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