

1 **The Role of Drug Transporters in the Kidney: Lessons from**
2 **Tenofovir**

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26 **Abstract**

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28 Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate, the prodrug of nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitor
29 tenofovir, shows high efficacy and relatively low toxicity in HIV patients. However, long-
30 term kidney toxicity is now acknowledged as a modest but significant risk for tenofovir-
31 containing regimens, and continuous use of tenofovir in HIV therapy is currently under
32 question by practitioners and researchers. Co-morbidities (hepatitis C, diabetes), low body
33 weight, older age, concomitant administration of potentially nephrotoxic drugs, low CD4
34 count, and duration of therapy are all risk factors associated with tenofovir-associated tubular
35 dysfunction. Tenofovir is predominantly eliminated via the proximal tubules of the kidney,
36 therefore drug transporters expressed in renal proximal tubule cells are believed to influence
37 tenofovir plasma concentration and toxicity in the kidney. We review here the current
38 evidence that the actions, pharmacogenetics and drug interactions of drug transporters are
39 relevant factors for tenofovir-associated tubular dysfunction. The use of creatinine and novel
40 biomarkers for kidney damage, and the role that drug transporters play in biomarker
41 disposition, are discussed. The lessons learnt from investigating the role of transporters in
42 tenofovir kidney elimination and toxicity can be utilised for future drug development and
43 clinical management programs.

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51 **Introduction**

52 Tenofovir, administered as the prodrug tenofovir disoproxil fumarate, is a nucleotide reverse
53 transcriptase inhibitor which is recommended for use in first-line treatment of HIV infection.
54 The drug has many beneficial characteristics, including once-daily dosing, high efficacy and
55 lack of interaction with cytochrome P450 enzymes (Boffito et al., 2005). Tenofovir shows a
56 favourable safety profile compared to other nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors.
57 However, long-term kidney toxicity is acknowledged as a modest but significant risk for
58 tenofovir-containing regimens (Cooper et al., 2010). It has been observed in a particular
59 clinic that tenofovir-associated nephrotoxicity is the most common single reason for HIV-
60 related referral to specialist renal services, accounting for more than 20% of consultations
61 (Hall et al., 2011a). The mechanisms involved in the observed kidney tubular dysfunction are
62 not fully understood, but direct mitochondrial toxicity by tenofovir, interference with normal
63 tubular cell function, or a combination of both have been suggested (Hall et al., 2011a). Co-
64 morbidities (hepatitis C, diabetes), low body weight, older age, concomitant administration of
65 potentially nephrotoxic drugs, low CD4 count, and duration of therapy are all risk factors
66 associated with tubular dysfunction (Rodriguez-Novoa et al., 2010). Risk factors may also
67 involve drug transporters expressed in renal proximal tubule cells. Indeed, evidence is
68 emerging that high concentrations of tenofovir in plasma are associated with development of
69 kidney damage, and it is likely that drug transporters play a role in this association (Barditch-
70 Crovo et al., 2001;Rodriguez-Novoa et al., 2009a) as well as in perturbations of the
71 commonly used biomarker, creatinine (Fernandez-Fernandez et al., 2011b)

72

73 Drug transporters can be divided into two superfamilies; the Solute Carrier (SLC)
74 superfamily and the ATP Binding Cassette (ABC) superfamily. It is acknowledged that drug
75 transporters play a significant role in the absorption, distribution, metabolism, elimination

76 (ADME), efficacy and toxicity of numerous drugs. They are detectable in virtually all tissues,
77 although the precise orientation and function of many transporters are not fully understood
78 (Bleasby et al., 2006). Drug transporters play a key role in controlling the movement of drugs
79 between the blood and the liver (Faber et al., 2003), intestine (Estudante et al., 2013) and
80 kidney (Morrissey et al., 2013). Furthermore, drug transporters are involved in the
81 penetration of drugs into target tissues such as the lymphatic system in antiretroviral
82 treatment (Ford et al., 2004), and also act to protect tissues such as the central nervous system
83 from potentially toxic drugs and xenobiotics (Ballabh et al., 2004). Prior to the licensing of a
84 new drug, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and European Medicines Agency
85 (EMA) require that certain tests are performed which determine if a drug is a substrate or
86 inhibitor of a selection of clinically-relevant transporters (Table 1).

87

88 Tenofovir is predominantly eliminated via the proximal tubules of the kidney, and this review
89 summarises our current understanding of how kidney transporter polymorphisms and drug
90 interactions may influence tenofovir-associated nephrotoxicity. The implications and
91 knowledge gaps are also described, along with suggestions for future transporter studies. The
92 lessons learnt from investigating the role of transporters in tenofovir kidney elimination and
93 toxicity can be utilised for future drug development and clinical management, which is
94 discussed in this review.

95

96 **Kidney transporters**

97 The kidney, along with the liver, is a key organ involved in systemic clearance of drugs, with
98 around 32% of currently used drugs in the USA exhibiting significant (>25%) renal
99 elimination (Morrissey et al., 2013). Elimination can occur via glomerular filtration, tubular
100 secretion, or a combination of both pathways. The process of tubular secretion is two-fold: 1)

101 the drug requires access to the proximal tubule cells from the blood via the basolateral
102 membrane, and 2) the drug is removed into the luminal fluid via the apical membrane. This
103 process can occur passively, but in many cases drug transporter proteins are involved in
104 facilitating drug movement across membranes and actively transporting drugs against
105 concentration gradients.

106

107 Transporters in the kidney are involved in drug-drug interactions, particularly in cases where
108 transport is the main or rate-limiting transmembrane route for a drug. The kidney transporters
109 which are the focus of this review are those where a functional role in drug disposition has
110 been demonstrated or is suspected (Table 2) and have been separated into cationic
111 transporters, anionic transporters, transporters with less or unknown specificity in substrate
112 charge, and ATP-binding cassette efflux transporters. It is important to recognize that
113 transporter expression is often not exclusive to a single site in the body, and many have well-
114 defined involvement in tissues other than the kidney (Kis et al., 2010;DeGorter et al., 2012).
115 Several kidney transporters are capable of influencing the elimination of antiretroviral drugs,
116 including tenofovir (Kis et al., 2010). The interactions between tenofovir and kidney
117 transporters are discussed in more detail in a later section.

118

119 **Cationic transporters**

120 SLC22A1, SLC22A2 and SLC22A3 are organic cation transporters expressed on the
121 basolateral membrane of proximal tubule cells. They control the entry of cationic small
122 molecules, including creatinine and numerous drug substrates, into the epithelial cells
123 (Gorboulev et al., 1997;Grundemann et al., 1999;Dresser et al., 2001;Kimura et al.,
124 2002;Urakami et al., 2004;Zhu et al., 2010;Ciarimboli et al., 2012;Tzvetkov et al., 2013).
125 Transporters relevant to this review along with representative drug and endogenous substrates

126 are shown in Table 2. Transport is driven by electrochemical potential but is not altered by
127 sodium or proton gradients (Nies et al., 2011). SLC47A1 and SLC47A2, also known as
128 multidrug and toxin extrusion (MATE) transporters, are efflux transporters of cationic
129 substrates (Masuda et al., 2006;Ohta et al., 2006;Chen et al., 2007;Tanihara et al.,
130 2007;Martinez-Guerrero and Wright, 2013). SLC47A1 is highly expressed in the kidney and
131 liver and SLC47A2 is almost exclusively expressed in the kidney, with both showing
132 localization to the apical membrane of proximal tubule cells (Tanihara et al., 2007). Many of
133 the substrates and inhibitors of SLC47 transporters overlap with those of SLC22A1,
134 SLC22A2 and SLC22A3 (Nies et al., 2011). For example, SLC47A1 and SLC47A2 work in
135 cooperation with SLC22A2 to control the concentration of several substrates within proximal
136 tubule cells, such as creatinine (Motohashi and Inui, 2013).

137

138 **Anionic transporters**

139 SLC22A6, SLC22A7 and SLC22A8 are influx transporters expressed on the basolateral
140 membrane of proximal tubule cells, where they transport small anionic molecules into the
141 cell. SLC22A11 is a related transporter located on the apical membrane and contributes to
142 renal excretion and reabsorption of anionic substrates, as movement of substrates can occur in
143 both directions (Kusuhara et al., 1999;Cha et al., 2000;Kobayashi et al., 2005;Hagos et al.,
144 2007;Moss et al., 2011). Transporters relevant to this review along with representative drug
145 and endogenous substrates are shown in Table 2. SLC22A12 is expressed on the apical
146 surface of proximal tubule cells and, in conjunction with SLC22A11, mediates the
147 reabsorption of uric acid from the urine, thereby regulating blood uric acid levels (Enomoto
148 et al., 2002;Vitart et al., 2008). Disruption of SLC22A12 activity through genetic
149 predisposition or drug interactions can cause toxicity, therefore the transporter is considered
150 pharmacologically relevant (Shafiu et al., 2012). The bidirectional transporter SLCO4C1 is

151 highly expressed in the kidney and is located on the apical surface of proximal tubule cells
152 (Bleasby et al., 2006). Substrates of SLCO4C1 include steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones,
153 anti-cancer drugs and antibiotics (Yamaguchi et al., 2010).

154

155 **Other transporters**

156 SLC15A1 and SLC15A2 are proton-coupled co-transporters of many diverse peptide and
157 peptidomimetic substrates, but not amino acids (Ganapathy et al., 1995;Liang et al.,
158 1995;Ganapathy et al., 1998;Shu et al., 2001;Daniel and Kottra, 2004;Tramonti et al., 2006).
159 SLC15A1 is expressed on the apical surface of intestinal enterocytes and, to a lesser degree,
160 the apical surface of renal proximal tubule cells, whereas SLC15A2 is expressed
161 predominantly on the apical surface of renal proximal tubule cells. SLC15A2 undertakes the
162 reabsorption of peptide-bound amino nitrogen from the glomerular filtrate, which is
163 important in nitrogen homeostasis (Kamal et al., 2008). Nucleoside transporter proteins are
164 divided into two families; the sodium-dependent, solute carrier family 28 (SLC28) and the
165 equilibrative, solute carrier family 29 (SLC29), where the endogenous substrates are
166 nucleosides or nucleoside-like drugs (Nagai et al., 2006;Endres et al., 2009;Sato et al.,
167 2009;Bhutia et al., 2011;Choi et al., 2014). Again, representative drug and endogenous
168 substrates for these transporters are shown in Table 2.

169

170 **ABC transporters**

171 Multidrug resistance related proteins (ABCCs) and multidrug resistance protein ABCB1 are
172 members of the ABC superfamily, which can be identified by the presence of a highly
173 conserved ATP binding motif (DeGorter et al., 2012). ABCCs are found in multiple tissues
174 throughout the body, including in relevant ADME tissues such as the small intestine,
175 lymphatic system, liver and kidney, and function in an ATP-dependent process. In the

176 kidney, ABCC2 and ABCC4 are expressed on the apical membrane of proximal tubule cells
177 and efflux anionic substrates such as weakly acidic drugs, glutathione, sulphates and
178 xenobiotics (DeGorter et al., 2012). ABCC1, ABCC3 and ABCC6 are expressed on the
179 basolateral membrane of proximal tubule cells. ABCC1 does not appear to play a significant
180 role in the absorption or elimination of drugs, but is involved in resistance development of
181 anticancer drugs and in the inflammatory response (Deeley et al., 2006;Bakos and Homolya,
182 2007). ABCC3 is predominantly expressed in the liver, where it is involved in the regulation
183 of bile salt enterohepatic recirculation, but mRNA is also detectable in numerous other tissues
184 including the kidney (Kool et al., 1999b;Scheffer et al., 2002;Zhou et al., 2008). High *ABCC6*
185 mRNA has been detected in both the liver and kidney (Kool et al., 1999a). However, the
186 exact range of substrates for ABCC6 has not yet been determined, but preliminary
187 investigations suggest that ABCC6 may be involved in the transport of anticancer drugs.
188 ABCC10 is a recent addition to the potentially clinically relevant ABC multidrug resistance
189 proteins, with high mRNA expression found in numerous tissues including the kidney, liver
190 and intestine (Bleasby et al., 2006). Specificity of expression (ie apical or basolateral) is
191 unknown in the proximal tubules, and substrate specificity is limited. However, increasing
192 numbers of drugs, including anticancer and antiretroviral drugs, have been shown to be
193 substrates (Chen et al., 2003;Pushpakom et al., 2011b;Liptrott et al., 2012;Sun et al., 2013).
194 ABCB1 is widely distributed in the kidney, liver, small intestine and brain and is integral for
195 limiting the absorption of potentially toxic xenobiotics into tissues. In the kidney, ABCB1 is
196 expressed on the apical membrane and has broad substrate specificity, although substrates are
197 usually hydrophobic and either neutral or cationic (DeGorter et al., 2012). ABCG2 plays a
198 similar role to ABCB1 in drug disposition, is generally expressed in the same tissues, and
199 contributes to renal excretion of some drugs (Kage et al., 2002;Jani et al., 2009;Beery et al.,
200 2011). Unlike, ABCB1, the substrate preference for ABCG2 includes hydrophilic conjugated

201 organic anions, particularly the sulphate forms. Despite the recent progress made, several
202 drug transporters in the kidney have not been well characterized, and expression levels,
203 locations and substrate affinity remain undetermined.

204

205 **Tenofovir and kidney transporters**

206 Tenofovir is predominantly eliminated via the kidney by a combination of glomerular
207 filtration and active tubular secretion. Both influx and efflux transporters are known to
208 influence tenofovir elimination rate, although a complete understanding of the process has
209 not yet been achieved. The efflux transporters ABCC2 (MRP2) and ABCC4 (MRP4) are
210 expressed at the apical surface of proximal tubule cells and actively remove substrates into
211 the renal lumen (Smeets et al., 2004). The level of transport of tenofovir by ABCC2 was
212 found not to be significant (Imaoka et al., 2007;Neumanova et al., 2014). Conversely,
213 ABCC4 has been shown to transport tenofovir and is believed to be the main tenofovir
214 transporter on the apical surface of proximal tubule cells (Kohler et al., 2011). The efflux
215 transporters ABCB1 and ABCG2 are expressed at many membrane barriers in the body,
216 including at the apical surface of proximal tubule cells (Tanigawara, 2000;Woodward et al.,
217 2009). The extent of tenofovir transport by ABCB1 and ABCG2 was assessed in vitro and in
218 rodents and found to be not significant (Ray et al., 2006;Neumanova et al., 2014). The
219 Neumanova study also found that the tenofovir prodrug, tenofovir disoproxil fumarate, was a
220 substrate for both transporters. However, it is unlikely that orally-administered tenofovir
221 disoproxil fumarate is present at the blood-kidney barrier, as esterase activity rapidly
222 degrades the prodrug in intestinal tissue and plasma following absorption (van Gelder et al.,
223 2002). Nonetheless, ABCB1 and ABCG2 are heavily expressed at the apical surface of the
224 intestinal wall, which is therefore likely to be the major site where orally administered
225 tenofovir disoproxil fumarate could encounter these transporters. Therefore, it may well be

226 that tenofovir plasma concentrations, and therefore the extent of tenofovir-exposure-
227 associated nephrotoxicity, are influenced by the actions of these transporters on tenofovir
228 disoproxil fumarate absorption. The efflux transporter ABCC10 is known to confer resistance
229 to several anti-cancer drugs (Hopper-Borge et al., 2009;Sun et al., 2013;Sun et al., 2014), and
230 there is growing evidence that it plays a role in tenofovir-associated kidney toxicity. ABCC10
231 RNA is detectable at high levels in several pharmacologically relevant tissues, including the
232 intestine, liver, brain, and kidney (Bleasby et al., 2006), although protein expression levels,
233 orientation at blood-tissue membrane barriers and substrate specificity are not fully
234 understood. The transport of tenofovir by ABCC1 has been demonstrated in vitro (ABCB10-
235 transfected HEK293 cells) and ex vivo (ABCC10 siRNA knockdown in CD4+ T cells)
236 (Pushpakom et al., 2011b). However, the potential impact of kidney expression of this
237 transporter in vivo has not otherwise been well characterised.

238

239 Tenofovir contains a phosphate group with a negative charge at physiological pH, and this
240 gives the drug an affinity for anion-specific influx transporters. Tenofovir is transported by
241 SLC22A6 and, to a lesser extent, SLC22A8 (Uwai et al., 2007). Although affinity of
242 tenofovir for SLC22A6 transporter is greater, SLC22A8 shows higher expression levels in
243 the kidney. As such, this low-affinity high-capacity SLC22A8 transport route may also be
244 important in tenofovir elimination. There remain several kidney-expressed transporters which
245 may be involved in tenofovir-associated nephrotoxicity but which have not been
246 comprehensively assessed for tenofovir transport. The influx transporter SLC22A7 is
247 expressed on the basolateral surface of proximal tubule cells and may work in conjunction
248 with the similar transporters SLC22A6 and SLC22A8 in tenofovir excretion. SLC22A11 is
249 expressed on the apical surface of proximal tubule cells and is able to transport substrates in
250 both directions. The concentrative nucleoside transporters SLC28A1 and SLC28A2 are

251 expressed on the apical surface of proximal tubule cells. Concentrative nucleoside
252 transporters are known to transport the anti-HIV nucleoside analogue zidovudine (Hagos and
253 Wolff, 2010) but transport of tenofovir has not been investigated. It is unknown if SLC28A1,
254 SLC28A2, SLC22A7 or SLC22A11 transport tenofovir, and this is certainly worthy of
255 clarification (Hagos and Wolff, 2010).

256

257 **Tenofovir and kidney transporter pharmacogenetics**

258 It has been proposed that genetic polymorphisms in renal transporters may predispose
259 individuals to have high intracellular tenofovir concentrations, thus increasing the chance of
260 developing tubular toxicity. *ABCC2* polymorphisms have been evaluated, and the haplotype
261 ‘CATC’ (a combination of the polymorphisms at positions -24 (rs717620), 1249 (rs2273697),
262 3563 (rs8187694) and 3972 (rs3740066) within the *ABCC1* gene) and the allele -24C>T
263 (rs717620) have both been associated with an increased incidence of tenofovir-associated
264 tubular toxicity (Izzedine et al., 2006;Rodriguez-Novoa et al., 2009b). In a study in Japanese
265 HIV+ patients, the *ABCC2* -24C>T and 1249G>A polymorphisms were found to be
266 protective for tenofovir-induced kidney toxicity (Nishijima et al., 2012). These observations
267 are difficult to rationalise because tenofovir is not a substrate for *ABCC2*, which conversely
268 would suggest that *ABCC2* activity and expression would not be relevant to tenofovir-
269 associated kidney toxicity in vivo (Imaoka et al., 2007;Neumanova et al., 2014). It may be the
270 case that an endogenous substrate for *ABCC2* exacerbates the toxicity of tenofovir or
271 competes with tenofovir for transport by *ABCC4*. Also, the *ABCC2* genotypes may be in
272 linkage disequilibrium with other polymorphisms in genes coding for unidentified factors
273 which exacerbate tenofovir toxicity.

274

275 Currently, it is a matter of controversy whether *ABCC4* polymorphisms alter the risk of
276 tenofovir-induced kidney toxicity. A study in HIV+ patients found that a 669C>T (rs899494)
277 polymorphism in the *ABCC4* gene was associated with tenofovir-induced kidney toxicity, but
278 this was not found in a subsequent study (Izzedine et al., 2006;Rodriguez-Novoa et al.,
279 2009b). Several additional single nucleotide polymorphisms in *ABCC4* were investigated
280 (559G>T (rs11568658), 912G>T (rs2274407), 951G>T (rs2274406), 969G>A (rs2274405),
281 1497C>T (rs1557070), 3310T>C (rs11568655) and 3348A>G (rs1751034)) but no
282 associations with tenofovir-induced kidney toxicity were found. The *ABCC4* polymorphism
283 4131T>C (rs3742106) has been associated with increased concentrations of tenofovir
284 diphosphate (35% higher than homozygotes for the common allele) in human peripheral
285 blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) 24 hours post-dose (Kiser et al., 2008a). The *ABCC10*
286 efflux transporter is capable of transporting tenofovir in vitro and subsequently
287 polymorphisms of *ABCC10* may influence tenofovir disposition. In patients taking tenofovir
288 therapy, two *ABCC10* polymorphisms (526G>A (rs9349256) and 2843T>C (rs2125739))
289 were associated with kidney toxicity (Pushpakom et al., 2011b) but no replication studies
290 have been conducted.

291

292 *ABCB1* is unlikely to transport tenofovir at the kidney, but the prodrug tenofovir disoproxil
293 fumarate may be influenced by *ABCB1* activity at the intestine (as discussed above). Several
294 *ABCB1* polymorphisms (1236C>T (rs1128503), 2677G>T/A (rs2032582) and 3435C>T
295 (rs1045642)) have been analysed and were found not to be associated with tenofovir-induced
296 kidney toxicity or alteration in tenofovir renal clearance (Izzedine et al., 2006;Rodriguez-
297 Novoa et al., 2009b). Regarding influx transporters, *SLC22A6* polymorphisms 453G>A
298 (rs4149170) and 728G>A (rs11568626) have been analysed and were found not to be

299 associated with kidney toxicity or alteration in tenofovir renal clearance (Kiser et al.,
300 2008b;Rodriguez-Novoa et al., 2009b).

301

302 Pharmacogenetics of relevant drug transporters provides a tool for identifying patients at risk
303 when taking tenofovir. However, pharmacogenetics studies in this context have met with
304 mixed success. Only ABCC2 has shown strong evidence of association with kidney damage
305 phenotypes in patients taking tenofovir. Other associations have been contradicted in further
306 studies, been performed in too few patients to make reliable conclusions or else no replication
307 studies have been attempted. Since non-genetic factors, such as old age, low body weight, co-
308 administered medicines and co-morbidities are important; it seems likely that transporter
309 genetics will not be fully predictive of the toxicity. Further investigations into the actions of
310 drug transporters may improve our understanding of factors controlling tenofovir disposition
311 and elimination. The pharmacogenetics of the nuclear receptors which control expression of
312 certain transporters, such as the pregnane X receptor and the constitutive androstane receptor,
313 may also be relevant factors, as has been shown for other pharmacological phenotypes
314 involving transporters (Owen et al., 2004;Johnson et al., 2008;Martin et al., 2008;Siccardi et
315 al., 2008;Schipani et al., 2010;Wyen et al., 2011).

316

317 **Tenofovir and kidney transporter drug interactions**

318 When co-administered with tenofovir in highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART),
319 ritonavir-boosted protease inhibitors have been shown to increase tenofovir plasma exposure.
320 An increase in tenofovir AUC of 37% and 32% was observed following co-administration of
321 atazanavir and lopinavir, respectively (Tong et al., 2007). Less substantial increases have
322 been observed for co-administered darunavir (22%), and saquinavir (14%). Ritonavir and
323 lopinavir inhibit relevant transporters SLC22A8 and ABCC4 in vitro, and a transporter-

324 mediated drug interaction at the kidney may explain the elevated tenofovir concentrations
325 when using these drugs (Cihlar et al., 2007). Proteinuria, the presence of an excess of serum
326 protein in the urine, is indicative of kidney functional impairment. The co-administration of
327 protease inhibitors with tenofovir increased the frequency of proteinuria development by
328 seven-fold, compared to tenofovir treatment not containing protease inhibitors (Kelly et al.,
329 2013). This is supported by a further publication that showed use of protease inhibitors to be
330 a predictor of tubular toxicity in tenofovir-containing regimens (Calza et al., 2011). The
331 authors hypothesised that the causes of this association include ritonavir-driven inhibition of
332 enzymes involved in tenofovir elimination from the kidney. However, ritonavir is not known
333 to be involved in affecting metabolism of tenofovir at the kidney, and it seems more likely
334 that ritonavir and other protease inhibitors may inhibit the removal of tenofovir from the
335 kidney proximal tubule cells by inhibiting kidney-expressed transporters, or by preventing
336 tenofovir disoproxil fumarate degradation at the intestine (Tong et al., 2007). Interestingly, a
337 further study by Calza et al found that both the development of proteinuria associated with
338 tenofovir use was more pronounced when co-administered with atazanavir, compared to
339 tenofovir co-administered with lopinavir (Calza et al., 2013). This data is supported by a
340 further study showing lopinavir to have less severe toxicity-associations compared to other
341 atazanavir, when co-administered with tenofovir (Young et al., 2012). These data suggest
342 that, to reduce the occurrence of proteinuria in patients, certain protease inhibitors may be a
343 more suitable addition in a tenofovir-containing regimen.

344

345 Other classes of antiretroviral have led to drug interactions with tenofovir. The co-
346 administration of the integrase inhibitor raltegravir with tenofovir disoproxil fumarate
347 resulted in a moderate increase (49%) in tenofovir AUC (Wenning et al., 2008). This
348 interaction may in part be explained by an interaction involving SLC22A6, as raltegravir is

349 capable of inhibiting SLC22A6 in vitro (Moss et al., 2011). However, the clinical
350 significance of this interaction is unknown. The use of tenofovir disoproxil fumarate with the
351 nucleoside analogue didanosine has been associated with severe side effects, including a
352 reduction in CD4+ cell count, pancreatitis and hyperglycaemia. Tenofovir and didanosine are
353 both nephrotoxic and therefore the interaction may result from the additive toxic effects of
354 both drugs. Additionally, tenofovir is capable of increasing didanosine AUC by 44%, which
355 may involve inhibition of SLC22A6-mediated excretion of didanosine via the kidney (Ray et
356 al., 2004). Due to the severity of the drug interaction, co-administration of tenofovir
357 disoproxil fumarate and didanosine is not recommended.

358

359 In addition to co-administered antiretrovirals, any other drug which has the potential to
360 compete with tenofovir for kidney excretion via drug transporters may alter tenofovir
361 exposure. In a study using HIV patients, co-administration of the non-steroidal anti-
362 inflammatory drug diclofenac with tenofovir led to a high (14.6%) occurrence of acute
363 kidney injury, compared to tenofovir treatment without diclofenac (0%) (Bickel et al., 2013).
364 Diclofenac is an inhibitor of SLC22A6 and ABCC4 and the increased frequency of acute
365 kidney injury in the diclofenac-administered group may be due to inhibition of transporter-
366 associated tenofovir renal excretion (El-Sheikh et al., 2007; Juhasz et al., 2013). However,
367 tenofovir plasma concentrations were not measured in the study and other mechanisms may
368 also be responsible. Further information about drug interactions with tenofovir can be found
369 at the Liverpool drug interactions website (www.HIV-druginteractions.org).

370

371 **Tenofovir alafenamide fumarate**

372 A new prodrug of tenofovir, tenofovir alafenamide fumarate, has been developed which is
373 able to target HIV-susceptible CD4+ cells by selective intracellular hydrolysis by enzymes

374 expressed within these cells. This has led to a greatly reduced dose of tenofovir being
375 required for effective treatment, as the prodrug is relatively stable in plasma (Markowitz et
376 al., 2014;Sax et al., 2014). Tenofovir alafenamide fumarate is not transported by SLC22A6,
377 meaning that concentrations of drug in the kidney are unlikely to be high (Bam et al., 2014).
378 A lower dose and less propensity for concentrating in the kidney suggest that tenofovir
379 alafenamide fumarate is a potential solution to the issues associated with tenofovir disoproxil
380 fumarate. However, it should be noted that the toxicities associated with tenofovir
381 alafenamide fumarate have not been fully investigated in long-term studies. Furthermore,
382 tenofovir disoproxil fumarate is about to enter the generic drugs market, making it potentially
383 more easily available for widespread distribution in developing countries, and the use of the
384 drug in pre-exposure prophylaxis trials has shown continued success (Bender, 2013). For this
385 to occur successfully, it will still be beneficial for any related renal toxicities to be predictable
386 and preferably avoidable.

387

388 **The emerging role of kidney transporters for other drugs.**

389 Clinically relevant renal drug interactions are rare, but drug transporters are believed to be
390 involved in the majority of reported cases. A well-established inhibitor of anionic transporters
391 is probenecid, which has been used to enhance the activity of penicillin by inhibiting anionic
392 transporters (SLC22A6 and SLC22A8) in the kidney (Robbins et al., 2012). Subsequently,
393 clinical interactions have been observed between probenecid and other drugs, where reduced
394 renal clearance has been observed for acyclovir (↓32%), cefmetazole (↓40%), cidofovir
395 (↓38%), fexofenadine (↓68%), and oseltamivir (↓52%), following probenecid co-
396 administration (Laskin et al., 1982;Ko et al., 1989;Cundy et al., 1995;Hill et al., 2002;Yasui-
397 Furukori et al., 2005). Metformin is a substrate for SLC22A2 and SLC47A1, and these
398 transporters are believed to be involved in the observed reduction in metformin renal

399 clearance when co-administered with cimetidine (↓27%) (Somogyi et al., 1987;Tsuda et al.,
400 2009). Digoxin is a substrate for ABCB1, and renal clearance of the drug is reduced when co-
401 administered with ABCB1 inhibitors ritonavir (↓35%) and quinidine (↓34%) (Fenster et al.,
402 1980;De Lannoy et al., 1992;Ding et al., 2004).

403

404 There are several nephrotoxic drugs, such as didanosine (Cote et al., 2006), cidofovir (Ortiz
405 et al., 2005), cisplatin (Goren et al., 1986) and adefovir (Izzedine et al., 2009), which cause
406 renal failure by accumulating in proximal tubule cells. In these and other cases, targeted
407 inhibition of cellular uptake may reduce nephrotoxicity risks. An example of this strategy is
408 represented by probenecid (an inhibitor of SLC22A6) being used to minimise concentrations
409 of cidofovir in proximal tubule cells (Ho et al., 2000). Prophylaxis with probenecid can be
410 considered in patients receiving cidofovir who have a baseline creatinine serum level of more
411 than 1.5 mg/dL (Choudhury and Ahmed, 2006).

412

413 **Transporters and the commonly used renal biomarker creatinine**

414 Creatinine is an endogenous waste product of skeletal muscle metabolism and is widely used
415 as a biomarker for renal health. Excretion of creatinine occurs predominantly through
416 glomerular filtration, with proximal tubular secretion accounting for around 15% of total
417 renal clearance. Creatinine is transported into proximal tubule cells by SLC22A7 with a
418 three-fold higher affinity than that seen for transport via SLC22A2 and SLC22A3, and efflux
419 into the proximal lumen occurs via SLC47A1 and SLC47A2 by low affinity high capacity
420 transport (Urakami et al., 2004;Lepist et al., 2014). Baseline serum creatinine concentration
421 in the blood varies depending on multiple factors, as previously described by Goicoechea *et*
422 *al* (Goicoechea et al., 2008). Increase in the serum concentration of creatinine is commonly

423 regarded as an indicator of declining renal health, although serum creatinine concentration
424 has been suggested to poorly represent actual filtration rate (Urakami et al., 2004).

425

426 When glomerular filtration rate is low, the serum creatinine concentration and creatinine
427 clearance rate are higher than the actual glomerular filtration rate (Urakami et al., 2004) and
428 this is due to proximal tubule cells secreting creatinine into the tubular lumen. In this
429 circumstance it may be necessary to measure serum creatinine concentrations alongside
430 creatinine clearance to estimate filtration rate in the glomerulus more accurately. Estimated
431 glomerular filtration rate can be calculated through several predictive equations, the most
432 clinically useful being the Cockcroft-Gault and the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease
433 (MDRD) equation (Robertshaw et al., 1989;Estrella and Fine, 2010). Both of these equations
434 are known to have diminished precision at higher glomerular filtration rates (Estrella and
435 Fine, 2010). The site of tenofovir toxicity is believed to be the mitochondria of proximal
436 tubule cells and is achieved by inhibition of mitochondrial DNA polymerase γ (Pushpakom et
437 al., 2011a). This toxicity can produce both acute and chronic kidney injury and, less
438 commonly, Fanconi syndrome defined as tubular proteinuria, aminoaciduria, phosphaturia,
439 glycosuria, and bicarbonate wasting (Fernandez-Fernandez et al., 2011a;Hall et al., 2011b).
440 The effect of tenofovir on creatinine concentration is generally reversible once the tenofovir
441 regimen has ended, but for actual tenofovir-induced kidney tubule dysfunction this is not
442 necessarily the case and therefore the distinction between these scenarios is essential in
443 patients taking tenofovir disoproxil fumarate as part of HAART (Gupta et al., 2014;Solomon
444 et al., 2014). Appropriate screening for abnormal proximal tubule function is necessary
445 throughout a tenofovir regimen and this is achieved through calculating the retinol binding
446 protein to creatinine ratio, a widely used reliable marker for proximal tubule damage
447 (Bernard et al., 1987;Hall et al., 2011b;Del Palacio et al., 2012).

448

449 Studies investigating the relationship between tenofovir exposure and kidney function have
450 produced mixed results (Hall et al., 2011b). Overall, tenofovir is not believed to produce
451 glomerular toxicity (Hall et al., 2011b). As creatinine is only excreted by proximal tubule
452 cells to a small degree, a modest decline in estimated glomerular filtration rate may be
453 observed in tubule toxicity. In the case of tenofovir, creatinine is unlikely to be an adequate
454 indicator of renal toxicity and may provide a false positive for reduced glomerular filtration.
455 Further investigation is required in order to elucidate the mechanism of this
456 tenofovir/creatinine interaction.

457

458 Multiple drugs have been reported to alter estimated glomerular filtration rate with minimal
459 evidence of actual kidney damage (Berglund et al., 1975;Van Acker et al., 1992;Lepist et al.,
460 2014). The second generation integrase inhibitor dolutegravir and the pharmacological
461 booster cobicistat are two examples with well-characterised mechanisms of creatinine
462 transporter inhibition in the proximal tubule. Cobicistat inhibits SLC47A1 and dolutegravir
463 inhibits SLC22A2, which both transport creatinine through to the proximal lumen (German et
464 al., 2012;Koteff et al., 2013;Lepist et al., 2014).

465

466 **Emerging biomarkers for kidney function**

467 The contribution of transporter-interaction to the apparent unreliability of creatinine as a
468 biomarker for kidney damage necessitates further research for more appropriate biomarkers.

469 Greater precedence has been given to the development of novel biomarkers with the aim of
470 identifying those that can detect acute kidney injury and progression to chronic kidney
471 damage. To avoid similar issues to those previously discussed with creatinine it is imperative
472 that these biomarkers do not interact with kidney transporters, and this will aid successful

473 intervention before permanent damage to the kidneys occurs. Although no consensus has yet
474 been reached, promising novel biomarkers include cystatin C, asymmetric dimethyl arginine,
475 neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin and KIM-1 amongst others (Table 3) (Han et al.,
476 2002;Herget-Rosenthal et al., 2004;Devarajan, 2008;Estrella and Fine, 2010;Fassett et al.,
477 2011;Schwedhelm and Böger, 2011;de Geus et al., 2012). Asymmetric dimethyl arginine has
478 a relatively low molecular weight compared to the other biomarker in Table 3, and similarly
479 to creatinine is showing affinity for transporters involved in drug interactions. The
480 biomarkers in Table 3 with large molecular weights are unlikely to be a substrate for drug
481 transporters. However, transport of albumin via the megalin/cubilin system is the topic of
482 current research, as albumin elevation in plasma has been associated with damage to
483 proximal tubule cells (Dickson et al., 2014).

484

485 **Data for other transporters with putative renal importance**

486 As our understanding of drug transporters improves, it is becoming clear that transporters can
487 play an important role in disease development. Experiments with transgenic mice have shown
488 that genetic knockdown of transporters can cause numerous kidney-related morbidities,
489 developmental abnormalities and even death (Table 4). Genetic associations with disease
490 traits (in the absence of drugs) can also be useful for defining mechanisms. The genetics of
491 hyperuricaemia and gout is known to involve transporters expressed in the proximal tubule
492 cells. In 2002 genetic variants in SLC22A12 were found to predict occurrence of gout, and
493 this association was joined by further transporters in 2007 (SLC2A9), 2008 (ABCG2,
494 SLC17A3, SLC17A1, SLC16A9, SLC22A11), and 2011 (SLC2A12) (Reginato et al., 2012).
495 Understanding that multiple transporters are usually involved in the movement of a drug
496 through the proximal tubule, it can be misleading or even counterproductive to focus on
497 individual transporters in order to discover the “major” players in the elimination of the drug

498 for future pharmacogenetic and interaction studies. There is limited understanding of how
499 kidney transporter expression and activity differ between men and women (Morris et al.,
500 2003), and in special populations, such as in specific disease groups (Lalande et al., 2014),
501 paediatrics (Shen et al., 2001) and geriatrics, and this area requires further investigation.

502

503 **Conclusion: perspectives on transporters in the kidney**

504 Despite showing a favourable toxicity profile in initial treatment, the long term use of
505 tenofovir disoproxil fumarate in HIV therapy is currently under question by practitioners and
506 researchers (Fernandez-Fernandez et al., 2011b). Large-scale and long-term studies are
507 continuing to appear which suggest an association between tenofovir use and kidney damage.
508 Despite this, tenofovir is included in first-line therapy for both treatment naive and
509 experienced patients as it is very effective at reducing and controlling HIV replication in
510 patients. Because of this, and due to the life-long nature of antiretroviral therapy, it is
511 essential that a reliable strategy be developed to detect and preferably avoid tenofovir-
512 associated kidney toxicity. It is clear from the summarised evidence that tenofovir plasma
513 concentrations are linked to renal toxicity, and it is also clear that drug transporters,
514 particularly those expressed in the kidney, are able to influence the clearance rate of tenofovir
515 (Figure 1) and also interfere with the utility of creatinine clearance as a biomarker.

516

517 When looked at more broadly, for the majority of drugs the potential for clinically relevant
518 renal transporter-mediated drug interactions is low, and reported cases are limited. Renal
519 excretion of drugs may be achieved by glomerular filtration as well as tubular secretion, and
520 transporters are only likely to be influential in drug elimination when tubular secretion is the
521 major pathway. Additionally, transporters in the kidney often show overlapping substrate
522 affinity (see Table 2) and therefore the inhibition of a single transporter may not produce

523 significant alterations in drug elimination in vivo. However, in certain cases the actions of
524 transporters in the kidney can have clinical implications, as emphasised with tenofovir.

525

526 Despite decades of research into drug transporters, the recommendations for drug interaction
527 studies provided by the FDA and EMA include testing strategies for only a small fraction of
528 the total expressed transporters in the human body (Table 1) and it is unknown whether
529 transporter-associated drug interactions in the kidney will obtain the same relevance as seen
530 with drug metabolising enzymes and transporters in the intestine and liver. As the
531 investigations into tenofovir elimination have emphasised, determination of the actions of
532 individual transporters in drug elimination from the kidney, even when found to be relevant
533 in vitro, often may not be clinically implementable, as drugs are often substrates for several
534 transporters. Indeed, multiple transporters and metabolism enzymes, as well as other
535 biological and drug-specific factors, work in concert to determine the overall disposition of a
536 drug. This should be taken into consideration in future drug development strategies with the
537 use of improved in vitro methodologies and the introduction of predictive physiologically
538 based in silico modelling.

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543

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556

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1129 **Figure legends**

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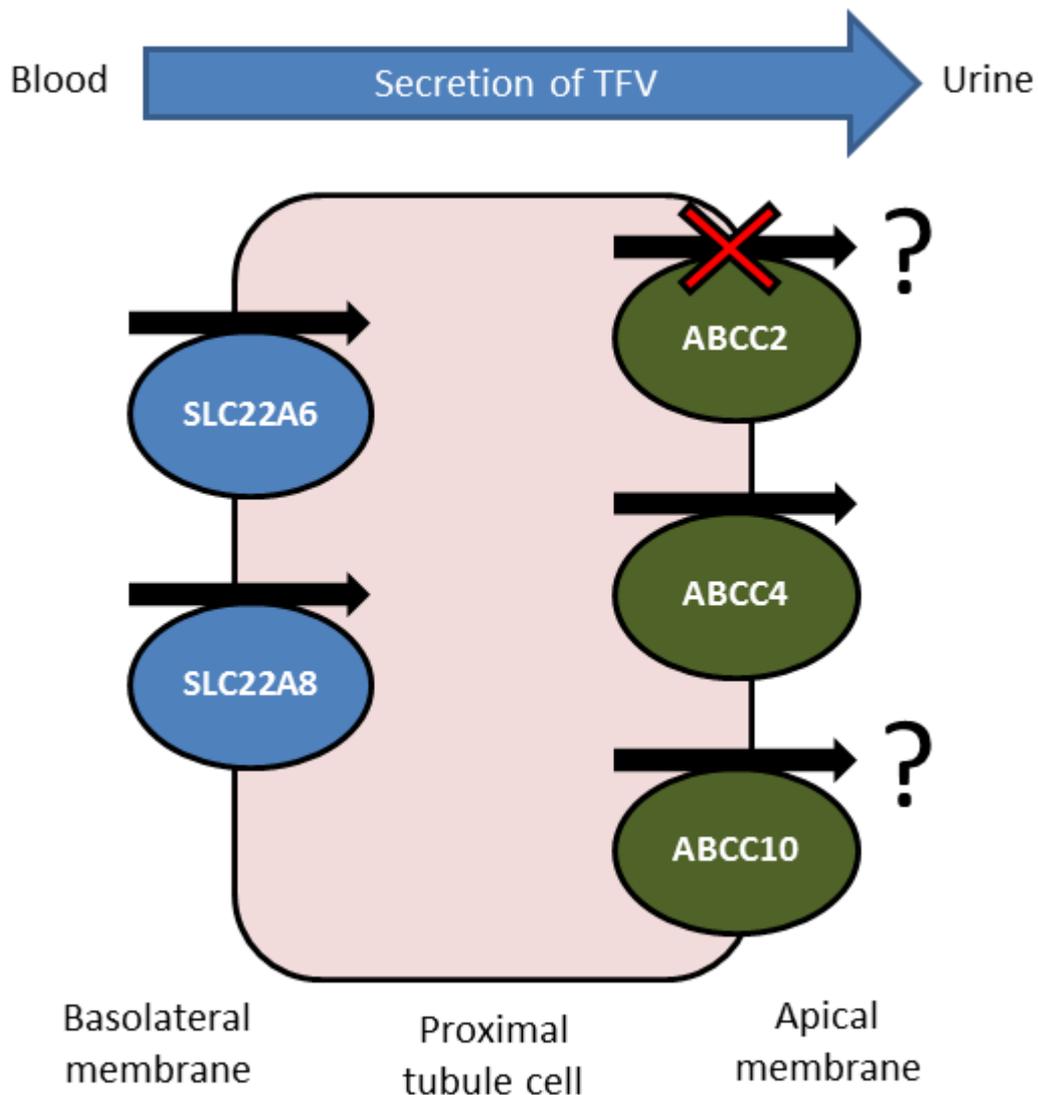
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1149 Figure 1. Confirmed and potential transporters involved in active tubular secretion of
 1150 tenofovir into urine. Tenofovir is removed from the circulating blood and enters the proximal
 1151 tubule cells by the actions of basolaterally-expressed SLC22A6 and, to a lesser extent,
 1152 SLC22A8. Tenofovir is then removed into the tubular lumen by apically-expressed ABCC4.
 1153 ABCC2 does not transport tenofovir in vitro but pharmacogenetics suggests ABCC2 has a role
 1154 in tenofovir-induced renal toxicity. The orientation of ABCC10 in proximal tubule cells is
 1155 unknown, but in vitro and pharmacogenetic data suggest that expression may be localised to
 1156 the apical membrane, facilitating tenofovir secretion.

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1159 **Tables**

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	Transporter	Other name	Inhibition studies		Substrate studies	
			EMA	FDA	EMA	FDA
Efflux	ABCB1	P-gp	Yes	Yes	Consider	Yes
	ABCG2	BCRP	Yes	Yes	Consider	Yes
	ABCB11	BSEP	Preferred	Consider	Consider	Consider
	ABCCs	MRPs	No	Consider	Consider	Consider
Uptake	SLC22A6	OAT1	Yes	Yes	Consider	If >25% active renal secretion
	SLC22A8	OAT3	Yes	Yes	Consider	If >25% active renal secretion
	SLCO1B1	OATP1B1	Yes	Yes	If >25% clearance is hepatic	If >25% clearance is hepatic or biliary
	SLCO1B3	OATP1B3	Yes	Yes	If >25% clearance is hepatic	If >25% clearance is hepatic or biliary
	SLC22A1	OCT1	Consider	No	Consider	No
	SLC22A2	OCT2	Yes	Yes	Consider	If >25% active renal secretion
	SLC47A1	MATE1	Consider	Consider	Consider	Consider
	SLC47A2	MATE2K	Consider	Consider	Consider	Consider

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1163 Table 1. Recommendations for drug transporter testing as outlined in the EMA Guideline on

1164 Investigation of Drug Interactions, July 2012, and the FDA Draft Guidance on Drug

1165 Interaction Studies, February 2012.

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	Transporter	Other names	Expression	Substrates
Cationic transporters	SLC22A1	OCT1	Basolateral (influx)	Prostaglandin E2, choline , morphine, tetraethyl ammonium, metformin, aciclovir, lamivudine
	SLC22A2	OCT2	Basolateral (influx)	Creatinine, dopamine, histamine, prostaglandin E2 , tetraethyl ammonium, pancuronium, MPP, lamivudine
	SLC22A3	OCT3	Basolateral (influx)	5-HT, noradrenaline, dopamine , quinidine, tetraethyl ammonium, MPP
	SLC47A1	MATE1	Apical (efflux)	Creatinine, thiamine , cimetidine, quinidine, paraquat, cephradine, cephalexin
	SLC47A2	MATE2K	Apical (efflux)	Creatinine, thiamine , cimetidine, MPP, metformin, aciclovir
Anionic transporters	SLC22A6	OAT1	Basolateral (influx)	Amminohippuric acid, estrone sulphate , raltegravir, tenofovir, zidovudine
	SLC22A7	OAT2	Basolateral (influx)	Amminohippuric acid, prostaglandin E2, estrone sulphate , paclitaxel, 5-fluorouracil, allopurinol, zidovudine
	SLC22A8	OAT3	Basolateral (influx)	Amminohippuric acid, estrone sulphate , raltegravir, tenofovir, zidovudine
	SLC22A11	OAT4	Apical (bidirectional)	Dehydroepiandrosterone, estrone sulphate, uric acid , zidovudine
	SLC22A12	URAT1	Apical (bidirectional)	Uric acid, orotic acid
	SLCO4C1	OATP4C1	Basolateral (influx)	Steroid conjugates, thyroid hormones , digoxin, ouabain, penicillin
Other transporters	SLC15A1	PEPT1	Apical (influx)	Oligopeptides , cyclacillin, valacyclovir, cefadroxil
	SLC15A2	PEPT2	Apical (influx)	Oligopeptides , beta-lactam antibiotics, fosinopril
	SLC28A1	CNT1	Apical (efflux)	Nucleosides , ribavirin, gemcitabine, zidovudine, zalcitabine
	SLC28A2	CNT2	Apical (efflux)	Nucleosides , didanosine, cytidine
	SLC28A3	CNT3	Apical (efflux)	Nucleosides , zidovudine, zalcitabine, didanosine
	SLC29A1	ENT1	Basolateral (bidirectional)	Nucleosides , ribavirine, 2',3'-Dideoxyinosine
	SLC29A2	ENT2	Basolateral (bidirectional)	Nucleosides , 2',3'-Dideoxyinosine
ABC transporters	ABCB1	P-gp	Apical (efflux)	Steroids, lipids, bilirubin, bile acids , digoxin, doxorubicin, maraviroc, HIV protease inhibitors
	ABCC1	MRP1	Basolateral (efflux)	Prostaglandins, folic acid, bilirubin , anticancer drugs, HIV protease inhibitors
	ABCC2	MRP2	Apical (efflux)	Bilirubin, estradiol glucuronide, estrone sulphate , methotrexate, etoposide, valsartan, HIV protease inhibitors
	ABCC3	MRP3	Basolateral (efflux)	Bile salts, estradiol glucuronide , anticancer drugs
	ABCC4	MRP4	Apical (efflux)	Taurocholic acid, cAMP, cGMP, urate, prostaglandins , methotrexate, furosemide
	ABCC6	MRP6	Basolateral (efflux)	Anticancer drugs?

	ABCC10	MRP7	Unknown	Estradiol glucuronide , acitaxel, tariquidar, tenofovir, nevirapine
	ABCG2	BCRP	Apical (efflux)	Estrone sulphate, porphyrins , anticancer drugs, conjugated organic anions

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1173 Table 2. Drug transporting proteins expressed in the proximal tubule cells of the kidney.

1174 Endogenous substrates are in bold. Substrates list is not comprehensive, and examples are
 1175 given.

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Biomarker	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Nephron segment	Kidney transporter interaction	FDA approved ¹
Creatinine	113	Glomerulus	SLC22A2 SLC22A3 SLC47A1 SLC47A2	Yes
ADMA	202.5	Non-specific	SLC22A2 SLC47A1	No
TFF3	6600	Glomerulus Proximal tubule	No	No
β2-Microglobulin	11,800	Glomerulus and Proximal tubule	No	No
Cystatin C	13,300	Glomerulus and proximal tubule	No	No
NGAL	25,000	Proximal tubule and Distal tubule	No	No
KIM-1	30,000	Proximal tubule	No	No
Clusterin	75-80,000	Proximal tubule and distal tubule	No	No

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1195 Table 3: Comparison of creatinine with novel biomarkers associated with nephrotoxicity.

1196 ¹FDA approval defined as approved for use in clinical setting. ADMA: Asymmetric dimethyl

1197 arginine; KIM-1: Kidney injury molecule 1; NGAL: Neutrophil gelatinase associated

1198 lipocalin; TFF3: Trefoil Factor 3.

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Transporter	Other names	Effects of genetic knockdown of transporter	Reference
Abca1	Abc1	Devoid of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, reduction in serum cholesterol and membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis.	(Christiansen-Weber et al., 2000)
Slc13a1	NaSi-1	Serum sulfate concentration reduced by 75%. Growth retardation and reduced fertility observed.	(Dawson et al., 2003)
Slc14a2	UT-A	Deletion of UT-A1/UT-A3 resulted in polyuria and a severe urine concentrating defect.	(Fenton et al., 2004)
Slc15a2	Pept2	Two-fold increase in renal glycylsarcosine clearance resulting in lower systemic concentrations.	(Ocheltree et al., 2005)
Slc16a2	Mct8	General hyperthyroid state of the kidneys.	(Trajkovic-Arsic et al., 2010)
Slc22a12	URAT1	Decreased reabsorption of urate.	(Eraly et al., 2008)
Slc22a1	Oct1	Combined knockout of Slc22a1 and Slc22a2 abolished renal secretion of organic cation tetraethyl ammonium.	(Jonker et al., 2003)
Slc22a2	Oct2	Combined knockout of Slc22a1 and Slc22a2 abolished renal secretion of tetraethyl ammonium.	(Jonker et al., 2003)
Slc22a6	Oat1	Profound decrease in renal excretion of organic anions (e.g. para-aminohippurate).	(Eraly et al., 2006)
Slc22a8	Oat3	Decreased secretion of urate.	(Eraly et al., 2008)
SLC26A1	Sat1	Hyperoxaluria with hyperoxalemia, nephrocalcinosis, and calcium oxalate stones in renal tubules and bladder.	(Dawson et al., 2010)
Slc26a4	Pendrin	Acidic urine and increased urine calcium excretion.	(Barone et al., 2012)
Slc26a6	Pat1	Increased renal succinate uptake, hyperoxaluria and hypocitraturia.	(Ohana et al., 2013)
Slc26a7	SUT2	Distal renal tubular acidosis manifested by metabolic acidosis and alkaline urine pH	(Xu et al., 2009)
Slc2a9	Glut9	Moderate hyperuricemia, severe hyperuricosuria, and an early-onset nephropathy.	(Preitner et al., 2009)
Slc34a1	Npt2b	Npt2b(-/-) lethal and Npt2b(+/-) showed hypophosphatemia and low urinary P(i) excretion.	(Ohi et al., 2011)
Slc42a3	Rhcg	Urinary ammonia excretion lower and more susceptible to metabolic acidosis.	(Lee et al., 2009)
Slc4a8	ENaC	Disrupted fluid homeostasis.	(Leviel et al., 2010)
Slc5a12	SMCT2	Combined knockout of SLC5A8 and SLC5A12 (c/ebpdelta-/- mice) results in marked increase in urinary excretion of lactate and urate.	(Thangaraju et al., 2006)
Slc5a2	Sglt2	Glucosuria, polyuria, and increased food and fluid intake.	(Vallon et al., 2011)
Slc5a8	SMCT	Combined knockout of SLC5A8 and SLC5A12 (c/ebpdelta-/- mice) results in marked increase in urinary excretion of lactate and urate.	(Thangaraju et al., 2006)

Slc6a18	Xtrp2	Higher glycine excretion and higher systolic blood pressure.	(Quan et al., 2004)
Slc7a8	LAT2	Increased urinary loss of small neutral amino acids.	(Braun et al., 2011)
Slc7a9	BAT1	Develop a cystinuria-like phenotype with hyperexcretion of cystine and dibasic amino acids	(Feliubadalo et al., 2003)
Slc9a3	NHE3	Diarrhoea and blood acidosis. HCO ₃ ⁻ and fluid absorption are reduced in proximal convoluted tubules.	(Schultheis et al., 1998)

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1207 Table 4. The effects of genetic knockdown of kidney transporters in transgenic mice.

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