1 N-acetyltransferase 2 genotypes amongst Zulu Speaking South Africans and isoniazid / N-

2 acetyl-isoniazid pharmacokinetics during anti-tuberculosis treatment

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- 20 pharmacogenomics, drug metabolism
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29 Abstract

30 Background: Distribution of *N-acetyltransferase2* (*NAT2*) polymorphisms varies considerably 31 among different ethnic groups. Information on *NAT2* single-nucleotide polymorphisms in South 32 African population is limited. We investigated *NAT2* polymorphisms and their effect on 33 isoniazid pharmacokinetics in Zulu black HIV-infected South Africans in Durban, South Africa.

Methods: HIV-infected participants with culture-confirmed pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) were enrolled from two unrelated studies. Culture-confirmed participants were genotyped for *NAT2* polymorphisms 282C>T, 341T>C, 481C>T, 857G>A, 590G>A and 803A>G using Life Technologies pre-validated Taqman assays (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). Participants underwent sampling for determination of plasma isoniazid and *N*-acetylisoniazid concentrations.

39 Results: Amongst the 120 patients, 63/120 (52.5%) were slow metabolisers (NAT2*5/*5), 40 43/120 (35.8%) had intermediate (NAT2*5/12), and 12/120 (11.7%) had rapid genotype 41 (NAT2*4/*11, NAT2*11/12 and NAT2*12/12). NAT2 alleles in this study were *4, *5C, *5D, *5E, 42 *5J, *5K, *5KA, *5T, *11A, *12A/12C and *12M. NAT2*5 was the most frequent allele (70.4%) 43 followed by NAT2*12 (27.9%). 34/40 had both PK results and NAT2 genotyping results. The median area under the concentration-time-curve to infinity $(AUC_{0-\infty})$ interquartile range (IQR) 44 45 was 7.81 (5.87 – 16.83) μ g/ml/hr and maximum concentration (Cmax) 3.14 μ g/ml (2.42 – 4.36) 46 µg/mL. Individual polymorphisms were not equally distributed, with some represented in small 47 numbers. Genotype did not correlate with phenotype, rapid genotype showing higher AUC_{0- ∞} 48 than slow but not significant, p=0.43.

49 Conclusion: There was high prevalence of slow followed by intermediate then rapid acetylator 50 genotypes. The poor concordance between genotype and phenotype suggests that other 51 factors or genetic loci influence INH metabolism, and warrants further investigation in this 52 population.

54 Introduction:

55 Tuberculosis (TB) remains a leading cause of global morbidity and mortality, with approximately 56 10 million cases and 1.5 million deaths in 2018 (1). South Africa is a high TB burden country 57 with an estimated 301,000 cases in 2018. The so-called 'short-course' treatment regimen recommended in international guidelines; consisting of 6 months of rifampicin and isoniazid, 58 59 supplemented by pyrazinamide and ethambutol in the first 2 months, has remained largely 60 unchanged for several decades. Whilst this regimen can achieve high relapse-free cure rates, a range of host and mycobacterial factors can influence treatment outcomes. There is increasing 61 62 evidence that inter-individual variability in the pharmacokinetics (PK) of drugs within this 63 regimen lead to heterogeneity in clinical outcomes(2, 3).

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65 Pharmacogenomics describes one cause of PK variability due to polymorphisms in drug metabolising enzymes and transporters. During TB treatment, isoniazid is the paradigmatic 66 67 case. Isoniazid is acetylated to its major metabolite, N-acetyl-isoniazid (AcINH), by the action of hepatic N-acetyltransferase 2 (NAT2). ACINH is subsequently rapidly hydrolysed to acetyl-68 69 hydrazine, which is also acetylated, to diacetyl-hydrazine, by the action of NAT2(4). 70 Accumulated acetyl-hydrazine can be oxidised to form other, potentially hepatotoxic 71 metabolites(4-6). Moreover, accumulated isoniazid can be metabolised by an alternative 72 pathway where it is first hydrolysed to hydrazine, which has also been implicated in liver injury, 73 before acetylation to acetyl-hydrazine, again by NAT2(4, 7). Hence, the activity of NAT2 both 74 dictates metabolism of isoniazid, and determines the availability of potentially hepatoxic 75 hydrazine and acetyl-hydrazine metabolites. Within the 870-base pair NAT2 gene, a number of 76 low-activity single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been characterised. The NAT2 77 genotype has been shown to determine the rate of acetylation by NAT2 in several 78 populations(8). Individuals homozygous for the wild-type alleles are characterised as 'rapid' 79 acetylators (RAs), those homozygous for low-activity SNPs as 'slow' acetylators (SAs) and 80 heterozygotes as 'intermediate' acetylators (IAs)(9-13). SAs have a higher incidence of side-81 effects, particularly drug-induced hepatitis, during TB therapy, presumably due to higher levels 82 of hepatoxic metabolites (14-20). Amongst the first-line TB drugs isoniazid has the greatest

early bactericidal activity (EBA) and isoniazid PK parameters have been associated with rates of
cure, sterilisation and acquired drug resistance(3, 21-27). A link between rapid acetylation and
increased risk of poor treatment outcomes has been reported (28, 29).

86

87 NAT2 genotype is known to differ amongst ethnic groups; with approximately 40-70% of 88 Caucasians, Indians and African Americans characterised as SAs, versus only around 10% of 89 Asian populations (30-42). NAT2 genotype is not well characterised in the communities where 90 TB is most prevalent, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa has several black ethnic 91 groups and few have been studied (43-45). Bach et al characterised 40% of a Zulu population as 92 phenotypically slow acetylators but these findings have not been replicated, or informed by 93 genotypic analysis(44). Moreover, South Africa has a high HIV prevalence and discordant 94 relationships between NAT2 genotype and isoniazid acetylator phenotype have been described 95 amongst individuals living with HIV in other settings(46, 47).

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We therefore characterised the relationship between *NAT2* genotype, isoniazid and AcINH PK
and hepatotoxicity in a cohort of TB-HIV coinfected individuals in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal, South
Africa.

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102 Methods:

103 Participants, study treatment and sample collection

104 Participants from two unrelated PK studies were included(48, 49). Both studies recruited black, 105 Zulu-speaking adults living with HIV from KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, between March 2007 106 and April 2010. Study 1 entitled "Bioavailability of the fixed dose formulation Rifafour 107 containing isoniazid, rifampicin pyrazinamide, ethambutol and the WHO recommended first 108 line anti-retroviral drugs zidovudine, lamivudine, efavirenz administered to new TB patients at 109 different levels of immunosuppression.". The results of this study have been previously 110 reported (49). As shown in Table 2, for the purposes of this analysis, we used samples collected 111 on day 1 of the study after an overnight fast, at pre-dose, 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 12 hours post dose, with samples analysed for INH and AcINH for 60 participants with microbiologically proven pulmonary TB (positive sputum culture or smear) who received a standard first line TB regimen consisting of a FDC as described above . The INH dose was 150 mg, 225 mg, 300 mg and 375 mg per day for participants with weight 30 -37 kg, 38– 54 kg, 55 – 70 kg, and 70 kg and above, respectively, as per WHO guidelines(50). Each participant had blood collected on a paxgene tube for NAT2 genotyping. In addition, genotyping was performed on a further 20 participants without TB who were recruited to this study (49).

119

120 Study 2, entitled "Pharmacokinetics of Rifabutin Combined with Antiretroviral Therapy in the 121 Treatment of Tuberculosis Patients with HIV Infection in South Africa", was a randomised 122 controlled trial of two different rifabutin doses co-administered with lopinavir/ritonavir-based 123 antiretroviral therapy (51, 52). Participants initially received 6 weeks of standard intensive phase treatment, followed by 2 weeks with rifabutin 300mg daily replacing rifampicin. After 2 124 125 weeks of the continuation phase during which participants received only isoniazid and rifabutin 126 (both 300mg daily) PK sampling was carried out. Individuals were fasted overnight, and a 127 standard hospital breakfast served 2 hours after drug ingestion. Sampling was conducted pre-128 dose and at 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 12 and 24 hours after drug intake, with samples analysed for 129 isoniazid and ACINH for 40 participants. NAT2 genotyping was performed on 40 participants 130 with 34 participants having both PK sampling and genotyping.

131

132 All participants receiving anti-TB treatment in both studies were given pyridoxine for peripheral neuropathy prophylaxis and patients with CD4 counts below 200 cells/mm³ received 133 134 cotrimoxazole. No participants were on antiretrovirals at the time of PK sampling. Both studies 135 were approved by the South African Medicines Control Council (SAMCC), Biomedical Research 136 Ethics Committee (BREC) of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Study 1- E294/05; Study 2-137 BFC011/07) and the South African Medical Research Council (SAMRC) ethics committee. Study 138 one was also approved by the WHO Ethics Research Ethics Committee. Written informed 139 consent was obtained from all participants.

141 NAT2 genotype procedures

Total Genomic DNA was isolated from whole blood using the QIAamp DNA mini kit (Qiagen, Crawly, UK) according to manufacturer's instructions. Participants were genotyped, using the DNA Engine Chromo4 system (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and Opticon Monitor v.3.1 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories), for 6 *NAT2* SNPs; 282C>T, 341T>C, 481C>T, 857G>A, 590G>A and 803A>G using Life Technologies pre-validated probe-based Taqman assays as per manufactures instructions (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). Each participant sample was analysed in duplicate.

149

150 Haplotype assignment and acetylator genotype inference

Haplotype assignment from probe-based SNP data is poorly described in African populations. We elected to employ an unbiased PHASE analysis, which takes the dataset as a whole to assign the most likely haplotype for each individual, alongside a probability for this assignment (53, 54). Haplotype for each individual and acetylator genotype for each haplotype were defined as per the *NAT* gene nomenclature committee (55). Individuals with two rapid alleles were defined as RAs, those with two slow alleles as SAs and those with one fast and one slow allele as IAs.

158 Isoniazid and *N-acetyl-*isoniazid PK and phenotype inference

159 Blood samples were collected and placed on ice immediately, before centrifugation within 60 160 minutes, immediate separation and storage of plasma at -70°C until analysis. Concentrations of 161 isoniazid, AcINH and a 6-aminonicotinic acid internal control were quantified using validated 162 high-performance liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS/MS). 163 Sample preparation included a protein precipitation with acetonitrile and subsequent dilution 164 with water. Analytes were chromatographically separated using a Waters Externa C18, 3.5µm, 165 50mm x 2.1mm column and detected using the AB Sciex 5500 Q-Trap mass spectrometer. All 166 analytes were analysed isocratically with an acetonitrile/water/0.1% formic acid mobile phase. 167 Isoniazid, ACINH and the internal standard were analysed at mass transitions of the precursor 168 ions (m/z) 137.9, 180.1 and 138.7 to the product ions (m/z) 66.0, 78.6 and 50.9, respectively. 169 Chromatographic data acquisition, peak integration and quantification of analytes was

170 performed using Analyst[®] software version 1.5.2. We constructed time-concentration curves in 171 the PK package in R for windows (version 3.5.1). We characterised the isoniazid and ACINH PK 172 parameters maximum concentration (C_{max}), time to maximum concentration (T_{max}), area under the concentration curve from zero to infinity $(AUC_{0-\infty})$, apparent oral clearance (CL) and 173 174 elimination half-life and compared C_{max} to published efficacy targets (56). AUC_{0- ∞} was calculated 175 using the trapezoid rule, apparent oral clearance estimated by dose / $AUC_{0-\infty}$ and elimination 176 half-life by regression analysis of log_{10} concentrations of the terminal exponent of elimination. 177 We analysed the ratio of log₁₀ AcINH to log₁₀ isoniazid at two and four hours to assess 178 acetylation phenotype.

179

Sample processing and HPLC-MS was initially conducted in 2010 for Study 1. Samples remained in storage and were later moved to a new storage facility before they were shipped to a different laboratory for determination of isoniazid and AcINH concentrations as above (having previously only had isoniazid concentrations determined). To confirm the Integrity of these samples we compared the isoniazid AUC_{0-∞} of the current analysis with that previously reported on the same samples analysed in 2010.

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187 Statistical methods

All data were entered in Epidata and transferred to either Stata (version 14) or *R* for windows (version 3.5.1) for statistical analysis. Demographic characteristics were presented as frequencies and percentages for categorical variables, and as means with standard deviations for continuous variables. Descriptive PK data was described as median and inter-quartile ranges. C_{max} and AUC_{0-∞} were log-transformed prior to comparison between genotypes. PK parameters were compared, by genotype, using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test or Kruskal–Wallis test.

195

196 Hepatic adverse events

197 Hepatic adverse events were defined as elevated alanine transaminase (ALT) and 198 aspartate transaminase (AST), elevated alkaline phosphatase and elevated total bilirubin,

199 graded as per Division of AIDS toxicity table for grading severity of HIV-positive adult adverse200 events.

- 201
- 202 **Results:**

203 Participant characteristics

204 One hundred and twenty-two individuals living with HIV participating in two PK studies were 205 included in the study. Eighty participants in study 1 were included in the NAT2 genotyping analysis and 60 in the PK analysis (with 58 individuals having both PK and genotype data), while 206 207 40 participants in study 2 were included in the PK analysis and 40 participants included in NAT2 208 genotyping analysis (with 34 individuals having both PK and genotype data). Key characteristics 209 are outlined in table 1. Participants in study 1 included 60 with pulmonary TB and HIV coinfection; 40 with CD4 count >200 cells/mm³ and, 20 with CD4 count <200 cells/mm³ as well as 210 211 20 participants living with HIV and without TB (who contributed only genotype data). All 40 participants in study 2 had TB and HIV coinfection, with a CD4 count of 200 cells/mm³ or below. 212 213 In the combined studies, 66.7% of participants had CD4 counts <200 cells/mm³ and 33.3% had 214 CD4 count >200 cells/mm³. The Median age was 33.1 years (IQR 18-53). Only 15 (12.5%) of patients had a BMI < 18.86 kg/m^2 . 215

216

217 NAT2 genotype and deduced phenotype

218 One hundred and twenty participants (80 from study 1 and 40 from study 2) were genotyped. 219 Allele and haplotype frequencies and deduced phenotypes are outlined in tables 2-5. We 220 identified 12 different alleles in the population. The most common allelic group was *NAT2*5* 221 (70.4%) followed by *NAT2*12* (27.9%). From the *NAT2*5* group *NAT2*5C* (21.3%), *NAT2*5J* 222 (17.5%), *NAT2*5D* (14.6%) and *NAT2*5K* (10.4%) were the most common. The *NAT2*12* group 223 was predominantly *NAT2*12C*. The deduced phenotype was 11.7% rapid, 35.8% intermediate 224 and 52.5% slow.

225

226 Isoniazid and *N-acetyl-*isoniazid PK

As above, to assess sample integrity for Study 1 we compared the AUC_{0- ∞} of the current analysis with that previously reported on the same samples analysed in 2010. The median (IQR) AUC_{0- ∞} was 5.53 (3.63 – 9.12), processed at University of Cape Town (UCT) in 2009 and 5.70 (3.85 – 7.94), processed at Africa Health Research Institute (AHRI) laboratory in 2014, suggesting that the integrity of the samples was maintained for isoniazid, but cannot be confirmed for AcINH.

233 Study 1 showed rapid absorption, with a median (IQR) isoniazid T_{max} of 1 hr(1 -2). Isoniazid 234 exposure was variable amongst individuals with median (IQR) C_{max} 1.47 (1.14 – 1.85) μ g/ml and 235 AUC_{0- ∞} 5.53 (3.63 – 9.12) µg.h/ml. Median (IQR) elimination half-life was relatively slow at 2.27 236 (1.69 – 3.56) h. We compared these isoniazid PK measures to published targets; 98.28% (57/58) 237 failed to attain the minimum 2-hour plasma concentration target of 3 μ g/ml (56). PK 238 parameters by genotype are shown in table 8(A), unexpectedly median half-life was slowest, 239 apparent oral clearance lowest and $AUC_{n-\infty}$ highest amongst genotypically rapid acetylators, 240 with the reverse true for genotypically slow acetylators, although none of these differences was 241 statistically significant. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences by genotype 242 for AcINH C_{max} , elimination half-life or AUC_{0- ∞}. Median isoniazid and AcINH time-concentration 243 curves are given in Figure 1(A).

244

245 Absorption was rapid in Study 2, with a median INH T_{max} of 2 hrs. INH exposure was also 246 variable amongst individuals with median (IQR) C_{max} 3.14 µg/ml (2.39 – 4.34) and AUC_{0-∞} 10.76 247 μ g.hr/ml (8.24 – 28.96 μ g/ml). Median elimination half-life was 2.62hr (2.26 – 4.07). Again, we 248 compared these INH PK measures to published PK targets; 47.5% (19/40) failed to attain the 249 minimum 2-hour plasma concentration target of 3 µg/ml. PK parameters by genotype are 250 shown in table 8(B). For both isoniazid and AcINH and across the PK parameters; C_{max}, AUC_{0-∞} 251 and elimination half-life, variability (both range and IQR) were increased amongst those 252 genotyped as SAs. Again however, there were no statistically significant differences between 253 these PK parameters by genotype. Median isoniazid and AcINH time-concentration curves are 254 given in Figure 1(B).

For both studies we calculated the log₁₀ AcINH: log₁₀ isoniazid ratio, as a measure of acetylation, at two and four hours post-dose and analysed this ratio by genotype (figure 2 & 3). In both studies we saw no statistically significant difference in ratios between genotypes at either two or four hours. In Study 2 we again saw increased variability in this metric amongst those genotyped as SAs.

261

262 Hepatic adverse events

263 There were no grade 3 and 4 hepatic adverse events in Study 1 and only 1 grade 4 hepatic

event was reported from the only participant with rapid genotype in Study 2. Although there

were more grade 1 hepatic adverse events among the slow genotype participants, as shown in

table 9, the difference was not statistically significant between genotypes; p=0.203 in Study 1,

and 0.276 in Study 2.

268

269 **Discussion**:

270 We investigated the NAT2 genotype, isoniazid and ACINH PK of black Zulu South Africans living 271 with HIV from Durban and surrounding areas. We found that most individuals were of SA 272 (52.5%) or IA (35.8%) genotype, with only a small number of RA genotype (11.7%). The 273 proportions of the deduced acetylator phenotypes in our population was broadly similar to 274 other African and Caucasian populations (36, 43, 57, 58) but differed from those previously 275 reported from within other black ethnic groups within Southern Africa. For example, Werely et 276 al found that IA genotypes dominated in the Xhosa cohort, with SAs only 30% (45). Our results 277 were comparable to a recent Study by Naidoo et al. in patients from the same geographic area 278 reported 34% SA, 43% IA and 18% RA (59).

279

There was a high prevalence of the *NAT2*5* allelic group in our population, accounting for the slow acetylator genotype. In well studied Caucasian and Asian populations, four variants; *NAT2*4* (wild type, rapid), *NAT2*5B*, *NAT2*6A*, and *NAT2*7B* (all slow), account for most *NAT2* alleles. In Asian populations there are generally a higher proportion of wild type *NAT2*4* alleles and few *NAT2*5B* alleles, and this difference largely accounts for the much lower prevalence of 285 RAs in non-Asian populations. Consistent with other studies in Sub-Saharan African populations, 286 the wild-type NAT*4 allele was far less prevalent and variant alleles were far more diverse in 287 our Study. In our population, the NAT2*5B allele was relatively rare in comparison to two 288 studies in the black population from Western Cape and North West Province. (45, 60). 289 However, in contrast to these populations, there were a diversity of other NAT2*5 alleles, 290 including a much higher prevalence of the rare NAT2*5J allele (17.5%) and the poorly 291 characterised NAT2*5K allele (10.4%). The NAT2*6A and NAT2*7B alleles, common in 292 Caucasian and Asian populations, were not seen in our cohort. In Caucasian and Asian 293 populations, rapid NAT2*12 alleles are rarely seen, where as in populations in sub-Saharan 294 Africa the NAT2*12A allele is reported at much higher frequencies(35). In our Study the 295 *NAT2*12A* allele did indeed comprise 5.8% of alleles seen but we saw a much higher frequency 296 of the NAT2*12C allele (21.2%), in contrast to other Southern African cohorts(10, 45, 60, 61).

297

Isoniazid C_{max} and $AUC_{0-\infty}$ demonstrated considerable variability between individuals in both studies and almost all participants in Study 1 and almost half of the participants in Study 2 had a C_{max} below the lower limit of the target range(56). Low isoniazid concentrations during TB treatment are concerning because it is postulated they may lead to poorer treatment outcomes, or the generation of isoniazid resistance, the likely first step in the evolution of multi-drug resistant TB (MDR TB). However, the evidence for either of these concerns is mixed and in this setting the prevalence of INH mono-resistance is relatively low.

305

306 There was a marked difference in PK measures between the two studies analysed, with Study 1 307 having much lower measures than Study 2. There are several reasons that could have 308 contributed to this difference. The difference in isoniazid dosing could explain the lower PK 309 measures, where Study 1 used the FDC dosing as per WHO recommended weight bands, 310 leading to almost half the participants receiving doses <300 mg, as previously reported(49). All 311 participants in Study 2 received 300 mg doses of isoniazid irrespective of weight. Although the 312 samples of Study 1 did not appear to deteriorate during the 5 years between first analysis and 313 subsequent analyses for this study, differences in processing and storage between the studies

314 cannot be excluded. Figure 3 shows the INH and AcINH at different time points. Based on this, 315 the phenotype of the study participants is generally more intermediate/rapid than what the 316 predominant slow genotype suggests, which is in contrast to other studies reporting HIV 317 patients having a tendency towards slow phenotype (62).

318

319 We identified no statistically significant difference by NAT2 genotype in a variety of PK 320 measures, hence in this cohort we found poor correlation between NAT2 genotype and 321 phenotypic acetylation of isoniazid. Previous studies in other populations have shown good 322 correlation between NAT2 genotype and isoniazid PK, suggesting that NAT2 genotyping could 323 be used as a parsimonious way to risk-stratify patients and personalise dosing of isoniazid in an 324 attempt to maximise efficacy whilst minimising toxicity. There are significant practical 325 difficulties to implementing these approaches in this setting, but our data suggest that in this 326 population NAT2 genotyping will not be helpful in guiding TB therapy. A lack of concordance 327 between genotypic and phenotypic measures of INH acetylation has been reported previously 328 in HIV positive cohorts (63) (64). It is likely that in this cohort, as in others, other non-genetic 329 factors are more or equally important than NAT2 genotype. Jones et al found that infection 330 with HIV or stage of HIV infection may alter Phase I and II drug metabolising enzyme (DME) 331 activity in their study on 17 HIV infected participants at different levels of immunosuppression 332 (65). They found that HIV infection was related to an increase in variability of these DMEs. 333 Whilst additional pathways, aside from NAT2 genotype, have been implicated in hepatotoxicity 334 of isoniazid-containing TB treatment regimens, it is not clear that these pathways alter isoniazid 335 PK and thus could account for the lack of genotypic and phenotypic concordance in this study.

336

Although there were more hepatic adverse events among the SA, there was no statistical association between genotype and hepatotoxicity in the two studies, with only 1 patient who was a RA having a grade 4 hepatic adverse event and 2 others who were IA having grade 3 hepatic adverse events.

341

342 In our study, participants received pyridoxine and cotrimoxazole with the ATT in Study 2, but 343 not in Study 1 as we used the samples collected on day 1 for this analysis when only ATT was 344 given. As both INH and sulfamethoxazole are inhibitors of CYP2C9, this could be one of the 345 reasons for the variations noted. INH also inhibits CYP3A4, which is induced by rifampicin, this 346 interaction has not proven significant except when it relates to hepatotoxicity (66, 67). That the 347 combination of INH and rifampicin leads to an increased risk of hepatotoxicity, has been 348 reported in other studies. In our Study 2, isoniazid was given with Rifabutin which is a less 349 potent hepatic enzyme inducer, which therefore should have less interaction with INH (68). 350 Considering the limited effect on hepatotoxicity, the effect of CYP2E1 was not evident in our 351 study. We cannot confirm or exclude the effect of these CYP450 enzymes on INH metabolism in 352 these participants.

353

In our study samples were stored at -80[°] Celsius and loss of compound due to storage would have been minimal (69), although studies have not reported on plasma samples stored longer than 5 weeks, nor sample integrity for the metabolite, AcINH.

357

358 Conclusion

Amongst black Zulu TB-HIV coinfected South African patients, most had slow or intermediate NAT2 genotype. There was a diversity of specific NAT2 alleles of a pattern differing from previously studied cohorts in other settings. Despite the rarity of rapid acetylator genotypes, INH PK was variable and a substantial proportion of individuals failed to attain minimum efficacy targets. Importantly NAT2 genotype did not explain PK variability in this cohort or the low C_{max} , which suggests that other factors could be influencing isoniazid bioavailability and metabolism, which require further elucidation.

366

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Table 1: Demographic characteristics							
	Study 1 (n=80)	Study 2 (n=40)	Overall (n=120)				
Demographics							
Median age (range)	33 (18-48)	33.6 (24-53)	33.1 (18-53)				
Male sex (%)	36 (45%)	24 (60.0%)	60 (50%)				
Zulu ethnicity (%)	80 (100%)	40 (100%)	120 (100%)				
Mean weight (SD)	58.7 (11.9)	58.9 (9.7)	58.7 (11.2)				
Mean BMI (SD)	23.0 (5.2)	23.1 (3.9)	23.1 (4.8)				
BMI <18.5 (%)	13 (16.3%)	2 (5.0%)	15 (12.5%)				
Median CD4 (range)	210.5 (10-500)	128 (61 – 199)	161 (10-500)				
CD4 < 200 (%)	40 (50%)	40 (100%)	80 (66.7%)				

Table 2 PK time points and dosing

Table 2 Pharmacokinetic time points and dosing

Study	Schedule of pharmacokinetic sampling (day of TB treatment)	Treatment					
Study 1	Days 1; with sampling pre- dose and at 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12 hours after the dose.						
		30-37	38-54	55-70	> 70		
		2 tablets	3 tablets	4 tablets	5 tablets		
Study 2		Enrolment – week 6: standard weight band bas treatment with RMP, INH, PZA and EMB (as in					
		Week 6 & 7: RMP replaced with RFB 300 mg daily					
	Day 63 (after 2 weeks on continuation phase RBN+INH) with sampling pre-dose and 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12 and 24 hours after the	week 8 & 9: R	FB 300 mg/INI	H 300 mg			

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FDC=fixed dose combination

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Diplotype† -20000 000020 001000 001020 002010 002020 01-020 010010 010020 010010 010020 0110020 011010 011010 011020 011110	1 1 6 2 4 1 1 2 2 2	5D/5K 12A/12A 4/11A 12A/12C 11A/12C 12C/12C 5C/12C 5D/12A	SLOW RAPID RAPID RAPID RAPID RAPID
001000 001020 002010 002020 01-020 010010 010020 010110 011010 011020	1 6 2 4 1 1 2	4/11A 12A/12C 11A/12C 12C/12C 5C/12C	RAPID RAPID RAPID RAPID
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002010 002020 01-020 010010 010020 010110 011010 011020	2 4 1 1 2	11A/12C 12C/12C 5C/12C	RAPID RAPID
002020 01-020 010010 010020 010110 011010 011020	4 1 1 2	12C/12C 5C/12C	RAPID
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010010 010020 010110 011010 011020	1 2		
010020 010110 011010 011020	2	5D/12A	INTERMEDIATE
010110 011010 011020			INTERMEDIATE
011010 011020	2	5C/12A	INTERMEDIATE
011020	_	5E/12A	INTERMEDIATE
	3	5D/12C	INTERMEDIATE
011110	15	5C/12C	INTERMEDIATE
~ V	3	5E/12C	INTERMEDIATE
0200-0	1	5C/5D	SLOW
020000	1	5D/5D	SLOW
020010	10	5C/5D	SLOW
020020	3	5C/5C	SLOW
020100	3	5D/5E	SLOW
020110	1	5C/5E	SLOW
110010	1	5K/12A	INTERMEDIATE
110110	1	5K/12C	INTERMEDIATE
111010	5	5K/12C	INTERMEDIATE
111020	1	5T/12C	INTERMEDIATE
111110	6	5J/12C	INTERMEDIATE
120000	7	5D/5K	SLOW
120010	5	5C/5K	SLOW
120011	1	5C/5KA	SLOW
120020	1	5C/5T	SLOW
120100	7	5D/5J	SLOW
120110	8	5C/5J	SLOW
120200	1	5E/5J	SLOW
211020	1	5T/12M	INTERMEDIATE
211110	1	5J/12M	INTERMEDIATE
220001	1	5K/5KA	SLOW
220100	4	5J/5K	SLOW
220110	1	5J/5T	SLOW
2202-0	1	5J/5J	SLOW
220200	6	5J/5J	SLOW

Table 4. Frequency of NAT2 alleles in the study group.						
Allele n %						
NAT2*4	1	0.4				
NAT2*5	169	70.4				
NAT2*11	2*11 3 1.					
NAT2*12	67	27.9				
Total	240	100				

Table 5. Frequency	of NAT2	
alleles.		
Allele	n	%
NAT2*4	1	0.4
NAT2*5C	51	21.3
NAT2*5D	35	14.6
NAT2*5E	10	4.2
NAT2*5J	42	17.5
NAT2*5K	25	10.4
NAT2*5KA	2	0.8
NAT2*5T	4	1.7
NAT2*11A	3	1.3
NAT2*12A	14	5.8
NAT2*12C	51	21.2
NAT2*12M	2	0.8
Total	240	100

4	3	3	

Table 6: Frequency distribution of NAT2 genotypes and deduced phenotype in the study group.					
Genotype	n	%	Acetylator		
Genotype	11	/0	status		
NAT2*4/*11	1	0.8			
NAT2*12/*12	11	9.2	RAPID		
Nat2*11/*12	2	1.7			
NAT2*5/*12	43	35.8	INTERMEDIATE		
NAT2*5/*5	63	52.5	SLOW		
Total	120	100			

436 Table 7: Overall isoniazid and N-acetyl-isoniazid PK

	Study 1		Study 2	Study 2		
	Isoniazid	N-acetylisoniazid	Isoniazid	N-acetylisoniazid		
AUC₀ (µg/mL/hr)	5.53 (3.63 – 9.12)	5.49 (3.18 – 9.26)	6) 10.76 (8.24 – 28.96) 27.67 (23.20 - 34.67)			
C _{max} (µg/mL)	1.47 (1.14 – 1.89)	0.90 (0.46 – 1.398)	3.14 (2.39 – 4.34)	2.91 (1.73 – 3.70)		
T _{max} (hr)	1 (1 – 2)	4 (2 – 6)	2 (2 - 2)	3 (3 – 4)		
CL/F (L/hr)	47.64 (35.36 – 74.11)	NA	27.34 (10.83 – 32.00)	NA		
<i>t</i> _{1/2} (hr)	4.61 (3.64 – 8.32)	10.64 (6.62 – 17.07)	6.02 (5.37 – 8.66)	8.03 (6.18 – 12.86)		
All values medi	ans (inter-quartile ranges)					
$AUC_{0-\infty} = Area$	under the time – concentra	ation curve				
C _{max} = Maximur	n concentration					
CL/F = Clearand	ce					
$t_{1/2}$ = Eliminatio	on half life					
NA = not applic	cable					

437

438 Table 8 (A): Study 1 PK parameters by genotype

	Isoniazid			N-acetyl-Isoniazid			
	Slow	Intermediate	Rapid	Slow	Intermediate	Rapid	
AUC _{0-∞} (µg/mL/hr)	5.34 (3.44 – 7.93)	6.04 (4.27 – 7.53)	7.56 (5.99 -9.60)	5.71 (4.19 – 11.01)	7.34 (3.15 – 10.9)	2.81 (0.55 – 5	
C _{max} (µg/mL)	1.47 (0.97 – 1.89)	1.54 (1.25 – 1.76)	1.42 (1.20 -2.05)	0.94 (0.63 – 1.68)	1.07 (0.49 – 1.70)	0.38 (0.90 - 0	
T _{max} (hr)	1 (1 -2)	1 (1 – 2)	2 (2 – 2)	4 (2 – 4)	4 (4 – 7)	6 (4 -6)	
CL/F (L/hr)	57.05 (37.84 – 103.56)	43.53 (32.05 – 64.33)	37.75 (31.27 – 47.92)	NA	NA	NA	
t _{1/2} (hr)	4.67 (3.64 – 8.32)	4.00 (3.35 - 5.19)	8.56 (5.69 – 14.44)	9.42 (5.75 – 17.07)	6.55 (6.68 – 10.93)	14.78 (10.65 22.41)	

All values medians (inter-quartile ranges)

 $AUC_{0 \hdots \infty}$ = Area under the time – concentration curve

C_{max} = Maximum concentration

CL/F = Clearance

 $t_{1/2}$ = Elimination half life

NA = not applicable

	Isoniazid			N-acetyl-Isoniazid		
	Slow	Intermediate	Rapid	Slow	Intermediate	Rapid
AUC _{0-∞} (µg/mL/hr)	10.76 (9.73 -31.21)	9.09 (7.3 -18.75)	26.99	26.04 (22.99 -32.76)	6.28 (5.25 -10.01)	28.53
C _{max} (µg/mL)	3.47 (2.49 - 4.49)	2.96 (2.33 - 4.02)	3.94	2.85 (1.52 - 3.68)	3.28 (2.53 - 4.01)	1.91
T _{max} (hr)	2 (2 – 2)	2 (2 – 2)	2	3 (3-4)	3 (3 – 3)	4
CL/F (L/hr)	27.87 (9.66 -30.83)	33.33 (16.01 - 41.17)	11.12	NA	NA	NA
<i>t</i> _{1/2} (hr)	4.61 (3.9 -5.34)	4.46 (3.9 - 7.88)	8.28	5.81 (4.9 - 7.25)	6.28 (5.25 -10.01)	10.97

440 Table 8 (B): Study 2 PK parameters by genotype

All values medians (inter-quartile ranges)

 $AUC_{0-\infty}$ = Area under the time – concentration curve

C_{max} = Maximum concentration

CL/F = Clearance

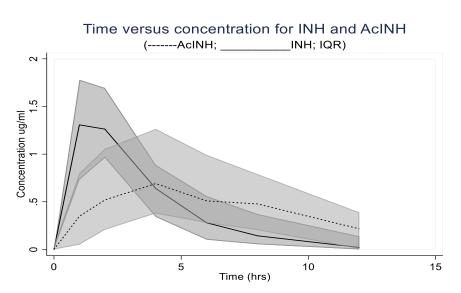
 $t_{1/2}$ = Elimination half life

NA = not applicable

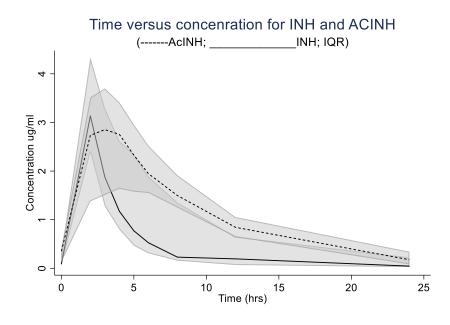
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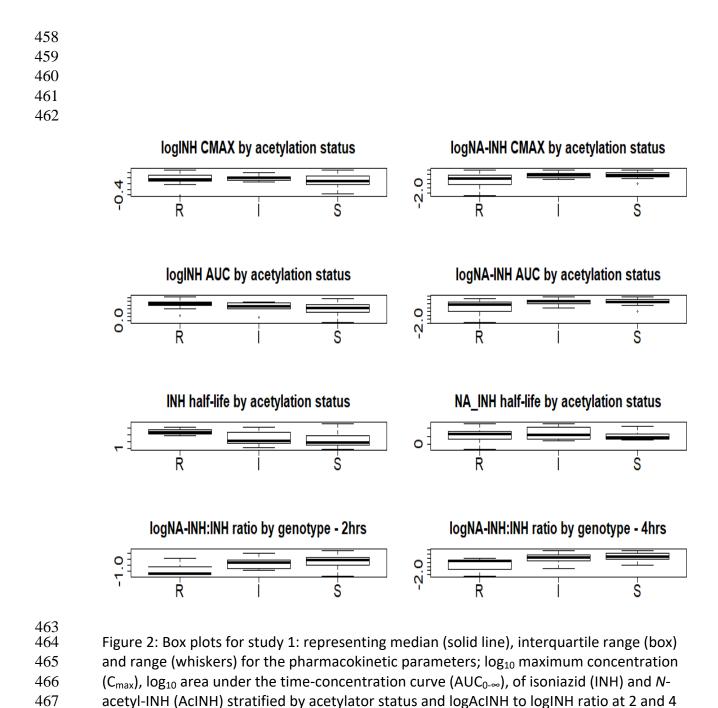
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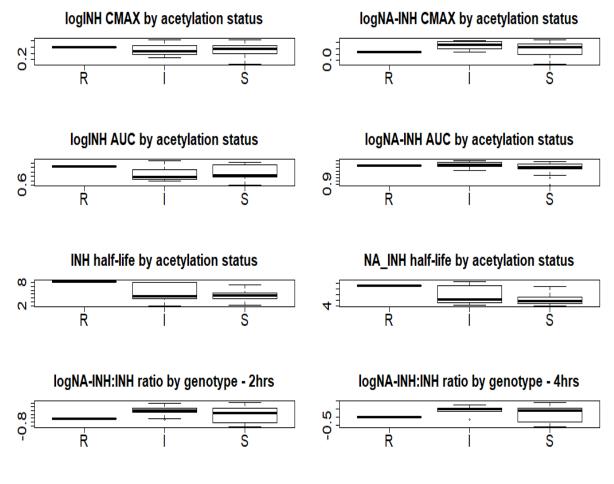
- Figure 1A: Study 1 median INH and AcINH concentration over time for INH and AcINH for 58patients. Shaded area; IQR.
- 447
- 448
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- 450
- 451



454 Figure 1B: Study 2 median INH and AcINH concentration over time for INH and NA-INH for 34455 patients. Shaded area: IQR.



- 468 hours stratified by acetylator genotype.
- 469



470

471 Figure 3: Box plots for study 2: representing median (solid line), interquartile range (box) 472 and range (whiskers) for the pharmacokinetic parameters; \log_{10} maximum concentration 473 (C_{max}), \log_{10} area under the time-concentration curve (AUC_{0-∞}), of isoniazid (INH) and *N*-474 acetyl-INH (AcINH) stratified by acetylator status and logAcINH to logINH ratio at 2 and 4

- 475 hours stratified by acetylator genotype.
- 476

477 Table 9: Participants with any hepatic adverse events

	Study 1				Study 2	2		
AE Grade	Rapid N(%)	Intermediate N(%)	Slow N(%)	Total N(%)	Rapid N(%)	Intermediate N(%)	Slow N(%)	Total N(%)
Grade 1	7	9	25	41	0	5	10	15
Grade 2	2	0	0	2	0	1	1	2
Grade 3	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
Grade 4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total	9 (20.9)	9 (20.9)	25 (61)	43 (100)	1(4.8)	8(30.1)	12(57.1)	21(100)

478

479

- 487 Hepatic adverse events from the two studies include a combination of elevated Aspartate
- 488 Aminotransferase (AST), Alanine Aminotransferase (ALT), Alkaline Phosphatase (ALP), Gamma-
- 489 Glutamyl Transferase and total bilirubin.

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