



# *N*-Acetyltransferase 2 Genotypes among Zulu-Speaking South Africans and Isoniazid and *N*-Acetyl-Isoniazid Pharmacokinetics during Antituberculosis Treatment

Thuli Mthiyane,<sup>a</sup> James Millard,<sup>b,c,d</sup> John Adamson,<sup>d</sup> Yusenitha Balakrishna,<sup>e</sup> Cathy Connolly,<sup>e</sup> Andrew Owen,<sup>f</sup> Roxana Rustomjee,<sup>a</sup> Keertan Dheda,<sup>g</sup> Helen McIlleron,<sup>h</sup> Alexander S. Pym<sup>a,d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>South African Medical Research Council, Durban, South Africa

<sup>b</sup>Wellcome Trust Liverpool Glasgow Centre for Global Health Research, Liverpool, United Kingdom

<sup>c</sup>Institute of Infection and Global Health, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom

<sup>d</sup>Africa Health Research Institute, Durban, South Africa

<sup>e</sup>South African Medical Research Council, Biostatistics Department, Durban, South Africa

<sup>f</sup>Department of Molecular and Clinical Pharmacology, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom

<sup>g</sup>Lung Infection and Immunity Unit, Division of Pulmonology, Department of Medicine, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa

<sup>h</sup>Division of Clinical Pharmacology, Department of Medicine, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa

**ABSTRACT** The distribution of *N*-acetyltransferase 2 gene (*NAT2*) polymorphisms varies considerably among different ethnic groups. Information on *NAT2* single-nucleotide polymorphisms in the South African population is limited. We investigated *NAT2* polymorphisms and their effect on isoniazid pharmacokinetics (PK) in Zulu black HIV-infected South Africans in Durban, South Africa. HIV-infected participants with culture-confirmed pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) were enrolled from two unrelated studies. Participants with culture-confirmed pulmonary TB were genotyped for the *NAT2* polymorphisms 282C>T, 341T>C, 481C>T, 857G>A, 590G>A, and 803A>G using Life Technologies prevalidated TaqMan assays (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). Participants underwent sampling for determination of plasma isoniazid and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid concentrations. Among the 120 patients, 63/120 (52.5%) were slow metabolizers (*NAT2*\*5/\*5), 43/120 (35.8%) had an intermediate metabolism genotype (*NAT2*\*5/\*12), and 12/120 (11.7%) had a rapid metabolism genotype (*NAT2*\*4/\*11, *NAT2*\*11/\*12, and *NAT2*\*12/\*12). The *NAT2* alleles evaluated in this study were \*4, \*5C, \*5D, \*5E, \*5J, \*5K, \*5KA, \*5T, \*11A, \*12A/12C, and \*12M. *NAT2*\*5 was the most frequent allele (70.4%), followed by *NAT2*\*12 (27.9%). Fifty-eight of 60 participants in study 1 had PK results. The median area under the concentration-time curve from 0 to infinity ( $AUC_{0-\infty}$ ) was 5.53 (interquartile range [IQR], 3.63 to 9.12  $\mu\text{g h/ml}$ ), and the maximum concentration ( $C_{\text{max}}$ ) was 1.47  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  (IQR, 1.14 to 1.89  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ). Thirty-four of 40 participants in study 2 had both PK results and *NAT2* genotyping results. The median  $AUC_{0-\infty}$  was 10.76  $\mu\text{g-h/ml}$  (IQR, 8.24 to 28.96  $\mu\text{g-h/ml}$ ), and the  $C_{\text{max}}$  was 3.14  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  (IQR, 2.39 to 4.34  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ). Individual polymorphisms were not equally distributed, with some being represented in small numbers. The genotype did not correlate with the phenotype, with those with a rapid acetylator genotype showing higher  $AUC_{0-\infty}$  values than those with a slow acetylator genotype, but the difference was not significant ( $P = 0.43$ ). There was a high prevalence of slow acetylator genotypes, followed by intermediate and then rapid acetylator genotypes. The poor concordance between genotype and phenotype suggests that other factors or genetic loci influence isoniazid metabolism, and these warrant further investigation in this population.

**KEYWORDS** acetylation, *N*-acetyltransferase, isoniazid, tuberculosis, HIV, pharmacokinetics, drug metabolism, pharmacogenetics

**Citation** Mthiyane T, Millard J, Adamson J, Balakrishna Y, Connolly C, Owen A, Rustomjee R, Dheda K, McIlleron H, Pym AS. 2020. *N*-Acetyltransferase 2 genotypes among Zulu-speaking South Africans and isoniazid and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid pharmacokinetics during antituberculosis treatment. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 64:e02376-19. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02376-19>.

**Copyright** © 2020 Mthiyane et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Address correspondence to Thuli Mthiyane, [thuli.mthiyane@mrc.ac.za](mailto:thuli.mthiyane@mrc.ac.za).

**Received** 3 December 2019

**Accepted** 23 December 2019

**Accepted manuscript posted online** 21 January 2020

**Published** 24 March 2020

**T**uberculosis (TB) remains a leading cause of global morbidity and mortality, with approximately 10 million cases and 1.5 million deaths occurring in 2018 (1). South Africa is a high-TB-burden country, with an estimated 301,000 cases in 2018. The so-called short-course treatment regimen recommended in international guidelines, consisting of 6 months of rifampin and isoniazid (INH), supplemented by pyrazinamide and ethambutol in the first 2 months, has remained largely unchanged for several decades. While this regimen can achieve high relapse-free cure rates, a range of host and mycobacterial factors can influence treatment outcomes. There is increasing evidence that interindividual variability in the pharmacokinetics (PK) of drugs within this regimen lead to heterogeneity in clinical outcomes (2, 3).

Pharmacogenomics (PG) describe one cause of PK variability due to polymorphisms in drug-metabolizing enzymes (DME) and transporters. During anti-TB treatment, isoniazid is the paradigmatic case. Isoniazid is acetylated to its major metabolite, *N*-acetylisoniazid (AcINH), by the action of hepatic *N*-acetyltransferase 2 (encoded by the *NAT2* gene). AcINH is subsequently rapidly hydrolyzed to acetyl-hydrazine, which is also acetylated to diacetyl-hydrazine, by the action of *NAT2* (4). Accumulated acetyl-hydrazine can be oxidized to form other, potentially hepatotoxic metabolites (4–6). Moreover, the accumulated isoniazid can be metabolized by an alternative pathway, in which it is first hydrolyzed to hydrazine, which has also been implicated in liver injury, before acetylation to acetyl-hydrazine, which is, again, by *NAT2* (4, 7). Hence, the activity of *NAT2* both dictates the metabolism of isoniazid and determines the availability of potentially hepatotoxic hydrazine and acetyl-hydrazine metabolites. Within the 870-bp *NAT2* gene, a number of low-activity single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been characterized. The *NAT2* genotype has been shown to determine the rate of acetylation by *NAT2* in several populations (8). Individuals homozygous for the wild-type alleles are characterized as rapid acetylators (RAs), those homozygous for low-activity SNPs are characterized as slow acetylators (SAs), and heterozygotes are characterized as intermediate acetylators (IAs) (9–13). SAs have a higher incidence of side effects, particularly drug-induced hepatitis, during anti-TB therapy, presumably due to higher levels of hepatotoxic metabolites (14–20). Among the first-line anti-TB drugs, isoniazid has the greatest early bactericidal activity (EBA), and isoniazid PK parameters have been associated with the rates of cure, sterilization, and acquired drug resistance (3, 21–27). A link between rapid acetylation and an increased risk of poor treatment outcomes has been reported (28, 29).

The *NAT2* genotype is known to differ among ethnic groups, with approximately 40 to 70% of Caucasians, Indians, and African Americans but only about 10% of Asian populations being characterized as SAs (30–42). The *NAT2* genotype is not well characterized in the communities where TB is most prevalent, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa has several black ethnic groups, and few have been studied (43–45). Bach et al. characterized 40% of a Zulu population to be phenotypically slow acetylators, but these findings have not been replicated or informed by genotypic analysis (44). Moreover, South Africa has a high prevalence of individuals infected with HIV, and discordant relationships between the *NAT2* genotype and the isoniazid acetylator phenotype have been described among individuals living with HIV in other settings (46, 47).

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

## RESULTS

**Participant characteristics.** One hundred twenty-two individuals living with HIV and participating in two PK studies were included in the study. Eighty participants in study 1 were included in the *NAT2* genotyping analysis and 60 participants in study 1 were included in the PK analysis (with 58 individuals having both PK and genotype data), while 40 participants in study 2 were included in the PK analysis and 40 participants in study 2 were included in *NAT2* genotyping analysis (with 34 individuals having both PK and genotype data). Key characteristics are outlined in Table 1.

**TABLE 1** Demographic characteristics

Characteristic	Value for participants in:		
	Study 1 (n = 80)	Study 2 (n = 40)	Overall (n = 120)
Demographics			
Median (IQR) age (yr)	33 (18–48)	33.6 (24–53)	33.1 (18–53)
No. (%) of male participants	36 (45)	24 (60.0)	60 (50)
No. (%) of participants of Zulu ethnicity	80 (100)	40 (100)	120 (100)
Mean (SD) wt (kg)	58.7 (11.9)	58.9 (9.7)	58.7 (11.2)
Mean (SD) BMI	23.0 (5.2)	23.1 (3.9)	23.1 (4.8)
No. (%) of participants with BMI of <18.5	13 (16.3)	2 (5.0)	15 (12.5)
Median (range) CD4 count (no. of cells/mm <sup>3</sup> )	210.5 (10–500)	128 (61–199)	161 (10–500)
No. (%) of participants with CD4 count of <200 cells/mm <sup>3</sup>	40 (50)	40 (100)	80 (66.7)

Participants in study 1 included 60 with pulmonary TB and HIV coinfection, 40 with CD4 counts of >200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>, and 20 with CD4 counts of <200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>, as well as 20 participants living with HIV and without TB (who contributed only genotype data). All 40 participants in study 2 had TB and HIV coinfection and had CD4 counts of 200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> or below. In the combined studies, 66.7% of participants had CD4 counts of <200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> and 33.3% had CD4 counts of >200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. The median age was 33.1 years (interquartile range [IQR], 18 to 53 years). Only 15 (12.5%) patients had a body mass index (BMI) of <18.86 kg/m<sup>2</sup>.

**NAT2 genotype and deduced phenotype.** One hundred twenty participants (80 from study 1 and 40 from study 2) were genotyped. The haplotype assignment and deduced acetylator phenotype for each diplotype are shown in Table 2. Allele and haplotype frequencies and deduced phenotypes are outlined in Tables 3 to 5. We identified 12 different alleles in the population. The most common allelic group was NAT2\*5 (70.4%), followed by NAT2\*12 (27.9%). In the NAT2\*5 group, NAT2\*5C (21.3%), NAT2\*5J (17.5%), NAT2\*5D (14.6%), and NAT2\*5K (10.4%) were the most common. The NAT2\*12 group was predominantly NAT2\*12C. The proportions of individuals with each of the deduced phenotypes was 11.7% rapid, 35.8% intermediate, and 52.5% slow acetylators (Table 5).

**Isoniazid and N-acetyl-isoniazid PK.** As described above, to assess the sample integrity for study 1, we compared the area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity (AUC<sub>0–∞</sub>) values from the current analysis with those previously reported for the same samples analyzed in 2010. The median AUC<sub>0–∞</sub> was 5.53 μg·h/ml (IQR, 3.63 to 9.12 μg·h/ml), when the samples were processed at the University of Cape Town (UCT) in 2009, and 5.70 μg·h/ml (IQR, 3.85 to 7.94 μg·h/ml), when the samples were processed at the Africa Health Research Institute (AHRI) laboratory in 2014, suggesting that the integrity of the samples was maintained for isoniazid but could not be confirmed for AcINH.

The participants in study 1 showed rapid absorption, with a median isoniazid time to maximum concentration (*T*<sub>max</sub>) of 1 h (IQR, 1 to 2 h). Isoniazid exposure was variable among individuals, with the median maximum concentration (*C*<sub>max</sub>) being 1.47 μg/ml (IQR, 1.14 to 1.85 μg/ml) and the median AUC<sub>0–∞</sub> being 5.53 μg·h/ml (IQR, 3.63 to 9.12 μg·h/ml) (Table 6). The median elimination half-life was relatively slow at 2.27 h (IQR, 1.69 to 3.56 h). We compared these isoniazid PK measures to published targets; 98.28% (57/58) of the participants failed to attain the minimum 2-h plasma concentration target of 3 μg/ml (48). PK parameters by genotype are shown in Table 7. Unexpectedly, the median half-life was the slowest, the apparent oral clearance was the lowest, and AUC<sub>0–∞</sub> was the highest among genotypically rapid acetylators, with the reverse being true for genotypically slow acetylators, although none of these differences was statistically significant. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences by genotype for the AcINH *C*<sub>max</sub>, elimination half-life, or AUC<sub>0–∞</sub>. The median isoniazid and AcINH time-concentration curves are given in Fig. 1, left.

**TABLE 2** NAT2 diplotypes and genotypes and deduced phenotype in the study group

Observed diplotype <sup>a</sup>	No. of mutations	NAT2 genotype	Phenotype
–20000	1	5D/5K	Slow
000020	1	12A/12A	Rapid
001000	1	4/11A	Rapid
001020	6	12A/12C	Rapid
002010	2	11A/12C	Rapid
002020	4	12C/12C	Rapid
01–020	1	5C/12C	Intermediate
010010	1	5D/12A	Intermediate
010020	2	5C/12A	Intermediate
010110	2	5E/12A	Intermediate
011010	3	5D/12C	Intermediate
011020	15	5C/12C	Intermediate
011110	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

<sup>a</sup>Observed diplotypes are shown as the number of mutations identified in each individual for each SNP.

0, wild type; 1, heterozygous; 2, homozygous; –, blank. The SNP order is positions 282, 341, 481, 590, 803, and 857.

Absorption was rapid in the participants in study 2, with the median INH  $T_{max}$  being 2 h. INH exposure was also variable among the individuals, with the median  $C_{max}$  being 3.14  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  (IQR, 2.39 to 4.34  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ ) and the median  $\text{AUC}_{0-\infty}$  being 10.76  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{ml}$  (IQR, 8.24 to 28.96  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{h}/\text{ml}$ ). The median elimination half-life was 2.62 (IQR, 2.26 to 4.07) (Table 6). Again, we compared these INH PK measures to published PK targets; 47.5% (19/40) of the participants failed to attain the minimum 2-h plasma concentration target of 3  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ . PK parameters by genotype are shown in Table 8. For both isoniazid and AcINH and across the PK parameters  $C_{max}$ ,  $\text{AUC}_{0-\infty}$ , and elimination half-life, variability (both range and IQR) was increased among those genotyped as SAs. Again, however, there were no statistically significant differences between these PK param-

**TABLE 3** Frequency of NAT2 alleles in the study group

Polymorphism	No. of participants	% of participants
NAT2*4	1	0.4
NAT2*5	169	70.4
NAT2*11	3	1.3
NAT2*12	67	27.9
Total	240	100

**TABLE 4** Frequency of NAT2 haplotypes

Haplotype	No. of participants	% of participants
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

ters by genotype. Median isoniazid and AcINH time-concentration curves are given in Fig. 1, right.

For both studies, we calculated the log AcINH concentration/log isoniazid concentration ratio as a measure of acetylation at 2 and 4 h postdose and analyzed this ratio by genotype (Fig. 2 and 3). In both studies we saw no statistically significant difference in ratios between genotypes at either 2 or 4 h. In study 2, we again saw increased variability in this metric among those genotyped as SAs.

**Hepatic adverse events.** 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 a rapid acetylator genotype in study 2. Although there were more grade 1 hepatic adverse events among the slow acetylator genotype participants than among the participants with the other genotypes, as shown in Table 9, the difference was not statistically significant between genotypes ( $P = 0.203$  in study 1 and  $P = 0.276$  in study 2).

**DISCUSSION**

We investigated the NAT2 genotype and the PKs of isoniazid and AcINH in black Zulu South Africans living with HIV from Durban and surrounding areas. We found that most individuals were of the SA (52.5%) or IA (35.8%) genotype, with only a small number being of the RA genotype (11.7%). The proportions of the deduced acetylator phenotypes in our population were broadly similar to those in other African and Caucasian populations (36, 43, 49, 50) but differed from those previously reported from within other black ethnic groups within southern Africa. For example, Werely found that IA genotypes dominated in the Xhosa cohort, with individuals of the SA genotype comprising only 30% of the cohort (45). Our results were comparable to those of a recent study by Naidoo et al. in patients from the same geographic area, who reported 34% SAs, 43% IAs, and 18% RAs (51).

There was a high prevalence of the NAT2\*5 allelic group, accounting for the slow acetylator genotype, in our population. In well-studied Caucasian and Asian populations, four variants, NAT2\*4 (wild type, rapid acetylators) and NAT2\*5B, NAT2\*6A, and

**TABLE 5** Frequency distribution of NAT2 genotypes and deduced phenotype in the study group

Genotype	No. of participants	% of participants	Acetylator status
NAT2*4/*11	1	0.8	Rapid
NAT2*12/*12	11	9.2	Rapid
NAT2*11/*12	2	1.7	Rapid
NAT2*5/*12	43	35.8	Intermediate
NAT2*5/*5	63	52.5	Slow
Total	120	100	

**TABLE 6** Overall isoniazid and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid PK<sup>a</sup>

Parameter	Value from:			
	Study 1 (n = 58)		Study 2 (n = 34)	
	Isoniazid	<i>N</i> -Acetyl-isoniazid	Isoniazid	<i>N</i> -Acetyl-isoniazid
AUC <sub>0-∞</sub> (μg·h/ml)	5.53 (3.63–9.12)	5.49 (3.18–9.26)	10.76 (8.24–28.96)	27.67 (23.20–34.67)
C <sub>max</sub> (μg/ml)	1.47 (1.14–1.85)	0.90 (0.46–1.40)	3.14 (2.39–4.34)	2.91 (1.73–3.70)
T <sub>max</sub> (h)	1 (1–2)	4 (2–6)	2 (2–2)	3 (3–4)
CL/F (liters/h)	47.64 (35.36–74.11)	NA	27.34 (10.83–32.00)	NA
t <sub>1/2</sub> (h)	2.27 (1.69–3.56)	4.28 (3.29–5.79)	2.62 (2.26–4.07)	5.89 (5.04–8.21)

<sup>a</sup>All values are medians (interquartile ranges). AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>, area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity; C<sub>max</sub>, maximum concentration; T<sub>max</sub>, time to maximum concentration; CL/F, clearance; t<sub>1/2</sub>, elimination half-life; NA, not applicable.

*NAT2\*7B* (all slow acetylators), accounted 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 RAs in non-Asian populations. Consistent with other studies in sub-Saharan African populations, the wild-type *NAT\*4* allele was far less prevalent and variant alleles were far more diverse in our study. In our population, the *NAT2\*5B* allele was relatively rare in comparison to its occurrence in two studies in the black population from the Western Cape and North West Provinces in South Africa (45, 52). However, in contrast to these South African populations, there were a diversity of other *NAT2\*5* alleles, including a much higher prevalence of the rare *NAT2\*5J* allele (17.5%) and the poorly characterized *NAT2\*5K* allele (10.4%). The *NAT2\*6A* and *NAT2\*7B* alleles, common in Caucasian and Asian populations, were not seen in our cohort. In Caucasian and Asian populations, rapid acetylator *NAT2\*12* alleles are rarely seen, whereas in populations in sub-Saharan Africa, the *NAT2\*12A* allele is reported at much higher frequencies (35). In our study, the *NAT2\*12A* allele did indeed comprise 5.8% of alleles seen, but we saw a much higher frequency of the *NAT2\*12C* allele (21.2%), in contrast to its frequency in other southern African cohorts (10, 45, 52, 53).

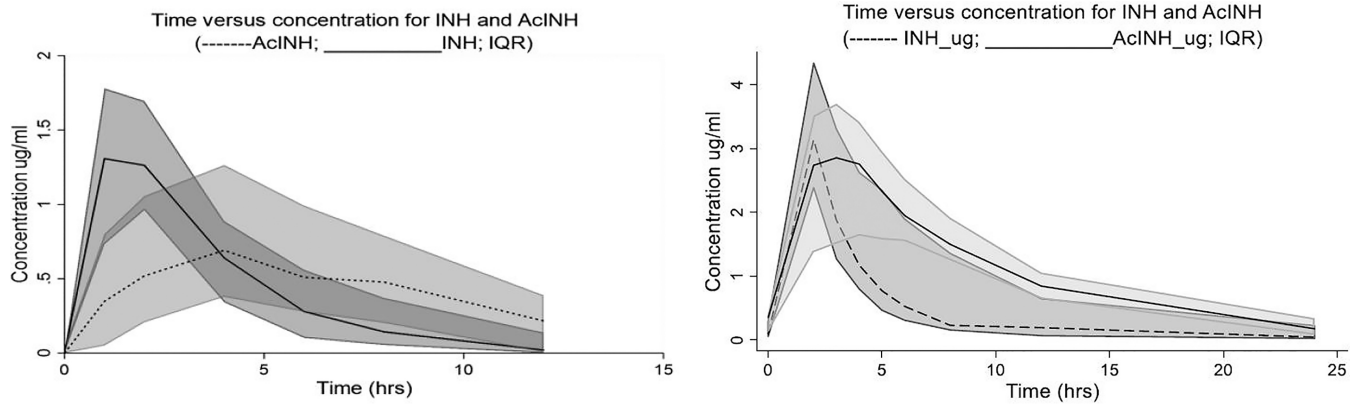
The isoniazid C<sub>max</sub> and AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> demonstrated considerable variability between individuals in both studies, and almost all participants in study 1 and almost half of the participants in study 2 had a C<sub>max</sub> below the lower limit of the target range (48). Low isoniazid concentrations during anti-TB treatment are concerning because it has been postulated that they may lead to poorer treatment outcomes or the generation of isoniazid resistance, the likely first step in the evolution of multidrug-resistant TB (MDR TB). However, the evidence for either of these concerns is mixed, and in this setting, the prevalence of INH monoresistance is relatively low.

There was a marked difference in PK measures between the two studies analyzed, with study 1 having much lower measures than study 2. There are several reasons that could have contributed to this difference. The difference in isoniazid dosing could explain the lower PK measures, where study 1 used the fixed-dose combination (FDC) dosing per World Health Organization (WHO)-recommended weight bands, leading to almost half the participants receiving doses of <300 mg, as previously reported (54). All

**TABLE 7** Study 1 PK parameters by genotype<sup>a</sup>

Parameter	Value for participants with the indicated acetylator phenotype receiving:					
	Isoniazid			<i>N</i> -Acetyl-isoniazid		
	Slow (n = 33)	Intermediate (n = 12)	Rapid (n = 13)	Slow (n = 33)	Intermediate (n = 12)	Rapid (n = 13)
AUC <sub>0-∞</sub> (μg·h/ml)	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 (0.55–5.06)
C <sub>max</sub> (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 (0.09–0.90)
T <sub>max</sub> (h)	1 (1–2)	1 (1–2)	2 (2–2)	4 (2–4)	4 (4–7)	6 (4–6)
CL/F (liters/h)	57.05 (37.84–103.56)	43.53 (32.05–64.33)	37.75 (31.27–47.92)	NA	NA	NA
t <sub>1/2</sub> (h)	1.87 (1.52–3.07)	2.27 (1.78–3.6)	4.00 (2.98–4.73)	4.36 (3.43–5.25)	4.09 (3.13–5.49)	5.42 (3.58–7.48)

<sup>a</sup>Data are for 58 participants. All values are medians (interquartile ranges). AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>, area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity; C<sub>max</sub>, maximum concentration; T<sub>max</sub>, time to maximum concentration; CL/F, clearance; t<sub>1/2</sub>, elimination half-life; NA, not applicable.



**FIG 1** (Left) Study 1 median INH and AcINH concentrations over time for INH and AcINH for 58 patients. (Right) Study 2 median INH and AcINH concentrations over time for INH and AcINH for 34 patients. The shaded areas indicate the IQR.

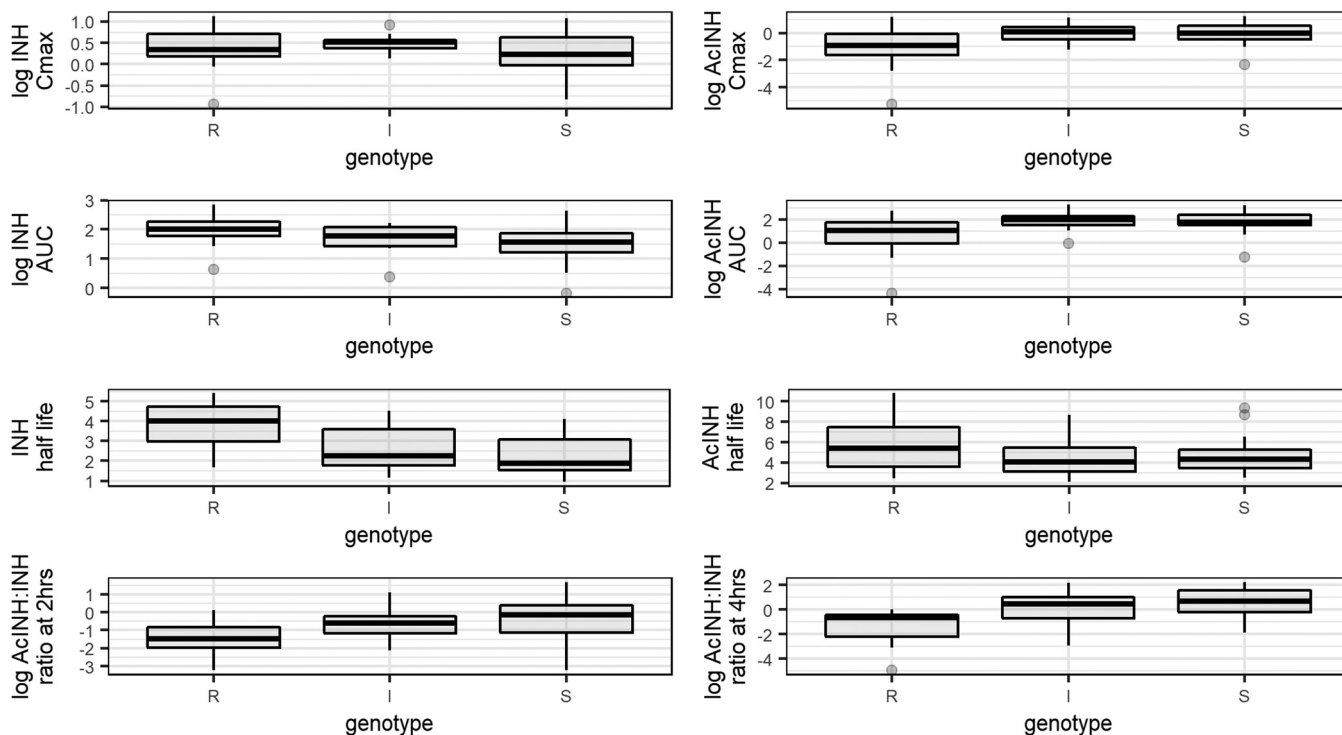
participants in study 2 received 300-mg doses of isoniazid irrespective of weight. Although the samples from study 1 did not appear to deteriorate during the 5 years between the first analysis and subsequent analyses for this study, the possibility of differences in processing and storage between the studies cannot be excluded. Figure 3 shows the PK measures for INH and AcINH at different time points. Based on those findings, the acetylator phenotype of the study participants was generally more intermediate/rapid than what the predominant slow genotype suggests, which is in contrast to other studies reporting that HIV-infected patients have a tendency toward a slow acetylator phenotype (55).

We identified no statistically significant difference by *NAT2* genotype in a variety of PK measures; hence, in this cohort we found a poor correlation between the *NAT2* genotype and the phenotypic acetylation of isoniazid. Previous studies in other populations have shown a good correlation between the *NAT2* genotype and isoniazid PK, suggesting that *NAT2* genotyping could be used as a parsimonious way to risk stratify patients and personalize the dosing of isoniazid in an attempt to maximize efficacy while minimizing toxicity. There are significant practical difficulties to implementing these approaches in this setting, but our data suggest that in this population, *NAT2* genotyping will not be helpful in guiding anti-TB therapy. A lack of concordance between genotypic and phenotypic measures of INH acetylation has previously been reported in HIV-positive cohorts (56, 57). It is likely that in this cohort, as in others, other, nongenetic factors are more important than or as important as the *NAT2* genotype. Jones et al. found that infection with HIV or the stage of HIV infection may alter phase I and II drug-metabolizing enzyme (DME) activity in their study of 17 HIV-infected participants at different levels of immunosuppression (58). They found that HIV infection was related to an increase in the variability of these DMEs. While additional pathways, aside from *NAT2* genotype, have been implicated in the hepatotoxicity of isoniazid-containing anti-TB treatment regimens, it is not clear that these pathways

**TABLE 8** Study 2 PK parameters by genotype<sup>a</sup>

Parameter	Value for participants with the indicated acetylator phenotype receiving:					
	Isoniazid			N-Acetyl-isoniazid		
	Slow (n = 22)	Intermediate (n = 11)	Rapid (n = 1)	Slow (n = 22)	Intermediate (n = 11)	Rapid (n = 1)
AUC <sub>0-∞</sub> (μg·h/ml)	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 <sub>max</sub> (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 <sub>max</sub> (h)	2 (2–2)	2 (2–2)	2	3 (3–4)	3 (3–3)	4
CL/F (liters/h)	27.87 (9.66–30.83)	33.33 (16.01–41.17)	11.12	NA	NA	NA
t <sub>1/2</sub> (h)	2.64 (2.26–4.08)	2.38 (2.16–2.58)	5.26	5.81 (4.9–7.25)	6.28 (5.25–10.01)	10.97

<sup>a</sup>Data are for 34 participants. All values are medians (interquartile ranges). AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>, area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity; C<sub>max</sub>, maximum concentration; T<sub>max</sub>, time to maximum concentration; CL/F, clearance; t<sub>1/2</sub>, elimination half-life; NA, not applicable.



**FIG 2** Box plots for study 1, representing the medians (solid lines), interquartile ranges (boxes), and ranges (whiskers) for the pharmacokinetic parameters log maximum concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), log area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity ( $AUC_{0-\infty}$ ), and half-life for isoniazid (INH) and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid (AcINH) stratified by acetylator status and log AcINH concentration to log INH concentration ratio at 2 and 4 h stratified by acetylator genotype. R, I, and S, rapid, intermediate, and slow acetylator genotypes, respectively.

alter isoniazid PK and thus could account for the lack of genotypic and phenotypic concordance in this study.

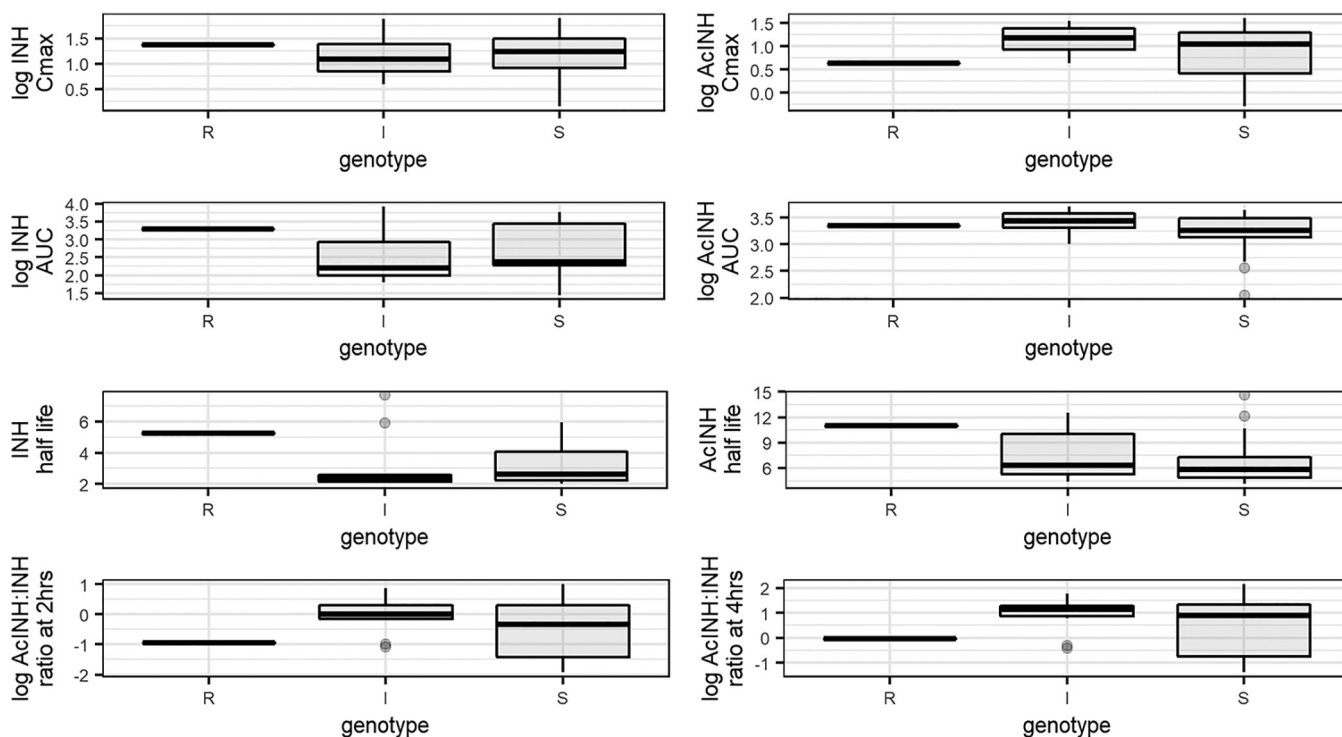
Although there were more hepatic adverse events among the SAs, there was no statistically significant association between genotype and hepatotoxicity in the two studies, with only 1 patient who was an RA having a grade 4 hepatic adverse event and 2 others who were IAs having grade 3 hepatic adverse events.

In our study, the participants received pyridoxine and co-trimoxazole with the antituberculosis therapy (ATT) in study 2 but not in study 1, as we used the samples collected on day 1 for this analysis when only ATT was given. As both INH and sulfamethoxazole are inhibitors of CYP2C9, this could be one of the reasons for the variations noted. INH also inhibits CYP3A4, which is induced by rifampin, but this interaction has not proven significant except when it relates to hepatotoxicity (59, 60). That the combination of INH and rifampin leads to an increased risk of hepatotoxicity has been reported in other studies. In our study 2, isoniazid was given with rifabutin, which is a less potent hepatic enzyme inducer than rifampin, which therefore should have less interaction with INH (61). Considering the limited effect on hepatotoxicity, the effect of CYP2E1 was not evident in our study. We cannot confirm or exclude the possibility of an effect of these CYP450 enzymes on INH metabolism in these participants.

In our study, the samples were stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the loss of compound due to storage would have been minimal (62), although studies have not reported on the results for plasma samples stored longer than 5 weeks, nor have they reported on sample integrity for the metabolite, AcINH.

**Conclusion.** Among black Zulu TB-HIV-coinfected South African patients, most had a slow or intermediate acetylator *NAT2* genotype. There was a diversity of specific *NAT2* alleles, with the pattern differing from that in previously studied cohorts in other settings. Despite the rarity of rapid acetylator genotypes, INH PK were variable, and a





**FIG 3** Box plots for study 2, representing the medians (solid lines), interquartile ranges (boxes), and ranges (whiskers) for the pharmacokinetic parameters log maximum concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), log area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity ( $AUC_{0-\infty}$ ), and half-life for isoniazid (INH) and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid (AcINH) stratified by acetylator status and log AcINH concentration to log INH concentration ratio at 2 and 4 h stratified by acetylator genotype. R, I, and S, rapid, intermediate, and slow acetylator genotypes, respectively.

substantial proportion of individuals failed to attain minimum efficacy targets. Importantly, the *NAT2* genotype did not explain the PK variability in this cohort or the low  $C_{max}$ , which suggests that other factors could be influencing isoniazid bioavailability and metabolism, and these require further elucidation.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Participants, study treatment, and sample collection.** Participants from two unrelated PK studies were included (54, 63). Both studies recruited black, Zulu-speaking adults living with HIV from KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, between March 2007 and April 2010. Study 1 was entitled “Bioavailability of the Fixed Dose Formulation Rifapin Containing Isoniazid, Rifampin Pyrazinamide, Ethambutol and the WHO Recommended First Line Anti-Retroviral Drugs Zidovudine, Lamivudine, Efavirenz Administered to New TB Patients at Different Levels of Immunosuppression.” The results of this study have been previously reported (54). As shown in Table 10, for the purposes of this analysis, we used samples collected on day 1 of the study after an overnight fast, at predose, at 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 12 h postdose, with the samples being analyzed for INH and AcINH for 60 participants with microbiologically proven pulmonary TB (by a positive sputum culture or smear) who received a standard first-line TB regimen consisting of an FDC, as described above. The INH dose was 150 mg, 225 mg, 300 mg, and 375 mg per day for participants with

**TABLE 9** Participants with any hepatic adverse events<sup>a</sup>

Adverse event grade	No. (%) of participants with the indicated acetylator phenotype							
	Study 1				Study 2			
	Rapid	Intermediate	Slow	Total	Rapid	Intermediate	Slow	Total
1	7	9	25	41	0	5	10	15
2	2	0	0	2	0	1	1	2
3	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
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)

<sup>a</sup>Hepatic adverse events from the two studies included a combination of elevated aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), gamma-glutamyltransferase, and total bilirubin levels.

**TABLE 10** PK time points and dosing<sup>a</sup>

Study	Schedule of PK sampling (day of anti-TB treatment)	Treatment
Study 1	Day 1, with sampling predose and at 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, and 12 h after the dose	Four-drug FDC formulation (EMB, RMP, INH, and PZA at 275, 150, 75, and 400 mg, respectively) dosed daily by weight band <sup>b</sup>
Study 2	Day 63 (after 2 wk on continuation phase RBN-INH) with sampling predose and 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, and 24 h after the dose	Enrollment at wk 6 and standard weight band-based treatment with RMP, INH, PZA, and EMB (as in study 1) At wk 6 and 7, RMP was replaced with RFB at 300 mg daily At wk 8 and 9, RFB at 300 mg and INH at 300 mg

<sup>a</sup>PK, pharmacokinetics; RMP, rifampin; PZA, pyrazinamide; EMB, ethambutol; FDC, fixed-dose combination; RFB, rifabutin (Mycobutin, Pfizer).

<sup>b</sup>Participants weighing 30 to 37 kg received 2 tablets, those weighing 38 to 54 kg received 3 tablets, those weighing 55 to 70 kg received 4 tablets, and those weighing >70 kg received 5 tablets.

weights of 30 to 37 kg, 38 to 54 kg, 55 to 70 kg, and 70 kg and above, respectively, per WHO guidelines (64). Blood from each participant was collected in a PAXgene tube for *NAT2* genotyping. In addition, genotyping was performed on a further 20 participants without TB who were recruited to this study (54).

Study 2, entitled "Pharmacokinetics of Rifabutin Combined with Antiretroviral Therapy in the Treatment of Tuberculosis Patients with HIV Infection in South Africa," was a randomized controlled trial of two different rifabutin doses coadministered with lopinavir-ritonavir-based antiretroviral therapy (63, 65). The participants initially received 6 weeks of standard intensive-phase treatment, followed by 2 weeks with rifabutin at 300 mg daily, which replaced rifampin. After 2 weeks of the continuation phase, during which the participants received only isoniazid and rifabutin (both at 300 mg daily), PK sampling was carried out. Individuals were fasted overnight, and a standard hospital breakfast was served 2 h after drug ingestion. Sampling was conducted predose and at 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, and 24 h after drug intake, with samples being analyzed for isoniazid and AcINH for 40 participants. *NAT2* genotyping was performed on 40 participants, with 34 participants having both PK sampling and genotyping.

All participants receiving anti-TB treatment in both studies were given pyridoxine for peripheral neuropathy prophylaxis, and patients with CD4 counts below 200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> received co-trimoxazole. No participants were on antiretrovirals at the time of PK sampling. Both studies were approved by the South African Medicines Control Council (SAMCC), Biomedical Research Ethics Committee (BREC), of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (study 1, approval number E294/05; study 2, approval number BFC011/07) and the South African Medical Research Council (SAMRC) Ethics Committee. Study 1 was also approved by the WHO Ethics Research Ethics Committee. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

***NAT2* genotyping procedures.** Total genomic DNA was isolated from whole blood using a QIAamp DNA minikit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Participants were genotyped, using a 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 prevalidated probe-based TaqMan assays per the manufacturer's instructions (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). Each participant sample was analyzed in duplicate.

**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 data set as a whole to assign the most likely haplotype for each individual, alongside a probability for this assignment (66, 67). The haplotype for each individual and the acetylator genotype for each haplotype were defined per the guidelines of the *NAT* Gene Nomenclature Committee ([http://nat.mbg.duth.gr/Human%20NAT%20alleles\\_2013.htm](http://nat.mbg.duth.gr/Human%20NAT%20alleles_2013.htm)). Individuals with two rapid acetylator alleles were defined as RAs, those with two slow acetylator alleles were defined as SAs, and those with one fast acetylator allele and one slow acetylator allele were defined as IAs.

**Isoniazid and *N*-acetyl-isoniazid PK and phenotype inference.** Blood samples were collected and immediately placed on ice, before centrifugation within 60 min, immediate separation, and storage of plasma at -70°C until analysis. The concentrations of isoniazid, AcINH, and the 6-aminonicotinic acid internal control were quantified using validated high-performance liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS/MS). Sample preparation included a protein precipitation step with acetonitrile and subsequent dilution with water. The analytes were chromatographically separated using a Waters Exterra C<sub>18</sub> column (particle size, 3.5 μm; 50 mm by 2.1 mm) and detected using an AB Sciex 5500 Q-Trap mass spectrometer. All analytes were analyzed isocratically with an acetonitrile-water-0.1% formic acid mobile phase. Isoniazid, AcINH, and the internal standard were analyzed at mass transitions of the precursor ions (*m/z*) of 137.9, 180.1, and 138.7 to the product ions (*m/z*) of 66.0, 78.6, and 50.9, respectively. Chromatographic data acquisition, peak integration, and quantification of analytes were performed using Analyst software (version 1.5.2). We constructed time-concentration curves in the PK package in R for Windows (version 3.5.1). We characterized the isoniazid and AcINH PK parameters maximum concentration (*C*<sub>max</sub>), time to maximum concentration (*T*<sub>max</sub>), area under the concentration-time curve from 0 h to infinity (*AUC*<sub>0-∞</sub>), apparent oral clearance (CL), and elimination half-life and compared *C*<sub>max</sub> to published efficacy targets (48). *AUC*<sub>0-∞</sub> was calculated using the trapezoid rule, apparent oral clearance was estimated by dose/*AUC*<sub>0-∞</sub> and the elimination half-life was estimated by

regression analysis of the log concentrations of the terminal exponent of elimination. We analyzed the ratio of log AclNH concentration/log isoniazid concentration at 2 and 4 h to assess the acetylation phenotype.

Sample processing and HPLC-MS were 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 AclNH concentrations as described above (having previously only had isoniazid concentrations determined). To confirm the integrity of these samples, we compared the isoniazid AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> from the current analysis with that previously reported for the same samples analyzed in 2010.

**Statistical methods.** All data were entered into EpiData software 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 were described as the median and interquartile ranges. C<sub>max</sub> and AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> were log transformed prior to comparison between genotypes. PK parameters were compared, by genotype, using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test or the Kruskal-Wallis test.

**Hepatic adverse events.** Hepatic adverse events were defined as elevated alanine transaminase (ALT) and aspartate transaminase (AST) levels, elevated alkaline phosphatase levels, and elevated total bilirubin levels, graded per the Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH, toxicity table for grading the severity of HIV-positive adult adverse events.

**Data availability.** Data related to this study have been deposited at <https://figshare.com/s/8b42c433e1edce625849>.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The study was sponsored by the Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases, World Health Organization, and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID; umbrella grant no. AAG-G-00-99-00005). The European and Developing Countries Clinical Trials Partnership (EDCTP) supplied supplementary funding of the Ph.D. (T. Mthiyane). We also acknowledge the generous donations of antiretroviral drugs from two major pharmaceutical companies, GlaxoSmithKline (United Kingdom) and Merck (United States), without which the study would not have been conducted. Study 2 was funded by the Agence Nationale de Recherche Sur le Sida et les Hépatites Virales. The Wellcome Trust (grant 203919/Z/16/Z) supported T. Mthiyane.

The sponsors had nothing to do with study conduct.

We thank the study staff for their hard work and the patients for their involvement in this study.

## REFERENCES

- World Health Organization. 2019. Global tuberculosis report. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Chideya S, Winston CA, Peloquin CA, Bradford WZ, Hopewell PC, Wells CD, Reingold AL, Kenyon TA, Moeti TL, Tappero JW. 2009. Isoniazid, rifampin, ethambutol, and pyrazinamide pharmacokinetics and treatment outcomes among a predominantly HIV-infected cohort of adults with tuberculosis from Botswana. *Clin Infect Dis* 48:1685–1694. <https://doi.org/10.1086/599040>.
- Pasipanodya JG, McIlleron H, Burger A, Wash PA, Smith P, Gumbo T. 2013. Serum drug concentrations predictive of pulmonary tuberculosis outcomes. *J Infect Dis* 208:1464–1473. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jit352>.
- Lauterburg BH, Smith CV, Todd EL, Mitchell JR. 1985. Pharmacokinetics of the toxic hydrazino metabolites formed from isoniazid in humans. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 235:566–570.
- Ryan DE, Ramanathan L, Iida S, Thomas PE, Haniu M, Shively JE, Lieber CS, Levin W. 1985. Characterization of a major form of rat hepatic microsomal cytochrome P-450 induced by isoniazid. *J Biol Chem* 260:6385–6393.
- Ellard GA, Gammon PT. 1976. Pharmacokinetics of isoniazid metabolism in man. *J Pharmacokin Biopharm* 4:83–113. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01086149>.
- Timbrell JA, Wright JM, Baillie TA. 1977. Monoacetylhydrazine as a metabolite of isoniazid in man. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 22:602–608. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt1977225part1602>.
- Kinzig-Schippers M, Tomalik-Scharte D, Jetter A, Scheidel B, Jakob V, Rodamer M, Cascorbi I, Doroshenko O, Sörgel F, Fuhr U. 2005. Should we use N-acetyltransferase type 2 genotyping to personalize isoniazid doses? *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 49:1733–1738. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.49.5.1733-1738.2005>.
- Evans DA, Manley KA, McKusick KV. 1960. Genetic control of isoniazid metabolism in man. *Br Med J* 2:485–491. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.2.5197.485>.
- Blum M, Demierre A, Grant DM, Heim M, Meyer UA. 1991. Molecular mechanism of slow acetylation of drugs and carcinogens in humans. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 88:5237–5241. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.88.12.5237>.
- Deguchi T, Mashimo M, Suzuki T. 1990. Correlation between acetylator phenotypes and genotypes of polymorphic arylamine N-acetyltransferase in human liver. *J Biol Chem* 265:12757–12760.
- Parkin DP, Vandenplas S, Botha FJ, Vandenplas ML, Seifart HI, van Helden PD, van der Walt BJ, Donald PR, van Jaarsveld PP. 1997. Trimodality of isoniazid elimination: phenotype and genotype in patients with tuberculosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 155:1717–1722. <https://doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm.155.5.9154882>.
- Mashimo M, Suzuki T, Abe M, Deguchi T. 1992. Molecular genotyping of N-acetylation polymorphism to predict phenotype. *Hum Genet* 90:139–143. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00210758>.
- Huang YS, Chern HD, Su WJ, Wu JC, Lai SL, Yang SY, Chang FY, Lee SD. 2002. Polymorphism of the N-acetyltransferase 2 gene as a susceptibility risk factor for antituberculosis drug-induced hepatitis. *Hepatology* 35:883–889. <https://doi.org/10.1053/jhep.2002.32102>.
- Ohno M, Yamaguchi I, Yamamoto I, Fukuda T, Yokota S, Maekura R, Ito M, Yamamoto Y, Ogura T, Maeda K, Komuta K, Igarashi T, Azuma J. 2000. Slow N-acetyltransferase 2 genotype affects the incidence of isoniazid and rifampicin-induced hepatotoxicity. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* 4:256–261.

16. Wang PY, Xie SY, Hao Q, Zhang C, Jiang BF. 2012. NAT2 polymorphisms and susceptibility to anti-tuberculosis drug-induced liver injury: a meta-analysis. *Int J Tuber Lung Dis* 16:589–595. <https://doi.org/10.5588/ijtld.11.0377>.
17. Drayer DE, Reidenberg MM. 1977. Clinical consequences of polymorphic acetylation of basic drugs. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 22:251–258. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt197723251>.
18. Garibaldi RA, Drusin RE, Ferebee SH, Gregg MB. 1972. Isoniazid-associated hepatitis. Report of an outbreak. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 106:357–365. <https://doi.org/10.1164/arrd.1972.106.3.357>.
19. Mitchell JR, Zimmerman HJ, Ishak KG, Thorgeirsson UP, Timbrell JA, Snodgrass WR, Nelson SD. 1976. Isoniazid liver injury: clinical spectrum, pathology, and probable pathogenesis. *Ann Intern Med* 84:181–192. <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-84-2-181>.
20. Warrington RJ, Tse KS, Gorski BA, Schwenk R, Sehon AH. 1978. Evaluation of isoniazid-associated hepatitis by immunological tests. *Clin Exp Immunol* 32:97–104.
21. Ellard GA, Gammon PT. 1977. Acetylator phenotyping of tuberculosis patients using matrix isoniazid or sulphadimidine and its prognostic significance for treatment with several intermittent isoniazid-containing regimens. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 4:5–14. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2125.1977.tb00659.x>.
22. Evans DA. 1964. Enzymes and drug sensitivity. Acetylation polymorphisms. *Proc R Soc Med* 57:508–511.
23. Sirgel FA, Fourie PB, Donald PR, Padayatchi N, Rustomjee R, Levin J, Roscigno G, Norman J, McIlerron H, Mitchison DA. 2005. The early bactericidal activities of rifampin and rifapentine in pulmonary tuberculosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 172:128–135. <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.200411-1557OC>.
24. Donald PR, Sirgel FA, Botha FJ, Seifart HI, Parkin DP, Vandenplas ML, Van de Wal BW, Maritz JS, Mitchison DA. 1997. The early bactericidal activity of isoniazid related to its dose size in pulmonary tuberculosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 156:895–900. <https://doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm.156.3.9609132>.
25. Donald PR, Parkin DP, Seifart HI, Schaaf HS, van Helden PD, Werely CJ, Sirgel FA, Venter A, Maritz JS. 2007. The influence of dose and N-acetyltransferase-2 (NAT2) genotype and phenotype on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of isoniazid. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 63:633–639. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-007-0305-5>.
26. Chigutsa E, Pasipanodya JG, Visser ME, van Helden PD, Smith PJ, Sirgel FA, Gumbo T, McIlerron H. 2015. Impact of nonlinear interactions of pharmacokinetics and MICs on sputum bacillary kill rates as a marker of sterilizing effect in tuberculosis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 59:38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.03931-14>.
27. Pasipanodya J, Gumbo T. 2011. An oracle: antituberculosis pharmacokinetics-pharmacodynamics, clinical correlation, and clinical trial simulations to predict the future. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 55:24–34. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00749-10>.
28. Pasipanodya JG, Srivastava S, Gumbo T. 2012. Meta-analysis of clinical studies supports the pharmacokinetic variability hypothesis for acquired drug resistance and failure of antituberculosis therapy. *Clin Infect Dis* 55:169–177. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cis353>.
29. Azuma J, Ohno M, Kubota R, Yokota S, Nagai T, Tsuyuguchi K, Okuda Y, Takashima T, Kamimura S, Fujio Y, Kawase I, Pharmacogenetics-Based Tuberculosis Therapy Research Group. 2013. NAT2 genotype guided regimen reduces isoniazid-induced liver injury and early treatment failure in the 6-month four-drug standard treatment of tuberculosis: a randomized controlled trial for pharmacogenetics-based therapy. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 69:1091–1101. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-012-1429-9>.
30. Cascorbi I, Drakoulis N, Brockmoller J, Maurer A, Sperling K, Roots I. 1995. Arylamine N-acetyltransferase (NAT2) mutations and their allelic linkage in unrelated Caucasian individuals: correlation with phenotypic activity. *Am J Hum Genet* 57:581–592.
31. Agundez JA, Martinez C, Olivera M, Ledesma MC, Ladero JM, Benitez J. 1994. Molecular analysis of the arylamine N-acetyltransferase polymorphism in a Spanish population. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 56:202–209. <https://doi.org/10.1038/clpt.1994.124>.
32. Lin HJ, Han CY, Lin BK, Hardy S. 1994. Ethnic distribution of slow acetylator mutations in the polymorphic N-acetyltransferase (NAT2) gene. *Pharmacogenetics* 4:125–134. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00008571-199406000-00003>.
33. Walker K, Ginsberg G, Hattis D, Johns DO, Guyton KZ, Sonawane B. 2009. Genetic polymorphism in N-acetyltransferase (NAT): population distribution of NAT1 and NAT2 activity. *J Toxicol Environ Health B Crit Rev* 12:440–472. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10937400903158383>.
34. Hein DW, Fretland AJ, Doll MA. 2006. Effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms in human N-acetyltransferase 2 on metabolic activation (O-acetylation) of heterocyclic amine carcinogens. *Int J Cancer* 119:1208–1211. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.21957>.
35. Sabbagh A, Langaney A, Darlu P, Gerard N, Krishnamoorthy R, Poloni ES. 2008. Worldwide distribution of NAT2 diversity: implications for NAT2 evolutionary history. *BMC Genet* 9:21. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2156-9-21>.
36. Patin E, Barreiro LB, Sabeti PC, Austerlitz F, Luca F, Sajantila A, Behar DM, Semino O, Sakuntabhai A, Guiso N, Gicquel B, McElreavey K, Harding RM, Heyer E, Quintana-Murci L. 2006. Deciphering the ancient and complex evolutionary history of human arylamine N-acetyltransferase genes. *Am J Hum Genet* 78:423–436. <https://doi.org/10.1086/500614>.
37. Smith CA, Wadelius M, Gough AC, Harrison DJ, Wolf CR, Rane A. 1997. A simplified assay for the arylamine N-acetyltransferase 2 polymorphism validated by phenotyping with isoniazid. *J Med Genet* 34:758–760. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jmg.34.9.758>.
38. Evans DA. 1968. Genetic variations in the acetylation of isoniazid and other drugs. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 151:723–733. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.1968.tb48255.x>.
39. Hein DW, Ferguson RJ, Doll MA, Rustan TD, Gray K. 1994. Molecular genetics of human polymorphic N-acetyltransferase: enzymatic analysis of 15 recombinant wild-type, mutant, and chimeric NAT2 allozymes. *Hum Mol Genet* 3:729–734. <https://doi.org/10.1093/hmg/3.5.729>.
40. Hein DW, Doll MA. 2012. Accuracy of various human NAT2 SNP genotyping panels to infer rapid, intermediate and slow acetylator phenotypes. *Pharmacogenomics* 13:31–41. <https://doi.org/10.2217/pgs.11.122>.
41. Singh N, Dubey S, Chinnaraj S, Golani A, Maitra A. 2009. Study of NAT2 gene polymorphisms in an Indian population: association with plasma isoniazid concentration in a cohort of tuberculosis patients. *Mol Diagn Ther* 13:49–58. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf03256314>.
42. Lakkakula S, Mohan Pathapati R, Chaubey G, Munirajan AK, Lakkakula B, Maram R. 2014. NAT2 genetic variations among South Indian populations. *Hum Genome Var* 1:14014. <https://doi.org/10.1038/hgv.2014.14>.
43. Patin E, Harmant C, Kidd KK, Kidd J, Froment A, Mehdi SQ, Sica L, Heyer E, Quintana-Murci L. 2006. Sub-Saharan African coding sequence variation and haplotype diversity at the NAT2 gene. *Hum Mutat* 27:720. <https://doi.org/10.1002/humu.9438>.
44. Bach PH, Higgins-Opitz SB, Bima B, Leary WP. 1976. Isoniazid acetylase status of black South African tuberculosis patients. *S Afr Med J* 50:1132–1134.
45. Werely CJ. 2012. Pharmacogenetics of arylamine N-acetyltransferase genes in South African populations. Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch, South Africa.
46. O'Neil WM, Drobitch RK, MacArthur RD, Farrough MJ, Doll MA, Fretland AJ, Hein DW, Crane LR, Svensson CK. 2000. Acetylase phenotype and genotype in patients infected with HIV: discordance between methods for phenotype determination and genotype. *Pharmacogenetics* 10:171–182. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00008571-200003000-00009>.
47. Kaufmann GR, Wenk M, Taeschner W, Peterli B, Gyr K, Meyer UA, Haefeli WE. 1996. N-Acetyltransferase 2 polymorphism in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 60:62–67. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0009-9236\(96\)90168-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0009-9236(96)90168-X).
48. Alsultan A, Peloquin CA. 2014. Therapeutic drug monitoring in the treatment of tuberculosis: an update. *Drugs* 74:839–854. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40265-014-0222-8>.
49. Sirugo G, Hennig BJ, Adeyemo AA, Matimba A, Newport MJ, Ibrahim ME, Ryckman KK, Tacconelli A, Mariani-Costantini R, Novelli G, Soodyall H, Rotimi CN, Ramesar RS, Tishkoff SA, Williams SM. 2008. Genetic studies of African populations: an overview on disease susceptibility and response to vaccines and therapeutics. *Hum Genet* 123:557–598. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00439-008-0511-y>.
50. Delomé C, Sica L, Grant DM, Krishnamoorthy R, Dupret J-M. 1996. Genotyping of the polymorphic N-acetyltransferase (NAT2\*) gene locus in two native African populations. *Pharmacogenetics* 6:177–185. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00008571-199604000-00004>.
51. Naidoo A, Chirehwa M, Ramsuran V, McIlerron H, Naidoo K, Yende-Zuma N, Singh R, Ncgapu S, Adamson J, Govender K, Denti P, Padayatchi N. 2019. Effects of genetic variability on rifampicin and isoniazid pharmacokinetics in South African patients with recurrent tuberculosis. *Pharmacogenomics* 20:225–240. <https://doi.org/10.2217/pgs-2018-0166>.
52. Loktionov A, Moore W, Spencer SP, Vorster H, Nell T, O'Neill IK, Bingham

- SA, Cummings JH. 2002. Differences in N-acetylation genotypes between Caucasians and black South Africans: implications for cancer prevention. *Cancer Detect Prev* 26:15–22. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-090X\(02\)00010-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-090X(02)00010-7).
53. Dandara C, Masimirembwa CM, Magimba A, Kaaya S, Sayi J, Sommers DK, Snyman JR, Hasler JA. 2003. Arylamine N-acetyltransferase (NAT2) genotypes in Africans: the identification of a new allele with nucleotide changes 481C>T and 590G>A. *Pharmacogenetics* 13:55–58. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00008571-200301000-00008>.
54. McIlleron H, Rustomjee R, Vahedi M, Mthiyane T, Denti P, Connolly C, Rida W, Pym A, Smith PJ, Onyebujoh PC. 2012. Reduced antituberculosis drug concentrations in HIV-infected patients who are men or have low weight: implications for international dosing guidelines. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 56:3232–3238. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.05526-11>.
55. Klein DJ, Boukouvala S, McDonagh EM, Shuldiner SR, Laurieri N, Thorn CF, Altman RB, Klein TE. 2016. PharmGKB summary: isoniazid pathway, pharmacokinetics (PK). *Pharmacogenet Genomics* 26:436–444. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FPC.0000000000000232>.
56. Alfirevic A, Stalford AC, Vilar FJ, Wilkins EG, Park BK, Pirmohamed M. 2003. Slow acetylator phenotype and genotype in HIV-positive patients with sulphamethoxazole hypersensitivity. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 55: 158–165. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2125.2003.01754.x>.
57. O'Neil WM, MacArthur RD, Farrough MJ, Doll MA, Fretland AJ, Hein DW, Crane LR, Svensson CK. 2002. Acetylator phenotype and genotype in HIV-infected patients with and without sulfonamide hypersensitivity. *J Clin Pharmacol* 42: 613–619. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00970002042006004>.
58. Jones AE, Brown KC, Werner RE, Gotzkowsky K, Gaedigk A, Blake M, Hein DW, van der Horst C, Kashuba AD. 2010. Variability in drug metabolizing enzyme activity in HIV-infected patients. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 66: 475–485. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-009-0777-6>.
59. Yew W. 2002. Clinically significant interactions with drugs used in the treatment of tuberculosis. *Drug Saf* 25:111–113. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00002018-200225020-00005>.
60. Holdiness MR. 1984. Clinical pharmacokinetics of the antituberculosis drugs. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 9:511–544. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-198409060-00003>.
61. Blaschke TF, Skinner MH. 1996. The clinical pharmacokinetics of rifabutin. *Clin Infect Dis* 22:S15–S22. [https://doi.org/10.1093/clinids/22.Supplement\\_1.S15](https://doi.org/10.1093/clinids/22.Supplement_1.S15).
62. Hutchings A, Monie RD, Spragg B, Routledge PA. 1983. A method to prevent the loss of isoniazid and acetylisoniazid in human plasma. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 15:263–266. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2125.1983.tb01496.x>.
63. Naiker S, Connolly C, Wiesner L, Kellerman T, Reddy T, Harries A, McIlleron H, Lienhardt C, Pym A. 2014. Randomized pharmacokinetic evaluation of different rifabutin doses in African HIV-infected tuberculosis patients on lopinavir/ritonavir-based antiretroviral therapy. *BMC Pharmacol Toxicol* 15:61. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2050-6511-15-61>.
64. World Health Organization. 2010. Treatment of tuberculosis: guidelines, 4th ed. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.
65. Hennig S, Naiker S, Reddy T, Egan D, Kellerman T, Wiesner L, Owen A, McIlleron H, Pym A. 2016. Effect of SLCO1B1 polymorphisms on rifabutin pharmacokinetics in African HIV-infected patients with tuberculosis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 60:617–620. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01195-15>.
66. Stephens M, Donnelly P. 2003. A comparison of Bayesian methods for haplotype reconstruction from population genotype data. *Am J Hum Genet* 73:1162–1169. <https://doi.org/10.1086/379378>.
67. Stephens M, Smith NJ, Donnelly P. 2001. A new statistical method for haplotype reconstruction from population data. *Am J Hum Genet* 68: 978–989. <https://doi.org/10.1086/319501>.