

Antibiotic Susceptibility Patterns and Mutations Associated with Isoniazid and Rifampicin Resistance in Non-Tuberculosis Mycobacterium Isolates from HIV-1 Infected and Uninfected Patients in Western Kenya

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ABSTRACT

Primarily among immunocompromised people, notably those living with HIV/AIDS, antimicrobial resistance (AMR) among non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) has become a major public health issue. Though the main pathogen in such populations is *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, the importance of NTM in causing AMR and complicating treatment plans is becoming more well known. Still, the causes of medication resistance in NTM especially in relation to HIV co-infection remain mostly unknown. This study sought to ascertain the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of NTM isolates and identify genetic alterations linked with isoniazid and rifampicin resistance among HIV-1 infected and uninfected patients in Western Kenya. Adult HIV-1 infected individuals showing suspected pulmonary tuberculosis were subject to a cross-sectional analytical laboratory analysis. Samples of sputum were gathered; NTM isolates were grown and identified. The broth microdilution technique was used for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Line probe tests aiming at the *rpoB*, *katG*, and *inhA* genes helped to find genetic alterations linked to medication resistance. Of 167 participants, 59 NTM isolates were found; most often occurring species were *M. intracellulerae* and *M. fortuitum*. Observed in 12.1%, 15.2%, and 15.2% of isolates respectively were resistance to isoniazid, rifampicin, and streptomycin. HIV-positive individuals had more frequent mutations in the *rpoB*, *katG*, and *inhA* genes; medication resistance and HIV status had clear correlation. The study emphasises how different treatment resistance patterns and genetic alterations cause NTM infections in HIV-positive patients to be difficultly managed. Especially in resource-limited environments, these results highlight the importance of customised treatment plans and continuous monitoring of AMR in NTM.

KEYWORDS: Non-tuberculous mycobacterium, Antimicrobial drug resistance, Isoniazid, Rifampicin

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INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) among non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) has developed to be a key public health concern of this century (Bryant et al., 2016; Faverio et al., 2016). AMR is a threat to effective treatment of pathogenic microbes. Therefore, sentinel surveillance for AMR markers in both pathogenic and non-pathogenic microbes is important. NTM being abundant microorganisms in nature pose a threat of spreading drug

resistance traits by their interaction (Munita & Arias, 2016). Previous evidence has revealed the role that NTM have played in escalating antimicrobial resistance (Johansen et al., 2020). However, the mechanisms by which NTM spread AMR are not fully understood. But some of the inherent characteristics in NTM that are believed to be capable of decreasing drug uptake that eventually causes resistance to antibiotics include, their thick, impermeable cell walls, their presence in biofilms and granulomas (Bryant et al., 2016;

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Luthra et al., 2018). Additionally, some NTMs express proteins that specifically target antibiotics that consequently reduce drug efficacy (Nessar et al., 2012). It is also crucial to map genotypic and allelic variations connected to AMR at the molecular level. For instance, plasmids are used by bacteria to reproduce, therefore there could be possibilities that resistant features will be introduced into the genomes of previously vulnerable NTM by plasmids (Morgado et al., 2017; Tagini et al., 2021).

Conditions that cause immune deficiency in people includes cancer, organ transplant, HIV and AIDS and some genetic diseases (Sharma & Upadhyay, 2020; Winthrop et al., 2020). HIV and AIDS is the most prevalent cause of immune deficiency (Agizew et al., 2017). Globally, people are living with HIV and with the advent of antiretroviral therapy, fewer number of patients with AIDS are being recorded (Lapinel et al., 2019). Previous studies have attributed the global spread of NTM to HIV infected individuals. Nevertheless, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) has been for a long time reported as the most prevalent opportunistic infection in patients with HIV and AIDS (Peters et al., 2019). However, dearth research on the epidemiology of NTM in HIV and AIDS patients has led to underestimation of its prevalence within TB endemic countries such as Kenya (Kaguthi et al., 2019). The situation is further compounded by antibiotic resistance in HIV patients co-infected with NTM. Although, several NTM species are now recognized as a major infective threat in HIV and AIDS individuals, their in-depth genomic investigation has not been carried out systematically (Yeung et al., 2016). Altogether, these studies seem to suggest that molecular characterization of NTM needs to be done in the context of AMR in HIV and AIDS patients.

MTB is the most important bacteria in the genus mycobacteria. Most studies on AMR have focused on MTB with a number of mutations in specific markers being described in the context of isoniazid and rifampicin resistance. Of the genes commonly analyzed for isoniazid and rifampicin resistance in MTB include *rpoB*, *katG* and *inhA*. These genes are relatively conserved across other species in mycobacterium genus (Kim et al., 2019; Orgeur et al., 2024). Therefore, determined antimicrobial susceptibility patterns and characterized the various gene mutations in NTMs isolates associated with isoniazid and rifampicin resistance.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design and population. A cross sectional analytical laboratory study design was used targeting adult HIV-1 infected patients presenting with presumptive pulmonary TB at Bungoma County Referral Hospital comprehensive care clinic in a resource limited setting in western Kenya. **Inclusion criteria:** HIV-1 positive presenting with TB-like symptoms including chronic productive cough lasting more

than 2 weeks, loss of appetite, fever, fatigue, headache and night sweats and who consented. **Exclusion criteria:** Patients on TB treatment were excluded from the study.

HIV-1 diagnosis. Confirmation of HIV-1 was done using rapid immunochromatographic test kit, Determine™ (Abbott Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan) and first response™ (Trinity Biotech Plc, Bray, Ireland). In accordance with the Kenyan national HIV testing algorithm, participants were considered HIV-1 infected if they had HIV positive results for Determine and HIV-1 positive results using first response kits.

Smear microscopy. Sputum samples were screened by fluorescent microscopy using Auramine O stain and smears found to be positive were confirmed by light microscopy using Ziehl-Neelsen's stain as per the standard protocols of both staining methods. Sputa were graded for positivity of AFB as per the guidelines, decontaminated according to standard guidelines and divided into two parts.

Culture. Decontaminated samples of those sputum samples that were found to have no members of MTB complex were cultured on Löwenstein-Jensen (LJ) media as per standard the protocol-and incubated at 37°C for a maximum of 8 weeks. Any strain of AFB grown from these samples was put up for biochemical tests and an rRNA based DNA hybridization assay (Accuprobe® System; Gen-Probe Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) to detect the presence of MTB complex, if any, according to the manufacturer's guidelines.

Line probe assay for NTM. The strains negative for MTB complex were confirmed as NTM by negative niacin accumulation test, growth on paranitrobenzoic acid (PNB) incorporated LJ media, positive catalase test and a negative result of a ribosomal RNA based DNA hybridization assay for *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (Accuprobe® System Gen-Probe Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). DNA was extracted from these NTM using GenoLyse®, VER1.0 (Hain Lifescience, GmbH, Nehren, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Line probe assay for NTM was carried out using GenoType® *Mycobacterium* common mycobacteria (CM), VER 1.0 (Hain Lifescience, GmbH, Nehren, Germany) to identify the NTM as per the manufacturer's guidelines.

If NTMs were detected in a sputum sample, a request was made to the treatment providers to organize to send three consecutive sputum samples from the patient in order to understand whether there was an NTM infection according to the established American Thoracic Society (ATS) criteria. Smear microscopy, culture and LPA were then again carried out as described above.

Determination of minimum inhibition concentrations (MICs). The broth microdilution method was used to determine the minimum inhibitory concentration of the antibiotics for the NTM isolates, and the results were interpreted in accordance with the guidelines provided by the Standard Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute

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(CLSI) (Brown-Elliott & Woods, 2019). A commercial radiometric medium made by Johnston Laboratories was utilized in the broth dilution technique, and the BACTEC 460-TB instrument was used to measure the CO₂ released as a result of the growth of NTM isolates in the 7H12B medium. The following concentrations of the different drugs were tested; streptomycin (STR): ≤0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 and ≥64 µg/ml; isoniazid (INH), ≤0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, and ≥8 µg/ml; rifampicin (RIF), ≤0.12, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, and ≥64 µg/ml; ethambutol (EMB), ≤0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8 and ≥16 µg/ml. An appropriate amount of antibiotic stock was added to Middle Brook 7H9 broth, which already contained 100 mL of oleic acid/dextrose/catalase (OADC) growth supplement and 2 ml of glycerol, in order to obtain the necessary dilution (Figure 3.1). To make a solution for well injection, growing colonies were extracted from the LJ-PNB medium and used at a concentration of 1.5 × 10⁵ colony-forming units (0.5 McFarland standard). In 96-well microtiter plates, 100 µl of 7H9 medium containing OADC was distributed. Serial concentrations were created for each antibiotic, followed by addition of 100 µl of bacterial suspension to each well. Parafilm and zip lock bags were employed to keep the microplates from drying out during the 2-week incubation period at 37 °C (Brown-Elliott & Woods, 2019). The MIC is the lowest amount of the antibiotic required to fully stop the NTM from growing (Inderlied et al., 1987). The susceptibility was determined based on CLSI breakpoint recommendations and published studies (Brown-Elliott & Woods, 2019). As shown in appendix V. The reference strains that were used as part of this analysis included *M. kansasii* ATCC® 12478 for SGM and *M. peregrinum* ATCC® 700686 for RGM (Li et al., 2017). Fast-growing mycobacteria were seen on day 5 of incubation in comparison to the growth of the positive control well; observations were made on days 10 through 14. Re-testing the drug susceptibility test was advised if the growth of the positive control well did not improve by day 21 and indicated.

GenoType MTBDRplus V.2.0 assay on NTMs. The GenoType MTBDRplus V.2.0 assay was performed according to the manufacturer’s protocol (Hain Lifescience GmbH, GenoTypeMTBDRplus, version 2.0 product insert. & Nehren, Germany). The test is based on DNA strip technology and has three steps: DNA extraction, multiplex PCR amplification, and reverse hybridization.

Ethical considerations. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from Masinde Muliro University of Science and

Technology Institutional Ethical Review Committee (Protocol: MMUST/IERC/097/2022. The National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) also gave permission to carry out the study through permit number NACOSTI/P/23/22686. Written informed consent was obtained from each participant before enrolment. All HIV-1 infected ART-naive, TB and NTM infected study participants were referred for further treatment.

RESULTS

Anthropometric and demographic characteristics.

Anthropometric and demographic data are summarized in table 1 below. A total of 167 participants were purposively recruited to the study. They presented with TB-like symptoms including chronic productive cough lasting more than 2 weeks, loss of appetite, fever, fatigue, headache and night sweats satisfied the inclusion criteria were able to produce sputum. Majority of participants were male 124 (74.3%) compared to female 43 (25.7%). Out of the total 167 participants, 73 (43.1%) were HIV positive co-infected with NTM while 94 (56.9%) were HIV negative but infected with NTM. The median age was equal between the clinical groups. However, the body mass index (BMI) of the HIV positive clinical group was significantly (Median; 19.8, IQR; 8.5 kg/m², vs Median; 23.8, IQR; 7.3 kg/m², P=0.026) lower compared with the HIV negative. Similarly, the weight of the HIV positive clinical group was significantly (Median; 60.4, IQR; 19.3 Kg, vs Median; 68.1, IQR; 24.9 Kg, P=0.046) lower compared with the HIV negative. Consistently, there were higher rates of underweight in the HIV positive group 30 (41.1%) compared with the negative 12 (12.8%). Other variables including education level, religion, marital status as well as anthropometric measures such as height, waist circumference, hip circumference, mid upper arm circumference (MUAC) and bust were similar between the groups. Conversely, occupation was significantly different between the groups with those formally employed being mostly HIV negative 65 (69.1%) vs positive 38 (52.1%), P=0.024.

Table 1: Anthropometric and demographic characteristics

Characteristics	HIV (-), n=94	HIV (+), n=73	P
<i>Gender</i>			
Female	25 (26.6)	18 (24.7)	0.776 ^a
Male	69 (73.4)	55 (75.3)	

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Age	40.5 (24.0)	41.0 (17.0)	0.806
Height	1.7 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	0.258
Weight	68.1 (24.9)	60.4 (19.3)	0.046
BMI	23.8 (7.3)	19.8 (8.5)	0.026
Nutrition status			
<i>Underweight</i>	12 (12.8)	30 (41.1)	0.436 ^b
<i>Normal</i>	46 (48.9)	14 (19.2)	
<i>Overweight</i>	36 (38.3)	29 (39.7)	
WC	74.0 (9.3)	76.0 (9.5)	0.624
HC	89.5 (9.0)	90.0 (6.3)	0.821
MUAC	25.0 (4.0)	24.0 (2.0)	0.824
BUST	84.5 (6.3)	85.0 (7.0)	0.631
<i>Religion</i>			
Catholic Christians	32 (34.0)	21 (28.8)	0.390 ^b
Muslim	13 (13.8)	13 (17.8)	
Protestant Christians	49 (52.1)	39 (53.4)	
<i>Education levels</i>			
Primary	58 (61.7)	44 (60.3)	0.155 ^b
Secondary	19 (20.2)	22 (30.1)	
Tertiary	17 (17.1)	7 (9.6)	
<i>Occupation</i>			
Informal	65 (69.1)	38 (52.1)	0.024^a
Formal	29 (30.9)	35 (47.9)	
<i>Marital status</i>			
Divorced	14 (14.9)	11 (15.1)	0.059 ^b
Married	19 (20.2)	15 (20.5)	
Separated	43 (45.7)	22 (30.1)	
Single	16 (17.0)	25 (34.3)	
Widow	2 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	

Data are presented as medians, interquartile range (IQR) or numbers (n) and percentages (%) of study subjects. HIV-1(+), human immunodeficiency virus type-1; BMI, body mass index; Normal; $\geq 18.5 \leq 25.0$ kg/m², Underweight < 18.5 kg/m², Overweight ≥ 25.0 kg/m². MUAC, mid upper arm circumference, WC, waist circumference, HC, hips circumference, BMI; body mass index; *P*, ^aFisher's exact tests; ^bChi-square test and Mann Whitney U test for continuous data. Bolded are significant *P*-values.

NTM species isolated from sputum samples by cultural characteristics. Table 2 below shows the various NTMs identified. Out of 167 samples, 59 samples that grew in PNB modified L-J medium were considered as NTM since, MTBC growth was inhibited by the presence of PNB in the media. The GenoType Mycobacterium CM/AS was used to speciate isolated NTM from liquid (BACTEC MGIT 960, Becton Dickinson, USA) or LJ-PNB culture media. The most common NTM identified were *M. intracellulae* 24/59 (40.7%), followed by *M. fortuitum* 15/59 (25.4%) and *M. avium* 7/59 (11.9%) respectively. Other species identified were, *M. kansasii* 7/59 (11.9%), *M. gordanae* 2/59 (3.4%). The species that had one isolate each were: *M. simiae*, *M. abscessus*, *M. scrofulaceum* and *M. lentiflavum*.

Table 2: NTM species isolated from sputum in HIV +/- participants

NTM culture positive	n (%)
<i>M. intracellulae</i>	24 (40.7)
<i>M. fortuitum</i>	15 (25.4)

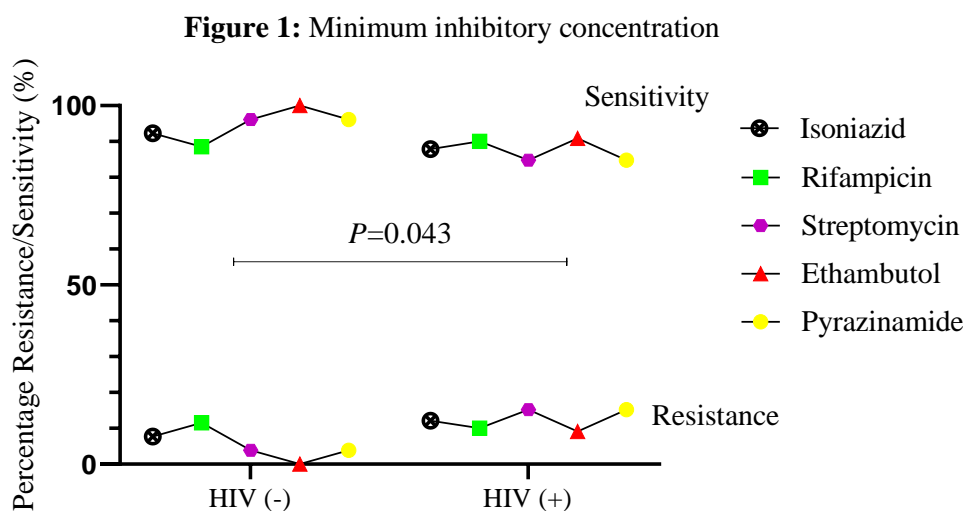
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<i>M. avium</i>	7 (11.9)
<i>M. kansasii</i>	7 (11.9)
<i>M. goodii</i>	2 (3.4)
<i>M. simiae</i>	1 (1.7)
<i>M. abscessus</i>	1 (1.7)
<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	1 (1.7)
<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	1 (1.7)
Total	59 (100)

Data are presented as numbers (n) and percentages (%) of non-tuberculous mycobacterium

Summary of minimum inhibition concentrations (MICs) for NTM isolates. Figure 1 summarizes MICs for NTM isolates. Generally, ethambutol was the most sensitive drug across the NTM species. However, the sensitivity was significantly different between the HIV positive participants

co-infected with NTM and those who are HIV negative but have NTM infection ($P=0.043$). Same trend was observed with isoniazid and pyrazinamide drugs respectively. Resistance was significantly noted in streptomycin (15.2%), pyrazinamide (15.2%) and isoniazid (12.1%) respectively.



Mutations identified via line probe assay on the NTM isolates. Data on the single nucleotide polymorphisms among NTM infected individuals are summarized in table 3 below. The 3 missense mutations coding for resistance at the *rpoB* locus were revealed to be D516V among the HIV negative individuals, while 4 similar mutations were characterized in the HIV positive individuals. In addition, 2

H526Y and 1 H526D were found to occur in the *rpoB* locus among the HIV positive. In the *katG* gene, 3 and 7 individuals presented with mutations at codon 315 in HIV negative and positive individuals respectively. The single nucleotide mutations were specifically S315T. Only 2 mutations were described in the *inhA* locus C15T among the HIV positive participants.

Table 3: Single nucleotide polymorphism identification by Line Probe Assays in NTM

Gene	HIV (-) (AA change)	HIV (+) (AA change)	Nucleotide change
<i>rpoB</i>	D516V (3) H526Y (0) H526D (0) S531L (0)	D516V (4) H526Y (2) H526D (1) S531L (0)	GAC>GTC CAC>TAC TGG>TTG
<i>katG</i>	S315T (3)	S315T (7)	AGC>ACC
<i>inhA</i>	C15T (0)	C15T (2)	TCG>ACG

Data presented as codon mapping on LPA. Data is showing missense mutation leading to a change in specific locus of the genes.

DISCUSSION

The current study analyzed antimicrobial susceptibility patterns and characterized gene mutations associated with

resistance to isoniazid and rifampicin in NTM isolates from HIV-1 infected patients. Generally, age and height were similar between clinical groups (HIV-1 negative and

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positive). Though, the participants were predominantly male. Similar previous studies have also reported a higher prevalence of TB-like symptoms and NTM infections among males (Dahl et al., 2022; Gopaldaswamy et al., 2020). For example, a study conducted in Tanzania reported that males were more likely to present with TB symptoms and were more often diagnosed with TB and NTM infections (Maya et al., 2022). This trend may be attributed to gender-specific behaviours, occupational exposures, and health-seeking behaviours. Religion, educational level and marital status did not have any influence any outcomes between the groups. Moreover, studies from different regions might report variations in the prevalence and demographic distribution of TB, NTM, and HIV infections. For example, studies in Asian countries have reported different gender distributions and occupational impacts compared to African studies (Dao et al., 2013). The results indicate that HIV-positive participants with NTM infection had significantly lower BMI and weight compared to HIV-negative participants with NTM infection. The association between HIV infection and lower BMI and weight is well-documented in the literature (Hill et al., 2024; Malvy et al., 2001). Studies in sub-Saharan Africa have consistently shown that HIV-infected individuals are more likely to experience malnutrition and lower BMI due to the increased metabolic demands of the infection, opportunistic infections, and reduced nutrient intake (Alebel et al., 2022; Fuseini et al., 2021; Martinez et al., 2016; Mpaka-Mbatha et al., 2022). Other anthropometric measures like height, waist/hip circumference, MUAC and bust were similar between the groups. Occupation differed, with more of the HIV-negative group formally employed. This association has been shown in other research as well. Formal employment often correlates with better socio-economic status, which in turn is associated with better access to healthcare and preventive measures (McMaughan et al., 2020). Studies in Southern Africa found that unemployment and informal employment were more common among HIV-positive individuals, potentially due to the physical and social impacts of the disease (Bor et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2019). However, the role of socioeconomic factors such as employment status may differ in urban versus rural settings, influencing the generalizability of findings across different populations.

M. intracellulare was the most prevalent, followed by *M. avium*. Similar studies have frequently reported *M. intracellulare* and *M. avium* as the predominant NTM species. A study in the United States found *M. avium* complex (MAC), which includes both *M. avium* and *M. intracellulare*, to be the most common cause of NTM lung disease (Adjemian et al., 2012; Mullen et al., 2024). The high prevalence of these species in both studies underscores their significant role in NTM infections worldwide. *M. fortuitum* was the second most common species. *M. fortuitum*, a rapidly growing mycobacterium, is often

reported in studies from various regions. For instance, a study in Mexico identified *M. fortuitum* as a common NTM species, particularly in patients with skin and soft tissue infections (Lopez-Luis et al., 2020). Its relatively high prevalence in this study aligns with findings from other parts of the world, indicating its widespread presence. *M. kansasii* accounted for 11.9% of NTM isolates. The prevalence of *M. kansasii* varies by region. In certain studies, from Europe and North America, *M. kansasii* is frequently associated with pulmonary infections (Narimisa et al., 2024). For example, a study in the UK reported *M. kansasii* as a significant cause of NTM lung disease, particularly among immunocompromised patients. The similar prevalence in this study highlights the global significance of *M. kansasii*. *M. gordonae* (3.4%), with single isolates of *M. simiae*, *M. abscessus*, *M. scrofulaceum*, and *M. lentiflavum*. The prevalence of these less common NTMs can vary widely. *M. gordonae*, often considered a contaminant, has been occasionally isolated in clinical settings. *M. abscessus* is notable for its pathogenic potential, particularly in cystic fibrosis patients, as reported in studies from the US and Europe (Degiacomi et al., 2019; Recchia et al., 2023). *M. simiae*, *M. scrofulaceum*, and *M. lentiflavum* are infrequently reported but have been documented in diverse geographic locations, underscoring the heterogeneity of NTM species distributions. The distribution of NTM species can differ significantly based on geographic location. For instance, MAC is more prevalent in North America and Europe, while rapidly growing mycobacteria like *M. fortuitum* are more frequently reported in tropical and subtropical regions (Delghandi et al., 2020; Ochayo et al., 2023). The type of clinical sample and patient population can influence the prevalence of specific NTM species (Winthrop et al., 2020). Studies focusing on respiratory samples often report higher rates of MAC, while studies involving skin and soft tissue infections may see a higher prevalence of rapidly growing mycobacteria like *M. fortuitum* and *M. abscessus*.

This study established differences in drug sensitivity and resistance among NTMs based on the HIV status of the infected individuals. Ethambutol was the most sensitive drug across all NTM species. Sensitivity to ethambutol was significantly different between HIV-positive participants co-infected with NTM and HIV-negative participants with NTM infection (Ahmed et al., 2013; Calcagno et al., 2024). Similar trends were observed for isoniazid and pyrazinamide, where the sensitivity also varied between HIV-positive and HIV-negative groups. The statistical significance for ethambutol suggests a notable difference in drug efficacy based on HIV status, which can be inferred to similarly affect isoniazid and pyrazinamide. This study found resistance to be 15.2% Streptomycin 15.2%, pyrazinamide 15.2% and isoniazid 12.1% resistance These drugs showed notable resistance rates, indicating a

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substantial proportion of NTM strains are resistant to these treatments. Ethambutol was the most sensitive drug across NTM species although there was significant variability in sensitivity between HIV-positive and HIV-negative individuals. Ethambutol is generally effective across NTM species, unlike streptomycin, pyrazinamide, and isoniazid which show considerable resistance. Resistance data indicates a high proportion of NTM strains are resistant to streptomycin, pyrazinamide, and isoniazid, presenting a challenge for these drugs irrespective of HIV status (Miotto et al., 2018; Ogwang et al., 2021; Rockwood et al., 2015). Overall, these findings highlight the complexity of treating NTM infections, especially in HIV-positive individuals, and underscore the importance of tailored treatment strategies based on drug sensitivity and resistance profiles.

The mutations identified in the *rpoB* and *katG* genes, along with those in the *inhA* reflect patterns of drug resistance often observed in MTB strains, particularly in the context of HIV co-infection. The *rpoB* gene, encoding the β subunit of RNA polymerase, is commonly associated with rifampicin resistance when mutated. The D516V, H526Y, and H526D mutations are well-documented in the literature. Studies such as those by Prammananan et al. (2008) and Jing et al. (2017) confirm that these mutations are prevalent in rifampicin-resistant TB strains (Jing et al., 2017; Prammananan et al., 2008). However, few studies have documented these mutations in NTMs especially in HIV-1 infected patients. Research by Singh et al. (2023) and Gupta et al. (2011) indicates that rifampicin resistance is more frequently observed in HIV-positive TB patients (Gupta et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2023). This correlates with the higher number of *rpoB* mutations observed in the HIV-positive group in the present study. This trend may be due to the higher bacterial load and faster progression of TB in immunocompromised individuals, which can lead to a higher mutation rate and drug resistance. In NTMs, *rpoB* mutations also confer rifampicin resistance, but the specific mutations and their prevalence can vary. For instance, mutations in NTMs like *M. kansasii* may involve different codons. Contrastingly, Brown-Elliott et al. (2012) showed that NTMs may harbor unique *rpoB* mutations not commonly seen in *M. tuberculosis* (Brown-Elliott et al., 2012).

The S315T mutation in the *katG* gene, responsible for encoding the catalase-peroxidase enzyme, is one of the most common mutations associated with isoniazid resistance. Numerous studies, such as those by Mokrousov et al. (2002) and Piatek et al. (2000), report high frequencies of the S315T mutation in both HIV-positive and HIV-negative TB patients (Mokrousov et al., 2002; Piatek et al., 2000). The higher occurrence of the S315T mutation in HIV-positive individuals in the current study aligns with findings from other research. For instance, studies by Narayanan et al. (2002) and Gandhi et al. (2006) have shown a significant

association between HIV infection and higher rates of isoniazid resistance (Gandhi et al., 2006; Narayanan et al., 2002). This may be attributed to the increased use of isoniazid preventive therapy in HIV-positive populations, which can select for resistant strains. In NTMs, the *katG* gene's role in isoniazid resistance is less prominent because NTMs are generally less susceptible to isoniazid. For example, *M. avium* and *M. abscessus* are intrinsically resistant to isoniazid, rendering *katG* mutations less relevant. However, studies such as those by Griffith et al. (2007) have identified *katG* mutations in some NTM species, indicating that resistance mechanisms can vary (Griffith et al., 2007).

The C15T mutation in the promoter region of the *inhA* gene, which encodes the enoyl-ACP reductase enzyme, leads to overexpression of the enzyme and confers low-level isoniazid resistance. Studies such as those by Isakova et al. (2018) and Spies et al. (2008) have identified this mutation in both HIV-positive and HIV-negative TB patients, but it appears less frequently compared to *katG* mutations (Isakova et al., 2018; Spies et al., 2008). The presence of *inhA* mutations specifically in HIV-positive individuals, as observed in the current study, might suggest a unique resistance pattern driven by the interplay between HIV infection and NTM treatment regimens. This aligns with findings from studies like those by Seifert et al. (2015) and Naidoo et al. (2015), which highlight different resistance profiles in HIV-positive populations (Naidoo et al., 2015; Seifert et al., 2015). The *inhA* locus mutations in NTMs may contribute to resistance against other drugs like ethionamide. In *M. tuberculosis*, *inhA* mutations confer resistance to isoniazid and ethionamide. In NTMs, however, the clinical significance of *inhA* mutations is less clear. Research by Nasiri et al. (2017) indicates that NTMs may have different regulatory mechanisms affecting drug resistance (Nasiri et al., 2017). The immune status of HIV-positive individuals can influence the resistance profiles of both *M. tuberculosis* and NTMs. A previous study for instance Agizew et al. (2020) highlights that HIV-positive patients often present with multi-drug resistant NTMs, complicating treatment regimens. In general, HIV-positive individuals are at higher risk of NTM infections due to immunosuppression (Agizew et al., 2020). The presence of NTMs can complicate the treatment of TB, as NTMs can be resistant to standard TB medications.

Overall, understanding the specific resistance mechanisms in NTMs is essential for designing effective treatment strategies, especially in HIV-positive patients who might be co-infected with *M. tuberculosis* and NTMs.

CONCLUSION

The study's findings on drug resistance mutations in the *rpoB*, *katG*, and *inhA* loci highlight the complexity of managing mycobacterial infections, particularly in

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immunocompromised populations. While the resistance mechanisms in NTMs and *M. tuberculosis* share some similarities, the intrinsic resistance and unique mutation profiles of NTMs necessitate distinct diagnostic and therapeutic approaches.

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