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## **On the spread and control of MDR-TB epidemics: an examination of trends in anti-tuberculosis drug resistance surveillance data**

**Ted Cohen, MD**1,2,\* , **Helen E. Jenkins, PhD**1,3, **Chunling Lu, PhD**1,4, **Megan McLaughlin, MPH**3, **Katherine Floyd, PhD**5, and **Matteo Zignol, MD**<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Brigham and Women's Hospital, Division of Global Health Equity, Boston MA USA 02115 <sup>2</sup>Harvard School of Public Health, Department of Epidemiology, Boston MA USA 02115<sup>3</sup>Harvard Medical School, Boston MA USA 02115 <sup>4</sup>Harvard Medical School, Department of Global Health and Social Medicine, Boston MA USA 02115<sup>5</sup>Global TB Programme, TB Monitoring and Evaluation, World Health Organization, Geneva Switzerland

## **SUMMARY**

**Background—**Multidrug resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB) poses serious challenges for tuberculosis control in many settings, but trends of MDR-TB have been difficult to measure.

**Methods—**We analyzed surveillance and population-representative survey data collected worldwide by the World Health Organization between 1993 and 2012. We examined settingspecific patterns associated with linear trends in the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases to generate hypotheses about factors associated with trends in the transmission of highly drug resistant tuberculosis.

**Results—**59 countries and 39 sub-national settings had at least three years of data, but less than 10% of the population in the WHO-designated 27-high MDR-TB burden settings were in areas with sufficient data to track trends. Among settings in which the majority of MDR-TB was autochthonous, we found 10 settings with statistically significant linear trends in per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases. Five of these settings had declining trends (Estonia, Latvia, Macao, Hong Kong, and Portugal) ranging from decreases of 3-14% annually, while five

conflicts of interest:

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<sup>\*</sup> corresponding author (theodore.cohen@yale.edu).

Author contributions

TC and MZ conceived of the study aims. TC, HEJ, and CL designed the analysis plan and HEJ and TC executed the analysis. MM led data collection and reference reviews. TC wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and MZ, KF, and HEJ provided substantial revisions to the initial version of the manuscript. All authors read, edited, and agreed with the decision to submit the final version of the paper. KF and MZ are staff members of the World Health Organization. The Authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this publication and they do not necessarily represent the decisions or policies of the World Health Organization.

None of the authors have conflicts of interest to declare.

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had increasing trends (four individual oblasts of the Russian Federation and Botswana) ranging from 14-20% annually. In unadjusted analysis, better surveillance indicators and higher GDP per capita were associated with declining MDR-TB, while a higher existing absolute burden of MDR-TB was associated with an increasing trend.

**Conclusions—**Only a small fraction of countries in which the burden of MDR-TB is concentrated currently have sufficient surveillance data to estimate trends in drug-resistant TB. Where trend analysis was possible, smaller absolute burdens of MDR-TB and more robust surveillance systems were associated with declining per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified cases.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Individuals infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* resistant to two important first-line drugs, isoniazid and rifampin (designated multidrug-resistant tuberculosis, or MDR-TB), have greatly diminished probability of successful treatment outcomes with standard recommended regimens [1]. The acquisition and subsequent transmission of drug-resistant TB is increasingly recognized as a threat to tuberculosis control [2] and MDR-TB is considered among the major emerging threats [3].

Two decades ago, the World Health Organization (WHO) initiated the Global Project on Anti-tuberculosis Drug Resistance. Through the collection of existing surveillance data, coordination and support of implementing population-representative drug resistance surveys, and development of a global reference network of supranational laboratories providing quality control and quality assurance for in-country drug-susceptibility testing facilities, this Project aimed to document the burden and to assess trends in drugresistant tuberculosis over time [4]. To date, country-specific, regionally-, and globally-aggregated estimates of the burden of drug-resistant tuberculosis have been produced; these were most recently updated in 2012 [5] and are now included in yearly Global Tuberculosis Control Reports [6]. These reports have permitted us to estimate burden and to document our collective failure to thus far scale up the availability of treatment for MDR-TB to meet the magnitude of the need in countries most affected [7].

One shortcoming of anti-tuberculosis drug resistance surveillance remains the difficulty in discerning the trends in the burden of MDR-TB. The absence of clear evidence of whether the MDR-TB problem is getting worse or better over time stems from two problems: the dearth of repeat surveys or routine surveillance in most high-burden areas [5] and the imprecision of surveys which limit the ability to detect small changes that might be observed over several years [8].

The last critical analysis of global MDR-TB trend data worldwide, conducted on data collected through 2007 documented the diversity of trends that have been recorded. The author concluded that, given adequate scale up of public health responses, MDR-TB epidemics can be controlled with currently available diagnostic tools and treatment options [9]. Here we use updated data, collated by the WHO through 2012, to revisit what can be learned from existing sources about trends in MDR-TB. We ask several questions of practical importance: In which country or sub-national settings can we confidently conclude

that the incidence of MDR-TB is increasing or decreasing? Can we identify factors associated with trends of transmitted MDR-TB? What can the experiences in these settings teach us about the potential controllability of MDR-TB in other settings?

## **METHODS**

In the following analyses, we focus on trends of estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among *new* notified TB cases. Individuals are classified as new TB cases if they have been exposed to less than one month of anti-TB therapy in the past, thus drug resistance among these cases reflects transmitted resistant *M. tuberculosis* [10]. Accordingly, our analysis of trends of MDR among new TB cases aims to provide insight into whether the spread of MDR-TB is increasing or decreasing over time in a given country or setting.

#### **Data sources**

Our analyses are based on national and sub-national surveillance data submitted to the World Health Organization (WHO) between 1993 and 2012. Data are generated from special surveys of a representative sample of patients with pulmonary TB or continuous surveillance based on routine diagnostic drug susceptibility testing (DST) of all bacteriologically-confirmed TB patients. A global network of 32 Supranational TB Reference Laboratories controls the quality of DST results in surveys [11]. The number of new notified TB cases is reported by year to the WHO for each country or sub-national area. We calculated TB notification rates per 100,000 by dividing these notification numbers by population estimates obtained from UN sources [12].

We present results from all settings that reported estimates of MDR risk or direct measures of MDR amongst newly notified TB cases in at least two different years. Information on drug resistance among notified cases are derived from two types of sources. In some countries, all newly notified cases receive DST and drug resistance among these cases is reported. In the remaining countries, estimates of the risk of drug-resistance among new cases are obtained through population-representative surveys. For these settings, we estimate the number of MDR-TB cases among new notified TB cases by multiplying the risk of MDR among new TB cases from the population-representative survey by the notification numbers for new notified TB cases reported in each year that a survey was done.

Over the time period covered by this review, recommended DST approaches included several based on solid culture (i.e. proportion method, resistance ratio method, absolute concentration method), liquid culture (i.e. BACTEC, MGIT), and, in more recent years, molecular tests such as line probe assays [10]. Newer molecular tests such as GeneXpert MTB/RIF have recently been approved, but no survey or surveillance results based on this test were included in this time period. While each survey or surveillance data point was based on DST using one of these recommended approaches, the DST method was not uniformly provided to the WHO.

#### **Trend estimation**

We estimated the average annual percentage changes in the estimated per-capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases and per-capita rates of new notified TB cases in

each country/sub-national setting. While we report annual percentage change in any country with at least two surveys or two years of surveillance, we limited our formal analysis of statistically significant trend to countries with at least three data points. For settings with data from at least three years, we identified countries and sub-national settings with statistically significant trends by testing the null hypothesis of no linear trend (see Appendix for details).

When testing for trends in estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases, we weighted the regression by the number of TB cases that were tested for MDR-TB in the relevant population-representative survey, since larger surveys have greater precision. When testing for trends in the rate of new TB notifications, we weighted the regression by the population size in the country/sub-national area in each year. For countries reporting no MDR-TB cases in a given year, we made a small adjustment to allow us to test for linear trend on the log scale (see Appendix for details).

## **Identifying setting-specific factors associated with trends in the incidence of new MDR-TB notification**

For countries and sub-national settings where we rejected the null hypothesis of no statistically significant linear trend over time in the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases, we explored the association of these trends with selected demographic, epidemiological, health system and economic factors that we *a priori*  considered to be potentially linked to changes in this rate. These factors included variables related to TB programs and surveillance capacity (the number of years of survey/ surveillance data, the average TB case detection rate, the percent of new TB cases receiving drug susceptibility testing), epidemiological variables (percent of new TB cases that are MDR, percent of retreatment TB cases that are MDR, average number of estimated MDR-TB cases among notified TB cases, estimated fraction of MDR-TB cases not treated, average HIV prevalence), and economic variables (average GDP per capita and average total health expenditures). We used descriptive analyses and linear regression to identify factors that were associated with statistically significant changes in the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases. We present unadjusted results due to the small number of countries available for inclusion in final trend analyses.

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## **RESULTS**

Our analysis included a total of 129 settings reporting at least two surveys or surveillance covering at least two years to the WHO between 1993 and 2012; this included 89 countries and 40 sub-national and special administrative settings. The sub-national settings included 34 oblasts of the Russian Federation; Barcelona, Spain; Bangui and Bimbo, Central African

#### **Data availability**

Figure 1 shows the distribution of numbers of surveys (or years of surveillance) for each of the settings as well as the geographic distribution of information included in this analysis. We note that many additional settings had submitted data for only one year and these are not represented in the figure. In total there were 39 settings (24 country and 15 sub-national) with only two years of surveillance data and 6 countries with zero notified MDR-TB cases in each reporting year (these were excluded from the analysis since these data provide no information about trends) leaving 59 countries and 35 sub-national settings available for the trend analysis. Appendix Table 1 shows the number of notified new cases tested for drug susceptibility and the number found to be MDR for each setting and year of surveillance or survey.

Thirteen of the 27 WHO-designated "high MDR burden" countries [6] had at least two surveys or years of surveillance data, though several of those with the largest burden only had repeat surveys at a sub-national level (e.g. China and the Russian Federation). Of the persons living in these countries, only an estimated 8.3% lived within areas that have been covered by at least two surveys or two years of surveillance data.

In unadjusted analyses, we found a statistically significant positive association between the number of years for which a country provided data and the GDP per capita; each additional year of data was associated with a US\$2,281 higher GDP per capita (95% CI: US\$1,440 \$3,123, p<0.001). We also found a statistically significant negative association between the number of years for which a country provided data and the estimated TB incidence per 100,000 population; each additional year of data was associated with 12.2 fewer incident TB cases per 100,000 (95% CI: 19.0-5.3, p<0.001).

#### **Trend Analysis**

Following Dye [9], we plotted the relationship between the estimated trend in the annual percent change in the per capita rate of new notified TB rate and annual percent change in the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among these new TB cases for each setting (Figure 2). The relationship between the trend in TB and that in MDR-TB is useful because it helps to clarify where the rate of MDR-TB was increasing or decreasing concurrently with TB (upper right and lower left quadrants) and where the trends in MDR-TB and TB appeared to be diverging (upper left and lower right quadrants). Furthermore, as suggested by Dye [13], quantifying the relative trend in MDR-TB versus TB-overall may provide insight into the relative reproductive number of MDR-TB versus drug-susceptible TB, a key measure that is influential in projections of the long-term trajectory of MDR-TB. The reproductive number is defined as the expected number of secondary cases of disease attributable to a single infectious case. Consistent with Dye's earlier analysis, we found that every possible combination of TB and MDR-TB trend has been observed.

Eighteen settings (12 countries, Hong Kong, Macao, and four oblasts of the Russian Federation) had statistically significant linear trends in per capita rate of MDR-TB among

newly notified cases over time. Nine of these settings had significant decreases in MDR-TB over time (Figure 2, red markers); these decreases ranged from -3.3% per annum in Estonia to -14.8% per annum in Macao. Nine had significant increases in MDR-TB over time (Figure 2, green markers); these increases ranged from 3.6% per annum in the United Kingdom to 20.7% per annum in Botswana. Thirteen of these seventeen settings also had statistically significant trends in new TB notification (Figure 3, open markers); the trend in notified TB was in the same direction as the trend in the estimated MDR-TB notification rate in all but three of these countries (Finland and Austria where MDR-TB was increasing while TB was decreasing, and Australia where MDR-TB was decreasing while TB was increasing).

**Immigration patterns and MDR-TB trends—**In eight of the 18 settings with statistically significant MDR-TB trends, the majority of TB cases occurred among the foreign born. Four of these settings experienced decreasing trends of MDR-TB (United States of America, Israel, Germany, and Australia), while four experienced increasing trends (United Kingdom, Sweden, Finland, and Austria).

In settings in which the foreign born dominate TB epidemiology, trends in MDR-TB may reflect changes in immigration patterns (e.g. the numbers and origins of the foreign-born), changes in the type or effectiveness of screening practices (e.g. pre-arrival screening practices), and/or changes in the epidemiology of TB in the immigrants countries of origin. Accordingly, since these trends reflect several factors that may be extrinsic to the situation within the country of destination, ascribing trends in MDR-TB to local program performance or to differences in the reproductive number of MDR-TB may be misleading.

**Trends in countries where MDR-TB trends may reflect local dynamics—**The remainder of our analysis is restricted to the 10 settings where the burden of MDR-TB is not concentrated amongst the foreign-born. In these settings, changes in MDR-TB over time likely reflect changes in the intrinsic dynamics of drug-resistant TB and thus may be useful in identifying local factors associated with these trends. These included five settings with declining MDR-TB incidence (Latvia, Estonia, Portugal, and the two special administrative regions of China) and five settings with rising MDR-TB incidence (Botswana and four oblasts in the Russian Federation).

**Declining trends of MDR-TB:** The clearest success stories of control of the spread of MDR-TB were found in the Baltic states of Latvia (between 1996-2012) and Estonia (1998-2012). Consistent with earlier analyses [9, 14], we found that Estonia and Latvia reduced the incidence of notified cases of transmitted MDR TB by approximately 3-4% per annum (alongside slightly faster rates of reduction in non-MDR-TB) (Figure 3).

The speed of decline in MDR-TB incidence in Hong Kong (1996-2012), Macao (2005-2012) and Portugal (2000-2011) exceeded the rates at which non-MDR-TB declined, suggesting that the effective reproductive number of MDR-TB in these settings may have been lower than that of non-MDR-TB in these settings [13].

**Rising trends of MDR-TB:** The estimated per capita rate MDR-TB among new notified cases appeared to be rising over time in the epidemiologically and geographically disparate settings of Africa (Botswana) and several oblasts of the Russian Federation. In the Russian Federation, an area of substantial global interest because of the historically high prevalence of MDR-TB among both new and previously treated cases, we found evidence of rising rates of MDR-TB among new notified cases over the study period in four of the 22 oblasts with at least three data points. The remaining 18 oblasts had no significant linear trends (possibly due to lack of statistical power or the presence of more complicated non-linear trends (Appendix Figure 1)) and twelve additional oblasts had only two data points to consider. In the four oblasts with increasing per capita rates of MDR-TB, data were available in Mary-El between 2006-2011, in Karelia between 2009-2011, in Ivanovo between 1998 and 2011, and in Tomsk between 1999-2011. It is notable that the four oblasts had similar rates of increase (ranging from 14.0-19.2% per annum). It is important to note that in Tomsk, where we found a statistically significant increasing linear trend between 1999 and 2011, visual inspection of the data series suggests that this estimated rate of MDR-TB may actually have begun to decline beginning around 2005. We reflect on potential drivers of this pattern further in the Discussion.

In Botswana, the sole African setting in our analysis with three or more data points, the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified cases was rising more than 20% per annum between 1996 and 2008, while new TB notification rates overall appeared to be relatively stable.

In each of these settings, the rate at which the MDR-TB was increasing exceeded the rate at which TB overall was increasing, consistent with a higher relative effective reproductive number of MDR-TB.

**Other countries of note without statistically significant trends:** While we restricted our formal analysis to countries with statistically significant linear trends, we elected to also highlight trends in Peru and the Republic of Korea, two countries that had increasing MDR-TB trends in previous analyses [5, 9]. Based on updated data, including new 2012 surveillance data from Peru and revised TB notification data from the Republic of Korea, we found that these countries no longer had statistically significant increasing linear trends our estimate of MDR-TB (Appendix Figure 2). We offer additional thoughts about the situation in these countries in the Discussion.

**Factors associated with trends—**We list several demographic, epidemiological, health systems, and economic variables that we *a priori* considered might be associated with trends in the incidence of transmitted MDR-TB (Table 1). Given the limited number of countries in which significant linear trends reflected dynamics intrinsic to that country, we present unadjusted linear regression as a means to generate hypotheses about which factors were potentially related to effective control of transmitted MDR-TB (Table 2).

We found that the following factors had statistically significant associations with trends in the estimated per capita rate of notified new MDR-TB: the number of years for which a country had survey or surveillance data, the estimated fraction of active TB cases that were

detected, the estimated burden of new MDR-TB cases (i.e. the estimated number of MDR-TB cases among notified TB cases), and the per capita GDP. Better surveillance (more years with survey data and higher case detection rates) and higher GDP per capita were associated with improving MDR-TB trends among new cases while a higher existing absolute burden of MDR-TB was associated with a worsening trend.

## **DISCUSSION**

This analysis provides an update of country and sub-national trends of estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases and offers an assessment of what may be learned from settings that have been able to reverse rising rates of MDR-TB.

In contrast to earlier approaches for documenting and understanding trends in MDR-TB [9], we separated out countries in which the majority of TB (and MDR-TB) occurs among immigrants, since these trends may be related to factors other than local transmission of MDR-TB. The separate consideration of these countries is not intended to diminish the importance of international migration to MDR-TB trends. Indeed, previous analyses have demonstrated the importance of migration in the dissemination of MDR-TB [15, 16]. It is possible that transnational dissemination of MDR-TB may be important in other settings as well, for example, by migrant workers in sub-Saharan Africa [17].

We found that stronger surveillance systems were associated with a downward trend in MDR-TB (Table 2). Both the capacity to do routine surveillance (i.e. testing all new TB cases for drug susceptibility) and, in the absence of surveillance, the ability to do multiple surveys, was associated with declining MDR-TB among new TB cases. In Latvia and Estonia, two clear examples of countries that have reversed rising epidemics of MDR-TB, the ability to offer DST routinely to all new cases, is a key element of MDR-TB control [14, 18, 19]. These Baltic countries also share an aggressive approach to MDR-TB care, with individualized regimens based on DST results and high and increasing rates of MDR-TB treatment success over time. We note that these countries never had very large absolute burdens of MDR-TB, a factor that we found associated with potential controllability of MDR-TB. These countries have relatively low HIV co-infection rates (though this has been rising in Estonia) which likely contributes to the high MDR-TB treatment success rates and possibly to the ability to reverse the upward trend in the estimated rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB. While Tomsk oblast had a rising linear trend in estimated per capita MDR-TB among new notified TB over the analysis period, this trend may have been reversing in recent years (Figure 3). In Tomsk, as in Estonia and Latvia, all new patients receive DST, thus allowing patients to access MDR-TB treatment before failing a course of first-line treatment. Estonia, Latvia, and Tomsk also share a substantial history of strong political commitment toward addressing the threat of MDR-TB and partnership between national TB programs and established links with the Green Light Committee (GLC), which facilitated access to quality assured second-line drugs at reduced prices. Of note, in none of these settings is access to TB care and treatment for MDR-TB widely available through private sector providers [20].

The situations in Estonia, Latvia (and even Tomsk) provide important reassurance even in places where the prevalence of MDR-TB among new cases is very high, MDR-TB epidemics may be reversible within the context of highly organized programs that 1) aggressively identify MDR-TB cases through routine testing of all TB suspects, even those that have never previously been treated for TB and 2) deliver individualized quality-assured MDR-TB treatment consistent with DOTS-plus guidelines. Based on the experiences of these settings, which are more fully described in other publications [21], we would anticipate that if Tomsk can maintain its current efforts, and if the other Russian oblasts can implement similar systems of surveillance and treatment, that the incidence of new MDR-TB in these settings could begin to decline. Additionally, as stronger economic conditions were associated with decreasing trends in MDR-TB (as measured by per capita GDP) in settings included in our analysis, it is possible that more favorable economic conditions will be associated with better control of MDR-TB in other settings.

Is there anything to be learned from the experience in Peru? As with Estonia, Latvia, and Tomsk, Peru is a setting in which MDR-TB was aggressively addressed by partnerships between the national TB program, a well-established nongovernmental organization with strong capacity to treat MDR-TB, and the GLC. Despite a DOTS program that had been driving down the incidence of TB, the per capita rate of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases continued to rise over time with a statistically significant upward trend of approximately 4% per annum prior to the addition of 2012 data. What might explain the difference in outcomes between Peru and these other countries? While we cannot draw definitive conclusions, we note that in Peru, because of limited laboratory capacity, DST was reserved for individuals returning for retreatment and individuals otherwise considered at high risk of MDR-TB or death (e.g. household contacts of MDR cases and HIV coinfected cases). Accordingly, individuals with MDR-TB may have cycled through several courses of treatment (during which they may have amplified their resistance [22]), prior to receiving an MDR-TB diagnosis and being placed on appropriate therapy. These delays in diagnosis of MDR-TB may contribute to prolonged infectiousness and thus a relatively high effective reproductive number of MDR-TB in this setting [23]. We note expanded efforts to provide early access to DST, originally included within the Peruvian technical guidelines in 2006 [24] and most recently codified as policy for universal access to rapid pre-treatment tests for resistance for all TB patients in 2013 [25], was associated in time with declining per capita rate of MDR-TB among new TB cases.

In previous analyses, the Republic of Korea has had a statistically significant rising trend in MDR-TB [5, 9]. Here, based on recent modifications to TB case notifications dating back to 1999 [26], we no longer find a statistically significant increasing trend, though the best fit line remains consistent with an annual increase of >4% per annum (Appendix Figure 2). While we have not included this country in our group with increasing MDR-TB, we believe that the situation in the Republic of Korea warrants additional discussion. As described by Seung et al., in the Republic of Korea, the National Tuberculosis Program's role is largely restricted to the treatment of new TB cases, while a large private sector is responsible for patients returning for retreatment [27]. Over the past few years, the relative importance of the private sector appears to be growing, with recent estimates that 70% of treatment offered in the private sector [28]. This is concerning given the historically high rates of poor

treatment outcome and default associated with care delivered by private sector providers [29]. As was previously the case in Peru, new cases of TB diagnosed in the public sector do not receive DST in the Republic of Korea. Accordingly, individuals with transmitted MDR-TB may need to cycle through failed treatment before receiving proper diagnosis and care, resulting in higher morbidity and mortality and increased opportunity for onward transmission of MDR-TB. Future studies that measure the prevalence of drug resistance among TB cases treated in the private sector would provide valuable information in settings where large fractions of patients seek care outside of the national tuberculosis program [30].

Another potentially important difference between Peru and the Republic of Korea compared to Estonia, Latvia, and Tomsk is the burden and risk of MDR that these countries/settings must be equipped to address. While the average risk of MDR among new TB patients is relatively low in Peru and the Republic of Korea, the average estimated annual number of new MDR-TB cases is far higher in these countries than it is in Latvia, Estonia or Tomsk (Table 2). This means that Peru and the Republic of Korea must maintain systems for adequately diagnosing and treating MDR among a far larger cohort of patients which could prove a more difficult task than dealing with a smaller and more highly prevalent condition in parts of the former Soviet Union. The low pre-test probability of MDR-TB among new cases complicates the diagnosis of drug resistance (as the positive predictive value of even sensitive and specific tests for resistance may be compromised) and these tests will need to be delivered to very large numbers of new cases with important implications for the affordability of such approaches.

Botswana is the sole country in Africa with sufficient data to estimate an MDR-TB trend. It is worrisome that in this setting of high HIV prevalence, we observed increasing rates of MDR-TB over time while the incidence of TB overall appeared stable. While the information is too limited to attribute these trends to specific causes or to understand how HIV may or may not impact the controllability of MDR-TB epidemics, this pattern suggests that in this setting MDR-TB had a higher relative reproductive number than TB. The lack of sufficient data from other African settings is particularly vexing given the recent documentation of outbreaks of XDR-TB in South Africa [31] and the very high prevalence of MDR-TB found in most recently in Swaziland [32](see point 104 on Figure 2). A planned national drug resistance survey in South Africa will provide much needed information to better understand the threat of the spread of MDR-TB in areas where HIV is highly prevalent.

The majority of countries and settings included in this analysis did not have statistically significant linear changes in the estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases over time. This was due to stability of the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB, a lack of sufficient number of repeat samples or large enough studies to detect trends that might have been present, or the presence of more complicated time trends in disease burden. In Appendix Figure 1 we present the time trends in estimated per capita incidence of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases for all countries and settings included in our analyses.

Our analysis of trends in the incidence of new notified MDR-TB highlights several issues related to assessing trends in MDR-TB. First, as clearly shown in Figure 1, the data

available are from a subset of countries and these data cannot be readily used to estimate global trends. In general, countries with more resources relative to TB burden are more likely to be included in the analysis. In many settings, we currently lack sufficiently robust capacity for either the systematic testing of resistance among all new TB cases or the capacity to do intermittent population-representative surveys of drug resistance among new cases. This is particularly evident in Africa and much of Asia, including India, which is not yet represented in this dataset for lack of sufficient numbers of repeat drug resistance surveys at either national or sub-national levels. While several settings in China have repeat surveys or surveillance data, and decreasing MDR-TB trends were detected in Macao and Hong Kong, recent national survey data suggest a serious problem with MDR-TB in the country with 5.7% of new TB cases infected with MDR-TB [33]. At this time, less than 10% of the populations within the 27 designated high-MDR-TB burden countries are reflected in this analysis. Of China, India, and Russia, only China is currently performing nationwide repeat survey of drug resistance. Given the strong association between strong surveillance systems and declining MDR-TB trends among countries with adequate data for trend analysis, the inability to assess the burden of drug resistance over time bodes poorly for countries with weak surveillance systems.

Second, the data upon which our analyses are based are imperfect. We have analyzed trends in estimated per capita rate of new notified MDR-TB cases. If surveillance systems have changed over time, trends in notifications may reflect these administrative changes rather than true epidemiological shifts. The variable timing between *M. tuberculosis* transmission events and progression to clinical disease also makes it more difficult to clearly link factors with trends, but the relatively high risk of progression soon after infection allays some of this concern [34]. Furthermore, we have performed aggregated analyses at the level of country or sub-national region, but there is substantial local heterogeneity in the burden of TB [35] and MDR-TB [36-39]. Surveys in such countries may either underestimate or overestimate resistance, depending on which study sites contribute to the study [40] and assessing these aggregated trends may smooth over important local differences in disease trajectory. Additionally, we have used a simple approach for detecting linear trends in the percentage change in estimated new MDR-TB among notified TB cases. The selection of this approach was motivated by the limited data available for detecting more complex trends, but this approach can fail to detect important changes in disease burden over time. This is best illustrated by the analysis in Tomsk, which led us to include it as a location with increasing MDR-TB, when visual analysis suggests that after a period of early worsening of the epidemic, the situation appears to be improving. Given what has been documented about the interventions that have been deployed in this oblast [21], the timing of this reversal is quite credible. Non-linear patterns in MDR-TB trends may be present in other settings as well (Appendix Figure 1), though the limited sample sizes and wide confidence intervals are obstacles for the rigorous detection of these patterns. Fourth, the drugs to which resistance were tested and reported was limited; in particular, we have no reliable measures of trends in XDR-TB over time since testing for resistance to fluoroquinolone and injectable antibiotics is currently more challenging and less reproducible than for isoniazid and rifampicin. Fifth, given the limited number of settings in which we detected trends, our analysis of factors that are associated with these trends was limited. We used publically available data to test for

unadjusted associations with trend. Accordingly, we have characterized these associations as hypothesis generating and anticipate that this analysis can be improved as more data become available in the future.

These limitations notwithstanding, our analyses provide both guarded optimism and reason to be concerned about our ability to mitigate the spread of MDR-TB. The good news first: the spread of MDR-TB appears controllable in countries that have made substantial investments in surveillance and response. In particular, based on the findings in Estonia and Latvia, it appears that universal DST for all TB patients and individualized second-line treatment regimens for MDR-TB cases may be needed to control the transmission of MDR-TB in areas where the risk of transmitted resistance is already very high. The limited data do not yet clarify whether these measures are sufficient, but we believe they are likely to be a necessary condition to curb the growth of MDR-TB in other settings. Higher GDP was also associated with declining MDR in the settings included in our analysis. We caution that our analysis should not be used to assign causality to factors we found to be associated with controllability of transmitted MDR-TB, but do suggest that increasing investment in surveillance systems (including laboratory infrastructure to conduct DST) and improving treatment capacity for MDR-TB [7] may be necessary to successfully mitigate the spread of MDR-TB. The introduction of rapid, more easily scalable technologies for rapid DST, such as GeneXpert MTB/RIF [41], may facilitate such responses. The more concerning news: at present, we do not have evidence of successful control of the spread of MDR-TB in areas of high HIV co-infection (e.g. Botswana), areas where drug susceptibility testing is reserved for those failing one (or multiple courses) of standardized treatment, or in areas where the private sector plays an important role in TB treatment. These findings should provide strong support for efforts to improve the strength of surveillance systems and the vigor of the response to MDR-TB, especially in countries with the highest absolute burden of disease including China, India and Russia.

## **Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

## **APPENDIX**

Since incidence rates changing at a constant percentage every year change linearly on a log scale, we modeled the natural logarithm of the TB and MDR-TB incidence rates as the dependent variable with year as the explanatory variable:

$$
ln(R_y)=b_0+b_1y
$$
 (1)

where ln is the natural logarithm and  $R_y$  is the TB (or MDR-TB) incidence per 100,000 in year y

The annual percentage change in TB (or MDR-TB) incidence from year y to year  $y+1 =$  $[(R_{v+1} - R_v) / R_v] \times 100$ 

Substituting in  $(1)$ , the annual percentage change in TB or (MDR-TB) incidence =

$$
[[\exp(b_0+b_1(y+1))-exp(b_0+b_1y)]/exp(b_0+b_1y)] \times 100 = (exp(b_1)-1) \times 100
$$
 (2)

We fitted the regression line (1) to estimate  $b_1$  for TB and MDR-TB incidence among newly notified cases in each country and sub-national area separately.

When modeling TB incidence, we weighted the regression by the population size in the country/sub-national area in each year. When modeling MDR-TB incidence, we weighted the regression by the number of TB cases that were tested for MDR-TB in the populationrepresentative survey that was used, since larger surveys will have higher precision.

To identify countries or sub-national areas with statistically significant increasing or decreasing trends in TB or MDR-TB incidence, we assessed the statistical significance of  $b_1$ at p<0.05. We note that in some low very low TB burden countries, the estimated number of MDR-TB cases in some years was zero. Since the logarithm of zero does not exist, in these cases we added 0.5 to the number of individuals tested positive for MDR-TB for all datapoints in that country's survey or surveillance data (0.5 was chosen to avoid bias as per: Cox D. Some statistical methods connected with series events. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B - Methodological 1955:129-64).

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**Figure 1. Global map of drug resistance surveillance data available for trend analysis**

Countries and sub-regional settings reporting at least two years of representative data on the prevalence of drug-resistance among new notified TB cases. Among countries reporting at least two years of data, there is an inverse relationship between estimate TB incidence and numbers of years of reported data.



**Figure 2. Associations between changes in per capita new TB notification rate and estimated per capita MDR-TB rate among new cases for countries with at least two years of data** The graphs show the estimated annual percent change in the per capita rate of new notified TB (x-axis) against the annual percent change in the estimated per capita rate of MDR-TB among notified new TB cases (y-axis). The graph on the right is provided to allow for better visualization of the points closest to the origin. The green markers depict settings with statistically significant decreasing trend of MDR-TB, the red markers depict settings with statistically significant increasing trend of MDR-TB, and the yellow markers depict settings with no statistically significant trend of MDR-TB. The black markers depict settings with only two data points for which no formal trend analysis was conducted.



**Figure 3. Settings with statistically significant linear trends in estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among notified new TB cases**

Each panel displays the time trend for settings with a statistically significant linear trend in estimated incidence of MDR-TB among newly notified TB cases. The black solid markers and associated confidence intervals show MDR-TB data from surveillance while the gray solid markers and associated confidence intervals show MDR-TB data from surveys. The open circles show new TB notification data. Points are only connected where statistically significant linear trends were detected.







Sequential panels depict the rates by WHO region (or sub-region): a) Africa, Eastern Mediterranean, and South East Asia; b) Americas; c) Europe, Central; d) Europe, Eastern; e) Europe, Western; f) Western Pacific.

1000 -3.1% per year 100  $10$ Ţ  $\overline{P}$ Ξ  $\mathbf{1}$  $0.1$  $0.01$ 2008 2009 2010 2011<br>2012 1996 2000 2002 2003 2004 2005 2006 1997 1998 1999 2001 2007 Year South Korea 1000 100  $\circ$  $\circ$  $\circ$ 10  $\overline{\mathbb{P}}$  $\overline{\phi}$ 靊  $\mathbf{1}$  $0.1$  $0.01$ 2005 2006 2009 2010 2011<br>2012 1998 1999 2000 2002 2003 2004 2007 2008 1996 1997 2001 Year



The black solid markers and associated confidence intervals show MDR-TB data from surveillance while the gray solid markers and associated confidence intervals show MDR-TB data from surveys. The open circles show new TB notification data.



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**Table 1**

ta from settings with statistically significant linear trends in estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases ta from settings with statistically significant linear trends in estimated per capita rates of MDR-TB among new notified TB cases



see Appendix Table for data from all settings

e calculated over years for which MDR trend data were available for each setting **Drage Resist Update 1998**<br> **Property Conservant Conservant Conservant Conservation** in Patch setting<br>
e calculated over years for which MDR trend data were available for each setting

## **Table 2**

Variables associated with trend in estimated per capita MDR-TB rates among new notified TB cases. All variables in Table 1 were tested, only those with statistically significant univariable associations are reported here.



## **Appendix Table**

Sizes of surveys and number of isolates that were found to be MDR for all settings included in this analysis.





































**Country/setting Year Number of new cases tested Number of MDR cases identified**

*Drug Resist Updat*. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2015 October 06.

2002 350 43

2008 275 55

Ivanovo Oblast

Russian Federation, Ivanovo Oblast

Russian Federation, Ivanovo Oblast







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Data on the Russian Federation are obtained from the annual report: Tuberculosis in the Russian Federation: an analytical review of statistical indicators used in the Russian Federation and in the world (in Russian). Moscow: Ministry of Health of the Russian Federation et al.