Supporting Appendix

Results and parameter values

Table S1 contains natural history parameter values of the natural history model. The series of differential equations representing the age-structured mathematical model of tuberculosis was programmed in Berkeley Madonna (Technical Appendix). Using the Downhill Simplex method(1), both the contact rate and the case detection ratio were permitted to vary while fitting the model to the annual incidence rates of pulmonary smear-positive disease and tuberculosisrelated mortality reported by the WHO for 2006 (2) (Table S2). The case detection ratio was permitted to vary because of suspected under-reporting of treatment among cases.

Table S1: Key tuberculosis natural history parameters.

AFRH = Africa, annual incidence of HIV \geq 4%; AFRL = Africa, annual incidence of HIV < 4%; AMR = Latin America; EEUR = Eastern Europe; EMR = Eastern Mediterranean; SEAR = South-East Asia; WPR = Western Pacific; SP = sputum smear-positive pulmonary tuberculosis

Rates of change of TB incidence and TB-related mortality

The benefits from all of the novel treatment regimens are immediate (results not shown). For the active-treatment regimens, the magnitude of the effect is greatest within the first 2 years, steadily waning thereafter until approximately 2044. At this point, the incidence rates of TB disease and TB-related death no longer decline. The mass latent therapy treatment regimen and its combination with active treatment regimen 2 results in a large reduction in the incidence of TB disease within the first two years. Then, as the reservoir of individuals with latent slow infection is depleted, the magnitude of the incidence reduction drops precipitously over the next year. Three years after intervention implementation (2018), the magnitude of the annual reduction in the incidence of TB disease for regimens involving latent therapy wanes steadily with annual incidence rates continuing to decline past 2050.

Sensitivity and uncertainty analyses

To explore the sensitivity of our model results to parameter values, we conducted univariate sensitivity and uncertainty analyses over specified ranges for representative parameter values. We varied each parameter over a range of $\pm 15\%$ of the original parameter value, completing 11 runs evenly spaced over the range. For each particular parameter, each age group experiences the same percent change from its original parameter value within a single model run. The selection of these natural history (Figure S1A-H) and novel intervention (Figure S2A-D) parameters for presentation reflects those that are most influential within this formulation of the model, and their results are representative across all model parameters. Given the available evidentiary support, the ranges of variation represent plausible values for these parameters. The purpose of these sensitivity analyses serves both to establish the model sensitivity to the parameter values,

as well as to ascertain whether the uncertainty in the parameter value used in the main results significantly affects the model results.

Figure S1: Sensitivity of TB natural history parameters.

An examination of the natural history parameters (Figure S1) shows that of those parameters tested, the model is most sensitive to a change in the proportion of new latent infections who are fast progressors. For example, a $\pm 15\%$ change in the proportion of new latent infections who are fast progressors results in an $\sim \pm 41\%$ change in the incidence per million of smear-positive pulmonary TB, a ~±42% change in the incidence per million of smear-negative pulmonary TB, a $\sim \pm 42\%$ change in the incidence per million of non-pulmonary TB, and a $\sim \pm 41\%$ change in the incidence per million of TB-related mortality (Figure S1A). By contrast, for a ± 15 % change in

the annual progression rate from latent fast infection to active disease results in a $\sim \pm 0.3\%$ change in the incidence per million of smear-positive pulmonary TB, a $\sim \pm 0.4$ % change in the incidence per million of smear-negative pulmonary TB, a $\sim \pm 0.4\%$ change in the incidence per million of non-pulmonary TB, and a $\sim \pm 0.4\%$ change in the incidence per million of TB-related mortality (Figure S1F).

An examination of the novel intervention parameters (Figure S2) shows that variation in either the fraction of persons becoming slow rather than fast progressors, or the duration of protection has relatively little effect on smear-positive and smear-negative incidences, and a reduced effect on non-pulmonary TB or TB-related mortality (Figure S2A-B). A \pm 15% change in the fraction of persons becoming slow rather than fast progressors results in a $\sim \pm 7\%$ change in the incidence per million of smear-positive pulmonary TB, a $~\sim~18\%$ change in the incidence per million of smearnegative pulmonary TB, a ~±8% change in the incidence per million of non-pulmonary TB, and $a \sim \pm 7\%$ change in the incidence per million of TB-related mortality (Figure S2A). Variation in the treatment success proportion has even smaller effects on final incidence of smear-positive, smear-negative and non-pulmonary TB, as well as TB-related mortality (Figure S2C). Although incidence at 2050 is not greatly affected if the average roll out time of NAAT varies from 0 to 20 years, the cumulative number of cases averted substantially decreases (Figure S2D).

Overall, the model is robust to uncertainty in the parameter values, and the changes that do occur in the model results are predictable based on the construction of the model.

At a VE_P of 60%, the Aeras target value, the vaccine's reduction of the probability of becoming a fast progressor produces a stronger reduction in TB incidence by 2050 than either of two additional effects on infectiousness and lifetime probability of developing active TB disease, alone or combined (results not shown).

Other WHO regions

The results for the other WHO regions (2) are qualitatively similar (Table S3). In the Eastern European region, where the current active disease treatment success proportion is just 71%, the percentage of cases prevented by the novel treatment regimens by 2050 was higher, 10%, 22%, and 26%, than in the Southeast Asia region, 6%, 15%, 17%. The numbers for the two African regions are optimistic, as they do not account for HIV in the regions or differing efficacy of the novel interventions in HIV-infected people. The effect of HIV on novel TB therapies was studied by Sanchez et al (3).

Table S3: Regional estimates of the number of tuberculosis cases (all types) and tuberculosis-related deaths prevented from 2015 to 2050 with novel interventions.

Even without taking the complications due to HIV into account, in the Sub-Saharan region with high

HIV incidence, and to a lesser extent, in the Sub-Saharan region with low HIV incidence, mass

vaccination with a pre-exposure vaccine prevents relatively fewer case and deaths than in the other

regions (Table S3). The reason is due to the higher TB incidence, and consequently prevalence, in these

two regions (Table S2), so the prevalence of uninfected people to benefit from a pre-exposure vaccine is

much lower. Preventive treatment of latently infected people is 20 to 25% less effective than in the

South-East Asia region (2).

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