



Modeling TB Diagnostics: Evaluating the Diagnostic Process

Advanced TB Diagnostic Research Course
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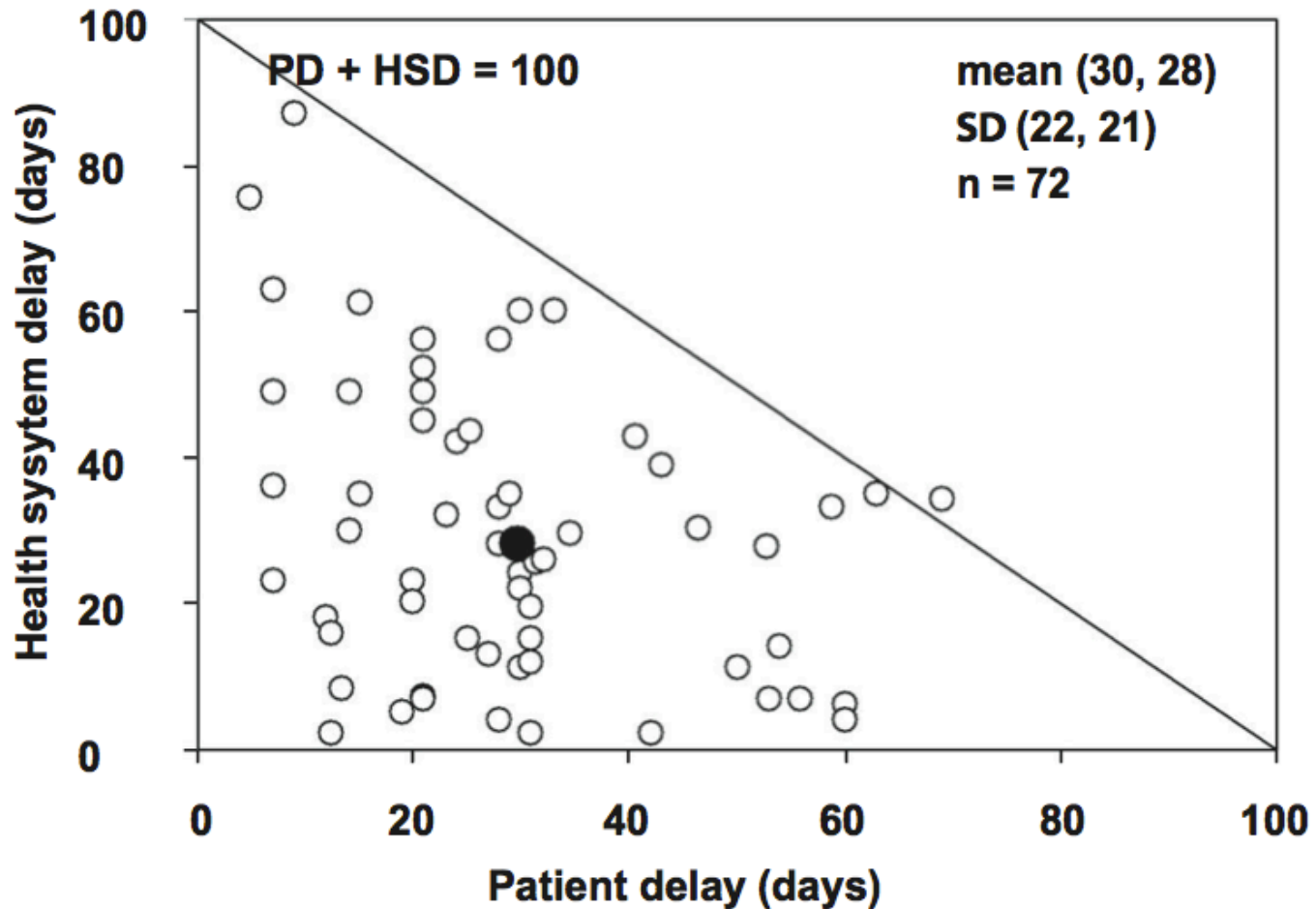
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The potential impact of new diagnostic tests on tuberculosis epidemics

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Methods: A behavioural model of patient-doctor interactions embedded in an epidemiological model of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* transmission, linked to field data, was used to investigate the effects of early diagnosis in preventing future TB cases.



The approach was, first, to formulate a model of the behavioural interactions between patients and health providers (qualified doctors, pharmacists, laboratories and quacks, henceforth referred to as “doctors”). This

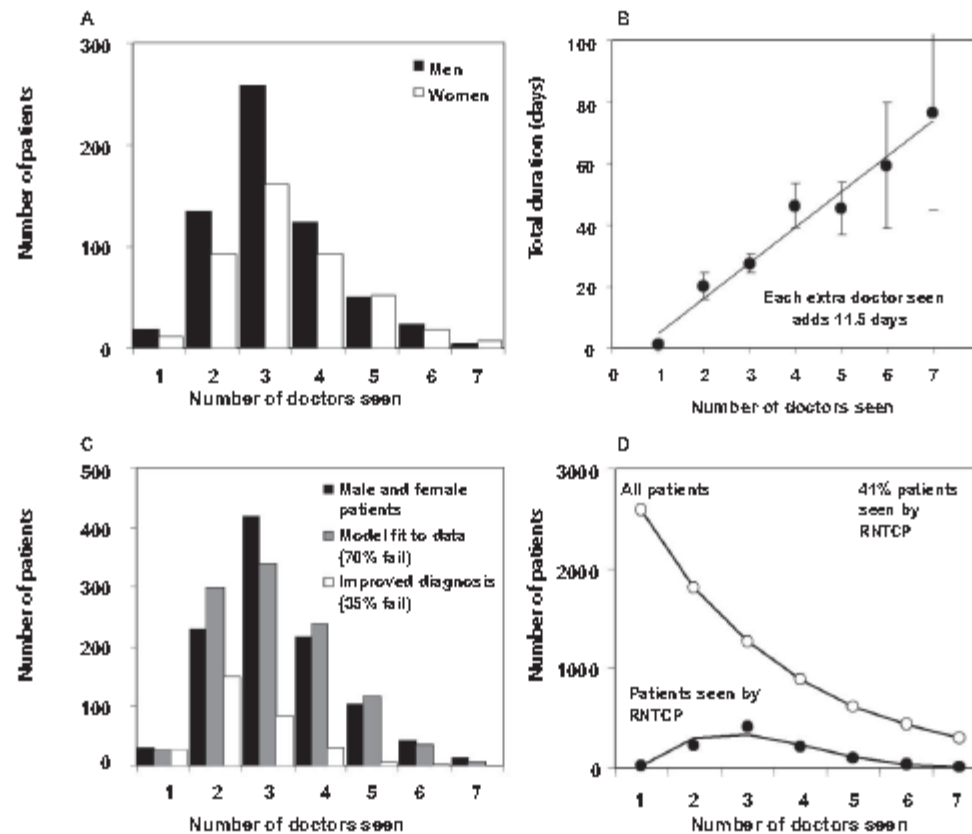


Fig. 2. A. The number of doctors seen by 1049 male and female patients in Bangalore (mode 3, range 1-7), as reported to the RNTCP. B. Cumulative duration of health system delays in relation to the number of doctors seen. The slope of the line indicates that each doctor seen adds 11.5 days to the diagnostic delay. C. Fit of model 1 (grey) to the total number of male and female patients (black), assuming a failure rate at each point (and survival to visit the next doctor), f , of 0.7. The alignment of black and grey bars indicates a good fit of the model to the data. Open bars show the distribution of the number of doctors seen if a new diagnostic procedure reduced f to 0.35. D. Fit (lower line) to the data (filled circles) in A and C, and the estimated total number of patients (open circles) in this setting in Bangalore. Data from the study by Pantoja *et al*¹³.

Impact of improved diagnostics

- Diagnostic applied only at RNTCP would be limited
- If the proportion of “failed” attempts could be reduced from 0.7 to 0.35:
 - Number of doctors seen declines from 2.7 to 1.5
 - Even fewer encounters with RNTCP
 - Duration of illness (“health system delay”) shortened from 31.1 days to 17.6 days
 - 43% reduction

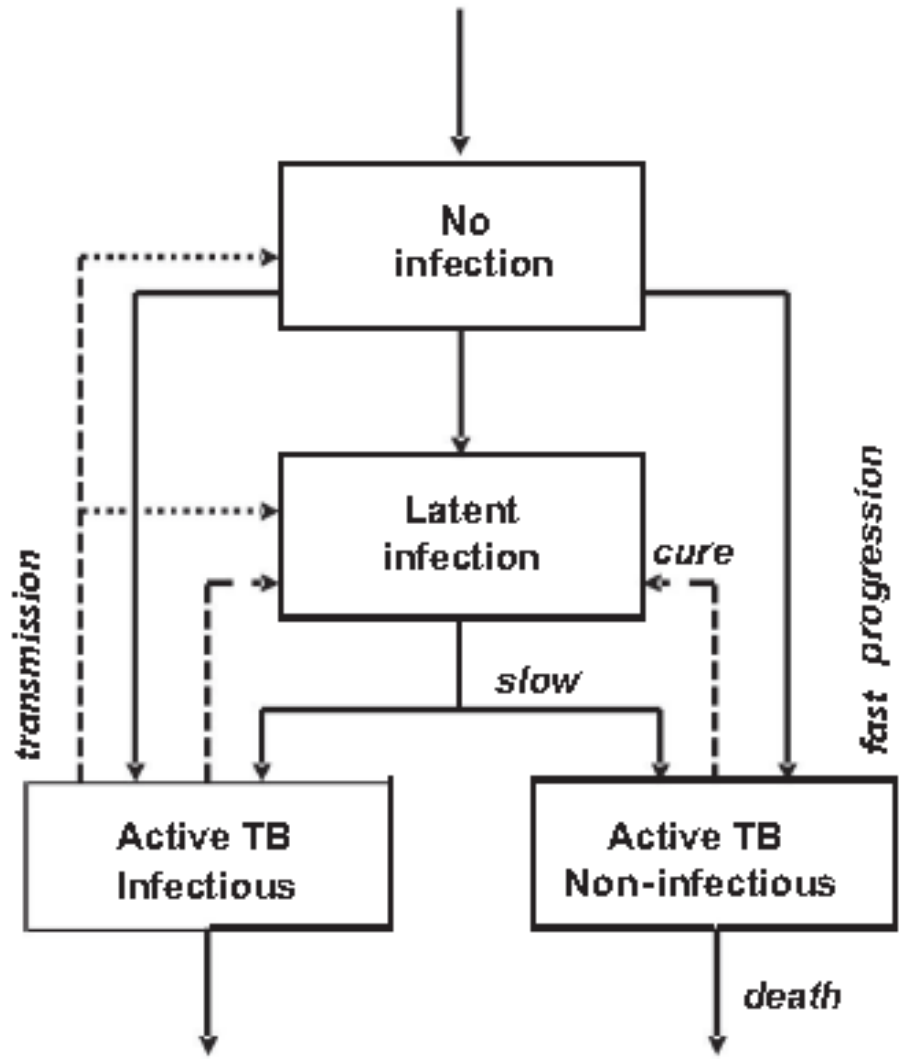


Table. Parameters and control variables of the TB transmission model depicted in Fig. 3

| Model parameters | Value | Units or dimensions |
|--|-------|------------------------------|
| Contact rate between infectious TB cases and others in the population (β) | 14 | Per TB patient per year |
| Rate of progression from latent to active TB in the absence of reinfection (ν) | 0.001 | Per infected person per year |
| Proportion of infected people that progress quickly to active TB (q) | 0.15 | Proportion |
| Proportion of incident TB cases that are infectious (s) | 0.45 | Proportion |
| Proportion of latently infected people who develop active TB on reinfection (x) | 0.5 | Proportion |
| Mortality rate from causes other than TB (μ) | 0.015 | Per person per year |
| Mortality rate from infectious TB (μ_i) | 0.2 | Per TB patient per year |
| Mortality rate from non-infectious TB (μ_n) | 0.15 | Per TB patient per year |
| Control variables | | |
| Rate at which TB cases make first contact with health services | 0.5 | Per TB patient per year |
| Proportion of TB patients correctly diagnosed with active disease (sensitivity) | 0.5 | Proportion |
| Proportion of treated patients who are cured | 0.7 | Proportion |

Annexure. Epidemiological model of tuberculosis

With state variables U = uninfected, L = latently or sub-clinically infected, N = non-infectious active TB and I = infectious active TB, and $U + L + N + I = 1$, the model defined in Fig. 3 and Table can be written as a set of time-dependent ordinary non-linear differential equations:

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = -\beta UI + \mu + \mu_n N + \mu_i I - \mu U$$

$$\frac{dL}{dt} = \beta(1-q)UI + \delta\tau\kappa(N+I) - (\mu + \nu + \beta\alpha I)L$$

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \beta q(1-s)UI + (1-s) - (\nu + \beta\alpha I)L - (\delta\tau\kappa + \mu + \mu_n)N$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta qs UI + s(\nu + \beta\alpha I)L - (\delta\tau\kappa + \mu + \mu_i)I$$

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Infection



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Mortality



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$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta qs UI + s(\nu + \beta\tau I)L - (\delta\tau\kappa + \mu + \underline{\mu_i})I$$

Reinfection & Reactivation



Annexure. Epidemiological model of tuberculosis

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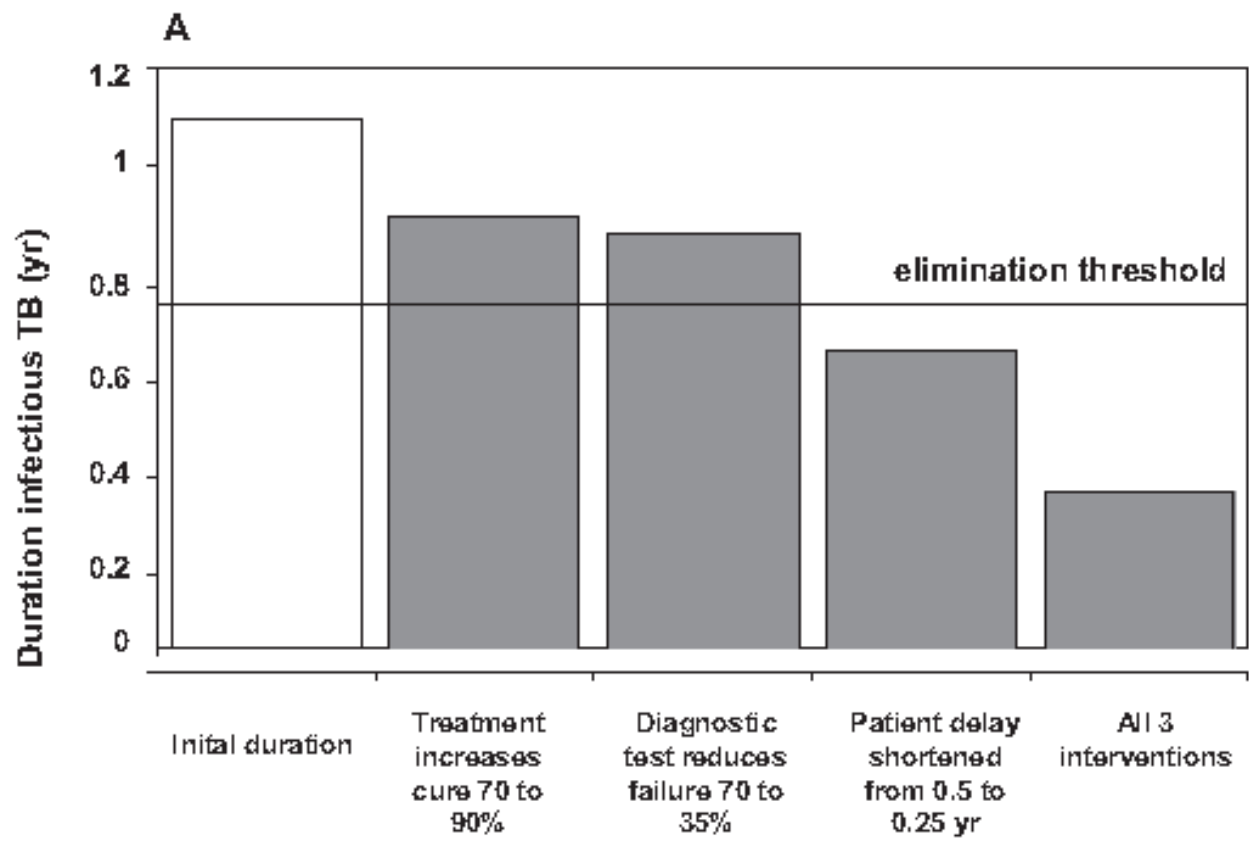
$$\frac{dU}{dt} = -\beta UI + \mu + \mu_n N + \mu_i I - \mu U$$

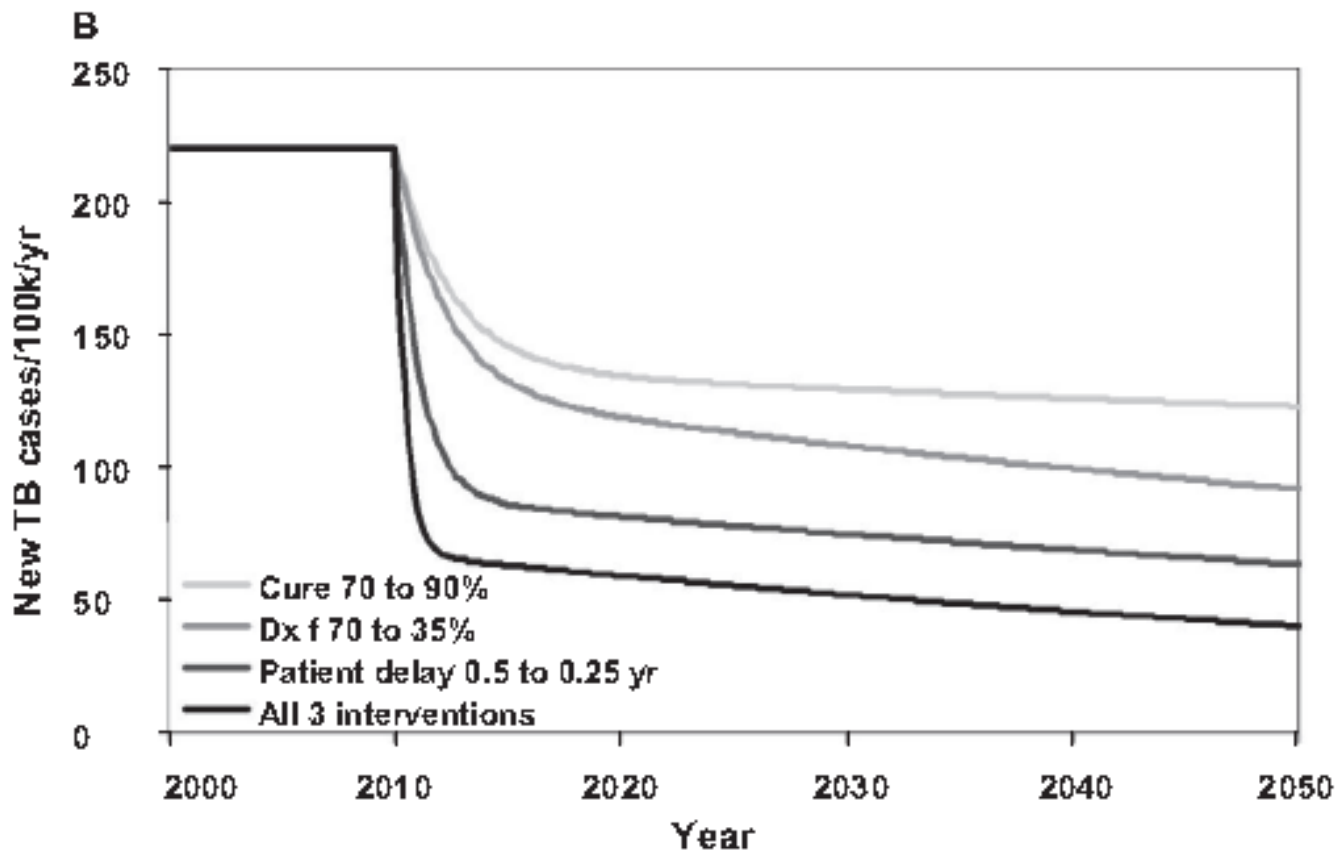
$$\frac{dL}{dt} = \beta(1-q)UI + \delta\tau\kappa(N+I) - (\mu + \nu + \beta\tau I)L$$

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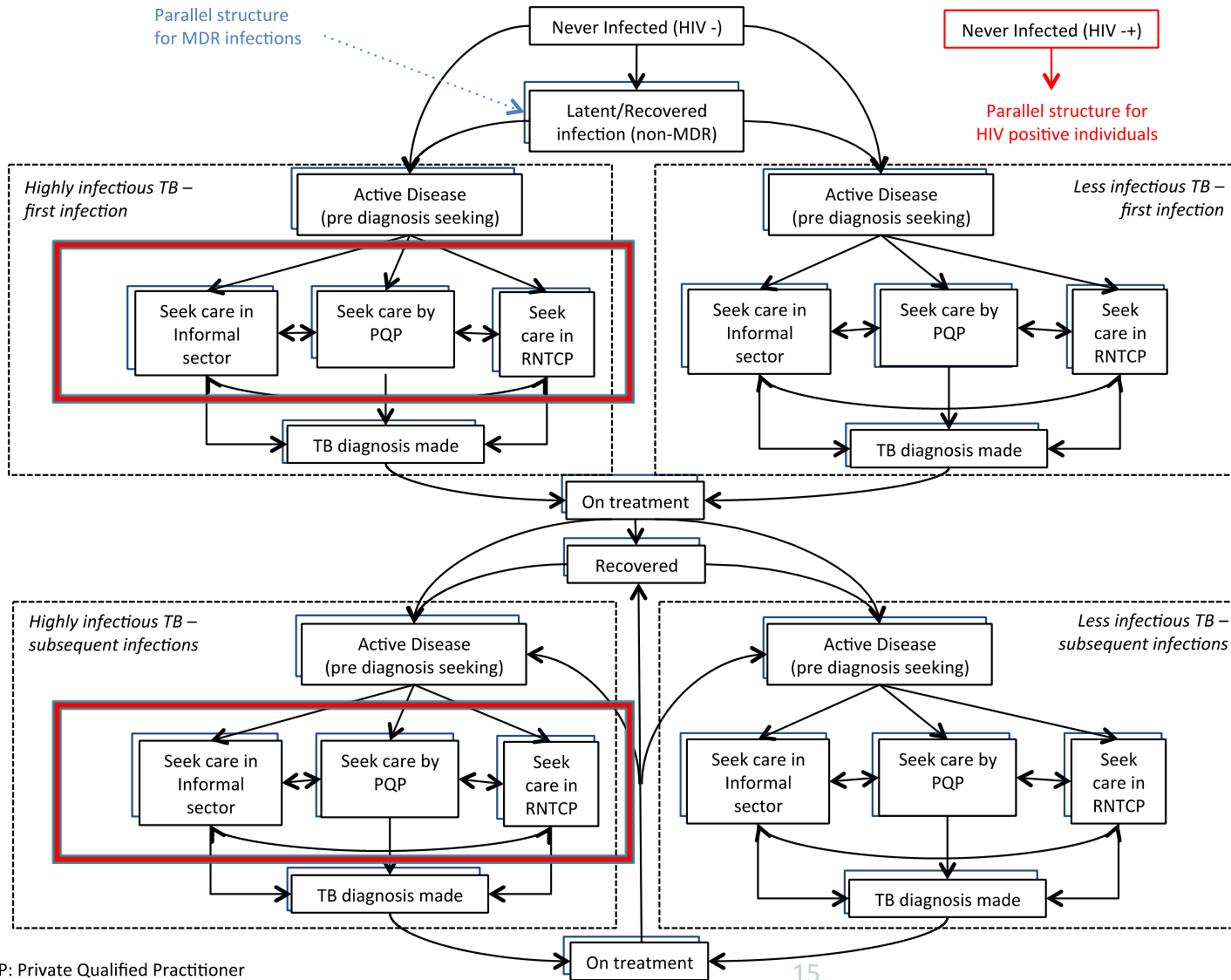
$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta qs UI + s(\nu + \beta\tau I)L - (\delta\tau\kappa + \mu + \mu_i)I$$

Treatment rate =
(1/delay) *
Sensitivity *
Treatment success

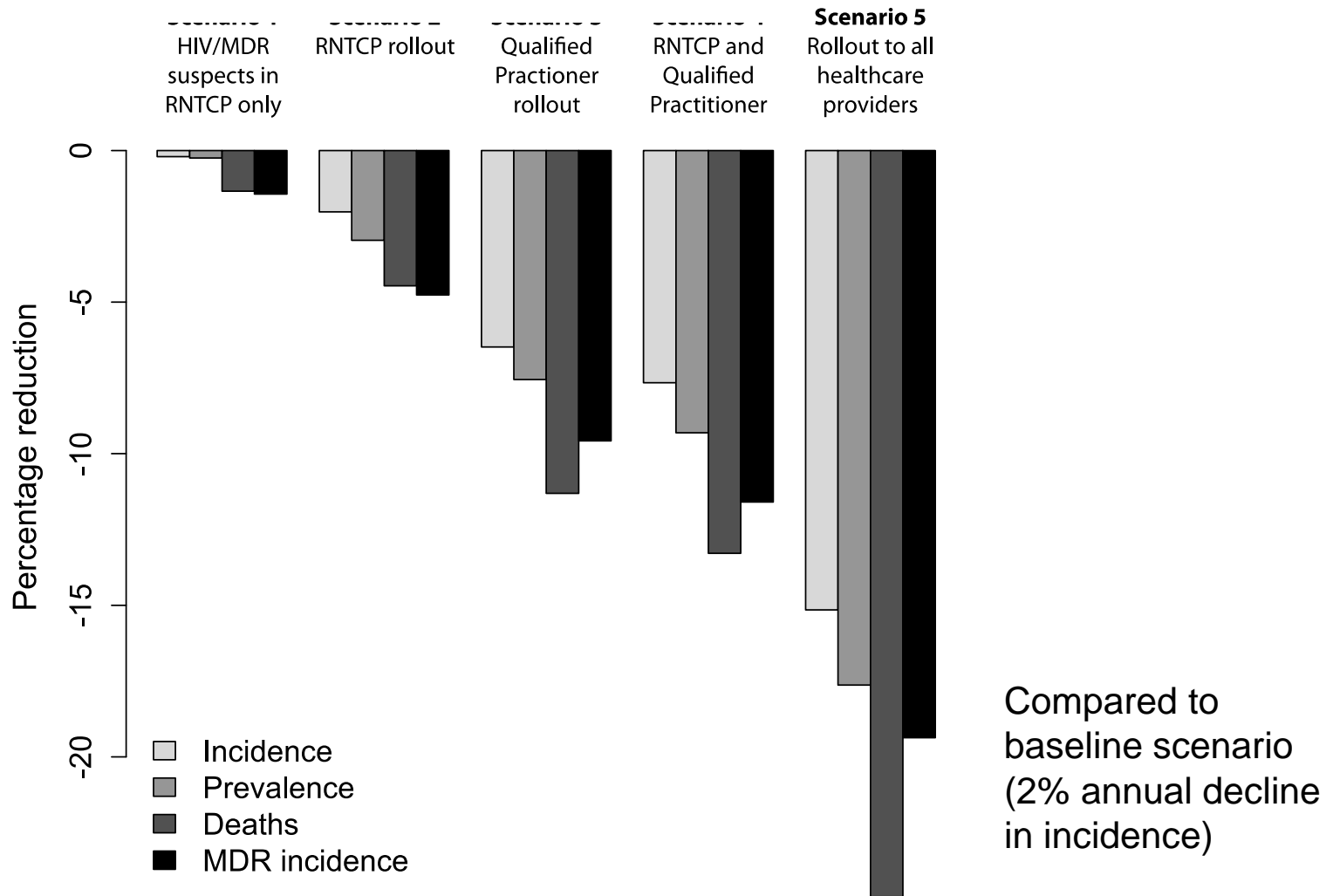




Expansion of this Concept



Same Test, Different Rollout



Caveats and Challenges

- **I. Model simplicity**
- Unclear that model outputs would replicate a real epidemic.
 - No incorporation of HIV, MDR, etc., etc.
- Which do you find to be more helpful: the complex or the simple approach?

Caveats and Challenges

- **2. Model calibration & uncertainty**
- No estimates of uncertainty provided.
 - But this is partially because uncertainty is so great.
- Can show us where data are lacking and inform future empirical studies.

Caveats and Challenges

- **3. Model generalizability**
- Data come from one study in Bangalore.
- Health systems vary dramatically between countries...and variation may be important.
 - How do we try to incorporate that heterogeneity?
 - Cannot construct models of every location...

Conclusions

- Better diagnostics will have more impact if they are used early.
 - Not just a matter of sensitivity and specificity; the same test can have very different impact.
- Improved diagnosis is not just a function of the test, but the system into which that test is deployed.