

Screening for tuberculosis among high-risk groups attending London Emergency Departments: a prospective observational study

Rishi K. Gupta¹, Swaib A Lule¹, Maria Krutikov¹, Lara Gosce¹, Nathan Green², Jo Southern³,
Ambreen Imran⁴, Robert W Aldridge⁵, Heinke Kunst⁶, Marc Lipman^{4,7}, William Lynn⁸,
Helen Burgess⁹, Asif Rahman¹⁰, Dee Menezes⁵, Ananna Rahman⁶, Simon Tiberi^{6,11}, Peter J
White^{2,12}, Ibrahim Abubakar¹

Affiliations:

1. Institute for Global Health, University College London, London, UK
2. MRC Centre for Global Infectious Disease Analysis and NIHR Health Protection Research Unit in Modelling and Health Economics, Imperial College London, London, UK
3. TB Unit, Public Health England, Colindale, London, UK
4. Royal Free London NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK
5. Centre for Public Health Data Science, Institute of Health Informatics, University College London, London, UK
6. Blizard Institute, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK
7. UCL-TB and UCL Respiratory, University College London, London, UK
8. London North West University NHS Trust, London, UK
9. West Middlesex University Hospital, Chelsea and Westminster NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK
10. Imperial College London NHS Trust, London, UK
11. Division of Infection, Barts Health NHS Trust, London, UK
12. Modelling and Economics Unit, National Infection Service, Public Health England, London, UK

Running Title: TB screening in emergency departments

Corresponding Author: i.abubakar@ucl.ac.uk

Key Words: migrants; vulnerable populations; quantiferon

1
2
3 *To the editor*
4

5 Most tuberculosis (TB) cases in low-incidence settings are thought to be due to reactivation of latent
6 TB infection (LTBI) in high-risk populations.[1-3] Assessment of patients at Emergency Departments
7 (EDs) is a potential opportunity to achieve early TB diagnosis, and interrupt transmission. An earlier
8 study in London found that 39% of patients diagnosed with TB had attended an ED in the preceding six
9 months.[4] Of these, 76% had a chest radiograph performed, of which 86% and 40% were abnormal in
10 cases of pulmonary and extra-pulmonary TB, respectively. Attendances at EDs provides opportunity to
11 identify individuals with LTBI, who may be at risk for progression to active disease and unlikely to
12 engage with healthcare services via other routes.
13
14
15
16
17

18 Between July 2013 - May 2017, we recruited individuals over the age of 16 years, who were recent
19 entrants from, or prolonged travellers to, high TB incidence countries, or people with a history of
20 homelessness, imprisonment, or problem drug use attending EDs at seven London hospitals. We
21 investigated the yield of interferon-gamma release assay (IGRA) and TB disease screening among
22 eligible ED attendees, regardless of their reason for ED attendance. Participants were tested with either
23 the QuantiFERON Gold-in-Tube (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), or QuantiFERON-TB Plus. A subset of
24 participants were screened for TB disease; symptomatic individuals (≥ 2 week history of cough or fever,
25 accompanied by haemoptysis, drenching night sweats, or unexplained weight loss) were tested with
26 chest radiograph, sputum Xpert MTB/RIF and subsequent referral for further evaluation and
27 management.[5] Those screened with IGRA were followed-up through data linkage to national TB
28 surveillance notifications to identify subsequent active TB notification.[6] This study was approved by
29 the Stanmore National Health Service (NHS) Research Ethics Committee (14/LO/2160) and registered
30 on ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT02512484; full study protocol available at the institutional website.[7, 8]
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 Descriptive analyses were performed to assess the yield of screening and incidence rates of TB disease
40 among those tested by IGRA. Logistic regression models were used to examine factors associated with
41 IGRA positivity. The final multivariable model included *a priori* variables (age, sex, presence of social
42 risk factors, history of TB contact, ethnicity and country of birth), and variables found to be significant
43 in univariable analyses ($p < 0.2$).
44
45
46
47

48 A total of 1,407 participants were recruited to the IGRA screening study, of whom 241 (17.1%) had a
49 history of substance use disorders, homelessness or imprisonment, while the remainder were migrants
50 from high TB burden countries. Of the 1,407 participants, 642 (45.6%) were female, and the majority
51 (1,010; 70.8%) were over 35 years of age (median 45 years). Among those recruited due to recent
52 migration from, or travel to, a high TB incidence country, most participants (736/1,166; 63.1%) were
53 South Asian, while the largest ethnic group among those with social risk factors was white (100/241;
54 41.5%). Almost one fifth (258/1,407; 18.2%) of participants reported previous contact with a TB case.
55 Diabetes was common, affecting 239/1,407 (17.0%). Of the 1407 participants, 109 (7.7%) were not
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 registered to a general practitioner (GP) practice; this was more common among those with social risk
4 factors (35/241; 14.5%) when compared with the migrant group (74/1,166; 6.3%).

6
7 IGRA results were available for 1232 participants, of which 34 (2.4%) were indeterminate. A total of
8 256/1,198 (21.4%) participants with valid available were IGRA positive. The prevalence of IGRA
9 positivity was 24% among migrants and 19% among those with social risk factors (Table 1). In a
10 multivariable logistic regression model, only male sex (odds ratio (OR) 1.38; 95% confidence interval
11 (CI) 1.01-1.87; $p=0.041$), age >35 years (OR 1.67; 95% CI 1.12-2.55; $p=0.012$) and non-UK country
12 of birth (OR 6.32; 95% CI 2.99-15.6; $p<0.001$) were independently associated with IGRA-positivity.

13
14
15
16
17 Participants screened by IGRA were followed up for a median of 381 days (IQR 303-605), via linkage
18 to national TB surveillance records until 31/12/2017. Of the 256 with a positive IGRA, five were
19 notified with TB disease during follow-up, giving a TB incidence rate among those with a positive
20 IGRA of 1476.4/100,000 person-years (95% confidence interval (529.4-3173.2)). All five TB cases had
21 extra-pulmonary disease (lymph node (notified 5 days after recruitment), spinal (35 days), disseminated
22 (52 days), genito-urinary (162 days) and intra-abdominal (412 days)), and none reported recent TB
23 contact at study recruitment. Median quantitative interferon-gamma responses to *Mycobacterium*
24 *tuberculosis* antigens were 6.02IU/mL (range 0.62 to >10) among the five progressors to TB disease,
25 compared to 2.57IU/mL (0.35 to >10) among non-progressors. No TB cases were notified among
26 participants who had negative or indeterminate IGRAs.

27
28
29
30
31
32
33 Of the 513 participants screened in the active TB study, only 14 (2.7%) were symptomatic and 13 had
34 a chest radiograph, with eight providing an adequate sputum sample for Xpert MTB/RIF testing. None
35 of these patients were diagnosed with TB during the study.

36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Previous studies have retrospectively reviewed ED presentations among notified TB cases in low-
incidence settings,[4, 9-12] and examined the yield of TB screening in high-incidence countries.[13,
14]. A study in the US also investigated the yield of LTBI screening among risk groups attending EDs
using the tuberculin skin test (TST) [15]. Notably, nearly half of the participants in the US study did
not return to have the TST read. Our study has demonstrated the feasibility of prospective IGRA testing
among high-risk groups attending EDs in London. Valid IGRA results were available for 85% of
participants, which is comparable to other IGRA evaluations.[16, 17] Linkage to national TB
surveillance records provided a previously validated mechanism to identify participants screened by
IGRA who subsequently progressed to TB disease [6], with median follow-up longer than one year.

Major study limitations were that patients with positive IGRA results were not routinely linked to TB
services for evaluation for TB disease and consideration of LTBI treatment since LTBI screening among
risk groups attending EDs was not part of national policy at the time. Thus, we are unable to estimate
the proportions of IGRA-positive participants who would have started and completed therapy if referred
to TB services following detection. This remains a key knowledge gap, since effectiveness (and cost-

effectiveness) of screening is dependent upon completion of LTBI treatment for these individuals, to reduce risk of TB disease. In addition, although the vast majority of participants in the study were registered with general practitioners, it is unclear how engaged they were with these services; limiting our ability to assess precisely how well ED screening could complement the primary care screening programme. Data was not available on individuals who attended EDs and screened for eligibility but not recruited to the study.

In the TB disease screening study arm, proactive screening for pulmonary TB disease used a symptom screen followed by chest radiograph and sputum testing. Consequently, pulmonary TB cases without typical symptoms and extra-pulmonary cases may have been missed. Moreover, our sample size of 513 participants screened for TB symptoms may have been too small to detect active cases; we therefore could not evaluate risk factors for active TB or cost-effectiveness of TB disease screening.

In summary, our study suggests that ED IGRA screening among TB risk groups could be implemented to identify individuals at risk of TB who may be difficult to engage via other screening approaches. Such screening must be supported by a dedicated protocol that detects individuals at higher risk of TB for screening, and resources to facilitate onward referral of those with a positive IGRA to local TB services. In contrast, this study suggests that resource-intensive, symptom-based active TB screening in EDs is unlikely to be worthwhile as the yield is likely to be too low to justify the resource. However, other high-throughput screening models such as automated, routine chest X-rays review in EDs may be evaluated in future research.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to all the ED staff who were willing to allow us into their busy departments to investigate the value of TB screening, to the patients who agreed to participate in this study during their visit to the ED for unrelated reasons, the laboratory staff who provided an excellent testing service, and local TB specialist nursing teams who facilitated participant follow-up.

Data sharing

The authors agree to share the data on reasonable request.

Contributors

RKG wrote the first draft of the manuscript. RKG, MK and SAL were responsible to the critical review of the draft. RKG, LG and NG performed the analysis with oversight from PJW and IA. IA conceived and designed the study, with support from JS, RWA and AR. IA and JS led recruitment of participants with all site principal investigators (including ML, HK, WL, HB AR and RD). AI, NG, DV and AR contributed to participant recruitment and follow-up. All other authors contributed to study design, analysis or interpretation. All authors have seen and agreed on the final submitted version of the manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) through Policy Research Programme (reference 015/0307), and personal awards (DRF-2018-11-ST2-004 to RKG; 206602/Z/17/Z to RWA; SRF-2011-04-001 to IA; NF-SI-0616–10037 to IA). PJW, IA, and NG received funding from NIHR Health Technology Assessment (NIHR127459). SAL was supported by the PANDORA-ID-NET Consortium (EDCTP Reg/Grant RIA2016E-1609) funded by the European and Developing Countries Clinical Trials Partnership (EDCTP2) programme under the Horizon 2020, the European Union’s Framework Programme for Research and Innovation. PJW and NG acknowledge funding from the UK National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Health Protection Research Unit (HPRU) in Modelling Methodology at Imperial College London, in partnership with Public Health England (HPRU-2012-10080). PJW also thanks the NIHR HPRU in Modelling and Health Economics, a partnership between PHE, Imperial College London and LSHTM, for funding (NIHR200908). PJW also acknowledges support from the Medical Research Council (MRC) Centre for Global Infectious Disease Analysis (MR/R015600/1); this award is jointly funded by the MRC and the UK Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (FCDO) under the MRC/FCDO Concordat agreement and is also part of the European & Developing Countries Clinical Trials Partnership 2 (EDCTP2) programme supported by the EU. This paper presents independent research supported by the NIHR. The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the Department of Health and Social Care, FCDO, MRC, NHS, NIHR, or Public Health England.

Competing interests

All authors have completed the Unified Competing interest form (available on request from the corresponding author) and declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

Transparency declaration

The lead author affirms that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of the study being reported and that no important aspects of the study have been omitted.

Table 1: Table showing risk factors for latent tuberculosis infection (LTBI) in multivariable logistic regression model (n=1,027). Variables were included in the model if considered of clinical importance *a priori*, or if significant in univariate analysis (p<0.2). Percentages reflect row percentages. IGRA = interferon-gamma release assay; OR = odds ratio; CI = confidence interval

Characteristic	IGRA result		Univariable			Multivariable			
	Negative, N = 942 ¹	Positive, N = 256 ¹	N	OR ²	95% CI ²	p-value	OR ²	95% CI ²	p-value
Age (years)			1,193			<0.001			0.012
<=35	286 (87%)	41 (13%)		—	—		—	—	
>35	652 (75%)	214 (25%)		2.29	1.61, 3.33		1.67	1.12, 2.55	
Missing	4	1							
Sex			1,193			0.062			0.041
Female	446 (81%)	104 (19%)		—	—		—	—	
Male	493 (77%)	150 (23%)		1.30	0.99, 1.73		1.38	1.01, 1.87	
Missing	3	2							
Ethnicity			1,188			0.007			0.2
White	165 (87%)	24 (13%)		—	—		—	—	
South Asian	534 (77%)	162 (23%)		2.09	1.34, 3.38		1.56	0.89, 2.89	
Black African Or Caribbean	52 (73%)	19 (27%)		2.51	1.27, 4.95		2.13	0.96, 4.75	
Other	184 (79%)	48 (21%)		1.79	1.06, 3.10		1.29	0.68, 2.51	
Missing	7	3							
Country of Birth			1,190			<0.001			<0.001
UK	180 (93%)	13 (6.7%)		—	—		—	—	
Non-UK	755 (76%)	242 (24%)		4.44	2.58, 8.33		6.32	2.99, 15.6	
Missing	7	1							
TB contact	161 (75%)	53 (25%)	1,160			0.175			0.2

Characteristic	IGRA result		Univariable			Multivariable			
	Negative, N = 942 ¹	Positive, N = 256 ¹	N	OR ²	95% CI ²	p-value	OR ²	95% CI ²	p-value
Missing	29	9							
No				—	—		—	—	
Yes				1.28	0.89, 1.80		1.28	0.87, 1.85	
Diabetes	147 (74%)	53 (26%)	1,191			0.064			0.4
Missing	7	0							
No				—	—		—	—	
Yes				1.40	0.98, 1.98		1.16	0.79, 1.68	
Any social risk factor*	153 (81%)	37 (19%)	1,198			0.483			0.5
No				—	—		—	—	
Yes				0.87	0.58, 1.27		1.20	0.70, 2.01	
BMI (kg/m ²)			1,165			0.032			0.5
<=25	398 (82%)	90 (18%)		—	—		—	—	
>25	517 (76%)	160 (24%)		1.37	1.03, 1.83		1.10	0.81, 1.51	
Missing	27	6							
Travel (last 3 years)**	809 (78%)	234 (22%)	1,177			0.012			0.4
Missing	17	4							
No				—	—		—	—	
Yes				1.86	1.14, 3.22		1.35	0.67, 2.91	
Registered with a GP	871 (78%)	240 (22%)	1,198			0.474			
No				—	—				
Yes				1.22	0.72, 2.21				

¹Statistics presented: n (%); Median (IQR)

²OR = Odds Ratio, CI = Confidence Interval

*Includes history of homelessness, imprisonment or harmful drug use.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

Characteristic	IGRA result		Univariable			Multivariable		
	Negative, N = 942 ¹	Positive, N = 256 ¹	N	OR ²	95% CI ²	p-value	OR ²	95% CI ²

**Indicates any travel to a high TB incidence country in the last 3 years.

References

1. NICE Guidance and Guidelines. Tuberculosis. 2016.
2. Public Health England, Collaborative Tuberculosis Strategy for England. 2015.
3. Aldridge, R.W., et al., Tuberculosis in migrants moving from high-incidence to low-incidence countries: a population-based cohort study of 519 955 migrants screened before entry to England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. *Lancet*, 2016. **388**(10059): p. 2510-2518.
4. Appleton, S.C., et al., Evaluation of prediagnosis emergency department presentations in patients with active tuberculosis: the role of chest radiography, risk factors and symptoms. *BMJ Open Respir Res*, 2017. **4**(1): p. e000154.
5. Meeting; E.G., *The Use of the Xpert MTB / RIF Assay for the Detection of Pulmonary and Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis and Rifampicin Resistance in Adults and Children*. 2013.
6. Aldridge, R.W., et al., Accuracy of Probabilistic Linkage Using the Enhanced Matching System for Public Health and Epidemiological Studies. *PLoS One*, 2015. **10**(8): p. e0136179.
7. *Improving the detection of active Tuberculosis in Accident and Emergency Departments*. 2016 05/12/2020]; Available from: https://www.ucl.ac.uk/global-health/sites/global-health/files/ace_active_tb_study_protocol_version_3.0_dated_26.02.16.pdf.
8. *Improving the detection of active Tuberculosis in Accident and Emergency Departments*. 2016.
9. Geyer, B.C., et al., Patient factors associated with failure to diagnose tuberculosis in the emergency department. *J Emerg Med*, 2013. **45**(5): p. 658-65.
10. Sokolove, P.E., L. Rossmann, and S.H. Cohen, The emergency department presentation of patients with active pulmonary tuberculosis. *Acad Emerg Med*, 2000. **7**(9): p. 1056-60.
11. Lad, T.S. and G.E. Packe, Tuberculosis: a missed opportunity for early diagnosis at the front line? *Emerg Med J*, 2014. **31**(11): p. 942-3.
12. Smith, A., et al., A&E department: a missed opportunity for diagnosis of TB? *Thorax*, 2006. **61**(4): p. 364-5.
13. Silva, D.R., et al., Active case finding of tuberculosis (TB) in an emergency room in a region with high prevalence of TB in Brazil. *PLoS One*, 2014. **9**(9): p. e107576.
14. Ticona, E., et al., Tuberculosis screening using ability to provide sputum in an endemic emergency department. *Eur Respir J*, 2016. **47**(1): p. 330-3.
15. Kirsch, T.D., et al., Feasibility of an emergency department-based tuberculosis counseling and screening program. *Acad Emerg Med*, 1999. **6**(3): p. 224-31.
16. Gupta, R.K., et al., Evaluation of QuantiFERON-TB Gold Plus for Predicting Incident Tuberculosis among Recent Contacts: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Ann Am Thorac Soc*, 2020. **17**(5): p. 646-650.
17. Abubakar, I., et al., Prognostic value of interferon-gamma release assays and tuberculin skin test in predicting the development of active tuberculosis (UK PREDICT TB): a prospective cohort study. *Lancet Infect Dis*, 2018. **18**(10): p. 1077-1087.