

VIEWPOINT

Ending TB: the world's oldest pandemic

Peter S Kim^{1,§}  and Soumya Swaminathan²

[§]**Corresponding author:** Peter Kim, Division of AIDS, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, 5601 Fishers Lane, Bethesda, MD 20892. (peter.kim2@nih.gov)

Keywords: tuberculosis; mycobacterium tuberculosis; TB; pandemic; epidemic

Received 16 February 2021; Accepted 5 March 2021

Copyright © 2021 World Health Organization; licensed by International AIDS Society. Journal of the International AIDS Society published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of International AIDS Society.

This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution IGO License which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided that the original work is properly cited. In any reproduction of this article there should not be any suggestion that WHO or the article endorse any specific organization or products. The use of the WHO logo is not permitted. This notice should be preserved along with the article's URL. This article has been contributed to by US Government employees and their work is in the public domain in the USA.

Few diseases have impacted human history as much as tuberculosis (TB). *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) has caused disease in humans for more than 4000 years [1]. Since its scientific discovery in 1882, over 1 billion people have died from TB – a death toll greater than that from malaria, smallpox, HIV/AIDS, cholera, plague and influenza combined. Today, over 2 billion people are latently infected, 10 million people have TB, and TB is the leading infectious cause of death worldwide, besides COVID-19.

Though advances in TB research have historically been very slow, recent efforts undergirded by increased research funding and political determination have realized significant gains. There are currently almost 20 new drugs in the clinical development pipeline, multiple new vaccine candidates, an array of new diagnostics and multiple clinical trials characterizing the efficacy and effectiveness of these new tools.

For chemoprophylaxis and treatment, several new regimens have proven successful in simplifying complex therapeutic requirements. The PREVENT TB Study showed that three months of once-weekly therapy with rifapentine plus isoniazid was as effective as nine months of isoniazid in preventing TB [2]. The BRIEF TB study demonstrated that a one-month regimen of daily rifapentine plus isoniazid was non-inferior to nine months of isoniazid for preventing TB in adults and adolescents with HIV [3]. The NIX TB trial showed that a six-month combination regimen of three oral drugs – bedaquiline, pretomanid and linezolid – was safe and effective for treating highly drug-resistant TB [4]. Most recently, a collaborative trial between the U.S. TB Trials Consortium and the AIDS Clinical Trials Group (Study 31/A5349) showed that a four-month regimen of high-dose rifapentine, isoniazid, pyrazinamide and moxifloxacin was non-inferior to the current standard six-month regimen – a reduction in treatment duration that may have significant implications for global treatment efforts [5].

Similarly, advances in diagnostics such as the Xpert[®] MTB/RIF Ultra assay have enabled more timely diagnosis of TB and

associated drug resistance. In a recent study, the Xpert[®] MTB/XDR assay showed sensitivity and specificity comparable to phenotypic testing for isoniazid, fluoroquinolones, ethionamide and second-line injectable drugs in under 90 minutes [6]. Additionally, efforts are underway to improve antigen detection technologies such as the urine lipoarabinomannan lateral flow assay which enables rapid diagnosis of TB in people living with HIV. Efforts to further delineate mycobacterial genetic mutations associated with drug resistance and host-derived immune signatures representative of the spectrum of TB infection and disease are increasingly successful, and portend holistic diagnostic strategies that enable more accurate diagnosis and improved care.

With regard to TB vaccines, recent studies highlight the potential of new and old vaccine candidates alike. A phase 2 trial evaluating the efficacy of H4:IC31, a candidate subunit vaccine, and the Bacillus Calmette–Guérin (BCG) vaccine to prevent MTB infection among adolescents found that BCG may be effective in preventing persistent MTB infection [7]. A phase 2b clinical trial of the M72/AS01E vaccine demonstrated 49.7% efficacy in preventing the development of active pulmonary TB for three years among those with latent MTB infection [8]. Most recently, a preclinical study evaluating intravenous administration of BCG in rhesus macaques found that the strategy prevented the acquisition of infection after aerosol challenge with MTB [9].

These studies represent the most significant advances in TB vaccinology since the advent of the BCG vaccine, and indicate that a successful vaccine may be achievable in the near future. Several additional promising vaccine candidates are in clinical development, including VPM1002 [10,11], MTBVAC [12] and ID93:GLA-SE [13,14]. Research efforts to identify correlates of protection, develop improved adjuvants and enhance understanding of protective immune mechanisms are ongoing and will provide the basis for the discovery and development of future vaccine candidates.

Despite these advances, much remains to be done. In 2019 alone, TB caused 1.5 million deaths, including 251,000 deaths

among persons with HIV. Millions of cases went undiagnosed, and only one out of three people with drug-resistant TB received appropriate treatment. The prevalence of drug-resistant TB continues to grow. The tools and strategies needed to bring an end to the TB pandemic, whereas on the horizon, are not yet available. Effective vaccines, true point-of-care diagnostics, simpler treatment regimens and strategies to improve case finding and treatment retention are attainable. However, success requires redoubling of investment in research and research infrastructure backed by political support to ensure that achievements to date are not lost.

International research collaborations have the potential to enable economies of scale, leverage expertise from multiple researchers and institutions, maximize efficient use of scarce resources, foster development of global research capacity and speed translation of research discoveries. Most of the recent scientific breakthroughs in TB have resulted from global collaborations. At the same time, there is a great need to potentiate international research by removing legal and bureaucratic hurdles that prohibit the free flow of research ideas, data and samples, thereby delaying or obstructing critical collaborations. Efforts that encourage cutting-edge collaborative science, enable pathways for trans-national data and sample sharing, and foster development of research capacity within LMICs, especially engaging early-career investigators, are urgently needed. GISAID and GenBank are data-sharing platforms through which influenza and SARS-CoV-2 sequence data and related clinical and epidemiological data can be shared openly by the research community [15,16]. The TB Portals programme is a global repository of TB case data with a suite of analytic tools available to the public [17]. Platforms such as the GISAID Initiative, GenBank and TB Portals should be leveraged to create a global database of mycobacterial genomic data paired with phenotypic and clinical data to rapidly advance mycobacterial research. Networks such as RePORT International [18], which foster global research collaboration while building local research capacity, should be championed by governments to remove constraints on trans-national collaboration.

The COVID-19 pandemic has shown that research and development resulting in improved clinical care can be dramatically accelerated. We are beneficiaries of rapid information sharing and enhanced global collaboration. We have seen that new vaccines, treatments and diagnostics can be rapidly developed when scientific pursuits are fully supported financially and politically and fostered through well-financed public-private partnerships. Exemplified by the mRNA vaccines against COVID-19, advances have not only been a re-engineering of old technology, but pioneering breakthroughs. As a result, the world has a growing armamentarium of safe and effective medical countermeasures against COVID-19. All this for a pandemic that is a little over one year old. These discoveries and the methods used to achieve them have paved the way for other infectious diseases, including TB. It is time that we apply these same methods and intensity to the oldest pandemic of them all.

AUTHORS' AFFILIATIONS

¹Division of AIDS, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA; ²World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Dr. Peter Kim and Dr. Soumya Swaminathan devised the manuscript together.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Dr. Peter Kim is the Director of the Therapeutic Research Program in the Division of AIDS, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease, U.S. National Institutes of Health. Dr. Soumya Swaminathan is the Chief Scientist of the World Health Organization.

REFERENCES

1. Zink AR, Sola C, Reischl U, Grabner W, Rastogi N, Wolf H, et al. Characterization of Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex DNAs from Egyptian mummies by spoligotyping. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2003;41(1):359–67.
2. Sterling TR, Villarino ME, Borisov AS, Shang N, Gordin F, Bliven-Sizemore E, et al. Three Months of Rifapentine and Isoniazid for Latent Tuberculosis Infection. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365(23):2155–66.
3. Swindells S, Ramchandani R, Gupta A, Benson CA, Leon-Cruz J, Mwelase N, et al. One month of rifapentine plus isoniazid to prevent HIV-related tuberculosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2019;380(11):1001–11.
4. Conradie F, Diacon AH, Ngubane N, Howell P, Everitt D, Crook AM, et al. Treatment of highly drug-resistant pulmonary tuberculosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(10):893–902.
5. Payam Nahid and Susan Dorman. High-dose rifapentine with or without moxifloxacin for shortening treatment of TB: TB Trials Consortium study 31/ACTG A5349 phase III clinical trial results. The 51st World Union Conference on Lung Health, October 21, 2020.
6. Cao Y, Parmar H, Gaur RL, Lieu D, Raghunath S, Via N, et al. Xpert MTB/XDR: A ten-color reflex assay suitable for point of care settings to detect isoniazid-, fluoroquinolone-, and second-line injectable drug-resistance directly from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* positive sputum. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2021;59(3):e02314–20.
7. Nemes E, Geldenhuys H, Rozot V, Rutkowski KT, Ratangee F, Bilek N, et al. Prevention of M. tuberculosis Infection with H4:IC31 Vaccine or BCG Revaccination. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(2):138–49.
8. Tait DR, Hatherill M, Van Der Meeren O, Ginsberg AM, Van Brakel E, Salaun B, et al. Final analysis of a trial of M72/AS01E Vaccine To Prevent Tuberculosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2019;381(25):2429–39.
9. Darrach PA, Zeppa JJ, Maiello P, Hackney JA, Wadsworth MH, Hughes TK, et al. Prevention of tuberculosis in macaques after intravenous BCG immunization. *Nature*. 2020;577(7788):95–102.
10. Evaluation of Efficacy and Safety of VPM1002 in Comparison to BCG in Prevention of Tb Infection in Infants (VPM1002) [Internet]. 2020 Apr 17 [updated 2021 Feb 8; cited 2021 Mar 5]. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04351685>
11. Study to Check the Efficacy and Safety of Recombinant BCG Vaccine in Prevention of TB Recurrence [Internet]. 2017 May 15 [updated 2020 Jul 7]; [cited 2021 Mar 5]. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03152903>
12. Dose-Escalation Study to Evaluate the Safety and Immunogenicity of MTBVAC Vaccine in Comparison With BCG Vaccine. (MTBVAC) [Internet]. 2013 Dec 17 [updated 2017 Mar 24]; [cited 2021 Mar 5]. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02013245>
13. Phase 2a ID93 + GLA-SE Vaccine Trial in TB Patients After Treatment Completion. [Internet]. 2015 Jun 8 [updated 2019 Mar 12]; [cited 2021 Mar 5]. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02465216>
14. Phase 2a Clinical Trial of ID93+GLA-SE Vaccine in BCG-vaccinated Healthy Healthcare Workers. [Internet]. 2019 Jan 16 [updated 2019 May 31]; [cited 2021 Mar 5]. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03806686>
15. Shu Y, McCauley J. GISAID: global initiative on sharing all influenza data - from vision to reality. *Euro Surveill*. 2017;22(13):30494.
16. Sayers EW, Cavanaugh M, Clark K, Ostell J, Pruitt KD, Karsch-Mizrachi I. GenBank. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2020;48(D1):D84–D86. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkz956>
17. Rosenthal A, Gabrielian A, Engle E, Hurt DE, Alexandru S, Crudu V, et al. The TB portals: an open-access, web-based platform for global drug-resistant-tuberculosis data sharing and analysis. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2017;55(11):3267–82.
18. Hamilton CD, Swaminathan S, Christopher DJ, Ellner J, Gupta A, Sterling TR, et al. RePORT international: advancing tuberculosis biomarker research through global collaboration. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2015;61 Suppl 3:S155–9.