

# The Global Impact of COVID-19 on Tuberculosis: A Thematic Scoping Review, 2020-2023

*(Running Title: Global Impact of COVID-19 on TB)*

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## **Abstract**

**Background:** This thematic scoping review of publications sought to understand the global impact of COVID-19 on tuberculosis (TB), interpret the scope of resonating themes, and offer policy recommendations to stimulate TB recovery and future pandemic preparedness.

45 **Data Sources:** Publications were captured from three search engines, PubMed, EBSCO, and  
46 Google Scholar, and applicable websites written in English from January 1, 2020, to April 30,  
47 2023.

48  
49 **Study Selection:** Our scoping review was limited to publications detailing the impact of COVID-  
50 19 on TB. Original research, reviews, letters, and editorials describing the deleterious and  
51 harmful—yet sometimes positive— impact of COVID-19 (sole exposure) on TB (sole outcome)  
52 were included. The objective was to methodically categorize the impacts into themes through a  
53 comprehensive review of selected studies to provide significant health policy guidance.

54  
55 **Data Extraction:** Two authors independently screened citations and full texts, while the third  
56 arbitrated when consensus was not met. All three performed data extraction.

57  
58 **Data Synthesis/Results:** Of 1,755 screened publications, 176 (10%) covering 39 countries over  
59 41 months met the inclusion criteria. Ten principal themes were established, which  
60 encompassed TB's care cascade, patient-centered care, psychosocial issues, and health  
61 services: 1) case-finding and notification (n=45; 26%); 2) diagnosis and laboratory systems  
62 (n=19; 10.7%) 3) prevention, treatment, and care (n=22; 12.2%); 4) telemedicine/telehealth  
63 (n=12; 6.8%); 5) social determinants of health (n=14; 8%); 6) airborne infection prevention and  
64 control (n=8; 4.6%); 7) health system strengthening (n=22; 13%); 8) mental health (n=13; 7.4%);  
65 9) stigma (n=11; 6.3%); and 10) health education (n=10; 5.7%).

66

67 **Limitations:** Heterogeneity of publications within themes.

68

69 **Conclusions:** We identified ten globally generalizable themes of COVID-19’s impact on TB.

70 These thematic areas will guide evidence-informed policies to strengthen comprehensive global  
71 responses, recovery for TB, and future airborne pandemic preparedness.

72

73 **Primary Funding Source:** United States Agency for International Development

74

## 75 **BACKGROUND**

76 Before the first COVID-19 cases were reported in Wuhan, China, in late 2019 [1-2] and the  
77 World Health Organization’s (WHO) declaration of COVID-19 as a global pandemic on March 11,  
78 2020 [3], tuberculosis (TB) was the world’s leading cause of death from a single infectious  
79 disease, causing 1.4 million deaths in 2019 [4]. Global TB deaths declined by 35% between 2009  
80 and 2019, due in part to Member State commitments to WHO’s 2015 “End TB Strategy” [5] and  
81 the 2018 United Nations High-Level Meeting declaration to end the TB epidemic [6].

82

83 The global spread of COVID-19 likely derailed the promise of and trajectory for ending TB in this  
84 decade. COVID-19 wiped out over 12 years of hard-fought gains, such as increased TB  
85 detections and decreased TB-related mortality [7]. The initial marked drop in the reported  
86 number of newly diagnosed TB cases dropped from a peak of 7.1 million in 2019 to 5.8 million  
87 in 2020—a decline of 18% [8]. It is estimated that there will be 4,702,800 TB cases and an  
88 additional 1,044,800 TB deaths worldwide between 2020 and 2025 due to the disruptions in TB

89 detection and treatment during lockdowns, and the prioritization of COVID-19 services [9]. By  
90 2022, the WHO [10] stated, "...the COVID-19 pandemic continues to have a damaging impact on  
91 access to TB diagnosis and treatment and the burden of TB disease."

92  
93 We conducted a scoping review to explore the impact, effect, and aftermath of COVID-19 on all  
94 aspects of TB, from the clinical cascade to patient-centered care, provision, and psychosocial  
95 issues. Based on our analysis, we identified ten principal themes and expanded the traditional  
96 model of a scoping review by offering policy recommendations aligned with these principal  
97 themes. This review and discussion target policymakers. As COVID-19 continues to cause  
98 morbidity and mortality, and the threat of future airborne infection pandemics remains a real  
99 possibility, it seemed prudent to offer TB policy recommendations to global and national  
100 leaders to build and maintain a robust TB infrastructure with surge capacity for response,  
101 recovery, and resilience.

102

## 103 **METHODS**

104 The analysis of publications and grey literature was conducted to identify and define resonating  
105 themes of COVID-19's global impact on TB and inform policy recommendations to assist in TB  
106 resilience, recovery, and future pandemic preparedness. This scoping review was conducted in  
107 accordance with PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews guidelines and Joanna Briggs Institute  
108 (JBI) methodology [11-12] (Appendix 1, JBI Protocol, and published at DOI:  
109 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24566842.v1>; Appendix 2, "Checklist")

110

## 111 ***Data Sources and Searches***

112 We included qualitative and quantitative original research, case series, letters to the editor,  
113 editorials, and review articles that met the inclusion criteria. On May 1, 2023, publications  
114 written in English were captured from three search engines: PubMed, EBSCO, Google Scholar,  
115 and global health multilateral websites from January 1, 2020, to April 30, 2023. The PubMed  
116 search terms, which originated from the consensus in review team meetings, were:  
117 *(( Mycobacterium tuberculosis or tuberculosis or TB [MeSH Terms] )) AND (( COVID-19 or COVID*  
118 *or pandemic COVID-19 or coronavirus or sars-cov-2 [MeSH Terms] )) AND ((primary healthcare*  
119 *or health services or healthcare system [MeSH Terms] ))*. (See Appendix 1a: “Search Strategy”  
120 for the search terms employed for EBSCO and Google Scholar.)

121  
122 This search strategy was designed to be wide-ranging and purposeful to include as many studies  
123 as possible from low- and middle-income countries (LMIC). Identified citations were uploaded to  
124 EndNote™ 20 (Clarivate™) and transferred to COVIDENCE systematic review software for  
125 screening.

126

## 127 ***Study Selection***

128 The Population, Concept, and Context (PCC) framework [11] was applied to assist the review  
129 team in setting eligibility criteria. The inclusion criteria stipulated that the literature must  
130 discuss COVID-19 (the sole exposure) as the impact, effect, or consequence of any aspect of TB  
131 (the sole outcome). Letters to the editor and editorials were required to contain original data or  
132 substantive recommendations. We excluded 1) published abstracts; 2) magazines; 3) online

133 pre-publications that were never published; and 4) literature focusing on the clinical sequelae  
134 of COVID-19 and TB co-infection, or co-infection dynamics between TB and COVID-19 with  
135 other illnesses (e.g., HIV, diabetes).

136  
137 MHM and KGC conducted independent screening of titles and abstracts; when disagreement  
138 occurred, SA adjudicated. MHM and KGC conducted independent full-text reviews with SA,  
139 confirming ineligible publications.

140

#### 141 ***Data Extraction and Quality Assessment***

142 Data were extracted independently by the three authors using a data extraction tool developed  
143 by the review team (Appendix 1b; Table 1). Descriptive variables extracted included author(s),  
144 geography, publication year, publication type, and perceived themes.

145

#### 146 ***Data Synthesis and Analysis***

147 Determining the resonating themes of publications and how many were decided by consensus.  
148 Analysis of a publication's sub-themes was essential for proper categorization. While a  
149 publication's title/topic pointed to a specific theme (e.g., case-finding and notification), there  
150 were instances when it was added to a different theme because of substantial, pertinent  
151 discussions on additional underlying causes or solutions. Themes and their respective  
152 publications were presented in tabular form (Appendix 3) with a narrative summary describing  
153 how each related to COVID-19's global impact on TB.

154

155 ***Role of the Funding Source***

156 This work was funded by the United States Agency for International Development.

157

158 **RESULTS**

159 Figure 1 describes the selection process for publication. Three search engines identified 1,755  
160 publications: PubMed (n=701), EBSCO (n=105), and Google Scholar (n=701). Through citation  
161 searching, 35 additional publications were captured; 4 were grey literature. There were 114  
162 duplicate titles, leaving 1,674 publications for title and abstract screening. There was  
163 agreement from MHM and KGC that 1,426 were irrelevant—i.e., not meeting inclusion criteria—  
164 —with a discrepancy of 33. SA adjudicated, characterizing all 33 irrelevant, leaving 1,459  
165 discarded and 217 publications moving to full-text review. Of the full texts reviewed by MHM  
166 and KGC, 41 were ineligible, with confirmation by SA. Thus, 176 publications went forward for  
167 data capturing and analysis.

168

169 **Figure 1. Scoping Review Schema** **Courtesy of COVIDENCE**

170

171 In our analyses of 176 publications from 39 countries covering 41 months, ten principal themes  
172 (as depicted in Figure 2) were identified characterizing the breadth of the global impact of  
173 COVID-19 on TB: 1) case-finding and notification (n=45; 26%); 2) diagnosis and laboratory  
174 systems (n=19; 10.7%); 3) prevention, treatment, and care (n=22; 12.2%); 4)  
175 telemedicine/telehealth (n=12; 6.8%); 5) social determinants of health (n=14; 8%); 6) airborne

176 infection prevention and control (n=8; 4.6%); 7) health system strengthening (n=22; 13%); 8)  
177 mental health (n=13; 7.4%); 9) stigma (n=11; 6.3%); and 10) health education (n=10; 5.7%).

178

179 **Figure 2. Ten Themes Characterizing the Global Impact of COVID-19 on TB**

180

181 ***Case-Finding and Notifications***

182 A quarter of the publications (n=45) from over 20 countries [7, 9, 13-55] addressed the  
183 deleterious impact of COVID-19 on active TB case-finding, notification, and contact tracing  
184 during multiple lockdowns and restrictions. Globally, TB case-finding and notification decreased  
185 by an estimated 18% between 2019 and 2020 [8], yet resilient TB programs initiated measures  
186 to address this drop-off when community health workers (CHWs) were overwhelmed by COVID-  
187 19 testing and response activities. A retrospective data analysis of the impact of COVID-19 on  
188 TB case notification and other indicators from Migliori et al. [39] covered five continents and  
189 drew data from 43 TB centers in 19 countries. TB case notification decreased from 32,898 in  
190 2019 to 16,396 in 2020; the most precipitous decline occurred in March 2020. Only two  
191 counties, Australia, and Singapore, and one state (Virginia, in the U.S.) did not report decreases.

192

193 To help blunt the precipitous global decline in TB case notification, finding, and detection, Sahu,  
194 et al. [7] stressed the urgency of resilience and recovery from COVID-19 by fast-tracking the  
195 2018 United Nations General Assembly High-Level Meeting TB targets [6] and aligning  
196 vaccination services with active early case finding and other community-based TB services.

197



198 Publications from several countries described the diversion of resources from TB to COVID-19  
199 and how multiple lockdowns during the pandemic negatively impacted active case-finding and  
200 contact investigations, markedly decreasing the detection of people with TB disease or TB  
201 infection [7, 15, 17, 26, 30, 43, 52-55]. A few publications [7, 17, 53-55] acknowledged that  
202 digital tools developed and deployed for COVID-19 contact tracing could help facilitate future  
203 TB contact investigations. Pai, et al. [54] described the need for targeted active case-finding  
204 initiatives employing portable digital X-ray systems with artificial intelligence (AI) software.  
205 Ruhwald, et al. [53] asserted that the novel use of COVID-19 molecular technologies and bi-  
206 directional testing will benefit TB diagnosis and reduce reliance on suboptimal tools, such as  
207 smear microscopy. Sahu, et al. [7] asserted that these advanced diagnostics must be readily  
208 implemented in the community to meet people where they live. Finally, Chan, et al. [17]  
209 highlighted the benefits and risks of using molecular technology in the community.

210

### 211 ***Diagnosis and Laboratory Systems***

212 Nineteen publications [56-74] focused on COVID-19's detrimental impacts on TB diagnosis,  
213 laboratory capacity and systems, and the supply chain.

214

215 Mauer, et al. (73) detailed a WHO survey of 31 national TB reference laboratories in the  
216 European Union and the United Kingdom, reporting that COVID-19-related disruptions to TB  
217 laboratory services peaked from March to June 2020. The core laboratory setbacks were: 1)  
218 sample turnaround time; 2) access to external quality assessment; and 3) availability of  
219 diagnostic services.

220 Tovar, et al. [72] conducted a modelling analysis to determine the impact of COVID-19 setbacks  
221 in TB diagnostic and laboratory services on patient mortality in India, Indonesia, Kenya, and  
222 Pakistan in 2022. They calculated that stark, pandemic-related reductions in new TB diagnoses  
223 could result in 378,000 excess deaths across the four countries.

224  
225 Integrating COVID-19 and TB testing was proposed by MacLean, et al. [63] as a solution to  
226 identify and diagnose more people with TB disease. They contended that during the pandemic,  
227 too many people refrained from accessing healthcare, including essential TB testing. They  
228 provided integrated testing recommendations for 1) urban settings with the highest TB  
229 prevalence and those vulnerable to COVID-19; 2) rural settings in high-burden countries to  
230 improve the quality of patient care; and 3) countries with high HIV prevalence.

231  
232 In 2020, Aswathi and Singh [74] provided solutions for India's TB diagnostic and laboratory  
233 obstacles. They called for the Indian government to increase testing by arranging additional  
234 machines and increasing the number of shifts for laboratory testing. Furthermore, they called  
235 for the Government's TB Program to offer upfront TB testing with GeneXpert® or Truenat®  
236 instead of smear microscopy.

237

### 238 ***Prevention, Treatment, and Care***

239 Twenty-two publications [75-96] centered on the pandemic's negative impact on TB  
240 prevention, treatment, and care in diverse patient populations; some proposed measures to  
241 optimize TB treatment.

242 In a 2023 rapid review from South Korea, Jeong et al. [83] reported that global detection and  
243 treatment of TB infection were among the most negatively impacted steps in the TB cascade  
244 across low-, middle-, and high-income countries (LMHC). Two retrospective data analyses  
245 comparing TB preventive treatment initiation before and during the pandemic reported a  
246 44.7% decline in Addis, Ethiopia [76] and 30% and 66% in Montreal and Toronto, Canada [77],  
247 respectively.

248

249 The pandemic resulted in global stockouts of BCG vaccine for infants [89, 94]. Namkoong, et al.  
250 [89] hypothesized that the vaccine shortage was partly caused by WHO's supplier withdrawal  
251 due to production issues, which left UNICEF [97] with a 30% decrease in supply. Another  
252 explanation was the renewed interest in basic science research [98] that supported BCG's  
253 enhancement of immune responses. This led to off-label use, even after the publication of  
254 results from a failed efficacy trial of BCG for COVID-19 prevention [99].

255

256 Arega et al. [76] conducted a retrospective data analysis of TB treatment outcomes in Ethiopia,  
257 finding that the TB treatment success rate decreased by 17% between March 2019 and March  
258 2020 and that rifampicin resistance (RR) increased by 27.7%.

259

260 The increase of RR/multidrug-resistant (MDR) TB was observed in different settings during the  
261 pandemic. From the proceedings of the National Academies of Sciences workshop, "Innovations  
262 for Tackling Tuberculosis in the Time of COVID-19," Salmaan Keshavjee [90] underscored the

263 necessity of continuing TB treatment during the pandemic by administering the most tolerable  
264 and shortest DS-TB, and all-oral DR TB regimens, and promoting treatment adherence.

265

### 266 ***Telemedicine/Telehealth***

267 Twelve publications [100-111] discussed how LMIC swiftly implemented telehealth  
268 interventions to offset COVID-19 disruptions in TB services. Various digital tools enabled virtual  
269 case identification, TB care, treatment, and adherence [4].

270

271 A rapid assessment of telemedicine's potential to optimize TB care and treatment was  
272 conducted by Klinton et al. [102] during March – December 2020 in seven high-burden  
273 countries. The interventions included telemedicine/telehealth platforms (e.g., text messages,  
274 phone, and video) enabling consultations, video-observed therapy (VOT) for adherence, refill  
275 reminders, and novel diagnostic platforms such as AI-based and portable digital chest X-rays.  
276 Researchers noted that digital tools could strengthen the diagnostic capacity of TB programs,  
277 enhance patient-centered care, decentralize TB services, and contribute towards progress in  
278 achieving the EndTB goals.

279

280 Calnan, et al. [107] described a phone-based TB case-finding and case-management  
281 intervention launched in two regions of the Philippines between October 2020 and September  
282 2021. Fourteen TB contact centers conducted TB screening and contact investigation and  
283 provided information about testing, delivery of test results, and adherence support. Call centers  
284 identified 9.2% of people with TB in the region, of which 43.5% (827/1,901) initiated treatment.

285 A cost-benefit analysis compared the new telehealth service versus standard-of-care (SOC)  
286 case-finding interventions found that the 1-year cost for implementing call centers totaled USD  
287 557 per patient, only USD 7.00 more than SOC.

288  
289 A 197-person study by Visca, et al. (108) compared the effectiveness and cost of VOT versus  
290 clinic-based directly observed therapy (DOT) in Moldova. They found that VOT significantly  
291 improved adherence (1.29 missed days versus 5.24 missed days) over two weeks spent on clinic  
292 transport among VOT patients by 58 hours.

293

#### 294 ***Social Determinants of Health***

295 Fourteen publications [112-125] addressed social determinants of health (SDH) and COVID-19's  
296 outsized effect on vulnerable populations and offered solutions to mitigate them. Singh et al.  
297 [112] summarized the contribution of SDH to an additional 700,000 undiagnosed and missing  
298 active TB cases in Southeast Asia between 2019 and 2020, noting that the pandemic adversely  
299 impacted the nutritional status and BMI of the affected populations, which, in turn, was likely  
300 to have contributed to secondary immunodeficiency and an influx of undiagnosed TB cases.

301

302 In a 2020 editorial, Saunders et al. [115] proposed social protection interventions—"safety  
303 nets"—for vulnerable populations, noting that impoverished, at-risk TB populations could not  
304 work and access funds to provide social protection during lockdowns. They recommended  
305 special provisions, including cash transfers or food parcels for TB-affected households. Notably,

306 they called for psychosocial support for affected households and access to digital technology to  
307 improve equity and access to virtual care during lockdowns.

308  
309 In Brazil, Souza, et al. [123] surveyed healthcare workers about the surge in MDR TB during the  
310 first two waves of COVID-19, documenting an association between MDR TB cases and SDH (e.g.,  
311 poverty, vulnerability, and social risk). Weakened adherence was associated with cuts in social  
312 protection and benefits.

313

### 314 ***Airborne Infection Prevention and Control***

315 Eight publications [126-133] addressed airborne infection prevention and control and personal  
316 protective equipment (PPE) for healthcare workers and people with TB.

317

318 Mannan et al. [126] from Joint Effort for Elimination of TB (JEET) in India, a nationwide Global  
319 Fund project across 406 districts in 23 states, surveyed 21,750 physicians between February  
320 and March 2021. Many survey questions examined infection prevention and control measures  
321 (IPC) implemented in their clinics due to COVID-19. Approximately 82% of surveyed providers  
322 employed social distancing and increased the interval between patients' appointments. While  
323 70% reported knowledge that IPC measures could decrease TB transmission, 62% initiated PPE  
324 use, and only 13% physically implemented physical changes (e.g., air filters and isolation of  
325 patient areas).

326

327 To prevent airborne infections in TB diagnostic and treatment centers, Awan, et al. [127]  
328 proposed several measures at clinics: building and maintaining sizeable outdoor patient waiting  
329 areas, installing ventilation and air circulation exhaust systems in clinics, ultraviolet germicidal  
330 irradiation lights, and designated sputum expectoration areas.

331 The shortage of PPE during COVID-19 was echoed in multiple publications from various  
332 countries [129-131]. Jain and colleagues [130] reviewed literature published in India in May  
333 2020, which underscored complaints about the paucity of PPE, noting that this made it  
334 impossible for HCWs to provide safe, regular healthcare services for people with TB. Moreover,  
335 healthcare workers were fearful and reluctant to take samples from people with TB due to a  
336 lack of appropriate PPE.

337

### 338 ***Health System Strengthening***

339 National TB Programs (NTP) in many LMICs were hobbled and underperformed well before the  
340 advent of COVID-19. The pandemic imposed an unprecedented burden, leaving programs and  
341 services faltering. Twenty publications examined the need for health system strengthening  
342 (HSS) [134-155].

343

344 Khan, et al. [139] cited NTP data on widespread disruptions across the care cascade in Pakistan  
345 during 2020 due to limited and dwindling resources. Between March 1 and June 30, 2020,  
346 GeneXpert® machines and hospital isolation wards were re-directed from TB to COVID-19,  
347 delayed TB diagnoses. Meanwhile, outpatient TB visits dropped by 59.55%, and hospitalizations

348 declined by 50.7%, increasing the risk of household transmission. Due to staffing shortages, TB  
349 treatment was often interrupted, and follow-up visits were delayed or canceled.

350  
351 Some publications addressed TB differentiated service delivery (DSD) as an essential facet of  
352 strengthening health systems [148, 150, 153-154]. DSD models (such as multi-month  
353 dispensing, pickup points for or home delivery of medications, and VOT) quickly emerged,  
354 allowing TB services to continue outside the clinic during lockdowns. While piecemeal DSD  
355 models for TB were rolled out in the past, these were developed and deployed in an expansive,  
356 global, warp-speed offensive during the pandemic [101, 104, 146].

357  
358 Klinton et al. [142] observed a silver lining for TB HSS, noting global resilience, recovery, and  
359 innovative improvements despite the erosion of TB services during the pandemic. The private  
360 sector enabled the rapid deployment of innovations that improved TB services and health  
361 systems, demonstrating resilience by adapting guidelines, policies, and digital tools to improve  
362 accessibility, acceptability, and quality of TB prevention, care, and treatment. The pandemic  
363 experience highlighted the importance of strengthening and adapting TB health system  
364 services, and the essential role of public-private partnerships in maintaining them. These  
365 observed benefits strengthened overall health systems well beyond TB services.

## 366 367 ***Mental Health***

368 Depression is more prevalent among people with TB than in the general population. A 2020  
369 systematic review and meta-analysis by Ruiz-Grosso, et al. [156] documented a strong



370 association between TB and depression that caused adverse TB treatment outcomes, including  
371 poor adherence, loss-to-follow-up, and death. Thirteen publications [157-169] discussed mental  
372 health concerns, emphasizing the escalation of fear and anxiety among people with TB during  
373 the pandemic.

374 Loveday, et al. [157] noted that lockdowns and other COVID-19 restrictions in South Africa  
375 posed harsh financial consequences for people who were already economically vulnerable,  
376 contributing to anxiety, stress, and depression among people with TB.

377 Pronounced fear and anxiety were evident in an 842-person global survey [162] coordinated by  
378 nine TB non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Qualitative and quantitative data were  
379 collected from people with TB and survivors, healthcare workers, NTP staff, civil society, and  
380 advocates between May 26, 2020, and July 2, 2020. Over half of the people with TB reported  
381 feeling increased vulnerability to and fear of contracting COVID-19, which prevented some of  
382 them from seeking treatment. This study and others [154-157] mentioned that healthcare  
383 workers feared seeing patients because of anxiety about acquiring COVID-19 and transmitting it  
384 to their families.

385 During the pandemic, a novel telehealth approach to assess mental health among people with  
386 TB and healthcare providers was implemented in Pakistan [159]. Through regular phone calls,  
387 mental health providers checked emotional well-being and screened people for depression and  
388 anxiety. Additional support was provided for those who acquired COVID-19.

389

390 ***Stigma***

391 Eleven publications [170-180] addressed TB-related stigma, the populations most affected, and  
392 its adverse effects—especially during COVID-19—and solutions to combat it.

393

394 Dheda et al. [180] shared their frank views of TB-related stigma in a 2022 commentary. They  
395 asserted that “social stigma kills,” noting that it is repugnant for people who battle airborne  
396 infectious diseases in isolation to fight social stigma simultaneously.

397

398 Mahnoor Islam [173] wrote that TB-related stigma during the height pandemic led to poor  
399 treatment outcomes. He asserted that the stigma of respiratory symptoms faced by people  
400 with TB, which COVID-19 often compounded, led to a reluctance to visit healthcare facilities,  
401 thus enabling drug resistance because of incomplete therapy.

402

403 Anti-stigma interventions must be specifically tailored to patient groups (e.g., women and girls)  
404 in different countries. In a commentary on COVID-19 and TB in Pakistan, Fatima et al. [172]  
405 asserted that the best way to alleviate the stigma of TB for women and girls is to develop and  
406 employ TB interventions in rural communities with the aid and expertise of lady health workers.

407

#### 408 ***Health Education***

409 Ten publications [181-190] addressed the need for TB patient education programs and  
410 community information campaigns to assuage fear, anxiety, and stigmatization, which leads  
411 those with TB—and undiagnosed people—to avoid clinics for fear of COVID-19. Likewise,

412 educating TB healthcare workers about COVID-19 and how to reduce their risk is essential for  
413 them to feel safe and continue working.

414  
415 An Iranian qualitative study by Shahnavaizi, et al. [190] discussed the reduction in time HCWs  
416 had for patient education and follow-up instructions during the pandemic. HCW disclosed that  
417 they only had enough time to dispense TB medication before abruptly leaving to attend to  
418 COVID-19 duties.

419  
420 In 2021, Nkereuwem, et al. [181] surveyed European and West African healthcare workers in  
421 2021. Many of the respondents underscored the importance of intensified health education.  
422 One respondent said TB education campaigns can help remind the world “not to forget TB” and  
423 make people aware that a chronic cough may not be from COVID-19. Another respondent  
424 decreed that there must be more public education on TB because COVID-19 overshadowed  
425 messaging about other diseases. Some urged NTPs to offer timely statements and guidance on  
426 routine TB screening, diagnosis, and treatment during COVID-19 and future pandemics.

427  
428 Chapman et al. [182] noted that digital health interventions exist to transform TB care by  
429 disseminating essential health information that supports treatment adherence and encourages  
430 health-seeking behaviors among people with TB. They addressed the need for public health  
431 communication campaigns to combat the “infodemic,” which they defined as “the rapid spread  
432 of false information on TB and COVID-19.”

433

## 434 **DISCUSSION**

435

436 This comprehensive scoping review assessed the global impact of COVID-19 on TB. It covers the  
437 most prolonged publication period (41 months [January 1, 2000 – April 30, 2023]) and the most  
438 significant number of publications analyzed (n=176) from 39 countries. The timespan includes  
439 publications with data and perspectives from multiple pandemic waves—the COVID-19 Wuhan-  
440 Hu-1, Delta, and Omicron variants.

441

442 This scoping review sought to be inclusive of publications from LMIC in an effort to add to prior  
443 publications from high-income countries. By casting a wide net, we were able to detail the  
444 diversity of complex TB issues and conditions faced globally by many countries, cultures, and  
445 patient populations during the pandemic. The analysis of 176 publications yielded ten key  
446 themes, categorized into areas such as the tuberculosis care cascade, patient-centered  
447 care, and psychosocial issues. Many publications, mainly reviews and editorials, had  
448 overlapping themes.

449

450 Several publications, across all themes, offered recommendations for combatting a wide range  
451 of TB issues [7, 54, 74, 83, 90, 108, 117, 127, 137, 139, 142, 153, 157, 172, 174, 180-181]. Some  
452 recommendations took a “glass half-full” approach by addressing the potential for positive,  
453 post-pandemic impacts on TB—leveraging and retrofitting aspects of the pandemic response,  
454 such as new developments in case-finding, diagnostics, and health education.

455 There are limitations in our scoping review. Some letters to the editors, which were included  
456 due to an a priori requirement that original data be discussed, risked the inclusion of data not  
457 validated for accuracy. We also detected heterogeneity of publications within themes.

458

459 This all-inclusive scoping review established that, despite geographic and income-level  
460 heterogeneity, there are several generalizable themes between countries on the impact of  
461 COVID-19 on TB. The intensity and magnitude of illness and death from COVID-19 in 2020  
462 rapidly overwhelmed TB programs. Consequently, the TB infrastructure and workforce were  
463 repurposed for the COVID-19 response. It will take time for TB programmatic aspects to fully  
464 recover and regain a sense of normalcy and productivity.

465

466 The most recent 2023 United Nations General Assembly High-Level Meeting on TB included  
467 commitments to universal health coverage, pandemic prevention, preparedness, and response,  
468 and the fight against TB, underscoring the crucial need to simultaneously strengthen and  
469 address urgent realities and serious threats [191, 192]. The ten themes identified through this  
470 scoping review provide a framework for comprehensive progress by TB programs to  
471 simultaneously achieve the End TB goal and address future airborne disease pandemics.

472

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## 1004 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

1005 **S1. Fig. 1. This is the legend for Figure 1. Scoping Review Schema (Courtesy of COVIDENCE)**

1006 **S1. Fig. 2. Ten Themes Characterizing the Global Impact of COVID-19 on TB**

1007 **S2. Appendices**

1008 **1. Appendix 1. Scoping Review Protocol**

1009 **2. Appendix 2: Prisma ScR Checklist**

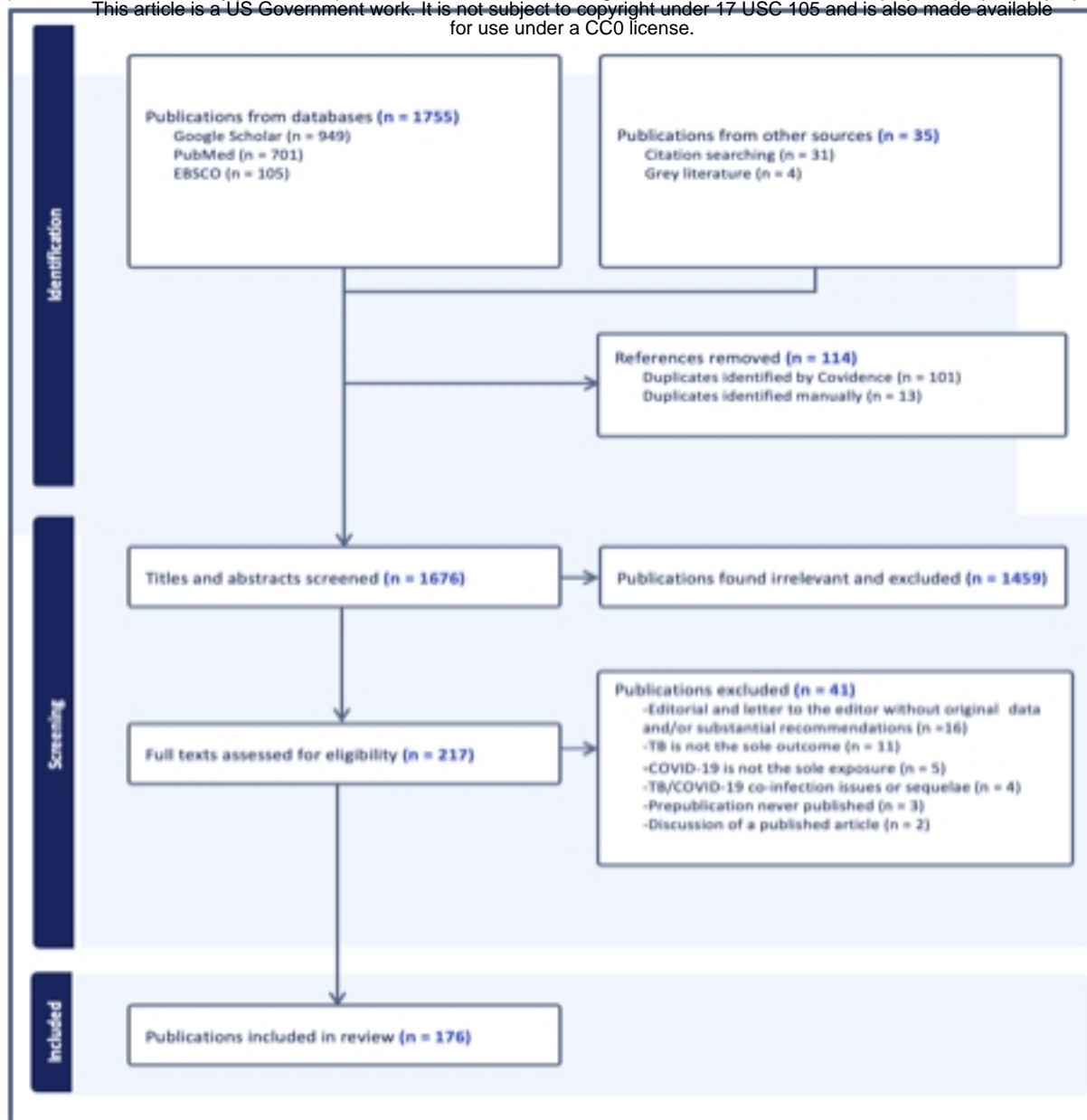
1010 **3. Appendix 3. Thematic Categorization of Publication**

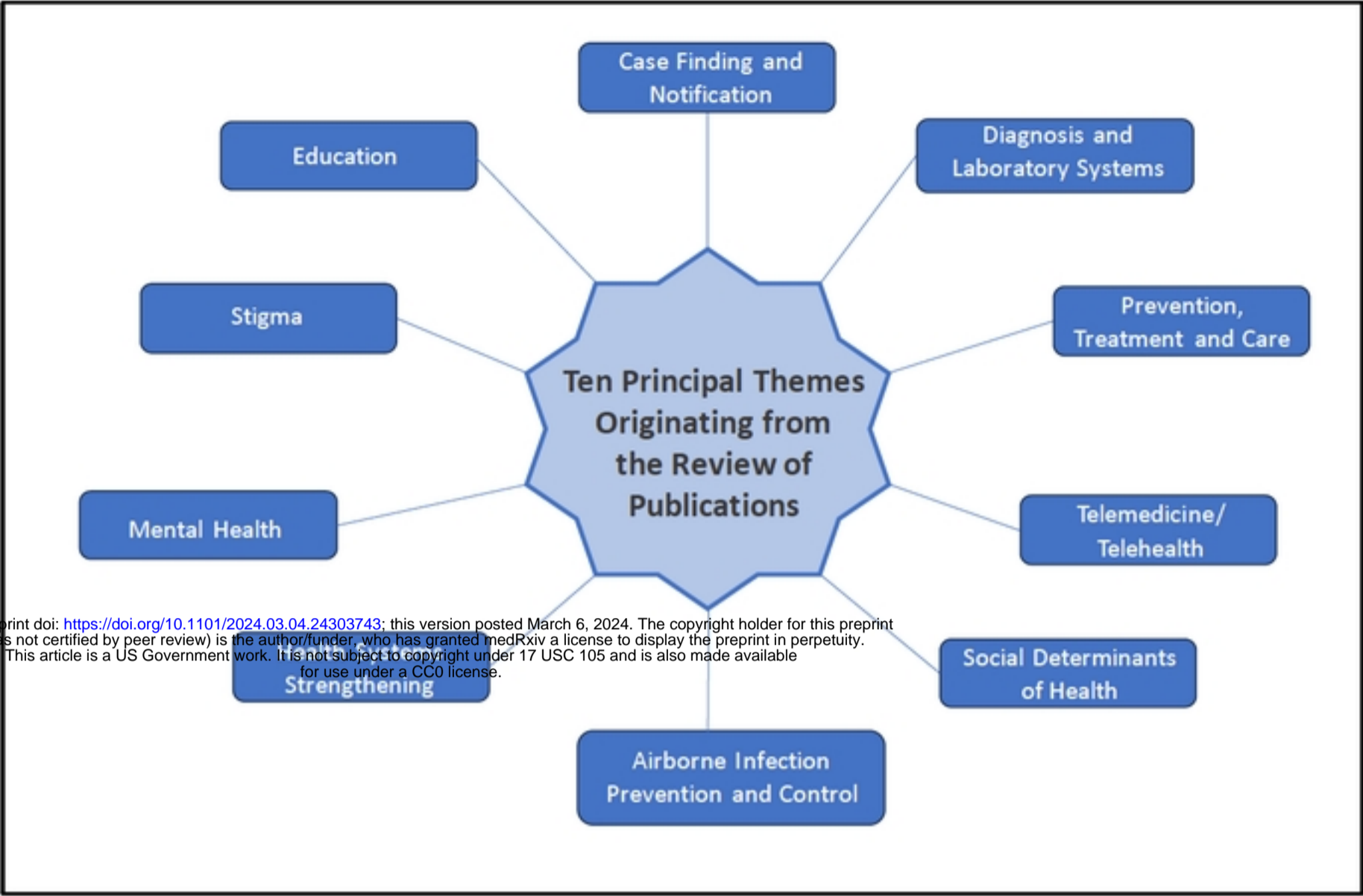
1011 **4. Appendix 4. Policy Recommendations Derived from the Ten Principal Themes**

1012 **Highlighted in the Scoping Review of the Global Impact of COVID-19 on TB**

1013

1014





Figure