Extrapulmonary tuberculosis among migrants in Europe, 1995 to 2017

Sally E. Hayward, Kieran Rustage, Laura B. Nellums, Marieke J. van der Werf, Teymur Noori, Delia Boccia, Jon S. Friedland, Sally Hargreaves

PII: S1198-743X(20)30761-8

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2020.12.006

Reference: CMI 2354

To appear in: Clinical Microbiology and Infection

Received Date: 9 September 2020
Revised Date: 7 December 2020
Accepted Date: 10 December 2020

Please cite this article as: Hayward SE, Rustage K, Nellums LB, van der Werf MJ, Noori T, Boccia D, Friedland JS, Hargreaves S, Extrapulmonary tuberculosis among migrants in Europe, 1995 to 2017, *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2020.12.006.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases.



Extrapulmonary tuberculosis among migrants in Europe, 1995 to 2017

- 2 Sally E Hayward^{1,2}, Kieran Rustage¹, Laura B Nellums^{1,4}, Marieke J van der Werf³, Teymur Noori³,
- 3 Delia Boccia², Jon S Friedland¹*, Sally Hargreaves¹*
- 4 *Joint senior authors
- ¹Institute for Infection and Immunity, St George's, University of London, London, UK
- ²Faculty of Public Health and Policy, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK
- ³European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC), Solna, Sweden
- ⁴Division of Epidemiology and Public Health, School of Medicine, University of Nottingham,
- 9 Nottingham, UK
- 10 Corresponding author: Sally Hayward
- 11 Institute for Infection and Immunity, St George's, University of London
- 12 Cranmer Terrace, London, SW17 ORE, United Kingdom
- 13 Email: shayward@sgul.ac.uk, tel: +44 7943 821631
- 15 **Key words:** Tuberculosis, extrapulmonary tuberculosis, migrant, health services research,
- 16 Europe

17	Abstract
18	Objectives
19	The proportion of tuberculosis (TB) cases in Europe occurring in migrants is increasing.
20	Extrapulmonary TB poses challenges in diagnosis and treatment and causes serious morbidity
21	and mortality, yet its extent in migrant populations is unclear. We assessed patterns of
22	extrapulmonary TB in migrants across the European Union (EU)/European Free Trade
23	Association (EFTA). We investigated the proportion of extrapulmonary TB cases among migrants
24	versus non-migrants, and variations by specific site of disease, reporting European region, and
25	migrant region of origin.
26	Methods
27	We carried out a cross-sectional secondary database analysis, utilising 23 years of data from the
28	European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control's European Surveillance System for 32
29	EU/EFTA countries collected 1995-2017.
30	Results
31	1,270,896 TB cases were included, comprising 326,987 (25.7%) migrants and 943,909 (74.3%)
32	non-migrants. 45.2% (n=147,814) of TB cases among migrants were extrapulmonary, compared
33	to 21.7% (n=204,613) among non-migrants (p<0.001). Lymphatic, bone/joint and
34	peritoneal/digestive TB were more common among migrant than non-migrant extrapulmonary
35	cases. A lower proportion of extrapulmonary TB was seen in Eastern (17.4%, n=98,656 of
36	566,170) and Southern (29.6%, n=62,481 of 210,828) compared with Western (35.7%, n=89,498

- of 250,517) and Northern (41.8%, n=101,792 of 243,381) Europe. Migrants from South-East Asia
- and Sub-Saharan Africa were at highest risk of extrapulmonary disease, with 62.0% (n=55,401 of
- 39 89,353) and 54.5% (n=38,327 of 70,378) of cases respectively being extrapulmonary.
- 40 Conclusions
- 41 Among TB cases in the EU/EFTA, extrapulmonary disease is significantly more common in
- 42 migrants than non-migrants. There is a need to improve clinical awareness of extrapulmonary
- 43 TB and integrate its detection into screening programmes.

Introduction

44

The proportion of tuberculosis (TB) cases in migrants has been rising across high-income 45 46 countries in Europe [1] and the United States (US) [2]. In 2017, migrants comprised 33.1% of TB cases across European Union/European Economic Area (EU/EEA) countries, and over 70% in 47 parts of Northern and Western Europe [3]. This trend is set to continue, as TB notification rates 48 are falling faster in native-born residents than those of foreign origin in the EU/EEA [4]. In 49 addition, migrant populations in high-income countries are growing, with 4.4 million people 50 51 migrating to an EU Member State during 2017 [5]. 52 While TB most commonly affects the lungs, it can present in almost any organ of the body, 53 including the lymph nodes, pleura, central nervous system (CNS), bones and joints, genitourinary tract and gastro-intestinal system [6], or disseminated as miliary TB [7]. While not 54 55 usually transmissible, extrapulmonary TB can cause serious morbidity and mortality. It is more common among immunosuppressed individuals, such as those with HIV/AIDS. Extrapulmonary 56 57 TB poses challenges in diagnosis and treatment, due to its wide variety of non-specific clinical 58 presentations [8]. Globally, 15% of the 7 million incident TB cases notified in 2018 were extrapulmonary [9]. 59 60 Despite this, extrapulmonary TB is rarely specifically incorporated into TB control programmes, 61 including those targeting migrants. Current guidance from the European Centre for Disease 62 Prevention and Control (ECDC) recommends screening for active pulmonary TB using chest Xray and screening for latent tuberculosis infection (LTBI) using tuberculin skin test (TST) or an 63

interferon-gamma release assay (IGRA) soon after migrants from high TB incidence countries 64 arrive in the EU/EEA [10], with no specific provision for detecting extrapulmonary disease. 65 Patterns of extrapulmonary TB in migrants are not well-understood, despite implications for 66 morbidity and mortality. We aim to assess patterns of extrapulmonary TB in migrants in 67 EU/European Free Trade Association (EFTA) countries through analysis of ECDC's European 68 Surveillance System (TESSy) database. The specific objectives are to examine whether the 69 proportion of extrapulmonary TB cases is greater in migrants compared with non-migrants, 70 71 which specific sites of extrapulmonary disease are more or less common in migrants, and how 72 the distribution of cases varies by European reporting region and migrants' region of origin.

73

74

Methods

- 75 Data and definitions
- We analysed 23 years of data from ECDC's TESSy database for 32 EU/EFTA countries (henceforth 'Europe') collected from inception in 1995 to 2017. Detailed data collection methods and definitions have been described [3]. In brief, designated experts within national surveillance institutes submit case-based data to TESSy, where a TB case is defined following the World Health Organization (WHO) as a bacteriologically confirmed or clinically diagnosed case [11].
- Data on all reported cases in Europe 1995-2017 were extracted.

The analysis was restricted to TB cases with known migrant status and site of TB. We define a migrant as a person born in, or having citizenship of, a country different to the reporting country. Extrapulmonary TB is classified as a case involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs, with or without co-existent lung disease. Specific site of extrapulmonary TB was grouped as: lymphatic, pleural, bone/joint including spine, disseminated, genito-urinary, peritoneal/digestive, CNS including meningitis, and other. Region of Europe was defined using the United Nations Geoscheme for Europe: Eastern, Northern, Southern and Western [12]. Region of origin was defined using an adaptation of World Bank regions: Eastern Europe and Central Asia, Europe, North America and Oceania, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa, South-East Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa [13]. Definitions are presented in Figure S1.

Statistical methods

We assessed how key demographic characteristics differed between migrants and non-migrants, using t tests for continuous variables and chi-square tests for categorical variables. We compared the difference in proportion of extrapulmonary TB between migrants and non-migrants using chi-square tests. We repeated this analysis in subgroups, firstly dividing the sample into drug susceptible and multi-drug resistant (MDR)-TB (defined as resistance to at least isoniazid and rifampicin), and secondly dividing the study period in two (1995-2006 and 2007-2017). In addition, we used two-sample tests of proportion to compare the difference in proportion of extrapulmonary TB at a given site between migrants and non-migrants, chi-square tests to compare the proportion of TB that is extrapulmonary between the different regions of

103	Europe, and one-sample tests of proportion to compare the difference in proportion of
104	pulmonary versus extrapulmonary TB in each migrant region of origin. In sensitivity analyses, we
105	repeated these analyses defining extrapulmonary TB as cases involving only organs or
106	anatomical sites other than the lungs. A p value of p<0.01 was considered statistically
107	significant. All analyses were conducted in StataSE v15.
108	Ethical statement
109	The study was based on data collected on the basis of statutory notification in each EU/EFTA
110	country and reported anonymously to ECDC per decision No 2119/98/EC of the European
111	Parliament and of the Council.
112 113	Results
114	Sample characteristics
115	1,611,762 TB cases were notified in the EU/EFTA between 1995-2017 and reported in TESSy, of
116	which 1,270,896 (78.9%) had data available on migrant status and site of TB and were included
117	in the analyses (Figure 1). The included sample comprises 326,987 (25.7%) migrants and
118	943,909 (74.3%) non-migrants. Migrant regions of origin and destination are shown in Figure S2,
119	and sample characteristics by migrant status are presented in Table 1.
120	The mean age of included migrants with TB is 38 years compared with 48 years in non-migrants
121	(p<0.001), and 59.9% (n=195,264 of 326,208) of migrants are male compared with 66.0%

(n=622,902 of 943,438) of non-migrants (p<0.001). Migrant TB cases in the EU/EFTA originate 122 123 from diverse areas of the world, most commonly South-East Asia (34.2%, n=89,303 of 261,074) and Sub-Saharan Africa (26.9%, n=70,341). The most common countries of origin for migrants 124 125 with TB are India (n=30,174), Pakistan (n=23,081), Somalia (n=20,453), and Romania (n=14,620). In Eastern and Southern Europe, the majority of TB cases are in non-migrants, whereas in 126 127 Northern and Western Europe around half are in migrants. Migrants were reported to be less 128 likely than non-migrants to have been previously diagnosed with TB (p<0.001). 129 Extrapulmonary TB in migrants 130 The proportion of TB that is extrapulmonary is significantly greater among migrants than non-131 migrants (Figure 2): 45.2% (n=147,814 of 326,987) of cases among migrants were extrapulmonary, compared to 21.7% (n=204,613 of 943,909) among non-migrants (p<0.001). 132 133 This pattern is seen in both drug susceptible and MDR-TB (both p<0.001), and in the earlier (1995-2006) and later (2007-2017) parts of the study period (both p<0.001, Table S1). 134 135 Among extrapulmonary TB cases, specific site varies by migrant status (Table 2). For migrants, 136 47.6% (n=37,150 of 78,077) of extrapulmonary TB is lymphatic, compared with 25.3% (n=43,933) of 173,604) in non-migrants (p<0.001). This varies by country of origin, e.g. among migrants 137 138 from India, 52.4% (n=2,079 of 3,971) of extrapulmonary TB is lymphatic. Conversely, 17.6% 139 (n=13,730 of 78,077) of extrapulmonary TB is pleural in migrants versus 42.1% (n=73,052 of 140 173,604) in non-migrants (p<0.001). 24,965 TB cases (4,336 migrants and 20,629 non-migrants) were reported to include both pulmonary and pleural involvement. Differences are also seen for 141 142 bone/joint (p<0.001) and peritoneal/digestive TB (p<0.001), which are relatively more common

in migrants than in non-migrants, and genito-urinary TB (p<0.001), which is less common in 143 144 migrants. 145 Extrapulmonary TB by European reporting region 146 A relatively low proportion of extrapulmonary TB is seen in Eastern (17.4%, n=98,656 of 566,170) and Southern (29.6%, n=62,481 of 210,828) Europe compared with Western (35.7%, 147 n=89,498 of 250,517) and Northern (41.8%, n=101,792 of 243,381) Europe (Table 3). Migrants 148 149 are reported to have a greater proportion of extrapulmonary TB than non-migrants only in 150 Western and Northern Europe (both p<0.001). For example, in Northern Europe, 58.5% of TB 151 (n=72,868 of 124,547) is extrapulmonary among migrant cases compared with 24.3% (n=28,924 152 of 118,834) among non-migrants (p<0.001). Figure 3 shows that in Northern and Western European countries, a high proportion of TB occurs in migrants, with a particularly high 153 154 proportion of extrapulmonary TB being among migrants. In Southern and Eastern European 155 countries, a lower proportion of TB is in migrants, and this pattern does not differ markedly 156 between pulmonary and extrapulmonary TB. Extrapulmonary TB and migrants' region of origin 157 158 Over half of TB cases are extrapulmonary among migrants from South-East Asia (62.0%, n=55,401 of 89,353, p<0.001) and Sub-Saharan Africa (54.5%, n=38,327 of 70,378, p<0.001) 159 160 (Figure 4), which are the most common regions of origin for migrant TB cases in Europe. For example, of 30,174 TB cases among migrants from India, 21,303 (70.6%) were extrapulmonary. 161

In contrast, the proportion of reported extrapulmonary disease is particularly low among 162 migrants from Eastern Europe and Central Asia (20.6%, n=11,576 of 56,310, p<0.001). 163 Sensitivity analyses 164 165 In sensitivity analyses, we established that these patterns are seen whether extrapulmonary TB is defined as any extrapulmonary or only extrapulmonary TB (Figures S3-4 and Tables S2-4). 166 167 Discussion 168 We found that the proportion of TB that is extrapulmonary is significantly greater among 169 170 migrants than non-migrants. These data are consistent with single-country studies in the UK and Netherlands indicating that migrants are at increased risk of extrapulmonary TB [14, 15]. The 171 172 reasons for this are not fully understood. At a time of rising migration to Europe and other high-173 income countries, with a growing proportion of TB cases occurring in migrants [2, 5], 174 extrapulmonary TB in this group is an increasingly important issue. Indeed, the reported proportion of extrapulmonary TB increased from 16.4% in 2002 to 22.4% in 2011 in the EU/EEA 175 [16]. Extrapulmonary TB poses challenges in diagnosis and treatment, with implications for 176 patient outcomes. Thus, migrants' disproportionate burden of extrapulmonary TB may 177 178 contribute to their worse treatment outcomes [17]. We found that specific site of extrapulmonary TB varies by migrant status. The reasons for this 179 180 are unclear, but it may reflect the distribution of types of extrapulmonary TB in countries of

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

origin. For example, India has relatively high rates of lymphatic TB [18], a pattern mirrored among Indian migrants. Migrants were observed to have a lower proportion of pleural TB than non-migrants. However, this should be interpreted with caution, as many cases were reported to include both pulmonary and pleural involvement. Such cases may be classified as having pulmonary plus pleural disease (i.e. extrapulmonary), or as pulmonary disease only. Differences are also seen for other sites of TB (bone/joint, peritoneal/digestive, and genito-urinary). However, the absolute numbers of cases are low for these extrapulmonary sites, so a statistical difference may have relatively little clinical implication. These could also potentially be artefacts; for example, genito-urinary TB may be misdiagnosed as more common sexually transmitted infections or urinary tract infections, delaying TB diagnosis [19]. We also found a higher proportion of extrapulmonary TB in Northern and Western Europe compared with Southern and especially Eastern Europe, with the disproportionate burden of extrapulmonary TB among migrants seen only in Northern and Western Europe. The reasons for this are unclear. Extrapulmonary TB is thought to usually follow reactivation of latent infection rather than occurring at initial infection, with the exception of TB meningitis [20]. Most migrant TB cases are infected before arrival in host countries, with subsequent reactivation of LTBI [21]. This is especially true in final destination, high-income countries of Northern and Western Europe, which may contribute to the higher prevalence of extrapulmonary TB in migrants in these regions. Transit countries in Southern and Eastern Europe may see a slightly higher proportion of migrants arriving with active TB or transmission, for example in refugee camps [22]. In addition, healthcare access for migrants varies significantly across Europe [23], and once migrants settle in final destination countries, they may become better integrated into health

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

systems, and more likely to seek care for symptoms of extrapulmonary TB. By contrast, public health initiatives targeting migrants in transit countries tend to focus on preventing the spread of pulmonary TB. However, even in final destination countries migrants often face significant barriers to healthcare access [24]; therefore this is unlikely to account fully for the observed differences across Europe. The proportion of extrapulmonary TB is highest among migrants from South-East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. This is consistent with data from Germany and across the EU/EEA showing that migrant TB cases from Asia and Africa were more likely than non-migrant patients to present with extrapulmonary disease [25, 26]. Migrants from certain regions may be genetically predisposed to extrapulmonary manifestations of TB [14]. Some countries in Northern and Western Europe host large migrant populations from the Indian subcontinent, where extrapulmonary TB is relatively common [18]. Extrapulmonary TB is also more common in the immunosuppressed, including HIV/AIDS patients [27], and the high burden of TB-HIV comorbidity in Sub-Saharan Africa may contribute to increased risk of extrapulmonary TB [28]. However, TB-HIV co-morbidity accounts for a small proportion of TB cases in Europe, and therefore is unlikely to be a major driver of the observed patterns. Strengths and limitations By using surveillance data reported by EU/EFTA Member States to ECDC between 1995-2017, this study utilises data from over 1 million TB cases, enabling a comprehensive analysis of patterns of extrapulmonary TB in migrants across Europe. In all EU/EFTA countries, TB is a

notifiable disease; however, data quality varies significantly between national surveillance

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

systems, and there are gaps in reporting. 340,866 TB cases were excluded from our analyses because they lacked data on either migrant status or site of TB. The proportion of all notified TB cases that have this data available, and are therefore included, increases over time, from below 50% until 2001 to over 80% from 2002 and over 90% since 2004 (Table S5). Most co-variates have good completeness in our dataset (Table S6). Age, gender, and reporting country are over 99% complete, country of origin is 90% complete, previous TB diagnosis is ~85% complete, and site of TB among extrapulmonary cases is ~70% complete. However, HIV status was only collected from 2000 onwards, meaning that in our sample only 17% of cases had data on HIV status. This potentially important variable was therefore excluded from analyses. The limited nature of the data available prevented us from unpicking the relative impact of host and environmental factors and *M.tb* lineage. This, and the pattern of drug resistance in relation to migration status and site of TB, warrants further investigation. Furthermore, migrant status is defined by country of birth in some countries and country of citizenship in others, which may influence the findings. *Implications* The findings have important clinical implications for migrant-receiving countries, particularly in Northern and Western Europe. Although there are many reports and guidelines relating to managing TB and migrant health, none adequately address the key issues arising from extrapulmonary TB in this group. There is a need to improve diagnostic facilities and awareness

of extrapulmonary TB among healthcare staff, particularly when assessing patients from South-

East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, detection of extrapulmonary TB should be

integrated into screening programmes, with a focus on migrants. Extrapulmonary TB must be considered when screening for latent as well as active disease, when it is essential to ascertain that patients do not have active extrapulmonary disease before initiating preventative chemoprophylaxis for LTBI. Programmes that target migrants for LTBI screening and treatment could therefore have an indirect benefit of detecting and preventing extrapulmonary TB.

250	Acknowledgements: The authors would like to acknowledge the nominated national
251	operational contact points for tuberculosis for providing the data.
252	Conflict of interest: None
253	Authors' contributions: SH, JSF, LBN, and SEH were involved in concept and study design.
254	MvdW and TN facilitated data access and retrieval. SEH carried out the analyses, with input
255	from SH, JSF, LBN and KR. All authors contributed to manuscript writing.
256	Funding: This work was supported by the Medical Research Council [MR/N013638/1 to SEH],
257	the Rosetree Trust [M775 to KR], the National Institute for Health Research [NIHR300072 to SH]
258	the Academy of Medical Sciences [SBF005\1111 to SH and SBF005\1047 to LBN], the European
259	Society for Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases [ESCMID Study Group for Infections in
260	Travellers and Migrants (ESGITM)/ESCMID Study Group for Mycobacterial Infection (ESGMYC)
261	research grant to SH], and the Medical Research Council/Economic and Social Research
262	Council/Arts and Humanities Research Council [MR/T046732/1 to LBN].

References

- 264 1. Ködmön C, Zucs P, van der Werf MJ. Migration-related tuberculosis: epidemiology and
- 265 characteristics of tuberculosis cases originating outside the European Union and European Economic
- 266 Area, 2007 to 2013. Eurosurveillance. 2016;21(12):30164.
- 267 2. Menzies NA, Hill AN, Cohen T, Salomon JA. The impact of migration on tuberculosis in the United
- 268 States. IJTLD. 2018;22(12):1392-403.
- 269 3. WHO Regional Office for Europe/European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control.
- 270 Tuberculosis surveillance and monitoring in Europe 2019 2017 data. Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office
- 271 for Europe; 2019.
- 4. Hollo V, Beauté J, Ködmön C, van der Werf MJ. Tuberculosis notification rate decreases faster in
- 273 residents of native origin than in residents of foreign origin in the EU/EEA, 2010 to 2015. Euro Surveill.
- 274 2017;22(12):30486.
- 275 5. European Commission. Eurostat International Migration statistics: Immigration. 2019 [Available
- 276 from: https://ec.europa.eu/knowledge4policy/dataset/ds00026_en.
- 277 6. Sener A, Erdem H, editors. Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis. Switzerland: Springer Nature; 2019.
- 278 7. Menitove S, Harris HW. Miliary Tuberculosis. In: Schlossberg D, editor. Tuberculosis Clinical
- Topics in Infectious Disease. New York, NY: Springer; 1988.
- 280 8. Storla DG, Yimer S, Bjune GA. A systematic review of delay in the diagnosis and treatment of
- tuberculosis. BMC Public Health. 2008;8:15.
- 282 9. World Health Organization. Global tuberculosis report 2019. Geneva: WHO; 2019.
- 283 10. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Public health guidance on screening and
- vaccination for infectious diseases in newly arrived migrants within the EU/EEA. Stockholm: ECDC; 2018.
- 285 11. World Health Organization. Definitions and reporting framework for tuberculosis 2013
- revision, updated December 2014. Geneva: WHO; 2015.

- 287 12. United Nations Statistics Division. Methodology: Standard country or area codes for statistical
- use (M49) [Available from: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/.
- 289 13. Langholz Kristensen K, Lillebaek T, Holm Petersen J, Hargreaves S, Nellums LB, Friedland JS, et al.
- 290 Tuberculosis incidence among migrants according to migrant status: a cohort study, Denmark, 1993 to
- 291 2015. Eurosurveillance. 2019;24(44):1900238.
- 292 14. Kruijshaar ME, Abubakar I. Increase in extrapulmonary tuberculosis in England and Wales 1999–
- 293 2006. Thorax. 2009;64(12):1090.
- 294 15. te Beek LAM, van der Werf MJ, Richter C, Borgdorff MW. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis by
- 295 nationality, The Netherlands, 1993-2001. Emerg Infect Dis. 2006;12(9):1375-82.
- 296 16. Sandgren A, Hollo V, van der Werf MJ. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis in the European Union and
- 297 European Economic Area, 2002 to 2011. Eurosurveillance. 2013;18(12):20431.
- 298 17. Karo B, Hauer B, Hollo V, van der Werf MJ, Fiebig L, Haas W. Tuberculosis treatment outcome in
- the European Union and European Economic Area: an analysis of surveillance data from 2002–2011.
- 300 Eurosurveillance. 2015;20(49):30087.
- 301 18. Prakasha SR, Suresh G, D'sa IP, Shetty SS, Kumar SG. Mapping the pattern and trends of
- extrapulmonary tuberculosis. J Glob Infect Dis. 2013;5(2):54-9.
- 303 19. Kulchavenya E, Kholtobin D. Diseases masking and delaying the diagnosis of urogenital
- 304 tuberculosis. Ther Adv Urol. 2015;7(6):331-8.
- 305 20. Musellim B, Erturan S, Sonmez Duman E, Ongen G. Comparison of extra-pulmonary and
- pulmonary tuberculosis cases: factors influencing the site of reactivation. IJTLD. 2005;9(11):1220-3.
- 307 21. Pareek M, Greenaway C, Noori T, Munoz J, Zenner D. The impact of migration on tuberculosis
- 308 epidemiology and control in high-income countries: a review. BMC Med. 2016;14:48.

- 309 22. Castelli F, Sulis G. Migration and infectious diseases. Clinical microbiology and infection: the
- official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases.
- 311 2017;23(5):283-9.
- 312 23. Médecins du Monde. 2019 Observatory Report, Left Behind: The State of Universal Healthcare
- 313 Coverage in Europe. Paris, France: MdM; 2019.
- 314 24. Seedat F, Hargreaves S, Nellums LB, Ouyang J, Brown M, Friedland JS. How effective are
- 315 approaches to migrant screening for infectious diseases in Europe? A systematic review. Lancet Infect
- 316 Dis. 2018;18(9):e259-e71.
- 317 25. Forssbohm M, Zwahlen M, Loddenkemper R, Rieder HL. Demographic characteristics of patients
- 318 with extrapulmonary tuberculosis in Germany. European Respiratory Journal. 2008;31:99-105.
- 319 26. Sotgiu G, Falzon D, Hollo V, Ködmön C, Lefebvre N, Dadu A, et al. Determinants of site of
- tuberculosis disease: An analysis of European surveillance data from 2003 to 2014. PLOS ONE.
- 321 2017;12(11):e0186499.
- 322 27. Kulchavenya E, Naber K, Johansen T. Epidemiology of Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis. In: Sener A,
- 323 Erdem H, editors. Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis. Switzerland: Springer Nature; 2019.
- 324 28. Mohammed H, Assefa N, Mengistie B. Prevalence of extrapulmonary tuberculosis among people
- 325 living with HIV/AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa: a systemic review and meta-analysis. HIV AIDS (Auckl).
- 326 2018;10:225-37.

328	Figure 1. Sample flow chart
329	EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB: tuberculosis
330	
331	Figure 2. Site of TB among migrant and non-migrant TB cases in the EU/EFTA, 1995-2017
332	(n=1,270,896)
333	EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB: tuberculosis
334	Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs,
335	with or without co-existent lung disease
336	p value calculated using χ^2 test (χ^2 =6.7x10 ⁴ , p<0.001)
337	Figure 3. Proportion of pulmonary and extrapulmonary TB among migrant and non-migrant TB
338	cases in selected countries of the EU/EFTA, 1995-2017
339	EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB: tuberculosis
340	Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs,
341	with or without co-existent lung disease
342	The boxes in the figure illustrate the proportion of pulmonary and extrapulmonary TB cases that occur in
343	migrants in each country. On the map, the different shadings of the countries represent the proportions
344	of individuals with foreign citizenship living in that country on 1 st January 2016 (source: Eurostat, online
345	data code: migr_pop1ctz).
346	Figure 4. Site of TB among migrant TB cases in the EU/EFTA by region of origin, 1995-2017
347	(n=261,074)
348	EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB: tuberculosis

349	Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs
350	with or without co-existent lung disease
351	*p<0.001, a greater proportion of TB is pulmonary
352	†<0.001, a greater proportion of TB is extrapulmonary
353	p values are two-sided, calculated using one-sample test of proportion (H_0 = the proportions of
354	pulmonary and extrapulmonary TB are equal)
355	

Table 1. Characteristics of migrant and non-migrant TB cases in the EU/EFTA, 1995-2017

(n=1,270,896)

356

357

359

360

363

	Migrants		Non-migrants		Total	Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Total	326,987	25.7	943,909	74.3	1,270,89	6	
Age							
Mean, SD	37.9	16.8	47.8	20.3	45.3	19.9	
Gender							
Female	130,944	40.1	320,536	34.0	451,480	35.6	
Male	195,264	59.9	622,902	66.0	818,166	64.4	
Region of origin							
Eastern Europe and Central	56,310	21.6	558,595	63.1	614,905	53.6	
Asia							
Europe, North America and	24,392	9.3	326,970	36.9	351,362	30.6	
Oceania							
Latin America and the	11,329	4.3	-/)		11,330	1.0	
Caribbean							
Middle East and North Africa	9,399	3.6	_		9,405	0.8	
South-East Asia	89,303	34.2	-		89,353	7.8	
Sub-Saharan Africa	70,341	26.9	-		70,378	6.1	
Reporting region)					
Eastern Europe	4,921	1.5	561,249	59.5	566,170	44.6	
Southern Europe	69,159	21.2	141,669	15.0	210,828	16.6	
Western Europe	128,360	39.3	122,157	12.9	250,517	19.7	
Northern Europe	124,547	38.1	118,834	12.6	243,381	19.2	
Previous TB diagnosis							
Yes	24,864	10.4	143,771	17.0	168,635	15.5	
No	213,423	89.6	703,879	83.0	917,302	84.5	
Site of TB							
Pulmonary	179,173	54.8	739,296	78.3	918,469	72.3	
Extrapulmonary	147,814	45.2	204,613	21.7	352,427	27.7	

358 EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, SD: standard deviation, TB: tuberculosis

Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs,

with or without co-existent lung disease

361 Data reported as: n, % unless otherwise stated

362 Sample sizes: Age, n=1,268,544; Gender, n=1,269,646; Region of origin, n=1,146,733; Reporting region,

n=1,270,896; Previous TB diagnosis, n=1,085,937; Site of TB, n=1,270,896

The difference between migrants and non-migrants for each characteristic is statistically significant at p<0.001 calculated using t test for continuous variables or χ^2 for categorical variables: Age, t=251.9; Gender, χ^2 =4.0x10³; Reporting region, χ^2 =3.6x10⁵; Previous TB diagnosis, χ^2 =6.0x10³; Site of TB, χ^2 =6.7x10⁴

368

364

365

366

367

369

370

 Table 2. Site of TB among migrant and non-migrant extrapulmonary TB cases in the EU/EFTA,

371 1995-2017 (n=251,681)

	Migrant	s	Non-mi	grants
	n	%	n	%
Lymphatic	37,150	47.6*	43,933	25.3
Pleural	13,730	17.6†	73,052	42.1
Bone/joint incl. spine	6,417	8.2*	12,513	7.2
Disseminated	3,947	5.1*	8,245	4.8
Genito-urinary	3,174	4.1†	11,547	6.7
Peritoneal/digestive	3,091	4.0*	3,879	2.2
CNS incl. meningitis	2,775	3.6*	5,835	3.4
Other	7,793	10.0*	14,600	8.4
Total	78,077		173,604	_

372 CNS: central nervous system, EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB:

373 tuberculosis

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs,

with or without co-existent lung disease

'Other' refers to TB infection in any organ or anatomical sites of the body that falls outside the categories

above

There are an additional 100,746 cases not reported here for which site of TB is known to be

extrapulmonary, but exact site of TB is unknown

* Proportion is higher in migrants

† Proportion is higher in non-migrants

 Table 3. Site of TB among cases reported by countries in the Eastern, Southern, Western and

Northern regions of the EU/EFTA, 1995-2017 (n=1,270,896)

382

383

384

386

	Pulmona	ary TB Extrapulmonary TB		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n
Eastern Europe	467,514	82.6	98,656	17.4*	566,170
Migrant	3,994	81.2	927	18.8	4,921
Non-migrant	463,520	82.6	97,729	17.4	561,249
Southern Europe	148,347	70.4	62,481	29.6*	210,828
Migrant	47,908	69.3	21,251	30.7	69,159
Non-migrant	100,439	70.9	41,230	29.1	141,669
Western Europe	161,019	64.3	89,498	35.7*	250,517
Migrant	<i>75,592</i>	58.9	<i>52,768</i>	41.1	128,360
Non-migrant	85,427	69.9	36,730	30.1	122,157
Northern Europe	141,589	58.2	101,792	41.8*	243,381
Migrant	51,679	41.5	72,868	58.5	124,547
Non-migrant	89,910	75.7	28,924	24.3	118,834
Total	918,469	72.3	352,427	27.7	1,270,896

EU/EFTA: European Union/European Free Trade Association, TB: tuberculosis

³⁸⁵ Extrapulmonary TB defined as any case of TB involving organs or anatomical sites other than the lungs,

with or without co-existent lung disease

^{*}The difference in proportion of TB that is extrapulmonary between each region and each other region is

³⁸⁸ significant at p<0.001, p values calculated using χ^2 , e.g. Eastern vs. Northern Europe χ^2 =5.4x10⁴, p<0.001







