IJFANS INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF FOOD AND NUTRITIONAL SCIENCES
ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 11, Nov 2022

An Overview on Tuberculosis

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ABSTRACT: Tuberculosis (TB) is still one of the world's worst infectious illnesses, killing millions of people each year. We provide a basic review of tuberculosis (TB) in this article, covering etiology, diagnosis, and therapy recommendations. We provide a comprehensive review of tuberculosis (TB) in this article, emphasizing the etiology, diagnostic, and therapy recommendations. We searched PubMed for relevant papers on tuberculosis in order to provide this content. We also looked for relevant recommendations and reports on the websites of important organizations including the World Health Organization (WHO) and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The purpose of this article is to provide general information to health professionals, policymakers, patients, and the general public. We searched PubMed for relevant papers on tuberculosis in preparation for this article. We also looked for relevant papers and clinical recommendations on the websites of international organizations including the World Health Organization (WHO) and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The purpose of this article is to provide general information to health professionals, policymakers, patients, and the general public.

KEYWORDS: Tuberculosis (TB); drug-resistance; pathogenesis; drug therapy; infectious diseases

1. INTRODUCTION

Tuberculosis (TB) is still one of the world's leading causes of illness and death. One in every three people, or 2–3 billion people, is infected with Mycobacterium Tuberculosis (M. Tuberculosis), with 5–15 percent of those infected developing active tuberculosis illness throughout their lifetime (3). In 2014, an estimated 9.6 million individuals were sick with tuberculosis (TB), with 1.5 million deaths, including 1.1 million HIV-negative people and 400,000 HIV patients. While tuberculosis is found in every nation, the majority of TB patients reside in low- and middle-income countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia. Over the last decade, considerable progress has been made in the fight against tuberculosis, with the majority of the TB goals set forth in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) being met. For example, TB mortality has decreased by 47% since 1990, with almost all of this occurring during the MDG period. Between 2000 and 2014, it is projected that efficient TB diagnosis and treatment saved approximately 40 million lives[1]–[5].

Tuberculosis (TB) Pathogenesis:

M. Tuberculosis causes TB, an airborne bacterial illness that may affect any region of the body, but most frequently the lungs. Coughing, sneezing, yelling, or singing by people with pulmonary or laryngeal tuberculosis exposes M. Tuberculosis to the air as droplet nuclei. Inhalation of these droplet nuclei transmits the virus, which travels via the oral or nasal cavities, the upper respiratory tract, the bronchi, and ultimately the alveoli of the lungs. When M. Tuberculosis or tubercle bacilli enter the alveoli, they are consumed by alveolar

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macrophages, causing a higher percentage of the inhaled tubercle bacilli to be destroyed or inhibited.

Tuberculosis (TB) diagnosis:

A comprehensive assessment of tuberculosis illness consists of five essential components. These are (I) medical history taking; (II) physical examination; (III) M. Tuberculosis infection test; (IV) chest radiograph; and (V) clinical specimen bacteriologic analysis. The overall diagnosis begins with obtaining a medical history in order to examine the suspected patient's symptoms. Coughs (typically lasting longer than 3 weeks with or without sputum production), coughing up blood, chest discomfort, lack of appetite, sudden weight loss, night sweats, fever, and tiredness are all signs of pulmonary TB. The portion of the body affected by extrapulmonary tuberculosis (i.e., TB that develops beyond the lungs) will typically determine the presenting symptoms, but certain symptoms like loss of appetite, night sweats, and fever may be more widespread[6]–[8].

Drug resistance risk factors include:

TB MDR-TB and XDRTB are caused by a genetic mutation in M. Tuberculosis that makes anti-TB drugs ineffective against mutant tubercle bacilli. Caminero, on the other hand, suggests two types of risk factors for drug-resistant TB. He defines the first group as "those that facilitate the selection of resistance in the community," and the second as "particular circumstances that seem to enhance the susceptibility of certain patients to resistance." The risk factors that fall into these two groups will be discussed in the next section.

Factors that facilitate the community's choosing of resistance:

Poor national tuberculosis programs are a significant contributor to the emergence of drug-resistant TB in communities (NTP). This may be due to a lack of funds to support staff training and the installation of administrative procedures for patient management. Another issue may be a lack of DOTS (Directly Observed Therapy Short Course) strategy adoption or efficiency when they are used, which could lead to insufficient or non-existent treatment monitoring. Furthermore, the NTP provides recommendations for national implementation, which may differ from country to country, resulting in non-standardised therapies and a higher risk of drug resistance.

Specific factors that make certain Individuals more Susceptible to Resistance:

Caminero divides the risks of developing drug-resistant tuberculosis into three categories. The first category consists of individuals who have been identified as having a high risk of developing drug-resistant tuberculosis based on bacteriological findings. These patients were treated with isoniazid, rifampicin, pyrazinamide, ethambutol, and streptomycin for 2 months, then 1 month of isoniazid, rifampicin, pyrazinamide, and ethambutol, followed by a 5-month continuous isoniazid, rifampicin, and ethambutol. Patients categorized as Category I and II

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who have failed two times on a rifampicin-containing regimen, as well as those living in regions without access to DST labs, are all at high risk for drug-resistant TB.

Drug-resistant Tuberculosis Prevention:

One of WHO's main goals, in collaboration with its partners, is to guarantee that preventative measures are in place to combat the rising incidence of drug-resistant tuberculosis. Primary study is needed in various nations to identify the variables that contribute to treatment default. This will be critical in informing the adoption of interventions in NTPs aimed at tackling the socioeconomic determinants of patient default.

Another approach to avoid drug-resistant tuberculosis is to increase patient adherence to therapy. This may be accomplished by creating patient care plans that focus on distinct treatment choices (i.e., inpatient, outpatient, or community-based therapy), as well as decreasing pill load in TB regimen strategies. Thiam et al. performed a clustered randomized controlled trial in Senegal to assess new strategic recommendations on increasing patient adherence to TB treatment, and found that the intervention group had 88 percent treatment success compared to 76 percent in the control group. Furthermore, the patient default rate in the intervention group was 5.5 percent, compared to 16.8 percent in the control group. Allocating more time to counseling and communication between healthcare professionals and TB patients, decentralizing treatment outlets to stations closer to patients, patient selection of DOT supporter, and increasing monitoring activities were some of the treatments examined[9], [10].

Management Guidelines for Tuberculosis:

Evidence-based recommendations to support NTPs have been established as part of worldwide TB initiatives. These recommendations include topics including TB case definitions, standard and individualized treatment regimen delivery, medication therapy monitoring, supervision, and patient assistance. The next part will go over some of the important elements of TB management that are often mentioned in different recommendations.

Definitions of Cases:

This is the initial stage in TB treatment, and it ensures that patients are registered and that the proper standard regimen is administered. It follows a diagnosis that confirms the presence of M. Tuberculosis based on clinical examination and laboratory testing. HIV and MDR-TB status are determined in sputum smear or culture confirmed TB patients. A case may also be characterized by treatment results such as recurrence, default, or failure.

Treatment plan that is both standard and tailored to the Individual:

The goals of the TB regimen are to ensure cure, avoid resistance, and improve the patient's quality of life. The usual treatment plan is customized to a specific group of tuberculosis

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patients, such as newly diagnosed cases, previously treated cases, drug-resistant patients, and exceptional cases.

Case in point:

The WHO recommends a 6-month standard regimen for new cases, which includes a 2-month intensive phase therapy with isoniazid (H), rifampicin (R), pyrazinamide (Z), and ethambutol (E). Ethambutol is substituted by streptomycin in the treatment of TB meningitis. After that, a 4-month continuous phase therapy with isoniazid and rifampicin is administered. Ethambutol is administered to isoniazid and rifampicin in settings with high levels of isoniazid resistance and susceptibility testing of isoniazid is missing or findings are delayed prior to the start of the continuous phase, according to the recommendation.

Patients who have already been Treated:

In the case of previously treated individuals, DST is advised for all patients as part of the attempt to detect MDR-TB early. The DST findings are used to create an individualized treatment plan for each patient. These patients' sputum is collected as a specimen for culture and DST before or during therapy for susceptibility testing on at least isoniazid and rifampicin. The use of DST prior to therapy is contingent on its availability in a given country. DST is offered in two forms: fast molecular testing, which provides results in 1–2 days, and traditional testing, which provides results in weeks (liquid medium) or months (solid medium).

Patients with drug-resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB and XDR-TB):

These patient categories are identified using DST findings, and therapy is adjusted appropriately once the results are available. Four factors underpin the creation of an MDR-TB treatment regimen, according to WHO guidelines. To begin, the regimen should include medications that have been shown to be effective. Second, medicines with a high likelihood of cross-resistance should be avoided. Cross-resistance has been shown between rifampicin/rifabutin and amikacin/kanamycin, for example. Finally, dangerous substances are not permitted. If the quality of a drug is unclear or if it causes serious adverse responses such as deafness, renal failure, or psychosis, it is classed as hazardous. Finally, medicines are chosen in a hierarchical order from the five groups of anti-tubercular drugs. As a result, anti-tubercular medicines are chosen for drug-resistant individuals. The WHO recently gathered anti-tubercular medicines for drug-resistant TB regimens in order to improve treatment effectiveness.

Co-infections with HIV and tuberculosis (TB):

The treatment of HIV and tuberculosis co-infection is heavily reliant on HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis programs working together. All contacts with the patient should get HIV and TB counseling and testing prior to therapy. TB patients with HIV who have not yet begun antiretroviral therapy (ART) are given TB treatment first, followed by co-trimoxazole

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preventative medication, and ultimately ART. Although the efficacy of co-trimoxazole in this situation is unknown, it is widely used in HIV and TB coinfected individuals to prevent malaria and Pneumocystis jirovecii infections, as well as to treat other bacterial infections.

Extrapulmonary tuberculosis (TB) patients:

Extrapulmonary tuberculosis (EPTB) may affect any region of the body, although it is most common in the lymphatic system, pleura, bones and joints, pericardia, and meninges. HIV testing is indicated for individuals suspected of having EPTB. This is due to the increased prevalence of EPTB in HIV-positive individuals. The treatment protocol for EPTB is identical to that for pulmonary TB, with the exception of the intense phase therapy length. The intense phase of therapy for EPTB of the bones and joints is prolonged to 9 months, whereas that of the meninges is extended to 9–12 months. Ethambutol is substituted with streptomycin for EPTB of the meninges, as previously stated.

Patient Supervision and Assistance, as well as drug Treatment Monitoring:

The monitoring of the treatment regimen focuses on keeping track of the treatment response and taking necessary measures, managing treatment interruptions, cohort assessment of treatment results, and detecting and managing drug-induced adverse events. Sputum smear microscopy and culture at regular intervals are used to keep track of therapy response, and the regimen is modified to fit the proper susceptibility pattern. Furthermore, a monthly weight assessment of the patient is suggested to inform weight-dependent dosage changes. Treatment interruptions caused by defaulting patients or HIV co-infection are documented, and patients who return after default are drug-susceptibility tested again.

2. DISCUSSION

Tuberculosis (TB) is a bacterial infection caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. The bacteria are most often found in the lungs, but they may also cause harm to other areas of the body. When a person with TB of the lungs or throat coughs, sneezes, or speaks, TB spreads via the air. The three phases of tuberculosis include exposure, latent infection, and active illness. A tuberculosis skin test or a tuberculosis blood test may frequently detect the illness. However, further testing is often required. To cure the illness and prevent it from spreading to others, you must follow the treatment instructions to the letter. It is entirely curable with the proper therapy, which usually comprises of a tablet containing a combination of antibiotics. Tuberculosis (TB) is a bacterial illness that affects the lungs most frequently. Tuberculosis germs may live in the body of some individuals for years without causing symptoms.

3. CONCLUSION

Tuberculosis is still one of the most lethal infectious illnesses, having killed millions of people throughout the years. While considerable progress has been achieved in the last decade in reducing the worldwide burden of tuberculosis, additional efforts are still required. Emerging problems like multidrug resistance threaten to undo the gains achieved in TB

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treatment and control. The knowledge base for tuberculosis is quickly growing, and worldwide recommendations are constantly being updated to include new anti-tubercular medicines and address resistance problems, for example. Current developments in tuberculosis management and control must be kept in mind by health professionals, policymakers, patients, and the general public. This will be necessary for the effective application of global recommendations to country-specific circumstances, taking into account factors such as illness burden, health system architecture, and available resources.

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