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Title

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Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/809561tn>

Journal

J AIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes, 77(4)

ISSN

1525-4135

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Publication Date

2018-04-01

DOI

10.1097/qai.0000000000001610

Peer reviewed

1 Isoniazid Preventive Therapy for People with HIV who are Heavy Alcohol
2 Drinkers in High TB/HIV Burden Countries: a Risk-Benefit Analysis

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36 Data from this project were presented at the Conference on Retroviruses and Opportunistic
37 Infections, Seattle, Washington, February 2017. Dr. Freiman received a Young Investigators
38 Scholarship to attend the conference.

39

40 **FUNDING**

41 This project was supported by the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (grant
42 number 1KL2TR001411), the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (grant
43 numbers 5T32AI052074-10, 5P30AI042853-18, and R01 AI119037-02), the National Institute
44 on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (grant numbers K24 AA022586, U01 AA20776), and the

45 National Institute on Drug Abuse (grant number P30DA040500). Its contents are solely the
46 responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the National
47 Institutes of Health.

48

49 Conflicts of interest: none to report

50

51 The authors report no conflicts of interest related to this work.

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53 Word Count: 3,499

54 Running Head: IPT for PLHIV who drink alcohol

55

56 Abstract

57 Background: Isoniazid preventive therapy (IPT) reduces mortality among people living with HIV
58 (PLHIV), and is recommended for those without active tuberculosis (TB) symptoms. Heavy
59 alcohol use, however, is contraindicated for liver toxicity concerns. We evaluated the risks and
60 benefits of IPT at antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation to ART alone for PLHIV who are heavy
61 drinkers in three high TB/HIV burden countries.

62 Methods: We developed a Markov simulation model to compare ART alone to ART with either
63 6 or 36 months of IPT for heavy drinking PLHIV enrolling in care in Brazil, India, and Uganda.

64 Outcomes included non-fatal toxicity, fatal toxicity, life expectancy, TB cases and TB death.

65 Results: In this simulation, 6 months of IPT+ART (IPT6) extended life expectancy over both
66 ART alone and 36 months of IPT+ ART (IPT36) in India and Uganda, but ART alone dominated
67 in Brazil in 51.5% of simulations. Toxicity occurred in 160/1000 persons on IPT6, and 415/1000

68 persons on IPT36, with fatal toxicity in 8/1000 on IPT6 and 21/1000 on IPT36. Sensitivity
69 analyses favored IPT6 in India and Uganda with high toxicity thresholds.

70 Conclusions: The benefits of IPT for heavy drinkers outweighed its risks in India and Uganda
71 when given for a 6-month course. The toxicity/efficacy trade-off was less in Brazil where TB
72 incidence is lower. IPT6 resulted in fatal toxicity in 8/1000 people, whereas even higher
73 toxicities of IPT36 negated its benefits in all countries. Data to better characterize IPT toxicity
74 among HIV-infected drinkers are needed to improve guidance.

75
76 Key Words: Tuberculosis, isoniazid, prevention, HIV, alcohol, isoniazid preventive therapy

77 78 INTRODUCTION

79 Tuberculosis (TB) is the leading cause of mortality for people living with HIV (PLHIV)
80 worldwide accounting for nearly one-third of all HIV deaths.¹ Although anti-retroviral therapy
81 (ART) significantly reduces TB incidence in PLHIV, there is an increased risk of TB disease
82 during the first months after ART initiation.² Isoniazid Preventive Therapy (IPT) reduces all-
83 cause mortality and TB disease among PLHIV by 32-62%,^{4,5} extending beyond the benefit of
84 ART alone.⁶ The World Health Organization (WHO) thus recommends 36 months of empiric
85 IPT, without diagnostic testing for latent TB infection, for all PLHIV in resource-limited
86 countries without symptoms of active TB disease.^{7,8} The 2011 guidelines, however, state that
87 “regular and heavy alcohol use” is a contraindication to IPT, presumably for concern of
88 increased hepatotoxicity. The WHO also acknowledges that implementation of 36 months of IPT
89 is extremely low; where IPT is implemented, six month courses remain predominant⁸.

90 Grade 3 or 4 drug toxicity is reported in 0.1-4.0% of individuals taking isoniazid.⁹
91 Alcohol users are considered higher risk as isoniazid is metabolized by the liver. One
92 observational US study in 1978 reported daily drinkers had more than four times the risk of
93 toxicity compared to non-drinkers,¹⁰ but those high toxicity rates are not consistently observed.¹¹
94 There is also theoretical concern about isoniazid and ART interactions, but higher rates of
95 toxicity with concomitant ART initiation were not observed in trials.^{6,12}

96 Heavy alcohol consumption, defined by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and
97 Alcoholism (NIAAA) criteria of ≥ 4 drinks per day or 14 drinks per week for men and ≥ 3 drinks
98 per day or 7 drinks per week for women, is common among PLHIV. In studies of PLHIV in sub-
99 Saharan Africa, Brazil, and India, as many as 25% of participants self-reported heavy alcohol
100 consumption.¹³⁻¹⁶ Current guidance may thus exclude 25% of PLHIV from IPT because of their
101 heavy drinking. Additionally, heavy drinking is associated with a three-fold increase in the risk
102 of TB disease, slower TB treatment response, and higher mortality on therapy compared to non-
103 drinkers.¹⁷⁻¹⁹

104 We hypothesized that the benefit of a six-month course of IPT for heavy alcohol drinking
105 PLHIV in high TB/HIV burden countries is greater than the elevated risk for Grade 3/4 drug
106 toxicity. To investigate, we developed a decision analytic model to compare the risks and
107 benefits of providing IPT for either six months or 36 months at initiation of ART to ART alone
108 for PLHIV who heavily consume alcohol. We validated the model in three high TB/HIV burden
109 countries—Brazil, India, and Uganda—to further compare the impact of TB prevalence and
110 mortality on the benefit of IPT.

111 **METHODS**

112 **Analytic Overview**

113 We developed a Markov model to compare ART alone to ART with either six months or
114 36 months of empiric IPT for heavy drinking PLHIV enrolling in care in three high TB/HIV
115 burden countries: Brazil, India, and Uganda (supplement Figure 1,
116 <http://links.lww.com/QAI/B100>). We constructed the model using TreeAge Pro 2016 (TreeAge
117 Software Inc., Williamstown, MA). All analyses simulated a closed cohort of PLHIV classified
118 as heavy drinkers by NIAAA criteria initiating ART. The model utilized a lifetime horizon.
119 Outcomes included life expectancy in years, cumulative TB cases, TB deaths, and fatal and non-
120 fatal toxicity events. We developed inputs to replicate epidemiology, TB disease incidence, and
121 outcomes specific to each country. We performed one- and two-way deterministic sensitivity
122 analyses to evaluate the impact of parameters on model outcomes. To characterize uncertainty
123 around the base case findings, we also performed probabilistic sensitivity analyses. We defined a
124 probability density function around each parameter value and used second-order Monte Carlo
125 simulation to replicate the simulation 1,000 times. We reported all results with an associated
126 95% confidence range.²⁰

127 **Model Structure**

128 The model employed a Markov framework with a monthly time cycle. The simulation
129 cohort entered the model and initiated ART either alone or with six or 36 months of IPT. During
130 months on IPT, a portion of the cohort experienced symptomatic drug toxicity at which point IPT
131 was discontinued. A portion of IPT toxicity events were fatal.

132 For the six-month IPT course, we assumed the IPT protective benefit extended for six-
133 months beyond therapy after which the incidence of TB returned to that expected without IPT.
134 For the 36-month IPT course, the benefit also extended six months beyond therapy, and the risk
135 of IPT toxicity declined over time. The lifetime simulation included five health states: 1) alive
136 without TB 2) alive with TB disease 3) alive after treatment for TB disease, 4) dead, TB-
137 attributable, 5) dead, other causes. In the base case, we assumed no TB relapse after treatment
138 and then relaxed that assumption in sensitivity analyses. The cohort also experienced mortality
139 from causes other than TB, including HIV-related and age/sex adjusted non-HIV competing risks
140 of death.

141 **Base case parameters**

142 Table 1 summarizes model parameters for cohort characteristics, tuberculosis infection,
143 IPT toxicity and effectiveness, and mortality with ranges used for deterministic sensitivity
144 analyses.

145 Cohort Characteristics

146 We derived the proportion female for each country from the United Nations Programme
147 on HIV/AIDS country progress reports.²¹⁻²³ Baseline age was taken as the median age reported in
148 cohort studies of PLHIV initiating ART in each country.²⁴⁻²⁶

149 Tuberculosis Disease Incidence

150 We modeled the relative risk of TB disease by time on ART, such that the probability of
151 developing TB disease was the highest during the first three months of ART.²

152 We derived cumulative incidence of TB disease from country-specific observational data
153 among cohorts initiating ART.^{2,26-28} The base case assumed no TB disease relapse after cure, but
154 sensitivity analyses explored TB disease relapse with rates informed by the American Thoracic
155 Society (ATS) guidelines from 0-6% per year.²⁹

156 IPT Toxicity and Effectiveness

157 We estimated IPT toxicity among drinkers initiating ART in two steps. First, we
158 abstracted the rate of Grade 3/4 adverse events in the early ART+IPT arm of the TEMPRANO
159 ANRS trial.⁶ Second, to estimate the effect of alcohol use on risk of IPT toxicity, we identified a
160 cohort study in Botswana that reported IPT hepatotoxicity rates among participants on ART
161 stratified by alcohol dependence characterized by the CAGE questionnaire.^{12,30} We applied the
162 risk ratio of 2.37 found in this study to the rate of toxicity observed in TEMPRANO. Because
163 data about the effect of alcohol on IPT toxicity are limited, we developed an additional estimate
164 and report findings for both. For the second estimate, we applied the risk ratio for isoniazid
165 toxicity among daily drinkers in the general population (not PLHIV specific) referenced in the
166 ATS documents (RR = 4.14).^{9,10} For the 36-month course of IPT, we reduced the probability of
167 developing IPT toxicity after 12 months and again after 24 months. We calculated the risk ratios
168 for relative reductions over time from the adverse event rates reported from two clinical sites in
169 Swaziland,^{31,32} and applied these ratios to our base case toxicity estimates. Fatal drug toxicity
170 depended on the development IPT toxicity. We derived the base case estimate from the
171 Botswana cohort and extrapolated the range for sensitivity analyses from the 95% confidence
172 interval reported by the National Institutes of Health isoniazid drug record.³³ We assume that
173 underlying ART toxicity is equivalent in all strategies.

174 To estimate the toxicity attributable to alcohol, we performed sensitivity analyses
175 applying the rate of toxicity events seen in the TEMPRANO ANRS trial, and compared the
176 proportion of toxicity and toxicity deaths to our base case.

177 We derived the effectiveness of IPT while on therapy from the BOTUSA trial³⁴. In the
178 six-month IPT arm, the protective effectiveness of IPT extended for one-year, six months of
179 active therapy plus six months of extended benefit, after which participants resumed monthly
180 risk for developing TB disease corresponding to the cycle month of the model at that point in
181 time.³⁵⁻³⁷ Similarly, we extended the benefit of the 36-month IPT course an additional six
182 months.

183 Mortality

184 We derived the case fatality ratio (CFR) for TB disease by combining a weighted average
185 of the pooled CFR reported in a meta-analysis of HIV infected patients on ART³⁸ with the CFR
186 reported for HIV infected patients who default on TB treatment, assuming a 20% defaulter rate
187 in the base case.³⁹

188 We estimated non-TB mortality, stratified by age, using country specific life tables.⁴³⁻⁴⁵
189 Because TB-related mortality likely impacts national-level life expectancy in endemic zones, we
190 adjusted life-tables to remove TB mortality. To do so, we estimated the TB attributable mortality
191 rate in each country as the product of *prevalence of TB disease* * *country mortality rate of those*
192 *with TB disease*. The country mortality rates were extracted from WHO TB reports for each
193 country. We then subtracted TB attributable mortality rates from the all-cause mortality rates
194 (Supplement Table 1).

195 **Model Validation**

196 We validated the model in each country against median life expectancy and cumulative
197 TB incidence.

198 **Sensitivity Analyses**

199 We performed deterministic one-way sensitivity analyses for all model parameters. The
200 ranges for deterministic sensitivity analyses were informed by the 95% confidence intervals from
201 observational studies, and based on expert opinion when no quantitative measure of uncertainty
202 was available. In the sensitivity analyses for IPT toxicity, we explored a range of toxicity in
203 order to capture the additional effect of viral hepatitis (B and C) co-infection. For the sensitivity
204 analysis of TB incidence stratified by duration on ART, we used a multiplier to proportionally
205 scale up and down the base case incidence rates while maintaining the trend for decreasing
206 incidence by longer duration of ART. These analyses not only account for uncertainty in the
207 parameter estimates, but also model the increased risk for TB disease among the heaviest
208 drinkers. We explored a wide range for the TB CFR to simulate excellent treatment retention and
209 effectiveness on one extreme, and high default rates or poor treatment effectiveness as may be
210 seen with MDR TB cases on the other extreme. For non-TB mortality, we applied a multiplier to
211 proportionally scale-up base case background mortality rates to simulate higher mortality at
212 lower CD4 counts. We also assessed parameters to allow for TB relapse after TB disease
213 treatment completion, and varied IPT effectiveness to simulate both poor medication compliance
214 and decreased effectiveness for the prevention of isoniazid resistant TB.

215 We constructed tornado diagrams from the one-way sensitivity analyses for each country
216 to evaluate the impact of model parameters on the life expectancy outcome. For parameters that
217 demonstrated high impact, we performed several two-way sensitivity analyses. We utilized
218 threshold sensitivity analyses around the IPT toxicity assumptions to determine the maximum
219 toxicity levels allowable that would favor IPT in each setting.

220 Lastly, we conducted probabilistic sensitivity analyses to characterize uncertainty in the
221 simulation results (see supplement Table 2). We employed the beta distribution to generate
222 probability density functions around each probability parameter, based on the counts of events
223 from observational studies. For baseline age and the duration of IPT effect, we assumed a normal
224 distribution of all values specified in the range tested for deterministic sensitivity analyses. For
225 the multiplier variables used to vary TB incidence, IPT toxicity over time, and background non-
226 TB mortality outlined above, we applied a uniform distribution.

227 **RESULTS**

228 **Base Case**

229 The strategy of six months of IPT+ART (IPT6) extended life expectancy over both ART
230 alone and 36 months of IPT+ ART (IPT36) in India and Uganda, but neither IPT strategy
231 improved life expectancy in Brazil over ART alone (Table 2). In India, IPT6 extended life
232 expectancy by 0.5 years, IPT36 by 0.3 years. IPT6 reduced TB incidence from 801 TB cases per
233 1000 persons to 706 cases per 1000 persons, and deaths by 12 per 1000 persons, whereas IPT36
234 further reduced TB incidence to 665 cases per 1000 persons, and deaths by 17 per 1000 persons.
235 In Uganda, IPT6 extended life expectancy 0.1 years beyond ART alone, whereas IPT36 reduced

236 life expectancy 0.2 years compared to ART alone. IPT6 reduced TB cases by 82 per 1000
237 persons, and TB deaths by 10 per 1000 persons. ART alone extended life expectancy in Brazil
238 by 0.1 years compared to IPT6, and 0.5 years compared to IPT36. The cumulative cases of TB
239 decreased from 259 cases per 1000 persons on ART to 209 on IPT6, and 193 on IPT36, with 6-8
240 additional TB fatalities per 1000 persons on ART alone. In all countries, IPT6 resulted in Grade
241 3/4 toxicity in 158-160 per 1000 persons treated with 8 toxicity deaths per 1000 persons.
242 Between 406-415 persons per 1000 treated developed Grade 3/4 toxicity in the IPT36 arm with
243 20-21 deaths per 1000 treated.

244

245 **Deterministic Sensitivity Analyses**

246 One-way sensitivity analyses of input parameters are shown in Figure 1 and in the
247 supplement (supplement Figures 2 – 8). Parameters with the greatest impact on the risk-benefit
248 ratio of IPT varied by country, with monthly incidence of TB and monthly probability of TB
249 death consistently in the top four (supplement Figures 4, 5 and 9). Fatal and non-fatal IPT
250 toxicity were impactful parameters in Brazil and Uganda, while duration of IPT effect
251 superseded fatal IPT toxicity in India. Toxicity and fatal toxicity attributable to alcohol was
252 between 50-55.6% (Table 2). The risk-benefit favored IPT6 in Brazil when Grade 3/4 IPT
253 toxicity was below 0.023, (base case estimate 0.029, ATS comparator 0.05), and favored IPT36
254 when toxicity decreased to 0.01 (Figure 1). The threshold probability of IPT toxicity in India that
255 shifted IPT6 to ART alone was 0.087 (three times the base case estimate), and 0.044 for IPT36 to
256 ART alone (1.5 times the base case).

257 In Uganda, the strategy shifted against IPT6 to ART alone at a toxicity threshold of
258 0.044, and against IPT36 to ART alone when the toxicity exceeded 0.02.

259 The benefit of IPT6 exceeded the risk when the probability of fatal toxicity was less than
260 0.04 in Brazil, 0.13 in India, and 0.07 in Uganda (base case 0.05 in all countries) (supplement
261 Figure 6). The probabilities of fatal toxicity required to shift the results against IPT36 were 0.02
262 in Brazil, 0.07 in India, and 0.04 in Uganda. Varying the effectiveness of IPT up to 100% did not
263 change the preferred strategy of ART alone in Brazil. When the effectiveness of IPT was below
264 37% in India, the preferred strategy shifted from IPT36 to no IPT, but the minimal level of
265 effectiveness of IPT needed to shift from favoring IPT6 to no IPT was 4%. In Uganda, the
266 preferred strategy was ART alone if IPT effectiveness was below 49.4% (supplement Figure 7).

267 Two-way sensitivity analyses of the monthly probability of TB death and the incidence of
268 TB during the first three months of ART found the intersection of base case values favored no
269 IPT in Brazil with a narrow margin—small increases in TB mortality or TB incidence shifted the
270 strategy to IPT6. IPT6 was clearly favored in India, and while still favored in Uganda, the
271 margin was narrower (Figure 2). These trends persisted in two-way sensitivity analyses of the
272 probability of developing IPT toxicity and the incidence of TB disease during the first 3 months
273 of ART (Supplement Figure 10). The intersection point of base case values for each parameter
274 favored IPT6 in India and Uganda, whereas ART alone dominated the strategies in Brazil.
275 However, for the heaviest drinkers, with up to three times greater risk of developing TB disease,
276 the results favored IPT6 when IPT toxicity was up to twice that of the base case estimate. IPT36
277 was preferred only with increased risk for TB disease along with reduced IPT toxicity, scenarios
278 less likely among the heaviest drinkers.

279 **Probabilistic Sensitivity Analyses**

280 In Brazil, ART alone remained dominant in 51.5% of simulations, while IPT6 was
281 selected 41.1% of the time and IPT36 7.4% (Figure 3, and supplement Table 3). Strategy
282 selection was less robust to uncertainty in India with IPT6 selected 47.5%, IPT36 27.9%, and
283 ART alone 24.6% of the time. In Uganda, ART alone dominated 44.4% of simulations, while
284 the strategy favored IPT6 in 43.2% and IPT36 in 12.4% of simulations.

285

286 **DISCUSSION**

287 In this simulation model, the benefits of a six-month course of IPT at initiation of ART
288 among heavy drinking PLHIV compared to ART alone outweighed the risks in high TB/HIV
289 prevalence settings, as seen in India and Uganda. The risk-benefit of IPT was less in Brazil
290 where TB incidence is lower. Overall, the 36-month course of IPT reduced the cumulative
291 incidence of TB disease and death compared to the six-month course of IPT and ART alone in
292 all simulated countries; however, the increased cases of IPT toxicity and deaths that accumulated
293 over the 36-month course negated its benefits beyond the six-month comparison. The uncertainty
294 in strategy selection seen in probabilistic sensitivity analyses, particularly in Uganda, highlight
295 the need to better characterize IPT toxicity in heavy drinkers.

296 Global TB and HIV guidelines currently do not reflect the differential impact of IPT in
297 varying country settings that we report. Under conditions of high TB incidence, such as in India
298 and Uganda, IPT toxicity thresholds favoring IPT6 were much higher than our most conservative
299 estimates. These sensitivity analyses also support that IPT benefits are likely to outweigh the
300 increased toxicity risk among heavy drinkers with concomitant viral hepatitis co-infection in

301 high prevalence TB settings. In contrast, data from Brazil showed that in a country with lower
302 TB incidence the risk of IPT exceeded the benefit unless the true toxicity rate of IPT is 21% less
303 than our base case estimate. The heterogeneity seen between countries suggests that having a
304 single global guideline for IPT among HIV-infected drinkers in resource-limited countries is not
305 optimal.

306 Though we found that empiric IPT extended life expectancy in many settings, it is clear
307 that strategies to minimize IPT-related morbidity and mortality among drinkers are important for
308 real-world implementation. Instructing patients to stop IPT should symptoms of appetite loss,
309 malaise, or jaundice develop can help prevent hepatic failure and death. Further risk mitigation
310 with liver enzyme monitoring may also prompt discontinuation of therapy prior to symptom
311 development and irreversible hepatotoxicity. Unfortunately, in settings where IPT is most
312 beneficial, liver enzyme monitoring is often not feasible. However, close to patient diagnostics
313 for liver enzyme monitoring are in development, and may make monitoring possible in some
314 settings.⁴⁶ Another strategy is to better understand the heterogeneity of toxicity risk among
315 drinkers, which clinical or alcohol use characteristics are associated with complications, and
316 identify those who could be safely treated.

317 We note limitations to this analysis. Few studies to date report IPT toxicity stratified by
318 alcohol consumption, and only one among PLHIV.^{12,47-49} Thus, this parameter has the most
319 uncertainty, as it was derived from a combination of trial data and prospective cohort data. The
320 base case estimates may in fact double count for some alcohol use as the TEMPRANO trial did
321 not explicitly exclude those who consume alcohol, and the general population toxicity risk may
322 also overestimate as it is not HIV specific and does not exclude drinkers.

323 We employed sensitivity analyses to account for uncertainty in the estimates, and we
324 present toxicity thresholds for whether IPT is favored in each setting.

325 Second, we included all HIV-infected drinkers, and did not investigate providing IPT
326 only for those who have a positive tuberculin skin test (TST), where the benefits of IPT appear to
327 be the greatest.⁵ However, TST is not currently part of the WHO guidance,⁷ and often not
328 available in resource-limited settings with high TB burden. Where TB incidence and mortality
329 are lower, screening strategies for latent TB infection like TST are likely effective to target and
330 treat only those who are infected and decrease unnecessary exposure to IPT toxicity. We also did
331 not simulate TB reinfection or transmission, meaning our model is conservative in that it does
332 not incorporate the indirect benefit of averted TB transmission. Furthermore, this model strictly
333 evaluated life years gained, cases of TB reduced, and deaths avoided. It did not include utility
334 measures such as health-related quality of life. The comparisons thus did not capture the benefits
335 of improved quality of life among those who avoid TB disease, or the potential decrease in
336 quality of life associated with taking daily medications (i.e. for six or 36 months). Lastly, we did
337 not investigate newer regimens, such as 12 weekly doses of rifapentine plus IPT, which have
338 shown promising safety, efficacy, and adherence results,⁵¹ but are not yet approved for use in
339 developing countries.

340 Our findings suggest IPT benefits for PLHIV who heavily consume alcohol outweigh the
341 potential risks of increased drug toxicity where TB incidence and mortality are high, and among
342 those with increased TB disease risk. For countries with lower TB incidence, like Brazil, IPT
343 toxicity must be lower than our estimates for the benefits to exceed the risks. These results
344 highlight the need for more nuanced recommendations for IPT stratified by TB incidence and/or

345 TB mortality such that countries can implement the policy most applicable to the epidemiology
346 of TB within their borders as opposed to a global one-size-fits-all guideline. Furthermore, there
347 is a clear need for prospective studies of IPT toxicity among PLHIV who consume alcohol. Such
348 data could inform strategies to increase the safety profile for those at the highest toxicity risk,
349 instead of current recommendations to withhold beneficial therapy from a substantial proportion
350 of those in greatest need.

351

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479

480 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

481 **Figure 1.** One-way sensitivity analyses of the threshold probability of isoniazid preventive
482 therapy (IPT) toxicity at the initiation of antiretroviral therapy (ART) compared to the base case
483 estimate and American Thoracic Society (ATS) estimate among people with HIV infection who
484 heavily consume alcohol in a) Brazil b) India and c) Uganda.

485

486 **Figure 2.** Two-way sensitivity analyses of the monthly probability of death from tuberculosis
487 (TB) disease and monthly TB disease incidence per 1000 people during the first 3 months of
488 ART among people with HIV infection who heavily consume alcohol in a) Brazil b) India and
489 c) Uganda.

490

491 **Figure 3.** Histograms depicting strategy selection frequency of antiretroviral therapy (ART) plus
492 six-months of isoniazid preventive therapy (IPT), ART plus 36-months of IPT, or ART alone
493 from probabilistic sensitivity analyses of a model simulating a cohort of people living with HIV
494 who heavily consume alcohol enrolling in care in a) Brazil b) India, and c) Uganda.

Table 1. Model input parameters for a comparative analysis of the risks and benefits from isoniazid preventive therapy (IPT) for either six or 36 months plus antiretroviral therapy (ART) versus ART alone among people living with HIV who heavily consume alcohol. Ranges in parenthesis were used for deterministic sensitivity analyses.

Model Parameter	Brazil (Range)	India (Range)	Uganda (Range)	Source(s)
Proportion female	0.35 (0.20-0.55)	0.40 (0.27-0.60)	0.66 (0.45-0.70)	21-23
Baseline Age (years)	33.0 (25-42)	33.0 (27-40)	33.3 (20-40)	24-26
Monthly incidence of TB per 1000 persons stratified by duration of ART				
▪ 0-3 months of ART	9.94	59.7	20.4	2,26-28
▪ 3-6 months of ART	5.00	30.0	10.3	
▪ 6-12 months of ART	2.31	13.9	4.75	
▪ 12-24 months of ART	0.86	5.13	1.76	
▪ 24-36 months of ART	0.65	3.90	1.33	
▪ > 36 months of ART	0.44	2.66	0.91	
TB Case Fatality Ratio	13% (4-25%)	13% (4-25%)	13% (4-25%)	38,39
Monthly Probability of Grade 3 or 4 IPT toxicity				6,12 32
• 0-12 months IPT	0.029	0.029	0.029	

• 13-24 months IPT	0.011	0.011	0.011	
• 25-36 months IPT	0.002	0.002	0.002	
Probability of Grade 3 or 4 IPT toxicity in Months 0-12 – ATS Estimate	0.05	0.05	0.05	9,10
Probability of fatal IPT toxicity among those with Grade 3 or 4 toxicity	0.05 (0 – 0.23)	0.05 (0 – 0.23)	0.05 (0 – 0.23)	6,12,33
Duration IPT effect (months)	(0-120)	(0-120)	(0-120)	35-37
• 6 month course IPT	12	12	12	
• 36 month course IPT	42	42	42	
IPT Effectiveness	0.9 (0 -1)	0.9 (0 -1)	0.9 (0 -1)	34

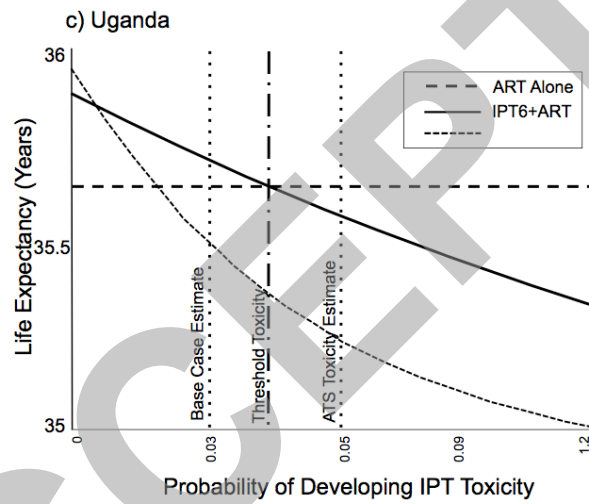
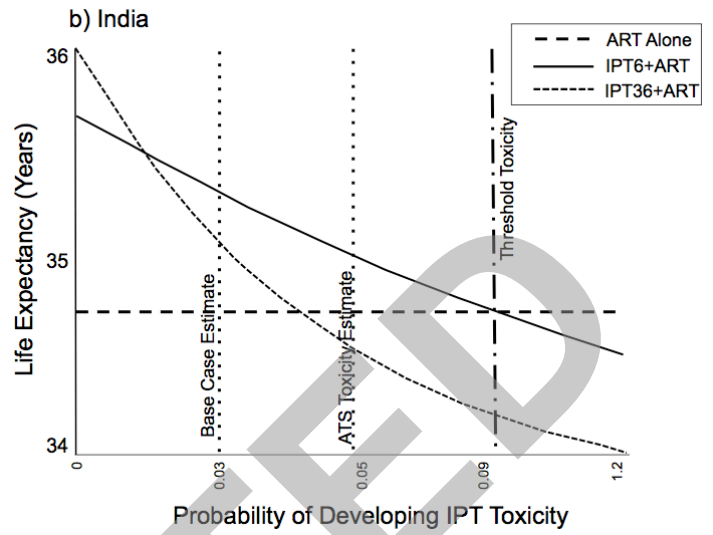
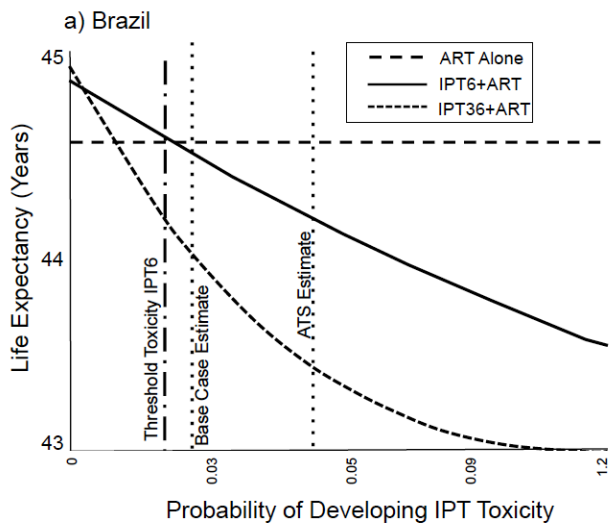
TB = Tuberculosis; ATS = American Thoracic Society

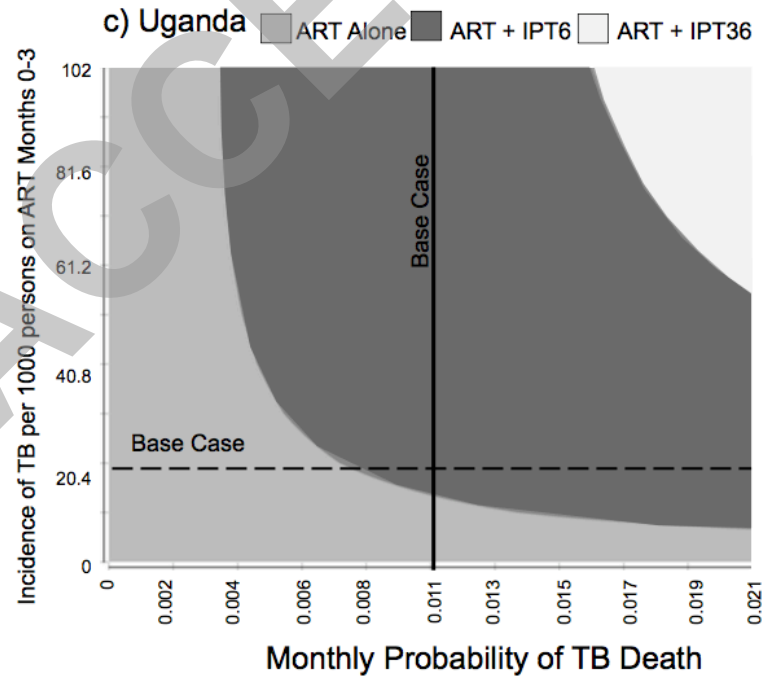
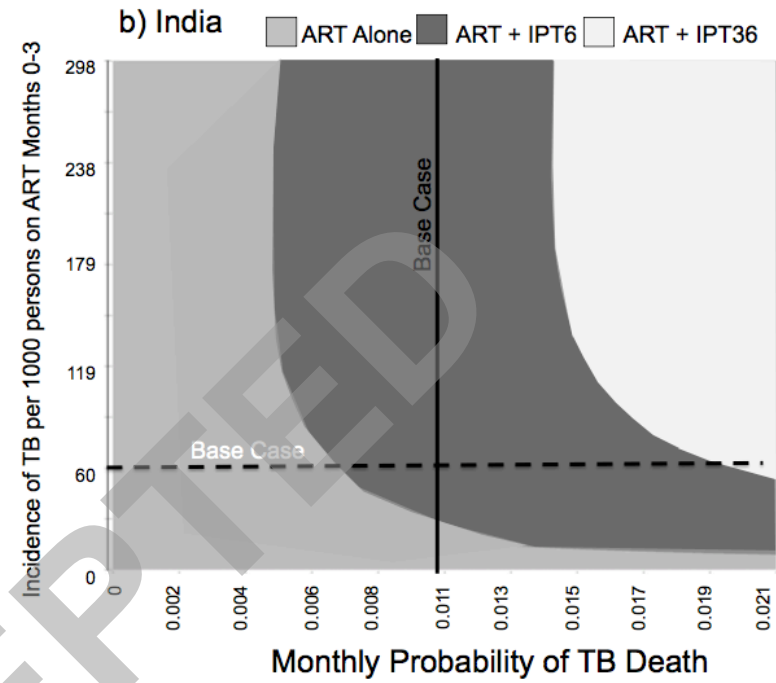
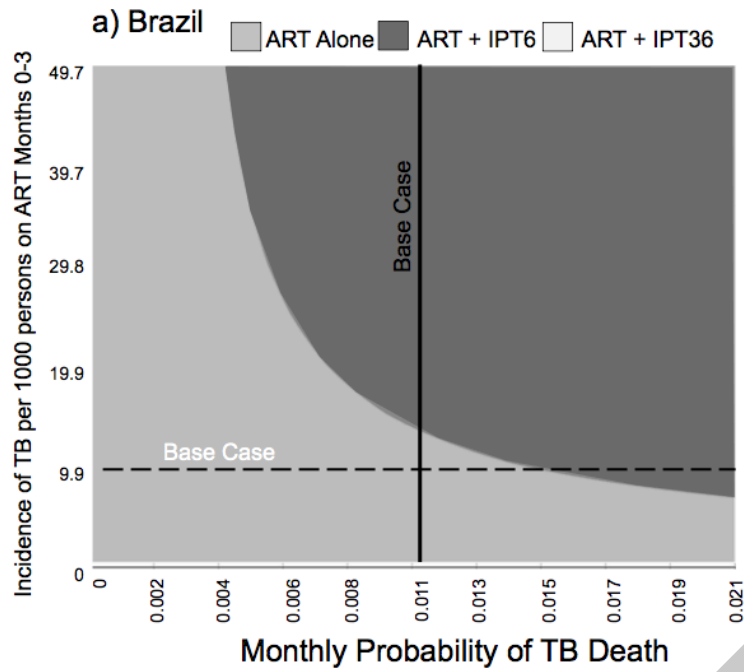
Table 2. Base case projected outcomes by country—Brazil, India, Uganda— for an analysis of the risks and benefits from isoniazid preventive therapy (IPT) for either six (IPT 6) or 36 months (IPT 36) plus antiretroviral therapy (ART) versus ART alone among people living with HIV who heavily consume alcohol. The 95% confidence ranges (95% CR) are presented from probabilistic sensitivity analyses.

	Life Expectancy (Years)* (95% CR)	Toxicity Per 1000 Persons (95% CR)	Alcohol Attributable Tox. per 1000 Persons	Toxicity Deaths per 1000 persons (95% CR)	Alcohol Attributable Tox. Deaths per 1000	TB Cases per 1000 persons (95% CR)	TB Deaths per 1000 persons (95% CR)
BRAZIL							
IPT 6+ART	42.8 (35.1-51.6)	160 (90-290)	89	8 (0-30)	4	209 (110-312)	26 (8-58)
IPT 36+ART	42.4 (34.6-51.1)	415 (250-650)	213	21 (0-69)	11	193 (99-293)	24 (11-61)
ART	42.9 (35.2-51.5)	0	0	0	0	259 (142-374)	32 (21-78)
INDIA							
IPT 6+ART	38.1 (31.7-46.85)	158 (89-291)	88	8 (0-28)	4	706 (487-841)	86 (12-210)

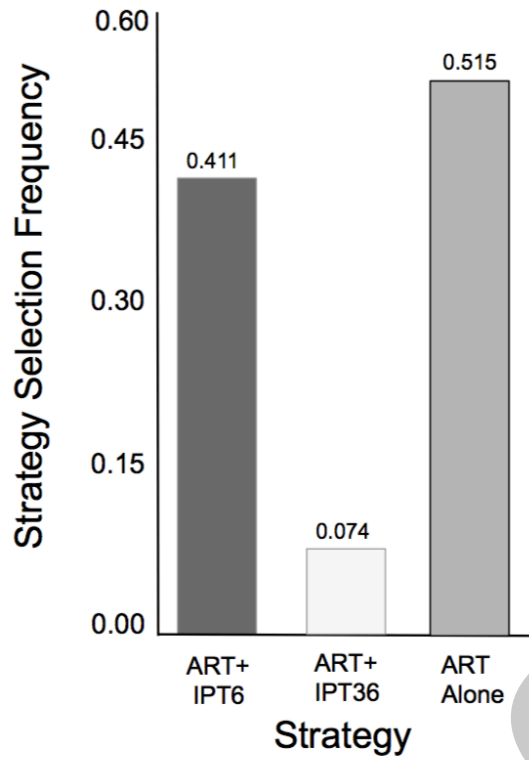
IPT 36+ART	37.9 (31.6-46.4)	406 (253-638)	209	20 (0-68)	10	665 (453-809)	81 (10-198)
ART	37.6 (30.9-46.9)	0	0	0	0	801 (594-908)	98 (17-243)
UGANDA							
IPT 6+ART	36.5 (27.4-47.7)	160 (93-288)	89	8 (0-32)	4	336 (194-503)	41 (7-97)
IPT 36+ART	36.2 (26.9-47.3)	412 (437-652)	212	21 (1-58)	11	308 (172-468)	38 (10-93)
ART	36.4 (27.5-47.6)	0	0	0		418 (248-577)	51 (10-122)

*Years of life expectancy after entry into the simulation; Tox. = Toxicity; TB = Tuberculosis; ART = anti-retroviral therapy; IPT = isoniazid preventive therapy

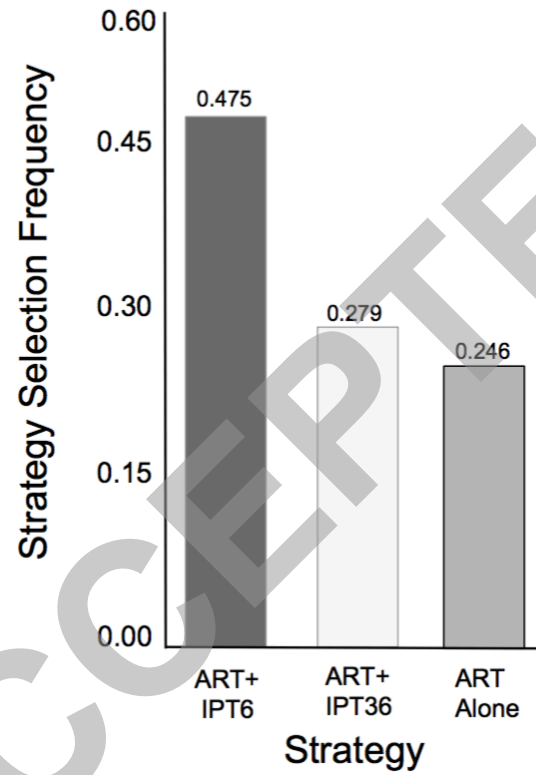




a) Brazil



b) India



c) Uganda

