# **Original Article**

303

# **Risk of having pulmonary tuberculosis in type 2 diabetes: A hospital-based matched case-control study**

Yukang Wang MM<sup>1†</sup>, Mei Dou PhD<sup>1†</sup>, Tingyan Kou MM<sup>2</sup>, Yufeng Liu MB<sup>3</sup>, Wenshan Lv PhD<sup>4</sup>, Lei Han PhD<sup>4</sup>, Na Wang MM<sup>3</sup>, Aiguo Ma PhD<sup>1</sup>, Frans J Kok PhD<sup>5</sup>, Evert G Schouten PhD<sup>5</sup>, Qiuzhen Wang PhD<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Public Health, Qingdao University, Qingdao, China

<sup>2</sup>Junan County Health Bureau, Linyi, Shandong, China

<sup>3</sup>Qingdao Chest Hospital, Qingdao, China

<sup>4</sup>The affiliated hospital of Qingdao University, Qingdao, China

<sup>5</sup>Division of Nutrition and Health, Wageningen University, Wageningen, The Netherlands

<sup>†</sup>Both authors contributed equally to this manuscript

**Background and Objectives:** Diabetes mellitus (DM) leads to nearly 3-fold higher risk of pulmonary tuberculosis (TB), indicating an increasing challenge to public health in low-to-middle income countries. Till now, the risk factor is still uncertain. We carried out this study with the main purpose to identify the risk factors of having TB in DM patients. **Methods and Study Design:** A hospital-based matched case-control study was conducted in Qingdao, China from March, 2016 to January, 2018. Cases were DM patients with concurrent TB (DM-TB). Each case was matched with two controls, patients with DM only of similar age, sex and DM course. Cox regression of conditional logistic analysis was used to define the risk factors for having TB in DM, and then sensitivity analysis was carried out. **Results:** We identified 315 patients, including 105 cases and 210 controls. Smokers had a higher risk of having TB with a multivariable adjusted odds ratio (aOR) of 12.45 than non-smokers. Poor glycemic control (aOR=2.66), frequency of DM re-examination <1 time/year (aOR=3.39), as well as TB contact history was also independently related with higher risk, while BMI  $\geq$ 24 (aOR=0.42), education level  $\geq$  college (aOR=0.11) showed a negative association. **Conclusions:** Poor glycemic control, smoking, low frequency of reexamination was associated with higher risk of having TB in DM, while overweight and obesity, high education levels showed a negative association. These findings provide clues to target DM populations prone to TB, which may be of help to halt the epidemic of TB in high burden countries.

Key Words: clinical epidemiology, diabetes, poor glycemic control, smoking, tuberculosis

# INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a well-known risk factor for pulmonary tuberculosis (TB), tripling the risk of TB,<sup>1,2</sup> whereas about 10~15% of cases is attributable to DM.<sup>3-5</sup> Although a downward trend of TB incidence has been observed since the year 2000, China still accounts for nearly 10% of the world's TB burden, with approximately 0.9 million new cases every year.<sup>6</sup> Also, in this country, due to industrialization, urbanization, extended life expectancy and lifestyle changes, the prevalence of diabetes has increased especially rapidly over the last 10 years.<sup>7</sup> The increasing diabetes and still high burden of tuberculosis may result in aggravated tuberculosis epidemic for a relatively long period of time to come.<sup>8,9</sup>

Some factors are related with higher risk of TB in diabetics, including elderly, male, low education level and socio-economic status, alcohol use and malnutrition,<sup>10-13</sup> as well as poor glycemic control.<sup>12,14</sup> In a 5-year prospective cohort study, DM patients with baseline hemoglobin A1c  $\geq$ 7% had nearly 3 times higher risk of TB [HR 3.11, 95% CI 1.63~5.92].<sup>15</sup> In accordance, the use of insulin, indicating a sign of poor glycemic control was related to 53% increased risk.<sup>16</sup> However, discrepancies also exist. In a population-based study in Denmark, a country with a low TB-burden, no evidence for any association between TB and dysglycemia was found.<sup>17</sup>

Therefore, we aimed to investigate the possible risk factors for having active TB in diabetes patients by a matched case-control study in China. The results may provide new evidence to define the risk factors for having TB in diabetics, as well as insights to targeting DM populations prone to TB.

**Corresponding Author:** Prof. Qiuzhen Wang, School of Public Health, Qingdao University, Qingdao, China. Tel: +86 053282991503; Fax: +86 053282991518 Email: qdwangqiuzhen@126.com Manuscript received 24 January 2021. Initial review completed 16 April 2021. Revision accepted 09 May 2021. doi: 10.6133/apjcn.202106 30(2).0015

# METHODS

# Design and participants

A hospital-based 1:2 matched case-control study consisting of 315 participants was carried out from March, 2016 to January, 2018. One hundred and five cases, namely DM patients with concurrent TB (DM-TB) were randomly selected from Qingdao chest hospital. The diagnosis of DM was based on self-reported patients who had already taken anti-diabetic medicines, or the results of fasting plasma glucose (FPG) by using WHO criteria (1990) for the classification of glucose tolerance. The diagnosis of TB followed the National Tuberculosis Guidelines of China<sup>18</sup> based on chest radiography, sputum smear microscopy and clinical manifestations. The inclusion criteria of the cases were (1) aged  $\geq 18$  years; (2) DM diagnosed before TB; (3) TB treated for the first time. Patients with (1) local residence <1y; (2) hematogenous disseminated TB, tuberculous pleurisy and other extrapulmonary tuberculosis; (3) other endocrine diseases such as hyperthyroidism, systemic lupus erythematosus, rheumatoid arthritis; (4) diseases that affect the patient's immune function such as AIDS, malignant tumors, chronic hepatitis, etc; (5) hormones and immune-suppressants within 4 months were excluded.

Two hundred and ten controls, namely patients with DM only were concomitantly recruited from unselected inpatients and outpatients DM population in a general hospital in the same city of Qingdao. Each case had two controls, individually matched by sex, age  $(\pm 3)$  and DM course  $(\pm 5)$ . We excluded participants who had any of the following conditions: local residence <1y, pulmonary infection, reported diagnosed tuberculosis or suspected tuberculosis lesions by chest X-ray or CT, any other endocrine diseases and illness that affect the patient's immune function similar as the exclusion criteria previously stated for DM-TB cases. The participants enrolled in this study were limited to those of Chinese Han ethnicity. The Ethics Committee of Qingdao Disease Prevention and Control Centre approved the present study, and informed consent was obtained from all the participants. This study was registered at Chinese Clinical Trial Registry (No. ChiCTR-IPR-15006395).

## Sample size calculation

We calculated the number of participants needed in the present 1:2 matched case-control study by using the following formula

n =  $[Z\alpha [\sqrt{(1 + 1/r)} \bar{p} (1 - \bar{p})] + [Z\beta \sqrt{(p_1 (1 - p_1))/r} + p_0 (1 - p_0)]^2] / (p_1 - p_0)^2$ p\_1 = p\_0 OR /  $[1+p_0 (OR - 1)]; \bar{p} = (p_1 + rp_0) / (1 + r)$ 

 $p_1$ ,  $p_0$  is the exposure rate of the main risk factor in case group and control group respectively. In the present study,  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.10$ ,  $Z_{\alpha} = 1.96$ ,  $Z_{\beta} = 1.28$ , r = 2

Based on the report that poor glycemic control was a main risk factor of TB with an odds ratio nearly to three,<sup>15</sup> and the prevalence of poor glycemic control in Chinese DM patients was nearly 60%,<sup>19</sup> the number of DM-TB cases needed was 81, and 162 for DM control. An estimated drop-out rate of 10% was taken into account, and finally 90 cases and 180 controls were needed.

# Questionnaire and anthropometric measurements

Structured questionnaires were used by trained interviewers to collect information on demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, as well as living habits including smoking and secondary smoking,<sup>20</sup> alcohol drinking and exercise. Immunity condition was evaluated based on accumulated infection in the last year by using the questionnaire adapted from the self-reporting immune system assessment questionnaire by university medical center Freiburg, Germany.<sup>21</sup> Incidence of upper respiratory tract infection (cold, sinusitis, tonsillitis, tympanitis, pharyngitis, laryngitis); bronchitis or pneumonia; infection of skin or mucosa (herpes, wart, furuncle, abscess); urinary tract infection was investigated.

Diabetes-related features included DM family history, treatment of DM, compliance on diet control, etc. were collected. We inquired potential influencing factors of TB including TB contact history, dust contact history, etc. Height and weight were measured by using standard procedure.

## Laboratory analyses

After a 10-h overnight fasting, venous blood samples were collected for separation. FPG, albumin and lipid profiles including total cholesterol (TC), triglyceride (TG), high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDLC) were detected by Hitachi auto-analyzer 7180. Automatic hematology analyzer (SYSMEX XE-2100) was used to analyze hemoglobin, lymphocyte count (TLC), etc.

Glycemic control of the participants was evaluated based on FPG<sup>22</sup> at admission due to the missing data in HbA1c of nearly 20%. Hypoproteinemia, lymphocytopenia was defined as reported.<sup>23</sup>

#### Statistical analysis

T test or non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used for continuous variable and chi-square test for categorical variables. Due to matched case-control design of the present study, Cox proportional hazards regression analysis (Forward LR) was constructed to calculate the OR and 95% CIs of existing DM-TB to fit conditional logistic regression. Possible confounders, the variables which have significant association with the risk of having TB in DM in univariable analysis were included in the multivariable model. For certain variables with internal relations such as poor glycemic control, treatment of DM and compliance on diet control, we chose poor glycemic control to include in the final model due to its best representative of glycemic control. To avoid the possible lowered statistical efficiency and bias, multiple imputation based on 5 replications were used to handle the missing data.<sup>24</sup> Then, a sensitivity analysis was carried out and the results were consistent in the imputed and raw data, indicating that the missing data had little effect on the results. In addition, considering a possible long duration before TB was diagnosed in some patients, we excluded all the participants with a DM course <2 years (n=55, 17.4%) for the TB risk analysis to test the possibility of reverse causality. The results also remained consistent. Analyses were performed with SPSS version 21.0 software (IBM SPSS Statistics 21); statistical significance was defined as *p*<0.05 (2-tailed).

# RESULTS

Flow diagram of the enrollment of the participants was shown in Figure 1. Initially, 557 eligible patients were enrolled. Then, 71 participants with local residence <1 year, other endocrine diseases, other diseases that affect the patient's immune function were excluded, and 486 participants remained. Finally, 105 DM-TB cases and 210 DM controls were included by using individual matching based on sex, age ( $\pm$ 3) and DM course ( $\pm$ 5).

#### Baseline characteristics of the study population

As shown in Table 1, the cases had lower percentage of married (86.7 vs 95.2%), hypertension (44.8 vs 62.4%), BMI  $\geq$ 24 (38.1 vs 64.5%), regular exercise (40.0 vs 61.0%) and kitchen ventilator using (61.9 vs 82.9%), but a higher prevalence of hypoproteinemia (24.2 vs 11.4%), lymphocytopenia (14.4 vs 6.5%), accumulated infections in the past year  $\geq$ 1 time (70.5 vs 53.8%), TB contact history (21.0 vs 6.7%), current smoking (49.5 vs 22.8%) and current drinking (39.0 vs 18.1%).

#### DM related traits

Compared with DM controls, DM-TB cases had higher prevalence of poor glycemic control (77.9 vs 56.5%), while a lower frequency of DM reexamination  $\geq 1$ time/year (13.3 vs 47.6%). Also, treatment on DM, as well as compliance on diet control differed between the two groups. A marginal significant difference was found in regular glucose monitor between the two groups (*p*=0.06). See in Table 2.

# Risk factors of having TB in DM patients

Possible factors related to TB risk in DM such as marriage status, education level, poor glycemic control, BMI and frequency of reexamination were defined in the univariable conditional logistic regression. Further, in multivariable analysis, besides TB contact history, smoking, DM reexamination <1 time/year, poor glycemic control was independently associated with increased risk of having TB in DM patients, while education level <sup>3</sup>college, and BMI  $\geq$ 24 was associated with decreased odds ratio of TB in DM (Table 3).

# DISCUSSION

In the present hospital-based study we found that smoking, poor glycemic control, DM reexamination <1 time/year as well as TB contact history was independently related to increased risk of having active TB in diabetic patients; while BMI  $\geq$ 24, education level  $\geq$ college was associated with decreased odds ratio of TB in DM.

We carried out a 1:2 matched case-control study. DM-TB cases were recruited from a city level TB hospital, which is the largest specialist hospital for TB treatment with a catchment area of about 9 million people and the average number of hospitalized patients per year is about two thousand. DM controls were recruited from a large size tertiary comprehensive hospital in the same city. Besides age and sex, DM course was matched in the recruitment due to its close correlation with the severity of the disease. Other major socio-economic factors such as residence, monthly income level, health insurance status distributed in a balanced way between the two groups. Therefore, the included study populations as representative for their source populations as well as the comparability between the case and control can be assured.

Current smoking was related with nearly 12-fold higher risk of having TB in DM, as well as nearly 7-fold higher risk in ex-smokers. Similarly, smoking was reported to be associated with TB risk in prospective cohort studies in general population.<sup>25,26</sup> From mechanistic perspective, smoking may damage the cilia of airway epithelial cells, impair phagocytosis of macrophages, reduce the expression of surface proteins associated with antigen presentation by macrophages, and finally reduce the body's ability

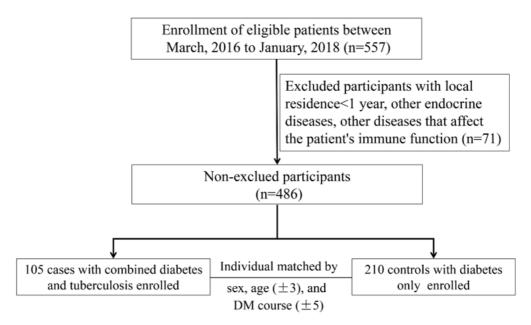


Figure 1. The numbers of individuals enrolled at each stage and the case-control selection. From March, 2016 to January, 2018, totally 557 eligible patients were enrolled. After exclude participants with local residence <1 year, other endocrine diseases and other diseases that may affect the patient's immune function, 486 participants were left. Among them, 105 patients who had combined diabetes and tuberculosis were defined as the cases. 1:2 individually matching based on sex, age ( $\pm$ 3) and DM course ( $\pm$ 5) was used for the non-TB controls, and finally 210 patients with diabetes only were enrolled.

Table 1. Characteristics of the study populations by concurrent TB (mean±SD)

	DM-TB cases	DM controls	р
Accumulated infections in the past year			4
0	31 (29.5)	97 (46.2)	< 0.05
1~2 times	57 (54.3)	93 (44.3)	
$\geq$ 3 times	17 (16.2)	20 (9.5)	
TB contact history, n (%)	22 (21.0)	14 (6.7)	< 0.01
Dust contact history, n (%)	· · · ·		
often	7 (6.7)	14 (6.7)	0.34
seldom	5 (4.8)	20 (9.5)	
never	93 (88.6)	176 (83.8)	
Ventilation of the house, n (%)	· · · ·		
>2 hours/d	77 (73.3)	158 (75.2)	0.08
$\leq 2 \text{ hours/d}$	20 (19.1)	47 (22.4)	
no	8 (7.6)	5 (2.4)	
Ventilation in the kitchen, n (%)			
kitchen ventilator	65 (61.9)	174 (82.9)	< 0.01
other equipment	24 (22.9)	16 (7.6)	
no	16 (15.2)	20 (9.5)	
Contact with other person			
fixed population	19 (18.1)	65 (31.0)	< 0.05
shifting population	24 (22.9)	36 (17.1)	
seldom	62 (59.0)	109 (51.9)	
Per capita living space (m <sup>2</sup> ), n (%)		. ,	
<25	19 (18.1)	39 (18.6)	0.83
25~	32 (30.5)	54 (25.7)	
35~	24 (22.9)	50 (23.8)	
50~	30 (28.6)	67 (31.9)	

SBP: systolic blood pressure; DBP: diastolic blood pressure; BMI: body mass index; TC: total cholesterol; TG: triglyceride; HDLC: high density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDLC: low density lipoprotein cholesterol; TB: tuberculosis.

<sup>†</sup>Missing data, 10 in BMI, 41 in Hypoproteinemia and 34 in lymphocytopenia

<sup>‡</sup>Other health insurances included rural cooperative medical insurance, commercial insurance, poverty relief insurance, free medical service, self-paid medical service and other social insurance.

<sup>§</sup>Participants who smoked≥100 cigarettes in previous years and continued smoking were defined as current smokers; those who smoked more than 100 cigarettes previously while ceased in the last year were defined as ex-smoker; secondary smoker referred to those who did not smoke themselves but exposed to cigarette smoking in the environment frequently.

<sup>¶</sup>Those who consumed alcohol at least once a week and 25 g hard liquor ( $\geq 42^{\circ}$ ), 50 g light liquor ( $\leq 42^{\circ}$ ), a pint of beer or 150g wine or 40g spirits each time in the past and continued drinking alcohol were considered as current alcohol drinker. Ex-drinkers were defined as drinking alcohol in the past but ceased  $\geq$ one year.

<sup>††</sup>Regular exercise was defined as  $\geq$ 3 times/wk physical activities such as running, jogging, walking, swimming, bicycling, and at least 10 minutes each time during the last 6 months.

<sup>‡‡</sup>skewed distribution was observed and median, inter-quartile range were used for the description

<sup>§§</sup>Hypoproteinemia was defined as serum albumin ≤35g/L.

<sup>¶</sup>lymphocytopenia was defined as TLC<1.0×10<sup>9</sup>/L.

to clear inhaled *M. tuberculosis* (MTB).<sup>27</sup> Greater effect size of smoking with TB was found in our study. The possible explanation was that diabetic patients, especially those with chronic hyperglycemia had impaired immune function with respect to macrophage and T lymphocyte that play a key role in the defense against MTB,<sup>28-32</sup> and there was a synergistic effect between smoking and diabetes. Nevertheless, a wide 95% confidence intervals were noticed, indicating larger sample size in future studies is needed to verify the finding.

Poor glycemic control was found to be related with about 2.5-fold higher risk of having TB. Fasting plasma glucose (FPG) was used to evaluate glycemic control due to the missing data of HbA1c. Also, HbA1c was used with similar purpose in recent studies.<sup>22,33</sup> Our results were in line with previous findings from prospective study that suggested the increased possibility of developing TB among those with increasing diabetes severity,<sup>34</sup> although there were certain discrepancies.<sup>35</sup> DM patients with chronic hyperglycemia were more prone to develop hypoxia, resulting in elevated pressure of the venous sys-

tem and favor the growth of MTB.36 By using a murine model, a reduced production of Th1-related cytokines and NO were observed to account for the hampered host defense against MTB infection under diabetic condition, of which insulin therapy resulted in a significant improvement.<sup>37</sup> In addition, we found low frequency of reexamination of DM was associated higher risk of having TB. Further analysis found a significantly lower proportion of basic medical insurance for urban employees in patients with low reexamination frequency, 26.4% lower than their counterpart. The establishment of basic medical insurance system for urban employees, started in 1999 in China is an important strategy to ensure basic medical care for the general population. Lack of a guaranteed health insurance may hinder the patients from frequent reexamination. Also, a marginal significantly lower education level was observed in the participants with sparse reexamination. These findings indicate that comprehensive measures are highly needed in the individual management of DM.

Table 2. DM related traits of the study populations by concurrent TB (mean±SD)
--

	DM-TB cases	DM controls	р
N	105	210	
DM family history, n (%)	31 (29.5)	77 (36.7)	0.21
DM course (year)	$6.8 \pm 5.7$	$7.4 \pm 5.7$	0.39
<1	15 (14.3)	25 (11.9)	0.76
1~	29 (27.6)	52 (24.8)	
5~	27 (25.7)	53 (25.2)	
10~	34 (32.4)	80 (38.1)	
FPG (mmol/L)	10.7±4.2	8.5±3.4	< 0.01
Poor glycemic control <sup>†</sup> , n (%)	74 (77.9)	100 (56.5)	< 0.01
Treatment of DM, n (%)	× ,	. ,	
oral medicine	48 (45.7)	92 (43.8)	< 0.05
insulin	22 (21.0)	30 (14.3)	
oral medicine+ insulin	11 (10.5)	52 (24.8)	
diet control only	17 (16.2)	24 (11.4)	
Irregular treatment	7 (6.6)	12 (5.7)	
Compliance on diet control, n (%)			
good	29 (27.6)	53 (25.3)	< 0.05
moderate	30 (28.6)	91 (43.3)	
no	46 (43.8)	66 (31.4)	
Frequency of DM reexamination, n (%)			
never	43 (41.0)	62 (29.5)	< 0.01
<1 time/year	48 (45.7)	48 (22.9)	
$\geq$ 1 time/year	14 (13.3)	100 (47.6)	
Regular glucose monitor <sup>‡</sup> , n (%)			
fasting and postprandial	8 (7.6)	32 (15.2)	0.06
fasting or postprandial	27 (25.7)	37 (17.6)	
no	70 (66.7)	141 (67.1)	

DM: diabetes mellitus; TB: tuberculosis; FPG: fasting plasma glucose.

<sup>†</sup>FPG>130 mg/dL (7.22 mmol/L) was defined as poor glycemic control.

<sup>‡</sup>Regular blood glucose monitor refers to detecting glucose at least once a month.

We observed a negative association of BMI  $\geq$ 24 with TB in DM, with a decreased odds ratio of nearly 60%. In agreement, BMI was recently reported to be negatively associated with the risk of TB in another case-control study in DM population.<sup>33</sup> In general populations, prospective cohort studies have reported the negative correlation between BMI and risk of TB<sup>38,39</sup> with BMI in the range of 18.5 and 30.0 kg/m<sup>2</sup>.<sup>40</sup> Although more evidence is needed, an obviously decreased body weight may be an early sign of active TB in diabetes populations.

There are several strengths in our study. To our knowledge, this is the first time to carried out a matched case control study with the main purpose to define the risk factor of having TB in diabetes patients. There are a few studies with similar purpose with certain limitations. Ji Y<sup>33</sup> reported a 1:4 matched case control study with similar findings as our study. However, the sample size was relatively small with only 22 TB cases included. In other two studies, <sup>17,41</sup> the design differs from the present study with TB patients and non-TB controls as the subjects. We used 1:2 matched case control study, which may increase the study efficacy. And DM was diagnosed before the explicit TB in DM-TB cases to make the results more reliable. In addition, due to the consideration of possible long duration in some TB patients before the definite diagnosis, we carried out a sensitivity analysis by excluding all the participants with a DM course <2 years, and the results remained consistent. Therefore, we are confident of the internal validity of the present study.

However, our study has several limitations. First, cautions must be taken when infer the possible causality between identified factors and TB in DM because of the case-control design. Second, the potential selection bias might result from different hospitals for the recruitment of the participants, although it is understandable that we could not include DM-TB and DM only patients from the same setting. Neither did we adopt a population based controls mainly because of the consideration of the compliance of the participants, since we preferred to investigate immune status based on both clinical laboratory test and questionnaire. Nonetheless, the controls were recruited from a large size tertiary comprehensive hospital in the same city as the cases, and there was no significant difference in main socio-economic traits such as residence, income level and insurance status. Therefore, we think the potential selection bias was minimized in our study. Finally, despite adjustment for possible confounders, residual confounding cannot be completely ruled out.

# Conclusions

Our study demonstrates that smoking, poor glycemic control, low frequency of DM reexamination as well as TB contact may increase the risk of having TB in diabetic patients, while BMI  $\geq$ 24 and high education level showed a negative association with TB in DM. Our results provide insights to targeting DM populations prone to TB, which may be of great significance in halting TB epidemic in countries with the double burden of TB and DM. Further studies are warranted to confirm our findings, especially in prospective design and elucidate the potential mechanisms.

Table 3.	Conditional	logistic reg	ression	of risk	factors	of TB in DM

	Univariable		Multivariable	
	OR (95% CI)	р	OR (95% CI) <sup>†</sup>	p
Married	0.29 (0.12-0.73)	< 0.01	/	/
Education level, n (%)				
$\leq$ primary school	Ref.		Ref.	
middle school	0.48 (0.24-0.95)	< 0.05	0.36 (0.10-1.29)	0.12
≥ college	0.26 (0.10-0.64)	< 0.01	0.11 (0.02-0.51)	< 0.01
Poor glycemic control <sup>‡</sup>	2.36 (1.32- 4.22)	< 0.01	2.66 (1.19-5.96)	< 0.05
Hypertension	0.51 (0.32- 0.82)	< 0.01	/	/
BMI <sup>†</sup>				
<24	Ref.		Ref.	
≥24	0.37 (0.23-0.61)	< 0.01	0.42 (0.19-0.88)	< 0.05
Frequency of reexamination				
≥1 time/year	Ref.		Ref.	
<1 time/year	5.97 (3.09-11.5)	< 0.01	3.39 (1.40-8.21)	< 0.01
Lymphocytopenia <sup>§</sup>	2.36 (1.10-5.09)	< 0.05	/	/
Hypoproteinemia <sup>¶</sup>	2.51 (1.16-5.41)	< 0.05	/	/
Accumulated infections in the last year				
0	Ref.		/	/
1~2 times	1.84 (1.11-3.05)	< 0.05	/	/
$\geq$ 3 times	2.64 (1.22-5.73)	< 0.05	/	/
TB contact history	4.49 (1.97-10.2)	< 0.01	11.7 (2.39-56.9)	< 0.01
Ventilation in the kitchen				
no	Ref.			
kitchen ventilator	0.47 (0.23-0.98)	< 0.05	/	/
$\mathbf{Smoking}^{\dagger\dagger}$				
no smoking	Ref.		Ref.	
ex-smoker	4.05 (1.52-10.8)	< 0.05	6.95 (1.55-31.1)	< 0.05
current smoker	7.10 (3.34-15.1)	< 0.01	12.5 (3.91-39.6)	< 0.01
Drinking <sup>‡‡</sup>				
no drinking	Ref.		/	/
ex-drinker	0.42 (0.12-1.49)	0.18	/	/
current drinker	3.04 (1.66-5.58)	< 0.01	/	/
Regular exercise <sup>§§</sup>	0.39 (0.24-0.66)	< 0.01	/	/

DM: diabetes mellitus; TB: tuberculosis; BMI: body mass index.

<sup>†</sup>Estimate of risk factor of TB in DM patients after multiple imputation.

<sup>‡</sup>FPG>130 mg/dL (7.22 mmol/L) was defined as poor glycemic control.

<sup>§</sup>lymphocytopenia was defined as TLC<1.0×10<sup>9</sup>/L.

<sup>¶</sup>Hypoproteinemia was defined as serum albumin ≤35g/L.

<sup>††</sup>Participants who smoked  $\geq$ 100 cigarettes in previous years and continued smoking were defined as current smokers; those who smoked more than 100 cigarettes previously while ceased in the last year were defined as ex-smoker; secondary smoker referred to those who did not smoke themselves but exposed to cigarette smoking in the environment frequently.

<sup>‡‡</sup> Those who consumed alcohol at least once a week and 25 g hard liquor ( $\geq$ 42°), 50 g light liquor ( $\leq$ 42°), a pint of beer or 150g wine or 40g spirits each time in the past and continued drinking alcohol were considered as current alcohol drinker.

<sup>§§</sup>Regular exercise was defined as  $\geq$ 3 times/wk physical activities such as running, jogging, walking, swimming, bicycling, and at least 10 minutes each time during the last 6 months.

# AUTHOR DISCLOSURES

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This study is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC, No. 81472983). The authors are grateful for support provided by the staff and participants in Qingdao Chest Hospital and the affiliated hospital of Qingdao University.

# REFERENCES

- Jeon CY, Murray MB. Diabetes mellitus increases the risk of active tuberculosis: a systematic review of 13 observational studies. PLoS Med. 2008;5:e152. doi: 10. 1371/journal.pmed.0050152.
- Al-Rifai RH, Pearson F, Critchley JA, Abu-Raddad LJ. Association between diabetes mellitus and active tuberculosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2017;12:e0187967. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0187967.
- Oni T, Berkowitz N, Kubjane M, Goliath R, Levitt NS, Wilkinson RJ. Trilateral overlap of tuberculosis, diabetes and HIV-1 in a high-burden African setting: implications for

TB control. Eur Respir J. 2017;50:1700004. doi: 10.1183/13993003.00004-2017.

- Koesoemadinata RC, McAllister SM, Soetedjo NNM, Febni Ratnaningsih D, Ruslami R, Kerry S et al. Latent TB infection and pulmonary TB disease among patients with diabetes mellitus in Bandung, Indonesia. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg. 2017;111:81-9. doi: 10.1093/trstmh/trx015.
- Wang Q, Ma A, Han X, Zhao S, Cai J, Ma Y et al. Prevalence of type 2 diabetes among newly detected pulmonary tuberculosis patients in China: a community based cohort study. PLoS One. 2013;8:e82660. doi: 10. 1371/journal.pone.0082660.
- WHO. Global tuberculosis report 2017. [cited: 2021]; Available from: https://www.who.int/teams/globaltuberculosis-programme/tb-reports.
- Liu M, Liu SW, Wang LJ, Bai YM, Zeng XY, Guo HB et al. Burden of diabetes, hyperglycaemia in China from to 2016: Findings from the 1990 to 2016, global burden of disease study. Diabetes Metab. 2019;45:286-93. doi: 10.1016/j. diabet.2018.08.008.

- Bygbjerg IC. Double burden of noncommunicable and infectious diseases in developing countries. Science. 2012; 337:1499-501. doi: 10.1126/science.1223466.
- Sullivan T, Ben Amor Y. The co-management of tuberculosis and diabetes: challenges and opportunities in the developing world. PLoS Med. 2012;9:e1001269. doi: 10. 1371/journal.pmed.1001269.
- Baghaei P, Tabarsi P, Marjani M, Moniri A, Masjedi MR. Screening for diabetes mellitus in tuberculosis patients in a referral center in Iran. Infect Dis (Lond). 2015;47:472-6. doi: 10.3109/23744235.2015.1018317.
- Abdelbary BE, Garcia-Viveros M, Ramirez-Oropesa H, Rahbar MH, Restrepo BI. Tuberculosis-diabetes epidemiology in the border and non-border regions of Tamaulipas, Mexico. Tuberculosis (Edinb). 2016;101s: s124-s34. doi: 10.1016/j.tube.2016.09.024.
- 12. Kumpatla S, Sekar A, Achanta S, Sharath BN, Kumar AM, Harries AD, Viswanathan V. Characteristics of patients with diabetes screened for tuberculosis in a tertiary care hospital in South India. Public Health Action. 2013;3(Suppl 1):S23-8. doi: 10.5588/pha.13.0035.
- Viswanathan V, Kumpatla S, Aravindalochanan V, Rajan R, Chinnasamy C, Srinivasan R, Selvam JM, Kapur A. Prevalence of diabetes and pre-diabetes and associated risk factors among tuberculosis patients in India. PLoS One. 2012;7:e41367. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0041367.
- Hayashi S, Chandramohan D. Risk of active tuberculosis among people with diabetes mellitus: systematic review and meta-analysis. Trop Med Int Health. 2018;23:1058-70. doi: 10.1111/tmi.13133.
- Leung CC, Lam TH, Chan WM, Yew WW, Ho KS, Leung GM et al. Diabetic control and risk of tuberculosis: a cohort study. Am J Epidemiol. 2008;167:1486-94. doi: 10.1093/ aje/kwn075.
- Dobler CC, Flack JR, Marks GB. Risk of tuberculosis among people with diabetes mellitus: an Australian nationwide cohort study. BMJ Open. 2012;2:e000666. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2011-000666.
- Leegaard A, Riis A, Kornum JB, Prahl JB, Thomsen VO, Sorensen HT, Horsburgh CR, Thomsen RW. Diabetes, glycemic control, and risk of tuberculosis: a populationbased case-control study. Diabetes Care. 2011;34:2530-5. doi: 10.2337/dc11-0902.
- MOH, CDC. Guidelines for the implementation of China's tuberculosis control program (2008). China Union Medical University Press, Beijing. 2009. doi:
- Xu Y, Wang L, He J, Bi Y, Li M, Wang T et al. Prevalence and control of diabetes in Chinese adults. JAMA. 2013; 310:948-59. doi: 10.1001/jama.2013.168118.
- Ozturk AB, Kilicaslan Z, Issever H. Effect of smoking and indoor air pollution on the risk of tuberculosis: smoking, indoor air pollution and tuberculosis. Tuberk Toraks. 2014;62:1-6. doi: 10.5578/tt.7013.
- Peter HH, Goldacker S, Haraldseide J, Groãÿmann K, Gross W, Warnatz K et al. Construction and clinical validation of aQuestionnaire-based Risk Score to identify patients suffering from immunodeficiency or sstemic autoimmunity. British Journal of Medicine & Medical Research. 2014;4: 4751-69.
- 22. Lee PH, Fu H, Lai TC, Chiang CY, Chan CC, Lin HH. Glycemic Control and the Risk of Tuberculosis: A Cohort Study. PLoS Med. 2016;13:e1002072. doi: 10.1371/journal. pmed.1002072.
- 23. Giede-Jeppe A, Bobinger T, Gerner ST, Madzar D, Sembill J, Lucking H et al. Lymphocytopenia is an independent predictor of unfavorable functional outcome in spontaneous

intracerebral hemorrhage. Stroke. 2016;47:1239-46. doi: 10. 1161/strokeaha.116.013003.

- Seaman SR, Keogh RH. Handling missing data in matched case-control studies using multiple imputation. Biometrics. 2015;71:1150-9. doi: 10.1111/biom.12358.
- 25. Leung CC, Li T, Lam TH, Yew WW, Law WS, Tam CM et al. Smoking and tuberculosis among the elderly in Hong Kong. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2004;170:1027-33. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200404-512OC.
- Lin HH, Ezzati M, Chang HY, Murray M. Association between tobacco smoking and active tuberculosis in Taiwan: prospective cohort study. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2009; 180:475-80. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200904-0549OC.
- 27. Gleeson LE, O'Leary SM, Ryan D, McLaughlin AM, Sheedy FJ, Keane J. Cigarette smoking impairs the bioenergetic immune response to mycobacterium tuberculosis infection. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol. 2018;59: 572-9. doi: 10.1165/rcmb.2018-0162OC.
- Ronacher K, Joosten SA, van Crevel R, Dockrell HM, Walzl G, Ottenhoff TH. Acquired immunodeficiencies and tuberculosis: focus on HIV/AIDS and diabetes mellitus. Immunol Rev. 2015;264:121-37. doi: 10.1111/imr.12257.
- 29. Kumar NP, Banurekha VV, Nair D, Kumaran P, Dolla CK, Babu S. Type 2 diabetes - Tuberculosis co-morbidity is associated with diminished circulating levels of IL-20 subfamily of cytokines. Tuberculosis (Edinb). 2015;95:707-12. doi: 10.1016/j.tube.2015.06.004.
- 30. Lopez-Lopez N, Martinez AGR, Garcia-Hernandez MH, Hernandez-Pando R, Castaneda-Delgado JE, Lugo-Villarino G et al. Type-2 diabetes alters the basal phenotype of human macrophages and diminishes their capacity to respond, internalise, and control Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz. 2018;113:e170326. doi: 10.1590/0074-02760170326.
- 31. Wang X, Ma A, Han X, Chan L, Liang H, Litifu A, Xue F. T cell profile was altered in pulmonary tuberculosis patients with type 2 diabetes. Med Sci Monit. 2018;24:636-42. doi: 10.12659/msm.905651.
- 32. Restrepo BI, Fisher-Hoch SP, Pino PA, Salinas A, Rahbar MH, Mora F, Cortes-Penfield N, McCormick JB. Tuberculosis in poorly controlled type 2 diabetes: altered cytokine expression in peripheral white blood cells. Clin Infect Dis. 2008;47:634-41. doi: 10.1086/590565.
- 33. Ji Y, Cao H, Liu Q, Li Z, Song H, Xu D, Tian D, Qiu B, Wang J. Screening for pulmonary tuberculosis in high-risk groups of diabetic patients. Int J Infect Dis. 2020;93:84-9. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2020.01.019.
- 34. Baker MA, Lin HH, Chang HY, Murray MB. The risk of tuberculosis disease among persons with diabetes mellitus: a prospective cohort study. Clin Infect Dis. 2012;54:818-25. doi: 10.1093/cid/cir939.
- 35. Pealing L, Wing K, Mathur R, Prieto-Merino D, Smeeth L, Moore DA. Risk of tuberculosis in patients with diabetes: population based cohort study using the UK Clinical Practice Research Datalink. BMC Med. 2015;13:135. doi: 10.1186/s12916-015-0381-9.
- 36. Duangrithi D, Thanachartwet V, Desakorn V, Jitruckthai P, Phojanamongkolkij K, Rienthong S, Chuchottaworn C, Pitisuttithum P. Impact of diabetes mellitus on clinical parameters and treatment outcomes of newly diagnosed pulmonary tuberculosis patients in Thailand. Int J Clin Pract. 2013;67:1199-209. doi: 10.1111/ijcp.12215.
- 37. Yamashiro S, Kawakami K, Uezu K, Kinjo T, Miyagi K, Nakamura K, Saito A. Lower expression of Th1-related cytokines and inducible nitric oxide synthase in mice with streptozotocin-induced diabetes mellitus infected with

Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Clin Exp Immunol. 2005;139: 57-64. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2249.2005.02677.x.

- 38. Leung CC, Lam TH, Chan WM, Yew WW, Ho KS, Leung G et al. Lower risk of tuberculosis in obesity. Arch Intern Med. 2007;167:1297-304. doi: 10.1001/archinte.167.12. 1297.
- Lin HH, Wu CY, Wang CH, Fu H, Lonnroth K, Chang YC, Huang YT. Association of obesity, diabetes, and risk of tuberculosis: two population-based cohorts. Clin Infect Dis. 2018;66:699-705. doi: 10.1093/cid/cix852.
- Lonnroth K, Williams BG, Cegielski P, Dye C. A consistent log-linear relationship between tuberculosis incidence and body mass index. Int J Epidemiol. 2010;39:149-55. doi: 10. 1093/ije/dyp308.
- 41. Faurholt-Jepsen D, Range N, Praygod G, Jeremiah K, Faurholt-Jepsen M, Aabye MG et al. Diabetes is a risk factor for pulmonary tuberculosis: a case-control study from Mwanza, Tanzania. PLoS One. 2011;6:e24215. doi: 10. 1371/journal.pone.0024215.