- 1 The burden of tuberculosis in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam: A spatial analysis of
- 2 drug-susceptible and multi-drug resistant cases between 2020 and 2023
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- 17 Article summary line: Drug-susceptible and multi-drug resistant tuberculosis in Ho Chi Minh
- 18 City Vietnam exhibit substantial spatial heterogeneity with overlapping hot spots of disease
- 19 incidence concentrated in the centre of the city.

20 Running title: TB spatial heterogeneity Ho Chi Minh City

Keywords: Tuberculosis, Multi-drug resistant tuberculosis, Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh City, Spatial
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23 Author bio

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29

30 Abstract

We characterised the spatial distribution of drug-susceptible (DS) and multi-drug resistant 31 32 (MDR) tuberculosis (TB) cases in Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC), a major South-East Asian 33 metropolis, and explored demographic and socioeconomic factors associated with local TB 34 burden. Hot spots of DS- and MDR-TB incidence were observed in the central parts of 35 HCMC, with substantial heterogeneity observed across wards. Positive spatial 36 autocorrelation was observed for both DS- and MDR-TB. Ward-level TB incidence was 37 associated with HIV prevalence (incidence rate ratio [IRR] 1.77, 95% CI 1.54-2.03) and the 38 male proportion of the population (IRR 1.05, 95% CI 1.02-1.08). No ward-level demographic 39 and socioeconomic indicators were associated with MDR-TB case count relative to total TB 40 case count. Our findings may inform spatially-targeted TB control strategies and provide

- 41 insights for generating hypotheses about the nature of the relationship between DS- and
- 42 MDR-TB in HCMC, Vietnam and the wider South-East Asia region.

43 Word count: 147

44 Introduction

45 Tuberculosis (TB) causes more deaths worldwide than any other pathogen. Progress in 46 reducing the global burden of TB stalled during the COVID-19 pandemic and an estimated 47 10.6 million people fell ill from TB in 2021, with 1.6 million dying(1). The number of people 48 with multi-drug resistant TB (MDR-TB), defined by resistance to rifampicin and isoniazid, is 49 estimated to have grown by 3.1% from 2020(1), with an estimated 450,000 incident cases in 50 2021. MDR-TB remains underdiagnosed and is associated with worse treatment outcomes 51 than drug-susceptible TB (DS-TB) (1,2). 52 TB is not only spatially heterogeneous globally, but also locally. Just 30 low-and-middle-53 income countries (LMICs) account for nearly 90% of the global burden of disease(1), but an 54 unequal distribution of disease has been described more locally too (3-12). Although poorly 55 understood, the drivers of geographical heterogeneity in TB are thought to reflect the 56 complex interplay between the infectious and susceptible host, the infecting organism, the 57 physical environment and distal determinants like poverty(13).

The World Health Organisation (WHO) recognises Vietnam as a high-burden country for TB and MDR-TB, with an estimated incidence of 173 (95% CI 112-247) and 9.1 (95% CI 5.5-13) per 100,000 population, respectively (1,14). The highest incidence is seen in the southern parts of the country, especially in Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC)(15,16). As anywhere else, patients with MDR-TB in HCMC can have acquired their disease in one of two ways: through selection of drug resistance mutations whilst receiving first-line TB drug treatment, or directly from others through transmission(17). Comparison of the spatial distributions of DS- 65 and MDR-TB across this high-incidence city has the potential to offer insights into the 66 relative contributions of each to MDR-TB burden. For example, the observation of distinct 67 spatial distributions of DS- and MDR-TB may support the hypothesis that MDR-TB is 68 transmitted in networks independent from circulating DS-TB. Alternatively, sporadic MDR-TB 69 cases among clusters of DS-TB cases may be more indicative of de novo emergence of MDR-70 TB through inadequate treatment and selection. Better understanding hyper-local patterns 71 of disease may also contribute to spatially-targeted interventions, such as active case finding 72 and healthcare facility planning (18-21), and to the design of and recruitment into clinical 73 trials and other studies.

In this study we aimed to characterise the spatial distribution of DS- and MDR-TB in HCMC
 and to explore demographic and socioeconomic factors associated with local TB burden.

76 Methods

77 Study setting

HCMC is the largest metropolis in Vietnam and one of the largest in South-East Asia with a total population approximating 10 million people. It is subdivided into 24 districts, 19 urban and 5 rural (Figure S1), of which 3 were combined to form a municipal city, Thủ Đức City, in 2021. HCMC's districts are further subdivided into 322 administrative sub-units consisting of wards, townlets and communes with a median population of approximately 22,000 people (hereafter collectively referred to as wards). This study includes data prior to 2021 and therefore references the former, 24-district sub-division of HCMC. Public sector community-based TB care in HCMC is coordinated through 24 district
treatment units (DTUs) where individuals with suspected TB are referred for testing and
treatment. Once diagnosed with TB, patients are registered with the National TB Program
(NTP). All individuals diagnosed with MDR-TB in the public sector initiate treatment through
the city's lung hospital, Phạm Ngọc Thạch (PNTH), and then continue outpatient care
through the DTUs. PNTH is the regional centre for MDR-TB treatment in Southern Vietnam
and provides treatment to approximately 80% of all MDR-TB cases in Vietnam(22).

92 Study population

The study population included all individuals who registered for TB treatment in the public sector in 23 of HCMC's districts from 1 January 2020 to 30 April 2023. The study excludes TB cases from Cần Giờ, a rural district comprised of 7 wards with a population of 71,527 people (0.8% of HCMC's population)(23), as data were not available for this district. For the ecological analysis, 315 residential wards constituting 23 of HCMC's districts formed the units of analysis.

99 Data sources

Data for participants with DS-TB were accessed from the Vietnam TB Information
Management Electronic System (VITIMES), a web-based surveillance system which records
TB notifications and treatment outcomes for the NTP(24). VITIMES includes data on all
people in HCMC initiated on first-line TB therapy in the public sector. At treatment initiation,
patient details are added to a paper-based register which is electronically transcribed by
DTU staff at monthly intervals. Data extracted from the electronic register for this study

included participant age, sex, home address, HIV status and history of previous TB. Data for
participants with MDR-TB were obtained from an ongoing cohort study conducted through
the Oxford University Clinical Research Unit (OUCRU). Participants included all individuals
initiating treatment for MDR-TB at PNTH. The OUCRU cohort study database was selected
over the NTP-based register as the data source for MDR-TB cases as it provided identical
case coverage to the NTP-based register, with less missing data.

112 District and ward-level demographic and socioeconomic indicators were obtained from 113 published regional data collected as part of the 2019 Vietnam census(23). Extracted 114 indicators which were available at only the district level included: population age structure, 115 unemployment rate, the proportion of households that owned a computer and the number 116 of people living with HIV. All wards within a district were assigned the district value for 117 indicators available only at the district level. For example, District 1 had an HIV prevalence of 118 1.5% and this value for HIV prevalence was subsequently assigned to each of District 1's 119 constituent wards. Extracted indicators which were available at the ward level included total 120 population, population by sex, population density, average number of people per household, 121 literacy rate and residence type (urban or rural). Location was labelled as 'city centre' if 122 wards were located in HCMC's central commercial, commuting and socialising hubs and 123 labelled as 'peripheral' if wards were located outside these areas (Supplementary methods).

124 **Design and analysis**

125 Individual-level data were used for a descriptive, cross-sectional analysis of the burden of TB
126 in HCMC and the characteristics of TB cases. An ecological design, using ward-level data, was

used to describe ward-level factors associated with TB burden. The outcomes for the
ecological analysis were a) total TB incidence and b) burden of MDR-TB relative to total TB.

129 **Descriptive analysis**

Participant characteristics were summarised with mean and standard deviation (SD) for continuous variables and as counts and proportions for categorical variables. Participant home addresses were deidentified and converted to latitude and longitude coordinates using the Google geocoding service and the "tidygeocoder" package in R(25). Spatial polygons for the administrative units of HCMC were obtained from the Database of Global Administrative Areas(26). Individual TB cases were mapped and aggregated by ward, and average annual incidence of DS- and MDR-TB calculated for each.

137 Spatial autocorrelation

138 The presence, strength and direction of spatial autocorrelation over the entire study area 139 was assessed separately for DS- and MDR-TB incidence through the calculation of the global Moran's I statistic. Local spatial autocorrelation in these parameters was assessed through 140 141 the calculation of the Getis-Ord Gi* statistic and Anselin Local Moran's I. The Getis-Ord Gi* 142 statistic was used to define spatial hot spots and cold spots relative to the null hypothesis of 143 spatial randomness over the entire study area. In this analysis, each ward was considered in 144 the context of its neighbouring wards, forming a neighbourhood. The local sum of the values 145 for the given parameter (e.g., DS-TB incidence) for each of the wards in a neighbourhood 146 was then compared proportionally to the sum of the parameter values for all the wards in 147 the study area. Neighbourhoods with statistically significant higher parameter values than

148 the entire study area were designated hot spots and neighbourhoods with statistically 149 significant lower parameter values than the entire study area were designated cold 150 spots(27). The analysis using Anselin Local Moran's I value further compared each ward to its 151 neighbourhood. Wards with high parameter values within neighbourhoods with high values 152 were designated high-high clusters, wards with high values within neighbourhoods with low 153 values were designated high-low outliers, wards with low values within neighbourhoods 154 with low values were designated low-low clusters and wards with low values within 155 neighbourhoods with high values were designated low-high outliers (28). False Discovery 156 Rate Correction for multiple testing and spatial dependency was applied to both local spatial 157 autocorrelation analyses.

158 Ecological analysis

159 Continuous ward-level indicators were summarised with mean and SD or median and 160 interquartile range (IQR) depending on skew. Categorical indicators were summarised as 161 counts and proportions. Exploratory analyses evaluated the relationship between ward-level 162 demographic and socioeconomic indicators and a) total TB incidence and b) MDR-TB case 163 count relative to total TB case count. Univariate associations between ward-level indicators 164 and the natural logarithm of total TB incidence were assessed through the inspection of 165 scatter plots and the calculation of Spearman's rho for continuous indicators and by the 166 Wilcoxon rank-sum test and ANOVA for categorical indicators. Continuous indicators with 167 non-linear associations with the outcome were categorised into tertiles. Indicators 168 associated with total TB incidence with p-value <0.05 were included in a multivariable 169 negative binomial regression model for each outcome. Ward-level TB incidence was

170 modelled by including ward-level TB case count as the dependent variable with an offset 171 term for ward population. Ward-level MDR-TB case count as a proportion of all TB cases was 172 modelled using MDR-TB case count as the dependent variable with an offset term for total 173 TB case count. Visualisation of spatial autocorrelation in the residuals for each negative 174 binomial regression model (measured using Moran's I) demonstrated positive spatial 175 autocorrelation in the residuals for both models, violating the assumption of independence. 176 To account for this, a spatially autocorrelated random effects term (using the centroid of 177 each ward as latitude and longitude) assuming a Matérn covariance structure was added to 178 each model. Additional assumptions including the absence of multicollinearity and 179 inequality in outcome means and variances were also assessed. Model fit, for the mixed-180 effects models and standard models, was compared using Akaike information criterion (AIC) 181 and scatter plots of the observed versus fitted values.

182 A sensitivity analysis estimated the association between ward-level demographic and 183 socioeconomic indicators and both outcomes using conditional autoregressive modelling. In 184 contrast to the main analysis, in which spatial information was formatted as point data (i.e., 185 latitude and longitude coordinates for the centroid of each ward), in the sensitivity analysis 186 spatial information was reformatted as areal data, with each ward represented by a spatial 187 polygon surrounded by an administrative boundary. Ward neighbours were defined by 188 contiguity in administrative boundaries and neighbourhood lists were converted to an 189 adjacency matrix using binary weights to signify the presence (1) or absence (0) of a 190 neighbour. The adjacency matrix was incorporated into the negative binomial regression 191 model as a random effects term in order to account for spatial autocorrelation between 192 neighbouring wards.

- 193 All statistical analyses were conducted with R Studio(29). The calculation of spatial statistics
- and mapping was conducted with ArcGIS Online(30).

195 **Ethical considerations**

196 This study was approved by the Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee (reference

197 number 51-19) and the Institutional Review Board at Phạm Ngọc Thạch Hospital (643/PNT198 HDDD).

199 **Results**

200 **Descriptive analysis**

201 Between 1 January 2020 and 30 April 2023, 36,089 people registered for DS-TB treatment 202 and 1,451 people registered for MDR-TB treatment in HCMC. 49 participants with DS-TB 203 (0.1%) and 12 participants with MDR-TB (0.8%) provided residential addresses outside of 204 HCMC and were excluded from the spatial analysis. Most participants were male (N=25,463 205 [68%]), 30,268 (81%) were urban dwelling and the mean age was 45 (SD 16.5) (Table 1). HIV 206 co-infection was present in 5% of all participants (N=1,692), with this proportion similar for 207 both DS- and MDR-TB groups. Previous TB infection was reported by 4,721 (13%) of the 208 participants treated for DS-TB and 795 (55%) of the participants treated for MDR-TB, 209 although it is unknown how many of these previous infections were due to drug-resistant TB. Among 31,999 cases with no history of TB previously, 640 (2%) were registered for MDR-210 211 TB treatment while 772 (14%) cases of the 5,516 cases with a history of previous TB were 212 registered for MDR-TB treatment. Asymmetric population pyramids demonstrated a greater

- 213 DS- and MDR-TB burden among men in middle to late-middle age, although the sex
- distributions were more symmetrical below age 40 (Figure 1). The average annual incidence
- of notified DS-TB and MDR-TB in HCMC during this period was 121.4 (95% CI 119.1-123.7)
- 216 and 4.8 (95% CI 4.4-5.4) per 100,000, respectively.
- 217

Characteristic	Drug-susceptible TB	Multi-drug resistant TB	Overall
Characteristic	(N=36089)	(N=1451)	(N=37540)
Age, mean (SD)	44.9 (16.6)	45.7 (14.1)	44.9 (16.5)
Sex, n (%)			
Female	11,732 (32.5%)	385 (26.5%)	12,117 (32.3%)
Male	24,357 (67.5%)	1,066 (73.5%)	25,423 (67.7%)
HIV status, n (%)			
Negative	27,745 (76.9%)	1,333 (91.9%)	29,078 (77.5%)
Positive	1,609 (4.5%)	83 (5.7%)	1,692 (4.5%)
Unknown	6,735 (18.7%)	35 (2.4%)	6,770 (18.0%)
Previous TB history, n (%)			
No	31,344 (86.9%)	655 (45.1%)	31,999 (85.2%)
Yes	4,721 (13.1%)	795 (54.8%)	5,516 (14.7%)
Unknown	24 (0.1%)	1 (0.1%)	25 (0.1%)
Residence type, n (%)			
Urban	29,086 (80.6%)	1,182 (81.5%)	30,268 (80.6%)
Rural	6,948 (19.3%)	246 (17.0%)	7,194 (19.2%)

Table 1: Characteristics of individuals registered for TB treatment in Ho ChiMinh City from 1 January 2020 to 30 April 2023, stratified by TB type.

218 HIV - human immunodeficiency virus, SD - standard deviation, TB - tuberculosis.

219 Figure 1: Population pyramids demonstrating age and sex distributions of participants

220 registered for drug-susceptible and multi-drug resistant tuberculosis treatment in Ho Chi

221 Minh City, 1 January 2020 to 30 April 2023. DS TB - drug-susceptible tuberculosis, MDR TB -

222 multi-drug resistant tuberculosis.

223 Substantial spatial heterogeneity in both DS- and MDR-TB average annual incidence was

observed across HCMC wards (Figures 2 and 3). DS-TB incidence (per 100,000) ranged from

225 26.7 in Bình Lợi (District Bình Chánh) to 1,345.3 in An Khánh (District 2). Thirty-two wards
226 recorded 0 MDR-TB cases during the study period while Ward 8 (District 11) demonstrated
227 an MDR-TB incidence of 31.7 per 100,000. In the overall study population, 3.9% (3.7-4.1) of
228 all TB cases were treated for MDR-TB.

Figure 2: Choropleth map displaying the geographic variation in average annual incidence
 per 100,000 for drug-susceptible tuberculosis, subdivided by ward, from 1 January 2020 to
 30 April 2023. Map does not include Cần Giờ district. TB – tuberculosis.

Figure 3: Choropleth map displaying the geographic variation in average annual incidence

per 100,000 for multi-drug resistant tuberculosis, subdivided by ward, from 1 January 2020

to 30 April 2023. Map does not include Cần Giờ district. TB - tuberculosis.

235 Spatial autocorrelation

236 The global Moran's I statistic was 0.14 (p < 0.001) for both DS-TB incidence and MDR-TB 237 incidence - demonstrating weak positive global spatial autocorrelation for each parameter. This demonstrated that, over the entire study area, wards with similar values for the above 238 239 parameters (e.g., similar DS-TB incidences) were located closer to each other than would be 240 expected if the wards were randomly arranged (i.e., there was evidence of some spatial clustering for each parameter). The global Moran's I, however, provided no information 241 242 about where these clustered wards were located or how the clustering of DS-TB related to 243 the clustering of MDR-TB. Figure 4 presents the results of the hot spot analysis, using the 244 Getis-Ord Gi* statistic. Hot spots were evident in the central parts of HCMC for both DS and 245 MDR-TB. Cold spots were observed to the north of the city centre. Like the hot spots, the

246 DS- and MDR-TB cold spots largely overlapped spatially. Figure 5 uses Anselin Local Moran's I 247 to demonstrate wards in which TB incidence was congruent with the surrounding 248 neighbourhood (clusters) and wards in which TB incidence contrasted the surrounding 249 neighbourhood (outliers). Heterogeneity in incidence, for both DS- and MDR-TB, was evident 250 even within hot spots and cold spots. Indeed, for DS-TB, most of the wards in the city centre 251 hot spot, when considered separately from their neighbourhood, were low-high outliers 252 (wards situated within hot spot neighbourhoods but with low incidences relative to the 253 overall study area). A greater number of the wards that constituted the MDR-TB hot spot 254 were high-high clusters (incidence values congruent with those of the surrounding 255 neighbourhood), indicating more homogeneity within the MDR-TB hot spots. 256 Figure 4: Spatial clustering of drug-susceptible TB incidence and multi-drug resistant TB

incidence in Ho Chi Minh City from 1 January 2020 to 30 April 2023, based on the Getis-

Ord GI* statistic. DS-TB – drug-susceptible tuberculosis, MDR-TB – multi-drug resistant
tuberculosis.

Figure 5: Spatial clusters and outliers of drug-susceptible TB incidence and multi-drug
 resistant TB incidence in Ho Chi Minh City from 1 January 2020 to 30 April 2023, based on
 the Anselin Local Moran's I statistic. DS-TB - drug-susceptible tuberculosis, MDR-TB - multi drug resistant tuberculosis.

264 Ward-level factors associated with TB burden

Surprisingly, wards in the highest tertile of TB incidence had the lowest male proportion of
the population (47.6%) although the range of male proportion of the population between

267 wards in the highest and lowest tertiles of TB incidence was small (47.6-48.1%). Literacy rate 268 (98.8%), the proportion of homes that owned a computer (65.2%), but also the lowest 269 unemployment rate (2.8%) were also lowest in these wards (Table 2). These wards had the 270 highest proportion of the population aged 30 to 59 (45.5%), population density (32,117 271 people/ km^2), number of people per household (3.6 people) and HIV prevalence (0.9%). 272 Indicators significantly associated with TB incidence in the univariate analyses, and 273 subsequently included in the final multivariable models, included the male proportion of the 274 population, proportion of the population aged 30 to 59, average number of people per 275 household, literacy rate, unemployment rate and HIV prevalence (Supplementary Results). 276 In a multivariable negative binomial regression model with mixed-effects, in contrast to the 277 unadjusted association, the male proportion of the population was significantly associated 278 with total TB incidence (incidence rate ratio [IRR] 1.05, 95% CI 1.02-1.08) while each 279 percentage increase in HIV prevalence was associated with a 77% increase in TB incidence 280 (IRR 1.77, 95% CI 1.54-2.03) (Table 3). None of the selected indicators were significantly 281 associated with MDR-TB case counts relative to total TB case counts. The mixed-effects 282 models including spatially autocorrelated random effects terms demonstrated better fit than 283 the standard models and estimates from the sensitivity analysis were similar to the main 284 analysis (Supplementary Results).

	Overall TB incidence			
	1 st tertile Median incidence = 84/100,000 (N=105)	2 nd tertile Median incidence = 120/100,000 (N=105)	3 rd tertile Median incidence = 187/100,000 (N=105)	Overall (N=315)
Male proportion of population, mean (SD)	48.1 (1.86)	48.2 (1.82)	47.6 (2.78)	48.0 (2.21)
Proportion of population aged 30 to 59, mean (SD)	44.1 (2.23)	44.2 (2.02)	45.5 (1.52)	44.6 (2.04)
Residence type, n (%)				
Urban	86 (81.9%)	89 (84.8%)	88 (83.8%)	263 (83.5%)
Rural	19 (18.1%)	16 (15.2%)	17 (16.2%)	52 (16.5%)
Location, n (%)				
City centre	23 (21.9%)	22 (21%)	24 (22.9%)	69 (22%)
Peripheral	82 (78.1%)	83 (79%)	81 (77.1%)	246 (78%)
Total population	26,050 (12,402-40,289)	25,575 (13,354-42,067)	16,911 (11,190-25,068)	22,383 (12,397-36,880)
Population density (people/km²), median (IQR)	27,537 (9,203-44,241)	20,810 (6,323-41,535)	32,117 (13,005-46,854)	27,781(8,233-44,812)
Average number of people per household, mean (SD)	3.51 (0.319)	3.55 (0.269)	3.62 (0.321)	3.56 (0.307)
Literacy rate, median (IQR)	99.3 (98.7-99.6)	99.3 (98.7-99.6)	98.8 (97.7-99.3)	99.2 (98.5-99.6)
Unemployment rate, mean (SD)	3.25 (1.17)	3.10 (1.05)	2.76 (0.747)	3.04 (1.02)
Proportion of homes that own a computer, median (IQR)	71.7 (55.4-77.6)	71.0 (59.3-76.5)	65.2 (59.3-73.2)	71.0 (59.3-76.3)
HIV prevalence, median (IQR)	0.49 (0.34-0.84)	0.48 (0.34-0.93)	0.93 (0.45-1.29)	0.49 (0.36-0.95)

Table 2: Ho Chi Minh City ward-level demographic and socioeconomic indicators stratified by tertilesof overall tuberculosis incidence

Table 2: Ho Chi Minh City ward-level demographic and socioeconomic indicators stratified by tertilesof overall tuberculosis incidence

		Overall TB	incidence	
Ν	1 st tertile ⁄Iedian incidence = 84/100,000 (N=105)	2 nd tertile Median incidence = 120/100,000 (N=105)	3 rd tertile Median incidence = 187/100,000 (N=105)	Overall (N=315)

HIV – human immunodeficiency virus, IQR – interquartile range ,km – kilometre, SD – standard deviation, TB - tuberculosis

Table 3: Adjusted incidence rate ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the association between ward-level indicators and a) total TB incidence and b) MDR-TB case count relative to total TB case count

Indicator	Total TB incidence	MDR-TB case count (relative to total TB case count)
Male proportion of population (%)	1.05 (1.02-1.08)	0.99 (0.94-1.05)
Proportion of population aged 30-59 (%)	1.02 (0.99-1.04)	1.03 (0.98-1.08)
Average number of people per household	1.13 (0.98-1.31)	0.97 (0.76-1.25)
Literacy rate		
1 st tertile	1 (reference)	1 (reference)
2 nd tertile	1.06 (0.96-1.18)	1.05 (0.89-1.26)
3 rd tertile	0.96 (0.86-1.07)	1.01 (0.83-1.25)
Unemployment rate (%)	0.96 (0.92-1.00)	0.95 (0.87-1.03)
HIV prevalence (%)	1.77 (1.54-2.03)	1.08 (0.85-1.38)

286 HIV – human immunodeficiency virus, MDR-TB – multi-drug resistant tuberculosis, TB - tuberculosis

287 **Discussion**

This study characterises the burden of TB in HCMC, with granular, ward-level descriptions of
DS- and MDR-TB burden. Both DS- and MDR-TB were heterogeneously distributed
throughout HCMC, forming geographic clusters of high incidence, predominantly
concentrated in the city's centre. Total TB incidence at the ward level was strongly
associated with HIV prevalence and more weakly associated with the proportion of the
population that is male.

294 The asymmetric age and sex distributions among TB cases in HCMC we describe are 295 consistent with the findings from the second Vietnamese national TB prevalence survey, in 296 which the prevalence of bacteriologically confirmed TB was 4 times greater in males than 297 females and increased with age(31). Studies from Vietnam have also demonstrated a greater 298 prevalence of latent TB in men compared to women(32). The magnitude of this difference in 299 prevalence by sex is smaller in latent TB than for active TB, however, emphasising the 300 importance of sex differences in the risk factors for disease progression. A recent sub-study 301 from the national TB prevalence survey specifically noted the stark differences in the 302 prevalence of smoking (45% of males versus 1% of females)(33) and drinking (44% of males 303 versus 1% of females)(34) in Vietnam as likely contributors to observed differences in the 304 prevalence of active TB by sex(35). Sex differences, for both latent and active disease, 305 remain incompletely understood but likely reflect the complex interplay between biological, 306 behavioural and environmental factors(36). We demonstrated a 5% greater TB incidence per 307 percentage increase in the proportion of the population that is male, suggesting sex-specific 308 differences in risk may manifest at the population level.-

309 We observed a 5% prevalence of TB-HIV co-infection, approximating previous regionally-

310 representative estimates (14,37). We also observed that TB incidence was substantially

311 greater with each percentage increase in HIV prevalence, emphasising the potential

312 contribution of HIV to the TB epidemic, even in settings with relatively low HIV prevalence.

313 Our incidence estimates for both DS- and MDR-TB, derived from TB notifications, are 314 markedly lower than the WHO's estimates for Vietnam (TB and MDR-TB incidence 173 and 315 9.1 per 100,000, respectively)(14), despite evidence that HCMC has some of the highest TB 316 incidences in the country(15,16). The WHO estimates are derived from multiple data sources 317 including prevalence surveys, case notification data, expert opinion about case detection 318 gaps, and dynamic modelling(38). The differences between our incidence estimates likely 319 reflect a limitation of this study: the 'diagnostic gap' - the difference between the true 320 number of people who fell ill with TB and the number of people who were registered for TB 321 treatment(1). The diagnostic gap is a well-described barrier to TB control in Vietnam and has 322 recently been exacerbated by COVID-19-related health system disruptions, with less than 323 50% of predicted TB cases enrolled on treatment in 2021(1).

Interestingly, TB incidence in HCMC was not associated with measures of poverty (literacy rates, unemployment rates and the proportion of homes owning a computer – a proxy for material wealth) despite this being a well-established risk factor(39). The central concentration of the burden of TB in HCMC was instead, in our data, related to factors such as sex distribution and HIV prevalence. This lack of association may reflect the poor representation of poverty and social deprivation by the variables included in our analysis (i.e., literacy rates are high across HCMC, even in poorer and rural areas[23]). It may also be that rapid 'equitable', economic growth in Vietnam, coupled with a reduction in TB
prevalence over the last 20 years, contributed to a reduction of the concentration of TB
among poor households(40).

334 Our spatial analysis demonstrated substantial overlap in geographic clusters of DS- and 335 MDR-TB incidence, raising interesting questions about the relationship between DS- and 336 MDR-TB burden. These findings may be consistent with the hypothesis that drug resistance 337 largely emerges from DS-TB de novo, with the distributions of DS-and MDR-TB therefore 338 related. Alternatively, the overlapping distributions may also be consistent with the 339 hypothesis that most MDR-TB is transmitted and that factors associated with the 340 transmission of TB in general are geographically clustered. The lack of association between 341 any demographic and socioeconomic indicators and MDR-TB burden relative to total TB 342 burden we describe potentially supports the latter hypothesis. Ultimately, it is likely that 343 both *de novo* and transmitted resistance contribute to MDR-TB burden. The enrichment of spatial data with genetic data will better demonstrate the relative contributions of each 344 345 mechanism(41).

This study has several limitations. We utilised public sector registry data to identify TB cases
and therefore excluded people with undiagnosed TB, potentially biasing our sample
selection towards groups who are more likely to present when symptomatic. Furthermore,
we had no data on private-sector TB diagnoses – estimated to represent 8% of all TB cases in
HCMC(42). Participants in our study were only geolocated through their home addresses,
however, several studies have demonstrated the importance of transmission outside of the
home with the emergence of genetic data demonstrating geographically unrelated, cryptic

transmission networks mediated by mobility-linked locations in high-burden settings(43,44).
Future work on the transmission of TB in HCMC will benefit from whole genome sequencingderived genetic data being generated by a parallel, related study. The degree to which our
findings are relevant to other settings is uncertain, but it is likely the dynamics in HCMC are
not markedly different from other major cities with similar economic metrics in South-East
Asia where nearly half the world's TB patients reside(1).

359 Our study nevertheless characterises the demographic profile of people with DS- and MDR-360 TB in HCMC and maps parts of the city most impacted. Our findings provide a starting point 361 for deeper research into TB acquisition and transmission dynamics and spatially-informed TB 362 control interventions in HCMC, Vietnam and the greater South-East Asia region.

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480 Supporting information

481 Figure S1: Ho Chi Minh City administrative boundaries, subdivided by district. 1 to 12 -

482 Districts 1 to 12, BT - Bình Tân, BTH - Bình Thạnh, , GV - Gò Vấp , TB - Tân Bình, TD - Thủ Đức,

483 TP - Tân Phú (all urban). BC - Bình Chánh, CC - Củ Chi, CG - Cần Giờ, HM - Hóc Môn, NB - Nhà
484 Bè (all rural).

485 Figure S2a: Scatter plots demonstrating univariate associations between ward-level

486 demographic and socioeconomic indicators and the natural logarithm of total TB

487 **incidence.** Plots include robust line of best fit and Spearman correlation coefficient with

488 corresponding p-value. A – the proportion of the population that is male, B – the proportion

489 of the population aged 30 to 59, C - average number of people per household, D -

490 unemployment rate, E - HIV prevalence. HIV - human immunodeficiency virus, TB -

491 tuberculosis.

492 Figure S2b: Scatter plots demonstrating univariate associations between ward-level

493 demographic and socioeconomic indicators and the natural logarithm of proportion of all

494 cases that are MDR-TB. Plots include robust line of best fit and Spearman correlation

495 coefficient with corresponding p-value. A – the male proportion of the population, B – the

496 proportion of the population aged 30 to 59, C – population density, D – average number of

497 people per household, E – literacy rate, F – unemployment rate, G – the proportions of

498 households that own a computer, H - HIV prevalence. HIV - human immunodeficiency virus, TB -

499 tuberculosis

- 500 Figure S3: Scatter plots of fitted versus observed values for 4 negative binomial regression
- **models.** Plots include line of best fit.
- **Table S1: Adjusted incidence rate ratios and 95% confidence**
- 503 intervals for the association between ward-level indicators and a)
- **total TB incidence and b) MDR-TB case count relative to total TB**
- **case count, derived from sensitivity analysis.**