**‘Paper 1’**

**Title:** Guidance for the evaluation of TB diagnostics that meet the WHO target product profiles: An introduction to WHO process and study design principles

**Running Title:** Introduction to study design guidance series

**Summary:** High-priority target product profiles (TPPs) of the World Health Organization establish important needs for TB diagnostic development. Here we provide study guidance to inform WHO evidence review for accuracy studies of novel diagnostic products that meet TPPs.

Claudia M. Denkinger MD PhD1,9, Samuel G. Schumacher PhD1, Christopher Gilpin PhD2, Alexei Korobitsyn MD2, William A. Wells PhD3, Madhukar Pai MD PhD4, Mariska Leeflang PhD5, Karen R. Steingart MD MPH6, Michelle Bulterys BA1,7, Holger Schünemann MD, PhD8, Philippe Glaziou MD2, Karin Weyer DSc2

1 FIND, Geneva, Switzerland

2 World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland

3 USAID, Washington, DC, USA

4 McGill International TB Centre & Department of Epidemiology, Biostatistics, and Occupational Health, McGill University, Montreal, Canada

5 University of Amsterdam, Department of Clinical Epidemiology, Biostatistics and Bioinformatics, Amsterdam, Netherlands

6 Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Liverpool, UK

7 University of Washington School of Public Health, USA

8 Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence and Impact & McMaster GRADE Centre, Hamilton, Canada

9 University of Heidelberg, Centre of Infectious Diseases, Heidelberg, Germany

**Word count (text):** 3,689

**Word count (abstract):** 192

Corresponding author:

Claudia M. Denkinger, MD, PhD

FIND

Campus Biotech, Chemin des Mines 9, 1202 Geneva

P.O. Box 87, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland

Tel: +41 22 749 29 31

Email: [claudia.denkinger@finddiagnostics.org](mailto:claudia.denkinger@finddiagnostics.org)

Alternative corresponding author:

Samuel G. Schumacher, PhD

FIND

Campus Biotech, Chemin des Mines 9, 1202 Geneva

P.O. Box 87, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland

Tel: +41 22 749 29 31

Email: samuel.schumacher@finddiagnostics.org

**Abstract**

Existing high-priority target product profiles (TPPs) of the World Health Organization (WHO) establish important needs for TB diagnostic development. Building on this earlier work, this guidance series aims to provide study guidance for performing accuracy studies of novel diagnostic products that may meet the four high-priority WHO TPPs and thus enable adequate evidence generation to inform a WHO evidence review process. Diagnostic accuracy studies represent a fundamental step in the validation of all tests. Unfortunately, such studies often have limitations in design, execution and reporting, leading to low certainty of the evidence about true test performance, which can delay or impede policy and scale-up decisions.

This introductory paper outlines (I) The purpose of this series of papers on study guidance; (II) WHO evidence needs and process for the development of policy guidelines for new TB diagnostic tests; and (III) Study design considerations; i.e. general diagnostic study considerations, intended use of test and role in the clinical pathway, choice of population and setting, index-test specific issues, suitable reference standard and comparators, study flow and specimen issues, and lastly key issues beyond accuracy that should be considered. The other four papers in this series will provide more detailed guidance for each of the four WHO TPPs.

By increasing the clarity around the clinical evaluation needs for tests that have the potential to meet the TPP specifications, the authors hope to support harmonized evidence generation and enables the WHO review process towards meeting the WHO End TB Strategy targets for reducing the incidence and mortality associated with TB.

**Key words:** Tuberculosis, diagnostics, WHO End TB strategy, target product profiles, TPPs

**I. Introduction**

Tuberculosis (TB) has surpassed Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) as the most common cause of death from an infectious disease in adults globally. In 2017, an estimated 10.0M people developed active TB for the first time, and 1.3M people died from TB [1]. Most deaths would have been avoidable with early diagnosis and correct treatment. Also, with 558,000 new cases of drug-resistant TB each year, the global rise in TB drug resistance contributes significantly to global mortality and is a major health concern.

The World Health Organization (WHO) End TB Strategy has been developed within the context of the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Studies show diagnosis to be one of the weakest links in the TB cascade of care [2-4], and the diagnostic gaps remain greater for TB than for any other infectious disease [1]. Achieving the End TB targets will require improved tests for early and rapid detection of TB and for universal drug susceptibility testing (DST) to reach more patients where they first present to care and to accelerate the decline in TB incidence and mortality.

In 2014, the WHO and its partners defined the highest priority diagnostic needs in TB and the target product profiles (TPPs) for tests to address those needs [5-7]. The highest needs identified were: (1) A rapid sputum-based test for detecting TB at the microscopy-centre level; (2) A rapid biomarker-based non-sputum test for detecting TB; (3) A triage test of referral test for identifying patients suspected of having TB; and (4) A test for rapid drug-susceptibility testing (Box 1). All TPPs focused on point-of-care tests to be implemented in decentralized settings. These important needs of the diagnostics field are still not being met, and new technologies are too slow to emerge, which reflect serious underinvestment as well as to some extent persistent scientific and technical challenges that hinder successful development of new TB diagnostics [8].

The pipelines to address the highest identified needs (a stand-alone non-sputum based point-of-care test or a point-of-care triage/rule-out test) is particularly meagre. These tests would help to close the diagnostic gap and/or substantially reduce the cost of diagnosis, which has been identified as a major barrier to the uptake of existing tests.

Diagnostic accuracy studies represent a fundamental step in the validation of all tests. At the same time, diagnostic trials to generate evidence for global policy often have been perceived as a hurdle by industry given the costs and complexities associated with them. Also, such studies often have limitations in design, execution and reporting, leading to low certainty of the evidence about true test performance, which can further drive up cost, delay or impede policy and scale-up decisions. This is a problem for diagnostic test accuracy studies in general (7-10), as well as for studies on TB in particular (11-14). Recommendations for reporting and tools to assess risk of bias and applicability of study findings have been developed in response (15,16). However, the existing guidance only provides a general overview of design aspects to consider, without providing specific recommendations applicable to any particular disease or technology (15,16). There is therefore an urgent need for more specific guidance on study design to decrease risk of bias and avoidable heterogeneity.

This series of guidance papers aims to highlight the evidence needs and provide guidance on the design of diagnostic test accuracy studies of tests that meet the high-priority TPPs: (Box 1). The TPPs contain a wide range of requirements for test solutions that need to be considered when designing or evaluating new products. The diagnostic accuracy of a test is arguably the most fundamental attribute that needs to be established to allow assessment of its potential value; without good accuracy, other outcomes such as clinical impact or cost-effectiveness cannot be determined. It is also more challenging to evaluate reliably than other important test attributes such as for example test operational characteristics. Thus, this guidance series focuses on this important aspect. We do not address how other product characteristics should be measured (although we do provide references to existing guidance for other aspects where available).

**II. WHO process for the development of policy guidelines for new TB diagnostic tests**

Within WHO, the review of data on new TB diagnostic tests is performed by WHO’s Global TB Programme (GTB) [9]. The WHO Prequalification Process does not yet apply to TB given that most TB tests have single source manufacturers employing unique technologies. This might change in the future, particularly as more tests meeting the same TPP come to the market.

There are two principal ways in which WHO approaches the review of data on TB diagnostics: (1) For the review of a truly new diagnostic technology or a novel or expanded intended use, WHO convenes a Guideline Development Group (GDG) to evaluate a body of evidence using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) approach; and (2) For the revision of existing guidance, either a GDG is convened or a Technical Expert Group (TEG) consultation is used to assess technical documentation that allows the TEG to refine an existing WHO policy guideline [10].

The outcome of a GDG meeting is a new or updated WHO Guideline, while the outcome of a TEG consultation is a WHO Technical Report. Examples for diagnostic tests that have recently undergone the two different pathways are: A review of the first and second-line Line Probe Assays were reviewed in a GDG in 2016, which resulted in a diagnostic guideline that was issued in parallel with the guideline for the use of short-course multi-drug resistant therapy [11-13]. Furthermore, the Xpert MTB/RIF Ultra, a next-generation test following the Xpert MTB/RIF, was assessed for equivalent performance in a TEG consultation in 2017. A formal GDG process will be held in 2019 to refine and update the current guidelines [14]. In order for a diagnostic test to be added to the WHO’s Model List of Essential In Vitro Diagnostics (EDL), it must have been recommended for use following a WHO Guideline Development Group. WHO will update the EDL on an annual basis to include new diagnostics that have been assessed via the robust evaluation process [15].

The Foundation for Innovative New Diagnostics (FIND), a WHO collaborating centre that evaluates new diagnostic technologies, updates the WHO Global TB Programme on the TB diagnostics pipeline on a regular basis [8]. If new versions of WHO-recommended assays are available, WHO needs to be provided with data that demonstrate the equivalence of performance by the manufacturer. All diagnostic policy guidelines are reviewed as new evidence becomes available and these are normally updated every three to five years.

In advance of a WHO GDG or TEG meeting, all available evidence on a product is identified and synthesized in a systematic review (and meta-analysis, if appropriate). Alternatively, it is possible for sufficient evidence to be provided by a single multi-centre study of high quality that is conducted with the specific objective to assess a particular technology in sites representative of the global TB epidemic as done for the Xpert MTB/RIF Ultra [14].

The data necessary for WHO review (Table 1) need to come from: (1) an analytical validation; (2) a clinical validation compared with a reference method [16] (Appendix: Glossary). Analytical validation refers to measuring accuracy, precision, and reproducibility of the test in contrived specimens or panels [17]. This work often confirms assessments done already by the diagnostic manufacturers, in the hands of an independent evaluator and may allow researchers to reduce the sample size needed in prospective clinical studies that assess clinical validity. For example, testing strains that harbour key drug-resistance conferring mutations can be an efficient way to assess performance of drug-resistance assays and can reduce (but not eliminate) the need for directly testing clinical specimens. Well-characterised frozen specimens may also be used to complement prospective clinical studies, recognizing the fact that the frozen samples have the limitation of the altered matrix. Clinical validation refers to a prospective clinical study, that assesses the accuracy with which a test identifies a patient’s clinical status [18].

While data on analytical and clinical validation will always be necessary, the evaluation of clinical utility (e.g. impact of a diagnostic test on patient important outcomes such as time to treatment initiation or mortality) in demonstration studies is not always performed in advance of a first WHO evidence review [18, 19]. While such demonstration studies certainly add important information for implementation considerations, they are often only considered following a first WHO review in order not to delay introduction of an assay. Furthermore, clinical utility is best assessed if a test is utilized for clinical care, which is not possible prior to a regulatory approval. The decision, if a demonstration study is necessary in advance of a first WHO review lies with WHO but evidence of clinical utility is typically most critical for “disruptive technologies” that lead to important changes in clinical pathways. For example, implementing a triage test meeting the TPP characteristics would dramatically change algorithms and be employed in settings where currently no diagnostic testing for TB is performed. Thus, an accuracy study is unlikely to paint the whole picture necessary to guide introduction of such an assay. In contrast, a new molecular TB detection assay replacing an existing molecular TB detection assay is unlikely to need a demonstration study in addition to an accuracy study. Obviously, the need for a demonstration study has financial implications to companies. That being said, studies for innovative technologies are often grant funded.

Key data needs (Table 1) for a GDG review align with those of stringent regulatory authorities (SRAs), such as the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA), European Commission CE-marking under the new directive, and the Global Harmonization Task Force (GHTF) [20-22]. Thus, much of the evidence generated for a WHO policy development process can be utilized in parallel for a CE submission or similar regulatory process, in order to avoid delays in guideline development and regulatory approval. A WHO review, while assessing similar data as the SRAs, in addition considers the specific patient population targeted by the guideline, the level of the health system for implementation and the needs and challenges in high-burden countries with varying epidemiology of HIV-associated TB and MDR-TB. A WHO review also includes consideration of patient values and preferences, resource use, feasibility, acceptability, and equity [23].

The evidence generated for a GDG meeting will be subject to a GRADE assessment, which rates the certainty (also called “quality”) of the scientific evidence in diagnostic trials which have been synthesized in systematic reviews and allow for the development of evidence-based recommendations in guidelines with a process that is fully documented and transparent [24]. GRADE’s four categories of certainty of evidence (very low, low, moderate, high) imply increasing confidence in estimates of the effect of a diagnostic test or strategy on proportions of true and false positives, true and false negatives.Within the GRADE framework, evidence is graded based on study design, risk of bias, indirectness, imprecision, inconsistency, indirectness, and other considerations, such as publication bias [25]. The often indirect impact of diagnostic tests on patient-important outcomes (such as mortality) is acknowledged in this framework and in the stakeholder community at large [26, 27].

**III. Study design considerations**

Diagnostic test accuracy studies need to conform with agreed-upon principles that consider ethics, design, conduct and reporting (Table 2) [28]. Specifically, studies need to be designed with consideration of Good Clinical Practice to ensure that the rights, safety, and well-being of research subjects are protected and respected, consistent with the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Helsinki and other internationally recognized ethical guidelines [29, 30]. The study design should minimize the risk of bias across the four key domains identified within the QUADAS-2 tool: patient selection, index test, reference standard and flow and timing [31]. The reporting of the diagnostic accuracy studies that assess clinical validity should follow the Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies (STARD) guidance to ensure that all essential information about the study is provided [32]. Systematic reviews should follow standard methods such as those described by Cochrane [33], and be reported using the PRISMA guideline [34, 35]. Useful guidance is also available from the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality [33, 36].

This guidance series will focus on the trial needs to address analytical and clinical validity for the four high-priority TPPs that can substantially improve the currently existing TB diagnostic cascade (Box 1). The structure of the papers on the guidance for studies for tests meeting the individual TPPs is described in Table 3. In brief, all

papers will focus on (1) the intended use of the test and its implication for the study design; (2) General study design considerations; (3) Choice of population and setting; (4) Issues pertaining to the index test itself; (5) Reference standard and comparators; (5) Flow and specimen issues; and lastly (6) key issues beyond accuracy that should be considered. General considerations and definitions applicable to all tests are addressed in more detail in this paper.

1. *Intended use*

Based on the STARD reporting and GRADE approach to rating certainty and developing recommendations, the "intended use of the test” is defined as a combination of the use case (i.e. whether the index test is used for diagnosis, screening, staging, prediction, or other reasons) and which populations, clinical settings, and interventions the test intends to target [19, 37, 38]. It is crucial to define the objective intent of the test in a clear and comprehensive statement which encompasses these various elements. These conditions will ultimately drive clinical study design to assess the test’s performance (how well it achieves its intended purpose) and inform the review process for policy [39].

1. *General study design considerations*

The diagnostic accuracy studies for the first 3 TPPs (papers 2-4) should be a cross-sectional study of either a consecutive series or a random sample of unselected patients who require evaluation for TB. For a study to assess DST, the study design depends on whether the test is intended to be a follow-on test after *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) has already been identified, or whether it also aims to be a simultaneous test of TB detection and DST. This will also define the study population. Sample size and the role of analytical data and banked specimens will vary by the diagnostic test evaluated and are addressed in the subsequent papers

1. *Choice of population and setting*

For studies evaluating tests that aim to identify TB disease, the initial study population is adults with respiratory symptoms suggestive of TB. In peripheral settings of care, patients might present with early forms of disease if access to care is readily available. This might have an impact on the test performance (accuracy) and also on the prevalence and predictive values of a test (relevant for GRADE). However, clinical validity studies as described here might not provide a full picture of this complexity as the studies will often need to be conducted in settings in higher levels of care to provide a highly-controlled environment for the clinical study and reference standard as otherwise the data generated on accuracy will be difficult to interpret. While demonstration studies will be able to adequately reflect upon these differences in patient populations, they will typically not have the reference standard to highlight the differences.

Given the large percentage of patients with TB/HIV co-infection that forms part of the global TB epidemic, patients living with HIV should be included as part of the study for all test types and should be analysed as a sub-group. For tests that assess samples other than sputum (triage test and non-sputum biomarker-based detection test), patients who have symptoms suggestive of extra-pulmonary TB should also be considered, provided a sufficient reference standard (likely a composite reference standard based on microbiological tests, radiology, pathology and clinical characteristics) can be established. The same applies to paediatric TB cases, where the additional complexity with regards to the reference standard often limits the inclusion into the clinical validity study (see also more detailed discussion in ‘Paper 3’) Nevertheless, all efforts should be made to include children, as they are a vulnerable and neglected group [24].

When a WHO evaluation process relies on evidence from only one large multi-centre study for clinical validity, it is particularly important that the study assess the novel technology using a standardized protocol and reference standard, in sites representative of the global TB epidemic, ideally in countries/settings that are archetypal for the region, in order to help support broad generalisability of the findings. Several such multi-centre studies have been conducted and used for WHO policy development [13, 14].

1. *Index test*

Study design considerations with regards to the index test are highly dependent on the biomarker and test platform (see specifics in following papers).

1. *Reference standard and comparators*

A microbiological reference standard remains the best available reference standard for tuberculosis. At a minimum, a single liquid sputum culture (with speciation) should be considered. Optimally, two liquid cultures on two separate samples, provided on two separate days, would be done for all patients. This is particularly important as the sensitivity of novel tests is approaching that of culture and false positive index-test results need to be ruled out. However, the pitfalls of culture as a reference standard are numerous and should be considered carefully: (1) Culturing methodology in itself is highly complex and prone to variability and error (e.g. over-decontamination), which can result in misclassification; (2) Conceivably, biomarkers that detect non-pathogen markers might detect earlier stages of disease that are not yet culture positive or extrapulmonary TB that is not captured by a sputum culture; (3) Accuracy estimates can only be compared between studies if the number and type (liquid versus solid) of cultures are the same. The same considerations apply to the subanalysis of data, i.e. data can only be compared if the subgroups have been defined the same way. For example estimates of sensitivity by smear-status can differ widely depending on whether one or multiple smears, or Ziehl-Neelsen light microscopy or fluorescence microscopy, have been used to define smear-status [14]. Similarly, an analysis of paediatric TB can vary depending on how the composite reference standard has been defined. Prior to starting a study, researchers should also carefully consider any additional work-up needed (and predefine it in the operating procedures and analysis plan) to resolve discrepant results (e.g. sequencing of amplicons or DNA extracts of a molecular test or repeat testing of left over samples). Again this is getting increasingly important as novel tests are reaching close to the sensitivity estimates of the reference standard or the reference standard itself is getting questioned (as it is the case for phenotypic DST) [40].

Composite reference standards, including additional testing from non-sputum samples and/or clinical diagnosis, may need to be considered particularly for non-sputum-based tests for MTB detection. Statistical techniques (e.g. latent class analyses) can also be considered to better handle analysis in the context of an imperfect reference standard [41]. A sequencing reference standard (alone or in combination with a phenotypic reference standard depending on the drug evaluated) should be considered for studies on DST.

Using WHO-recommended tests as comparator tests (e.g. Xpert MTB/RIF in the assessment of other molecular tests used to MTB detection) allows for benchmarking against a test with the same intended use for which a large evidence base exists. This can also protect against the risk of spectrum bias. Note that comparators should not be part of the reference standard although their results can aid interpretation of results that are discordant between index test and reference standard.

1. *Flow and specimen issues*

Depending on the index test and planned comparator tests, the study flow needs special consideration. Ideally, the index test, comparator test and reference standard should be performed on the same specimen. However, this might lead to high specimen volume requirements, which can result in biasing the study population (e.g. patients with paucibacillary disease are unlikely to produce high-volume samples).

1. *Key issues beyond accuracy*

While accuracy is a key piece of evidence, the assessment of operational characteristics of a diagnostic test (e.g., the time taken to perform the test, its technical simplicity or ease of use, and user acceptability), the connectivity solutions and training materials are important as well [23, 42]. These assessments should be part of an accuracy study, although it must be acknowledged that the users in the context of an accuracy evaluation will likely be more trained and experienced, and there will be fewer challenges on connectivity than in real-world implementation. Thus, such an assessment should be repeated as part of a demonstration study. Other aspects such as feasibility and equity, also form part of the criteria for formulating recommendations according to the GRADE Evidence to Decision Frameworks [19]. The effect of tests on intermediate outcomes that imply impact on patient outcomes (e.g. reduced time to diagnosis and treatment) also needs to be considered. However, this is better performed in the context of a demonstration study where the test is used for patient care (i.e. after regulatory or policy approval for clinical use), which is often not the case in the context of initial accuracy evaluations. Economic analyses should also be part of the assessment to inform the WHO policy process [43, 44].

While a WHO recommendation on a diagnostic test carries a lot of weight, and enables procurement of a product with funding from the Global Fund, translation of global policy into actionable implementation plans at the country level often requires additional in country studies. Therefore, specific country and donor engagement plans are required to ensure translation of global policy into actionable implementation plans [45].

**Conclusion**

This introduction paper sets the stage for papers 2-5 of this series of TPP study design guidance documents. Study design considerations differ greatly depending on the TPP and these considerations are addressed in detail in the subsequent papers. The series aims to increase clarity around the clinical evaluation needs for tests that have the potential to meet the target product profile specifications published by the WHO [5, 7] with the goal to facilitate the evaluation of such tests and move the field forward towards meeting the WHO End TB Strategy targets [46].

Acknowledgements:

The authors do not have a commercial or other association that might pose a conflict of interest to the publication of this work.

This supplement is sponsored by FIND (Foundation for Innovative New Diagnostics) and was made possible through the generous support of the Governments of the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Germany and Australia.

WAW is employed by the US Agency for International Development (USAID), Washington DC, USA. The views and opinions expressed in this article are those of the author and not necessarily the views and opinions of USAID.

**Box and Tables**

Box 1: Papers included in this Guidance Series

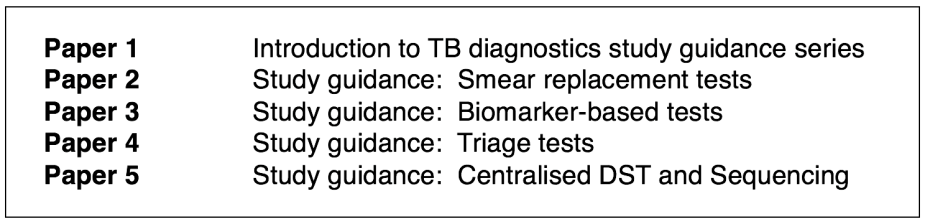


Table 1: Types of data needed and key questions

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Data needs** | **Key questions** | **Sources of evidence** |
| **Analytical validity** | Can analyte(s) be measured accurately and reliably? | Lab studies using contrived specimens, strains and panels |
| **Clinical validity** | What is the clinical sensitivity and specificity for detection of the target condition (measured via the reference standard)? | Prospective diagnostic accuracy studies on clinical specimens and studies on well-characterized banked specimens |
| **Clinical utility**  (patient impact) | Does testing improve patient outcomes? | Clinical pathway analysis, modeling, randomized controlled trials, quasi-experimental studies |
| **Epidemiologic utility** (population impact) | Does testing improve disease epidemiology? | Modelling, observational (time trend) studies |
| **Economic outcomes** | Is use of the test cost-effective and affordable? | Costing studies, cost-effectiveness analyses, budget impact analyses |
| **Operational / implementation aspects** | Can the test be effectively used and integrated into systems and algorithms? Can equitable access to testing be ensured? | Assessment of operational characteristics, operational research, implementation science, health systems research |
| **Values and Preferences** | How does the testing address values and preferences of patients and operators? | Qualitative research |

Table 2: Sources for guidance

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Source** | **Information provided** | **Reference #** |
| **ICH & GCP** | General considerations for ethics and conduct | [30] |
| **QUADAS-2** | Tool for assessment of risk of bias (and for planning to prevent it) | [31] |
| **DEEP** | Guidance on conduct of infectious disease diagnostics studies | [28] |
| **STARD** | Reporting guidance | [37] |
| **Cochrane Handbook, AHRQ Methods Guide, PRISMA-P** | Guidance for conducting systematic reviews of diagnostic test accuracy | [33]  [32][35] |
| **PRISMA and PRISMA-DTA** | Guidance for reporting systematic reviews of diagnostic test accuracy | [34, 47] |
| **GRADE and EtD** | Evidence review for policy making | [19, 23-26] |

Table 3: Main paper sections for each TPP

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Main paper sections for each TPP** | **Sub-Sections/Main Topics within each section** |
| **Introduction** | * Intended use (purpose) * Role (the position of the index test relative to existing tests for the same condition within the same clinical setting) * Clinical pathway * Existing tests and pipeline |
| **General study design considerations** | * Design and sampling * Sample size * Role of analytical data and banked specimens |
| **Population & setting** | * Target population & important subgroups * Setting of recruitment (level of health care system) * Factors that may lead to variability in accuracy estimates |
| **Index test** | * Study design issues pertaining to particular tests or class of tests * Setting of testing (usability by intended user etc.) |
| **Reference standard and comparators** | * Reference standard   + Recommendations for reference standard   + Limitations of the reference standard   + Factors that may lead to variability in accuracy estimates * Comparators |
| **Flow and specimen issues** | * Specimen and specimen collection issues * Sample flow |
| **Key issues beyond accuracy** | * Assessment of other TPP characteristics * Impact studies & benefits/harms not captured by accuracy studies |

**References**

1. World Health Organization. Global Tuberculosis Control: WHO report 2018. Geneva: World Health Organization, **2018**.

2. Subbaraman R, Nathavitharana R, Satyanarayana S, et al. The Tuberculosis Cascade of Care in India’s Public Sector: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. PLoS Med **2016**; 13.

3. Alsdurf H, Hill P, Matteelli A, Getahun H, Menzies D. The cascade of care in diagnosis and treatment of latent tuberculosis infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Inf Dis **2016**; 16:1269-78.

4. Naidoo P, Theron G, Rangaka M, et al. The South African Tuberculosis Care Cascade: Estimated Losses and Methodological Challenges. J Inf Dis **2017**:S702-S13.

5. Denkinger CM, Dolinger D, Schito M, et al. Target Product Profile of a Molecular Drug-Susceptibility Test for Use in Microscopy Centers (Supplement Article). J Inf Dis **2015**; 211:S39-49.

6. Kik SV, Denkinger CM, Casenghi M, Vadnais C, Pai M. A sputum-based molecular TB test and a biomarker-based, non-sputum assay are high-priority target product profiles. Eur Respir J **2014**; 44:537-40.

7. World Health Organization (WHO). Global TB Programme Meeting Report: High-priority target product profiles for new tuberculosis diagnostics: report of a consensus meeting (28-29 Apr 2014, Geneva, Switzerland), **2014**.

8. Foundation for Innovative Diagnostics (FIND). FIND Tuberculosis Dx Pipeline Tracker. Available at: <https://www.finddx.org/tb/pipeline/>. Accessed May 16, 2018.

9. World Health Organization. Compendium of WHO guidelines and associated standards: ensuring optimum delivery of the cascade of care for patients with tuberculosis. Vol. 2nd edition, **2018**.

10. World Health Organization. Development of tuberculosis diagnostics - Advice to manufacturers. Geneva.

11. Nathavitharana RR, Cudahy PGT, Schumacher SG, Steingart KR, Pai M, Denkinger CM. Accuracy of line probe assays for the diagnosis of pulmonary and multidrugresistant tuberculosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Eur Respir J **2017**; 49.

12. Theron G, Peter J, Richardson M, Warren R, Dheda K, Steingart K. GenoType® MTBDRsl assay for resistance to second-line anti-tuberculosis drugs. Cochrane Library **2016**.

13. World Health Organization (WHO). Xpert MTB/RIF: WHO Policy update and Implementation manual. Available at: <http://www.who.int/tb/laboratory/xpert_launchupdate/en/>. Accessed May 16, 2018.

14. Dorman SE, Schumacher SG, Alland D, et al. Xpert MTB/RIF Ultra for detection of Mycobacterium tuberculosis and rifampicin resistance: a prospective multicentre diagnostic accuracy study. Lancet Infect Dis **2018**; 18:76-84.

15. World Health Organization (WHO). Executive Summary: World Health Organization Model List of Essential In Vitro Diagnostics First Edition (2018) Report of the first Strategic Advisory Group on In Vitro Diagnostics (SAGE-IVD). WHO headquarters, Geneva, 16–20 April 2018. : WHO, **2018**.

16. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO Handbook for Guideline Development, 2nd edition, **2014**:1-167.

17. Burd EM. Validation of laboratory-developed molecular assays for infectious diseases. Clinical microbiology reviews **2010**; 23:550-76.

18. Burke W. Clinical validity and clinical utility of genetic tests. Curr Protoc Hum Genet **2004**; Chapter 9:Unit9 15.

19. Schunemann HJ, Mustafa R, Brozek J, et al. GRADE Guidelines: 16. GRADE evidence to decision frameworks for tests in clinical practice and public health. J Clin Epidemiol **2016**; 76:89-98.

20. European Commission. Regulatory Framework - The New Regulations on Medical Devices. Available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/growth/sectors/medical-devices/regulatory-framework_en>. Accessed May 18, 2018.

21. U.S. Department of Health & Human Services: U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA). The 510(k) Program: Evaluating Substantial Equivalence in Premarket Notifications 510(k) Guidance for Industry and Food and Drug Administration Staff. Available at: <https://www.fda.gov/downloads/MedicalDevices/DeviceRegulationandGuidance/GuidanceDocuments/UCM284443.pdf>.

22. Global Harmonization Task Force (GHTF). Clinical Evidence for IVD medical devices - Key Definitions and Concepts, **2012**.

23. Schunemann HJ, Wiercioch W, Brozek J, et al. GRADE Evidence to Decision (EtD) frameworks for adoption, adaptation, and de novo development of trustworthy recommendations: GRADE-ADOLOPMENT. J Clin Epidemiol **2017**; 81:101-10.

24. Schünemann HJ, Oxman AD, Brozek J, et al. GRADE: grading quality of evidence and strength of recommendations for diagnostic tests and strategies. BMJ **2008**; 336:1106-10.

25. Alonso-Coello P, Schünemann HJ, Moberg J, et al. GRADE Evidence to Decision (EtD) frameworks: a systematic and transparent approach to making well informed healthcare choices. 1: Introduction. BMJ **2016**; 353.

26. Guyatt GH, Oxmanc AD, Schunemann HJ, Tugwelld P, Knottneruse A. GRADE guidelines: A new series of articles in the Journal of Clinical Epidemiology. J Clin Epi **2011**; 64:380-2.

27. Pai M, Schumacher SG, Abimbola S. Surrogate endpoints in global health research: still searching for killer apps and silver bullets? BMJ Global Health **2018**; 3:e000755.

28. TDR Diagnostics Evaluation Expert Panel, Banoo S, Bell D, et al. Evaluation of diagnostic tests for infectious diseases: general principles. Nat Rev Microbiol **2010**; 8(12 Suppl):S17-29.

29. World Health Organization (WHO). Handbook for good clinical research practice (GCP): guidance for implementation. Available at: <http://www.who.int/iris/handle/10665/43392>. Accessed May 18, 2018.

30. International Council for Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH). Integrated Addendum to ICH E6(R1): Guideline for Good Clinical Practice, **2016**.

31. Whiting PF, Rutjes AWS, Westwood ME, et al. QUADAS-2: A Revised Tool for the Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies. Ann Intern Med **2011**; 155(8):529-36.

32. Bossuyt PM, Reitsma JB, Bruns DE, et al. STARD 2015: an updated list of essential items for reporting diagnostic accuracy studies. BMJ **2015**; 351.

33. Cochrane Methods Screening and Diagnostic Tests. Handbook for DTA Reviews. Available at: <http://methods.cochrane.org/sdt/handbook-dta-reviews>. Accessed May 16, 2018.

34. Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, Group P. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. PLoS Med **2009**; 6:e1000097.

35. Moher D, Shamseer L, Clarke M, et al. Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. Syst Rev **2015**; 4:1.

36. U.S. Department of Health & Human Services Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ). Training Modules for the Systematic Reviews Methods Guide. Available at: <https://effectivehealthcare.ahrq.gov/topics/cer-methods-guide/slides-2010/>. Accessed May 16, 2018.

37. Bossuyt P, Reitsma J, Bruns D, et al. STARD 2015: an updated list of essential items for reporting diagnostic accuracy studies. BMJ **2015**; 351.

38. Guyatt GH. GRADE guidelines: 8. Rating the quality of evidence - indirectness. J Clin Epi **2011**; 64:1303-10.

39. Burd E. Validation of Laboratory-Developed Molecular Assays for Infectious Diseases. Clinical microbiology reviews **2010**; July 2010:550-76.

40. Van Deun A, Aung KJ, Bola V, et al. Rifampin drug resistance tests for tuberculosis: challenging the gold standard. J Clin Microbiol **2013**; 51:2633-40.

41. Schumacher SG, van Smeden M, Dendukuri N, et al. Diagnostic Test Accuracy in Childhood Pulmonary Tuberculosis: A Bayesian Latent Class Analysis. American journal of epidemiology **2016**; 184:690-700.

42. Whiting PF, Weswood ME, Rutjes AW, Reitsma JB, Bossuyt PN, Kleijnen J. Evaluation of QUADAS, a tool for the quality assessment of diagnostic accuracy studies. BMC Med Res Methodol **2006**; 6:9.

43. Husereau D, Drummond M, Petrou S, et al. Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS) Statement. Value in Health **2013**; 16:e1-e5.

44. Philips Z, Ginnelly L, Sculpher M, et al. Review of guidelines for good practice in decision-analytic modelling in health technology assessment. Health Technology Assessment 2014 **2004**; 8.

45. Albert H, Nathavitharana RR, Isaacs C, Pai M, Denkinger CM, Boehme CC. Development, roll-out and impact of Xpert MTB/RIF for tuberculosis: what lessons have we learnt and how can we do better? Eur Respir J **2016**; 48:516-25.

46. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO End TB Strategy: Global strategy and targets for tuberculosis prevention, care and control after 2015. Available at: <http://www.who.int/tb/post2015_strategy/en/>. Accessed May 16, 2018.

47. McInnes MDF, Moher D, Thombs BD, et al. Preferred Reporting Items for a Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Diagnostic Test Accuracy Studies: The PRISMA-DTA Statement. JAMA **2018**; 319:388-96.