

Public Health Agence de la santé Agency of Canada publique du Canada

Help the Government of Canada organize its website! Take an anonymous 5-minute survey. <u>Start now</u>.

Home > Laboratory Biosafety and Biosecurity > Biosafety Programs and Resources > Pathogen Safety Data Sheets and Risk Assessment > Mycobacterium Tuberculosis Complex

MYCOBACTERIUM TUBERCULOSIS COMPLEX

PATHOGEN SAFETY DATA SHEET - INFECTIOUS SUBSTANCES

SECTION I - INFECTIOUS AGENT

NAME: *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (including *M. bovis, M. africanum, M. pinnipedii, M. microti, M. caprae* and *M. canettii*)

SYNONYM OR CROSS REFERENCE: TB, Tuberculosis, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (MTBC)

CHARACTERISTICS: These bacteria are acid-fast, aerobic, non-spore forming, non-motile bacteria $(\underline{1})$. They form slightly curved or straight rods which may branch (0.2 to 0.6 µm by 1.0 to 10 µm). They are slow growers, i.e. they require more than 7 days to form colonies when sub cultured on Lowenstein-Jensen medium $(\underline{1})$. *M. tuberculosis* forms off-white, rough colonies on Lowenstein-Jensen solid media $(\underline{1})$. Colonies formed by *M. bovis* are small and rounded with irregular edges on egg based media $(\underline{1})$.

SECTION II - HAZARD IDENTIFICATION

PATHOGENICITY / TOXICITY: Tuberculosis infection can be of many different types. Primary tuberculosis may be asymptomatic and may only be recognized by a positive skin test. Following the inhalation of the bacteria, primary complex develops in the lungs, which usually heals and forms calcifications ⁽²⁾. In 90-95% of the cases, the host immune response generated against the bacteria is capable of limiting its growth and multiplication, leading to a latent infection with no clinical symptoms $(\underline{3})$. It may become progressive in 5-10% of the cases $(\underline{3})$. If the disease becomes progressive, patients present with cough, weight loss, night sweats, low-grade fever, dyspnea, lymphadenopathy, chest pain, and even pneumonia or phthisis $(\underline{1}, \underline{2})$. Along with the formation of the cavernous lesions, primary tuberculosis may also have an exudative course (2). Exudative course involves pleural effusion along with high fever and chest pain (2). The latent infection may develop into active TB in 5-10% of the individuals (4). Extrapulmonary tuberculosis may affect any organ system and may cause cervical lymphadenitis, pleuritis, pericarditis, synovitis, meningitis, and infections of the skin, joint or bones (1, 2). Milliary tuberculosis (disseminated tuberculosis) is characterized by high and sustained fever, night sweats, dry cough, malaise, splenomegaly, and skin lesions. Meningitis (high fever, cranial nerve deficits, and psychic changes) develops in 50% of the cases with a high mortality rate, if left untreated (2). Furthermore, these patients may also develop tuberculous peritonitis with fever, ascites, and increase in abdominal girth (2). Although *M. bovis* infection in humans causes a disease very similar to *M. tuberculosis*, non-pulmonary lesions are more frequent than pulmonary lesions, since *M. bovis* infection is mainly acquired by consuming contaminated milk or meat (4). Farm workers, however, are prone to pulmonary lesions since they are exposed to droplets from the infected cattle (5).

EPIDEMIOLOGY: Tuberculosis is a major health problem worldwide (1). The greatest risk factor for tuberculosis progression from a latent infection to an active one is HIV infection (1). World Health Organization (WHO) reported that in 2008, there were an estimated 8.9–9.9 million incident cases and 9.6–13.3 million prevalent cases of tuberculosis, worldwide (6). They also reported that

tuberculosis infection resulted in 1.1–1.7 million deaths among HIV-negative people and an additional 0.45–0.62 million deaths among HIV-positive people (6). The highest number of estimate cases of tuberculosis occurred in Asia (55% of the total TB cases) and Africa (30% of the total TB cases) (6). The number of reported cases appears to be decreasing in the western hemisphere (3% of the total cases in North America: prevalence of 24 cases/100,000) owing to effective strategies to prevent, detect, and treat the infection, implemented by these countries (1, 6). An estimated 0.5 million cases of MDR-TB (Multiple drug resistant TB) occurred worldwide in 2007, with most cases being reported from India and China (6). WHO also reported an increase in the number of Extensively Drug Resistant TB strains (XDR-TB) cases in the year 2009 (6). In Canada, 1,600 new active and re-treatment tuberculosis (TB) cases (a rate of 4.8/ 100,000) were reported to the Canadian Tuberculosis Reporting System (CTBRS) in 2008 (\mathbb{Z}) . Furthermore, out of the 1359 isolates tested for resistance to anti-tuberculosis drugs, 1.1% were MDR and 0.07% were XDR-TB strains $(\underline{8})$. Incidence of tuberculosis is more concentrated in foreign-born people in Canada (Z). Human tuberculosis due to M. bovis was found among 1.4% of all the tuberculosis cases reported during the period 1995-2005 in the United States (9). Patients not born in the United States, Hispanic patients, patients <15 years of age, HIV infected patients, and patients with extrapulmonary disease were reported to have a higher risk for having infection with *M. bovis* versus *M. tuberculosis* (9).

HOST RANGE: Monkeys, humans, parrots, cattle, sheep, goats, dogs, cats (1, 2).

INFECTIOUS DOSE: *M. tuberculosis* has a very low infectious dose $(\underline{1}, \underline{4})$. The ID₅₀ is estimated to be <10 bacilli in humans $(\underline{1})$.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: Transmission can be nosocomial or airborne (inhalation of droplet nuclei carrying *M. tuberculosis*, which are generated when patients with tuberculosis cough) ⁽¹⁾. Other modes of transmission include exposure to autopsy material, venereal transmission, and even percutaneous transmission (direct injury to the skin and mucous membranes through breaks in skin) ^(10, 11). Infected animals can spread the infection to laboratory workers through aerosols, fomites, bites ⁽¹⁰⁾. Bovine tuberculosis can occur from exposure to infected cattle (airborne, ingestion of raw milk or dairy products) ⁽⁵⁾.

INCUBATION PERIOD: 4-6 weeks $(\underline{2})$. For latent TB infections, 5% of patients develop an active infection within 2 years and 5% develop an infection within their lifetime $(\underline{12})$.

COMMUNICABILITY: Highly communicable. For bovine tuberculosis, infected humans can transmit the disease to cattle and vise versa (2).

SECTION III - DISSEMINATION

RESERVOIR: Humans, and diseased animals (2).

ZOONOSIS: Yes, through monkeys, parrots, cattle, sheep, goat, dogs, cats (2).

VECTOR: None.

SECTION IV- STABILITY AND VIABILITY

DRUG SUSCEPTIBILITY: Pan susceptible tuberculosis is defined as tuberculosis susceptible to all 4 first-line drugs used to treat the disease: isoniazid, ethambutol, rifampin, and pyrazinamide $(\underline{13}, \underline{14})$. *M. bovis* strains are resistant to pyrazinamide, but susceptible to streptomycin $(\underline{2}, \underline{9})$.

DRUG RESISTANCE: Multiple drug resistant TB (MDR-TB) strains of mycobacterium are resistant to at least isoniazid and rifampin $(\underline{13}, \underline{14})$. Extremely drug resistant TB (XDR-TB) is the most severe form of the disease, caused by strains of mycobacteria which are not only resistant to isoniazid and rifampin, but also show resistance to fluroquinolones and at least one of three injectable second line anti-tubercular drugs (amikacin, kanamycin, and/or capreomycin) $(\underline{13}, \underline{14})$.

SUSCEPTIBILITY TO DISINFECTANTS: *Mycobacterium* species show greater resistance to disinfectants than vegetative bacteria (11). *M. tuberculosis* is more resistant than *M. bovis* (15). Amphyl and other phenol soap mixtures and 0.05 % to 0.5% sodium hypochlorite can be used for

surface disinfection (1). *M. tuberculosis* is susceptible to N-dodecyl-1,3-propanediamine supplemented with sodium hydroxide, ethylene oxide, a mixture 7.5% hydrogen peroxide and 0.85% phosphoric acid, phenolics, 0.35% peracetic acid, orthophthaldehyde and superoxidized water (11). Higher concentrations of chlorine are required for efficacy against *M. tuberculosis* (15, 16). A 2% solution of aqueous glutaraldehyde is required to kill *M. tuberculosis* within 10-20 minutes at room temperature (15, 16). A 2% solution of alkaline glutaraldehyde has slower action against *M. tuberculosis* (16). Some disinfectants such as quaternary ammonium compounds, chlorhexidine gluconate, and iodophore have been reported to be ineffective against *M. tuberculosis* (15).

PHYSICAL INACTIVATION: UV light can be used for surface disinfection (1, 11). Most bacteria are sensitive to moist heat (121°C for at least 15 min) (17). Mycobacteria are easily killed by heat (> 65 °C for at least 30 min) (1).

SURVIVAL OUTSIDE HOST: *M. tuberculosis* can survive for months on dry inanimate surfaces (18). *M. bovis* can survive on dry surfaces at 4°C (19). *M. tuberculosis* can survive in cockroach feces for 8 weeks, sputum on carpet (19 days) and wood (over 88 days), moist and dry soil (4 weeks), and in the environment for more than 74 days if protected from light (possibly longer if in feces) (20-23).

SECTION V- FIRST AID / MEDICAL

SURVEILLANCE: Monitor for symptoms. Diagnosis can be done by chest X-ray, direct smear microscopy for detecting acid-fast bacilli, culture of the bacillus from clinical specimens, or by nucleic acid amplification techniques such as PCR, followed by southern blotting (2, 24). Diagnosis of TB infection in asymptomatic individuals can be done using tuberculin skin tests, such as the Mantoux test, or gamma interferon releasing assays (24).

Note: All diagnostic methods are not necessarily available in all countries.

FIRST AID/TREATMENT: New smear or culture positive cases of TB are treated with 4 first-line anti-tuberculosis drugs: oral isoniazid, oral rifampicin, oral pyrazinamide, and oral ethambutol $(\underline{14})$. If the tuberculosis strain is fully susceptible, then treatment is continued with isoniazid and rifampin for an additional 4 months $(\underline{14})$. If the *M. tuberculosis* strain is resistant to the first line drugs, group 2-5 drugs are given according to the drug susceptibility testing of the isolated strains $(\underline{14})$. *M. bovis* is resistant to pyrazinamide, and is thus treated with isoniazid and rifampicin for 9 months $(\underline{2})$.

IMMUNIZATION: Bacille Calmette and Guerin (BCG), is the vaccine currently being used to prevent tuberculosis $(\underline{3})$. It is derived from an attenuated, avirulent strain of *M. bovis*, and is also known as *M. bovis* BCG. It has been shown to be effective in preventing the most severe disseminated forms of disease in children and newborns, but its efficacy against active TB in adults has been challenged $(\underline{3})$. BCG vaccine is successful mainly due to its efficacy in preventing tuberculosis meningitis in children and its safety for use in humans $(\underline{3})$. New live and attenuated strains of *M. tuberculosis*, recombinant BCG strains and subunit vaccines are currently being tested for their efficacy and safety $(\underline{3})$.

PROPHYLAXIS: Isoniazid may be used for prophylaxis in tuberculin-negative individuals who have come into contact with tuberculous individuals $(\underline{2})$. Isoniazid in combination with rifampin should be used for prophylaxis on tuberculin positive, asymptomatic individuals $(\underline{2})$.

SECTION VI-LABORATORY HAZARD

LABORATORY-ACQUIRED INFECTIONS: Incidence of tuberculosis in laboratory workers working with *M. tuberculosis* is three times higher than those not working with the agent (25). More than 200 cases of laboratory acquired infections with *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis* have been reported up to 1999 (26). Up to 1976, 176 cases were reported with 4 deaths (27).

SOURCE/SPECIMENS: Sputum, gastric lavage fluids, cerebrospinal fluids, urine or lesions from a variety of infected tissues (25).

PRIMARY HAZARDS: Nosocomial transmission of the bacteria while working with patients or during handling of clinical specimens, litter from the naturally or experimentally infected animals such as http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/lab-bio/res/psds-ftss/tuber-eng.php

Guinea pigs or mice, and exposure to infectious aerosols generated during manipulation of cultures or during handling infected animals, accidental parenteral inoculation (1, 25, 26).

SPECIAL HAZARDS: Bacilli can survive in heat-fixed smears and may be aerosolized during the preparation of frozen stocks or during manipulation of cultures (25). The annual tuberculin conversion rate is higher among personnel working with infected non human primates than in the general population (25).

SECTION VII-EXPOSURE CONTROLS / PERSONAL PROTECTION

RISK GROUP CLASSIFICATION: Risk group 3 (28).

CONTAINMENT REQUIREMENTS: Containment Level 3 facilities, equipment, and operational practices for work involving infectious or potentially infectious materials, animals, or cultures. Work involving clinical specimens may be done at a lower containment level based on a local risk assessment, and in consultation with the Pathogen Regulation Directorate, Public Health Agency of Canada.

PROTECTIVE CLOTHING: Personnel entering the Containment Level 3 laboratory should remove street clothing and jewellery, and change into dedicated laboratory clothing and shoes, or don full coverage protective clothing (i.e., completely covering all street clothing). Additional protection may be worn over laboratory clothing when infectious materials are directly handled, such as solid-front gowns with tight fitting wrists, gloves, and respiratory protection. Eye protection must be used where there is a known or potential risk of exposure to splashes ⁽²⁹⁾.

OTHER PRECAUTIONS: All activities with infectious material should be conducted in a biological safety cabinet (BSC) or other appropriate primary containment device in combination with personal protective equipment. Centrifugation of infected materials must be carried out in closed containers placed in sealed safety cups, or in rotors that are loaded or unloaded in a biological safety cabinet. The use of needles, syringes, and other sharp objects should be strictly limited. Open wounds, cuts, scratches, and grazes should be covered with waterproof dressings. Additional precautions should be considered with work involving animals or large scale activities ⁽²⁹⁾.

SECTION VIII-HANDLING AND STORAGE

SPILLS: Allow aerosols to settle and, wearing protective clothing, gently cover spill with paper towels and apply an appropriate disinfectant, starting at the perimeter and working towards the centre. Allow sufficient contact time before clean up.

DISPOSAL: All wastes should be decontaminated before disposal either by steam sterilization, incineration or chemical disinfection.

STORAGE: The infectious agent should be stored in a sealed and identified container.

SECTION IX-REGULATORY AND OTHER INFORMATION

REGULATORY INFORMATION: The import, transport, and use of pathogens in Canada is regulated under many regulatory bodies, including the Public Health Agency of Canada, Health Canada, Canadian Food Inspection Agency, Environment Canada, and Transport Canada. Users are responsible for ensuring they are compliant with all relevant acts, regulations, guidelines, and standards.

UPDATED: November 2010

PREPARED BY: Pathogen Regulation Directorate, Public Health Agency of Canada

Although the information, opinions and recommendations contained in this Pathogen Safety Data sheet are compiled from sources believed to be reliable, we accept no responsibility for the accuracy, sufficiency, or reliability or for any loss or injury resulting from the use of the information. Newly discovered hazards are frequent and this information may not be completely up to date.

Copyright © Public Health Agency of Canada, 2010 Canada

REFERENCES:

- Pfyffer, G. E. (2007). *Mycobacterium*: General Characteristics, Laboratory Detection, and Staining Procedures. In P. R. Murray (Ed.), *Manual of Clinical Microbiology* (9th ed., pp. 543-572). Washington D.C.: ASM Press.
- Krauss, H., Schiefer, H. G., Weber, A., Slenczka, W., Appel, M., von Graevenitz, A., Enders, B., Zahner, H., & Isenberg, H. D. (2003). Bacterial Zoonoses. In H. Krauss, H. G. Schiefer, A. Weber, W. Slenczka, M. Appel, A. von Graevenitz, B. Enders, H. Zahner & H. D. Isenberg (Eds.), *Zoonoses: Infectious Diseases Transmissible from Animals to Humans* (Third ed., pp. 216-217). Washington, D.C.: ASM Press.
- 3. Delogu, G., & Fadda, G. (2009). The quest for a new vaccine against tuberculosis. *Journal of Infection in Developing Countries, 3*(1), 5-15.
- Gilchrist, M. J. R. (1995). Biosafety precautions for airborne pathogens. In D. O. Flemming, J. H. Richrdson, J. J. Tulis & D. Vesley (Eds.), *Laboratory Safety: Principles and Practices* (2nd ed., pp. 67-76). Washington D.C.: ASM Press.
- 5. Grange, J. M., Daborn, C., & Cosivi, O. (1994). HIV-related tuberculosis due to Mycobacterium bovis. *European Respiratory Journal*, 7(9), 1564-1566.
- 6. Global Tuberculosis Control: A short update to the 2009 report (2009). . Geneva: WHO.
- 7. Edward, E. (2009). *Tuberculosis in Canada 2008 Pre-release*. Retrieved 3/23, 2010, from http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/tbpc-latb/pubs/tbcan08pre/index-eng.php
- 8. Edward, E. (2009). *Tuberculosis: Drug resistance in Canada, 2008.* Retrieved 3/23, 2010, from http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/tbpc-latb/pubs/tbdrc08/index-eng.php
- Hlavsa, M. C., Moonan, P. K., Cowan, L. S., Navin, T. R., Kammerer, J. S., Morlock, G. P., Crawford, J. T., & LoBue, P. A. (2008). Human tuberculosis due to Mycobacterium bovis in the United States, 1995-2005. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 47(2), 168-175.
- 10. Coggin, J. H. J. (2006). Bacterial Pathogens. In Flemming, D.O., and Hunt, D.L (Ed.), *Biological Safety: Principles and practices* (4th ed., pp. 93-114). Washington D.C.: ASM Press.
- Lauzardo, M. and Rubin, J. (1996). Mycobacterial Disinfection. In S. S. Block (Ed.), *Disinfection, Sterilization, and Preservation* (5th ed., pp. 513-528). Philadelphia P.A.: Lipincott Williams and Wilkins.
- 12. Bronze, M.S., and Greenfield, R.A (Ed.). (2005). *Biodefence Principles and Pathogens* horizon bioscience.
- 13. Jain, A., & Dixit, P. (2008). Multidrug resistant to extensively drug resistant tuberculosis: What is next? *Journal of Biosciences, 33*(4), 605-616.
- 14. Migliori, G. B., D'Arcy Richardson, M., Sotgiu, G., & Lange, C. (2009). Multidrug-Resistant and Extensively Drug-Resistant Tuberculosis in the West. Europe and United States: Epidemiology, Surveillance, and Control. *Clinics in Chest Medicine*, *30*(4), 637-665.
- Best, M., Sattar, S. A., Springthorpe, V. S., & Kennedy, M. E. (1990). Efficacies of selected disinfectants against Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 28(10), 2234-2239.
- 16. Rutala, W. A. (1996). APIC guideline for selection and use of disinfectants. *American Journal of Infection Control, 24*(4), 313-342.
- 17. Pflug, I. J., Holcomb, R. G., & Gomez, M. M. (2001). Principles of the thermal destruction of

microorganisms. In S. S. Block (Ed.), *Disinfection, Sterilization, and Preservation* (5th ed., pp. 79-129). Philadelphia, PA: Lipincott Williams and Wilkins.

- 18. Kramer, A., Schwebke, I., & Kampf, G. (2006). How long do nosocomial pathogens persist on inanimate surfaces? A systematic review. *BMC Infectious Diseases, 6*
- 19. Hirai, Y. (1991). Survival of bacteria under dry conditions; From a viewpoint of nosocomial infection. *Journal of Hospital Infection, 19*(3), 191-200.
- 20. Allen, B. W. (1987). Excretion of viable tubercle bacilli by Blatta orientalis (the oriental cockroach) following ingestion of heat-fixed sputum smears: a laboratory investigation. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, *81*(1), 98-99.
- 21. Rickards, B. R., Slack, F. H., & Arms, B. L. (1909). Longevity of B. Tuberculosis in Sputum. *American Journal of Public Hygiene*, 19(3), 586-594.
- 22. Phillips, C. J., Foster, C. R., Morris, P. A., & Teverson, R. (2003). The transmission of Mycobacterium bovis infection to cattle. *Research in Veterinary Science*, 74(1), 1-15.
- 23. Duffield, B. J., & Young, D. A. (1985). Survival of Mycobacterium bovis in defined environmental conditions. *Veterinary Microbiology*, *10*(2), 193-197.
- 24. Rigouts, L. (2009). Clinical practice : Diagnosis of childhood tuberculosis. *European Journal of Pediatrics, 168*(11), 1285-1290.
- 25. Agent Summary Statements: Bacterial Agents. (1999). In J. Y. Richmond, & R. W. Mckinney (Eds.), *Biosafety in Microbiological and Biomedical Laboratories (BMBL)* (4th ed., pp. 88-117). Washington, D.C.: Centres for Disease Control and Prevention.
- 26. Collins, C. H., & Kennedy, D. A. (1999). Laboratory acquired infections. *Laboratory acquired infections: History, incidence, causes and prevention* (4th ed., pp. 1-37). Woburn, MA: BH.
- 27. Pike, R. M. (1976). Laboratory associated infections: summary and analysis of 3921 cases. *Health Laboratory Science, 13*(2), 105-114.
- 28. Human Pathogens and Toxins Act. S.C. 2009, c. 24. Government of Canada, Second Session, Fortieth Parliament, 57-58 Elizabeth II, 2009, (2009).
- 29. Public Health Agency of Canada. (2004). In Best M., Graham M. L., Leitner R., Ouellette M. and Ugwu K. (Eds.), *Laboratory Biosafety Guidelines* (3rd ed.). Canada: Public Health Agency of Canada.

Date Modified: 2012-09-13