
Understanding the Nursing Management of Tuberculosis

Afaf Almashi Aqayil Alenzi¹, Khalid Alnashmi Alasmar Alfurayji², Fayez Badea Alruwaili³, Tammani Affat D Alruwaili⁴, Aish Rasheed Mohammed Bahkali⁵, Gadah Reden Saad Alharbi⁶, Alshammari, Maali Saud M⁷, Amjad Sharidah Mohammed Alenezi⁸, Mona Saleh Alwabel⁹, Salma Ayed Hulayyil Alfuhigi¹⁰

- 1- Nursing specialist, North Medical Tower at Arar in Saudi Arabia
- 2- Nursing specialist, Eradah Complex for Mental Health-Al-Qurayyat, Saudi Arabia
- 3- Nursing technician, Zulom Health Center, Sakaka, Al-Jouf, Saudi Arabia
- 4- Nursing technician, Al-Jouf Health Cluster, Public Health and Health Programs, Azaz Club, Sakaka, Saudi Arabia
- 5- Nursing technician, Jazan Health Cluster, Jazan, Saudi Arabia
- 6- Nursing technician, Qurtubah Health Center, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
- 7- Nursing technician, Al-Adara Health Center, Al-Jouf, Saudi Arabia
- 8- Nursing technician, Maternity and Children's Hospital in Arar, Saudi Arabia
- 9- Nursing technician, Qurtubah Health Center, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
- 10- Nursing technician, Maternity and Children's Hospital, Sakaka, Saudi Arabia

Abstract:

Understanding the nursing management of tuberculosis (TB) is crucial for providing effective patient care and controlling the spread of this infectious disease. TB is primarily transmitted through airborne particles, requiring healthcare professionals to implement stringent infection control measures. Nurses play a vital role in assessing patients, monitoring symptoms, and administering prescribed treatments, which typically include a regimen of multiple antibiotics over an extended period. They are also responsible for educating patients about the importance of adherence to medication, potential side effects, and the necessity of regular follow-up appointments to ensure effective disease monitoring and management. In addition to clinical responsibilities, nurses must adopt a holistic approach that considers the psychological and socio-economic aspects of living with TB. Providing emotional support, helping patients navigate social stigma, and ensuring access to resources such as nutrition and financial assistance can significantly impact a patient's recovery and quality of life. Furthermore, nurses should engage in community education initiatives to raise awareness about TB prevention and control, helping to reduce transmission rates and promote early detection of the disease.

Keywords: Tuberculosis, nursing management, infection control, patient assessment, antibiotic regimen, medication adherence, emotional support, socio-economic factors, community education, disease monitoring.

Introduction:

Tuberculosis (TB) is a highly infectious disease caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, primarily affecting the lungs but capable of impacting various other organ systems. Despite being a preventable and treatable disease, TB remains one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that in 2019 alone, approximately 10 million individuals fell ill with TB, and 1.4 million died from the disease. These staggering statistics underline the urgent need for effective management strategies to combat TB,

thereby emphasizing the critical role that nursing management plays in both treatment and prevention [1].

Nurses are pivotal members of the healthcare team, particularly in the context of TB management. Their responsibilities encompass a wide range of activities, including patient assessment, medication administration, education on infection control measures, and guidance on treatment adherence. Furthermore, nurses often serve as the first point of contact for patients presenting with TB symptoms. This position of trust affords them the opportunity to educate patients and their families on the disease, its transmission, and the importance of adhering to the

prescribed treatment regimen. Understanding the multifaceted role of nursing management in TB not only highlights its significance in medical care but also underscores the need for a more structured and informed approach to handling this public health crisis [2].

The nursing management of tuberculosis can be categorized into several key components: assessment, education, treatment adherence facilitation, and interdisciplinary collaboration. Comprehensive patient assessment includes not only the physical evaluation of symptoms but also a psychological assessment to gauge the mental and emotional state of the patient. In many cases, the stigma associated with TB can lead to feelings of isolation and anxiety, thus requiring nurses to employ sensitive and empathetic approaches in their interactions. An understanding of cultural contexts is also crucial, as it influences patients' perceptions of health, illness, and their willingness to engage with healthcare systems [3].

Education plays a vital role in nursing management, serving as a robust defense against the spread of TB. Nurses are tasked with providing critical information about TB transmission, symptoms, and the importance of adhering to treatment regimens. For instance, the Directly Observed Treatment, Short-course (DOTS) strategy—a globally recognized TB control initiative—relies heavily on nursing support to ensure that patients take their medication as prescribed. This method not only increases treatment adherence rates but also helps to minimize the risk of developing drug-resistant strains of TB, which present significant challenges to treatment and control efforts [4].

Challenges to effective nursing management of TB persist in various forms, particularly in resource-limited settings. Limited access to healthcare facilities, inadequate training on TB management protocols, and insufficient resources for patient education can hinder the efficacy of nursing interventions. Moreover, the rise of multi-drug-resistant TB (MDR-TB) presents new management challenges, necessitating advanced understanding and skills from nursing professionals. As MDR-TB requires longer treatment regimens with more complex medication protocols, nurses must be adept at navigating both the medical and social complexities surrounding this condition [5].

Interdisciplinary collaboration is another critical element in the management of TB. The holistic approach to TB care necessitates coordination among healthcare providers, including physicians, pharmacists, social workers, and public health officials. Nurses often serve as excellent coordinators in this aspect, ensuring that all components of patient care are harmonized. This multidisciplinary approach is particularly essential for addressing the socio-economic factors that contribute to TB transmission and treatment failure, including poverty, lack of access to healthcare, and socio-cultural barriers [6].

Nursing Assessment and Diagnosis in TB Management:

Tuberculosis (TB), a chronic infectious disease primarily affecting the lungs but capable of targeting other organs, remains a significant global health challenge. Despite advances in medicine, TB continues to cause morbidity and mortality worldwide, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. Due to its potential to spread through airborne transmission, timely assessment and accurate diagnosis are critical in controlling TB infection. Nurses play an essential role in the management of TB by performing comprehensive assessments and facilitating appropriate diagnostic processes [7].

Before delving into nursing assessments, it is essential to understand the nature of tuberculosis. TB is caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, manifesting as either latent TB infection (LTBI) or active TB disease. LTBI is asymptomatic and non-contagious, while active TB can present with symptoms such as chronic cough, fever, night sweats, weight loss, and hemoptysis. Globally, the World Health Organization (WHO) has declared TB a health emergency, necessitating effective management strategies, including comprehensive nursing assessments and diagnostic approaches [8].

Nursing Assessment in TB Management

Nursing assessment in the context of TB management involves a systematic, comprehensive evaluation of the patient's health status, medical history, and potential risk factors for TB. The nursing process—consisting of assessment, diagnosis, planning, implementation, and

evaluation—serves as the foundation for effective TB management [9].

1. Patient History and Risk Assessment:

A thorough patient history is crucial in identifying the risk of TB exposure or infection. Nurses must inquire about occupational exposures, travel history, previous TB infections, and contact with individuals diagnosed with TB. This history allows nurses to assess the probability of an LTBI or active TB disease. Additionally, risk factors such as immunocompromised states (e.g., HIV infection, diabetes), substance abuse, and socioeconomic conditions must be evaluated [10].

2. Physical Examination:

The physical examination focuses on clinical symptoms related to respiratory diseases. Key indicators include auscultation of lung sounds to detect abnormalities, palpation for lymphadenopathy, and assessment for respiratory distress. Nurses should look for constitutional symptoms, such as unexplained weight loss, fever, and night sweats. A comprehensive assessment may also involve evaluating the patient's nutritional status, psychosocial aspects, and adherence to any previous TB therapies, if applicable [11].

3. Cultural Considerations:

Cultural competence is crucial when assessing and diagnosing TB. Various cultural factors may influence a patient's understanding of TB, health beliefs, and willingness to seek care. Nurses must be sensitive to these factors and provide education tailored to the community's needs and values [11].

Diagnostic Tools for TB

Accurate diagnosis of TB is paramount to ensure effective treatment and prevent further disease transmission. Nurses play a critical role in facilitating and interpreting diagnostic tests.

1. Screening Tests:

The two primary tests for TB screening are the Tuberculin Skin Test (TST) and Interferon Gamma Release Assays (IGRAs). The TST involves intradermally injecting purified protein derivative and measuring the induration after 48-72 hours. Although effective, false-positive and false-negative results may occur, necessitating further evaluation.

IGRAs are blood tests that measure the immune response to TB antigens; they are particularly useful for individuals who have received the BCG vaccine or cannot return for TST reading [12].

2. Diagnostic Imaging:

Chest radiography is often employed as a follow-up tool for individuals with positive screening tests. Nurses are responsible for ensuring that patients understand the purpose of these imaging studies and what to expect. Abnormal findings on a chest X-ray, such as infiltrates, cavitations, or nodular lesions, suggest active TB disease and warrant further investigation [12].

3. Microbiological Tests:

Sputum smears and cultures remain the gold standard for diagnosing active TB. Sputum specimens can be analyzed using acid-fast bacillus (AFB) staining and culture techniques. Nurses must educate patients about proper sputum collection techniques to ensure quality specimens are submitted. In addition, molecular tests like Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) can speed up the diagnosis by detecting TB DNA, allowing for prompt management decisions [12].

Interpretation of Results and Clinical Implications

After conducting assessments and obtaining diagnostic results, nursing professionals play a vital role in interpreting these findings, determining the appropriate nursing diagnoses, and formulating individualized care plans.

1. Nursing Diagnosis:

Several nursing diagnoses may arise in TB management, including ineffective airway clearance, impaired gas exchange, and anxiety related to the diagnosis of a chronic condition. Accurate nursing diagnoses inform targeted interventions and patient education strategies [13].

2. Patient Education:

An essential aspect of nursing care involves educating patients about TB, its transmission, preventive measures, and the importance of adhering to prescribed treatment regimens. Nurses must convey the critical nature of completing the full course of anti-TB medications to prevent drug

resistance and recurrence of TB. Addressing potential side effects of medications and ensuring patients understand the significance of follow-up appointments is vital.

3. Collaboration and Referral:

The management of TB often requires a multidisciplinary approach involving collaboration with physicians, public health officials, and community health workers. Nurses advocate for their patients by facilitating referrals and ensuring access to resources such as social services, nutritional support, housing assistance, and emotional counseling [13].

Pharmacological Interventions: Antibiotic Therapy in TB Treatment:

Tuberculosis (TB) is a significant global health challenge, characterized by its causative agent, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, and its potential to cause severe pulmonary and extrapulmonary diseases. Despite being a preventable and treatable disease, TB remains a major cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, particularly in low- and middle-income countries, where the burden is most acute. Antibiotic therapy lies at the heart of tuberculosis treatment, with specific regimens aimed at eradicating the pathogen from the host and preventing the development of drug resistance [14].

Understanding TB and Its Treatment Paradigm

TB primarily affects the lungs; however, it can manifest in almost any organ of the body. It is spread through airborne transmission, typically from an infected individual coughing or sneezing. The immune system plays a crucial role in controlling the disease; while many individuals may become infected without developing symptoms, those with a compromised immune system, such as individuals with HIV/AIDS or malnutrition, are more likely to exhibit active TB disease [14].

The cornerstone of TB management is a comprehensive approach to antibiotic therapy, designed to ensure complete eradication of the bacterium, minimize the risk of transmission, and reduce the chances of developing drug resistance. The World Health Organization (WHO) provides guidelines for the treatment of TB, which involves a

multi-drug regimen over an extended period, typically six months or longer [15].

First-Line Antibiotics for TB Treatment

First-line treatment for TB involves a combination of four key antibiotics: isoniazid, rifampicin, ethambutol, and pyrazinamide, collectively referred to as the RIPE regimen. Each of these antibiotics works through different mechanisms:

1. **Isoniazid:** An antibiotic that inhibits the synthesis of mycolic acids, essential components of the mycobacterial cell wall. Its bactericidal activity is potent during the multiplying phase of the organism [15].
2. **Rifampicin:** This agent works by inhibiting bacterial RNA synthesis, thereby stopping bacterial growth. Rifampicin is highly effective and helps in shortening the course of treatment due to its powerful bactericidal effect [15].
3. **Ethambutol:** This drug inhibits the synthesis of the cell wall by affecting the arabinogalactan layer, crucial for the structural integrity of the organism. Ethambutol serves as a bacteriostatic agent.
4. **Pyrazinamide:** It is unique among first-line agents in that it can kill dormant mycobacteria in acidic environments; this is especially significant in treating TB infections with a high number of non-replicating bacteria found in granulomatous lesions [15].

The combination of these medications is critical for several reasons: it ensures that the full spectrum of the organism's variations is targeted, minimizes the emergence of drug-resistant strains, and promotes adherence through simplification of treatment regimens.

Treatment Regimens and Duration

The standard short-course chemotherapy for newly diagnosed, drug-susceptible TB generally consists of the intensive phase (two months of RIPE therapy) followed by the continuation phase (four months of isoniazid and rifampicin). Treatment adherence is crucial for success, and directly observed therapy (DOT) is often implemented, wherein healthcare

providers supervise the administration of medications to ensure compliance [16].

Challenges in TB Treatment: Drug-Resistant TB

Despite advances in treatment protocols, the emergence of drug-resistant TB (DR-TB) poses a formidable challenge to health systems worldwide. DR-TB is classified into two primary types: multi-drug resistant TB (MDR-TB), which is resistant to at least isoniazid and rifampicin, and extensively drug-resistant TB (XDR-TB), which exhibits resistance to additional key antibiotics (fluoroquinolones and second-line injectable agents) [17].

The treatment of MDR-TB typically involves second-line drugs, which can be less effective, more toxic, and required for longer durations, often extending to 18-24 months. The complexity of these regimens complicates adherence and increases the risk of treatment failure and further resistance. In many cases, inadequate or irregular treatment contributes to confirming resistance patterns, creating a vicious cycle difficult to break [17].

Innovations in Antibiotic Therapy

In response to the rising challenge of drug-resistant TB, ongoing research is focused on drug development and therapeutic innovations. New anti-TB agents such as bedaquiline, delamanid, and pretomanid have emerged in recent years, providing new options for treating DR-TB. These drugs target different pathways and exhibit novel mechanisms of action that can enhance treatment efficacy and safety [18].

1. **Bedaquiline:** A highly selective inhibitor of mycobacterial ATP synthase, which inhibits energy production in TB bacteria. It has shown significant efficacy in MDR-TB treatment regimens and has a safety profile that allows for extended use.
2. **Delamanid:** This drug is an N-bridged diarylquinoline that targets mycobacterial cell wall synthesis and has shown promise in clinical trials aimed at treating MDR-TB, especially when used in conjunction with established regimens [19].
3. **Pretomanid:** A nitroimidazo-oxazole derivative that disrupts the mycobacterial cell

wall and cellular energy metabolism. Pretomanid's incorporation into a well-tolerated three-drug regimen demonstrates the need for combination strategies in combatting DR-TB.

There are also advancements in therapeutic models, such as shorter treatment regimens that have shown promise in clinical trials, reducing the treatment duration from 24 months to as little as four months in select patient populations. New strategies, including the use of biomarkers to determine treatment responses and the application of adjunct therapies, are also being explored [19].

Infection Control Protocols in Healthcare Settings:

Tuberculosis (TB) remains a leading global health concern, affecting millions and resulting in significant morbidity and mortality, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that in 2020, around 10 million people fell ill with TB worldwide, emphasizing the urgency for effective interventions. Given that TB is primarily an airborne disease, particularly in its infectious pulmonary form, the implementation of stringent infection control protocols within healthcare settings is crucial to prevent transmission among patients, healthcare workers, and the community at large [20].

Transmission of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* occurs through the inhalation of aerosolized droplet nuclei expelled when an infected person coughs, sneezes, speaks, or sings. Because TB can remain airborne for several hours, healthcare environments require meticulous adherence to infection control protocols to mitigate the risk of nosocomial (hospital-acquired) infections. These infections not only compromise the health of patients and staff but can also lead to outbreaks within healthcare facilities. Hence, understanding the transmission dynamics of TB lays the groundwork for establishing effective infection control measures [21].

The importance of infection control protocols in TB healthcare settings cannot be overstated. Firstly, they are essential for protecting healthcare workers who are at greater risk of exposure, especially in high-burden environments. Evidence suggests that unprotected healthcare personnel in TB wards have higher rates of infection compared to the general

population. Secondly, these protocols are critical for safeguarding other patients, particularly vulnerable populations such as individuals with compromised immune systems or coexisting diseases like HIV. Finally, effective infection control measures contribute to broader public health goals by reducing transmission in the community and helping to mitigate the spread of drug-resistant TB strains, which pose a profound challenge to TB management [22].

Components of Infection Control Protocols

1. Administrative Controls:

Administrative controls serve as the foundation of infection control in TB settings. These controls involve changes in policies, procedures, and practices that reduce the risk of TB transmission. Key strategies include:

- **Screening and Diagnosis:** Health facilities should have protocols for prompt TB screening and diagnosis for symptomatic patients. This includes taking thorough medical histories and administering rapid diagnostic tests [23].
- **Isolation Practices:** Patients diagnosed with infectious TB must be isolated from non-infected individuals. This typically involves placement in a negative-pressure room designed to prevent the escape of aerosolized pathogens.
- **Staff Training and Education:** Continuous training programs for healthcare workers are essential to keep them informed about TB transmission, prevention strategies, and the proper use of personal protective equipment (PPE) [24].

2. Environmental Controls:

Environmental controls focus on airflow management and room design to minimize TB transmission risks. Key components include:

- **Ventilation:** Ensuring adequate ventilation in TB wards is crucial. Well-designed ventilation systems that create negative pressure can help contain the spread of infectious droplets. Natural ventilation can

also be effective in some settings, especially in resource-limited environments [25].

- **Ultraviolet Germicidal Irradiation (UVGI):** UVGI can be employed as an adjunct to ventilation systems. Ultraviolet light has been shown to inactivate *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, further enhancing air quality and reducing infectious risks [25].

3. Personal Protective Equipment:

PPE is an essential component of infection control, particularly in settings where exposure risks are high. The use of appropriate PPE, including N95 respirators or powered air-purifying respirators (PAPRs), is fundamental in protecting healthcare personnel from inhaling infectious droplet nuclei [26].

4. Surveillance and Monitoring:

Ongoing monitoring and surveillance are indispensable for assessing the effectiveness of infection control practices. This includes tracking incidence rates of TB among healthcare workers and patients, as well as regularly reviewing TB infection control policies to ensure compliance and adaptability to changing epidemiological trends [26].

Challenges in Implementation

Despite the importance of stringent infection control protocols, several challenges hinder their effectiveness in TB healthcare settings:

- **Resource Limitations:** Many healthcare facilities, particularly in low-income countries, often lack the necessary resources—financial, infrastructural, or technical—to implement comprehensive TB infection control measures [27].
- **Awareness and Training Gaps:** Health workers in some settings may not receive adequate training on TB infection control, leading to inconsistent practices and increased risk of transmission.
- **Patient Cooperation:** Not all patients may comply with isolation protocols or follow the guidelines established to mitigate infection

risk, posing challenges for healthcare providers [27].

- **Drug-Resistant TB:** The emergence of multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extensively drug-resistant (XDR) strains of TB complicates infection control efforts, necessitating advanced protocols that may not always be available [27].

Future Directions

To bolster infection control efforts in TB healthcare settings, several strategies can be employed:

- **Global Collaboration and Support:** Enhanced collaboration among countries and international health organizations can facilitate resource sharing and the implementation of best practices in TB infection control [28].
- **Innovation in Technology and Practice:** Investments in emerging technologies, such as rapid diagnostic tests and novel ventilation systems, can significantly improve infection control measures. Additionally, research into effective quarantine and isolation practices tailored for TB can yield essential insights.
- **Policy Development:** Governments and health organizations should prioritize the formulation of comprehensive TB infection control policies to ensure that all healthcare facilities, regardless of their location, can provide safe environments for patients and staff [28].

Patient Education and Adherence Strategies:

Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the leading infectious diseases globally, responsible for millions of deaths each year. It is caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, primarily affecting the lungs but potentially impacting other areas of the body. The control of TB is challenging, particularly due to the emergence of drug-resistant strains and the lengthy treatment regimens required. As such, patient education and adherence strategies play a crucial role in the effective management and control of TB [29].

Patient education is a critical component in the management of TB for several reasons. Firstly,

many patients are unaware of the disease's transmission, symptoms, and potential consequences of non-adherence to treatment. Providing clear and comprehensive information helps demystify TB, ensuring that patients understand it is a treatable and curable disease. Furthermore, education on how TB spreads—primarily through respiratory droplets—can reinforce the importance of adhering to treatment and, consequently, the need to prevent transmission to others, which is critical in public health contexts [29].

Understanding the treatment regimen is paramount in promoting adherence. The standard treatment for drug-susceptible TB involves a combination of antibiotics taken for at least six months. Patients often face multiple side effects during this period, which can lead to a reluctance to continue medication. In this context, educational programs that explain the purpose and necessity of each drug, possible side effects, and ways to manage them are essential. It is also important to emphasize the risks associated with incomplete treatment, such as the development of drug-resistant TB, which can complicate management and increase the risk of transmission [30].

Adherence Strategies

Adherence to TB treatment is often seen through the lens of Directly Observed Therapy (DOT), a strategy recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO). Under DOT, health care providers supervise patients' medication intake, which helps ensure compliance and allows for immediate intervention should any issues arise. However, while DOT is widely recognized as effective, it is not always feasible in every setting due to resource constraints, work schedules, or geographic barriers. Therefore, supplementary strategies are often employed [31].

1. **Behavioral Contracts:** Establishing personal contracts with patients can enhance commitment to treatment. These can be informal agreements that outline the responsibilities of both the healthcare provider and the patient regarding medication adherence [32].
2. **Support Groups:** Social support has a considerable impact on treatment adherence.

Patients may benefit from group sessions where they can share experiences, challenges, and strategies with others undergoing similar struggles. These groups can foster a sense of community, reduce feelings of isolation, and improve overall emotional well-being.

3. **Use of Technology:** Technological innovations offer new avenues for improving adherence. Mobile health applications remind patients when to take their medications and allow them to record their compliance. Telehealth initiatives provide regular consultations, which can reduce the need for frequent in-person visits and can be especially beneficial in rural areas [32].
4. **Community Health Workers:** Engaging community health workers (CHWs) to provide education and support can enhance adherence levels. CHWs typically have a better understanding of the local culture and the barriers patients face, thus making them well-positioned to provide tailored support that encourages patients to follow through with their treatment plans.
5. **Incentives:** Offering incentives, whether monetary or through other means, can significantly boost adherence. Programs that reward patients after completing certain milestones in their treatment can create a positive reinforcement loop encouraging continued compliance with medication regimens [32].

Socio-Cultural Factors

The socio-cultural environment surrounding TB patients is a significant determinant of treatment adherence. Stigma attached to TB can hinder patients from seeking treatment or adhering to prescribed regimens due to fears of social ostracism. Weaving comprehensive education programs that include anti-stigma messages can play a vital role in addressing these beliefs. Additionally, involvement of local leaders and influencers can help to shift community perceptions and normalize discussions around TB [33].

Economic factors also greatly influence adherence. Patients often face financial barriers, such as the cost of medications, transportation to health care

facilities, or lost income due to illness. Strategies that incorporate financial support can further encourage adherence. For instance, providing transportation vouchers or offering small stipends to cover the cost of medications and associated health care can alleviate some of these burdens [33].

Holistic Care Approaches: Addressing Psychological and Social Needs:

Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the most significant public health challenges worldwide, affecting millions of individuals each year. Despite advances in diagnostics, treatment, and vaccine development, TB persists not only as a physical health issue but also as a multifaceted social challenge. The complexity of TB cannot be understood solely through the biomedical lens; it also encompasses a range of psychosocial factors that influence both the disease's trajectory and treatment outcomes [34].

TB is an airborne infectious disease primarily caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. It primarily affects the lungs but can also impact other parts of the body, including the kidneys, spine, and brain. The symptoms can range from persistent cough and weight loss to fever and night sweats. While the medical aspects of TB are critical, its impact extends well beyond physical health. Individuals diagnosed with TB often face stigmatization, social isolation, and psychological distress [34].

The psychosocial dimensions of TB encompass a variety of factors, including mental health issues, cultural beliefs, socioeconomic conditions, and social support systems. Depression and anxiety are common among TB patients, exacerbated by the fear of death, long treatment regimens, and potential stigma associated with being diagnosed. Stigma, often a result of misinformation and cultural myths surrounding TB, can lead patients to delay seeking treatment, thus complicating the management of the disease [35].

Furthermore, the socioeconomic implications of TB are significant. Many individuals affected by TB come from disadvantaged backgrounds. Lack of access to healthcare, transportation issues, and financial burdens related to treatment can further diminish their willingness to continue with therapy. Therefore, simply addressing the biomedical aspects

of TB is insufficient; a comprehensive approach that recognizes and integrates psychosocial care is critical for improving patient outcomes [35].

Comprehensive Care Approaches

1. Integrated Healthcare Models

Integrating physical healthcare with psychosocial support is critical in addressing the comprehensive needs of TB patients. Therefore, healthcare systems must be designed to promote collaboration between medical practitioners and mental health professionals. This multidisciplinary approach allows for the identification and management of both physical and psychological symptoms concurrently. For instance, during routine check-ups for TB treatment, healthcare providers should also screen for depression, anxiety, and other psychological disorders [36].

Counseling services can play an essential role in helping patients cope with the mental health ramifications of their diagnosis. Providing patients with access to psychologists or counselors who understand the cultural and social contexts of TB can foster more effective communication and enhance adherence to treatment [36].

2. Community Engagement and Support Networks

Community-based programs are instrumental in addressing the psychosocial needs of TB patients. These programs can provide a supportive environment where patients share experiences, fostering a sense of belonging and understanding. Peer support groups can significantly reduce feelings of isolation and stigmatisation, enabling patients to navigate their treatment journey with increased resilience [37].

Moreover, outreach programs that educate communities about TB can dispel myths and reduce stigma. Education initiatives should target not only individuals diagnosed with TB but also their families, healthcare providers, and community leaders. By fostering a better understanding of the disease, these programs can bolster support for patients and improve treatment adherence rates [38].

3. Socioeconomic Support Services

Considering the socioeconomic dimensions of TB is also essential in a comprehensive care approach.

Many patients struggle with the financial burden of treatment, which can hinder their capacity to adhere to prescribed regimens. Providing socioeconomic support services—such as financial assistance, transportation services, and food security programs—can alleviate some of these burdens [39].

Incorporating social workers into TB care teams can facilitate access to these resources and ensure that patients receive the comprehensive support they require. Social workers can also assist patients in navigating complex healthcare systems, addressing any legal or employment issues that may arise due to their illness [39].

4. Culturally Responsive Interventions

Culturally responsive care is vital in addressing the psychosocial needs of TB patients. Health interventions must be tailored to consider the cultural beliefs, practices, and values of diverse populations. This approach can enhance the relevance and acceptability of healthcare services, leading to better health outcomes [40].

For instance, understanding how different cultures perceive illness and treatment can help healthcare providers communicate more effectively with patients. Involving local leaders or community health workers from specific cultural backgrounds can bridge the gap between medical advice and cultural practices, fostering trust and improving adherence to treatment regimens [41].

5. Digital Health Innovations

Technological advancements have opened new avenues for addressing psychosocial needs alongside TB treatment. Digital health platforms offering telemedicine consultations, mental health support apps, and online forums can provide continuous support to patients, especially in remote areas where access to healthcare may be limited. These technologies can enable timely interventions, monitor treatment adherence, and provide educational resources at patients' fingertips [42].

Additionally, the use of mobile applications designed around TB care can remind patients to take their medication, attend follow-up appointments, and access psychosocial support. The convenience of these tools can improve patient engagement and empower individuals to take an active role in their health management [42].

Collaborative Care: Working with Multidisciplinary Teams:

Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the deadliest infectious diseases globally, necessitating a robust and effective response from health systems worldwide. The World Health Organization (WHO) has emphasized the importance of collaborative care, especially given the complexities associated with TB management. The disease often affects multiple body systems, exhibits various forms—including drug-resistant strains—and disproportionately impacts marginalized groups. As such, a multidisciplinary approach to treatment and care is an essential strategy in the fight against TB [43].

Understanding Collaborative Care in TB Management

Collaborative care in the context of TB management refers to the coordinated effort of healthcare professionals from various disciplines to provide comprehensive care for TB patients. This model aims to ensure holistic support, addressing not only the clinical aspects of TB treatment but also the psychological, social, and economic challenges that patients may face. The approach aligns with the principles of patient-centered care, which emphasizes treating the individual as a whole rather than focusing solely on the disease [44].

Collaborative care for TB typically involves a range of healthcare professionals, including physicians, nurses, public health workers, social workers, nutritionists, pharmacists, and mental health experts. This multidisciplinary team works in concert to design and implement tailored treatment plans that consider the specific needs and circumstances of each patient, thereby improving adherence to medication regimens and overall health outcomes [45].

The Roles of Multidisciplinary Team Members

Physicians and Specialists

At the forefront of any TB care team are medical doctors specialized in infectious diseases or pulmonology. They are responsible for diagnosing TB, interpreting laboratory results, and determining appropriate treatment plans. Their expertise is crucial, especially in managing drug-resistant TB cases, which require a more complex and prolonged

therapeutic regimen. Physicians also play a pivotal role in educating patients about their condition and the importance of adhering to treatment protocols [46].

Nurses

Nurses are key players in the multidisciplinary team, providing direct patient care and support. They are involved in administering medications, monitoring patient progress, and offering counseling on lifestyle changes that can aid in recovery. Their continuous interaction with patients allows nurses to build strong relationships, fostering trust and improving adherence to prescribed treatments. Nurses also educate patients about the disease, dispelling myths and addressing fears that may hinder compliance [47].

Public Health Workers

Public health professionals contribute significantly to TB management by implementing community outreach programs, conducting screening initiatives, and coordinating with various stakeholders to improve health literacy. They are instrumental in the early identification of TB cases and in ensuring that patients receive appropriate follow-up care. Their role in health promotion and disease prevention is critical in controlling the spread of TB, especially in high-risk populations [48].

Social Workers

Social workers address the socio-economic factors that can impede access to care. They help patients navigate healthcare systems, secure financial assistance, and access social services. In many cases, these barriers can be more pronounced in marginalized communities where poverty, stigma, and lack of education prevail. Social workers are essential in advocating for patients' rights and ensuring they receive comprehensive care [49].

Nutritionists and Pharmacists

Nutritionists provide dietary recommendations tailored to the needs of TB patients, particularly those requiring additional support to combat malnutrition, which is common among individuals with TB. A well-balanced diet can enhance the effectiveness of treatment and improve overall health outcomes [50].

Pharmacists play a critical role in managing medications, ensuring that patients understand their prescriptions, and monitoring for potential drug interactions—especially important in TB treatment, which often involves multiple medications. They can also assist in medication adherence programs, providing reminders and support to patients [50].

Mental Health Experts

The psychological impact of a TB diagnosis can be significant, leading to anxiety, depression, and feelings of isolation. Mental health professionals within the multidisciplinary team address these issues, offering counseling and psychological support. They work to help patients cope with the emotional burden of the disease, further contributing to adherence and recovery [50].

Challenges in Implementing Collaborative Care Models

While the benefits of a multidisciplinary approach to TB management are clear, several challenges may impede effective implementation. One major barrier is the lack of resources, particularly in low- and middle-income countries where healthcare systems are often underfunded and overburdened. Insufficient staffing levels can strain existing personnel and limit the ability to coordinate care effectively [51].

Another significant challenge is training and professional development. Healthcare providers need ongoing education and training to effectively work in multidisciplinary teams. Without adequate preparation, individuals may struggle to communicate across disciplines and may not fully understand the roles of their colleagues [52].

Cultural differences and professional silos can also hinder collaboration. Team members may prioritize their specialties over interdisciplinary communication, leading to fragmented care. Overcoming these barriers requires fostering a culture of teamwork and mutual respect among healthcare professionals [53].

Best Practices for Successful Collaborative Care

To enhance the effectiveness of multidisciplinary teams in TB management, several best practices should be considered. Regular team meetings are critical for ensuring effective communication,

discussing patient care plans, and addressing any challenges that may arise. Establishing clear goals and responsibilities for each member can help minimize confusion and promote accountability [53].

Utilizing technology can also facilitate collaboration. Electronic health records (EHR) enable team members to share information seamlessly, improving care coordination. Telehealth services can provide additional support to patients by connecting them with various specialists without requiring them to travel [53].

Involving patients in decision-making processes can empower them and improve adherence to treatment protocols. Educational initiatives aimed at both patients and healthcare providers can foster a better understanding of TB, its treatment, and the importance of a multidisciplinary approach [53].

Community Involvement and Public Health Initiatives in TB Prevention:

Tuberculosis (TB) has long been a formidable public health challenge, particularly in low- and middle-income countries where the burden of this infectious disease remains high. As a contagious disease primarily affecting the lungs, TB poses significant risks not only to individual health but also to community well-being. Combating this public health threat mandates coordinated strategies that integrate medical treatment with community-based initiatives aimed at prevention. In this context, community involvement is crucial for enhancing public health initiatives in TB prevention [54].

TB is caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. It spreads through the air when an infected individual coughs or sneezes, releasing droplets into the environment. While TB is treatable and preventable, the disease's link to poverty, stigma, and systemic health inequality complicates its management. In many cases, socioeconomic factors, such as homelessness, inadequate access to healthcare, and malnutrition, serve as significant barriers to both prevention and treatment. This context highlights the necessity for effective community involvement, which can foster awareness, influence behavior, and ultimately reduce TB transmission [54].

Community involvement encompasses a range of actions aimed at enhancing the capacity of individuals and groups to contribute to public health initiatives. In the case of TB prevention, community engagement can take various forms, including education and outreach programs, support groups, policy advocacy, and partnerships with local organizations. Engaging communities not only empowers individuals but also allows the design and implementation of health interventions that are culturally sensitive and locally relevant [54].

One of the key advantages of community involvement is the potential to enhance public awareness about TB. Public education campaigns can be more effective when tailored to specific cultural and social contexts. Initiatives that involve community leaders, such as religious figures and local influencers, can play a significant role in disseminating health information. Furthermore, when community members understand the signs and symptoms of TB, they become more proactive about seeking treatment [54].

Education serves as one of the foundational pillars in community involvement. Various public health organizations emphasize the creation of informative campaigns that focus on dispelling myths surrounding tuberculosis, promoting preventive measures, and encouraging early diagnosis. For example, door-to-door outreach programs can effectively raise awareness in communities where TB prevalence is high. In addition, workshops, seminars, and health fairs can help people understand the importance of preventive healthcare measures, such as completing a prescribed treatment regimen [55].

In recent years, several successful education campaigns have utilized social media platforms to reach younger audiences. Using multimedia approaches, these campaigns provide easily digestible information about TB, thus expanding their reach and relevance. Visual storytelling and testimonials from individuals who successfully managed TB can destigmatize the disease and encourage affected individuals to seek help [56].

A critical component of TB prevention is the establishment of support networks within the community. These networks offer both emotional and logistical support for individuals undergoing

treatment. This is particularly significant for populations that experience stigma, as it may prevent them from seeking necessary medical care. Peer support groups can help individuals share their experiences, facilitate discussions about treatment adherence, and promote understanding of the health challenges associated with TB [56].

Moreover, community health workers often play a pivotal role in these support networks. These individuals typically possess a strong understanding of both the healthcare system and local communities, enabling them to bridge the gap between individuals and healthcare providers. They can facilitate home visits, thereby providing education and encouragement for treatment adherence. Additionally, they can help manage transportation issues that often hinder access to healthcare services [57].

Collaboration between public health institutions and local organizations is vital for implementing comprehensive TB prevention initiatives. Local nonprofits, schools, and religious institutions can amplify the efforts of health departments by leveraging existing community relationships and channels. These collaborations often lead to synergistic effects, maximizing the potential for outreach and education [57].

In addition, local organizations can help facilitate culturally tailored interventions, taking into account the unique contexts of different communities. For instance, traditional practices and beliefs may influence health-seeking behavior, and understanding this aspect is crucial when designing relevant public health initiatives. By involving stakeholders from community organizations, there is a greater likelihood of increased participation and buy-in from the broader community [58].

Community involvement does not only occur at the grassroots level; it also has implications for public policy and advocacy. Community members and local organizations can pressure governments and health authorities to prioritize TB prevention initiatives in healthcare budgets, policies, and resource allocation. Engaging the community in advocacy efforts can highlight the pressing needs surrounding TB prevention and treatment, pushing for comprehensive strategies that acknowledge the

interplay between health, social, and economic determinants [59].

Through organizing campaigns, attending town hall meetings, and collaborating with health policymakers, community members can contribute to shaping effective public health policies. Their voices help advocate for the rights of TB patients and promote policies that ensure better access to diagnostic tests, medicines, and healthcare services [60].

Conclusion:

In conclusion, understanding the nursing management of tuberculosis is essential for effective patient care and disease control. Nurses play a critical role in the comprehensive management of TB, encompassing early detection, rigorous adherence to treatment protocols, and the implementation of stringent infection control measures. Through diligent assessment and personalized care plans, nurses ensure that patients receive not only appropriate medical treatment but also vital education regarding medication adherence and lifestyle modifications.

Moreover, addressing the psychological and social aspects of living with TB is crucial for fostering a supportive environment that encourages recovery and reduces the stigma associated with the disease. By collaborating with multidisciplinary teams and engaging in community education initiatives, nurses contribute to a broader effort in TB prevention and control, ultimately leading to improved patient outcomes and public health. The evolving landscape of TB management underscores the importance of ongoing education and adaptive strategies in nursing practice, ensuring that healthcare providers are equipped to meet the challenges posed by this resilient disease.

References:

1. Uplekar M., Weil D., Lonnroth K., et al. WHO's new end TB strategy. *The Lancet*. 2015;385(9979):1799–1801. doi: 10.1016/s0140-6736(15)60570-0.
2. Bulage L., Sekandi J., Kigenyi O., Mupere E. The quality of tuberculosis services in health care centres in a rural district in Uganda: the providers' and clients' perspective. *Tuberculosis Research and Treatment*. 2014;2014:11. doi: 10.1155/2014/685982.
3. Ahmad N. M. R., Montañola-Sales C., Prats C., Musa M., López D., Casanovas-Garcia J. Analyzing policymaking for tuberculosis control in Nigeria. *Complexity*. 2018;2018:13. doi: 10.1155/2018/9253846.
4. Tudor C., Van der Walt M., Mphahlele M., Farley J. E. Health care workers' fears associated with working in multidrug- and extensively-drug-resistant tuberculosis wards in South Africa. *The International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease*. 2013;17(10):22–29. doi: 10.5588/ijtld.13.0109.
5. Karumbi J., Garner P. Directly observed therapy for treating tuberculosis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2015;5 doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD003343.pub4.
6. WHO. Global Tuberculosis Report. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO; 2017.
7. Zelnick J. R., Gibbs A., Loveday M., Padayatchi N., O'Donnell M. R. N. Health-care workers' perspectives on workplace safety, infection control, and drug-resistant tuberculosis in a high-burden HIV setting. *Journal of Public Health Policy*. 2013;34(3):388–402. doi: 10.1057/jphp.2013.20.
8. Dimitrova B., Balabanova D., Atun R., Drobniewski F., Levicheva V., Coker R. Health service providers' perceptions of barriers to tuberculosis care in Russia. *Health Policy and Planning*. 2006;21(4):265–274. doi: 10.1093/heapol/czl014.
9. Pender N. J. *Health Promotion in Nursing Practice*. 3rd. Stanford, CT, USA: Appleton and Lange; 1996.
10. WHO. *The Stop TB Strategy*. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO; 2010.
11. Berman A., Snyder S. Kozier & Erb's. *Fundamentals of Nursing*. 9th. Beijing, China: Pearson; 2012.
12. Geeta S. P., Dileep K., Ajay C., et al. TB risk perceptions among medical residents at a tertiary care center in India. *Tuberculosis Research and Treatment*. 2017;2017:7. doi: 10.1155/2017/7514817.
13. Garfein R. S., Liu L., Cuevas-Mota J., et al. Tuberculosis treatment monitoring by video

- directly observed therapy in 5 health districts, California, USA. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*. 2018;24(10):1806–1815. doi: 10.3201/eid2410.180459.
14. Brouwer M., Coelho E., Dore Mosse C. d., Brondi L., Winterton L., et al. Healthcare workers' challenges in the implementation of tuberculosis infection prevention and control measures in Mozambique. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(12) doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0114364.
15. Sulis G., Centis R., Sotgiu G., et al. Recent developments in the diagnosis and management of tuberculosis. *NPJ Primary Care Respiratory Medicine*. 2016;26(1):p. 16078. doi: 10.1038/npjpcrm.2016.78.
16. World Health Organization. Multidrug and Extensively Drug-Resistant TB (M/XDRTB): 2010 Global Report on Surveillance and Response. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO; 2018.
17. Centre for Disease Control and Prevention. Fact sheet: trends in tuberculosis. 2015.
18. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2016 (GBD 2016) Population Estimates 1950–2016. Seattle, WA, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME); 2017.
19. Iribaren S. J., Rubenstein F., Discacciati V., Pearce P. F. Listening to those at the frontline patient and health personnel perspective on tuberculosis treatment barriers and facilitators in high tuberculosis burden regions of Argentina. *Tuberculosis Research and Treatment*. 2014;2014:14. doi: 10.1155/2014/135823.
20. Makhado L., Davhana-Maselesele M., Farley J. E. Barriers to tuberculosis and human immunodeficiency virus treatment guidelines adherence among nurses initiating and managing anti-retroviral therapy in KwaZulu-Natal and North West provinces. *Curationis*. 2018;41(1):p. a1808. doi: 10.4102/curationis.v41i1.1808.
21. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Treatment for TB disease. 2018.
22. Mbuthia G.W., Olungah C.O., Ondicho T.G. Health-seeking pathway and factors leading to delays in tuberculosis diagnosis in West Pokot County, Kenya: A grounded theory study. *PLoS ONE*. 2018;13:e0207995. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0207995.
23. Zelnick J.R., Gibbs A., Loveday M., Padayatchi N., O'Donnell M.R. Healthcare workers' perspective on workplace safety, infection control, and drug-resistant tuberculosis in a high-burden HIV setting. *J. Public Health Policy*. 2013;34:388–402. doi: 10.1057/jphp.2013.20.
24. Tshitangano T.G., Maputle S.M., Netshikweta L.M. Availability of tuberculosis infection control plans at rural hospitals of Vhembe District, Limpopo Province of South Africa. *Afr. J. Prim. Health Care Fam. Med*. 2013;5:1–6. doi: 10.4102/phcfm.v5i1.480.
25. World Health Organization (WHO) Global Tuberculosis Report. WHO; Geneva, Switzerland: 2018.
26. Mosadeghrad A.M. Factors influencing healthcare service quality. *Int. J. Health Policy Manag.* 2014;3:77–89. doi: 10.15171/ijhpm.2014.65.
27. Valjee L., van Dyk A.C. Impact of caring for people living with HIV on the psychosocial well-being of palliative caregivers. *Curationis*. 2014;37:1–13. doi: 10.4102/curationis.v37i1.1201.
28. Kieft R.A.M.M., de Brouwer B.B.J.M., Francke A.L., Delnoij D.M.J. How nurses and their work environment affect patient experiences of the quality of care: A qualitative study. *BMC Health Serv. Res*. 2014;14:249. doi: 10.1186/1472-6963-14-249.
29. Herrero M.B., Ramos S., Arrossi S. Determinants of non-adherence to tuberculosis treatment in Argentina: Barriers related to access to treatment. *Rev. Bras. Epidemiol*. 2015;18:287–298. doi: 10.1590/1980-5497201500020001.
30. Nathavitharana R.R., Bond P., Dramowski A., Kotze K., Lederer P., Oxley I., Peters J.A., Rossouw C., van der Westhuizen H., Willems B., et al. Agents of change: The role of healthcare workers in the prevention of nosocomial and occupational tuberculosis. *Presse Med*. 2017;46:53–62. doi: 10.1016/j.lpm.2017.01.014.
31. Gursimrat K.S. Tuberculosis: Current Situation, Challenges and Overview of Its Control Programs in India. Faculty of

- Medicine, Lund University; Lund, Sweden: 2011.
32. Reilly R. Hospital-to-hospital variability in mortality rates among patients admitted in NHS hospitals. 2013.
33. Sukumani J.T., Lebesse R.T., Khoza L.B., Risenga P.R. Experiences of family members caring for tuberculosis patients at home at Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province. *Curationis*. 2012;35:1–8. doi: 10.4102/curationis.v35i1.54.
34. Statistics South Africa. Mortality and Causes of Death in South Africa: Findings from Death Notification. Statistics South Africa; Pretoria, South Africa: 2018.
35. ten Hoeve Y., Jansen J., Roodbol R. The nursing profession: Public image, self-concept and professional identity. A discussion paper. *J. Adv. Nurs*. 2014;70:295–309. doi: 10.1111/jan.12177.
36. Wolmarans M., Asia B. Limpopo Vhembe District Profile. 2013.
37. Mametja V.L. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Limpopo; Limpopo, South Africa: 2013. Problems experienced by professional nurses caring for HIV/AIDS patients in public hospitals of Polokwane Municipality, Limpopo Province of South Africa.
38. Washeya F.N. Ph.D. Thesis. Stellenbosch University; Stellenbosch, South Africa: 2018. Factors influencing retention of professional nurses in a public health care facility in Windhoek.
39. Colaizzi P.F. Psychological Research as the Phenomenologist Views It. In: Valle R., King M., editors. *Existential Phenomenological Alternatives for Psychologists*. Oxford University Press; New York, NY, USA: 1978.
40. South African Government. Limpopo Provincial TB Annual Report, TB Annual Report. South African Government; Cape Town, South Africa: 2010.
41. Nasreen S., Shokoohi M., Malvankar-Mehta M.S. Prevalence of latent tuberculosis among health care workers in high burden countries: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11:e0164034. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0164034.
42. Brophy D.M. Ph.D. Thesis. Cape Peninsula University of Technology; Bellville, South Africa: 2015. Occupational challenges faced by nursing personnel at a state hospital in Cape Town.
43. Floyd, K., Glaziou, P., Zumla, A., & Raviglione, M. (2018). The global tuberculosis epidemic and progress in care, prevention, and research: An overview in year 3 of the end TB era. *The Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 6(4), 299–314.
44. Bashshur, R. L., Shannon, G. W., Smith, B. R., Alverson, D. C., Antoniotti, N., Barsan, W. G., Bashshur, N., Brown, E. M., Coye, M. J., Doarn, C. R., Ferguson, S., Grigsby, J., Krupinski, E. A., Kvedar, J. C., Linkous, J., Merrell, R. C., Nesbitt, T., Poropatich, R., Rheuban, K. S., ... Yellowlees, P. (2014). The empirical foundations of telemedicine interventions for chronic disease management. *Telemedicine Journal and E-Health*, 20(9), 769–800.
45. Allwood, B., van der Zalm, M., Makanda, G., & Mortimer, K., Steering Committee of the First International Post-Tuberculosis Symposium. (2019). The long shadow post-tuberculosis. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*, 19(11), 1170–1171.
46. Grace, A. G., Mittal, A., Jain, S., Tripathy, J. P., Satyanarayana, S., Tharyan, P., & Kirubakaran, R. (2019). Shortened treatment regimens versus the standard regimen for drug-sensitive pulmonary tuberculosis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, 12(12), CD012918.
47. Nair, D. M., Fitzpatrick, J. J., McNulty, R., Click, E. R., & Glembocki, M. M. (2012). Frequency of nurse-physician collaborative behaviors in an acute care hospital. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, 26(2), 115–120.
48. Chen, J., Cao, W., Chen, R., Ren, Y., & Li, T. (2016). Prevalence and determinants of HIV in tuberculosis patients in Wuxi City, Jiangsu province, China: A cross-sectional study. *International Journal of STD & AIDS*, 27(13), 1204–1212.
49. Sarıköse, S., & Göktepe, N. (2022). Effects of nurses' individual, professional and work environment characteristics on job performance. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 31(5–6), 633–641.

-
50. Meng, X. D. (2012). The influence of job engagement on job satisfaction of emergency nurses. *Chinese Nursing Management*, 12(11), 35–38.
 51. Adjobimey, M., Behr, M. A., & Menzies, D. (2021). Individualized treatment duration in tuberculosis treatment: Precision versus simplicity. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 204(9), 1013–1014.
 52. Romanowski, K., Baumann, B., Basham, C. A., Khan, F. A., Fox, G. J., & Johnston, J. C. (2019). Long-term all-cause mortality in people treated for tuberculosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*, 19(10), 1129–1137.
 53. Bruins, W. S., & van Leth, F. (2017). Effect of secondary preventive therapy on recurrence of tuberculosis in HIV-infected individuals: A systematic review. *Infectious Diseases*, 49(3), 161–169.
 54. Chen, J., Liu, X. L., & Zhang, Z. X. (2015). The study of status and influencing factors of nurse-physician collaboration in tertiary general hospitals. *Chinese Journal of Practical Nursing*, 4, 295–299.
 55. Li, H. M., Wang, Y. X., Qin, C. J., & Zhang, W. Y. (2017). Analysis of the application effect of medical care integration mode in the follow-up of discharged pulmonary tuberculosis patients. *Internal Medicine*, 12(6), 842–844.
 56. Tu, D. H., Zhang, L. X., Su, J. N., & Zhao, L. (2000). Resistance and efficacy of treatment in relapse pulmonary tuberculosis. *Chinese Journal of Tuberculosis and Respiration Diseases*, 23(11), 666–668.
 57. Du, Z. Y. (2016). Surveillance and control of main causes of pulmonary tuberculosis recurrence. *Medicine and Health*, 11, 133–134.
 58. Chang, Z. X., Yuan, W., Liu, Y., & Yang, G. H. (2014). The effect of doctor-nurse integration training mode on improving nurses' professional competence. *Chinese Journal of Nursing Education*, 11, 855–857.
 59. Bhatia, V., Srivastava, R., Reddy, K. S., Sharma, M., Mandal, P. P., Chhabra, N., Jhalani, S., Mandal, S., Arinaminpathy, N., Aditama, T. Y., & Sarkar, S. (2020). Ending TB in Southeast Asia: Current resources are not enough. *BMJ Global Health*, 5(3), e002073.
 60. Goldstein, C. M., Gathright, E. C., & Garcia, S. (2017). Relationship between depression and medication adherence in cardiovascular disease: The perfect challenge for the integrated care team. *Patient Preference and Adherence*, 11, 547–559.