STATEMENT ON INTERNATIONAL TRAVELLERS WHO INTEND TO VISIT FRIENDS AND RELATIVES

AN ADVISORY COMMITTEE STATEMENT (ACS) COMMITTEE TO ADVISE ON TROPICAL MEDICINE AND TRAVEL (CATMAT)







TO PROMOTE AND PROTECT THE HEALTH OF CANADIANS THROUGH LEADERSHIP, PARTNERSHIP, INNOVATION AND ACTION IN PUBLIC HEALTH.

—Public Health Agency of Canada

Également disponible en français sous le titre :

Déclaration concernant les voyageurs internationaux qui ont l'intention de rendre visite à des amis et à des parents

To obtain additional information, please contact:

Public Health Agency of Canada Address Locator 0900C2 Ottawa, ON K1A 0K9 Tel.: 613-957-2991 Toll free: 1-866-225-0709

Fax: 613-941-5366 TTY: 1-800-465-7735

E-mail: publications@hc-sc.gc.ca

This publication can be made available in alternative formats upon request.

 $\ \odot$ Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada, as represented by the Minister of Health, 2015

Publication date: April 2015

This publication may be reproduced for personal or internal use only without permission provided the source is fully acknowledged.

Cat.: HP40-139/2015E-PDF ISBN: 978-1-100-25890-4

Pub.: 140530

STATEMENT ON INTERNATIONAL TRAVELLERS WHO INTEND TO VISIT FRIENDS AND RELATIVES

AN ADVISORY COMMITTEE STATEMENT (ACS)
COMMITTEE TO ADVISE ON TROPICAL MEDICINE
AND TRAVEL (CATMAT)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREAMBLE
KEY POINTS
PURPOSE
INTRODUCTION
METHODS
EPIDEMIOLOGY AND TRAVEL TRENDS
VFR TRAVELLER ASSESSMENT
RISK FACTORS
MALARIA
VACCINE-PREVENTABLE DISEASES
Typhoid
Hepatitis A
Hepatitis B
TUBERCULOSIS
PARASITIC INFECTIONS
SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS AND HIV
INJURY
SPECIAL POPULATIONS
Pediatric VFRs
Older travellers
Immunocompromised travellers
TARGETING VFRS FOR PRE-TRAVEL ADVICE
RESEARCH NEEDS
SUMMARY
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
REFERENCES
APPENDICES
Appendix 1: Canadian immigration profile of provinces and territories in 2012
Appendix 2: Vaccinations for possible acceleration in the routine pediatric immunization schedule
Appendix 3: Country and travel duration criteria for TB skin testing post-travel 2
Appendix 4: Risk factors for development of active tuberculosis among people with a positive tuberculin skin test (presumed infected with Mycobacterium tuberculosis) 3
Appendix 5: A summary of the decision making model to guide TB skin testing in travellers.
Appendix 6: Table of disease-specific risk and recommendations for VFRs
Appendix 7: Table of risk and recommendations for special population VFRs

PREAMBLE

The Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel (CATMAT) provides the Public Health Agency of Canada with ongoing and timely medical, scientific, and public health advice relating to tropical infectious disease and health risks associated with international travel. The Agency acknowledges that the advice and recommendations set out in this statement are based upon the best current available scientific knowledge and medical practices, and is disseminating this document for information purposes to both travellers and the medical community caring for travellers.

Persons administering or using drugs, vaccines, or other products should also be aware of the contents of the product monograph(s) or other similarly approved standards or instructions for use. Recommendations for use and other information set out herein may differ from that set out in the product monograph(s) or other similarly approved standards or instructions for use by the licensed manufacturer(s). Manufacturers have sought approval and provided evidence as to the safety and efficacy of their products only when used in accordance with the product monographs or other similarly approved standards or instructions for use.

KEY POINTS

- Rates of travel-related illness in travellers visiting friends and relatives (VFRs) tend to be
 higher for many conditions including tuberculosis, malaria, and certain vaccine-preventable
 diseases, parasitic and sexually transmitted infections. Disease-specific risk factors and
 recommendations are discussed throughout the statement. Specific recommendations are
 highlighted and summarized in Appendices 6 and 7.
- Various characteristics explain elevated risks among VFRs including increased potential
 for last minute travel plans, higher likelihood of longer stays, reluctance to eat differently
 than hosts, increased likelihood of drinking untreated water, and close proximity to the
 local population.
- VFRs and foreign-born travellers are less likely to seek pre-travel health consultation, and are more likely to seek advice closer to departure and to decline a recommended vaccine.
 These differences have been associated with VFRs' low perception of personal disease risk, but may also reflect language, cultural, and/or financial barriers preventing uptake.
- Pediatric VFRs have an increased risk of travel-related illness, and are at particular risk
 for febrile illness (especially caused by malaria), tuberculosis, typhoid, hepatitis A and
 meningococcal meningitis. These increased risks emphasize the importance of pre-travel
 assessment and adherence to recommended interventions for children.
- The pre-travel consultation for VFRs is an opportunity for health promotion, identification
 of pre-existing conditions, and risk reduction. Higher levels of non-immunity to vaccinepreventable disease and increased prevalence of chronic infections like HIV and viral
 hepatitis amongst foreign born VFRs should be taken into consideration as part of the
 pre-travel assessment. The importance of adherence and addressing potential challenges
 to achieving adherence to travel advice should be discussed.

- Health care providers should evaluate foreign-born VFR immunization status to ensure
 routine vaccinations are up-to-date for both adult and child newcomers to Canada. Typhoid
 vaccine is recommended for VFRs travelling to South Asia and can be considered for other
 travellers. Travellers who are non-immune to hepatitis A and B should be vaccinated prior
 to travel. For pediatric VFRs, opportunities to accelerate the routine schedule should be
 evaluated in order to provide maximal protection during travel.
- VFRs should be counseled about the importance of malaria prevention when travelling to
 malaria-endemic countries. Recommendations should include use of personal protective
 measures to prevent mosquito bites, and potential use of chemoprophylaxis depending
 upon destination.
- Safe food and water precautions should be discussed, and frequent hand washing should be emphasized. Prevention strategies to avoid parasitic infections such as schistosomiasis and strongyloidiasis should be recommended for VFRs travelling to endemic areas. In view of higher rates of sexually transmitted infection diagnosed amongst VFRs, the importance of safer sex practices should be stressed.
- Travellers going to high tuberculosis incidence countries should avoid contact with individuals with known pulmonary tuberculosis or unexplained chronic cough. Pre- and post- travel tuberculosis skin tests may be recommended for certain travellers as per Appendix 5.
- At routine health visits, health care providers should discuss potential upcoming VFR travel
 with individuals. Providers should equip themselves with travel health knowledge and
 clinical resources to be able to provide appropriate basic and essential recommendations.
 The clinician may need to prioritize recommendations based on a risk assessment of the
 traveller and travel destination when cost is a barrier to adherence.

PURPOSE

This statement, developed by the Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel (CATMAT), is intended to educate and advise Canadian health care professionals who provide pre-travel care to travellers intending to visit friends or relatives (VFRs). Specific travel-related risks, including infectious diseases epidemiology and their burden in this population, will be reviewed and recommendations will be provided to attempt to mitigate these risks.

INTRODUCTION

VFRs are a specific group of travellers who have been identified as having an increased risk of travel-related morbidity. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in the United States define a VFR as "an immigrant, ethnically and racially distinct from the majority population of the country of residence (a higher-income country), who returns to his or her home country (lower-income country) to visit friends or relatives. Included in the VFR category are family members, such as the spouse or children, who were born in the country of residence." (1). There is some debate over this "classic" definition of VFRs regarding the relevance of migrant status and ethnicity (2,3). It has been argued that the limitation of the "classic" definition is that the underlying assumptions of what constitutes a VFR no longer apply due to the current patterns of travel and population mobility (3). The proposed revision of the VFR definition includes that the intended purpose of travel is to visit friends and family; and that there is an epidemiologic gradient of health risk between the two locations which is supported by an assessment of health determinants (3). It also omits the requirement to be an immigrant or to be ethnically distinct from the population of the country of residence (3). The reasoning behind this is that shifting the focus from ethnicity or immigration status to the purpose of travel will provide a more useful foundation for travel health consultation based on individual health risk assessment (3). In addition, the new definition would include non-infectious health risks such as injury, air pollution or extreme temperatures (3).

This statement will focus on VFRs by the "classic" definition, since it is the one that is most used in the literature, and will outline the increased risks faced by VFRs and the current recommendations based upon the existing body of literature. It is reasonable, however, to extend these recommendations to those defined as VFRs under the proposed, broader definition for the reasons outlined above.

METHODS

A literature search of four electronic databases was conducted using combinations of the words "visit", "friend", "relative", "travel", "health" and "emporiatrics". The search was performed in the Medline database from 1946 through June 2013, in Embase from 1996 to June 2013, in the Global Health databases from 1973 to June 2013 and in Scopus from 2010 to June 2013. A grey literature search was performed using Google Scholar and the Access Medicine database with the keywords "visiting friends and relatives", "travel" and "health". Identified abstracts were screened and relevant full-text articles were obtained for review. Reports or publications from Statistics Canada, Citizenship and Immigration Canada, and the Public Health Agency of Canada were also searched to find data on Canadians, travellers and diseases. This provided an initial overview of the VFR literature, and section topics were selected accordingly for review. Additional focused literature searches were performed for each of the selected section topics to provide more detailed information on epidemiology and burden of specific diseases in the VFR population, with an emphasis on literature and evidence from Canada.

The statement does not contain a comprehensive overview of all travel-related risks, as content was prioritized based on risks specifically higher for VFRs. Therefore, it is important to be familiar with and address all travel-related risks at destination with a special emphasis on the topics discussed below. A comprehensive list of current CATMAT statements can be found on the PHAC travel health website (4).

The recommendations in this statement do not include a description of the strength of the recommendation or grade of the quality of evidence as has previously been done in other CATMAT statements. This statement represents a narrative review of the travel medicine literature on VFRs and CATMAT expert opinion recommendations arising from this review. Relevant data synthesis and recommendations from previous CATMAT statements, intended for all or broader groups of travellers (children, older travellers), are reiterated for the illnesses discussed as greater risks for VFRs.

EPIDEMIOLOGY AND TRAVEL TRENDS

In 2012, the major source countries of origin of Canadian immigrants were China (13%), the Philippines (13%), and India (11%) (5). However, each province and territory has a different immigration profile (Appendix 1).

From 2000 until 2010, Canadian travellers whose purpose was to visit friends and relatives increased over time but this proportion of travellers decreased slightly from 2010 to 2012. In 2012, visiting friends and relatives was the second most common reason for international travel after leisure with approximately two million overnight visits to overseas countries, and accounted for 17% of trips taken by Canadian travellers to overseas countries. While most (56%) of these travellers were going to destinations in Europe (which would not strictly meet criteria as VFR travel), the greater part of the remainder were travelling to countries with a health risk gradient relative to Canada (including 24% of VFRs who travelled to Asia) (6).

VFR TRAVELLER ASSESSMENT

Before considering a given traveller's itinerary and other details of travel, it is important to ascertain the person's relevant health history. In this regard, the pre-travel consultation is an opportunity for health promotion, including identification of undiagnosed conditions or vulnerabilities acquired in their countries of origin (7). First-generation immigrants to Canada have a higher prevalence of certain chronic diseases, such as hepatitis B (HB) and Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) (8,9), which may affect the types of advice given during pre-travel consultation. Furthermore, depending on what care they have previously received before and after arrival to Canada, adult VFRs may be non-immune to vaccine-preventable infections including varicella, mumps, rubella, measles or tetanus (10–13), such that additional screening and recommendations may be necessary for this population. Seen this way, the pre-travel consultation for VFR travellers can afford relatively more opportunities for risk reduction than for non-VFR travellers and may require additional time and effort.

RISK FACTORS

Rates of travel-related illness in VFRs tend to be higher for many conditions, although risks for individual travellers will vary based on characteristics of the traveller, destination, duration of travel, and activities while travelling. The higher risk for illness of VFRs can be explained by several characteristics. VFRs may have last minute travel plans to visit sick relatives or attend a funeral, which limits time to seek pre-travel advice (14). VFRs are more inclined to have longer stays, which increases the risk of morbidity and mortality (14), likely through increased exposure time. Those who stay with family members may be reluctant to eat differently than their hosts and are more likely to drink untreated water (14,15). In addition, their living accommodations may not include door and window screens or bed nets (15). VFRs are more inclined to use public transportation, or even drive themselves, which increases their risk of injury (14). Being in close proximity to the local population also increases risk for certain diseases, such as tuberculosis (TB) (14).

VFRs may lack awareness of risk and possible preventive measures (1,14,16,17). VFR and foreign-born travellers are less likely to seek pre-travel health consultation (18–21), are more likely to seek advice closer to departure (22) and are more likely to decline a recommended vaccine (22). These differences have been associated with VFRs' low perception of personal disease risk (15), but might also reflect language, cultural, and/or financial barriers preventing uptake (1,16). Immigrants in Canada tend to earn less than comparable non-immigrant workers; the proportion of recent immigrants with family incomes below the low-income cut-off in 2009 was 24%, 16%, 16%, and 25% in Quebec, Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia respectively (23). Furthermore, VFRs often believe that they are immune to diseases in their home country (1,14,17). This may be correct for certain viral infections such as hepatitis A (HA), but incorrect for other infections. In the case of malaria, those who live in highly-endemic areas can develop partial immunity; however, in order for immunity to be maintained, ongoing exposure is required (14). Survival of childhood malaria can lead to partial immunity and a relatively lower incidence of malaria in adulthood, leaving VFRs with the misperception that malaria is not a disease of adults. However, even if VFRs have been exposed to malaria in the distant past, they have most likely lost their partial immunity and are at increased risk for clinical malaria (14). Additionally, VFRs may seek health care providers with a similar ethnic background who may share their belief about pre-existing immunity and, therefore, not recommend malaria chemoprophylaxis or other prevention strategies (24,25).

While most of the above risk factors conferring higher risk of illness to VFRs can be classified as traveller level factors (i.e. characteristics of the traveller and his/her destination), risk factors may also fall into the categories of systems and provider level issues. Systems level issues include the fact that, in Canada, travel health services are usually not reimbursed by public or private health insurance plans. Consequently, out-of-pocket vaccines and medications can be costly, which may deter VFRs (particularly those with lower income) from receiving the care they need (14,17). The major provider level issues impacting VFRs are at the primary care level, including lack of up-to-date knowledge and training on travel health topics and destination-specific risks, and the limited available time and resources that can be devoted to complex issues encountered in primary care.

MALARIA

Most studies suggest foreign-born VFRs appear to have a significantly greater risk of contracting malaria than tourist travellers (up to 4.5-fold higher risk in some studies (26)). However, it is difficult to quantify the magnitude of risk due to the lack of precise data on denominators (i.e. numbers and types of travellers, and their destinations). A recent literature review comprised mostly of American and European studies found that VFRs are the most significant group of travellers for imported cases of malaria in non-endemic countries (27). This study found that VFRs account for 21% to 68% of malaria cases (27). National surveillance data on malaria cases in Canada does not have information on population groups. Of 214 cases of severe malaria reported to the Canadian Malaria Network between June 2001 and December 2013 with information regarding reason for travel, 45% stated their reason for travel was visiting friends and relatives (28). In a published review of the Quebec provincial registry of notifiable diseases, the majority of malaria cases (53%) were among VFRs (29). The vast majority of VFR cases from these reports had travelled to Sub-Saharan Africa, with the second most common destination being Asia (29); this most likely reflects both the risk of malaria transmission in these regions and the proportion of travellers to these destinations. Interestingly, one recent study from the United Kingdom found that while VFRs represented the majority of imported cases of malaria, the risk of mortality among malaria cases was 8.2-fold greater in tourist travellers (30); residual immunity or earlier presentation due to greater awareness about malaria among VFRs were postulated as possible explanations.

The above-mentioned literature review also noted that among travellers with malaria, 59% to 99% did not use malaria chemoprophylaxis or were taking it inadequately (inappropriate drug or adherence) (27). A Canadian study on travellers going to India (87% of whom were VFRs) found that only 31% intended to use chemoprophylaxis and less than 10% were using measures to prevent mosquito bites (31). Of those who did intend to use chemoprophylaxis, only 24% had been prescribed an appropriate drug regimen (31). In a Canadian case series of malaria diagnoses, the vast majority of cases were among travellers who did not seek pre-travel advice and/or were not taking appropriate malaria prophylaxis (32,33).

VFRs should be targeted for counselling regarding the importance of malaria prevention, including addressing potential misconceptions regarding personal risk. VFRs travelling to malaria-endemic regions should be advised to use personal protective measures against mosquito bites. If chemoprophylaxis is indicated, VFRs should be encouraged to purchase it in Canada before travel, rather than abroad. Also, VFRs should be advised to seek health care if they develop fever during travel or once they have returned to Canada.

For further recommendations on chemoprophylaxis, refer to CATMAT's Canadian Recommendations for the Prevention and Treatment of Malaria (34).

VACCINE-PREVENTABLE DISEASES

Canadian immigrants, both adults and children, may be more susceptible to vaccinepreventable disease due to lack of access to vaccines or different vaccine schedules in their countries of origin.

ROUTINE IMMUNIZATION

It has been found that many Canadian immigrants from developing countries are susceptible to at least one of the following childhood infectious diseases: measles, mumps, rubella and varicella (10,12,35). Outbreaks of rubella (36) and 2.0- to 3.1-fold higher incidence rates of varicella (37) among immigrants in Spain highlight the burden of non-immunity to vaccine-preventable diseases in immigrant populations with adult immigrants being an important risk group. Studies from the United States, Australia, and Germany have likewise revealed high rates of non-immunity amongst pediatric immigrants and refugees (38–40).

The pre-travel visit represents a valuable opportunity to evaluate immunization status and update routine vaccines for both adults and children. The mandatory medical examination required for immigration to Canada is intended to identify conditions affecting admissibility (conditions conferring public health risk or leading to excessive demands on the Canadian health care system), and does not include updating of vaccinations in its mandate. Children born abroad who migrate to Canada may be vaccinated according to Canadian standards as part of post-arrival assessment and/or for admission to the public education system; however, this may vary by community or jurisdiction. Adults may be relatively less likely to undergo post-arrival assessments with detailed review of vaccination status, although this can be a cost-effective exercise for at least some diseases (41,42). Most adults will also not have a vaccination record, which can make updating of vaccines particularly challenging (10).

Health care providers should evaluate foreign-born VFRs' immunization status and immunity to vaccine-preventable diseases, and ensure routine vaccines are up-to-date. For pediatric VFRs, although their immunizations may be considered up-to-date per provincial and territorial schedules, there may remain opportunities to accelerate the routine schedule in order to provide maximal protection during travel (where the risk of vaccine-preventable diseases may be higher, and/or care for children with such infections may be suboptimal). These opportunities exist when immunizations can be given at a younger age or a shorter interval than laid out in the routine schedule. For additional information on accelerated vaccine schedules, refer to the table in Appendix 2 ("Vaccinations for possible acceleration in the routine pediatric immunization schedule") as well as CATMAT's Statement on Pediatric Travellers (43).

TYPHOID

The majority of cases of typhoid fever in North America are associated with travel and a considerable proportion (37 to 91% of cases) is associated with travel to South Asia [defined as per the World Bank classification (44), and includes Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Maldives, Sri Lanka, and Bhutan] (16). In CATMAT's Statement on International Travellers and Typhoid, a detailed evidence review and synthesis revealed that the estimated risk of travel associated typhoid is about 1/3,000 travellers to this region (45). This is compared with much lower risk with travel to other typhoid-endemic regions (1/50,000 to 1/100,000 to Sub-Saharan Africa, North Africa and the Middle East, or South America; and <1/300,000 to the Caribbean and Central America) (45). VFR travel was found to be a major risk factor for travel-related typhoid fever infection, with 66% of United States cases (46) and more than 90% of Quebec cases (29) occurring in VFRs. Although VFRs appear to be at increased risk for typhoid, the magnitude of incremental risk attributable to VFR travel in addition to travel destination is unclear. In a study performed by the GeoSentinel network, VFRs had 7.0 times the odds of receiving a diagnosis of typhoid fever compared with tourist travellers (26).

Those travelling to countries with poor sanitation and hygiene conditions should be advised to follow safe food and water precautions and to wash their hands frequently. CATMAT recommends age-appropriate typhoid vaccination for adult and children VFRs travelling to South Asia (45). Typhoid vaccine is not routinely recommended for travellers to other destinations; however, it may be considered for VFRs in specific high-risk situations (e.g. extended periods of stay, children, or inability to avoid high-risk food/water exposures) (45).

CATMAT's Statement on International Travellers and Typhoid (45) provides further information on prevention of typhoid fever and use of the typhoid vaccine.

HEPATITIS A

European studies of HA epidemiology revealed VFRs as a major contributor of cases, accounting for 28 to 78% of HA cases in travellers, with children VFRs making up most of the cases (47–50). Incidence rates calculated by region from these studies suggest rates of HA acquisition ranging from 6 to 49 cases per 100,000 travel months overall to HA-endemic regions including Sub-Saharan Africa, North Africa, the Middle East, South-Central Asia, and Latin America. Amongst Quebec cases of HA, 57% were in VFRs of which over 60% were acquired in Africa (with 32% acquired in North Africa) or the Indian subcontinent (29).

Those travelling to countries with poor sanitation and hygiene conditions should be advised to follow safe food and water precautions and to wash their hands frequently (51). Non-immune VFRs travelling to developing countries should be vaccinated, and age-appropriate immunization is advised for children (51). Immunity in foreign born VFRs can be confirmed with serology to determine need for vaccination.

HEPATITIS B

Several behavioural characteristics of VFR travel (longer periods in country, close contact with local population, greater risk of injury and/or contact with the medical system) would be considered specific risk factors for HB acquisition. Increased risk of travel-related HB infection was shown in Dutch VFRs (52), with a 2.8-fold increased risk above non-VFRs. The majority of VFRs who acquired HB in this study were short term travellers, with suspected risk factors for acquisition including sexual contact, household contacts, and medical care. Other studies have not demonstrated a specific risk of travel-related HB for VFR travellers (53,54). However, infection risks during travel have variously been estimated at 5 per 100,000 travellers overall (52) and from 10 to 25 per 100,000 travel months (55,56) for symptomatic infections. Given that a recent systematic review and meta-analysis found that over half of immigrants and refugees are non-immune to HB (9), these estimates of disease risk during travel support recommendations to screen for past or current infection and offer vaccine to non-immune travellers (7).

VFRs travelling to HB-endemic countries (i.e. with HB surface antigen prevalence ≥ 2%) or who may engage in behaviours increasing their risk for blood/body fluid contact, should be counselled regarding safe practices (condom use, use of sterile medical equipment) (57). Non-immune VFRs should be vaccinated, and age-appropriate immunization is advised for children (51).

Further recommendations on prevention of HA and HB can be found in CATMAT's Summary of Recommendations for the Prevention of Viral Hepatitis During Travel (51).

TUBERCULOSIS

Travellers to countries with higher TB incidence are at risk of acquiring infection during travel. In 2012, foreign-born individuals accounted for 64% of all reported TB cases in Canada (58). The highest incidence rates among those who were foreign-born were found in people originating from Africa, South-East Asia, Western Pacific and Eastern Mediterranean (58). These cases include TB disease acquired in the country of origin before immigration as well as during return VFR trips. Studies from the United Kingdom and the Netherlands demonstrated significant proportions of TB in immigrant populations attributed to VFR travel (22% in South Asian and 56% in Moroccan VFRs, respectively) (59,60). A Dutch study of returned travellers reported a TB incidence rate of 280 infections per 100,000 travel months to highly endemic countries, and 60 cases of active TB disease per 100,000 travel months (61). Highest infection rates were seen in travellers to Africa, Central America, and South-East Asia; additionally, travelling for medical work (e.g. missionary work) was associated with high risk (61). Although there were very few VFRs in this study, other studies in children have shown foreign travel (mostly for the purpose of visiting family) as a risk factor for latent TB infection (LTBI) (62,63).

VFRs travelling to high TB incidence countries should avoid consumption of unpasteurized dairy products to reduce the risk of *M. bovis* acquisition (64). VFRs should be cautioned to avoid individuals with known pulmonary TB (until individual has been deemed non-infectious) or people with unexplained chronic cough. In some circumstances Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) vaccine may be considered for individual long term travellers to high-prevalence countries, specifically infants and young children (<5 years) travelling to highly TB endemic countries or individuals who may have extensive exposure to multidrug resistant TB. Detailed guidance on BCG indications and administration can be found in the Canadian TB Standards (Chapter 16) (65) and CIG (109), respectively.

Detailed guidance on pre-travel advice for TB infection risk avoidance and post-travel TB screening can be found in CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64). Up-to-date information on TB risk conditions and country-level risk stratification can be found in Chapters 6 and 13, respectively, of the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards (65). Risk of TB acquisition during travel can be estimated according to population rates of all cases of TB in the destination country and duration and purpose of travel (see Appendix 3 or Table 4, Chapter 13 of the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards) (65). Risk of development to active TB disease after acquisition can be predicted by underlying conditions or risk factors (see Appendix 4 or Table 1, Chapter 6 of the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards) (65).

Recommendations for pre- and post-travel TB skin testing are summarized in Appendix 5. In brief, for travellers with significant exposure (based on trip duration and TB incidence at destination) or increased risk of TB activation post-exposure (e.g. immune suppression, age < 5 years), a post-travel TB skin test is recommended > 8 weeks after their return. A pre-travel TB skin test is recommended for those at risk for hepatotoxicity with LTBI treatment (age >50 years, chronic viral hepatitis, or other co-morbid liver diseases) and with an increased probability of having a positive test pre-travel (born or lived in high-prevalence country, health care worker, aboriginal), or for those who require routine skin test monitoring for work (e.g. health care worker). For individuals at risk of hepatotoxicity from LTBI treatment with isoniazid, such treatment would be reserved for those with recent infection during travel, making pre-travel TB skin testing important for immigrant VFRs who are more likely to have a positive test result pre-travel.

PARASITIC INFECTIONS

When compared to other travellers, immigrant VFRs have been found to have significantly more non-diarrheal intestinal parasitic infections, regardless of destination (26). While many of these infections are self-limiting and carry a low risk of significant impact on health, certain infections, such as schistosomiasis, strongyloidiasis, echinococcosis and cysticercosis, can be chronic and have the potential to cause significant morbidity or even mortality. As with TB, it is difficult in the post-travel encounter to differentiate incident infections acquired during VFR trips from previously undiagnosed chronic infections that pre-date immigrant travellers' arrival to Canada. High-risk areas for traveller acquisition of these latter infections include Sub-Saharan Africa, South-East Asia, and Latin America (26). These risks are reflected in the burden of these pathogens in refugees, with rates of strongyloidiasis among African and South-East Asian refugees of 9 to 77% and schistosomiasis among African refugees of 2 to 73% (13). A study

of patients attending a large Canadian GeoSentinel post-travel clinic found VFRs to be more likely to present with these, and various other, intestinal parasites (66). A review comparing illnesses among VFR versus non-VFR travellers in the entire GeoSentinel network found the proportionate morbidity of non-diarrheal intestinal pathogens in VFRs was greatly increased, with odds ratios ranging from 3.8 to 6.8 according to region of travel (26).

Similar to the updating of vaccinations, the pre-travel assessment can represent an opportunity to identify risk and to recommend screening for these treatable chronic parasitic infections amongst immigrants (if not already performed in the past) although the costs and benefits of such screening in asymptomatic travellers have not been well-studied. Prevention of these infections during travel should be advised according to risk at the destination. These recommendations include avoidance of freshwater activities like swimming in Africa, South-East Asia, and parts of South America for schistosomiasis, avoiding walking barefoot or other skin-to-soil contacts in all tropical countries for strongyloidiasis, and using standard water and food precautions for other intestinal and non-intestinal parasitic infections spread through fecal-oral contamination.

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS AND HIV

There are few published data specifically addressing sexually transmitted infections (STIs) in VFRs. Recently, a large GeoSentinel review of STIs in travellers found that approximately 1% of 112,000 ill travellers were diagnosed with an STI (67). VFR travel was associated with a 2.1 odds ratio of STI diagnosis; the most common infections were acute HIV, syphilis, and urethritis (67). Additional previous smaller studies had demonstrated that STIs were more likely among VFRs than other travellers, with VFRs having 2.6 to 5.0 times more risk of being diagnosed with these infections (26,68). Surveillance studies in the United Kingdom and Western Australia have documented HIV acquisition amongst immigrants during travel back to their country of birth (69,70). While the evidence supporting the actual burden of STIs and HIV in VFRs is somewhat limited, sexual risk behaviour studies among VFRs suggest a high risk for acquisition of such infections. New sexual partners and unprotected sexual encounters are common among travellers generally (71), including VFRs (72,73). However, VFRs travelling to countries with higher endemic rates of HIV and other STIs will be at relatively increased risk of acquisition of these diseases as a result of these risk behaviours. Traveller risk factors for casual sex while abroad (and hence STI acquisition during travel) include: younger age, male sex, men who have sex with men, single status, travelling alone or with friends, longer periods of travel, and having a history of previous STI diagnosis or more than five sexual partners in the previous year (74).

It is recommended that health care providers discuss with VFRs the possibility of sexual activity during travel, as well as the rates of STIs and HIV at destination. The importance of safer sex practices should be emphasized and travellers should be encouraged to bring condoms from Canada, to assure their quality (75). HPV vaccine can be considered for adolescent and adult travellers not previously vaccinated. HB vaccination is recommended as above.

Additional recommendations related to STI risk reduction can be found in CATMAT's Statement on Travellers and Sexually Transmitted Infections (75).

INJURY

While much time is spent during the pre-travel consultation on strategies for prevention of infection, injuries are a much more prevalent and potentially preventable cause of morbidity and mortality in travellers. Injury is the cause of death in 18 to 25% of traveller mortality abroad (76–78), a higher rate compared to rates of death due to infection of 1 to 2% (77,79). While the travel-related injury literature has not specifically examined the burden of injuries in VFRs, numerous characteristics of VFRs are assumed to increase injury risk. These characteristics include greater likelihood to use local modes of travel, longer trip durations, and taking part in local activities.

Where use of motorcycles or bicycles is necessary, VFRs should be encouraged to use helmets (80). The use of other available road-safety precautions such as seat belts and infant/child car seats should also be recommended (80). For more information on injury risk and recommendations for prevention, refer to CATMAT's Statement on Risk of Injury and Travel (80).

SPECIAL POPULATIONS

PEDIATRIC VFRS

Children born to immigrant parents in well-resourced countries like Canada are considered VFRs. During travel, these children are likely at greater risk than their parents or foreign-born VFR children due to lack of prior immunity to local infections (such as HA) as well as other demographic and travel-related characteristics. When compared to pediatric tourist travellers, pediatric VFRs seen before departure in Spain and the United States were more likely to be younger (<5 years), travelling for longer periods, travelling to rural areas, presenting closer to the planned departure date (leaving less time for immunization and antimalarial chemoprophylaxis initiation), and travelling to destinations with higher risk for tropical diseases (81,82). Pediatric VFRs have been shown to be at greater risk for some post-travel outcomes than adult VFRs or other pediatric travellers. A pediatric GeoSentinel study observed that ill children presenting for treatment after travel were significantly more likely to be VFRs compared to adults, and pediatric VFRs were more likely to present with systemic febrile illnesses in general and malaria in particular (83). A Swiss study of ill returned pediatric travellers found that 75% of potentially serious illnesses requiring admission to hospital (malaria, TB, typhoid fever, meningococcal meningitis) were amongst VFRs (84).

A recent surveillance study of pediatric VFRs from Canada found that enteric fever, malaria, diarrheal diseases and HA accounted for 75% of travel-related illnesses in this group (85). Only 26% of these travellers had received pre-travel advice. The majority of the pediatric VFRs in this study (71%) required hospitalization upon their return to Canada.

Amongst travellers, malaria disproportionately affects children, with higher rates of pediatric infection despite children constituting a smaller proportion of travellers (34). A recent review found that in the United States and Europe, 50% to 84% of the imported cases of malaria in children are due to VFR travel (86). In Canada, surveillance of cases of severe malaria (2001–2013) revealed that 18% of cases were aged <18 years (28). In the Quebec registry of all malaria cases (2004–2007), 17% of cases were aged <19 years (29). Use of chemoprophylaxis is low in this population group (87–90) and in cases where chemoprophylaxis is prescribed, only 0 to 30% of pediatric VFRs receive it as prescribed (86).

Children are at increased risk of acquiring typhoid fever and also suffer higher rates of associated complications, hospitalizations and death (45,91–95). Evidence reviewed in CATMAT's Statement on International Travellers and Typhoid revealed a disproportionate burden in pediatric travellers (45). Quebec VFRs less than 20 years of age accounted for 50% of typhoid cases from 2004 to 2007 (29), and in Sweden, child travellers aged 0 to 6 and 7 to 18 years of age had odds ratios of 44.2 and 14.2, respectively, of acquiring typhoid compared to travellers aged 46 to 65 years (96).

VFR travel is a risk factor for exposure to TB and development of LTBI (62,63). This is of particular concern for children under five years of age due to their high risk for development of active TB disease and more severe forms of TB (meningitis, miliary) after infection (97).

Pediatric VFRs are also at high risk of acquiring HA, accounting for 65% of Quebec VFR cases and 53% of travel-related cases overall (29,48). In addition, young children may acquire HA infection while travelling that causes asymptomatic or mild disease for them but may pose disease risk for non-immune older children or adult contacts on return to Canada.

These data emphasize the importance of pre-travel assessment and adherence to recommended interventions for children. Parents should be counselled that the rates of illness requiring hospitalization are higher among VFR children and that illness during and after travel requires urgent assessment. Also, parents of Canadian-born VFR children should be counselled that their child has no innate immunity against travel-related illnesses due to their genetics or ethnoracial identity. For more information on pediatric travellers as well as recommendations, refer to CATMAT's Statement on Pediatric Travellers (43); refer to Appendix 2 for accelerated pediatric vaccination schedules.

OLDER TRAVELLERS

Unlike pediatric VFR travellers, there have been no publications focusing on specific health risks for older VFR travellers. Nonetheless, older travellers have numerous characteristics (comorbid conditions, poorer immune responses or contraindications to vaccines, and frailty leading to injury risk) which lead to increased health risks while travelling. Older VFRs may thus have resulting synergistic risk and should be counselled accordingly. For information on older travellers as well as recommendations, refer to CATMAT's Statement on Older Travellers (98). Additionally, for evaluation and recommendations on TB risk and pre-travel TB skin testing recommendations, refer to Appendix 5, Chapter 6 of the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards and to CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64,65).

IMMUNOCOMPROMISED TRAVELLERS

Similar to older travellers, little research has addressed the unique health risks of VFR travel for immunocompromised individuals. However, a number of survey studies of travel in various immunocompromised groups have been reported in recent years, including Canadian HIV-infected individuals (99) and solid organ transplant recipients in Canada, the United States and the Netherlands (100–102). In these surveys, international travel was common amongst these groups with 46% of HIV patients and 27 to 36% of solid organ transplant recipients undertaking international travel, amongst whom VFR travel was the purpose for 35% and 12 to 46%, respectively (99-102). Pre-travel advice was sought by only 44% of HIV patients, and by 4 to 78% of solid organ transplant recipients, with HIV and transplant clinic physicians being the most common sources of advice for each patient group. Illness requiring medical attention occurred in 18% of HIV patients and 8 to 29% of solid organ transplant recipients, and infections were common causes of illness. Unfortunately, none of these survey studies evaluated the above outcomes specifically comparing VFR to non-VFR travellers. A retrospective cohort study of cancer patients in the United States seen before and after travel found 20% were VFRs; 13% of the total number of immunocompromised patients reported a travel-related illness (103). It is notable that the rates of illness found by these studies exceed those of the average traveller (104).

Infection risks for the VFR travellers according to their degree and nature of immune compromise, along with the risks specific to the destination should be reviewed and appropriateness of travel discussed with the patient. For travel health information on immunocompromised travellers as well as detailed recommendations on specific conditions, refer to CATMAT's statement on The Immunocompromised Traveller (105). For evaluation and recommendations on TB risk in specific immunocompromising conditions, refer to Appendix 4, Chapter 6 of the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards and to CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64,65).

TARGETING VFRS FOR PRE-TRAVEL ADVICE

Given that VFRs are at greater risk of illness yet are less likely to seek pre-travel advice, health care providers should address the issue of potential upcoming VFR travel with individuals at routine health visits. Consultation with a travel health specialist should be recommended for all VFRs, and particularly for those with risk factors for severe disease (immunocompromised, children, comorbid disease). However, if patients are unwilling or unable to afford the cost of seeking travel medicine consultation, primary care providers should recognize that they may be the only point of contact for VFRs to receive travel advice. As such, providers should equip themselves with travel health knowledge and clinical resources so that appropriate basic and essential recommendations can be made before VFRs travel (e.g. vaccines, malaria prophylaxis, etc.). In situations where cost is an important barrier to adherence to recommendations, the clinician may need to prioritize recommendations based on a risk assessment of the traveller and travel destination.

RESEARCH NEEDS

Additional research is required to determine the facilitators and barriers to accessing and adhering to pre-travel advice for VFR travellers. Engaging ethnic communities and health care personnel who provide their care is necessary to assess knowledge, attitudes and behaviour regarding travel health and determine the best ways of providing information to VFR travellers. Some promising community-based awareness campaigns targeting potential and impending VFRs have recently been developed (106,107); however, formal evaluations of effectiveness are needed to determine whether such initiatives are worthwhile. Accurate estimates of risk of specific illnesses during travel according to purpose and trip duration are needed in order to provide better information to travellers regarding necessary precautions. Additionally, a cost analysis of the burden of travel-related illness among Canadian VFR travellers and the cost-effectiveness of preventive interventions would be very valuable.

SUMMARY

The pre-travel health assessment of VFRs should be conducted as for tourist travellers. However, additional attention is required to address issues such as the VFR's current health status, health beliefs and increased likelihood of prior exposure to certain conditions in their country of origin. The need for adherence and addressing potential challenges to achieving adherence to travel advice should be discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CATMAT gracefully acknowledges the contribution of Maggie Bryson, Jennifer Cutler, and Kelsie Jagt for their assistance in developing this statement.

[†] **CATMAT Members:** McCarthy A (Chair), Boggild A, Brophy J, Bui Y, Crockett M, Ghesquire W, Greenaway C, Henteleff A, Libman M, Teitelbaum P, Vaughan S.

Liaison members: Hui C (Canadian Paediatric Society), Gershman M (US Centres for Disease Control and Prevention), Pernica J (Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease Canada).

Ex-officio members: McDonald P (Division of Anti-Infective Drugs, Health Canada), Tepper M (Directorate of Force Health Protection, Department of National Defence), Schofield S (Pest Management Entomology, Department of National Defence), Marion D (Canadian Forces Health Services Centre, Department of National Defence).

Member Emeritus: Jeanes C.W.L.

[†] This statement was prepared by Brophy J, Bui Y, Crockett M, Greenaway C, McCarthy A, Ellia L, Geduld J, and approved by CATMAT.

REFERENCES

- (1) Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. CDC Health Information for International Travel 2014. New York: Oxford University Press; 2014.
- (2) Behrens RH, Stauffer WM, Barnett ED, Loutan L, Hatz CF, Matteelli A, et al. Travel case scenarios as a demonstration of risk assessment of VFR travelers: introduction to criteria and evidence-based definition and framework. J Travel Med 2010 May-Jun;17(3):153–162.
- (3) Barnett ED, MacPherson DW, Stauffer WM, Loutan L, Hatz CF, Matteelli A, et al. The visiting friends or relatives traveler in the 21st century: time for a new definition. J Travel Med 2010 May–Jun;17(3):163–170.
- (4) Public Health Agency of Canada. About CATMAT. 2014; Available at: www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/tmp-pmv/catmat-ccmtmv/index-eng.php. Accessed 11/17, 2014.
- (5) Citizenship and Immigration Canada. Facts and figures, immigration overview permanent and temporary residents 2012. 2012; Available at: www.cic.gc.ca/english/resources/statistics/facts2012/permanent/10.asp. Accessed 06/13, 2014.
- (6) Statistics Canada. International Travel Survey, Canadian Residents 2012, Custom Extract for the Public Health Agency of Canada.
- (7) Walker PF. Pre-travel Consultation and Hepatitis B: A Double Opportunity for Preventing Infection in At-Risk Patients and Life-Threatening Complications in HBV Carriers. Journal of travel medicine 2013;20(3):143–145.
- (8) Boulos D, Yan P, Schanzer D, Remis RS, Archibald CP. Estimates of HIV prevalence and incidence in Canada, 2005. Canada communicable disease report = Relevé des maladies transmissibles au Canada. 2006;32(15):165–174.
- (9) Rossi C, Shrier I, Marshall L, Cnossen S, Schwartzman K, Klein MB, et al. Seroprevalence of Chronic Hepatitis B Virus Infection and Prior Immunity in Immigrants and Refugees: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. PLoS ONE 2012;7(9).
- (10) Greenaway C, Dongier P, Boivin JF, Tapiero B, Miller M, Schwartzman K. Susceptibility to measles, mumps, and rubella in newly arrived adult immigrants and refugees. Ann Intern Med 2007 Jan 2;146(1):20–24.
- (11) Merrett P, Schwartzman K, Rivest P, Greenaway C. Strategies to prevent varicella among newly arrived adult immigrants and refugees: A cost-effectiveness analysis. Clin Infect Dis 2007;44(8):1040–1048.
- (12) Greenaway C, Boivin JF, Cnossen S, Rossi C, Tapiero B, Schwartzman K, et al. Risk factors for susceptibility to varicella in newly arrived adult migrants in Canada. Epidemiol Infect 2013 Nov 1:1–13.
- (13) Pottie K, Greenaway C, Feightner J, Welch V, Swinkels H, Rashid M, et al. Evidence-based clinical guidelines for immigrants and refugees. CMAJ 2011 Sep 6;183(12):E824–925.
- (14) Bacaner N, Stauffer B, Boulware DR, Walker PF, Keystone JS. Travel medicine considerations for North American immigrants visiting friends and relatives. JAMA 2004 Jun 16;291(23):2856–2864.
- (15) Angell SY, Cetron MS. Health disparities among travelers visiting friends and relatives abroad. Ann Intern Med 2005 Jan 4;142(1):67–72.
- (16) Behrens RH, Barnett ED. Chapter 29: Visiting Friends and Relatives. In: Keystone JS, Kozarsky PE, Freedman DO, Nothdurft H, Connor BA, editors. Travel Medicine. Second ed. USA: Mosby Elsevier; 2008. p. 291–298.

- (17) Angell SY, Behrens RH. Risk assessment and disease prevention in travelers visiting friends and relatives. Infect Dis Clin North Am 2005 Mar; 19(1):49–65.
- (18) Baggett HC, Graham S, Kozarsky PE, Gallagher N, Blumensaadt S, Bateman J, et al. Pretravel health preparation among US residents traveling to India to VFRs: importance of ethnicity in defining VFRs. J Travel Med 2009 Mar–Apr;16(2):112–118.
- (19) LaRocque R, Rao S, Lawton T, Tsibris A, Schoenfeld D, Barry A, et al. Use and sources of medical information among departing international travelers to low and middle income countries at Logan International Airport-Boston, MA, 2009. Int J Inf Dis. Conference: 14th International Congress on Infectious Diseases (ICID) Miami, FL United States. Conference 2010 March 2010;14:e132.
- (20) Van Herck K, Van Damme P, Castelli F, Zuckerman J, Nothdurft H, Dahlgren AL, et al. Knowledge, attitudes and practices in travel-related infectious diseases: the European airport survey. J Travel Med 2004 Jan-Feb;11(1):3–8.
- (21) Van Genderen PJ, Van Thiel PP, Mulder PG, Overbosch D. Trends in the knowledge, attitudes and practices of travel risk groups towards prevention of malaria: Results from the Dutch Schiphol airport survey 2002 to 2009. Malaria Journal 2012;11.
- (22) LaRocque RC, Deshpande BR, Rao SR, Brunette GW, Sotir MJ, Jentes ES, et al. Pre-travel health care of immigrants returning home to visit friends and relatives. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2013;88(2):376–380.
- (23) Murphy BB, Zhang X, Dionne C. Low income in Canada: A multi-line and multi-index perspective. : Statistics Canada; 2012.
- (24) Campbell H. Imported malaria in the UK: advice given by general practitioners to British residents travelling to malaria endemic areas. J R Coll Gen Pract 1987 Feb;37(295):70–72.
- (25) McCarthy M. Should visits to relatives carry a health warning?. Lancet 2001 Mar 17;357(9259):862.
- (26) Leder K, Tong S, Weld L, Kain KC, Wilder-Smith A, von Sonnenburg F, et al. Illness in travelers visiting friends and relatives: a review of the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network. Clin Infect Dis 2006 Nov 1;43(9):1185–1193.
- (27) Pavli A, Maltezou HC. Malaria and travellers visiting friends and relatives. Travel Med Infect Dis 2010 May;8(3):161–168.
- (28) McCarthy, A.E., Morgan, C.A., Prematunge, C., Geduld, J. Severe Malaria in Canada, 2001–2013 (in press).
- (29) Bui Y-, Trepanier S, Milord F, Blackburn M, Provost S, Gagnon S. Cases of malaria, hepatitis A, and typhoid fever among VFRs, Quebec (Canada). Journal of Travel Medicine 2011 November–December 2011;18(6):373–378.
- (30) Checkley AM, Smith A, Smith V, Blaze M, Bradley D, Chiodini PL, et al. Risk factors for mortality from imported falciparum malaria in the United Kingdom over 20 years: An observational study. BMJ (Online) 2012;344(7854).
- (31) dos Santos CC, Anvar A, Keystone JS, Kain KC. Survey of use of malaria prevention measures by Canadians visiting India. CMAJ 1999 Jan 26;160(2):195–200.
- (32) Fanella ST, Lipkin H, Crockett ME. Presentation of pediatric malaria to a Canadian Children's Hospital. Journal of Travel Medicine; 2012.19: 6, 391–394 2012.
- (33) Lee C.S., Gregson D.B., Church D., Laupland K.B., Eckhardt R., Ross T., et al. Population-Based Laboratory Surveillance of Imported Malaria in Metropolitan Calgary, 2000–2011. 2013; Accessed 4, 8.

- (34) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Canadian Recommendations for the Prevention and Treatment of Malaria. 2014; Available at: http://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2014/aspc-phac/HP40-102-2014-eng.pdf. Accessed 07/22, 2014.
- (35) Parkins MD, McNeil SA, Laupland KB. Routine immunization of adults in Canada: Review of the epidemiology of vaccine-preventable diseases and current recommendations for primary prevention. Can j infect dis med microbiol 2009;20(3):e81–90.
- (36) Danovaro-Holliday MC, LeBaron CW, Allensworth C, Raymond R, Borden TG, Murray AB, et al. A large rubella outbreak with spread from the workplace to the community. JAMA 2000 Dec 6;284(21):2733–2739.
- (37) Valerio L, Escriba JM, Fernandez-Vazquez J, Roca C, Milozzi J, Solsona L, et al. Biogeographical origin and varicella risk in the adult immigration population in Catalonia, Spain (2004–2006). Euro Surveill 2009 Sep 17;14(37):19332.
- (38) Barnett ED, Christiansen D, Figueira M. Seroprevalence of measles, rubella, and varicella in refugees. Clinical Infectious Diseases 2002;35(4):403–408.
- (39) Paxton GA, Rice J, Davie G, Carapetis JR, Skull SA. East African immigrant children in Australia have poor immunisation coverage. J Paediatr Child Health 2011;47(12):888–892.
- (40) Poethko-Müller C, Ellert U, Kuhnert R, Neuhauser H, Schlaud M, Schenk L. Vaccination coverage against measles in German-born and foreign-born children and identification of unvaccinated subgroups in Germany. Vaccine 2009;27(19):2563–2569.
- (41) Rossi C, Schwartzman K, Oxlade O, Klein MB, Greenaway C. Hepatitis B Screening and Vaccination Strategies for Newly Arrived Adult Canadian Immigrants and Refugees: A Cost-Effectiveness Analysis. PLoS ONE 2013;8(10).
- (42) Hislop GT, Bajdik CD, Teh C, Lam W, Tu S-, Yasui Y, et al. Hepatitis B testing and vaccination in immigrants attending English as a second language classes in British Columbia, Canada. Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention 2009;10(6):997–1002.
- (43) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on Pediatric Travellers. Can Commun Dis Rep 2010;ACS-3(36):1–31.
- (44) World Bank. South Asia Home. 2014; Available at: www.worldbank.org/en/region/sar. Accessed 05/07, 2014.
- (45) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on International Travellers and Typhoid. 2014; Available at: http://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2014/aspc-phac/HP40-98-2014-eng.pdf. Accessed 5/21, 2014.
- (46) Lynch MF, Blanton EM, Bulens S, Polyak C, Vojdani J, Stevenson J, et al. Typhoid fever in the United States, 1999–2006. JAMA—Journal of the American Medical Association 2009;302(8):859–865.
- (47) Askling HH, Rombo L, Andersson Y, Martin S, Ekdahl K. Hepatitis A risk in travelers. J Travel Med 2009 Jul-Aug;16(4):233–238.
- (48) Faber MS, Stark K, Behnke SC, Schreier E, Frank C. Epidemiology of hepatitis A virus infections, Germany, 2007–2008. Emerg Infect Dis 2009 Nov;15(11):1760–1768.
- (49) Mutsch M, Spicher VM, Gut C, Steffen R. Hepatitis A virus infections in travelers, 1988–2004. Clin Infect Dis 2006 Feb 15;42(4):490–497.

- (50) Nielsen US, Larsen CS, Howitz M, Petersen E. Hepatitis A among Danish travellers 1980–2007. J Infect 2009 Jan;58(1):47–52.
- (51) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Summary of recommendations for the prevention of viral hepatitis during travel. Can Commun Dis Rep 2014;40(13):278–281.
- (52) Sonder GJ, van Rijckevorsel GG, van den Hoek A. Risk of hepatitis B for travelers: is vaccination for all travelers really necessary?. J Travel Med 2009 Jan–Feb;16(1):18–22.
- (53) Boggild A, Castelli F, Gautret P, Torresi J, von S, F., Barnett E, et al. Vaccine preventable diseases in returned international travelers: results from the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network. Vaccine 2010;28(46):7389–7395.
- (54) Leder K, Torresi J, Libman M, Cramer J, Castelli F, Schlagenhauf P, et al. GeoSentinel surveillance of illness in returned travelers, 2007–2011. Ann Intern Med 2013 2013 Mar 19;158(6):456–468.
- (55) Steffen R, Baños A, DeBernardis C. Vaccination priorities. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2003;21(2):175–180.
- (56) Nielsen US, Thomsen RW, Cowan S, Larsen CS, Petersen E. Predictors of travel-related hepatitis A and B among native adult Danes: A nationwide case-control study. J Infect 2012;64(4):399–408.
- (57) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on Hepatitis Vaccines for Travellers. Can Commun Dis Rep 2008;34(ACS-2):1–24.
- (58) Public Health Agency of Canada. Tuberculosis in Canada 2012—Pre-Release. 2012; Available at: www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/tbpc-latb/pubs/tbcan12pre/index-eng.php. Accessed 6/16, 2014.
- (59) Ormerod LP, Green RM, Gray S. Are there still effects on Indian subcontinent ethnic tuberculosis of return visits?: A longitudinal study 1978–97. J Infect 2001;43(2):132–134.
- (60) Kik SV, Mensen M, Beltman M, Gijsberts M, Van Ameijden EJC, Cobelens FGJ, et al. Risk of travelling to the country of origin for tuberculosis among immigrants living in a low-incidence country. Int J Tuberc Lung D 2011;15(1):38–43.
- (61) Cobelens FGJ, Van Deutekom H, Draayer-Jansen IWE, Schepp-Beelen ACHM, Van Gerven PJHJ, Van Kessel RPM, et al. Risk of infection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis in travellers to areas of high tuberculosis endemicity. Lancet 2000;356(9228):461–465.
- (62) Saiman L, San Gabriel P, Schulte J, Vargas MP, Kenyon T, Onorato I. Risk factors for latent tuberculosis infection among children in New York City. Pediatrics 2001;107(5):999–1003.
- (63) Lobato MN, Hopewell PC. Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection after travel to or contact with visitors from countries with a high prevalence of tuberculosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1998 Dec;158(6):1871–1875.
- (64) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers. Can Commun Dis Rep 2009;35(ACS-5):1–20.
- (65) Public Health Agency of Canada. Canadian Tuberculosis Standards. 7th ed. Ottawa (ON): Public Health Agency of Canada, Canadian Lung Association/Canadian Thoracic Society; 2014.
- (66) Boggild AK, Yohanna S, Keystone JS, Kain KC. Prospective analysis of parasitic infections in Canadian travelers and immigrants. J Travel Med 2006 May–Jun;13(3):138–144.
- (67) Matteelli A, Schlagenhauf P, Carvalho ACC, Weld L, Davis XM, WilderSmith A, et al. Travel-associated sexually transmitted infections: an observational cross-sectional study of the GeoSentinel surveillance database. Lancet Infectious Diseases; 2013.13: 3, 205–213 2013.

- (68) Fenner L, Weber R, Steffen R, Schlagenhauf P. Imported infectious disease and purpose of travel, Switzerland. Emerg Infect Dis 2007 Feb;13(2):217–222.
- (69) Huntington S, Chadborn T, Rice BD, Brown AE, Delpech VC. Travel for HIV care in England: a choice or a necessity? HIV Med 2011 Jul;12(6):361–366.
- (70) Combs BC, Giele CM. An increase in overseas acquired HIV infections among heterosexual people in Western Australia. Sex Health 2009 Mar;6(1):35–39.
- (71) Vivancos R, Abubakar I, Hunter PR. Foreign travel, casual sex, and sexually transmitted infections: systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Infect Dis 2010 Oct;14(10):e842–51.
- (72) Kramer MA, van den Hoek A, Coutinho RA, Prins M. Sexual risk behaviour among Surinamese and Antillean migrants travelling to their countries of origin. Sex Transm Infect 2005 Dec;81(6):508–510.
- (73) Fenton KA, Chinouya M, Davidson O, Copas A, MAYISHA research team. HIV transmission risk among sub-Saharan Africans in London travelling to their countries of origin. AIDS 2001 Jul 27;15(11):1442–1445.
- (74) Vivancos R, Abubakar I, Hunter P. Foreign travel, casual sex, and sexually transmitted infections: systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Infect Dis 2010;14(10):e842–851.
- (75) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on Travellers and Sexually Transmitted Infections. Can Commun Dis Rep 2006;32(ACS-5):1–24.
- (76) McInnes RJ, Williamson LM, Morrison A. Unintentional injury during foreign travel: a review. J Travel Med 2002 Nov–Dec;9(6):297–307.
- (77) Lunetta P. Injury deaths among Finnish residents travelling abroad. Int J Inj Contr Saf Promot 2010 Sep;17(3):161–168.
- (78) MacPherson DW, Gushulak BD, Sandhu J. Death and international travel--the Canadian experience: 1996 to 2004. J Travel Med 2007 Mar–Apr;14(2):77–84.
- (79) MacPherson DW, Guerillot F, Streiner DL, Ahmed K, Gushulak BD, Pardy G. Death and dying abroad: the Canadian experience. J Travel Med 2000 Sep-Oct;7(5):227-233.
- (80) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on Risk of Injury and Travel. Can Commun Dis Rep 2010;36(ACS-13):1–14.
- (81) Valerio L, Roure S, Sabria M, Balanzo Xd, Moreno N, MartinezCuevas O, et al. Epidemiologic and biogeographic analysis of 542 VFR traveling children in Catalonia (Spain). A rising new population with specific needs. Journal of Travel Medicine; 2011.18: 5, 304–309 2011.
- (82) Han P, Yanni E, Jentes ES, Hamer DH, Chen LH, Wilson ME, et al. Health challenges of young travelers visiting friends and relatives compared with those traveling for other purposes. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2012;31(9):915–919.
- (83) Hagmann S, Neugebauer R, Schwartz E, Perret C, Castelli F, Barnett ED, et al. Illness in children after international travel: analysis from the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network. Pediatrics 2010 May;125(5):e1072–80.
- (84) Hunziker T, Berger C, Staubli G, Tschopp A, Weber R, Nadal D, et al. Profile of travel-associated illness in children, Zurich, Switzerland. Journal of Travel Medicine; 2012.19: 3, 158–162 2012.
- (85) Crockett M, Hui C, Kuhn S, Ford-Jones L, Grondin D, Keystone J. Travel-related illnesses among pediatric VFRs in Canada. American Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 60th Annual Meeting Dec. 4–8, 2011; Philadelphia, PA, USA(No. 968).

- (86) Hendel-Paterson B, Swanson SJ. Pediatric travelers visiting friends and relatives (VFR) abroad: Illnesses, barriers and pre-travel recommendations. Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease 2011 July 2011;9(4):192–203.
- (87) Arnaez J, Roa MA, Albert L, Cogollos R, Rubio JM, Villares R, et al. Imported malaria in children: a comparative study between recent immigrants and immigrant travelers (VFRs). J Travel Med 2010 Jul-Aug;17(4):221–227.
- (88) Gutman J, Guarner J. Pediatric malaria: 8-year case series in Atlanta, Georgia, and review of the literature. J Travel Med 2010 Sep;17(5):334–338.
- (89) Ladhani S, Aibara RJ, Blaze M, Smith V, Shingadia DV. Trends in imported childhood malaria in the UK: 1999–2003. Arch Dis Child 2006 Nov;91(11):911–914.
- (90) Valerio L, Roure S, Sabria M, Balanzo Xd, Moreno N, MartinezCuevas O, et al. Epidemiologic and biogeographic analysis of 542 VFR traveling children in Catalonia (Spain). A rising new population with specific needs. Journal of Travel Medicine 2011;18(5):304–309.
- (91) Bhutta ZA. Typhoid fever: Current concepts. Infect Dis Clin Pract 2006;14(5):266–272.
- (92) Brooks WA, Hossain A, Goswami D, Nahar K, Alam K, Ahmed N, et al. Bacteremic typhoid fever in children in an urban slum, Bangladesh. Emerg Infect Dis 2005 Feb;11(2):326–329.
- (93) Siddiqui FJ, Rabbani F, Hasan R, Nizami SQ, Bhutta ZA. Typhoid fever in children: some epidemiological considerations from Karachi, Pakistan. IJID 2006;10(3):215–222.
- (94) Sinha A, Sazawal S, Kumar R, Sood S, Reddaiah VP, Singh B, et al. Typhoid fever in children aged less than 5 years. Lancet 1999;354(9180):734–737.
- (95) Bhutta ZA. Current concepts in the diagnosis and treatment of typhoid fever. Br Med J 2006;333(7558):78–82.
- (96) Ekdahl K, De Jong B, Andersson Y. Risk of travel-associated typhoid and paratyphoid fevers in various regions. Journal of Travel Medicine 2005;12(4):197–204.
- (97) Marais BJ, Gie RP, Schaaf HS, Beyers N, Donald PR, Starke JR. Childhood pulmonary tuberculosis: old wisdom and new challenges. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2006 May 15;173(10):1078–1090.
- (98) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on Older Travellers. Can Commun Dis Rep 2011;37(ACS-2):1–24.
- (99) Salit IE, Sano M, Boggild AK, Kain KC. Travel patterns and risk behaviour of HIV-positive people travelling internationally. CMAJ 2005 Mar 29;172(7):884–888.
- (100) Boggild AK, Sano M, Humar A, Salit I, Gilman M, Kain KC. Travel patterns and risk behavior in solid organ transplant recipients. J Travel Med 2004 Jan–Feb;11(1):37–43.
- (101) Roukens AH, van Dissel JT, de Fijter JW, Visser LG. Health preparations and travel-related morbidity of kidney transplant recipients traveling to developing countries. Clin Transplant 2007 Jul-Aug;21(4):567–570.
- (102) Uslan DZ, Patel R, Virk A. International travel and exposure risks in solid-organ transplant recipients. Transplantation 2008 Aug 15;86(3):407–412.
- (103) Mikati T, Taur Y, Seo SK, Shah MK. International travel patterns and travel risks of patients diagnosed with cancer. J Travel Med 2013 Mar–Apr;20(2):71–77.

- (104) Steffen R, Rickenbach M, Wilhelm U, Helminger A, Schar M. Health problems after travel to developing countries. J Infect Dis 1987 Jul;156(1):84–91.
- (105) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. The Immunocompromised Traveller. Can Commun Dis Rep 2007;33(ACS-4):1–24.
- (106) Leder K, Lau S, Leggat P. Innovative community-based initiatives to engage VFR travelers. Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease 2011 September 2011;9(5):258–261.
- (107) Navarro M, Navaza B, Guionnet A, López-Vélez R. A multidisciplinary approach to engage VFR migrants in Madrid, Spain. Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease 2012;10(3):152–156.
- (108) Citizenship and Immigration Canada. Facts and figures, immigration overview permanent and temporary residents 2012: Canada—Permanent residents by province or territory and source area. 2012; Available at: www.cic.gc.ca/english/resources/statistics/facts2012/permanent/14.asp. Accessed 03/17, 2014.
- (109) Public Health Agency of Canada. Canadian Immunization Guide. 2014; Available at: www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/publicat/cig-gci. Accessed 5/29/2014.
- (110) Pfizer Inc. Product Monograph Prevnar Pneumococcal 7-valent Conjugate Vaccine. 2010.
- (111) Pfizer Canada Inc. Product Monograph Prevnar 13—Pneumococcal 13-valent conjugate vaccine. 2014.
- (112) GlaxoSmithKline Inc. Product Monograph Synflorix—Pneumococcal Conjugate Vaccine (Non-typeable Haemophilus influenzae (NTHi)- protein D, diptheria or tetanus toxoid conjugates) adsorbed. 2014.
- (113) ACIP. Prevention of Varicella—Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP). MMWR 2007;56(RR04):1–40.
- (114) GlaxoSmithKline Inc. Product Monograph Havrix—Hepatitis A Vaccine Inactivated. 2011.
- (115) Lagos R, Munoz A, Dumas R, Pichon S, Zambrano B, Levine M, et al. Immunological priming of one dose of inactivated hepatitis A vaccine given during the first year of life in presence of maternal antibodies. Vaccine 2003 Sep 8. 2013;21(25–26):3730–3733.
- (116) Lopez E, Contrini M, Xifro M, Cattaneo M, Zambrano B, Dumas R, et al. Hepatitis A vaccination of Argentinean infants: comparison of two vaccination schedules. Vaccine 2007 Jan 2;25(1):102–108.
- (117) Chowdhury A, Santra A, Habibullah C, Khan A, Karunakaramaiah J, Kishore T, et al. Immune response to an indigenously developed r-hepatitis B vaccine in mixed population: study of an accelerated vaccination schedule. World J Gastroenterol 2005 Feb 21, 2005;11(7):1037–1039.
- (118) Köksal Y, Varan A, Aydin G, Sari N, Yazici N, Yalcin B, et al. Comparison of accelerated and rapid schedules for monovalent hepatitis B and combined hepatitis A/B vaccines in children with cancer. Pediatr Hematol Oncol 2007 Dec;24(8):587–594.
- (119) Bosnak M, Dikici B, Bosnak V, Haspolat K. Accelerated hepatitis B vaccination schedule in childhood. Pediatr Int 2002 Dec;44(6):663–665.
- (120) GlaxoSmithKline Inc. Product monograph—Nimenrix. 2014.
- (121) Public Health Agency of Canada. National Advisory Committee on Immunization (NACI). Available at: www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/naci-ccni. Accessed 11/14, 2014.
- (122) Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Use of Japanese encephalitis vaccine in children: recommendations of the advisory committee on immunization practices, 2013. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2013 2013 Nov 15;62(45):898–900.

- (123) Public Health Agency of Canada. Immunization Schedules—Provincial/Territorial Immunization Programs. 2014; Available at: www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/im/is-vc-eng.php. Accessed 11/13, 2014.
- (124) Committee to Advise on Tropical Medicine and Travel. Statement on personal protective measures to prevent arthropod bites. Can Commun Dis Rep 2012;38(ASC-3):1–18.
- (125) World Health Organization. Hepatitis B, countries or areas at risk. 2012; Available at: http://gamapserver.who.int/mapLibrary/Files/Maps/Global_HepB_ITHRiskMap.png. Accessed 5/21, 2014.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: CANADIAN IMMIGRATION PROFILE OF PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES IN 2012

	PERMAN	PERMANENT RESIDENTS AREA OF ORIGIN (%)	IIGIN (%)
PROVINCE/ TERRITORY	AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST	ASIA AND PACIFIC	SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA
Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick	1,050 (26.1)	2,026 (50.3)	649 (16.1)
Nova Scotia	593 (25.3)	866 (37.0)	563 (24.1)
Quebec	19,270 (35.0)	9,611 (17.5)	13,623 (24.7)
Ontario	21,849 (22.1)	52,910 (53.4)	10,336 (10.4)
Manitoba	2,646 (19.9)	8,345 (62.7)	1,342 (10.1)
Saskatchewan	1,408 (12.6)	8,112 (72.6)	1,098 (9.8)
Alberta	5,733 (15.9)	22,497 (62.3)	3,805 (10.5)
British Columbia	3,470 (9.6)	24,888 (68.7)	4,343 (12.0)
Yukon, North West Territories and Nunavut	32 (7.0)	333 (72.5)	70 (15.3)
Canada	56,051 (21.7)	129,588 (50.2)	35,829 (13.9)

SOURCE: Citizenship and Immigration Canada (108)

APPENDIX 2: VACCINATIONS FOR POSSIBLE ACCELERATION IN THE ROUTINE PEDIATRIC IMMUNIZATION SCHEDULE

VACCINE	ROUTINE SCHEDULE*	YOUNGEST AGE	MINIMUM INTERVAL	COMMENTS
DTaP-IPV-Hib (109)	2, 4, 6, 18 mo	6 wk	4 wk	
Pneumococcal conjugate (109)	2, 4, (6), 12 mo	6 wk	4 wk (110–112)	
Rotavirus (109)	2, 4 mo (Rotarix) or 2, 4, 6 mo (Rotateq)	6 wk	4 wk	
Measles, mumps, rubella (MMR) (109)	12 mo, 4–6 yr	ош 9	4 wk	Note: If MMR given prior to 12 months of age, 2 doses should be given after 12 months of age in order to ensure long term immunity
Varicella (109)	12–15 mo, 4–6 yr	12 mo	4 wk (113)	
Hepatitis A (109,114)	≥12 mo age, 0, 6 mo	6 mo (115,116)	6 то	Off-label usage; see CIG chapter on Hepatitis A vaccination (109)
Hepatitis B (109)	0, 1, 6 mo beginning at birth or middle/high school	Birth	0,1,2,12 months (117) 0,7,21 days, 12 months (118) 0,10,21 days (119)	

VACCINE	ROUTINE SCHEDULE*	YOUNGEST AGE	MINIMUM INTERVAL	COMMENTS
Meningococcal conjugate (Men-C monovalent; Men-A/C/Y/W135 quadrivalent) (109,120)	Men-C monovalent: single dose at 12 mo Men-A/C/Y/W135 quadrivalent: single dose in middle/high school Men-B -vaccination is not routine, only in cases of outbreaks or high risk individuals	Men-C: 2 mo Men-A/C/Y/W135: • Menveo—2 mo • Menactra—9 mo • Nimenrix—12 mo Men-B: 2 mo	Men-C products: • Menjugate—4 wk • NeisVac-C or Meningitec—8 wk Men-A/C/Y/W135 products: • Menveo—8 wk • Menvectra—single dose only • Nimenrix—single dose only Men-B—4 wk	 Please refer to the CIG chapter on meningococcal vaccination and NACI statements on various meningococcal vaccines for details of schedules (121) Consider early meningococcal vaccination using product judged most appropriate based on local epidemiology at destination
Japanese Encephalitis Virus (JEV)	Kiaro—licensed only for >/= 18y; 2 doses at 0, 28 days (109)	Trial data for Ixiaro on infants down to 2 months Half dose (0.25mL) for <3 years; full dose (0.5mL) ≥ 3 years	28 days	• Off label usage of Ixiaro is recommended by CATMAT (122) • Alternatively, parents may consider getting vaccinated in destination country with local product (e.g. Green Cross Vaccine for >9 months or Chengdu SA14–14–2 for >6 months or Imojev for >12 months)
Rabies (109)	Imovax—no lower age limit; 3-dose pre-exposure schedule 0, 7, 21–28 days; 4-dose post-exposure schedule 0, 3, 7, 14 days		No lower age limit	

VACCINE	ROUTINE SCHEDULE*	YOUNGEST AGE	MINIMUM INTERVAL	COMMENTS
Typhoid (109)	Injectable—single dose— age >/= 2 years. Oral—4 doses taken 2 days apart—age 6 years	No additional guidance	∀ Z	
Yellow fever (109)	YF-VAX—single dose for children ages 9 months or older	Could be given as young as 6–8 months if travel to YF-endemic area is unavoidable		If an infant receives YF vaccine at 6 to 8 months of age, and subsequently travels after 9 months of age, serology should be done (if available), and a booster dose considered.

* Refer to routine provincial/territorial immunization programs for specific vaccine schedules (123)

APPENDIX 3: COUNTRY AND TRAVEL DURATION CRITERIA FOR TB SKIN TESTING POST-TRAVEL

TB CASE INCIDENCE IN DESTINATION COUNTRY	DURATION OF TRAVEL
≥ 400/100,000 and	≥ 3 months;
200–399/100,000 and	≥ 6 months;
100–199/100,000 and	≥ 12 months;
≥100/100,000 and	≥ 1 month of travel with very high-risk contact, particularly direct patient contact in a hospital or indoor setting, but possibly including work in prisons, homeless shelters, refugee camps or inner city slums.

SOURCE: Adapted from the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards, 7th Edition (65)

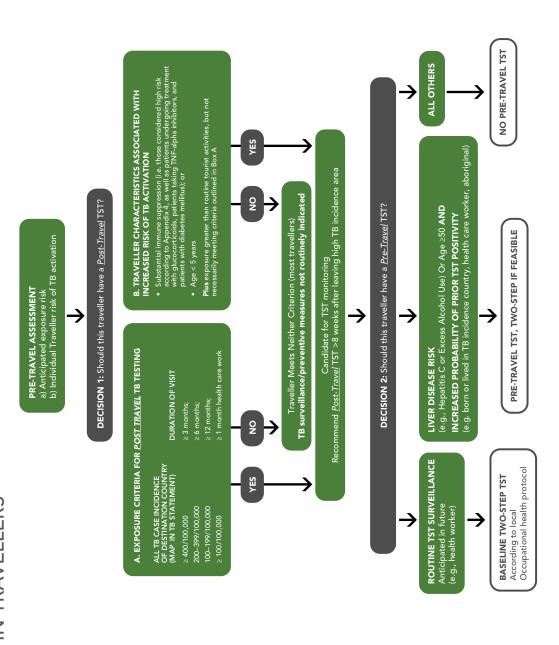
AMONG PEOPLE WITH A POSITIVE TUBERCULIN SKIN TEST (PRESUMED INFECTED APPENDIX 4: RISK FACTORS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF ACTIVE TUBERCULOSIS WITH MYCOBACTERIUM TUBERCULOSIS)

RISK FACTOR	ESTIMATED RISK OF TB RELATIVE TO PERSONS WITH NO KNOWN RISK FACTOR
HIGH RISK	
Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS)	110–170
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection	50–110
Transplantation (related to immunosuppressant therapy)	20–74
Silicosis	30
Chronic renal failure requiring hemodialysis	10–25
Carcinoma of head and neck	11.6
Recent TB infection (≤ 2 years)	15
Abnormal chest x-ray—fibronodular disease	6–19
MODERATE RISK	
Tumor necrosis factor alpha inhibitors	1.5–45.8
Diabetes mellitus (all types)	2.0–3.6
Treatment with glucocorticoids (≥15mg/d prednisone)	4.9–7.7
Young age when infected (0–4 years)	2.2–5.0
SLIGHTLY INCREASED RISK	
Heavy alcohol consumption (≥3 drinks/day)	3-4
Underweight (< 90% ideal body weight; for most people, this is a body mass index ≤ 20)	2–3
Cigarette smoker (1 pack/day)	1.8–3.5
Abnormal chest x-ray—granuloma	2

RISK FACTOR	ESTIMATED RISK OF TB RELATIVE TO PERSONS WITH NO KNOWN RISK FACTOR
LOW RISK	
Person with positive TST, no known risk factor, normal chest x-ray ("low risk reactor")	
VERY LOW RISK	
Person with positive two-step TST (booster), no other known risk factor	
and normal chest x-ray	0.5

SOURCE: Adapted from the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards, 7th Edition (65)

APPENDIX 5: A SUMMARY OF THE DECISION MAKING MODEL TO GUIDE TB SKIN **TESTING IN TRAVELLERS**



SOURCE: Adapted from CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64)

APPENDIX 6: TABLE OF DISEASE-SPECIFIC RISK AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR VFRS

DISEASE	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Malaria	VFRs have 4.5-fold increased risk of malaria (26).	Less likely to seek a pre-travel health consultation Lower use of chemoprophylaxis and personal protective measures Belief that they are already immune More likely to stay in areas with intense malaria transmission Living accommodations may not include door, window screens, bed nets or air-conditioning	 VFRs should be targeted for counselling regarding the importance of malaria prevention; counselling should include addressing potential misconceptions regarding their personal level of risk. VFRs travelling to malaria-endemic regions should be advised to use personal protective measures to prevent bites from Anopheles mosquitoes. Detailed information can be found in CATMAT's Statement on Personal Protective Measures to Prevent Arthropod Bites (124). For recommendations on chemoprophylaxis, see CATMAT's Canadian Recommendations for the Prevention and Treatment of Malaria (34). CHILDREN: For details on the prevention and treatment of malaria in children, see CATMAT's Statement on Pediatric Travellers (43). VFRs should be encouraged to purchase antimalarial chemoprophylaxis in Canada rather than abroad; probing for concerns about cost may be helpful to initiate this discussion. VFRs should be advised to seek health care if they develop fever during travel or once they have returned to Canada.

DISEASE	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Routine vaccine- preventable diseases	• Adult immigrants are more likely to be non-immune to mumps, rubella, and varicella (10,35). They have 2.0- to 3.1-fold increased rates of varicella disease (37), reflecting non-immunity.	Differences in immunization requirements/schedules in country of birth	 Care providers should evaluate foreign-born VFR children's and adults' immunization status and immunity to diseases that are usually acquired or immunized against in childhood, and ensure routine vaccines are up-to-date (such as measles and varicella). CHILDREN: Evaluate opportunities to provide maximal protection against preventable diseases by accelerating the primary immunization series when possible. See CATMAT's Statement on Pediatric Travellers (43); Part 3 of the Canadian Immunization Guide, Immunization of Travellers (109); and Appendix 2, pediatric accelerated immunization schedules table.
Typhoid	 VFRs have 7 times the odds of being diagnosed with typhoid than tourist travellers (26). The majority of typhoid is diagnosed in VFRs, particularly in children and those travelling to South Asia (29,46). 	May be reluctant to eat differently than their hosts More likely to drink untreated water Longer trips may increase risk of exposure	 Those travelling to countries with poor sanitation and hygiene conditions should be advised to follow safe food and water precautions and to wash their hands frequently. CATMAT recommends that VFRs travelling to South Asia* receive typhoid vaccine; see CATMAT's Statement on International Travellers and Typhoid for more information (45). CHILDREN: Age-appropriate immunization against typhoid is advised for children travelling to South Asia. Typhoid vaccine is not routinely recommended for travellers to destinations other than South Asia; however, it may be considered for VFRs in situations posing significant risk (e.g. children, extended periods of stay, inability to avoid high-risk food/water exposures) (45).

DISEASE	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Hepatitis A (HA)	• The majority of travelrelated HA infections are diagnosed in VFRs (29,47–50).	 May be reluctant to eat differently than their hosts More likely to drink untreated water 	 Those travelling to countries with poor sanitation and hygiene conditions should be advised to follow safe food and water precautions and to wash their hands frequently. Non-immune VFRs going to developing countries should be vaccinated. See CATMAT's Summary of Recommendations for the Prevention of Viral Hepatitis During Travel (51). CHILDREN: Age-appropriate immunization against HA is advised for children.
Hepatitis B (HB)	 2.8-fold increased risk of HB infection seen in VFRs compared to non-VFR travellers (52). Over half of immigrants are non-immune to HB (9). 	May be in close contact with locals with HB infection (household, sexual) May be more likely to come into contact with blood/ contaminated medical equipment (seeking routine or emergency care; dental care; tattooing or piercing)	 All VFRs going to countries that are endemic for HB (i.e. with HB surface antigen prevalence ≥ 2%) or who may engage in behaviours increasing their risk for blood/body fluid contact should be counselled regarding safe practices (condom use, use of sterile medical equipment). Non-immune VFRs should be vaccinated. See CATMAT's Summary of Recommendations for the Prevention of Viral Hepatitis During Travel (51) and the WHO map of endemic countries (125). CHILDREN: Age-appropriate immunization against HB is advised for children.

DISEASE	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Tuberculosis (TB)	Individual TB risk depends on exposure risk and duration at destination; however, studies have shown 20 to 50% of TB in immigrants to be travel acquired (59,60). Health care workers have the highest risk of acquiring TB (61).	Close proximity to the local population	 VFRs should avoid contact with individuals with known pulmonary TB (until such individuals have been deemed non-infectious by their health care provider) or people with unexplained chronic cough. For travellers with significant exposure (based on trip duration and TB incidence at destination) or increased risk of TB activation post-exposure (e.g. immune suppression, under five years of age), a post-travel TB skin test is recommended > 8 weeks after their return. A pre-travel TB skin test is recommended for those at risk for hepatotoxicity with LTBI treatment (hepatitis C infection, alcoholic liver disease, age ≥ 50 years) AND increased probability of having a positive test pre-travel (born or lived in high-prevalence country, health care worker, See CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Standards (Chapters 6 & 13) (65) Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) vaccine may be considered for individual long term travellers to high-prevalence countries in some exceptional circumstances. See CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64), and the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards (65).
			 VFKs going to high 1B incidence countries should avoid consumption of unpasteurized dairy products to reduce the risk of M. bovis acquisition.

DISEASE	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Parasitic infections	3.8- to 6.8-fold increased risk of intestinal parasitic	Greater environmental and food/water exposures to pathogens during travel	 Travellers should avoid freshwater activities, such as swimming, in Africa, South-East Asia, and parts of South America to prevent schistosomiasis.
	infection in VFRs compared to non-VFRs (26).	Longer exposure times	 Travellers should avoid walking barefoot or other skin-to-soil contacts in tropical countries to prevent strongyloidiasis. Adherence to standard water and food precautions is recommended for prevention of other parasitic infections.
Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and HIV	• 2.6- to 5.0-fold increased risk of STI diagnosis in VFRs	 Higher rates of casual and unprotected sexual encounters during travel 	• Discuss with VFRs the possibility of sexual activity during travel, as well as the rates of STIs & HIV in the general and sex worker populations at destination.
	compared to other travellers (26,68).	 Travel to areas with higher endemic rates of HIV and STIs 	 Stress importance of safer sex practices and preparation for travel by bringing condoms from Canada (to ensure quality of condoms).
			 HB vaccination should be recommended as above.
			 HPV vaccine can be considered for adolescent and adult travellers not previously vaccinated.
			 See CATMAT's Statement on Travellers and Sexually Transmitted Infections (75).
Injury	No data available	More inclined to use public transportation or drive themselves	VFRs should avoid riding motorcycles or bicycles, but if unable to avoid these activities, they should be encouraged to use helmets.
		• Longer trips	 VFRs should be encouraged to use standard road-safety precautions such as seat belts and infant/child car seats.
			Refer to CATMAT's Statement on Risk of Injury and Travel (80)

* South Asia is defined as per the World Bank classification (44) and includes Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Maldives, Sri Lanka, and Bhutan. Among these countries, the large majority (290%) of cases of typhoid among travellers were reported from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.

APPENDIX 7: TABLE OF RISK AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SPECIAL POPULATION VFRS

SPECIAL POPULATION	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Pediatric travellers	Majority or disproportionate number of imported malaria (86), typhoid (29,96), and HA (29,48) infections are in children (despite representing a much lower proportion of travellers). 14.2- to 44.2-fold increased risk of typhoid (96).	Less immunity and immature immune systems More environmental exposures	 Counsel parents that rates of illness requiring hospitalization (such as malaria and typhoid fever) are higher among VFR children and that illness during and after travel requires urgent assessment. Foreign-born parents with Canadian-born children should be counselled that their child has no prior immunity due to genetics alone. Refer to specific recommendations for CHILDREN in above sections and to Appendix 2 for accelerated vaccination schedules. For post-travel TB skin testing recommendations please see CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Standards (Chapters 6 & 13) (65). For recommendations on BCG for long term travelling children please see CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64), the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards (Chapter 16) (65) and the Canadian Immunization Guide (109).
			 See CATMAT's Statement on Pediatric Travellers (43).

SPECIAL POPULATION	MAGNITUDE OF INCREASED RISK	REASON FOR INCREASED RISK	STRATEGIES TO DECREASE TRAVEL ASSOCIATED RISKS TO VFRS
Older travellers	• No data available	 Higher likelihood of comorbid conditions and potential for drug interactions Suboptimal immune responses to vaccines Risk of adverse reaction to yellow fever vaccine increases with age Frailty leading to injury risk 	 Thorough review of medical comorbidities and vaccine recommendations according to age should be undertaken. See TB recommendations above regarding pre-travel TB skin testing recommendations, as per CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64) and the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards (Chapters 6 & 13) (65). See CATMAT's Statement on Older Travellers (98).
Immuno-compromised travellers	• No data available	Greater infection risk and general medical frailty Potential contraindications to live viral vaccines or diminished vaccine efficacy Greater likelihood of illness requiring medical attention	 Infection risks for traveller according to degree and nature of immune compromise, along with risks of specific destination, should be reviewed and appropriateness of travel discussed. See TB recommendations above regarding post-travel TB skin testing recommendations as per CATMAT's Risk Assessment and Prevention of Tuberculosis Among Travellers (64) and the Canadian Tuberculosis Standards (Chapters 6 & 13) (65). See CATMAT's Statement on The Immunocompromised Traveller (105) for detailed advice on specific conditions.

