Spectrum of Illness in International Migrants Seen at GeoSentinel Clinics in 1997–2009, Part 2: Migrants Resettled Internationally and Evaluated for Specific Health Concerns

Anne E. McCarthy,¹ Leisa H. Weld,³ Elizabeth D. Barnett,⁵ Heidi So,² Christina Coyle,⁶ Christina Greenaway,⁴ William Stauffer,^{8,9} Karin Leder,¹⁰ Rogelio Lopez-Velez,¹¹ Phillipe Gautret,¹² Francesco Castelli,¹³ Nancy Jenks,⁷ Patricia F. Walker,⁸ Louis Loutan,^{14,15} and Martin Cetron⁹; for the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network^a

¹Department of Medicine, The Ottawa Hospital and University of Ottawa, ²Department of Epidemiology and Community Medicine, University of Ottawa, ³International Society of Travel Medicine/GeoSentinel Statistician Consultant, Victoria, British Columbia, and ⁴Division of Infectious Diseases, Jewish General Hospital, McGill University, Montréal, Canada; ⁵Maxwell Finland Laboratory for Infectious Diseases, Boston Medical Center and Boston University, Massachusetts; ⁶Albert Einstein College of Medicine of Yeshiva University, Bronx, and ⁷Peekskill Area Health Center, Peekskill, New York; ⁸HealthPartners, Center for International Health and University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; ⁹National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia; ¹⁰Victorian Infectious Disease Service, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Victoria, Australia; ¹¹Tropical Medicine and Clinical Parasitology, Infectious Disease Department, Ramon y Cajal Hospital, Madrid, Spain; ¹²Service des Maladies Infectieuses et Tropicales, Hôpital Nord, AP-HM, Marseille, France; ¹³Institute for Infectious and Tropical Diseases, University of Brescia, Italy; and Departments of ¹⁴International and Humanitarian Medicine and ¹⁵Community Medicine and Primary Care, University Hospitals, Geneva, Switzerland

(See the Major Article by Barnett et al on pages 913-24.)

Background. Increasing international migration may challenge healthcare providers unfamiliar with acute and long latency infections and diseases common in this population. This study defines health conditions encountered in a large heterogenous group of migrants.

Methods. Migrants seen at GeoSentinel clinics for any reason, other than those seen at clinics only providing comprehensive protocol-based health screening soon after arrival, were included. Proportionate morbidity for syndromes and diagnoses by country or region of origin were determined and compared.

Results. A total of 7629 migrants from 153 countries were seen at 41 GeoSentinel clinics in 19 countries. Most (59%) were adults aged 19–39 years; 11% were children. Most (58%) were seen >1 year after arrival; 27% were seen after >5 years. The most common diagnoses were latent tuberculosis (22%), viral hepatitis (17%), active tuberculosis (10%), human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)/AIDS (7%), malaria (7%), schistosomiasis (6%), and strongyloidiasis (5%); 5% were reported healthy. Twenty percent were hospitalized (24% for active tuberculosis and 21% for febrile illness [83% due to malaria]), and 13 died. Tuberculosis diagnoses and HIV/AIDS were reported from all regions, strongyloidiasis from most regions, and chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) particularly in Asian immigrants. Regional diagnoses included schistosomiasis (Africa) and Chagas disease (Americas).

Conclusions. Eliciting a migration history is important at every encounter; migrant patients may have acute illness or chronic conditions related to exposure in their country of origin. Early detection and treatment, particularly for diagnoses related to tuberculosis, HBV, *Strongyloides*, and schistosomiasis, may improve outcomes. Policy makers should consider expansion of refugee screening programs to include all migrants.

Keywords. migrant; tuberculosis; hepatitis; Strongyloides; schistosomiasis.

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2013;56(7):925–33 Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Infectious Diseases Society of America 2012. DOI: 10.1093/cid/cis1016

Received 27 July 2012; accepted 26 November 2012; electronically published 7 December 2012.

^aIn addition to the authors, members of the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network who contributed data (in descending order) are listed at the end of the report.

Correspondence: Martin S. Cetron, MD, Division of Global Migration and Quarantine, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1600 Clifton Rd, MS E-03, Atlanta, GA 30333 (mcetron@mac.com).

The speed and magnitude of international human mobility results in changes in global disease patterns that pose challenges to migrants, who may carry diseases with them, and healthcare professionals, who may be unfamiliar with these diseases [1, 2]. Migrants are at higher risk for certain infectious diseases with long latency periods, many amenable to screening, and for which identification and treatment may reduce long-term morbidity and mortality [3-5]. Clinicians caring for migrants in developed countries note higher rates of latent tuberculosis, chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection, intestinal parasites, and malaria [4, 6-9]. Therefore, healthcare professionals must be aware of issues pertaining to screening, diagnostics, and treatment for diseases that are not endemic. This can be challenging, particularly with shifting patterns of migration and resultant changes in disease epidemiology.

GeoSentinel sites are specialized travel or tropical medicine clinics that collect clinician-based surveillance data on travelrelated diseases. This study analyzed the spectrum of infectious diseases and acute medical problems in migrants resettled internationally and evaluated for specific health concerns, comparing results by origin region. The data provide clinicians caring for heterogenous groups of migrants a snapshot of common acute and chronic conditions affecting migrants. Health issues of migrants seen for systematic, protocol-based health screening in 2 US-based GeoSentinel clinics that perform such screening are described in a companion paper [10]. Together, these studies inform public health professionals by adding data useful in developing policy that might reduce health disparities in migrants.

METHODS

Data Source

The GeoSentinel Surveillance Network (http://www.istm.org/ geosentinel/main.html) currently consists of 54 member sites, in 24 countries over 6 continents. Patients are eligible for inclusion in the database if they crossed an international border and sought medical care at a GeoSentinel clinic. Sites use best reference diagnostic testing available and document inpatient or outpatient status, major complaint(s), and identify the country of acquisition of the illness based on itinerary, incubation period, and/or known epidemiology. GeoSentinel sites enter anonymous questionnaire-based information into a central structured query language database. The GeoSentinel data collection protocol was classified at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) as exempt public health surveillance after review by the institutional review board (IRB). At other sites, human studies approval was obtained if required by local IRBs.

All individuals whose last or only purpose of travel was for migration and who visited a GeoSentinel clinic from March 1997 through November 2009 were included. Migrants seen at GeoSentinel clinics providing only comprehensive, protocolbased health screening soon after reaching their final destination country were excluded, but their data have been analyzed and presented separately [10].

Definitions

Migrants are individuals who crossed international borders for the purpose of resettlement. Children were defined as age ≤ 18 years. Country of origin was defined based on a combination of country of birth, country of residence for most of the first 10 years of life, and citizenship, with the goal of capturing the country in which the migrant was likely to have had the most prolonged exposures. Countries were grouped into 13 GeoSentinel-defined regions. Final diagnoses were assigned from a standardized list of >500 diagnoses, categorized into 29 broad syndrome groups [11]. The database requires at least 1 diagnosis, which may be "no morbidity reported," but allows all diagnoses identified in a single patient to be reported.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using SAS software, version 9.1 (SAS Institute). Proportionate morbidity was calculated as number of migrants with a specific diagnosis or group of diagnoses as a proportion of all migrants from a specific country or region of origin. Diagnoses were summarized using syndrome groupings, with details of the most common specific diagnoses. Differences between groups used χ^2 test or Fisher exact test as appropriate. To adjust for the large number of tests performed, P < .01 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Patient Population

Of the 15 421 migrant records from GeoSentinel clinics identified, 7629 (49.5%) migrants who were not seen at clinics that provide systematic protocol-based screening were included in this analysis. These predominantly nonrefugee migrants were seen at 41 GeoSentinel clinics on 5 continents in 19 countries, including Canada (33% of migrants), Europe (32%), United States (15%), and Australia and New Zealand (13%) (see Supplementary Table 1). Migrants originated from 153 countries; an origin country could not be determined for 87 (1%). Almost one-third originated from 6 countries: Burma (Myanmar), Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, India, and Bolivia (Figure 1). East Africa, Southeast Asia, West Africa, and South Asia each accounted for $\geq 10\%$ of the migrants.

East Africa	Ethiopia	6.0% (458)
(n = 1253)	Somalia	4.7% (358)
(11 = 1200)	Burundi	1.4% (107)
	Eritrea	1.1% (83)
	Rwanda	0.7% (55)
	Zimbabwe	0.7% (50)
	Other (n < 50)	1.9% (142)
West Africa	Nigeria	2.6% (195)
(n = 1048)	Senegal	2.5% (190)
((1 - 1040)	Ghana	2.0% (153)
	Guinea	1.0% (77)
	Cote d'Ivoire	1.0% (76)
	Togo	1.0% (75)
	Liberia	1.0% (73)
	Sierra Leone	0.7% (50)
	Other (n < 50)	
Nouth Africa		2.1% (159)
North Africa	Sudan	4.4% (332)
(n = 503)	Morocco	1.0% (80)
	Egypt	0.8% (61)
0	Other (n < 50)	0.4% (30)
Central Africa	Congo	2.1% (163)
(n = 445)	Cameroon	2.0% (151)
	Congo, D.R.	0.7% (55)
	Other (n < 50)	1.0% (76)
Southern Africa	Other (n < 50)	0.3% (26)
Southeast Asia	Myanmar	7.6% (582
(n = 1200)	Vietnam	3.5% (264)
	Philippines	2.1% (163)
	Thailand	1.0% (77)
	Cambodia	0.7% (52)
	Other (n < 50)	0.8% (62)
South Asia	India	4.3% (326)
(n = 844)	Pakistan	2.6% (96)
	Bangladesh	1.3% (100)
	Afghanistan	1.3% (96)
	Sri Lanka	1.1% (81)
	Other (n < 50)	0.6% (45)
Northeast Asia	China	3.5% (264)
(n = 399)	Other (n < 50)	1.8% (135)
West Asia	Iraq	0.7% (53)
(n = 250)	Other (n < 50)	2.6% (197)
Central Asia	Other (n < 50)	0.3% (20)
South America	Bolivia	4.0% (308)
(n = 698)	Ecuador	2.1% (159)
	Brazil	0.8% (63)
	Other (n < 50)	2.2% (168)
Caribbean	Haiti	1.7% (128)
(n = 277)	Dominican Republic	0.7% (51)
	Other (n < 50)	1.3% (98)
Central America	Mexico	1.8% (139)
(n = 257)	Other (n < 50)	1.5% (118)
Eastern Europe	Romania	0.7% (54)
(n = 305)	Other (n < 50)	3.3% (251)
Miscellaneous	Unknown	1.1% (87)
(n = 104)	Oceania	0.2% (17)

Figure 1. Top contributing countries of origin in referred migrants (N = 7629; percentage overall). Other = Albania, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Barbados, Belarus, Benin, Bhutan, Bosnia, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, Columbia, Comoros, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Czech Republic, Djibouti, Dominica, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea Bissau, Guyana, Honduras, Hong Kong, Hungary, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Jamaica, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, South Korea, North Korea, Kosovo, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Laos, Lebanon, Libya, Lithuania, Macedonia, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Martinique, Mauritania, Mauritius, Micronesia, Moldova, Mongolia, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, New Caledonia, Nicaragua, Niger, Oman, Palestinian Territories, Papua New Guinea, Paragauy, Peru, Poland, Puerto Rico, Qatar, Reunion, Russia, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent and Grenadines, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Singpore, Slovakia, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Suriname, Swaziland, Syria, Taiwan, Tajikstan, Tanzania, Tibet, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Venezuela, Yemen, Zambia.

Most (59%) were adults aged 19–39 years; 11% were children, and 7% were aged ≥ 60 years. Age and sex distribution varied by region (see Supplementary Figure 1). Southeast Asian migrants were older than those from many other regions. Females represented 46% of the overall study population; however, migrants from West Africa (34%) and North Africa (32%) were less likely, and those from South America more likely (54%), to be female.

 Table 1. Ten Most Frequent Infectious Disease Diagnoses in

 Referred Migrants, Children and Adults

Diagnosis	Frequency	Percentage		
Children (age ≤18 y; n = 854)				
Malaria	170	20.0		
Latent tuberculosis	92	10.8		
No health condition identified	82	10.0		
Schistosomiasis	71	8.3		
Giardiasis	67	7.8		
Active tuberculosis	65	7.6		
Hepatitis B, acute and chronic	41	4.8		
Strongyloidiasis	40	4.7		
Eosinophilia	25	2.9		
Intestinal ascaris	19	2.2		
Adults (age ≥19 y; n = 6751)				
Latent tuberculosis	1619	24.0		
Hepatitis B, acute and chronic	864	12.8		
Active tuberculosis	723	10.7		
Human immunodeficiency virus/AIDS	510	7.6		
Schistosomiasis	370	5.5		
Hepatitis C	346	5.1		
Strongyloidiasis	344	5.1		
No health condition identified	326	4.8		
Malaria	321	4.8		
Eosinophilia	182	2.7		

Medical Conditions of Migrants

The most common diagnoses were latent tuberculosis (22%), acute and chronic viral hepatitis (17%), active tuberculosis (10%), malaria (7%), HIV/AIDS (7%), schistosomiasis (6%), and strongyloidiasis (5%); 5% had no health condition reported.

Table 1 shows the top 10 infectious diagnoses for adults and children. Specific diagnoses by region of origin are shown in Table 2. Of the 1515 (20%) patients who were hospitalized, 364 (24%) had active tuberculosis and 264 (17%) had malaria. Diagnoses of noninfectious diseases were reported in 1144 migrants (15%). There were 13 deaths, related to AIDS (3), tuberculosis (3), AIDS and tuberculosis coinfection (1), cerebral malaria (1), *Strongyloides* hyperinfection (1), African trypanosomiasis (1), visceral leishmaniasis (1), pneumonia (1), and unknown causes (1).

The interval between migration and presentation varied by region of origin and diagnosis (Figure 2); most (58%) migrants were seen >1 year after resettlement, and 27% >5 years later. Few (9%) were seen within the first 3 months of arrival.

Those presenting within 90 days of arrival most often reported fever (41%), gastrointestinal symptoms (21%), or an abnormal laboratory test (20%), whereas those seen after 90 days most often presented with an abnormal lab test (39%) or gastrointestinal symptoms (26%). Respiratory symptoms were reported in 10%–13% of migrants at all time periods. Skin and genitourinary complaints were uncommon. Overall, 18%–25% of those seen in any time period beyond 30 days after arrival had no reported symptoms, while only 11% of those seen within 30 days had no reported symptom.

Figure 2 shows the top diagnoses in migrants from Africa, Latin America, Asia, and Eastern Europe by time to presentation at a GeoSentinel site. Latent tuberculosis was diagnosed in at least 10% of migrants from each of these regions at every time interval and active tuberculosis at every time interval; chronic hepatitis B was diagnosed in all time intervals with a striking increase in number of cases diagnosed in migrants from Asia ≥5 years after resettlement; and HIV/AIDS was diagnosed from all regions in all time intervals. Several conditions were prominent in a single region, including schistosomiasis (Africa), Chagas disease and neurocysticercosis (Latin America), and hepatitis C and echinococcus (Eastern Europe). Strongyloidiasis was frequent in all regions except Eastern Europe. The large proportion of "other" diagnoses in Latin American and Eastern European migrants reflects the diversity of diagnoses in migrants from these regions.

Tuberculosis

One-third of migrants had a tuberculosis diagnosis (latent or active disease). Latent tuberculosis (24% of adult and 11% of childhood diagnoses) was the most common diagnosis recorded from almost every region during almost all time periods. Active tuberculosis was reported in 11% of adults and 7% of children, with most (67%) detected >1 year after migration, and 29% after \geq 5 years. Pulmonary tuberculosis was reported as frequently as extrapulmonary tuberculosis, except among migrants from South Asia and East Africa, in whom extrapulmonary tuberculosis was significantly more likely (P = .014).

Blood-borne Pathogens

Chronic HBV was the second most commonly reported diagnosis in adults (847 [11%]), with most cases (73%) diagnosed > 1 year after arrival, and 41% diagnosed after >5 years. Hepatitis C virus was diagnosed in 5% of all migrants but in 10% of adults aged >40 years. Although most cases were from Asia (140 [5%]) and Africa (140 [4%]), the region with the highest proportion of cases was Eastern Europe (37 [12%]). There were 34 cases of acute hepatitis (16 hepatitis A; 18 hepatitis B), without a relationship to country of origin. For 11 cases (5 hepatitis A, 6 hepatitis B), the reported time after resettlement exceeded the expected incubation periods, suggesting undisclosed travel or local transmission. Most hepatitis A cases (10/ 16 [63%]) occurred in children, whereas most acute HBV cases (15/18 [83%]) were found in those aged 19–29 years (median, 27 years).

Table 2. Specific Infectious Diagnoses by Region of Origin^a

Diagnosis	All Re	gions	East	Africa		heast sia		est rica		uth sia		uth erica	Nc Afr	rth ica		
	(N = 7629)		(n = 1253)		(n = 1200)		(n = 1048)		(n = 844)		(n = 698)		(n = 503)		<i>P</i> Value	
Tuberculosis	2503	(33)	472	(38)	388	(32)	252	(24)	350	(41)	163	(23)	210	(42)	<.0001	
PPD+ (latent tuberculosis)	1715	(22)	273	(22)	302	(25)	162	(5)	168	(20)	125	(18)	173	(34)	<.0001	
Active tuberculosis ^b	790	(10)	199	(16)	86	(7)	90	(9)	183	(22)	38	(5)	37	(7)	<.0001	
Tuberculosis, extrapulmonary	434	(6)	123	(10)	45	(4)	49	(5)	122	(14)	18	(3)	15	(3)	<.0001	
Tuberculosis, pulmonary	397	(5)	91	(7)	45	(4)	48	(5)	68	(8)	21	(3)	24	(5)	<.0001	
Viral hepatitis	1266	(17)	215	(17)	267	(22)	159	(15)	90	(11)	20	(3)	111	(22)	<.0001	
Hepatitis B (acute, chronic, or asymptomatic carrier)	906	(12)	148	(12)	196	(16)	143	(14)	43	(5)	16	(2)	80	(16)	<.0001	
Hepatitis C (acute or chronic)	357	(5)	75	(6)	73	(6)	15	(1)	39	(5)	5	(1)	25	(5)	<.0001	
Systemic febrile	786	(10)	50	(4)	294	(25)	204	(19)	74	(9)	27	(4)	11	(2)	<.0001	
Malaria	496	(7)	26	(2)	241	(20)	126	(12)	38	(5)	5	(1)	6	(1)	<.0001	
Gastrointestinal-other	965	(12)	163	(13)	148	(12)	134	(13)	75	(9)	90	(13)	72	(14)	<.0001	
Strongyloidiasis	384	(5)	49	(4)	91	(7)	52	(5)	24	(3)	36	(5)	29	(6)	<.0001	
HIV/AIDS	526	(7)	184	(15)	53	(4)	102	(10)	9	(1)	31	(4)	12	(2)	<.0001	
Schistosomiasis	442	(6)	133	(11)	12	(1)	123	(12)	2	(0)	3	(0)	114	(23)	<.0001	
Misc. tissue parasite ^c	350	(5)	24	(2)	6	(1)	18	(2)	19	(2)	185	(26)	26	(5)	<.0001	
No health conditions identified	409	(5)	44	(4)	43	(4)	51	(5)	42	(5)	117	(17)	11	(2)	<.0001	
Inpatient care	1515	(20)	233	(19)	223	(19)	336	(32)	241	(29)	70	(10)	92	(18)	<.0001	

Data are presented as No. of migrants (%) in each region. P < .01 was considered statistically significant.

Abbreviations: HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; Misc., miscellaneous; PPD, purified protein derivative

^a Origin regions not shown (n = 2087) include Caribbean, Central America, Central Asia, Eastern Europe, Central Africa, Northeast Asia, Oceania, southern Africa, Western Asia, and unknown origin.

^b Includes 42 patients with both pulmonary and extrapulmonary tuberculosis.

^c Includes filariasis, Chagas disease, extraintestinal ascaris, cysticercosis, nonhepatic echinococcosis, trichinella, visceral larva migrans, and visceral leishmaniasis.

There were 526 cases of HIV/AIDS reported, primarily in adults aged <40 years. The highest proportions of cases were in migrants from Africa (370 [11%]); 329 were asymptomatic, 24 presented with acute febrile illness, and 176 met the definition for AIDS.

Malaria

Malaria was reported in 7% of migrants, with the greatest proportion in migrants from Southeast Asia (20%) and West Africa (12%). Malaria was the most frequent diagnosis in children (20%) and was reported less commonly in adults aged >39 years (47/2230 [2%]). The majority of malaria cases (85%; *Plasmodium falciparum* [58%] and *Plasmodium vivax* [36%]) were seen within 3 months of arrival. Of the 98 cases seen >3 months after arrival, 45 were *P. vivax* (46%) and 30 were

P. falciparum (31%). Nine individuals were diagnosed with malaria >5 years after migration (3 *P. falciparum*, 2 *P. vivax*, 2 *Plasmodium ovale*, 2 *Plasmodium malariae*, and 1 unknown).

Other Selected Infections

Schistosomiasis was diagnosed in 370 of 2804 migrants from Africa (13%); although 48% were diagnosed in the first year, cases continued to be diagnosed up to 10 years after arrival. Strongyloidiasis, reported in approximately 5% of both adults and children, was one of the most common diagnoses in all regions. Nine migrants had *Strongyloides* hyperinfection syndrome (2% of reported cases); 5 were from Asia. Of note, 4 were seen >10 years after resettlement, including one reported 50 years after arrival. There were 137 cases (2 children) of neurocysticercosis; most were from the Americas (107); with

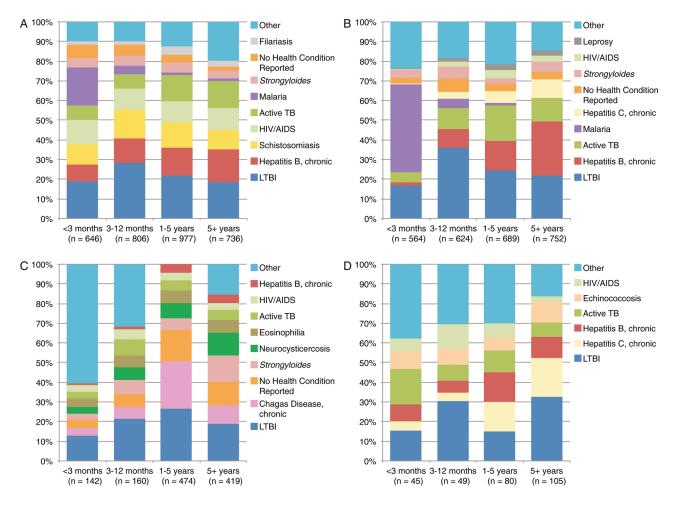


Figure 2. Top diagnoses by region of origin shown by time from arrival. *A*, Africa (n = 3275). *B*, Asia (n = 2713). *C*, Latin America ($n = 1232^*$). *D*, Eastern Europe (n = 305). Sixty percent of the patients seen within 3 months were reported with a wide variety of diagnoses. Abbreviations: HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; LTBI, latent tuberculosis; TB, tuberculosis.

the rest from Asia (17), Africa (10), and Eastern Europe (3); 46% were reported >5 years after migration. Other infections seen predominantly more than a year after arrival included Chagas disease (170 cases) in migrants from Bolivia; filariasis (145 cases) primarily in adults from Africa; echincoccosus (99 cases) primarily in adults from South Asia, Eastern Europe and West Asia; and leprosy (81 cases), primarily in older patients from South Asia. Acute diarrhea, dermatological illness, and respiratory illness were infrequent diagnoses.

DISCUSSION

The top infectious diagnoses in this heterogeneous group of migrants to 41 countries included tuberculosis (both latent and active disease), chronic hepatitis (B and C), strongyloidiasis, and regionally important infectious diseases such as schistosomiasis (Africa) and chronic Chagas disease. These data emphasize the need for health professionals to consider migration-related diagnoses and to take the opportunity during any medical encounter to screen migrants for infections with potential for long-term and even life-threatening sequelae. The same health problems for which screening is currently recommended among refugee populations continue to be of concern for nonrefugee migrants many years after resettlement [12, 13].

The results emphasize the important of reactivation and of complications from initially asymptomatic infections, including active tuberculosis, *Strongyloides* hyperinfection syndrome, and sequelae of hepatitis B and C. These might have been prevented if addressed early in the resettlement period. The data suggest and the authors support expanding current refugeecentric preventive medical approaches to include additional migrants. Unlike the US-bound migrants [10] receiving systematic protocol-based evaluation, the vast majority of these migrants did not undergo routine predeparture screening or public health interventions, nor did they have comprehensive postarrival evaluations. These comprehensive programs, currently reserved for groups such as US resettling refugees, can significantly reduce health impact of infectious disease in migrant populations [13]. Expansion of such programs internationally should be strongly considered on health grounds; however, we recognize the policy challenges posed to individual receiving nations, including up-front screening costs and regulatory changes.

Tuberculosis is an important health concern [14, 15], and many nonendemic countries report a disproportionate burden of active tuberculosis among foreign-born residents, particularly within the first 2–5 years of arrival but extending for their lifetime [16–21]. The frequent diagnosis of latent tuberculosis (22%) is consistent with other studies reporting high proportions of migrants with latent tuberculosis (20%– 70%) [8, 22]. However, our data may be an underestimate, as these migrants did not all undergo systematic latent tuberculosis screening.

Screening for chronic hepatitis is important to reduce morbidity and mortality in individual migrants, but is also an opportunity to prevent transmission by, for example, providing hepatitis B vaccination to close contacts. Recent reviews have documented increased risk of chronic hepatitis morbidity in immigrants and refugees, as well as the cost-effectiveness of screening and treating chronic HBV infections in migrants [23]. The CDC recommends HBV screening for all migrants from countries with >2% hepatitis B prevalence.

The proportion of migrants with intestinal parasites, 11% overall, was less than in other publications [24, 25], possibly reflecting detection or referral bias, asymptomatic nature of some infections, lack of systematic screening, time since migration, and/or socioeconomic heterogeneity of the study population. Three parasitic infections, however, were found in specific migrant groups and these data suggest that migrants from these groups should be assessed for these infections at any health encounter. Schistosomiasis may result in chronic hepatic, renal, and genitourinary disease. Strongyloides infection is particularly important to diagnose and treat owing to the potential for life-threatening dissemination, with risk persisting even decades after migration, especially if the infected migrant develops comorbidities requiring or resulting in immunosuppression [7, 26, 27]. Chagas disease can result in cardiac and gastrointestinal disease years after migration, and may be passed from infected women to their infants.

Symptomatic malaria was a concern early after migration, with most cases presenting within 3 months [28, 29]. The 9 cases reported >5 years after arrival are unusual, though delayed symptomatic malaria, including *P. falciparum*, has been reported [30]. We could not rule out unreported travel in these cases. It is important to note the disproportionate

burden of malaria in migrant children, particularly from Africa.

A number of hospital admissions may have been preventable if there had been earlier diagnosis and management of conditions such as tuberculosis, HIV, and strongyloidiasis; most deaths were from potentially preventable or treatable conditions.

This study has a number of limitations, including both detection and referral bias. GeoSentinel clinics are selected because of expertise in travel and immigrant medicine, and their clinicians may be more likely to perform additional testing on at-risk migrants. An example is Bolivian migrants in Spain who are tested for Chagas disease. In some clinics, patients with latent tuberculosis may be tested routinely for HIV infection. There is potential for testing bias based on site- or region-specific factors dictating where and how migrants find their way to a particular clinic. It is not possible from our dataset to separate the conditions diagnosed by selective screening from those diagnosed as a result of clinical presentation or referral.

GeoSentinel clinics see a small fraction of migrants worldwide, and therefore the data may not be generalizable to all migrant groups worldwide. The results reflect proportionate morbidity of a population of migrants presenting to GeoSentinel clinics, rather than prevalence data. These are surveillance data and are limited by lack of detailed diagnostic information; for example, it is not possible to determine how many of those with HBV experienced complications of the infection. Most GeoSentinel clinics report infectious diseases; noninfectious health problems are not sought or reported systematically and have not been included in this analysis. Another limitation is inability to identify time of acquisition of the reported diseases or conditions. For some conditions, such as strongyloidiasis, hepatitis, and tuberculosis, we cannot completely eliminate the possibility of transmission after migration, but given the epidemiology in receiving countries, it is unlikely and would have limited impact on the findings. Finally, some migrants may have undisclosed postmigration travel and so time to presentation may be misleading.

Despite these limitations, these data expand on and differ from previous publications for several reasons: data are from many countries and migrant groups (not just refugees), and many migrants were seen more than a year after resettlement. Most publications related to immigrant health focus on the immediate postmigration period [4, 6, 7]. Although refugees generally make up <10% of migrants, they are overrepresented in published data because they have an organized migration, including medical screening and presumptive treatment programs [12–14, 31].

Migration will likely continue at the same or a greater rate, challenging healthcare providers, medical educators, and

policy makers to adapt to the evolving epidemiology. Most immigration entry criteria concentrate on immediate public health risk of migrants on the receiving country and not longterm health risk to the migrant. In this study, many of the public health diseases of concern could have been detected and addressed earlier in the migration process, perhaps reducing both the impact on the healthcare system and the burden of disease in individual migrants. Addressing health needs of migrants requires policies that are responsive to changing epidemiology and that take into account regions of origin. Mapping of areas of settlement within receiving countries may help to tailor support and recommendations, and provide improved education for the receiving medical community.

CONCLUSIONS

These results suggest important steps for policy makers and healthcare professionals. Policy makers should advocate for evidence-based, standardized approaches to comprehensive predeparture and postarrival health programs for all migrants at risk. Greater integration of migration health in medical school curricula is needed. Providers should utilize the opportunity to screen for latent infections that have a higher prevalence in globally mobile patients, including latent tuberculosis, HBV, and Strongyloides, and, where appropriate, schistosomiasis and Chagas. In addition, they must be aware of existing large numbers of foreign-born individuals well established in host countries, for whom migration-related health risks must be considered. A medical encounter for any reason is a chance to address possible exposures by asking "Where were you born, where have you lived, and where have you traveled?" Unless medical care is approached consistently through the lens of globally mobile populations, migrants will continue to experience health disparities as they present with unaddressed migration-related conditions.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Clinical Infectious Diseases* online (http://cid.oxfordjournals.org/). Supplementary materials consist of data provided by the author that are published to benefit the reader. The posted materials are not copyedited. The contents of all supplementary data are the sole responsibility of the authors. Questions or messages regarding errors should be addressed to the author.

Notes

Acknowledgments. We acknowledge David Adam Plier for his work formatting the figures. Additional members of the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network who contributed data (in descending order) are as follows: Joseph Torresi and Graham V. Brown, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Victoria, Australia; Giampiero Carosi, University of Brescia, Italy; Jay S. Keystone and Kevin C. Kain, University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada; Jose A. Pérez-Molina, Hospital Ramón y Cajal, Madrid, Spain; Mogens Jensenius, of Medicine, Bronx, New York; Watcharapong Piyaphanee and Udomsak Silachamroon, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand; Patricia Schlagenhauf, Rainer Weber, and Robert Steffen, University of Zürich, Switzerland; Michael D. Libman, Brian J. Ward, and J. Dick Maclean, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada; Frank von Sonnenburg; University of Munich, Germany: Alejandra C. Gurtman, Mount Sinai Medical Center, New York, New York (October 2002-August 2005 only); Phyllis E. Kozarsky and Carlos Franco-Paredes, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia; Eli Schwartz, Chaim Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, Israel; Thomas B. Nutman and Amy D. Klion, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland; François Chappuis, University of Geneva, Switzerland; Christine A. Kerr, Hudson River Health Care, Peekskill, New York; DeVon C. Hale and Stefanie S. Gelman, University of Utah, Salt Lake City; Gerd-Dieter Burchard, Bernhard-Nocht-Institute for Tropical Medicine, Hamburg, Germany; Effrossyni Gkrania-Klotsas, Addenbrooke's Hospital, Cambridge, United Kingdom; Stefan Hagmann and Andy O. Miller, Bronx-Lebanon Hospital Center, Bronx, New York; N. Jean Haulman, David Roesel, and Elaine C. Jong, University of Washington, Seattle; Poh Lian Lim and Annelies Wilder-Smith, Tan Tock Seng Hospital, Singapore; Prativa Pandey and Holly Murphy, CIWEC Clinic Travel Medicine Center, Kathmandu, Nepal; Philippe Parola, Fabrice Simon, and Jean Delmont, Hôpital Nord and Hôpital Laveran, Marseille, France; Eric Caumes and Alice Pérignon, Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France; Paul D. Holtom, Jeffrey A. Goad, and Anne Anglim, University of Southern California, Los Angeles (April 2007-November 2009 only); Carmelo Licitra and Antonio Crespo, Orlando Regional Health Center, Florida; Marc Mendelson and Peter Vincent, University of Cape Town and Tokai Medicross Travel Clinic, South Africa; Patrick W. Doyle and Wayne G. Ghesquiere, Vancouver General Hospital and Vancouver Island Health Authority, Vancouver and Victoria, British Columbia, Canada; Peter J. de Vries and Kartini Gadroen, University of Amsterdam, Netherlands; Noreen A. Hynes, R. Bradley Sack, and Robin McKenzie, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland; Shuzo Kanagawa and Yasuyuki Kato, International Medical Center of Japan, Tokyo; Lin H. Chen and Mary E. Wilson, Mount Auburn Hospital, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Bradley A. Connor, Cornell University, New York, New York; David O. Freedman, University of Alabama at Birmingham; Cecilia Perret and Francisca Valdivieso, School of Medicine, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago; Michael W. Lynch, Fresno International Travel Medical Center, California (August 2003-November 2009 only); John D. Cahill and George McKinley, St Luke's-Roosevelt Hospital Center, New York, New York; and Andy Wang and Susan MacDonald, Beijing United Family Hospital and Clinics, People's Republic of China.

Oslo University Hospital, Norway; Murray Wittner, Albert Einstein School

Financial support. This work was supported by the GeoSentinel Surveillance Network through a cooperative agreement with the CDC (grant number 5U50CI000359), and funding from the International Society of Travel Medicine. The Cambridge UK site is also supported by the National Institute of Health Research Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre. The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the CDC.

Potential conflicts of interest. All authors: No reported conflicts.

All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

References

- Barnett ED. Infectious disease screening for refugees resettled in the United States. Clin Infect Dis 2004; 39:833–41.
- 2. Gushulak BD, MacPherson DW. Globalization of infectious diseases: the impact of migration. Clin Infect Dis **2004**; 38:1742–8.
- Barnett ED, Walker PF. Role of immigrants and migrants in emerging infectious diseases. Med Clin North Am 2008; 92:1447–58, xi-xii.

- Monge-Maillo B, Jimenez BC, Perez-Molina JA, et al. Imported infectious diseases in mobile populations, Spain. Emerg Infect Dis 2009; 15:1745–52.
- Stauffer WM, Weinberg M. Emerging clinical issues in refugees. Curr Opin Infect Dis 2009; 22:436–42.
- Brodine SK, Thomas A, Huang R, et al. Community based parasitic screening and treatment of Sudanese refugees: application and assessment of Centers for Disease Control guidelines. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2009; 80:425–30.
- Franco-Paredes C, Dismukes R, Nicolls D, et al. Persistent and untreated tropical infectious diseases among Sudanese refugees in the United States. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2007; 77:633–5.
- Martin JA, Mak DB. Changing faces: A review of infectious disease screening of refugees by the Migrant Health Unit, Western Australia in 2003 and 2004. Med J Aust 2006; 185:607–10.
- 9. Pottie K, Tugwell P, Feightner J, et al. Summary of clinical preventive care recommendations for newly arriving immigrants and refugees to Canada. CMAJ **2010**.
- Barnett ED, Weld L, McCarthy A, et al. Spectrum of illness in international migrants seen at GeoSentinel Clinics in 1997–2009, part 1: US-bound migrants evaluated by comprehensive protocol-based health assessment. Clin Infect Dis 2013; 56:913–24.
- Freedman DO, Weld LH, Kozarsky PE, et al. Spectrum of disease and relation to place of exposure among ill returned travelers. N Engl J Med 2006; 354:119–30.
- Murray RJ, Davis JS, Burgner DP, et al. The Australasian Society for Infectious Diseases guidelines for the diagnosis, management and prevention of infections in recently arrived refugees: an abridged outline. Med J Aust 2009; 190:421–5.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Refugee health guidelines. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/immigrantrefugeehealth/guidelines/ refugee-guidelines.html. Accessed 22 October 2012.
- Klinkenberg E, Manissero D, Semenza JC, Verver S. Migrant tuberculosis screening in the EU/EEA: yield, coverage and limitations. Eur Respir J 2009; 34:1180–9.
- Alvarez GG, Clark M, Altpeter E, et al. Pediatric tuberculosis immigration screening in high-immigration, low-incidence countries. Int J Tuberc Lung Dis 2010; 14:1530–7.
- Das D, Baker M, Venugopal K, McAllister S. Why the tuberculosis incidence rate is not falling in New Zealand. N Z Med J 2006; 119: U2248.

- 17. Greenaway C, Sandoe A, Vissandjee B, et al. Tuberculosis: evidence review for newly arriving immigrants and refugees. CMAJ **2010**.
- Harstad I, Heldal E, Steinshamn SL, Garasen H, Jacobsen GW. Tuberculosis screening and follow-up of asylum seekers in Norway: a cohort study. BMC Public Health 2009; 9:141.
- Lobato MN, Mohamed MH, Hadler JL. Tuberculosis in a lowincidence US area: local consequences of global disruptions. Int J Tuberc Lung Dis 2008; 12:506–12.
- McPherson ME, Kelly H, Patel MS, Leslie D. Persistent risk of tuberculosis in migrants a decade after arrival in Australia. Med J Aust 2008; 188:528–31.
- Diz S, Lopez-Velez R, Moreno A, et al. Epidemiology and clinical features of tuberculosis in immigrants at an infectious diseases department in Madrid. Int J Tuberc Lung Dis 2007; 11:769–74.
- Maloney SA, Fielding KL, Laserson KF, et al. Assessing the performance of overseas tuberculosis screening programs: a study among US-bound immigrants in Vietnam. Arch Intern Med 2006; 166:234–40.
- Veldhuijzen IK, Toy M, Hahne SJ, et al. Screening and early treatment of migrants for chronic hepatitis B virus infection is cost-effective. Gastroenterology 2010; 138:522–30.
- Garg PK, Perry S, Dorn M, Hardcastle L, Parsonnet J. Risk of intestinal helminth and protozoan infection in a refugee population. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2005; 73:386–91.
- Seybolt LM, Christiansen D, Barnett ED. Diagnostic evaluation of newly arrived asymptomatic refugees with eosinophilia. Clin Infect Dis 2006; 42:363–7.
- de Silva S, Saykao P, Kelly H, et al. Chronic Strongyloides stercoralis infection in Laotian immigrants and refugees 7–20 years after resettlement in Australia. Epidemiol Infect 2002; 128:439–44.
- Lim S, Katz K, Krajden S, Fuksa M, Keystone JS, Kain KC. Complicated and fatal *Strongyloides* infection in Canadians: risk factors, diagnosis and management. CMAJ 2004; 171:479–84.
- Benson J, Davis J. Malaria in the Australian refugee population. Aust Fam Physician 2007; 36:639–41, 56.
- Leder K, Black J, O'Brien D, et al. Malaria in travelers: a review of the GeoSentinel surveillance network. Clin Infect Dis 2004; 39:1104–12.
- D'Ortenzio E, Godineau N, Fontanet A, et al. Prolonged *Plasmodium fal*ciparum infection in immigrants, Paris. Emerg Infect Dis 2008; 14:323–6.
- Uppaluri A, Naus M, Heywood N, Brunton J, Kerbel D, Wobeser W. Effectiveness of the Immigration Medical Surveillance Program for tuberculosis in Ontario. Can J Public Health 2002; 93:88–91.