

Original citation:

Permanent WRaP URL: Frew, G., McGeorge, E., Grant, Sabrina and de Wildt, G. (2017) *Hepatitis B: A cross-sectional survey of knowledge, attitudes and practices amongst backpackers in Thailand*. *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease*, 15. pp. 57-62. ISSN 1477-8939

Copyright and reuse:

The Worcester Research and Publications (WRaP) makes this work available open access under the following conditions. Copyright © and all moral rights to the version of the paper presented here belong to the individual author(s) and/or other copyright owners. To the extent reasonable and practicable the material made available in WRaP has been checked for eligibility before being made available.

Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way.

Publisher's statement:

This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Elsevier in *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease*, available online: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1477893916301818?via%3Dihub>. © 2016 Elsevier. Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International. <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

A note on versions:

The version presented here may differ from the published version or, version of record, if you wish to cite this item you are advised to consult the publisher's version. Please see the 'permanent WRaP URL' above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information, please contact wrapteam@worc.ac.uk

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

Hepatitis B: a cross-sectional survey of knowledge, attitudes and practices amongst backpackers in Thailand

Keywords: Vaccination; Cross-Sectional Studies; Risk-Taking; Travel

Georgina Frew^a
Elizabeth McGeorge^a
Dr Sabrina Grant^a
Dr Gilles de Wildt^a

^a. University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham, West Midlands, B15 2TT, England

Corresponding Author: Georgina Frew, ghf126@bham.ac.uk

45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74

Abstract

Background

In 2013, 200 million tourists visited countries that are endemic for hepatitis B virus (HBV). Backpackers are potentially at greater risk of hepatitis B than other travellers yet exposure to HBV remains under researched in this population.

Method

A cross-sectional survey of backpackers visiting two islands in Thailand was performed during early 2015. Participation in activities with high HBV exposure risk was recorded, alongside rates of vaccination and an evaluation of knowledge and attitudes towards the risk of HBV.

Results

1680 questionnaires were completed and analysed; the median participant age was 24 (range: 18-68) and 47.9% were male. 20.8% took part in activities with a high risk of HBV exposure. Over two-thirds of the sample were not protected against HBV. 24% were able to correctly identify HBV transmission methods. 44.1% underestimated the risk of HBV in Thailand.

Conclusions

The proportion of backpackers participating in high-risk activities was double the level found in previous studies that have examined the HBV exposure risk amongst travellers to endemic countries. Voluntary risk activities were the largest source of potential exposure to HBV and rates of vaccination are low. Backpackers should be considered for routine vaccination and education on risk behaviours should be included in the pre-travel consultation.

75 Hepatitis B: a cross-sectional survey of knowledge, attitudes and practices amongst
76 backpackers in Thailand

77 **1.1 Introduction**

78 Hepatitis B is a viral infection that can cause a spectrum of liver disease including acute
79 illness and long-term complications [1]. The heaviest burden of diseases is in Asia and Sub-
80 Saharan Africa [2]. A vaccine for hepatitis B virus (HBV) has been available since 1986; it
81 reduces rates of hepatitis after exposure and is ninety-five per cent effective at preventing
82 chronic carriage of HBV [3]. HBV is one of the commonest vaccine-preventable diseases in
83 travellers [4]. Since the 1950s, international tourism has shown almost uninterrupted growth:
84 the fastest growing destination, South East Asia, is a high HBV endemicity region [5,6]. In
85 2013, 200 million tourists visited countries where more than five per cent of the population
86 are chronic carriers of HBV [5,6]. Travellers from countries with low HBV prevalence are
87 particularly at risk as either vaccination or previous infection is required for immunity.

88 HBV is transmitted by contact with infected blood or bodily fluids either through the
89 skin (percutaneous) or through mucosal membranes (transmucosal). Infection by sexual
90 contact, contaminated medical or dental equipment and skin penetrating procedures occurs
91 in all intermediate and high prevalence countries [2,7]. Hepatitis B presents a risk both to
92 non-immune travellers and, on returning home, to their close contacts [8]. The World Health
93 Organisation (WHO) has recommended universal vaccination against HBV since 1992 but
94 some western countries, including the United Kingdom (UK), have opted for selective
95 vaccination strategies based on individual risk factors [9]. Vaccination for travel is not routine:
96 the Department of Public Health England suggests a decision should be made depending on
97 the duration of travel, planned activities and the destination's HBV prevalence [10].
98 Vaccination is expensive and usually paid for by the individual [11].

99 Backpackers are a distinct subset of international travellers; they typically travel for
100 longer durations, alone or in small groups and stay in low-cost accommodation [12]. As
101 backpackers are typically younger than other travellers they are less risk-averse and more
102 likely to engage in adventurous activities [12]. These factors combined place them at greater
103 risk of contracting hepatitis B than other travellers, yet exposure to HBV remains
104 underresearched in this population. Thailand is a popular backpacker destination and the
105 WHO classifies the country as having ‘intermediate-high’ HBV prevalence, as 5-6% of adults
106 are chronic carriers [6].

107 This study aims to determine the proportion of backpackers visiting two islands in
108 Thailand who are at high risk of HBV exposure and identify the factors associated with
109 exposure, immunisation and seeking pre-travel health advice.

110 **1.2 Method**

111 **1.2.1 Design**

112 Cross sectional survey

113 **1.2.2 Setting**

114 The research was conducted at the ferry ports of two islands, which are popular with
115 backpackers: Ban Mae Haad, Koh Tao and Thong Sala, Koh Phangan in Thailand.

116 **1.2.3 Participants**

117 Backpackers, defined as travellers on a limited budget, staying in low cost accommodation
118 and carrying their belongings in a backpack [12], who were able to understand spoken and
119 written English, were recruited for the survey. Thai nationals were excluded as data suggest
120 that tourists on domestic vacations behave differently to those on international trips [13].
121 Individuals who lacked capacity or were under 18 years of age were also excluded. In

122 accordance with the University of Birmingham's policies, US citizens were excluded from the
123 survey.

124 **1.2.4 Data Collection**

125 Data were collected during February and March 2015. Participants were recruited using
126 convenience sampling [14]: two researchers (GF & EM) approached travellers, in possession
127 of a backpack, who were waiting to board outward-bound ferries. The study was explained
128 and if the participant self-defined as a backpacker – 'an individual travelling on a limited
129 budget and staying in low cost accommodation' - and met the inclusion criteria they were
130 invited to take part in the study. No cut-offs were used to define a limited budget or low-cost
131 accommodation. Participants were provided with an information sheet and questionnaire to
132 complete and return to the researcher. Ethical approval for the study was sought from an
133 Internal Ethics Committee at the University of Birmingham (Reference number: 2014-
134 15/C1/LJ/05).

135 **1.2.5 Instruments**

136 The questionnaire consisted of four sections, (i) demographic data (ii) pre-travel health advice
137 (iii) health problems and health service usage (iv) HBV knowledge, attitudes and practices.
138 Section (iii) data relate to a study conducted by another University of Birmingham student.

139 Protection against HBV was classified as having completed a vaccination schedule (3
140 or more doses) or reporting a previous HBV infection [15]. Potential exposure to HBV was
141 assessed by asking the participants if they had taken part in risky activities classified as 'low'
142 and 'high' risk; high-risk activities involved skin perforation or unprotected sexual contact
143 whilst low risk activities were documented transmission routes that did not involve skin
144 perforation or unprotected sexual contact (Table 1) [16].

| <i>Classification of 'risky activities'</i> | |
|---|---|
| Risk Level | Activity |
| High | Tattoo; Piercing; Unprotected sex; Medical treatment (stitches, injections, surgery, blood transfusion, acupuncture); Dental treatment; Injecting drugs |
| Low | Manicure/Pedicure; Barbershop shave; Attending a bleeding individual |

145

146 **1.2.6 Data Analysis**

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

Data were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics v22 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA); the demographic data were examined and the sample characteristics presented. The median age was presented as the distribution was positively skewed. The proportions of participants who had participated in high HBV risk activities and reported completed vaccination schedules against HBV (3 or more doses) were calculated. Binary logistic regression identified associations between exposure or completed vaccination schedule and the pre-selected variables (Table 2). Knowledge scores were calculated by awarding one mark per correctly answered question and making a total score (range 0-9). The median total score was calculated, as the data were not normally distributed.

Table 2.

Variables selected for binary logistic regression analysis of exposure and having completed a vaccination schedule

| Nominal variable | Measurement variables |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Exposure | Age, gender, travelling alone, travelling with a sexual partner, planned trip duration, duration so far, sought pre-travel advice, knowledge score, protection against HBV, perceived HBV risk to self and underestimate of HBV risk in Thailand |
| Completed vaccination schedule | Age, gender, planned trip duration, pre-travel advice, knowledge score, perception of risk to self and whether they believe vaccination is effective |

156

157

1.3 Results

158

159

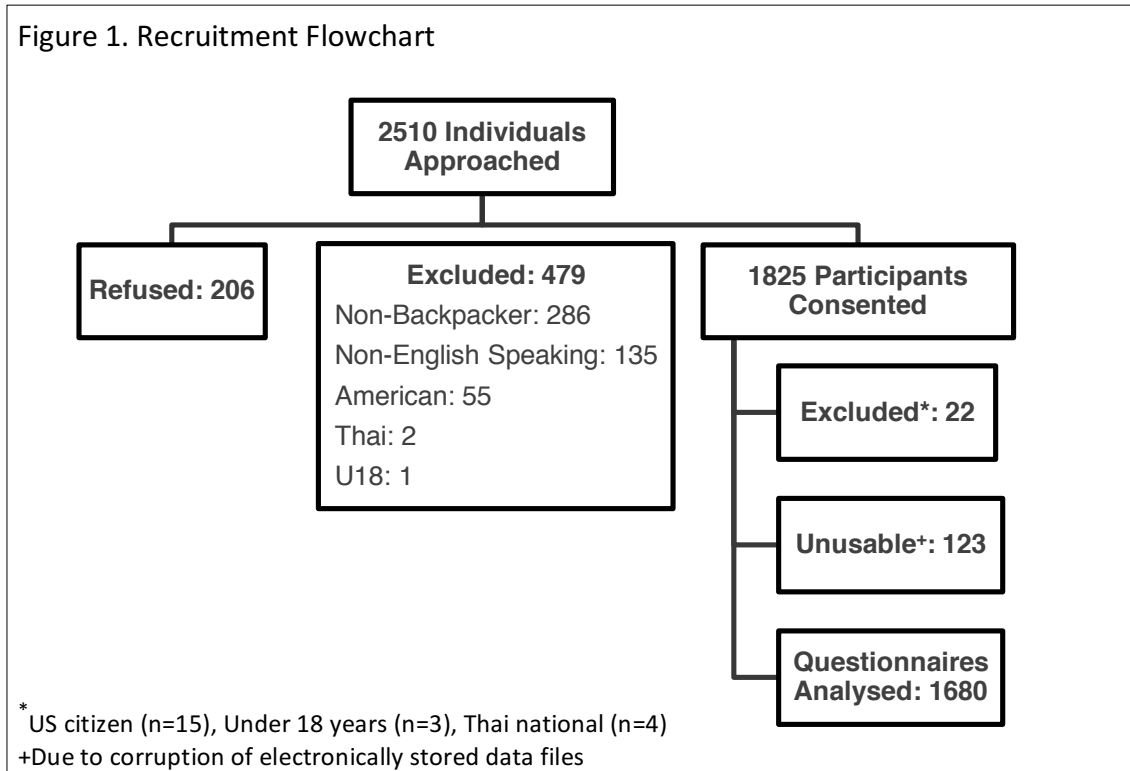
160

161

162

Of the 1825 individuals who consented to take part and completed the survey, the questionnaires from 1680 participants were usable and analysed (Fig. 1 Recruitment Flowchart). The median age of the sample was 24 years (IQR 6; Range 18-68), 802 (47.9%) were male. 1325 (79.5%) of the sample were residents of Europe, 239 (14.3%) were from Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The remaining 6% was made up of residents from South

163 America, Africa and Asia. The demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table
 164 3.
 165
 166
 167



168
 169
 170
 171
 172
 173
 174

Table 3
 Participant Demographics

n (% of total)

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|------------|
| Age Group | 18-24 years | 955 (56.8) |
| | 25-34 years | 651 (38.8) |
| | >35 years | 63 (3.8) |
| Gender (Male) | | 802 (47.9) |
| Planned Trip Duration | < 1 month | 591 (35.3) |
| | >1-3 months | 600 (35.9) |
| | >3-6 months | 270 (16.1) |
| | >6-12 months | 136 (8.1) |
| | >1 year | 76 (4.5) |
| Trip duration so far | < 2 weeks | 310 (18.5) |
| | 2 - 4 weeks | 689 (41.0) |
| | 4 - 8 weeks | 408(24.3) |
| | >8 weeks | 232 (13.8) |
| Visiting other countries in SE Asia | | 907 (54) |
| Travel Group | Alone | 262 (15.8) |
| | Pair | 902 (54.6) |
| | Group | 489 (29.6) |
| Travelling with a sexual partner | | 515 (31.3) |
| Total = 1680 | | |

175

176 1.3.1 Pre-travel preparation

177 Pre-travel health advice was sought by 1346 (80.1%) of participants; the most popular source
 178 of pre-travel information was the Internet followed by relatives/friends. Of the 1202 (71.5%)
 179 participants who answered the questions concerning topics of advice received from a health
 180 care professional, 761 (63.3%) recalled receiving information of HBV risk factors and 835
 181 (69.5%) recalled receiving advice about the HBV vaccine.

182 1.3.2 Knowledge of HBV

183 The median knowledge score was 5 (IQR=4) out of a total possible score of 9; these questions
 184 were answered by 1592 (94.8%) of the 1680 participants. 370 (24%) participants correctly

185 answered that HBV can be transmitted by blood and sexual contact but not by contaminated
186 food and water or toilet visits.

187 1.3.3 Attitudes towards HBV

188 When asked to estimate the risk of HBV in Thailand, 740 (44.1%) participants either
189 did not know or considered the risk to be low. 510 (30.4%) participants considered themselves
190 to be at risk of HBV whilst 632 (37.1%) did not consider themselves at risk, the remainder
191 were unsure. The majority of participants considered vaccination to be effective at preventing
192 infection, while 24.5% were unsure whether it was effective.

193 1.3.4 Practices: Exposure Risk and Immunisation

194 332 (20.8%) participants took part in one or more activity with a high HBV exposure
195 risk (Table 4). 381 (22.7%) participants reported taking part in an activity with a low associated
196 exposure risk. 1010 (60%) of the sample did not report a high or low risk activity.

Table 4.
Participation in activities with an HBV exposure risk

| Exposure Level | Risk Activity | n (%) |
|----------------|---|------------|
| Low | Manicure/pedicure | 244 (14.5) |
| | Barbershop shave | 100 (6.0) |
| | Attended a bleeding individual | 69 (4.1) |
| High | Body Modification [†] | 131 (7.8) |
| | Medical or Dental Treatment [*] | 85 (5.1) |
| | Injected drugs | 27 (1.6) |
| | Had sex with someone other than a regular partner | 353 (22.7) |
| | Did <u>not</u> always use a condom | 153 (9.8) |
| | Paid for sex | 47 (3.5) |
| | Did <u>not</u> always use a condom | 13 (1.0) |

Percentages may not add up to 100 due to missing data. [†]Body Modification encompasses tattoos and piercings. ^{*}Medical treatment includes surgery, blood transfusions, injections, and acupuncture and stitches. Participants can select multiple answers.

198 Of the 1277 individuals reporting vaccination against HBV, 397 (31.1%) had completed
 199 the schedule (three or more doses) whilst 561 (43.9%) had received either one or two doses;
 200 319 (25%) did not know how many doses they had received. 504 (30.0%) of the sample were
 201 protected against HBV (previous infection or three or more vaccine doses).

202 1.3.5 Factors associated with high exposure risk

203 In a binary logistic regression model the pre-selected variables explained 13% of the
 204 variability in the data (Nagelkerke $R^2=0.13$) and correctly predicted 7.2% ($n=22$) of individuals
 205 who reported a high exposure risk. Gender, age, 'planned trip duration <1 month' and 'total
 206 duration so far' were significantly associated with high exposure risk. The adjusted odds ratios
 207 are presented in Table 5.

Table 5.

Adjusted Odds Ratios for Variables Associated with High HBV Exposure Risk

| | HBV Exposure Level | | OR (95% CI) | Sig. | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| | High n=332 | Low or None n=1266 | | | |
| | n (%) | n (%) | | | |
| Median participant age (years) | 23 | 24 | 0.94 (0.90-0.97) | 0.001* | |
| Gender | Male | 186 (56.0) | 568 (44.9) | 1.0 (ref) | |
| | Female | 143 (43.1) | 695 (54.9) | 0.61 (0.47-0.80) | <.001* |
| Duration of trip | < 1 month | 64 (19.3) | 501 (39.6) | 0.45 (0.22-0.92) | <.001* |
| | > 1 month | 264 (79.5) | 793 (62.6) | 1.0 (ref) | |
| Median duration so far (weeks) | 4.0 | 3.0 | 1.03 (1.02-1.04) | <.001* | |

Percentages may not add up to 100 due to missing data.

208 1.3.6 Factors associated with completed vaccination

209 In a binary logistic regression model the pre-selected variables explained 4.6% of the
 210 variability in the data and did not predict any of the individuals who had completed a
 211 vaccination course.

212 1.3.7 Visiting a travel clinic or family doctor/nurse

213 Participants who reported visiting a travel clinic or family doctor/nurse as part of their
 214 pre-travel health advice had significantly higher knowledge scores than individuals who had

215 used other sources of pre-travel health advice (Mann-Whitney U: 165681; $r=-0.09$; $p=0.001$).
216 There was no statistical difference in participation in high HBV exposure risk activities
217 between individuals who had visited a travel clinic or their family doctor/nurse and those who
218 had sought pre-travel health advice elsewhere ($X^2(1, n=1285) = 0.66$; $p=.418$).

219 **1.4 Discussion**

220 **1.4.1 Main Findings**

221 One in five backpackers had participated in a high exposure risk activity during their
222 travels. Two-thirds of the sample, which participated in high HBV exposure risk activities,
223 reported no protection against HBV. There was no association between participation in high-
224 risk activities and protection against HBV. Four variables were found to be independently
225 associated with high exposure risk but the model explained only a small amount of the
226 variability in the data, suggesting that other factors may also play a role in high-exposure risk.

227 In the present study, over 40% of participants reporting vaccination had not
228 completed the vaccination schedule, which requires three doses over six months or an
229 accelerated course of three doses over two months [10]. 23.6% of participants had completed
230 a HBV vaccination schedule (3 or more doses).

231 Over half of the sample had visited a travel clinic or their family doctor/nurse prior to
232 departure: this was associated with higher knowledge scores but was not associated with any
233 reduction in high-risk exposure. More than 60% of participants who had received advice from
234 a health care professional reported being informed about HBV risk factors and given
235 information about the vaccine.

236 **1.4.2 Comparison with previous literature**

237 The proportion of backpackers who participated in high-risk activities, whilst visiting
238 the two islands of Thailand, was double the level found in previous studies examining HBV

239 exposure risk amongst travellers to endemic countries [8,17,18]. Unforeseen medical care has
240 previously been identified as the largest source of potential HBV exposure whilst travelling
241 [19] but in this study, voluntary risk activities were the largest source of potential exposure
242 to HBV: 9.5% of participants reported having unprotected sex and 7.8% reported a tattoo or
243 piercing whilst abroad. The proportion of backpackers at risk of HBV as a result of requiring
244 medical or dental treatment (5.1%) is similar to that found in studies of other groups of
245 travellers [8,17,19].

246 Four out of five participants reported seeking pre-travel health advice: this is much
247 higher than studies of other types of travellers [7,17,20,21] and consistent with previous
248 surveys of backpackers [22]. Previous studies of HBV vaccination amongst travellers have not
249 consistently reported dose number, but the rate of protection against HBV (previous infection
250 or completed vaccination scheme [15]) in this study is lower than in the findings of a European
251 Airport Survey (30% vs. 44%) [21]. In the present study, two-thirds of the participants who
252 took part in high-risk activities were vulnerable to developing HBV, as they had not completed
253 a vaccination scheme or acquired immunity from previous infection: this is a larger proportion
254 than in studies of other types of travellers to high endemicity countries [8,17,19].

255 **1.4.3 Strengths & Limitations**

256 Previous studies on HBV exposure amongst travellers have been conducted either via
257 airport surveys [21], or by online [19,23,24] or postal questionnaires [25]. The online and
258 postal recruitment methods had low response rates and a large proportion of respondents
259 had not visited countries with endemic HBV [19,23,24,25]. Airport surveys calculated
260 exposure risk based on behaviour on previous journeys: this assumes similar behaviour in
261 various destinations and on different types of holidays [21]. In contrast, the present study had

262 a much higher response rate and participants were recruited in an endemic country and asked
263 about their behaviour on their current trip.

264 Data were collected over two months on two islands in Thailand and so may not be
265 representative of backpackers year-round across the whole of Thailand or of backpackers
266 visiting other countries in South East Asia. Due to the study design, causality cannot be
267 inferred from the results. 123 (7%) of the completed questionnaires were unusable due to an
268 electronic data file corruption, but this is unlikely to have introduced a source of bias
269 considering the large sample size. Participants were selected using convenience sampling,
270 which could be a source of bias. However, all visitors to the islands had to leave by ferry and
271 the researchers systematically approached all individuals at the ferry port to minimise this
272 bias. A further limitation of the study is that sexual preferences were not considered: men
273 who have sex with men are known to have an increased risk of HBV [26]. In accordance with
274 the University of Birmingham policy, participants from the United States had to be excluded.
275 The survey was only available in English, due to time limitations, therefore also excluded
276 those unable to read English. Collectively this limits the generalizability of the results. The
277 sample was largely made up of European residents, which in conjunction with the
278 requirement to understand English, may bias the results. However, an ethnographical study
279 of backpackers found that backpackers are typically of Western origin and have a higher level
280 of education than the general level in their country [27]. There was no significant difference
281 in risk taking behaviours between backpackers of European and non-European origins.

282 **1.4.4 Clinical Implications**

283 Non-immune individuals who partake in high-risk activities whilst visiting endemic
284 countries are at risk of developing hepatitis B; in the UK twelve percent of acute HBV cases in
285 the UK reported overseas travel during the incubation period [28]. Contracting HBV whilst

286 travelling has consequences not just for the individual but also for their close contacts on
287 return home and the healthcare system of their country of origin. One in twenty healthy
288 adults who contract HBV will develop a persistent infection and become chronic carriers
289 capable of transmitting the virus [29]. Persistent infection is often asymptomatic but is
290 associated with late stage complications such as chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and
291 hepatocellular carcinoma that can be complex and expensive to treat [30, 31].

292 The World Health Organisation recommends universal vaccination and this has been
293 implemented by 22 of the 29 European Union countries but the UK has opted for a selected
294 vaccination scheme [9]. UK guidelines state that 'at-risk' travellers to endemic countries
295 should be vaccinated and that the HCP should make an assessment of the risk depending on
296 the duration of travel, planned activities and the destination's HBV prevalence [10]. A fifth of
297 the present study sample was from the UK and of these approximately thirty per cent were
298 fully vaccinated against HBV; there was no association between vaccination against HBV and
299 participation in high HBV exposure risk activities. Given the low level of immunisation
300 amongst the UK participants in the present study and the failure to immunise the at-risk
301 population it is recommended that UK immunisation guidelines are revised to consider
302 vaccination of all backpackers travelling to Thailand and South East Asia.

303 For a vaccination schedule to be completed, consultation with a HCP needs to occur
304 at least 2 months prior to departure; for this to occur the individual must be aware of the
305 need to visit a HCP and consult well in advance of their trip. The increased risk of HBV
306 exposure in this population was mainly attributable to participation in voluntary risk activities
307 and this should be considered during the pre-travel health consultation. Backpackers should
308 be advised about practising safe sex and taught about the risks of unsterile needles and the
309 need for good hygiene standards in tattoo parlours alongside vaccination advice. Condom use

310 should also help to aid the control of other STDs and the avoidance of unwanted pregnancy.
311 Further research is needed to identify the most effective method of increasing vaccination
312 uptake and reducing risk behaviors amongst backpackers.

313 **1.5 Conclusion**

314 Hepatitis B is a preventable disease that can cause acute illness and chronic
315 complications. Whilst a high proportion of backpackers in Thailand seek pre-travel health
316 advice, only 30% in our sample were protected against HBV and 20% placed themselves at
317 high risk of HBV exposure due to their behavior whilst abroad. Early consultation with a HCP
318 before travel and promotion of HBV vaccination are required to bolster the rates of
319 protection. Furthermore, backpackers could benefit from sexual health advice and the risks
320 of body modification whilst abroad in order to reduce their risk of contracting hepatitis B.

321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331

332 **1.6 Appendix**

333 See attached file

334

335 **1.7 Acknowledgements & Role of funding source**

336 I would like to thank all the participants for giving up their time to take part in our
337 study. The project would not have been possible without the cooperation of the Thai Tourist
338 Police.

339 I would also like to thank Frank Ker & his family for their financial support of the
340 project via a bursary granted by the College of Medical and Dental Sciences, University of

341 Birmingham. This support was purely financial and played no role in the study design, data
342 collection, analysis or interpretation.

343

344 **1.8 Conflicts of interest**

345 None declared

346

347

1.9 References

348 [1] Liang TJ. Hepatitis B: The virus and disease. *Hepatology* 2009;49:S13–21.

349 doi:10.1002/hep.22881.

350 [2] Custer B, Sullivan SD, Hazlet TK, Iloeje U, Veenstra DL, Kowdley KV. Global Epidemiology
351 of hepatitis B virus. *Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology* 2004;38:S158–68.

352 doi:10.1097/00004836-200411003-00008.

353 [3] Mendy M, Peterson I, Hossin S, Peto T, Jobarteh ML, Jeng-Barry A, et al. Observational
354 study of vaccine efficacy 24 years after the start of hepatitis B vaccination in Two
355 Gambian villages: No need for a booster dose. *PLoS ONE* 2013;8:e58029.

356 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0058029.

357 [4] Boggild AK, Castelli F, Gautret P, Torresi J, von Sonnenburg F, Barnett ED, et al. Vaccine
358 preventable diseases in returned international travelers: Results from the
359 GeoSentinel surveillance network. *Vaccine* 2010;28:7389–95.

360 doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2010.09.009.

361 [5] World Tourism Organization. UNWTO tourism highlights 2014 edition. World Tourism
362 Organization; 2014

363 [6] Ott JJ, Stevens GA, Groeger J, Wiersma ST. Global epidemiology of hepatitis B virus
364 infection: New estimates of age-specific HBsAg seroprevalence and endemicity.

365 *Vaccine* 2012;30:2212–9. doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2011.12.116. [7] Evans N.

366 Prevention of hepatitis B in travellers: Pre-travel consultation. *Nursing Standard*
367 2007;21:52–7. doi:10.7748/ns2007.04.21.33.52.c4549.

368 [8] Streeton CL, Zwar N. Risk of exposure to hepatitis B and other Blood-Borne viruses
369 among Australians who travel abroad. *Journal of Travel Medicine* 2006;13:345–50.

370 doi:10.1111/j.1708-8305.2006.00069.x.

371 [9] European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Hepatitis B and C surveillance in
372 Europe 2012. Stockholm: ECDC; 2014. doi:10.2900/31062

373 [10] HM Government. Immunisation against Infectious Disease. Chapter 18 – Hepatitis B.
374 2016.

375 [11] Choices N. Hepatitis B vaccine 2015.

376 <http://www.nhs.uk/conditions/vaccinations/pages/hepatitis-b-vaccine.aspx>
377 (accessed October 14, 2016).

378 [12] Leggat PA, Shaw MTM. Travel health advice for backpackers. *Journal of Travel Medicine*
379 2006;10:340–5. doi:10.2310/7060.2003.9361.

380 [13] Carr N. A comparative analysis of the behaviour of domestic and international young
381 tourists. *Tourism Management* 2002;23:321–5. doi:10.1016/s0261-5177(01)00089-9.

382 [14] Lavrakas PJ. *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. London: Sage
383 Publications; 2008.

384 [15] A comprehensive immunization strategy to eliminate transmission of hepatitis B virus
385 infection in the United States. *PEDIATRICS* 2006;118:404–404.

- 386 doi:10.1542/peds.2006-1181
- 387 [16] Mariano A, Mele A, Tosti ME, Parlato A, Gallo G, Ragni P, et al. Role of beauty treatment
388 in the spread of parenterally transmitted hepatitis viruses in Italy. *Journal of Medical*
389 *Virology* 2004;74:216–20. doi:10.1002/jmv.20182.
- 390 [17] Leggat PA, Zwar NA, Hudson BJ. Hepatitis B risks and immunisation coverage amongst
391 Australians travelling to southeast Asia and east Asia. *Travel Medicine and Infectious*
392 *Disease* 2009;7:344–9. doi:10.1016/j.tmaid.2009.03.008.
- 393 [18] Zuckerman JN, Steffen R. Risks of hepatitis B in travelers as compared to immunization
394 status. *Journal of Travel Medicine* 2006;7:170–4. doi:10.2310/7060.2000.00054.
- 395 [19] Nielsen US, Petersen E, Larsen CS. Hepatitis B immunization coverage and risk
396 behaviour among Danish travellers: Are immunization strategies based on single
397 journey itineraries rational? *Journal of Infection* 2009;59:353–9.
398 doi:10.1016/j.jinf.2009.08.018.
- 399 [20] Van Herck K, Castelli F, Zuckerman J, Nothdurft H, Van Damme P, Dahlgren A-L, et al.
400 Knowledge, attitudes and practices in travel-related infectious diseases: The
401 European airport survey. *Journal of Travel Medicine* 2004;11:3–8.
402 doi:10.2310/7060.2004.13609.
- 403 [21] van Genderen PJJ, van Thiel PPAM, Mulder PGH, Overbosch D. Trends in the
404 knowledge, attitudes and practices of travel risk groups toward prevention of
405 hepatitis B: Results from the repeated cross-sectional Dutch Schiphol airport survey
406 2002–2009. *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease* 2014;12:149–58.
407 doi:10.1016/j.tmaid.2013.09.002.
- 408 [22] Piyaphanee W, Wattanagoon Y, Silachamroon U, Mansanguan C, Wichianprasat P,
409 Walker E. Knowledge, attitudes, and practices among foreign backpackers toward
410 malaria risk in southeast Asia. *Journal of Travel Medicine* 2009;16:101–6.
411 doi:10.1111/j.1708-8305.2008.00282.x.
- 412 [23] Herbinger KH, Nothdurft HD, Prymula R. Online survey: Knowledge about risks,
413 prevention and consequences of infections with HBV among travellers from four
414 European countries. *Current Medical Research and Opinion* 2011;27:489–96.
415 doi:10.1185/03007995.2010.546392.
- 416 [24] Pedersini R, Marano C, De Moerlooze L, Chen L, Vietri J. HAV & HBV vaccination among
417 travellers participating in the national health and wellness survey in five European
418 countries. *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease* 2016;14:221–32.
419 doi:10.1016/j.tmaid.2016.03.008.
- 420 [25] Connor BA, Jake Jacobs R, Meyerhoff AS. Hepatitis B risks and immunization coverage
421 among American travelers. *Journal of Travel Medicine* 2006;13:273–80.
422 doi:10.1111/j.1708-8305.2006.00055.x.
- 423 [26] CDC. Hepatitis B. Centers for Disease Control & Prevention 2016.
424 <http://www.cdc.gov/vaccines/pubs/pinkbook/hepb.html> (accessed October 14,
425 2016).
- 426 [27] Sørensen A. Backpacker ethnography. *Annals of Tourism Research* 2003;30:847–67.
427 doi:10.1016/s0160-7383(03)00063-x.
- 428 [28] Hahné S, Ramsay M, Balogun K, Edmunds WJ, Mortimer P. Incidence and routes of
429 transmission of hepatitis B virus in England and Wales, 1995–2000: Implications for
430 immunisation policy. *Journal of Clinical Virology* 2004;29:211–20.
431 doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2003.09.016.
- 432 [29] Plotkin SA, Orenstein WA, Bernstein DI. VACCINES, 3rd edition. Shock 1999;12:327.

- 433 doi:10.1097/00024382-199910000-00017.
- 434 [30] Hyams KC. Risks of Chronicity following acute hepatitis B virus infection: A review.
- 435 Clinical Infectious Diseases 1995;20:992–1000. doi:10.1093/clinids/20.4.992.
- 436 [31] Lavanchy D. Hepatitis B virus epidemiology, disease burden, treatment, and current and
- 437 emerging prevention and control measures. Journal of Viral Hepatitis 2004;11:97–
- 438 107. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2893.2003.00487.x.