Distribution Agreement

In presenting this thesis or dissertation as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for an
advanced degree from Emory University, I hereby grant to Emory University and its
agents the non-exclusive license to archive, make accessible, and display my thesis or
dissertation in whole or in part in all forms of media, now or hereafter known, including
display on the world wide web. I understand that I may select some access restrictions
as part of the online submission of this thesis or dissertation. I retain all ownership
rights to the copyright of the thesis or dissertation. I also retain the right to use in future
works (such as articles or books) all or part of this thesis or dissertation.

Signature:

Leeza M Kondos

<u>16 April 2011</u>

Gender Differentials in Knowledge of HIV/AIDS and Attitudes Toward People Living with HIV/AIDS in Egypt

Ву

Leeza M. Kondos

Master of Public Health

Global Health

Kathryn Yount, Ph.D.

Committee Chair

Sherine Shawky, DrPH

Committee Member

Nafisa Halim, Ph.D.

Committee Member

Abstract Cover Page

Gender Differentials in Knowledge of HIV/AIDS and Attitudes Toward People Living with HIV/AIDS in Egypt

By

Leeza M. Kondos

B.S., UC Davis, 2005

Thesis Committee Chair: Dr. Kathryn Yount, Ph.D.

An abstract of

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Rollins School of Public Health of Emory University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Health in Global Health

2011

Abstract

Gender Differentials in Knowledge of HIV/AIDS and Attitudes Toward People Living with HIV/AIDS in Egypt

By Leeza M. Kondos

Thesis Committee: Dr. Kathryn Yount (Chair), Dr. Sherine Shawky, Dr. Nafisa Halim

Background & Problem Statement: Recent literature suggests a concentrated epidemic of HIV in Egypt, after decades of reported minimal prevalence (<0.01%). Sociocultural norms and gender constructs create differential access to information, education, and prevention of HIV as well as potential gaps in attitudes toward people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA). In Egypt, gender gaps in knowledge reinforce sociocognitive constructs of inequity and combined with current high risk behaviours among most at risk populations (MARP) compromise effective awareness, prevention and care seeking among the general population.

Significance: Findings will be used to enhance current HIV/AIDS awareness and education campaigns via the Egyptian National AIDS Programme (NAP). Understanding differential knowledge and attitudes is critical for effective prevention public health campaigns.

Aims: The 2008 Egyptian Demographic Health Survey Data (EDHS) was used in a secondary analysis to quantify relative contribution of gender differences in knowledge of HIV transmission, AIDS perceptions and attitudes toward PLWHA.

Methods: The stratified multi-stage cluster sample included 5,430 men and 6,578 women between ages of 15-59 who met inclusion criteria in 2008. Response rates were high (98% women and 89% men) and only individuals with complete sociodemographic information were included in analysis (final sample: 4,649 men and 4,668 women). Fourteen questions were used to assess knowledge (n=10) and tolerant attitudes (n=4), then analyzed separately, as two summative scores and as dichotomized high versus low scores. Gender gaps in knowledge, attitudes, and sociodemographic variables were assessed. Unadjusted and adjusted gender gaps in extent of knowledge and tolerant attitudes were assessed using linear and logistic regression. Analyses were conducted in STATA®.

Results: Overall, men had significantly greater knowledge about HIV transmission. Women had significantly higher levels of tolerance and lower knowledge in all aspects of transmission with the exception of mother to child transmission (delivery and breastfeeding). Unadjusted and adjusted regressions demonstrate robust gaps in knowledge, with women consistently having less accurate knowledge.

Conclusion: There are significant gaps in knowledge about HIV/AIDS in Egypt that are partially explained by demographic characteristics, in particular, by gender. In order to effectively address the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Egypt, gaps in knowledge by gender need to be understood and appropriately addressed.

Gender Differentials in Knowledge of HIV/AIDS and Attitudes Toward People Living with HIV/AIDS in Egypt

Ву

Leeza M. Kondos

B.S., University of California at Davis, 2005

Thesis Committee Chair: Dr. Kathryn Yount, Ph.D.

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of the

Rollins School of Public Health of Emory University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Health in Global Health

2011

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
INTRODUCTIONS AND RATIONALE	1
SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT	4
DEFINITION OF TERMS	4
ETHICS IN RESEARCH	5
CHAPTER 2: COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	5
SILENT EPIDEMIC	6
VULNERABLE GROUPS	7
STIGMA	11
GENDER DIFFERENTIAL	16
INADEQUATE KNOWLEDGE & MISCONCEPTIONS	17
SUMMARY& FUTURE IMPLICATIONS	19
CHAPTER 3: MANUSCRIPT	21
STUDENT CONTRIBUTION	21
Introduction	21
Methods	23
Research Design and Population	23
Instruments	25
Variables	26
Limitations	30
RESULTS	30
CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE POPULATION	30
GENDER GAPS IN KNOWLEDGE ABOUT HIV/AIDS	31
GENDER GAPS IN STIGMA TOWARD PLWHA	32
MULTIVARIATE LINEAR REGRESSION OF COVARIATES WITH RESPECT TO KNOW	WLEDGE &
ATTITUDES TOWARD PLWHA	39
DISCUSSION	40
PUBLIC HEALTH IMPLICATIONS	44
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	46
APPENDICES	48
APPENDIX A: EDHS HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE	48
APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL	72

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introductions and Rationale

Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and its manifestation in Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is one of the most significant medical, social and public health issues of the century. Since the identification of the virus and characterization of the epidemic in 1981, an estimated 60 million people have been infected and 25 million have died of HIV-related causes. Current HIV/AIDS surveillance in Egypt maintains a low prevalence by international standards (<0.1\%), however recent reports by Egypt's National AIDS Program (NAP) indicate a concentrated epidemic (NAP 2008-2009). It has been speculated that prohibitive cultural and social norms rooted in conservative Islamic values have slowed the HIV epidemic from growing in Egypt, although accurate knowledge about HIV/AIDS and relevant modes of transmission remain poor (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). Thus, the same cultural norms and societal pressures speculated to hinder the epidemic might actually be contributing to lower overall knowledge and differential information among certain groups. Furthermore, these cultural norms and societal pressures, which reduce accurate knowledge, have perpetuated negative attitudes toward people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA). HIV/AIDS-related stigma has been associated with familial, social and economic consequences and may serve as a significant barrier in accessing prevention, care and treatment services (Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008). As a result of low knowledge of transmission routes and prevention measures, high stigma associated with HIV/AIDS and risk practices, the true burden of HIV/AIDS on the Egyptian population remains unclear. Specifically, social constraints such as knowledge-restrictive cultural norms and

HIV/AIDS-related laws inherently restrict the ability of surveillance systems to reach the true prevalence of disease (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009).

Problem Statement

In countries with high HIV/AIDS burdens, successfully reducing transmission and mortality rates, as well as increasing quality of life, has entailed extensive biomedical, behavioural and educational interventions. These approaches have not been warranted due to the reported low burden of HIV/AIDS prevalence in Egypt relative to other countries. However, increasing evidence suggests that lack of adequate knowledge on HIV prevention and transmission, combined with the intense social stigma associated with infected individuals, has resulted in inaccurate estimates of HIV/AIDS true impact on the Egyptian people.

Egypt is an Arab nation with a strong religious influence on all facets of daily life. Sexual education is not culturally accepted, and the stigma associated with conversations regarding sexual practices outside of marriage or drug use can lead to social isolation, ostracization and even violence (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). It has long been assumed that the cultural norms and behavioral restrictions endorsed by traditional Egyptian values have prevented the behavioural risk factors that often lead to greater HIV/AIDS transmission. However, it may be this paradox of low knowledge and cultural hierarchies and negative attitudes toward people living with HIV/AIDS that may lead to increased risk of transmission. Not only may many Egyptians engage in certain high-risk behaviors because they are not aware that these behaviors increase HIV/AIDS transmission, but also socioeconomic and cultural barriers prevent those at high risk and those who have

already contracted the virus to seek treatment and engage in interventions aimed to increase quality of life. Evidence suggests a steadily growing increase in HIV/AIDS incidence in Egypt (NAP 2008-2009). Poor understanding of prevention measures and transmission routes, coupled with stigma toward PLHA, may create significant public health concern in Egypt's future (Boutros and Skordis 2010). In particular, research has shown that poor HIV/AIDS education and inadequate prevention and intervention programs may lead to even higher incidence rates and a substantial lack of care for those infected, which may lead to a significant decrease in longevity rates and quality of life (Nada and Suliman el 2010).

Purpose Statement & Hypotheses

In 2008, the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) was administered to over 12,000 Egyptians. The DHS is an internationally funded survey implemented in developing countries to help expand knowledge of health indicators and trend data in eligible countries. A subsample of the total DHS sample was asked questions regarding HIV/AIDS knowledge and attitudes. Biological and behavioural surveys conducted in Egypt as well as previous literature on the issue show a profound link between HIV/AIDS knowledge and socioeconomic indicators, where lower HIV/AIDS awareness is reported for groups with lower social capital, low educational attainment, lower wealth index and older age. However, no nationally representative sample has yet been thoroughly examined, and gender differences underlying these trends in knowledge and attitudes remain unclear. Previous studies have found a positive correlation between high knowledge of HIV/AIDS and greater tolerance toward PLWHA and we hypothesize that

when wealth, education, access to media and age are equivalent, gender accounts for significant differences in knowledge and attitudes. Findings from this research will be used to target future prevention and education efforts.

Significance Statement

In order to adequately address the burden of HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality in Egypt, it is important to understand the level of knowledge, misconception and perception of HIV/AIDS among the Egyptian people. Analysis of knowledge and attitudes regarding HIV/AIDS is critical for targeted surveillance, education and intervention programs that may decrease transmission and prevalence of HIV/AIDS among the Egyptian populace and increase quality of life among those Egyptians already infected with HIV or AIDS.

Definition of Terms

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, BIO-BSS: Biological and Behavioral Surveillance Survey, DHS: Demographic and Health Survey, FHI: Family Health International, FSW: Female Sex Worker, HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus, IDU: Injecting Drug Users KAP: Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices, MARPs: Most at Risk Populations, MSM: Men who have sex with Men, NAP: National AIDS Programme, NSP: National Strategic Plan, UNGASS: United Nations General Assembly Special Session in HIV/AIDS, PLHA: People living with HIV/AIDS, PHT: premarital HIV testing, PMTCT: Prenatal Mother to Child Transmission, STD: Sexually Transmitted Disease, STI: Sexually Transmitted Infection, UNAIDS: Joint United Nations Programme in HIV/AIDS, VCT: Voluntary Counseling and Testing, WHO: World Health Organization.

ETHICS IN RESEARCH

The Rollins School of Public Health requires that all material submitted by a student fulfilling his or her academic course of study must be the original work of the student. Violations of academic honor include any action by a student indicating dishonesty or a lack of integrity in academic ethics. Violations in this category include, but are not limited to, cheating, plagiarism, or falsifying research data. I hereby swear that all analyses produced are original and completed by myself, Leeza M. Kondos.

CHAPTER 2: COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The current study examines the current knowledge and attitudes regarding HIV/AIDS among a representative sample of Egyptian citizens, with an emphasis on the differences in this knowledge and attitudes by gender. Key words such as "HIV", "AIDS", "MSM", "Egypt", "MENA", "Arab", "Sexually transmitted disease" or STD and "KAP" were entered in electronic search engines and databases. National AIDS program (NAP) and the most recent HIV/AIDS Biological and behavioral Surveillance Survey report were also used. Peer-reviewed journal articles were consulted. Literature about HIV/AIDS prevalence, surveillance, stigma, attitudes, knowledge circumstances affecting accurate surveillance were summarized. From these sources of information, two reoccurring themes emerged: 1) A growing epidemic of HIV/AIDS is spreading among universally accepted most at risk populations (MARPs), 2) Stigma associated with HIV/AIDS leads to decreased knowledge about the epidemic which, in turn, leads to increased prevalence rates, gender inequities in HIV infections and the lack of HIV/AIDS lack of knowledge with multiplicity of misconceptions. Studies that demonstrated methodological rigor and epidemiologically sound experimental design

were given top priority. Reports using key informants and estimates were also used, particularly given the precarious circumstance of collecting HIV/AIDS data in Arab countries. Based on these sources, an integrated summary of the current literature was compiled.

SILENT EPIDEMIC

The first HIV case in Egypt was reported in 1986, after which further cases were detected by passive surveillance systems (Bio-BBS 2010). Egypt is included within 17 of 20 Middle Eastern and North African (MENA) nations where confirmed HIV cases have been reported. While previous literature suggested Egypt had a low endemic rate of HIV/AIDS (< 0.1\%), incidence and prevalence rates among most at-risk populations (MARPs) are much higher (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009; Bio-BBS 2010). Estimates from 2009 identified 3,919 HIV cases, 2920 of which were Egyptian and of those 1078 (27.5%) had developed AIDS (El-Sayyed, Kabbash et al. 2008; 2008-2009; Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). The UNGASS reports estimates that over the past 2 decades, the number of detected HIV cases has exponentially increased by 268%, although it is difficult to discern whether these are artifacts of more reliable testing and surveillance or as a direct result of increased transmission. While Nada and Suliman posit that over the past 20 years, HIV infections have spread rapidly in high-risk populations such as men who have sex with men (MSM) and injecting drug users (IDUs), reliable information about these populations is difficult to validate and accurately quantify, mainly because current surveillance efforts are hindered by cultural and social norms. Furthermore, UNGASS estimates indicate that cumulatively until 2009, the majority of transmission (71%) was sexual activities, more heterosexual than homosexual modes were identified

(49.5% vs. 22.9%). Transmissions through other mechanisms were relatively low with IDU representing 4.6%, mother to child transmission of 4.6% and through blood or renal products constituting a combined 13.9%(2008-2009).

VULNERABLE GROUPS

Nada and Suliman also documented certain risk factors for transmission of HIV/AIDS among a sample of 857 street children in Cairo and Alexandria. They found that lack of accurate characterization of the sociodemographic circumstances and locations of street children coupled with the poor socioeconomic characteristics, exposure to violence, drugs, and crime puts children at higher risk of infection. Nada and Suliman observed alarming rates of forced sexual abuse and other sexual acts among street children. They reported 54% of the children surveyed reported having multiple sex partners in the preceding 12 months of interview, as well as high rates of boys reporting engaging in MSM activity. Street children also reported having sold sex for money and drugs among other street children as well as to members of the general population.

These results are consistent with data from two rounds of biological and behavioural surveys (Bio-BBS) conducted by Family Health International in 2006 and 2010. Bio-BBS data indicate that MARP such as street children engage in unprotected sex, both commercial and non-commercial sex exchanges and being victims of sexual abuse. Moreover, the report found that among sexually active boys, 44.2% reported MSM activity and 15.0% reported being forced into having sex with a male partner (Egypt 2010). Differences in HIV knowledge were also observed among these populations: only 16.0% of girls had ever heard of STIs and 71.5% of girls had never heard of HIV. Boys had higher knowledge of both, 47.5% had heard of STIs and 69.5% had heard of HIV.

However the majority of both boys (41.7%) and girls (21.1%) did not know that HIV testing results would be kept confidential (Egypt 2010). In terms of information dissemination, television appeared to be the most prevalent popular as 69.0% of street boys and 63.0% of street girls reported watching television every day in the 4 weeks preceding the survey.

Although IDU in Egypt is relatively low compared to other countries, such as USA, Russia and China, it is a growing population and an increase in HIV prevalence has been noted among male IDUs in Cairo (El Awady, Azzazy et al. 2009). Soliman et al. used respondent driven techniques of IDUs in Cairo to estimate an HIV prevalence of 0.6%. While that estimate is relatively low it was still many times higher than the proportion of infected individuals estimated in the general population and seroprevalence samples collected in 2010 during the Bio-BBS found a prevalence of 6.7%-7.7% in Alexandria and Cairo, respectively (Egypt 2010). Moreover, Soliman et al. found high prevalence rates of needle sharing (58%) among IDUs as well as high-risk sexual behaviours, including MSM activity (12.5%) and sex with female sex workers (16.7%) with very low prevalence of condom use (6.0%). Compounding this risk, Soliman et al. found that more than one in three male IDUs were highly mobile (spending one or more months away from their home governorate within 12 months of being interviewed), while less than 1 in 10 men had reported ever being tested for HIV.

The 2010 Bio-BBS also reached 200 female sex workers (FSW) during their second round of surveys. The median age of these participants was 27.0 (range 18-62), of which nearly one in four reported never having a chance to attend school. Nearly one in three (31.0%) identified other means of work and the majority (89.0%) reported ever

being married or were currently married (45.5%). High risk behaviours were observed among FSW interviewed: 17.5% consumed alcohol at least once a week, 36.5% had non-commercial sex partners. Condom use was very low, 25% reported using a condom during last commercial sex act and only 11.0% reported using during most recent non-commercial sex act. Although a large proportion of FSW interviewed (89.0%) had ever heard of HIV, many misconceptions were prevalent as 36.5% believed HIV could be transmitted by sharing a meal with an infected person and 20.8% believed HIV could be transmitted by mosquito bite. Again, television appeared to be the most prevalent means of media regularly viewed by FSW with 77.0% reported watching TV every day (in the 4 weeks prior to the survey). Seroprevalence was low and thus population estimates for this group were not generated.

El-Sayyed surveyed 73 MSM in Cairo and found that among this sample, frequent risk behaviours included heterosexual relationships and low condom use (19.2% of the sample). In terms of surveillance, MSM do not self-identify as nonheterosexual and do not wish to be identified as such to others, which make addressing issues or designing interventions geared toward these special groups difficult. El-Sayyed found that while the majority of the sample surveyed had at least primary or secondary education (79.5%), MSM were less likely to be married (84.9%) and reported a sexual debut (age at first sexual act) of < 15 years of age (65.8%). This population also reported high incidence of penetrative and receptive anal sex (65.8%) and multiple partners (76.7%) for both commercial and pleasure purposes, putting them at even higher risk of infection. Boutros and Skordis also estimate that 73% of MSM are married (to women) in Egypt.

Similarly, the 2010 Bio-BBS sampled MSM groups from three major Egyptian cities (Cairo, Alexandria and Luxor). Although there were behavioural differences between the three groups, there were trends that prevailed throughout all groups: alcohol use, drug abuse, and low condom use. Demographic characteristics differed among the three groups with the Luxor group having two times the prevalence of no education when compared to the Cairo group (15.6% vs. 7. 4%). Similarly more MSM reported being currently married in Luxor 14.0%, than Alexandria (4.9%) than Cairo (3.5%). Regional differences in HIV knowledge were also observed as despite having multiple risk behaviours, only one in three MSM in Luxor had ever heard of HIV compared to 99.5% of Alexandria MSM and 92.2% of Cairo MSM. Furthermore, while 22.1% of Cairo MSM had ever been tested for HIV, only 14.5% of Alexandria MSM and 2.2% of Luxor MSM reported ever being tested. Seroprevalence for each group were high except for Luxor with an estimates seroprevalence estimate of 6.9% among MSM in Alexandria and 5.4% among Cairo MSM. Television was again the most effective method of information dissemination as the majority reported watching TV regularly in the 4 weeks preceding the survey.

The 2010 Bio-BBS results used blood samples collected from MARP to estimate population prevalence of HIV. These results estimate low HIV seroprevalence among street boys and girls as well as FSW but alarming levels of infection among Cairo MSM and IDU (5.4% and 7.7%, respectively) and Alexandria MSM and IDU (6.9% and 6.7% respectively). This report confirms concentrated epidemics in MARP (MSM and IDU). Furthermore, despite NAP interventions, programmes and counseling or testing campaigns, low proportions of MARP are screened, adequately informed about HIV

transmission routes and use preventative measures to avoid transmission. Shawky et al. characterize the unknown danger of ignoring low prevalence as an indication of active deterrence when a common feature of the global HIV epidemic has been a result of dramatic increases in cases in the absence of adequate prevention. These characteristics alone do not directly increase the risk of transmission and infection, but combined with poor knowledge of HIV/AIDS and low tolerance attitudes toward those infected, and the fact that MARPs have strong connections with the general population through marriage and sex partners (regular, irregular and commercial) creates a bridge between vulnerable groups and the mass population of Egypt.

STIGMA

Early work by Erving Goffman characterizes social stigma as a complex sociocognitive construct rooted in perceptions of difference or deviance from social norms which can result in a sense of 'spoiled identity' among individuals participating in these aberrations. The sociocognitive construct of stigma not only leaves the individual feeling socially undesirable, but also directly affects risk and care-seeking behaviour (Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008). Social determinants such as gender constructs, biological vulnerability, poverty, lack of adequate education and prevalent misconceptions reinforce the stigma associated with HIV/AIDS and can lead to discrimination of individuals in need; a study in South Africa found that individuals who were not tested for HIV had higher stigmatized attitudes toward PLWHA (Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008). Studies in South Africa, France and China have shown that highly stigmatized social atmospheres and attitudes can encourage higher risk behaviour and individuals who are infected to be less likely to disclose their status to partners and increases in unsafe sexual practices

(Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008). Other studies have shown a correlation between high stigma and increased depression, HIV-related symptoms, lower adherence to antiretroviral therapy and lower access to health services (Sayles, Hays et al. 2008) The dynamic of discrimination associated with PLWHA, vulnerable groups and risk behaviours directly impact an individual's economic potential, support system, social capital and access to information, prevention and treatment (Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008).

There is a strong stigma associated with HIV/AIDS in Arab countries, including Egypt, deeply entrenched in cultural norms. In general, HIV/AIDS is associated with such social undesirability that it may permeate all aspects of life of individuals living with the infection as well as their caregivers, relatives or friends. Stigma associated with HIV/AIDS is linked to socially undesirable practices such as nonmarital sex and implicit homosexuality, both of which are legally punishable since Egyptian legislature is based on Sharia law. The General Penalties Law in Egypt prohibits commercial sex work (both homosexual and heterosexual) and drug abuse, deeming them inappropriate and labeling them as disobedience to Islam." (Boutros and Skordis 2010) The perception among Egyptian people that HIV/AIDS is a consequence of adultery or "habitual debauchery" has led to the labeling of HIV-infected individuals as immoral and/or promiscuous. This increases shame and silence about the infection, making it more difficult to access vulnerable groups through surveillance efforts or to discuss or research sexuality and high-risk behaviours. Intense stigma and shame about even talking about the disease has also led to a decrease in successful educational and targeted intervention campaigns (Boutros and Skordis 2010).

Arab values strongly emphasize abstinence outside of marriage and highly discourages nonmarital sex and drug use. Although these values have been credited for the low burden of HIV/AIDS in the Arab world, they are the same values that discourage people from seeking information, being tested for HIV, using appropriate prevention strategies, and seeking treatment when infected. Soliman et al. found that among male IDUs in Cairo, marginalization of this high-risk group has resulted in decrease use of services and low testing for HIV. Badahdah and Foote surveyed 277 female college students in Kuwait, Bahrain and Jordan and found strong correlations between decreased knowledge about HIV/AIDS and increased negative attitudes toward people with HIV/AIDS. Although there was an inverse relationship among Bahraini students of increased knowledge and negative attitudes, students from all three countries demonstrated that HIV/AIDS-related ignorance is highly predictive of HIV/AIDS stigma. The shame that is associated with HIV/AIDS in all Arab countries leads those who need the most help to forego it. Badahdah and Foote identify shame as an important emotion which can lead individuals to hide their health status from caregivers and withdraw from social interactions. Shame can be experienced not only by the individual with HIV, but also "courtesy stigma" (stigma by association) can be perceived by friends or relatives of the person with HIV. Badahdah and Foote found that there were no significant differences in AIDS-stigma among women from each country.

Current social and cultural norms prevent individual rights to HIV/AIDS privacy and also hinder proper education and prevention of HIV/AIDs in Egypt. The view that sex is inappropriate to discuss with strangers and children prevents integration of sexual education within the regular school curricula. Compounding this lack of education is the

economic crisis Egypt has been suffering for the past decade. Austere economic circumstances have led to a delay in the average age of marriage, which in turn has increased nonmarital relations and incidence of orfi marriages (where young people obtain a clandestine, temporary marriage certificate allowing them to engage in sexual relations). Another example of cultural practices, which affect an individual's incentive to seek HIV information and testing, is premarital HIV testing (PHT) in the Arab Peninsula (countries such as Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, and Yemen). Premarital screening has long been implemented for the prevention of genetic disorder transmission, but HIV testing has now been supplemented into premarital screenings. Policies for PHT reinforce the high stigma associated with HIV/AIDS; because premarital screening is mandatory, refusing screening may mean having to forgo marriage, a protective factor against HIV/AIDS. Moreover, because civil and religious authorities (or both) spearhead testing, positive HIV cases are reported to the police, involuntary disclosure of status become possible and partners of the HIV positive individual are traced.

In the UAE, couples or individuals who test positive for HIV can still marry but *Sharia* law and family involvement can complicate and postpone the process. In accordance with other studies of Arab regions, attitudes among youth in the UAE were neither positive nor tolerant toward individuals infected with HIV/AIDS, as 53% of observed samples felt that infected individuals should be forced to live apart and 73% felt that children with HIV should not be allowed to attend school (Badahdah and Foote 2010). Furthermore, the majority of UAE students (67%) reported they would insist on their partner taking PHT and 8% reported refusing to marry their partner upon refusal to

take PHT (Ganczak 2010). Social stigma associated with HIV/AIDS prevents people living with HIV/AIDS from being included in regular medical checkups and applying for employment or university. In Saudi Arabia, where PHT is mandatory, it is estimated that 97% of heterosexually infected women acquire HIV from their husbands.

Current surveillance and screening efforts face formidable obstacles. Although, all donated blood must be screened for HIV, prior to 2004 24% of known HIV cases in Egypt are attributed to the use of infected blood (or blood products) and 5 outbreaks were reported to occur because of the reuse of syringes and dialysis equipment in renal dialysis units (Egypt 2010). While international attention helped the Ministry of Health and Population (MOHP) to act swiftly, the continuing bureaucratic and under-resourced nature of the Egyptian health care system and National Aids Program (NAP) restricted sustained efforts to reduce transmission. Furthermore, surveillance and case reporting is not systematic in Egypt: while HIV/AIDS reporting is obligatory, positive cases identified by government laboratories are reported directly to the government's NAP, but while all laboratories are obligated to report confirmed cases to the Egyptian Ministry of Health, it remains unclear how this process affects willingness to test. These findings reinforce the cultural and social role shame plays in Arab society by highlighting that Arab values use shame to restrict open dialogue about sexuality, education and prevention of sexually transmitted diseases and the association between HIV/AIDS and socially undesirable activities (e.g., nonmarital sex and drug use). The same values that were once thought to protect the Egyptian community from the HIV epidemic may now represent a facilitation, rather than protection from, HIV/AIDS transmission. These

obstacles inhibit comprehensive and representative behavioural surveillance of HIV/AIDS in the Egyptian community.

GENDER DIFFERENTIAL

Globally, gender norms have often subordinated women and as a consequence, men and women have differential access to resources, education and social capital(Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). Women and men do not share the same social equity, status or educational opportunities in the Arab world. Social constructs of gender roles place care giving responsibilities on women, strongly encourage fidelity to one sexual partner, and place women at a disadvantage with respect to accessing information regarding HIV, resources and negotiating safe sex practices. In contrast, similar to many parts of the world, interpretations of masculinity allow for multiple sexual partners, imply higher sexual knowledge, and discourage men from seeking information about safer sex or risk reducing practices that are often associated with undesirable social status (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). The burden of HIV infection and AIDS cases also is differentially distributed by sociodemographics: the 2008 Millennium Development Goal Midterm Assessment conducted in Egypt estimates that 89.1% of HIV cases in Egypt are among individuals ages 15-49.

In Egypt, both men and women have access to school, although significantly fewer women attain similar education levels to their male counterparts and underlying gender norms further inhibit education about HIV/AIDS prevention measures and education. Literature suggests that women's risk of infection is magnified biologically and as a result of this inequity; women have less access to information, lower rates of literacy, are more often the victims of unwanted sexual advances, and have less social

capital when it comes to negotiation of safe sexual practices (Boutros and Skordis 2010). Furthermore, previous studies in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) found that male students had greater knowledge than female students about HIV/AIDS transmission, prevention, and treatment. Gender dynamics also put girls at higher risk for infection. Nada and Suliman found that among street children in Alexandria and Cairo, girls were many times more likely to have been sexually abused (54% of all girls surveyed), and forced to have sex than their male counterparts (often by other street boys). Furthermore, boys were more likely to have knowledge of HIV but also many more times likely to have had sex with a person of the same sex than street girls.

Finally, although passive surveillance systems have been the primary method of collecting surveillance data in Arab regions, sentinel surveillance sites are often implemented among antenatal clinics targeting pregnant women(Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). However, while voluntary counseling and treatment centres exist in Egypt, it remains unclear how effective these services are (for both mother and couple) since they receive higher numbers of women (than men) but social norms limit the incentive for women to ask for information and inquire about testing. Moreover, in many of the MENA countries, such as Sudan, the number of women infected far surpasses the number of men, dispelling the myth that HIV is spread solely through blood transfusions or MSM.

INADEQUATE KNOWLEDGE & MISCONCEPTIONS

Badahdah and Foote used a 13-item knowledge scale adapted from the *Attitudes Toward AIDS Scale*, added questions related to AIDS stigma and administered the survey to three convenient samples of University women in Bahrain, Kuwait and Jordan. While

most students could correctly identify the main behaviours or situations that could increase a person's risk of infection, there was reduced understanding about the fluids that carry HIV, specifically semen and breast milk. Substantial misconceptions about the transmission of HIV/AIDS remain widespread among Arab individuals. Badahdah and Foote found significant differences in knowledge of HIV/AIDS between women from each country; one third of women in each country believed there was a cure for AIDS, 63%-73% believed one could contract HIV from a mosquito bite, and the majority of women (78%-83%) were unaware that condoms could reduce the chance of HIV transmission. Nada and Soliman observed alarming rates of misconceptions among sexually active urban street children. For example, 16% believed casual physical contact could spread the disease, and 14% did not know how HIV is transmitted. This coincides with results by El-Sayyed, which showed an increase in condom use among MSM with higher levels of education and lower reported instances of STI symptoms (37.5% versus 64.3% among illiterate MSM). In fact, 21.9% of MSM surveyed reported never using a condom because they had never heard of them. It may be that because in certain countries the use of condoms was low prior to the HIV/AIDS epidemic that uptake of condom use and education has been relatively slow. Boutros and Skordis hypothesize that another potential barrier in condom use is the popular belief that condom buyers are assumed to be homosexual and therefore further stigmatized.

Low levels of accurate knowledge about HIV and STIs have a direct relationship with negative attitudes toward people living with HIV/AIDS. Mohsin et al. in Lahore, Pakistan, found that the level of knowledge and degree of tolerance toward HIV/AIDS can affect the quality of care patients receive and the quality of follow up and syndromic

management (Khan, Unemo et al. 2009). Cultural beliefs, specific to each individual nation can affect these effects. For example, in Vietnam, Quach et al. found that while younger physicians were more informed, older physicians were more likely to have a positive attitude toward HIV/AIDS patients as Vietnamese society expects older people to be more tolerant and sympathetic (Khan, Unemo et al. 2009). It is important to understand what correlates of socioeconomic demographic indicators predict accurate HIV/AIDS knowledge and high tolerance toward people with HIV/AIDS.

SUMMARY& FUTURE IMPLICATIONS

The HIV epidemic has been one of the most detrimental causes of morbidity and mortality of the 21st century. Risk of HIV infection is inherently affected by accurate knowledge of transmission and indirectly depended upon behaviour and social acceptability(Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). Literature suggests that Egypt's population may have a concentrated epidemic status that has not been accurately reported before, and vulnerable groups may bear a disproportionate burden of infection and infection-related social stigma. Badahdah and Foote suggest that a reduction in shame associated with HIV/AIDS is imperative to improving the perception of people with HIV/AIDS in the Arab world. Nada and Suliman indicate how street children have been observed engaging in practices characteristic of high-risk populations around the world. Boutros et al. warn that because of the culmination of cultural constraints and social stigma, adequate surveillance is difficult to attain and thus, HIV-related policy, interventions and resource allocation are scant and urgently needed to avert a growth in the current epidemic. In the 2006 and 2008 HIV/AIDS Biological and Behavioural Surveillance

Surveys, all target groups (MSM, street children and IDUs) shared common high-risk behaviours that put them at higher risk of infection: unprotected sex, numerous sexual partners and intravenous drug use.

Throughout the review of current literature, gaps in accurate surveillance were identified, as were the gaps in comprehensive sexually transmitted disease data and insight into the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Egypt. Challenges to accurate surveillance and prevention/intervention efforts include overconfidence that conservative cultural and social norms may be prohibiting infection, lack of knowledge about transmission among high-risk populations and the general population, high levels of stigma discouraging individuals from seeking screening and treatment for HIV/AIDS, and limited resource allocation and acceptance of HIV/AIDS as a legitimate problem. These challenges will continue to hinder appropriate surveillance and outreach efforts.

Since Egypt is the first Arab nation to participate in a national-level survey about HIV/AIDS knowledge and attitudes, this provides an opportunity to evaluate current knowledge and attitude practices in one of the largest and most populated Arab nations in the world. As evidence mounts concerning the HIV epidemic in Egypt, it is important to understand mechanisms of understanding, education, prevention and perception in Egypt as a model for the Arab world. Overall, accurate knowledge and high tolerance beget an opportunity to impede further morbidity and mortality associated with HIV/AIDS. However, gender dynamics and a further understanding of specific inequities in knowledge and attitudes will help current campaigns and efforts to understand, prevent and further address the HIV/AIDS situation in Egypt.

CHAPTER 3: MANUSCRIPT

Student Contribution

Under the direction of Dr. Kathryn Yount, Leeza M. Kondos collaborated to form a secondary analysis in theory. Leeza Kondos was responsible conceptual development of the research question and data analyses, for acquiring the data from Measure DHS, establishing the analysis and execution. Dr. Nafisa Halim consulted on numerous technical aspects of data analysis, participated in discussion and interpretation of results, and provided general feedback regarding accuracy and statistical rigor. Dr. Yount provided guidance with respect to hypotheses, analysis and interpretation as well as editing of all documentation. Dr. Sherine Shawky provided subject matter expertise, background material and feedback on validity of results, accuracy of interpretation and context of findings.

Introduction

The HIV epidemic is a global priority that has not been considered critical in the Middle East and North African (MENA) region. This is mainly due to underreporting of the epidemic, as many officials believe that the conservative Egyptian Islamic values have curbed the HIV epidemic in Egypt relative to other countries. However, recent reports show steady increases in HIV cases and a six-fold increase in AIDS deaths in Egypt within the past 20 years (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). Many have speculated that cultural and social norms in Egyptian culture have inhibited the epidemic from becoming a significant public health concern, however, among most at risk populations (MARP), behaviors and sociocultural norms have been identified that hinder education of accurate

transmission routes and prevention of infection. As revealed in behavior and attitudinal surveys conducted in several Arab nations, low knowledge of accurate transmission and refusal of misconceptions concerning HIV/AIDS is widespread, as are negative attitudes toward PLWHA. The interaction of MARP in Egypt in an atmosphere of social disobedience, generally low knowledge and high stigma associated with PLWHA, on the efficiency of HIV/AIDS campaigns in Egypt remains unclear.

In Egypt, similar to MENA countries and those outside the Arab world, gender norms have often subordinated women and as a consequence, men and women have differential access to resources, education and social capital. Adherence to traditional gender roles creates a society in which women are pressured to maintain domestic responsibilities and submissive behavior for women while masculinity norms tolerate infidelity and a projection of knowledge and sexual experience that may or may not be accurately representative of actual knowledge of HIV/AIDS. These constructs are compounded by the differential burden of disease, which is largely transmitted by heterosexual sexual transmission. Women are generally at higher risk of transmission, since they have lower social capital, which results in decreased sexual negotiation ability (e.g., condom use) and overall, less access to prevention and treatment mechanisms. This is particularly important as bridges between MARP and the general populations have been established, as MSM, IDU and commercial sex workers are often married (or have been married) to members of the general population. Of particular interest are the majority of MSM who have been surveyed in Cairo and reported being concurrently married, putting married women at increased risk of infection. Similarly, increasing proportions of street children and squatter area inhabitants are using transactional sex among MARP and others, increasing the likelihood of infection. These behaviours augment the risk associated with a silent epidemic as connections between MARP and the general population increase while knowledge, particularly among Egyptian women, remains low and stigma toward PLWHA remains high. Recent studies suggest that a concentrated epidemic is growing in Egypt. In order to reduce morbidity and mortality associated with HIV/AIDS, effective surveillance and educational campaigns must address sociocultural norms that have thus far hindered prevention measures and access to information or treatment for those living with or at risk for contracting HIV/AIDS.

The purpose of this study was to conduct a secondary data analysis on the 2008 Egypt DHS (EDHS), in order to examine the general levels of accurate knowledge of HIV/AIDS and attitudes toward PLWHA among a representative Egyptian population. Particularly, differentials gaps in knowledge and attitudes were examined. Data for this analysis was collected and validated in 2008 by ICF Macro, an ICF International Company for MEASURE DHS, a project funded by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), particularly USAID/Cairo as well as the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and other donors. The EDHS was executed by El-Zanaty & Associates. Permission to use the EDHS data was requested and granted via MEASURE DHS.

Methods

Research Design and Population

A cross-sectional study was conducted in 2008, and was executed in four stages:

1) preparation of sampling design and frame, development of surveys, pretesting and finalization, 2) training of field staff and interviewing eligible individuals and

households, 3) verification, validation, cleaning and production of the final data file and then 4) data analysis and reporting of data as well as the findings. Overall, stage one was initiated in August 2007 and the final stage ended in October 2008. Data collection (Stage 1) was designed as a three tier sampling design, surveying a total of 23,104 Egyptian participants throughout the six administrative regions in Egypt. Primary sampling units (PSUs) were identified as towns in urban areas and villages in rural areas. PSUs were then stratified by geographic location from Egypt's northwest corner to the southeast corner. From there, 610 PSUs (275 shiakhas or towns and 335 villages) were identified and divided into 998 parts based on population size using the 2006 census. Approximately 200 households comprised each of the 998 parts. Of all 998 parts, 1,267 segments were randomly assigned and one fourth of households in each segment were interviewed. Within each house, all men and women age 15-59 were asked questions regarding health, HIV knowledge and attitudes, among other demographic and healthrelated questions by 15 teams (45 workers) on behalf of ICF Macro. Inclusion of men and women of reproductive age was imperative to understand HIV/AIDS knowledge and attitudes among groups within the general population who are susceptible to infection and/or high-risk behaviour. Women and men were eligible for the health issues interview assuming age eligibility (15-59), regardless of marital status, and were present in the household the night before the interview.

To form a representative sample, 19,739 households were selected for the 2008 EDHS. From these, 19,147 households were located, and 18,968 households were successfully interviewed indicating a response rate of 99.1%. Eligible respondents had consistent criteria, of which 4,953 households (total) were selected for the health issues

subsample. Of these, 4,757 were found and 4,662 interviewed, indicating a 98% response rate. However, of all eligible participants (6,702 men and 6,078 women) who met the criteria for being interviewed, women had a slightly higher response rate than men (98% vs. 89%). This was mainly due to conflicting work schedules for men, which made it harder to contact them for interviewing purposes. EDHS data were weighted for population representativeness prior to all analyses.

Previous literature has indicated that sociocultural norms maintain differential gender access to resources, education and social capital. Therefore, in the current study, the data were stratified by sex in order to assess gaps in knowledge and attitudes between men and women. A total of 12,780 individuals were selected and of those, 94% (12,008) were successfully interviewed of which 5883 were men and 6125 were women (response rates of 96% and 98%, respectively).

Instruments

EDHS used three questionnaires to collect data: household questionnaire, an ever-married woman questionnaire and a health issues questionnaire. Household and ever-married questionnaires were based on those previously used EDHS surveys. The majority of the content in the health issues questionnaire was developed especially for the 2008 EDHS, incorporating previous EDHS surveys and similar MEASURE DHS surveys, and then translated into Arabic, validated, verified and implemented. The complete health issues questionnaire (which contains all questions about HIV knowledge and attitudes), contained novel questions about HIV/AIDS knowledge, pervasive misconceptions and attitudes toward PLWHA, see Appendix A. All data collected were weighted for population representation.

Final sample

A subset of participants who responded to the health issues survey were included in the analysis: only those who had an affirmative answer (yes) to ever hearing about AIDS were given the further questionnaire (Appendix A). Of the total participants, 9460 (78.8%) responded they had ever heard of AIDS and 2546 (21.2%) responded that they had not (2 were missing). Among those who had heard of AIDS, 4718 were men (49.9%) and 4742 (50.1%) were women. From there individuals who were missing a response from any of the 10 knowledge questions or 4 attitude questions were removed from analysis (n=2585), resulting in a sample of 9,423. Finally, 106 individuals were excluded from analysis because they were missing sociodemographic information (educational attainment, wealth index, age, and/or marital status). The final sample used for analysis included men and women from all ages, religions, wealth indices, residence (urban/rural), region of residence (governorate) and educational attainment (Table 1).

Variables

To isolate a continuous sample for statistical purposes, participants whose responses were missing from any of the variables of interest were excluded from the sample. This resulted in a final sample size of 9,317 individuals. Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted in order to assess the proportions and frequencies of responses to all demographic, knowledge and attitude questions. Knowledge questions were categorized as affirmative and negative and summated to create a scale of knowledge that ranged between 1 and 10. After assessing frequency of all responses, each question (10 knowledge, 4 attitude) was assigned a value of 1 if the respondent conveyed correct knowledge or low stigma (high tolerance) and zero if the response was incorrect, or if the

participant did not know (with respect to knowledge questions), which conveyed inadequate knowledge or high stigma (low tolerance). For two variables about television and radio, 22 and 23 participant responses (respectively) were missing. Since the majority of participants report these two media forms as sources of information, the missing 22 and 23 values were imputed with the mode (the overall change was 0.3%).

Knowledge of HIV/AIDS was assessed in six ways: 1) mechanisms of reducing transmission, 2) mother to child transmission routes, 3) knowing of a place to be tested for HIV, 4) common misconceptions of transmission routes, 5) misconceptions of non-clinical manifestations of HIV/AIDS, and 6) an overall score of knowledge on a summative scale (0 indicating inaccurate knowledge on all questions and 10 indicating accurate knowledge on all questions), see Table 2A. Attitude questions were also assessed: these questions included whether participants would be willing to buy fresh vegetables from PLWHA, their attitude toward a family member who, hypothetically, would need care and disclosure of that relative's status, as well as attitude toward a school teacher being able to remain teaching if she were infected. Once the final sample was established and each knowledge and attitude item was assigned a score, the sum of scores for each individual (for both knowledge and attitudes) were transformed into linear outcomes where lower values indicated either lower knowledge or low tolerance and higher values represented higher knowledge or higher tolerance.

An individual was considered to have "high knowledge" if their summative score of knowledge was six or above (mean knowledge was 5.4). Similarly, a summative scale was constructed using attitude questions to assess the range of stigma associated with HIV/AIDS. All variables were assessed for multicollinearity, bivariate analysis adjusted

for sex, measures of association with linear knowledge and attitudes scales as well as dichotomized high and knowledge and attitudes levels.

Data analysis

Simple descriptive statistics were used to assess frequency and proportions of variables of interest including age, sex, residence (urban/rural), administrative region of residence, level of education, literacy, wealth index, socioeconomic indicators, marital status and access to television and radio. The EDHS Household and Health Survey questionnaires were merged to include wealth index since it was not collected independently in the Health questionnaire. Answers to knowledge and attitude questions were also examined. After descriptive statistics describing socioeconomic and demographic indicators of participants were examined, we then analyzed proportions of knowledge and attitudes with respect to HIV /AIDS. These analyses were conducted for the entire and then were stratified by sex. Differences between groups (i.e., males vs. females) were assessed using Student's t-tests for continuous variables and chi-squared analyses for categorical and ordinal variables, both using the conventional significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. Demographic indicators (e.g., education, marital status, residence, sex, wealth index and religious identification) were then correlated with knowledge questions as well as with attitudinal questions.

Finally, univariate analysis and distribution of knowledge and attitudinal responses was evaluated and used as a linear outcome and dichotomized outcomes of high knowledge and high tolerance (low stigma). Bivariate analyses indicated significant contribution with respect to individual covariate linearity and outcome distribution by each of the variables of interest. Variables such as where a person had heard about

HIV/AIDS were not included in the final regressions because their significance did not meet the alpha level indicated. Although religion was not significant in the bivariate analysis, due to the relationship of Islam and Arab national policy, it was important to control for this variable. Similarly, wealth index showed a linear response with respect to outcome, although at differing significance levels. Education, age and governorate were found to covary with knowledge and attitudes. Media exposure (radio and television) had variable relationships with both outcomes.

Multivariate linear regression was used to assess predictors of high knowledge and more positive attitudes toward PLWHA as described using the corresponding knowledge and attitude summative scales. Responses to the knowledge and attitudes questions (which composed the 2 separate summative scales) were determined to have an underlying normal distribution, and used as outcomes in multivariate linear regression. Once mean knowledge and attitude scores were computed, individuals who scored higher than average on both scales were examined to see which demographic and socioeconomic indicators predicted their high knowledge and attitudes. High scores for both knowledge (score of seven or more) and attitudes (2 or more) were treated as outcomes for multivariate logistic regression analysis. Significance of all results was considered at $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

All statistical analyses were conducted using STATA® 11.0. Analyses were first conducted assuming uniform weighting of data to assess variability. Analyses were repeated using survey commands assigning households weights (as collected by ICF Macro) to each household, and accounting for each PSU as well as stratifying on

residence (urban/rural). The hypotheses and analysis focused on stratified differences; therefore all descriptive statistics were stratified by sex and residence.

Limitations

The social stigma associated with HIV/AIDS may have affected the accuracy and willingness of disclosure among participants with respect to knowledge and attitude questions. However, due to the large sample size and representativeness of sex and residence, the findings of this study can be used as a national estimate and even a regional proxy among other similar, yet non-participating, Arab nations with similar cultural and social circumstances to Egypt.

RESULTS

Characteristics of Sample Population

Overall, there were equivalent proportions of females and males who responded to ever hearing about AIDS (50.5% female and 49.9% male), and this difference was significant due to the large sample size. There were no significant differences by sex with respect to religion as the majority of men (95.2%) and women (95.3%) identified as Muslim. Men composed more of the lower wealth quintiles (poorest, poorer and middle) while there were higher proportions of women in higher quintiles (richer, richest). Although these differences were significant, the distributions were relatively equivalent (see Table 1). More rural men than rural women were included in the analysis (55.9% vs. 50.8%), however residence was nearly equivalent across genders, with 53.4% of the population from rural areas. More than half of the men and women were married (58.4% and 67.4%, respectively), although 40.6% of men were never married compared to 26.1% of women.

There were significant differences in educational attainment by gender: only 9.7% of men reported having no education compared to 19.3% of women. Also, men had consistently higher education in all other levels (primary-post-secondary), and these differences were statistically significant. Proportionately more women than men watched television nearly every day (95.4% versus 92.4%), as well as listened to the radio more regularly (40.1% versus 34.4%, respectively). Overall, the majority of participants (72.7%) reported not hearing, seeing or receiving any information about HIV/AIDS in the 6 months before interview (Table 1).

Gender Gaps in Knowledge about HIV/AIDS

Overall, about 1 in 4 participants knew abstaining from sexual intercourse could prevent transmission of HIV (AIDS), and the majority (80.6%) knew that having one sexual partner who was not infected (and had no other partners) could reduce the chance of transmission. However, two-thirds of all participants did not know that using a condom with every sexual act could reduce transmission. Men had significantly greater knowledge on all questions pertaining to measures of reducing transmission (Table 2A).

Nearly 80% of all participants knew that HIV could be transmitted from mother to child during pregnancy, although women had less knowledge than men (77.5% vs. 81.1%, respectively). While these differences were significant, women had significantly higher knowledge about transmission from mother to child through pregnancy and breastfeeding, although in total less than half of respondents (42.7%) knew that HIV can be transmitted through breast feeding. Overall, less than one fifth (19.5%) of participants knew where to get tested for HIV, while an alarming 97.8% of men did not know. Male participants had higher refusal responses of misconceptions regarding AIDS than women

with respect to responding that mosquito bites were not a route of transmission (71.0% vs. 65.1%) and that neither wash sharing food with a person who has AIDS (71.1% and 65.4% respectively). A high proportion of men and women, 65.2%, knew that it would be possible for a healthy person to have AIDS, although such knowledge was less common among women than men (61.1% vs. 69.4%, respectively). The mean knowledge score was 5.4 (SD = 0.04), with men having a high-point higher average knowledge score than women (5.7 versus 5.2). Aside from transmission from mother to child and knowing of a place where a person could be tested for HIV, men had significantly higher levels of knowledge on all indicators (questions and scale).

Gender Gaps in Stigma Toward PLWHA

Overall negative attitudes toward PLWHA were consistently high: only 16.2% of all respondents would be willing to buy fresh vegetables from an HIV-infected vendor, and only 10.7% of respondents believed an HIV infected teacher should be allowed to continue teaching in school (Table 2B). However, gender differences were mixed: more men were willing to buy vegetables from an HIV-infected vendor (18.6% vs. 13.9% of women), while more women believed an HIV-infected (female) teacher should be allowed to continue teaching (12.5% vs. 8.8%, respectively). There were slight increases in tolerance when participants were asked about potential situations of a relative being infected with HIV: while 36.1% of respondents reported wanting the status of a relative to be kept a secret, more than one-fifth of respondents reported that they would be willing to take care of an HIV-infected family member. Again, gender differentials were mixed: while more women than men were willing to take care of an HIV-infected family

member (23.1% vs. 20.0%), more women also reported wanting to keep the status of a family member a secret (38.4% vs. 33.8%), see Table 2B.

Table 1: Sociodemographic Indicators of Population Sample Stratified by Sex, Weighted

Variable	Female	Male	p-value	Total%
(n)	%	%	_	
Overall	50.5	49.5		
Mean Age (SD)	31.3 (0.2)	32.5 (0.2)	< 0.0001	
15-19	17.1	18.2	< 0.0001	17.6
20-29	34.8	29.5		32.2
30-39	22.8	21.3		22.0
40-49	16.1	18.5		17.3
50-59	9.3	12.4		10.9
RELIGION			0.8	
Muslim	95.3	95.2		95.3
Christian	4.7	4.8		4.7
Wealth Quintile			< 0.0001	
Poorest	11.6	14.4		13.0
Poorer	17.4	20.1		18.8
Middle	19.2	20.9		20.0
Richer	24.0	21.2		22.6
Richest	27.8	23.4		25.6
Residence			< 0.0001	
Rural	50.8	55.9		53.4
Urban	49.2	44.1		46.6
Region of Residence			< 0.0001	
Urban governorates	22.8	18.4		20.6
Lower Egypt urban	13.0	12.1		12.6
Lower Egypt rural	32.5	34.5		33.5
Upper Egypt urban	12.4	12.4		12.4
Upper Egypt rural	18.0	21.0		19.5
Frontier governorates	1.3	1.6		1.4
Marital Status			< 0.0001	
Never married	26.1	40.6		33.3
Married	67.4	58.4		62.9
Formerly Married	6.5	1.0		3.8
Highest Education Attended			< 0.0001	2.13
No Education	19.3	9.7	0.0001	14.6
Primary	11.6	14.0		12.8
Preparatory	10.4	11.7		11.0
Secondary	36.5	39.0		37.7
Post-Secondary	22.2	25.6		23.9
How often Listen to Radio	22.2	20.0	< 0.0001	23.9
Almost every day	40.1	34.4	10.0001	37.3
At least 1x per week	13.1	23.1		18.1
Less than 1x per week	11.5	15.2		13.3
Don't listen at all	35.3	27.3		31.3
How often Watch TV	33.3	27.3	< 0.0001	31.3
Almost every day	95.4	92.4	·0.0001	93.9
Less than everyday	4.6	7.6		6.1
In the last 6 months, have y		or	< 0.0001	
received any information about	HIV/AIDS!			
YES	30.7	23.9		27.3
NO	69.3	76.1		72.7

Table 2A: Comparison of Accurate HIV knowledge by Gender, Weighted

	Females (n	=4668)	Males (n	=4649)	P-value	Total
	(n)	%	(n)	%		%
People can reduce their chan-	ce of gettin	g AIDS	by:			
Abstaining from sexual intercourse	1084	21.2	1286	26.4	< 0.0001	23.8
Having just one sex partner who is not infected and has no other partners	3583	78.4	3840	82.9	<0.0001	80.6
Using condom every time they have sex	1130	23.2	1965	41.2	< 0.0001	32.2
HIV can be transmitted fron	n mother to	child d	luring:			
Pregnancy	3570	77.5	3756	81.1	0.0006	79.3
Delivery	3065	66.1	2812	61.9	0.0008	64.0
Breast feeding	2099	45.2	1697	40.2	0.0003	42.7
Place of HIV testing						
Know a place for HIV testing	731	16.6	1045	2.2	< 0.0001	19.5
People cannot get AIDS thro	ugh					
Mosquito bites	2987	65.1	3307	71.0	< 0.0001	68.0
Sharing food with a person who has AIDS	3023	65.4	3267	71.1	< 0.0001	68.3
Status of a healthy looking pe	erson					
Possible to have AIDS	2891	61.1	3178	69.4	< 0.0001	65.2
OVERALL MEAN of Knowl	ledge Scale	(0-10)				
Total Knowledge 0(low) –	10(high)				< 0.0001	
Mean (SD)	5.2	(0.05)	5.7	(0.04)		5.4 (0.04)
Min, Max		(0, 10)		(0, 10)		(0, 10)

Table 2B: Comparison of HIV Tolerance by Gender

	Femal (n=466		Mal (n=46		P-value	Total
	(n)	%	(n)	%		%
Willing to buy fresh vegetables from an HIV infected vendor	640	13.9	865	18.6	<0.001	16.2
If a family member became sick would want to remain a secret	3583	38.4	3840	33.8	0.0013	36.1
Will to take care of an HIV infected family member	1130	23.1	1965	20.0	0.005	21.6
Believe an HIV infected teacher can be allowed to continue teaching in school	3023	12.5	3267	8.8	<0.001	10.7
OVERALL MEAN of Tolerance Tolerance: 0(low) – 4(high) Mean (SD)	0.9 (0.0		0.8 (0	.02)	0.007 0.85 (0.01)
Min, Max	(0, 4)		(0, 4)			

Table 3A: Linear	0			0
	Knowledge Scale	Knowledge	Attitude Scale &	Attitude Scale
Table Bel Linear	Regression of H	igh Knowledge	and Law Stigm:	i, Weighted
	β (SE)	β (SE)	β (SE)	β (SE)
Gender (ref=men)	-0.48 (0.06)***	-0.45 (0.06)***	0.07 (0.02)**	0.06 (0.03)**
Religion (ref=Muslim)		-0.02 (0.12)		-0.03 (0.06)
Age (ref=15-19)				
20-29		0.69 (0.07)***		0.04 (0.03)
30-39		0.81 (0.1)***		0.08 (0.04)*
40-49		0.76 (0.10)***		0.09 (0.05)*
50-59		0.69 (0.12)***		0.07 (0.05)
Marital Status (ref=Never)				
Married		0.16 (0.07)*		-0.04 (0.03)
Ever Married		0.17 (0.14)		0.0 (0.07)
Education (ref=no education)				
Primary		0.30 (0.1)**		0.05 (0.04)
Preparatory		0.62 (0.11)***		0.10 (0.04)**
Secondary		0.98 (0.89)***		0.15 (0.03)***
Post Secondary		1.49 (0.09)***		0.32 (0.04)***
Wealth(ref=poorest)				
Poorer		0.02 (0.10)		0.01 (0.04)
Middle		0.13 (0.11)		0.03 (0.04)
Richer		0.22 (0.11)*		-0.03 (0.04)
Richest		0.43 (0.12)***		0.24 (0.05)
Radio (ref=never)				
< 1x/wk		0.11 (0.08)		-0.10 (0.04)**
>1x/wk		0.38 (0.07)***		-0.12 (0.03)***
Almost every		0.40 (0.06)***		0.002 (0.03)
TV (ref= <everyday)< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></everyday)<>				
Almost everyday		0.30 (0.10)**		-0.05 (0.04)
Governorate/Region				
Lower urban		-0.14 (0.12)		-0.31 (0.05)***
Lower rural		-0.29 (0.11)**		-0.30 (0.05)***
Upper urban		-0.31 (0.11)**		-0.14 (0.05)**
Upper rural		-0.34 (0.11)**		-0.08 (0.05)
Frontier		-0.15 (0.13)		-0.12 (0.07)†
R-sq	0.013	0.14	0.0014	0.04

Model	High Knowledge & Gender, Unadjusted	High Knowledge & Gender, Adjusted	High Tolerance& Gender, Unadjusted	High Tolerance & Gender, Adjusted
	β (SE)	β (SE)	β (SE)	β (SE)
Gender (ref=men)	-0.11 (0.01)***	-0.11 (0.01)***	-0.02 (0.009)	-0.009 (0.01)
Religion				
(ref=Muslim)		-0.007 (0.03)		-0.02 (0.02)
Age (ref=15-19)				
20-29		0.09 (0.02)***		0.02 (0.01)
30-39		0.13 (0.02)***		0.05 (0.02)**
40-49		0.14 (0.02)***		0.05 (0.02)*
50-59		0.11 (0.03)***		0.04 (0.02)†
Marital Status (ref=Never)				
Married		0.02 (0.02)		-0.03 (0.01)*
Ever Married		0.02 (0.03)		-0.006 (0.03)
Education (ref=no education)				
Primary		0.04 (0.02)*		0.03 (0.01)*
Preparatory		0.13 (0.02)***		0.03 (0.02))*
Secondary		0.16 (0.02)***		0.07 (0.01)***
Post Secondary		0.25 (0.02)***		0.12 (0.02)***
Wealth(ref=poorest)				
Poorer		0.01 (0.02)		0.01 (0.01)
Middle		0.01 (0.02)		0.01 (0.02)
Richer		-0.00 (0.02)		-0.01 (0.02)
Richest		0.07 (0.02)**		0.02 (0.02)
Radio (ref=never)				
< 1x/wk		0.04 (0.02)*		-0.03 (0.01)†
>1x/wk		0.06 (0.02)***		-0.05 (0.01)*
Almost every		0.09 (0.01)***		0.002 (0.01)
TV (ref= <everyday)< th=""><th></th><th></th><th></th><th></th></everyday)<>				
Almost everyday		0.07 (0.02)*		-0.02 (0.02)
Governorate/Region				
Lower urban		-0.06 (0.02)*		-0.05 (0.02)**
Lower rural		-0.10 (0.02)***		-0.05 (0.02)**
Upper urban		-0.11 (0.02)***		-0.02 (0.02)
Upper rural		-0.11 (0.02)**		0.03 (0.02)
Frontier		-0.09 (0.03)**		-0.04 (0.02)†
	\dagger p \leq 0.10, * p \leq	$0.05, ** p \le 0.01, ***$	r p ≤ .001	

Multivariate Linear Regression of Covariates with Respect to Knowledge & Attitudes Toward PLWHA

Gender was considered the primary variable of interest, and the findings consistently showed less knowledge among women than men ($\beta = -0.46$, p < 0.0001) when using the summative scale of knowledge as an outcome. When modeling knowledge solely as affected by gender, bivariate analysis demonstrated a robustly significant association, which persisted even when controlling for religion, education, age, wealth, marital status, media exposure and region of residence. Gender remained a highly significant predictor of knowledge and attitudes in all bivariate analysis (p < 10.001), in both reduced and full models (i.e., models that included all variables). Religion was not a significant predictor at any level, while education was a significant predictor at every level (Table 3A). Linear responses were observed in both education and wealth quintiles; using no education and poorest quintile as reference groups, there were larger differences in knowledge when compared to highest education and richest quintile than when compared to poorer quintiles and primary education as the highest educational level attended. Specifically, those with secondary education had 4.4 times the odds of higher knowledge than those with no education ($\beta = 1.49$, p < 0.0001). Marital status had mixed results falling from significance in the presence of other covariates while media exposure (mostly) continued to maintain significance in bivariate, reduced and full models (Table 3A). However, it should be noted that the full model explained only 14% of the variance seen in the data, implying that there are indicators that are not being explained by the covariates included in the present dataset (Table 3).

Conversely, women showed higher levels of tolerance toward PLWHA than their male counterparts. Women were consistently more tolerant of PLWHA throughout all bivariate analyses, reduced and full models (p=0.05). Religion again was not a significant predictor and did not affect tolerance with respect to gender. Age and marital status significance changed with addition of different covariates in the model. Surprisingly, covariates of wealth and access to television were not significant predictors in bivariate, reduced or full models (Table 3B). Region of residence and education followed similar patterns as those observed in the scale of knowledge; an increase in education was positively associated with an increase in tolerance. Again, the covariates used were limited and the model was limited in accounting for a majority of the variance observed in the data ($R^2=0.04$). These results indicate that further research is needed to account for the differences of knowledge and attitudes seen among the Egyptian population.

DISCUSSION

Accurate knowledge and pervasive prevention programs are the most effective interventions in stemming the global HIV epidemic. Experience from other countries has shown that appropriate awareness, targeted prevention and adequate access to care have been pivotal in overall success against the manifestation of infection. Inadequate knowledge of prevention and transmission routes proves to be substantial challenges in addressing the HIV epidemic in Egypt. Overall, male participants had higher levels of education, although there were more women in the two highest wealth quintiles. Large proportions of all participants reported having access to and regularly engaging in

television watching and radio listening. Even with greater and more regular media exposure, women still have lower knowledge about HIV/AIDS.

Consistent with previous findings, men showed significantly higher levels of knowledge about HIV/AIDS than their female counterparts, except for routes of transmission from mother to child and knowing of places to be tested. This difference most likely reflects efficacy of NAP programs targeted at antenatal and family planning clinics. Overall knowledge of HIV transmission routes is low and nearly one third of respondents thought people can become infected with HIV (AIDS) by mosquito bites and sharing food with a person who has AIDS. Most strikingly, the majority of respondents who had heard of HIV/AIDS did not know that reducing chance of infection could be achieved through abstaining from sexual intercourse and by using a condom. This is reflective of the lack of sexual education in schools and the discouragement of social conversations about sexual practices. Other than behavioural risk factors, education is paramount to reducing HIV infection rates. It is unclear how knowledge is relatively low, while MARP and confirmed cases of HIV have been identified in Egypt.

As expected, high stigma is associated with PLWHA. Nearly all participants (89.3%) believed a teacher infected with HIV should no longer be allowed to teach, although the reason why was neither asked nor recorded, which may also be indicative of social stigma infiltrating basic research methods. High proportions of participants also refused a willingness to buy fresh vegetables (84.8%) from an HIV-infected vendor, and 79.4% of participants were not willing to take care of a family member infected with HIV. This latter finding is particularly surprising, given that Egypt is a relatively collectivistic nation. It may be that fewer women are willing to buy fresh vegetables from

HIV-infected vendors because women are socially responsible for domestic responsibilities (including preparation of food), and therefore are relatively wearier of changes in vendors and in food buying practices. It is interesting that the majority of respondents did not want a family member's status to remain secret (63.9%). This is particularly surprising given that HIV/AIDS is highly stigmatized, and stigma by association has been reported in other Arab countries. Although, this question does not illustrate what other alternatives the respondents would have reported; this remains open for future investigation. Finally, the large majority (82.2%) of participants had low tolerance (summative score 0-1) while only 1.0% of the sample had high tolerance (score of 4).

Findings regarding differences in attitudes revealed that females had significantly higher levels of tolerance, controlling for all demographic indicators. However, overall tolerance for both men and women was less than 1 on a scale of 0 to 4. A lower proportion of men may have been less tolerant to a female teacher infected with HIV to continue teaching in school due to increased exposure to knowledge about HIV or as a result of being less responsible for educational responsibilities of children. Similarly, a higher proportion of women may have been more willing to take care of an HIV-infected family member as a reflection of genuine increase in tolerance, lack of knowledge about HIV transmission, or social expectations of women's nurturing roles in Egyptian culture. Differences in knowledge by sex were extremely robust even when controlling for education, wealth quintile and media exposure. These results indicate that these sociodeomographic indicators do not account for the differential gap in knowledge between men and women. This gap could be due to fundamentally different socialization;

specifically, gendered differences shaping social experiences, which may prevent women from accessing as much accurate information about HIV/AIDS as men, except in the realm of mother to child transmission. As a result, we posit that gender inequities in areas other than education, wealth, and religion, such as the kinship relationships among Egyptian women, gender driven social norms with respect to sexuality, safe sex negotiation and autonomy may be responsible for these differences.

These findings are consistent with gender constructs and social norms in the Arab region; women often carry the responsibility of caretaking and domestic duties, such as buying vegetables and caring for sick relatives. The higher tolerance in the attitude indices reflects a duty to care for issues concerning the home and sickness, as well as reinforce the family or communal unit by keeping secret information, which could harm the honour of the family. It could be due to the socialization of women to bear domestic responsibilities and This is particularly important, as previous studies have found that caretakers of women and minorities living with HIV have experienced stigma in the form of stereotypes and blame directed toward the caretakers as well as feelings of unworthiness or inability to effectively be a parent by one's community (Sayles, Hays et al. 2008). Furthermore, cultural norms and high stigma may pressure PLWHA to conceal their status, avoid counseling and treatment, and hinder them from seeking help from family members, because caring for persons perceived to be socially deviant may be interpreted as approval and therefore result in negative perceptions of both the infected individual as well as the person caring for them (Institute of National Planning 2008).

PUBLIC HEALTH IMPLICATIONS

Knowledge and behavioural risk reduction are the most effective tools we have in the battle against the HIV epidemic. Understanding complex social norms and gender roles within conservative Arab countries such as Egypt are inherently critical to identifying, appropriately addressing and further preventing future morbidity and mortality associated with HIV/AIDS (Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009). Although Egypt is considered to have a relatively low prevalence, there is evidence to support a concentrated epidemic that has been growing. Epidemiologic profiles of HIV epidemics in other countries show positive associations with high-risk behaviour, lack of accurate knowledge and fear of stigma associated with social identification of status or high-risk groups. The potential for an increase in HIV incidence in Egypt is mitigated by high-risk behavior (thus far identified among MARPs), lack of accurate knowledge and pervasive stigma against PLWHA, necessitating an increase in surveillance with targeted prevention and treatment interventions to better address the sensitive situation in Egypt (2008-2009; Shawky, Soliman et al. 2009).

Accurately addressing stigma associated with HIV/AIDS is particularly important for Egypt. In order to adequately address the sociocognitive construct of stigma, it is necessary to understand the intersection of social, cultural, religious and familial scaffolds that form the foundation of Egyptian life. Previous studies have found that the stigma-related constructs of shame, stereotypes, disclosure concerns and fear about social relationships are more robust when minorities, women and individuals with low education are well represented. Sayles, Hays and colleagues also found a negative association with perceived stigma and self-acceptance, social support and mental health

(Sayles, Hays et al. 2008). Therefore, development of sensitive and standardized measures of stigma is critical for the appropriate development of effective prevention and treatment techniques. Effectively reducing the HIV epidemic is especially important in the context of Egypt, where clear gender gaps in knowledge and tolerance are compounded by sociodemographic inequity. Also, creative incorporation of HIV/AIDS information in culturally appropriate popular media has shown some success in reducing stigma and increasing knowledge (Mahajan, Sayles et al. 2008).

In their recommendations for effectively addressing the HIV epidemic, Mahajan and colleagues (2008) encourage refinement of the multifaceted definition of HIV/AIDS-related stigma, improved measures of assessing stigma in order to appropriately evaluate interventions and programme impact, creative community-based interventions to address inequities in social order, reforming legislature that exacerbates the pre-existing stigma, stereotypes and consequences associated with MARP, and comprehensive assessments of potential determinants of stigma among individuals, communities, social structures and institutions over time. Mahajan, Sayles and colleagues posit that these recommendations are particularly imperative in settings where less than 15% of the population has been tested for HIV, as HIV testing and education are the levers of prevention and treatment while better understanding of stigma as well as the reduction in stereotyping can mitigate the negative effects of stigma, especially toward MARP.

While accurate knowledge and tolerance of PLWHA remains low, Egypt has improved their surveillance and intervention efforts. Since 1986, the NAP has collaborated with international partners, local NGOs and civil organizations to address the HIV/AIDS situation in Egypt, focusing largely on MARP (2008-2009). While gains

in surveillance techniques and efforts to aggregate case data efficiently have been combined with focus on MARP and decreasing stigma associated with infection, much remains to be done in order to advance public health interventions. Finally, while Egyptian conservative culture has helped hinder the HIV epidemic from further progress, high-risk groups do exist and high-risk behaviours need to be addressed, as there are clear bridges to the general population.

Acknowledgements

My sincerest gratitude to Professor Patrick Kilgo for his endless and invaluable statistical support, analyses design and feedback throughout the project. Also, I am indebted to Dr. Elena Rykhlevskaia and Dr. Carmel Saad for their efforts throughout the data analyses phases, thesis composition, and editing as well as critical scientific discussion. Thank you.

REFERENCES

- . "WHO HIV Country Profile." Retrieved May 2011, from http://www.unaids.org/en/Regionscountries/Countries/Egypt.
- (2008-2009). UNGASS Country Progress Report. Arab Republic of Egypt, National AIDS Program, Egypt.
- Badahdah, A. M. and C. E. Foote (2010). "Role of shame in the stigmatization of people with human immunodeficiency virus: a survey of female college students in 3 Arab countries." East Mediterr Health J 16(9): 982-987.
- Bio-BBS (2010). HIV/AIDS Biological & Behavioral Surveillance Survey Summary Report. A. R. o. E. N. A. Program, USAID, Family Health International.
- Boutros, S. and J. Skordis (2010). "HIV/AIDS surveillance in Egypt: current status and future challenges." <u>East Mediterr Health J</u> **16**(3): 251-258.
- Egypt, F. M. (2010). HIV/AIDS Biological & Behavioral Surveillance Survey Summary Report. A. R. o. E. N. A. Program, USAID, Family Health International.
- El-Sayyed, N., I. A. Kabbash, et al. (2008). "Risk behaviours for HIV/AIDS infection among men who have sex with men in Cairo, Egypt." <u>East Mediterr Health J</u> **14**(4): 905-915.
- El Awady, M. K., H. M. Azzazy, et al. (2009). "Positional effect of mutations in 5'UTR of hepatitis C virus 4a on patients' response to therapy." World J Gastroenterol **15**(12): 1480-1486.
- Ganczak, M. (2010). "The impact of premarital HIV testing: a perspective from selected countries from the Arabian Peninsula." <u>AIDS Care</u> **22**(11): 1428-1433.
- Institue of National Planning, E. (2008). The Millennium Development Report: A Midpoint Assessment, National Human Development Report Project.
- Khan, M. S., M. Unemo, et al. (2009). "Knowledge, attitudes and practices regarding human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome and sexually transmitted infections among health care providers in Lahore, Pakistan." J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad 21(4): 1-6.
- Mahajan, A. P., J. N. Sayles, et al. (2008). "Stigma in the HIV/AIDS epidemic: a review of the literature and recommendations for the way forward." <u>AIDS</u> **22 Suppl 2**: S67-79.
- Nada, K. H. and D. A. Suliman el (2010). "Violence, abuse, alcohol and drug use, and sexual behaviors in street children of Greater Cairo and Alexandria, Egypt." <u>AIDS</u> **24 Suppl 2**: S39-44.
- NAP (2008-2009). UNGASS Country Progress Report. Arab Republic of Egypt, National AIDS Program, Egypt.
- Sayles, J. N., R. D. Hays, et al. (2008). "Development and psychometric assessment of a multidimensional measure of internalized HIV stigma in a sample of HIV-positive adults." <u>AIDS Behav</u> **12**(5): 748-758.
- Shawky, S., C. Soliman, et al. (2009). "HIV surveillance and epidemic profile in the Middle East and North Africa." J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 51 Suppl 3: S83-95.
- Shawky, S., C. Soliman, et al. (2009). "Gender and HIV in the Middle East and North Africa: lessons for low prevalence scenarios." J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr **51 Suppl 3**: S73-74.

(Khan, Unemo et al. 2009)

Appendices

Appendix A: EDHS Health Questionnaire

ARAB REPUBLIC OF EGYPT
MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND POPULATION
EL- ZANATY & ASSOCIATES

EGYPT DEMOGRAPHIC AND HEALTH SURVEY 2008

HEALTH ISSUES QUESTIONNAIRE

DATA COLLECTED FROM THIS STUDY IS CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL BE USED FOR SCIENTIFIC PURPOSES ONLY.

HEALTH ISSUES QUESTIONNAIRE

		IDENTIFICATION		
KISM/MARKAZ SHIAKHA/VILLAGE HOUSEHOLD NUMBER URBAN	SMALL CITY HEAD IT	HOUSING UNIT NO 1 RURAL	2	PSU/SEGMENT NO. HOUSEHOLD NO. URBAN/RURAL LOCALITY LINE NUMBER
		INTERVIEWER VISITS	i	
	1	2	3	FINAL VISIT
DATE TEAM INTERVIEWER SUPERVISOR RESULT NEXT VISIT: DATE TIME RESULT CODES:	LETED 4 RE	FIRED		DAY MONTH YEAR 0 0 8 TEAM
	LETED 4 RE T HOME 5 PA PONED 6 INC	FUSED RTLY COMPLETED CAPACITATED	7 OTHER	(SPECIFY)
NAME	/ 2008	OFFICE EDITOR	/ / 20	08 / / 2008

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP TO
107	Before taking your blood pressure , I would to ask a few questions about things that may affect these measurements. Have you done any of the following within the past 30 minutes:	YES NO	
	Eaten anything?	EATEN 1 2	
	Had coffee, tea, cola or other drink that has caffeine?	HAD CAFFEINATED DRINK 1 2	
	Smoked any tobacco product?	SMOKED 1 2	
108A	May I begin the process of measuring your blood pressure?		
	BEFORE TAKING THE FIRST BLOOD PRESSURE READING, MEASURE THE CIRCUMFERENCE OF THE RESPONDENT'S ARM MIDWAY BETWEEN THE ELBOW AND THE SHOULDER. RECORD THE MEASUREMENT IN CENTIMETERS.	ARM CIRCUMFERENCE (IN CENTIMETERS)	
108B	USE THE ARM CIRCUMFERENCE MEASUREMENT TO SELECT THE APPROPRIATE BLOOD PRESSURE MONITOR MODEL AND CUFF SIZE. CIRCLE THE CODE FOR THE MODEL AND CUFF SIZE.	MODEL 767 SMALL: 16 CM - 23 CM 1 MEDIUM: 24 CM - 35 CM 2 LARGE: 36 CM - 41 CM 3 MODEL 789 EXTRA LARGE: 42 CM - 60 CM 4	
108C	TAKE THE FIRST BLOOD PRESSURE READING.	BLOOD PRESSURE MEASURED	
	RECORD THE SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC PRESSURE. THEN PROCEED TO Q109.	SYSTOLIC 1	
	IF YOU ARE UNABLE TO MEASURE THE RESPONDENT'S BLOOD PRESSURE, RECORD THE REASON IN Q108D.	DIASTOLIC 2	
108D	RECORD REASON BLOOD PRESSURE NOT MEASURED.	REASON BLOOD PRESSURE NOT MEASURED 9994	
109	CHECK Q012 IN HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE		
	NOT ELIGIBLE FOR EVE	IGIBLE FOR RAMARRIED INTERVIEW	→ 301
110	In what month and year were you born?	MONTH	•
		DON'T KNOW YEAR 9998	
111	How old were you at your last birthday?		
	COMPARE AND CORRECT 110 AND/OR 111 IF INCONSISTENT.	AGE IN COMPLETED YEARS	
112	What is your current marital status?	MARRIED 1 WIDOWED 2 DIVORCED 3 SEPARATED 4 SIGNED CONTRACT 5 NEVER MARRIED 6	

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP TO
113	Have you ever attended school?	YES 1 NO 2	→ 117
114	What is the highest level of school you attended?	PRIMARY	
115	What is the highest grade you successfully completed at that level?	GRADE	
116		PARATORY OR HIGHER	→ 118
117	Can you read a newspaper or a letter easily, with difficulty or not at all?	EASILY 1 WITH DIFFICULTY 2 NOT AT ALL 3	→ 119
118	Do you read a newspaper or magazine almost every day, at least once a week, less than once a week or not at all?	ALMOST EVERY DAY 1 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK 2 LESS THAN ONCE A WEEK 3 NOT AT ALL 4	
119	Do you listen to the radio aimost every day, at least once a week, less than once a week or not at all?	ALMOST EVERY DAY 1 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK 2 LESS THAN ONCE A WEEK 3 NOT AT ALL 4	
120	Do you watch television almost every day, at least once a week, less than once a week or not at all?	ALMOST EVERY DAY 1 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK 2 LESS THAN ONCE A WEEK 3 NOT AT ALL 4	
121	Have you done any work in the last seven days even if it was only for a short period of time?	YES 1 NO 2	→ 123
122	Although you did not work in the last seven days, do you have any job or business from which you were absent for leave, illness, vacation, or any other such reason?	YES	→ 125
123	What is your occupation, that is, what kind of work do you mainly do?	(RECORD ANSWER IN DETAIL)	
124	Are you paid in cash or kind for this work or are you not paid at ail?	CASH ONLY 1 CASH AND KIND 2 IN KIND ONLY 3 NOT PAID 4	
125	What is your religion?	MUSLEM 1 CHRISTIAN 2 OTHER 6 (SPECIFY)	

SECTION 2 FEMALE CIRCUMCISION

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIPTO
201	RESPONDENT'S GENDER: FEMALE	MALE	→ 206
202	INTERVIEWER: CHECK FOR THE PRESENCE OF OTHERS. BE EFFORT TO ENSURE PRIVACY. DO NOT READ THE FOLLOW!		
203	Now I would like to talk about the practice of female circumcision. Have you yourself been circumcised?	YES	→ 206
204	How old were you when you were circumcised?	AGE IN COMPLETED YEARS DON'T KNOW	
205	Who performed the circumcision?	DOCTOR	
206	Now I would like to ask some (other) questions about female circumcision. During the past year have you discussed female circumcision with your relatives, friends, or neighbors?	YES	
207	During the past year have you heard, seen or received any information about female circumcision?	YES 1 NO 2 UNSURE 8	1,209
208	Where did you hear or see that information? PROBE: Anywhere else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED	TELEVISION A RADIO B NEWSPAPER/MAGAZIN C PAMPHLET/BROCHURE D POSTER E COMMUNITY MEETING F HOME VISIT BY HEALTH WORKER G FACILITY-BASED HEALTH WORKER H HUSBAND/WIFE I OTHER RELATIVE/FRIENDS/ NEIGHBORS J OTHER X (SPECIFY)	
209	Do you believe that female circumcision is required by religious precepts?	YES	
210	Do you think that the practice of female circumcision should be continued or should it be stopped?	CONTINUED 1 STOPPED 2 DON'T KNOW 8	
211	Do you think that women want this practice to be continued or to be stopped?	CONTINUED 1 STOPPED 2 DON'T KNOW 8	

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP TO
212	I will read you some statements about female circumcision. Please tell me if you agree or disagree.	DIS- DON'T AGREE AGREE KNOW	1
	A husband will prefer his wife to be circumcised.	HUSBAND PREFER 1 2 8	
	Circumcision prevents adultery.	PREVENTS ADULTERY 1 2 8	
	Childbirth is more difficult for a woman who has been circumcised.	CHILDBIRTH IS MORE DIFFICULT 1 2 8	
	Circumcision can cause severe consequences that can lead to a girl's death.	MAY LEAD TO GIRL'S DEATH 1 2 8	<u> </u>

	SECTION 3. HEALTH INSURANCE A	ND HEALTH CARE COSTS	
NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP TO
301	Have you been III at any time during the last four weeks?	YES	
302	Do you have health insurance?	YES 1 NO 2	→ 310
303	What type of health insurance do you have? Any other insurance? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH EMPLOYER A HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH EMPLOYER OF ANOTHER FAMILY MEMBER B HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH THE GENERAL AGENCY OF HEALTH INSURANCE C HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH ANY OF THE SYNDICATES D HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH ANY UNIVERSITY E OTHER X	
304		NLY ONE TYPE OF INSURANCE	→ 306
305	Among the insurance plans you mentioned, which one do you consider to be your primary insurance? PROBE: Which of the insurances you mentioned do you use most often?	HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH EMPLOYER 1 HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH EMPLOYER OF ANOTHER FAMILY MEMBER 2 HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH THE GENERAL AGENCY OF HEALTH INSURANCE 11ROUGH ANY OF THE SYNDICATES 4 HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH ANY UNIVERSITY 5 OTHER 6	
306	Do you pay for this insurance on a monthly or yearly basis?	MONTHLY	→ 309
307	In total, how much is spent monthly (ANNUALLY/OTHER INTERVAL SPECIFIED IN Q306) for this insurance?	COST IN POUNDS 9998	
308	Does the amount you pay for insurance cover only the costs for insuring yourself or does it also cover the costs of insuring other persons?	COVERS ONLY RESPONDENT 1 COVERS RESPONDENT AND OTHER PERSONS 2 DON'T KNOW 8	→ 310
309	In total, including yourself how many persons are covered by this insurance?	NUMBER OF PERSONS DON'T KNOW	

310	In the past 4 weeks, have you visited a health provider for a medical consultation, either because you were III or for preventative care? IF YES: How many times did you visit any health provider for a medical consultation in the past four weeks? Where did your last medical consultation with a health provider take place? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE CODE.	NUMBER OF VISITS
311	medical consultation in the past four weeks? Where did your last medical consultation with a health provider take place? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE	DONT KNOW
311	Where did your last medical consultation with a health provider take place? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE	MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND POPULATION URBAN HOSP'L (GENERAL/DISTRICT) 1 URBAN HEALTH UNIT. 2 HEALTH OFFICE 3 RURAL HOSP'L (COMPLEMENTARY 4 RURAL HEALTH UNIT. 5 MCH CENTER 6 MOBILE UNIT 7 OTHER GOVERNMENTAL
311	provider take place? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE	URBAN HOSP'L (GENERAL/DISTRICT) 1 URBAN HEALTH UNIT
		TEACHING HOSPITAL 9 HEALTH INSURANCE ORG A CURATIVE CARE ORGANIZATION B OTHER GOVERNMENTAL C
	(NAME AND ADDRESS OF PLACE)	OTHER GOVERNMENTAL C NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION EGYPT FAMILY PLANNING ASSOC D CSI PROJECT E OTHER NON-GOVERNMENTAL F PRIVATE MEDICAL PRIVATE HOSPITAL/ CLINIC G PRIVATE DOCTOR H PHARMACY I OTHER PRIVATE MOSQUE HEALTH UNIT J CHURCH HEALTH UNIT K OTHER NON-MEDICAL OTHER VENDOR (SHOP, KIOSK, ETC.,) L FRIENDIRELATIVE M OTHER X (SPECIFY) DON'T KNOW Z
312	How much did you pay in total for your last consultation at (FACILITY IN Q311) including, for example, drugs, x-rays, or laboratory services?	COST IN POUNDS
313	Did you incur additional expense for drugs at a separate pharmacy/clinicidrug shop (outside the facility) as a result of this medical consultation?	YES
314	How much in total did you pay for the additional drugs?	COST IN POUNDS DON'T KNOW 9998
315	Did you incur additional expense for lab tests conducted at a laboratory other than one at the provider you visited?	YES
316	How much in total did you pay for the additional lab tests?	COST IN POUNDS DON'T KNOW 9998

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP TO
317	In the past 12 months, were you ever admitted to a hospital or health facility for at least one night?	YES	→ 401
318	In total, how many nights did you stay in a hospital or health facility in the past 12 months?	NUMBER OF NIGHTS 98	
319	Did you spend any of these nights in the hospital or health facility during the last four weeks?	YES 1 NO 2	→ 321
320	In total, how many nights did you stay in a hospital or health facility in the past four weeks?	NUMBER OF NIGHTS 98	
321	Now I would like to ask a few questions about the last time you stayed in a hospital or health facility during the past 12 months. The last time you were admitted to a hospital/health facility for at least one night, where were you admitted? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE CODE. (NAME AND ADDRESS OF PLACE)	MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND POPULATION URBAN HOSP'L (GENERAL/DISTRICT) 1 URBAN HEALTH UNIT. 2 HEALTH OFFICE 3 RURAL HOSP'L (COMPLEMENTARY . 4 RURAL HEALTH UNIT. 5 MCH CENTER 6 OTHER GOVERNMENTAL 8 TEACHING HOSPITAL 8 TEACHING HOSPITAL 8 CURATIVE CARE ORGANIZATION B OTHER GOVERNMENTAL C PRIVATE HOSPITAL C PRIVATE HOSPITAL G OTHER GOVERNMENTAL C PRIVATE HOSPITAL G OTHER PRIVATE MEDICAL PRIVATE HOSPITAL/ CLINIC G OTHER PRIVATE MOSQUE HEALTH UNIT K OTHER (SPECIFY)	
322	In total, how many nights did you stay in (FACILITY IN 321) facility the last time?	NUMBER OF NIGHTS 98	
323	How much did you pay for your last stay at (FACILITY IN 321) including all charges for consultations, room and board, drugs, and supplies?	COST IN POUNDS	

SECTION 4. KNOWLEDGE OF HIV/AIDS NO. SKIP TO QUESTIONS AND FILTERS CODING CATEGORIES INTERVIEWER: CHECK FOR THE PRESENCE OF OTHERS. BEFORE CONTINUING, MAKE EVERY EFFORT TO ENSURE PRIVACY. DO NOT READ THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IF THERE IS NO PRIVACY 401 Now I would like to talk about something else. YES 1 Have you ever heard of an Illness called AIDS? NO 2 **→** 501 402 Can people reduce their chances of getting the AIDS virus YES 1 by having just one sex partner who is not infected and who has no other partners? 403 Can people get the AIDS virus from mosquito bites? 404 Can people reduce their chances of getting the AIDS virus by using a condom every time they have sex? NO . DON'T KNOW 8 Can people get the AIDS virus by sharing food with a person who 405 YES 1 has AIDS? Can people reduce their chance of getting the AIDS virus by 406 abstaining from sexual intercourse? DON'T KNOW 8 407 Can the HIV virus be transmitted from a mother to her baby: YES NO DK PREGNANCY 1 2 During pregnancy? 8 During delivery? DELIVERY 2 8 By breastfeeding? BREASTFEEDING ... 1 2 is there anything else a person can do to avoid or reduce the 408 YES 1 chances of getting the AIDS virus? **→** 410 DON'T KNOW 8 409 What can a person do? ABSTAINING FROM SEXUAL INTERCOURSE A USE CONDOMS . PROBE-LIMIT SEX TO ONE PARTNER/STAY FAITHFUL TO ONE PARTNER ... C Anything else? LIMIT NUMBER OF SEXUAL PARTNERS . . AVOID SEX WITH PROSTITUTES ... E RECORD ALL WAYS MENTIONED. AVOID SEX WITH PERSONS WHO HAVE MANY PARTNERS AVOID SEX WITH HOMOSEXUALS . G AVOID SEX WITH PERSONS WHO INJECT DRUGS AVOID BLOOD TRANSFUSIONS.... AVOID INJECTIONS AVOID SHARING RAZORS/BLADES . K AVOID KISSING ...

AVOID MOSQUITO BITES M

TRADITIONAL PRACTITIONER ... N

(SPECIFY) DON'T KNOW Z

SEEK PROTECTION FROM

OTHER

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIPTO
410	Is it possible for a healthy-looking person to have the AIDS virus?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	
411	Do you know of a place where people can go to get tested for the virus that causes AIDS?	YES	→ 413
412	Where is that? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE CODE. PROBE: Any other place?	GOVERNMENT GOVERNMENT HOSPITAL A GOVT. HEALTH UNIT B VCT CENTER	
	RECORD ALL SOURCES MENTIONED. (NAME AND ADDRESS OF PLACE)	(SPECIFY) PRIVATE MEDICAL PRIVATE HOSPITAL/CLINIC/ PRIVATE DOCTOR H PHARMACY I OTHER PRIVATE MEDICAL (SPECIFY) OTHER NON-MEDICAL X (SPECIFY)	
413	Would you buy fresh vegetables from a shopkeeper or vendor if you knew that this person had the AIDS virus?	YES	
414	If a member of your family became sick with the virus, that causes AIDS would you want it to remain a secret or not?	YES, REMAIN A SECRET 1 NO 2 DK/NOT SURE/DEPENDS 8	
415	If a relative of yours became slok with the virus that causes AIDS, would you be willing to care for her or him in your own household?	YES	
416	In your opinion, if a female teacher has the AIDS virus but is not sick, should she be allowed to continue teaching in the school?	SHOULD BE ALLOWED 1 SHOULD NOT BE ALLOWED 2 DK/NOT SURE/DEPENDS 8	
417	In the last 6 months have you heard, seen, or received any information about HIV/AIDS?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	1,501
418	Where did you hear or see that information? PROBE: Anywhere else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	TELEVISION	

SECTION 5. HEALTH CARE PROCEDURES AND SAFE INJECTIONS

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
501	Now I would like to ask about some health care procedures which you may have had. At any time in your life, have you ever had:	YES NO DK	
	Surgery?	SURGERY 1 2 8	
	A blood transfusion?	BLOOD TRANSFUSION 1 2 8	
	Dental treatment of any type (e.g., extraction, treatment for gum disease, filling)?	DENTAL TREATMENT 1 2 8	
502	At anytime in your life, have you received an injection:	YES NO DK	
	To treat for schistosomiasis (bilharziasis)?	SCHISTOSOMIASIS 1 2 8	
	For any other purpose?	OTHER PURPOSE 1 2 8	
503	CHECK 502:		
	EVER HAD INJECTION NEVER HAD	INJECTION .	→ 509
504	On any of the occasions in which you received an injection, was the same needle and syringe used to give an injection to someone else?	YES	
505	Now I would like to ask you some questions about any injections you have had in the last six months. Have you had an injection for any reason in the last six months (including family planning or tetanus injections)? IF YES: How many injections have you had? IF NUMBER OF INJECTIONS IS GREATER THAN 95, OR DAILY FOR 3 MONTHS OR MORE, RECORD '95'.	NUMBER OF INJECTIONS	> 509
	IF NON-NUMERIC ANSWER, PROBE TO GET AN ESTIMATE.		
506	Among these injections, how many were administered by a doctor, a nurse, a pharmacist or a dentist, or any other health worker?	NUMBER OF INJECTIONS	
	IF NUMBER OF INJECTIONS IS GREATER THAN 95, OR DAILY FOR 3 MONTHS OR MORE, RECORD '95'.	NONE00	→ 509
	IF NON-NUMERIC ANSWER, PROBE TO GET AN ESTIMATE.		
507	The last time you had an injection given to you by a health worker, where did you get the injection? IF SOURCE IS HOSPITAL, HEALTH UNIT, OR CLINIC, WRITE THE NAME AND THE ADDRESS OF THE PLACE. PROBE TO IDENTIFY THE TYPE OF SOURCE AND CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE CODE. (NAME AND ADDRESS OF PLACE)	HOME YOUR HOME 1 OTHER HOME 1 URBAN HOSP'L (GEN'L'DISTRICT) 3 URBAN HEALTH UNIT 4 HEALTH OFFICE 5 RURAL HOSPITAL (COMPL'TARY) 6 RURAL HEALTH UNIT 7 MCH CENTER 8 MOBILE UNIT 9 OTHER GOVERNMENTAL UNIVERSITY HOSPITAL A TEACHING HOSPITAL B HEALTH INSURANCE ORG, C CURATIVE CARE ORGANIZATION D OTHER GOVERNMENTAL E NON-GOVERNMENTAL E NON-GOVERNMENTAL F ORGANIZATIONS EGYPTIAN FP ASSOC F CSI PROJIECT G OTHER NON-GOVERNMENTAL H PRIVATE MEDICAL PRIV	

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS		CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
508	The last time you had an injection from a health worker did the person who gave you that injection take the syringe and needle from a new, unopened package?		YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	
509	In the last 6 months have you heard, seen, or received any information about what people should do to be sure that injections are given safely?		YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	1,511
510	Where did you hear or see that information? PROBE: Anywhere else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.		TELEVISION	
511	RECORD THE TIME.		HOUR	
512	CHECK 106: AGREED TO MEASUREMENT	DID NOT AGREE TO	MEASUREMENT .	→ 601
513	May I measure your blood pressure INTERVIEWER SIGNATURE RESPONDENT AGREES RECORD OUTCOME OF BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENT.	RESPONDENT DOES NOT AGREES RECORD 9994.	BLOOD PRESSURE MEASURED SYSTOLIC	

	SECTION 6. HEPATITI	is c	
NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
601	Now I would like to talk about something else. Have you ever heard the illness hepatitis C?	YES	→ 610
602	In the last 6 months have you heard, seen, or received any information about hepatitis C?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	1,604
603	Where did you hear or see that Information? PROBE: Any other source? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	TELEVISION	
604	How is hepatitis C spread from one person to another? Please mention at least four ways that you know. RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	HETEROSEXUAL SEX A HOMOSEXUAL SEX B CONTACT WITH INFECTED PERSON'S BLOOD THROUGH: TRANSFUSION C UNCLEAN NEEDLES D OTHER (E.G., RAZORS) E CASUAL PHYSICAL CONTACT(S) (E.G., SHAKING HANDS, SHARING FOOD OR DRINK, ETC.) F MOTHER-TO-CHILD TRANSMISSION. G MOSQUITO/OTHER INSECT BITE H OTHER X (SPECIFY) DON'T KNOW Z	
605	Were you ever told by a doctor or other health professional that you had a positive hepatitis C test?	YES	→ 607
606	Have you ever been tested to see if you had the hepatitis C virus?	YES	610
607	How old were you when you were first told that you had a positive hepatitis C test?	AGE IN COMPLETED YEARS	
608	Were you ever given or did you ever take anything to treat the hepatitis C?	YES	→ 610
609	What treatment were you given? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	INTERFERON	
610	Have you ever had either of the following:	YES NO DK	
	Jaundice, that is, a yellowing of the skin or eyes? Change in urine color, that is, dark urine?	JAUNDICE	
610A	CHECK 610:		
	YES RECORDED IN Q610 FOR NO OR DON'T KNOW NO OR DON'T KNOW BOTH JAUNDICE	W RECORDED FOR E AND DARK URINE	→ 612

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
611	Do you know the cause of the jaundice and/or the change in urine color? IF MENTIONS HEPATITIS WITHOUT SPECIFYING TYPE ASK: Do you know the type of hepatitis? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	HEPATITIS A	
612	Have you ever told by a doctor or health professional that you had any (other) kind of liver disease?	YES	→ 616
613	Have you been told by a doctor or health professional that you currently have (any other) liver disease?	YES	
614	How old were you when you were first told you had liver disease?	AGE IN COMPLETED YEARS	
615	Do you know the cause of the liver disease? IF MENTIONS HEPATITIS WITHOUT SPECIFYING TYPE ASK: Do you know the type of hepatitis? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	HEPATITIS A	
616	Does anyone (else) who is living in this household have the liver disease? IF YES: How many other people?	NUMBER OF OTHER HH MEMBERS WITH LIVER DISEASE NO ONE ELSE	→ 701
617	Do you know the cause(s) of the liver disease that this (these) other household member(s) has (have)? IF MENTIONS HEPATITIS WITHOUT SPECIFYING TYPE ASK: Do you know the type of hepatitis? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	HEPATITIS A	

SECTION 7. BLOOD PRESSURE, HEART DISEASE AND DIABETES

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
701	Have you ever been told by a doctor or other health professional that you had hypertension or high blood pressure?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	704
702	Were you told on two or more different occasions by a doctor or other health professional that you had hypertension or high blood pressure?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	
703	To lower your hypertension or high blood pressure, are you now: a. Taking prescribed medicine? b. Controlling your weight or losing weight? c. Cutting down on sait in your diet? d. Exercising? e. Stoppling smoking?	YES NO N/A TAKE MEDICINE 1 2 3 CONTROL WEIGHT 1 2 3 CUT DOWN SALT 1 2 3 EXERCISE 1 2 3 STOP SMOKING 1 2 3	
704	Have you ever heard of an liness called diabetes or high sugar?	YES 1 NO 2	
705	(Other than during pregnancy), has a doctor or other health professional ever told you that you had diabetes?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOWNOT SURE 8	1. 709
706	How old were you when you were <u>first</u> told by a doctor or health professional that you had diabetes?	AGE IN COMPLETED YRS	
707	Are you taking insulin at this time?	YES 1 NO 2	— 709
708	Are you taking pills to lower your blood sugar?	YES	
709	Have you ever been told by a doctor or other health professional that you had had a heart attack or myocardial infarction?	YES 1 NO 2	
710	Have you ever been told by a doctor or other health professional that you had had a stroke?	YES 1 NO 2	

SECTION 8. AVIAN INFLUENZA

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SK	IP
801	Now I would like to talk about something else. Have you ever heard the illness avian influenza?	YES	→	901
802	In the last 6 months have you heard, seen, or received any information about avian influenza?	YES 1 NO 2 DON'T KNOW 8	1,	804
803	Where did you hear or see that information? Anywhere else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	TELEVISION A RADIO B NEWSPAPER/MAGAZINE C PAMPHLET/BROCHURE D POSTER E COMMUNITY MEETING F HOME VISIT BY HEALTH WORKER G FACILITY-BASED HEALTH WORKER H HUSBAND/WIFE I OTHER RELATIVE/FRIENDS/ NEIGHBORS J OTHER X (SPECIFY)		
804	Do you know the symptoms of avian flu virus among poultry/ birds?	YES	_	806
805	What are these symptoms? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	WEAKNESS		
806	Do you know that ducks may have avian influenza but not look III?	YES		
807	Do you know what to do when birds have these signs of disease or die suddenly?	YES	-	809
808	There are several ways to deal with birds that appear to be sick or have died. Can you tell me about any ways that you know about? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	PUT IN SEALED PLASTIC BAG A SUBMERGE IN DISINFECTANT B BURN C BURY D CONTACT VETERINARY AUTHORITIES E NUTRY OTHER AUTHORITIES F WARN OTHER PEOPLE G OTHER X (SPECIFY)		
809	Do you think that it is possible for humans to get avian influenza?	YES	→	811

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
810	Can you tell me about four or more ways that a person can get avian influenza? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	CONTACT WITH SICK POULTRY/ BIRDS A CONTACT WITH FECES FROM SICK POULTRY/BIRDS B CONTACT WITH POULTRY/BIRDS THAT DIED FROM AVIAN FLU C EATING UNDERCOOKED EGGS EATING UNDERCOOKED POULTRY/BIRDS D CONTACT WITH CONTAMINATED WATER E CONTACT WITH PERSON WHO HAS AVIAN INFLUENZA F OTHER X (SPECIFY) DON'T KNOW/NOT SURE Z	
811	There are several ways to reduce the likelihood of the spread of avian influenza. Can you tell me about four or more ways you know? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	WASH HANDS AFTER CONTACT WITH POULTRY/BIRDS	
812	Do you know the symptoms of avian flu virus among humans?	YES	→ 816
813	What are these symptoms? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	FEVER	
814	How soon would you seek medical care if a child had any of these symptoms?	NUMBER OF DAYS	

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
815	How soon would you seek medical care if an adult had any of these symptoms?	NUMBER OF DAYS	
		IMMEDIATELY	
816	Do you think it is possible for humans to die from avian influenza?	YES	
817	Have you been involved in any of the following types of activities in the last month:	YES NO	
	Breeding or handling poultry/birds? Slaughtering poultry/other types of birds?	BREEDING	
818	How do you know that poultry is fully cooked? PROBE: What else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	JUICE RUNS CLEAR A NO VISIBLE PINK MEAT	
819	How do you know that eggs are fully cooked? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	COOK UNTIL YOLK NO LONGER RUNNY	
	From what you have seen or heard about avian influenza, I would like you to give your opinions about the following		
820	For a person who becomes infected, would it be extremely dangerous, somewhat dangerous, not very dangerous or not dangerous at all?	EXTREMELY DANGEROUS	
821	Is it very likely, somewhat likely or not very likely or not likely at all that you or a member of your family might become infected with avian influenza?	EXTREMELY DANGEROUS	
822	Are you extremely confident, somewhat confident, not very confident or not at all confident that the spread of avain influenza can be prevented?	EXTREMELY CONFIDENT 1 SOMEWHAT CONFIDENT 2 NOT VERY CONFIDENT 3 NOT CONFIDENT AT ALL 4 DON'T KNOW 8	
823	Are you extremely confident, somewhat confident, not very confident or not at all confident that you can protect yourself and your family from becoming infected?	EXTREMELY CONFIDENT	

NO.	SECTION 9. SMOKII QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	NG CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
901	Do you currently smoke cigarettes?	YES	→ 903
902	In the last 24 hours, how many cigarettes did you smoke? IF DIDN'T SMOKE DURING THE LAST 24 HOURS RECORD '00'	CIGARETTES	
903	Do you currently smoke or use any other type of tobacco?	YES	→ 905
904	What (other) type of tobacco do you currently smoke or use? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	PIPE A CHEWING TOBACCO B SNUFF C ROLLED CIGARETTES D WATER PIPE E OTHER X (SPECIFY)	
905	Does anyone else in your household currently smoke cigarettes or use any other type of tobacco?	YES,CIGARETTES 1 YES, OTHER TOBACCO 2 YES, BOTH 3 NO 4	
908	In the last 6 months have you heard, seen, or received any information about the health effects of second-hand smoke (that is, exposure to direct smoke from smokers)?	YES	1,908
907	Where did you hear or see that information? Anywhere else? RECORD ALL MENTIONED.	TELEVISION	
908	RECORD THE TIME.	HOUR	
909	CHECK 108 AND 512: AGREED TO BOTH MEASUREMENTS	OTHER	→ 1008
910	May I measure your blood pressure at this time? INTERVIEWER SIGNATURE RESPONDENT AGREES DOES NOT AGREES RECORD OUTCOME OF BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENT.	BLOOD PRESSURE SYSTOLIC 1 DIASTOLIC 2 REASON BLOOD PRESSURE NOT MEASURED REFUSED	

NO.		SECTION 10. AVERAGING BLOOD PRESSURE MEASURES S AND FILTERS CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
1001	CHECK Q512 AND Q808. SYSTOLIC AID DIASTOLIC BLOO PRESSURE RECORDE IN BOTH Q513 AND Q8	DD PRESSURE MEASURES NOT RECORDED IN BOTH	→ 1 007
1002	RECORD AND CALCULATE FROM Q513 AND Q910.	THE AVERAGE OF THE SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE	
1003	BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS FROM Q513	SYSTOLIC DIASTOLIC	
1004	BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS FROM Q910	SYSTOLIC DIASTOLIC	
1005	RECORD THE SUM OF THE SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC MEASURES.	SUM SUM SYSTOLIC DIASTOLIC	
1006	CALCULATE THE AVERAGE SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC PRESSURES BY THE SUM IN Q1005 BY 2.	AVERAGE AVERAGE SYSTOLIC DIASTOLIC	→ 1011
1007	CHECK Q010: SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC BLOO PRESSURE NO RECORDED IN Q0	DD DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE TRECORDED IN Q910	→ 1 010
1008	CHECK Q513: SYSTOLIC AI DIASTOLIC BLOO PRESSURE NO RECORDED IN Q5	DD DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE RECORDED IN Q513	→ 1 010
1009	CHECK Q108C: SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC BLOCE PRESSURE RECORDER IN Q10	DD DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE NOT RECORDED IN Q108C	→ 1013
1010	RECORD THE SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC PRESUSRE.	SYSTOLIC DIASTOLIC	

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS CODING CATEGORIES							SKIP			
1011	USE THE TABLE BELOW TO DETERMINE THE CORRECT CODE TO RECORD ON THE BLOOD PRESSURE REPORT AND REFERRAL FORM.									•	
	CIRCLE THE ROW IN WHICH THE VALUE FOR THE SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE FROM Q1006 OR Q1010 IS FOUND.										
	THEN CIRCLE THE COLUMN IN WHICH THE VALUE FOR THE DIASTOLIC BLOOD FROM Q1006 OR Q1010 IS FOUND.										
	THE VALUE WHERE THE ROW AND COLUMN YOU HAVE CIRCLED INTERSECT IN THE TABLE WILL BE USED IN COMPLETING Q1012.										
	AVERAGE SYSTOLIC AVERAGE DIASTOLIC PRESSURE PRESSURE <84 85-89 90-99 100-109 110-119 > 120										
					2				_		
			<130 130-139	1 2	2	3	4	5 5	6		
			140-159	3	3		4	5	6		
			160-179	4	4	4	4	5	6		
			180-209	5	5	5	5	5	6		
			> 210	6	6	6	6	6	6		
		L									
	RECORD THE NUMBER YOU CIRCLED IN Q1011 IN THE CHART BELOW. THEN USE THE INSTRUCTIONS TO THE RIGHT OF THAT NUMBER TO COMPLETE A BLOOD PRESSURE REPORT AND REFERRAL FORM FOR THE RESPONDENT. GIVE THE FORM TO THE RESPONDENT AND ANSWER ANY QUESTIONS HE/SHE MAY HAVE. RESPONDENT'S BLOOD PRESSURE CATEGORY CONSULT HEALTH PROVIDER TO CHECK BLOOD PRESSURE WITHIN:										
	Γ	1	NORMAL			24 MONTHS					
		2	AT THE HIGH END OF THE NORMAL RANGE ABOVE NORMAL RANGE MODERATELY HIGH			12 MONTHS 2 MONTHS 1 MONTH					
		3									
		4									
		5	VERY HIGH			7 DAYS					
	6 EXTREMELY HIGH TODAY										
1013	CHECK THAT THE HOUSEHOLD HAS RECEIVED A BROCHURE ON BLOOD PRESSURE.										
	THANK THE RESPONDENT AND ADVISE THAT THE RESPONDENT OR OTHER MEMBERS OF THE HOUSEHOLD MAY BE ASKED TO PARTICIPATE AGAIN IN INTERVIEWS OR OTHER SURVEY ACTIVITIES IN THE FUTURE.										
	Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. We may return to interview you or other members of your household again or to ask you to participate in other survey activities in the future. We hope that you will agree at that time.										

OBSERVATIONS

TO BE FILLED IN AFTER COMPLETING INTERVIEW

1101 INTERVIEWER'S OBSERVATIONS

COMMENTS ABOUT RESPONDENT:		
COMMENTS ON SPECIFIC QUESTIONS:		
ANY OTHER COMMENTS:		
	1102 SUPERVISOR'S OBSERVATIONS	
NAME OF SUPERVISOR:	DATE:	
	1103 EDITOR'S OBSERVATIONS	
NAME OF EDITOR-	DATE	

Appendix B: IRB Approval



Institutional Review Board

January 27, 2011

RE: Determination: No IRB Review Required Title: Masters Thesis PI: Leeza Kondos

Dear Ms. Kondos:

Thank you for requesting a determination from our office about the above-referenced project. Based on our review of the materials you provided, we have determined that it does not require IRB review because it does not meet the definition(s) of "research" involving "human subjects" or the definition of "clinical investigation" as set forth in Emory policies and procedures and federal rules, if applicable. Specifically, in this project, you will be analyzing non identifiable data collected using the Demographic Health Survey.

This determination could be affected by substantive changes in the study design, subject populations, or identifiability of data. If the project changes in any substantive way, please contact our office for clarification.

Thank you for consulting the IRB.

Sincerely,

Andrea Goosen, MPH Research Protocol Analyst This letter has been digitally signed