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薬物乱用・依存者、性感染症患者のHIV
感染状況及び内外のHIV 流行等の動向
に関する研究

平成 27-29 年度総合研究報告書

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主任研究者 木原 正博

京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野

氏 名	所 属	職 名
国内外のHIV/STI関連情報の戦略的収集と分析、 情報基盤構築に関する研究 研究代表者 木原 正博 研究分担者 木原 雅子 立山 由紀子	京都大学大学院医学研究科社会疫学分野 京都大学大学院医学研究科社会疫学分野 京都大学大学院医学研究科社会疫学分野	教授 准教授 院生
STDクリニック受診者のHIV感染と 行動モニタリングと予防啓発に関する研究 研究分担者 荒川 創一 安田 晶子 澤村 正之 佐々木 寛 細部 高英 伊藤 雅康 波多野 紘一 和泉 孝治 渡辺 朝香 野村 真康 郷司 和男 下垣 博義 澤田 益臣	神戸大学医学部附属病院感染制御部 吉尾産婦人科医院 新宿さくらクリニック 佐々木医院 細部医院 岐阜泌尿器科 波多野泌尿器科皮ふ科医院 いずみレディースクリニック 渡辺医院(産婦人科) 野村クリニック ごうじ泌尿器科クリニック しもがき泌尿器科クリニック レディースクリニックさわだ	教授 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長 院長
薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV 感染と行動のモニタリングに関する研究 研究分担者 和田 清 合川勇三 森田 展彰 嶋根卓也 堀口忠利	埼玉県立精神医療センター 埼玉県立精神医療センター 筑波大学社会医学系精神衛生学 国立精神・神経医療研究センター精神保健研究 聖マリアンナ医科大学医学教育文化部門	部長 医長 准教授 室長 非常勤講師
海外のHIV/性感染症の流行等(橋本(西村)由美子 動向に関する研究	関西看護医療大学看護学部	准教授

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厚生労働科学研究費補助金（エイズ対策政策研究事業）
高リスク層の HIV 感染監視と予防啓発及び内外の HIV 関連疫学動向の
モニタリングに関する研究（平成 27-29 年度総合研究報告書）

主任研究者：木原正博（京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野）

研究要旨

わが国における効果的かつ効率的な HIV 予防施策の推進に資することを目的として、①わが国の HIV 流行に関連する内外の二次情報のデータベースの構築と分析に関する研究、②リスクグループ（性感染症[STD]患者、薬物乱用・依存者）の HIV/STD 感染と行動のモニタリングに関する研究を実施した。

1. 海外及び国内の HIV/STD の流行とリスク情報の収集分析に関する研究（木原正博、西村由実子、木原雅子）

平成 27-29 年度は、以下について情報収集を行った。

1-1) **海外関係**：①近隣諸国・地域（中国、台湾、韓国、香港）の HIV/AIDS 及び STD に関するサーベイランス情報（韓国～2016 年、中国～2016、台湾・香港～2016 年）、②主要先進諸国（米、英、独、仏、加、豪）の HIV/AIDS 及び STD に関するサーベイランス情報（～2016 年）。

1-2) **国内関係**：①日本の STD に関するサーベイランス情報（～2016 年）、②その他の行政統計（母子保健統計、薬事工業生産動態統計、出入国管理統計）（～2015 年/2016 年）。

以上の情報に基づいて、以下の分析を実施した。

1-1) **海外関係**：①近隣諸国・地域における HIV/AIDS 報告数と感染経路別の年次推移、②主要先進国における HIV/AIDS 報告数と感染経路の年次推移、③先進国及び近隣諸国・地域における STD（クラミジア、淋病、梅毒）報告数の年次動向。

1-2) **国内関係**：①STD（クラミジア、淋病、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローム、梅毒）報告数と年齢分布の年次推移及び出生コホート別推移、②人工妊娠中絶率の年次推移、国籍別入国者数・海外在住邦人の年次推移、③コンドーム国内販売数の年次推移。

以上の分析から最終年度までに以下の結果を得た。

- a. 東アジア地域では、中国では HIV 報告数は同性間優位で増加を続けており、AIDS は 2012 年から減少に転じている。台湾では、HIV は微増で同性間優位、AIDS は横ばい、香港では、HIV は同性間優位で 2016 年に初めて減少に転じた。韓国は HIV と AIDS が区別されていないので、動向の推察は難しいが、ここ数年は HIV/AIDS 報告数は横ばい、異性間がやや優位だが、不明例が多いため正確な動向は不明である。
- b. 主要先進諸国では、基本的に動向に大きな変化はなかったが、いくつか注目すべき変化が認められた。①エイズ報告数はすべての国で前年比減少した、②HIV 感染報告数は、米、豪、英、仏、独において減少もしくは横ばいだったのに対し、加では増加した。各国 MSM における新規感染が高い状態が続いている。③性感染症報告数は、全体的に増加が顕著である。英でクラミジアと淋病が減少したが、他の 3 か国では増加、梅毒は 4 か国すべて大幅に増加した。

主要先進諸国では共通して、MSM における性感染症と HIV の重感染が課題となっているが、英における MSM の HIV 新規感染および淋病の減少は、複合的予防対策の成果であり注目される。また、先進国では、HAART の普及による HIV 感染者の蓄積が進行し、HIV 感染の社会的負荷が増大を続けている。

- c. 日本人と東アジア地域の国々との人的交流は増大しており、2016 年の日本への外国人入国者数は約 2,322 万人で過去最高であった。入国者の 70%以上を東アジア地域が占めて

おり 1 位韓国、2 位中国、3 位台湾であった。一方、日本人の出国者数は前年比では増加に転じ約 1,712 万人だった。前年同様、外国人入国者数が日本人出国者数を上回った。日本人の海外長期滞在者数では、バンコクの増加が著しく、2016 年は 50,108 人で、前年に引き続き 1 位であった。全体として、日本人の渡航先・滞在先は米と東アジアへの集中から、アジア広域へと多様化しつつある。

- d. 我が国では、梅毒以外の STD は、2000 年代初めから減少を続けてきたが、2009-10 年に全疾患で下げ止まり、わずかな増減を示しつつ、ほぼ横ばいの状態にある。梅毒は、梅毒以外の STD とほぼ正反対の動向を示し、2002 年頃に底を打った後に増加に転じ、男性では 2013-4 年に、女性では 2014-5 年にかけて特に大きく増加し、2016 年も顕著な増加が認められた。欧米の動向との比較から、男性における梅毒流行は主として同性間感染を反映するものと考えられ、女性はその二次感染、あるいは、梅毒流行が異性間性行為のネットワークに侵入した可能性が想定される。
- e. 10 歳代及び 20 歳代前半における人工妊娠中絶率は、近年減少が続いているが、ここ数年は速度が減じつつも減少傾向は変わらない。

以上、HIV や STD 流行の国際的動向に関するデータの収集と分析が進み、また、国内の HIV/STD 流行や関連情報の分析から、わが国の HIV 流行に関する文脈的理解が深まった。

2. STD 患者の HIV 感染と行動等のモニタリングに関する研究（荒川創一、木原正博）

全国主要都市の 12 STD 医療機関を受診した男女患者及びセックスワーカー（CSW）を対象に、同意を得た上で HIV 抗体検査、HIV 検査ニーズ及び HIV 関連知識に関するアンケート調査を行った。

平成 27-29 年度は、アンケート回答者は、男性 395、女性 285、CSW950、合計 1630 例で、うち HIV 検査受検者は、男性 283、女性 279、CSW882、合計 1444 例であった。HIV 抗体陽性者は、平成 27 年度は認められず、平成 28 年度には男性 2 名、平成 29 年度には CSW1 名に検出された。CSW の陽性者は平成 15 年以来の本研究で最初のケースである。

アンケート分析の結果では、HIV 検査目的以外で受診した例は、通年で、男性患者 75-89%、女性患者 51-58%、CSW40-42%であったが、無料検査希望者は、いずれの群でも 85%以上と高率であり、無料 HIV 検査へのニーズの高さが示唆された。HIV 受検経験者の割合は、男性患者 11-14%、女性患者 38-58%、CSW45-65%であった。HIV 感染リスク認知が「全くない or 低いと思う」と回答した者は、男性患者 69-75%、女性患者 51-60%、CSW44-51%と、リスク認知が不十分な状況が示唆された。HIV 関連知識（7 項目）については、知識レベルは一般に非常に低くはなかったが、3 群とも、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」、「HIV 検査で感染が分かった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」の正解率は低かった（それぞれ、47-61%、12-37%）。

3. 薬物乱用・依存者の HIV 感染と行動のモニタリングに関する研究（和田 清）

薬物乱用者・依存者について、94 年以來の調査を行い、4-5 回復支援施設の新規対象者を分析対象とし、HIV、梅毒、B/C 肝炎感染率、注射行動、性行動を調査した。2015 年、2016 年には HIV 感染者は認められなかったが、2017 年には男性 1 名に HIV 感染を確認した。この事例を含め、本調査でこれまで確認した HIV 感染事例は全員、同性間性行為を感染経路と推定される事例であった。HCV 抗体陽性率は、2015～2017 年の 3 年間で 48.8%→53.7%→36.4%と推移しており、変動はあるが、2005 年以降上昇傾向にあることが伺われた。この 1 年間での IDU 経験率は、2015～2017 年の 3 年間で 22.7%→24.4%→42.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きい、2005 年以降 20%～40%の平衡状態にあることが伺われた。この 1 年間での注射針の共用経験率は、2015 年～2017 年の 3 年間で 13.6% → 9.8% → 9.4%と推移しており、2014 年以降、それ以前より低い割合が続いていた。

1. 研究の分担

●国内外の HIV/STD 流行及び関連情報の集約的分析に関する研究

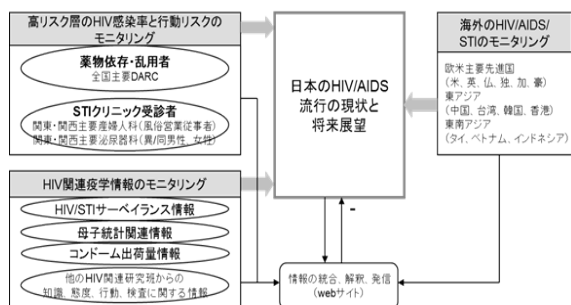
木原正博（京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野教授）

橋本（西村）由実子（関西看護医療大学看護学部准教授）、木原雅子（京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野准教授）

●STD 患者の HIV 感染と行動等のモニタリ

2. 研究目的

我国の高リスク層（薬物依存・乱用者、セックスワーカー[CSW]、男女 STD 患者）の HIV 感染及びリスク行動を UNGASS（国連エイズ特別総会）指標を含めてモニタリングすると共に、我国の HIV 流行に影響する①国内の STD/母子保健関連の動向、②諸外国の HIV/STI 流行の動向に関する情報を収集・分析し、我国の HIV 流行の現状と将来展望の理解に必要な情報基盤を構築する（図）。



3. 研究の戦略的意義

東アジアにおける HIV 流行の本格化により、わが国における HIV 流行の一層の加速・拡大が懸念されることから、適時で効果的かつ効率的な HIV 予防施策の実施は国家的に緊要の課題となっている。そのためには、状況分析に必要なデータを収集・分析して、総合的に評価し、それに基づいて、施策を立案・実施することや情報をわかりやすく社会に発信して、世論形成を図ることが不可欠である。しかし、わが国のエイズ対策は長年こうしたプロセスが不十分なまま対策が行われてきた。本研究は、そのギャップを補い、将来にわたる状況分析、施策評

ングに関する研究

荒川創一（神戸大学医学部附属病院感染制御部教授）、木原正博（京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野教授）

●薬物乱用・依存者の HIV 感染率と行動等のモニタリングに関する研究

和田 清（国立精神・神経医療研究センター精神保健研究所薬物依存研究部 部長）

価のための情報基盤を整えるという、戦略的意義がある。

4. 研究方法及び結果

(1) 海外及び国内の HIV/STD の流行とリスク情報の収集分析に関する研究（木原正博）

わが国の流行の展望や対策の必要性を的確に判断するには、関連情報を可能な限り収集し、総合的に分析・解釈することが必要であるが、わが国にはそうした情報を系統的に収集分析する仕組みが存在していない。本研究では、これらの内外の情報を戦略的に収集・分析し、データベースを構築することを目的とする。

1-1) 先進諸国の HIV/AIDS 及び STD の動向に関する研究（木原正博、西村由実子、木原雅子）

(1) 目的

主要先進国の HIV 流行の動向を明らかにし、わが国の流行のおかれた国際的文脈を明らかにする。また、同じ性行動が背景となる性感染症（STD）の流行状況を国際比較し、わが国の HIV 感染リスクとその動向の特徴の分析に資する。

(2) 方法

各国の関連機関の web サイトや各国関連部局との直接交渉により、HIV/AIDS 及び STD 報告数や推計値に関するデータを収集してデータベースを構築し、HIV/AIDS の感染経路別年次推移や STD の動向などを分析した。

(3) 結果・考察

●HIV/AIDS の状況

1. 全般的な動向

対象としている先進国のうち、豪以外の 5 か国の 2016 年末現在の新規 AIDS 報告数を確認した。すべての国において、前年比で減少しており全体として減少し続けている。各国における HIV 感染者に対する積極的な治療の成果が出ていると考えられる。

次に、6 カ国すべて HIV 感染者新規報告数の 2016 年データを確認した。前年比で、加は増加、豪、仏は横ばい、米、英、独では減少した。特に英における前年比 18%の減少と、4、5 年増加していた独が減少に転じた点が注目される。英の減少の主要因は MSM における新規感染の減少であり、先進国における HIV 感染の抑制には MSM に対する対策が鍵を握っているといえる。

1) 米国

2011～2015 年の年間 HIV 発生率は減少した。2016 年の 10 万人あたりの HIV 発生率は 12.3 である。同期間に HIV 発生率が増加した年齢層は 25～29 歳代で、2016 年に発生率が最も高かったのも 25～29 歳 (34.8/10 万対)、それに続いたのが 20～24 歳 (30.3/10 万対) だった。エスニックグループ別では、2016 年の発生率が最も高いのはアフリカ系アメリカ人 (43.6/10 万対) で、ヒスパニック/ラテン系アメリカ人 (17.0/10 万対) がそれにつづいた。性別では、5 年の間に男女ともに発生率が減少した。2016 年の HIV 感染の約 81%は男性で、発生率 24.3 (10 万対) だったのに対し、女性は 5.4 (10 万対) だった。感染経路別の 5 年間の変化は、MSM における感染が横ばいだったのに対し、薬物使用や異性間性行為による感染は減少した。2015 年の成人および若者の男女の感染の 70%が同性間、24%が異性間と、全体の 94%を性行為による感染が占めた。

2011～2015 年の 5 年間の Stage3(AIDS)の年間発生数および発生率は減少し、2016 年の発生率は 5.6 (10 万対) だった。年齢層別の発生率はすべての層で減少した (2014 年の AIDS 定義修正以降 13 歳未満は調査されていない)。2016 年値では、35～39 歳 (11.1/10 万対) が最も高く、それに続くのは 30～34 歳 (10.9/10

万対) だった。エスニックグループ別では、2016 年に最も高かったのはアフリカ系アメリカ人 (21.1/10 万) で、二番目は多人種の人々 (9.7/10 万) だった。性別について、2011～15 年の 5 年間で男女共に Stage3 (AIDS) の発生率は減少した。2016 年の Stage3(AIDS) 診断の 76%を男性が占めており、男性における発生率は 10.5 (10 万対) であるのに対し、女性の発生率は 3.1 (10 万対) だった。Stage3(AIDS) 診断の感染経路別の 5 年間の変化は、すべての感染経路において、男女とも報告数が減少した。

2) カナダ

2016 年の HIV 報告数は 2,344 人だった。1985 年の最初のケースからの累計は 84,409 人となる。国レベルでの HIV 発生率 (10 万対) は、2015 年の 5.8 から 2016 年は 6.4 に上昇した。地域別では、サスカチュワン州の発生率が 15.1(10 万対)と最も高い。性別では、2016 年の HIV 報告の 76.6%が男性である。年齢区分としては、30～39 歳層が全体の 28.7%を占めた。年齢分布に性別による大きな違いはないが、過去 5 年の間に 50 歳以上の割合が増加した点は特筆すべきである。感染経路別では、2016 年の 15 歳以上の HIV 報告全体の 44.1%を MSM が占めた。それに次ぐのが異性間感染の 32.3%、3 番目は IDU で 15.1%だった。人種としては、白人が 40.4%、黒人が 21.9%、先住民 21.2%という割合だった。

2016 年のカナダにおける AIDS 報告数は 114 人だった。1979 年の最初のケースからの累計は 24,179 人である。年間報告数は 1993 年から一貫して減少している。地域別では、オンタリオ州、サスカチュワン州、アルバータ州からの報告が多い。性別では男性が 72.8%を占め、年齢区分では 50 歳以上が 36.0%を占める。AIDS の年齢分布にも男女による大きな違いはないが、女性の場合 30 歳以下が多いという特徴がある。AIDS 関連死の数は 1995 年から減少しており、2013 年に 241 人と 1995 年比で 86.2%減少した。

2) オーストラリア

2016 年の HIV 新規感染報告数は 1,013 人で、2012 年 (1,066 人) から約 5 年間ほぼ横ばい傾向だった。2015 年の HIV 新規感染報告のうち 70%(712 人)は男性同性間の性感染である。

それに続くのが異性間性感染 21%(209 人)、男性同性間性感染と薬物使用 5%(51 人)、そして薬物使用のみ 1%(14 人)である。異性間感染のうち 79%は UNAIDS の基準で広汎流行国から来た人であり、17%はそのパートナーであった。さらに、2016年の HIV 感染報告のうち、33%は HIV 診断が遅かったケース (CD4 が 350 未満、感染後少なくとも 4 年間は検査をせず)にいた)であり、その中には中央アメリカ出身者 (45%) とサブ・サハラアフリカ出身者 (43%)、東南アジア出身者 (43%) が多かった。

2016 年にアボリジニとトレス諸島からの HIV 報告は 46 人であった。10 万人あたりの発生率では、オーストラリアは減少しているのに対し、アボリジニとトレス諸島では 2012 年の 4.8 から 2016 年は 6.4 に増加している。これらの感染の経路は異性間性行為 20%、薬物使用 14%となっている。

オーストラリアの HIV 新規報告については、2016 年分はまだ更新されておらず、感染経路別割合や年齢区分などの詳細を追加することはできなかった。また、2011 年版報告書より、AIDS Registry に関するデータおよび記述がなくなったため、AIDS 報告数についてモニターすることが難しくなった。

4) 英国

2016 年の新規 HIV 感染者数は 5,164 人であり前年の 6,286 人から 18%減少した。この大幅な減少の主要因は、ロンドンのゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性における急激な減少と、外国生まれの男女の異性間における感染の緩やかな減少による。ゲイ・バイセクシュアルにおける新規 HIV 感染の減少は、HIV 流行開始 30 年来初めてのことであり、アフリカ系の人々における新規 HIV 感染の減少は、広汎流行国からの入国者数の減少の影響を受けている。また、早期発見・早期治療を推進した結果、CD4 数 350 以下の末期状態で HIV 診断される数もこれらのグループで減少した。

2016 年の AIDS 報告数は 278 人で、2015 年の 372 から 25%減少した。ロンドンでは、初めて UNAIDS の 90 - 90 - 90 目標が達成された。すなわち、HIV 感染者の 90%が感染の診断を受け、診断を受けた者の 97%が治療を受け、治療を受けた者の 97%がウイルス検出

限界以下になった。イングランド全体でも目標達成に近い。これに伴い、HIV に感染しているが診断されていない者の数は 2015 年の 13,300 から 2016 年は 10,400 人に減ったと見積もられている。また、HIV 診断後 90 日以内に ART 治療を始める人の割合は、2007 年の 33%から 2016 年は 76%にまで増えている。

複合的予防策 (コンドーム使用、HIV 検査拡大、ART 即時開始、そして曝露前予防策 (PrEP) を強化し推進することによって、英国における HIV 感染や AIDS 関連死亡をなくすことは可能との公衆衛生上の見方が出始めている。HIV 予防対策における新しい試みとして、PrEP に関する臨床試験が、2017 年 10 月から始まっており 3 年間で 10,000 人の参加者を得て、曝露前予防策に係る様々な課題・疑問に対処する予定である。

5) フランス

2016 年、フランスでは 4,836 人の新規 HIV と 437 人の AIDS が報告されている。これは暫定値であり、後で報告漏れのケースが追加されるため、確定値はこれより多い。この暫定 HIV 報告数のうち、MSM は 1,097 人で 22.7%であるのに対し、異性間性行為による感染は 1,239 人で 25.6%を占めている。ただし、最も割合が高いのは、感染経路不明 (2,4301、50.2%) である。確定値が出た 2014 年の値をみると、全 HIV 新規感染数 5,008 人に対し、MSM は 29.3%、異性間性行為は 37.5%、感染経路不明 31.1%となっている。確定値においても感染経路不明の割合が非常に高いため、正確な流行形態の把握は難しいが、主流は性感染である。

6) ドイツ

2016年にドイツ国内で報告された HIV 感染者の数は 3,419 人 (男性 2,704 人、女性 710 人) であり、2011 年以降の連続の増加から、ようやく減少に転じた。HIV 感染経路別で詳しくみると、割合として多いのは 50.4%の MSM であるが、どの経路も前年比で減少している。一方で、2014 年の AIDS 報告数は 120 人であり、2009 年以降減少の一途をたどっている。

以上、先進国の全般的な状況としては、多剤併用療法 (HAART 療法) が導入された 1990

年半ばから後半にかけて以降、AIDS 患者新規報告数は、日本を除き、大きく減少し、現在も減少傾向が続いている。HIV 感染者新規報告数は、2005-6 年までに急増は止まり、一部（独、豪）を除き、減少に転じている。

以上の分析から、21 世紀に入って、欧米では同性間感染による流行が依然高いレベルで続いており、また HAART 療法の普及により、AIDS 患者の発生数は減少しているものの、感染者の社会的蓄積が進むという状況が進行している。

●STD の状況

全体として、先進国全体で STD 報告数は増加傾向だった中で、英国のクラミジア感染と淋病感染に、減少が認められた。特に、淋病感染の減少は MSM を中心であり、HIV 感染の減少と連動して起きていると考えられる。英国が進める HIV 複合的予防策の STD 予防に対する効果は非常に興味深い。

性器クラミジアは、各国において最も感染報告が多い STD であり、女性や若者層での感染率が高いことが特徴である。2016 年は、米国は前年比 4.7%、オーストラリアは 8.0% の増加だったのに対し、英国では横ばい傾向だった。スクリーニング検査の導入により、より多くの人々が検査するようになったことも、新規感染報告の増加の背景にはある。

淋菌感染症は、女性より男性における感染が多いのが特徴である。2016 年の米国、オーストラリアおよび 2014 年のカナダは顕著に増加したのに対し、英国では前年比 18% の減少を認めた。MSM における感染の増加が各国共通の課題である。

梅毒は症例の定義が各国で異なるため、直接比較することは難しいが、男性における発生率が女性より大幅に高いことが特徴である。2016 年（カナダは 2014 年）、4 か国すべてにおいて、前年比大幅な増加が認められた。MSM における増加が顕著である点が各国に共通の課題である。

STD 報告の近年の増加は、検査の拡大やより簡便でかつ感度の高い検査方法の導入、性行動の変化などの複合要因であると考えられている。また、どの STD においても、MSM における HIV との重感染が注目されている。HIV 感染が早期発見と早期 ART 導入よりウイ

ルス量を抑えることができつつある一方で、他の STD 罹患の増加は、無防備な性行動が蔓延していることを示唆するものである。今後も、STD と HIV と併せて複眼的に監視していく必要がある。

1-3) 東アジア諸国における HIV/STD 流行と出入国の動向に関する研究（木原正博、西村由実子、木原雅子）

(1) 目的

わが国の HIV 流行に特に関わりが深いと考えられる東アジア地域における HIV 流行の動向を明らかにし、わが国の流行のおかれた国際的文脈を明らかにする。また、同じ性行動が背景となる STD (STD) の流行状況を国際比較し、わが国の HIV 感染リスクとその動向の特徴の分析に資する。

(2) 研究方法

関連機関の web サイトや関連部局への直接の問い合わせにより、HIV/AIDS 及び STD 報告数や推計値に関するデータを収集してデータベースを構築し、HIV/AIDS の感染経路別年次推移や STD の動向などを分析した。

出入国については、以下の情報源からデータを入手した。

< 出入国者数に関する情報 >

- ・法務省入国管理局ホームページ
- ・日本政府観光局 JNTO ホームページ
- ・国土交通省『観光白書』
- ・外務省海外在留邦人統計

(3) 結果・考察

A. 各国の HIV/AIDS 及び STD の状況

1) 中国

2016 年に新たに報告された HIV/AIDS の合計は 124,555 件である。このうち、異性間性行為による感染が全体の 67.1%、同性間性行為が 27.6%、静注薬物使用が 3.8% を占めた。薬物使用による新規感染が 2012 年以降ほぼ横ばいであるのに対し、異性間・同性間による性行為での感染は増加の一途をたどっている。中国の国全体としての HIV 感染率は 2015 年末で 0.042% と見積もられていて低レベルである。中国の HIV 流行は静注薬物使用者における集中流行から、血液プラズマ献血者における流行を経て、異性間性行為における流行、さらに近年における男性同性間での急激な流行

の発生へと変化してきた。

最近の系統的レビューによれば、中国における HIV 流行は性産業従事女性、薬物使用者、MSM に特化した集中感染の段階であり、一般集団への広汎流行とはなっていないと指摘されている。しかし、2012 年以降の性感染の拡大は、状況に則した効果的な予防対策の必要性を示している。

STD については、梅毒は前年比 1.1 倍の増加で 49 万件を超え、淋病は前年比 1.2 倍で 12 万件に迫る報告があった。

2) 台湾

2016 年の台湾人における新規 HIV 報告数は 2,396 人で、前年の 2,327 人より増加した。2015 年から 2 年続きの増加傾向である。AIDS 患者報告数は 1,412 人で、前年の 1,440 人とほぼ同程度であった。

感染経路別の報告数は、HIV・AIDS 共に割合としては男性同性間性行為による感染が最も多く、2016 年の HIV 新規感染の 84.9% を占めている。2016 年の新規報告では、HIV も AIDS も異性間性行為による感染や薬物使用による感染が減少傾向であるのに対し、男性同性間性行為による感染のみが増加傾向であり、これが全体の報告数増の原因となっている。

HIV 感染は、2016 年は 30～40 代の割合が増加したことが特徴的である。AIDS 報告においても、20～30 が 7 割弱を占める状態が続いているが、2016 年においては 40 代の割合も増加している。

STD としては、梅毒、淋病ともに 2012 年以降、右肩上がりが増加しており 2016 年の増加も顕著である。

3) 香港

2016 年の HIV 報告数は 692 人（2015 年は 725 人）、AIDS 報告数は 111 人（2015 年は 110 人）である。前年と比べて、HIV は 5% 減少し、AIDS は横ばいだった。1984 年以降累計 HIV 感染報告数は 8,410 人となった。2010 年以降増加し続けていた HIV 感染流行により歯止めがかかった模様である。

2016 年の新規 HIV 感染報告のうち 86% が男性であり、エスニシティは 72% が中国系である。感染経路別では、主な感染経路は性行為で全体の 83% を占めており、その内訳は異性間性行為が 21%、同性間性行為が 55%、両性

間性行為が 7% となっている。男性のみでは、同性間および両性間性行為による感染が、73% を占めており、引き続き MSM における感染拡大が最重要課題となっている。また、感染場所については、58% が香港内で感染したと報告されており、香港内でローカルに感染拡大が起きていることが示唆されている。

STD では、梅毒が、第 1 期と第 2 期ともに前年比では減少した。一方で、淋病は前年より増加している。

4) 韓国

2016 年、韓国では 1,062 件の HIV および AIDS が報告された。前年の 1018 件からは増加して 2014 年と同程度であり、全体として、ここ 2,3 年は横ばい傾向である。

感染経路別の HIV/AIDS 報告数では、男性異性間性行為による報告数が最も多く、男性同性間性行為による感染の報告がそれに次ぐ。男性の性行為感染は、2011 年以降増加している。2016 年の報告について、HIV 検査を受けた理由は、男女とも AIDS 発症の理由を確かめるため（男 28.7%、女 41.7%）が最も多い。これに比して自発的に検査を受けた割合は低い（男 10.6%、女 3.3%）。全体として、感染経路不明や受検理由不明の割合が高く、HIV 検査を受けることや感染経路を報告することに対するハードルが高いことが伺われる。

STD については、梅毒に加えて、クラミジア、淋病、軟性下疳、単純ヘルペスをモニターしてきたが、2014 年度以降、新たなデータを追加することができなかった。

以上より、近隣諸国・地域では、中国、台湾では、一時期静注薬物使用による感染が、大きな割合を占めたが、性感染（同性間、異性間）に移行し、東アジア全域で、HIV 流行は性感染、特に同性間感染を主体とするものとなり、今後の増加が懸念される。

B. 出入国の状況

< 日本出入国者数 >

2016 年の外国人入国者数（再入国者を含む）は 2,321 万 8,912 人で、前年比 353 万 665 人（17.9%）の増加で過去最高となった。増加要因としては、クルーズ船の寄港増加、航空路線の拡充、継続的な訪日旅行プロモーション、ビザの緩和、消費税免税制度の拡充などがあげられる。一方、日本人出国者数は 1,711 万 6,420

人で、前年比 90 万 2,631 人 (5.6%) の増加となり、4 年ぶりに増加に転じた。

2016 年の外国人入国者について、出身地別にみると、最も多いのが韓国 535 万 1,093 人、次いで中国 517 万 2,945 人、台湾 401 万 9,879 人である。これらの国々はいずれも過去最高を記録しており、増加が著しい。構成比では、上記 3 カ国に香港も含めた東アジア地域が入国者全体の 72.7% を占めた。タイ (92 万 6,688 人) を筆頭とする東南アジアからの入国者も軒並み増加しており過去最高数となった。東南アジア 6 か国とインドからの入国者が、全体の 11.0% を占めた。米国からの入国者は 124 万 2,700 人で、これも過去最高を記録した。

2017 年 1 月 1 日現在の不法残留者数は 6 万 5,270 人で、前年比 2,452 人 (3.9%) 増加した。不法残留者数は 1993 年以降一貫して減少していたが、最近では 3 年連続で増加となっている。最も多いのは韓国で 1 万 3,265 人だが、韓国は前年比 1.1% の減少である。続く中国 8,846 人、タイ 6,507 人、ベトナム 5,137 人は前年と比べて増加している。特にベトナムの前年比 34.9% 増と大きい。

<日本人海外滞在者数>

2016 年データはどの国も入手できず 2015 年までとした。2015 年について、訪問数は多い順で、米国 375 万 8,297 人、中国 249 万 7,700 人、韓国 183 万 7,782 人、台湾 158 万 6,489 人である。米国が前年比増となったのに対し、中国、韓国への訪問数は 3 年連続で前年比減であったが、タイ、ベトナム、インドネシア、フィリピン等の東南アジア地域への訪問数は軒並み前年より増加した。

日本の在留邦人のうち 3 ヶ月以上滞在の「長期滞在者」の数は、2016 年 10 月 1 日現在、国別では第 1 位は米国 (23 万 3,746 人)、第 2 位が中国 (12 万 5,089 人) だが、米・中両国とも 2012 年のピーク以降減少し続けている。一方で 3 番目のタイ (6 万 8,908 人) は前年比 4.3% の増加であり、5 年連続増え続けている。その他、上位国で前年比の増加が著しいのは、カナダ 2 万 7,587 人で 11.1% 増、台湾 1 万 9,456 人で 8.0% 増、オーストラリア 3 万 9,659 人で 5.8% 増などである。

都市別にみると、バンコクが 5 万 0,108 人、上海 4 万 4,072 人、ロサンゼルス都市圏 3 万

5,086 人であるが、上海とロスでは 5 年連続で減少した。一方で、第 4 位のシンガポールと続くニューヨークはいずれも前年比増である。

1-6) 我国の STI 流行及び妊娠中絶率等の動向に関する研究等 (木原雅子、立山由紀子)

(1) 目的

わが国の HIV 流行の動向を左右すると考えられる国内の情報を収集・分析し、わが国の HIV 流行に対する社会的脆弱性の態様と動向を明らかにする。今年度対象とした情報は、① STD の状況、② 10 代の妊娠中絶率の状況、③ コンドームの国内出荷量の動向である。

(2) 方法

- 1) STD データは、厚生労働省の感染症発生动向調査から検索し、2016 年までの疾患別、年齢別、都道府県別の動向を分析した。今期は、出生コホート分析も新たに実施した。
- 2) 中絶率のデータは、厚生労働省の 2016 年度衛生行政報告例から抽出した。
- 3) コンドーム出荷量については、薬事工業生産動態統計より 2016 年までのデータを得た。

(3) 結果・考察

1) STD の状況

主な定点把握性感染症 (性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマ) は、男女とも、近年減少を続けていたが、性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症は、下げ止まり、ほぼ横ばい状態が続いている。性器ヘルペスで 30 歳代、40 歳代において男女ともに若干の上昇傾向、尖圭コンジローマで男性の上昇傾向を認めている。一方、梅毒は、これらの性感染症とは全く逆に、男女とも近年増加傾向にあり、2009-10 年にはやや減少に転じたが、その後再び上昇に転じ、2013 年には特に男性で大きく増加し、2014 年からは男女とも急増が続いている。出生コホート分析からは、最も若い男性コホートで、①他のコホートに比べて、梅毒が最も早く増加を始めた、②性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマが増加を続けている、という特異な動向を示しており、このコホートは、性行動の活発さあるいはタイプにおいて特徴あるコホートである可能性が示唆された。

2) 人工妊娠中絶率の状況

人工妊娠中絶は2001年をピークに全年齢層で減少傾向が続いている。

3) コンドーム出荷量の動向

コンドームの国内出荷量は1993年以降、減少が続いてきたが、2010年以降、上昇に転じた。2015年からは再び減少に転じるとともに、輸出出荷数の大幅な増加を認めている。

以上の結果、及び以前に報告した梅毒文献のレビューの結果や近年の若者における性行動の変化を総合して、以下のように考察した。

- ① 梅毒(男女)と梅毒以外の性感染症の動向が異なる(ほぼ正反対)のは、流行している集団の特性が異なるためと考えられる。
- ② 欧米でも近年男性で梅毒流行が生じているが、これは、同性間での流行であることが明らかとなっている(70-80%がMSM)。日本の男性における梅毒流行も同性間における流行である可能性が高い。また、女性の梅毒の上昇も他の女性の性感染症と対比的な動きをしていることから、MSMからの二次感染の可能性もある。このような観点から、梅毒については、欧米の動向にも留意しつつ、今後の経過観察が必要である。
- ③ 性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマは、主に異性間感染を反映すると考えられるが、これらの性感染症は、下げ止まるか、増加傾向を示しているため、無防備な異性間行動リスクが再び高まる可能性があるため、今後、男女共にこれらの疾患の動向に注視する必要がある。
- ④ 人工妊娠中絶の動向では、10歳代でもっとも早く減少が始まり、その後4年遅れて、20-24歳で減少が始まっているが、これは、無防備な性行動の減少が、若年層から始まったことを示唆している(コホート効果)。10歳代と20歳代では、一時下げ止まったが、再び減少に転じているため、上述の性感染症の動向とあわせて、今後の女性の変化には特に注意が必要である。
- ⑤ コンドームの国内出荷個数は、性感染症、人工妊娠中絶、性行動の変化とはほぼ関連のない動きをしてきていることから、コンドーム出荷数から、性行動リスクを直接予

測することは難しい。

以上、今期の研究によって、21世紀に入って減少を続けていた性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマが、下げ止まりもしくは緩やかな増加に転じたこと、妊娠中絶率が若年層で下げ止まっていることから、若い年齢層にリスクの高い異性間性行動の新しい波が今後生じる可能性に注意が必要である。また、男女で始まった梅毒流行は、今後異性間感染で広く流行する可能性があることから、これらの動向を念頭においた対策の重点化が重要と考えられる。

(2)STD患者のHIV感染と行動等のモニタリングに関する研究(分担研究者:荒川創一)

(1)目的

一部の大都市圏のSTDクリニックを受診した患者(男性、女性、セックスワーカー[CSW])を対象にHIV感染の浸透度をモニタリングし、HIV検査ニーズやHIV関連知識の普及状況を把握する。

(2)方法

全国主要都市の12STDクリニックを受診した患者(男女)及びセックスワーカー(CSW)を対象として、希望者に無料HIV抗体検査を提供し、HIV感染の浸透度を検討した。対象者は、STD感染不安もしくは定期検診のために受診した者とし、同意を得た上でHIV抗体検査、HIV検査ニーズ及びHIV関連知識に関するアンケート調査を行った。

(3)結果

平成27年度は、10医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性152例、女性163例、CSW235例で合計550例であった。うちHIV検査受検者は、男性119例、女性157例、CSW230例で合計506例であった。平成28年度は、10医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性110例、女性62例、CSW375例で合計547例であった。うちHIV検査受検者は、男性84例、女性62例、CSW357例で合計435例であった。平成29年度は、8医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性133例、女性60例、CSW340例で合計533例であった。うちHIV検査受検者は、男性80例、女性60例、CSW295例で合計435例であった。

HIV 抗体陽性者は、平成 27 年度は認められず、平成 28 年度は男性 2 名 (2.4%)、平成 29 年度は CSW1 名 (0.3%) に検出された。CSW の陽性者は平成 15 年以来的本研究で最初のケースである。

アンケート分析の結果では、HIV 検査目的以外で受診した例は、通年で、男性患者 75-89%、女性患者 51-58%、CSW40-42%であったが、無料検査希望者は、いずれの群でも 85%以上と高率であり、STD クリニック受診者には無料 HIV 検査へのニーズが高いことが示唆された。HIV 受検経験者の割合は、男性患者 11-14%、女性患者 38-58%、CSW45-65%で、HIV 受検経験者中の複数回経験者は、それぞれ、20-34%、84-89%、62-77%であった。HIV 感染リスク認知が「全くない or 低いと思う」と回答した者は、男性患者 69-75%、女性患者 51-60%、CSW44-51%と、リスク認知が不十分な状況が示唆された。HIV 関連知識 (7 項目) に関しては、正解率 65%以上が多く、知識レベルは一般に非常に低くはないが、3 グループとも、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」、「HIV 検査で感染が分かった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」の正解率は低かった (それぞれ、47-61%、12-37%)。以上より次の点が示唆された。

以上より以下の点が示唆された。

- ① HIV 感染者は、平成 28 年度に男性 2 名 (2.4%) と 29 年度に CSW に 1 名 (0.3%) 認められた。CSW の感染者は平成 15 年度以来初のケースであり、梅毒流行と絡んで CSW 間での浸透が始まった可能性について、今後の継続観察が必要である。
- ② STD クリニック受診者には、無料 HIV 検査へのニーズが非常に大きく、HIV 検査のカバー率を高める上での、STD クリニックの意義が改めて確認された。
- ③ STD クリニック受診者の間には、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」などの予防上重要な知識の普及が不十分であり、今後の啓発の重要性が示唆された。

(3)薬物乱用・依存者の HIV 感染と行動等のモニタリングに関する研究(分担研究者:和田清)

(1) 目的

薬物乱用・依存者における HIV 感染を含めた STD 感染の実態を把握し、あわせて、注射器/注射針の使用実態、性行動等 HIV 感染に関わるハイリスク行動を調査することによって、薬物乱用・依存者に対する HIV 対策の基礎資料に供することを目的とした。

(2) 方法

研究対象は、関東地方の薬物依存症回復支援施設 (2015 年、2016 年調査では 5 施設。2017 年調査では 4 施設。)への入所・通所者である。対象者の同意の下で、調査用紙によるハイリスク行動の聞き取り調査と採血による血清学的検査を実施した。

(3) 結果・考察

2015 年と 2016 年の調査では HIV 抗体陽性者は認められなかったが、2017 年には男性 1 名に HIV 抗体陽性を認めた。これまでの陽性者は計 4 名であるが、4 名とも MSM (Men who have Sex with Men) であり、乱用薬物は覚せい剤と「危険ドラッグ」とが半々であることに注目する必要がある。

覚せい剤乱用・依存者における HCV 抗体陽性率は、2015~2017 年の 3 年間で 48.8%→53.7%→36.4%と推移しており、変動はあるが、2005 年以降上昇傾向にある。

質問票調査で、覚せい剤乱用・依存者におけるこの 1 年間での IDU 経験率は、2015~2017 年の 3 年間で 22.7%→24.4%→42.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きい、2005 年以降 20~40%の平衡状態にあることが伺われた。この 1 年間での注射針の共用経験率は、2015~2017 年の 3 年間で 13.6% → 9.8% → 9.4%と推移しており、2014 年以降、それ以前より低い割合が続いていた。

全対象者への質問では、注射による薬物の使用は HIV 感染・C 型肝炎の主な感染経路になっていることを知っていたかどうかに関する回答では、HIV 感染については、IDU 経験の有無で有意差は認められなかったが、C 型肝炎感染については、IDU 経験の方が知識のある者が有意に多かった。「あぶり」を行った理由について、IDU 非経験者群と IDU 経験者群とで有意差が認められたのは、「注射は怖い」、「依存になりにくいと思ったから」、「針が手に入りにくかった」であった。注射による薬物

使用の経験の有無と HCV 抗体陽性率との関係では、注射による薬物使用経験のある者での HCV 抗体陽性率が有意に高かった (47.5% vs 1.1%)。入れ墨のある者での HCV 抗体陽性率は有意に高かった (38.8% vs 22.4%)。この 1 年間での風俗経験と HCV 抗体陽性率との関係では、有意差は認められなかった。年代と HCV 抗体陽性率との関係では、40 歳代で HCV 抗体陽性率が最も高くなっていった (37.9%)。そこで、HCV 抗体の陽性・陰性について、年齢、これまでの注射の回数、入れ墨の有無、風俗での性接触を独立変数として、判別分析を行った。その結果、固有値が 0.544、Wilks のラムダが 0.648(p<0.000) であり、モデルとしては良好とはいえないが、正答率は 74.8~85.5%で、構造行列の相関係数は、注射の回数：0.929、年齢：0.350、入れ墨：0.216、風俗での性接触：-0.013 であり、この順に判別に寄与する程度が大きいことが判明した。

(4) 結論

覚せい剤乱用・依存者では、注射行動という危険行動に加えて、入れ墨保有率も高く、複合的に C 型肝炎の感染危険性が増していると考えられる。わが国の薬物乱用・依存者における HIV 感染は、MSM に目立ち、注射行為のみならず、性行為による感染の可能性が重複している。今後も、その両面から HIV 感染の実態把握と感染予防を進めていく必要がある。

5. まとめと考察

本研究により、わが国の HIV 流行の状況・特徴・国際的文脈や社会的脆弱性の状況を明らかにするのに必要な情報収集の枠組みが完成し、これまで分散して存在してきた関連情報のデータベースを構築し、それに基づくわが国の HIV 流行の現状や展望について、総合的な分析と理解を行うことが可能となった。

本年度までの研究から、以下の知見を得た。

- ① 東アジアにおいて近年 HIV 感染者報告数の増加が続いており、性感染、特に同性間感染が、東アジア諸国に共通した問題となっている。
- ② 近隣諸国・地域との間の出入国数は、ここ数年非常に大きく増加しており、流行が流入・流出し易い状況が存在している。
- ③ 欧米諸国では、同性間感染による HIV 流

行が、増加もしくは高止まりしている状況にあり、また、HAART 療法の普及により感染者の社会的蓄積が進行している。しかし、英国（特にロンドン）では複合的予防対策の成果で、同性間感染による HIV 新規感染が減少に転じており、他の先進国に教訓を提供している。STD は、データの得られた米、英、豪、加のほぼすべてで増加が続いている。

- ④ わが国では、梅毒以外の STD は減少もしくはせいぜい微増、梅毒は激増という一見相反する動向が同時に進行している。男性の梅毒流行は、欧米と同じく MSM における流行を反映すると思われ、女性における流行はそこから異性間への流行拡大が生じた可能性を示唆している。梅毒は HIV への易感染性を高めるため、HIV 流行との関連で、今後慎重なモニタリングが必要である。
- ⑤ STD (梅毒以外) や 20 歳代前までの人工妊娠中絶率は、2009 年まで減少を続けてきたが、性器クラミジア、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペスは、2010 年以降ほぼ下げ止まって一部上昇に転じ、人工妊娠中絶率も、10 歳代で下げ止まっており、今後リスクの高い行動に新しい動向が生じる可能性について注意が必要である。
- ⑥ STD クリニックを受診する男性患者における HIV 感染率は、2006 年以来、1-3% 程度で推移しており、保健所に比べると高い感染率を示している。また、STD クリニック受診者においては、一貫して無料 HIV 検査への非常に高いニーズが存在する。
- ⑦ 薬物使用者の間では、2014-16 年の間に初めて、HIV 感染者が出現するようになり、今期も 1 名の感染者が確認された。注射の共有率は長年減少傾向にあったが、最近増加傾向にあるため、今後のアウトブレイク発生の可能性について、慎重な注視が必要である。また、確認された感染者は MSM であったことから、同性間での薬物使用に対する対策の重要性が示唆された。

このように、本研究によって、わが国の HIV 流行とそのリスクの状況の多角的分析が進み、国際比較によって、その国際的文脈や特徴の分

析も進んだ。これらの分析結果は、わが国は、流行度の高い国々・地域に囲まれていること、欧米でも対策に苦慮していることから、わが国の状況に適した効果的な対策の確立・普及が急務であることを示している。

しかし、実際には、エイズ予防指針が存在するにもかかわらず、地域では、啓発や施策形成に必要なデータすら容易に入手できる状況になく、対策費も乏しい中、住民の啓発レベルは低レベルに留まっている。

本研究では、こうした状況に鑑み、情報提供のための Web サイトを開設し、情報発信を行ってきた。同サイトは、Wikipedia にリンクされて、NGO や HIV/STD 専門家、またマスメディアの情報源として利用されてきた。

6. 自己評価

1) 達成度について

各種行政統計の収集、薬物乱用・依存者および STD 患者の HIV/STD 感染率・行動調査をほぼ予定通りに達成した。

2) 研究成果の学術的・国際的・社会的意義について

本研究は、内外のエイズ・STD に関連する情報を網羅的に収集し、総合的に解析することを通して、わが国におけるエイズ予防施策の推進に資する情報基盤を構築するという点で、また、Web による最新情報の提供は、停滞した普及啓発の活性化につながる可能性があるという点で、予防指針に基づくわが国の今後のエイズ施策の展開を支えるという重要な社会的意義があった。

3) 今後の展望について

・本研究で実施した HIV 関連データベースの構築は、普及啓発に関わる関係者のニーズが高く、データベースの継続構築と Web サイトの維持は、継続されるべきである。

・薬物使用者と STD 患者の研究は、本来国家が実施すべきセンチネルサーベイランスに相当するものであり、継続が必要である。

7. 結論

研究はほぼ予定通りに進行し、わが国の施策の形成や推進に必要な情報基盤、理論基盤の整備や施策分析を推進することができた。

海外及び国内の HIV/性感染症の流行とリスク情報の収集分析に関する研究(1)

先進諸国の HIV/AIDS 及び性感染症の動向に関する研究

西村由実子¹、木原雅子²、木原正博²

¹関西看護医療大学看護学部

²京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野

研究要旨

目的 先進諸国の HIV/AIDS 及び性感染症の動向に関する既存の情報を収集・分析し、わが国のエイズ・性感染症対策の効果的・効率的な発展に資する。

方法 先進国の HIV/AIDS 疫学情報データベースおよび性感染症疫学情報データベースに 2016 年分データを追加し流行の動向を把握する。HIV/AIDS については、米国、カナダ、オーストラリア、英国、フランス、ドイツの 6 カ国、性感染症については、米国、カナダ、オーストラリア、英国の 4 カ国を対象とする。また、先進国の情報として OECD の AIDS 関連指標を 2015 年まで更新する。

結果 近年の傾向を踏襲する結果といくつかの変化が認められた。すなわち、①AIDS 報告数はすべての国で前年比減少した、②HIV 感染報告数は、米、豪、英、仏、独において減少か横ばいだったのに対し、加では増加した。各国 MSM における新規感染が高い状態で維持されている。③性感染症報告数は、全体的に増加が顕著である。英でクラミジアと淋病が減少したが、他の 3 か国では増加、梅毒は 4 か国すべて大幅に増加した。MSM における性感染症と HIV の重感染が課題となっている。英における MSM の HIV 新規感染および淋病の減少は、複合的予防対策の成果であり注目される。

結論 日本と交流の盛んな先進国における HIV/AIDS および性感染症流行の動向について主に 2016 年分のデータが追加されデータベースが一層充実した。HIV/AIDS と性感染症の経年変化を継続してモニタリングすると同時によりよいサーベイランス体制のあり方も検討していく必要がある。

A. 目的

わが国と交流の多い主な先進国における HIV 感染症及び性感染症流行の動向に関する情報を収集・分析し、モニタリングすることを目的とする。

B. 対象・方法

HIV/AIDS は、米国、カナダ、オーストラリア、英国、フランス、ドイツを対象とし、性感染症は、米国、カナダ、オーストラリア、英国を対象として、各国の公的機関から公表されている HIV/AIDS 及び性感染症に関する疫学情報を、主にインターネットによって収集した。以下が参照した機関一覧である。

<HIV/AIDS 疫学情報参照機関>

1. 米国

- 疾病予防センター (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: CDC)

2. カナダ

- カナダ公衆衛生局 (Public Health Agency of Canada: PHAC)

3. オーストラリア

- Kirby 研究所 (The Kirby Institute for

infection and immunity in society; National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research が 2011 年 4 月より改名)

4. 英国

- 英国政府公衆衛生局 (GOV.UK Public Health England: Health Protection Agency が 2013 年 4 月より Public Health England の下部組織となる)

5. フランス

- 国立公衆衛生監視研究所 (Institut de Veille Sanitaire: InVS)

6. ドイツ

- ロベルト・コッホ研究所 (Robert Koch Institut: RKI) および連邦健康モニタリング・システム (Federal Health Monitoring)

7. ヨーロッパ全体

- WHO ヨーロッパ地域事務所 Centralized information system for infectious diseases (CISID)

- European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC: 2008 年より欧州共同体の HIV/AIDS サーベ

イラン担当)

<性感染症疫学情報参照機関>

1. 米国
 - 疾病予防センター (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: CDC)
2. カナダ
 - カナダ公衆衛生局 (Public Health Agency of Canada : PHAC)
3. オーストラリア
 - 保健・高齢者担当省 (Australian Government, Department of Health and Ageing)
4. 英国
 - 英国政府公衆衛生局 (GOV.UK Public Health England : Health Protection Agency が 2013 年 4 月より Public Health England の下部組織となる)
5. ヨーロッパ全体
 - 欧州共同体性感染症サーベイランス (European Surveillance of Sexually Transmitted Infections : ESSTI)
 - WHO ヨーロッパ地域事務所 Centralized information system for infectious diseases (CISID)

<HIV/AIDS>

1. 全般的な動向

対象としている先進国のうち、豪以外の 5 か国の 2016 年末現在の新規 AIDS 報告数を確認した。すべての国において、前年比で減少しており全体として減少し続けている (図 1)。各国における HIV 感染者に対する積極的な治療の成果が出ていると考えられる。

次に、6 カ国すべて HIV 感染者新規報告数の 2016 年データを確認した。前年比で、加は増加、豪、仏は横ばい、米、英、独では減少した (図 2)。特に英における前年比 18% の減少と、4、5 年増加していた独が減少に転じた点が注目される。英の減少の主要因は MSM における新規感染の減少であり、先進国における HIV 感染の抑制には MSM に対する対策が鍵を握っているといえる。(図 2)。

AIDS、HIV 報告数について、人口 10 万人あたりの経年変化も図示した (図 3,4)。米、英、仏の感染レベルが比較的高いことがわかる。

また、OECD データを主に 2015 年分まで更新した (表 6,7)。AIDS 発生率 (10 万対) が 1.0 を超えているのは 8 カ国、2.0 以上は、3 カ国だった。

C. 結果

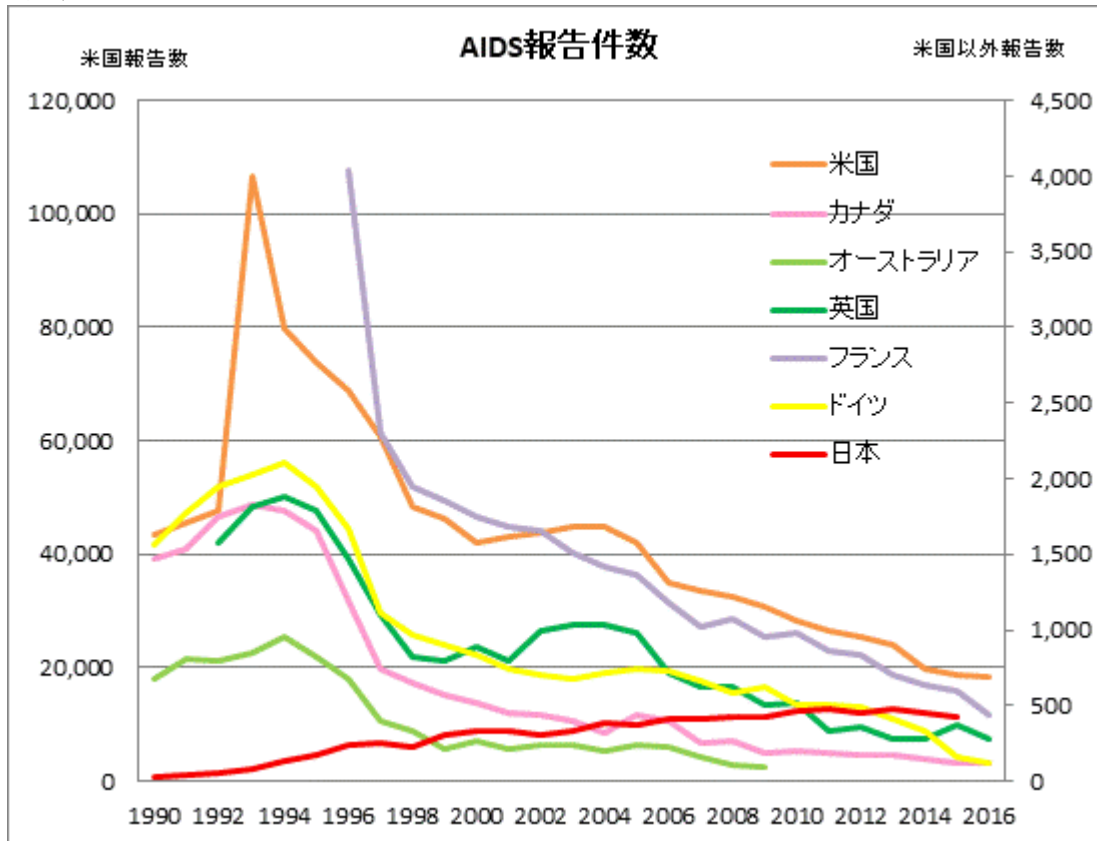


図 1. エイズ患者新規報告数国別年次推移

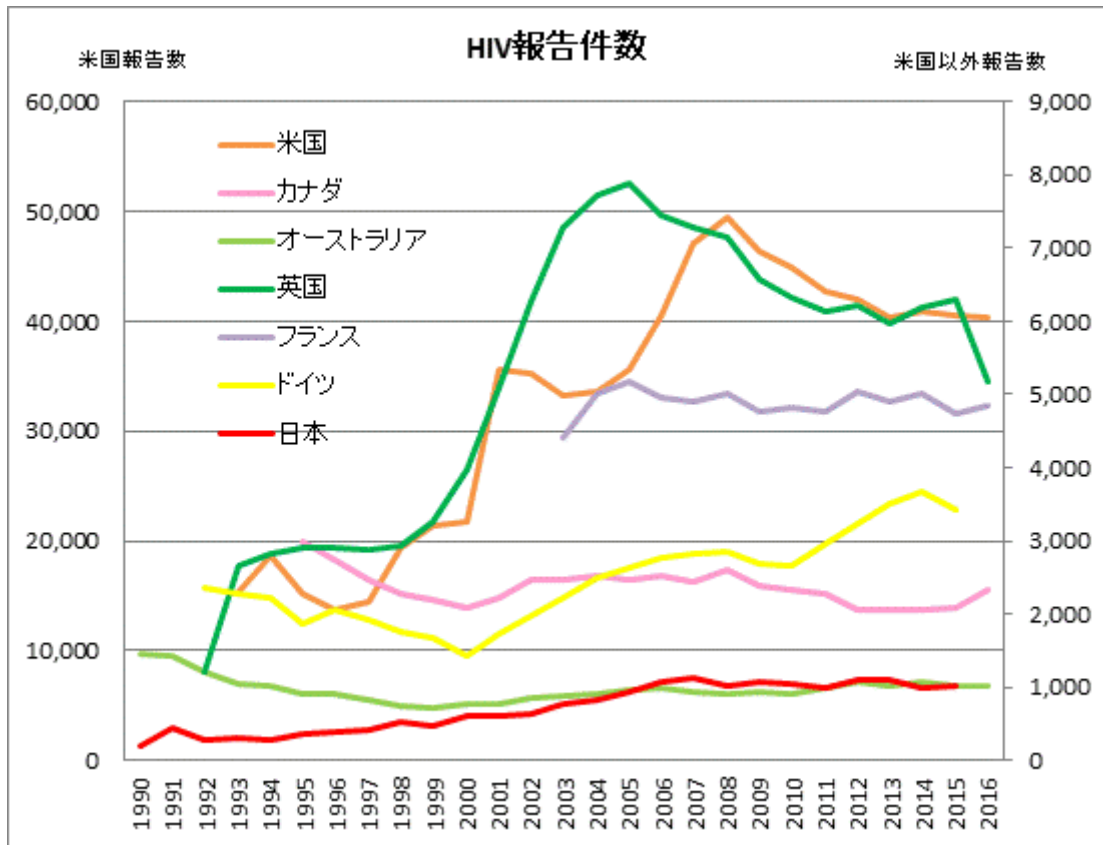


図 2. HIV 感染者新規報告数国別年次推移

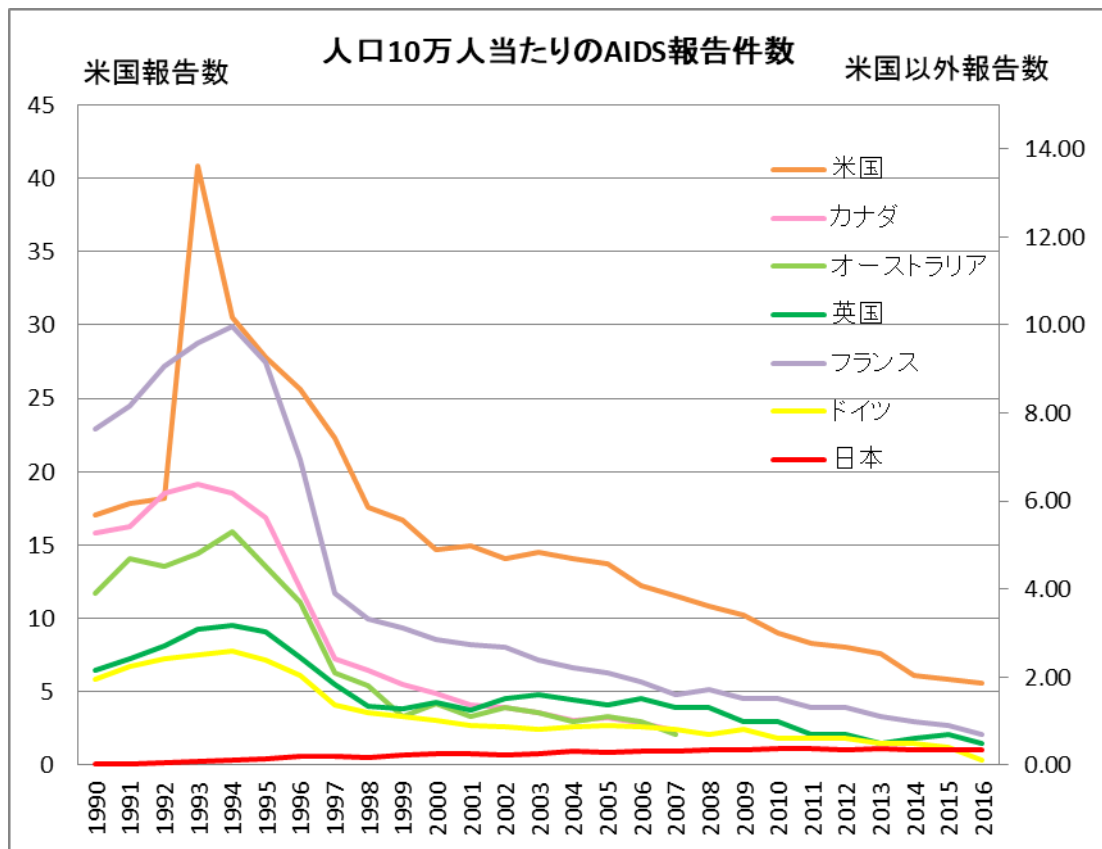


図 3. 人口 10 万あたりエイズ患者新規報告数国別年次推移

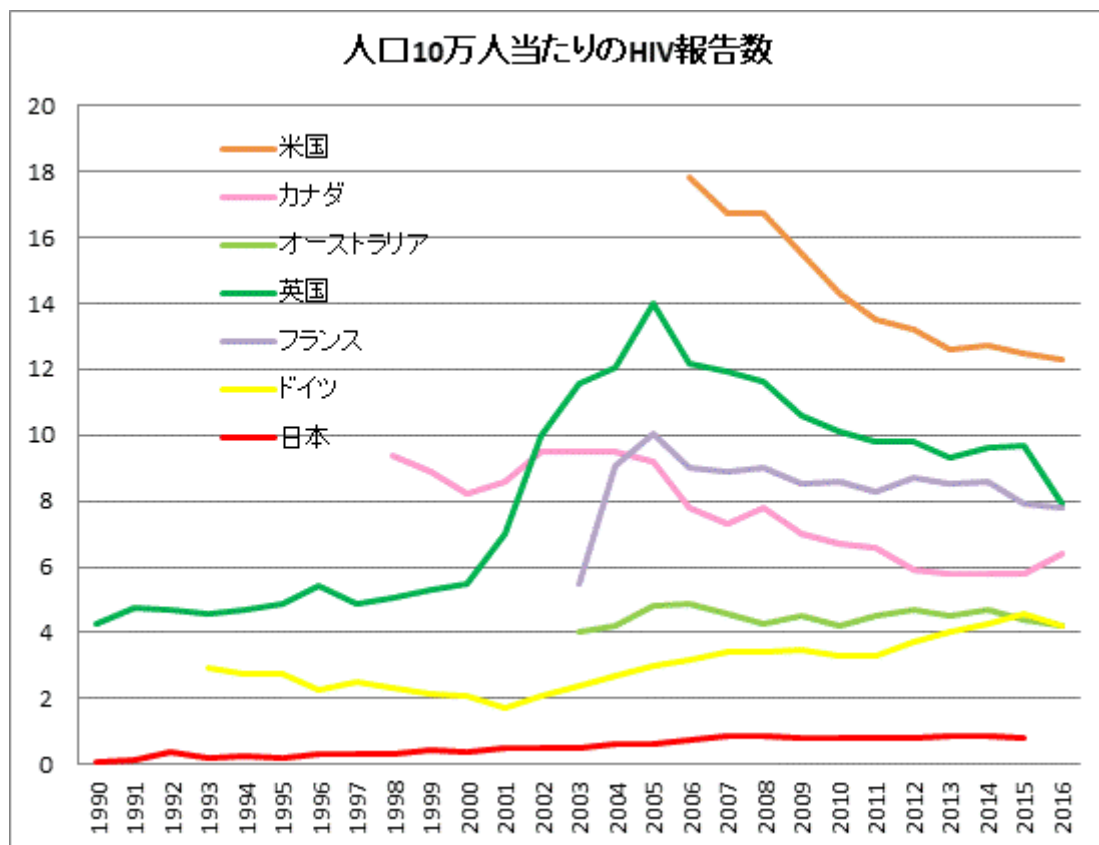


図 4. 人口 10 万あたり HIV 感染者新規報告数国別年次推移

2. 米国

米国の HIV/AIDS サーベイランス情報は CDC から毎年発表される HIV Surveillance Report に集約されている。2016 年の暫定データを含む報告書は 2017 年 6 月に発表された[1]。この報告書において diagnosis of HIV infection は、ステージに関係なく HIV 感染と診断された人すべてと定義されている。Stage3(AIDS)は、その年に stage3(AIDS)と区分された人（診断）またはそれまでに stage3(AIDS)と区分された人（有病例および死亡例）と定義されている。この区分は 2013 年以降のサーベイランスに適応されている。HIV 診断は 12 か月、有病例と死亡例については 18 か月の報告遅延を考慮する必要があるため、最新のデータは、あくまでも暫定値とし、経年変化や傾向を見るには適さない点に注意が必要である。しかし、2,3 年で変動は補正される。

これらの限界を考慮した上で、同報告書からわかる 2011～2015 年の経年変化と 2016 年末現在の米国の HIV 流行の状況は次のとおりである。

2011～2015 年の年間 HIV 発生率は減少した。2016 年の 10 万人あたりの HIV 発生率は

12.3 である。同期間に HIV 発生率が増加した年齢層は 25～29 歳代で、2016 年に発生率が最も高かったのも 25～29 歳（34.8/10 万対）、それに続いたのが 20～24 歳（30.3/10 万対）だった。エスニックグループ別では、2016 年の発生率が最も高いのはアフリカ系アメリカ人（43.6/10 万対）で、ヒスパニック/ラテン系アメリカ人（17.0/10 万対）がそれにつづいた。性別では、5 年の間に男女ともに発生率が減少した。2016 年の HIV 感染の約 81%は男性で、発生率 24.3（10 万対）だったのに対し、女性は 5.4（10 万対）だった。感染経路別の 5 年間の変化は、MSM における感染が横ばいだったのに対し、薬物使用や異性間性行為による感染は減少した。2015 年の成人および若者の男女の感染の 70%が同性間、24%が異性間と、全体の 94%を性行為による感染が占めた。

2011～2015 年の 5 年間の Stage3(AIDS)の年間発生数および発生率は減少し、2016 年の発生率は 5.6（10 万対）だった。年齢層別の発生率はすべての層で減少した（2014 年の AIDS 定義修正以降 13 歳未満は調査されていない）。2016 年値では、35～39 歳（11.1/10 万対）が最も高く、それに続くのは 30～34 歳（10.9/10 万対）だった。エスニックグループ別では、

2016年に最も高かったのはアフリカ系アメリカ人(21.1/10万)で、二番目は多人種の人々(9.7/10万)だった。性別について、2011~15年の5年間で男女共にStage3(AIDS)の発生率は減少した。2016年のStage3(AIDS)診断の76%を男性が占めており、男性におけ

る発生率は10.5(10万対)であるのに対し、女性の発生率は3.1(10万対)だった。Stage3(AIDS)診断の感染経路別の5年間の変化は、すべての感染経路において、男女とも報告数が減少した。

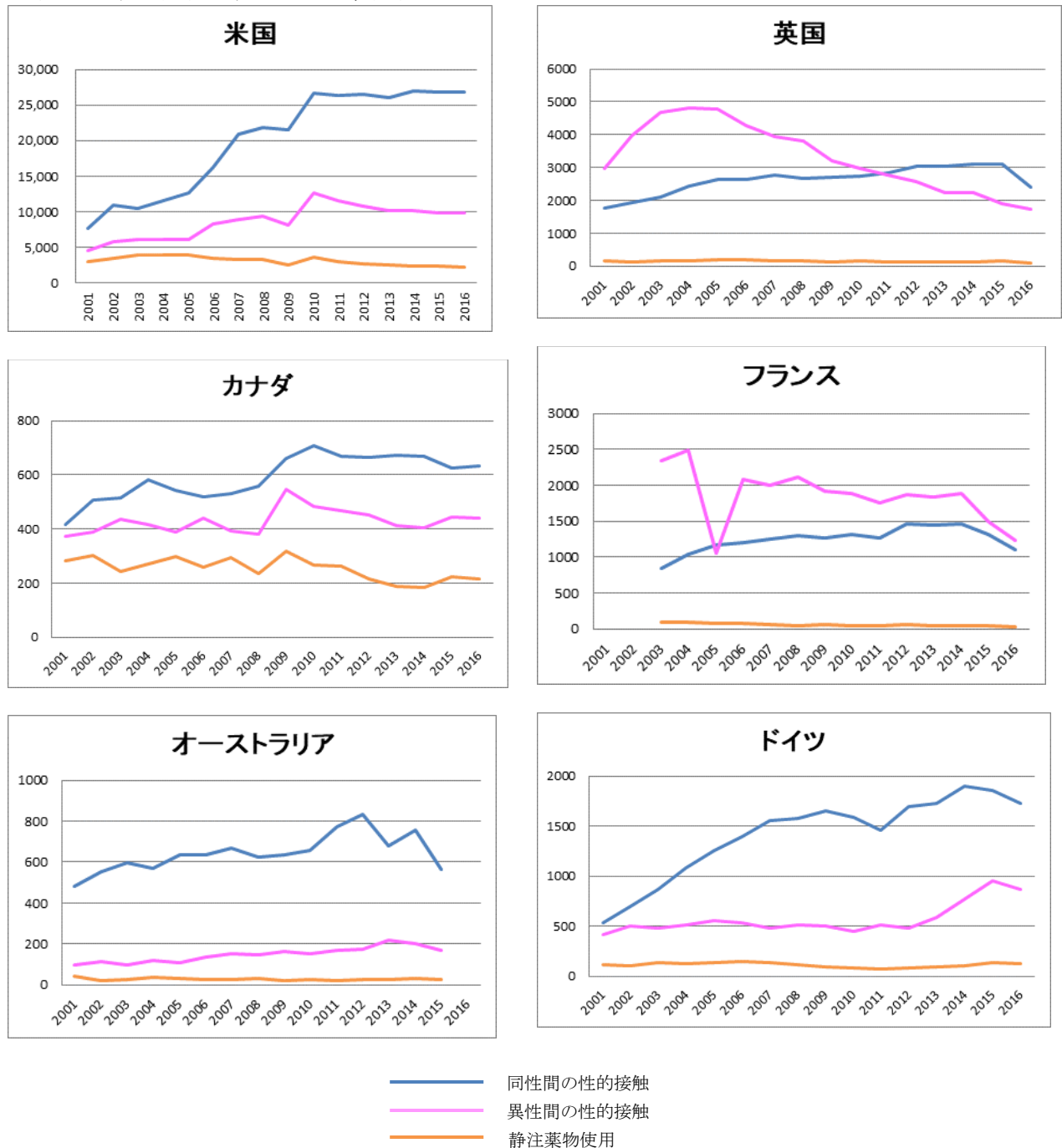


図 5. HIV 感染経路別 年次推移

3. カナダ

カナダのHIV/AIDS状況については、2014年分まではHIV and AIDS in Canadaという年次報告書、2015年分は表となった要約値が

Public Health Agency Canadaのホームページで発表されていた。2016年分は、CCDR=Canada Communicable Disease Reportの一部として、HIVとAIDSのサーベイランスの

記述的な報告が論文として出版されると同時に、Web上に補完的な表が公開された。今後、この形式が続けば系統的かつ包括的に流行をモニタリングすることが可能になる[4~6]。

その発表によると2016年のHIV報告数は2,344人だった。1985年の最初のケースからの累計は84,409人となる。国レベルでのHIV発生率(10万対)は、2015年の5.8から2016年は6.4に上昇した。地域別では、サスカチュワン州の発生率が15.1(10万対)と最も高い。性別では、2016年のHIV報告の76.6%が男性である。年齢区分としては、30-39歳層が全体の28.7%を占めた。年齢分布に性別による大きな違いはないが、過去5年の間に50歳以上の割合が増加した点は特筆すべきである。感染経路別では、2016年の15歳以上のHIV報告全体の44.1%をMSMが占めた。それに次ぐのが異性間性感染の32.3%、3番目はIDUで15.1%だった。人種としては、白人が40.4%、黒人が21.9%、先住民21.2%という割合だった。

2016年のカナダにおけるAIDS報告数は114人だった。1979年の最初のケースからの累計は24,179人である。年間報告数は1993年から一貫して減少している。地域別では、オンタリオ州、サスカチュワン州、アルバータ州からの報告が多い。性別では男性が72.8%を占め、年齢区分では50歳以上が36.0%を占める。AIDSの年齢分布にも男女による大きな違いはないが、女性の場合30歳以下が多いという特徴がある。AIDS関連死の数は1995年から減少しており、2013年に241人と1995年比で86.2%減少した。

4. オーストラリア

オーストラリアのHIV流行状況は、毎年発表されるHIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmissible infections in Australia報告書から知ることができる[8]。

2016年のHIV新規感染報告数は1,013人で、2012年(1,066人)から約5年間ほぼ横ばい傾向だった。

2015年のHIV新規感染報告のうち70%(712人)は男性同性間の性感染である。それに続くのが異性間の性感染21%(209人)、男性同性間性感染と薬物使用5%(51人)、そして薬物使用のみ1%(14人)である。異性間感染のうち79%はUNAIDSの基準で広汎流行国から来た人であり、17%はそのパートナーであった。さらに、2016年のHIV感染報告のうち、33%はHIV診断が遅かったケース(CD4が

350cells/ μ L未満、感染後少なくとも4年間は検査をせずにいた)であり、その中には中央アメリカ出身者(45%)とサブ・サハラアフリカ出身者(43%)、東南アジア出身者(43%)が多かった。

2016年にアボリジニとトレス諸島からのHIV報告は46人であった。10万人あたりの発生率では、オーストラリアは減少しているのに対し、アボリジニとトレス諸島では2012年の4.8から2016年は6.4に増加している。これらの感染の経路は異性間性行為20%、薬物使用14%となっている。

オーストラリアのHIV新規報告については、Kirby InstituteからAustralian HIV Public Access Datasetで基データを手に入れるが、2016年分はまだ更新されておらず、感染経路別割合や年齢区分などの詳細を追加することはできなかった[9]。

2011年版報告書(2010年分)より、AIDS Registryに関するデータおよび記述がなくなったため、AIDS報告数についてモニターすることが難しくなった。

5. 英国

英国ではPublic Health England(PHE)よりHIV in the UKとして報告書が毎年発表されるが、2017年は、Toward elimination of HIV transmission, AIDS and HIV-related deaths in the UKというタイトルで、新規感染の減少を背景とする対策と疫学状況を記す報告書が出た[10]。

2016年の新規HIV感染者数は5,164人であり前年の6,286人から18%減少した。この大幅な減少の主要因は、ロンドンのゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性における急激な減少と、外国生まれの男女の異性間における感染の緩やかな減少による。ゲイ・バイセクシュアルにおける新規HIV感染の減少は、HIV流行開始30年来初めてのことである。アフリカ系の人々における新規HIV感染の減少は、広汎流行国からの入国者数の減少の影響を受けている。また、早期発見・早期治療を推進した結果、CD4数350以下の末期状態でHIV診断される数もこれらのグループで減少した。

2016年のAIDS報告数は278人で、2015年の372から25%減少した。ロンドンでは、初めてUNAIDSの90-90-90目標が達成された。すなわち、HIV感染者の90%が感染の診断を受け、診断を受けた者の97%が治療を受け、治療を受けた者の97%がウィルス検出限界以下になったのである。イングランド全体

のこれらの数値は 88%、96%、97%と少し低くなるが目標達成に近い。これに伴い、HIV に感染しているが診断されていない者の数は 2015 年の 13,300 から 2016 年は 10,400 人に減ったと見積もられている。また、HIV 診断後 90 日以内に ART 治療を始める人の割合は、2007 年の 33%から 2016 年は 76%にまで増えている。90 - 90 - 90 目標達成に向けての施策の結果が数値として表れ始めているといえる。

複合的予防策（コンドーム使用、HIV 検査拡大、ART 即時開始、そして曝露前予防策 [pre-exposure prophylaxis=PrEP]）を強化し推し進めることによって、英国における HIV 感染や AIDS 関連死亡をなくすことは可能だろうという公衆衛生上の見方が出始めている。PHE の HIV 予防対策における新しい試みとして、曝露前予防策の臨床試験がある。HIV PrEP Impact Trial という臨床試験が、2017 年の 10 月から始まっており 3 年間で 10,000 人の参加者を得て、曝露前予防策に係る様々な課題・疑問に対処する予定である。

6. フランス

フランスの HIV および AIDS 報告数は Institut de Veille Sanitaire のウェブサイト上のデータベースから入手可能である[17]。

2016 年、フランスでは 4,836 人の新規 HIV と 437 人の AIDS が報告されている。これは暫定値であり、報告漏れのケースが加わるので、確定値はこれより多い。この暫定 HIV 報告数のうち、MSM は 1,097 人で 22.7%であるのに対し、異性間性行為による感染は 1,239 人で 25.6%を占めている。ただし、最も割合が高いのは、感染経路不明 (2,4301、50.2%) である。確定値が出た 2014 年の値をみると、全 HIV 新規感染数 5,008 人に対し、MSM は 29.3%、異性間性行為は 37.5%、感染経路不明 31.1%となっている。確定値においても感染経路不明の割合が非常に高いため、正確な流行形態の把握は難しいが、主流は性感染である。

7. ドイツ

ドイツの HIV 感染および AIDS 患者報告数は、Federal Health Monitoring のウェブサイト上の HIV/AIDS データベースから入手可能である[21]。今年度は 2015 年末までのデータが更新されて以来、2016 年分は更新されていない。今回、ECDC (European Centre for Diseases prevention and control) の HIV/AIDS surveillance in Europe に報告されているデータを参照した。

2016 年にドイツ国内で報告された HIV 感染者の数は 3,419 人（男性 2,704 人、女性 710 人）であり、2011 年以降の連続の増加から、ようやく減少に転じた。HIV 感染経路別で詳しくみると、割合として多いのは 50.4%の MSM であるが、どの経路も前年比で減少している。一方で、2014 年の AIDS 報告数は 120 人であり、2009 年以降減少の一途をたどっている。

<性感染症データ収集状況>

1. 米国

性感染症のうち、性器クラミジア、梅毒、淋菌感染症、軟性下疳について、全数報告サーベイラスが実施されている。データは各種性感染症対策プログラムと 50 州およびワシントン DC、主要都市、海外領土の保健当局から CDC 内の NCHHSTP (National Center for HIV/AIDS, Viral Hepatitis, STD and TB Prevention) の DSTDP (Division of STD Prevention) に送付された報告書から収集され、編集されている。各疾患について、性別ごとの年齢階級別報告数および人口 10 万人あたりの発生率の表がある[32]。

2. カナダ

1997 年から 2007 年の性感染症サーベイランスデータは、①州や特別地域から Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC) に報告されたすべての性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、感染性梅毒のケース、② PHAC と州や特別地域の臨床検査機関との協働による Canadian Gonococcal Surveillance、という 2 つのデータソースから成っている。これらはケースごとの報告ではなく、合計数の報告である。

上記、カナダ公衆衛生局 (PHAC) のホームページではクラミジアについては、1991 年から、淋病については 1980 年から、梅毒については 1993 年からのデータが随時アップデートされている。2017 年 5 月に Report on sexually transmitted infections in Canada:2013 - 2014 という報告書が発行され、今回 2013 年と 2014 年分のデータを追加することができた。

3. オーストラリア

2007 年現在、オーストラリアにおいて全数把握対象疾患サーベイランスシステム (National notifiable diseases surveillance system: NNDSS) で報告されている性感染症は、性器クラミジア感染症、鼠径リンパ肉芽種、淋菌感染症、梅毒である。

NNDSS は 1990 年に創設された 50 以上の感染症のサーベイランスシステムである。このスキームのもと、それぞれの管轄区域の公衆衛生法令に基づいて、医師と臨床検査機関から州や特別地域の保健当局に報告される。これらの報告は個人が特定できないような形にされてオーストラリア政府の保健・高齢者担当省に送付される。

2004 年成人の梅毒でカテゴリー変更があり、「感染から 2 年未満の感染性（第 1 期、第 2 期、前期潜伏期）」および「感染から 2 年以上または期間不明」という 2 つのカテゴリーに分けられた。NNDSS 以外では淋菌感染症に関するサーベイランスである Australian Gonococcal Surveillance Programme（1981 年開始）がある[36,37]。

4. 英国

英国では泌尿器科クリニック（genitourinary medicine clinics: GUM）からデータ収集がされてきた。2009 年から、より質の高い STI サーベイランスデータが入手可能になった。これは、近年、イングランドで導入された泌尿器科クリニックアクティビティデータセット（Genitourinary Medicine Clinic Activity Dataset: GUMCAD）を利用するものである。また、GUM だけでなくコミュニティベースのデータも収集されるようになった（GUMCADv2）。2008 年以降、クラミジア、梅毒、淋病の 3 疾患について、GUM とコミュニティベースを合わせたデータが示され、より充実した報告になっている[38]。

本報告書では、表及びグラフでは英国の値を引用したが、本文ではイングランドに言及した。

<性器クラミジア感染症>

1. 米国

2016 年、1,598,354 件のクラミジア感染症が全米から CDC に報告された。人口 10 万人あたりでは 497.3 件で、前年比 4.7% の増加である。2015-2016 の間に、米国のすべての地域のクラミジア発生率は増加した。

クラミジアの発生率が高いのは、定期的なスクリーニングが行われている若い女性層で、検査を受けた者のうち、15-19 歳では 8.0%、20-24 歳では 8.0% が陽性だった。尿による検査が可能になり、男性における検査可能性が広がるにつれ、MSM を含む男性での報告数増加となっている。2016 年の発生率を比べると、エスニックグループ別では黒人やアメリカン・インディアン、アラスカ・ネイティブの間

での感染が高いが、5 年の変化をみると黒人とネイティブアメリカンでは減り、白人、アジア人、ネイティブハワイアン、その他の太平洋州出身者では増えている。

2. カナダ

クラミジアは、カナダにおいて最も報告数が多い性感染症である。2014 年の新規報告数は 109,263 件で、2005 年から 2014 年の経年変化では、人口 10 万人あたり 206.0 件から 307.4 件へと 49.3% 増加した。同変化を男女別でみると、男性は人口 10 万人あたり 140.0 から 230.5 に 64.6% 増加、女性は 2702.5 から 382.5 へ 41.4% 増加した。2014 年の発生率は、全体としては女性が男性の 1.7 倍だが、15-19 歳では女性が男性の 3.8 倍、20-24 歳では約 2 倍、40 歳以上では男性の方が多く、年齢層によって違いがある。2014 年の新規感染報告の 80% は 15-29 歳層であり、若い人々の間で感染が多いことが特徴である。

3. オーストラリア

クラミジアはオーストラリアで最も多く報告される全数把握の疾患で、2016 年は 77,751 件の報告があった。この 2016 年の値には、ヴィクトリアからの報告（通常国内の 23% を占める）が含まれていない。2016 年の報告のうち 75% が 15-29 歳の若年層である。クラミジア感染報告は、2012 年から 2015 年は安定していたが、2015 年から 2016 年は、人口 10 万人あたり 378 から 409 へと 8% 増加した。2016 年の報告数は、男性（364/10 万人）より女性（458/10 万人）の方が多いが、増加率は男性（14%）の方が女性（4%）より高い。

年齢層別では、2016 年報告で最も多いのは 20-24 歳層（1970/10 万人）で、15-19 歳層（1285/10 万人）、25-29 歳層（1116 人/10 万人）が続く。過去 5 年をみると 15-19 歳層では、15% の減少を記録している。アボリジニーやトレス海峡諸島におけるクラミジア感染報告（1194/10 万人）は、オーストラリア本土（419 人/10 万人）の約 2.8 倍であった。

クラミジアと HIV の重感染が報告されている。2016 年、HIV 陽性のゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性におけるクラミジア罹患率は 38/100 人年であり、HIV 陰性のゲイ・バイセクシュアルのクラミジア罹患率 20（/100 人年）に比べ 1.9 倍であった。また、この値は 2012 年に比べて、HIV 陽性者では 17% 増加、HIV 陰性者では 6% 増加していて、HIV 陽性者におけるクラミジア感染の増加が浮き彫りになってい

る。

4. 英国

2016年にイングランドで報告された新規の性感染症は417,584件だが、そのうちクラミジアは202,546件であり、性感染症報告全体の49%を占めた。

国家クラミジアスクリーニングプログラム National Chlamydia Screening Programme(NCSP)は、15～24歳の性的に活

発な若者を対象としており、2016年は140万人を対象に検査が実施された。一人1回検査を受けたと仮定すると、この年齢の若い女性の30%、男性の12%が検査を受けたことになる。この結果、128,098のクラミジア感染が確認され、10万人あたり1,882件の発見率だった。2015年と比べると、検査数は9%、診断数は2%減少した。

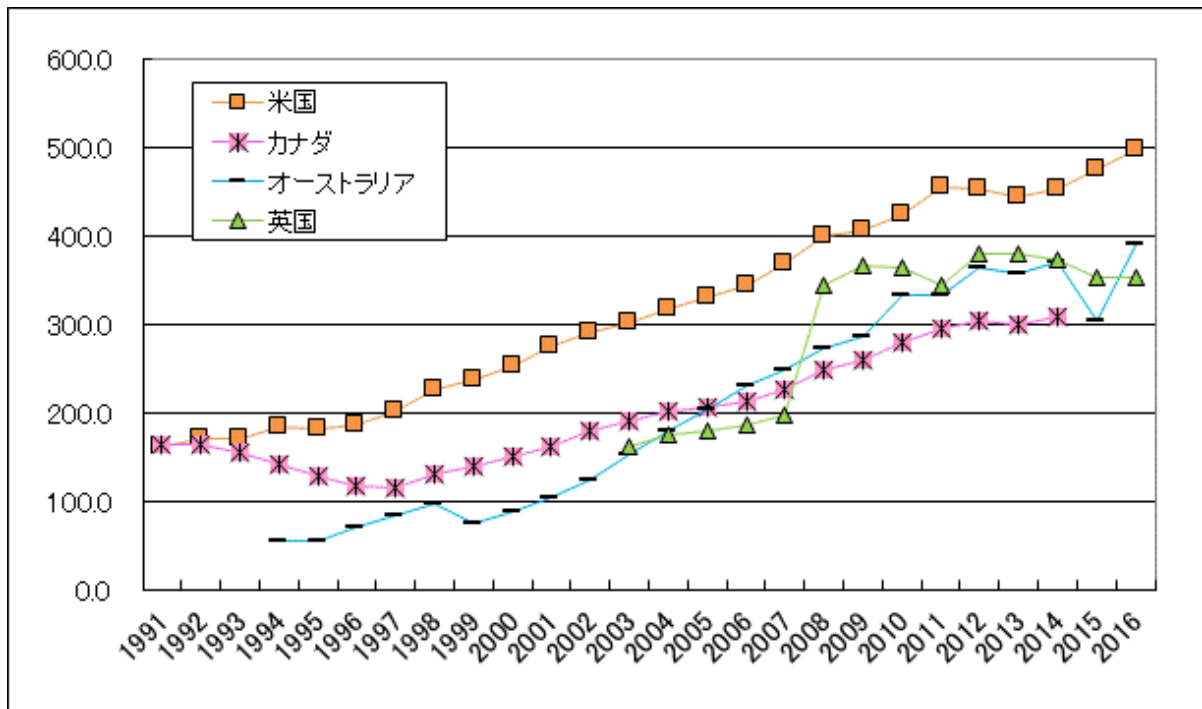


図6. 性器クラミジア感染症 年次推移
(人口10万人あたりの報告件数)

<淋菌感染症>

1. 米国

淋病報告数は、2009年に人口10万人あたり98.1という最低を記録したのち、少しずつ増加し、2016年は468,514件、人口10万人あたり145.8の報告があった。これは、前年比18.5%の大幅な増加である。この増加の勢いは、男性(22.2%増)の方が女性(13.8%増)より大きい。男性における増加の背景には、感染自体が増加したことと、より多くのMSMに対する感染確認が実施されたことの両方によると考えられる。

エスニシティでは、黒人(481.2/10万人)が高く、2012～2016の変化をみると、すべてのエスニックグループで増加した。また、抗菌耐性が多く発生していることは、引き続き淋菌感染症治療における重要課題となっている。

2. カナダ

淋病は、カナダで2番目に報告数が多い性感染症である。2005年から2014年の人口10万人あたりの淋病報告数は28.4から45.8に61.2%増加した。同期間の増加は、女性が55.9%であるのに対して男性は64.2%の増加だった。2014年の人口10万人あたり報告数は、男性が58.8に対し女性が32.9で男性の方が高い。発生率が最も高い年齢層は女性は15～24歳、男性は20～24歳である。

3. オーストラリア

2016年に報告された淋病の件数は23,887件で、全体の73%を男性が占めた。10万人あたりの発生率を2012年から2016年で比べると、全体では62から101へ63%増加、男性は72%、女性は43%増加した。2016年の人口10万人

あたりの報告数は、男性が 146 に対し女性は 56 で男性の方が多い。

年齢層別では、2015 年の値では、男性は 25-29 歳層 (438/10 万人) が最も高く、続いて 20-24 歳層 (383/10 万人) が多い。女性は 20-24 歳層 (199/10 万人) が最も多く、15-20 歳層 (177/10 万人) がそれに続く。

2016 年のアボリジニーとトレス海峡諸島における淋病の報告は、他の地域の 6.8 倍だった。ただし、2012-2016 年の経時変化をみると、この地域では淋病感染報告は 17% 減少した。男女比や年齢層についても、他のオーストラリア地域と異なる流行状況である。

淋病と HIV の重感染も確認されている。2016 年、HIV 陽性のゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性における淋病罹患率は 34 (100 人年) で、HIV 陰性のゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性の淋病罹患率 23 (/100 人年) の 1.5 倍であった。

2012~2016 年の期間に、HIV 感染に関係なく淋病罹患率は増加してきたが 2015 年~2016 年に区切ると安定化傾向である。

4. 英国

2016 年のイングランドにおける淋病の報告数は 36,244 件で、前年の 41,262 件から 12% 減少した。2008 年から 2015 年まで 14,985 件から 41,262 件へと急増した後の初めての減少である。この減少の主要因は MSM において 22% の淋病報告の減少 (22,419 件から 17,584 件へ) による部分が多い。この 2015 年から 2016 年の MSM における淋病報告の減少は、MSM における HIV 新規感染の 23% の減少 (2046 から 1570) と同時に起きている。HIV 検査、ART の開始時期、そして HIV Pre-exposure prophylaxis へのアクセスが影響していると考えられる。

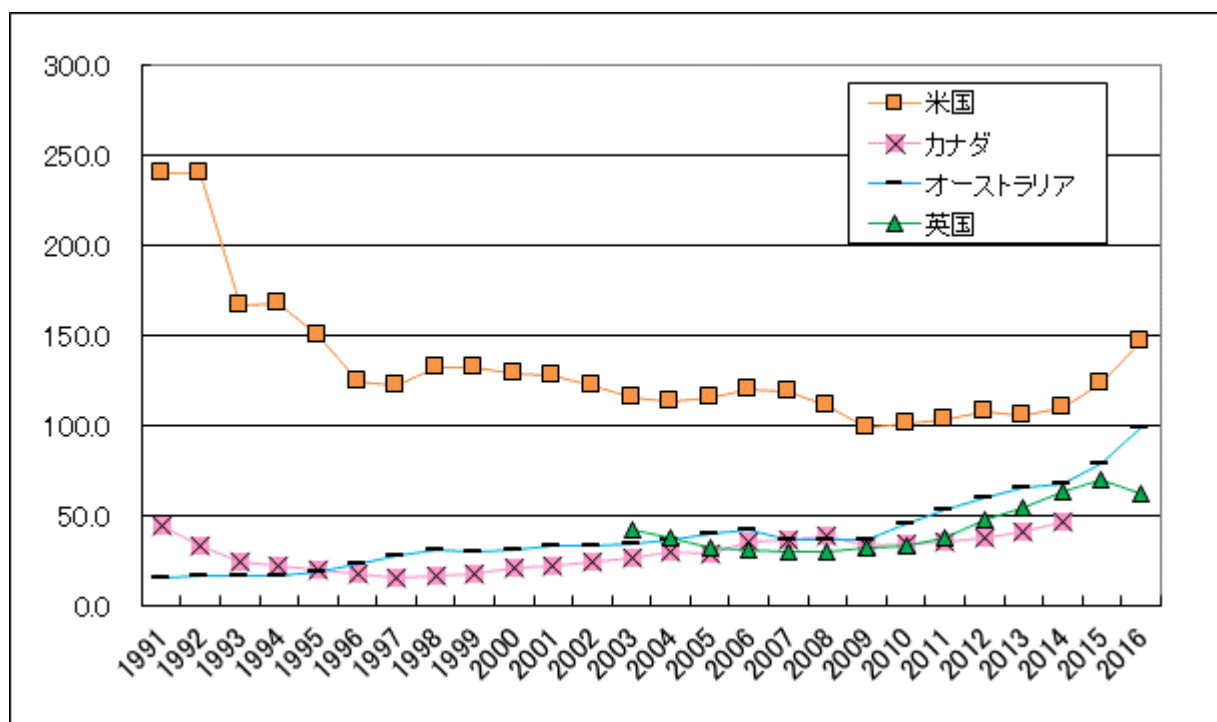


図 7. 淋菌感染症 年次推移 (人口 10 万人あたりの報告件数)

<梅毒>

1. 米国

米国では梅毒は第 1 期と第 2 期という最も感染しやすいステージが報告対象となっている。1990 年代は一貫して減少し続け、2000 年には人口 10 万人あたり発生率 2.1 という史上最低を記録した。しかし、その後ほぼ毎年増加を続け 2016 年には、27,814 件の第 1 期および第 2 期梅毒の報告があり、同発生率は 8.7 だ

った。これは前年比 17.6% の増加である。

年齢層では 20-29 歳、エスニックグループでは黒人 (23.3/10 万人) とネイティブ・ハワイアン/太平洋諸国出身者 (13.9/10 万人) であるが、どのグループも増加している。その増加の主要因は MSM における増加である。2016 年の梅毒報告のうち 90% が男性であり、その性パートナーの性別がわかる人の 80.6% が MSM であった。これら梅毒感染の多くは HIV

にも感染していることが特徴である。梅毒感染と、性パートナーと、HIV 感染の情報がわかるデータをみると、梅毒に感染している MSM の 47.0% が HIV にも感染している。

さらに、梅毒の母子感染増加が危惧されている。2016 年に 492 件の梅毒母子感染が報告された。2014 年の 461 件に比べて 6.0% の増加である。母子感染は黒人で最も多く (43.1/10 万出生)、ついでアメリカンインディアン/アラスカネイティブが多い。

2. カナダ

全体として、梅毒の報告数は極めて少なく、2001 年までは人口 10 万あたり 1 より少なかった。しかし、その後、特に男性において増加し始め 2005 年から 2014 年の人口 10 万人あたりの梅毒報告数は 3.4 から 6.6 に 95.1% 増加した。この間、男性は 115.5% 増加したのに対し、女性 18.2% 減少している。男性の報告数が女性に比べて圧倒的に多く、2014 年の全体報告の 93% は男性であり、人口 10 万人あたりで、男性は 12.5 に対し女性は 0.9 であった。年齢層では、男性は 25-29 歳層で、女性は 20-24 歳層で最も多かった。

3. オーストラリア

2016 年に報告された感染性梅毒 (感染後 2 年以内) の数は 3,367 件であり、そのうち 87% は男性だった。2012 年から 2016 年の 5 年間で、人口 10 万人あたりの梅毒報告数は 6.9 から 14.3 へと 107% 増加した。この増加は男女共におきている。2016 年の人口 10 万人あたりの報告数は、男性 25.0 に対し女性 3.6 だった。

年齢階層別では、25 - 29 歳層 (34/10 万人) で最も多く、30-39 歳層 (29/10 万人)、20-24 歳層 (25/10 万人) が続く。

地域別では、都市部よりも地方での感染報告が多い。2016 年のアボリジニ・トレス諸島における梅毒報告 (67/10 万人) は、他の地域 (12/10 万人) に比べて 5.4 倍だった。2012 から 2016 年の増加率で比べても、アボリジニ・トレス諸島の増加率 (193% : 10 万人あたり 23 から 67 へ) は、他の地域の増加率 (100% : 6.2 から 12.4 へ) より大きかった。2007 年から 2016 年におきた 43 の母子感染のうち、約半数の 24 件がアボリジニ・トレス諸島におけるものであった。

梅毒の HIV との重感染については、性感染症クリニックをおとずれた HIV 陽性のゲイ・バイセクシュアル男性の梅毒罹患率は 5.6 (/100 人年) であり、HIV 陰性のゲイ・バイセクシュアルにおける罹患率 2.5 (/100 人年) の 2.2 倍だった。2012 年から 2016 年の経年変化では、HIV 陽性者・陰性者両方において、梅毒感染は増加している。

4. 英国

英国では基本的に第 1 期、第 2 期が感染性梅毒として扱われている。

イングランドにおける 2016 年の梅毒報告数は、5,920 件であり、これは前年の 5,281 から 12% 増加した。これは 1949 年以来最も多い数である。この増加は 2012 年以來の急増 (97% 増) を踏襲したものであり、MSM における増加と関連が深い。MSM においては、2015 年から 2016 年の間に梅毒が 4,185 件から 4,788 件へと 14% の増加を示している。これは相手の HIV 感染の有無に合わせた性行動 HIV seroadaptive behaviours (例 : 共に HIV 感染者の場合にはコンドームを用いない) が関係するのではないかと考えられている。

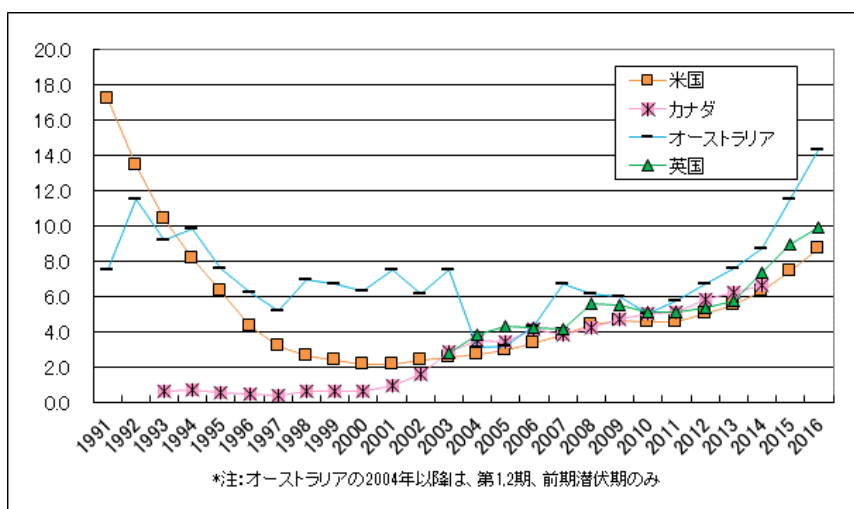


図 8. 感染性梅毒 年次推移 (人口 10 万人あたりの報告件数)

D. まとめと考察

<HIV/AIDSの動向>

日本の HIV 流行に影響を与えると考えられる、米国、カナダ、オーストラリア、英国、フランス、ドイツの HIV および AIDS 報告に関する疫学データの 2016 年分を追加した。

2016 年の年間 AIDS 報告数は、すべての国で減少し、HAART の導入以降の AIDS 報告の減少という最近の傾向を踏襲した。各国とも、報告書において、UNAIDS が 2014 年に提唱した「90-90-90 治療目標」に言及し、達成度と課題点をまとめている。2015 年の WHO の治療ガイドラインに基づいた早期発見、早期治療の推進により、今後さらに各国からの AIDS 報告数は減ることが予想される。

新規の HIV 感染報告は、カナダで増加、オーストラリアとフランスで横ばい、米国、英国、ドイツで減少が認められた。英国における前年比 18% の減少は特筆すべきである。その主因が MSM における新規感染の大幅な減少にあるからである。英国は、この成果は、コンドーム使用による感染予防、HIV 検査機会の拡大、感染者の ART 即時開始、さらに曝露前予防策を組み合わせた複合的予防策の結果であるとしている。MSM における新規感染の増加または高止まりに状態である先進各国にとって、英国から学ぶべき施策は多くありそうである。

米国において補正済値の報告がなくなった点や、各国で報告数だけでなく推計値が算出されている点など、各国の HIV 流行をモニターするサーベイランス方法は、強化・改善されている。本研究では報告数のみを比較してきたが、今後は推計値の比較も可能になるだろう。さらに、UNAIDS の 90-90-90 目標や ART の治療ガイドラインの改訂に基づき、先進各国では、HIV の早期発見、早期治療を具体的にモニターしつつ推進する動きが加速しつつある。これらの情報にも注目し、今後もより正確な経年変化と国比較をする必要があるだろう。

<STDの動向>

日本の HIV 流行に影響を与えると考えられる主要な先進国のうち、性器クラミジア、淋菌感染症、感染性梅毒のデータが揃う 4 カ国の STD 疫学情報を収集し 2016 年データ(カナダは 2014 年まで)を追加した。全体として、各国で STD 報告数および発生率は増加傾向だった中で、英国のクラミジア感染と淋病感染に、減少が認められた。特に、淋病感染の減少は MSM を中心であり、HIV 感染の減少と連動して起きていると考えられる。英国が進める

HIV 複合的予防策の STD 予防に対する効果は非常に興味深い。

性器クラミジアは、各国において最も感染報告が多い STD であり、女性や若者層での感染率が高いことが特徴である。2016 年は、米国は前年比 4.7%、オーストラリアは 8.0% の増加だったのに対し、英国では横ばい傾向だった。スクリーニング検査の導入により、より多くの人々が検査するようになったことも、新規感染報告の増加の背景にはある。

淋菌感染症は、女性より男性における感染が多いのが特徴である。2016 年の米国、オーストラリアおよび 2014 年のカナダは顕著に増加したのに対し、英国では前年比 18% の減少を認めた。MSM における感染の増加が各国共通の課題である。

梅毒は症例の定義が各国で異なるため、直接比較することは難しいが、男性における発生率が女性より大幅に高いことが特徴である。2016 年(カナダは 2014 年)、4 カ国すべてにおいて、前年比大幅な増加が認められた。MSM における増加が顕著である点が各国に共通の課題である。

STD 報告の近年の増加は、検査の拡大やより簡便でかつ感度の高い検査方法の導入、性行動の変化などの複合要因であると考えられている。また、どの STD においても、MSM における HIV との重感染が注目されている。HIV 感染が早期発見と早期 ART 導入よりウイルス量を抑えることができつつある一方で、他の STD 罹患の増加は、無防備な性行動が蔓延していることを示唆するものである。今後も、STD と HIV と併せて複眼的に監視していく必要がある。

さらに、各国の HIV および STD の疫学情報のみならず、よりよいサーベイランスの手法について学び比較検討していくことも進めるべきである。それらは、我が国における HIV/AIDS 流行をモニタリングしていく上で、有用な示唆を与えてくれるだろう。

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表 1. HIV/AIDS 報告数と HIV/AIDS 比 年次推移(1)

		性別	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
米国 (報告年ごと)	HIV	男性	11,177	13,272	10,669	9,520	9,894	13,178	14,444	14,813	24,181	23,876	23,065	23,463	
		女性	3,870	4,637	4,195	3,983	4,362	6,213	6,973	6,887	11,394	11,271	10,236	10,100	
		13歳未満		489	342	266	258								
		不明・その他	266	4	4	2	1		2	2	4	0	0	0	0
		合計	15,313	18,602	15,210	13,771	14,515	19,393	21,419	21,704	35,575	35,147	33,301	33,563	
	AIDS (2008年より Stage3と表記)	男性	89,349	65,484	59,671	54,711	47,312	37,076	35,482	31,588	31,994	32,585	33,320	32,817	
		女性	17,269	14,412	14,096	14,097	13,322	11,190	10,918	10,568	11,164	11,365	11,643	11,920	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	106,618	79,897	73,767	68,808	60,634	48,269	46,400	42,156	43,158	43,950	44,963	44,737	
	合計	男性	100,528	78,756	70,340	64,231	57,206	50,254	49,926	46,401	56,175	56,461	56,385	56,280	
		女性	21,139	19,249	18,291	18,080	17,684	17,403	17,891	17,455	22,558	22,636	21,879	22,020	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他	266	5	4	2	1	5	2	4	0	0	0	0	
合計		121,931	98,499	88,977	82,579	75,149	67,662	67,819	63,860	78,733	79,097	78,264	78,300		
HIV/AIDS比	男性	0.13	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.21	0.36	0.41	0.47	0.76	0.73	0.69	0.71		
	女性	0.22	0.34	0.30	0.28	0.33	0.56	0.64	0.65	1.02	0.99	0.88	0.85		
	不明・その他														
	合計	0.14	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.24	0.40	0.46	0.51	0.82	0.80	0.74	0.75		
	報告州数	26州	27州	28州	29州	30州	32州 + 1準州等	33州 + 1準州等	34州 + 2準州等	35州 + 4準州等	35州 + 4準州等	36州 + 5準州等	37州 + 5準州等		
米国 (補正済) (診断年ごと)	HIV	男性							17,493	22,064	27,635	26,329	24,666	26,814	
		女性							7,491	8,899	11,941	10,849	9,892	10,135	
		13歳未満								187	197	368	294	213	
		不明・その他								3	56	0	0	1	
		州合計								25,174	31,104	39,944	37,472	34,770	
	AIDS (2008年より Stage3と表記)	男性				47,588	38,164	32,703	31,159	28,974	27,908	28,067	28,370	27,545	
		女性				13,217	11,481	10,283	10,010	10,415	10,049	9,959	10,450	10,033	
		13歳未満				515	329	238	187	124	121	106	73	55	
		不明・その他				0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		合計				61,320	49,975	43,225	41,356	39,513	38,079	38,132	38,893	37,633	
	合計	男性				61,320	49,975	43,225	41,356	39,513	38,079	38,132	38,893	37,633	
		女性				13,217	11,481	10,283	10,010	10,415	10,049	9,959	10,450	10,033	
		13歳未満				515	329	238	187	124	121	106	73	55	
		不明・その他				0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
合計					61,320	49,975	43,225	41,356	39,513	38,079	38,132	38,893	37,633		
HIV/AIDS比	男性				0.17	0.21	0.36	0.41	0.47	0.76	0.73	0.69	0.71		
	女性				0.28	0.33	0.56	0.64	0.65	1.02	0.99	0.88	0.85		
	不明・その他														
	合計				0.20	0.24	0.40	0.46	0.51	0.82	0.80	0.74	0.75		
	各年報告書ごとの合計人数の変遷								25,174	25,522	25,643	26,464		38,398	
カナダ	HIV	男性			2,199	1,989	1,944	1,755	1,646	1,566	1,636	1,816	1,828	1,841	
		女性			528	541	517	501	544	493	551	624	633	665	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他			266	201	7	34	6	33	29	19	0	0	
		合計			2,983	2,730	2,460	2,290	2,184	2,092	2,216	2,459	2,461	2,519	
	AIDS	男性	1,641	1,632	1,491	1,043	611	544	466	441	354	350	301	262	
		女性	129	150	146	152	111	103	91	61	72	64	80	62	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他	61	9	19	2	14	5	8						
		合計	1,827	1,791	1,656	1,193	736	652	565	521	445	434	399	325	
	合計	男性			2,680	3,031	2,555	2,299	2,112	2,007	1,990	2,166	2,129	2,103	
		女性			674	693	628	604	635	554	623	688	713	727	
		不明・その他			285	199	13	39	2	33	29	19	0	0	
		合計			4,639	3,923	3,196	2,942	2,749	2,613	2,661	2,893	2,860	2,844	
HIV/AIDS比		男性			1.47	1.91	3.18	3.23	3.53	3.55	4.62	5.19	6.07	7.03	
女性			3.62	3.56	4.66	4.86	5.96	8.08	7.65	9.75	7.91	10.73			
不明・その他															
合計			1.80	2.29	3.34	3.51	3.87	4.02	4.98	5.67	6.17	7.75			
オーストラリア	HIV	男性	975	923	848	823	737	655	643	677	677	761	786	786	
		女性	66	86	72	74	83	94	73	82	96	89	86	126	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他	14	8	4	5	7	4	2	4					
		合計	1,055	1,017	924	902	827	753	718	763	775	855	875	914	
	AIDS	男性	802	905	781	640	363	306	193	241	189	224	227	178	
		女性	40	46	36	33	32	23	22	24	23	20	17	22	
		13歳未満													
		不明・その他	5	4	3	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	847	955	820	673	396	330	216	265	213	246	245	202	
	合計	男性	1,777	1,828	1,629	1,463	1,100	961	836	918	866	985	1,013	964	
		女性	106	132	108	107	115	117	95	106	119	109	103	148	
		不明・その他	19	12	7	5	8	5	3	4					
		合計	1,902	1,972	1,744	1,575	1,223	1,083	934	1,028	988	1,101	1,120	1,112	
HIV/AIDS比		男性	1.22	1.02	1.09	1.29	2.03	2.14	3.33	2.81	3.58	3.40	3.46	4.42	
女性	1.65	1.87	2.00	2.24	2.59	4.09	3.32	3.42	4.17	4.45	5.06	5.73			
不明・その他	2.80	2.00	1.33		7.00	4.00	2.00								
合計	1.25	1.06	1.13	1.34	2.09	2.28	3.32	2.88	3.64	3.48	3.57	4.52			

表 1. HIV/AIDS 報告数と HIV/AIDS 比 年次推移 (2)

		性別	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
米国 (報告数) (報告年ごと)	HIV	男性	24,940	29,569	35,673	37,205	35,535	34,706	33,527	33,226	32,278	32,993	32,765	32,563	
		女性	10,597	10,693	11,273	11,987	10,596	9,859	9,034	8,457	7,860	7,764	7,542	7,639	
		13歳未満	0	209	223	247	215	240	200	240	186	180	135	122	
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	35,537	40,471	47,169	49,434	46,346	44,805	42,761	41,923	40,324	40,927	40,442	40,324	
	AIDS (2008年より Stage3と表記)	男性	31,005	25,551	24,310	23,793	22,917	21,053	19,704	19,045	18,344	14,845	14,150	14,047	
		女性	10,988	9,383	9,092	8,551	7,966	7,113	6,610	6,299	5,850	4,857	4,548	4,323	
		13歳未満	0	40	34	37	14	21	19	11	9	71	40	39	
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	41,993	34,974	33,436	32,381	30,897	28,187	26,333	25,355	24,203	19,773	18,738	18,409	
	合計	男性	55,945	55,120	59,983	60,998	58,452	55,759	53,231	52,271	50,622	47,828	46,915	46,610	
		女性	21,585	20,076	20,365	20,538	18,562	16,972	15,644	14,756	13,710	12,621	12,090	11,962	
		13歳未満	0	249	257	284	229	261	219	251	195	251	175	161	
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
合計		77,530	75,445	80,605	81,815	77,243	72,992	69,094	67,278	64,527	60,700	59,180	58,733		
HIV/AIDS比	男性	0.80	1.16	1.47	1.56	1.55	1.65	1.70	1.74	1.76	2.22	2.32	2.32		
	女性	0.96	1.14	1.24	1.40	1.33	1.39	1.37	1.34	1.34	1.60	1.66	1.77		
	不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	合計	0.85	1.16	1.41	1.53	1.50	1.59	1.62	1.65	1.67	2.07	2.16	2.19		
	報告州数	38州 + 5準州等	40州 + 5準州	46州 + 5準州	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	
米国 (補正済) (診断年ごと)	HIV	男性	26,673	31,078	36,894	37,864	36,438	35,504	34,733	34,853	34,592	36,138			
		女性	9,775	11,244	11,660	12,205	10,873	10,057	9,386	8,869	8,524	8,471			
		13歳未満	192	209	232	247	221	242	200	250	191	176			
		不明	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
		州合計	36,640												
	HIV/AIDS 各年報告書ごと の合計人数の変遷	男性	38,032	38,531	44,084										
		女性	35,634	36,817											
		13歳未満	37,367												
		不明	1												
		総合計	38,032	42,543	48,785	50,316	47,532	45,802	44,320	43,972	43,307	44,784			
	AIDS (2008年より Stage3と表記)	男性	26,525	27,067	25,534	24,386	23,816	21,554	20,268	19,651	19,471	15,920			
		女性	9,548	9,920	9,547	8,755	8,267	7,268	6,784	6,494	6,207	5,293			
		13歳未満	54	42	36	38	15	21	15	10	8	104			
		不明	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
合計		36,127	36,987	35,077	33,178	32,097	28,844	27,067	26,156	25,687	21,318				
AIDS 各年報告書ごと の合計人数の変遷	男性	37,256	36,791	37,041											
	女性	37,662	37,852												
	13歳未満	41,897													
	不明	174													
	総合計	37,256	37,029	35,117	33,178	32,097	28,844	27,067	26,156	25,687	21,318				
合計	男性	53,198	58,145	62,428	62,250	60,254	57,058	55,001	54,504	54,063	52,058				
	女性	19,323	21,164	21,207	20,960	19,140	17,325	16,170	15,363	14,731	13,764				
	13歳未満	246	251	268	285	236	263	215	260	199	280				
	不明	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
	州合計	72,767													
HIV/AIDS比	男性	1.01	1.15	1.44	1.55	1.53	1.65	1.71	1.77	1.78	2.27				
	女性	1.02	1.13	1.22	1.39	1.32	1.38	1.38	1.37	1.37	1.60				
	不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
	合計	1.02	1.15	1.39	1.52	1.48	1.59	1.64	1.68	1.69	2.10				
	準州合計	1,391													
カナダ	HIV	男性	1,837	1,819	1,818	1,938	1,764	1,775	1,733	1,584	1,603	1,548	1,589	1,788	
		女性	637	706	613	680	617	537	540	483	446	497	505	547	
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	2,474	2,535	2,440	2,619	2,391	2,330	2,290	2,073	2,080	2,053	2,100	2,344	
		AIDS	329	308	207	210	148	171	150	138	126	113	86	83	
	合計	男性	2,166	2,127	2,025	2,148	1,953	1,946	1,883	1,722	1,729	1,661	1,675	1,871	
		女性	728	787	658	738	666	577	514	488	488	528	536	578	
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		合計	2,912	2,933	2,693	2,887	2,578	2,529	2,477	2,243	2,229	2,197	2,217	2,458	
		HIV/AIDS比	男性	5.58	5.91	8.78	9.23	11.92	10.38	11.55	11.48	12.72	13.70	18.48	21.54
	オーストラリア	HIV	男性	876	848	841	791	825	797	877	961	922	978	917	920
			女性	97	136	105	110	118	108	102	104	105	104	108	88
			不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			合計	974	987	947	901	945	908	980	1,066	1,030	1,084	1,027	1,013
AIDS			206	198	144	85	77								
合計	男性	1,082	1,046	985	856	902									
	女性	105	157	121	119	149									
	不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0									
	合計	1,187	1,233	1,211	1,106	1,144									
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	4.25	4.28	5.84	12.17	11.81								
女性	3.46	6.48	6.56	12.22	46.33										
不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0										
合計	4.16	4.45	5.88	8.66	11.67										

表 1. HIV/AIDS 報告数と HIV/AIDS 比 年次推移 (3)

		性別	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
英国	HIV	男性	2,137	2,264	2,299	2,265	2,180	2,152	2,250	2,527	3,104	3,612	4,004	4,457	
		女性	534	551	607	635	705	789	1,019	1,438	1,980	2,668	3,223	3,263	
		不明・その他	1	1											
		合計	2,672	2,816	2,906	2,900	2,886	2,942	3,271	3,965	5,084	6,280	7,277	7,720	
	AIDS	男性	1,568	1,645	1,508	1,200	878	619	586	628	532	633	582	604	
		女性	241	232	284	272	225	202	207	263	265	362	455	424	
		不明・その他		0											
		合計	1,809	1,877	1,792	1,472	1,103	821	793	891	797	995	1,037	1,028	
	合計	男性	3,705	3,909	3,807	3,465	3,058	2,771	2,836	3,155	3,636	4,245	4,586	5,061	
		女性	775	783	891	907	930	991	1,226	1,701	2,245	3,030	3,678	3,687	
		不明・その他	1	1											
		合計	4,481	4,693	4,698	4,372	3,989	3,763	4,064	4,856	5,881	7,275	8,314	8,748	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	1.36	1.38	1.52	1.89	2.48	3.48	3.84	4.02	5.83	5.71	6.88	7.38	
		女性	2.22	2.38	2.14	2.33	3.13	3.91	4.92	5.47	7.47	7.37	7.08	7.70	
		不明・その他													
		合計	1.48	1.50	1.62	1.97	2.62	3.58	4.12	4.45	6.38	6.31	7.02	7.51	
フランス	HIV	男性											2,546	2,942	
		女性											1,876	2,074	
		不明・その他													
		合計											4,422	5,008	
	AIDS	男性				3,213	1,806	1,511	1,401	1,270	1,241	1,172	1,073	947	
		女性				831	497	442	448	475	444	486	436	465	
		不明・その他													
		合計				4,044	2,303	1,953	1,849	1,745	1,685	1,662	1,509	1,412	
	合計	男性												3,619	3,889
		女性												2,312	2,074
		不明・その他													
		合計												5,931	6,428
	HIV/AIDS比	男性												2.37	3.11
		女性												4.30	4.46
		不明・その他													
		合計												2.93	3.55
ドイツ	HIV	男性	1,786	1,739	1,700	1,409	1,590	1,448	1,271	1,224	1,078	1,277	1,548	1,741	
		女性	429	433	438	411	443	439	430	432	345	420	398	455	
		不明・その他	145	93	91	51	38	38	45	33	20	22	32	29	
		合計	2,360	2,265	2,229	1,871	2,071	1,925	1,746	1,689	1,443	1,719	1,978	2,225	
	AIDS	男性	1,754	1,850	1,686	1,404	901	793	718	699	582	546	537	576	
		女性	269	256	267	261	215	174	185	135	165	162	136	142	
		不明・その他													
		合計	2,023	2,106	1,953	1,665	1,116	967	903	834	747	708	673	718	
	合計	男性	3,540	3,589	3,386	2,813	2,491	2,241	1,989	1,923	1,660	1,823	2,085	2,317	
		女性	698	689	705	672	658	613	615	567	510	582	534	597	
		不明・その他	145	93	91	51	38	38	45	33	20	22	32	29	
		合計	4,383	4,371	4,182	3,536	3,187	2,892	2,649	2,523	2,190	2,427	2,651	2,943	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	1.02	0.94	1.01	1.00	1.76	1.83	1.77	1.75	1.85	2.34	2.88	3.02	
		女性	1.59	1.69	1.64	1.57	2.06	2.52	2.32	3.20	2.09	2.59	2.93	3.20	
		不明・その他													
		合計	1.17	1.08	1.14	1.12	1.86	1.99	1.93	2.03	1.93	2.43	2.94	3.10	

表 1. HIV/AIDS 報告数と HIV/AIDS 比 年次推移 (4)

		性別	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
英国	HIV	男性	4,662	4,499	4,672	4,571	4,419	4,311	4,390	4,495	4,503	4,627	4,759	3,938	
		女性	3,231	2,940	2,905	2,586	2,164	2,008	1,756	1,709	1,470	1,573	1,527	1,226	
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	7,893	7,439	7,277	7,157	6,583	6,319	6,146	6,204	5,973	6,200	6,286	5,164	
		AIDS	男性	623	421	410	387	339	341	227	252	208	193	282	218
	女性	359	293	211	233	165	178	102	105	65	86	90	60		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	982	714	621	620	504	519	329	357	273	279	372	278		
	合計	男性	5,285	4,920	5,082	4,958	4,758	4,652	4,617	4,747	4,711	4,820	5,041	4,156	
	女性	3,590	3,233	2,816	2,819	2,329	2,186	1,858	1,814	1,535	1,659	1,617	1,286		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	8,875	8,153	7,898	7,777	7,087	6,838	6,475	6,561	6,246	6,479	6,658	5,442		
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	7.48	10.69	11.40	11.81	13.04	12.64	19.34	17.84	21.65	23.97	16.88	18.06	
	女性	9.00	10.03	12.35	11.10	13.12	11.28	17.22	16.28	22.62	18.29	16.97	20.43		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
合計	8.04	10.42	11.72	11.54	13.06	12.18	18.68	17.38	21.88	22.22	16.90	18.58			
フランス	HIV	男性	3,176	3,157	3,194	3,284	3,186	3,222	3,188	3,436	3,318	3,401	3,209	3,253	
		女性	1,995	1,806	1,722	1,717	1,583	1,612	1,590	1,598	1,576	1,607	1,527	1,583	
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		合計	5,171	4,963	4,916	5,001	4,769	4,834	4,778	5,034	4,894	5,008	4,736	4,836	
		AIDS	男性	920	820	702	729	682	677	631	574	511	429	414	294
	女性	443	365	318	342	277	309	230	256	193	206	177	143		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	合計	1,363	1,185	1,020	1,071	959	986	861	830	704	635	591	437		
	合計	男性	4,096	3,977	3,896	4,013	3,868	3,899	3,819	4,010	3,829	3,830	3,623	3,547	
	女性	2,438	2,171	2,040	2,059	1,860	1,921	1,820	1,854	1,769	1,813	1,704	1,726		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	合計	6,534	6,148	5,936	6,072	5,728	5,820	5,639	5,864	5,598	5,643	5,327	5,273		
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	3.45	3.85	4.55	4.50	4.67	4.76	5.05	5.99	6.49	7.93	7.75	11.06	
	女性	4.50	4.95	5.42	5.02	5.71	5.22	6.91	6.24	8.17	7.80	8.63	11.07		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	3.79	4.19	4.82	4.67	4.97	4.90	5.55	6.07	6.95	7.89	8.01	11.07			
ドイツ	HIV	男性	1,976	2,118	2,294	2,336	2,386	2,290	2,241	2,503	2,658	2,842	2,924	2,704	
		女性	481	497	448	462	455	396	416	452	578	656	747	710	
		不明・その他	36	23	23	25	16	10	7	2	2	2	3	0	
		合計	2,493	2,638	2,765	2,823	2,857	2,696	2,664	2,957	3,238	3,500	3,674	3,419	
		AIDS	男性	600	598	531	490	508	423	421	388	334	283	131	96
	女性	136	125	136	100	118	87	81	103	84	51	26	24		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	合計	736	723	667	590	626	510	502	491	418	334	157	120		
	合計	男性	2,576	2,716	2,825	2,826	2,894	2,713	2,662	2,891	2,992	3,125	3,055	2,800	
	女性	617	622	584	562	573	483	497	555	662	707	773	734		
	不明・その他	36	23	23	25	16	10	7	2	2	2	3	0		
	合計	3,229	3,361	3,432	3,413	3,483	3,206	3,166	3,448	3,656	3,834	3,831	3,539		
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	3.29	3.54	4.32	4.77	4.70	5.41	5.32	6.45	7.96	10.04	22.32	28.17	
	女性	3.54	3.98	3.29	4.62	3.86	4.55	5.14	4.39	6.88	12.86	28.73	29.58		
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	3.39	3.65	4.15	4.78	4.56	5.29	5.31	6.02	7.75	10.48	23.40	28.49			

* 出典

英国	●HIV/AIDS	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report (1982 to 2007)/HIV Surveillance Report(2008to2016)
	●HIV	以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/index.html (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
	●AIDS	
カナダ	●HIV	Public Health Agency of Canada. HIV and AIDS in Canada. Surveillance Report to December 31,1999 – December 31, 2014
	●AIDS	HIV in Canada. Surveillance summary tables, 2014-2015 以下のURLより入手可 URL: https://www.canada.ca/en/services/health/publications/diseases-conditions.html#hiv (Last accessed March 31, 2017) CCDR Canada Communicable Disease Report : Volume 43-12, December 7, 2017: Can we eliminate HIV? 以下のURLより入手可 https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/reports-publications/canada-communicable-disease-report-ccdr/monthly-issue/2017-43/ccdr-volume-43-12-december-7-2017.html (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
オーストラリア	●HIV	Kirby Institute. Annual Surveillance Report on HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmissible infections in Australia 2017. 以下のURLより入手可 URL: https://kirby.unsw.edu.au/report/annual-surveillance-report-hiv-viral-hepatitis-and-stis-australia-2017 (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Australian public access dataset on newly diagnosed HIV infection
	●AIDS	以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://kirby.unsw.edu.au/surveillance/Australian-HIV-Public-Access-Dataset (Last accessed March 31, 2017)
英国	●HIV	HIV/STI Department, Public Health England. United Kingdom National HIV Surveillance data tables
	●AIDS	以下のURLより入手可 URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/hiv-annual-data-tables (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Public Health England. Towards elimination of HIV transmission, AIDS and HIV-related deaths in the UK. 2017report 以下のURLより入手可 URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/hiv-in-the-united-kingdom (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
フランス	●HIV	Institut de Veille Sanitaire, Base de données VIH (データベース)ロ 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.invs.sante.fr/surveillance/vih-sida/BDD_vih/index.htm (Last accessed March 31, 2018) 注) 2003年3月からサーベイランスが開始されたため、2003年度は10ヶ月(3月~12月)のデータである。
	●AIDS	Institut de Veille Sanitaire. Base de données sida (データベース) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.invs.sante.fr/surveillance/vih-sida/bdd_sida/index.htm (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
ドイツ	●HIV	HIV positive laboratory cases reported, Robert Koch Institute (Federal Health MonitoringサイトのAd hoc tableより作成) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.gbe-bund.de (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 2016年分は更新されていないためecdcデータから転記 (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
	●AIDS	AIDS new cases, Robert Koch Institute (Federal Health Monitoringサイト上のAd hoc tableより作成) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.gbe-bund.de (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 2016年分は更新されていないためecdcデータから転記 (Last accessed March 31, 2018)

表 2. 人口 10 万人あたりの HIV/AIDS 発生率 年次推移(1)

			1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
日本	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	0.22	0.24	0.22	0.30	0.31	0.33	0.42	0.36	0.49	0.48	0.50	0.61	
AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	0.07	0.11	0.13	0.19	0.20	0.18	0.24	0.26	0.26	0.24	0.26	0.30	
米国	HIV/AIDS 補正済	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	37.60
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.20
		13歳未満	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.50
		合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20.70
	報告州数	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33州
	HIV 補正済	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		13歳未満	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	AIDS 補正済	男性	87.50	63.70	57.40	51.90	44.00	34.10	32.40	28.00	28.10	26.40	26.60	25.60
女性		15.40	12.80	12.40	12.30	11.50	9.60	9.30	8.70	9.10	8.80	9.20	9.00	
13歳未満		1.90	2.00	1.50	1.30	0.90	0.70	0.50	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.10	
合計		40.80	30.50	27.80	25.60	22.30	17.60	16.70	14.70	14.90	14.10	14.50	14.10	
OECD AIDS	合計	40.00	29.80	27.00	25.10	21.70	17.00	16.40	14.30	14.50	14.70	14.80	14.40	
カナダ	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	9.40	8.90	8.20	8.60	9.50	9.50	9.50	
AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	6.37	6.18	5.63	4.03	2.42	2.15	1.84	1.63	1.37	1.31	1.20	1.01		
オーストラリア	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.00	4.20	
AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	4.80	5.30	4.50	3.70	2.10	1.80	1.10	1.40	1.10	1.30	1.20	1.00		
英国	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	4.55	4.67	4.90	5.40	4.87	5.08	5.31	5.50	7.02	9.97	11.57	12.02	
AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	3.08	3.17	3.02	2.45	1.83	1.34	1.28	1.43	1.26	1.52	1.59	1.49		
フランス	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.49	9.06	
AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	9.60	9.98	9.14	6.92	3.91	3.32	3.12	2.86	2.74	2.67	2.39	2.21		
ドイツ	HIV	男性	4.53	4.39	4.28	3.53	3.98	3.62	3.17	3.05	2.68	3.17	3.84	4.31
		女性	1.03	1.03	1.04	0.98	1.05	1.04	1.02	1.03	-	1.00	0.94	1.08
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	2.91	2.78	2.73	2.28	2.52	2.35	2.13	2.06	1.75	2.08	2.40	2.70
	AIDS	男性	4.45	4.67	4.24	3.52	2.25	1.98	1.79	1.74	1.45	1.35	1.33	1.43
		女性	0.64	0.61	0.64	0.62	0.51	0.41	0.44	0.32	0.39	0.38	0.32	0.34
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	2.49	2.59	2.39	2.03	1.36	1.18	1.10	1.01	0.91	0.86	0.82	0.87
OECD AIDS	合計	2.47	2.58	2.35	2.00	1.30	1.13	1.02	0.98	0.91	0.84	0.83	0.87	

表 2. 人口 10 万人あたりの HIV/AIDS 発生率 年次推移 (2)

			2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
日本	HIV	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	0.65	0.74	0.85	0.88	0.80	0.84	0.83	0.79	0.87	0.86	0.79	0.80	
	AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
女性		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
不明		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
合計	0.29	0.32	0.33	0.34	0.34	0.37	0.37	0.35	0.38	0.36	0.34	0.34		
米国	HIV/AIDS 補正済	男性	36.20	33.80	38.80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		女性	12.20	11.50	12.90	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		13歳未満	0.50	0.40	0.40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	19.80	18.50	21.10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		報告州数	33州	33州	34州	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	HIV 補正済	男性	-	32.30	31.50	31.2	29.4	27.4	26.2	25.7	24.8	25.1	24.7	24.4
		女性	-	11.10	9.50	9.6	8.4	7.4	6.7	6.2	5.8	5.6	5.4	5.5
		13歳未満	-	0.50	0.50	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
		合計	-	17.80	16.70	16.7	15.5	14.3	13.5	13.2	12.6	12.7	12.5	12.3
		報告州数	-	40+5	46+5	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6	50+6
AIDS 補正済	男性	24.90	22.20	20.70	19.7	18.9	16.6	15.4	14.8	14.1	11.3	10.7	10.5	
	女性	8.60	7.80	7.40	6.8	6.2	5.3	4.9	4.7	4.3	3.5	3.3	3.1	
	13歳未満	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	
	合計	13.70	12.20	11.50	10.8	10.2	9.0	8.3	8.0	7.6	6.1	5.8	5.6	
	OECD AIDS	合計	13.50	12.70	0.00	0.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
カナダ	HIV	男性	-	11.30	11.7	11.5	10.4	10.3	10.0	9.1	9.1	8.7	8.8	9.8
		女性	-	4.30	3.6	4.0	3.6	3.1	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.8	2.8	3.0
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	9.20	7.80	7.3	7.8	7.0	6.7	6.6	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.8	6.4
	AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
合計	1.08	0.95	0.78	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
オーストラリア	HIV	男性	-	-	8.30	7.60	7.80	7.40	8.00	8.60	8.10	8.40	7.80	7.80
		女性	-	-	1.00	1.10	1.10	1.00	1.00	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.70
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	4.80	4.90	4.60	4.30	4.50	4.20	4.50	4.70	4.50	4.70	4.40	4.20
	AIDS	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
合計	1.10	1.00	0.70	0.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
英国	HIV	男性	-	15.10	15.60	15.20	14.50	14.10	14.20	14.40	14.30	14.60	14.90	12.20
		女性	-	9.50	8.40	8.20	6.80	6.30	5.50	5.30	4.50	4.80	4.60	3.70
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	13.99	12.20	11.90	11.60	10.60	10.10	9.80	9.80	9.30	9.60	9.70	7.90
	AIDS	男性	-	1.80	1.80	1.70	1.40	1.40	0.90	1.00	0.80	0.80	1.00	0.70
女性	-	1.20	0.90	1.00	0.60	0.70	0.40	0.40	0.30	0.40	0.30	0.20		
不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	1.36	1.50	1.30	1.30	1.00	1.00	0.70	0.70	0.50	0.60	0.70	0.50		
フランス	HIV	男性	-	11.70	11.90	12.10	11.60	11.70	11.40	12.10	11.70	12.00	11.00	10.70
		女性	-	6.50	6.10	6.10	5.60	5.60	5.50	5.40	5.40	5.40	5.00	5.00
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	10.07	9.00	8.90	9.00	8.50	8.60	8.30	8.70	8.50	8.60	7.90	7.80
	AIDS	男性	-	2.70	2.30	2.30	2.20	2.20	2.00	1.80	1.60	1.30	1.30	0.90
女性	-	1.10	1.00	1.00	0.80	0.90	0.70	0.80	0.60	0.60	0.50	0.40		
不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	2.10	1.90	1.60	1.70	1.50	1.50	1.30	1.30	1.10	1.00	0.90	0.70		
ドイツ	HIV	男性	4.90	5.25	5.70	5.80	5.90	5.70	5.70	6.40	6.70	7.20	7.40	6.70
		女性	1.14	1.18	1.10	1.10	1.10	0.90	1.00	1.10	1.40	1.60	1.80	1.70
		不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	3.02	3.20	3.40	3.40	3.50	3.30	3.30	3.70	4.00	4.30	4.60	4.20
	AIDS	男性	1.49	1.48	1.30	1.20	1.30	1.10	1.10	1.00	0.90	0.80	0.60	0.20
女性	0.32	0.30	0.30	0.20	0.30	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.10	0.10		
不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
合計	0.89	0.88	0.80	0.70	0.80	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.50	0.50	0.40	0.10		
OECD AIDS	合計	0.77	0.73	0.35	0.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

表 2. 人口 10 万人あたりの HIV/AIDS 発生率 年次推移 (3)

* 出典

日本	●HIV ●AIDS	人口データは、政府統計 長期時系列データより https://www.e-stat.go.jp/stat-search/files?page=1&tokukai=00200524&tstat=00000090001 HIVおよびAIDS報告数は、厚生労働省エイズ動向委員会報告より http://api-netifap.or.jp/status/
米国 (報告数と補 正済)	●HIV/AIDS ●HIV ●AIDS ●OECD AIDS	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report (1982 to 2007)/HIV Surveillance Report(2008to2016) 以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/index.html (Last accessed March 31, 2018.) OECD. OECD HEALTH DATA 2009 以下のURLより入手(有料). URL: http://massetto.sourceoecd.org/vl=1975898/cl=13/nw=1/rpsv/statistic/s37.about.htm?nlissn=99991012 (Last accessed Decembre 16, 2009)
カナダ	●HIV ●AIDS	CCDR Canada Communicable Disease Report : Volume 43-12, December 7, 2017: Can we eliminate HIV? 以下のURLより入手可 https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/reports-publications/canada-communicable-disease-report-ccdr/monthly-issue/2017-43/ccdr-volume-43-12-december-7-2017 (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Public Health Agency of Canada. HIV and AIDS in Canada, Serveillance Report to December 31,1999 - December 31, 2014 HIV in Canada: Surveillance summary tables, 2014-2015 以下のURLより入手可. URL:https://www.canada.ca/en/services/health/publications/diseases-conditions.html#hiv (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 注 1) 15歳以上のデータ 注 2) 人口データ: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, Demographic Estimates Section, July Population Estimates, 2006 Updated Postcensal and Intercensal Estimates 注 3) 2000年以前のNunavutのHIVデータは含まれない。(1999年4月にカナダ領となったため) OECD. OECD HEALTH DATA 2009 以下のURLより入手(有料). URL: http://massetto.sourceoecd.org/vl=1975898/cl=13/nw=1/rpsv/statistic/s37.about.htm?nlissn=99991012 (Last accessed Decembre 16, 2009)
オーストラリア	●HIV ●AIDS	Kirby Institute. Annual Surveillance Reort on HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmissible infections in Australia 2017. 以下のURLより入手可. URL:https://kirby.unsw.edu.au/report/annual-surveillance-report-hiv-viral-hepatitis-and-stis-australia-2017 (Last accessed March 31, 2018) OECD. OECD HEALTH DATA 2009 以下のURLより入手(有料). URL: http://massetto.sourceoecd.org/vl=1975898/cl=13/nw=1/rpsv/statistic/s37.about.htm?nlissn=99991012 (Last accessed Decembre 16, 2009)
英国	●HIV ●AIDS	European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018) European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
フランス	●HIV ●AIDS	European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018) European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
ドイツ	●HIV ●AIDS ●OECD AIDS	European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018) European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO regional office for Europe. HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe 2017-2016data 以下のURLより入手可. URL: https://ecdc.europa.eu/en/infectious-diseases-public-health/hiv-infection-and-aids/surveillance-and-disease-data/annual (Last accessed March 31, 2018) OECD. OECD HEALTH DATA 2009 以下のURLより入手(有料). URL: http://massetto.sourceoecd.org/vl=1975898/cl=13/nw=1/rpsv/statistic/s37.about.htm?nlissn=99991012 (Last accessed Decembre 16, 2009)

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(1)

		性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国 (報告数HIV not AIDS) 報告年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触		667	687	645	574	680	1040	1236	1231	1466	1825	2009	2014
		同性間の性的接触		4822	5239	4442	4053	3985	5163	5763	6302	7674	10991	10466	11601
		薬物使用		2106	2628	1750	1405	1242	1254	1367	1367	1844	2149	2551	2675
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用		605	714	500	466	419	476	656	643	614	738	732	878
		血友病/血液凝固障害		93	62	79	36	30	32	27	23	24	27	48	29
		輸血等		77	58	63	31	25	30	37	54	47	56	26	46
		その他・不明		2807	3884	3190	2955	3513	5036	5243	5087	12230	7880	7003	6015
	合計		11177	13272	10669	9520	9894	13031	14329	14707	23899	23666	22835	23258	
	女性	異性間の性的接触		1292	1433	1454	1390	1491	2242	2506	2448	3071	3925	4036	4090
		薬物使用		993	1256	891	755	663	689	821	855	1097	1253	1355	1267
		血友病/血液凝固障害		3	2	2	4	3	4	2	8	6	7	12	7
		輸血等		66	78	71	45	35	41	45	51	52	54	61	64
		その他・不明		1516	2068	1777	1789	2170	3075	3481	3407	6907	5822	4543	4446
		合計		3870	4837	4195	3983	4362	6051	6855	6769	11133	11061	10007	9874
		男児	血友病/血液凝固障害							4	6	4	8	3	5
	13歳未満	母子感染							119	97	90	205	127	170	160
		輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)							2	1	0	2	1	2	2
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明							22	11	12	67	79	53	39
		合計							147	115	106	282	210	230	205
	女児	血友病/血液凝固障害							2	0	0	1	0	0	0
母子感染								137	100	106	185	146	152	184	
輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)								3	1	0	2	1	2	1	
その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明								20	17	12	73	63	75	41	
合計							162	118	118	261	210	229	226		
子ども計	血友病/血液凝固障害			26	20	3	4	6	6	4	9	3	5	4	
13歳未満	母子感染			406	291	244	225	256	197	196	390	273	322	344	
	輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)			5	6	2	0	5	2	0	4	2	4	3	
	その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明			52	25	17	29	42	28	24	140	142	128	80	
	合計			0	489	342	266	258	309	233	224	543	420	459	431
合計	異性間の性的接触		1959	2120	2099	1964	2171	3282	3742	3680	4537	5750	6045	6104	
同性間の性的接触		4822	5239	4442	4053	3985	5163	5763	6302	7674	10991	10466	11601		
薬物使用		3099	3884	2641	2160	1905	1943	2188	2223	2941	3402	3906	3942		
同性間の性的接触+薬物使用		605	714	500	466	419	476	656	643	614	738	732	878		
血友病/血液凝固障害		96	90	101	43	37	42	35	35	39	37	65	40		
母子感染		0	406	291	244	225	256	197	196	390	273	322	344		
輸血等		143	141	140	78	60	76	84	105	103	112	91	113		
その他・不明		4323	6008	4996	4763	5713	8155	8754	8520	19277	13844	11674	10541		
合計		10724	13083	10556	9274	9060	11547	12898	13408	16841	21723	22086	23453		
報告州数		26州	27州	28州	29州	30州	32州 + 1準州等	33州 + 1準州等	34州 + 2準州等	35州 + 4準州等	35州 + 4準州等	36州 + 5準州等	37州 + 5準州等		
米国 (補正済、 HIV/AIDS) 診断年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触								3237	3876	4938	4657	4269	4167
		同性間の性的接触								9995	13112	16167	16037	15409	17898
		薬物使用								3029	3539	4837	4048	3514	3198
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用								1066	1364	1532	1432	1349	1413
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明								166	172	161	155	125	140
	合計								17493	22064	27635	26329	24666	26814	
	女性	異性間の性的接触								5708	6854	9014	8433	7731	7967
		薬物使用								1651	1884	2769	2269	2027	2065
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明								132	160	158	147	134	103
		合計								7491	8899	11941	10849	9892	10135
	子ども	母子感染								174	175	317	249	190	177
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明								14	22	51	45	23	37
	合計								187	197	368	294	213	214	
	合計	異性間の性的接触								8945	10730	7707	13090	12000	12134
		同性間の性的接触								9995	13112	16167	16037	15409	17898
		薬物使用								4680	5423	7606	6317	5541	5263
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用								1066	1364	1532	1432	1349	1413
		母子感染								174	175	317	249	190	177
		その他・不明								312	354	370	347	282	280
		合計								25174	31104	33699	37472	34770	37164
報告州数									29州	32州	33州	33州	33州	34州	

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (2)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国 (報告数HIV not AIDS) 報告年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触	1895	3143	3381	3624	3219	4224	3894	3598	3439	3334	3274	3138
		同性間の性的接触	12730	16191	20868	21873	21518	26629	26332	26556	26009	26962	26753	26844
		薬物使用	2611	2307	2226	2101	1637	2183	1778	1579	1478	1364	1403	1333
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	876	1070	1388	1344	1208	1617	1476	1434	1306	1280	1288	1210
		血友病/血液凝固障害	29											
		輸血等	30											
	その他・不明	6560	6858	7810	8263	7953	53	47	59	46	44	47	38	
	合計	24731	29569	35673	37205	35535	34706	33527	33226	32278	32983	32765	32563	
	女性	異性間の性的接触	4149	5119	5475	5776	4932	8363	7696	7248	6781	6782	6502	6638
		薬物使用	1293	1135	1125	1186	945	1458	1296	1169	1028	947	1009	952
		血友病/血液凝固障害	13											
		輸血等	41											
		その他・不明	4880	4439	4674	5025	4719	37	43	40	52	35	30	49
		合計	10376	10693	11273	11987	10596	9859	9034	8457	7860	7764	7542	7639
	男児	血友病/血液凝固障害	3											
	13歳未満	母子感染	148											
		輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植 (HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	0											
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	58											
		合計	209											
	女児	血友病/血液凝固障害	0											
母子感染		166												
輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植 (HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)		2												
その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明		53												
合計	221													
子ども計	血友病/血液凝固障害	3												
13歳未満	母子感染	314	177	186	196	175	191	147	173	122	137	100	99	
	輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植 (HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	2												
	その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	111	32	37	46	40	49	53	67	64	43	35	23	
	合計	430	209	223	242	215	240	200	240	186	180	135	122	
合計	異性間の性的接触	6044	8262	8856	9400	8151	12587	11590	10846	10220	10116	9776	9776	
同性間の性的接触	12730	16191	20868	21873	21518	26629	26332	26556	26009	26962	26753	26844		
薬物使用	3904	3442	3351	3287	2582	3641	3074	2748	2506	2311	2412	2285		
同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	876	1070	1388	1344	1208	1617	1476	1434	1306	1280	1288	1210		
血友病/血液凝固障害	45													
母子感染	314	177	186	196	175	191	147	173	122	137	100	99		
輸血等	73													
その他・不明	11551	11329	12521	13334	12712	139	143	166	162	122	112	110		
合計	24416	40471	40327	49434	46346	44805	42761	41923	40324	40927	40442	40324		
報告州数			38州 + 5準州等	40州 + 5準州等	46州 + 5準州等	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域	50州 + 6領域
米国 (補正済、 HIV/AIDS) 診断年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触	3923	4773	4864	5247	4734	4268	4038	3769	3680	3412		
		同性間の性的接触	18333	21156	22458	27582	27350	27335	27291	27909	27956	29771		
		薬物使用	2990	3599	3195	3232	2724	2257	1940	1742	1667	1672		
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	1308	1448	1654	1748	1577	1592	1412	1363	1232	1222		
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	120	102	56	55	53	52	51	69	57	61		
		合計	26673	31078	31927	37864	36438	35504	34733	34853	34592	36138		
	女性	異性間の性的接触	7852	9130	9192	10108	9059	8541	8018	7626	7363	7369		
		薬物使用	1834	2043	1812	2052	1760	1479	1319	1204	1105	1060		
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	90	71	56	45	55	37	49	39	56	42		
		合計	9775	11244	11061	12205	10873	10057	9386	8869	8524	8471		
	子ども	母子感染	162	186	177	199	179	188	148	175	127	128		
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	30	35	36	47	42	54	52	75	64	48		
	合計	192	221	214	247	221	242	200	250	191	176			
	合計	異性間の性的接触	11775	13903	14056	15355	13793	12809	12056	11395	11043	10781		
		同性間の性的接触	18333	21156	22458	27582	27350	27335	27291	27909	27956	29771		
		薬物使用	4824	5642	5007	5284	4484	3736	3259	2946	2772	2732		
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	1308	1448	1654	1748	1577	1592	1412	1363	1232	1222		
		母子感染	162	186	177	199	179	188	148	175	127	128		
		その他・不明	240	208	148	147	150	143	152	183	177	151		
		合計	36640	42543	43202	50316	47532	45802	44320	43972	43307	44784		
報告州数			34州	40州 + 5準州等	40州 + 5準州等	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	50州 + 6準州	

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (3)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
カナダ	男性	同性間の性的接触			679	596	486	433	411	470	417	507	513	582
	15歳以上	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			51	44	36	23	32	27	34	20	29	31
		薬物使用			293	333	310	234	195	194	192	198	167	163
		血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤			17	11	7	0	3	0	0	2	0	0
		b) 輸血					1	3	5	9	3	6	4	5
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤					1	2	2	2	2	0	3	2
		異性間の性的接触												
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触			91	100	19							
		b) HIV流行国出身					4	18	25	20	34	47	47	47
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触					77	87	108	74	93	95	104	84
		d) リスク不明 (異性間の性的接触において)			48	46	55	59	68	59	66	81	86	84
		その他			49	30	26	49	11	21	17	33	38	34
		リスク不明			86	83	79	89	19	12	27	41	34	42
		報告なし			977	835	787	696	719	650	729	762	792	751
		合計			2291	2078	1888	1693	1598	1538	1614	1792	1817	1825
	女性	薬物使用			159	159	126	98	125	97	87	105	76	109
	15歳以上	血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤			11	4	4	2	1	0	2	0	1	1
		b) 輸血					0	7	2	4	2	3	8	5
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		異性間の性的接触												
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触			75	108	28							
		b) HIV流行国出身					1	15	20	26	34	43	51	61
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触					39	77	67	71	85	70	77	90
		d) リスク不明 (異性間の性的接触において)			29	27	59	41	38	34	60	54	69	55
		その他			21	13	17	12	11	11	10	10	18	11
		リスク不明			28	22	15	15	4	10	9	13	18	23
		報告なし			217	208	196	203	248	233	251	317	305	293
		合計			540	541	485	470	516	486	540	615	623	648
	子ども	血液/血液製剤												
	15歳未満	a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤			1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		b) 輸血					0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤					0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
		母子感染			31	38	13	28	16	2	2	7	3	8
		その他			1	1	4	1	1	2	5	2	2	2
		リスク不明			2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	2
		報告なし			24	37	34	25	20	7	6	5	1	9
		合計			59	78	53	55	37	12	13	14	10	21
	合計	同性間の性的接触			680	596	487	434	411	470	417	507	513	582
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			53	44	36	23	32	27	34	20	29	31
		薬物使用			457	498	441	336	320	291	281	303	243	272
		血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤			28	17	14	2	4	0	2	2	1	1
		b) 輸血					1	10	8	13	6	9	12	10
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤					1	2	2	2	2	0	3	2
		異性間の性的接触			246	281	284	300	328	285	372	390	434	418
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触			169	208	48							
		b) HIV流行国出身					5	34	47	47	68	90	98	106
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触					117	166	175	145	178	165	181	174
		d) リスク不明 (異性間の性的接触において)			77	73	114	100	106	93	126	135	155	138
		母子感染			31	38	13	28	16	2	2	7		
		その他			72	44	49	64	24	34	32	45	58	47
		リスク不明			120	109	99	107	24	22	36	54	56	71
		報告なし			1301	1157	1058	950	1005	908	995	1097	1102	1063
		合計			2989	2730	2460	2290	2184	2092	2216	2459	2461	2519

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(4)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
カナダ	男性	同性間の性的接触	542	519	536	593	660	707	668	666	672	669	624	633
	15歳以上	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	21	27	25	21	50	39	36	30	37	39	43	55
		薬物使用	170	149	175	160	187	165	161	129	123	103	131	117
		血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0			
		b) 輸血	5	7	5	6	6	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		異性間の性的接触												
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触												
		b) HIV流行国出身	45	43	34	48	66	67	79	61	47	60	54	66
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	92	87	89	70	78	96	79	65	75	65	51	60
		d) リスク不明（異性間の性的接触において）	77	101	88	100	118	95	78	92	95	78	122	106
		その他	38	53	55	24	4	19	26	37	38	49	26	33
		リスク不明	38	39	55	59	69	51	63	50	32	41	48	69
		報告なし	789	775	736	838	516	520	533	446	480	435	484	640
		合計	7878	1802	1798	1919	1755	1761	1724	1578	1600	1541	1584	1781
	女性	薬物使用	127	109	125	113	129	103	102	86	64	80	94	99
	15歳以上	血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0		0	0
		b) 輸血	5	3	4	3	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		異性間の性的接触												
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触												
		b) HIV流行国出身	55	80	50	55	125	77	80	115	83	76	95	85
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	70	72	69	79	84	90	79	78	74	62	67	67
		d) リスク不明（異性間の性的接触において）	52	63	62	71	76	58	72	41	40	60	55	78
		その他	18	25	19	13	8	12	20	26	36	37	28	33
		リスク不明	26	35	30	29	25	19	25	13	8	20	9	18
		報告なし	263	304	243	304	156	167	154	120	136	156	150	160
		合計	619	692	602	668	604	527	533	480	442	491	498	540
	子ども	血液/血液製剤												
	15歳未満	a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		b) 輸血	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		母子感染	15	9	10	11	10	6	4	0	5	1		
		その他	4	4	2	3	0	2	3	5	6	3		
		リスク不明	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0		
		報告なし	10	6	5	12	10	7	5	11	8	5		
		合計	29	19	18	26	20	16	12	16	21	9		
	合計	同性間の性的接触	541	518	532	557	660	707	668	666	672	669	624	633
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	21	27	25	20	50	39	36	30	37	39	43	55
		薬物使用	298	257	295	236	316	268	263	215	187	185	225	216
		血液/血液製剤												
		a) 輸血/血液凝固因子製剤	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0		0	1
		b) 輸血	10	10	7	8	6	2	2	3	2	2	1	1
		c) 血液凝固因子製剤	2	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		異性間の性的接触	390	439	392	381	547	483	467	452	414	403	444	440
		a) HIV流行国出身/ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触												
		b) HIV流行国出身	99	123	84	98	191	144	159	176	130	136	149	151
		c) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	162	155	155	158	162	186	158	143	149	128	118	127
		d) リスク不明（異性間の性的接触において）	129	161	153	125	194	153	150	133	135	139	177	185
		母子感染					10	6	4	0	5			
		その他	60	87	77	35	12	33	49	68	80	86	54	66
		リスク不明	68	85	99	119	94	71	88	63	42	62	58	87
		報告なし	1073	1098	995	1238	682	694	692	577	624	593	637	803
		合計	2478	2535	2440	2619	2379	2304	2269	2074	2063	2039	2086	2328

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(5)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
オーストラリア	男性	同性間の性的接触	766	723	642	619	551	462	433	481	478	552	594	572	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	36	61	50	34	37	35	44	29	38	33	37	34	
		薬物使用	25	24	30	22	17	17	28	27	34	18	22	25	
		輸血(組織含む)	2	7		1		1							1
		血友病/血液凝固障害			1		1	1	3		1				
		異性間の性的接触	62	53	57	46	50	61	51	62	53	62	58	71	
		母子感染	2	5	3	5	4	3		2	1	1			
		HIV流行国出身	9	15	10	21	19	31	26	27	25	25	18	26	
		その他/不明	73	35	55	75	58	44	58	49	45	67	55	54	
	合計	975	923	848	823	737	655	643	677	675	758	784	783		
	女性	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用													
		薬物使用	6	11	4	4	7	7	6	4	7	2	6	12	
		輸血(組織含む)	1	1	3	1	1	3	2						
		血友病/血液凝固障害													
		異性間の性的接触	45	52	42	47	38	47	45	41	42	50	40	50	
		母子感染	3	5	4	2	3		1	1	3	1	2	1	
		HIV流行国出身	3	11	17	18	30	33	18	33	39	32	34	55	
		その他/不明	8	6	2	2	4	4	1	3	4	5	4	8	
		合計	66	86	72	74	83	94	73	82	95	90	86	126	
トランスジェンダー	同性間の性的接触	3	1	1	2		1	1	4	1	3				
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	5	1			1		1		1		1	1		
	薬物使用											1			
	異性間の性的接触														
	その他/不明														
合計	8	2	1	2	1	1	2	4	2	4	1	1			
性別不明	同性間の性的接触	2	2	1											
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用														
	薬物使用														
	異性間の性的接触						1								
	HIV流行国出身				1										
	その他/不明	4	4	2	2	6	2				1	2	1		
合計	6	6	3	3	6	3					1	2	1		
合計	同性間の性的接触	771	726	644	621	551	463	434	485	479	555	594	572		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	41	62	50	34	38	35	45	29	39	33	38	35		
	薬物使用	31	35	34	26	24	24	34	31	41	21	28	37		
	輸血(組織含む)	3	8	3	2	1	4	2					1		
	血友病/血液凝固障害			1		1	1	3		1					
	異性間の性的接触	107	105	99	93	88	109	96	103	95	112	98	121		
	母子感染	5	10	7	7	7	3	1	3	4	2	2	1		
	HIV流行国出身	12	26	27	40	49	64	44	60	64	57	52	81		
	その他/不明	85	45	59	79	68	50	59	52	49	73	61	63		
	合計	1055	1017	924	902	827	753	718	763	772	853	873	911		
英国	男性	同性間の性的接触	1539	1672	1680	1677	1497	1428	1422	1561	1763	1922	2115	2423	
		異性間の性的接触	360	366	391	390	465	536	645	784	1101	1458	1648	1755	
		薬物使用	158	135	141	132	125	113	86	81	109	100	108	120	
		母子感染	26	39	29	31	51	42	47	59	62	58	81	69	
		輸血/血液製剤	10	12	15	10	16	3	12	12	14	17	16	10	
		そのほか			3	2	1	3	7	3	8	2	5	3	
		不明	44	40	45	25	25	27	31	27	47	55	71	77	
		合計	2137	2264	2304	2267	2180	2152	2250	2527	3104	3612	4044	4457	
		女性	異性間の性的接触	418	450	495	519	595	667	904	1309	1861	2513	3033	3070
	薬物使用		53	51	70	64	54	45	40	41	39	31	57	34	
	母子感染		40	33	27	36	34	49	48	50	51	65	72	91	
	輸血/血液製剤		8	9	9	11	13	7	15	17	10	20	20	19	
	そのほか				2	1	0	3	4	2	1	4	6	6	
	不明		15	8	4	6	9	8	8	19	18	35	45	43	
	合計		534	551	607	637	705	779	1019	1438	1980	2668	3233	3263	
	不明		異性間の性的接触						1	1					
			母子感染		1			1				1			
		不明							1						
	合計	0	1	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	0		
合計	同性間の性的接触	1539	1672	1680	1677	1497	1428	1422	1561	1763	1922	2115	2423		
	異性間の性的接触	778	816	886	909	1060	1203	1550	2093	2962	3971	4681	4825		
	薬物使用	211	186	211	196	179	158	126	122	148	131	165	154		
	母子感染	66	73	56	67	85	91	95	109	113	123	153	160		
	輸血/血液製剤	18	21	24	21	29	10	27	29	24	37	36	29		
	そのほか				3	1	6	11	5	9	6	11	9		
	不明	60	48	49	31	34	35	40	46	65	90	116	120		
	合計	2672	2816	2906	2904	2885	2931	3271	3965	5084	6280	7277	7720		

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(6)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
オーストラリア	男性	同性間の性的接触	636	635	669	624	637	655	773	832	569	591	560		
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	38	37	27	30	30	22	30	33	30	38	39		
		薬物使用	26	18	20	23	21	17	14	22	24	16	21		
		輸血(組織含む)								1	4	3		5	
		血友病/血液凝固障害													
		異性間の性的接触	64	77	95	91	94	96	105	101	83	88	90		
		母子感染	2	3	4	4	2	3	4	3		3			
		HIV流行国出身	25	34	35	48	62	50	26	40	11				
		その他/不明	77	55	60	39	63	55	43	57	35	16	18		
	合計	868	859	910	859	909	898	996	1092	755	752	733			
	女性	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用													
		薬物使用	4	8	8	6	1	7	7	5	1	7	3		
		輸血(組織含む)	1		1	1	1		1	1				3	
		血友病/血液凝固障害													
		異性間の性的接触	46	57	58	56	69	57	63	73	59	69	76		
		母子感染	3	3	5	2	5	3	6	1	2		1		
		HIV流行国出身	35	67	57	62	58	76	61	68	19	2			
		その他/不明	4	10	6	9	5	7	5	11	8	3	3		
		合計	93	145	135	136	139	151	143	159	89	81	87		
トランスジェンダー	同性間の性的接触	1	2									1	2		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用											1			
	薬物使用														
	異性間の性的接触														
	その他/不明		1	1		2	5	1	2	1					
合計	1	3	1		2	5	1	2			2				
性別不明	同性間の性的接触														
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用														
	薬物使用														
	異性間の性的接触														
	HIV流行国出身														
	その他/不明						1	1	2						
合計						1	1	2							
合計	同性間の性的接触	637	637	669	624	637	655	773	832	679	758	563			
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	38	37	27	30	30	22	30	33	43	50	39			
	薬物使用	30	26	28	29	22	24	21	27	26	31	24			
	輸血(組織含む)	1		1	1	1	1	2	5	3	0	8			
	血友病/血液凝固障害									0	0				
	異性間の性的接触	110	134	153	147	163	153	168	174	217	201	166			
	母子感染	5	6	9	6	7	6	10	4	4	3	1			
	HIV流行国出身	60	101	92	110	120	126	87	108						
	その他/不明	81	66	67	48	70	67	49	70	56	38	21			
	合計	962	1007	1046	995	1050	1054	1140	1253	1028	1081	822			
英国	男性	同性間の性的接触	2644	2627	2775	2656	2710	2733	2834	3023	3022	3109	3113	2398	
		異性間の性的接触	1713	1568	1567	1475	1312	1220	1221	1079	1030	997	887	828	
		薬物使用	143	145	131	124	103	105	93	100	93	94	111	78	
		母子感染	69	61	58	56	59	45	54	47	43	49	16	21	
		輸血/血液製剤	15	19	13	18	14	18	13	17	18	23	16	16	
		そのほか	2	6	7	4	8	4	4	2	5	6	4	6	
		不明	76												
		合計	4662	4426	4551	4333	4206	4125	4219	4268	4211	4278	3985	3347	
		女性	異性間の性的接触	3057	2695	2361	2342	1891	1738	1533	1483	1195	1242	1022	898
	薬物使用		43	58	44	39	39	39	30	19	27	45	47	29	
	母子感染		67	103	90	81	92	74	72	55	52	50	34	20	
	輸血/血液製剤		15	19	13	12	10	11	7	8	13	11	18	9	
	そのほか		7	5	3	3	6	4	4	1	6	5	3	5	
	不明		42												
	合計	3231	2880	2511	2477	2038	1866	1646	1566	1293	1353	1227	961		
	不明	異性間の性的接触													
		母子感染													
合計	0	0	0	0											
合計	同性間の性的接触	2644	2627	2775	2656	2710	2733	2834	3023	3022	3109	3113	2398		
	異性間の性的接触	4770	4263	3928	3817	3203	2958	2754	2562	2225	2239	1909	1726		
	薬物使用	186	203	175	163	142	144	123	119	120	139	158	107		
	母子感染	136	164	148	137	151	119	126	102	95	99	50	41		
	輸血/血液製剤	30	38	26	30	24	29	20	25	31	34	34	25		
	そのほか	9	11	10	7	14	8	8	3	11	11	7	11		
	不明	118													
合計	7893	7439	7277	7157	6583	6319	6146	6204	5973	6200	6286	5164			

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(7)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004		
フランス	男性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触											844	1041		
		薬物使用												77	75	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用												5	11	
		血友病/血液凝固障害												1	.	
		異性間の性的接触												973	1030	
		輸血(海外)												3	3	
		輸血(仏国内)												3	4	
		母子感染												17	17	
		その他												4	2	
		不明												619	759	
		合計												2546	2942	
		女性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触													
	薬物使用													22	23	
	異性間の性的接触													1362	1452	
	輸血(海外)													12	10	
	輸血(仏国内)													1	1	
	母子感染													16	19	
	その他													1	7	
	不明													462	562	
	合計													1876	2074	
	合計		同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触												844	1041
			薬物使用												99	98
			同性間の性的接触+薬物使用												5	11
		血友病/血液凝固障害												1	.	
	異性間の性的接触												2335	2482		
	輸血(海外)												15	13		
	輸血(仏国内)												4	5		
	母子感染												33	36		
	その他												5	9		
	不明												1081	1321		
	合計												4422	5016		
ドイツ	男性	同性間の性的接触	656	695	723	722	763	760	646	646	533	699	871	1079		
		薬物使用	172	190	173	122	173	140	136	127	80	75	99	89		
		血友病	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	
		輸血/血液製剤	23	13	8	5	3	1	-	2	2	1	-	-	-	
		職業的暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		異性間の性的接触	129	142	138	141	196	185	187	173	160	184	164	181		
		HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		母子感染	4	2	2	8	6	5	4	6	9	9	11	11		
		不明	800	696	656	411	449	357	298	269	294	309	403	381		
		合計	1786	1739	1700	1409	1590	1448	1271	1224	1078	1277	1548	1741		
		女性	薬物使用	75	80	58	65	66	55	54	38	34	32	40	38	
			血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	輸血/血液製剤		23	5	3	1	3	2	-	1	-	-	-	1		
	職業的暴露		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	異性間の性的接触		169	196	230	223	279	300	318	249	309	295	327			
	HIV流行国出身		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	母子感染		5	4	3	7	1	2	5	12	3	14	6	8		
	不明		157	148	144	115	94	80	70	63	59	65	57	81		
	合計		429	433	438	411	443	439	430	432	345	420	398	455		
	ドイツ		不明	同性間の性的接触	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
				薬物使用	2	12	7	2	6	8	7	5	1	1	1	4
				血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		輸血/血液製剤		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		職業的暴露		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
異性間の性的接触		4		5	3	7	5	15	23	17	12	11	21	8		
HIV流行国出身		-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
母子感染		2		-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	
不明		137		76	81	41	27	15	14	11	7	10	10	17		
合計		145		93	91	51	38	38	45	33	20	22	32	29		
合計		同性間の性的接触		656	695	723	722	763	760	646	646	533	699	871	1079	
		薬物使用		249	282	238	189	245	203	197	170	115	108	140	131	
	血友病	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-			
	輸血/血液製剤	46	18	11	6	6	3	-	3	2	1	-	1			
	職業的暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	異性間の性的接触	302	343	371	371	480	500	511	508	421	504	480	516			
	HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	母子感染	11	6	5	16	7	7	10	18	12	23	17	19			
	不明	1094	920	881	567	570	452	382	343	360	384	470	479			
	合計	2360	2265	2229	1871	2071	1925	1746	1689	1443	1719	1978	2225			

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (8)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
フランス	男性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触	1166	1194	1249	1293	1265	1319	1262	1457	1441	1461	1313	1097
		薬物使用	73	53	51	38	53	45	43	58	40	42	32	22
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	9	4	8	9	6	6	11	12	5	5	6	3
		血友病/血液凝固障害	.	1	1
		異性間の性的接触	1061	909	868	1008	915	838	799	857	817	864	675	565
		輸血(海外)	1	3	1	2	.	2	2	3	2	3	1	4
		輸血(仏国内)	1	1	1	.	.	1
		母子感染	15	7	7	14	9	6	12	17	18	17	16	6
		その他	1	1	.	5	7	2	2	2	1	9	7	3
		不明	846	985	1010	915	931	1004	1057	1029	993	1000	1159	1551
	合計	3173	3157	3194	3284	3186	3222	3188	3436	3318	3401	3209	3253	
	女性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触	1
		薬物使用	14	22	15	9	6	6	6	11	7	10	5	5
		異性間の性的接触	1366	1168	1124	1108	1005	1046	959	1009	1011	1015	819	674
		輸血(海外)	10	5	5	4	6	3	3	3	6	4	5	9
		輸血(仏国内)	.	.	.	1	2	1
		母子感染	16	13	19	9	15	24	15	17	11	18	12	12
		その他	3	.	3	8	4	4	5	3	2	3	6	3
		不明	584	598	556	578	545	529	602	555	539	557	679	879
		合計	1993	1806	1722	1717	1583	1612	1590	1598	1576	1607	1527	1583
合計		同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触	1166	1194	1249	1293	1265	1319	1262	1457	1441	1461	1314	1097
	薬物使用	73	75	66	47	59	51	49	69	47	52	37	27	
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	9	4	8	9	6	6	11	12	5	5	6	3	
	血友病/血液凝固障害	.	1	1	
	異性間の性的接触	1061	2077	1992	2116	1920	1884	1758	1866	1828	1879	1494	1239	
	輸血(海外)	1	8	6	6	6	5	5	6	8	7	6	13	
	輸血(仏国内)	1	.	.	1	2	.	.	1	1	.	.	2	
	母子感染	15	20	26	23	24	30	27	34	29	35	28	18	
	その他	1	1	3	13	11	6	7	5	3	12	13	6	
	不明	846	1583	1566	1493	1476	1533	1659	1584	1532	1557	1838	2430	
	合計	3173	4963	4916	5001	4769	4834	4778	5034	4894	5008	4736	4836	
ドイツ	男性	同性間の性的接触	1252	1388	1558	1575	1646	1585	1461	1698	1728	1894	1851	1724
		薬物使用	97	104	98	84	64	58	57	63	71	84	108	104
		血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		輸血/血液製剤	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
		職業的暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
		異性間の性的接触	186	156	159	150	155	154	189	158	163	270	346	279
		HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		母子感染	11	10	9	8	6	10	7	6	12	13	11	6
		不明	430	460	469	519	515	482	527	578	684	580	608	591
		合計	1976	2118	2294	2336	2386	2290	2241	2503	2658	2842	2924	
	女性	薬物使用	32	41	40	29	24	22	20	17	28	26	26	23
		血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		輸血/血液製剤	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		職業的暴露	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-
		異性間の性的接触	357	366	310	347	345	287	319	323	421	500	607	584
HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
母子感染	12	9	17	8	5	10	8	14	9	12	15	15		
不明	80	80	81	78	81	77	69	98	119	118	98	88		
合計	481	497	448	462	455	396	416	452	578	656	747			
ドイツ	不明	同性間の性的接触	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		薬物使用	5	4	4	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		輸血/血液製剤	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		職業的暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		異性間の性的接触	16	9	9	14	6	3	3	-	-	-	-	1
		HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		母子感染	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		不明	14	10	9	9	7	7	4	2	2	2	2	
		合計	36	23	23	25	16	10	7	2	2	2	3	
合計	同性間の性的接触	1252	1388	1558	1575	1646	1585	1461	1698	1728	1894	1851	1725	
	薬物使用	134	149	142	115	91	80	77	80	99	110	134	127	
	血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	輸血/血液製剤	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	職業的暴露	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	
	異性間の性的接触	559	531	478	511	506	444	511	481	584	770	954	865	
	HIV流行国出身	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	母子感染	24	19	27	16	11	20	15	20	21	25	26	21	
	不明	524	550	559	606	603	566	600	678	805	700	708	681	
	合計	2493	2638	2765	2823	2857	2696	2664	2957	3238	3500	3674	3419	

表 3. HIV 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (9)

* 出典

米国	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report (1982 to 2007)/HIV Surveillance Report(2008to2016) 以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/index.html (Last accessed March 31, 2018.)
カナダ	CCDR Canada Communicable Disease Report : Volume 43-12, December 7, 2017: Can we eliminate HIV? 以下のURLより入手可 https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/reports-publications/canada-communicable-disease-report-ccdr/monthly-issue/2017-43/ccdr-volume-43-12-december-7-2017.html (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Public Health Agency of Canada. HIV and AIDS in Canada, Surveillance Report to December 31,1999 - December 31, 2014 HIV in Canada: Surveillance summary tables, 2014-2015 以下のURLより入手可。 URL: https://www.canada.ca/en/services/health/publications/diseases-conditions.html#hiv (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 注 1) 2歳以下の子どもに関して、検査時に陽性であっても、最終検査で陰性のことがあるため、ケベック州・ニューファンドランド州・ラブラドル州では、2歳以下の陽性ケースを除いている。しかし、残りの多くの州では18ヶ月より幼い子どものHIV感染を確定することが可能なため、上記の州であっても2歳以下の陽性報告が含まれている可能性がある。 注 2) 1985年～1997年では、「輸血」・「血液製剤」間または「HIV流行国」・「ハイスクバートナー」をいつも区別できたわけではないが、報告のために可能なときには区別してある。 注 3) ケベック州とオンタリオ州のデータの一部ではHIV陽性者の感染経路別情報がなく、すべて「報告なし」に含まれている。 注 4) 1985年～1996年では、アルバータ州において、子ども47名のHIV陽性が報告されているが、成人として記録されている上、ジェンダーがわからないので、ジェンダー別の表には含まれておらず、すべて母子感染のため男女合計の表において「その他」に含まれている。 注 5) 男女合計の「報告なし」にはジェンダーが報告されていないまたはトランスジェンダーのHIV陽性者が含まれている。
オーストラリア	Kirby Institute. Annual Surveillance Report on HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmissible infections in Australia 2017. 以下のURLより入手可。 URL: https://kirby.unsw.edu.au/report/annual-surveillance-report-hiv-viral-hepatitis-and-stis-australia-2017 (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Australian public access dataset on newly diagnosed HIV infection 以下のURLより入手可。 URL: http://kirby.unsw.edu.au/surveillance/Australian-HIV-Public-Access-Dataset (Last accessed March 31,2017)
英国	HIV/STI Department, Public Health England. United Kingdom National HIV Surveillance data tables 以下のURLより入手可。 URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/hiv-annual-data-tables (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Public Health England, Towards elimination of HIV transmission, AIDS and HIV-related deaths in the UK 2017report 以下のURLより入手可。 URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/hiv-in-the-united-kingdom (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
フランス	Institut de Veille Sanitaire, Base de données VIH (データベース) □ 以下のURLよりアクセス可。 URL: http://www.invs.sante.fr/surveillance/vih-sida/BDD_vih/index.htm (Last accessed March 31,2018) 注) 2003年3月からサーベイランスが開始されたため、2003年度は10ヶ月(3月～12月)のデータである。
ドイツ	HIV 2003年 positive laboratory cases reported, Robert Koch Institute (Federal Health MonitoringサイトのAd hoc tableより作成) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.gbe-bund.de (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 2016年分は更新されていないためecdcデータから転記 (Last accessed March 31, 2018)

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(1)

		性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国 (報告数) 報告年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触	3380	3009	3035	3496	3105	2610	2858	2549	2762	3213	3371	3373	
		同性間の性的接触	50389	35524	31283	27861	21260	16642	15464	13562	13265	14545	15859	15607	
		薬物使用	21697	16044	14313	12654	10486	7869	7207	5922	5261	5121	4866	4564	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	6651	4234	3783	3269	2374	1984	1806	1548	1502	1510	1695	1696	
		ハイチ出身者													
		血友病/血液凝固障害	1070	483	421	308	184	145	139	93	97	79	74	71	
		輸血/血液製剤等	653	405	352	278	224	156	137	144	105	147	111	90	
		その他・不明	5038	5276	6098	6504	9423	7480	7746	7683	8909	7898	7274	7355	
		合計	88878	64975	59285	54370	47056	36886	35357	31501	31901	32513	33250	32756	
		女性	異性間の性的接触	6413	5575	5696	6030	5007	4125	4281	3981	4142	4740	5234	5278
	薬物使用		8095	5923	5411	4895	4212	3201	2931	2609	2212	2381	2262	2355	
	ハイチ出身者														
	血友病/血液凝固障害		27	25	23	22	17	17	12	3	9	11	11	21	
	輸血/血液製剤等		520	329	287	273	185	137	119	138	113	118	108	106	
	その他・不明		1743	2035	2265	2547	3684	3518	3437	3728	4606	4029	3946	4099	
	合計		16798	13887	13682	13767	13105	10998	10780	10459	11082	11279	11561	11859	
	男の子		血友病/血液凝固障害	19	14	5	4	1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
			13歳未満 母子感染	432	463	353	311	235	172	109	80	79	61	61	51
			輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	16	23	18	5	1	1	2	0	2	2	1	0
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	4	9	10	21	19	17	11	6	12	9	8	10	
合計	471	509	386	341	256	190	125	87	93	72	70	61			
女の子	血友病/血液凝固障害	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	13歳未満 母子感染	454	494	393	310	197	169	123	97	71	78	70	53		
	輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	10	17	8	3	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0		
	その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	6	14	13	16	19	23	15	10	11	8	11	8		
合計	471	525	414	330	217	192	138	109	82	86	82	61			
合計	異性間の性的接触	9793	8585	8731	9526	8112	6736	7139	6530	6904	7953	8605	8651		
	同性間の性的接触	50389	35524	31283	27861	21260	16642	15464	13562	13265	14545	15859	15607		
	薬物使用	29792	21967	19724	17549	14698	11070	10138	8531	7473	7502	7128	6919		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	6651	4234	3783	3269	2374	1984	1806	1548	1502	1510	1695	1696		
	ハイチ出身者	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	血友病/血液凝固障害	1117	522	449	335	202	162	154	97	106	90	85	92		
	母子感染	886	957	746	621	432	341	232	177	150	139	131	104		
	輸血/血液製剤等	1199	774	665	559	411	294	258	284	220	267	221	196		
	その他・不明	6791	7334	8386	9088	13145	11040	11209	11427	13538	11944	11239	11472		
	合計	106618	79897	73767	68808	60634	48269	46400	42156	43158	44963	44737			
	米国 (補正済) 診断年ごと 50州+ワシントンDCのみ 1991-1995年は「AIDS-日和見感染症」で、数値は丸めてある	男性	異性間の性的接触	2550	2950	3450	4596	4285	4033	4243	4162	4293	4547	4140	4204
			同性間の性的接触	28000	29000	28500	26081	20319	17357	16556	15374	15294	15709	16782	16627
			薬物使用	12500	13000	13000	12804	10286	8462	7710	7036	5948	5483	5098	4527
			同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	3650	3700	3650	3479	2812	2466	2323	2102	2104	2075	2129	1964
血友病/血液凝固障害			430	410	380	256	190								
輸血/血液製剤等			320	340	320	281	191								
その他・不明			270	130	140	91	81	384	328	300	269	253	220	222	
合計			48000	49500	49500	47588	38164	32703	31159	28974	27908	28067	28370	27545	
女性		異性間の性的接触	4400	5100	5800	7570	6736	6300	6350	6785	6730	6855	7247	6956	
		薬物使用	4600	4800	4950	5282	4448	3740	3448	3393	3099	2897	3002	2884	
		血友病/血液凝固障害	20	30	40	57	55								
		輸血/血液製剤等	270	300	290	245	178								
		その他・不明	100	70	60	63	64	243	212	220	207	202	193		
		合計	9400	10500	11000	13217	11481	10283	10010	10415	10049	9959	10450	10033	
子ども	母子感染							236	185	122	118	104	66	53	
	13歳未満 その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	890	800	670	515	329	1	3	2	3	2	7	2		
合計	890	800	670	515	329	238	187	124	121	106	73	55			
合計	異性間の性的接触	6950	8050	9250	12166	11021	10333	10593	10947	11023	11402	11387	11160		
	同性間の性的接触	28000	29000	28500	26081	20319	17357	16556	15374	15294	15709	16782	16627		
	薬物使用	17100	17800	17950	18086	14734	12202	11158	10429	9047	8380	8100	7411		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	3650	3700	3650	3479	2812	2466	2323	2102	2104	2075	2129	1964		
	母子感染	0	0	0	0	0	236	185	122	118	104	66	53		
	血友病/血液凝固障害				313	245									
	輸血/血液製剤等				526	369									
	その他・不明	1260	1000	870	669	474	628	543	539	492	462	429	417		
	合計	58000	60500	61500	61320	49975	43225	41356	39513	38079	38132	38893	37633		

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (2)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
米国 (報告数) 報告年ごと	男性	異性間の性的接触	3110	2941	2724	2832	2692	3153	2928	2743	2638	2232	2038	2045	
		同性間の性的接触	14819	13139	12749	12502	12445	14190	13612	13332	13134	10513	10155	10157	
		薬物使用	4168	2986	2559	2273	1911	2158	1759	1652	1424	1229	1057	993	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	1742	1628	1486	1503	1293	1429	1279	1206	1018	791	800	769	
		ハイチ出身者													
		血友病/血液凝固障害	68												
		輸血/血液製剤等	73												
		その他・不明	6976	4857	4792	4683	4576	123	126	112	129	81	101	82	
		合計	30956	25551	24310	23793	22917	21053	19704	19045	18344	14845	14150	14047	
		女性	異性間の性的接触	4918	4745	4579	4340	4062	5507	5168	4994	4659	3896	3675	3478
	薬物使用		2047	1673	1551	1352	1166	1472	1311	1200	1051	869	794	736	
	ハイチ出身者														
	血友病/血液凝固障害		11												
	輸血/血液製剤等		87												
	その他・不明		3881	2965	2962	2859	2738	133	131	105	141	92	79	109	
	合計		10944	9383	9092	8551	7966	7113	6610	6299	5850	4857	4548	4323	
	男の子		血友病/血液凝固障害	0											
			13歳未満	母子感染	45										
				輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	0										
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明		4											
合計	49														
女の子	血友病/血液凝固障害	0													
	13歳未満	母子感染	41												
		輸血、血液製剤投与、および組織の移植(HIV抗体検査が陰性である血液輸血後、AIDS発症した子供)	0												
		その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	3												
合計	44														
合計	異性間の性的接触	8028	7686	7303	7172	6754	8660	8096							
	同性間の性的接触	14819	13139	12749	12502	12445	14190	13612							
	薬物使用	6215	4659	4110	3625	3077	3630	3070							
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	1742	1628	1486	1503	1293	1429	1279							
	ハイチ出身者	0													
	血友病/血液凝固障害	79													
	母子感染	86			32	13	16	12	9						
	輸血/血液製剤等	160													
	その他・不明	10864	7825	7755	7542	7314	256	257							
	合計	41993	34974	33582	32293	30403	27625	25828							
	米国 (補正済) 診断年ごと 50州+ワシントンDCのみ 1991-1995年は「AIDS-日和見感染症」で、数値は丸めてある	男性	異性間の性的接触	3909	4080	4004	3871	3722	3196	3007	2807	2833	2301		
			同性間の性的接触	16172	16665	16680	15506	15669	14570	13988	13792	13926	11394		
			薬物使用	4243	4126	3744	3045	2696	2207	1881	1748	1560	1346		
同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			1972	1994	1841	1801	1602	1460	1263	1185	1017	794			
血友病/血液凝固障害															
輸血/血液製剤等															
その他・不明			230	202	167	162	127	121	130	120	135	85			
合計		26525	27067	26435	24386	23816	21554	20268	19651	19471	15920				
女性		異性間の性的接触	6768	7172	7139	6626	6333	5632	5318	5154	4940	4241			
		薬物使用	2604	2553	2453	2015	1808	1501	1331	1230	1118	944			
		血友病/血液凝固障害													
		輸血/血液製剤等													
		その他・不明	176	195	185	114	126	134	135	111	150	108			
合計		9548	9920	9777	8755	7966	7268	6784	6494	6207	5293				
子ども		母子感染	48	39	30	33	14	15	12	8	8	92			
		13歳未満	その他、リスク要因報告なしまたは不明	5	3	1	5	1	6	3	2	0	12		
合計		54	42	31	38	15	21	15	10	8	104				
合計		異性間の性的接触	10677	11252	11143	10497	10055	8828	8325	7961	7773	6542			
		同性間の性的接触	16172	16665	16680	15506	15669	14570	13988	13792	13926	11394			
		薬物使用	6847	6679	6197	5060	4504	3708	3212	2978	2678	2290			
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	1972	1994	1841	1801	1602	1460	1263	1185	1017	794				
	母子感染	48	39	30	33	14	15	12	8	8	92				
	血友病/血液凝固障害														
	輸血/血液製剤等														
	その他・不明	411	400	353	281	254	261	268	233	285	205				
	合計	36127	37209	36244	33178	32097	28844	27067	26156	25687	21318				

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (3)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
カナダ	男性	同性間の性的接触	1238	1175	1028	627	369	291	223	229	171	157	117	102	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	87	99	81	56	25	23	26	17	17	8	12	17	
		薬物使用	71	91	93	92	82	86	68	72	48	50	52	43	
		血液/血液製剤													
		a) 輸血	10	8	6	10	3	7	2	6	2	2	2	2	
		b) 血液凝固因子製剤	16	21	24	14	8	2	1	2	4	0	1	2	
		異性間の性的接触													
		a) HIV流行国出身	60	44	50	53	35	40	34	28	27	38	26	25	
		b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	65	67	73	47	35	29	18	16	13	14	14	11	
		c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)	16	10	9	12	25	32	33	30	24	22	40	28	
	母子感染													0	
	職業曝露	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0		
	その他				1	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	1		
	リスク不明	54	41	55	18	20	23	40	33	38	49	33	25		
	報告なし								0	0	0	4	5		
	合計			1618	1556	1419	931	604	535	445	433	344	343	301	261
	女性	薬物使用	27	34	31	33	35	45	29	21	11	19	18	17	
		血液/血液製剤													
		a) 輸血	4	5	6	5	3	2	2	0	4	1	2	1	
		b) 血液凝固因子製剤	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
異性間の性的接触															
a) HIV流行国出身		24	32	33	31	23	20	23	15	30	21	23	20		
b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触		47	52	50	48	26	19	11	11	11	11	13	14		
c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)		4	4	9	6	11	7	11	6	10	5	17	6		
職業曝露		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
その他					1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
リスク不明	6	3	1	6	4	5	8	4	5	6	4	3			
報告なし								0	0	0	1	0			
合計			114	131	131	130	103	98	84	57	71	63	78	61	
子ども	15歳未満	血液/血液製剤													
		a) 輸血	1	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		b) 血液凝固因子製剤	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		異性間の性的接触													
		a) HIV流行国出身				0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	
		b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触												0	
		c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)												0	
		母子感染	13	12	23	13	11	5	4	3	2	2	1	2	
		その他				0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		リスク不明	0	3	2	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	
報告なし								0	0	0	0	0			
合計			14	18	28	15	13	5	7	4	3	3	3	2	
合計	同性間の性的接触	1238	1175	1029	627	369	292	224	230	171	157	117	102		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	87	99	81	56	26	23	26	17	17	8	12	17		
	薬物使用	98	125	124	125	117	131	97	93	59	69	70	60		
	血液/血液製剤														
	a) 輸血	15	15	15	16	6	9	4	6	6	3	4	3		
	b) 血液凝固因子製剤	18	23	25	14	9	2	1	2	4	0	1	2		
	異性間の性的接触														
	a) HIV流行国出身	84	76	83	84	58	60	59	43	57	59	50	46		
	b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	112	119	123	95	61	48	29	27	24	25	27	26		
	c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)	20	14	18	18	36	39	44	36	34	27	57	32		
母子感染	13	12	23	13	11	5	4	3	2	2	1	2			
職業曝露	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0			
その他	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	1			
リスク不明	60	47	58	25	26	28	49	38	44	56	38	29			
報告なし								0	0	0	5	4			
合計			1746	1705	1579	1076	721	639	537	495	418	409	382	324	

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(4)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
カナダ	男性	同性間の性的接触	47	45	46	67	41	37	34	34	25	20	9	7	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	8	10	2	4	6	9	1	2	2	2	0	1	
		薬物使用	29	38	35	21	35	45	28	31	18	17	8	6	
		血液/血液製剤													
		a) 輸血	3	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	
		b) 血液凝固因子製剤	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		異性間の性的接触													
		a) HIV流行国出身	6	6	7	10	9	4	6	5	1	3	2	1	
		b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触	15	14	12	8	6	14	12	11	11	11	3	5	
		c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)	15	15	16	15	15	14	9	19	12	15	5	4	
	母子感染	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	職業曝露	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0		
	その他	3	4	3	1	0	0	2	2	0	4	1	0		
	リスク不明	14	10	9	4	4	0	2	4	1	0	2	2		
	報告なし	156	114	127	107	105	89	86	63	84	55	55	56		
	合計			296	256	257	238	224	214	182	172	154	129	86	82
	女性	薬物使用	18	16	16	20	19	21	11	14	10	9	14	8	
		血液/血液製剤													
		a) 輸血	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		b) 血液凝固因子製剤	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
異性間の性的接触															
a) HIV流行国出身		4	7	2	3	0	1	4	3	2	1	2	2		
b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触		9	7	5	4	5	2	3	7	8	3	3	3		
c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)		4	6	3	4	9	5	9	2	10	7	1	3		
職業曝露		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
その他		1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0		
リスク不明	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1			
報告なし	41	31	21	39	24	19	13	8	21	20	9	14			
合計			79	69	50	72	57	49	40	36	52	41	31		
子ども 15歳未満	血液/血液製剤														
	a) 輸血	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	b) 血液凝固因子製剤	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	異性間の性的接触														
	a) HIV流行国出身	0	1	0	0	0									
	b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触		0	0	0	0									
	c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)		0	0	0	1									
	母子感染	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0				
	その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			
	リスク不明	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
報告なし	5	2	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	0					
合計			5	4	2	2	1	3	0	1	1	1			
合計	同性間の性的接触		45	43	42	55	41	37	34	34	25	20	9	7	
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用		9	9	2	4	6	9	1	2	2	2	0	1	
	薬物使用		48	53	45	61	54	66	39	45	28	26	22	14	
	血液/血液製剤														
	a) 輸血		3	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	
	b) 血液凝固因子製剤		2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	異性間の性的接触														
	a) HIV流行国出身		8	14	9	12	9	5	10	8	3	4	4	3	
	b) ハイリスクパートナーとの性的接触		22	16	17	9	11	16	15	18	19	14	6	8	
	c) リスク不明(異性間の性的接触において)		21	23	19	16	24	19	18	21	22	22	6	7	
	母子感染		0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
	職業曝露		0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	
	その他		4	4	4	1	0	1	2	3	1	6	2	0	
	リスク不明		16	13	9	6	4	0	2	5	2	0	3	3	
	報告なし		175	135	110	125	130	110	99	72	105	75	64	70	
合計			353	311	259	253	282	266	222	209	207	171	117	113	

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(5)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
オーストラリア	男性	同性間の性的接触	662	770	637	514	285	212	129	171	141	167	150	116	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	58	48	48	39	13	11	12	16	9	15	16	18	
		薬物使用	18	19	21	17	11	17	7	11	5	8	12	10	
		輸血(組織含む)	3	5	3	2		2						1	2
		血友病/血液凝固障害	10	10	15	7	4	1	1	3	2	2	1	1	
		異性間の性的接触	23	21	27	26	22	32	17	18	18	18	18	29	15
		母子感染		3	1			2			1				
		HIV流行国出身	3	5	3	6	9	11	9	7	6	5	2	4	
		その他/不明	25	24	26	29	19	18	18	15	8	9	16	10	
	合計	802	905	781	640	363	306	193	241	190	224	227	176		
	女性	同性間の性的接触													
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			1										
		薬物使用	9	10	8	5	7	6	4	4	3	1	3	2	
		輸血(組織含む)	5	4	3	4	1	2	1	1	1	1			
		血友病/血液凝固障害	1												
異性間の性的接触		25	24	18	17	15	7	10	12	8	11	10	5		
母子感染			3	3		2			1	2		1			
HIV流行国出身			3	2	4	6	7	6	5	8	5	2	13		
その他/不明			2	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2		
合計	40	46	36	33	32	23	22	24	23	20	17	22			
トランス・ジェンダー	同性間の性的接触		4	2			1	1			1		1		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	5				1					1	1			
	薬物使用									1					
	HIV流行国出身														
	その他/不明			1									1		
合計	5	4	3		1	1	1		1	2	1	2			
合計	同性間の性的接触	662	774	639	514	285	213	130	171	141	168	150	117		
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	63	48	49	39	14	11	12	16	9	16	17	18		
	薬物使用	27	29	29	22	18	23	11	15	9	9	15	12		
	輸血(組織含む)	8	9	6	6	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	2		
	血友病/血液凝固障害	11	10	15	7	4	1	1	3	2	2	1	1		
	異性間の性的接触	48	45	45	43	37	39	27	30	26	29	39	20		
	母子感染		6	4		2	2		1	3		1			
	HIV流行国出身	3	8	5	10	15	18	15	12	14	10	4	17		
	その他	25	26	28	32	20	19	19	16	9	11	17	13		
	合計	847	955	820	673	396	330	216	265	214	246	245	200		
英国	男性	同性間の性的接触	1208	1238	1120	863	579	372	330	328	222	230	212	191	
		薬物使用	105	91	114	89	56	36	26	33	21	27	17	19	
		異性間の性的接触	155	181	181	176	173	156	170	184	211	276	259	280	
		輸血等	73	88	50	30	17	13	14	9	3	5	7	3	
		母子感染	21	22	20	20	36	21	19	28	28	21	23	14	
		不明	6	16	13	11	7	6	14	11	14	7	12	10	
		合計	1568	1636	1498	1189	868	604	573	593	499	566	530	517	
	女性	薬物使用	54	49	42	34	21	10	6	9	3	3(3-4)	8	5	
		異性間の性的接触	154	153	213	217	168	153	162	208	224	311	383	343	
		輸血等	10	4	7	3	7	5	5	5	2	3(3-4)	7	5	
母子感染		22	23	21	17	22	26	18	25	16	17	18	24		
不明	1	0	1	0	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	0			
合計	241	229	284	271	219	196	193	247	245	336	417	377			
合計	同性間の性的接触	1208	1238	1120	863	579	372	330	328	222	230	212	191		
	薬物使用	159	140	156	123	77	46	32	42	24	30(30-31)	25	24		
	異性間の性的接触	309	334	394	393	341	309	332	392	435	587	642	623		
	輸血等	83	92	57	33	24	18	19	14	5	8(8-9)	14	8		
	母子感染	43	45	41	37	58	47	37	53	44	38	41	38		
	不明	7	16	14	11	8	8	16	11	14	8	13	10		
	合計	1809	1865	1782	1460	1087	800	766	840	744	902	947	894		

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(6)

	性別	感染経路	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
オーストラリア	男性	同性間の性的接触	133	114	92	58	47							
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	20	16	10	2	6							
		薬物使用	10	10	1	1	2							
		輸血(組織含む)	1	1	2	0	0							
		血友病/血液凝固障害			1	1	0							
		異性間の性的接触	16	30	11	24	12							
		母子感染	1			2	0							
		HIV流行国出身	6	9	5									
		その他/不明	15	13	15	7	10							
	合計		202	193	137	95	77							
	女性	同性間の性的接触												
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用												
		薬物使用	5		1	0	0							
		輸血(組織含む)	1	1		0	0							
		血友病/血液凝固障害				0	0							
		異性間の性的接触	12	8	9	8	10							
		母子感染				1	2							
		HIV流行国出身	10	9	5									
		その他/不明		2		0	1							
	合計		28	20	15	9	13							
	トランス・ジェンダー	同性間の性的接触			3									
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用												
		薬物使用												
HIV流行国出身														
その他/不明				1										
合計			3	1										
合計	同性間の性的接触		133	117	92	58	47							
	同性間の性的接触+薬物使用		20	16	10	2	6							
	薬物使用		15	10	2	1	2							
	輸血(組織含む)		2	2	2	0	0							
	血友病/血液凝固障害				1	1	0							
	異性間の性的接触		28	38	20	32	22							
	母子感染		1			3	2							
	HIV流行国出身		16	18	10									
	その他		15	15	16	7	11							
	合計		230	216	153	104	90							
英国	男性	同性間の性的接触	196	193	193									
		薬物使用	19	12	19									
		異性間の性的接触	275	205	179									
		輸血等	3	2	1									
		母子感染	12	11	10									
		不明	6	16	22									
		合計		511	439	424								
	女性	薬物使用	5	6	2(1-3)									
		異性間の性的接触	286	270	203									
		輸血等	2	9	2(1-3)									
		母子感染	14	12	11									
		不明	1	3	3									
		合計		308	300	221								
合計	同性間の性的接触		196	193	193									
	薬物使用		24	18	20(2-22)									
	異性間の性的接触		561	475	382									
	輸血等		5	11	3(2-4)									
	母子感染		26	23	21									
	不明		7	19	25									
	合計		819	739	645									

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(7)

	性別	感染経路	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004		
フランス	男性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触			2082	1485	788	591	550	495	416	401	396	303		
		薬物使用			984	740	328	274	218	190	210	154	135	122		
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			47	30	10	12	7	4	6	3	8	7		
		血友病/血液凝固障害			46	32	9	7	6	6	5	4	2	1		
		異性間の性的接触			703	635	468	434	428	403	447	446	399	389		
		輸血(海外)												4	1	
		輸血(仏国内)			44	29	14	8	12	4	6	6	6	4	2	
		母子感染			30	20	9	5	5	3	4	8	6	6	3	
		その他													1	1
		不明					285	242	180	180	175	165	147	150	118	118
	合計					4221	3213	1806	1511	1401	1270	1241	1172	1073	947	
	女性	薬物使用				342	236	102	85	95	58	50	53	42	49	
		血友病/血液凝固障害				4	1	1	1	.	1	.	1	.	.	
		異性間の性的接触				591	506	339	306	311	372	347	388	355	367	
		輸血(海外)												1	4	
		輸血(仏国内)				55	22	21	10	8	7	2	4	3	3	
		母子感染				29	13	8	3	4	3	3	2	3	7	
		その他													.	
		不明				72	53	26	37	30	34	42	38	32	35	
		合計				1093	831	497	442	448	475	444	486	436	465	
合計			同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触			2082	1485	788	591	550	495	416	401	396	303	
		薬物使用			1326	976	430	359	313	248	260	207	177	171		
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用			47	30	10	12	7	4	6	3	8	7		
		血友病/血液凝固障害			46	32	10	8	6	7	5	5	2	1		
		異性間の性的接触			1294	1141	807	740	739	775	794	834	754	756		
		輸血(海外)											5	5		
		輸血(仏国内)			99	51	35	18	20	11	8	10	7	5		
		母子感染			59	33	17	8	9	6	7	10	9	10		
		その他											1	1		
		不明			357	295	206	217	205	199	189	188	150	153		
		合計			5314	4044	2303	1953	1849	1745	1685	1658	1509	1412		
ドイツ	男性	同性間の性的接触	1344	1354	1215	952	589	476	462	431	351	318	311	354		
		薬物使用	197	224	209	164	114	102	67	103	64	53	66	50		
		血友病	45	46	41	40	8	7	9	3	6	2	3	1		
		輸血/血液製剤	14	9	6	-	1	3	-	1	1	-	1	1		
		職業暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
		異性間の性的接触	23	45	52	48	49	44	37	37	55	54	38	46		
		HIV流行国出身	30	35	38	52	41	60	36	37	29	34	41	37		
		母子感染	4	3	1	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	2		
		不明	97	134	124	147	97	101	105	87	76	85	77	85		
		合計	1754	1850	1686	1404	901	793	718	699	582	546	537	576		
	女性	薬物使用	123	125	131	94	63	39	48	33	42	35	24	29		
		血友病	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
		輸血/血液製剤	30	11	8	4	3	1	-	-	-	-	-			
		職業暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
		異性間の性的接触	46	58	61	65	55	54	45	32	37	33	32	33		
HIV流行国出身	27	24	27	60	51	53	51	46	61	75	54	61				
母子感染	7	-	5	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	-				
不明	36	38	35	38	41	25	41	22	25	19	26	19				
合計	269	256	267	261	215	174	185	135	165	162	136	142				
ドイツ	合計	同性間の性的接触	1344	1354	1215	952	589	476	462	431	351	318	311	354		
		薬物使用	320	349	340	258	177	141	115	136	106	88	90	79		
		血友病	45	46	41	40	8	7	9	3	6	2	3	1		
		輸血/血液製剤	44	20	14	4	4	4	-	1	1	-	1	1		
		職業暴露	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		異性間の性的接触	69	103	113	113	104	98	82	69	92	87	70	79		
		HIV流行国出身	57	59	65	112	92	113	87	83	90	109	95	98		
		母子感染	11	3	6	1	4	2	2	2	-	-	-	2		
		不明	133	172	159	185	138	126	146	109	101	104	103	104		
		合計	2023	2106	1953	1665	1116	967	903	834	747	708	673	718		

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移(8)

表4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
フランス	男性	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触	326	286	242	258	256	251	234	192	200	151	155	113	
		薬物使用	93	74	56	54	43	45	50	32	30	21	23	9	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	10	6	5	3	8	1	7	3	1		1		
		血友病/血液凝固障害	3	1			1	2		1					
		異性間の性的接触	359	317	293	329	286	272	250	276	211	190	181	133	
		輸血(海外)		1	2	1				2	1				
		輸血(仏国内)	2	3		1		2		1					
		母子感染	5	5	3	5	4	1	4	5	6	1	3	3	
		その他		3		1	1			1					
		不明	125	124	101	77	83	103	86	61	62	66	51	36	
		合計	923	820	702	729	682	677	631	574	511	429	414	294	
		女性	薬物使用	36	32	31	31	13	15	11	13	9	5	6	7
			血友病/血液凝固障害												
			異性間の性的接触	364	294	254	268	228	260	194	216	164	151	112	
			輸血(海外)	7	1		3	1			1	2	1	1	
			輸血(仏国内)				3	1	1	1			1	1	
			母子感染	5	1	5	4	6	4	6	4	1	2		
			その他		1			2	1	1					
			不明	34	36	28	33	26	28	19	19	14	19	22	
	合計	446	365	318	342	277	309	230	256	193	206	177	143		
	合計	同性間(バイセクシュアル含)の性的接触	326	286	242	258	256	251	234	192	200	151	155	113	
		薬物使用	129	106	87	85	56	60	61	45	39	26	29	16	
		同性間の性的接触+薬物使用	10	6	5	3	8	1	7	3	1		1		
		血友病/血液凝固障害	3	1			1	2		1					
		異性間の性的接触	723	611	547	597	514	532	444	492	375	370	245		
		輸血(海外)	7	2	2	4	1			3	3	1	1		
		輸血(仏国内)	2	3		4	1	3	1	2			1		
		母子感染	10	6	8	9	10	5	8	11	10	2	5		
		その他		4		1	3	1	1	1					
		不明	159	160	129	110	109	131	105	80	76	85	67		
	合計	1369	1185	1020	1071	959	986	861	830	704	635	591	437		
ドイツ	男性	同性間の性的接触	335	343	317	273	280	253	216	215	192	155	76	56	
		薬物使用	47	56	42	40	29	23	36	26	24	14	6	3	
		血友病	3		1	2	4	1		1					
		輸血/血液製剤	1												
		職業暴露													
		異性間の性的接触	103	108	88	71	76	61	89	60	58	61	25	22	
		HIV流行国出身													
		母子感染	2		1				1						
		不明	95	91	82	104	119	85	79	86	60	53	24	15	
		合計	586	598	531	490	508	423	421	388	334	283	131		
		女性	薬物使用	13	26	20	14	17	12	5	14	6	3	2	2
			血友病		1										
			輸血/血液製剤												
			職業暴露												
		異性間の性的接触	93	83	92	74	77	55	61	71	61	39	18	14	
		HIV流行国出身													
		母子感染		1	1			1	2	2	1	1			
		不明	23	14	23	12	24	19	13	16	16	8	6	8	
	合計	129	125	136	100	118	87	81	103	84	51	26			
ドイツ	合計	同性間の性的接触	335	343	317	273	280	253	216	215	192	155	76	56	
		薬物使用	60	82	62	54	46	35	41	40	30	17	8	5	
		血友病	3	1	1	2	4	1		1					
		輸血/血液製剤	1												
		職業暴露													
		異性間の性的接触	196	191	180	145	153	116	150	131	119	100	43	36	
		HIV流行国出身													
		母子感染	2	1	2			1	3	2	1	1			
		不明	118	105	105	116	143	104	92	102	76	61	30	23	
	合計	715	723	667	590	626	510	502	491	418	334	157	120		

表 4. AIDS 感染経路別報告数 年次推移 (9)

* 出典

米国	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report (1982 to 2007)/HIV Surveillance Report(2008to2015) 以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/index.html (Last accessed March 31, 2017)
カナダ	Public Health Agency of Canada. HIV and AIDS in Canada, Surveillance Report to December 31,1999 – December 31, 2014 At a Glance-HIV and AIDS in Canada: Surveillance Report to December 31st, 2010-2013 以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/aids-sida/publication/index-eng.php#er (Last accessed March 31, 2015) 注 1) 2003年6月30日よりケベック州のAIDSデータが入手不可能なため含まれていない。 注 2) オンタリオ州のAIDS報告システムが最近変更され、2005年度後半より感染経路が入手できなくなった。よって、これらのケースに関しては「報告なし」に含まれている。 注 3) 男女合計の「報告なし」にはジェンダーが報告されていないまたはトランスジェンダーのHIV陽性者が含まれている。
オーストラリア	National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical ResearchのWebサイトより2009年までのHIVデータセットと2008年までのAIDSデータセットをダウンロードのち、MS Excelにて集計 以下のURLより入手可 URL: http://www.nchechr.unsw.edu.au/NCHECRweb.nsf/page/Annual+Surveillance+Reports (Last accessed December 16, 2009)
英国	Health Protection Agency. HIV and AIDS New Diagnoses Database 以下のURLより入手可の申請書によりデータ入手 URL: http://www.hpa.org.uk/web/HPAwebFile/HPAweb_C/1204276681340 (Last accessed January 24, 2009)
フランス	Institut de Veille Sanitaire. Base de données sida (データベース) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.invs.sante.fr/surveillance/vih-sida/bdd_sida/index.htm (Last accessed March 31, 2018)
ドイツ	AIDS new cases, Robert Koch Institute (Federal Health Monitoringサイト上のAd hoc tableより作成) 以下のURLよりアクセス可 URL: http://www.gbe-bund.de (Last accessed March 31, 2017) 2016年分は更新されていないためecdcデータから転記 (Last accessed March 31, 2018)

表 5. HIV/AIDS 年齢層別報告数 年次推移 (3)

		2008				2009				2010							
		男性	女性	TG	不明	合計	男性	女性	TG	不明	合計	男性	女性	TG	不明	合計	
米国 (報告数) 報告年ごと	HIV/AIDS (2006年データよりHIVのみ)	≤19	≤19			2,464					2,415					2,397	
		20-24	20-29			13,381					13,312					13,607	
		25-34	30-39			12,551					11,490					10,816	
		35-44	40-49			12,773					11,388					10,358	
		45-54	50-59			6,160					5,872					5,705	
		55-64	60+			2,105					1,869					1,922	
		65+	不明														
	合計	合計			49,434					46,346					44,805		
	報告州数	報告州数			50+6					50+6					50+6		
	AIDS	≤19	≤19			553					495					530	
		20-24	20-29			4,944					5,109					4,923	
		25-34	30-39			8,885					8,093					7,152	
		35-44	40-49			10,775					9,956					8,813	
		45-54	50-59			5,432					5,509					5,038	
		55-64	60+			1,792					1,735					1,731	
		65+	不明														
	合計	合計			32,381					30,897					28,187		
米国 (補正済) 診断年ごと	HIV/AIDS (2006年データよりHIVのみ)	≤19				2,503					2,469					2,433	
		20-29				13,600					13,625					13,944	
		30-39				12,767					11,780					11,028	
		40-49				13,011					11,691					10,577	
		50-59				6,283					6,040					5,853	
		60+				2,152					1,928					1,969	
		不明															
	合計				50,316					47,532					45,802		
	報告州数				50+6					50+6					50+6		
	AIDS	≤19				567					514					536	
		20-29				5,068					5,308					5,046	
		30-39				9,108					8,409					7,315	
		40-49				11,043					10,350					9,022	
		50-59				5,562					5,717					5,157	
		60+				1,831					1,799					1,767	
		不明															
	合計				33,178					32,097					28,844		
カナダ	HIV	≤19		42	46	1	89	28	40		65	23	24			47	
		20-29		373	165	7	545	372	158		530	366	133			523	
		30-39		540	241	6	787	492	221		715	522	190			719	
		40-49		615	168	5	788	575	137		716	507	104			612	
		50+		337	60	2	399	295	61		357	331	84			418	
		不明		4	3		8	15	2		5	6	2			12	
		合計		1,911	683	29	2,623	1,764	617		2,391	1,775	537			2,330	
	AIDS	≤19		0	3		3	3	2		5	0	2			2	
		20-29		16	6		22	6	4		10	14	4			18	
		30-39		56	26		82	42	14		56	36	8			44	
		40-49		84	16		100	67	16		83	73	7			80	
		50-59		40	7		47	23	1		24	34	4			38	
		60+		14	1		15	8	2		10	14	3			17	
		不明		0	0		0	0	0		0	0	0			0	
	合計		210	58		268	148	39		187	171	28			199		
	オーストラリア	HIV	≤19		12	58		20	13	13		26	16	6			22
			20-29		220	48		268	222	45		267	210	57			267
30-39				276	57		333	305	53		358	277	61			338	
40-49				234	22		256	232	22		254	245	17			262	
50-59				89	7		96	115	10		125	105	9			114	
60+				39	2		41	31	3		34	47	2			49	
不明				0	0		0	0	0		0	0	0			0	
合計			870	144		1,014	918	146		1,066	900	152			1,057		
AIDS		≤19															
		20-29															
		30-39															
		40-49															
		50-59															
		60+															
		不明															
合計																	
英国		HIV	≤19	<15	44	51		95	44	49		93	29	48			77
	20-29		15-24	455	314		769	448	257		705	456	225			681	
	30-39		25-34	1,508	1,045		2,553	1,368	816		2,184	1,347	713			2,060	
	40-49		35-49	2,001	947		2,948	1,933	830		2,763	1,864	792			2,656	
	50+		50-64	502	204		706	547	194		741	530	207			737	
	65+		65+	61	25		86	79	18		97	85	23			108	
	不明																
	合計		4,571	2,586		7,157	4,419	2,164		6,583	4,311	2,008			6,319		
	AIDS	≤19															
		20-29															
		30-39															
		40-49															
		50+															
		不明															
		合計															
	フランス	HIV	≤19		71	70		141	46	72		118	64	83			147
			20-29		610	471		1,081	611	429		1,040	687	409			1,096
30-39				1,078	594		1,672	1,047	553		1,600	1,034	524			1,558	
40-49				931	339		1,270	875	294		1,169	799	340			1,139	
50-59				411	155		566	418	170		588	435	173			608	
60+				183	88		271	189	65		254	203	83			286	
不明																	
合計			3,284	1,717		5,001	3,186	1,583		4,769	3,222	1,612			4,834		
AIDS		≤19		5	5		10	4	10		14	2	6			8	
		20-29		50	46		96	44	30		74	65	42			107	
		30-39		194	105		299	182	111		293	166	104			270	
		40-49		289	119		408	258	76		334	222	86			308	
		50-59		122	39		161	125	37		162	145	46			191	
		60+		69	28		97	69	13		82	77	25			102	
		不明															
合計			729	342		1,071	682	277		959	677	309			986		
ドイツ		HIV	≤19		43	22		66	40	18		58	50	24			74
	20-29			529	155		684	592	142		5	739	551	134		4	689
	30-39			755	140		895	712	145		6	863	697	105		2	904
	40-49			686	96		782	703	92		4	799	664	85		4	753
	50-59			204	34		238	229	36		1	266	214	38			252
	60+			91	12		103	89	22		1	100	8				108
	不明			28	3		31	21	14		2	21	14	2			18
	合計		2,336	162		2,500	2,366	455		16	2,857	2,290	396		10	2,696	
	AIDS	≤19															
		20-29		51	19		70	28	22		50	33	9			42	
		30-39		147	33		180	152	38		190	105	28			133	
		40-49		189	36		225	214	39		253	179	34			213	
		50-59		65	10		75	74	13		87	78	9			87	
		60+		38	2		40	40	6		46	28	6			34	
		不明															
	合計		490	100		590	508	118		626	423	87			510		

表 5. HIV/AIDS 年齢層別報告数 年次推移 (5)

		2014					2015				2016					
		男性	女性	TG	不明	合計	男性	女性	TG	不明	合計	男性	女性	TG	不明	合計
米国 (報告数) 報告年ごと	HIV/AIDS (2006年データよりHIVのみ)	≤19				1,972					1,889					1,810
		20-24				14,739					15,002					14,878
		25-34				9,865					9,839					10,078
		35-44				7,552					6,859					6,605
		45-54				4,939					4,962					4,980
		55-64				1,860					1,891					1,973
		65+				不明										
		合計					40,927					40,442				
	AIDS	報告州数														
		≤19				279					240					263
		20-24				3,731					3,699					3,704
		25-34				4,899					4,710					4,752
		35-44				5,268					4,693					4,271
		45-54				3,970					3,811					3,726
		55-64				1,626					1,585					1,693
		合計				19,773					18,738					18,409
	米国 (修正済) 診断年ごと	報告州数														
カナダ	HIV	≤19				47	26	26			52	34	27		61	
		20-29				438	401	115			518	405	120		526	
		30-39				648	416	157			573	495	174		672	
		40-49				468	347	107			454	396	115		514	
		50+				450	399	100			501	457	111		568	
		不明				2	0	0			2	0	0		3	
		合計	1,547	497		2,053	1,589	505			2,100	1,787	547		2,344	
		AIDS	≤19	1	2		3	1	1			2	5	0		5
	20-29		11	6		17	8	6			14	9	6		15	
	30-39		25	13		38	17	15			32	20	7		27	
	40-49		38	7		45	27	6			33	19	8		27	
	50+		24	3		27	21	3			24	21	8		29	
	60+	14	0		14	12	0			12	10	2		12		
不明	0	1		1	0	0			0	0	0		0			
合計	113	31		144	86	31			117	83	31		114			
オーストラリア	HIV	≤19		11	2		13	11	6		17					
		20-29		229	23		252	221	22		244					
		30-39		237	33	1	271	218	32		250					
		40-49		149	16	1	166	151	10		162					
		50-59		81	5		86	88	12		100					
		60+		45	2		47	44	5		49					
		不明														
	合計	752	81	2	835	733	87	2		822						
	AIDS	≤19														
		20-29														
30-39																
40-49																
英国	HIV	≤19					12	22			38	14	13		27	
		20-29					588	165			755	426	120		546	
		30-39					1,601	447			2,094	1,273	317		1,590	
		40-49					1,646	626			2,353	1,504	526		2,030	
		50+					652	251			859	590	204		794	
		65+					148	62			187	131	46		177	
		不明														
		合計	4,627	1,573		6,200	4,759	1,527			6,286	3,938	1,226		5,164	
		AIDS	≤19													
			20-29													
	30-39															
40-49																
50+																
60+																
不明																
合計																
フランス	HIV	≤19				92	77			159	76	60		136		
		20-29				743	319			1,064	762	350		1,112		
		30-39				987	575			1,453	916	548		1,464		
		40-49				839	325			1,111	795	335		1,130		
		50-59				521	211			624	507	206		713		
		60+				219	100			325	197	84		281		
		不明														
		合計	3,401	1,607		5,008	3,209	1,527		4,736	3,253	1,583		4,836		
	AIDS	≤19					2	5			6	2	0		2	
		20-29					27	20			71	16	23		39	
		30-39					102	73			137	52	34		86	
		40-49					134	56			183	100	54		154	
50-59					111	30			125	80	25		105			
60+					53	22			69	44	7		51			
不明																
合計	429	206		635	414	177		591	294	143		437				
ドイツ	HIV	≤19				53	26			87	63	36		99		
		20-29				734	182			916	710	224		836		
		30-39				804	273			1,077	919	287		1,076		
		40-49				744	97		2	843	682	109		772		
		50-59				356	58			414	407	67		621		
		60+				138	19			157	138	27		185		
		不明				10	1			11	14					
		合計	2,842	656	2	3,500	2,924	747	3	3,674	2,704	710	2	3,419		
	AIDS	≤19					3	3								
		20-29					27	9			36	10	4		14	
		30-39					53	18			71	36	9		45	
		40-49					111	10			121	44	11		55	
		50-59					62	6			68	28	2		30	
60+					27	8			35	13			13			
不明																
合計	283	51		334	131	26		157								

表 6. OECD 各国 AIDS 10 万人あたり発生率 年次推移

0	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
オーストラリア	4.8	5.3	4.5	3.7	2.1	1.8	1.1	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.2	1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.3					
オーストリア	3.3	2.5	3.1	2.4	1.8	2	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.8		
ベルギー	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.5	1	1	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7			
カナダ	6.4	6.2	5.7	4.1	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.7			
チリ	2.6	2.9	2.8	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.2	3	2.5	3.6	4.2	5.3	4.2	6	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.9	4.6	
チェコ共和国	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3		
デンマーク	4.6	4.5	4.1	3	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.3	0.8	0.7	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7		
エストニア	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.7	2	2.2	2.5	4.3	4.6	2.9	1.9	2.9	2.7	1.8	1.5	1.5	3.1	
フィンランド	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	
フランス	9.4	9.8	9	6.8	3.9	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.2	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.6		
ドイツ	2.5	2.6	2.4	2	1.4	1.2	1.1	1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.2		
ギリシャ	1.6	2.1	2	2.2	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	1	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1			
ハンガリー	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4		
アイスランド	2.7	2.3	1.5	1.1	0.4	0.7	0	0.4	0.4	0	0.3	1	0.3	1	0	0.6	0	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0	0		
アイルランド	2.1	2.1	1.5	1.5	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.9	1	1.1	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.6		
イスラエル	1	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.5	0.9	1	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.4		
イタリア	8.5	9.7	9.9	8.9	5.9	4.3	3.8	3.4	3.2	3.1	3	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.3	2	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.3		
日本	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3		
韓国	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4		
ラトビア														5.3	4	3.7	4.7	4.7	6.2	5.4	6.9	6.6	8.5	6.6	
ルクセンブルグ	3.8	2.7	4.4	3.4	3.4	2.1	3	2.8	2.1	1.1	1.3	3.3	2.4	1.9	2.3	1.9	0.8	1.6	2.3	1.5	2	1.6	1.4		
メキシコ	4.9	5.4	5.9	6.2	6.3	6.9	8.9	9.7	10.1	10	9.7	10.1	10.3	10.9	9.9	9.6	9.4	9.8	9.5	10.2	9.6	8.8	10	7.5	
オランダ	3.2	3.2	3.5	3	2.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.2	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.3	0.9			
ニュージーランド	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.7	1	0.8	1	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	
ノルウェイ	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.3	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.4		
ポーランド	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3		
ポルトガル	5.7	7	8.3	9.9	10.2	10.6	11.5	10.4	10.2	10.3	9.3	9	9.5	8.7	7.9	7.9	6.8	6.9	5.8	5.5	4.5	2.9	2.3		
スロヴェニア共和国	0	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		
スロベニア	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.5		
スペイン	14.1	19.1	18.3	17.1	12.6	9.4	7.9	7.3	6.2	5.7	5.5	4.9	4.3	4	3.7	3.4	3.1	2.8	2.4	2.3	1.8	1.5	1.5		
スウェーデン	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.5	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.7										
スイス	9.8	9.9	8.8	7.5	5.2	3.9	4	3.1	3.1	2.9	3	2.6	2.2	2.3	2.1	2	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.3	0.8	0.5			
トルコ	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2		
英国	3.2	3.3	3.1	2.5	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7		
米国	29.4	26.8	25.4	22.2	17.9	15.3	14.5	14.1	13.5	13.4	13.5	12.9	12.1	11.4	11	10.7	10.2	9	8.4	8	7.6	6.2			
非OECD諸国/リトアニア														0.3	0.8	0.8	1.7	1.2	1.1	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.2	

* 出典 : OECD Health Statistics 2016

以下の URL より入手可, http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT (Last accessed March 31, 2018)

各国の出典については、OECD Health Statistics 2016 Definitions, Sources and Methods/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) PDF による

注) 国によっては数年の報告遅れがあることもあり、データは暫定的であることに留意のこと。

表 7. OECD 各国 AIDS 報告件数 年次推移

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
オーストラリア	845	953	811	670	395	329	216	265	213	246	245	202	232	221	161	104	90	124	115	75
オーストリア	261	196	245	189	146	162	152	144	121	115	105	106	96	99	109	99	92	84	77	94	66	79	70	..
ベルギー	254	262	255	218	134	130	124	148	143	143	137	128	156	105	105	119	121	102	86	90	78	84
カナダ	1838	1805	1676	1216	753	674	585	545	457	459	392	357	434	398	371	367	296	276	234	223	226	188
チリ	359	411	410	472	458	477	527	506	526	524	538	517	489	416	601	706	877	701	1028	933	974	1017	1065	836
チェコ共和国	15	12	13	19	20	8	17	15	8	8	9	13	13	18	23	30	23	26	26	32	30	24	33	..
デンマーク	239	236	213	159	109	74	76	59	71	45	40	61	44	51	32	40	36	44	59	41	38	29	40	..
エストニア	1	1	4	7	3	4	2	3	2	4	10	27	30	34	57	61	38	25	39	36	24	20	19	41
フィンランド	25	21	40	32	19	17	11	16	19	21	24	20	26	26	33	27	23	32	25	19	20	20	18	..
フランス	5534	5779	5326	4055	2307	1954	1851	1748	1688	1662	1503	1416	1371	1186	1019	1065	956	982	854	826	693	603	388	..
ドイツ	2025	2109	1949	1666	1117	967	900	834	759	714	680	745	736	723	667	590	626	510	502	491	418	334	157	..
ギリシャ	171	216	216	236	174	125	131	132	93	99	98	88	104	90	93	109	103	101	122	137	118	119
ハンガリー	32	23	31	46	31	36	37	27	20	26	26	23	33	22	23	23	28	32	48	42	51	43
アイスランド	7	6	4	3	1	2	0	1	1	0	1	3	1	3	0	2	0	1	2	1	2	1	0	0
アイルランド	75	76	53	55	30	21	26	13	26	35	39	44	42	42	35	36	35	38	47	38	29	42	29	..
イスラエル	55	51	73	62	65	73	55	70	69	86	77	36	61	71	49	53	52	38	55	46	38	64	36	..
イタリア	4803	5510	5653	5053	3382	2444	2141	1953	1822	1768	1730	1641	1531	1454	1405	1341	1205	1147	1052	1073	1069	913	789	..
日本	86	136	169	234	250	231	301	329	332	308	336	385	367	406	418	431	431	469	473	447	484	455	428	..
韓国	6	11	14	22	33	35	34	32	42	88	62	79	67	75	103	70	213	214	273	201	192	265	202	..
ラトビア	119	90	81	103	101	132	112	142	133	171	132	..
ルクセンブルグ	15	11	18	14	14	9	13	12	9	5	6	15	11	9	11	9	4	8	12	8	11	9	8	..
メキシコ	4521	5066	5568	5914	6123	6756	8866	8689	8608	8485	8359	8384	8701	8818	7913	7467	7076	7231	6241	6405	6362	5521	5696	4112
オランダ	482	494	534	459	339	238	240	249	266	291	300	290	357	285	298	278	271	286	229	256	220	157
ニュージーランド	54	47	65	63	37	29	39	26	30	20	36	44	38	28	28	38	23	33	22	21	19	12	9	19
ノルウェイ	63	74	67	56	35	36	31	35	33	34	53	36	32	32	9	18	18	22	19	25	28	45	22	..
ポーランド	71	101	115	114	127	130	138	126	133	124	145	176	151	167	142	180	131	173	184	157	162	148	107	..
ポルトガル	571	698	832	999	1023	1071	1168	1058	1048	1061	968	927	995	918	835	838	714	730	616	583	471	301	238	..
スロヴェニア共和国	1	4	1	0	5	3	2	5	5	2	2	2	3	4	6	1	4	2	4	7	6	4	8	..
スロベニア	6	6	15	8	2	13	8	7	5	3	6	10	10	5	9	11	18	7	15	11	11	16	11	..
スペイン	5525	7494	7195	6759	4971	3737	3166	2929	2525	2371	2313	2092	1876	1753	1646	1549	1424	1273	1130	1052	818	630	497	..
スウェーデン	182	188	196	135	76	60	69	61	50	62	53	66	46	55	62
スイス	685	698	622	529	368	281	289	220	223	214	223	219	196	161	176	163	154	164	129	94	101	68	44	..
トルコ	29	34	34	37	38	29	28	46	40	48	52	55	32	30	30	55	67	60	80	95	96	125	118	..
米国	1825	1879	1799	1471	1101	817	783	886	793	995	1035	1017	980	891	845	830	659	670	423	435	354	362	432	..
米OECD加盟/リトアニア	75886	69628	66803	58893	47957	41201	39459	39746	38577	38550	39065	37806	35753	33895	32981	32455	31915	28187	26377	25372	24202	19883
非OECD加盟/リトアニア	10	27	27	54	37	33	21	38	44	37	35	..

* 出典 : OECD Health Statistics 2016

以下の URL より入手可, http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT (Last accessed March 31, 2018)

各国の出典については、OECD Health Statistics 2016 Definitions, Sources and Methods/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) PDF による

注) 国によっては数年の報告遅れがあることもあり、データは暫定的であることに留意のこと。

表 8. 主要性感染症報告数 年次推移 (1)

		性別	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
クラミジア (件数)	米国	男性	50,902	53,461	66,173	59,784	88,167	104,912	120,468	137,233	157,623	180,039	190,723	210,935
		女性	299,592	321,126	386,263	307,058	446,607	503,578	538,243	564,106	625,504	654,464	686,755	718,527
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		合計	407,965	451,752	480,421	366,842	534,774	608,490	658,711	701,339	783,127	834,503	877,478	929,462
	カナダ	男性	10,621	10,006	9,085	8,317	8,714	11,041	12,287	13,539	15,242	17,451	19,010	20,855
		女性	33,379	31,176	28,451	26,062	25,406	27,956	29,813	32,868	34,728	38,776	40,943	43,143
		不明・その他	22	53	15	20	24	37	41	32	107	39	30	40
		合計	44,022	41,235	37,551	34,399	34,144	39,034	42,141	46,439	50,077	56,266	59,983	64,038
	オーストラリア	男性	1,850	1,984	2,820	3,513	4,534	5,525	6,806	8,102	9,884	12,312	14,549	
		女性	4,500	4,386	5,511	6,549	7,311	8,520	10,091	12,147	14,454	18,002	21,425	
		不明・その他	78	28	15	20	11	18	23	16	21	76	193	
		合計	6,428	6,398	8,346	10,082	11,856	14,063	16,920	20,285	24,359	30,390	36,167	
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症 クリニックのみ。2008 年から全クリニック モニタリング)</small>	男性のうちMSM						21,064	24,435	29,390	32,871	38,119	42,589	47,993	
	女性						27,662	32,556	37,783	42,345	48,008	52,008	55,144	
	不明・その他							690	1,018	1,431	1,552	2,004	2,115	
	合計						48,726	56,991	67,173	75,216	86,127	94,597	103,137	
梅毒 (件数)	米国 第1期&第2期	男性	13,942	10,666	8,729	5,997	4,660	3,918	3,833	3,528	4,132	5,268	5,959	6,721
		女性	12,410	9,952	7,774	5,368	3,888	3,100	2,780	2,445	1,968	1,594	1,218	1,254
		不明・その他												
		合計	26,352	20,618	16,503	11,365	8,548	7,018	6,613	5,973	6,100	6,862	7,177	7,975
	カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	97	112	95	74	65	110	113	114	184	386	758	969
		女性	76	71	52	45	50	67	78	60	103	95	148	133
		不明・その他	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
		合計	177	188	147	119	115	177	191	174	287	482	908	1,104
	オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	894	988	743	628	538	762	737	718	891	740	998	62
		女性	693	723	614	496	419	521	510	493	563	455	494	62
		不明・その他	39	31	14	6	2	17	14	4	6	9	7	0
		合計	1,626	1,742	1,371	1,130	959	1,300	1,261	1,215	1,460	1,204	1,499	124
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性												502	
	女性												123	
	不明・その他												3	
	合計												628	
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 期、前期潜伏)	男性のうちMSM						90	166	252	610	1,056	1,384	1,908	
	女性						49	57	75	105	130	179	288	
	不明・その他													
	合計						139	223	327	715	1,186	1,563	2,176	
淋病 (件数)	米国	男性	207,581	204,920	179,873	149,826	161,835	175,847	179,913	179,651	177,531	171,839	160,459	157,623
		女性	172,800	177,979	163,137	146,585	165,136	180,260	179,803	179,128	184,227	179,997	174,645	172,509
		不明・その他												
		合計	380,381	382,899	343,010	296,411	326,971	356,107	359,716	358,779	361,758	351,836	335,104	330,132
	カナダ	男性	3,738	3,478	3,322	2,845	2,646	2,921	3,322	3,829	4,176	4,589	5,025	5,888
		女性	3,086	2,645	2,385	2,168	1,822	1,938	2,054	2,953	2,571	2,770	3,210	3,422
		不明・その他	8	44	8	10	9	9	5	7	9	6	6	7
		合計	6,832	6,167	5,715	5,023	4,477	4,868	5,381	6,189	6,756	7,365	8,241	9,317
	オーストラリア	男性	2,019	2,027	2,257	2,613	3,111	3,702	3,818	3,958	4,239	4,335	4,699	4,901
		女性	763	917	1,011	1,509	1,868	1,942	1,763	1,919	2,018	2,045	2,079	2,173
		不明・その他	18	15	17	7	6	15	13	3	4	8	9	93
		合計	2,800	2,959	3,285	4,129	4,985	5,659	5,594	5,880	6,261	6,388	6,787	7,167
英国	男性						8,930	11,326	14,907	16,281	17,498	17,071	15,353	
	女性						4,282	5,144	6,385	6,885	7,511	7,372	6,492	
	男性のうちMSM						1,799	1,966	3,051	3,620	3,504	3,951	3,886	
	合計						13,212	16,470	21,292	23,166	25,009	24,443	21,845	

表 8. 主要性感染症報告数 年次推移 (2)

		性別	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
クラミジア (件数)	米国	男性	232,781	252,630	280,337	313,779	328,763	353,923	389,970	402,557	405,652	433,325	478,981	522,870
		女性	740,371	775,778	825,660	893,004	912,718	949,802	1,018,552	1,018,272	993,348	1,006,441	1,045,143	1,072,719
		不明・その他	0	0	2,377	3,740	2,679	4,168	4,269	2,147	2,906	2,023	2,534	2,765
		合計	976,445	1,030,911	1,108,374	1,210,523	1,244,180	1,307,893	1,412,791	1,422,976	1,401,906	1,441,789	1,526,658	1,598,354
		カナダ	男性	22,403	23,537	24,745	27,317	28,916	31,598	34,183	36,481	38,482	40,624	42,825
女性	44,043	45,689	47,371	53,906	57,077	61,657	65,744	67,155	66,696	66,696	68,525	70,354	72,183	
不明・その他	56	62	586	78	86	74	117	80	110	34	40	12	77	
合計	66,502	69,288	72,702	81,310	86,079	93,329	100,044	103,716	105,274	109,263	119,499	125,261	137,336	
オーストラリア	男性	16,726	19,183	20,864	23,592	25,634	30,972	33,395	34,827	34,844	37,023	31,516	31,516	43,425
		女性	24,476	28,145	31,018	34,739	36,903	43,087	47,398	47,966	47,659	49,719	40,737	51,046
		不明・その他	88	107	112	104	94	198	125	110	34	40	12	77
		合計	41,290	47,435	51,994	58,435	62,631	74,257	80,918	82,903	82,537	86,782	72,265	94,548
		英国	男性	51,360	55,514	60,103	71,061	74,947	77,016	88,102	97,899	98,866	98,449	95,473
女性	56,548	56,499	59,955	104,820	113,318	111,985	128,153	140,914	141,306	140,396	131,446	131,189	131,189	
男性のうちMS	2,568	3,182	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	3,498	
合計	107,908	112,013	120,058	176,941	189,374	189,491	216,890	241,652	242,318	240,823	228,972	229,498	229,498	
梅毒 (件数)	米国	第1期&第2期	7,383	8,293	9,769	11,255	11,764	11,981	12,453	14,190	15,861	18,146	21,547	24,724
		第1期&第2期	1,339	1,458	1,892	2,242	2,232	1,780	1,501	1,458	1,500	1,840	2,298	3,049
		不明・その他	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		合計	8,724	9,756	11,466	13,500	13,997	13,774	13,970	15,667	17,375	19,999	23,872	27,814
		カナダ	男性	928	1,157	1,086	1,200	1,427	1,544	1,643	1,900	2,038	2,198	2,198
女性	168	179	161	190	157	152	114	96	142	155	155	155		
不明・その他	1	0	1	3	1	2	0	7	7	7	7	7		
合計	1,097	1,336	1,248	1,393	1,585	1,698	1,757	2,003	2,182	2,357	2,357	2,357		
オーストラリア	男性	525	703	1,263	1,171	1,189	1,006	1,140	1,403	1,606	1,868	2,435	3,026	
		女性	131	185	153	149	121	110	170	163	147	164	288	424
		不明・その他	0	0	2	1	0	7	12	3	12	1	4	13
		合計	656	889	1,418	1,321	1,310	1,123	1,322	1,569	1,765	2,033	2,727	3,463
		英国	男性	2,257	2,289	2,240	2,508	2,506	2,355	2,915	3,050	3,291	4,429	5,417
女性	343	276	278	366	345	293	321	297	340	311	346	359		
男性のうちMS	1,364	1,361	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345	1,345		
合計	2,600	2,565	2,518	2,874	2,854	2,654	3,238	3,347	3,631	4,740	5,768	6,470		
淋病 (件数)	米国	男性	161,117	170,508	167,685	153,103	137,819	142,470	149,835	162,235	169,130	186,943	221,070	270,033
		女性	177,537	187,033	187,594	182,577	162,568	165,693	171,005	172,066	163,208	162,608	173,514	197,499
		不明・その他	0	0	712	1,062	787	1,178	1,009	525	666	511	632	982
		合計	339,593	358,366	355,991	336,742	301,174	309,341	321,849	334,826	333,004	350,062	395,216	468,514
		カナダ	男性	5,750	6,835	6,833	6,840	5,849	6,074	6,555	7,121	8,394	10,362	12,825
女性	3,440	4,469	4,897	5,434	4,795	4,659	4,826	5,420	5,806	5,892	5,892	5,892		
不明・その他	10	6	5	7	12	10	16	20	20	20	20	20		
合計	9,200	11,310	11,735	12,281	10,656	10,743	11,397	12,561	14,227	16,285	16,285	16,285		
オーストラリア	男性	5,479	5,871	5,052	4,992	5,358	6,865	8,095	9,576	10,454	11,489	13,772	17,323	
		女性	2,570	2,722	2,604	2,671	2,616	3,123	3,967	4,255	4,405	4,198	4,738	6,499
		不明・その他	16	11	8	10	18	19	38	11	88	45	34	62
		合計	8,065	8,604	7,664	7,673	7,992	10,007	12,100	13,842	14,947	15,712	18,544	23,884
		英国	男性	13,622	13,248	12,607	9,820	10,825	11,635	16,701	21,328	24,751	30,282	35,172
女性	5,252	5,232	5,684	5,165	5,299	5,200	6,683	8,761	9,474	10,293	10,029	10,164		
男性のうちMS	4,252	4,427	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638	3,638		
合計	18,874	18,480	18,291	14,985	16,145	16,848	23,387	30,090	34,231	40,519	45,224	40,166		

表 9. 主要性感染症 10 万人あたり発生率 年次推移 (1)

		性別	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
クラミジア (10万件あたり発生率)	米国	男性	43.3	45.0	51.7	61.7	67.5	79.5	88.1	99.1	112.5	127.1	133.3	145.9
		女性	243.4	257.8	287.6	305.2	327.8	364.2	378.4	392.4	430.7	446.1	464.7	481.9
		不明・その他												
		合計	169.6	182.9	180.5	185.7	200.4	225.1	236.1	248.5	274.5	289.4	301.7	316.5
	カナダ	男性	74.7	69.6	62.5	56.6	58.7	73.7	81.4	88.9	99.2	112.3	121.3	131.8
		女性	230.5	212.8	192.0	174.0	167.8	183.1	193.6	211.6	221.8	244.9	256.5	267.7
		不明・その他												
		合計	153.4	142.0	127.9	115.9	113.9	129.0	138.2	150.9	161.4	179.4	189.6	200.5
	オーストラリア	男性		31.5	33.4	46.8	57.7	73.8	58.8	71.6	84.1	101.4	124.7	145.6
		女性		76.0	73.2	90.7	106.5	117.5	89.4	104.6	124.2	146.0	179.7	211.4
		不明・その他		0.7	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.0
		合計		54.5	53.6	69.0	82.4	95.8	74.3	88.4	104.4	124.0	152.8	179.7
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症 クリニックのみ、2008 年から全クリニック データ。)</small>	男性												148.4	166.1
	女性												174.0	183.6
	不明・その他													
	合計												161.5	175.0
梅毒 (10万件あたり発生率)	米国 第1期&第2期	男性	11.3	8.6	6.8	4.6	3.6	3.0	2.9	2.6	3.0	3.7	4.2	4.7
		女性	9.6	7.6	5.8	4.0	2.8	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.8
		不明・その他												
		合計	10.4	8.1	6.3	4.3	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7
	カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.2	2.5	4.8	6.1
		女性	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8
		不明・その他												
		合計	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.5	2.9	3.5
	オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	10.2	11.1	8.3	6.9	5.8	8.2	7.8	7.6	9.3	7.6	10.1	0.6
		女性	7.8	8.1	6.8	5.4	4.5	5.5	5.4	5.1	5.8	4.6	4.9	0.6
		不明・その他	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
		合計	9.2	9.8	7.6	6.2	5.2	6.9	6.7	6.3	7.5	6.1	7.5	0.6
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性												5.0	
	女性												1.2	
	不明・その他												0.0	
	合計												3.1	
英国 第1期&第2期 <small>(2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)</small>	男性												5.0	6.8
	女性												0.6	0.9
	不明・その他													
	合計												2.8	3.8
淋病 (10万件あたり発生率)	米国	男性	185.1	182.7	160.8	127.9	123.5	133.2	135.0	130.1	128.6	121.3	112.2	109.1
		女性	147.2	151.7	139.6	120.2	120.9	130.4	129.0	124.9	128.5	122.7	118.2	115.7
		不明・その他												
		合計	165.8	166.8	149.9	124.0	122.2	131.7	131.9	127.5	128.5	122.0	115.2	112.4
	カナダ	男性	26.3	24.2	22.9	19.4	17.8	19.5	22.0	25.1	27.2	29.5	32.1	37.2
		女性	21.3	18.1	16.1	14.5	12.0	12.7	13.3	15.1	16.4	17.5	20.1	21.2
		不明・その他												
		合計	23.8	21.2	19.5	16.9	14.9	16.1	17.6	20.1	21.8	23.5	26.0	29.2
	オーストラリア	男性	22.9	22.8	25.1	28.7	33.8	39.8	40.6	41.6	44.0	44.5	47.6	49.1
		女性	8.6	10.2	11.1	16.4	20.1	20.6	18.5	19.9	20.6	20.7	20.7	21.4
		不明・その他	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
		合計	15.8	16.6	18.2	22.6	26.9	30.2	29.6	30.7	32.3	32.5	34.1	35.6
英国	男性												59.8	53.5
	女性												24.8	21.8
	不明・その他													
	合計												41.9	37.3

表 9. 主要性感染症 10 万人あたり発生率 年次推移 (2)

		性別	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
クラミジア (10万件あたり発生率)	米国	男性	159.4	171.3	188.6	209.3	217.1	233.2	254.4	260.6	260.6	276.1	302.7	330.5
		女性	492.2	510.8	539.8	579.4	586.7	605.1	643.4	638.7	619.0	621.6	640.4	657.3
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	329.4	344.3	367.5	398.1	405.3	423.6	453.4	453.3	443.5	452.2	475.0	497.3
	カナダ	男性	140.0	146.0	156.7	168.9	176.1	190.4	203.5	215.1	220.8	230.5	-	-
		女性	270.4	278.2	295.4	326.8	341.0	364.6	384.3	388.6	376.3	382.5	-	-
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	206.0	212.9	224.8	248.8	259.6	278.5	295.1	302.8	299.5	307.4	-	-
	オーストラリア	男性	165.2	186.6	199.2	220.6	234.4	278.5	279.2	307.6	302.7	317	266.5	361.6
		女性	238.4	270.3	292.7	321.6	334.7	384.1	385.0	419.7	410.4	422.0	340.7	418.5
		不明・その他	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.1	0	0.1	0.3
		合計	202.5	229.2	246.8	271.8	285.2	332.4	333.2	364.4	356.9	370	303.9	390.6
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症 クリニックのみ、2008 年から全クリニック データ。)</small>	男性	174.1	187.0	200.9	280.6	293.7	299.0	283.3	312.6	313.5	309.7	297.7	298.7	
	女性	183.9	182.9	193.0	401.0	430.9	423.0	398.1	435.1	433.8	428.0	397.9	397.1	
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	179.1	184.9	196.9	343.8	365.5	362.8	342.7	379.3	378.0	372.8	351.7	352.5	
梅毒 (10万件あたり発生率)	米国 第1期&第2期	男性	5.1	5.6	6.6	7.5	7.8	7.9	8.1	9.2	10.2	11.6	13.6	15.6
		女性	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.9
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	2.9	3.3	3.8	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.3	7.4	8.7
	カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	5.8	7.2	6.7	7.3	8.6	9.2	9.6	11.1	11.7	12.5	-	-
		女性	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	-	-
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	3.4	4.1	3.8	4.2	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.8	6.2	6.6	-	-
	オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性	5.2	6.8	12.1	10.9	10.9	9.0	9.9	12.1	13.9	16.0	13.7	25.2	
	女性	1.3	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	3.5	
	不明・その他	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	
	合計	3.2	4.3	6.7	6.1	6.0	5.0	5.7	6.7	7.6	8.7	7.5	14.3	
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)	男性	7.7	7.7	7.5	9.9	9.8	9.1	9.4	9.7	10.4	13.9	16.9	19.0	
	女性	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	4.3	4.2	4.1	5.6	5.5	5.1	5.1	5.3	5.7	7.3	8.9	9.9	
淋病 (10万件あたり発生率)	米国	男性	110.4	115.6	112.8	102.1	91.0	93.9	97.7	105.0	108.7	119.1	139.7	170.7
		女性	118.0	123.1	122.6	118.5	104.5	105.6	108.0	107.9	101.7	100.4	106.3	121.0
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	114.6	119.7	118.0	110.7	98.1	100.2	103.3	106.7	105.3	109.8	123.0	145.8
	カナダ	男性	35.8	42.3	42.4	42.6	36.8	37.9	40.2	42.6	48.2	58.8	-	-
		女性	21.1	27.2	29.9	33.5	29.6	29.1	29.6	32.4	32.8	32.9	-	-
		不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		合計	28.4	34.7	36.1	38.0	33.2	33.5	34.9	37.5	40.5	45.8	-	-
	オーストラリア	男性	54.1	57.1	48.2	46.7	49.0	61.7	71.9	83.6	90.8	98.2	116.5	144.2
		女性	25.0	26.1	24.6	24.7	23.7	27.8	34.9	36.1	37.9	35.6	39.6	53.3
		不明・その他	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3
		合計	39.5	41.6	36.4	35.7	36.4	44.8	52.5	59.7	64.6	66.9	78.0	98.7
英国	男性	46.2	44.6	42.1	38.8	42.4	45.2	53.7	68.1	78.5	95.2	109.7	93.5	
	女性	17.1	16.9	18.3	19.8	20.2	19.6	20.8	27.0	29.1	31.2	30.4	30.8	
	不明・その他	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	合計	31.3	30.5	30.0	29.1	31.2	32.3	37.0	47.2	53.4	62.7	69.5	61.7	

表 10. クラミジア 報告数 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国	男性	50,802	53,461	66,173	59,784	88,167	104,912	120,468	137,233	157,623	180,039	190,723	210,935
	女性	299,592	321,126	386,263	307,058	446,607	503,578	538,243	564,106	625,504	654,464	686,755	718,527
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	407,965	451,752	480,421	366,842	534,774	608,490	658,711	709,452	783,242	834,555	877,478	929,462
カナダ	男性	10,621	10,006	9,085	8,317	8,714	11,041	12,287	13,539	15,242	17,451	19,010	20,855
	女性	33,379	31,176	28,451	26,062	25,406	27,956	29,813	32,868	34,728	38,776	40,943	43,143
	不明	22	53	15	20	24	37	41	32	107	39	30	40
	合計	44,022	41,235	37,551	34,399	34,144	39,034	42,141	46,439	50,077	56,266	59,983	64,038
オーストラリア	男性	-	1,850	1,984	2,820	3,513	4,534	5,525	6,806	8,102	9,884	12,312	14,549
	女性	-	4,500	4,386	5,511	6,549	7,311	8,520	10,091	12,147	14,454	18,002	21,425
	不明	-	78	28	15	20	11	18	23	16	21	76	193
	合計	-	6,428	6,398	8,346	10,082	11,856	14,063	16,920	20,265	24,359	30,390	36,167
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症クリニックのみ。2008年から全クリニックデータ。)</small>	男性	-	-	-	-	-	21,064	24,435	29,390	32,871	38,119	42,589	47,993
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	27,662	32,556	37,783	42,345	48,008	52,008	55,144
	男性のうちMSM(2008から不明)	-	-	-	-	-	-	690	1,018	1,431	1,552	2,004	2,115
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	48,726	56,991	67,173	75,216	86,127	94,597	103,137

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国	男性	232,781	252,630	280,337	313,779	328,783	353,923	389,970	402,557	405,652	433,325	478,981	522,870
	女性	740,371	775,788	825,660	893,004	912,718	949,802	1,018,552	1,018,272	993,348	1,006,441	1,045,143	1,072,719
	不明	-	-	2,377	3,740	2,679	4,168	4,269	2,147	2,906	2,023	2,534	2,765
	合計	976,445	1,030,911	1,108,374	1,210,523	1,244,180	1,307,893	1,412,791	1,422,976	1,401,976	1,441,789	1,526,658	1,598,354
カナダ	男性	22,403	23,537	24,745	27,317	28,916	31,598	34,183	36,481	38,482	40,624	-	-
	女性	44,043	45,689	47,371	53,906	57,077	61,657	65,744	67,155	66,696	68,525	-	-
	不明	56	62	586	78	86	74	117	80	-	-	-	-
	合計	66,502	69,288	72,702	81,310	86,079	93,329	100,044	103,716	105,274	109,263	-	-
オーストラリア	男性	16,726	19,183	20,864	23,592	25,634	30,972	33,405	34,764	34,855	37,023	31,516	43,425
	女性	24,476	28,145	31,018	34,739	36,903	43,087	47,380	47,863	47,666	49,719	40,737	51,046
	不明	88	107	112	104	94	198	126	112	34	40	12	77
	合計	41,290	47,435	51,994	58,435	62,631	74,257	80,911	82,739	82,555	86,782	72,265	94,548
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症クリニックのみ。2008年から全クリニックデータ。)</small>	男性	51,360	55,514	60,103	71,061	74,947	77,016	88,102	97,899	98,866	98,449	95,473	95,804
	女性	56,548	56,499	59,955	104,820	113,318	111,985	128,153	140,914	141,306	140,396	131,446	131,189
	男性のうちMSM(2008から不明)	2,568	3,182	3,498	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	107,908	112,013	120,058	176,941	189,374	189,491	216,890	241,652	242,318	240,823	228,972	229,498

表 11. クラミジア 10万人あたり発生率 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国	男性	43.3	45.0	51.7	61.7	67.5	79.5	88.1	99.1	112.5	127.1	133.3	145.9
	女性	243.4	257.8	287.6	305.2	327.8	364.2	378.4	392.4	430.7	446.1	464.7	481.9
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	169.6	182.9	180.5	185.7	200.4	225.1	236.1	251.4	274.5	289.4	301.7	316.5
カナダ	男性	74.7	69.6	62.5	56.6	58.7	73.7	81.4	88.9	99.2	112.3	121.3	131.8
	女性	230.5	212.8	192.0	174.0	167.8	183.1	193.6	211.6	221.8	244.9	256.5	267.7
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	153.4	142.0	127.9	115.9	113.9	129.0	138.2	150.9	161.4	179.4	189.6	200.5
オーストラリア	男性	-	31.5	33.4	46.8	57.7	73.8	58.8	71.6	84.1	101.4	124.7	145.6
	女性	-	76.0	73.2	90.7	106.5	117.5	89.4	104.6	124.2	146.0	179.7	211.4
	不明	-	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.0
	合計	-	54.5	53.6	69.0	82.4	95.8	74.3	88.4	104.4	124.0	152.8	179.7
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症クリニックのみ。2008年から全クリニックデータ。)</small>	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	148.4	166.1
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	174.0	183.6
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	161.5	175.0

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国	男性	159.4	171.3	188.6	209.3	217.1	233.2	254.4	260.6	260.6	276.1	302.7	330.5
	女性	492.2	510.8	539.8	579.4	586.7	605.1	643.4	638.7	619.0	621.6	640.4	657.3
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	329.4	344.3	367.5	398.1	405.3	423.6	453.4	453.3	443.5	452.2	475.0	497.3
カナダ	男性	140.0	146.0	156.7	168.9	176.1	190.4	203.5	215.1	220.8	230.5	-	-
	女性	270.4	278.2	295.4	326.8	341.0	364.6	384.3	388.6	376.3	382.5	-	-
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	206.0	212.9	224.8	248.8	259.6	278.5	295.1	302.8	299.5	307.4	-	-
オーストラリア	男性	165.2	186.6	199.2	220.6	234.4	278.5	279.2	307.6	302.7	317	266.5	361.6
	女性	238.4	270.3	292.7	321.6	334.7	384.1	385.0	419.7	410.4	422.0	340.7	418.5
	不明	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.1	0	0.1	0.3
	合計	202.5	229.2	246.8	271.8	285.2	332.4	333.2	364.4	356.9	370	303.9	390.6
英国 <small>(2007年まで性感染症クリニックのみ。2008年から全クリニックデータ。)</small>	男性	174.1	187.0	200.9	280.6	293.7	299.0	283.3	312.6	313.5	309.7	297.7	298.7
	女性	183.9	182.9	193.0	401.0	430.9	423.0	398.1	435.1	433.8	428.0	397.9	397.1
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	179.1	184.9	196.9	343.8	365.5	362.8	342.7	379.3	378.0	372.8	351.7	352.5

表 13. 梅毒 報告数 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国 第1期&第2期	男性	13,942	10,666	8,729	5,997	4,660	3,918	3,833	3,528	4,132	5,268	5,959	6,721
	女性	12,410	9,952	7,774	5,368	3,888	3,100	2,780	2,445	1,968	1,594	1,218	1,254
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	26,352	20,618	16,503	11,365	8,548	7,018	6,613	5,979	6,103	6,862	7,177	7,980
カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	97	112	95	74	65	110	113	114	184	386	758	969
	女性	76	71	52	45	50	67	78	60	103	95	148	133
	不明	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	合計	177	188	147	119	115	177	191	174	287	482	908	1,104
オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	894	988	743	628	538	762	737	718	891	740	998	62
	女性	693	723	614	496	419	521	510	493	563	455	494	62
	不明	39	31	14	6	2	17	14	4	6	9	7	0
	合計	1,626	1,742	1,371	1,130	959	1,300	1,261	1,215	1,460	1,204	1,499	124
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	502
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	123
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	628
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)	男性	-	-	-	-	-	90	166	252	610	1,056	1,384	1,908
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	49	57	75	105	130	179	268
	男性のうちMSM	-	-	-	-	-	-	53	124	343	614	777	1,018
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	139	223	327	715	1,186	1,563	2,176

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国 第1期&第2期	男性	7,383	8,293	9,769	11,255	11,764	11,981	12,453	14,190	15,861	18,146	21,547	24,724
	女性	1,339	1,458	1,692	2,242	2,232	1,780	1,501	1,458	1,500	1,840	2,298	3,049
	不明	-	-	5	3	1	13	16	19	14	13	27	41
	合計	8,724	9,756	11,466	13,500	13,997	13,774	13,970	15,667	17,375	19,999	23,872	27,814
カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	928	1,157	1,086	1,200	1,427	1,544	1,643	1,900	2,038	2,198	-	-
	女性	168	179	161	190	157	152	114	96	142	155	-	-
	不明	1	0	1	3	1	2	0	7	-	-	-	-
	合計	1,097	1,336	1,248	1,393	1,585	1,698	1,757	2,003	2,182	2,357	-	-
オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性	525	703	1,263	1,171	1,189	1,006	1,110	1,365	1,604	1,868	2,435	3,026
	女性	131	185	153	149	121	110	163	148	149	164	288	424
	不明	0	1	2	1	0	7	13	3	12	1	4	13
	合計	656	889	1,418	1,321	1,310	1,123	1,286	1,516	1,765	2,033	2,727	3,463
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)	男性	2,257	2,289	2,240	2,508	2,506	2,355	2,915	3,050	3,291	4,429	5,417	6,110
	女性	343	276	278	366	345	293	321	297	340	311	346	359
	男性のうちMSM	1,364	1,361	1,345	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	2,600	2,565	2,518	2,874	2,854	2,654	3,238	3,347	3,631	4,740	5,768	6,470

表 14. 梅毒 10万人あたり発生率 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国 第1期&第2期	男性	11.3	8.6	6.8	4.6	3.6	3.0	2.9	2.6	3.0	3.7	4.2	4.7
	女性	9.6	7.6	5.8	4.0	2.8	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.8
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	10.4	8.1	6.3	4.3	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.7
カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.2	2.5	4.8	6.1
	女性	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.5	2.9	3.5
オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	10.2	11.1	8.3	6.9	5.8	8.2	7.8	7.6	9.3	7.6	10.1	9.6
	女性	7.8	8.1	6.8	5.4	4.5	5.5	5.4	5.1	5.8	4.6	4.9	4.6
	不明	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	合計	9.2	9.8	7.6	6.2	5.2	6.9	6.7	6.3	7.5	6.1	7.5	6.6
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.0
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.2
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.1
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.0	6.8
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.6	0.9
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.8	3.8

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国 第1期&第2期	男性	5.1	5.6	6.6	7.5	7.8	7.9	8.1	9.2	10.2	11.6	13.6	15.6
	女性	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.9
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	2.9	3.3	3.8	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.3	7.4	8.7
カナダ 第1&2期、前 期潜伏期	男性	5.8	7.2	6.7	7.3	8.6	9.2	9.6	11.1	11.7	12.5	-	-
	女性	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	-	-
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	3.4	4.1	3.8	4.2	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.8	6.2	6.6	-	-
オーストラリア すべての梅毒	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
オーストラリア 2年未満	男性	5.2	6.8	12.1	10.9	10.9	9.0	9.9	12.1	13.9	16.0	20.6	25.2
	女性	1.3	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.4	3.5
	不明	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
	合計	3.2	4.3	6.7	6.1	6.0	5.0	5.7	6.7	7.6	8.7	11.5	14.3
英国 第1期&第2期 (2008より、第1 第2、前期潜伏)	男性	7.7	7.7	7.5	9.9	9.8	9.1	9.4	9.7	10.4	13.9	16.9	19.0
	女性	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	4.3	4.2	4.1	5.6	5.5	5.1	5.1	5.3	5.7	7.3	8.9	9.9

表 16. 淋病 報告数 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国	男性	207,581	204,920	179,873	149,826	161,835	175,847	179,913	179,651	177,531	171,839	160,459	157,623
	女性	172,800	177,979	163,137	146,585	165,136	180,260	179,803	179,128	184,227	179,997	174,645	172,509
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	380,381	382,899	343,010	296,411	326,971	356,107	359,716	363,136	361,705	351,852	335,104	330,132
カナダ	男性	3,738	3,478	3,322	2,845	2,646	2,921	3,322	3,829	4,176	4,589	5,025	5,888
	女性	3,086	2,645	2,385	2,168	1,822	1,938	2,054	2,353	2,571	2,770	3,210	3,422
	不明	8	44	8	10	9	9	5	7	9	6	6	7
	合計	6,832	6,167	5,715	5,023	4,477	4,868	5,381	6,189	6,756	7,365	8,241	9,317
オーストラリア	男性	2,019	2,027	2,257	2,613	3,111	3,702	3,818	3,958	4,239	4,335	4,699	4,901
	女性	763	917	1,011	1,509	1,868	1,942	1,763	1,919	2,018	2,045	2,079	2,173
	不明	18	15	17	7	6	15	13	3	4	8	9	93
	合計	2,800	2,959	3,285	4,129	4,985	5,659	5,594	5,880	6,261	6,388	6,787	7,167
英国	男性	-	-	-	-	-	8,930	11,326	14,907	16,281	17,498	17,071	15,353
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	4,282	5,144	6,385	6,885	7,511	7,372	6,492
	男性のうちMSM	-	-	-	-	-	1,799	1,966	3,051	3,620	3,504	3,951	3,866
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	13,212	16,470	21,292	23,166	25,009	24,443	21,845

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国	男性	161,117	170,508	167,685	153,103	137,819	142,470	149,835	162,235	169,130	186,943	221,070	270,033
	女性	177,537	187,033	187,594	182,577	162,568	165,693	171,005	172,066	163,208	162,608	173,514	197,499
	不明	-	-	712	1,062	787	1,178	1,009	525	666	511	632	982
	合計	339,593	358,366	355,991	336,742	301,174	309,341	321,849	334,826	333,004	350,062	395,216	468,514
カナダ	男性	5,750	6,835	6,833	6,840	5,849	6,074	6,555	7,121	8,394	10,362	-	-
	女性	3,440	4,469	4,897	5,434	4,795	4,659	4,826	5,420	5,806	5,892	-	-
	不明	10	6	5	7	12	10	16	20	-	-	-	-
	合計	9,200	11,310	11,735	12,281	10,656	10,743	11,397	12,561	14,227	16,285	-	-
オーストラリア	男性	5,479	5,871	5,052	4,992	5,358	6,865	8,098	9,444	10,454	11,469	13,772	17,323
	女性	2,570	2,722	2,604	2,671	2,616	3,123	3,969	4,114	4,404	4,198	4,738	6,499
	不明	16	11	8	10	18	19	40	7	88	45	34	62
	合計	8,065	8,604	7,664	7,673	7,992	10,007	12,107	13,565	14,946	15,712	18,544	23,884
英国	男性	13,622	13,248	12,607	9,820	10,825	11,635	16,701	21,328	24,751	30,282	35,172	29,987
	女性	5,252	5,232	5,684	5,165	5,299	5,200	6,683	8,761	9,474	10,233	10,029	10,164
	男性のうちMSM	4,252	4,427	3,638	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	18,874	18,480	18,291	14,985	16,145	16,848	23,387	30,090	34,231	40,519	45,224	40,166

表 17. 淋病 10万人あたり発生率 年次推移

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
米国	男性	185.1	182.7	160.8	127.9	123.5	133.2	135.0	130.1	128.6	121.3	112.2	109.1
	女性	147.2	151.7	139.6	120.2	120.9	130.4	129.0	124.9	128.5	122.7	118.2	115.7
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	165.8	166.8	149.9	124.0	122.2	131.7	131.9	128.7	126.8	122.0	115.2	112.4
カナダ	男性	26.3	24.2	22.9	19.4	17.8	19.5	22.0	25.1	27.2	29.5	32.1	37.2
	女性	21.3	18.1	16.1	14.5	12.0	12.7	13.3	15.1	16.4	17.5	20.1	21.2
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	23.8	21.2	19.5	16.9	14.9	16.1	17.6	20.1	21.8	23.5	26.0	29.2
オーストラリア	男性	22.9	22.8	25.1	28.7	33.8	39.8	40.6	41.6	44.0	44.5	47.6	49.1
	女性	8.6	10.2	11.1	16.4	20.1	20.6	18.5	19.9	20.6	20.7	20.7	21.4
	不明	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
	合計	15.8	16.6	18.2	22.6	26.9	30.2	29.6	30.7	32.3	32.5	34.1	35.6
英国	男性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59.8	53.5
	女性	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24.8	21.8
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41.9	37.3

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国	男性	110.4	115.6	112.8	102.1	91.0	93.9	97.7	105.0	108.7	119.1	139.7	170.7
	女性	118.0	123.1	122.6	118.5	104.5	105.6	108.0	107.9	101.7	100.4	106.3	121.0
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	114.6	119.7	118.0	110.7	98.1	100.2	103.3	106.7	105.3	109.8	123.0	145.8
カナダ	男性	35.8	42.3	42.4	42.6	36.8	37.9	40.2	42.6	48.2	58.8	-	-
	女性	21.1	27.2	29.9	33.5	29.6	29.1	29.6	32.4	32.8	32.9	-	-
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	28.4	34.7	36.1	38.0	33.2	33.5	34.9	37.5	40.5	45.8	-	-
オーストラリア	男性	54.1	57.1	48.2	46.7	49.0	61.7	71.9	83.6	90.8	98.2	116.5	144.2
	女性	25.0	26.1	24.6	24.7	23.7	27.8	34.9	36.1	37.9	35.6	39.6	53.3
	不明	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3
	合計	39.5	41.6	36.4	35.7	36.4	44.8	52.5	59.7	64.6	66.9	78.0	98.7
英国	男性	46.2	44.6	42.1	38.8	42.4	45.2	53.7	68.1	78.5	95.2	109.7	93.5
	女性	17.1	16.9	18.3	19.8	20.2	19.6	20.8	27.0	29.1	31.2	30.4	30.8
	不明	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	合計	31.3	30.5	30.0	29.1	31.2	32.3	37.0	47.2	53.4	62.7	69.5	61.7

表 8～表 18.

* 出典

米 国	<p>Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Sexually Transmitted Disease Surveillance, 1993-2016. 以下のURLより入手可, URL: http://www.cdc.gov/std/stats/(Last accessed March 31, 2018) 注1) 男性と女性を加えたものと合計に誤差あり</p>
カナダ	<p>Public Health Agency of Canada. Report on Sexually transmitted infections in Canada:2013-2014 以前入手可であったサイトから入手不可, http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/sti-its-surv-epi/nat_surv-eng.php (last accessed March 31, 2018)</p>
オーストラリア	<p>Kirby Institute. Annual Surveillance Report on HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmissible infections in Australia 2017. 以下のURLより入手可, URL:https://kirby.unsw.edu.au/report/annual-surveillance-report-hiv-viral-hepatitis-and-stis-australia-2017 (Last accessed March 31, 2018) Australian government, Department of Health. National Notifiable Diseases Surveillance System "Notifications of SELECTED DISEASE by Age Group and Sex" 以下のURLよりアクセス可, URL:http://www9.health.gov.au/cda/source/cda-index.cfm (Last accessed March 31, 2018) 注1) 2004年より梅毒について先天性、2年未満、2年以上および期間不明に3分割。この表では2004年より2年未満のみの数字になっている。 注2) 「不明」欄の発生率について、特定の性別や年齢グループまで分割することができないので、人口全体における発生率になっている。</p>
英 国	<p>Public Health England. STI Annual data tables. Table 9: Selected STI diagnoses & rates in the UK by gender & age group, 2011- 2016 以下のURLより入手可, URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/sexually-transmitted-infections-stis-annual-data-tables (Last accessed March 31, 2018)</p>

海外及び国内の HIV/性感染症の流行とリスク情報の収集分析に関する研究(2) 東アジア諸国における HIV/AIDS 流行と出入国の動向に関する研究

西村由実子¹ 木原雅子² 蔡国喜³ Eun-Hwan Oh⁴ 木原正博²

¹関西看護医療大学看護学部

²京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野

³長崎県環境保健研究センター

⁴Department of Health Management, Hyupsung University

研究要旨

わが国の HIV/AIDS 流行の動向に影響を及ぼすと思われる東アジアの近隣諸国・地域の HIV/AIDS および STI の疫学データを収集・分析した。近年、日本人と東アジア地域の国々との人的交流は増加している。2016 年の日本への外国人入国者数は約 2,322 万人で過去最高であった。入国者の 70%以上を東アジア地域が占めており 1 位韓国、2 位中国、3 位台湾であった。一方、日本人の出国者数は前年比では増加に転じ約 1,712 万人だった。前年同様、外国人入国者数が日本人出国者数を上回った。日本人の海外長期滞在者数では、バンコクの増加が著しく、2016 年は 50,108 人で、前年に引き続き 1 位であった。全体として、日本人の渡航先・滞在先は米と東アジアへの集中から、アジア広域へと多様化しつつある。東アジア地域における HIV/AIDS 報告数は、2016 年は、中国・台湾・韓国において前年比増であったのに対し、香港の新規 HIV 報告が減少した。香港の減少の主因は MSM による新規感染の減少であり、地域全体として効果的な MSM における予防対策についての政策情報共有が不可欠である。

A. 目的

日本の HIV/AIDS 流行に影響を及ぼす要因は多様である。効果的な予防対策を実行するためには、HIV/AIDS 流行に影響を及ぼす人々の諸行動の動向や性感染症流行の状況を、日本国内のみならず、日本と人的交流が盛んである近隣諸国についても知っておく必要がある。本研究では、わが国における HIV/AIDS 予防対策に資することを目的として、日本の出入国者数を示す基礎データと、中国、台湾、香港、韓国の HIV/AIDS および STD に関する疫学データを収集し分析した。

B. 対象・方法

日本の出入国者数に関連する情報は、主にインターネットを通して、国内行政統計資料から入手した。東アジア諸国の HIV/AIDS 情報については、各国の保健省等における HIV/AIDS サーベイランス担当研究者の協力を得て、HIV/AIDS および STD に関するデータを収集した。主な情報源となった機関およびその URL は、次のとおりである。

<出入国者数に関する情報>

- ・法務省ホームページ
<http://www.moj.go.jp/index.html>
- ・日本政府観光局 JNTO ホームページ
<http://www.jnto.go.jp/jpn/>
- ・外務省海外在留邦人統計
<http://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/toko/tokei/hojin/index.html>

<東アジアの HIV/AIDS の疫学情報>

中国

Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention

<http://www.chinacdc.cn/en/>

UNAIDS China Office 【英語】

<http://www.unaids.org.cn/en/index/index.asp>

台湾

Centers for Disease Control, R.O.C.(Taiwan)

HIV/AIDS 統計 【英語】

<http://www.cdc.gov.tw/english/submenu.aspx?treeid=00ed75d6c887bb27&nowtreeid=f6f562fd95fd8df9>

香港

Virtual AIDS Office of Hong Kong, Department of Health, The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region 【英語】

<http://www.info.gov.hk/aids/english/index.htm>

韓国

Korea Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 【英語】

<http://www.cdc.go.kr/CDC/eng/main.jsp>

C. 結果

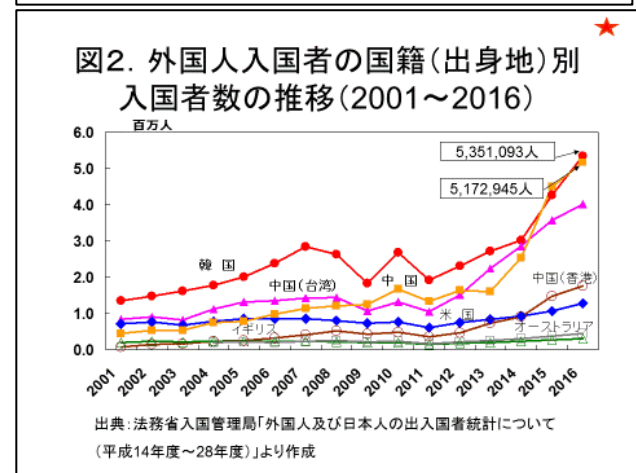
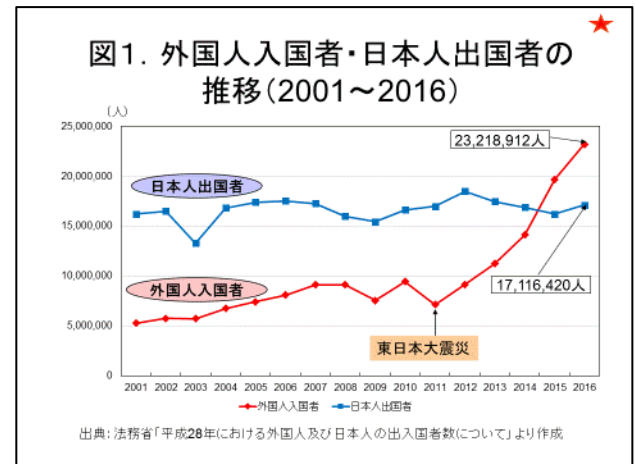
まず、日本出入国数など、日本人と外国人の交流の数の動向を記し、次に、東アジア地域における HIV/AIDS 流行の状況を概説する（各データのより詳細な数値は、添付資料の表を参考）。今年度、更新することができた図には、右上に★印をつけている。

C-1.日本人と外国人の交流 ＜日本出入国者数＞

2016年の外国人入国者数（再入国者を含む）は、2,321万8,912人で、前年比353万665人（17.9%）の増加で過去最高となった。増加要因としては、クルーズ船の寄港増加、航空路線の拡充、継続的な訪日旅行プロモーション、ビザの緩和、消費税免税制度の拡充などがあげられる。一方、日本人出国者数は1,711万6,420人で、前年比90万2,631人（5.6%）の増加となり、4年ぶりに増加に転じた（図1、表1）。

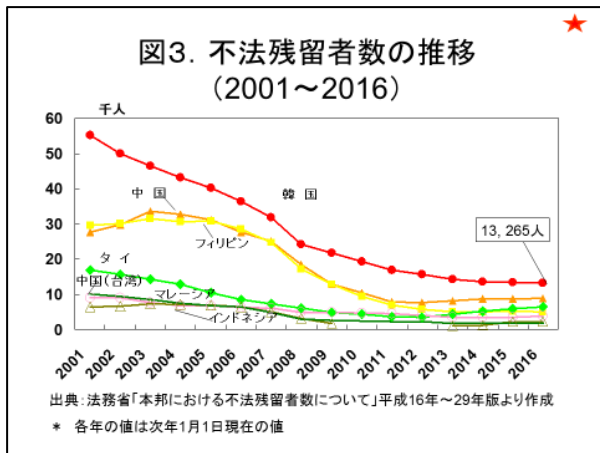
2016年の外国人入国者について、出身地別にみると、最も多いのが韓国5,351,093人、次いで中国5,172,945人、台湾4,019,879人である。これらの国々はいずれも過去最高を記録しており、増加が著しい。構成比では、上記3カ国に香港も含めた東アジア地域が入国者全体の72.7%を占めた。タイ

（926,688人）を筆頭とする東南アジアからの入国者も軒並み増加しており過去最高数となっている。東南アジア6か国とインドからの入国者が、全体の11.0%を占めた。米国からの入国者は1,242,700人で、これも過去最高を記録した。（図2、表2）。



＜不法残留者数＞

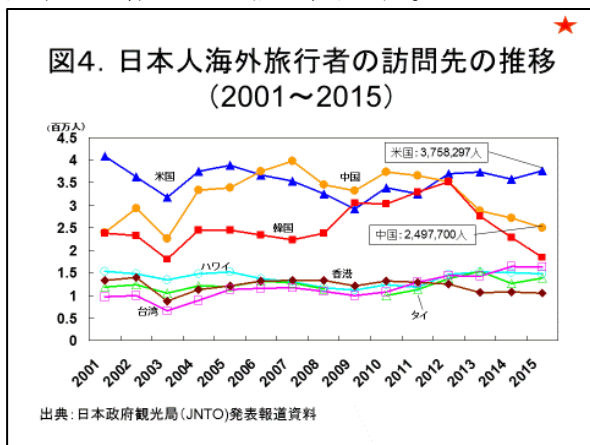
次に、入国者の中で在留期間を経過して滞在している、いわゆる不法残留者の数を示した（図3、表3）。2017年1月1日現在（2016年として図示）の総数は6万5,270人で、前年比2,452人（3.9%）増加した。不法残留者数は1993年以降一貫して減少していたが、最近3年連続で増加となっている。この背景には、不法残留者の小口化・分散化が進み大規模な摘発が困難になってきた一方で、入国者数が大幅に増加していることが影響していると考えられる。最も多いのは韓国で1万3,265人だが、韓国は前年比1.1%の減少である。続く中国8,846人、タイ6,507人、ベトナム5,137人は前年と比べて増加している。特にベトナムの前年比34.9%増は際立っている。



<日本人海外滞在者数>

出国する日本人の行き先について、短期滞在である海外旅行者の訪問先と、3か月以上の長期滞在者（永住者を除く）の滞在先について調べた。

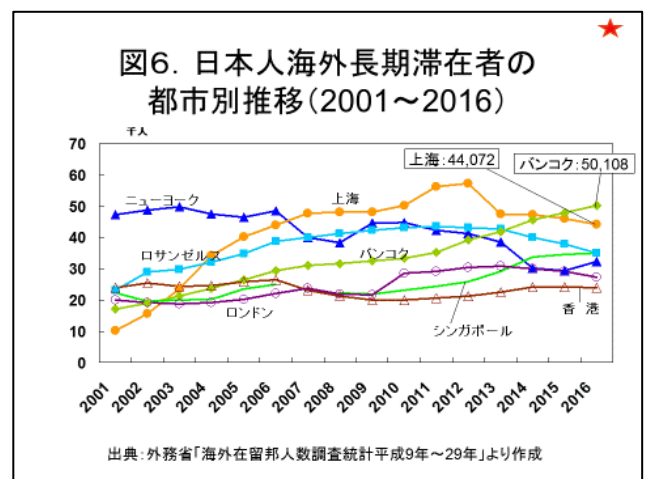
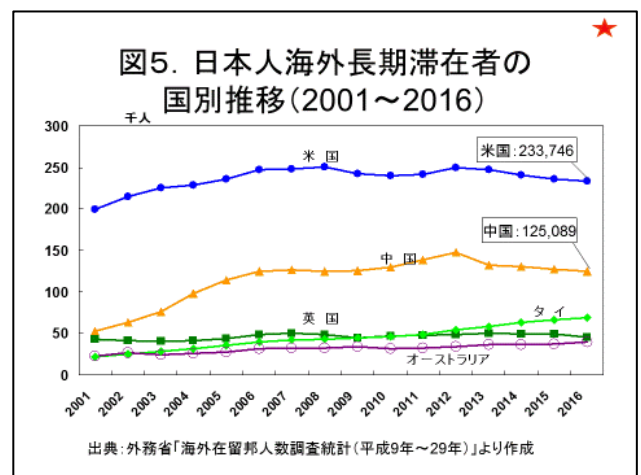
日本人の海外旅行者の訪問先について、昨年保留となっていた米国とハワイの2015年データを追加した。2016年データはどの国も入手できず2015年までとした。2015年について、訪問数は多い順で、米国3,758,297人、中国2,497,700人、韓国1,837,782人、台湾1,586,489人である。米国が前年比増となったのに対し、中国、韓国への訪問数は3年連続で前年比減であった。タイ、ベトナム、インドネシア、フィリピン等の東南アジア地域への訪問数は軒並み前年より増加した（図4、表4）。



次に、日本の在留邦人のうち3ヶ月以上滞在の「長期滞在者」の数は、2016年10月1日現在、国別では第1位は米国（233,746人）、第2位が中国（125,089人）だが、米・中両国とも2012年のピーク以降減少し続けている。一方で3番目のタイ（68,908人）は前年比4.3%の増加であり、5年連続増え

続けている。その他、上位国で前年比の増加が著しいのは、カナダ27,587人で11.1%増、台湾19,456人で8.0%増、オーストラリア39,659人で5.8%増などである（図5、表5）。

これを都市別の長期滞在者数でみると、バンコクが50,108人で前年に引き続き最も多く5万人を超えた。続くのは上海44,072人、ロサンゼルス都市圏35,086人であるが、これら2都市は5年連続で前年比減である。一方で、第4位のシンガポールと続くニューヨークはいずれも前年比増である。日本人海外長期滞在者の約54%は民間企業関係者であり、国際的な経済状況の変化にともない、滞在先が多様化しつつあることがわかる。（図6、表6） [2,3,4]。



C-2. 東アジアにおける HIV/AIDS 流行

東アジアの主要な4カ国・地域（中国、台湾、香港、韓国）のHIV/AIDS流行の特徴と性感染症報告の動向を調べた。今年度は、4カ国・地域すべてについて、2016年分の

一部またはすべてのデータを更新した（表 7、表 8、表 9、表 10）。

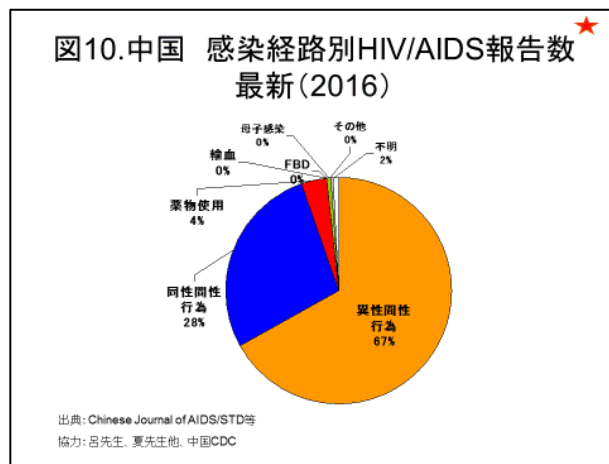
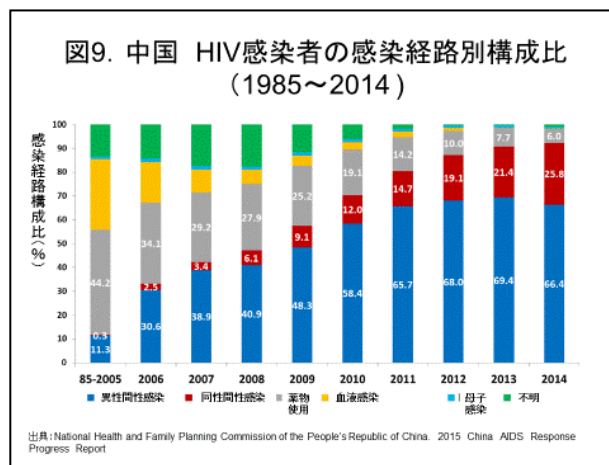
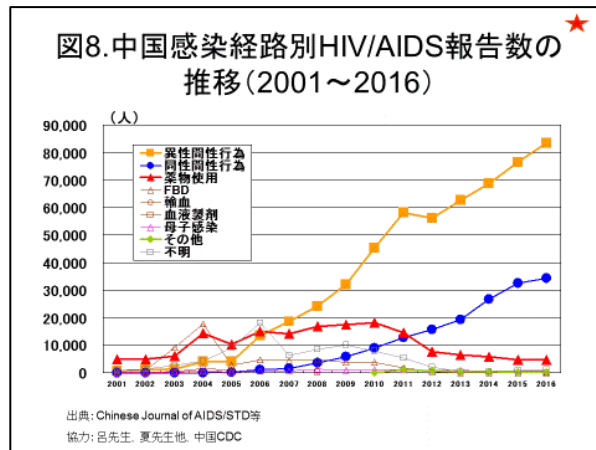
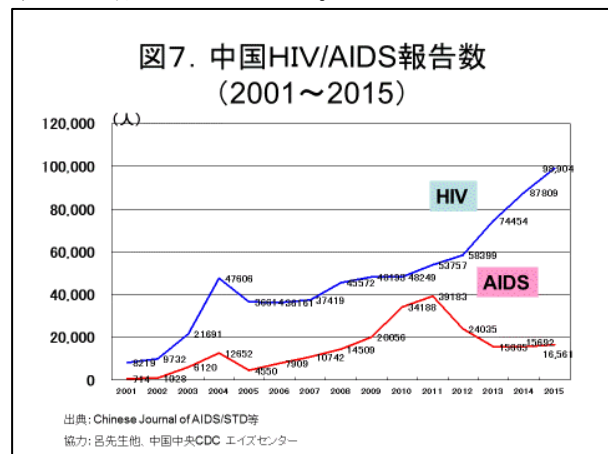
<中国>

中国に関しては、今年度、中国国内 CDC に協力者を得て、中国国内公開データに基づき、2016 年分まで HIV および STI のデータを更新した（図 7～11）[5]。

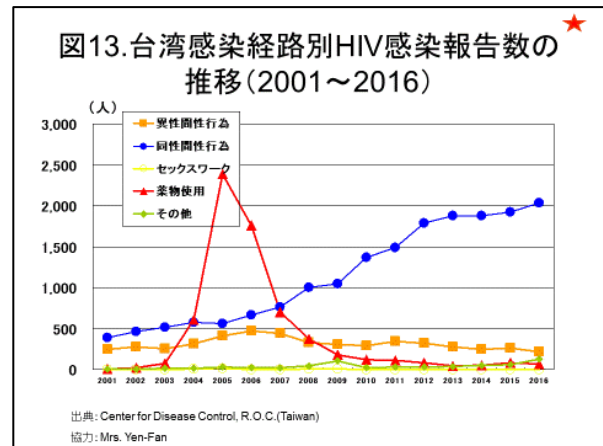
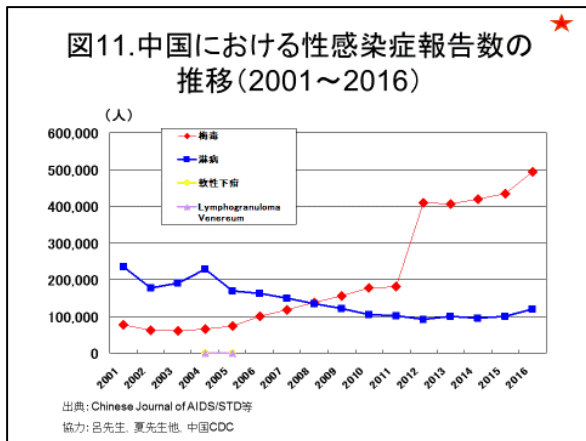
2016 年に新たに報告された HIV/AIDS の合計は 124,555 件である。このうち、異性間性行為による感染が 83,533 人で全体の 67.1% を占め、次いで、同性間性行為が 34,399 人で 27.6%、静注薬物使用が 4,684 人で 3.8% である（図 8,10）。薬物使用による新規感染が 2012 年以降ほぼ横ばいであるのに対し、異性間・同性間による性行為での感染は増加の一途をたどっている。

中国の国全体としての HIV 感染率は 2015 年末で 0.042% と見積もられていて低レベルである。中国の HIV 流行は静注薬物使用者における集中流行から、血液プラズマ献血者における流行を経て、異性間性行為における流行、さらに近年における男性同性間での急激な流行の発生へと変化してきた（図 8,9,10）。

Zhang ら(2013)による 2012 年までのサーベイランスデータとシステマティックレビューを統合した研究によれば、中国における HIV 流行は性産業従事女性、薬物使用者、MSM に特化した集中感染の段階であり、一般集団への広汎流行とはなっていないと指摘されている[5]。しかし、2012 年以降の性感染の拡大は状況に則した効果的な予防対策の必要性を示している。

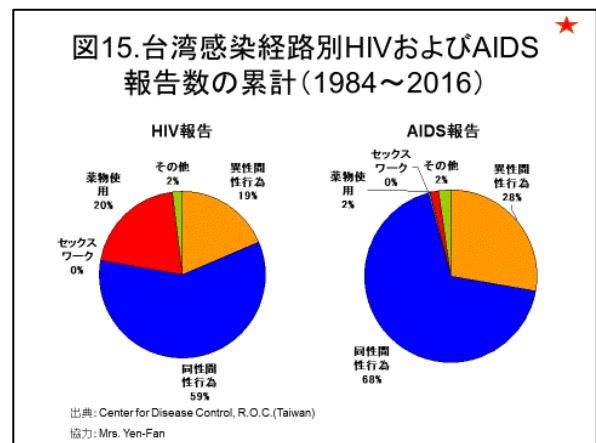
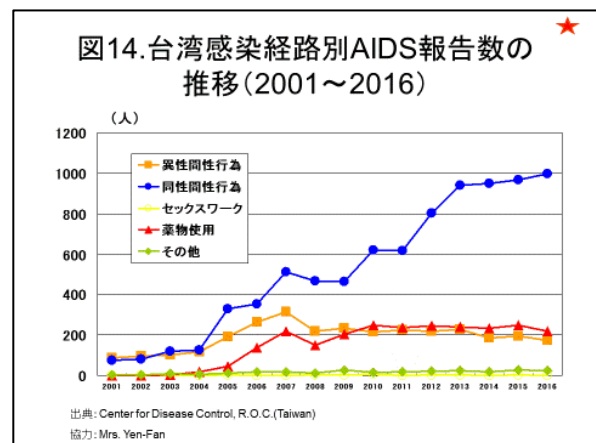
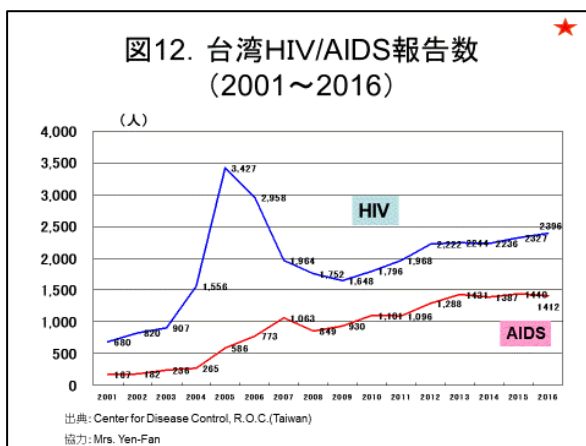


中国における STD の報告数について、主に梅毒と淋病について、2016 年までのデータを得た。（図 11、表 10）。梅毒は前年比 1.1 倍の増加で 49 万件を超え、淋病は前年比 1.2 倍で 12 万件に迫る報告があった。他のアジア地域および先進国での STD 報告の増加と合わせて、中国における梅毒・淋病の増加も注視していく必要がある。



<台湾>

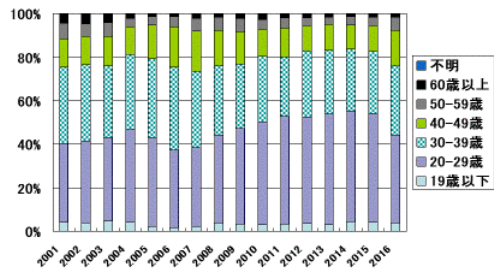
台湾については、台湾 CDC の協力者を得て、2016年データを更新した。2016年の台湾人における新規 HIV 報告数は 2,396 人で、前年の 2,327 人より増加した。2015年から2年続きの増加傾向である。AIDS 患者報告数は 1,412 人で、前年の 1,440 人とほぼ同程度であった(図 12、表 7)。



感染経路別の報告数は、HIV・AIDS 共に割合としては男性同性間性行为による感染が最も多い。2016年の HIV 新規感染の 84.9%を男性同性間における感染が占めている。2016年の新規報告では、HIV も AIDS も異性間性行为による感染や薬物使用による感染が減少傾向であるのに対し、男性同性間性行为による感染のみが増加傾向であり、これが全体の報告数増の原因となっている。(図 13,14,15)。

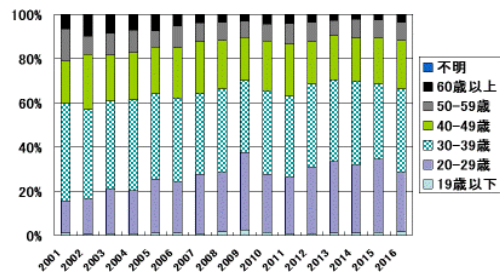
HIV および AIDS 報告の年齢別の推移について、2016年までのデータを示した。HIV 感染は、2016年は 30~40 代の割合が増加したことが特徴的である。AIDS 報告においても、20~30 が 7 割弱を占める状態が続いているが、2016年においては 40 代の割合も増加している(図 16,17)。

図16.台湾年齢別HIV報告数の推移 (2001~2016)



出典: Center for Disease Control, R.O.C.(Taiwan)
協力: Mrs. Yen-Fan

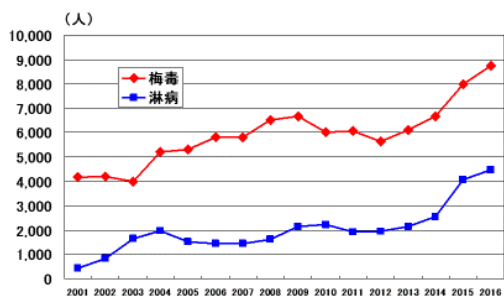
図17.台湾年齢別AIDS報告数の推移 (2001~2016)



出典: Center for Disease Control, R.O.C.(Taiwan)
協力: Mrs. Yen-Fan

STDとして、梅毒と淋病の年間報告数のデータを2016年分まで追加した(図18)。梅毒、淋病ともに2012年以降、右肩上がり増加しており2016年の増加も顕著である。今後の動向を注視していく必要がある。

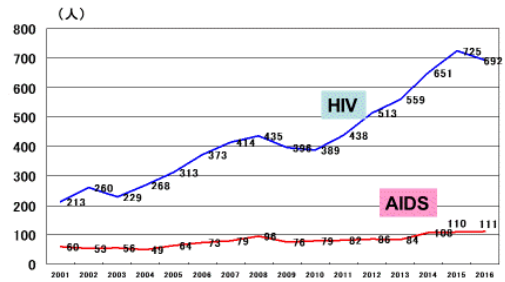
図18.台湾における性感染症報告数の推移(2001~2016)



出典: Center for Disease Control, R.O.C.(Taiwan)
協力: Mrs. Yen-Fan

HIVは5%減少し、AIDSは横ばいだった。1984年以降累計HIV感染報告数は8,410人となった。2010年以降増加し続けていたHIV感染流行によりやく歯止めがかかった模様である(図19)[6,7]。

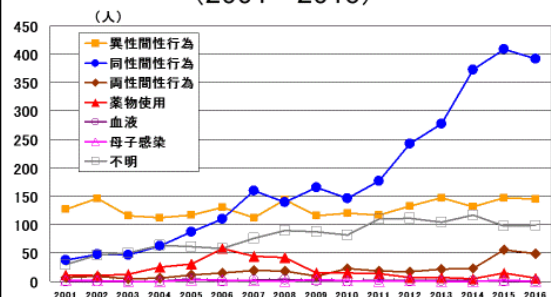
図19.香港HIV/AIDS報告数 (2001~2016)



出典: HIV Surveillance Report 2015 update
協力: Dr KCW Chan

2016年の新規HIV感染報告のうち86%が男性であり、エスニシティは72%が中国系である。感染経路別では、主な感染経路は性行為で全体の83%を占めており、その内訳は異性間性行為が21%、同性間性行為が55%、両性間性行為が7%となっている(図20,21,22)。男性のみでは、同性間および両性間性行為による感染が、73%を占めており、引き続きMSMにおける感染拡大が最重要課題となっている。また、感染場所については、58%が香港内で感染したと報告されており、香港内でローカルに感染拡大が起きていることが示唆されている。

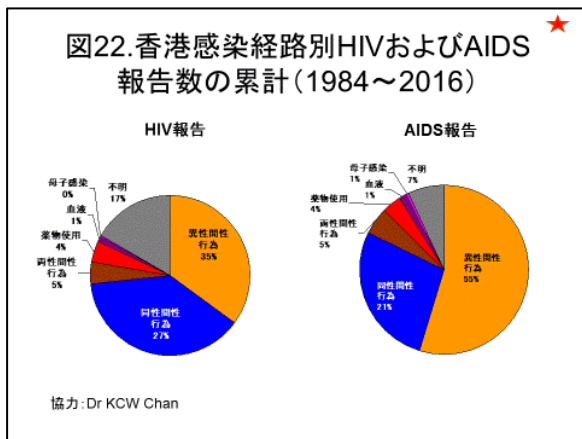
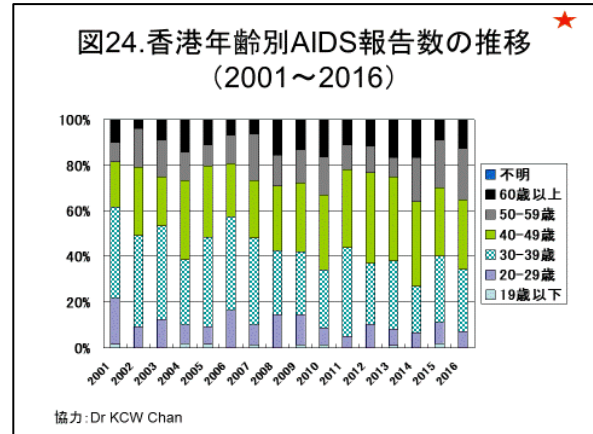
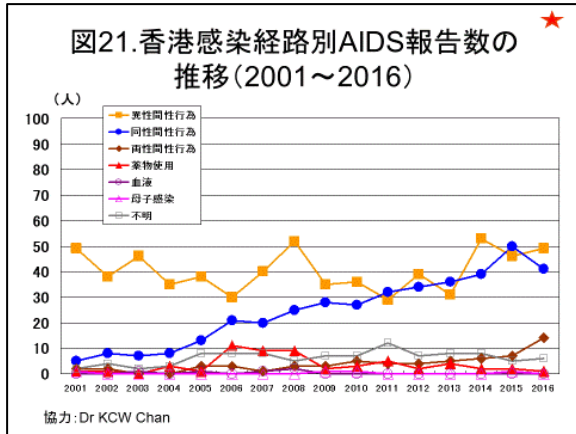
図20.香港感染経路別HIV報告数の推移 (2001~2016)



協力: Dr KCW Chan

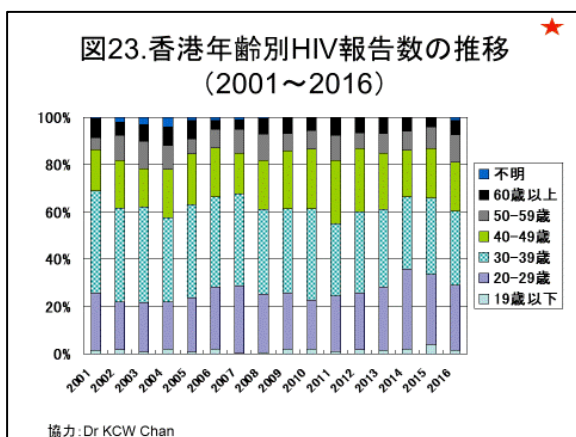
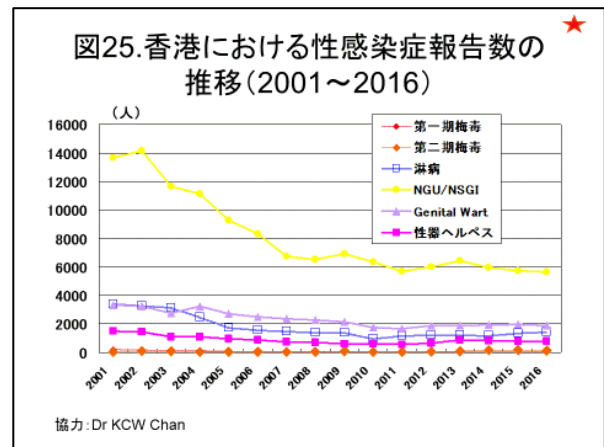
<香港>

香港については、香港国内協力者を得て、2016年分のHIV/AIDSおよびSTIデータを更新した。2016年のHIV報告数は692人(2015年は725人)、AIDS報告数は111人(2015年は110人)である。前年と比べて



STDとして、梅毒、淋病、NGU/NSGI (Non-gonococcal urethritis/ Non-specific genital infection)、Genital Wart、性器ヘルペスの2016年分の報告数を追加した。梅毒に関しては、第1期と第2期ともに前年比では減少した。一方で、淋病は前年より増加している。他国・地域でのSTD増加の動向と合わせて注視すべき点である(表10,図25)。

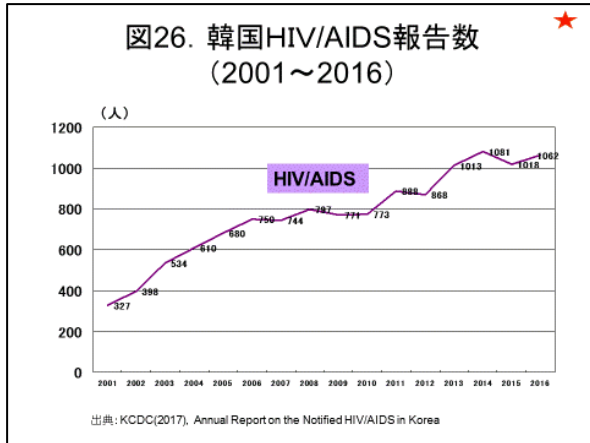
次に、HIVおよびAIDS報告数について、年齢別の内訳をみると、HIVは20代と30代の割合が多く6割弱を占めている。2016年は30代以上の割合が増加している。一方でAIDSは40代~50代以上の割合が多くなっている。(図23,24)。



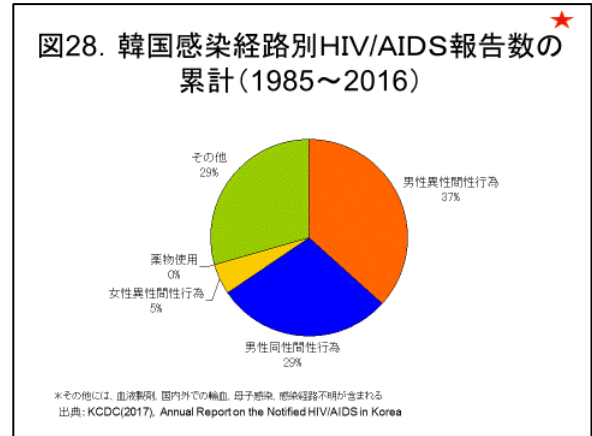
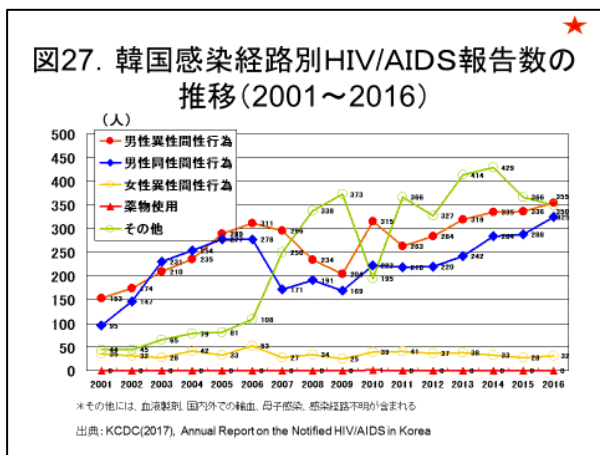
<韓国>

韓国に関しては、韓国国内に協力者をえて、今年度は2016年分までデータを追加した。

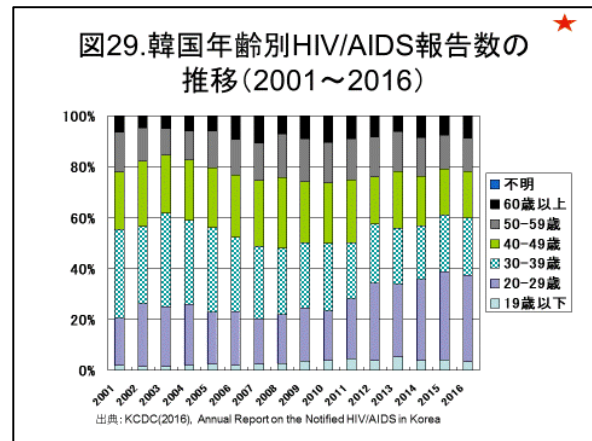
2016年、韓国では1,062件のHIVおよびAIDSが報告された。前年の1018件からは増加して2014年と同程度であり、全体として、ここ2,3年は横ばい傾向である(図26)。



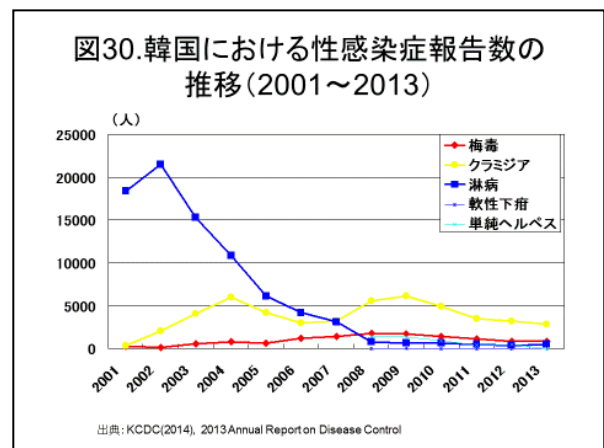
感染経路別の HIV/AIDS 報告数では、男性異性間性行為による報告数が最も多く、男性同性間性行為による感染の報告がそれに次ぐ。男性の性行為感染は、2011年以降増加している。2016年の報告について、HIV 検査を受けた理由は、男女とも AIDS 発症の理由を確かめるため（男 28.7%、女 41.7%）が最も多い。これに比して自発的に検査を受けた割合は低い（男 10.6%、女 3.3%）。全体として、感染経路不明や受検理由不明の割合が高く、HIV 検査を受けることや感染経路を報告することに対するハードルが高いことが伺われる（図 27、図 28）。



年齢別の HIV/AIDS 報告の年次推移は、割合としては 20 代が増加傾向にあったが、2016 年は、割合の大きな変化はなかった。30 代までが 6 割を占め、残りが 40 代以上となっている。



STD については、梅毒に加えて、クラミジア、淋病、軟性下疳、単純ヘルペスをモニターしてきたが、2014 年度以降、新たなデータを追加することができなかった（図 30）。



D. 考察

日本の HIV 流行に影響を与える社会的要因として、日本人と外国人の出入国数の動向と、東アジア地域における HIV/AIDS および STD の疫学情報を調べた。

2016 年の外国人入国者数は過去最高の約 2,322 万人であった。入国者はほとんどの地域で前年と比べて増加しており、構成比は、韓国・台湾・中国・香港という東アジア地域の割合が 70%以上を占めていた。この入国者急増の影響を受け、不法残留者数は 3 年連続で前年より増加し 2016 年は約 6 万 5 千人だった。

2016 年の日本からの出国者は約 1,712 万人と 4 年ぶりに増加に転じた。結果として、2015 年からの外国人入国者数が日本人出国者数を上回る状況は変わらない。日本人の海外旅行先については 2015 年データまで更新した。上位である米国は、前年比増加で横ばい傾向だが、中国、韓国、台湾等は、前年比で減少した。日本人の海外長期滞在者数については、第 1 位の米国と第 2 位の中国が 2012 年以降緩やかに減少し続けているのに対し、第 3 位のタイは 5 年連続で増加した。都市別では、2016 年、バンコク滞在者が 50,108 人で最も多く、前年同様上海を上回った。外国人入国者数が激増する一方で、日本人の海外旅行者数や海外長期滞在者数は減少傾向であり、日本人の渡航先・滞在先は米と東アジアへの集中から、徐々にタイやシンガポールなどアジアの多様な地域へ広がりをみせている。

東アジア地域における HIV/AIDS 流行について、中国、台湾、香港、韓国の 4 か国・地域の 2016 年末分データを更新した。中国と韓国の HIV/AIDS と台湾の HIV が前年比で増加したのに対し、台湾と香港の AIDS は横ばい、そして香港の HIV が初めて減少を示した。地域全体としての流行は拡大傾向である中で、香港における HIV 報告の減少は特筆すべき点である。この主因は香港における MSM の HIV 報告の前年比減があり、香港における MSM 予防対策が功を奏し始めていることが考えられる。東アジア地域における感染経路の主流は性感染であり、特に近年、MSM での感染増加が著しいことをふまえると、香港においてどのような対策により感染増加に歯止めをかけることができたのか、政策分析をすることは、東アジアの他の国・地域にとって非常に有用な情報となる。

STD に関しては、データ入手可能な中国、台湾、香港の 3 か国・地域において、淋病はすべて前年比増、梅毒は香港のみ前年比減だが、中国、台湾では増加している。HIV/AIDS 流行と併せて STD の流行とその背景状況を地域全体として把握しておくことが重要である。

アジア太平洋地域における HIV/AIDS 関連情報は国連諸機関の支援により“Evidence to Action: HIV and AIDS Data for Asia & Pacific”に集約されている [8]。これらのネットワークを活用して状況をモニターしつつ、東アジアの近隣諸国からは最新のデータを直接得て状況把握することは、日本における予防対策を講じる上で重要であろう。また、これらネットワークにおいて我が国の情報を発信していくことも今後の課題である。

E. 結論

2016 年は、外国人入国者数が引き続き大幅に増加し過去最高となった一方で、日本人出国者数は前年比では増加したものの横ばい傾向だった。東アジアの国・地域における HIV/AIDS に関しては、中国、台湾、韓国で報告数が増加した一方で、香港において HIV 報告数の減少が認められた。東アジア地域の感染拡大の主流はどの国においても MSM であり、早急な予防対策が求められている。今後もアジア・太平洋地域のネットワークを活用しつつ近隣諸国との直接的な情報共有を強化することが不可欠である。

謝辞

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表 1. 外国人入国者・日本人出国者数の推移

	外国人入国者	日本人出国者
1984	2,036,488	4,658,833
1985	2,259,894	4,948,366
1986	2,021,450	5,516,193
1987	2,161,275	6,829,338
1988	2,414,447	8,426,867
1989	2,985,764	9,662,752
1990	3,504,470	10,997,431
1991	3,855,952	10,633,777
1992	3,926,347	11,790,699
1993	3,747,157	11,933,620
1994	3,831,367	13,578,934
1995	3,732,450	15,298,125
1996	4,244,529	16,694,769
1997	4,669,514	16,802,750
1998	4,556,845	15,806,218
1999	4,901,317	16,357,572
2000	5,272,095	17,818,590
2001	5,286,310	16,215,657
2002	5,771,975	16,522,804
2003	5,727,240	13,296,330
2004	6,756,830	16,831,112
2005	7,450,103	17,403,565
2006	8,107,963	17,534,565
2007	9,152,186	17,294,935
2008	9,146,108	15,987,250
2009	7,581,330	15,445,684
2010	9,443,696	16,637,224
2011	7,135,407	16,994,200
2012	9,172,146	18,490,657
2013	11,255,221	17,472,748
2014	14,150,185	16,903,388
2015	19,688,247	16,213,789
2016	23,218,912	17,116,420

* 出典：法務省入国管理局「平成 28 年における外国人入国者及び日本人出国者数について（確定版）」

表 4. 日本人海外旅行者（人）の訪問先の推移

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
中国	2,385,700	2,925,553	2,254,800	3,334,255	3,389,976	3,745,881	3,977,479	3,446,117	3,317,500	3,731,200	3,658,169	3,518,153	2,877,533	2,717,600	2,497,700	
米国	4,082,661	3,627,264	3,189,682	3,747,620	3,883,906	3,672,584	3,531,489	3,249,578	2,918,268	3,386,076	3,249,569	3,698,073	3,730,287	3,620,224	3,758,297	
韓国	2,377,321	2,320,837	1,802,542	2,443,070	2,439,809	2,338,921	2,235,963	2,378,102	3,053,311	3,023,009	3,289,051	3,518,792	2,747,750	2,280,434	1,837,782	
香港	1,336,538	1,395,020	867,160	1,126,250	1,210,848	1,311,111	1,324,336	1,324,797	1,204,490	1,316,618	787,220	774,426	607,877	636,432	632,959	
ハワイ	1,528,563	1,483,121	1,340,034	1,482,085	1,517,439	1,362,878	1,296,421	1,175,198	1,117,159	1,239,307	1,241,805	1,465,654	1,518,517	1,511,739	1,482,304	
タイ	1,177,599	1,239,421	1,042,349	1,212,213	1,196,654	1,311,987	1,277,638	1,146,633	1,004,453	993,674	1,103,073	1,341,063	1,515,718	1,254,858	1,349,388	
台湾	971,190	998,497	657,053	887,311	1,124,334	1,161,489	1,166,380	1,086,691	1,000,661	1,080,153	1,242,652	1,392,557	1,381,142	1,594,911	1,586,489	
グアム	901,536	786,947	659,593	906,106	955,245	952,687	931,079	850,034	825,129	893,667	824,005	929,229	893,118	810,856	773,019	
フランス	728,000	723,000	601,000	642,000	735,000	671,000	707,500	674,000	697,000	595,977	593,287	707,864	660,841	776,870	682,121	
ドイツ	779,150	762,471	646,778	715,209	730,232	759,899	661,792	597,655	537,984	605,231	642,542	734,475	711,529	670,804	647,243	
シンガポール	755,766	723,431	434,087	598,840	588,535	594,406	594,514	571,020	489,940	528,817	656,417	757,116	832,845	824,741	789,179	
オーストラリア	673,577	715,458	627,737	710,400	685,330	651,046	573,045	457,232	355,458	398,188	325,740	348,050	324,320	326,430	335,520	

* 出典：日本政府観光局（JNTO）および国土交通省『観光白書』

* 受入国（地域）統計

* 2009 年値で上位 12 カ国

表 5. 国別長期海外滞在者数の推移

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
米国	199,703	214,581	225,589	228,433	235,824	246,988	247,771	250,294	242,394	240,305	241,910	249,683	247,697	240,481	236,344	233,746
中国	52,802	63,098	76,168	98,174	114,170	124,476	126,627	124,480	125,716	129,805	138,829	147,863	132,243	130,687	127,652	125,089
英国	42,586	41,407	40,895	41,132	44,107	48,289	50,053	48,598	44,921	47,423	47,686	48,701	50,016	49,683	49,066	45,183
タイ	22,138	24,746	28,181	31,823	35,581	39,484	41,899	43,195	44,831	46,232	48,970	54,587	58,143	63,061	66,088	68,908
オーストラリア	22,808	26,852	24,473	26,063	27,655	31,220	32,771	32,400	34,218	31,312	32,548	34,333	36,113	36,494	37,482	39,659
ドイツ	22,010	23,525	22,286	22,988	26,033	27,064	26,023	27,756	28,819	27,451	28,117	29,612	28,269	29,873	31,535	32,793
フランス	17,014	25,053	26,799	28,801	22,606	24,699	23,354	24,604	24,444	20,792	22,659	27,508	25,744	30,848	32,420	33,579
シンガポール	22,213	19,660	19,987	20,242	23,613	25,068	24,617	22,277	21,868	23,041	24,454	25,833	29,186	33,732	34,550	34,977
韓国	15,751	18,441	19,630	20,332	21,897	20,866	20,364	20,837	21,368	21,545	22,359	25,426	29,905	28,558	29,127	27,784
カナダ	12,444	13,497	14,444	16,211	20,471	16,768	17,606	19,186	20,827	21,465	21,669	25,202	24,657	23,350	24,843	27,587
台湾	14,023	14,719	15,041	15,416	15,712	15,477	16,045	17,187	18,792	19,902	20,573	14,187	15,054	16,704	18,023	19,456
フィリピン	8,681	8,391	8,981	10,524	10,696	10,524	11,545	13,193	13,528	13,726	12,684	13,141	13,084	13,772	11,769	11,770
インドネシア	10,607	11,421	10,867	10,699	10,483	10,699	10,456	10,702	10,503	10,856	11,590	13,792	15,340	16,868	17,357	18,167
マレーシア	11,005	10,542	9,959	9,322	9,456	9,036	9,288	8,233	8,088	8,445	9,125	18,850	19,713	20,636	21,288	22,109

* 出典：外務省「海外在留邦人数調査統計」速報版・要約版平成 8 年～平成 29 年

* 各年 10 月 1 日現在の数

* 2009 年値で上位 14 国

表 6. 都市別長期滞在者数の推移

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
上海	10,109	15,694	23,518	34,120	40,226	43,960	47,731	48,065	48,146	50,289	56,313	57,238	47,504	47,236	45,941	44,072
ロサンゼルス	23,045	28,946	29,809	32,145	34,807	38,711	39,905	41,246	42,266	43,147	43,507	43,142	42,707	40,014	37,903	35,086
ニューヨーク	47,268	48,710	49,748	47,549	46,360	48,439	40,068	38,326	44,677	44,819	42,375	41,202	38,589	30,119	29,393	32,217
バンコク	17,031	18,903	21,275	23,795	26,430	29,347	31,001	31,643	32,474	33,271	35,243	39,253	41,845	45,587	47,877	50,108
シンガポール	22,213	19,660	19,987	20,242	23,613	25,068	25,068	22,277	21,868	23,041	24,454	25,833	29,186	33,732	34,550	34,977
ロンドン	20,060	19,165	18,647	19,122	20,238	22,025	23,734	21,802	21,649	28,523	29,215	30,343	30,869	30,005	29,177	27,347
香港	23,938	25,421	24,323	24,656	25,751	26,445	23,206	21,214	19,969	19,954	20,580	21,289	22,438	24,174	24,172	23,975
シドニー	12,676	12,463	10,056	10,376	11,671	13,462	14,656	14,182	13,283	12,487	12,277	12,335	11,953	11,775	12,567	13,136
北京	5,294	7,120	7,535	7,561	10,863	12,231	12,196	10,740	10,387	10,074	10,297	11,521	9,828	8,714	8,202	8,326
ハリ	8,037	12,419	13,238	14,351	9,288	10,987	10,153	10,711	10,872	8,564	8,630	11,611	11,792	13,252	13,717	13,710

* 出典：外務省「海外在留邦人数調査統計」速報版・要約版・詳細版平成 8 年～平成 29 年

* 各年 10 月 1 日現在の数

* 2009 年値で上位 10 都市

表 7. 東アジアにおける HIV/AIDS 報告数

		性別	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
中国 (報告数)	HIV	男性	6,327	7,242	13,820	32,152	26,725						34,058	38,824	43,031	55,840	67,852	77,403	
		女性	1,866	2,469	7,731	15,382	9,861						14,191	14,933	15,368	18,614	19,957	21,501	
		不明 合計	26	21	140	72	28												
	AIDS	男性											23,828	27,659	17,872	11,935	12,281	13,111	
		女性											10,360	11,524	6,163	3,730	3,411	3,450	
		不明 合計																	
	合計	男性											47,124	57,886	66,483	69,803	67,775	80,133	90,514
		女性											21,125	24,551	26,457	21,531	22,344	23,368	24,951
		不明 合計																	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性											1.4	1.4	2.4	4.7	5.5	5.9	
		女性											1.4	1.3	2.5	5.0	5.9	6.2	
		不明 合計																	
台湾 (報告数)	HIV	男性	643	753	948	1,422	3,005	2,645	1,774	1,653	1,580	1,731	1,903	2,149	2,192	2,176	2,282	2,334	
		女性	37	67	59	194	422	313	190	99	68	65	65	79	52	52	60	65	62
		不明 合計	680	820	907	1,556	3,427	2,958	1,964	1,752	1,648	1,796	1,968	2,222	2,244	2,236	2,327	2,396	
	AIDS	男性	152	164	215	247	542	728	981	795	875	1,030	1,028	1,218	1,218	1,356	1,323	1,379	1,340
		女性	15	18	21	18	44	45	82	54	55	71	68	70	75	64	61	61	72
		不明 合計	167	182	236	265	586	773	1,063	849	930	1,101	1,096	1,288	1,431	1,387	1,440	1,412	
	合計	男性	795	917	1,063	1,669	3,547	3,373	2,755	2,448	2,455	2,761	2,931	3,367	3,548	3,499	3,641	3,674	
		女性	52	85	80	152	466	358	272	153	123	136	133	143	127	124	126	134	
		不明 合計	847	1,002	1,143	1,821	4,013	3,731	3,027	2,601	2,578	2,897	3,064	3,510	3,675	3,623	3,767	3,808	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	4.2	4.6	3.9	5.8	5.5	3.6	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7
		女性	2.5	3.7	2.8	7.4	9.6	7.0	2.3	1.8	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.9	1.1	0.9	
		不明 合計	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	2.1	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	
香港 (報告数)	HIV	男性	158	201	175	205	255	304	342	348	309	281	344	399	444	549	626	596	
		女性	95	99	54	63	58	69	72	87	87	108	94	114	115	102	99	96	
		不明 合計	213	260	229	268	313	373	414	435	396	389	438	513	559	651	725	692	
	AIDS	男性	48	41	44	44	51	61	68	81	64	65	62	68	70	83	90	87	
		女性	12	12	12	5	13	12	11	15	12	14	20	18	14	25	20	24	
		不明 合計	60	53	56	49	64	73	79	96	76	79	82	86	84	108	110	111	
	合計	男性	206	242	219	249	306	365	410	429	373	346	406	467	514	632	716	683	
		女性	67	71	66	68	71	81	83	102	99	122	114	132	129	127	119	120	
		不明 合計	273	313	285	317	377	446	493	531	472	468	520	599	643	759	835	803	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性	3.3	4.9	4.0	4.7	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.3	4.8	4.3	5.5	5.9	6.3	6.6	7.0	6.9	
		女性	4.6	4.9	4.5	12.0	4.5	5.8	5.5	5.8	7.3	7.7	4.7	6.3	6.2	4.1	5.0	4.0	
		不明 合計	3.6	4.9	4.1	5.5	4.9	5.1	5.2	4.5	5.2	4.9	5.3	6.0	6.7	6.0	6.6	6.2	
韓国	HIV	男性																	
		女性																	
		不明 合計																	
	AIDS	男性																	
		女性																	
		不明 合計																	
	合計	男性	292	363	502	597	640	688	701	743	713	723	827	808	946	1,016	974	1,002	
		女性	35	35	32	33	40	42	43	54	58	50	61	60	67	65	44	30	
		不明 合計	327	398	534	610	680	750	744	797	771	773	888	868	1,013	1,081	1,018	1,062	
	HIV/AIDS比	男性																	
		女性																	
		不明 合計																	

表 8. 東アジアにおける感染経路別 HIV/AIDS 報告数 (1)

	性別	感染経路	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
中国 HIV	男性	異性間の性的接触																	
		同性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計												38616					
	女性	異性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計													15141				
	合計	異性間の性的接触											26440	33658					
	同性間の性的接触											6369	8656						
	薬物使用											10663	8404						
	FBD											965	309						
	輸血												377						
	血液製剤												/						
	母子感染											627	686						
	その他											49	576						
	不明											3136	1091						
	合計											48249	53757						
中国 AIDS	男性	異性間の性的接触																	
		同性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計												27761					
	女性	異性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計													11422				
	合計	異性間の性的接触											18803	24557					
	同性間の性的接触											2530	4112						
	薬物使用											7522	6261						
	FBD											2769	1382						
	輸血												1008						
	血液製剤												—						
	母子感染											410	419						
	その他												464						
	不明											2154	980						
	合計											34188	39183						
中国 HIV/AIDS	男性	異性間の性的接触																	
		同性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計																	
	女性	異性間の性的接触																	
		薬物使用																	
		母子感染																	
		その他																	
		不明																	
		合計																	
	合計	異性間の性的接触	614	1018	1386	4122	4093	13485	18735	24213	32145	45243	58215	56073	62507	68719	76492	83533	
	同性間の性的接触	17	38	22	83	185	1101	1637	3547	5869	8899	12768	15768	19329	26746	32617	34399		
	薬物使用	4909	4883	6069	14383	10384	15028	14063	16763	17608	18185	14665	7690	6502	5783	4675	4684		
	FBD	939	786	9295	17774	2602	4792	4575	4626	3754	3734	1691	495	42	21	22	3		
	輸血	218	154	421	1501	846	/	/	781			1385	591	99	60	27	11		
	血液製剤	33	41	46	53	74	/	/	326			/	/	/	/	/	0		
	母子感染	32	41	124	717	297	661	722	1421	955	1037	1105	789	798	731	697	569		
	その他	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	49	1040	568	453	432	336	305	
	不明	1457	2771	4328	8973	18133	6302	8428	10154	7917	5290	2071	460	389	1009	599	1051		
	合計	8219	9732	21691	47606	36614	44070	48161	60081	68249	82437	92940	82434	90119	103501	115465	124555		

表9. 東アジアにおける年齢階級別 HIV/AIDS 報告数 (1)

		2001				2002				2003				2004				2005				2006				2007				2008			
		男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計
中国	HV	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
中国	AIDS	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
中国	HV/AIDS	合計																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		不明																															
台湾	HV	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
台湾	AIDS	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
香港	HV/AIDS	合計																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		不明																															
韓国	HV	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
韓国	AIDS	≤19																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		合計																															
韓国	HV/AIDS	合計																															
		20-29																															
		30-39																															
		40-49																															
		50+																															
		不明																															

表9. 東アジアにおける年齢階級別 HIV/AIDS 報告数（2）

報告年	性別	2009				2010				2011				2012				2013				2014				2015				2016									
		男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計	男性	女性	不明	合計										
中国	HV	<19																																					
		20-29																																					
		30-39																																					
		40-49																																					
	AIDS	50-59																																					
		60+																																					
		不明																																					
		合計																																					
	HIV/AIDS	<19																																					
		20-29																																					
		30-39																																					
		40-49																																					
	台湾	50-59																																					
60+																																							
不明																																							
合計																																							
香港	HV	<19																																					
		20-29																																					
		30-39																																					
		40-49																																					
	AIDS	50-59																																					
		60+																																					
		不明																																					
		合計																																					
	韓国	<19																																					
		20-29																																					
		30-39																																					
		40-49																																					
	HIV/AIDS	50-59																																					
60+																																							
不明																																							
合計																																							

表 10. 東アジアにおける性感染症報告数

Diseases	Sex	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
中国 Syphilis (Prim and Sec)	Male						51,494	60,338	71,138	78,343							
	Female						48,259	57,648	67,529	77,582							
	Total	77,245	82,549	80,854	66,478	74,017	99,753	117,988	138,667	155,925	177,387	180,480	410,074	406,772	419,091	433,974	493,026
Chlamydia 衣原体	Male																
	Female																
	Total																
Gonorrhoea 淋病	Male				177,053	131,183	127,151	118,167		96,601	84,295						
	Female				51,241	38,532	34,892	30,793		25,452	21,249						
	Total	234,561	177,793	190,058	228,294	169,715	162,403	148,960	134,303	122,053	105,544	102,070	91,853	99,859	95,473	100,245	119,382
Chanoroid 軟下疳	Male				438	342											
	Female				107	121											
	Total				545	463											
Lymphogranuloma Venereum 性淋淋肉芽肿	Male				250	195											
	Female				143	194											
	Total				393	389											
台湾 Syphilis (Prim and Sec)	Male	2,588	2,648	2,615	3,453	3,516	3,957	4,078	4,630	4,609	4,525	4,584	4,369	4,929	5,287	6,487	7,094
	Female	1,586	1,555	1,379	1,257	1,286	1,851	1,729	1,895	2,060	1,493	1,474	1,264	1,193	1,390	1,484	1,631
	Total	4,174	4,203	3,994	5,210	5,302	5,808	5,807	6,525	6,699	6,018	6,058	5,633	6,122	6,677	7,971	8,725
Chlamydia	Male																
	Female																
	Total																
Gonorrhoea	Male	391	737	1,487	1,814	1,375	1,297	1,298	1,492	1,915	2,045	1,787	1,824	1,997	2,394	3,772	4,141
	Female	48	94	153	166	140	140	146	129	222	173	139	110	149	156	298	328
	Total	439	831	1,640	1,980	1,515	1,437	1,444	1,621	2,137	2,218	1,926	1,944	2,148	2,550	4,070	4,469
香港 Syphilis (Primary)	Male	213	169	114	121	66	47	45	43	60	47	52	46	42	41	52	40
	Female	8	5	1	3	6	1	45	2	3	3	0	0	0	1	1	0
	Total	221	174	115	124	72	48	50	45	63	50	52	46	42	41	53	40
Syphilis (Secondary)	Male	45	56	56	34	34	38	50	48	62	44	42	47	87	169	126	143
	Female	15	11	12	15	2	4	8	8	7	10	9	11	2	4	3	4
	Total	60	67	68	49	36	42	58	56	69	54	51	58	89	173	129	147
Gonorrhoea	Male	2856	2719	2747	2129	1535	1413	1277	1254	1264	949	1044	1084	1067	998	1191	1246
	Female	550	568	389	364	213	182	204	169	137	119	135	138	144	165	166	187
	Total	3406	3287	3136	2492	1748	1595	1481	1423	1401	988	1179	1222	1211	1163	1357	1433
NGU/NSGI*	Male	6659	7084	5897	5281	4542	4540	3782	3766	3922	3350	3297	3501	3843	3480	3544	3539
	Female	7026	7066	5743	5839	4756	3774	2979	2752	3006	2988	2393	2501	2608	2461	2216	2125
	Total	13684	14150	11640	11120	9298	8314	6761	6518	6928	6338	5690	6002	6451	5941	5760	5664
Genital Wart	Male	2515	2485	2146	2554	2069	1901	1793	1659	1952	1266	1174	1327	1317	1398	1405	1298
	Female	801	760	600	695	660	592	574	621	688	505	503	556	585	549	548	577
	Total	3316	3245	2746	3249	2729	2493	2367	2278	2140	1771	1677	1883	1902	1947	1953	1865
Herpes Genitalis	Male	1221	1170	923	877	791	716	610	554	415	410	410	426	609	574	515	480
	Female	251	262	186	208	189	162	156	161	188	184	173	232	279	272	257	309
	Total	1472	1432	1109	1085	980	878	766	715	603	594	583	658	888	846	772	789
韓国 Syphilis (Prim and Sec)	Male	118	81	325	410	293	498	585									
	Female	134	53	257	397	381	681	830									
	Total	252	134	582	807	674	1,179	1,415	1,788	1,881	1,402	1,167	872	859			
Chlamydia	Male	31	32	37	86	43	57	129									
	Female	393	2,028	4,011	5,884	4,202	2,921	3,989									
	Total	354	2,060	4,048	5,970	4,245	2,978	3,118	5,598	6,138	4,914	3,481	3,182	2,861			
Gonorrhoea	Male	14,254	15,529	10,182	7,066	4,403	3,488	2,578									
	Female	4,138	5,850	5,128	3,729	1,732	751	537									
	Total	18,392	21,479	15,290	10,845	6,135	4,239	3,115	797	612	633	472	327	504			
Chanoroid	Male	5	1	0	0	0	0	0									
	Female	0	0	1	0	0	0	0									
	Total	5	1	1	0	0	0	0	15	24	3	2	19	2			
Herpes simplex	Male																
	Female																
	Total								1,445	1,328	893	462	533	0			

*NGU: Non-gonococcal urethritis, NSGI: Non-specific genital infection

*表 7~10 出典

中国: Data from Professor Kong-lai Zhang, Some of the public health issues in China、協力: 夏医師、福建省エイズコン
トロールセンター、呂先生他、中国中央 CDC エイズセンター

台湾: Data from Dr Chin-Hui Yang and Ms Yen-Fen, Centers for Diseases Control, Department of Health, Taiwan, R. O. C.

香港: Virtual AIDS Office of Hong Kong, Department of Health, The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative
Region <http://www.info.gov.hk/aids/english/index.htm>、Data from Dr Kenny Chan Chi-wai, Center for Health
Protection, Hong Kong

韓国: Korea Centers for Disease Control, HIV/AIDS Information System、Data from Dr Mee-Kyung Kee, Ministry of Health,
Welfare and Family Affairs/National Institute of Health, Dr Eun-Hwan Oh, Department of Health Management, Hyupsung
University

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薬物乱用・依存者、性感染症患者の HIV 感染状況及び内外の HIV 流行等の動向に関する研究

海外及び国内の HIV/性感染症の流行とリスク情報の収集分析に関する研究（3） 我国の STI 流行及び妊娠中絶率等の動向に関する研究

立山由紀子、木原雅子、木原正博

京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野

研究要旨

【目的】日本の主な性感染症の報告数・定点当たり報告数、人工妊娠中絶数、コンドーム出荷量など、性行動の状況に関係し、HIV 流行への脆弱性の指標になりうると思われる関連統計情報を収集・分析する。

【方法】主に厚生労働省の感染症発生動向調査や衛生行政報告から情報を収集した。

【結果】主な定点把握性感染症（性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマ）は、細菌性疾患は 2002 年のピーク、ウイルス性疾患は 2005、6 年のピーク以来、減少を続けていたが、男性では全疾患が 2009 年、女性では 2009-10 年以降下げ止まり、わずかな増減を繰り返し横這いの状態にある。しかし、全数把握疾患である梅毒は、これらの性感染症とは全く逆に、男女とも 2003 年にボトムに達した後、緩やかに増加してきたが、2013 年には男性で顕著な増加が見られ、マスコミでも話題となった。2014 年以降は、男女とも急増が認められ、2016 年も同様の傾向が続いている（前年比：男性 65%増、女性 82%増）。本年度は、各性感染症について出生コホート分析を行ったが、梅毒は男女とも若いコホートで様に急増が見られ、それ以外の性感染症では、出生コホート間に動向の大きな違いは認められず、いずれも減少傾向を示したが、男性のヘルペスウイルス感染症と尖圭コンジローマでは、最も若いコホートで増加傾向が続くという特異な動向が観察された。一方、人工妊娠中絶は 2001 年をピークに全年齢層で減少傾向が続いている。一方、コンドームの国内出荷量は 1994 年以降、減少が続いてきたが、2010 年以降急速の増加を続け、2014 年は 4.5 億個と、2009 年の 79%増を記録した。2015 年からは国内出荷数の減少とともに、輸出出荷数の大幅な増加を認めている。

【考察】性感染症の動向から、男女とも若年層で、無防備な性行動の再燃の兆候が現れているため、今後の動向に注意が必要であるとともに、予防教育の再強化が必要であると考えられる。また、欧米諸国同様、同性間感染が示唆される男性梅毒が急増しているため、HIV 流行の再燃を防ぐためにも同性間対策の強化が非常に重要である。

A. 目的

日本の主な性感染症（STI）5 疾患（全数把握疾患：梅毒、定点把握疾患：性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症、尖圭コンジローマの 4 疾患）に関する報告数・定点当たり報告数を集約・分析し、性別、年齢別、地域別の経年動向をわかりやすく提示する。他に、性行動の指標となると思われる、人工妊娠中

絶報告数・実施数、コンドーム国内出荷個数などの情報を集約・分析して提示する。

B. 方法及び情報源

STI のうち、全数把握疾患である梅毒と、定点把握疾患である性器クラミジア感染症、性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症、淋菌感染症、尖圭コンジローマの、計 5 疾患について、サーベイランスのデータを収集した。データは国立感染症研究所のサーベイランス

(感染症発生動向調査) から入手した。そのうち 1999 (4 - 12 月) - 2016 年のデータについては、同研究所感染症情報センターのウェブサイトから入手した (<https://www.niid.go.jp/niid/ja/idwr.html>)。本年度は新たに、出生コホート別の動向分析を行い、2000 年時点の年齢を起点として、その後の 5 年ごとの報告数の違いを追跡した。人工妊娠中絶及び出生のデータは、総務省統計局 e-Stat (<https://www.e-stat.go.jp/stat-search/files?page=1&layout=datalist&lid=000001194504>、https://www.e-stat.go.jp/SG1/estat/GL08020103.do?_toGL08020103_&listID=000001190825&requestSender=dsearch) より入手した。コンドームの国内出荷個数については薬事工業生産動態統計調査 1979-2016 年をコンドーム工業会より入手した。

C. 結果

(1) 性感染症の年次別動向

1) 梅毒

全数報告が義務付けられている梅毒は 2016 年には全国で 4,575 件 (男 3,189 件、女 1,386 件) が報告された。男女とも 2003 年から 2008 年にかけて増加し、2009 年から減少に転じたが、2011 年以降再び増加したが、2013 年には男性で特に顕著に増加し、2014 年は男女とも急増が見られた。2016 年も男女ともさらに急増が続いている (図 1、表 1)。都道府県別では、男性は、埼玉県、東京都、神奈川県、愛知県、大阪府、兵庫県で、女性では、東京都、神奈川県、愛知県、大阪府で増加傾向が最も明瞭に見られた (表 2-3)。年齢別に見ると、男女とも 15 歳以上のほぼすべての年齢層で、増加傾向が認められた (表 2-1)。

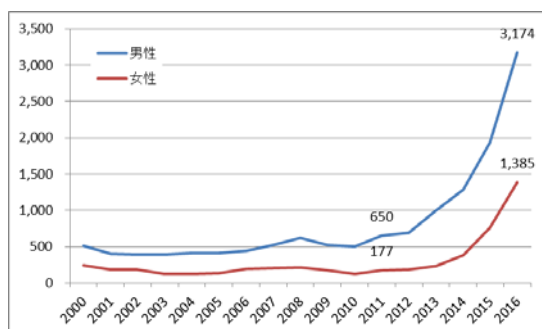


図 1. 梅毒報告数の年次数位

2) 定点把握 4 疾患

性感染症の定点把握疾患には性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症、尖圭コンジローマの 4 疾患がある。2016 年は 985 ヲ所の定点から症例が報告されている。

定点報告数の総数、定点当たり報告数は性器クラミジアが最も多く、次いで、性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症、淋菌感染症、そして尖圭コンジローマと続く。細菌性感染症である性器クラミジアと淋菌感染症は 2002 年をピークに一貫して減少傾向が続く、2010 年にいずれもやや上昇した後減少したが、2013 年と 2014 年にそれぞれ再び増加し、2015 年には減少するなど、小さな増減を繰り返しているが大きく見れば横這いである。一方、ウイルス性感染症である性器ヘルペスと尖圭コンジローマでは、それぞれ 2006、2005 年のピーク以降、やや減少傾向にあるが、ここ数年緩やかに上昇を続けている (図 2)。

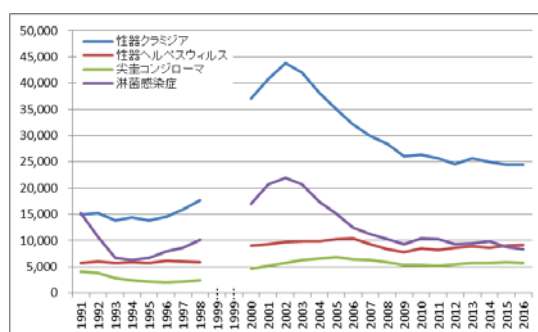


図 2. 4 性感染症の定点当たり報告数

① 性器クラミジア感染症・淋菌感染症

性器クラミジア感染症の 2016 年の報告数は総数 24,397 件、定点当たり報告数は 24.77 件、淋菌感染症では、それぞれ 8,298 件、8.42 件であった。性器クラミジアは、1990 年代は男性優位の疾患で、21 世紀に女性有意の疾患に転じたが、その男女差は最近徐々に縮小しつつある (定点当たり報告数の女/男比は 2000 年 1.33、2011 年 1.19、2016 年 1.08)。一方、淋菌感染症は圧倒的に男性に多い疾患であるが、男女差は以前より縮小している (男/女比は 2000 年 5.21、2016 年 4.05) (表 1)。

表 3-1 は、男女別・年齢群別に性器クラミジアの定点当たり報告数の年次推移を示したものである。性器クラミジアは男女ともに、10代後半から20代をピークに30代までに多い疾患であるが、定点あたりの報告数は、30未満では女性に多いが、30歳以上では逆転して男性に多い。男女ともに、どの年齢層も2002・3年をピークに減少してきたが、ほぼすべての年齢層において、2013年にやや増加がみられたが、ここ数年はほぼ横ばいであり、15~19歳では減少が続いている。

表 3-2 は、男女別・年齢群別に淋菌感染症の定点当たり報告数の年次推移を示したものである。淋菌感染症の報告数は、ほぼ全年齢で女性より男性に数倍以上多く、男女ともに報告数は、20代から30代に集中している。報告数は、男性では2001・2年、女性では、2002・3年をピークに減少傾向が続いていたが、ほぼすべての年齢層において、ここ数年下げ止まりの傾向にある。2016年は全体的に減少しているが、男性の35・50歳代で若干の増加している。

②性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマ

性器ヘルペスの2016年の報告数は総数9,175件、定点当たり報告数は9.31件で、尖圭コンジローマでは、それぞれ5,734件、5.82件であった。性器ヘルペスは、女性に多い疾患で、男女比に特に変化は認められない。一方、尖圭コンジローマは男性に比較的多い疾患であるが、ここ数年で男女比が若干の拡大傾向にある(表1)。

表 3-3 に示されているように、2006年までは、男女とも、年齢層によって、減少、横ばい、もしくは増加傾向と年齢層によって様々な動向を示していたが、2007年以降はどの年代でも、減少傾向となった。しかし、2010年以降は、男女とも、特に35・49歳で増加傾向にある。2016年は、男女ともに若干の増加がみられ、特に、男性25・29歳、女性30・49歳で増加を認めている。

表 3-4 に示されているように、男女とも、

2003・5年にピークに達した後、減少傾向が続いてきたが、2010年以降は男性においてやや上昇に傾向に転じている。

(2) 性感染症の出生コホート別動向

表 5、図 3 (表 5 の後の頁) は、梅毒、性器クラミジア、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマ 2000年の年齢で固定したコホートを2015年まで5年ごとに追跡した結果を示したものである。

梅毒については、最も若いコホート群では男女とも一様に2010年から2015年にかけて顕著な増加を示しているが、最も若い男性のコホートでは2005年から増加が始まっていた。その他の性感染症については、最も若いコホートで2005年に増加が見られた以降は一様に減少しており、梅毒と著しく異なる動向を示している。ただ、性器ヘルペスと尖圭コンジローマについては男性の最も若いコホートだけが増加傾向を示すという特異な動きをしていた。

(5) 人工妊娠中絶

1955年には117万人台であった人工妊娠中絶件数も実施率もその後徐々に減少していったが、1990年代後半にやや増加した後、再び減少に転じ、2016年には中絶件数と中絶実施率は、それぞれ168,015件、女性人口1000人対6.5件となった(表5-1、表5-2)。

人工妊娠中絶率について年齢群別の年次推移を見ると(表6-1、2)、1955年以降、20歳未満を除けば、いずれの年齢群でも大きく減少した。1990年半ば以降には、10歳代と20歳代の若年層で増加に転じたが、2000・1年頃にピークに達した後、減少傾向が続いている。しかし、2009・2012年以降は下げ止まり、ほぼ横ばいの状態となったが、10歳代と20歳代では再び減少傾向に転じている(図4、図5、表6-2)。

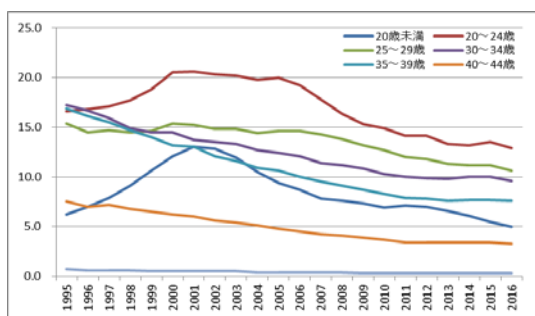


図 4. 年代別の妊娠中絶率の推移
(女性人口 1000 人対)

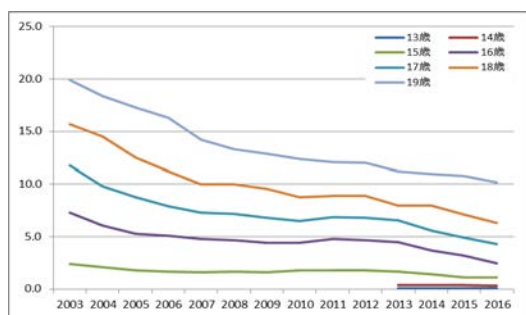


図 5. 10 歳代の妊娠中絶率
(女性人口 1000 人対)

一方、出生率は 35-44 歳の微増傾向を除いて、いずれもこの間一貫して減少しているが(表 6-3)、中絶の増減は、出産数の変化からは説明できない。

(6) コンドーム出荷数

コンドームの国内出荷個数は 1970 年代末より増減を繰り返しながら全体的に漸減傾向にあったが、1999 年以降顕著に減り始め、以来一貫して減り続けて、2008,9 年には 2.47 億個と、1993 年(6.84 億個)の約 1/3 の出荷個数にまで減少したが、2010 年、2011 年には、2.83、2.88 億個と増加に転じ、2014 年には、4.59 億個と大きく上昇した(図 5、表 7)。2016 年は暫定値であるが、3.42 億個と減少している一方で、輸出入出荷数は大幅に増加している。

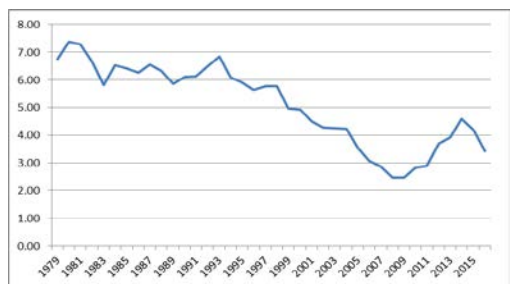


図 6. コンドーム国内出荷量の推移(億)

D. 考察

梅毒、性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマの 5 つの性感染症、人工妊娠中絶率、コンドーム国内出荷量について公式統計に基づいて、動向を分析した。

主な定点把握性感染症(性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマ)は、男女とも、近年減少を続けていたが、性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症は、下げ止まり、ほぼ横ばい状態が続いている。性器ヘルペスで 30 歳代、40 歳代において男女ともに若干の上昇傾向、尖圭コンジローマで男性の上昇傾向を認めている。一方、梅毒は、これらの性感染症とは全く逆に、男女とも近年増加傾向にあり、2009-10 年にはやや減少に転じたが、その後再び上昇に転じ、2013 年には特に男性で大きく増加し、2014 年からは男女とも急増が続いている。出生コホート分析からは、最も若い男性コホートで、①他のコホートに比べて、梅毒が最も早く増加を始めた、②性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマが増加を続けている、という特異な動向を示しており、このコホートは、性行動の活発さあるいはタイプにおいて特徴あるコホートである可能性が示唆された。

人工妊娠中絶は 2001 年をピークに全年齢層で減少傾向が続いている。一方、コンドームの国内出荷量は 1993 年以降、減少が続いてきたが、2010 年以降、上昇に転じた。2015 年からは再び減少に転じるとともに、輸出入出荷数の大幅な増加を認めている。

以上の結果、及び一昨年度報告した梅毒文献のレビューの結果や近年の若者における性行動の変化を総合して、以下のように考察する。

- ① 梅毒(男女)と梅毒以外の性感染症の動向が異なる(ほぼ正反対)のは、流行している集団の特性が異なるためと考えられる。
- ② 欧米でも近年男性で梅毒流行が生じているが、これは、同性間での流行であることが明らかとなっている(70-80%が MSM)。日本の男性における梅毒流行も

同性間における流行である可能性が高い。また、女性の梅毒の上昇も他の女性の性感染症と対比的な動きをしていることから、MSMからの二次感染の可能性もある。このような観点から、梅毒については、欧米の動向にも留意しつつ、今後の経過観察が必要である。

- ③ 性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマは、主に異性間感染を反映すると考えられるが、これらの性感染症は、下げ止まるか、増加傾向を示しているため、無防備な異性間行動リスクが再び高まる可能性があるため、今後、男女共にこれらの疾患の動向に注視する必要がある。
- ④ 人工妊娠中絶の動向では、10歳代でもっとも早く減少が始まり、その後4年遅れて、20-24歳で減少が始まっているが、これは、無防備な性行動の減少が、若年層から始まったことを示唆している（コホート効果）。10歳代と20歳代

では、一時下げ止まったが、再び減少に転じているため、上述の性感染症の動向とあわせて、今後の女性の変化には特に注意が必要である。

- ⑤ コンドームの国内出荷個数は、性感染症、人工妊娠中絶、性行動の変化とはほぼ関連のない動きをしてきていることから、コンドーム出荷数から、性行動リスクを直接予測することは難しい。

以上、本年度までの研究によって、21世紀に入って減少を続けていた性器クラミジア感染症、淋菌感染症、性器ヘルペス、尖圭コンジローマが、下げ止まりもしくは増加に転じたこと、妊娠中絶率が若年層で下げ止まっていることから、若い年齢層にリスクの高い異性間性行動の新しい「波」が今後生じる可能性が示唆された。また、梅毒報告数が急増していることは、同性間の高リスク性行動の高まりを示唆している可能性があるため、これらの動向を念頭においた対策の重点化が重要と考えられる。

表1. 全性感染症の年次別・性別推移

報告数

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	1999 (4-12月)*	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016				
全体																															
梅毒																															
性器クラミジア感染症	14,913	15,288	13,787	14,332	13,771	14,534	15,923	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614	17,614		
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	5,746	5,980	5,753	5,887	5,715	6,177	5,977	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	5,819	
尖圭コンジローマ	4,005	3,724	2,832	2,409	2,147	2,060	2,089	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	2,380	
淋菌感染症	15,218	10,723	6,723	6,288	6,720	7,949	8,609	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	10,070	
男性																															
梅毒																															
性器クラミジア感染症	9,897	8,983	7,711	7,993	7,762	7,984	8,974	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	9,617	
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	3,500	3,605	3,382	3,161	3,152	3,131	3,010	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	3,014	
尖圭コンジローマ	3,091	2,808	2,082	1,692	1,421	1,379	1,425	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	1,588	
淋菌感染症	13,566	9,224	5,797	5,516	5,953	6,988	7,711	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	8,890	
女性																															
梅毒																															
性器クラミジア感染症	5,016	6,265	6,076	6,339	6,009	6,550	6,949	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	7,007	
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	2,246	2,375	2,261	2,261	2,583	3,046	2,967	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	2,805	
尖圭コンジローマ	914	700	700	717	736	681	674	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762	762
淋菌感染症	1,652	1,489	926	772	767	981	898	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	

*梅毒は第0-1群、梅毒以外は第21-3群

定点当たり報告数

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	1999 (4-12月)*	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016			
全体																														
梅毒																														
性器クラミジア感染症	25.49	26.04	23.13	23.93	22.80	24.06	26.28	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	28.78	
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	9.82	10.20	9.65	9.83	9.46	10.23	9.86	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51	9.51
尖圭コンジローマ	6.65	6.35	4.75	4.02	3.55	3.41	3.46	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86	3.86
淋菌感染症	26.01	18.30	11.28	10.50	11.13	13.16	14.21	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45	16.45
男性																														
梅毒																														
性器クラミジア感染症	16.92	15.35	12.84	13.34	12.85	13.22	14.81	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	15.71	
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	5.88	6.15	5.69	5.28	5.22	5.18	4.97	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82	4.82
尖圭コンジローマ	5.28	4.79	3.51	2.82	2.35	2.28	2.35	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61
淋菌感染症	23.19	15.74	9.73	9.21	9.86	11.57	12.72	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53	14.53
女性																														
梅毒																														
性器クラミジア感染症	8.57	10.69	10.19	10.58	9.95	10.84	11.47	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07	13.07
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症	3.84	4.05	3.96	4.35	4.24	5.04	4.90	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58	4.58
尖圭コンジローマ	1.96	1.86	1.24	1.20	1.20	1.13	1.11	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23
淋菌感染症	2.82	2.88	1.85	1.29	1.27	1.89	1.48	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93	1.93

*梅毒は14-32週

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 2-1. 梅毒: 年齢別・性別

報告数

全体	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	759	585	575	509	535	543	637	719	827	691	621	827	875	1,228	1,661	2,690	4,575
0歳	6	4	7	4	4	3	10	5	9	5	1	5	4	4	9	14	16
1-4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15-19	17	20	23	19	23	21	32	20	30	21	8	24	26	42	65	101	151
20-24	74	54	47	45	69	64	73	93	91	89	57	80	98	133	207	402	721
25-29	94	95	83	77	83	80	89	85	102	93	89	115	111	176	225	410	725
30-34	67	54	79	68	73	78	98	97	110	96	100	113	107	151	202	347	558
35-39	61	50	56	60	65	73	94	96	101	98	100	113	135	190	230	332	516
40-44	51	42	38	39	60	50	49	68	99	78	46	88	109	147	219	364	565
45-49	52	47	25	35	32	32	43	58	75	46	44	56	85	101	162	233	430
50-54	67	39	49	47	41	45	30	51	47	33	35	42	45	72	80	159	286
55-59	45	33	38	40	19	26	50	52	60	47	32	35	41	51	59	86	200
60-64	33	31	28	21	13	17	19	29	28	26	43	42	39	39	57	69	94
65-69	40	27	17	6	12	12	18	25	16	23	28	27	18	32	44	56	106
70歳以上	151	89	84	48	38	41	32	39	58	36	40	69	56	89	100	115	207
男性	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	512	400	395	388	408	411	441	521	615	523	497	650	692	993	1,284	1,930	3,189
0歳	3	1	2	1	3	3	4	2	7	3	1	3	2	0	5	4	9
1-4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15-19	8	5	15	11	10	8	8	10	10	8	3	13	14	18	20	25	47
20-24	45	34	33	30	48	37	42	46	53	54	39	54	60	93	118	162	292
25-29	55	67	51	60	66	59	61	56	75	69	84	92	84	143	151	266	436
30-34	53	35	50	50	55	59	70	72	84	77	68	113	91	128	167	268	400
35-39	50	41	44	43	55	64	72	73	83	83	90	95	117	164	203	282	415
40-44	46	33	35	34	54	44	36	54	83	64	42	81	99	136	196	313	491
45-49	40	39	23	30	25	27	35	44	61	37	32	49	71	91	147	208	376
50-54	54	30	41	39	36	41	28	41	41	27	33	35	40	66	76	141	251
55-59	36	23	30	37	15	22	40	47	54	39	27	32	37	47	56	82	180
60-64	25	26	21	18	11	14	16	26	25	22	37	31	30	32	52	63	89
65-69	23	21	14	4	10	10	13	19	13	23	24	21	15	26	39	49	92
70歳以上	73	45	36	31	19	23	16	28	36	17	16	31	31	49	54	67	111
女性	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	247	185	180	121	125	132	196	198	212	168	124	177	183	235	377	760	1,386
0歳	3	3	5	3	1	0	6	3	2	2	0	0	2	4	4	10	7
1-4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15-19	9	15	8	8	13	13	24	10	20	13	5	11	12	24	45	76	104
20-24	29	20	14	15	21	27	31	47	38	35	18	26	38	40	89	240	429
25-29	39	28	32	17	17	21	28	29	27	24	15	23	27	33	74	144	289
30-34	14	19	29	18	18	19	28	25	26	19	18	18	16	23	35	79	158
35-39	11	9	12	17	10	9	22	21	28	15	10	18	18	26	27	50	101
40-44	5	9	3	5	6	6	13	14	16	14	4	7	10	11	23	51	74
45-49	12	8	2	5	7	5	8	14	14	9	12	7	14	10	15	25	54
50-54	13	9	8	8	5	4	2	10	6	6	2	7	5	6	4	18	35
55-59	9	10	8	3	4	4	10	5	6	8	5	3	4	4	3	4	20
60-64	8	5	7	3	2	3	3	3	3	4	6	11	9	7	5	6	5
65-69	17	6	3	2	2	2	5	6	3	0	4	6	3	6	5	7	14
70歳以上	78	44	48	17	19	18	16	11	22	19	24	38	25	40	46	48	96

出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動

表 2-2. 梅毒：都道府県別

報告数	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
全体	759	585	575	509	535	543	637	719	827	691	621	827	875	1,228	1,661	2,690	4,575
総数	14	11	20	7	12	9	12	13	13	14	14	7	21	25	22	58	118
北海道	5	0	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	0	0	0	6	8	4	2	8
青森県	15	5	4	4	4	5	1	3	1	3	1	0	0	3	2	2	9
岩手県	8	3	4	8	7	8	19	7	8	13	16	16	21	43	23	25	29
宮城県	12	8	8	1	1	4	3	1	4	4	5	5	6	2	2	3	9
秋田県	1	2	5	5	3	7	7	8	6	6	3	0	2	2	4	8	11
山形県	8	2	8	14	6	5	3	9	4	6	6	4	4	2	12	7	24
福島県	5	9	14	7	8	6	7	12	10	12	19	25	23	24	24	42	69
茨城県	3	4	3	9	2	7	8	8	7	7	7	7	11	14	13	35	46
栃木県	2	3	7	5	6	3	8	8	11	9	6	3	10	15	8	24	33
群馬県	15	12	10	11	16	15	10	25	32	18	17	19	31	39	51	108	193
埼玉県	23	14	10	8	14	11	18	23	25	24	39	25	30	57	80	80	140
千葉県	121	100	58	68	63	91	135	164	203	197	172	248	297	417	507	1,057	1,671
東京都	39	17	24	10	26	26	23	38	30	34	33	42	50	79	106	161	290
神奈川県	6	9	5	4	3	7	6	6	3	3	2	8	8	2	15	22	49
新潟県	2	4	3	0	1	3	4	3	12	2	5	6	8	6	8	20	12
富山県	7	4	3	5	5	4	1	1	3	3	4	5	4	6	9	10	15
石川県	1	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	11	4	1	4	2	2	3	10	15
福井県	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	4	3	9	8
山梨県	6	12	4	3	4	4	11	9	7	4	6	7	9	10	4	15	20
長野県	3	8	10	3	2	5	6	21	15	10	10	7	14	3	7	11	33
岐阜県	10	9	12	7	13	17	13	17	32	24	22	18	22	20	26	50	61
静岡県	25	17	26	19	36	46	50	76	70	46	53	44	39	54	112	122	259
愛知県	9	2	6	5	10	6	8	13	10	20	3	6	3	14	17	21	39
三重県	11	6	4	3	3	0	4	2	5	5	9	6	1	12	11	13	30
滋賀県	17	29	16	23	16	14	8	7	7	5	5	8	11	12	13	43	69
京都府	130	114	115	84	57	64	43	40	82	61	56	77	97	157	240	324	591
大阪府	48	24	30	20	20	14	22	17	14	14	10	35	18	36	42	89	184
兵庫県	11	4	5	3	3	0	2	3	1	2	3	6	6	6	16	19	36
奈良県	6	3	3	1	3	1	4	0	5	3	4	3	6	8	9	21	18
和歌山県	2	0	2	1	2	3	1	1	0	4	0	4	3	0	2	3	8
鳥取県	4	2	4	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	4	8	2
島根県	18	17	13	10	14	5	3	6	7	5	9	9	7	8	21	25	40
岡山県	9	9	13	9	10	6	7	7	12	6	10	7	9	12	9	22	49
広島県	37	20	12	7	1	5	9	9	6	5	2	0	5	7	7	8	10
山口県	8	3	4	11	15	6	4	1	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	2	11
徳島県	13	20	20	18	20	23	12	5	9	3	8	2	4	18	12	14	26
香川県	11	6	7	4	9	3	4	5	8	4	2	0	3	1	8	6	23
愛媛県	3	4	4	11	9	6	27	6	4	5	3	3	10	8	4	11	13
高知県	60	29	24	26	33	38	34	44	72	53	28	49	28	45	51	69	108
福岡県	3	1	5	4	3	4	3	4	5	3	0	0	4	1	4	6	15
佐賀県	2	4	2	6	3	3	10	4	4	4	2	7	2	3	19	12	12
長崎県	7	14	19	22	32	28	39	51	38	21	12	12	13	7	7	11	16
熊本県	1	7	9	16	9	5	6	6	8	6	6	9	1	3	5	12	12
大分県	2	3	3	3	5	5	9	16	7	11	5	8	4	9	11	4	9
宮崎県	11	5	9	15	17	13	19	11	6	5	7	25	6	7	7	9	18
鹿児島県	3	4	6	4	11	6	6	7	5	6	6	2	12	11	16	39	41
沖縄県																	

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 2-3-1. 梅毒：都道府県別・男性

報告数

男性

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	512	400	395	388	408	411	441	521	615	523	497	650	692	993	1,284	1,930	3,189
北海道	8	6	12	3	9	9	7	8	7	13	4	13	15	13	24	42	75
青森県	3	0	1	1	0	2	3	1	1	0	0	0	4	2	2	4	14
岩手県	6	2	1	4	0	3	1	1	3	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	7
宮城県	5	2	4	6	5	8	12	3	6	10	9	12	14	26	14	22	15
秋田県	5	4	3	1	0	4	3	1	4	3	3	4	4	5	0	1	7
山形県	1	1	5	4	1	1	1	3	3	2	0	1	2	2	6	9	15
福島県	5	0	2	11	3	5	2	5	3	2	4	4	3	2	8	3	14
茨城県	4	5	4	7	5	6	2	10	8	8	14	15	17	16	13	23	43
栃木県	3	0	3	7	1	7	6	6	5	5	4	9	12	10	26	21	26
群馬県	1	3	5	4	5	3	6	5	8	6	3	2	4	13	5	18	24
埼玉県	9	8	6	9	15	15	9	14	23	13	14	18	27	32	39	69	129
千葉県	13	12	6	6	12	11	15	20	18	13	28	17	25	36	49	55	91
東京都	83	75	48	57	59	91	101	132	157	168	154	221	263	365	420	776	1,223
神奈川県	27	11	20	8	20	26	14	25	25	24	23	31	40	66	68	97	190
新潟県	3	3	2	3	3	7	5	4	1	2	2	4	6	2	11	19	27
富山県	2	3	2	0	0	3	3	2	9	2	5	4	5	5	7	16	11
石川県	2	4	3	4	3	4	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	4	8	6	11
福井県	1	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	11	3	1	3	2	2	3	9	13
山梨県	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	3	2	6	5
長野県	5	7	3	3	4	4	10	7	4	3	4	4	8	8	3	9	13
岐阜県	2	5	8	3	2	5	2	12	9	6	6	9	1	6	5	11	20
静岡県	6	7	3	5	8	17	11	12	25	19	15	13	16	17	15	36	43
愛知県	17	12	19	11	29	46	37	60	51	37	43	31	20	42	90	92	189
三重県	5	2	4	2	7	6	5	10	8	14	2	6	2	12	12	18	26
滋賀県	9	5	3	2	2	0	4	1	5	3	9	4	1	2	5	9	20
京都府	9	22	11	19	13	14	6	7	4	4	5	10	8	9	11	28	42
大阪府	107	85	88	69	52	64	40	34	71	53	50	70	82	141	215	241	386
兵庫県	30	15	21	15	15	14	14	13	10	13	9	28	14	27	34	68	143
奈良県	5	3	4	3	3	0	2	1	1	1	3	6	3	3	12	13	24
和歌山県	5	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	2	3	3	3	4	8	7	11	9
鳥取県	1	0	1	1	2	3	1	1	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	1	7
島根県	3	1	3	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	3	5	2
岡山県	8	9	8	6	10	5	2	6	4	4	7	7	7	6	20	22	31
広島県	4	5	10	4	8	6	5	5	11	4	8	6	9	10	6	15	23
山口県	31	11	8	4	1	5	7	8	3	1	1	0	5	6	6	8	8
徳島県	5	2	4	10	12	6	2	1	1	2	3	1	0	1	0	1	8
香川県	9	15	15	15	17	23	6	3	8	2	6	0	4	17	9	6	22
愛媛県	7	3	3	3	6	3	2	3	6	4	1	0	3	1	8	5	18
高知県	1	3	3	7	7	6	17	4	1	4	2	2	9	4	3	8	12
福岡県	38	24	18	22	26	38	22	31	55	33	23	36	16	31	41	53	78
佐賀県	3	1	5	4	3	4	3	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	4	6	10
長崎県	2	4	0	5	2	3	7	2	3	3	2	4	2	3	13	18	10
熊本県	4	5	10	16	16	28	13	31	19	13	6	5	7	4	4	6	11
大分県	1	2	3	7	5	5	2	4	5	2	6	5	1	2	3	8	8
宮崎県	2	3	0	1	2	5	6	11	4	8	3	7	3	5	7	3	6
鹿児島県	9	3	7	9	6	13	13	8	3	2	7	17	5	6	7	5	16
沖縄県	2	4	4	3	8	6	6	3	5	5	2	11	10	14	38	14	36

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 2-3-2. 梅毒：都道府県別・女性

報告数

女性	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	247	185	180	121	125	132	196	198	212	168	124	177	183	235	377	760	1,386
北海道	6	5	8	4	3	2	2	4	6	1	3	8	10	9	34	22	43
青森県	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	2	2	0	4	14
岩手県	9	3	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	1	1	2
宮城県	3	1	0	2	2	1	7	4	2	3	7	4	7	17	9	3	14
秋田県	7	4	5	0	1	3	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	2	1	0	2
山形県	0	1	0	1	2	3	6	5	3	1	0	1	0	2	2	2	4
福島県	3	2	6	3	3	0	1	4	1	4	2	1	0	4	4	10	27
茨城県	1	4	10	0	3	1	5	2	2	4	5	10	6	8	11	19	26
栃木県	0	4	0	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	9	7	20
群馬県	1	0	2	1	1	0	2	3	3	3	3	1	6	2	3	6	9
埼玉県	6	4	4	2	1	2	1	11	9	5	3	1	4	7	12	39	64
千葉県	10	2	4	2	2	3	3	3	7	11	11	8	5	21	31	25	49
東京都	38	25	10	11	4	14	34	32	46	29	18	27	34	52	87	281	448
神奈川県	12	6	4	2	4	2	9	13	5	10	10	11	10	13	38	64	100
新潟県	3	6	3	1	0	3	1	2	2	1	0	4	2	0	4	3	22
富山県	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	3	0	0	2	3	1	1	4	1
石川県	5	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	4	4
福井県	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
山梨県	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	3	3
長野県	1	5	1	0	0	0	4	9	6	4	2	3	1	2	1	6	7
岐阜県	1	3	2	0	0	0	4	9	6	4	1	5	2	1	6	7	13
静岡県	4	2	9	2	5	5	2	5	7	5	7	5	6	3	11	14	18
愛知県	8	5	7	8	7	11	13	16	19	9	10	13	19	12	22	30	70
三重県	4	0	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	6	1	1	1	2	5	3	13
滋賀県	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	2	5	10
京都府	8	7	5	4	3	5	2	0	1	1	3	1	4	2	2	15	27
大阪府	23	29	27	15	5	11	3	6	11	8	6	7	15	16	25	83	205
兵庫県	18	9	9	5	5	4	8	4	4	1	1	7	4	9	8	21	41
奈良県	6	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	3	3	4	6	12
和歌山県	1	2	1	0	2	0	3	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	2	10	9
鳥取県	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	2	0	1	2	1
島根県	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	1	3	0
岡山県	10	8	5	4	4	2	1	0	3	1	2	2	0	2	1	3	9
広島県	5	4	3	5	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	0	2	3	7	26
山口県	6	9	4	3	0	1	2	1	3	4	1	0	0	1	1	0	2
徳島県	3	1	0	1	3	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	1	3
香川県	4	5	5	3	3	6	6	2	1	1	2	2	0	1	3	8	4
愛媛県	4	3	5	1	3	0	2	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	5
高知県	2	1	1	4	2	2	10	2	3	1	1	1	1	4	1	3	1
福岡県	22	5	6	4	7	14	12	13	17	20	5	13	12	14	10	16	30
佐賀県	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	1	0	3	3	0	0	0	5
長崎県	0	0	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	1	0	3	0	0	6	1	2
熊本県	3	9	9	6	16	14	26	20	19	8	6	7	6	3	3	5	5
大分県	0	5	6	9	4	1	4	2	3	4	0	4	0	1	2	4	4
宮崎県	0	2	3	2	3	2	3	5	3	3	2	2	1	4	4	1	3
鹿児島県	2	0	2	6	11	6	6	3	3	3	0	8	1	1	0	4	2
沖縄県	1	0	2	1	3	0	0	4	0	1	0	1	1	2	1	3	5

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-1-1. 性器クラミジア感染症: 年齢別・性別 (報告数)

報告数

全体

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	25,033	37,028	40,836	43,766	41,945	38,155	35,057	32,112	29,839	28,398	26,045	26,315	25,682	24,530	25,606	24,960	24,450	24,397
0歳	11	8	3	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	3	1	1	3	0	2	3	0
1-4	1	0	4	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	2	2	2	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
10-14	25	51	84	100	82	64	48	44	41	44	41	43	35	43	54	44	28	35
15-19	3,639	5,646	6,359	6,801	6,163	5,169	4,502	3,822	3,281	3,170	2,955	2,874	2,891	2,789	3,110	2,749	2,438	2,145
20-24	17,546	11,475	12,349	12,723	12,059	10,964	10,043	9,091	8,434	7,848	7,057	6,803	6,420	6,234	6,590	6,572	6,377	6,527
25-29	5,731	8,263	9,361	9,876	9,440	8,436	7,242	6,728	6,213	5,692	5,552	5,271	5,419	5,328	5,328	5,306	5,356	5,356
30-34	3,468	4,939	5,493	6,110	6,257	5,748	5,303	5,140	4,753	4,498	3,939	4,126	4,071	3,826	3,832	3,850	3,766	3,700
35-39	2,037	2,999	3,291	3,680	3,619	3,425	3,202	2,978	2,985	2,912	2,700	2,875	2,879	2,731	2,691	2,537	2,562	2,548
40-44	1,085	1,535	1,719	1,984	1,946	2,039	1,901	1,737	1,718	1,694	1,582	1,682	1,711	1,645	1,781	1,739	1,721	1,804
45-49	707	955	966	1,118	1,074	1,059	1,007	871	920	973	944	1,040	1,036	935	1,033	1,026	1,075	1,082
50-54	444	631	703	797	714	618	579	541	474	490	494	578	532	547	534	558	573	617
55-59	176	280	259	314	327	385	391	373	354	334	305	307	259	258	272	259	305	295
60-64	81	136	145	145	154	150	150	167	155	154	185	210	187	158	172	177	175	162
65-69	54	62	65	79	59	71	53	63	59	43	73	67	65	64	81	78	84	90
70歳以上	28	48	35	52	44	25	34	41	34	23	36	37	39	26	35	41	36	35

男性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	11,007	15,856	17,497	18,284	17,725	16,533	15,220	13,909	13,176	12,401	11,845	12,428	11,736	11,470	12,369	11,936	11,670	11,724
0歳	5	1	1	1	4	0	0	2	2	2	3	1	0	2	0	1	2	0
1-4	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	4	6	17	15	7	11	3	7	8	5	3	4	5	3	5	4	3	6
15-19	1,004	1,544	1,656	1,750	1,547	1,218	969	810	715	669	677	668	644	612	769	673	562	490
20-24	2,864	4,139	4,371	4,402	4,150	3,684	3,340	3,069	2,764	2,490	2,256	2,266	2,091	2,324	2,264	2,135	2,176	2,176
25-29	2,420	3,477	3,934	4,009	3,906	3,674	3,387	2,986	2,873	2,588	2,455	2,542	2,435	2,356	2,457	2,386	2,397	2,425
30-34	1,735	2,343	2,801	2,893	2,977	2,840	2,638	2,498	2,388	2,321	2,053	2,225	2,118	2,022	2,127	2,085	2,054	2,016
35-39	1,185	1,710	1,923	2,089	2,045	1,934	1,875	1,752	1,733	1,644	1,584	1,737	1,687	1,682	1,681	1,587	1,558	1,577
40-44	718	1,047	1,164	1,290	1,234	1,335	1,279	1,148	1,126	1,118	1,121	1,153	1,126	1,133	1,263	1,244	1,184	1,210
45-49	493	688	666	792	784	731	644	668	688	704	736	797	775	711	822	755	799	811
50-54	330	500	541	611	588	513	468	444	383	385	419	483	433	448	429	446	447	499
55-59	124	216	216	247	270	334	332	325	298	276	271	273	218	228	243	216	266	253
60-64	64	112	112	117	138	126	122	142	139	139	170	168	173	142	149	164	162	145
65-69	42	50	50	63	45	59	46	55	51	40	65	62	59	53	71	74	71	84
70歳以上	19	23	24	32	33	21	30	27	28	20	31	31	31	17	28	37	30	32

女性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	14,026	21,172	23,339	25,482	24,220	21,622	19,837	18,203	16,763	15,997	14,200	13,887	13,946	13,060	13,237	13,024	12,780	12,673
0歳	6	7	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1-4	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	21	45	67	85	75	53	45	37	33	39	38	39	30	40	49	40	25	29
15-19	2,635	4,102	4,703	5,051	4,616	3,951	3,533	3,012	2,566	2,501	2,278	2,206	2,247	2,177	2,341	2,076	1,876	1,655
20-24	4,682	7,336	7,978	8,321	7,909	7,280	6,703	6,022	5,670	5,358	4,801	4,537	4,390	4,143	4,266	4,308	4,242	4,351
25-29	3,311	4,786	5,427	5,867	5,534	4,762	4,455	4,256	3,855	3,625	3,274	3,150	3,117	2,915	2,962	2,942	2,909	2,931
30-34	1,733	2,596	2,692	3,217	3,280	2,865	2,665	2,642	2,365	2,177	1,886	1,901	1,953	1,804	1,705	1,765	1,712	1,684
35-39	852	1,289	1,368	1,621	1,574	1,491	1,327	1,226	1,252	1,268	1,116	1,138	1,192	1,079	1,010	950	1,004	971
40-44	367	488	555	674	712	704	622	589	592	576	461	509	585	512	518	495	537	594
45-49	214	267	280	326	295	275	276	227	252	269	268	243	261	224	211	224	271	271
50-54	114	131	162	186	126	105	111	97	91	105	75	95	99	99	105	112	126	118
55-59	52	64	43	67	57	51	59	48	56	58	34	34	41	30	29	43	39	42
60-64	17	24	33	28	16	24	28	25	16	15	15	24	14	16	23	13	13	17
65-69	12	12	15	16	14	12	7	8	8	8	3	8	5	6	11	10	4	6
70歳以上	9	25	11	20	11	4	4	14	6	3	5	6	8	9	7	4	6	3

出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症発生動向調査(第12-1表)

表 3-1-2. 性器クラミジア感染症: 年齢別・性別 (定点当たり報告数)

定点当たり報告数

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	29.28	41.28	44.83	47.73	45.59	41.65	37.86	33.95	30.93	29.25	27.10	27.27	26.56	25.26	26.29	25.60	24.95	24.77
0歳	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.03	0.06	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.04
15-19	4.26	6.29	6.98	7.42	6.70	5.64	4.84	4.04	3.39	3.26	3.07	2.98	2.89	2.87	3.19	2.82	2.49	2.18
20-24	8.83	12.79	13.56	13.87	13.11	11.97	10.79	9.61	8.71	8.08	7.34	7.05	6.64	6.42	6.77	6.74	6.51	6.63
25-29	6.70	9.21	10.28	10.77	10.26	9.21	8.42	7.66	6.95	6.40	5.96	5.90	5.74	5.43	5.56	5.46	5.41	5.44
30-34	4.06	5.51	6.03	6.66	6.80	6.28	5.70	5.43	4.91	4.63	4.10	4.28	4.21	3.94	3.93	3.95	3.84	3.76
35-39	2.38	3.34	3.61	4.01	3.93	3.74	3.44	3.15	3.08	3.00	2.81	2.98	2.98	2.81	2.76	2.60	2.61	2.59
40-44	1.27	1.71	1.89	2.14	2.12	2.23	2.04	1.84	1.77	1.74	1.65	1.72	1.77	1.69	1.83	1.78	1.76	1.83
45-49	0.83	1.06	1.06	1.22	1.17	1.16	1.08	0.92	0.95	1.00	0.98	1.08	1.07	0.96	1.06	1.05	1.10	1.10
50-54	0.52	0.70	0.77	0.87	0.78	0.67	0.62	0.57	0.49	0.50	0.51	0.60	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.57	0.58	0.63
55-59	0.21	0.31	0.28	0.34	0.36	0.42	0.42	0.39	0.37	0.34	0.32	0.32	0.27	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.31	0.30
60-64	0.09	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.19	0.16	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.16
65-69	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09
70歳以上	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	12.87	17.68	19.21	19.94	19.27	18.05	16.35	14.70	13.61	12.77	12.33	12.88	12.14	11.81	12.70	12.24	11.91	11.90
0歳	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
15-19	1.17	1.72	1.82	1.91	1.68	1.33	1.04	0.86	0.74	0.69	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.63	0.79	0.69	0.67	0.50
20-24	3.35	4.61	4.80	4.80	4.51	4.02	3.59	3.24	2.86	2.56	2.35	2.10	2.15	2.15	2.39	2.32	2.18	2.21
25-29	2.83	3.88	4.32	4.37	4.25	4.01	3.64	3.16	2.97	2.67	2.55	2.63	2.52	2.43	2.52	2.45	2.45	2.46
30-34	2.03	2.61	3.07	3.15	3.24	3.10	2.83	2.64	2.47	2.39	2.14	2.31	2.19	2.08	2.18	2.14	2.10	2.05
35-39	1.91	2.11	2.25	2.22	2.11	1.85	1.79	1.69	1.69	1.65	1.80	1.74	1.70	1.73	1.63	1.59	1.60	1.60
40-44	0.84	1.17	1.28	1.41	1.34	1.16	1.37	1.21	1.16	1.15	1.17	1.19	1.16	1.17	1.30	1.28	1.21	1.23
45-49	0.58	0.77	0.75	0.86	0.85	0.86	0.79	0.68	0.69	0.73	0.77	0.83	0.80	0.73	0.84	0.77	0.82	0.82
50-54	0.39	0.56	0.59	0.67	0.64	0.56	0.50	0.47	0.40	0.40	0.44	0.50	0.45	0.46	0.44	0.46	0.46	0.51
55-59	0.15	0.24	0.24	0.27	0.29	0.36	0.36	0.34	0.31	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.23	0.23	0.25	0.22	0.27	0.26
60-64	0.07	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.14	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.15
65-69	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.09
70歳以上	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	16.40	23.60	25.62	27.79	26.33	23.60	21.31	19.24	17.32	16.47	14.78	14.39	14.42	13.45	13.59	13.36	13.04	12.87
0歳	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.02	0.05	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.03
15-19	3.08	4.57	5.16	5.51	5.02	4.31	3.79	3.18	2.65	2.58	2.37	2.29	2.32	2.24	2.40	2.13	1.91	1.68
20-24	5.48	8.18	8.76	9.07	8.60	7.95	7.20	6.37	5.86	5.52	5.00	4.70	4.54	4.27	4.38	4.42	4.33	4.42
25-29	3.87	5.34	5.96	6.40	6.02	5.20	4.79	4.50	3.98	3.73	3.41	3.26	3.22	3.00	3.04	3.02	2.97	2.98
30-34	2.03	2.89	2.95	3.51	3.57	3.17	2.86	2.79	2.44	2.24	1.96	1.97	2.02	1.86	1.75	1.81	1.75	1.71
35-39	1.00	1.44	1.50	1.77	1.71	1.63	1.43	1.30	1.29	1.31	1.16	1.18	1.23	1.11	1.04	0.97	1.02	0.99
40-44	0.43	0.54	0.61	0.74	0.77	0.67	0.62	0.61	0.59	0.48	0.53	0.60	0.67	0.63	0.53	0.51	0.55	0.60
45-49	0.25	0.30	0.31	0.36	0.32	0.30	0.24	0.26	0.28	0.22	0.25	0.27	0.27	0.23	0.22	0.28	0.28	0.28
50-54	0.13	0.15	0.18	0.20	0.14	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.13	0.12
55-59	0.06	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04
60-64	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02
65-69	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
70歳以上	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00

出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-2-1. 淋菌感染症：年齢別・性別（報告数）

定点当たり報告数

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																		
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
総数	29.28	41.28	44.83	47.73	45.59	41.65	37.86	33.95	30.93	29.25	27.10	27.27	26.56	25.26	26.29	25.60	24.95	24.77	
0歳	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.03	0.06	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.04
15-19	4.26	6.29	6.98	7.42	6.70	5.64	4.84	4.04	3.39	3.26	3.07	2.98	2.99	2.87	3.19	2.82	2.49	2.18	2.18
20-24	8.83	12.79	13.56	13.87	11.11	11.97	10.79	9.61	8.71	8.08	7.34	7.05	6.64	6.42	6.77	6.74	6.51	6.63	6.63
25-29	6.70	9.21	10.28	10.77	10.26	9.21	8.42	7.66	6.95	6.40	5.96	5.90	5.74	5.43	5.56	5.46	5.41	5.44	5.44
30-34	4.06	5.51	6.03	6.66	6.80	6.28	5.70	5.43	4.91	4.63	4.10	4.28	4.21	3.94	3.93	3.95	3.84	3.76	3.76
35-39	2.38	3.34	3.61	4.01	3.93	3.74	3.44	3.15	3.08	3.00	2.81	2.98	2.98	2.81	2.76	2.60	2.61	2.59	2.59
40-44	1.27	1.71	1.89	2.14	2.12	2.23	2.04	1.84	1.77	1.74	1.65	1.72	1.77	1.69	1.83	1.78	1.76	1.83	1.83
45-49	0.83	1.06	1.06	1.22	1.17	1.16	1.08	0.92	0.95	1.00	0.98	1.08	1.07	0.96	1.06	1.05	1.10	1.10	1.10
50-54	0.52	0.70	0.77	0.87	0.78	0.67	0.62	0.57	0.49	0.50	0.51	0.60	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.57	0.58	0.63	0.63
55-59	0.21	0.31	0.28	0.34	0.36	0.42	0.42	0.39	0.37	0.34	0.32	0.32	0.27	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.31	0.30	0.30
60-64	0.09	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.19	0.16	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.16
65-69	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.09
70歳以上	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	12.87	17.68	19.21	19.94	19.27	18.05	16.35	14.70	13.61	12.77	12.33	12.88	12.14	11.81	12.70	12.24	11.91	11.90
0歳	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
15-19	1.17	1.72	1.82	1.91	1.68	1.33	1.04	0.86	0.74	0.69	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.63	0.79	0.69	0.67	0.50
20-24	3.35	4.61	4.80	4.80	4.51	4.02	3.59	3.24	2.86	2.56	2.35	2.10	2.15	2.15	2.39	2.32	2.18	2.21
25-29	2.83	3.68	4.32	4.37	4.25	4.01	3.64	3.16	2.97	2.67	2.55	2.63	2.52	2.43	2.52	2.45	2.45	2.46
30-34	2.03	2.61	3.07	3.15	3.24	3.10	2.83	2.64	2.47	2.39	2.14	2.31	2.19	2.08	2.18	2.14	2.10	2.05
35-39	1.91	2.11	2.25	2.22	2.11	1.85	1.79	1.69	1.69	1.65	1.80	1.74	1.70	1.73	1.63	1.59	1.60	1.60
40-44	0.84	1.17	1.28	1.41	1.34	1.16	1.06	0.94	0.94	0.91	1.17	1.19	1.16	1.17	1.30	1.28	1.21	1.23
45-49	0.58	0.77	0.75	0.86	0.85	0.76	0.69	0.68	0.69	0.73	0.77	0.83	0.80	0.73	0.84	0.77	0.82	0.82
50-54	0.39	0.56	0.59	0.67	0.64	0.56	0.50	0.47	0.40	0.40	0.44	0.50	0.45	0.46	0.44	0.46	0.46	0.51
55-59	0.15	0.24	0.24	0.27	0.29	0.36	0.34	0.31	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.23	0.23	0.25	0.22	0.27	0.26
60-64	0.07	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.14	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.15
65-69	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.09
70歳以上	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-2-2 淋菌感染症：年齢別・性別（定点当たり報告数）

報告数

全体

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	11,847	16,926	20,662	21,921	20,697	17,426	15,002	12,468	11,157	10,218	9,285	10,327	10,247	9,248	9,488	9,805	8,698	8,298
0歳	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	0	0
1-4	7	5	4	4	4	3	7	1	0	2	1	0	6	2	0	1	1	0
5-9	3	6	0	4	10	7	4	1	2	2	2	6	1	4	3	6	1	3
10-14	9	15	29	41	30	20	11	12	12	12	9	11	12	4	17	17	10	12
15-19	1,106	1,653	2,031	2,325	2,175	1,506	1,215	935	894	818	709	724	834	796	919	868	640	484
20-24	3,024	4,303	5,027	5,357	5,210	4,181	3,500	2,769	2,398	2,222	2,025	2,139	2,028	1,946	2,092	2,187	1,922	1,775
25-29	2,875	3,971	4,866	5,011	4,544	3,766	3,293	2,668	2,391	2,144	1,900	2,241	2,094	1,866	1,867	1,886	1,752	1,595
30-34	1,942	2,796	3,464	3,569	3,489	3,013	2,598	2,183	2,004	1,740	1,500	1,709	1,673	1,461	1,459	1,500	1,342	1,320
35-39	1,243	1,857	2,270	2,373	2,218	2,010	1,754	1,540	1,367	1,279	1,196	1,375	1,392	1,191	1,165	1,187	1,029	1,067
40-44	676	984	1,278	1,435	1,339	1,257	1,120	973	865	878	828	882	948	863	842	906	839	862
45-49	465	611	782	832	698	704	636	544	550	487	528	545	598	512	526	590	534	557
50-54	265	416	564	563	513	469	427	361	315	282	258	339	331	289	285	330	308	318
55-59	124	188	210	225	260	291	274	293	221	205	178	183	165	145	141	176	143	161
60-64	61	79	106	114	115	119	114	107	79	95	83	109	113	93	94	98	105	81
65-69	31	26	37	42	45	45	32	45	36	33	38	41	34	56	46	38	47	48
70歳以上	16	15	24	20	46	35	17	36	23	20	32	21	18	20	31	23	25	15

男性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	10,115	14,196	17,205	17,591	16,170	14,299	12,374	10,236	9,104	8,203	7,358	8,453	8,076	7,307	7,591	7,710	6,905	6,654
0歳	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0
1-4	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
10-14	3	7	14	13	10	5	1	6	6	6	2	1	4	1	4	6	2	6
15-19	747	1,081	1,286	1,437	1,234	893	709	581	536	483	421	415	451	429	537	528	394	259
20-24	2,438	3,340	3,933	3,959	3,728	3,176	2,692	2,090	1,793	1,615	1,413	1,588	1,389	1,404	1,478	1,586	1,379	1,260
25-29	2,495	3,414	4,102	4,060	3,631	3,147	2,786	2,269	1,976	1,753	1,502	1,832	1,637	1,457	1,504	1,480	1,363	1,287
30-34	1,769	2,507	3,082	3,053	2,922	2,615	2,258	1,861	1,725	1,488	1,251	1,505	1,410	1,233	1,259	1,253	1,141	1,125
35-39	1,136	1,684	2,065	2,122	1,947	1,809	1,538	1,338	1,206	1,113	1,029	1,206	1,214	1,029	1,041	1,001	879	923
40-44	639	919	1,184	1,288	1,195	1,139	1,004	861	769	780	745	813	842	760	759	787	713	755
45-49	441	565	708	783	632	650	595	484	513	433	474	500	532	461	481	499	470	500
50-54	237	384	507	512	459	422	379	326	286	248	235	310	301	257	248	284	271	269
55-59	110	178	197	203	237	264	250	254	197	180	161	157	149	135	127	146	126	140
60-64	56	76	94	102	95	107	103	96	67	83	72	101	103	83	87	87	96	73
65-69	30	23	29	39	35	41	36	34	31	28	32	38	31	45	40	34	46	43
70歳以上	13	15	24	19	42	31	16	34	19	13	21	14	13	13	26	18	24	14

女性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	1,732	2,730	3,457	4,330	4,527	3,127	2,628	2,232	2,053	2,015	1,927	1,874	2,171	1,941	1,897	2,095	1,793	1,644
0歳	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
1-4	6	3	4	9	4	3	6	1	0	0	0	0	6	2	0	1	0	0
5-9	3	5	0	4	8	7	4	1	2	2	2	1	5	1	4	3	6	1
10-14	6	8	15	28	20	15	10	6	6	6	7	10	8	3	13	11	8	6
15-19	359	572	745	888	941	613	506	354	358	335	288	309	383	367	382	340	246	225
20-24	586	963	1,094	1,398	1,482	1,005	808	679	605	607	612	581	639	542	614	601	543	515
25-29	380	557	764	951	913	619	507	399	415	391	388	409	457	409	363	406	389	308
30-34	173	289	402	516	567	398	340	322	279	272	249	204	283	228	200	247	201	195
35-39	107	173	205	251	271	201	204	202	161	166	167	169	178	162	124	186	150	144
40-44	37	65	94	147	144	118	116	112	96	98	83	69	106	103	83	119	126	107
45-49	24	46	44	49	66	54	41	41	37	54	45	45	66	51	45	81	64	57
50-54	28	32	57	51	54	47	48	35	49	34	23	29	30	32	37	46	37	49
55-59	14	10	13	22	23	27	24	39	24	25	17	26	16	10	14	30	17	21
60-64	5	3	12	12	12	11	11	11	12	12	11	8	10	10	7	11	9	8
65-69	1	3	8	3	10	4	2	9	5	5	6	3	3	11	6	4	1	5
70歳以上	3	3	0	1	4	4	1	2	4	7	11	7	5	7	5	5	1	1

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-3-1. 性器ペルパルスウイルス感染症: 年齢別・性別 (報告数)

報告数

全体

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	6,566	8,946	9,314	9,666	9,832	9,777	10,258	10,447	9,223	8,292	7,760	8,420	8,240	8,637	8,778	8,653	8,874	9,175
0歳	1	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1
1-4	4	6	5	5	4	7	8	8	2	3	2	4	4	2	3	2	2	3
5-9	6	4	8	5	4	4	4	7	13	3	6	1	3	4	3	7	3	6
10-14	8	13	15	15	18	12	11	12	17	9	11	12	9	12	13	10	11	11
15-19	327	462	509	518	550	503	477	430	468	336	320	332	350	331	315	314	277	275
20-24	1,073	1,603	1,601	1,620	1,605	1,682	1,615	1,582	1,409	1,308	1,161	1,238	1,100	1,154	1,151	1,047	1,146	1,123
25-29	1,140	1,630	1,711	1,747	1,727	1,735	1,735	1,762	1,567	1,411	1,285	1,385	1,284	1,402	1,383	1,278	1,357	1,335
30-34	948	1,286	1,348	1,415	1,391	1,406	1,510	1,609	1,422	1,267	1,138	1,237	1,297	1,236	1,288	1,226	1,228	1,309
35-39	731	969	1,034	1,054	1,089	1,139	1,193	1,193	1,057	956	900	973	1,028	1,062	1,065	1,094	1,119	1,161
40-44	491	689	702	705	829	788	938	951	832	753	685	780	785	905	885	919	939	972
45-49	429	558	554	517	589	552	638	697	623	512	558	568	580	641	660	699	773	805
50-54	421	581	606	638	589	583	589	566	472	447	428	512	521	482	575	600	628	615
55-59	293	359	323	420	457	511	539	546	482	429	368	372	331	377	387	385	465	446
60-64	251	340	322	359	305	344	339	380	281	308	319	344	330	360	364	306	321	320
65-69	218	241	252	284	281	251	262	236	199	175	212	233	237	213	248	274	279	314
70歳以上	225	304	323	362	396	388	454	467	379	375	367	418	403	454	438	492	425	474

男性

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	2,975	3,907	3,957	4,074	4,075	3,874	4,129	4,311	3,757	3,383	3,078	3,272	3,292	3,399	3,493	3,293	3,540	3,620
0歳	1	0	2	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1-4	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	4	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	2	3
5-9	2	1	3	2	1	4	3	3	5	1	3	1	2	1	0	2	1	2
10-14	2	1	4	1	6	3	2	1	5	1	3	3	4	1	5	4	2	2
15-19	86	113	117	118	115	86	86	80	86	65	74	73	71	63	83	57	64	56
20-24	342	411	463	453	463	421	417	450	371	350	315	312	281	323	310	267	325	327
25-29	423	592	616	593	563	511	601	648	571	522	458	459	431	467	475	414	455	495
30-34	458	623	608	635	559	564	630	686	598	546	488	518	536	508	525	442	495	494
35-39	418	524	550	577	581	583	563	563	528	460	409	436	469	472	468	474	507	512
40-44	299	428	412	418	485	484	486	512	446	441	356	390	394	438	440	442	430	438
45-49	236	301	297	284	348	307	333	362	346	218	205	256	258	233	266	271	284	272
50-54	242	324	311	334	290	284	287	296	218	205	190	266	258	233	266	271	284	272
55-59	141	185	154	211	243	242	263	263	241	181	168	164	147	167	162	169	212	206
60-64	133	158	170	161	133	137	153	173	128	134	138	149	172	162	147	121	139	144
65-69	98	116	107	127	113	101	103	92	80	73	71	90	88	77	94	134	105	139
70歳以上	93	128	142	157	174	164	199	178	134	119	111	119	141	157	176	149	115	134

女性

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	3,591	5,039	5,357	5,592	5,757	5,903	6,129	6,136	5,466	4,909	4,682	5,148	4,948	5,238	5,285	5,360	5,434	5,555
0歳	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1-4	3	4	2	3	1	4	6	4	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	1	5
5-9	4	3	5	3	3	0	1	4	8	2	3	0	1	3	3	5	2	4
10-14	6	10	11	14	12	9	9	11	12	8	8	9	5	11	8	6	9	9
15-19	241	349	392	400	435	417	391	350	382	271	246	259	279	268	232	257	213	219
20-24	731	1,092	1,138	1,167	1,142	1,241	1,198	1,132	1,038	958	846	926	819	881	841	780	821	796
25-29	717	1,038	1,095	1,154	1,164	1,106	1,134	1,114	996	889	827	936	853	935	908	864	902	840
30-34	490	663	740	780	832	842	880	923	824	721	650	719	761	728	763	784	733	815
35-39	313	445	484	477	508	556	576	630	529	496	491	537	559	590	597	620	612	649
40-44	192	261	290	287	344	324	450	439	386	312	329	390	391	467	445	477	509	534
45-49	193	257	257	233	241	245	305	335	277	228	265	267	263	313	320	352	369	409
50-54	179	257	295	304	299	309	302	270	254	242	238	256	263	249	309	329	344	343
55-59	152	174	169	209	214	289	276	283	207	248	200	208	184	210	225	216	253	240
60-64	118	182	152	198	172	207	186	207	153	174	181	195	198	188	217	185	182	176
65-69	120	125	145	157	168	150	159	144	119	102	141	143	149	136	154	140	174	175
70歳以上	132	176	181	205	222	224	255	289	245	256	256	299	282	297	262	343	310	340

出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-3-2. 性器ペルパルスウイルス感染症: 年齢別・性別 (定点当たり報告数)

定点当たり報告数

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	7.68	9.97	10.22	10.54	10.69	10.67	11.02	11.04	9.53	8.54	8.07	8.73	8.52	8.89	9.01	8.87	9.16	8.31
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
5-9	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
10-14	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
15-19	0.28	0.52	0.56	0.56	0.60	0.35	0.51	0.45	0.48	0.35	0.33	0.34	0.36	0.34	0.32	0.32	0.28	0.28
20-24	1.25	1.68	1.76	1.74	1.81	1.73	1.67	1.46	1.35	1.21	1.28	1.14	1.19	1.19	1.18	1.07	1.17	1.14
25-29	1.33	1.82	1.88	1.91	1.88	1.77	1.86	1.62	1.45	1.34	1.45	1.33	1.44	1.42	1.42	1.31	1.38	1.36
30-34	1.11	1.43	1.48	1.54	1.51	1.53	1.62	1.70	1.47	1.30	1.18	1.28	1.34	1.27	1.32	1.26	1.25	1.33
35-39	0.85	1.08	1.14	1.15	1.18	1.24	1.22	1.26	1.09	0.98	0.94	1.01	1.06	1.09	1.09	1.12	1.14	1.18
40-44	0.57	0.77	0.77	0.90	0.86	1.01	1.01	1.01	0.86	0.78	0.71	0.81	0.81	0.83	0.91	0.94	0.96	0.99
45-49	0.50	0.62	0.61	0.56	0.64	0.60	0.60	0.74	0.64	0.53	0.58	0.59	0.58	0.66	0.68	0.72	0.79	0.82
50-54	0.49	0.65	0.67	0.70	0.64	0.65	0.63	0.60	0.49	0.46	0.45	0.53	0.54	0.50	0.59	0.62	0.64	0.62
55-59	0.34	0.40	0.35	0.46	0.50	0.56	0.58	0.50	0.44	0.38	0.39	0.34	0.39	0.34	0.39	0.40	0.39	0.47
60-64	0.29	0.38	0.39	0.33	0.38	0.40	0.29	0.32	0.33	0.36	0.40	0.37	0.34	0.37	0.31	0.33	0.32	0.32
65-69	0.25	0.27	0.28	0.31	0.31	0.27	0.28	0.25	0.21	0.18	0.22	0.24	0.25	0.22	0.25	0.28	0.28	0.32
70歳以上	0.26	0.34	0.35	0.39	0.43	0.42	0.49	0.49	0.39	0.39	0.38	0.43	0.42	0.47	0.45	0.50	0.43	0.48

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	3.48	4.36	4.34	4.44	4.43	4.44	4.56	3.88	3.48	3.20	3.39	3.40	3.50	3.59	3.38	3.61	3.68	3.68
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
15-19	0.10	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.06	0.07	0.06
20-24	0.40	0.46	0.51	0.49	0.50	0.46	0.45	0.48	0.36	0.33	0.32	0.29	0.33	0.32	0.27	0.33	0.33	0.33
25-29	0.49	0.68	0.68	0.65	0.61	0.56	0.68	0.59	0.54	0.48	0.48	0.45	0.48	0.48	0.49	0.42	0.46	0.50
30-34	0.54	0.69	0.67	0.69	0.61	0.62	0.68	0.73	0.62	0.56	0.51	0.54	0.55	0.52	0.54	0.45	0.51	0.50
35-39	0.49	0.58	0.60	0.63	0.63	0.64	0.60	0.60	0.55	0.47	0.43	0.45	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.52	0.52	0.52
40-44	0.35	0.48	0.45	0.46	0.53	0.51	0.52	0.54	0.46	0.45	0.37	0.40	0.41	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.44
45-49	0.28	0.34	0.33	0.31	0.38	0.34	0.36	0.38	0.29	0.30	0.31	0.31	0.34	0.35	0.36	0.41	0.40	0.40
50-54	0.23	0.36	0.34	0.36	0.32	0.31	0.31	0.28	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.27	0.27	0.24	0.27	0.28	0.29	0.28
55-59	0.16	0.21	0.23	0.26	0.26	0.28	0.28	0.25	0.19	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.22	0.21	0.21
60-64	0.16	0.18	0.19	0.14	0.15	0.16	0.18	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.18	0.17	0.15	0.12	0.14	0.15
65-69	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.10	0.14	0.11	0.11	0.14
70歳以上	0.11	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.19	0.18	0.21	0.14	0.14	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.15	0.12	0.12	0.14

年齢	1999 (4-12月)																	
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	4.20	5.62	6.10	6.26	6.44	6.58	6.49	5.65	5.06	4.87	5.33	5.12	5.39	5.43	5.50	5.54	5.64	5.64
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
15-19	0.28	0.39	0.43	0.44	0.47	0.46	0.42	0.39	0.28	0.26	0.27	0.29	0.28	0.24	0.26	0.22	0.22	0.22
20-24	0.85	1.22	1.25	1.27	1.24	1.35	1.29	1.07	0.99	0.88	0.96	0.85	0.86	0.86	0.80	0.84	0.81	0.81
25-29	0.84	1.16	1.20	1.26	1.27	1.21	1.18	1.03	0.92	0.86	0.97	0.88	0.86	0.93	0.89	0.92	0.85	0.85
30-34	0.57	0.74	0.81	0.85	0.90	0.92	0.95	0.98	0.85	0.74	0.68	0.75	0.79	0.75	0.78	0.80	0.75	0.83
35-39	0.37	0.50	0.53	0.52	0.61	0.62	0.67	0.55	0.51	0.51	0.56	0.58	0.61	0.61	0.64	0.62	0.66	0.66
40-44	0.22	0.29	0.32	0.31	0.37	0.35	0.48	0.46	0.40	0.32	0.34	0.40	0.48	0.46	0.49	0.52	0.54	0.54
45-49	0.23	0.29	0.28	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.33	0.35	0.29	0.23	0.28	0.27	0.32	0.33	0.36	0.38	0.42	0.42
50-54	0.21	0.29	0.32	0.33	0.34	0.32	0.29	0.26	0.25	0.25	0.27	0.27	0.26	0.32	0.34	0.35	0.35	0.35
55-59	0.18	0.19	0.19	0.23	0.23	0.30	0.30	0.25	0.26	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.22	0.26	0.24	0.24
60-64	0.14	0.20	0.17	0.22	0.19	0.23	0.23	0.20	0.16	0.19	0.20	0.19	0.20	0.22	0.22	0.19	0.19	0.18
65-69	0.14	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.16	0.17	0.15	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.15	0.14	0.16	0.14	0.18	0.18	0.18
70歳以上	0.15	0.20	0.20	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.31	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.31	0.27	0.31	0.27	0.35	0.32	0.35	0.35

出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-4-1. 尖圭コンジローマ：年齢別・性別（報告数）

報告数

全体

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	3,190	4,553	5,178	5,701	6,253	6,570	6,793	6,420	6,197	5,919	5,270	5,252	5,219	5,467	5,743	5,687	5,806	5,734
0歳	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
1-4	4	1	2	3	3	3	2	1	3	2	4	1	1	6	3	0	6	3
5-9	2	2	4	2	0	5	2	3	1	1	4	4	3	3	0	0	0	1
10-14	6	3	6	8	10	10	6	8	5	4	4	6	7	5	2	4	5	1
15-19	412	654	640	698	740	599	620	525	417	413	331	289	333	318	328	260	223	169
20-24	1,009	1,347	1,530	1,564	1,606	1,517	1,625	1,464	1,389	1,277	1,054	1,084	1,053	974	1,035	1,052	1,022	975
25-29	656	911	1,082	1,209	1,308	1,337	1,416	1,296	1,260	1,219	1,130	1,021	998	1,047	1,046	1,049	994	1,063
30-34	416	597	690	839	967	1,139	1,098	1,021	1,022	981	829	876	779	888	895	946	959	867
35-39	243	361	456	536	622	751	763	749	764	672	645	639	708	709	792	745	710	787
40-44	165	247	279	349	371	436	484	498	536	486	488	487	476	557	629	597	687	621
45-49	102	152	183	208	215	291	278	279	333	321	282	333	353	374	424	396	461	499
50-54	61	140	142	136	174	187	178	236	191	216	196	183	184	177	246	247	272	310
55-59	42	44	67	64	130	148	159	154	121	122	122	126	130	130	106	152	142	184
60-64	41	33	48	32	58	73	80	94	71	98	92	109	99	115	108	92	126	114
65-69	15	17	19	24	24	33	47	44	46	55	45	42	39	73	60	72	90	61
70歳以上	16	44	30	29	42	42	35	48	38	50	63	42	56	80	69	75	98	77

男性

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	1,820	2,511	2,814	3,044	3,299	3,628	3,795	3,547	3,472	3,357	2,981	3,014	2,987	3,120	3,356	3,345	3,589	3,666
0歳	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1-4	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	0	3	0	0	1	0	3	2	0	3	2
5-9	2	1	3	1	0	5	0	3	1	1	4	4	2	2	0	0	1	0
10-14	4	2	4	2	2	4	2	4	1	0	0	1	1	4	0	4	4	0
15-19	157	231	209	179	206	124	128	124	83	106	79	60	85	84	74	63	53	37
20-24	470	576	634	599	567	545	639	501	483	439	364	420	403	329	374	416	394	396
25-29	354	500	560	613	649	700	779	674	652	659	586	500	481	518	540	506	524	585
30-34	298	422	452	567	620	731	716	641	673	601	504	538	488	542	560	595	630	563
35-39	195	261	350	415	449	547	533	546	534	478	430	427	488	454	520	500	498	558
40-44	123	190	216	264	287	331	374	370	405	373	346	388	346	419	446	422	520	462
45-49	77	118	150	173	169	228	205	222	257	252	237	276	271	288	340	306	362	403
50-54	48	106	118	114	148	153	136	183	151	176	171	146	140	125	195	207	218	263
55-59	32	32	42	53	109	135	144	141	105	109	107	105	115	99	122	119	122	164
60-64	33	28	37	26	52	62	65	72	57	77	76	83	88	106	94	88	105	99
65-69	12	12	18	15	21	26	43	34	40	47	38	38	25	64	54	62	82	52
70歳以上	13	31	20	21	17	35	30	32	27	39	39	27	44	56	58	54	76	61

女性

年齢	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	1,370	2,042	2,364	2,657	2,954	2,942	2,998	2,873	2,725	2,562	2,289	2,238	2,232	2,347	2,387	2,342	2,217	2,068
0歳	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1-4	2	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	2	4	0	1	3	1	0	3	1
5-9	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
10-14	2	1	2	6	8	6	4	4	4	4	4	5	6	1	2	0	1	1
15-19	255	423	431	519	534	475	492	401	334	307	252	229	248	234	254	197	170	132
20-24	539	771	896	965	1,039	972	986	963	906	838	690	664	650	645	661	636	628	579
25-29	302	411	522	596	659	637	622	608	560	544	521	517	529	506	543	470	478	478
30-34	118	175	238	272	347	408	382	380	349	380	325	338	291	356	335	351	329	284
35-39	48	100	106	121	173	204	230	203	230	194	215	212	210	255	272	245	212	229
40-44	42	57	63	85	84	105	110	128	131	113	122	99	130	138	183	175	177	159
45-49	25	34	33	35	46	63	73	57	76	69	45	57	82	76	84	90	99	96
50-54	13	34	24	22	26	34	42	53	40	40	25	47	44	52	51	40	54	47
55-59	10	12	25	11	21	13	15	13	16	13	15	21	15	15	7	30	23	20
60-64	8	5	11	6	6	11	15	22	14	21	16	26	11	9	14	4	21	15
65-69	3	5	1	9	3	7	4	10	6	8	7	4	14	9	6	10	8	9
70歳以上	3	13	10	8	7	7	5	16	11	11	24	15	12	24	11	21	22	16

*2007年以降病原体検査情報第29巻9号(2008年9月号)より
 出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 3-4-2. 尖圭コンジローマ：年齢別・性別（定ポイント報告数）

定ポイント報告数

全体

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	3.73	5.08	5.68	6.22	6.8	7.17	7.30	6.79	6.40	6.10	5.48	5.44	5.40	5.63	5.90	5.83	5.92	5.82
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
15-19	0.48	0.73	0.70	0.76	0.80	0.85	0.87	0.95	0.43	0.43	0.34	0.30	0.34	0.33	0.34	0.27	0.23	0.17
20-24	1.18	1.50	1.68	1.71	1.75	1.86	1.75	1.55	1.43	1.32	1.10	1.12	1.09	1.00	1.06	1.08	1.04	0.99
25-29	0.77	1.02	1.19	1.32	1.42	1.46	1.37	1.30	1.26	1.18	1.06	1.06	1.03	0.98	1.07	1.08	1.01	1.08
30-34	0.49	0.67	0.76	0.91	1.05	1.24	1.18	1.08	1.06	1.01	0.86	0.91	0.81	0.82	0.92	0.97	0.88	0.88
35-39	0.28	0.40	0.50	0.58	0.68	0.82	0.82	0.79	0.79	0.69	0.67	0.66	0.73	0.73	0.81	0.76	0.72	0.80
40-44	0.19	0.28	0.31	0.38	0.40	0.48	0.52	0.53	0.55	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.57	0.65	0.61	0.71	0.63
45-49	0.12	0.17	0.20	0.23	0.23	0.32	0.30	0.29	0.34	0.33	0.29	0.35	0.37	0.38	0.44	0.41	0.47	0.51
50-54	0.07	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.19	0.20	0.19	0.25	0.20	0.22	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.18	0.25	0.25	0.28	0.31
55-59	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.11	0.16	0.14	0.19
60-64	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.11	0.09	0.13	0.12
65-69	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.06
70歳以上	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.04	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.10	0.08

男性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	2.13	2.8	3.09	3.32	3.59	3.96	4.08	3.75	3.59	3.46	3.10	3.12	3.09	3.21	3.45	3.43	3.66	3.72
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
15-19	0.18	0.26	0.23	0.20	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.13	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04
20-24	0.55	0.64	0.70	0.65	0.62	0.59	0.63	0.53	0.50	0.44	0.38	0.44	0.42	0.34	0.38	0.43	0.40	0.40
25-29	0.41	0.56	0.61	0.67	0.71	0.76	0.84	0.71	0.67	0.68	0.61	0.52	0.50	0.53	0.55	0.52	0.53	0.59
30-34	0.35	0.47	0.50	0.62	0.67	0.80	0.77	0.68	0.70	0.62	0.52	0.56	0.50	0.56	0.57	0.61	0.64	0.59
35-39	0.23	0.29	0.38	0.45	0.49	0.60	0.57	0.58	0.55	0.49	0.45	0.44	0.45	0.47	0.53	0.51	0.51	0.57
40-44	0.14	0.21	0.24	0.29	0.31	0.36	0.40	0.39	0.42	0.38	0.36	0.40	0.36	0.43	0.46	0.43	0.53	0.47
45-49	0.09	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.18	0.25	0.22	0.23	0.27	0.26	0.25	0.29	0.28	0.31	0.35	0.31	0.37	0.41
50-54	0.06	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.16	0.17	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.18	0.18	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.20	0.21	0.22	0.27
55-59	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.10	0.13	0.12	0.17
60-64	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.11	0.10
65-69	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.05
70歳以上	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.06

女性

	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数	1.6	2.28	2.59	2.90	3.21	3.21	3.22	3.04	2.82	2.64	2.38	2.32	2.31	2.42	2.45	2.40	2.26	2.10
0歳	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1-4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5-9	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10-14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
15-19	0.30	0.47	0.47	0.57	0.58	0.52	0.53	0.42	0.35	0.32	0.26	0.24	0.26	0.24	0.26	0.20	0.17	0.13
20-24	0.63	0.86	0.98	1.05	1.13	1.06	1.06	1.02	0.94	0.86	0.72	0.69	0.67	0.64	0.68	0.65	0.64	0.59
25-29	0.35	0.46	0.57	0.65	0.72	0.70	0.68	0.66	0.63	0.58	0.57	0.54	0.53	0.54	0.52	0.56	0.48	0.49
30-34	0.14	0.20	0.26	0.30	0.38	0.45	0.40	0.40	0.36	0.39	0.34	0.35	0.30	0.37	0.34	0.36	0.34	0.29
35-39	0.06	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.21	0.24	0.20	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.26	0.28	0.25	0.22	0.23
40-44	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.14	0.12	0.13	0.10	0.13	0.14	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.16
45-49	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.10
50-54	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05
55-59	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02
60-64	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.02
65-69	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
70歳以上	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02

*2007年度病原微生物検出情報第28巻第9号(2008年9月号)より
 出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-2. 性器クラミジア感染症：都道府県別・男性

報告数	性別	1999年(1-3月) (4-12月)																											
		1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
総数		9,897	8,993	7,711	7,993	7,762	7,984	8,974	9,617	2,327	11,007	15,856	17,497	18,284	17,725	16,533	15,220	13,909	13,176	12,401	11,845	12,428	11,736	11,470	12,389	11,938	11,670	11,724	
北海道		567	909	959	1,215	1,188	1,198	1,357	1,235	247	908	537	622	780	741	711	542	528	418	414	392	399	381	409	424	432	424	408	
青森県		31	38	23	30	25	20	26	15	4	198	261	252	283	204	204	179	144	144	144	102	130	107	134	127	127	100	114	
岩手県		144	95	71	160	186	174	193	194	60	189	244	246	353	286	222	221	187	155	166	186	181	178	178	163	176	182	180	
秋田県		164	171	123	80	74	73	64	64	35	286	413	507	480	457	379	281	259	356	356	294	316	237	232	222	235	198	215	
山形県		13	7		6	6		2	4		32	48	62	88	251	231	196	218	201	185	158	119	122	97	114	125	103	112	
福島県		254	63	129	119	143	125	153	140	36	110	189	194	216	203	156	122	99	88	70	67	88	73	42	107	88	91	78	
茨城県		23	26	34	32	44	54	57	46	14	162	190	258	284	249	226	202	271	313	318	307	344	303	255	263	318	251	242	
栃木県		258	206	152	279	254	292	277	317	72	392	461	496	543	694	565	679	664	496	453	350	356	377	374	321	355	332	337	
群馬県		375	348	206	161	94	94	153	137	37	212	293	487	555	494	450	384	355	357	305	267	313	239	213	241	220	221	215	
埼玉県		664	713	634	608	549	580	818	895	209	781	952	966	1,074	959	809	802	548	508	487	363	463	507	481	476	437	359	373	
千葉県		193	186	206	191	165	176	179	159	29	288	719	697	771	787	763	677	559	565	541	568	607	573	625	829	701	635	581	
東京都		220	163	104	84	87	107	84	77	20	208	404	541	589	558	648	578	482	450	372	384	394	391	366	333	337	341	340	
神奈川県		910	982	886	752	825	986	1,179	1,164	306	998	1,389	1,468	1,251	1,161	1,273	1,100	1,108	1,231	1,243	1,228	1,343	1,390	1,370	1,384	1,360	1,519	1,553	
新潟県		303	218	171	171	184	203	222	367	98	625	907	1,075	984	911	1,065	878	736	702	621	589	615	619	608	652	621	611	678	
富山県		238	176	132	122	139	144	157	279	56	195	288	322	334	246	253	233	154	149	131	119	190	143	141	152	184	184	194	
石川県		152	136	105	96	70	126	105	111	29	72	84	106	131	119	138	80	53	71	97	38	62	54	44	44	37	26	30	
福井県		152	130	110	96	81	67	105	81	16	101	159	148	133	138	131	138	143	113	62	98	95	99	126	113	114	119	128	
山梨県		66	40	35	33	27	37	32	21	7	26	47	71	56	52	67	70	78	66	75	41	34	14	21	26	16	14	18	
長野県		7	2									14	30	50	47	21	36	26	20	23	17	10	14	5	12	14	6	20	
岐阜県		217	142	79	62	59	39	39	69	17	48	102	179	232	246	221	231	229	207	207	161	116	105	88	108	175	146	73	
静岡県		65	73	52	56	72	76	84	75	23	102	161	187	189	180	151	166	130	141	155	164	166	144	159	181	190	122	124	
愛知県		35	16	18	21	18	17	13	21	3	195	340	364	353	296	242	255	313	281	281	235	245	269	272	207	197	178	201	
三重県		1,175	1,111	950	1,021	864	811	687	753	159	890	1,428	1,596	1,471	1,320	1,282	1,165	1,121	1,106	1,044	1,007	945	885	856	968	900	855	905	
滋賀県		170	114	58	60	83	58	52	83	41	100	130	134	121	106	119	107	109	87	97	87	90	79	81	73	68	63	77	
京都府		92	109	88	85	40	74	76	59	20	61	56	50	55	74	55	92	51	31	15	36	53	41	22	19	24	20	24	
大阪府		67	39	23	62	46	44	33	33	10	48	180	134	163	142	112	114	92	73	59	57	83	107	132	141	104	105	105	
兵庫県		1,615	1,202	1,006	841	869	866	1,035	1,119	254	1,011	1,703	1,724	1,674	1,577	1,437	1,388	1,279	1,011	947	901	848	795	859	990	1,048	1,223	1,077	
奈良県		123	110	79	130	148	145	212	273	54	360	627	637	661	722	630	625	553	513	470	464	447	422	453	492	480	488	458	
和歌山県		16	6	1	5	4	11	4	2	1	96	150	209	201	185	158	146	146	80	74	46	51	69	61	71	60	82	61	
鳥取県		66	65	46	46	45	55	57	42	7	28	30	62	60	67	60	58	58	59	352	357	380	222	170	83	111	107	114	
島根県		15	13	6	14	9	6	44	22	7	70	62	60	67	60	31	56	58	66	80	66	80	73	74	73	84	87	80	
岡山県		21	27	23	46	46	43	59	60	16	41	68	61	54	86	77	82	60	66	66	80	159	105	93	98	86	91	48	
広島県		43	78	40	56	69	85	78	120	23	210	243	313	369	360	313	277	313	336	223	190	159	105	93	98	86	91	48	
山口県		134	159	149	137	135	127	97	133	29	182	227	259	282	254	229	209	211	319	324	367	328	351	358	384	389	357	362	
徳島県		69	55	35	38	36	38	38	49	38	6	98	137	174	150	143	126	133	108	89	90	106	107	93	108	104	113	94	
香川県		113	124	87	69	103	82	81	58	12	25	48	37	12	185	148	85	119	144	162	126	148	126	116	174	190	190	201	
愛媛県		55	39	21	19	27	21	39	58	28	62	123	151	107	110	111	125	108	106	86	67	92	80	84	63	61	53	72	
高知県		39	32	31	28	28	28	22	22	3	90	111	82	83	82	76	72	66	41	77	78	124	119	62	82	77	64	54	
福岡県		8	4	7	5	4	1	19	28	10	23	56	51	54	23	24	14	13	14	4	1	10	7	1	6	4	4	2	
佐賀県		494	416	407	577	530	488	603	603	211	660	1,058	1,205	1,369	1,274	1,172	1,280	1,022	871	721	894	859	833	763	875	686	594	604	
熊本県		160	138	92	85	112	130	142	215	60	174	190	224	186	195	182	181	146	145	145	130	130	166	166	179	133	97	95	114
鹿嶋県		5	10	11	2	6	4	4	5	7	27	40	40	98	70	103	130	137	102	119	129	86	89	136	136	105	103	133	
大分県		55	44	30	42	47	41	23	57	9	187	353	328	277	321	249	181	145	169	160	153	151	154	118	219	201	232	236	
宮崎県		101	72	68	69	92	73	91	97	17	76	112	63	80	72	93	53	53	69	67	61	88	90	90	81	99	106	91	
鹿児島県		26	44	34	27	25	27	29	27	9	155	254	317	357	363	272	222	212	244	190	172	177	176	176	124	145	143	116	
沖縄県		180	156	181	128	97	141	127	103	21	121	235	291	539	579	428	326	322	262	197	177	208	212	217	189	188	203	248	
		9	11	10	16	11	15	11	10	2	30	49	45	45	72	78	87	92	81	81	43	41	42	28	34	25	34	46	

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-3. 性器クラミジア感染症:都道府県別・女性

報告数	1999 (1-3月) (4-12月)																											
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	5,016	6,265	6,076	6,339	6,009	6,550	6,949	7,997	7,997	2,106	14,026	21,172	23,339	25,482	24,220	21,622	19,837	18,203	16,763	15,997	14,200	13,887	13,946	13,060	13,237	13,024	12,780	12,673
北海道	218	395	408	315	280	289	363	361	361	1,189	1,961	2,013	2,273	2,212	1,837	2,101	1,843	1,602	1,388	1,449	1,395	1,346	1,378	1,292	1,266	1,309	1,337	
青森県	-	4	16	19	21	33	22	4	2	-	179	231	243	359	400	329	292	286	230	244	236	202	314	212	222	180	168	186
岩手県	-	43	23	56	45	118	141	187	175	57	275	425	488	597	357	307	288	288	230	169	136	173	180	124	139	128	123	106
宮城県	-	23	16	15	19	9	13	23	18	51	521	632	557	552	603	507	496	389	339	289	320	335	275	241	243	205	224	246
秋田県	-	44	60	34	22	30	24	53	36	11	144	153	198	219	282	206	248	192	169	159	123	121	117	116	94	87	72	66
山形県	-	56	93	112	93	113	174	184	188	60	168	240	218	205	220	222	157	109	86	88	143	149	149	141	183	164	131	152
福島県	-	35	32	53	64	53	68	84	93	12	191	180	211	296	435	428	407	366	322	309	323	296	275	266	323	308	331	276
茨城県	-	195	214	313	357	370	375	313	305	77	396	506	588	524	604	657	812	792	766	824	679	608	618	457	544	507	502	541
栃木県	-	282	310	275	228	170	181	282	237	49	264	350	373	474	308	250	214	224	234	178	151	114	106	86	92	109	87	104
群馬県	-	163	157	152	106	91	109	79	101	22	662	860	878	826	806	819	694	647	549	520	525	492	387	429	369	352	284	358
埼玉県	-	78	245	504	500	407	733	667	610	189	505	1,612	1,688	1,600	1,418	1,601	1,418	1,218	1,000	803	932	796	704	791	865	805	804	804
千葉県	-	140	157	156	133	128	143	116	124	30	373	623	768	745	777	722	705	723	621	557	442	394	443	453	437	453	476	476
東京都	-	539	762	539	539	437	611	617	890	281	1,095	1,299	1,321	1,285	1,261	1,203	1,032	1,025	1,254	1,362	1,067	1,033	1,036	945	892	1,067	1,159	1,159
神奈川県	-	278	373	405	424	616	588	723	851	210	565	582	838	1,046	884	760	693	677	538	513	485	516	552	509	490	483	475	456
新潟県	-	195	197	150	106	114	130	100	97	44	192	162	132	215	128	164	99	135	119	112	85	85	79	76	71	58	77	93
富山県	-	76	195	378	414	340	249	270	246	68	203	195	115	90	87	62	71	108	89	106	75	72	81	72	73	67	44	58
石川県	-	83	67	55	51	57	53	68	56	7	121	105	115	119	77	101	89	66	68	79	86	92	83	164	154	154	139	138
福井県	-	100	100	87	102	106	74	91	54	22	2	76	113	94	74	57	64	43	33	36	37	32	34	41	27	20	28	19
山梨県	-	4	8	3	7	4	6	3	-	2	1	238	156	141	83	97	215	200	152	143	128	93	146	132	106	105	118	118
長野県	-	279	381	249	201	186	191	139	168	52	295	404	474	556	452	386	310	289	240	228	232	243	184	209	190	151	194	175
岐阜県	-	10	6	5	2	1	11	11	42	10	39	104	96	165	165	155	119	143	93	71	84	82	84	89	77	81	75	94
静岡県	-	44	24	32	22	36	30	36	45	3	561	774	706	749	697	636	672	533	409	311	292	268	335	345	406	405	373	386
愛知県	-	517	552	453	522	524	378	358	438	98	514	825	927	1,006	914	888	531	476	593	848	688	735	675	764	778	691	646	650
三重県	-	15	25	76	87	79	38	51	122	63	194	201	177	156	162	111	148	198	146	148	107	123	97	82	106	101	82	79
滋賀県	-	32	38	20	9	16	34	59	49	11	52	75	119	126	104	88	67	70	50	41	47	64	34	29	25	52	30	27
京都府	-	170	181	140	146	134	122	258	234	49	589	1,111	1,428	1,410	1,500	578	502	387	369	397	404	361	403	343	324	284	279	308
大阪府	-	325	306	159	328	303	464	478	820	213	969	2,004	1,880	2,330	2,259	2,697	2,114	1,840	1,977	1,928	1,450	1,317	1,481	1,288	1,333	1,248	1,311	1,287
兵庫県	-	196	301	195	206	174	211	214	244	79	383	516	632	644	606	690	681	707	626	578	511	588	420	401	420	393	392	404
奈良県	-	23	27	31	6	2	2	5	10	4	54	59	85	91	99	81	90	84	68	40	33	36	21	23	26	22	28	70
和歌山県	-	8	3	6	2	1	1	7	7	2	27	24	27	28	28	62	53	73	65	79	70	54	88	87	79	71	92	70
鳥取県	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	56	140	126	148	151	152	108	84	83	90	79	97	162	146	109	119	93	116
島根県	-	4	4	7	6	11	8	15	19	3	36	65	64	65	64	57	58	37	63	59	43	50	41	59	48	36	58	64
岡山県	-	11	17	43	59	22	9	14	40	20	463	634	813	813	676	598	527	491	364	359	272	280	246	234	273	276	286	281
広島県	-	87	80	100	171	173	206	148	190	41	244	544	538	440	387	444	356	337	301	310	298	286	254	248	262	265	234	223
山口県	-	30	46	20	23	24	24	56	32	12	4	85	178	305	235	228	250	201	203	223	199	177	199	160	176	204	178	116
徳島県	-	-	4	1	1	2	4	2	5	-	19	33	41	67	38	35	41	28	50	36	19	24	21	17	65	87	61	71
香川県	-	116	153	190	147	152	88	135	104	22	127	268	308	289	223	186	202	174	143	101	110	133	161	113	107	143	159	128
愛媛県	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	50	12	223	243	242	320	204	142	105	122	120	86	53	47	37	41	45	31	41	35
高知県	-	42	106	46	34	57	34	20	39	5	47	61	69	72	63	49	38	25	29	28	20	14	20	16	17	20	13	14
福岡県	-	422	406	379	605	468	439	621	537	120	517	752	1,288	1,694	1,402	1,113	1,035	840	641	562	686	643	734	681	642	580	503	455
佐賀県	-	17	28	17	6	9	22	17	21	7	91	112	139	84	58	59	60	55	61	42	39	56	51	54	52	50	74	75
熊本県	-	48	93	125	118	78	102	87	115	24	96	36	142	173	167	180	177	124	96	77	67	68	51	106	102	109	84	91
鹿児島県	-	16	13	21	24	32	34	15	144	34	331	689	711	718	736	645	559	539	568	493	412	365	407	367	435	393	326	326
大分県	-	5	4	2	4	5	5	8	3	1	25	50	49	82	107	95	81	59	74	90	70	70	86	67	74	95	95	95
宮崎県	-	10	6	7	30	19	34	23	33	5	138	395	372	488	383	198	179	207	185	202	146	147	138	146	108	144	147	126
鹿児島県	-	32	36	35	29	22	40	40	42	5	69	228	250	271	344	301	253	254	171	185	151	140	164	183	197	201	208	169
沖縄県	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	212	358	392	615	632	432	398	376	274	342	348	264	285	210	169	103	135	85

出典:国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-7. 淋菌感染症：都道府県別

報告数 全体	1990		1991		1992		1993		1994		1995		1996		1997		1998		1999 (1-3月)		1999 (4-12月)											
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016					
総数	14,003	15,218	10,723	6,723	6,288	6,720	7,949	8,609	10,070	2,667	11,847	16,926	20,682	21,921	20,697	19,025	15,002	12,468	11,157	10,218	9,285	10,327	10,247	9,248	9,488	9,805	8,698	8,298				
北海道	681	737	674	567	493	556	720	849	1,019	248	1,048	731	983	1,528	1,637	2,548	739	546	444	405	412	401	476	451	388	500	341	386				
青森県	136	77	62	44	47	30	34	41	27	7	114	152	206	287	250	212	137	103	120	124	116	88	87	95	69	45	38	37				
岩手県	415	449	372	212	267	339	301	390	386	78	106	136	226	377	320	231	243	173	199	181	199	206	206	138	105	72	97	102				
宮城県	178	214	108	41	26	42	43	54	104	4	187	316	560	568	585	379	341	250	329	250	227	301	285	197	186	183	164	23				
秋田県	1	5	3	-	1	-	-	-	4	1	28	35	45	106	270	199	174	157	125	79	86	80	112	38	41	54	35	23				
山形県	39	47	37	14	18	53	81	78	77	9	210	180	418	496	501	469	321	306	313	254	218	320	285	238	207	192	218	235				
福島県	966	1,048	806	285	175	151	137	172	165	39	280	442	473	585	388	323	261	214	192	146	160	198	182	178	173	192	132	129				
茨城県	283	403	271	123	100	110	117	167	228	61	152	289	650	693	487	449	282	308	266	288	192	240	213	170	148	156	186	115				
栃木県	590	634	403	222	173	216	297	284	395	81	414	655	558	506	372	440	678	371	222	200	174	191	177	202	197	122	111	139				
群馬県	185	193	114	114	119	122	109	147	134	29	294	635	890	843	711	678	545	433	420	457	415	520	514	519	607	629	484	423				
千葉県	321	447	219	84	97	106	91	122	136	38	208	372	509	591	459	476	432	339	340	305	222	306	343	317	295	349	272	299				
東京都	1,913	2,095	1,856	1,430	1,141	1,072	1,330	1,108	1,157	251	982	1,204	1,364	1,249	1,298	1,171	1,006	868	1,013	1,096	950	1,067	1,212	1,035	1,070	1,259	1,394	1,528				
神奈川県	408	456	256	182	241	245	325	316	398	100	669	720	1,020	883	706	815	712	583	561	529	522	497	462	415	554	480	458	455				
新潟県	314	308	244	139	82	136	175	179	235	41	176	333	443	472	358	390	302	207	239	171	117	194	191	146	138	136	111	91				
富山県	110	141	81	48	45	38	54	69	48	7	79	47	84	169	178	145	82	63	77	59	38	58	57	62	51	58	23	26				
石川県	142	110	64	29	32	19	25	58	50	57	118	136	138	195	114	106	119	119	95	70	70	80	82	111	117	131	93	109				
福井県	145	143	92	56	65	54	61	44	63	18	11	33	49	64	75	69	30	44	24	28	23	42	16	27	24	16	23	16				
山梨県	38	39	19	8	2	1	1	2	-	-	37	54	78	56	38	49	33	44	24	24	17	16	14	12	20	9	17	26				
長野県	147	311	135	46	38	39	42	64	71	27	64	116	296	267	253	228	209	161	127	157	63	65	62	62	77	50	26	18				
岐阜県	204	287	228	169	104	98	115	132	157	54	135	160	235	274	263	221	245	196	185	167	128	202	155	166	164	170	109	111				
静岡県	114	84	65	27	4	2	6	10	56	22	140	190	323	367	237	227	186	181	170	134	143	157	145	153	126	105	115	115				
愛知県	1,143	1,196	932	664	724	781	847	731	861	213	967	1,455	1,747	1,833	1,481	1,336	1,204	983	810	790	692	822	714	637	708	657	565	554				
三重県	76	113	54	24	31	44	83	73	99	55	141	129	163	195	156	135	135	118	115	62	80	55	67	57	52	56	46	43				
滋賀県	144	148	80	37	40	28	91	134	146	32	75	85	94	55	87	85	63	58	34	28	31	48	28	20	25	28	23	20				
京都府	39	31	26	6	6	20	25	33	31	39	14	72	115	101	129	174	164	94	79	62	75	84	81	91	91	86	76	63				
大阪府	1,858	1,829	1,034	574	565	705	889	1,086	1,370	413	1,714	2,914	2,917	2,772	2,698	2,129	1,714	1,557	1,116	1,111	1,024	884	933	936	1,031	960	1,070	811				
兵庫県	270	289	157	123	154	204	198	268	323	64	371	613	631	588	716	574	472	363	383	316	333	333	395	379	350	374	348	297				
奈良県	24	16	14	14	-	1	4	7	6	4	110	171	217	258	188	202	152	125	105	52	47	54	40	61	46	53	44	42				
和歌山県	225	233	124	91	82	72	70	94	115	27	72	93	92	73	107	89	59	63	44	44	53	46	77	73	69	63	76	92	53			
鳥取県	68	116	76	42	70	23	22	41	39	20	58	24	36	61	81	64	70	33	30	215	241	349	206	125	98	128	103	86				
徳島県	60	72	67	27	32	59	27	21	53	11	64	75	84	77	108	72	101	65	78	71	50	68	86	73	83	81	74	58				
岡山県	57	54	58	15	17	48	77	49	133	48	253	416	635	652	710	505	434	373	338	288	212	227	183	165	134	137	102	73				
広島県	285	321	197	104	116	132	139	204	195	36	223	295	361	340	278	207	132	204	317	322	283	287	185	284	319	226	197	197				
山口県	98	106	69	44	35	32	57	59	51	20	113	166	235	226	233	156	120	125	125	92	84	73	96	91	111	134	89	75				
香川県	126	131	83	73	44	58	36	38	64	33	73	139	184	107	124	127	124	151	146	94	90	92	92	95	88	77	59	53				
愛媛県	84	53	38	37	16	22	21	38	62	30	147	224	192	187	140	135	136	114	81	83	87	105	85	69	58	66	52	47				
高知県	2	4	14	4	-	1	1	19	26	7	24	65	73	75	48	27	22	14	22	6	6	10	8	6	8	4	2	2				
福岡県	835	852	614	355	438	489	553	778	824	280	931	1,462	1,635	1,879	1,600	1,228	1,237	904	639	482	716	639	657	549	680	691	429	454				
佐賀県	144	174	152	86	97	86	130	139	200	56	200	190	219	170	211	156	147	118	96	87	72	131	141	175	107	92	79	75				
長崎県	76	79	55	47	42	41	30	24	37	12	32	40	40	126	161	189	153	84	74	40	47	71	96	66	76	109	89	68				
熊本県	233	240	158	131	175	149	181	164	186	44	345	484	439	266	421	335	244	250	282	224	199	187	150	123	213	269	224	205				
大分県	348	358	241	133	120	100	123	107	71	17	85	135	130	121	110	143	115	85	97	49	26	46	34	33	32	68	60	84				
宮崎県	51	70	53	28	39	31	33	24	44	11	103	171	187	438	369	335	261	227	162	99	102	129	115	70	82	102	73	79				
鹿児島県	178	195	120	86	83	70	120	87	123	26	185	348	453	520	542	488	350	338	239	216	204	246	234	245	179	223	219	202				
沖縄県	52	85	49	31	14	21	26	20	18	5	43	119	91	113	139	114	128	74	85	68	44	40	35	33	48	17	21	29				

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-8. 淋菌感染症：都道府県別・男性

報告数	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
総数	-	13,566	9,224	5,797	5,516	5,953	6,988	7,711	8,890	2,363	10,115	14,196	17,205	17,591	16,170	14,299	12,374	10,236	9,104	8,203	7,358	8,453	8,076	7,307	7,591	7,710	7,710	6,905	6,654	
北海道	-	659	516	489	464	531	691	830	966	242	898	496	649	776	752	600	451	332	260	236	196	210	218	208	215	246	184	184		
青森県	-	76	61	42	46	30	33	41	24	7	90	117	171	226	179	165	108	90	84	91	71	65	65	66	53	37	30	24		
岩手県	-	380	350	211	259	338	297	386	377	74	87	120	185	322	244	188	210	136	159	148	95	136	175	117	89	56	81	85		
秋田県	-	207	106	38	22	37	40	52	104	43	166	288	484	507	483	328	267	218	302	221	195	254	237	240	160	168	134	30		
宮城県	-	5	3	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	14	27	31	65	219	165	124	129	94	62	68	64	87	29	36	48	30	20		
山形県	-	46	31	13	17	16	48	43	55	13	41	61	79	103	156	102	65	78	60	34	43	45	42	33	22	17	19	18		
福島県	-	97	65	36	21	53	78	78	72	9	174	159	372	457	425	411	278	274	274	221	197	286	270	215	189	170	189	196		
茨城県	-	972	737	272	162	137	130	162	158	35	254	411	436	529	343	271	165	119	129	83	92	118	102	117	105	129	91	74		
栃木県	-	376	239	104	85	100	108	156	176	56	145	266	404	651	449	421	266	282	248	276	186	237	204	162	132	144	175	108	126	
群馬県	-	559	384	199	165	204	270	273	381	75	371	547	460	397	281	402	600	303	194	178	149	158	141	167	177	112	94	144	126	
埼玉県	-	172	105	105	105	115	106	142	121	29	260	546	673	678	572	458	360	328	375	335	335	425	398	437	527	531	398	353	257	
千葉県	-	428	203	71	92	101	84	118	125	36	181	331	437	518	404	417	385	298	291	259	190	266	272	259	244	286	234	257	234	
東京都	-	1,700	1,365	1,008	795	815	970	858	912	206	690	977	1,088	950	990	943	814	754	878	912	798	920	1,029	887	928	876	1,005	1,196	1,005	
神奈川県	-	417	236	168	237	228	316	304	353	97	641	693	956	835	658	758	665	552	506	472	476	449	416	370	482	444	406	416	406	
新潟県	-	283	208	118	75	117	153	159	221	38	154	314	421	433	319	372	287	193	245	156	106	178	182	136	135	127	105	84	84	
富山県	-	111	56	32	35	27	37	56	32	5	72	38	78	156	158	132	67	48	59	51	32	46	45	54	38	42	19	24	24	
石川県	-	109	63	29	32	18	25	57	48	9	55	115	127	131	173	102	101	111	90	65	54	56	67	85	83	105	80	93	83	
福井県	-	120	81	53	61	51	60	42	61	18	11	42	48	64	74	68	58	30	32	27	21	42	14	25	21	15	21	15	15	
山梨県	-	39	19	5	2	1	1	2	-	-	34	47	70	51	28	40	30	23	13	13	16	13	10	9	5	4	12	22	22	
長野県	-	249	115	39	33	34	41	54	64	24	54	76	247	202	193	194	184	137	102	131	131	151	51	48	40	58	40	13	12	
岐阜県	-	255	209	156	101	97	111	130	155	52	131	148	215	247	237	199	226	176	162	143	114	175	130	137	129	133	82	83	83	
静岡県	-	78	59	23	3	-	5	10	54	21	107	162	261	276	174	172	134	158	135	108	107	119	114	117	76	89	79	74	74	
愛知県	-	1,105	855	616	686	745	817	687	788	189	850	1,313	1,583	1,683	1,326	1,187	1,081	906	721	671	592	706	806	550	620	577	489	483	483	
三重県	-	146	79	37	40	26	91	114	123	28	73	83	85	48	75	78	55	52	31	26	23	37	22	17	20	17	21	17	17	
滋賀県	-	31	13	5	16	22	27	26	33	9	55	69	69	76	76	70	54	48	40	48	49	52	41	53	39	48	34	34	34	
京都府	-	1,656	916	543	482	549	652	825	987	302	1,231	2,080	2,087	1,923	1,976	1,639	1,285	1,086	774	750	684	634	639	628	709	735	806	645	645	
大阪府	-	284	147	120	145	192	193	262	314	63	344	586	599	535	624	497	497	422	307	325	256	291	341	336	302	327	308	249	249	
兵庫県	-	12	4	6	-	1	4	7	6	4	106	167	209	247	179	177	140	119	100	49	47	51	38	58	41	52	44	33	33	
奈良県	-	216	121	88	78	72	69	94	110	26	68	83	86	65	95	78	58	54	42	40	40	40	71	66	63	51	69	78	45	45
和歌山県	-	116	75	42	69	22	21	34	35	19	56	21	36	56	66	56	67	33	25	205	227	327	150	90	67	101	81	73	73	73
鳥取県	-	70	64	26	32	58	25	21	51	9	64	68	77	72	103	68	99	65	75	65	43	67	79	70	79	76	70	56	56	
徳島県	-	54	53	15	17	43	73	44	130	46	214	329	484	482	495	385	331	286	257	169	119	123	87	89	70	76	53	27	27	
岡山県	-	297	179	100	110	132	135	197	189	32	190	262	300	275	214	164	108	169	278	283	262	257	214	178	271	290	212	177	177	177
広島県	-	97	58	36	30	27	51	56	48	17	95	129	171	175	175	121	97	93	93	70	61	58	72	69	77	88	65	60	60	
山口県	-	116	81	62	35	40	32	38	63	33	72	134	145	85	94	114	100	128	124	68	71	73	78	73	68	57	43	49	48	48
香川県	-	93	47	38	17	22	15	15	15	9	7	6	13	0	16	20	45	63	66	66	35	30	37	18	28	36	47	48	48	48
愛媛県	-	50	37	31	16	22	20	38	61	30	132	221	184	159	125	120	126	101	72	76	85	96	83	66	54	59	44	42	42	42
高知県	-	3	11	4	-	1	1	19	26	7	22	54	47	55	32	20	16	8	13	3	4	5	4	2	4	4	2	2	2	2
福岡県	-	659	481	291	351	419	473	670	695	233	818	1,261	1,386	1,477	1,301	1,081	1,123	782	545	397	581	511	488	413	531	530	337	380	380	
佐賀県	-	161	124	72	94	79	120	127	188	54	167	170	201	157	184	138	103	86	78	78	59	121	132	170	101	89	73	69	69	69
熊本県	-	75	51	44	40	41	30	24	37	12	31	37	61	95	110	120	81	74	67	40	44	61	86	52	63	96	72	58	58	58
大分県	-	234	153	126	170	141	173	160	172	41	291	365	310	181	297	218	155	165	194	148	136	137	104	89	169	221	178	173	173	173
宮崎県	-	346	235	130	117	99	123	103	69	17	82	126	119	102	74	108	88	61	72	34	23	37	25	30	23	54	46	63	63	63
鹿児島県	-	60	46	23	35	26	27	22	41	10	94	138	165	387	331	301	234	207	143	89	92	121	91	63	75	88	63	61	61	61
鹿児島県	-	177	109	81	78	65	111	77	113	25	164	314	396	459	460	318	262	230	169	158	139	199	176	166	125	161	157	161	161	161
沖縄県	-	70	44	28	14	20	26	16	17	4	22	69	45	37	65	70	72	42	50	40	21	23	14	12	23	12	13	13	13	13

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-9. 淋菌感染症：都道府県別・女性

報告数 女性	1999 (1-3月)											1999 (4-12月)																	
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	1999 (4-12月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	
総数	1,652	1,499	926	772	767	961	898	1,180	304	1,732	2,730	3,457	4,330	4,527	3,127	2,628	2,232	2,053	2,015	1,927	1,874	2,171	1,941	1,887	1,887	2,095	1,793	1,644	
北海道	78	168	78	29	25	29	19	33	6	150	235	334	760	885	349	288	214	184	169	216	191	258	243	183	163	254	157	202	
青森県	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	4	4	19	35	61	71	47	29	17	36	33	28	23	22	29	16	16	16	8	13	
岩手県	59	22	1	8	1	4	4	9	4	19	16	41	55	76	43	33	37	40	33	31	19	31	21	21	16	16	16	17	
秋田県	7	2	3	4	5	3	2	-	-	21	28	76	61	102	51	74	32	27	29	32	47	48	41	38	26	26	15	30	
宮城県	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14	8	14	41	51	34	50	28	31	17	18	16	25	9	5	5	3	3	
山形県	3	4	1	2	2	5	5	4	4	9	26	33	53	33	34	28	21	22	19	30	25	22	27	15	9	6	11		
福島県	1	3	2	2	4	3	-	5	-	36	31	48	39	76	58	43	32	39	33	21	34	25	23	18	22	29	39	39	
茨城県	76	69	13	13	14	7	10	7	4	26	31	37	56	45	52	96	95	63	63	68	80	80	61	68	63	41	55	55	
栃木県	27	32	19	15	10	9	9	52	5	7	23	46	42	38	28	16	16	18	12	6	3	9	8	16	12	11	7	7	
群馬県	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	43	108	98	109	78	78	68	28	22	25	33	36	35	20	10	10	17	13	13
埼玉県	21	9	9	14	7	3	5	13	-	34	89	127	165	135	106	87	73	92	82	80	95	116	82	80	98	86	70	86	70
千葉県	19	16	13	5	5	7	4	11	2	27	41	72	73	55	47	41	49	46	32	40	40	71	58	51	63	38	42	42	
東京都	395	491	422	346	257	360	250	245	45	192	227	276	299	308	228	192	114	135	184	152	147	183	148	142	383	389	332	332	
神奈川県	39	20	14	4	17	9	12	45	3	28	27	64	48	48	57	47	31	55	57	46	48	46	45	62	36	36	52	39	
新潟県	25	36	21	7	19	22	20	14	3	22	19	39	39	39	18	15	14	14	15	11	16	9	10	3	9	6	7	7	
富山県	30	25	16	10	11	17	13	16	2	7	9	6	13	20	13	15	15	18	8	6	12	12	8	13	16	4	2	2	
石川県	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	3	9	7	22	12	5	8	5	5	16	24	24	26	24	26	13	16	16	16
福井県	23	11	3	4	3	1	2	2	-	0	1	1	0	1	2	-	-	0	1	1	1	0	2	2	3	1	2	1	2
山梨県	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	7	8	5	10	9	3	21	11	11	11	11	3	4	4	3	15	5	5	4
長野県	62	20	7	5	5	1	10	7	3	10	40	49	65	60	34	25	24	25	26	12	14	14	22	19	10	10	13	6	6
岐阜県	12	19	13	3	1	4	2	2	2	4	12	20	27	26	22	19	20	23	24	14	14	27	25	29	35	37	27	28	28
静岡県	6	6	4	1	2	1	-	2	1	33	28	62	91	63	55	52	23	35	26	36	38	31	36	37	37	26	41	41	41
愛知県	91	77	48	38	36	30	34	73	24	117	142	164	150	155	149	123	77	89	119	100	116	108	87	88	80	76	71	71	71
三重県	3	4	2	-	-	8	3	2	-	4	5	8	7	11	6	11	8	8	7	3	7	3	8	3	8	11	6	8	8
滋賀県	2	1	-	-	2	-	20	23	4	2	2	9	7	12	7	8	6	3	2	8	11	6	6	3	5	11	2	3	3
京都府	173	118	31	83	156	247	271	383	111	483	834	820	849	722	490	429	491	342	361	340	250	294	308	322	225	264	166	166	
大阪府	25	10	3	9	12	5	6	9	1	27	47	32	53	92	77	77	50	56	58	60	42	54	43	48	47	40	48	48	48
兵庫県	4	10	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	8	11	11	9	25	12	6	5	3	0	3	2	3	5	5	1	0	9	9
奈良県	17	3	3	4	-	1	1	4	1	4	10	6	8	12	11	1	9	2	13	6	6	7	6	6	12	7	14	8	8
和歌山県	-	1	1	1	1	1	7	4	1	2	3	0	4	15	8	3	-	3	10	14	14	22	56	35	31	27	22	13	13
鳥取県	2	3	1	-	5	2	-	2	2	0	7	7	5	5	4	2	-	3	6	7	1	7	3	4	4	5	4	2	2
徳島県	-	5	-	-	5	4	5	3	2	39	87	151	170	215	120	103	87	81	119	93	104	96	76	64	61	49	46	46	46
岡山県	24	18	4	6	6	4	7	6	4	33	33	61	68	64	43	24	35	39	39	21	24	13	7	23	29	14	20	20	20
広島県	9	11	8	5	5	6	3	3	3	18	37	64	51	58	35	23	32	32	22	22	15	24	13	7	23	29	14	20	20
山口県	52	23	31	24	25	16	14	1	-	0	4	10	7	9	1	1	2	2	9	1	2	1	0	1	1	4	5	4	4
徳島県	15	12	11	9	18	4	-	1	-	1	5	39	22	30	13	24	23	22	26	19	19	14	22	20	20	20	16	4	4
香川県	3	1	6	-	-	1	-	1	-	15	3	8	28	15	15	10	13	9	7	2	2	9	2	3	4	7	8	5	5
愛媛県	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11	26	20	16	7	6	6	9	3	2	5	4	4	4	4	0	0	2	2
高知県	193	133	64	87	70	80	108	129	47	113	201	249	402	299	147	114	122	94	85	135	128	169	136	149	161	92	74	74	74
福岡県	13	28	14	3	7	10	12	12	2	33	20	18	13	27	18	14	15	10	9	13	10	9	5	6	3	6	6	6	6
佐賀県	4	4	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	9	31	51	69	72	10	7	0	3	10	10	10	13	13	17	10	10	10
熊本県	6	5	5	5	8	8	4	14	3	54	119	129	85	124	117	89	85	88	76	63	50	46	34	44	48	46	32	32	32
大分県	12	6	3	3	1	1	4	2	-	3	9	11	19	36	35	27	24	25	15	3	9	9	3	9	14	14	21	21	21
宮崎県	10	7	5	4	5	6	2	3	1	9	33	22	51	38	34	27	20	19	10	10	10	8	24	7	7	14	10	18	18
鹿児島県	18	11	5	5	5	9	10	10	1	21	34	57	61	82	170	88	108	90	58	65	47	78	79	54	62	62	41	41	41
沖縄県	15	5	3	-	-	1	4	1	1	21	50	46	76	74	44	56	32	35	28	23	17	21	21	25	25	5	8	8	8

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター一 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-13. 性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症：都道府県別

報告数	1999 (4-12月)																												
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
総数	5,649	5,746	5,980	5,753	5,887	5,715	6,177	5,977	5,819	6,378	6,566	6,946	9,314	9,666	9,832	11,739	10,258	10,447	9,223	8,292	7,760	8,420	8,240	8,637	8,778	8,653	8,974	9,175	
北海道	305	431	490	385	308	298	293	268	200	46	352	455	507	599	577	2,548	626	600	532	400	357	760	840	362	413	416	429	547	
青森県	43	40	54	46	43	43	51	44	19	10	75	88	88	136	113	120	105	82	80	88	74	97	84	95	100	101	91	93	
岩手県	41	38	46	28	39	77	97	99	108	26	79	106	124	167	143	91	105	142	111	76	83	96	84	47	55	66	64	61	
宮城県	13	14	29	24	28	16	11	17	36	8	23	26	32	22	45	50	70	76	103	98	94	87	96	62	198	181	150	175	
秋田県	3	6	2	3	1	3	6	7	8	-	35	27	15	37	41	45	60	54	30	36	59	75	62	65	91	100	104	104	
山形県	27	43	42	31	24	22	15	13	49	4	-	43	63	71	62	132	166	149	187	176	148	146	139	215	196	204	189	166	
福島県	37	48	114	93	118	133	127	132	103	103	27	82	111	97	183	147	158	199	203	157	194	194	182	212	166	200	286	200	
茨城県	46	55	58	42	34	38	29	17	22	13	43	38	71	65	168	192	208	166	178	212	264	215	115	94	88	64	74	80	
栃木県	120	108	107	103	84	123	98	79	83	15	174	204	236	218	224	203	186	178	212	180	168	164	164	164	164	164	164	203	203
群馬県	116	112	101	108	78	73	76	53	55	14	207	296	326	313	453	482	480	470	320	383	404	437	463	475	536	499	427	487	
埼玉県	115	142	112	154	112	84	96	100	118	34	205	354	370	353	309	338	423	339	341	315	307	320	353	330	319	371	404	374	
千葉県	731	704	968	1,006	1,078	1,014	1,227	1,096	1,039	244	763	1,054	1,019	990	865	982	963	989	946	954	1,194	1,236	1,311	1,216	1,288	1,329	1,400	1,400	
東京都	164	190	190	158	144	145	134	139	146	41	264	333	416	432	445	402	590	591	502	480	355	405	364	370	365	328	335	384	
神奈川県	139	99	142	148	131	121	121	125	135	26	112	98	84	111	129	117	109	148	104	100	78	66	43	46	57	48	71	85	
新潟県	25	34	44	47	95	60	54	64	64	14	29	51	62	55	53	47	61	47	56	43	56	69	49	59	66	60	53	53	
富山県	99	115	72	62	85	104	75	68	80	20	61	76	74	78	91	102	125	94	82	54	84	72	56	89	73	86	117	89	
石川県	27	24	15	22	22	23	18	34	35	4	15	26	35	40	30	33	23	34	37	35	27	30	52	70	70	70	60	60	
福井県	19	22	24	14	30	10	14	6	4	-	3	9	15	10	14	15	15	60	70	88	75	98	72	61	74	91	88	84	
山梨県	81	54	67	82	72	80	122	96	98	19	78	100	172	126	96	83	116	133	94	60	60	56	55	52	44	54	55	50	
長野県	71	79	73	96	76	104	120	102	98	22	62	107	88	85	84	80	88	110	93	99	109	115	103	121	106	104	76	60	
岐阜県	20	16	12	7	12	16	8	13	12	2	132	137	222	211	231	222	214	179	152	132	143	132	140	171	165	124	152	142	
静岡県	347	363	397	339	366	329	309	299	296	80	398	468	488	532	479	456	414	428	576	696	631	609	632	709	707	643	601	633	
愛知県	47	61	40	44	43	54	57	50	38	7	58	70	88	83	91	72	68	77	68	54	54	37	49	38	46	32	42	36	
三重県	16	16	13	14	18	8	18	27	25	4	21	16	30	21	14	22	18	13	12	12	18	17	37	22	16	25	32	30	
滋賀県	203	109	108	73	85	90	109	97	114	24	121	159	144	146	138	192	164	160	135	152	123	134	166	141	110	89	118	134	
京都府	1,232	1,212	1,097	1,065	1,122	1,113	1,391	1,455	1,389	315	1,092	1,692	1,772	1,814	1,741	1,713	1,734	1,820	1,295	747	722	685	673	729	720	774	1,083	745	
大阪府	256	211	185	204	201	186	255	301	279	56	248	364	311	277	269	280	506	452	396	342	279	235	259	264	288	317	303	310	
兵庫県	21	15	26	28	14	9	7	4	9	4	65	85	86	39	49	37	26	16	14	16	16	33	48	29	36	38	26	56	
奈良県	80	93	102	86	93	78	94	87	68	14	78	87	72	82	87	74	57	55	46	39	38	74	58	59	80	76	96	94	
和歌山県	25	23	18	8	9	2	5	4	4	6	4	6	4	3	8	17	14	25	10	101	114	127	128	115	128	120	121	142	
鳥取県	23	37	41	27	32	23	7	14	21	3	20	31	21	22	21	14	23	22	24	22	24	16	19	17	19	16	21	25	
島根県	40	36	38	23	24	20	22	22	24	8	138	137	142	171	159	178	166	125	155	117	86	103	105	133	125	96	79	97	
岡山県	131	151	121	143	149	146	143	146	134	47	133	177	171	189	181	144	189	185	223	200	182	203	181	216	203	206	195	241	
広島県	73	84	66	84	70	60	68	59	56	12	97	68	100	138	107	101	132	153	154	123	98	84	90	118	159	141	131	153	
山口県	43	56	67	51	89	67	43	30	30	10	30	27	35	12	71	61	38	48	57	87	77	93	83	106	229	280	291	300	
徳島県	23	28	23	40	42	35	40	21	45	54	16	40	59	56	67	68	106	115	112	80	77	121	118	128	107	130	129	128	
香川県	47	27	27	17	14	15	17	17	10	1	13	10	18	21	15	10	13	6	84	64	47	52	43	66	71	43	34	4	
愛媛県	235	272	276	313	433	351	337	293	276	93	209	415	408	655	669	525	481	482	464	433	387	457	409	370	386	355	343	302	
福岡県	239	31	30	17	15	9	12	22	20	1	75	103	75	68	57	67	101	66	60	48	44	38	54	43	63	62	42	71	
佐賀県	100	126	116	139	147	140	112	105	103	22	81	106	190	209	188	201	151	121	94	103	88	84	62	97	88	99	79	75	
長崎県	62	74	82	74	56	80	69	69	93	22	211	323	303	226	284	200	140	143	190	214	229	235	196	211	231	224	182	223	
熊本県	115	135	125	92	80	84	71	67	82	16	128	153	159	130	163	142	169	100	91	80	76	68	76	68	60	57	90	94	
大分県	35	23	24	31	69	95	80	112	70	14	81	125	100	108	83	81	111	132	88	72	78	67	80	67	37	47	42	42	
宮崎県	167	128	126	102	122	73	85	88	85	21	114	192	124	170	182	213	228	228	127	113	112	94	124	128	84	73	96	106	
鹿児島県	2	5	5	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	30	34	29	29	29	45	42	45	29	23	32	30	30	44	54	67	38	43	
沖縄県																													

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-14. 性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症：都道府県別・男性

報告数	1999 (1-3月) (4-12月)																												
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
総数	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
北海道	-	3,900	3,805	3,392	3,161	3,152	3,131	3,010	3,014	712	2,975	3,907	3,957	4,074	4,075	3,874	4,129	4,311	3,757	3,383	3,078	3,272	3,292	3,399	3,483	3,293	3,540	3,620	
青森県	-	292	352	309	262	256	246	231	172	97	142	79	124	119	139	114	92	104	126	113	73	74	97	86	104	101	116	121	
岩手県	-	25	42	34	28	30	36	36	17	9	45	47	55	60	55	60	59	46	58	43	38	30	30	42	46	32	33	44	
宮城県	-	17	28	7	16	39	52	57	20	16	29	36	47	56	36	30	46	67	29	33	21	32	21	20	20	35	23	26	
秋田県	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	4	5	5	42	54	57	64	64	72	68	66	66	71	53	88	69	69	80	80	69	68	
山形県	-	-	8	4	1	4	2	1	2	-	11	0	3	9	7	6	9	9	1	1	5	2	7	6	5	5	4	5	
福島県	-	3	-	3	1	5	3	3	1	-	14	30	30	35	45	32	23	76	76	66	61	57	70	104	93	61	86	53	
茨城県	-	19	77	54	70	83	85	45	59	14	32	36	45	99	66	72	65	65	40	44	37	49	37	35	45	39	49	61	
栃木県	-	17	11	13	8	13	9	8	4	11	7	8	29	39	134	153	173	121	126	53	86	74	54	35	35	29	38	34	
群馬県	-	92	88	79	74	100	80	76	68	12	74	98	78	100	82	80	61	41	29	26	34	28	29	31	40	33	44	44	
埼玉県	-	36	29	24	29	25	27	17	19	6	67	92	112	120	179	165	163	136	107	119	145	136	98	160	176	147	129	160	
千葉県	-	89	60	70	58	45	53	59	64	19	109	171	203	173	155	146	177	168	172	181	159	152	168	138	129	109	114	120	
東京都	-	291	426	406	372	356	403	384	417	84	347	483	435	397	358	446	447	510	579	550	540	723	808	813	800	824	920	966	
神奈川県	-	88	87	66	58	65	65	60	76	24	154	182	192	193	192	181	234	275	243	196	166	159	173	164	174	158	158	199	
新潟県	-	45	55	68	47	42	34	43	49	9	51	59	59	66	72	68	57	77	42	41	30	39	26	22	26	29	45	57	
富山県	-	10	6	9	6	6	13	21	19	5	8	15	36	25	22	21	16	16	17	19	6	5	1	5	6	6	8	9	
石川県	-	40	31	12	38	44	33	22	39	7	23	40	28	35	40	39	52	43	38	22	25	14	15	30	36	46	64	41	
福井県	-	16	18	6	14	7	10	5	2	-	3	14	20	31	34	25	30	18	28	36	32	22	24	23	21	18	17	19	
山梨県	-	12	17	15	15	29	36	30	35	10	27	35	61	48	30	30	50	81	51	32	16	17	22	16	17	22	19	10	
長野県	-	53	51	64	57	68	63	62	52	12	34	59	53	53	56	55	69	70	68	70	78	82	72	84	63	67	39	40	
岐阜県	-	5	6	2	7	5	-	3	-	-	37	41	55	72	61	58	69	57	42	40	38	43	33	68	61	52	48	42	
静岡県	-	272	280	257	272	260	221	215	224	60	266	323	341	323	316	281	271	295	298	266	198	169	214	210	236	169	224	231	
愛知県	-	42	17	18	8	17	17	20	10	1	35	42	60	45	45	40	34	45	34	18	17	9	9	9	19	10	15	10	
滋賀県	-	-	8	8	11	4	17	19	13	4	5	2	14	8	2	7	5	4	2	6	4	12	9	6	11	6	11	9	
三重県	-	19	18	12	5	24	34	4	7	1	10	24	21	28	26	29	22	23	18	23	14	10	28	19	10	10	18	31	
京都府	-	1,001	884	856	689	724	736	759	784	167	616	805	845	871	831	723	742	806	539	332	272	299	285	273	294	333	494	319	
大阪府	-	117	110	131	115	93	104	121	116	24	80	156	111	114	118	130	278	234	196	202	145	82	93	102	114	76	81	81	
兵庫県	-	2	9	7	8	6	4	2	6	2	51	70	64	28	36	26	15	8	7	6	19	31	29	15	21	17	8	11	
奈良県	-	59	69	60	55	51	65	48	35	7	33	42	29	27	35	26	9	19	18	18	23	49	38	41	58	43	55	49	
和歌山県	-	21	15	8	9	2	3	3	-	1	2	0	1	0	3	12	13	21	10	93	90	90	79	60	80	71	67	83	
鳥取県	-	24	27	17	18	14	7	12	16	2	8	7	7	8	8	9	12	12	7	7	10	11	9	11	10	13	14	17	
徳島県	-	17	18	8	10	10	16	20	6	3	17	19	21	33	32	34	26	16	28	14	8	6	13	28	9	5	2	8	
岡山県	-	75	57	66	67	67	67	51	57	12	47	76	69	65	75	65	85	61	86	40	47	51	74	69	78	74	56	81	
広島県	-	70	54	72	50	45	53	46	44	11	28	17	29	37	21	21	32	32	28	29	27	28	23	27	20	27	40	47	
山口県	-	53	83	65	50	85	64	41	29	10	22	16	29	4	62	52	30	36	43	63	56	60	35	59	60	77	59	67	
徳島県	-	27	23	35	30	25	13	38	44	12	29	49	40	23	27	47	62	69	65	47	50	59	58	63	47	43	35	47	
香川県	-	21	19	36	41	19	-	17	16	10	50	51	29	26	34	35	48	29	27	38	41	42	32	47	58	38	31	38	
愛媛県	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
高知県	-	151	167	180	287	219	202	175	179	52	114	177	260	215	193	223	201	176	161	127	161	144	128	128	137	128	80	80	
福岡県	-	21	19	14	9	6	9	11	16	1	7	12	10	14	17	17	17	18	27	15	5	11	11	16	8	13	5	32	
佐賀県	-	53	46	55	42	36	40	39	33	11	31	56	74	52	46	38	15	25	22	34	32	30	24	43	25	29	10	10	
長崎県	-	52	51	40	33	44	45	40	43	13	101	140	106	110	113	37	9	6	24	64	80	83	56	65	109	91	57	99	
熊本県	-	120	104	83	69	68	63	61	66	14	58	70	52	58	41	52	41	49	36	23	27	26	22	23	28	23	34	61	
大分県	-	12	17	21	26	38	21	43	20	4	30	26	32	30	32	14	24	29	34	17	29	22	18	12	8	12	7	47	
宮崎県	-	84	88	65	61	56	64	64	64	16	57	91	51	86	96	92	121	118	43	31	41	32	51	24	24	23	32	45	
鹿児島県	-	3	2	2	1	-	1	-	1	-	10	7	6	2	9	11	2	6	6	11	11	16	13	15	12	17	14	6	
沖縄県	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-17. 性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症：都道府県別・男性

定点当たり報告数	1990 (1991) 1992 1993 1994 1995 1996 1997 1998 1999 (1-3月) 1999 (4-12月) 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016																													
	男性																													
総数		1270	1530	1343	1139	1113	1070	1004	748	161	346	180	288	290	331	278	219	456	383	378	378	339	340	350	359	338	361	368		
北海道																														
青森県		311	467	378	311	333	400	400	189	100	346	336	459	667	423	462	454	354	317	358	292	282	231	205	248	246	276	295		
岩手県		170	280	169	162	100	520	570	500	160	242	218	362	431	356	430	394	355	223	236	140	229	130	162	354	246	254	338		
宮城県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
秋田県																														
山形県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
福島県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
茨城県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
栃木県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
群馬県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
埼玉県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
千葉県		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
東京都		970	1420	1015	930	890	1007	937	1017	206	868	1238	1061	993	1093	1090	1275	1135	1019	1000	1000	1364	1496	1506	1509	1526	1704	1789		
神奈川県		259	256	194	171	181	181	167	111	067	268	308	320	322	320	302	390	482	419	327	291	269	283	278	295	268	255	302		
新潟県		281	324	400	276	247	200	253	288	053	268	311	311	311	340	335	513	280	293	200	260	280	186	157	173	193	300	380		
富山県		143	086	129	086	086	185	300	271	071	133	214	514	357	314	300	229	160	170	190	200	050	050	060	060	060	090	110		
石川県		400	310	120	380	440	330	220	390	070	256	400	280	350	400	390	520	430	380	220	250	140	150	300	360	460	640	410		
福井県		250	125	250	200	150	200	100	200	075	350	500	775	680	720	600	600	720	640	440	440	600	600	420	360	340	380	340		
山梨県		400	450	150	350	250	242	300	250	292	083	193	233	381	300	188	188	313	506	319	200	107	153	107	113	157	136	071		
長野県		109	155	136	136	242	400	486	450	066	243	393	353	373	367	383	487	471	500	557	547	480	580	580	450	479	279	057		
岐阜県		379	364	457	407	486	450	371	371	060	128	137	177	240	203	207	287	197	140	133	127	143	114	234	203	173	160	140		
静岡県		167	200	067	233	167																								
愛知県		850	875	803	850	813	691	672	700	188	532	646	669	646	620	551	531	518	489	422	314	268	334	328	369	264	345	355		
三重県		323	131	138	062	131	131	154	083	008	250	280	429	346	300	267	227	300	227	120	113	084	140	056	112	089	088	059		
滋賀県																														
京都府		119	113	080	033	133	189	022	039	006	043	104	095	133	118	132	100	105	082	064	044	133	100	067	122	100	078	122		
大阪府		2224	1964	1902	1531	1609	1636	1687	1742	355	1369	1491	1432	1476	1433	1225	1258	1279	856	519	432	467	445	427	452	512	760	491		
兵庫県		403	379	452	397	321	359	417	400	083	178	347	241	248	262	277	545	509	426	439	322	178	202	222	222	248	165	176		
奈良県		050	225	175	200	150	100	050	150	050	567	778	711	311	450	289	167	089	078	211	344	322	322	167	233	189	089	110		
和歌山県		656	767	667	611	567	722	533	389	078	413	525	363	338	438	438	325	129	238	225	298	613	475	513	725	538	688	613		
鳥取県		700	500	267	300	067	100	100																						
徳島県		600	675	425	450	350	175	300	400	050	160	140	117	133	133	150	200	200	117	167	183	150	183	167	217	233	283	250		
岡山県		170	180	080	100	100	160	200	060	043	106	112	124	220	188	200	163	076	127	070	044	033	076	165	053	029	012	047		
広島県		395	300	347	353	353	268	300	353	063	168	304	300	241	288	241	315	277	174	204	232	336	300	355	322	243	352	352		
山口県		875	675	900	625	563	663	575	550	138	255	155	242	308	175	175	267	280	264	225	233	233	192	225	225	225	250	392		
香川県		386	329	500	429	357	186	543	629	171	363	544	444	256	1033	867	500	538	1050	1120	1000	583	983	1200	1283	983	1117	1117		
愛媛県		263	238	238	213	238	213	200	125	013	500	464	264	236	309	318	368	264	245	345	373	382	291	427	527	345	282	345		
高知県																														
福岡県		1079	1193	1286	1794	1460	1347	1094	1119	325	713	900	521	703	581	623	597	543	463	424	353	447	389	346	346	370	356	216		
佐賀県		350	317	233	150	150	150	183	267	017	117	171	143	200	243	243	243	257	386	214	071	157	137	229	114	217	083	457		
長崎県		757	657	786	600	514	571	557	254	085	310	560	1057	578	460	380	150	250	220	340	320	300	240	430	250	290	100	100		
熊本県		371	364	267	220	293	300	267	307	083	721	1000	757	786	807	264	089	046	185	480	220	638	431	500	681	569	660	660		
大分県		2400	2080	1660	1380	1260	1220	1320	280	580	700	520	580	410	490	380	490	580	680	720	270	260	220	230	280	230	340	610		
宮崎県		400	567	700	650	950	525	1075	500	100	273	236	291	273	291	127	211	262	131	262	131	169	138	092	062	062	054	054		
鹿児島県		700	733	542	508	467	533	517	533	133	356	569	319	538	600	575	756	787	194	256	200	333	319	150	142	142	213	281		
沖縄県		075	050	050	025	025	025	025	025	017	084	084	055	017	075	092	017	050	050	092	133	108	125	100	142	127	055	055		

出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 4-19. 尖圭コングローマ：都道府県別

報告数 全体	1999 (4-12月)																											
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 (1-3月)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		
総数	4,112	3,724	2,832	2,409	2,147	2,060	2,099	2,360	577	3,190	4,553	5,178	5,701	6,253	8,769	6,793	6,420	6,197	5,919	5,270	5,252	5,219	5,467	5,743	5,687	5,806	5,734	
北海道	89	119	108	94	60	52	63	54	85	19	168	238	395	402	2,548	372	354	328	268	263	279	242	228	207	238	227	187	
青森県	14	14	13	10	3	3	11	5	5	2	61	69	86	90	79	65	89	88	55	68	55	70	72	69	65	63	50	
岩手県	94	113	82	71	98	152	155	99	37	65	87	96	109	120	63	89	116	93	98	86	86	103	136	136	92	88	76	
宮城県	38	24	35	22	12	2	6	5	20	1	122	154	175	269	244	255	227	168	172	113	130	146	219	166	196	147	147	
秋田県	1	6	8	9	4	2	4	6	8	6	17	27	30	28	75	88	91	76	58	42	51	66	47	42	42	49	30	
山形県	22	16	18	21	7	11	12	5	20	6	17	27	30	28	75	88	91	76	58	42	51	66	47	42	42	49	30	
福島県	23	41	18	20	9	12	13	17	13	2	60	78	126	149	182	154	158	136	135	89	118	94	100	111	125	119	119	
茨城県	165	181	145	91	94	63	38	40	63	19	65	101	109	94	132	159	109	106	106	90	51	80	74	70	74	67	72	
栃木県	128	132	131	86	68	40	32	40	35	9	44	62	61	95	174	251	200	202	162	179	164	171	162	139	114	128	81	
群馬県	59	65	50	40	15	13	17	13	30	9	67	92	100	135	148	154	119	154	115	75	80	77	97	115	108	99	105	
埼玉県	112	97	107	90	67	56	30	45	52	4	104	202	226	200	267	288	290	256	225	235	220	314	253	282	354	338	240	
千葉県	84	91	123	106	61	45	25	35	57	18	114	197	233	267	258	242	245	221	202	236	214	182	199	222	178	231	151	
東京都	593	493	655	566	470	375	473	393	428	89	422	578	549	502	518	627	555	646	801	926	727	842	837	977	959	966	1,237	1,321
神奈川県	130	152	112	94	43	45	63	74	21	132	195	159	220	227	280	237	229	192	192	170	192	230	211	249	227	248	288	47
新潟県	41	46	33	24	31	43	70	97	97	22	59	66	53	46	31	34	37	48	37	67	31	24	26	33	34	39	29	28
富山県	51	49	27	31	23	25	37	20	25	6	19	32	22	29	50	34	30	35	29	44	36	40	41	42	63	56	69	69
石川県	41	21	14	8	4	6	3	4	1	5	11	17	13	20	18	29	9	14	16	6	9	23	24	40	35	24	17	24
福井県	15	15	15	8	3	4	4	6	5	1	0	3	11	3	6	10	5	23	20	16	19	14	21	15	23	22	19	21
長野県	49	43	40	26	38	40	42	53	66	21	42	77	146	164	96	88	93	78	97	51	59	56	46	57	36	38	52	
岐阜県	99	81	78	84	63	52	44	53	42	13	38	58	51	54	62	74	75	82	82	87	68	72	83	78	80	71	78	
静岡県	24	27	6	8	2	1	4	9	2	76	97	105	113	127	79	157	135	95	85	74	64	69	120	79	92	84	99	89
愛知県	252	233	282	179	187	171	123	120	176	48	237	260	283	344	387	511	430	440	462	503	447	355	344	358	382	347	328	313
三重県	34	36	27	7	25	13	14	20	5	3	35	30	41	20	34	28	48	30	39	38	36	32	47	20	25	28	20	21
滋賀県	59	45	46	49	38	14	14	22	11	10	19	21	18	33	25	37	36	35	23	25	32	36	27	21	34	32	37	37
京都府	101	58	36	15	22	16	19	17	20	6	31	54	77	58	57	51	54	48	60	53	48	52	71	75	55	66	72	60
大阪府	864	820	623	428	339	321	281	315	321	71	310	571	685	951	905	951	1,022	875	809	709	729	549	517	567	635	763	731	602
兵庫県	163	249	203	112	110	83	69	92	68	18	133	139	125	187	178	266	303	310	283	207	208	204	145	160	144	185	171	
奈良県	9	11	10	3	7	2	22	15	20	1	26	38	44	20	39	34	27	24	19	20	20	7	21	22	12	35	47	55
和歌山県	60	60	44	30	18	23	22	15	20	13	17	22	23	26	34	37	40	50	26	58	48	46	46	59	86	77	78	83
鳥取県	6	6	4	6	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	8	15	11	10	17	20	7	25	37	62	55	58	40	55	51	44	44
島根県	5	11	10	8	10	12	7	8	21	3	7	12	13	11	12	16	29	16	26	22	17	16	21	20	19	17	10	17
岡山県	16	30	18	8	10	12	7	8	21	7	70	84	109	135	140	154	180	125	104	91	84	60	66	71	82	81	89	89
広島県	84	85	82	60	43	50	43	35	47	9	51	116	184	185	142	148	158	158	195	141	167	167	150	184	210	206	163	176
山口県	30	21	30	16	23	20	23	14	7	3	36	40	75	53	39	45	56	40	58	82	59	61	44	62	73	68	79	61
徳島県	37	33	15	4	12	20	5	6	5	2	15	13	21	2	40	34	42	43	68	63	48	80	44	58	50	55	58	86
香川県	36	42	43	37	19	28	10	35	51	11	32	41	53	51	47	78	103	117	125	93	89	94	96	105	72	76	68	70
愛媛県	26	33	25	29	24	15	13	23	22	5	27	50	56	36	57	74	73	65	51	50	42	35	23	31	25	29	18	24
高知県	11	7	8	3	5	4	4	5	1	3	4	4	4	13	6	5	11	8	4	9	4	6	8	10	2	4	0	3
福岡県	149	137	145	102	123	102	108	98	100	95	163	196	278	357	401	307	321	246	274	225	208	205	204	214	206	164	178	181
佐賀県	22	22	17	17	16	8	11	10	10	1	10	17	9	6	9	14	18	14	16	22	15	19	16	14	16	19	24	43
長崎県	12	23	11	16	20	25	18	14	25	3	20	11	49	68	54	47	82	45	15	16	22	28	29	24	27	19	18	18
熊本県	33	15	30	20	17	17	14	10	33	8	50	75	98	101	102	75	62	81	69	107	64	66	63	69	90	72	48	79
大分県	40	33	39	30	33	30	25	23	25	4	22	39	31	27	32	41	31	27	32	23	31	25	29	27	30	30	36	36
宮崎県	11	4	13	7	9	4	15	18	15	2	21	35	20	35	32	34	31	39	64	35	34	40	36	23	18	19	20	34
鹿児島県	38	52	43	54	28	25	30	22	23	4	43	87	92	89	103	92	113	98	83	58	33	51	62	49	43	31	50	50
沖縄県	19	8	7	8	7	3	4	6	2	2	34	60	51	39	56	52	65	57	61	51	40	31	38	42	33	25	28	28

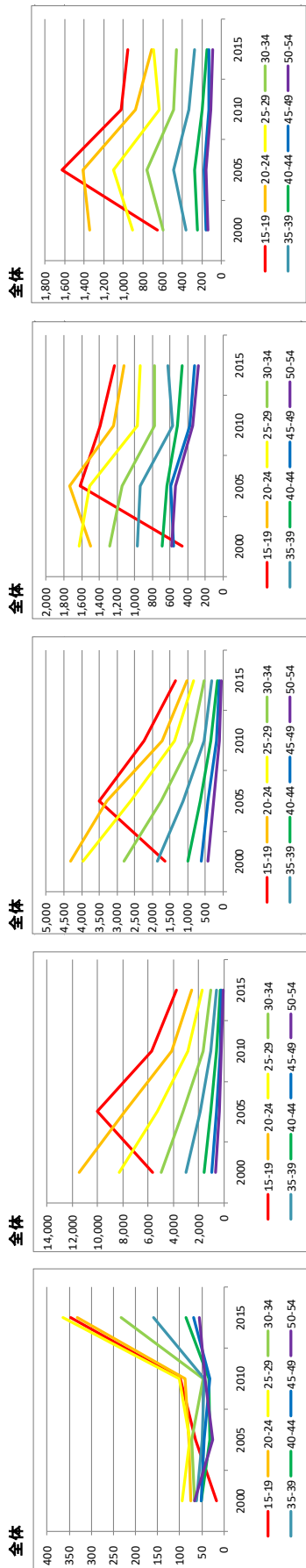
出典：国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

表 5. 性感染症の出生コホート別動向

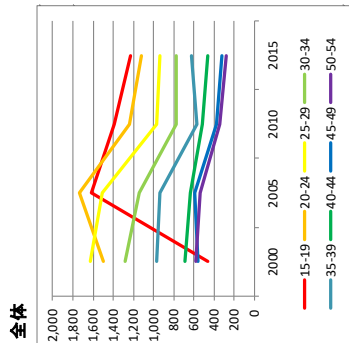
梅毒													性器クラミジア感染症													淋菌感染症													性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症													尖圭コンジローマ																																																																																																																																																			
全体					男性					女性					全体					男性					女性					全体					男性					女性					全体					男性					女性																																																																																																																																																
年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015	年齢*	2000	2005	2010	2015																																																																																																																																																	
15-19	17	64	99	347	15-19	5,646	10,043	5,692	3,766	15-19	1,653	3,500	2,241	1,342	15-19	462	1,615	1,395	1,228	15-19	654	1,625	1,021	959	20-24	74	80	87	332	20-24	11,475	7,842	4,126	2,562	20-24	4,303	3,293	1,709	1,029	20-24	1,503	1,735	1,237	1,119	20-24	1,347	1,416	876	710	25-29	94	78	100	364	25-29	8,263	5,303	2,875	1,721	25-29	3,971	2,598	1,375	839	25-29	1,630	1,510	973	939	25-29	911	1,098	639	697	30-34	67	73	46	233	30-34	4,939	3,202	1,862	1,075	30-34	2,796	1,754	882	534	30-34	1,286	1,139	780	773	30-34	597	763	487	461	35-39	61	50	44	159	35-39	2,999	1,901	1,040	573	35-39	1,857	1,120	545	308	35-39	969	936	568	628	35-39	361	484	333	272	40-44	51	32	35	86	40-44	1,535	1,007	578	305	40-44	984	636	339	143	40-44	689	638	512	465	40-44	247	278	193	142	45-49	52	45	32	69	45-49	955	579	307	175	45-49	611	427	183	105	45-49	558	589	372	321	45-49	152	178	126	126	50-54	67	26	43	56	50-54	631	391	210	84	50-54	416	274	109	47	50-54	581	539	344	279	50-54	140	159	109	90
15-19	8	37	84	268	15-19	1,544	3,340	2,542	2,054	15-19	1,081	2,692	1,832	1,141	15-19	113	417	459	495	15-19	231	639	500	630	20-24	45	59	68	282	20-24	4,139	3,387	2,225	1,558	20-24	3,340	2,786	1,505	879	20-24	411	601	518	507	20-24	576	779	538	498	25-29	55	59	90	313	25-29	3,477	2,638	1,737	1,184	25-29	3,414	2,258	1,206	713	25-29	592	630	436	430	25-29	500	716	427	520	30-34	53	64	42	208	30-34	2,343	1,875	1,153	799	30-34	2,507	1,550	813	470	30-34	623	563	390	404	30-34	422	533	388	362	35-39	50	44	32	141	35-39	1,710	1,279	797	447	35-39	1,684	1,004	500	271	35-39	524	486	301	284	35-39	261	374	276	218	40-44	46	27	33	82	40-44	1,047	731	483	266	40-44	919	595	310	126	40-44	428	333	256	212	40-44	190	205	146	119	45-49	40	41	27	63	45-49	688	468	273	162	45-49	565	379	157	96	45-49	301	287	164	139	45-49	118	136	105	105	50-54	54	22	37	49	50-54	500	332	186	71	50-54	384	250	101	46	50-54	324	263	149	105	50-54	106	144	83	82
15-19	9	27	15	79	15-19	4,102	6,703	3,150	1,712	15-19	572	808	409	201	15-19	349	1,198	936	733	15-19	423	986	521	329	20-24	29	21	19	50	20-24	7,336	4,455	1,901	1,004	20-24	963	507	204	150	20-24	1,092	1,134	719	612	20-24	771	637	338	212	25-29	39	19	10	51	25-29	4,786	2,665	1,138	537	25-29	557	340	169	126	25-29	1,038	880	537	509	25-29	411	382	212	177	30-34	14	9	4	25	30-34	2,596	1,327	509	276	30-34	289	204	69	64	30-34	663	576	390	369	30-34	175	230	99	99	35-39	11	6	12	18	35-39	1,289	622	243	126	35-39	173	116	45	37	35-39	445	450	267	344	35-39	100	110	57	54	40-44	5	5	2	4	40-44	488	276	95	39	40-44	65	41	29	17	40-44	261	305	256	253	40-44	57	73	47	23	45-49	12	4	5	6	45-49	267	111	34	13	45-49	46	48	26	9	45-49	257	302	208	182	45-49	34	42	21	21	50-54	13	4	6	7	50-54	131	59	24	13	50-54	32	24	8	1	50-54	257	276	195	174	50-54	34	15	26	8

*西暦2000年時点の年齢
 *2007年は病原微生物検出情報第29巻第9号(2008年9月号)より
 出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症情報センター 感染症発生動向調査

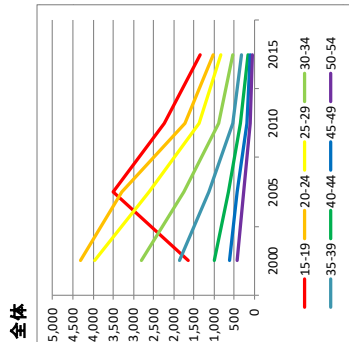
梅毒



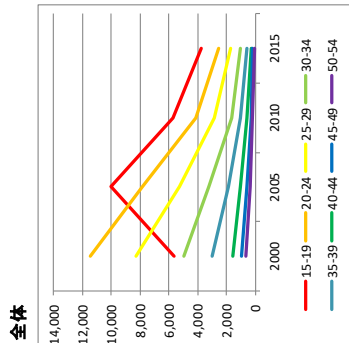
性器ヘルペスウイルス感染症



淋菌感染症



性器クラミジア感染症



尖圭コンジローマ

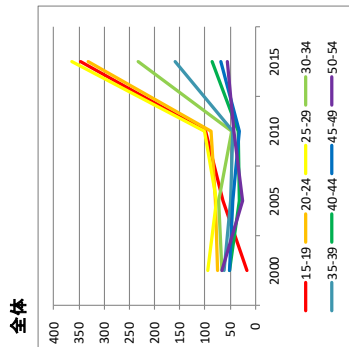


図 3. 性感染症の出生コホート別動向

*西暦2000年時点の年齢
出典: 国立感染症研究所 感染症発生動向調査 感染症発生動向調査

表 6-1. 人工妊娠中絶事件数

人工妊娠中絶事件数

Table with columns for year (昭和30年 to 平成28年), age group (総数, 13歳未満, 13歳, 14歳, 15歳未満, 15歳, 16歳, 17歳, 18歳, 19歳, 20歳未満, 20~24, 25~29, 30~34, 35~39, 40~44, 45~49, 50歳以上), and a final column for '不詳'. Rows show annual counts for each category from 1955 to 2016, with a 5-year average for the final four years (2012-2016).

平成14年以降の数字は年度区切り

出典: 母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主な統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、衛生行政報告例(総務省統計局)

表6-2. 人工妊娠中絶実施率(13歳以上50歳未満女子人口千対)

年次	西暦	総数(注1)	13歳	14歳	15歳	16歳	17歳	18歳	19歳	20歳未満	20~24	25~29	30~34	35~39	40~44	45~49
昭和30年	1955	50.2								3.4	43.1	80.8	95.1	80.5	41.8	5.8
31	1956	48.7								3.1	42.2	81.3	90.3	77.3	38.8	5.4
32	1957	46.2								2.9	40.3	78.8	85.3	72.1	35.8	4.8
33	1958	45.6								2.9	40.5	77.8	83.3	71.1	34.7	4.4
34	1959	43.6								3	41	75.5	78.7	65.6	32.5	4.1
35	1960	42								3.2	40.2	73.9	74	62.7	29.4	3.8
36	1961	40.6								3.5	39	72.1	71.9	56.2	27.1	3.3
37	1962	37.8								3.1	36.1	67.9	68.5	50.7	25.2	3
38	1963	35.7								2.8	34.2	65.7	65.5	47.5	24.1	2.8
39	1964	32.1								2.4	30.9	59.8	59.4	42.4	22.2	2.6
40	1965	30.2								2.5	31.1	56	56	38.8	21.2	2.5
41	1966	28.5								2.7	31.3	52.8	52.8	36.9	18.3	2.4
42	1967	26								2.8	27.6	45.6	48.5	35.5	16.6	2.2
43	1968	26								3	27.8	45.5	48.1	35	15.9	2
44	1969	25.3								3.1	27.2	43.5	46.5	33.6	15	2
45	1970	24.8								3.2	26.4	42.2	44.7	32.9	14.7	2.1
46	1971	24.9								3.4	27.1	42.4	43.7	33.3	15.1	1.8
47	1972	24.5								3.4	27.4	40	42.7	32.8	15.1	1.7
48	1973	23.2								3.3	26	36.8	40	31	14.6	1.7
49	1974	22.4								3.1	25	35.1	38.8	30	14.1	1.6
50	1975	22.1								3.1	24.7	34.3	38.4	29.2	13.8	1.5
51	1976	21.8								3.4	25.2	33.8	38.5	28.3	13.4	1.4
52	1977	21.1								3.5	24.2	32.3	36.4	28.2	13.5	1.5
53	1978	20.3								3.9	23.8	31.2	34.9	26.8	12.7	1.4
54	1979	20.1								4.3	23.8	30.5	34.5	26.8	12.4	1.3
55	1980	19.5								4.7	23.3	29.3	33.2	26.8	12	1.3
56	1981	19.5								5.5	23.5	28.9	32.8	27.1	11.9	1.3
57	1982	19.3								6	23.2	27.9	33.3	26.8	12.2	1.2
58	1983	18.5								6.1	22.8	26.1	32.7	26.3	11.8	1.1
59	1984	18.5								6.5	22.9	25.8	31.5	26.9	11.5	1.1
60	1985	17.8								6.4	22	24.6	30.4	26.2	11.2	1.1
61	1986	17.1								6.4	21.3	24.6	31.5	25.2	10.9	1.1
62	1987	16								5.8	19.6	22.4	28.9	24.3	10.7	1
63	1988	15.6								5.9	18.6	21.6	28	24.1	11	1
64	1989	14.9								6.1	19.5	20.4	26.4	23.5	10.8	0.9
65	1990	14.5								6.6	19.8	19.7	25.4	22.7	10.3	0.8
66	1991	14.5								6.9	19.1	19.1	23.7	21.7	9.3	0.8
67	1992	13.9								6.8	18.6	17.7	22.3	20.6	8.8	0.8
68	1993	12.4								6.6	17.8	16.8	20.4	19.2	8.3	0.8
69	1994	11.6								6.4	17.8	15.8	18.6	18.1	8	0.8
70	1995	11.1								6.2	16.6	15.4	17.6	16.9	7.5	0.7
71	1996	10.9								7	16.8	14.7	16.7	16.1	7	0.7
72	1997	11								7.9	17.1	14.7	15.9	15.5	7.2	0.6
73	1998	11								6.1	17.7	14.5	14.9	14.7	7	0.6
74	1999	11.3								10.6	16.8	14.6	14.5	14	6.8	0.6
75	2000	11.7								12.1	20.3	15.4	14.5	13.2	6.2	0.5
76	2001	11.6								13	20.6	15.2	13.7	13.2	6.2	0.5
77	2002	11.4								12.8	20.3	14.8	13.5	12.1	6	0.5
78	2003	11.2								11.9	20.2	14.8	13.5	11.6	5.6	0.5
79	2004	10.6						15.7	19.9	10.5	19.8	14.4	12.7	11.6	5.4	0.5
80	2005	10.3						14.5	18.4	9.4	18.6	14.4	12.4	10.9	5.1	0.4
81	2006	9.9						12.5	17.3	8	14.6	14.6	12.4	10.6	4.8	0.4
82	2007	9.3						7.9	16.3	7	14.6	14.6	12.1	10	4.5	0.4
83	2008	8.8						10	14.2	5.7	19.2	14.3	12.1	9.5	4.2	0.4
84	2009	8.8						7.3	13.3	7.6	17.8	14.3	11.4	9.5	4.2	0.4
85	2010	7.9						10.0	12.2	13.8	16.3	13.8	11.2	9.1	4.1	0.4
86	2011	7.5						8.8	12.9	15.3	15.3	13.2	10.8	8.7	3.9	0.3
87	2012	7.4						8.8	12.4	14.9	14.9	12.7	8.3	8.3	3.7	0.3
88	2013	7.4						8.9	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.0	10.0	7.9	3.4	0.3
89	2014	7.4						8.9	12.0	11.8	11.8	11.8	9.9	7.8	3.4	0.3
90	2015	6.9	0.1					8	11.2	6.6	13.3	11.3	9.8	7.6	3.4	0.3
91	2016	6.9	0.1					8	11.2	6.6	13.3	11.3	9.8	7.6	3.4	0.3
92	2017	6.8	0.1	0.4				7.1	10.8	5.5	11.2	11.2	10	7.7	3.4	0.3
93	2018	6.5	0.1	0.3				6.3	10.2	5.0	10.8	11.2	10	7.7	3.4	0.3
94	2019	6.5	0.1	0.3				4.3	10.2	5.0	10.8	11.2	10	7.6	3.3	0.3
95	2020	6.5	0.1	0.3				4.3	10.2	5.0	10.8	11.2	10	7.6	3.3	0.3

平成14年以降の数字は年度区別
 出典:母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主な数値(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、衛生行政報告例(総務省統計局)

表 6-3. 母年齢別出生数・率

出生数	全年齢											50歳以上	不詳
	15歳未満	15-19	20歳未満	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50歳以上	不詳		
1950	49	56,316	56,365	624,797	794,241	496,240	278,781	81,953	4,213	311	606		
1960	5	19,734	19,739	447,097	745,253	300,684	78,104	14,217	864	78	5		
1970	12	20,165	20,177	513,172	805,817	358,375	80,581	9,860	523	25	280		
1980	14	14,576	14,590	296,854	810,204	388,935	59,127	6,911	257	1	10		
1990	18	17,478	17,496	191,859	550,994	356,026	92,377	12,587	224	-	22		
2000	43	19,729	19,772	161,361	470,833	396,901	126,409	14,848	396	6	21		
2001	45	20,920	20,965	157,077	450,013	399,808	127,336	15,047	398	4	21		
2002	52	21,349	21,401	152,493	425,817	406,482	131,040	16,200	396	10	16		
2003	49	19,532	19,581	142,068	395,975	408,585	139,489	17,478	402	19	13		
2004	45	18,546	18,591	136,486	370,220	415,903	150,222	18,790	483	16	10		
2005	42	16,531	16,573	128,135	339,328	404,700	153,440	19,750	564	34	6		
2006	41	15,933	15,974	130,230	335,771	417,776	170,775	21,608	522	9	9		
2007	39	15,211	15,250	126,180	324,041	412,611	186,568	24,553	590	19	6		
2008	38	15,427	15,465	124,691	317,753	404,771	200,328	27,522	594	24	8		
2009	67	14,620	14,687	116,808	307,765	389,793	209,706	30,566	684	20	6		
2010	51	13,495	13,546	110,956	306,910	384,385	220,101	34,609	773	19	5		
2011	44	13,274	13,318	104,059	300,384	373,490	221,272	37,437	802	41	3		
2012	59	12,711	12,770	95,805	292,464	367,715	225,480	42,031	928	32	6		
2013	51	12,913	12,964	91,250	282,794	365,404	229,741	46,546	1,069	47	1		
2014	43	12,968	13,011	86,590	267,847	359,323	225,889	49,606	1,214	58	1		
2015	39	11,890	11,929	84,461	262,256	364,870	228,293	52,558	1,256	52	2		
2016	46	11,049	11,095	82,169	250,639	354,911	223,287	53,474	1,350	51	2		

出典：母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主なる統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、人口動態調査(総務省統計局)

出生率(女性人口千対)	全年齢											50歳以上	不詳
	15歳未満	15-19	20歳未満	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50歳以上	不詳		
1950	-	13.3	-	161.4	237.7	175.6	104.9	36.1	2.1	-	-		
1960	-	4.3	-	107.2	181.9	80.1	24	5.2	0.3	-	-		
1970	-	4.5	-	96.5	209.2	86	19.8	2.7	0.2	-	-		
1980	-	3.6	-	77.1	181.5	73.1	12.9	1.7	0.1	-	-		
1990	-	3.6	-	44.8	139.8	93.2	20.8	2.4	0	-	-		
2000	-	5.4	-	39.9	99.5	32.1	39.5	3.9	0.1	-	-		
2001	-	5.9	-	40.1	96.2	88.8	32.8	4	0.1	-	-		
2002	-	6.2	-	40.1	93.8	88.6	32.7	4.2	0.1	-	-		
2003	-	5.8	-	38.2	90.7	87.1	33.9	4.6	0.1	-	-		
2004	-	5.7	-	37.4	88.5	87.5	35.7	4.9	0.1	-	-		
2005	-	5.2	-	36.6	85.3	85.6	36.1	5	0.1	-	-		
2006	-	5.2	-	37.6	87.8	89.9	38.1	5.6	0.1	-	-		
2007	-	5	-	37	87.5	91.5	40.9	6.2	0.2	-	-		
2008	-	5.2	-	37.4	88	93.7	43.1	6.7	0.2	-	-		
2009	-	5	-	36.1	86.6	94.5	44.6	7.3	0.2	-	-		
2010	-	4.6	-	36.1	87.4	95.3	46.2	8.1	0.2	-	-		
2011	-	4.5	-	34.6	87.4	96.3	47.2	8.3	0.2	-	-		
2012	-	4.4	-	32.4	87.2	97.9	49.5	9.2	0.2	-	-		
2013	-	4.4	-	31.2	86.7	100.1	52.5	9.9	0.3	-	-		
2014	-	4.5	-	29.7	84.8	100.5	54	10.4	0.3	-	-		
2015	-	4.1	-	29.4	85.1	103.3	56.4	11	0.3	-	-		
2016	-	3.8	-	28.6	83.5	102.7	57.3	11.4	0.3	-	-		

出典：母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主なる統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、人口動態調査(総務省統計局)

表 6-12. 人工妊娠中絶件数: 30-34 歳

	平成19年	平成20年	平成21年	平成22年	平成23年	平成24年	平成25年	平成26年	平成27年	平成28年
全国	30,903	31,582	32,116	32,650	33,184	33,718	34,252	34,786	35,320	35,854
北海道	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
青森県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
岩手県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
宮城県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
秋田県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
山形県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
福島県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
茨城県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
栃木県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
群馬県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
埼玉県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
千葉県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
東京都	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
神奈川県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
新潟県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
富山県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
石川県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
福井県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
山梨県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
長野県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
岐阜県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
静岡県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
愛知県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
三重県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
滋賀県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
京都府	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
大阪府	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
兵庫県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
奈良県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
和歌山県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
鳥取県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
島根県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
岡山県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
広島県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
山口県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
徳島県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
香川県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
愛媛県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
高知県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
福岡県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
佐賀県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
長崎県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
熊本県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
大分県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
宮崎県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
鹿児島県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436
沖縄県	1,121	1,156	1,191	1,226	1,261	1,296	1,331	1,366	1,401	1,436

出典: 母体保護統計報告書(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主な統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、衛生行政報告例(総務省統計局)

表 6-18. 人工妊娠中絶件数：45-49 歳

	平成13年	平成14年	平成15年	平成16年	平成17年	平成18年	平成19年	平成20年	平成21年	平成22年	平成23年	平成24年	平成25年	平成26年	平成27年	平成28年								
	1994年	1995年	1996年	1997年	1998年	1999年	2000年	2001年	2002年	2003年	2004年	2005年	2006年	2007年	2008年	2009年								
全国	3,536	3,583	3,584	4,014	3,754	3,583	3,178	2,927	2,130	1,885	1,583	1,666	1,566	1,663	1,447	1,379	1,274	1,334	1,163	1,127	1,281	1,340	1,392	
北海道	200	209	211	215	227	216	190	112	26	98	98	87	87	62	61	60	54	33	49	60	53	68	59	43
青森県	47	44	42	41	45	30	35	26	8	22	16	16	18	12	10	12	12	8	16	10	15	10	15	16
岩手県	53	67	77	73	54	51	55	40	33	40	43	39	39	16	25	16	16	19	16	10	14	13	16	19
宮城県	76	101	97	107	87	89	83	47	13	43	45	29	32	31	29	37	31	30	19	24	23	38	29	35
秋田県	41	30	35	34	61	50	36	47	10	18	18	23	15	8	14	11	6	14	11	6	11	6	9	9
山形県	45	35	30	34	32	31	49	29	8	19	23	23	14	12	15	12	7	12	6	11	8	14	12	7
福島県	85	81	92	99	91	96	107	54	10	36	48	36	42	47	29	26	15	41	19	19	27	24	28	18
茨城県	64	51	64	66	56	61	59	46	8	28	30	37	27	22	21	24	22	30	27	19	32	27	20	15
栃木県	72	59	64	60	58	56	40	37	36	41	28	29	26	11	16	11	25	17	20	19	19	16	18	27
群馬県	185	174	191	171	115	163	122	118	105	55	78	94	55	24	24	29	14	17	15	18	19	24	14	26
埼玉県	132	153	160	125	160	133	138	93	121	86	83	56	57	64	52	64	27	64	50	64	50	43	61	67
千葉県	289	285	276	277	257	216	156	191	174	145	149	132	117	139	126	129	116	144	145	132	140	136	52	60
東京都	254	219	234	201	225	183	161	113	126	88	73	89	79	98	89	84	68	99	87	70	79	95	108	97
神奈川県	67	70	81	69	66	63	71	66	42	55	45	48	36	29	28	27	25	18	18	22	25	20	23	26
新潟県	28	48	51	58	42	32	30	27	5	23	26	19	18	19	10	8	12	11	6	7	7	8	7	10
富山県	16	21	37	30	41	28	11	17	2	17	13	9	13	10	14	15	13	7	16	17	13	11	13	11
石川県	16	18	10	11	19	12	16	11	10	7	11	13	5	12	6	6	12	6	11	10	5	6	6	6
福井県	14	71	66	60	59	54	51	55	43	13	40	54	59	38	42	33	29	17	20	20	31	29	27	3
長野県	59	60	67	60	126	125	57	52	34	42	36	30	24	38	28	27	33	24	15	26	23	15	23	28
岐阜県	102	107	129	91	112	100	91	66	71	59	26	49	49	47	44	40	47	42	32	36	38	42	31	41
静岡県	213	225	204	243	233	179	168	132	101	88	66	101	88	66	61	65	69	69	59	64	56	71	72	69
愛知県	56	68	84	78	58	58	56	41	44	33	39	6	23	80	31	38	21	32	16	11	14	14	19	21
三重県	46	36	45	61	56	41	35	24	7	26	20	20	18	14	12	13	25	21	19	13	42	16	16	15
滋賀県	69	173	107	88	94	62	65	38	15	26	20	20	20	23	28	30	24	24	18	18	16	20	22	26
京都府	195	191	224	219	194	190	136	129	113	25	123	85	79	87	80	83	77	89	81	79	76	100	90	83
大阪府	132	159	148	191	169	188	127	112	88	75	71	55	55	61	61	53	56	42	32	43	36	43	48	53
兵庫県	23	22	29	25	25	16	22	20	13	14	12	12	14	14	11	11	7	13	7	8	9	10	7	6
奈良県	16	25	23	33	30	30	28	21	20	19	23	17	12	15	14	14	12	7	10	9	7	8	7	6
和歌山県	25	30	32	30	35	17	29	16	8	12	13	13	7	9	13	13	12	6	6	6	6	10	6	9
鳥取県	58	74	74	56	48	62	55	42	14	13	12	12	12	12	7	4	5	8	4	8	4	8	10	7
島根県	69	69	77	78	81	67	73	44	41	38	38	17	33	43	40	36	33	24	26	18	11	25	20	16
岡山県	29	40	40	42	35	27	27	11	12	28	28	9	10	15	10	9	8	8	30	18	31	36	21	21
広島県	16	23	21	30	26	16	28	18	16	6	19	8	8	10	10	8	9	9	5	9	4	9	10	10
山口県	38	35	30	33	32	27	28	24	4	12	21	13	20	14	10	8	13	12	10	9	8	13	4	7
徳島県	34	36	44	38	44	36	37	35	4	18	29	22	17	28	22	17	13	12	8	11	10	13	13	12
香川県	38	30	43	46	45	30	41	40	6	22	18	17	14	13	11	10	8	8	5	5	6	6	5	9
高知県	176	200	214	226	145	179	174	148	141	123	107	29	100	93	92	74	61	59	51	62	63	48	69	62
福岡県	34	35	38	46	57	46	45	24	11	25	27	30	20	20	17	22	11	14	9	14	8	11	11	11
佐賀県	62	72	78	79	78	66	72	48	9	39	39	28	14	15	18	11	18	11	14	9	21	12	20	14
熊本県	36	73	60	70	65	53	56	42	13	36	36	28	31	27	30	28	31	27	16	24	31	19	19	22
鹿児島県	47	56	67	55	52	49	42	40	4	18	52	36	22	17	14	16	14	16	14	9	11	12	8	13
沖縄県	53	36	64	57	49	57	43	35	41	8	25	15	25	12	21	11	12	24	9	11	12	10	19	7
鹿児島県	63	52	62	61	49	61	58	38	11	26	43	49	46	46	27	39	20	22	26	14	16	17	10	17
沖縄県	25	35	42	37	27	39	30	38	9	36	43	49	49	31	38	24	19	15	19	16	17	17	13	13

出典：母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保護の主な統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、衛生行政報告例(総務省統計局)

表 6-19. 人工妊娠中絶率(女性人口 1000 人対) : 45-49 歳

	平成3年	平成4年	平成5年	平成6年	平成7年	平成8年	平成9年	平成10年	平成11年	平成12年	平成13年	平成14年	平成15年	平成16年	平成17年	平成18年	平成19年	平成20年	平成21年	平成22年	平成23年	平成24年	平成25年	平成26年	平成27年	平成28年
	1991年	1992年	1993年	1994年	1995年	1996年	1997年	1998年	1999年	2000年	2001年	2002年	2003年	2004年	2005年	2006年	2007年	2008年	2009年	2010年	2011年	2012年	2013年	2014年	2015年	2016年
全国	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
北海道	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
青森	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4
岩手	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.3	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4
宮城	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5
秋田	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.9	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3
山形	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.2
福島	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5
茨城	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2
栃木	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2
群馬	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
埼玉	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
千葉	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
東京	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
神奈川	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
富山	0.7	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
石川	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4
福井	0.6	0.8	1.3	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
新潟	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1
山梨	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
長野	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.4	1.3	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.4
岐阜	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
静岡	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
愛知	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
三重	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.4	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
滋賀	1.1	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
京都	0.7	1.8	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
大阪	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
兵庫	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
奈良	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
和歌山	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
鳥取	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.5	0.9	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
島根	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
岡山	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5
山口	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2
広島	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
山口	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
香川	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
徳島	0.7	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
高知	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.3	0.8	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
愛媛	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
福岡	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
長崎	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
熊本	0.6	1.3	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
大分	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.2	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.4	1.3	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
宮崎	1.5	1.0	1.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
鹿児島	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
沖縄	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3

出典:母体保護統計報告(厚生労働省)、母子保健の主たる統計(財団法人母子衛生研究会)、衛生行政報告例(総務省統計局)

表 7. 薬事工業生産動態統計調査表

単位: グロス(X144)

更新: 2017. 6. 13

年	輸出处荷数 (グロス)	国内出荷数 (グロス)	国内出荷数 (個数: 億個)	対前年 変化率	対80年 変化率
1979	1,545,097	4,681,357	6.74	-	-
1980	1,455,748	5,118,999	7.37	109.3%	-
1981	1,360,007	5,055,846	7.28	98.8%	108.0%
1982	1,392,393	4,607,180	6.63	91.1%	98.4%
1983	2,024,424	4,030,458	5.80	87.5%	86.1%
1984	1,072,624	4,532,890	6.53	112.5%	96.8%
1985	1,178,104	4,454,598	6.41	98.3%	95.2%
1986	1,544,607	4,344,193	6.26	97.5%	92.8%
1987	2,522,058	4,553,463	6.56	104.8%	97.3%
1988	3,276,892	4,398,818	6.33	96.6%	94.0%
1989	2,443,808	4,070,149	5.86	92.5%	86.9%
1990	2,671,950	4,239,793	6.11	104.2%	90.6%
1991	3,126,798	4,254,393	6.13	100.3%	90.9%
1992	3,502,201	4,502,421	6.48	105.8%	96.2%
1993	3,589,175	4,747,293	6.84	105.4%	101.4%
1994	3,200,625	4,227,767	6.09	89.1%	90.3%
1995	3,508,585	4,102,273	5.91	97.0%	87.6%
1996	3,094,779	3,917,138	5.64	95.5%	83.7%
1997	2,670,140	4,001,709	5.76	102.2%	85.5%
1998	3,307,096	4,010,552	5.78	100.2%	85.7%
1999	3,023,437	3,450,708	4.97	86.0%	73.7%
2000	2,564,424	3,418,153	4.92	99.1%	73.0%
2001	2,715,139	3,122,986	4.50	91.4%	66.7%
2002	2,393,930	2,962,868	4.27	94.9%	63.3%
2003	1,981,174	2,949,458	4.25	99.5%	63.0%
2004	1,772,771	2,931,042	4.22	99.4%	62.6%
2005	1,819,014	2,449,625	3.53	83.6%	52.3%
2006	1,533,208	2,135,382	3.07	87.2%	45.6%
2007	1,577,292	1,994,215	2.87	93.4%	42.6%
2008	1,560,923	1,715,826	2.47	86.0%	36.7%
2009	1,134,083	1,713,410	2.47	99.9%	36.6%
2010	1,647,743	1,965,729	2.83	114.7%	42.0%
2011	1,439,194	1,999,486	2.88	101.7%	42.7%
2012	2,158,611	2,558,354	3.68	128.0%	54.6%
2013	1,502,806	2,715,181	3.91	106.1%	58.0%
2014	1,903,910	3,184,840	4.59	117.3%	68.0%
2015	3,074,826	2,906,430	4.19	91.3%	62.1%
2016	3,755,153	2,373,875	3.42	81.7%	50.7%

*2010年値は1月集計値。年報発行時修正される場合がある。

*2010年値は2次席社分を補正した値。

*2016年は月報値の集計による暫定値

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薬物乱用・依存者、性感染症患者の HIV 感染状況及び内外の HIV 流行等の動向に関する研究

性感染症患者の HIV 感染と行動のモニタリングに関する研究

分担研究者/研究担当者：荒川創一（神戸大学医学部附属病院感染制御部）、立山由紀子、木原正博（京都大学大学院医学研究科社会健康医学系専攻社会疫学分野）

研究協力者：安田晶子（吉尾産婦人科医院）、澤村正之（新宿さくらクリニック）、佐々木 寛（佐々木医院）、細部高英（細部医院）、伊藤雅康（岐阜泌尿器科）、波多野紘一（波多野泌尿器科皮膚科医院）、和泉孝治（いずみレディースクリニック）、渡辺朝香（渡辺医院）、野村真康（野村クリニック）、郷司和男（ごうじ泌尿器科クリニック）、下垣博義（しもがき泌尿器科クリニック）、澤田益臣（レディースクリニックさわだ）

研究要旨

全国主要都市の 12 STD クリニックを受診した患者(男女)及びセックスワーカー(CSW)を対象として、希望者に無料 HIV 抗体検査を提供し、HIV 感染の浸透度を検討した。対象者は、STD 感染不安もしくは定期検診のために受診した者とし、同意を得た上で HIV 抗体検査、HIV 検査ニーズ及び HIV 関連知識に関するアンケート調査を行った。

平成 27 年度は、10 医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性 152 例、女性 163 例、CSW235 例で合計 550 例であった。うち HIV 検査受検者は、男性 119 例、女性 157 例、CSW230 例で合計 506 例であった。平成 28 年度は、10 医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性 110 例、女性 62 例、CSW375 例で合計 547 例であった。うち HIV 検査受検者は、男性 84 例、女性 62 例、CSW357 例で合計 435 例であった。平成 29 年度は、8 医療機関から症例が集まり、アンケート回答者は、男性 133 例、女性 60 例、CSW340 例で合計 533 例であった。うち HIV 検査受検者は、男性 80 例、女性 60 例、CSW295 例で合計 435 例であった。

HIV 抗体陽性者は、平成 27 年度は認められず、平成 28 年度は男性 2 名 (2.4%)、平成 29 年度は CSW1 名 (0.3%) に検出された。CSW の陽性者は平成 15 年以来の本研究で最初のケースである。

アンケート分析の結果では、HIV 検査目的以外で受診した例は、通年で、男性患者 75-89%、女性患者 51-58%、CSW40-42%であったが、無料検査希望者は、いずれの群でも 85%以上と高率であり、STD クリニック受診者には無料 HIV 検査へのニーズが高いことが示唆された。HIV 受検経験者の割合は、男性患者 11-14%、女性患者 38-58%、CSW45-65%で、HIV 受検経験者中の複数回経験者は、それぞれ、20-34%、84-89%、62-77%であった。HIV 感染リスク認知が「全くない or 低いと思う」と回答した者は、男性患者 69-75%、女性患者 51-60%、CSW44-51%と、リスク認知が不十分な状況が示唆された。HIV 関連知識 (7 項目) に関しては、正解率 65%以上が多く、知識レベルは一般に非常に低くはないが、3 グループとも、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」、「HIV 検査で感染が分かった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」の正解率は低かった (それぞれ、47-61%、12-37%)。以上より次の点が示唆された。

- (1) HIV 感染者は、平成 28 年度に男性 2 名 (2.4%) と 29 年度に CSW に 1 名 (0.3%) 認められた。CSW の感染者は平成 15 年度以来初のケースであり、梅毒流行と絡んで CSW 間での浸透が始まった可能性について、今後の継続観察が必要である。
- (2) STD クリニック受診者には、無料 HIV 検査へのニーズが非常に大きく、HIV 検査のカバー率を高める上での、STD クリニックの意義が改めて確認された。
- (3) STD クリニック受診者の中には、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」などの予防上重要な知識の普及が不十分であり、今後の啓発の重要性が示唆された。

1. 研究の背景と目的

わが国において、HIV 感染者報告数は依然として明確な減少傾向は見られず、AIDS 患者の発生も先進国としては異例に未だ大幅な減少傾向がみられていない [1]。特に後者は、HIV に感染しても検査を受けることなく潜在している感染者が多いこと、つまり HIV 検査体制が不十分なことを示唆するものである。わが国の HIV 感染者/AIDS 患者報告例中、性感染例は約 90% を占めており、こうした性感染 HIV 症例の発見効率を高めることは、より正確な HIV 流行の現状把握と予防促進に役立つという意味で、我が国のエイズ対策において、極めて重要な意義がある。

この意味で、性行為による疾患を扱う STD クリニックは、潜在 HIV 感染者がアクセスする可能性が最も高い場所として、国際的にもエイズ対策上重要な位置づけを与えられているが、わが国では、STD クリニックを HIV 検査機会として位置づけるモニタリング体制は未だ実現していない。こうした背景を踏まえ、受診者（男女外来患者と検診に訪れた CSW）に無料 HIV 抗体検査を提供して、HIV 感染率のモニタリングを継続することとし、かつ、受診者の HIV 検査ニーズや HIV 関連基本知識の普及状況を把握するためのアンケート調査を実施した。

2. 対象と方法

(1) 対象者とサンプリング

- ① 参加医療機関：北海道、東京、岐阜、大阪で STD 診療を行う合計 12 の医療機関。
- ② 対象者：参加医療機関を受診した男性患者、女性患者、女性セックスワーカー。
- ③ サンプリングは、上記①、②とも、連続サンプリングとし、20 歳以上の成人を対象とした。研究期間中に、割り当てたサンプル数に達した医療機関では、その時点でサンプリングを打ち切った。

(2) 方法

- ① 上記の対象者の同意を得て、血液による無料 HIV 抗体検査を行った。
- ② 全受診者に対して、HIV 検査ニーズ及び HIV 関連基本知識に関するアンケート調査を依頼した。
- ③ HIV 検査が陽性であった症例に対しては、確認検査を行い、専門の医療機関を紹介した。

(3) 倫理的配慮

HIV 検査結果は、各参加施設から陽性数のみを報告してもらい、研究班レベルでは、個人を特定できないよう配慮した。アンケートは、無記名で、検査とは全くリンクできない形で収集した。本研究は、神戸大学大学院医学研究科等医学倫理委員会の承認を受けて実施した（受付番号 1671）。

3. 結果

この3年間で、12の対象医療機関で1444名が研究で提供した無料のHIV検査を受検し、1630名がアンケート調査に参加した。

(1) 無料 HIV 検査結果

平成27年度は、男性119例、女性157例、CSW230例で合計506例、平成28年度は、男性84例、女性62例、CSW357例で合計435例、平成29年度は、男性80例、女性60例、CSW295例で合計435例が無料HIV検査を受検し、HIV抗体陽性者は、平成27年度は認められず、平成28年度は男性2名(2.4%)、平成29年度はCSW1名(0.3%)に検出された。

(2) アンケート調査結果：単純解析

<平成27年度>

表1(2015年)は、対象群別に、基本的質問項目に対する回答を比較したものである。年齢構成は、男性患者が全年齢に比較的分散していたのに対し、女性患者及びCSWは約半数が30歳未満の若い年層に分布していた。

性感染症罹患経験は、男性患者38.2%であったが、女性患者とCSWではそれぞれ70.6%であった(P<0.05)。HIV検査を希望して来院した参加者は、男性患者24.3%、女性患者48.5%であったが、CSWでは60.4%であった(P<0.05)。無料HIV検査希望者は、男性患者78.3%、女性患者96.3%、CSW97.9%と、どの群でも極めて高かった。これまでにHIV検査受検経験がある者は、男性患者11.8%、女性患者57.7%、CSW44.7%で、男性患者では低率であった。受検経験者のうち、過去に複数回検査を受けたことがある者の割合は、男性患者で22.2%、女性患者で84.1%、CSWで61.9%であり、3回以上は、それぞれ、11.1%、80.9%、52.4%であった。HIV感染へのリスク認知が低い者(「全くない」もしくは「低いと思

う」と回答した者)の割合は、男性患者で69.1%、女性患者で55.2%、CSWで50.6%であり、どの群でもかなりの割合に上ったが、男性患者では、他の群よりもリスク認知が高い傾向があった。

表2(2015年)は、性感染症の罹患経験の年齢層別分析の結果を示したもので、男性患者では年齢が上がるほど、女性患者とCSWでは若いほど高率である傾向があった。男性患者、女性患者では年齢層間に有意差はなかったが、CSWでは有意差が認められた(P<0.05)。

表3(2015年)は、罹患経験者における性感染症の種類を示したもので、男性では、最も多い性器クラミジアが50.0%、最も低い梅毒で3.4%であり、女性患者、CSWでは、約70%に性器クラミジアの罹患経験があった。女性患者とCSWでは、性器ヘルペスが25%以上と高く、淋病は全ての群において25%以上と高率であった。

表4(2015年)は、来院時にHIV検査を予定していた参加者の割合の年齢分布を示したもので、男性患者と女性患者ではどの年齢層でも2-4割前後がHIV検査を予定して来院していたが、CSWでは、年齢が若いほど高率である傾向があった。

表5(2015年)は、来院時HIV検査を希望していなかった人の中で、その場で提供された無料HIV検査を希望した人の割合を示したものである。男性患者で70%以上、女性患者とCSWでは95%以上が希望し、無料検査へのニーズが極めて高いことが示された。この傾向は、1施設を除いて、どの参加医療機関でも見られた。

表6(2015年)は、受診者における直近のコンドーム使用状況を示したものである。直近の性行為でコンドームを使用したと回答したものは、男性患者はどの年齢層でも約25%であったが、女性患者とCSWでは年齢が若いほど高率である傾向があった。特に、CSWではその傾向

が顕著であり、年齢層間に有意差が見られた ($P<0.05$)。

表 7 (2015 年) は、HIV 関連知識についての質問に対する回答の分布を示したものである。質問 1「最近わが国のエイズウイルスの感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い」、質問 2「治療薬の進歩で、エイズウイルスに感染してから発病するまでの期間を遅らせることができるようになった」、質問 3「エイズウイルスに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにエイズウイルスが感染する可能性がある」、質問 5「性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある」については、全てのグループで 60-83%と高い正解率を示したが、質問 4「性感染症(性病)にかかっていると、エイズウイルスに感染しやすい」、質問 6「保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる」は、女性患者で正解率が約 50%前後とやや低く、また質問 7「エイズ検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」は、全群で、20-36%台と特に低率であった。

<平成 28 年度>

表 1 (2016 年) は、対象群別に、基本的質問項目に対する回答を比較したものである。年齢構成は、男性患者が全年齢に比較的分散していたのに対し、女性患者及び CSW は約 40%が 30 歳未満の若い年層に分布していた。性感染症罹患経験は、男性患者 49.1%であったが、女性患者と CSW ではそれぞれ 85.5%、81.3%であった ($P<0.05$)。HIV 検査を希望して来院した参加者は、男性患者 11.8%、女性患者 40.3%であったが、CSW では 57.6%であった ($P<0.05$)。無料 HIV 検査希望者は、男性患者 74.5%、女性患者 90.3%、CSW 93.3%と、どの群でも極めて高かった。これまでに HIV 検査受検経験がある者は、男性患者 13.6%、女性患者 45.2%、CSW 61.6%で、男性患者では低率であった。受検経験者のうち、過去に複数回検

査を受けたことがある者の割合は、男性患者で 20.0%、女性患者で 89.3%、CSW で 76.7%であり、3 回以上は男性患者で 13.1%、CSW で 65.4%、女性患者は全員であった。HIV 感染へのリスク認知が低い者(「全くない」もしくは「低いと思う」と回答した者)の割合は、男性患者で 70.9%、女性患者で 51.7%、CSW で 45.1%であり、どの群でもかなりの割合に上ったが、男性患者では、他の群よりもリスク認知が高い傾向があった。

表 2 (2016 年) は、性感染症の罹患経験の年齢層別分析の結果を示したもので、男性患者では年齢が上がるほど、女性患者と CSW では若いほど高率である傾向があったが、全ての群において年齢層間に有意差はなかった。

表 3 (2016 年) は、罹患経験者における性感染症の種類を示したもので、男性では、最も多い性器クラミジアが 57.4%、最も低い梅毒で 7.4%であり、女性患者、CSW では、約 70%に性器クラミジアの罹患経験があった。女性患者と CSW では、性器ヘルペスが約 25%以上と高く、淋病は男性患者、CSW で 35%以上と高率であった。

表 4 (2016 年) は、来院時に HIV 検査を予定していた参加者の割合の年齢分布を示したもので、男性患者ではどの年齢層でも 1-2 割前後が HIV 検査を予定して来院していたが、女性患者と CSW では、年齢が上がるほど高率である傾向があった。

表 5 (2016 年) は、来院時 HIV 検査を希望していなかった人の中で、その場で提供された無料 HIV 検査を希望した人の割合を示したものである。男性患者で 70%以上、女性患者と CSW では 85%以上が希望し、無料検査へのニーズが極めて高いことが示された。この傾向は、2 施設を除いて、どの参加医療機関でも見られた。

表 6 (2016 年) は、受診者における直近のコンドーム使用状況を示したものである。直近の性行為でコンドームを使用したと回答したものは、男性患者と女性患者は年齢が若いほど高率である傾向があり、CSW ではどの年齢層でも約 48-62%であった。どの郡においても年齢層間に有意差が見られなかった。

表 7 (2016 年) は、HIV 関連知識についての質問に対する回答の分布を示したものである。質問 1「最近わが国のエイズウイルスの感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い」、質問 3「エイズウイルスに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにエイズウイルスが感染する可能性がある」、質問 5「性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある」については、全てのグループで 76-85%と高い正解率を示したが、質問 2「治療薬の進歩で、エイズウイルスに感染してから発病するまでの期間を遅らせることができるようになった」、質問 4「性感染症(性病)にかかっていると、エイズウイルスに感染しやすい」、質問 6「保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる」は、女性患者で正解率が約 50%前後とやや低く、また質問 7「エイズ検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」は、全群で、21-32%台と特に低率であった。

<平成 29 年度>

表 1 (2017 年) は、対象群別に、基本的質問項目に対する回答を比較したものである。年齢構成は、男性患者が全年齢に比較的分散していたのに対し、女性患者の 40%及び CSW の 55%が 30 歳未満の若い年層に分布していた。

性感染症罹患経験は、男性患者 54.1%、であったが、女性患者と CSW ではそれぞれ 83.3%、79.4%であった ($P<0.01$)。HIV 検査を希望して来院した参加者は、男性患者 15.8%、女性患者 46.7%であったが、CSW では 57.9%であった ($P<0.01$)。

無料 HIV 検査希望者は、男性患者 77.4%、女性患者 95.0%、CSW 87.4%と、どの群でも極めて高かった。これまでに HIV 検査受検経験がある者は、男性患者 12.0%、女性患者 38.3%、CSW 65.0%で、男性患者では低率であった。受検経験者のうち、過去に複数回検査を受けたことがある者の割合は、男性患者で 33.4%、女性患者で 87.0%、CSW で 69.1%であり、3 回以上は、男性患者で 6.7%、CSW で 57.3%、女性患者は 100%であった。HIV 感染へのリスク認知が低い者（「全くない」もしくは「低いと思う」と回答した者）の割合は、男性患者で 74.4%、女性患者で 60.0%、CSW で 44.7%であり、どの群でもかなりの割合に上った。また、女性患者、CSW では、約 15%でリスクが高いと認識されていた。

表 2 (2017 年) は、性感染症の罹患経験の年齢層別分析の結果を示したもので、男性患者では 43-66%、女性患者では 50-93%、CSW では 70-82%と全ての群において高率であったが、各群の年齢層間に有意差はなかった。

表 3 (2017 年) は、罹患経験者における性感染症の種類を示したもので、男性では、最も多いのが性器クラミジア 38.9%、最も低いのが性器ヘルペスと尖圭コンジローマで 15.3%であり、女性患者、CSW では、70%以上に性器クラミジアの罹患経験があった。女性患者では、性器ヘルペスが 40%と高く、CSW では、淋病が 35%以上と高率であった。

表 4 (2017 年) は、来院時に HIV 検査を予定していた参加者の割合の年齢分布を示したもので、男性患者ではどの年齢層でも 1-2 割前後が HIV 検査を予定して来院していたが、女性患者では 30-39 歳、CSW では全年齢層において、半数以上と高率であった。

表 5 (2017 年) は、来院時 HIV 検査を希望していなかった人の中で、その場で提供された無料 HIV 検査を希望した人の

割合を示したものである。男性患者で70%以上、女性患者で90%以上、CSWでは80%以上が希望し、無料検査へのニーズが極めて高いことが示された。この傾向は、1施設を除いて、どの参加医療機関でも見られた。

表6(2017年)は、受診者における直近のコンドーム使用状況を示したものである。直近の性行為でコンドームを使用したと回答したものは、男性患者とCSWでは、どの年齢層でも3割前後および5-6割前後であったが、女性患者では、年齢が若いほど高率である傾向があった。どの郡においても年齢層間に有意差が見られなかった。

表7(2017年)は、HIV関連知識についての質問に対する回答の分布を示したものである。質問1「最近わが国のエイズウイルスの感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い」、質問3「エイズウイルスに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにエイズウイルスが感染する可能性がある」、質問5「性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある」については、全てのグループで74-86%と高い正解率を示したが、質問2「治療薬の進歩で、エイズウイルスに感染してから発病するまでの期間を遅らせることができるようになった」、質問4「性感染症(性病)にかかっていると、エイズウイルスに感染しやすい」、質問6「保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる」は、女性患者で正解率が約45%前後とやや低く、また質問7「エイズ検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」は、全群で、11-33%台と特に低率であった。

考察

(1) 来院者の HIV 抗体陽性率について

厚生労働科学研究費補助金のエイズ対策研究事業におけるSTDクリニック来院者のHIV抗体陽性率のモニタリングは、平成15年度から開始されているが、男性

患者におけるHIV抗体陽性率は、平成15-17年度0.34%(2/587)[2]、平成18-20年度1.6%(10/623)[3]、平成21-23年度1.30%(8/616)、平成24-26年度1.26%(15/1187)、平成27-29年度0.55%(2/362)と、低下しているようにも見えるが、平成27-29年度はサンプル数が少なく不安定であるため、今後の推移を見守る必要がある。しかし、これらの陽性率は、少なくとも保健所等で行われている公的なHIV検査におけるHIV抗体陽性率(保健所0.28%)[4]を大きく上回るものであることに変わりはなく、STDクリニックが、HIV流行の重要なセンチネルサイトであり、かつ潜在するHIV感染者を掘り起こし、治療と予防につなげる上で重要な場所であるというこれまでの結論が、HIV無料検査の高いニーズからも、改めて確認された。平成29年度の調査では、CSWで初めてHIV陽性者が検出されたが(0.3%、1/295)、最近の女性における梅毒増加に鑑みれば、CSWの間にHIVが浸透し始めた可能性を念頭に、今後の経過観察が必要と考えられる。

(2) アンケート調査の結果について

平成27-29年度も、STDクリニック来院者のHIV検査ニーズとHIV関連知識の普及状況を調べるためのアンケート調査を実施した。以前の調査でも、STDクリニック受診者の無料HIV検査ニーズが極めて高いことを示してきたが、今期も、希望率は、約85%と極めて高く、STDクリニック受診者の中では無料検査希望が依然として強いことが示された。わが国のHIV検査体制は、保健所に大きく依存しているが、保健所等における公的HIV検査は、2008年をピークに低下し、かつAIDS患者報告数は、HAARTが利用できる先進国としては異例に、HAART導入後も減少していない。AIDS関連死亡数は、欧米とほぼ同じようにHAART導入後低下していることから、AIDS患者報告数が

減少しないのは、現行の HIV 検査体制が不十分で早期発見・治療に結びついていないことを示しており、こうした現状が続けば、HIV 流行の潜在的な拡大が続き、また、感染者にとっても、AIDS を発症してから発見されるという予後の観点から望ましくない事態が続くことになる。以前の調査で、保健所の平日検査や夜間休日検査を希望する STD クリニック受診者は、概ね 10%未満と少ないことが判明しており、保健所検査では、高リスク層を効率的に把握できない可能性が高い。これまで繰り返し指摘してきたように、保健所のみ依存する体制を脱却し、STD クリニックを、高リスク層に効率的にアクセスできる新たな HIV 検査機会として、行政的な位置づけを行うことが期待される。40%前後の成人が HIV 検査を受け、年間 HIV 検査数が 1600 万件から 2200 万件に及ぶと推定されている米国では、HIV 検査は、2014 年の時点で、44%が民間医療機関、22%が病院等で行われており、公的なクリニックでの検査は 9%に過ぎない[5]。我が国も、保健所等を中心とする検査体制の見直しが必要である。

また、今期も、HIV 関連知識に関する質問を導入したが、HIV 感染リスク認知が「全くない or 低いと思う」と回答した者は、男性患者 69-75%、女性患者 51-60%、CSW44-51%と、リスク認知が不十分な状況が示唆された。HIV 関連知識 (7 項目) に関しては、正解率 65%以上が多く、知識レベルは一般に非常に低くはないが、3 グループ

とも、「性感染症に罹っていると HIV に感染しやすい」、「HIV 検査で感染が分かった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される」の正解率は低く (それぞれ、47-61%、12-37%)、基本的な情報が、まだ十分に普及していないことが示唆され、STD クリニックを拠点とした普及啓発の意義を改めて示唆するものとなった。

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表 1 (2015 年). アンケート調査参加者の属性等

項目	男性外来患者 (n=152)		女性外来患者 (n=163)		セックスワーカー (n=235)		合計 (n=550)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
年齢									
<30歳	36	23.7	78	47.9	127	54.0	241	43.8	0.000
30-39歳	49	32.2	36	22.1	67	28.5	152	27.6	
40-49歳	38	25.0	38	23.3	32	13.6	108	19.6	
50歳以上	29	19.1	11	6.7	9	3.8	49	8.9	
合計	152	100.0	163	100.0	235	99.9	550	99.9	
性感症罹患経験									0.000
あり	58	38.2	115	70.6	166	70.6	339	61.6	
なし	72	47.4	35	21.5	60	25.5	167	30.4	
わからない	20	13.2	10	6.1	7	3.0	37	6.7	
無回答・不明	2	1.3	3	1.8	2	0.9	7	1.3	
合計	152	100.1	163	100.0	235	100.0	550	100.0	
本日のHIV検査予定									0.000
はい	37	24.3	79	48.5	142	60.4	258	46.9	
いいえ	115	75.7	84	51.5	92	39.1	291	52.9	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.2	
合計	152	100.0	163	100.0	235	99.9	550	100.0	
本日の無料検査受検希望									0.000
はい	119	78.3	157	96.3	230	97.9	506	92.0	
いいえ	32	21.1	5	3.1	4	1.7	41	7.5	
無回答・不明	1	0.7	1	0.6	1	0.4	3	0.5	
合計	152	100.1	163	100.0	235	100.0	550	100.0	
これまでのHIV検査経験									0.000
あり	18	11.8	94	57.7	105	44.7	217	39.5	
なし	134	88.2	69	42.3	128	54.5	331	60.2	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.9	2	0.4	
合計	152	100.0	163	100.0	235	100.1	550	100.1	
過去のHIV検査受検回数 (対象:検査経験者のみ n=217)									0.000
1回	13	72.2	12	12.8	36	34.3	61	28.1	
2回	2	11.1	3	3.2	10	9.5	15	6.9	
3回以上	2	11.1	76	80.9	55	52.4	133	61.3	
無回答・不明	1	5.6	3	3.2	4	3.8	8	3.7	
合計	18	100.0	94	100.1	105	100.0	217	100.0	
直近の性行為でのコンドーム使用									0.013
はい	52	34.2	83	50.9	122	51.9	257	46.7	
いいえ	96	63.2	73	44.8	103	43.8	272	49.5	
おぼえていない	3	2.0	5	3.1	8	3.4	16	2.9	
無回答・不明	1	0.7	2	1.2	2	0.9	5	0.9	
合計	152	100.1	163	100.0	235	100.0	550	100.0	
リスク認知									0.007
まったくない	12	7.9	17	10.4	16	6.8	45	8.2	
低いと思う	93	61.2	73	44.8	103	43.8	269	48.9	
中くらいと思う	35	23.0	50	30.7	88	37.4	173	31.5	
高いと思う	7	4.6	20	12.3	24	10.2	51	9.3	
無回答・不明	5	3.3	3	1.8	4	1.7	12	2.2	
合計	152	100.0	163	100.0	235	99.9	550	100.1	

表2 (2015年). 性感染症罹病経験の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=152)						女性外来患者(n=163)						セックスワーカー(n=235)																	
	あり		なし		わからない		あり		なし		わからない		あり		なし		わからない													
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%												
<30歳	11	19.0	20	27.8	3	15.0	2	100.0	36	0.098	50	43.5	19	54.3	7	70.0	2	66.7	78	0.313	94	56.6	28	46.7	4	57.1	1	50.0	127	0.033
30-39歳	18	31.0	21	29.2	10	50.0	0	0.0	49	23	20.0	10	28.6	2	20.0	1	33.3	36	45	27.1	22	36.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	67	67		
40-49歳	19	32.8	14	19.4	5	25.0	0	0.0	38	31	27.0	6	17.1	1	10.0	0	0.0	38	21	12.7	9	15.0	2	28.6	0	0.0	32	32		
50歳以上	10	17.2	17	23.6	2	10.0	0	0.0	29	11	9.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	6	3.6	1	1.7	1	14.3	1	50.0	9	9		

表3 (2015年). これまでに罹患した性感染症(罹病経験有りのみ n=339・複数解答)

性感染症罹病経験	男性外来患者 (n=58)			女性外来患者 (n=115)			セックスワーカー (n=166)			P値
	n	%	n	n	%	n	n	%	n	
コンジローマ	7	12.1	20	17.4	27	16.3	0.642			
性器クラミジア	29	50.0	86	74.8	116	69.9	0.002			
性器ヘルペス	6	10.3	32	27.8	44	26.5	0.024			
梅毒	2	3.4	9	7.8	8	4.8	0.407			
淋病	17	29.3	29	25.2	46	27.7	0.818			
その他	1	1.7	10	8.7	15	9.0	0.198			
病名不明	3	5.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.009			
合計										

表4 (2015年). 来院日におけるHIV検査予定の有無の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=152)						女性外来患者(n=163)						セックスワーカー(n=235)											
	はい		いいえ		無回答		はい		いいえ		無回答		はい		いいえ		無回答							
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%						
<30歳	7	18.9	29	25.2	0	0.0	36	0.382	22	27.8	56	66.7	0	0.0	78	0.000	76	53.5	51	55.4	0	0.0	127	0.120
30-39歳	16	43.2	33	28.7	0	0.0	49	18	22.8	18	21.4	0	0.0	36	37	26.1	30	32.6	0	0.0	67	67		
40-49歳	7	18.9	31	27.0	0	0.0	38	29	36.7	9	10.7	0	0.0	38	22	15.5	9	9.8	1	100.0	32	32		
50歳以上	7	18.9	22	19.1	0	0.0	29	10	12.7	1	1.2	0	0.0	11	7	4.9	2	2.2	0	0.0	9	9		

表5 (2015年) . 来院目的がHIV検査でなかった受診者 (n=291) における無料検査希望者の割合

本日の無料検査希望	男性外来患者 (n=115)		女性外来患者 (n=84)		セックスワーカー (n=92)		合計 (n=291)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
はい	83	72.2	80	95.2	88	95.7	251	86.3	0.000
いいえ	32	27.8	4	4.8	4	4.3	40	13.7	
無回答	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
合計	115	100.0	84	100.0	92	100.0	291	100.0	

表6 (2015年) . 直近の性行為におけるコンドーム使用状況の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=152)						女性外来患者(n=163)						セックスワーカー(n=235)						P値						
	はい		いいえ		忘れてた		はい		いいえ		忘れてた		はい		いいえ		忘れてた								
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%							
<30歳	13	25.0	21	21.9	1	33.3	1	100.0	36	41.1	5	100.0	65	53.3	60	58.3	2	25.0	0	0.0	127	0.011			
30-39歳	14	26.9	34	35.4	1	33.3	0	0.0	49	18.1	21	28.8	0	0.0	36	32.0	25	24.3	3	37.5	0	0.0	67		
40-49歳	14	26.9	23	24.0	1	33.3	0	0.0	38	21	25.3	17	23.3	0	0.0	38	12	9.8	17	16.5	2	25.0	1	50.0	32
50歳以上	11	21.2	18	18.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	29	5	6.0	5	6.8	0	0.0	11	6	4.9	1	1.0	1	12.5	1	50.0	9

表7 (2015年) . HIV関連知識質問に対する回答結果

質問	男性外来患者(n=152)						女性外来患者(n=163)						セックスワーカー(n=235)						P値						
	正しい		正しくない		わからない		正しい		正しくない		わからない		正しい		正しくない		わからない								
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%							
1.最近、わが国のHIV感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い(O)	124	81.6	8	5.3	19	12.5	1	0.7	121	74.2	7	4.3	35	21.5	0	0.0	189	80.4	9	3.8	37	15.7	0	0.0	0.235
2.治療薬の進歩で、HIVに感染してから発症するまでの期間を遅らせることができるようになった(O)	108	71.1	7	4.6	36	23.7	1	0.7	99	60.7	7	4.3	57	35.0	0	0.0	154	65.5	16	6.8	64	27.2	1	0.4	0.273
3.HIVに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにHIVが感染する危険性がある(O)	120	78.9	7	4.6	24	15.8	1	0.7	131	80.4	5	3.1	27	16.6	0	0.0	191	81.3	6	2.6	38	16.2	0	0.0	0.755
4.性感染症に罹っていると、HIVに感染しやすい(O)	90	59.2	23	15.1	38	25.0	1	0.7	81	49.7	15	9.2	67	41.1	0	0.0	144	61.3	22	9.4	68	28.9	1	0.4	0.029
5.性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある(O)	126	82.9	3	2.0	21	13.8	2	1.3	126	77.3	5	3.1	32	19.6	0	0.0	195	83.0	6	2.6	33	14.0	1	0.4	0.465
6.保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる(O)	98	64.5	10	6.6	43	28.3	1	0.7	89	54.6	8	4.9	66	40.5	0	0.0	152	64.7	17	7.2	66	28.1	0	0.0	0.056
7.HIV検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される(X)	19	12.5	56	36.8	76	50.0	1	0.7	22	13.5	34	20.9	107	65.6	0	0.0	23	9.8	76	32.3	136	57.9	0	0.0	0.007

表 1 (2016 年) . アンケート調査参加者の属性等

項目	男性外来患者 (n=110)		女性外来患者 (n=62)		セックスワーカー (n=375)		合計 (n=547)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
年齢									
<30歳	40	36.4	26	41.9	172	45.9	238	43.5	0.040
30-39歳	32	29.1	19	30.6	116	30.9	167	30.5	
40-49歳	23	20.9	12	19.4	70	18.7	105	19.2	
50歳以上	15	13.6	4	6.5	16	4.3	35	6.4	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	1	1.6	1	0.3	2	0.4	
合計	110	100	62	100	375	100.1	547	100	
性感染症罹患経験									
あり	54	49.1	53	85.5	305	81.3	412	75.3	<0.001
なし	47	42.7	9	14.5	64	17.1	120	21.9	
わからない	8	7.3	0	0.0	5	1.3	13	2.4	
無回答・不明	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.3	2	0.4	
合計	110	100	62	100	375	100	547	100	
本日のHIV検査予定									
はい	13	11.8	25	40.3	216	57.6	254	46.4	<0.001
いいえ	97	88.2	36	58.1	154	41.1	287	52.5	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	1	1.6	5	1.3	6	1.1	
合計	110	100	62	100	375	100	547	100	
本日の無料検査受検希望									
はい	82	74.5	56	90.3	350	93.3	488	89.2	<0.001
いいえ	28	25.5	4	6.5	17	4.5	49	9.0	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	2	3.2	8	2.1	10	1.8	
合計	110	100	62	100	375	99.9	547	100	
これまでのHIV検査経験									
あり	15	13.6	28	45.2	231	61.6	274	50.1	<0.001
なし	94	85.5	34	54.8	140	37.3	268	49.0	
無回答・不明	1	0.9	0	0.0	4	1.1	5	0.9	
合計	110	100	62	100	375	100	547	100	
過去のHIV検査受検回数 (対象: 検査経験者のみ n=274)									
1回	11	73.3	2	7.1	50	21.6	63	23.0	<0.001
2回	1	6.7	0	0.0	26	11.3	27	9.9	
3回以上	2	13.3	25	89.3	151	65.4	178	65.0	
無回答・不明	1	6.7	1	3.6	4	1.7	6	2.2	
合計	15	100	28	100	231	100	274	100.1	
直近の性行為でのコンドーム使用									
はい	39	35.5	13	21.0	208	55.5	260	47.5	<0.001
いいえ	64	58.2	46	74.2	155	41.3	265	48.4	
おぼえていない	6	5.5	2	3.2	10	2.7	18	3.3	
無回答・不明	1	0.9	1	1.6	2	0.5	4	0.7	
合計	110	100.1	62	100	375	100	547	99.9	
リスク認知									
まったくくない	10	9.1	4	6.5	22	5.9	36	6.6	0.002
低いと思う	68	61.8	28	45.2	147	39.2	243	44.4	
中くらいと思う	28	25.5	15	24.2	135	36.0	178	32.5	
高いと思う	1	0.9	14	22.6	65	17.3	80	14.6	
無回答・不明	3	2.7	1	1.6	6	1.6	10	1.8	
合計	110	100	62	100.1	375	100	547	99.9	

表2 (2016年) . 性感染症罹病経験の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=110)				女性外来患者(n=62)				セックスワーカー(n=375)				合計	P値																
	あり		なし		あり		なし		あり		なし				無回答															
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%																		
<30歳	13	24.1	22	46.8	5	62.5	0	0.0	40	0.101	20	37.7	6	66.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	26	0.479	143	46.9	28	43.8	1	20.0	0	0.0	172	0.527
30-39歳	18	33.3	11	23.4	3	37.5	0	0.0	32		17	32.1	2	22.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	19		93	30.5	21	32.8	1	20.0	1	100.0	116	
40-49歳	14	25.9	8	17.0	0	0.0	1	100.0	23		11	20.8	1	11.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	12		55	18.0	12	18.8	3	60.0	0	0.0	70	
50歳以上	9	16.7	6	12.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	15		4	7.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4		13	4.3	3	4.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	16	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0		1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1		1	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	

表3 (2016年) . これまでに罹患した性感染症(罹病経験有りのみ n=412・複数解答)

性感染症罹病経験	男性外来患者 (n=54)		女性外来患者 (n=305)		P値		
	n	%	n	%			
性器クラミジア	31	57.4	41	77.4	223	73.6	0.038
性器ヘルペス	8	14.8	13	24.5	87	28.7	0.095
梅毒	4	7.4	5	9.4	22	7.3	0.927
淋病	19	35.2	2	3.8	131	43.2	<0.000
コンジローマ	7	13.0	9	17.0	40	13.2	0.775
口腔感染症	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	3.3	0.143
その他	0	0.0	2	3.8	20	6.6	0.124
病名不明	6	11.1	1	1.9	7	2.3	0.015
合計	75		73		540		

表4 (2016年) . 来院日におけるHIV検査予定の有無の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=110)				女性外来患者(n=62)				セックスワーカー(n=375)				合計	P値										
	はい		いいえ		はい		いいえ		はい		いいえ				無回答									
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%												
<30歳	7	53.8	33	34.0	0	0.0	40	0.627	7	28.0	19	52.8	0	0.0	26	0.002	91	42.1	79	51.3	2	40.0	172	0.527
30-39歳	3	23.1	29	29.9	0	0.0	32		8	32.0	11	30.6	0	0.0	19		70	32.4	43	27.9	3	60.0	116	
40-49歳	2	15.4	21	21.6	0	0.0	23		8	32.0	4	11.1	0	0.0	12		44	20.4	26	16.9	0	0.0	70	
50歳以上	1	7.7	14	14.4	0	0.0	15		2	8.0	2	5.6	0	0.0	4		10	4.6	6	3.9	0	0.0	16	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	100.0	1		1	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	

表5 (2016年) .来院目的がHIV検査でなかった受診者 (n=287) における無料検査希望者の割合

本日の無料検査希望	男性外来患者 (n=97)		女性外来患者 (n=36)		セックスワーカー (n=154)		合計 (n=287)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
はい	70	72.2	31	86.1	143	92.9	244	85.0	0.002
いいえ	27	27.8	4	11.1	9	5.8	40	13.9	
無回答	0	0.0	1	2.8	2	1.3	3	1.0	

表6 (2016年) .直近の性行為におけるコンドーム使用状況の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=110)				女性外来患者(n=62)				セックスワーカー(n=375)				P値	合計	P値															
	はい	いいえ	無回答	合計	はい	いいえ	無回答	合計	はい	いいえ	無回答	合計																		
<30歳	18	46.2	21	32.8	0	0.0	1	100.0	40	0.236	8	61.5	17	37.0	1	50.0	0	0.0	26	0.101	101	48.6	64	41.3	6	60.0	1	50.0	172	0.770
30-39歳	9	23.1	22	34.4	1	16.7	0	0.0	32	3	23.1	15	32.6	1	50.0	0	0.0	19	56	26.9	56	36.1	3	30.0	1	50.0	1	50.0	116	
40-49歳	6	15.4	14	21.9	3	50.0	0	0.0	23	2	15.4	10	21.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	40	19.2	29	18.7	1	10.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	70	
50歳以上	6	15.4	7	10.9	2	33.3	0	0.0	15	0	0.0	3	6.5	0	0.0	1	100.0	4	10	4.8	6	3.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	16	
無回答	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0	0.0	1	2.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	

表7 (2016年) . HIV関連知識質問に対する回答結果

質問	男性外来患者(n=110)			女性外来患者(n=62)			セックスワーカー(n=375)			P値															
	正しい	正しくない	無回答	正しい	正しくない	無回答	正しい	正しくない	無回答																
1.最近、わが国のHIV感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い(O)	86	78.2	4	3.6	20	18.2	0	0.0	51	82.3	3	4.8	8	12.9	0	0.0	301	80.3	13	3.5	60	16.0	1	0.3	0.936
2.治療の進歩で、HIVに感染してから発症するまでの期間を遅らせることができるようになった(O)	81	73.6	2	1.8	27	24.5	0	0.0	32	51.6	7	11.3	22	35.5	1	1.6	251	66.9	14	3.7	109	29.1	1	0.3	0.013
3.HIVに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにHIVが感染する危険性がある(O)	84	76.4	6	5.5	20	18.2	0	0.0	50	80.6	0	0.0	12	19.4	0	0.0	292	77.9	8	2.1	74	19.7	1	0.3	0.406
4.性感染症に罹っていると、HIVに感染しやすい(O)	74	67.3	7	6.4	29	26.4	0	0.0	32	51.6	8	12.9	21	33.9	1	1.6	238	63.5	25	6.7	108	28.8	4	1.1	0.342
5.性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある(O)	94	85.5	4	3.6	12	10.9	0	0.0	49	79.0	2	3.2	10	16.1	1	1.6	319	85.1	13	3.5	41	10.9	2	0.5	0.777
6.保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる(O)	63	57.3	5	4.5	42	38.2	0	0.0	32	51.6	4	6.5	26	41.9	0	0.0	231	61.6	19	5.1	124	33.1	1	0.3	0.733
7.HIV検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される(X)	18	16.4	36	32.7	56	50.9	0	0.0	9	14.5	13	21.0	39	62.9	1	1.5	55	14.7	79	21.1	240	64.0	1	0.3	0.097

表1(2017年).アンケート調査参加者の属性等

項目	男性外来患者 (n=133)		女性外来患者 (n=60)		セックスワーカー (n=340)		合計 (n=533)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
年齢									
<30歳	30	22.6	24	40.0	188	55.3	242	45.4	<0.001
30-39歳	35	26.3	17	28.3	85	25.0	137	25.7	
40-49歳	35	26.3	15	25.0	50	14.7	100	18.8	
50歳以上	28	21.1	4	6.7	15	4.4	47	8.8	
無回答・不明	5	3.8	0	0.0	2	0.6	7	1.3	
合計	133	100.1	60	100.0	340	100.0	533	100.0	
性感染症罹患経緯									
あり	72	54.1	50	83.3	271	79.7	393	73.7	<0.001
なし	53	39.8	9	15.0	59	17.4	121	22.7	
わからない	8	6.0	1	1.7	10	2.9	19	3.6	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
合計	133	99.9	60	100.0	340	100.0	533	100.0	
本日のHIV検査予定									
はい	21	15.8	28	46.7	197	57.9	246	46.2	<0.001
いいえ	112	84.2	32	53.3	141	41.5	285	53.5	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.6	2	0.4	
合計	133	100.0	60	100.0	340	100.0	533	100.1	
本日の無料検査受検希望									
はい	103	77.4	57	95.0	297	87.4	457	85.7	0.001
いいえ	29	21.8	3	5.0	35	10.3	67	12.6	
無回答・不明	1	0.8	0	0.0	8	1.5	9	1.7	
合計	133	100.0	60	100.0	340	99.2	533	100.0	
これまでのHIV検査経緯									
あり	16	12.0	23	38.3	221	65.0	260	48.8	<0.001
なし	117	88.0	37	61.7	117	34.4	271	50.8	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.6	2	0.4	
合計	133	100.0	60	100.0	340	100.0	533	100.0	
過去のHIV検査受検回数 (対象:検査経験者のみ n=258)									
1回	10	66.7	0	0.0	56	25.5	66	25.6	<0.001
2回	4	26.7	0	0.0	26	11.8	30	11.6	
3回以上	1	6.7	20	87.0	126	57.3	147	57.0	
無回答・不明	0	0.0	3	13.0	12	5.5	15	5.8	
合計	15	100.1	23	100.0	220	100.1	258	100.0	
直近の性行為でのコンドーム使用									
はい	45	33.8	18	30.0	207	60.9	270	50.7	<0.001
いいえ	82	61.7	40	66.7	125	36.8	247	46.3	
おぼえていない	5	3.8	1	1.7	7	2.1	13	2.4	
無回答・不明	1	0.8	1	1.7	1	0.3	3	0.6	
合計	133	100.1	60	100.1	340	100.1	533	100.0	
リスク認知									
まったくくない	14	10.5	11	18.3	30	8.8	55	10.3	<0.001
低いと思う	85	63.9	25	41.7	122	35.9	232	43.5	
中くらいと思う	25	18.8	14	23.3	136	40.0	175	32.8	
高いと思う	6	4.5	9	15.0	50	14.7	65	12.2	
無回答・不明	3	2.3	1	1.7	2	0.6	6	1.1	
合計	133	100.0	60	100.0	340	100.0	533	99.9	

無回答・不明は統計的検定から除外

表2(2017年).性感染症罹病経験の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=133)			合計			女性外来患者(n=60)			セックスワーカー(n=340)			合計	P値										
	あり	なし	わからない	あり	なし	わからない	あり	なし	わからない	あり	なし	わからない												
<30歳	16	53.3	13	43.3	1	3.3	30	0.438	20	83.3	4	16.7	0	0.0	24	0.155	155	82.4	27	14.4	6	3.2	188	0.166
30-39歳	15	42.9	17	48.6	3	8.6	35		14	82.4	3	17.6	0	0.0	17		69	81.2	13	15.3	3	3.5	85	
40-49歳	23	65.7	9	25.7	3	8.6	35		14	93.3	0	0.0	1	6.7	15		35	70.0	15	30.0	0	0.0	50	
50歳以上	14	50.0	13	46.4	1	3.6	28		2	50.0	2	50.0	0	0.0	4		12	80.0	2	13.3	1	6.7	15	
無回答・不明	4	80.0	1	20.0	0	0.0	5		0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0		0	0.0	2	100.0	0	0.0	2	

無回答・不明は統計的検定から除外

表3(2017年).これまでに罹患した性感染症(罹病経験有りのみ)n=393・複数解答)

性感染症罹病経験	男性外来患者 (n=72)			女性外来患者 (n=50)			セックスワーカー (n=271)			P値
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	
性器クラミジア	28	38.9	38	76.0	192	70.8	<0.001			
性器ヘルペス	11	15.3	20	40.0	58	21.4	0.012			
梅毒	14	19.4	9	18.0	19	7.0	0.001			
淋病	15	20.8	4	8.0	98	36.2	<0.001			
コンジローマ	11	15.3	11	22.0	41	15.1	0.533			
口腔感染症	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	3.7	0.164			
その他	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	4.1	0.094			
病名不明・無回答	10	13.9	0	0.0	13	4.8	0.003			

表4(2017年).来院日におけるHIV検査予定の有無の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=133)			合計			女性外来患者(n=60)			セックスワーカー(n=340)			合計	P値										
	はい	いいえ	無回答	はい	いいえ	無回答	はい	いいえ	無回答	はい	いいえ	無回答												
<30歳	4	13.3	26	86.7	0	0.0	30	0.329	9	37.5	15	62.5	0	0.0	24	0.285	108	57.4	79	42.0	1	0.5	188	0.632
30-39歳	5	14.3	30	85.7	0	0.0	35		11	64.7	6	35.3	0	0.0	17		52	61.2	32	37.6	1	1.2	85	
40-49歳	3	8.6	32	91.4	0	0.0	35		7	46.7	8	53.3	0	0.0	15		26	52.0	24	48.0	0	0.0	50	
50歳以上	7	25.0	21	75.0	0	0.0	28		1	25.0	3	75.0	0	0.0	4		10	66.7	5	33.3	0	0.0	15	
無回答・不明	2	40.0	3	60.0	0	0.0	5		0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0		1	50.0	1	50.0	0	0.0	2	

無回答・不明は統計的検定から除外

表5(2017年).来院目的がHIV検査でなかった受診者(n=285)における無料検査希望者の割合

	男性外来患者 (n=112)		女性外来患者 (n=32)		セックスワーカー (n=141)		合計 (n=285)		P値
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
本日の無料検査希望									
はい	82	73.2	29	90.6	114	80.9	225	78.9	0.095
いいえ	29	25.9	3	9.4	26	18.4	58	20.4	
無回答	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.7	2	0.7	

無回答・不明は統計的検定から除外

表6(2017年).直近の性行為におけるコンドーム使用状況の年齢分布

年齢区分	男性外来患者(n=133)			女性外来患者(n=60)			セックスワーカー(n=340)			P値																		
	はい	いいえ	無回答	はい	いいえ	無回答	はい	いいえ	無回答																			
<30歳	11	36.7	17	56.7	2	6.7	0	0.0	30	0.541	10	41.7	14	58.3	0	0.0	24	0.242	118	62.8	64	34.0	5	2.7	1	0.5	188	0.333
30-39歳	13	37.1	21	60.0	0	0.0	1	35	6	35.3	11	64.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	17	53	62.4	30	35.3	2	2.4	0	0.0	85		
40-49歳	13	37.1	20	57.1	2	5.7	0	35	2	13.3	11	73.3	1	6.7	1	6.7	15	24	48.0	26	52.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	50		
50歳以上	8	28.6	20	71.4	0	0.0	0	28	0	0.0	4	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	10	66.7	5	33.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	15		
無回答	0	0.0	4	80.0	1	0.0	0	5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	2	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2		

無回答・不明は統計的検定から除外

表7(2017年).HIV関連知識質問に対する回答結果

	男性外来患者(n=133)			女性外来患者(n=60)			セックスワーカー(n=340)			P値															
	正しい	正しくない	わからない	正しい	正しくない	わからない	正しい	正しくない	わからない																
1.最近、わが国のHIV感染経路は性行為によるものが最も多い(O)	110	82.7	6	4.5	17	12.8	0	0.0	46	76.7	6	10.0	17	12.8	0	0.0	261	76.8	22	6.5	57	16.8	0	0.0	0.465
2.治療の進歩で、HIVに感染してから発症するまでの期間を短くさせることができるようになった(O)	98	73.7	1	0.8	33	24.8	1	0.8	29	48.3	5	8.3	26	43.3	0	0.0	226	66.5	24	7.1	90	26.5	0	0.0	0.002
3.HIVに感染している妊婦から赤ちゃんにHIVが感染する危険性がある(O)	104	80.5	4	3.0	21	15.8	1	0.8	44	73.3	1	1.7	15	25.0	0	0.0	263	77.4	13	3.8	63	18.5	1	0.3	0.568
4.性感染症に罹っていると、HIVに感染しやすい(O)	85	63.9	11	8.3	37	27.8	0	0.0	28	46.7	6	10.0	25	41.7	1	1.7	231	67.9	23	6.8	86	25.3	0	0.0	0.051
5.性感染症はオーラルセックスで感染することがある(O)	108	81.2	1	0.8	22	16.5	2	1.5	46	76.7	2	3.3	12	20.0	0	0.0	291	85.6	12	3.5	35	10.3	2	0.6	0.068
6.保健所では名前を言わずに無料でエイズ検査ができる(O)	83	62.4	5	3.8	44	33.1	1	0.8	25	41.7	7	11.7	28	46.7	0	0.0	235	69.1	17	5.0	88	25.9	0	0.0	0.001
7.HIV検査で感染がわかった場合、名前や住所が国に報告される(X)	12	9.0	45	33.8	75	56.4	1	0.8	7	11.7	7	11.7	46	76.7	0	0.0	56	16.5	100	29.4	184	54.1	0	0.0	0.003

無回答は統計的検定から除外

薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染と行動のモニタリングに関する研究 (2015-2017年)

研究分担者：和田 清（国立精神・神経医療研究センター精神保健研究所薬物依存研究部）

班 員：嶋根卓也（国立精神・神経医療研究センター）、合川勇三（埼玉県立精神医療センター）、森田展彰（筑波大学）（2015-2016年度）、堀口忠利（聖マリアンナ医科大学医学教育文化部門非常勤講師）（2016-2017年度）、

研究協力者：栃木ダルク、茨城ダルク（2015年-2016年）、千葉ダルク、東京ダルク、横浜ダルク

研究要旨 ① 薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染を含めたSTD感染の実態を把握し、あわせて、注射器/注射針の使用実態、性行動等HIV感染に関わるハイリスク行動を調査することによって、薬物乱用・依存者に対するHIV対策の基礎資料に供することを目的とした。② 研究対象は、関東地方の薬物依存症回復支援施設（4施設）（2015年、2016年調査では5施設。2017年調査では4施設。）への入所・通所者である。対象者の同意の下で、調査用紙によるハイリスク行動の聞き取り調査と採血による血清学的検査を実施した。③ 一連の本回復支援施設群調査で、初めてHIV抗体陽性者が認められたのは2013年調査であるが、2014年調査でも1名のHIV感染陽性者を認めた。2015年調査、2016年調査ではHIV抗体陽性者は認められなかったが、2017年調査では男性1名にHIV抗体陽性を認めた。これまでの陽性者は計4名であるが、4名ともMSM(Men who have Sex with Men)であり、乱用薬物は覚せい剤と「危険ドラッグ」とが半々であることに注目する必要がある。**【覚せい剤乱用・依存者】**④ HCV抗体陽性率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で48.8%→53.7%→36.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きい、2005年以降上昇傾向にあることが伺われた。⑤ この1年間でのIDU経験率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で22.7%→24.4%→42.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きい、2005年以降20%～40%の平衡状態にあることが伺われた。⑥ この1年間での注射針の共用経験率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で13.6% → 9.8% → 9.4%と推移しており、2014年以降、それ以前より低い割合が続いていた。**【HCV感染に関するハイリスク因子について：覚せい剤のみならず、全対象者のデータより】**⑦ 注射による薬物の使用はHIV感染・C型肝炎の主な感染経路になっていることを知っていたかどうかに関する回答では、HIV感染については、IDU経験の有無で有意差は認められなかったが、C型肝炎感染については、IDU経験の方が知識のある者が有意に多かった。知識があれば、危険行動はとらないと考えがちであるが、「逸脱の世界」では、往々にして、経験の方が知識を持っているということもあり得る世界である。⑧ 「あぶり」を行った理由として、IDU非経験者群とIDU経験者群とで有意差が認められたのは、「注射は怖い」、「依存になりにくいと思ったから」、「針が手に入りにくかった」であり、HIVないしはHCV感染が気になって「あぶり」を行った者が如何に少ないかに留意する必要がある。⑨ 注射による薬物使用の経験の有無とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、注射による薬物使用経験のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率が有意に高かった（47.5%vs1.1%）。⑩ 入れ墨のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率は有意に高かった（38.8%vs22.4%）。⑪ この1年間での風俗経験とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、有意差は認められなかった。⑫ 年代とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、40歳代でHCV抗体陽性率が最も高くなっていた（37.9%）。⑬ そこで、HCV抗体の陽性・陰性について、年齢、これまでの注射の回数、入れ墨の有無、風俗での性接触を独立変数として、判別分析を行った。その結果、固有値が0.544、Wilksのラムダが0.648(p<0.000)であり、モデルとしては良好とはいえないが、正答率は74.8～85.5%で、構造行列の相関係数は、注射の回数：0.929、年齢：0.350、入れ墨：0.216、風俗での性接触：-0.013であり、この順に判別に寄与する程度が大きいことが判明した。**【結論】** 覚せい剤乱用・依存者では、注射行動という危険行動に加えて、入れ墨保有率も高く、複合的にC型肝炎の感染危険性が増していると考えられる。わが国の薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染は、MSMに目立ち、注射行為のみならず、性行為による感染の可能性が重複している。今後も、その両面からHIV感染の実態把握と感染予防を進めていく必要がある。

A. 目的

薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染を含めたSTD感染の実態を把握し、あわせて、注射器、注射針の使用実態、性行動等HIV感染に関わるハイリスク行動を調査することによって、薬物乱用・依存者に対するHIV対策の基礎資料に供することを目的とした。

B. 研究対象と研究方法

研究対象は、関東地方の薬物依存症回復支援施設（4施設）（2015年、2016年調査では5施設。2017年調査では4施設。）への入所・通所者である。

わが国では、薬物乱用・依存者の多くが医療施設を受診するわけではない。平成29年6月30日現在で全国の精神科病院に入院していた精神障害者は280,906人であるが、アルコールを除く薬物関連精神障害で入院していた患者は1,374人（全体の0.5%）であり、覚せい剤関連精神障害で入院していた患者はそのうちの576人（全体の0.2%）に過ぎない。一方、平成25年に新たに刑務所に入所した入所受刑者は22,755人であるが、そのうちの男では25.1%、女では38.3%は覚せい剤事犯者であった。覚せい剤事犯者は初犯では原則執行猶予であり、入所受刑者になると言うことは、覚せい剤の使用を止められずに、再使用により再犯者となった「覚せい剤依存症」者と考えられる。したがって、わが国では、最も多くの覚せい剤依存者を収容しているところは刑務所であるということになる。

ただし、刑務所受刑者に対する調査は種々の制約があるため、本調査では、医療機関、刑務所以外で、薬物乱用・依存者が通所・入所している薬物依存症回復支援施設（関東地方の4施設）の協力を得て、そこへの通所・入所者に対する個人面接聞き取り調査・採血調査を本人の同意の下で実施した。

調査期間は2015年1月1日～2017年12月31日である。

なお、本調査研究については国立精神・神経医療研究センターの倫理委員会の承認（承認番号A2014-147）を得た上で実施した。

覚せい剤等の使用は、わが国では、それ自体

が犯罪行為であり、本調査は違法行為の掘り起こしの側面を持っており、調査への同意を得ることが困難な調査である。しかも、ハイリスク行動に関する聞き取り調査には、調査者側の訓練・経験が必要であり、調査実施の困難性はなおさらである。

C. 研究結果

3年間での対象者数は下記の通りである。

- ・2015年：初回対象患者79人
（検査経験者を含めると延べ158人）
- ・2016年：初回対象患者72人
（検査経験者を含めると延べ155人）
- ・2017年：初回対象患者61人
（検査経験者を含めると延べ143人）

これらのうち、覚せい剤乱用・依存者を中心にHIV/STD感染状況、注射針の使用状況、「あぶり」の経験状況、入れ墨等身体的危険状況、性行動等を調査した。このうち、覚せい剤乱用・依存者のHIV/STD感染状況、注射針の使用状況、「あぶり」の経験状況は巻末の「これまでの推移」の通りである。

以下は3年間の要約である。

【覚せい剤乱用・依存者】

(1) HIV感染状況

一連の本回復支援施設群調査で、初めてHIV抗体陽性者が認められたのは2013年調査であるが、2014年調査でも1名のHIV感染陽性者を認めた。2015年調査、2016年調査ではHIV抗体陽性者は認められなかったが、2017年調査では男性1名にHIV抗体陽性を認めた。

これまでの陽性者計4名は表の通りであり、4名ともMSMであるが、乱用薬物は覚せい剤と「危険ドラッグ」とが半々であることに注目する必要がある。

これまでの日本人HIV陽性ケース（日本人）					
No.	年	年齢	性別	診断	感染経路
1	2013	24	男	「脱法ドラッグ」依存症	MSM間での性行為
2	2013	44	男	覚せい剤依存症	MSM間での性行為
3	2014	39	男	「脱法ドラッグ」依存症	MSM間での性行為
4	2017	43	男	覚せい剤依存症	MSM間での性行為

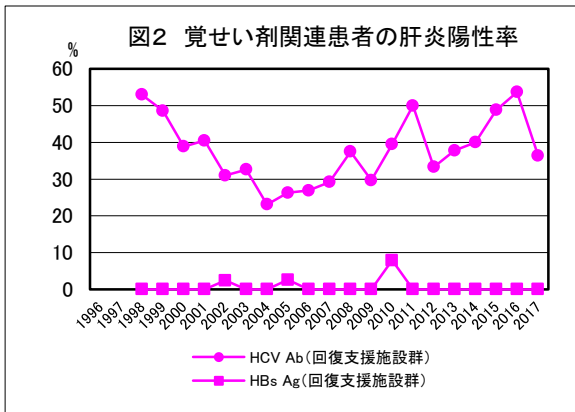
(2) HCV感染状況（図2）

HCV抗体陽性率の3年間での推移は以下の通りである。

- ・2015年－2016年－2017年
48.8% → 53.7% → 36.4%

- 2012年－2013年－2014年
33.3% → 37.8% → 40.0%
- 2009－2010年－2011年
50.0% → 33.3% → 37.8%

調査年による変動はあるが、図2に示すとおり、2004年以降、上昇傾向にある。その理由については後述したい。



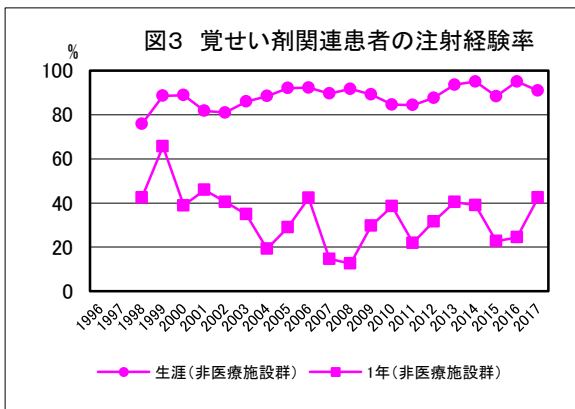
(3) IDUと「あぶり」

IDU生涯経験率の推移は図3の通りであり、90%前後と平衡状態にある。

一方、この1年間でのIDU経験率(図3)の3年間での推移は以下の通りである。

- 2015年－2016年－2017年
22.7% → 24.4% → 42.4%
- 2012年－2013年－2014年
31.6% → 40.4% → 39.0%
- 2009年－2010年－2011年
29.7% → 38.5% → 21.9%

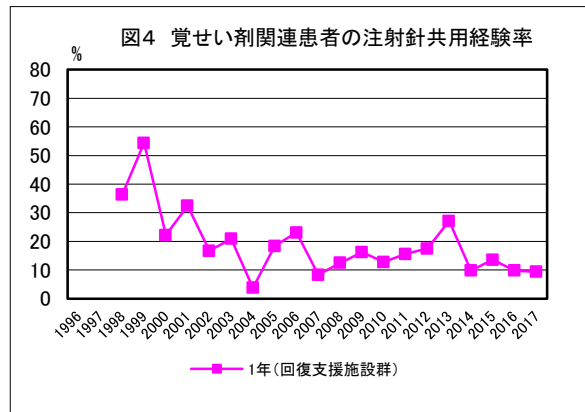
調査年による変動はあるが、図3に示すとおり、2000年以降、20%~40%と幅はあるものの、平衡状態であるとみることができる。



この1年間での注射針の共用経験率は以下の通りである。

- 2015年－2016年－2017年
13.6% → 9.8% → 9.4%
- 2012年－2013年－2014年
17.5% → 27.1% → 9.8%
- 2009－2010年－2011年
16.2% → 12.8% → 15.6%

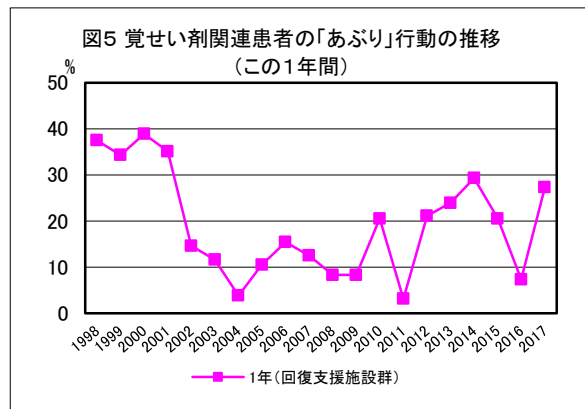
調査年による変動はあるが、図4に示すとおり、2007年以降、10%~20%内で推移しており、2014年以降は約10%前後である。



一方、この1年間での「あぶり」の経験率は、以下の通りである。

- 2015年－2016年－2017年
20.5% → 7.3% → 27.3%
- 2012年－2013年－2014年
21.1% → 23.9% → 29.3%
- 2009－2010年－2011年
8.3% → 20.5% → 3.1%

調査年度による変動が激しいが、図5のように、2004年以降、増加傾向にあると言えそうである。



IDU（特に注射針の共用）がHIV感染、C型肝炎感染の危険因子であることは論を待たないが、以上の調査結果を見る限り、わが国では、この種の危険行動は増加してはいないことがわかる。

**【HCV感染に関するハイリスク因子について：
覚せい剤のみならず、全対象者のデータより】**

本調査研究では、調査の度にHCV感染率が高率である。そこで、2015年から2017年の3年間にわたる対象者データを覚せい剤患者に限定せず、すべての対象者データを用いて、HCV感染に関するハイリスク因子について検討した。

表1は、本研究による検査を受ける前に、注射による薬物の使用はHIV感染・C型肝炎の主な感染経路になっていることを知っていたかどうかに関する初回検査者の結果である。HIV感染については、IDU経験の有無で有意差は認められなかったが、C型肝炎感染については、IDU経験者の方が知識のある者が有意に多かった。本来、知識があれば、危険行動はとらないと考えがちであるが、「逸脱の世界」では、往々にして、経験者の方が知識を持っているということもあり得る世界である。

	HIVについて知らなかった者	C型肝炎について知らなかった者
IDU非経験者	18.2% (16/88)	25.0% (22/88)
IDU経験者	15.7% (19/121)	10.9% (13/119)

また、表2は「あぶり」を行った理由についての回答である。IDU非経験者群とIDU経験者群とで有意差が認められたのは、「注射は怖い」、「依存になりにくいと思ったから」、「針が手に入りにくかった」であり、HIVないしはHCV感染が気になって「あぶり」を行った者が如何に少ないかに留意する必要がある。

	IDU非経験者	IDU経験者
好奇心	71.4% (20/28)	67.5% (52/77)
注射は怖いから	46.4% (13/28)	18.2% (14/77)
気軽にできるから	42.9% (12/28)	23.4% (18/77)
回数を多くできるから	14.3% (4/28)	5.2% (4/77)
依存になりにくいと思ったから	32.1% (9/28)	10.4% (8/77)
針が手に入らなかったから	3.6% (1/28)	35.1% (27/77)
HIV感染が気になったから	17.9% (5/28)	5.2% (4/77)
C型肝炎感染が気になったから	14.3% (4/28)	7.8% (6/77)
その他	3.6% (1/28)	14.3% (11/77)

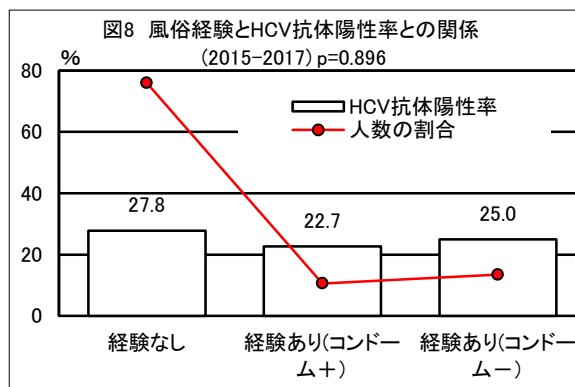
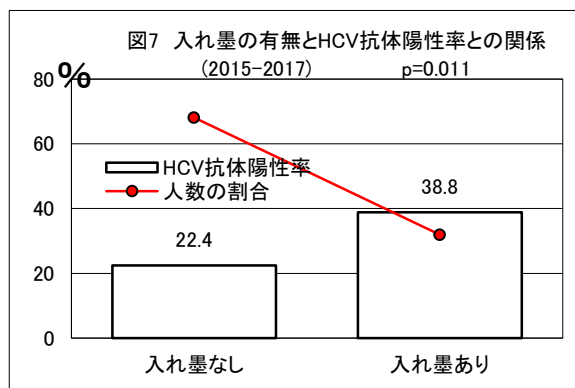
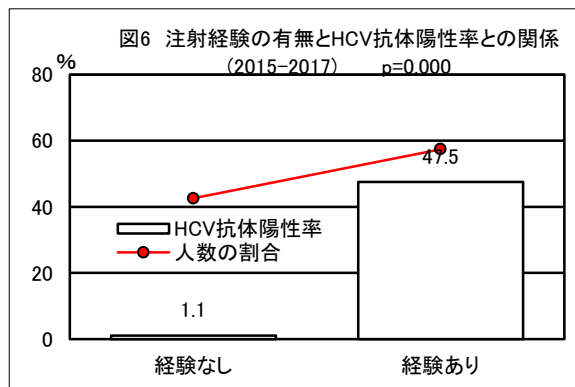


図6は、注射による薬物使用の経験の有無とHCV抗体陽性率との関係を示している。注射による薬物使用経験のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率が有意に高かった。

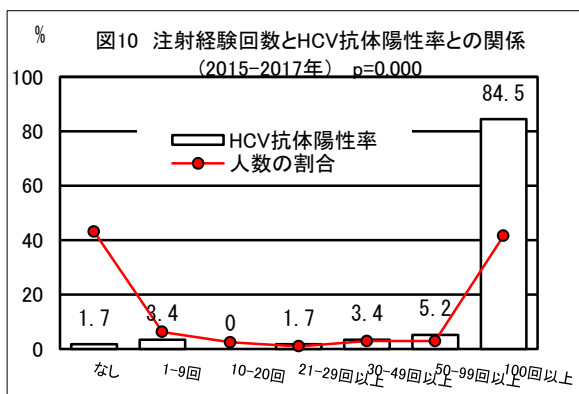
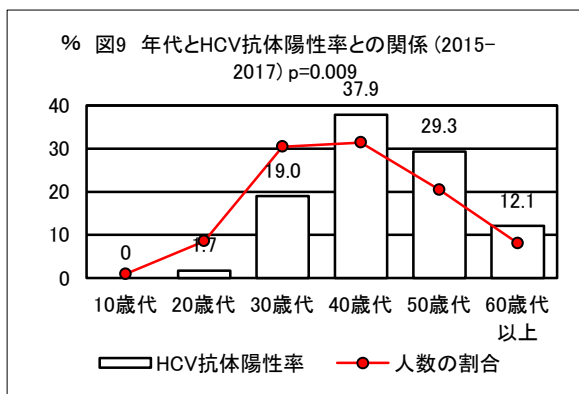
図7は、入れ墨の有無とHCV抗体陽性率との関係を示している。入れ墨のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率は有意に高かった。

図8は、この1年間での風俗経験とHCV抗体陽性率との関係を示している。この1年間での風俗経験及びその際のコンドーム使用未使用とHCV抗体陽性率との間には、有意差は認められ

なかった。

図9は、年代とHCV抗体陽性率との関係を示している。40歳代でHCV抗体陽性率が最も高くなっていた。

そこで、HCV抗体の陽性・陰性について、年齢、これまでの注射の回数、入れ墨の有無、風俗での性接触を独立変数として、判別分析を行ってみた。その結果、固有値が0.544、Wilksのラムダが0.648($p < 0.000$)であり、モデルとしては良好とはいえないが、正答率は74.8~85.5%で、構造行列の相関係数は、注射の回数：0.929、年齢：0.350、入れ墨：0.216、風俗での性接触：-0.013であり、この順に判別に寄与する程度が大きいことが判明した。



一般人口における年齢とHCV抗体陽性率と間には、高齢になるほどHCV抗体陽性率が高まる年齢による累積効果とでも言うべき現象が存在するようであるが、図9に見る本調査の対象群における年代とHIV抗体陽性率との関係は、その現象の範囲を超える上昇ぶりである。これは、注射針の共有が同世代の薬物乱用・依存者

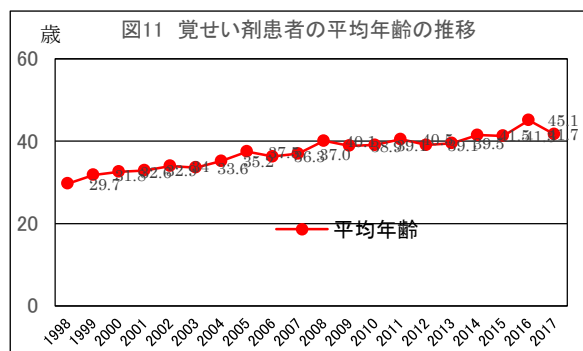
間で繰り返されてきた結果ではないかと考えられる。

ちなみに、図10は、これまでの注射による薬物使用回数とHCV抗体陽性率との関係を示している。これまでの注射回数というものは信頼性に欠ける面があるが、確かなことは、これまでに注射による薬物乱用の経験が無い場合と、100回以上と言って良いほど多数回の注射経験があるという2点であろうと推定できる。従って、図10の意味するところは、注射回数が増えれば増えるほど、HCV抗体陽性率は高まると解釈して問題はないであろう。

【2005年以降の覚せい剤乱用・依存者でのHCV抗体陽性率上昇の原因は何か？】

前述したように、回復支援施設群では2005年から、HCV抗体陽性率が上昇してきている。しかし、HCV感染に最も関係していると考えられる注射行動は、前述の通り、それほど変動してはならず(図3、図4)、注射行動との関係は否定できそうである。また、入れ墨保有者や風俗経験者が年々増加しているということもない。

どうやら、答えは図11にありそうである。図11は一連の本調査での覚せい剤関連患者の平均年齢の推移を見たものである。1998年調査では、覚せい剤乱用・依存者の平均年齢は29.7歳であったが、2017年には41.7歳にまで上昇しているのである。



覚せい剤乱用者の年齢が、高齢化してきており、その結果がHCV抗体陽性率の上昇として現れていると考えるのが自然のようである。この覚せい剤乱用者の高齢化の背景には、今日の日本の薬物乱用の特徴として当研究者らが指摘

する違法薬物から「脱法ドラッグ」へのシフト、すなわち「捕まる行為から捕まらない行為」への流れ¹⁾があることは確かである。

D. 結論

① 薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染を含めたSTD感染の実態を把握し、あわせて、注射器/注射針の使用実態、性行動等HIV感染に関わるハイリスク行動を調査することによって、薬物乱用・依存者に対するHIV対策の基礎資料に供することを目的とした。

② 研究対象は、関東地方の薬物依存症回復支援施設（4施設）（2015年、2016年調査では5施設。2017年調査では4施設。）への入所・通所者である。対象者の同意の下で、調査用紙によるハイリスク行動の聞き取り調査と採血による血清学的検査を実施した。

③ 一連の本回復支援施設群調査で、初めてHIV抗体陽性者が認められたのは2013年調査であるが、2014年調査でも1名のHIV感染陽性者を認めた。2015年調査、2016年調査ではHIV抗体陽性者は認められなかったが、2017年調査では男性1名にHIV抗体陽性を認めた。

これまでの陽性者計4名であるが、4名ともMSMであり、乱用薬物は覚せい剤と「危険ドラッグ」とが半々であることに注目する必要がある。

【覚せい剤乱用・依存者】

④ HCV抗体陽性率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で48.8%→53.7%→36.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きいですが、2005年以降上昇傾向にあることが伺われた。

⑤ この1年間でのIDU経験率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で22.7%→24.4%→42.4%と推移しており、年単位での変動は大きいですが、2005年以降20%～40%の平衡状態にあることが伺われた。

⑥ この1年間での注射針の共用経験率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で13.6% → 9.8% → 9.4%と推移しており、2014年以降、それ以前より低い割合が続いていた。

⑦ この1年間での「あぶり」の経験率は、2015年～2017年の3年間で20.5% → 7.3% → 27.3%と推移していた。2004年以降、増加傾向にある

と言えそうである。

【HCV感染に関するハイリスク因子について：覚せい剤のみならず、全対象者のデータより】

⑧ 本研究による検査を受ける前に、注射による薬物の使用はHIV感染・C型肝炎の主な感染経路になっていることを知っていたかどうか関する初回検査者の回答では、HIV感染については、IDU経験の有無で有意差は認められなかったが、C型肝炎感染については、IDU経験者の方が知識のある者が有意に多かった。本来、知識があれば、危険行動はとらないと考えがちであるが、「逸脱の世界」では、往々にして、経験者の方が知識を持っているということもあり得る世界である。

⑨ 「あぶり」を行った理由として、IDU非経験者群とIDU経験者群とで有意差が認められたのは、「注射は怖い」、「依存になりにくいと思ったから」、「針が手に入りにくかった」であり、HIVないしはHCV感染が気になって「あぶり」を行った者が如何に少ないかに留意する必要がある。

⑩ 注射による薬物使用の経験の有無とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、注射による薬物使用経験のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率が有意に高かった（47.5%vs1.1%）。

⑪ 入れ墨の有無とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、入れ墨のある者でのHCV抗体陽性率は有意に高かった（38.8%vs22.4%）。

⑫ この1年間での風俗経験とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、有意差は認められなかった。

⑬ 年代とHCV抗体陽性率との関係では、40歳代でHCV抗体陽性率が最も高くなっていた（37.9%）。

⑭ そこで、HCV抗体の陽性・陰性について、年齢、これまでの注射の回数、入れ墨の有無、風俗での性接触を独立変数として、判別分析を行った。その結果、固有値が0.544、Wilksのラムダが0.648 ($p < 0.000$) であり、モデルとしては良好とはいえないが、正答率は74.8～85.5%で、構造行列の相関係数は、注射の回数:0.929、年齢:0.350、入れ墨:0.216、風俗での性接触:-0.013であり、この順に判別に寄与する程度が大きいことが判明した。

【2005年以降の覚せい剤乱用・依存者でのHCV

抗体陽性率上昇の原因は何か？】

回復支援施設群では2005年から、HCV抗体陽性率が上昇してきている。しかし、HCV感染に最も関係していると考えられる注射行動は、前述の通り、それほど変動してはならず、注射行動との関係は否定できそうである。また、入れ墨保有者や風俗経験者が年々増加しているということもない。

覚せい剤乱用・依存者の平均年齢は、1998年調査では、29.7歳であったが、2017年には41.7歳にまで上昇しており、2005年以降の覚せい剤乱用・依存者でのHCV抗体陽性率の上昇は、覚せい剤乱用・依存者の高齢化によるものと考えられる。

【結論】

覚せい剤乱用・依存者では、注射行動という危険行動に加えて、入れ墨保有率も高く、複合的にC型肝炎の感染危険性が増していると考えられる。

わが国の薬物乱用・依存者におけるHIV感染は、MSMに目立ち、注射行為のみならず、性行為による感染の可能性が重複している。今後も、その両面からHIV感染の実態把握と感染予防を進めていく必要がある。

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E. 発表論文
なし

F. 学会発表

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G: 知的所有権の取得状況
なし

これまでの推移		薬物依存症回復支援施設入所者中の覚せい剤乱用・依存者 (実数) 複数回の人間は初回をカウント																					
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
対象者数	4	9	11	33	35	18	37	42	43	26	38	26	48	24	37	39	32	57	47	41	44	41	33
年齢																							
HIV Ab +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.3	0	0	0	3.0
HCV Ab +	25	44.4	9.1	53	48.6	38.9	40.5	31.0	32.6	23.1	26.3	26.9	29.2	37.5	29.7	39.5	50.0	33.3	37.8	40	48.8	53.7	36.4
HBs Ag +	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.4	0	0	2.8	0	0	0	0	2.7	7.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
HBs Ab +	0	10	12.1	11.4	5.6	12.5	10.3	15.4	18.8	14.7	11.5	10.4	12.5	8.1	7.9	3.7	7.1	7.3	7.7	7.1	14.6	6.1	
HBc Ab +	10	12.5	14.3	11.1	12.5	17.2	23.1	6.3	11.8	11.5	16.7	16.7	16.2	18.4	11.1	3.6	4.9	7.7	4.7	12.2	9.1		
% Needle Use (lifetime)	100	83.3	90.9	75.8	88.6	88.9	81.8	81	86	88.5	92.1	92.3	89.6	91.7	89.2	84.6	84.4	87.7	93.6	95.1	88.4	95.1	90.9
% Needle Use (past year)	75	50	72.7	42.4	65.7	38.9	45.9	40.5	34.9	19.2	28.9	42.3	14.6	12.5	29.7	38.5	21.9	31.6	40.4	39	22.7	24.4	42.4
% Needle Sharing (lifetime)	50	66.7	81.8	69.7	79.4	72.2	73	66.7	67.4	65.4	81.8	76	75	87.5	78.4	66.7	71.9	71.9	78.3	65.9	69	75.6	51.5
% Needle Sharing (past year)	25	33.3	54.5	36.4	54.4	22.2	32.4	16.7	20.9	3.8	18.4	23.1	8.3	12.5	16.2	12.8	15.6	17.5	27.1	9.8	13.6	9.8	9.4
「あぶり」の経験+ (lifetime)				71	60	72.2	56.8	64.3	55.8	61.5	60.5	52	64.6	66.7	75.7	74.4	56.3	54.4	63.8	73.2	72.7	63.4	69.7
「あぶり」の経験+ (past year)				37.5	34.3	38.9	35.1	14.6	11.6	3.8	10.5	15.4	12.5	8.3	8.3	20.5	3.1	21.1	23.9	29.3	20.5	7.3	27.3
注射か「あぶり」か (past year)																							
注射				34.4	57.1	22.2	43.2	41.5	34.9	19.2	28.9	34.6	18.8	8.3	30.6	35.9	21.9	26.3	34.8	29.3	20.5	24.4	27.3
「あぶり」				18.8	17.1	27.8	13.5	9.7	11.6	3.8	2.6	11.5	4.2	0	2.8	7.7	0	8.8	10.8	17.1	9.1	7.3	15.2
同程度				6.3	5.1	5.6	0	0	0	0	2.6	0	0	4.2	0	0	0	0	2.2	2.4	2.3	0	6.1
どちらもなし				40.6	20	33.3	43.2	48.8	53.5	76.9	65.8	53.8	77.1	87.5	66.7	56.4	78.1	64.9	52.2	51.2	68.2	68.3	51.5
n				32	35	18	37	41	43	26	38	26	48	24	36	39	32	57	46	41	44	41	33
調査施設数	全国1	全国1	全国2	全国2	全国2	全国2	全国2	全国2	全国3	全国3	全国4	全国3	全国5	全国5	全国7	全国6	全国6	全国6	全国6	全国5	全国5	全国5	全国4

表3 【薬物依存症回復支援施設入所者】の属性・血清検査・身体所見(%)		2015年～2017年								
		主診断 (ICD-10)								
		F10	F11	F12	F13	F14	F15	F18	F19	全体
		アルコール	あへん類	大麻	鎮静睡眠剤	コカイン	覚せい剤等	揮発性溶剤	他剤・多剤	
		44[20.8]	1[0.5]	11[5.2]	4[1.9]	1[0.5]	118[55.7]	6[2.8]	27[12.7]	212[100]
性別										
	男	41(93.2)	1(100)	11(100)	4(100)	1(100)	104(88.1)	6(100)	26(96.3)	194(91.5)
	女	3(6.8)					14(11.9)		1(3.7)	18(8.5)
年齢										
	10歳代						1(0.8)		1(3.7)	2(0.9)
	20歳代	3(6.8)		1(9.1)	2(50.0)		7(5.9)		6(22.2)	19(9.0)
	30歳代	7(15.9)		3(27.3)		1(100)	40(33.9)	1(16.7)	12(44.4)	64(30.2)
	40歳代	13(29.5)		5(45.5)	1(25.0)		41(34.7)	1(16.7)	6(22.2)	67(31.6)
	50歳代	12(27.3)	1(100)	2(18.2)	1(25.0)		21(17.8)	4(66.7)	2(7.4)	43(20.3)
	60歳代	9(20.5)					8(6.8)			17(8.0)
	平均年齢±SD	48.5 ±11.7	50.0	41.3 ±8.9	36.5 ±12.9	34.0	42.8 ±10.0	50.3 ±8.5	36.2 ±8.4	43.1 ±10.7
現在の配偶歴(%)										
	未婚	59.1	100	54.5	100	100	50	33.3	77.8	56.6
	既婚	2.3		9.1			5.1	16.7	7.4	5.2
	離婚	34.1		36.4			44.1	50.0	14.8	36.8
	死別	4.5		0			0.8	0	0	1.4
	離婚歴あり	38.6	0	36.4	0	0	48.3	50.0	18.5	40.6
血清検査(%)										
	HIV抗体陽性	0(0/43)	0	0	0	0	0.9(1/117)	0	0	0.5(1/210)
	HCV抗体陽性率	2.3(1/43)	0	0	0	0	47.0(55/117)	33.3	0	27.6(58/210)
	HBs抗原陽性率	0(0/43)	0	0	0	0	0(0/117)	0	0	0(0/210)
	HBs抗体陽性率	7.0(3/43)	0	0	0	0	9.5(11/116)	16.7	0	7.2(15/209)
	HBc抗体陽性率	4.8(2/42)	0	0	0	0	8.5(10/117)	16.7	0	6.2(13/209)
	TPHA陽性率	2.3(1/43)	0	0	0	0	3.4(4/117)	0	3.7	2.9(6/210)
性病既往 (自己申告) (%)										
	毛ジラミ	4.5	0	18.2	0	0	13.7(16/117)	16.7	7.7(2/26)	11.0(23/210)
	淋病	4.5	0	0	0	0	27.4(32/117)	33.3	7.7(2/26)	18.6(38/210)
	クラミジア	2.3	100	0	0	0	11.1(13/117)	16.7	23.1(10.5/22/210)	
	梅毒	2.3	0	9.1	0	0	3.4(4/117)	0	7.7(2/26)	3.8(8/210)
身体所見(%)										
	輸血の既往あり	18.6(8/43)	0	9.1	0	0	21.7(25/115)	50.0	3.8(1/26)	18.4(38/207)
	歯の著明不良あり	51.2(22/43)	0	45.5	0	0	61.7(71/115)	20.0	59.3	56.0(116/207)
	注射痕あり	2.3(1/43)	0	0	0	0	35.7(41/115)	20.0(1/5)	0	20.8(43/207)
	入れ墨あり	9.3(4/43)	0	18.2	0	0	46.1(53/115)	60.0(3/5)	11.1	31.4(65/207)
	指つめあり	4.7(2/43)	0	9.1	0	0	7.8(9/115)	0(0/5)	3.7	6.3(13/207)
	根性焼きあり	7.0(3/43)	0	9.1	0	0	33.9(39/115)	40.0(2/5)	25.9	25.1(52/207)
	自傷痕あり	14.0(6/43)	0	0	0	0	13.0(15/115)	0(0/5)	18.5	12.6(26/207)

表4 【薬物依存症回復支援施設入所者】の注射行動・性行動(%)									2015年～2017年	
	ICD-10									
	F10	F11	F12	F13	F14	F15	F18	F19	全体	
	アルコール	あへん類	大麻	鎮静睡眠剤	コカイン	覚せい剤等	揮発性溶剤	他剤・多剤		
	44[20.8]	1[0.5]	11[5.2]	4[1.9]	1[0.5]	118[55.7]	6[2.8]	27[12.7]	212[100]	
これまでに(%)										
注射経験あり	11.4	100	0	0	100	91.5(107/117)	33.3	18.5	57.3(121/211)	
シリンジ 共用経験+	9.1	100	0	0	100	69.8(81/116)	16.7	11.1	43.3(91/210)	
シリンジ 反復使用経験+	6.8	0	0	0	100	85.3(99/116)	33.3	18.5	52.4(110/210)	
針の共用経験+	4.5	100	0	0	100	66.4(77/116)	16.7	11.1	40.5(85/210)	
針の反復使用経験+	4.5	0	0	0	100	79.3(92/116)	16.7	18.5	48.1(101/210)	
注射回数										
なし	88.6	0	100	100	0	8.5(10/117)	66.7	81.5	42.7(90/211)	
1～49回	9.1	100	0	0	100	14.5(17/117)	16.7	3.7	11.8(25/211)	
50～99回	0	0	0	0	0	3.4(4/117)	16.7	7.4	3.3(7/211)	
100回以上	2.3	0	0	0	0	73.5(86/117)	0	7.4	42.2(89/211)	
最近1年間で(%)										
注射経験あり	0	0	0	0	0	28.8	0	3.7	16.5	
シリンジ 共用経験+	0	0	0	0	0	12.8(15/117)	0	0.0	7.1(15/211)	
シリンジ 反復使用経験+	0	0	0	0	0	23.1(27/117)	0	3.8(1/26)	13.3(28/210)	
針の共用経験+	0	0	0	0(0/3)	0	11.1(13/117)	0	0.0	6.2(13/210)	
針の反復使用経験+	0	0	0	0	0	19.7(23/117)	0	3.7(1/27)	11.4(24/211)	
注射回数										
なし	100	100	100	100	100	70.9(83/117)	100	96.3(26/27)	83.4(176/211)	
1～49回	0	0	0	0	0	15.4(18/117)	0	3.7(1/27)	9.0(19/211)	
50～99回	0	0	0	0	0	5.1(6/117)	0	0	2.8(6/211)	
100回以上	0	0	0	0	0	8.5(10/117)	0	0	4.7(10/211)	
これまでに「あぶり」の経験あり(%)										
	13.6	0	45.5	0	100	68.6	16.7	51.9	50.9	
この1年間で「あぶり」の経験あり(%)										
	0	0	0	0	0	17.8	0	18.5	12.3	
この1年間でどちらが多いか?(%)										
注射	0	0	0	0	0	24.6	0	3.7	14.2	
「あぶり」	0	0	9.1	0	0	10.2	0	18.5	8.5	
同程度	0	0	0	0	0	2.5	0	0	1.4	
どちらもなし	100	100	90.9	100	100	62.7	100	77.8	75.9	
「風俗」での性接触あり(最近1年間)(%)										
なし	79.5	100	72.7	100	100	75.9(88/116)	50.0	74.1	76.2	
あり(常にコンドーム+)										
	11.4	0	18.2	0	0	9.5(11/116)	33.3	7.4	10.5	
あり(コンドーム-のこともあり)										
	9	0	9.1	0	0	14.7(17/116)	16.7	18.5	13.3	
「風俗」以外での不特定多数と性接触あり(最近1年間)(%)										
なし	74.4(32/43)	100	63.6	100	100	77.2(88/114)	60.0(3/5)	70.4(19/27)	75.2(155/206)	
あり(常にコンドーム+)										
	14.0(6/43)	0	18.2	0	0	9.6(11/114)	20.0(1/5)	3.7(1/27)	10.2(21/206)	
あり(コンドーム-のこともあり)										
	11.6(5/43)	0	18.2	0	0	13.2(15/114)	20.0(1/5)	25.9(7/27)	14.6(30/206)	
国内で外国人との性接触あり(最近1年間)(%)										
なし	90.7(39/43)	100	63.6	100	100	89.6(103/115)	100(5/5)	85.2	88.4(183/207)	
あり(常にコンドーム+)										
	2.3(1/43)	0	18.2	0	0	5.2(6/115)	0	0	4.3(9/207)	
あり(コンドーム-のこともあり)										
	7.0(3/43)	0	18.2	0	0	5.2(6/115)	0	14.8	7.2(15/207)	
性接触ありの場合の相手										
「風俗」で	100(1/1)		66.7(2/3)			70.0(7/10)		0(0/3)	58.8(10/17)	
「風俗」以外で	0		33.3(1/3)			20.0(2/10)		33.3(1/3)	23.5(4/17)	
両方で	0		0			10.0(1/10)		66.7(2/3)	17.6(3/17)	
海外渡航歴のある者(最近1年間)(%)										
	2.3	0	36.4	0	0	5.1	0	7.4	6.1	
上記のうち	海外で薬物使用のあった者									
	0(1/1)		100(4/4)			33.3(2/6)		50.0(1/2)	53.8(7/13)	
	海外で性交渉のあった者									
	100(1/1)		50.0(2/4)			33.3(2/6)		50.0(1/2)	46.2(6/13)	

表5 【薬物依存症回復支援施設入所者】の注射経験、入れ墨と属性・血清検査・身体所見 2015年～2017年

	n=211	これまで注射経験なし		これまで注射経験あり		入れ墨	
		90[42.7]	1年間にはなし 86[40.8]	1年間にもあり 35[16.6]	なし 142[68.6]	あり 65[31.4]	
性別							
男		85[44.0]	75[38.9]	33[17.1]	68.9	31.1	
女		5[27.8]	11[61.1]	2[11.1]	64.7	35.3	
年齢							
10歳代		1[50.0]	1[50.0]	0[0]	0[0]	2[100]	
20歳代		10[52.6]	5[26.3]	4[21.1]	17[89.5]	2[10.5]	
30歳代		28[43.8]	26[40.6]	10[15.6]	38[59.4]	26[40.6]	
40歳代		26[39.4]	26[39.4]	14[21.2]	41[64.1]	23[35.9]	
50歳代		16[37.2]	22[51.2]	5[11.6]	31[75.6]	10[24.4]	
60歳以上		9[52.9]	6[35.3]	2[11.8]	15[88.2]	2[11.8]	
平均年齢±SD		42.7±11.6	44.0±10.1	41.7±9.8	43.8±11.1	41.4±8.9	
現在の配偶歴							
未婚		63.3	45.3	65.7	59.9	52.3	
既婚		5.6	5.8	2.9	6.3	3.1	
離婚		28.9	47.7	31.4	32.4	43.1	
死別		2.2	1.2	0	1.4	2	
離婚歴あり		32.2	50.0	40.0	35.9	47.7	
血清検査(%)							
HIV抗体陽性率		0(0/89)	0(0/85)	2.9	0.7(1/140)	0	
HCV抗体陽性率		1.1(1/89)	47.1(40/85)	48.6	22.9(32/140)	38.5	
HBs抗原陽性率		0(0/89)	0(0/85)	0	0(0/140)	0	
HBs抗体陽性率		4.5(4/88)	10.7(9/84)	5.7	7.9(11/139)	6.2	
HBc抗体陽性率		3.4(3/88)	10.6(9/85)	2.9	8.6(12/139)	1.5	
TP抗体陽性率		1.1(1/89)	3.5(3/85)	5.7	4.3(6/140)	0	
性病既往(自己申告)(%)							
モジラミ		6.7(6/89)	16.3	8.8(3/34)	10.0(14/140)	13.8	
淋病		7.9(7/89)	24.4	29.4(10/34)	17.9(25/140)	21.5	
クラミジア		9.0(8/89)	8.1	20.6(7/34)	9.3(13/140)	13.8	
梅毒		3.4(3/89)	3.5	5.9(2/34)	5.7(8/140)	0	
身体所見(%)							
輸血の既往あり		9.2(8/87)	25.9(22/85)	23.5(8/34)	16.5(23/139)	22.2(14/63)	
歯の著明不良あり		47.7(42/88)	65.5(55/84)	52.9(18/34)	57.7	52.3	
注射痕あり		1.1(1/88)	36.9(31/84)	32.4(11/34)	15.5	32.3	
入れ墨あり		13.6(12/88)	44.0(37/84)	47.1(16/34)	0	100	
指つめあり		2.3(2/88)	9.5(8/84)	8.8(3/34)	2.8	13.8	
根性焼きあり		15.9(14/88)	31.0(26/84)	35.3(12/34)	16.9	43.1	
自傷痕あり		11.4(10/88)	11.9(10/84)	17.6(6/34)	12.0	13.8	

表6【薬物依存症回復支援施設入所者】の注射経験、入れ墨と注射行動・性行動 2015年～2017年

	これまでに			これまでに注射経験あり		入れ墨	
	注射経験なし	1年間にはなし	1年間にもあり	なし	あり	なし	あり
	90[42.7]	86[40.8]	35[16.6]				
これまでに (%)							
注射経験あり	0	100	100	54.5	45.5		
シリンジ 共用経験あり	0	78.8(67/85)	68.6	34.0	63.6		
針の共用経験あり	0	74.1(63/85)	62.9	31.9	59.1		
注射経験の注射回数							
なし	100	0	0	54.2	17.9		
1～49回	0	24.4	11.4	8.3	19.4		
50～99回	0	5.8	5.7	2.8	4.5		
100回以上	0	69.8	82.9	34.7	58.2		
最近1年間で (%)							
注射経験あり	0	0	100	13.1	23.9		
シリンジ 共用経験	0	0	44.1(15/34)	6.9	7.6		
針の共用経験	0(0/89)	0	38.2(13/34)	6.3	6.1(4/66)		
注射経験の注射回数							
なし	100	100	0	86.8	76.1		
1～49回			54.3	6.9	13.4		
50～99回			17.1	2.8	3.0		
100回以上			28.6	3.5	7.5		
これまでに「あぶり」の経験あり (%)							
	31.1	65.1	65.7	42.1	70.1		
この1年間で「あぶり」の経験あり (%)							
	8.9	4.7	40.0	10.3	16.4		
この1年間ではどちらが多いか? (%)							
注射	0	0	85.7	11.0	20.9		
「あぶり」	11.1	5.8	5.7	8.3	9.0		
同程度	0	0	8.6	1.4	1.5		
どちらもなし	88.9	94.2	0	79.3	68.7		
「風俗」での性接触あり (最近1年間) (%)							
なし	73.3	81.2	73.5	75.7	77.3(51/66)		
あり(常にコンドーム+)	11.1	10.6	8.8	8.3	15.2(10/66)		
あり(コンドーム-のことあり)	15.6	8.2	17.6	16.0	7.6(5/66)		
「風俗」以外での不特定多数と性接触あり (最近1年間) (%)							
なし	72.7(64/88)	83.7	59.4(19/32)	72.5(103/142)	7.8(5/64)		
あり(常にコンドーム+)	11.4(10/88)	5.8	18.8(6/32)	11.3(16/142)	7.8(5/64)		
あり(コンドーム-のことあり)	15.9(14/88)	10.5	21.9(7/32)	16.2(23/142)	10.9(7/64)		
国内で外国人との性接触あり (最近1年間) (%)							
なし	86.4(76/88)	95.3	75.8(25/33)	86.6(123/142)	92.3(60/65)		
あり(常にコンドーム+)	3.4(3/88)	0	18.2(6/33)	4.2(6/142)	4.6(3/65)		
あり(コンドーム-のことあり)	10.2(9/88)	4.7	6.1(2/33)	9.2(13/142)	3.1(2/65)		
性接触ありの場合の相手							
「風俗」で	42.9(3/7)	50.0(2/4)	83.3(5/6)	53.3(8/15)	100(2/2)		
「風俗」以外で	28.6(2/7)	25.0(1/4)	16.7(1/6)	26.7(4/15)	0		
不明	28.6(2/7)	25.0(1/4)	0	20.0(3/15)	0		
海外渡航歴のある者 (最近1年間) (%)							
	7.8	3.5	8.6	5.5(8/145)	7.5		
上記のうち							
渡航先で薬物使用のあった者	85.7(6/7)	0(0/3)	33.3(1/3)	62.5(5/8)	40.0(2/5)		
渡航先で性交渉のあった者	71.4(5/7)	0(0/3)	33.3(1/3)	50.0(4/8)	20.0(2/5)		

研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

(以下、研究代表者は二重下線、分担研究者は単純下線、原文添付は○)

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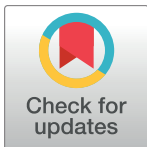
RESEARCH ARTICLE

Socio-behavioral risk factors among older adults living with HIV in Thailand

Patou Masika Musumari¹, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul^{2*}, Kriengkrai Sriathanavibooncha^{2,3}, Mitchell D. Feldman⁴, Wathee Sitthi², Kittipan Rerkasem^{2,3}, Teeranee Techasrivichien¹, S. Pilar Sugumoto^{1,5}, Masako Ono-Kihara¹, Masahiro Kihara¹

1 Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan, **2** Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **3** Faculty of Medicine, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **4** Division of General Internal Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, California, United States of America, **5** Center for Medical Education, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

* arunrat@rihes.org



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Abstract

Background

There has been a global increase in HIV infection in persons 50 years of age and older. This group is at risk for development of chronic illness that may be exacerbated by socio-behavioral risk factors such as smoking, unhealthy alcohol use, and sedentary lifestyle. However, socio-behavioral risk factors in this older HIV infected population are not well described. The current study aims to describe and document factors related to alcohol use, tobacco smoking, and physical exercise in older adults living with HIV (OALHIV).

Methods

This cross-sectional quantitative study was conducted between August and September 2015, and enrolled HIV-infected participants aged 50 years and older from 12 community hospitals in Chiang Mai Province, Northern Thailand.

Results

Of the 364 participants recruited in the study, 57.1% were female, and 67.3% were between 50–59 years of age. Respectively, 15.1%, 59.1%, and 18.7% were current smokers, currently engaged in physical exercises, and reported ever drank alcohol in the past year. 22.1% of those who drank alcohol reported experience of heavy episodic drinking. Male gender was one of the strongest predictors of ever drank alcohol in the past year (AOR, 4.66; CI, 2.28–9.49; $P < 0.001$) and of being a current smoker (AOR, 13.41; CI, 7.23–24.87; $P < 0.001$). Lower household income was associated with increased odds of ever drank alcohol in the past year (household income (1 USD = 35 THB) of $\leq 5,000$ Baht versus $> 20,000$ Baht: AOR, 5.34; CI, 1.28–22.25; $P = 0.021$). Lower educational level was associated with decreased odds of physical exercises (no education versus secondary and higher: AOR, 0.22; CI, 0.08–0.55; $P = 0.001$).

Conclusion

Smoking and alcohol use is common among OALHIV, with a substantial proportion not engaging in physical exercises. Interventions for OALHIV should particularly target males and those of lower socio-economic status to deter smoking and alcohol use and to promote physical exercises.

Introduction

Antiretroviral (ARV) medications are extending the lifespan of HIV-infected persons and this longevity means these older adults with HIV are developing chronic diseases. Health care delivery for older adults with HIV has shifted from acute to chronic care, making it more important to focus on health behavior of the patients [1–3]. Socio-behavioral risk factors, including smoking, alcohol use, and physical inactivity are associated with many chronic non-communicable diseases, and have become significant causes of morbidity and mortality among HIV-infected individuals in areas with large access to antiretroviral medication [4–17].

Older adults living with HIV (OALHIV), defined as HIV-infected individuals aged 50 years and older, account for approximately 10% of adults living with HIV in low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) [18]. However, to date, very little is known about the extent of, and factors associated with alcohol use, smoking and physical activity among OALHIV in LMIC. Most knowledge in this area is derived from literature in high-income countries [18–24].

The prevalence of HIV in individuals aged 50 years and older is not routinely reported in the national statistics in Thailand, the setting of the current study. The literature however suggests that HIV-infected individuals in Thailand will approach older age at a pace faster and at a size larger than other developing countries. This is because of both the severity of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the past [25–27] and the early initiation of an antiretroviral treatment (ART) program, which covered a large number of HIV-infected people with a high rate of retention rate in care [28, 29].

No study in Thailand has investigated alcohol use and tobacco smoking, and physical activity among OALHIVs. These socio-behavioral risk factors are however reported for the elderly Thai in the general population. In Northern Thailand, 25.2% of adults aged 50 years and older were daily alcohol users and 64% were lifetime alcohol users [30]. Results from the Thailand National Health Examination Survey IV (NHES IV), a nationally representative cross-sectional survey conducted from 2008–2009, showed that the prevalence of Thai population, aged 45 and older, that had consumed alcohol in the past 12 months, were current smokers, and had at least moderate physical activity during leisure time was respectively 29.4%, 19.5%, and 23.7% [31].

In the current study, we describe and provide factors associated with alcohol use, smoking, and physical exercise among HIV-infected older adults in Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Methods

Study design, participants, & setting

This study draws on data from our cross-sectional survey on HIV-infected and non-infected older adults. The study was conducted between August and September 2015 in Chiang Mai province, Thailand. Chiang Mai is located in Northern Thailand, and is administratively divided into 25 districts. The province is home to a total of 24 community hospitals, offering

general health services and services related to HIV/AIDS prevention, care and treatment. The present report specifically focuses on HIV-infected individuals, aged 50 years or older, receiving ambulatory care in selected facilities. The study was conducted in the 12 district hospitals that serviced the largest population of HIV-infected patients. The number of HIV/AIDS patients in the selected hospitals ranged from 300 to 1,128 at the time prior to the study. The 30 oldest HIV patients registered at each hospital were invited to participate in the study by their care givers (usually a nurse from the ART clinic). The patients who were interested in participating were given an appointment to meet with study staff.

Data collection instruments and variables

Data were collected through face-to-face interviews, medical records (HIV diagnosis, history of opportunistic infections, plasma viral loads, and information related to ARV medication), and onsite clinical examination (e.g. body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference). The interviews were conducted in Thai using a structured questionnaire which included items on socio-economic and demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level, occupation, marital status, household monthly income, perceived sufficiency of household monthly income), religion, living conditions, and health behavior information (frequency and intensity of physical exercise, tobacco smoking, and alcohol use).

Description of behavioral variables. The behavioral variables were comprised of “alcohol use”, “smoking”, and “physical exercise”.

Alcohol use: The outcome variable “alcohol use” was measured with the item “Have you ever drunk alcohol in the past year?” with “yes and no” as response options. We also used the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) to identify harmful patterns of drinking behavior among the participants who reported having drunk alcohol in the past year. Based on the AUDIT, participants with a history of drinking alcohol were classified into: 1) low risk drinkers, 2) hazardous drinkers, 3) harmful alcohol use, and 4) alcohol dependence [32, 33]. For ease of analysis, we dichotomized the categories in 1) low-risk drinker and 2) high-risk drinkers (which combined the three AUDIT categories: hazardous drinkers, harmful drinkers, and harmful alcohol use). Furthermore, we assessed heavy episodic drinking using the third item of the AUDIT. This item measures heavy episodic drinking or having six or more drinks on one occasion on a scale ranging from never to daily or almost daily. Participants were classified as “ever” heavy episodic drinkers (those who selected “less than monthly or more frequently”) or “never” heavy episodic drinkers [34].

Cigarette smoking: Participants were categorized as: 1) non-smokers, 2) previous smokers, and 3) current smokers based on their questionnaire responses. Participants who reported currently smoking were asked to estimate the average number of cigarettes they consume on daily basis.

Physical exercise: In this study, physical exercise was defined as moderate-intensity activities (sport, fitness, or recreational activities that require moderate physical effort and cause small increases in breathing or heart rate) or vigorous-intensity activities (sport, fitness, or recreational activities that require hard physical effort and cause large increases in breathing or heart rate) for at least 10 continuous minutes during free time. Participants were specifically asked whether or not they were currently engaged in: 1) any moderate-intensity and 2) vigorous-intensity activities (response options included yes or no). Participants who responded “yes” were asked to provide their weekly frequency of physical exercise. We created the variable “currently engaged in physical exercise”, to distinguish participants who reported physical exercise (moderate-intensity or vigorous-intensity) from those who did not. This was used as the outcome variable for physical exercise.

Ethics statement

The study was approved by the Chiang Mai University Research Institute for Health Sciences Human Experimentation Committee (Certificate of Ethical Clearance No.39/2015). Prior to study enrollment, participants were educated about the study's objectives; the role of participants; and their rights, which included answering or not answering any question during the interview. All participants provided written informed consent, and were paid 200 Baht (~6 USD) for the cost of transportation and time.

Statistical analysis

The analysis was performed using SPSS 17 (PASW) for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA). Univariate analysis was conducted to obtain descriptive statistics of all the variables. Univariate and multivariate logistic regressions were performed to obtain both unadjusted (OR) and adjusted odds ratios (AOR), and 95% confidence intervals (CI) of factors associated with the main outcomes. For alcohol use, we predicted the odds of "drunk any alcohol in the past 12 months" versus "no". For tobacco smoking, we modeled the odds of being a "current smoker" versus "not current smoker (which combined non-smokers and previous smokers)". Lastly, for physical exercise, we predicted the odds of "currently engaged in physical exercise of moderate and/or vigorous-intensity" versus "no". The multivariate logistic regression models included variables that had $p \leq 0.10$ at the bivariate analysis and variables we considered epidemiologically important. We did not include "waist circumference" and "living with spouse" in the same model because of their multicollinearity respectively with "BMI" and "marital status".

Results

Demographics

We recruited a total of 364 HIV-infected participants. More than half were female (57.1%), and between 50–59 years old (67.3%). Most participants had at least completed primary school education (87.6%), were employed (79.4%), were Buddhist (96.7%), and lived with at least 2 family members (82.4%). A sizeable proportion of the participants lived in households with a monthly income less than 5,001 baht (1 USD = 35 THB) (44.2%), and perceived their household income as insufficient (45.3%). Nearly half of the participants (49.7%) had a BMI within the normal range.

Most of the participants reported being HIV positive (85.1%) and were on ART (79.0%) for more than 5 years. The majority were diagnosed with HIV before they were 50 years old (64.2%), and had a plasma viral load of 50 copies/mL or less (98.3%) (Table 1).

Behavioral characteristics of participants

A total of 68 participants reported drinking alcohol in the past year, among whom, 15 (22.1%) and 16 (23.5%) participants respectively reported a history of high-risk drinking and heavy episodic drinking. A significantly higher proportion of participants reported having ever drunk alcohol were male than female (73.5% versus 26.5%, $p < 0.001$).

Fifteen percent of our participants were current smokers and 22% were previous smokers. A significantly higher proportion of current smokers were male than female (72.7% versus 27.3%, $p < 0.001$).

A substantial proportion (59.1%) of participants reported being currently engaged in physical activities in their free time. Moderate-intensity physical exercise was the most reported type of exercise (54.4%), followed by vigorous-intensity physical exercise (9.6%). There was no

Table 1. Socio-demographic and clinical characteristics of HIV-infected and non-infected older adults in Chiang Mai, Thailand.

	N (364)	%
Gender		
Male	156	42.9
Female	208	57.1
Age		
50–54 years	121	33.2
55–59 years	124	34.1
60–64 years	76	20.9
≥ 65 years	43	11.8
Mean (SD)	57.8 (5.6)	
Education		
Never attended school	45	12.4
Primary school	264	72.5
Secondary school or higher	55	15.1
Occupation		
Unemployed	75	20.6
Employed	289	79.4
Marital Status		
Married	164	45.1
Single/Widowed/Divorced	200	54.9
Religion		
Buddhism	352	96.7
Christianity	10	2.7
Islam	2	0.5
Current number of family members		
≥ 2 persons	300	82.4
Alone	64	17.6
Live with spouse		
No	189	51.9
Yes	175	48.1
Live with children		
No	208	57.1
Yes	156	42.9
Household income (Baht/month)		
≤ 5,000	161	44.2
5,001–20,000	157	43.1
>20,000	46	12.6
Perceived sufficiency of household income		
Sufficient /savings	71	19.5
Sufficient /no savings	128	35.2
Insufficient	165	45.3
Waist circumference[#]		
Below standard	253	69.5
Above standard	111	30.5
BMI		
< 18.5	77	21.2
18.5–22.9	181	49.7

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

	N (364)	%
≥ 23	106	29.1
Age at HIV positive diagnosis		
Before 50 years old	233	64.0
After 50 years old	130	35.7
Missing	1	0.3
Ever had an opportunistic infection		
Yes	107	29.4
No	257	70.6
ARV treatment		
Yes	362	99.5
No	2	0.5
Plasma viral load		
0–50 copies/mL	352	98.3
> 50 copies/mL	6	0.8
Missing	6	0.8
Years taking ARV		
0–5 years	76	21.0
6–10 years	168	46.4
> 11 years	118	32.6

BMI: Body Mass Index; ARV: antiretroviral drug; SD: Standard Deviation

Waist circumference: below standard (Male < 90 cm; female < 80 cm); above standard (Male ≥ 90 cm; female ≥ 80 cm)

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statistically significant difference between male and female participants in terms of physical exercise (44.2% versus 55.8%; $p = 0.538$) (Table 2).

Factors associated with socio-behavioral characteristics of participants among HIV-infected participants

The current report includes results from the multivariate analysis (Table 3). Bivariate associations with behavioral characteristics are provided in a supplemental file (S1 Table). The analysis revealed that more male participants than females reported drinking alcohol in the past year (AOR, 4.66; CI, 2.28–9.49; $P < 0.001$) and were current smokers (AOR, 13.41; CI, 7.23–24.87; $p < 0.001$). However, there was no difference between males and females in terms of physical activity.

There was a relation between alcohol use and household income. Participants with a monthly household income ≤ 5,000 Baht and those with incomes ranging from > 5,000 to 20,000 baht were more likely to report having drunk alcohol in the past year (household income of ≤ 5,000 baht versus > 20,000 baht: AOR, 5.34; CI, 1.28–22.25; $p = 0.021$; household income of > 5,000–20,000 baht versus >20,000 baht: AOR, 4.66; CI, 1.21–17.88; $p = 0.025$).

We also found that participants who never attended school were less likely to engage in physical exercises compared to those who had secondary or higher education levels (AOR, 0.22; CI, 0.08–0.55; $p = 0.001$). In addition, participants with a waist circumference above the normal standards were more likely to report being currently engaged in physical exercises (AOR, 1.96; CI, 1.15–3.34; $p = 0.013$).

Table 2. Behavioral characteristics of HIV-infected older adults in Chiang Mai, Thailand.

	N	%
Drunk any alcohol in the past year		
No	296 (81.3)	81.3
Yes	68 (18.7)	18.7
AUDIT (N = 170)		
Low risk drinker	53 (77.9)	77.9
High risk drinker	15 (22.1)	22.1
Heavy episodic drinking		
Never	52 (76.5)	76.5
Ever	16 (23.5)	23.5
Smoking behavior		
Non smoker	229 (62.9)	62.9
Previous smoker (quit > 3 months)	80 (22.0)	22.0
Current smoker	55 (15.1)	15.1
Number of cigarettes smoked average per day (N = 116)		
Less than 1—1 smoke occasionally	2 (3.8)	3.8
2–5 cigarettes per day	41 (78.8)	78.8
>5 cigarettes per day	9 (17.3)	17.3
Engage in physical exercise #		
No	149 (40.9)	40.9
Yes	215 (59.1)	59.1
Currently doing vigorous-intensity exercises		
No	329 (90.4)	90.4
Yes	35 (9.6)	9.6
If you do vigorous-intensity exercises, how often do you do them? (N = 35)		
1–2 days a week	11 (31.4)	31.4
3–5 days a week	11 (31.4)	31.4
>5 days a week	13 (37.4)	37.4
Currently doing moderate-intensity exercises		
No	166 (45.6)	45.6
Yes	198 (54.4)	54.4
If you do moderate-intensity exercises, how often do you do them? (N = 198)		
1–2 days a week	42 (21.2)	21.2
3–5 days a week	65 (32.8)	32.8
>5 days a week	91 (46.0)	46.0

AUDIT: The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test

#: includes participants who reported being engaged in at least one of type of physical exercise (moderate-intensity or vigorous-intensity, or both)

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Discussion

This study describes and reports correlates of major health behaviors including alcohol use, smoking, and physical exercise among OALHIVs in Thailand. These socio-behavioral risk factors are increasingly associated with poor health outcomes in HIV-infected individuals in high-income countries, but have remained understudied in LMICs [13, 14, 35, 36]. We are not aware of previous studies in LMICs that have specifically focused on OALHIVs to explore alcohol use, smoking and physical activity. The fact that the health impacts of alcohol use, smoking and physical inactivity might be even more pronounced for OALHIVs, and that this

Table 3. Correlates of alcohol use, tobacco smoking, and physical exercise among OALHIV participants.

	Adjusted Odds Ratio (95%CI)		
	Alcohol drinking in the past year	Currently smoking	Currently doing physical exercises
Gender			
Female	1.00	1.00	1.00
Male	4.66 (2.28–9.49) [†]	13.41 (7.23–24.87) [†]	1.20 (0.71–2.02)
Age			
50–54 years	1.00	1.00	1.00
55–59 years	0.53 (0.26–1.07) [¶]	0.96 (0.49–1.87)	1.76 (1.00–3.08)*
60–64 years	0.40 (0.14–1.14) [¶]	0.75 (0.30–1.89)	1.46 (0.69–3.08)
≥ 65 years	0.34 (0.08–1.42)	0.78 (0.24–2.54)	1.09 (0.41–2.94)
Education			
Never attended school	0.53 (0.13–2.05)	2.15 (0.74–6.20)	0.22 (0.08–0.55)*
Primary school	0.67 (0.28–1.58)	0.82 (0.36–1.85)	0.53 (0.26–1.08) [¶]
Secondary school or higher	1.00	1.00	1.00
Occupation			
Unemployed	1.00	1.00	1.00
Employed	2.56 (0.90–7.30) [¶]	0.73 (0.36–1.49)	1.41 (0.78–2.53)
Marital Status			
Married	1.00	1.00	1.00
Single/Widowed/Divorced	1.57 (0.83–2.95)	1.62 (0.92–2.86) [¶]	0.74 (0.46–1.21)
Household income (Baht/month)			
≤ 5,000	5.34 (1.28–22.25)*	2.07 (0.73–5.89)	1.19 (0.52–2.71)
5,001–20,000	4.66 (1.21–17.88)*	1.91 (0.73–5.03)	1.09 (0.51–2.34)
>20,000	1.00	1.00	1.00
Family financial status			
Sufficient /savings	1.05 (0.44–2.51)	0.36 (0.15–0.84)*	1.04 (0.53–2.02)
Sufficient /no savings	0.81 (0.41–1.61)	0.98 (0.53–1.81)	1.33 (0.80–2.21)
Insufficient	1.00	1.00	1.00
Waist circumference			
Below standard	1.00		1.00
Above standard	0.96 (0.44–2.11)		1.96 (1.15–3.34) *
BMI			
< 18.5		1.93 (0.90–4.14) [¶]	
18.5–22.9		0.97 (0.51–1.85)	
≥ 23		1.00	
Years on ARV treatment			
0–5 years	1.00	1.00	1.00
6–10 years	0.86 (0.35–2.11)	0.96 (0.46–2.00)	0.99 (0.53–1.84)
>11 years	1.50 (0.56–4.03)	0.58 (0.25–1.35)	0.90 (0.45–1.80)
Timing of HIV status			
Before 50 years old	1.00	1.00	1.00
After 50 years old	0.96 (0.35–2.65)	0.82 (0.35–1.91)	1.00 (0.49–2.03)
Ever had an opportunistic infection			
Yes	1.00	1.00	1.00
No	1.21 (0.64–2.29)	1.06 (0.59–1.92)	1.04 (0.64–1.70)

* P value < 0.05.

** P value < 0.01.

[†]P value < 0.001.

[¶] P value < 0.10.

Waist circumference: below standard (Male < 90 cm; female < 80 cm); above standard (Male ≥ 90 cm; female ≥ 80 cm).

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population is expected to increase, highlights the relevance of focusing attention on socio-behavioral risk factors.

In our study, nearly one-fifth of the participants reported having drunk alcohol in the past 12 months, of which 23.5% experienced heavy episodic drinking and 22.1% were classified as high-risk drinkers. In a large survey conducted in three provinces in Northern Thailand including Chiang Mai, 25% of adults aged 50 years old were daily alcohol users [30]. The prevalence of “drank any alcohol in the past 12 months” in the Thailand NHES IV was 24.5% for people aged 60 years and older and 29.4% for those aged at least 45 years. However, the prevalence of heavy episodic drinking in the NHES IV, which was a national representative probability sampled survey, was much lower than that documented in our study, 2% and 4.9% for people aged at least 60 years and for those aged at least 45 years respectively [31].

Smoking is associated with increased risk of non-AIDS related mortality among HIV-infected individuals [13, 14], and its prevalence in people living with HIV infection was shown to be generally higher than that of the general population in the settings where the studies were conducted [9, 13, 37, 38]. The proportion of participants who were current smokers in our study was similar to the one reported in the Thai NHES IV in the general population [31]. A recent study found that HIV infection was not only an independent risk factor for smoking but = also decreased the likelihood of quitting smoking [39]. Several tobacco cessation programs have been shown to be effective with HIV-infected individuals, but most were limited by short follow-up, a non-randomized design, and the use cognitive behavioral strategies, which are hard to implement and scale-up within the care models in many LMICs [40–43]. HIV-infected individuals remain a high-risk group in need of targeted HIV smoking cessation interventions, deliverable within the routine care models [39, 44]. We also found that a significant proportion of our participants engaged in physical activity. Approximately 59% reported having physical activity of moderate or vigorous intensity at least 1–2 days a week. This proportion is much larger than that reported in the general population in Thailand, 21.4% and 23.7%, respectively for people aged at least 60 years and for those aged at least 45 years [31].

This study has also brought to light some of the risk factors associated with alcohol use, smoking, and physical activity among OALHIVs in Thailand. We found that male OALHIVs were more likely to report alcohol use and to be current smokers than their female counterparts. The difference in drinking and smoking behaviors in males and females is extensively documented [45–50]. In the context of our study, the gender difference likely reflects social and cultural norms that condone men’s smoking and drinking but disapprove of these behaviors in women. Such traditional norms tend to prevail among the older generation such as the participants in our study [49, 51, 52]. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female OALHIVs in terms of physical exercise. There is a remarkable scarcity of literature examining gender differentials in physical activity among HIV-infected individuals, particularly in OALHIVs. The only study we are aware of is a recently published study that found that HIV-infected men and women aged 51 years and older were similar in terms of frequency, average intensity and average hours of exercise. However, the study was limited by its small sample size of 27 men and 18 women aged 51 years and older [53].

We also found that the likelihood engaging in exercise decreased with the level of education among HIV-infected participants. Physical activity should be encouraged among OALHIVs with particular emphasis given to those with lower educational attainment.

Previous studies conducted among HIV-infected individuals [54–57], and in the general population [58–60] have documented higher prevalence of alcohol use/disorders and smoking in disadvantaged groups. In this study, lower household income was associated with increased odds of alcohol use in the past year. A previous review and critique of the literature highlighted

the limited evidence of interventions to reduce alcohol use among HIV-infected individuals [61]. Effective interventions targeting socially disadvantaged groups in the general population are equally scarce. An ongoing trial is testing the effectiveness of mobile phone text messages to reduce binge drinking among disadvantaged men in Scotland [62]. Similar trials should be conducted in HIV-infected individuals given the ubiquitous nature of mobile phones even in disadvantaged groups. The fact that OALHIVs with higher waist circumference were more likely to be currently engaged in physical exercises suggests that overweight/obese individuals might be more health-conscious and aware of the adverse outcomes associated with overweight and/or obesity.

The interpretation of our findings should be examined in the light of study limitations. The cross-sectional design does not allow for drawing causal inferences from the documented associations. Caution is warranted in generalizing the findings of this study. Our participants were recruited from districts hospitals serving a large population of HIV-infected individuals in Chiang Mai province. Because we did not apply random sampling, our results may not be representative of population of OALHIVs in Chiang Mai.

Conclusions

A substantial proportion of OALHIVs in our study were current smokers and reported alcohol drinking, with a particularly higher proportion of heavy episodic drinking than that documented in similar age groups in the general population. Male gender was a strong predictor of having drunk alcohol in the past 12 months and being a current smoker, while low socio-economic status (income and education) was a predictor of lack of physical exercise and alcohol use. Hence, we recommend that safe and effective interventions should be developed to deter smoking and alcohol use, and to promote physical exercises in OALHIVs, with a special focus on males and those of lower socio-economic status.

Supporting information

S1 Table. Bivariate factors associated with socio-behavioral risk factors.

(DOCX)

S1 File. Questionnaire Thai version.

(DOC)

S2 File. Questionnaire English version.

(DOCX)

S3 File. Medical record and clinical examination information.

(PDF)

S1 Dataset. Dataset of the study.

(SAV)

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collaboration between Kyoto University and the Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Patou Masika Musumari, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Wathee Sitthi, Kittipan Rerkasem.

Data curation: Patou Masika Musumari, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha.

Formal analysis: Patou Masika Musumari, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Mitchell D. Feldman, Wathee Sitthi, Kittipan Rerkasem, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S. Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara.

Funding acquisition: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha.

Investigation: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Wathee Sitthi, Kittipan Rerkasem.

Methodology: Patou Masika Musumari, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha.

Project administration: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Wathee Sitthi, Kittipan Rerkasem.

Supervision: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Mitchell D. Feldman, Kittipan Rerkasem, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara.

Validation: Patou Masika Musumari, Mitchell D. Feldman.

Visualization: Mitchell D. Feldman.

Writing – original draft: Patou Masika Musumari.

Writing – review & editing: Patou Masika Musumari, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanavibooncha, Mitchell D. Feldman, Wathee Sitthi, Kittipan Rerkasem, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S. Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara.

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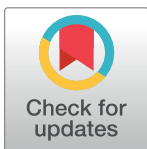
RESEARCH ARTICLE

"When I first saw a condom, I was frightened": A qualitative study of sexual behavior, love and life of young cross-border migrants in urban Chiang Mai, Thailand

Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul¹, Patou Masika Musumari^{2,3*}, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai^{1,4}, Veruree Manoyos¹, Teeranee Techasrivichien², S. Pilar Suguimoto^{2,5}, Masako Ono-Kihara², Masahiro Kihara², Suwat Chariyalertsak^{1,4}

1 Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **2** Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan, **3** Japan Foundation for AIDS Prevention, Tokyo, Japan, **4** Faculty of Medicine, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **5** Center of Medical Education, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

* patoumus@yahoo.fr



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Abstract

Background

Many young migrant workers move across the border to Chiang Mai, a major city in Northern Thailand, in search of work opportunities. This study describes their sexual behavior, lifestyles, relationships and experiences with youth-friendly sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services.

Methods

This is the qualitative arm of a mixed methods study using focus group discussions (FGDs) among young MWs aged 15–24 years in urban Chiang Mai. We conducted 6 FGDs with 84 participants (43 males, 41 females) organized in groups of 10–15 people, including 3 groups of males, 2 groups of females, and 1 group of both males and females.

Results

We found that the lack of parental control, pressure to assimilate into Thai society, access to social media and modern communication technologies, and limited knowledge and access to sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services interplayed to shape lifestyle and sexual behaviors, including low condom use among young migrants.

Conclusion

The present study helped discern the vulnerability of young migrants to adverse SRH outcomes. This particular group of youth needs urgent intervention to improve their knowledge on SRH and access to a youth-friendly clinic to help them personalize risk of HIV and other adverse SRH outcomes.

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Introduction

Labor migration has become one issue of particular salience for public health in Thailand. The country is home to approximately 3.25 million migrant workers (MWs); 2.7 million of whom are documented and undocumented MWs from Myanmar, Cambodia, and Laos [1]. This number is expected to increase given Thailand's relatively higher economic status, which acts as a pull factor for MWs from neighboring countries.

Many studies in Thailand indicate that MWs are a particularly high-risk group for adverse sexual and reproductive health (SRH) outcomes such as HIV/STIs and unintended pregnancies. For example, studies have documented that this population has a high prevalence of HIV infection [2], low prevalence of condom use [3–5], high frequency of visits to sex workers [3, 4], and low prevalence of HIV testing [6]. The vulnerability of MWs to adverse SRH outcomes has been attributed to a range of factors, including poor social integration into the host country [7–9] and legal and financial barriers to services [7–11]. MWs without legal status may be reluctant to use available public health services due to fear of deportation. Similarly, income can be a barrier to accessing health services for MWs unaware of low or no cost health programs [7, 8]. There are a number of other factors, such as poor educational level and limited Thai language ability, that interplay to shape the vulnerability of MWs [12, 13].

In response to this, the Thai government, through the Ministry of Public Health, has taken a series of measures to improve access and quality of health care services for migrants. The main 4 activities include health examinations; necessary treatments; health promotion and disease prevention; and surveillance [14]. Other services outlined in the guidelines include health screening for high-risk groups (men who have sex with men (MSM), female sex workers, people who inject drugs, and cross-border MWs), family planning, disease control and prevention, and counseling for MWs [15]. Unfortunately, the implementation of these policies has not yet reached a national scale, and their effect on the health of migrants are yet to be seen. Moreover, these policies are not consistently reinforced and implemented, and do not cover undocumented MWs [16, 17].

Young MWs are a particular group whose sexual behavior patterns and lifestyle remain generally understudied. In 2012, the prevalence of HIV among MWs in Thailand was low, estimated at 0.8%, with young MWs carrying the highest burden. However, MWs displayed high levels of risk behaviors including multiple sexual partnerships and inconsistent use of condoms [18, 19]. In Thailand, young MWs accounted for approximately 20% of the documented 1,443,474 legal MWs in 2015. This proportion is similar for young MWs in Chiang Mai City, the setting of the current study, which hosts a total of 102,456 documented MWs [20]. Chiang Mai province is the economic epicenter of Northern Thailand; it is rapidly urbanizing, borders Myanmar and Lao PDR, and attracts a growing number of young MWs from these countries. These young people may have special SRH needs, which are yet to be thoroughly explored. Understanding their needs is therefore crucial for policy and program development.

The current study is the qualitative arm of a mixed-method study conducted to document HIV infection sexual risk behaviors among young cross-border MWs in Chiang Mai City. In our quantitative study [21], which included 442 participants aged 15–24 years, more than half (57%) of participants were sexually active, but the majority had never used condom, and a significantly low proportion of young MWs reported using condoms consistently. The majority of our participants were from the Shan ethnic group, [21] a group primarily from Shan State in Myanmar and constitutes one of the largest groups of cross-border MWs in Chiang Mai province [1, 22, 23]. The Shan in Thailand include two major groups. First are those who migrated to escape violence and human rights abuses due to political unrest and the armed conflict with Myanmar's military junta. They are refugee migrants; many of whom are not officially

recognized by the Thai Government. These workers are considered illegal undocumented workers. The second group includes both documented and undocumented Shan MWs who have migrated in search of economic opportunities in Thailand. Many Shan work in low-paid jobs including domestic work, construction, agricultural labor, and sex work [1, 22, 23]. Changes in social and traditional norms of the Shan living in Thailand have been reported anecdotally. These include high rates of divorce for groups in Northern Thailand [24]. However, little has been reported on the changes of lifestyle and sexual behavior of the Shan in Thailand. The few existing HIV-related studies that have included the Shan population have shown that this group of migrants was disproportionately affected with HIV, with prevalence rates much higher than in the general Thai population and other ethnic migrants from Myanmar [25–27].

This qualitative study specifically aimed to describe young migrants' sexual and reproductive health behaviors, lifestyle, and awareness and use of youth-friendly services in urban Chiang Mai.

Methodology

This qualitative study was conducted between March 2014 and February 2015. The target group was young cross-border MWs aged 15 to 24 years who lived in urban Chiang Mai. Participants in the qualitative study were recruited from among those who participated in the quantitative survey. A full description of the quantitative survey is described elsewhere [21]. The quantitative surveys were administered in areas where young migrants gathered, such as outdoor areas of residential camps, Buddhist temple, non-formal education centers for migrant workers, and various construction sites. Upon completing the quantitative survey, participants were informed of the focus group discussions (FGDs), and invited to participate. Recruitment for the qualitative study continued until a total sample size of 84 participants was reached. Participants interested in participating in the FGDs were provided with information regarding the objectives of the FGDs, and then were contacted by phone regarding the date of the FGD.

The focus group guide included open-ended questions specifically designed to probe young MWs' about their daily lifestyle, intimate relationships and perceptions of SRH services in Chiang Mai (See S1 and S2 Files). The FGDs were conducted in rooms that ensured participants' safety and privacy and participants were referred to using pseudonyms to conceal their identities. Participants were encouraged to freely answer the questions and share their opinions and experiences during the discussion. The FGDs were mainly conducted in Thai given that all the participants were relatively fluent. However, participants had the option of responding in their own languages (Shan and Burmese) if this was more comfortable for them. Our field research team consisted of 7 members, of whom three were fluent in Shan and Burmese and facilitated translation during the FGDs. Three research team members were present at each FGD, including one FGD moderator, two note takers (one fluent in Shan and Burmese). The FGDs lasted around 60–90 minutes.

Ethics statement

The study received ethical approval from the Human Experimentation Committee, Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University (Certificate of Ethical Clearance No. 52/2514). All participants gave verbal informed consent or assent, and written consent (signature or fingerprint) from a guardian was received for participants aged 15–17 years old. The locations for focus group discussions were selected to maximize participants' sense of safety and comfort. The FGDs were conducted at the places where participants felt safe and comfortable to provide information, such as the quiet places in non-formal education centers for MWs, young migrant Learning Center Building, and outdoor areas at play grounds or living camps

where participants used for meeting friends, playing sports, etc. We used pseudonyms to preserve confidentiality of participants during the FGDs.

Data analysis

The FGDs were digitally audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and translated into Thai (for responses that were in Shan or Burmese). The transcripts were annotated with field notes taken during the interviews. The transcripts were coded and analyzed using content analysis. The process included identification of repeated normative themes, which emerged either spontaneously from the discussion or directly from the responses to the open-ended questions designed for the study. Passages most relevant to the study were later translated into English for presentation in manuscripts.

Results

A total of 84 participants, including 43 males and 41 females, were recruited. We conducted 6 FGDs of 10–15 participants, specifically including 3 groups of males, 2 groups of females, and 1 group of both males and females. All the participants were Shan by ethnicity.

The themes that emerged from the FGDs are presented below, and are supported by quotes from participants. In some instances, the quotes were lightly edited to facilitate reading and understanding, but without altering the original meaning.

Contemporary lifestyles and sexual relationships

Lack of parental control and sense of freedom. Most participants reported that the lifestyle they currently lead in terms of love, relationships, and sexual behavior in Thailand do not reflect how they would behave in their home country. The traditional values of Shan culture, and by extension of their families, discourage premarital sex, teenage romantic relationships, and cohabitation of unmarried couples. Participants reported, for example, that it was considered immoral for an unmarried female to go on a date with a man or to be touched by a man. They explained that their parents closely monitored them with regards to relationships and dating while still in Myanmar before they migrated to Thailand.

Young migrants felt that being away from their parents offered them an opportunity to express their sexuality and to love more openly without having to deal with the consequences of disobeying and disappointing their parents. They found it easier to associate with other young migrants with whom they shared common new living conditions.

“I think they [young migrants] are at risk because they are staying with friends. If they have friends encouraging them to drink, to go out at night or to visit boys, it is very easy for them to do so because there are no adults to stop them.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group)

Many participants had a sense of freedom living in Thailand as they could get together with friends more freely than they did when they were in Myanmar. Festivals and other important local and public holidays in Thailand were an opportunity for young migrants to meet with peers and to seek out potential sexual encounters.

“It is different here than at home [in Myanmar], because at home, I didn’t have the chance to go out that much. But here it is like I live in a hotel, I have everything in my place [in Thailand] that my house [in Myanmar] doesn’t have. I can go out anywhere I want.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

Parental monitoring from home countries. Other participants reported that their parents worried about their promiscuity and repeatedly warned them to be careful in their relationships. Their parents encouraged them to follow the traditional rules for love and marriage if they were in a relationship, and warned them not to engage in inappropriate behaviors such as premarital sex.

“Sometimes my parents are worried about me and when they are worried, they call me more often. Some people back home told my parents that being in Thailand puts one at risk of getting AIDS or having an unintended pregnancy, and that Shan girls in Thailand wore short skirts that were not appropriate. This makes my parents worry a lot.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

“When I go out with a boy, I worry because my parents would tell me to marry that boy. They would tell me not to go out with him if I didn’t really love him because [casual dating] is not proper behavior for good girls.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

Adoption of the local lifestyle. Many young MWs reported that their lifestyle in Thailand is different than their lifestyle in Myanmar. This included how they dressed and spoke, or their approach to dating and sexual relationships.

“Here there are so many beautiful Shan women and they are tempting. When I was back home, young women dressed modestly and wore traditional skirts, but they don’t do that here in Thailand.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

“Right now my friends more closely resemble Thai people, unlike my friends in Myanmar. Their outfits, thoughts, and even their vocabulary is more like Thai people. They don’t speak Shan anymore. When they meet at a Shan temple fair [in Chiang Mai], they speak Shan and wear Shan outfits, but when they leave [the fair] and go to work, they don’t really speak Shan.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

Access to social media and modern communication technologies. Access to the Internet, mobile phone technologies and social networking sites emerged as an important factor that impacted young MWs’ lifestyle, dating, and relationships. Many reported having greater access to modern forms of communication (e.g. mobile phones, smartphones and tablet computers) in Thailand. This made it easy for them to reach out and communicate with one another, and to initiate new romantic relationships through social media.

“Nowadays, it is easier to have a relationship because of social media—the Internet allows us to chat, to see each other and go out together. It is much more convenient compared to the past back home.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

“Back home [Myanmar] it is not easy to have a relationship with a woman. But in Thailand, if we can get her phone number, we can chat via Line which means that we can have a relationship.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

Knowledge, attitudes, and experience using condoms and contraception

Poor knowledge of and use of condom. Although some participants, particularly males, had positive attitudes that young people should carry condoms, and reported using condoms for preventing both STIs and unintended pregnancies, many of the participants in this study still had limited knowledge regarding how to appropriately use a condom. Most participants who stated not knowing how to use a condom had never seen one before. Additionally, male participants felt that young female migrants, compared to them, had even worse knowledge about condoms.

“I think many Shan women don’t know about condoms. Some women may even ask what it is. Even if they see it, they don’t know how to use it. Actually, some men are worried that women will see the condom if they carry one around. But back home [in Myanmar] they don’t need to worry about this because no one knows what it is.”

(Young male migrant, male and female group discussion)

On the other hand, female participants were shy about talking about issues regarding condoms. They acted embarrassed when shown a condom, and were scared to touch the package (when it was presented at the end of the FGD).

There was also a lot of stigma and taboo around issues related to condoms.

“When I first saw it [condom], I was frightened, I had never seen it before.. I brought it [given by a non-government organization (NGOs)] to my boss and asked him what it was. I didn’t know. He told me that it was something for males to use.”

(Young female migrant, female group discussion)

“One day, while I was in class, a teacher told us about condom., I then visited my relatives showed them the condom. My relatives thought that it was something dirty to talk about. That day, I was scolded badly (laughs). . . . For the Shan, this is an unacceptable issue to talk about. If we talk about condoms, no one dares to express their opinions.”

(Young female migrant, male and female focus group discussion)

Relationship trust and condom use. We found that condom use during sexual intercourse depended on the type of relationship and trust. Some male participants said that they would prefer using contraceptive pills over condoms, especially if they trusted their female partner. They based their trust of their female partner through observation of their behavior and by asking friends.

“I rarely use condoms even though I see her [regular partner] once in a while. I prefer my girlfriend to take birth control pills. I don’t like to wear condoms.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

“I will tell you frankly I have never used a condom once in my life and I have sex only with my girlfriend. I don’t know how to use it. I just learned about it today [from a focus group discussion] (sound of laughing from male participants). She uses the pill.”

(Young male migrants, male focus group discussion)

Poor knowledge and use of contraception. We found that there were gender differences regarding knowledge of contraception. Male participants knew many more contraceptive methods than their female counterparts whose knowledge of contraception was mostly limited to contraceptive pills. Some young female MWs expressed worries about the side effects of other methods of contraception such as contraceptive implants and were reluctant to use them. They feared that some methods could potentially affect their ability to get pregnant.

“I have never seen injection birth control. The inserting medicine one [contraceptive implant] seems dangerous. It scares me.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

“I know a person back home [in Myanmar]—who after receiving a birth control shot, things were no longer normal. She didn’t know when her period would come. But with birth control pills, we know that the period will come right after we finish the pills, and after the period is finished, we can start to take the pills again. It is easy like that.”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

Use of youth friendly health services

Access to service: Unawareness of the eligibility right. Most participants were neither aware of the existence of youth-friendly clinics nor of their eligibility to access the services under the MW health insurance system.

“I wake up in the morning, go to work and go back to my place. I don’t go out that much, so I don’t know. None of my friends talk about this clinic. I don’t have any information about that kind of service for the young.”

(Young male migrant, male focus group discussion)

“I have never heard of a service like that for young people. Is there really one?”

(Young female migrant, female focus group discussion)

Need for tailored sexual and reproductive health services for young migrants. The need for tailored SRH services did not spontaneously emerge from the FGDs. We did however ask participants what kind of services they would want to receive if youth-friendly clinics were available. Most indicated that youth-friendly services should ideally be provided in their native language and should include programs to improve knowledge about SRH. They expected such programs to provide them with the right knowledge and skills, including condom use, contraception, STIs and HIV/AIDS, so that they can make informed decisions and adopt appropriate behavior in times of need.

“If it is possible, I want Shan people who have knowledge on this thing [sexual and reproductive health issue] to be the health providers or trainers. Because most people here [young migrants] are Shan, we will communicate well in our own language.”

(Young male migrant, male and female focus group discussion)

Discussion

The findings from our qualitative study corroborate results from our quantitative survey [21], and expand our understanding of the factors that shape sexual and reproductive health behaviors among young MWs in Chiang Mai. What was alarming from the results of our quantitative survey was that a high proportion of sexually active MWs never used condoms, and very few used condoms in a systematic fashion [21]. In our qualitative study, we found that there is an interplay of factors that can be useful in discerning the vulnerability of MWs to HIV and adverse SRH outcomes. For example, many participants in our study reported not knowing how to use a condom, and some, particularly females, had never seen a condom prior to the FGDs. There was a lot of social stigma and taboo around issues related to condoms, predominantly among females. Additionally, the type of relationship and trust influenced condom use. Quite a few male participants found that the use of condoms was not justified in a committed romantic relationship where trust prevails, and they preferred the use of contraceptive pills to condoms. These factors can partly explain the low prevalence of condom use in our quantitative survey since most (91.7%) had initiated sexual activity with their girlfriend or boyfriend, rather than with a casual or a commercial sex worker [21]. The evaluation of the PHAMIT-2 project (Prevention of HIV among Migrant Workers in Thailand), which compared baseline (2010) [11] and end line (2014) [28] surveys, found that the prevalence of “ever used a condom with a regular partner or spouse” remained very low despite the modest changes observed over the two rounds of surveys, from 11% to 19%, while the proportion of MWs reporting “never used a condom with a non-regular partner in the past 12 months” declined from 42% to 21% [28]. There is an urgent need to develop strategies to help MWs personalize the risk of HIV/STIs and unintended pregnancies regardless of the type of sexual partner.

Anecdotal reports suggest that the migration of Shans to Thailand has led to a change in social norms and to the traditional Shan community; citing for example the extremely high rates of divorce, averaging 90% in some areas of Northern Thailand [24]. However, very little is known about how these changes in social and traditional norms impact the sexual behavior of young MWs. The results of our quantitative survey indicated that most MWs had initiated sexual activity at an early age and had resided in Thailand for less than 5 years, suggesting that they might have been already sexually active before migrating to Thailand [21]. In our study, young MWs attributed the changes in their life style and sexual behavior to the lack of parental monitoring. They also linked access to social networking and modern communication technologies to their ability to initiate new romantic and/or sexual relationships. There has been an unprecedented growth in social network technologies over the past decade. A number of studies from both developed and developing settings have associated the use of these technologies with increased risky sexual behaviors [29–31]. In a recent study from Swaziland [29], participants who found it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook were more likely to report multiple sexual partnerships. The explosion of social networking sites, particularly among the young –including young migrants–, makes it an attractive channel to reach out to this vulnerable group. Future research should thoroughly explore the patterns of use of social media and other communication technologies among young MWs, and the feasibility to use them as potential channels for health interventions.

It is very concerning to find that young MWs were neither aware of the availability of youth friendly health services, nor of their eligibility to access the services under the MW health insurance scheme. The participants expressed a need for such services, and indicated that it should ideally be provided in their native languages and be tailored to their needs. It is worth noting that the participants' need for youth-friendly SRH services did not emerge spontaneously; rather, it was expressed in response to a specific question asking them what kind of services they would want to receive if youth-friendly SRH services were available. In view of our quantitative survey which showed that a low proportion (41.2%) had health insurance [21], interventions to improve access to youth-friendly health services in Thailand should, at the individual level, aim to increase young MWs' awareness of the availability of youth-friendly services as well as their eligibility for these services, and at the structural level, to increase health insurance coverage for the migrant population.

Thailand has been successful in mounting programs and policies that have rapidly led to the improvement SRH services in the country. Most programs and policies however had targeted married women, leaving other groups, such as adolescents and youths and MWs, with unmet needs for SRH services [32]. The nationwide establishment of youth-friendly SRH services is one of the initiatives the Thai Ministry of Public Health spearheaded to address the gap in SRH services among young people [33]. However, there are still many challenges to making the services acceptable by young people [33, 34].

It is anticipated that the provision youth-friendly SRH services to young migrants may present even more challenges than to the Thai population. For example, undocumented migrants and those without work permits, respectively 14.7% and 26.2% in our survey [21], may be reluctant to engage with the health or legal system for fear of being deported back their home countries. Another challenge is the government's regulation to control the inflow, living, and spatial mobility of MWs in Thailand, which affects migrants' access to health services [35]. Lastly, the unfamiliarity of young migrants with the Thai law, regulations, and health systems may create fear and impede access to SRH services even when they are entitled to receive such services.

This study has many limitations worth being mentioned. Firstly, we did not address issues of sexual orientation, including the types of sexual intercourse (male-to-male vs. male-to-female, anal vs. vaginal, etc.). The prevalence and incidence of HIV infection is very high in young MSM in Thailand, with orders of magnitude reaching eight-fold greater than in heterosexual men [36–38]. Similarly, we did not collect information regarding involvement in sex work. Migrant male sex workers (MSWs) are an extremely vulnerable population. In Chiang Mai, the majority of migrants MSWs are Shan from Myanmar. Many have unstable employment; have experienced sexual abuse, and often use recreational drugs [39, 40]. The lack of information on sexual orientation and involvement in sex work limits the interpretation of risk in our sample of participants. Future research will do well by exploring condom use and other sexual behaviors of MWs in light of their sexual orientation as well as involvement in sex work. Secondly, there is the possibility of social desirability bias in our study given the vulnerability of the young MWs and the use of a group format to discuss sensitive sexual issues. Our participants may have felt uncomfortable about describing their sexual practices and relationships. This can possibly explain why issues such as the sexual orientation of participants did not spontaneously emerge from the discussions. Social desirability bias can to a certain extent explain the apparent lack of knowledge about condoms among Shan female participants. In settings where gender double standards in sexual norms still prevails, such as in many South-east Asian countries including Thailand and Myanmar [41, 42], females may prefer to be silent regarding their knowledge of sexual issues including condoms in an open forum due to fear of being regarded as sexually experienced; hence, being labeled as a "bad girl". Lastly, our study

did not explore in-depth the issue of contraception in light of the sexual culture of young migrants. We sought to understand the level of knowledge about existing contraceptive methods; however, delving deeper in the sexual culture of young MWs could have provided a deeper understanding of the use of contraception in this population.

Despite these limitations, this study provides a useful qualitative assessment of young MWs' sexual behavior, lifestyles and relationships, and issues related to access to youth friendly health services in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Based on the findings from our study, as well as results from previous research [21, 28, 43–45], we suggest that health interventions for young MWs should be holistic, designed based on relevant contextual factors (e.g. emphasizing condom use regardless of the type of partner), using relevant channels of communication (social network sites, and other ICT technologies, etc.), address a range of outcomes (risky sexual behaviors, HIV testing, etc.), and target different levels of influence (individual, community, and structural: policy and regulations). This will require tight collaboration between all the interested stakeholders particularly the Ministry of Public Health, Provincial Health Office, Provincial Employment Office, hospitals and non-government organizations.

Conclusion

The present study helped discern the vulnerability of young migrants to adverse SRH outcomes. We have highlighted a set of factors namely poor knowledge and lack of awareness of condoms, contraception, and SRH services that interplayed to shape the SRH behavior such as low condom use. The use of youth-friendly SRH services was limited by the lack of awareness of the existence of such services. Ideally, interventions to address SRH needs should not only improve knowledge and raise awareness on SRH issues, but also address upstream structural barriers to accessing health services such as lack of health insurance.

Supporting information

S1 File. Focus group discussion guide, Thai version.
(DOCX)

S2 File. Focus group discussion guide, English version.
(DOCX)

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos.

Data curation: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos.

Formal analysis: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Patou Masika Musumari, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos.

Funding acquisition: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul.

Investigation: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos.

Methodology: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Patou Masika Musumari, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos.

Project administration: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos, Suwat Charialertsak.

Supervision: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara, Suwat Charialertsak.

Visualization: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Patou Masika Musumari, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S. Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara, Suwat Charialertsak.

Writing – original draft: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Patou Masika Musumari, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Veruree Manoyos, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S. Pilar Suguimoto.

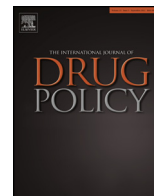
Writing – review & editing: Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul, Patou Masika Musumari, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S. Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara, Suwat Charialertsak.

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Research Paper

“Now drugs in Libya are much cheaper than food”: A qualitative study on substance use among young Libyans in post-revolution Tripoli, Libya



Fauzi Muftah Elamouri^{a,*}, Patou Masika Musumari^a, Teeranee Techasrivichien^a, Anwar Farjallah^b, Sufian Elfandi^b, Osama Fathi Alsharif^b, Hussein Benothman^c, S. Pilar Suguimoto^a, Masako Ono-Kihara^a, Masahiro Kihara^a

^a Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Yoshida-Konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan

^b Ministry of Health – Libya, Alforaj Street, Libya

^c National Center of Disease Control, National AIDS Program, Ain Zara District, Tripoli 71171, Libya

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ABSTRACT

Background: Libya is facing a rapidly growing epidemic of illicit drug use and HIV. This situation is fueled by a complex array of factors, mainly the consequences of the political and military turmoil of the Arab Spring. Although it is extensively documented in other settings that young people are one of the most vulnerable groups to both HIV and illicit drug use, no study has explored this issue among young people in Libya. The current study addresses this research gap.

Methods: This study is a qualitative study using in-depth interviews guided by a semi-structured questionnaire. We used a maximum variation, purposive sampling strategy to recruit male and female participants, aged 14–18 years, from schools, prisons, and community-based informal re-education and rehabilitation centers in Tripoli, Libya.

Results: In total, 31 participants were recruited: 6 females and 25 males. Sixteen participants were prisoners and residents of community-based informal re-education and rehabilitation centers, and 15 were recruited in schools. Risk factors for drug use included peer influence, the increased availability and affordability of drugs, disruption of social life and healthy recreational activities, and the distress and casualties of the war. Protective factors were religious beliefs and practices, good parent-child connectedness, and high self-esteem and future aspiration. Risk factors for HIV were insufficient knowledge related to HIV transmission and unsafe injection practices, such as sharing needles and syringes.

Conclusion: We found individual, interpersonal, family, and structural-level factors that interplayed to shape the vulnerability of young people to drug use and HIV infection in Tripoli, Libya. Structural factors, including the increased availability and affordability of drugs, provided the frame within which other factors, such as peer influence, insufficient knowledge of substance use, and HIV, operated to increase the vulnerability of young people to drugs and HIV, while religious beliefs and parent-child connectedness acted as protective factors. Multisectoral efforts and studies to quantitatively evaluate the magnitude and distribution of these problems are urgently needed.

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Introduction

Libya is facing a rapidly growing epidemic of illicit drug use and HIV (*The National AIDS Control Program-Libya, 2015*). The country is located in North Africa, and is one of the largest in the region, with a population of around 6.5 million (*Index Mundi, 2016*). Libya is also situated in the heart of the trans-Saharan drug-trafficking routes. It is an established market and a transit zone for hashish, and a transit spot for heroin and cocaine. There is an emerging market for both heroin and cocaine in Libya's large cities, including Tripoli, Misurata, and Benghazi. Cocaine and heroin are trafficked

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: fuzi_yasmin@yahoo.com, publichealthkyoto2015@gmail.com (F.M. Elamouri), patoumus@yahoo.fr (P.M. Musumari), techasrivichien.teeranee.2a@kyoto-u.ac.jp (T. Techasrivichien), anwarfargalla@yahoo.com (A. Farjallah), selfandi@yahoo.com (S. Elfandi), osamaf.alsharif@yahoo.com (O.F. Alsharif), husein_benothman@hotmail.com (H. Benothman), suguimoto.pilar.2w@kyoto-u.ac.jp (S. P. Suguimoto), kihara.masako.2u@kyoto-u.ac.jp (M. Ono-Kihara), kihara.masahiro.4n@kyoto-u.ac.jp (M. Kihara).

from southwestern Libya, either directly northward through Sebha or along the southern border toward Egypt, where these substances move onward. Hashish is transported either from West Africa along the same route as heroin and cocaine or eastward from Morocco along the Libyan coast to Egypt. In addition, Libya is now considered a major hub for methamphetamine trafficking from West Africa; suggesting the country is diversifying into new drug markets. There are also pharmaceutical psychotropic products smuggled from neighboring countries (Shaw & Mangan, 2014).

The political unrest and military turmoil of the Arab Spring has led to a dramatic deterioration of the State's control, further aggravated by the recent political turmoil between two rival governments, causing outbreaks of violence across the country (The National AIDS Control Program-Libya, 2015). Libya's political instability and armed conflicts have exacerbated drug trafficking and access to illicit drug use, hampered national response efforts to the country's HIV epidemic, led to discontinuation of projects to address HIV and illicit drug problem, and deterioration of basic services including rehabilitation services for people who inject drugs (PWID).

Sound evidence on the status and dynamics of the HIV epidemic in Libya has begun to burgeon (Daw et al., 2014). Recent studies suggest that the epidemic in Libya is concentrated, with injection drug use as the main mode of transmission, and there is a relatively low prevalence in the general population (Mirzoyan et al., 2013). The latest bio-behavioral surveys, conducted in 2010 among 328 PWID in Tripoli, found an HIV prevalence of 87%. This is, so far, the highest reported prevalence of HIV among PWID worldwide, and was much larger than in other risk groups in Libya, such as men who have sex with men (3.1%) and female sex workers (15.7%). In the same study, there was an alarmingly high prevalence of hepatitis C virus (HCV) (94%), with a relatively low prevalence of hepatitis B virus (HBV) (5%) (Mirzoyan et al., 2013). The National Center of Disease Control indicated that PWID account for 90% of reported cases of HIV in Libya (Ministry of Health, 2014). There are however strong indications that sexual transmission is becoming an increasingly important contributor to the national HIV incidence rate (The National AIDS Control Program-Libya, 2015). In another study, conducted in 2011 among the Tripoli's general population, the prevalence of HIV, HCV, and HBV was respectively 0.15%, 0.9%, and 3.7% (Daw et al., 2014).

Despite the lack of data on drug addiction in Libya, there is a joint consent that drug addiction is an increasingly salient issue in the country (Shaw & Mangan, 2014). This, however, contrasts with the very limited availability of quality services for drug treatment, rehabilitation, and harm reduction. The only two Libyan rehabilitation centers, located in Tripoli and Benghazi, are now closed due to the political and military instability (The National AIDS Control Program-Libya, 2015). This institutional void has led to the establishment, by different militia faction in the country, of many community-based, informal, re-education and rehabilitation centers. Residents of these centers include individuals who have been arrested for using and/or selling drugs, having sex out of marriage, theft, and other misdemeanors; in few instances, their family may have brought them in. The service is often limited to the institutionalization of the residents, with no clearly defined rules that govern the length of stay and no provision for specific drug treatment and rehabilitation services (e.g., counseling) for drug users (Finucci, 2014; Sifaw & Plaza, 2017).

There is a dearth of information related to HIV and drug substance use among young people in Libya, even though they are a priority group for HIV prevention and harm reduction strategies, due to their vulnerability to both conditions (Degenhardt, Stockings, Patton, Hall, & Lynskey, 2016). At the global level, young

people aged 15–24 years accounted for approximately 40% of new HIV infection among adults (WHO, 2015). In young men aged 20–24 years, substance use, including illicit drug use, is responsible for 14% of the total health burden (Degenhardt et al., 2016). In Libya, young people aged 15–24 years account for approximately 17% of the population, and over half of the population is under 30 years of age (Index Mundi, 2016). Young people in Libya face an exacerbated risk of substance use and HIV due to the country's socio-economic and political situation. In a previous study, although the majority of PWID were at least 35 years old, around 43% of the participants were less than 25 years old when they first injected drugs (Mirzoyan et al., 2013).

There is a salient lack of qualitative and epidemiological data on substance use and HIV among Libya's young people. We found no previous studies in peer-reviewed publications on this specific topic. The current study provides a qualitative assessment of the vulnerability of young people to substance use and HIV infection. We first explore the factors that shape young people's vulnerability to drug use, and then examine how these factors enhance the risk of HIV infection. Although the overall research examined substance use in general (drugs, alcohol, and tobacco), the current report specifically focuses on drug use.

Methods

Research design, sampling and target population

This is a qualitative study exploring factors that shape the vulnerability of young people to drug use and HIV infection in Tripoli, Libya. We used maximum variation, purposive sampling strategy to recruit participants. We chose this specific purposive sampling technique because it ensures that the sampled participants collectively represent as wide a range as possible of variation in the factors considered relevant to the object of the study (Bowers, House, & Owens, 2011). In this study, we purposively recruited two groups of young male and female Libyans aged 14–18 years: (1) community-based informal re-education and rehabilitation centers, and (2) secondary and high schools in Tripoli. The rationale of this selection was that the two groups might have different experiences, risks, or behaviors related to drug use and HIV. At the time of the study Tripoli had 5 official prisons, of which we selected 2 because they incarcerated adolescents as well as adults. By convenience, we selected 2 informal re-education and rehabilitation centers. The currently existing centers operate as informal structures under the control of the armed militia and lack capacities for the provision of adequate rehabilitation services. The student participants, with or without experience of drug use, were selected from 5 schools (2 secondary schools and 3 high schools), conveniently chosen based on the demonstrated cooperation from the schools' administrative authorities. In total, we recruited 16 participants from the prisons and community-based informal re-education centers, and 15 participants from the schools.

Data collection

We conducted in-depth interviews with gender-matched interviewers between September and October 2015. The semi-structured questionnaire was developed based on the literature review of drug use and HIV among young people, and our previous informal outreach to key informants working with youth in Libya. The interviews covered topics related to drug use and HIV-related risky behaviors; particularly, (1) knowledge of the risk of injection and non-injection drug use, (2) experience with injection and non-injection drug use, (3) perception of factors that lead to substance use, (4) knowledge related to HIV prevention, and (5) perception of

factors that prevent the use of injection and non-injection drugs among young Libyans.

All interviews were conducted in Arabic and in private rooms (at the schools, prisons, and informal rehabilitation centers) to ensure strict confidentiality. Although most of the interviews were audio-recorded with prior consent, interviews with female participants were instead recorded by hand, since these participants were concerned about their voices being audio-recorded, fearing that they could be recognized if the recording devices were lost. Notes were taken on non-verbal data (e.g., facial expression) during the interviews. Each interview was followed by a debriefing session (which lasted between 15 and 20 min) to map the main emerging themes, and ultimately, to determine whether saturation had been reached. We conducted a total of 31 interviews, which lasted 60 min on average.

Data analysis

Transcripts of audio and hand-written records were translated into English for data analysis. Data analysis was carried out using a thematic analysis procedure with analysts’ triangulation (Braun & Clarke, 2006). We started with repeated and careful readings of the data (verbal or non-verbal) to generate codes, categories, and (finally) the thematic diagram (analytical framework) to depict the relationship between the codes and categories, and how they relate to the overall research question.

Next, three investigators (FME, TT, PMM) independently coded the data transcripts and generated the initial codes, which were then grouped into larger categories. The team met on a regular basis to discuss the labels assigned to the transcripts. Discrepancies in coding and categorizations of the data were resolved through

revisiting the transcripts. In the second phase, codes and categories were revised and refined through regular meetings with another group of investigators (MOK & MK) to ensure data quality and credibility.

The entire process was iterative and led to the development of the working analytical framework based on the first few transcripts. Subsequent codes that emerged from the remaining transcripts were fed into the analytical framework. Codes that fit into the framework were placed under the appropriate category. The framework was flexible and expanded with emerging codes that did not fit into the initial analytical framework. Fig. 1 displays the final analytical framework. It displays the codes and categories that emerged from the data, and their relationships in terms of how they affect vulnerability to drug use and HIV infection. We elaborate on the codes and categories in the results section, and contextualize them in the discussion section.

Psychological support and counselling for participants

During the interviews, a female psychiatrist and a male psychologist carefully observed the participants and intervened when deemed necessary, taking into consideration the gender-match preference of each participant. Our psychological support team also provided post-interview follow-ups at the request of participants.

Ethical considerations

The study received ethical clearance from the Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine, Ethics Committee and the Ethical Regulatory Authority of the Department of Health,

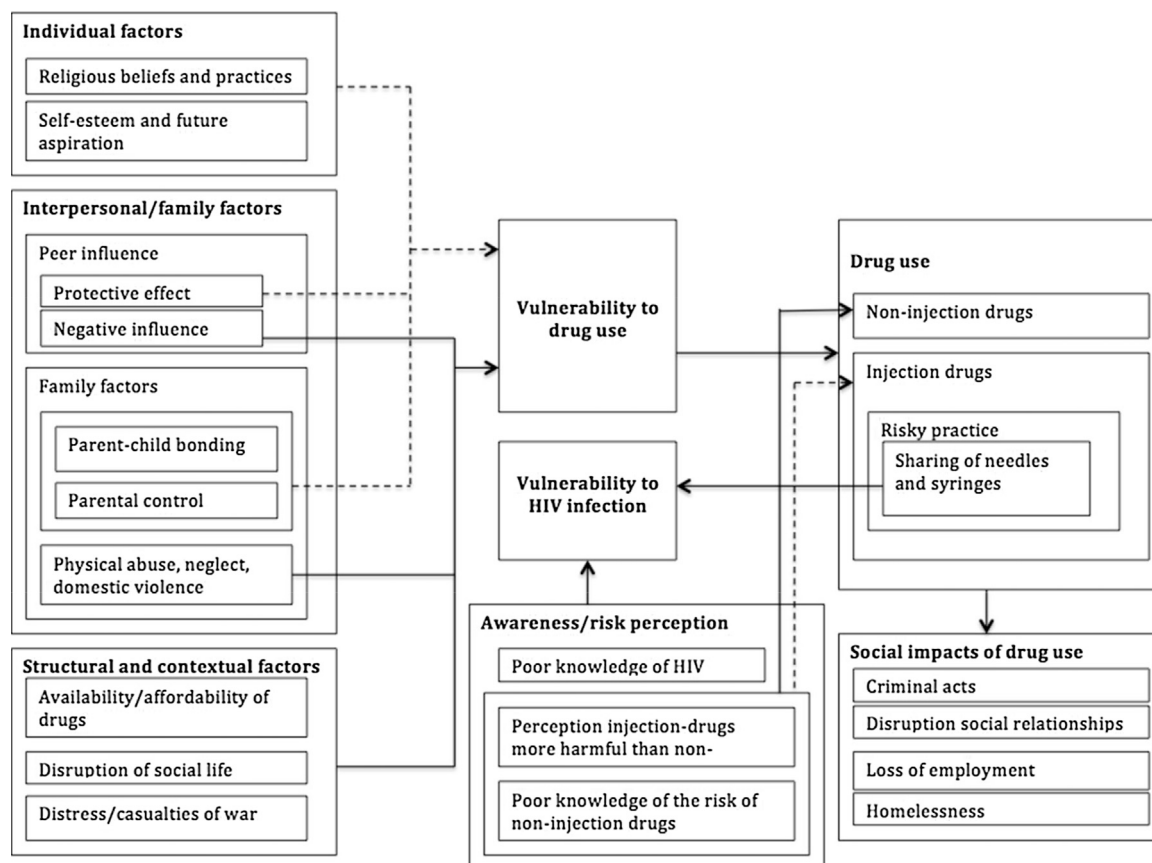


Fig. 1. Analytical framework showing the codes and categories, and their relationships with vulnerability to drug use and HIV. Solid lines refer to the risk factors; the dotted lines refer to protective factors.

Libya. Potential participants were informed about the nature and purpose of the study when they were invited to participate. We obtained consents from both the participant him/herself and that of parental/legal guardian. As a show of gratitude, participants were provided with a brochure from the National AIDS Program. Appropriate measures were taken to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of participants. No names or any other individual identifiers were recorded in any part of the study.

Results

Characteristics of participants

We interviewed a total of 31 participants. Previous research has shown that thematic saturation could be reached with sample size ranging from 5 to 25 participants (Creswell, 2007). In our study, we assessed that we reached saturation through debriefing sessions conducted at the end of each interview.

Sixteen participants were recruited in prisons (9 participants) and community-based informal re-education centers (7 participants). Fifteen participants were students recruited from 2 secondary schools (7 participants) and from 3 high schools (8 participants) in Tripoli. The total sample consisted of 6 females and 25 males. The median age of participants was 16 years. Non-injection drugs were the most commonly reported and used in a combination of many substances among the participants who were drug users (Table 1).

Prisoners and residents of community-based informal re-education and rehabilitation centers

Over half of the participants were not living with family. The majority (87%) had some form of employment before imprisonment and some reported having worked in the armed forces or admitted to selling illegal drugs or illegally selling prescription drugs. All the participants had used or were currently using drugs. Almost 90% reported having had friends who were used illegal

drugs. The majority of participants (75%) used non-injection drugs. Nine reported ever used injection-drug; of which 4 participants were still using injection-drugs by the time they were institutionalized. Most participants reported having used more than one kind of drug and were also alcohol consumers. The four types of the most commonly used drugs were hashish, hallucinogens (ecstasy), and Tramadol and Trihexyphenidyl (Artan) tablets. Six participants reported the use of heroin by inhalation and/or injection by the time they were institutionalized. Three of them had faced murder charges under drug influence (Table 2). Among the 9 participants who ever used injection drugs, 6 (66.6%) reported having shared needles or syringes.

Students in secondary and high school

All student participants were living with family: 2 had part-time jobs. While the majority (93%) were not using drugs, 1 student reported taking Tramadol tablets and 2 reported drinking alcohol. Three participants had friends who were using drugs. Additional demographic characteristics are shown in Table 1.

Codes and categories

The codes and categories that emerged from the data transcripts are illustrated in Fig. 1. Three thematic categories (individual factors; interpersonal/family factors; structural and contextual factors) included codes related to factors protecting and promoting drug use among young people in Libya: 1 category was related to the social impacts of drug use on young people, and 1 category included codes related to HIV and drug use (awareness, risk perception, and risky sexual behavior) among young people. (See Fig. 1) Quotes from the participants are lightly edited for ease of reading, without substantially altering the contents.

Factors that influence drug use

Individual-level factors

Religious beliefs and practices. Religious beliefs emerged as a salient protective factor against drug use among the participants who had no previous substance use experience. All participants were Muslim, and the protective effects of religion manifested in multiple ways. Some of them evoked the notion that their religion demands respect and sanctity of mind and life. Therefore, most had less tolerance for behaviors such as drug use, which they regarded as offensive to the Islamic religion. One participant said:

“I’m Muslim and the philosophy of Islam includes preserving the person’s life, mind, and wealth. Any substance that threatens any of these factors is considered prohibitive.” (M, age 15, high school)

Religious beliefs also provided strong resilience and resistance against drugs for participants who were going through hardships as a result of the war. One participant mentioned:

“All the people have a difficult time and when I have problems I just pray to god and trust he (God) will be with us in this difficult time. Even though I don’t get a response to my prayers now, I believe he (God) will protect us. But I don’t to turn to drugs to solve these problems because it will make my situation worse. Using drugs and alcohol are ‘Haram’ (forbidden by Allah)” (F, age 17, High School).

Among the participants who were using drugs, few attributed their behavior to the fact that they had distanced themselves from God and their religious practices. One participant said:

“If I were closer to god and prayed regularly I think I wouldn’t be here (in re-education and rehabilitation center). Since I stopped

Table 1
Demographic characteristics and history of drug use.

Characteristic	Prisoners and Residents of Community-Based Informal Re-education and Rehabilitation Centers (n = 16) n (%)	Students (n = 15) n (%)
Sex		
Male	14 (87)	11 (73)
Female	2 (13)	4 (27)
Age		
14–16	7 (44)	11 (73)
17–18	9 (56)	4 (27)
Living with family		
Yes	7 (44)	15 (100)
No	9 (56)	0 (0)
Having (had) a job		
Yes	14 (87)	2 (13)
No	2 (13)	13 (87)
Have (had) friends using drugs		
Yes	14 (87)	3 (20)
No	2 (13)	12 (80)
Ever had alcohol consumption		
Yes	13 (81)	2 (13)
No	3 (19)	13 (87)
Ever used drugs		
Yes	16 (100)	1 (7)
No	0 (0)	14 (93)
Ever injected drug		
Yes	4 (25)	0 (0)
No	12 (75)	15 (0)

Table 2
 Characteristics of the Prisoners and Residents of Community-Based Informal Re-education and Rehabilitation Centers.

	Gender	Age	Types of drugs used by participants	Ever used Injection drugs	Ever shared syringe	Ever used injection drugs by the time of one was arrested	Charge	Institution
1.	Female	18	Ecstasy – Artan (Trihexyphenidyl) – Diazepam pills, Heroin, Hashish	Yes	Yes	Yes	Using and selling drugs	Prison
2.	Female	17	Ecstasy – Diazepam, Tramadol pills, heroin	Yes	Yes	Yes	Using drugs	Rehabilitation center
3.	Male	16	Tramadol – Ecstasy – Artan pills, Hashish, Heroin	Yes	Yes	Yes	Using drugs and Theft	Rehabilitation center
4.	Male	18	Tramadol – Ecstasy pills and snort Heroin and smoke Hashish	Yes	No	Yes	Theft	Rehabilitation center
5.	Male	15	Tramadol pills and Hashish	No	–	–	Using drugs	Prison
6.	Male	18	Tramadol, ecstasy, pill, smoking hashish and snort heroin	No	–	–	Kidnap and Using drugs	Prison
7.	Male	17	Ecstasy, Artan, Tramadol pills, smoking hashish and heroin	Yes	Yes	No	Murder	Prison
8.	Male	16	Ecstasy pills	No	–	–	Using and selling drugs	Rehabilitation center
9.	Male	18	Hashish, Tramadol, Diazepam pills	No	–	–	Using drugs	Prison
10.	Male	15	Hashish, Artan, ecstasy, snort heroin	Yes	Yes	No	Having sex out of marriage with girl	Prison
11.	Male	16	Hashish, Ecstasy, Artan pills	No	–	–	Using and selling drugs	Rehabilitation center
12.	Male	17	Hashish, Tramadol, Artan, smoking Heroin	Yes	No	No	Kill his father	Prison
13.	Male	18	Artan, Hashish	No	–	–	Using drugs	Rehabilitation center
14.	Male	17	Ecstasy, Hashish, smoking Heroin	Yes	No	No	Murder	Prison
15.	Male	17	Ecstasy, Tramadol, Hashish	No	–	–	Selling drugs	Rehabilitation center
16.	Male	15	Hashish, Artan, Ecstasy, Tramadol pills, smoking Heroin	Yes	Yes	No	Using drugs	Prison

praying and going to Mosque every Friday I lost my life and I lost the way to become good person; but since I am here, I start praying regularly and try to go back to god” (M, age 16, re-education and rehabilitation center)

Self-esteem and future aspiration. Most of the participants mentioned that the way young people view themselves has a direct impact on how they make choices in their lives. Those who have high self-esteem with strong future aspirations will not turn to drugs.

“Drugs are not for me! I have no time to waste on drugs and I have all the willpower to stay away from them. I have family, friends, and my future.” (M, age 14, secondary school)

Interpersonal and family factors

The influence of peers. Peer pressure was one of the largest facilitating factors that led to drug use, particularly among participants who were incarcerated. The influence from peers was mainly exerted in the form of active pressure including implicit encouragement or the threat of social isolation in case of refusal to adopt the drug use behavior of the group.

“All my friends are using drugs. Eventually they influenced me. It was when my friend gave me a drug for free that I first used drugs.” (M, age 16, re-education and rehabilitation center)

“When they (referring to his friends) started using drugs, I tried not to use but they told me: if you don’t do what we do you are not part of us and you will not be our friend anymore. I was scared to lose them, then I started to using drugs with them.” (M, Age 15, prison)

On the one hand, most participants who did not experience drug use recognized the positive role of peers in their behavior. More than half of the participants in this group concurred that forming positive relationships with their peers led to a

productive use of free time and created a strong shield against drug use.

‘We encourage each other, we study together, and during our free time we play together and we support, criticize, and give advice whenever needed.’ (M, age 17, high school)

Family factors. Family factors, including parent-child attachment and parental control, emerged as protective factors against drug use. Most participants who did not experience drug use agreed that a positive and strong parent-child relationship, a supportive family environment, guardian monitoring and caregiving facilitated a healthy relationship with young people. Continuous supervision, paying attention to their children’s friends, and giving advice when needed are protective factors that keep them from choosing to use drugs.

“My family always keeps an eye on me and supports me; my father is like a friend to me. We share our problems and we solve them together.” (F, age 16, high school)

“My family takes care of me, and every time they visit me in the school to know who I hang out with. I left the bad friends when they wanted to pull me to drugs” (M, age 15, high school)

When the family became aware of the participants’ drug use, they often responded through physical punishment and abuse or through room confinement that could last for weeks. Some families threw these young adults onto the streets.

“After my family found out that I was on drugs, they locked me in a dark room for three weeks and my father and brothers beat me every day.” (F, age 17, re-education and rehabilitation center)

Participants also pointed to physical abuse, neglect, and domestic violence, particularly from the parents or close relatives during early childhood as one of the factors that led them to drug use. They felt their family did not provide enough support, did not understand their role in helping young people cope with drug use,

and that the further physical punishment they received from family members only made the situation worse.

Structural and contextual factors

Availability and affordability of drugs. A large number of participants felt availability of illicit drugs had increased due to the political and security instability since 2011—post revolution. Drugs have become easily accessible through the an increased number of drugs dealers and are on offer at an affordable price. Easy access to drugs in prison also emerged during the interviews. Some participants reported the following:

“Post revolution, food prices increased. When you ask why, they say it is because of the war and limited importation; meanwhile, the price of illegal drugs was dropping and their purity was increasing and they became very easy to obtain. Now drugs in Libya are much cheaper than food.” (M, age 16, prison)
 “On every street in Tripoli you can find drug dealers; almost every family has a person using or selling drugs” (M, age 17 prison)

“In post-revolution, the drugs are available everywhere. I am now about 4 months here (in prison) do you think I stopped using drugs? No . . . No, I can get the drugs even here. I can't tell you how I get the drugs but some people they get from their friends from outside when they visit them or from other prisoners here” (M, age 17, prison)

Disruption of social life and healthy recreational activities. Most participants explained that the war has created an environment of violence, unemployment, and disruptions in access to school or traditional recreational resources for social activities, such as facilities for sport activities. As a result, many young people had much free time, which they could not use in a constructive way. One participant explained:

“When the war started, all the entertainment places closed and the open ones are very expensive, like sport clubs, football stadium, and fitness studios. There is no place to have relaxed time or enjoy. So, I felt so bored and I would like to do anything to kill my time. I started to go to the summer house [a countryside shelter or house for relaxation] of my friends and its one of reasons I used drugs” (M, Age 18, Prison)

Drug use as a way to cope with distress and casualties of war. The use of drugs also emerged as a form of coping with the loss incurred during the war. Many participants had lost their families, relatives, and friends. Some of them had to flee their homes, while others lost their jobs and had to join the armed militia. One participant said:

“I was a nice person, ambitious and hard-working also in my studies, but the war killed a lot of my friends and relatives. My school was destroyed and we lost our house and everything we had. Can't you imagine that all of this would push me into drugs in order to forget?” (M, age 16, re-education and rehabilitation center)

Social impacts of drug use on young people

We found that drug use led to a range of detrimental social consequences. Accounts of violence and criminal acts were very common among incarcerated participants. Some of them were charged with murder, theft, gender-based violence, and weapons ownership under the influence of drugs and alcohol. Substance use was considered as the main factor leading young people to incarceration, especially during the post-revolution period.

“Usually I come home late under the influence of drugs. One night my father got very angry with me; he picked up a rubber pipe and beat me repeatedly. I tried to defend myself. I got angry and pulled a gun out of my pocket and shot him.” (M, age 17, prison)

Drug and alcohol use disrupted social relationships with family, friends, and neighbors, and in some cases, led to loss of employment and homelessness. A few participants' quotes are presented below:

“I was a very good person, I had a lot of friends, but the drugs make you not human and change everything in your life, I had my nice family and friends but after drugs nobody likes me as before” (M, Age 18, Prison)

“I had good job in a very famous restaurant in Tripoli but after I started using drugs, I didn't go to job regularly and I made some problems with the clients so I lost the job” (M, age 17, prison)

“When my family learned that I was using drugs they kicked me out of the house and never accepted me anymore. I became homeless and was living on the beach until the army caught me.” (M, age 16, re-education and rehabilitation center)

Awareness, risk perception, and risky behavior related to drug use and HIV

There was a high level of awareness among all the participants regarding the types of drugs available in the community, as well as their street names. However, most participants perceived that non-injection drugs were less harmful than injecting drugs. Some had personally witnessed or heard accounts of adverse health effects of injection drugs on people. Mostly, participants associated injection drug use with the risk of acquiring HIV and/or HCV. Some participants mentioned:

“I have never injected drugs in my life, I used only pills even though I know it's not good but I feel I forget all my difficulties and problems and Libyan situation now; but I never used or I will never use the injection drugs because all our old neighbors and old generation who used injection drugs died one by one by AIDS, and I consider the injection is old fashioned” (M, age 17, prison)

“My uncle is my idol in the life; he always advised me not to use injection drugs use; I injected heroin two or three time then I stopped it after he (meaning his uncle) died from AIDS ” (M, age 16, prison)

Despite the injection drug users awareness of the risks associated with injection drug use, most of them reported using old syringes or having shared needles or syringes due, for example, to supply shortages.

“I shared my syringe with my friends and ex-boyfriend. We didn't have enough syringes for everyone. I thought, I'm sure he doesn't have any diseases.” (F, age 17, re-education and rehabilitation center)

On the other hand, the link between the use of non-injection drug and HIV or the transmission of HIV through sexual activity did not appear to dominate the discourse of the participants, although few reported increased libido when they were under the influence of drugs.

“I don't know where I got HIV. I never used drugs by injection. But maybe I got it from some girl. When I am under the influence of drugs, my sexual desire increases and I don't know what I'm doing!!” (M, age 15, prison)

Overall, participants had a limited understanding of HIV, with a lot of misconceptions of its modes of transmission. The main

source of HIV-related knowledge was from peers or casual chats, and many felt that there was inadequate health education in schools, at home, and in the media.

“HIV is transmitted via razors, shaking hands, wearing the same clothes that HIV-infected people had worn and sharing food with them; I know some people who got HIV because they were using the same toothbrush.” (F, age 17, high school)

“We don’t have specific classes in school for health education but some organizations visit us from time to time and give us basic information related to drug use and HIV. Generally, we do not receive enough information.” (M, age 16, high school)

Discussion

This is, to our knowledge, the first qualitative study to explore the factors that increase the vulnerability of young people to use drugs in Tripoli, Libya. We found that individual-level factors, namely religious beliefs, good self-esteem, and future aspirations, had a protective effect against drug use, while structural and contextual factors (availability and affordability of drugs; disruption of social life; distress and casualties due to war) enhanced their vulnerability to drug use. Factors at the interpersonal and family level were either risk factors or protective factors against drug use. The current study also helped discern HIV-related risk factors among participants who engaged in drug use; notably the sharing of needles and syringes, poor HIV-related knowledge, and low risk perception for non-injection drugs.

The results of this study add to the existing body of literature that depicts the vulnerability to social and mental health problems of the youth and adolescents living in conflict-affected or post-conflict zones. Young people and adolescents are disproportionately affected by armed conflicts and war (UNICEF, 2009). Beside reports of forceful recruitment of young people and adolescents into armed groups (Quénivet & Shah-Davis, 2013; Theresa Stichick et al., 2010), there exists extensive literature linking armed conflicts to mental health disorders (distress, anxiety, depression) (Dimitry, 2011), increased exposure to negative peer influence (Karakos, 2014), increased access to illicit drugs (Harris, Levey, Borba, & Deborah, 2011), disruption of social and family structure (Peltzer & Ramlagan, 2009), deprivation of education (ICRC, 2009), and violence, including sexual violence (GTZ, 2009; Sleggh, Barker, Ruratotoye, & Shand, 2012).

In our study, the context of post-revolution social conflict in Libya appeared to be one of the most significant factors enhancing the vulnerability to drugs among our participants. Many participants, including non-drug users, felt that the availability of drugs had escalated greatly in post-revolution Libya, as a result of both political instability and the loss of control over the extensive national borders. The volatile political situation and social chaos have created a perfect environment for the influx of large amounts of drugs, which are sold at low prices on every corner of the city (Burke, 2014; Micallef, 2017; Shaw & Mangan, 2014). Drug trafficking is common in (post-) conflict zones. However, the relationship between armed conflict and illicit drug trade and use is complex, and bears multiple facets. Drug trafficking is likely to thrive in conflict- and post-conflict-affected regions as a result of the weakened capability to enforce counterdrug laws and policies, weakened control of borders, and the emergence of new and/or strengthening of existing organized criminal groups operating in the illicit drug market (Durnagöl, 2009; UNODC, 2017). In addition, illicit drug trafficking can serve as a source of financing for politico-military groups involved in armed confrontation. Presently, most of the world production of opium and coca is taking place in conflict or post-conflict-affected zones, including Myanmar, Afghanistan, Colombia, and Peru (Cornell, 2007; LaVerle, Curtis,

Hudson, & Kollars, 2002; Stepanova, 2009). In Colombia, although drug trafficking is not recognized as the cause of the armed conflicts, it has however been the main source of income for the armed groups involved in the conflict (Garay, 2013; Le Billon, 2015; Otis, 2014). In Libya, the drug market has become a dynamic source of resources for the militias (Felbab-Brown, 2017; Valsenroot, 2008; Wennmann, 2011).

The increased availability and affordability of drugs was further compounded by other factors, direct or indirect consequences of the warfare. For example, the harsh experience of the war (that had led some to lose their employment, home, educational opportunities, family, friends, relatives, and assets) has created hopelessness and distress among young people, thereby pushing them toward drugs and alcohol as a coping strategy to obtain temporary relief. A qualitative study on risk factors and consequences of substance use among youth in post-conflict Liberia indicated that some young people engaged in drug use as a way to cope with the negative and traumatic experience of the war (Lippitt, 2013). In addition, unemployment and the disruption of schools and recreational resources for social activities resulted in young people having too much free and unsupervised time, further exposing them to drug use.

Also noteworthy was the finding that participants who were incarcerated felt that access to drugs in prison was relatively easy, through visitors, other inmates, or prison officers. The traffic of drugs in prison is a widespread concern in many settings, even in developed and developing countries (UNODC, 2015).

We found peer influence is a common contributing factor to drug use. In our study, the influence of peers not only led to the initiation of drugs but also helped sustained the behavior, particularly among participants incarcerated in prisons or in rehabilitation centers. This is in agreement with many studies showing that prisons have become effective environment for drug use due to peer pressure and easy access to drugs (Alhyas et al., 2015; Jürgens, Nowak, & Marcus, 2011; Penal Reform International, 2015). We found that young people facing the hardship of war with easy access to drugs and a lot of free time on hands are prone to be influenced by their peers. Peer pressure is extensively documented as a contributing factor to substance use among young people (Brook, Morojele, Pahl, & Brook, 2006; Lippitt, 2013; Peltzer & Ramlagan, 2009). The influence of peers is all the more relevant in the context of conflict and post-conflict. The breakdown of families and traditional social networks may drive young people to rely more on their peers. In Liberia, the influence of peers emerged as an important contributing factors to initiating substance use. Particularly, the social isolation of substance users reinforced bonds and reliance on peers and contributed to sustain the drug use behavior (Lippitt, 2013). Interestingly, only a few of the participants who were using drugs linked their behavior to their failure to abide by the prescription of the Islamic religion. The protective role of religion on substance use has been documented in many studies (Alhyas et al., 2015; Marsiglia et al., 2005), and the postulated mechanisms are multiple. For example, some religions explicitly prohibit substance use (Benda, 1997), while others prescribe norms that can discourage substance use (McBride, Mutch, & Chitwood, 1996). Young people and adolescents involved in religion are less likely to be influenced by deviant peers as they tend to form peer groups with youth who are involved in similar activities (Oetting, Donnermeyer, & Deffenbacher, 1998). In addition, religious involvement can provide protection against substance use through promotion of pro-social activities, which in turn, may promote antidrug conduct norms. Religious involvement can enhance the ability to recover from adverse life events (Sattari, Mashayekhi, & Mashayekhi, 2013); thus, faith-based strategies are regarded as useful a tool for interventions aiming to address substance use (Epstein, Glezen, Clark, & Preston, 2010).

We identified family-related risk and protective factors for drug use. For example, lack of family support, physical abuse, violence, and neglect in early childhood were reported as factors that pushed some participants into drug use, or that worsened the drug use behavior. This concurs with the findings of previous studies showing that maltreated children later participate in some sort of substance use and become drug addicts (Whitesell, Bachand, Peel, & Brown, 2013). On the other hand, family support and strong family ties, such as parental monitoring and care giving were all mentioned as factors that kept young people away from drugs (Meghdadpour, Curtis, Pettifor, & MacPhail, 2012). This highlights the importance of family-level factors in modeling adolescents' behavior, such as in the case of substance use.

The use of drugs had tremendously adverse social and economic consequences in our study. Participants who were using drugs reported accounts of criminal acts, disruption of social relationships, loss of employment, and homelessness. In our study, both non-injection and injection drug users knew about the health risks associated with injection drug use; mostly associating the latter with HIV and/or HCV. However, the link between non-injection drug use and sexual transmission of HIV was much less salient in the participants' discourse.

The perception among our participants that injection drug use was more harmful echoes previous studies in other settings (Rio & Alvarez, 1995). In the context of our study, this perception might have been formed based on observed harm and/or accounts of harm to others, as some participants reported. It is also possible that the community in the setting of this study is more sensitized (through media portrayal, hearsay) to the effects of injection drug use, given that it is the predominant route of HIV transmission in the country.

The prevention of HIV transmission among drug users has overwhelmingly focused on injection drug users, and there is a dearth of evidence-informed strategies to guide HIV prevention among non-injection drug users (Shoptaw, Montgomery, Williams, & Strathdee, 2013). In our study, because the majority of participants had limited knowledge of the mechanisms of HIV infection, they were very likely at risk of HIV infection through risky sexual behavior. Unfortunately, we were not able to explore risky sexual behaviors among our sampled participants in any depth.

Additionally, most of the injection drug users in our sample reported sharing needles and syringes or using old syringes, despite being aware of associated risks of HIV and HCV transmission. This corroborates results from a previous study in Libya, where a significantly high proportion shared needles and other injection equipment (Mirzoyan et al., 2013). This situation is very likely due to structural barriers impeding access to clean needles and syringes. Libya does not currently provide a comprehensive national needle and syringe exchange program or opioid substitution therapy. The Drugs and HIV Project that the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime established with financing from the Libyan government was suspended in 2011 due to the civil war; however, it is slowly being restarted according to the latest Libyan HIV/AIDS country progress report (The National AIDS Control Program-Libya, 2015).

This study has a number of limitations that are worth mentioning: First, the nature of the qualitative design in our study, the convenience sampling method, and the limited geographic location within Tripoli, limit the generalization of this study to all of Libya. Second, it was not possible to investigate the current status of sexual practice because sex is a taboo subject in Libyan culture; therefore, a more culturally appropriate approach would be needed to explore this issue. Lastly, our sample included only a limited number of participants who were injecting drugs; which restricted the in-depth exploration of this group. Despite these limitations, this study remains particularly important. This is

the first study to qualitatively assess the vulnerability of young people in Libya in the context of the post-revolution period.

Conclusion

We have identified factors at the individual, interpersonal, family, and structural levels that interplayed to shape the vulnerability of young people to drug use and HIV infection in Tripoli, Libya. Structural factors including the increased availability and affordability of drugs, engendered by the social political turmoil, provided the frame within which other factors such as peer influence and limited knowledge of substance use and HIV, operated to increase the vulnerability of young people to drugs and HIV, while religious beliefs and parent-child connectedness act as protective factors.

Our results suggest the urgent need to develop effective strategies for the prevention of drug use among young people in Tripoli (in particular) and Libya (in general). At the structural level, strategies should include controlling national borders to curtail drug trafficking, developing policies that discourage drug trafficking in prisons, and establishing professional drug treatment and rehabilitation centers with harm-reduction services. Educational programs to raise drug awareness and harm reduction programs are most needed in the schools and prisons. At the individual, interpersonal and family levels, interventions should include behavioral, educational, and religious-based strategies. The target should be young people and their families, helping them to build skills and foster bonds to protect against substance use and to help prevent HIV infection.

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Conflict of interest

The author declares no conflict of interests.

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Disparities in Mental Well-being between Non-Minority and Sexual Minority Male Youth in Bangkok, Thailand: Quantitative Findings from a Mixed Method Study

Sakol Sopitarchasak¹, Masahiro Kihara², Kyaw Min Soe³ & Masako Ono-Kihara²

This paper investigates whether there are differences in mental well-being between non-minority and sexual minority adolescents. We also explore the experiences of victimization among sexual minority adolescents, compared to their non-minority peers. While the study used mixed methods, with an initial qualitative phase and a subsequent quantitative phase, this paper focuses on the quantitative findings. Male students from five secondary schools (n=1,250) in Bangkok were asked to answer an online questionnaire. Among all participants, 81.8% identified themselves as non-minority and 12.5% as sexual minority with 5.7% missing or unidentifiable responses. The results indicated a higher risk of depression for sexual minority participants than for non-minority participants (odds ratio: 1.85). Sexual minority participants were also more likely than their non-minority peers to have considered (23.2% vs. 9.8%) or attempted (10.3% vs. 2.9%) suicide, and to have been victimized and/or experienced sexual coercion during the past semester. The findings conform to results from previous studies worldwide. Although a causal relationship cannot be inferred from this study, the disparity in mental well-being can be due to the victimization that sexual minority adolescents experience more frequently than their non-minority counterparts.

Keywords: Adolescents; Depression; Suicide; Victimization; Sexuality

Globally, many studies have reported higher rates of psychological distress, self-harm, suicide, suicide attempts and suicidal ideation among sexual minority populations (Clements-Nolle, Marx & Katz, 2006; Diamant & Wold, 2003; DiStefano, 2008; Fergusson, Horwood, Ridder & Beautrais, 2005; Fitzpatrick, Euton, Jones & Schmidt, 2005; King et al., 2013; Warner et al., 2004). This association is further linked with social discrimination and oppression targeted towards these groups (Diaz, Ayala & Bein, 2001; Warner et al., 2004).

Higher rates of suicidality and compromised mental well-being were also reported among sexual minority adolescents (Consolacion, Russell & Sue, 2004; Galliher, Rostosky & Hughes, 2004; Garofalo, Wolf, Wissow, Woods & Goodman, 1999; Gary Remafedi, Farrow & Deisher, 1991; Russell & Joyner, 2001). According to a meta-analytic study by Marshal et al. (2001), significantly higher rates of suicidality (odds ratio = 2.92) and a higher tendency for depression (standardized mean difference = 0.33) among sexual minority youths than non-minority youths were reported (Marshal et al., 2011).

Meyer (2003) has proposed the minority stress model, where minority status is linked to mental outcomes through distal minority stressors (e.g. discrimination and violence) and proximal minority stressors (e.g. expectations of rejection and concealment). Empirically, compromises in mental health and higher rates of suicidality among sexual minority groups were found to be associated with discrimination and harassment related to their sexual orientation (Birkett, Espelage & Koenig, 2009). It also has been shown by mediation analyses

¹ Thai Health Promotion Foundation, Bangkok, Thailand. Email: sakol@thaihealth.or.th

² Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan.

³ Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand.

that discrimination and victimization account for the association between sexual orientation and depressive symptomatology (Almeida, Johnson, Corliss, Molnar & Azrael, 2009; Burton, Marshal, Chisolm, Sucato & Friedman, 2013; Williams, Connolly, Pepler & Craig, 2005). The situation highlights the concern for sexual minority adolescents' well-being, especially given that adolescence is a critical period; mental disorders experienced during this phase can continue to have an impact in adulthood (Kessler et al., 2005; McEwan, Waddell, Barker & Kirby, 2007).

In Thailand, van Griensven et al. (2004) investigated adolescents' well-being in relation to their sexual orientation, although their study focused heavily on adolescents' sexual health. Another study conducted among secondary school students in Thailand found that students who were bullied tended to do worse in school, were more likely to be depressed and to have attempted suicide (Mahidol University, Plan International & UNESCO, 2014). The study also found that the compromised well-being worsened when bullying occurred because perpetrators thought victims were LGBT as compared to being bullied for other reasons (Mahidol University et al., 2014). Other studies in recent years have also affirmed the worsened mental well-being among sexual minorities in Thailand (Boonkerd & Rungreangkulkij, 2014; Yadegarfar, Meinhold-Bergmann & Ho, 2014).

This study investigates the issue of disparity in mental well-being status between non-minority and sexual minority adolescents in Thailand. It also examines experiences of victimization among sexual minority adolescents, not only by peers but by parents and school staff. In this way the study provides a more holistic picture of the situation that sexual minority adolescents encounter.

Methods

The study used mixed methods, with an initial qualitative phase and a subsequent quantitative phase. The initial qualitative study was conducted to obtain insights for constructing the questionnaire to be used in the following quantitative study. A detailed description of the methodology used in the qualitative phase can be found in a separate published article by Sopitarchasak et al. (2015).

Target population and inclusion criteria. The target population for the study is male adolescents attending secondary schools in Bangkok, Thailand. According to the Ministry of Education, there were 152,439 secondary school students (grades 10 to 12) in Bangkok in 2015. Among those, 64,594 were male students, comprising approximately 11.8% of male secondary school students in the whole country (Ministry of Education, 2016). The inclusion criteria for participants in the quantitative phase included (1) having male sex at birth; (2) currently attending secondary school in Bangkok; and (3) able to read and write Thai fluently.

Sample size and sampling method. A sample size of 1,000 participants was estimated to be adequate for this study, calculated as follows. We hypothesized that sexual minority adolescents' mean score on the Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression scale (CES-D) would be higher than that of non-minority adolescents. From a study utilizing a Thai version of the CES-D, the mean CES-D score for the general population can be approximated at 15.4, with a standard deviation of 6.7 (Trangkasombat, Larpboonsarp & Havanond, 1997). According to a meta-analysis of ten studies in the USA and one study in Thailand that

examined depression among heterosexual and sexual minority youth, the estimate for the overall standardized difference of the mean of the CES-D score between non-minority and sexual minority adolescents was 0.33 (Marshall et al., 2011). Assuming the same results, we predict the CES-D mean score for the sexual minority adolescents to be approximately 17.6. With a significance level set at 5% (two-sided), power at 80%, and assuming the approximate proportion of sexual minority students to be around 10% among the student population⁴, the calculated sample size for the non-minority minority group and the sexual group is 728 and 81 respectively. Thus total minimum sample size obtained by combining the two groups is 809. Considering the possibility of non-responses and invalid answers, it was deemed that a sample size of at least 1,000 participants was required for this study (Chow, Wang & Shao, 2007).

Considering the time limits for the study, participating schools were chosen partly by convenience sampling and partly by purposive sampling. The first three schools (Schools a, b and c) were chosen following convenience considerations because they had previously participated in another research project conducted by project staff. The other two schools (Schools d and e) were selected purposively, by sorting a list of schools in Bangkok according to the number of male secondary school students. The two schools with the highest number of male secondary school students among boys-only and among co-educational schools were then contacted to ask for their permission to participate in the study (four schools in total). Among those, both co-educational schools refused to participate. Teachers responsible for coordinating this project in the two (boys-only) participating schools were then asked to inform all male students (10th-12th grade) about the study and ask for their assent to participate. The number of participants and response rate is shown in Table 1. Only students in the 10th grade in school c and 12th grade in school e were allowed by the schools to participate, due to limitations in their class schedules. This is considered to not influence the results of this study since all students in the entire allowed grades were allowed to participate in the study.

Table 1: Number of Participants and Response Rates

School	Male secondary school students	Allowed target	Participants	Response rate
a	110	110	84	76.4%
b	111	111	72	64.9%
c*	512	157	131	83.4%
d	1,629	1,629	828	50.8%
e**	1,849	305	135	44.3%
total	4,211	2,312	1,250	54.1%

Notes: * Allowed Target: Only for the students in 10th grade; ** Only for half of the classes in 12th grade

Ethical considerations. Written consent was obtained from one of each participants' parents or guardians via Participation Consent Forms which were distributed to students along with the Research Information Sheet by teachers at each school in advance of data collection. Written consent from the students themselves was considered unnecessary, since it was made clear that participation in the study was voluntary and participants gave their verbal assent. The survey was administered in each school's computer rooms during computer classes. Seating arrangements were made so that no participants sat next to one another in order to assure their privacy while taking the survey. This protocol was approved

⁴ A study by Mahidol University et al. (2014) found the proportion of LGBT students to be 11.9%.

by both the Committee for Research on Human Subjects at Kyoto University (E1896) and the IPSR-Institutional Review Board at Mahidol University (No. 2013/1-1-23). In order to protect anonymity, no names or other specific personal information that could be used to identify the participants' identities were asked or recorded.

Data collection and measures. An online computer-assisted self-administered questionnaire was created as a tool for data collection, using Survey Monkey® (<http://www.surveymonkey.com/>), a provider of web-based surveys. The questionnaire was designed based on findings from the qualitative study and was pretested with 25 secondary school students who participated in the qualitative phase before the initiation of data collection. Measures used in this study included:

1) *Demographics* (9 items): Measures of age, religion, current grade, Grade Point Average (GPA), whether they are originally from Bangkok, whether they live with their parents, parents' marital status, whether they are working any part time job, and their daily allowance.

2) *Sexuality* (2 items): Participants were asked to choose their own sexual orientation and self-identified sexual identity from the following choices: gay, *thud*, *katoey*, bisexual, straight, questioning, or other. The Thai terms *thud* and *katoey* are discussed below.

3) *Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression(CES-D) scale: Thai version* (20 items): The CES-D scale was translated into Thai and tested by Worapongsathorn, Pundee, and Triamchaisri (1990). The cut-off point of the CES-D score in this study was set at 22 as suggested by a previous study of Thai CES-D scale by Trangkasombat et al. (1997) (sensitivity=72%, specificity=85%, Cronbach's coefficient alpha = 0.86).

4) *Self-Harm and Suicidality* (3 items): Participants were asked if they have ever committed self-harm, considered suicide, or attempted suicide in the past semester (Yes or No).

5) *Victimization* (14 items): Experiences of victimization during the past semester by teachers, peers, parents, and strangers were asked, as well as sexual coercion, using 5 point scale response options (0:Never, 1:Less than once a week, 2:1-2 days a week, 3:3-4 days a week, 4:5-7 days a week). The question items were:

- (1) Teachers or school staff said something or mocked how I act or talk to disdain or ridicule me.
- (2) Teachers or school staff treated me differently, with prejudice.
- (3) Teachers or school staff physically assaulted me, e.g. kicked, punched, hit me etc.
- (4) Other students called me "fag", "gay", "gold-digger⁵", or other similar names.
- (5) Other students said something or mocked how I act or talk to disdain or ridicule me.
- (6) Other students treated me differently, with prejudice.
- (7) Other students physically assaulted me, e.g. kicked, punched, hit, stomped me etc.
- (8) Other students bullied me by forcibly taking my clothes off.
- (9) My parents disdained or scolded me.
- (10) My parents treated me differently, with prejudice.

⁵ The word "gold" in "gold-digger" is a euphemism for excrement. "Gold-digger" in the Thai context thus is a word used to ridicule sexual minority males, as it refers to sexual intercourse between men.

- (11) My parents physically assaulted me, e.g. slapped, kicked, punched, hit me etc.
- (12) I felt that people were gossiping about me when I was out in public.
- (13) Strangers yelled or made hurtful remarks towards me when I was out in public.
- (14) Somebody forced, or tried to force me sexually.

Scores in each category of victimization (victimization by teachers, peers, parents, in public, and sexual coercion) were summed up, and categorized to four levels (Never/ Low/ Moderate/ High). Responses about sexual coercion were classified into “Never” or “At least once” in the past semester.

Data analysis. Statistical analyses were performed using IBM® SPSS® Statistics Desktop Version 21.0. Descriptive analysis was performed with all variables in order to identify distributions of the data. Consequently, bivariate associations between sexuality and other variables were identified. For depressive symptomatology, a previous study suggested a cut-off point for the Thai version at 22 (sensitivity=72%, specificity=85%), with a Cronbach’s coefficient alpha of 0.86 (Trangkasombat et al., 1997). In the current study, Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was 0.88. Participants who scored 22 or over on the CES-D scale were grouped as “High CES-D,” suggesting a higher risk for depressive symptoms than those grouped as “Low CES-D”, whose scores were below the cut-off point. It is important to note that, although CES-D scale can discriminate well between patients of clinical depression and general population, it is not a diagnostic tool and should not be used as one (Radloff, 1977). The group of participants who score above the cut-off point, hence, should be interpreted merely as a group with higher risk for depression, and the prevalence should *not* be interpreted as the prevalence of illness.

Adolescents who self-identified as gay (n = 27), young transgender⁶ (*thud*) (n = 24), transgender (*katoey*) (n = 18), or bisexual (n = 27), were classified as being in the “sexual minority” group. “Questioning” participants (n=53) were also included in the sexual minority group since there was no difference in their experiences of victimization, depressive symptomatology and other outcomes from other sexual minority students; this is consistent with findings from a previous study (Williams et al., 2005). Among participants who chose “Others” (n = 35) without further specification, only those who answered that they are sexually attracted “only to men”, “mostly to men, but have also felt sexually attracted to women at least once”, “to both men and women”, or “mostly to women, but have also felt sexually attracted to men at least once” in the sexual orientation question item were classified as being in the “sexual minority” group. Those who did not answer both

⁶ Participants of the qualitative phase did differentiate between young transgender and transgender. For details, please refer to an article on the qualitative phase of this study by Sopitarchasak et al. (2015).

questions or whose sexuality could not be identified through the method explained in this paragraph (n = 71) were excluded from this study.

Results

Detailed results of the qualitative study can be found in our earlier article (Sopitarchasak et al., 2015). The qualitative study was used to investigate the male adolescents' understanding of sexual identity and the types of victimization they experienced. Participants were aware of five male sexual identities, which were gay, young transgender (*thud*), transgender (*katoey*), bisexual, and straight. Although sexual orientation was an important part of how they differentiated straight and bisexual from the others, gender expression was also heavily drawn on in distinguishing between gay, young transgender, and transgender. Sexual minority adolescents reported experiencing victimization based on their gender/sexuality in three major environments: at home, at school and in public. At home, they experienced different levels of rejection from parents, ranging from verbal insults to physical assaults such as punching or slapping. At school, they encountered occasional bullying and name-calling by intolerant peers. They also reported some teachers insulting their same-sex attraction and treating them differently in a prejudiced manner. In public, insulting, name-calling, and gossiping from strangers were common. However, they also felt tolerance towards their gender/sexuality had been increasing in school and in public settings in recent years. On the other hand, they perceived more pressure against their gender/sexuality at home. As mentioned above, these qualitative findings were used to develop the quantitative questionnaire.

Overall 1,250 participants completed the quantitative survey. As seen in Table 2, nearly all (96.1%) were 15 to 18 years old. Most (91.5%) regarded themselves as Buddhists. About three quarters of the participants (72.7%) were living with both of their parents, and 18.7% were living with only one of their parents. Among all participants, 81.8% could be identified as sexual non-minority and 12.5% as sexual minority, with 5.7% having missing or unidentifiable responses. There were no significant differences among socio-demographic variables between the non-minority and sexual minority groups, except for the means of Grade Point Average (GPA), where the mean GPA of sexual minority participants (3.38, SD was higher than that of the non-minority participants (Table 2).

Table 2: Percentage distribution of participants' socio-demographic characteristics among non-minority and sexual minority youth

Characteristics		Non-minority (%) (n=1,023)	Sexual minority (%) (n=156)	Total (%) (n=1,179)	<i>p</i> value*
Age	15 or under	16.4	09.6	15.5	0.105
	16	30.2	28.2	29.9	
	17	32.1	37.2	32.7	
	18 or over	21.3	25.0	21.8	
School	a	7.3	5.1	7.0	0.086
	b	6.0	5.8	5.9	
	c	9.6	10.9	9.8	
	d	67.0	60.9	66.2	
	e	10.2	17.3	11.1	
Religion	Buddhism	91.2	93.5	91.5	0.327
	Others	8.8	6.5	8.5	
Current grade	10 th	33.0	27.6	32.3	0.109
	11 th	28.9	25.6	28.5	
	12 th	38.0	46.8	39.2	
Grade Point Average (S.D.)		3.05 (0.70)	3.31 (0.72)	3.08 (0.73)	0.000
Born in Bangkok	Yes	78.5	80.1	78.7	0.642
	No	21.5	19.9	21.3	
Currently living with	Both parents	72.2	75.6	72.7	0.308
	Only mother	14.6	11.5	14.2	
	Only father	4.2	6.4	4.5	
Parents' marital status	None of the parents	9.0	6.4	8.7	0.325
	Married	75.8	75.0	75.7	
	Separated	9.1	12.8	9.6	
	Divorced	9.6	6.4	9.2	
Part-time job	Either or both are deceased	5.6	5.8	5.6	0.300
	Never	67.6	65.4	67.3	
	Not anymore	9.5	13.5	10.0	
	From time to time	10.4	9.0	10.2	
	Only during school break	7.6	5.1	7.3	
	Always	4.9	7.1	5.2	

* For categorical variables, Chi-Square test was used to assess the differences among categories. For Grade Point Average, the only interval variable, t-test was conducted to compare the difference of means.

Overall 235 participants (19.9%) scored 22 or higher (high CES-D) on the CES-D scale (indicating that they were more likely to be clinically depressed). Comparing the two sexuality/gender groups, the prevalence rate of having a high CES-D score was significantly higher in the sexual minority participants (29.5%) than in the non-minority (18.5%). The mean CES-D score among sexual minority adolescents was 17.6, whereas among non-minority participants the mean score was 15.1 (effect size = 0.32). Overall, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha was 0.88.

About 20% of the participants had engaged in self-harm in the past semester. However, there was no significant difference in the prevalence of self-harm between the two groups.

Suicidality was significantly more common in the sexual minority group (Table 3). Nearly one in four (23.2%) sexual minority participants reported having considered suicide while only 9.8% of non-minority participants had done so. Moreover, 10.3% of sexual minority participants had attempted suicide in the past semester, while only 2.9% among the non-minority group had done so.

Table 3: Bivariate analyses of depressive symptomatology, suicidality, and victimization among non-minority and sexual minority groups

		Non-minority (%) (n=1,023)	Sexual minority (%) (n=156)	Total (%) (n=1,179)	<i>p</i> value ‡	OR (95% CI)
Depression	Low CES -D	81.5	70.5	80.1		
	High CES -D	18.5	29.5	19.9	0.001	1.85 (1.24 - 2.70)
Self -harm	No	79.6	80.6	79.8		
	Yes	20.4	19.4	20.2	0.769	0.94 (0.61 - 1.44)
Suicide thought	No	90.2	76.8	188.4		
	Yes	9.8	23.2	11.6	0.000	2.79 (1.82 - 4.27)
Suicide attempt	No	97.1	89.7	96.1		
	Yes	2.9	10.3	3.9	0.000	3.80 (2.02 - 7.16)
Victimization by teachers	Never (0)	47.2	38.5	46.1		
	Low (1 -3)	41.3	44.9	41.7		1.34 (0.92 - 1.93)
	Moderate (4 -6)	10.2	11.5	10.3		1.39 (0.79 - 2.46)
	High (7 -12)	1.4	5.1	1.9	0.004	4.60 (1.85 - 11.42)
Victimization by peers	Never (0)	46.9	23.1	43.8		
	Low (1 -5)	43.6	54.5	45.0		2.54 (1.69 - 3.83)
	Moderate (6 -10)	8.2	14.1	9.0		3.49 (1.96 - 6.23)
	High (11 -20)	1.3	8.3	2.2	0.000	13.33 (5.76 - 30.89)
Victimization by parents	Never (0)	46.2	47.4	46.4		
	Low (1 -3)	43.3	37.2	42.5		0.84 (0.58 - 1.21)
	Moderate (4 -6)	8.4	11.5	8.8		1.34 (0.76 - 2.35)
	High (7 -12)	2.1	3.8	2.3	0.200	1.83 (0.71 - 4.67)
Victimization in public	Never (0)	48.8	26.9	45.9		
	Low (1 -2)	40.7	44.2	41.1		1.97 (1.31 - 2.96)
	Moderate (3 -4)	8.2	18.6	9.6		4.10 (2.42 - 6.95)
	High (5 -8)	2.3	10.3	3.4	0.000	7.92 (3.91 - 16.06)
Sexual coercion	Never (0)	93.6	80.1	91.9		
	At least once (1-4)	6.4	19.9	8.1	0.000	3.66 (2.29 - 5.82)

‡ Chi-Square test

Regardless of victimization category (victimization by peers, teachers, parents, or in public), approximately 10% of participants reported being victimized at a moderate or high level. For victimization by teachers, peers, or strangers, sexual minority participants were more likely to be victimized at a moderate or high level than their non-minority peers (Table 3). In addition, odds ratios of victimization by peers and by strangers increase as the level of victimization escalates (Table 3). The Mantel-Haenszel test for trend also suggested the trends were significant with *p* value less than 0.001. Although no significant difference was found between the two groups in their levels of victimization by parents, when the analyses were conducted for each item within the “victimization by parents” scale items, sexual

minority participants were more likely to have been physically abused by their parents, with 3.2% reporting having been physically assaulted by parents 3-7 days per week in the past semester, compared to 0.6% among the non-minority participants (results not shown). Sexual coercion was relatively common; overall 8.1% of all participants indicated they had experienced this. Sexual minority participants were three times more likely to have been sexually abused at least once in the past semester, compared to the non-minority group (19.9% *vs.* 6.4%). Furthermore, higher levels of victimization in every category and sexual coercion were significantly associated with tendencies of depression, self-harm, suicide thoughts, and suicide attempts (results not shown).

Discussion

This study investigates the issue of disparity in mental well-being status and experiences of victimization between non-minority and sexual minority adolescents in Thailand. We decided to adopt a mixed methods design for this study, which allowed us to utilize findings from the qualitative study to develop the questionnaire used in the quantitative study. The prevalence of higher risk for depression, self-harm, suicidality, and experiences of victimization among the two sexuality groups were explored to investigate the differences among them. The results revealed that sexual minority adolescents were at higher risk for depression and suicidality, and had experienced victimization more heavily than their non-minority counterparts.

The total prevalence of High CES-D was 19.9% in this study, consistent with the result (19%) of a previous study regarding depressive symptoms among male secondary school students in Thailand (Trangkasombat & Rujiradarporn, 2012). When comparing the two sexuality/gender groups, sexual minority participants were almost two times more likely to score over the cut-off point, suggesting a higher risk for clinical depression. This finding is also consistent with results from previous studies outside Thailand, indicating that sexual minority adolescents' mental well-being status in Thailand is also being compromised.

Previous research, including a meta-analytic study, have suggested a strong association between suicidality and being in a sexual minority (Fergusson et al., 2005; Garofalo et al., 1999; Marshal et al., 2011; Remafedi, French, Story, Resnick & Blum, 1998; Russell & Joyner, 2001). This was found to be consistent in our current study as well. Sexual minority participants in this study were almost four times more likely to have attempted, and almost three times more likely to have considered suicide than non-minority youth. Thus we suggest that interventions to prevent suicides among adolescents be focused especially on sexual minority adolescents. However, despite the substantial difference in suicidality

between the two groups, it is of interest that there was no significant differences in the two groups regarding self-harm. Further studies, especially qualitative inquiries, are needed to investigate the reasons behind this phenomenon.

As proposed by Meyer (2003), such compromised mental health outcomes (depression and suicidality) among sexual minority groups may be caused by distal (prejudice events) and proximal (expectation of rejection, concealment, internalized homophobia) minority stress processes. Evidently, sexual minority participants were more likely to be victimized especially by their peers and strangers in public, with significantly higher odds ratios at every level (low, moderate, and high). They were also more likely to be victimized by teachers and physically abused by their parents. These findings are against the common perception that sexual minorities in Thailand are well and widely accepted. Other studies by international agencies also confirm that sexual minorities in Thailand still encounters prejudice, which are rooted from a lack of understanding about diverse sexualities (Suriyasarn, 2014; UNDP & USAID, 2014). The report by the UNDP and USAID (2014) also argued that striving for family acceptance is the biggest issue for sexual minorities in Thailand.

The prevalence of sexual coercion found in this study (8.1%) was slightly higher than that of 6.5% in northern Thailand as reported by Manopaiboon et al. (2003). Sexual minority participants were over three times more likely to have been sexually coerced. The finding was consistent with the previous study by Manopaiboon et al. (2003), which reported the odds ratio of 7.3 (95% CI= 4.0-13.3) for homosexual/bisexual self-identification as a factor associated with sexual coercion. The higher tendency of sexual minority adolescents being sexually coerced raises concern over the higher risks for HIV and other STDs, as condoms are reportedly used less than half the time when sexual coercion occurs (Guadamuz et al., 2011; Manopaiboon et al., 2003). In addition, as many studies have shown, sexual coercion during adolescence is significantly associated with subsequent HIV risk-taking behaviors (Bensley, Van Eenwyk & Simmons, 2000; Brennan, Hellerstedt, Ross & Welles, 2007; Holmes & Slap, 1998; Mimiaga et al., 2009; O'Leary, Purcell, Remien & Gomez, 2003; Senn, Carey, Venable, Coury-Doniger & Urban, 2006)

According to Meyer (2003), such experiences of victimization and sexual coercion are distal minority stressors which can negatively impact mental well-being. In this study, we found a significant association between victimizations/sexual coercion and adverse mental well-being measures. Arguably, it is likely that the greater frequency of victimization and sexual coercion results in worsened mental well-being among the sexual minority participants. Although the results support Meyer's minority stress model, the cross-sectional

nature of the current study limits the ability to infer causal relationships among the variables. Nonetheless, a previous longitudinal study has suggested that higher depressive symptoms and suicidality among sexual minorities are significantly mediated through victimization specific to the sexual minority (Burton et al., 2013).

Although the results from the quantitative study indicated no significant difference in victimization by parents, findings from the qualitative study showed that sexual minority participants felt more pressure at home. Many sexual minority participants during the qualitative study had not yet come out to their parents at the time. Some of those who had not come out to parents mentioned having to be highly careful with their actions and personalities any time they were with parents, in order to hide their sexual identity. Even some of the participants who were already open about their sexual identity to their families mentioned feeling guilty for having disappointed their parents because of their sexual identity. In another study, de Lind van Wijngaarden & Ojanen (2016) have found that gay identity was considered a defect by gay participants themselves who also believed that they needed to make up for such defect by being good persons for their families. According to Meyer's minority stress process, these kinds of stigma concerns, where sexual minority adolescents feel that their sexuality is a defect, are proximal minority stresses which can possibly have adverse effects on mental well-being (Meyer, 2003).

Another issue of interest is the significant difference in the mean GPA between the two sexuality groups. Overall, sexual minority participants' GPA was higher than that of the non-minority. This finding was inconsistent with previous studies abroad which suggested the opposite (Pearson, Muller & Wilkinson, 2007; Rostosky, Owens, Zimmerman & Riggle, 2003). This may possibly be explained by findings from the qualitative phase, where some of the sexual minority participants regarded they had to study hard and do better in order to compensate for their sexuality and not be disrespected. This phenomenon also goes in line with the results of studies by Suriyasarn (2014) and de Lind van Wijngaarden & Ojanen (2016) which found that LGBT and especially transgender persons in Thailand believed that they must work harder than the non-minority persons to earn respect from people around them.

According to Meyer (2003), coping and social support can possibly help alleviate the compromised mental well-being caused by minority stresses. Schools seem to be the most suitable place for supporting programs since adolescents spend most of their time at school. Gay-straight alliances or similar organizations, an inclusive curriculum that includes positive representations of LGBT people, supportive educators, and comprehensive bullying/harassment policies or laws, are recommended by *Gay, Lesbian & Straight Education*

Network (GLSEN) as solutions to provide safe environments for sexual minority students (Kosciw, Greytak, Bartkiewicz, Boesen & Palmer, 2012).

In Thailand, although the Child Protection Act was enacted in 2003, it does not explicitly address bullying. The law's vision is limited to "torture" which it defines as:

...any commission or omission of acts which cause the deprivation of freedom of, or mental or physical harm to, a child; sexual abuses committed against a child; inducement of a child to act or behave in a manner which is likely to be mentally or physically harmful to the child, unlawful or immoral, regardless of the child's consent. (Child Protection Act, B.E. 2546, 2003)

Overall, the law seems to be written with torture as an act conducted by adults to children. As a result, further interpretation is needed if one wants to apply the law to cases of bullying by peers, which is deemed difficult since verbal or emotional abuse especially by peers is not usually perceived as torture and often overlooked. And although the Ministry of Education has established student protection centers in 2012 to holistically assist and help students (Ministry of Education, 2012), currently there is no evidence regarding the mechanism's efficiency in addressing bullying. Furthermore, until now there has not been a formal action taken by professional associations of Thai mental health professions to tackle the issue of mental well-being for sexual minorities (Ojanen, Ratanashevorn & Boonkerd, 2016).

As for developing an inclusive curriculum, comprehensive sexuality education is required to be taught at school by the *Prevention and Remedial Measures for Adolescent Pregnancy Act, B.E. 2559* (Royal Thai Government, 2016). Although the curriculum does include topics regarding sexual minorities, such topics are covered less than they should (UNDP & USAID, 2014).

On the community level, especially within school communities, gay-straight alliances or similar structures do not exist in Thailand. Nor do secondary schools in Thailand have concrete policies to address bullying problems, especially when a bullying event is based on perceived sexual minority status. When measures against bullying exist, they tend to be ad hoc to solve certain bullying cases that emerged, while lacking systematic procedures (Mahidol University et al., 2014).

In fact, many participants from the qualitative phase reported being discriminated against due to their sexuality by teachers, and some also mentioned being prohibited from applying for a scholarship due to their sexuality. Since we found from the qualitative study that sexual minority participants felt more pressure at home, we suggest supporting programs also involve parents or guardians into interventions as well.

There are several limitations to the current study. Since the participants in this study were male secondary school students in Bangkok, Thailand, generalization to other populations in other contexts is not recommended. The cross-sectional nature of the study also limits the ability to make causal inferences between the variables of interest. However, although participating schools were not recruited randomly, and there were schools which refused to participate, the refusals were due to limitation in their class schedules and were considered not to systematically bias the results. Despite several limitations, the nature of this study, which included male secondary school students in the general population regardless of their gender expression and sexuality, allowed us to identify the proportion of male sexual minority adolescents. However, because of the low numbers of participants with specific identities, subgroup analyses within the sexual minority group could not be properly conducted. Future studies that recruit more sexual minority adolescents is needed in order to further investigate risk factors related to adverse mental well-being within the sexual minority population.

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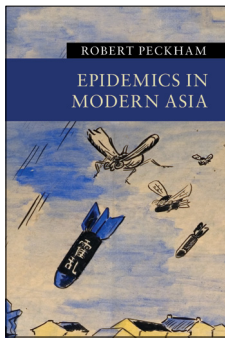
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History and epidemics in modern Asia



Epidemics in Modern Asia
Robert Peckham
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Suddenly the corner of the world map occupied by Asia, formerly painted monochrome, is transformed into a multidimensional colour display with society, culture, economy, and politics as its axes. This display vividly shows how epidemics of infectious diseases, such as plague, malaria, and cholera, as well as the more recent severe acute respiratory syndrome, Nipah virus, and Zika virus outbreaks, contributed—or continue to contribute—to shaping the process of modernisation in Asia, especially east Asia. This is the image that swiftly emerges upon reading *Epidemics in Modern Asia* by Hong Kong-based historian Robert Peckham. Peckham discusses epidemics within the complex and dynamic interplay of social, cultural, economic, and political factors, examining their effects and causes with respect to important aspects of modern Asian history, such as migration, urbanisation, environmental change, war, and globalisation, connecting setting-specific aspects of each country with the broader interregional context. Readers will undoubtedly be absorbed in the changing and vividly described spectacles offered by this book.

Opposing the west-centric historical portrayals of Asia as simply a source of epidemics and the modernisation of Asia as the result of a simple diffusion of knowledge and technologies from west to east, Robert Peckham attempts to describe how disease epidemics have affected or were affected by the process of modernisation, as seen from within Asia. Concurrently, he rejects the trend towards describing the history of disease epidemics in terms of the continental or planetary level, with no borders or local contexts. He avoids the trap of describing Asia as monotone by instead highlighting the specific contexts of each area, recognising well the way that Asian countries have maintained their social and cultural identities during the process of modernisation, even under colonial rule.

Peckham argues against the traditional view of disease epidemics as episodes or events external to mainstream history; instead he tries to place them at the heart of the story. By doing so, his discussion of disease epidemics integrates the social, cultural, economic and political contexts, creating a multidimensional platform. He succeeds by using not only traditional archived materials, but also press reports, written testimonies, documentary films, and movies, including professional and personal accounts, giving a human touch to the stories. By using popular films such as *Contagion* to represent the discourse of the western view of disease epidemics, Peckham gives a sharper image to the discussion.

Epidemics in Modern Asia includes chapters on topics such as mobility, cities, the environment, war, and globalisation, structured around cases studies and selected to reflect key aspects in the process of modernisation in Asia. Rather than standalone blocks, the chapters are tightly interrelated, reinforcing each other while delving deeper into the specific issues that they are intended to address. The book should be credited for its successful presentation of epidemics such as plague, cholera, and others through their multiple facets. For example, while the chapter on mobility describes how the movement of people and goods through expanding commercial trade paths was crucial for the spread of epidemics such as the 1894 plague epidemic in China, it was interesting to learn in the chapter on cities that anxieties over epidemics, particularly the plague epidemic in neighbouring China, were part of the impetus for the urban planning and modernisation of Hanoi, then the capital of Indochina. The discussion of the outbreak of plague in Manchuria in 1910 and 1911 in the chapter on war is an insightful illustration of how epidemics can be entangled in the centre of both medical and geopolitical and military influences, in this case featuring China, Russia, and Japan.

To our knowledge, this is the first book to describe the history of disease epidemics in Asia while integrating the complex social, cultural, economic, and political contexts. This task is prohibitively difficult for epidemiologists who are not specialised in human history, as well as challenging to historians who are generally unfamiliar with the fields of microbiology or epidemiology.

However, there is—as pointed out by Peckham—a danger of overrepresenting the role of epidemics in shaping history by placing them at the heart of the story. Nevertheless, this book is a milestone work that significantly enriches the history of disease epidemics.

This work provides a new model for historians who have an interest in disease epidemics and gives the epidemiologists, who are currently highly medicalised, the opportunity to appreciate the foresight of Rudolf Virchow, a giant in the field of bioscience in Germany in the 19th century and the father of modern pathology, as well as one of the founders of modern public health, who stressed the importance of understanding social, cultural, economic, and political context of epidemics and the social actions needed to tackle them.

Patou Masika Musumari, Teeranee Techasrivichien, S Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara, Masahiro Kihara

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Structural and Behavioral Correlates of HIV Infection among Pregnant Women in a Country with a Highly Generalized HIV Epidemic: A Cross-Sectional Study with a Probability Sample of Antenatal Care Facilities in Swaziland

Bhekumusa Wellington Lukhele^{1*}, Teeranee Techasrivichien¹, S. Pilar Suguimoto^{1,2}, Patou Masika Musumari¹, Christina El-saaidi¹, Samson Haumba³, Oslinah Buru Tagutanazvo⁴, Masako Ono-Kihara¹, Masahiro Kihara¹

1 Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, School of Public Health, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan, **2** Center for Medical Education, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan, **3** Center for Human Services, University Research Co., LLC, Mbabane, Swaziland, **4** Department of Midwifery Science, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Swaziland, Mbabane, Swaziland

* bhekie.l@gmail.com



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Abstract

Introduction

HIV disproportionately affects women in Sub-Saharan Africa. Swaziland bears the highest HIV prevalence of 41% among pregnant women in this region. This heightened HIV-epidemic reflects the importance of context-specific interventions. Apart from routine HIV surveillance, studies that examine structural and behavioral factors associated with HIV infection among women may facilitate the revitalization of existing programs and provide insights to inform context-specific HIV prevention interventions.

Methods and Findings

This cross-sectional study employed a two-stage random cluster sampling in ten antenatal health care facilities in the Hhohho region of Swaziland in August and September 2015. Participants were eligible for the study if they were 18 years or older and had tested for HIV. Self-administered tablet-based questionnaires were used to assess HIV risk factors. Of all eligible pregnant women, 827 (92.4%) participated, out of which 297 (35.9%) were self-reportedly HIV positive. Among structural factors, family function was not significantly associated with self-reported HIV positive status, while lower than high school educational attainment (AOR, 1.65; CI, 1.14–3.38; $P = 0.008$), and income below minimum wage (AOR, 1.81; CI, 1.09–3.01; $P = 0.021$) were significantly associated with self-reported HIV positive status. Behavioral factors significantly associated with reporting a positive HIV status included; ≥ 2 lifetime sexual partners (AOR, 3.16; CI, 2.00–5.00; $P < 0.001$), and ever cohabited (AOR,

2.39; CI, 1.66–3.43; $P = 0.00$). The most cited reason for having multiple sexual partners was financial gain. HIV/AIDS-related knowledge level was high but not associated to self-reported HIV status ($P = 0.319$).

Conclusions

Structural and behavioral factors showed significant association with self-reported HIV infection among pregnant women in Swaziland while HIV/AIDS-related knowledge and family function did not. This suggests that HIV interventions should be reinforced taking into consideration these findings. The findings also suggest the importance of future research sensitive to the Swazi and African sociocultural contexts, especially research for family function.

Introduction

According to the World Health Organization, HIV/AIDS-related death is the worldwide leading cause of death among women of reproductive age [1]. Globally, 15% of women living with HIV in 2013 were of age 15–24 years, of whom 80% lived in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) [2]. Within the SSA region, the burden of HIV among women of age 15–49 years varies considerably; 7.6% in Kenya (2014) [3], 16.9% in Namibia (2014) [4], 19.0% in South Africa (2015) [5] and Swaziland bears the highest HIV prevalence of 38.8% (2011) [6]. The majority (62%) of all new infections in Swaziland occur among women [7]. HIV prevalence in Swaziland is higher among women aged 18–49 years (38.8%) compared to their male counterparts of the same age group (23.1%), and particularly high among women aged 30–34 years old, 54% compared to 37% in men of the similar age group [6]. Although there have been reports of a decline in HIV prevalence among women in southern Africa [8,9], at best, the epidemic in Swaziland seems to have only stabilized [6,10].

Young women's vulnerability to HIV

Young women's vulnerability to HIV could be attributed to several factors. First, families have great influence among young women. Studies show that lack of parental monitoring, poor parent-child communication, and low cohesion among family members are associated with increased HIV risky sexual behavior [11–16]. Second, research has shown a strong link between HIV/AIDS and poverty. Frequently, poverty drives girls and women to exchange sex for food or basic amenities and cause a day-to-day existence dominated by immediate survival needs and indifference to high HIV risk sexual behaviors [17–21]. Furthermore, most young women growing up in economically deprived families have little access to schooling and few future prospects, therefore, find themselves coerced into sexual activity with older working men for survival [22,23]. Third, behavioral factors such as; early sexual debut [24–27], inconsistent condom use [28–30], multiple sexual partnerships (concurrent and serial) [31–33], poor sexual-decision making under the influence of alcohol [34–36] and others, have shown to increase HIV vulnerability among young women. Lastly, there is extensive literature identifying biological factors putting women at particularly higher risk of HIV compared to men. As pointed out by Ramjee and colleague “women have a greater vaginal mucosal surface area exposed to pathogens and infectious fluid for longer periods during sexual intercourse, and that young women are particularly at higher risk due to cervical ectopy which facilitates greater exposure of target cells to trauma and pathogenesis in the vagina [9]”.

Review of previous studies in Swaziland

In Swaziland, there are limited studies specifically focusing on HIV vulnerability among young women. Existing research has focused on men who have sex with men [37], sex workers [38], in-school youth [39] and the general population [40,41]. Studies on young women have either been qualitative [42–44] -which are suited to exploring risks at in-depth levels, but, fall short in quantifying risk- or sentinel surveillance studies using face-to-face interviews [45] which afford less privacy and anonymity and thus likely increase motivational bias [46,47]. This study aims to investigate HIV risk factors between HIV negative and HIV positive young women to provide empirical evidence specific to Swaziland. To achieve this goal, we studied pregnant women attending antenatal care since the median age at first birth is 19.8 years [48] and the majority (98.5%) of pregnant women access antenatal care services in Swaziland [49]. We used simple two-stage cluster sampling and self-administered computer-assisted data collection technique to overcome shortcomings of prior research.

Methods

Ethical considerations

This study was conducted according to the ethical principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. The research protocol was approved by the Kyoto University Faculty of Medicine and Graduate School of Medicine, Ethics Committee, Japan (R0073) and the Swaziland Scientific and Ethics Committee, Swaziland (MH/599C/FWA00015267/IRB0009688). All participants signed a written informed consent. One USD (1\$) was offered to each participant as compensation for taking part in our study.

Study setting

Swaziland, is a small land-locked country situated in Southern Africa. Its area is approximately 17 364 km² with an estimated population of 1 287 050 (2015), of which about 76% reside in rural areas [50]. Swaziland is divided into four administrative regions: Hhohho, Manzini, Lubombo, and Shiselweni region. The number of health facilities that provide antenatal care services to pregnant women per region is as follows: 52 in Hhohho, 63 in Manzini, 38 in Lubombo and 30 in Shiselweni [50]. In the Hhohho region, of all the facilities which offer antenatal health services, 78.8% are public and the rest (21.2%) are private facilities. The Hhohho region was selected as our study setting since it has the highest generalized HIV prevalence in the country; 27.8% in Hhohho, 21.9% in Shiselweni, 20.7% in Manzini, and 20.5% in Lubombo [40].

Participants

Our study targeted pregnant women who were ≥ 18 years old, had tested for HIV and were attending antenatal care services at facilities in the Hhohho region for the first time during the study period. We calculated the sample size following the approach proposed by Kohn et al and Hulley et al [51,52]. We based the calculation on results from the sentinel surveillance report which showed that 41% were HIV positive and 59% were HIV negative [45], to detect the difference in parental monitoring proportion of 28% and 52% [53] among HIV positive and negative participants respectively at $\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.2$. Based on these, a total sample size of 149 (for both groups) was sufficient to detect this difference. Taking into consideration the complex sample design effect of 2.0 [54], we inflated the sample size by a factor of two, resulting in a sample size of 298.

We further increased the sample size to 596 by multiplying by a factor of two to ensure the statistical power is enough for multivariate analysis. Finally, the sample size was adjusted to 894, assuming a response rate of two-thirds due to the sensitive nature of our questionnaire.

Survey instrument

A self-administered structured questionnaire was developed in English based on the review of Swazi and international literature [47]. To improve the initial draft [47], we conducted a preliminary qualitative study during February–March 2015 using semi-structured in-depth interviews among 37 pregnant women recruited through purposive sampling. We recruited pregnant women in their 3rd trimester to ensure that they would not be re-sampled for the current subsequent quantitative study. This initial step served several aims [55]. First, it allowed us to explore in-depth the sexual histories and ease of recalling those histories. Second, it enabled us to resolve language discrepancies to improve the translated draft. Lastly, it provided insights into recruitment issues. As described in our previous work, “the modified draft was then converted into an electronic format compatible with internet-enabled tablets, designed to be user-friendly and intuitive even for those participants not familiar with electronic devices” [47]. Using the tablet-based questionnaire, we piloted the instrument among 14 pregnant women (from a health facility not included in our survey sites) to test for face validity, skip logic, user interface, time to complete the survey and the upload-download functionality of the software.

The final survey instrument ([S1 Questionnaire](#)) consisted of a question on HIV status and seven domains: sociodemographic characteristics (6 items), schooling characteristics (2 items), HIV/AIDS-related knowledge (8 items), childhood household ownership of durable assets (19 items), obstetric characteristic (1 item), family characteristics (33 items) and sexual history characteristics (13 items). The family characteristics domain contained three items about parental characteristics and three subscales about family function: a) family cohesion subscale (8 items, Cronbach’s alpha = 0.63), b) parental monitoring subscale (6 items, Cronbach’s alpha = 0.67), and c) parent-child communication subscale (16 items, Cronbach’s alpha = 0.83). The domain of sexual history characteristics explored the current and past sexual behavior. Items on HIV/AIDS-related knowledge and sexual histories were in part taken from the Swaziland Demographic Health Survey [40]. In the absence of a locally validated family function scale, we adapted items from Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales IV (FACES IV) [56] as well as the Parent Monitoring Scale [53]. The instrument was translated into the local language (siSwati) by the bilingual researcher BWL and back-translated by another independent researcher to minimize translation dissonance.

Study design and sampling

The survey was a cross-sectional study using a simple two-stage cluster sampling strategy following Levy and Lemeshow [57]. The National Monitoring and Evaluation Office at the Ministry of Health in Swaziland facilitated us with the list of all 52 health facilities providing antenatal care services in the Hhohho region. Each facility was considered as a cluster in our study. In the first stage, we selected 10 clusters using simple random sampling without replacement. In the second stage, we enumerated 41 working days during August and September 2015, excluding Swazi Holidays and weekends, to serve as listing units. Then, we selected one working day to serve as a start date for the survey using simple random sampling. We estimated that twenty working days were sufficient to cover our desired sample size and prevent bias due to variations in weekly cycles. All pregnant women presenting at the 10 health facilities (10 clusters) from the random start date (17 August 2015) were consecutively screened for

eligibility and invited to participate in the study. Recruitment took place throughout working hours in all facilities.

Data collection

To ensure high-quality data collection, we recruited nurses as field staff and provided them with a two-day intensive training; one day at a central location and another day at the data collection site. The field staff was trained on ethical considerations, aims and objectives of the study, the tablet use, and how to integrate the survey within patient flow. We followed a similar protocol for our previous research [47], having our field staff carry the print outs of screenshots of the electronic questionnaire to be able to read out loud and guide participants who had proficiency challenges without the field staff having to see their responses. BWL supervised data collection.

Statistical analysis

Sample weights and design effect. All statistical analyses were carried out using Complex Sample module of SPSS version 21 to account for the two-stage cluster sampling. We considered our sample self-weighted because, even though the selection of antenatal care clusters was done through simple random sampling at the first stage, at the second stage, pregnant women were consecutively sampled from all walk-in eligible potential participants, ensuring the sample size was potentially proportional to the total number of pregnant women attending each facility [54]. We calculated point estimates (proportions), their standard errors (SEs), and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) accounting for cluster sample design [57,58]. The magnitude of the inflation in variance was measured as the design effect, defined as “the ratio of the actual variance of a sample to the variance of a simple random sample of the same number of elements” [59].

Childhood household wealth index. Childhood household wealth index was developed according to the procedure described by Vyas and Kumaranayake [60]. Briefly, participants were asked if their childhood household had any of the 19 durable assets listed in the questionnaire (refer to [S1 Questionnaire](#)). Having the asset was coded as “1” and not having the asset as “0”. The data was then analyzed using principal component analysis (PCA) which revealed that the first component included 10 items and accounted for 25.5% of all variance. Childhood household wealth index was defined as the total score of these 10 items weighted with the factor load of each item. After that, we ranked the participants into quintiles from poorest to the wealthiest according to their total score [61].

Family function. Family function consisted of three subscales (refer to [S1 Questionnaire](#)), to measure family cohesion, parental monitoring and parent-child communication, as previously stated. All responses of these subscales were 5-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. In the analysis, responses were coded in the same direction such that higher scores represented “better family function” on all responses. For each subscale, we calculated the composite score, which was further divided into quintiles ranging from the lowest to the highest.

HIV/AIDS-related knowledge. HIV/AIDS-related knowledge included eight questions (refer to [S1 Questionnaire](#)). The total score was summed (min 0—max 8) ([S1 Table](#)) and later categorized as either “high” (correct response ≥ 7) or “low” (correct response ≤ 6).

Bivariate and multiple logistic regressions. Bivariate analysis was performed using Chi-square tests for categorical variables to determine associations between HIV status and other variables. Factors that were significantly associated with being HIV positive at P value ≤ 0.10 were considered candidates to be included in the multiple logistic regression analysis. To

provide a better fit for our multiple logistic regression model, we polychotomized continuous variables since their distributions were nonlinear. Out of 21 factors associated with HIV status at P value ≤ 0.10 in the bivariate analysis, 7 were excluded based on epidemiological importance or because they were subset questions of upstream questions like “currently in a polygamous marriage” a subset question for those who reported being married. There was no evidence of multicollinearity and singularity among the remaining factors. All 14 factors were compulsorily entered into the multivariate model to calculate the adjusted odds ratios (AORs) to assess the magnitude of independent association of these predictors with a self-reported HIV positive status.

Results

Of 894 eligible pregnant women invited to participate, 827 participants completed the study (response rate of 92.5%). The median age was 25 years; the youngest respondent was 18 years old and the oldest 43 years old. [Table 1](#) displays the characteristics of respondents. About half of the respondents had completed at least secondary school (51.3%) and had ever dropped out of school (54.7%). Only 14.6% had ever stayed at a boarding school. The majority (84.9%) lived below Swaziland's monthly minimum wage (approximately \$110 USD), did not have formal employment (58.2%), and were never married (58.5%). Most participants identified correct responses to HIV/AIDS-related knowledge questions, correct responses ranged from 83.1% to 96.0% ([S1 Table](#)).

Prevalence of self-reported HIV status by characteristics of participants

Overall, self-reported HIV prevalence was 35.9%. As displayed in [Table 1](#), those who reported an HIV positive status were more likely to be older ($P < 0.001$), have lower than high school educational attainment ($P = 0.001$), have ever dropped out of school ($P < 0.001$), be self-employed ($P = 0.052$), lived below Swaziland's monthly minimum wage ($P = 0.039$), never stayed at a boarding school ($P = 0.005$), have had a lower childhood household wealth index ($P < 0.001$), in a polygamous union ($P = 0.041$), had two or more lifetime number of sexual partners ($P < 0.001$), had multiple sexual partners (MSP) in the past 12 months ($P = 0.001$), used condom at last ($P = 0.001$) and first sex ($P = 0.004$), had sexual debut at 17 years or younger, experienced intergenerational sex at sexual debut ($P = 0.025$), had ever cohabited ($P < 0.001$), did not know their first or current partner's HIV status ($P = 0.005$ or 0.042), and had ever experienced forced sex ($P = 0.006$). Marital status, religious services attendance, planned pregnancy, parental cohesion, parental monitoring parent-child communication, father with polygamous union or partners having MSP, ever had sex under the influence of alcohol and high HIV/AIDS-related knowledge were not significantly associated with a reported positive HIV status ($P > 0.05$).

Bivariate associations between independent variables and self-reported HIV status

As shown in [Table 2](#), factors significantly associated with self-reported HIV status included older age 25–34 years [Crude Odds Ratio (COR), 2.88; CI, 1.85–4.48; $P < 0.001$] and 35–43 years (COR, 1.97; CI, 1.39–2.79; $P < 0.001$) compared to 18–24 years, lower than high school educational attainment (COR, 2.00; CI, 1.47–2.71; $P < 0.001$), level of income less than Swaziland's monthly minimum wage (COR, 1.76; CI, 1.03–3.02; $P = 0.040$), lower childhood household wealth index (COR, 1.92; CI, 1.45–2.54; $P < 0.001$), ≥ 2 lifetime number of sexual partners (COR, 4.30; CI, 2.97–6.24; $P < 0.001$), condom use during last sex (COR, 2.40; CI, 1.56–3.70; $P < 0.001$), no condom use at first sexual debut (COR, 2.03; CI, 1.32–3.10; $P < 0.001$), ≤ 17 years

Table 1. Descriptive and bivariate factors associated with HIV infection.

		Total N = 827	% of total	HIV positive	% HIV positive	Complex SE	DEFF	P value
Demographic Variables								
Age groups								
	18–24	391	47.3	95	24.3	2.5	1.59	<0.001
	25–34	356	43.0	171	43.0	3.6	2.31	
	35–43	80	9.7	31	38.8	3.9	0.64	
Marital status								
	Single	416	50.3	147	35.3	2.7	1.62	0.794
	Married	325	39.3	116	35.7	3.2	1.80	
	Cohabiting	68	8.2	26	38.2	8.5	2.60	
	Ever been married(Divorced and separated)	18	2.2	8	44.4	11.4	0.76	
Level of education								
	Low (<High School)	422	51.0	184	43.6	2.1	0.94	0.001
	High (≥High School)	405	49.0	113	27.9	2.4	1.34	
Employment status								
	Employed	198	23.9	72	36.4	4.3	1.93	0.052
	Not employed	481	58.2	173	36.0	2.1	1.18	
	Student	63	7.6	13	20.6	5.3	1.36	
	Self employed	85	10.3	39	45.9	5.4	1.26	
Level of income								
	≤Minimum wage	702	84.9	265	37.8	1.9	1.35	0.039
	>Minimum wage	125	15.1	32	25.6	4.7	1.76	
Religious services attendance								
	At least once a week	724	87.5	271	37.4	2.3	2.07	0.165
	At least once a month	48	5.8	12	25.0	7.5	1.79	
	At least once a year	17	2.1	6	35.3	9.4	0.81	
	Less than once a year	13	1.6	3	23.1	9.7	0.85	
	Never	25	3.0	5	20.0	6.6	0.84	
Schooling characteristics								
Boarding school ^a								
	Yes	61	7.4	9	14.8	4.4	1.18	0.005
	No	740	89.5	275	37.2	1.9	1.36	
Ever dropped out of school								
	Yes	452	54.7	199	44.0	1.9	0.82	<0.001
	No	375	45.3	98	26.1	2.0	0.96	
Childhood household wealth index								
Childhood household wealth index								
	Lower wealth (≤Medium)	496	60.0	207	41.7	2.4	1.41	<0.001
	Higher wealth (>Medium)	331	40.0	90	27.2	2.5	1.27	
Obstetric characteristic								
Planned pregnancy								
	Yes	312	37.7	110	35.3	3.5	2.12	0.817
	No	515	62.3	187	36.3	2.6	1.93	
Family characteristics								
Family function								
Family Cohesion								

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

		Total N = 827	% of total	HIV positive	% HIV positive	Complex SE	DEFF	P value
	Lowest	178	21.5	70	39.4	6.1	3.39	0.750
	Low	149	18.0	53	35.6	2.8	0.61	
	Medium	160	19.3	55	34.4	1.7	0.25	
	High	164	19.8	56	34.2	3.6	1.17	
	Highest	176	21.3	63	35.8	4.8	2.21	
Parental Monitoring								
	Lowest	150	18.1	55	36.7	4.0	1.26	0.532
	Low	212	25.6	83	39.2	2.4	0.64	
	Medium	144	17.4	52	36.1	2.8	0.61	
	High	182	22.0	64	35.2	4.0	1.59	
	Highest	139	16.8	43	30.9	5.3	2.22	
Parent-Child Communication								
	Lowest	165	20.0	58	35.2	5.7	2.86	0.759
	Low	171	20.7	62	36.3	3.1	0.87	
	Medium	177	21.4	58	32.8	4.1	1.67	
	High	158	19.1	61	38.6	3.4	0.98	
	Highest	156	18.9	58	37.2	5.0	2.03	
Parental Characteristics								
Father had polygamy								
	Yes	272	32.9	108	39.7	3.9	2.15	0.281
	No/ don't know	555	67.1	189	34.1	2.7	2.18	
Parents had multiple sexual partners								
	Yes	301	36.4	113	37.5	3.3	1.76	0.434
	No/ don't know	526	63.6	184	35.0	2.1	1.22	
HIV related death of a family member								
	Yes	430	52.0	171	40.0	2.2	1.062	0.001
	No	397	48.0	126	31.7	2.4	1.269	
Sexual History								
Currently in a polygamous union ^b								
	Yes	27	3.3	14	51.9	9.8	1.28	0.041
	No	298	36.0	102	34.2	2.7	1.19	
Lifetime number of sexual partners								
	1	208	25.2	31	14.9	1.8	0.68	<0.001
	≥2	619	74.8	266	43.0	2.6	2.05	
Multiple sexual partners in the past 12 months								
	1	709	85.7	239	33.7	1.9	1.36	0.001
	≥2	118	14.3	58	49.2	4.2	1.03	
Perceived reason for multiple sexual partnerships								
	Lust	130	15.7	46	35.4	4.7	1.55	0.007
	Financial benefit	394	47.6	143	36.3	2.3	1.10	
	Fear of disappointment from current partner	95	11.5	45	47.4	5.4	1.34	
	Sexually unsatisfied with current partner	40	4.8	13	32.5	3.5	0.27	

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

	Total N = 827	% of total	HIV positive	% HIV positive	Complex SE	DEFF	P value
Looking for adventure	30	3.6	8	26.7	7.2	0.98	
Peer Pressure	25	3.0	3	12.0	3.3	0.33	
Lack of knowledge of risks of HIV	78	9.4	30	38.5	3.4	0.48	
Get tempted to have sex	27	3.3	4	14.8	4.1	0.45	
Other	8	1.0	5	62.5	9.6	0.39	
Condom use at last sex							
Yes	336	40.6	161	47.9	3.7	2.25	0.001
No	491	59.4	136	27.7	2.4	1.70	
Condom use at first sex							
Yes	401	48.5	111	27.7	2.1	1.13	0.004
No	426	51.5	186	43.7	3.6	2.74	
Age at sexual debut							
≤17	327	39.5	132	40.4	3.4	1.91	0.025
>17	500	60.5	165	33.0	1.6	0.71	
Intergenerational sex at sexual debut							
>10 years older	120	14.5	54	45.0	3.4	0.69	0.026
<10 years older	707	85.5	243	34.4	2.3	2.05	
Ever cohabited							
Yes	228	27.6	121	53.1	3.2	1.20	<0.001
No	599	72.4	176	29.4	2.0	1.44	
Knew first sexual partner's HIV status							
Yes	211	25.5	43	20.4	4.2	2.55	0.005
No	616	74.5	254	41.2	2.5	1.77	
Know current sexual partner's HIV status							
Yes	598	72.3	195	32.6	2.3	1.77	0.042
No	229	27.7	102	44.5	4.6	2.45	
Ever experienced forced sex							
Yes	251	30.4	106	42.2	2.5	0.81	0.006
No	576	69.6	191	33.2	2.4	1.91	
Ever had sex under the influence of alcohol							
Yes	110	13.3	47	42.7	5.4	1.63	0.107
No	717	86.7	250	34.9	1.9	1.45	
HIV/AIDS related knowledge level							
High (≥7)	650	78.6	238	36.6	2.6	2.28	0.319
Low (≤6)	177	21.4	59	33.3	2.1	0.48	

Complex SE = Standard error of estimate under complex sampling analysis.

DEFF = Design effect.

^b = "currently in a polygamous union" was asked only among those who were married (n = 325).

^a = "boarding school" excluded those who did not complete primary education (n = 801).

P value was calculated using the second-order Rao-Scott adjusted chi-square statistic.

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Table 2. Factors associated with reported HIV positive status by binary logistic and multiple logistic regression among 827 respondents.

		COR	95% CI ^a	P value	AOR	95%CI	P value
Age groups							
	18–24	Ref			Ref		
	25–34	2.88	1.85–4.48	<0.001	2.38	1.65–3.43	<0.001
	35–43	1.97	1.39–2.79	<0.001	1.31	0.72–2.37	0.380
Level of education							
	Low (<High School)	2.00	1.47–2.71	<0.001	1.65	1.14–3.38	0.008
	High (≥High School)	Ref			Ref		
Level of income							
	< Minimum wage	1.76	1.03–3.02	0.040	1.81	1.09–3.01	0.021
	≥Minimum wage	Ref			Ref		
Childhood household wealth index							
	Lower wealth (≤Medium)	1.92	1.45–2.54	<0.001	1.28	0.88–1.84	0.194
	High wealth (>Medium)	Ref			Ref		
Lifetime number of sexual partners							
	1	Ref			Ref		
	≥2	4.30	2.97–6.24	<0.001	3.16	2.00–5.00	<0.001
Condom use at last sex							
	Yes	2.40	1.56–3.70	<0.001	2.92	2.08–4.10	<0.001
	No	Ref			Ref		
Condom use at first sex							
	Yes	Ref			Ref		
	No	2.03	1.32–3.10	<0.001	1.56	1.10–2.22	0.012
Age at sexual debut							
	≤17	1.37	1.11–1.80	0.034	1.07	0.75–1.53	0.708
	>17	Ref			Ref		
Intergenerational sex at sexual debut							
	>10 years older	1.56	1.10–2.29	0.030	1.43	0.91–2.26	0.126
	<10 Years older	Ref			Ref		
Ever cohabited							
	Yes	2.72	2.00–3.69	<0.001	2.39	1.66–3.43	<0.001
	No	Ref			Ref		
Knew first sexual partner's HIV status							
	Yes	Ref			Ref		
	No	2.74	1.46–5.16	0.005	1.57	1.02–2.42	0.039
Know current sexual partner's HIV status							
	Yes	Ref			Ref		
	No	1.66	1.21–2.27	0.042	1.47	1.02–2.12	0.038
Ever experienced forced sex							
	Yes	1.47	1.15–1.89	0.006	1.10	0.77–1.58	0.601
	No	Ref			Ref		
HIV related death of a family member							
	Yes	1.42	1.20–1.68	<0.001	1.10	0.78–1.52	0.632
	No	Ref			Ref		

95% CI^a = 95% confidence intervals adjusted for cluster sampling in SPSS complex sampling module.

COR = Crude Odds Ratio.

AOR = Adjusted Odds Ratio.

Ref = Reference category.

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old at sexual debut (COR, 1.37; CI, 1.11–1.80; $P = 0.034$), intergenerational sex at first sexual debut (COR, 1.56; CI, 1.10–2.29; $P = 0.030$), ever cohabited (lived with a man as if married) (COR, 2.72; CI, 2.00–3.69; $P < 0.001$), knew first sexual partner's HIV status (COR, 2.74; CI, 1.46–5.16; $P = 0.005$), know current sexual partner's HIV status (COR, 1.66; CI, 1.21–2.27; $P = 0.042$), ever experienced forced sex (COR, 1.47; 1.15–1.89; $P = 0.006$) and HIV related death of a family member (COR, 1.42; CI, 1.20–1.68; $P = 0.001$).

Multivariate analysis

As shown in [Table 2](#), factors strongly associated with HIV in the multiple logistic regression analysis included; 25–34 age group [Adjusted Odds Ratio (AOR), 2.38; CI, 1.65–3.43; $P < 0.001$], lower than high school educational attainment (AOR, 1.65; CI, 1.14–3.38; $P = 0.008$), and level of income less than Swaziland's monthly minimum wage (AOR, 1.81; CI, 1.09–3.01, $P = 0.021$). Those who had ≥ 2 lifetime number of sexual partners were over 3 times more likely to report being HIV positive (AOR, 3.16; CI, 2.00–5.00; $P < 0.001$) followed by those who reported condom use during the last sex (AOR, 2.92; CI, 2.08–4.10; $P < 0.001$) and no condom use at first sex (AOR, 1.56; CI, 1.10–2.22; $P = 0.012$). Ever cohabited (AOR, 2.39; CI, 1.66–3.43; $P < 0.001$), did not know first partner's HIV status (AOR, 1.57; CI, 1.02–2.42; $P = 0.039$) and does not know current partner's HIV status (AOR, 1.47; CI, 1.02–2.12; $P = 0.038$) were significantly associated with self-reported HIV infection. We found that childhood household wealth index, sexual debut at ≤ 17 years of age, intergenerational sex (first sexual partner ≥ 10 years older) and HIV-related death of a family member were not significantly associated with HIV infection.

Discussion

In this study, we explored the association of structural and behavioral factors with self-reported HIV status among pregnant women in Swaziland, a country having the highest generalized HIV epidemic in the world. The high access rate to antenatal care services in Swaziland (98.5%) and high acceptance of HIV testing during antenatal care visits (95.3%) enabled us to assess HIV status without burdening participants with an additional HIV test [49]. Our study revealed that 36% of pregnant women were self-reportedly HIV positive with a peak rate of 52.3% in the age group of 30–34 years. Our findings are corroborated by recent national household survey data which showed that 39% women were HIV positive with a peak of 54% among the age group of 30–34 years, suggesting that our sample is unlikely biased in this respect [6]. We found that family function and HIV/AIDS-related knowledge had no significant statistical association with self-reported HIV infection whereas lower educational attainment, lower income, and certain sexual behaviors were significantly associated with self-reported HIV infection.

Familial factors

One of our study's most important findings was that family function (family cohesion, parental monitoring and parent-child communication) was not significantly associated with self-reported HIV status, even after controlling for other factors such as economic status. Though evidence from most published literature shows a significant association between constructs of family function with sexual reproductive outcomes such as sexually transmitted infections [11,12,62–66], we did not find such an association in our study.

There may be several reasons for this. First, family cohesion, parental monitoring, and parent-child communication may not have major influence on HIV infection risk in Swazi's context where the living arrangement and family structure are mainly of the extended family type [67] with generally higher family function compared to western societies. Western societies

predominantly consist of nuclear family types and individualistic life styles [68], and many of the current studies were conducted in these contexts. The second reason may be that our participants were too homogenous in terms of family characteristics to detect such an association. In this case, future studies assessing family characteristics using cluster sampling should consider maximizing heterogeneity among participants by reducing samples within clusters and increasing the number of clusters as suggested by Kish [59]. Third, pregnant women may recall their personal childhood family circumstances and relationship differently, mediated by emotional and psychological changes induced by the current pregnancy. Fourth, it is possible that existing family function scales are not sensitive enough to detect Swazi or African specific family function. If this is the case, there is a need for the development of more culturally specific assessment scales to assess family function in future research.

The only familial factor associated with HIV infection was the HIV-related death of a family member. Since participants having a family member who was infected with HIV appeared less likely to have multiple lifetime sexual partners ($r = -0.135$, $P < 0.001$), it is possible that such association is not due to residual effect of statistically unadjusted sexual behavior but may be due to a more frequent HIV testing among participants with such family history.

Education and financial status

There was a clear inverse dose-response relationship between educational attainment and HIV infection; the higher the education attainment, the lower the reported HIV positive rate (40–50% rate among those with only up to primary or secondary education and 16.8% among those who had tertiary education). The association between education and HIV infection remained significant in the multivariate analysis. Educational attainment has long been recognized as a protective factor by the World Bank and since 2004 by the Global Coalition On Women and AIDS (UNAIDS Initiative) which have advocated for the exemption of school fees and the encouragement of HIV prevention education in schools [69,70]. As a result, every Swazi child is entitled to free primary school education in public schools. This policy has obvious positive outcomes as 95.3% of girls of schooling age are now able to read and write [71]. However, our results suggested that keeping girls in school only until primary education may still be insufficient to reduce the risk of HIV infection and further suggesting the amendment of national policy to safeguard girls' school enrollment until high school. Moreover, though enrolled in the education system, as much as 55% of participants reported to have dropped out due to lack of financial support (30%, S2 Table). As reviewed by Hardee and colleagues, girls face numerous barriers to stay in school such as lack of money to buy uniforms and textbooks. In addition, inadequate sanitary facilities also discourage girls to attend school especially during menstruation [19]. Such poor attendance may lead to low academic performance resulting in dropouts later on. Efforts should ensure not only to encourage higher educational attainment but also the uninterrupted school attendance among Swazi population, particular the girls, as such interventions have shown effectiveness in HIV risk reduction in the neighboring South Africa [28].

Regarding economic factors, ecological indices such as the Gross National Income has been shown to be inversely related to national HIV prevalence in SSA [72]. Similarly, at the individual level, a higher HIV prevalence is well documented in women with lower economic status [21,73,74]. In addition, it is evident that economic empowerment and cash transfer interventions targeting women have resulted in lower risky sexual behaviors [19,20,75]. Furthermore, a recent analysis in South Africa showed that cash or cash-in-kind reduced HIV risk among girls by mitigating pathways of poverty that increased their vulnerability [76]. While there is plenty of anecdotal evidence suggesting a link between poverty and HIV in Swaziland,

empirical evidence from studies with methodological rigor are limited [10,77] prior to our study. Though Miller and colleagues identified models of transactional sex in Swaziland indicating possible mechanisms through which low income might lead to HIV risk, the research is not an epidemiological study [78]. In our study, we found a clear dose-dependent relationship between lower economic status and HIV infection with both current cash income and childhood household wealth index. While the latter index lost statistical significance in the multivariate analysis probably because of the relatively strong association it had with level of education ($r = 0.39$), childhood household wealth index may contribute to HIV vulnerability through poor educational attainment. In other words, while current low income may directly put women in socially vulnerable situation to HIV infection, childhood household wealth status may also affect HIV infection through limited education opportunities. However, further research should seek to identify these mechanisms to design appropriate interventions relevant to the Swazi context. We hope that this evidence will allow for better prioritization of HIV prevention interventions that focus on economic empowerment of women.

Sexual behavior-related factors

Many of the sexual-related factors identified to increase the risk of HIV infection in this study have been well documented in previous studies in many countries including those in SSA. In our study, ≥ 2 lifetime number of sexual partners was the most prevalent (75%) and a powerful predictor of HIV infection (AOR > 3). It is important to note that half of the women who had MSP cited financial benefit as a reason; strongly suggesting that poverty perpetuates the practice of MSP in Swaziland. Ever cohabiting was also found to be a strong predictor of HIV infection (AOR > 2) and associated with the highest HIV prevalence (53%). In recent years, cohabiting is on the rise in Swaziland due to the inability of men to pay bridal payment (dowry) as a pre-requisite of marriage (a practice prominent in Swaziland) leading men to cohabit with multiple women for longer period of time, thus increasing unprotected coital frequency which results in an increased risk of HIV infection [9,79]. An alarming finding in the Swazi context, is the fact that 75% and 30% of women had first sex and last sex respectively without knowing their partner's HIV status and had an elevated risk for HIV infection (AOR = 1.6 and AOR = 1.5). As a country with a highly generalized HIV epidemic, as high as 30–40% on average in both men and women [6], revitalization of campaigns to promote safe sex with a partner of unknown HIV status, as well as support programs to encourage couple testing and HIV status disclosure should be prioritized.

HIV/AIDS-related knowledge

Finally, HIV/AIDS-related knowledge level was generally high: 80–90% of respondents correctly identified that a healthy looking person can be HIV positive, the risk of HIV infection can be reduced by avoiding MSP and using condoms. This suggests that young women in Swaziland are engaging in HIV risky behaviors not because of lack of knowledge. Due to the cross-sectional nature of our study, it could be argued that respondents may have recently gained HIV/AIDS-related knowledge during recent antenatal care visits and thus, their past risky sexual behaviors were primarily due to lower knowledge levels prior to antenatal checkups. Nonetheless, our data does not support this view since only 9.4% of respondents reported “lack of knowledge of HIV risks” as a reason for MSP. Furthermore, high HIV/AIDS-related knowledge has been previously reported in national surveys; e.g. 80–90% of women in the Swaziland Demographic Health Survey (2007) correctly identified ways to reduce HIV infection [40]. This is also consistently true among all age ranges, counter-arguing the concern that young people may not have had adequate information before their sexual debut, hence, thrusting

them into risky behaviors. Data from the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (2010) is in concordance, demonstrating that the general public is well-equipped with adequate knowledge [41]. For these reasons, risky behaviors are unlikely due to lack of knowledge but most likely because of low income and low educational attainment as discussed above. As demonstrated by our findings, the gap between knowledge and practice is yet of great concern. The Extended National Multisectoral HIV and AIDS Framework has pointed this out by stating that “HIV and AIDS awareness and knowledge has not translated into the desired levels of behavior change due to inadequate personal risk perception that focus on translating knowledge into action” [10] noted in 2012. As the gap is still largely predominant in our findings, therefore the country urgently needs more innovative strategies and revitalization of existing ones because interventions centered on HIV/AIDS-related knowledge alone may not be sufficient to deter women from engaging in HIV risky sexual behavior.

Strengths and limitations

This study was designed to maximize internal and external validity. First, the study was conducted in the region where HIV prevalence among pregnant women is highest. Second, simple two-stage cluster sampling was adopted to ensure the representativeness of pregnant women with a systematic effort to maximize response rate (92%). Third, appropriate statistical procedures were adopted to adjust for clustering effect on the variances of point estimates. Fourth, the study was conducted using self-administered questionnaire with internet-enabled tablet devices to minimize interviewer bias and socially desirable responses on the sensitive issues of HIV status, income and sexual behavior. In spite of these efforts, this study has some limitations. First, recall bias could have been introduced since our questionnaire asked retrospective factors such as first sex and childhood household belongings. Second, contamination of socially desirable answer is still possible to sensitive questions. Third, cause-effect relationship cannot be inferred due to its cross-sectional nature. Lastly, this study may not fully represent all women of reproductive age in Swaziland since women using contraceptives were not included therefore, the generalization of these findings should be done with caution.

Conclusion

Family function did not appear to increase the risk for self-reported HIV status among pregnant women attending antenatal care in our study. However, given the scarcity of studies exploring the role of family function in the specific context of the Swazi HIV epidemic, we recommend further studies. Taken altogether, our study showed that risky sexual behavior was unlikely due to the lack of HIV/AIDS-related knowledge but due to structural factors such as education and economic situation. Therefore, besides programs that promote HIV knowledge and safer sexual practice, interventions that address structural factors by ensuring opportunities for higher education and by providing sustainable financial support to young women should be promoted.

Supporting Information

S1 Table. Descriptive and bivariate statistics for HIV related knowledge items. Descriptive and bivariate statistics for HIV/AIDS related knowledge items associated with self-reported HIV infection. Complex SE = Standard error of estimate under complex sampling analysis. DEFF = Design effect. P value calculated using the second-order Rao-Scott adjusted chi-square statistic (DOCX)

S2 Table. Descriptive frequency statistics for reason of dropping out of school. This table shows distribution of reasons for dropping out of school and self-reported HIV infection.* Where excluded because they were considered too young to reliably know the reason for dropping out of school since they did not complete primary school education (DOCX)

S1 Dataset. Dataset of this study,
(SAV)

S1 Questionnaire. siSwati and English version of the questionnaire.
(DOCX)

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization: BWL MK MOK.

Data curation: BWL.

Formal analysis: BWL TT SPS CE PMM MK MOK.

Investigation: BWL SH OBT.

Methodology: BWL MK.

Project administration: BWL SH OBT MK MOK.

Supervision: MK.

Validation: BWL MK.

Writing – original draft: BWL MK.

Writing – review & editing: BWL TT SPS PPM CE SH OBT MOK MK.

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Protocol

Efficacy of Mobile Serious Games in Increasing HIV Risk Perception in Swaziland: A Randomized Control Trial (SGprev Trial) Research Protocol

Bhekumusa Wellington Lukhele, MPH; Patou Musumari, MD, PhD; Christina El-Saaidi, MPH; Teeranee Techasrivichien, MSc, PhD; S. Pilar Suguimoto, MD, PhD; Masako Ono Kihara, PhD; Masahiro Kihara, MD, PhD
Kyoto University, Department of Global Health and Socio Epidemiology, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

Corresponding Author:

Bhekumusa Wellington Lukhele, MPH
Department of Global Health and Socio Epidemiology
Frontier Laboratory Bldg, 2nd Fl.
Kyoto University School of Public Health Yoshida Konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku
Kyoto, 6068501
Japan
Phone: 81 757534350 ext 4350
Fax: 81 757534349
Email: bhekumusa.lukhele.36x@st.kyoto-u.ac.jp

Abstract

Background: The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) continue to be a major public health problem in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), particularly in Swaziland, which has the highest HIV prevalence in this region. A wide range of strategies and interventions have been used to promote behavior change, though almost all such interventions have involved mass media. Therefore, innovative behavior change strategies beyond mass media communication are urgently needed. Serious games have demonstrated effectiveness in advancing health in the developed world; however, no rigorous serious games interventions have been implemented in HIV prevention in SSA.

Objective: We plan to test whether a serious game intervention delivered on mobile phones to increase HIV risk perception, increase intention to reduce sexual partnerships, and increase intention to know own and partners HIV status will be more effective compared with current prevention efforts.

Methods: This is a two-arm randomized intervention trial. We will recruit 380 participants who meet the following eligibility criteria: 18-29 years of age, own a smartphone running an Android-based operating system, have the WhatsApp messaging app, live in Swaziland, and can adequately grant informed consent. Participants will be allocated into a smartphone interactive, educational story game, and a wait-list control group in a 1:1 allocation ratio. Subsequently, a self-administered Web-based questionnaire will be issued at baseline and after 4 weeks of exposure to the game. We hypothesize that the change in HIV risk perception between pre- and post-intervention assessment is greater in the intervention group compared with the change in the control group. Our primary hypothesis is based on the assumption that increased perceived risk of HIV provides cues to engage in protective behavior. Our primary outcome measure is HIV risk perceived mean change between pre- and post-intervention compared with the mean change in the wait-list control group at 4-weeks post-intervention. We will use standardized regression coefficients to calculate the effect of the intervention on our primary outcome with *P* values. We will conduct both intention to treat and as treated analysis.

Results: This study is funded by Hayao Nakayama Foundation for Science & Technology and Culture; Grant number H26-A2-41. The research and development approval has been obtained from Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee, Japan, and Swaziland's Ministry of Health Ethics and Scientific committee. Results are expected in February 2017.

Conclusions: This study will provide evidence on the efficiency of a mobile phone interactive game in increasing HIV risk perception in Swaziland. Our findings may also be generalizable to similar settings in SSA.

Trial Registration: University Hospital Medical Information Network Clinical Trial Registry ID number (UMIN-CTR):UMIN000021781; URL:https://upload.umin.ac.jp/cgi-open-bin/ctr_e/ctr_view.cgi?recptno=R000025103 (Archived by WebCite at <http://www.webcitation.org/6hOphB11a>).

KEYWORDS

eHealth; mHealth; gamification; Internet; HIV prevention; innovation

Introduction

It is estimated that 35.3 million people are living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) globally [1]. Sub-Saharan African (SSA) is the most affected region and the disease burden varies considerably between countries. In Swaziland, a land-locked, lower-middle income country surrounded by South Africa and Mozambique, HIV prevalence is estimated to be 26% among men and women of 15-49 years [2]. The overall HIV prevalence among the reproductive age population (18-49) has remained unchanged between 2006 and 2011 at 31% [3,4]. A recent, longitudinal, cohort study between December 2010 and June 2011 has estimated the incidence of HIV at 1.7% in men and as high as 3.1% in women [5]. Unprotected heterosexual transmission accounts for 94% of all new infections in the country [6]. More specifically, multiple concurrent partnerships have been identified as key drivers of HIV infection in Swaziland [6]. A recent qualitative study found that social and structural factors played a role in creating an enabling environment for high-risk sexual partnerships, and these factors included social pressure and norms, a lack of social trust, poverty and a desire for material goods, and geographical separation of partners [7].

Other key drivers have been highlighted in the Extended National Multi-sectoral HIV/AIDS Framework for 2014–2018 (eNSF) as: low rates of HIV testing (only 40% of people aged 15-49 had tested for HIV 12 months preceding a household survey) [8]; early sexual debut; low levels of medical male circumcision; and low HIV risk perception [8,9].

HIV is the leading public health concern in Swaziland [4]. National efforts have emphasized the scale-up of a combination of prevention approaches including: HIV testing and counseling, social behavior change communication, medical male circumcision, and HIV care and antiretroviral services. Despite this cocktail of prevention approaches, risky behaviors remain high. For example, Bicego and colleagues [4] note that there is still a low/late uptake of HIV testing services by men, which is consistent with late entry into care and treatment. Furthermore, according to the Swaziland Demographic Health Survey of 2006/07 and the Multiple Indicator Survey of 2010, the overall prevalence of multiple sexual partners remained unchanged at approximately 11% between 2006 and 2010 (data recalculated) [9,10]. On another note, the eNSF 2014-2018 points out that the Swaziland Social and Behavior Change strategy developed in 2010 has had limited success in facilitating desired levels of behavior change most importantly influencing personal HIV risk perception that focus on translating HIV awareness into protective action [8]. Beliefs about personal risk of HIV infection are central to motivate people to engage in behaviors that reduce their risk of HIV infection [11]. The Swaziland HIV testing and counseling guidelines includes HIV risk assessments to enhance self-perception of risk [12]. Models such as the Protection Motivation Theory and the Health Belief Model offer

insights into the significance of perceived risk in adopting protective behavior. To date, there has been limited randomized control trials aimed at influencing how people perceived their risk of HIV in Swaziland.

Furthermore, anecdotal information suggests that there is information fatigue from the target audience in receiving HIV prevention messages from the mass media because most prevention campaigns have been dominantly delivered through mass media. One strategy that can break this perceived fatigue is the use of target audiences' mobile phones. In developing countries, decreasing costs and increasing mobile network coverage provide a wide range of opportunities for apps using mobile phones [13]. Although comprehensive up to date data for mobile phone usage in Swaziland is limited, mobile phone penetration is estimated at 87% [14]. Our consultative meeting with the only mobile carrier in Swaziland revealed that there are currently 206,880 smartphones on the mobile network (as of June 2015). Therefore, our study seeks to use serious games delivered via mobile smartphones to engage the target audience in creative ways to increase personalization of HIV risk.

In this study, we adopt the definition of Serious Games as proposed by Alvarez and Djaouti [15], "a computer application whose intended purpose is to coherently combine both serious aspects such as, but not limited to teaching, learning, communication, or information, with game playing aspects from video games." These combined serious aspects and playing aspects form a utilitarian scenario, which in computer terms uses a sound and graphics package, a story and appropriate rules, and is therefore distinct from simple entertainment [15]. Alvarez and Djaouti [15] summarize this definition by the following relationship:

Utilitarian scenario + gaming scenario => Serious Games.

Current literature suggests that serious games are effective in changing behavior. For example, a randomized trial (in the United States) designed to improve treatment adherence among 13- to 29-year-old patients with malignancies including acute leukemia, lymphoma, and soft-tissue sarcoma found that among 200 participants who were prescribed oral trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole and 6-mercaptopurine, 16% indicated an increase in adherence for the serious games intervention group compared with the control group. Mixed-effect linear model analyses of chemotherapy metabolite concentrations showed that patients in the intervention group maintained significantly higher chemotherapy metabolite levels over time than did patients in the control group (significant group \times time interaction; $P=.002$) [16]. Additionally, another clinical trial conducted in the United States among 935 males who had sex with males between 18- and 24-years old aimed at reducing risky sexual behavior and sexual shame, found that exposure to a serious games intervention led to immediate shame reduction for those in the serious games intervention group compared with the control group (mean [M]= -0.08 , standard

deviation [SD]=0.51, n=437 compared with M=0.07, SD=0.54, n=484, respectively; the difference was statistically significant at $t_{(919)}=4.24, P< .001$ [17]. Despite the success of serious games in advancing health, no randomized intervention trials have been conducted in HIV prevention in SSA or in Swaziland. To address these research gaps, our goal is to design a serious game to increase HIV risk perception and use randomization to evaluate the efficacy of this intervention among 18- to 29-year-old people in Swaziland.

Methods

Study Design and Hypotheses

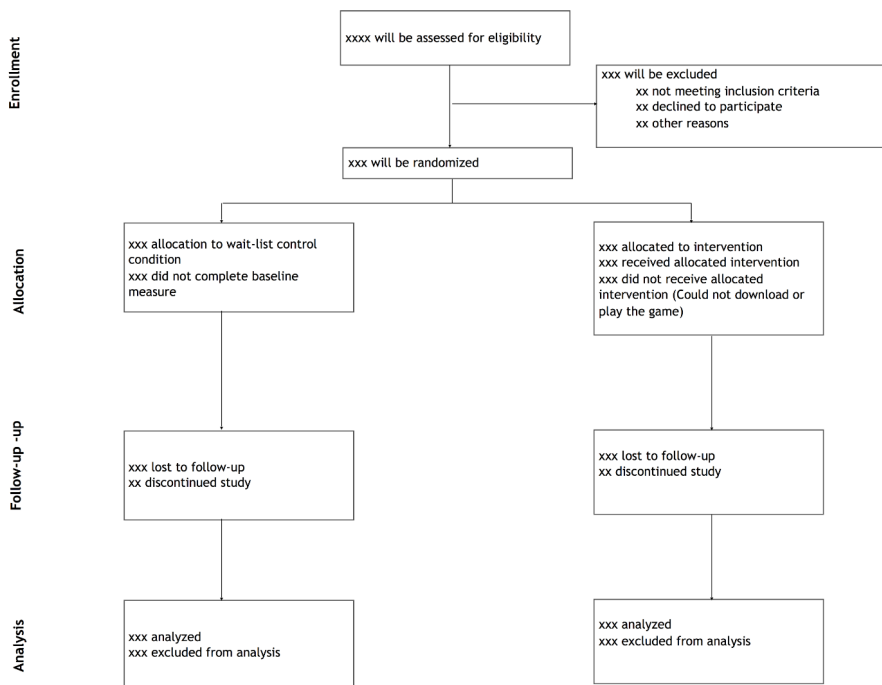
The Swaziland Serious Games–Based HIV Prevention Trial (SGprev trial) will be a 4-week, two-arm randomized intervention trial. Participants will be randomized into 2 groups (the intervention group and a wait-list control group) in a 1:1 allocation ratio (Figure 1) [18]. The intervention will be downloadable from our website, on the Google Play store, and in popular cellular shops around Swaziland. These cellular shops already serve as distribution sites for other mobile software and apps, such as antiviruses, Opera mini, and WhatsApp, and are thus very popular in Swaziland. Additionally, the game will also be available from kiosks in all tertiary institutions in the country. Downloading the game will not be synonymous with enrolling in the trial. After downloading the game, potential participants will be redirected or prompted to visit our website

where information about the trial and eligibility screening will be provided.

We plan to test whether a serious game intervention delivered on mobile phones to increase HIV risk perception, increases the intention to reduce multiple sexual partnerships, intention to know own HIV status, and intention to know all sexual partners' HIV status will be more effective compared with current prevention efforts. Therefore, our hypotheses are that

1. The change in HIV risk perception between pre- and post-intervention assessment is greater in the intervention group compared with the change in the control group.
2. The change in HIV risk perception between pre- and post-intervention assessment will be greater among those reporting high HIV risk behavior in the intervention group compared with the control group.
3. The change in intention to have an HIV test between pre- and post-intervention assessment will be greater in the intervention group compared with the change in the control group.
4. The change in intention to reduce multiple concurrent partnerships between pre- and post-intervention assessment will be greater in the intervention group compared with the change in the control group.
5. The intervention group will report higher rate of condom use in the last sexual encounter compared with the control group.

Figure 1. CONSORT diagram for Swaziland serious games-based trial.



Participants, Setting, and Intervention

Our target population is Swazi males and females between 18- to 29-years old currently in Swaziland. Our intervention study targets people between 18- and 29-years old for the following reasons: (1) according to Bicego and colleagues [4], young

people between this age group are most vulnerable to HIV because of their low HIV-testing behavior, (2) our primary study recruitment platform will be Facebook because the majority of mobile phone users in Swaziland also use Facebook, and (3) in our formative research (unpublished work, 2014) we found that this age group is likely to use smartphones and be literate on

navigating the Internet compared with younger than 18-years-old or older than 29-years-old participants. Moreover, this age group is likely to find the SwaziYolo game entertaining.

Inclusion Criteria

For this study, we will include males and females if they meet the following criteria: (1) are between 18 and 29 years of age, (2) own a smartphone running an Android-based operating system, (3) currently have the WhatsApp messaging app, (4) currently live in Swaziland, and (5) are able to adequately grant informed consent.

Sampling Method

To recruit participants, we will post a targeted (based on our inclusion criteria), clickable banner advertisement on Facebook. After clicking on the advertisement, potential participants will be redirected to our website. Those who meet our eligibility criteria and have granted informed consent will be sent a unique trial verification code via text message and email. This unique trial verification code will be used to take our survey. Moreover, participants eligible for this trial will be entered into a lottery draw with a 1:100 chance of receiving US \$20.

Study Setting

The Kingdom of Swaziland, situated in Southern Africa, is a small land-locked country, the area of Swaziland is estimated to be 17,364 km² with an estimated population of 1,146,050 (2006) [19]. According to Facebook there are currently approximately 160,000 people on Facebook, of those, 97,000 of them are man and women between the ages of 18- and 29-years old. Our primary recruitment site will be Facebook. Facebook is one of the most widely used social networking platforms in Swaziland and allows for targeted advertisements specifically to send people to our website. These two factors make Facebook an ideal platform to reach the Internet population in Swaziland. Participants do not need to be Facebook users to participate in the trial because our website can be accessed directly from the Internet. Participants will not be discouraged to share the study website link on other platforms, such as WhatsApp, Instagram, Email, and others.

Description of the Intervention

SwaziYolo (a smartphone game) is an interactive, educational story game that puts the player in the role of a young adult looking for love in Mbabane (the capital city of Swaziland), making important choices about relationships and sexual health (see [Multimedia Appendix 1](#) for an overview of the steps taken in developing the intervention). The intervention is guided by cognitive-based approaches such as the Theory of Planned Behavior to target intentions to engage in HIV protective behavior [20-22] and the Health Belief Model to target perceived susceptibility of acquiring HIV infection [20]. While capitalizing on elements of serious games such as immersion, role-playing,

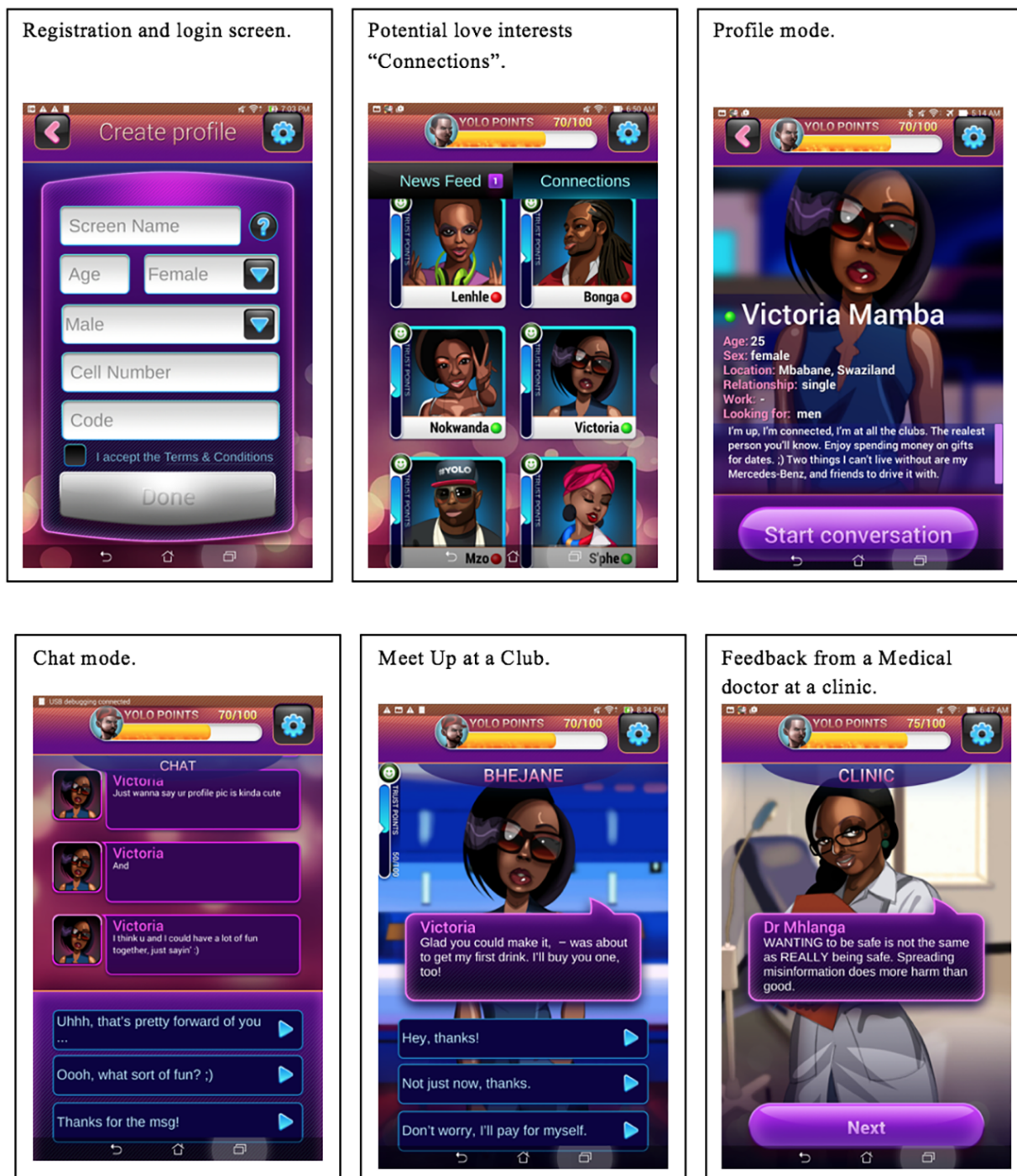
and a dynamic storyline, the game exists in two major parts: the first is set in an imaginary social network called SwaziYolo, which is meant to resemble a combination of existing tools like Facebook, OKCupid, and Whatsapp. Here, players register (registration and login screen), view pictures (potential love interests “Connections” screen) and profiles of potential love interests (profile mode screen), and have Web-based chats (chat mode screen) with various characters. The other half of the game takes place in various made-up locations around Mbabane, such as nightclubs and cafes (meet up at a club screen) where players regularly go on dates referred to in the game as “meet-ups.” In both parts of the game, players are regularly required to choose between several courses of action to progress a conversation or storyline with a friend or love interest (chat mode screen). The decisions they make will influence the opinions and behavior of other characters, as well as the player’s own health and safety. Eventually, feedback is given based on choices made (feedback from a medical doctor at a clinic screen). In the game, the various character dialogues and scenes, will address the issues identified in our formative research such as HIV risk perception, raising knowledge of their own HIV status as well as a sexual partner’s HIV status, reducing multiple concurrent sexual partnerships, and consistent condom use.

The goal of the game is to maintain relationships with the characters, while staying healthy and happy. Once all the interactions with the characters have been completed, the game will give feedback on choices made and the risks those choices might carry. The game is expected to have an immense appeal to the youth, as an exciting new way to use their smartphones (see [Figure 2](#) for the actual SwaziYolo screenshots). Participants in the wait-list control condition will complete the baseline and the immediate posttest measures as those in the SwaziYolo intervention condition, but will not play the game until the post-intervention assessment.

Game Play

Player’s curiosity to “know what happens when they make a choice” is key to user engagement. The game’s narrative is primarily concerned with matters of sexual health, especially as it relates to HIV. Players will usually find themselves in situations where they have to make important decisions about their health, for example, resisting the pressure to have unprotected sex. The game keeps track of how well a player’s relationship is going with other characters using “TRUST” ratings (intimacy ratings), and a “YOLO” rating: how safe (safe relates to making choices that do not expose player to HIV risk) they have been during the course of the game. While players enjoy game play, they are exposed to valuable learning situations and are encouraged to care more about the various characters. Some will give good advice, while others will find themselves in difficult situations where they ask other players for help and guidance.

Figure 2. SwaziYolo screenshots.



Sample Size Calculation

The trial will be powered on the primary outcome measure and based on comparison of the change in HIV risk perception score from pre- to post-intervention assessment in the intervention group at 4 weeks. A study conducted in Uganda estimated mean HIV risk perception of $M=3.27$, $SD = 1.03$, therefore, we used this estimation as our baseline mean and SD to calculate our effect size [21]. Assuming a moderate effect size of 0.477 (identified by Chu et al [22]), alpha (two-tailed)=0.05, beta=0.20, with 1:1 allocation ratio between both groups, and a SD of the outcome in the population of 1.03, the total sample required to sufficiently power the study would be 146 (73 for

each group). Moreover, assuming a 30% loss to follow-up rate [15], we then inflated the sample by 30% to yield a sample of 190. After that, we considered gender differences and once more inflated the sample by a factor of 2 to give a final sample size of 380. Finally, to ensure a balance between males and females in both groups we will recruit 190 females and 190 males. The sample size was calculated using Web-based sample size calculation software [23,24].

Randomization

Upon confirmation of participants’ trial registration, participants will be assigned another unique code called “game unlock code,” which will be used for randomization using secure, remote,

Web-based computer software within 24 hours of recruitment. As stated in the research design, participants will be randomized into 2 groups; the intervention group and the wait-list control group in a 1:1 ratio. The data analysis team will be blinded in this study, however, participants will not be blinded.

Measurement Instrument

A self-administered structured Web-based questionnaire was created based on review of both Swazi and international literature. For example, questions relating to sociodemographic characteristics were adopted from the 2007 Swaziland Demographic Health Survey, and those related to risky sexual behavior and intention to change behavior were developed from our formative studies. Additionally, the Perceived Risk of HIV Infection Scale (PRHS; found to have excellent internal consistency Cronbach alpha=0.88) [11] will be used to assess the primary outcome of this study. Past research has used a variety of approaches to measure HIV risk perception including single likelihood assessments [21,25]. The 8-item PRHS scale incorporates items assessing cognitive assessments of risk (eg, chance of infection), as well as intuitive assessments (eg, feeling vulnerable, worry, gut feeling about likelihood), and salience of risk (eg, thought about risk, can picture it happening) to provide a more comprehensive measure of perceived risk of HIV infection, thus our choice to use this scale. The questionnaire will be converted into a Web-based format accessible via a link. Detailed variables assessed by the

questionnaire are described in the section below and the questionnaire is presented in [Multimedia Appendix 2](#). The trial tools were piloted among respondents known to the principal investigator, who will not be part of the main trial, in order to assess Web-based eligibility screening functionality; user verification; participant randomization functionality; questionnaire skip logic functionality; and the average length of time it takes to complete the questionnaire.

Primary Outcome Measure

Adding one or more comparison groups to a pre- and post-intervention assessment will result in a stronger intervention design than having a single intervention group to a pre- and post-intervention assessment [26]. Therefore, the primary intervention outcome will be the change in HIV risk perception score from pre- to post-intervention assessment in the intervention group compared with the change in the wait-list control group. High perception is considered to be the first stage toward behavioral change and has been associated with HIV protective HIV behavior [27,28]. HIV risk perception using the PRHS will be used to measure the primary outcome at baseline and at 4-weeks follow-up.

Secondary Outcomes Measure

The secondary outcomes for this intervention are self-reported intention to have an HIV test; intention to reduce multiple concurrent sexual partnerships; and an increase in reported condom use in the last sexual encounter ([Table 1](#)).

Table 1. Secondary outcome measures.

Measures	Baseline	Follow-up at 4 weeks
Sexual reproductive history		
Condom use in the last sex	X ^a	X
Number of sexual partners	X	X
Intent to change behavior		
Intention to test for HIV and know partners' HIV status	X	X
Intention to reduce multiple concurrent partnerships	X	X
Intention to use a condom	X	X
Steady sexual partner's history		
Has current sexual partner ever tested for HIV?	X	X
Knowledge of current partner's HIV status	X	X
Demographics		
Age	X	
Level of education	X	
Employment status	X	
Income level	X	
Marital status	X	
Ever tested for HIV	X	X
Contact information		
Cellphone number and email	X	
User experience		
Would you recommend the game to your friends?		X
How did you hear about this game?		X
Number of times player reached the end of the game		X
Level of satisfaction about the game		X

^aTiming of assessment.

Data Collection Procedures

Baseline Data Collection

Participants will be recruited from Facebook users in Swaziland via a targeted Facebook advertisement. Potential participants will be directed to the study Web page where information about the intervention trial will be given and if willing, screening for eligibility will be done. After screening for eligibility, eligible individuals interested in participating in the trial will have an opportunity to ask detailed questions via free text message service offered by the WhatsApp app, Facebook messenger, or calling us. Sufficient time will be allowed for making an informed decision about participation in the study. Recruitment into this study will continue until our sample size is achieved.

After informed consent, a trial verification code will be sent to the participants via their mobile phones to prevent multiple identities in line with the CONSORT-EHEALTH guidelines 4a(ii) [29]. Upon confirmation of the unique verification code, participants will be enrolled in the trial and randomized into a control or intervention group. Subsequently, participants will be asked to answer the baseline Web-based questionnaire. In

addition to study variables, contact information in the form of cellphone numbers will be collected at baseline to facilitate location of the research participants in the 1-month follow-up period [23,30]. The detailed questionnaire is outlined in [Multimedia Appendix 2](#).

Four-Weeks Follow-Up Data Collection

Trial participants will be followed-up for 4 weeks, the game will collect log data and send this data to our servers when the participant goes on the Internet, this will allow us to assess the exposure to the intervention without over burdening our participants to manually send us their usage data. Data captured will be limited to login data. In addition to this, a Web-based questionnaire will be sent to participants at the end of the follow-up period. Participants who will miss their 4-week follow-up assessment will be actively traced through phone calls and text messages.

Data Management and Statistical Analysis

Data Quality Assurance

First, Web-based questionnaires must be usable even for less experienced and knowledgeable Internet users [31], therefore

we will exploit specific technical possibilities offered by open source Web-based questionnaires, such as visually highlighting buttons and predefined input fields. Additionally, we will use help features and input checks to assist participants when filling out the Web-based questionnaire. Beyond this, we will pilot test all filters and instructions given in the questionnaire. Second, to limit undesired multiple participation [32], either at baseline assessment or follow-up assessment, “sessions” will be used together with a verification code that participants will receive upon giving informed consent. Third, a specific problem that is faced by Web-based surveys is that respondents may “click through” the questionnaire, a phenomenon that becomes apparent when the interview is completed in less than the theoretical minimum time [31], therefore, the responses will be checked for plausibility and consistency and inconsistent records will be documented and censored from the final analysis.

Baseline Characteristics

Initially, descriptive statistics for the sample characteristics will be done for the intervention group and the wait-list control group to assess the distribution of important predictors of the outcome between both groups at baseline.

Primary Outcome Measure: HIV Risk Perception Score

First, we will use bivariate analysis to calculate the mean between baselines and follow-up. Next, to estimate the difference between the 2 groups, we will calculate the difference between the mean change of the intervention group and the mean change of the wait-list control group using two-sample paired *t* test. We will not perform interim analysis.

Secondly, in the case that, even after randomization, we observe some baseline differences, we will use multiple linear regression to adjust for those differences; where the outcome will be the follow-up score and the independent variables will be the intervention group, baseline scores, age, gender, marital status, level of education employment status, current monthly income, and number of times players played SwaziYolo. We will present our results in standardized regression coefficients for the intervention effect on the outcome variable as previously done for this type of hypothesis [25].

Although great effort will be put to minimize attrition, it is common for eHealth trials to typically have substantial attrition [26]. For this reason, our primary outcome analysis will prioritize analysis of the subjects who adhered to their group assignment and were sufficiently exposed to the intervention. Therefore, both pre-protocol analysis (as treated analysis) as well as intention to treat analysis will be done and both results will be reported. The approach of conducting both “intention to treat analysis” together with “as treated analysis” has been observed in literature for example, Weinstein and colleagues [33] followed this approach in their randomized trial comparing surgical versus nonoperative treatment for lumbar disk herniation.

Secondary Outcome Measures

Two-sample generalization McNemar’s test will be done to assess whether a significant change occurred between the pre- and the post-intervention assessments for dichotomous variables

such as: intention to know self and partners HIV status, intention to reduce multiple sexual partners, and intention to use a condom the next time a participant has sexual intercourse. Each of these, outcomes will be assessed separately (individually). In order to judge the change, we will calculate the proportions of the dichotomous variable pre- and post-intervention in both groups. After that, we will obtain the pre- and post-intervention difference percentage at a *P* value within group and a *P* value in the intervention versus waitlist control group. This technique is documented by Katz [26]. Additionally, we will conduct a subgroup analysis of those with low-risk perception who report no condom use at last sexual encounter. This subgroup analysis will give us a more nuanced insight of the effect of the intervention to the most at risk subgroup in our study.

Informed Consent

All participants will be required to give Web-based informed consent (Multimedia Appendix 3) before participation in the study. An online forum via Facebook and WhatsApp will be setup to allow participants to ask questions related to this research. They will be informed about the purpose of the study, its strict confidentiality, importance, and voluntary nature of their participation, their right to end the participation at any time without having to state a reason. Lastly, participants will be informed that the aggregated results (not individual case data) will be disseminated to improve the intervention package and general HIV prevention in Swaziland (see SGprev Trial information sheet in Multimedia Appendix 4).

Protection of Personal Information

The following measures will be taken to protect participant’s personal information:

1. Permission will be sought from study participants to collect game usage data (login data) automatically.
2. All participants’ data will be stored under encrypted servers to protect participants’ information.
3. Participants’ cellphone numbers will be stored in a password protected file and will not be used for purposes other than those outlined in this protocol. After the trial, all cellphone numbers will be deleted.

Expected Adverse Effects and Countermeasures

During or after the study, participants may develop psychological distress or embarrassment. All efforts to prevent this psychological distress or embarrassment will be put in place. If despite our efforts any psychological issue arises during the intervention and data collection, the research team will refer the participants’ to the nearest counselor (who is well versed on psychological issues) for appropriate psychological care and support via text messaging or calling. Participants will be encouraged to self-report any feelings of distress or discomfort to the research team using Web-based tools such as the WhatsApp app, Facebook private message, or via our contact details provided in the study information sheet including a toll-free number for HIV counseling.

Data Storage

All data will be stored in the password-encrypted servers. Upon completion of the survey, all data will be exported to a password protected desktop computer at Kyoto University Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology. Persons not part of the research team will not have any access to the collected data.

Incentive

A lottery draw at baseline with a 1:100 chance of receiving US \$20 will be given to all participants at the end of data collection as an incentive for their time in taking part in this trial. This amount was chosen carefully not to cause undue influence to the target population in that it is not excessive and is fair considering the country's socioeconomic status.

Results

Current Status

The status of the study is in preinitiation stage. Results are expected in February 2017. We will present results as percentages, observed means with 95% confidence intervals, mean difference and 95% confidence intervals, standardized regression coefficients, and *P* values. All analysis will be performed using SPSS for Windows.

Ethical Considerations

The study will be conducted according to the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki International Guidelines for Ethical Review of Epidemiological Studies (CIOMS, 1991 Geneva). Furthermore, the research and development approval has been obtained from Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee, Japan, and Swaziland's Ministry of Health Ethics and Scientific committee. Caution will be taken to protect participant's privacy during the data collection, data handling, and data reporting.

Funding

Development of "SwaziYolo" serious game was funded by Hayao Nakayama Foundation for Science & Technology and

Culture; Grant number H26-A2-41. The research implementation will be sponsored by the Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology, Kyoto University, Japan.

Discussion

Overview

The risk of HIV infection is high among young people who practice risky sexual behavior, often they do not perceive their risk to be high, a phenomenon termed optimistic bias [11,27,28,34-36]. Some studies have reported that increased risk perception leads to subsequent increase in HIV protective behaviors, such as acceptance of HIV testing [37] or condom use [38]. The mechanism that increased perception leads to protective behavior is implicit in many behavioral theories as noted by Napper and colleagues [11]. Consequently, the joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) guidance note on "social and behavior change programming" outlines risk perception as a thematic focus area for effective HIV prevention [39].

Trial Implications

In line with the guidance from UNAIDS, this trial will provide a robust and rigorous evaluation of the efficacy of mobile serious games in increasing HIV risk perception in a resource limited setting such as Swaziland. Findings from this study will be made available to Swaziland authorities and stakeholders working to improve HIV prevention in Swaziland. We envision that the results of this study will be highly relevant to HIV prevention interventions in Swaziland and will inform future innovative strategies for HIV prevention. We are hopeful that our results will be generalizable to other settings in SSA. To our knowledge this is the first randomized control trial of a mobile serious games-based study to increase HIV protective behaviors in Swaziland and SSA; therefore, our findings will be a timely contribution to literature.

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge Formula D Interactive for development of the game and Net Storm Technologies for the website development. Further, we thank Mr Norihisa Wada for his advice and support.

Authors' Contributions

MK, MOK and BWL led study conception, intervention design, and methodology, statistical design, programing platform, and intervention user interface design, and will lead study implementation. CE participated in the study design and intervention development. PPM participated in the study conception, statistical design, and intervention development. TT and SPS participated in the study conception, design and statistic design, and intervention development. BWL will establish recruitment and randomization of participants. BWL and MK drafted the protocol, and all authors read and edited drafts of the protocol and approved the final protocol manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests. Though as stated earlier, BWL received funding for intervention development from Hayao Nakayama Foundation for Science & Technology and Culture, our funding agreement gives us full

control over primary data, statistical analysis, and the freedom to publish findings whether negative or positive, as is standard precaution to ensure potential competing interests are kept in check [21].

Multimedia Appendix 1

Intervention development.

[PDF File (Adobe PDF File), 33KB - [resprot_v5i4e224_app1.pdf](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 2

Pre- and post-intervention questionnaire for the SGpriv trial.

[PDF File (Adobe PDF File), 109KB - [resprot_v5i4e224_app2.pdf](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 3

Informed consent form.

[PDF File (Adobe PDF File), 22KB - [resprot_v5i4e224_app3.pdf](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 4

Trial information sheet.

[PDF File (Adobe PDF File), 112KB - [resprot_v5i4e224_app4.pdf](#)]

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Abbreviations

AIDS: acquired immune deficiency syndrome

eNSF: Extended National Multi-sectoral HIV/AIDS Framework for 2014–2018

HIV: human immunodeficiency virus

M: mean

PRHS: perceived risk of HIV infection scale

SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa

UNAIDS: United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

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Multiple sexual partnerships and their correlates among Facebook users in Swaziland: an online cross-sectional study

Bhekumusa Wellington Lukhele*, Teeranee Techasrivichien, Patou Masika Musumari, Christina El-saaidi, S. Pilar Suguimoto, Masako Ono-Kihara and Masahiro Kihara

Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan

*Corresponding author email: bhekie.l@gmail.com

Social networking sites (SNSs) have been suggested to facilitate risky sexual activities. However, it is unknown and of concern how SNSs such as Facebook shape risky sexual activities in developing settings such as Swaziland, the country hardest hit by HIV and AIDS. We conducted an online cross-sectional study in 2012 to explore the prevalence of multiple sexual partnerships (MSPs) and their correlates among Facebook users in Swaziland. The response rate was 44.1% ($N = 882$); relatively, an equal proportion of men 82.7% (341/414) and 82.9% (388/468) women had ever had sex. Of those sexually active, 44.9% of men and 30.7% of women reported having sex with someone they met on Facebook. Approximately half of the participants (61.6% men, 41.0% women and 50.6% total) reported MSPs over the past 12 months. Multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that time spent on Facebook, “finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook” and having had sex with someone met on Facebook were significantly associated with having MSPs (adjusted odds ratio = 1.6–3.8). The potential impact of risky sexual behaviour among Facebook users should be appropriately addressed particularly in high HIV-prevalent settings like Swaziland.

Keywords: Africa, HIV, internet, risky sexual behaviour, social networking sites

Introduction

Swaziland, which borders South Africa and has a population of approximately 1.3 million, has faced the most severe HIV epidemic worldwide, with HIV prevalence among 18–49-year-olds at 24% in 2006 and 25% in 2011 in men and 36% in 2006 and 39% in 2011 in women (Bicego et al., 2013; MOH DHS, 2007). In a recent cohort study HIV incidence among men between 18 and 49 years was estimated at 1.7/100 person-years and was almost twice as high among women of the same age range, at 3.1/100 person-years (Ministry of Health [MOH] Swaziland Health Indicator Measurement Survey [SHIMS], 2012). Modeling studies have attributed 94% of new infections to heterosexual transmission for both genders (Mngadi et al., 2009). More specifically, multiple concurrent sexual partnerships (MCPs) and multiple sexual partnerships (MSPs) have been identified as key behaviours that increase vulnerability to HIV infection in Swaziland. As a result, the Swaziland Ministry of Health has prioritised the reduction of MSPs, including MCPs, as a key strategy for HIV prevention (MOH Swaziland National Strategy for Social & Behaviour Change Communication [SBCC], 2010; MOH, 2012).

Online social networking technologies have rapidly grown in use and have been linked with increased risky sexual behaviours, mainly in developed settings (McFarlane, Bull, & Rietmeijer, 2000; 2002; Young, Szekeres, & Coates, 2013). Studies conducted in the United States have suggested that people use social networking to search for and meet sex partners and that those who use these

technologies are more likely to engage in sexual behaviours that increase HIV risk, though all studies identified have been among MSM and homeless populations in developed settings (Rice, Monro, Barman-Adhikari & Young, 2010; Young & Rice, 2011; Young et al., 2013). Developing countries, including those in sub-Saharan Africa, have also been experiencing a dramatic increase in the use of social media fueled by low-cost mobile telephony (Mwangi et al., 2013). Facebook is one of the most popular networking sites globally. As of June 2012, Facebook had over 900 million active users worldwide (Facebook, 2012), of which approximately 51 million were in Africa, including Swaziland. Consequently, Facebook has emerged as a prominent new social networking platform in Swaziland and globally (Internet World Stats, 2013).

There is therefore an urgent need to explore the characteristics of sexual risk behaviours of SNS users in developing countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. To address this research gap, we studied the prevalence of MSPs and their correlates among the users of Facebook, the most popular SNS in Swaziland.

Methods

This is an online cross-sectional survey of Facebook users in Swaziland.

Sample size

One of our main objectives was to investigate the correlates of MSPs among Facebook users. In the absence of

similar types of studies in Africa, we used marital status as a typical correlate of MSPs for sample size calculation since never-married has been frequently associated with MSPs. The proportions of the people who never married among those with MSP and those without MSPs have been suggested to be 58% and 41% (MOH Swaziland Demographic Health Survey [SDHS], 2007). The sample size required to detect the effect size statistical significance was 264 for both groups, at an α level of 0.05 (two-sided) and a power of 80% (Eng, 2003, 2012). Because of the low response rates of approximately 12–25% for online surveys reviewed by Deutskens, De Ruyter, Wetzels and Oosterveld (2004), we increased our sample size to 2 000.

Eligibility criteria and sampling procedures

The eligibility criteria were as follows: (1) Facebook users 18 years of age or older; (2) Swazi citizens; and (3) people who display their full surnames publicly on Facebook (Patricks, 2002 was used as a reference for Swazi surnames). At the time of the study, 63 720 individuals were estimated to be using Facebook in Swaziland (Socialbakers, 2012), accounting for around 8.3% of the Swazi population aged 15 years and above (United Nations Population Fund, 2015). The selection procedure was conducted in many steps. At first, a list of persons eligible for the study was compiled. This was performed using an inventory list of Swazi surnames previously documented elsewhere (Patricks, 2002). For example, a search on Facebook using a typical Swazi surname such as “Bhembe” helped document all individuals with the same surname along with their first names. In order to clearly distinguish individuals, and because it is common for Swazi people to have identical name and surnames, additional parameters among those publicly shared by Facebook users were enumerated. These parameters included any three of the following; “age”, “name of the school they studied at”, “name of work place”, “name of where they are from”, “number of friends”, “gender”, or “all information not shared publicly”. This information allowed us to send a message to the right person in case two or more Facebook users shared the same name and surname on Facebook. In this step, a total of 23 406 Facebook users were documented. The second step was the random selection of participants from the documented 23 406 users. A total of 2 000 participants were randomly selected without replacement using Microsoft Excel 2010. In the third step, the selected participants were contacted through Facebook messages informing them about the study and asking them to participate in the study. Those who agreed on participation were provided with an explanation sheet and an informed consent form, and a questionnaire that was accessible via a link. Figure 1 illustrates the sampling procedures. In total, 882 respondents completed the survey (response rate = 44.1%).

We had seven research assistants who worked from 08h00 to 17h00 continually for 21 days to do the enumeration. Our research assistants did not previously have Facebook accounts and had no friends in the duration of the 21 days. Recruitment and data collection were accomplished between September and November 2012.

Addressing duplicate responses

Duplicate responses are common in online surveys (Young,

2012). To address this issue, we asked the participants to submit their completed questionnaires together with their cell phone numbers, which served two purposes. First, the cellphone numbers were used to provide airtime reimbursement. Second, these numbers allowed us to identify duplicate questionnaire submissions. Eighty-six duplicate entries were identified and excluded from the study.

Development of the survey instrument

To facilitate development of a culturally appropriate questionnaire and to gain insights into recruitment issues, a preliminary qualitative study was conducted before this study (Creswell, 2003; Suguimoto, Ono-Kihara, Feldman & Kihara, 2012). Twenty-two Facebook users were recruited for focus group interviews (FGIs). The FGIs focused on a range of topics related to HIV and AIDS, activities on Facebook, opinions and experiences associated with seeking sexual partners on Facebook and sexual behaviours. The results from these FGIs and a literature review (MOH DHS, 2007; MOH, 2010) were used to draft our questionnaire, which consisted of the following: 25 items covering six socio-demographic variables, including age, gender, and marital status; 14 items related to sex or HIV, including the number of sexual partners over the last 12 months, condom use during the last sexual encounter, and perception that the steady sexual partner has other sexual partners; and five items related to Facebook use, including the time spent on Facebook each day, sexual experience with individuals encountered on Facebook, and the possible use of a health information Facebook page, if available. Furthermore, the questionnaire was piloted among 12 participants. Our pilot study had several aims: (1) to test the intelligibility of our questionnaire and resolve unclear or ambiguous language since the questionnaire was in English, (2) to test the compatibility of the questionnaire across different smartphone screen sizes and internet browsers, (3) to test the skip logic of the questionnaire and (4) to estimate the length of time it takes to complete the questionnaire. Then, attempts to reword unclear questions and offer additional explanations were made. For example, since some respondents said they were puzzled in answering the question “how old are you” because they were close to their next birth day, we added a clarification to this question to report their age on their last birth date. Such efforts improved the overall comprehension of our study.

Data analysis

Data were analysed using SPSS 21 for Windows (IBM Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA). The outcome variable of interest, multiple sexual partnerships (MSPs) over the past 12 months (defined in our study in line with other behavioural surveys such as the Swaziland Demographic Health Survey (2007) as “having more than one sexual partner over the past 12 months”), was dichotomised as 1 (present) and 0 (absent). Univariate analysis was used to describe the population and bivariate analysis was performed to determine associations between MSPs and other factors in the form of odds ratio (OR). Finally, factors with p values below 0.10 in bivariate analysis and those considered epidemiologically important were simultaneously entered into a multivariate logistic regression model to calculate adjusted odds ratios (AORs)

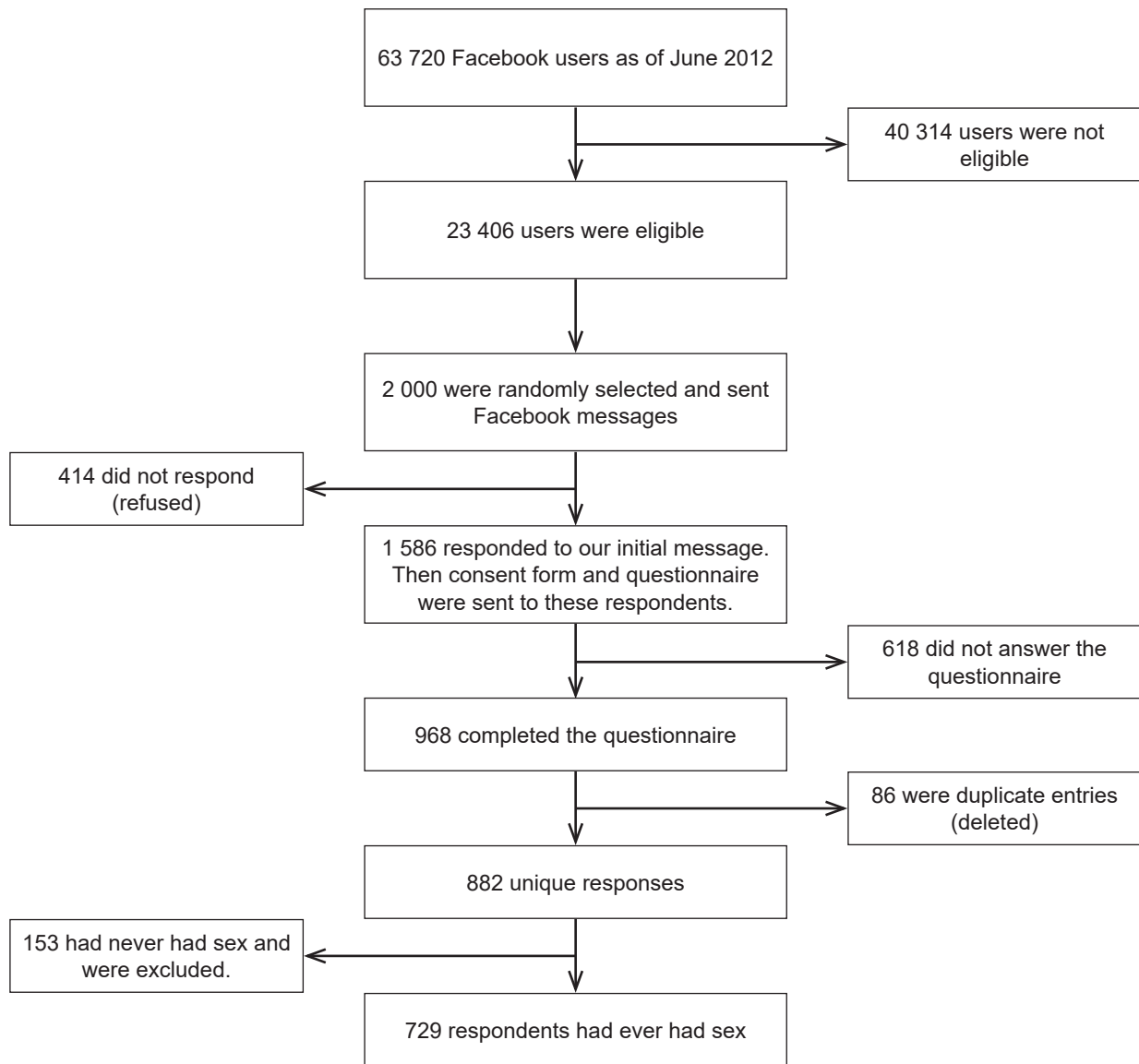


Figure 1: Flow diagram for sampling procedures

and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) to assess the magnitude of independent association of these factors with MSPs. We analysed men and women separately to account for gender-related differences in sexual behaviour.

Ethical considerations

This study was conducted according to the ethical principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki, and ethical approval was received from Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee, Japan (Reference: E1432), and from Swaziland's Ministry of Health Ethics and Scientific Committee (Reference: MH/599C). After providing the participants with the study information sheet hyperlinked in a Facebook message explaining the purpose of the study, study procedures and participants' rights as human subjects, we obtained web-based informed consent from all participants. Questionnaire responses were anonymised, and identifying information was removed before data analysis to ensure the respondents' privacy and confidentiality.

Results

Socio-demographic characteristics

In total, 882 (44%) participants responded to the survey, 414 were men and 468 were women. Almost equal proportions of men and women had ever had sex (82.7% vs. 82.9%). The current data analysis is restricted to the participants who had ever had sex. Most respondents were in the age group of 20–29 years; 232 (68%) and 267 (68.8%) for men and women respectively. The majority of the participants were never married (73.6% for men, 64.7% women and 68.9% in total) and 90.3% for men, 93.6% for women and 92% in total had completed secondary school.

Bivariate logistic regression analysis

Table 1 displays the results of bivariate logistic regression analyses of the sexually active participants ($n = 729$). Approximately half of the participants (61.6% men, 41.0% women and 50.6% in total) reported MSPs over the past 12 months. Younger age was significantly and

Table 1: Socio-demographic information and bivariate analysis of factors associated with multiple sexual partnerships among 729 sexually active participants

Characteristics	Total (N = 729)			Males (n = 341)			Females (n = 388)		
	Total	n with MSPs (%)	OR (95% CI)	Total	n with MSPs (%)	OR (95% CI)	Total	n with MSPs (%)	OR (95% CI)
Demographic variables									
Age (years)									
18–19	44	26 (59)	2.1 (1.1–4.1)*	19	11 (58)	4.7 (1.3–17.1)*	25	15 (60)	3.5 (1.4–8.6)**
20–24	301	171 (57)	1.9 (1.3–2.7)**	132	98 (74)	1.5 (1.0–2.7)	169	73 (43)	1.8 (1.0–3.0)*
25–29	198	96 (48)	1.4 (0.9–2.0)	100	54 (54)	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	98	42 (43)	1.7 (0.9–3.1)
30–51	186	76 (41)	ref	90	47 (52)	ref	96	29 (30)	ref
Gender									
Male	341	210 (62)	2.3 (1.7–3.1)**	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Female	388	159 (41)	ref	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Marital status									
Never married	502	286 (57)	2.3 (1.7–3.2)**	251	173 (69)	3.2 (1.9–5.2)**	251	113 (45)	1.6 (1.1–2.9)*
Ever married	227	83 (37)	ref	90	37 (41)	ref	137	46 (34)	ref
Employment									
Not employed	342	184 (54)	1.3 (1.0–1.7)	149	99 (66)	1.4 (0.9–2.3)	193	85 (44)	1.2 (0.9–1.7)
Employed	387	185 (48)	ref	192	111 (58)	ref	195	74 (38)	ref
Highest level of education									
Secondary	58	39 (67)	2.2 (1.2–4.0)**	33	23 (70)	1.4 (0.7–3.2)	25	16 (64)	3.0 (1.3–7.0)*
High School	233	120 (52)	1.1 (0.8–2.3)	116	69 (79)	0.9 (0.6–1.5)	117	51 (44)	1.2 (0.9–2.0)
Tertiary	438	210 (48)	ref	192	118 (62)	ref	246	92 (37)	ref
Sexual variables									
Circumcision status									
Yes	n/a	n/a	n/a	190	122 (64)	1.3 (0.8–1.9)	n/a	n/a	n/a
No				151	88 (58)	ref			
Condom use during last sexual encounter									
Yes	500	266 (53)	1.4 (1.0–1.9)	236	153 (65)	1.6 (1.0–2.5)	264	113 (43)	1.3 (0.8–2.0)
No	229	103 (45)	ref	105	57 (54)	ref	124	46 (37)	ref
Thinks steady partner has other sexual partners									
Yes	443	263 (59)	2.5 (1.8–3.4)**	196	138 (70)	2.4 (1.5–3.8)**	247	125 (51)	3.2 (2.0–5.1)**
No	286	106 (37)	ref	145	72 (50)	ref	141	34 (24)	ref
Facebook variables									
Time spent on Facebook per day									
<30 minutes	270	121 (45)	ref	130	70 (54)	ref	140	51 (36)	ref
30 minutes ≤3 hours	275	126 (46)	1.0 (0.7–1.5)	129	76 (59)	1.2 (0.8–2.0)	146	50 (34)	0.9 (0.7–1.5)
3 hours ≤6 hours	96	53 (55)	1.5 (0.9–2.4)	42	29 (69)	1.9 (0.9–4.0)	54	24 (44)	1.4 (0.7–2.6)
≥6 hours	88	69 (78)	4.5 (2.6–7.8)**	40	35 (88)	6.2 (2.2–16)**	48	34 (71)	4.2 (2.1–8.6)*
Sex with someone met on Facebook									
Yes	272	202 (74)	5.1 (3.6–7.1)**	153	123 (80)	4.7 (2.9–7.8)**	119	79 (66)	4.8 (3.0–7.6)**
No	457	167 (37)	ref	188	87 (46)	ref	269	80 (30)	ref
Ease of using Facebook to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face									
Yes	255	168 (66)	1.2 (0.9–1.6)	140	98 (70)	1.0 (0.7–1.6)	115	70 (61)	1.4 (0.9–2.3)
Else	474	201 (42)	ref	201	112 (56)	ref	273	89 (33)	ref
Number of Facebook friends									
0–49	62	29 (47)	ref	32	18 (56)	ref	30	11 (37)	ref
50–299	338	155 (46)	0.9 (0.6–1.7)	150	87 (58)	1.0 (0.5–2.3)	188	68 (36)	0.9 (0.4–2.2)
300–499	144	78 (54)	1.4 (0.7–2.4)	69	44 (64)	1.3 (0.6–3.2)	75	34 (45)	1.4 (0.6–3.4)
500–5000	185	107 (58)	1.6 (0.9–7.8)	90	61 (68)	1.6 (0.7–3.7)	95	46 (48)	1.6 (0.6–3.8)
Would use a Facebook health page to seek information									
Yes	510	273 (54)	1.5 (1.1–2.0)*	233	152 (65)	1.6 (1.0–3.6)*	277	121 (44)	1.5 (0.9–2.4)
No	219	96 (44)	ref	108	58 (54)	ref	111	38 (34)	ref
Perception									
Perception of HIV risk									
Low	442	202 (46)	ref	200	114 (57)	ref	242	88 (36)	ref
Medium	214	128 (60)	1.8 (1.3–2.5)**	100	71 (71)	1.8 (1.1–3.0)*	114	57 (50)	1.7 (1.1–2.7)*
High	73	39 (53)	1.4 (0.8–2.2)	41	25 (61)	1.1 (0.6–2.3)	32	14 (44)	1.3 (0.6–2.8)

Bivariate analysis for factors associated with multiple sexual partnerships in the total population, in males and females
MSP = Multiple sexual partnerships; OR = odds ratio; CI = 95% confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$; n/a = not applicable

dose-dependently associated with MSPs (odds ratio [OR] = 1.3–2.1). Similarly, male gender (OR = 2.3, $p < 0.01$), never having been married (OR = 2.3, $p < 0.01$), and having completed a secondary school education (OR = 2.2, $p < 0.01$) were significantly associated with MSPs. The majority of participants 60.8% (57.5% for men and 63.7% for women) believed that their “steady partner has other sexual partners” and this perception was significantly associated with MSPs (OR = 2.5, $p < 0.01$), as well as HIV risk perception of a medium magnitude (OR = 1.8, $p < 0.01$). Time spent on Facebook was dose-dependently associated with MSPs, and having “ever had sex with someone met on Facebook,” reported by 37.3% (44.9% men and 30.8% women) of the sexually active participants, was strongly associated with MSPs (OR = 5.1, $p < 0.01$). Up to 70.0% of the sexually active participants responded that they would use a health information Facebook page if it became available in future, and those who had MSPs were approximately twice as likely to report willingness to use such a page as those who did not (OR = 1.5, $p < 0.05$).

Multivariate logistic regression analysis

Table 2 displays the results of multivariate logistic regression analyses of the sexually active participants ($n = 729$), which revealed that male gender, never having been married, an education of up to secondary school, condom use during the last sexual encounter, the belief that their “steady partner has other sexual partners,” having a high HIV risk perception, over six hours of Facebook use per day, and

having sex with someone met on Facebook were significantly associated with MSPs (AORs = 1.6–3.8). The risk profiles were similar between genders; however, those who had completed secondary education and “finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face” were significantly correlated with MSPs in women (AORs = 6.0 and 2.2, respectively) but not in men (AORs = 1.1 and 1.0, respectively). Condom use during the last sexual encounter was significantly correlated with MSPs among all participants but did not reach statistical significance when it was separately analysed in men and women.

Discussion

To our knowledge, our study is the first to describe the prevalence of MSPs and their correlates among Facebook users in Swaziland and sub-Saharan Africa at large. Our study has greater methodological strength compared with previous online studies because the participants were sampled randomly with a relatively high response rate (44%), and a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2003) was employed to develop a culturally appropriate questionnaire. Response rates in studies of this nature have ranged from 12% to 25% as reported by Deutskens et al. (2004).

Prevalence of MSPs among Facebook users

Having MSPs has been highlighted as a risky sexual behaviour and is one of the key drivers of the HIV epidemic in Swaziland (MOH DHS, 2007; Mngadi et al. 2009). The

Table 2: Multivariate logistic regression analysis of factors associated with MSPs

Characteristic	Total ($N = 729$)			Males ($n = 341$)			Females ($n = 388$)		
	AOR	95% CI	p -value	AOR	95% CI	p -value	AOR	95% CI	p -value
Demographic variables									
Age	1.0	0.9–1.0	0.71	1.0	0.9–1.0	0.38	0.9	0.9–1.0	0.03
Gender (male/female)	1.9	1.3–2.9	0.00	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Marital status (never married/ever married)	1.8	1.1–2.8	0.03	2.8	1.3–5.7	0.00	1.4	0.7–2.7	0.35
Employment status (no/yes)	1.1	0.7–1.6	0.78	1.1	0.6–2.0	0.69	1.1	0.6–2.2	0.60
Highest level of education (\leq secondary/ $>$ secondary)	2.7	1.7–5.6	0.01	1.1	0.4–2.8	0.87	6.0	1.7–22.0	0.00
Sex-related variables									
Circumcision status (yes/no)	n/a	n/a	n/a	1.0	0.6–1.8	0.86	n/a	n/a	n/a
Condom use during the last sexual encounter (yes/no)	1.6	1.1–2.5	0.03	1.5	0.8–2.8	0.16	1.6	0.8–2.9	0.18
Thinks steady partner has other sexual partners (yes/no)	2.6	1.7–4.0	0.00	2.4	1.4–4.3	0.00	2.9	1.5–5.4	0.00
Perception of risk of HIV infection (high/low)	1.6	1.1–2.4	0.00	1.4	0.8–2.7	0.17	2.0	1.1–3.7	0.02
Facebook-related variables									
Time spent on Facebook per day (<30 minutes)	ref			ref			ref		
(\geq 30 minutes <6 hours)	1.4	0.8–2.5	0.27	1.5	0.6–3.7	0.40	1.2	0.6–2.8	0.60
(\geq 6 hours)	3.0	1.5–6.0	0.03	3.3	1.0–11.0	0.05	2.6	1.0–6.5	0.04
Ease of using Facebook to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face (yes/else)	1.4	0.9–2.1	0.10	1.0	0.6–1.7	0.96	2.2	1.2–4.1	0.01
Sex with someone met on Facebook (yes/no)	3.8	2.5–5.8	0.00	3.7	2.0–6.7	0.00	4.3	2.4–8.0	0.00
Would use a health Facebook page to seek health information (yes/no)	2.7	0.8–9.6	0.12	7.5	0.7–79.0	0.76	1.2	0.8–2.9	0.87

Multiple logistic regression analysis of variables associated with multiple sexual partnerships in the total population, in males, and females. n/a = not applicable. Denominator indicates the reference group. ref = reference group. “Else” = represents collapsed response categories of “no” and “I have never had this experience”. AOR = adjusted odds ratio. CI = 95% confidence interval. We adjusted the sexual related variables and Facebook variables for demographic variables.

MSP prevalence among the sexually active population has been estimated at 11.1% and 11.4% in two recent nationwide surveys (MOH, DHS 2007; MOH, 2010). Although we cannot directly compare the prevalence of MSPs in our study with those of these surveys, its prevalence in our study appears greater than that in the general population because even the most conservative estimate is 20.0% (369/1847), which was calculated assuming that all non-responders in our study ($n = 1\ 118$) were sexually active but did not have MSPs. Even this conservative estimate is two times greater than the rate in the general population. The high rate of risky sexual behaviours found in our study is consistent with observations in the United States; Young adults who seek sex on the internet participate in more risky sexual behaviours than the general population (McFarlane et al., 2000) and the same observation was reported among men who have sex with men and homeless populations in developed settings (Rice et al., 2010; Young & Rice, 2011; Young et al., 2013). However, in view of about 40 000 Facebook users excluded from our study and the potential bias introduced in our eligible population, interpretation of our finding requires great caution before it is confirmed in community-based studies comparing between SNS users and non-users. One possibility would be that people with multiple sexual partnerships tend to use Facebook for communication with multiple partners, which should be also explored in future studies including ethnography. Whatever the case may be, in a country where approximately 26% of the general population is living with HIV, the potentially high MSP prevalence among Facebook users warrants for future studies and targeted HIV interventions.

Correlates of MSPs among Facebook users

Our study revealed risk factors for MSPs among Facebook users in Swaziland that were related to Facebook use. Of the risk factors identified, time spent on Facebook and "having had sex with someone met on Facebook" were significantly associated with an increased likelihood of MSPs in men, women and overall. In our study, "someone met on Facebook" was defined as "someone the participant has talked to -for the first time- on Facebook". This includes not only people they know but also strangers who are presumably friends of friends or people who are in similar Facebook groups. The rationale of this definition lies in the fact that a substantial proportion of Facebook users (24%) accept friend requests from strangers (Pempek, Yermolayeva & Calvert, 2009).

The phenomenon of accepting strangers as friends on Facebook and the associated reasons are commonly reported despite the fact that many SNSs including Facebook restrict such an activity due to security and privacy reasons. For example, it was recently qualitatively revealed that some Facebook users prefer to accept friend requests from strangers than someone they know in real life (Rashtian, Boshmaf, Jaferian & Beznosov, 2014): *"I prefer to have more of these unknown guys instead of our neighbour's son, as some of them post cool stuff and I don't need to be worried about my posts, because none of them would tell my dad what I am doing!"* and *"the fact that the friend requester is an active Facebook user is sometimes the most important factor, even more than knowing the requester"*. Gender is

also reported as an effective strategy to get friend requests: *"I am sorry to say it but a picture of a pretty girl would get hundreds of friendship requests or even messages"*. Although only a limited number of studies are available, it is likely that becoming friends with strangers on Facebook is more prevalent than what Facebook intends in its user policy.

Further, "finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face" was significantly associated with MSPs only in women. Taken together, these findings may suggest that Facebook has emerged as a new platform for young people in Swaziland to seek sexual partners. In the United States, studies among homeless youth concluded that "As online social network usage continues to increase, users will develop innovative and easier ways to find sex partners online. In order to prevent the spread of HIV and other STIs, it is important to understand the role that online social networking technologies play in the lives of people who face disproportionate risk" (Young & Rice, 2011, p. 259; Young et al., 2013). Although a direct comparison with our study is difficult because of differences in population characteristics and variables assessed, the results of these studies are consistent with those of our study. In a developing setting, a qualitative study of young women SNS users conducted in Thailand reported that users found it easier to initiate romantic conversations over the internet because people are less shy and more daring than when talking face-to-face (Boonmongkon et al., 2013). This finding particularly relates to the significant correlation of "finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face" with MSPs in women but not in men in this study. Swazi and Thai women, who are under the social pressure of chastity (van Rooyen & Hartell 2010; Boonmongkon et al., 2013), may find that SNSs are avenues for expression of their sexuality. Time spent on Facebook was dose-dependently associated with MSPs, which can be interpreted as either a cause or an effect. Nevertheless, HIV prevention programmes in Swaziland should target people spending hours on Facebook because they are at high risk of having MSPs, particularly those spending over 6 hours, 70–90% of whom have MSPs.

Another significant correlate of MSPs in men, women and overall, was the perception that the "steady partner has other sexual partners", which was shared by approximately 60% of the total participants. This finding suggests that having MSPs is regarded as a widespread practice or even the norm within this subset of the study population. Addressing this perception is an important target for HIV prevention programmes. More studies are needed to explore this perception in relation to actual sexual practices between steady couples.

Approximately 70% of the survey participants had never been married, and these individuals were found to be twice as likely to have MSPs compared to those who had married. If Facebook use keeps expanding among young single people and the availability of increasingly affordable cell phones continues to spread, their MSP prevalence may increase, potentially placing them at risk of HIV infection. Education levels were relatively similarly distributed between the genders, under 7% having completed secondary school education. However, education level was differentially related

to MSPs by gender, as determined by multivariate analysis (women, AOR > 5; men, AOR = 1.1). Although the reason for this difference is unknown, women with a low education level may have poor health literacy, preventing them from engaging in safe sexual behaviours, or they may be placed in an economically compromised situation that forces them to seek sex on SNSs in exchange for paying of their living expenses or material goods as has been suggested in studies of MSM and homeless youth in the United States.

Potential of Facebook as a health communication tool

Approximately 70% of all participants and over 75% of those with MSPs reported that they would use a health information Facebook page if it became available. Although the types of information that they need and how such a page should be constructed to attract sustained interest are unknown, this finding suggests that SNSs including Facebook may be effective and interactive channels for health communication, particularly for the subset of Facebook users at high risk of HIV infection. Recently, Facebook launched a service called “Free basics by Facebook” through which organisations can submit applications to Facebook to make their online services such as HIV prevention available free of cost to users in developing settings. More importantly, systematic research with the goal of creating such a novel communication tool may be very valuable in future HIV prevention programmes in Swaziland.

Study limitations

The findings of our study are subject to the limitations inherent in online-based surveys and cross-sectional studies. First, while our response rate was higher than most other online studies, the large non-response could have resulted in participation bias in the study, particularly if the respondents were biased toward sexual inactivity/activity. Moreover, our eligibility criteria included Facebook users who had made their surnames public on Facebook. Thus, those who used pseudonyms or made their surnames private on Facebook were excluded from this study, which may have excluded users who joined Facebook for the sole intention of meeting potential sexual partners and may have caused underestimation of important variables. Second, although this study was designed based on findings from a preliminary qualitative study, an additional qualitative study would give insights into the dynamics of how young Swazis are using Facebook to expand their sexual partnerships. Without such a qualitative inquiry, interpretation of the observed association between “finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook than initiating it face-to-face” and MSPs should be understood with due caution. Therefore, we call for qualitative studies to capture details of such Facebook use. Third, because of the cross-sectional nature of this study, cause-effect relationships cannot be established between our outcome variable and other independent variables. Fourth, this study did not explicitly differentiate whether “someone met on Facebook” was a stranger or a non-sexual relationship that transformed into a sexual relationship that should also be explored in future studies. Notwithstanding these limitations, this study contributes to shed light on the potential relationship of social

media with risky sexual practice and points out the necessity of future research and HIV prevention considerations.

Conclusion

The main finding from our study is that a significant proportion of our study population has ever had sex with someone they met on Facebook, and that the prevalence of MSPs in this population was high. Although we were able to identify important factors associated with MSPs (time spent on Facebook, “finding it easier to initiate a romantic conversation on Facebook” and having had sex with someone met on Facebook), there remain important question of how people use Facebook to meet and or transform relationships into sexual ones for which future research should endeavour to address. On the other hand, Facebook appears to have potential for use as a novel channel for health communication. This was supported by the finding that the majority of participants with MSPs expressed positive attitudes towards using a health communication Facebook page if it became available. More research in this area is warranted in order to determine the effectiveness of using Facebook as a platform for behavioural change communication.

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Child Abuse & Neglect



Research article

Development of a prediction model for child maltreatment recurrence in Japan: A historical cohort study using data from a Child Guidance Center



Hiroyuki Horikawa^{a,c,*}, S. Pilar Sugimoto^{b,c}, Patou Masika Musumari^c,
Teeranee Techasrivichien^c, Masako Ono-Kihara^c, Masahiro Kihara^c

^a Shiga Prefectural Mental Health and Welfare Center, Mureyama-so House, Kasayama 8-Chome 5-130, Kusatsu City, Shiga, 525-0072, Japan

^b Center for Medical Education, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Faculty of Medicine Building E Room 109, Yoshida Konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, 606-8501, Japan

^c Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Science Frontier Laboratory Room 204, Yoshida Konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, 606-8501, Japan

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ABSTRACT

To develop a prediction model for the first recurrence of child maltreatment within the first year after the initial report, we carried out a historical cohort study using administrative data from 716 incident cases of child maltreatment (physical abuse, psychological abuse, or neglect) not receiving support services, reported between April 1, 1996 through March 31, 2011 to Shiga Central Child Guidance Center, Japan. In total, 23 items related to characteristics of the child, the maltreatment, the offender, household, and other related factors were selected as predictive variables and analyzed by multivariate logistic regression model for association with first recurrence of maltreatment. According to the stepwise selection procedure six factors were identified that include 9–13 year age of child (AOR=3.43/95%CI=1.52–7.72), <40 year age of the offender (AOR=1.65/95%CI=1.09–2.51), offender's history of maltreatment during childhood (AOR=2.56/95%CI=1.31–4.99), household financial instability or poverty (AOR=1.64/95%CI=1.10–2.45), absence of someone in the community who could watch over the child (AOR=1.68/95%CI=1.16–2.44), and the organization as the referral source (AOR=2.21/95%CI=1.24–3.93). Using these six predictors, we generated a linear prediction model with a sensitivity and specificity of 45.2% and 82.4%, respectively. The model may be useful to assess the risk of further maltreatment and help the child and family welfare administrations to develop preventive strategies for recurrence.

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Abbreviations: CGC, Child guidance center; AIC, Akaike's information criterion; ROC, receiver-operating characteristic; AUC, areas under the curve; SD, standard deviation; IQR, interquartile range; OR, odds ratio; 95%CI, 95% confidence interval; AOR, adjusted odds ratio.

* Corresponding author at: Shiga Prefectural Mental Health and Welfare Center, Mureyama-so House, Kasayama 8-Chome 5-130, Kusatsu City, Shiga, 525-0072, Japan.

E-mail addresses: hir.horikawa@gmail.com (H. Horikawa), sugimoto.pilar.2w@kyoto-u.ac.jp (S.P. Sugimoto), patomus@yahoo.fr (P.M. Musumari), techasrivichien.teeranee.2a@kyoto-u.ac.jp (T. Techasrivichien), kihara.masako.2u@kyoto-u.ac.jp (M. Ono-Kihara), kihara.masahiro.4n@kyoto-u.ac.jp (M. Kihara).

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1. Introduction

Children who experience maltreatment are at increased risk of long term physical, psychological, and behavioral consequences (Berlin, Appleyard, & Dodge, 2011; Norman et al., 2012; Tanaka, Georgiades, Boyle, & MacMillan, 2015; Tanaka, Wekerle, Schmuck, & Paglia-Boak, 2011; Widom, Czaja, Bentley, & Johnson, 2012). Reports of child maltreatment have been steadily increasing since the late 1990s in Japan (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013a, 2015). In response, Child Abuse Prevention Law in 2000 was enacted in 2000, introducing a series of measures to prevent maltreatment and protect children who have suffered maltreatment including health support for pregnant women (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2009); home visiting services for all parents of new infants before 4 months of age (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2007a); strengthening of the foster parent system (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2012); confirmation of the child's safety within 48 h after receiving a notification (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2007b); and the partial revision of the Civil Law to restrict parental authority (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2011). Despite all these measures, the number of child abuse consultations handled at the Child Guidance Center (CGC), the main organization that deals with child maltreatment, nationwide has not subsided. The consultations increased by 8077%, from 1101 in 1990 to 88,931 in 2014 (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013a, 2015), indicating that child maltreatment has become a serious social concern in Japan.

In 2008, the National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors conducted a nationwide survey on the situation of response, service provision and treatment for child maltreatment cases at the CGCs, but did not include questions about recurrence (Maruyama, 2009; National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors, 2009). Later in 2010, as part of the policy evaluation, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications carried out the only survey to date, albeit not random, describing the proportion of child maltreatment recurrence as 9.5% (269/2823), 9.1% (272/2974), and 5.0% (166/3322) in 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively (Administrative Evaluation Bureau, 2013). Unfortunately, systematic statistical data and studies with robust methodology are still lacking in Japan.

It is important to ensure that the child has a safe and an adequate environment enabling both mental and physical growth. In this regard, a thorough understanding of factors associated with maltreatment recurrence is of vital importance and very useful to guide effective preventive strategies. Studies on predictors of recurrence have been carried out in many countries, especially in the United States. However, results varied greatly probably due to differences in the study population, study design, definition and classification of maltreatment, as well as methods for data collection (Fluke & Hollinshead, 2003; Hindley, Ramchandani, & Jones, 2006; White, Hindley, & Jones, 2015). Numerous factors have been identified as predictors for maltreatment recurrence that include case characteristics of child, offender, caregiver, and family (Bae, Solomon, & Gelles, 2009; Casanueva et al., 2015; DePanfilis & Zuravin, 1999a; Dorsey, Mustillo, Farmer, & Elbogen, 2008; Drake, Jonson-Reid, & Sapokaite, 2006; English, Marshall, Brummel, & Orme, 1999; Fluke, Chabot, Fallon, MacLaurin, & Blackstock, 2010; Fluke, Shusterman, Hollinshead, & Yuan, 2008; Fluke, Yuan, & Edwards, 1999; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994; Hélie & Bouchard, 2010; Helie, Laurier, Pineau-Villeneuve, & Royer, 2013; Putnam-Hornstein, Simon, Eastman, & Magruder, 2015; Sledjeski, Dierker, Brigham, & Breslin, 2008), agency factors and resources in community (Maguire-Jack & Font, 2014), sequence towards substantiation (Casanueva et al., 2015; Eastman, Mitchell, & Putnam-Hornstein, 2016; Putnam-Hornstein et al., 2015), and effects of service provisions after initial report (DePanfilis & Zuravin, 2002; Eastman et al., 2016; Jonson-Reid, Chung, Way, & Jolley, 2010; MacMillan et al., 2009).

Although there are common predictors identified in the literature such as young age (Bae et al., 2009; Drake et al., 2006; Fluke et al., 1999, 2008; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994), prior reports (Bae et al., 2009; Fluke et al., 1999, 2008; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994) and neglect (DePanfilis & Zuravin, 1999a; Drake et al., 2006; Fluke et al., 1999; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994), because many other factors differ between studies, a universal standardized recurrence risk assessment tool does not exist (D'Andrade, Austin, & Benton, 2008; DePanfilis & Scannapieco, 1994; Gillingham, 2015; Johnson, 2011).

The Japanese government issued guidelines to assess the need for temporary protective custody (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013c) and there is a proposed assessment tool that is being widely used to manage support in the community (Fujiwara, Okuyama, & Ishii, 2006; Kato, 2009; Sato, 2008), but there is no standardized assessment tool that could help the CGC make an initial rapid judgment of the necessary measures to prevent the recurrence of maltreatment (Administrative Evaluation Bureau, 2013; Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013c). Therefore, the aim of our study is to develop a multivariate model to identify children with significantly increased risk for first recurrence of child maltreatment within a year in a historical cohort study using the database of the CGC in one prefecture of Japan.

2. Methods

2.1. Data source

In Japan, the main authority responsible for child and family welfare is the CGC, who can work in cooperation with the Municipal Child Family Support Division (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2010). The CGC manages the investigation, confirmation and initial response of reported cases of child maltreatment, and may provide services to the family or separate the child from the family. Upon notification of maltreatment, the CGC assesses the case. A multidisciplinary team, consisting of a medical doctor, child welfare officer, child psychologist, childcare instructor and childcare guidance staff work with the abused child, offender, family members and other concerned parties to take a course of action in the best

interest of the child (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013b). The CGC may separate a maltreated child from the offender to ensure the child's safety, but also at the request of parents or guardians.

This study is based on secondary data obtained from Shiga Central CGC. The center service area covered rural and semi-urban areas in Shiga prefecture during the period of our study. Also the estimated total and child population residing in the area of the Shiga CGCs had little variation; 1,299,046 total population and 282,534 (21.7%) child population in 1996, compared to 1,403,977 total populations and 255,472 (18.7%) child population in 2010. The database used standardized items on case attributes and assessment indicators adopted from the survey of the National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors performed in 1996 (National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors, 1997). Results of the initial investigation of suspected maltreatment cases were recorded at first in a paper-based registration form and later converted to digital format by a database manager. The database included all suspected cases of child maltreatment (physical abuse, psychological abuse, sexual abuse, and neglect) reported between April 1, 1996 and March 31, 2011 to the Shiga Central CGC, accounting for a total of 4201 cases. Although the original database included personal information such as name, address and phone number to help track the cases, they were removed from the database prior to this study except for the unique identification number associated to the case and its recurrence notification. In accordance to the Child Welfare Law and Child Maltreatment Prevention Law, only cases of children under 18 years of age are registered in this database at the first report of maltreatment. However, once the child is registered, even if s/he turns 18, the regional council at the Municipal Child Family Support Division monitors the case for a minimum duration of one year after registration and may continue until the child reaches 20. Along this time, the local CGC provides support if it is necessary.

2.2. Sample selection

We selected the cases of substantiated child maltreatment (physical abuse, psychological abuse, or neglect) newly reported between April 1, 1996 and March 31, 2011 that after initial assessment of the Shiga Central CGC were all kept under observation (monitoring) and had at least one-year of follow up. Fig. 1 shows in detail the selection method. We excluded cases where the initial report was after April 1, 2010 because they had less than one year of follow up by March 31, 2011, end of the study period (616 cases), and the cases of abuse or neglect that could not be substantiated (339 cases), cases where provision of service was suspended (19 cases), cases where the main form of abuse was sexual (91 cases) because the handling of these cases is substantially different from other forms of abuse or neglect; the child is immediately distanced from his/her home and placed in a temporary protection center for 2–4 weeks generally, and both the child and the family go through a series of treatment for at least a year thereafter to prevent recurrence (National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors, 2013). We also excluded cases where the child was separated from the family (278 cases), had confirmed history of previous abuse or neglect (1402 cases), or were receiving any medical, psychological, or clinical social support (740 cases). Cases receiving any support were excluded because no recurrence is to be recorded during support period even if it happened. Inclusion of these cases therefore results in an underestimation of the rate of recurrence.

2.3. Variables

2.3.1. Study outcome: child maltreatment first recurrence. In our study, child maltreatment first recurrence was defined as a first substantiated report of maltreatment including physical abuse, psychological abuse, sexual abuse or neglect that occurred within 1 year from a prior substantiation involving the same child.

Shiga Central CGC used definitions of physical abuse, psychological abuse, sexual abuse and neglect as considered in the Child Welfare Law. Child maltreatment constituted an event happening inside the family or an act by any of the family members. Physical abuse included the acts of hitting, kicking, throwing and shaking, burning, drowning, or strangling. Psychological abuse included verbal threatening, ignoring, discriminatory treatment between brother and sisters, or witnessing domestic violence. Sexual abuse included involving a child in sexual acts, witnessing any sexual activities, touching a child's sex organs, guiding a child to touch any sex organs, or subjecting a child to pornography. It was considered neglect when there was no parental caregiving or there was disregard for the child such as not providing enough meals, keeping a filthy and dangerous house environment, not providing healthy daily routine, not taking the child to the hospital even in case of a serious illness, or leaving the child unattended in a car.

2.3.2. Independent variables. Based on standardized items on case attributes and assessment indicators adopted from the survey of the National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors performed in 1996 and previous studies of historical cohort design (Bae, Solomon, & Gelles, 2007; Bae et al., 2009; Sledjeski et al., 2008; Wolock & Magura, 1996), we selected 23 items as independent (predicting) variables and explored their association with maltreatment recurrence. These variables are common between the standardized items used in Japan and those in international literature except for the variables "presence of community member(s) who could watch over the maltreated child" and "neighbor as referral source" that are unique and important in Japan's social context. The items included were: (1) type of the maltreatment (Bae et al., 2009; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994; Sledjeski et al., 2008) and frequency (English et al., 1999); (2) child characteristics such as gender (Fluke et al., 2008; Jonson-Reid, Drake, Chung, & Way, 2003; Sledjeski et al., 2008), age (Fluke et al., 1999; Helie et al., 2013), medically diagnosed symptoms at the time of registration (Sledjeski et al., 2008), mental or physical disability (Bae et al., 2009; DePanfilis & Zuravin, 1999b; Drake et al., 2006; Sledjeski et al., 2008), emotional or behavioral problems (Drake et al.,

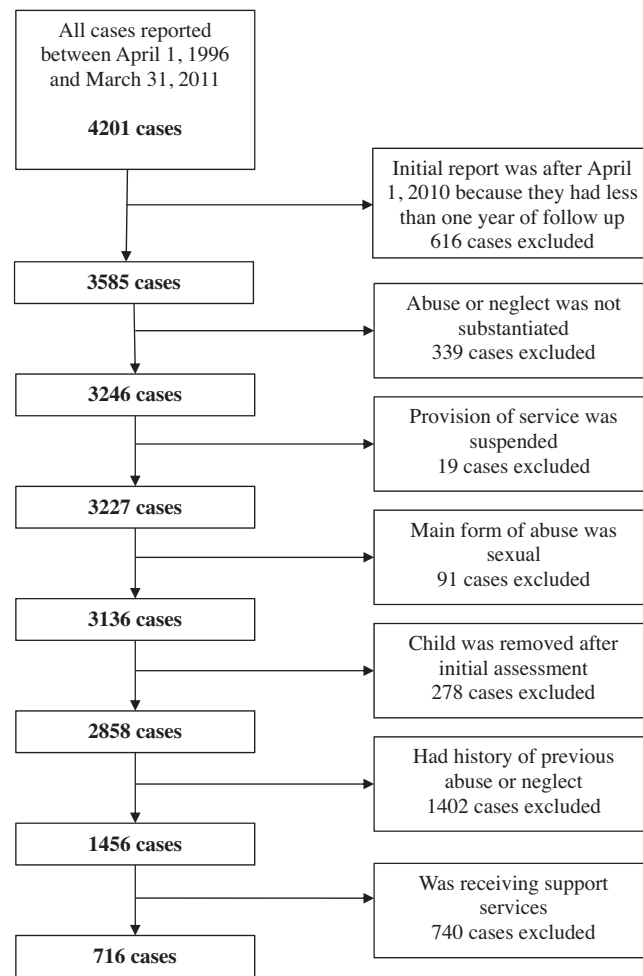


Fig. 1. Flow diagram of cases included and excluded from our study.

2006), reactive emotional instability (Sledjeski et al., 2008), and other upbringing problems (Drake et al., 2006); (3) items regarding the offender such as main offender (Jonson-Reid et al., 2003; Sledjeski et al., 2008) and offender's age (Dorsey et al., 2008), disability (Barth, Gibbons, & Guo, 2006; Sledjeski et al., 2008; Wolock & Magura, 1996), history of maltreatment during childhood (Dorsey et al., 2008; English et al., 1999; Wolock & Magura, 1996), whether or not the offender lived with the victimized child (Sledjeski et al., 2008), and willingness to cooperate with the CGC (Sledjeski et al., 2008); (4) household characteristics such as number of family members (Bae et al., 2007, 2009), siblings with history of maltreatment (Eastman et al., 2016; Putnam-Hornstein et al., 2015), presence of an adult family member who could protect the maltreated child from the offender (Sledjeski et al., 2008), financial instability or poverty (Barth et al., 2006; Wolock & Magura, 1996), and family discord or domestic violence (Dorsey et al., 2008; Sledjeski et al., 2008); and (5) other relevant items such as the presence of someone in the community (relatives, neighbors or volunteers) who could watch over and stay informed about the maltreated child (Wolock & Magura, 1996), previous welfare consultation to the CGC (Fluke et al., 2008), and referral source such as individual or organization (Bae et al., 2007, 2009), neighbors, and the maltreated child or his/her family. Disability of offenders included mental disorders, intellectual disability, physical problems, substance abuse or other problems. All these independent variables were collected at the initial registration and do not reflect any change that may have occurred after registration.

2.4. Statistical analyses

We conducted a historical cohort analysis of child maltreatment incident cases and first recurrence within one year of follow up. Since maltreatment is a phenomenon occurring in the household, some studies have used the household as a unit for data analysis (Bae et al., 2007, 2009; Murphy, Bishop, Jellinek, Quinn, & Poittrast, 1992; Sledjeski et al., 2008). However,

in this study the unit of analysis was the individual; in other words, “a child that was subjected to maltreatment”, as used in other studies (Fluke et al., 1999; Inkelas & Halfon, 1997).

We assessed the association between the predictive variables and maltreatment recurrence in a binary logistic analysis and reported the crude odds ratios and *p* values. Predictive variables with *p* values <0.1 were entered into the multiple regression model simultaneously, stepwise, and using backward elimination procedures. There was no evidence of multicollinearity following the diagnostic procedures; inter-correlation coefficient with any of other variable was less than 0.45. We compared the models fit using Akaike’s Information Criterion (Akaike, 1973) and the Hosmer–Lemeshow test. After selecting the most appropriate model variables, we estimated the regression coefficients using bootstrapping (1000 times of simple random sampling) and evaluated the stability of each regression coefficient using DfBeta as suggested by Pregibon (Pregibon, 1981). We rounded the regression coefficients from the stepwise model to the nearest integer and multiplied by 10 to generate a simplified prediction model (Hasan et al., 2010). Then, we computed the Receiver–Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and the area under the curve (AUC) to compare this simplified model to the original regression models. A *p* value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Finally, we calculated sensitivity and specificity at various cut-off points to examine practical applicability of the prediction model.

3. Results

Overall, we selected 716 cases. All were of Japanese nationality. Tables 1 and 2 show the descriptive statistics of maltreatment cases and results of the bivariate logistic regression analyses. The age at initial report ranged from 0 to 17, with an average age of 7.1 years (SD = 4.6) and median of 7 years (IQR: 3–11) (not shown in the table). Among all cases, the main forms of maltreatment at the initial report were physical abuse (303 cases, 42.3%) and neglect (299 cases, 41.8%). A quarter of all cases (177 cases, 24.7%) experienced a recurrence of maltreatment within 1 year of follow up. Regarding the time of recurrence, 12.4% (22 cases) occurred in 30 days or less after registration, 48.6% (86 cases) between 31 days to 180 days, and 39.0% (69 cases) between 181 days to 365 days (not shown in the table). In most cases (638 cases, 89.1%) the main offender was a biological parent, and in only 6.8% (49 cases) and 4.1% (29 cases) the main offender was a stepparent and a guardian, respectively (not shown in the table). Those who reported frequent initial maltreatment were significantly more likely (odds ratio (OR) = 1.62/95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.12–2.35) to experience recurrence. Also, when the offender was under age 40 (OR = 1.82/95%CI = 1.24–2.68), had a disability (OR = 1.61/95%CI = 1.14–2.27) or history of maltreatment during his/her childhood (OR = 2.99/95%CI = 1.59–5.63) maltreatment was more likely to recur. Other factors significantly associated with recurrence of maltreatment were: financial instability or poverty (OR = 1.89/95%CI = 1.29–2.77), absence of an adult family member who could protect the child (OR = 1.47/95%CI = 1.03–2.11), absence of a community member who could watch over the child (OR = 1.51/95%CI = 1.07–2.14), and having a history of consultation with CGC (OR = 1.63/95%CI = 1.05–2.53). In our sample there were no multiple concurrent cases of child maltreatment in the same household. However, 14.5% (104 cases) reported siblings with history of maltreatment.

Table 3 shows the results of multiple logistic regression analysis using a stepwise approach. Our study revealed that six items were significantly associated with maltreatment recurrence: 9–13 year age of child (AOR = 3.43/95%CI = 1.52–7.72), <40 years age of the offender (AOR = 1.65/95%CI = 1.09–2.51), history of maltreatment during offender’s childhood (AOR = 2.56/95%CI = 1.31–4.99), financial instability or poverty (AOR = 1.64/95%CI = 1.10–2.45), absence of someone in the community who could watch over the child (AOR = 1.68/95%CI = 1.16–2.44), and the official organization as referral source (AOR = 2.21/95%CI = 1.24–3.93). This multiple logistic regression model was statistically significant (model chi square = 62.91, *p* < 0.001) and showed sufficient fit to the actual values (–2 log likelihood = 737.93, AIC = 755.93 and *p* value of the Hosmer–Lemeshow test = 0.71). Almost identical results were obtained for the model developed by the backward elimination procedure (data not shown). Precision of the regression coefficients of the stepwise entry model were further estimated using bootstrapping with results quite similar with those in Table 3 (data not shown), validating the stabilities of the regression coefficients of the model. The stability of the prediction model was also evaluated using DfBeta, which ranged between –0.023 and 0.064, showing that there is no single case exerting a large influence on the model. To evaluate the effect of possible changes in the procedures for notification, investigation and services over the 15 years, we applied the same multivariate analytical procedure separately among the cases reported between April 1, 1996 to March 31, 2005 and those between April 1, 2005–March 31, 2010, confirming that the same set of the variables were associated with the maltreatment recurrence to almost the same extent (not shown in the tables).

The far right column of Table 3 shows the scores for our prediction model consisted of six factors: child age, offender’s age, history of abuse or neglect during offender’s childhood, financial instability or poverty of the household, presence of someone in the community who can watch over the victim, and referral source. The AUC of the prediction model was 0.66 (95%CI: 0.61–0.70), similar to the AUC of the stepwise entry model (0.69; 95%CI: 0.64–0.73).

When comparing the prediction scores computed by the prediction model and the observed proportion of maltreatment recurrence, the maximum discrimination between maltreatment recurrence and non-recurrence was attained at the score of 20. According to the model, the estimated risks of recurrence at score 0–9, 10–20 and 21–28, and 29–44 were 11.7%, 21.8%, 37.7%, and 43.8% respectively (Table 4). When cutoff was set at scores 9, 20 or 28, sensitivity and specificity were 93.8% and 17.4%; 45.2% and 82.4%; and 7.9% and 94.1%, respectively (Data not shown).

Table 1

Bivariate association of child and household's selected predictive variables with first maltreatment recurrence within 1 year.

Predictive Variables	Number of Cases	Recurrence Cases		Crude Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		p value
		N	(%)		Lower	Upper	
Child characteristics							
Gender							
Male	368	87	(23.6)	reference			
Female	348	90	(25.9)	1.13	0.80	1.58	0.49
Age (years)							
0–4	247	62	(25.1)	2.76	1.26	6.08	0.01
5–8	190	43	(22.6)	2.41	1.08	5.42	0.03
9–13	205	64	(31.2)	3.74	1.70	8.26	<0.001
14–17	74	8	(10.8)	reference			
Number of medically diagnosed symptoms							
0	225	45	(20.0)	reference			
1	387	99	(25.6)	1.37	0.92	2.05	0.12
2 or more	104	33	(31.7)	1.86	1.10	3.15	0.02
Mental or physical disability							
Yes	70	18	(25.7)	1.06	0.60	1.87	0.84
No	646	159	(24.6)	reference			
Emotional or behavioral problems							
Yes	56	18	(32.1)	1.49	0.83	2.69	0.18
No	660	159	(24.1)	reference			
Reactive emotional instability							
Yes	656	158	(24.1)	reference			
No	60	19	(31.7)	1.49	0.83	2.69	0.18
Other upbringing problems							
Yes	162	42	(25.9)	0.92	0.62	1.38	0.69
No	554	135	(24.4)	reference			
Household characteristics							
Number of family members							
2	53	16	(30.2)	1.57	0.75	3.29	0.23
3	238	63	(26.5)	1.30	0.76	2.23	0.33
4	314	74	(23.6)	1.12	0.66	1.88	0.68
5 or more	111	24	(21.6)	reference			
Sibling(s) with history of maltreatment							
Yes	104	33	(31.7)	1.86	1.10	3.15	0.02
No	387	99	(25.6)	1.37	0.92	2.05	0.12
Undetermined	225	45	(20.0)	reference			
Presence of an adult family member who could protect the maltreated child							
Yes	495	111	(22.4)	reference			
No	221	66	(29.9)	1.47	1.03	2.11	0.03
Financial instability or poverty							
Yes	162	56	(34.6)	1.89	1.29	2.77	<0.001
No	554	121	(21.8)	reference			
Family discord or domestic violence							
Yes	110	27	(24.5)	0.99	0.62	1.59	0.96
No	606	150	(24.8)	reference			

CGC: Child Guidance Center.

4. Discussion

Although the importance of having an assessment tool to determine if a child is at risk for maltreatment recurrence has been previously claimed by child health, education, forensic, and welfare practitioners in Japan ([Administrative Evaluation Bureau, 2013](#); [Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013c, 2014](#)), to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study in Japan to develop a practical prediction model assessing child maltreatment first recurrence within 1 year after initial report. Our study identified six variables as significant predictors of maltreatment recurrence. These included being a child aged 9–13 years, less than 40 years age of the offender, history of maltreatment during offender's childhood, financial instability or poverty, absence of someone in the community who could watch over the child, and the official organization as referral source. The simple linear prediction model developed from this analysis was demonstrated to enable the monitoring of the unsupported cases with weighted caution according to the probability of maltreatment recurrence. This

Table 2

Bivariate association of offender, maltreatment at initial report and other selected predictive variables with first maltreatment recurrence within 1 year.

Predictive Variables	Number of Cases	Recurrence Cases		Crude Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		p value
		N	(%)		Lower	Upper	
Offender							
Main offender							
Father (biological, foster, or stepfather)	226	56	(24.8)	1.04	0.42	2.55	0.94
Mother (biological, foster, or stepmother)	461	114	(24.7)	1.03	0.43	2.48	0.94
Other (grandparent, relative or sibling)	29	7	(24.1)	reference			
Offender's age							
<40	474	134	(28.3)	1.82	1.24	2.68	<0.001
40 or more	242	43	(17.8)	reference			
Disability of the offender							
Yes	361	105	(29.1)	1.61	1.14	2.27	0.01
No	355	72	(20.3)	reference			
History of maltreatment during childhood							
Yes	42	20	(47.6)	2.99	1.59	5.63	<0.001
No	674	157	(23.3)	reference			
Living with the maltreated child							
Yes	620	160	(25.8)	1.62	0.93	2.81	0.09
No	96	17	(17.7)	reference			
Willing to cooperate with the CGC							
Yes	647	158	(24.4)	reference			
No	69	19	(27.5)	1.18	0.67	2.05	0.57
Maltreatment at initial report							
Main type of maltreatment							
Neglect	299	82	(27.4)	1.28	0.77	2.12	0.34
Physical abuse	303	69	(22.8)	1.00	0.60	1.67	0.99
Psychological abuse	114	26	(22.8)	reference			
Frequency							
Frequent	186	59	(31.7)	1.62	1.12	2.35	0.01
Occasional	530	118	(22.3)	reference			
Other							
Presence of community member(s) who could watch over the maltreated child							
Yes	338	70	(20.7)	reference			
No	378	107	(28.3)	1.51	1.07	2.14	0.02
History of consultation with CGC							
Yes	109	36	(33.0)	1.63	1.05	2.53	0.03
No	607	141	(23.2)	reference			
Referral source							
Maltreated child or his/her family	102	19	(18.6)	reference			
Neighborhood	329	63	(19.1)	1.03	0.59	1.83	0.91
Official organization	285	95	(33.3)	2.18	1.25	3.81	0.01

CGC: Child Guidance Center.

is a significant progress in the prediction of maltreatment recurrent among unsupported cases which used to be judged only empirically by factors such as past maltreatment history, intervention history by protective agencies, guardian's unawareness of maltreatment, and guardian's mental instability or other mental issues (Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau, 2013c) and by the individualized assessments of the child, the guardian, and the their living conditions (Administrative Evaluation Bureau, 2013).

Unlike Japan, other countries (Cash, 2001; Coohy, Johnson, Renner, & Easton, 2013; D'Andrade et al., 2008; Gillingham, 2015) have developed assessment tools for maltreatment recurrence. However even though previous studies of cohort design on child maltreatment recurrence were focused, they were heterogeneous in children characteristics, definition and classification of maltreatment, risk factors, follow-up procedures, as well as data analyses methods (Fluke & Hollinshead, 2003; Hindley et al., 2006; White et al., 2015). Low child age has been suggested as a risk factor for recurrence (Fluke et al., 1999; Fryer & Miyoshi, 1994), but the other studies argued that there are more complicated mechanisms beneath the effect of child age on recurrence (Helie et al., 2013; Palusci, 2011). In our study, children between 9 and 13 years of age rather than younger age group were the most likely to experience recurrence. This suggests that more studies are needed in order to unveil the effect of age on recurrence of maltreatment in Japan and other settings. Previous studies have found that having a history of maltreatment or prior involvement with child protection services had higher probability of recurrence (English et al., 1999; Sledjeski et al., 2008). In our study, history of maltreatment during the offender's childhood was the second

Table 3

Multivariate logistic regression model using the stepwise method and scores for the prediction model.

Predictive Variables	Regression Coefficient	Adjusted Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		p value	Prediction Model Scores ^a
			Lower	Upper		
Child characteristics						
Age (years)						
0–4	0.63	1.88	0.82	4.28	0.13	6
5–8	0.62	1.85	0.80	4.29	0.15	6
9–13	1.23	3.43	1.52	7.72	<0.001	12
14–17		reference				0
Offender						
Offender's age						
<40	0.50	1.65	1.09	2.51	0.02	5
40 or more		reference				0
History of maltreatment during childhood						
Yes	0.94	2.56	1.31	4.99	0.01	9
No		reference				0
Household characteristics						
Financial instability or poverty						
Yes	0.50	1.64	1.10	2.45	0.02	5
No		reference				0
Other						
Presence of community member(s) who could watch over the maltreated child						
Yes		reference				0
No	0.52	1.68	1.16	2.44	0.01	5
Referral source						
Maltreated child or his/her family		reference				0
Neighborhood	0.03	1.03	0.57	1.87	0.93	0
Official organization	0.79	2.21	1.24	3.93	0.01	8

^a Prediction model scores were calculated multiplying the regression coefficients by 10 and rounding to the nearest integer.

Table 4

Comparison of the prediction model scores and the observed proportion of maltreatment recurrent cases.

	Prediction Model Scores ^a			
	0–9	10–20	21–28	29–44
Number of cases in the score range (n = 716)	94	444	146	32
Proportion of cases in the score range	13.1%	62.0%	20.4%	4.5%
Proportion of cases with recurrence of maltreatment in the score range	11.7%	21.8%	37.7%	43.8%

^a Prediction model scores were calculated multiplying the regression coefficients by 10 and rounding to the nearest integer.

strongest predictor of child maltreatment recurrence, but history of consultation with the CGC was not a predictor in the multivariate model. The fact that we excluded cases with prior reports of child maltreatment could explain this difference. Other studies have suggested family discord or domestic violence (English et al., 1999; Sledjeski et al., 2008); offender with physical or mental disability (Marshall & English, 1999; Wood, 1997); and neglect as risk factors (DePanfilis & Zuravin, 1999b; Fluke et al., 1999; Wood, 1997). One study found that the highest risk of subsequent maltreatment was within 30 days after the initial report (DePanfilis & Zuravin, 1999a). In our study, however, family discord or domestic violence, and neglect were not associated with recurrence after one year of the initial report; offender's disability was associated with recurrence but was not statistically significant in the multivariate model; and there was no tendency of recurrence to concentrate within 30 days of the initial report. All these suggest that the risk factors for maltreatment recurrence may be different between Japan and other countries, and therefore suggests a need for a tailored prediction model.

Our model, framed by a cumulative approach and an ecological approach to risk factors (Eastman et al., 2016; Maguire-Jack & Font, 2014), provides an indication of the degree of risk for recurrence and can provide an estimate on the amount of follow-up needed. Scores may be utilized in the following way: (1) scores between 9 and 19 considered as "low risk case", requiring cautious observation; (2) scores between 20 and 27 considered as "medium risk case", where implementation of preventive measures are put in place; and (3) scores of 28 or more considered as "high risk case", indicating the need for guided intervention and continuous support. If the cases are classified according to these categories, it could help limited human resource to be allocated in an efficiently and effective way. We can select different cut-off points depending on the purpose of prediction.

In our model three out of the six predictive variables are "static variables". The age of the child, age of the offender, and referral source are often identified at the initial notification of maltreatment with acceptable accuracy. For example, if the case is an adolescent between 9 and 13 years of age, the offender is under 40, and referred by a public organization, then

the predictive model score of 25 can be categorized as a case in need for guided intervention, continuous support, and to promptly start planning the necessary course of actions. On the other hand, the other 3 variables (history of maltreatment during childhood of offender, household with financial instability or poverty, and presence of someone in the community who could watch over the victim) are “intervenable variables”, the status of which can change in the follow-up support program. Even though the history of abuse or neglect in the offender’s childhood is a fixed fact at the time of investigation, the mental status of the offender can be improved through appropriate care or psychological support, which may in turn change the attitude of offender to the victim. Also, the economic status of the household can change if the family is found eligible for public assistant programs. Finally, reaching out to the community can find a person who would be willing to stay informed about the child. Thus, fixed factors should be used as the basic information, and intervenable factors as supporting targets and indicators, so that recurrence preventive measures can be planned out efficiently. In addition, information about the score and predictive factors should be shared among related agencies such as the Municipal Child Family Support Divisions, the CGCs, and other agencies supporting the daily life of families to create preventive education programs; increase awareness of child abuse in the community; enhance child watch systems; formulate policy-based support; and develop an effective and viable intervention system. Ultimately, the joint efforts may promote public measures that are child-centered, community-based and solution-focused.

We recognize there are some limitations to our study that should be considered. First, due to lack of established scales many variables in the model depended on the subjective judgment of whoever did the investigation. Also, because staff involved in maltreatment cases is normally overstretched many items were assessed and recorded as a dichotomous data, limiting the power of statistical analyses. Second, our results may not be applicable to other CGC as our model is based on data from a single CGC. But, the items registered in our database were based in the 1996 nationwide survey of the National Association of Child Guidance Center Directors. Our prediction model is potentially applicable to other similar facilities, but recurrence risk factors may vary between regions. Our model is of course not applicable to other international settings; in this regard, it should be noted that potential reason for the possible difference of predictor variables between our study and those in other countries may include the fact that numerous exclusion criteria were applied to the current samples, especially the children with substantiated sexual abuse that are usually included in this kind of studies and the fact that many important predictors of recurrence such as caregiver’s mental health, substance abuse and criminality were not available in this study. The third limitation is inherent to the research design of its observational and historical nature. Although not the consequence of the recurrence, independent variables are not necessary causal factors for the recurrence. In addition the predictive power of our model may vary if associations between maltreatment recurrence and predictive variables change over time or if new factors emerge. Although within our study period associations between maltreatment recurrence and predictive variables was unlikely much changed because multivariate analyses conducted separately among the cases registered early and latter half of the study periods yielded the same result, the validity of our model requires continuous verification.

In conclusion, it is essential to reduce the risk of future harm among children by assessing the risk of recurrence at the initial response and adopting the necessary countermeasures. We developed the first multivariate prediction model in Japan for child maltreatment first recurrence within one year among unsupported cases using only six items. Despite many limitations, our predictive model may be useful for child welfare organizations at least in part to assess the potential risk of maltreatment recurrence and the needs for preventive measures among unsupported cases who are otherwise left just unsupported.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine (No. E1337). We also fully explained the purpose of our study, a description of the procedures, and dissemination plan of the results to officials at Shiga Central CGC; and obtained written consent from the Director. Before our study team gained access to the database, staff at the CGC removed all personal identifiers from the cases. Given the retrospective nature of our study, formal consent from the cases was not required.

Availability of data and materials

The data supporting the conclusion of this article is not included within the article, because the authors are not supposed to share the dataset due to restrictions in Shiga Prefecture Personal Data Protection Regulation.

Competing interests

HH worked at Shiga Central CGC until March 2012. However, all authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Author contributions

HH, SPS, MOK and MK discussed and conceived the study design. HH obtained the approval to use the dataset from Shiga Central CGC and carried out the statistical analyses, closely supervised by all co-authors. HH and MK wrote the first draft of this manuscript. All authors participated in the revision of the manuscript and approved the final version.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Prevalence and Correlates of HIV Testing among Young People Enrolled in Non-Formal Education Centers in Urban Chiang Mai, Thailand: A Cross-Sectional Study

Patou Masika Musumari¹, Arunrat Tangmunkongvorakul^{2*}, Kriengkrai Srithanaviboonchai^{2,3}, Sawang Yungyuankul², Teeranee Techasrivichien¹, S. Pilar Suguimoto^{1,4}, Masako Ono-Kihara¹, Masahiro Kihara¹, Suwat Chariyalertsak^{2,3}

1 Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan, **2** Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **3** Faculty of Medicine, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand, **4** Center of Medical Education, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

* arunrat@rihes.org



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Abstract

Background

HIV testing is the gateway to HIV prevention, treatment, and care. Despite the established vulnerability of young Thai people to HIV infection, studies examining the prevalence and correlates of HIV testing among the general population of Thai youth are still very limited. This study investigates socio-demographic, behavioral, and psychosocial factors associated with HIV testing among young Thai people enrolled in Non-formal Education Centers (NFEC) in urban Chiang Mai, Northern Thailand.

Methods

This was a cross-sectional quantitative study conducted among young unmarried Thai youth—between the ages of 15 and 24—who were enrolled in NFEC in urban Chiang Mai. Multiple logistic regressions were used to identify correlates of “ever tested for HIV” among the sexually active participants.

Findings

Of the 295 sexually active participants, 27.3% reported “ever tested for HIV;” 65.4% “did not consistently use condom;” and 61.7% “had at least 2 lifetime partners.” We found that “self-efficacy” (AOR, 4.92; CI, 1.22–19.73); “perception that it is easy to find a location nearby to test for HIV” (AOR, 4.67; CI, 1.21–18.06); “having at least 2 lifetime sexual partners” (AOR, 2.05; CI, 1.09–3.85); and “ever been pregnant or made someone pregnant” (AOR, 4.06; CI, 2.69–9.15); were associated with increased odds of having ever been tested. On the other hand, “fear of HIV test results” (AOR, 0.21; CI, 0.08–0.57) was associated with lower odds of ever having been tested for HIV.

study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Conclusion

The main finding is that a substantially high proportion of Thai youth is engaged in risky sexual behaviors—yet reports low rates of ever having been tested for HIV. This highlights an urgent need to develop appropriate interventions—based on the identified correlates of HIV testing. There is also an urgent need to enhance HIV testing and to promote safer sexual behaviors among young Thai people—particularly those who are out-of-school.

Introduction

The prospect of ending the HIV/AIDS epidemic has crystalized over time. Increasing evidence today shows the potential for antiretroviral therapy (ART). It has a strong therapeutic effect, and it also has the ability to dramatically reduce both the transmission and acquisition of HIV infection [1]. HIV testing—as the gateway to effective HIV prevention, treatment, and care—must absolutely be optimized, before this enthusiastic hope to end the HIV/AIDS epidemic could translate to palpable reality. There is extensive literature in support of the finding that individuals substantially reduce risky sexual behaviors after they become aware of their HIV status [2, 3]. Moreover—for infected individuals—HIV testing prompts early initiation of ART, which, in turn, is associated with significantly reduced risk of HIV transmission [1].

However, today, the proportion of individuals who know their HIV status still remains unacceptably low. At the global level, as of the end of 2012, only 50% of people were aware of their HIV status, with great variation within and between countries and regions [4]. This sobering fact indicates that—despite the current expansion of HIV prevention, treatment and care programs worldwide—tremendous efforts are still necessary to improve HIV testing behavior, in order to achieve the optimum possible level of prevention and treatment of HIV infection.

In Thailand, the first anonymous HIV testing and counseling (HTC) clinic was established by the Thai Red Cross Society in mid-1991. The Ministry of Public Health (MoPH) aligned its efforts with those of the Thai Red Cross Society. It adopted HIV counseling and testing (HTC) as part of the country's prevention strategies in 1992, and subsequently made the service available in all government health clinics in all the provinces [5, 6]. Currently, HIV testing services are delivered through public health facilities, such as government hospitals; government clinics; and health centers. Testing services are also delivered at both for-profit and non-profit private organizations, and at private clinics and hospitals.

Studies on HIV testing in Thailand reflect the concentrated nature of the epidemic in the country [7, 8]. They have mostly focused on the most at-risk populations (both youth and adults). These include men who have sex with men (MSM); female and male sex workers; and people who inject drugs (PWID) [9–13]. Very few studies have examined HIV testing at the overall population level [14–16]. Thus far, records of studies focusing specifically on the general Thai youth remain extremely scarce [17].

Young Thais are a particularly vulnerable population when it comes to HIV infection. There exists strong evidence showing that they engage in behavioral patterns that increase their risk of HIV infection. For example, the Bureau of Epidemiology [18] and the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security [19] have reported an increasing trend of unintended pregnancies and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among Thai adolescents over the past 15 years. This occurrence points to an increasing rate of unprotected sex—probably as a result of the failure of safe sex messages to reach the general Thai youth population. A recent population-based study conducted in Nonthaburi province in Thailand [20], supporting previous

similar findings [14, 21, 22], indicates a profound change in sexual norms among young Thais. This is characterized by a decline in the age of sexual initiation and a shift in the typical sexual partner—away from commercial sex workers to boyfriends or girlfriends in committed romantic relationships. In addition, there is, on average, a larger number of lifetime sexual partners, and a greater social acceptance of adolescent premarital sex.

Young people comprise a heterogeneous group of individuals whose sexual behaviors and vulnerability to HIV infection vary widely [23]. Previous research conducted in urban Chiang Mai, Thailand, found that out-of-school young people had a higher prevalence of risky sexual behaviors than those enrolled in general school and university (the sample for this group was recruited from Non-formal Education Centers (NFEC) and public spaces in Chiang Mai City). Out-of-school young people were also more likely to be sexually experienced. They also had a lower mean age of sexual debut, and a larger number of lifetime sexual partners, in comparison with their counterparts who attended general school and university [21, 24, 25]. Despite the documented profile of risky sexual behaviors among out-of-school Thai young people, nothing is known about the prevalence and correlates of HIV testing in this out-of-school population. Also, the general literature on HIV testing in general for Thai youth remains remarkably scarce.

The present study endeavors to fill this gap by documenting the prevalence and correlates of HIV testing among out-of-school young people enrolled in NFEC in urban Chiang Mai, Thailand. Our investigation focuses on the socio-demographic, behavioral, and psychosocial factors associated with HIV testing.

Methods

Ethics statement

The study was approved by the Office of Research Ethics, Human Experimentation Committee of the Research Institute for Health Sciences, Chiang Mai University (Certificate of Ethical Clearance No. 5/2015). Participants were first informed about the study's objectives; their roles; and their rights to give or not to give any information during the interview. Additional topics discussed with participants were confidentiality of the personal data and manner in which findings would be presented. Participants provided verbal informed consent. Verbal informed consent was selected in preference to written informed consent, based on the vulnerable nature of our study population. Another reason for this was to prevent potential harm to the participants that could result from a breach of confidentiality. This process of informed consent was deemed appropriate by the Office of Research Ethics. For participants who were under 18 years old, written informed consent was obtained from their guardians—after providing the guardians with all the information regarding the study.

Study design, participants, & setting

This was a cross-sectional study conducted between June and September 2015. Our study participants were defined as “young people aged 15–24, enrolled in NFEC in urban Chiang Mai, Thailand. Urban Chiang Mai—also referred to as Chiang Mai city, has rapidly expanded and developed as the epicenter of technology, industry, and education of Northern Thailand. Therefore, the area attracts an increasing number of young people from the countryside and neighboring provinces in search of education and work opportunities. Urban Chiang Mai is organized into 16 sub-districts, each comprising one NFEC. Non-formal Education in Thailand—run by the office of the Non-Formal Education Commission of the Thai Ministry of Education—offers the opportunity to youth and to adults who are out of school to get basic education. Also, these youth have the chance to continue their higher education via the

certificate they are provided with upon completion of the program [26]. Young people enrolled in NFEC are provided with a three-hour tutorial class on a weekend basis. They may attend a class on Saturday and/or Sunday, and they may also attend a morning or afternoon program. The type of class they enroll in depends on their level of previous education. They will select a class at either primary, secondary, or high school level.

Our participants were recruited from all the 16 NFEC of Chiang Mai City. The procedure was that all age-eligible youths present on a teaching day were invited to participate—after having the survey explained to them. Our field research team included young investigators with extensive training both in field research and in quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Survey Instrument

A structured, self-administered questionnaire was developed by the survey team. The questionnaire included 73 items, and was designed to address issues related to sexual and reproductive health of young people. It included items on participants' socio-economic and demographic characteristics; recreational activities; alcohol, tobacco, and drug use; relationships; sexual identity and experience; sexually transmitted infections; birth control, pregnancy and abortion; need for sexual health services; and HIV testing.

While most questionnaire items were directly obtained from the literature [27, 28], other items—especially those related to HIV testing—were designed to fit the objectives of the current study. The questionnaire was first pre-tested. It was then refined in accordance with the test results—in order to ensure the clarity of the items. Participants completed the questionnaire in the classroom with desks spaced far enough to ensure privacy. Neither teachers nor any school-affiliated staff members were present while the students were completing the questionnaire. On average, it took 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The current study exclusively focuses on HIV testing.

Variables

The outcome variable of interest was the past HIV testing status. This was assessed using the item “Have you ever been tested for HIV?” Firstly, the covariates included socio-demographic variables: age; sex; living status; employment status; and whether or not one currently has a boyfriend/girlfriend. The next category of variables was behavioral factors: “ever had sex”; “history of STI”; “ever been pregnant or made someone pregnant”; “number of lifetime sexual partners”; and “consistent use of condom”—specifically defined as using a condom for every act of sexual intercourse. The third category of variables was psychosocial variables. Among these, the first one was one's self-efficacy of HIV testing—exemplified by the sentence, “I think I am able to get tested for HIV.” The second factor was one's attitude toward HIV testing—to what degree did each participant think that “Getting tested for HIV is a responsible thing to do.”? Other psychosocial variables were subjective norms about HIV testing. Examples of positive norms included ideas such as “My family [parents, siblings] find it important that I have myself tested for HIV frequently.” Other examples were “My friend(s) find(s) it important that I have myself tested for HIV frequently.” Additional related variables were one's perceived risk of HIV and one's perceived risk of STIs and one's degree of fear of HIV test results. The final variable was the perceived ease or difficulty of finding a nearby location to test for HIV.

Statistical Analysis

The analysis was performed using SPSS (PASW) for Windows 17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA). Univariate analysis was used to obtain descriptive statistics of the selected variables. Chi-square was performed to document the associations of categorical covariates with the

outcome of interest “ever tested for HIV” in the bivariate analysis. Multiple logistic regression was used to obtain adjusted odds ratios (AOR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). Descriptive statistics were provided for the entire sample; however, bivariate and multivariate analyses were performed specifically in the subgroup of participants who were sexually active.

Two models were specified in the multiple logistic regression analysis. The first model included all the covariates. The second model included variables identified in the bivariate analysis with a $P \leq 0.10$, and the variable “sex,” which was considered epidemiologically important. The diagnostic procedures yielded no evidence of multicollinearity.

Results

Participant characteristics

A total of 519 participants were recruited, and none of them declined to participate. First considering the demographic characteristics, the median age was 19 years [Interquartile range (IQR): 17.0–21.2]. The marital status of all participants was single. Slightly over half of them were female (53.2%); had work with income (56.3%); reported currently having a boyfriend or girlfriend (53.0%); and reported previously ever having had sex (56.8%).

Among those who were sexually active, 42% reported a history of STI—with self-reported symptoms or diagnosed by medical personnel. Among the total, 22% had ever been pregnant or made someone pregnant—of which 23.1% had ended up with an abortion or miscarriage. Also, 15.6% initiated sex before age 15. A substantial proportion had at least 2 lifetime partners (61.7%), and did not use condoms consistently (65.4%). The proportion of participants who reported ever having had an HIV test was 18.3% in the entire group. Among those who were sexually active, it was 27.8% (see [Table 1](#)).

Factors associated with ever tested for HIV

[Table 2](#) shows the association of socio-demographic characteristics, behavioral factors, and psychosocial variables with ever tested for HIV. The bivariate analysis indicated that being female, aged 20–25 years, ever been pregnant or made someone pregnant, having two or more lifetime sexual partners, perception that testing for HIV is a responsible thing to do, perception that it is easy to find a location nearby to get tested for HIV, fear of HIV test result, and self-efficacy of HIV testing were significantly associated with increased odds of ever tested for HIV.

We specified two models for the multiple logistic regressions. Overall, these models displayed similar results. Of the two models, Model 2 presented estimates with better precision; therefore, it was the one selected in the current report. ([Table 3](#)). The odds of “ever had HIV” was higher for participants who had “ever been pregnant or made someone pregnant;” who “had at least 2 lifetime sexual partners;” and who perceived that it is “easy to find a location nearby to test for HIV.” On the other hand, the odds were lower for those who “feared” or were not sure if they feared HIV test results. Regarding self-efficacy for HIV test, participants who perceived they were able to get tested for HIV and those who were uncertain, were more likely to ever had an HIV test than participants who did not have such a perception.

Discussion

To our knowledge, this study is the first to examine HIV testing and its correlates in the population of out-of-school Thai youth attending the NFEC in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Our study revealed a significantly low prevalence of HIV testing—coupled with a high prevalence of risky sexual behaviors among our participants. Respectively, 65.4%, 61.7%, and 27.8% of sexually active young people did not consistently use condoms, had at least 2 lifetime partners; and

Table 1. Socio-Demographic & Behavioral Characteristics of Participants.

	N = 519	%
Sex		
Male	243	46.8
Female	276	53.2
Age		
14–19 years	276	53.2
20–25 years	218	42.0
Missing	25	4.8
<i>Median (IQR)</i>	<i>19 (17–21.25)</i>	
Living status		
Living at home	223	43.0
Renting/Dormitory/other	293	56.5
Missing	3	0.6
Employment with income		
No	227	43.7
Yes	292	56.3
Having boy/girlfriend		
No	275	53.0
Yes	221	42.6
Missing	23	4.4
Ever had sex		
No	218	42.0
Yes	295	56.8
Missing	6	1.2
Ever tested for HIV testing		
No	390	75.1
Yes	95	18.3
Missing	34	6.6
Ever tested for HIV[#]		
No	200	67.8
Yes	82	27.8
Missing	13	4.4
History of STI[#]		
No	165	55.9
Yes	124	42.0
Missing	6	2.0
Ever pregnant or made someone pregnant[#]		
No	194	65.8
Yes	65	22.0
Missing	36	12.2
Sexual debut[#]		
< 15 years	46	15.6
≥ 15 years	239	81.0
Missing	10	3.4
Number of life time sexual partners[#]		
1 partner	86	29.2
≥ 2 partners	182	61.7
Missing	27	9.2

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

	N = 519	%
Consistent condom use[#]		
No	193	65.4
Yes	83	28.1
Missing	19	6.4

IQR, interquartile range;

[#], data restricted to the subgroup of sexually active youth.

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reported ever having had been tested for HIV. The low HIV testing rate—coupled with the high prevalence of risky sexually behaviors—nurture a perfect environment where HIV can continue to be transmitted between partners who are in ignorance of their situation. It is also alarming to note that—despite the highly reported history of STIs (43.3%), which also reflect the low prevalence condom use—the majority of participants did not perceive themselves to be at risk for HIV infection. Additionally, what is of particular importance is the fact that no association was found between HIV testing and history of STIs or condom use. This finding signals a lack of concern about HIV infection among out-of-school Thai youth attending the NFEC.

As a result, there is a great need to rapidly develop evidence-based, youth-friendly strategies likely to improve HIV testing and to decrease risky sexual behaviors among out-of-school young Thai enrolled in NFEC in Chiang Mai, and Thailand at large. Such interventions should particularly be built on the correlates of HIV testing—such as those documented in this study. We found that the perceptions that it is easy to find a location nearby to test for HIV—and of self-efficacy for HIV testing—were associated with a high likelihood of “ever having had an HIV test.” Other factors associated with having had an HIV test were ever having been pregnant or made someone pregnant and having two or more lifetime sexual partners. On the other hand, fear of HIV test results was associated with decreased odds of ever having been tested for HIV.

The finding that participants who perceived it was easy to find a location nearby to test for HIV were more likely to report ever had an HIV test has two important implications. Firstly, it may tacitly imply that alleviation of distance as a structural barrier to accessing HIV testing sites could possibly improve HIV testing behavior among the young people. The second implication is that—in addition to addressing barriers such as distance—there is a need to ensure that young people are knowledgeable as to the availability of HIV testing services. This could take place, for example, through sensitization campaigns. This is particularly important because, in studies conducted in other settings, the lack of knowledge of service availability, and/or the lack of knowledge of the closest HIV testing site—rather than the actual unavailability of services—have been identified as barriers to HIV testing [29, 30].

We found that self-efficacy for HIV testing was associated with increased odds of “ever having been tested for HIV.” It is most likely that, in our study, self-efficacy for HIV testing is the outcome of a previous HIV testing experience, rather than being causal to it. This suggests that past experience of HIV testing—by enhancing self-efficacy—may be a facilitator for future HIV testing behavior. This is very important, considering that HIV testing should be regarded as a continuous behavior over the human life-course, rather than as a one-time event. In a previous study, self-efficacy was identified as strong predictor of willingness to test for HIV. However, in this study, self-efficacy was a complex concept based on people’s ability to engage in abstinence; remain faithful; and negotiate condom use. In our study, on the other hand, self-

Table 2. Bivariate associations of socio-demographic, behavioral, and psychosocial factors with “ever tested for HIV” among sexually active participants.

	Ever Tested for HIV			Crude OR (95% CI)	P value ^a
	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Total n (%)		
Sex					
Male	34 (41.5)	110 (55.0)	144 (51.1)	1.00	
Female	48 (58.5)	90 (45.0)	138 (48.9)	1.72 (1.02–2.90)	0.039
Age					
14–19 years	24 (30.4)	93 (48.4)	117 (43.2)	1.00	
20–25 years	55 (69.6)	99 (51.6)	154 (56.8)	2.15 (1.23–3.75)	0.006
Living status					
Living at home	36 (44.4)	97 (48.5)	133 (47.3)	1.00	
Renting/Dormitory/other	45 (55.6)	103 (51.5)	148 (52.7)	1.71 (0.61–4.76)	0.537
Employment with income					
No	27 (32.9)	79 (39.5)	106 (37.6)	1.00	
Yes	55 (67.1)	121 (60.5)	176 (62.4)	1.33 (0.77–2.28)	0.301
Currently having boy/girlfriend					
No	18 (22.8)	53 (27.3)	71 (26.0)	1.00	
Yes	61 (77.2)	141 (72.7)	202 (74.0)	1.27 (0.69–2.35)	0.439
History of STI^{&}					
No	45 (54.9)	112 (57.4)	157 (56.7)	1.00	
Yes	37 (45.1)	83 (42.6)	120 (43.3)	1.11 (0.66–1.86)	0.695
Ever pregnant or made someone pregnant					
No	38 (52.1)	151 (84.4)	189 (75.0)	1.00	
Yes	35 (47.9)	28 (15.6)	63 (25.0)	4.96 (2.69–9.15)	< 0.001
Sexual debut					
< 15 years	15 (19.2)	26 (13.3)	41 (15.0)	1.00	
≥ 15 years	63 (80.8)	169 (86.7)	232 (85.0)	0.64 (0.32–1.29)	0.218
Number of life time sexual partners					
1 partner	16 (21.9)	68 (36.6)	84 (32.4)	1.00	
≥ 2 partners	57 (78.1)	118 (63.4)	175 (67.6)	2.05 (1.09–3.85)	0.024
Consistent condom use					
No	60 (74.1)	124 (67.8)	184 (69.7)	1.00	

(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued)

	Ever Tested for HIV			Crude OR (95% CI)	P value ^a
	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Total n (%)		
Yes	21 (25.9)	59 (32.2)	80 (30.3)	0.73 (0.41–1.32)	0.303
Testing for HIV is a responsible thing to do					
No	6 (7.3)	46 (23.8)	52 (18.9)	1.00	
Yes	76 (92.7)	147 (76.2)	223 (81.1)	3.96 (1.62–9.69)	0.001
Finding a location nearby to get HIV test is...					
Difficult	5 (6.1)	43 (21.7)	48 (17.1)	1.00	
Easy	58 (70.7)	98 (49.5)	156 (55.7)	5.09 (1.90–13.58)	0.001
Not sure	19 (23.2)	57 (28.8)	76 (27.1)	2.86 (0.99–8.28)	0.052
I fear the result of HIV test					
No	64 (78.0)	99 (49.7)	163 (58.0)	1.00	
Yes	14 (17.1)	60 (30.2)	74 (26.3)	0.36 (0.18–0.69)	0.003
Not sure	4 (4.9)	40 (20.1)	44 (15.7)	0.15 (0.05–0.45)	0.001
I think I am able to get tested for HIV					
No	5 (6.1)	43 (21.9)	48 (17.3)	1.00	
Yes	59 (72.0)	91 (46.4)	150 (54.0)	5.57 (2.08–14.89)	0.001
Not sure	18 (22.0)	62 (31.6)	80 (28.8)	2.49 (0.86–7.23)	0.092
My family (parents, siblings) find it important I have myself tested for HIV frequently					
No	25 (30.9)	69 (35.6)	94 (34.2)	1.00	
Yes	33 (40.7)	58 (29.9)	91 (33.1)	1.57 (0.84–2.93)	0.158
Not sure	23 (28.4)	67 (34.5)	90 (32.7)	0.94 (0.49–1.83)	0.872
My friends find it important I have myself tested for HIV frequently					
No	27 (33.3)	80 (41.2)	107 (38.9)	1.00	
Yes	34 (42.0)	55 (28.4)	89 (32.4)	1.83 (0.99–3.37)	0.052
Not sure	20 (24.7)	59 (30.4)	79 (28.7)	1.00 (0.51–1.96)	0.990
HIV risk perception					
No	57 (70.4)	140 (72.5)	197 (71.9)	1.00	
Yes	24 (29.6)	53 (27.5)	77 (28.1)	1.11 (0.62–1.97)	0.716
STI risk perception					
No	51 (63.0)	125 (64.8)	176 (64.2)	1.00	

(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued)

	Ever Tested for HIV			Crude OR (95% CI)	P value ^a
	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Total n (%)		
Yes	30 (37.0)	68 (35.2)	98 (35.8)	1.08 (0.63–1.85)	0.776

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval;

^a P values based on chi-square test of proportions unless otherwise specified; STI, sexually transmitted infection; &, referred to both diagnosed and self-reported symptoms of sexually transmitted infections.

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efficacy was considered to be a direct measure of people’s ability to go for an HIV test as in our study [31].

In line with other previously conducted studies [30, 32, 33], we have found that fear of HIV test results negatively impacts on the HIV testing behavior of young people. Interventions that address fear of HIV test results would be likely to improve HIV testing. However, the success of such interventions will largely depend on our understanding of drivers of fear of HIV testing. Many studies have linked fear of HIV test results to HIV risk perception in such a way that individuals who are perceived to be at risk for HIV as a result of their sexual behavior feared a positive HIV test result. Therefore, these people were more reluctant to go for an HIV test [34–36]. However, such a link was not established in our study. Both HIV and STI risk perception were neither associated with fear of HIV test result nor with ever had tested for HIV. Other studies have attributed fear of HIV test results—particularly, of positive test results—to a number of factors. These possible factors have included doubts about the availability and effectiveness of HIV medication; perceived stigma and discrimination accompanying a positive HIV status; and perceived lack of support from friends, family, and the community [32, 37]. In the case of Thailand, more studies are needed to unveil the context-specific factors underlying fear of HIV test results among the young in general—and specifically among out-of-school Thai youth attending the NFEC.

Participants who ever had been pregnant or made someone pregnant had increased odds of ever having had an HIV test in our study. Our findings support results from a previous study which found “ever been pregnant” as the highest predictor for HIV testing uptake among young people in South Africa [38]. A well-established explanation is that pregnant women—through the antenatal clinic—are more likely to undergo HIV testing under the Provider Initiated HIV Testing and Counseling (PIHTC) service delivered in the context of the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV (PMTCT). Through the same context of PMTCT, male partners who made someone pregnant are also more likely to undergo HIV testing [38–41]. The increased contact of females with the health care system through antenatal clinics and other reproductive health services in many settings has been at the center of the generally observed gender differential in HIV testing, with females being more likely to test for HIV than males.

Although not significant, in our study, there was a notable trend for female participants to more likely report ever had an HIV test—compared to male participants. Our findings that the odds of reporting ever tested for HIV was higher among participants who had a larger number of lifetime partners—and among those who had ever had sex—were previously documented in other settings [42–45]. It is not obviously clear what factors mediate these associations in the context of our study. The mediating effect of HIV/STI risk perception on the association

Table 3. Multivariate analysis of factors associated with ever tested for HIV among sexually active participants.

	Models Adjusted OR (95%CI)	
	(1)	(2)
Sex Female (vs Male)	2.50 (0.88–7.08)	2.03 (0.88–4.67)
Age 20–25 years (vs. 14–19 years)	1.20 (0.45–3.18)	1.03 (0.47–2.25)
Employment with income Yes (vs. none)	1.07 (0.41–2.78)	
Living status Living at home (vs. renting/dormitory/other)	1.70 (0.65–4.45)	
Currently having boy/girlfriend Yes (vs. no)	0.57 (0.20–1.62)	
Testing for HIV is a responsible thing to do Yes (vs no)	1.57 (0.39–6.36)	2.18 (0.65–7.31)
Finding a location nearby to get an HIV test is...		
Difficult	1.00	1.00
Easy	5.01 (1.11–22.68)*	4.67 (1.21–18.06)*
Not sure	4.07 (0.71–23.12)	3.31 (0.73–14.88)
I fear the results of HIV testing		
No	1.00	1.00
Yes	0.11 (0.03–0.38) [†]	0.21 (0.08–0.57)**
Not sure	0.09 (0.02–0.45)**	0.11 (0.02–0.47)**
I think I am able to get tested for HIV		
No	1.00	1.00
Yes	12.65 (2.10–76.26)**	4.92 (1.22–19.73)*
Not sure	17.08 (2.50–116.47)**	4.71 (1.01–21.92)*
My family (parents, siblings) find it important that I have myself tested for HIV frequently		
No	1.00	
Yes	1.32 (0.22–7.79)	
Not sure	0.57 (0.11–2.95)	
My friends find it important that I have myself tested for HIV frequently		
No	1.00	1.00
Yes	1.25 (0.25–6.32)	1.82 (0.75–4.41)
Not sure	0.97 (0.19–4.96)	1.01 (0.38–2.69)
History of STI^{&} yes (vs no)	0.56 (0.22–1.40)	
HIV risk perception yes (vs no)	2.84 (0.68–11.79)	
STI risk perception yes (vs no/don't know)	0.52 (0.14–1.86)	
Ever pregnant or made someone pregnant yes (vs no)	6.34 (2.24–17.91) [†]	4.11 (1.76–9.60)**
Sexual debut ≥ 15 years (< 15 years)	0.48 (0.13–1.79)	
Number of lifetime sexual partners ≥ 2 partner (vs 1 partner)	2.59 (0.84–7.96)	2.63 (1.10–6.27)*
Consistent condom use yes (vs no)	1.17 (0.44–3.08)	

Adjusted OR, Adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval;

* *P* value < 0.05;

** *P* value < 0.01;

[†]*P* value < 0.001; STI, sexually transmitted infection; &, referred to both diagnosed and self-reported symptoms of sexually transmitted infections.

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between sexual risk behaviors and HIV testing, documented elsewhere [32, 46–48], was not established in our study. This remains an open issue that future research will endeavor to clarify.

Our study also highlights the vulnerability to HIV infection and STIs of out-of-school Thai youth enrolled in NFEC—by showing both low levels of HIV testing and high risk sexual behaviors in this population. A prior research in the same population in urban Chiang Mai found that sexual risk behaviors were much more prevalent among out-of-school Thai youth—compared to their counterparts engaged in formal education [21, 24, 25]. Our study has identified correlates of HIV testing which can importantly inform future interventions aiming to improve HIV testing among Thai youth attending NFEC.

There is increasing support for a holistic approach to sexual and reproductive health for young people [49–51]. This approach should include interventions of varying nature (school-based, mass media, etc.), designed based on relevant contextual factors. These interventions should address a range of outcomes (HIV testing, sexual behaviors, HIV/AIDS knowledge) at different levels (individual, community, structural, etc.). This approach is recommended, as opposed to isolated interventions singling out one specific outcome. School-based interventions—which have been shown to be effective in increasing knowledge and decreasing HIV risk behaviors among youth [23]—potentially could enhance HIV testing among Thai youth enrolled in NFEC under the following circumstances.

First, they should be delivered in the form of health education and life skills programs. These programs should include counseling addressing factors such as fear of HIV testing results; self-efficacy; and HIV/STI risk perception. They should be coupled with interventions that promote access to HIV testing services both from a legal perspective (such as parental consent for HIV testing for adolescents aged under age 18) and a structural perspective (such as service availability and distance to testing sites).

A number of limitations to this study need to be acknowledged. Our study is cross-sectional by nature; thus, this design prohibits any causal inference. There was some risk of a “social desirability” bias in the data—given the sensitivity inherent to sexual health topics. However, the fact that we used young, well-trained investigators who could relate well to the study population might have minimized this bias. There was also a fair amount of missing values across all the covariates which could affect the results of our study.

One important limitation includes the fact that the variable “sexual identity” was not reliably collected so as to allow its inclusion in the analysis. “Sexual identity” in our study is a derived variable from two variables (gender of the participant & gender of the partner), and had important flaws. Firstly, the item on the gender of partner was restricted to the subsample of participants who stated that they currently had a partner. However, 26% of participants who were sexually active in general did not currently have a boyfriend or girlfriend. Secondly, the derived variable “sexual identity” does not explicitly tell how the participants identify themselves in terms of their sexual orientation. In addition, the lack of data on types of sexual intercourse (male-to-male; male-to-female; anal versus vaginal, etc.) limits the interpretation of risk in our study. This is particularly relevant because of the very high HIV risk documented among young MSM, male sex workers, and transgenders in Thailand [52, 53]. It is also important to note that the single items used to measure psychosocial variables—such as attitudes to HIV testing and self-efficacy—may not have captured well the various dimensions of those constructs. Future studies should use full and validated scales for our population of interest. The variable “History of STI” includes both actual STI diagnoses and self-reported symptoms of STIs. Self-reported symptoms are not accurate measures of STI—because genital infections may also be caused by non-sexually transmitted conditions. Lastly, although the results of this study—to a large extent—represent the situation of young people enrolled in NFE in Chiang

Mai, it is not clear to what extent they can be generalized to young people enrolled in NFE in other provinces of Thailand and/or to out-of-school young people who do not attend NFE.

In summary, we found that a substantially high proportion of Thai youth who engaged in risky sexual behavior, yet reported low rates of ever having been tested for HIV. We were able to identify a number of individual-level factors (such as fear of HIV test results and perception that it is easy to locate an HIV testing site nearby) which can serve as useful guidelines for future interventions to enhance HIV testing uptake among young people enrolled in NFEC in Thailand. Such interventions should, however, consider the broader contextual and structural landscape within which young people live.

Supporting Information

S1 Dataset. Dataset of the study.

(SAV)

S1 Questionnaire. Questionnaire Thai version.

(DOC)

S2 Questionnaire. Questionnaire English Version.

(DOCX)

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: AT PMM KS SY TT SS MO MK SC. Performed the experiments: AT PMM KS SY TT SS MO MK SC. Analyzed the data: PMM AT KS SY TT SS MO MK SC. Wrote the paper: PMM AT KS SY TT SS MO MK SC.

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Perceived Difficulties Regarding HIV/AIDS Services among Public Health Nurses in the Kinki Region of Western Japan: Implications for Public Health Nursing Education in Japan

Yumiko H. Nishimura¹, Mieko Iwai², Akiyo Ozaki³, Asuka Waki⁴, Yasuharu Hidaka⁵

¹School of Nursing, Kansai University of Nursing and Health Sciences, Hyogo, Japan

²HRD Training & Consulting Office Double Eyes, Hyogo, Japan

³Ikeda-Shiritsu Shibutani Junior High School, Osaka, Japan

⁴School of Nursing, Senri Kinran University, Osaka, Japan

⁵Takarazuka University School of Nursing, Osaka, Japan

Email: y.nishimura@kki.ac.jp

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Abstract

Objective: To determine the perceived difficulties in providing HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses and to identify their correlates, we carried out a cross-sectional study in the Kinki region of western Japan. **Methods:** Structured self-administered questionnaires were distributed to all public health nurses in the region, and 1535 valid questionnaires were retrieved (valid response rate 78.7%). **Results:** More than half of the participants (52.8%) reported difficulties with HIV/AIDS services. The factors associated with perceived difficulties were having a negative attitude towards consultations on sexual matters (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] 2.2, $p < 0.001$), a perceived lack of encounters with homosexual people and people with HIV/AIDS during practice (AOR 1.6, $p = 0.002$ and AOR 1.8, $p < 0.001$), poor knowledge of sexual diversity (AOR 2.0, $p < 0.001$), lack of training in sexual diversity in public health nursing education (AOR 1.4, $p = 0.016$), and low permissiveness of the diversity of sexual behavior (AOR 2.0, $p < 0.001$). **Conclusions:** Overall, our results suggest that nursing and public health nursing education in Japan should cover sexual issues and HIV/AIDS in a more systematic way.

Keywords

Perceived Difficulties, HIV/AIDS, Public Health Nursing Education, Sexual Diversity

1. Introduction

According to the Japan Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare's HIV/AIDS Surveillance Committee, 1056 and 473 new HIV and AIDS cases were reported in 2011, respectively. The annual number of reported HIV and AIDS cases in Japan peaked in 2008, and has since stabilized at around 1500 new cases annually. HIV is primarily transmitted through male homosexual behavior—among the reported new cases of HIV and AIDS in 2011, 68% and 55% respectively were among men who had sex with men (MSM) [1]. This situation led the Japanese government to update a special guideline on HIV and AIDS in January 2012, which emphasized the need to improve counseling and testing services for these conditions by making them more accessible to those most vulnerable to HIV infection, such as MSM [2].

In Japan, free and anonymous HIV tests and counseling are provided at public health centers of all prefectures and some large cities. These counseling and testing services are fairly well known to MSM—an Internet study in 2008 indicated that more than half of MSM who ever tested for HIV had used these services [3]. One study carried out in public health centers throughout Japan indicated that public health nurses were in charge of 84.5% of pre-counseling and 61.9% of negative results notification for HIV testing [4]. Given that public health nurses play a key role in providing these services, they are expected to be crucial in implementing HIV prevention programs throughout the country.

Despite this, many public health nurses do not appear to be confident in providing HIV/AIDS services. They consider such counseling/testing services difficult to execute, and feel hesitant, unwilling, or uncomfortable in providing these services [4]. This lack of confidence and discomfort in relation to a particular subject or activity is called a “sense of nigate” in Japanese. Specifically, a sense of nigate refers to a feeling or attitude that can be expressed as “I’m not good at ...”; it can apply to people (e.g., in social psychology, a sense of nigate can be defined as an awkward and uncomfortable feeling towards specific others in an interpersonal situation) [5], actions (e.g., waking up early or speaking in public), subjects (e.g., mathematics or gymnastic class), and other phenomena that people might face in their daily lives. A sense of nigate is synonymous with low or a complete lack of self-efficacy; however, it is more commonly used in Japanese daily lives as an excuse for not doing a particular activity. To facilitate a more universal understanding, we use the English translation of “perceived difficulties” for “sense of nigate” in this article. Thus, perceived difficulties herein refer to having unfavorable and reluctant feelings and attitudes concerning a particular subject caused by a lack of experience or knowledge and emotional reactions that are discordant with one’s own values.

As mentioned above, perceived difficulties related to HIV/AIDS services and sex-related matters may be prevailing among public health nurses, which can act as an impediment to the promotion of HIV testing services at public health centers. Despite this, no study has yet directly assessed perceived difficulties related to HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses in Japan. However, there have

been studies on other populations in Japan: one study among Japanese dental health care workers indicated that the majority of them were hesitant to perform dental treatment on HIV-positive patients because of an inadequate knowledge on HIV and AIDS [6]. In another study, primary care physicians in Japan demonstrated a negative attitude towards patients with HIV/AIDS, which was due to the complexity of treatments, prejudice, and fear [7]. Furthermore, a study on Japanese nurses working at hospitals and clinics reported that 59% of subjects reported reluctance to care for a patient with HIV or hepatitis B or C virus (HBV/HCV), which might arise from a perceived risk of infection and having a prejudicial attitude [8]. In western countries, there is a large body of research on HIV-related stigma and discrimination among health care providers, including nurses, but little work has been done specifically with public health nurses [9] [10] [11]. With regard to sex-related matters, in the U.S., Eliason reported a notable silence about lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender issues in nursing education [12]. Overall, there is a growing body of literature on nurses' attitude towards sexual minorities, which has clear implications and suggestions for nursing education on these issues [13] [14]. However, given the lack of studies on these issues in Japan, we thought it necessary to assess the perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses in the western region of Japan.

We were also interested in understanding the factors that correlate with the perceived difficulties related to HIV/AIDS services in order to identify methods of reducing these difficulties. According to the existing literature, the factors underlying perceived difficulties include individuals' experience, knowledge, and values. A qualitative study on the causes of diffidence among mid-level public health nurses who were supporting people with mental disorders identified seven categories of causes, such as a lack of experience and problems with developing a perspective regarding their particular field [15]. Additionally, old age might be a factor, as evidenced by a nationwide Internet survey on prejudice toward individuals with HIV or hepatitis B and C among the working-age population of Japan [16]. A study in Taiwan showed that nurses with longer careers, self-labels of "absolute heterosexual," and high religiousness were more likely to have negative attitudes towards homosexuality [17]. Another study of physicians and physician assistants in Southeast China found that unfavorable attitudes towards people with HIV/AIDS were reported mostly by physicians from remote areas, which the authors of the study interpreted as being influenced by their educational background [18]. Given these findings, the second objective of this study was to explore the factors that correlate with perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services among Japanese public health nurses.

The objectives of this study are (1) to assess the level of perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services and (2) to identify their correlates among public health nurses in the western region of Japan. The specific hypotheses examined are as follows: (1) public health nurses with less experience in dealing with people living with HIV/AIDS or sexual minorities will report higher perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services; (2) public health nurses with less knowledge of

sexual diversity will have higher perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services; and (3) public health nurses with low permissive attitudes towards diversity of sexual behavior will have higher perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services.

2. Method

2.1. Study Design

A cross-sectional study using a structured anonymous self-administered questionnaire was carried out in the Kinki region of western Japan between November and December 2011.

2.2. Target Population

The target group of this study was full-time public health nurses working in 6 prefectures and 12 cities of the Kinki region. This region is the second largest economic zone of Japan, and is the location of metropolitan cities such as Osaka, Kyoto, and Kobe. In terms of HIV/AIDS, the Kinki region requires attention because it has the second highest number of reported HIV cases annually, following Tokyo and its surrounding region [1]. In this study, Public health nurses who were on leave at the time of data collection were excluded from the study. No other selection criterion was adopted in recruiting participants. According to the results of a pre-survey administered to local governments in the region, the target population was 1951.

2.3. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was initially designed by a research team comprising public health specialists, a pedagogist, a school nurse, and a midwife specializing in nursing education. The drafted questionnaire was reviewed and revised by several public health nursing officers, and then pre-tested with 23 public health nurses outside the Kinki region. Efforts to increase face validity of the questionnaire were made in this process. Reliability of the whole questionnaire was not statistically assessed because of time constraint. Instead, the internal consistency of some constructs was assessed after data collection.

The outcome variable, perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services, was assessed by a single item, as follows: "What is the level of your perceived difficulties (sense of nigate) regarding HIV/AIDS services?" There were four response options: "a lot," "some," "little," and "not at all." Although this might be considered somewhat subjective, it is a commonly understood feeling among Japanese people; thus, there was a high likelihood that participants would understand what the question and responses meant.

The correlates of perceived difficulties were categorized into three dimensions: experience, knowledge, and values. The experience dimension included experience with an attitude towards offering consultations on sexual matters, experience with dealing with homosexual people or people with HIV during practice, and whether or not they are friends with homosexual people.

The knowledge dimension comprised knowledge of sexual diversity and educational experiences. Participants' knowledge of sexual diversity was assessed with eight items (e.g., "Homosexuality is a mental disorder"), each with the following three response options: "yes, I think so," "no, I do not think so," or "I do not know" (Figure 1). These items were originally developed for this study. A total score on knowledge of sexual diversity was calculated by counting the number of correct answers (with a perfect score being 8). Using the median split, we categorized those with 6 points or over as the "high knowledge group" and those with 5 points or less as the "low knowledge group." For educational experience, the questions centered on whether they had learned about sexual diversity and HIV/AIDS in their public health nursing education or in any on-the-job training course. Data about the specific contents of these trainings were also collected. In addition, the questionnaire asked about their future needs related to learning about sexual matters and HIV and their favored styles of training.

The values dimension included 11 items assessing individuals' attitudes towards permissiveness of diversity of sexual behavior (Figure 2). For each item, participants responded with one of four options: "acceptable," "maybe acceptable," "may not be acceptable," "not acceptable," and "I do not know." These items and responses were derived from the HIV & Sex survey in 2000 in Japan [19]. The internal consistency of the 11 items was satisfactory ($\alpha = 0.84$). The score of permissiveness of diversity of sexual behavior was then calculated by assigning points to the response options, with "I do not know" being 0 point, "acceptable" being 1 point, and "not acceptable" being 4 points; thus, lower (higher) scores would indicate greater (lower) permissiveness. Again, using a medium split, we categorized those with a score of 27 or less as the high permissiveness group and those with a score of 28 or more as the low permissiveness group.

The obtained demographic information included age, years of working as a public health nurse, and gender. We also asked participants about their current field of work to obtain some basic background information. At the end of the

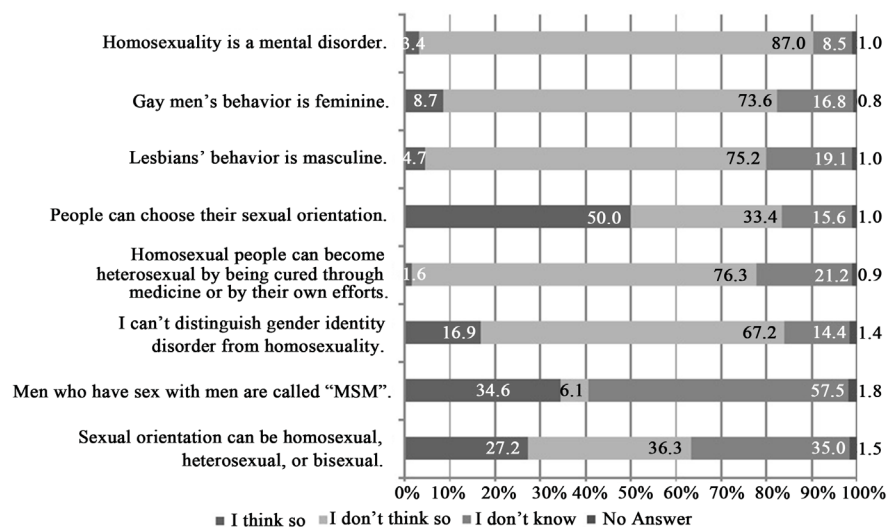


Figure 1. Knowledge on diversity of sexuality.

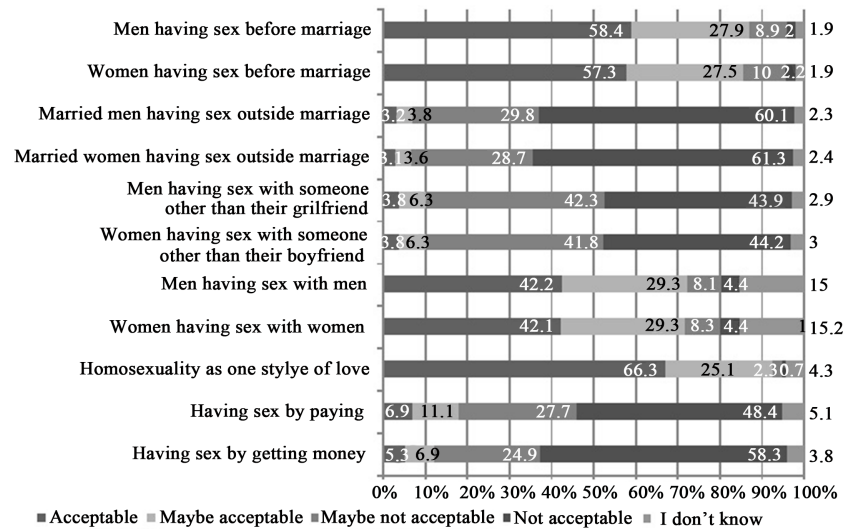


Figure 2. Attitude towards diversity of sexual behavior.

questionnaire, one open-ended question asked how they would like to interact with sexual minorities as a public health nurse.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected through local government offices in each study area. The participants completed the questionnaires on their own and then sealed the questionnaires in envelopes. They handed the envelopes to the officers in charge, who sent the envelopes to the research team by post.

2.4. Statistical Analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 (IBM Japan Corp., Tokyo, Japan). First, we calculated frequencies and descriptive statistics of all variables. Second, with perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services as the outcome variable, bivariate and multivariate associations with the dichotomous correlates were assessed using chi-square tests and logistic regression models. The threshold for significance was $p < 0.05$. Qualitative data from the open-ended question were used to complement interpretation of the numerical data.

2.5. Ethical Consideration

The study proposal was reviewed and approved by the Kansai University of Nursing and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee (on September 29, 2011). In all research procedures, we followed the Declaration of Helsinki (amended in Seoul, 2008) of the World Medical Association and the ethical guidelines for epidemiological studies (amended on December 1, 2008) of the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. The purpose of this study, its procedures, the voluntary basis of participation, and the lack of any need to answer questions that they do not want to answer were written on the first page of the questionnaire. Only participants who gave their consent to participate in the study submitted their finished questionnaire. No identifying information was collected. All the administered ques-

tionnaires and memory sticks containing the study data were kept in the locked cabinet of the principal investigator.

3. Results

By the end of December 2011, 1545 questionnaires had been collected, of which 10 were incomplete and therefore omitted. As a result, we obtained 1535 valid questionnaires for further analysis (valid response rate 78.7%).

3.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Participants' mean age was 40.1 years and they had worked as public health nurses for 17.0 years on average. The vast majority of participants (97.3%) were female. The fields in which they were engaged at the time of this study (multiple answers) were maternal and child health (38.0%), non-communicable diseases (25.0%), tuberculosis (23.6%), mental health (22.8%), HIV/AIDS (22.0%), cancer/lifestyle-related diseases, and other infectious diseases (20.8%).

3.2. Perceived Difficulties Regarding HIV/AIDS Services

More than half of the participants reported having perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services (with 7.4% having "a lot" and 45.4% having "some") (**Table 1**).

3.3. Experiences as a Public Health Nurse

The vast majority of participants (87.4%) had experience in offering consultations on sexual matters. The issues raised in these consultations included sexually transmitted diseases (83.3%), HIV (78.2%), family planning (51.4%), sexual matters for young adults and adolescents (48.8%), and sexual orientations (35.9%). With regard to the item asking about their attitude towards consultations on sexual matters, 77.7% responded "I deal with sexual matters as a duty," whereas only 14.3% responded that "I deal with sexual matters in a positive manner." The reasons for responses such as "I feel hesitant to deal with sexual matters (4.8%)" and "I do not want to deal with sexual matters" were assessed using a single question with multiple answers, which revealed that a lack of knowledge of these issues (66.3%) and never having learnt how to handle these matters (42.2%) were commonly reported.

A large proportion (49.3%) of participants had encountered homosexual people during practice, but most (59.2%) did not have homosexual people as their friends. Notably, there were high rates of "do not know" responses to these questions (36.8% and 28.0%, respectively) (**Table 1**).

3.4. Knowledge of Sexual Diversity and Educational Experience

Participants' responses to the items assessing their knowledge on diversity of sexuality are shown in **Figure 1**. There were some evident misperceptions among the participants. For example, 50% responded "I think so" to the statement "People can choose their sexual orientation," despite the fact that sexual orientation is not a choice, a notion which causes distress to many sexual minorities. Additionally,

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants, perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services, and experiences as a public health nurse (n = 1535).

	Number	%
Demographic characteristics		
Age		
Less than 40 years	666	43.4
40 years and more	828	53.9
No answer	41	2.7
Work experience as a public health nurse		
<20 years	841	54.8
≥20 years	686	44.7
No answer	8	0.5
Gender		
Female	1493	97.3
Male	24	1.6
Other	0	0.0
No answer	18	1.2
Perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services		
A lot	114	7.4
Some	697	45.4
Little	599	39.0
Not at all	97	6.3
No answer	28	1.8
Experiences as a public health nurse		
Offered consultations on sexual matters		
Yes	1341	87.4
No	128	8.3
No answer	66	4.3
Attitude towards consultations on sexual matters		
Deal with sexual matters in a positive manner	219	14.3
Deal with sexual matters as a duty	1193	77.7
Feel hesitant in dealing with sexual matters	73	4.8
Do not want to deal with sexual matters at all	9	0.6
Other	3	0.2
No answer	38	2.5

Continued

Encounter homosexual people during practice			
Yes	757	49.3	
No	207	13.5	
Do not know	565	36.8	
No answer	6	0.4	
Friends with homosexual people			
Yes	188	12.2	
No	909	59.2	
Do not know	430	28.0	
No answer	8	0.5	
Encounter people with HIV during practice			
Yes	497	32.4	
No	310	20.2	
Do not know	720	46.9	
No answer	8	0.5	

response rates of “I do not know” were relatively high for the statements, “Men who have sex with men are called ‘MSM’” and “Sexual orientation can be homosexual, heterosexual, or bisexual” (57.5% and 35.9%, respectively).

For educational experiences, very few (12.1%) had learned about homosexuality and gender dysphoria during their public health nursing education. In contrast, 41.2% had learned of these issues after being qualified as public health nurses. Most of them had learned about HIV/AIDS in their public health nursing education (51.1%) and after they had become a public health nurse (76.4%).

Regarding their needs for future training on sexual diversity, participants reported wanting to learn how to interact with clients who were sexual minorities (66.7%), the opinions and perspectives of sexual minority clients (62.3%), and the relationships of sexual minority clients with their own communities (60.6%). Regarding HIV/AIDS, they wanted to learn the latest guidelines on treatment (81.0%), social welfare for HIV-positive people (68.5%), and the practices of HIV prevention (66.0%). One-day training courses were preferred by 60.5% of participants, and preferred educational materials were handbooks (68.7%), websites (54.3%), and pamphlets (53.7%).

3.5. Values

The results regarding permissiveness towards diversity of sexual behavior are shown in **Figure 2**. A fairly large number of participants considered sex before marriage as “acceptable.” However, more than half of the participants considered sex outside marriage and sex in exchange for money as “not acceptable.”

3.6. Correlates of Perceived Difficulties Regarding HIV/AIDS Services

The correlates of perceived difficulties towards HIV/AIDS services were identi-

fied by chi-square tests and logistic regression analysis (adjusted odds ratios [AORs]) (Table 2). In the multivariate analysis, we found that age and work experiences as a public health nurse were not associated with the outcome variable.

Regarding experience, we found that having a negative attitude towards consultations on sexual matters (i.e., treating it as a duty, feeling hesitant, and not wanting to consult at all) (AOR 2.2 [1.6 - 3.1], $p < 0.001$), lack of encountering

Table 2. Dichotomous correlates of perceived difficulties (a sense of nigate) regarding HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses (n = 1535).

		HIV/AIDS services		Odd ratio (95% CI)	p^a	AOR (95% CI)	p^b
		High perceived difficulties	Low perceived difficulties				
		Number (%)	Number (%)				
Demographic							
Age	<40 years old	396 (59.9%)	265 (40.1%)	1.6 (1.3 - 2.0)	<0.001	1.2 (0.8 - 1.6)	0.366
	≥40 years old	392 (48.4%)	418 (51.6%)	1		1	
Work experience as PHN ^c	<20 years	427 (58.9%)	298 (41.1%)	1.5 (1.2 - 1.8)	<0.001	1.3 (1.0 - 1.8)	0.089
	≥20 years	384 (49.0%)	399 (51.0%)	1		1	
Experience							
Offered consultations on sexual matters	No	90 (70.9%)	37 (29.1%)	2.2 (1.5 - 3.3)	<0.001	1.0 (0.6 - 1.6)	0.973
	Yes	689 (52.2%)	630 (47.8%)	1		1	
Attitude towards consultations on sexual matters	Negative (As duty/feel hesitant/do not want to)	719 (57.3%)	536 (42.7%)	2.6 (1.9 - 3.5)	<0.001	2.2 (1.6 - 3.1)	<0.001
	Positive	74 (34.1%)	143 (65.9%)	1		1	
Encounter homosexual people during practice	No/do not know	520 (68.3%)	241 (31.7%)	3.4 (2.7 - 4.1)	<0.001	1.6 (1.2 - 2.1)	0.002
	Yes	290 (38.9%)	455 (61.1%)	1		1	
Friends with homosexual people	No/do not know	731 (55.3%)	590 (44.7%)	1.7 (1.3 - 2.4)	0.001	1.2 (0.8 - 1.7)	0.452
	Yes	77 (41.8%)	107 (58.2%)	1		1	
Encounter people with HIV during practice	No/do not know	635 (62.7%)	377 (37.3%)	3.1 (2.5 - 3.9)	<0.001	1.8 (1.4 - 2.4)	<0.001
	Yes	174 (35.3%)	319 (64.7%)	1		1	
Knowledge							
Knowledge of sexual diversity	Low	584 (64.8%)	317 (35.2%)	3.1 (2.5 - 3.9)	<0.001	2.0 (1.5 - 2.5)	<0.001
	High	222 (37.1%)	377 (62.9%)	1		1	
Learned about sexuality in PHN education	No/do not remember	556 (63.3%)	322 (36.7%)	2.6 (2.1 - 3.2)	<0.001	1.4 (1.1 - 1.8)	0.016
	Yes	246 (39.7%)	374 (60.3%)	1		1	
Learned about HIV/AIDS in PHN education	No/do not know	307 (69.9%)	132 (30.1%)	2.8 (2.1 - 3.6)	<0.001	1.3 (0.9 - 1.9)	0.178
	Yes	500 (47.3%)	557 (52.7%)	1		1	
Values							
Permissiveness of sexual behavior diversity	Low	423 (59.7%)	285 (40.3%)	1.6 (1.3 - 2.0)	<0.001	1.5 (1.2 - 2.0)	<0.001
	High	383 (48.3%)	410 (51.7%)	1		1	

a. Chi-square test, b. Logistic regression, c. Public health nurse.

homosexual people during practice (AOR 1.6 [1.2 - 2.1], $p = 0.002$), and lack of encountering people with HIV during practice (AOR 1.8 [1.4 - 2.4], $p < 0.001$), were associated with greater odds of having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS. However, the experiences of offering consultations on sexual matters or being friends with homosexual people were not significantly associated with perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services. Thus, Hypothesis 1 (public health nurses with less experience with people living with HIV/AIDS or sexual minorities will have high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS) was only partially supported.

Concerning knowledge, having low knowledge of sexual diversity was associated having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services (AOR 2.0 [1.5 - 2.5], $p < 0.001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 (public health nurses with less knowledge on sexual diversity will have high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services) was supported. With regard to educational experiences, not learning about sexual diversity in public health nursing education was associated with having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services (AOR 1.4 [1.1 - 1.8], $p = 0.016$). In contrast, not having learned about HIV/AIDS in public health nursing education was not significantly associated with the outcome variable.

Finally, low permissiveness of diversity of sexual behavior was found to be significantly associated with having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services (AOR 1.5 [1.2 - 2.0], $p < 0.001$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 (public health nurses with low permissive attitudes towards diversity of sexual behavior will have high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services) was supported.

4. Discussion

4.1. Perceived Difficulties and Correlates

In this cross-sectional study, we assessed the perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses working for the local governments of the Kinki region of western Japan, and identified their correlating factors. As expected, more than half of the participants (52.8%) reported some or many perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services. This prevailing perception has likely hindered the execution of HIV/AIDS-related services, including counseling and testing, at the public health centers in this region. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the means of reducing these perceived difficulties so that public health nurses feel more confident and comfortable in providing HIV/AIDS-related services. The other findings of this study have much to contribute in this regard.

First, a complete lack of experience of encountering homosexual people and people with HIV during practice was associated with greater odds of having high perceived difficulties (AOR 1.6 and 1.8, respectively) compared to those who have had such experiences. Furthermore, although there is a study suggesting that being friends with sexual minorities would have a positive impact on nurses' attitudes towards such minorities, our findings suggest that this has no real im-

pact on perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services [20]. Thus, as a first step to facilitate provision of HIV/AIDS services among public health nurses, a future training and education session might incorporate opportunities for public health nurses who have encountered sexual minorities and HIV-positive people during practice to share their experiences with those who have not encountered these groups.

Interestingly, attitudes towards offering consultations on sexual matters, rather than actual experience, were significantly associated with having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services. As noted above, most participants (87.4%) had experience in offering consultations on sexual matters, which suggests that knowledge and techniques related to dealing with sexual matters and sexuality are fundamental for public health nurses. However, very few nurses (only 12.1%) had actually learned about sexual diversity in their formal training; this was reflected in the low number of correct answers for certain items regarding knowledge of sexual diversity. These findings suggest that the gap should be filled by including sexual matters in the public health nursing education curriculum.

With regard to knowledge, public health nurses with less knowledge on sexual diversity had greater odds of having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services (AOR 2.0) compared to those with high knowledge, as expected. Relatedly, those who did not have a chance to learn about sexuality in their public health nursing education had greater odds of having high perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services. Interestingly, however, learning about HIV/AIDS in their formal education was not significantly associated with perceived difficulties, which implies that the content in public health nursing education does not match nurses' needs for their practical work. The in-depth questions revealed that content on HIV/AIDS in their formal education was mostly limited to biomedical knowledge (84.6%), modes of transmission (91.5%), and ways of prevention (86.4%). For their future educational needs, we noted that nurses desired to listen to the voices and understand the lives of sexual minorities and people living with HIV/AIDS, suggesting that such information should be included in public health nursing curriculum. This would ensure that, by the time that nursing students become qualified public health nurses, they feel sufficiently confident to interact with sexual minorities and people with HIV/AIDS as their clients.

Finally, the multivariate analysis indicated that low permissiveness towards diversity of sexual behavior was associated with having high perceived difficulties. In the in-depth open-ended question on this topic, we also found that nurses reported having to continuously struggle to handle concerns of sex and HIV/AIDS without prejudice or bias; indeed several nurses reported "Sex was taboo when I was trained as a public health nurse" or "Sexuality was not as diverse as it is now, when I was young." However, participants said that in working with clients and obtaining knowledge through on-the-job training, they were able to broaden their perspective and change their own perceptions. Given that the clients of public health nurses are becoming increasingly diverse in terms of back-

ground—not only in terms of sexuality, but also in many other aspects of life—training to obtain cultural humility might be included in public health nurses' education. This would enable greater self-reflection before they begin interacting with clients and will help them reconcile their own values with those of their clients [21]. In this way, students might feel more comfortable in executing their health education, which is a required skill for public health nurses [22].

4.2. Implications for Public Health Nursing Education

To reduce the prevailing perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services among Japanese public health nurses, systematic efforts should be integrated into public health nursing education. Currently, there is an opportunity for implementation of such efforts, as nursing and public health nursing education in Japan are currently undergoing reform and growth, with the rapid proliferation of nursing schools at the undergraduate university level and an amendment to the Act on Public Health Nurses, Midwives, and Nurses in 2009.

It is important to ensure that opportunities to learn about sexuality are given in undergraduate nursing education, which precedes formal public health nursing education. According to Kayashima's report on teaching sexual health in nursing education in Japan, the importance of supporting the understanding of sexuality in nursing practice was recognized by many parties, but so far there has been no concerted effort to actually teach nurses practical skills for use in consultations on sexual matters [23]. Additionally, Mizuno reviewed the syllabi of 80 (out of the 140) schools of nursing at the undergraduate level to identify the status of sexuality education. Finding it largely wanting, she proposed that a course on sexual diversity and its related issues be provided to freshman nursing students [24]. In practice, it might be helpful to adapt a fully developed curriculum created in western countries, such as the Mims-Swenson sexual health model, into the Japanese context [13].

In public health nursing education, providing students with opportunities to listen to the real voices of sexual minorities or people with HIV/AIDS would likely help students better understand these clients. Students might be able to visualize the lives of these people even by reading their accounts or blogs on the Internet. As noted by Carabez, a course assignment to conduct structured interviews with nurses on care of sexual minorities might also help Japanese public health nursing students recognize these issues [25].

Currently working public health nurses also require basic knowledge of sexual diversity and a fuller understanding of the lives of sexual minorities and people with HIV/AIDS. On-the-job training courses may be organized for working public health nurses. This would likely help to reduce prevailing perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS among public health nurses, and hence improve the quality of HIV counseling and testing services at public health centers.

4.3. Limitations

Since this study is cross-sectional, we cannot make inferences on the direction of

the causal relationships for any of the correlations observed. Another possible limitation is the lack of consideration of certain other covariates that might underlie the association found. Furthermore, regarding the items assessing participants' attitudes, we could not eliminate the possible influence of social desirability bias. Finally, this study explanatorily assessed perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services using a single question; the development and validation of a scale to assess this construct in more detail would be needed, especially in light of the global movement to develop standardized measures of HIV-related stigma and discrimination [26] [27]. By overcoming these limitations, future studies could develop and test the effectiveness of actual interventions that seek to reduce these perceived difficulties by increasing Japanese public health nurses' confidence in dealing with HIV/AIDS and sexual matters.

5. Conclusion

This cross-sectional study revealed that 52.8% of public health nurses in western Japan had perceived difficulties regarding HIV/AIDS services. Considering the factors correlated with these prevailing perceived difficulties in HIV/AIDS, public health nursing education in Japan should focus on sexual issues and HIV/AIDS in a more systematic way.

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Three 25-NBOMe-type drugs, three other phenethylamine-type drugs (25I-NBMD, RH34, and escaline), eight cathinone derivatives, and a phencyclidine analog MMXE, newly identified in ingredients of drug products before they were sold on the drug market

Asuka Kaizaki-Mitsumoto¹ · Naoki Noguchi¹ · Saki Yamaguchi¹ · Yuki Odanaka² · Satoko Matsubayashi² · Hiroki Kumamoto³ · Kiyoshi Fukuhara³ · Masahiko Funada⁴ · Kiyoshi Wada⁵ · Satoshi Numazawa¹

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Abstract Twenty-two samples of ingredients of recreational drugs before being sold on the drug market obtained from a dubious drug dealer were analyzed by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry, high-resolution mass spectrometry, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. The present study showed 15 novel designer drugs, which have not been described in scientific literature. They included three NBOMe drugs 25H-NBOMe, 25D-NBOMe, and 25E-NBOMe, three other phenethylamine-type drugs 25I-NBMD, RH34, and escaline, eight cathinone derivatives 5-DBFPV, 3,4-MDPHP, 3,4-dimethyl-NEB, 3,4-dimethyl- α -ethylaminopentiophenone, 3,4-dimethyl- α -PVP, 4F- α -ethylaminopentiophenone, bk-IVP, and bk-IBP, and a phencyclidine derivative MMXE. In addition to the above novel compounds, known compounds such as 25I-NBOMe, ADB-CHIMINACA, 5F-ADB, and butane-1,4-diol were also identified from some samples. The electron ionization mass spectra, high-resolution data of molecular formulae, and NMR spectra presented in this

article seem very useful for forensic toxicologists, who are obliged to identify new psychotropic drugs in any dubious products and/or human specimens.

Keywords New 25-NBOMe-type designer drugs · 5-DBFPV · 3,4-MDPHP · bk-IVP · MMXE · Identification of newly emerged psychotropic drugs

Introduction

Tightening of regulations by the government, including the identification of black market channels, regulation of ship cargos at harbors, and increasing the number of designated drugs or “shitei yakubutsu” by the Pharmaceutical Affairs Law, has been effective in reducing the recreational drug market in Japan. However, the form of drug marketing changes in circulation process according to the regulations. Furthermore, the supply of recreational drugs to consumers is being kept underground.

In recent years, most recreational drug products spreading in the Japanese drug market contain synthetic cannabinoids, which provoke hallucination symptoms through cannabinoid (CB₁) receptors, similar to marijuana, and the synthetic cathinones, which provoke central stimulation actions similar to methamphetamine [1]. Because of this serious situation, the government began regulating a drug group with basic structures of synthetic cannabinoids [(1*H*-indol-3-yl)(naphthalen-1-yl)methanones] in February 2013 (770 compounds), and a drug group with basic structures of synthetic cathinones (2-amino-1-phenylpropan-1-ones) in December 2013 (495 compounds); this type of regulation is called generic scheduling. However,

✉ Satoshi Numazawa
numazawa@pharm.showa-u.ac.jp

¹ Division of Toxicology, Department of Pharmacology, Toxicology and Therapeutics, Showa University School of Pharmacy, 1-5-8 Hatanodai, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo, Japan

² Center for Instrumental Analysis, Showa University School of Pharmacy, Tokyo, Japan

³ Department of Medicinal and Industrial Chemistry, Showa University School of Pharmacy, Tokyo, Japan

⁴ National Institute of Mental Health, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Kodaira, Tokyo, Japan

⁵ Saitama Prefectural Psychiatric Hospital, Kitaadachi-gun, Saitama, Japan

after enactment of the law, the clandestine drug producers have modified or changed the basic structures and continue to supply recreational drugs, which have not yet been regulated, to consumers. In response to the evasion, additional individual drugs were designated by the Pharmaceutical Affairs Law, and another cathinone series of compounds were further designated by the generic scheduling in May 2015, which resulted in 2297 compounds. However, this approach only regulates some new drugs after they are created and sold, which means that the government is always trailing behind the drug producers.

Therefore, a novel methodology that attempts to identify possible new modifications of the chemicals actually spreading across the drug market and then linking the information to the generic scheduling is necessary. From this point of view, we made efforts to enlist the cooperation of research collaborators, conducted a drug search on a relatively large scale for recreational drugs on the drug market in Japan, and obtained relatively pure samples from a dubious dealer. In this study, we analyzed the ingredients of recreational drugs that had not yet been sold on the market and disclosed 15 novel psychotropic designer drugs to be available on the drug market (Fig. 1a).

Materials and methods

Samples

The research collaborator obtained 22 samples (Table 1), intended for use as ingredients in the recreational drug product prior to being sold on the drug market, from a recreational drug dealer in August 2014. There was one liquid sample labeled “sample No. 1”, and “sample Nos. 2–22” were all in powder form.

Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry analysis

A 10- μ L aliquot of liquid sample or 10 mg each powder sample was initially dissolved into 2 mL methanol and arbitrarily diluted. Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) analysis was performed using GC-MS-QP2100 Ultra (Simadzu, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a DB5MS capillary column (30 m \times 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 μ m film thickness; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA.) with a helium carrier gas flow at 1.56 mL/min. The injection port was set at 260 °C and an injection volume was 1 μ L in the splitless mode. The initial oven temperature was set to 60 °C, which was held for 2 min, and then increased by 10 °C/min up to 320 °C and held for 10 min. Electron ionization (EI) was used with a temperature of the ion source set to 200 °C and operation in full scan (m/z 40–700) mode. GC/MS data analysis was performed using the SWGDRUG MS Library

ver. 2.2 supplied by Scientific Working Group for the analysis of seized drugs (SWGDRUG) [2] and Cayman Spectral Library (Cayman Chemical) [3].

Nuclear magnetic resonance analysis

A 10-mg sample of each powder (sample Nos. 13–22, which could not be identified by GC/MS) was dissolved in 1 mL methanol- d_4 (99.8 %) or pyridine- d_5 (99.8 %). Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were measured using an ECX-500 instrument (JEOL RESONANCE Inc., Tokyo, Japan) at 500 MHz for ^1H and 125 MHz for ^{13}C . The signals were assigned on the basis of 2D NMR experiments, which involved correlated spectroscopy (COSY), distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer (DEPT135), heteronuclear multiple quantum coherence (HMQC), and heteronuclear multiple-bond coherence (HMBC) spectral analyses.

High resolution mass spectrometry analysis

High resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) analyses of sample Nos. 13–22 were carried out using JMS-700 V (JEOL Inc., Tokyo, Japan) operated by fast atom bombardment (FAB) in the positive mode with xenon gas. Glycerol or 3-nitrobenzyl alcohol was used as matrix. The spectra were run in a mass range from m/z 10 to 1000. PEG 200 and PEG 400 were used for mass calibration. Resolution performance was 3000.

Results and discussion

Twenty-two samples were measured by GC/MS and searched for by the spectral libraries. Every sample was composed of a single compound, showing a purity of more than 90 % (data not shown). Twelve samples (10 compounds) matched with the data of the spectral libraries and were identified as specific compounds (Table 1, Fig. 1).

Although the compounds 1–6 could be easily identified by matching each spectrum with that described in the libraries, they have not appeared in scientific literature. Therefore, we presented their EI mass spectra as useful information to forensic toxicologists (Fig. 2). Among 25-NBOMe designer drugs, 25I-NBOMe and 25B-NBOMe are most common and detected from seized materials [4] and human specimens [5–7].

However, the fragmentation patterns of the other 10 samples did not match those of the libraries (Table 1, Fig. 3). For the determination of these nine compounds, NMR and HRMS analyses were performed (Tables 2, 3). As a result, eight synthetic cathinones (compounds 7–14) and one phencyclidine derivative (compound 15) were identified as novel designer drugs for the recreational

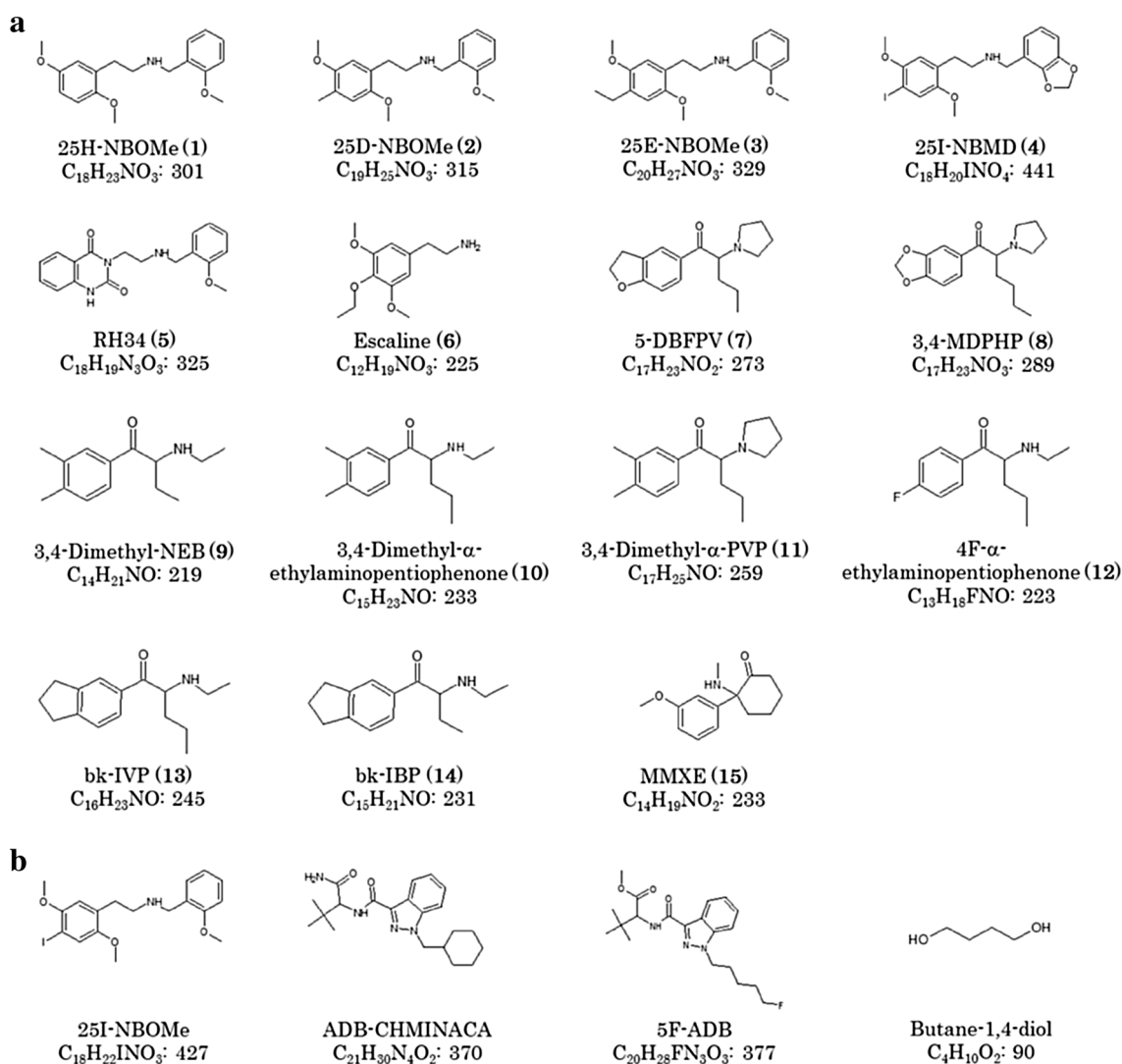


Fig. 1 Structures of the newly disclosed compounds (1–15; **a**) and known compounds (**b**) identified in the present study

samples (Fig. 1). Analysis data on the structural determination of compounds are indicated below.

Identification of compounds 7–15

Sample No. 13 was analyzed by GC/MS. Figure 3 shows the EI mass spectrum of compound 7 at 21.08 min with peaks at m/z 126, 127, and 55. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 274.1816, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be C₁₇H₂₄NO₂ (calculated value 274.1807, accident error 0.9 ppm; Table 2). Compound 7 was eventually identified as 1-(2,3-dihydro-1-benzofuran-5-yl)-2-(pyrrolidin-1-yl)pentan-1-one (5-DBFPV) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

Sample Nos. 14 and 15 were analyzed by GC/MS and both samples indicated exactly the same EI mass spectra and the same retention time at 20.95 min with peaks at m/z 140, 141, and 84 (Fig. 3), indicating these are the

same compound (compounds 8). HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 290.1752, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be C₁₇H₂₄NO₃ (calculated value 290.1756, accident error –0.4 ppm for sample No. 14 and –1.4 ppm for sample No. 15; Table 2). Compound 8 was eventually identified as 1-(1,3-benzodioxol-5-yl)-2-(pyrrolidin-1-yl)hexan-1-one (3,4-MDPHP) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 16 (compound 9), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 86, 58, and 41 at 15.47 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 220.1694, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be C₁₄H₂₂NO (calculated value 220.1701, accident error –0.7 ppm; Table 2). Compound 9 was eventually identified as 1-(3,4-dimethylphenyl)-2-(ethylamino)butan-1-one (3,4-dimethyl-NEB) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

Table 1 Samples for identification by gas chromatography/ mass spectrometry (GC/MS) using two libraries

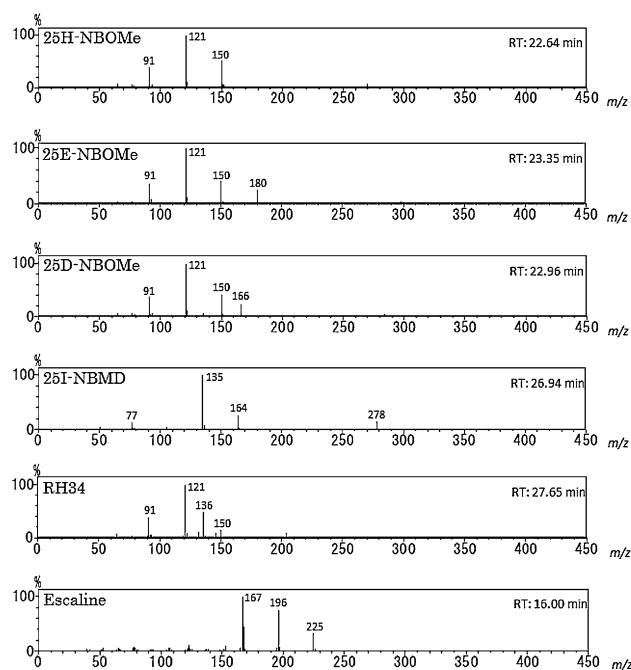
Sample No.	Compound name	Category of the drug identified
1	Butane-1,4-diol	Alkyldiol
2	ADB-CHMINACA	Synthetic cannabinoid
3	ADB-CHMINACA	Synthetic cannabinoid
4	5F-ADB	Synthetic cannabinoid
5	5F-ADB	Synthetic cannabinoid
6	25H-NBOMe (1)	Phenethylamine
7	25I-NBOMe	Phenethylamine
8	25E-NBOMe (3)	Phenethylamine
9	25D-NBOMe (2)	Phenethylamine
10	25I-NBMD (4)	Phenethylamine
11	RH34 (5)	Phenethylamine
12	Escaline (6)	Phenethylamine
13	Compound 7	— ^a
14	Compound 8	—
15	Compound 8	—
16	Compound 9	—
17	Compound 10	—
18	Compound 11	—
19	Compound 12	—
20	Compound 13	—
21	Compound 14	—
22	Compound 15	—

^a Not matched using the GC/MS libraries [2, 3]

For sample No. 17 (compound **10**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 100, 58, and 101 at 16.40 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 234.1850, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $C_{15}H_{24}NO$ (calculated value 234.1858, accident error -0.8 ppm; Table 2). Compound **10** was eventually identified as 1-(3,4-dimethylphenyl)-2-(ethylamino)pentan-1-one (3,4-dimethyl- α -ethylaminopentiophenone) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 18 (compound **11**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 126, 127, and 55 at 18.68 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 260.2018, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $C_{17}H_{26}NO$ (calculated value 260.2014, accident error 0.4 ppm; Table 2). Compound **11** was eventually identified as 1-(3,4-dimethylphenyl)-2-(pyrrolidin-1-yl)pentan-1-one (3,4-dimethyl- α -PVP) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 19 (compound **12**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 100, 58, and 95 at 13.39 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M + H]^+$ value at m/z 224.1444, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $C_{13}H_{19}FNO$ (calculated value 224.1451, accident error -0.7 ppm; Table 2). Compound **12** was eventually identified as 2-(ethylamino)-1-(4-fluorophenyl)pentan-1-one

**Fig. 2** Election ionization (EI) mass spectra of compounds **1–6**, which could be identified by matching each spectrum with that described in the libraries [2, 3]**Table 2** High-resolution protonated molecular weight data for compounds **7–15**

Compound	Observed m/z	Calculated m/z	Error (ppm)
7	274.1816	274.1807	0.9
8	290.1752	290.1756	-0.4
8	290.1742	290.1756	-1.4
9	220.1694	220.1701	-0.7
10	234.185	234.1858	-0.8
11	260.2018	260.2014	0.4
12	224.1444	224.1451	-0.7
13	246.1873	246.1858	1.5
14	232.1689	232.1701	-1.2
15	234.1502	234.1494	0.8

(4F- α -ethylaminopentiophenone) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 20 (compound **13**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 100, 58, and 101 at 18.21 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[M+H]^+$ value at m/z 246.1873, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $C_{16}H_{24}NO$ (calculated value 246.1858, accident error 1.5 ppm; Table 2). Compound **13** was eventually identified as 2-(ethylamino)-1-(indan-5-yl)pentan-1-one (bk-IVP) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 21 (compound **14**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 86, 58, and 115 at 17.43 min. HRMS

Table 3 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) data for compounds 7–15

Compound No.	NMR	Data
7	¹ H	δ: 0.88 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.4 Hz, 3H, H-5), 1.17–1.32 (m, 2H, H-4 × 2), 1.97–2.24 (m, 6H, H-3 × 2, H-2'' × 2 and H-3'' × 2), 2.96–3.02 (m, 1H, H-4''), 3.28–3.34 (m, 3H, –OCH ₂ CH ₂ – and H-1''), 3.59–3.64 (m, 1H, H-4'), 3.66–3.71 (m, 1H, H-1''), 4.70 (t, <i>J</i> = 8.8 Hz, 2H, –OCH ₂ –), 5.19–5.21 (m, 1H, H-2), 6.90 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.5 Hz, 1H, H-5'), 7.92 (dd, <i>J</i> = 8.5 and 2.0 Hz, 1H, H-6'), 7.97 (d, <i>J</i> = 2.0 Hz, 1H, H-2')
	¹³ C	δ: 14.2 (C-5), 18.6 (C-4), 24.0 (C-3''), 24.2 (C-2''), 29.6 (–OCH ₂ CH ₂ –), 33.8 (C-3), 53.1 (C-1''), 56.2 (C-4''), 70.0 (C-2), 74.0 (–OCH ₂), 110.7 (C-5'), 127.5 (C-2'), 128.8 (C-1'), 130.7 (C-3'), 132.6 (C-6'), 167.9 (C-4'), 195.0 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_3,2',6' 2_3,4'',1'' 3_2,4,5 4_3,5 5_3,4 1'_5' 2'_6' 3'_5',OCH ₂ CH ₂ ,OCH ₂ 4'_2',5',6',OCH ₂ CH ₂ ,OCH ₂ 6'_2' 1''_2,2'',4'' 2''_1'',3'',4'' 3''_1'',2'',4'' 4''_2 OCH ₂ OCH ₂ CH ₂ OCH ₂ CH ₂ OCH ₂
8	¹ H	δ: 0.83 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.0 Hz, 3H, H-6), 1.10–1.32 (m, 4H, H-4 × 2 and H-5 × 2), 1.98–2.06 (m, 4H, H-3 × 2 and H-3'' × 2), 2.11 (br, 1H, H-2''), 2.21 (br, 1H, H-2''), 3.01 (br, 1H, H-4''), 3.33 (br, 1H, H-1''), 3.62 (br, 1H, H-4''), 3.68 (br, 1H, H-1''), 5.19–5.21 (m, 1H, H-2), 6.13 (s, 2H, –OCH ₂ –), 7.02 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.2 Hz, 1H, H-5'), 7.51 (d, <i>J</i> = 1.7 Hz, 1H, H-2'), 7.74 (dd, <i>J</i> = 8.2 and 1.7 Hz, 1H, H-6')
	¹³ C	δ: 13.9 (C-6), 23.5 (C-5), 24.0 (C-3''), 24.1 (C-2''), 27.1 (C-4), 31.4 (C-3), 53.1 (C-1''), 56.2 (C-4''), 70.1 (C-2), 104.1 (–O–CH ₂ –), 108.8 (C-2'), 109.5 (C-5'), 127.5 (C-6'), 130.2 (C-1'), 150.4 (C-3'), 155.3 (C-4'), 195.0 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_3,2',6' 2_3,4 3_2,4,5 4_2,3,5,6 5_3,4,6 6_4,5 1'_2,3,2',6' 2'_5',6' 3'_2',5',OCH ₂ 4'_2',5',6',OCH ₂ 5'_2' 6'_2' 1''_2
9	¹ H	δ: 0.88 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.7 Hz, 3H, H-4), 1.35 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.1 Hz, 3H, H-2''), 1.99–2.13 (m, 2H, H-3 × 2), 2.37 (m, 6H, 3'-CH ₃ and 4'-CH ₃), 3.00–3.14 (m, 2H, H-1' × 2), 5.14–5.16 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.35 (d, <i>J</i> = 7.8 Hz, 1H, H-5'), 7.79 (dd, <i>J</i> = 7.8 and 2.0 Hz, 1H, H-6'), 7.84 (m, 1H, H-2')
	¹³ C	δ: 8.5 (C-4), 11.7 (C-2''), 19.8 (3'-CH ₃), 20.2 (4'-CH ₃), 24.9 (C-3), 43.2 (C-1''), 63.7 (C-2), 127.7 (C-6'), 130.8 (C-2'), 131.5 (C-5'), 133.1 (C-1'), 139.2 (C-4'), 146.4 (C-3'), 196.3 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,4,1' 3_2,4 4_2,3 1'_5' 2'_6',3'-CH ₃ 3'_2',6',3'-CH ₃ ,4'-CH ₃ 4'_5',3'-CH ₃ ,4'-CH ₃ 5'_4'-CH ₃ 6'_2' 1''_2, 2'' 2''_1'' 2''_1' 3'-CH ₃ ,2' 4'-CH ₃ ,5'
10	¹ H	δ: 0.88 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.4 Hz, 3H, H-5), 1.16–1.27 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.30–1.39 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.35 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.4 Hz, 3H, H-2''), 1.89–2.00 (m, 2H, H-3), 2.36–2.37 (m, 6H, 4'-CH ₃ and 5'-CH ₃), 2.99–3.14 (m, 2H, H-1' × 2), 5.13–5.15 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.35 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.0 Hz, H-5'), 7.78 (dd, <i>J</i> = 8.0 and 1.7 Hz, 1H, H-6'), 7.83 (m, 1H, H-2')
	¹³ C	δ: 11.7 (C-2''), 14.1 (C-5), 18.6 (C-4), 19.8 (3'-CH ₃), 20.2 (4'-CH ₃), 33.9 (C-3), 43.3 (C-1''), 62.9 (C-2), 127.7 (C-6'), 130.8 (C-2'), 131.5 (C-5'), 133.2 (C-1'), 139.2 (C-4'), 146.5 (C-3'), 196.4 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,1'' 3_2,4,5 4_2,3,5 5_3,4 1'_5' 2'_6',4'-CH ₃ 3'_2',6',4'-CH ₃ 4'_5',4'-CH ₃ 5'_4'-CH ₃ 6'_2' 1''_2, 2' 2''_1'' 3'-CH ₃ ,2' 4'-CH ₃ ,5'
11	¹ H	δ: 0.73 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.4 Hz, 3H, H-5), 1.33–1.51 (m, 2H, H-4 × 2), 1.85–1.94 (m, 4H, H-2'' × 2 and H-3'' × 2), 2.12–2.17 (m, 8H, H-3 × 2, H-3'-CH ₃ and H-4'-CH ₃), 3.34 and 3.51 (each as br, each as 2H, H-1' × 2 and H-4'' × 2), 5.41 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.24 (d, <i>J</i> = 7.3 Hz, 1H, H-5'), 8.07–8.09 (m, 2H, H-2' and H-6')
	¹³ C	δ: 14.1 (C-5), 19.5 (C-4), 19.5 (3'-CH ₃), 19.8 (4'-CH ₃), 24.0 (C-2'' and C-3''), 32.6 (C-3), 51.7 (C-1'' and C-4''), 65.9 (C-2), 127.1 (C-6'), 130.2 (C-2'), 130.5 (C-5'), 134.7 (C-1'), 137.8 (C-4'), 144.4 (C-3'), 197.7 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,4 3_2,4,5 4_2,3,5 5_3,4 1'_5' 2'_6',3'-CH ₃ 4'_5',3'-CH ₃ 5'_4'-CH ₃ 6'_2'
12	¹ H	δ: 0.89 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.3 Hz, 3H, H-5), 1.17–1.29 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.32–1.42 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.36 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.3 Hz, 3H, H-2''), 1.91–2.03 (m, 2H, H-3 × 2), 3.02–3.08 (m, 1H, H-1''), 3.10–3.17 (m, 1H, H-1''), 5.18–5.20 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.31–7.36 (m, 2H, H-3' and H-5'), 8.16 (m, 2H, H-2' and H-6')
	¹³ C	δ: 11.7 (C-2''), 14.1 (C-5), 18.6 (C-4), 33.7 (C-3), 43.4 (C-1''), 63.1 (C-2), 117.5 (d, <i>J</i> _{C,F} = 22.7 Hz, C-3' and C-5'), 131.8 (d, <i>J</i> _{C,F} = 2.3 Hz, C-1'), 133.1 (d, <i>J</i> _{C,F} = 9.5 Hz, C-2' and C-6'), 168.2 (d, <i>J</i> _{C,F} = 256.3 Hz, C-4'), 195.3 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,4,1'' 3_2,4,5 4_2,3,5 5_3,4 1'_3',5' 3',5'_2',6' 4'_2',3',5',6' 1''_2, 2'' 2''_1''
13	¹ H	δ: 0.88 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.1 Hz, 3H, H-5), 1.17–1.29 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.32–1.41 (m, 1H, H-4), 1.35 (t, <i>J</i> = 7.4 Hz, 3H, H-2''), 1.90–2.01 (m, 2H, H-3 × 2), 2.14 (m, 2H, H-2'' × 2), 2.98–3.07 (m, 5H, H-3''' × 2, H-1''' × 2 and H-1'), 3.09–3.16 (m, 1H, H-1''), 5.15–5.17 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.42 (d, <i>J</i> = 7.8 Hz, 1H, H-5'), 7.85 (dd, <i>J</i> = 7.8 and 1.4 Hz, 1H, H-6'), 7.91 (m, 1H, H-2')
	¹³ C	δ: 11.7 (C-2''), 14.1 (C-5), 18.6 (C-4), 26.4 (C-2'''), 33.4 (C-1'''), 33.9 (C-3), 34.1 (C-3'''), 43.3 (C-1''), 63.0 (C-2), 125.7 (C-2'), 126.1 (C-5'), 128.6 (C-6'), 133.7 (C-1'), 146.9 (C-4'), 154.0 (C-3'), 196.4 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,1'' 3_2,4 4_2,3,5 5_3,4 1'_1''',5' 2'_6' 3'_2',6',1''',2'''' 4'_5',1''',2'''' 5'_3'''' 6'_2',5',3'''' 1''''_2', 2''''',3'''' 2''''_3'''' 3''''_5',2'''' 1''''_2,2'''' 2''''_1''

Table 3 continued

Compound No.	NMR	Data
14	^1H	δ : 0.88 (t, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 3H, H-4), 1.36 (t, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 3H, H-2''), 2.00–2.17 (m, 4H, H-3 \times 2 and H-2''' \times 2), 2.97–3.07 (m, 5H, H-3''' \times 2, H-1''' \times 2 and H-1''), 3.09–3.16 (m, 1H, H-1''), 5.15–5.18 (m, 1H, H-2), 7.42 (d, $J = 7.9$ Hz, 1H, H-5'), 7.85 (dd, $J = 7.9$ and 1.5 Hz, 1H, H-6'), 7.92 (m, 1H, H-2')
	^{13}C	δ : 8.6 (C-4), 11.7 (C-2''), 24.9 (C-3), 26.4 (C-2'''), 33.4 (C-1'''), 34.1 (C-3'''), 43.3 (C-1''), 63.8 (C-2), 125.7 (C-2'), 126.1 (C-5'), 128.6 (C-6'), 133.7 (C-1'), 146.9 (C-4'), 154.0 (C-3'), 196.4 (C-1)
	HMBC	1_2,3,2',6' 2_3,4,1'' 3_2,4 4_2,3 1'_1''',5' 2'_6' 3'_2',6',2''',3''' 4'_5',2''',3''' 5'_3''' 6'_2',3''' 1'''_2',2''' 2'''_1''' 3'''_5', 2'''_1''_2,2'' 2''_1''
15	^1H	δ : 1.70–1.88 (m, 2H, H-4 and H-5), 1.94 (dd, $J = 13.3$ and 3.7 Hz, 1H, H-6), 1.98–2.00 (m, 1H, H-5), 2.06–2.11 (m, 1H, H-4), 2.31 (s, 3H, NH-CH ₃), 2.42 (dt, $J = 13.6$ and 6.2 Hz, 1H, H-3), 2.47–2.51 (m, 1H, H-3), 3.20 (ddd, $J = 13.6$, 5.6 and 2.8 Hz, 1H, H-6), 3.84 (s, 3H, O-CH ₃), 6.93 (t, $J = 2.3$ Hz, 1H, H-2'), 7.00–7.02 (m, 1H, H-6'), 7.12–7.14 (m, 1H, H-4'), 7.51 (t, $J = 8.3$ Hz, 1H, H-5')
	^{13}C	δ : 22.9 (C-5), 27.1 (NH-CH ₃), 28.5 (C-4), 32.8 (C-6), 40.1 (C-3), 56.0 (O-CH ₃), 72.8 (C-1), 115.2 (C-2'), 116.8 (C-4'), 121.2 (C-6'), 132.4 (C-1'), 132.5 (C-5'), 162.4 (C-3'), 207.2 (C-2)
	HMBC	1_6,2',6',NHCH ₃ 2_3,6 3_5 4_3,5,6 5_3,6 6_5 1'_6,5' 2'_4',5' 3'_2',4',5',6',OCH ₃ 6'_2',4',5'

HMBC heteronuclear multiple-bond coherence

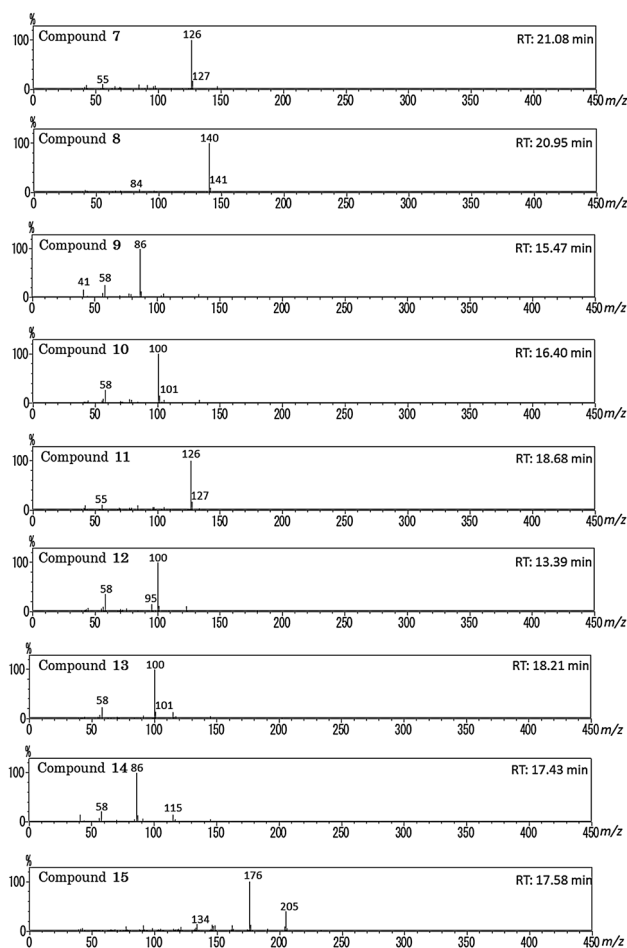


Fig. 3 EI mass spectra of compounds 7–15, which could not be identified only by matching each spectrum with that described in the libraries [2, 3]; they were finally identified by high-resolution mass spectrometry together with nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy

analysis indicated the $[\text{M} + \text{H}]^+$ value at m/z 232.1689, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{22}\text{NO}$ (calculated value 232.1701, accident error - 1.2 ppm; Table 2). Compound **14** was eventually identified as 2-(ethylamino)-1-(indan-5-yl)butan-1-one (bk-IBP) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

For sample No. 22 (compound **15**), EI mass spectrum showed peaks at m/z 176, 205, and 134 at 17.58 min. HRMS analysis indicated the $[\text{M} + \text{H}]^+$ value at m/z 234.1502, and the protonated molecular formula was estimated to be $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{20}\text{NO}_2$ (calculated value 234.1494, accident error 0.8 ppm; Table 2). Compound **15** was eventually identified as 2-(3-methoxyphenyl)-2-(methylamino)cyclohexanone (MMXE) by NMR (Table 3, Fig. 1).

Regulation status in Japan for the 19 drugs identified in this study

Of the 19 compounds identified in this study, there were seven types of phenethylamine derivatives, two types of synthetic cannabinoids, eight types of synthetic cathinones, one type of phencyclidine analog, and one other (Fig. 1). Among seven phenethylamine derivatives detected, only 25H-NBOMe was regulated at the time when samples were obtained, and 25I-NBOMe and 25D-NBOMe became designated drugs in October 2014 and March 2015, respectively, and 25E-NBOMe and RH34 followed in May 2015. 25I-NBMD and escaline were still non-regulated drugs as of July 2015; however, their structures are similar to mescaline, which is regulated by the Narcotics and Psychotropics Control Act. Thus, it is possible that 25I-NBMD and escaline cause similar psychological effects as mescaline. Both ADB-

CHMINACA [8] and 5F-ADB [9], which are synthetic cannabinoids, were unregulated during the acquisition time, but became designated drugs in September 2014 and October 2014, respectively. Butane-1,4-diol [10] was a non-regulated drug at the present time (July 2015); however, it is known to be metabolized into GHB (gamma-hydroxybutyrate) in the body, which is regulated by the Narcotics and Psychotropics Control Act. The novel phencyclidine derivative MMXE was non-regulated drug at the present time (July 2015). However, the structure is very similar to methoxetamine (MXE) [11], which has been regulated since June 2014.

We determined the chemical structure of 8 novel synthetic cathinones, including a modification of a new basic structure of synthetic cathinone, 5-DBFPV (benzofuran derivative). The benzofuran derivatives of the cathinone have not been included in the recent generic scheduling, and it is, therefore, possible that such series based on this chemical structure will expand on the drug market in the near future.

Among the eight synthetic cathinones, only 4F- α -ethylaminopentiophenone was regulated by the generic scheduling in August 2014. However 3,4-MDPHP and 5-DBFPV became regulated in November 2014, and then bk-IBP, bk-IVP, 3,4-dimethyl-NEB, and 3,4-dimethyl- α -ethylaminopentiophenone followed in January 2015. Finally 3,4-dimethyl- α -PVP became regulated in March 2015. Thus, all eight synthetic cathinone compounds detected in this study became designated substances to date in Japan.

Conclusions

Nineteen compounds were detected out of 22 samples that were acquired before being sold on the drug market. Among those, only two compounds were regulated at the time when the samples were obtained. However, 15 compounds have become designated in a year. Based on these findings, it is suggested that these compounds will actually spread across the Japanese drug market in a year. In this study, we have disclosed as many as 15 compounds as novel designer drugs. 25I-NBMD, escaline, and MMXE are out of the regulation list in Japan. The toxicity, pharmacological actions and metabolism for the 15 novel compounds remain to be explored. The forensic toxicologists should be alert in their duty work for the newly emerging designer drugs described in this article.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest There are no financial or other relations that could lead to a conflict of interest.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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Regular Article

Clinical behavior of Japanese community pharmacists for preventing prescription drug overdose

Takuya Shimane, MPH, PhD,* Toshihiko Matsumoto, MD, PhD and Kiyoshi Wada, MD, PhD
Department of Drug Dependence Research, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, Japan

Aim: Prescription drug abuse, including benzodiazepines, is a growing health problem in Japan. This study examined the community pharmacist's clinical behavior regarding patients who overdose on prescribed drugs, and explored the possibility of overdose prevention by community pharmacists.

Methods: We surveyed all registered community pharmacies with dispensing functions ($n = 1867$) in the Saitama Pharmaceutical Association. An anonymous self-administered questionnaire was mailed to each pharmacy. Respondents were asked about clinical behavior such as medication counseling and referral to the prescriber if prescription drug overdose was identified.

Results: Among respondents, 26% of community pharmacists reported clinical experience of working with patients who overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year. Half of respondents evaluated their practice such as medication counseling and referral to the prescriber as 'good'. On multivariate analysis, a

'poor' self-evaluation of referral to the prescriber was significantly associated with the following perceptions: 'insufficient confidence in communication with prescribers' (odds ratio [OR], 2.7; 95% confidence interval [95%CI]: 1.4–5.3), and 'to avoid trouble with prescribers' (OR, 1.7; 95%CI: 1.0–2.7).

Conclusion: Japanese community pharmacists could prevent prescription drug abuse in their practice, but the pharmacists who have insufficient confidence in communication with prescribers and who are afraid of trouble with a prescriber, reported poor self-evaluation for referral to the prescribers. All prescribers should understand the importance of referral by community pharmacists, to assist community pharmacists in playing a critical role in prevention of prescription drug abuse.

Key words: addiction psychiatry, drug overdose, pharmacist, prescription drug misuse, suicidology.

THE NON-MEDICAL USE or abuse of prescribed drugs, including benzodiazepines, is a growing health problem in Japan. An association between prescription drug overdose and suicide risk has been reported. A psychological autopsy study indicated that in more than half of successful suicides in which the patient had been under psychiatric treatment, they had overdosed on prescribed prescription drugs including benzodiazepines before their impulsive

fatal suicidal behavior, which included hanging and jumping from great heights.¹ This suggests that the disinhibiting effects caused by overdosing on prescription drugs might promote lethal, suicidal behavior. Japan has one of the world's highest suicide rates: according to the Cabinet Office, Government of Japan, 30 651 people (24.0 per 100 000) committed suicide in 2011.² Furthermore, drug dependence caused by abuse of prescription drugs is increasing in Japan. According to a nationwide psychiatric hospital survey, the proportion of patients with sedative (mainly benzodiazepine)-related disorders has more than doubled in the last decade.³

The Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has expected pharmacists to act as 'gatekeepers', facilitating early identification of individuals at

*Correspondence: Takuya Shimane, MPH, PhD, Department of Drug Dependence Research, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 4-1-1 Ogawa-Higashi, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8553, Japan.
Email: shimane@ncnp.go.jp
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high risk of overdosing on prescription drugs, supplying medication counseling to the patients, and helping to introduce these patients to appropriate medical care.⁴ Furthermore, promoting the cultivation of gatekeepers in a variety of fields including pharmacy is one of the main points in the new General Principles of Suicide Prevention proposed by the Cabinet Office, Government of Japan. The actual practices of pharmacists regarding suicidal individuals, however, are largely unknown.

While all health-care professionals including hospital pharmacists can play a role in preventing prescription drug abuse, the role of the community pharmacist is vital in addressing this problem. In recent years, the dispensing of prescriptions has been moving rapidly from inside to outside hospitals, with prescription drugs being dispensed mainly at community pharmacies. According to the 2012 Survey of Medical Care Activities in Public Health Insurance, for example, the rate of external prescriptions was 72.9% for hospitals, and 63.2% for clinics.⁵ These data showed that most outpatients on psychiatric drug treatment obtain prescription drugs from community pharmacists. Moreover, prescription drugs such as benzodiazepines are widely used in psychiatry, but they are prescribed not only by psychiatrists, but also by other professionals, including primary care physicians. The community pharmacy receives prescription forms issued by multiple hospitals and clinics, and community pharmacists can identify inappropriate use of prescription drugs including overdose.

This study examined the community pharmacist's clinical behavior regarding patients who have overdosed on prescribed drugs, and explored the possibility of overdose prevention by community pharmacists.

METHODS

Procedure

We surveyed all registered community pharmacies with dispensing functions ($n = 1867$) in the Saitama Pharmaceutical Association (SPA). We used a questionnaire developed by an occupational ability committee of the SPA and the authors. The questionnaire was a voluntary and anonymous self-administered survey, and no incentive was provided to respondents. The questionnaire was sent to the manager of all registered community pharmacies, together with a

covering letter and postpaid return envelope. The requirement for written consent was waived by the ethics committee, because the questionnaire was voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire was first mailed in November 2011 and reminders were sent after 2 and 4 weeks by broadcast facsimile service through the SPA. The addresses and names of pharmacy were provided by the SPA and used strictly for study purposes. To exclude overlapping responses from the same pharmacy, we mailed one questionnaire to each pharmacy, and the pharmacy selected one eligible respondent. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry in Japan.

Measures

According to a survey of drug overdose patients admitted to the emergency room of a general hospital in Japan, benzodiazepines were the most frequent cause of overdose (63.4%).⁶ A broad range of psychotropic drugs, however, such as antipsychotics (14.1%) and selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors (9.9%) were also reportedly involved in overdose. Based on that study, we defined prescription drugs as a broad range of psychotropic drugs.

Drug overdoses can occur accidentally or intentionally, and pharmacists could identify both types of overdose in pharmacies. To prevent inappropriate use (or abuse) of prescription drugs, however, we believe that pharmacists should focus on intentional overdoses. We defined overdose as intentional use of prescribed drugs at a higher dosage than instructed by the prescriber, regardless of suicidal intention.

We used the Acknowledge-Care-Tell (ACT) model⁷ to define clinical behavior for community pharmacists to prevent prescription drug abuse. The ACT model is known as the Signs of Suicide (SOS), the school-based suicide prevention program.⁷ The ACT works as follows. First, acknowledge the signs of suicide that others display and take them seriously. Next, let that person know you care about him or her and that you want to help. Then, tell a responsible adult. To apply this model to pharmacist clinical behavior, we defined as follows: acknowledge the suicidal patients who overdose on prescribed drugs; care for the patients through medication counseling; tell and refer to the prescribers.

The questionnaire was structured and contained 17 questions. It included pharmacist characteristics,

pharmacy characteristics (number of prescriptions received per month, type of prescriptions), and the clinical behavior with prescription drug abusers. To examine the acknowledge behavior, the respondents were asked about their clinical experience of working with patients who had overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year. The respondents who had this experience were asked to self-evaluate their clinical behavior. To assess each respondent's clinical behavior, the following item was used: 'Please rate your overall quality of clinical behavior with prescription drug overdose patients about (i) "care" medication counseling, and (ii) "tell" referral to the prescriber, with 4-point response scales (1, very good; 2, good; 3, poor; and 4, very poor).' The perception of care (what is the essential factor in conducting high-quality medication counseling with prescription drug abusers; eight items), and of tell (what factors interfere with active referral to the prescribers; seven items) were also included in the questionnaire.

To clarify the questions, we sent instruction sheets together with the questionnaire to the pharmacists, and a supplementary explanation was provided in the questionnaire.

Statistical analysis

We first divided the pharmacists into two groups according to experience with overdose patients. One group consisted of pharmacists who reported clinical experience of working with patients who had overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year (overdose group), and the other group included those who had not reported such a clinical experience (control group). Fisher's exact tests were used to compare the two groups.

Data from pharmacists in the overdose group were analyzed in the following steps. We divided the pharmacists into two groups according to self-evaluation of their clinical behavior with overdose patients. Two outcomes were examined. Regarding self-evaluation of medication counseling, one group consisted of the respondents who had reported their practice as 'good' (1, very good and 2, good), and the other group included those who had reported their practice as 'poor' (3, poor and 4, very poor). Likewise, regarding self-evaluation of referral to the prescriber, the pharmacists were divided into good and poor. Multiple logistic regression analysis was used to calculate adjusted odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) after controlling simultaneously for poten-

tial confounders. Variables considered in the models were pharmacist characteristics, pharmacy characteristics, and pharmacist's perception. The threshold for statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$ (two-tailed).

RESULTS

A total of 1416 pharmacists completed the questionnaire (response rate of 76%); 366 (25.8%) of these reported clinical experience of working with patients who had overdosed on prescribed drugs (overdose group). Table 1 lists the characteristics of the pharmacists and their pharmacies in the two groups. Compared with the control group, the overdose group was significantly more likely to be male and to be 30–49 years old. In addition, the overdose group was significantly more likely to have received prescriptions from specific hospitals (24.6%) than the control group (16.8%). Moreover, the overdose group received significantly more prescriptions per month than the control group.

Tables 2,3 list the results of multiple logistic regression analysis. A total of 353 pharmacists (192 men and 161 women) of the original 366 in the overdose group were included in this analysis: seven were excluded because practice self-evaluation data were missing, five were excluded because their characteristics were missing, and one was excluded because the number of prescriptions received was missing.

Table 2 lists multivariate-adjusted OR for the clinical behavior of medication counseling. Among the overdose group, 175 respondents (49.6%) had reported that their behavior was good (1, very good and 2, good) in this area, while 178 (50.4%) reported that their behavior was poor (3, poor and 4, very poor). On multivariate analysis, poor self-evaluation for medication counseling was significantly associated with the number of prescriptions received: 1001–2000 (OR, 2.1; 95%CI: 1.2–3.6), ≥ 3000 (OR, 3.1; 95%CI: 1.5–6.4) per month. Pharmacist gender, age, type of pharmacy, and perception of medication counseling were not associated with the pharmaceutical practices of medication counseling.

Table 3 lists the multivariate-adjusted OR for the clinical behavior of referral to the prescriber. In this self-evaluation category, 195 pharmacists (55.2%) regarded themselves as good and 158 (44.8%) as poor. On multivariate analysis, poor self-evaluation of referral to the prescriber was significantly associated with pharmacist gender (OR, 0.5; 95%CI: 0.3–0.8), and type of pharmacy: receiving prescriptions

Table 1. Pharmacist and pharmacy characteristics

	Patient overdose group [†] (n = 366)		Control group [§] (n = 1043)		P [†]
	n	%	n	%	
Gender					0.009
Female	161	44.8	564	54.1	
Male	192	54.1	467	44.8	
Age group (years)					<0.001
≤29	47	12.8	83	8.0	
30–39	113	30.9	232	22.2	
40–49	106	29.0	224	21.5	
50–59	68	18.6	266	25.5	
≥60	30	8.2	230	22.1	
Pharmacy type: receiving prescriptions from					0.002
Specific clinics	174	47.5	524	50.2	
Specific hospitals	90	24.6	175	16.8	
No specific clinics or hospitals	101	27.6	324	31.1	
No. prescriptions received (monthly)					<0.001
≤1000	124	33.9	548	52.5	
1001–2000	129	35.2	310	29.7	
2001–3000	60	16.4	111	10.6	
≥3001	51	13.9	60	5.8	

[†]Fisher's exact test ($P < 0.05$). [†]Pharmacists who reported clinical experience of working with patients who overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year; [§]pharmacists who did not report clinical experience of working with patients who overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year.

from specific hospitals (OR, 1.9; 95%CI: 1.1–3.3), receiving prescriptions from no specific hospitals or clinics (OR, 2.4; 95%CI: 1.4–4.2). We also found that poor self-evaluation of referral to prescriber was significantly associated with a pharmacist having a perception of 'insufficient confidence in communication with prescribers' (OR, 2.7; 95%CI: 1.4–5.3), 'to avoid trouble with prescribers' (OR, 1.7; 95%CI: 1.0–2.7), and 'to avoid trouble with patients and their families' (OR, 2.0; 95%CI: 1.2–3.3). Pharmacist age and number of prescriptions received were not associated with the pharmaceutical practices of referral to the prescriber.

DISCUSSION

Research on pharmacy practice is limited in the field of substance abuse. The role of community pharmacists relevant to HIV prevention and drug treatment services for drug users in England and Wales has been reported.⁸ Moreover, Tommasello reported that pharmacists, the most accessible of health-care profes-

sionals, are well positioned to help prevent and treat substance use disorders.⁹ Although the role of community pharmacists in illicit drug use is described in these reports, the pharmacies' role in prescription medication abuse is not well documented. Meanwhile, Kehoe reported that pharmacists play an important role in attempting to stem the tide of abuse of prescription medications.¹⁰ Moreover, pharmacist roles in combating prescription drug abuse and examples of activities have been reported by members of the American Pharmacists Association.¹¹ As far as we know, research on actual practice with regard to the prescription drug abuser, of community pharmacists has not been reported internationally. The present study is probably the first to examine the community pharmacist's clinical behavior with regard to patients who overdosed on prescribed drugs.

The community pharmacist's clinical behavior with regard to suicidal individuals is also not well documented internationally. The present study found that 26% of community pharmacists in the Saitama

Table 2. Multivariate indicators of pharmacist self-evaluation of medication counseling[†]

	Self-evaluation of medication counseling				Adjusted OR (95%CI)	P
	Good (n = 175)		Poor (n = 178)			
	n	%	n	%		
Gender						
Female	83	47.4	78	43.8	1 [Reference]	
Male	92	52.6	100	56.2	0.9 (0.6–1.4)	0.650
Age group (years)						
≤29	25	14.3	22	12.4	1 [Reference]	
30–39	44	25.1	67	37.6	2.0 (1.0–4.0)	0.067
40–49	50	28.6	53	29.8	1.3 (0.6–2.7)	0.497
50–59	37	21.1	28	15.7	0.9 (0.4–2.0)	0.800
≥60	19	10.9	8	4.5	0.6 (0.2–1.7)	0.306
Pharmacy type: Receiving prescriptions from						
Specific clinics	86	49.1	80	44.9	1 [Reference]	
Specific hospitals	39	22.3	50	28.1	1.4 (0.8–2.4)	0.304
No specific clinics or hospitals	50	28.6	48	27.0	1.4 (0.8–2.4)	0.241
No. prescriptions received (monthly)						
≤1000	74	42.3	46	25.8	1 [Reference]	
1001–2000	56	32.0	71	39.9	2.1 (1.2–3.6)	0.007
2001–3000	29	16.6	27	15.2	1.3 (0.7–2.6)	0.421
≥3001	16	9.1	34	19.1	3.1 (1.5–6.4)	0.003
Factors in conducting high-quality medication counseling (agree)						
Sufficient knowledge of addiction	105	60.0	106	59.6	0.9 (0.6–1.4)	0.670
Sufficient confidence in medication counseling	81	46.3	79	44.4	1.0 (0.7–1.6)	0.925
Attitude to help prescription drug abuser	72	41.1	71	39.9	1.1 (0.7–1.8)	0.612
Good partnerships with patients	129	73.7	128	71.9	1.0 (0.6–1.6)	0.865
Good partnerships with prescribers	114	65.1	119	66.9	1.1 (0.7–1.8)	0.570
Good partnerships with hospitals or clinics	68	38.9	80	44.9	1.4 (0.9–2.2)	0.166
Good partnerships with other pharmacists within pharmacies	69	39.4	72	40.4	1.1 (0.7–1.8)	0.629
Good partnerships with other facilities	59	33.7	70	39.3	1.3 (0.8–2.1)	0.240

[†]Multivariate logistic regression analysis conducted with all variables. CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.

Prefecture of Japan reported clinical experience of working with patients who had overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year. Kodaka *et al.* reported that 58.1% of pharmacists have clinical experience with suicidal individuals.¹² This prevalence is considerably higher than the present result. The pharmacists in the Kodaka *et al.* study, however, were those who participated in the Certified Psychiatric Pharmacy Specialist Seminar and therefore most were pharmacists who work in psychiatric hospitals. Of those pharmacists, around 20% were community pharmacists. Prevalence of exposure to suicidal individuals among community pharmacists only has not been reported. Because of the difference in demographics between that study and the present one, it is difficult to compare the data. Generally, pharmacists who work in psychiatric hospitals have more experience with suicidal individuals than community pharmacists. Conversely, all of the present subjects were

community pharmacists of the SPA. Saitama Prefecture is the fifth most populated prefecture in Japan, and had a population of approximately 7 million in 2010. According to the survey of medical institutions and the report on public health administration and services, Saitama had 2488 licensed pharmacies in 2010. At the end of November 2011, 1954 community pharmacies were registered in the SPA. Accordingly, most pharmacies in Saitama Prefecture will be registered with the SPA. Given that the present response rate was 76%, it suggests that the representativeness of the data is high and reflects the reality of community pharmacists in Saitama Prefecture.

In the present study half of respondents evaluated themselves as good for medication counseling, but pharmacists who received a high number of prescriptions evaluated themselves as poor. In Japan, the number of pharmacists required for a pharmacy is defined by the number of prescriptions the phar-

Table 3. Multivariate indicators of pharmacist self-evaluation of referral to the prescriber[†]

	Self-evaluation of referral to the prescriber					
	Good (<i>n</i> = 195)		Poor (<i>n</i> = 158)		Adjusted OR (95%CI)	<i>P</i>
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%		
Gender						
Female	77	39.5	84	53.2	1 [Reference]	
Male	118	60.5	74	46.8	0.5 (0.3–0.8)	0.007
Age group (years)						
≤29	21	10.8	26	16.5	1 [Reference]	
30–39	61	31.3	50	31.6	0.9 (0.4–1.8)	0.875
40–49	65	33.3	38	24.1	0.6 (0.3–1.2)	0.563
50–59	37	19.0	28	17.7	0.6 (0.3–1.2)	0.557
≥60	11	5.6	16	10.1	1.0 (0.4–2.9)	0.941
Pharmacy type: Receiving prescriptions from						
Specific clinics	110	56.4	56	35.4	1 [Reference]	
Specific hospitals	43	22.1	46	29.1	1.9 (1.1–3.3)	0.028
No specific clinics or hospitals	42	21.5	56	35.4	2.4 (1.4–4.2)	0.002
No. prescriptions received (monthly)						
≤1000	65	33.3	55	34.8	1 [Reference]	
1001–2000	75	38.5	52	32.9	1.1 (0.6–1.9)	0.717
2001–3000	31	15.9	25	15.8	1.0 (0.5–1.9)	0.951
≥3001	24	12.3	26	16.5	1.4 (0.7–2.8)	0.390
Factors in inhibition of referral to the prescribers (agree)						
Insufficient knowledge about addiction	31	15.9	23	14.6	0.9 (0.5–1.7)	0.717
Insufficient confidence in communication with prescribers	18	9.2	30	19.0	2.7 (1.4–5.3)	0.003
Busy routine work	24	12.3	20	12.7	1.0 (0.5–2.0)	0.905
Do not want to help prescription drug abuser	4	2.1	2	1.3	0.7 (0.1–4.2)	0.699
To avoid trouble with prescribers (trouble between individuals)	50	25.6	55	34.8	1.7 (1.0–2.7)	0.041
To avoid trouble with hospitals or clinics (trouble between institutions)	46	23.6	28	17.7	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	0.371
To avoid trouble with patients and their families	56	28.7	64	40.5	2.0 (1.2–3.3)	0.005

[†]Multivariate logistic regression analysis conducted with all variables. CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.

macy receives per day. Generally, a pharmacy that receives a high number of prescriptions has many pharmacists. In pharmacies with many pharmacists, the pharmacist who does medication counseling is not always the same, and it may be difficult to provide continuity of medication counseling. It has been reported that pharmacist response is a factor that affects customer satisfaction most in a pharmacy.¹³ It is important for the same pharmacist to continue to carry out medication counseling when building a confidential relationship with a patient. When medication counseling is unable to be carried out by the same pharmacist, this may become an obstacle when building such a relationship. In a

pharmacy with many prescriptions, there are other patients waiting and private medication counseling may be difficult. It has been reported that patients would be more likely to consult with their pharmacist if they knew a consultation service of up to 30 min was available, where patient privacy was ensured, even if they needed to pay for this service.¹⁴ As mentioned here, it is difficult to build a confidential relationship between a pharmacist and a patient in a busy pharmacy. It is therefore not surprising that those pharmacists evaluated themselves poorly for medication counseling.

We also found that more than half of respondents evaluated themselves as good for referral to the pre-

scriber. The pharmacists who had received prescriptions from specific hospitals, and those who had not received prescriptions from specific hospitals or clinics, however, reported poor self-evaluation, compared with those who had received prescriptions from specific clinics. Generally, community pharmacies give patient information to prescribers by telephone. Pharmacists who receive prescriptions only from specific clinics communicate with the prescriber daily, and these pharmacists can therefore refer to the prescriber smoothly. In other cases, it may be difficult for pharmacists to build a relationship with the prescribers. This may be true for pharmacists dealing with a large-scale hospital with many prescribers, pharmacists who receive prescriptions from many hospitals and clinics, or those who do not receive a large volume of prescriptions. Such situations may have hindered smooth referral.

Furthermore, pharmacists who reported 'insufficient confidence in communication with prescriber' and who are 'afraid of troubles with a prescriber or a patient', also reported poor self-evaluation for referral to the prescribers. These pharmacists may hesitate to refer to the prescriber because they are afraid of trouble. Community pharmacists have reported trouble telling prescribers of multiple-high dose prescription or overlapping prescriptions. For example, according to a narrative study, community pharmacists hesitate to contact prescribers because some prescribers found it hard to accept the pharmacist's proposal, or unilaterally refused to communicate, despite repeated inquiries about a prescription.¹⁵ Although the Pharmacists Act in Japan states that pharmacists must check prescriptions, some prescribers do not understand the importance of a referral by a pharmacist. It is necessary that all prescribers understand the importance of a referral by a community pharmacist.

The present study should be understood in the light of the following limitations. First, we were unable to recruit community pharmacists who did not belong to the SPA. Therefore, the present results may not represent the community pharmacists in all of Saitama Prefecture. A total of 2488 pharmacies, however, are registered into Saitama Prefecture, of which 1954 belong to the SPA. Accordingly, 79% of the pharmacies in Saitama Prefecture belong to the SPA and were thus represented here. This suggests that we were able to obtain data reflecting all of Saitama Prefecture by recruiting community pharmacists from the SPA.

Second, we were unable to recruit community pharmacists outside Saitama Prefecture. Therefore, the present results do not include the situation of prescription drug overdose in other areas in Japan. Japan consists of 47 prefectures and further research should compare the present results with other prefectures.

Furthermore, we could not obtain data on the type of clinic or hospital (such as psychiatric hospital), when we categorized pharmacy type. Perhaps those pharmacies that mainly receive prescriptions from psychiatric hospitals or clinics have more experience with patients who have overdosed on prescribed drugs. Future studies should include an analysis of a possible association between the type of prescribing clinic or hospital and the clinical behavior of pharmacists.

Finally, although prescription drug overdose was examined in the present study, not all patients who overdose are drug dependent or a suicide risk. It has been reported, however, that patients with prescription-related disorders are more likely to choose prescription drug overdose as a means of suicide attempt.¹⁶ Moreover, it has been reported that 77.7% of overdose patients in emergency departments overdose on benzodiazepines, which is increasing in drug-dependent patients in Japan.¹⁷ Accordingly, it is possible that prescription drug overdose is overlapping with drug dependence and suicide attempt.

Despite these limitations, the present study was a large-scale survey that investigated all the pharmacists belonging to the SPA, and is the first clinical study focusing on community pharmacist practice relating to prescription drug abuse and suicidal individuals in Japan. This study provides a significant insight into the community pharmacist as a gatekeeper for preventing prescription drug overdose.

Conclusion

Japanese community pharmacists are identifying prescription drug abuse in their practice. We found that 26% of respondents reported clinical experience of working with patients who overdosed on prescribed drugs in the previous year. Moreover, half of respondents evaluated their practice regarding medication counseling and referral to the prescriber as good. The present results show that Japanese community pharmacists could prevent prescription drug abuse in their practice, but that those pharmacists who had

insufficient confidence in communication with prescribers and who were afraid of troubles with a prescriber or a patient, reported poor self-evaluation for referral to the prescribers. All prescribers should understand the importance of the referral by the community pharmacist, to assist the community pharmacists to play a critical role in prevention of prescription drug abuse.

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