Factors Associated with Condom Use among Students at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

Beatrice Amy Nesidai Kithuka

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the degree of Master of Science in Epidemiology in the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

2012

DECLARATION

This	thesis is	my o	original	work a	nd has	s not	been	presented	l for	a degree	e in any	y other
Univ	versity.											

Signature..... Date.....

Beatrice Amy Nesidai Kithuka

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

Signature	Date
~-8	

Prof. Zipporah Ng'ang'a

JKUAT, Kenya

Signature..... Date

Dr. Peter Wanzala

JKUAT, Kenya

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my dear dad and mum who made me what I am today, my husband (Peter) and daughter (Lisa) for their support and their daily inspiration.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge the support of all who contributed in various ways making this study a success. Special thanks to my supervisors Prof. Zipporah Ng'ang'a and Dr. Peter Wanzala who worked through my document and advised me accordingly. I thank the following for their special contributions to this study: Dr. Peter Borus (KEMRI), Dr. Muita Wairimu (KEMRI), Mr. Moses Mwangi (KEMRI) and Dean of students Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology main campus. I also wish to express my thanks to all my colleagues and friends who encouraged me in my work. Special thanks to Elizabeth, Jane, Mercy, Emma, Vivian, Pastor Evans and many others.

Last but not list, I wish to express my gratitude to my family members my husband Peter and daughter Lisa for their love, patience, support and understanding while I was away and long hours.

May the almighty God bless you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATIONii
DEDICATIONiii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSiv
TABLE OF CONTENTSv
LIST OF TABLES
LIST OF FIGURESxi
LIST OF APPENDICESxii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ ACRONYMSxiii
DEFINITION OF TERMS AS USED IN THE STUDY
ABSTRACT
ABSTRACT xvi CHAPTER ONE 1 1.0 INTRODUCTION 1 1.1 Background 1 1.2 Statement of the Problem 2 1.3 Justification of the Study 3 1.4 Objectives 3

1.4.2 Specific Objectives
1.5 Hypothesis
1.6 Research Questions
CHAPTER TWO5
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Background information
2.2 Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs)
2.2.1 Epidemiology of Sexually Transmitted Infections
2.2.2 Syphilis
2.2.3 Transmission of Syphilis
2.2.4 Clinical Manifestation for Syphilis
2.2.5 Diagnosis of Syphilis
2.2.6 Treatment for Syphilis
2.2.7 Syphilis Prevention
2.2.8 Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV)
2.2.9 Transmission of Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV)
2.2.10 Clinical Manifestation of HSV-2
2.2.11 Diagnosis of HSV-211
2.2.12 Treatment for HSV-211
2.2.13 Prevention of HSV-2

2.2.14 Health Consequences of Untreated STIs
2.3 Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)
2.3.1 HIV transmission
2.3.2 Epidemiology of HIV14
2.3.3 Magnitude of HIV in Kenya
2.3.4 Clinical Manifestation of HIV17
2.3.5 Diagnosis of HIV
2.3.6 Treatment Implications of HIV
2.3.7 Implications for an AIDS vaccine
2.3.8 The Effectiveness of Condoms in Preventing STDs and HIV
CHAPTER THREE
CHAPTER THREE
CHAPTER THREE 20 3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS 20 3.1 Research Methodology 20
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site20
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site203.1.2 Study Population20
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site203.1.2 Study Population203.1.3 Inclusion Criteria20
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site203.1.2 Study Population203.1.3 Inclusion Criteria203.1.4 Exclusion Criteria21
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site203.1.2 Study Population203.1.3 Inclusion Criteria203.1.4 Exclusion Criteria213.1.5 Methodology21
CHAPTER THREE203.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS203.1 Research Methodology203.1.1 Study Site203.1.2 Study Population203.1.3 Inclusion Criteria203.1.4 Exclusion Criteria213.1.5 Methodology213.1.5.1 Sample Design21

3.1.5.3 Data Collection Procedures
3.1.5.4 Data Collection Tools
3.1.5.5 Sample Size Determination
3.1.6 Data Analysis
3.1.7 Ethical Considerations
CHAPTER FOUR
4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
4.1 Results
4.1.1 Characteristics of the Study Population
4.1.2 Access to Condom Use among the Respondents
4.1.3 Knowledge on HIV and Condom Use among the Study Participants
4.1.4 Attitude towards Condom Use among Study Participants
4.1.5 Sexual Practices among the Study Participants
4.1.6 Bivariate Analysis
4.1.7 Multivariate Analysis
4.1.8 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)
4.2 Discussions
4.3 Study Limitations
CHAPTER FIVE
5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDTIONS

APPENDICES	77
REFERENCES	61
5.2 Recommendations	60
5.1 Conclusions	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1:	Socio-demographic characteristics
Table 4.2:	Economic and non-economic factors
Table 4.3:	Preferred sources of condom supply29
Table 4.4:	Brand preference
Table 4.5:	Reasons for brand preference
Table 4.6 a:	Knowledge on what is HIV
Table 4.6 b:	Knowledge on why HIV is public health problem
Table 4.6 c:	Knowledge on how HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked33
Table 4.7 a:	Knowledge on condom use
Table 4.7 b:	Knowledge on safe use and handling of condom35
Table 4.8 a:	Attitude towards condom use
Table 4.8 b:	Attitude towards condom use
Table 4.8 c:	Attitude towards condom use
Table 4.9:	Sexual practices among the study participants41
Table 4.10:	Condom use in relation to socio-demographic characteristics43
Table 4.11 a:	Condom use in relation to economic and non-economic factors44
Table 4.11 b:	Condom use in relation to sources of condom supply45
Table 4.11 c:	Condom use in relation to preferred condom46
Table 4.12:	Condom use in relation to sexual practices
Table 4.13:	Binary logistic regression50
Table 4.14:	Distribution of FGDs by age, gender and level of education51

Table 4.15:	Distribution of the FGDs study participant by religion	51
Table 4.16:	Themes and responses	52

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1:	The different levels of HIV classification	14
Figure 4.1:	Sexual exposure among the study participants	27
Figure 4.2:	Channels of communication on condom use	36
Figure 4.3:	Birth control methods among study participants	42
Figure 4.4:	Condom use in relation to general attitude	47

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1:	Questionnaire monitoring check-list	.77
Appendix 2:	Consent Form	.78
Appendix 3:	Respondent self administered questionnaire	.81
Appendix 4:	Focus group discussions guide	.88
Appendix 5:	Analysis of Knowledge	.92
Appendix 6:	Multivariate analysis	.93
Appendix 7:	Map of Kenya showing JKUAT	.94
Appendix 8:	Independent and dependent variable	.95
Appendix 9:	Scientific Steering Committee (SSC) (Approval) KEMRI	.96
Appendix 10:	Ethical Review Committee (ERC) (Approval) KEMRI	.97

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CHWs	Commercial sex workers
CI	Confidence interval
CRFs	Circulating recombinant forms
DVD	Digital versatile disc
EIA	Enzyme Immunoassay
ELISA	Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
FOS	Faculty of Science
IDUs	Injecting Drug Users
IEC	Information Education and Communication
ITROMID	Institute of Tropical Medicine and Infectious Diseases
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KAIS	Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey
KAP	Knowledge, attitude and practices
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey
KEMRI	Kenya Medical Research Institute
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KNH	Kenyatta National Hospital
МОН	Ministry of Health

NACC	National AIDS Control Council	
NASCOP	National AIDS/STI Control Program	
NCAPD	National Coordinating Agency for Population and Development	
NIH	National Institutes of Health	
NPHLS	National Public Health Laboratory Services	
PI	Principal Investigator	
RA	Research Assistant	
SAQ	Self Administered Questionnaire	
SHAPC	STDs/HIV/AIDS Prevention Centre	
STDs	Sexually Transmitted Diseases	
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Infections	
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS	
USAID	United States Agency for International Development	
WHO	World Health Organization	

xiv

DEFINITION OF TERMS AS USED IN THE STUDY

Access	Condition allowing reach of condoms
At risk	Students who scored 1 and above
Attitude	Believes on condom use
Chancroid	A STI caused caused by the bacterium
	Haemophilus ducreyi .
Co-factor	A risk factor for acquiring a particular infection
Correct/positive response	Likely to use a condom
Condom	A barrier device most commonly used during
	sexual intercourse to reduce the likelihood of
	pregnancy and the spread of STDs
Fidelity	Being faithful
Herpes	Disease caused by Herpes simplex Virus
Incorrect/Negative response	Not likely to use a condom
Intoxicated	Under influence of alcohol or a certain drug
Knowledge	Awareness/understanding on HIV
Practices	Things that students do most of the time in
	relation to sexual matters.

ABSTRACT

Condoms offer protection against unwanted pregnancy and some sexually transmitted infections including HIV. Interventions to promote condom use are essential in efforts to slow the spread of HIV. This study sought to find out factors associated with condom use among undergraduate university students at JKUAT, given that majority of the students fall within the vulnerable I5-24 year's age bracket. The study focused on condom use and students (socio-demographic characteristics, knowledge of selected specific issues of HIV, selected access factors, attitudes, and practices). A cross sectional study design was adopted. Simple random sampling was used to obtain the required sample size for both quantitative data (461 respondents) and qualitative data (64 respondents). Data analysis was conducted using SPSS (for quantitative) and MS word (qualitative). The findings of this study revealed among 461, 66.2% (305) had experienced sexual intercourse. The overall level of condom use was high 72.8% (222). There was a significant relationship between condom use and general attitude (P=0.010), privacy of access (P=0.038), brand (P=0.033) and sexual behavior practices (P=0.027). However, there was no significant relationship between condom use and socio-demographic characteristics and knowledge (p>0.05). Majority of students are involved in risky sexual behavior practices. Condom use is hampered by several issues main ones being access to privacy and brand. Continuous awareness campaigns should be enhanced aiming at changing the negative attitude and poor practices.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Sexually Transmitted Infections are a group of contagious diseases most commonly transmitted "from person to person by close, intimate". Although most of this contact has traditionally been sexual intercourse, many categories of sexual practices permit transmission from "person to person."Vertical transmission from mother to newborn is also possible. The means of transmission unite these diseases, not etiologies, symptoms or clinical consequences (Nelson and Woodward, 2006). Sexually transmitted infections are critical in transmission of HIV. 80.7% HIV infected adults were also infected by *Herpes Simplex Virus* type 2 in Kenya (NASCOP, 2009).

The global summary of the AIDS epidemic indicates a total of 34 million people living with HIV/AIDS; among them include 2.6 million people that are newly infected with HIV, 1.8 million people with AIDS related deaths. 22.9 million people from Sub-saharan Africa are living with HIV/AIDS and 1.8 are newly infected and 1.2 million with AIDS related deaths. In Kenya 1.3-1.4 million people are living with HIV, 76,000 – 104,000 newly infected and 80,000 AIDS related deaths (WHO, UNAIDS and UNICEF, 2011).

Many students in the US do not use condoms consistently, especially those who drink heavily or have multiple sexual partners (Certain *et al.*, 2009). In Ghana, students do not use condoms consistently and are not likely to use condoms when the relationship is considered stable because of trust (Tagoe and Aggor, 2009). Various studies from different parts of Nigeria have demonstrated increased level of risky sexual behaviors among students (Okonofua, 1995, Feyisetan and Pebley, 1989, Orubuloye *et al.*, 1991). Some study findings in Kenya indicate high percentage of sexually active students and a low percentage of condom use among the sexually active students (Mutungi, 2006). Reports of people washing and reusing condoms in Kenya have been observed (NACC, 2009). This study therefore aims at determining the factors associated with condom use among undergraduate students at JKUAT.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is not known whether religion affects the use of condoms among university student. The proportion of male and female students getting condoms from commercial, health facility and peer sources are not known. The preferred condom brands among the students are also not clearly defined. Given the risks of unprotected sexual intercourse among students, it is necessary to examine those factors associated with use of condoms, as well as to address the needs of students who may be at risk of engaging in unprotected sexual intercourse.

1.3 Justification of the study

Human Immunodeficiency Virus prevalence in Kenya is currently estimated at 3.8 percent in age group 15-24, 7.4 percent in the age group 15-49 and at 7.1 percent in age group 15-64. 12 percent among women and 2.6 percent among men aged 24 years. Incidence remains high and an estimated 200 new HIV infections per day.

It is estimated that there are 1.3 - 1.4 million Kenyans living with HIV (NASCOP, 2009). HIV is a public health concern due to high morbidity and mortality. Condom use prevents primary infection and multiple re-infection (CDC, 2008). Since target group of young adults can be located at the University, there is need to determine the factors associated with condom use among the students since few studies that have been conducted do not give clear information on factors associated with condom use. The information obtained will be useful in planning and implementing interventions to promote the use of condoms among university students in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 General Objective

To determine factors associated with condom use among undergraduate students at JKUAT.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

1. To determine the socio-demographic, access, knowledge and attitude factors associated with condom use among students at JKUAT.

2. To determine the proportion of condom use among students at JKUAT.

3. To determine the association between socio-demographic, access, knowledge, attitude factors and condom use among students at JKUAT.

1.5 Hypothesis

There is a relationship between condom use and socio-demographic, access, knowledge and attitude factors among students at JKUAT. But since it is a cross-sectional study, the hypothesis is not testable.

1.6 Research questions

1. What are the socio-demographic, access, knowledge and attitude factors associated with condom use among students in JKUAT?

2. What is the proportion of condom use among students in JKUAT?

3. What is the association between condom use and socio-demographic, access, knowledge and attitude factors among students at JKUAT?

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background information

In Africa, condom promotion in some areas has been impeded by anti-condom campaigns by some religious organizations (Marcella and Alsan, 2006). In Kenya, many religious leaders expressed opposition to condom use (IRIN, 2007; Moszynki, 2008). The overall consistent condom use has been reported to be higher among partnerships reported by men (42.8%) compared to those reported by women (27%) (NASCOP, 2009). In Ghana students did not use condoms consistently and were not likely to use condoms when the relationship was considered stable because of trust (Tagoe and Aggor, 2009).

High proportions of students in Kenya use condoms inconsistently (Othero *et al.*, 2009). Consistent condom use with partners of unknown HIV status was higher in non-marital partnership such as boyfriends, girlfriends or casual partners (NASCOP, 2009). In a KAP study (Mutungi, 2006), it was found that: 15.8% of sexually active students reported to have used condoms every time they had sex; 22.5% reported never having used a condom; almost 77% reported to have used protection at one time or another. In a study carried out in Kenya among university students (Mutungi *et al.*, 2008), results showed that no changes in behavior were evident with respect to either abstinence or number of sexual partners.

In Nairobi male students did not see themselves as susceptible to HIV/AIDS and believes of condom being effective in preventing HIV was found to be low (Yotebieng *et al.*, 2009).

2.2 Sexually transmitted Infections

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) occur commonly in sexually active human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)–positive men. Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) can present significant diagnostic difficulties when they occur in HIV-positive persons, and the appropriate treatment and follow-up of an HIV-positive patient with an STI occasionally differs from the standard clinical approach to treating HIVnegative patients (Cohen, 1998; Quin, 1996). Pathogens causing STIs represent a wide spectrum of microorganisms: Spirochetes, bacteria, protozoan's, viruses and obligate intracellular organisms. Some STIs are life threatening (HIV, Syphilis) others pre dispose to malignancy (Hepatitis B, Humanpapiloma virus (HPV), HIV, and others destroy fertility (Gonorrhea, Chlamydia) (WHO, 2003).

2.2.1 Epidemiology of Sexually Transmitted Infections

In the US, STIs are the most common infections; of the ten most frequently reported infections, five are STIs (ASHA, 1998). In 1996, the World Health Organization estimated that more than one million people were being infected daily. About 60% of these infections occur in young people <25 years of age, and of these 30% are <20 years. Between the ages of fourteen and nineteen, STIs occur more frequently in girls than boys by a ratio of nearly 2:1; this equalizes by age 20.

An estimated 340 million new cases of syphilis, gonorrhea, chlamydia and trichomoniasis occurred throughout the world in 1999 (STDs statistics, 2009).

Commonly reported prevalences of STIs among sexually active adolescent girls include chlamydia (10–25%), gonorrhea (3–18%), syphilis (0–3%), Trichomoniasis (8–16%), and Herpes Simplex Virus (2–12%). Among adolescent boys include chlamydia (9–11%) and gonorrhea (2–3%). At least one in four U.S. teenage girls has a sexually transmitted disease (CDC, 2008). Sub-Saharan Africa bears the largest burden responsible for 11 to 35% of all new cases of curable STIs. STIs affect the most vulnerable populations- women, children, and the youth (WHO, 2010).

2.2.2 Syphilis

Syphilis is a sexually transmitted disease (STD) caused by the bacterium *Treponema pallidum*. It has often been called "the great imitator" because so many of the signs and symptoms are indistinguishable from those of other diseases (CDC, 2006).

2.2.3 Transmission of syphilis

Syphilis is passed from person to person through direct contact with syphilis sore. Sores occur mainly on the external genitals, vagina, anus, or in the rectum. Sores also can occur on the lips and in the mouth (CDC, 2006). Transmission of the organism occurs during vaginal, anal, or oral sex. Pregnant women with the disease can pass it to the babies they are carrying (CDC, 2006).

2.2.4 Clinical manifestation for syphilis

Treponema pallidum has been shown to induce HIV-1 gene expression in human monocytes (Theus *et al.*, 1998) and has been found to promote the expression of the monocyte b-chemokine receptor CCR5 (Sellati *et al.*, 2000), a coreceptor for HIV transmission (Alkhatib *et al.*, 1996; Dragic et al., 1996)._HIV-positive patients with syphilis may be more likely than HIV-negative persons to present with persistent chancres (Hutchinson *et al.*, 1994), ulcerative skin lesions (Sand *et al.*, 1995; Ajithkumar *et al.*, 1998), gummatous disease (Hay *et al.*, 1990; Bari *et al.*, 1989), and early ocular involvement (Shalaby *et al.*, 1997).

2.2.5 Diagnosis of syphilis

Serological tests for syphilis are generally accurate for patients with HIV infection. Nontreponemal serological tests for syphilis (serum Venereal Disease Research Laboratory [VDRL] and rapid plasma reagin [RPR] tests) in particular appear to have less reliable results for HIV positive persons than for those without coinfection. A positive result of serum VDRL or RPR tests along with a negative treponemal antibody test—a "biological false-positive" result— has been reported to be more frequent among those infected with HIV than among the general population (Joyanes *et al.*, 1998; Yinnon *et al.*, 1996).

2.2.6 Treatment for syphilis

A single intramuscular injection of penicillin, an antibiotic, will cure a person who has had syphilis for less than a year. Additional doses are needed to treat someone who has had syphilis for longer than a year. For people who are allergic to penicillin, other antibiotics are available to treat syphilis. Treatment will kill the syphilis bacterium and prevent further damage, but it will not repair damage already done. Persons who receive syphilis treatment must abstain from sexual contact with new partners until the syphilis sores are completely healed. Persons with syphilis must notify their sex partners so that they also can be tested and receive treatment if necessary (CDC, 2006).

2.2.7 Syphilis prevention

To abstain from sexual contact or to be in a long-term mutually monogamous relationship with a partner who has been tested and is known to be uninfected. Avoiding alcohol and drug use may also help prevent transmission of syphilis because these activities may lead to risky sexual behavior. Correct and consistent use of latex condoms can reduce the risk of syphilis, as well as genital herpes and chancroid. Transmission of syphilis cannot be prevented by washing the genitals, urinating, and/or douching after sex. Any unusual discharge, sore, or rash, particularly in the groin area, should be a signal to refrain from having sex and to see a doctor immediately (CDC, 2010).

2.2.8 Herpes Simplex Virus

Genital herpes is a sexually transmitted disease (STD). Mostly caused by HSV-2. Most individuals typically appear as one or more blisters on or around the genitals or rectum (CDC, 2006).

2.2.9 Transmission of Herpes Simplex Virus

Generally, a person can only get HSV-2 infection during sexual contact with someone who has a genital HSV-2 infection. Transmission can occur from an infected partner who does not have a visible sore and may not know that he or she is infected (Corey *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.10 Clinical manifestation of HSV-2

Infection with herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) is among the most prevalent STDs worldwide (Chen *et al.*, 2000; O'farrell *et al.*, 1999). In the United States, HSV-2 is the most common cause of genital ulcers (Mertz *et al.*, 1998; Hook *et al.*, 1992) and data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey have shown that the seroprevalence of HSV-2 in the United States population is approximately 1 person in 5, which is a 30% increase since the late 1970s (Flemming *et al.*, 1997; Johnson *et al.*, 1990). HSV- 2 seroprevalence is considerably higher among HIV-positive persons than in the general population (Chen *et al.*, 2000; Severson *et al.*, 1999), and HIV can be detected by PCR in nearly 70% of genital ulcers due to HSV-2 in HIV-positive men (Schacker and Ryncarz 1998).

Studies have shown that HSVs stimulate viral replication (Heng *et al.*, 1994; Golden *et al.*, 1992).

2.2.11 Diagnosis of HSV-2

Health care providers can diagnose genital herpes by visual inspection if the outbreak is typical, and by taking a sample from the sore(s) and testing it in a laboratory. HSV infections can be diagnosed between outbreaks by the use of a blood test. Blood tests, which detect antibodies to HSV-2 infection (Wald *et al.*, 2002).

2.2.12 Treatment for HSV-2

There is no treatment that can cure herpes, but antiviral medications can shorten and prevent outbreaks during the period of time the person takes the medication. In addition, daily suppressive therapy for symptomatic herpes can reduce transmission to partners (Corey *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.13 Prevention of HSV-2

Surest way to avoid transmission of genital herpes is to abstain from sexual contact, or to be in a long-term mutually monogamous relationship with a partner who has been tested and is known to be uninfected. Correct and consistent use of latex condoms can reduce the risk of genital herpes. Persons with herpes should abstain from sexual activity with uninfected partners when lesions or other symptoms of herpes are present (Wald *et al.*, 2001).

Sex partners of infected persons should use condoms to reduce the risk. Sex partners can seek testing to determine if they are infected with HSV. A positive HSV-2 blood test most likely indicates a genital herpes infection (Wald *et al.*, 2001).

2.2.14 Health consequences of untreated STIs

Untreated gonorrhea and chlamydia can result in pelvic inflammatory disease in women, a condition that can cause infertility. Untreated syphilis can lead to serious long-term complications, including brain, cardiovascular and organ damage. Syphilis in pregnant women can also result in congenital syphilis (syphilis among infants), which can cause stillbirth, death soon after birth, and physical deformity and neurological complications in children who survive. Untreated syphilis in pregnant women results in infant death in up to 40 percent of cases. Studies suggest that people with gonorrhea, chlamydia or syphilis are at increased risk for HIV (CDC, 2009).

Research demonstrates that the presence of untreated STIs can cause a person to be three to five times more likely to contract HIV. Further, an individual who is infected with both HIV and a STD transmits HIV more easily (WHO, 2010). Providing prompt and adequate STIs treatment under specific conditions had demonstrated a 40% decrease in the amount of heterosexually transmitted HIV (WHO, 2010). AIDS has a long asymptomatic period- during the time which HIV (the human immunodeficiency virus, which causes AIDS) can replicate and the disease can be transmitted to others followed by a symptomatic period, which leads rapidly to death unless treated (Gilbert *et al.*, 2007).

2.3 Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)

Human Immunodeficiency Virus is a retro-virus transmitted from person to person through unprotected penile-vaginal or penile-anal intercourse, use of HIV contaminated needles and syringes, vertical transmission from mother to child during pregnancy, delivery or breastfeeding and through transfusion of infected blood or its components (Heymann, 2008).

2.3.1 HIV transmission

There are two types of HIV: HIV-1 and HIV-2. Both types are transmitted by sexual contact, through blood, and from mother to child, and epidemiologic risk factors are also similar (Campbell *et al.*, 2011).

Although HIV-1 infection is associated with most of the global AIDS pandemic, HIV-2 is an important cause of disease in certain regions of the world where it is endemic (Campbell *et al.*, 2011).

Certain subtypes/CRFs are predominantly associated with specific modes of transmission. In particular, subtype B is spread mostly by homosexual contact and intravenous drug use (essentially via blood), while subtype C and CRF A/E tend to fuel heterosexual epidemics (via a mucosal route). Subtype C and CRF A/E are transmitted much more efficiently during heterosexual sex than subtype B (Bhoopat *et al.*, 2001; Essex, 1996). This theory has not been conclusively proven (Pope *et al.*, 1997; Dittmar *et al.*, 1997).

Mother-to-child transmission is more common with subtype D than subtype A (Yang *et al.*, 2003). Some studies have shown that there is no association between subtype and rates of mother-to-child transmission (Murray *et al.*, 2000; Tranchat *et al.*, 1999; Tapia *et al.*, 2003; Martinez *et al.*, 2006). The risk of becoming infected with HIV as a result of sexual intercourse depends on the following: Probability that the sexual partner is infected, number of sexual partners, type of sexual contact involved, amount of virus present in the blood or secretions of the infected partner, presence in either partner of other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and/or genital lesions, which increase the risk of HIV transmission (Ferris *et al.*, 2002).

2.3.2 Epidemiology of HIV

Worldwide, the predominant virus is HIV-1. The strains of HIV-1 can be classified into four groups: the "major" group M, the "outlier" group O and two new groups, N and P.



Source: http://www.overt.org//hiv-

types.htm (Plantier et al., 2009)

Figure 2.1: The different levels of HIV classification

Group O appears to be restricted to west-central Africa and group N - a strain discovered in 1998 in Cameroon - is extremely rare. In 2009 a new strain closely relating to gorilla simian immunodeficiency virus was discovered in a Cameroonian woman. It was designated HIV-1 group P. More than 90% of HIV-1 infections belong to HIV-1 group M (Plantier *et al.*, 2009). Within group M there are known to be at least nine genetically distinct subtypes of HIV-1. These are subtypes A, B, C, D, F, G, H, J and K. Occasionally, two viruses of different subtypes can meet in the cell of an infected person and mix together their genetic material to create a new hybrid virus (a process similar to sexual reproduction, and sometimes called "viral sex"). Many of these new strains do not survive for long, but those that infect more than one person are known as "circulating recombinant forms" or CRFs. For example, the CRF A/B is a mixture of subtypes A and B (Burke, 1997). The HIV-1 subtypes and CRFs are typically associated with certain geographical regions, with the most widespread being subtypes A and C.

Studies have shown, individuals are increasingly presenting with sub-types not native to the country of diagnosis (Le Vu *et al.*, 2010; Chalmet *et al.*, 2010). For example, a rise of non-B sub-types among men who have sex with men (MSM) in the UK has been identified (Fox *et al.*, 2010).

Subtype A and CRF A/G predominate in West and Central Africa, with subtype A possibly also causing much of the Russian epidemic (Bobkov *et al.*, 2004). Subtype B has been the most common subtype/CRF in Europe, the Americas, Japan and Australia and is the predominant sub-type found among MSM infected in Europe (Le Vu *et al.*, 2010).

Subtype C is predominant in Southern and East Africa, India and Nepal. It has caused the world's worst HIV epidemics and is responsible for around half of all infections. Subtype D is generally limited to East and Central Africa. Subtype F has been found in Central Africa, South America and Eastern Europe. Subtype G and CRF A/G have been observed in West and East Africa and Central Europe (Chalmet *et al.*, 2010).

2.3.3 Magnitude of HIV in Kenya

Since the beginning of HIV epidemic, almost 60 million people have been infected and 25 million people have died of HIV-related deaths worldwide (UNAIDS and WHO, 2007). HIV/AIDS is the single largest cause of mortality in present day subsaharan Africa. In 2008, there were 33.4 million people living with HIV, 2.7 million new infections and 2 million AIDS-related deaths. Sub Saharan Africa accounts for 67% of all people living with HIV worldwide and has 14 million orphaned by the epidemic (UNAIDS and WHO, 2007).

The first AIDS case reported in Kenya was described in 1984 (NASCOP, 1999). HIV prevalence in Kenya is 7.4 percent in the age group 15-49 and at 7.1 percent in age group 15-64, among women aged 24 yrs its estimated at 12% compared to men at 2.6%. Incidence rates in Kenya remains high: an estimated 200 new HIV infections per day between 76,000 – 104,000 new infections per year. It is estimated that there are 1.3 - 1.4 million Kenyans living with HIV (NASCOP, 2009).

2.3.4 Clinical manifestation of HIV

At this stage symptoms including fever, unexplained weight loss, recurrent diarrhea, fatigue and headache. Cutaneous manifestations like seborrheic dermatitis, folliculitis, recurrent herpes simplex infections oral hairy leukoplakia may occur. During this period the CD4 T-cells count continues to come down. Usually anti retroviral therapy is started at this stage.

HIV-1 seroconversion can occur with a variety of clinical manifestations or without symptoms. More severe and numerous symptoms during primary HIV-1 infection predict a higher plasma HIV-1 RNA set-point and faster disease progression.

Diagnostic tests for primary HIV-1 infection include assays for HIV-1 RNA, p24 antigen, and third generation enzyme immunoassay antibody tests capable of detecting IgM antibodies (Daar *et al.*, 2008).

2.3.5 Diagnosis of HIV

In HIV-1 infected patients, two important laboratory determinants of the rate of progression are the CD4 cell count and the plasma viral load (http://www.cdc.gov/hiv). In untreated patients, the average rate of decline of CD4 cells ("CD4 slope") is about 50/mm3 per year and the average viral burden (without therapy) is 30,000 to 50,000 copies/mL (Arien et al., 2005). Patients with a CD4 cell count <200 cells/mm3 are considered to have AIDS; such patients are at significantly increased risk for opportunistic infections. Laboratory monitoring for HIV-2 RNA is problematic since testing availability is limited (Cot et al., 1988; Evans et al., 1988).

HIV antibody tests are the most appropriate test for routine diagnosis of HIV among adults. The ELISA antibody test (Enzyme-Linked Immunoabsorbent Assay) also known as EIA (Enzyme Immunoassay). According to the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, current HIV-1 EIAs "can accurately identify infections with nearly all non-B subtypes and many infections with group O HIV subtypes" (MMWR, 2001). Most modern rapid HIV-1 tests are capable of detecting all the major subtypes of group M (Phillips *et al.*, 2000). Rapid tests which can detect HIV-2 are also now available (CDC, 2004a).

2.3.6 Treatment implications of HIV

The effectiveness of HIV-1 treatment is monitored using viral load tests. Not all of the drugs used to treat HIV-1 infection are as effective against HIV-2. Response to treatment may be monitored by following CD4+ T-cell counts and indicators of immune system deterioration. More research and clinical experience is needed to determine the most effective treatment for HIV-2 (CDC, 2004b).

2.3.7 Implications for an AIDS vaccine

The development of an AIDS vaccine is affected by the range of virus subtypes as well as by the wide variety of human populations who need protection and who differ, for example, in their genetic make-up and their routes of exposure to HIV. The occurrence of superinfection indicates that an immune response triggered by a vaccine to prevent infection by one strain of HIV may not protect against all other strains (Fox *et al.*, 2010).

2.3.8 The Effectiveness of condoms in preventing STDs and HIV

Abstinence from sexual intercourse or maintaining a mutually monogamous relationship between partners known to be uninfected is the surest way to avoid transmission of HIV and other STDs. Outside of those conditions, correct and consistent use of condom reduces the risk of HIV and other STDs. Scientific studies of sexually active couples, where one partner is infected with HIV and the other partner is not, have demonstrated that the consistent use of latex condoms reduces the likelihood of HIV infection by 80 to 90 percent. However, failure to use condoms correctly with every act of intercourse, or to some extent slippage and breakage of the condom, increases the risk of HIV transmission (CDC, 2008). HIV testing and counseling is one of the main preventive strategy used in HIV prevention in Kenya (NACC, 2010).

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Research Methodology

3.1.1 Study Site

The study was conducted at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (Main Campus), a public university in Kenya, situated in Juja, Thika district, 36 kilometers North East of Nairobi, along Nairobi-Thika highway. The prevalence of HIV in Thika was highest in central province at 7.6% (NASCOP, 2005). Recent report shows a prevalence of 3.8% central province. The prevalence of HIV in Nairobi is 8.8% second leading in Kenya (NASCOP, 2009). Nairobi city lies on the central Kenyan plateau at an altitude of about 5,500 feet (1,680 m). It is the commercial and cultural center of Kenya. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology main campus is within proximity of Nairobi and Thika. It has approximately 9084 undergraduate students.

Map of Kenya showing the study site: Appendix 7

3.1.2 Study population

The study population consisted of undergraduate students from JKUAT main campus in Juja, Thika District.

3.1.3 Inclusion criteria

All undergraduate students who consented to participate in the study.
3.1.4 Exclusion criteria

All undergraduate students who did not consent to participate in the study.

3.1.5 Methodology

3.1.5.1 Sample design

A cross-sectional study design was used which adopted both quantitative (through self-administered questionnaires) and qualitative (through FGDs) approaches.

3.1.5.2 Sampling Technique

Simple random sampling was used to obtain the required number of respondents from the sampling frame (Targeted population-total number of all undergraduate students at JKUAT main campus) using computer generated random numbers. A sample size of 461 was used for the quantitative and 64 for the qualitative data. The randomly selected students were traced through their Faculties/Departments/Courses using an internal memo.

3.1.5.3 Data Collection Procedures

All the respondents who consented were issued with pretested self-administered questionnaire (Appendix3) and those students who consented took part in the FGDs (Appendix4).

3.1.5.4 Data Collection Tools

Pretested self administered questionnaires (Appendix3) were used. The questionnaire had five parts which asked respondents about their background information (socio demographic characteristics), access factors, and knowledge on HIV and other STIs and condom use, attitude and practices. FGDs (Appendix 4) were used to get an indepth of the subject matter (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

3.1.5.5 Sample size determination

The quantitative sample size was determined using the formula of Fisher *et al.*, (1998).

$$n = \underline{Z^2 P(1-P)}{d^2}$$

Z=Standard Normal deviation (1.96 for a 95% confidence level)

P=the proportion of the population having the characteristic being measured (if the proportion is unknown, set P=0.5

d=the level of accuracy desired, or the sampling error (Often set at 0.05).

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2} = \frac{0.96}{0.05^2} = 384.16$$

n=384.16

_

384.16+76.832=460.992=461

To allow for non response, 20 percent of the sample size (n) was added to the sample (n). Giving a total of 460.992=461.

The sample size for qualitative research is yet to be explored. As long as representation of the study population exists and the saturation point is reached. Each FGD should have 6-12 persons (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). FGDs were 8 in total each with 8 participant, 4 male FGDs and 4 female FGDs. FGDs were conducted until the saturation point (Point in data collection when new data no longer bring additional insights to the research-question) (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

3.1.6 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was entered into SPSS version 11.5 and cleaned prior to analysis. Qualitative data was entered into MS-word. Both quantitative and qualitative data were stored in password protected computer and backed-up, with restricted access.

All variables were subjected to descriptive data analysis. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation and range were used to summarize continuous variables while categorical variables were summarized using proportions. Bivariate analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between condom use and associated factors using Pearson's chi-square test. Factors that were found to be associated with the outcome at P-value less than 0.1 were considered for multivariate analysis. In the multivariate analysis, binary logistic regression was used to determine factors predictive of condom use. Three successive iterations were performed using backward condition method retaining four factors, adjusting for other factors and keeping them constant. P-value less than 0.05 was considered significant. Analysis of knowledge on HIV and condom use was assessed using questions (Appendix 5).

Analysis of general attitude towards condom use was analyzed using 24 attitude related issues (Appendix 3). The mean score was 18 ± 3 ranging between 7 and 24. A student who scored 18 and above was considered to have positive attitude on many issues.

Analysis of sexual behavioral practices from the quantitative data was done using 6 variables (Appendix3). The score range was between 0 and 5. A student who scored 1 and above was considered to be at risk.

FGDs were sorted manually according to themes and then discussed.

3.1.7 Ethical considerations

Approval to carry out the study was sought from the Board of Postgraduate studies of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, the Scientific Steering Committee (SSC) (Appendix 7) and Ethical Review Committee (ERC) (Appendix 8) through Center for public health research (CPHR) at KEMRI. Confidentiality was maintained.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Results

4.1.1 Characteristics of the study population

A total of 461 participants were interviewed, majority of them were males (64.2%; 296) and females were (35.8%; 165). Mean age of the study participants was 21 ± 2 ranging between 18 and forty years. The highest proportion (33.4%; 154) of the participants were aged 20 years, and the smallest proportion (18.4%; 85) being 23 years or more (Table 4.1).

As regard marital status, a majority (94.6%; 436) were single. Year of study varied between year 1 and higher than year 4 of the university education, with 49.7% (229) of the participants being at year 1. A small proportion (12.2%; 56) was in year 4 or higher.

Analysis of religious affiliation revealed majority (64.9%; 299) to be Protestants, followed by Catholics (30.4%; 140), the rest were Muslims (10) and others-those who did not indicate their religion (12).

Among the study participants, 43.2% (199) were living with their parents while 10.2% (47) were living with guardians, 31.7% (146) were living with schoolmates. A very small proportion (1.5%; 7) was living with their spouses and 13.4% (62) were living alone (Table 4.1).

Variables	N=461	%
Gender		
Male	296	64.2
Female	165	35.8
Age in years		
<20	81	17.6
20	154	33.4
21	87	18.9
22	54	11.7
23	42	9.1
24 or more	43	9.3
Marital status		
Single	436	94.6
Married	25	5.4
Year of study		
1	229	49.7
2	89	19.3
3	87	18.9
4	45	9.8
>4	11	2.4
Religion		
Muslim	10	2.2
Catholic	140	30.4
Protestants	299	64.9
Others	12	2.6
Residence		
Within the campus	203	44.0
Off campus	258	56.0
Live with who		
Parents	199	43.2
Guardian	47	10.2
Schoolmates	146	31.7
Spouse	7	1.5
Alone	62	13.4

 Table 4.1: Selected socio-demographic characteristics of the study participants

4.1.1.1 Sexual exposure among the respondents

Out of the 461 respondents, 305 (66.2%) reported to have experienced sexual intercourse while the remaining 156 (33.8%) participants had not. Out of 305 respondents who had experienced sexual intercourse, 295 (96.7%) were heterosexual. There were no homosexuals (Figure 4.1).



Figure 4.1: Sexual exposure among participants.

4.1.2 Access to condom use among the respondents

4.1.2.1 Economic and non-economic factors affecting the willingness to acquire a condom among the study participants

Economic and non-economic factors affecting the willingness to acquire a condom among the study participants was determined by four variables; 27.9% (85) indicated price to be an important factor, (27.9%; 85) indicated availability, 49.8% (152) privacy while 64.9% (198) indicated condom preference (Table 4.2).

 Table 4.2: Economic and non-economic factors affecting the willingness to

 acquire a condom among the study participants

Variable	N=305	%
Economic and non-economic factors		
Price		
Yes	85	27.9
No	220	72.1
Distance/Availability		
Yes	85	27.9
No	220	72.1
Privacy		
Yes	153	50.2
No	152	49.8
Preference		
Yes	198	64.9
No	107	35.1

4.1.2.2 Preferred sources of condom supply among the study participants

Preferred sources of condom supply varied across six supply points. 51.5% (157) preferred toilets, 52.4% (160) health facilities, 65.2% (199) chemists shops or pharmacies, 43.6% (133) supermarkets and shops, 28.2% (86) peers while 45.6% (139) family planning clinic (Table 4.3).

Preferred sources of condom supply N=305 % Toilets True 157 51.5 False 148 48.5 Health facility True 160 52.4 False 145 47.5 Chemists shops and pharmacies 199 True 65.2 False 106 34.8 Supermarkets and shops True 133 43.6 False 172 56.4 Peers True 86 28.2 False 219 71.8 Family planning clinic True 139 45.6 False 166 54.4

Table 4.3: Preferred sources of condom supply among the study participants

4.1.2.3 Brand preference among the study participants

Brand preference was assessed using variants; 24.6% (75) of the respondents indicated that there is no difference between specific condom brands, 24.3% (74) preferred Trust, 18.0% (55) Durex, 6.2% (19) Government condoms, and 26.9% (82) indicated mixed preferences (Table 4.4).

 Table 4.4: Brand preference among the study participants

Brand preference	N=305	%
Mixed (Durex and Trust)	82	26.9
Government condoms	19	6.2
Durex	55	18.0
Trust	74	24.3
All brands the same	75	24.6

Among 305 respondents; 47.2% (144) preferred a specific brand because their choice increased sexual pleasure, 39.3% (139) because of size, 20.3% (62) prolonged intercourse, and 18.0% (55) indicated cost as a factor (Table 4.5).

Reasons for brand preference	N=305	%
Increases sexual pleasure		
True	144	47.2
False	161	52.8
Reasonable size		
True	120	39.3
False	185	60.7
Prolong intercourse		
True	62	20.3
False	243	79.7
Spend less money		
True	55	18.0
False	250	82.0

 Table 4.5: Reasons for brand preference among the study participants

4.1.3 Knowledge on HIV and Condom use among the study participants

4.1.3.1 Knowledge on what is HIV among the study participants

Participant's knowledge on what is HIV was probed using 5 questions (Appendix 3). Majority of the participants (90.0%; 415) indicated that HIV is not a flavi virus belonging to the family flaviviridae, 58.6% (270) indicated that it is a lentivirus, 91.8% (423) said it is a virus that causes AIDS, 84.2% (388) indicated that it is a virus that attacks the immune system while 94.8% (437) correctly indicated that it is not a virus that can be transmitted by air, insect bites, physical touch. A summary of all the questions revealed that 79.8 % (368) had adequate knowledge on what is HIV (Table 4.6 a).

Knowledge on what is HIV	N=461	%
A flavi virus belonging to the family flaviviridae		
Incorrect (True)	46	10.0
Correct (False)	415	90.0
A lentivirus		
Correct (True)	270	58.6
Incorrect (false)	191	41.4
A virus that causes AIDS		
Correct (True)	423	91.8
Incorrect (false)	38	8.2
A virus that attack the immune system		
Correct (True)	388	84.2
Incorrect (false)	73	15.8
A virus that can be transmitted by Air, Insect bites, Physic	cal touch	
Incorrect (True)	24	5.2
Correct (False)	437	94.8
Overall knowledge on what is HIV		
Adequate knowledge	368	79.8
Inadequate knowledge	93	20.2

Table 4.6 a: Knowledge on what is HIV among the study participants

4.1.3.2 Knowledge on why HIV is Kenyans public health problem among the study participants

Assessment on why HIV is a Kenyans serious public health problem was probed using five questions (Appendix 3). Majority of the participants (83.1%; 383) indicated that HIV is rapidly spreading, 65.7% (303) correctly indicated that it is its inability to suppress reproductive system, 51.4% (237) indicated that with HIV death is inevitable, 85.9% (396) indicated that HIV affects national development and welfare while 51.2% (236) indicated that HIV is related to T.B. A summary of all the questions revealed that 78.2% (361) had adequate knowledge (Table 4.6 b).

Table 4.6 b: Knowledge on why HIV is a Kenyans serious public health problem

among the study participants

Knowledge on why HIV is a Kenyans serious public health problem	N=46	1 %
Rapid spread		
Correct (True)	383	83.1
Incorrect (false)	78	16.9
Ability to suppress reproductive system		
Incorrect (True)	158	34.3
Correct (False)	303	65.7
Inevitable death		
Correct (True)	237	51.4
Incorrect (false)	224	48.6
Affect national development and welfare		
Correct (True)	396	85.9
Incorrect (false)	65	14.1
Relationship with T.B		
Correct (True)	236	51.2
Incorrect (false)	225	48.8
Overall knowledge on why HIV is a Kenyans serious public		
health problem		
Adequate knowledge	361	78.2
Inadequate knowledge	100	21.8

4.1.3.3: Knowledge on how HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked among the study participants

Assessment on how HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked was probed using five questions (Appendix 3). A small proportion of the participants (18.4%; 85) correctly indicated that HIV and all the other STIs are not always transmitted the same way, 85.7% (395) said both are co-factors, 94.1% (434) correctly indicated that both do not have a cure only STIs are curable, 80.5% (371) correctly indicated that both HIV and STIs do not cause AIDS only HIV does while 96.1% (236) indicated that their main route of transmission is through sexual intercourse. A summary of all the questions revealed that 70.9 % (327) had adequate knowledge on ways in which HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked (Table 4.6 c).

Knowledge on ways in which HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked	N=461	%
Not always transmitted in the same way		
Correct (True)	85	18.4
Incorrect (false)	376	81.6
Co-Factors		
Correct (True)	395	85.7
Incorrect (false)	66	14.3
Both have cure		
Incorrect (True)	27	5.9
Correct (False)	434	94.1
Both cause AIDS		
Incorrect (True)	90	19.5
Correct (False)	371	80.5
Main route of transmission is through		
sexual intercourse		
Correct (True)	443	96.1
Incorrect (false)	18	3.9

Table 4.6 c: Knowledge on how HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked among the study participants

4.1.3.4 Knowledge on condom use among the study participants

Participant's knowledge on what they know about a condom was probed using four questions. Majority of the participants (94.4%; 435) indicated that a condom is a barrier device used to prevent pregnancies and STIs, 90.2% (416) indicated that it is not a barrier device used only for prevention of pregnancies since other methods exist, 94.6% (436) indicated that it is not a barrier device used only for prevention of STIs since other methods exist while 92.2% (425) indicated that it is a device used to prevent contact with body fluids during sexual encounter (Table 4.7 a).

Variables	N=40	61 %	
A condom is a barrier device used to prevent pregnancies and STIs			
Correct (True)	435	94.4	
Incorrect (False)	26	5.6	
A condom is a barrier device used only for prevention of pregnancies			
Incorrect (True)	45	9.8	
Correct (False)	416	90.2	

25

436

425

36

5.4

94.6

92.2

7.8

Table 4.7 (a) Knowledge on condom use among the study participants

A condom is a barrier device used only for prevention of STIs

A condom prevent contact with body fluids

Incorrect (True) Correct (False)

Correct (True)

Incorrect (False)

Assessment on safe use and handling of a condom was probed using seven questions (Appendix 3). Majority of the participants (96.1%; 443) indicated a condom is not safe irrespective of their storage, 68.7% (317) agreed that a condom promotes cleanliness, 63.8% (294) indicated that a condom protects against STIs if they are properly and correctly used, 96.7% (446) indicated that single condom should not be used more than once, 74.8% (345) agreed that it is important to store condoms safely,

96.3% (444) indicated that it is not proper to store condoms next to sunlight while 91.3% (421) agreed that it is proper to open and apply the condom package properly. A summary of all the questions revealed that 76.4% (352) had adequate knowledge on condom use (Table 4.7 b).

 Table 4.7 (b) Knowledge on safe use and handling of a condom among the study

 participants

Variables	N=461	%
A condom is safe irrespective of their storage		
Incorrect (True)	18	3.9
Correct (False)	443	96.1
A condom promote cleanliness		
Correct (True)	144	31.2
Incorrect (False)	317	68.7
A condom protect against STIs if they are properly and correctly		
used		
Correct (True)	294	63.8
Incorrect (False)	167	36.2
A single condom can be used more than once		
Incorrect (True)	15	3.3
Correct (False)	446	96.7
It is proper storing the condom safely		
Correct (True)	345	74.8
Incorrect (False)	116	25.2
It is proper storing the condom next to sunlight		
Incorrect (True)	17	3.7
Correct (False)	444	96.3
It is proper opening and applying the condom package properly		
Correct (True)	421	91.3
Incorrect (False)	40	8.7
Overall knowledge on condom use		
Adequate knowledge	352	76.4
Inadequate knowledge	109	23.6

4.1.3.5 Channels of communication on condom use among the study participants

Results on the channels of communication on condom use varied among the respondents some indicating multiple channels. The most commonly mentioned channel was TV by 70.5% (325) participants. Radio and peer information 56.2% (259) and 55.3% (255) respectively.

Internet and billboards followed with 40.8% (188) and 38.8% (179) respectively. The rest were print media, Institution (School curricula), family members, VCT/Health facilities among others (Figure 4.2).



Figure 4.2: Channels of communication on condom use among the study participants

4.1.4 Attitude towards condom use among study participants

Majority of the respondents had positive attitude towards condom use (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 (a) Attitude towards condom use among the study participant

Variables	N=461	%
Condoms make sex inconvenient		
Positive (Disagreed)	318	69.0
Negative (Agreed)	143	31.0
People plan they are going to have sex		
Positive (Agreed)	253	54.9
Negative (Disagreed)	208	45.1
A mans penis may be too large for a condom		
Positive (Disagreed)	387	83.9
Negative (Agreed)	74	16.1
Condoms are expensive		
Positive (Disagreed)	410	88.9
Negative (Agreed)	51	11.1
Embarrassed to buy a condom		
Positive (Disagreed)	277	60.1
Negative (Agreed)	184	39.9
The correct way to use a condom is to put it on a soft penis		
Positive (Disagreed)	439	95.2
Negative (Agreed)	22	4.8
Condoms help to stop the spread of STI		
Positive (Agreed)	409	88.7
Negative (Disagreed)	52	11.3
It is easy to obtain a condom within the campus		
Positive (Agreed)	400	86.8
Negative (Disagreed)	61	13.2
My friends are concerned about getting infected by the		
AIDS virus		
Positive (Agreed)	364	79.0
Negative (Disagreed)	97	21.0
Condoms help to stop the spread of AIDS virus		
Positive (Agreed)	382	82.9
Negative (Disagreed)	79	17.1
I am concerned about getting infected by the AIDS virus		
Positive (Agreed)	398	86.3
Negative (Disagreed)	63	13.7

Majority of the respondents (83.9%; 387) disagreed that religious people don't use condoms, 95.0% (438) disagreed that only men should decide if a condom is used during sex, 98.3% (453) disagreed that only gay people get AIDs, 90.0% (415) indicated that its alright for women to insist that men use a condom, 87.6% (404) agreed that its alright to insist that your sexual partner use a condom, 82.4% (380) indicated that its alright for woman to refuse sex if a man does not want to use a condom, 53.8% (248) positively disagreed that condom decrease sexual pleasure for men (Table 4.8 b).

Variables	N=461	%		
Religious people don't use condoms				
Positive (Disagreed)	387	83.9		
Negative (Agreed)	74	16.1		
Only men should decide if a condom is used during sex				
Positive (Disagreed)	438	95.0		
Negative (Agreed)	23	5.0		
Only gay people get AIDs				
Positive (Disagreed)	453	98.3		
Negative (Agreed)	8	1.7		
Its alright for women to insist that men use a condom				
Positive (Agreed)	415	90.0		
Negative (Disagreed)	46	10.0		
All right to insist that your sexual partner use a condom				
Positive (Agreed)	404	87.6		
Negative (Disagreed)	57	12.4		
Alright for women to refuse sex if man does not want to use				
a condom				
Positive (Agreed)	380	82.4		
Negative (Disagreed)	81	17.6		
Condoms decrease sexual pleasure for men				
Positive (Disagreed)	248	53.8		
Negative (Agreed)	213	46.2		

Table 4.8 (b) Attitude towards condom use among the study participants

65.5% (302) participants indicated that their male friends used condoms when having sex, 25.2% (116) agreed that they are not likely to be infected by AIDS virus if they use a condom, 46.4% (214) indicated that their female friends used a condom when having sex while 67.2% (310) disagreed that condoms decrease sexual pleasure for women, 95.0% (438) disagreed to the fact that using other contraceptives apart from condom cannot contract HIV while 24.1% (111) disagreed that many girls are still brought up to be submissive to men a culture that increases their difficulty in avoiding sexual contact especially with older men without use of a condom. A summary of all the attitude variables revealed that 55.5% (256) had positive attitude to majority of the issues used to measure participant's attitude (Table 4.8 c).

	N. 474		A /					
Variables	N=461		%					
Most of my male								
friends use								
condoms								
Agreed	302		65.5					
Disagreed	159		34.5					
You are not likely	You are not likely to be infected by AIDS virus if you use a condom							
Agreed	116		25.2					
Disagreed	345		74.8					
My female friends	s use a condom wh	en they ha	ave sex					
Agreed	214		46.4					
Disagreed	247		53.6					
Condoms decreas	e sexual pleasure f	or women	1					
Disagreed	310		67.2					
Agreed	151		32.8					
Student using oth	er contraceptives o	other than	a condom cant contract HIV					
Disagreed	438		95.0					
Agreed	23		5.0					
Many girls are sti	ll brought up to be	e submissi	ve to men, this increases their difficult	у				
in avoiding sexual	l contact especially	with olde	er men without use of a condom					
Disagreed	111		24.1					
Agreed	350		75.9					
General attitude towards condom and its use								
Positive on many is	ssues (Accepted)	256	55.5					
Positive on few iss	ues (Not accepted)	205	44.5					

Table 4.8 (c) Attitude towards condom use among the study participants

4.1.5 Sexual practices among the study participants

Sexual practice was assessed using six variables (Appendix 2). 3.9% (12) agreed to have participated in sex with someone of the same gender, 15.7% (48) indicated to have ever participated in sex with more than one partner, 25.2% (77) agreed to have ever participated in sex while intoxicated, 12.8% (39) had ever participated in sex while intoxicated without use of condom, 50.2% (153) indicated to have ever

participated in sex without use of condom while 3.0% (9) had participated in sex for money.

A summary of all the sexual practices variables revealed that 62.3% (190) were at risk (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Sexual practices among the study participants

Sexual practices	N=305	%						
Ever participated in sex with someone of the same g	ender							
Yes	12	3.9						
No	293	96.1						
Ever participated in sex with more than one partner at the same time								
Yes	48	15.7						
No	257	84.3						
Ever participated in sex while intoxicated								
Yes	77	25.2						
No	228	74.8						
Ever participated in sex while intoxicated without u	se of condom							
Yes	39	12.8						
No	266	87.2						
Ever participated in sex without use of condom								
Yes	153	50.2						
No	152	49.8						
Ever participated in sex for money								
Yes	9	3.0						
No	296	97.0						
Overall sexual behavioral practices								
At risk	190	62.3						
Not at risk	115	37.7						

4.1.5.1 Birth control methods among the study participants

Majority (72.8%; 222) of the respondents indicated that they/their partners had used a condom during the last sexual intercourse mainly to prevent pregnancy (Figure 4.3).



Figure 4.3: Birth control methods among study participants

4.1.6 Bivariate analysis

4.1.6.1 Socio- demographic characteristics

Bivariate analysis showed that none of the socio-demographic factors was associated with condom use (P>0.05). However, marital status showed (P=0.074). Majority of the single students (74.1%; 209) were using a condom while having sex compared to married or otherwise (56.5%; 13). Indicating that single students were 2.20 [95% CI

= 0.93 - 5.24] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to students that were married or otherwise (Table 7.10).

	τ	J sed a	Did	l not use a				
	co	ondom	C	condom				
	(r	n=222)		(n=83)		95% Cl	of O.R	
Variables	Ν	%	Ν	%	O.R	Lower	Upper	P value
Gender								
Male	155	71.4	62	28.6	0.78	0.44	1.39	0.403
Female	67	76.1	21	23.9	1.00			
Age in years								
<20	30	75.0	10	25.0	1.83	0.69	4.85	0.227
20	83	76.9	25	23.1	2.02	0.91	4.50	0.085
21	42	76.4	13	23.6	1.97	0.79	4.89	0.145
22	27	73.0	10	27.0	1.64	0.61	4.40	0.322
23	17	60.7	11	39.3	0.94	0.34	2.58	0.905
24 or more	23	62.2	14	37.8	1.00			
Marital status								
Single	209	74.1	73	25.9	2.20	0.93	5.24	0.074
Other	13	56.5	10	43.5	1.00			
Year of study								
1	110	74.8	37	25.2	0.37	0.04	3.07	0.358
2	46	74.2	16	25.8	0.36	0.04	3.10	0.352
3	37	67.3	18	32.7	0.26	0.03	2.21	0.216
4	21	65.6	11	34.4	0.24	0.03	2.16	0.202
>4	8	88.9	1	11.1	1.00			
Religion								
Muslim	3	37.5	5	62.5	0.45	0.06	3.57	0.450
Catholic	66	68.0	31	32.0	1.60	0.34	7.57	0.556
Protestants	149	77.2	44	22.8	2.54	0.55	11.78	0.234
Others	4	57.1	3	42.9	1.00			
Residence								
On campus	100	74.6	34	25.4	1.18	0.71	1.97	0.523
Off campus	122	71.3	49	28.7	1.00			
Lives with								
Parents	91	75.2	30	24.8	1.33	0.63	2.81	0.460
Guardian	26	83.9	5	16.1	2.27	0.72	7.15	0.159
Schoolmates	69	69.0	31	31.0	0.97	0.46	2.08	0.945
Spouse	4	57.1	3	42.9	0.58	0.12	2.96	0.515
Alone	32	69.6	14	30.4	1.00			

Table 4.10: Condom use in relation to socio-demographic characteristics

4.1.6.2 Access factors and condom use

4.1.6.2.1 Economic and non economic factors

Bivariate analysis showed that three factors on economic and non economic (price of condom, distance and preference) were not significantly related to condom use (P>0.05) (Table 4.11 a). There was a significant relationship between condom use and privacy of access (P=0.014). A student that was concerned by privacy of access to condoms was 1.91 [95% CI = 1.14 - 3.20] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that was concerned.

 Table 4.11 a: Condom use in relation to economic and non-economic factors

 among the study participants

	U: col (n:	sed a ndom =222)	Did not use a condom (n=83)			95% CI of O.R				
Variables	N	%	n	%	O.R	Lower	Upper	P value		
Economic and 1	Economic and non-economic factors									
Price	\sim	72.0	22	27.1	1.01	0.50	1 70	0.070		
Price	62	72.9	23	27.1	1.01	0.58	1./8	0.970		
No	160	72.7	60	27.3	1.00					
Distance										
Yes	64	75.3	21	24.7	1.20	0.67	2.12	0.541		
No	158	71.8	62	28.2	1.00					
Privacy										
Yes	121	79.1	32	20.9	1.91	1.14	3.20	0.014		
No	101	66.4	51	33.6	1.00					
Preference										
Yes	150	75.8	48	24.2	1.52	0.90	2.55	0.114		
No	72	67.3	35	32.7	1.00					

4.1.6.2.2 Sources of condom supply

None of the factors on preferred source of condom supply was associated with condom use (P>0.5) (Table 4.11 b).

Table 4.11 b: Condom use in relation to sources of condom supply among the

study participants

	Us con (n=	ed a dom 222)	Did n cor (n	ot use a ndom =83)		95% CI	of O.R	
Variables	Ň	%	N	%	O.R	Lower	Upper	P value
Toilets								
True	117	74.5	40	25.5	1.20	0.72	1.98	0.483
False	105	70.9	43	29.1	1.00			
Health facility								
True	120	75.0	40	25.0	1.26	0.76	2.10	0.362
False	102	70.3	43	29.7	1.00			
Chemists shops and pharmacies								
True	151	75.9	48	24.1	1.55	0.92	2.61	0.098
False	71	67.0	35	33.0	1.00			
Supermarkets and shops								
True	104	78.2	29	21.8	1.64	0.97	2.77	0.063
False	118	68.6	54	31.4	1.00			
Peers								
True	58	67.4	28	32.6	0.69	0.40	1.20	0.190
False	164	74.9	55	25.1	1.00			
Family planning								
clinic								
True	98	70.5	41	29.5	0.81	0.49	1.34	0.413
False	124	74.7	42	25.3	1.00			

4.1.6.2.3 Brand preference

There was a significant relationship between condom use and condom brand preference (P<0.05) (Table 4.11 c). Majority of the students that had mixed preferences (78.0%; 64) used a condom while having sex compared to those who

preferred Government condoms (78.9%; 15), Durex (78.2%; 43), Trust (77.0%; 57) and those that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands (57.3%; 43). Students that preferred Trust brand were 2.50 [P=0.011, 95% CI = 1.23 – 5.07] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to ones that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands. Students that preferred Durex were 2.67 [P=0.015, 95% CI = 1.21 - 5.86] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to ones that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands. Students that preferred Durex were 2.67 [P=0.015, 95% CI = 1.21 - 5.86] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to ones that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands, 2.79 [P=0.092, 95% CI = 0.85 - 9.21] times for ones that preferred Government condom and 2.65 [P=0.006, 95% CI = 1.32 - 5.30] times for one with mixed preference (Table 4.11 c).

	\mathbf{U}_{i}	sed a	Did 1	not use a			~ ~	
	CO	ndom	co	ndom		95%	95% CI of	
	(n :	=222)	(r	1=83)		O.R		P
Variables	Ν	%	Ν	%	O.R	Lower	Upper	value
Brand preferred								
Mixed (durex and								
trust)	64	78.0	18	22.0	2.65	1.32	5.30	0.006
Government								
condoms	15	78.9	4	21.1	2.79	0.85	9.21	0.092
Durex	43	78.2	12	21.8	2.67	1.21	5.86	0.015
Trust	57	77.0	17	23.0	2.50	1.23	5.07	0.011
All brands are the								
same	43	57.3	32	42.7	1.00			
Reasons for brand								
preference								
Increases sexual								
pleasure								
True	114	79.2	30	20.8	1.86	1.11	3.13	0.019
False	108	67.1	53	32.9	1.00			

 Table 4.11c: Condom use in relation to preferred condom among the study participants

4.1.6.3 Knowledge on specific issues on HIV and condom use

None of the factors on knowledge about specific issues of HIV and condom use was significantly associated with condom use (P>0.05).

4.1.6.4 General attitude towards condom use

There was a significant relationship between use of condom and general attitude towards condom use (P<0.05).

A significant majority of students (81.5%; 141) that were positive on many attitude related issues (Accepted) used a condom while having sex compared to those that were positive on few issues (Not accepted) (61.4%; 81). A student positive on many attitude related issues was 2.77 [95% CI = 1.65 - 4.66] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one positive on few issues (Figure 4.4).



Figure 4.4: Condom use in relation to general attitude

4.1.6.5 Sexual practices and condom use

Bivariate analysis showed a significant relationship between condom use and sexual practices (P=0.029) (Table 4.12). Majority of the students (80.0%: 92 out of 115) not at risk as far as sexual practice was concerned were using a condom while having sex compared to those who were at risk (68.4%; 130 out of 190). Students that were not at risk were 1.85 [95% CI = 1.07 - 3.20] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to those at risk.

Table 4.12: Condom use in relation to sexual practices

	Used cond (n=2	a om 22)	Did con (n=	not use : dom 83)	a	95% C	I of O.R	Р
Variables	Ν	%	Ν	%	O.R	Lower	Upper	value
Sexual practices								
Not at risk	92	80.0	23	20.0	1.85	1.07	3.20	0.029
At risk	130	68.4	60	31.6	1.00			

4.1.7 Multivariate analysis

There was a significant relationship between use of condom and general attitude towards condom use (P=0.010). A students positive on many attitude related issues was 2.09 [95% CI = 1.19 - 3.66] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one positive on few issues (adjustment from 2.77).

There was a significant relationship between condom use and privacy of access to condoms (P=0.038). A student that was concerned by privacy of access to condoms was 1.79 [95% CI = 1.03 - 3.11] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that was not concerned by privacy (adjustment from 1.91). There was a significant relationship between condom use and condom brand preference (P<0.05). A student that preferred Trust brand was 2.25 [P=0.036, 95% CI = 1.06 - 4.79] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands (adjustment from 2.50). The likelihood increased to 2.50 [P=0.033, 95% CI = 1.08 - 5.79] times for one that preferred Durex (adjustment from 2.67). A student that had mixed preference was 2.30 [P=0.030, 95% CI = 1.08 - 4.88] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared likely to use a condom while having sex and that there was no difference between the preference was 2.30 [P=0.030, 95% CI = 1.08 - 4.88] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared likely to use a condom while having sex compared likely to use a condom brand preference was 2.30 [P=0.030, 95% CI = 1.08 - 4.88] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that indicated that there was no difference was 2.30 [P=0.030, 95% CI = 1.08 - 4.88] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that indicated that there was no difference (adjustment from 2.65). However, Government condom did not show any significant relationship with condom use.

Relationship between sexual practices and use of condom, was statistically significant (P=0.027).

A student whose outcome on sexual behavior practices was not at risk was 2.02 [95% CI = 1.08 - 3.75] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one whose outcome was at risk (adjustment from 1.85) (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Binary logistic regression

				Adjusted	95.0% C.I	I. for OR	Р
Predictor variables	β	S.E. (β)	Df	ÔR	Lower	Upper	value
General attitude toward	ds condom us	e					
Positive on many							
issues	0.74	0.29	1	2.09	1.19	3.66	0.010
Positive on few							
issues	Reference						
Privacy of access							
Not concerned	0.58	0.28	1	1.79	1.03	3.11	0.038
Concerned	Reference						
Preferred brand of con	dom						
Mixed	0.83	0.38	1	2.30	1.08	4.88	0.030
Government	1.01	0.42		0.75	0.00	0.50	0.110
condoms	1.01	0.63	1	2.75	0.80	9.53	0.110
Durex	0.92	0.43	1	2.50	1.08	5.79	0.033
Trust	0.81	0.39	1	2.25	1.06	4.79	0.036
All brands are the							
same	Reference						
Sexual behavior praction	Sexual behavior practices						
Not at risk	0.70	0.32	1	2.02	1.08	3.75	0.027
At risk	Reference						

4.1.8 Focus Group discussions (FGDs)

A total of 64 participants took part in the FGDs, 32 male and 32 female students equally distributed in year of study. Mean age of the study participants was 21

ranging between 19 and 24 years. Most of the participants (33) were aged between 21 and 22 years (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Distribution of FGDs study participants by age, gender and level of education

Age in	Gender and year of study								Total male		
years	Males				Females				and female		
	1st	2nd	3rd	4^{th}	Total	1^{st}	2nd	3 rd	4th	Total	Participant
											S
19-20	5	2	-	-	7	4	3	-	-	7	14
21-22	3	6	6	2	17	3	5	6	2	16	33
23-24	-	-	2	6	8	1	-	2	6	9	17
Total	8	8	8	8	32	8	8	8	8	32	64

Majority of the study participant were protestants (40), followed by catholics (21) and the least were muslims (3) (Table 4.15). All the study participants were single.

1

Table 4.15: Distributio	n of the l	FGDs study p	participant by	[,] religion
			1	

Religion	Male	Female	Total
Muslims	2	1	3
Christian Catholics	14	7	21
Christian Protestants	16	24	40
Total	32	32	64

4.1.8.1 Themes and responses

Qualitative data was sorted manually according to themes. There were two main themes (attitude and practices), which were further broken down to sub-themes. Multiple responses came out of the participants from the FGDs (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16: Then	nes and resp	onses
------------------	--------------	-------

Theme	Response/s
Attitude	
• <u>Sub-theme</u> a. Reasons for condom use	Prevention of unwanted pregnancies and HIV/STIs
	" we fear indulging in sexual
	activities without the use of condom
	our mission here is to complete our
	studies and with pregnancy we will not
	be able to achieve our goals."
b. Whether condoms increase or	Depends on the brand used
decrease sexual pleasure	'Trust does not break easily'
c. Views about the need for HIV	Stigma: Fear of reactions of peers.
testing	"What will our colleagues say when they
	see us going to the VCT? Everybody will
	think we are sick."
Practices	Telling them the risks of unwanted
a. How University students	pregnancies/STIs.
negotiate with there partners to	"It can be difficult to talk about using
use condoms	condoms
b. The most popular brand	Durex: <i>"the feeling experienced during</i>
	intercourse is not altered and it
	increases sexual pleasure, they make
	some of us last longer, are affordable
	and easily available"
	"We prefer Roughrider condom being
	used by our male partners because of the
	ingling lines, minty smell and they
	Other responses: Trust: Salama: Paha:
	Sure: Government condoms: Feminlan
	male condom
c Factors influencing sexual	Drugs and alcohol
behavior among university	"Some of us have ever slept with har
students	maid without a condom. We realized this
~	and are really ashamed of ourselves."
	Others responses: Peer pressure:
	Religion; Mass media; Too much
	freedom; Loneliness; Curiosity;
	Dressing; Money; Weather

4.2 Discussions

In this study, there was no significant relationship between condom use and age of the respondents (P>0.05). The mean age of the sample population was 21 ± 2 years. This could explain why there was no difference in responses. For instance, the following statement emerged from the FGDs;

"... not matter whether you are young or old, sex is the order of the day here... This is attributed to higher maturity rate experienced by students and the media around. Most of our young ladies push with 'wazees'. Some are even as young as 19 years with an old man of 40 years. Greedy for money drives many to sex without the use of condoms"

A study carried out in Kenya indicated that condom use at last sex was was more among young people compared to older people (Waithaka and Bessinger, 2001). In a study carried out in Brazil, young people from 16 to 24 years of age protected themselves more in sexual intercourse (Berquo *et al.*, 2008). The findings of this study showed that gender was not significantly associated with condom use (P>0.05). In the FGDs, both male and female participants gave a similar view that male students use condoms more than female students.

"The ladies think it's a man's job to make sure he uses a condom, why aren't they using condom so that they feel how we men feel"

However, in-availability of female condoms was attributed to high costs. Despite the cost, female students argued that they use condom through their male partners. Studies in Kenya and Nigeria showed that condom use was more amongst men compared to women (NASCOP, 2009; Fadiora *et al.*, 2002), the latter with a population of students in institutions of higher learning. Marital status was not significantly related to condom use (P>0.05) in this study.

This was confirmed by the FGDs findings where according to the study participants, marriage relationships may be traditionally based on trust but of late things are different. The following statement emerged from the FGDs:

"There is a high perception of risk of infection in relationships these days; therefore we have to use condoms whether married or not married"

Studies carried out in Kenya, Ghana and Brazil (NASCOP, 2009; Adih *et al.*, 1999; Calazans *et al.*, 2005) indicated that condom use was less among married couples compared to those who were single. This differs with the findings of this study. Results from the quantitative findings in this study showed that religion was not significantly associated with condom use (P>0.05). However, there were different opinions with regard to condom use in the FGDs. The following statements emerged: specifically, protestants noted the following:

"Our religion allows the use of condom but only to married couples as a means of contraceptive and protection from HIV"

In addition, Catholics noted that condom use was not accepted initially. Muslims on the other hand have opposed the use of condom arguing that the practice will boost promiscuity.

"We cannot bend God's laws to make them conform to the passions of man" Even though the FGDs gave a different impression that religion has some influence

on the usage of condom, the quantitative results of this study disagree with a study carried out in Africa where in some areas condom promotion had been impeded by anti-condom campaigns from muslims and catholics (Marcella and Alsan, 2006).

In Kenya, many religious leaders expressed opposition to condom use (IRIN, 2007; Moszynki, 2008).

A study carried out in Denver, Colorado (Fanburg *et al.*, 1995) indicated that distributing condoms was seen to be religiously wrong. Another study in Brazil showed that people who have no religious affiliation have higher rates of protection against STIs during sexual intercourse (Berquo *et al.*, 2008).

There was a significant relationship between condom use and privacy of access to condoms (P=0.038). According to this study, a student who was bothered by privacy of access to condoms was 1.79 [95% CI = 1.03 - 3.11] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that was not bothered (adjustment from 1.91). This was confirmed by the FGDs where most students preferred the availability of condoms within the University residential rooms where only students could access them;

".. they protect us from STIs and also unexpected responsibilities..... why the University cannot think of distributing the condom boxes in each residential room.... students may be concerned about how they are regarded by other people like the workers and lecturers"

The findings of this study are similar to studies carried out in Uganda and Seattle, Washington which indicated that participants expressed interest in continuous availability of condoms at convenient outlets with a view to guarding concerns of privacy (Kipp *et al.*, 1992; Brown *et al.*, 1997). This study showed a significant relationship between condom use and condom brand preference (P<0.05). A student that preferred Trust brand was 2.25 [P=0.036, 95% CI = 1.06 - 4.79] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that indicated that there was no difference between specific condom brands (adjustment from 2.50). A student that preferred Durex brand was 2.50 [P=0.033, 95% CI = 1.08 - 5.79] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one that indicated that indicated there was no difference between specific brands (adjustment from 2.67). A student that preferred mixed brands (preference) was 2.30 [P=0.030, 95% CI = 1.08 - 4.88] times likely to use a condom compared to one that indicated that there was no difference between specific brands (adjustment from 2.65). This was confirmed by the FGDs where majority of the students preferred Durex brand compared to other brands;

"We use Durex because the feeling experienced during intercourse is not altered and it increases sexual pleasure, they make some of us last longer, are affordable and easily available."

However, other students supported the use of other brands such as, *Trust*, *Roughrider*, *Salama*, *Raha*, *Sure*, *Government condoms* and *Femiplan male condom*. The above findings concur with those of a study carried out in Uganda which identified the brand of condom as the main barrier to condom use (Kipp *et al.*, 1992). There was no significant relationship between condom use and price (P>0.05). The above findings are similar to a study carried out in Nigeria where price of condom was not an important factor in influencing demand of condom (Musibau, 2010).

This study showed no significant relationship between condom use and knowledge (P>0.05). The findings of this study are similar to findings of studies carried out in Kampala and Jamaica which indicated that the level of knowledge about STDs and their prevention was not matched by sexual behavioral patterns (Sekirime *et al.*, 2001, Gillespie, 2008).
Also on knowledge about the effectiveness of condom use, as well as concern about being at risk for HIV infection, were often reported to be unrelated to safe sex (Svenson and Varnhagen, 1990; Carmel *et al.*, 1992; Oswald and Pforr, 1992; Greenlee and Ridley, 1993). Findings of this study differ with a study carried out in Vietnam (Lan *et al.*, 2009) where low levels of STI knowledge was associated with poor practices. A study in Mexico (Tapia *et al.*, 2004) showed that among young men, high levels of HIV/AIDS knowledge increased likelihood of condom use and among young women high levels of knowledge decreased likelihood of using condoms. A study carried out among young African American women (Raiford *et al.*, 2009), young women who were more knowledgeable on STIs were more likely to exhibit inconsistent condom use compared to those who were less knowledgeable.

This study showed a significant relationship between use of condom and attitude (P=0.010). According to this study, a student who was positive on many attitude related issues was 2.09 [95% CI = 1.19 - 3.66] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one who was positive on few issues (adjustment from 2.77). This was confirmed by the FGDs where most students had an overall positive attitude towards condom use. For instance, on reasons for condom use, nearly all the students stated that condoms prevented unwanted pregnancies and HIV/STIs. When participants were asked whether condoms increase or decrease sexual pleasure, majority stated that it depended on the brand used. Few participants stated that condom use generate;

"Some of us do not feel our sexual partners when using condoms. That is why we rarely use them. Just putting them on interrupts everything so we rather not use them" The study findings concur with findings of a study carried out in Nigeria among University students (Ike and Aniebue, 2007) which indicated negative attitude to be associated with less condom use. The findings of this study also agree with a study carried out among African-American men (Reece *et al.*, 2007) which showed that perceptions of condom fit and feel were related to the use.

The findings of this study showed a statistically significant relationship between sexual practices and use of condoms. A student who was not at risk was 2.02 [95% CI = 1.08 - 3.75] times more likely to use a condom while having sex compared to one whose outcome was at risk (adjustment from 1.85). This was confirmed by the FGDs which gave an indication that some students indulge in risky sexual behavior. For example, on how university students negotiate with their partners to use condoms, some students said that there is no negotiation when they are intoxicated with drugs/alcohol. The FGDs noted the following;

"Majority of us have slept with bar maids or our partners without using a condom after taking alcohol. We have realized this and have been really ashamed of ourselves. Some of us men intentionally refuse to use condoms even with regular girlfriends"

The findings of this study concur with findings of a study carried out at KNH Kenya among sexually active adolescents in Nairobi, indicated that most sexually active adolescents were involved with risky behavior (Lema and Hassan, 1994). In addition, a study carried out at Maseno University, Kenya (Othero *et al.*, 2009)

indicated that about of the 77.7% of the respondents who said they had used condoms, only 15.8% reported consistent use of condom.

Studies carried out in Nigeria, Ghana and Kathmandu indicated that marijuana and alcohol use was related to low condom use and that that students did not use condoms consistently and were not likely to use condoms (Adufuye *et al*, 2009; Tagoe and Aggor, 2009; Adhikari, 2010).

4.3 Study Limitations

4.3.1 Selection bias

There was a potential selection bias of the study participants with the marital status where a significant majority (94.6%) of the study participants were single and only (5.4%) of the study participants were married. This was related to low number of married university undergraduate students in the university.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDTIONS

5.1 Conclusions

- The prevalence of condom use among the students was 72.8% in this study
- There was no association between condom use and socio-demographic characteristics
- Access (Privacy of condom and brand preference) had an association with condom use However, there was no association between condom use and price of condom
- There was no association between condom use and knowledge, however attitudes and sexual practices were associated with condom use.

5.2 Recommendations

- There is need to improve access to condoms
- Condoms should be distributed according to the preferred brands. The most preferred brands (Durex/Trust)
- Continuous awareness campaigns should be enhanced aiming at changing the negative attitude and poor practices among the undergraduate students
- Continuous monitoring for the changes in usage of condom

REFERENCES

Adefuye A. S., Abiona T. C., Balogun T. A. and Lukobo D. M. (2009). HIV sexual risk behaviors and perception of risk among college students. *Biomedical Central Public Health*, **9**: 281.

Adhikari R. (2010). Are Nepali students at risk of HIV? A cross-sectional study of condom use at first sexual intercourse among college students in Kathmandu. *Journal of International AIDS Society*, 2; 13: 7.

Adih W. K. and Alexander C. S. (1999). Determinants of condom use to prevent HIV infection among youth in Ghana. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 24; 1: 63-72.

Ajithkumar K. (1998). Unusual skin ulceration in an HIV-positive patient who had cutaneous syphilis and neurosyphilis. *British Journal of Dermatology*, 138: 366–367.

Alkhatib G., Combadiere C. and Broder C. C. (1996). Receptor as a fusion cofactor for macrophage-tropic HIV-1. *Science*, 272; 1955–1958.

American Social Health Association (ASHA). (1998). Sexually transmitted diseases in America. Available from: http://www.ashastd.org/pdf/std_rep.pdf. Accessed Nov.24, 2006.

Arien K. K., Abraha A. and Quiñones-Mateu M. E. (2005). The replicative fitness of primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) group M, HIV-1 group O, and HIV-2 isolates. *Journal of Virology*, 79: 8979.

Bari M. M., Shulkin D. J. and Abell E. (1989). Ulcerative syphilis in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome: a case of precocious tertiary syphilis in a patient infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*, 21; 1310–1312.

Berquo E., Barbosa R. M. and Lima L. P. (2008). Trends in condom use. *Revista Saude Publica*, 42; 1: 34-44.

Bhoopat L., Eiangleng L., Rugpao S., Frankel S. S., Weissman D., Lekawanvijit S., Petchjom S., Thorner P. and Bhoopat T. (2001). In vivo identification of Langerhans and related dendritic cells infected with HIV-1 subtype E in vaginal mucosa of asymptomatic patients. *Modern Pathology*, 14 12: 1263-1269.

Bobkov A. F., Kazennova E. V., Selimova L. M., Khanina T. A., Ryabov G. S.,
Bobkova M. R., Sukhanova A. L., Kravchenko A. V., Ladnaya N. N., Weber J.
N. and Pokrovsky V. V. (2004). Temporal trends in the HIV-1 epidemic in Russia:
predominance of subtype A. *Journal of Medical Virology*, 74; 2: 191-196.

Brown N. L., Pennylegion M. T. and Hillard P. (1997). A process evaluation of condom availability in the Seattle, Washington public schools. *Journal of School Health*, 67; 8: 336-340.

Burke D. S. (1997). Recombination of HIV: An Important Viral Evolutionary Strategy. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 3; **3**: 253-259.

Calazans G., Araujo T. W., Venturi G., Franca and Junior I. (2005). Factors associated with condom use among youth aged 15-24 years in Brazil. *AIDS*, 19; 4: 42-50.

Campbell-Yesufu O. T. and Gandhi R. T. (2011). Update on human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-2 infection. *Journal of Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 52:780.

Carmel S., Green M. S., Slepon R., Tsur S. and Vardi D. (1992). Gender differences in AIDS-related behavioral changes among 18-19 year olds in a low incidence country. *Health Education Research*, **7**: 217-228.

Centers for Disease Control (CDC). (2004a). OraQuick Rapid HIV Test for Oral Fluid_Available at http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/rapid_testing

Centers for Disease Control (CDC). (2004b). Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 2. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/resources

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2006). Revised Recommendations for HIV Testing of Adults, Adolescents, and Pregnant Women in Health-Care Settings. 55; **14:** 1-17.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2006). Sexually Transmitted Diseases Treatment Guidelines 2006. MMWR; 55 (no. RR-11).

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2008). Study says at least one in four teen girls has a sexually transmitted disease; HPV most common. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/std. Accessed on March 12, 2008.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2009). Sexually Transmitted Disease Surveillance Atlanta: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/std/stats.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2010). National Centre for HIV/AIDS, Viral Hepatitis, Sexually Transmitted Disease and TB Prevention.

Certain H. E., Harahan B. J., Saewyc E. M. and Fleming M. F. (2009). Condom use in heavy drinking college students: the importance of always using condoms. *Journal of American College Health*, 58; **3**: 187-194.

Chalmet K., Staelens D., Blot S., Dinakis S., Pelgrom J., Plum J., Vogelaers D., Vandekerckhove L. and Verhofstede C. (2010). Epidemiological study of phylogenetic transmission clusters in a local HIV-1 epidemic reveals distinct differences between subtype B and non-B infections. *Biomedical central Infectious Diseases*, 7; 10: 262.

Chen C. Y., Ballard R. C. and Beck-Sague C. M. (2000). Human immunodeficiency virus infection and genital ulcer disease in South Africa: the herpetic connection. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 27: 21–29.

Cohen M. S. (1998). Sexually transmitted diseases enhance HIV transmission: no longer a hypothesis. *Lancet*; 351; **3**: 5–7.

Corey L., Wald A. and Patel R. (2004). Once-daily valacyclovir to reduce the risk of transmission of genital herpes. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 350:11-20.

Cot M. C., Poulain M. and Delagneau J. F. (1988). Dual HIV-1 and HIV-2 infection in West Africa supported by synthetic peptide analysis. *AIDS Research and Human Retroviruses*, 4: 239.

Daar E. S., Pilcher C. D. and Hecht F. M. (2008). Clinical presentation and diagnosis of primary HIV-1 infection. *Current Opinion in HIV and AIDS*, 3;1:10-15. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/hiv

Dittmar M. T., Simmons G., Hibbitts S., O'Hare M., Louisirirotchanakul S., Beddows S., Weber J., Clapham P. R. and Weiss R. A. (1997). Langerhans cell tropism of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 subtype A through F isolates derived from different transmission groups. *Journal of Virology*, 71; **10**: 8008-8013.

Dragic T., Litwin V. and Allaway G. P. (1996). HIV-1 entry into CD41 cells is mediated by the chemokine receptor CC-CKR-5. *Nature*, 381; 667–73.

Essex M. (1996). Retroviral vaccines: challenges for the developing world. *AIDS Research and Human Retroviruses*, 12; **5**: 361-363.

Evans L. A., Moreau J. and Odehouri K. (1988). Simultaneous isolation of HIV-1 and HIV-2 from and AIDS patient. *Lancet*, 2:1389.

Fadiora S. O., Oboro V. O., Akinwusi P. O., Adeoti M. L., Bello T. O. and Egbewale B. E. (2002). Sexual Health Matters. Published Quarterly by Express Print Works, Middlesbrough, UK ISSN 1469-7556. Available at http://www.sexualhealthmatters.com

Fanburg J. T., Kaplan D. W. and Naylor K. E. (1995). Student opinions of condom distribution at a Denver, Colorado, high school. *Journal of School Health*, 65; 5: 181-185.

Feyisetan B. and Pebley A. R. (1989). Premarital sexuality in urban Nigeria. *Studies in Family Planning*, 20; **6**: 343-354.

Ferris G. M., Mizwa M. B. and Schutze G. E. (2002). Prevention of sexual transmission of HIV/AIDS. 121-122.

Fleming D. T., McQuillan G. M. and Johnson R. E. (1997). Herpes simplex virus type 2 in the United States. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 337: 1105–1111.

Fox J., Castro H., Kaye S., McClure M., Weber J. N. and Fidler S. (2010). Epidemiology of non-B clade forms of HIV-1 in men who have sex with men in the UK. *AIDS*, 24; **15**: 2397-2401.

Gilbert M. T., Rambaut A., Wlasiuk G., Spira T. J., Pitchenik A. E. and Worobey M. (2007). The emergence of HIV/AIDS in the Americas and beyond. *Proceedings of the National Acadmy Sciences*, 104; **47**: 18566–18570. Gillespie J. M. (2008). HIV/AIDS prevention practices among recent-immigrant Jamaican women. *Ethnicity and Disease*, 18; **2**: 175-178.

Golden M. P., Kim S. and Hammer S. M. (1992). Activation of human immunodeficiency virus by herpes simplex virus. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 166: 494–499.

Greenlee S. P. and Ridley D. R. (1993). AIDS and college students: a survey of knowledge, attitudes and beliefs. *Psychological Reports*, 73: 490.

Hay P. E., Tam F. W. and Kitchen V. S. (1990). Gummatous lesions in men infected with human immunodeficiency virus and syphilis. *Genitourinary Medicine*, 66: 374–379.

Heng M. C., Heng S. Y. and Allen S. G. (1994). Co-infection and synergy of human immunodeficiency virus-1 and herpes simplex virus-1. *Lancet*, 343:255–258.

Heymen D. L. (2008). Control of Communicable Diseases Manual 19th edition.
American Public Health Association. 800 I Street, NW Washington, DC 20001-3710
1:1-6.

Hook E. W. III., Cannon R. O. and Nahmias A. J. (1992). Herpes simplex virus Downloaded from infection as a risk factor for human immunodeficiency virus infection in heterosexuals. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 165:251–255. Accessed from http://cid.oxfordjournals.org/ Hutchinson C. M., Hook E. W III. and Shepherd M. (1994). Altered clinical presentation of early syphilis in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 121:94–100.

Ike S. O. and Aniebue P. N. (2007). HIV/AIDS perception and sexual behaviour among Nigerian University students. *Nigeria Journal of Clinical Practice*, 10; **2**: 105-110.

IRIN (2007). Muslim opposition to condom limit distribution. Accessed at http://www.irinnews.org

Johnson R. E. Nahmias A. and Magder L. S. (1990). A seroepidemiology survey of the prevalence of herpes simplex virus type 2 infection in the United States. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 321:8–12.

Joyanes P., Borobio M. V, Arquez J. M. and Perea E. J. (1998). The association of falsepositive rapid plasma reagin results and HIV infection. *Sexully Transmitted Diseases*, 25; 569–71.

Kipp W., Kabwa P. and Mwesigye B. (1992). Social marketing in a rural African district. *AIDS Health promotion Exchange/Global programme*, **4**: 3-5.

Lan P. T., Lundborg C. S., Mogren I., Phuc H. D. and Chuc N. T. (2009). Lack of knowledge about sexually transmitted infections among women in North rural Vietnam. *BioMedical Central Infectious Diseases*, **9**: 85. **Lema and Hassan. (1994).** Knowledge of sexually transmitted diseases, HIV infection and AIDS among sexually active adolescents in Nairobi, Kenya and its relationship to their sexual behavior and contraception. *East African Journal*, 71; **2**: 122-128.

Le Vu S., Le Strat Y., Barin F., Pillonel J., Cazein F., Bousquet V., Brunet S., Thierry D., Semaille C., Meyer L. and Desenclos J. C. (2010). Population-based HIV-1 incidence in France, 2003-08: a modelling analysis. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*, 10; 10: 682-687.

Marcella and Alsan. (2006). The Church & AIDS in Africa: Condoms & the Culture of Life Commonwealth: *Review of Religion, Politics, and Culture*, 8: 133.

Martinez A. M., Hora V. P., Santos A. L., Mendoza-Sassi R., Von Groll A., Soares E. A., D'Avila N., Silveira J., Leal R. G., Tanuri A. and Soares M. A. (2006). Determinants of HIV-1 mother-to-child transmission in Southern Brazil. *Anais da Academia Brasileira de Ciencias*, 78; 1: 113-121.

Mertz K. J., Trees D. and Levine W. C. (1998). Etiology of genital ulcers and prevalence of human immunodeficiency virus coinfection in 10 US cities. The Genital Ulcer Disease Surveillance Group. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 178:1795–1798.

Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR). (2001). Revised Guidelines for HIV Counseling, Testing, and Referral. 50; **19**: 1-58.

Moszynski P. (2008). Kenya clerics decide to fight against use of condom. *British Medical Journal*, 336; 7654.

Mugenda O. M and Mugenda A. G. (2003). Research Methods. Quantitative and qualitative approaches. ISBN 9966-1-107-0.

Murray M. C., Embree J. E., Ramdahin S. G., Anzala A. O., Njenga S. and Plummer F. A. (2000). Effect of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) type 1 viral genotype on mother-to-child transmission of HIV-1. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 181; 2: 746-749.

Musibau A. B. (2010). Economic Analysis of the Demand for Male Condoms and Implication for the Prevalence of HIV/AIDS. *Pakistan journal of Social Sciences*, 7;
2: 90-96.

Mutungi M., Miller A. N., Facchi E., Barasa B., Ondieki W. and Warria C. (2008). An outcome assessment of an ABC-based HIV peer education intervention among Kenyan university students. *Journal of Health communication*, 13; **4**: 345-356.

Mutungi M. (2006). East Africa Regional Workshop on HIV/AIDS Toolkit. I Choose life Africa. http://www2.aau.org/aur-hiv-aids/ws/kenya06

National AIDS Control Council (NACC). (2009). 'Kenya HIV prevention Response and modes of transmission Analysis.

National AIDS Control Council (NACC). (2010). 'Kenya National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan 2005/06 – 2009/10'. Accessed at http://www.nacc.or.ke

National AIDS/STI Cotrol programme (NASCOP). (2009). 2007 Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey: Final Report. http://www.aidskenya.org

Nelson A. L. and Woodward J. A. (2006). A practical Guide for Primary Care. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/std/stats

O'Farrell N. (1999). Increasing prevalence of genital herpes in developing countries: implications for heterosexual HIV transmission and STI control programmes. *Sexually Transmitted Infections*, 75: 377–384.

Okonofua F. E. (1995). Factors associated with adolescent pregnancy in rural Nigeria. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 24; **4**: 419-438.

Orubuloye I. O., Caldwell J. C. and Caldwel P. (**1991**). Sexual networking in Ekiti district of Nigeria. *Studies in Family Planning*, 22; **2**: 61-73.

Oswald H. and Pforr P. (1992). Sexuality and AIDS: attitudes and behaviors of adolescents in East and West Berlin. *Journal of Adolescence*, **15:** 373-391.

Othero D. M., Aduma P. and Opil C. O. (2009). Knowledge, attitudes and sexual practices of university students for advancing peer HIV education. *East African Medical Journal*, 986; 1: 11-15.

Phillips S., Granade T. C., Pau C. P., Candal D., Hu D. J. and Parekh B. S. (2000). Diagnosis of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection with different subtypes using rapid tests. *Clinical Diagnostic Laboratory Immunology*, 7; 4: 698-699.

Plantier J. C., Leoz M., Dickerson J. E., De Oliveira F., Cordonnier F., Lemee
V., Damond F., Robertson D. L. and Simon F. (2009). A new human immunodeficiency virus derived from gorillas. *Nature Medicine*, 15; 8: 871-872

Pope M., Frankel S. S., Mascola J. R., Trkola A., Isdell F., Birx D. L., Burke D. S., Ho D. D. and Moore J. P. (1997). Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 strains of subtypes B and E replicate in cutaneous dendritic cell-T-cell mixtures without displaying subtype-specific tropism. *Journal of Virology*, 71; **10**: 8001-8007.

Quinn T. C. (1996). Association of sexually transmitted diseases and infection with the human immunodeficiency virus: biological cofactors and markers of behavioral interventions. *International Journal of STD/AIDS*, 7 (Suppl 2):17–24.

Raiford J. L., Diclemente R. J. and Wingood G. M. (2009). Effects of fear of abuse and possible STI acquisition on the sexual behavior of young African American women. *American Journal of Public Health*, 99; 6: 1067-1071.

Reece M., Dodge B., Herbenick D., Fisher C., Alexander A. and Satinsky S. (2007). Experiences of condom fit and feel among African-American men who have sex with men. *Sexually Transmitted Infections*, 83; 6: 454-457.

Sands M. and Markus A. (1995). Lues maligna, or ulceronodular syphilis, in a man infected with human immunodeficiency virus. Case report and review. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 20: 387–390.

Schacker T., Ryncarz A. J. and Goddard J. (1998). Frequent recovery of HIV-1 from genital herpes simplex virus lesions in HIV-1–infected men. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 280: 61–66.

Sekirime W. K., Tamale J., Lule J. C. and Wabwire M. F. (2001). Knowledge, attitude and practice about sexually transmitted diseases among university students in Kampala. *African Health Sciences*, 1; 1:16-22.

Sellati T. J., Wilkinson D. A. and Sheffield J. S. (2000). Virulent Treponema pallidum, lipoprotein, and synthetic lipopeptides induce CCR5 on human monocytes and enhance their susceptibility to infection by human immunodeficiency virus type 1. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 181: 283–293.

Severson J. L. and Tyring S. K. (1999). Relation between herpes simplex viruses and human immunodeficiency virus infections. *Archive of Dermatology*, 135: 1393– 1397.

Sexually Transmitted Diseases Statistics. (2009). Sexually Transmitted Diseases Statistics Worldwide. Avert.org. http://www.avert.org/stdstatisticsworldwide.htm. Retrieved 2011-01-09.

Shalaby I. A., Dunn J. P., Semba R. D. and Jabs D. A. (1997). Syphilitic uveitis in human immunodeficiency virus–infected patients. *Archive of Ophthalmology*, 115: 469–473.

Svenson L. W. and Varnhagen C. K. (1990). Knowledge, attitudes and behaviors related to AIDS among first year university students. *Canadian Journal of Public Health*, 81: 139-140.

Tagoe and Aggor. (2009). Knowledge, behavior, perceptions and attitudes of University of Ghana students towards HIV/AIDS: what does behavioural surveillance survey tell us? *Journal for Health and Human Services administration*, 32; **1**: 51-84.

Tapia N., Franco S., Puig-Basagoiti F., Menendez C., Alonso P. L., Mshinda H., Clotet B., Saiz J. C. and Martinez M. A. (2003). Influence of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 subtype on mother-to-child transmission. *Journal of General Virology*, 84; **3**: 607-613.

Tapia A. V., Arillo S. E., Allen B., Angeles L. A., Cruz-Valdez A. and Lazcano
P. E. (2004). Associations among condom use, sexual behavior, and knowledge about HIV/AIDS. Archives of medical research, 35; 4: 335-343.

Theus S. A., Harrich D. A. and Gaynor R. (1998). Treponema pallidum, lipoproteins, and synthetic lipoprotein analogues induce human immunodeficiency virus type 1 gene expression in monocytes via NF-kB activation. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 177: 941–950.

Tranchat C., Van de Perre P., Simonon-Sorel A., Karita E., Benchaib M., Lepage P., Desgranges C., Boyer V. and Trepo C. (1999). Maternal humoral factors associated with perinatal human immunodeficiency virus type-1 transmission in a cohort from Kigali, Rwanda, 1988-1994. *Journal of Infection*, 39; **3**: 213-220.

United Nations AIDS Programme (UNAIDS) and World Health Organization (WHO). (2007). 2007 AIDS epidemic update (PDF). Available at http://data.unaids.org/pub/EPISlides/2007/2007_epiupdate_en.pdf. Retrieved 2008-03-12.

Waithaka M. and Bessinger R. (2001). Sexual Behavior and Condom Use in the Context of HIV Prevention in Kenya. Available at http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADA257.pdf

Wald A. Langenberg A. G. M. and Link K. (2001). Effect of condoms on reducing the transmission of herpes simplex virus type 2 from men to women. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 285: 3100-3106.

Wald A. and Link K. (2002). Risk of human immunodeficiency virus infection in herpes simplex virus infection in herpes simplex virus type 2 – seropositive persons: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 185: 45-52.

Wasserheit J. N. (1992). Epidemiological synergy: interrelationships between human immunodeficiency virus infection and other sexually transmitted diseases. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 19:61–77.

World Health Organization (WHO). (2003). Guidelines for the management of sexually transmitted infections Geneva. Available at http://www.who.int/reproductive-health/publications/rhr_10_mngt_

World Health Organization (WHO) United Nations AIDS Programme (UNAIDS) and United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF). (2011). Global HIV/AIDS Response: Epidemic Updates and health sector progress towards universal access.

World Health Organization (WHO). (2010). Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) in Africa. Available at http://www.who.org

Yang C., Li M., Newman R. D, Shi Y. P., Ayisi J., Van-Eijk A. M., Otieno J., Misore A. O., Steketee R. W., Nahlen B. L. and Lal R. B. (2003). Genetic diversity of HIV-1 in western Kenya: subtype-specific differences in mother-to-child transmission. *AIDS*, 17; **11**:1667-1674.

Yinnon A. M., Coury-Doniger P., Polito R. and Reichman R. C. (1996). Serologic response to treatment of syphilis in patients with HIV infection. *Archive of Internal Medicine*, 156; 321–325.

Yotebieng M., Halpern C. T., Mitchell E. M. and Adimora A. A. (2009). Correlates of condom use among sexually experienced secondary-school male students in Nairobi, Kenya. *Journal of social aspects of HIV/AIDS Research Alliance/SAHARA, Human sciences Research Council*, 6; 1: 9-16.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire monitoring check-list

Name of	Issued serial	Returned serial	Signature of	Date
Research	No's	No's	Research	
Assistant			Assistant	

Checked by principal investigator:.....

Date.....

APPENDIX 2: Consent form

Factors associated with condom use among undergraduate students at Jomo Kenyatta University.

Researchers' statement

Goodmorning/afternoon, my name is Beatrice Amy Nesidai Kithuka. I am a Master of science Epidemiology student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. Today I am here to carry out a study on factors associated with condom use among undergraduate university students. This form will give you information you need, so that you can make a decision on whether to participate or not to in the study. There are no wrong or right answers. You will be given time to consider if you would like to be in the study. Please read the form well and ask where you don't understand. Please be honest and truthful in answering the questions. I assure you that the information you give will be totally confidential and will not be required to identify yourself by name. Your participation is voluntary, and you may therefore refuse to answer any question or stop the interview at any time without suffering any consequences.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to determine the factors associated with condom use among university students. This information will be used to improve HIV and other STIs interventions in higher learning institutions. The information will be collected from 461 consenting undergraduate students from JKUAT (main campus).

Procedure:

A total of 461 university students will be interviewed during this study, using self administered questionnaire and 64 using focus group discussions. The interview will last for about half an hour in a quiet place within the university premises and participants will be required to give answers to all the questions. Participants will have the opportunity to make suggestions and give information on the factors affecting condom use within the university.

Risks

People in the university could learn of your involvement in the study. To protect you from this risk, all information you will give us will be kept confidential within our research team. All the data will be stored in lockable cabinets.

Benefits

There is no financial compensation or other personal benefits from participating in the study. However your participation and/or answers to the questions may provide insights into improving future planning, implementation and evaluation of health programmes aimed at increasing condom use among university students in Kenya.

Confidentiality

No names will be used on any of the reports from the study. All the respondents will be given different identification numbers and the information relating to each participant will be strictly confidential, available only to the study team. Notes and any other recordings done will be destroyed once summary is prepared.

Voluntariness

Your participation is voluntary, and you may therefore refuse to answer any question or stop the interview at any time without suffering any consequences.

Instructions:

When you sign below it shows that you have agreed to participate in the study. If you do not understand any part of the information that has been read to you/you have read, be sure to ask questions. Do no sign until you have understood all that is expected or required.

I wish to take part in the study entitled: **Factors associated with condom use among students of at JKUAT.** I understand that I may at any time during the study withdraw my consent without any consequences. I have understood the information given in this sheet and I give my consent to be interviewed.

Respondent	number	 Signature
Date		

If you require further information please contact KEMRI/ERC: The secretary,

Tel.2722541 ext 3307,0722205901, 0733400003

APPENDIX 3: Self administered questionnaire

Г

Part one: Back ground information	
This section will ask you questions abo	ut yourself. Read each question carefully and
tick the appropriate response, fill in wh	ere necessary.
1. What is your gender?	i)Male
	ii)Female
2. How old are you?	[] (years)
3. What is your marital status?	i). Married
	ii). Single
	iii). Divorced
Only male-female marriages	iv). Widowed
are being considered here.	v). Cohabiting
	vi). Other
4. What is your year of study?	i). 1 st year
	ii). 2 nd year
	iii). 3 rd year
	iv). 4 th year
	v). >4 years
5. What is your year of study?	i). 1 st year
	ii). 2 nd year
	iii). 3 rd year
	iv). 4 th year
	v). >4 years
6. Do you live on campus or off	i). On campus
campus?	ii). Off campus
7. Who do you live with?	1.Parents?
	2.Guardian?
	3.Older brother/Sister?
	4.OtherSpecify

Part two: Respondents knowledge

This section will cover about your knowledge on HIV and other STIs and condom use. Read each question carefully and tick the appropriate response, fill in where necessary. A question may have more than one response."T" means True while "F" means False."Y" means Yes and "N" means No

		Т	F
8. What is HIV?			
	i). Is a flavi		
	virus belonging		
	to the family Flaviviridae		
	ii). Is a lentivirus		
		Т	F
	iii). Is a virus that		

	causes AIDS		
	iv). Is a virus that attacks		
	the immune system.		
	v). HIV is a virus that can		
	be transmitted by air, insects		
	bites, physical touch such		
	as shaking hands, sharing		
	utensils and sharing food or d	lrinks.	
9. HIV is one of the Kenyans serious			
public health problem because of :	i). Rapid spread.		
	ii).Ability to suppress the		
	Reproductive system.		
	iii).Inevitable death for		
	those with HIV/AIDS.		
	iv).Resulting problems		
	which affect national		
	development and hence		
	the welfare of all Kenyans.		
	v).Relationship with TB.		
	i).They are not always		
10. Although HIV/AIDS has	transmitted the same way		
received more attention and concern	ii). They are co-factors.		
than other STIs, all comprise a single,	(Other STIs such as syphilis,		
interrelated problem because:	chancroid and herpes, are		
	risk factors for HIV infection)		
	iii). They all have a cure		
	iv). They both cause AIDS		
11. The MAIN route of transmission			
of HIV/ other STIs is through sexual			
intercourse			
12. Do you think it's important to	i). Y (Go to question 13)		
have a HIV test?	ii). N (Go to question 14)		
14. Why don't you think it is	i).I trust my partner no need		
important to have a HIV test?	ii).Not interested		
	iii).Others(specify)		
15. A student using oral			
contraceptives cannot contract HIV.			
	i).Prompt treatment		
16. The safer sexual practice of a	and completing treatment		
person infected with a STI include:	as instructed.		
		Т	F
	ii).Avoiding taking ones		
	partner to a health		
	facility to be tested.		
	iii).Avoiding sex until		
	cured and always using		

	condom if sex occurs.		
17. What is a condom?			
	i).Is a barrier		
	device used during		
	sexual intercourse to		
	prevent pregnancies and		
	the spread of STIs.		
	ii).Is a barrier device		
	used during sexual		
	intercourse only for prevention		
	of pregnancies.		
	iii).Is a barrier device used		
	only for prevention of the		
	spread of STIs		
18. Second to faithfulness between	i).Condom ensures safe		
two uninfected partners, condoms are	sex by preventing contact		
the most reliable way to preventing	with the vaginal fluids, semen		
STIs including HIV infection. How	or blood of sexual partner.		
safe is it to use a condom?	ii).Condoms are always safe		
	irrespective of their storage		
	iii).Condom use promote		
	cleanliness		
	iv). Condoms only protect		
	against STIs if they are		
	used properly and ALWAYS		
	used correctly.		
	v).A single condom can		
	be used more than once		
	i).Using the condom		
19. Students need to know that	twice or more		
condoms must be cared for properly.	ii).Storing the condom		
A condom which is not cared for	safely.		
properly is not safe. It will break and	iii).Storing the condoms		
tear easily and no longer protect	next to sunlight		
against STIs. Therefore proper			
condom care is the essential part of			
safer sex. Proper care means avoiding		Т	F
anything that can weakens a condom.	iv).Opening the package		
It involves:	carefully and applying		
	condom properly.		
	v).Using the condom		
	only once		
20. What are the main channels of	i). Radio		
communications from which you	11). Television		
receive information and education	iii). Billboards		
about condom use? (Please tick	iv).Peers		
where applicable)	v). Internet		

|--|

Part three: Respondents attitude towards condom use

This section will cover about your attitude on condom use. Read each question carefully and tick the appropriate response, fill in where necessary. A question may have more than one response."T" means True while "F" means False."Y" means Yes and "N" means No

21. True or false tick where	i).Condoms make sex		
applicable	inconvenient		
	ii).People plan when they		
	are going to have sex		
	iii). A man's penis may		
	be too large for a condom.		
	iv). Condoms are expensive.		
	v). I am embarrassed to		
	buy a condom.		
	vi). The correct way to use		
	a condom is to put it on		
	a soft penis.		
	vii). Most religious people don't		
	use condoms.		
	viii) Only men should decide		
	if a condom is used during sex.		
	ix).Only gay people get AIDS.		
22.Tick where applicable		Y	Ν
	i).It's alright for women to		
	insist that men use a		
	condom.		
	ii).All right to insist that		
	your sexual partner use a		
	condom.		
	iii).All right for women		
	to refuse sex if man		
	does not want to use		
	a condom		
	iv).All right for men		
	to refuse sex if woman		
	does not want to use		
	a condom.		
23. Tick where applicable			
	i).Condoms help stop		
	the spread of STIs		
	ii).It is easy to obtain		
	a condom within the campus		
	iii).My friends are concerned		
	about getting infected		
	by AIDS virus		

	iv).Condoms help stop		
	the spread of AIDS virus		
	v). I am concerned about		
	getting infected by AIDS vi	rus	
	vi). Condoms decrease		
	sexual pleasure for men		
	vii).Most of my male		
	friends use condoms		
	when they have		
	sex		
	viii). You are not likely to	be inf	ected by
	AIDS virus if you use a cond	dom -	
	ix). Most of my female frien	ds use	
	a condom when they have se	ex	
	x). Condoms decrease sexua	1	
	pleasure for women		
24. Young people tend to believe that	^	Т	F
nothing bad can happen to them i.e.	i). This is due to lack of		
Not get STIs or pregnancies.	correct information		
	concerning the risk		
	and consequences of STIs		
	ii) Many girls are still		
	brought to be submissive		
	to men. This increases		
	their difficulty in avoiding		
	sexual contact especially w	ith	
	older men		
25 Would you like to be tested for		v	N
LIND		1	11

Part four: Respondents Practices

This section will cover about your practices on condom use before and after knowing your HIV status. Read each question carefully and tick the appropriate response, fill in where necessary. A question may have more than one response."T" means True while "F" means False."Y" means Yes and "N" means No

while I means raise. I means res			
26. Have you ever had a sexual	Y	N(if N	go to 30)
intercourse?			
27. How would you describe your	i). Heterosexual		
sexual identity?	ii). Bisexual		
(Do not read, one response only).	iii). Homosexual		
	iv). others (specify-)
28. The last time you had sexual		Y	Ν
intercourse, did you protect			
yourself/your partner/s against			
accidental pregnancies/STIs?			
29.Which of the listed methods did	Against pro	egnancy	Against STIs
you and your partner use for		-	

protection against accidental	i).Pill	
pregnancies/STIs	ii).Female	
	Condom	
	iii).Male	
	Condom	
	iv).Withdrawal	
	v). Others specify-	

Part five: Access

This section will cover about access factors. Read each question carefully and tick the appropriate response. A question may have more than one response. "T" means True while "F" means False."Y" means Yes and "N" means No

	Y	Ν
30. Which of the following economic and non economic factors would	i). Price ii). Distance	
affect your willingness to acquire a condom?	iii) Privacy	
	iv). Preference	
31. Which of the following sources of	Y	N
condom supply would you prefer?	i). Toilets at the university	
	ii).Health facility at the	
	university.	
	iii).Chemist shops and pharmacies	
		YN
	iv).Supermarkets and shops	
	v).Peers at the university.	
	vi).Family planning clinic	
	vii).Others (Specify)	
32. If preference is a factor affecting	Т	F
the choice of condom, which of the	ii).Trust	
following brand do you prefer	iii).Durex	
	iv). Government condoms	
	v). If any others combination please	e state
	Т	F
33. What are the reasons for your	i).Increases the sexual pleasure	
brand preference?	ii).Have reasonable fitting size	
_	iii).Prolong intercourse	
	iv).Spend less money	

Part six: Sexual Behavior practices

This section will cover about behavior. Read each question carefully and tick the appropriate response. A question may have more than one response."Y" means Yes and "N" means No

	i) Sexual relationship with	Y	N
	someone of the same gender?		
	ii). Sexual experience		
	with more than one		
	partner?		
	while intoxicated?		
	iv). Sexual experience while		
	intoxicated without use of a		
	v) Sexual intercourse		
	without the use of a condom?		
34. Ever participated in any of the	vi) Paid to have sex with a		
following:	man/woman?		

APPENDIX 4: Focus group discussions guide

Goodmorning/afternoon, my name is Beatrice Amy Nesidai Kithuka. I am a Master of Science in Epidemiology student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. I would like to introduce my group members. The overall objective of the study is to determine the factors associated with condom use among undergraduate university students. The benefit of your participation is that you will contribute useful information to the public health programs and the information you give will be used to improve HIV and other STIs interventions in higher learning institutions. Please be honest and truthful in answering the questions. If you agree to participate in this study, we will have focus group discussions with you, covering questions about yourself, attitude and practices towards condom use, and behavior. Your participation is voluntary, and you may therefore refuse to answer any question at any time without suffering any consequences. You will not be charged nor will you have to pay for your participation in the study. I assure you that the information you give will be totally confidential and you will not be required to identify yourself by name. Everything we discuss should not be taken out of this room. Members will have to keep the discussions of the FGD confidential. All the respondents will not be allowed to interact among themselves in the process of the discussions. There are no wrong or right answers. The FGDs will take approximately 45 minutes which indeed is an intrusion on your time. Every participants input is very valuable. Respect the opinion of others. Any question(s) that you may have will be answered after the session. I will answer truthfully to any questions you may have. If I don't have the information you require, I will tell you so and if you wish, I will try to get an answer for you. The FGDs will be tape recorded and written in a note book and flip charts.

Do you accept to be recorded? Notes and any other recordings done will be destroyed once summary is prepared. You are free to choose either to participate or not to participate.

Purpose:

This instrument aims at assessing the attitude and practices of students towards condom use in relation to HIV/AIDS and other STIs.

Important Note:

A total of 8 FGDs will be conducted. Four for the male students and four for the female students. Each FGD will have 8 undergraduate students drawn from male and female undergraduate students respectively. Therefore, 64 consenting undergraduate students will participate in the FGD.

Instructions to the interviewer/moderator:

Before starting the interview:

7. Make sure that the location you choose for the interview guarantees privacy and that your conversation can not be heard by anybody.

- 8. Explain the purpose of the study to the group and ask each participant if you may conduct the interview.
- 9. Each participant must give consent to be recorded
- 10. If permitted to interview, give each one of them to read and sign the 'informed consent form'
- 11. If the student is willing to be interviewed, then she/he should sign and date the consent form.
- 12. If the student does not want to be interviewed, politely thank him or her then proceed with those that have accepted to take part.

During the interview:

- 13. Initiate general conversation to create a relaxed environment
- 14. Ensure that all participants have an opportunity to talk
- 15. Ask each question and record the answer in the space provided. If the group does not understand the question, ask it again using different term without changing the meaning of this question. Make sure that the answers are specific. If a participant gives you a general or vague answer, ask him to give an example or to be more specific. Do not suggest answers.
- 16. At the end of the interview, thank the group for participating before leaving.

Part 1: Background information

Student number	code	Gender	Age	Year of study	Religion

Part 2: Attitude and practices of students towards condom use in relation to HIV/AIDS and other STIs.

- 1. For what purpose do university students use condom?[Probe]
- 2. Do condoms increase or decrease sexual pleasure?[Probe]
- 3. How do university students negotiate with their partners to use condom? [Probe]
- 4. What are the most popular brands of condom in this university?[Probe]
- 5. There are calls for sexually active people including the youth to get tested for HIV. How do university students respond to this call? Or what are your views about the need for testing? [Probe]
- 6. What factors influence sexual behavior among university students?[probe]

APPENDIX 5: Analysis of Knowledge

Knowledge scores were determined using questions. A score of one was awarded to a correct/positive response. A mean score of each was determined where a student who scored mean and above was said to have adequate knowledge. In the case of knowledge on what is HIV, five questions were used. The mean score was 4 ± 1 ranging between 1 and 5. A student who scored 4 and above was considered to have adequate knowledge on what is HIV. In the case of Knowledge on ways in which HIV is a Kenyans serious public health problem, five questions were used. Similarly, the mean score was 3 \pm 1 ranging between 0 and 5. A student who scored 3 and above was considered to have adequate knowledge on ways in which HIV is a Kenyans serious public health problem. Similarly, in the case of Knowledge on ways in which HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked, five questions were used. The mean score was 4 ± 1 ranging between 1 and 5. A student who scored 4 and above was considered to have adequate knowledge on ways in which HIV/AIDS and other STIs are interlinked. Knowledge on condom use was analyzed using 11 questions. The mean score was 9 ± 2 ranging between 1 and 11. A student who scored 9 and above was considered to have adequate knowledge on condom use.
APPENDIX 6: Multivariate analysis

Binary logistic regression was used to identify variables predictive of condom use (0 = Did not use, 1 = Used). All factors that were related to condom use at P<0.1 in bivariate analysis were used in multivariate analysis.

- Marital status (1= Single, 2= Married)
- General attitude towards condom use (1= Positive on many issues, 2= Positive on few issues)
- Accessibility to condom (1= Other, 2= Privacy)
- Preferred sources of condom supply (1= Chemists and shops, 2= Others)
- Preferred sources of condom supply (1= Supermarkets and shops, 2= Others)
- Preferred brand of condom (1= Mixed, 2= Government condoms, 3= Durex, 4= Trust, 5= No difference)
- Reasons for brand preference (1= Increases sexual pleasure, 2= Others)
- Risky sexual behavior (1= Not at risk, 2= At risk)

Three successive iterations were performed using backward condition method retaining five factors, adjusting for other factors and keeping them constant.

APPENDIX 7: Map of Kenya showing JKUAT



Source: Google maps available at http://www.maplandia.com/kenya/central/

APPENDIX 8: Independent and dependent variables

Independent variables

- 1. Socio-demographic factors-Age, gender, marital status and religion
- 2. Access factors- Economic and non-economic, preferred sources of condom supply and brand preference
- 3. Knowledge and attitude in relation to HIV and condom use.

Dependent variable

• Condom use

APPENDIX 9: Scientific Steering Committee (SSC) (Approval) KEMRI

Te	P.O. Box 544 I: (254) (020) 2722541, 2713349, (E-mail: director@kemri.org	340 - 00200 NAIROBI, Kenya 0722-205901, 0733-400003; Fa g info@kemri.org Website:wv	x: (254) (020) 2720030 ww.kemri.org
ESACIPAC/	/SSC/6797	٥	25 th August, 2010
Beatrice N. A	Amy	, led 2	5/8/10
Thro' Directo <u>NAIRO</u>	or, CPHR forw	and the	1
REF: SSC No underg	o.1845 (Revised) – Fa graduate students of a	actors affecting cor a public university	ndom use among in Kenya.
I am pleased the PI, was di its 170 th mee implementation	to inform you that the scussed by the KEMF eting held on $3^{rd}Aug$ on by the SSC.	e above-mentioned Il Scientific Steerin gust, 2010 and ha	proposal, in which you ar g Committee (SSC), during s since been approved fo
Kindly subm possible.	it 4 copies of the revi	sed protocol to the	Secretary SSC as soon a
The SSC how approval is rec	vever, advises that w	ork on this project	can only start when ERC
AB	Stree 0		
Sammy Njeng SECRETARY	ga, PhD Y, SSC	·	

APPENDIX 10: Ethical Review Committee (ERC) (Approval) KEMRI.

KI	Tel	: (254) (020) 2722541, 2713349, 0722-205901, 0733-400003; Fax: (254) (020) 2720030 E-mail: director@kemri.org info@kemri.org Website:www.kemri.org
K	MRT/RE	
-	- may ne	S/7/3/1 October 22, 2010
):	MS. BEATRICE AMY NEISIDAI KITHUKA, John 291910
TH	IRO':	DR. YERI KOMBE, THE DIRECTOR, CPHR, for Water NAIROBI
RI	E:	SSC 1845 (<i>INITIAL SUBMISSION</i>): FACTORS AFFECTING CONDOM USE AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS OF A PUBLIC UNIVERSITY IN KENYA
Ma foi rai ad	ake refere r your res ised durin lequately	nce to your letter dated October 16, 2010 received on October 18, 2010. Thank y ponse to the issues raised by the Committee. This is to inform you that the issues g the 183 rd meeting of the KEMRI/ERC held on October 12, 2010, have been addressed.
Du fo	ue conside r impleme onths.	eration has been given to ethical issues and the study is hereby granted approval intation effective this 22nd day of October 2010 , for a period of twelve (12)
Ple Oc ple 20	ease note ctober 20 ease subm 011.	that authorization to conduct this study will automatically expire on 21st 311. If you plan to continue with data collection or analysis beyond this date, nit an application for continuing approval to the ERC Secretariat by 27th August
Yc to str	u are req human p udy.	uired to submit any amendments to this protocol and other information pertinent articipation in this study to the ERC prior to initiation. You may embark on the
Yo	ours since	rely,
R	Orkithing	F
	C. KITH	INJI,