

# BMJ Open

## Social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia: Evidence from national population based survey in 2011

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2015-008669
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	06-May-2015
Complete List of Authors:	Tarekegn, Yihunie; Ethiopian Public Health Association, Project management CB, Susan; University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, School of Nursing, Houston, Texas, USA Haile, Demewoz; Madawalabu University,
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b>:	HIV/AIDS
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Evidence based practice, Health informatics
Keywords:	Epidemiology < TROPICAL MEDICINE, Infection control < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

# Social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia: Evidence from national population based survey in 2011

Yihunie Lakew<sup>1</sup> §, Susan Benedict<sup>2</sup>, Demewoz Haile<sup>3</sup>

---

## Affiliation

<sup>1</sup>Ethiopian Public Health Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

<sup>2</sup>The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, School of Nursing, Houston, Texas, USA

<sup>3</sup>Department of Public Health, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, Madawalabu University, Ethiopia

## Email address

Yihunie Lakew – yihunierh@yahoo.com

Demewoz Haile–demewozhaile@yahoo.com

Susan Benedict – [Susan.C.Benedict@uth.tmc.edu](mailto:Susan.C.Benedict@uth.tmc.edu)

§Corresponding author

Yihunie Lakew

Ethiopian Public Health Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

P.Box

Cell phone +251913109860

## Abstract

**Objective:** This study identifies social determinants of HIV, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia.

**Design:** The study used data from the 2011 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey. Spatial scan statistics and geographic information system tools were used to map hotspot areas of HIV prevalence. Bivariate and multivariate logistic regression models were used to identify social determinants.

**Population:** A total of 30,625 adults (16515 women and 14110 men) were included from 11 administrative states of Ethiopia.

**Main outcome measures:** Sample blood test from the finger prick collected on a filter paper card labeled with a barcode unique to the respondents.

**Results:** 24 administrative zones with relative risk of 2.8 and one zone with relative risk of 3.1 were found HIV hotspots. HIV prevalence reached 10-21% in certain geographic clusters. Multivariate analysis showed that individuals who were in the middle, richer and richest wealth quintiles had (AOR=1.7; 95%CI: 1.004-2.991), (AOR=2.3; 95%CI: 1.372-3.895) and (AOR=4.1; 95%CI: 2.284-7.390) odds of HIV than the poorest quintile. Adults who had primary, secondary and higher education were (AOR=1.7; 95%CI: 1.321-2.262) and (AOR=1.6; 95%CI: 1.113-2.362) more likely to have HIV than non-educated individuals. The odds of HIV was (AOR=3.4; 95%CI: 2.642-4.284) higher among adults who had multiple lifetime sexual partners. The odds of having HIV among age groups 25-29 years (AOR=1.7; 95%CI: 1.146-2.515), 30-34 years (AOR=2.0; 95%CI: 1.316-2.908) and 35-39 years (AOR=2.1; 95%CI: 1.406-3.069) were higher than age group of 45-49 years. Merchants had (AOR=1.8; 95%CI: 1.302-2.427) higher odds of HIV than non-working adults. The odds of HIV among urban residents (AOR=1.8; 95%CI: 1.236-2.661) and females (AOR=1.9; 95%CI: 1.444-2.632) were higher than their counterparts.

**Conclusion:** This study finds statistically significant HIV concentrations in 25 administrative zones of Ethiopia. Geo-spatial monitoring and targeting of prevention strategies for specific population groups is recommended based on the identified social determinants.

**Key words:** Hotspot, Social determinants, HIV, Ethiopia

### Strength and limitation of the study

- One of the strengths of this study is the use of laboratory confirmed HIV sero-status data at the national level. Therefore, the study findings can be used to inform policy and program actions.
- However, the study has also limitations. Some regions and EDHS clusters had small sample sizes, which questions the accuracy of prevalence estimates per region, so that those should be interpreted in caution. Because the study was a secondary data analysis, it might lack other important social determinant variables which were associated with risk of HIV infection.
- This study also shares the limitation of the cross-sectional study design which makes difficult to demonstrate cause and effect relationships and longitudinal relationships.

## Introduction

HIV/AIDS has been documented as one of the major public health challenges in the world[1]. Globally, there were approximately 35.0 million people living with HIV at the end of 2013 with 2.1 million people became newly infected. The sub-Saharan region of Africa is the most affected in the world with 24.7 million people living with HIV in 2013[2]. This region accounts for almost 70% of the global total of new HIV infections despite of having only 13% share of the world's populations [2]. Ethiopia is one of the sub-Saharan African countries with significantly high HIV infected populations[3]. There were totally 759,268 people living with HIV in Ethiopia in the year 2012. Of which, 168,598 were children age less than 15 years[4]. The national prevalence of HIV in Ethiopia has declined from estimated adult prevalence of 4.5% between 1998-1999[1]to 1.5% in 2011[5], which is an encouraging achievement for the country.

Although estimates suggest that the rate of new HIV infections is declining in many African settings, HIV incidence remains unacceptably high with striking sub-population and geographical differences[6]. Recently, there is a hypothesis indicating that the HIV epidemic is started to concentrate in certain geographic areas and population segments more than ever because of intensive efforts made at the global, national and lower levels. The HIV epidemic has been showing remarkable variations across population subgroups[7], regions and countries[6, 8], at sub-national level between provinces [9] and within sub-districts[10]. The geographical structure of the HIV epidemic is the consequence of drivers of the epidemic and the availability of susceptible population to the infection[11]. Strongest clustering was observed in countries with low prevalence of national HIV infection[11]. The 'know your epidemic' concept recognizes this geographical feature as a key element for identifying populations at higher risk of HIV infection where prevention interventions should be targeted[12].

The HIV/AIDS epidemic in Ethiopia is often classified as "generalized" among the adult population with significant heterogeneity among regions and population groups[13]. The rural epidemic appears to be relatively widespread but heterogeneous with most rural areas having a relatively low prevalence of HIV[13]. The concept of concentrated sub-epidemics within a generalized epidemic context has been relatively neglected topic to date[14]. Mapping hotspot areas, identifying affected population groups and predisposing social determinants, especially in resource limited settings, would assist in targeting and prioritizing interventions[15]. The hotspot

1  
2  
3 areas would be further examined for unobserved or unknown risk factors which are driving the  
4 HIV epidemic. Monitoring a localized epidemic is therefore essential for more effective  
5 prevention strategies[16].  
6  
7  
8

9  
10 Little information has been documented in Ethiopia to show social determinants of HIV, and  
11 concentrations of the epidemic in geographic areas and population groups. We hypothesize that  
12 low national prevalence of HIV hides the localized epidemics in Ethiopia. Therefore, this study  
13 is to identify social determinants of HIV, map hotspot areas, and identify sub-population groups  
14 to effectively target interventions with the limited resources available in the country.  
15  
16  
17  
18

## 19 20 **Methods and materials**

### 21 22 **Data type and study design:**

23  
24 This analysis used secondary data from the 2011 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey  
25 (EDHS). The survey followed an international DHS methodology and is conducted at five years  
26 intervals. The EDHS was designed to provide population and health indicators at national (urban  
27 and rural) and regional levels. The 2011 EDHS samples were selected using a stratified and two-  
28 stage cluster sampling design. The survey included 624 samples of enumeration areas (clusters),  
29 of which 187 were in urban and 437 in rural areas. Representative samples of 16,702 households  
30 were actually interviewed from 11 administrative regions and 85 zones of which 11,590 were  
31 households from rural settings. A total of 30,625 adults aged between 15-59 years were included,  
32 among which 16,515 were women respondents. Overall, 86% of all EDHS respondents who  
33 were eligible for testing were interviewed and consented to HIV testing. Four percent of  
34 respondents were interviewed but refused to be tested for HIV and did not provide blood  
35 samples. Coverage rates for HIV testing were 89% for women and 82% for men. The detailed  
36 methodology is found elsewhere[17].  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46

### 47 48 **Data extraction:**

49  
50 The 2011 EDHS datasets were downloaded from the Measure DHS website (<http://www.dhs>  
51 [program.com](http://www.dhs)) in SPSS format with permission. After understanding the detailed datasets and  
52 coding, further data recoding was done. All potential social determinants and HIV/AIDS  
53 indicator variables were extracted from male and female datasets of EDHS 2011. Datasets of  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 HIV test result socio-demographic characteristics of men and women and GIS coordinates were  
4 merged accordingly for this analysis.  
5  
6  
7

### 8 **Measurement of variables:**

9  
10 Sample blood test through voluntary HIV counseling was done in the 2011 EDHS. Five blood  
11 spots from the finger prick were collected on a filter paper card labeled with a barcode unique to  
12 the respondents. The testing algorithm recommends testing all samples on the first ELISA assay  
13 test, the Vironostika® HIV Uni-Form II Plus O (Biomerieux). All positives were subjected to a  
14 second ELISA, the Murex HIV Ag/Ab Combination. If the first and second tests were  
15 discordant, a third confirmatory test, the HIV 2.2 western blot (DiaSorin), was conducted to  
16 resolve the discordance. The final result was rendered positive if the western blot confirmed the  
17 result to be positive and was rendered negative if the western blot confirmed it to be negative.  
18 When the western blot results were indeterminate, the sample result was recorded indeterminate.  
19 The detailed procedures can be accessed elsewhere [17]. The barcodes identifying the HIV test  
20 results were linked with other EDHS data sets of individual interviews. Based on literature  
21 review [16,18-20] and availability in the 2011 EDHS, social determinant variables were  
22 identified in the male and female datasets. For this study, the term “social determinants”  
23 encompass the socio-economic, cultural, residence and lifestyle conditions of people that may  
24 predispose to HIV infection. The chosen variables to potentially associate with HIV were wealth  
25 index that constructed from household assets and other characteristics, age groups, occupational  
26 status, comprehensive knowledge of HIV, use of alcohol and khat, migration status, religion,,  
27 residence, administrative region, educational status, mass media exposure indexed from reading  
28 newsletter, listening radio and television, gender, total number of lifetime sexual partner and  
29 marital status.  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

### 45 **Statistical analysis:**

46  
47 The spatial scan statistics (SaTScan) software (version 9.1, [www.satscan.org](http://www.satscan.org)) was used to detect  
48 the potential excess of HIV cases[21] . The basic idea of SaTScan is to allow circular windows  
49 of various sizes to range across the study areas. At each location, the rate of disease inside the  
50 window is compared with that outside of it. For a given cluster (circular window), the software  
51 calculates the probability of a data point being a case inside or outside the circle under  
52 consideration. For each circle, a likelihood ratio is computed for the alternative hypothesis that  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

there is an increased risk of disease inside the circle, against the null hypothesis that the risk inside the circle is the same as that outside. In this context, a hotspot cluster is detected within a defined geographical area during a specific timeframe if the area has a disproportionate excess of HIV cases when compared with neighbouring areas under study. While satisfying assumptions of the statistical model, an unusual rise or reduction in cases in a specific spatial area can be characterized by statistical significance. The sets of potential clusters are then rank ordered according to the magnitude of their likelihood ratio test statistics. The user-defined maximum radius used by SaTScan was set to its default value of 50%, as recommended by Kulldorf[21]. In order to investigate the sensitivity of SaTScan results to the default setting, we ran the SaTScan spatial scan statistics 10 times, starting with a maximum size of 5% and increasing the parameter by an interval of 5% with each run until reaching the default maximum size value of 50%. Results were not affected by the choice of radius selected; we therefore used the default value of 50% in our analysis.

We also used “svy” command in STATA version 11 to weight the survey data and do all types of analyses. Sample weights were applied in order to compensate for the unequal probability of selection between the strata that has been geographically defined as well as for non-responses. A detailed explanation of the weighting procedure can be found in the EDHS methodology report [17]. Descriptive statistics were used to show the weighted prevalence of HIV across social determinant variables. Bivariate and multivariate logistic regressions were carried out to determine the factors associated with HIV prevalence. As recommended by Hosmer and Lemeshow, variables found statistically significant at p-value <0.25 during bivariate analysis could be candidates for multivariable logistic regression model[22]. This p-value cutoff point is important to retain variables that will have potential effect during multivariate analysis. All tests were two-sided and a p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant in the multivariable statistical model. Both crude and adjusted odds ratios were calculated with 95% confidence interval.

### **Ethical consideration:**

The original DHS data were collected in conformity with international and national ethical guidelines. Ethical clearance for the original survey was provided by the Ethiopian Health and



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Nutrition Research Institute (EHNRI) Review Board, the National Research Ethics Review Committee (NRERC) at the Ministry of Science and Technology, the Institutional Review Board of ICF International and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The data for this study were downloaded and used after the purpose of the analysis was communicated and approved by the Measure DHS.

## Results

### Characteristics of the study population:

The 2011 EDHS included a total of 30,625 adults in the age range of 15–59 years for men and 15–49 years for women. Among the respondents, 53.9% (16,515) were females. About 68.8% (21,080) respondents were from rural areas. Approximately 42% had not attended formal education and 41% had less than primary school education. The proportion of Christians (Orthodox, Protestant and Catholic) was 60.7% followed by Muslims accounted for 37.5%. The mean age of respondents was 29.0 with standard deviation of 10.5 years.

### HIV prevalence by different population compositions:

The overall prevalence of HIV was 1.5% with 1.9% [95% CI: (1.696-2.123)] among females and 1.0% [95% CI: 0.838-1.178] in males. The prevalence of HIV in urban settings was 4.3% [95% CI: (3.814-4.813)] while in rural areas was 0.7% [95% CI: (0.596-0.813)]. The prevalence of HIV infection was 1.8% [95% CI: (1.624-1.992)] among Christian religion followers. The highest prevalence of HIV at 6.7% [95% CI: (3.511-12.60)] was recorded in the Gambella administrative region followed by Addis Ababa with 5.2% [95% CI: (4.138-6.453)] and Dire Dawa at 4.0% [95% CI: (1.639-9.533)]. The lowest prevalence, 1.0% [95% CI: (0.828-1.201)], was found in Oromiya region. Among the wealth quintiles, the highest prevalence of HIV of approximately 4.1% [95% CI: (3.646-4.581)] was found in the richest wealth quintile. Individuals who had attended secondary and above education level had the highest prevalence of HIV at 2.4% [95% CI: (1.952-2.937)]. The highest prevalence of HIV at 3.0% [95% CI: (2.466-3.615)] was documented among age group 35–39 years followed by age group 30–34 years at 2.7% [95% CI: (2.181-3.280)]. Among the different occupational groups, the highest prevalence of HIV at 5.7% [95% CI: (2.941-9.403)] was found among mobile workers followed by merchants at 5.4% [95% CI: (4.412-6.477)]. HIV prevalence was 4.1% [95% CI: (2.728-5.813)]

among service workers, 2.9% [95% CI: (0.098-9.291)] in construction and engineering workers and 2.7% [95% CI: (2.223-3.238)] in sales workers (**Table 1**).

**Table1: HIV prevalence by different characteristics of respondents in Ethiopia, 2011**

Characteristics of respondents	Prevalence 95%CI	Total weighted respondents	Weighted number of HIV Cases
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	1.0[0.838-1.178]	13,234	132
Female	1.9[1.696-2.123]	15,730	299
<b>Residence</b>			
Urban	4.3[3.814-4.813]	6,337	272
Rural	0.7[0.596-0.813]	22,628	158
<b>Religion</b>			
Christian	1.8[1.624-1.992]	20,147	363
Muslim	0.7[0.541-0.904]	8,231	58
Traditional and others	1.5[0.751-2.795]	587	9
<b>Administrative regions</b>			
Tigray	1.8[1.261-2.463]	1,901	34
Afar	1.8[0.523-3.901]	244	4
Amhara	1.6[1.338-1.894]	7,821	125
Oromiya	1.0[0.828-1.201]	10,983	110
Somali	1.5[0.730-2.951]	511	8
Benishangul gumuz	1.4[0.417-3.123]	306	4
SNNPR	1.1[0.847-1.403]	5,457	60
Gambella	6.7[3.511-12.60]	127	9
Harari	3.0[0.421-8.014]	80	2
Addis Ababa	5.2[4.138-6.453]	1,422	74
Dire Dawa	4.0[1.639-9.533]	113	5
<b>Wealth Index</b>			
Poorest	0.4[0.245-0.593]	5,117	20
Poorer	0.5[0.333-0.710]	5,451	27
Middle	0.7[0.505-0.946]	5,572	39
Richer	1.1[0.856-1.390]	5,913	65
Richest	4.1[3.646-4.581]	6,912	283
<b>Education</b>			
Not formal education	1.1[0.925-1.293]	12,391	136
Primary	1.6[1.391-1.825]	12,837	205
Secondary and higher	2.4[1.952-2.937]	3,738	90
<b>Marital status</b>			

Never married	0.4[0.291-0.550]	9,376	38
Currently married	1.4[1.236-1.584]	17,548	246
Formerly married	6.9[5.868-8.071]	2,041	141
<b>Age groups</b>			
15-19	0.2[0.109-0.327]	6,637	13
20-24	0.7[0.498-0.966]	4,975	35
25-29	2.1[1.732-2.517]	5,148	108
30-34	2.7[2.181-3.280]	3,346	90
35-39	3.0[2.466-3.615]	3,399	102
40-44	2.0[1.488-2.658]	2,238	45
45-49	1.8[1.271-2.434]	2,019	36
50+	0.7[0.309-1.259]	1,203	8
<b>Number of life time sexual partners</b>			
Single	0.9[0.751-1.077]	13,063	118
Multiple	3.7[3.297-4.147]	7,612	282
<b>Ever alcohol drinking</b>			
No	1.0[0.847-1.168]	14,727	147
Yes	2.0[1.782-2.243]	14,229	285
<b>Comprehensive knowledge on HIV</b>			
No	1.5[1.363-1.651]	27,505	413
Yes	0.3[0.049-0.974]	676	2
<b>Exposure to mass media</b>			
No	1.0[0.786-1.242]	7,341	73
Yes	1.7[1.532-1.878]	21,495	365
<b>Occupational status</b>			
Not working including house wives	1.3[1.056-1.580]	7,240	94
Corporate and general managers	1.2[0.058-5.537]	87	1
Teaching and associate professions	2.0[1.056-3.659]	483	10
Health and life science workers	2.4[0.635-6.598]	121	3
Construction and engineering workers	2.9[0.098-9.291]	51	1
Front line service workers	4.1[2.728-5.813]	640	26
Sales workers	2.7[2.223-3.238]	3,932	106
Agricultural workers	0.5[0.369-0.651]	9,692	48
Daily laborers	0.7[0.485-0.991]	4,258	30
Merchants	5.4[4.412-6.477]	1,842	99
Mobile workers including drivers, operators and assemblers	5.7[2.941-9.403]	199	11
Other occupations*	0.1[0.025-2.478]	197	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1.5[1.353-1.633]</b>	<b>28,964</b>	<b>431</b>

\*Students, armed, legal, higher officials and ill people

### Geographic clusters of HIV prevalence in Ethiopia:

As shown on **Figure 1**, the prevalence of HIV reaches up to 10-21% in certain geographic clusters particularly in Central, Eastern and Western part of the country. There are also some clusters with a prevalence of HIV from 4-9% in parts of Ethiopia. Most geographic coverages of the country have had an HIV prevalence rate of less than 4.5%. There were no EDHS clusters (enumeration areas) included in the peripheral areas of the country, particularly in eastern parts of Somali region and as a result the HIV prevalence could not be estimated.

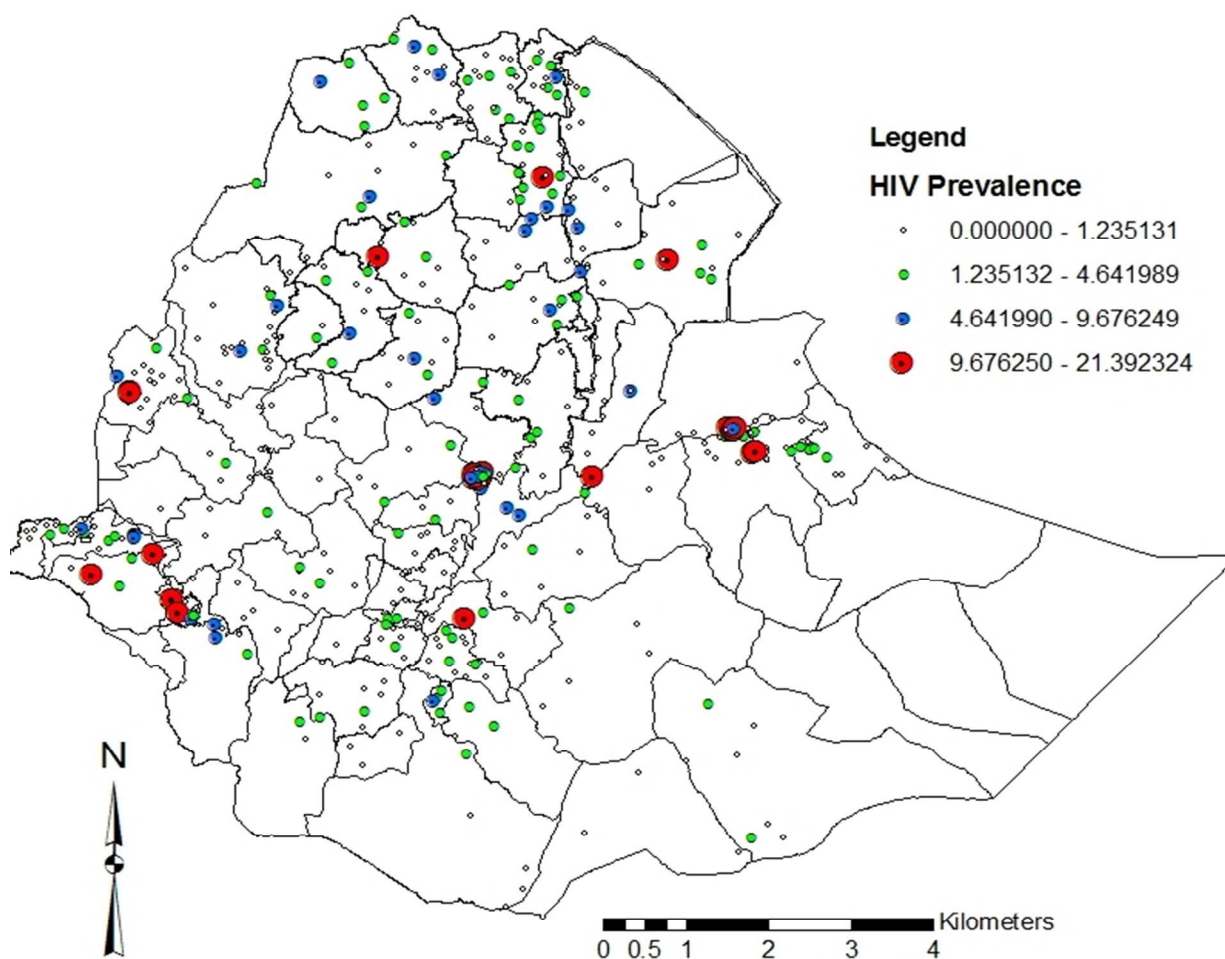


Fig 1: Map to show the prevalence of HIV in EDHS cluster areas in Ethiopian Zones, 2011

As indicated in **Table 2** and **Fig 2**, six clusters were identified during SaTScan analysis. However, only cluster 1 and 2 were statistically significant hotspots with p-value at 0.000 and 0.003, respectively. In the first cluster, a total of 164 EDHS enumeration locations were circled

with 258 km radius. This hotspot covered a total of 24 administrative zones from Oromiya, Amhara, Tigray, Afar and Somali regions including Addis Ababa. A total of 252 cases were observed with relative risk of 2.6 and log likelihood ratio (LLR) of 48 even if 153 cases were expected. In the second hotspot, only one EDHS enumeration location in Oromiya region of West Arsi zone was circled with 8.7 relative risk and 11.9 LLR.

**Table 2: Statistical summaries from SaTScan clustering analysis in Ethiopian administrative regions and zones, 2011**

Clusters	Regions/Zones in the cluster	Radius	LLR	P-value	RR	Observed	Expected
Cluster 1	Addis Ababa, Oromiya*, Amhara^, Tigray <sup>§</sup> , Afar <sup>@</sup> and Somali <sup>#</sup>	258	48.0	0.000	2.6	252	153
Cluster 2	Oromiya–West Arsi zone	0	11.9	0.003	8.7	9	1
Cluster 3	Gambella–Agnuak and Majanger zones SNNPR–Sheka, Bench maji and Keffa zones	49	6.0	0.413	3.1	13	4
Cluster 4	SNNPR – Gedio zone	0	4.9	0.719	4.3	7	2
Cluster 5	SNNPR – KT zone	0	3.7	0.975	3.1	8	3
Cluster 6	Oromiya – Borena zone	0	3.1	0.996	3.0	7	2

\*East Shewa, West Shewa, South West Shewa, North Shewa, Oromiya Special Zone, HoroGuduru, Parts of East Wolega, parts of West Hararge zones

^North Shewa Special zone, South Wollo, East Gojam, West Gojam, South Gondar, Eastern parts of North Gondar, Wag Himira and AwiAgew zones

<sup>§</sup> South Tigray zone

<sup>@</sup> Zone 1, Zone 2 and Zone 3

<sup>#</sup> Site Zone

LLR=Log Likelihood ratio, OR=Odds ratio, RR=relative risk, Radius is in kilometer



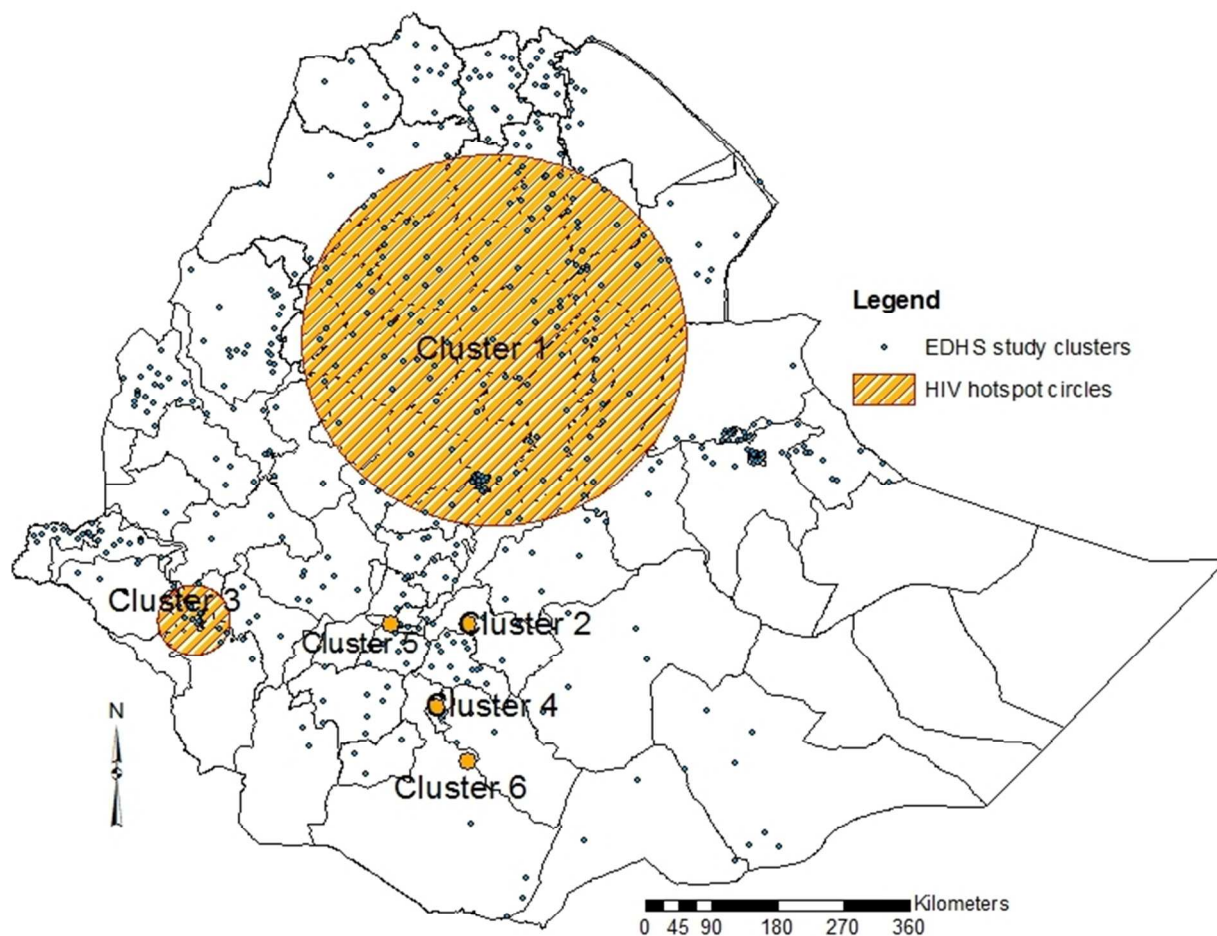


Fig 2: HIV hotspot clusters identified at zonal level using SaTScan spatial analysis tool, in Ethiopia 2011

### Factors associated with HIV infection:

During bivariate analysis, ever use of khat and migration status had no statistically significant association with HIV based on the cutoff point  $p$ -value  $<0.25$ . Variables including exposure to mass media, ever use of alcohol and comprehensive knowledge on HIV were associated with HIV in the bivariate analysis; however; they were not found to be statistically significant in the final multivariate analysis. No variables were found to exceed to VIF value of 10 in the multicollinearity test

As shown in **Table 3 and Fig 3**, those individuals who were in the middle, richer and richest wealth quintiles had [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.004-2.991)], [AOR=2.3; 95% CI: (1.372-3.895)] and [AOR=4.1; 95% CI: (2.284-7.390)] higher odds of having HIV as compared to the poorest wealth quintile. The odds of having HIV were higher among urban residents [AOR=1.8; 95% CI:

(1.236-2.661)] as compared to their rural counter parts. Compared to Tigray regional state, the odds of having HIV were [AOR=4.1; 95% CI: (1.703-9.875)] higher in Gambella region. Those individuals who were formerly married had [AOR=4.2; 95% CI: (2.476-7.158)] odds as compared to never married individuals. Similarly, those individuals who had primary education and secondary and higher education were [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.321-2.262)] and [AOR=1.6; 95% CI: (1.113-2.362)] more likely to have HIV infection as compared to those who have no formal education.

Those Islamic religion followers had [AOR=0.58; 95% CI: (0.412-0.829)] less likely to have HIV infection as compared to Christian religions followers. The odds of having HIV infection was [AOR=3.4; 95% CI (2.642-4.284)] higher among adults who had multiple lifetime sexual partners than individuals with only one partner lifetime partner. Compared to adults in the age group 45-49 years, those adults in the age group 15-19 years had [AOR=0.12; 95% CI:(0.023-0.655)] less odds of having HIV infection. However, adults in the age group 25-29 years, 30-34 years and 35-39 years [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.146-2.515)], [AOR=2.0;95% CI: (1.316-2.908)] and [AOR=2.1; 95% CI: (1.406-3.069)] were more likely to have HIV infection, respectively, as compared to adults in the age group 45-49 years.

Among the occupational categories, daily laborers had statistically significant lower odds of having HIV infection [AOR=0.55; 95% CI: (0.348-0.874)] as compared to non-working individuals. However, merchants had [AOR=1.8; 95% CI: (1.302-2.427)] higher odds of having HIV infection as compared to those adults who were not-working. The odds of having HIV infection among females [AOR=1.9; 95% CI: (1.444-2.632)] were higher as compared to male counter parts as depicted in **Table 3 and Fig 3**. The vertical line in **Figure 3** represents odds ratio of 1. Variables with odds ratio on this reference line have no association with HIV. Variables with odds ratio above the reference line have a higher odds of acquiring HIV whereas variables with odds ratio below the reference line have lower odds of having HIV infection (**Fig3**).

**Table 3: Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression analysis to identify factors associated with HIV infection among adult population in Ethiopia, 2011**

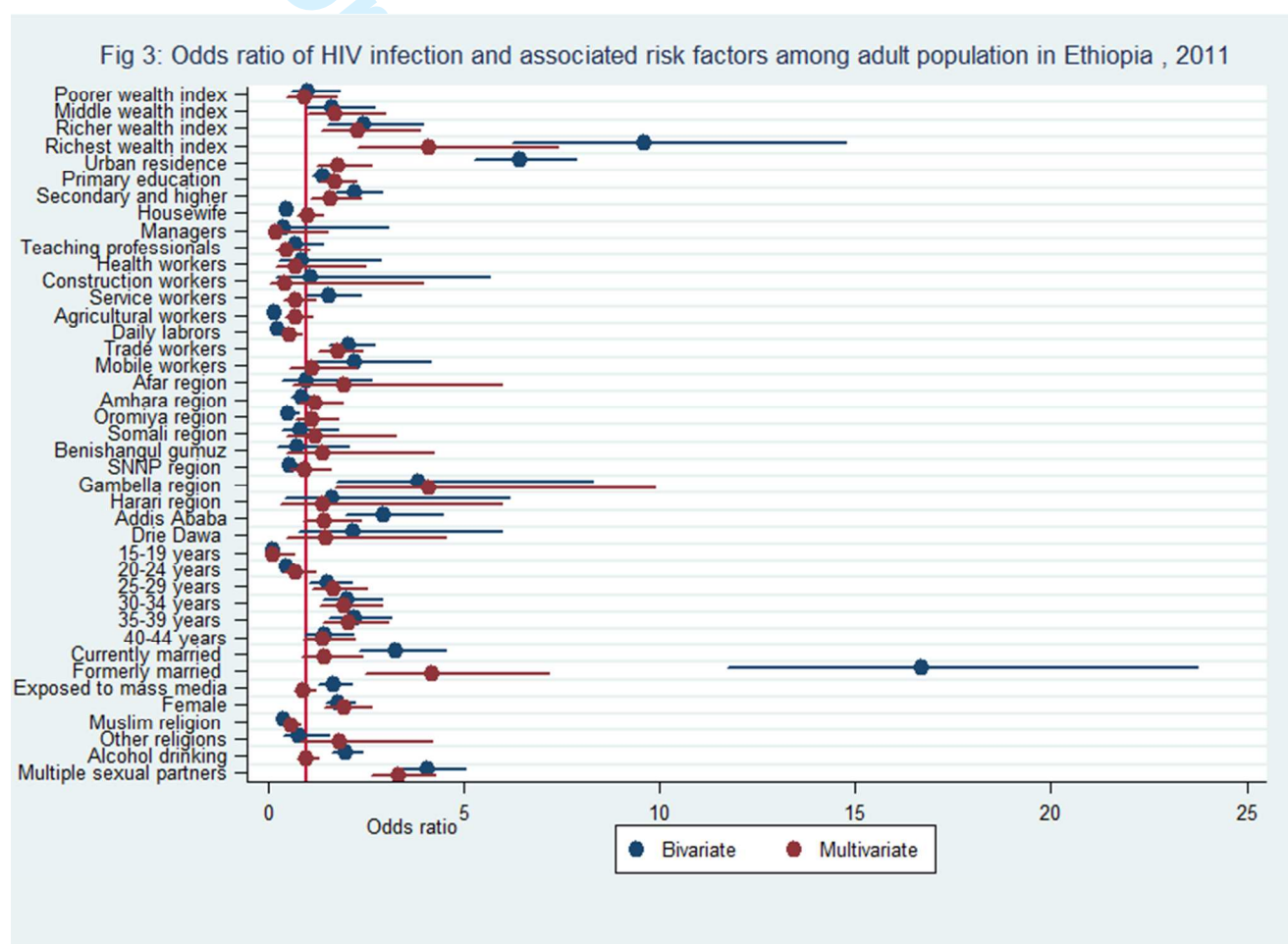
Independent risk factors	Crude OR with 95%CI	AOR with 95%CI
<b>Wealth Index</b>		
Poorest	1.00	1.00
Poorer	1.0[0.584-1.828]	.93[0.500-1.748]



Middle	1.6[0.968-2.722]	1.7[1.004-2.991]*
Richer	2.4[1.513-3.958]**	2.3[1.372-3.895]*
Richest	9.6[6.228-14.704]**	4.1[2.284-7.390]**
<b>Residence</b>		
Rural	1.00	1.00
Urban	6.4[5.277-7.834]**	1.8[1.236-2.661]*
<b>Administrative regions</b>		
Tigray	1.00	1.00
Afar	0.98[0.359-2.662]	2.0[0.635-5.993]
Amhara	0.87[0.596-1.271]	1.2[0.797-1.906]
Oromiya	0.54[0.365-0.787]*	1.1[0.726-1.781]
Somali	0.83[0.382-1.821]	1.2[0.466-3.275]
Benishangul gumuz	0.74[0.269-2.061]	1.4[0.470-4.238]
SNNPR	0.57[0.374-0.872]*	.95[0.572-1.591]
Gambella	3.8[1.779-8.330]*	4.1[1.703-9.875]*
Harari	1.6[0.431-6.185]	1.4[0.334-5.971]
Addis Ababa	2.9[1.960-4.432]**	1.5[0.900-2.360]
Dire Dawa	2.2[0.816-6.036]	1.5[0.498-4.551]
<b>Marital status</b>		
Not married	1.00	1.00
Currently married	3.3[2.365-4.583]**	1.5[0.881-2.403]
Formerly married	16.9[11.935-24.070]**	4.2[2.476-7.158]**
<b>Education</b>		
No formal education	1.00	1.00
Primary education	1.4[1.121-1.729]*	1.7[1.321-2.262]**
Secondary and higher	2.2[1.675-2.851]**	1.6[1.113-2.362]*
<b>Religion</b>		
Christian	1.00	1.00
Muslim	0.39[0.293-0.510]**	0.58[0.412-0.829]*
Others including traditional religions	0.80[0.403-1.579]	1.9[0.820-4.194]
<b>Life time sexual partners</b>		
One	1.00	1.00
Multiple	4.1[3.296-5.056]**	3.4[2.642-4.284]**
<b>Age group</b>		
15-19	0.13[0.067-0.243]**	.12[0.023-0.655]*
20-24	0.49[0.314-0.771]*	.71[0.420-1.199]
25-29	1.5[1.060-2.150]*	1.7[1.146-2.515]*
30-34	2.0[1.407-2.903]**	2.0[1.316-2.908]*
35-39	2.2[1.554-3.168]**	2.1[1.406-3.069]**
40-44	1.4[0.943-2.188]	1.4[0.894-2.214]
45-49	1.00	1.00
<b>Occupation</b>		
Not working	1.00	1.00
Corporate and general managers	0.88[0.121-6.415]	1.0[0.757-1.427]
Teaching and associate professions	1.5[0.777-2.986]	.20[0.027-1.532]

Health and life science workers	1.9[0.567-6.045]	.48[0.218-1.058]
Construction and engineering workers	2.3[0.437-11.814]	.73[0.213-2.493]
Front line service workers	3.2[2.081-5.022]**	.44[0.050-3.950]
Sales workers	2.1[1.579-2.766]**	.71[0.415-1.200]
Agricultural workers	0.36[0.257-0.519]**	.71[0.448-1.126]
Daily laborers	0.54[0.359-0.817]**	.55[0.348-0.874]*
Merchants	4.3[3.220-5.715]**	1.8[1.302-2.427]**
Mobile workers including drivers and operators	4.6[2.464-8.686]**	1.1[0.560-2.275]
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	1.00	1.00
Female	1.8[1.493-2.243]**	1.9[1.444-2.632]**

\*p<0.0001, \*\*p<0.00001



## Discussion

This study found remarkable geographic and subpopulation variations that were not readily apparent judging by low national HIV prevalence in Ethiopia. Evidence also showed that there

1  
2  
3 are other countries with high HIV micro-level epidemics hidden by low national prevalence  
4 levels [11, 14, 16]. The presence of micro-level epidemics in certain localities could cause an  
5 emergence or reemergence of the epidemic at the national level.  
6  
7

8  
9  
10 The highest prevalence of HIV found in the Ethiopian Gambella administrative region could be  
11 attributed by higher prevalence of traditional practices such as polygamy and levirate  
12 marriage[23]. The other justification could be that this region is one of the regions where male  
13 circumcision is least practiced. Male circumcision has proved as protective effect on HIV  
14 infection[24, 25]. The next highest prevalence was found in Addis Ababa. This might be due to  
15 the fact that the city contains a relatively larger segment of commercial sexual workers in  
16 Ethiopia. There are also various types of 'hidden commercial sex workers' reported in Addis  
17 Ababa[26]. Furthermore, Addis Ababa is a rapidly growing city that attracts various tourists in  
18 turn pave the way to HIV epidemic. The practices of trans-generational and transactional sex are  
19 very common in Dukem and Bushoftu towns which are found around Addis Ababa. The majority  
20 of the clients for these two towns were from Addis Ababa[27]. Dire Dawa administrative city has  
21 also high prevalence of HIV which could be attributed by the fact that the town has been serving  
22 as a rest center for truck drivers from Djibouti port to Addis Ababa who would find sex workers  
23  
24

25  
26  
27 This study also revealed that there are certain occupational groups which had a high prevalence  
28 of HIV. The prevalence of HIV infection reaches up to 5.7% in mobile workers (drivers and  
29 mechanics operators). A significantly higher prevalence of HIV was also found among service  
30 workers, trade workers, construction and engineering workers. CDC defined MARPs as those  
31 groups that have higher than average HIV prevalence when compared to the general  
32 population[28]. According to CDC definition of Most-at-risk populations (MARPs) those  
33 occupation groups might be additional MARPs in addition to the previously described  
34 populations, at least in Ethiopia.  
35  
36

37  
38  
39 Those individuals who were in the wealthier category had higher odds of having HIV infection  
40 compared to the poorest category. Similar findings were reported from the decomposition  
41 analysis from sub-Saharan African countries[18]. Other studies from developing countries also  
42 showed that HIV is more prevalent in wealthier groups [19, 29-32]. A recent meta-analysis study  
43 revealed that risky sexual behaviour is associated with high economic status[33]. A study in  
44 Addis Ababa among taxi drivers and assistants also found income as one of the factors  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 associated with HIV risk behaviours[34]. The odds of having HIV infection was 80% higher  
4 among urban residents compared to their rural counter parts. This could be explained by the  
5 presence of large numbers of MARPS in urban than rural areas. Urban residency was also  
6 associated with risky sexual behaviour in developing countries[33].  
7  
8  
9

10  
11 The present study found higher odds of HIV infection among educated adults. Similarly, a  
12 systemic review studies showed that high HIV prevalence was found among highly educated  
13 groups than less educated groups [31, 35]. Educated groups had more sexual partners, non-  
14 marital sexual partners and the likelihood of premarital sex than less educated groups which are  
15 associated with HIV infection [32, 33, 36, 37]. As expected, this study also found that those  
16 individuals who had multiple sexual partners had higher odds of HIV infection as compared to  
17 individuals who had single lifetime sexual partners.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 Formerly married adults had higher odds of having HIV infection as compared to non-married  
26 individuals. A similar finding was reported from many studies [38-41]. Those formerly married  
27 adults might engage in risky sexual behaviours[42, 43]. Divorced adults had higher risks of  
28 heavy alcohol consumption[44] and the drinking could result in HIV infection. Furthermore,  
29 divorced and widowhood women usually suffer from economic challenges that can explain to  
30 have risky sexual acts.  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

36  
37 Females had also higher odds of having HIV infection as compared to males. This could be  
38 attributed by the biological disadvantage on the reproductive anatomy. Women are at a greater  
39 physiological risk of contracting HIV than men because of fluid receptors. This is in part because  
40 women have a greater mucosal surface area exposed to pathogens and infectious fluid for longer  
41 periods during sexual intercourse and are likely to experience increased tissue injury[20]. The  
42 other explanation could be sex for money. Many women also engaged in sex work in exchange  
43 for money, goods, or other benefits[45].  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48

### 49 **Public health implications**

50  
51 This study supports the hypothesis that risk factors for HIV are associated with certain specific  
52 socio-economic and demographic characteristics, which could be targeted to improve existing  
53 public health prevention measures in the general population. In the absence of studies attempted  
54 to quantify HIV infection and its spatial variation, the present study provides useful information.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

There is evidence that the micro-epidemics started as localized in certain geographical location and subpopulation groups. Low national prevalence of HIV infection hides these localized epidemics. Trade, front line service and mobile workers had high prevalence rates of HIV infection and need to be considered as the key population for HIV. This study showed that the most productive age group is at risk for HIV infection which has its own development implication. HIV has been assumed as a disease of poor and non-educated people. This was the scenario which happened during the early stages of HIV epidemic. However, in Ethiopia wealthier groups had higher odds of having HIV infection. Therefore, monitoring the epidemics of HIV in accordance with population segmentation and localized intervention programs are paramount importance rather to depend on the national prevalence.

### Conclusion

In Ethiopia, the prevalence of HIV was not randomly nor uniformly distributed and the epidemic has concentrated in geographic areas of 25 administrative zones in Oromiya, Amhara, Tigray, Afar and Somali regions. The study found statistically significant HIV risk differences in certain population segments by education, age, residence, occupation, wealth index and gender. In fact, further work needs to be devoted to understand the mechanisms by which HIV/AIDS is concentrated among merchants, educated groups, females, wealthier individuals and urban residents, particularly focusing on regional and zonal geographic borders within the hotspot areas of this study. This study recommends the need to have spatial based prevention strategies for specific population groups. Voluntary male circumcision might be considerable intervention in Gambella administrative regional where male circumcision is not widely practiced.

### Conflict of interest

We declare that have no conflict of interest

### Author's contributions

YL and DH conceptualized the study, performed the data analysis, made interpretations and drafted the manuscript. SB edited, interpreted the data and critically reviewed the manuscript. All authors read the manuscript and approved the final version.

### Acknowledgment

Authors acknowledge Measure DHS for granting the data freely.

**Funding:** No any funding source



## References

1. FHAPCO: *Report on progress towards implementation of the UN Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS*, FHAPCO. In.; 2010.
2. UNAIDS: GLOBAL REPORT: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic 2013: Available at: [http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2013/gr2013/UNAIDS\\_Global\\_Report\\_2013\\_en.pdf](http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2013/gr2013/UNAIDS_Global_Report_2013_en.pdf). 2013.
3. FMOH: Report on progress towards implementation of the UN Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS: available at [http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2010/ethiopia\\_2010\\_country\\_progress\\_report\\_en.pdf](http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2010/ethiopia_2010_country_progress_report_en.pdf). 2010.
4. Tadesse Z: Pediatric HAART updates in Ethiopia : Available at <http://epseth.org/a/files/Pediatric%20HAART%20updates-%20Zelalem.pdf>. 2014.
5. *Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia: Country Progress Report on HIV/AIDS response*. In.; 2012.
6. UNAIDS: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic Geneva: UNAIDS. In.; 2012.
7. DeCock KM, Jaffe HW, Curran JW: The evolving epidemiology of HIV/AIDS. *AIDS* 2012;; 26:1205- 1213.
8. Asamoah-Odei E, Calleja JG, Boerma J: HIV prevalence and trends in sub-Saharan Africa: no decline and large subregional differences. *Lancet* 2004, 364:35 - 40.
9. Shaikh N, Abdullah F, Lombard CJ, et al.: Masking through averages: intra-provincial heterogeneity in HIV prevalence within the Western Cape. *S Afr Med J* 2006, 96.:538 – 543.
10. Wand H, Whitaker C, Ramjee G: Geoadditive models to assess spatial variation of HIV infections among women in local communities of Durban, South Africa *Int J Health Geogr* 2011, 10:28.
11. Cuadros DF, Awad SF, Abu-Raddad LJ: Mapping HIV clustering: a strategy for identifying populations at high risk of HIV infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Health Geographics* 2013, 12:28.
12. Wilson D, Halperin DT: Know your epidemic, know your response: a useful approach, if we get it right. *Lancet* 2008, 372:423–426.
13. Sam D: Challenges of Containing New HIV Infections in Ethiopia: Unacknowledged Transmission Route. *Capstone Collection* 2013, Paper 2610.
14. Tanser F, Oliveira Td, Maheu-Giroux M, Barnighausen T: Concentrated HIV subepidemics in generalized epidemic settings. *current opinion* 2014, 9.
15. Amar-Roze JM: Geographic inequalities in HIV infection and AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa. *Soc Sci Med* 1999, 36(10):1247-1256.
16. Wand H, Ramjee G: Targeting the hotspots: investigating spatial and demographic variations in HIV infection in small communities in South Africa. *Journal of the International AIDS Society* 2010, 13:41.
17. Central Statistical Agency (CSA)Ethiopia: Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2011. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton, Maryland, USA: CSA and ORC Macro. 2012.
18. Hajizadeh M, Heymann DSS, Nandi A: Socioeconomic inequalities in HIV/AIDS prevalence in sub-Saharan African countries: evidence from the Demographic Health Surveys. *International Journal for Equity in Health* 2014, 13:18.

19. Mishra V, Assche SB, Greener R, Vaessen M, Hong R, Ghys PD, Boerma JT, Assche AV, Khan S, Rutstein S: HIV infection does not disproportionately affect the poorer in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS* 2007, 21(7):S17-28.
20. Ramjee G, Daniels B: Women and HIV in Sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS Research and Therapy* 2013, 10:30.
21. Kulldorf M: SaTScan 7.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics: Information Management Services Inc. In.; 2006.
22. Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S: Applied logistic regression. New York: John Wiley. 2000.
23. Molla A, Gelaw B, Addis Z, Gelaw A: Marriage Patterns and Sero-prevalence of HIV Infection at Gambella Administrative Region, Southwest Ethiopia. *Journal of Behavioral Health* 2013, 2(3):223-229.
24. Halperin DT, Bailey RC: Male circumcision and HIV infection: ten years and counting. *The Lancet* 1999, 354:1813-1815.
25. Szabo R, Short RV: How does male circumcision protect against HIV infection? *BMJ* 2000, 320:1592.
26. Family Health International -Ethiopia: Mapping and census of female sex workers in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Available at [http://www.who.int/hiv/topics/vct/sw\\_toolkit/mapping\\_census\\_female\\_sex\\_workers\\_ethiopia.pdf](http://www.who.int/hiv/topics/vct/sw_toolkit/mapping_census_female_sex_workers_ethiopia.pdf). 2002.
27. Melkamu Y: Identifying At Risk Populations and HIV/AIDS Referral Services: Baseline Assessment for Mobile Counseling and Testing Program in the Oromiya Region of Ethiopia. Bethesda, MD: Private Sector Program (PSP)-Ethiopia project, Abt Associates Inc. . 2007.
28. CDC: Developing New Strategies to Prevent the Spread of HIV. Available at : [http://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/countries/southafrica/what/at\\_risk.htm](http://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/countries/southafrica/what/at_risk.htm). In.
29. Parkhurst JO: Understanding the correlations between wealth, poverty and human immunodeficiency virus infection in African countries. *Bull World Health Organ* 2010, 88:519-526.
30. Awusabo-Asare K, Ananim SK: Wealth status and risky sexual behaviour in Ghana and Kenya. *Appl Health Econ Health Policy* 2008, 6(1):27-39.
31. Berhan Y, Berhan A: Meta-analysis on risky sexual behaviour of men: consistent findings from different parts of the world. *AIDS Care* 2013, 25(2):151-159.
32. Berhan A, Berhan Y: A Meta-Analysis on Higher-Risk Sexual Behavior of Women in 28 Third World Countries *World Journal of AIDS* 2012, 2:78-88.
33. Berhan Y, Berhan A: A Meta-Analysis of Risky Sexual Behaviour among Male Youth in Developing Countries. *AIDS Research and Treatment* 2015, Article ID 580961:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2015/58096>.
34. Lakew Y, Tamene H: HIV related risk behaviours among taxi drivers and their assistants in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: descriptive cross-sectional survey. *BMC Public Health* 2014, 14:330.
35. Hargreaves JR, Bonell CP, Boler T, Boccia D, Birdthistle I, Fletcher A, Pronyk PM, Glynn JR: Systematic review exploring time trends in the association between educational attainment and risk of HIV infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS* 2008, 22:403-414.
36. Hargreaves JR, Glynn JR: Educational attainment and HIV-1 infection in developing countries: a systematic review. *Trop Med Int Health* 2002, 7:489-498.



- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
37. Fortson JG: The gradient in sub-Saharan Africa: socioeconomic status and HIV/AIDS. *Demography* 2008, 45(2):303–322.
  38. Kimani JK, Ettarh R, Ziraba AK, Yatch N: Marital status and risk of HIV infection in slum settlements of Nairobi, Kenya: results from a cross-sectional survey. *Afr J Reprod Health* 2013, 17(1):103-113.
  39. Tenkorang EY: Marriage, widowhood, divorce and HIV risks among women in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Health* 2014, 6(1):46-53.
  40. Mermin J, Musinguzi J, Opio A, Kirungi W, Ekwaru JP, Hladik W, Kaharuza F, Downing R, Bunnell R: Risk Factors for Recent HIV Infection in Uganda. *JAMA* 300, 300(5):540-549.
  41. Hazarika I: Risk factors for HIV-1 infection in India: evidence from the National Family Health Survey. *Int J STD AIDS* 2012, 23:729-735.
  42. Kassa M, Tesfaye E, Alamrew Z: Risky Sexual Behaviour among Big Construction Enterprise Workers; Bahir Dar City, Amhara Regional State, Northwest Ethiopia. *International Journal of Clinical Medicine* 2013, 4:296-303.
  43. Tadesse G, Yakob B: Risky Sexual Behaviors among Female Youth in Tiss Abay, a Semi-Urban Area of the Amhara Region, Ethiopia. *PLoS ONE* 2015, 10(3):e0119050.
  44. Power C, Rodgers B, Hope S: Heavy alcohol consumption and marital status: disentangling the relationship in a national study of young adults. *Addiction* 1999, 94(10):1477-1487.
  45. Vandepitte J, Lyerla R, Dallabetta G, Crabbe F, Alary M, Buve A: Estimates of the number of female sex workers in different regions of the world. *Sex Transm Infect* 2006, 82:18-25.

# BMJ Open

## Social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia: Evidence from national Demographic and Health Survey in 2011

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID:	bmjopen-2015-008669.R1
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	14-Aug-2015
Complete List of Authors:	Tarekegn, Yihunie; Ethiopian Public Health Association, Project management CB, Susan; University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, School of Nursing, Houston, Texas, USA Haile, Demewoz; Bahir Dar University, Reproductive Health
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b>:	HIV/AIDS
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Evidence based practice, Health informatics
Keywords:	Reproductive medicine < GYNAECOLOGY, Epidemiology < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, HIV & AIDS < INFECTIOUS DISEASES

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

# Social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia: Evidence from national Demographic and Health Survey in 2011

Yihunie Lakew<sup>1\*</sup>, Susan Benedict<sup>2</sup>, Demewoz Haile<sup>3</sup>

---

## Affiliation

<sup>1</sup>Ethiopian Public Health Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

<sup>2</sup>The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, School of Nursing, Houston, Texas, USA

<sup>3</sup>Department of Reproductive Health, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, Bahir Dar University, Ethiopia

## Email address

Yihunie Lakew – yihunierh@yahoo.com

Demewoz Haile–demewozhaile@yahoo.com

Susan Benedict – [Susan.C.Benedict@uth.tmc.edu](mailto:Susan.C.Benedict@uth.tmc.edu)

\* Corresponding author

Yihunie Lakew

Ethiopian Public Health Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

P.Box

Cell phone +251913109860

## Abstract

**Objective:** This study identifies social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas and sub-population groups in Ethiopia.

**Design:** The study used data from the 2011 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS). Sample blood tests from the finger pricks collected on filter paper cards were labeled with a barcode unique to each respondent. Spatial scan statistics and geographic information system tools were used to map hotspot areas of HIV prevalence. Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression models were used to identify social determinants of HIV infection.

**Population:** A total of 30,625 adults (16,515 women and 14,110 men) were included from 11 administrative states of Ethiopia.

**Main outcome measures:** Laboratory-confirmed HIV sero-status is the main outcome variable.

**Results:** HIV prevalence reached 10-21% in the central, eastern and western geographic clusters of Ethiopia. Multivariable analysis showed that individuals who were in the middle, richer and richest wealth quintiles had increased odds of having HIV over those in the poorest quintile. Adults who had primary, secondary and higher educational levels had higher odds of being HIV positive than non-educated individuals. The odds of having HIV was higher among adults who had multiple lifetime sexual partners than those with a single partner. An increasing odds of HIV was observed among adults in the age group 25-29, 30-34, 35-39 and 40-45 years compared to age group 45-49 years. Merchants had higher odds of being HIV positive than those who were not employed. The odds of having HIV was higher among urban residents and females than among rural residents and males, respectively.

**Conclusion:** This study found statistically significant HIV concentrations in administrative zones of central, eastern and western Ethiopia. Geo-spatial monitoring and targeting of prevention strategies for specific population groups is recommended.

**Key words:** Hotspot, social determinants, HIV, Ethiopia

### Strength and limitations of the study

- One of the strengths of this study is the use of a nationwide laboratory-confirmed HIV sero-status data. Therefore, the study findings can be used to inform policy and program actors at sub-national and regional levels.
- However, the study has certain limitations. Some regions and EDHS clusters had small sample sizes, which raises the question about the accuracy of prevalence estimates per region, so that those should be interpreted with caution. Because the study was a secondary data analysis, it lacks other important social determinant variables which could be associated with risk of HIV infection.
- This study also shares the limitation of the cross-sectional study design which prohibits confirmation of cause and effect relationships.

## Introduction

HIV/AIDS has been documented as one of the major public health challenges in the world<sup>1</sup>. Globally, there were approximately 35.0 million people living with HIV at the end of 2013 with 2.1 million people newly infected. The sub-Saharan region of Africa is the most affected in the world with 24.7 million people living with HIV in 2013<sup>2</sup>. This region accounts for almost 70% of the global total of new HIV infections despite of having only a 13% share of the world's population<sup>2</sup>. Ethiopia is one of the sub-Sahara African countries shared the burden of HIV epidemics<sup>3</sup>. There were totally 759,268 people living with HIV and 80,000 HIV-infected children in Ethiopia in the year 2012<sup>4</sup>. The national HIV prevalence among adults in Ethiopia has declined from 4.5% between 1998-1999<sup>1</sup> to 1.5% in 2011<sup>5</sup>, which is an encouraging achievement for the country.

Although estimates suggest that the rate of new HIV infection is declining in many African settings<sup>2</sup>, the HIV incidence remains unacceptably high with striking sub-population and geographic differences<sup>6</sup>. The HIV epidemic has been showing remarkable variations across population subgroups<sup>7</sup>, regions and countries<sup>6,8</sup>, at the sub-national level between provinces<sup>9</sup> and within sub-districts<sup>10</sup>. The geographical structure of HIV epidemic is the consequence of drivers of the epidemic and the availability of susceptible population to the infection<sup>11</sup>. Strongest clustering has been observed in countries with a low national prevalence of HIV infection<sup>11</sup>. The “know your epidemic” concept recognizes this geographical feature as a key strategy in identifying populations at higher risk of HIV infection and in which prevention interventions should be targeted<sup>12</sup>.

The HIV/AIDS epidemic in Ethiopia is often classified as “generalized” among the adult population with significant heterogeneity among regions and population groups<sup>13</sup>. The rural epidemic appears to be relatively widespread but heterogeneous with most rural areas having a relatively low prevalence of HIV infection<sup>13</sup>. In many African countries including Ethiopia, the concept of concentrated sub-epidemics within a generalized epidemic context has been relatively neglected topic to date<sup>14</sup>. Mapping hotspot areas, identifying social determinants and affected population groups, especially in resource limited settings, would assist in targeting and prioritizing interventions<sup>15</sup>. The hotspot areas would be further examined for unobserved or

1  
2  
3 unknown risk factors which are driving the HIV epidemic. Monitoring a localized epidemic is,  
4 therefore, essential for more effective prevention strategies<sup>16</sup> in Ethiopia even though adult HIV  
5 prevalence has declined at the national level. Little information is available about the sub-  
6 geographic areas and certain sub-population groups in the country. We hypothesize that low  
7 national prevalence of HIV infection hides the localized epidemics in Ethiopia. Therefore, this  
8 study aimed to identify social determinants of HIV infection, hotspot areas, and sub-population  
9 groups to effectively target interventions in the country which has limited resources available.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17

## 18 **Methods and materials**

### 19 **Data type and study design:**

20 This analysis used data from the 2011 Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS). The  
21 survey followed an international DHS methodology and is conducted at five years interval. The  
22 EDHS was designed to provide population and health indicators at the national (urban and rural)  
23 and regional levels. The 2011 EDHS samples were selected using a stratified and two-stage  
24 cluster sampling design. The survey included 624 samples of enumeration areas (clusters), of  
25 which 187 were in urban areas and 437 were in rural areas. A representative sample of 16,702  
26 households were interviewed in all 11 administrative regions and 85 zones. Of these, 11,590  
27 households interviewed were from rural areas. A total of 30,625 adults between 15-59 years of  
28 age were included, among which 16,515 respondents were women. Overall, 86% of respondents  
29 who were eligible for testing were interviewed and consented to HIV testing. Four percent of  
30 respondents were refused to be tested for HIV and did not provide blood sample. The response  
31 rates for HIV testing were 89% for women and 82% for men. The detailed methodology is found  
32 elsewhere<sup>17</sup>.  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

### 46 **Data extraction:**

47 The 2011 EDHS datasets were downloaded in SPSS format with permission from the Measure  
48 DHS website (<http://www.dhs program.com>). After understanding the detailed datasets and  
49 coding, further data recoding was done. Social determinants and HIV prevalence indicator  
50 variables were extracted from male and female datasets. Datasets of HIV test results, socio-  
51 demographic characteristics of respondents and Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates of  
52 EDHS clusters were merged accordingly for this analysis.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



### Measurement of variables:

Sample blood tests with voluntary HIV counseling were done to provide HIV data for the 2011 EDHS. Five blood spots from the finger pricks were collected on a filter paper card labeled with a barcode unique to each respondent. The detailed procedures can be accessed elsewhere<sup>17</sup>. The barcodes identifying the HIV test results were linked with individual respondent datasets.

Based on the literature review<sup>16 18-20</sup> and data in the 2011 EDHS, social determinant variables were identified. For this study, the term “social determinants” encompass the socio-economic, cultural, residence and lifestyle conditions of people that may predispose to HIV infection. The chosen variables to potentially associate with HIV were wealth index, age, occupation, comprehensive knowledge of HIV, use of alcohol or khat, migration, religion, location of residence including administrative region, education, mass media exposure including reading newspaper, listening to radio and television, gender, total number of lifetime sexual partners and marital status. These variables were selected that guided by literature review<sup>19 21-24</sup>.

### Statistical analysis:

The spatial scan statistics (SaTScan) software (version 9.1, [www.satscan.org](http://www.satscan.org)) was used to detect the potential clustering of HIV cases<sup>25</sup>. The basic idea of SaTScan is to allow circular windows of various sizes to range across the study areas. At each location, the rate of disease inside the window is compared with that outside of it. For a given cluster (circular window), the software calculates the probability of a data point being a case inside or outside the circle under consideration. For each circle, a likelihood ratio is computed for the alternative hypothesis that there is an increased risk of disease inside the circle, against the null hypothesis that the risk inside the circle is the same as that outside. In this context, a hotspot cluster is detected within a defined geographical area during a specific timeframe if the area has a disproportionate excess of HIV cases when compared with neighboring areas under study. While satisfying assumptions of the statistical model, an unusual high or low number of cases in specific spatial areas can be characterized by statistical significance. The sets of potential clusters are then rank ordered according to the magnitude of their likelihood ratio test statistics. The user-defined maximum radius used by SaTScan was set to its default value of 50%, as recommended by Kulldorf<sup>25</sup>. In order to investigate the sensitivity of SaTScan results to the default setting, we ran the SaTScan

1  
2  
3 spatial scan statistics 10 times, starting with a maximum size of 5% and increasing the parameter  
4 by an interval of 5% with each run until reaching the default maximum size value of 50%.  
5 Results were not affected by the choice of radius selected; we therefore used the default value of  
6 50% in our analysis.  
7

8  
9  
10 We also used “svy” command in STATA version 11 to weight the survey data and do all types of  
11 analyses. Sample weights were applied in order to compensate for the unequal probability of  
12 selection between the strata that have been geographically defined as well as for non-responses.  
13 A detailed explanation of the weighting procedure can be found in the EDHS methodology  
14 report <sup>17</sup>. Descriptive statistics were used to determine the weighted prevalence of HIV across  
15 social determinant variables. Bivariate and multivariable logistic regressions were carried out to  
16 determine the factors associated with HIV prevalence. As recommended by Hosmer and  
17 Lemeshow, variables found to be statistically significant at p-value <0.25 during bivariate  
18 analysis could be candidates for multivariable logistic regression model<sup>26</sup>. This p-value cutoff  
19 point is important to retain variables that will have potential effects during multivariable  
20 analysis. A multi-collinearity test was done and variables with variance inflation factors (VIF) of  
21 greater than 10 were excluded from the multivariable analysis <sup>27</sup>. No variables were found to  
22 exceed the VIF value of 10 in the multicollinearity test. All tests were two-sided and a p-value  
23 <0.05 was considered statistically significant in the multivariable statistical model. Both crude  
24 and adjusted odds ratios were calculated with 95% confidence interval.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

### 39 **Ethical consideration:**

40 The original DHS data were collected in conformity with international and national ethical  
41 guidelines. Ethical clearance for the original survey was provided by the Ethiopian Public Health  
42 Institute (EPHI) Review Board, the National Research Ethics Review Committee (NRERC) at  
43 the Ministry of Science and Technology, the Institutional Review Board of ICF International and  
44 the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The data for this study were downloaded  
45 and used after the purpose of the analysis was communicated and approved by the Measure  
46 DHS.  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Results

### Characteristics of the study population:

The 2011 EDHS included a total of 30,625 adults in the age range of 15–59 years for men and 15–49 years for women. Among the respondents, 53.9% (16,515) were females. About 68.8% (21,080) respondents were from rural areas. Approximately 42% of the respondents had not attended formal education while 41% had primary level education. The proportion of Christians (Orthodox, Protestant and Catholic) was 60.7% followed by Muslims which accounted for 37.5%. The mean age of respondents was 29.0 years with a standard deviation of 10.5 years.

### HIV prevalence by socio-demographic characteristics:

The overall prevalence of HIV was 1.5% with a 1.9% [95% CI: (1.70-2.12)] prevalence rate in females and a 1.0% [95% CI: 0.84-1.18] prevalence rate in males. The prevalence of HIV in urban settings was 4.3% [95% CI: (3.81-4.81)] while in rural areas it was 0.7% [95% CI: (0.60-0.81)]. The prevalence of HIV infection was 1.8% [95% CI: (1.62-1.99)] among Christian religion followers. The prevalence of HIV infection in Gambella administrative region was 6.7% [95% CI: (3.51-12.60)] followed by administrative cities of Addis Ababa with 5.2% [95% CI: (4.14-6.45)] and Dire Dawa with 4.0% [95% CI: (1.64-9.53)]. The lowest prevalence, 1.0% [95% CI: (0.83-1.20)], was found in Oromiya region. Among the wealth quintiles, the highest prevalence of HIV infection at 4.1% [95% CI: (3.65-4.58)] was found in the richest wealth quintile. The prevalence of HIV infection among individuals who had attended secondary and higher education level was 2.4% [95% CI: (1.95-2.94)]. The prevalence of HIV infection in the age group 35-39 years was 3.0% [95% CI: (2.47-3.62)] followed by 30-34 age groups with 2.7% [95% CI: (2.18-3.28)]. About 7% [5.87-8.07] of HIV infection was observed in formerly married adults. Among the different occupational groups, the highest prevalence of HIV was found among mobile workers at 5.7% [95% CI: (2.94-9.40)] followed by merchants with 5.4% [95% CI: (4.41-6.48)]. HIV prevalence was 4.1% [95% CI: (2.73-5.81)] among frontline service workers, 2.9% [95% CI: (0.10-9.29)] among construction and engineering workers and 2.7% [95% CI: (2.22-3.24)] in sales workers (**Table 1**).

### Geographic clusters of HIV prevalence in Ethiopia:

As shown on **Figure 1**, the prevalence of HIV reaches up to 10-21% in certain geographic clusters particularly in the central, eastern and western parts of the country. There are also some clusters with a prevalence of HIV from 4-9% in northern and southwestern Ethiopia. Most geographic coverages of the country have had an HIV prevalence rate of less than 4.5%. There were no EDHS clusters (enumeration areas) included in the peripheral areas of the country, particularly in eastern parts of Somali administrative region and as a result the HIV prevalence could not be estimated in this analysis.

As indicated in **Table 2 and Fig 2**, six clusters were identified during SaTScan analysis; however, only cluster 1 and 2 were statistically significant hotspots with p-value at <0.001 and 0.003, respectively. In the first cluster, a total of 164 EDHS enumeration locations were circled within a 258 km radius. This hotspot covered a total of 24 administrative zones from Oromiya, Amhara, Tigray, Afar and Somali administrative regions including Addis Ababa. A total of 252 HIV cases were observed in this hotspot with 2.6 relative risk and 48 log likelihood ratio (LLR) that would be about 153 HIV cases expected. In the second hotspot, only one EDHS enumeration location that found in Oromiya administrative region, West Arsi zone, was circled with 8.7 relative risk and 11.9 LLR.

### Factors associated with HIV infection:

During bivariate analysis, ever use of khat and migration status had no statistically significant association with HIV based on the cutoff point p-value <0.25. Variables including exposure to mass media, ever use of alcohol, mobile workers and comprehensive knowledge of HIV were associated with HIV in the bivariate analysis; however; they were not found to be statistically significant in the multivariable logistic regression model.

As shown in the multivariable analysis of **Table 3 and Fig 3**, those individuals who were in the middle, richer and richest wealth quintiles had higher odds of having HIV compared to the poorest wealth quintile [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.00-2.99)], [AOR=2.3; 95% CI: (1.37-3.90)] and [AOR=4.1; 95% CI: (2.28-7.39)], respectively. The odds of having HIV were higher among urban residents compared to their rural counterparts [AOR=1.8; 95% CI: (1.24-2.66)]. Compared

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

to Tigray regional state, the odds of having HIV were higher in Gambella administrative region [AOR=4.1; 95% CI: (1.70-9.88)]. Those individuals who were formerly married had higher odds compared to never married individuals [AOR=4.2; 95% CI: (2.48-7.16)]. Similarly, those individuals who had attended primary education had [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.32-2.26)] and secondary and higher education had [AOR=1.6; 95% CI: (1.11-2.36)] times higher odds to have HIV infection compared to those who had no formal education.

Those Islamic religion followers had less likely to have HIV infection compared to Christian religions followers [AOR=0.58; 95% CI: (0.41-0.83)]. The odds of having HIV infection were higher among adults who had multiple lifetime sexual partners than individuals with only one lifetime partner [AOR=3.4; 95% CI (2.64-4.28)]. Compared to adults in the age group 45-49 years, those adults in the age group 15-19 years had less odds of having HIV infection [AOR=0.12; 95% CI:(0.02-0.66)]. However, adults in the age group 25-29 years, 30-34 years and 35-39 years were more likely to have HIV infection compared to adults in the age group 45-49 years [AOR=1.7; 95% CI: (1.15-2.52)], [AOR=2.0;95% CI: (1.32-2.91)] and [AOR=2.1; 95% CI: (1.42-3.07)], respectively.

Among the occupational categories, daily laborers had statistically significant lower odds of having HIV infection compared to non-working individuals [AOR=0.55; 95% CI: (0.35-0.87)]. However, merchants had higher odds of having HIV infection compared to those adults who were not-working [AOR=1.8; 95% CI: (1.30-2.43)]. The odds of having HIV infection among females were higher compared to male counterparts [AOR=1.9; 95% CI: (1.44-2.63)]. The vertical line in **Figure 3** represents odds ratio of 1. Variables with odds ratio on this reference line have no association with HIV. Variables with odds ratio above the reference line have a higher odds of acquiring HIV whereas variables with odds ratio below the reference line have lower odds of having HIV infection.

## Discussion

This study found remarkable variations of HIV prevalence in geographic and subpopulation groups in Ethiopia. The result is similar with findings in other countries that indicated micro-level epidemics hidden by low national HIV prevalence<sup>11 14 16</sup>. This suggests that the HIV

1  
2  
3 epidemic in certain localities could cause an emergence or reemergence of the epidemic if not  
4 well addressed the sub-geographic and population groups.  
5

6  
7 The highest prevalence of HIV found in Gambella administrative region which could be  
8 attributed by higher prevalence of traditional practices such as polygamy and levirate marriage<sup>28</sup>.  
9 The other explanation could be that Gambella is one of the regions in Ethiopia where male  
10 circumcision is least practiced though it has proved protective effect on HIV infection<sup>29 30</sup>. The  
11 next highest prevalence of HIV was found in Addis Ababa. This might be due to the fact that the  
12 city contains a relatively large segment of commercial sexual workers with various type<sup>31</sup>.  
13 Furthermore, Addis Ababa is a rapidly growing city that attracts various types of tourists which,  
14 in turn, may contribute to the HIV epidemic. Evidence showed that tourism has effect on  
15 addictive substance and drug use<sup>32</sup> and it is associated with higher odds of HIV infection<sup>33</sup>.  
16 Similarly, commercial sex workers target tourists for economic gain and this could transport  
17 diseases back into other communities<sup>34</sup>. Furthermore, a trans-generational and transactional  
18 sexual practices are very common in places of Dukem and Bushoftu towns which are found  
19 nearby Addis Ababa<sup>35</sup>. Dire Dawa administrative city also has a high prevalence of HIV which  
20 could be attributed by the fact that the town has been serving as a rest center for truck drivers  
21 from Djibouti port to Addis Ababa and who, along the way, frequent sex workers. This study  
22 also revealed that there are certain occupational groups which had a high prevalence of HIV. A  
23 population group that have higher than average HIV prevalence when compared to the general  
24 population is labeled as most-at-risk populations (MARPs)<sup>36</sup>. Accordingly in this study, those  
25 occupational groups including merchants, mobile workers, service workers, construction and  
26 engineering workers might be additional MARPs in addition to the previously described  
27 populations in Ethiopia.  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 The multivariable analysis found that HIV prevalence was associated with wealthier groups.  
47 There are different arguments either poverty or wealth is driving HIV transmission<sup>37</sup>. The  
48 relationship between HIV infection and wealth quintile did not show consistent trends in many  
49 other countries<sup>21</sup>. In this study, those individuals who were in the wealthier category had higher  
50 odds of having HIV infection compared to the poorest category. Similar findings were reported  
51 from the decomposition analysis from sub-Saharan African countries<sup>18</sup>. Other studies from  
52 developing countries also showed that HIV is more prevalent in wealthier groups<sup>19 21 38-40</sup>. A  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 recent meta-analysis study revealed that risky sexual behaviour is associated with high economic  
4 status<sup>41</sup>. A study in Addis Ababa among taxi drivers and assistants also found income as one of  
5 the factors associated with HIV risk behaviours<sup>42</sup>.  
6  
7

8  
9 The present study found higher odds of HIV infection among educated adults. Similarly, a  
10 systemic review studies showed that high HIV prevalence was found among more highly  
11 educated groups than less educated groups<sup>39 43 44</sup>. Highly educated groups had more sexual  
12 partners, non-marital sexual partners and a greater likelihood of premarital sex than less educated  
13 groups<sup>40 41 45 46</sup>. A study conducted in Ethiopia among women showed that HIV prevalence  
14 declined overtime among no formal and secondary education groups, but not among the primary  
15 educated group [45]. The study also come up with little evidence to show significant difference  
16 in the prevalence change overtime by educational attainment<sup>44</sup>.  
17  
18

19  
20 In this analysis, the odds of having HIV infection was 80% higher among urban residents  
21 compared to their rural counterparts. This could be explained by the presence of large numbers  
22 of MARPS in urban than rural areas. Urban residency was also associated with risky sexual  
23 behaviours in other developing countries<sup>41</sup>. As expected, this study found that those individuals  
24 who had multiple sexual partners had higher odds of HIV infection as compared to individuals  
25 who had single lifetime sexual partners. This finding is consistent with several studies  
26 elsewhere<sup>47-49</sup>. The present study showed that formerly married adults had higher odds of having  
27 HIV infection compared to non-married individuals. A similar finding was reported from many  
28 studies elsewhere<sup>22-24 50</sup>. Those formerly married adults found to engage in risky sexual  
29 behaviours<sup>51 52</sup>. This is explained by divorced and widowed women usually suffer from  
30 economic challenges that could lead some to have risky sexual behaviours such as prostitution or  
31 sexual for goods and favors. An evidence revealed that divorced adults had higher risks of heavy  
32 alcohol consumption<sup>53</sup> and such drinking behaviour could result in HIV infection.  
33  
34

35  
36 In our analysis, females had higher odds of having HIV infection compared to males. There are a  
37 lot of biological, socio-economic and cultural risk factors that increase women's vulnerability to  
38 HIV acquisition<sup>20</sup>. The first explanation could be the biological disadvantage of female's  
39 reproductive anatomy. Women are at a greater physiological risk of contracting HIV than men  
40 because of fluid receptors. This is in part because women have a greater mucosal surface area  
41 exposed to pathogens and infectious fluid for longer periods during sexual intercourse and are  
42 likely to experience tissue injury<sup>20</sup>. Another possible explanation could be sex for money. Many  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 women also engaged in sex work in exchange for money, goods, or other benefits<sup>54</sup>. Gender  
4 inequality and gender-based violence placed women also at higher risk for HIV infection<sup>47 55</sup>.  
5  
6 Gender norms in some African countries promote multiple concurrent sexual partners for men  
7 while women are expected to be monogamous and unquestioning of their partner's behaviour<sup>47-  
8  
9 49</sup>.

### 11 **Public health implications**

12 This study supports the hypothesis that risk factors for HIV are associated with certain specific  
13 socio-economic and demographic characteristics which could be targeted to improve existing  
14 public health prevention measures in the general population. In the absence of studies that  
15 attempted to quantify HIV infection by sub-population group and spatial variations, the present  
16 study provides useful information for policy and program actions. Among the occupational  
17 categories, merchants, construction and engineering workers, frontline service and mobile  
18 workers had high prevalence rates of HIV infection and need to be considered as a key  
19 population for HIV. In certain geographic clusters particularly in central and western parts of  
20 Ethiopia a statistically significant high HIV concentration was observed. This is evidence that the  
21 micro-epidemics started as localized in certain geographical locations and subpopulation groups  
22 in Ethiopia. Furthermore, this study showed that educated and wealthier groups had higher odds  
23 of having HIV infection than the less educated and poorer population categories. The most  
24 productive age group of 25-39 years is also found at risk for HIV infection which has its own  
25 development implications. Therefore, HIV is not only an issue of the health sector alone, it is a  
26 wide spectrum of development agenda. Monitoring the epidemics of HIV in accordance with  
27 population segmentation and localized intervention programs would have a paramount  
28 importance rather than using the national prevalence as the key monitoring variable.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

### 44 **Conclusion**

45 The prevalence of HIV was neither randomly nor uniformly distributed in Ethiopia. The HIV  
46 epidemic has concentrated in geographic areas of 25 administrative zones in Oromiya, Amhara,  
47 Tigray, Afar and Somali regions. The epidemic is also concentrated among merchants, educated  
48 groups, females, wealthier individuals and urban residents. This study recommends the need to  
49 have spatial-based prevention strategies for specific population groups particularly focusing on  
50 regional and zonal geographic borders within the hotspot areas.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Funding statement

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors

## Conflict of interest

We declare that we have no conflict of interest

## Author's contributions

YL and DH conceptualized the study, performed the data analysis, made interpretations and drafted the manuscript. SB edited, interpreted the data and critically reviewed the manuscript. All authors read the manuscript and approved the final version.

## Acknowledgment

The authors also would like to acknowledge Lianna Tabar, WEEMA International, Brookline, MA, USA, for her language editing.

## References

1. FHAPCO. *Report on progress towards implementation of the UN Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS*, FHAPCO, 2010.
2. UNAIDS. GLOBAL REPORT: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic 2013: Available at: [http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2013/gr2013/UNAIDS\\_Global\\_Report\\_2013\\_en.pdf](http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2013/gr2013/UNAIDS_Global_Report_2013_en.pdf). 2013.
3. FMOH. Report on progress towards implementation of the UN Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS: Available at [http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2010/ethiopia\\_2010\\_country\\_progress\\_report\\_en.pdf](http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2010/ethiopia_2010_country_progress_report_en.pdf). 2010.
4. Ethiopian Ministry of Health. Federal HIV/AIDS prevention and control office, national factsheet. Available from: <http://www.etharc.org/resources/healthstat/nationalfactsheet/13-nationalfactsheet2010>. 2010.
5. *Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Country Progress Report on HIV/AIDS response*, 2012.
6. UNAIDS. UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic Geneva: UNAIDS. 2012.
7. DeCock KM, Jaffe HW, Curran JW. The evolving epidemiology of HIV/AIDS. *AIDS* 2012;26:1205- 13.
8. Asamoah-Odei E, Calleja JG, Boerma J. HIV prevalence and trends in sub-Saharan Africa: no decline and large sub-regional differences. *The Lancet* 2004;364:35 - 40.
9. Shaikh N, Abdullah F, Lombard CJ, et al. Masking through averages: intra-provincial heterogeneity in HIV prevalence within the Western Cape. *S Afr Med J* 2006; 96.:538 –43.
10. Wand H, Whitaker C, Ramjee G. Geoaddivitive models to assess spatial variation of HIV infections among women in local communities of Durban, South Africa *Int J Health Geogr* 2011;10:28.
11. Cuadros DF, Awad SF, Abu-Raddad LJ. Mapping HIV clustering: a strategy for identifying populations at high risk of HIV infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Health Geographics* 2013;12:28.

12. Wilson D, Halperin DT. Know your epidemic, know your response: a useful approach, if we get it right. *Lancet* 2008;372:423–26.
13. Sam D. Challenges of Containing New HIV Infections in Ethiopia: Unacknowledged Transmission Route. *Capstone Collection* 2013;Paper 2610.
14. Tanser F, Oliveira Td, Maheu-Giroux M, Barnighausen T. Concentrated HIV subepidemics in generalized epidemic settings. *current opinion* 2014;9:2-8.
15. Amar-Roze JM. Geographic inequalities in HIV infection and AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa. *Social Science Medicine* 1999;36(10):1247-56.
16. Wand H, Ramjee G. Targeting the hotspots: investigating spatial and demographic variations in HIV infection in small communities in South Africa. *Journal of the International AIDS Society* 2010;13:41.
17. Central Statistical Agency (CSA)Ethiopia. Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2011. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton, Maryland, USA: CSA and ORC Macro. 2012.
18. Hajizadeh M, Heymann DSS, Nandi A. Socioeconomic inequalities in HIV/AIDS prevalence in sub-Saharan African countries: evidence from the Demographic Health Surveys. *International Journal for Equity in Health* 2014;13:18.
19. Mishra V, Assche SB, Greener R, Vaessen M, Hong R, Ghys PD, et al. HIV infection does not disproportionately affect the poorer in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS* 2007;21(7):S17-28.
20. Ramjee G, Daniels B. Women and HIV in Sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS Research and Therapy* 2013;10:30.
21. Parkhurst JO. Understanding the correlations between wealth, poverty and human immunodeficiency virus infection in African countries. *Bull World Health Organ* 2010;88:519–26.
22. Tenkorang EY. Marriage, widowhood, divorce and HIV risks among women in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Health* 2014;6(1):46-53.
23. Kimani JK, Ettarh R, Ziraba AK, Yatich N. Marital status and risk of HIV infection in slum settlements of Nairobi, Kenya: results from a cross-sectional survey. *African Journal of Reproductive Health* 2013;17(1):103-13.
24. Hazarika I. Risk factors for HIV-1 infection in India: evidence from the National Family Health Survey. *Int J STD AIDS* 2012;23:729-35.
25. Kulldorf M. SaTScan 7.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics: Information Management Services Inc, 2006.
26. Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S. Applied logistic regression. New York: John Wiley. 2000.
27. Hosmer D, Lemeshow S. Applied logistic regression. New York: John Wiley & Sons;. 1989.
28. Molla A, Gelaw B, Addis Z, Gelaw A. Marriage Patterns and Sero-prevalence of HIV Infection at Gambella Administrative Region, Southwest Ethiopia. *Journal of Behavioral Health* 2013;2(3):223-29.
29. Halperin DT, Bailey RC. Male circumcision and HIV infection: ten years and counting. *The Lancet* 1999;354:1813–15.
30. Szabo R, Short RV. How does male circumcision protect against HIV infection? *BMJ* 2000;320:1592.
31. Family Health International -Ethiopia. Mapping and census of female sex workers in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Available at [http://www.who.int/hiv/topics/vct/sw\\_toolkit/mapping\\_census\\_female\\_sex\\_workers\\_ethiopia.pdf](http://www.who.int/hiv/topics/vct/sw_toolkit/mapping_census_female_sex_workers_ethiopia.pdf). 2002.
32. Guilamo-Ramos V, Lee JJ, Ruiz Y, Hagan H, Delva M, Quiñones Z, et al. Illicit drug use and HIV risk in the Dominican Republic: tourism areas create drug use opportunities. *Global Public Health* 2015;10(3):318-30.
33. Vlahov D, Robertson AM, Strathdee SA. Prevention of HIV Infection among Injection Drug Users in Resource-Limited Settings. *Clin Infect Dis* 2010;50(3):S114-S21.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
34. Padilla MB, Guilamo-Ramos V, Bouris A, Reyes AM. HIV/AIDS and Tourism in the Caribbean: An Ecological Systems Perspective. *Am J Public Health* 2010;100(1):70–77.
  35. Melkamu Y. Identifying At Risk Populations and HIV/AIDS Referral Services: Baseline Assessment for Mobile Counseling and Testing Program in the Oromiya Region of Ethiopia. Bethesda, MD: Private Sector Program (PSP)-Ethiopia project, Abt Associates Inc. . 2007.
  36. CDC. Developing New Strategies to Prevent the Spread of HIV. Available at : [http://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/countries/southafrica/what/at\\_risk.htm](http://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/countries/southafrica/what/at_risk.htm).
  37. Gillespie S, Kadiyala S, Greener R. Is poverty or wealth driving HIV transmission. *AIDS* 2007;21(7):S5-S16.
  38. Awusabo-Asare K, Annim SK. Wealth status and risky sexual behaviour in Ghana and Kenya. *Appl Health Econ Health Policy* 2008;6(1):27-39.
  39. Berhan Y, Berhan A. Meta-analysis on risky sexual behaviour of men: consistent findings from different parts of the world. *AIDS Care* 2013;25(2):151-9.
  40. Berhan A, Berhan Y. A Meta-Analysis on Higher-Risk Sexual Behavior of Women in 28 Third World Countries *World Journal of AIDS* 2012;2:78-88.
  41. Berhan Y, Berhan A. A Meta-Analysis of Risky Sexual Behaviour among Male Youth in Developing Countries. *AIDS Research and Treatment* 2015; Article ID 580961:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2015/58096>.
  42. Lakew Y, Tamene H. HIV related risk behaviours among taxi drivers and their assistants in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: Descriptive cross-sectional survey. *BMC Public Health* 2014;14:330.
  43. Hargreaves JR, Bonell CP, Boler T, Boccia D, Birdthistle I, Fletcher A, et al. Systematic review exploring time trends in the association between educational attainment and risk of HIV infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS* 2008; 22:403-14.
  44. Hargreaves JR, Davey C, Fearon E, Hensen B, Krishnaratne S. Trends in Socioeconomic Inequalities in HIV Prevalence among Young People in Seven Countries in Eastern and Southern Africa. *PLoS ONE* 2015;10(3):e0121775.
  45. Hargreaves JR, Glynn JR. Educational attainment and HIV-1 infection in developing countries: a systematic review. *Trop Med Int Health* 2002;7:489-98.
  46. Fortson JG. The gradient in sub-Saharan Africa: socioeconomic status and HIV/AIDS. *Demography* 2008;45(2):303–22.
  47. Higgins JA, Hoffman S, Dworkin SL. Rethinking gender, heterosexual men and women’s vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. *Am J Public Health* 2010;100(3):435–45.
  48. Vyas S, Watts C. How does economic empowerment affect women’s risk of intimate partner violence in low and middle income countries? A systematic review of published evidence. *J Int Dev*;21(5):577-602.
  49. Gupta GR. How men’s power over women fuels the HIV epidemic: It limits women’s ability to control sexual interactions. *British Medical Journal* 2002;324(7331):183
  50. Mermin J, Musinguzi J, Opio A, Kirungi W, Ekwaru JP, Hladik W, et al. Risk Factors for Recent HIV Infection in Uganda. *JAMA* 2008;300(5):540-49.
  51. Kassa M, Tesfaye E, Alamrew Z. Risky Sexual Behaviour among Big Construction Enterprise Workers; Bahir Dar City, Amhara Regional State, Northwest Ethiopia. *International Journal of Clinical Medicine* 2013;4:296-303.
  52. Tadesse G, Yakob B. Risky Sexual Behaviors among Female Youth in Tiss Abay, a Semi-Urban Area of the Amhara Region, Ethiopia. *PLoS ONE* 2015;10(3):e0119050.
  53. Power C, Rodgers B, Hope S. Heavy alcohol consumption and marital status: disentangling the relationship in a national study of young adults. *Addiction* 1999;94(10):1477-87.
  54. Vandepitte J, Lyerla R, Dallabetta G, Crabbe F, Alary M, Buve A. Estimates of the number of female sex workers in different regions of the world. *Sex Transm Infect* 2006;82:18-25.

55. Murphy EM, Greene ME, Mihailovic A, Olupot-Olupot P. Was the “ABC” Approach (Abstinence, Being Faithful, Using Condoms) Responsible for Uganda's Decline in HIV? *PLoS Med* 2006;3(9):e379.

For peer review only

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

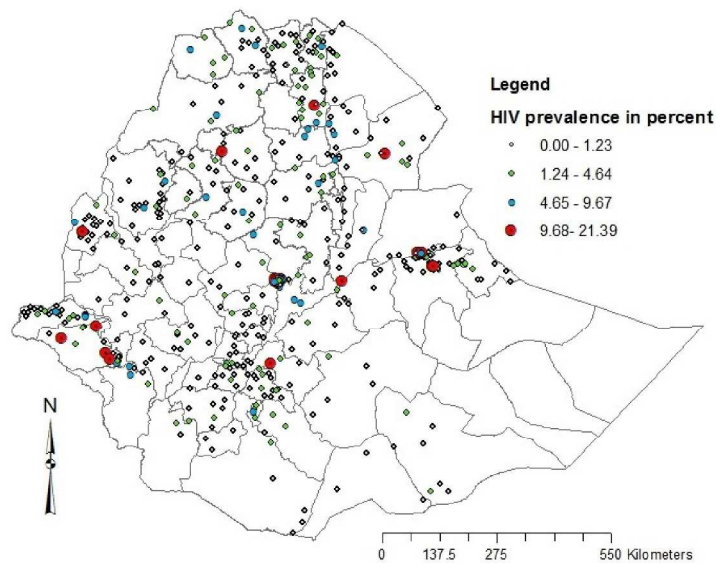


Fig1: Map to show the prevalence of HIV infection in EDHS cluster areas of Ethiopian Zones, 2011

Fig1  
215x279mm (300 x 300 DPI)

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

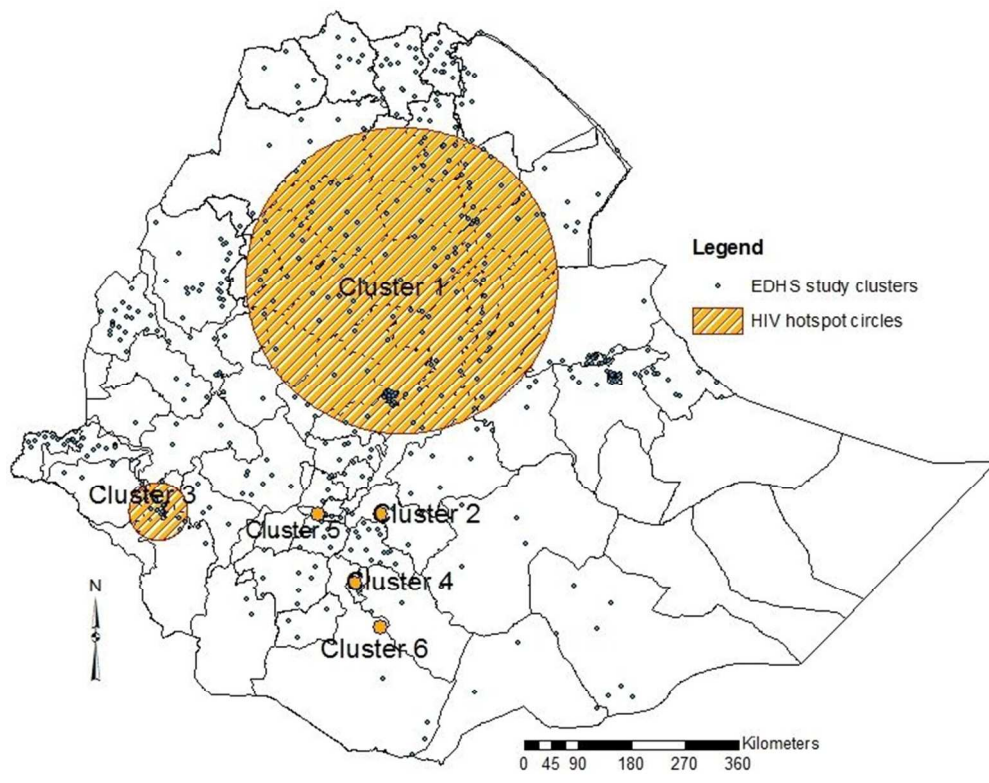


Fig 2: HIV hotspot clusters identified at zonal level using SaTScan spatial analysis tool, in Ethiopia 2011

277x254mm (72 x 72 DPI)

only

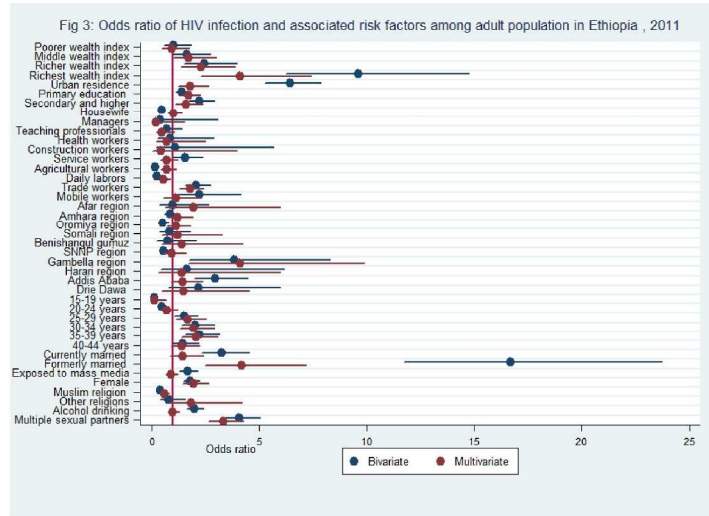


Fig3  
215x279mm (300 x 300 DPI)

**Table1: HIV prevalence by different socio-demographic characteristics of respondents in Ethiopia, 2011**

Characteristics of respondents	HIV prevalence with 95%CI	Total weighted respondents	Weighted number of HIV Cases
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	1.0[0.84-1.18]	13,234	132
Female	1.9[1.70-2.12]	15,730	299
<b>Residence</b>			
Urban	4.3[3.81-4.81]	6,337	272
Rural	0.7[0.60-0.81]	22,628	158
<b>Religion</b>			
Christian	1.8[1.62-1.99]	20,147	363
Muslim	0.7[0.54-0.90]	8,231	58
Traditional and others	1.5[0.75-2.79]	587	9
<b>Administrative regions</b>			
Tigray	1.8[1.26-2.46]	1,901	34
Afar	1.8[0.52-3.90]	244	4
Amhara	1.6[1.34-1.89]	7,821	125
Oromiya	1.0[0.83-1.20]	10,983	110
Somali	1.5[0.73-2.95]	511	8
Benishangul-gumuz	1.4[0.42-3.12]	306	4
SNNPR	1.1[0.85-1.40]	5,457	60
Gambella	6.7[3.51-12.60]	127	9
Harari	3.0[0.42-8.01]	80	2
Addis Ababa	5.2[4.14-6.45]	1,422	74
Dire Dawa	4.0[1.64-9.53]	113	5
<b>Wealth Index</b>			
Poorest	0.4[0.25-0.59]	5,117	20
Poorer	0.5[0.33-0.71]	5,451	27
Middle	0.7[0.50-0.95]	5,572	39

Richer	1.1[0.86-1.39]	5,913	65
Richest	4.1[3.65-4.58]	6,912	283
<b>Education</b>			
Not formal education	1.1[0.93-1.29]	12,391	136
Primary	1.6[1.39-1.83]	12,837	205
Secondary and higher	2.4[1.95-2.94]	3,738	90
<b>Marital status</b>			
Never married	0.4[0.29-0.55]	9,376	38
Currently married	1.4[1.24-1.58]	17,548	246
Formerly married	6.9[5.87-8.07]	2,041	141
<b>Age groups</b>			
15-19	0.2[0.11-0.33]	6,637	13
20-24	0.7[0.50-0.97]	4,975	35
25-29	2.1[1.73-2.52]	5,148	108
30-34	2.7[2.18-3.28]	3,346	90
35-39	3.0[2.47-3.62]	3,399	102
40-44	2.0[1.49-2.66]	2,238	45
45-49	1.8[1.27-2.43]	2,019	36
50+	0.7[0.31-1.26]	1,203	8
<b>Number of life time sexual partners</b>			
Single	0.9[0.75-1.08]	13,063	118
Multiple	3.7[3.30-4.15]	7,612	282
<b>Ever alcohol drinking</b>			
No	1.0[0.85-1.17]	14,727	147
Yes	2.0[1.78-2.24]	14,229	285
<b>Comprehensive knowledge on HIV</b>			
No	1.5[1.36-1.65]	27,505	413
Yes	0.3[0.05-0.97]	676	2
<b>Exposure to mass media</b>			
No	1.0[0.79-1.24]	7,341	73

Yes	1.7[1.53-1.88]	21,495	365
<b>Occupational status</b>			
Not working including house wives	1.3[1.06-1.58]	7,240	94
Corporate and general managers	1.2[0.06-5.54]	87	1
Teaching and associate professions	2.0[1.06-3.66]	483	10
Health and life science workers	2.4[0.64-6.60]	121	3
Construction and engineering workers	2.9[0.10-9.29]	51	1
Front line service workers	4.1[2.73-5.81]	640	26
Sales workers	2.7[2.22-3.24]	3,932	106
Agricultural workers	0.5[0.37-0.65]	9,692	48
Daily laborers	0.7[0.49-0.99]	4,258	30
Merchants	5.4[4.41-6.48]	1,842	99
Mobile workers including drivers, operators and assemblers	5.7[2.94-9.40]	199	11
Other occupations*	0.1[0.03-2.48]	197	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1.5[1.35-1.63]</b>	<b>28,964</b>	<b>431</b>

\*Students, armed, legal, higher officials and ill people. Since we did a pooled data of both men 15-59 and women 15-49, a slight difference in figures have been shown from the original EDHS report.



**Table 2: Statistical summaries from SaTScan clustering analysis in Ethiopian administrative regions and zones, 2011.**

Clusters	Regions/Zones in the cluster	Radius	LLR	P-value	RR	Observed	Expected
Cluster 1	Addis Ababa, Oromiya*, Amhara^, Tigray <sup>§</sup> , Afar <sup>@</sup> and Somali <sup>#</sup>	258	48.0	<0.001	2.6	252	153
Cluster 2	Oromiya–West Arsi zone	0	11.9	0.003	8.7	9	1
Cluster 3	Gambella–Agnuak and Majanger zones SNNPR–Sheka, Bench maji and Keffa zones	49	6.0	0.413	3.1	13	4
Cluster 4	SNNPR – Gedio zone	0	4.9	0.719	4.3	7	2
Cluster 5	SNNPR – KT zone	0	3.7	0.975	3.1	8	3
Cluster 6	Oromiya – Borena zone	0	3.1	0.996	3.0	7	2

\*East Shewa, West Shewa, South West Shewa, North Shewa, Oromiya Special Zone, Horo-Guduru, Parts of East Wolega, parts of West Hararge zones

^North Shewa Special zone, South Wollo, East Gojam, West Gojam, South Gondar, Eastern parts of North Gondar, Wag Himira and AwiAgew zones

<sup>§</sup> South Tigray zone

<sup>@</sup> Zone 1, Zone 2 and Zone 3

<sup>#</sup>Site Zone

LLR=Log Likelihood ratio, OR=Odds ratio, RR=relative risk, Radius is in kilometer

**Table 3: Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression analysis to identify factors associated with HIV infection among adult population in Ethiopia, 2011**

Independent risk factors	Crude OR with 95%CI	AOR with 95%CI
<b>Wealth Index</b>		
Poorest	1.00	1.00
Poorer	1.0[0.58-1.83]	0.9[0.50-1.75]
Middle	1.6[0.97-2.72]	1.7[1.00-2.99]*
Richer	2.4[1.51-3.96]**	2.3[1.37-3.90]*
Richest	9.6[6.23-14.70]**	4.1[2.28-7.39]**
<b>Residence</b>		
Rural	1.00	1.00
Urban	6.4[5.28-7.83]**	1.8[1.24-2.66]*
<b>Administrative regions</b>		
Tigray	1.00	1.00
Afar	1.0[0.36-2.66]	2.0[0.63-5.99]
Amhara	0.9[0.60-1.27]	1.2[0.80-1.91]
Oromiya	0.5[0.37-0.79]*	1.1[0.73-1.78]
Somali	0.8[0.38-1.82]	1.2[0.47-3.27]
Benishangul-gumuz	0.7[0.27-2.06]	1.4[0.47-4.24]
SNNPR	0.57[0.37-0.87]*	1.0[0.57-1.59]
Gambella	3.8[1.78-8.33]*	4.1[1.70-9.88]*
Harari	1.6[0.43-6.19]	1.4[0.33-5.97]
Addis Ababa	2.9[1.96-4.43]**	1.5[0.90-2.36]
Dire Dawa	2.2[0.82-6.04]	1.5[0.50-4.55]
<b>Marital status</b>		
Never married	1.00	1.00
Currently married	3.3[2.37-4.58]**	1.5[0.88-2.40]
Formerly married	16.9[11.94-24.07]**	4.2[2.48-7.16]**
<b>Education</b>		
No formal education	1.00	1.00

Primary education	1.4[1.12-1.73]*	1.7[1.32-2.26]**
Secondary and higher	2.2[1.68-2.85]**	1.6[1.11-2.36]*
<b>Religion</b>		
Christian	1.00	1.00
Muslim	0.4[0.29-0.51]**	0.6[0.41-0.83]*
Others including traditional religions	0.8[0.40-1.58]	1.9[0.82-4.19]
<b>Life time sexual partners</b>		
One	1.00	1.00
Multiple	4.1[3.30-5.06]**	3.4[2.64-4.28]**
<b>Age group</b>		
15-19	0.1[0.07-0.24]**	0.1[0.02-0.66]*
20-24	0.5[0.31-0.77]*	0.7[0.42-1.20]
25-29	1.5[1.06-2.15]*	1.7[1.15-2.52]*
30-34	2.0[1.41-2.90]**	2.0[1.32-2.91]*
35-39	2.2[1.55-3.17]**	2.1[1.40-3.07]**
40-44	1.4[0.94-2.19]	1.4[0.89-2.21]
45-49	1.00	1.00
<b>Occupation</b>		
Not working	1.00	1.00
Corporate and general managers	0.9[0.12-6.42]	1.0[0.76-1.43]
Teaching and associate professions	1.5[0.78-2.99]	0.2[0.03-1.53]
Health and life science workers	1.9[0.57-6.04]	0.5[0.22-1.06]
Construction and engineering workers	2.3[0.44-11.81]	0.7[0.21-2.49]
Front line service workers	3.2[2.08-5.02]**	0.4[0.05-3.95]
Sales workers	2.1[1.58-2.76]**	0.7[0.41-1.20]
Agricultural workers	0.4[0.26-0.52]**	0.7[0.45-1.13]
Daily laborers	0.5[0.36-0.82]**	0.6[0.35-0.87]*
Merchants	4.3[3.22-5.71]**	1.8[1.30-2.43]**
Mobile workers including drivers and operators	4.6[2.46-8.69]**	1.1[0.56-2.27]
<b>Sex</b>		

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Male	1.00	1.00
Female	1.8[1.49-2.24]**	1.9[1.44-2.63]**

\*p<0.0001, \*p<0.00001

For peer review only