

Review Article

Male Circumcision and HIV/AIDS Risk – Analysis of the Scientific Evidence

J. N. Krieger¹ and C. F. Heyns²

¹Department of Urology, University of Washington School of Medicine, Seattle, Washington, USA and ²Department of Urology, University of Stellenbosch and Tygerberg Hospital, Tygerberg, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Objective: The aim of this review was to evaluate the scientific evidence supporting the hypothesis that male circumcision reduces the risk of HIV infection and consequently the incidence of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).

Patients and Methods: We performed a literature search of the major databases (Medline, Embase, Cochrane Library, Biosis and Science Citation Index) for papers published in the period 1999 to 2008, using the terms “male circumcision”, “HIV infection” and “sexually transmitted infection,” plus the combination of the search terms “foreskin” and “HIV receptor” to identify 1,048 articles. We reviewed the abstracts to identify 278 articles meriting detailed review. This detailed review considered how well individual studies were designed and carried out, using a standard checklist to provide a systematic quality rating for individual studies. This process identified a total of 80 papers, which were rated following the level of evidence and grade of recommendation scales modified from the Oxford Center for Evidence-Based Medicine.

Results: Detailed analysis of the selected articles on male circumcision and HIV infection risk revealed the following. Systematic reviews, meta-analyses and modeling studies: there were 11 papers, 10 positive (favoring circumcision) and 1 negative; of the 10 positive studies, 4 were level 3 evidence, 5 were level 2 and 1 was level 1 evidence. Randomized controlled trials: there were 3 studies, all positive with level 1 evidence. Non-randomized cohort studies: there were 6 papers, 5 were positive (2 level 3 and 3 level 2 evidence) and 1 was negative (level 3 evidence). Case-control studies: there were 12 studies, 11 positive (all level 3) and 1 negative (level 3 evidence). Case series: there were 2 studies, both positive (level 3 evidence). Expert opinion: there were 34 studies, 30 positive (15 level 4, 15 level 3 evidence), 2 negative (both level 4) and 2 neutral (both level 4 evidence). Cost-effectiveness studies: there were 3 studies, all positive, all level 2 evidence. Pertinent biological studies: there were 3 studies, all positive, all level 4 evidence. The three large, exceptionally well-done randomized, controlled trials of adult male circumcision among consenting, healthy men in three African countries enrolled a total of 10,908 uncircumcised, HIV-negative adult men. The cumulative HIV infection risk estimated using intention-to-treat Kaplan-Meier analysis showed an overall rate ratio (RR) of 0.42 (95% confidence interval (CI) 0.31-0.57), corresponding to a protective effect of 58% (95% CI 43-69%). Meta-analysis of the “as-treated” results of the three trials showed even stronger protection against HIV infection in the circumcision group (summary RR 0.35, 95% CI 0.24-0.54).

Conclusions: Rigorous analysis of the available scientific evidence clearly supports a positive recommendation that male circumcision should be actively promoted in populations at high risk of HIV infection. There is a need to provide safe male circumcision services for high-risk populations, because this is one of very few proven HIV prevention strategies. Male circumcision provides a much-needed addition to the limited HIV prevention armamentarium. The challenges to implementation must now be faced.

Keywords : male circumcision, HIV/AIDS

Corresponding Author: C. F. Heyns, Department of Urology, PO Box 19063, Tygerberg 7505, South Africa, e-mail:cfh2@sun.ac.za

Article Info: Date received: 12/9/2008

Date accepted : 13/9/2008

INTRODUCTION

During the past two decades there has been considerable controversy regarding the question whether male circumcision reduces the risk of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV) infection and, consequently, the incidence of the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).

An increased risk of uncircumcised men acquiring HIV or other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) may be explained by a number of plausible biological mechanisms. These include an increased rate of inflammatory conditions, susceptibility of the mucosal surface of the prepuce to trauma, and the longer survival of pathogens in the warm, moist subpreputial space. The lack of keratinization and the high density of HIV target cells make the inner foreskin especially susceptible to HIV infection, compared with the keratinized surface of the outer foreskin and glans¹⁻⁴.

The possibility that male circumcision may protect against HIV infection was first suggested in 1986⁵. Ecological studies in areas with low prevalence of male circumcision and high HIV prevalence in sub-Saharan Africa and in developing countries elsewhere have supported this hypothesis^{6,7}. Further evidence comes from systematic reviews of observational study data comparing HIV infection rates in circumcised and uncircumcised men^{1,8}. A meta-analysis of 15 studies adjusted for potential confounders found the reduced risk of HIV infection in circumcised men to be large and highly significant (adjusted risk ratio (RR) 0.42, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.34-0.54)¹. Subsequent studies have reported similar findings⁹.

Three randomized clinical trials of adult male circumcision in South Africa, Kenya, and Uganda have reported highly significant decreases in HIV infection risk among participants randomly assigned to circumcision¹⁰⁻¹². Nonetheless, the controversy about male circumcision and

HIV/AIDS transmission has not been laid to rest completely.

The aim of this review was to evaluate the scientific evidence supporting the hypothesis that male circumcision reduces the risk of HIV infection and consequently the incidence of AIDS.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

We performed a literature search for papers published or accepted for publication in peer reviewed journals, and excluded papers published in non-peer reviewed supplements. The search included the last 10 years of data in the major databases (Medline, Embase, Cochrane Library, Biosis, and Science Citation Index).

For inclusion in the final analysis, we required papers that either contained original data or original data analyses, such as systematic reviews or meta-analyses. We also included relevant articles on possible biological mechanisms and articles that reviewed selected data and opinions. The search strategy used the term “male circumcision” combined with the terms “HIV infection,” “complications,” “acceptability,” and “sexually transmitted infection,” plus the combination of the search terms “foreskin” and “HIV receptor” to identify 1,048 articles.

Included papers were rated according to levels of evidence. The hierarchy of study types was: systematic reviews and meta-analysis or modeling, randomized controlled trials, non-randomized cohort studies, case-control studies, case series, and expert opinion (as the lowest level). In addition, we included other relevant biological studies and cost-effectiveness studies. We reviewed the titles and abstracts of the articles identified in the initial search to identify 278 articles meriting detailed review.

Table 1: Summary of randomized controlled clinical trials of male circumcision to prevent HIV infection in three African countries.

	South Africa ¹⁰	Kenya ¹¹	Uganda ¹²
Participants			
Control	1,582	1,393	2,522
Circumcision	1,546	1,391	2,474
Age range (years)	18-24	18-24	15-49
Setting	Peri-urban	Urban	Rural
Circumcision method	Forceps-guided by local general practitioners, Monopolar cautery	Forceps-guided by study clinicians, No cautery	Sleeve method by study clinicians Bipolar cautery
Visit schedule (months)	3, 12 and 21	1, 3, 6, 12, 18 and 24	6, 12 and 24
Retention rate	92% at 21 months	86% at 24 months	90% at 24 months
Person-years of follow-up	4,693	4,428	6,744
HIV infections (circumcision:control)	20:49	19:46	22:45
Risk ratio (95% CI)	0.41 (0.24-0.69)	0.41 (0.24-0.70)	0.43 (0.24-0.75)
Summary risk ratio for all three trials (95% CI)		0.42 (0.31-0.57)	

CI = confidence interval. Modified from Weiss, et al.⁹

This detailed review considered how well individual studies were designed and carried out using a standard checklist to assure that a consistent approach was used in the methodological assessment of the evidence. The objective of the checklist was to provide a systematic quality rating for individual studies. This process identified a total of 80 papers, representing every study type category.

Papers were rated following the level of evidence scale modified from the Oxford Center for Evidence-Based Medicine (<http://minerva.minervation.com/cebm/docs/levels.html>.) Levels of evidence were assigned as either positive (circumcision reduces HIV infection risk) or negative (circumcision does not reduce HIV infection risk). A level of evidence was given to each individual study.

- **Level 1 evidence:** meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) or a good quality RCT, or ‘all or none’ studies in which no treatment is not an option.

- **Level 2 evidence:** “low quality” RCTs (e.g. < 80% follow-up) or meta-analysis (with homogeneity) of good quality prospective ‘cohort studies’.
- **Level 3 evidence:** good quality retrospective ‘case-control studies’ or good quality ‘case series’, or high-quality systematic reviews of available data that did not incorporate meta-analyses or evaluation of the original data.
- **Level 4 evidence:** expert opinion where the opinion is based not on evidence but on ‘first principles’ (e.g. physiological or anatomical) or bench research.

As with levels of evidence, the grades of recommendation may apply either positively (do the procedure) or negatively (do not do the procedure). There are four grades of recommendation.

- **Grade A recommendation** usually depends on consistent level 1 evidence and often means that the recommendation is

effectively mandatory and placed within a clinical care pathway. However, there will be occasions where excellent evidence (level 1) does not lead to a Grade A recommendation, for example, if the therapy is prohibitively expensive, dangerous or unethical.

- **Grade B recommendation** usually depends on consistent level 2 and/or 3 studies, or ‘majority evidence’ from randomized clinical trials (RCT’s).
- **Grade C recommendation** usually depends on level 4 studies or ‘majority evidence’ from level 2/3 studies.
- **Grade D (“no recommendation possible”)** is used where the evidence is inadequate or conflicting and when expert opinion is delivered without a formal analytical process.

RESULTS

Detailed review and analysis of the selected articles on studies of male circumcision and HIV infection risk in the period 1999 to 2008 revealed the following.

- **Systematic reviews, meta-analyses and modeling studies**^{1,7-9,13-20}: There were 11 papers, 10 positive (favoring circumcision) and 1 negative; of the 10 positive studies, 4 were level 3 evidence, 5 were level 2 and 1 was level 1 evidence.
- **Randomized controlled trials**¹⁰⁻¹²: There were 3 studies, all positive with level 1 evidence.
- **Non-randomized cohort studies**²¹⁻²⁶: There were 6 papers, 5 were positive (2 level 3 and 3 level 2 evidence) and 1 was negative (level 3 evidence).
- **Case-control studies**²⁷⁻³⁹: There were 12 studies, 11 positive (all level 3) and 1 negative (level 3 evidence).
- **Case series**⁴⁰⁻⁴¹: There were 2 studies, both positive (level 3 evidence).

- **Expert opinion**^{6,42-76}: There were 34 studies, 30 positive (15 level 4, 15 level 3 evidence), 2 negative (both level 4) and 2 neutral (both level 4 evidence).
- **Cost-effectiveness studies**⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹: There were 3 studies, all positive, all level 2 evidence.
- **Pertinent biological studies**²⁻⁴: There were 3 studies, all positive, all level 4 evidence.

Therefore, during the last 10 years, the great preponderance of evidence, at all four levels, has been positive, i.e. supporting the hypothesis that male circumcision reduces the risk of HIV infection.

The three large, exceptionally well-done RCTs of adult male circumcision among consenting, healthy men in three African countries enrolled a total of 10,908 uncircumcised, HIV-negative adult men¹⁰⁻¹². Participants were randomly assigned to circumcision or control arms, then followed for up to 2 years. Retention rates were high (86-92%).

Table 1 shows the cumulative HIV infection risk among men estimated using intention-to-treat Kaplan-Meier analysis. The overall rate ratio (RR) was 0.42 (95% confidence interval (CI) 0.31-0.57), corresponding to a protective effect of 58% (95% CI 43-69%).

The true protection provided by male circumcision may be better estimated by an “as-treated” analysis, assigning outcomes according to the actual circumcision status of participants. All participants did not adhere to the arm they were randomly assigned to. Meta-analysis of the “as-treated” results of the three trials shows even stronger protection against HIV infection in the circumcision group (summary RR 0.35, 95% CI 0.24-0.54)⁹.

DISCUSSION

While observational studies showing a statistically significant risk of HIV infection among circumcised men provide provocative

and compelling evidence, they cannot prove causality. However, the three randomized, controlled clinical trials of adult male circumcision conducted in South Africa, Kenya and Uganda do provide compelling evidence that circumcision substantially reduces the risk of female-to-male HIV transmission¹⁰⁻¹².

Comparing the adverse event rates in the three RCTs is complicated because the studies had different visit schedules, adverse event definitions and criteria. In the Kenyan trial, adverse events possibly, probably or definitely related to circumcision occurred in 23 of 1334 circumcised participants (1.7%)⁸⁰⁻⁸¹. All adverse events were mild or moderate and resolved quickly. In the South African trial, the adverse event rate was 54 per 1495 (3.6%) men¹⁰. In the Ugandan trial, the surgery-related adverse event rate was 7.6% (178/2328)¹². The risk of moderate adverse events related to surgery was 3% in the Uganda trial, including five severe adverse events (0.2%). All of these events were managed successfully.

Detailed analyses of the African trials indicate that male circumcision is likely to be very cost-effective⁷⁷. The South African trial estimated that the cost per HIV infection averted was about US\$ 181, with net savings of US\$ 2.4 million over 20 years (cost savings of US\$ 2,631 per circumcision). The Kenyan trial estimated the cost as \$200 per HIV infection averted⁹. Costs were higher in Uganda, where 39 circumcisions would be needed to prevent one HIV infection over 10 years at a cost of US\$ 2,631 per HIV infection averted over 10 years⁷⁸. Because benefits of circumcision are life-long, male circumcision is likely to prove very cost-effective in high-risk African settings.

Several controversial issues remain, including the cultural acceptability of male circumcision in non-circumcising African communities, socio-cultural and economic issues of expanding male circumcision services, and the relevance of the findings for other populations.

The RCT data indicate that adult male circumcision can be safe in limited-resource settings when performed by experienced, well-trained providers. However, when male circumcision is undertaken in septic conditions by inexperienced providers or with poor aftercare, serious complications or even death can result. Thus, implementation of safe adult male circumcision in many African settings will require considerable effort and national policies.

The potential for an increase in unsafe sex practices (known as, ‘risk compensation’ or ‘behavioral disinhibition’) after circumcision could potentially offset the protective effect of male circumcision. The Ugandan trial found no difference in sexual behaviors during the trial by circumcision status¹². The South African trial showed a significantly increased mean number of sex acts between 4 and 21 months among men in the circumcision arm, but no increase in the number of sexual partners or a change in condom use¹⁰. The Kenyan trial reported a decrease in reported risk-taking behaviors during the 24 months of follow-up in both study arms¹¹.

The RCT findings are reassuring, but these data may not be generalizable. The trials provided the highest standards of preventative care, with intensive individual counseling. Furthermore, participants did not know that circumcision reduced their risk of HIV infection. The challenges of expanding services within already overstretched health systems include the need to provide adequate counseling to convey the message that male circumcision is a risk-reduction strategy that provides partial protection only.

Nevertheless, the positive findings in the male circumcision RCTs are in stark contrast to recent negative reports of other HIV prevention interventions, including: microbicides, the female diaphragm and gel, treatment to suppress genital herpes infections and, most recently, an adenovirus-based HIV vaccine.

In conclusion rigorous analysis of the available scientific evidence clearly supports a Grade A positive recommendation that

male circumcision should be actively promoted in populations at high risk of HIV infection. There is a need to provide safe male circumcision services for high-risk populations, because this is one of very few proven HIV prevention strategies. In addition to other health benefits, male circumcision provides a much-needed addition to the limited HIV prevention armamentarium. The challenges to implementation must now be faced.

REFERENCES

- Weiss HA, Quigley MA, Hayes RJ. Male circumcision and risk of HIV infection in sub-Saharan Africa: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *AIDS*. 2000; Oct 20;14(15):2361-70.
- Patterson BK, Landay A, Siegel JN, Flener Z, Pessis D, Chaviano A, et al. Susceptibility to human immunodeficiency virus-1 infection of human foreskin and cervical tissue grown in explant culture. *Am.J.Pathol.* 2002; Sep;161(3):867-73.
- Soilleux EJ, Coleman N. Expression of DC-SIGN in human foreskin may facilitate sexual transmission of HIV. *J.Clin.Pathol.* 2004; Jan;57(1):77-8.
- McCoombe SG, Short RV. Potential HIV-1 target cells in the human penis. *AIDS*. 2006; Jul 13;20(11):1491-5.
- Fink AJ. A possible explanation for heterosexual male infection with AIDS. *N.Engl.J.Med.* 1986; Oct 30;315(18):1167.
- Moses S, Nagelkerke NJ, Blanchard J. Analysis of the scientific literature on male circumcision and risk for HIV infection. *Int.J.STD AIDS*. 1999; Sep;10(9):626-8.
- Drain PK, Halperin DT, Hughes JP, Klausner JD, Bailey RC. Male circumcision, religion and infectious diseases: An ecologic analysis of 118 developing countries. *BMC Infect.Dis.* 2006;6:172.
- Siegfried N. Does male circumcision prevent HIV infection? *PLoS Med.* 2005; Nov;2(11):e393.
- Weiss HA, Halperin D, Bailey RC, Hayes RJ, Schmid G, Hankins CA. Male circumcision for HIV prevention: From evidence to action? *AIDS*. 2008; Mar 12;22(5):567-74.
- Auvert B, Taljaard D, Lagarde E, Sobngwi Tambekou J, Sitta R, Puren A. Randomized, controlled intervention trial of male circumcision for reduction of HIV infection risk: The ANRS 1265 Trial. *PLoS Med.* 2005; Nov;2(11):e298.
- Bailey RC, Moses S, Parker CB, Agot K, Maclean I, Krieger JN, et al. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in young men in Kisumu, Kenya: A randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2007; Feb 24;369(9562):643-56.
- Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Makumbi F, Watya S, Nalugoda F, et al. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in men in Rakai, Uganda: A randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2007; Feb 24;369(9562):657-66.
- Van Howe RS. Circumcision and HIV infection: Review of the literature and meta-analysis. *Int.J.STD AIDS*. 1999; Jan;10(1):8-16.
- O'Farrell N, Egger M. Circumcision in men and the prevention of HIV infection: A 'meta-analysis' revisited. *Int.J.STD AIDS*. 2000; Mar;11(3):137-42.
- Siegfried N, Muller M, Volmink J, Deeks J, Egger M, Low N, et al. Male circumcision for prevention of heterosexual acquisition of HIV in men. *Cochrane Database Syst.Rev.* 2003;(3):CD003362.
- Desai K, Boily MC, Garnett GP, Masse BR, Moses S, Bailey RC. The role of sexually transmitted infections in male circumcision effectiveness against HIV--insights from clinical trial simulation. *Emerg.Themes Epidemiol.* 2006;3:19.
- Williams BG, Lloyd Smith JO, Gouws E, Hankins C, Getz WM, Hargrove J, et al. The potential impact of male circumcision on HIV in Sub-Saharan Africa. *PLoS Med.* 2006; Jul;3(7):e262.
- Orroth KK, Freeman EE, Bakker R, Buve A, Glynn JR, Boily MC, et al. Understanding the differences between contrasting HIV epidemics in east and west Africa: Results from a simulation model of the Four Cities Study. *Sex.Transm.Infect.* 2007; Aug;83 Suppl 1:i5-16.
- Hallett TB, Singh K, Smith JA, White RG, Abu Raddad LJ, Garnett GP. Understanding the impact of male circumcision interventions on the spread of HIV in Southern Africa. *PLoS ONE*. 2008;3(5):e2212.
- Londish GJ, Murray JM. Significant reduction in HIV prevalence according to male circumcision intervention in sub-Saharan Africa. *Int.J.Epidemiol.* 2008; Dec;37(6):1246-53.
- Kelly R, Kiwanuka N, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Sewankambo NK, Wabwire Mangen F, et al. Age of male circumcision and risk of prevalent HIV infection in rural Uganda. *AIDS*. 1999; Feb 25;13(3):399-405.
- Quinn TC, Wawer MJ, Sewankambo N, Serwadda D, Li C, Wabwire Mangen F, et al. Viral load and heterosexual transmission of human immunodeficiency virus type 1. Rakai Project Study Group. *N.Engl.J.Med.* 2000; Mar 30;342(13):921-9.
- Reynolds SJ, Shepherd ME, Risbud AR, Gangakhedkar RR, Brookmeyer RS, Divekar AD, et al. Male circumcision and risk of HIV-1 and other sexually transmitted infections in India. *Lancet*. 2004; Mar 27;363(9414):1039-40.
- Meier AS, Bukusi EA, Cohen CR, Holmes KK. Independent association of hygiene, socioeconomic status and circumcision with reduced risk of HIV infection among Kenyan men. *J.Acquir.Immune Defic. Syndr.* 2006; Sep;43(1):117-8.

25. Shaffer DN, Bautista CT, Sateren WB, Sawe FK, Kiplangat SC, Miruka AO, et al. The protective effect of circumcision on HIV incidence in rural low-risk men circumcised predominantly by traditional circumcisers in Kenya: Two-year follow-up of the Kericho HIV Cohort Study. *J.Acquir.Immune Defic.Syindr.* 2007; Aug 1;45(4):371-9.
26. Millett GA, Ding H, Lauby J, Flores S, Stueve A, Bingham T, et al. Circumcision status and HIV infection among Black and Latino men who have sex with men in 3 US cities. *J.Acquir.Immune Defic.Syindr.* 2007; Dec 15;46(5):643-50.
27. Auvert B, Buve A, Ferry B, Carael M, Morison L, Lagarde E, et al. Ecological and individual level analysis of risk factors for HIV infection in four urban populations in sub-Saharan Africa with different levels of HIV infection. *AIDS.* 2001; Aug;15 Suppl 4:S15-30.
28. Auvert B, Buve A, Lagarde E, Kahindo M, Chege J, Rutenberg N, et al. Male circumcision and HIV infection in four cities in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS.* 2001; Aug;15 Suppl 4:S31-40.
29. MacDonald KS, Malonza I, Chen DK, Nagelkerke NJ, Nasio JM, Ndinya Achola J, et al. Vitamin A and risk of HIV-1 seroconversion among Kenyan men with genital ulcers. *AIDS.* 2001; Mar 30;15(5):635-9.
30. Gray R, Azire J, Serwadda D, Kiwanuka N, Kigozi G, Kiddugavu M, et al. Male circumcision and the risk of sexually transmitted infections and HIV in Rakai, Uganda. *AIDS.* 2004; Dec 3;18(18):2428-30.
31. Agot KE, Ndinya Achola JO, Kreiss JK, Weiss NS. Risk of HIV-1 in rural Kenya: A comparison of circumcised and uncircumcised men. *Epidemiology.* 2004; Mar;15(2):157-63.
32. Jewkes R, Dunkle K, Nduna M, Levin J, Jama N, Khuzwayo N, et al. Factors associated with HIV sero-positivity in young, rural South African men. *Int.J.Epidemiol.* 2006; Dec;35(6):1455-60.
33. Kapiga SH, Sam NE, Mlay J, Aboud S, Ballard RC, Shao JF, et al. The epidemiology of HIV-1 infection in northern Tanzania: Results from a community-based study. *AIDS Care.* 2006; May;18(4):379-87.
34. Johnson K, Way A. Risk factors for HIV infection in a national adult population: Evidence from the 2003 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey. *J.Acquir.Immune Defic.Syindr.* 2006; Aug 15;42(5):627-36.
35. Talukdar A, Khandokar MR, Bandopadhyay SK, Detels R. Risk of HIV infection but not other sexually transmitted diseases is lower among homeless Muslim men in Kolkata. *AIDS.* 2007; Oct 18;21(16):2231-5.
36. 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; Nov;21 Suppl 7:S17-28.
37. Klavs I, Hamers FF. Male circumcision in Slovenia: Results from a national probability sample survey. *Sex. Transm.Infect.* 2008; Feb;84(1):49-50.
38. Foglia G, Sateren WB, Renzullo PO, Bautista CT, Langat L, Wasunna MK, et al. High prevalence of HIV infection among rural tea plantation residents in Kericho, Kenya. *Epidemiol.Infect.* 2008; May;136(5):694-702.
39. Mermin J, Musinguzi J, Opio A, Kirungi W, Ekwaru JP, Hladik W, et al. Risk factors for recent HIV infection in Uganda. *JAMA.* 2008; Aug 6;300(5):540-9.
40. Halperin DT, Fritz K, McFarland W, Woelk G. Acceptability of adult male circumcision for sexually transmitted disease and HIV prevention in Zimbabwe. *Sex.Transm.Dis.* 2005; Apr;32(4):238-9.
41. Buchbinder SP, Vittinghoff E, Heagerty PJ, Celum CL, Seage GR,3rd, Judson FN, et al. Sexual risk, nitrite inhalant use and lack of circumcision associated with HIV seroconversion in men who have sex with men in the United States. *J.Acquir.Immune Defic.Syindr.* 2005; May 1;39(1):82-9.
42. Halperin DT, Bailey RC. Male circumcision and HIV infection: 10 years and counting. *Lancet.* 1999; Nov 20;354(9192):1813-5.
43. Harrison DC. Male circumcision and HIV infection. *Lancet.* 2000; Mar 11;355(9207):926; author reply 927.
44. Szabo R, Short RV. How does male circumcision protect against HIV infection? *BMJ.* 2000; Jun 10;320(7249):1592-4.
45. Quigley MA, Weiss HA, Hayes RJ. Male circumcision as a measure to control HIV infection and other sexually transmitted diseases. *Curr.Opin.Infect.Dis.* 2001; Feb;14(1):71-5.
46. Lerman SE, Liao JC. Neonatal circumcision. *Pediatr. Clin.North Am.* 2001; Dec;48(6):1539-57.
47. Shapiro RL. Drawing lines in the sand: The boundaries of the HIV pandemic in perspective. *Soc.Sci.Med.* 2002; Dec;55(12):2189-91.
48. Gisselquist D, Potterat JJ, Brody S. Running on empty: Sexual co-factors are insufficient to fuel Africa's turbocharged HIV epidemic. *Int.J.STD AIDS.* 2004; Jul;15(7):442-52.
49. Sahasrabudde VV, Vermund SH. The future of HIV prevention: Control of sexually transmitted infections and circumcision interventions. *Infect.Dis.Clin.North Am.* 2007; Mar;21(1):241,57, xi.
50. Short RV. The HIV/AIDS pandemic: New ways of preventing infection in men. *Reprod.Fertil.Dev.* 2004;16(5):555-9.
51. Short RV. New ways of preventing HIV infection: Thinking simply, simply thinking. *Philos.Trans.R.Soc. Lond.B.Biol.Sci.* 2006; May 29;361(1469):811-20.
52. Nyindo M. Complementary factors contributing to the rapid spread of HIV-I in sub-Saharan Africa: A review. *East Afr.Med.J.* 2005; Jan;82(1):40-6.
53. Inungu J, MaloneBeach E, Betts J. Male circumcision and the risk of HIV infection. *AIDS Read.* 2005; Mar;15(3):130,1, 135, 138.

MALE CIRCUMCISION AND HIV/AIDS RISK – ANALYSIS OF THE SCIENTIFIC EVIDENCE

54. Jones R, Gazzard B, Halima Y. Preventing HIV infection. *BMJ*. 2005; Dec 3;331(7528):1285-6.
55. Flynn P, Havens P, Brady M, Emmanuel P, Read J, Hoyt L, et al. Male circumcision for prevention of HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. *Pediatrics*. 2007; Apr;119(4):821-2.
56. Van Howe RS, Svoboda JS, Hodges FM. HIV infection and circumcision: Cutting through the hyperbole. *J.R.Soc.Health*. 2005; Nov;125(6):259-65.
57. Auerbach JD, Hayes RJ, Kandathil SM. Overview of effective and promising interventions to prevent HIV infection. *World Health.Organ.Tech.Rep.Ser*. 2006; 938: 43-78; discussion:317-41.
58. Chan DJ. Fatal attraction: Sex, sexually transmitted infections and HIV-1. *Int.J.STD AIDS*. 2006; Oct;17(10):643-51.
59. Mboti CI, Davies A, Fielder M, Jewell AP. Human immunodeficiency virus and hepatitis C co-infection in sub-Saharan West Africa. *Br.J.Biomed.Sci*. 2006;63(1):29-37.
60. Isiugo Abanihe UC. Sociocultural aspects of HIV/AIDS infection in Nigeria. *Afr.J.Med.Med.Sci*. 2006; Dec;35 Suppl:45-55.
61. Weiss HA. Male circumcision as a preventive measure against HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. *Curr.Opin.Infect.Dis*. 2007; Feb;20(1):66-72.
62. Sawires SR, Dworkin SL, Fiamma A, Peacock D, Szekeres G, Coates TJ. Male circumcision and HIV/AIDS: Challenges and opportunities. *Lancet*. 2007; Feb 24;369(9562):708-13.
63. Schenker I, Gross E. [Male circumcision and HIV/AIDS: Convincing evidence and their implication for the state of Israel]. *Harefuah*. 2007; Dec;146(12):957,63, 997.
64. Sharp M. 14th annual retrovirus conference (CROI). HIV prevention update. Some bad news, some good news. *Posit.Aware*. 2007; May-Jun;18(3):26-7.
65. Quinn TC. Circumcision and HIV transmission. *Curr. Opin.Infect.Dis*. 2007; Feb;20(1):33-8.
66. Schoen EJ. Should newborns be circumcised? Yes. *Can. Fam.Physician*. 2007; Dec;53(12):2096,8, 2100-2.
67. Clark PA, Eisenman J, Szapor S. Mandatory neonatal male circumcision in Sub-Saharan Africa: Medical and ethical analysis. *Med.Sci.Monit*. 2007; Dec;13(12):RA205-13.
68. Clark S. Male circumcision could help protect against HIV infection. *Lancet*. 2000; Jul 15;356(9225):225.
69. Morris BJ. Why circumcision is a biomedical imperative for the 21(st) century. *Bioessays*. 2007; Nov;29(11):1147-58.
70. Mor Z, Kent CK, Kohn RP, Klausner JD. Declining rates in male circumcision amidst increasing evidence of its public health benefit. *PLoS ONE*. 2007;2(9):e861.
71. Jayasuriya A, Robertson C, Allan PS. Twenty-five years of HIV management. *J.R.Soc.Med*. 2007; Aug;100(8):363-6.
72. Landovitz RJ. Recent efforts in biomedical prevention of HIV. *Top.HIV.Med*. 2007; Jun-Jul;15(3):99-103.
73. Vardi A, Guy L, Boiteux JP. Circoncision et VIH. [Circumcision and HIV]. *Prog.Urol*. 2008; Jun;18(6):331-6.
74. Cohen MS, Hellmann N, Levy JA, DeCock K, Lange J. The spread, treatment, and prevention of HIV-1: Evolution of a global pandemic. *J.Clin.Invest*. 2008; Apr;118(4):1244-54.
75. Gray RH, Wawer MJ, Polis CB, Kigozi G, Serwadda D. Male circumcision and prevention of HIV and sexually transmitted infections. *Curr.Infect.Dis.Rep*. 2008; May;10(2):121-7.
76. Potts M, Halperin DT, Kirby D, Swidler A, Marseille E, Klausner JD, et al. Public health. Reassessing HIV prevention. *Science*. 2008; May 9;320(5877):749-50.
77. Kahn JG, Marseille E, Auvert B. Cost-effectiveness of male circumcision for HIV prevention in a South African setting. *PLoS Med*. 2006; Dec;3(12):e517.
78. Gray RH, Li X, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Nalugoda F, Watya S, et al. The impact of male circumcision on HIV incidence and cost per infection prevented: A stochastic simulation model from Rakai, Uganda. *AIDS*. 2007; Apr 23;21(7):845-50.
79. Fieno JV. Costing adult male circumcision in high HIV prevalence, low circumcision rate countries. *AIDS Care*. 2008; May;20(5):515-20.
80. Krieger JN, Bailey RC, Opeya J, Ayieko B, Opiyo F, Agot K, et al. Adult male circumcision: Results of a standardized procedure in Kisumu District, Kenya. *BJU Int*. 2005; Nov;96(7):1109-13.
81. Krieger JN, Bailey RC, Opeya JC, Ayieko BO, Opiyo FA, Omondi D, et al. Adult male circumcision outcomes: Experience in a developing country setting. *Urol.Int*. 2007;78(3):235-40.