- 1 Full title: Prevalence of Sexually Transmitted Infections among Young People in South Africa: A
- 2 Nested Survey in a Health and Demographic Surveillance Site
- 3 Short title: STI/BV among Young People in South Africa
- 4 Investigators: Suzanna C Francis¹, T Nondumiso Mthiyane², Kathy Baisley^{1,2}, S Lerato Mchunu², Jane
- 5 Ferguson^{1,3}, Theresa Smit², Tania Crucitti⁴, Dickman Gareta², Sphephelo Dlamini², Tinofa Mutevedzi²,
- 6 Janet Seeley^{5,6}, Deenan Pillay^{2,7}, Nuala McGrath ^{6,8,9*}, Maryam Shahmanesh^{2,10*}
- 7 *joint last authors

8 Affiliations

9	1.	MRC Tropical Epidemiology Group, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine,					
10		London, UK					
11	2.	Africa Health Research Institute, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa					
12	3.	The Centre for Maternal, Adolescent, Reproductive, and Child Health (MARCH), London					
13		School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK					
14	4.	HIV/STI Reference Laboratory, Institute of Tropical Medicine, Antwerp, Belgium					
15	5.	Department of Global Health and Development, London School of Hygiene and Tropical					
16		Medicine, London, UK					
17	6.	Africa Health Research Institute, School of Nursing & Public Health, University of KwaZulu-					
18		Natal, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa					
19	7.	Division of Infection and Immunity, University College London, London, UK					
20	8.	Academic Unit of Primary Care and Population Sciences and Department of Social Statistics					
21	and Demography, University of Southampton, Southampton, UK						
22	9. Research Department of Epidemiology & Public Health, University College London, London						
23	UK						
24	10	. Institute of Global Health, University College London, London, UK					
25							
25							
26	Corres	ponding author: Suzanna C Francis; orcid.org/0000-0002-3724-4813					
27							
28	Key W	ords: sexually transmitted infections; chlamydia; gonorrhoea; trichomoniasis; bacterial					
20		the base of the state of the contract of the state of the					
29	vagino	sis; herpes simplex virus, sub-Saharan Africa					

31 ABSTRACT

32 Background

33 Sexually transmitted infections (STI) and bacterial vaginosis (BV) are associated with increased 34 transmission of HIV, and poor reproductive and sexual health. The burden of STI/BV among young 35 people is unknown in many high HIV prevalence settings. We conducted an acceptability, feasibility 36 and prevalence study of home-based sampling for STI/BV among young men and women aged 15–24 37 years old in a health and demographic surveillance site (HDSS) in rural KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

38 Methods and Findings

39 A total of 1342 young people, stratified by age (15–19 and 20–24 years) and sex were selected from 40 the HDSS sampling frame. 1171/1342(87%) individuals had ≥ 1 attempted home visit, of whom 41 790(67%) were successfully contacted. Among those contacted, 447(70%) enrolled. 42 Consenting/assenting participants were interviewed and blood, self-collected urine (men) and vaginal 43 swabs (women) were tested for Herpes simplex virus type-2 (HSV-2), chlamydia, gonorrhoea, 44 trichomoniasis, and BV. Both men and women reported that sample collection was easy. Participants 45 disagreed that sampling was painful; more than half the participants disagreed they felt anxious or 46 embarrassed. The weighted prevalence (95% confidence intervals) of STI/BV among men and women 47 respectively was chlamydia: 5.3%(3.0-9.4) and 11.2%(7.5-16.4); gonorrhoea: 1.5%(0.5-4.7) and 48 1.8%(0.7-4.3); active syphilis: 0% and 0.4% (0.1-2.5); trichomoniasis: 0.6%(0.1-4.0) and 4.6%(2.6-7.9); 49 HSV-2: 16.8%(11.3-24.1) and 28.7%(23.3-34.8); BV: 42.1%(35.5-49.0) (women only). 75%) who had ≥1 50 curable STI reported no symptoms. Factors associated with a STI/BV included older age, being female, 51 and not being in school or working. We encountered difficulties finding men at home and high 52 migration.

53 Conclusions

A high burden of STI/BV was found in this rural setting characterised by its high HIV prevalence. The majority of the STI/HIV infections were asymptomatic and would not have been identified or treated under national syndromic management guidelines. A nested STI/BV survey within a health and demographic surveillance site proved acceptable and feasible. This is a proof-of-concept for population-based STI surveillance in low and middle-income countries, which could be utilised in the evaluation of STI/HIV prevention and control programmes.

60 AUTHOR SUMMARY

61 Background

- 62 Adolescents and young people are particularly vulnerable to sexually transmitted infections.
- The first strategic direction of the 2016-2021 WHO Global Health Sector Strategy for Sexually
 Transmitted Infections is to collect information on STI prevalence and incidence across
 representative populations.
- There is evidence that bacterial vaginosis (BV) is a risk factor for poor birth outcomes and STIs
 including HIV. The collection of BV prevalence may also be important
- 68 Why Was This Study Done?
- Developing new cohorts for dedicated STI/BV prevalence studies may not be realistic,
 particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where the impact of STI/BV and their consequences may be
 greatest.
- Nesting STI/BV surveys within networks of Health and Demographic Surveillance Sites (HDSS)
 would be an efficient way of providing data to better understand STI epidemiology among
 adolescents and young people in high HIV prevalence settings.
- These data are essential to advocate, fund, plan, implement and evaluate interventions for
 STI prevention and control among adolescents and young people.
- 77 What Did the Researchers Do and Find?

78	>	We carried out a nested STI/BV survey among 1342 adolescent and young people in an HDSS
79		in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
80	>	Potential participants were contacted at home and invited to participate.
81	>	Participants were interviewed, and samples were collected for STI/BV.
82	>	We showed that this study was feasible: 1171/1342(87%) individuals had \geq 1 attempted home
83		visit, of whom 790(67%) were successfully contacted.
84	>	The study was also acceptable: Among those contacted, 447(70%) enrolled. Both men and
85		women reported few problems with sample collection.
86	>	In addition, we report a high burden of STI/BV in this population, particularly of chlamydia (5%
87		in men and 11% in women), herpes simplex virus-2 (17% in men and 29% in women) and BV
88		(42% in women).
89	What I	Do These Findings Mean?
90	>	Nested STI/BV surveys in HDSS can be feasible and acceptable.
91	>	These studies should be carried out in conjunction with studies to measure prevalence in high-
92		risk populations to provide robust prevalence estimates for the planning and evaluation of
93		national and local STI prevention and control.

95 Introduction

96 In 2012, 286 million people aged 12-24 lived in Africa, accounting for 18% of the global youth 97 population. By 2040, the number of young people in Africa is projected to increase by 60% to 466 98 million [1]. Health interventions targeted at this age group are important for current and future adult 99 health and for the health of the next generation. This is particularly true for sexually transmitted 100 infections (STI) which, when acquired in adolescence, can jeopardize sexual and reproductive health 101 later in life, and for women, the health of their babies. In low and middle-income countries (LMIC), 102 symptomatic STIs are treated by syndromic management (presumptive treatment for symptomatic 103 people without the use of laboratory tests) [2]; however, most STIs are asymptomatic and go 104 unnoticed and untreated. Both symptomatic and asymptomatic STIs can cause serious morbidity, 105 including pregnancy complications, cancer, infertility, and enhanced HIV transmission. Many of these 106 sequelae are preventable if STI testing and treatment is implemented. Moreover, there is growing 107 evidence that the common reproductive tract condition, bacterial vaginosis (BV) is an independent 108 risk factor for HIV [3,4], and BV-associated microbiota may decrease the efficacy of topical 109 microbicides [5].

110 Higher STI prevalence among young people has been observed worldwide and highlights the critical 111 need for global efforts to improve sexual and reproductive health in this population. In an individual 112 participant data meta-analysis of 18 HIV prevention studies among women in sub-Saharan Africa, STI 113 prevalence was higher among young women aged 15–24 years compared to older women for all STIs 114 except herpes simplex virus, type 2(HSV-2) (Elizabeth Torrone, personal communication); in this age 115 group, the estimated range of prevalence of STIs in South Africa among clinic/community populations 116 was 8.0% to 20.6% for chlamydia, 1.4% to 8.9% for gonorrhoea, 3.1% to 20.0% for trichomoniasis, 117 31.9% to 53.7% for HSV-2, and 35.8% to 52.4% for BV. In addition, for viral STI such as HSV-2 and 118 human papillomavirus infection incidence rapidly increases after sexual debut which usually occurs in 119 adolescence, and high incidences of both infections have been documented among young people in

sub-Saharan Africa [6–9]. However, many of these prevalence studies are urban and/or conducted in
clinical cohorts of adolescents and young adults known to be at high risk of infection. To date, there
have been few population estimates of the burden of STIs among adolescent girls and young women
and no studies of men (Elizabeth Torrone, personal communication).

124 The WHO Global Health Sector Strategy for STI, 2016-2021 has outlined the goals and targets for global 125 STI prevention and control. The first strategic direction is to collect information on STI prevalence and 126 incidence across representative populations [10]. Understanding regional and national STI epidemics 127 is essential to advocate, fund, plan, and implement interventions for STI prevention and control. The 128 strategy also urges LMIC to move from syndromic to aetiologic surveillance of STIs, and conduct routine surveillance in key populations most at risk for STI including adolescents. Yet, in resource-129 130 limited settings, developing new cohorts for dedicated STI prevalence studies may not be realistic, 131 particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where the impact of STIs and their consequences may be greatest.

132 Networks of health and demographic surveillance systems (HDSS) conducting longitudinal population-133 based research such as the INDEPTH Network may provide opportunities to obtain representative 134 STI/BV prevalence estimates for adolescents and young people and facilitate community entry and 135 engagement with sensitive topics such as sexual health [11]. However, population-based surveys can 136 be challenging to conduct. Key requirements include acceptability of being approached at home and 137 home sampling; parental availability to consent; receipt of results while maintaining confidentiality, 138 and establishing clinical pathways for the treatment of cases. We conducted a study in the Africa 139 Health Research Institute (AHRI; formerly the Africa Centre for Health and Population Studies) HDSS, 140 a member of the INDEPTH Network, to investigate the acceptability and feasibility of home-based 141 sampling of STI/BV among young people aged 15-24 years, and to measure prevalence and factors 142 associated with STI/BV. The background HIV prevalence in women aged 15-19 years and 20-24 years 143 is 14.7% and 26.5%, respectively, and in men aged 15-19 years and 20-24 years is 7.0% and 10.2%, 144 respectively [12].

145 Methods

This study is reported as per the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology
(STROBE) guidelines (S1 Checklist) [13].

148 Setting and sampling

The AHRI HDSS is located in rural uMkhanyakude district of KwaZulu-Natal, covering an area of 438 km², with a 2016 population of approximately 100,000 people who are members of 12,000 households [14]. Since 2000, annual household-based surveys have been used to collect information on births, deaths and migration patterns from all household members, including non-residents. In addition, resident household members aged ≥15 years are invited to participate in an annual HIV serosurvey, and to complete a questionnaire on general health and sexual behaviour.

For the STI survey, young men and women who were resident in the HDSS, based on the data collected in the routine household surveillance, and aged 15–24 years as of 19 July 2016 were eligible for inclusion. A random sample of 1342 young people was selected to obtain a target sample size of 800, allowing for 40% non-contact/refusals. This sample size would have provided relatively precision for low prevalence STIs. Sampling was stratified by age group (15–19 years and 20–24 years) and sex. The HDSS is divided into 14 subareas; within each stratum, a fixed proportion was sampled from each subarea to reflect the population distribution across the HDSS.

162 Ethics, informed consent and community engagement

The University of KwaZulu-Natal Biomedical Review Ethics Committee, the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Research Ethics Committee, the Southampton General Hospital Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee, the Hlabisa District Hospital and the AHRI Somkhele Community Advisory Board approved the study protocol. The STI survey was called *Ukuvikela impilo yetho yokuzalana eyigugu*, isiZulu for "protecting our precious reproductive health." The AHRI Community Engagement Team disseminated information about the study in community dialogues and road shows. Potential

participants were contacted at home and invited to participate. Written parental consent was required for participants <18 years old with participant written assent. Participants aged 18 years or older proved written consent. Participants consented separately for each sample type (vaginal swab [women], urine [men] and blood); participants who did not consent for a sample could still enrol in the study. Participants were asked for permission to link their STI survey data with the data collected in the annual routine household and individual surveillance.

175 Study procedures

The study team consisted of 2 field workers (1 male and 1 female), 2 female licensed practical nurses,
177 1 male licensed practical nurse and 1 male registered nurse team leader with an intention to match
178 same sex nurse to participants whenever possible. The field work was conducted Tuesday to Saturday
179 from 11am to 7pm to maximise finding participants at home.

180 After informed consent/assent, the participant had a short computer-assisted personal interview by 181 the study nurse [15]. The interview obtained data on demographics, substance use, sexual behaviour, 182 violence, circumcision (young men only), family planning (young women only), genital hygiene, and 183 genital symptoms. For questions about sexual behaviour and violence, the participant was asked to 184 self-interview using a tablet device; however, the study nurse was available to support the participant 185 if needed. If a participant reported genital complaints, they were referred to our study nurse in a local 186 primary health clinic for syndromic management as per South African STI Management Guidelines 187 (2015) [16].

All participants had 8.5 ml of blood drawn for syphilis and HSV-2. For young women, the research nurse explained the procedure to self-collect a total of 5 vaginal swabs for testing for chlamydia, gonorrhoea, trichomoniasis and BV. Swab collection took place in a private setting identified by the participant. Young men collected a urine sample for testing for chlamydia, gonorrhoea, and trichomoniasis.

After the sample collection, participants were asked to rate their agreement with 10 statements using visual analogue scales (VAS) ranging from 0 (easy/agree) to 100 (difficult/disagree) to assess the ease of understanding of consent for the study, the instructions for collecting the sample, and the participant's experience of participation.

197 All participants were asked to provide contact information for test results, including their preferred 198 mode of contact for both positive and negative results (e.g. telephone call, text or WhatsApp 199 Messenger), and ideal hours for contact. We attempted to contact all participants with the results of 200 the laboratory-diagnosed curable STIs (chlamydia, gonorrhoea, trichomoniasis, syphilis). All 201 participants with mobile phones were provided 5 South Africa Rand (0.37 US Dollar) of air time to 202 contact the study nurses with questions if needed. Participants who had a positive test for a curable 203 STI were referred for free treatment; reimbursement for travel was provided. We traced all cases who 204 were not contactable or did not come to clinic for treatment. We used the British Association for 205 Sexual Health and HIV (BASHH) guidelines for the treatment of laboratory diagnosed chlamydia, 206 gonorrhoea, and trichomoniasis [17–19], and South African STI Management Guidelines for the 207 treatment of syphilis [16].

208 Laboratory methods

209 Laboratory testing was performed according to manufacturer's instructions and standard operating 210 procedures in the central AHRI laboratory and Global Clinical and Viral Laboratory in Durban. Serum 211 samples were used to test for IgG antibodies for HSV-2 by a type specific ELISA (Kalon Biological Ltd., 212 Guildford, UK). Syphilis was determined by the Determine[™] Syphilis TP rapid test (Alere Inc, USA) in 213 the central AHRI laboratory. All positives were confirmed at the Global Clinical and Viral Laboratory 214 with Treponema pallidum haemagglutination (TPHA) (Randox Laboratories, UK) and tested with 215 venereal disease research laboratory (VDRL) (Omega Diagnostics, UK) using a reverse algorithm as per 216 South African STI Management Guidelines [16] due to the young age of participants (i.e. unlikely to 217 have treated past infections). Syphilis was defined as follows: negative (TPHA-/VDRL-); early or

218 previously treated infection (TPHA +/VDRL-); active syphilis (TPHA +/VDRL+ low titre [<1:8]; TPHA
219 +/VDRL+ high titre [≥1:8])

220 Vaginal swabs were used to prepare a slide at the home and air dried. Slides were transported to the 221 central ARHI laboratory, methanol-affixed, Gram stained, and examined for BV using the Nugent score 222 [20]. A Nugent score of 0-3 indicated normal microbiota, 4-6 indicated intermediate microbiota and 223 7-10 indicated BV. Vaginal swabs (women) and urine (men) were sent to Global Clinical and Viral 224 Laboratory for testing by real-time PCR for Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Chlamydia trachomatis, and 225 Trichomonas vaginalis. Detection was carried out using the Lightmix Kit Neisseria gonorrhoeae, the 226 Lightmix Kit Chlamydia trachomatis and the Lightmix Kit Trichomonas vaginalis (TIB MOLBIOL, 227 Germany) following manufacturer's instructions. All positive tests for N. gonorrhoeae were confirmed 228 using GeneXpert (Cepheid Inc, USA). External quality controls are carried out quarterly for real-time 229 PCR with the College of American Pathology.

230 Data management and statistical methods

Data were captured electronically using REDCap software [21]; range and consistency checks were done automatically during data capture; further data cleaning and analysis was done using Stata 14 (College Station, USA). All questions were required to minimise missing data, although participants could reply 'don't know' or 'prefer not to say'.

The statistical analysis plan was prepared prior to the statistical analysis (S1 Statistical Analysis Plan). Changes in response to peer review of this paper included the inclusion of other STIs to the BV risk factor analysis, and the inclusion of transactional sex in each risk factor analysis. Continuous variables were summarised using means, standard deviations, medians and inter-quartile ranges; categorical data were summarised using frequency counts and percentages. Missing data were not inputted. Acceptability and feasibility of our survey were measured by the following outcomes: proportion of

240 Acceptability and reasibility of our survey were measured by the following outcomes: proportion of 241 participants who were selected and contactable; the proportion of those contacted who agreed to

participate; the proportion who agreed to each sample collection (e.g. blood, vaginal swabs and urine);
median and interquartile range of responses to a VAS measuring acceptability post-sampling; and
proportion of cases who presented for treatment. We also estimated STI/BV prevalence and explored
factors associated with any curable STI (chlamydia, gonorrhoea, syphilis, and trichomoniasis), HSV-2,
and BV.

The number of individuals who were successfully contacted, and who consented to participate, were tabulated by sex, age group, residence location (urban/peri-urban/rural), household socioeconomic status, education level and HIV status using linked data from the HDSS. Characteristics of individuals who participated and the remainder in the eligibility list were compared using Chi-squared tests.

The prevalence estimate of each STI/BV, and its 95% confidence interval (CI), was calculated overall and by sex; prevalence estimates were weighted to account for the stratified sample design and nonresponse, calculated as the inverse probability of study participation in strata defined by age group, sex and residence location (urban/peri-urban/rural). We compared these results to unweighted prevalence and prevalence weighted for the stratified sample design only.

256 Logistic regression was used to estimate odds ratios and 95% CIs for factors associated with the 257 presence of any curable STI (chlamydia, gonorrhoea, syphilis or trichomoniasis), of HSV-2 and of BV; 258 separate models were developed for each outcome. Potential factors associated with curable STIs, 259 HSV-2 and BV were examined using a conceptual framework with 3 levels: sociodemographic factors, 260 modifiable behavioural factors (including genital hygiene), and sexual behaviour. For each outcome, 261 age and sex (except for BV, which was in women only) were considered a priori confounders and were 262 included in all models. First, sociodemographic factors whose age- and sex-adjusted associations with 263 the outcome were significant at p<0.10 were included in a multivariable model; those remaining 264 associated at p<0.10 were retained in a core model. Behavioural factors were then added to this core 265 model one by one; those that were associated with the outcome at p<0.10, after adjusting for 266 sociodemographic factors, were included in a multivariable model and retained if they remained

associated at p<0.10. Associations with sexual behavioural factors were subsequently determined in a similar way. Many of the questions about sexual relationships were only asked if participants reported having ever had sex; therefore, the analysis of these variables were restricted to that subgroup.

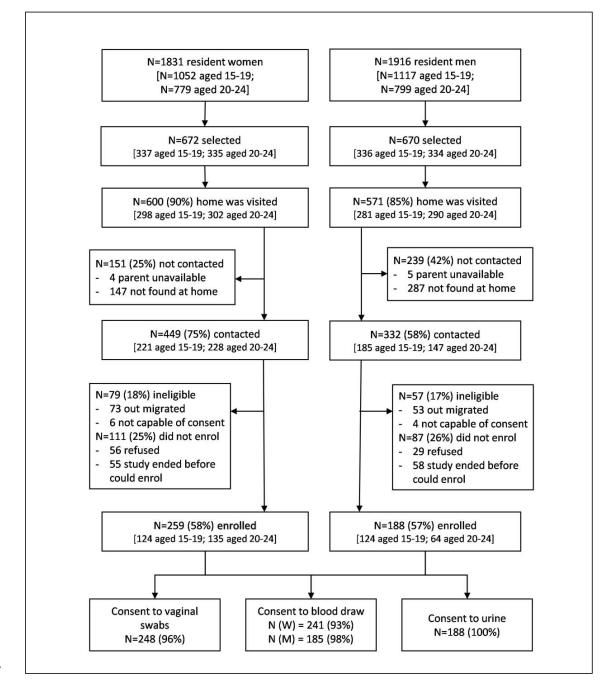
271 Results

272 Acceptability and feasibility

273 The field work took place from October 2016 to January 2017. Due to unexpected time limitations, 274 only 1 visit attempt per selected individual was carried out from November to January to attempt 275 coverage in subareas (a total of 14 subareas); however, not all selected young people were visited. 276 1171/1342 (87%) individuals had \geq 1 attempted home visit, of whom 781(67%) were successfully 277 contacted (Fig 1). Individuals aged 20–24 were less likely to be contacted than those aged 15–19 (63% 278 vs 70% of those with an attempted visit, p=0.01), and less likely to be eligible after contact was made 279 (mostly due to migration). Men were less likely to be contacted than women (58% vs 75%, p<0.001). 280 Among those contacted, 447(57%, or 69% of those who were still eligible) enrolled. Overall, there was 281 strong evidence that individuals who were sampled but did not enrol were more likely to be older, 282 male, from rural or urban areas, and have completed secondary education or above, compared with 283 those who enrolled (Supplementary Table S1).

285 Fig 1. Flow diagram for enrolment in a population-based STI survey among young people aged 15-24

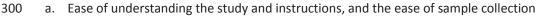


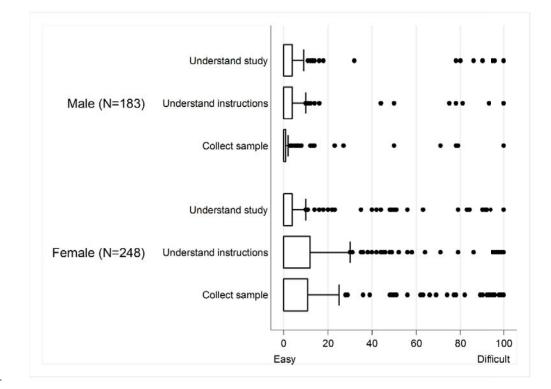


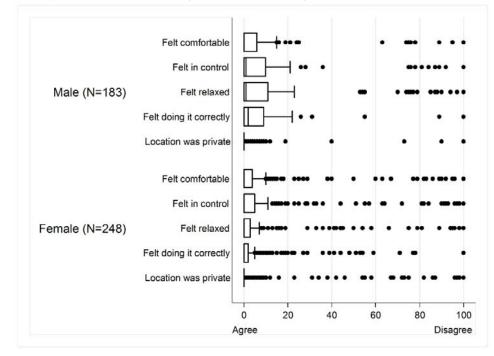


Of those enrolled, 96% women provided all vaginal swabs and 93% provided blood samples; all men provided urines and 98% provided blood samples. Both men and women reported that it was easy to understand how to collect urine / vaginal swabs, respectively (Fig 2a). Participants agreed they felt

291 comfortable, in control, relaxed, and confident of their ability to collect the sample correctly (Fig 2b). 292 Participants disagreed that that sampling was painful. Most men disagreed that they felt anxious or 293 embarrassed or; and over half of women disagreed that they were anxious or embarrassed (Fig 2c). 294 Fig 2. Box and whisker plots of the acceptability of sampling in a population-based STI/BV survey 295 among young people aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal. The vertical line within the box indicates the median, boundaries of the box indicate the interquartile range (25th and 75th 296 297 percentiles), and the whiskers indicates values that are within 1.5 times the interquartile range 298 above the 75th percentile, or 1.5 times the interquartile range below the 25th percentile. Values 299 outside that range are plotted as individual points. E.g. the medians for Fig 2a equal 0.



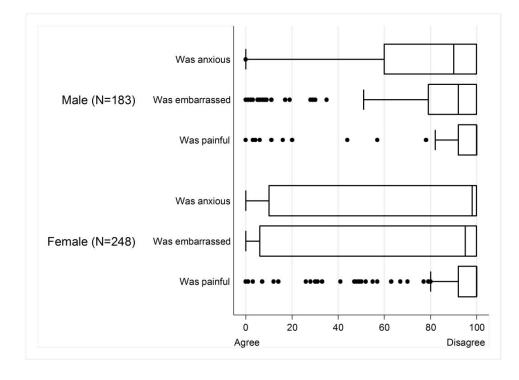




b. Experience of self-collecting urine (males) or vaginal swabs (women) - Positive Items

303

304 c. Experience of self-collecting urine (males) or vaginal swabs (women) - Negative items



Of those who provided samples, 206/245(84%) of 15–19 year olds and 184/192(96%) of 20–24 year
olds enrolled had access to a telephone to receive results. Of those, the majority preferred a telephone

- 308 call for both positive and negative results (59% or 57%, respectively) followed by an SMS message
- 309 (37% or 39%, respectively). Few choose to receive their results (positive or negative) by WhatsApp
- 310 Messenger (4% or 4%, respectively). These were similar by sex and age, although a higher proportion
- of males than females preferred to receive their results by telephone (S2 Table).
- 312 55 had ≥1 curable STI and were invited to the clinic for management: 52 (95%) came on their own,
- and 3 had to be traced.
- 314 *Results of behavioural questionnaire*

315 Most participants were currently enrolled in school (Table 1). Few participants were working (9% of

- 316 men and 5% of women). Proportionally, more men aged 20-24 years reported having ever smoked a
- 317 cigarette compared to women of the same age (17% vs 8%, respectively). Conversely, proportionally
- fewer men compared to women reported having ever had at least 1drink of alcohol (23% vs 51%,
- respectively). A small proportion of participants reported cannabis use 8% among men aged 20-24
- 320 years, and less than 2% of participants reported using other drugs.

		Male			Female			Overall	
	15-19 131	20-24	Total	15-19 134	20-24	Total	15-19 240	20-24	Total
l otal	124	64	188	124	135	642	248	66T	447
Unaracteristics ⁻ Highest level of									
Primary	16 (12,9%)	3 (4.7 %)	19 (10,1%)	5 (4.0 %)	9 (6,7 %)	14 (5.4 %)	21(8,5 %)	12 (6.0 %)	33(7,4 %)
Secondary	90 (72.6%)	21 (32.8%)	111 (59.0%)	106 (85.5%)	52 (38.5%)	158 (61.0%)	196(79.0%)	73 (36.7%)	269(60.2%)
Matric or above	18 (14.5%)	40 (62.5%)	58 (30.9%)	13 (10.5%)	74 (54.8%)	87 (33.6%)	31(12.5%)	114 (57.3%)	145(32.4%)
Socio-economic									
status									
Low	53 (42.7%)	27 (42.2%)	80 (42.6%)	57 (46.3%)	60 (44.8%)	117 (45.5%)	110(44.5%)	87 (43.9%)	197 (44.3%)
Middle	30 (24.2%)	18 (28.1%)	48 (25.5%)	24 (19.5%)	38 (28.4%)	62 (24.1%)	54 (21.9%)	56 (28.3%)	110 (24.7%)
High	41 (33.1%)	19 (29.7%)	60 (31.9%)	42 (34.2%)	36 (26.9%)	78 (30.4%)	83 (33.6%0	55 (27.8%)	138 (31.0%)
Currently in school									
Yes	114 (91.9%)	30 (46.9%)	144 (76.6%)	112 (90.3%)	47 (35.1%)	159 (61.6%)	226(91.1%)	77 (38.9%)	303(67.9%)
Working									
Yes	12 (9.8 %)	8 (12.5 %)	20 (8.6 %)	7 (5.7 %)	7 (5.2 %)	14 (5.4 %)	19(7.7 %)	15 (7.5 %)	34(7.6%)
Ever smoked									
cigarette									
Yes	3 (2.5 %)	11 (17.2%)	14 (7.5 %)	13 (10.6%)	11 (8.1 %)	24 (9.3 %)	16(6.5 %)	22 (11.1%)	38(8.6 %)
Ever used cannabis									
Yes	1 (0.8%)	5 (7.8%)	6 (3.2%)	8 (6.5%)	5 (3.7%)	13 (5.0%)	9 (3.6%)	10 (5.0%)	19 (4.3%)
Use other drugs									
Yes	2 (1.6 %)	1	2 (1.1 %)	1 (0.8 %)	2 (1.5 %)	3 (1.2 %)	3(1.2 %)	2 (1.0 %)	5(1.1 %)
Ever drunk 1 drink of									
alcohol									
Yes	26 (21.7%)	17 (26.6%)	43 (23.4%)	57 (47.1%)	73 (54.5%)	130 (51.0%)	83(34.4%)	90 (45.5%)	173(39.4%)
Ever been									
circumcised									
Yes	71 (57.3%)	25 (39.1%)	96 (51.1%)	I	ł	ł	I	I	1
Cleanse inside									
vagina									
Yes	I	1	1	13 (10.7%)	28 (20.9%)	41 (16.1%)	ł	I	1

Yes	I	1	1	27 (22.5%)	67 (50.4%)	94 (37.2%)	ł		1
Ever had sex Yes	29 (23.6%)	32 (52.5%)	61 (33.2%)	54 (46.2%)	101 (77.7%)	155 (62.8%)	83(34.6%)	133 (69.6%)	216(50.1%)
Condom at last sex									
	16 (55.2%)	20 (60.6%)	36 (58.1%)	26 (49.1%)	36 (36.4%)	62 (40.8%)	42(51.2%)	56 (42.4%)	98(45.8%)
Partner discuss their									
HIV status									
	8 (27.6%)	13 (44.8%)	21 (36.2%)	25 (46.3%)	60 (61.2%)	85 (55.9%)	33(39.8%)	73 (57.5%)	106(50.5%)
Know partner's HIV									
	9 (31.0%)	13 (43.3%)	22 (37.3%)	28 (49.1%)	59 (59.0%)	87 (55.4%)	37(43.0%)	72 (55.4%)	109(50.5%)
Discuss your HIV									
status with partner									
	12 (50.0%)	14 (46.7%)	26 (48.1%)	28 (53.8%)	62 (68.9%)	90 (63.4%)	40(52.6%)	76 (63.3%)	116(59.2%)
Number of current									
sexual partners									
None	94 (78.3%)	29 (49.2%)	123 (68.7%)	63 (57.3%)	29 (23.2%)	92 (39.1%)	157(68.3%)	58 (31.5%)	215(51.9%)
	21 (17.5%)	21 (35.6%)	42 (23.5%)	44 (40.0%)	91 (72.8%)	135 (57.4%)	65(28.3%)	112 (60.9%)	177(42.8%)
2 or more	5 (4.2 %)	9 (15.3%)	14 (7.8 %)	3 (2.7 %)	5 (4.0 %)	8 (3.4 %)	8(3.5 %)	14 (7.6 %)	22(5.3 %)
Oral sex, receive									
	9 (7.3 %)	7 (11.5%)	16 (8.7 %)	11 (9.2 %)	38 (30.2%)	49 (19.9%)	20(8.2 %)	45 (24.1%)	65(15.1%)
Oral sex, provide									
	12 (9.7 %)	8 (12.9%)	20 (10.8%)	21 (17.5%)	59 (46.1%)	80 (32.3%)	33(13.5%)	67 (35.3%)	100(23.0%)
Ever had anal sex									
	2 (1.6 %)	ł	2 (1.1 %)	6 (5.0 %)	6 (4.7 %)	12 (4.8 %)	8(3.3 %)	6 (3.2 %)	14(3.2 %)
Violence									
(perpetrator)									
	5 (4.1%)	3 (4.9%)	8 (4.4%)	3 (2.6%)	8 (6.2%)	11 (4.3%)	8 (3.4%)	11 (5.8%)	19 (4.4%)
Violence (victim)									
	6 (6.4%)	3 (4.8%)	11 (5.9%)	7 (5.8%)	19 (15.1%)	26 (10.5%)	15 (6.1%)	22 (11.7%)	37 98.7%)
HIV status ²									
Positive	2 (3.6%)	5 (19.2%)	7 (8.5%)	6 (8.6%)	23 (29.5%)	29 (19.6%)	8 (6.4%)	28 (26.9%)	36 (15.7%)
Negative	54 (96.4%)	21 (80.8%)	75 (91.5%)	64 (91.4%)	55 (70.5%)	119 (80.4%)	118/93.6%)	76 (73 1%)	194 (84 3%)

osurvey Ξ 2 σ 5 С ≥ 20 D 2 . D 5 σ D 5 1) 5 5 ğ 5 Ď Δ h ĥ D, 5 5 Δ 2 ndolu

51% men reported circumcision: younger men were more likely to be circumcised (Table 1). 16%
women reported using intravaginal cleansing, older women were more likely to report intravaginal
cleansing. 23% of women aged 15-19 and 50% of women aged 20-24 reported contraceptive use.

61 (33%) men and 155 (63%) women reported having had sexual intercourse; of these, the median(IQR) of lifetime partners was 4(2-6) for men and 3(2-3) for women. A larger proportion of men than women reported having used a condom at last intercourse 58% vs 41%, respectively). A smaller proportion of men than women reported knowing their last partner's HIV status (37% vs 55%, respectively), and a smaller proportion of men than women reported discussing their own HIV status with their last partner (48% of men vs 63% of women).

More women aged 20-24 years reported providing (32%) or receiving oral sex (20%) than men of the same age group (11% and 9%, respectively). Few participants reported ever having anal sex, fewer men than women (1% vs 5%). Among men who participated in the 2016 HIV serosurvey, the prevalence of HIV among those aged 15-19 years was 4%, aged 20-24 years was 19%. Among women the prevalence of HIV among those aged 15-19 years was 9%, and aged 20-24 years was 30%.

337 Prevalence of STI/BVs

338 Weighted prevalence from Table 2 shows a high prevalence of chlamydia in men aged 20-24 (12.6%; 339 95% CI 6.5%-23.3%), and women in both age groups (15-19 years: 11.7%; 95%CI 6.8%-19.3%; 20-24 340 years: 10.2%; 95%Cl 6.0%-176.9%). The prevalence of gonorrhoea was relatively low from 0% (no 341 cases) among men aged 20-24 to 3.2% (95% CI 1.2%-8.2%) in women of the same age group. There 342 was 1 case of active syphilis - the overall prevalence of active syphilis was 0.2%. There were 5 343 treponemal - / VDRL + samples. The prevalence of trichomoniasis was lower in men compared to 344 women (0.6% [95%CI 0.1%-4%] vs 5% [95%CI 3%-8%]); the highest prevalence among women aged 345 20-24 years. 14% had a curable STI (chlamydia, gonorrhoea, syphilis and trichomoniasis). Of these, 346 75% reported no symptoms. The prevalence of HSV-2 was lower in men compared to women (17% 347 [95%CI 11%-24%] vs 29% [95%CI 23%-25%]) with the highest prevalence among women aged 20-24

years. The prevalence of BV was 41% (95%CI 32%-50%) among women aged 15 to 19 years and 44%
(95%CI 35%-53% among women 20-24 years. Prevalence weighted for sampling and non-response
(Table 2) were similar to unweighted prevalence and prevalence using sampling weights only (S3
Table).

		Male			Female			All participants	
	15–19 years (N=124)	20–24 years (N=64)	All males (N=188)	15–19 years (N=124)	20–24 years (N=135)	All females (N=259)	15–19 years (N=248)	20–24 years (N=199)	All participants (N=477)
Chlamydia									
Positive	1.6% (0.4-6.1)	12.6% (6.5- 23.3)	5.3% (3.0-9.4)	11.7% (6.8- 19.3)	10.2% (6.0- 16.9)	11.2% (7.5- 16.4)	6.2% (3.8-10.1)	11.5% (7.4- 17.5)	8.1% (5.8-11.1)
Gonorrhoea									
Positive	2.3% (0.7-7.0)	0	1.5% (0.5-4.7)	1.1% (0.3-4.5)	3.2% (1.2-8.2)	1.8% (0.8-4.1)	1.8% (0.7-4.3)	1.5% (0.6-3.9)	1.7% (0.8-3.3)
Syphilis									
Active	0	0	0	0	0.8% (0.1-5.7)	0.4% (0.0-2.5)	0	0.5% (0.1-3.4)	0.2% (0.0-1.2)
Early/previously	0	1.4% (0.2-9.5)	0.4% (0.0-2.5)	0	3.2% (1.2-8.2)	1.4% (0.5-3.6)	0	2.4% (1.0-5.8)	0.8% (0.3-1.9)
treated									
Trichomoniasis									
Positive	0	1.7% (0.2-11.1)	0.6% (0.1-4.0)	2.0% (0.5-7.7)	9.4% (5.4-16.0) 4.6% (2.6-7.9)	4.6% (2.6-7.9)	0.9% (0.2-3.6)	5.3% (3.0-9.2)	2.4% (1.4-4.2)
HSV-2									
Positive	12.1% (7.3-	25.8% (14.3-	16.8% (11.3-	18.1% (11.8-	48.0% (39.2-	28.7% (23.3-	14.8% (10.7-	36.1% (28.4-	22.2% (18.2-
	19.2)	41.9)	24.1)	26.7)	56.9)	34.8)	20.1)	44.6)	26.8)
Bacterial vaginosis									
Intermediate	ı	ı	ı	9.9% (5.5-17.2)	11.3% (6.8-	10.4% (6.8-	ı	ı	ı
					18.3)	15.4)			
Positive	ı	ı	ı	41.1% (32.3-	44.2% (35.5-	42.1% (35.5-	ı	ı	ı
				50.4)	53.2)	49.0)			

355 Factors associated with STI/BV

356 In the adjusted analysis of factors associated with curable STIs (chlamydia, gonorrhoea, syphilis and

trichomoniasis), participants aged 20-24 years and women had more than twice the odds of having a

- 358 curable STI compared to participants aged 15-19 years or men (Table 3). Increasing number of lifetime
- 359 sexual partners was associated with a curable STI (p=0.034). Reporting having had sexual intercourse
- 360 was strongly associated with a curable STI.

Table 3. Factors associated with chlamydia, gonorrhoea, syphilis and trichomoniasis in a population-

362 based STI survey among young people aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal (N=447)

	No. with any curable STI/N(%)	Crude OR (95% CI)	Age-sex adj OR (95%CI)	Adjusted OR ¹ (95% CI)
Socio-demographic				
Age group		P<0.0001	P=0.001	P=0.001
15-19	20 / 245 (8.2 %)	1	1.00 (1.00 -1.00)	1
20-24	40 / 191 (20.9%)	2.98 (1.68 -5.30)	2.64 (1.47 -4.73)	2.64 (1.47 -4.73)
Sex		P=0.001	P=0.006	P=0.006
Male	14 / 188 (7.4 %)	1	1	1
Female	46 / 248 (18.5%)	2.83 (1.50 -5.32)	2.45 (1.29 -4.65)	2.45 (1.29 -4.65)
In school or		P=0.001	P=0.268	P=0.268
working				
No	29 / 128 (22.7%)	1	1	1
Yes	31 / 308 (10.1%)	0.38 (0.22 -0.67)	0.69 (0.35 -1.33)	0.69 (0.35 -1.33)
Socio-economic		P=0.276	P=0.287	P=0.287
status				
Low	32 / 192 (16.7%)	1	1	1
Middle	14 / 109 (12.8%)	0.74 (0.37 -1.45)	0.68 (0.34 -1.36)	0.68 (0.34 -1.36)
High	14 / 133 (10.5%)	0.59 (0.30 -1.15)	0.61 (0.30 -1.21)	0.61 (0.30 -1.21)
Highest level of		P=0.485	P=0.774	P=0.774
education				
completed				
Primary	5 / 33 (15.2%)	1	1	1
Secondary	32 / 263 (12.2%)	0.78 (0.28 -2.15)	0.79 (0.27 -2.31)	0.79 (0.27 -2.31)
Matric or above	23 / 140 (16.4%)	1.10 (0.38 -3.15)	0.68 (0.22 -2.07)	0.68 (0.22 -2.07)
Behaviour				
Ever smoked		P=0.718	P=0.915	P=0.827
cigarette				
No	54 / 395 (13.7%)	1	1	1
Yes	6 / 38 (15.8%)	1.18 (0.47 -2.97)	1.05 (0.41 -2.68)	0.90 (0.34 -2.35)
Ever drank alcohol		P=0.014	P=0.150	P=0.150
No	27 / 259 (10.4%)	1	1	1
Yes	32 / 169 (18.9%)	2.01 (1.15 -3.49)	1.54 (0.86 -2.75)	1.54 (0.86 -2.75)
Sexual behaviour an	d violence			
Genital touching		P=0.001	P=0.044	P=0.296
No	24 / 258 (9.3 %)	1	1	1

1				(
Yes	36 / 178 (20.2%)	2.47 (1.42 -4.31)		
Oral sex (receive)		P=0.106	P=0.963	P=0.201
No	39 / 326 (12.0%)	1	1	1
Yes	18 / 98 (18.4%)	1.66 (0.90 -3.05)	0.98 (0.51 -1.91)	0.62 (0.30 -1.29)
Oral sex (provide)		P=0.156	P=0.850	P=0.626
No	45 / 357 (12.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	12 / 62 (19.4%)	1.66 (0.82 -3.36)	1.07 (0.51 -2.26)	0.83 (0.38 -1.79)
Ever had sex		P<0.0001	P=0.004	P=0.009
No	13 / 210 (6.2 %)	1	1	1
Yes	45 / 210 (21.4%)	4.13 (2.16 -7.92)	2.77 (1.38 -5.55)	2.67 (1.28 -5.55)
Number of lifetime		P<0.0001	P=0.014	P=0.038
sexual partners				
None	13 / 210 (6.2 %)	1	1	1
1	17 / 82 (20.7%)	3.96 (1.83 -8.60)	2.81 (1.25 -6.33)	2.78 (1.19 -6.50)
2 or more	23 / 104 (22.1%)	4.30 (2.08 -8.91)	2.88 (1.32 -6.28)	2.47 (1.07 -5.70)
Violence-		P=0.681	P=0.891	P=0.395
perpetrator				
No	53 / 399 (13.3%)	1	1	1
Yes	3 / 18 (16.7%)	1.31 (0.37 -4.66)	1.10 (0.29 -4.09)	0.49 (0.09 -2.55)
Violence-victim		P=0.006	P=0.040	P=0.126
No	45 / 387 (11.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	10 / 35 (28.6%)	3.04 (1.37 -6.74)	2.39 (1.04 -5.49)	1.96 (0.83 -4.65)

¹ Sociodemographic variables adjusted for age and gender. Behavioural variables adjusted for age, gender and
 ever drunk alcohol. Sexual behaviour and violence variables adjusted for age, gender, ever drank alcohol, ever
 had sex and violence (victim). Number of lifetime sexual partners was not included for the adjustment with
 sexual behaviour due to collinearity with ever had sex.

367 In the adjusted analysis of factors associated with HSV-2, participants aged 20-24 years and women

had twice the odds of HSV-2 infection compared to participants aged 15-19 years or men (Table 4).

369 Participants currently enrolled in school or working had less than half the odds of HSV-2 infection

370 compared to those who were neither in school nor working.

371 Table 4. Factors associated with herpes simplex virus-2 in a population-based STI survey among

372 young people aged 15-24 years in rural Kwa-Zulu Natal (N=419¹)

	No. with HSV-2/N(%)	Crude OR (95% CI)	Age-sex adj OR (95%Cl)	Adjusted OR ² (95% CI)
Socio-demographic				
Age group		P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P=0.004
15-19	35 / 233 (15.0%)	1	1	1
20-24	73 / 186 (39.2%)	3.65 (2.30 -5.82)	3.29 (2.05 -5.28)	2.23 (1.29 -3.83)
Sex		P<0.0001	P=0.001	P=0.006
Male	29 / 183 (15.8%)	1	1	1
Female	79 / 236 (33.5%)	2.67 (1.65 -4.32)	2.28 (1.39 -3.74)	2.03 (1.22 -3.37)
In school or working		P<0.0001	P=0.003	P=0.003
No	57 / 125 (45.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	51 / 294 (17.3%)	0.25 (0.16 -0.40)	0.44 (0.25 -0.75)	0.44 (0.25 -0.75)

Socio-economic		D 0 427		D 0 001
status		P=0.437	P=0.550	P=0.691
Low	51 / 184 (27.7%)	1	1	1
Middle	29 / 105 (27.6%)	1.00 (0.58 -1.70)	0.92 (0.52 -1.62)	0.85 (0.47 -1.52)
High	28 / 129 (21.7%)	0.72 (0.43 -1.23)	0.73 (0.42 -1.28)	0.79 (0.45 -1.39)
Highest level of		P=0.007	P=0.413	P=0.743
education completed				
Primary	9 / 31 (29.0%)	1	1	1
Secondary	51 / 251 (20.3%)	0.62 (0.27 -1.44)	0.59 (0.24 -1.45)	0.72 (0.28 -1.80)
Matric or above	48 / 137 (35.0%)	1.32 (0.56 -3.09)	0.76 (0.30 -1.93)	0.70 (0.27 -1.80)
Behaviour				
Ever smoked cigarette		P=0.289	P=0.488	P=0.400
No	96 / 381 (25.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	12 / 36 (33.3%)	1.48 (0.71 -3.08)	1.31 (0.61 -2.80)	1.40 (0.64 -3.04)
Ever drank alcohol		P=0.009	P=0.244	P=0.204
No	52 / 250 (20.8%)	1	1	1
Yes	52 / 161 (32.3%)	1.82 (1.16 -2.85)	1.34 (0.82 -2.18)	1.38 (0.84 -2.27)
Sexual behaviour and v	iolence			
Genital touching		P<0.0001	P=0.001	P=0.255
No	42 / 247 (17.0%)	1	1	1
Yes	66 / 172 (38.4%)	3.04 (1.93 -4.78)	2.24 (1.39 - 3.61)	1.40 (0.78 -2.52)
Oral sex (receive)		P=0.008	P=0.741	P=0.503
No	73 / 314 (23.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	35 / 94 (37.2%)	1.96 (1.20 -3.21)	1.10 (0.63 -1.90)	0.82 (0.46 -1.47)
Oral sex (provide)		P=0.022	P=0.577	P=0.859
No	81 / 343 (23.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	23 / 61 (37.7%)	1.96 (1.10 -3.48)	1.19 (0.64 -2.22)	0.94 (0.49 -1.81)
Ever had sex		P<0.0001	P=0.004	P=0.012
No	31 / 204 (15.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	76 / 201 (37.8%)	3.39 (2.11 -5.47)	2.14 (1.27 -3.58)	1.96 (1.16 -3.32)
Number of lifetime		D .0 0004	D 0 025	D. 0.005
sexual partners		P<0.0001	P=0.035	P=0.085
None	31 / 204 (15.2%)	1	1	1
1	21 / 78 (26.9%)	2.06 (1.10 - 3.86)	1.40 (0.72 -2.73)	1.29 (0.65 -2.56)
2 or more	39 / 100 (39.0%)	3.57 (2.05 -6.21)	2.22 (1.21 -4.06)	2.01 (1.08 - 3.73)
Violence-perpetrator	,	P=0.791	P=0.558	P=0.394
No	102 / 386 (26.4%)	1	1	1
Yes	4 / 17 (23.5%)	0.86 (0.27 -2.69)	0.70 (0.21 -2.33)	0.59 (0.18 -1.98)
Violence-victim	, ,	P=0.102	P=0.400	P=0.532
No	94 / 373 (25.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	13 / 34 (38.2%)	1.84 (0.89 -3.81)	1.40 (0.64 -3.08)	1.29 (0.58 -2.83)

¹Number less than 447 due to the number of samples collected for testing for HSV-2. ² Socio-demographic

374 variables adjusted for age, gender and in school/working. Behaviour variable adjusted for age, gender and in

375 school/working. Sexual behaviour and violence variables adjusted for age, gender, in school/working and ever

had sex. Number of lifetime sexual partners was not included for the adjustment with sexual behaviour due tocollinearity with ever had sex.

378 In the adjusted analysis of factors associated with BV, there was weak evidence that being currently

379 enrolled in school or working was associated with a diagnosis BV. Those having ever drunk alcohol had

twice the odds of a diagnosis of BV, and there was weak evidence that having ever smoked a cigarette

381 was associated with a diagnosis of BV. Independently, those reporting genital touching and having

- 382 ever had sex had twice the odds of a diagnosis of BV. Participants who were HSV-2 seropositive had
- four times the odds of a diagnosis with BV.

Table 5. Factors associated with bacterial vaginosis in young women in a population-based STI survey
 among young people aged 15-24 years in rural Kwa-Zulu Natal (N=239¹)

	No. with BV/N(%)	crude OR (95% CI)	Age adj OR (95%CI)	Adjusted OR ² (95%
Socio-demographic				CI)
Age group		P=0.640	P=0.640	P=0.469
15-19	49 / 119 (41.2%)	1	1	1
20-24	53 / 120 (44.2%)	1.13 (0.68 -1.89)	1.13 (0.68 -1.89)	0.79 (0.42 -1.49)
In school or working		P=0.059	P=0.050	P=0.050
No	45 / 89 (50.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	57 / 150 (38.0%)	0.60 (0.35 -1.02)	0.52 (0.27 -1.00)	0.52 (0.27 -1.00)
Socio-economic status	37 / 130 (30.070)	P=0.092	P=0.090	P=0.128
Low	54 / 107 (50.5%)	1	1	1
Middle	24 / 60 (40.0%)	0.65 (0.34 -1.24)	0.64 (0.34 -1.23)	0.61 (0.31 -1.16)
High	24 / 70 (34.3%)	0.51 (0.27 -0.95)	0.51 (0.28 -0.96)	0.56 (0.30 -1.06)
Highest level of	24 / 70 (34.370)	P=0.582	P=0.643	P=0.816
education completed		F-0.382	r=0.043	F-0.810
Primary	7 / 13 (53.8%)	1	1	1
Secondary	60 / 148 (40.5%)	0.58 (0.19 -1.83)	0.59 (0.19 -1.87)	0.73 (0.22 -2.39)
Matric or above	35 / 78 (44.9%)	0.70 (0.21 -2.27)		0.68 (0.20 -2.24)
	35 / 78 (44.9%)	0.70 (0.21-2.27)	0.69 (0.21 -2.26)	0.08 (0.20 - 2.24)
Behaviour		P=0.027	P=0.027	P=0.104
Ever smoked cigarette	97 / 215 / 40 59/)	1	1	P=0.104
No	87 / 215 (40.5%)	=	=	
Yes	15 / 23 (65.2%)	2.76 (1.12 -6.79)	2.77 (1.13 -6.82)	2.19 (0.85 -5.61)
Ever drunk alcohol	20 / 44 4 / 2 4 20/)	P=0.012	P=0.014	P=0.009
No	39 / 114 (34.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	61 / 121 (50.4%)	1.96 (1.16 -3.31)	1.94 (1.15 -3.29)	2.04 (1.19 - 3.48)
Ever cleanse inside vagina		P=0.569	P=0.545	P=0.861
No	88 / 200 (44.0%)	1	1	1
Yes	14 / 36 (38.9%)	0.81 (0.39 -1.67)	0.80 (0.38 -1.66)	0.93 (0.44 -1.99)
Use hormonal	, , ,	P=0.425	P=0.467	P=0.876
contraception				
No	84 / 202 (41.6%)	1	1	1
Yes	18 / 37 (48.6%)	1.33 (0.66 -2.69)	1.30 (0.64 -2.66)	1.06 (0.49 -2.29)
Sexual behaviour and vi			,	· · · · ·
Genital touching		P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P=0.021
No	36 / 122 (29.5%)	1	1	1
Yes	66 / 117 (56.4%)	3.09 (1.81 -5.27)	3.12 (1.82 -5.35)	2.12 (1.12 -4.02)
Oral sex (receive)	, , , , , , ,	P=0.014	P=0.013	P=0.682
No	57 / 158 (36.1%)	1	1	1
Yes	39 / 73 (53.4%)	2.03 (1.16 -3.57)	2.11 (1.17 -3.82)	1.16 (0.58 -2.31)
Oral sex (provide)		P=0.068	P=0.077	P=0.936
No	71 / 186 (38.2%)	1	1	1
Yes	23 / 43 (53.5%)	1.86 (0.95 -3.63)	1.86 (0.94 -3.71)	0.97 (0.45 -2.11)
Ever had sex	, (00.070)	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P=0.031
No	22 / 85 (25.9%)	1	1	1
Yes	74 / 143 (51.7%)	3.07 (1.71 -5.52)	3.43 (1.85 -6.38)	2.14 (1.07 -4.27)
	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	3.07 (1.71 3.32)	5.15 (1.55 0.50)	

Number of lifetime		P=0.003	P=0.001	P=0.261
sexual partners				
None	22 / 85 (25.9%)	1	1	1
One	31 / 64 (48.4%)	2.69 (1.35 -5.36)	2.93 (1.45 -5.93)	1.79 (0.82 -3.90)
Two or more	31 / 60 (51.7%)	3.06 (1.52 -6.17)	4.02 (1.85 -8.73)	1.91 (0.78 -4.69)
Violence-perpetrator		P=0.636	P=0.654	P=0.555
No	92 / 217 (42.4%)	1	1	1
Yes	5 / 10 (50.0%)	1.36 (0.38 -4.83)	1.34 (0.37 -4.81)	1.52 (0.38 -6.14)
Violence-victim		P=0.960	P=0.990	P=0.585
No	88 / 205 (42.9%)		1	1
Yes	10 / 23 (43.5%)	1.02 (0.43 - 2.44)	1.01 (0.42 -2.43)	1.30 (0.51 -3.30)
STI				
HSV-2		P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P<0.0001
Negative	50 / 152 (32.9%)	1	1	1
Positive	49 / 74 (66.2%)	4.00 (2.22 -7.20)	4.52 (2.40 -8.50)	4.08 (2.03 -8.19)
N Gonorrheae/C		P=0.044	P=0.044	P=0.768
trachomatis				
Negative	84 / 209 (40.2%)	1	1	1
Positive	18 / 30 (60.0%)	2.23 (1.02 - 4.87)	2.23 (1.02 -4.88)	1.15 (0.46 -2.89)
T vaginalis		P=0.989	P=0.944	P=0.287
Negative	96 / 225 (42.7%)	1	1	1
Positive	6 / 14 (42.9%)	1.01 (0.34 -3.00)	0.96 (0.32 -2.91)	0.51 (0.15 -1.77)

¹ Number less than 447 due to the number of samples collected for testing for BV. ²Sociodemographic
 variables adjusted for age and in school/working. Behaviour variables adjusted for age, in school/working and
 ever drank alcohol. Sexual behaviour adjusted for age, in school/working, ever drank alcohol, genital touching
 ever had sex, and HSV-2. Number of lifetime sexual partners was not included for the adjustment with sexual
 behaviour due to collinearity with ever had sex.

391 In the subgroup analysis among participants who reported having sex, there was weak evidence that

discussing the last partner's HIV status was associated with not having a curable STI (aOR 0.48; 95%CI

393 0.23-1.00 [S4 Table]). There was no evidence that factors included in this subgroup analysis were

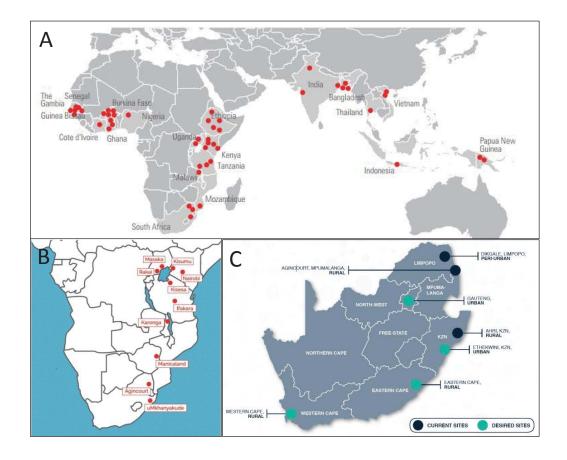
associated with either HSV-2 infection or diagnosis of BV (S5-6 tables).

395 Discussion

- 396 We conducted a nested STI survey among young people aged 15 to 24 years in a rural HDSS in
- 397 KwaZulu-Natal, and found it to be feasible and acceptable. The HDSS provided infrastructure and a
- 398 sampling frame to carry out a population-based cross-sectional study of STI/BV prevalence. There
- 399 was a high burden of STI/BV in this high HIV prevalence setting. Most of these were asymptomatic
- 400 and would not have been identified or treated using national syndromic management guidelines.
- 401 This study is a proof-of-concept that STI surveys can be successfully conducted within HDSS networks
- 402 such as the IN-DEPTH Network [11], the ALPHA Network [22], and the SAPRIN Network [23] (Fig 3).

403 The implementation of STI surveys within HDSS is an efficient use of resources and has two important 404 utilities. Firstly, STI surveys can be carried out in LMICs intermittently to contribute to the estimate of 405 the global burden of STIs and to evaluate local implementation of global STI control programmes at a 406 population level. Secondly, STI surveys can be carried out more frequently in settings with high HIV/STI 407 prevalence to monitor and evaluate enhanced STI/HIV control programmes. HDSS networks could 408 provide a strategic platform to strengthen STI surveillance and control in LMIC, especially in sub-409 Saharan Africa where HIV and STI/BV prevalence are high. Importantly, while population-based data 410 are crucial for an effective STI prevention and control programme, these data must be complemented 411 by robust data from high-risk groups (e.g. female sex workers) to account for STI transmission 412 dynamics which depend on high rates of partner change [24].

Figure 3. Maps illustrating networks of health and demographic surveillance sites (HDSS) at the global, regional and national level. A: IN-DEPTH Network, a network of 42 centres in 18 LMICs in Africa, Asia and Oceania conducting population-based surveillance of the health status of communities (www.indepth-network.org/member-centres). B: ALPHA Network, a network of 10 centres in sub-Saharan Africa conducting population-based HIV surveillance (www.alpha.lshtm.ac.uk/partner-studyinstitutions/). C: SAPRIN Network, an expanding network of HDSS in South Africa (http://saprin.mrc.ac.za/SAPRINfactSHEET.pdf).





421 The burden of chlamydia was high in this STI survey among women of both age groups and among 422 men aged 20-24 years, ranging from 10-12%. Several studies report high prevalence of chlamydia in 423 South Africa [25–28]; both MTN-003 (VOICE) and HPTN 055 showed higher baseline chlamydia 424 prevalence and incidence among women in South Africa compared to other sites in the multi-site 425 studies, and both reported higher prevalence and incidence among women under 24 years old [26,27]. 426 These studies uncover sub-regional or national differences in STI epidemics among young people that 427 could be further elucidated with the implementation of STI surveys in a network of HDSS. Importantly, 428 syndromic management is notably weak for identifying cases for chlamydia because most cases are 429 asymptomatic. Yet, asymptomatic chlamydia causes serious morbidity including pelvic inflammatory 430 disease in women contributing to chronic pelvic pain, ectopic pregnancy and tubal factor infertility 431 [29]. Etiological surveillance is, therefore, critical to understand the global burden of chlamydia. 432 However, etiological diagnosis outside of surveillance is unaffordable and inaccessible for most LMICs.

433 Rapid, accurate and affordable point of care tests may bridge this gap, but current point of care tests 434 for chlamydia and gonorrhoea are either inaccurate (antigen detection in lateral flow format) or 435 expensive (e.g. GeneXpert)[29]. Targeting high risk populations, including adolescents and young 436 people, for chlamydia is important; the South African National Strategic Plan for HIV, TB and STIs 2017-437 2022 calls for the development, testing and validation of sexual history taking for different populations 438 and different ages as the basis for screening tests and/or presumptive treatment to increase detection 439 and treatment of asymptomatic STIs by 50% [30]. The development of tools such as these must be 440 carried out in parallel with population-based STI surveys and analyses of risk factors.

441 The burden of HSV-2 was also high – almost twice as high for young women than for young men, and almost 50% in women aged 20-24 years. Rapid acquisition of HSV-2 after sexual debut has been shown 442 443 in several studies [7,9], and can be a biological proxy for sexual activity. Another compelling case for 444 surveillance of HSV-2 is the strong evidence that HSV-2 infection increases risk of HIV acquisition. 445 There was also high prevalence of BV among young women in this study – over 40% of women had a 446 diagnosis of BV. Factors associated with BV in our study (sexual debut, currently having more than one 447 sex partner, and HSV-2 infection) are consistent with the literature [29]. Despite BV not being 448 considered a traditional STI, there is an accumulating body of epidemiological and microbiological 449 evidence suggesting that sexual transmission is an integral part to its pathogenesis [29]. In addition, 450 BV has been shown to be highly prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa [31], and is associated with serious 451 reproductive and obstetric sequelae, including preterm delivery and increased risk of STI and HIV 452 acquisition and transmission of HIV [3,32–36]. Although not curable STIs, better control tools are 453 needed for HSV-2 and BV, and we recommend continued integration of HSV-2 and BV in STI prevalence 454 surveys.

Population-based demographic and behavioural data are also important for planning and evaluating
STI prevention and control programmes [37]. In this HIV hyper-endemic setting it is reassuring that
there was a higher prevalence of self-reported circumcision among younger aged men – suggesting

458 population impact of male medical circumcision programmes. However, the extremely low self-report 459 of condom use at last sex is a tremendous concern. In addition, few participants knew their last 460 partner's HIV status. In this STI survey, enrolment in school was protective for HSV-2 and trended 461 towards a protective effect for curable STIs and BV. These data mirror findings from the AHRI HDSS 462 which shows that out of school youth report earlier sexual debut and high-risk sex [38], suggesting 463 that interventions to keep adolescents in school are just as relevant for STIs as they are for HIV [39,40].

464 Strengths of this study include a high rate of acceptability for participation and sample collection, the 465 success in treating those with a curable STI, and the use of a population-based platform as a sampling 466 frame. There are several challenges for carrying out home-based studies, including contacting young 467 people during school hours and the provision of confidential results to participants; however, we 468 maximised contact by modifying the field work hours from 11:00 to 19:00 from Tuesday to Saturday, 469 and provide participants with a choice of mode for receiving results. Once contacted, enrolment into 470 a population-based study of STI/BV testing was acceptable among young people, as was home-based 471 testing and self-sampling. An additional strength of this study is that it was conducted in an area with 472 persistently high HIV incidence and prevalence. Results of this study could help to inform co-strategies 473 to address both HIV and STIs that synergize the transmission of HIV.

474 This study was not without limitations. The sample collection period was limited to 3.5 months by the 475 start of the next HDSS surveillance round and we did not reach our target of 800 young people. The 476 smaller sample size of 447 provided less precision for prevalence estimates and less power to 477 investigate factors associated with STI/BV. In addition, the overall coverage in the survey was low 478 increasing the potential for selection bias. It was challenging to find young men aged 20-24 years at 479 home. HPTN 017 (PopART), a cluster-randomized controlled trial offering home-based HIV counselling 480 and testing in South Africa and Zambia also reported that young men (32.7%) more than young women 481 (20.2%) were not at home at the time of visits [41]. Furthermore, many young people were not at 482 home due to migration. The AHRI individual survey of residents aged 17-49 approximately 1/5th of

483 men and women in any survey round have migrated at least once in the last 2 years, and persons with 484 a recent migration history have a higher risk of HIV infection [42]; thus those with a recent migration 485 history are likely to have a different risk profile. The AHRI HDSS was established in a highly mobile 486 population with a severe HIV epidemic, in which characterisation of migration and mobility was central 487 to its conceptual and data model [43]. Indeed, nesting STI surveys in HDSS may offer another 488 advantage over one-off de novo STI prevalence surveys: the HDSS sampling frame has information 489 about those who are not enrolled into the study. Additionally, while a one-time survey will miss some 490 of those who have migrated; annual repeat cross-sectional surveys will ensure that most people will 491 contribute data over time. Reassuringly, the STI/BV prevalence weighted for both sampling and non-492 response data was very similar to the unweighted data or data weighted for sampling only.

493 Another limitation was that there was evidence of underreporting sexual behaviours: 6% of 494 participants with a curable STI and 15% of participants with HSV-2 reported never having had sex. 495 Sexual behavioural questions were self-collected using a computer-assisted survey instrument, and 496 study nurses were gender-matched and ensured that interviews were conducted in a private location. 497 Yet underreporting of sexual behaviour is common, especially among adolescents.[44] While 498 questionnaire delivery modes do affect self-reported sexual behaviour [15,45], underreporting was 499 still a challenge. Further research is needed to assess factors affecting validity of self-reported 500 behaviours among adolescents[46,47]. Importantly, underreporting of sexual behaviour highlights the 501 need to have more robust biological measures of sexual risk, such as STI prevalence.

Finally, this survey is limited to the STI we tested for – future surveys should consider surveillance of
 Mycoplasma genitalium infection and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* resistance in this population. In addition,
 surveillance of HPV infection and receipt of vaccination may be important to evaluate implementation
 of HPV vaccination programmes.

In conclusion, the global population of adolescents and young people is increasing, particularly in subSaharan Africa. STIs, including incident HIV, cluster in this population, especially among women. The

508 principles of 'epidemiology synergy' between STI and HIV strongly suggest that STI control must be 509 addressed if HIV is to be brought under effective control [48]. Yet, STI prevalence data are scarce, and 510 there is an urgent need for population-based, representative prevalence estimates of STIs, especially 511 in HIV endemic settings. These data should be complemented by robust prevalence estimates in key-512 populations, often underrepresented in population-based surveys, to gain a full understanding of 513 burden of STIs and impact of interventions. Without robust prevalence estimates, moving an 514 international STI agenda forward will continue to be a challenge. Nesting STI prevalence surveys in the 515 HDSS could provide an efficient strategy for obtaining these data.

516 Acknowledgement: We thank the community for their continued support and participation in AHRI 517 HDSS, and AHRI staff. We especially thank the young people who took part in the STI Survey, and the 518 STI Survey team including Nsika Sithole, Mbuso Mdletshe, Zandile Nkwanyana, Sithembile Msane, 519 Njabulo Dayi (Data management). We thank Ayaykumar Sewnarain and Greg Ording (Laboratory Data 520 Management) and Sureshnee Pillay, Zizile Sikhosana, Shyamala Padayachi, Siva Danaviah and Xoli 521 Mpofana for processing and testing of samples in the AHRI laboratory. We also thank Global Clinical 522 and Virology Laboratory in Durban for testing services provided. We thank Richard Hayes for reading 523 and providing comments on a draft of this manuscript.

524 Financial support for this research was provided by ViiV Healthcare's Positive Action for Adolescents

525 Programme; the People Programme (Marie Curie Actions) of the European Union's Seventh

526 Framework Programme FP7/2007-2013 under REA grant agreement n° 612216; the Wellcome Trust

527 with core funding for AHRI (grant 082384/Z/07/Z) and N.M. receiving support (WT083495MA); and

528 the UK Medical Research Council (MRC) and UK Department for International Development (DFID)

- 529 with S.C.F and K.B. (G0700837) receiving support. The latter award is jointly funded under the
- 530 MRC/DFID Concordat agreement and is also part of the EDCTP2 programme supported by the

531 European Union (reference MR/K012126/1). The funders had no role in study design, data collection

and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

533 References

534	1.	United Nations. World Population Monitoring: Adolescents and Youth [Internet]. United
535		Nations. 2012. Available:
536		http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/fertility/12_66976_a
537		dolescents_and_youth.pdf
538	2.	World Health Organizaton. Guidelines for the Management of Sexually Transmitted Infections
539		[Internet]. Geneva; 2003. Available: http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/en/d/Jh2942e/2.html
540	3.	Low N, Chersich MF, Schmidlin K, Egger M, Francis SC, van de Wijgert JHHM, et al.
541		Intravaginal practices, bacterial vaginosis, and HIV infection in women: individual participant
542		data meta-analysis. PLoS Med. 2011 Feb 1. 2011;8: e1000416.
543		doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000416
544	4.	Atashili J, Poole C, Ndumbe PM, Adimora AA, Smith JS. Bacterial vaginosis and HIV
545		acquisition : a meta-analysis of published studies. Aids. 2008/07/11. 2008;22: 1493–1501.
546		doi:10.1097/QAD.0b013e3283021a3700002030-200807310-00013 [pii]
547	5.	Klatt NR, Cheu R, Birse K, Zevin AS, Perner M, Noël-romas L, et al. Vaginal bacteria modify HIV
548		tenofovir microbicide efficacy in Africanwomen. Science (80-). 2017;356: 938–945.
549	6.	Bruni L, Diaz M, Castellsagué X, Ferrer E, Bosch FX, de Sanjosé S. Cervical human
550		papillomavirus prevalence in 5 continents: meta-analysis of 1 million women with normal
551		cytological findings. J Infect Dis. 2010;202: 1789–99. doi:10.1086/657321
552	7.	Obasi a, Mosha F, Quigley M, Sekirassa Z, Gibbs T, Munguti K, et al. Antibody to herpes
553		simplex virus type 2 as a marker of sexual risk behavior in rural Tanzania. J Infect Dis.
554		1999;179: 16–24. doi:10.1086/314555
555	8.	Houlihan CF, Baisley K, Bravo IG, Kapiga S, de Sanjosé S, Changalucha J, et al. Rapid
556		acquisition of HPV around the time of sexual debut in adolescent girls in Tanzania. Int J

- 557 Epidemiol. 2016; dyv367. doi:10.1093/ije/dyv367
- 558 9. Weiss HA, Buvé A, Robinson NJ, Van Dyck E, Kahindo M, Anagonou S, et al. The epidemiology
- 559 of HSV-2 infection and its association with HIV infection in four urban African populations.
- 560 AIDS. 2001;15 Suppl 4: S97-108. Available: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11686471
- 561 10. World Health Organization. Global Health Sector Strategies 2016-2021 for HIV, STIs and Viral
- 562 Hepatitis Regional Consultation : Johannesburg , South Africa , 28-30 April , 2015 Meeting
- 563 Report Day One : Introduction Session 1 : Opening Ceremony Key highlights from opening
- 564 speech : S. 2015. Available: http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/AFRConsultation-
- 565 report.pdf?ua=1
- 566 11. Sankoh O, Byass P. The INDEPTH network: Filling vital gaps in global epidemiology. Int J
 567 Epidemiol. 2012;41: 579–588. doi:10.1093/ije/dys081
- 568 12. Zaidi J, Grapsa E, Tanser F, Newell M-L, Bärnighausen T. Dramatic increase in HIV prevalence
 569 after scale-up of antiretroviral treatment. Aids. 2013;27: 2301–2305.
- 570 doi:10.1097/QAD.0b013e328362e832
- 571 13. Von Elm E, Altman DG, Egger M, Pocock SJ, Gøtzsche PC, Vandenbroucke JP. The
- 572 Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement:
- 573 Guidelines for reporting observational studies. PLoS Med. 2007;4: 1623–1627.
- 574 doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0040296
- 575 14. Tanser F, Hosegood V, Bärnighausen T, Herbst K, Nyirenda M, Muhwava W, et al. Cohort
- 576 profile: Africa centre demographic information system (ACDIS) and population-based HIV
- 577 survey. Int J Epidemiol. 2008;37: 956–962. doi:10.1093/ije/dym211
- 578 15. Harling G, Gumede D, Mutevedzi T, McGrath N, Seeley J, Pillay D, et al. The impact of self-
- 579 interviews on response patterns for sensitive topics: a randomized trial of electronic delivery
- 580 methods for a sexual behaviour questionnaire in rural South Africa. BMC Med Res Methodol

- 581 2017 171. BMC Medical Research Methodology; 2017;25: 54–67.
- 582 doi:10.1006/ceps.1999.1020
- The National Department of Health. Sexually Transmitted Infections Management Guidelines,
 2015 [Internet]. Pretoria; 2015. Available: www.doh.gov.za
- 585 17. Bignell CJ. BASHH guideline for gonorrhoea. Sex Transm Infect. 2004;80: 330–1.
- 586 doi:10.1136/sti.2004.012781
- 587 18. Nwokolo NC, Dragovic B, Patel S, Tong CW, Barker G, Radcliffe K. 2015 UK national guideline
- 588 for the management of infection with Chlamydia trachomatis. Int J STD AIDS. 2016;27: 251–
- 589 267. doi:10.1177/0956462415615443
- 590 19. Sherrard J, Ison C, Moody J, Wainwright E, Wilson J, Sullivan A. United Kingdom National
- 591 Guideline on the Management of Trichomonas vaginalis 2014. Int J STD AIDS. 2014;25: 541–
- 592 549. doi:10.1177/0956462414525947
- Nugent RP, Krohn MA, Hillier SL, Vaginosis B. Reliability of diagnosing bacterial vaginosis is
 improved by a standardized method of gram stain interpretation. J Clin Microbiol. 1991;29:
- 595 297–301. Available:
- 596 http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=269757&tool=pmcentrez&rend
 597 ertype=abstract
- Harris P a., Taylor R, Thielke R, Payne J, Gonzalez N, Conde JG. Research Electronic Data
 Capture (REDCap) A metadata driven methodology and workflow process for providing
- 600 translational research informatict support. J Biomed Inform. 2009;42: 377–81.
- 601 doi:10.1016/j.jbi.2008.08.010.Research
- 602 22. Reniers G, Wamukoya M, Urassa M, Nyaguara A, Nakiyingi-Miiro J, Lutalo T, et al. Data
- 603 resource profile: Network for analysing longitudinal population-based HIV/AIDS data on
- 604 Africa (ALPHA Network). Int J Epidemiol. 2016;45: 83–93. doi:10.1093/ije/dyv343

605	23.	Nordling L. South Africa plans huge health study: Network would be Africa's largest
606		demographics project if it can sustain long-term funding. Nature. 2014;538: 148–149.
607		Available: https://www.nature.com/news/south-africa-plans-health-study-to-track-half-a-
608		million-people-1.20754
609	24.	Steen R, Hontelez JAC, Veraart A, White RG, de Vlas SJ. Looking upstream to prevent HIV
610		transmission. Aids. 2014;28: 891–899. doi:10.1097/QAD.0000000000000176
611	25.	Garrett N, Ngubane N, Osman F, Naicker N, Mitchev N, Mlisana K, et al. P3.166 High
612		chlamydia and bacterial vaginosis burden in hiv epicentre in south africa. Epidemiol Monit
613		Eval. 2017; A155.1-A155. doi:10.1136/sextrans-2017-053264.401
614	26.	Kapiga S, Kelly C, Weiss S, Daley T, Peterson L, Leburg C, et al. Risk factors for incidence of
615		sexually transmitted infections among women in South Africa, Tanzania, and Zambia: results
616		from HPTN 055 study. Sex Transm Dis. 2009;36: 199–206.
617		doi:10.1097/OLQ.0b013e318191ba01
618	27.	Chirenje ZM, Gundacker HM, Richardson B, Rabe L, Gaffoor Z, Nair GL, et al. Risk Factors for
619		Incidence of Sexually Transmitted Infections Among Women in a Human Immunodeficiency
620		Virus Chemoprevention Trial: VOICE (MTN-003). Sex Transm Dis. 2017;44: 135–140.
621		doi:10.1097/OLQ.00000000000568
622	28.	Elizabeth Torrone, Charles Morrison, Cynthia Kwok, Pai Lien Chen, Katharine Looker, Suzanna
623		Francis, Richard Hayes, Nicola Low, Sheena Elizabeth Torrone, Charles Morrison, Cynthia
624		Kwok, Pai Lien Chen, Katharine Looker, Suzanna Francis, Richard Hayes, Nico S working group.
625		Prevalence of Sexually Transmitted Infections and Bacterial Vaginosis among Women in Sub-
626		Saharan Africa: An Individual Participant Data Meta-Analysis of 18 HIV Prevention Studies.
627		Preprint. 2017;

628 29. Unemo M, Bradshaw CS, Hocking JS, de Vries HJC, Francis SC, Mabey D, et al. Sexually

- 629 transmitted infections: challenges ahead. Lancet Infect Dis. Elsevier Ltd; 2017;3099.
- 630 doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(17)30310-9
- South African National AIDS Council. South Africa's National Strategic Plan for HIV, TB and
 STIs 2017-2022. Pretoria; 2017.
- 633 31. Kenyon C, Colebunders R, Crucitti T. The global epidemiology of bacterial vaginosis: a
- 634 systematic review. Am J Obstet Gynecol. Elsevier Ltd; 2013;209: 505–523.
- 635 doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2013.05.006
- 636 32. Hillier SL, Nugent RP, Eschenbach D a, Krohn M a, Gibbs RS, Martin DH, et al. Association
- 637 between bacterial vaginosis and preterm delivery of a low-birth-weight infant. The Vaginal
- 638 Infections and Prematurity Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1995;333: 1737–42.
- 639 doi:10.1056/NEJM199512283332604
- 640 33. Wiesenfeld HC, Hillier SL, Krohn MA, Landers D V, Sweet RL. Bacterial vaginosis is a strong
- 641 predictor of Neisseria gonorrhoeae and Chlamydia trachomatis infection. Clin Infect Dis.
- 642 2003;36: 663–8. doi:10.1086/367658
- 643 34. King CC, Jamieson DJ, Wiener J, Cu-Uvin S, Klein RS, Rompalo AM, et al. Bacterial vaginosis
- and the natural history of human papillomavirus. Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol. 2011;2011:
- 645 319460. doi:10.1155/2011/319460
- 646 35. Cherpes TL, Meyn LA, Krohn MA, Lurie JG, Hillier SL. Association between acquisition of
 647 herpes simplex virus type 2 in women and bacterial vaginosis. Clin Infect Dis. 2003;37: 319–
- 648 25. doi:10.1086/375819
- 649 36. Cohen CR, Lingappa JR, Baeten JM, Ngayo MO, Spiegel C a, Hong T, et al. Bacterial vaginosis
 650 associated with increased risk of female-to-male HIV-1 transmission: a prospective cohort
- analysis among African couples. PLoS Med. 2012;9: e1001251.
- 652 doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001251

- Gregson S, Todd J, Zaba B. Sexual behaviour change in countries with generalised HIV
 epidemics? Evidence from population-based cohort studies in sub-Saharan Africa. Sex Transm
 Infect. 2009;85 Suppl 1: i1-2. doi:10.1136/sti.2009.036053
- 656 38. N. McGrath, J.W. Eaton, V. Hosegood, I. Birdthistle, A. Doyle JF. Baseline for a DREAM: recent

trends in sexual behaviour and HIV knowledge among adolescents and young adults in rural

- 658 KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. International AIDS Conference. Durban; 2016. p. TUPEC165.
- De Neve J-W, Fink G, Subramanian S V, Moyo S, Bor J. Length of secondary schooling and risk
 of HIV infection in Botswana: evidence from a natural experiment. Lancet Glob Heal. 2015;3:
 e470-7. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(15)00087-X
- 40. Remme M, Watts C, Heise L, Vassall A. Secondary schooling might be as good an HIV
- investment as male circumcision. Lancet Glob Heal. Remme et al. Open Access article
 distributed under the terms of CC BY; 2015;3: e591. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(15)00167-9
- 665 41. Shanaube K, Mj C, Macleod D, Schaap A, Floyd S, Jani C, et al. Community Intervention
- 666 Improves Adolescent HIV Status Knowledge : HPTN 071 Study , Zambia. Conference on
- 667 Retroviruses and Opportunistic Infections (CROI). Seattle, Washington, USA; 2017. p. Poster.
- 668 Available: https://hptn.org/sites/default/files/inline-files/834_Shanaube %281%29.pdf
- McGrath N, Hosegood V, Newell ML, Eaton JW. Migration, sexual behaviour, and HIV risk: A
 general population cohort in rural South Africa. Lancet HIV. 2015;2: e252–e259.
- 671 doi:10.1016/S2352-3018(15)00045-4

657

- Hosegood V, Benzler J, Solarsh GC. Population mobility and household dynamics in rural
 South Africa: implifaction for demographic and health research. South African J Demogr.
 2013;10: 43–68.
- Plummer ML, Wight D. Young people's lives and sexual relationships in rural Africa: findings
 from a large qualitative study in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: Mkuki na Nyota; 2011.

- 45. Langhaug LF, Sherr L, Cowan FM. How to improve the validity of sexual behaviour reporting:
- 678 systematic review of questionnaire delivery modes in developing countries. Trop Med Int
- 679 Heal. 2010/04/23. 2010;15: 362–381. doi:TMI2464 [pii]10.1111/j.1365-3156.2009.02464.x
- 680 46. Brener ND, Billy JOG, Grady WR. Assessment of factors affecting the validity of self-reported
- 681 health-risk behavior among adolescents: Evidence from the scientific literature. J Adolesc
- 682 Heal. 2003;33: 436–457. doi:10.1016/S1054-139X(03)00052-1
- 683 47. Mavhu W, Langhaug L, Manyonga B, Power R, Cowan F. What is "sex" exactly? Using
- 684 cognitive interviewing to improve the validity of sexual behaviour reporting among young
- 685 people in rural Zimbabwe. Cult Heal Sex. 2008;10: 563–572.
- 686 doi:10.1080/13691050801948102
- 687 48. Fleming DT, Wasserheit JN. From epidemiological synergy to public health policy and
- 688 practice: the contribution of other sexually transmitted diseases to sexual transmission of HIV
- 689 infection. Sex Transm Infect. 1999;75: 3–17. Available:
- 690 http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&
 691 list_uids=10448335
- 692 Supporting Information
- 693 S1 Checklist STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cross 694 sectional studies
- 695 S1 Statistical Analysis Plan Statistical Analysis Plan for Protocol Title: A study to pilot the
- 696 surveillance of reproductive tract infections among young people aged 15 to 24
- 697 years in the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area
- 698 S1 Table Comparison of selected characteristics of those who enrolled vs those who did not
- 699 enrol in a population-based STI survey among young people aged 15-24 years in
- 700 rural KwaZulu-Natal

701 S2 Table Contact preferences for results by age and sex in population-based STI survey among 702 young people aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal among participants who had 703 access to a telephone 704 S3 Table Prevalence of STIs in population-based STI survey among young people aged 15-24 705 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal: unweighted prevalence and with sampling weights 706 only 707 S4 Table Factors associated with gonorrhoea, chlamydia and trichomoniasis in a subgroup 708 analysis among individuals who reported having had sex in a population-based STI 709 survey among young people aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal 710 S5 Table Factors associated with herpes simplex virus-2 in a subgroup analysis among 711 individuals who reported having had sex in a population-based STI survey among

712 young people aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal

- 713 S6 Table Factors associated with bacterial vaginosis in a subgroup analysis among women
- 714 who reported having had sex in a population-based STI survey among young people
- 715 aged 15-24 years in rural KwaZulu-Natal

Marked Up Manuscript

Click here to access/download **Marked Up Manuscript** iGugu_Manuscript_20171108_tracked.docx

N=1916 resident men

