# **Peer Review Comments and Responses for**

"Recommendations for Providers Counseling

Male Patients and Parents Regarding Male Circumcision and the Prevention of
HIV Infection, STIs, and other Health Outcomes"

#### and

"Background, Methods, and Synthesis of Scientific Information Used to Inform the 'Recommendations for Providers Counseling Male Patients and Parents Regarding Male Circumcision and the Prevention of HIV infection, STIs, and other Health Outcomes."

**GENERAL RESPONSE:** We thank the peer reviewers for taking the time to review and provide comments regarding the "Recommendations for Providers Counseling Male Patients and Parents Regarding Male Circumcision and the Prevention of HIV Infection, STIs, and other Health Outcomes" and the "Background, Methods, and Synthesis of Scientific Information Used to Inform the 'Recommendations for Providers Counseling Male Patients and Parents Regarding Male Circumcision and the Prevention of HIV infection, STIs, and other Health Outcomes."

Citations corresponding to reviewer comments are located on pages 154-226. Citations corresponding to CDC responses are located on pages 227-230.

# Reviewer No. 1:

**COMMENT:** I have reviewed both documents and agree with the recommendations. I don't have substantive changes to suggest. Please see the attached for a suggestion about removing two comma splices.

**RESPONSE:** Thanks for taking the time to review the documents. The suggested edits were made to the policy document.

#### Reviewer No. 2:

**COMMENT:** I've reviewed the documents and recommendations, and I find them to be fair, well crafted, and appropriately extensive. I support them in their current form and in their entirety, and I do not have edits to recommend. From the perspective of a practicing urologist, I would say that great benefit will be derived from such a clear statement indicating efficacy not only in potentially preventing HIV but also of other STDs and health conditions likely related to STDs in a care environment that is increasingly limiting. Another great potential benefit to be derived will be in increasing acceptance of male circumcision in a historical era of increasing opposition.

**RESPONSE:** Thanks for taking the time to review the documents and provide comments.

# **Reviewer No. 3:**

### **Note from CDC:**

Reviewer No. 3 has provided three sections of commentary: (1) general comments regarding the CDC recommendations, (2) comments pertaining to specific text of the CDC recommendations, and (3) summary comments about each section of the CDC background document.

A response has been provided to each main point in the general comments on the CDC recommendations (1) and to each comment about specific text in the draft recommendations (2). A summary response has been provided at the beginning commentary on the CDC background document (3).

Citations pertaining to comments from peer reviewer No. 3 are located on pages 140 – 208. Citations pertaining to responses from CDC are located on pages 209-212.

CDC thanks the reviewer for taking the time to review the documents and providing extensive comments.

# General Comments Regarding CDC Draft Recommendations and Background Documents

**COMMENT:** This peer-review of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's (CDC's) Draft Recommendations and Background Documents was generated after December 2, 2014 when the documents first became available. Because of the limited time in which to review and comment on these documents, there may be some topics that could have been addressed more completely, some topics that were addressed more than once, and some citations that may be missing. In the interest of time, the citations given in the review may not be sequenced properly, but each citation should be properly identified. There may be some grammatical and typographical errors because there was insufficient time to identify and correct them. The comments addressing the Recommendations draft are made in direct response to the statements in that draft and appear in italics. The evaluation of the Background draft does not use the statement-by-statement format. This is a peer-review of draft documents and the comments are directed at these documents. It may be helpful for the reader to have copies of the drafts available.

Several things are remarkable about this draft.

First, is the obvious lack of scientific and scholarly rigor that went into preparing this draft. While it is stated that the writers of the draft performed a search of the medical literature, the evidence (in the form of the draft itself) indicates that their search was far from complete. Instead of collecting and analyzing data, they relied on review articles to do the work for them. One review article was published in 1983 — a bit dated to say the

least. In some sections, the draft relied on opinion pieces as their sources of information. In areas where review articles were not available, the information provided was far from complete. For example, in reviewing the medical literature on the impact of male circumcision in North America, which is a major thrust of the draft, only two of the eight available studies are mentioned. Similarly, no serious attempt was made to review the harms, risks, complications, or pain associated with male circumcision. The draft has only 255 references, some of which are redundant, which are only a small sampling of the material available in the literature. A PUBMED search using the search word "circumcision" on January 12, 2015 identified 6338 publications.

**RESPONSE 1**: The CDC background document summarizes findings from a systematic literature review that was conducted in order to assess evidence on the association of male circumcision with medical benefits and adverse effects. Systematic reviews were conducted for the following outcomes related to medically attended male circumcision: HIV acquisition and transmission (female-to-male, male-to-female, and male-to-male); other STIs; penile cancer; cervical cancer; infant UTIs; risks and adverse events; sexual function and penile sensation. All studies of outcomes of male circumcision up to the end of November 2012 in Medline, Embase and Cochrane Library, as well as citation lists were included in the draft recommendations for public comment and peer review. More recent data through March 2013 were included in updating data related to the HIV epidemic in the United States. Studies were restricted to those published in English after 1950, presenting original data, including RCTs, cohort studies, case-control studies, cross-sectional studies, case series and case reports. Study design was classified according to guidelines used for collecting scientific data in reports published in the Guide to Community Preventive Services (the Guide). The evidence was assessed according to strength of association, consistency of findings across studies and the methodologic rigor of study designs. Because they minimize considerably the risk of spurious causality and bias, randomized controlled trails (RCTs) are considered the most rigorous method for determining whether a cause-effect relationship exists between a treatment and an outcome. Our literature review through November 2012 also included a broad, non-systematic narrative review for the section "Considerations related to male circumcision in the United States," because this section did not evaluate clinical outcomes. Since the time of the initial review, an updated literature review was conducted through October 2015 which added more evidence to the already strong field of evidence indicating that male circumcision is associated not only with a reduction in transmission of HIV, HSV-2, and oncogenic forms of HPV, but also decreased transmission of other STDs including genital ulcer disease, syphilis, m. genitalium, t. vaginalis, bacterial vaginosis, and trichomoniasis.

**COMMENT:** The draft also ignores basic epidemiological principles. It fails to apply the standards that are needed to identify when an intervention should be applied. Throughout the draft, it is assumed that male circumcision will be successful as a primary prevention for HIV, when the data clearly demonstrate that it is ineffective as primary prevention.

RESPONSE 2: Male circumcision is an effective primary prevention strategy, preventing

transmission of HIV infections to men during penile-vaginal intercourse. Three large, well-designed RCTs have demonstrated that men who were circumcised are 50-60% less likely to acquire HIV through heterosexual intercourse than men who were not circumcised. The findings from the RCTs are also consistent with many other observational studies of the effect of male circumcision on HIV transmission. In 2007, a panel of consultants convened by CDC concluded that conducting a trial in the United States to evaluate efficacy of male circumcision for HIV prevention would not satisfy the criteria of clinical equipoise, given the weight of evidence from existing studies that male circumcision is protective against HIV.<sup>1</sup>

**COMMENT:** Even its role as a secondary preventive measure has only been evaluated in one study in the United States, which included a very small, limited population. For this very small population, modeling by the CDC has estimated that male circumcision's impact on infection risk is nearly inconsequential.

**RESPONSE 3**: The CDC recommendations state that while the impact of male circumcision on HIV in the United States is limited by relatively low HIV prevalence and high male circumcision rates, there is epidemiologic data to suggest that some subpopulations in the U.S. are likely to benefit. Sansom and colleagues modelled the impact of male circumcision on lifetime risk of HIV infection in males in the United States, demonstrating that male circumcision reduced the 1.87% lifetime risk of HIV among all males by about 16% but that the effect varied by racial group. The effect was greatest among black males, where the 6.23% lifetime risk of HIV was reduced by about 21%.<sup>2</sup>

It is also important to note that male circumcision confers health benefits in addition to protection against HIV, including protection against oncogenic forms of HPV, HSV-2, and infant urinary tract infections.

**COMMENT:** Policy should be based on more than one small subset of patients from a single study when several other studies fail to support this conclusion. It is clear that both the investigators of the randomized clinical trials and the CDC draft authors do not understand the epidemiological difference between efficacy (a positive finding in a research setting) and effectiveness (positive results in the real world).

**RESPONSE 4**: The CDC recommendations are not based on "one small subset of patients from a single study." The CDC recommendations are based on a thorough review of the large body evidence demonstrating certain health benefits of male circumcision, as well as on careful consideration of the potential public health implications of these findings in the United States. See RESPONSE 1 for a description of literature review methods.

**COMMENT:** The draft fails to adequately scrutinize the validity of the few studies it identified. It assumed the randomized clinical trials could not harbor any bias (the draft actually states this!) and did not question the methodology of these studies, although their methodology has been questioned extensively. Instead of accepting the study

results at face value, the expectation of scholarly rigor would demand that these studies be carefully scrutinized, and a determination made as to whether the studies generated valid results and/or if the criticisms raised about these studies were convincing. The writers of the draft made no effort to question or analyze these studies.

**RESPONSE 5**: In 2009, a Cochrane committee conducted a review of the findings from the 3 male circumcision RCTs. The review evaluated the quality of the scientific evidence and potential impact of bias on the results for each trial. The review authors reported that the potential for significant biases affecting the trial results was low to moderate, and concluded that in spite of any potential bias there is "strong evidence" that male circumcision reduces the likelihood of HIV acquisition in men through heterosexual transmission. Authors concluded "male circumcision can be considered as an effective measure to partly prevent HIV acquisition in heterosexual men."<sup>3</sup>

A sentence in the "Methods to gather, synthesize, and interpret information" section of the background document was amended to read: "Because they reduce spurious causality and bias, RCTs were considered the most rigorous method for determining whether a cause-effect relationship exists between a treatment and an outcome."

COMMENT: If a student were to submit these drafts for consideration as a senior undergraduate or master's thesis, they would fail based on their lack of scholarship. It appears the CDC was only going through the motions in preparing this draft. If the CDC had performed an adequate search of the medical literature and applied the expected level of scholarly rigor, their conclusions and recommendations would have been different. Perhaps that was the point. Perhaps the hope was, by releasing the draft with a selective bibliography, no one would recognize the lack of scholarly effort or call the CDC out on doing a subpar job. It worked for the American Academy of Pediatrics, and they seemed to get away with it. The difference is that CDC documents are open for public comment because it is a government agency. One would think that, after all of the embarrassment the CDC has endured in the recent past, they would want to put their best foot forward by publishing a rigorous, balanced, evidence-based assessment of male circumcision. That obviously did not happen.

**RESPONSE 6:** The background document is inclusive of research that both supports and refutes the conclusions shared in the CDC recommendations, including multiple documents authored and co-authored by the reviewer. Commentary within the CDC background document that pertains to the quality of the individual findings analyses is based on an objective evaluation of scientific merit. Also see RESPONSE 1 for a description of methods used to literature search.

**COMMENT:** Second, is the lack of attention to detail. Many of the citations given have the authors and journals incorrectly listed. Several of the citations require updating, while several of the citations were redundant. There are several misspellings in the manuscript. This indicates the CDC did not expend sufficient effort putting forth this piece of work, which is consistent with its lack of scholarly rigor.

**RESPONSE 7:** Peer reviewers were provided with the latest available draft of the CDC recommendations and background documents. These documents were working drafts, not a final version for publication. Any errors in spelling, grammar, or punctuation will be addressed prior to dissemination of the final documents.

**COMMENT:** Third, is the wanton disregard for the medical evidence. It is clear throughout that the writers of the CDC draft believe absolutely in the presumption that infant male circumcision can reduce HIV and sexually transmitted infections beyond a shadow of a doubt. As a consequence, the draft goes about finding evidence to support their presumption and primarily presents evidence supportive of this presumption, despite evidence to the contrary. The quality of the evidence supporting the presumption is never questioned. Any evidence that does not support their presumption is either ignored, criticized, or dismissed. As a consequence, the draft is laughably biased and reflects the expectation bias of its writers.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 6.

**COMMENT:** Fourth, is the lack of a thorough discussion of the foreskin and its anatomy, histology, physiology, and function. It is standard procedure for review articles of this type to review these topics to provide a basic science foundation. How can the CDC discuss the biological plausibility of sexually transmitted infections without a knowledge of the basic anatomy, histology, physiology, and function? This information must be included since health care providers must understand what is lost by removing the normal foreskin/prepuce. How else can they explain the impact of its removal to patients? This information is also an essential element of the disclosure given during the informed consent process.

**RESPONSE 8:** The CDC background document addresses concerns surrounding the role of the foreskin in sexual sensation and discusses research on the impact of male circumcision on sexual function and penile sensation. The background document also includes a section on biologic plausibility which describes the biology of the foreskin and the basis for HIV acquisition.

**COMMENT:** Fifth, is how out of step the CDC is with the rest of the world. National medical organizations and human rights groups throughout the world, including the Council of Europe, are, in increasing numbers, denouncing infant male circumcision as being medically unnecessary and a blatant human rights violation. At this point in time, the CDC and the American Academy of Pediatrics are the last stronghold in the defense of infant male circumcision. Remarkably, the draft fails to mention all the medical organizations outside of the

United States who have weighed in with an opposing opinion on male circumcision. Is there some source of special knowledge the CDC has in its possession that allowed them to reach conclusions that are diametrically opposed to every other national medical organization (other than the American Academy of Pediatrics)? If it exists, why is it missing from the draft? Please provide enlightenment. If the CDC has a clue, they could at least share it.

**RESPONSE 9:** The CDC recommendations are intended to assist medical providers in the United States in counseling individuals on the health risks and benefits of medical male circumcision. Male circumcision policy in non-US settings is outside the scope of the CDC recommendations.

**COMMENT**: Sixth, it took over seven years for the CDC to produce a substandard, scientifically unacceptable product, nearly identical in content to what was presented at the 2007 consultation.

**RESPONSE:** No response. This comment does not address the content of the CDC recommendations or background document.

**COMMENT:** Finally, the most remarkable thing is that the CDC is recommending clinicians and health care providers relay information that is counterfactual, incomplete, and biased to medical decision makers. In essence, they are deliberately encouraging health care providers to misinform their patients and thus commit medical malpractice.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 1 and RESPONSE 6.

**COMMENT:** The CDC needs to throw out this draft and start again from scratch, this time without a preconceived conclusion in mind.

**REPONSE:** No response. This comment does not address the content of the CDC recommendations or background document.

**COMMENT:** They need to review the entire medical literature, thoroughly scrutinize the studies in the literature, and properly apply basic epidemiological principles.

**RESPONSE**: See RESPONSES 1, 2, 4, and 6.

**COMMENT:** When they have done so, they need to consult with experts from around the world to make sure their findings are not culturally biased. They also need to focus on the United States, not Africa.

**RESPONSE:** These recommendations are for U.S. providers. Data from Africa is pertinent to the discussion in these recommendations.

**COMMENT:** The following comments are made in response to incorrect and/or misleading statements contained in the "Recommendations" section of the draft by the CDC. In most cases, these issues are discussed in further detail in the review of the "Background" document.

[CDC note: Excerpts from the CDC draft, as well as the CDC responses to the reviewer's comments are in regular print. The reviewer's comments are in italics.]

**CDC draft:** These recommendations are intended to assist health care providers in the United States who are counseling men and parents of male infants in decision making about male circumcision conducted by health care providers (i.e. medically performed) as it relates to the prevention of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and other health outcomes.

**Reviewer Comment:** If the target audience is health care providers in the United States, why is so much of the Background Draft directed at what is happening in Africa?

**RESPONSE 10:** A majority of research on the health risks and benefits of medical male circumcision, including the 3 randomized controlled trials, has been carried out in sub-Saharan Africa due to a high prevalence of HIV, low prevalence of male circumcision in some areas, and a generalized epidemic largely driven by heterosexual transmission. The few studies on the effect of male circumcision on HIV and other STIs in the United States are also included in the CDC background document. The benefits and drawbacks of applying evidence from African settings to the HIV epidemic in the United States are also addressed in the CDC background document.

**CDC draft:** Such decision making is made in the context of not only health considerations, but also other social, cultural, ethical, and religious factors.

**Reviewer Comment:** Why should these factors be a consideration of the CDC or health care providers? Is the CDC suggesting that health care providers take on the role of shaman or cultural broker? Are these other considerations the real impetus for promoting male circumcision?

**RESPONSE 11:** CDC is not suggesting that "healthcare providers should take on the role of shaman or health broker." The CDC recommendations provide counseling messages on health risks and benefits of medical male circumcision for healthcare providers to use when discussing male circumcision with patients and parents of male children. The recommendations acknowledge that decisions whether to circumcise are made by the individuals, not the health providers. Individuals may consider social, cultural, ethical, and religious factors in addition to the health risks and benefits that they have discussed with their provider when considering male circumcision.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Although data have been accumulating about infant male circumcision for many years, clinical trials conducted in Africa between 2005-2010 have demonstrated safety and significant efficacy of voluntary adult male circumcision performed by clinicians for reducing the risk of acquisition of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) by a male during penile-vaginal sex ("heterosexual sex").

**Reviewer Comment:** The clinical trials referred to did not assess the risk of acquisition of HIV by a male during penile-vaginal sex as these trials made no effort to determine the source of the infections they diagnosed during the course of the trials. These infections could have been from male-to-male sexual contact or from iatrogenic

sources. Data from within these trials indicate that about 1/3 to 1/2 of the infections diagnosed during the trials were transmitted through non-sexual means.

**RESPONSE 12:** Heterosexual transmission of HIV is the primary route of transmission in Kenya, South Africa, and Uganda, the 3 countries where the RCTs were conducted <u>ENREF\_2</u>. Due to the nature of the epidemics in these locations, there is no indication that a substantial number of HIV infections was caused by non-heterosexual means. Random assignment to the study arms in each of the trials would also ensure that populations in each arm were comparable, and that risk of exposure to HIV through male-male sexual intercourse or other sources would be equally distributed between the groups. Reported sexual history and risk behavior was similar in experimental and control arms of each RCT at baseline.

**COMMENT:** Furthermore, these trials have nothing to do with infants, and infant male circumcision is never voluntary because the infant cannot give consent.

**RESPONSE 13**: Parents or guardians are able to provide consent on behalf of infants.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Three randomized clinical trials showed that adult male circumcision reduced HIV infection risk by 50-60% over time.

Reviewer Comment: Reporting the results in this manner is misleading. It needs to be stated that the reduction reported here is the relative risk reduction. What is of clinical importance is the absolute risk reduction, which in the case of these trials overall was 1.3%. This is the number that should be reported instead of the relative risk reduction. As the incidence of HIV infection in the United States is much smaller than in Africa, one would expect that if male circumcision were effective in the United States, which has never been demonstrated, the absolute risk reduction would be quite a bit smaller. Again, the source of infection was not determined in the African studies making the results suspect and likely meaningless.

**RESPONSE 14:** Relationships between exposures and health outcomes are commonly presented as relative risks. An example is provided in the methods section in the CDC recommendations to demonstrate how to interpret relative risk reductions. Individual, absolute risk is dependent on a number of factors, and appropriate denominators are not always available to establish an absolute risk for HIV and other STIs in specific subpopulations.

See RESPONSE 12 for discussion to source of HIV infection.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: These trials also found that medically performed adult male circumcision reduced the risk of men acquiring two common sexually transmitted infections (STIs), herpes simplex virus type-2 (HSV-2) and types of human papilloma virus (HPV) that can cause penile and other anogenital cancers, by 30%.

**Reviewer Comment:** These trials were methodologically flawed. For both HSV-2 and HPV, the trials failed to adjust for lead-time bias. By doing so, the findings for HSV-2 are no longer statistically significant. For HPV, the two trials only sampled the head of the

penis, which would result in intact men being over-diagnosed with HPV because circumcised men are more likely to have HPV on the shaft of the penis, which these researchers did not sample. As a consequence, their results can be completely explained on the basis of inadequate sampling. Subsequent large cohort studies have failed to find an association between male circumcision status and genital HPV infections. The CDC is selectively citing studies that promote male circumcision while ignoring studies, without a sampling bias, that do not support the practice of male circumcision. In other words, the CDC is using a selective bibliography to cherry-pick the studies to support male circumcision.

**RESPONSE 15:** The findings from the randomized controlled trials present high-quality evidence that male circumcision is protective against HSV-2 and high-risk oncogenic types of HPV.

Claims that the cause of lower STI incidence measured in the male circumcision arm of the RCTs was due to sexual abstinence during the 6-week healing period, referred to by the reviewer here as "lead-time bias", not to the intervention itself, have been discredited. The protective effect of male circumcision against HPV in the first 12 months has been observed during the months 12-24, well after the initial period of abstinence ended. <sup>4-6</sup> In addition, authors of one RCT provided calculations that demonstrate that male circumcision is protective against HSV-2 even when abstinence during healing time was accounted for in the male circumcision arm.<sup>7</sup>

Concerns that sampling site impacted the findings for HPV have also been discredited previously. In the South Africa RCT, authors intentionally sampled the urethra for HPV because it was unlikely detection of HPV or other lesions would be affected by male circumcision status at this site. In addition, authors of the Uganda RCT conducted a follow-up analysis on prevalence of HPV on the coronal sulcus and shaft of the penis, and reported that men in the male circumcision arm men had lower prevalence in both areas 12 months after the procedure than those in the control (uncircumcised) arm. A 2011 meta-analysis of 23 RCTs and cross-sectional studies investigated the effect of the anatomical sampling site on relationship between male circumcision and HPV. Authors reported a strong protective effect of male circumcision against HPV when sampling was done at each of glans/corona, penile shaft, and scrotum (OR, 0.58; 95% CI, 0.40–0.82; n = 10 studies), and also that this protective effect was observed when sampling was done at the glans/corona only (OR, 0.47, 95% CI, .37–.60; n=2 studies) and at the urethra only (OR, 0.35; 95% CI, 0.12–1.05; n=5 studies).

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Since the release of these trial data, various organizations have updated their recommendations about adult male<sup>8</sup> and infant male circumcision.

**Reviewer Comment:** The CDC lists only organizations from the United States that have leaned in favor of male circumcision. They fail to mention that national medical organizations from Norway, Sweden, Germany, Denmark, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Finland and others have condemned the practice of infant male circumcision, both on

medical and on human rights grounds. The Council of Europe also considers infant male circumcision a human rights violation. ENREF 8

**RESPONSE 16:** See RESPONSE 9. The fact that some western national medical organizations outside of the U.S. have differing views of infant male circumcision from similar organizations in the United States may be a result of cultural differences in how male circumcision is viewed.<sup>10</sup>

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Much of the data related to HIV and STI prevention are from randomized clinical trials (RCTs) conducted among men in sub-Saharan Africa in regions with high rates of heterosexually acquired HIV infection.

Reviewer Comment: Three randomized clinical trials have been performed, which were basically one trial in three locations of Africa. There are over 100 other populations in which the association between HIV incidence or prevalence and male circumcision status has been assessed. Consequently, very little of the data available on HIV and STI prevention has come from the RCTs. As mentioned above, it is not known whether the infections in the RCTs were heterosexually acquired because the source of infection in these men was not determined. There is much more to this issue than is being presented here by the CDC. Some have argued that the randomized clinical trials were unnecessary since it was known prior to the trials that male circumcision did not have an impact on HIV prevalence at the country level in several countries in Africa. Please read the response in the Background document.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 1 and RESPONSE 6.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: While such factors limit the impact of medically performed male circumcision in reducing the overall HIV epidemic in the U.S., there is epidemiological data to suggest that some subpopulations in the U.S. are likely to benefit.

**Reviewer Comment**: The data indicate that the only subpopulation in the United States that has seen an association between male circumcision and HIV prevalence were the males whose regular female sexual partners were HIV-positive. These data were from a very small subpopulation from a single study, the results of which were not robust and have not been confirmed by other studies. Without such confirmation, the benefit for HIV-negative men who have HIV-positive female sexual partners remains to be seen.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 4.

**COMMENT:** Modeling by the CDC indicates that such men are unlikely to benefit from male circumcision.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 3.

**COMMENT:** ....and the standard recommendation for these men is to always use condoms, consider pre-exposure prophylaxis, and to have the female partner lower her

HIV viral load with anti-retroviral medications.

**RESPONSE 17:** Evidence from randomized controlled trials, ecological studies, cross-sectional studies, and systematic reviews has demonstrated the protective effects of male circumcision against female-to-male sexual transmission of HIV and other STIs. A circumcised man who has sexual intercourse with a woman who is infected with HIV is less likely to acquire HIV than an uncircumcised man, but he is not completely protected from HIV.

The CDC recommendations discuss counseling on male circumcision in addition to, not in place of, other evidence-based HIV prevention interventions for individuals who engage in high-risk sexual behavior. Because no HIV prevention intervention is 100% effective, utilizing a combination of interventions is the most successful approach to prevent HIV transmission. Male circumcision is unique among HIV prevention interventions in that it is a single procedure that confers lifelong protection against HIV, and is a valuable addition to the HIV prevention portfolio.

**COMMENT:** Therefore, it appears that this CDC draft is not actually about decreasing HIV infection, but about some other underlying premise or other motivation.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 6.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: In addition, African-American and Hispanic men have higher risk of HIV infection and lower male circumcision rates than men of other race/ethnicities.

**Reviewer Comment**: African-American men have a higher prevalence of HIV than Hispanic men and also a much higher male circumcision rate. In several studies, the male circumcision rate in African-American men is similar or higher than the male circumcision rate in non-Hispanic Caucasian men.

**RESPONSE 18:** Several studies conducted in the United States have demonstrated an association between male circumcision and lower HIV prevalence. A study of heterosexual African-American men attending an STI clinic in the United States observed male circumcision status was associated with a substantial and significant reduction in HIV prevalence. As stated in the CDC recommendations introduction section, African-American and Hispanic men have higher risk of HIV infection and lower male circumcision rates than men of other race/ethnicities. Because of this, the public health benefit of male circumcision may be greatest in these subpopulations.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Although similar randomized clinical trials have not been conducted in the United States, based on evidence from the African trials, uncircumcised heterosexual men living in areas with high HIV prevalence are likely to experience the most public health risk-reduction benefit from elective male circumcision.

Reviewer Comment: There is no evidence that any males in the United States would

benefit from elective male circumcision. When one looks at the impact of male circumcision on HIV prevalence in African countries, in at least eight countries the prevalence of HIV infection is higher in circumcised men than it is in intact men. This suggests that the results of the randomized trials from Africa do not even apply to Africa, let alone the United States. There is not a single study of infant male circumcision that has found a significant protective effect against HIV. Most male circumcisions in the United States are performed on infants. There have been eight studies looking at the impact of male circumcision on HIV prevalence in North America. None of them have found a significant protective effect, and one found that circumcised men were at significantly greater risk of HIV infection. The preponderance of evidence indicates that the results of the trials in Africa do not apply to the United States.

**RESPONSE 19:** Evidence from randomized controlled trials, observational cohorts, cross-sectional studies, and ecological studies in the United States and globally demonstrate the protective effects of male circumcision. In addition, findings from research conducted in other settings, including evidence from the RCTs, can be applied to US populations.

#### COMMENT:

#### Methods:

**CDC draft:** A CDC consultation was held in April 2007 to obtain input on the potential role of male circumcision in preventing transmission of HIV in the United States. A summary of the consultation, including a list of the participants has been previously published and helped define key issues for inclusion in this document.

**Reviewer Comment**: The list of participants reads like a Who's Who of Circumcision Advocates. No group opposing male circumcision was allowed any input. Only one physician was in attendance who had any record of publishing studies unsupportive of male circumcision.

**RESPONSE 20**: Dr. Robert Van Howe was a presenter and attendee at the meeting selected to represent the intactivist viewpoint.

# **COMMENT:**

CDC draft: These recommendations are based on an evaluation of available information on the health risks and benefits associated with high-quality, medically performed male circumcision and were developed to pertain to men and male newborns in the United States.

**Reviewer Comment**: If one reads the Background Draft, it becomes abundantly clear that only the available information on the health risks and benefits favorable to male circumcision were considered. The evaluation basically used a selective bibliography to cherry-pick the studies that supported male circumcision.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 1 and RESPONSE 4.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: In these recommendations, the preventive benefits of male circumcision are generally expressed as relative-risk reductions (e.g., a 50% reduction from a 2% risk of an STI to a 1% risk), whereas any associated harm is expressed as an absolute risk (e.g., a 2-4% risk of adverse events).

Reviewer Comment: While it is refreshing that the CDC admits to using this deceptive practice, it would have been more appropriate to express those factors in terms of number needed to treat and number needed to harm. Readers of this draft will be unable to convert relative risk to absolute risk unless the absolute percentages or incidence rates are given. By giving only the relative risks, the CDC is guaranteeing that their readers will be deceived and unable to make an accurate comparison. This is unprofessional and unscientific. Health care providers realize that their patients are confused by relative risk, but patients can understand data when it is presented in terms of "number needed to treat-NNT" and "number needed to harm-NNH." By taking this step, the CDC is preventing health care providers from being able to present information to their patients in a manner which can be most easily and accurately assimilated.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 14.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Appropriate denominators are not available in many cases to establish an absolute risk for HIV and other STIs in higher-risk populations, e.g., heterosexual males at increased risk for infection.

**Reviewer Comment**: This is not true. The CDC has gone to great lengths to generate models and analyses to prove that male circumcision is cost effective and will save lives. These models are based on estimates of the absolute risks that would be considered realistic in the population of interest. But, when it comes to having these estimates available so that health care providers can deliver useful information to their patients, all of sudden these estimates do not exist?! This selectivity in availability of estimates may indicate the presence of a very low absolute risk, which would make the number needed to treat so high that no one would consider cutting off the most sensitive portion of their penis for such a minuscule possibility of a benefit.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 14.

COMMENT:

#### Recommendations:

# 1. Consideration of factors associated with decision making

**CDC draft:** Health benefits and risks of elective neonatal, adolescent, or adult medically performed male circumcision should be considered in consultation with medical providers while taking into account factors associated with decision-making around male circumcision including religion, societal norms and social customs, hygiene,

aesthetic preference, and ethical considerations.

**Reviewer Comment**: The Council of Europe and national medical organizations from a number of European countries consider neonatal male circumcision to be a human rights violation, so this recommendation does not apply to neonatal male circumcision, as the proxy consent provided for the procedure may not be valid.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 9.

**COMMENT:** Regarding male circumcisions for males who are able to provide their own consent, the disclosure process needs to be extensive and exhaustive since this is usually an elective, cosmetic procedure. Because it is usually an elective, cosmetic procedure, such a discussion should only take place after the male inquires regarding the procedure. Solicitation of male circumcision without a clear immediate medical indication is considered unethical according to the American Medical Association.

RESPONSE 21: The reviewer is correct in stating that male circumcision is usually an elective procedure, but the implication that the choice to circumcise is only "cosmetic" and that CDC recommendations encourage health providers to "solicit" male circumcision is inaccurate. The CDC recommendations outline counseling topics to assist health providers in discussing medical male circumcision with individuals who are considering male circumcision for themselves or for their male child. The counseling topics contain information on potential health risks and benefits of male circumcision at different ages and within different subpopulations. All statements about health risks and benefits in the document are based on sound scientific evidence and were informed by an objective and comprehensive review of scientific data from studies conducted in the United States and in international settings. The CDC recommendations suggest that individuals consider these messages on health risks and benefits in conjunction with other non-medical factors in the decision, which may include aesthetics, religion, or cultural considerations.

**COMMENT:** Performance of a procedure on a child, by a physician or health care provider, should be done based on medical need, not based on religion, societal norms or customs, vague notions of hygiene, or the aesthetic preference of an adult. To do otherwise, violates the child's basic human rights. Physicians are not cultural brokers. They have taken an oath to "Do no harm" and to do what is in the patient's best interest. In no respect is the removal of normal, healthy genital tissue in a child's best interest. Physicians do not routinely remove normal tissue from children for any other reason, so why would removal of the foreskin be the exception?

**RESPONSE 22:** Because medical male circumcision confers a number of health benefits and has a low risk of adverse events, the decision whether to circumcise an infant or child is considered an appropriate exercise of parental or guardian authority. If a child's preference is of particular importance to parents or guardians, they may opt to delay male circumcision until a time when the child can make a decision for himself. Delaying medical male circumcision to adolescence or adulthood has a higher risk of

complication and may be more expensive than male circumcision conducted before one year of age.

# **COMMENT:**

# 2. Counseling sexually active adolescent and adult males regardless of circumcision status

**CDC draft:** All sexually active adolescent and adult males should continue to use other proven HIV and STI risk-reduction strategies such as reducing the number of partners, and correct and consistent use of male latex condoms, and HIV preexposure or postexposure prophylaxis among others.

**Reviewer Comment**: If these steps are followed, there is no need to circumcise. Consistent condom use is over 99% effective in preventing HIV infection. Adding male circumcision is unnecessary, and encourages males to avoid using condoms in the belief that male circumcision protects against HIV.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 17.

**COMMENT:** This is known as risk compensation, which is already occurring in Africa with negative consequences.

**RESPONSE 23:** While risk compensation has been a potential concern following the male circumcision RCTs and subsequent programmatic scale-up, studies evaluating risk compensation following voluntary medical male circumcision have not presented compelling evidence that there is any real increased frequency of sexual risk behavior that would undermine the protective effect of male circumcision.

# **COMMENT:**

# 3. Counseling uncircumcised sexually active adolescent and adult males

**CDC draft:** Prior to counseling uncircumcised sexually active adolescent and adult males about medically performed male circumcision, their HIV risk behaviors, HIV infection status, and the gender of their sexual partner should be assessed. The results of these assessments will inform the discussion with men about the risks and benefits of male circumcision.

Reviewer Comment: The term "uncircumcised," while widely used, is a pejorative term. One definition of the word "uncircumcised" is "spiritually impure: heathen: unregenerate." It is also a term that is technically inaccurate. For a man to be "uncircumcised," he would need to first be circumcised and then have the process reversed. By using the term "uncircumcised" or "non-circumcised," the CDC is making the underlying value-laden assumption that being circumcised is the preferred condition, when there is no evidence, other than cultural pressure, to support this. The most

accurate, value-neutral term for a man with all of his original genital tissue is "intact" or "normal" or "natural." By continuing to use the term "uncircumcised," the CDC is identifying its pro-circumcision bias to anyone who is familiar with the semantics on this issue. Males who are indeed "intact" find use of the term "uncircumcised" to be hate speech because they are singled out as "different," supposedly "abnormal" and/or possibly "unclean." Nothing could be further from the truth. Profiling a group of people in this way is discriminatory, hateful rhetoric. Furthermore, counseling any sexually active intact adolescent about male circumcision without provocation is malicious sadism. Teens, by their very state of emotional development, have self-image and self-esteem issues. This is especially true in regards to their primary and secondary sex organs. For a health care provider to engage in an unsolicited discussion of male circumcision with an intact adolescent male, only sends the message to the patient that something is seriously wrong with their genitals and, by extension, there is something wrong with them and with their parents. Given that Hispanics are less likely to be circumcised than other ethnic groups in the United States, would such a discussion be interpreted as racist, anti-immigrant hate speech? What self-respecting health care provider would want to impose such emotional trauma on their patient when there is no benefit in doing so. It is important to obtain a good sexual history on patients, but extraordinarily few adolescents would fall into a category that might possibly impact their risk of HIV infection. Furthermore, the gender of an adolescent's sexual partner may, and likely will, change frequently over the years, so determining this information seems of little value. The limited time during an office visit with an adolescent male would be better spent discussing how to properly apply a condom.

**RESPONSE 24:** The terms "circumcised" and "uncircumcised" are used to describe whether a male has undergone a procedure to remove the foreskin. The CDC recommendations in no way encourage providers to place a value judgement on either status.

The CDC recommends that health providers discuss sexual risk behaviors and risk reduction strategies with all sexually active adolescent and adult males. The CDC also recommends health providers ascertain whether an adolescent or adult male is at risk for acquiring HIV through heterosexual intercourse prior to discussing male circumcision. Neither recommendation is discriminatory towards male circumcision status.

# **COMMENT:**

- 3A. Counseling uncircumcised heterosexually and bisexually active adolescent and adult males (i.e., men who have sex with women)
- **3A-2.** CDC draft: All uncircumcised adolescent and adult males who engage in heterosexual sex should be informed about the significant, but partial, efficacy of male circumcision in reducing the risk of acquiring HIV and some STIs through heterosexual sex, as well as the potential harms of male circumcision.

**Reviewer Comment**: There is no evidence in North America that male circumcision reduces the risk of acquiring HIV in the general population.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 2 and RESPONSE 10.

**COMMENT:** If male circumcision reduced the risk of HIV in the United States, why is the prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV three times higher in the United States, where about 70% of sexually active men are circumcised, than it is in Europe, where less than 2% of sexually active men are circumcised?

**RESPONSE 25:** The ecological evidence that the reviewer has chosen to support their point is insufficient to refute the large body of high-quality scientific evidence demonstrating the protective effect of male circumcision against HIV. HIV transmission is affected by many factors that differ between the United States and Europe, which include but are not limited to extent of access to healthcare, promotion of HIV testing, access to HIV treatment, sex education, condom usage, and primary modes of HIV transmission.

**COMMENT:** There is evidence that male circumcision increases the overall risk of sexually transmitted infections through heterosexual sex.

**RESPONSE 26:** The reviewer's conclusion that male circumcision 'increases the overall risk of sexually transmitted infections through heterosexual sex" is based on a scientific analysis with extensive methodological problems that have been discussed elsewhere 11,12 There is a large body of high-quality scientific evidence that demonstrates male circumcision *protects* men from acquiring HIV and other STIs through heterosexual intercourse.

**COMMENT:** The premise of this section is incorrect, so what follows is of little or no value. If male circumcision is of only "partial efficacy," but other measures are almost completely effective at preventing transmission of HIV, then why bother with male circumcision at all?

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 17.

#### COMMENT:

- o CDC draft: Men and male adolescents being counseled about male circumcision should be told that (see Box 1):
  - Male circumcision reduces, but does not eliminate, the risk of acquiring HIV and some STIs during penile-vaginal sex. In clinical trials, medically performed male circumcision was associated with reduced number of new herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) infections and reduced number of oncogenic types of human papilloma virus (HPV)

among circumcised men.

**Reviewer Comment:** As mentioned above, the medical literature demonstrates that male circumcision is not effective as a primary preventive measure for HIV infection.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 2.

**COMMENT:** Also, male circumcision does not reduce the risk of infections with HSV-2 or HPV.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 15.

**COMMENT:** In fact, male circumcision may actually increase the risk of such infections.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 26.

**COMMENT:** The CDC is selectively citing methodologically flawed studies from Africa to make a claim that is not supported by the full body of research currently available.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 1 and RESPONSE 4.

# COMMENT:

o CDC draft: Uncircumcised, HIV-uninfected men and male adolescents at increased risk for HIV acquisition through heterosexual sex should be counseled about the risk and benefits of male circumcision (See Box 1). When a decision is made to undergo male circumcision, a referral for surgical consultation and access to high-quality male circumcision surgical services should be provided.

Reviewer Comment: Soliciting male circumcision to males is not supported by the medical evidence and is unethical.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 21. The reviewer's statement that the CDC recommendations imply that health providers should "solicit male circumcision" to males is inaccurate.

**COMMENT:** Given the highly effective measures of secondary prevention, there is no need for a health care provider to mention male circumcision.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 17.

# COMMENT:

3B. Counseling men who have sex with men (exclusively)

**CDC draft:** Although it is biologically plausible that male circumcision could benefit MSM during insertive sex, no definitive data exist.

**Reviewer Comment**: That it is "biologically plausible" male circumcision may be a benefit is highly speculative and unsupported by any evidence in the medical research, either biologically or epidemiologically. Wishes and hopes are not data. There is no strong biological evidence to support the claim that male circumcision could benefit MSM during insertive sex.

RESPONSE 27: While removal of the foreskin provides is protective for men against HIV transmission through insertive vaginal sex, the role of the foreskin in acquiring HIV infection is not fully understood. One likely reason that male circumcision provides partial protection from HIV and some other STIs is that the foreskin is more susceptible to these infections than are other parts of the penis. It is therefore plausible that male circumcision would protect men from acquiring HIV and some other STIs during both insertive vaginal and insertive anal sex; however, there is no definitive data at present that indicates the mechanism that protects men from acquiring HIV through insertive vaginal sex is also protective during insertive anal sex. There is no evidence that male circumcision protects against HIV during receptive anal intercourse.

**COMMENT:** CDC draft: Currently, there are no study results from RCTs including large enough numbers of MSM and results from observational studies are not conclusive among MSM overall or among MSM who practice exclusively insertive anal sex.

**Reviewer Comment**: This statement reveals that those within the CDC who generated this document do not understand basic statistics and research study design principles. Just because a study is larger does not mean that it will provide a statistically significant result to one's liking. Remember the Women's Health Initiative Study? It had the exact opposite result of what was predicted. The results of a study are not known until the study is performed. The current available data do not support the CDC's wish that male circumcision would provide some benefit among MSM.

**RESPONSE 28:** The CDC recommendations state that medical providers should counsel MSM that:

- o "Based on clinical trials, the demonstrated benefits of male circumcision for HIV risk reduction apply to heterosexual (penile-vaginal) sex only.
- o In the absence of clinical trial data for MSM related to male circumcision, definitive statements about whether male circumcision can reduce the risk of acquiring HIV and other STIs cannot be made. However, in observational studies, pooled data indicate that among MSM who practiced mainly insertive anal sex, male circumcision was associated with a decrease in acquiring new HIV infections. One observational study also found that new infection with one oncogenic type of HPV type (HPV-16) was reduced among circumcised MSM who practiced mainly insertive anal sex. Data from observational studies are considered weaker compared to data from clinical trials. However, it is biologically plausible that MSM who practice mainly insertive anal sex

may experience a reduction in the risk for acquiring HIV and STIs like that among heterosexuals in clinical trials during penile-vaginal sex.

o While some MSM may choose to be circumcised because of the potential to decrease risk for the insertive anal sex partner, male circumcision involves potential risks (see Adverse Events section of Box 1) and costs."

# **COMMENT:**

**3B-1.** CDC draft: Men who have sex with men should be informed that:

 The demonstrated benefits of male circumcision for HIV risk reduction apply to heterosexual (penile-vaginal) sex only.

**Reviewer Comment**: Several studies, two of which included more than 30,000 subjects, in the United States have failed to a find a risk reduction from male circumcision in heterosexual men. Therefore, the CDC's statement is misleading and, in the US, false.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 2.

### COMMENT:

# 4. Counseling parents of male newborns, children, or adolescents

**CDC draft:** Health benefits and risks of elective neonatal, pediatric, or adolescent male circumcision should be considered in consultation with medical providers. In the case of discussion about neonatal male circumcision, ideally such discussion should occur prior to the birth of the child. Ultimately, whether to circumcise a male neonate or child is a decision made by parents or guardians on behalf of their newborn son or dependent child.

**Reviewer Comment:** Since neonatal male circumcision is a non-therapeutic, purely cosmetic procedure, solicitation of the procedure is unethical according to the standards of the American Medical Association.

**RESPONSE 29:** The reviewer's statement that neonatal male circumcision is a "non-therapeutic, purely cosmetic procedure" is inaccurate. There is strong scientific evidence that demonstrates several health benefits of male circumcision, which has been discussed in previous responses and outlined in the CDC background document. Adverse events are rare and are generally easily managed, particularly in children under one year of age. The background document provides evidence that the benefits of neonatal male circumcision outweigh the risks by 100 to 1, and include benefits such as reduced risk for HIV and STD acquisition, urinary tract infections, penile cancer, prostate cancer,

**Reviewer Comment**: Whether parents can legally and ethically make a decision on the child's behalf to undergo a non-therapeutic, purely cosmetic procedure has not been clearly decided. The current ethical standard is that procedures in children that can safely wait until the child can provide his own informed consent should be delayed until

the child can provide that consent. See also RESPONSE 22.

#### COMMENT:

CDC draft: When counseling parents about male circumcision for an adolescent minor, the adolescent should be included in the decision-making process about undergoing elective male circumcision. When counseling an adolescent inquiring about male circumcision, parents should be engaged in the discussion, unless the adolescent is legally emancipated.

**Reviewer Comment**: Such counseling should only occur when the patient inquires about the procedure. To offer this information without an inquiry would be unethical, and potentially harm the adolescent's self-esteem and body image.

**RESPONSE 30:** The CDC recommendations state that male adolescent minors and their legal guardians should be included in the decision surrounding elective male circumcision, and that medical providers should inform the adolescent and guardians of health benefits and risks associated with the procedure. The CDC recommendations do not restrict counseling about male circumcision to inquiries from adolescents. Providers may also counsel on male circumcision if parents or guardians inquire and in cases where the provider believes the adolescent may be at risk of acquiring HIV through heterosexual intercourse. Counseling messages on elective male circumcision discuss the health benefits and risks associated with the procedure, and are not discriminatory toward uncircumcised males. See also RESPONSE 21.

# **COMMENT:**

- **4-A.** CDC draft: Parents and guardians should be informed about the medical benefits and risks of neonatal, pediatric, or adolescent medically performed male circumcision (see Box):
  - During infancy, circumcised infants are less likely than uncircumcised infants to experience urinary tract infections (UTIs), although UTIs are uncommon during infancy.

Reviewer Comment: To be accurate, this statement should state that intact boys are more likely to be diagnosed with urinary tract infections, but they may not necessarily have more actual UTIs. Whether or not they actually have more urinary tract infections is unclear. It needs to be added that between 110 and 190 boys need to be circumcised to avoid one additional boy being diagnosed with a urinary tract infection. Parents and guardians should be reassured that urinary tract infections can be treated with oral antibiotics and rarely, if ever, lead to long-term kidney problems or hypertension. It should be added that multiple studies from Israel have found that urinary tract infections increase in boys following ritual male circumcision.

**RESPONSE 31:** The absolute risk of a male infant developing a urinary tract infection

and relative risk reduction of infant urinary tract infections (UTIs) associated with male circumcision is provided in the CDC recommendations. There is a strong evidence base that male circumcision protects against infant UTIs. Typical treatments and long-term impact of infant UTIs vary with severity of infection; infant UTIs may require more invasive treatment and diagnosis beyond oral antibiotics. Ritual male circumcision is outside the scope of these guidelines.

**Reviewer Comment:** The bandaging used following a ritual male circumcision may obstruct urine flow, leading to the urinary tract infection.

**RESPONSE 32:** The CDC recommendations address medical male circumcision only. Discussion of adverse events caused by ritual male circumcision is outside of the scope of the recommendations.

#### COMMENT:

o CDC draft: Circumcised boys are less likely than uncircumcised males to experience balanitis and balanoposthitis.

Reviewer Comment: This statement needs to be deleted as it is factually incorrect. There is no evidence to support this. Two studies found that circumcised boys under the age of three years were more likely to have penile inflammation than their intact counterparts. By providing health care providers with recommendations that are not factually accurate, the CDC is encouraging health care providers to provide parents and guardians with information that is not true. In other words, they are encouraging health care providers to violate the trust patients have in them and to engage in malpractice. If the provider is sued on the basis of providing the false information the CDC is encouraging, who is liable? The CDC should not put health care providers in the position of lying to their patients. (However, the entire CDC draft document is putting health care providers at risk for medical malpractice because of the fallacies it contains.)

**RESPONSE 33:** As stated in the CDC background document, findings from a retrospective cohort and a prospective cohort study indicate that inflammation such as balanitis and balanoposthitis were less likely to occur in circumcised boys than in uncircumcised boys. Male circumcision may also be recommended as a treatment for balanitis or balanoposthitis that does not respond to other treatments.

#### COMMENT:

o CDC draft: During adulthood, circumcised males are less likely than uncircumcised males to experience penile or possibly prostate cancer.

**Reviewer Comment:** The incidence of penile cancer is quite low, and it should be mentioned that the number needed to treat is between 4237 and 7184. Despite having a much higher male circumcision rate in the United States, the penile cancer incidence rate in the United States is no different than what is seen in Europe among primarily

intact males. The evidence on prostate cancer is so weak, inconsistent, and inconclusive, that it should not be mentioned, especially when the incidence in the United States is quite high as is the male circumcision rate. Pathological studies indicate that many males, up to 70-80% by the seventh and eighth decades, have microscopic prostate cancer at autopsy, which was not clinically detected. So, where is the benefit of being circumcised?

**RESPONSE 34:** As stated in the CDC background document, penile cancer is rare in developed countries, accounting for <1% of malignancies among men. Several observational studies demonstrate penile cancer strongly associated with a lack of male circumcision, and a case control study has demonstrated the odds of invasive penile cancer are greater in uncircumcised men than in circumcised men. See the CDC background document "Penile and prostate cancers" section for additional information.

The lifetime risk of prostate cancer among men in the U.S. during 2008-1010 was about 15%.<sup>13</sup> Male circumcision before first sexual intercourse was associated with a 15% reduction in risk of prostate cancer compared to that of uncircumcised men in a combined analysis using pooled data from 1754 cases and 1645 controls in 2 population-based case-control studies (95% confidence interval [CI], 0.73-0.99).<sup>14</sup>

# **COMMENT:**

o CDC draft: Other anticipated health benefits derive in part from future prevention of HIV and some STIs acquired through heterosexual sex. The risk for any individual neonate, child, or adolescent cannot be definitively defined at the time that a male circumcision decision is made; for example, current risks for HIV and STIs, such as those for a particular individual's racial/ethnic group or gender, may not remain constant in the future.

**Reviewer Comment:** Circumcised men have an overall STI risk that is greater than for intact men.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 26.

# **COMMENT:**

Is this stating that infants are not at risk for sexually transmitted infections, including HIV? If this is the case, that would favor waiting until the child is old enough to provide his own consent. Since when do we remove healthy normal tissue from a baby to possibly prevent some unknown future risk of disease? There are other more pressing diseases to contend with, if this is the focus of the CDC.

**RESPONSE 35:** Persons are not at risk of acquiring HIV and other STIs through sexual transmission until sexual debut. Individual lifetime risk of acquiring HIV and other STIs is not known at the time of birth, and may change from the time of birth to the time of sexual debut. A benefit of male circumcision prior to sexual debut is that it ensures the

protective effects of male circumcision against sexually transmitted infections, including HIV, are present before commencement of sexual activity that put men at risk for these infections.

## COMMENT:

- o CDC draft: Considerations for the timing of male circumcision:
  - Neonatal male circumcision is, safer, and heals more rapidly than male circumcision performed on older boys, adolescent males, and men, and is less expensive.

**Reviewer Comment**: It is patently false that neonatal male circumcision is safer. This statement is based on myth, not on facts. The few studies that have made the appropriate comparison do not support this conclusion. There is no evidence that the wound heals more rapidly. There have been no studies in the medical literature that address wound healing and the Background draft does not address this claim. Since the foreskin has not separated from the glans in neonates, it is more likely that neonatal male circumcision takes longer to heal and is more painful.

**RESPONSE 36:** Complications occur in less than 0.5% of infants, and in approximately 9% of children age 1 - 9 years. Among newborns and children age 1 - 9 years, the most frequently reported complications include bleeding and inflammation of the penis and the need for corrective procedures. Delaying age of male circumcision from infancy to one year of age or older can increase the risk of some complications associated with the procedure, which include correctional procedures, bleeding, and inflammation.<sup>15</sup>

In patient-oriented health educational materials in the U.S., healing time after infant male circumcision is reported to be about 7 to 14 days<sup>18</sup>  $^{19-21}$ and to be about 2 – 6 weeks in older children, adolescent, and adults. $^{19,22}$ 

COMMENT: Neonatal male circumcision is less expensive because it is not performed under general anesthesia, the only adequate anesthesia besides a caudal block. Neonates also are much easier to strap down without a major fight ensuing. The topical and local anesthetics that are used for neonatal male circumcision do not provide adequate anesthesia, as has been demonstrated in multiple studies. The procedure is still quite painful when these are used. The pain associated with neonatal male circumcision, even when topical and local anesthetics are used, has been linked to circumcised boys crying longer and louder when given vaccinations at four to six months of age and circumcised boys having a significantly greater risk of developing infantile autism, autism spectrum disorder, and hyperactivity. The availability of general anesthesia for male circumcision performed in older males is another advantage of waiting until the male can provide his own consent.

**RESPONSE 37:** Minimizing pain is an important consideration for medical male circumcision. Appropriate use of analgesia is considered standard of care for medical

male circumcision at all ages, and appropriate analgesia can substantially control pain for infants, children, and adults during and after the procedure. As demonstrated by Banieghbal and colleagues, appropriate analgesia can substantially control pain. In their study, 93.5% of neonates circumcised in the first week of life with appropriate analgesia gave no indication of pain on an objective, standardized neonatal pain rating system.<sup>23</sup>

The study which found an association with autism and male circumcision focused only on ritual male circumcision which is outside the scope of these guidelines and has been critiqued as being methodologically unsound and biased.<sup>16,17</sup>

## **COMMENT:**

- CDC draft: Male circumcision can also be conducted in adulthood when the individual can make the decision for himself. However, male circumcision after sexual debut could result in missed opportunities for:
  - HIV and STI prevention during the window period between sexual debut and male circumcision

**Reviewer Comment:** This a cheap scare tactic designed to influence parents and teens into accepting male circumcision before full adulthood. According to the CDC's own numbers, the risk of HIV infection under the age of 15 years is very low. How many 15 year olds are having unprotected sex with female partners who are HIV-infected?

**RESPONSE 38:** Prevention interventions work best when implemented prior to exposure. In the case of sexually-transmitted infections such as HIV, the time period prior to exposure occurs prior to sexual debut. In addition, male circumcision prior to sexual debut is more effective at protecting against prostate and penile cancer<sup>14,24</sup>. Uptake of the procedure after the neonatal period is also likely to be lower due to the increased cost, greater likelihood of complications, and other barriers to male circumcision at a later age.

Similarly, the only STI that might be associated with male circumcision status is syphilis, which is also very rare and easily treated with antibiotics. This risk is so low that there is no need to mention it. The only people who do mention it are the pro-circumcision lobbyists, who believe it may have some rhetorical value. STIs, HPV, HIV have been shown to be more common in circumcised males in North American studies.

**RESPONSE 39:** Several STIs are associated with lack of male circumcision. In randomized controlled trials for which data are available, reductions in the 1) prevalence of genitourinary disease (GUD)<sup>25-27</sup>, 2) incidence of herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2),<sup>4,28</sup> 3) prevalence,<sup>4-6,29</sup> <u>ENREF 9</u> incidence,<sup>30,31</sup> and clearance<sup>29,31</sup> of high-risk oncogenic human papillomavirus (HR-HPV) <u>ENREF 7</u>, 4) prevalence of *Trichomonas vaginalis*,<sup>27,32</sup> 5) incidence of syphilis,<sup>33</sup> 6) prevalence of bacterial vaginosis,<sup>27</sup> and 7) prevalence of *mycoplasma genitalium*<sup>34</sup> were also demonstrated. <u>ENREF 19</u>

See also RESPONSE 15.

#### COMMENT:

CDC draft: Prevention of UTIs during infancy.

**Reviewer Comment:** The risk of UTI is small and none of the analyses that have been published believe that male circumcision is a cost-effective method to address this small risk. If an infant male circumcision costs \$285 (according to the CDC) and the number needed to treat is 195, then it would cost over \$50,000 to prevent one urinary tract infection that can easily be treated with an antibiotic that costs less than \$20. So, this is also a cheap scare tactic.

**RESPONSE 39a:** See RESPONSE 31. The cost-effectiveness of treatment of UTIs is not relevant to the statement in the CDC recommendations that male circumcision prevents UTIs during infancy. In addition, In a meta-analysis of 18 studies mainly from the U.S., the prevalence of UTI in infants presenting with fever in outpatient clinics and emergency departments was 7.0% (95% CI = 5/5 - 8.4), but as high as 20.1% (95% CI = 16.8 - 23.4) among febrile uncircumcised males aged < 3 months compared with 2.4% (95% CI = 1.4 - 3.5) among febrile circumcised males aged < 3 months, and 7.8% (95% CI = 6.6 - 8.9) among both febrile and afebrile older children aged < 19 years. 35

#### **COMMENT:**

 CDC draft: The most commonly described complications of medically performed male circumcision in the United States are typically uncommon and easily managed.

**Reviewer Comment:** The most commonly described complications of medically performed male circumcision are the loss of the most sensitive portion of the penis (100%) and meatal stenosis (5% to 20%). Both are common and not easily managed.

Once the majority of the fine-touch neuroreceptors are removed from the penis via male circumcision, there is no way to grow them back. While there are thousands of circumcised men who spend years trying to stretch their remaining shaft skin so the glans of the penis can once again be covered, there is no way to restore the fine-touch neuroreceptors.

**RESPONSE 40**: Many studies have evaluated the impact of male circumcision on sexual satisfaction or function and have found little evidence of adverse effect on penile sensitivity, sensation, or sexual satisfaction.<sup>36-42</sup> The randomized controlled trials in Kenya and Uganda reported no adverse effects of male circumcision on sexual satisfaction.<sup>38,43</sup>

**COMMENT:** Meatal stenosis (narrowing of the opening of the urethra) usually requires surgical enlargement of the urethral opening done under general anesthesia (the child might as well have waited to be circumcised to partake of such pain control). Consequently, neither of these complications is easily managed. Either the writers of this set of recommendations are intellectually obtuse, or they are purposely covering up the side effects of male circumcision to portray the procedure in the most positive light possible. By ignoring the harms and complications of male circumcision, of which there

are hundreds, they are doing a disservice to the health care professionals, parents and patients who might rely on this information, and ultimately it is a disservice to society as a whole.

**RESPONSE 41:** Meatal stenosis may occur very rarely as a result of medical male circumcision, but there is no high quality study that links meatal stenosis to medical male circumcision.

See also RESPONSE 35.

#### COMMENT:

o CDC draft: Severe complications are rare in all age groups.

**Reviewer Comment:** It all depends on how "rare" and how "severe" and how "complication" is defined. But perhaps a more important discussion is whether any severe complications, regardless of their rarity, are acceptable following a non-therapeutic, purely cosmetic procedure performed on an individual who is unable to give his own consent?

**RESPONSE 42:** Potential complications from male circumcision are addressed in the CDC background document. Severe complications from the procedure include severe bleeding, partial or complete amputation, laceration repair, or other correctional procedures.

See also RESPONSE 35 and RESPONSE 29.

#### COMMENT:

• CDC draft: Among newborns and children age 1 to 9 years, most frequently reported complications include bleeding and inflammation of the penis or the need for corrective procedures. Complications occur in less than ½ % of infants, and in approximately 9% of children age 1 to 9 years.

Reviewer Comment: The complication rates in this statement come from a study based on data collected from a database. This study design typically misses between 90% and 95% of the complications when compared to the number of complications identified when performing a chart review. This statement needs to be deleted and the complication rate from charts reviewed by the CDC, which revealed a complication rate of 3.1%, should be put in its place. Similarly, there are studies in which the complication rates of male circumcisions performed in neonates were compared to the complication rates of male circumcisions on older boys at the same time in the same place using the same criteria. The results have been mixed. In some, the complication rates were higher in newborns or there was no difference between the two groups. None showed a lower rate of complications in newborns. This effort to paint neonatal male circumcision as having lower complication rates is purely a propaganda tool with insufficient quality evidence to support it.

**RESPONSE 43:** The statement that there is "insufficient quality evidence to support" the cited complication rates of male circumcision is inaccurate. Several large studies of medically attended male circumcision in the neonatal period in the United States estimate the rate of adverse events at less than 0.5% (ref: Cristakis, Wiswell, Gee). See also RESPONSE 36.

#### COMMENT:

 CDC draft: Among persons 10 years of age and older, the most frequently reported complications include those complications reported in younger children as well as wounds of the penis. Complications occur in approximately 5% of persons in this age group<sup>15</sup>.

Reviewer Comment: The immediate complication rate for neonatal male circumcision ranges from 2% to about 6%, with delayed complications being much higher. For example, meatitis (inflammation of the urethral opening) occurs in 20%, meatal stenosis in 5% to 20%, adhesions in 25%, skin bridges in 4.1% to 12.7%, subcutaneous granuloma in 4.97%, phimosis in up to 2.9%, hidden penis in 1%, and 1% of parents who insist on the male circumcision being redone because they do not like the cosmetic outcome. The point is that neonatal male circumcision may have a higher complication rate than when it is performed on boys 10 years and older.

**RESPONSE:** See RESPONSE 36, RESPONSE 41, RESPONSE 43.

## **COMMENT:**

o CDC draft: The American Academy of Pediatrics Taskforce on Circumcision states that the health benefits of newborn male circumcision outweigh the risks and that the benefits of newborn male circumcision justify access to this procedure for families who choose it.

**Reviewer Comment:** This appeal to authority is inappropriate. The American Academy of Pediatrics Task Force on Circumcision in their report stated several times that they did not know the rate of complications following male circumcision. This may be related to the refusal of the Task Force to consider any case reports or case series in their limited analysis of the medical literature. Most reports in the medical literature of complications are in the form of case reports and case series. The Task Force also did not quantify the rate at which a male who was circumcised would reap any benefit from the procedure. Yet, with the rates of the benefits undefined and the rates of complications unknown, somehow the Task Force was able to say that the benefits outweighed the risks. Making such a statement defies the basic principles of mathematics. When pressed on how they reached their conclusion, the Task Force stated that they felt the benefits outweighed the risks. So, their conclusion was not evidence-based but feelings-based. This conclusion was also criticized by thirty-eight well-regarded medical experts, primarily from Europe, who argued that this conclusion was culturally biased. Why does the CDC mention the Task Force report, which suffers from the same biases and lack of scholarly rigor as the Background Draft? Is it thought

that reference to an equally pathetic effort will give the CDC's efforts some unearned credibility?

**RESPONSE 44:** In the United States, reported rates of complications in large studies of medically attended male circumcision in the neonatal period, including infants from birth to age 1 month, are approximately 0.2%,  $^{44,45, 46}$  and vary by type of study, setting, operator and surgical technique. Similarly, the reported rate of complications of medically attended male circumcisions occurring at any age in the United States is 0.23%. In a comprehensive risk-benefit analysis of infant male circumcision based on reviews of the literature and meta-analyses, it is estimated that over a lifetime, benefits exceed risks by a factor of  $100:1.^{47}$  Based on a meta-analysis of 22 studies, most of which were based in the U.S., it is estimated that 32.1% (95% CI = 15.6 - 49.8) of uncircumcised men compared with 8.8% (95% CI = 4.15 - 13.2) of circumcised men will experience a UTI in their lifetime, suggesting that lack of male circumcision is associated with a 23.3% increased risk of UTI during a man's lifetime.

# **COMMENT:**

**4-B.** CDC draft: Medically performed neonatal, pediatric, or adolescent male circumcision should be done by trained clinicians according to accepted standards of clinical care, with appropriate use of anesthesia.

Reviewer Comment: What is appropriate use of anesthesia? Given that topical and local anesthetics, which are all that are available to newborns, do not provide adequate anesthesia, shouldn't the procedure be delayed until general anesthesia can be more safely employed? This has been the recommendation of the Australasian Association of Paediatric Surgeons since 1996. For any procedure, all people would elect to have adequate anesthesia, including all newborns. A physician or surgeon would be guilty of misconduct and malpractice for not providing appropriate anesthesia to a patient. But, for some reason, newborns fly under the radar because they are easily restrained and unable to communicate verbally. When parents make decisions on behalf of their children, they should do what the child would chose for himself. This is consistent with the American Academy of Pediatrics position on pain relief for neonates, which states that newborns should be given the same consideration in avoiding and relieving pain as older children and adults. The anesthetic used for neonatal male circumcision ignores this consideration. What are "accepted standards" of clinical care? There are no guidelines on what constitutes a "good" male circumcision. There is no consistency on how much tissue to remove, what method to use, what anesthetic to use, etc., which explains why there are so many complications related to this surgery. Furthermore, neonatal male circumcisions are often performed by the least experienced member of the medical team: the medical student, intern or resident in training. This likely contributes to higher complication rates.

**RESPONSE 45:** The AAP states that "Trained and competent practitioners, by using sterile techniques and effective pain management, should perform male circumcision. Analgesia is safe and effective in reducing the procedural pain associated with newborn

male circumcision; thus, adequate analgesia should be provided whenever newborn male circumcision is performed."

See also RESPONSE 37.

Typically in the U.S., providers who perform male circumcision include obstetricians, pediatricians, family practitioners, midwives, and urologists. Also, the AAP notes that "most residency training programs in the respective specialties teach techniques, including the Gomco clamp, Mogen clamp, and Plastibell device." In the U.S., accepted standards of clinical care have been put into place for surgical procedures regardless of the individual procedure, such as pre-op screening of the patient to rule out conditions that might rule out the patient as a surgical candidate. Infection control procedures are also in place. Regarding the technical aspects of conducting male circumcision, medical textbooks describe the various surgical procedures for conducting male circumcision. Typically, residents in training read about a procedure and then observe an experienced surgeon perform the procedure. They may assist an experienced surgeon conduct a surgery until they are deemed ready to take the lead in conducting such a surgery. Routinely, hospitals conduct periodic reviews of morbidity and mortality associated with individual practitioners to determine if a higher level of adverse events is occurring than what is anticipated.

# **COMMENT:**

# Box:

CDC draft: Health Benefits and Risks of Elective Medically Performed Male Circumcision

- CDC draft: Health benefits of elective male circumcision in adults and adolescents:
  - o Male circumcision reduces the risk of acquiring HIV infection through penilevaginal sex by 50-60%, as demonstrated in three well-conducted clinical trials among adult men living in sub-Saharan Africa.

**Reviewer Comment:** There is no evidence that the findings of the clinical trials in Africa, which by several objective standards were not "well conducted," apply to male infants or to males living in North America, and there is ample evidence they do not apply. The existence of this "health benefit" is highly speculative. There is no evidence to suggest that any benefit has been demonstrated for infant male circumcision or for heterosexual men in North America.

**RESPONSE 45a:** See RESPONSE 2, RESPONSE 15, RESPONSE 19, RESPONSE 29, RESPONSE 31

#### COMMENT:

The reduction should be identified as a relative risk reduction. The absolute risk reduction in these trials should be mentioned to provide a true comparison. For example, in the Ugandan study the absolute risk reduction was 0.67% with a number

needed to treat of 149.

These numbers need to be adjusted for the lower incidence seen in the United States. If one assumes the African results apply to the United States, and there is no evidence to support this assumption, then the absolute risk reduction would be 0.02% with a number needed to treat of 5000. At \$285 per male circumcision, this would cost \$1.425 million to avoid one HIV infection. Not a good use of resources, especially when this is based on an assumption that is not consistent with the medical evidence. Even if the relative risk reduction is 10%, the number needed to treat would be 25,000 and cost would be \$7.125 million. The CDC, by only mentioning the relative risk reduction, is hoping that readers will forget that 50% of a very small number is still a very small number.

**RESPONSE 45b:** See RESPONSE 14. The reviewer's comment on cost-effectiveness is not relevant to the statement in the CDC recommendations that male circumcision reduces the risk of acquiring HIV infection through penile-vaginal sex in men.

 CDC draft: In clinical trials involving heterosexual males living in sub-Saharan Africa, male circumcision reduces the risk of some sexually transmitted infections.

Male circumcision reduces the risk of circumcised men acquiring infections with:

- Genital ulcer disease (GUD) (by 48%)
- Herpes simplex virus type-2 (HSV-2) (by 28% 45%)
- Oncogenic types of human papilloma virus (HPV) (by 24% 47%)
- Syphilis (by 42% 62%):

Male circumcision reduces the risk of circumcised men having existing infections with:

- Oncogenic types of HPV (by 25% 47%)
- Trichomonas vaginalis (by 53%)
- Mycoplasms genitalium (by 46%)

# **COMMENT:**

Reviewer Comment: This statement is selective in the results provided and fails to note that these trials did not adjust their results for lead-time bias. Of the three randomized trials, one found virtually no difference (RR 1.06), and in only one was the difference statistically significant. When adjusted for lead-time bias, none of the trials had a result that was statistically significant. When the results of prospective studies on the incidence of HSV-2 infections by male circumcision status are combined in a meta-analysis, and the studies are adjusted for lead-time bias, the results are not statistically significant. This finding is consistent with the meta-analysis results of observational studies that have looked at HSV-2 prevalence by male circumcision status: no statistically significant difference. The CDC markedly overstates this difference. Their draft should also list the number needed to treat for these differences. For the study in Uganda, the NNT was 93, in South Africa 98.6, and in Kenya 261. If the incidence of HSV-2 is lower in the United States, the numbers needed to treat would be greater.

RESPONSE 45c: See RESPONSE 15.

# COMMENT:

 CDC draft: HPV: circumcised men were approximately 30% less likely to be infected with high-risk strains of HPV associated with cancers than were uncircumcised men.

Reviewer Comment: The 30% reductions were only reported in two of the prospective studies, where only the glans was sampled. In multiple studies, it has been demonstrated that intact men who have HPV on their genitals are more likely to have the virus primarily on the glans, whereas circumcised men who have genital HPV are more likely to have the virus primarily on the shaft of the penis. By not sampling the shaft of the penis, these studies guaranteed that HPV would be detected 30% more often in intact men, even if the infection rate on the genitals was the same in both circumcised and intact men. In other words, the 30% reduction can be completely attributed to their decision to only sample the glans of the penis, or to only report the results of the samples taken from the glans of the penis. The largest prospective study of HPV and male circumcision was published in 2014. This study sampled the male genitals properly, finding that circumcised men were at greater risk for genital HPV infections, but the difference was not statistically significant. It also found that HPV cleared significantly faster in intact men. The medical literature does not support the hypothesis that intact men are at greater risk for HPV infection. This myth evolved out of methodologically flawed studies that did not properly sample the penis.

**RESPONSE 45d:** See RESPONSE 15.

# **COMMENT:**

- CDC draft: Adverse events and risks associated with elective male circumcision of adults:
  - o For adult male circumcision performed by clinicians, the rate of adverse events is up to 5%, with pain, bleeding, infection and unsatisfactory post-surgical appearance most commonly reported. While severe and/or long-term complications have been reported, they are so rare that they have not been precisely established.

**Reviewer Comment:** The low percentages reported in these studies indicate that, if a male circumcision is to be performed, it should be performed during adulthood to reduce the risk of complications. At least in adulthood, the male can understand and accept the risks involved. Infant male circumcision has much higher rates of adverse events. It is time studies were done to precisely establish all the complications from male circumcision because it is doubtful they are rare.

**RESPONSE 45d:** See RESPONSE 36.

#### COMMENT:

o CDC draft: Adult men who undergo male circumcision generally report minimal or no change in sexual satisfaction or function.

Reviewer Comment: This statement is based primarily on wishful thinking supported by two studies with serious/fatal methodological flaws. The medical literature is replete with studies of circumcised adults who report decreased penile sensitivity, erectile problems, difficulty with insertion during coitus, and difficulty reaching orgasm. Two studies out of Africa used questionnaires whose questions would not have been able to detect a difference if one existed. The men in these studies, if the results are to be believed, are having the best sexual experiences on the planet as their rates of sexual dysfunction were 6 to 30 times lower than reported in other countries. The participants in these studies were, by African standards, extremely well paid for their participation, so it is unknown if this had an undue influence on their answers. There are several studies. including a representative national survey from Denmark, indicating that male circumcision has a negative impact on sexual function. There are several studies that have found circumcised men suffer from premature ejaculation significantly more frequently than intact men. Studies have also indicated that the female partners of circumcised men are significantly more likely to report a lack of sexual fulfillment and pain with intercourse. This statement needs to be changed to fit the currently available evidence.

**RESPONSE 45e:** See RESPONSE 40.

# **COMMENT:**

- CDC draft: Health benefits of neonatal male circumcision:
  - o The estimated annual rate of urinary tract infections (UTIs) in uncircumcised male infants is 0.70%. Male circumcision reduces the risk for infant UTIs by about 80%.

**Reviewer Comment**: The CDC needs to make a simple calculation to provide the number needed to treat using the numbers provided above: NNT=178.6. At \$285 per male circumcision, it will cost over \$50,000 to avoid one urinary tract infection that can be treated with an antibiotic that costs less than \$20. (Another example of: a large percentage of a small number is still a small number.) It should also be mentioned that urinary tract infections in children are not associated with later development of renal failure or hypertension. Recent recommendations from the American Academy of Pediatrics are that extensive work-ups following urinary tract infections are no longer needed.

**RESPONSE 45f:** The reviewer's comment on cost-effectiveness is not relevant to the statement in the CDC recommendations that male circumcision reduces the risk of infant UTIs. See also response 31.

#### COMMENT:

o CDC draft: In the U.S., the estimated lifetime risk of penile cancer for males is about 1 in 1,400 (0.07%) and that of prostate cancer is about 15%. Neonatal male circumcision reduces the risk of penile carcinoma by about 90% and may reduce the risk of prostate cancer by 15% compared to men who are uncircumcised.

Reviewer Comment: These statements are factually inaccurate and out of date. Using up-to-date numbers, the number needed to treat for penile cancer is between 4237 and 7184. There is new evidence that infant male circumcision is not a significant factor in the prevention of penile cancer. Instead, the risk is from balanitis xerotica obliterans, which is the most common cause of pathologic phimosis, along with smoking, multiple sexual partners, and HPV infections. The 90% reduction rate cited above is obviously inaccurate. There have been only three case-control studies of penile cancer published in North America, none of which came close to showing a 90% reduction in penile cancer related to male circumcision status. When two of these studies were controlled for adults with phimosis, lack of infant male circumcision was not a risk factor. Breast cancer in males is more common than penile cancer at a rate of about 0.13%, but there is no discussion about removing male breast buds at birth. The evidence on prostate cancer is weak and inconsistent. Until good evidence is available, prostate cancer should not be part of the discussion. Prostate cancer is very common in this country despite the high rate of male circumcision.

**RESPONSE 45g:** See RESPONSE 34.

## COMMENT:

- CDC draft: Adverse events and risks associated with neonatal male circumcision:
  - o Adverse events: For male circumcision performed by clinicians,
    - the rate of reported adverse events is as follows
      - 0.4% in infants (age through 12 mo.)

**Reviewer Comment:** This estimate is from a study that collected its data from databases, which have been shown to only identify 5% to 10% of the complications, as compared to those that can be identified from a chart review. As a consequence, this number has no basis in reality, and it grossly underestimates the actual rates for adverse events and risks in neonates. Percentages for adverse events/complications are listed later in this review.

RESPONSE 45h: See RESPONSE 36. RESPONSE 41.

# COMMENT:

- CDC draft: 9.1% in children (age 1-9 years)
- CDC draft: 5.3% in persons (age 10 years and older)

**Reviewer Comment:** Older children and their parents are more likely to identify and complain about complications. Consequently, this number may be an overestimate. Yet, when compared to the well documented rates of complications following infant male circumcision, older children may have lower complication rates.

**RESPONSE 46:** Estimates reported for children aged 1-9 years and children aged 10 years and older are from a study using data from a large longitudinal healthcare reimbursement dataset that estimated the incidence of adverse events (AEs) from 2001-2010 that were attributable to male circumcision. These numbers are consistent with data from other prospective and retrospective studies.

# **COMMENT:**

- CDC draft: Most commonly reported complications in all age groups include bleeding and inflammation of the penis, and correctional procedures.
- CDC draft: The incidence of severe adverse events associated with male circumcision performed by clinicians, such as permanent disabilities, disfigurements, and death, is so low that rates have not been precisely established; these events have occurred, but are rare. Other major complications requiring intervention including major bleeding, and severe infection are uncommon.

**Reviewer Comment:** The disclosure of information to decision makers during the informed consent process for a non-therapeutic, cosmetic procedure needs to be exhaustive and complete. Male circumcisions are performed primarily for cultural and religious reasons. Therefore, from a medical perspective, the consequences are much more likely to be negative than positive. Health care providers who perform male circumcisions would be well advised to inform decision makers of all of the known complications/consequences because these may occur despite the skill of the provider. If an adverse or serious complication occurs, the health care provider will be able to document that such a complication was understood by the patient and signed off on. Some of the complications are so common following male circumcision that they are not recognized as complications. Health care providers, when providing disclosure, also must discuss the normal anatomy, histology, and function of the foreskin so the decision maker is informed of what harm/loss results from every male circumcision. The CDC drafts do not mention the normal anatomy, histology, or function of the foreskin, thus disadvantaging the health care provider who is reliant on these documents to properly inform decision makers. This major oversight on the part of the CDC requires attention.

**RESPONSE 47:** The CDC recommendations describe the most common complications of the procedure in all age groups in order to assist medical providers in counseling individuals considering male circumcision for themselves or their child. This document is not intended to take the place the place of a consent form.

### **COMMENT:**

Here is a list of consequences/complications:

Loss of foreskin, its function, and the majority of fine-touch neuroreceptors in the penis (100%)

- Associated increase in erectile dysfunction
- Possible increase in premature ejaculation
- Loss of penile sensation
- Loss of penilo-cavernosus reflex
- Increase in the sexual dysfunction of female sexual partners, including pain on intercourse

Adhesions (25%)

Meatitis (20%)

Meatal stenosis (5% to 20%) — most will require a meatotomy to widen the urethral opening to allow normal urine flow.

Skin bridges (4.1% to 12.7%)

Excessive bleeding (1% to 9%)

Bleeding (1% to 9%)

Subcutaneous granuloma (5%)

Preputial stenosis/phimosis (0.3% to 2.9%)

Hidden penis (1%)

Cosmetic concerns prompting parents to insist on a male circumcision revision (1-2%)

Infection (1% to 2%)

- Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (12-fold increase in circumcised males)
- Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome
- Scrotal and penile abscess
- Erisipelas
- Septicemia
- Meningitis
- Osteomyelitis
- Group A Streptococcus
- Fornier's gangrene
- Tetanus
- Infections following oral-genital contact in ritual male circumcisions:
  - Herpes simplex

—Tuberculosis
— Syphilis

Necrosis of the penis (0.8%)

# Surgical complications:

- Denudation of the penile skin leaving insufficient skin to allow for erection. Some men report pubic hair being pulled over the body of the penis when erect. Excessive skin removed at the time of male circumcision is being reported more frequently.
- Urethral fistula
- Bivalving in which the scissor is inadvertently placed in the urethra and the glans is cut in half.
- Amputation of all or part of the glans
- Amputation of the entire penis
- Hematoma

Urinary retention (seen more commonly in ritual male circumcisions)

- Bladder rupture
- Obstructive uropathy
- Renal failure
- Urinary tract infections

#### Penile edema

Hair strangulation (reported only in circumcised males)

## Behavioral changes

- Newborn male circumcision interferes with breastfeeding
- Newborn male circumcision interferes with maternal-infant bonding
- Newborn male circumcision interferes with normal sleep patterns
- Following male circumcision, with or without anesthetic, boys cry longer and louder when given their vaccinations at 4 to 6 months of age suggesting that male circumcision may permanently alter pain perception.
- Circumcised boys have been found to have a significant association with an increased risk of autism in two studies. There are no contrary data.
- Circumcised boys are at a significantly greater risk of being diagnosed with hyperactivity disorder (attention deficit hyperactivity disorder).
- Circumcised men have a greater risk of having alexithymia (the inability to express emotions)
- Circumcised men have been found in two studies to identify themselves as gay/bisexual significantly more frequently than intact men

Complications of topical/local anesthesia:

Hematoma and bruising Methemoglobinemia

# Gangrene

**RESPONSE 48:** A thorough discussion of adverse events associated with male circumcision in all age groups is included in the CDC background document. The line listing of adverse events provided by the reviewer is not helpful without citations indicating the source of the information, the proportion of patients who had a male circumcision who experienced such an adverse event, and a comparison of the proportions of uncircumcised and circumcised boys who have experienced these adverse events, and where possible, information about whether the adverse event was associated with medical male circumcision or ritual male circumcision. As earlier noted, ritual male circumcision is outside the scope of the CDC male circumcision counseling recommendations.

## **COMMENT:**

# **Reviewer Conclusions:**

The CDC recommendations are counterfactual and not evidence-based. The supporting evidence provided is extremely selective and biased. If the CDC had carefully scrutinized much of the supportive evidence they provided, they would have identified methodological weaknesses that would, if they were to act on the quality of the evidence, change their recommendations. Acknowledgement of the vast majority of the medical literature that the CDC ignored would have also altered their recommendations. There are significant oversights, omissions, and inconsistencies throughout that are critical knowledge for the intended audience of clinicians. By using a selective bibliography and by depending on speculation and hype, rather than science, to develop these recommendations, the CDC has placed clinicians and health care providers in an untenable position. In effect, the CDC, by making the recommendations it has, is asking clinicians and health care providers to misinform their patients, and by doing so, commit medical malpractice. As a consequence, the recommendations for the intended audience of health care providers are inconsistent with the medical evidence, reckless, and dangerous. The CDC should eliminate this draft and approach the topic using an evidence-based approach, hopefully with the involvement of experts from around the world on both sides of the discussion.

# **RESPONSE 48a: CDC RESPONSE TO REVIEWER CONCLUSIONS:**

As stated in previous comments, the recommendations on the health risks and benefits of male circumcision were informed by a careful consideration of high-quality scientific literature, the epidemiologic context of the United States, as well as cultural and ethical considerations. As such, we do not agree with the reviewer's statements that the CDC recommendations are counterfactual and reckless.

The reviewer implies in the conclusion throughout the comments that the CDC recommendations are meant to advocate for male circumcision, which is an inaccurate characterization of the CDC recommendations. The CDC recommendations outline counseling topics to assist medical providers in discussing medical male circumcision

with individuals who are considering male circumcision for themselves or for their male child. The counseling topics contain information on potential health risks and benefits of male circumcision at different ages and within different subpopulations. All statements about health risks and benefits in the document are based on sound scientific evidence and were informed by an objective and comprehensive review of scientific data from studies conducted in the United States and in international settings in consultation with subject matter experts. The CDC recommendations suggest that individuals consider this information on health risks and benefits in conjunction with other non-medical factors in the decision. The document does not contain a direct recommendation in support of or in opposition to medical male circumcision for any age group or any demographic.

# **COMMENT: Reviewer Commentary on CDC Background Draft:**

**Overall RESPONSE 48b:** CDC RESPONSE TO BACKGROUND DRAFT COMMENTARY: We recognize and acknowledge the effort the reviewer has put into the lengthy discussion of the CDC background draft that follows. The citations provided by the reviewer were evaluated for possible inclusion in the most recent update to the CDC background document.

Concerns about the CDC background document are similar to those that have been addressed in responses to the CDC recommendations, so we refer the reviewer to our prior responses on these issues. The literature review has been updated through October 2015, and in doing so we have added reductions among heterosexual men in the incidence and prevalence of genitourinary disease, prevalence and incidence of high-risk oncogenic human papillomavirus (HR-HPV), prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis (*T. vaginalis*), incidence of syphilis, and prevalence of Mycoplasma genitalium ( M. genitalium) We also added a discussion of reductions in the following infections among female sexual partners of circumcised men based on RCTs: prevalence of GUD. prevalence of HR-HPV, prevalence of T. vaginalis, prevalence of bacterial vaginosis, and incidence of syphilis. There was also evidence of increased clearance of HR-HPV infection among circumcised heterosexual men and their female sexual partners in the RCTs. In the absence of RCTs in MSM, we also summarized data from observational studies showing that among MSM who practiced mainly or exclusively insertive anal sex, circumcision was associated with a decrease in acquiring new infections with HIV and with one oncogenic HPV type (HPV-16).

### COMMENT:

# **Introduction**

The material presented in this section of the background document is riddled with inaccurate statements and misrepresentations.

**RESPONSE 48c:** See Responses 1 and 6.

## **COMMENT:**

Male circumcision performed on an infant is not "voluntary." The infant does not give consent. (Male circumcision campaigns in Africa have become less and less "voluntary" and some adult males are being forcibly circumcised.) Consequently, this statement is false and needs to be revised.

**RESPONSE 49:** Parents provide "voluntary" consent for the infant. See Responses 13 and 22.

#### COMMENT:

It is not clear why reference CDC3 was chosen as it is a book written by a known male circumcision advocate. There are basic research articles that should be cited instead.

Prevention of HIV continues to be an unlikely consideration in the decision to circumcise despite pressure by the CDC to make it so (see discussion below). Infants are not sexually active, so HIV prevention is not a concern for them, nor has infant male circumcision been shown to have any impact on HIV acquisition or prevention. Prevention of HIV in adults can be obtained more effectively through non-surgical methods, primarily with the use of condoms.

**RESPONSE 50:** Upon hearing information about the risks and benefits of male circumcision, including that of reducing a heterosexual male's risk of acquiring HIV infection from an HIV-infected female partner, parents will make a decision as to whether they think this information is pertinent in deciding whether to circumcise their child. A reduction in the future risk of acquiring HIV infection is part of any HIV prevention strategy. A parental decision to circumcise their infant to reduce his future risk of HIV acquisition based on such evidence, is by definition a prevention strategy.

# **COMMENT:**

When the draft states that male circumcision reduces the risk of male HIV acquisition through penile-vaginal sex, it relies on the results of the randomized clinical trials to make this claim. The problem is that these trials did not make any effort to determine the source of the infections they diagnosed during their course, so it is unknown whether these infections were the results of penile-vaginal sex, male-to-male sexual contact, or iatrogenic infections. Without knowing where the infections came from, the claim that male circumcision reduces the risk of male HIV acquisition through penile-vaginal sex cannot be made.

**RESPONSE:** See response 12.

### COMMENT:

The CDC draft portrays the perceived benefits in terms of relative risk reduction, but the risks are presented in terms of absolute risk. For example, the 50% to 60% relative risk reduction in HIV infections in the randomized clinical trials sounds like a big deal, but the absolute risk reduction was only 1.3%, which is a difference that many would not

consider clinically of any value. It would be best if this draft presented the perceived benefits in terms of the number needed to treat (NNT), and presented the risks in terms of the number needed to harm (NNH) in order to compare them fairly.

**RESPONSE:** See response 14.

#### COMMENT:

In reporting on the 2007 recommendations of the WHO/UNAIDS, it should be explicitly stated that their recommendations did not apply to infant male circumcision. Nor was there a consensus of opinion. In fact, those present describe the measure as being "railroaded through."<sup>4,5</sup>

**RESPONSE 51**: The 2007 recommendations states the following: "Since neonatal male circumcision is a less complicated and risky procedure than male circumcision performed in young boys, adolescents or adults, such countries should consider how to promote neonatal male circumcision in a safe, culturally acceptable and sustainable manner."

## COMMENT:

The statement, "Despite these overall differences, the results of the African trials are likely to have application to HIV prevention efforts in the United States," is completely without foundation. While this may be what the CDC authors want everyone reading it to believe, it has no basis in fact. (The situation in the United States is quite different from that in Africa, including having a first-class medical system in place.) Making such an unsubstantiated statement is unscientific and should be left to the male circumcision lobbyists.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 2, 19.

## **COMMENT:**

The statement that African-American men "are known to be significantly less likely to be circumcised compared to white, non-Hispanic men," is, as discussed below, also untrue.<sup>6-8</sup> African-Americans in several studies have higher, or the same, overall male circumcision rates in the US, as compared to whites. Hispanics have lower male circumcision rates than either of these groups.

**RESPONSE 52:** CDC used the most recent nationally representative data available at the time the document was written. See responses 18.

## **COMMENT:**

It is unclear why the CDC draft questions "whether parents would be willing to have their newborns circumcised to reduce possible future HIV and sexually transmitted infection (STI) risk," when there is no strong evidence that circumcising a newborn will reduce the risk of these infections. To date, not a single study has found neonatal male circumcision to significantly reduce the risk of HIV. (Not to mention, the adult studies fail to show a significant reduction in any risk.)

**RESPONSE 53:** Ecologic studies demonstrate a strong association between lack of male circumcision and HIV infection at the population level. Although links between male circumcision, culture, religion, and risk behavior likely account for some of the differences in HIV infection prevalence, the countries in Africa and Asia with prevalence of male circumcision of less than 20% have HIV-infection prevalence several times as high (seroprevalence range: 0.24 – 25.84) than countries in those regions where more than 80% of men are circumcised (seroprevalence range: 0.03-11.64).<sup>49</sup> In addition, based on data from an HIV transmission model fitted to data from the Four Cities Study, including 2 cities in sub-Saharan Africa with relatively low HIV prevalence (Cotonou and Yaoundé) and 2 with high HIV prevalence (Kisumu and Ndola), investigators concluded that differences in rates of male circumcision likely played an important role in differing rates of HIV transmission across Africa. 50 Results from such ecologic studies are important as most male circumcisions globally are thought to occur during infancy, childhood, or adolescence, suggesting that male circumcision at an earlier age confers a long term reduction in risk for HIV acquisition. The fact that male circumcision performed during the neonatal period is associated with fewer and less severe side effects compared to male circumcision performed during adulthood is one of the most important reasons that most male circumcisions are performed neonatally in the U.S. See response 35.

# **COMMENT:**

This background document presents a very biased, one-sided summary of the data that support the practice of male circumcision while ignoring most of the medical literature that does not support the practice. When the medical literature is looked at in its entirety, male circumcision is not a medically sound intervention. While this background document is supposed to focus on the data in the context of the United States, it only considers two of the eight studies that have looked at the impact of male circumcision on the risk of HIV infection.<sup>8-15</sup> None of these eight studies found a statistically significant positive effect for the intervention, and one found that circumcised men had a statistically significant higher prevalence of HIV than intact men. 14 Likewise, much of this background document is allocated to a discussion about male circumcisions performed in Africa, which are of little interest and irrelevant to the target audience of health care professionals in the United States and not within the scope of the charge the CDC was given in developing these drafts. The effort that went into providing the minute details regarding male circumcision in Africa would have been better spent researching the anatomy, histology, physiology, and function of the foreskin (which this document completely ignores), researching the complications associated with male circumcision, updating information on the risk of sexually transmitted infections, and analyzing the data in the literature rather than relying on the often misguided analysis of others in review articles and opinion pieces.

**RESPONSE:** See Responses 1, 4, 6, 10:

**COMMENT:** 

Methods to gather, synthesize, and interpret information

The material presented in this section of the background document is fairly straight-forward, but the question remains as to whether the CDC followed their listed methodology in generating this report. The evidence, in the form of the final product, indicates they did not.

**RESPONSE 54:** CDC conducted a systematic review of the scientific literature and updated the review after the public comment period. The newer data supports our previous conclusions and includes data that male circumcision is associated with reduction in the incidence and/or prevalence of more STDs than previously thought based on RCTs. See responses 39 and 48b

## COMMENT:

The two-day consultation convened by the CDC on April 26-27, 2007 brought together a virtual *Who's Who of Circumcision Advocates and Lobbyists*. <sup>16</sup> Given the likemindedness of nearly all the participants in attendance, it is not surprising they managed to produce a massive "group think" phenomenon. Their conclusions were more radical and less scientific than what the participants would have likely considered acceptable, if left to their own devices. <sup>17</sup> This experiment in "group think" resulted in what will be referred to as the "CDC group think presumption:" namely that findings of the randomized clinical trials of adult male volunteers in Africa would apply to infant males circumcised against their will in the United States. In reading the CDC draft, this presumption is presented as gospel truth, when the reality is quite the opposite, with the data currently available not in support of this presumption. It appears the CDC has adopted the attitude seen with other male circumcision enthusiasts, in that the issue was not open for discussion or questioning. <sup>18</sup>

**RESPONSE 55:** CDC's recommendations related to counseling around the issue of male circumcision is based on a systematic review of the scientific literature.

## **COMMENT:**

While the CDC draft states that "a systematic review was conducted" there is little or no evidence that such a review was conducted. Instead, the CDC draft relies on the information published in non-systematic review articles from 1983,<sup>19</sup> and 1998;<sup>20</sup> systematic reviews from 2000,<sup>21</sup> 2003,<sup>22</sup> 2005,<sup>23</sup> 2006,<sup>24</sup> 2008,<sup>25,26</sup> 2009,<sup>27,28</sup> 2010,<sup>30</sup> and 2011;<sup>30</sup> and opinion pieces from 1999,<sup>31</sup>, 2000,<sup>32</sup> and 2014.<sup>33</sup> Beyond reporting what was found in these articles, there is little, or no, evidence of a literature search being performed. The small number of citations (255, of which there are several duplications) also suggests a very limited search of the medical literature. Such a short citation list leaves the writers of the CDC draft open to accusations that, rather than explore the entire scope of the medical literature, they limited their citations to those that supported the "CDC group think presumption." The literature search, that likely did not take place, ended in November 2012, which raises the question of what has been happening the last two years? Much of what the CDC draft contends to be true has been undermined by recent publications. [Note: "United Statates" is spelled "United States"]

**RESPONSE 56:** See response 54.

## COMMENT:

The statement "Because they eliminate spurious causality and bias, RCTs are considered the most rigorous method for determining whether a cause-effect relationship exists between a treatment and an outcome," is clearly an overstatement. No research method can completely "eliminate" bias. The elevation of randomized controlled trials to the status of the gold standard is misplaced, as they often deliver results that are invalid. Throughout this draft, the CDC reflexively genuflects in the face of any results from a randomized trial. But every study, regardless of its methodology, requires careful scrutiny. The CDC did not scrutinize these studies. In fact, as will be discussed below, the randomized clinical trials cited in the CDC draft have multiple sources of bias, which rendered their findings meaningless. Randomized clinical trials, such as these, with serious methodological flaws are less rigorous in determining cause and effect than well-designed observation studies. Just because a randomized clinical trial format was employed does not mean that its findings are valid.

**RESPONSE 57**: Agree that RCTs do not eliminate all bias, therefore the word "eliminate" has been replaced with the word "reduce". See response 5.

## **COMMENT:**

When the draft states that "None of the primary authors of these recommendations reported a financial or other conflict of interest," does this include any conflicts from being an adherent of a religion that requires male circumcision, being from a cultural background that has a high male circumcision rate, being circumcised themselves, being married to someone who is circumcised, and/or having circumcised one's children? Male circumcision status in participants is considered by many as a clear bias and a conflict that should be declared.<sup>38</sup> Such a declaration is important, as male circumcision status or having a circumcised son clearly impacts what advice physicians give to parents regarding infant male circumcision. 39 The conflict of interest on this issue goes well beyond financial considerations. Where is the list of the primary authors of these recommendations, or a list of those who served on the subcommittee of the CDC Public Health Ethics Committee? The makeup of these groups will be an important factor by many, when looked at in conjunction with the obvious lack of scholarship displayed in this draft, in determining how seriously to take the recommendations.

**RESPONSE 58:** CDC did not ask for reporting of nontraditional forms conflict of interest such as "personal male circumcision status", or religious beliefs. However, in this CDC consultation, consultants were asked to review the merits of the scientific evidence at hand.

## COMMENT:

# Summary of evidence

Conspicuously absent from the CDC draft is a discussion of the normal anatomy, histology, physiology and function of the male foreskin or prepuce. Nearly every review article on any medical topic begins with a discussion of the basic anatomy, histology, physiology, and function of the organs and tissues involved. The recent Task Force report of the American Academy of Pediatrics also failed to address this, <sup>40</sup> and members of the Task Force had to admit ignorance on this topic. <sup>41</sup> It is impossible to understand the impact of amputating a healthy structure from the body, if these characteristics are not understood. The vast majority of physicians in the United States do not have a working knowledge of the anatomy, histology, physiology, or function of the foreskin because they were never taught it in medical school, and medical textbooks contain little or no information on these topics.

The prepuce is a common anatomic structure of the male<sup>42</sup> and female<sup>43</sup> external genitalia of all human and non-human primates. The prepuce has been present in primates for at least 65 million years, and is likely over 100 million years old based on its commonality as an anatomical feature in mammals.<sup>44</sup> The prepuce is best understood not as a separate structure of the penis, but rather as an integral part of the penile skin system.

As a modified extension of the penile shaft skin, representing 22 to 33% of the overall length of the flaccid penis, the prepuce covers the glans, extends beyond it, folds back upon itself, and attaches just behind the corona glandis, providing adequate mucocutaneous tissue to cover the entire penis during erection. There is variability in the preputial coverage of the glans penis ranging from complete coverage to only partial coverage. The portion of the prepuce extending beyond the glans can be quite long in children, while those of adults can be shorter. In many boys, the "redundant foreskin" can be longer than the penile shaft. Based on measurements available in the medical literature, the average surface area can be calculated to be between 50 to 62 square centimeters. In a randomized clinical trial in Rakai, Uganda, the surface area was calculated by "multiplying the length by the width of the foreskin," but their calculations would underestimate the surface area by half as it only accounts for one side of the prepuce. Correcting for the prepuce having two sides, the average surface area in this study was 74.2 square centimeters.

The prepuce is perfectly designed to protect the glans, an internal organ. Tapered and double layered, it extends beyond the glans in a long, narrow, tube-like structure, terminating in the preputial orifice. The peripenic muscle sheet lines the skin, is continuous with the dartos muscle of the scrotum, <sup>49</sup> and lines the mucosal layer allowing the prepuce to maintain its close fit over the glans.<sup>50</sup> At the preputial orifice, the muscle fibers are arranged in a whorled manner and form a sphincter that keeps unwanted contaminants away from the sensitive mucosa.<sup>51</sup> This is most evident in the prepubescent male in whom the portion of the prepuce extending beyond the tip of the glans has a characteristic puckered appearance.

The preputial orifice is able to dilate 15 to 20 times its normal size to allow the glans to pass through without entrapment. This expandability increases with age and sexual maturity but may be negligible during infancy.<sup>52</sup> Premature and inappropriate attempts to retract and dilate the preputial opening of infants and children can damage and scar the prepuce, reducing elasticity and impairing sexual function.<sup>53</sup>

While the outer surface of the prepuce is similar to skin, the inner surface of the prepuce can be subdivided into two zones of mucosa. One consists of a prominent band of ridged mucosa, with several (8-12) transverse mucosal ridges or pleats, just inside the tip of the prepuce. This band merges with the frenulum on the ventral aspect of the penis. When the prepuce is fully retracted, the *ridged band* lies across the upper surface and sides of the shaft of the middle third of the penis. 54-56 Histologically, the ridged band has a rich vascular supply, explaining its deep red color, and a high concentration of fine-touch neuroreceptors (such as Meissner's corpuscles, Pacinian corpuscles, genital corpuscles, and mucocutaneous corpuscles) that transmit fine touch, pressure, proprioception, and temperature. 55,57-68

The other zone is the smooth, non-ridged, preputial mucosa, which does not have a high concentration of fine-touch neuroreceptors.

The frenulum, in conjunction with the smooth muscle fibers of the prepuce, helps return the everted prepuce to its forward position. The frenulum, like the ridged band, also contains a dense concentration of erotogenic nerve endings and is a primary orgasmic trigger. Along with the prepuce, also the site of erogenous triggers, stimulation of the frenulum is particularly effective at producing erections. Retraction, rolling, and stretching of the prepuce triggers erotogenic stretch receptors, which comprise the bulk of the sexual sensations of the erect penis.<sup>69</sup>

Blood enters the penis via two principal arteries — the pudendal artery, which carries blood down from the pelvic region, and the femoral artery, which also supplies blood to the legs. Neither of these arteries is superficial, instead lying close to the corpus cavernosa/corpus spongiosa. They flow directly to and alongside the glans, supplying it with blood. Then, they continue down to the underside of the glans to the forward-most point of the frenulum where the arteries meet up with the venous system.

The primary route for venous return from the penis is through the foreskin. The superficial veins drain the skin of the prepuce and glans via a complex vascular plexus that traverses the inner prepuce. These superficial veins drain into larger veins that run up through the frenulum and up the sides through the ridged band. From the ridged band, the veins continue their route back through the skin and Buck's fascia along the corpus cavernosa/corpus spongiosa.

The male prepuce receives its somatosensory innervation via the dorsal nerve of the penis and branches of the perineal nerve (including the posterior scrotal nerves).<sup>70,71</sup> The dorsal penile nerve of the penis supplies sensory axons to the penile shaft and glans. One axon innervates the penile shaft and the urethra, while the other innervates

the glans. Stimulation of the urethra results in contraction of the bulbocavernosus muscles enhancing penile rigidity. Impulses from the dorsal penile nerve also initiate reflex semen emission and power the contractions of the bulbospongiosum muscle that results in external ejaculation.<sup>72-74</sup>

There are portions of the penis, particularly the ventral side and the frenulum, that are partially or completely innervated by a branch of the perineal nerve, <sup>75</sup> which also can induce contractions of the bulbocavernosus muscle. <sup>73</sup> A portion of the fibers within the dorsal nerve carries autonomic branches and is responsible for the hemodynamic events of the distal corpus cavernosum and the glans penis. <sup>72</sup> Autonomic innervation of the prepuce arises from the pelvic plexus. The parasympathetic visceral efferent and afferent fibers arise from the sacral center (S2-S4), and sympathetic preganglionic afferent and visceral afferent fibers arise from the thoracolumbar center (T11-L2). The parasympathetic nerves run adjacent to, and through the wall of, the membranous urethra. <sup>70</sup>

Histologically, the foreskin is a specialized, junctional, pentalaminar structure. The prepuce is considered a *specialized* tissue because it contains elements that are present only in select portions of the body.

It is a *junctional* tissue because it the junction where the transition from skin to mucosa takes place. Analogous tissues include the eyelids, oral labia and the anus, which are also transitional between skin and mucosa. All of these transitional zones contain a high concentration of fine-touch neuroreceptors. In the oral labia, the absence of these neuroreceptors would result in constant drooling, and kissing would lose most of its erotic appeal. In the eyelid, constant tearing would be the rule. Likewise, the protective function of the eyelids would be severely handicapped if unable to sense the presence of contaminants. The function of these specialized, junctional tissues is remarkably similar: keep moisture on the internal mucosal surfaces and keep contaminants out.

It is *pentalaminar* in that it has five layers, with each layer having its own unique histological and functional features:

- 1. The external skin has already been described.
- 2. The dermis of the prepuce consists of vascular tissue, dense nerve trunks, Meissner corpuscles within the papillae, and scattered sebaceous glands. The dermis of the male prepuce appears to have more elastic fibers than the lamina propria of the prepuce. The elastic tissue of the prepuce dermis, along with the dartos muscle and frenulum, tether the prepuce and help return it to its anatomically correct position after erection.
- 3. The dartos layer is specific to the male prepuce and is not found in the female prepuce. It consists of smooth muscle fibers invested with elastic fibers. The delicate, attenuated penile dartos muscle surrounds the shaft of the penis and is continuous with the scrotal dartos muscle.<sup>49</sup> This layer's elasticity allows for the volume changes

required for erection,<sup>49</sup> while the muscular component is responsible for the prepuce fitting closely over the glans.<sup>50</sup>In the distal prepuce (acroposthion), the muscle fibers are intertwined and arranged in a mosaic-like pattern in the infant,<sup>50</sup> causing the distal prepuce to pucker and close, acting like a one-way valve.<sup>51</sup> This is most notable when a young boy voids. As the urine is expelled from the bladder it must first build up enough pressure to overcome the preputial valve. Because of the elasticity of the prepuce, it is not unusual for the prepuce to balloon before enough pressure is generated and a urinary stream results. As a male ages and passes through puberty, the ratio of muscle fibers to elastic fibers decreases, explaining why, on gross inspection, the acroposthion is puckered in the infant and more relaxed appearing in the adult.<sup>50</sup> The increase in elastic fibers may be necessary for the uncomplicated eversion of the glans in the adult.

4. The lamina propria of the prepuce is highly vascular and has looser collagen than the dense collagenous lamina propria of the glans penis. The ridged band of the prepuce is near the tip (acroposthion) of the male prepuce and, in the unretracted prepuce, usually lies against the glans. It is in the lamina propria of the ridged band that there is a high concentration of specialized neuroreceptors. All of these receptors have a capsule and an inner core composed of both neural and nonneural elements. The capsule is a continuation of the perineurium and the core includes preterminal and terminal portions of the nerve fibers surrounded by laminated layers of modified Schwann cells (laminar cells).<sup>68</sup> The Meissner corpuscles, genital corpuscles, and mucocutaneous receptors are similar in that there is a complex branching of the nerves within the corpuscular core, while the Pacinian corpuscle has a single nerve through the core that is surrounded by laminar cells to form an onion bulb configuration. The prepuce possesses a richer variety and a greater number of nerve endings than any other part of the penis.<sup>76,77</sup>

These corpuscular receptors represent one of the two primary somatosensory receptors in skin, the other being free nerve endings or nocioceptors.<sup>67</sup> While free nerve endings (pain, itch, and touch receptors) are found in most skin, the encapsulated receptors are concentrated in regions that require specialized sensitivity, such as at the fingertips, eyelids, lips, external genitalia, perianal skin, and transition areas between skin and mucous membranes.<sup>68</sup>

The glans penis is primarily innervated by free nerve endings and has primarily protopathic sensitivity. Protopathic sensibility refers to cruder, poorly localized feelings (including pain, some temperature sensations, and certain perceptions of mechanical contact such as rubbing). In the glans penis, encapsulated end organs are found in much lower concentrations and are found mainly along the glans corona and the frenulum. He glans is best stimulated by the mechanical rolling pressure of the prepuce over its surface. By comparison to the prepuce, the glans is a neurologically "dumb" organ. Fe [The only portion of the body with less fine touch than the glans penis is the heel of the foot. The mucosal lamina propria is devoid of lanugo hair follicles, sweat, or sebaceous glands. The lamina propria is highly vascular.

5. The mucosal epithelium of the prepuce is the same as the squamous mucosal

epithelium that covers the glans penis.<sup>82</sup> The mucosal epithelium contains Langerhan's cells, but does not contain melanocytes. It provides the moist lining necessary for the preputial sac to function properly.

It is also important to recognize that separation of the foreskin from the glans of the penis is a gradual process. The glans penis and the inner prepuce share a common, fused mucosal epithelium at birth. The two opposing fused epithelial surfaces separate gradually over years as desquamated cells build up between the two layers when the proper hormonal and growth factors are present. While the separation of the prepuce from the glans has been shown to be androgen dependent in rats, the hormones and/or growth factors responsible for this separation are poorly understood in humans. The process of keratinization of the intervening epithelium begins anteriorly and posteriorly at approximately the same time and proceeds toward the center. Anterior desquamation, because it is confined, can result in pearls of desquamated skin cells.

Øster demonstrated that preputial non-separation is very common in children and teenagers. The separation of the mucosa is usually complete by about age 17 years, with the median age being 10 years of age. 52,86,86 The newborn penis is in a state of evolution that may take many years until the common prepuce/glans mucosa separates, and the preputial orifice enlarges to allow complete exposure of the glans. Ignorant of the normal development of the penis, some physicians advocate childhood male circumcision as a treatment of normal anatomy. 87 Even the 2012 Task Force report of the American Academy of Pediatrics incorrectly reported that "Most adhesions present at birth spontaneously resolve by age 2 to 4 months." Lysis of preputial adhesions in childhood is ill-advised, since this process resolves spontaneously and forcible manipulation and retraction of the immature prepuce can lead to scarring, bleeding, phimosis, and psychological trauma. 88,89

The foreskin plays a protective and erogenous role. Animal studies have found that surgically removing the prepuce disturbs normal copulatory behavior, 90-94 the ability to attract female sexual partners, 95-102 and it increases aggressive behavior. 103,104

The foreskin keeps the surface of the glans penis clean, free of infection, smooth, moist, supple, and sensitive. 105

The prepuce protects and preserves the sensitivity of the glans by maintaining optimal moisture, warmth, pH, and cleanliness. The foreskin may have a role in keeping the glans warm, much the way the dartos muscle in the scrotum helps regulate the temperature of the testes. There are temperature sensors in the foreskin that regulate the blood flow to the penis and thus regulate the temperature of the glans penis. These sensors appear to also impact the positioning of the scrotum, which, in turn, affects how close the testicles are to the torso, how warm the testicles are, and how fertile the male is.

The foreskin also provides a protective covering over the glans. Without the foreskin, the glans becomes exposed to the elements and dries out. The surface of the glans

goes from a shiny, smooth, wet mucosa to a desiccated, rough surface. There is debate whether the exposed glans seen in circumcised men becomes keratinized or not.<sup>32,107</sup> Men who have foreskins report that having the glans exposed for prolonged periods is often quite uncomfortable because the surface is more sensitive.

The decreased sensitivity of the glans in circumcised male adults has been documented in three studies that objectively measured fine-touch pressure thresholds of the glans in circumcised and intact men, which are discussed in further detail later in this review. 108-110

Two studies have compared the vibratory perception thresholds of the glans in circumcised and normal men. Bleustein et al. in a study in which 76.8% of the men in the study had erectile dysfunction, found that vibratory perception thresholds were significantly higher in intact men using the raw data, but the difference was no longer statistically significant when adjusted for age, hypertension, and diabetes.<sup>109</sup> A study in China looking at vibratory perception thresholds before and at one, two, and three months after male circumcision in 96 men found that the vibratory perception threshold increased significantly following the procedure.<sup>111</sup>

Intromission in the circumcised man is akin to thrusting the foot into a sock held open at the top. By contrast, the intact counterpart is like slipping the foot into a sock that had previously been rolled up. 112,113 Consequently, during coitus the complete phallus penetrates smoothly with the prepuce retracting as the glans advances; 114 however, when the circumcised penis is introduced, friction and chafing develop. 113-118 The double-surfaced prepuce provides the skin necessary to accommodate the expanded erect organ and to allow the penile skin to slide freely, smoothly, and pleasurably over the shaft and glans. This also facilitates smooth, gentle movement between the mucosal surfaces of the two partners during intercourse. The female is stimulated by moving pressure rather than by the friction from a penis with the prepuce missing. 50,118

O'Hara and O'Hara, from their survey of women who reported having had both intact and circumcised male sexual partners, determined that intact men provide shorter penile thrusts during coitus that resulted in more clitoral stimulation for the woman. By contrast, circumcised men used longer, deeper thrusts to provide themselves with enough stimulation to maintain erection and reach orgasm. Because the foreskin is designed to feel fine-touch, only small movements are needed for adequate stimulation. When the exposed glans is in the vagina, the foreskin is bunched behind the corona with the ridged band juxtaposed against the corona, which is the most sensitive portion of the glans. With this juxtaposition, small movements are all that are needed to keep an intact male aroused and tumescent.

The unique innervation of the prepuce establishes its function as erogenous tissue.<sup>58</sup> Fine-touch pressure threshold mapping has demonstrated that parts of the foreskin and frenulum are the most sensitive portions of the penis.<sup>108-110</sup> The foreskin sends signals to the bulbocavernosus muscle that results in arousal and tumescence of the penis.

Therefore, the foreskin may have a key role in facilitating a normal penilo-cavernosus reflex.

McGrath's research has emphasized the important role of the frenular delta, the triangular area where the ridged band attaches to the frenulum, <sup>119</sup> the frenulum, and the ridged band in providing possibly 80% of the sensory input from the penis, and their contribution in orchestrating signals to the bulbocavernosus muscle, which plays a key role in tumescence. The stimulation from these structures also provides an inhibitory function in dampening the signal of pressure and pain coming from the free nerve endings that make up nearly all of the sensory data from the glans. Without inhibiting the pain and pressure signals from the glans during coitus, the activity would be less enjoyable.

While the penilo-cavernosus reflex has not been fully studied, it is a neurological reflex at the sacral level that has a role in the ejaculatory process. Podnar found clinically this reflex could not be elicited in 22 (73.3%) of 30 circumcised men, but was absent in only 2 (6.9%) of 29 intact controls. Podnar speculates that this missing reflex in circumcised men may explain the higher rate of premature ejaculation seen in circumcised men. The impact of male circumcision on sexual function is discussed in detail later in this review.

As a mucosal surface, similar to the inside of the mouth, the lining of the alimentary canal, or the conjunctiva of the eye, the inner surface of the foreskin is an immunological organ.

The mucosal surface of the inner prepuce and the glans, like all mucosal tissues, requires constant lubrication. Because the glans does not contain any sebaceous glands, it relies on the prepuce for production, distribution and maintenance of proper lubrication. The male preputial sac is moistened by secretions from the prostate, seminal vesicle, and urethral glands of Liftre. <sup>121</sup> Urine is not a normal component of subpreputial wetness. The rich vascular plexus of the prepuce mucosa facilitates production of a fluid transudate similar to that of the vaginal mucosa. <sup>122</sup>

Animal experiments reveal that, in the presence of hydrogen peroxide and halide or pseudohalides, soluble peroxidase in the prepuce has an antimicrobial activity. 123 Antibodies present in breastmilk supplement genital mucosal immunity in infants. Oligosaccharides in breastmilk are ingested, then excreted in the urine, where they prevent *E. coli* from adhering to the urinary tract and inner lining of the prepuce. 124

The inner prepuce secretes cathepsin B, lysozyme, chymotrypsin, neutrophil elastase, <sup>125</sup> cytokine (a non-antibody protein that generates an immune response on contact with specific antigens), <sup>126</sup> langerin, <sup>127</sup> and pheromones such as androsterone. <sup>128</sup> Lysozyme, which is also found in tears, human milk, and other body fluids, destroys bacterial cell walls as well as inhibits and destroys Candidal species (yeast). <sup>129</sup> The prostatic and seminal vesicle secretions that provide the subpreputial moisture are known to be rich in lytic material. <sup>121</sup> Langerin, which is a C-type lectin, is specifically

expressed by Langerhans cells and induces the formation of Birbeck granules. The langerin on the surface of the Langerhans cell captures the HIV viron and internalizes it to the Birbeck granules where it is destroyed. In this way, langerin keeps Langerhans cells from internalizing HIV and activating T-cells by clearing the virus before getting the T-cells involved.<sup>127</sup>

Like other exposed mucosal surfaces, the inner lining of the prepuce and the surface of the glans are covered with bacteria. The composition of the normal flora can impact whether a disease takes place. For example, the presence of one microorganism can inhibit the growth of another organism.<sup>130-137</sup>

The subpreputial flora has been known to be affected by a number of factors such as a patient's age, general hygiene, medical history, sexual activity, and sexual predilections. The role of the diversity in subpreputial flora has not been explored in terms of preventing infection, but there is a growing amount of information that allows us to understand the flora in the subpreputial space. Earlier studies had documented that the preputial sac is colonized by cornybacterium, gram negative anaerobes (especially bacteroides melaninogenicus), enterococci, enterobacteria, and coagulase-positive staphylococci. The impetus to study the subpreputial flora in recent decades has been resurrected by male circumcision enthusiasts in hopes of providing evidence of a biologic mechanism to support their theories that the foreskin increases the risk of urinary tract infections and HIV infections. The impetus to support their theories that the foreskin increases the risk of urinary tract infections and HIV infections.

The authors of these studies try to spin the changes following male circumcision as beneficial, but without understanding the role of normal flora prior to male circumcision there is no way to know if the change is beneficial. The latest speculation is that genital inflammation *might* be associated with bacterial antigens from bacteria that are not associated with sexually transmitted infections, and that this inflammation *might* activate T-cells, which *might* be necessary for the transmission of HIV through the mucosal surface. Therefore, they conjecture that changing the flora at the end of the penis is why circumcised men are at lower risk of HIV infections. There is no evidence that normal flora in the subpreputial space is associated with penile inflammation. One could more convincingly argue that the presence of a variety of anaerobes and a microbiota with more major players is more protective against infection and inflammation. It is when the spectrum of bacteria narrows, which is what occurs following male circumcision, that infection is more likely to occur. Certainly, developed countries with low male circumcision rates do not seem to suffer from higher rates of HIV or other pathologic infections of the genitals.

The problem with the conclusions reached by these male circumcision enthusiasts, including the writers of the CDC draft, is that they are too simplistic, agenda-driven, and reek of confirmation bias. 18 Gram-negative organisms are not all bad. Colonic flora is primarily gram-negatives, yet considered normal. The assessment of microbiological findings and their correlation to clinical findings is difficult, in particular when quantitative determinations have not been done. 150 The presence of normal flora is not a disease state. The most common bacteria responsible for otitis media, pneumonia, and acute

sinusitis are normal flora in the nose, pharynx, and mouth. Rather than blame normal flora in a healthy individual and use this in an attempt to justify amputating healthy body parts, a better approach may be to ensure healthy flora in the subpreputial space by lowering the rate of Cesarean sections and perinatal antibiotic usage, but calls to do this have been largely ignored. 151-153

The understanding of mucosal immunity is in its infancy. While the mucosa in our mouths, noses, and genitalia encounter pathogens constantly, we rarely are infected. The mechanisms of mucosal immunity are complex and poorly understood. The mucosal immune system protects against potentially invasive microorganisms using antigen-presenting Langerhans cells, dermal and epidermal T lymphocytes, cytokine-producing keratinocytes, and draining peripheral lymph nodes. Most of the "heavy lifting" is performed by Langerhans cells that hang out on the surface of the epithelium.

Langerhans cells are a specific type of dendritic cell. On electron microscopic examination, they have a lobulated nucleus with a clear cytoplasm, rough endoplasmic reticulum, and a well- developed Golgi apparatus.<sup>155</sup> They possess a unique granule in the cytoplasm, which has a "tennis racket"-like appearance, that is responsible for the internalization and processing of antigens.<sup>156</sup>

Langerhans cells are the first line of defense to help the body recognize and process antigens, directing them towards lymphocytes or macrophages. 157,158 To understand how this happens, it may be helpful to follow a Langerhans cell through its life cycle. The Langerhans cell begins life in the bone marrow. It is released into the blood stream and is circulated to the dermal blood vessels where it finds its way to the surface. 159,160 Here the Langerhans cell takes up a suprabasal position with its processes extending between neighboring keratinocytes and joins a web of interconnected Langerhans cells that surveys the epithelial surface for antigens. 161-163 They make up 2 to 5% of all epidermal cells, 164,165 yet their long processes allow them to cover broad expanses of the epithelial surface. Once an antigen is identified, it is captured by the Langerhans cell. 166-168 Following antigen uptake, the major histocompatibility complex and costimulatory molecules are up-regulated on the surface of the Langerhans cells. 169 The Langerhans cell then migrates from the epithelial surface to the paracortex of the nearest draining lymph node where it activates T-cells by producing cytokines and by presenting the major histocompatibility complex-restricted antigen-specific molecules. 166,169-171 This in turn begins an antigen-specific immune response by the activated T-cell. 166 The Langerhans cell then will return to the epithelial surface and repeat the process. 172

Perhaps the most studied example of Langerhans cell activity is in antigen-specific delayed-type hypersensitivity resulting from contact with substances containing nickel that leads to T-cell responses. 165,167,173 Langerhans cells have also been documented fighting infections of human papillomavirus in the female genital tract and of herpes simplex virus on the lips. 167,168,174-176 They interfere with skin graft rejection from foreign donors, 167 and suppress tumor growth in mice. 177 Langerhans cells have been known to act like macrophages both in the allo-activating and in the antigen-presenting

function.<sup>168,178,179</sup> It has been shown that smoking decreases the number of Langerhans cells <sup>180</sup>

The location and densities of Langerhans cell populations have been mapped. 164,170,181-183 Langerhans cells are found in the normal dermis, the lymphatics and in draining lymph nodes, in mucous membranes of tongue and tonsils, esophagus and gastric mucosa, as well as in the mucocutaneous junctions of the vagina, rectum, uterine cervix, prepuce, and urethra. 168,184

Much of the controversy about the purported role of male circumcision in reducing the number of heterosexually transmitted HIV infections surrounds the theory that Langerhans cells act as the mode of HIV entry into the body. The bottom line is that Langerhans cells in the prepuce should be considered normal, rather than a pathologic entity requiring excision. 165

A review of the scientific literature reveals that the actual effect of male circumcision is the destruction of the clinically-demonstrated hygienic and immunological properties of the prepuce and intact penis. There are no histological studies to validate the claim that the sclerotic keratinization of the epithelium of the surgically externalized, desiccated glans penis, meatus, or scar of the circumcised penis creates a barrier against infection. The higher rate of sexually transmitted infections in circumcised males might well be the result of the loss of preputial immuno-protective structures. The loss of the protective, self-lubricating, mobile, double-layered prepuce exposes the glans and meatus to direct friction, abrasion, and trauma. The surgically externalized and unprotected glans and meatus of the circumcised penis are constantly exposed to abrasion and dirt, making the circumcised penis less hygienic and prone to meatal stenosis. The circumcised penis is more prone to infection in the first years of life than the intact penis.

**RESPONSE 59:** CDC's view of the biologic evidence differs from that of the peer reviewer. The scientific evidence from the literature supports the view that lymphocytic cells in the prepuce serve as a portal for HIV and other infections as documented in the background document.

# **COMMENT:**

# Effect of male circumcision on health outcomes

The material presented in this section of the background document does not adequately represent the medical evidence currently available. In most areas discussed in the CDC draft, the medical evidence taken as a whole does not support the conclusions reached by the writers of the CDC draft.

**RESPONSE:** See response 1 and 6.

## COMMENT:

# **Biological plausibility**

The material presented in this section of the background document is highly speculative and based on conjecture rather than actual data. The speculations presented suggest that the writers were given the outcome of interest, namely the "CDC group think presumption" that male circumcision of infants will reduce the risk of HIV infection in adults, and then they were instructed to find any data that supported this conclusion: a classic example of confirmation bias. When the scientific process is followed properly, conclusions are data-driven instead of data being conclusion-driven.

**RESPONSE**: See responses 1 and 6

### COMMENT:

This section begins with the statement, "The foreskin can serve as a portal of entry for STIs (including HIV), lending biological credibility to the role of male circumcision in preventing STI and HIV acquisition through insertive sexual intercourse," which cites an opinion piece as its source.<sup>32</sup> As any part of the body can be a portal for infection, it does not follow that removal of that body part will decrease the risk of infections, nor should removal of normal tissue be given any serious consideration. This is a circular argument that begins with assuming the "CDC group think presumption" is true.

**RESPONSE 60:** See section on biologic plausibility in the evidence section of the "Background, Methods, and Synthesis of Scientific Information Used to Inform the 'Recommendations for Providers Counseling Male Patients and Parents Regarding Male Circumcision and the Prevention of HIV infection, STIs, and other Health Outcomes" document. See also response 27.

## **COMMENT:**

The statement, "Compared to the dry external skin surface of the glans penis and the penile shaft, the inner surface of the foreskin is less keratinized. This may allow easier access to the epithelial cells of the epidermis and dermis (in which STIs such as HPV and HSV-2 replicate) as well as access to target cells for HIV infection," uses citations from an opinion piece and a review article on an unrelated topic. 32,191 Interestingly, the opinion piece cited states that in a series of seven circumcised and six intact men, the glans was equally keratinized in both groups. Studies have found that the thickness of the epithelial layer of inner and outer foreskin are similar. 191,192 [Note: these references should replace CDC20, which listed the author's name incorrectly, as these studies have been published subsequent to the 2009 abstract cited.] Therefore, the underlying premise of this statement has been demonstrated to be untrue. For the same reason the statement, "Because the inner surface of the foreskin is lightly keratinized, it may be relatively susceptible to traumatic epithelial disruptions during intercourse, providing a portal of entry for pathogens," which is also referenced to an opinion piece, 32 is unsubstantiated conjecture.

The importance of the statement, "Furthermore, the foreskin retracts away from the

glans and over the shaft of the penis during intercourse, which exposes this surface to the body fluids of the sex partner," is unclear. The circumcised penis is also exposed to the body fluids of the sex partner. The only way to avoid this is to avoid sex or wear a condom.

While it has been "postulated" that the foreskin may serve as a reservoir of sexually transmitted pathogens, there is no evidence that the preputial sac is conducive to viral survival. The facts speak against this. For example, there is no evidence that herpes simplex virus type 2 or human papillomavirus infections are more common in intact men (see discussion elsewhere). A large prospective study recently demonstrated that human papillomavirus (any type, oncogenic, HPV-16) are shed significantly faster from the penis of intact men. 193 With evidence to the contrary, it is time to end this type of speculation. That normal flora anywhere in or on the body, let alone in the preputial sac, would have an inflammatory impact that would increase the risk of HIV infection is ludicrous

Level of penile wetness has been shown to be a factor in one study, but, in the randomized clinical trial in Uganda, men who did not clean their genitals for the first ten minutes following intercourse had significantly lower rates of HIV infection than men who washed in the first three minutes. <sup>194</sup> This suggests that there may be something in the preputial wetness or in vaginal secretions that interferes with the infectiveness of HIV. Furthermore, women have constant vaginal wetness and the CDC is not speculating about their need to be circumcised.

The suggestion that higher numbers of immune cells on the inner foreskin that can more easily respond to infections, and other exposures, will result in an increase in viral susceptibility of the inner foreskin is counterintuitive. Mucosal immunity is based on immune cells doing their job. If they are responding to infections, this would suggest they are more effective at repelling infection. This is borne out by the fact that sexually transmitted infections overall (as discussed elsewhere) are more common in circumcised men.<sup>185</sup>

The increased risk of HIV infection in those with genital ulcers makes sense as the ulcers compromise the barrier that is effective in keeping infections out and activates the T-cells, which is considered part of the HIV infection process.

The mucosal immune system is quite effective in preventing HIV infections, as indicated by the low rate of transmission through penile-vaginal intercourse (1 per 1000 acts of unprotected coitus). It is only when high viral loads are present that infection is more likely to occur. The speculation surrounding the biological plausibility of the foreskin increasing the likelihood of HIV acquisition is strained and depends on the lining of the foreskin being thinner (which it is not), the preputial sac being more likely to harbor viruses (which it does not), and functional immune cells on the surface (which actually reduces the likelihood of infection). This theory is so farfetched and counterfactual, why would anyone believe it?

The statements made in this section are based purely on speculations that directly contradict the facts. Although these speculative claims have been repeated, *ad nauseam*, in the medical literature, there is no science to support them.

**RESPONSE:** See response 60.

**COMMENT:** 

# Male circumcision and the risk of HIV infection acquisition

# Male acquisition of HIV infection from female partners

The material presented in this section of the background document is a confusing regurgitation of review articles that are incomplete and out of date.<sup>21,22,24,27</sup> More importantly, this section fails to address several key questions, namely whether the results of the randomized clinical trials from Africa<sup>1-3</sup> are valid, whether they apply in the United States, and, if applicable, to whom should they be applied.

**RESPONSE:** See Responses 1, 6 and 19.

### COMMENT:

Three randomized clinical trials were undertaken simultaneously in Africa with nearly identical methodology. 1-3 This lack of methodological variation is not a sign that the best methodology was used, but instead undermines the robustness of their findings. Because of this lack of variation, one might think of the trials collectively as one trial performed at three sites. 195 The results of the trials were remarkably consistent, to the point that some would consider the similarity of the results to be mathematically improbable. Because of the similarity in the results, one could argue that the studies were precise in their estimates, but with a lack of methodological variability the accuracy of their estimates cannot be assessed. More studies using a variety of methods reaching consistent results would provide a stronger testament to their accuracy. The accuracy of their estimates can be called into question because of the internal validity issues these trials share (discussed below) and the fact that their estimates of the treatment effect were greater than seen in observational studies. This is quite atypical as the treatment effect in randomized trials are typically about 25% to 30% smaller than seen in observational studies.

**RESPONSE 61:** The similarity in methodology of the 3 randomized clinical trials is a strength in that it allows for comparison and validation of results. The fact that 3 such trials in 3 different regions of Africa had similar results represents the best and highest level of scientific evidence. See response 5. Cochrane reviews point to RCTs as the gold standard as do most scientific bodies tasked with evaluating scientific rigor.

## **COMMENT:**

The methodology of these trials undermine the internal validity (how well the estimates generated by the trial reflect reality) in a number of ways. Perhaps the most important

methodological flaw is that no effort was made to identify the source of the infections that were diagnosed during the course of the trial. By failing to do so, these trials cannot answer their research question of determining the impact of male circumcision on the heterosexual transmission of HIV from females to males because it not known how the infection was transmitted. Consequently, the CDC draft is incorrect throughout by suggesting these trials measured this form of transmission, when they clearly did not. This is important because some of the infections may have resulted from male-to-male transmission and some may have been transmitted through iatrogenic means. In the trial in Kenya, only 0.2% of the participants reporting having had male-to-male sexual contact.<sup>2</sup> For many in developed nations this would be considered an extremely low percentage, as male-to-male sexual contact is seen in the range of 5% to 10%. The low rate of men reporting male-to-male contact may reflect the extreme homophobia in sub-Saharan Africa. In Uganda, for example, their Anti-Homosexuality Act of 2014 will punish homosexual activity with life imprisonment (they were considering making it a capital offense). Given the extreme penalties and social stigmatization, admitting homosexual activity to researchers could result in dreadful consequences. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that, among the thousands of participants in these trials, many were having male-to-male contact. Consequently, the role of anal intercourse in transmitting HIV in this population is unknown. 196 Given that transmission rates between two men is more efficient and that this mode of transmission is not impacted by male circumcision,<sup>25</sup> the failure to identify the source of infection would likely impact their final estimates.

A surprising number of participants in these trials became HIV infected despite not being sexually active or always using condoms. Consequently, it is unlikely that their infections were sexually transmitted. Iatrogenic transmission of HIV is well documented in Africa typically from procedures in which the skin is punctured with instruments or needles that have not been properly sterilized. 197-208 This possibility should not have been a surprise to the trial investigators. In one African study, female and male virgins who were circumcised were more likely to be HIV-infected. 209 Some have argued that the iatrogenic spread of HIV in Africa is better able to explain the high prevalence of HIV rather than convoluted models that rely on multiple concomitant sexual partners and a high burden of sexually transmitted infections. 200,210

In each of the trials, there were infections that could not be accounted for on the basis of sexual transmission alone. For example, in the South African trial 23 men, who accounted for 2076 person years, became HIV positive with either having no sexual contact or always using a condom (infection rate 1.11/100 person-years) compared to 46 infections in 2498 person-years among men who at least one episode of unprotected sex during the trial (1.84/100 person-years). Assuming that all of the men in the trial had the same risk of infection through non-sexual transmission only, only 18 of the 69 infections can be attributed to sexual transmission (1.84 minus 1.11 per 100 person-years times 2498 person-years). In the Ugandan trial, 1252.1 person years and 6 infections can be attributed to men who reported no sexual partners for the duration of the trial (0.48/100 person-years). When this baseline rate of infections in those who

were not sexually active is subtracted from the total rate in the men who were sexually active, 35 of the 67 infections can be attributed to sexual transmission.

In the Kenyan trial, there were five men reporting no sexual activity in the first three months of the trial who subsequently seroconverted (0.73/100 person-years).<sup>2</sup> When this rate is subtracted from the rate seen in those who were sexually active, only 36 of the 69 total infections can be attributed to sexual transmission.

Without knowing the source of the infections they diagnosed, it is hard to determine what actually was measured in these trials and even harder to extrapolate their findings across the ocean to infants. How can the CDC base policy on trials that did not measure what they set out to measure?

The study methodology, which was nearly identical in each of the trials, had several built-in forms of bias, all of which would be likely to overestimate the treatment effect.

**RESPONSE:** See Response 12.

### COMMENT:

Expectation bias: At least one primary investigator was on record prior to execution of his trial expressing his impatience and stating that it was time "to begin investigations of the feasibility of acceptable male circumcision interventions in communities with high HIV and STD seroprevalence where male circumcision has traditionally not been practiced."31 So, it would appear that Bailey believed a randomized clinical trial was unnecessary, as the issue was already settled for him. Similarly, in the Ugandan trial, the researchers from Johns Hopkins dismissed the results of the six men who became infected despite no sexual partners noting, "these participants probably under-reported their sexual activity." Infection in men who were not sexually active did not agree with their expectations, so the results were summarily dismissed. How many other unwanted results were similarly dismissed because they did not agree with the investigators' expectations. Furthermore, there is evidence of expectation bias on the part of the participants. These men agreed to participate because they believed that male circumcision would lower their risk of HIV. Even after the informed consent process, more than half (57%) believed that male circumcision would reduce their risk of infections.<sup>211,212</sup> Since the researchers and participants could not be blinded to which group a participant was assigned to, one would expect that participants would act differently based on their assignment and be treated differently by the researchers. Both researchers and those assigned to the intervention group would be expected to change their behavior to make the intervention pay off.

<u>Selection bias</u>: The men in these trials were those who were interested in undergoing male circumcision. After the propaganda sessions in the roll-out before the trials, many men were convinced they wanted a male circumcision in order to reduce their risk of HIV. When compared to the general population, one would expect that at least some of these men viewed themselves as, or were in reality, at greater risk for HIV infection. The

percentage of men interested in a free male circumcision, as evidenced by the current voluntary medical male circumcision programs, is less than 5% in most countries. 213-219 So, the participants in these trials are representative of only a small subset of the general population. As noted above, the motivation of the participants in these trials would be expected to alter their behavior.

<u>Lead-time bias</u>: The men who were randomized to be immediately circumcised were instructed to abstain from sexual relations or to always use condoms for the first six weeks following the procedure to allow for proper healing. The data reported in these trials was number of infections per time of potential exposure. Since those in the intervention group each had six weeks less of potential exposure, one would expect them to have a smaller number of infections. Avoiding lead-time bias is a fundamental principle of study design that is taught in the most rudimentary of courses on clinical study design. None of the randomized clinical trials adjusted for this bias in their study design, and only one made an adjustment in their post hoc analysis. This indicates either incompetence or a conscious omission that would increase the likelihood of producing data favorable to male circumcision.

<u>Intervention bias</u>: The men who were randomized to the intervention group had more visits and exposure to the research team. This would give researchers additional opportunities to provide education on safe-sex practices and to emphasize how important it was for the trial participants to follow-up as requested.

Attrition bias: These trials had a substantial number of participants who were lost to follow-up. The number lost was 251 (8.0%) in South Africa, 240 (8.6%) in Kenya, and 493 (9.9%) in Uganda. Those who were assigned to the intervention group were significantly less likely to be lost to follow-up (OR 0.83; 95%CI 0.73-0.95). One possible explanation is that men who were hoping for a free male circumcision but assigned to the control group would see no purpose in staying in the study. Participants who are lost to follow-up are not the same as those who continue to participate. In the Kenyan study, they had a greater number of lifetime sexual partners and a higher prevalence of being seropositive for herpes simplex type 2 virus (Robert Bailey, personal communication). What is more concerning is that for every participant who become infected with HIV during these trials, there were 4.8 who were lost to follow-up. This is a serious missing-data problem.

<u>Duration bias</u>: The trials involved 24 or fewer months of follow-up. The shape of the trajectory following 24 months is unknown. It could very well be that over time the number of infections will be the same in both groups and male circumcision may only slightly delay the time to infection. Several of the models have assumed that the trajectory seen in the first two years will continue for 20 years, based on faith more than science.<sup>220-232</sup> There is also growing evidence that HIV is losing its virulence.<sup>233</sup>

<u>Early termination bias</u>: All three of the trials were terminated early. Early termination, in and of itself, is more likely to result in an overestimate of the treatment effect.<sup>234</sup> It also amplifies any impact of the lead-time bias. Of interest, the Ugandan study had a

Fragility Index<sup>235</sup> of 4, which suggests that findings of the study were not particularly robust. How can a study that is terminated early, have such a low Fragility Index?

Overpowered studies: These studies were powered to detect a 1% ARR difference in HIV incidence between the intervention group and the control group. 236,237 This explains the high number of participants in each trial. The important question is whether a 1% difference is clinically important, not whether the difference is statistically significant. If a 1% difference is not important, then demonstrating that this difference is statistically significant misses the point of doing the studies. Studies with a large number of participants, such as these randomized clinical trials, are able to demonstrate a statistically significant difference for very small absolute differences, but when the absolute differences are so small, these studies can also have trouble distinguishing between real findings and background noise. With these trials, even though each source of bias may not be enough alone to explain the difference seen, their cumulative effects, since they all would work to overestimate the treatment effect, would be enough to explain the 1.3% absolute difference seen.

The randomized clinical trials, especially the Ugandan trial, have a number of unexplained anomalies. For example, in the Ugandan trial, those who reported consistent use of condoms had a trend toward a higher rate of HIV infection than in those who reported never using condoms (consistent condom use: 1.03/100 person-years; No condom use 0.91/100 person-years; RR 1.13; 95%CI=0.54-2.38, p=0.74).

Given all of the problems with how the data in these studies were handled, it would be helpful if these data could be analyzed by independent experts, rather than researchers who have careers that depend on generating positive results. Even though the National Institutes of Health used our tax dollars to fund two of the randomized clinical trials, the data are not available to the public and are not subject to the Freedom of Information Act. Some have called on these data to become available, <sup>238</sup> but researchers of the studies from Kenya and Uganda have not complied.

There were several ethical concerns regarding the trials, <sup>239,240</sup> including that the financial incentives to participate (a free male circumcision, money equivalent to two-weeks employment, cash for recruiting additional subjects, unlimited access to free condoms, and free health care for 21 to 24 months) were coercive. There is a lack of equipoise seen in both researchers and participants. <sup>211,212</sup> Based on the extremely promale circumcision bias of the researchers, it is unlikely that participants were given full disclosure, particularly regarding the risks and long-term harms of the procedure, while obtaining informed consent. Furthermore, going into these trials, the researchers knew that male circumcision would be less effective, more expensive, and more invasive compared to other interventions already available at that time (most notably condoms). Typically, trials that evaluate interventions that are known to be inferior to current therapies are not pursued because they violate the Helsinki Declaration. <sup>239,241</sup>

Finally, it is unclear whether these trials were necessary as demographic information was available prior to the initiation of these trials showing that, even if they generated a

positive result, their results would not have external validity. Typically, when a new drug is developed it is subjected to a Phase III trial in a closely defined and monitored population. Phase IV studies take place once the medication is being used in the general population. In the case of male circumcision and its impact on HIV infection, the Phase IV type data were available before the Phase III studies were designed. The Phase IV type data indicated that male circumcision did not have any impact on a demographic level. For example, in South Africa HIV spread had similar dynamics of spread in the Shangaau and Xhosa tribes that are circumcised and the Zulu and Tswana tribes that do not circumcise. The fact that the researchers who performed the randomized clinical trials went ahead with the trials, despite the availability of this Phase IV type data, suggests that they were not properly educated in basic epidemiological methods, such as the difference between efficacious and effective, or that they chose to ignore basic principles of epidemiology when moving forward with these trials.

While randomized double-blinded placebo-controlled trials are considered the gold standard for testing a hypothesis, the quality of the information garnered from poorly designed randomized trials, such as the randomized clinical trials undertaken in Africa, can be below that of a well-designed observational study. The CDC draft places unearned importance on the results of these trials. While there are serious concerns about the internal validity of these trials, there is ample evidence that the trials lack external validity. While some male circumcision advocates, including the writers of the CDC draft, have suggested that data collected from the participants in the trials after the completion of the trials<sup>242-245</sup> indicates that male circumcision is effective (in addition to being efficacious), and thus has external validity, these participants would still be subject to the Hawthorne effect and the undue influence of the large financial advantages of having participated in the trials. These people should still be considered to be acting within a research setting as they likely received far more attention and education than men who would be getting circumcised outside a research setting, but the results should not be considered on the same quality level as a randomized trial.

The randomized clinical trials lack external validity. When there is a treatment effect in a clinical trial, it would be expected that such a treatment effect would be seen outside of research settings and in the population at large. This has not been seen. There are eight or more countries within Africa where the prevalence of HIV infection is greater in circumcised men than in intact men. 13,246-250 When the national survey data are included in a meta-analysis, no difference in HIV prevalence is noted by male circumcision status (intact versus circumcised men random-effects summary OR 1.10; 95%CI 0.81-1.50). 251

If the results from the three randomized clinical trials do not apply to the countries in Africa, do they apply to countries outside of Africa? While some ecological studies within Africa have suggested a correlation between male circumcision prevalence and HIV prevalence, <sup>252-255</sup> [Note: citation CDC57 is an opinion piece and should not be cited in this context. The authors need to cite the original studies as included above.] other analyses have not found male circumcision to be a factor. <sup>256</sup> When these methods are applied to developed countries, there is a significant positive correlation between male circumcision prevalence and the prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV

infections.<sup>257</sup> When only English-speaking countries are considered, there is a strong linear relationship between a country's male circumcision rate and its rate of heterosexually-transmitted HIV (r²=.9756).<sup>258</sup> If the writers of the CDC draft want to accept the results of those ecological studies in Africa showing that increasing male circumcision rates correlate to decreasing rates of HIV infection, then they also need to accept the results of the recent study that found a statistically significant correlation between the prevalence of infant male circumcision and the prevalence of autism.<sup>259</sup>

Before accepting the "CDC group think presumption" that the findings of the methodologically flawed randomized clinical trials of adult males in Africa would apply to infants circumcised in the United States, it is important to look at the evidence available. One approach would be to look at the entire body of literature on the association between HIV incidence and prevalence and male circumcision status. This has been assessed in over 100 populations. 1-3,8-15,246,248-250,260-323 These include randomized clinical trials, prospective cohort studies, national surveys, and case-control studies and all of these study types can be informative. When study characteristics of the various populations are adjusted for, meta-regression 324 reveals that studies of general populations broadly, and outside of Africa in particular, do not support the hypothesis that male circumcision lowers the risk of HIV infection. Meta-regression also indicates that as the prevalence of male circumcision in a community increases the association between being intact and HIV infection increases. 325 This would indicate that male circumcision has no role as primary prevention either in Africa or outside Africa.

A second approach would be to look at the studies that have been performed in North America on heterosexual men. None of them support the "CDC's group think presumption." and none of their findings in favor of male circumcision are statistically significant. A 1991 study of men at high risk for HIV infection had an odds ratio (intact versus circumcised men) of 1.75 (95%CI 0.93-3.27).11 A 1993 study by the same researchers found an odds ratio of 4.25 (95%CI 0.94-19.13). A representative national survey found an odds ratio of 2.60 (95%CI 0.65-10.42).9 A 2004 study from the US Navy found a slight decrease in risk for intact men with an odds ratio of 0.80 (95%CI 0.52-1.22). 10 A national survey in Haiti found a similar trend with an odds ratio of 0.67 (95%CI 0.33-1.35).<sup>13</sup> A very large study from an STD clinic in San Francisco found no difference with an odds ratio of 0.93 (95%CI 0.33-1.05).8 Another large STD clinic study from Baltimore found the raw data had an adjusted odds ratio of 1.00 (95CI 0.86-1.15). 12 None of these studies found a statistically significant difference. Finally, a study from a STD clinic in Puerto Rico found that circumcised men had a significantly higher prevalence of HIV infection (OR 0.68; 95%CI 0.49-0.95). 14 When these studies are combined in a meta-analysis, the random-effects summary odds ratio was 1.21  $(95\%CI\ 0.78-1.88$ , between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=7) = 91.64, p < .0001,  $I^2$ = 91.3%) when raw numbers are used and 0.94 (95%CI 0.79-1.13, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=7) = 15.56 p=.0295, I2 = 48.7%) when the adjusted odds ratio for the Baltimore study is used. Most of these studies were performed in high-risk men and no difference was documented. One would expect there to be even less of an association in general populations. Consequently, these data do not support the "CDC group think presumption."

Finally, the target population for male circumcision needs to be delineated. The data clearly show that male circumcision is unlikely to be effective if targeted at the general population. The US data, which is derived primarily from patients seeking care at STD clinics, indicates that male circumcision would not be effective for high risk populations either, such as attendees of STD clinics. The sub-strata data from the Baltimore study, which made up only 1.4% of men seeking care at an STD clinic, suggest that there may be a slight role for male circumcision in the subpopulation of men who are at *imminent* risk of infection, such as those who have a regular female sexual partner who is known to be HIV-infected. In this subpopulation, only 11 intact men were HIV infected and their findings had a Fragility Index<sup>235</sup> of 1, indicating results that are far from robust. 12 Policy decisions should be delayed until this association is replicated in multiple studies with sufficient robustness. Consequently, any discussion of male circumcision related to the risk of HIV infection in the United States, if they should occur at all, should only be directed toward discordant couples with HIV-negative men who have regular sexual relations with known HIV-positive female sexual partners. There is no evidence to support suggesting male circumcision for any other populations. For this small subpopulation, there are a number of far more effective options such as condoms, preexposure prophylaxis, and anti-retroviral therapy for the infected sexual partner. Even a model developed by the CDC, that assumes the "CDC group think presumption" is true, has determined that male circumcision would have minimal impact in preventing HIV infection in this population. So, why is the CDC contradicting its own findings by bringing forth the recommendations in this draft?

The bottom line is that data **does not support** the use of male circumcision to reduce the risk of heterosexual transmission of HIV in the United States.

The material given in this section by the CDC is counterfactual, biased, and dangerous. The medical literature suggests that male circumcision *might* have a *minimal* impact on the risk of HIV infection in a *very small* sub-population, but this needs further study before implementation. To extend the discussion of male circumcision beyond this easily identifiable sub-population is reckless and would result in unnecessary physical and psychological harm. The fear-mongering implicit in this section makes the CDC look foolish and desperate. In the seven years since the CDC held its consultation, several things have happened that have taken male circumcision out of consideration as an HIV preventive measure. AIDS researchers have adopted secondary prevention methods such as "treatment as prevention" that has changed infection with HIV from a death sentence into a chronic disease. 326 Similarly, the virulence of the HIV virus is weakening.<sup>233</sup> Finally, the roll-out of male circumcision in Uganda and Kenya has resulted in increases in the incidence of HIV in men in those countries. 327-329 Not to mention the number of men and boys who have died as a direct result of being circumcised in Africa, some forcibly against their will. The CDC would be better off expending its energies, and US taxpayers' money, promoting interventions that are not ineffective and harmful.

RESPONSE 62: See response 5. The concerns presented by the reviewer have been

previously addressed and adequately refuted in the literature. 51,52

### COMMENT:

# HIV infection transmission from circumcised men to female partners

The material presented in this section of the background document is incomplete with some of the material being misrepresented.

**RESPONSE:** See Responses 1 and 5.

## **COMMENT:**

The early studies, which looked at whether the male circumcision status of a woman's male sexual partner was a risk factor for women becoming infected with HIV, showed mixed results.<sup>287,317,330-337</sup> Since then, the evidence emerging fails to support the theory of male circumcision directly reducing the male-to-female transmission of HIV. The only randomized clinical trial addressing this issue found a marked increase in HIV infections in the female partners of men who had been circumcised. 338 The writers of the CDC draft give a very pro-male circumcision spin to these results. The absolute risk increase for these women was 6%, which translates to a number needed to harm of almost 17. So, for every 17 male circumcisions performed on an HIV-infected man with a female partner that was not infected, one would expect one additional female partner to become infected. This study was terminated early, and rightly so, because early looks at the data indicated that the practice was too dangerous to continue. To state that the study was terminated because it was unlikely to show a favorable result may be technically accurate, but it belies the 50% relative increase in HIV infections. The promale circumcision spin stating the study failed to show a difference is also true, but disingenuous since the trial was rightly terminated before the study had enough power to show a statistically significant difference if one existed. The study was also profoundly unethical because the women were not told their sexual partners had HIV very reminiscent of Tuskegee. Shockingly, the authors of the study recommended that HIV-infected men undergo male circumcision, with a total disregard for the increased risk of HIV infection the procedure foisted on female partners, because of the fear that these men would feel stigmatized if they were not circumcised. 338 Too bizarre to have been made up.

The two models that have assessed the impact of male circumcision on the incidence of HIV infections in women assumes the findings of the randomized clinical trials have both internal and external validity, both of which are risky assumptions. <sup>223,339</sup> The extremely speculative nature of these models should exclude them from being considered in formulating policy.

**RESPONSE 63:** The CDC background document provides an unbiased and accurate summary of the available data indicating that male circumcision does not significantly reduce heterosexual male-to-female HIV transmission.

### COMMENT:

# Male acquisition of HIV infection and other STIs from male partners

The material presented in this section of the background document is generally accurate, incomplete in a few areas, but needs to be more explicit in its conclusion, namely that male circumcision is not a reasonable intervention in the prevention of HIV infection that might be acquired by men from their male sexual partners. A recent model published by the CDC assessing the effectiveness of various interventions in the prevention of HIV infection in discordant couples found that, for a man with a male partner who was HIV-infected, over a 10-year period, reliance on male circumcision alone would nearly guarantee the man would become infected.<sup>340</sup> A major thrust that resulted from the CDC's 2007 consultation was an effort to find a link between male circumcision and the risk of HIV infection in men having sex with men. 16 One opinion as to why the CDC took over seven years from the time of the consultation to the release of this draft was the hope of a breakthrough study that would demonstrate that male circumcision reduced the risk of HIV infection in men having sex with men. Many at the consultation believed that such a finding would secure the practice of infant male circumcision in the United States for decades to come, thus worth holding out for. The many studies on men having sex with men have overcome researcher expectation bias and failed to generate the results hoped for.

RESPONSE 64: See response 27 and 39. A summary of the findings of the 2007 CDC male circumcision consultation has been previously reported. The Cochrane review provides evidence from a meta-analysis of 21 observational studies indicating that circumcised insertive men who have sex with men (MSM) experienced a significant reduction in HIV acquisition compared with uncircumcised insertive MSM; circumcised receptive MSM didn't experience a significant reduction in HIV acquisition compared to their uncircumcised receptive MSM counterparts. Because these results did not include results from RCTs, the Cochrane review did not conclude that male circumcision conclusively protected insertive MSMs from acquiring HIV infection. Nevertheless, biological plausibility would argue that insertive MSM should experience a protective benefit against acquiring HIV just as circumcised heterosexual men do. The CDC recommendations explicitly state that due to the lack of RCTs, it cannot definitively conclude that HIV acquisition is reduced among circumcised insertive MSM compared to their uncircumcised insertive counterparts.

#### COMMENT:

# HIV transmission in other populations at high risk for HIV acquisition

The material presented in this section of the background document is appropriate.

**RESPONSE 64a:** No response required.

**COMMENT:** 

Male circumcision and other health conditions

The material presented in this section of the background document is misleading. The medical literature does not support the claims that male circumcision has a positive impact on the incidence or prevalence of penile, prostate, or cervical cancer. Likewise, it has no positive impact on the incidence of any of the sexually transmitted infections. It has no impact on the prevalence of any of the individual sexually transmitted infections, with the exception of syphilis, which fortunately is rare in the United States.<sup>341</sup> To mention these diseases and devote substantial discussion to them gives the false impression that male circumcision in reality has an impact on these diseases.

**RESPONSE 65:** See responses 1 and 6. While the meta-analysis of STDs and male circumcision cited by the reviewer failed to find a significant association between the two<sup>11</sup>, a careful review of the methods used to conduct this review render the results of that meta-analysis to be scientifically biased and lacking scientific validity.<sup>12</sup>

## **COMMENT:**

# **Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)**

The material presented in this section of the background document is biased, incomplete, and inaccurate.

**RESPONSE:** See response 65.

### **COMMENT:**

This section is markedly incomplete. Instead of searching the medical literature, or even relying on recently published meta-analyses 185,342-345 as a starting point, this draft relies on non-systematic reviews/opinion pieces<sup>20</sup> and a meta-analysis that is over a decade old<sup>24</sup> as the source of information. Consequently, the sections addressing the various sexually transmitted infections are woefully incomplete, inaccurate, and misleading. It has been over seven years since the CDC held a "consultation" on male circumcision<sup>16</sup> where it was decided to release recommendations concerning male circumcision. That should have provided enough time for their staff to search the medical literature, examine the data, and perform meta-analyses (although the only meta-analysis generated on the topic of male circumcision proved to have erroneous calculations requiring a three-page erratum in the Journal of the American Medical Association<sup>25</sup> [NOTE: The citation given in the CDC draft fails to include the reference to an extensive erratum published at: JAMA 2009; 301: 1126-9.] The summary effects odds ratio, when properly calculated, was 0.95. If the staff was going to rely on the work of others, they could have at least referenced the most up-to-date systematic reviews and metaanalyses. But several sexually transmitted infections, for which there are multiple studies in the medical literature, were nearly completely ignored, yet there are extensive discussions of chancroid, Trichomoniasis vaginalis, and the transfer of various infections to female partners, all based on a small number of studies. What explains such a low quality of scholarship? Laziness? Insufficient time? Preconceived bias? The CDC has had over 7 years to produce this draft, yet this response, written in less than

45 days, has more references and more detail covering ALL the evidence in the medical literature. Were there directives from leadership to present male circumcision in the best light possible and to bury, ignore, or omit any studies to the contrary? Apparently, not out of the question. Given the poor quality of the effort to find (let alone evaluate) the evidence, how can this draft of the CDC be taken seriously by scientists, epidemiologists, or health care providers? This entire section needs to be scrapped, the evidence found and properly evaluated, and accurate information provided.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1 and 6.

#### COMMENT:

The statement, "Male circumcision has been shown to reduce the risk for some other STIs in addition to HIV," is factually inaccurate. The only STI that the medical literature may support as male circumcision having a minimal reductive impact is in the prevalence of syphilis (see discussion below), but male circumcision has not been shown to impact the incidence of syphilis. Consequently, the word "some" should be replaced with "possibly one."

**RESPONSE 66:** See response 39. Based on the update of the review of the literature during the response process, more benefits for reduction in various STDs have accrued since the initial review. In randomized controlled trials for which data are available, reductions in the 1) prevalence of genitourinary disease (GUD)<sup>25-27</sup>, 2) incidence of herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2),<sup>4,28</sup> 3) prevalence,<sup>4-6,29</sup> ENREF 9 incidence,<sup>30,31</sup> and clearance<sup>29,31</sup> of high-risk oncogenic human papillomavirus (HR-HPV) ENREF 7, 4) prevalence of *Trichomonas vaginalis*,<sup>27,32</sup> 5) incidence of syphilis,<sup>33</sup> 6) prevalence of bacterial vaginosis,<sup>27</sup> and 7) prevalence of *mycoplasma genitalium*<sup>34</sup> were also demonstrated. ENREF 19

### **COMMENT:**

It is clear that the writers of the CDC draft did not look carefully at, or critically evaluate, the sexually transmitted infection data from the African randomized clinical trials. 346-351 Even a cursory reading of the methodology of these trials would reveal that these trials made no attempt to minimize or provide any post hoc adjustment for lead-time bias. The men who were randomized to immediate male circumcision were instructed to abstain from sexual relations or always use condoms for the first six weeks following the procedure to allow for proper healing. The data reported in these trials was: "number of infections per time of potential exposure." Since those in the intervention group each had six weeks less of potential exposure, one would expect them to have a smaller number of infections. Avoiding lead-time bias is a fundamental principle of study design that is taught in the most rudimentary of courses on clinical study design. The fact that all three randomized clinical trials did not adjust for this bias, either in the study design or post hoc analysis, indicates either incompetence or a deliberate omission that would increase the likelihood of producing data favorable to male circumcision. As will be shown in the sections below, adjusting for lead-time bias changes the outcomes of these studies. If one looks carefully at the prospective studies of genital human papillomavirus and male circumcision, the studies suffer from incomplete sampling to

the point, as discussed below, that the treatment effect in these trials can be completely attributed to sampling bias. 352-354

**RESPONSE:** See response 15 and 65.

### COMMENT:

The statement, "Although rarely fatal, STIs other than HIV are among the most common communicable diseases in the United States, and interventions that prevent STIs would result in substantial reductions in morbidity and cost of health services," while true, is misplaced hyperbole. As will be discussed in the sections below, the incidence and prevalence of none of the common sexually transmitted infections are impacted by male circumcision. Only the prevalence of syphilis may be minimally impacted, but syphilis is very rare in the United States infecting only 9.8 per 100,000.<sup>341</sup> Consequently, the CDC draft is trying to jack up the importance of male circumcision through thinly veiled fear mongering, when the medical literature totally undercuts their message.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 65 and 66

### COMMENT:

While the CDC draft discusses several of the sexually transmitted infections individually, it fails to address the impact of male circumcision on the overall risk of contracting a sexually transmitted infection of any type. In other words, the risk of any sexually transmitted infection versus no sexually transmitted infections. There have been 20 publications that have looked at the prevalence of any sexually transmitted infection by male circumcision status. 9,10,14,248,260,271,275,355-368 and four prospective studies that have looked at the incidence of any sexually transmitted infection. 358,369-371 A meta-analysis of the studies of prevalence, in which the data in one study was stratified by race, 362 by number of life-time sexual partners in another. 9 and by the five populations in which data were collected in another, 260 yields a random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) of 0.86 (95%CI 0.74-1.01, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=26) = 303.00, p<.0001,  $I^2$  = 91.1%). In the analysis, there was one clear outlier that reported an odds ratio of 1.51 (95%CI 1.41-1.62).368 When this outlier is removed from the analysis, the between-study heterogeneity chi-square drops by 203.41, and the random-effects odds ratio is 0.82 (95%CI 0.74-0.92,  $I^2 = 73.9\%$ ). 185 This would indicate that when all sexually transmitted infections are considered together. male circumcision significantly increases the risk of contracting a sexually transmitted infection. When the studies of incidence are stratified by study, the fixed-effect of the summary relative risk ratio is 0.91 (95%Cl 0.78-1.07)<sup>185</sup> which, while not statistically significant, trends in the same direction of the studies of prevalence. Therefore, an intact male is at lower overall risk of contracting a sexually transmitted infection.

**RESPONSE 67:** The category of "any STD" is an artificial construct. Our background document provides clear evidence of decreased prevalence of HSV, HPV, syphilis, and others associated with male circumcision.

#### COMMENT:

(Continued from comment before Response 67). This finding should not be surprising as there have been several studies comparing the risk of genital discharge syndrome versus genital ulcerative disease by male circumcision status, 12,185,265,372,373 which have been ignored in the CDC draft. Those studies on meta-analysis have found the risk of genital ulcerative disease versus genital discharge syndrome in intact men had a random-effects summary odds ratio of 2.24 (95%CI 1.63-2.24, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=4) = 17.94, p=.0013, I² = 72.1%)<sup>185</sup> Conversely, circumcised men would be twice as likely to have genital discharge syndrome versus genital ulcerative disease. Since genital discharge syndrome is far more common than genital ulcer disease, it makes sense that the **overall** risk of sexually transmitted infections may be **higher** in circumcised men. The data may not have been precisely collected in these studies, but they were not collected any less precisely than in the studies the CDC draft has elected to include.

This finding also makes sense on a biological level. Mucosal immunity is quite efficient in keeping invasive organisms at bay. By removing much of the penile mucosa and drying out the remaining mucosal surfaces, the natural immune system is disrupted. For example, the first line of defense on the mucosal surface are the dendritic (Langerhans) cells. With these cells removed by male circumcision, the penis has fewer defenses against the garden-variety sexually transmitted infections, thus making them more prone, overall, to sexually transmitted infections. This may explain why, in a large prospective study, clearance of human papillomavirus occurred significantly more quickly in intact men than in circumcised men.<sup>193</sup>

Consequently, the recommendations for the intended audience of health care providers are biased, hyperbolic, and are missing essential information. Health care providers need to be told that male circumcision may increase the overall risk of sexually transmitted infections.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 65, 66, and 67.

## **COMMENT:**

Note: There are number of redundant citations in this section. For example, citations 74, 75, and 76, are the same as citations 4, 5, and 6.

**RESPONSE 67a**: We have corrected this duplication of citations.

# **COMMENT:**

# **Genital Ulcer Disease (GUD)**

The only sentence under this heading is factually inaccurate and reflects a misinterpretation of the data. As will be discussed in the sections below, while GUD incidence was decreased in the only prospective studies to explore it, 347,350 the studies that looked at herpes simplex virus, after adjustment for lead-time bias, were not statistically significant. 347,350-352 It is not clear why this sentence fails to mention that the

randomized clinical trials failed to find an association between male circumcision and syphilis.<sup>347,350</sup> Is such an oversight because of a lack of attention to details or to give this section the proper pro-circumcision spin?

# **GUD** (various types)

The material presented in this section of the background document is incomplete and confusing. One would expect the section to address GUD generally, but the discussion is quite specific about herpes simplex virus, which has its own subsection. The section fails to mention the 15 observational studies that have assessed the prevalence of genital ulcer disease by male circumcision status.  $^{12,15,261-263,269-272,374-378}$  When one of the studies with redundant data is excluded,  $^{261}$  there is a positive association between having a foreskin and clinical presence of genital ulcers (random-effects summary odds ratio 1.60; 95%CI 1.34-1.92, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=13) = 31.09, p<.0001,  $I^2 = 66.8\%$ ).  $I^{185}$  Other meta-analyses have yielded similar results.  $I^{185}$ 

The data from both of the prospective studies need to be adjusted for lead-time bias.<sup>349,379</sup> When the data are adjusted, the fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio is 1.62 (95%Cl 1.27-2.07).<sup>185</sup>

Part of the reason ulcers are more commonly seen in intact men is that ulcers have a propensity for mucosal surfaces and mucocutaneous junctions. This is why cold sores are seen most commonly on the lips around the mouth, as this is a mucocutaneous junction. One could speculate that if the lips were surgically removed, the number of cold sore eruptions would also decrease. Similarly, the removal of much of the mucosal surface and the mucocutaneous junction from the penis may explain the decrease in prevalence.

# **Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV-2)**

The material presented in this section of the background document is hyperbolic, incomplete, and misleading.

The authors of this section boast of "[c]ompelling evidence of the protective effect of HSV-2 acquisition from male circumcision is available from two of the three RCTs." The data from these studies tell a different story. 349,350,380 Two of the studies have results that were not statistically significant. 449,351 All three of these reports failed to adjust for lead-time bias. When the only study to show a statistically significant finding is adjusted for lead-time bias, the difference is no longer statistically significant. Even before making the adjustment for lead-time bias, the fragility index for the study was 1, indicating that findings were not robust. The section fails to mention the cohort study by Dickson et al, which followed children from birth until 26 years of age and found no difference in herpes simplex type 2 virus serology (intact men versus circumcised men RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.49-2.00). When the data for the four prospective studies are combined (stratifying by study), the fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) is 1.23 (95%CI 1.04-1.46). When the data are adjusted for

lead-time bias, the fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio is 1.15 (95%Cl 0.97-1.36). The large impact on the summary relative risk ratio by a six-week adjustment to compensate for the lead-time bias suggests the data are neither robust nor "compelling."

Regarding observational studies, the CDC draft relies on a 1998 non-systematic review/opinion piece as a source of reliable information.<sup>20</sup> That "review" noted only six observational studies available at that time and was obviously missing several studies. The more recent 2006 review cited in the draft noted only 10 observational studies, but excluded two populations that had been reported previously<sup>381</sup> by the lead author of the review article.<sup>24</sup> Since this review was published, a study of 6187 men in India found that the seroprevalence for herpes simplex type 2 virus was significantly lower in intact men (OR 0.66; 95%CI 0.51-0.86).<sup>382</sup>

There have been 29 publications of observational studies addressing the association between genital herpes and male circumcision status in men.  $^{9,14,262,263,267,274,356,357,359-361,363,377,378,381-395}$  While one publication reported on four populations,  $^{381}$  another stratified the data by age,  $^{393}$  and another by country of origin.  $^{363}$  When a meta-analysis is performed on these studies, the random-effects odds ratio is 1.18 (95%CI 0.998-1.39 , between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=35) = 170.62 , p < .0001, I² = 78.9%). The difference is not statistically significant.

Based on the data that currently appear in the medical literature, no position should be taken on the impact of male circumcision on the risk of infection with herpes simplex type 2 virus. The data are inconsistent, poorly collected, and meta-analyses do not show a significant difference.

## Treponema pallidum (Syphilis)

The material presented in this section of the background document is also confusing as the authors refer to genital ulcer disease when this section should focus on syphilis. The 1998 non-systematic review/opinion piece $^{20}$  and the 2006 meta-analysis $^{24}$  cited in this section as the source for information on syphilis and male circumcision are out of date, and they do not come close to addressing the 29 observational studies in the medical literature that assess the association between the prevalence of syphilis and male circumcision status.  $^{8,9,260-263,267-269,271,273,356-358,360,362,374,376,377,382,384,396-402}$  One study looked at two populations $^{384}$  and one study was stratified by race. A meta-analysis of these studies estimated the random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) to be 1.31 (95%CI 1.13-1.52, between-study heterogeneity chisquare (df=30) = 70.67, p < .0001,  $l^2$  = 56.1%). This is a drop in the summary odds ratio reported in the 2006 meta-analysis of 1.45. $^{24}$ 

The incidence of syphilis in men not infected with HIV in Kenya and Uganda is 1.09 per 100 person-years, which is about the same incidence rate as HIV infections in the randomized clinical trials that were performed in those countries. The absolute risk reduction for a circumcised man in this trial was 0.49 per 100 person-years at the ages

when someone is most-likely to contract syphilis.<sup>402</sup> Given that the sexual transmission of syphilis is far more efficient than the rate of 1 infection in 1000 sexual encounters for HIV,<sup>403</sup> this would suggest that a substantial proportion of HIV infections are not spread through heterosexual contact alone.

The incidence of syphilis has been addressed in four studies. 349,350,358,402 In two of the studies, no adjustment was made for lead-time bias. 349,350 When the data are stratified by study, and adjusted for lead time bias, the fixed-effect relative risk ratio (intact men versus circumcised men is 1.09 (95%CI=0.82-1.45), and therefore, not statistically significant.

This section is little more than fear-mongering. The incidence of syphilis in men in the United States is low (9.8 per 100,000 in 2013).<sup>341</sup> Based on the prospective studies, there is no significant difference in the incidence of syphilis between intact and circumcised men.

# Haemophilus ducreyi (Chancroid)

The material presented in this section of the background document is inaccurate and misinterpreted. The CDC draft cites a meta-analysis of six studies looking at chancroid, which found circumcised men had a reduced relative risk.<sup>24</sup> If the authors of this draft had looked at the meta-analysis, they would have found that three of the six studies included in their analysis did not assess chancroid directly<sup>265,266,374</sup> and nearly all of the between-study heterogeneity could be attributed to a single study.<sup>404</sup>

Weiss et al.<sup>24</sup> included several studies in their meta-analysis that were not strictly studies of chancroid and did not meet basic inclusion criteria because they lacked a direct comparison between intact and circumcised men for a specific diagnosis of chancroid. 265,266,374 In two studies, men with genital ulcers were not tested for chancroid but merely *presumed* to have chancroid. <sup>265,266</sup> In the third study, 31.4% had herpes simplex virus type 2 and only 22.9% had a positive culture for Haemophilus ducrevi. 374 Some of the remaining studies are now quite dated having been published in 1934,<sup>397</sup> 1949,<sup>396</sup> and 1975.<sup>404</sup> When the remaining studies of chancroid are included, <sup>263,264,396,397,404</sup> and the results of the study by Hand<sup>396</sup> are stratified by race, meta-analysis yields a random-effects summary odds ratio of intact men versus circumcised men of 1.33 (95%CI 0.52-1.33).185 How much weight to give to these findings needs to be tempered by the high degree of between-study heterogeneity (chisquare (df=5) = 59.71, p<.0001,  $I^2$  = 91.4%), the reliability of the clinical diagnosis in several of the studies, and the age of the studies. With the current data, it is not possible to say conclusively that circumcision has an impact on genital infections with Haemophilus ducreyi. It is not clear why this was included in the CDC draft when it does not really apply in the United States as chancroid is extremely rare, and the evidence gathered to date is of such poor quality.

### Other STIs.

The material presented in this section of the background document is misleading. While randomized clinical trials in Africa reported a reduction in high risk HPV infections following male circumcision, nearly all of this perceived reduction can be attributed to the researchers selective sampling practices.<sup>352-354</sup> This will be discussed further in the section below.

# **Human Papilloma Virus (HPV)**

The material presented in this section of the background document is riddled with factual errors, is incomplete, and is a misinterpretation of the medical literature.

The statement, "Penile squamous carcinoma (caused by carcinogenic HPV subtypes) has been strongly and consistently associated with lack of male circumcision," is supported by a citation of a non-systematic review/opinion piece written by authors with a known pro-male circumcision bias. <sup>20</sup> As will be discussed below, the medical literature does not support this statement, and the writers of the CDC draft should not rely on opinion pieces as though they are evidence-based citations.

The statement, "Cervical cancer has been associated with lack of male circumcision in male partners of women in several case-control studies," can easily be demonstrated to be false. As discussed below, there are 16 studies that have looked for an association between cervical cancer and the male circumcision status of a woman's male sexual partner and none have found a statistically significant association. The citation given for this statement also did not find a statistically significant association. To be factually accurate and reflect the information that is currently available in the medical literature, this statement should read: "A significant association between cervical cancer and the lack of male circumcision in male partners of women has never been demonstrated despite evaluation of this association in multiple case-control studies."

The CDC draft relies on a 1998 non-systematic review/opinion piece<sup>20</sup> as its source of information on genital warts, which noted only three studies had been published. To date, there have been 15 observational studies in 14 publications that have assessed the prevalence of genital warts in men based on their male circumcision status. 14,263,356,357,360,361,394,398,406-409 When a meta-analysis is performed on these studies, the random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) is 0.82 (95%CI 0.65-1.04, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=14) = 37.07. p=.0007,  $I^2 = 59.5\%$ ). 185 This indicates that there may be a trend indicating that circumcised men are at greater risk for genital warts. When only studies assessing general populations are evaluated, the between-study heterogeneity is not statistically significant (chi-square (df=6) = 8.61, p=.1969,  $I^2$  = 18.7%), which is rarely seen in studies of sexually transmitted infections and male circumcision status, and the randomeffects summary odds ratio is 0.78 (95%CI 0.63-0.96), a statistically significant difference. 185 These studies noted that genital warts in circumcised men were more likely to be found on the penile shaft.<sup>356</sup> Why would the writers of the CDC draft rely on a non-systematic review/opinion piece<sup>20</sup> that is 16 years old as a source of its information when several systematic reviews have addressed this topic more

recently?<sup>24,185,342</sup> Was the goal of the CDC draft to be out of date and incomplete, or just to make headlines assuming no one would read the draft and see through the coverup?

The CDC draft makes no mention of the 20 observational studies that have assessed the prevalence rates of genital HPV infection in men based on male circumcision status, \$^{355,405,406,410-426}\$ or the three meta-analyses that have looked at these studies. \$^{185,343-345}\$ The draft may have avoided discussion of these studies because the results of several of the studies were biased by either sampling bias, \$^{412}\$ misclassification bias, \$^{410,422,423}\$ or both. \$^{405}\$ The type of HPV also varied from study to study with some reporting all HPV types, others only HPV types known to be carcinogenic/oncogenic, and other studies reporting their findings by all types, non-oncogenic and oncogenic.  $^{414,416,418,419,426}$  It should also be noted that most genital HPV infections are transient and clear spontaneously.

Misclassification bias occurred in the studies where researchers relied on men to properly identify their male circumcision status, but the men did so incorrectly. The most egregious example of this is the study by Lajous et al. out of Mexico in which 95 men reported being circumcised yet only 8.3% of them were noted to be circumcised on physical examination. While the authors of this study had determined the male circumcision status of the study participants based on physical examination, they reported their results based on the male circumcision status as reported by the men. In effect, the study demonstrated that HPV risk was lower in men who thought they were circumcised rather than whether they were actually circumcised or not. The results using physical examination to determine male circumcision status were not provided. Evaluating all of the studies of prevalence using meta-regression has demonstrated that studies that relied on patient report to determine male circumcision status consistently and systematically significantly overestimated the association between having a foreskin and genital HPV. 185,343

The impact of sampling bias is more easily quantified. Sampling bias occurs when only selected portions of the genitals are sampled for the presence of HPV. Selective sampling would not be a problem if doing so provided similar results to comprehensive sampling. For HPV on the male genitals, however, this is not the case. Several studies have shown that circumcised men who have HPV somewhere on their genitals are more likely to harbor the virus on the shaft of the penis. 355,411,415,420,426,428 Other studies have shown that genital warts are more likely to be found on the shaft of the penis in circumcised men as compared to the glans in intact men. 429 Two studies out of the University of Washington found that, if only the glans is sampled, 45 to 47% of circumcised men with genital HPV will be detected. 365,429 In contrast, sampling only the glans of intact men will identify 65 to 66% of intact men who have HPV on their genitals. As a consequence, sampling only the glans of the penis will miss more HPV infections in circumcised men than it will in intact men. If the numbers from Van Buskirk et al. 428 are correct, the number of intact men expected to be infected with HPV infection would be the number of men identified by sampling only the glans increased by a factor of 1.514. Similarly, for the men who underwent male circumcision, the number identified in the trial would be increased by a factor of 2.212. When an analysis of the entire medical literature is performed using meta-regression, 185,343 studies that sampled only the glans were demonstrated to have stronger associations between having a foreskin and having HPV infections. This finding was statistically significant, suggesting that sampling only the glans of the penis consistently overestimates the association between having a foreskin and genital HPV.

An added wrinkle to the finding that circumcised men are more prone to have HPV lesions on the shaft of their penis is that the penile shaft is the portion of the penis with the highest viral loads and the preferred location for HPV-16, which is the most oncogenic HPV type. <sup>430</sup> This would suggest that circumcised men might be more likely to pass HPV-16 to their sexual partners, thereby leading to an increase in cervical cancer.

The dilemma is: what to do with studies containing these obvious methodological flaws, which will have a significant impact on the odds ratios reported by these studies. One approach would be to adjust for these factors by adjusting the odds ratios in studies with sampling bias. Another, would be to adjust using meta-regression. And, the last would be to exclude studies with these methodological problems when performing a meta-analysis.

Twenty publications reported prevalence data on 25 separate populations. Five of these studies provided data on any type of HPV being isolated, as well as high risk HPV. Since high-risk HPV is of more clinical interest, these data were used in the metaanalysis with a random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) of 1.16 (95%CI 0.94-1.45, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=24) = 45.27, p = .0054,  $I^2$  = 44.7%), which was not statistically significantly different. <sup>185</sup> This analysis included studies that were known to have either sampling bias or misclassification bias for which no adjustment was made. When adjusted for sampling bias using meta-regression, the random-effects summary odds ratio was 1.10 (95%CI=0.88-1.37). For studies that sampled only the glans, the random-effects summary odds ratio is much greater (OR=1.86, 0.99-3.46). When adjusted for misclassification bias using meta-regression, studies that relied on physical examination to determine male circumcision status had a random-effects summary odds ratio of 1.08 (95%CI=0.88-1.32), which was not statistically significant. Studies that relied on patient report had a much greater random-effects summary odds ratio (OR=2.16, 95%CI=1.18-3.99). When studies with known sampling bias or misclassification bias were excluded, the random-effects summary odds ratio was 1.01 (95%Cl 0.80-1.28, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=15) = 28.82, p = .0164,  $I^2$  = 44.5%). This indicates that observational studies not tainted with methodological flaws have failed to establish an association between genital HPV infection prevalence and circumcision status in men. Is this lack of association why the CDC ignored these 20 publications?

There have been eight prospective studies that looked at the incidence of HPV infection in men by circumcision status, 193,348,350,410,428,431-433 but this CDC draft only mentions two of them. The two studies identified in the CDC draft are also the only two studies to find

a statistically significant difference, the only two studies to find the greatest treatment effect (relative risk ratios of 1.51 and 1.54, with next highest being 1.19,433 and the only two studies that reported only the results of samples taken from the glans without including samples taken from the penile shaft. 348,350 Clearly, the results of these two outlying studies were impacted by sampling bias. For example, in the Ugandan trial, 350 when an adjustment for sampling bias is made, the relative risk ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) was reduced from 1.54 (95%CI 1.11-2.17) to 1.09 (95CI 0.83-1.43). with the difference no longer being statistically significant. As a consequence, the difference in incidence between intact and circumcised men reported by the Johns Hopkins team can be completely explained by their failure to sample beyond the glans of the penis. 352 Likewise, in the South African trial, [413(CDC9)] adjusting for sampling bias reduces the relative risk ratio from 1.51 (95%CI=1.17-1.97) to 1.06 (95%CI=0.88-1.29), with the difference no longer being statistically significant.<sup>353</sup> These studies also failed to adjust for lead-time bias. When adjusting for both sampling bias and lead time bias, the relative risk reduction in the Ugandan trial would be 0.96 (95%Cl 0.73-1.26) and in the South African trial 0.99 (95%CI 0.82-1.21).

The story on sampling bias, however, goes deeper. In 2007, researchers from Johns Hopkins reported at the beginning of their randomized clinical trial that, "Two subpreputial and shaft swabs were also obtained for future testing of human papillomavirus infection." However, in the 2009 report of their findings, only the results from swabbing the glans were reported. The results from swabbing the shaft of the penis were not included in their report. In 2011, the same team reported the results of HPV cultures from the glans *and* the penile shaft collected at the 12 month follow-up visit of the randomized clinical controlled trial participants. It remains unclear why the researchers from Johns Hopkins would selectively report the results in this fashion, especially given the fact that Weaver at al. had published their findings of a differential in HPV acquisition based on the site of sampling on male genitals in 2004.

When the prospective data are stratified by study, the fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio is 1.05 (95%CI 0.88-1.25), which indicates that circumcision has no effect on the incidence of genital HPV infections in men. When the Ugandan and South African data, which account for nearly all of the between-study heterogeneity, are corrected for sampling bias and lead-time bias, the summary relative risk reduction is 0.97 (95%CI 0.91-1.04).

The CDC draft must include the results of the "HPV Infection in Men" (HIM) study: a prospective study of HPV in men that looked at the risk of new HPV infections by circumcision status. <sup>193</sup> This study was to be the ultimate prospective cohort study on the topic. Preliminary reports from the study appeared in such high-profile journals as the *International Journal of Cancer* and *The Lancet*. <sup>414,435</sup> The study included 4033 participants aged 18 to 70 years. In the study, they sampled the glans, the penile shaft, and the scrotum. Men were evaluated every six months for a median of 17.5 months. Participants came from Florida, Mexico, and Brazil, and the results were stratified by country of origin. The hazard ratio for oncogenic HPV was 0.90 (95%CI%=0.76–1.06) indicating a non-significant trend for circumcised men to have a higher incidence overall

of HPV infections. No difference was seen for HPV-16. HPV of any type, oncogenic HPV, and HPV-16, cleared significantly more quickly from the intact penis then the circumcised penis (any HPV: hazard ratio (HR) 0.85; 95%CI 0.80-0.91, oncogenic HPV: HR 0.83; 95%CI 0.75-0.92, HPV-16: HR 0.56; 95%CI 0.42-0.75). This significantly faster clearance of HPV from the intact penis is the opposite finding seen in other smaller studies. 370,432,436-438

### Two additional comments:

First, the study by Castellsequé et al. combined the data from seven studies in five countries on three continents. 405 Analysis of the data from this study presented several statistical challenges that the authors of the study did not correctly deal with, and the editors of the New England Journal of Medicine let slide by. The challenge was the small number of circumcised men in four of the five countries and a small number of intact men in the fifth country. In order for asymptotic statistical methods, which rely on the assumption that values follow a normal distribution, to provide accurate results there needs to be more than 5 (some say more than 10) subjects who conform to each classification. Of the twenty classifications (five countries by 4 outcomes), seven have 5 or fewer subjects in them. The authors used asymptotic statistical methods, even though this would not yield valid results. They should have used exact statistical methods instead. In other words, the small number of circumcised men in Brazil, Columbia, Spain, and Thailand, and the small number of intact men in the Philippines made for an unstable statistical model. Furthermore, it renders stratified analysis nearly impossible, if the analysis wants to control for the country from which the data was collected. For example, if the prevalence is much greater in one country that has a very low circumcision rate, results may be attributed to male circumcision that should instead be attributed to the country of origin.

Second, the data from the randomized trial in Kisumu, Kenya has never been clearly presented. In 2012, Bailey and Moses's group published the results of their data on high-risk HPV, but they did not report the number of circumcised men or intact men who became infected with high-risk HPV. Instead, they reported that intact men developed more flat lesions that were more likely to harbor high-risk HPV. 439 On the face of it, and from the title of their publication, it may sound as though intact men were at greater risk for an infection with high-risk HPV, but this is not the case. While intact men were at greater risk for flat lesions, circumcised men were at greater risk for papular and pearly lesions. While the papular and pearly lesions are less likely to harbor high-risk HPV, they are much more common than the flat lesions and more common in circumcised men. For example, 33 men in the study had flat lesions, while 133 and 187 men had papular and pearly lesions, respectively. Of the men with flat lesions, one was circumcised and 32 were intact. Of the flat lesions 22 were found to harbor high-risk HPV. Papular lesions were found in 91 circumcised men and 42 intact men. Of the 133 papular lesions, 28 harbored high-risk HPV. Pearly lesions were found in 112 circumcised men and 75 intact men. Of the 187 pearly lesions, 49 harbored high-risk HPV. Based on these numbers, one can back-calculate and estimate the number of men expected to have been infected with high-risk HPV based on male circumcision

status. Considering there were 124 intact men and 151 circumcised men, the odds ratio was 1.45 (95%CI=0.89-2.38), a difference that is not statistically significant. This should not be a surprise as this study sampled both the glans and penile shaft of the study participants and reported the results on all of the samples they collected. It is not clear why the straight-forward number of intact and circumcised men who became infected with high-risk HPV has never been revealed publicly.

The CDC has placed its entire wager behind two outlier studies with serious methodological flaws whose results are not consistent with the rest of the medical literature. The analysis is incomplete, biased, and misinterpreted the small fraction of the data in the medical literature that the CDC considered.

# Trichomonas vaginalis

The material presented in this section of the background document does not contribute adequately to the discussion to even merit inclusion. The entire section could be tersely reduced to one sentence: The impact of male circumcision on trichomoniasis in men and their female sexual partners has received limited study with conflicting results. 346,347,440 There are no studies outside of Africa by which to gauge the importance of these infections.

In reporting the results by Mehta et al., 347 the writers of the draft give results of the "astreated" analysis as being statistically significant and the "intention-to-treat" results as having "borderline statistical significance." The standard is to report only intention-totreat results. Doing otherwise undermines the whole purpose of a randomized trial. Crossover, which in these trials would entail men randomized to be circumcised not undergoing the procedure and men randomized to not be circumcised undergoing the procedure, does not in most cases happen randomly. By reporting the as-treated results, the writers of the CDC draft knowingly reported potentially biased results. While they may believe they are justified in doing so because it furthers their cause of promoting male circumcision, they should know better on an epidemiological level. Intention-to-treat analysis may be more conservative in estimating treatment effects, but it does not introduce the bias of differential crossover and it is more reflective of the reality of patient non-compliance. The writers should also know better than to use the phrase "borderline statistical significance." This phrase is similar to being "kind of pregnant." While the statistical significance has been somewhat arbitrarily set at a pvalue of .05 by Ronald A. Fisher, it is the standard everyone abides by. In this case statement, the as-treated results should not have been presented, and the intention-totreat results should have been described as showing a trend that is not statistically significant. Once again, the writers of this draft are either improperly trained in statistics and epidemiology, or they are trying to promote male circumcision unjustifiably. These epidemiologically inappropriate phrases were used by the authors of the studies in an effort to spin their results in the most favorable fashion. The fact that writers of the CDC draft accepted this language without question also indicates that they did not read these studies carefully enough to properly evaluate the methodology and data generated in order to develop their own conclusions. The CDC had over seven years to carefully

read the small percentage of studies in the medical literature they decided to include in this draft. This should have taken a matter of weeks. What did the CDC with the rest of the time?

# Chlamydia trachomatis

The material presented in this section of the background document is very confusing. It is not clear if the authors of this section were purposely being obtuse. The statement that "chlamydial infection in men was often diagnosed syndromically as 'non-gonococcal urethritis,' after exclusion of gonorrhea by Gram stain" is an oversimplification. Several studies collected data on both chlamydia and non-specific urethritis, <sup>9,263,355-357,359-361</sup> which in the era of testing for both chlamydia and gonorrhea, is its own entity. This section would be best if divided up into sections of 1) genital discharge syndrome, 2) non-specific urethritis, and 3) *Chlamydia trachomatis*.

Several studies examined the association between male circumcision status and the prevalence of genital discharge syndrome, which includes any genital infection that results in a urethral discharge, such as gonorrhea, chlamydia, and non-specific urethritis. The CDC draft makes no mention of the studies that assessed men for genital discharge syndrome except to mention the single study that looked at its incidence in Table 2. The draft fails to mention the eleven studies that have compared the prevalence of genital discharge syndrome in men by circumcision status. 12,248,261-263,269-271,375-377,442 When the results of these studies are combined in a meta-analysis, the random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) shows a trend toward genital discharge syndrome being more common in circumcised men (summary OR 0.92; 95%CI 0.78-1.09, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=10) = 52.13, p < .0001, I² = 78.9%). It is not clear why the CDC draft failed to consider this information.

The one study that measured incidence failed to adjust for lead-time bias.<sup>350</sup> When this adjustment is made, the relative risk ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) is reduced from 1.11 (95%CI 0.77-1.61) to 0.98 (95%CI 0.68-1.42).

The CDC draft relies on a 1998 non-systematic review/opinion piece for its information on non-specific urethritis and tallies the results of the studies rather than performs a meta-analysis. A systematic review of the medical literature will uncover 12 studies on the prevalence of non-specific urethritis. P.263,266,355,357,359-361,363,383,398,442 When the data from these studies are combined in a meta-analysis, the random-effects summary odds ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) is 0.76 (95%CI 0.63-0.92, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=11) = 39.78, p<.0001, I² = 69.8%.) This result indicates that circumcised men are at a statistically *significantly increased* risk for non-specific urethritis.

This section on *Chlamydia trachomatis* makes no mention of the 16 observational studies that looked for an association between prevalence of Chlamydia and circumcision status in men.<sup>9,14,263,355-361,364,369,377,443-445</sup> If one of the studies that presented redundant data is excluded,<sup>261</sup> the random-effects summary odds ratio for

these studies (intact men versus circumcised men) is 0.94 (95%Cl 0.76-1.17, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=14) = 36.16, p=.0010, l<sup>2</sup> = 58.5%). It is unclear what harm there would be in the CDC reporting these results, except that the meta-analysis indicates a non-significant trend that circumcised men are at greater risk for Chlamydia.

There have been three studies published, which looked at the incidence of Chlamydia by circumcision status in men.<sup>346,347,358</sup> The two studies identified by the CDC failed to correct for lead-time bias. The fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio for the three studies (intact men versus circumcised men) is 1.26 (95%CI 1.02-1.57); however, when the two studies are adjusted for lead-time bias the result is no longer statistically significant (RR 1.19; 95%CI 0.96-1.49).<sup>185</sup>

The CDC did not make the effort to gather or properly interpret the evidence that is currently available in the medical literature. Instead, it wasted its time and space giving the details of the two conflicting studies regarding the risk of Chlamydia in women based on the circumcision status of their regular male partner. The conclusion that would be most accurate and helpful for the intended audience of health care providers is that male circumcision may increase the likelihood of urethritis, including Chlamydia and non-specific urethritis.

# Neisseria gonorrhea

The material presented in this section of the background document is woefully out of date and incomplete. The CDC draft cites a 1998 non-systematic review article as the source of its material.<sup>20</sup> which notes that five of seven observational studies list a statistically significant decrease in gonorrhea prevalence in circumcised men. This review was incomplete at the time it was published. There have been 24 studies that have assessed the association between male circumcision status and gonococcal infections. 9,14,261-263,267,268,355-363,377,383,396-398,441-445 Two of the studies presented redundant data<sup>261,262</sup> and only four had associations that were statistically significant. 267,356,360,446 But a tally of positive studies, a much used rhetorical device, 20,31 is not the proper method of determining the overall findings in the medical literature. When one of the redundant studies is excluded, 261 the data reported by Hand 396 and Schrek<sup>362</sup> are stratified by race and the data reported by Laumann et al.<sup>9</sup> are stratified by the number of lifetime sexual partners, the random-effects summary odds ratio of intact men versus circumcised men was 1.03 (95%Cl 0.88-1.21, between-study heterogeneity chi-square (df=27) = 95.97, p<.0001, l<sup>2</sup> = 70.8%). Since an odds ratio is 1.00 when two groups have identical risks, there is no difference in the risk of gonorrhea based on male circumcision status.

This holds up in studies on the incidence of gonorrhea. Three studies have looked at this issue. 346,347,358 Two of them suffered from lead-time bias. 346,347 None of them found a statistically significant difference. The fixed-effect summary relative risk ratio (intact men versus circumcised men) for the three studies was 1.10 (95%CI 0.91-1.34). When the two studies with lead-time bias are adjusted for, the summary relative risk ratio is 1.04 (95%CI 0.86-1.27). 185

The data from the medical literature clearly demonstrates that male circumcision does not impact the risk of gonorrhea.

Based on what is presented in the CDC draft, the authors of this draft are either incompetent reviewers of the medical literature or are purposely trying to deceive the public and their intended audience of health care professionals. Reliance on a non-systematic review that is little more than an opinion piece, in which only seven observational studies were identified, when a simple PUBMED search would have quickly identified many of the 23 observational studies and two systematic reviews with meta-analyses, 185,342 is inexcusable. Is this just willful incompetence, or is there an institutional directive to misrepresent the evidence in the medical literature?

**RESPONSE 68:** See responses 65 and 66, and 67.

#### COMMENT:

# Penile and prostate cancers

The material presented in this section of the background document is incomplete, misleading, and contains inappropriate citations.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1, 6, and 39.

#### **COMMENT:**

Penile cancer is extremely rare (0.6 to 0.8 per 100,000 person years), less common than breast cancer in men. In the United States, the incidence of penile cancer occurs at rates that are similar to or lower than rates in other developed countries where male circumcision is rarely practiced, such as in Japan, Germany, Iceland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Yugoslavia, Denmark, Finland, Finland, Also, and Norway. Also, as the percentage of circumcised septuagenarian and octogenarian men has increased, there has been no corresponding decrease in the incidence of penile cancer in the United States. Both of these findings suggest that, on a population level, male circumcision has little or no impact on penile cancer. This information needs to be included in the CDC draft discussion.

The discussions of any case series or reviews of case series should be excluded<sup>452,453</sup> because, without control groups and with a changing prevalence of circumcision in men at the age at which penile cancer is likely to occur, the numbers from these publications have little or no epidemiological value. [Please note that reference CDC121 lists the wrong study. Instead of Schoen EJ, Colby CJ, Ray GT. Newborn male circumcision decreases incidence and cost of urinary tract infections during the first year of life. Pediatrics 2000; 105: 789-93, the citation should be to: Schoen EJ, Oehrli M, Colby CJ, Machin G. The highly protective effect of newborn male circumcision against invasive penile cancer. Pediatrics 2000; 105(3): e36.] While the CDC draft focuses on one case-

control study,<sup>454</sup> it should also include the results of the other two case control studies <sup>408,455</sup>

The study by Maden et al. found that men who had never been circumcised were at about three times greater risk for penile cancer (OR 3.04; 95%CI 1.79-5.15), while intact men with pathologic phimosis were at six times greater risk (OR 6.23; 95%CI 3.18-12.19).<sup>455</sup> But, when the control group is age adjusted, the findings are less spectacular and not statistically significant (OR 1.19; 95%CI 0.77-1.85). This study did not adjust for phimosis in its analysis. A case-control study by Tseng et al. 408 [440] yielded similar results to that of Daling et al. 454 For Tseng et al., the presence of phimosis increased the risk of penile cancer 16-fold. When adjusted for phimosis, lack of neonatal male circumcision was not a significant risk factor. 408 All three studies emphasize that phimosis, rather than neonatal male circumcision, is the more important risk factor. Half of the cases of invasive penile cancer can be attributed to oncogenic HPV viruses. 456 As is discussed elsewhere in this response, there is no significant association between male circumcision and carriage of oncogenic HPV. The link between phimosis and penile cancer may be balanitis xerotica obliterans, the most common cause of pathologic phimosis with a cumulative incidence of 0.6% by 15 years of age, 457 which is increasingly being recognized as a precancerous condition. 458-471 Consequently, the focus should be shifted to efforts that minimize infections with oncogenic HPV (such as use of condoms and use of the HPV vaccines) and early recognition and treatment of balanitis xerotica obliterans.

The section should also include a realistic discussion of the risk of penile cancer. For example, the 2012 American Academy of Pediatric Task Force on Circumcision noted that the incidence of penile cancer was 0.58 per 100,000 person-years.<sup>40</sup> Using this incidence for penile cancer in the United States, the lifetime risk (average life span 72) years) would be 0.000417512, or a lifetime risk of 1 in 2395. The Task Force report noted that the relative risk reduction for penile cancer by circumcision was between 1.5 and 2.3. If you take the lifetime risk of penile cancer and reduce this incidence rate by a factor of 2.3, the result, 0.0001815, would be the expected lifetime risk for penile cancer in circumcised men. The absolute risk reduction would be the difference between the two rates: 0.0004176 minus 0.0001815 or 0.0002360, so the number needed to treat would be 4237. If, however, the relative risk reduction is 1.5, the number needed to treat is 7184. If it takes 7184 male circumcisions to prevent one case of penile cancer and each male circumcision costs an average of \$285 paid at the time of the procedure, 472 the cost to avoid one case of cancer is \$2,047,440. However, the money for the male circumcision was spent at the time the male was circumcised not at the time the male developed penile cancer, which is usually around 80 years of age. Therefore, for 80 years, the opportunity of having that cash available, which was spent at the time of the procedure, has been lost. If that money was put out at 3% interest for 80 years, the opportunity costs would be \$21,786,584. If the money were to earn 5% interest for 80 years, the cost of preventing one case of penile cancer would be\$101,474,076. This is the true cost of preventing one case of penile cancer. Obviously, neonatal male circumcision to prevent penile cancer is NOT cost-effective nor justifiable from a public health standpoint.

The discussion of male circumcision and prostate cancer should be deleted. The argument put forth by the writers of the CDC draft borrows from that proposed by Morris and colleagues, 473 which is based on several tenuous assumptions. The first is that the risk of prostate cancer is increased by sexually transmitted infections. As the writers of the CDC draft note, the medical literature on this point is mixed, showing populations at low risk for sexually transmitted infections being sometimes at greater risk for development of prostate cancer. 474 Even if one accepts this contentious assumption, one would need to demonstrate that circumcised men are at lower risk of sexually transmitted infections. Instead, the medical literature indicates circumcised males are at an overall greater risk of sexually transmitted infections. Since a single infectious agent has not been identified as being associated with a greater risk of prostate cancer, it is more likely that infectious agents associated with urethritis would impact the health of the prostate. Urethritis is not reduced, and may be increased, with male circumcision.

The CDC draft mentions only one observational case-control study, of the many that have been published, on the topic of prostate cancer as associated with male circumcision.<sup>475</sup> The writers of the CDC draft fail to mention several important aspects of this study. Male circumcision status was determined by self report, which is known to be notoriously inaccurate. The study did not find a significant association between prostate cancer and a history of sexually transmitted infections (OR 1.05; 95%CI 0.87-1.27), which undermines their working hypothesis. The adjusted odds ratio for the risk of prostate cancer (circumcised versus intact men) reported in the body of the study was 0.87 (95%CI 0.74-1.02), which was not statistically significant. Therefore, as a whole, this study does not support their contention. Other concerns about the validity of this study have been raised.<sup>476</sup>

Isolating the impact of male circumcision on the risk of prostate cancer has been difficult. For example, race and ethnicity are important factors. When compared to controls with benign prostatic hypertrophy, circumcised non-Jews had a significantly greater risk of prostate cancer than Jews (OR 3.23; 95% CI 1.56-6.69). This would indicate that race/ethnicity are more important than male circumcision. 477 A British study failed to consider race or ethnicity, so male circumcision status may have been a marker of race and/or socioeconomic status. 478 In an American study, there was an interaction between race and male circumcision status. 479 When Jews are excluded, several studies have failed to find a significant association between male circumcision status and prostate cancer. 480,481 Also, no association has been demonstrated between male circumcision status and PSA levels. 482 On a population level, if male circumcision decreased the risk of prostate cancer, one would expect as the male circumcision prevalence increased in the United States, the incidence of prostate cancer would decrease, but the opposite has occurred. 483 One would also expect the age-adjusted incidence of prostate cancer in European countries to be higher than that in the United States, but it is lower in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden, 484 as compared to the United States.<sup>483</sup>

Several of the studies relied on patient report to determine male circumcision

status<sup>475,478,479</sup> and failed to adjust for risk factors known to influence prostate cancer risk. The combination of poorly executed studies, along with an unproven theory linking prostate cancer to sexually transmitted infections, the lack of evidence linking sexually transmitted infections to male circumcision status, and the lack of evidence linking male circumcision to prostate cancer on a population level should have indicated to the writers of the CDC draft that this topic was not worthy of inclusion in the draft.

In summary, penile cancer is very rare, more rare than male breast cancer, and its link to neonatal male circumcision, based on recent studies, is tenuous. An evidence-based discussion of male circumcision should not include any discussion of prostate cancer.

**RESPONSE 69**: See responses 1 and 6. We have updated the literature review and it provides more evidence indicating the male circumcision if protective against penile and prostate cancers.

#### **COMMENT:**

# Cervical cancer in female partners of circumcised men

The material presented in this section of the background document is limited to one select substrata of a single study. 405 The study from which this substrata was extracted did not properly analyze the data. The data were collected in studies from five different countries, yet were not stratified by country. In four of the countries, only a small number of men were circumcised. In the fifth country, only a small number of men were not circumcised. Since cervical cancer rates can vary by geography, it is important to stratify the data by geography. The analysis in this study failed to do this. If they had performed the analysis properly, this selected substrata when further stratified by geography would have necessitated the use of exact statistics, which the authors of the study did not use. Exact statistics revealed much wider confidence intervals. Even with the stratification they performed (monogamous women with male partner with 6 or more lifetime sexual partners), it is interesting to note that the raw numbers found little or no difference (OR 1.02; 0.71-1.47). Furthermore, with reporting the results of the selected substrata the finding should have been subjected to a Bonferroni adjustment, but was not. By doing so, the threshold p-value would be divided by 3. Consequently, this statement is based on evidence that was misinterpreted.

This section also exhibits significant omissions that are critical for the intended audience of clinicians. The single study cited in the background document on this topic did not find a statistically significant association between cervical cancer in women and the circumcision status of their male sexual partners. There have been 15 other studies that have reported on the association between cervical cancer and the circumcision status of a woman's male sexual partner. None of them found an association that was statistically significant. One study reported a p-value of .045, but this was not properly calculated. Using Fisher's two-sided exact test, the p-value is .0733.)

The CDC has focused on a substratum of one of 16 studies while ignoring the other 15

studies in order to find a statement that supported their conclusion. This is a clear case of confirmation bias.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1 and 6.

**COMMENT:** 

# **Urinary tract infections in male infants**

**GENERAL RESPONSE TO SECTION ON UTIs- RESPONSE 70:** See responses 1, 6, and 44, and section on UTIs in background section. A systematic review and meta-analysis provides an estimate of life-time risk for UTI among circumcised and uncircumcised men, indicating that circumcised men have a 23.3% increased risk of having a UTI over a lifetime.<sup>48</sup>

### **COMMENT:**

The material presented in this section of the background document is overly optimistic and misinterpreted. The data on which the report relies have been extracted from observational studies that contain a number of methodological flaws that make it difficult to ascertain whether urinary tract infections were properly diagnosed in these studies. For example, many studies use only bacteriuria as a diagnostic criterion, which would include the 1% of children who, at any given time, will have asymptomatic bacteriuria. To properly make the diagnosis of urinary tract infection, there must be evidence of inflammation. Similarly, urine specimens collected in bags placed over the genitals are often used to screen for urinary tract infection. This method has a high false positive rate, especially in girls and normal boys, with a contamination rate of 65% to 70%. This may lead to an oversampling of intact boys. There may also be a differential in health care seeking behaviors. For example, Hispanic boys, who are more likely to have normal genitals, seek health care more frequently, so and therefore are more likely to be diagnosed, often incorrectly, with a urinary tract infection.

**RESPONSE 71:** The reviewer fails to provide evidence that the UTI studies used in the CDC background analysis were methodologically flawed. The statement that bagged urine specimens may have a high false positive rate and may lead to "an oversampling of intact boys" is unclear. The argument that Hispanic boys seek care more frequently and are more likely to be diagnosed, often incorrectly, with a UTI is the reviewer's opinion rather than a scientific finding.

#### COMMENT:

The reference to the 1987 study of US Army hospitals worldwide<sup>506</sup> that noted an increase in the total number of urinary tract infections as the male circumcision rate declined overlooks the fact that the data collected by the authors were not consistent over time.<sup>507</sup> For example, the rate of diagnosing urinary tract infection decreased significantly from 0.16% in the first three years of the study to 0.07% in the last three

years of the study. (RR 0.462; 95%Cl 0.338-0.633).<sup>504</sup> The yearly rates of urinary tract infections in circumcised boys ranged from 0.07% to 0.23%, which the authors characterized as being "relatively consistent."<sup>506</sup> The rate of urinary tract infections in boys with normal genitals increased from 0.87% to 1.09% between the two time spans (OR 1.25; 95%Cl 0.96-1.61). The association between male circumcision and urinary tract infection was not consistent over time. The odds ratio for intact boys being diagnosed with a urinary tract infection in the first three years of the study was 5.51 (95%Cl 4.08-7.44) and in the last three years of the study was 14.91 (95%Cl 10.48-21.21). Both of these estimates are outside the 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio estimated for the entire time span of the study (8.69-12.15). This undermines the internal validity of the study.<sup>507</sup>

**Response 72:** Any supposed change in rates of diagnosing UTIs would likely be the same for both circumcised and uncircumcised boys, however, the important fact here is that uncircumcised boys had a higher risk of UTIs compared with circumcised boys.

### **COMMENT:**

Several studies suffered from misclassification bias in that the male circumcision status could not be correctly identified. The studies generated from the database of US Army hospitals worldwide also made no attempt to determine if there was the possibility of misclassification bias. In a chart review performed by the Centers for Disease Control, 15.7% of the boys circumcised neonatally did not have it documented on the hospital chart's face sheet, which is the source of database information. In the US Army studies, if 15% of the boys circumcised did not have it documented on the face sheet, as many as 78.1% of the boys thought to be intact may have actually been circumcised. If one adjusts for this possible non-differential misclassification, the US Army data from 1974 to 1983 would yield an odds ratio (intact males versus circumcised males) of 4.13 (95%CI 3.34-5.11), while the data from 1984-88 would yield an odds ratio of 4.07 (95%CI 3.28-5.05). These odds ratios are more in line with those estimated in other studies.

**Response 73:** Once again, despite the reviewer's adjustment for "possible non-differential misclassification", the odds ratio indicates that uncircumcised boys had a higher risk of UTIs compared with circumcised boys.

#### COMMENT:

One model has been published that estimated the impact of confounding on the association between male circumcision and urinary tract infections. If one begins with the assumption that the rate of true urinary traction infections is the same in intact and circumcised boys, modeling of confounding factors — such as frequency of medical visits, likelihood of collecting a urine sample, urine collection method, et cetera — will result in making a diagnosis of urinary tract infection (a combination of true positives and false positives) 4.27 times more frequently in intact boys. <sup>510</sup> Consequently, the associations that have been measured between male circumcision and urinary tract

infection may have been largely the result of confounding factors rather than a true association.

This is consistent with the HMO data collected by Altschul who found a high rate of misdiagnosis of urinary tract infection when he compared information garnered from the medical chart as opposed to the HMO's database. When proper diagnostic criteria are applied, the urinary tract infection was much lower than reported from the US Army data. <sup>511</sup> In a study of 603 intact Japanese boys aged 0 to 15 years, none had ever reported having had a urinary tract infection. <sup>85</sup>

An important omission in the background report is that at least seven studies out of Israel indicated that urinary tract infections occur at a higher rate following infant male circumcision.<sup>512-518</sup>

This increased risk of urinary tract infection may be related to techniques used in ritual male circumcision to control the bleeding that may restrict urine flow, thus leading to the urinary tract infection. Parents who desire a ritual male circumcision for their son need to be aware of this risk.

**REPONSE 74:** At least 3 of these 6 references (citations 514, 517, and 518 are focused on ritual male circumcision and are not within the scope of our recommendations. It is unclear from the other reports out of Israel what percentage of the circumcised children were circumcised through medical male circumcision vs. ritual male circumcision.

#### **COMMENT:**

The increase in diagnosis of urinary tract infections may be because parents are instructed to retract the foreskin on a regular basis in order to clean the head of the penis. This is inappropriate advice resulting in manipulation of the urethra and the equivalent of "honeymoon cystitis." Consequently, these infections may be introgenic.

An important omission in this section is that the long-term risks associated with urinary tract infections in infants are less than previously believed. For example, it has been demonstrated that treatment with oral antibiotics is as effective as treatment with intravenous antibiotics. <sup>519</sup> Urinary tract infections that occur in the first twelve months of life are less likely to result in renal parenchymal involvement. <sup>520</sup> There is now a strong body of evidence that urinary tract infections rarely, if ever, lead to hypertension or persistent renal dysfunction. <sup>521-528</sup>[38-45] While males are more likely to have vesicoureteral reflux noted on prenatal ultrasound, most cases resolve spontaneously. This temporarily predisposes males to urinary tract infection, <sup>529,530</sup> but the risk is quite low after six months of age, by which time the reflux has resolved. The recommended evaluation for infants with urinary tract infection is less rigorous than previously recommended. <sup>531</sup> Urinary tract infections should not be mischaracterized as an infection with life-long serious consequences, because the medical literature does not support such a characterization.

**RESPONSE 75:** While UTIs can be treated with antibiotics, some children who are

treated for UTIs may be resistant to antibiotics while children with UTIs may not be symptomatic or may not be diagnosed in a timely fashion or may not be diagnosed at all if they don't have adequate access to a medical doctor. While UTIs do not always have life-long consequences, they may have such consequences.<sup>53</sup>

### **COMMENT:**

Comparing the rate of urinary tract infections to the rate of immediate complications associated with infant male circumcision drawn from database sources is inappropriate and can be easily misinterpreted. Doing so also deviates from standard epidemiological practices and is misleading. As discussed elsewhere, the rates of complications following infant male circumcision have not been well or consistently measured. Consequently, any comparisons would have little meaning. Citing a study with one of the lowest reported complication rates (0.2%<sup>532</sup>) to be used for comparison reflects a potential bias of those generating this report. A more apt comparison would involve comparing the rate of urinary tract infection with the rate of meatal stenosis following male circumcision. Meatal stenosis rates range from 5% to 20% and often require surgical correction (meatotomy), 186,533-537 while the rate of urinary tract infection is 0.7%.538 In this comparison, there would be approximately 3 to 15 meatotomies performed for every urinary tract infection. Yet, this is not a standard epidemiological approach. The most appropriate approach is to calculate the number needed to treat. This number has been estimated to be between 11123 and 195.538 The average cost of an infant male circumcision, according to investigators at the CDC, is \$285.472 Consequently, one would need to spend between \$31,635 and \$55,575 to prevent one urinary tract infection that can be treated with a course of oral antibiotics that cost less than \$20.

**RESPONSE 76:** The neonatal complication rate in the first month of life of 0.2% has been consistently found across several studies indicating strong reliability of results. 44-46

### **COMMENT:**

## Other health conditions

The material presented in this section of the background document is highly selective, omits several important studies, and gives credence to studies with serious methodological flaws.

**RESPONSE**: See responses 1, 6, 33, and 41 for all sections in "other health conditions".

#### COMMENT:

The authors of the draft rely heavily on the 2000 study of Mallon et al.<sup>394</sup> This study has two fatal methodological flaws. The first is that it was undertaken in a dermatology practice, thus is subject to referral bias. If primary care physicians are capable of taking care of penile dermatoses in circumcised males, they may be less likely to refer them

for specialty care. Therefore, penile dermatoses in circumcised men would be underrepresented in a dermatology practice. Consequently, it is impossible to say whether this referred population is representative of the general population. The second fatal flaw is that the study had a control group of men seen in the dermatology clinic who did not have penile problems. The control group had a male circumcision rate of 47.8%. Britain has a national male circumcision rate of 21%.<sup>539</sup> If one had a control group with a male circumcision rate of 21%, the positive findings of the study are negated.

There are a number of important oversights in this section of the draft. For example, in the 1986 study by Herzog and Alvarez, the differences in prevalence of balanitis, penile irritation, and phimosis based on male circumcision status were not statistically significant. In the 1988 study by Fergusson et al., penile inflammation was more common in circumcised boys in the first three years of life and overall there was no statistically significant difference. In For reasons that are unclear, the authors of this draft cite an opinion piece written by a known male circumcision advocate to support their assertions. Citing review articles and opinion pieces is inappropriate and not considered scientifically valid or evidence-based.

Regarding the risk of balanitis (which includes balanitis, posthitis, and balanoposthitis), this section of the CDC draft has several important omissions. First, in a 1982 study of over 1000 intact Chinese boys only 0.08% (95%CI 0%-0.24%) had signs of active balanitis, while only 0.65% (95%CI 0.20%-1.10%) had ever had balanitis.<sup>541</sup> Second, in a 1997 study of Japanese boys, they found one case of balanitis in 1283 (0.08%) three year old boys.<sup>542</sup> Third, is a 1989 study in Britain that found the cumulative risk of balanitis by age 7 to 14 years of age to be 4%, with most patients having a single episode easily treated with topical agents.<sup>543</sup> Finally, a 2007 report,<sup>187</sup> which updated a 1997 study<sup>186</sup> of 468 boys, found that among 473 boys under three years of age, intact boys were significantly less likely to have penile inflammation than circumcised boys (OR 8.01; 95%CI 1.31-329.15). After three years of age, there was no difference.

Regarding the risk of pathologic phimosis, this section fails to mention that the cumulative risk of phimosis in intact English boys is 0.6% in the first 15 years of life<sup>457</sup> and 0.42% in Chinese boys,<sup>541</sup> while the risk of phimosis following male circumcision ranges from 0.3% to 2.9%.<sup>544-546</sup> There have been three studies directly comparing the rates of phimosis in normal and circumcised boys and none have found a statistically significant difference.<sup>186,190,505</sup>

The section fails to mention that meatitis/meatal ulceration is common in circumcised males and rare in intact males. It is most commonly seen in the first few months of life. The inflammation is thought to be the result of constant irritation from urine, stool, and friction from rubbing against a diaper.<sup>547</sup> One report noted that meatal ulcers were seen in 20% of newborns in the first 35 days following male circumcision.<sup>548</sup> In 219 circumcised boys under 3 years of age, 19.1% had meatitis, a rate significantly higher than in intact boys in whom it was not seen (p=.030).<sup>186</sup>

A review of the entire medical literature does not support the contention that male circumcision has a positive impact on phimosis, balanitis, and meatitis. Consequently, the recommendation for the intended audience of health providers is misleading, not justified, and not appropriate.

## Health conditions for which male circumcision is indicated

The material presented in this section of the background document is, for the most part, somewhat accurate. However, the statement that male circumcision is the "definitive treatment" for phimosis is confusing. Phimosis can be physiologic, which requires no treatment, or it can be pathologic, which requires treatment. Circumcision should not be considered first line therapy for pathologic phimosis. Balanitis xerotica obliterans (BXO) is the most common cause of pathologic phimosis. Fortunately, it is rare. Some, but not all, cases of BXO will respond to topical steroid application. A high response rate of phimosis to topical steroid application has been repeatedly demonstrated. 549-571 Likewise, there have been many reports of surgical techniques that correct phimosis without removing any tissue. 572-587 Several systematic reviews and cost-benefit analyses have indicated that male circumcision is the least favorable method of treating phimosis and the standard of care is shifting to topical steroids as the first line of therapy followed by surgery, if topical therapy fails. 588-590 The language of the draft needs to reflect this shift.

**RESPONSE 77:** We have clarified that there is a distinction between physiologic and pathologic phimosis in the text and changed the text to read "In the absence of a response to topical steroids, or when the child is not a candidate for steroid use, male circumcision is the definitive treatment."

#### COMMENT:

# Safety and risks associated with male circumcision

The material presented in this section of the background document is highly selective and ignores studies that do not agree with the CDC's apparent goal of presenting infant male circumcision as being safer than it actually is. Most of this section is spent reviewing studies that derived their data from databases, 532,591,592 which will underestimate the rate of complications by at least 10-fold, if not more. [Note: Reference CDC164 is listed incorrectly and should be: El Bcheraoui C, Zhang X, Cooper CS, Rose CE, Kilmarx PH, Chen RT. Rates of adverse events associated with male circumcision in US medical settings, 2001 to 2010. JAMA Pediatr 2014; 168: 625-34.]

When assessing the rate of complications reported in the medical literature, several factors are important. Some immediate complications are common and their frequency can be easily estimated. Others have been reported in case series, where the authors

report their experiences with several patient episodes. Many of the more uncommon complications have been reported as case reports. From case series and case reports, it is hard to estimate the frequency of a particular complication. Certainly, not every complication is reported in the medical literature, and a number of barriers keep unusual complications from being reported. The complication needs to be recognized as related to, associated with, or caused by the procedure, and authors need to be willing to take responsibility for the complication. Next, the person identifying the complication has to decide whether to pursue reporting the complication, and they must have the time and resources to perform the task. Once the case report or case series is written and submitted, it is unlikely to get published unless the new report adds something to what has already been published. Medical journals are publishing fewer case reports, so a case report often needs to be shopped around to several journals before it finds a home. Most authors will give up submitting after a couple of rejections. Consequently, some have estimated that for every case report published in the medical literature, there may be 100 to 1000 unreported cases.

Imprecise and inconsistent definitions for what constitutes a complication, such as how much post-operative bleeding is permissible, also muddies the waters. Definitions may be more or less inclusive, often depending on what message the author wants to convey. This expectation bias is blatant in some studies. For example, in the African randomized clinical trials of adult male circumcision, very low complication rates (1.3% to 3.6%), lower than those commonly reported for infant male circumcision, were reported for the procedure and delayed complications were not assessed. I-3 It would appear that the aim was to present adult male circumcision as a low-risk procedure in advance of the planned male circumcision roll-out. Because the definitions and criteria for inclusion of complications vary so widely, any attempt to perform a systematic review and meta-analysis of the medical literature on this topic would be a fool's errand, and assigning any worth to conclusions reached in the process would be pointless. Plote: citation CDC157 does not properly list the authors of this study. Any such analyses are not worthy of mention. If mentioned at all, the extreme limitations in studying this topic need to be stressed.

What constitutes a complication by a researcher's definition also affects the reported incidence of that complication. If bleeding complications included those patients who had any oozing of blood following male circumcision, then the complication rate would be much higher than if bleeding complications included only those who required sutures. For example, in the study by Gee and Ansell the definition of "really significant" is arbitrary. One could easily include all of the hemorrhages requiring sutures (15), all of the denudation patients (2), half of the dehiscence patients (4), and all of the Plastibell being too tight (7). Instead of 14 patients who had "really significant" complications, the number tripled to 42.<sup>593</sup>

Many studies are limited by how long they follow their subjects. As a consequence, many of the delayed complications will be missed. For example, the database study by Christakis et al. only considered complications noted during the perinatal admission. As expected, they saw virtually no infectious complications.<sup>532</sup> Infections resulting from

male circumcision would be expected to occur days after the procedure, a time when nearly all these patients would have been discharged from the hospital. Likewise, the database study by Wiswell and Geschke looked only at the complications occurring during the first month of age.<sup>591</sup> This study, by design, would miss nearly all the cases of skin bridging and adhesion formation, buried penis, meatal stenosis, and inadequate or cosmetically inferior results.

Pediatric urologists are faced on a daily basis with the complications resulting from infant male circumcision. Nearly all of these complications are not seen in the immediate post-operative period. One pediatric urologist noted that of 235 boys referred to him in a 24-month period with male circumcision complications, about half of them required additional surgery. His experience is typical for his surgical sub-specialty. In the United States, a third of pediatric urologists report having served as an expert witness in male circumcision injury cases. Substantial malpractice claims have been paid for male circumcision-related injuries.<sup>594</sup>

The study design and method of data collection can also have an impact on estimating the rates of complications. Higher complication rates will be documented in a group followed prospectively over a short period of time with scheduled follow-up examinations, as compared to a group followed retrospectively over a decade. When looking for complications prospectively, the complications are proactively observed and recorded. For example, a prospective study found an excessive bleeding rate of 8.9% to 9.9% following infant male circumcision. <sup>595</sup> Retrospective studies typically see excessive bleeding following 1% to 2% of male circumcisions.

In a retrospective study, only those complications recorded in the chart, usually in the nurses' notes, are available. Complications not documented in the chart would be missed. Therefore, the complication rates in chart reviews would be lower than in a prospective study. Chart reviews, including one published by the CDC, have documented complication rates of 2% to 6%. 6,593,596 Still, a chart review will uncover more complications than searching a database for diagnostic and procedure codes. For a complication to be tallied in a database, it not only must be recorded in the medical record, but it also must be listed as a discharge diagnosis. Only the most severe, lifethreatening complications will be picked up in a database study. This does not mean that severe complications will not also be missed in a database. For example, an infant who had a third of his glans amputated using a Mogen clamp, resulting in a \$2.3 million malpractice judgment awarded in 2009, did not have this complication listed on the medical record's face-sheet, so it would not have been entered into the database. 597 As a consequence, the complication rates for the database studies, which are in the range of 0.1% to 0.2%, 532,591 are ten times lower than the complication rates in chart review studies.

**RESPONSE 78:** : CDC stands by the accuracy and scientific rigor used to conduct its study on adverse events associated with male circumcision<sup>15</sup> and represents the first study of its kind in the U.S. which allows a comparison in adverse events reported among circumcised and uncircumcised males during three age ranges (age < 1 year, 1-

9 years, ≥10 years). In the absence of longitudinal data on circumcised versus uncircumcised males comparing rates of adverse events related to male circumcision, a database study provides a good source of data to describe complications reported at discharge. No study is without limitations. Longitudinal chart review studies may only provide data that is representative for those geographic sites where the studies are located.

### **COMMENT:**

If studies whose data are mined from databases miss approximately 90% to 95% of the complications, do they serve any purpose? They would if their results can be extrapolated to accurately reflect reality. To demonstrate this, one would need to perform either a blinded prospective data collection or a chart review data collection in which information for the database is simultaneously generated to assess how well these sources of information correlate. To date, such a study has not been published. Consequently, the studies of complication rates that are based on databases do not provide useful information and should not be taken seriously when developing policy. While the CDC draft elaborates on the numbers generated by one such study, 592 the time spent by these researchers would have been better spent collecting useful information.

**RESPONSE 79:** The reviewer's allegation that database studies miss approximately 90% to 95% of the complications is conjecture.

#### **COMMENT:**

This study, with its markedly flawed data, makes the claim that complication rates are greater if male circumcision is delayed beyond the newborn period. The problem is that data collection and reporting methods differ in the two age groups, which alone could explain the difference. The only reliable studies to assess this question are those that compared two age groups using the same evaluation tools, the same skill in practitioners, in the same environment, at the same time. Only a handful of studies have done so, and they do not support the authors' claim. In one study, complications were only seen in those who were circumcised at under 72 hours of life.<sup>544</sup> In the second, the Gomco clamp was found to have more bleeding complications in older boys than in neonates.<sup>598</sup> In a third study from Iran, no difference in the complication rate was found between age groups.<sup>599</sup> In a fourth study from Saudi Arabia, a greater rate of complications was seen in male circumcisions performed in the neonatal period.<sup>600</sup> Several studies have indicated that the Plastibell should not be used after the neonatal period.<sup>601,602</sup>

**RESPONSE:** See response 78.

### **COMMENT:**

The CDC draft, citing a 1983 review article, 19 provides an incomplete list of

complications following infant male circumcision. The CDC draft should have included a complete list of complications and, where available, estimates of their likelihood. While this information is not available in the CDC draft, this information is essential for the intended audience of health care providers, so they can provide adequate disclosure to patients or their proxies for the fully informed consent process to be valid. Considering that infant male circumcision is a purely cosmetic procedure performed primarily for cultural reasons, the required level of disclosure is higher than for procedures for which there is a clear medical indication. For this reason, providing complete disclosure should be the standard of care prior to infant male circumcision. This would include a listing of all the known complications resulting from infant male circumcision. Doing so not only fully informs the person providing consent/permission, but it also protects the health care provider performing the procedure should a complication develop as a result of the procedure.

Bleeding: Bleeding can be minor or require the application of clotting enhancers, suturing, and/or blood transfusions. <sup>591,603,604</sup> It can result in cardiac arrest, <sup>605</sup> or exsanguination. <sup>606</sup> Some patients will lose enough blood that a blood transfusion is needed. <sup>591,593,596,607-610</sup> In male circumcisions performed on older children, post-operative bleeding is often the reason for hospital admission following the outpatient procedure. <sup>611,612</sup> The penis and the foreskin, which is fed by the frenular artery and is a frequent source of bleeding, are highly vascularized structures. Bleeding complications can occur with any of the techniques used without regard for the experience or expertise of the operator. <sup>613,614</sup>

The complication rate from bleeding varies widely with study design, the definition of excessive bleeding, and the attitude of the researcher toward male circumcision. For example, in a prospective study designed to determine the incidence of hemorrhagic diseases and the impact of vitamin K, 9.87% of male circumcisions resulted in abnormal bleeding. A chart review by Gee and Ansell found a bleeding rate of 1.0%, while data from a database noted excessive bleeding in 0.083% with 0.028% needing ligatures applied and 0.003% requiring transfusion. Health care providers also need to recognize that excessive bleeding following male circumcision may be the first sign of an undiagnosed bleeding disorder.

Infection: Following male circumcision, the newborn is at greater risk for infections because of the open wound involving the entire surface of the glans, which then sits in a diaper exposed to urine and feces. For several days following male circumcision, a greenish-white, fibrinous discharge forms over the male circumcision wound, which will exhibit a mixture of flora, including Klebsiella, Enterobacter, and Acinetobacter. Infections can also be caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*, Escherichia coli, Streptococcus. A positive bacterial culture cannot differentiate between colonization and tissue invasion. Because of the high frequency of purulent-appearing exudate from the wound, it is difficult to differentiate this exudate and erythema, which results from an open wound, from that of an infection. Estimates of the frequency of infections following male circumcision vary considerably as there is a tendency not to ascribe a poor outcome to an elective procedure.

because it involves necrotic tissue adhering to the wound, may be associated with more infections and is linked to tissue necrosis and gangrene.

Staphylococcal infections (including MRSA): Several studies have found a higher rate of Staphylococcal skin infections in the first weeks of life in males, especially among those circumcised, as compared to females. 188,189,630-638 More recently, several outbreaks of neonatal cutaneous MRSA infections have been reported, primarily in circumcised boys. 639-649 In only one outbreak reported had none of the infected boys been circumcised. 650 One case-control study was able to document that a circumcised newborn boy was at 12 times the risk of developing a MRSA infection compared to a newborn boy that was not circumcised. 651 In describing this study, the CDC mischaracterizes and downplays the results as the "hospital identified male circumcision as a potential risk factor," when the study found a statistically significant association. It is revealing that in instances where studies are favorable to male circumcision the CDC draft does not downplay these associations. In one case report, MRSA was recovered from the male circumcision wound of a newborn infant whose mother had staphylococcal toxic shock syndrome. 652 The frequency of staphylococcal infections varies from study to study, but in one series of male circumcisions performed with a Plastibell, 10.7% developed impetigo. 653 The increase in staphylococcal infections following male circumcision is not unexpected. Studies have shown that male circumcision alters the normal flora from primarily gram-negative organisms to grampositive organisms, including staphylococci. 141-144

Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome: Case reports and cases series of staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome following neonatal male circumcision have been reported. 653-656 In one series of 75 male circumcisions performed with a Plastibell, 2.7% developed staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome. 653

Abscesses of the penis and scrotum following male circumcision have been reported in a number of case reports. 628,657-660

Erysipelas, a skin infection usually caused by Streptococcus that can lead to Fornier's gangrene, has been reported following male circumcision.<sup>661,662</sup>

Group A ß-hemolytic Streptococcus infections have been reported following infant male circumcision during outbreaks in neonatal nurseries. 663,664

Acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis has been reported following an infected male circumcision.<sup>665</sup>

Diphtheria infections, before widespread vaccination programs, were reported following both ritual and medical male circumcisions.<sup>666,667</sup>

Syphilis: In the late 1800s, there were many reports of syphilis following neonatal male circumcisions from oral-genital contact during the procedure performed by infected *mohelim*. <sup>668</sup>

Tuberculous: Reports of penile tuberculosis following ritual male circumcision were commonplace in the first half of the twentieth century. 669-673 Most often, the history involved the wound being sucked by the mohel, who would invariably be found to have tuberculosis. 674,675 Cases continued to be reported well into the twentieth century. 676-678

Herpes simplex virus is also spread via the oral-genital contact that can occur during ritual male circumcision with some cases resulting in death or brain damage. 679-682 When these infections were discovered in New York City, Tom Frieden, current director of the CDC and the Commissioner of the New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene at the time of the herpes outbreaks, and Susan Blank, the chair of the American Academy of Pediatrics Task Force on Circumcision, did nothing to stop these easily preventable infections.

Tetanus following ritual male circumcision has been reported in multiple case series.<sup>682-689</sup>

Septicemia, which is an overwhelming, systemic, life-threatening infection can follow male circumcision. 660,690-697 Once the bacteria have entered the bloodstream, the infection can spread throughout the body. Reports have noted pneumonia, 698,699 empyema, 660 soft tissue abscesses, 660 osteomyelitis, 694,698,700,701 septic arthritis, 660,694,701,702 pyelonephritis, 698 peritonitis, 703 bilateral femoral head necrosis, 694 umbilical arteritis, 628 gangrene, 702,704,705 suppurative inguinal lymphadenitis, 694 and meningitis. 627,629,694,705,706 Sepsis following male circumcision can also lead to disseminated intravascular coagulopathy, jaundice, congestive heart failure, 697 peripheral circulatory collapse, 698 hypothermia, 697 and death. 654,693,696,699,707,708

Fornier's gangrene, which is necrotizing fasciitis of the perirectal, perineal or genital area, resulting in gangrene of the overlying skin,<sup>709</sup> has been repeatedly reported in the medical literature,<sup>710-721</sup> following both tribal male circumcisions<sup>722</sup> and male circumcisions performed in a medical setting.<sup>704</sup> These serious, life-threatening cases emphasize the necessity of informing parents of the uncommon, but potentially serious, risks of neonatal male circumcision.<sup>723</sup>

Surgical complications include total denudation of the penis<sup>718,724-732</sup> and the removal of too much shaft skin.<sup>660,733-736</sup> Even with proper technique, especially with the clamp techniques, it may be difficult to estimate how much skin is removed. The removal of too much skin is so common that many practitioners may view the results as normal.

Urethral fistula following male circumcision has been reported in a number of case reports and case series. 83,720,732,737-756 This complication requires careful repair by experienced specialists. 757

Other surgical complications, such as multiple pyogenic granulomas, 758,759 subglandular stricture, 760 and scrotal trauma 761-763 have been reported following male circumcision.

Plastibell retention/pseudoparaphimosis: If the Plastibell ring does not fall off within eight days, a complication is likely to result. The Plastibell ring can dislocate proximal to the glans, where it can mimic paraphimosis, also known as pseudoparaphimosis. The dislocated ring can result in compression damage, ulceration of the corona and proximal glans, and edema and vascular congestion distal to the ring. Removal of the ring with a wire cutter is often needed. Reports in the medical literature have included significant long-term penile deformities, 732,764-769 signs of urinary obstruction, 770 pseudoparaphimosis, 765-768,771-773 and strangulation of the penis. 774 The incidence of pseudoparaphimosis following use of a plastic bell male circumcision device has been reported to range between 0.27% 593 to 1% 765 to 1.6%. 596 The risk of a Plastibell tracking back onto the shaft and needing to be removed using a ring cutter is 3.6% and incomplete separation is seen in 5.9% of patients. 775 Another study found ring retention in 2.1%, with 0.8% developing necrosis and 0.9% developing pseudoparaphimosis. 776 In one series, primarily in neonates, there was an 11% retention rate. 614

Bivalving: Inadvertent placement of scissors into the urethra while attempting a dorsal slit resulted in surgical bivalving of the glans.<sup>731,777</sup>

Penile necrosis/ischemia is a serious complication that has been noted in a number of case reports and case series.<sup>6,660,704,718,746,763,776,778-795</sup> In one series the rate of necrosis was 0.8%.<sup>776</sup>

Amputation of the penis and glans: Since several of the devices used to perform male circumcision involve a "blind" amputation of the foreskin, there are multiple case reports and case series reported in the medical literature related to partial or complete amputations of the glans. 628,696,705,731,741,750,755,762,796-822 Since many of these reports are in the form of describing techniques to reattach the inadvertently amputated tissues, the number of actual cases might be much greater. These amputations are often the source of malpractice cases. In some instances, it was decided to raise these boys as girls. 801

Acute urinary retention, typically from bandages that are too tightly wrapped around the wound in ritual male circumcisions, or a Plastibell ring obstructing the meatus, has also been reported. 593,705,762,823-826 In a series of older boys circumcised with a Plastibell, 0.35% complained of urinary retention. 826 In follow-up of 99 boys circumcised at a mean age of 4.3 years, 19 did not pass urine for more than 12 hours. Five boys held out for several days (maximum 3 days) with one requiring readmission. 533 In a study of older boys circumcised with a Plastibell, 56.3% had difficulty with micturition. 10 a study of healthy male neonates, the mean time to voiding was 5.3 (SD=2.5) hours after the procedure with the longest duration to post-male circumcision voiding being 11.5 hours. 11 hours. 12 hours (SD=3.35). A few (0.38%) took more than eighteen hours after male circumcision to void. 12 hours (SD=3.35).

Other complications from urinary retention, such as bladder rupture, 830 obstructive uropathy, 831 acute renal failure, 831-833 and urine advancing in subcutaneous fascial planes 834 have also been reported.

The tight bandaging technique used in ritual male circumcision also places the boy at greater risk for urinary tract infections.<sup>512-518</sup>

Leg cyanosis, both unilateral<sup>835</sup> and bilateral,<sup>836</sup> gastric rupture from air swallowed while crying during the procedure,<sup>837</sup> pulmonary embolism,<sup>838</sup> pneumothorax,<sup>839</sup> erythema multiforme,<sup>840,841</sup> myocardial injury, tachycardia, heart failure,<sup>842,843</sup> and impotence (in adult men)<sup>844,845</sup> have all been reported following male circumcision.

Apnea/Apparent life-threatening events have been reported, 846,847 with a rate of 3.85% of prolonged apnea following the procedure. 847

Chilling was noted to be a problem when male circumcision was performed just after delivery.<sup>848</sup>

Hyperbilirubinemia (jaundice). Since it has been shown that breastfeeding and bottle feeding are adversely affected by neonatal male circumcision, one would expect that circumcised boys might be at greater risk for hyperbilirubinemia. While not studied directly, two studies in American infants have found boys to be at greater risk for hyperbilirubinemia. He Canadian database used to determine the rate of urinary tract infection based on male circumcision status, it was discovered that circumcised boys were significantly more likely to require hospitalization (excluding hospitalizations for urinary tract infection) during the first year of life. This differential could be due to hospitalizations for hyperbilirubinemia. This is an area open for future research.

The presence of a hypospadias is an absolute contraindication to male circumcision, yet circumcisions have been reported being performed on boys with a hypospadias. <sup>593,851</sup> There have been reports of techniques to correct hypospadias in circumcised patients, <sup>852-855</sup> and techniques to repair hypospadias without a male circumcision leaving the penis with a fully intact appearance. <sup>856</sup>

Hematoma following male circumcision is fairly common.<sup>753,857</sup> The rates have been reported as 0.46%,<sup>776</sup> 0.98%,<sup>858</sup> 6.1%,<sup>827</sup> and 7.7%.<sup>695</sup> It is one of those complications so common that it is not usually considered out of the ordinary, and therefore, is not likely to be identified as a "complication."

Delayed complications: Most studies attempting to compile the complication rates for male circumcision do not collect data long enough to capture the long-term complications.

Meatitis is a common finding as most circumcised boys shortly after the procedure will have erythematous meatal openings. Most physicians unaccustomed to examining the meatus in intact males would consider the inflamed meatus to be a normal feature of the circumcised penis. <sup>547,548</sup> The inflammation is thought to be the result of constant irritation from urine, stool, and friction from rubbing against a diaper. <sup>859</sup> The rates of meatitis are approximately 20%. <sup>186,548</sup>

Meatal stenosis, which has been recognized as a complication of male circumcision for some time, may be the most common complication following male circumcision. 186,533,535,536,545,604,614,741,860-884 In 1881, Mastin stated that narrowing of the meatus was the rule for Jews, not the exception, and meatotomy (the surgical correction of meatal stenosis) was designated by many Jews as their "Second Circumcision." 885 Symptoms associated with meatal stenosis include penile pain at the initiation of micturition, narrow high velocity stream, the need to sit or stand back from the toilet bowl to urinate, abdominal pain, enuresis, dysuria, urinary urgency, urinary frequency, straining to urinate, urinary dribbling, and urinary retention. 535,870,879,886,887,888 The meatal slit at the urethral opening should be 25% to 30% of the diameter of the glans.860 The meatal opening is significantly smaller in circumcised males and meatal stenosis occurs almost exclusively in the circumcised penis. 46,538,873,889 (Most physicians do not know what constitutes a normal meatal opening, if they have never examined an intact male or been educated about the normal penis. The CDC should focus its efforts on educating health care providers about normal penile anatomy, care of the normal intact penis, and on diagnosing and appropriately treating the complications of male circumcision.)

The incidence of meatal stenosis following infant male circumcision is found in 2.8% (requiring meatotomy), 533 7.3%, 186,536 32.1%, 871 3.55%, 614 and 20.4%. 537 For boys circumcised later in life, the incidence is 11.1% (necessitating meatotomy) and 7.95%. A report of 58 meatotomies performed on circumcised boys on an outpatient basis in one year's time in a single practice 874 suggests that urethral meatotomy is a very common procedure in the United States. The writers of the CDC draft need to be congratulated on finding the study with the lowest reported rate (0.9%) of meatal stenosis following male circumcision in the literature 599 while turning a blind eye to the remainder of the medical literature. They accept this outlying study without question, yet take a cheap shot at the methodology of a study whose results have repeatedly been verified. Such behavior is both unscientific and unprofessional. One cannot help but notice that the CDC draft is only critical of studies that show male circumcision in a neutral or negative light. It gives the impression, either rightly or wrongly, that the CDC is pursuing a specific pro-male circumcision agenda with this draft.

Meatal stenosis obstructs the flow of urine and can lead to urinary tract infections, vesicoureteral reflux, hydronephrosis, obstructive uropathy, and renal failure.<sup>880,881,887,890-892</sup>

Hidden Penis, Buried Penis, Concealed Penis, Trapped Penis, Webbed Penis, Inconspicuous Penis: These conditions have generated much discussion on how to define them and how to treat them.

A concealed penis is a penis that is inconspicuous because of an overlying fold of abdominal fat. A buried penis refers to a penile shaft that is buried below the surface of the prepubic skin and has also been used to describe a partially or totally obscured penis caused by obesity or by a radical male circumcision. A true buried penis is a

congenital anomaly that includes an abnormally large suprapubic fat pad and dense dysgenetic dartos fascial bands that tether the penis inward. This requires surgical intervention.

A webbed penis consists of midline skin webs which bind the ventrum of the penis to the scrotum with an abnormal insertion of the scrotum onto the ventral aspect of the penis. 893-902

Because the skin and dartos fascia are inadequately attached to the underlying Buck's fascia, the corporeal bodies telescope proximally without the skin and dartos fascia covering. Because the penis is suspended from the pubis by the suspensory ligament, it remains fixed, but the fat does not. Fat descends over the penis and covers it. 900-903

Many intact boys have baby fat surrounding the undeveloped penile shaft. Most of these patients will develop normally, with the excessive baby fat in the pubic area regressing and the penis lengthening under the influence of endogenous testosterone.<sup>897,901,904</sup>

Failing to recognize a "hidden or buried penis" at birth makes the condition worse and more difficult to correct down the road if the boy is circumcised. There are multiple case reports of buried penis following male circumcision, <sup>752,762,905-910</sup> and most case series of patients undergoing repairs for this problem are populated with boys who were circumcised as infants. <sup>546,894,899,901-904,911</sup> This has also been reported as a problem in circumcised adults. <sup>912</sup>

Male circumcision is a problem for these patients, with buried penis, because the base of the shaft skin is not properly attached to the base of the tunica albuginea, so the shaft skin will be bunched up around, and distal to, the sulcus of the glans. Because nearly all of the shaft skin is in a location where it is typically removed by a clamp device, nearly all of the shaft skin is at risk for removal. Since the synechiae that fuses the glans to the inner surface of the foreskin is removed, there is nothing to hold the penis away from the body, so the penis becomes buried in the scrotum and fat pad. With the penis completely buried, the circular scar from the male circumcision can constrict resulting in phimosis. This often gives the appearance of "redundant foreskin." This often gives the appearance of "redundant foreskin."

This leads the parents to blame the physician for an "inadequate" male circumcision. Despite reassurance from the physician, <sup>899</sup> some parents will demand that the child be re-circumcised, and indeed many of these children will be referred to the urologist for re-circumcision. <sup>913</sup> Attempts to re-circumcise, which entails removal of more penile skin, often makes the condition worse, by further burying of the penis, and it makes reconstruction more difficult. <sup>893,913-915</sup> The repair is a complex procedure, which is only made more difficult if the patient is circumcised.

The consensus among pediatric urologists is that infants with buried penis should not be circumcised as it can result in serious consequences.<sup>893,913,916</sup> The take home lesson from all of this is: if the penis appears too small, it should not be circumcised unless it

can be demonstrated that it is not a buried penis.<sup>893</sup>

It is difficult to estimate the incidence of buried penis. In a series of 313 neonatal circumcisions performed with a Mogen clamp, one developed hidden penis.<sup>544</sup> It is not known if this rate is low because the incidence is low or because researchers did not successfully identify those for whom male circumcision was contraindicated. In one series of healthy boys, 20.1% of boys in the first year of life had a glans that was completely covered, but only 0.9% would be considered to have a buried penis/preputial stenosis.<sup>186</sup>

latrogenic phimosis/preputial stenosis: latrogenic phimosis occurs when the head of the penis is trapped behind the male circumcision scar. The skin remaining after male circumcision can develop a circular cicatrix that contracts and draws the proximal skin over the glans forming a resistant phimosis. Since 1895, multiple case reports have appeared in the literature. The incidence has been reported as 1.7% in older boys, 534 0.3% in infants using the Mogen clamp, 544 [67] 2.9% using the Gomco clamp, and 0.9% using a variety of other male circumcision techniques. Given that the cumulative incidence of pathological phimosis in intact boys by 15 years of age is 0.6%, 457 phimosis following male circumcision occurs with equal frequency as in boys who are not circumcised.

Cosmetic concerns: Parents, to a large degree, have their infant sons circumcised for cosmetic reasons: primarily so the boy's genitals will look like the father's genitals. Since there is a wide variety to be had in the appearance of the circumcised penis, both in children<sup>186</sup> and adults, <sup>46</sup> the intended outcome is unlikely to occur. <sup>918</sup> The desired outcome of a fully exposed glans on an infant in the first year of age is the exception, 186 and parents and older boys are often not pleased with the cosmetic outcome. 776,919 In a series of boys circumcised with a Plastibell, 33.1% of patients experienced cosmetic complications, and 20.8% claimed to have experienced psycho-social problems because of the appearance of the penis after the operation. 920 In a comparison of the Plastibell versus standard free-hand technique in older boys, favorable cosmesis was seen in 60.9% with the Plastibell and 44.9% with standard technique. 827 Consequently, the primary care physician is bombarded with parental concerns that not enough skin was removed. While reassurance is warranted in nearly all cases, there are a substantial number of patients who will doctor-shop until they find someone willing to recircumcise their infant. 921 Re-circumcision to address cosmetic concerns is a commonly performed procedure, 607,922 but, in the case of a buried penis, it will make the situation worse. 893,913-915 In one study, the rate of inadequate male circumcision prompting a surgical revision was 2.8%. 190 In other studies the rate of re-circumcision ran about 1%.923-925

Adhesions: There is some debate whether the adhesions are the result of inadequate stripping of the inner prepuce away from the glans at the time of male circumcision<sup>926</sup> or the reattachment of the epithelium of the inner prepuce to the epithelium of the glans.<sup>927,928</sup> Adhesions have been noted in 15.3% of newborns at their first office visit,<sup>929</sup> 10% at the one-month well-child visit,<sup>927</sup> and in 25.6% to 27.6% of circumcised boys

overall. Fortunately, with age the prevalence decreases. 186,930

The adhesions which form following male circumcision are more dense than the connections normally found between the inner prepuce and the glans.<sup>927</sup>

Parents must be taught how to care for the circumcised penis by pulling back on the penile skin and exposing the glans on a regular basis, so adhesion formation can be avoided.<sup>929</sup> It has been suggested that daily application of petroleum jelly for three weeks following the procedure may decrease the rate of adhesion formation.

Many physicians wrongly believe the proper treatment is to tear the adhesions apart, but this can lead to skin bridges and further scar tissue formation. Most adhesions will resolve spontaneously.

Skin bridges: Some adhesions will form a permanent bridge from the male circumcision wound to the surface of the glans. Skin bridges can cause tethering of the penis, entrapment of debris, curvature of the penis, and pain on erection. 927,929 Several case reports have appeared in the medical literature describing this complication. 931-933 Skin bridges are commonly seen by urologic practices. The prevalence of skin bridges was 4.1% in circumcised boys under 3 year of age, Among adult circumcised males, skin bridges were noted in 12.7%. 46

Keloid formation: Keloids are hypertrophic scars that do not decrease in size over time. Although penile keloid formation is rare, it has been reported following male circumcision. 934-940 The treatment consists of intralesional steroid injections, surgical excision, or a combination of the two. 934,939,940

Subcutaneous granuloma: A subcutaneous granuloma following male circumcision has been described as an "indurated, confluent, red-violet plaque, freely movable over the underlying tissue, 0.3-1.0 cm wide of firm consistence, surrounding the penis in the neighborhood of the coronal sulcus. Its surface is smooth and the borders are distinctly defined."<sup>941</sup>[These lesions are found on the penis in 4.97% of circumcised boys.<sup>942</sup>

Epidermal cysts have been reported following male circumcision.<sup>771,943-946</sup>

Penile edema: Acquired penile edema in adult males has been reported since 1928 under a wide variety of names. 947-962 The entity has been described as "a painful, hard, nodular, translucent cord that suddenly appears in the penis and is usually confined to the coronal sulcus, 822 [835] or as a "hard worm-shaped lesion" on the dorsum of the coronal sulcus. The edema comes on suddenly and is self-limited. 960-962 It is typically seen in circumcised, sexually active men often after vigorous, frequent, or prolonged sexual intercourse. 948,950,952,954,956,957,960-962 In a series of genital dermatoses presenting to a dermatological referral practice, "idiopathic penile edema" was seen only in circumcised men (p<.01). 394

In most series, the circumcised penis appears predisposed to this condition. 948,955,959-967

It has been postulated that the male circumcision scar interferes with normal lymphatic drainage. 948,955 Alternatively, penile edema has also been attributed to decreased vaginal lubrication,961 which is a common condition in vaginal intercourse involving a circumcised penis. 115 Inadequate lubrication leads to abrasions of the penile skin, which, in turn, can result in antigen transfer and subsequent hypersensitivity. 963 The uniform success of a variety of interventions 950,951,954 suggests that this condition is benign and self-limited. Acquired penile edema affecting pediatric or adolescent males has been reported less frequently. 963,965-968 Based on one prospective series, the incidence in pediatric patients was estimated to be 0.62%. 186

Following adult male circumcisions, penile cutaneous horns can develop. Many of these may harbor malignancies. 969-971

Hair strangulation occurs when a human hair becomes inadvertently wrapped around an appendage, usually a finger or a toe. Once the hair gets wet it contracts and cuts into the appendage. There have been multiple case reports of penile strangulation by a hair. Some cases have resulted in urethral fistulas and partial or complete amputation of the penis. The hair typically becomes entrapped in the coronal groove. Of the more than 70 cases reported in the medical literature, all but one case occurred in circumcised males.

Two studies determined that the size of the adult penis is significantly smaller in circumcised men.<sup>46,47</sup> This is important information that needs to be disclosed as part of the informed consent process.

Psychological sequelae: The aftermath of infant male circumcision shares many of the attributes of post-traumatic stress disorder;984 however, there has been little study to confirm or deny this hypothesis. There is solid evidence to indicate that imprinting happens in the perinatal period, which can have long-term consequences when these infants become adults. 985-992 Given that male circumcision is more traumatic (in terms of provoking a cortisol surge) than gastric suctioning, one would expect that it might have long-term consequences. This has been seen in two studies in which it was found that male infants who had been circumcised shortly after birth cried longer and louder than girls and intact boys when given vaccinations at 4 to 6 months of age. 993,994 The studies concluded, "Because memory of pain is believed to be important in subsequent pain perception, and the main structures for memory are functional in the neonatal period, it is conceivable that pain from male circumcision may have long-lasting effects on pain response and/or perception."993 Subsequently, it has been demonstrated that inadequate analgesia for initial procedures in young children may reduce the effectiveness of analgesia in subsequent procedures. 995 One study found a positive statistically significant association between male circumcision rates and the rates of autism in boys.<sup>259</sup> A recent national, register-based cohort study from Denmark found that circumcised boys were at significant risk for developing autism spectrum disorder by ten years of age (hazard risk (HR) 1.46; 95%CI 1.11-1.93) and at greater relative risk for infantile autism before five years age (HR 2.06; 95%CI 1.36-3.13). This same study found that circumcised boys were at greater risk for developing hyperactivity disorder

(attention deficit disorder) (HR 1.81; 95%CI1.11-2.96). 996 The link between attention deficit disorder and male circumcision has been suspected for some time given that it has a higher rate in boys and it is diagnosed more frequently in the United States than in Europe. Another preliminary study indicated that circumcised adults are more likely to have alexithymia (difficulty in identifying and expressing feelings). 997 Further study is needed in each of these areas.

Cansever performed psychological testing on Turkish boys before and after ritual male circumcision. Following male circumcision, there was a decrease in IQ, a decrease in body image, disturbance in sexual identification, an increase in regressive traits, and an increase in aggressive behavior, especially toward their mothers. While there has been little study of the psychological sequelae of infant male circumcision, there is no evidence to suggest there is no harm.

A potential impact on sexual identification following infant male circumcision needs further study. In a study of men seeking care at a sexually transmitted disease clinic in San Francisco, circumcised men were statistically significantly more likely to identify themselves as men having sex with men (OR 1.13; 95%Cl 1.10-1.16).8 The same lead author collected similar information in a sexually transmitted disease clinic in Tel Aviv with similar results (OR 1.57; 95%Cl 1.11-2.22). 1000 This finding needs further research. Based on these studies, part of the disclosure in the informed consent process needs to include the statement that there are currently preliminary findings indicating that male circumcision is associated with a higher rate of autism, attention deficit disorder, and identifying oneself as gay/bisexual.

Behavioral changes: Richards et al. present both circumstantial and direct evidence that circumcision of male infants leads to behavioral changes. Several early behavioral gender differences, noted in studies performed in the United States, 1002-1006 have not been noted in similar studies performed in Britain or The Netherlands. 1007-1010

Changes in Sleep Pattern: When circumcised males were compared to genitally intact boys and girls, they showed less active sleep time, more time awake and agitated (active awake and crying awake), longer latencies to sleep<sup>1011-1013</sup> and more extreme long non-REM sleep periods.<sup>1012</sup> Sleep patterns were correlated with rapidity of drops in cortisol levels.<sup>1014</sup> Sleep changes have not been documented in newborns with prolonged crying.<sup>1012</sup>

These findings need to be placed in context. Changes in the amount and type of sleep and the latency to sleep are indicative of stress. The immature human infant has a limited capacity to actively avoid stressful stimulation and responds to such stimulation with the "conservation-withdrawal" pattern. This leads to increases in non-rapid-eye-movement (non-REM) sleep, which is the low point on an arousal continuum, where thresholds to sensory stimulation are high and motor activity is low.<sup>1015</sup> REM states probably represent the operation of maturational processes in the central nervous system of the neonate, which are primarily related to physiological processes not yet influenced by experience. These maturational processes are part of an unfolding

genetic progression, phylogenetically preformed for an average expectable environment. The processes involve the establishment of the necessary connections within the central nervous system as well as in behavioral integration. By comparison with adult sleep, prototype REM sleep is poorly organized. But, in the neonate, it only takes three months of development to organize it. 1016 An increase in non-REM sleep has been observed following heel lancing. 1016 Male circumcision without anesthesia in a newborn is followed by prolonged non-REM sleep, which is consistent with the "conservation-withdrawal" theory. Newborns usually begin their sleep cycle with REM sleep, but following heel lancing, they began sleep with a lengthy period of non-REM sleep. Following either selective interruption of REM or non-REM sleep or deprivation of total sleep, neonates exhibit a propensity to recover guiet non-REM sleep rather than active REM sleep. The quiet sleep priority may be related to "stress" or wakefulness and fatique. 1017 Consequently, an inborn adaptive response to stress is to produce a quiescent state with high sensory thresholds. 1016 A "common sense" guess about the effects of a continual disruptive stimulation for a newborn would be that an infant would sleep less and cry more; however, in the period following male circumcision infants have an increase in light sleep and a decrease in deep sleep. 1012-1016, 1018, 1019 but they cried the same amount of time as before circumcision. Consequently, these changes in sleep pattern following male circumcision are a much more accurate measure of the stress of male circumcision than is crying.

Interruption of maternal-infant bonding and changes in breastfeeding: A study of the effects of male circumcision on maternal-infant interactions noted a trend toward fewer intervals of uninterrupted feeding, with infants who were circumcised sucking on their bottles harder, faster, and more concertedly than those not circumcised. This, in turn, made them less available to their surroundings and less able to interact with their mother. This finding lasted for approximately twenty-four hours following the procedure. Dixon et al. also established that male circumcision disrupts feeding and impairs infant/maternal attachment. In babies who breastfeed, feeding deteriorates following male circumcision. Lactation consultants noted that boys circumcised before breastfeeding has been established subsequently have more problems establishing breastfeeding. However, boys recovering from traumatic birth, but not circumcised, have fewer breastfeeding difficulties.

Death: Deaths following male circumcisions have been acknowledged for a long time, as noted in the Talmud, and unfortunately they continue today. 1024-1027 Reports of death following male circumcision have been related to exsanguination, 1028,1029 bronchopneumonia, 1030 secondary pulmonary tuberculosis, 672,1031-1033 secondary sepsis, 660 secondary meningitis, 629 and undisclosed reasons. 691 The incidence of death following male circumcision is unknown. Each year there are reports of multiple deaths in Africa of boys following their ritual male circumcision that initiates them into manhood. 1034-1047 In developed nations, the most common estimate, approximately 1 in 500,000, 1048 is at best a guess. Gairdner reported between 9 and 12 deaths out of 90,000 male circumcisions performed each year in the United Kingdom for an incidence of 1 in 7,500 to 1 in 10,000. 181

The primary obstacle to obtaining an accurate estimate of the incidence of death from male circumcision is the underreporting of male circumcision as a cause or contributor to death. Instead of listing male circumcision as a cause of death, the infection or hemorrhage/exsanguination that led to the baby's demise is listed. Incomplete and inaccurate death certificates for pediatric deaths are not uncommon. In a study of children with heritable disorders who died while in a pediatric intensive care unit, the underlying disorder was not listed on the death certificate 41% of the time. 1049

An example of this was a clinical-pathological conference published in *The Journal of* Pediatrics involving a newborn who died of an overwhelming echovirus infection. For reasons that are unclear, the patient was circumcised at 4 days of age, which "was complicated by persistent oozing of blood." While this was mentioned in the case report, the authors did not discuss the role the male circumcision may have played in the patient's fatal outcome. 1050 This struck some readers as odd that "an infant with respiratory distress and suspected of sepsis would be subjected to a stressful procedure such as a male circumcision." The authors of the case report responded that "it was the attending pediatrician's judgment that the infant had improved to the point where he did not interfere with the obstetrician's and parent's decision to go ahead with this procedure, but following the male circumcision, the clinical course rapidly deteriorated." 1052 Did the sudden deterioration in this patient coincide with the male circumcision or did the male circumcision contribute to the patient's demise? Without mention during the clinical-pathological conference of male circumcision contributing to his death, it can be assumed that male circumcision was not mentioned on the death certificate.

Of note, in England and Wales, the Registrar-General's tabulations for deaths in children under 5 years from "circumcision or phimosis" showed a dramatic drop with the decrease in the number of male circumcisions performed. During 1942-49, between 11 to 19 deaths occurred each year, while in 1950 and 1951 the number of deaths were six and one, respectively. 1053

One of the hardest comparisons for commentators on this topic to resist is that between the risk of death from male circumcision and the risk of death from penile cancer. Gellis, a highly respected pediatrician, noted that, "It is an uncontestable fact at this point that there are more deaths from complications of male circumcision than from cancer of the penis." Others have estimated that at least 41 children will die from male circumcision for each case of penile cancer prevented. It is incidence of death following male circumcision and the incidence of death following penile cancer are roughly equal, then they should be given equal weight during the disclosure portion of the informed consent procedure. Since the risk of death from male circumcision is on par with the risk of penile cancer, this deserves a prominent place in the discussion of risks, benefits, and harms.

Bollinger estimated there may be approximately 117 deaths per year in the United States that can be attributed to infant male circumcision (9.01 per 100,000). These death rates are on par with those reported in Brazil. 1057

The studies relying on data collected from databases<sup>532,591,592</sup> are only picking the low-hanging fruit, so to speak. Thus, they do not provide a valid picture of the true rates of complications. Their results are only useful as a rhetorical device for those who want to promote male circumcision, such as the American Academy of Pediatrics<sup>40,1058,1059</sup> and the writers of the CDC draft. Any discussion of their results should focus on the unreliability of this data collection method for this purpose and their role in distorting the discussion.

Throughout the CDC draft, pain is cited as a major concern by those considering the procedure. Yet, the draft glosses over the issue of pain in a brief paragraph citing a methodologically incomplete study with perhaps the highest efficacy for infant male circumcision anesthesia in the entire medical literature. As will become clear from the discussion below, the writers of the CDC draft had to dismiss a broad swath of studies in order to isolate this outlying study.

It is important to make clear that noxious stimuli are perceived as more painful in newborns compared to older children and adults. <sup>1061</sup> There are several reasons for this. First, the human brain learns following a noxious stimulus and compensates for the stimulus. With novel noxious stimuli, such as tearing the prepuce from the surface of the glans and crushing the prepuce, the brain does not know how to filter or tolerate it, so consequently the stimulus is more raw and intense in an infant. For example, an infant's spinal sensory nerve cells are more excitable than an adult's, making their spinal reflex response to a harmful stimulus more intense and prolonged. <sup>1062</sup> Second, infants do not have fully developed, fully functioning descending inhibitory nerve fibers that attenuate noxious stimuli from the periphery. Consequently, noxious stimuli that reach the brain are more intense. <sup>1062-1064</sup> Third, endogenous opioids, which are responsible for postsynaptic modulation of pain signal transmission, have levels in neonates several logarithms in magnitude lower than reported in adults. Consequently, endorphin release is unlikely to provide the neonate relief from many sort of pain. <sup>1062</sup>

Researchers typically do not study a complete evaluation of pain in newborns. For example, the study cited in the CDC draft<sup>1060</sup> used only the Neonatal/Infant Pain Scale<sup>1065</sup> to assess pain. The Neonatal/Infant Pain Scale gives a score of 0 to 2 for six factors: facial expression, crying, breathing, arm positioning, leg positioning, and alertness. Given that part of the study's protocol was to give formula, breastmilk or a 20% sucrose solution ad libitum, to restrain the arms and legs during the procedure, and to use of a pacifier, these interfered with interpretation of facial expressions and the ability to accurately assess three of the six factors of the scale. In general, scales that rely only on behavioral signs can be misleading. A pacifier can reduce crying, but will have no impact on cortisol levels.<sup>1066</sup> A lack of behavioral responses (including crying and movement) does not necessarily indicate a lack of pain.<sup>1067</sup> For example, Johnston and Stevens found strong correlations between three facial scores, but they were not related to the physiological variables, and the physiological variables did not correlate with each other.<sup>1068</sup> Slater and colleagues, after directly measuring spinal nociceptive reflex withdrawal activity and nociceptive brain activity, concluded that the reduction in

clinical observational scores following noxious events in newborns should not be interpreted as pain relief. 1069

Raw noxious stimuli are relayed to the brain via small myelinated (A delta) fibers and unmyelinated C fibers. 1062 Simultaneously, the hypothalamus triggers a chain of events that results in the adrenal glands secreting cortisol, epinephrine, and norepinephrine. Epinephrine in turn accelerates the respiratory rate, dilates the bronchi and bronchioles, potentiates muscle contraction, and increases blood pressure and heart rate. 1070 The pain message and its response are wired through a complicated, redundant, widespread neurologic information processing system with both conscious and emotive components. This network is part of the phylogenetically most primitive nervous system, and as such, is functional early in development. 1071-1074 The average newborn can differentiate the intensity or invasiveness of stimuli with the magnitude of their physiologic and behavioral responses reflecting the intensity of the stimulation. <sup>1075</sup> Pain is also largely a subjective experience, which makes assessment of pain in newborns more difficult and comparisons of pain levels in neonates with older children nearly impossible. Performing male circumcisions without anesthesia has allowed researchers to study the parameters of extreme pain in experiments that would not have been allowed on laboratory animals. 1076-1079 Some have argued that the placebo-controlled trials of various topical and local anesthetics for infant male circumcision violated the Helsinki Declaration. 1080

Because pain in the newborn is expressed in a number of ways and focusing on one modality of expression provides a limited view, studies of pain in newborns should make a broad assessment of all pain parameters in order to get a complete picture. Studies should assess all of the following. 1081

- 1. Crying: The duration and pitch of crying can give an indication of the degree of pain and stress. There is a direct relationship between cry acoustics and vagal tone. Cry duration, as opposed to cry acoustics, is not as reliable a measure of stress and pain as compared to vagal tone and cortisol levels. There is a positive correlation between cry duration and both cortisol levels and behavior state following male circumcision, except when a pacifier is used. 1018,1066
- 2. Facial expressions: A variety of facial expression and behavior state scores have been used to quantify neonatal pain, with inter-observer scores showing reasonable reproducibility. Average behavioral state scores during male circumcision are positively correlated with increases in serum cortisol levels.<sup>1019</sup>
- 3. Vital signs: Pain is associated with drops in blood oxygen levels and increases in heart rate, respiratory rate, and blood pressure.
- 4. Vagal tone: Reactivity and regulation of the autonomic nervous system, as measured by vagal tone, is a very sensitive measure of stress. A decrease in vagal tone is a quantitative indicator of the central nervous system's response to pain that parallels other measures of neonatal pain. Decreases in vagal tone are proportional to

the invasiveness of a procedure. 1062,1083

- 5. Cortisol levels: Activity in the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical axis has long been linked with the concept of stress and arousal. Cortisol levels, which can now be measured in the saliva thus avoiding the stress and pain of drawing blood, will surge as a result of pain. The rise in cortisol levels, often seen hours after the stressful event, may be the most sensitive measure of pain in a newborn. There is increasing evidence that cortisol surges may impact long-term aspects of infant development. 1016,1085-1087
- 6. One group of investigators was able to measure pain-specific brain activity recorded by electroencephalography and identified by principle component analysis. They also measured the magnitude and latency of the spinal nociceptive reflex withdrawal. This direct measure of nociceptive spinal cord and brain activity was found to be more accurate than observational pain scores and changes in facial expressions.<sup>1069</sup>

Infant male circumcision is very painful and needs to be placed within the same context as all other painful procedures performed on neonates. Gunnar et al. found male circumcision elicited more behavioral distress and evoked a larger cortisol response than blood sampling, weighing, or physical examination. 1089 In a study of post-operative pain following "minor" surgery, the pain of male circumcision was behind only tonsillectomy and orchidopexy, making it more painful than sinus surgery, otoplasty, strabismus repair, dental extraction, urethral repair, hernia repair, reset of limb fracture, and revision of the thumb. 1090 In a study of the magnitude of an infant's response to procedures, such procedures as the insertion of a gavage tube, physical examinations, nose cultures, and insertion of an umbilical arterial catheter were considered mildly invasive procedures. Arterial punctures, venous punctures, and heel sticks were considered moderately invasive procedures. Male circumcision, lumbar punctures, and eye examinations for retinopathy of prematurity were considered highly invasive procedures. 1075 In a survey of 467 clinicians (nurses and physicians) working in level II and level III nurseries asked to rate the painfulness of 12 common bedside nursery procedures, male circumcision was considered the most painful procedure (tied with chest tube insertion). Male circumcision was considered more painful than endotracheal intubation, insertion of gavage tube, tracheal suctioning, arterial or venous cutdown, lumbar puncture, intramuscular injections, insertion of an umbilical artery catheter, insertion of peripheral intravenous line, heel stick, and insertion of radial or tibial arterial catheter 1091

The signs of pain seen during infant male circumcision include surprisingly high-pitched crying, <sup>1082,1083</sup> changes in facial expressions, <sup>1019</sup> a drop in blood oxygenation with hypoxemia, <sup>1092-1099</sup> significant increases in heart rate, respiratory rate, and blood pressure, <sup>1014,1018,1019,1081,1200</sup> and a significant decrease in vagal tone. <sup>1083</sup> Direct measures of nociceptive spinal cord and brain activity during infant male circumcisions have not been reported in the medical literature. To properly assess the pain of infant male circumcision, all of these need to be measured.

Because of the highly invasive nature of infant male circumcision, providing adequate anesthesia is indicated. While United States law requires that effective anesthesia and analgesia be provided for veterinary and laboratory animals, 1077-1079 it appears this does not apply to human newborns. In an effort to alleviate the pain of male circumcision, a number of interventions have been implemented and assessed. These include comforting measures, sucrose nipple, acetaminophen, dorsal penile nerve block, topical anesthesia, injection of local anesthesia, alternative restraints, and different male circumcision methods.

Despite improvements, compared to placebo and dorsal penile nerve block, studies looking at these interventions still showed significant departures from baseline status in regards to vital signs, vagal tone, and cortisol levels, indicating that the procedure was not pain-free. Therefore, **none** of these methods have been shown to provide *adequate* anesthesia.<sup>847,1018,1019,1022,1066,1089,1093-1099,1101-1115</sup> A cynic might note that topical and local anesthetics are used in infant male circumcisions more to benefit the parents than the child.

The complications of topical and local anesthesia include bruising and hematoma formation, 847,1114,1116-1118 gangrene of the penis, 1119 and methemoglobinemia. 1119-1133

More effective methods of anesthesia, such as general anesthesia and caudal blocks, <sup>1134-1150</sup> are not used because of the difficulty, and the associated risks, of using them in infants. According to the standards established by the American Academy of Pediatrics, neonates should receive the same pain relief measures as those afforded to older children and adults. <sup>1151</sup> To accomplish this, male circumcision would need to be delayed until general anesthesia can be more safely delivered. In keeping with this recommendation, the Australasian Association of Paediatric Surgeons recommends deferring the procedure until at least six months of age. <sup>1152</sup>

Claims that male circumcision is less painful when performed on an infant have not been substantiated with any evidence. The fact that noxious stimuli are more painful for the neonate, along with the known inadequacy of topical and local anesthesia, provides evidence to the contrary. There are also differences in the procedure between infancy and later in life that make it more uncomfortable for the neonate. For the majority of males older than fifteen years of age, the inner surface of the foreskin is no longer attached to the surface of the glans. <sup>52,85,86,1153</sup> In newborns, nearly all of the glans is attached to the foreskin. Unlike circumcision of an older male, infant male circumcision requires tearing the two structures apart, which is akin to pulling a fingernail from the nail bed. This open wound is exposed until it heals within a few weeks. For an older individual, there is no open wound on the surface of the glans.

Health care providers need to include, as part of the disclosure element of the informed consent process, that currently used methods of anesthetics do not provide adequate anesthesia for the procedure, and that the procedure is still unacceptably painful when these agents are used.

Missing from this section is a recognition of the harm that accompanies removal of the foreskin, which contains nearly all of the fine touch neuroreceptors of the penis, and thus deprives the male of the functions the foreskin provides. The normal anatomy, histology, physiology, and function of the foreskin are discussed earlier in this response, but they were completely left out of the CDC's draft. Removal of this specialized tissue would be expected to result in changes in function. Harm also comes in the form of pain, and in the form of no longer being whole or feeling whole. By ignoring the harms of the intervention, the writers of the CDC draft are ignoring medical evidence and aligning themselves with the "harm denialists" on this issue.

While the sections outlining the complication rates of circumcisions performed on adults and infants in Africa are interesting, this information is peripheral and unlikely to be of interest to health care providers in the United States. As noted above, the low complication rates seen in the randomized clinical trials might indicate that complication rates are lower for male circumcisions performed on adults than on male circumcisions performed on infants.<sup>1-3,1154</sup>

Finally, one specific comment. The CDC draft includes the following statement: "In a comprehensive risk-benefit analysis of infant male circumcision based on reviews of the literature and meta-analyses it is estimated that over a lifetime, benefits exceed risks by a factor of 100." It gives as its citation an opinion piece, 33 which based its calculations on a selective bibliography and a number of other like-minded opinion pieces written by the same author 473, 1155-1159 To accept this ratio, one must live in a fantasy world where the incidence of phimosis is 10% (instead of 0.6% 457), where the incidence of balanitis is 10%(instead of 0.65% to 4%<sup>541,543</sup>), where circumcision is a risk factor for urinary tract infection in elderly men in their dotage (it is not one), where hypertension and end-stage renal disease are associated with urinary tract infections (they are not), where prostate cancer risk is lower in circumcised men (it is not), where penile cancer is 20 times more common in intact males (instead of at most 3 times<sup>455</sup>), where HPV and herpes risk is reduced by male circumcision (it is not), where cervical cancer risk is associated with the circumcision status of the male sexual partner (no studies have found such an association), where risk of infection is 0.2% (instead of 1% to 2%), where the risk of bleeding is 0.1% (instead of 1% to 2%), where the risk of repeated surgery/skin bridges is 0.1% (instead of 4% to 12%<sup>46,186</sup>), where meatal stenosis never happens (instead of 5% to 20%, 186,533-537 and where there is never a loss of sensitivity or any sexual dysfunction following male circumcision. If one takes the complication rate compiled reviewing the charts of newborn males by the CDC (3.1%)<sup>6</sup> as a baseline and applies the 100:1 ratio, then every circumcised man should reap, on average, 3.1 benefits being circumcised. This is patently absurd. So, why would the writers of the CDC draft accept and propagate a ratio, from an opinion piece written by an individual whose scientific rigor in these matters has been called into question repeatedly, 1160 that is clearly implausible? Why did they not perform a comprehensive literature review of their own? What has the CDC been doing on this topic for the past seven years? Clearly, reference to this preposterous "ratio," and the opinion piece that generated it, needs to be deleted from the final draft. Any health care provider that informs a parent or patient that the ratio of benefits to risk exceeds 100:1 is putting themselves at risk of a lawsuit for

making such a wildly unsubstantiated claim. It has been argued that, by taking the scientifically unsupported position it has, the American Academy of Pediatrics is susceptible to successful litigation for misleading health care providers. 1161

**RESPONSE 80:** See responses 1, 6 and 48. The reviewer's listing of reported adverse events is in isolation and does not describe the proportion of circumcised males that experience such an adverse event, or how the rate of adverse events differs between circumcised and uncircumcised males or whether such events occurred as a result of medical or ritual male circumcision. Based on a meta-analysis of 22 studies, most of which were based in the U.S., it is estimated that 32.1% (95% CI = 15.6 - 49.8) of uncircumcised men compared with 8.8% (95% CI = 4.15 - 13.2) of circumcised men will experience a UTI in their lifetime, suggesting that lack of male circumcision is associated with a 23.3% increased risk of UTI during a man's lifetime.

#### **COMMENT:**

## Effect of male circumcision on sexual function and penile sensation

The material presented in this section of the background document is highly selective and ignores studies indicating male circumcision has a negative impact on sexual function and penile sensation. It also misrepresents the findings of some of the studies cited.

There are a number of important omissions. For example, the 2007 study by Sorrells et al. "expressed concern that its [the foreskin's] removal may compromise sexual sensation or function," based on their mapping of the fine-touch thresholds of the penile surface in 68 circumcised men and 91 men with normal, intact genitals. Mapping revealed that the most sensitive portion of the penis is that which is removed by circumcision, the circumcision scar is the most sensitive location on the circumcised penis, and the sensitivity of the glans (head) of the penis is significantly less in circumcised men. Decreased sensitivity in the glans when flaccid in circumcised men has been documented in two other studies that the CDC draft has omitted. Decreased sensitivity significant using the raw data, but was no longer statistically significant when adjusted for age, hypertension, and diabetes. In the other study with only 20 men in each group, the difference is shown in Figure 2, but the data are not provided and the significance of the difference is not assessed.

The section fails to mention that the penilo-cavernosus reflex, which is related to the ejaculation process, is significantly more difficult to elicit in circumcised men than in men with normal genitals. This may contribute to the higher rates of sexual dysfunction seen in circumcised men.

In addressing studies that looked at penile problems in men before and after circumcision, the CDC draft demonstrates several important oversights. For example, in the 2002 study by Fink et al., they fail to mention that men in this study reported a significant reduction in erectile function (p=.01) and decreased penile sensitivity (p=.08). A perceived problem or difficulty as a result of the procedure was reported by 38% of

the men studied. 1162 The 2002 study by Collins et al. would, because of its small size, not be expected to provide any results that were statistically significant. This is unfortunate because, of the 15 men who were circumcised as adults, all but one had a penile problem. The fact that there was no measured improvement in sex drive, erection, ejaculation, problem assessment, or overall satisfaction suggests that the procedure was a failure. 1163 There are a number of similar studies the draft has omitted. For example, Coursey and colleagues included a control group of men who were circumcised for "phimosis or other benign indication" in a study designed to measure the impact of anterior urethroplasty on erectile function. Of the men who underwent circumcision, 27% reported worsening of their erectile function after the procedure. 1164 In a study of 95 men undergoing circumcision in China, erectile dysfunction increased following the procedure (p=.001). These men also reported increased problems with weakened erectile confidence (p=.04), and difficult insertion during coitus (p=.03). Improved satisfaction following the male circumcision was reported in only 34 patients (p=.04). 116 Similarly, a study from Portugal of 62 men circumcised for medical reasons reported a significant increase in erectile dysfunction and difficulty reaching orgasm following male circumcision. 1165

The CDC draft mentions two other studies in passing, 1166,1167 without providing details. The first study was performed in Turkey where most men undergo circumcision to satisfy a religious requirement, making it difficult to properly interpret the results. 1166 In the second study, while there was no difference in the overall mean of the International Index of Erectile Function, satisfaction was only 61% following the procedure. 1167

The draft mentions the results of two studies that assessed sexual function before and after circumcision in men who were enrolled in the randomized clinical trials in Kenya and Uganda. 1168, 1169 Because these studies were large and part of a randomized clinical trial, the results have been given more weight than they deserve. There are several reasons to distrust their conclusions. The studies from Africa show rates of sexual dysfunction that were orders of magnitude lower than studies performed outside of Africa. For example, in the study by Krieger et al. 1168 the prevalence of premature ejaculation was 4.27% (95%CI 3.12%-5.41%) and the prevalence of trouble achieving orgasm was 1.26% (95%Cl 0.62%-1.89%) while the prevalence in the other studies performed outside Africa were 30.59% (95%CI=29.74%-31.43%) and 11.19% (95%CI=10.61%-11.77%), respectively. In the study by Kigozi et al., 1169 the prevalence of lack of sexual desire was 0.80% (95%CI 0.35%-1.25%) while the prevalence in the other studies was 28.83% (95%CI 27.99%-29.66%). Similarly, the two African studies together had a prevalence of erectile dysfunction of 0.93% (95%CI 0.57%-1.29%) and prevalence of dyspareunia of 1.13% (95%CI 0.72%-1.54%), while the prevalence in other studies was 18.16% (95%CI 17.47%-18.88%) and 3.47% (95%CI 3.13%-3.81%). respectively. These vast differences suggest either cultural differences in what these conditions entail, unwillingness to disclose the presence of sexual dysfunction, or the coercive impact of the large subsidies men received for their participation in the studies. These subsidies could explain their eagerness to tell the researchers what the researchers wanted to hear. Of course, it could be that these sexual problems occur 3 to 36 times less frequently in Africa. If that is the case, as someone jokingly suggested,

Uganda and Kenya should consider developing tourism campaigns that would tout coming to these countries for the "best sexual experiences on the planet."

The extremely low rates of sexual problems that were documented in Africa are examples of both the element of ceiling effect 1170 and of asking non-differentiating questions. With sexual satisfaction measured at rates exceeding 98% when surveyed both before and after circumcision, there is no room to move up (thus pinned against the ceiling). It is also not known how high the level of satisfaction actually is because the ceiling (the limitation of the assessment tool) acts as a barrier. For example, if the ceiling score is set at 100 and the average score before male circumcision was 125, the best one could score would be 100 because of the ceiling in place. The few scores below 100 would bring the average to slightly below this. If the average score after male circumcision was 112 (a 10% decrease), the best one could score would be 100, so the score after male circumcision would be similar and this 10% decrease would not be detected. Similarly, a 10% increase in the score following male circumcision would also be missed using the tools these researchers employed. Consequently, the negative findings of these studies are meaningless.

The questions asked in the survey were also so vague that they would not have been able to demonstrate a difference in sexual function, if one existed. As Morten Frisch, MD, has noted, "I am not surprised that these studies provided little evidence of a link between male circumcision and various sexual difficulties. Several questions were too vague to capture possible differences between circumcised and not-yet circumcised participants (e.g. lack of a clear distinction between intercourse and masturbation-related sexual problems and no distinction between premature ejaculation and trouble or inability to reach orgasm). Thus, non-differential misclassification of sexual outcomes in these African trials probably favoured the null hypothesis of no difference, whether an association was truly present or not."

The draft omits mention of several studies that have addressed the impact of male circumcision on sexual function and how it impacts the female sexual partner. A 1999 study of women who had sexual experiences with both intact and circumcised men found that they strongly preferred sex with an intact penis. While this study may have suffered from selection bias, as the participants were volunteers who responded to an announcement in an anti-male circumcision newsletter and classified advertisements in magazines, its results were replicated in a cross-sectional national survey in Denmark. The Danish survey demonstrated that the female sexual partners of circumcised men were significantly less likely to have their sexual needs fulfilled (adjusted OR 2.09; 95%CI 1.05-4.16), significantly more likely to have sexual function difficulties (adjusted OR 3.26; 95%CI 1.07-6.66), and dyspareunia (painful intercourse) (adjusted OR 8.45; 95%CI 3.01-23.74).

This Danish study also documented that circumcised men were more likely to report frequent orgasm difficulties (adjusted OR 3.26; 95%Cl 1.42–7.47). In a survey of 1059 normal and 310 circumcised men, Bronselaer and colleagues reported that circumcised men were significantly more likely to report decreased sexual pleasure,

lower orgasm intensity, more effort required to achieve orgasm, unusual sensations on their glans (burning, prickling, itching, or tingling and numbness), and discomfort and pain on the penile shaft.<sup>1173</sup>

The draft does not address the issue of premature ejaculation. One Turkish study found that following male circumcision, the intra-vaginal ejaculation latency time increased by 20 seconds (a statistically significant difference), which certainly should be enough extra time to help their female partners achieve orgasm. 1174 While several studies have shown no difference in the rates of premature ejaculation between normal and circumcised men, 1175,1176 this does not mean that studies in which a statistically significant difference is found can be ignored. For example, a study by Tang et al. found a four-fold increase in premature ejaculation in circumcised men (adjusted OR 4.881; 95%CI 2.346-10.153). 1177 In a representative household sample of Australian men. circumcised men were significantly more likely to report premature ejaculation (OR 1.41; 95%CI 1.14-1.75) and erectile dysfunction (OR 1.39; 95%CI 1.08-1.79). 1178 This was consistent with an earlier Australian survey that found circumcised males were more likely to report premature ejaculation (OR 1.28; 95%CI1.15-1.42). 1179 The studies of the effect of male circumcision on sexual function indicate a negative impact. 1180 It also warrants mention in the informed consent discussion that male circumcision may have a deleterious impact on sexual function, but further study is needed to fully evaluate the impact.

The CDC draft only performed a cursory exploration of whether male circumcision impacts sexual function or penile sensitivity and only cited negative studies while ignoring the many positive studies. Their discussion is inadequate and not evidence-based.

**RESPONSE 81:** See responses 1, 6. New citations added to this section strengthen CDC's original conclusions. See review article by Morris.<sup>54</sup>

### **COMMENT:**

# Considerations related to male circumcision in the United States

## **HIV infection in the United States**

The material presented in this section of the background document is incomplete and somewhat misleading.

It should be noted that while the HIV prevalence is high in several cities, the male circumcision prevalence, especially among African-Americans, is high as well.

The statement, "Circumcision is likely to play a role in preventing HIV among men who engage in unprotected heterosexual vaginal sex, especially in communities where prevalence of HIV infection among women is high or among men with multiple sex partners," is another restatement of the CDC "group think" presumption, and has no

#### factual foundation.

The discussion about which ethnic and racial groups should be targeted for male circumcision is moot. As discussed elsewhere, the medical evidence indicates that the only population that should be targeted for possible discussion of male circumcision are HIV-negative men who have regular sexual contact with an HIV-positive female sexual partner. And, as modeling by the CDC has demonstrated, male circumcision has very little impact over the long term in how frequently these men will become infected.<sup>340</sup>

While HIV infections continue to occur in the United States, most infections are in men having sex with men and intravenous drug users, groups that will not benefit from male circumcision. If male circumcision was to have a protective effect against female-to-male transmission of HIV, one would have expected the United States to have a lower prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV than similarly situated developed countries with low male circumcision rates. The prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV is several times higher in the United States than in Europe. The United States has already completed the male circumcision experiment, and the results show it has failed to protect its population from HIV infections. Our experience in the United States indicates that male circumcision is a factor that is not worthy of the attention that CDC has expended on promoting it. This is a complete waste of taxpayers' money both here and in Africa. Taxpayers would be astounded at the amount of their money being used to fund programs in Africa involving mass male circumcisions promoted by propaganda campaigns, unethical solicitation, coercion, and misinformation.

**RESPONSE** 82: See responses 2, 18, 19, In addition, responses to these concerns have been adequately addressed previously. 55,56

### COMMENT:

# Rates of male circumcision in the United States

The material presented in this section of the background document is fairly straight forward, but there are some additions and corrections that need to be made.

While it is true that male circumcision unrelated to religious beliefs was introduced into the United States in the late 1800s, it needs to be added that male circumcision was introduced as a "cure" for masturbation. A more appropriate citation for this is also needed. The current citation, 1181 does not give the complete title of the book (*Circumcision: Timely Information for Parents and Professionals from America's #1 Expert on Circumcision*) and is not written by a medical historian, but rather an unabashed circumcision advocate. Several other citations, written by medical historians would be more appropriate. 1182-1185

**RESPONSE 83:** The citation has been edited to read the full title: Schoen EJ. On circumcision: Timely Information for Parents and Professionals from America's #1 Expert on Circumcision. Berkley: RBR Books; 2005.

#### COMMENT:

There needs to be an acknowledgement that we do not have a mechanism in place in this country to accurately determine the number of infant males being circumcised here. For example, one 1968 study found that 30% of circumcisions were not documented in hospital discharge summaries, 1186 and another extensive chart review performed by the CDC found that 15.7% of male circumcisions that are documented in medical charts were not documented on the facesheet, from which data are collected into databases. Likewise, self-report of male circumcision status is often unreliable. Likewise in the several studies have indicated that the male circumcision rate in blacks is similar or higher than in non-Hispanic whites. For example, data from Atlanta from 1985 to 1986 by the CDC found that 95.9% of blacks were circumcised as opposed to 86.7% of whites (OR 3.75; 95%CI 1.58-10.25). Mor et al., in a study of 58,598 male patients in San Francisco, found that, in males born in 1960 or after, blacks were more likely to be circumcised than non-Hispanic whites. Similarly, Mansfield et al. found 86.8% of blacks were circumcised as opposed to 89.6% of whites (OR 1.30; 95%CI 0.95-1.79).

The assertion that male circumcision is more common among newborns born to families of higher socioeconomic status may no longer be true. It may have been true when data were collected in 1988 to 2000, 1193 [Note that CDC185 reference lists the authors of the study incorrectly] but there is increasing evidence that as maternal education levels increase male circumcision rates decrease. With the advent of the internet and medical literature searches available to the public, parents with higher levels of education are increasingly choosing not to circumcise their sons. This is consistent with the fact that physicians are less likely to circumcise their sons as compared to the populations they serve. 112

The purpose of this section is unclear. The reader should take away two clear conclusions: first, that the rate of infant male circumcision in United States is declining; second, that the method of collecting male circumcision prevalence data is highly flawed and unreliable. It is unclear whether the purpose of the section was to raise alarm over the falling male circumcision rates or to reassure male circumcision advocates that all is not lost. In either case, the inclusion of this section in the draft needs further justification.

**RESPONSE 84:** Scientifically rigourous methods have been used to describe the prevalence of neonatal male circumcision in the U.S. In a study using hospital discharge data from the 2000 – 2010 Nationwide Inpatient Sample, male circumcision incidence decreased significantly from 61.3% in 2000 to 56.9% in 2010 and overall remained higher for newborn hospitalizations covered by private insurance compared with Medicaid (66.9% vs 44.0%).<sup>57</sup> During this same time period, the proportion of male newborn hospitalizations nationwide with Medicaid coverage increased from 36.0% in 2000 to 50.1% in 2010.<sup>57</sup>

### COMMENT:

# Acceptability of adult male circumcision in the United States

The material presented in this section of the background document is tainted by an underlying false assumption: that American men and adolescent males who have normal genitals are at increased risk for heterosexual acquisition of HIV. As discussed elsewhere, the data do not support this assumption. With that in mind, one has to assess whether the data collection documented in this section was based on their faulty premise. The authors of the 2008 CDC study by Begley et al. asked gay men, "If Scientific studies in the United States among men who have sex with men showed that circumcision reduced the risk of HIV infection, would you be willing to be circumcised as an adult?"1194 Given that, as discussed elsewhere, there is no evidence of male circumcision being a risk factor for HIV infection in men having sex with men, the question carries as much validity as asking, "If the moon is made of cheese, would you prefer that it be cheddar or gouda?" The authors in the CDC 2011 study by Gust et al. also clearly begin with an unproven assumption. 1195 [The citation as given in the draft does not list the authors correctly.] The question asked in the survey was, "If your health care provider told you that getting circumcised would reduce your risk of becoming infected with HIV, how likely would you be to get circumcised?" The study did not include a control question which would be, "If your health care provider told you that there is no evidence in the United States to suggest that circumcision reduces the risk of HIV in United States how likely would you be to get circumcised?" By not including this alternative question, it is impossible to know how much of the response is based on scare tactics alone. It would appear that the scare tactics have continued and are now extended to this draft. The low response rate of normal men willing to undergo circumcision, even in the face of the CDC's scare tactics, reflects that men with normal genitals recognize the value of having normal genitals and would be willing to pursue other, more effective, avenues of decreasing their risk of HIV infection.

The statement, "Adult and adolescent male circumcision potentially has the largest impact on HIV acquisition in populations in which a low percentage of males are circumcised and there is a high risk for HIV transmission through penile-vaginal sex," is not applicable in the United States for several reasons. There is no evidence that male circumcision has an impact on risk of HIV transmission through penile-vaginal sex, as the randomized controlled trials in Africa did not assess the origins or mode of transmission of the infections they documented. 1-3 As discussed elsewhere, none of the studies in North America of heterosexually- transmitted HIV infections have found male circumcision to be a significant risk factor. 8-15 Finally, the United States has, by developed-nation standards, a very high prevalence of male circumcision and a very high prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV. As noted in this section of the draft, African-Americans have the highest prevalence of heterosexually-transmitted HIV, but the CDC neglects to mention that African-Americans also have the highest prevalence of male circumcision, on par with non-Hispanic whites. If anything, this would indicate that male circumcision is either a marker for other socio-behavioral or ethnic factors, or, if it has an impact on HIV risk, it is clinically inconsequential and, therefore, not worthy of pursuit. It appears as though the CDC is trying to create additional demand for male circumcision in an unreceptive market. Consequently, the recommendations for the

intended audience of health care providers are unjustified and inappropriate.

**RESPONSE 84a:** See responses 1, 2, 3, 18, 19, 28, 64. While the authors of the article by Begley, et al, note that one of their limitations was that "overall willingness to be circumcised was not assessed separately from willingness to be circumcised if scientific evidence demonstrated a reduced risk of HIV acquisition" and thus they "were not able to compare whether the decision to be circumcised would be influenced by the evidence to support the effectiveness of male circumcision in the reduction in risk of HIV acquisition." they were able to show that "despite these complexities, we have shown that the majority of uncircumcised MSM may be willing to be circumcised as adults if this was recommended as an HIV prevention intervention in the United States". While the MSM who participated in the survey by Begley et al. represented a convenience sample and were not necessarily representative of all MSM attending the gay pride events, the response rate was high; 1127 (77%) of 1457 men approached to participate in the survey at the seven gay pride events, agreed to be surveyed. One hundred and twenty-seven of 133 (95%) men who reported being uncircumcised provided complete responses to the questions related to the risk and benefits of male circumcision and were able to be included in the final multivariable analysis. In addition, in a crosssectional study of heterosexual African American men attending an STD clinic in Baltimore, with an overall HIV seroprevalence of 3%, among 394 visits by men who had female sexual partners who were known to be infected with HIV, male circumcision was significantly associated with a 51% reduced relative prevalence of HIV infection (10.2% among circumcised men vs. 22.0% among uncircumcised men).<sup>58</sup> CDC's background document indicates that "the overall estimated prevalence of male circumcision among men and adolescents aged 14-59 years in the U.S who participated in the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey during 2005-2010, was 80.5% and also varied by race/ethnicity (90.8% in non-Hispanic whites, 75.7% in non-Hispanic blacks, and 44% in Mexican Americans); therefore, non-Hispanic blacks and Hispanics had an approximately 15% and 46.8% lower prevalence of male circumcision, respectively, than non-Hispanic whites<sup>59</sup>. Because HIV transmission to heterosexual men reporting sexual relations with an HIV-infected female accounted for 8% of new HIV diagnoses in 2014 and similarly 8% of persons living with HIV in the United States in 2013,60 uncircumcised heterosexual males and parents of male infants should be counseled about the evidence at hand and allowed to make their own decision regarding the decision to undergo male circumcision to have their male infant undergo male circumcision.

## **COMMENT:**

# Acceptability of adult male circumcision in sub-Saharan Africa

The material presented in this section of the background document has little or nothing to do with how male circumcision relates to HIV infection in North America. Since when is the CDC the arbitrator of health care in Africa? And, why is our tax money being used to promote a surgery of unproven benefit in Africa? How is this part of the charge that was given to the CDC by the "consultation" in 2007?

A little history lesson: generating acceptability of adult male circumcision in sub-Saharan Africa began as an important precursor to the randomized clinical trials. While male circumcision advocates believed that they made a legitimate case based on a handful of observational studies for using male circumcision as a preventive measure for HIV infection, 31,1196-1198 mainstream HIV researchers demanded randomized clinical trials. 1199 For a randomized clinical trial in Africa to demonstrate a statistically significant difference, it needed to be powered to document a 1% absolute risk reduction. Consequently, several thousand participants would need to be recruited.<sup>236,237</sup> In order to garner enough participants, the investigators for the randomized clinic trials implemented sessions within the communities in which the trials were to take place that disseminated pro-male circumcision propaganda under the guise of assessing acceptability of male circumcision as a strategy to reduce sexually transmitted diseases and HIV infection. 1200-1207 These propaganda sessions had three effects: they convinced enough men to enroll in the overpowered clinical trials, they introduced an expectation bias on the part of the participants, and they undermined the validity of the informed consent process in the trials. Given the pro-male circumcision bias of the researchers, it is unlikely that participants were given full disclosure, particularly regarding the harms of the procedure. This is evident in the consent form used in the trial undertaken in South Africa, in which none of the adverse effects of male circumcision are listed. There is direct evidence that participants did not show understanding of what was told to them as most (57%) believed, even after disclosure, that male circumcision would reduce their risk of infections. 211,212 This would certainly affect the behavior of the participants and contribute to participant expectation bias. So much for equipoise. 1208

The effectiveness of the propaganda campaign was based on illusory or fabricated factors designed to increase the acceptability of male circumcision. For example, there is no evidence that male circumcision improves hygiene. There is no evidence that male circumcision improves the use of condoms, but there is evidence that condoms slip off more frequently in circumcised men. There is no evidence that male circumcision increases sexual pleasure, but, as discussed above, ample evidence to suggest that male circumcision interferes with the sexual pleasure of both the male and his female partner. The evidence that male circumcision protects against sexually transmitted infections is, as discussed elsewhere, also lacking.

The propaganda campaign had an interesting unexpected impact on women. For example, while women in Tanzania had heard the expression "partial protection," they had no idea what it meant. <sup>1210</sup> In a South African study, it was found that women who perceived male circumcision as reducing the risk of HIV infection were less likely to use condoms in their last sexual encounter, generally, and with circumcised partners of positive or unknown HIV status. Men were more likely to use condoms. <sup>1211</sup> Similar findings have been reported from Kenya. <sup>1212</sup>

There is also the belief among women in some parts of Africa that male circumcision reduces the male-to-female transmission of HIV, 1213 where the opposite may be the case. 338 This indicates that the impact of male circumcision on risk compensation in

Africa may be driven more by the attitudes and misperceptions of women than those of men. Women may be the ones more susceptible to, or aware of, the advertising and marketing endeavors of those promoting male circumcision.

A major barrier to the rollout of adult male circumcision in Africa was that acceptability of the intervention for HIV prevention was much lower than the male circumcision advocates had anticipated. They believed that, if it could be demonstrated in randomized clinical trials that male circumcision reduced the risk of HIV infection, normal African men would swarm to have their foreskins removed. This did not happen. There was some initial interest in male circumcision programs from men who, likely for religious or cultural reasons, would have requested male circumcision anyway and saw this as an opportunity to obtain a free male circumcision performed under more sterile conditions. By 2012, with the exception of Kenya, the roll out of adult male circumcision programs has been an abysmal failure. For example, of the men targeted to be circumcised only 4.8% have been in Uganda, 0.7% in Rwanda, 11.1% in Zambia, 1.5% in Namibia, 6.5% in Botswana, 7.0% in South Africa, 12.7% in Tanzania, 0.4% in Malawi, 2.9% in Zimbabwe, 4.7% in Mozambigue, and 0.2% in Lesotho. Only Kenya, Swaziland, and Ethiopia had a response rate over 20%. 1214 In response to the poor uptake, male circumcision advocates held sessions at the 2012 XIX International AIDS Conference in Washington, DC, to announce that male medical circumcision was being rebranded as a way of building intimacy and improving one's sex life with the phrase "Reshape your Relationship." Since women tend to take responsibility for "relationships," the advertising is shifting towards women, who ironically are more likely than men to encourage risk compensation, and women are more at risk of becoming infected with HIV from their male partners. 1212,1213

Over 100 articles have been published assessing the rollout of adult male circumcision in Africa. Nearly all of them have focused on the wrong outcome: increasing the number of men circumcised. Instead, the focus should be on looking for the most effective and efficient way of reducing the number of people who become infected with HIV.

To give you an example of how pathetically desperate male circumcision advocates are to increase the acceptability of adult male circumcision in Africa, the *Journal of the American Medical Association* in 2014 published a study to determine what impact **bribing** African men would have on the acceptability of male circumcision in Kenya. When offered a free male circumcision without any bribe, only 1.6% of intact men were interested. When a bribe worth \$15 was offered, the number of men accepting the bribe increased the percentage to 9.0%. 1214 Keep in mind that Gross National Income per capita in Kenya in 2013 was \$1160, 1215 this would be equivalent to a \$691 bribe in the United States (\$53,470 GNI per capita in 2013). 1216 Models of the impact of male circumcision on overall HIV incidence in Africa reported their results based on reaching compliance levels of 55%, 229 60%, 220 70%, 230 80%, 222,225,228 95%, 224 and 100%. 221,223,226,227,231,232 If one assumes that the increase in compliance has a linear relationship to an increase in the amount of the bribe offered, then the bribe amount needed for the percentage to increase from 59% to 60% would be \$147.81 and to increase from 79% to 80% would be \$199.89. The average bribe needed to get to 60%

compliance would be \$71.60 and to get to 80% would be \$97.49. The cost of these inducements would more than double the marginal costs of the male circumcision programs. If the relationship between compliance and the amount of bribe is non-linear, the cost to bribe men to get circumcised might be even greater. Other adult male circumcision programs in Africa have resorted to bribery to get men to participate. Bribery and coercion tactics violate basic research ethics and would not be allowed in the US, so how is this allowable in Africa?

The call for African men to become circumcised has also led to a number of men and boys being forcibly circumcised. 1218-1227 Given tribal tensions, between tribes that traditionally circumcise and those that do not, this was a predictable consequence of the widespread propaganda encouraging male circumcision. There have also been reports of boys being told they would not be allowed to play football (soccer) unless they were circumcised.

Efforts to increase the acceptability of adult male circumcision in sub-Saharan Africa are based on misinformation and deception, consequently, the material in this section is inappropriate, and fraudulent. African male circumcision has little or nothing to do with the United States and other developed countries.

RESPONSE: See responses 10, 18, 19, 23

#### COMMENT:

# Acceptability of newborn male circumcision in the United States

The material presented in this section of the background document misses several key points. The CDC draft fails to mention that the acceptability of newborn male circumcision in the United States may be, in part, driven by the fact that the procedure is solicited by physicians, nurses, and hospitals. At the first prenatal visit, mothers are routinely asked whether they would want a son circumcised. The question is repeated upon admission for the perinatal hospitalization. For parents who have done little or no research on the topic of infant circumcision, this can be interpreted as a recommendation to have the procedure performed on their son. Parents who do not want their sons circumcised have often reported that they are asked multiple times during the hospitalization whether they want their son circumcised, with many of them reporting that they are harassed and outright bullied by the hospital staff. The degree to which parents are intimidated into circumcising their sons has received little study. 1228 Such solicitation is considered unethical under the guidelines of the American Medical Association because the procedure removes healthy tissue, and male circumcision will benefit the physician's and hospital's pocketbook more than it will benefit the patient. 1229

**RESPONSE 85:** The CDC recommendations provide added unbiased scientific information that assists parents in making a decision about whether to circumcise their child. The counseling recommendations state that the decision to circumcise is that of the parents of the male infant or the adults considering male circumcision.

#### COMMENT:

This CDC section fails to address the impact of the physician's male circumcision status on the advice delivered to parents. In a survey of Canadian physicians, circumcised male physicians were almost five times as likely to recommend male circumcision (OR 4.76; 95%CI 3.00-7.55) and those physicians with circumcised sons were six times more likely to recommend male circumcision to the parents of their male patients (OR 6.22; 95%CI 3.83-10.10). Those who said they based their recommendation on the medical evidence were twice as likely to recommend against male circumcision (OR 1.95; 95%CI 1.29-2.95). One can only speculate whether this CDC draft has been influenced similarly. It is reasonable to question whether the male circumcision status of a physician or the physician's children, and the associated bias thereof, should be disclosed to parents. The same could be said regarding the authors of this draft and whether their inherent biases should be disclosed to the public.

**RESPONSE:** See response 85.

### **COMMENT:**

Whether parents have the moral or legal authority to choose circumcision on behalf of their sons will be discussed in a later section. Parents do not have to provide a justification in order to direct the health care provider to circumcise their son, unlike the removal of any other healthy body part. Likewise, physicians would not agree to blithely removing any other healthy normal body part from an infant or child without a disease being present. As noted in the citations given in the draft report, studies of the reasons parents choose circumcision for their sons have not been updated since the 1980s. 923,1231 If these studies were to be repeated today, cultural conformity would likely be the most common justification.

**RESPONSE:** See response 22.

### **COMMENT:**

The authors of this section accept the interpretation provided by Adler et al. of their survey data, which reflects the bias of the study's authors more than the data they collected. 1232 The study indicates that physicians were not supportive of parents deciding not to circumcise their sons and perhaps berated them for not doing so. The conclusions reached by the authors is not surprising. The parents of intact boys, by virtue of being asked so many questions about circumcision, would have to wonder if there was something about male circumcision they were not told. If, however, complete disclosure, consistent with the current standard applied to other procedures, were provided, parents who had already chosen to circumcise their sons would not want to be confronted with the litany of complications and harms associated with the procedure. Their minds are already made up and providing information has little impact. 1233 [This is another citation that has not been updated. The article was published in 2010.] For these parents, any information is too much. It would have been more appropriate for the

survey to have asked if too much information was provided. This is a clear example of expectation bias on the part of researchers impacting the methodology of a study to ensure the preconceived outcome was obtained.

**RESPONSE 85a:** See response 6. The citation by Wang. Et al. 2010 has been updated in the CDC background document.

### **COMMENT:**

The study by Gust et al. is perhaps more contrived. The study collected data based on an unproven premise: that infant male circumcision would have an impact on HIV risk in the United States. As noted elsewhere, there are no studies of infant male circumcision that have demonstrated a significant association with HIV prevalence or incidence, and no studies in North America that have found male circumcision to be protective against HIV infection. This is another example of asking, "If the moon is made of cheese etc.?" The study by Wang et al. is also based on a similar faulty premise. 1233

**RESPONSE:** See responses 18 and 19.

The study by Gust et al.<sup>61</sup> cited by the reviewer focuses on adult male circumcision, not infant male circumcision. (note: See CDC citation 59; same as reviewer citation 1195).

While there are no longitudinal studies demonstrating a significant association with infant male circumcision and HIV prevalence or incidence, ecologic studies demonstrate a strong association between lack of male circumcision and HIV infection at the population level. Although links between male circumcision, culture, religion, and risk behavior likely account for some of the differences in HIV infection prevalence, the countries in Africa and Asia with prevalence of male circumcision of less than 20% have HIV-infection prevalence several times as high (seroprevalence range: 0.24 – 25.84) than countries in those regions where more than 80% of men are circumcised (seroprevalence range: 0.03-11.64).<sup>49</sup> Based on data from an HIV transmission model fitted to data from the Four Cities Study, including 2 cities in sub-Saharan Africa with relatively low HIV prevalence (Cotonou and Yaoundé) and 2 with high HIV prevalence (Kisumu and Ndola), investigators concluded that differences in rates of male circumcision likely played an important role in differing rates of HIV transmission across Africa.<sup>50</sup> ENREF 62 Results from such ecologic studies are important as most male circumcisions globally are thought to occur during infancy, childhood, or adolescence, suggesting that male circumcision at an earlier age confers a long term reduction in risk for HIV acquisition. The fact that male circumcision performed during the neonatal period is associated with fewer and less severe side effects compared to male circumcision performed during adulthood is one of the most important reasons that most male circumcisions are performed neonatally in the U.S.

One of the studies<sup>58</sup> reported by the reviewer as evidence that no studies in North America have found male circumcision to be protective against HIV infection actually did

find that among visits of heterosexual African American men attending an STD clinic in Baltimore who had female sexual partners who were known to be infected with HIV, male circumcision was significantly associated with a 51% reduced relative prevalence of HIV infection (10.2% among circumcised men vs. 22.0% among uncircumcised men). Another two of the studies cited by the reviewer as lack of evidence of the protective effect of male circumcision against HIV infection did not adequately address this question. Although a study of male circumcision and HIV in an urban STI/HIV prevention treatment center found that circumcised men were more likely than uncircumcised men to have HIV infection (circumcised men = 43% vs uncircumcised men= 33.9%, p = 0.23), they also noted that at last sexual intercourse, circumcised men were also more likely to report unprotected receptive anal intercourse (circumcised men = 43.8% vs uncircumcised men = 20.4%, P = 0.025)<sup>62</sup>. In a naval study of male circumcision and HIV status, HIV-infected case participants identified through HIV testing in medical referral centers were compared to control participants from a general aircraft carrier population who were assumed to be HIV-uninfected due to negative results on a predeployment HIV screening test. 63 Because enlisted men can seroconvert during deployment, the results of the study may have compromised if controls included both HIV-uninfected and men who HIV-seroconverted after the predeployment evaluation. Although the authors of the naval study found no significant association between HIV and male circumcision status, they underscored the importance of results from randomized clinical trials.

#### COMMENT:

The inclusion in this section of whether or not there is state Medicaid coverage of infant male circumcision is inappropriate and irrelevant. The only reason to include this topic would be because the CDC has an underlying motivation to promote male circumcision in order to increase demand for male circumcisions, thereby increasing physician reimbursement. It has been argued that under the current federal statute, it is illegal for states to reimburse physicians for performing male circumcisions on infants as it is an "unnecessary, elective, cosmetic surgery on healthy boys, usually performed for cultural, personal or religious reasons." While there is an association between Medicaid coverage and infant male circumcision rates, it does not follow, as Leibowitz et al. suggest, [Again the citation in the draft fails to include all of the authors.] that providing Medicaid coverage would increase the male circumcision rates in these states where the rates have been historically low.

**RESPONSE** 86: Because of the benefits associated with male circumcision outweigh the risks of male circumcision, parents should have financial access to this procedure. (AAP 2013) For this reason, a discussion of Medicaid coverage is appropriate.

#### COMMENT:

## Acceptability of newborn male circumcision in sub-Saharan Africa

The material presented in this section is totally ludicrous. Why should the United States

care about uninformed opinions regarding infant circumcision from propagandized Africans?

The material in this section is not evidence-based, but based on uninformed opinions of populations that are vulnerable to false propaganda.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1, 6, 18, and 19.

#### COMMENT:

## Provider attitudes and practices regarding male circumcision in the United States

The material presented in this section is incomplete with multiple omissions. For example, it is stated that "many medical societies have addressed neonatal male circumcision," yet only the American Medical Association, the American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Academy of Family Physicians, and American Urological Association are cited. Many medical societies outside of the United States *have* addressed neonatal male circumcision. It is odd that the draft report is taking a global perspective when assessing the acceptability of adult and infant male circumcision in Africa, yet is provincial when it comes to the opinions of medical societies. Is there something in the opinions of medical societies outside of the United States that authors of this draft find troublesome? The draft needs to include the opinions of medical societies outside of the United States. More importantly, the CDC needs to provide insight on how they have access to "special knowledge" that the rest of world is missing, which led them to reach such a discordant conclusion.

The Royal Dutch Medical Association in 2010 noted that there is no convincing evidence that infant male circumcision, which constitutes a human rights violation, is useful or necessary, and there are good reasons for legal prohibition of the practice, consequently "it is reasonable to put off circumcision until the age at which such a risk is relevant and the boy himself can decide about the intervention, or can opt for any available alternatives." 1236

The Swedish Medical Association recommends a minimum age of 12 years for performing a circumcision as it requires fully informed consent from the boy. 1237

The Finnish Union of Medical Doctors (Suomen Lääkäriliitto) is opposed to infant male circumcision because of its risk, pain, and the injury inflicted. 1238

The Swedish Pediatric Society came out against infant male circumcision characterizing it as an "assault on boys." 1239

The Danish College of General Practitioners has stated that infant male circumcision is tantamount to abuse and mutilation. 1240

In 2012, the Berufsverbands der Kinder- und Jugendärzte (the German national

organization of Pediatrics) condemned the practice of infant male circumcision. 1241

Medical organizations in British Columbia and Saskatchewan have come out against infant male circumcision. 1242,1243

As noted below, several national medical associations consider infant male circumcision a human rights violation. 1236-1238,1244,1245

Other medical organizations from Canada, Britain, and Australia have adopted a position where the practice is tolerated, but not endorsed, encouraged, or recommended. 1246-1248

Having taken an exceptional position, the CDC needs to provide an exceptional justification: one that should take our breath away. They need to defend their position on an international stage, something the American Academy of Pediatrics had trouble doing in 2012 when they did not recommend male circumcision, but stated they "felt" that the benefits outweighed the risks. 1249-1252 So, instead of providing an evidence-based evaluation, the American Academy of Pediatrics provided a feelings-based evaluation. The CDC has taken a more extreme position and runs the risk of embarrassing itself and the United States once again.

The studies cited by the CDC in this section give a mixed message. On one side, it is well-documented that physicians are very poorly educated regarding normal male anatomy and infant male circumcision, 1253 and on the other, physicians are encouraged to act on their clearly uninformed opinions. 1254 The surveys conducted of physicians are reminiscent of push-polls used by politicians, where conducting a survey is a premise for propagandizing. These "studies" contain those elements. At a conference held in the Fall of 2013 in South Carolina at the Pitts Lectureship in Medical Ethics, members of the 2012 American Academy of Pediatrics Task Force on Circumcision confessed ignorance regarding the function of the foreskin.<sup>41</sup> If policy-makers on this issue are ignorant, what can be expected of the average medical professional? Education is sadly needed, but it should not take the form of clearly subjective, biased pro-male circumcision propaganda peddled by the misguided American Academy of Pediatrics task force on circumcision, or what is currently proposed by the CDC. It has to be evidence-based, not culture-based. This may be difficult, as the male circumcision status of the physicians and their children has a substantial impact on whether a physician recommends male circumcision. 39,1254 It is not surprising that European physicians, where there is no cultural pressure to be circumcised, have different attitudes towards protecting newborn males from harm.

The material presented in this section is the result of a very narrow ideological focus.

[Note: The American Pediatric Association (Does this organization even exist? There is an American Pediatric Society that is populated with pediatric researchers and the Academic Pediatric Association that is populated by academic pediatricians who teach general pediatrics) does not have guidelines on male circumcision, but the American

Academy of Pediatrics has published several Task Force reports on male circumcision.]

**RESPONSE**: See response 9 and 16

**COMMENT:** 

## **Cost-effectiveness**

The material presented in this section is selective in favor of male circumcision. It presents findings in a biased manner where the positive aspects of male circumcision are emphasized, while studies that expose the weaknesses of male circumcision are dismissed, omitted, or ignored. Some statements are factually untrue. For example, the statement, "While male circumcision has been shown to be a cost-saving HIV prevention intervention in sub-Saharan Africa" is not supported by the citations provided. 227,232 These references are mathematical models based on assumptions. The models are only as good as the assumptions and do not measure costs in the real world. They only provide conjecture as to what might happen in the real world if the assumptions turn out to be true. As far as these models are concerned, the calculations are based on reaching universal male circumcision within the targeted populations. As noted earlier, the efforts to roll out adult male circumcision are far below this goal. 213-219 Until actual, real-life data are collected, this statement is inaccurate. Furthermore, the randomized clinical trials have multiple biases and flaws, which discount any perceived benefits.

Several of the cost-effectiveness and cost-utility analyses published prior to the release of the results from the randomized clinical trials focused on male circumcision's impact on urinary tract infections and they found the procedure wanting. 1255-1257 The 2004 analysis by Van Howe, 1258 which used a Markov analysis and estimated the variability of its findings using Monte Carlo simulations, provided a comprehensive analysis of the costs and health states that may be impacted by infant male circumcision. It included the baseline assumption that an intact male had, based on published meta-analyses available at the time, an odds ratio of 1.78 (95%CI 1.33-2.37) of being more likely to become infected with HIV through heterosexual transmission. This assumption is consistent with the results of the randomized clinical trials, yet the cost-utility analysis found that infant male circumcision resulted in a lifetime increase in costs (\$828. 42 per patient) and a decrease in health (15.30 quality adjusted life-years per 1000 males), results that were ignored by the CDC in this draft.

By contrast, the CDC draft propagates the misrepresentation of the findings of a cost-analysis published by Schoen et al. 1259 A cost-analysis calculates the difference between the costs incurred by an intervention and costs that are saved as a result of the intervention. The benefits and risks are reflected in their respective monetary costs. In the cost analysis by Schoen et al., infant male circumcision resulted in more costs than it was able to recoup in benefits (\$27 per circumcision). In other words, male circumcision cost more money than it saved. To conclude that "the expected lifetime

cost of male circumcision was small, compared with larger expected benefits" reveals that the authors of the cost-analysis and the authors of this section do not understand that any benefits are already included in the analysis (in monetary form) and their conclusion is, in effect, an inappropriate attempt to count the benefits twice, which is beyond the scope of a cost-analysis. This indicates a bias, or incompetence, on the part of the CDC.

The statement, "Much of the benefit of neonatal male circumcision in that analysis derived from pre-empting the need for post-neonatal male circumcision, which is substantially more costly," is made without reference or citation. Where is the evidence? Post-neonatal male circumcision, which a recent study published by the CDC estimates as costing on average \$1885, is more expensive than neonatal male circumcision (average cost \$285).<sup>472</sup> Most of this expense is related to the use of general anesthesia. Considering, as discussed earlier, that local and topical anesthesia do not provide adequate anesthesia for the procedure, this may be money well spent. Post-neonatal male circumcision is rarely indicated, and it is never indicated in the healthy neonate. For example, the cumulative risk by age 15 of pathological phimosis is 0.6%<sup>457</sup> and the cumulative incidence of balanitis is 0.65%.<sup>541</sup> Consequently we would expect that only 1.3% of boys would have a medical indication for a post-neonatal male circumcision. This is consistent with the experience in Denmark were 1.6% of boys are circumcised by age 15 years. 449 This translates into a number needed to treat of between 63 and 77. It is not clear what benefit there is in spending between \$18,000 and \$22,000 to prevent one post-neonatal male circumcision that costs \$1885. The study from Hart-Cooper et al., does point out that American physicians diagnose phimosis more commonly than physicians in Britain. Based on their data, in the first year of life boys in the United States are circumcised for phimosis far more frequently than boys in Britain (2247.7 per 100,000 person-years; 95%CI 2355.5-2142.9 versus 1.97 per 100,000 person-years; 95%CI0.278-14.012; RR 1138.31; 95%CI 160.26-8086.09).472,457 This indicates that either physicians in the United States do not know how to properly diagnose phimosis requiring male circumcision, or they use the diagnosis of phimosis to secure reimbursement for elective male circumcisions, or both. Since true pathologic phimosis is rare under five years of age, it might be more cost effective for insurance companies to not pay for the procedure unless the child is over five years of age, failed a course of steroids, and had the diagnosis of balanitis xerotica obliterans confirmed.

This section of the draft report pays extensive attention to a cost-effectiveness analysis generated from within the CDC. 1260 As can be the case with secondary analysis, this analysis has a "garbage-in:garbage-out" problem. It almost appears as if the conclusion was determined first, and then the assumptions were sought out to justify the conclusion. To construct a cost-utility model that is most favorable to infant male circumcision, the model would assume the highest efficacy rate, the highest prevalence of HIV, no complications from male circumcision, and the lowest discount rate; this cost-utility did all these things. The basic assumptions, upon which the analysis is based, are each suspect.

First, it was assumed in the model that the lifetime risk of HIV infection for a male in the

United States is several orders of magnitude higher than reported by other studies. Based on the numbers used in the model, 1 in 16 African-American males in the United States will become HIV infected in his lifetime. So, for every two women that get breast cancer there will be one African-American male who will become HIV-infected. This is inconsistent with data collected in a national probability sample by the University of Chicago in which 0.35% (9 of 2577) of men 18 to 59 years of age were HIV-infected. Why the five-fold difference?

Second, the model assumed a 60% efficacy in preventing heterosexually transmitted HIV for male circumcision over a lifetime. There are several reasons to doubt the validity of applying 60% to populations in the United States. The first, as discussed earlier, are questions regarding the internal validity of the three randomized clinical trials. It is also unlikely that a 60% reduction in risk would be seen over a lifetime. The trials followed their subjects for, at most, 24 months. There is nothing to suggest the same linear trajectory would continue over 40 years. It is impossible to know whether the pattern would continue as linear, exponential, or whether it reaches a ceiling and stops. It could easily be that male circumcision merely delays infection and the overall prevalence is the same over a lifetime. In the African randomized clinical trials, 1% of circumcised men became infected each year. So, if one assumes a linear model, between ages 20 and 80, one would expect approximately 40% of the men circumcised in these trials to become infected with HIV. Given that the prevalence of HIV in South Africa is slightly higher in circumcised men, this may be the case.<sup>246</sup> The second reason to doubt the 60% efficacy is that the results in Africa, which involved high-risk, well-compensated men who were willing to be circumcised, may not apply to a program of circumcising all males, regardless of their risk of HIV-infection, in the United States. Sansom et al., argue that data collected from people at highest risk for HIV infection (such as regular sexual partners of HIV-infected individuals) should be the basis for a program of circumcising regardless of risk profile. There is no evidence that 60% efficacy applies to males at low risk, and plenty of evidence to the contrary. 325 Finally, results from a study of adults may not apply to infants. To date, there have been no observational studies to indicate that infant male circumcision has any significant impact in reducing HIVinfection rates.

Third, the model assumed that African-Americans have a lower male circumcision rate than whites, yet there is ample evidence to contradict this, as is mentioned earlier. <sup>6-8</sup> If African-Americans have a risk of heterosexually transmitted HIV infection five times higher than non-Hispanic whites, this would indicate that male circumcision is not an important factor in HIV-prevention and African-Americans do not benefit from the supposed 60% protective effects of male circumcision. Before contemplating a model of infant male circumcision, the lack of correlation between male circumcision rates and heterosexually transmitted HIV-infection rates between ethnic groups needs explanation.

Fourth, it was assumed that infant male circumcision had no impact on the length of stay of the perinatal hospitalization. It has been demonstrated that one in six males circumcised as newborns will spend an extra day in the hospital.<sup>7</sup>

Sixth, as for other "harm-denialists," the CDC assumed that infant male circumcision had no complications. Previous cost-utility analyses have found that the more common adverse events have the most impact on the cost-utility of infant male circumcision. 1257,1258 For example, at least 5% of circumcised boys develop meatal stenosis that requires a meatotomy. 186,533-537 At \$1500 per procedure, this adds \$64.41 (3% discount for 5 years) to the cost of each male circumcision. Another 1-2% end up having a male circumcision revision, at substantial increased costs. MRSA infections are 12 times more common in infants that are circumcised. 651,1251 While heterosexually transmitted HIV infection is a relatively rare event, it may be of similar frequency as the severely botched male circumcisions in which part of the glans is amputated, or there is a serious, life-threatening infection or hemorrhage. The analysis needs to consider the cost of treating these complications, the multi-million dollar malpractice settlements, and the devastating impact on health. Death is another well-documented complication of male circumcision. 1262 While the exact number is unknown, some have estimated that between 100 and 200 deaths are related to infant male circumcisions each year in the United States. 1056 If rare catastrophic events are to be considered on one side of the ledger, they need to be considered on the other.

The CDC also failed to compare infant male circumcision to other interventions such as limiting the number of sexual partners, using condoms, early treatment of sexually transmitted infections, and secondary prevention measures such as treating HIV-positive individuals with anti-retroviral therapy. All of these options are known to be more effective, less invasive, and less expensive than circumcising all infants.

High-risk behavior will not manifest itself in infancy, so interventions should be directed at those who are sexually active. With all of these serious flaws in this model, it makes it looks like the CDC is trying too hard and is willing to say anything to make the hard sell for infant male circumcision. Consequently, the results of this model cannot be taken seriously.

The model developed by Kacker et al. is equally unjustifiable as it is based on assumptions gleaned from outlier studies that are methodologically unsound when compared to the entire body of the medical literature. To the researchers from Johns Hopkins these numbers may ring true; to others, their analysis is unabashedly one-sided and biased. The analysis presents the most extreme case. That the CDC presented the results of this analysis indicates their lack of respect for the scientific method and their underlying pro-male circumcision bias.

The models for MSM are also based on wildly unrealistic protection rates for the insertive circumcised partner. It is unclear why this section gives so much space to wildly speculative, non-reality based models and little or no space to models that are evidence-based.

As mentioned earlier, the models predicting the impact of adult male circumcision on the HIV epidemic in Africa is thwarted by the lack of internal and external validity of the

randomized clinical trials performed in Africa, the assumption that the effect remains linear over decades, and the incredibly limited response to the various male circumcision roll-out programs. The poor response is not a surprise. First of all, when men learn they still need to wear condoms, they will see no point in getting circumcised (male circumcision is either worthless or redundant). Second, HIV research has moved far beyond male circumcision to the point where male circumcision as prevention is rapidly becoming a footnote in the history of the HIV pandemic: an interesting historical oddity that popped up along the way. Third, treatment as prevention makes so much more sense. It works better, it is cheaper, it protects those who might be exposed through unclean medical equipment, it protects women, and it is not ultimately dependent on wearing condoms. Fourth, there is evidence that HIV is losing its virulence.<sup>233</sup> In the seven years since male circumcision exploded onto the scene, its flame is flickering and about to be extinguished.

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1, and 6.

**COMMENT:** 

# Other considerations

## Risk compensation

The material in this section is incomplete and fails to place the results of studies in proper perspective. The CDC draft does not properly emphasize how important risk compensation is in the whole scheme of HIV prevention. In 1994, Blower and McLean formulated a model showing how the implementation of an HIV vaccination program with a vaccine of only 60% efficacy could easily increase the incidence of HIV infections, if risky behaviors are only slightly increased. Similar failures have been seen with vaccine programs using vaccines with efficacy in this range, such as the cholera vaccine. Another analogy is relying on birth control that is only 60% effective. Even with the most rudimentary modeling, it can be demonstrated that small changes in condom use can undermine any possible advantages of large-scale male circumcision programs, resulting in more infections following implementation of a male circumcision roll-out and billions of dollars spent.

The measurements of risk compensation in the men who participated in the randomized clinical trials<sup>2,211,242,1267,1268</sup> need to be interpreted with caution.

First, the results may reflect the Hawthorne effect: participants knew they were being watched, so this fact alone likely altered their behavior.

Second, the participants in these studies were highly compensated for their participation. For example, in the Kenya study, in addition to the equivalent in the United States of about \$12,000 in goods and services for participating in the randomized clinical trial, participants were paid the equivalent in the United States of about \$800 more to be in the study assessing risk compensation. This may have motivated the

participants to tell the researchers what they wanted to hear.

Third, defining risk compensation as only applying to those who believe there is a change in the risk of becoming infected with HIV after male circumcision is atypical. Risk compensation has to do with changes in behavior, whether people are conscious of the changes or not. In the example of wearing seat belts, risk compensation applies equally to those who consciously think they can drive faster because they have a seat belt on and also to those who drive faster on an unconscious level because they have a seat belt on.

Their working hypothesis, that the belief in the power of circumcision makes a man less fatalistic, thus more cautious, is counter-intuitive. If men think circumcision will make them live longer since they are less likely to be infected with HIV, they will likely live a bit more recklessly from a sexual standpoint. If the fatalism theory were true, we would expect to see intact men, who believe in the power of male circumcision, be more cautious than the circumcised believers because they would perceive themselves at higher risk.

A much more likely hypothesis is that people who are risk-averse are more likely to pursue whatever they think will decrease their risk. They are more likely to believe that male circumcision will help them and undergo circumcision for this reason. They are also more likely to have fewer partners and not engage in other risky behaviors.

This has implications for men in Africa who become circumcised as part of "voluntary" male medical circumcision campaigns. Early adopters were more likely to be those who believed in the power of circumcision. These men may account for the 2% to 5% who participated before March 2012.<sup>213</sup> The rest of the men are less likely to believe in the power of circumcision and need further persuasion, including bribes, <sup>1215,1217</sup> to consider participation. These are the men who will be less risk-averse. Consequently, one would expect a slight delay in detecting the impact of risk compensation. This is not to say that risk compensation is not already having an effect on national levels. For example, Uganda, which saw dramatic drops in the incidence of HIV infections using a program of "Abstinence, Be Faithful, Condoms," has seen an increase in the incidence of HIV infections. Renya, which has seen the largest uptake in its male circumcision roll-out has also seen an increase in HIV incidence since the roll-out. This has occurred despite evidence that the incidence of HIV infections peaked globally in the late 1990's and has been gradually decreasing since then.

This section omitted a few relevant studies. For example, Limburgh et al. found that participants in South Africa did not have a complete understanding of how male circumcision is protective and, while they expected to continue using condoms following circumcision, they did not expect others in the community who underwent circumcision to do so. 1270 In a study by Grund and Hennick in Swaziland, most men had more responsible attitudes in the first 12 months following male circumcision, but a minority exhibited increased sexual risk-taking, especially during a brief period of sexual experimentation shortly after circumcision. 1270 The problem is that small overall changes

in risk taking is all that is needed to increase HIV infection rates. Reiss et al. also reported a minority of men (16%) who abandoned condom use and increased the number of sexual partners following male circumcision. <sup>1271</sup> In a study from South Africa by Nkosi, they found that males who had traditional circumcisions were associated with the greatest level of risky behavior; intact men had less risky behavior than men who were medically circumcised (adjusted OR 0.71; 95%CI 0.40-1.25). <sup>1272</sup>

Westercamp, and the team responsible for the Kenyan randomized clinic trial, somehow have found no evidence of risk compensation. 1273 One cannot help but note the conflict of interest here on the part of the investigators. For a research group, any finding of risk compensation would undermine the importance and relevance of their randomized clinical trial, the pinnacle of their career. These results also conflict with a survey published of men and women in Kisumu, Kenya. Intact men were divided into those who preferred to get circumcised and those who did not. The intact men who preferred to get circumcised were significantly more likely to never use, or inconsistently use, a condom (OR 2.7; 95%CI 1.6-4.7) and to have one or more casual sexual partners (OR 1.9; 1.03-3.6). This would indicate that men who were interested in male circumcision were those who were exhibiting more high risk behaviors than those not interested in circumcision. There are multiple reports outside of the medical literature to indicate that risk compensation is a concerning issue. 1274-1279

Two studies have indicated that women may have more influence on how much risk compensation takes place. 1211,1212 These were unexpected findings, which could further derail the male circumcision roll-out in Africa. The women told their male sexual partners they did not have to use condoms if the men were circumcised. Nothing less would be expected considering the propaganda campaign going on in Africa.

Because the incidence of heterosexually transmitted HIV is much lower in the United States than in Africa, infant male circumcision has never been shown to be associated with a lower risk of HIV, and none of the studies from North America have found that male circumcision significantly lowers the risk of HIV, a discussion about risk compensation in the United States is about as important as debating whether pigs can fly.

An excellent discussion on the issue of risk compensation as it relates to male circumcision and HIV infection in Africa appears in a *Nature* article by de Lange, <sup>1280</sup> in which it is noted that a change in risky behaviors, such as a decrease in condom use following male circumcision, could mean that male circumcision "could have the opposite effect in the long run. People might be more likely to get HIV than if they were not circumcised at all." (Quoting Michel Garenne). The other problem is that Africans, both men and women, are getting a mixed message. On the one hand, male circumcision is supposedly the "breakthrough that will end the AIDS pandemic in Africa," but on the other hand, "everyone still needs to wear condoms." Another factor that could develop with time is that, as the sensitivity of the glans is lost following male circumcision, <sup>108</sup> the willingness to further decrease the sensitivity of the glans by wearing a condom may drop even more. It is also unclear whether the counseling,

which supposedly accompanied the procedure, will impact risky behaviors in the long run.

The materials in this section are irrelevant for health care providers in the United States. For health care providers in Africa, it is important to emphasize that small changes in behavior, or a big change in behavior by a few, can have a huge impact, negating any gains.

[Note: The discussion about the findings of Xu et al. has the wrong citation it should be reference 110 instead of 190.]

**RESPONSE:** See responses 1, 6, and 23.

## **COMMENT:**

## Policy considerations regarding reimbursement

The material presented in this section of the background document is off point. Why should the CDC be concerned about physician reimbursement? Professional organizations, such as the American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Academy of Family Physicians, and the American Urological Association, may have an interest in lobbying for physician reimbursement, but it is not clear why the CDC would be interested in this topic.

**RESPONSE**: See Response 86

### **COMMENT:**

This section of the draft fails to note the trend that is taking place among obstetricians. In a 1998 report, 70% of obstetricians reported performing at least one male circumcision per month (as opposed to 35% of pediatricians), 445 although their scope of practice includes only female reproductive organs. A 1994 article indicated that pediatricians are happy to have obstetricians perform infant male circumcisions and obstetricians are happy to have pediatricians perform infant male circumcisions. The shift away from obstetricians/gynecologists performing male circumcisions has become more formalized in recent years when Intact America was refused a booth at the national meeting of ACOG (American College of Obstetricians/Gynecologists) because male circumcision is not considered within the scope of obstetrics. Opinion pieces have been published supporting this position. Other obstetricians have published their success in shifting the burden of performing male circumcisions away from them and onto the pediatricians or family medicine physicians in the community.

While national medical organizations within the United States may have taken a position on infant male circumcision, it does not mean that their positions are evidence-based. In fact, the American Academy of Pediatrics' position has been criticized as being based on culture. This section also misrepresents the position taken by the American Academy of Pediatrics. Instead of "concluding that new evidence indicates" that the

benefits outweigh the risks, the Academy's Task Force has taken the position that "These benefits were *felt* to outweigh the risks of the procedure." (emphasis added)<sup>1237</sup> So, the conclusions of the American Academy of Pediatrics are based on *feelings* rather than evidence. This may explain why none of the other national pediatric organizations in the world have reached a similar conclusion. One of the Task Force members has recently noted he hopes the CDC report is not viewed as being as biased as their report. The fallacy in this discussion is an appeal to authority: in this case, the authorities are themselves culturally biased.

**RESPONSE 87:** The position statement by the American Academy of Pediatrics is evidence based.

#### COMMENT:

It is not surprising that male circumcision rates are higher when parents do not need to pay out of pocket. However, the Midwest has a high male circumcision rate because of high demand. This may explain why the study in the Midwest, where demand is the highest, found that insurance coverage did not affect the male circumcision rates. Given that infant male circumcision is a purely cosmetic procedure, one would expect that it would not be paid for by third party payers. Furthermore, it is not the CDC's role to be in the business of justifying financial reimbursement for physicians.

[Note: Reference CDC246 is the same as CDC209. In CDC246, the first authors last name is misspelled.]

**RESPONSE 87a:** See response 86. The duplicate citation has been corrected.

## **COMMENT:**

The material in this section is relevant for health care providers who depend on the income they generate from infant male circumcision and would like to see higher reimbursement rates from programs such as Medicaid. The problem is that the CDC should not be involved in efforts to improve physician reimbursement especially when it is not clear whether Medicaid can legally pay health care providers for performing male circumcision, a cosmetic surgery, on non-consenting infants.<sup>1234</sup>

**RESPONSE:** See response 86.

## **COMMENT:**

## **Ethical considerations**

GENERAL RESPONSE TO COMMENTS ABOUT ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS - RESPONSE 88: From its first consultation on male circumcision and as a part of writing of the background document, CDC carefully considered the ethical issues associated with male circumcision, including neonatal male circumcision. See ethical considerations section of background document. See responses 22, 24.

#### COMMENT:

The material presented in this section of the background document is markedly incomplete, and reflects a socio-cultural bias in favor of male circumcision because of its normalized status as a birth ritual in the US, in contrast to most other nations with advanced health care systems.

For example, the Royal Dutch Medical Association, 1236 the South African Medical Association, 1244 the Finnish Medical Association, 1238 the Tasmanian Law Reform Institute, 1285 and representatives of four leading Swedish physician organizations 1237 have all concluded that infant male circumcision is a human rights violation and should be legally restricted. In addition, on October 1, 2013, the Council of Europe passed a recommendation endorsing a child's right to physical integrity and a resolution discussing the right to physical integrity in more detail. The Council specifically supported genital autonomy for children by opposing several practices including male circumcision, female genital mutilation, and early childhood medical interventions in the case of inter-sex children. 1286

If the CDC wishes to advance a moral viewpoint that stands in contrast to those adopted by peer organizations in other Western countries, it would do well to engage directly with the arguments and analyses that have been presented by those peer organizations, and attempt to show, systematically, why those arguments are not convincing. To ignore the published viewpoints of distinguished medical organizations in peer nations, all of which have gone to great lengths to assess the moral permissibility of male circumcision in light of widely-accepted ethical standards, gives the impression that the CDC is not concerned with the pressing moral issues raised by this controversial surgery.

**RESPONSE:** See Response 16:

### **COMMENT:**

Consistent with this impression is further concern about the composition of consultants at the CDC 2007 consultation. It reads, to put the point bluntly, like a *Who's Who of Male Circumcision Lobbyists*. <sup>16</sup> In the reporting on the consultation, it is stated, "Invited participants included epidemiologists; researchers; health economists; ethicists; physicians; and representatives of practitioner associations, community-based organizations, and groups objecting to elective circumcision." However, no one from any of the major groups objecting to elective infant/child male circumcision was in fact invited to the consultation (correspondence with Georganne Chapin, JD, Founding Executive Director of Intact America; Marilyn Milos, RN, Co-founder and Director of the National Organization of Circumcision Information Resource Centers (NOCIRC); John Geisheker, JD, Director and General Counsel of Doctors Opposing Circumcision (DOC); J. Steven Svoboda, MS, JD, Founder of Attorneys for the Rights of the Child). Also, no one from a group objecting to elective circumcision was invited to participate in, or provide materials for, the subcommittee of the CDC Public Health Ethics Committee. The draft does not provide a citation for the findings of the subcommittee. Nor does it

disclose any cultural or religious affiliations of committee members that might have bearing upon the question of non-financial conflicts of interest. Finally, given the same reasoning for deeming male circumcision of non-consenting minors justifiable, would the subcommittee agree with the 2010 American Academy of Pediatric policy statement on female genital cutting, 1287—later retracted—which stated some forms of female genital cutting are permissible? Is there a compelling reason why females should be protected and not males?

This section provides only cursory treatment of the many important ethical issues that are raised by the male circumcision of non-consenting minors.

Regarding the five major principles of bioethics, 1288 it has been argued that male circumcision fails to pass any of them. For infant male circumcision to be morally permissible, it must pass *all* five. This section of the draft only included three of the five principles.

- 1. Beneficence (maximizing benefit and minimizing harm, both at the individual and society level): This has been addressed in the cost-utility analyses that have been published. In the analysis that included complications, impact on urinary tract infections, impact on sexually transmitted infections (including HIV), and was properly discounted for time, it concluded that male circumcision wasted money and resulted in an average decrease in quality-adjusted life years. 1258 To conjure up a rare benefit, another analysis needed to overestimate the incidence of HIV five-fold, fail to consider any complications, and make a number of unjustifiable assumptions. 1260 The differences in these analyses can be explained on the basis of what Sarah Waldeck, a law professor at Seton Hall University School of Law, calls the "multiplier effect." 1289 Simply put, those who have accepted the social norm of infant male circumcision will overemphasize the importance of studies documenting a benefit regardless of their methodological weaknesses, and will ignore or minimize the importance of studies showing evidence of a neutral or negative impact from infant male circumcision. Considering that this draft does not address the function of the foreskin and does not adequately address the multiple harms associated with its amputation, how can the CDC acknowledge any negative consequences related to male circumcision? This draft also selectively cites studies, regardless of their methodological weaknesses, that support male circumcision. This indicates that the draft is strongly influenced by social normality and its recommendations are strongly influenced by cultural, or other, factors.
- 2. Autonomy (respect for individual values and choices): Infant male circumcision fails to satisfy this principle. There is no compelling medical reason to circumcise an infant. In such a situation, the Committee on Bioethics of the American Academy of Pediatrics recommends waiting until the child can provide his own fully informed consent. Male circumcision, by virtue of the fact that it breaks the skin, violates the infant's bodily integrity. One of the most universally accepted basic human rights is the right to bodily integrity and security of person. Male 283,1291,1292 As a result, it is not very difficult to make a cogent argument that infant male circumcision is a human rights violation. Male 1293 It is widely held that no one has the right to violate the human rights of another human except in

extreme circumstances. 1294 Consequently, the child's right to self-determination should be respected. There are two ways to approach an infant's autonomy when it comes to infant male circumcision. The first is to decide for the child on the basis of what he would choose, if he was able to provide his own fully informed consent, without parents projecting their value system on the child. 1294 Given that adult males rarely 1295 chose to undergo circumcision without a medical indication, the substitute judgment test requires that it not be performed on an infant (who cannot effectively resist). The second approach is based on Joel Feinberg's concept of the right to an open future. Briefly, a child should have rights that should be saved for the child until he is an adult, or what he calls "rights in trust." These are the sort of rights an autonomous adult would have, but a child would be too young to exercise them. They are "rights that are to be saved for the child until he is an adult, but which can be violated 'in advance' before the child is even in a position to exercise them." Following such violations, a child upon reaching adulthood would find that certain options would already be closed. 1296 The concept of a right to an open future has been adopted by subsequent ethicists. 1297 Certainly, infants, whether male or female, have a right to their complete genitals coming into adulthood. The right to bodily integrity should be a "right in trust" that Feinberg envisioned. Consequently, it has been argued that infant male circumcision violates an infant's right to an open future. 1298 Subsequent analysis has determined that physical violations do carry more moral weight than non-physical violations. 1299 In either case, violating the infant's developing/future autonomy by cutting off the most sensitive portion of his penis without his permission is a matter for great moral concern. Since autonomy is considered by some to be the primary principle of modern bioethics, 1300 there needs to be a compelling reason to violate anyone's autonomy, especially someone who is vulnerable. No such reason has been provided in this draft.

3. Justice (the obligation to fairly distribute risks, burdens, and benefits, to minimize stigmatization, and to make decisions in a transparent fashion): When male circumcision is performed on an infant at the parents' behest, the parents do not assume any of the risks, the infant does. The infant has no say in the matter, yet takes on all of the harms and risks associated with the procedure. Such a shift of risk onto someone who cannot consent is inconsistent with the concept of justice. Obviously the risks are not fairly distributed. Infants who are circumcised for religious or cultural reasons or for misguided beliefs that it improves hygiene, which covers the vast majority of male circumcisions, undergo the procedure for what parents believe is their religious or cultural obligation. Consequently, the infants are being used instrumentally as a means to satisfy ends determined by their parents. 1299 In Kantian ethics, anyone of moral worth should not be treated as a means to an end, but always as an end in themselves. 1301 Treating a human being instrumentally in this fashion is in direct opposition with our modern concept of justice. 1302

Likewise, the randomized clinical trial which purported to find that circumcision of HIV-infected men increased the relative risk of infection in female sexual partners by 50% placed an increased risk of HIV infection on women who were unaware of their partner's HIV status.<sup>338</sup> This abuse of the principle of justice was one of several reasons why this study was perhaps the most unethical study since Tuskegee.<sup>1303-1305</sup>

If the CDC was interested in minimizing stigmatization, it would abandon the use of the term "uncircumcised," which is now considered by many to be pejorative. One definition of the word "uncircumcised" is "spiritually impure: heathen: unregenerate." It is also a term that is technically inaccurate. For a man to be "uncircumcised," he would need to first be circumcised and then have the process reversed. By using the term "uncircumcised" or "non-circumcised," the authors of this draft are making the underlying value-laden assumption that being circumcised is the preferred condition, when there is no evidence, other than cultural pressure, to support this. The most accurate, value-neutral term for a man with all of his original genital tissue is "intact." By continuing to use the term "uncircumcised," the CDC is identifying its pro-circumcision bias to anyone who is familiar with the semantics on this issue. Males who are indeed "intact" find use of the word "uncircumcised" to be akin to hate speech because they are singled out as "different," supposedly "abnormal," and/or possibly unclean." Nothing could be further from the truth. Profiling a group of people in this way is unjustified, discriminatory rhetoric.

The use of this terminology has racist and anti-immigrant overtones. With the exception of a few immigrants who come from circumcising cultures, most immigrant males have intact genitals. The overall tone of this draft unnecessarily and counterfactually characterizes normal, intact males as inferior and disease-laden. The draft also places more credence with investigators who focus on certain racial and ethnic groups for increasing male circumcision rates. Less than a third of the world's men are circumcised, and nearly all of them are circumcised for religious or cultural reasons. Why would the CDC want to stigmatize the majority of males on the planet? Many intact males who read the American Academy of Pediatrics 2012 Task Force report 1306 interpreted the Academy's position as thinly veiled hate speech (personal communications). The CDC's recommendation may be interpreted as even more insulting.

If justice requires that decisions be made in a transparent fashion, then major reform is needed in the informed consent process that accompanies infant male circumcision. This is needed to ensure full disclosure is provided, that those providing proxy consent understand what they are providing consent to, and that those providing consent do so voluntarily without being coerced or solicited. 1307-1309 Currently, the level of disclosure provided is far below the standard expected for similar elective procedures. 1228,1231,1310 One study in which full disclosure was provided resulted in parents becoming very upset with the physicians providing the disclosure. 1311 This may reflect that many parents are unaware male circumcision leads to any harm or complications, and parents have usually made up their minds about male circumcision based on social or cultural factors. They may not want to hear about any untoward effects because this creates cognitive dissonance. But, this does not excuse physicians from their duty to provide full disclosure. Sometimes, this information will dissuade parents from agreeing to a circumcision for their son. Full informed consent also protects the health care provider in the event of an adverse outcome. Even in the adult male circumcision roll out in Africa, the men are not given full disclosure regarding the harms and complications of male

circumcision. The fact that bribes are becoming necessary to recruit adult males to undergo a free male circumcision<sup>1214</sup> is an evident sign that the decision process is less than transparent.

Is it justifiable for parents to impose male circumcision on their sons when there are more effective, less expensive, less invasive methods of preventing urinary tract infections, sexually transmitted infections, HIV infections, and penile cancer? Imposing such inefficiencies in a nonconsensual fashion onto an infant in the name of parental convenience is both unfair and unjust. If an infant cannot choose his preferred method of prevention, the parent at least should choose a more efficient, less expensive, less invasive measure.

The two principles omitted in this section of the draft are:

- 4. Non-maleficence (does the procedure avoid permanently diminishing the patient in any way that can be prevented?): Male circumcision permanently removes the most sensitive portion of the penis.<sup>54,55,108</sup> Some would argue this is the intent and purpose of the procedure, <sup>1312,1313</sup> and certainly it was the intent when male circumcision was first introduced in the United States and Britain as a "cure" for masturbation.<sup>1183-1185</sup>
- 5. Proportionality (will the final result provide a net benefit to the patient in proportion to the risk undertaken and the losses sustained?): Decisions are made in everyday life based on proportionality. If a shop is asking too much money for an item, they may have trouble selling it because the price is out of proportion to the value the customer has assigned to the item. For infant male circumcision proportionality works on two levels: the physical and the moral. It fails on both levels.

The measure of proportionality on the physical level has already been assessed with the roll-out of adult male circumcision in Africa. Men who live in countries with some of the highest prevalence levels of HIV infection in the world have been subjected to wellfinanced advertising and have been offered a free male circumcision, but they are only agreeing to undergo the procedure 1.6% of the time unless they are given an additional bribe. 1214 The advertising programs have informed these men regarding the ease and simplicity of the procedure, the lack of complications, and the overwhelming benefits in protecting them from sexually transmitted infections and HIV, yet only 1.6% are interested in a male circumcision paid for by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the Clinton Foundation, and PEPFAR. How could this be explained? These men have a foreskin. They know how it works, what it does, and how it feels. It seems that they recognize on a physical, biological level that the resultant harm of removing the foreskin is out of proportion to the unlikely benefits, especially when the same benefits can be more easily and effectively obtained using methods that do not involve the removal of sensitive, functional tissue. Instead of recognizing the value that men have assigned to their foreskins, advocates of mass male circumcision spend their time trying to discover the inducement that will entice these men to get on the male circumcision bandwagon.

On the moral level, the value of one's wholeness and the ability to exercise one's

autonomy are important elements in the equation. David Lang <sup>1314</sup> and Wim Dekkers<sup>1315,1316</sup> have identified totality and wholeness as important issues in the ethical debate over male circumcision. Lang applies the principle of totality to argue that "the good of the whole overrides the good of a part if [the loss of] that part is truly (not merely hypothetically or speculatively) a threat to the well-being of the whole."<sup>1317</sup> In other words, all parts of the body form a cohesive, integrated unit.<sup>1314</sup> This principle complements the principle of bodily integrity. Lang argues that, since male circumcision disrupts normal sexual function, the principle of bodily totality is violated.

For Dekkers, "wholeness" has four aspects: biological, experiential, intact, and inviolable. 1315,1316 Biological wholeness refers to anatomical and functional integrity, which is conceptually similar to Lang's notion of totality. Excising erogenous genital tissue violates this sense of wholeness. Experiential wholeness is not dependent on biological wholeness, but is a phenomenological view of the human body in which the body is a "lived body." By altering responses to subsequent painful stimuli 993,994 and altering normal penile reflexes, 120 removal of the foreskin may negatively impact experiential wholeness. One aim of medicine is, or should be, to restore this sense of intactness and completeness — to make the body whole again, not to introduce deficiency. For medical practitioners to remove functional tissue runs against this aspect of wholeness. Inviolable wholeness is an outgrowth of a Kantian principle that violating the body also violates the person's dignity. 1299 According to this principle, the integrity of the body is a necessary condition for the fulfillment of human moral purposes, and respect for the integrity of the body is necessary for proper moral sensibility.

Male circumcision also violates an infant's sense of wholeness without consideration. On a contractual level, such a one-sided transaction would not be binding. Proportionality is not achieved as the infant is not compensated for this loss. The loss of the protection of bodily integrity, security of person, and self-determination (autonomy) are also not adequately compensated for. According to John Rawls, depriving one of a basic human liberty is only morally permissible if doing so enriches or enhances one of the other basic human liberties. During infant male circumcision, the basic human right to bodily integrity and security of person is violated without compensation. It is thus not proportional.

The possibility of death, although rare, following infant male circumcision, which has not been reported following circumcision in older boys and adults, also violates the principle of proportionality. This potential outcome may be grounds enough for delaying the procedure until the patient is old enough to grant his own fully informed consent.

This section states that "Others argue that it is a choice that parents should be able to make on behalf of their male children because of the strong evidence showing that the procedure is beneficial and the risks are minimal if performed competently." This statement has several problems. First, at least one of the citations given for this statement does not make this assertion. The 2003 article by Benatar and Benatar does not contend that there is strong evidence favoring male circumcision or a minimal risk, but rather that the benefits and risks are balanced and given the non-medical benefits,

which they fail to identify, male circumcision is morally permissible. 1318 Second, there is clear debate over the value of the evidence. As noted by Waldeck, male circumcision status and the prevalence of circumcision within a culture will impact how evidence is prioritized and interpreted. 1289 So, it is telling that the CDC cites the opinion piece in favor of male circumcision published in the British Medical Journal, 1319 but failed to cite the opinion piece arguing the opposing view that accompanied it. 1320 Others have put forth such utilitarian arguments, 1321-1323 but such arguments have been challenged because of their dependence on false analogies, speculation, selective bibliographies, being oblivious to the harms and risks of the procedure, and fallacious reasoning. 1299,1317,1324-1327 The importance of unproven benefits and ignored harms needs to be part of the debate and not just accepted because it makes one feel better about being circumcised. Furthermore, many male circumcisions are performed by those least competent to be doing the procedure: medical students, interns, residents, physician assistants, etc. And, few, if any, health care providers are adequately educated about the anatomy of the foreskin, which explains the high number of complications surrounding its removal.

Second, it is merely assumed that parents have the authority or "right" to have parts of the genitals of their children amputated. The concept of parental rights is a legal fiction that has outlasted its usefulness. When women and children were considered property/chattel, such property rights made sense. As the moral worth and status of children is increasingly being recognized, treating children as property/chattel is becoming more difficult to rationalize. One legal scholar has noted that parental rights are only invoked when the parents are doing something that is not in the child's best interests. It has been argued that parents do not have the "right" or the authority to violate their child's basic human rights and that this prohibition extends to infant male circumcision. One could argue that the onus is on those who want to encourage or defend infant male circumcision to make a positive argument to justify violating an infant's right to bodily integrity and security of person based primarily on parental judgment.

While parents are given the authority to vaccinate their children, infant male circumcision has little in common with vaccination other than that they are both implemented on infants or children. Male circumcision removes tissue that is irreplaceable and that serves specific functions; vaccines stimulate the production of antibodies by the immune system to fight off infections.

The claim that infant male circumcision acts like a vaccine has been made by a number of male circumcision enthusiasts. 1,1330-1339 They use this analogy because the average person understands the concept of vaccination and has seen the ability of vaccines to greatly reduce the incidence and prevalence of a number of serious and non-serious illnesses. A highly effective vaccine against a life-threatening infection can have an almost miraculous impact, but most are not aware that a vaccination program using a vaccine with only 40% to 60% effectiveness will ultimately increase the number of infections. Male circumcision enthusiasts use the vaccine analogy because they want people to associate the miracles brought about by vaccines to also be associated

with infant male circumcision, in the hope that those opposing infant male circumcision would then be thought of as irrational and unwilling to do what is in their child's best interest.

The analogy between vaccination and male circumcision is spurious:

- 1. Vaccines target specific illnesses that are either common, infectious, or carry significant personal or public health consequences. Male circumcision does not.
- 2. Only vaccines that have been demonstrated to be effective in decreasing the risk of severity of the targeted illness are released for use on the public. Nearly all of the vaccines that are commonly used are effective in more than 85% of those vaccinated (an exception is the influenza vaccine). Typically, vaccines that only reduce the risk by 40% to 50% are often not used. 247,1265,1340,1341 Male circumcision has not been clearly demonstrated to be effective, let alone provide more than 85% protection. By making the analogy, male circumcision enthusiasts are trying to get people to believe that circumcision has these high levels of protection.
- 3. Vaccines do not permanently remove any body parts. Male circumcision does. As Wayne Hampton notes, "Circumcision is a subtraction whereas vaccination is the addition of immunizing agents to the bloodstream. Circumcision is a loss while a vaccine is a gain." Removing the foreskin, with its functioning mucosal immunity, subtracts from the value of the body as a working system. A vaccination adds to the value of the body as a working system by boosting the immune system. This is morally interesting, especially from a utilitarian standpoint, because the net effect of a vaccination is improved function both on an individual and a societal level, while this is not true for male circumcision. It is also interesting from a Rawlsian perspective because a vaccine program serves the purpose of justice as it improves life, especially for those who are the most vulnerable.

In a similar vein, male circumcision is more invasive than vaccination. To make the analogy of male circumcision being similar to vaccination plausible, male circumcision enthusiasts would need to demonstrate that male circumcision is not excessively invasive, but this cannot be demonstrated.

- 4. Vaccines typically have been shown to have a positive cost-effectiveness or a reasonable cost-utility. Male circumcision has not.<sup>1258</sup>
- 5. The long-term effects of vaccinations have been well studied and documented. This has not happened with male circumcision. Even the 2012 Task Force report from the American Academy of Pediatrics acknowledges that the long-term risks of male circumcision are unknown. A registry and compensation system exists to address unfortunate outcomes of vaccination, yet no such system exists for male circumcision.<sup>1342</sup>
- 6. Vaccination programs have decreased the incidence/prevalence of the targeted

diseases. The illnesses associated with male circumcision have not decreased and in several instances have increased. The diseases that have been targeted by vaccination programs, for the most part, have been either illnesses with a high incidence and/or with associated significant morbidity/mortality. While vaccination programs have clear public health benefits, both for the individual and society overall, any such benefits for male circumcision, if they exist at all, are miniscule by comparison. 1344

- 7. The level of acceptable risk for the public for vaccinations is very low and well below the risks associated with infant male circumcision.
- 8. The diseases targeted by vaccines typically have a high incidence, often the majority of the population is at risk, otherwise a vaccination program would not be worth pursuing. By contrast, the illnesses male circumcision is presumed to prevent are uncommon, rare, or nonexistent.<sup>1348</sup>
- 9. When male circumcision apologists and enthusiasts link male circumcision and vaccination, they need to be aware that by doing so they may undermine the efforts of vaccination programs. Clearly, parents who do their due diligence will discover male circumcision is questionably effective at best. By linking male circumcision and vaccination, parents may be given the false impression that vaccinations are as ineffective as male circumcision. Claims of a public health benefit should be limited to interventions that actually have a positive impact on the health of the public.

The argument provided by Benatar and Benatar posits that the legitimacy of parental authorization of infant male circumcision is based on the vaccine analogy. <sup>1318</sup> The points of their argument can be summarized as follows:

- 1) There are parts of the world where diseases against which children are frequently vaccinated are now uncommon.
- 2) The necessity of such vaccination for the individual child is neither clear nor immediate.
- 3) There are small but real risks from vaccination (including death).
- 4) The child is unable to give consent for vaccination.
- 5) The power to consent can be deferred to proxy decision makers or delayed until the child is old enough to give consent himself.
- 6) Delaying vaccination can undermine its benefit.
- 7) It is reasonable for parents or other guardians to make decisions on behalf of a child that are in the child's best interests.
- 8) "The role of a parent is not simply to save children from immediate catastrophe, but is

to protect and foster a child's long-term best interests."

9) Therefore, "parents may consent on behalf of their children not only to vaccination but also to such procedures as orthodontics and various non-medical interventions, including schooling."

A point by point rebuttal follows:

- 1) Not only is this true, but vaccination programs are effective. (Although, it translates into fewer sick visits at our office and less revenue for physicians. If the CDC translated their interest in increasing physician income generated from male circumcision, they would also come out against vaccinations.)
- 2) The presumption that vaccinations have no clear necessity for the individual is unsubstantiated. If a vaccine did have not a clear indication, it would no longer be given. This is the case for small pox. Vaccination programs against smallpox were discontinued after it was determined that smallpox had been eradicated. Vaccines can also be justified on the basis of public health considerations. To say that vaccines have no clear indication for the individual is foolhardy. Herd immunity may reduce some risk, but does not eliminate risk. If it did, the pertussis and measles outbreaks in unvaccinated children that emerge on a fairly regular basis would not take place. Consequently, there is always a potential advantage to the individual to be vaccinated. This presumption is not only wrong but extremely dangerous. If this erroneous position was adopted by a sufficient number of people, even the positive impact of herd immunity could be lost, leading to a public and personal health disaster.

The Benatars's entire argument is dependent on this false assumption. If vaccines had no benefits, then parents would not be allowed to authorize their use. It is only because they have benefits that parents can direct medical personnel to administer the vaccines. People are allowed choices and parents can forgo vaccinating their children. When they do so, it is common practice to have parents sign a waiver indicating they are aware of the benefits of the vaccine, yet they wish to forgo its administration to their children.

- 3) Agreed.
- 4) Agreed, but given the benefits of the vaccine, it is both in the child's best interest and also something the child would choose for himself if able to.
- 5) Agreed.
- 6) Agreed.
- 7) Partially agreed. The language should be altered to state it is reasonable for parents to consider making *some* decisions on behalf of the child that are believed to be in the child's best interests. For example, a girl with a gene that puts her at high risk for breast cancer, one could argue that a prophylactic double mastectomy would be in her best

interests, but not a decision that the parents should make on her behalf. The American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Bioethics notes that: parental decisions are limited to those where there is an immediate danger, and that decisions which can safely wait should be delayed until the child can have input into the decision. 1238

- 8) Agreed. But parents also have the responsibility to be the child's guardian, which includes the duty to protect the child's basic human rights, 1318 protect the child's right to an open future, 1296-1298 and not treat the child instrumentally. 1242, 1299
- 9) Their argument can only apply to vaccination because this is what the authors used as their set of conditions. This conclusion cannot be extended to orthodontics, other non-medical interventions and schooling without demonstrating that these interventions are similar to vaccination in all respects. Vaccination has no clear association with "various non-medical interventions." This is merely a bait and switch to other false analogies, which are not nonconsensual violations of bodily integrity and security of person.

Comparing choices for education has no discernible connection to making medical choices for a child who cannot choose for himself. At the age where education outside the home is offered, the child can have a varied amount of input. There is also disagreement about the authority of parents to force children to undergo education that is not in their best interests 1346

This is also a false analogy that does not apply to infant male circumcision because, as a society, we consider education necessary to become a good citizen<sup>1347</sup> and we believe delaying education will undermine its effectiveness. Education is clearly in the child's best interests, and it is something the child would have chosen for himself once he becomes competent.

While, in the *opinion* of the undefined, unpublished findings of the subcommittee of the CDC Public Health Ethics Committee, the decision either to or not to circumcise is an appropriate exercise of parental authority, the CDC draft fails to recognize that many disagree with this opinion. For example, all of the national medical organizations who have come out against infant male circumcision and have characterized it as a human rights violation are not mentioned by the CDC. <sup>1236,1238,1240,1241,1244,1245,1250</sup> Legal scholars have questioned the legitimacy of parents violating their child's human rights and best interests under the rubric of "parental rights" because such actions only result in harming children. <sup>1293,1327,1346,1347</sup> It has been argued, given the moral status of infants being increasingly recognized, <sup>1292,1347</sup> that infant male circumcision may be the last holdout in which parental rights are recognized. <sup>1329</sup> The rest of the Western world recognizes that parents do not have the authority to violate their child's basic human right to bodily integrity and security of person.

Did this CDC subcommittee consider whether this same parental authority would allow parents to direct health care professionals to cut the genitals of their daughters? The same ethical principles would apply. There is some evidence that female genital cutting

has medical benefits in decreasing the risk of HIV infection<sup>1348</sup> and a significantly shortened second stage of labor.<sup>1349</sup> Proponents of female genital cutting maintain the procedure also decreases a woman's risk of sexually transmitted diseases. At least one study has documented that female genital cutting has no impact on sexual fulfillment or the ability to have an orgasm.<sup>1350</sup> In 2010, the American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Bioethics released a statement, in an effort to acknowledge cultural diversity while ignoring the moral status and human rights of children, stating some forms of female genital cutting are morally permissible.<sup>1287</sup> The report generated such a negative response that the Academy was forced to "retire" the statement 31 days later.<sup>1351,1352</sup> It would certainly be unfair and unjust if the subcommittee were to treat males and females differently.

The justification for the moral permissibility of infant male circumcision in the CDC draft, and as argued by other male circumcision apologists, 1340 is based on the presumption that the procedure is safer and simpler when performed on newborns and infants. Unfortunately, presumptions are not data. As addressed earlier, the evidence does not support the contention that there is an advantage to male circumcision being performed in infancy, other than the ease with which the boy can be restrained.

The CDC draft should also refrain from fear-mongering. Apparently, those who wrote the draft must be concerned over the remote possibility of missing an opportunity to prevent an HIV infection in a male who becomes sexually active before he has the chance to get circumcised. How many 14-year-old males are going to get HIV from their 14-year-old girlfriends? While the age of sexual debut may be getting younger, the rate of heterosexually transmitted HIV infection is extremely rare through sexual contact with other young people. There is no evidence in North America that any HIV infections are prevented by male circumcision,<sup>8-14</sup> so there is no reason to lose sleep over the number of HIV infections potentially caused by a delay in male circumcision. Likewise, neonates are not sexually active.

The statement, "Uptake of the procedure after the neonatal period is also likely to be lower due to the increased cost, greater likelihood of complications, and other barriers to male circumcision at a later age," contains several inaccuracies. First, as discussed in detail earlier, there is no properly controlled experimental evidence that later male circumcision has a greater likelihood of complications. There are numerous case reports of infant deaths resulting from male circumcision in the medical literature in the United States, but none known of adolescent or adult deaths as a consequence of male circumcision. Adolescents and adults are capable, unlike neonates, of expressing pain and requesting adequate pain relief, of noting excessive bleeding and infection. They would also have undergone a thorough pre-operative history and physical exam noting any possible reasons to not have surgery. Neonates undergo male circumcision surgery without knowing whether they have any underlying medical problems such as hemophilia, and many premature neonates are circumcised while still undergoing care in the NICU. If surgery under general anesthesia is unacceptable for neonates, then any surgery should be postponed until adequate pain relief can be provided. Male circumcision is done to infants because it can be done, not because it is safer with

fewer complications. (see complications section.)

It is also unclear what the other barriers to male circumcision might be in adolescents or adults. Somehow, teenagers are able to undergo orthodontia, which is much more time consuming than male circumcision. Some teenagers manage to undergo cosmetic surgery during school vacations. It is unclear how there would be significant barriers, if male circumcision would be considered so terribly important. If the CDC and American Academy of Pediatrics have their way, there should be no financial barriers to this cosmetic surgery. What this statement is missing are the real reasons that uptake is lower after the neonatal period. After several weeks of bonding with their baby, parents are less likely to put their baby through a painful procedure. The older boy, who has experience with his foreskin, would consider the suggestion of cutting off his foreskin, which at that point may have acquired a distinct value to him as sensitive tissue, as imprudent. "Why would anybody want to do that?" is a typical response. The foreskin is a valued possession that even a young boy knows enough not to relinquish.

The subcommittee recommended that male circumcision be an "informed choice" but fails to consider that informed consent is impossible for infant male circumcision. 1231 This is an important issue that warrants debate, but it was apparently not addressed by the subcommittee. The Europeans do not think parents can provide informed consent, and certainly the infant cannot either. Many would contend that adolescents are also unable to give consent.

Finally, the lack of health insurance coverage for male circumcision is not an issue of justice because male circumcision is a cultural practice. It is typically not the role of government, and definitely not the role of Medicaid, 1234 to support cultural practices. By supporting one cultural practice, those who do not participate in that practice are discriminated against. If, as appears to be the case with this draft, the CDC is applying pressure on ethnic groups that have traditionally kept their infants genitally intact, then they are enforcing an unwanted hegemony. The reduction in risk of HIV infection and other adverse health conditions is illusory. This leads to the question of why the CDC is so interested in implementing this hegemony.

**RESPONSE 89:** The CDC adequately bases its analysis on the best quality scientific evidence available, mainly the RCTs, which are consistent in their findings around prevention of HIV acquisition.

The CDC Public Health Ethics Committee (PHEC) concluded that newborns cannot provide informed consent and so must rely on their parents or caretakers to determine and act in their best interests, raising the issue of autonomy in discussions of circumcision of male newborns. They took into account varying opinions about the decision-making process including that the decision about whether to be circumcised should be made by individuals when they are old enough to make their own informed decisions. It has been pointed out that a man with a foreskin can elect to be circumcised but if circumcised as a newborn, cannot easily reverse the decision. Others argue that it is a choice that parents should be able to make on behalf of their male children because

of the strong evidence showing that the procedure is beneficial and the risks are minimal if performed competently. Parents are generally given the authority to make decisions, such as vaccination, for their minor children based on their evaluative consideration of the child's best interests. Appropriately, this consideration takes into account social, cultural, and religious perspectives, as well as objective, scientific information about preventive health benefits and risks. Thus, in the opinion of the PHEC, both a decision to circumcise and a decision to not circumcise are legitimate decisions, and either decision is an appropriate exercise of parental authority on behalf of a minor child.

#### COMMENT:

### **Tables**

Both tables are highly selective in the data presented and need to be completely revised. Results for which there was clear sampling bias and/or lead-time bias need to be adjusted accordingly. The results of meta-analysis of observational studies need to be included. All of the prospective studies of incidence need to be included and updated.

**RESPONSE 90:** The data selected for presentation in the tables represent the best quality scientific evidence available (RCTs) at the time of the review.

#### **COMMENT:**

## **Closing Comments**

What is going on at the CDC? After taking over seven years, the CDC finally generates recommendations that mimic the talking points propagated by male circumcision enthusiasts. But, this is only the latest in a string of bizarre actions taken by people within the CDC who have been addressing the issue of male circumcision. The first action was taking up the issue at all. Heterosexually-transmitted HIV infection is only 10% of the HIV infections seen in the United States and 70% or more of the sexually active males in the United States are already circumcised. Many of those males with HIV are/were circumcised, so how did circumcision help them? Why is "circumcision to prevent HIV" even an issue in the United States? It does not make sense to expend the energy on such a highly circumcised population unless the action was intended to maintain a high percentage of male circumcision for some other reason.

The next action was to convene the consultation in 2007, inviting nearly every prominent male circumcision enthusiast on the planet. Of the 50 or so people from outside the CDC invited to attend, only one had ever published studies that were not favorable to the practice of male circumcision. Not much diversity represented there. This would make it sound as though there is only one scientist in the world who has published such studies. Clearly, there are plenty of scientists who could have voiced an alternative viewpoint and who would have been willing to attend the consultation, but

they were not invited. Only one was invited, as the token dissenting voice. A similar tactic was used when the WHO/UNAIDS rammed through its approval of male circumcision in Montreux in 2007, where Gary Dowsett was the token voice of opposition. It is not surprising that this experiment in "group think" provided the CDC with all the ammunition it needed to move forward. In 2009, the CDC held a conference in Atlanta on male circumcision and HIV. They invited Inon Schenker of Operation Abraham and the Jerusalem AIDS Project to give a presentation. The last slide in his presentation was a photograph of a completely naked, genitally intact male on whom the figure of an elephant had been drawn around the penis so that the intact penis looked like an elephant's trunk. The words "Yes! A circumcision please!" had been added to the photo. Such a crass insult to every intact male was uncalled for. Apologies have obviously been in order, and requested, but never granted. It is not apparent why the CDC would tolerate what was clearly intended to be hate speech.

It is not clear why the CDC would purposely publish recommendations and a supporting background document that they must know is not evidence-based. By doing so, the CDC has placed health care providers in the untenable situation of committing malpractice, by disseminating false information, thereby placing their patients at unnecessary risk. Why would they want to embarrass themselves in this fashion? Is the CDC so infiltrated and controlled with male circumcision advocates that producing something this biased and unscientific was mandated from the top? There is evidence that Peter Kilmarx, who initially headed up this project, was part of an email mailing list of male circumcision advocates in 2006. How much contact between officials at the CDC and pro-male circumcision lobbyists would a freedom of information request reveal? Is the CDC somehow beholden to the pro-male circumcision lobby? Is this draft a concession to the lobby to demonstrate that the CDC was willing to do their bidding? One has to wonder how much of the effort to "prove" that male circumcision prevented HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases in Africa was actually not about helping those in Africa, but more about maintaining the current rates of male circumcision in the United States, keeping them from going into free fall. The narrow, single-minded focus of the CDC in this draft supports this contention.

What will the CDC do now that their biased, culturally-based position has been exposed as being scientifically fraudulent? How can anything the CDC says or does be taken seriously after one has followed their subjective handling of this issue over the years? It is time to save face. Trash this draft and start over.

# **REFERENCES** (from Peer Reviewer No. 3):

- 1(CDC4). 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; 2(11): e298.
- 2(CDC5). Bailey RC, Moses S, Parker CB, Agot K, Krieger JN, Williams CFM, Campbell RT, Ndinya-Achola JO. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in young men in Kisumu, Kenya: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet 2007; 369: 643-56.
- 3(CDC6). Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Makumbi F, Watya S, Nalugoda F,

- Kiwanuka N, Moulton LH, Chaudhary MA, Chen MZ, Sewankambo NK, Wabwire-Mangen F, Bacon MC, Williams CFM, Opendi P, Reynolds SJ, Laeyendecker O, Quinn TC, Wawer MJ. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in men in Rakai, Uganda: a randomised trial. Lancet 2007; 369: 657-66.
- 4. Dowsett GW, Couch M. Male circumcision and HIV prevention: is there really enough of the right kind of evidence? Reproductive Health Matters 2007; 15(29): 33-44.
- 5. Garenne M, Giami A, Perrey C. Male circumcision and HIV control in Africa: questioning scientific evidence and the decision-making process. In Giles-Vernick T, Webb JLA Jr eds. Global Health in Africa: Historical Perspectives on Disease Control. Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Press; 2013: 185-210.
- 6. O'Brien TR, Calle EE, Poole WK. Incidence of neonatal circumcision in Atlanta, 1985-1986. South Med J 1995; 88: 411-5.
- 7. Mansfield CJ, Hueston WJ, Rudy M. Neonatal circumcision: associated factors and length of hospital stay. J Fam Pract 1995; 41: 370-6.
- 8. 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.
- 9(CDC181). Laumann EO, Masi CM, Zuckerman EW. Circumcision in the United States: prevalence, prophylactic effects, and sexual practice. JAMA 1997; 277: 1052-7.
- Thomas AG, Bakhireva LN, Brodline SK Shaffer RA. Prevalence of circumcision and its association with HIV and sexually transmitted infections in a male US Navy population. Naval Health Research Center. Report No. 04-10. 2004.
- 11. Chiasson MA, Stoneburner RL, Hildebrandt DS, Ewing WE, Telzak EE, Jaffe HW. Heterosexual transmission of HIV-1 associated with the use of smokable freebase cocaine (crack). AIDS 1991; 5: 1121-6.
- 12(CDC64). Warner L, Ghanem KG, Newman DR, Macaluso M, Sullivan PS, Erbelding EJ. Male circumcision and risk of HIV infection among heterosexual African American men attending Baltimore sexually transmitted disease clinics. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 59-65.
- 13. Mishra V, Medley A, Hong R, Yuan Gu Y, Robey B. Levels and Spread of HIV Seroprevalence and Associated Factors: Evidence from National Household Surveys. DHS Comparative Reports No. 22. Calverton, Maryland, USA: Macro International Inc; 2009.
- 14. Rodriguez-Diaz CE, Clatts MC, Jovet-Toledo GG, Vargas-Molina RL, Goldsamt LA, García H. More than foreskin: circumcision status, history of HIV/STI, and sexual risk in a clinic-based sample of men in Puerto Rico. J Sex Med 2012; 9: 2933-7.
- 15(CDC37). Telzak EE, Chiasson MA, Bevier PJ, Stoneburner RL, Castro KG, Jaffe HW. HIV-1 seroconversion in patients with and without genital ulcer disease. Ann Intern Med 1993; 119: 1181-6.
- 16(CDC12). Smith DK, Taylor A, Kilmarx PH, Sullivan P, Warner L, Kamb M, Bock N, Kohmescher B, Mastro TD. Male circumcision in the United States for the prevention of HIV infection and other adverse health outcomes: report from a CDC consultation. Publ Health Rep 2010; 125 (Suppl 1): 72-82.
- 17. Sunstein CR, Hastle R. Wiser: getting beyond group think to make groups smarter. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press; 2014.
- 18. de Camargo MR Jr, de Oliveira Mendonça AL, Perry C, Giami A. Making the

- circumcision controversy controversial: going meta and taking aim at the messenger(s): reply to Wamai et al. Glob Publ Health 2015; epub ahead of print.
- 19(CDC155). Kaplan GW. Complications of circumcision. Urol Clin North Am 1983; 10: 543-9.
- 20(CDC98). Moses S, Bailey RC, Ronald AR. Male circumcision: assessment of health benefits and risk. Sex Transm Infect 1998; 74(5): 368-73.
- 21(CDC47). 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: 14: 2361-70.
- 22(52). Siegfried N, Muller M, Volmink J, Deeks J, Egger M, Low N, Weiss H, Walker S, Williamson P. Male circumcision for prevention of heterosexual acquisition of HIV in men. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2003; (3): CD003362.
- 23. (CDC141) Singh-Grewal D, Macdessi J, Craig J. Circumcision for the prevention of urinary tract infection in boys: A systematic review of randomized trials and observational studies. Arch Dis Child 2005; 90: 838-8.
- 24(CDC99). Weiss HA, Thomas SL, Munabi SK, Hayes RJ. Male circumcision and risk of syphilis, chancroid, and genital herpes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Sex Transm Infect 2006; 82: 101-10.
- 25(CDC95). Millett GA, Flores SA, Marks G, Reed JB, Herbst JH. Circumcision status and risk of HIV and sexually transmitted infections among men who have sex with men. JAMA 2008; 300: 1674-1684. Errata JAMA 2009; 301: 1126-9.
- 26(CDC140). Shaikh N, Morone NE, Bost JE, Farrell MH. Prevalence of urinary tract infection in childhood: a meta-analysis. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2008; 27: 302-8.
- 27(CDC43). Siegfried N, Muller M, Deeks JJ, Volmink J. Male circumcision for prevention of heterosexual acquisition of HIV in men. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2009; (2): CD003362.
- 28(CDC71). Weiss HA, Hankins CA, Dickson K. Male circumcision and risk of HIV infection in women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Infect Dis 2009; 9: 669-77.
- 29(CDC157). Weiss HA, Larke N, Halperin D, Schenker I. Complications of circumcision in male neonates, infants and children: a systematic review. BMC Urol 2010 (Feb 16); 10:2.
- 30(CDC93). Wiysonge CS, Kongnyuy EJ, Shey M, Muula AS, Navti OB, Akl EA, Lo YR. Male circumcision for prevention of homosexual acquisition of HIV in men. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2011; (6): CD007496.
- 31(CDC57). Halperin DT, Bailey RC. Male circumcision and HIV infection: 10 years and counting. Lancet 1999; 354: 1813-5.
- 32(CDC16). Szabo R, Short RV. How does male circumcision protect against HIV infection? Br Med J 2000; 320: 1592-4.
- 33(CDC153). Morris BJ, Bailis SA, Wiswell TE. Circumcision rates in the United States: rising or falling? what effect might the new affirmative pediatric policy statement have? Mayo Clin Proc 2014; 89: 677-86.
- 34. Timmermans, S., & Berg, M. (2010). The gold standard: The challenge of evidence-based medicine and standardization in health care. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
- 35. Ioannidis JPA. Contradicted and initially stronger effects in highly cited clinical

- research. JAMA 2005; 294: 218-28.
- 36.Ioannidis JPA. Why most published research findings are false. PLoS Med 2005; 2(8): e124.
- 37.loannidis JPA. How to make more published research true. PLoS Med 2014: 11(10): e1001747.
- 38. Hinman F Jr. Circumcision. BJU Int 1999; 84: 543.
- 39. Muller AJ. To cut or not to cut? Personal factors influence primary care physicians' position on elective newborn circumcision. J Men's Health 2010; 7: 227-32.
- 40(CDC245). Task Force on Circumcision. Male circumcision. Pediatrics 2012; 130: e756-85.
- 41. Brady M. "Newborn Male Circumcision with Parental Consent, as Stated in the 2012 AAP Circumcision Policy Statement, is Both Ethical and Legal in the United States," presentation at Twentieth Pitts Lectureship in Medical Ethics, Charleston, South Carolina, October 18, 2013.
- 42. Swindler DJ, Erwin J. Reproduction and Development. In Comparative Primate Biology, vol 3. New York: A. R. Liss; 1986, 108-109.
- 43. Soliman AH. A Comparative Study of the Female Genital System of Mamalia. [MD thesis]. Cairo, Egypt: Department of Anatomy, Cairo University; 1956.
- 44. Martin RD. Primate Origins and Evolution: a Phylogenetic Reconstruction. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press; 1990, 42-3.
- 45. Ro JY, Grignon DJ, Amin MB, Ayala A. Atlas of Surgical Pathology of the Male Reproductive Tract. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1997, 189.
- 46. Fletcher C. Penile wounding: complications of routine male circumcision in a typical American family practice. In Denniston GC, Hodges FM, Milos MF, editors. Genital cutting: protecting children from medical, cultural, and religious infringements. New York: Springer; 2013: 85-99.
- 47. Richters J, Gerofi J, Donovan B. Are condoms the right size(s)? a method for self-measurement of the erect penis. Venereology 1995; 8(2): 77-81.
- 48. Kigozi G, Wawer M, Ssettuba A, Kagaayi J, Nalugoda F, Watya S, Mangen FW, Kiwanuka N, Bacon MC, Lutalo T, Serwadda D, Gray RH. Foreskin surface area and HIV acquisition in Rakai, Uganda (size matters). AIDS 2009; 23: 2209-13.
- 49. Jefferson G. The Peripenic muscle; Some observations on anatomy of phimosis. Surg Gynecol Obstetr 1916; 23: 177-81.
- 50. Lakshmanan S, Prakash S. Human Prepuce Some Aspects of Structure and function. Ind J Surg 1980; 42: 134-7.
- 51. Woolsey G. Applied Surgical Anatomy. New York: Lea Brothers. 1902. 405-407.
- 52. Øster J. Further fate of the foreskin. Incidence of preputial adhesions, phimosis, and smegma among Danish schoolboys. Arch Dis Child 1968; 43: 200-3.
- 53. Spence J. Spence on circumcision. Lancet 1950; 2: 902.
- 54(CDC169). Cold CJ, Taylor J. The prepuce. BJU Int 1999; 83 (suppl 1): 34-44.
- 55. Taylor JR, Lockwood AP, Taylor AJ. The prepuce: specialized mucosa of the penis and its loss to circumcision. Br J Urol 1996; 77: 291-5.
- 56. Taylor J. The prepuce: what, exactly, is removed by circumcision? a preliminary report. Presentation given in San Francisco, California, Wednesday, May 1, 1991.
- 57. Winkelmann RK. Nerve Endings In Normal and Pathologic Skin. Springfield, Ill: CC Thomas. 1960.

- 58. Winkelmann RK. The erogenous zones: their nerve supply and significance. Proc Mayo Clin 1959: 34: 39-47.
- 59. Yamada K. Studies in the innervation in tenth month human embryo. Tohoku J Exper Med 1951; 54: 151.
- 60. Winkelmann RK. The mucocutaneous end-organ. Arch Dermatol 1957; 76: 225-35.
- 61. Yamada K. On the sensory nerve terminations in clitoris in human adult. Tohoku J Exper Med 1951; 54: 163-74.
- 62. Krantz KE. Innervation of the human vulva and vagina microscopic study. Obstet Gynecol 1958; 12: 382-96.
- 63. Ohmori D. Uber die entwicklung der innervation der genital apparatus als peripheren aufnahme-apparat der genitalen reflex. Ztschrj Jges Anat U Entw 1924; 70: 347-410.
- 64. Dogiel AS. Die nervenendigunngen in der schleimhaut der aussen genitalorgane des menschen. Arch f mikr Anat 1893; 41: 585-612.
- 65. Dogiel AS. Uber die nervenendapparate in der haut des menschen. Ztschr f wiss Zool 1903; 75: 46-111;
- 66. Winklemann RK. The cutaneous innervation of human newborn prepuce. J Invest Derm 1956; 26: 53-67.
- 67. Butler AB, Hodos W. Comparative Vertebrate Neuroanatomy: Evolution and Adaptation. New York: Wiley-Liss, 1996.
- 68. Stenn KS, Bhawan J. The normal histology of the skin. In Farmer ER, Hood AF, eds. Pathology of the Skin. Norwalk, CT: Appleton and Lange; 1990.
- 69. Money J, Davison J. Adult penile circumcision: erotosexual and cosmetic sequelae. J Sex Res 1983; 19: 289-292.
- 70. Devine CJ, Jordan GH, Schlossberg SM. Surgery of the penis and urethra. In Walsh PC, Retik AB, Stamey TA, Vaughan ED eds. Campbells Urology, 6th edn, Vol. 3. Philadelphia: Saunders; 1992, 2964.
- 71. Snell RS. Clinical Anatomy for Medical Students. 5th edn. Boston: Little Brown; 1995, 358.
- 72. Yang CC, Bradley WE. Peripheral distribution of the human dorsal nerve of the penis. J Urol 1998; 159: 1912-6; discussion 1916-7.
- 73. Yang CC, Bradley WE. Reflex innervation of the bulbocavernosus muscle. BJU Int 2000; 85: 857-63.
- 74. Bradley WE, Farrell DF, Ojemann GA. Human cerebrocortical potentials evoked by stimulation of the dorsal nerve of the penis. Somatosens Mot Res 1998; 15: 118-27.
- 75. Yang CC, Bradley WE. Innervation of the human glans penis. J Urol 1999; 161: 97-102.
- 76. Moldwin RM, Valderrama E. Immunohistochemical analysis of nerve distribution patterns within preputcial[sic] tissue [abstract 1337]. J Urol 1989; 141: 449A.
- 77. Bazett HC. Methods of investigation of sensation in man and the theoretical value of the results obtained. Proc Assoc Res Nerv Ment Dis 1935; 15: 83-97.
- 78. Halata Z, Munger B. The neuroanatomical basis for the protopathic sensibility of the human glans penis. Brain Res 1986; 371: 205-30.
- 79. Kantner M. Studien über den sensiblen Apparat in der glans penis (II). A Mikroskopish-Anat Forschung 1953; 59: 439-62.
- 80. Light AR, Perl ER. Peripheral sensory systems. In Dyck PJ, Thomas PK eds. Peripheral Neuropathy 3rd edn. Philadelpia: Saunders; 1993, 150.

- 81. von Frey M. Beitraege zur Physiologie des Schmerzsinns. Zweite Mitt. Akad Wiss Leipzig Math Naturwiss KI Ber 1984; 46: 283-96.
- 82. Barreto J, Caballero C, Cubilla A. Penis. In Sternberg SS ed. Histology For Pathologists, 2nd edn. New York: Raven Press; 1997, 1043-4.
- 83. Belman AB. The penis. Urol Clin North Am 1978; 5: 17-29.
- 84. Korenbrot CC, Huhtaniemi IT, Weiner RI. Preputial separation as an external sign of pubertal development in the male rat. Biol Reprod 1977; 17: 298-303.
- 85. Kayaba H, Tamura H, Kitajima S, Fujiwara Y, Kato T, Kato T. Analysis of shape and retractibility of the prepuce in 603 Japanese boys. J Urol 1996; 156: 1813-5.
- 86. Hsu CC. The development of the prepuce. J Formosan Med Assoc 1983; 82: 314-320.
- 87. Weiss GN. Prophylactic neonatal surgery and infectious diseases. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1997; 16: 727-34.
- 88. Baskin LS. Circumcision. In Baskin, LS, Kogan BA, Duckeft JW, eds. Handbook of Pediatric Urology. Philadelphia: Lippincott-Raven; 1997, 1-9.
- 89. Duckett JW. A temperate approach to neonatal circumcision. Urology 1995; 46: 771-2.
- 90. Desrochers A, St. Jean G, Anderson DE. Surgical management of preputial injuries in bulls: 51 cases (1986-1994). Can Vet J 1995; 36: 553-6.
- 91. Lumina AR, Sachs BD, Meisel RL. Sexual reflexes in male rats: restoration by ejaculation following suppression by penile sheath removal. Physiol Behavior 1979; 23: 273-7.
- 92. Nadler RD. Proximate and ultimate influences on the regulation of mating in the great apes. Am J Primatol 1995; 37: 93-102.
- 93. Williams-Ashman HG. Enigmatic features of penile development and functions. Perspectives Biol Med 1990; 33: 335-74.
- 94. Dixson AF. Baculum length and copulatory behavior in primates. Am J Primatol 1987; 13: 51-60.
- 95. Ninomiya K, Brown RE. Removal of the preputial glands alters the individual odors of male MHC-congenic mice and the preferences of females for these odors. Physiol Behav 1995; 58: 191-4.
- 96. Bronson FH, Caroom D. Preputial gland of the male mouse: attractant function. J Reprod Fert 1971; 25: 279-82.
- 97. Ninomiya K, Kimura T. Male odors that influence the preference of female mice: roles of urinary and preputial factors. Physiol Behav 1988; 44: 791-5.
- 98. Caroom D, Bronson FH. Responsiveness of female mice to preputial attractant: effects of sexual experience and ovarian hormones. Physiol Behav 1971; 7: 659-62.
- 99. Gawienowski AM, Orsulak PJ, Stacewicz-Sapuntzakis M, Joseph BM. Presence of sex pheromone in preputial glands of male rats. J Endocr 1975; 67: 283-8.
- 100. Orsulak PJ, Gawienowski AM. Olfactory preferences for the rat preputial gland. Biol Reprod 1972; 6: 219-23.
- 101. Ninomiya K, Nohara I, Toyoda T, Kimura T. The pattern of volatile compounds in incubated and fresh preputial fluid in male mice. Zoological Science 1993; 10: 537-42.
- 102. Chipman RK, Albrecht ED. The relationship of the male preputial gland to the acceleration of oestrus in the laboratory mouse. J Reprod Fert 1974; 38: 91-96.

- 103. Hucklebridge FH, Nowell NW, Wouters A. A relation between social experience and preputial gland function in the albino mouse. J Endocr 1972: 55: 449-450.
- 104. Jones RB, Nowell NW. Effects of preputial and coagulating gland secretions upon aggressive behavior in male mice: a confirmation. J Endocr 1973; 59: 203-4.
- 105. Fleiss PM, Hodges F, Van Howe RS. Immunological functions of the human prepuce: a review. Sex Transm Inf 1998; 74: 364-7.
- 106. Gray FJ. Circumcision--a surgeon's viewpoint. Med J Aust 1982; 1: 179-80.
- 107. Young RH, Srigley JR, Amin MB, Ulbright TM, Cubilla AL. Chapter 10: The penis. In: Tumors of The Prostate Gland, Seminal Vesicles, Male Urethra, and Penis. In Rosai J, Sobin LH, eds. Atlas of Tumor Pathology. Washington, DC: Armed Forces Institute of Pathology; 2000: 403-88.
- 108(CDC170). Sorrells ML, Snyder JL, Reiss MD, Eden C, Milos MF, Wilcox N, Van Howe RS. Fine-touch pressure thresholds in the adult penis. BJU Int 2007; 99: 864-9.
- 109. Bleustein CB, Fogarty JD, Eckholdt H, Arezzo JC, Melman A. Effect of neonatal circumcision on penile neurologic sensation. Urology 2005; 65: 773-7.
- 110. Payne K, Thaler L, Kukkonen T, Carrier S, Binik Y. Sensation and sexual arousal in circumcised and uncircumcised men. J Sex Med 2007; 4: 667-74.
- 111. Yang DM, Lin H, Zhang B, Guo W. [Circumcision affects glans penis vibration perception threshold]. Zhonghua Nan Ke Xue 2008; 14: 328-30.
- 112. Morgan WKC. The rape of the phallus a sequel. JAMA 1965; 194: 195.
- 113. Morgan K. Male and female circumcision in Canada. Can Med Assoc J 1993; 149: 1382-3.
- 114. Taves D. The intromission function of the foreskin. Med Hypotheses 2002; 59: 180-2.
- 115. O'Hara K, O'Hara J. The effect of male circumcision on the sexual enjoyment of the female partner. BJU Int 1999; 83 (suppl 1): 79-84.
- 116. Shen Z, Chen S, Zhu C, Wan Q, Chen Z. [Erectile function evaluation after adult circumcision]. Zhonghua Nan Ke Xue 2004; 10: 18–9.
- 117. Lubchenco LO. Routine neonatal circumcision: a surgical anachronism. Clin Obstet Gynecol 1980; 23: 1135-40.
- 118. Warren J, Bigelow J. The case against circumcision. Br J Sex Med 1994; Sept/Oct: 6-8.
- 119. McGrath K. The frenular delta: a new preputial structure. In Denniston GC, Hodges FM, Milos MF, editors. Understanding circumcision: a multi-disciplinary approach to a multi-dimensional problem. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers; 2001: 199-206.
- 120. Podnar S. Clinical elicitation of the penilo-cavernosus reflex in circumcised men. BJU Int 2012; 109; 582-5.
- 121. Parkash S, Rao R, Venkatesan K, Ramakrishnan S. Sub-preputial wetness-it nature. Ann Natl Med Sci India 1982; 18: 109-12.
- 122. Levin RJ. VIP, vagina, clitoral, and periurethral glans-an update on human female genital arousal. Exp Clin Endocrinology 1991; 98(2): 61-9.
- 123. Prabir K. Tissue distribution of constitutive and induced soluble peroxidase in rat: purification and characterization from lacrimal gland. Eur J Biochem 1992;206:59-67.
- 124. Coppa GV, Gabrielli O, Giorgi P, Catassi C, Montanari MP, Varaldo PE, Nichols

- BL. Preliminary study of breastfeeding and bacterial adhesion to uroepithelial cells. Lancet 1990;335:569-71.
- 125. Frohlich E, Schaumburg-Lever G, Klessen C. Immunelectron microscopic localization of cathepsin B in human exocrine glands. J Cutan Pathol 1993; 20: 54-6.
- 126. Ahmed AA, Nordlind K, Schultzberg M, Lidén S. Immunohistochemical localization of IL-1 alpha-, IL-1 beta-, IL-6- and TNF-alpha-like immunoreactivities in human apocrine glands. Arch Dermatol Res 1995; 287: 764-6.
- 127. de Witte L, Nabatov A, Pion M, Fluitsma D, de Jong MAWP, de Gruijl T, Piguet V, van Kooyk Y, Geijtenbeek TBH. Langerin as a natural barrier to HIV-1 transmission by Langerhans cells. Nat Med 2007; 13: 367-71.
- 128. Cohn BA. In search of human skin pheromones. Arch Derm 1994;130:1048-51.
- 129. Tobgi RS, Samaranayake LP, MacFarlane TW. In vitro susceptibility of Candida species to lysozyme. Oral Microbiol Immunol 1988; 3(1): 35-9.
- 130. Kraus SJ, Ellison N. Resistance to gonorrhea possibly mediated by bacterial interference. Appl Microbiol 1974; 27: 1014-6.
- 131. Volk J, Kraus SJ. Asymptomatic meningococcal urethritis. Possible protective value against gonococcal infection by bacteriocin production. Br J Vener Dis 1973; 49: 511-2.
- 132. Wallin J, Gnarpe H. Possible inhibition of N. gonnorrhoeae by C. albicans. A clinical study. Br J Vener Dis 1975; 51: 174-5.
- 133. Hipp SS, Lawton WD, Chen NC, Gaafar HA. Inhibition of Neisseria gonorrhoeae by a factor produced by Candida albicans. Appl Microbiol 1974; 27: 192-6.
- 134. Ruffner DC, Jerse AE. Inhibition of Neisseria gonorrhoeae by lactobacillus species that are commonly isolated from the female genital tract. In: Abstract Guide Thirteenth Meeting of the International Society for Sexually Transmitted Diseases Research; July 11-14, 1999; Denver, Colorado. Abstract 093.
- 135. Saigh JH, Sanders CC, Sanders WE Jr. Inhibition of Neisseria gonorrhoeae by aerobic and facultatively anaerobic components of the endocervical flora: evidence for a protective effect against infection. Infect Immun 1978; 19: 704-10.
- 136. van De Wijgert JH, Mason PR, Gwanzura L, Mbizvo MT, Chirenje ZM, Iliff V, Shiboski S, Padian NS. Intravaginal practices, vaginal flora disturbances, and acquisition of sexually transmitted diseases in Zimbabwean women. J Infect Dis 2000; 181: 587-94.
- 137. Herthelius M, Gorbach SL, Mollby R, Nord CE, Pettersson L, Winberg J. Elimination of vaginal colonization with Escherichia coli by administration of indigenous flora. Infect Immun 1989; 57: 2447-51.
- 138. Neubert U, Lentze I. Die Bakterielle Flora des Prputialraumes. Hautarzt 1979;30:149-53.
- 139. Kumar B, Dawn G, Sharma M, Malla N. Urethral flora in adolescent boys. Genitourin Med 1995; 71: 328-9.
- 140. Neubert U, Lentze I. Die bakterielle H flora des praputialraumes. Der Hautarzt 1979; 30: 49-53.
- 141. Wiswell TE, Curtis J, Dobek AS, Zierdt CH. Staphylococcus aureus colonization after neonatal circumcision in relation to device used. J Pediatr 1991; 119: 302-4.
- 142. Wiswell TE, Miller GM, Gelston HM Jr; Jones SK, Clemmings AF. Effect of circumcision status on periurethral bacterial flora during the first year of life. J Pediatr

- 1988; 113: 442-6.
- 143(CDC30). Price LB, Liu CM, Johnson KE, Aziz M, Lau MK, Bowers J, Ravel J, Keim PS, Serwadda D, Wawer MJ, Gray RH.The effects of circumcision on the penis microbiome. PLoS One 2010; 5(1): e8422.
- 144. Liu CM, Hungate BA, Tobian AAR, Serwadda D, Ravel J, Lester R, Kigozi G, Aziz M, Galiwago RM, Nalugoda F, Contente-Cuomo TL, Wawer MJ, Keim P, Gray RH, Price LB. Male circumcision significantly reduces prevalence and load of genital anaerobic bacteria. mBio 2013 4(2): e00076-13.
- 145. Fussell EN, Kaack MB, Cherry R, Roberts JA. Adherence of bacteria to human foreskins. J Urol 1988; 140: 997-1001.
- 146. Tarhan H, Akarken I, Koca O, Ozgü I, Zorlu F. Effect of preputial type on bacterial colonization and wound healing in boys undergoing circumcision. Korean J Urol 2012; 53: 431-4.
- 147. Schneider JA, Vadivelu S, Liao C, Kandukuri SR, Trikamji BV, Chang E, Antonopoulos D, Prasad S, Lakshmi V. Increased likelihood of bacterial pathogens in the coronal sulcus and urethra of uncircumcised men in a diverse group of HIV infected and uninfected patients in India. J Glob Infect Dis 2012; 4(1): 6-9.
- 148. Ladenhauf HN, Ardelean MA, Schimke C, Yankovic F, Schimpl G. Reduced bacterial colonisation o the glans penis after male circumcision in children a prospective study. J Pediatr Urol 2013; 9: 1137-44.
- 149. Nelson DE, Dong Q, Van der Pol B, Toh E, Fan B, Katz BP, Rong R, Weinstock GM, Sodergren E, Fortenberry JD. Bacterial communities of the coronal sulcus and distal urethra of adolescent males. PLoS One 2012; 7(5): e36298.
- 150. Schiefer HG. Microbiology of male urethroadnexitis: diagnostic procedures and criteria for aetiologic classification. Andrologia 1998; 30 Suppl 1: 7-13.
- 151. Sigismond. Circumcision and newborn UTIS: Winberg's solution. BJU Int 2003; 91: 429.
- 152. Zwang G. Quel avenir pour la circoncision? Contraception, fertilité, sexualité 1995; 23: 350.
- 153. Dritsas LS. Below the belt: doctors, debate, and the ongoing American discussion of routine neonatal male circumcision. Bull Sci Technol Soc 2001; 21: 297-311.
- 154. Stingl G, Rappersberger K, Tschachler E, Gartner S, Groh V, Mann DL, Wolff K, Popovic M. Langerhans cells in HIV-1 infection. J Am Acad Dermatol 1990; 22: 1210-7.
- 155. Stingl G. Bergstresser PR. Dendritic cells: a major story unfolds. Immunol Today 1995: 16: 330-3.
- 156. Birbeck MSC, Braethnach AS, Everall J. An electron microscopic study of basal melanocyte and high level clear cell (Langerhans cell) in vitiligo. J Invest Dermatol 1961; 37: 51-63.
- 157. Enk AH, Angeloni VL, Udey MC, Katz SI. An essential role for Langerhans cell-derived IL-1beta in the initiation of primary immune responses in skin. J Immunol 1993; 150: 3698-704.
- 158. Hogan AD, Burks AW. Epidermal Langerhans cells and their function in the skin immune system. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1995; 75: 5-10.
- 159. Nezelof C. Basset F. Langerhans cell histocytosis research. Hematol Oncol Clin North Am 1998; 12: 385-406.

- 160. Streilein JW, Bergstresser PR. Langerhans cells: antigen presenting cells of the epidermis. Immunobiology 1984; 168:285-300.
- 161. Foster CA, Holbrook KA. Ontogenic expression of HLA-DR and OKT-6 determinants by human embryonic and fetal Langerhans cells. Clin Res 1985; 33: 637A.
- 162. Dezutter-Dambuyant C. [Recent data and current studies of epidermal Langerhans cells] Pathol Biol Paris 1995; 43: 841-7.
- 163. Tang AM, Amagai M, Granger LG, Stanley JR, Udey MC. Adhesion of epidermal Langerhans cells to keratinocytes mediated by e-cadherin. Nature 1993; 361: 82-5.
- 164. Halliday GM, Cavenagh L, Barnetson RSC. Regulation of the skin immune system by local antigen presenting cells. Today's Life Science 1990; 2(11): 26-34.
- 165. Blauvelt A. The role of skin dendritic cells in the initiation of human immunodeficiency virus infection. Am J Med 1997; 102(5B):16-20.
- 166. Blauvelt A, Asada H, Saville MW, Klaus-Kovtun V, Altman DJ, Yarchoan R, Katz SI. Productive infection of dendritic cells by HIV-1 and their ability to capture virus are mediated through separate pathways. J Clin Invest 1997; 100: 2043-53.
- 167. Braathen LR. The role of human epidermal Langerhans cells in skin immunity. Derm Beruf Umwelt 1987; 35: 58-61.
- 168. Braathen LR, Bjercke S, Thorsby E. The antigen-presenting function of human Langerhans cells. Immunobiology 1984; 168: 301-12.
- 169. Zaitseva M, Blauvelt A, Lee S, Lapham CK, Klaus-Kovtun V, Mostowski H, Manischewitz J, Golding H. Expression and function of CCR5 and CXCR4 on human Langerhans cells and macrophages: implications for HIV primary infection. Nat Med 1997; 3: 1369-75.
- 170. Hussain LA, Lehner T. Comparative investigation of Langerhans' cells and potential receptors for HIV in oral, genitourinary and rectal epithelia. Immunol 1995; 85: 475-84.
- 171. Stingl G, Wolff-Schriener EC, Pichler WJ, Gschnait F, Knapp W, Wolff K. Epidermal Langerhans cells bear Fc and C3 receptors. Nature 1977; 268: 245-6.
- 172. Kanitakis J, Hoyo E, Perrin C, Schmitt D. Electron-microscopic observations of a human epidermal Langerhans cell in mitosis. J Dermatol 1993; 20: 35-9.
- 173. Braathen LR. Studies on human epidermal Langerhans cells III. Induction of T lymphocyte response to nickel sulphate in sensitized individuals. Br J Dermatol 1980; 103: 517-26.
- 174. Fichorova RN, Anderson DJ. Differential expression of immunobiological mediators by immortalized human cervical and vaginal epithelial cells. Biol Reprod 1999; 60: 508-14.
- 175. Braathen LR, Berle E, Mobech-Hanssen U, Thorsby E. Studies on human epidermal Langerhans' cells: II. Activation of human T lymphocytes to herpes simplex virus. Acta Derm Venereol 1980; 60: 381-7.
- 176. Braathen LR, Ramirez G, Kunze ROF, Gelderblom H. Langerhans cells as primary target cells for HIV infection. Lancet 1987; 2: 1094.
- 177. Muller HK, Halliday GM, Knight BA. Carcinogen-induced depletion of cutaneous Langerhans cells. Br J Cancer 1985; 52: 81-5.
- 178. Braathen LR, Thorsby E. Studies on human epidermal Langerhans cells. I. Alloactivating and antigen-presenting capacity. Scand J Immunol 1980; 11: 401-8.

- 179. Kalter DC, Greenhouse JJ, Orenstein JM, Schnittman SM, Gendelman HE, Meltzer MS. Epidermal Langerhans cells are not principal reservoirs of virus in HIV disease. J Immunol 1991; 146: 3396-404.
- 180. Barton SE, Maddox PH, Jenkins D, Edwards R, Cuzick J, Singer A. Effect of cigarette smoking on cervical epithelial immunity: a mechanism for neoplastic change? Lancet 1988; 2: 652-4.
- 181. Gairdner D. The fate of the foreskin. Br Med J 1949; 2: 1433-7.
- 182. Berman B, Chen VL, France DS, Dotz WI, Petroni G. Anatomical mapping of epidermal Langerhans cell densities in adults. Br J Dermatol 1983; 109: 553-8.
- 183. Weiss GN, Sanders SM, Westbrook KC. The distribution and density of langerhans cells in the human prepuce: site of a diminished immune response? Israel J Med Sci 1993; 29: 42-3.
- 184. Chu T, Jaffe R. the normal Langerhans cells and the LCH cell. Br J Cancer 1994; 23 Suppl: S4-10.
- 185. Van Howe RS. Sexually transmitted infections and male circumcision: a systematic review and meta-analysis. ISRN Urol 2013: 109846.
- 186. Van Howe RS. Variability in penile appearance and penile findings: a prospective study. Br J Urol 1997; 80: 776-82.
- 187. Van Howe RS. Neonatal circumcision and penile inflammation in young boys. Clin Pediatr (Phila) 2007; 46: 329-33.
- 188. Enzenauer RW, Dotson CR, Leonard T, Reuben L, Bass JW, Brown J III. Male predominance in persistent staphylococcal colonization and infection of the newborn. Hawaii Med J 1985; 44: 389-90, 392, 394-6.
- 189. Enzenauer RW, Dotson CR, Leonard T Jr, Brown J III, Pettett PG, Holton ME. Increased incidence of neonatal staphylococcal pyoderma in males. Mil Med 1984; 149: 408-10.
- 190. Fergusson DM, Lawton JM, Shannon FT. Neonatal circumcision and penile problems: an 8-year longitudinal study. Pediatrics 1988; 81: 537-41.
- 191. Dinh MH, McRaven MD, Kelley Z, Penugonda S, Hope TJ. Keratinization of the adult male foreskin and implications for male circumcision. AIDS 2010; 24: 899-906.
- 192. Dinh MH, Hirbod T, Kigozi G, Okocha EA, Cianci GC, Kong X, Prodger JL, Broliden K, Kaul R, Serwadda D, Wawer MJ, Gray RH, Hope TJ. No difference in keratin thickness between inner and outer foreskins from elective male circumcisions in Rakai, Uganda. PLoS One 2012; 7: e41271.
- 193. Albero G, Castellsagué X, Lin H-Y, Fulp W, Villa LL, Lazcano-Ponce E, Papenfuss M, Abrahamsen M, Salmerón J, Quiterio M, Nyitray AG, Lu B, Bosch FX, Giuliano AR. Male circumcision and the incidence and clearance of genital human papillomavirus (HPV) infection in men: the HPV Infection in men (HIM) cohort study. BMC Infect Dis 2014; 14: Article ID 75.
- 194. Makumbi FE, Gray RH, Wawer M, Nakigozi FG, Serwada D, Kigozi G, Watya S, Sempijja V, Wabwire-Mangen F. Male post-coital penile cleansing and the risk of HIV-acquisition in rural Rakai district, Uganda [abstract]. 4th IAS Conference On HIV Pathogenesis, Treatment and Prevention. Sydney, Australia. July 22-25, 2007.
- 195. Boyle GJ, Hill G. Sub-Saharan African randomised clinical trial in male circumcision and HIV transmission: methodological, ethical and legal concerns. J Law Med 2011; 19: 316-34.

- 196. Brody S1, Potterat JJ. Assessing the role of anal intercourse in the epidemiology of AIDS in Africa. Int J STD AIDS 2003; 14: 431-6.
- 197. Deuchert E, Brody S. The role of health care in the spread of HIV/AIDS in Africa: evidence from Kenya. Int J STD AIDS 2006; 17: 749-52.
- 198. Deuchert E, Brody S. Lack of autodisable syringe use and health care indicators are associated with high HIV prevalence: an international ecologic analysis. Ann Epidemiol 2007; 17: 199-207.
- 199. Gisselquist D, Potterat JJ, Brody S. HIV transmission during paediatric health care in sub-Saharan Africa risks and evidence. S Afr Med J 2004; 94: 109-16.
- 200. 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; 15: 442-52.
- 201. Gisselquist D, Potterat JJ, St. Lawrence JS, Hogan M, Arora NK, Correa M, Dinsmore WW, Mehta G, Millogo J, Muth SQ, Okinyi M, Ounga T. How to contain generalized HIV epidemics? A plea for better evidence to displace speculation. Int J STD AIDS 2009; 20: 443–6.
- 202. Gisselquist D, Potterat JJ, St Lawrence JS, Hogan M, Correa M, Dinsmore W, Muth SQ. Repeating a plea for better research and evidence. Int J STD AIDS 2011; 22: 416-7.
- 203. St Lawrence JS, Klaskala W, Kankasa C, West JT, Mitchell CD, Wood C. Factors associated with HIV prevalence in a pre-partum cohort of Zambian women. Int J STD AIDS 2006; 17: 607-13.
- 204. Gisselquist D, Rothenberg R, Potterat J, Drucker E. Non-sexual transmission of HIV has been overlooked in developing countries. Br Med J 2002; 324: 235.
- 205. Gisselquist D, Potterat JJ. Heterosexual transmission of HIV in Africa: an empiric estimate. Int J STD AIDS 2003; 14: 162-73.
- 206. Gisselquist D, Pottarat JJ, Brody S, Vachon F. Let it be sexual: how health care transmission of AIDS in Africa was ignored. Int J STD AIDS 2003; 14: 148-61.
- 207. Gisselquist D. Points to consider: responses to HIV/AIDS in Africa, Asia and Caribbean. London: Adonis & Abbey Publishers Ltd; 2008.
- 208. Gisselquist D. Denialism undermines AIDS prevention in sub-Saharan Africa. Int J STD AIDS 2008; 19: 649-55.
- 209. Brewer DD, Potterat JJ, Roberts JM Jr, Brody S. Male and female circumcision associated with prevalent HIV infection in virgins and adolescents in Kenya, Lesotho, and Tanzania. Ann Epidemiol 2007; 17: 217-26.
- 210. Sawers L, Stillwaggon E. Concurrent sexual partnerships do not explain the HIV epidemics in Africa: a systematic review of the evidence. J Int AIDS Soc 2010; 13: 34.
- 211. Wilson N, Xiong W, Mattson C. Is sex like driving? risk compensation associated with male circumcision in Kisumu, Kenya. NEUCD 2011 Yale University.
- 212. Wilson NL, Xiong W, Mattson CL. Is sex like driving? HIV prevention and risk compensation. J Dev Econ 2014; 106: 78-91.
- 213. Data as of March 2012. Adapted from AVAC: Global Advocacy for HIV Prevention, a founding partner of Africans Telling the Truth About Medical Male Circumcision. Distributed at XIX International AIDS Conference; July 2012; Washington DC.
- 214. Smith AD. Why a U.S. circumcision push failed in Swaziland. PBS. July 5, 2012.

- http://www.pbs.org/newshour/updates/health-july-dec12-swaziaids 07-05/.
- 215. Masinga W. Over 34 000 Swazi men circumcised. Swazi Observer. October 1, 2012. <a href="http://www.observer.org.sz/index.php?news=34135.">http://www.observer.org.sz/index.php?news=34135.</a>]
- 216. Nleya F. Low uptake of male circumcision. NewsDay (Zimbabwe). April 14, 2014. <a href="https://www.newsday.co.zw/2014/04/14/low-uptake-male-circumcision/#comment-262685.">https://www.newsday.co.zw/2014/04/14/low-uptake-male-circumcision/#comment-262685.</a>]
- 217. Dube C. F/town adult males spurn circumcision. the Monitor (Botswana). May 21, 2012. http://www.mmegi.bw/index.php?sid=1&aid=370&dir=2012/May/Monday21.]
- 218. 80% target set for male circumcision. UK Zambians. June 2, 2012. http://ukzambians.co.uk/home/2012/06/02/80-target-set-for-male-circumcision/,
- 219. Nga'asike L. Residents earn Sh100 for getting circumcised. Standard Media. August 29, 2011. <a href="http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2000041756/residents-earn-sh100-for-getting-circumcised.">http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2000041756/residents-earn-sh100-for-getting-circumcised.</a>]
- 220. Podder CN, Sharomi O, Gumel AB, Moses S. To cut or not to cut: a modeling approach for assessing the role of male circumcision in HIV control. Bull Math Biol 2007; 69: 2447-66.
- 221. Londish GJ, Murray JM. Significant reduction in HIV prevalence according to male circumcision intervention in sub-Saharan Africa. Int J Epidemiol 2008; 37: 1246-53.
- 222. Nagelkerke NJD, Moses S, de Vlas SJ, Bailey RC. Modelling the public health impact of male circumcision for HIV prevention in high prevalence areas in Africa. BMC Infect Dis 2007 Mar 13; 7: 16.
- 223(CDC72). Hallett TB, Alsallaq RA, Baeten JM, Weiss H, Celum C, Gray R, Abu-Raddad L. Will circumcision provide even more protection from HIV to women and men? New estimates of the population impact of circumcision interventions. Sex Transm Infect 2011; 87: 88-93.
- 224. Cox AP, Foss AM, Shafer LA, Nsubuga RN, Vickerman P, Hayes RJ, Watts C, White RG. Attaining realistic and substantial reductions in HIV incidence: model projections of combining microbicide and male circumcision interventions in rural Uganda. Sex Transm Infect 2011; 87: 635-9.
- 225. Dushoff J, Patocs A, Shi CF. Modeling the population-level effects of male circumcision as an HIV-preventive measure: a gendered perspective. PLoS One 2011; 6(12): e28608.
- 226. Alsallaq RA, Cash B, Weiss HA, Longini IM Jr, Omer SB, Wawer MJ, Gray RH, Abu-Raddad LJ. Quantitative assessment of the role of male circumcision in HIV epidemiology at the population level. Epidemics 2009; 1: 139-52.
- 227(CDC223). Gray RH, Li X, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Nalugoda F, Watya S, Reynolds SJ, Wawer M. The impact of male circumcision on HIV incidence and cost per infection prevented: a stochastic simulation model from Rakai, Uganda. AIDS 2007; 21: 845-50..
- 228. Bollinger LA, Stover J, Musuka G, Fidzani B, Moeti T, Busang L. The cost and impact of male circumcision on HIV/AIDS in Botswana. J Int AIDS Soc 2009; 12(1): 7.
- 229. Auvert B, Marseille E, Korenromp EL, Lloyd-Smith J, Sitta R, Taljaard D, Pretorius C, Williams B, Kahn JG. Estimating the resources needed and savings anticipated from roll-out of adult male circumcision in Sub-Saharan Africa. PLoS One 2008; 3(8):

- e2679.
- 230. Binagwaho A, Pegurri E, Muita J, Bertozzi S. Male circumcision at different ages in Rwanda: a cost- effectiveness study. PLoS Med 2010; 7: e1000211.
- 231. Williams BG, Lloyd-Smith JO, Gouws E, Hankins C, Getz WM, Hargrove J, de Zoysa I, Dye C, Auvert B. The potential impact of male circumcision on HIV in sub-Saharan Africa. PLoS Med 2006; 3: e262.
- 232(CDC222). Kahn JG, Marseille E, Auvert B. Cost-effectiveness of male circumcision for HIV prevention in a South African setting. PLoS Med 2006; 3(12); e517.
- 233. Payne R, Muenchhoff M, Mann J, Roberts HE, Matthews P, Adland E, Hempenstall A, Huang KH, Brockman M, Brumme Z, Sinclair M, Miura T, Frater J, Essex M, Shapiro R, Walker BD, Ndung'u T, McLean AR, Carlson JM, Goulder P. Impact of HLA-driven HIV adaptation on virulence in populations of high HIV seroprevalence. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2014; 111{50}: E5393-400.
- 234. Montori VM, Devereaux PJ, Adhikari NK, Burns KE, Eggert CH, Briel M, Lacchetti C, Leung TW, Darling E, Bryant DM, Bucher HC, Schünemann HJ, Meade MO, Cook DJ, Erwin PJ, Sood A, Sood R, Lo B, Thompson CA, Zhou Q, Mills E, Guyatt GH. Randomized trial stopped early for benefit: a systematic review. JAMA 2005; 294: 2203-9.
- 235. Walsh M, Srinathan SK, McAuley DF, Mrkobrada M, Levine O, Ribic C, Molnar AO, Dattani ND, Burke A, Guyatt G, Thabane L, Walter SD, Pogue J, Devereaux PJ. The statistical significance of randomized controlled trial results is frequently fragile: a case for a Fragility Index. J Clin Epidemiol 2014; 67: 622-8.
- 236. Moses S, Bailey RC, Agot K Reda D, Maclean W, Ronald AR, Ndinya-Achola JO. A randomized, controlled trial of male circumcision (MC) to prevent HIV infection in Kisumu, Kenya [Abstract D11315]. Presented at XIV International AIDS Conference, Barcelona, July 7-12, 2002.
- 237. Bailey RC, Okamo PL, Oroko EM, Ndinya-Achola JO, Moses S. The feasibility of a randomized controlled trial of male circumcision to reduce HIV incidence in Kisumu, Kenya [Abstract ThPeC7407]. Presented at XIV International AIDS Conference, Barcelona, July 7-12, 2002.
- 238. Gisselquist D. Randomized controlled trials for HIV/AIDS prevention among men in Africa: untraced infections, unmasked questions, and unreported data. In Denniston GC, Hodges FM, Milos MF, editors. Genital cutting: protecting children from medical, cultural, and religious infringements. New York: Springer; 2013: 243-70.
- 239. Van Howe RS, Svoboda JS, Hodges FM. HIV infection and circumcision: cutting through the hyperbole. J R Soc Health 2005; 125: 259-65.
- 240. Siegfried N. Does male circumcision prevent HIV infection? PLoS Med 2005; 2(11): e393.
- 241. World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. Ethical principles for medical research involving human subjects. <a href="http://www.wma.net/e/policy/17-c\_e.html">http://www.wma.net/e/policy/17-c\_e.html</a>. Accessed December 6, 2001.
- 242(CDC46). Gray R, Kigozi G, Kong X, Ssempiija V, Makumbi F, Wattya S, Serwadda D, Nalugoda F, Sewenkambo NK, Wawer MJ. The effectiveness of male circumcision for HIV prevention and effects on risk behaviors in a posttrial follow-up study. AIDS 2012; 26: 609-15.
- 243(CDC44). Bailey RC, Moses S, Parker CB, Agot K, MacLean I, Kreiger JN, Willams

- CFM, Ndinya-Achola JG. The protective effect of adult male circumcision against HIV acquisition is sustained for at least 54 months: results from the Kisumu, Kenya trial. XVIII International AIDS Conference. Vienna, Austria; 2010.
- 244(CDC45). Bailey RC, Moses S, Parker CB. The protective effect of male circumcision is sustained for at least 42 months: results from the Kisumu, Kenya Trial. SVIII International AIDS Conference. Mexico City, Mexico; 2008.
- 245. Mehta SD, Moses S, Agot K, Odoyo-June E, Li H, Maclean I, Hedeker D, Bailey RC. The long term efficacy of medical male circumcision against HIV acquisition. AIDS 2013; 27(18): 2899-907.
- 246(CDC51). Connolly C, Shanmugam R, Simbayi LC, Nqeketo A. Male circumcision and its relationship to HIV infection in South Africa: Results of a national survey in 2002. S Afr Med J 2008; 98: 789-94.
- 247(CDC50)]. Garenne M. Long-term population effect of male circumcision in generalised HIVepidemics in sub-Saharan Africa. Afr J AIDS Res 2008; 7: 1-8.
- 248. Institut de Statistiques et d'Études Économiques du Burundi (ISTEEBU), Ministère de la Santé Publiqu et de la Lutte contra le Sida [Burundi] (MSPLS0), ICF International. Enquête Démographique et de Santé Burundi 2010. Bujumbura, Burundi: ISTEEBU, MSPLS, ICF Internataional; 2012.
- 249. Demographic and Health Surveys. Chapter 15: HIV Prevalence and Associated Factors. In Rwanda National Health and Demographic Survey for 2005. Demographic and Health Surveys 2006: 225-41.
- 250. Malawi National Statistical Office. Malawi Demographic and Health Survey 2010. Zombia, Malawi; 2011.
- 251. Van Howe RS, Storms MR. How the circumcision solution in Africa will increase HIV infections. J Publ Health Afr 2011; 2: e4.
- 252. Drain PK, Smith JS, Hughes JP, Halperin DT, Holmes KK. Correlates of National HIV Seroprevalence: An Ecologic Analysis of 122 Developing Countries. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2004; 35: 407-20.
- 253. Moses S, Bradley JE, Nagelkerke NJ, Ronald AR, Ndinya Achola JO, Plummer FA. Geographical patterns of male circumcision practices in Africa: association with HIV seroprevalence. Int J Epidemiol. 1990; 19: 693-7.
- 254. Bongaarts J, Reining P, Way P, Conant F. The relationship between male circumcision and HIV infection in African populations. AIDS. 1989; 3: 373-7
- 255. Caldwell JC, Caldwell P. The African AIDS epidemic. Sci Am 1996; 274: 62-3, 66-8.
- 256. Talbott JR. Size matters: the number of prostitutes and the global HIV/AIDS pandemic. PLoS One 2007; 2(6): e543.
- 257. Storms MR. AAFP fact sheet on neonatal circumcision: a need for updating. Am Fam Physician 1996; 54: 1216, 1218.
- 258. Anderson S. HIV risking circumcision in developed countries. Genital Autonomy 2014: 13th International Symposium on Genital Autonomy and Children's Rights. Boulder, Colorado, July 24, 2014.
- 259. Bauer AZ, Kriebel D. Prenatal and perinatal analgesic exposure and autism: an ecological link. Environ Health 2013; 12(1): 41.
- 260. Urassa M, Todd J, Boerma JT, Hayes R, Isingo R. Male circumcision and susceptibility to HIV infection among men in Tanzania. AIDS 1997; 11:73-80.

- 261. Gray RH, Kiwanuka N, Quinn TC, Sewankambo NK, Serwadda D, Mangen FW, Lutalo T, Nalugoda F, Kelly R, Meehan M, Chen MZ, Li C, Wawer MJ. Male circumcision and HIV acquisition and transmission: cohort studies in Rakai, Uganda. Rakai Project Team. AIDS 2000; 14: 2371-81.
- 262. Gray R, Azire J, Serwadda D, Kiwanuka N, Kigozi G, Kiddugavu M, Nalugoda F, Li X, Wawer M. Male circumcision and the risk of sexually transmitted infections and HIV in Rakai, Uganda. AIDS 2004; 18: 2428-30.
- 263. Lavreys L, Rakwar JP, Thompson ML, Jackson DJ, Mandaliya K, Chohan BH, Bwayo JJ, Ndinya-Achola JO, Kreiss JK. Effect of circumcision on incidence of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 and other sexually transmitted diseases: a prospective cohort study of trucking company employees in Kenya. J Infect Dis 1999; 180: 330-6.
- 264. Rakwar J, Lavreys L, Thompson ML, Jackson D, Bwayo J, Hassanali S, Mandaliya K, Ndinya-Achola J, Kreiss J. Cofactors for the acquisition of HIV-1 among heterosexual men: prospective cohort study of trucking company workers in Kenya. AIDS 1999; 13: 607-14.
- 265. Cameron DW, Simonsen JN, D'Costa LJ, Ronald AR, Maitha GM, Gakinya MN, Cheang M, Ndinya Achola JO, Piot P, Brunham RC, Plummer FA. Female to male transmission of human immunodeficiency virus type 1: risk factors for seroconversion in men. Lancet. 1989; 2: 403-7.
- 266. Nasio JM, Nagelkerke NJ, Mwatha A, Moses S, Ndinya Achola JO, Plummer FA. Genital ulcer disease among STD clinic attenders in Nairobi: association with HIV-1 and circumcision status. Int J STD AIDS 1996; 7: 410-4.
- 267. Reynolds SJ, Shepherd ME, Risbud AR, Gangakhedkar RR, Brookmeyer RS, Divekar AD, Mehendale SM, Bollinger RC. Male circumcision and risk of HIV-1 and other sexually transmitted infections in India. Lancet 2004; 363: 1039-40.
- 268. 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; 21: 2231-5.
- 269. Bwayo J, Plummer F, Omari M, Mutere A, Moses S, Ndinya Achola J, Velentgas P, Kreiss J. Human immunodeficiency virus infection in long-distance truck drivers in east Africa. Arch Intern Med 1994; 154: 1391-6.
- 270. Tyndall MW, Ronald AR, Agoki E, Malisa W, Bwayo JJ, Ndinya Achola JO, Moses S, Plummer FA. Increased risk of infection with human immunodeficiency virus type 1 among uncircumcised men presenting with genital ulcer disease in Kenya. Clin Infect Dis 1996; 23: 449-53.
- 271. Seed J, Allen S, Mertens T, Hudes E, Serufilira A, Carael M, Karita E, Van de Perre P, Nsengumuremyi F. Male circumcision, sexually transmitted disease, and risk of HIV. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol 1995; 8: 83-90.
- 272. Simonsen JN, Cameron DW, Gakinya MN, Ndinya Achola JO, D'Costa LJ, Karasira P, Cheang M, Ronald AR, Piot P, Plummer FA. Human immunodeficiency virus infection among men with sexually transmitted diseases. Experience from a center in Africa. N Engl J Med. 1988; 319: 274-8.
- 273. Vaz RG, Gloyd S. Folgosa E, Kreiss J. Syphilis and HIV infection among prisoners in Muputo, Mozambique. Int J STD AIDS 1995; 6: 42-6.
- 274. Mwandi Z, Bunnell R, Cherutich P, Mermin J, Kim AA, Gichangi A, Mureithi P,

- Kellogg TA, Oluoch T, Muttunga J, Ngare C, Kim E, Kaiser R. Male circumcision programmes in Kenya: lessons from the Kenya AIDS indicator survey 2007. Bull WHO 2012; 90: 642-51.
- 275. Harbertson J, Grillo M, Zimulinda E, Murego C, Brodine S, May S, Sebagabo M, Araneta MR, Cronan T, Shaffer R. HIV seroprevalence, associated risk behavior, and alcohol use among male Rwanda Defense Forces military personnel. AIDS Behav 2013; 17(5): 1734-45.
- 276. 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; 15: 157-63.
- 277. Allain J-P, Anokwa M, Casbard A, Owusu-Ofori S, Dennis-Antwi J. Sociology and behaviour of West African blood donors: the impact of religion on human immunodeficiency virus infection. Vox Sang 2004; 87: 233-40.
- 278. Auvert B, Ballard R, Campbell C, Caraël M, Carton M, Fehler G, Gouws, MacPhail C, Taljaard D, Van Dam J, Williams B. HIV infection among youth in a South African mining town is associated with herpes simplex virus-2 seropositivity and sexual behaviour. AIDS 2001; 15: 885-98.
- 279. Auvert B, Buvé A, Lagarde E, Kahindo M, Chege J, Rutenberg N, Musonda R, Laourou M, Akam E, Weiss HA; Study Group on the Heterogeneity of HIV Epidemics in African Cities. Male circumcision and HIV infection in four cities in sub-Saharan Africa. AIDS 2001; 15 Suppl 4: S31-40.
- 280. Baeten JM, Richardson BA, Lavreys L, Rakwar JP, Mandaliya K, Bwayo JJ, Kreiss JK. Female-to-male infectivity of HIV-1 among circumcised and uncircumcised Kenyan men. J Infect Dis 2005; 191: 546-53.
- 281. Banandur P, Rajaram SP, Mahagaonkar SB, Bradley J, Ramesh BM, Washington RG, Blanchard JF, Moses S, Lowndes CM, Alary M. Heterogeneity of the HIV epidemic in the general population of Karnataka state, south India. BMC Public Health. 2011; 11 Suppl 6: S13.
- 282(CDC49). Barongo LR, Borgdorff MW, Mosha FF, Nicoll A, Grosskurth H, Senkoro KP, Newell JN, Changalucha J, Klokke AH, Killewo JZ, Velema JP, Hayes RJ, Dunn DT, Muller LAS, Rugemalila JB. The epidemiology of HIV-1 infection in urban areas, roadside settlements and rural villages in Mwanza Region, Tanzania. AIDS 1992; 6: 1521-8.
- 283. Barongo LR, Borgdorff MW, Newell JN, Senkoro KP, Klokke AH, Changalucha J, Deville W, Velema JP, Coutinho RA, Gabone RM. Intake of a cohort study of urban factory workers in northwest Tanzania. Risk factors for HIV-1 infection. Trop Geogr Med 1994; 46: 157-62.
- 284. Bloom SS, Urassa M, Isingo R, Ng'weshemi J, Boerma JT. Community effects on the risk of HIV infection in rural Tanzania. Sex Transmit Infect 2002; 78: 261-6.
- 285. Bollinger RC, Brookmeyer RS, Mehendale SM, Paranjape RS, Shepherd ME, Gadkari DA, Quinn TC. Risk factors and clinical presentation of acute primary HIV infection in India. JAMA 1997; 278: 2085-9.
- 286. Bwayo JJ, Omari AM, Mutere AN, Jaoko W, Sekkade Kigondu C, Kreiss J, Plummer FA. Long distance truck-drivers: 1. Prevalence of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). East Afr Med J 1991; 68: 425-9.
- 287. Carael M, Van de Perre PH, Lepage PH, Allen S, Nsengumuremyi F, Van Goethem C, Ntahorutaba M, Nzaramba D, Clumeck N. Human immunodeficiency

- virus transmission among heterosexual couples in Central Africa. AIDS. 1988; 2: 201-5.
- 288. Dandona L, Dandona R, Kumar GA, Reddy B, Ameer A, Ahmed GM, Ramgopal SP, Akbar M, Sudha T, Lakshmi V. Risk factors associated with HIV in a population-based study in Andhra Pradesh state of India. Int J Epidemiol 2008; 37: 1274-86.
- 289. Diallo MO, Ackah AN, Lafontaine MF, Doorly R, Roux R, Kanga JM, Heroin P, De Cock KM. HIV-1 and HIV-2 infections in men attending sexually transmitted disease clinics in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire. AIDS. 1992; 6: 581-5.
- 290. Diallo S, Toloba Y, Coulibaly SA, Dabitao D, Diop S, Doumbia S, Keita B. Male circumcision and HIV in the Malian military. Mali Med 2008; 23(1): 45-6.
- 291. Foglia G, Sateren B, Renzullo PO, Bautista CT, Langat L, Wasunna MK, Singer DE, Scott PT, Robb ML, Birx DL. High prevalence of HIV infection among rural tea plantation residents in Kericho, Kenya. Epidemiol Infect 2008; 136: 694-702.
- 292. Gilks CF, Otieno LS, Brindle RJ, Newnham RS, Lule GN, Were JB, Simani PM, Bhatt SM, Okelo GB, Waiyaki PG, Warrell DA. The presentation and outcome of HIV-related disease in Nairobi. Q J Med 1992; 82(297): 25-32.
- 293. Gomo E, Chibatamoto PP, Chandiwana SK, Sabeta CT. Risk factors for HIV infection in a rural cohort in Zimbabwe: a pilot study. Cent Afr J Med 1997; 43: 350-4.
- 294. Greenblatt RM, Lukehart SA, Plummer FA, Quinn TC, Critchlow CW, Ashley RL, D'Costa LJ, Ndinya-Achola JO, Corey L, Ronald AR, Holms KK. Genital ulceration as a risk factor for human immunodeficiency virus infection. AIDS. 1988; 2: 47-50.
- 295. Grosskurth H, Mosha F, Todd J, Senkoro K, Newell J, Klokke A, Changalucha J, West B, Mayaud P, Gavyole A, Gabone R, Mabey D, Hayes R. A community trial of the impact of improved sexually transmitted disease treatment on the HIV epidemic in rural Tanzania: 2. Baseline survey results. AIDS 1995; 9: 927-34.
- 296. Hargreaves JR. Socioeconomic status and risk of HIV infection in an urban population in Kenya. Trop Med Int Health 2002; 7: 793-802.
- 297. Harrison LH, da Silva AP, Gayle HD, Albino P, George R, Lee-Thomas S, Rayfield MA, Del Castillo F, Heyward WL. Risk factors for HIV-2 infection in Guinea-Bissau. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 1991; 4: 1155-60.
- 298. Heffron R, Chao A, Mwinga A, Sylvester Sinyangwe S, Sinyama A, Ginwalla R, Shields M, Kafwembe M Kaetano L, Mulenga C, Kasongo W, Mukonka V, Bulterys M. High prevalent and incident HIV-1 and herpes simplex virus 2 infection among male migrant and non-migrant sugar farm workers in Zambia. Sex Transm Infect 2011; 87: 283-8.
- 299. Hira SK, Kamanga J, Macuacua R, Mwansa N, Cruess DF, Perine PL. Genital ulcers and male circumcision as risk factors for acquiring HIV-1 in Zambia. J Infect Dis 1990; 161: 584-5.
- 300. Hugonnet S, Mosha F, Todd J, Mugeye K, Klokke A, Ndeki L, Ross D, Grosskurth H, Hayes R. Incidence of HIV Infection in Stable Sexual Partnerships: A Retrospective Cohort Study of 1802 Couples in Mwanza Region, Tanzania. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002; 30: 73-90.
- 301. Kapiga SH, Sam NE, Mlay J, Aboud S, Ballard RC, Shao JF, Larsen U. The epidemiology of HIV-1 infection in northern Tanzania: results from a community-based study. AIDS Care 2006; 18: 379-87.

- 302. Kelly R, Kiwanuka N, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Sewankambo NK, Wabwire-Mangen F, Li C, Konde-Lule JK, Lutalo T, Makumbi F, Gray RH. Age of male circumcision and risk of prevalent HIV infection in rural Uganda. AIDS 1999; 13: 399-405.
- 303. Kisesa sero-survey team. Kisesa sero-survey 1994-1995. Report of basic findings. TENESA Internal Report Series No. 8, March 1996 (unpublished report)
- 304. Kumwenda NI, Taha TE, Hoover DR, Markakis Diane, Liomba GN, Chiphangwi JD, Celentano DD. HIV-1 Incidence among male workers at a sugar estate in rural Malawi. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2001; 27: 202-8.
- 305. Lankoande S, Meda N, Sangare L, Compaore IP, Catraye J, Zan S, Van Dyck E, Cartoux M, Soudre R. L'infection a VIH chez les chauffeurs routiers au Burkina Faso: une enquete de seroprevalence. Med Trop (Mars) 1998; 58(1): 41-6.
- 306. Lingappa J, Thomas KK, Hughes JP, Baeten JM, Wald A, Farquhar C, de Bruyn G, Fife KH, Campbell MS, Kapiga S, Mullins JI, Celum C. Partner characteristics predicting HIV-1 setpoint in sexually acquired HIV-1 among African seroconverters. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 2012 Oct 12. [Epub ahead of print]
- 307. MacDonald KS, Malonza I, Chen DK, Nagelkerke NJ, Nasio JM, Ndinya-Achola J, Bwayo JJ, Sitar DS, Aoki FY, Plummer FA. Vitamin A and risk of HIV-1 seroconversion among Kenyan men with genital ulcers. AIDS 2001; 15: 635-9.
- 308. Mbugua GG, Muthami LN, Mutura CW, Oogo SA, Waiyaki PG, Lindan CP, Hearst N. Epidemiology of HIV infection among long distance truck drivers in Kenya. East Afr Med J. 1995; 72: 515-8.
- 309. Mehendale SM, Shepherd ME, Divekar AD, Gangakhedkar RR, Kamble SS, Menon PA, Yadav R, Risbud AR, Paranjape RS, Gadkari DA, Quinn TC, Bollinger RC, Rodrigues JJ. Evidence for high prevalence & rapid transmission of HIV among individuals attending STD clinics in Pune, India. Indian J Med Res 1996; 104: 327-35.
- 310. 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; 43: 117-8.
- 311. Mermin J, Musinguzi J, Opio A, Kirungi W, Ekwaru JP, Hladik W, Kaharuza F, Downing R, Bunnell R. Risk factors for recent HIV infection in Uganda. JAMA 2008; 200: 540-9.
- 312. Ministry of Health, ICF International, Centers for Disease Control and Preventions, U.S. Agency for International Development, WHO Uganda. Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2011. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Health; 2012.
- 313. Oluoch T, Mohammed I, Bunnell R, Kaiser R, Kim AA, Gichangi A, Mwangi M, Dadabhai S, Marum L, Orago A, Mermin J. Correlates of HIV infection among sexually active adults in Kenya: a national population-based survey. Open AIDS J 2011; 5: 125-34.
- 314. Pedhambkar R, Pedhambkar B, Kura M. Study of risk factors associated with HIV seropositivity in STD patients at Mumbai, India. Sex Transm Infect 2001; 77: 388-9.
- 315. Pison G, Le Guenno B, Lagarde E, Enel C, Seck C. Seasonal migration: a risk factor for HIV infection in rural Senegal. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 1993; 6: 196-200
- 316. Quigley M, Munguti K, Grosskurth H, Todd J, Mosha F, Senkoro K, Newell J,

- Mayaud P, ka-Gina G, Klokke A, Mabey D, Gavyole A, Hayes R. Sexual behaviour patterns and other risk factors for HIV infection in rural Tanzania: a case-control study. AIDS 1997; 11: 237-48.
- 317(CDC54). Quinn TC, Wawer MJ, Sewankambo N, Serwadda D, Li C, Wabwire-Mangen, Meehan MO, Lutalo T, Gray RH. Viral load and heterosexual transmission of human immunodeficiency virus type 1. N Engl J Med 2000; 342: 921-9.
- 318. Rodrigues JJ, Mahendal SM, Shepard ME, Divekar AD, Gangakhedkar RR, Quinn TC, Paranjape RS, Risbud AR, Brookmeyer RS, Gadkari DA, Gokhale MR, Rompalo AM, Deshpande SG, Khalandkar MM, Mawer N, Bollinger RC. Risk factors for HIV infection in people attending clinics for STDss in India. Br Med J 1995; 311: 283-5.
- 319. Sassan Morokro M, Greenberg AE, Coulibaly IM, Coulibaly D, Sidibe K, Ackah A, Tossou O, Gnaore E, Wiktor SZ, De Cock KM. High rates of sexual contact with female sex workers, sexually transmitted diseases, and condom neglect among HIV infected and uninfected men with tuberculosis in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol 1996; 11: 183-7.
- 320. Serwadda D, Wawer MJ, Musgrave SD, Sewankambo NK, Kaplan JE, Gray RH. HIV risk factors in three geographic strata of rural Rakai District, Uganda. AIDS 1992; 6: 983-9.
- 321. Shaffer DN, Bautista CT, Sateren WB, Sawe FK, Kiplangat SC, Miruka AO, Renzullo PO, Scott PT, Robb ML, Michael NL, Birx DL. 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 Syndr 2007; 45: 371-9.
- 322. Van de Perre P, Carael M, Nzaramba D, Zissis G, Kayihigi J, Butzler JP. Risk factors for HIV seropositivity in selected urban-based Rwandese adults. AIDS 1987; 1: 207-11.
- 323. Wawer MJ, Sewankambo NK, Serwadda D, Quinn TC, Paxton LA, Kiwanuka N, Wabwire-Mangen F, Li C, Lutalo T, Nalugoda F, Gaydos CA, Moulton LH, Meehan MO, Ahmed S, Gray RH. Control of sexually transmitted diseases for AIDS prevention in Uganda: a randomised community trial. Rakai Project Study Group. Lancet 1999: 353: 525-35.
- 324. van Houwelingen HC, Arends LR, Stijnen T. Advanced methods in meta-analysis: multivariate approach and meta-regression. Stat Med 2002; 21: 589-624.
- 325. Van Howe RS. Circumcision as a primary HIV preventive: extrapolating from the available data. Glob Publ Health 2015; epub ahead of print.
- 326. Charlebois ED, Havlir DV. "A Bird in the Hand...": a commentary on the test and treat approach for HIV. Arch Int Med 2010; 170: 1354-6.
- 327. Ministry of Health, ICF International, Centers for Disease Control and Preventions, U.S. Agency for International Development, WHO Uganda. Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2011. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Health; 2012
- 328. National AIDS Control Council, National AIDS and STD Control Programme. (2012). The Kenya AIDS epidemic: update 2011. Nairobi, Kenya: National AIDS Control Council; 2012.
- 329. Orido G. Push for male circumcision in Nyanza fails to reduce infections. Standard (Kenya) September 11, 2013. Retrieved from <a href="http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/?articleID=2000093293&story\_title=push-for-male-">http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/?articleID=2000093293&story\_title=push-for-male-</a>

- circumcision-in-nyanza-fails-to-reduce-infections]
- 330. Fischl M, Fayne T, Flanagan S, et al. Seroprevalence and risks of HIV infections in spouses of persons infected with HIV. IV International Conference on AIDS. Stockholm, June 1988 [abstract 4060].
- 331. Moss GB, Clemetson D, D'Costa L, Plummer FA, Ndinya Achola JO, Reilly M, Holmes KK, Piot P, Maitha GM, Hillier SL, Kiviat NC, Cameron CW, Wamola IA, Kreiss JK. Association of cervical ectopy with heterosexual transmission of human immunodeficiency virus: results of a study of couples in Nairobi, Kenya. J Infect Dis 1991; 164: 588-91.
- 332. Allen S, Lindan C, Serufilira A, Van de Perre P, Rundle AC, Nsengumuremyi F, Carael M, Schwalbe J, Hulley S. Human immunodeficiency virus infection in urban Rwanda. Demographic and behavioral correlates in a representative sample of childbearing women. JAMA 1991; 266: 1657-63.
- 333. Hellman NS, Desmond Hellman SD, Nsubuga P, Mbidde EK, Baingana Gaingi. Risk factors for HIV infection among Ugandan couples. VII International Conference on AIDS. Florence, June 1991 [abstract MC3080].
- 334(CDC68). Hunter DJ, Maggwa B, Mati JK, Tukei PM, Mbugua S. Sexual behavior, sexually transmitted diseases, male circumcision and risk of HIV infection among women in Nairobi, Kenya. AIDS 1994; 8: 93-9.
- 335. Chao A, Bulterys M, Musanganire F, Habimana P, Nawrocki P, Taylor E, Dushimimana A, Saah A. Risk factors associated with prevalent HIV-1 infection among pregnant women in Rwanda. National University of Rwanda-Johns Hopkins University AIDS Research Team. Int J Epidemiol 1994; 23: 371-80.
- 336. Seidlin M, Vogler M, Lee E, Lee YS, Dubin N. Heterosexual transmission of HIV in a cohort of couples in New York City. AIDS 1993; 7: 1247-54.
- 337(CDC67). Kapiga SH, Lyamuya EF, Lwihula GK, Hunter DJ. The incidence of HIV infection among women using family planning methods in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. AIDS 1998; 12: 75-84.
- 338. Wawer MJ, Makumbi K, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Watya S, Nalugoda F, Buwembo D, Ssempijja V, Kiwanuka N, Moulton LH, Sewankambo NK, Reynolds SJ, Quinn TC, Opendi P, Iga B, Ridzon R, Laeyendecker O, Gray RH. Circumcision in HIV-infected men and its effect on HIV transmission to female partners in Rakai, Uganda: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet 2009; 374: 229-37.
- 339. 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.
- 340. Lasry A, Sansom SL, Wolitski RJ, Green TA, Borkowf CB, Patel P, Mermin J. HIV sexual transmission risk among serodiscordant couples: assessing the efforts of combining prevention strategies. AIDS 2014; 28: 1521-9.
- 341. Patton ME, Su JR, Nelson R, Weinstock H. Primary and secondary syphilis United States 2005-2013. MMWR 2014; 63(18): 402-6.
- 342. Van Howe RS. Genital ulcerative disease and sexually transmitted urethritis and circumcision: a meta-analysis. Int J STD AIDS 2007; 18: 799-809.
- 343. Van Howe RS. Human papillomavirus and circumcision: A meta-analysis. J Infect 2007; 54: 490-6.
- 344. Albero G, Castellsagué X, Giuliano AR, Bosch FX. Male circumcision and genital

- human papillomavirus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Sex Transm Dis 2012; 39: 104-13.
- 345. Gray RH, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Kigozi G. The role of male circumcision in the prevention of human papillomavirus and HIV infection. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 1-3.
- 345. Rehmeyer CJ. Male circumcision and human papillomavirus studies reviewed by infection stage and virus type. J Am Osteopathy Assoc 2011; 111: (3 suppl 2) S11-8.
- 346(CDC100). Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Taljaard D, Nieuwoudt M, Lissouba P, Puren A, Auvert B. Male circumcision and Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Chlamydia trachomatis and Trichomonas vaginalis: observations after a randomised controlled trial for HIV prevention. Sex Transm Infect 2009; 85: 116-20.
- 347(CDC102). Mehta SD, Moses S, Agot K, Parker C, Ndinya-Achola JO, Maclean I, Bailey RC. Adult male circumcision does not reduce the risk of incident Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Chlamydia trachomatis, or Trichomonas vaginalis infection: results from a randomized, controlled trial in Kenya. J Infect Dis 2009; 200: 370-8.
- 348(CDC9). Auvert B, Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Cutler E, Nieuwoudt M, Lissaouba P, Puren A, Taljaard D. Effect of male circumcision on the prevalence of human-risk human papillomavirus in young men: results of a randomized controlled trial conducted in Orange Farm, South Africa. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 14-9.
- 349(CDC56). Mehta SD, Moses S, Parker CB, Agot K, Maclean I, Bailey RC. Circumcision status and incident HSV-2 infection, genital ulcer disease, and HIV infection. AIDS 2012; 26: 1141-9.
- 350(CDC8). Tobian AAR, Serwadda D, Quinn TC, Kigozi G, Gravitt PE, Laeyendecker O, Charvat B, Ssempijja V, Riedesel M, Oliver AE, Nowak RG, Moulton LH, Chen MZ, Reynolds SJ, Wawer MJ, Gray RH. Male circumcision for the prevention of HSV-2 and HPV infections and syphilis. N Engl J Med 2009; 360: 1298-309.
- 351(CDC7). Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Taljaard D, Lissouba P, Zarca K, Puren A, Legarde E, Auvert B. Effect of HSV-2 serostatus on acquisition of HIV by young men: results of a longitudinal study in Orange Farm, South Africa. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 958-64.
- 352. Storms MR. Male circumcision for the prevention of HSV-2 and HPV infections. N Engl J Med 2009; 361: 307.
- 353. Van Howe RS. Sampling bias explains association between human papillomavirus and circumcision. J Inf Dis 2009; 200: 832.
- 354. Van Howe RS, Storms MR. Circumcision to prevent HPV infection. Lancet Oncol 2009; 10: 746-7.
- 355. Aynaud O, Piron D, Bijaoui G, Casanova JM. Developmental factors of urethral human papillomavirus lesions: correlation with circumcision. BJU Int 1999; 84: 57-60.
- 356. Cook LS, Koutsky LA, Holmes KK. Circumcision and sexually transmitted diseases. Am J Public Health 1994; 84: 197-201.
- 357. Dave SS, Fenton KA, Mercer CH, Erens B, Wellings K, Johnson AM. Male circumcision in Britain: findings from a national probability sample survey. Sex Transm Infect 2003; 79: 499-500.
- 358. Diseker RA III, Peterman TA, Kamb ML, Kent C, Zenilman JM, Douglas JM Jr, Rhodes F, latesta M. Circumcision and STD in the United States: cross sectional and cohort analyses. Sex Transm Infect 2000; 76: 474-9.

- 359. Ferris JA, Richters J, Pitts MK, Shelley JM, Simpson JM, Ryall R, Smith AMA. Circumcision in Australia: further evidence on its effect on sexual health and wellbeing. Austr NZ J Public Health 2010; 34: 160-4.
- 360. Parker SW, Stewart AJ, Wren MN, Gollow MM, Straton JA. Circumcision and sexually transmissible disease. Med J Aust. 1983; 2: 288-90.
- 361. Richters J, Smith AMA, de Visser RO, Grulich AE, Rissel CE. Circumcision in Australia: prevalence and effects on sexual health. Int J STD AIDS 2006; 17: 547-54.
- 362. Schrek R, Lenowitz H. Etiologic factors in carcinoma of penis. Cancer Research 1947; 7: 180-7.
- 363. Taylor PK, Rodin P. Herpes genitalis and circumcision. Br J Vener Dis. 1975; 51: 274-7.
- 364. Auvert B, Buvé A, Lagarde E, Kahindo M, Chege J, Rutenberg N, Musonda R, Laourou M, Akam E, Weiss HA; Study Group on the Heterogeneity of HIV Epidemics in African Cities. Male circumcision and HIV infection in four cities in sub-Saharan Africa. AIDS 2001; 15 Suppl 4: S31-40.
- 365. Gebremedhin S. Assessment of the protective effect of male circumcision from HIV infection and sexually transmitted diseases: evidence from 18 demographic and health surveys in sub-Saharan Africa. Afr J Reprod Health 2010; 14: 105-13.
- 366. Gebremedhin S. Assessment of the protective effect of male circumcision from HIV infection and sexually transmitted diseases: evidence from 18 demographic and health surveys in Sub-Saharan Africa. East Afr J Public Health 2010; 7: 295-9.
- 367. Klavs I, Hamers FF. Male circumcision in Slovenia: results from a national probability sample survey. Sex Transm Infect 2008; 84: 49-50.
- 368. Langeni T. Male circumcision and sexually transmitted infections in Botswana. J Biosoc Sci 2005; 37: 75-88.
- 369. Fergusson DM, Boden JM, Horwood LJ. Circumcision status and risk of sexually transmitted infection in young adult males: an analysis of a longitudinal birth cohort. Pediatrics 2006; 118: 1971-7.
- 370. Dickson NP, van Roode T, Herbison P, Paul C. Circumcision and risk of sexually transmitted infections in a birth cohort. J Pediatr 2008; 152: 383-7.
- 371. Mattson CL, Campbell RT, Bailey RC, Agot K, Ndinya-Achola JO, Moses S. Risk compensation is not associated with male circumcision in Kisumu, Kenya: a multifaceted assessment of men enrolled in a randomized controlled trial. PLoS One 2008; 3(6): e2443.
- 372. Hutchinson J. On the influence of circumcision in preventing syphilis. Med Times Gazette 1855; 32: 542-3.
- 373. Wolbarst AL. Circumcision in infancy: a prophylactic and sanitary measure. Am Med 1926; 32: 23-9.
- 374. Barile MF, Blumberg JM, Kraul CW, Yaguchi R. Penile lesions among U.S. Armed Forces personnel in Japan. Arch Dermatol 1962; 86: 273-81.
- 375. 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; 15: 157-63.
- 376. Newell J, Senkoro K, Mosha F, Grosskurth H, Nicoll A, Barongo L, Borgdoff M, Klokke A, Changalucha J, Killewo J, Velema J, Muller AS, Rugemalila J, Mabey D, Hayes R. A population based study of syphilis and sexually tranmitted disease

- syndromes in north-western Tanzania. 2. Risk factors and health seeking behaviour. Genitourin Med 1993; 69: 421-6.
- 377(CDC108). Forbes HJ, Doyle AM, Maganja K, Changalucha J, Weiss HA, Ross DA, Hayes RJ. Rapid increase in prevalence of male circumcision in rural Tanzania in the absence of a promotional campaign. PLoS One 2012; 7(7): e40507.
- 378(CDC109). Westercamp M, Bailey RC, Bukusi EA, Montandon M, Kwena Z, Cohen DR. Male circumcision in the general population of Kisumu, Kenya: beliefs about protection, risk behaviors, HIV, and STIs. PLoS ONE 2010; 5(12): e15552.
- 379(CDC42). Tobian AAR, Serwadda D, Quinn TC, Kigozi G, Gravitt PE, Laeyendecker O, Charvat B, Ssempijja V, Riedesel M, Oliver AE, Nowak RG, Moulton LH, Chen MZ, Reynolds SJ, Wawer MJ, Gray RH. Male circumcision for the prevention of HSV-2 and HPV infections and syphilis. N Engl J Med 2009; 360: 1298-309.
- 380. Etchells E, Sharpe G, Walsh P, Williams JR, Singer PA. Bioethics for clinicians: 1. Consent. Can Med Assoc J 1996; 155: 177-80.
- 381. Schneider JA, Lakshmi V, Dandona R, Kumar GA, Talasila Sudha T, Dandona L. Population-based seroprevalence of HSV-2 and syphilis in Andhra Pradesh state of India. BMC Infect Dis 2010; 10: 59.
- 382(CDC144). Mallon E, Hawkins D, Dinneen M, Francics N, Fearfield L, Newson R, Bunker C. Circumcision and genital dermatoses. Arch Dermatol 2000; 136: 350-4.
- 383. Donovan B, Bassett I, Bodsworth NJ. Male circumcision and common sexually transmissible diseases in a developed nation setting. Genitourin Med 1994; 70: 317-20.
- 384. Buvé A, Weiss HA, Laga M, Van Dyck E, Musonda R, Zekeng L, Kahindo M, Anagonou S, Morison L, Robinson NJ, Hayes RJ; Study Group on Heterogeneity of HIV Epidemics in African Cities. The epidemiology of gonorrhoea, chlamydial infection and syphilis in four African cities. AIDS 2001;15 Suppl 4: S79-88.
- 385. Bassett I, Donovan B, Bodsworth NJ, Field PR, Ho DW, Jeansson S, Cunningham AL. Herpes simplex virus type 2 infection of heterosexual men attending a sexual health centre. Med J Aust 1994; 160: 697-700.
- 386. Dickson N, van Roode T, Paul C. Herpes simplex virus type 2 status at age 26 is not related to early circumcision in a birth cohort. Sex Transm Dis 2005; 32: 517-9.
- 387. Gottlieb SL, Douglas JM Jr, Foster M, Schmid S, Newman DR, Baron AE, Bolan G, latesta M, Malotte CK, Zenilman J, Fishbein M, Peterman TA, Kamb ML. Incidence of herpes simplex virus type 2 infection in 5 sexually transmitted disease (STD) clinics and the effect of HIV/STD risk-reduction counseling. J Infect Dis 2004; 190: 1059-67.
- 388. Kapiga SH, Sam NE, Shao JF, Masenga EJ, Renjifo B, Kiwelu IE, Manongi R, Fawzi WW, Essex M. Herpes simplex virus type 2 infection among bar and hotel workers in northern Tanzania: prevalence and risk factors. Sex Transm Dis 2003; 30: 187-92.
- 389. Mujugira A, Magaret AS, Baeten JM, Celum C, Lingappa J. Risk factors for HSV-2 infection among sexual partners of HSV-2/HIV-1 co-infected persons. BMC Res Notes 2011; 4: 64.
- 390. Ng'ayo MO, Bukusi E, A Morrow R, Rowhani-Rahbar A, A Obare B, Friedrich D, Holmes KK. Sexual and demographic determinants for herpes simplex virus type 2 among fishermen along Lake Victoria, Kenya. Sex Transm Infect 2008; 84: 140-2.

- 391. Obasi A, Mosha F, Quigley M, Sekirassa Z, Gibbs T, Munguti K, Todd J, Grosskurth H, Mayaud P, Changalucha J, Brown D, Mabey D, Hayes R. Antibody to herpes simplex virus type 2 as a marker of sexual risk behavior in rural Tanzania. J Infect Dis 1999; 179: 16-24.
- 392. Suligoi B, Tchamgmena O, Sarmati L, Bugarini R, Toma L, Kaou Bakary D, Glikoutou M, Rezza G. Prevalence and risk factors for herpes simplex virus type 2 infection among adolescents and adults in northern Cameroon. Sex Transm Dis 2001; 28: 690-3.
- 393. Van Wagoner NJ, Geisler WM, Sizemore JM Jr, Whitley R, Hook EW 3rd. Herpes simplex virus in African American heterosexual males: the roles of age and male circumcision. Sex Transm Dis 2010; 37: 217-22.
- 394. Weiss HA, Buvé A, Robinson NJ, Van Dyck E, Kahindo M, Anagonou S, Musonda R, Zekeng L, Morison L, Caraël M, Laga M, Hayes RJ for the Study Group on Heterogeneity of HIV Epidemics in African Cities. The epidemiology of HSV-2 infection and its association with HIV infection in four urban African populations. AIDS 2001; 15 (suppl 4): S97-S108.
- 395(CDC110). Xu F, Markowitz LE, Sternberg MR, Aral SO. Prevalence of circumcision and herpes simplex type 2 infection in men in the United States: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), 1999-2004. Sex Transm Dis 2007; 34: 479-84.
- 396. Hand EA. Circumcision and venereal disease. Arch Dermatol Syphilology 1949; 60: 341-6.
- 397. Lloyd VE, Lloyd NL. Circumcision and syphilis. Br Med J 1934; 1: 144-6.
- 398. Wilson RA. Circumcision and venereal disease. Can Med Assoc J 1947; 56: 54-6.
- 399. Otieno-Nyunya B, Bennett E, Bunnell R, Dadabhai S, Gichangi A A, Mugo N, Wanyungu J, Baya I, Kaiser R; Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey Study Team. Epidemiology of syphilis in Kenya: results from a nationally representative serological survey. Sex Transm Infect 2011; 87: 521-5.
- 400. Todd J, Munguti K, Grosskurth H, Mngara J, Changalucha J, Mayaud P, Mosha F, Gavyole A, Mabey D, Hayes R. Risk factors for active syphilis and TPHA seroconversion in a rural African population. Sex Transm Infect 2001; 77: 37-45.
- 401. Ministry of Health, ICF International, Centers for Disease Control and Preventions, U.S. Agency for International Development, WHO Uganda. Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2011. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Health; 2012.
- 402. Pintye J, Baeten JM, Manhart LE, Celum C, Ronald A, Mugo N, Mujugira A, Cohen C, Were E, Bukusi E, Kiarie J, Heffron R, for Partners PrEP Study Team.
  Association between male circumcision and incidence of syphilis in men and women: a prospective study in HIV-1 serodiscordant heterosexual African couples. Lancet Glob Heath 2014; 2(11): e664-71.
- 403. Chin J. The AIDS pandemic: the collision of epidemiology with political correctness. Oxford: Radcliffe Publishing; 2007.
- 404. Hart G. Venereal disease in a war environment: incidence and management. Med J Aust 1975; 1: 808–10.
- 405(CDC112). Castellsagué X, Bosch FX, Muñoz N, Meijer CJLM, Shah KV, de Sanjosé S, Eluf-Neto J, Ngelangel CA, Shichareon S, Smith JS, Herrero R, Moreno V, Franceschi S, for the International Agency for Research on Cancer Multicenter

- Cervical Cancer Study Group. Male circumcision, penile human papillomavirus infection, and cervical cancer in female partners. N Engl J Med 2002; 346: 1105-12.
- 406. Mandal D, Haye KR, Ray TK, Goorney BP, Stanbridge CM, Corbitt G. Prevalence of occult human papillomavirus infection, determined by cytology and DNA hybridization, in heterosexual men attending a genitourinary medicine clinic. Int J STD AIDS 1991; 2: 351–5.
- 407. Dinh T-H, Sternberg M, Dunne EF, Markowitz LE. Genital warts among 18- to 59-year-olds in the United States, national health and nutrition examination survey, 1999–2004. Sex Transm Dis 2008; 35: 357–60.
- 408. Tseng H-F, Morgenstern H, Mack T, Peters RK. Risk factors for penile cancer: results of a population-based case-control study in Los Angeles County (United States). Cancer Causes Control 2001; 12: 267-77.
- 409. Van Den Eeden SK, Habel LA, Sherman KJ, McKnight B, Stergachis A, Daling JR. Risk factors for incident and recurrent condylomata acuminata among men. A population-based study. Sex Transm Dis 1998; 25: 278–84.
- 410. <u>Lajous M, Mueller N, Cruz-Valdez A, Aguilar LV, Franceschi S, Hernandez-Avila M, Lazcano-Ponce E.</u> Determinants of prevalence, acquisition, and persistence of human papillomavirus in healthy Mexican military men. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2005; 14: 1710-6.
- 411. Aynaud O, Ionesco M, Barrasso R. Penile intraepithelial neoplasia. Specific clinical features correlate with histologic and virologic findings. Cancer 1994; 74: 1762-7.
- 412. Baldwin SB, Wallace DR, Papenfuss MR, Abrahamsen M, Vaught LC, Giuliano AR. Condom use and other factors affecting penile human papillomavirus detection in men attending a sexually transmitted disease clinic. Sex Transm Dis 2004; 31: 601-7.
- 413. Bleeker MCG, Hogewoning CJA, Voorhorst FJ, van den Brule AJC, Berkhof J, Hesselink AT, Lettink M, Starink TM, Stoof TJ, Snijders PJF, Meijer CJLM. HPV-associated flat penile lesions in men of a non-STD hospital population: less frequent and smaller in size than in male sexual partners of women with CIN. Int J Cancer 2005; 113: 36-41.
- 414. Giuliano AR, Lazcano E, Villa LL, Flores R, Salmeron J, Lee JH, Papenfuss M, Abrahamsen M, Baggio ML, Silva R, Quiterio M. Circumcision and sexual behavior: factors independently associated with human papillomavirus detection among men in the HIM study. Int J Cancer 2009; 124: 1251-7.
- 415. Hernandez BY, Shvetsov YB, Goodman MT, Wilkens LR, Thompson P, Zhu X, Ning L. Reduced clearance of penile human papillomavirus infection in uncircumcised men. J Infect Dis 2010; 201: 1340-3.
- 416. Müller EE, Chirwa TF, Lewis DA. Human papillomavirus (HPV) infection in heterosexual South African men attending sexual health services: associations between HPV and HIV serostatus. Sex Transm Infect 2010; 86: 175-80.
- 417. Ng'ayo MO, Bukusi E, Rowhani-Rahbar A, Koutsky LA, Feng Q, Kwena ZA, Holmes KK. Epidemiology of human papillomavirus infection among fishermen along Lake Victoria Shore in the Kisumu District, Kenya. Sex Transm Infect 2008; 84: 62-6.
- 418. Nielson CM, Schiaffino MK, Dunne EF, Salemi JL, Giuliano AR. Associations between male anogenital human papillomavirus infection and circumcision by anatomic site sampled and lifetime number of female sex partners. J Infect Dis 2009;

- 199: 7-13.
- 419. Ogilvie GS, Taylor DL, Achen M, Cook D, Krajden M. Self-collection of genital human papillomavirus specimens in heterosexual men. Sex Transm Infect 2009; 85: 221-5.
- 420. Oriel JD. Natural history of genital warts. Br J Vener Dis 1971; 47: 1-13.
- 421. Rombaldi RL, Serafini EP, Villa LL, Vanni AC, Baréa F, Frassini R, Xavier M, Paesi S. Infection with human papillomaviruses of sexual partners of women having cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. Braz J Med Biol Res 2006; 39: 177-87.
- 422. Shin HR, Franceschi S, Vaccarella S, Roh JW, Ju YH, Oh JK, Kong HJ, Rha SH, Jung SI, Kim JI, Jung KY, van Doorn LJ, Quint W. Prevalence and determinants of genital infection with papillomavirus, in female and male university students in Busan, South Korea. J Infect Dis 2004; 190: 468-76.
- 423. Svare EI, Kjaer SK, Worm AM, Osterlind A, Meijer CJ, van den Brule AJ. Risk factors for genital HPV DNA in men resemble those found in women: a study of male attendees at a Danish STD clinic. Sex Transm Infect 2002; 78: 215-8.
- 424. Vaccarella S, Lazcano-Ponce E, Castro-Garduño JA, Cruz-Valdez A, Dfaz V, Schiavon R, Hernández P, Kornegay JR, Hernández-Avila M, Freanceschi S. Prevalence and determinants of human papillomavirus infection in men attending vasectomy clinics in Mexico. Int J Cancer 2006; 119; 1935-9.
- 425. Vardas E, Giuliano AR, Goldstone S, Palefsky JM, Moreira ED Jr, Penny ME, Aranda C, Jessen H, Moi H, Ferris DG, Liaw K-L, Marshall B, Vuocolo S, Barr E, Haupt RM, Garner EIO, Guris D. External genital human papillomavirus prevalence and associated factors among heterosexual men on 5 continents. J Infect Dis 2011; 203: 58-65.
- 426. Weaver BA, Feng Q, Holmes KK, Kiviat N, Lee SK, Meyer C, Stern M, Koutsky LA. Evaluation of genital sites and sampling techniques for detection of human papillomavirus DNA in men. J Infect Dis 2004; 189: 677-85.
- 427. Van Howe RS, Cold CJ. Human papillomavirus link to circumcision misleading. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2006; 15: 405.
- 428. VanBuskirk K, Winer RL, Hughes JP, Feng Q, Arima Y, Lee S-K, Stern ME, O'Reilly BS, Koutsky LA. Circumcision and the acquisition of human papillomavirus infection in young men. Sex Transm Dis 2011; 38: 1074-81.
- 429. Cook LS. Koutsky LA. Holmes KK. Clinical presentation of genital warts among circumcised and uncircumcised heterosexual men attending an urban STD clinic. Genitourin Med 1993; 69: 262-4.
- 430. Flores R, Beibei L, Nielson C, Abrahamsen M, Wolf K, Lee J-H, Harris RB, Giuliano AR. Correlates of human papillomavirus viral load with infection site in asymptomatic men. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2008; 17: 3573–6.
- 431. Dickson NP, Ryding J, van Roode T, Paul C, Hervison P, Dillner J, Skegg DCG. Male circumcision and serologically determined human papillomavirus infection in a birth cohort. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2009; 18: 177–83.
- 432. Lu B, Wu Y, Nielson CM, Flores R, Abrahamsen M, Papenfuss M, Harris RB, Giuliano AR. Factors associated with acquisition and clearance of human papillomavirus infection in a cohort of US men: a prospective study. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 362-71.
- 433. Partridge JM, Hughes JP, Feng Q, Winer RL, Weaver BA, Xi LF, Stern ME, Lee

- SK, O'Reilly SF, Hawes SE, Kiviat NB, Koutsky LA. Genital human papillomavirus infection in men: incidence and risk factors in a cohort of university students. J Infect Dis 2007; 196: 1128-36.
- 434. Tobian AAR, Kong X, Gravitt PE, Eaton KP, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Oliver AE, Nalugoda F, Makumbi F, Chen MZ, Wawer MJ, Quinn TC, Gray RH. Male circumcision and anatomic sites of penile high-risk human papillomavirus in Rakai, Uganda. Int J Cancer 2011;129: 2970-5.
- 435. Giuliano AR, Lee J-H, Fulp W. Villa LL. Lazcano E, Papenfuss MR, Abrahamsen M, Salmeron J, Anic GM, Rollison DE, Smith D. Incidence and clearance of genital human papillomavirus infection in men (HIM): a cohort study. Lancet 2011; 377: 932-40.
- 436(CDC113). Gray RH, Serwadda D, Kong X, Makumbi F, Kigozi G, Gravitt PE, Watya S, Nalugoda F, Ssempijja V, Tobian AA, Kiwanuka N, Moulton LH, Sewankambo NK, Reynolds SJ, Quinn TC, Iga B, Laeyendecker O, Oliver AE, Wawer MJ. Male circumcision decreases acquisition and increases clearance of high-risk human papillomavirus in HIV-negative men: a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. J Infect Dis 2010; 201: 1455-62.
- 437(CDC115). Wilson LE, Gravitt P, Tobian AAR, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Nalugoda F, Watya S, Wawer MJ, Gray RH. Male circumcision reduces penile high-risk human papillomavirus viral load in a randomised clinical trial in Rakai, Uganda. Sex Transm Infect 2012; Epub ahead of print.
- 438. Tobian AA, Kigozi G, Gravitt PE, Xiao C, Serwadda D, Eaton KP, Kong X, Wawer MJ, Nalugoda F, Quinn TC, Gray RH. Human papillomavirus incidence and clearance among HIV-positive and HIV-negative men in Rakai, Uganda. AIDS 2012; 26: 1555-65.
- 439. Backes DM, Bleeker MCG, Meijer CJLM, Hudgens MG, Agot K, Bailey RC, Ndinya-Achola JO, Hayombe J, Hogewoning CJA, Moses S, Snijders PJF, Smith JS. Male circumcision is associated with a lower prevalence of human papillomavirus-associated penile lesions among Kenyan men. Int J Cancer 2012; 130: 1888-97.
- 440(101). Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, Makumbi F, Nalugoda F, Watya S, Moulton L, Chen MZ, Sewankambo NK, Kiwanuka N, Sempijja V, Lutalo T, Kagayii J, Wabwire-Mangen F, Ridzon R, Bacon M., Wawer MJ. The effects of male circumcision on female partners' genital tract symptoms and vaginal infections in a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. Am J Obstetr Gynecol 2009; 200: e1-7.
- 441. Bailey RC, Neema S, Othieno R. Sexual behaviours and other HIV risk factors in circumcised and uncircumcised men in Uganda. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol 1999; 22: 294-301.
- 442. Smith GL, Greenup R, Takafuji ET. Circumcision as a risk factor for urethritis in racial groups. Am J Public Health. 1987; 77: 452-4.
- 443. Johnson TRB, Pituch K, Brackbill EL, Wan J, van de Ven C, Pearlman MD. Why and how a department of obstetrics and gynecology stopped doing routine newborn male circumcision. Obstetr Gynecol 2007; 109: 750-2.
- 444. Stang HJ, Snellman LW. Circumcision practice patterns in the United States. Pediatrics 1998; 101(6): E5.
- 445. Hart G. Factors associated with genital chlamydial and gonococcal infection in males. Genitourin Med 1993; 69: 393-6.

- 446(CDC117). Castellsagué X, Peeling RW, Franceschi S, de Sanjosé S, Smith JS, Alberto G, Díaz M, Herrero R. Muñoz N Bosch FX for the IARC Multicenter Cervical Cancer Study Group. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in female partners of circumcised and uncircumcised adult men. Am J Epidemiol 2005; 162: 907-16.
- 447(CDC118). Turner AN, Morrison CS, Padian NS, Kaufman JS, Behets FM, Salata RA, Mmiro FA, Chipato T, Celentano DD, Rugpao S, Miller WC. Male circumcision and women's risk of incidence of chlamydial, gonococcal, and trichomonal infections. Sex Transm Dis 2008; 35: 689-95.
- 448. Muir CS, Nectoux J. Epidemiology of cancer of the testis and penis. Natl Cancer Inst Monogr 1979: 157-64.
- 449. Frisch M, Friis S, Kjaer SK, Melbye M. Falling incidence of penis cancer in an uncircumcised population (Denmark 1943-90). Br Med J 1995; 311: 1471.
- 450. Maiche AG. Epidemiological aspects of cancer of the penis in Finland. Eur J Cancer Prev 1992; 1: 153-8.
- 451. Iversen T, Tretli S, Johansen A, Holte T. Squamous cell carcinoma of the penis and of the cervix, vulva and vagina in spouses: is there any relationship? An epidemiological study from Norway, 1960-92. Br J Cancer 1997; 76: 658-60.
- 452(CDC121). Schoen EJ, Oehrli M, Colby CJ, Machin G. The highly protective effect of newborn circumcision against invasive penile cancer. Pediatrics 2000; 105(3): e36.
- 453(CDC122). Schoen EJ. The relationship between circumcision and cancer of the penis. CA Cancer J Clin 1991; 41: 306-9.
- 454(CDC123). Daling JR, Madeleine MM, Johnson LG, Schwartz SM, Shera KA, Wurscher MA, Carter JJ, Porter PL, Galloway DA, McDougall JK, Krieger JN. Penile cancer: Importance of circumcision, human papillomavirus and smoking in in situ and invasive disease. Int J Cancer 2005; 116: 606-16.
- 455. Maden C, Sherman KJ, Beckmann AM, Hislop TG, Teh CZ, Ashley RL, Daling JR. History of circumcision, medical conditions, and sexual activity and risk of penile cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 1993; 85: 19-24.
- 456. Cupp MR, Malek RS, Goellner JR, Smith TF, Espy MJ. The detection of human papillomavirus deoxyribonucleic acid in intraepithelial, in situ, verrucous and invasive carcinoma of the penis. J Urol 1995; 154: 1024-9.
- 457. Shankar KR, Rickwood AMK. The incidence of phimosis in boys. BJU Int 1999; 84: 101-2.
- 458. Simonart T, Noel JC, De Dobbeleer G, Simonart JM. Carcinoma of the glans penis arising 20 years after lichen sclerosus. Dermatology 1998; 196: 337-8.
- 459. Paricio Rubio JF, Revenga AF, Alfaro TJ, Ramirez GT. Squamous cell carcinoma of the penis arising on lichen sclerosus et atrophicus. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol 1999; 12: 153-6.
- 460. Nasca MR, Innocenzi D, Micali G. Penile cancer among patients with genital lichen sclerosus. J Am Acad Dermatol 1999; 41: 911-4.
- 461. Péc J Jr, Péc J Sr, Plank L, Plank J, Lazárová Z, Kliment J. Squamous cell carcinoma of the penis. Analysis of 24 cases. Int Urol Nephrol 1992; 24: 193-200.
- 462. Soria J-C, Fizazi K, Piron D, Kramar A, Gerbaulet A, Haie-Meder C, Perrin JL, Court B, Wibault P, Théodore C. Squamous cell carcinoma of the penis: multivariate analysis of prognostic factors and natural history in monocentric study with a conservative policy. Ann Oncol 1997; 8: 1089-98.

- 463. Powell J, Robson A, Cranston D, Wojnarowska F, Turner R. High incidence of lichen sclerosus in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the penis. Br J Dermatol 2000; 145: 85-9
- 464. Jamieson NV, Bullock KN, Barker TH. Adenosquamous carcinoma of the penis associated with balanitis xerotica obliterans. Br J Urol 1986; 58: 730-1.
- 465. Bingham JS. Carcinoma of the penis developed in lichen sclerosus et atrophicus. Br J Vener Dis 1978; 54: 350-1.
- 466. Campus GV, Alia F, Bosincu L. Squamous cell carcinoma and lichen sclerosus et atrophicus of the prepuce. Plast Reconstr Surg 1992; 89: 962-4.
- 467. Scurry J. Does lichen sclerosus play a central role in the pathogenesis of human papillomavirus negative vulvar squamous cell carcinoma? The itch-scratch-lichen sclerosus hypothesis. Int J Gynecol Cancer 1999; 9: 89-97.
- 468. Doré B, Irani J, Aubert J. Carcinoma of the penis in lichen sclerosus atrophicus. A case report. Eur Urol 1990; 18: 153-5.
- 469. Dore B, Grange P, Irani J, Aubert J. Lichen scléro-atrophique et cancer du gland. [Atrophicus sclerosis lichen and cancer of the glans]. J Urol (Paris) 1989; 95: 415-8.
- 470.Bart RS, Kopf AW. Tumor conference No 18: squamous-cell carcinoma arising in balanitis xerotica obliterans. J Dermatol Surg Oncol 1978; 4: 556-8.
- 471.Weber P, Rabinovitz H, Garland L. Verrucous carcinoma in penile lichen sclerosus et atrophicus. J Dermatol Surg Oncol 1987; 13: 529-32
- 472. Hart-Cooper GD, Tao G, Stock JA, Hoover KW. Circumcision of privately insured males aged 0 to 18 years in the United States. Pediatrics 2014; 134: 950-6.
- 473. Morris BJ, Waskett J, Bailis SA. Case number and the financial impact of circumcision in reducing prostate cancer. BJU Int 2007; 100: 5-6.
- 474. Giles GG, Severi G, English DR, McCredie MRE, Borland R, Boyle P, Hopper JL. Sexual factors and prostate cancer. BJU Int 2003; 92: 211-6.
- 475(CDC137). Wright JL, Lin DW, Stanford JL. Circumcision and the risk of prostate cancer. Cancer. 2012; 118: 4437-43.
- 476. Grulich AE, Vajdic CM. Circumcision unlikely to be associated with prostate cancer risk. Cancer 2013; 119: 245.
- 477. Kaplan GW, O'Connor VJ Jr. The incidence of carcinoma of the prostate in Jews and gentiles. JAMA 1966; 196: 123–4.
- 478. Ewings P, Bowie C. A case-control study of cancer of the prostate in Somerset and east Devon. Br J Cancer 1996; 74: 661–6.
- 479. Ross RK, Shimizu H, Paganini-Hill A, Honda G, Henderson BE. Case-control studies of prostate cancer in blacks and whites in southern California. J Natl Cancer Inst 1987; 78: 869–74
- 480. Wynder EL, Mabuchi K, Whitmore WF Jr. Epidemiology of cancer of the prostate. Cancer 1971; 28: 344–60.
- 481. Rotkin ID. Studies in the epidemiology of prostatic cancer: expanded sampling. Cancer Treat Rep 1977; 61: 173–80.
- 482. Oliver JC, Oliver RT, Ballard RC. Influence of circumcision and sexual behaviour on PSA levels in patients attending a sexually transmitted disease (STD) clinic. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2001; 4: 228–31.
- 483. Stanford JL, Stephenson RA, Coyle LM, Cerhan J, Correa R, Eley JW, Gilliland F, Hankey B, Kolonel LN, Kosary C, Ross R, Severson R, West D. Prostate Cancer

- Trends 1973-1995, SEER Program, National Cancer Institute. NIH Pub. No. 99-4543. Bethesda, MD; 1999.
- 484. Tretli S, Engeland A, Hadorsen T, Hakulinen T, Hörte LG, Luostarinen T, Schou G, Sigvaldason H, Storm HH, Tulinius H, Vaittnen P. Prostate cancer look at Denmark? J Natl Cancer Inst 1996; 88: 128.
- 485. Connon AF. Cancer detection survey gynaecological and epidemiological data. Med J Aust 1972; 1: 738-41.
- 486. Aitken-Swan J, Baird D. Cancer of the uterine cervix in Aberdeenshire. Aetiological aspects. Br J Cancer 1966; 20: 642-59.
- 487. Abou-Daoud KT. Epidemiology of carcinoma of the cervix uteri in Lebanese Christians and Moslems. Cancer 1967; 20: 1706-14.
- 488. Wahi PN, Luthra UK, Mali S, Mitra AB. Religion and cervical carcinoma in agra. Indian J Cancer 1972; 9: 210-5.
- 489. Zarkovic G. Alterations of cervical cytology and steroid contraceptive use. Int J Epidemiol 1985; 14: 369-77.
- 490. Boyd JT, Doll RA. A study of the aetiology of carcinoma of the cervix uteri. Br J Cancer 1964: 18: 419-34.
- 491. Jussawalla DJ, Yeole BB, Natekar MV. Cancer in Indian Moslems. Cancer 1985; 55: 1149-58.
- 492. Kjaer SK, de Villiers EM, Dahl C, Engholm G, Bock JE, Vestergaard BF, Lynge E, Jensen OM. Case-control study of risk factors for cervical neoplasia in Denmark. I: Role of the "male factor" in women with one lifetime sexual partner. Int J Cancer 1991; 48: 39-44.
- 493. Brinton LA, Reeves WC, Brenes MM, Herrero R, Gaitan E, Tenorio F, de Britton RC, Garcia M, Rawls WE. The male factor in the etiology of cervical cancer among sexually monogamous women. Int J Cancer 1989; 44: 199-203.
- 494. Terris M, Wilson F, Nelson JH Jr. Relation of circumcision to cancer of the cervix. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1973; 117: 1056-66.
- 495. Agarwal SS, Sehgal A, Sardana S, Kumar A, Luthra UK. Role of male behavior in cervical carcinogenesis among women with one lifetime sexual partner. Cancer 1993; 72: 1666-9.
- 496. Rotkin ID. A comparison review of key epidemiological studies in cervical cancer related to current searches for transmissible agents. Cancer Res 1973; 33: 1353-67.
- 497. Stern E, Dixon WJ. Cancer of the cervix a biometric approach to etiology. Cancer 1961; 14: 153-60.
- 498. Kmet J, Damjanovski L, Stucin M, Bonta S, Cakmakov A. Circumcision and carcinoma colli uteri in Macedonia, Yugoslavia. Results From a Field Study. Br J Cancer 1963; 17: 391-9.
- 499. Jones EG, MacDonald I, Breslow L. A study of epidemiologic factors in carcinoma of the uterine cervix. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1958; 76: 1-10.
- 500. Hoberman A, Wald ER, Reynolds EA, Penchansky L, Charron M. Pyuria and bacteriuria in urine specimens obtained by catheter from young children with fever. J Pediatr 1994; 124: 513-9.
- 501. Schlager TA, Dunn ML, Dudley SM, Lohr JA. Bacterial contamination rate of urine collected in a urine bag from healthy non-toilet-trained male infants. J Pediatr 1990; 116: 738-9.

- 502. Newman CGH, O'Neill P, Parker A. Pyuria in infancy, and the role of suprapubic aspiration of urine in the diagnosis of infections of the urinary tract. Br Med J 1967; 2: 277-9.
- 503. Bonadio WA. Urine culturing technique in febrile children. Pediatr Emerg Care 1987; 3: 75-8.
- 504. Thompson RS, Thompson DC. Circumcision. Pediatrics 1987; 80: 303-5.
- 505(CDC147). Herzog LW, Alvarez SR. The frequency of foreskin problems in uncircumcised children. Am J Dis Child 1986; 140: 254-6.
- 506(CDC139). Wiswell TE, Enzenauer RW, Holton ME, Cornish JD, Hankins CT. Declining frequency of circumcision: implications for changes in the absolute incidence and male to female sex ratio of urinary tract infections in early infancy. Pediatrics 1987; 79: 338-42.
- 507. Wiswell TE, Roscelli JD. Corroborative evidence for the decreased incidence of urinary tract infections in circumcised male infants. Pediatrics 1986; 78: 96-9.
- 508. Herzog LW. Urinary tract infections and circumcision. A case-control study. Am J Dis Child 1989; 143: 348-50.
- 509. Shaw KN, Gorelick M, McGowan KL, Yakscoe NM, Schwartz JS. Prevalence of urinary tract infection in febrile young children in the emergency department. Pediatrics 1998; 102(2): e16.
- 510. Van Howe RS. Effect of confounding in the association between circumcision status and urinary tract infection. J Infect 2005; 51: 59-68.
- 511. Altschul MS. The urinary tract infection/circumcision relationship: a methodological factorization. Unpublished. 1989.
- 512. Amir J, Varsano I, Mimouni M. Circumcision and urinary tract infection in infants. Am J Dis Child 1986; 140: 1092.
- 513.Amir J, Alpert G, Reisner SH, Nitzan M. Fever in the first year of life. Israel J Med Sci 1984; 20: 447-8.
- 514. Goldman M, Barr J, Bistritzer T, Aladjem M. Urinary tract infection following ritual Jewish circumcision. Israel J Med Sci 1996; 32: 1098-102.
- 515. Cohen HA, Drucker MM, Vainer S, Ashkenasi A, Amir J, Frydman M, Varsano I. Postcircumcision urinary tract infection. Clin Pediatr Phila 1992; 31: 322-4.
- 516. Harel L, Straussberg R, Jackson S, Amir J. Influence of circumcision technique on frequency of urinary tract infections in neonates. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2002; 21: 879-80.
- 517. Prais D, Shoov-Furman R, Amir J. Is ritual circumcision a risk factor for neonatal urinary tract infections? Arch Dis Child 2009: 94: 191-4.
- 518. Toker O, Schwartz S, Segal G, Godovitch N, Schlesinger Y, Raveh D. A costly covenant: ritual circumcision and urinary tract infection. Isr Med Assoc J 2010; 12: 262-5.
- 519. Hoberman A, Wald ER, Hickey RW, Baskin M, Charron M, Majd M, Kearney DH, Reynolds EA, Ruley J, Janosky JE. Oral versus initial intravenous therapy for urinary tract infections in young febrile children. Pediatrics 1999; 104: 79-86.
- 520. Pecile P, Miorin E, Romanello C, Vidal E, Contardo M, Valent F, Tenore A. Agerelated renal parenchymal lesions in children with first febrile urinary tract infections. Pediatrics 2009: 124: 23-29.
- 521. Sreenarasimhaiah S, Hellerstein S. Urinary tract infections per se do not cause

- end-stage kidney disease. Pediatr Nephrol 1998; 12: 210-3.
- 522. Helin I, Winberg J. Chronic renal failure in Swedish children. Acta Paediatr Scand 1980; 69: 607-11.
- 523. Esbjörner E, Aronson S, Berg U, Jodal U, Linne T. Children with chronic renal failure in Sweden 1978-1985. Pediatr Nephrol 1990; 4: 249-52.
- 524. Esbjörner E, Berg U, Hansson S. Epidemiology of chronic renal failure in children: a report from Sweden 1986-1994. Swedish Pediatric Nephrology Association. Pediatr Nephrol 1997; 11: 438-42.
- 525. Wennerström M, Hansson S, Jodal U, Sixt R, Stokland E. Renal function 16 to 26 years after first urinary tract infection in childhood. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 2000; 154: 339-45.
- 526. Wennerström M, Hansson S, Hedner T, Himmelmann A, Jodal U. Ambulatory blood pressure 16-26 years after the first urinary tract infection in childhood. J Hypertens 2000; 18: 485-91.
- 527. Wolfish NM, Delbrouck NF, Shanon A, Matzinger MA, Stenstrom R, McLaine PN. Prevalence of hypertension in children with primary vesicoureteral reflux. J Pediatr 1993; 123: 559-63.
- 528. Salo J, Ikäheimo R, Tapiainen T, Uhari M. Childhood urinary tract infections as a cause of chronic kidney disease. Pediatrics 2011; 128: 840-7.
- 529. Herndon CDA, McKenna PH, Kolon TF, Gonzales ET, Baker LA, Docimo SG. A multicenter outcomes analysis of patients with neonatal reflux presenting with prenatal hydronephrosis. J Urol 1999; 162: 1203-8.
- 530. Yeung CK, Godley ML, Dhillon HK, Gordon I, Duffy PG, Ransley PG. The characteristics of primary vesico-ureteric reflux in male and female infants with prenatal hydronephrosis. Br J Urol 1997; 80: 319-27.
- 531. Subcommittee on Urinary Tract Infection, Steering Committee on Quality Improvement and Management. Urinary tract infection: clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of the initial UTI in febrile infants and children 2 to 24 months. Pediatrics 2011; 128: 595-609.
- 532. (CDC142) Christakis DA, Harvey E, Zerr DM, Feudtner C, Wright JA, Connell FA. A trade-off analysis of routine newborn circumcision. Pediatrics 2000; 105: 246-9.
- 533. Griffiths DM, Atwell JD, Freeman NV. A prospective survey of the indications and morbidity of circumcision in children. Eur Urol 1985; 11: 184-7.
- 53450. Stenram A, Malmfors G, Okmian L. Circumcision for phimosis: a follow-up study. Scand J Urol Nephrol 1986; 20: 89-92.
- 535. Persad R, Sharma S, McTavish J, Imber C, Mouriquand PD. Clinical presentation and pathophysiology of meatal stenosis following circumcision. Br J Urol 1995; 75: 91-3.
- 536(CDC159). Van Howe RS. Incidence of meatal stenosis following neonatal circumcision in a primary care setting. Clin Pediatr (Phila) 2006; 45: 49-54.
- 537. Joudi M, Fathi M, Hiradfar M. Incidence of asymptomatic meatal stenosis in children following neonatal circumcision. J Pediatr Urol 2011; 7: 526-8.
- 538(CDC143) To T, Agha M, Dick PT, Feldman W. Cohort study on circumcision of newborn boys and subsequent risk of urinary-tract infection. Lancet 1998; 352: 1813-6.
- 539. Johnson AM, Wadsworth J, Wellings K, Field J, Bradshaw S. Sexual Attitudes and

- Lifestyles. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific; 1994.
- 540(CDC146). Wiswell TE. Neonatal circumcision: a current appraisal. Focus & Opinions: Pediatrics 1995; 1: 93-9.
- 541. Lau JTK, Ching RML. An outpatient observation of the foreskin among Chinese children in Hong Kong. Singapore Med J 1982; 23: 93-6.
- 542. Imamura E. Phimosis of infants and young children in Japan. Acta Paediatr Jpn 1997; 39: 403-5.
- 543. Escala JM, Rickwood AM. Balanitis. Br J Urol 1989; 63: 196-7.
- 544. Kaweblum YA, Press S, Kogan L, Levine M, Kaweblum M. Circumcision using the Mogen clamp. Clin Pediatr Phila 1984; 23: 679-82.
- 545. Stenram A, Malmfors G, Okmian L. Circumcision for phimosis--indications and results. Acta Paediatr Scand 1986; 75: 321-3.
- 546. Blalock HJ, Vemulakonda V, Ritchey ML, Ribbeck M. Outpatient management of phimosis following newborn circumcision. J Urol 2003; 169: 2332-4.
- 547. Meyer HF. Meatal ulcer in the circumcised infant. Med Times 1971; 99: 77-8.
- 548. MacKenzie AR. Meatal ulceration following neonatal circumcision. Obstet Gynecol 1966; 28: 221-3.
- 549. Jørgensen ET, Svensson Å. The treatment of phimosis in boys, with a potent topical steroid (clobetasol propionate 0.05%) cream. Acta Derm Venereol Stockh 1993; 73: 55-6.
- 550. Dalela D, Agarwal R. Treatment of childhood phimosis with topical steroid. Aust N Z J Surg 1995; 65: 57.
- 551. Golubovic Z, Milanovic D, Vukadinovic V, Rakic I, Perovic S. The conservative treatment of phimosis in boys. Br J Urol 1996; 78: 786-8.
- 552. Kikiros CS, Beasley SW, Woodward AA. The response of phimosis to local steroid application. Pediatr Surg Int 1993; 8: 329-32.
- 553. Lindhagen T. Topical clobetasol propionate compared with placebo in the treatment of unretractable foreskin. Eur J Surg 1996; 162: 969-72.
- 554. Ruud E, Holt J. Fimose kan behandles med lokale steroider. [Phimosis can be treated with local steroids]. Tidsskr Nor Laegeforen 1997; 117: 513-4.
- 555. Monsour MA, Rabinovitch HH, Dean GE. Medical management of phimosis in children: our experience with topical steroids. J Urol 1999; 162: 1162-4.
- 556. Chu CC, Chen KC, Diau GY. Topical steroid treatment of phimosis in boys. J Urol 1999; 162: 861-3.
- 557. Orsola A, Caffaratti J, Garat JM. Conservative treatment of phimosis in children using a topical steroid. Urology 2000; 56: 307-10.
- 558. Yanagisawa N, Baba K, Yamagoe M, Iwamoto T. Conservative treatment of childhood phimosis with topical conjugated equine estrogen ointment. Int J Urol 2000; 7: 1-3.
- 559. Elmore JM, Baker LA, Snodgrass WT. Topical steroid therapy as an alternative to circumcision for phimosis in boys younger than 3 years. J Urol 2002; 168: 1746-7.
- 560. Ng WT, Fan N, Wong CK, Leung SL, Yuen KS, Sze YS, Cheng PW. Treatment of childhood phimosis with a moderately potent topical steroid. ANZ J Surg 2001; 71: 541-3.
- 561. Ashfield JE, Nickel KR, Siemens DR, MacNeily AE, Nickel JC. Treatment of phimosis with topical steroids in 194 children. J Urol 2003; 169: 1106-8.

- 562. van Basten JP, de Vijlder AM, Mensink HJ. [The use of corticosteroid cream to treat phimosis] Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd 2003; 147: 1544-7.
- 563. de Oliveira Pileggi F, Vicente YAMVA. Phimotic ring topical corticoid cream (0.1% mometasone furoate) treatment in children. J Pediatr Surg 2007; 42: 1749-52.
- 564. Lund L, Wai KH, Mui LM, Yeung CK. An 18-month follow-up study after randomized treatment of phimosis in boys with topical steroid versus placebo. Scand J Urol Nephrol 2005; 39: 78-81.
- 565. Yang SSD, Tsai YC, Wu C, Liu SP, Wangs CC. Highly potent and moderately potent topical steroids are effective in treating phimosis: a prospective randomized study. J Urol 2005; 173: 1361-3.
- 566. Esposito C, Centonze A, Alicchio F, Savanelli A, Settimi A. Topical steroid application versus circumcision in pediatric patients with phimosis: a prospective randomized placebo controlled clinical trial. World J Urol 2008; 26:187-90.
- 567. Zavras N, Christianakis E, Mpourikas D, Ereikat K. Conservative treatment of phimosis with fluticasone proprionate 0.05%: A clinical study in 1185 boys. J Pediatr Urol 2009; 5: 181-5.
- 568. Sookpotarom P, Porncharoenpong S, Vejchapipat P. Topical steroid is effective for the treatment of phimosis in young children. J Med Assoc Thai 2010; 93(1): 77-83.
- 569. Kuehhas FE, Miernik A, Sevcenco S, Tosev G, Weibl P, Schoenthaler M, Lassmann J. Predictive power of objectivation of phimosis grade on outcomes of topical 0.1% betamethasone treatment of phimosis. Urology 2012; 80: 412-6.
- 570. Reddy S, Jain V, Dubey M, Deshpande P, Singal AK. Local steroid therapy as the first-line treatment for boys with symptomatic phimosis a long-term prospective study. Acta Paediatr 2012; 101(3): e130-3.
- 571. Letendre J, Barrieras D, Franc-Guimond J, Abdo A, Houle AM. Topical triamcinolone for persistent phimosis. J Urol 2009; 182(4 Suppl):1759-63.
- 572. Emmett AJ. Z-plasty reconstruction for preputial stenosis--a surgical alternative to circumcision. Aust Paediatr J 1982; 18: 219-20.
- 573. Hoffman S, Metz P, Ebbehoj J. A new operation for phimosis: prepuce-saving technique with multiple Y V-plasties. Br J Urol 1984; 56: 319-21.
- 574. Ohjimi T, Ohjimi H. Special surgical techniques for relief of phimosis. J Dermatol Surg Oncol 1981; 7: 326-30.
- 575. Ohjimi H, Ogata K, Ohjimi T. A new method for the relief of adult phimosis. J Urol 1995: 153: 1607-9.
- 576. Emmett AJ. Four V-flap repair of preputial stenosis (phimosis). Plast Reconstr Surg 1975: 55: 687-9.
- 577. Jemec B, Appelquist E, Schultz B. Operation for phimosis med bevarelse af praeputium. [Surgery of phimosis with preservation of the prepuce] Ugeskr Laeger 1979; 141: 1193-4.
- 578. Caronni EP. La plastica a "M" nel trattamento della fimosi congenita ed acquisita. [The "M" plastic operation in the treatment of congenital and acquired phimosis] Chir Ital 1967; 19: 337-45.
- 579. Zavaleta DE, Marino E. Prepuce plastic operation (Enrique Finochietto's method) for phimosis. Int Surg 1966; 46: 97-100.
- 580. Samdal F, Almdahl SM. Kirurgisk behandling av fimose. En enkel preputiumsparende teknikk. [Surgical treatment of phimosis. A simple prepuce-

- sparing technic] Tidsskr Nor Laegeforen 1988; 108: 1499.
- 581. Gaetini AM. La plastica prepuziale con doppio lembo di scorrimento nella terapia della fimosi. [Preputial plastic surgery creating a two-way sliding rim in the treatment of phimosis] Minerva Pediatr 1984; 36: 905-7.
- 582. Koudelka J, Docekalova S. Ventràlní discize predkozky u fimózy.[A ventral slit of the prepuce in phimosis]. Rozhl Chir 1998; 77: 402-4.
- 583. Pascotto R, Giancotti E. Stuido per il trattamento della fimosi in età pediatrica senza circoncisione: la plastica del prepuzio. [The treatment of phimosis in childhood without circumcision: plastic repair of the prepuce]. Minerva Chir 1998; 53: 561-5.
- 584. Barber NJ, Chappell B, Carter PG, Britton JP. Is preputioplasty effective and acceptable? J R Soc Med 2003; 96: 452-3.
- 585. Fischer-Klein Ch, Rauchenwald M. Triple incision to treat phimosis in children: an alternative to circumcision? BJU Int 2003; 92: 459-62.
- 586. Dessanti A, Ginesu G, Iannuccelli M, Balata A. Phimosis. Preputial plasty using transversal widening on the dorsal side with EMLA local anesthetic cream. J Pediatr Surg 2005; 40: 713-5.
- 587. Nieuwenhuijs JP, Dik P, Klijn AJ, de Jong TPVM. Y-V plasty of the foreskin as an alternative to circumcision for surgical treatment of phimosis during childhood. J Pediatr Urol 2007; 3: 45-7.
- 588. Van Howe RS. Cost-effective treatment of phimosis. Pediatrics 1998; 102: e43.
- 589. Berdeu D, Sauze L, Ha-Vinh P, Blum-Boisgard C. Cost-effectiveness analysis of treatments for phimosis: a comparison of surgical and medicinal approaches and their economic effect. BJU Int 2001; 87: 239-44.
- 590. Moreno G, Corbalán J, Peñaloza B, Pantoja T. Topical corticosteroids for treating phimosis in boys. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2014; 9: CD008973.
- 591(CDC151). Wiswell TE, Geschke DW. Risks from circumcision during the first month of life compared with those for uncircumcised boys. Pediatrics 1989; 83: 1011-5.
- 592(CDC158). El Bcheraoui C, Zhang X, Cooper CS, Rose CE, Kilmarx PH, Chen RT. Rates of adverse events associated with male circumcision in US medical settings, 2001 to 2010. JAMA Pediatr 2014; 168: 625-34.
- 593(CDC152). Gee WF, Ansell JS. Neonatal circumcision: a ten-year overview: with comparison of the Gomco clamp and the Plastibell device. Pediatrics 1976; 58: 824-7.
- 594. Gibbons MD. RE: Cost analysis of neonatal circumcision in a large health maintenance organization. J Urol 2006; 176: 2316-7.
- 595. Sutherland JM, Glueck HI, Gleser G. Hemorrhagic disease of the newborn: breast feeding as a necessary factor in the pathogenesis. Am J Dis Child 1967; 113: 524-33.
- 596. Moreno CA, Realini JP. Infant circumcision in an outpatient setting. Tex Med 1989; 85: 37-40.
- 597. D.P., Jr. v. Kendall and Sonyika, Fulton County, Georgia. Civil Action File 2006EV001125-5.
- 598. Horowitz M, Gershbein AB. Gomco circumcision: When is it safe? J Pediatr Surg 2001; 36: 1047-9.
- 599(CDC160). Yegane RA, Kheirollahi AR, Salehi NA, Bashashati M, Khoshdel JA, Ahmadi M. Late complications of circumcision in Iran. Pediatr Surg Int 2006; 22:

- 442-5.
- 600. Machmouchi M, Alkhotani A. Is neonatal circumcision judicious? Eur J Pediatr Surg 2007; 17: 266-9.
- 601. Moosa FA, Khan FW, Rao MH. Comparison of complications of circumcision by 'Plastibell device technique' in male neonates and infants. J Pak Med Assoc 2010; 60: 664-7.
- 602. Mousavi SA, Salehifar E. Circumcision complications associated with the Plastibell device and conventional dissection surgery: a trial of 586 infants of ages up to 12 months. Adv Urol 2008; 606123.
- 603. Banister PG. Circumcision. Lancet 1953; 265: 401.
- 604. Morgan WKC. Circumcision. Can Med Assoc J 1982; 126: 594, 603.
- 605. Barabas AP. Minor surgery. A cautionary tale. Manch Med Gaz 1967; 46: 34-5.
- 606. Keefe vs. United States Department of Interior, Civ. No. 09-3023.
- 607. Leitch IO. Circumcision. A continuing enigma. Aust Paediatr J 1970; 6: 59-65.
- 608. Denton J, Schreiner RL, Pearson J. Circumcision complication. Reaction to treatment of local hemorrhage with topical epinephrine in high concentration. Clin Pediatr Phila 1978; 17: 285-6.
- 609. Braren V. Circumcision complication [letter] Clin Pediatr Phila 1979; 18: 639.
- 610. Stuart MJ, Gross SJ, Elrad H, Graeber JE. Effects of acetylsalicylic-acid ingestion on maternal and neonatal hemostasis. N Engl J Med 1982; 307: 909-12.
- 611. Poll JS, Prinsen JE. Niet-geplande opname na dagverpleging bij kinderen. [Unplanned hospitalization following day surgery in children] Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd 1990; 134: 1089-91.
- 612. Steinau G, Tittel A, Schumpelick V. Tageschirurgische (TCH) Eingriffe im Kindesalter an einer chirurgischen Klinik. [Ambulatory surgery interventions in childhood in a surgical clinic] Zentralbl Chir 1993; 118: 25-9.
- 613. Damaged Allied Healthcare Products Gomco circumcision clamps. Health Devices 1993; 22: 154-5.
- 614. Wright JE. Non-therapeutic circumcision. Med J Aust 1967; 1: 1083-6.
- 615. Koch JA. Haemophilia in the newborn: a case report and literature review. S Afr Med J 1978; 53: 721-2.
- 616. Davidson CS, Epstein RD, Miller GF, Taylor FHL. Hemophilia. a clinical study of forty patients. Blood 1949; 4: 97-119.
- 617. Kulkarni R, Lusher J. Perinatal management of newborns with haemophilia. Br J Haematol 2001; 112: 264-74.
- 618. Baehner RL, Strauss HS. Hemophilia in the first year of life. N Engl J Med 1966; 275; 524-8. Cited in: Smith PS. Congenital coagulation protein deficiencies in the perinatal period. Semin Perinatol 1990; 14: 384-92.
- 619. Shittu OB, Shokunbi WA. Circumcision in haemophiliacs: the Nigerian experience. Haemophilia 2001; 7: 534-6.
- 620. Laosombat V, Maipang M, Wongchanchailert M. Congenital factor XIII deficiency: report of a case and literature review. J Med Assoc Thai 1989; 72: 701-7.
- 621. Killick CJ, Barton CJ, Aslam S, Standen G. Prenatal diagnosis in factor XIII-A deficiency. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed 1999; 80: F238-F239.
- 622. Trotter CW, Hasegawa DK. Hemophilia B. Case study and intervention plan. JOGN Nurs 1983; 12(2): 82-5.

- 623. Fried SM, Shechet RJ, Shearer R, Goldsmith JC. Ritual circumcision in an infant with von Willebrand's disease. Am Fam Physician. 1993 Jun;47(8):1709-10.
- 624. Awidi AS. Delivery of infants with Glanzmann thrombasthenia and subsequent blood transfusion requirements: a follow-up of 39 patients. Am J Hematol 1992; 40: 1-4.
- 625. Naimer SA, Trattner A. Are sterile conditions essential for all forms of cutaneous surgery? The case of ritual neonatal circumcision. J Cutan Med Surg 2000; 4: 177-80.
- 626. Wiswell TE, Curtis J, Dobek AS, Zierdt CH. Staphylococcus aureus colonization after neonatal circumcision in relation to device used. J Pediatr 1991; 119: 302-4.
- 627. Procopis PG, Kewley GD. Complication of circumcision. Med J Aust 1982; 1: 15.
- 628. Dinari G, Haimov H, Geiffman M. Umbilical arteritis and phlebitis with scrotal abscess and peritonitis. J Pediatr Surg 1971; 6: 176.
- 629. Cleary TG, Kohl S. Overwhelming infection with group B beta-hemolytic Streptococcus associated with circumcision. Pediatrics 1979; 64: 301-3.
- 630. Thompson DJ, Gezon HM, Hatch FF, Rycheck RR, Rogers KD. Sex distribution of Staphylococcus aureus colonization and disease in newborn infants. N Engl J Med 1963; 269: 337-41.
- 631. Thompson DJ, Gezon HM, Rogers KD, Yee RB, Hatch TF. Excess risk of staphylococcal infection and disease in newborn males. Am J Epidemiol 1966; 84: 314-28.
- 632. Thompson DJ, Gezon HM, Hatch TF, Rycheck RR, Rogers KD. The sex distribution of Staphylococcus aureus colonization and disease in newborn infants [abstract 24]. J Pediatr 1963; 63: 869-70.
- 633. Gooch JJ, Britt EM. Staphylococcus aureus colonization and infection in newborn nursery patients. Am J Dis Child 1978; 132: 893-6.
- 634. Helms P, Stenderup A. Pyogenic infections in infants. Acta Obstetr Gynecol Scand 1961; 40: 187-93.
- 635. Williams REO. Sex-distribution of colonisation and infection with Staphylococcus aureus in the newborn. Lancet 1964; 1: 274-5.
- 636. Elias-Jones TF, Gordon I, Whittacker L. Staphylococcal infection of the newborn in hospital and domiciliary practice. Lancet 1961; 1: 571-4.
- 637. Plueckhahn VD, Banks J. Neonatal staphylococcal infection. Lancet 1964; 1: 1042-3.
- 638. Rush J, Fiorino-Chiovitti R, Kaufman K, Mitchell A. A randomized controlled trial of a nursery ritual: wearing cover gowns to care for healthy newborns. Birth 1990; 17(1): 25-30.
- 639. Zafar AB, Butler RC, Reese DJ, Gaydos LA, Mennonna PA. Use of 0.3% triclosan (Bacti Stat) to eradicate an outbreak of methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus in a neonatal nursery. Am J Infect Control 1995; 23: 200-8.
- 640. Fortunov RM, Hulten KG, Hammerman WA, Mason EO, Kaplan SL. Community-acquired Staphylococcus aureus infections in term and near term previously healthy neonates (Poster #2753.6). Poster presentation at: 2006 Pediatric Academic Societies' Annual Meeting; April 26, 2006; San Francisco, California.
- 641. Fortunov RM, Hulten KG, Hammerman WA, Mason EO Jr, Kaplan SL. Community-acquired Staphylococcus aureus infections in term and near-term previously healthy

- neonates. Pediatrics 2006; 118: 874-81.
- 642. Fortunov RM, Hulten KG, Hammerman WA, Mason EO Jr, Kaplan SL. Infections in term and late-preterm previously healthy neonates: evaluation and treatment of community-acquired Staphylococcus aureus. Pediatrics 2007; 120: 937-45.
- 643. Wen P, Kowalczyk L. Beth Israel faulted for staph outbreak in mothers, babies. Boston Globe April 10, 2009. http://www.boston.com/lifestyle/family/articles/2009/04/10/beth\_israel\_faulted\_for\_st aph outbreak in mothers babies/. Accessed May 11, 2009.
- 644. Foster M. Outbreak of MRSA among newborns and mothers likely hospital-acquired. Infect Dis Child 2010; 23(4): 15.
- 645. Saiman L, Cronquist A, Wu F, Zhou J, Rubenstein D, Eisner W, Kreiswirth BN, Della- P. An outbreak of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in a neonatal intensive care unit. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2003; 24: 317–21.
- 646. Nambiar S, Herwaldt LA, Singh N. Outbreak of invasive disease caused by methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in neonates and prevalence in the neonatal intensive care unit. Pediatr Crit Care Med 2003;4(2):220–6.
- 647. Davies EA, Emmerson AM, Hogg GM, Patterson MF, Shields MD. An outbreak of infection with a methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in a special care baby unit: value of topical mupirocin and traditional methods of infection control. J Hosp Infect 1987;10:120–8.
- 648. Reboli AC, John Jr AF, Levkof AH. Epidemic methicillin-gentamicin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in a neonatal intensive care unit. Am J Dis Child 1989;143(1):34–9.
- 649. Watson J, Jones RC, Cortes C, Gerber SI, Golash RG, Price J, Bancroft E, Mascola L, Gorwitz, Jernigan DB, James L, Nguyen DM. Community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcal aureus infection among healthy newborns Chicago and Los Angeles County, 2004. MMWR 2006; 55: 329-32.
- 650. James L, Gorwitz RJ, Jones RC, Watson JT, Hageman JC, Jernigan DB, Lord Y, Caballes N, Cortes C, Golash RG, Price JS, Gerber SI. Methicillin-resistant staphylococcus aureus infection among healthy full-term newborns. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed 2008; 93: F40-4.
- 651(CDC161). Nguyen DM, Bancroft E, Mascola L, Guevara R, Yasuda L. Risk factors for neonatal methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus infection in a well-infant nursery. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2007; 28: 406-11.
- 652. Rostad CA, Philipsborn RP, Berkowitz FE. Evidence of staphylococcal toxic shock syndrome caused by MRSA in a mother-newborn pair. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2014 Sep 25. [Epub ahead of print]
- 653. Stranko J, Ryan ME, Bowman AM. Impetigo in newborn infants associated with a plastic bell clamp circumcision. Pediatr Infect Dis 1986; 5: 597-9.
- 654. Annunziato D, Goldblum LM. Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome. A complication of circumcision. Am J Dis Child 1978; 132: 1187-8.
- 655. Anday EK, Kobori J. Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome: a complication of circumcision. Clin Pediatr Phila 1982; 21: 420.
- 656. Curran JP, Al-Salihi FL. Neonatal staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome: massive outbreak due to an unusual phage type. Pediatrics 1980; 66: 285-90.
- 657. Herrera Puerto J, Herrera Flores J, Fernandez Iglesias J, Marreno Calvo M,

- Burguillo Jimenez N. [Unusual complication post circumcision] Actas Urol Esp 2003; 27: 559-61.
- 658. Dunham EC. Septicemia in the newborn. Am J Dis Child 1933; 45: 229.
- 659. Uwyyed K, Korman SH, Bar Oz B, Vromen A. Scrotal abscess with bacteremia caused by Salmonella group D after ritual circumcision. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1990; 9: 65-6.
- 660. Crowley IP, Kesner KM. Ritual circumcision (Umkhwetha) amongst the Xhosa of the Ciskei. Br J Urol 1990; 66: 318-21.
- 661. Shah BR, Santucci K, Tunnessen WW Jr. Clinical picture: erysipelas. Arch Fam Med 1995; 4: 670-1.
- 662. Shah BR, Santucci K, Tunnessen WW. Picture of the month. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1995; 149: 55-6.
- 663. Nelson JD, Dillon HC Jr, Howard JB. A prolonged nursery epidemic associated with a newly recognized type of group A streptococcus. J Pediatr 1976; 89: 792-6.
- 664. Wiesenthal AM. A maternal-neonatal outbreak of infections due to an unusual group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus. Infect Control 1984; 5: 271-4.
- 665. Tasic V, Polenakovic M. Acute poststreptococcal glomerulonephritis following circumcision. Pediatr Nephrol 2000; 15: 274-5.
- 666. Borovsky MP. Diphtheria of the penis. JAMA 1935; 104: 1399-401.
- 667. Rosenstein JL. Wound diphtheria in the newborn infant following circumcision. J Pediatr 1941; 18: 657-8.
- 668. Taylor RW. On the question of the transmission of syphilitic contagion in the rite of circumcision. N Y Med J 1873; 18: 561-82.
- 669. Welt-Kakels S. Inoculation tuberculosis following ritual circumcision. Am J Obstet 1909; 69: 1073-8.
- 670. Holt LE. Tuberculosis acquired through circumcision. Med Record 1913; 84: 776-7.
- 671. Holt LE. Tuberculosis acquired through ritual circumcision. JAMA 1913; 61: 99-102.
- 672. Preputial tuberculosis from circumcision. Clin J 1930; 59: 394.
- 673. Webster R. Tuberculosis following circumcision. Med J Aust 1939; 1: 796-8.
- 674. Reuben MS. Tuberculosis from ritual circumcision. Am J Obstet 1917; 75: 333-4.
- 675. Reuben MS. Tuberculosis following ritual circumcision. Arch Pediatr 1917; 34: 186-90.
- 676. Wilson GH, Warthin AS. Primary tuberculosis of the penis. I. a report of two cases of primary tuberculosis of the penis following non-ritual circumcision. II. note on primary tuberculosis of the foreskin. Ann Surg 1912; 55: 305-13.
- 677. Mahlberg FA, Rodermund OE, Muller RW. Ein Fall von Zirkumzisionstuberkulose. [A case of circumcision tuberculosis] Hautarzt 1977; 28: 424-5.
- 678. Annobil SH, Al-Hilfi A, Kazi T. Primary tuberculosis of the penis in an infant. Tubercle 1990; 71: 229-30.
- 679. Rubin LG, Lanzkowsky P. Cutaneous neonatal herpes simplex infection associated with ritual circumcision. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2000; 19: 266-8.
- 680. Distel R, Hofer V, Bogger-Goren S, Shalit I, Garty BZ. Primary genital herpes simplex infection associated with Jewish ritual circumcision. Isr Med Assoc J 2003; 5: 893-4.
- 681. Gesundheit B, Grisaru-Soen G, Greenberg D, Levtzion-Korach O, Malkin D, Petric

- M, Koren G, Tendler MD, Ben-Zeev B, Vardi A, Dagan R, Engelhard D. Neonatal genital herpes simplex virus type 1 infection after Jewish ritual circumcision: modern medicine and religious tradition. Pediatrics 2004; 114: e259-63.
- 682. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Neonatal herpes simplex virus infection following Jewish ritual circumcisions that included direct orogenital suction New York City, 2000-2011. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2012; 61: 405-9.
- 683. Schirman A. A case of tetanus in an infant after circumcision with recovery. N Y Med J 1895; 62: 148.
- 684. Gosden M. Tetanus following circumcision. Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 1935; 28: 645-8.
- 685. De A Nishioka S. Topical antibiotic use and circumcision-associated neonatal tetanus: protective factor or indicator of good wound care? Int J Epidemiol 2000; 29: 600.
- 686. Sow PS, Diop BM, Barry HL, Badiane S, Coll/Seck AM. Tetanos et pratiques traditionnelles a Dakar (a propos de 141 cas). [Tetanus and traditional practices in Dakar (report of 141 cases)] Dakar Med 1993; 38: 55-9.
- 687. Bennett J, Schooley M, Traverso H, Agha SB, Boring J. Bundling, a newly identified risk factor for neonatal tetanus: implications for global control. Int J Epidemiol 1996; 25: 879-84.
- 688. Malooly CM. Circumcision as a risk factor for neonatal tetanus: findings from a case-control study in Punjab, Pakastan [master's thesis]. Atlanta, Georgia: School of Public Health, Emory University: 1995.
- 689. Bennett J, Bremen C, Traverso H, Agha SB, Macia J, Boring J. Circumcision and neonatal tetanus: disclosure of risk and its reduction by topical antibiotics. Int J Epidemiol 1999; 28: 263-6.
- 690. Braun D. Neonatal bacteremia and circumcision [letter; comment] Pediatrics 1990; 85: 135-6.
- 691. Birrell R. A case against circumcision. Med J Aust 1965; 2: 393.
- 692. Fredman RM. Neonatal circumcision: a general practitioner's survey. Med J Aust 1969; 1: 117.
- 693. Dunham EC. Septicemia in the newborn. Am J Dis Child 1933; 45: 229.
- 694. Stringer MD, Brereton RJ. Should religious circumcisions be performed on the NHS? Br Med J 1991; 302: 292.
- 695. Manji KP. Circumcision of the young infant in a developing country using the Plastibell. Ann Trop Paediatr 2000; 20: 101-4.
- 696. Magoha GA. Circumcision in various Nigerian and Kenyan hospitals. East Afr Med J 1999; 76: 583-6.
- 697. Kirkpatrick BV, Eitzman DV. Neonatal septicemia after circumcision. Clin Pediatr Phila 1974; 13: 767-8.
- 698. Birrell RG. Circumcision. Aust Paediatr J 1970; 6: 66-7.
- 699. Sauer LW. Fatal staphylococcus bronchopneumonia following ritual circumcision. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1943; 46: 583.
- 700. Altman H. Osteomyelitis of the femur in an infant. Bull Hosp Joint Dis 1946; 7: 109-13.
- 701. Sze MK. Circumcision. Can Med Assoc J 1982; 126: 467.
- 702. Gash IW. Septic arthritis of the hip in a new-born infant following circumcision.

- JAMA 1928; 91: 20-1.
- 703. Gounden S. The morbidity associated with traditional circumcisions S Afr Med J 1990; 78: 762.
- 704. Woodside JR. Necrotizing fasciitis after neonatal circumcision. Am J Dis Child 1980; 134: 301-2.
- 705. Menahem S. Complications arising from ritual circumcision: pathogenesis and possible prevention. Isr J Med Sci 1981; 17: 45-8.
- 706. Scurlock JM, Pemberton PJ. Neonatal meningitis and circumcision. Med J Aust 1977; 1: 332-4.
- 707. Sidley P. Botched circumcisions lead to arrest for murder. Br Med J 1996; 313: 647.
- 708. Phillips K, Ruttman T, Viljoen J. Flying doctors, saving costs. S Afr Med J 1996; 86: 1557-8.
- 709. Eke N. Fournier's gangrene: a review of 1726 cases. Br J Surg 2000; 87: 718-28.
- 710. Sussman SJ, Schiller RP, Shashikumar VL. Fournier's syndrome. Report of three cases and review of the literature. Am J Dis Child 1978; 132: 1189-91.
- 711. Adeyokunnu AA. Fournier's syndrome in infants. A review of cases from Ibadan, Nigeria. Clin Pediatr Phila 1983; 22: 101-3.
- 712. Evbuomwan I, Aliu AS. Acute gangrene of the scrotum in a one month old child. Trop Geogr Med 1984; 36: 299-300.
- 713. Adams JR Jr, Mata JA, Venable DD, Culkin DJ, Bocchini JA Jr. Fournier's gangrene in children. Urology 1990; 35: 439-41.
- 714. Sawin RS, Schaller RT, Tapper D, Morgan A, Cahill J. Early recognition of neonatal abdominal wall necrotizing fasciitis. Am J Surg 1994; 167: 481-4.
- 715. Kosloske AM, Cushing AH, Borden TA, Woodside JR, Klein MD, Kulasinghe HP, Bailey WC. Cellulitis and necrotizing fasciitis of the abdominal wall in pediatric patients. J Pediatr Surg 1981; 16: 246-51.
- 716. Kurul S. latrogenic penile gangrene: 10-year follow up. Plast Reconstr Surg 1995; 95: 210-1.
- 717. Hamm WG, Kanthak FF. Gangrene of the penis following circumcision with high frequency current. South Med J 1949; 42: 657-9.
- 718. Wilson CL, Wilson MC. Plastic repair of the denuded penis. South Med J 1959; 52: 288-90.
- 719. Thorek P, Egel P. Reconstruction of the penis with split-thickness skin graft: a case of gangrene following circumcision for active balanitis. Plastic Reconst Surg 1949; 4: 469-72.
- 720. Ahmed S, Shetty SD, Anandan N, Patil KP, Ibrahim AIA. Penile reconstruction following post-circumcision penile gangrene. Pediatr Surg Int 1994; 9: 295-6.
- 721. Bliss DP, Healy PJ, Waldhausen JHT. Necrotizing fasciitis after Plastibell circumcision. J Pediatr 1997; 131: 459-62.
- 722. du Toit DF, Villet WT. Gangrene of the penis after circumcision: a report of 3 cases. S Afr Med J 1979; 55: 521-2.
- 723. Elder JS. Editorial Comment: Necrotizing fasciitis after plastibell circumcision. J Urol 1998; 159: 1408.
- 724. Orozco-Sanchez J, Neri-Vela R. Denudacion total del pene por circuncision.

  Descripcion de una tecnica de plastia del pene para su correccion. [Total denudation]

- of the penis in circumcision. Description of a plastic technique for repair of the penis] Bol Med Hosp Infant Mex 1991; 48: 565-9.
- 725. Smey P. Re: Penile denudation injuries after circumcision [letter] J Urol 1985; 134: 1220.
- 726. Sotolongo JR Jr; Hoffman S, Gribetz ME. Penile denudation injuries after circumcision. J Urol 1985; 133: 102-3.
- 727. Brown JB. Restoration of the entire skin of the penis. Surgery Gynecol Obstetr 1937; 65: 362-5
- 728. Fisher TL. Office surgery. Can Med Assoc J 1954; 71: 395.
- 729. Bettencourt M-CD, Costabile RA. Penile denudation after adult circumcision. J Urol 1996; 156: 177-8.
- 730. Ezell WW, Smith I, McCarthy RP, Thompson IM, Habib HN. Mechanical traumatic injury to the genitalia in children. J Urol 1969; 102: 788-92.
- 731. Patel HI, Moriarty KP, Brisson PA, Feins NR. Genitourinary injuries in the newborn. J Pediatr Surg 2001; 36: 235-9.
- 732. Madden P, Boddy SA. Should religious circumcisions be performed on the NHS. Br Med J 1991; 302: 47.
- 733. Greenberg MA. Gomco circumcision. Am Fam Physician 1999; 59: 2724, 2729.
- 734. Van Duyn J, Warr WS. Excessive penile skin loss from circumcision. J Med Assoc Georgia 1962; 51: 394-6.
- 735. Baker TJ, Gonzalez MA. A complication of circumcision: probable cause, treatment, results, and legal ramifications. South Med J 1961; 54: 815-6.
- 736(CDC2). Williams N, Kapila L. Complications of circumcision. Br J Surg 1993; 80: 1231-6.
- 737. Lau JT, Ong GB. Subglandular urethral fistula following circumcision: repair by the advancement method. J Urol 1981; 126: 702-3.
- 738. Lackey JT, Mannion RA, Kerr JE. Subglanular urethral fistula from infant circumcision. J Indiana State Med Assoc 1969; 62: 1305-6.
- 739. Baskin LS, Canning DA, Snyder HM 3rd, Duckett JW Jr. Surgical repair of urethral circumcision injuries. J Urol 1997; 158: 2269-71.
- 740. Chapple CR. Urethral injury. BJU Int 2000; 86: 318-26.
- 741. Bierhoff F. Notes on conditions resulting from ritual circumcision. N Y Med J 1912; 95: 1037-8.
- 742. Johnson S. Persistent urethral fistula following circumcision. U S Naval M Bull 1949; 49: 120-122.
- 743. Limaye RD, Hancock RA. Penile urethral fistula as a complication of circumcision. J Pediatr 1968; 72: 105-6.
- 744. Shiraki IW. Congenital megalourethra with urethrocutaneous fistula following circumcision: a case report. J Urol 1973; 109: 723-6.
- 745. Guralnick ML, al-Shammari A, Williot PE, Leonard MP. Outcome of hypospadias repair using the tubularized, incised plate urethroplasty. Can J Urol 2000; 7: 986-91.
- 746. Aköz T, Erdogan B, Görgu M, Aslan G, Altintas H. Unusual complications of circumcision. Plast Reconstr Surg 1998; 101: 1915-8.
- 747. Redman JF. Rare penile anomalies presenting with complication of circumcision. Urology 1988; 32: 130-2.
- 748. Yazici M, Etensel B, Gursoy H. A very late onset urethral fistula coexisting with

- skin bridge after neonatal circumcision: A case report. J Pediatr Surg 2003; 38: 642-3.
- 749. Docimo SG. Subcutaneous frenulum flap (scuff) for iatrogenic or primary megameatus and reoperative hypospadias repair. Urology 2001; 58: 271-3.
- 750. Çetinkaya M, Saglam HS, Beyribey S. Two serious complications of circumcision. Case report. Scand J Urol Nephrol 1993; 27: 121-2.
- 751. Kiliç A, Emsen M, Özdengil E. Urethral fistula as the cause of circumcision phobia. Ann Plast Surg 2000; 45: 214.
- 752. Byars LT, Trier WC. Some complications of circumcision and their surgical repair. Arch Surg 1958; 76: 477-81.
- 753. Lackey JT, Mannion RA, Kerr JE. Urethral fistula following circumcision. JAMA 1968; 206: 2318.
- 754. Benchekroun A, Lakrissa A, Tazi A, Hafa D, Ouazzani N. Fistules urethrales apres circoncision: a propos de 15 cas. [Urethral fistulas after circumcision: apropos of 15 cases] Maroc Med 1981; 3: 715-8.
- 755. Ahmed A, Mbibi NH, Dawam D, Kalayi GD. Complications of traditional male circumcision. Ann Trop Paediatr 1999; 19(1): 113-7.
- 756. Colodny AH. Congenital urethrocutaneous fistulas. Urology 1994; 44: 149-50.
- 757. Baskin LS, Canning DA, Snyder HM 3rd, Duckett JW Jr. Surgical repair of urethral circumcision injuries. J Urol 1997; 158: 2269-71.
- 758. Tomasini C, Puiatti P, Bernengo MG. Multiple pyogenic granuloma of the penis. Sex Transm Infect 1998; 74: 221-2.
- 759. Naimer SA, Cohen A, Vardy D. Pyogenic granuloma of the penile shaft following circumcision. Pediatr Dermatol 2002; 19: 39-41.
- 760. Coban YK. Subglanular stricture: rare penile anomaly resulting from circumcision. Ann Plast Surg 2003; 50: 198-200.
- 761. Ben-Ari J, Merlob P, Mimouni F, Rosen O, Reisner SH. The prevalence of high insertion of scrotum, hydrocele and mobile testis in the newborn infant (36-42 weeks gestation). Eur J Pediatr 1989; 148: 563-4.
- 762. Shulman J, Ben-Hur N, Neuman Z. Surgical complications of circumcision. Am J Dis Child 1964; 107: 149-54.
- 763. Özdemir E. Significantly increased complication risks with mass circumcisions. Br J Urol 1997; 80: 136-9.
- 764. Lawton NM. Circumcision. Brit Med J 1965; 2: 419-20; Datta NS, Zinner NR. Complication from Plastibell circumcision ring. Urology 1977; 9: 57-8.
- 765. Rubenstein MM, Bason WM. Complication of circumcision done with a plastic bell clamp. Am J Dis Child 1968; 116: 381-2.
- 766. Owen ERTC, Kitson JL. Plastibell circumcision. Br J Clin Pract 1990; 44: 661.
- 767. Johnsonbaugh RE, Meyer BP, Catalano JD. Complication of a circumcision performed with a plastic bell clamp. Am J Dis Child 1969; 118: 781.
- 768. Johnsonbaugh RE. Complication of a circumcision performed with a plastic disposable circumcision device: long-term follow-up. Am J Dis Child 1979; 133: 438.
- 769. Cilento BG Jr, Holmes NM, Canning DA. Plastibell® complications revisited. Clin Pediatr 1999; 38: 239-42.
- 770. Mihssin N, Moorthy K, Houghton PW. Retention of urine: an unusual complication of the Plastibell device. BJU Int 1999; 84: 745.

- 771. Jonas G. Retention of a plastibell circumcision ring: report of a case. Obstet Gynecol 1964; 24: 835.
- 772. Datta NS, Zinner NR. Complication from Plastibell circumcision ring. Urology 1977; 9: 57-8.
- 773. Malo T. Hazards of plastibell circumcisions. Obstet Gynecol 1967; 33: 869.
- 774. Kim SJ, Chung H, Ahn HS, Chung DY, Kim YS. Strangulation of the penis by a self-circumcision device. Urol Int 2002; 68: 197-8.
- 775. Shah T, Raistrick J, Taylor I, Young M, Menebhi D, Stevens R. A circumcision service for religious reasons. BJU Int 1999; 83: 807-9.
- 776. Reppin G, Romer KH. Postoperative Komplikationen bei der Plastibell-Phimosen-Operation. [Postoperative complications in the plastibell phimosis operation] Zentralbl Chir 1985; 110: 1486-90.
- 777. McGowan AJ. A complication of circumcision. JAMA 1969; 207: 2104-5.McGowan AJ. A complication of circumcision. JAMA 1969; 207: 2104-5.
- 778. Smith DJ, Hamdy FC, Chapple CR. An uncommon complication of circumcision. Br J Urol 1994; 73: 459-60.
- 779. Stefan H. Reconstruction of the penis after necrosis due to circumcision burn. Eur J Pediatr Surg 1994; 4: 40-3.
- 780. Stefan H. Reconstruction of the penis following necrosis from circumcision used high frequency cutting current. Sb Ved Pr Lek Fak Karlovy Univerzity Hradci Kralove Suppl 1992; 35: 449-54.
- 781. Sterenberg N, Golan J, Ben-Hur N. Necrosis of the glans penis following neonatal circumcision. Plast Reconstr Surg 1981; 68: 237-9.
- 782. Erk Y, Kocabalkan O. A case report of penis reconstruction for partial penis necrosis following circumcision. Turk J Pediatr 1995; 37: 79-82.
- 783. Rosefsky JB Jr. Glans necrosis as a complication of circumcision. Pediatrics 1967; 39: 774-6.
- 784. Brown JB, Fryer MP. Surgical reconstruction of the penis. GP 1958; 17(4): 104-7.
- 785. Diamond M, Sigmundson HK. Sex reassignment at birth: Long-term review and clinical implications. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1997; 151: 298-304.
- 786. Belkacem R, Amrani A, Benabdellah F, Outarahout O. Reconstruction de la verge après nécrose due à une circoncision. [Reconstruction of the penis after necrosis due to circumcision]. Ann Urol (Paris) 1997; 31: 322-5.
- 787. Bradley SJ, Oliver GD, Chernick AB, Zucker KJ. Experiment of nurture: ablatio penis at 2 months, sex reassignment at 7 months, and a psychosexual follow-up in young adulthood. Pediatrics 1998; 102(1): e9.
- 788. Sharpe JR, Finney RP. Electrocautery circumcision [letter] Urology 1982; 19: 228.
- 789. Perlstein GB. Electrocautery circumcision [letter] Urology 1982; 20: 110.
- 790. Belman B. Electrocautery circumcision. Urology 1981; 18: 506-7.
- 791. Pearlman CK. Reconstruction following iatrogenic burn of the penis. J Pediatr Surg 1976; 11: 121-2.
- 792. Money J, Ehrhardt A. Man and Woman, Boy and Girl. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1972.
- 793. Money J. Case consultation: ablatio penis. Med Law 1998; 17(1): 113-23.
- 794. Colapinto J. As nature made him: the boy who was raised as a girl. 2nd ed. New York: Harper Perennial; 2006.

- 795. Reiner W. To be male of female that is the question. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1997; 151: 224-5.
- 796. Ehrich WS. Two unusual penile injuries. J Urol 1929; 21: 239-41. Cited in: Hashem FK, Ahmed S, al-Malaq AA, AbuDaia JM. Successful replantation of penile amputation (post-circumcision) complicated by prolonged ischaemia. Br J Plast Surg 1999; 52: 308-10.
- 797. Cohen BE, May JW Jr, Daly JS, Young HH. Successful clinical reimplantation of an amputated penis by microneurovascular repair. Case report. Plast Reconstr Surg 1977; 59: 276-80. Cited in: Hashem FK, Ahmed S, al-Malaq AA, AbuDaia JM. Successful replantation of penile amputation (post-circumcision) complicated by prolonged ischaemia. Br J Plast Surg 1999; 52: 308-10.
- 798. Sherman J, Borer JG, Horowitz M, Glassberg KI. Circumcision: successful glanular reconstruction and survival following traumatic amputation. J Urol 1996; 156: 842-4.
- 799. Gold S. Bleeding after circumcision. Can Med Assoc J 1940; 43: 473.
- 800. Levitt SB, Smith RB, Ship AG. latrogenic microphallus secondary to circumcision. Urology 1976; 8: 472-4.
- 801. Money J. Ablatio penis: normal male infant sex-reassigned as a girl. Arch Sex Behav 1975; 4: 65-71.
- 802. Azmy A, Boddy SA, Ransley PG. Successful reconstruction following circumcision with diathermy. Br J Urol 1985; 57: 587-8.
- 803. Gilbert DA, Jordan GH, Devine CJ Jr, Winslow BH, Schlossberg SM. Phallic construction in prepubertal and adolescent boys. J Urol 1993; 149: 1521-6.
- 804. Gearhart JP, Rock JA. Total ablation of the penis after circumcision with electrocautery: a method of management and long-term followup. J Urol 1989; 142: 799-801.
- 805. Strimling BS. Partial amputation of glans penis during Mogen clamp circumcision. Pediatrics 1996; 97: 906-7.
- 806. Gluckman GR, Stoller ML, Jacobs MM, Kogan BA. Newborn penile glans amputation during circumcision and successful reattachment. J Urol 1995; 153: 778-9.
- 807. Hanash KA. Plastic reconstruction of partially amputated penis at circumcision. Urology 1981; 18: 291-3.
- 808. Siegel-Itzkovich J. Baby's penis reattached after botched circumcision. Br Med J 2000; 321: 529.
- 809. Lerner BL. Amputation of the penis as a complication of circumcision. Med Record Ann 1952: 46: 229-31.
- 810. Neulander E, Walfisch S, Kaneti J. Amputation of distal penile glans during neonatal ritual circumcision--a rare complication. Br J Urol 1996; 77: 924-5.
- 811. Izzidien AY. Successful replantation of a traumatically amputated penis in a neonate. J Pediatr Surg 1981; 16: 202-3.
- 812. Shenfeld OZ, Ad-El D. [Penile reconstruction after complete glans amputation during ritual circumcision] Harefuah 2000; 139: 352-4, 407.
- 813. Ameh EA, Sabo SY, Muhammad I. Amputation of the penis during traditional circumcision. Trop Doct 1997; 27: 117.
- 814. Yilmaz AF, Sarikaya S, Yildiz S, Buyukalpelli R. Rare complication of circumcision: penile amputation and reattachment. Eur Urol 1993; 23: 423-4.

- 815. Coskunfirat OK, Sayilkan S, Velidedeoglu H. Glans and penile skin amputation as a complication of circumcision. Ann Plast Surg 1999; 43: 457.
- 816. Hashem FK, Ahmed S, al-Malaq AA, AbuDaia JM. Successful replantation of penile amputation (post-circumcision) complicated by prolonged ischaemia. Br J Plast Surg 1999; 52: 308-10.
- 817. Audry G, Buis J, Vazquez MP, Gruner M. Amputation of penis after circumcision-penoplasty using expandable prosthesis. Eur J Pediatr Surg 1994; 4: 44-5.
- 818. Aydin A, Alp A, Tuncer S. Penile amputation due to circumcision and replantation. Plastic Reconstr Surg 2002; 110: 707-8.
- 819. Silfen R, Hudson DA, McCulley S. Penile lengthening for traumatic penile amputation due to ritual circumcision: a case report. Ann Plast Surg 2000; 44: 311-6.
- 820. Özkan S, Gürpinar T. A serious circumcision complication: penile shaft amputation and a new reattachment technique with a successful outcome. J Urol 1997; 158: 1946-7.
- 821. Bozkurt MF, Ugur Ö. Assessment of penile bone graft viability by bone scintigraphy: a case report. Ann Nucl Med 2000; 14: 377-8.
- 822. Amputations with use of adult-size scissors-type circumcision clamps on infants. Health Devices 1995; 24: 286-7.
- 823. Berman W. Letter: Urinary retention due to ritual circumcision. Pediatrics 1975; 56: 621.
- 824. Pearce I. Retention of urine: an unusual complication of the Plastibell device. BJU Int 2000; 85: 560-1.
- 825. Horwitz J, Schussheim A, Scalettar HE. Letter: Abdominal distension following ritual circumcision. Pediatrics 1976; 57: 579.
- 826. Ly L, Sankara K. Acute venous stasis and swelling of the lower abdomen and extremities in an infant after circumcision. Can Med Assoc J 2003; 169: 216-7.
- 827. Fraser IA, Allen MJ, Bagshaw PF, Johnstone M. A randomized trial to assess childhood circumcision with the Plastibell device compared to a conventional dissection technique. Br J Surg 1981; 68: 593-5.
- 828.Perlmutter DF, Lawrence JM, Krauss AN, Auld PA. Voiding after neonatal circumcision. Pediatrics 1995; 96: 1111-2.
- 829. Philobos MK, Teji JS, Vasa R, Kambhampati N. Post-circumcision voiding [Abstract P51]. Pediatrics 1998; 102: 777-8.
- 830. Jee LD, Millar AJ. Ruptured bladder following circumcision using the Plastibell device. Br J Urol 1990; 65: 216-7.
- 831. Craig JC, Grigor WG, Knight JF. Acute obstructive uropathy--a rare complication of circumcision. Eur J Pediatr 1994; 153: 369-71.
- 832. Eason JD, McDonnell M, Clark G. Male ritual circumcision resulting in acute renal failure. Br Med J 1994; 309: 660-1.
- 833. Hanukoglu A, Danielli L, Katzir Z, Gorenstein A, Fried D. Serious complications of routine ritual circumcision in a neonate: hydro ureteronephrosis, amputation of glans penis, and hyponatraemia. Eur J Pediatr 1995; 154: 314-5.
- 834. Fisher RG. Plastibell circumcision: a novel complication. J Pediatr 1998; 133: 468.
- 835. Arnon R, Zecharia A, Mimouni M, Merlob P. Unilateral leg cyanosis: an unusual complication of circumcision [letter] Eur J Pediatr 1992; 151: 716.
- 836. Frand M, Berant N, Brand N, Rotem Y. Complication of ritual circumcision in Israel.

- Pediatrics 1988; 54: 521.
- 837. Connelly KP, Shropshire LC, Salzberg A. Gastric rupture associated with prolonged crying in a newborn undergoing circumcision. Clin Pediatr Phila 1992; 31: 560-1.
- 838. Curtis JE. Circumcision complicated by pulmonary embolism. Nurs Mirror Midwives J 1971; 132: 28-30.
- 839. Auerbach MR, Scanlon JW Recurrence of pneumothorax as a possible complication of elective circumcision. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1978; 132: 583.
- 840. Knox RW. Erythema multiforme reports of case following circumcision. Transactions of the Texas State Medical Association 1896; 438-42.
- 841. Knox RW. Erythema multiforme report of a case following circumcision. Texas Med News 1896; 6: 8-12.
- 842. Ruff ML, Clarke TA, Harris JP, Bartels EK, Rosenzweig M. Myocardial injury following immediate postnatal circumcision. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1982; 144: 850-1.
- 843. Mor A, Eshel G, Aladjem M, Mundel G. Tachycardia and heart failure after ritual circumcision. Arch Dis Child 1987; 62: 80-1.
- 844. Stinson JM. Impotence and adult circumcision. J Natl Med Assoc 1973; 65: 161.
- 845. Palmer JM, Link D. Impotence following anesthesia for elective circumcision. JAMA 1979; 241: 2635-6.
- 846. Fleiss PM, Douglass J. The case against neonatal circumcision. Br Med J 1979; 2: 554.
- 847. Lander J, Brady-Fryer B, Metcalfe JB, Nazarali S, Muttitt S. Comparison of ring block, dorsal penile nerve block, and topical anesthesia for neonatal circumcision: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA 1997; 278: 2157-62.
- 848. Spence GR. Chilling of newborn infants: its relation to circumcision immediately following birth. South Med J 1970; 63: 309-11.
- 849. Grupp-Phelan J, Taylor JA, Liu LL, Davis RL. Early newborn hospital discharge and readmission for mild and severe jaundice. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1999; 153: 1283-8.
- 850. Newman TB, Xiong B, Gonzales VM, Escobar GJ. Prediction and prevention of extreme neonatal hyperbilirubinemia in a mature health maintenance organization. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 2000; 154; 1140-7.
- 851. Hatch DA, Maizels M, Zaontz MR, Firlit C. Hypospadias hidden by a complete prepuce. Surg Gynecol Obstet 1989; 169: 233-4.
- 852. Bang RL, Ebrahim MK, Lari AR. T flap hypospadias repair in circumcised patients. Br J Plast Surg 1993; 46: 164-7.
- 853. Baran NK. Urethral advancement for distal hypospadias repair in circumcised patients. Plast Reconstr Surg 1982; 70: 496-504.
- 854. Vyas PR, Roth DR, Perlmutter AD. Experience with free grafts in urethral reconstruction. J Urol 1987; 137: 471-4.
- 855. Ntia IO, Osegbe DN, Amaku EO. One-stage penile cutaneous island flap repair for hypospadias in circumcized patients. Eur Urol 1988; 14: 450-3.
- 856. de Badiola FIP, Sosa A, Moldes J, Puigdevall JC, Ruiz E. Snodgrass hypospadias repair without circumcision.[Abstract 104] Pediatrics 1999; 104: 846.
- 857. Andrews RJ, Miller JL, Ruest MM. Circumcision in a general dispensary. Mil Med 1981; 146: 880-1.

- 858. Tucker SC, Cerqueiro J, Sterne GD, Bracka A. Circumcision: a refined technique and 5 year review. Ann R Coll Surg Engl 2001; 83: 121-5.
- 859. Brennemann J. The ulcerated meatus in the circumcised child. Am J Dis Child 1921; 21: 38-47.
- 860. Kunz HV. Circumcision and meatotomy. Prim Care 1986; 13: 513-25.
- 861. Morgan WKC. Protest on "pilfering the prepuce." J Nat Med Assoc 1966; 58: 489-90.
- 862. American Academy of Pediatrics. Urology section. Urethral meatal stenosis in males. Pediatrics 1978; 61: 778-80.
- 863. Klauber GT. Circumcision and phallic fallacies, or the case against routine circumcision. Conn Med 1973; 37: 445-8.
- 864. Viville C, Weltzer J. Les retrecissements iatrogenes de l'urethre (R.I.U.) masculin. A propos de 50 observations [latrogenic stenosis of the male urethra. 50 cases (author's transl)]
- 865. Endington GH. Some untoward consequences of phimosis and of circumcision. The Hospital 1910; 49: 403-4.
- 866. Thompson AR. Stricture of the external urinary meatus. Lancet 1935; 1: 1373-7.
- 867. Van der Bogert F. Some distressing consequences of circumcision during the diaper wearing period. Arch Pediatr 1935; 52: 562-6.
- 868. Abeshous BS, Bogorad DE. Urol & Cutan Rev 1938; 42: 748. cited in: Freud P. The ulcerated urethral meatus in male children. J Pediatr 1947; 31: 131-42.
- 869. Freud P. The ulcerated urethral meatus in male children. J Pediatr 1947; 31: 131-42.
- 870. Arnold SJ, Ginsburg A, Berg R. Radiographic criteria of meatal and distal urethral stenosis. Pre- and postoperative study. Urology 1973; 1: 397-404.
- 871. Allen JS, Summers JL. Meatal stenosis in children. J Urol 1974; 112: 526-7.
- 872. Cherif F, Fazaa B, Mokhtar I, Kamoun MR. Épidermoloyses bulleuses jonctionnelles: faut-il permettre la circoncision? [Junctional epidermolysis bullosa: should circumcision be allowed]?. Ann Dermatol Venereol 1998; 125: 724-6.
- 873. Berry CD Jr, Cross RR Jr. Urethral meatal caliber in circumcised and uncircumcised males. Am J Dis Child 1956; 92: 621.
- 874. Cartwright PC, Snow BW, McNees DC. Urethral meatotomy in the office using topical EMLA cream for anesthesia. J Urol 1996; 156: 857-8; discussion 858-9.
- 875. Steg A, Allouch G. Stenose du meat et circoncision. J Urol Nephrol Paris 1979; 85: 727-9.
- 876. Litvak AS, Morris JA Jr, McRoberts JW. Normal size of the urethral meatus in boys. J Urol 1976; 115: 736-7.
- 877. Frank JD, Pocock RD, Stower MJ. Urethral strictures in childhood. Br J Urol 1988; 62: 590-2.
- 878. Docimo SG, Silver RI, Gonzalez R. Müller SC, Jeffs RD. Idiopathic anterior urethritis in prepubertal and pubertal boys: pathology and clues to etiology. Urology 1998; 51: 99-102.
- 879. Upadhyay V, Hammodat HM, Pease PW. Post circumcision meatal stenosis: 12 years' experience. N Z Med J 1998; 111(1060): 57-8.
- 880. Parkash S, Gajendran V. Meatoplasty for gross urethral stenosis: a technique of repair and a review of 32 cases. Br J Plast Surg 1984; 37: 117-20.

- 881. Mowad JJ; Michaels MM. Meatal stenosis associated with vesicoureteral reflux in boys: management of 25 cases. J Urol 1974; 111: 100-1.
- 882. Palaniswamy R, Bhandari M. Point of focus: poor genital hygiene and terminal urethral strictures. Trop Geogr Med 1983; 35: 139-43.
- 883. Bhandari M, Palaniswamy R, Achrekar KL, Rajagopal V. Strictures of the penile urethra. Br J Urol 1983; 55: 235-8.
- 884. Hoebeke P, Depauw P, Van Laecke E, Oosterlinck W. The use of Emla cream as anaesthetic for minor urological surgery in children. Acta Urol Belg 1997; 65: 25-8.
- 885. Mastin WM. Infantile circumcision a cause of contraction of the external urethral meatus. Ann Anatomy Surg 1881; 4: 123-8.
- 886. Moore SB. Urinary meatal stenosis. Br Med J 1972; 1: 248.
- 887. Noe HN, Dale GA. Evaluation of children with meatal stenosis. J Urol 1975; 114: 455-6.
- 888. Mahmoudi H. Evaluation of meatal stenosis following neonatal circumcision. Urol J 2005; 2(2): 86-8.
- 889. Allen JS, Summers JL, Wilkerson JE. Meatal calibration of newborn boys. J Urol 1972; 107: 498.
- 890. Brem J, Jaffee SR. Hidden meatal stenosis in male infants and children. Am Fam Physician GP 1970; 2: 72-3
- 891. Linshaw MA. Circumcision and obstructive renal disease. Pediatrics 1977; 59: 790.
- 892. Eke FU, Eke NN. Renal disorders in children: a Nigerian study. Pediatr Nephrol 1994; 8: 383-6.
- 893. Alter GJ, Horton CE Jr; Horton CE Jr. Buried penis as a contraindication for circumcision. J Am Coll Surg 1994; 178: 487-90.
- 894. Bergeson PS, Hopkin RJ, Bailey RB Jr, McGill LC, Piatt JP. The inconspicuous penis. Pediatrics 1993; 92: 794-9.
- 895. Kenawi MM. Webbed penis. Br J Urol 1973; 45: 569; Najjar SS. Webbing of the penis. Clin Pediatr Phila 1974; 13: 377.
- 896. Bailey R. McGill L, Bergeson PS, Piat JP, Hopkin R. The inconspicuous or "disappearing" penis [reply]. Pediatrics 1994; 94: 242.
- 897. Horton CE, Vorstman B, Teasley D, Winslow B. Hidden penis release: adjunctive suprapubic lipectomy. Ann Plast Surg 1987; 19: 131-4.
- 898. Smeulders N, Wilcox DT, Cuckow PM. The buried penis an anatomical approach. BJU Int 2000; 86: 523-6.
- 899. Lim DJ, Barraza MA, Stevens PS. Correction of retractile concealed penis. J Urol 1995; 153: 1668-70.
- 900. Lipszyc E, Pfister C, Liard A, Mitrofanoff P. Surgical treatment of buried penis. Eur J Pediatr Surg 1997; 7: 292-5.
- 901. Alter GJ, Ehrlich RM. A new technique for correction of the hidden penis in children and adults. J Urol 1999; 161: 455-9.
- 902. Crawford BS. Buried penis. Br J Plast Surg 1977; 30: 96-9. as cited by: Lipszyc E, Pfister C, Liard A, Mitrofanoff P. Surgical treatment of buried penis. Eur J Pediatr Surg 1997; 7: 292-5.
- 903. Donatucci CF, Ritter EF. Management of the buried penis in adults. J Urol 1998; 159: 420-4.
- 904. Casale AJ, Beck SD, Cain MP, Adams MC, Rink RC. Concealed penis in

- childhood: a spectrum of etiology and treatment. J Urol 1999; 162: 1165-8.
- 905. van der Zee JA, Hage JJ, Groen JM, Bouman FG. Een ernstige complicatie ten gevolge van rituele circumcisie van een 'begraven' penis. [A serious complication of ritual circumcision of a 'buried' penis] Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd 1991; 135: 1604-6.
- 906. Talarico RD, Jasaitis JE. Concealed penis: a complication of neonatal circumcision. J Urol 1973; 110: 732-3.
- 907. Kon M. A rare complication following circumcision: the concealed penis. J Urol 1983; 130: 573-4.
- 908. Trier WC, Drach GW. Concealed penis. Another complication of circumcision. Am J Dis Child 1973; 125: 276-7.
- 909. Radhakrishnan J, Reyes HM. Penoplasty for buried penis secondary to "radical" circumcision. J Pediatr Surg 1984; 19: 629-31.
- 910. Shenoy MU, Srinivasan J, Sully L, Rance CH. Buried penis: surgical correction using liposuction and realignment of skin. BJU Int 2000; 86: 527-30.
- 911. Williams CP, Richardson BG, Bukowski TP. Importance of identifying the inconspicuous penis: prevention of circumcision complications. Urology 2000; 56: 140-2 discussion 142-3.
- 912. Esen AA, Aslan G, Kazimoglu H, Arslan D, Çelebi Í. Concealed penis: rare complication of circumcision. Urol Int 2001; 66: 117-8.
- 913. Brisson P, Patel H, Chan M, Feins N. Penoplasty for buried penis in children: Report of 50 cases. J Pediatr Surg 2001; 36: 421-5.
- 914. Shapiro SR. Surgical treatment of the "buried" penis. Urology 1987; 30: 554-9.
- 915. Joseph VT. A new approach to the surgical correction of buried penis. J Pediatr Surg 1995; 30: 727-9.
- 916. Maizels M, Zaontz M, Donovan J, Bushnick PN, Firlit CF. Surgical correction of the buried penis: description of a classification system and a technique to correct the disorder. J Urol 1986; 136: 268-73.
- 917. Cochran HL. Immediately recurring phimosis after operation. Brooklyn Med J 1895; 9: 280-4.
- 918. Hinman F Jr, Goodwin WE. The "botched" circumcision. AUA Today 1993(Jan); 12,15.
- 919. Cuckow PM. Circumcision. In Stringer MD, Olham KT, Mouriquand PDE, Howard ER. Pediatric Surgery and Urology: Long Term Outcomes. London: W B Saunders Company Limited: 1998: 616-24.
- 920. Jensen MK. Phimosisoperation med Plastibell: En efterundersøgelse [Surgery for phimosis with Plastibell. A follow-up study]. Ugeskr Laeger 1998; 160: 3920-3.
- 921. Baskin LS, Canning DA, Snyder HM, Duckett JW. Treating complications of circumcision. Pediatr Emerg Care 1996; 12: 62-8.
- 922. Breuer GS, Walfisch S. Circumcision complications and indications for ritual recircumcision--clinical experience and review of the literature. Isr J Med Sci 1987; 23: 252-6.
- 923(CDC156). Metcalf TJ, Osborn LM, Mariani EM. Circumcision. A study of current practices. Clin Pediatr Phila 1983; 22: 575-9.
- 924. MacCarthey D, Douglas JQB. Circumcision in a national sample of 40-year old children. Br Med J 1952; 2: 755-6.
- 925. Lovell JE, Cox J. Maternal attitudes toward circumcision. J Fam Pract 1979; 9:

- 811-3.
- 926. Marks MB. Preputial adhesions in the circumcised penis. Arch Pediatr 1939; 56: 458-9.
- 927. Ritchey ML, Bloom DA. Re: Skin bridge a complication of paediatric circumcision. Br J Urol 1991; 68: 331.
- 928. Attalla MF, Taweela MN. Pathogenesis of post-circumcision adhesions. Pediatr Surg Int 1994; 9: 103-5.
- 929. Gracely-Kilgore KA. Penile adhesion: the hidden complication of circumcision. Nurse Pract 1984; 9: 22-4.
- 930. Ponsky LE, Ross JH, Knipper N, Kay R. Penile adhesions after neonatal circumcision. J Urol 2000; 164: 495-6.
- 931. Naimer SA, Peleg R, Meidvidoviski Y, Zvulunov A, Cohen AD, Vardy D. Office management of penile skin bridges with electrocautery. J Am Board Fam Pract 2002; 15: 485-8.
- 932. Sathaye UV, Goswami AK, Sharma SK. Skin bridge a complication of paediatric circumcision. Br J Urol 1990; 66: 214.
- 933. Klauber GT, Boyle J. Preputial skin-bridging. Complication of circumcision. Urology 1974; 3: 722-3.
- 934. Warwick DJ, Dickson WA. Keloid of the penis after circumcision. Postgrad Med J 1993; 69: 236-7.
- 935. Köksal T, Kadioglu A, Tefekli A. Keloid as a complication after circumcision. BJU Int 2000: 85: 776.
- 936. Eldin US. Post-circumcision keloid a case report. Ann Burns Fire Disasters 1998; 12(3): 174.
- 937. Gürünlüoglü R, Bayramiçli M, Numanoglu A. Keloid of the penis after circumcision. Br J Plast Surg 1996; 49: 425-6.
- 938. Gürünlüoglü R, Bayramiçli M, Numanoglu A. Two patients with penile keloids: a review of the literature. Ann Plast Surg 1997; 39: 662-5.
- 939. Gürünlüoglu R, Bayramiçli M, Dogan T, Numanoglu A. Keloid after circumcision. Plast Reconstr Surg 1999; 103: 1539-40.
- 940. Gürünlüoglu R, Bayramiçli M, Dogan T, Numanoglu A. Unusual complications of circumcision. Plast Reconstr Surg 1999; 104: 1938-9.
- 941. Michalowski R. Silica granuloma at the site of circumcision for phimosis: a case report. Dermatologica 1983; 166: 261-3.
- 942. Atikeler MK, Onur R, Gecit I, Senol FA, Cobanoglu B. Increased morbidity after circumcision from a hidden complication. BJU Int 2001; 88: 938-40.
- 943. Tuli S, Meinert E, Kelly M, Tuli S. Epidermal inclusion cyst after circumcision. Consult Pediatr 2012; 11: 119.
- 944. El-Shazly M, Ghobashy A, Allam A, Alenezy T, Alenezy N, Yordanov E, Hathout B, Albunnai R. Penile epidermal inclusion cyst. Case Rep Urol 2012; 2012: 191343.
- 945. Saini P, Mansoor MN, Jalali S, Sharma A. Penile epidermal inclusion cyst. Indian J Pediatr 2010; 77: 815-6.
- 946. Okeke LI. Epidermal inclusion cyst as a rare complication of neonatal male circumcision: a case report. J Med Case Rep 2009; 3: 7321.
- 947. Hoffman E. Vortauschung prim‰rer Syphilis durch gonorrheische Lymphangitis (gonorrheischer Pseudoprimaraffekt). Munch Med Worchenschr 1923; 70: 1167-8.

- 948. Hutchins P, Dunlop EMC, Rodin P. Benign transient lymphangiectasis (sclerosing lymphagnitis) of the penis. Br J Vener Dis 1977; 53: 379-85.
- 949. Ramanan C, Ghorpade A. Benign transient lymphangiectasis. Int J Dermatol 1996; 35: 575-6.
- 950. Kandil E. Al-Kashlan IM. Nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. Acta Derm Venerol 1970; 50: 309-12.
- 951. Greenberg RD, Perry TL. Nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. Arch Dermatol 1972; 105: 728-9.
- 952. Fiumara NJ. Nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. Arch Dermatol 1975; 111: 902-3.
- 953. Nickel WR, Plumb RT. Nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis. Arch Dermatol 1962; 86: 761-3.
- 954. Gharpuray MB, Tolat SN. Nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. Cutis 1991; 47: 421-2.
- 955. Broaddus SB, Leadbetter GW. Surgical management of persistent, symptomatic nonvenereal sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. J Urol 1982; 127: 987-8.
- 956. Lassus A, Niemi KM, Valle SL Kiistala U. Sclerosing lymphangitis of the penis. Br J Vener Dis 1972; 48: 545-7.
- 957. McMillan A. Lymphocoele and localized lymphoedema of the penis. Br J Vener Dis 1976; 52: 409-11.
- 958. Bardazzi F, Orlandi C, D'Antuono A, Patrizi A. Lymphangioma circumscriptum of the penis. Sex Transm Infect 1998; 74: 303-4.
- 959. Wright RA, Judson FN. Penile veneral edema. JAMA 1979; 241: 157-8.
- 960. Canby JP, Wilde H. Penile venereal edema. N Engl J Med 1973; 289: 108.
- 961. El-Hoshy K, Mizuguchi R. Dermatoses of the glans penis: penile venereal edema. J Am Acad Dermatol 1998; 38: 645-6.
- 962. Wilde H, Canby JP. Penile venereal edema. Arch Dermatol 1973; 108: 263.
- 963. Van Howe RS, Cold CJ. Three cases of penile edema in peripubescent males. Clin Pediatr Phila 2001; 40: 523-5.
- 964. Smith GA, Sharma V, Knapp JF, Shields BJ. The summer penile syndrome: seasonal acute hypersensitivity reaction caused by chigger bites on the penis. Pediatr Emerg Care 1998; 14: 116-8.
- 965. Silber TJ, Zeitler M. Penile venereal edema in an adolescent. J Adolesc Health Care 1982; 3: 124-5.
- 966. Fleisher G, Hodge D 3d, Cromie W. Penile edema in childhood gonorrhea. Ann Emera Med 1980: 9: 314-5.
- 967. Lau JT, Ong GB. Acute idiopathic penile edema: a separate clinical entity? J Urol 1981; 126: 704-5.
- 968. Yildirim S, Taylan G, Akoz T. Circumcision as an unusual cause of penile lymphedema. Ann Plast Surg 2003; 50: 665-6.
- 969. Lowe FC, McCullough AR. Cutaneous horns of the penis: an approach to management. Am Acad Derm 1985; 13: 369-73.
- 970. Karthikeyan, Thappa DM, Jaisankar TJ, Balamourougane, Ananthakrishnan N, Ratnakar C. Cutaneous horn of glans penis. Sex Transm Infect 1998; 74: 456-7.
- 971. Torres Peris V, Aloy Pantin M, Castells Rodellas A. Penile horn. [Penile horn] Med Cutan Ibero Lat Am 1982; 10: 47-50.

- 972. Guillimeau J. The nursing of children, chapter 24, London (1612). Cited by: Haddad FS. Penile strangulation by human hair. Report of three cases and review of the literature. Urol Int 1982; 37: 375-88.
- 973. Pantuck AJ, Kraus SL, Barone JG. Hair strangulation injury of the penis. Pediatr Emerg Care 1997;13:423-4.
- 974. Sheinfeld J, Cos LR, Erturk E, Cockett ATK. Penile tourniquet injury due to a coil of hair. J Urol 1985; 133: 1042-3.
- 975. Bashir AY, El Barbary M. Hair coil strangulation of the penis. J R Coll Surg Edinb 1980; 25: 47-51.
- 976. Aboulola M, Boukheloua B, Hanouz A, Izem MK. Plaies de l'urètre par cheveu étrangleur. [Urethral injuries caused by hair strangulation.] Chir Pediatr 1980; 21: 283-5.
- 977. Haddad FS. Penile strangulation by human hair. Report of three cases and review of the literature. Urol Int 1982; 37: 375-88.
- 978. Haddad FS. RE: Penile tourniquet injury due to a coil of hair. J Urol 1985; 134: 1220.
- 979. Livne PM, Gonzales ET Jr. Genitourinary trauma in children. Urol Clin North Am 1985; 12: 53-65.
- 980. Mhiri MN, Midassi H, Mezghanni M, Smida ML. [Strangulation of glans penis by hair or "penis tourniquet syndrome"]. Pediatrie 1987; 42: 351-3.
- 981. El-Bahnasawy MS, El-Sherbiny MT. Paediatric penile trauma. BJU Int 2002; 90: 92-6.
- 982. Mhiri MN, Chakroun Z. Urethral injury secondary to penile strangulation by hair. Br J Urol 1992; 69: 319-20.
- 983. Toguri AG, Light RA, Warren MM. Penile tourniquet syndrom caused by hair. South Med J 1979; 72: 627-8.
- 984. Goldman R. Circumcision The Hidden Trauma: How an American Cultural Practice Affects Infants and Ultimately Us All. (Boston: Vanguard Publications), 1997.
- 985. Jacobson B, Nyberg K, Eklund G, Bygdeman M, Rydberg U. Obstetrical pain medication and eventual adult amphetamine addiction in offspring. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 1988; 67: 677- 82.
- 986. Jacobson B, Nyberg K, Grönbladh L, Eklund G, Bygdeman M, Rydberg U. Opiate addiction in adult offspring through possible imprinting after obstetric treatment. Br Med J 1990; 301: 1067-70.
- 987. Jacobson B, Eklund G, Hamberger L, Linnarsson D, Sedvall G, Valverius M. Perinatal origin of adult self-destructive behavior. Acta Psychiatr Scand 1987; 76: 364-71.
- 988. Nyberg K, Allebeck P, Eklund G, Jacobson B. Obstetric medication versus residential area as perinatal risk factors for subsequent adult drug addiction in offspring. Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol 1993; 7: 23-32.
- 989. Nyberg K, Allebeck P, Eklund G, Jacobson B. Socio-economic versus obstetric risk factors for drug addiction in offspring. Br J Addict 1992; 87: 1669-76.
- 990. Jacobson B, Bygdeman M. Obstetric care and proneness of offspring to suicide as adults: case-control study. Br Med J 1998; 317: 1346-9.
- 991. Jacobson B, Eklund G, Hamberger L, Linnarsson D, Sedvall G, Valverius M. Perinatal origin of adult self-destructive behavior. Acta Psychiatr Scand 1987; 76:

- 364-71.
- 992. Anand KJ, Runeson B, Jacobson B. Gastric suction at birth associated with long-term risk for functional intestinal disorders in later life. J Pediatr 2004; 144: 449-54.
- 993. Taddio A, Goldbach M, Ipp M, Stevens B, Koren G. Effect of neonatal circumcision on pain responses during vaccination in boys. Lancet 1995; 345: 291-2.
- 994. Taddio A, Katz J, Ilersich AL, Koren G. Effect of neonatal circumcision on pain response during subsequent routine vaccination. Lancet 1997; 349: 599-603.
- 995. Weisman SJ, Bernstein B, Schechter NL. Consequences of inadequate analgesia during painful procedures in children. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1998; 152: 147-9.
- 996. Frisch M, Simonsen J. Ritual circumcision and risk of autism spectrum disorder on 0- to 9-year-old boys: national cohort study in Denmark. J R Soc Med; 2015; epub ahead of print.
- 997. Bollinger D, Van Howe RS. Alexithymia and circumcision trauma: a preliminary investigation. Int J Men Health 2011; 10: 184-95.
- 999. Cansever G. Psychological effects of circumcision. Br J Med Psychol 1965; 38: 321-31.
- 999. Armstrong H. Circumcision. Can Med Assoc J 1982; 127: 459.
- 1000. Mor Z, Shohat T, Goor Y, Dan M. Risk behaviors and sexually transmitted diseases in gay and heterosexual men attending an STD clinic in Tel Aviv, Israel: a cross-sectional study. Isr Med Assoc J 2012: 14: 147-51.
- 1001. Richards MP, Bernal JF, Brackbill Y. Early behavioral differences: gender or circumcision? Dev Psychobiol 1976; 9: 89-95.
- 1002. Bell RQ, Costello N. Three tests for sex differences in tactile sensitivity in the newborn. Biologia Neonatorum 1964; 7: 335-47.
- 1003. Wolff PH. The natural history of crying and other vocalizations in early infancy. In BM Foss (ed) Determinants of Infant Behaviour, Vol. IV. London: Methuen. 1969, 81-109.
- 1004. Lipsitt LP, Levy N. Electrotactual threshold in the human neonate. Child Dev 1959; 30: 547-54.
- 1005. Engel R, Crowell D, Nishijima S. Visual and auditory repsonse latencies in neonates. In Felicitation Volume in Honour of C.C. de Silval. Ceylon: Kulatartne & Co. 1968.
- 1006. Nisbett R, Gurwitz S. Weight, sex and the eating behavior of human newborns. J Comp Physiol Psychol 1970; 73: 245-53.
- 1007. Bench J. Some effects of audio-frequency stimulation on the crying baby. J Auditory Res 1969: 9: 122-8.
- 1008. Bench J, Collyer Y, Langford C, Toms R. A comparison between the neonatal sound-evoked startle response and the head-drop (moro) reflex. Dev Med Child Neurol 1972; 14: 308-17.
- 1009. Hutt SJ, Lenard HG, Prechtl HFR. Psychophysiological studies in newborn infants. In L.P. Lipsitt and H.W. Reese (eds), Advances in Child Development and Behavior, Vol. 4. New York: Academic. 1969. 127-72.
- 1010. Prechtl HFR. Patterns of reflex behavior related to sleep in the human infant. In C.D. Clemente, D.P. Purpura and F. Mayer (eds) Sleep and the Maturing Nervous System. New York: Academic. 1972. 287-301.
- 1011. Brackbill Y. Continuous stimulation and arousal level in infancy: effects of

- stimulus intensity and stress. Child Dev 1975; 46: 364-9.
- 1012. Emde RN, Harmon RJ, Metcalf D, Koenig KL, Wagonfeld S. Stress and neonatal sleep. Psychosom Med 1971; 33: 491-7.
- 1013. Anders TF, Chalemian RJ. The effects of circumcision on sleep-wake states in human neonates. Psychosom Med 1974; 36: 174-9.
- 1014. Gunnar MR, Malone S, Vance G, Fisch RO. Coping with aversive stimulation in the neonatal period: quiet sleep and plasma cortisol levels during recovery from circumcision. Child Dev 1985; 56: 824-34.
- 1015. Stern E, Parmelee AH, Akiyama Y, Schultz MA, Wenner WH. Sleep cycle characteristics in infants. Pediatrics 1969; 43: 65-70.
- 1016. Spitz RA, Emde RN, Metcalf DR. Further prototypes on ego formation: a working paper from a research project on early development. Psychanal Stud Child 1970; 25: 417-41.
- 1017. Anders T. Roffwarg H. The effects of selective interruption and total sleep deprivation in the human newborn. Development Psychobiol 1973; 6: 79-89.
- 1018. Gunnar MR, Fisch RO, Malone S. The effects of a pacifying stimulus on behavioral and adrenocortical responses to circumcision in the newborn. J Am Acad Child Psychiatry 1984; 23: 34-8.
- 1019. Gunnar MR, Fisch RO, Korsvik S, Donhowe JM. The effects of circumcision on serum cortisol and behavior. Psychoneuroendocrinology 1981; 6: 269-75.
- 1020. Marshall RE, Porter FL, Rogers AG, Moore J, Anderson B, Boxerman SB. Circumcision: II. Effects upon mother-infant interaction. Early Hum Dev 1982; 7: 367-74.
- 1021. Dixon S. Snyder J. Holve R. Bromberger P. Behavioral effects of circumcision with and without anesthesia. J Dev Behav Peds 1984; 5: 246-250.
- 1022. Howard CR, Howard FM, Weitzman ML. Acetaminophen analgesia in neonatal circumcision: the effect on pain. Pediatrics 1994; 93: 641-6.
- 1023. Lee N. Circumcision and breastfeeding. J Hum Lact 2000; 16(4): 295.
- 1024. The dangers of circumcision as performed among Jews of the poorer class. Lancet 1905; 1: 1593.
- 1025. The dangers of circumcision among poor Jews. Lancet 1905; 2: 1796-7.
- 1026. Zoossmann-Diskin A. Circumcision. BJU Int 1999; 84: 748.
- 1027. Sullivan P. Infant's death another nail in circumcision's coffin, group says. Can Med Assoc J 2002: 167: 789.
- 1028. Willson. Cesarean section for threatened eclampsia and death of the child following circumcision. Am J Obstet 1913: 68: 351-5.
- 1029. Eke N. Major surgical complications from minor urological procedures. J Natl Med Assoc 2000; 92: 196-9.
- 1030. Sauer LW. Fatal staphylococcus bronchopneumonia following ritual circumcision. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1943; 46: 583.
- 1031. Preputial tuberculosis from circumcision. Clin J 1930; 59: 394; Holt LE.
- 1032. Tuberculosis acquired through circumcision. Med Record 1913; 84: 776-7.
- 1033. Holt LE. Tuberculosis acquired through ritual circumcision. JAMA 1913; 61: 99-102.
- 1034. Mvubu N. Beating, death of initiates baffle heartbroken parents. The New Age (South Africa). July 5, 2012. <a href="http://www.thenewage.co.za/55317-1018-53-">http://www.thenewage.co.za/55317-1018-53-</a>

- Feature Beatings death of initiates baffle heartbroken parents
- 1035. Sandler B. Ritual's death toll is a disgrace: iLIVE. Times Live (South Africa). July 4, 2012. <a href="http://www.timeslive.co.za/ilive/2012/07/04/ritual-s-death-toll-is-a-disgrace-ilive">http://www.timeslive.co.za/ilive/2012/07/04/ritual-s-death-toll-is-a-disgrace-ilive</a>
- 1036. Herskovitz J, Fletcher P. Over 20 South African boys die in circumcision rituals: police. Reuters. May 16, 2013. <a href="http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/05/16/us-safrica-circumcision-idUSBRE94F0U320130516.">http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/05/16/us-safrica-circumcision-idUSBRE94F0U320130516.</a>]
- 1037. Laing A. 33 men 'die in South African circumcision ceremonies'. The Telegraph. May 22, 2013.
  - http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/africaandindianocean/southafrica/10073 918/33-men-die-in-South-African-circumcision-ceremonies.html.]
- 1038. Wild F. S. Africa's ANC criticizes circumcision investigation. Bloomberg. May 22, 2013. <a href="http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2013-05-22/s-africa-s-anc-criticizes-circumcision-investigation.html">http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2013-05-22/s-africa-s-anc-criticizes-circumcision-investigation.html</a>.
- 1039. When circumcision can mean death in South Africa. BBC. July 20, 2013. <a href="http://africanspotlight.com/2013/07/20/when-circumcision-can-mean-death-insouth-africa/]">http://africanspotlight.com/2013/07/20/when-circumcision-can-mean-death-insouth-africa/]</a>
- 1040. Masilela S. More than 15 die at initiation school. The New Age (South Africa). May 12, 2013. Text and link at <a href="http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2013/05/south-africa-more-than-15-die-from.html">http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2013/05/south-africa-more-than-15-die-from.html</a>
- 1041. Local leaders blames negligence in S. Africa circumcision deaths. AFP. May 21, 2013. Text at: <a href="http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2013/05/south-africa-27-die-from-circumcision.html">http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2013/05/south-africa-27-die-from-circumcision.html</a>.
- 1042. AAP. Ritual circumcision kills 23 in S Africa. Herald Sun. May 17, 2013. <a href="http://www.heraldsun.com.au/news/breaking-news/ritual-circumcision-kills-23-in-s-africa/story-fni0xqll-1226645635104">http://www.heraldsun.com.au/news/breaking-news/ritual-circumcision-kills-23-in-s-africa/story-fni0xqll-1226645635104</a>.
- 1043. Velaphi S. Ban traditional circumcision. The New Age (South Africa). January 29, 2014. http://www.thenewage.co.za/117453-1008-53-Ban\_traditional\_circumcision 82 boys died in 2013 in East Cape South Africa.
- 1044. Hospital running out of beds as botched circumcision patient's rise. SABC (South Africa). July 1, 2013. <a href="http://www.sabc.co.za/news/a/989f97804031ca0d9019bace3e3f709b/Hospital-running-out-of-beds-as-botched-circumcision-patients-rise-20130107">http://www.sabc.co.za/news/a/989f97804031ca0d9019bace3e3f709b/Hospital-running-out-of-beds-as-botched-circumcision-patients-rise-20130107</a>. Hospitalized for botched circumcision at 227 with 25 deaths.]
- 1045. Eastern Cape officials to meet onGray RH, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Kigozi G. The role of male circumcision in the prevention of human papillomavirus and HIV infection. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 1-3. circumcision deaths. TimesLive (South Africa). December 21, 2012. <a href="http://www.timeslive.co.za/local/2012/12/21/eastern-cape-officials-to-meet-on-circumcision-deaths">http://www.timeslive.co.za/local/2012/12/21/eastern-cape-officials-to-meet-on-circumcision-deaths</a>.
- 1046. Botha M, Nyembe N. 42 boys perish but silence. the Sowetan. July 27, 2012. http://www.sowetanlive.co.za/columnists/2012/07/27/42-boys-perish---but-silence.]
- 1047. SAPA. MEC concerned by circumcision deaths. IOL (South Africa) July 3, 2012. http://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/eastern-cape/mec-concerned-by-circumcision-deaths-1.1333544#.U6mJ3haWuud.
- 1048. Burger R, Guthrie TH. Why circumcision? Pediatrics 1974; 54: 362-4.
- 1049. Cunniff C, Carmack JL, Kirby RS, Fiser DH. Contribution of heritable disorders to

- mortality in the pediatric intensive care unit. Pediatrics 1995; 95: 678-81.
- 1050. Kurnetz R, Cacciarelli A, Egerer R, Yang SS. Neonatal infection. J Pediatr 1981; 99: 822.
- 1051. Slotkowski EL. Contraindications to neonatal circumcision. J Pediatr 1982; 100: 837.
- 1052. Kurnetz R. Contraindications to neonatal circumcision [reply]. J Pediatr 1982; 100: 837.
- 1053. Gairdner D. Circumcision. Lancet 1953; 265: 456.
- 1054. Gellis SS. Circumcision. Am J Dis Child 1978; 132: 1168-9.
- 1055. Baker RL. Newborn male circumcision: needless and dangerous. Sexual Med Today 1979; 3(11): 35-6.
- 1056. Bollinger D. Lost boys: an estimate of U.S. circumcision-related infant deaths. THYMOS J Boyhood Studies 2010; 4(1): 78-90.
- 1057. Korkes F, Lucio Silva J, Lima Pompeo AC. Circumcision for medical reasons in the Brazilian public health system: epidemiology and trends. Einstein 2012; 10: 342-6.
- 1058(CDC241). American Academy of Pediatrics Task Force on Circumcision. Circumcision policy statement. Pediatrics 1999; 103: 686-93.
- 1059. American Academy of Pediatrics: Report of the Task Force on Circumcision. Pediatrics 1989; 84: 388-91.
- 1060(163). Banieghbal B. Optimal time for neonatal circumcision: An observation-based study. J Pediatr Urol 2009; 5: 359-62.
- 1061. Anand KJS, Hickey PR. Pain and its effects in the human neonate and fetus. N Engl J Med 1987; 317: 1321-9.
- 1062. Fitzgerald M. The birth of pain. MRC News 1998; (Summer): 20-3.
- 1063. Fitzgerald M, McIntosh N. Pain and analgesia in the newborn. Arch Dis Child 1989: 64: 441-3.
- 1064. Fitzgerald M, Koltzenburg M. The functional development of descending inhibitory pathways in the dorsolateral funiculus of the newborn rat spinal cord. Brain Res 1986 24:261-70.
- 1065. Lawrence J Alcock D, McGrath P, Kay J, MacMurray SB, Dulberg C. The development of a tool to assess neonatal pain. Neonatal Netw1993; 12 (6): 59-66.
- 1066. Stang HJ, Snellman LW, Condon LM, Conroy MM, Liebo R, Brodersen L, Gunnar MR. Beyond dorsal penile nerve block: a more humane circumcision. Pediatrics 1997; 100(2): e3.
- 1067. Pacifiers, passive behavior, and pain. Lancet 1992; 339: 275-6.
- 1068. Johnston CC, Stevens BJ. Experience in a neonatal intensive care unit affects pain response. Pediatrics 1996; 98: 925-30.
- 1069. Slater R, Cornelissen L, Fabrizi L, Patten D, Yoxen J, Worley A, Boyd S, Meek J, Fitzgerald M. Oral sucrose as an analgesic drug for procedural pain in newborn infants: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet 2010; 376: 1225-32.
- 1070. Tortora F, Anagnostakos NP. Priniciples of Anatomy and Physiology. New York, NY: Harper & Row; 1981.
- 1071. Derbyshire SWG. Locating the beginnings of pain. Bioethics 1999; 13: 1-31.
- 1072. Derbyshire SWG. Fetal pain: an infantile debate. Bioethics 2001; 15: 77-84.
- 1073. Benatar D, Benatar M. A pain in the fetus: toward ending confusion about fetal

- pain. Bioethics 2001 15: 57-76.
- 1074. Anand KJS, Carr DB. The neuroanatomy, neurophysiology, and neurochemistry of pain, stress and analgesia in newborns and children. Pediatr Clin N Am 1989; 36: 795-822
- 1075. Porter FL, Wolf CM, Miller JP. Procedural pain in newborn infants: the influence of intensity and development. Pediatrics 1999; 104: e13.
- 1076. Cold CJ. Neonatal circumcision. Lancet 1997; 349: 1257-8.
- 1077. United States law. U.S. law, 7 United States Code 54 Sec 2131. Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, publication (NIH) 8523.
- 1078. US Department of Health and Human Services, 1985. Public Health Service Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare, Amended August 2002.
  - http://grants1.nih.gov/grants/olaw/references/phspot.htm. Accessed 9/3/03.
- 1079. Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, Institute of Laboratory Animal Resources, Commission of Life Sciences, National Research Council, National Academy Press: Washington DC, 1996.
  - http://oacu.od.nih.gov/regs/guide/guidex.htm#guitoc. Accessed 9/3/03.
- 1080. Van Howe RS, Svoboda JS. Neonatal pain relief and the Helsinki Declaration. J Law Med Ethics 2008; 36: 803-23.
- 1081. Gunnar MR, Porter FL, Wolf CM, Rigatuso J, Larson MC. Neonatal stress reactivity: predictions to later emotional temperament. Child Dev 1995; 66: 1-13.
- 1082. Porter FL, Miller RH, Marshall RE. Neonatal pain cries: effect of circumcision on acoustic features and perceived urgency. Child Dev 1986; 57: 790-802.
- 1083. Porter FL, Porges SW, Marshall RE. Newborn pain cries and vagal tone: parallel changes in response to circumcision. Child Dev 1988; 59: 495-505.
- 1084. Pokela ML. Pain relief can reduce hypoxemia in distressed neonates during routine treatment procedures. Pediatrics 1994; 93: 379-83.
- 1085. Anders TF, Sachar EJ, Kream J, Roffwarg HP, Hellman L. Behavioral state and plasma cortisol response in the human newborn. Pediatrics 1970; 46: 532-7.
- 1086. McBurnett K, Lahey BB, Rathouz PJ, Loeber R. Low salivary cortisol and persistent aggression in boys referred for disruptive behavior. Arch Gen Psychiatry 2000; 57: 38-43.
- 1087. Levine S. The ontogeny of the HPA axis: the influence of maternal factors. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1994; 746: 275-88.
- 1088. Meany MJ, Aitken DH, Bodnoff SR, Ing CJ, Tatarewicz JE, Sapolsky RM. Early postnatal handling alters glucocorticoid postnatal handling in selected brain regions. Behav Neurosci 1985; 99: 765-70.
- 1089. Gunnar MR, Connors J, Isensee J, Wall L. Adrenocortical activity and behavioral distress in human newborns. Dev Psychobiol 1988; 21: 297-310.
- 1090. Finley GA, McGrath PJ, Forward SP, McNeill G, Fitzgerald P. Parents' management of children's pain following 'minor' surgery. Pain 1996; 64: 83-7.
- 1091. Porter FL, Wolf CM, Gold J, Lotsoff D, Miller JP. Pain and pain management in newborn infants: a survey of physicians and nurses. Pediatrics 1997; 100: 626-32.
- 1092. Rawlings DJ, Miller PA, Engel RR. The effect of circumcision on transcutaneous PO2 in term infants. Am J Dis Child 1980; 134: 676-8.
- 1093. Benini F, Johnston CC, Faucher D, Aranda JV. Topical anesthesia during

- circumcision in newborn infants. JAMA 1993; 270: 850-3.
- 1094. Herschel M, Khoshnood B, Ellman C, Maydew N, Mittendorf R. Neonatal circumcision: randomized trial of sucrose pacifier for pain control. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1998; 152: 279-84.
- 1095. Mohan CG, Risucci DA, Casimir M, Gulrajani-LaCorte M. Comparison of analgesics in ameliorating the pain of circumcision. J Perinatol 1998; 18: 13-9.
- 1096. Williamson ML. Circumcision anesthesia: a study of nursing implications for dorsal penile nerve block. Pediatr Nurs 1997; 23: 59-63.
- 1097. Williamson PS, Williamson ML. Physiologic stress reduction by a local anesthetic during newborn circumcision. Pediatrics 1983; 71: 36-40.
- 1098. Arnett RM, Jones JS, Horger EO 3d. Effectiveness of 1% lidocaine dorsal penile nerve block in infant circumcision. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1990; 163: 1074-80.
- 1099. Masciello AL. Anesthesia for neonatal circumcision: local anesthesia is better than dorsal penile nerve block. Obstet Gynecol 1990; 75: 834-8.
- 1100. Talbert LM, Kraybill EN, Potter HD. Adrenal cortical response to circumcision in the neonate. Obstet Gynecol 1976; 48:208-10.
- 1101. Paix BR, Peterson SE. Circumcision of neonates and children without appropriate anaesthesia is unacceptable practice. Anaesth Intensive Care 2012; 40: 511-6.
- 1102. Gray L, Watt L, Blass EM. Skin-to-skin contact is analgesic in healthy newborns. Pediatrics 2000; 105: e14.
- 1103. Marchette L, Main R, Redick E. Pain reduction during neonatal circumcision. Pediatr Nurs 1989; 15: 207-8, 210.
- 1104. Marchette L, Main R, Redick E, Bagg A, Leatherland J. Pain reduction interventions during neonatal circumcision. Nurs Res 1991; 40: 241-4.
- 1105 Maxwell LG, Yaster M, Wetzel RC, Niebyl JR. Penile nerve block for newborn circumcision. Obstet Gynecol 1987; 70: 415-9.
- 1106. Holve RL, Bromberger PJ, Groveman HD, Klauber MR, Dixon SD, Snyder JM. Regional anesthesia during newborn circumcision. Effect on infant pain response. Clin Pediatr Phila 1983; 22: 813-8.
- 1107. Spencer DM, Miller KA, O'Quin M, Tomsovic JP, Anderson B, Wong D, Williams WE. Dorsal penile nerve block in neonatal circumcision: chloroprocaine versus lidocaine. Am J Perinatol 1992; 9: 214-8.
- 1108. Holton ME. Comparison of newborn circumcision pain to calcaneal heel puncture pain: is newborn circumcision pain control clinically warranted? JAOA 1996; 96: 31-3.
- 1109. Williamson PS, Evans ND. Neonatal cortisol response to circumcision with anesthesia. Clin Pediatr Phila 1986; 25: 412-5.
- 1110. Stang HJ, Gunnar MR, Snellman L, Condon LM, Kestenbaum R. Local anesthesia for neonatal circumcision. Effects on distress and cortisol response. JAMA 1988; 259: 1507-11.
- 1111. Mudge D, Younger JB. The effects of topical lidocaine on infant response to circumcision. J Nurse Midwifery 1989; 34: 335-40.
- 1112. Taddio A, Stevens B, Craig K, Rastogi P, Ben-David S, Shennan A, Mulligan P, Koren G. Efficacy and safety of lidocaine-prilocaine cream for pain during circumcision. N Engl J Med 1997; 336: 1197-201.
- 1113. Butler-O'Hara M, LeMoine C, Guillet. Analgesia for neonatal circumcision: a

- randomized controlled trial of EMLA cream versus dorsal penile nerve block. Pediatrics 1998; 101(4). URL.: http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/content/full/101/4/e5.
- 1114. Hardwick-Smith S, Mastrobattista JM, Wallace PA, Ritchey ML. Ring block for neonatal circumcision. Obstetr Gynecol 1998; 91: 930-4.
- 1115. Lenhart JG, Lenhart NM, Reid A, Chong BK. Local anesthesia for circumcision: which technique is most effective. J Am Board Fam Pract 1997: 10: 13-9.
- 1116. Fontaine P, Dittberner D, Scheltema KE. The safety of dorsal penile nerve block for neonatal circumcision. J Fam Pract 1994; 39: 243-8.
- 1117. Snellman LW, Stang HJ. Prospective evaluation of complications of dorsal penile nerve block for neonatal circumcision. Pediatrics 1995; 95: 705-8.
- 1118. Taddio A. Pain management for neonatal circumcision. Paediatr Drugs 2001; 3: 101-11.
- 1119. Sara CA, Lowry CJ. A complication of circumcision and dorsal nerve block of the penis. Anaesth Intensive Care 1985; 13: 79-82.
- 1120. Mandel S. Methemoglobinemia following neonatal circumcision. JAMA 1989; 261: 702.
- 1121. Arda IS, Ozbek N, Akpek E, Ersoy E. Toxic neonatal methaemoglobinaemia after prilocaine administration for circumcision. BJU Int 2000; 85: 1154.
- 1122. Tse S, Barrington K, Byrne P. Methemoglobinemia associated with prilocaine use in neonatal circumcision. Am J Perinatology 1995; 12: 331-2.
- 1123. Özbek N, Sarikayalar F. Toxic methaemoglobinemia after circumcision. Eur J Pediatr 1993; 152: 80.
- 1124. Prineas S, Wilkins BH, Halliday RJ. Circumcision blues. Med J Aust 1997; 166: 615.
- 1125. Ford GR, Agnew TM. Methaemoglobinaemia following prilocaine local anaesthesia. N Z Med J 1972; 76: 104-5.
- 1126. Kumar AR, Dunn N, Naqvi M. Methemoglobinemia associated with a prilocaine-lidocaine cream. Clin Pediatr Phila 1997; 36: 239-40.
- 1127. Jakobson B, Nilsson A. Methemoglobinemia associated with prilocaine-lidocaine cream and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole: a case report. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand 1985; 29: 453-5.
- 1128. Boran P, Tokuc G, Yegin Z. Methemoglobinemia due to application of prilocaine during circumcision and the effect of ascorbic acid. 2008; 4: 475-6.
- 1129. Ozdogan H, Osma S, Aydin GB, Dinc A, Ozgun G. Methemoglobinemia presenting in a circumcised baby following application of prilocaine: a case report. J Med Case Reports 2010; 4(1): 49.
- 1130. Akbayram S, Akgün C, Doğan M, Gündogdu M, Caksen H, Faik Öner A. Acquired methemoglobinemia due to application of prilocaine during circumcision. J Emerg Med 2012; 43: 120-1.
- 1131. Couper R. Methaemoglobinaemia secondary to topical lignocaine/ prilocaine in a circumcised neonate. J Paediatr Child Health 2000; 36: 406-7.
- 1132. Elsner P, Dummer R. Signs of methaemoglobinaemia after topical application of EMLA cream in an infant with haemangioma. Dermatology 1997; 195: 153-4.
- 1133. Cade EM, Shollenberger D. Index of suspicion. Pediatr Rev 2003; 24: 23-31.
- 1134. Bramwell RG, Bullen C, Radford P. Caudal block for postoperative analgesia in children. Anaesthesia 1982; 37: 1024-8.

- 1135. Jones RD, Gunawardene WM, Yeung CK. A comparison of lignocaine 2% with adrenaline 1:200,000 and lignocaine 2% with adrenaline 1:200,000 plus fentanyl as agents for caudal anaesthesia in children undergoing circumcision. Anaesth Intensive Care 1990; 18: 194-9.
- 1136. Lunn JN. Postoperative analgesia after circumcision. A randomized comparison between caudal analgesia and intramuscular morphine in boys. Anaesthesia 1979; 34: 552-4.
- 1137. Grosse G. Kaudalanaesthesie kombiniert mit Allgemeinanaesthesie im Vergleich zur Allgemeinanaesthesie bei ambulanten Zirkumzisionen. [Caudal anesthesia combined with general anesthesia in comparison with general anesthesia in ambulatory circumcision] Anaesthesist. 1988; 37: 636-41.
- 1138. Holthusen H, Eichwede F, Stevens M, Willnow U, Lipfert P. Pre-emptive analgesia: comparison of preoperative with postoperative caudal block on postoperative pain in children. Br J Anaesth 1994; 73: 440-2.
- 1139. Concha M, Gonzalez A, Gonzalez J, Vergara R. [Postoperative analgesia for ambulatory surgery in children: a comparison of 2 techniques]. Cah Anesthesiol 1994; 42: 339-42.
- 1140. Gadiyar V, Gallagher TM, Crean PM, Taylor RH. The effect of a combination of rectal diclofenac and caudal bupivacaine on postoperative analgesia in children. Anaesthesia 1995; 50: 820-2.
- 1141. Haliloglu AH, Gokce MI, Tangal S, Boga MS, Tapar H, Aladag E. Comparison of postoperative analgesic efficacy of penile block, caudal block and intravenous paracetamol for circumcision: a prospective randomized study. Int Braz J Urol 2013; 39: 551-7.
- 1142. Giaufre E, Morisson-Lacombe G, Rousset-Rouviere B. [Caudal anesthesia in pediatric surgery]. Chir Pediatr 1983; 24(3): 165-9.
- 1143. Girotra S, Kumar S, Rajendran K. Postoperative analgesia in children who have genito-urinary surgery. A comparison between caudal buprenorphine and bupivacaine. Anaesthesia 1990; 45: 406-8.
- 1144. Jensen BH. Caudal block for post-operative pain relief in children after genital operations. A comparison between bupivacaine and morphine. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand 1981; 25: 373-5.
- 1145. Shyr MH, Wong TK, Chen FS, Chan HC, Tan PP. Low concentration of caudal bupivacaine for postoperative analgesia in elective pediatric surgery. Ma Tsui Hsueh Tsa Chi 1990; 28: 453-8.
- 1146. May AE, Wandless J, James RH. Analgesia for circumcision in children. A comparison of caudal bupivacaine and intramuscular buprenorphine. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand 1982; 26: 331-3.
- 1147. Gonzalez Miranda F, Rodriguez Hernandez JL, Ansuategui Sanchez M. Anestesia caudal para circuncision en ninos. [Caudal anesthesia for circumcision of boys] Actas Urol Esp. 1979; 3: 173-4.
- 1148. Zech D. Bemerkungen zur Arbeit von G. Grosse. Kaudalanaesthesie kombiniert mit Allgemeinanaesthesie im Vergleich zur Allgemeinanaesthesie bei ambulanten Zirkumzisionen. [Comments on the paper by G. Grosse. Caudal anesthesia combined with general anesthesia in comparison with general anesthesia in outpatient circumcision (letter)] Anaesthesist 1989; 38: 700-1.

- 1149. Yeoman PM, Cooke R, Hain WR. Penile block for circumcision? A comparison with caudal blockade. Anaesthesia 1983; 38: 862-6.
- 1150. White J, Harrison B, Richmond P, Procter A, Curran J. Postoperative analgesia for circumcision. Br Med J Clin Res Ed 1983; 286: 1934.
- 1151.Committee on Fetus and Newborn, Committee on Drugs, Section on Anesthesiology, Section on Surgery, Fetus and Newborn Committee. Prevention and management of pain and stress in the neonate. Pediatrics 2000; 105: 454-61.
- 1152. Leditschke JF. Australasian Association of Paediatric Surgeons. Guidelines for Circumcision. Hersion, Queensland, Australia; April 1996.
- 1153. Øster J. Praeputium hos danske skoledrenge. Hyppigheden af agglutinatio praeputii, phimosis og smegma. [The prepuce in danish schoolboys. Incidence of preputial adhesion, phimosis, and smegma] Nord Med 1968; 80: 1318-22.
- 1154(CDC165). Young MR, Bailey RC, Odoyo-June E, Irwin TE, Obiero W, Ongong'a DO, Badia JA, Agot K, Nordstrom SK.Safety of over twelve hundred infant male circumcisions using the Mogen clamp in Kenya. PLoS One. 2012; 7(10): e47395.
- 1155. Morris BJ, Wiswell TE. Circumcision and lifetime risk or urinary tract infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Urol 2013; 189: 2118-24.
- 1156. Morris BJ, Waskett JH, Banerjee J, Wamai RG, Tobian AAR, Gray RH, Bailis SA, Bailey RC, Klausner D, Wilcourt RJ, Halperin DT, Wiswell TE Mindel A. A 'Snip' in time: what is the best age to circumcise? BMC Pediatr 2012; 12: 20 doi:10.1186/1471-2431-12-20.
- 1157. Morris BJ, Gray RH, Castellsague X, Bosch FX, Halperin DT, Waskett JH, Hankins CA. The strong protective effect of circumcision against cancer of the penis. Adv Urol 2011; 2011: 812368.
- 1158. Morris BJ, Waskett JH. Circumcision reduces prostate cancer risk. Asian J Androl 2012; 14: 661-2.
- 1159. Morris B. Why circumcision is a biomedical imperative for the 21(st) century. Bioessays 2007; 29: 1147-58.
- 1160. Earp BD, Darby R. Does science support infant circumcision? a skeptical reply to Brian Morris. Skeptic 2014; epub ahead of print.
- 1161. Giannetti MR. Circumcision and the American Academy of Pediatrics: should scientific misconduct result in trade association liability. Iowa L Rev 2000; 85: 1507-68.
- 1162(CDC171). Fink KS, Carson CC, DeVellis RF. Adult circumcision outcomes study: effect on erectile function, penile sensitivity, sexual activity and satisfaction. J Urol 2002: 167: 2113-6.
- 1163(CDC172). Collins S, Upshaw J, Rutchik S, Ohannessian C, Ortenberg J, Albertsen P. Effects of circumcision on male sexual function: debunking a myth? J Urol 2002; 167: 2111-2.
- 1164. Coursey JW, Morey AF, McAninch JW, Summerton DJ, Secrest C, White P, Miller K, Pieczonka C, Hochberg D, Armenakas N. Erectile function after anterior urethroplasty. J Urol 2001; 166: 2273-6.
- 1165. Dias J, Freitas R, Amorim R, Espiridião P, Xambre L, Ferraz L. Adult circumcision and male sexual health: a retrospective analysis. Andrologia 2014; 46: 459-64.
- 1166(CDC175). Senkul T, Iserl C, sen B, Karademlr K, Saracoglu F, Erden D. Circumcision in adults: effect on sexual function. Urology 2004; 63: 155-8.

- 1167(CDC176). Masood S, Patel HRH, Himpson RC, Palmer JH, Mufti GR, Sheriff MKM. Penile sensitivity and sexual satisfaction after circumcision: are we informing men correctly? Urol Int 2005; 75: 62-6.
- 1168(CDC173). Krieger JN, Mehta SD, Bailey RC, Agot K, Ndinya-Achola JO, Parker C, Moses S. Adult male circumcision: effects on sexual function and sexual satisfaction in Kisumu, Kenya. J Sex Med 2008; 5: 2610–22.
- 1169(CDC174). Kigozi G, Watya S, Polis CB, Buwenbo D, Kiggundu V, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Nalugoda F, Kiwanuka N, Bacon MC, Ssempijja V, Makumbi F, Gray RH. The effect of male circumcision on sexual satisfaction and function, results from a randomized trial of male circumcision for human immunodeficiency virus prevention, Rakai, Uganda. BJU Int 2008; 101: 65-70.
- 1170. Cook TD, Campbell DT. Quasi-experimentation: design & analysis issues for field studies. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company; 1979: 52.
- 1171. Frisch M. Author's Response to: Does sexual function survey in Denmark offer any support for male circumcision having an adverse effect? Int J Epidemiol 2011; 41: 312-4.
- 1172. Frisch M, Lindholm M, Grønbæk M. Male circumcision and sexual function in men and women: a survey-based, cross-sectional study in Denmark. Int J Epidemiol 2011; 40: 1367-81.
- 1173. Bronselaer GA, Schober JM, Meyer-Bahlburg HFL, T'Sjoen G, Vlietinck R, Hoebeke PB. Male circumcision decreases penile sensitivity as measured in a large cohort. BJU Int 2013; 111: 820-7.
- 1174. Alp BF, Uguz S, Malkoc E, Ates F, Dursun F, Okcelik S, Kocoglu H, Karademir AK. Does circumcision have a relationship with ejaculation time? Premature ejaculation evaluated using new diagnostic tools. Int J Impot Res 2014; 26(4): 121-3.
- 1175. Son H, Song SH, Kim SW, Paick JS. Self-reported premature ejaculation prevalence and characteristics in Korean young males: community-based data from an internet survey. J Androl 2010; 31: 540-6.
- 1176. Shaeer O. The Global Online Sexuality Survey (GOSS): the United States of America in 2011 Chapter III Premature ejaculation among English-speaking male internet users. J Sex Med 2013; 10: 1882-8.
- 1177. Tang WS, Khoo EM. Prevalence and correlates of premature ejaculation in a primary care setting: a preliminary cross-sectional study. J Sex Med 2011; 8: 2071-8.
- 1178. Ferris JA, Richters J, Pitts MK, Shelley JM, Simpson JM, Ryall R, Smith AMA. Circumcision in Australia: further evidence on its effect on sexual health and wellbeing. Austr NZ J Public Health 2010; 34: 160-4;
- 1179. Richters J, Smith AMA, de Visser RO, Grulich AE, Rissel CE. Circumcision in Australia: prevalence and effects on sexual health. Int J STD AIDS 2006; 17: 547-54.
- 1180. Bossio JA, Pukall CF, Steele S. A review of the current state of the male circumcision literature. J Sex Med 2014; epub ahead of print.
- 1181(CDC3). Schoen EJ. Circumcision: timely information for parents and professionals from America's #1 expert on circumcision. Oakland, California: RDR Books; 2005.
- 1182. Gollaher DL. From ritual to science: the medical transformation of circumcision in America. J Social History 1994; 28(1): 5-36.

- 1183. Gollaher DL. Circumcision: A History of the World's Most Controversial Surgery. New York: Basic Books; 2000.
- 1184. Hodges F. A short history of the institutionalization of involuntary sexual mutilation in the United States. In Denniston GC, Milos MF, editors. Sexual mutilations a human tragedy. New York: Plenum Press; 1997: 17-40.
- 1185. Darby R. A surgical temptation: the demonization of the foreskin and the rise of circumcision in Britain. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press; 2005.
- 1186. Wall RL Jr. Routine circumcision? Recent trends and concepts. N C Med J 1968; 29: 103-7.
- 1187. Diseker RA III, Lin LS, Kamb ML, Peterman TA, Kent C, Zenilman J, Lentz A, Douglas JM Jr, Rhodes F, Malotte KC, latesta M. Fleeting foreskins: the misclassification of male circumcision status. Sex Transm Dis 2001; 28: 330-5.
- 1188. Lajous M, Mueller N, Cruz-Valdez A, Aguilar LV, Franceschi S, Hernandez-Avila M, Lazcano-Ponce E. Determinants of prevalence, acquisition, and persistence of human papillomavirus in healthy Mexican military men. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2005; 14: 1710-6.
- 1189. Lilienfeld AM, Graham S. Validity of determining circumcision status by questionnaire as related to epidemiological studies of cancer of the cervix. J Natl Cancer Inst 1958; 27: 713-20.
- 1190. Stern E, Lachenbruch PA. Circumcision information in a cancer detection center population. J Chronic Dis 1968; 21: 117-24.
- 1191. Dunn JE Jr, Buell P. Association of cervical cancer with circumcision of sexual partner. J Natl Cancer Inst 1959; 22: 749-64.
- 1192. Wynder EL, Licklider SD. The question of circumcision. Cancer 1960; 13: 442-5.
- 1193(CDC185). Nelson CP, Dunn R, Wan J, Wei JT. The increasing incidence of newborn circumcision: data from the nationwide inpatient sample. J Urol 2005; 173: 978-81.
- 1194(CDC189). Begley EB, Jafa K, Voetsch AC, Heffelfinger JD, Borkowf CB, Sullivan PS. Willingness of men who have sex with men (MSM) in the United States to be circumcised as adults to reduce the risk HIV infection. PLoS One 2008; 3(7): e2731.
- 1195(CDC190). Gust DA, Kretsinger K, Pals SL, Gaul ZJ, Hefflefinger JD, Begley EB, Chen RT, Kilmarx PH. Male circumcision as an HIV prevention intervention in the U.S.: Influence of health care providers and potential for risk compensation. Prev Med 2011; 52(3-4): 270-3.
- 1196. Potts M. Male circumcision and HIV infection. Lancet 2000; 355: 926-7.
- 1197. Potts M, Prata N, Walsh J, Grossman A. Parachute approach to evidence based medicine. Br Med J 2006; 333: 701-3.
- 1198. Moses S, Plummer FA, Bradley JE, Ndinya Achola JO, Nagelkerke NJ, Ronald AR. The association between lack of male circumcision and risk for HIV infection: a review of the epidemiological data. Sex Transm Dis 1994; 21: 201-10.
- 1199. Clark S. Male circumcision could help protect against HIV infection. Lancet 2000; 356: 225.
- 1200. Bailey RC, Muga R, Ondiege M, Poulussen R. Acceptability of male circumcision as a strategy to reduce STD/HIV infections among the Luo in western Kenya. In: Abstract Guide Thirteenth Meeting of the International Society for Sexually Transmitted Diseases Research; July 11-14, 1999; Denver, Colorado. Abstract 503.

- 1201(CDC193). Bailey RC, Muga R, Poulussen R, Abicht H. The acceptability of male circumcision to reduce HIV infections in Nyanza Province, Kenya. AIDS Care 2002; 14(1): 27-40.
- 1202. Lagarde E, Dirk T, Puren A, Reathe RT, Bertran A. Acceptability of male circumcision as a tool for preventing HIV infection in a highly infected community in South Africa. AIDS 2003; 17: 89-95.
- 1203(CDC194). Kebaabetswe P, Lockman S, Mogwe S, Mandevu R, Thior I, Essex M, Shapiro RL. Male circumcision: an acceptable strategy for HIV prevention in Botswana. Sex Transm Infect 2003; 79: 214-9.
- 1204(CDC199). Rain-Taljaard RC, Lagarde E, Taljaard DJ, Campbell C, MacPhail C, Williams B, Auvert B. Potential for an intervention based on male circumcision in a South African town with high levels of HIV infection. AIDS Care 2003; 15: 315-27.
- 1205(CDC196). Mattson CL, Bailey RC, Muga R, Poulussen R, Onyango T. Acceptability of male circumcision and predictors of circumcision preference among men and women in Nyanza Province, Kenya. AIDS Care 2005; 17: 182-94.
- 1206(CDC195). 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; 32: 238-9.
- 1207. Scott BE, Weiss HA, Viljoen JI. The acceptability of male circumcision as an HIV intervention among a rural Zulu population, Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. AIDS Care 2005; 17: 304-13.
- 1208. Lie RK, Miller FG. What counts as reliable evidence for public health policy: the case of circumcision for preventing HIV infection. BMC Med Res Methodol 2011, 11:34.
- 1209. Richters J, Gerofi J, Donovan B. Why do condoms break or slip off in use? An exploratory study. Int J STD AIDS, 1995, 6: 11-8.
- 1210. Layer EH, Beckham SW, Momburi RB, Kennedy CE. Understanding the partial protection of male circumcision for HIV prevention among women in Iringa Region, Tanzania: an ethnomedical model. AIDS Care 2013; 25: 1045-50.
- 1211(CDC240). Maughan-Brown B, Venkataramani AS. Learning that circumcision is protective against HIV: risk compensation among men and women in Cape Town, South Africa. PLoS One 2012; 7(7): e40753.
- 1212. Okeyo T, Westercamp N, Bailey RC, et al. What women think about male circumcision: perceptions of the female partners of recently circumcised men in Nyanza Province, Kenya [TUAC0401]. Paper presented at: XIX International AIDS Conference; July 24, 2012; Washington DC.
- 1213. Maughan-Brown B, Venkataramani AS. Incorrect beliefs about male circumcision and male-to-female HIV transmission risk in South Africa: implications for prevention. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2013; 62: e121-3.
- 1214. Thirumurthy H, Masters SH, Rao S, Bronson MA, Lanham M, Omanga E, Evens E, Ago K. Effect of providing conditional economic compensation on uptake of volunatary medical male circumcision in Kenya: a randomized trial. JAMA 2014; 312: 703-11.
- 1215. The World Bank. <a href="http://data.worldbank.org/country/kenya">http://data.worldbank.org/country/kenya</a> (Accessed December 20, 2104).
- 1216. The World Bank. http://data.worldbank.org/country/united-states (Accessed

- December 20, 2014).
- 1217. Nga'asike L. Residents earn Sh100 for getting circumcised. Standard Media. August 29, 2011.
  - http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2000041756/residents-earn-sh100-for-getting-circumcised.]
- 1218. Forceable circumcisions Olukya G. Storm brews over forced circumcision in Uganda. The African Report. June 21, 2012. Text available at: <a href="http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2012/06/uganda-220-men-forcibly-circumcised.html">http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2012/06/uganda-220-men-forcibly-circumcised.html</a>]
- 1219. Watala P. Forceful circumcision in Mbale: police fire teargas. New Vision (Uganda). June 20, 2012. <a href="http://www.newvision.co.ug/news/632168-forceful-circumcision-in-mbale-police-fire-teargas.html">http://www.newvision.co.ug/news/632168-forceful-circumcision-in-mbale-police-fire-teargas.html</a>]
- 1220. Ugandan circumcision campaign goes awry. VOA News. July 19, 2012. <a href="http://www.voanews.com/content/ugandas\_cultural\_battle\_over\_forced\_circumsions/1441320.html">http://www.voanews.com/content/ugandas\_cultural\_battle\_over\_forced\_circumsions/1441320.html</a>
- 1221. Forced circumcision campaign stopped. UG Pulse (Uganda). June 30, 2012. http://www.ugpulse.com/uganda-news/people/forced-circumcision-drive-stopped-in-mbale/26052.aspx]
- 1222. Okwii E. Mbale residents flee forceful circumcision. Uganda Picks. June 24, 2013. <a href="http://www.ugandapicks.com/2013/06/mbale-residents-flee-forceful-circumcision-16457.html">http://www.ugandapicks.com/2013/06/mbale-residents-flee-forceful-circumcision-16457.html</a>]
- 1223. Birungi S. Cultural circumcision pretty women used to find Bugishu uncircumcised men. Uganda Picks. May 1, 2012. <a href="http://www.ugandapicks.com/2012/05/cultural-circumcision-pretty-women-used-to-find-bugishu-uncircumcised-men-74005.html">http://www.ugandapicks.com/2012/05/cultural-circumcision-pretty-women-used-to-find-bugishu-uncircumcised-men-74005.html</a>; text at: <a href="http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2012/05/uganda-pretty-women-entrap-intact-men.html">http://circumstitionsnews.blogspot.jp/2012/05/uganda-pretty-women-entrap-intact-men.html</a>]
- 1224. Matlala M. Limpopo taxis to cultural initiation schools in Limpolo. The New Age (South Africa). June 18, 2013. <a href="http://www.thenewage.co.za/99000-1007-53-">http://www.thenewage.co.za/99000-1007-53-</a>
  <a href="https://www.thenewage.co.za/99000-1007-53-">Limpopo Taxis to cultural initiation schools in Limpopo</a>
- 1225. Palmer E. Zimbabwe forced circumcision and kidnap ordeal: tribesman jailed for six years. International Business Times. July 11, 2012. <a href="http://www.ibtimes.co.uk/zimbabwean-man-guilty-6-years-kidnap-circumcising-361955">http://www.ibtimes.co.uk/zimbabwean-man-guilty-6-years-kidnap-circumcising-361955</a>]
- 1226. Layoo R. Former inmates decry forced circumcision. Daily Monitor (Uganda). December 13, 2013. <a href="http://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Former-inmates-decry--forced-circumcision/-/688334/2110502/-/1wm3ydz/-/index.html">http://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Former-inmates-decry--forced-circumcision/-/688334/2110502/-/1wm3ydz/-/index.html</a>]
- 1227. Murithi K. Kenya: Tigania gang terrorises residents. allAfrica. May 16, 2012. http://allafrica.com/stories/201205170914.html]
- 1228. Ciesielski-Carlucci C, Milliken N, Cohen NH. Determinants of decision making for circumcision. Camb Q Healthc Ethics 1996; 5: 228-36.
- 1229. American Medical Association Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs. The Code of Medical Ethics: Current Opinions with Annotations. 1996-1997 Edition. Chicago, IL: American Medical Association; 1997.
- 1230. Svoboda JS, Van Howe RS, Dwyer JG. Informed consent for neonatal circumcision: an ethical and legal conundrum. J Contemp Health Law Policy 2000;

- 17: 61-133.
- 1231(CDC205). Brown MS, Brown CA. Circumcision decision: prominence of social concerns. Pediatrics 1987; 80: 215-9.
- 1232(CDC206). Adler R, Ottaway S, Gould S. Circumcision: we have heard from the experts; now let's hear from the parents. Pediatrics 2001; 107: e20.
- 1233(CDC207). Wang ML, Macklin EA, Tracy E, Nadel H, Catlin EA. Updated parental viewpoints on male neonatal circumcision in the United States. Clin Pediatr (Phila) 2010; 49: 130-6.
- 1234. Adler PW. Is it lawful to use Medicaid to pay for circumcision? J Law Med 2011; 19: 335-53.
- 1235(CDC209). Leibowitz AA, Desmond K, Belin T. Determinants and policy implications of male circumcision in the United States. Am J Publ Health 2009; 99: 138-45.
- 1236. Royal Dutch Medical Association. Non-therapeutic circumcision of male minors. KNMG; May 2010.
- 1237. Anonymous, "Circumcision breaches human rights of the child," The Local, September 28, 2013, available at <a href="https://www.thelocal.se/50496/20130928/">www.thelocal.se/50496/20130928/</a>.
- 1238. Suomen Lääkäriliitto. Poikien ympärileikkaus. <a href="http://www.laakariliitto.fi/uutiset/">http://www.laakariliitto.fi/uutiset/</a> kannanotot/ymparileikkaus.html (accessed 7 Nov 2012).
- 1239. Guiborg C. Swedish docs in circumcision protest. The Local, 19 February 2012. http://m.thelocal.se/39200/20120219/ (accessed 7 Nov 2012).
- 1240. Anonymous, "Ritual Circumcision Ban Recommended In Sweden and Denmark By Medical Associations," Huffington Post, January 27, 2014; available at www.huffingtonpost.com/2014/01/27/circumcision-ban-sweden-denmark\_n\_4674547.html (last visited October 1, 2014).
- 1241. Hartman, W. (26 Nov 2012) 'Stellungnahme Dr.med. Wolfram Hartmann, Präsident des Berufsverbands der Kinder- und Jugendärzte, zur Anhörung am 26. November 2012 zum Gesetzentwurf der Bundesregierung: "Entwurf eines Gesetzes über den Umfang der Personensorge bei einer Beschneidung des männlichen Kindes" und zum Gesetzentwurf der Abgeordneten Marlene Rupprecht, Katja Dörner, Diana Golze, Caren Marks, Rolf Schwanitz, weiterer Abgeordneter: "Entwurf eines Gesetzes über den Umfang der Personensorge und die Rechte des männlichen Kindes bei einer Beschneidung", http://www.kinderaerzte-imnetz.de/bvkj/kinpopup/psfile/pdf/70/121126\_Ste50aa5e211e6a6.pdf [Accessed 7 April 2013]
- 1242. College of Physicians and Surgeons of British Columbia. Policy manual: infant male circumcision. Vancouver: College of Physicians and Surgeons of British Columbia, 2004.
- 1243. Kendel DA. Caution against routine circumcision of newborn male infants: memo to physicians and surgeons of Saskatchewan. Saskatoon: College of Physicians and Surgeons of Saskatchewan, 2002
- 1244. Friedman J. "South African Medical Association denounces circumcision of infants," Attorneys for the Right of the Child Newsletter, Vol. 9 No. 1 (June 26, 2011) Letter to Dean Ferris from Ulundi Behrtel dated 23 June 2011 from South African Medical Association Human Rights, Law & Ethics Committee.
- 1245. Slovenian human rights ombudsman, Circumcision of boys for non-medical

- reasons is a violation of children's rights (February 2012). <a href="http://www.varuh-rs.si/medijsko-sredisce/aktualni-primeri/novice/detajl/obrezovanje-fantkov-iz-nemedicinskih-razlogov-je-krsitev-otrokovih-pravic">http://www.varuh-rs.si/medijsko-sredisce/aktualni-primeri/novice/detajl/obrezovanje-fantkov-iz-nemedicinskih-razlogov-je-krsitev-otrokovih-pravic</a> (last retrieved November 1, 2012).
- 1246. Fetus and Newborn Committee, Canadian Paediatric Society. Neonatal circumcision revisited. CMAJ 1996;154:769–80.
- 1247. British Medical Association. The law and ethics of male circumcision: guidance for doctors. J Med Ethics 2004;30:259–63.
- 1248. Royal Australasian College of Physicians. Circumcision of infant males. Sydney: Royal Australasian College of Physicians, 2010.
- 1249. Frisch M, Aigrain Y, Barauskas Y, Bjarnason R, Boddy S-A, Czauderna P, de Gier RPE, de Jong TPVM, Fasching G, Fetter W, Gahr M, Graugaard C, Greisen G, Gunnarsdottir A, Hartmann W, Havranek P, Hitchcock R, Huddart S, Janson S, Jaszczak P, Kupferschmid C, Lahdes-Vasama T, Lindahl H, MacDonald N, Markestad T, Märtson M, Nordhov SM, Pälve H, Petersons A, Quinn F, Qvist N, Rosmundsson T, Saxen H, Söder O, Stehr N, von Loewenich VCH, Wallander J, Wijnen R. Cultural bias in the AAP's technical report and policy statement on male circumcision. Pediatrics 2013; 131: 796-800.
- 1250. Task Force on Circumcision. Cultural bias and circumcision: the AAP Task Force on Circumcision responds. Pediatrics 2013; 131: 801-4.
- 1251. Svoboda JS, Van Howe RS. Out of step: fatal flaws in the latest AAP policy report on neonatal circumcision. J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 434-41.
- 1252. The AAP Task Force on Circumcision 2012. The AAP Task Force on Neonatal Circumcision: a call for respectful dialogue. J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 442-3.
- 1253(CDC220). Carbery B, Zhu J, Gust DA, Chen RT, Kretsinger K, Kilmarx PH. Need for physician education on the benefits and risks of male circumcision in the United States. AIDS Educ Prev 2012; 24: 377-87.
- 1254(CDC221). Castro JG, Jones DL, Lopez M, Barradas I, Weiss SM. Making the case for circumcision as a public health strategy: opening the dialogue. AIDS Patient Care STDS 2010; 24: 367-72.
- 1255(CDC226). Lawler FH, Bisonni RS, Holtgrave DR. Circumcision: a decision analysis of its medical value. Fam Med 1991; 23: 587-93.
- 1256. Chessare JB. Circumcision: is the risk of urinary tract infection really the pivotal issue? Clin Pediatr Phila 1992; 31: 100-4.
- 1257(CDC227). Ganiats TG, Humphrey JB, Taras HL, Kaplan RM. Routine neonatal circumcision: a cost-utility analysis. Med Decis Making 1991; 11: 282-93.
- 1258(CDC224). Van Howe RS. A cost-utility analysis of neonatal circumcision. Med Decis Making 2004; 24: 584-601.
- 1259(CDC225). Schoen EJ, Colby CJ, To TT. Cost analysis of neonatal circumcision a large health maintenance organization. J Urol 2006; 175: 1111-5.
- 1260(CDC228). Sansom SL, Prabhu VS, Hutchinson AB, An Q, Hall I, Shrestha RK, Lasry A, Taylor AW. Cost-effectiveness of newborn circumcision in reducing lifetime HIV risk among U.S. males. PLoS One 2010; 5(1): e8723.
- 1261(CDC162). Van Howe RS, Robson WLM, The possible role of circumcision in newborn outbreaks of community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus. Clin Pediatr (Phila) 2007; 46: 356-9.

- 1262. Paediatric Death Review Committee: Office of the Chief Coroner of Ontario. Circumcision: a minor procedure? Paediatr Child Health 2007; 12: 311-2.
- 1263(CDC229). Kacker S, Frick KC, Gaydos CA, Tobian AAR. Costs and effectiveness of neonatal male circumcision. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 2012; 166: 910-8.
- 1264. Blower SM, McLean AR. Prophylactic vaccines, risk behaviour change, and the probability of eradicating HIV in San Francisco. Science 1994; 265: 1451-4.
- 1265. Garenne M. Long-term population effect of male circumcision in generalised HIV epidemics in sub-Saharan Africa. Afr J AIDS Res 2008; 7: 1-8.
- 1266. Garenne M. Male circumcision and HIV control in Africa. PLoS Med 2006; 3: e78.
- 1267(CDC237). Mattson CL, Campbell RT, Bailey RC, Agot K, Ndinya-Achola JO, Moses S. Risk compensation is not associated with male circumcision in Kisumu, Kenya: a multi-faceted assessment of men enrolled in a randomized controlled trial. PLoS One 2008; 3(6): e2443.
- 1268. Kong X, Kigozi G, Nalugoda F, Musoke R, Kagaayi J, Latkin C, Ssekubugu R, Lutalo T, Nantume B, Boaz I, Wawer M, Serwadda D, Gray R. Assessment of changes in risk behaviors during 3 years of posttrial follow-up of male circumcision trial participants uncircumcised at trial closure in Rakai, Uganda. Am J Epidemiol 2012; 176: 875-85.
- 1269. Low-Beer D, Stoneburner RL. Behaviour and communication change in reducing HIV: is Uganda unique? Afr J AIDS Res 2003; 2(1): 9-21.
- 1270. Grund JM, Hennink MM. A qualitative study of sexual behavior change and risk compensation following adult male circumcision in urban Swaziland. AIDS Care 2012; 24: 245-51.
- 1271. Riess TH, Achieng' MM, Otieno S, Ndinya-Achola JO, Bailey RC. "When I was circumcised I was taught certain things": risk compensation and protective sexual behavior among circumcised men in Kisumu. Kenya. PLoS One 2010: 5(8): e12366.
- 1272. Nkosi S, Sikweyiya Y, Kekwaletswe CT, Morojele NK. Male circumcision, alcohol use and unprotected sex among patrons of bars and taverns in rural areas of northwest province, South Africa. AIDS Care 2014 Nov 27:1-6. [Epub ahead of print]
- 1273. Westercamp N, Agot K, Jacko W, Bailey RC. Risk compensation following male circumcision: results from a two-year prospective cohort study of recently circumcised and uncircumcised men in Nyanza Province, Kenya. AIDS Behav 2014; 18: 1764-75.
- 1274. Baaitse F. Minister and top cop in sex scandal: Minister Matihabapiri returns to court as scandal unfolds. The Voice (Botswana). June 8, 2012. http://www.thevoicebw.com/2012/06/08/sex-in-the-city/
- 1275. Byabagambi J. Is female participation in voluntary medical male circumcision of any value? Experiences from Uganda. USAID Assist Project. April 15, 2014. <a href="https://www.usaidassist.org/blog/female-participation-voluntary-medical-male-circumcision-any-value-experiences-uganda#comment-86.">https://www.usaidassist.org/blog/female-participation-voluntary-medical-male-circumcision-any-value-experiences-uganda#comment-86.</a>]
- 1276. Circumcised men abandoning condoms. Voice of America (Zimbabwe). March 5, 2014. <a href="http://www.voazimbabwe.com/content/zimbabwe-swaziland-south-africa-medical-male-circumcision-programs/1864352.html">http://www.voazimbabwe.com/content/zimbabwe-swaziland-south-africa-medical-male-circumcision-programs/1864352.html</a>]
- 1277. Circumcised men indulge in risky sexual behavior. The Standard, Nov 10, 2013. http://www.thestandard.co.zw/2013/11/10/circumcised-men-indulge-risky-sexual-behaviour/]

- 1278. Orido G. Push for male circumcision in Nyanza fails to reduce infections. Standard (Kenya). Sept 11, 2013.
  - http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/?articleID=2000093293&story\_title=push-for-male-circumcision-in-nyanza-fails-to-reduce-infections]
- 1279. Circumcised men still run risk of HIV infection, GABZ FM, Sept 26, 2013, at http://www.gabzfm.com/circumcised-men-still-run-risk-hiv-infection
- 1280. de Lange C. AIDS prevention: Africa's circumcision challenge. Nature 2013; 503: 182-5.
- 1281. Nellist CC. Is circumcision a job for ob.gyns. or pediatricians? opinions vary. Pediatr News 1994; 28(5): 20.
- 1282. 373. Smith JF Jr. The professional imperative for obstetrician-gynecologists to discontinue newborn male circumcision. Am J Perinatol 2011; 28: 125-8.
- 1283. Union Pacific Railway Co. v. Botsford, 141 U.S. 250, 251 (1891).
- 1284(CDC247). Quayle SS, Coplen DE, Austin PF. The effect of health care coverage on circumcision rates among newborns. J Urol 2003; 170: 1533-6.
- 1285. Tasmania Law Reform Institute, Non-therapeutic Male Circumcision, Issues Paper No 14, at 4 (June 2009).
- 1286. Council of Europe. ["Children's right to physical integrity" <a href="http://www.assembly.coe.int/nw/xml/XRef/Xref-DocDetails-EN.asp?FileID=20176&lang=EN.">http://www.assembly.coe.int/nw/xml/XRef/Xref-DocDetails-EN.asp?FileID=20176&lang=EN.</a>
- 1287. Committee on Bioethics. Policy statement ritual genital cutting of female minors. Pediatrics 2010; 125: 1088-93.
- 1288. Beauchamp TL, Childress JF. Principles of Biomedical Ethics Part II. 6th ed. New York (NY): Oxford University Press; 2009.
- 1289. Waldeck SE. Using male circumcision to understand social norms as multipliers. U Cinn L Rev 2003; 72: 455-526.
- 1290. Committee on Bioethics. Informed consent, parental permission, and assent in pediatric practice. Pediatrics 1995; 95: 314-17.
- 1291. Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 25(2), G.A. Resolution 217A (III), UN Doc. No. A/810 (1948), adopted December 10, 1948.
- 1292. Convention for the Rights of the Child. Convention on the Rights of the Child. United Nations General Assembly Resolution 44/25. Adopted 20 Nov 1989.
- 1293. Svoboda JS. Circumcision of male infants as a human right violation. J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 469-74.
- 1294. Dwyer JG. The Relationship Rights of Children. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2006.
- 1295. Wallerstein E. Circumcision An American Health Fallacy. New York: Springer Publishing Company; 1980.
- 1296. Feinberg J. The child's right to an open future. In Freedom and fulfillment: philosophical essays. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press; 1992.
- 1297. Davis D. Genetic dilemmas: reproductive technology, parental choices and children's futures. Vol 24. London: Routledge; 2001.
- 1298. Darby RJL. The child's right to an open future: is the principle applicable to non-therapeutic circumcision? J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 463-8.
- 1299. Sarajlic E. Can culture justify infant circumcision? Res Publica 2014; doi 10.1007/s11158-014-9254-x.

- 1300. O'Neill O. Autonomy and Trust in Bioethics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2002.
- 1301. Kant I. Critique of practical reason. Beck LW (trans) Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Educational Publishing; 1956.
- 1302. Rawls J. A Theory of Justice (Original Edition). Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press; 1971.
- 1303. Okwuosa TM. Male circumcision for prevention of HIV transmission. Lancet 2009; 374: 1497.
- 1304. Gupta V, Goel A. Male circumcision for prevention of HIV transmission. Lancet 2009; 374: 1497.
- 1305. Berer M. Male circumcision and risk of HIV in women. Lancet 2009; 374: 1497-8.
- 1306. Committee on Bioethics. Policy statement ritual genital cutting of female minors. Pediatrics 2010; 125: 1088-93.
- 1307. Etchells E, Sharpe G, Burgess MM, Singer PA. Bioethics for clinicians: 2. Disclosure. Can Med Assoc J 1996; 155: 387-91.
- 1308. Etchells E, Sharpe G, Elliot C, Singer PA. Bioethics for clinicians: 3. capacity. Can Med Assoc J 1996; 155: 657-61.
- 1309. Etchells E, Sharpe G, Dykeman MJ, Meslin EM, Singer PA. Bioethics for clinicians: 4. voluntariness. Can Med Assoc J 1996; 155: 1083-6.
- 1310. Longley GE. Framing the foreskin: A content analysis of circumcision information handouts for expectant parents. [Master's Thesis.] University of Colorado Denver, December 2009.
- 1311. Christensen-Szalanski JJ, Boyce WT, Harrell H, Gardner MM. Circumcision and informed consent. Is more information always better? Med Care 1987; 25: 856-67.
- 1312. Immerman RS, Mackey WC. A biocultural analysis of circumcision. Soc Biol 1997; 44: 265-75.
- 1313. Immerman RS, Mackey WC. A proposed relationship between circumcision and neural reorganization. J Genet Psychol 1998; 159: 367-78.
- 1314. Lang D. (2012). Elective child circumcision and Catholic moral principles. Nat Cathol Bioethics Q 2012; 12: 649-77.
- 1315. Dekkers W. Routine (non-religious) neonatal circumcision and bodily integrity: a transatlantic dialogue. Kennedy Inst Ethics J 2009; 19: 125-46;
- 1316. Dekkers W, Hoffer C, Wils J-P. Bodily integrity and male and female circumcision. Med Health Care Philos 2005; 8: 179-91.1317. Lang DP. Circumcision, sexual dysfunction and the child's best interests: why the anatomical details matter. J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 429-31.
- 1318(CDC252).Benatar M, Benatar D. Between prophylaxis and child abuse: The ethics of neonatal male circumcision. Am J Bioeth 2003; 3(2): 35-48.
- 1319(CDC250). Patrick K. Is infant male circumcision an abuse of the rights of the child? No. Br Med J 2007; 335(7631): 1181.
- 1320. Hinchley G. Is infant male circumcision an abuse of the rights of the child? Yes. Br Med J 2007; 335(7631): 1180.
- 1321. Mazor J. The child's interest and the case for the permissibility of male infant circumcision. J Med Ethics 2013; 39; 421-8.
- 1322. Jacobs AJ. The ethics of circumcision of male infants. Isr Med Assoc J 2013; 15: 60-5.

- 1323. Jacobs AJ, Arora KS. Ritual male circumcision and human rights. Am J Bioeth 2015; 15(2): in press.
- 1324. Ungar-Sargon E. On the impermissibility of infant male circumcision: a response to Mazor (2013). J Med Ethics 2013; epub ahead of print. doi: 10.1136/medethics-2013-101598.
- 1325. Van Howe RS. Presumptions are not data and data are often not informative. Am J Bioeth 2015; 15(2): in press.
- 1326. Earp BD. Sex and circumcision. Am J Bioeth 2015; 15(2): in press.
- 1327. Svoboda JS. Growing world consensus to leave circumcision decision to the affected individual. Am J Bioeth 2015; 15(2): in press.
- 1328. Dwyer JG. Parents' religion and children's welfare: debunking the doctrine of parents' right'. California Law Review, 1994; 82: 1371-447.
- 1329. Van Howe RS. Infant circumcision: the last stand for the dead dogma of parental (sovereignal) rights. J Med Ethics 2013; 39: 475-81.
- 1330. Morris B. Why circumcision is a biomedical imperative for the 21(st) century. Bioessays 2007; 29: 1147-58.
- 1331. Clark PA, Eisenman J, Szapor S. Mandatory neonatal circumcision in sub-Saharan Africa: medical and ethical analysis. Med Sci Monit 2007; 13(12): RA205-13
- 1332. Morris BJ. Circumcision facts trump anti-circ fiction. Austr Skeptic 2007 (Summer): 52-6.
- 1333. Potts M, Halperin DT, Kirby D, Swidler A, Marseille E, Klausner JD, Hearst N, Wamai RG, Kahn JG, Walsh J. Reassessing HIV prevention. Science 2008; 320: 749-750.
- 1334. Klausner JD, Wamai RG, Bowa K, Agot K, Kagimba K, Halperin DT. Is male circumcision as good as the HIV vaccine we've been waiting for? Future HIV Ther 2008; 2(1): 1-7.
- 1335. Berer M. Male circumcision for HIV prevention: what about protecting men's partners? Reprod Health Matters 2008; 16(32): 171-5.
- 1336. Burrell C. A low tech way to combat HIV-AIDS: the world is finally waking up to male circumcision. Harv Public Health Rev 2008; Spring-Summer: 24-25.
- 1337. Lie RK, Emanuel EJ, Grady C. Circumcision and HIV prevention research: an ethical analysis. Lancet 2006; 368: 522-5.
- 1338. Male circumcision in some nations may be the best available HIV prevention tool. Evidence growing for safety, efficacy. AIDS Alert 2007; 22: 25-28.
- 1339. Tobian AAR, Gray RH. The medical benefits of male circumcision. JAMA 2011; 306: 1479-80.
- 1340. Garenne M. Male circumcision and HIV control in Africa. PLoS Med 2006; 3: e78.
- 1341. Dennehy PH, Jost EE, Peter G. Active immunizing agents. In Feigin RD, Cherry JD, editors. Textbook of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, 4th Edition. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, Co; 1998.
- 1342. Hampton WF. Nontherapeutic circumcision is ethically bankrupt. Am J Bioeth 2003; 3(2): 1-2.
- 1343(CDC248). Hodges FM, Svoboda JS, Van Howe RS. Prophylactic interventions on children: balancing human rights with public health. J Med Ethics 2002; 28: 10-6.
- 1344. Svoboda JS. Circumcision-a Victorian relic lacking ethical, medical, or legal

- justification. Am J Bioeth 2003; 3(2): 52-4.
- 1345. Hutson JM. Circumcision: a surgeon's perspective. J Med Ethics 2004; 30: 238-40.
- 1346. Dwyer JG. Religious schools v. children's rights. Ithica, NY: Cornell University Press; 2001.
- 1347. Dwyer JG. Moral status and human life: the case for children's superiority. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2011.
- 1348. Stallings RY, Karugendo E. Female circumcision and HIV infection in Tanzania: for better or for worse?[abstract] Third International AIDS Society Conference on HIV Pathogenesis and Treatment. Rio de Janeiro, July 25-27, 2005.
- 1349. Essén B, Sjöberg N-O, Gudmundsson S, Östergren P-O, Lindqvist PG. No association between female circumcision and prolonged labour: a case control study of immigrant women giving birth in Sweden. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2005; 121: 182-5.
- 1350. Catania L, Abdulcadir O, Puppo V, Verde JB, Abdulcadir J, Abdulcadir D. Pleasure and orgasm in women with female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C). J Sex Med 2007; 4: 1666-78.
- 1351. American Academy of Pediatrics. American Academy of Pediatrics withdraws policy statement on female genital cutting [press release]. Elk Grove Village, IL: American Academy of Pediatrics; May 27, 2010. Available at: <a href="http://www.aap.org/advocacy/releases/fgc-may27-2010.htm">http://www.aap.org/advocacy/releases/fgc-may27-2010.htm</a> [Accessed May 31, 2010]
- 1352. Van Howe RS. The American Academy of Pediatrics and female genital cutting: when national organizations are guided by personal agendas. Ethics Med 2011; 27: 165-73.
- 1351. Brewer DD, Potterat JJ. Accumulated evidence of substantial iatrogenic HIV transmission ignored and mischaracterized. J Int AIDS Soc. In press.

## Citations for Responses from CDC to Peer Reviewer No. 3

- 1. Smith DK, Taylor A, Kilmarx PH, et al. Male circumcision in the United States for the prevention of HIV infection and other adverse health outcomes: report from a CDC consultation. *Public Health Rep.* 2010;125 Suppl 1:72-82.
- 2. Sansom SL, Prabhu VS, Hutchinson AB, et al. Cost-effectiveness of newborn circumcision in reducing lifetime HIV risk among U.S. males. *PloS one*. 2010;5(1):e8723.
- 3. Siegfried N, Muller M, Deeks JJ, Volmink J. Male circumcision for prevention of heterosexual acquisition of HIV in men. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2009(2):CD003362.
- 4. Tobian AA, Serwadda D, Quinn TC, et al. Male circumcision for the prevention of HSV-2 and HPV infections and syphilis. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360(13):1298-1309.
- 5. Serwadda D, Wawer MJ, Makumbi F, et al. Circumcision of HIV-infected men: effects on high-risk human papillomavirus infections in a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. *J Infect Dis.* 2010;201(10):1463-1469.
- 6. Auvert B, Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Cutler E, et al. Effect of male circumcision on the prevalence of high-risk human papillomavirus in young men: results of a randomized controlled trial conducted in Orange Farm, South Africa. *J Infect Dis.* 2009;199(1):14-19.

- 7. Tobian AA, Kigozi G, Wawer MJ, Serwadda D, Quinn TC, Gray RH. Herpes simplex virus type-2 assay specificity and male circumcision to reduce herpes simplex virus type-2 acquisition. *AIDS*. 2013;27(1):147-149.
- 8. Auvert B, Lissouba P, Sobngwi-Tambekou J. Reply to Van Howe. *J Infect Dis.* 2009;200:833.
- 9. Larke N, Thomas SL, Dos Santos Silva I, Weiss HA. Male circumcision and human papillomavirus infection in men: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Infect Dis.* 2011;204(9):1375-1390.
- 10. Task Force on Circumcision. Cultural bias and circumcision: the AAP Task Force on circumcision responds. *Pediatrics*. 2013;131(4):801-804.
- 11. Van Howe RS. Sexually transmitted infections and male circumcision: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *ISRN Urol.* 2013;2013:109846.
- 12. Morris BJ, Hankins CA, Tobian AA, Krieger JN, Klausner JD. Does male circumcision protect against sexually transmitted infections? Arguments and meta-analyses to the contrary fail to withstand scrutiny. *ISRN Urol.* 2014;2014:684706.
- 13. Howlader N, Noone AM, Krapcho M, et al. SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975-2010. Bethesda, MD: National Cancer Institute;2012.
- 14. Wright JL, Lin DW, Stanford JL. Circumcision and the risk of prostate cancer. *Cancer*. 2012;118(18):4437-4443.
- 15. El Bcheraoui C, Zhang X, Cooper CS, Rose CE, Kilmarx PH, Chen RT. Rates of Adverse Events Associated With Male Circumcision in US Medical Settings, 2001 to 2010. *JAMA Pediatr.* 2014;168(7):625-634.
- 16. Frisch M, Simonsen J. Ritual circumcision and risk of autism spectrum disorder in 0- to 9-year-old boys: national cohort study in Denmark. *J R Soc Med.* 2015;108(7):266-279.
- 17. Morris BJ, Wiswell TE. 'Circumcision pain' unlikely to cause autism. *J R Soc Med.* 2015;108(8):297.
- 18. Circumcision.

  <a href="http://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135">http://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135</a>,
  <a href="https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135">http://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135</a>,
  <a href="https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135">https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135</a>,
  <a href="https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthlibrary/test-procedures/urology/circumcision-135">https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/healthli
- 19. Medline Plus. Circumcision. 2013; <a href="https://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/ency/article/002998.htm">https://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/ency/article/002998.htm</a>. Accessed December 16, 2015.
- 20. Mayo Clinic Staff. Tests and Procedures: Circumcision (male). 2015; <a href="http://www.mayoclinic.org/tests-procedures/circumcision/basics/what-you-can-expect/prc-20013585">http://www.mayoclinic.org/tests-procedures/circumcision/basics/what-you-can-expect/prc-20013585</a>. Accessed December 16, 2015.
- 21. UCLA Health. Circumcision. 2014; <a href="http://healthinfo.uclahealth.org/Conditions/Pregnancy/90,P03080">http://healthinfo.uclahealth.org/Conditions/Pregnancy/90,P03080</a>. Accessed December 16, 2015.
- 22. Urology San Antonio. Adult Circumcision. 2015; <a href="https://www.urologysanantonio.com/adult-circumcision">https://www.urologysanantonio.com/adult-circumcision</a>. Accessed December 16, 2015.
- 23. Banieghbal B. Optimal time for neonatal circumcision: an observation-based study. *J Pediatr Urol.* 2009;5(5):359-362.
- 24. Maden C, Sherman KJ, Beckmann AM, et al. History of circumcision, medical conditions, and sexual activity and risk of penile cancer.[see comment]. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*. 1993;85(1):19-24.
- 25. Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, et al. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in men in Rakai, Uganda: a randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2007;369(9562):657-666.
- 26. Mehta SD, Moses S, Parker CB, Agot K, Maclean I, Bailey RC. Circumcision status and incident herpes simplex virus type 2 infection, genital ulcer disease, and HIV infection. *AIDS*. 2012;26(9):1141-1149.

- 27. Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, et al. The effects of male circumcision on female partners' genital tract symptoms and vaginal infections in a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2009;200(1):42 e41-47.
- 28. Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Taljaard D, Lissouba P, et al. Effect of HSV-2 serostatus on acquisition of HIV by young men: results of a longitudinal study in Orange Farm, South Africa. *J Infect Dis.* 2009;199(7):958-964.
- 29. Davis MA, Gray RH, Grabowski MK, et al. Male circumcision decreases high-risk human papillomavirus viral load in female partners: a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. *Int J Cancer.* 2013;133(5):1247-1252.
- 30. Gray RH, Serwadda D, Kong X, et al. Male circumcision decreases acquisition and increases clearance of high-risk human papillomavirus in HIV-negative men: a randomized trial in Rakai, Uganda. *J Infect Dis.* 2010;201(10):1455-1462.
- 31. Senkomago V, Backes DM, Hudgens MG, et al. Acquisition and persistence of human papillomavirus 16 (HPV-16) and HPV-18 among men with high-HPV viral load infections in a circumcision trial in Kisumu, Kenya. *J Infect Dis.* 2015;211(5):811-820.
- 32. Sobngwi-Tambekou J, Taljaard D, Nieuwoudt M, Lissouba P, Puren A, Auvert B. Male circumcision and Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Chlamydia trachomatis and Trichomonas vaginalis: observations after a randomised controlled trial for HIV prevention. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2009;85(2):116-120.
- 33. Pintye J, Baeten JM, Manhart LE, et al. Association between male circumcision and incidence of syphilis in men and women: a prospective study in HIV-1 serodiscordant heterosexual African couples. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2014;2(11):e664-671.
- 34. Mehta SD, Gaydos C, Maclean I, et al. The effect of medical male circumcision on urogenital Mycoplasma genitalium among men in Kisumu, Kenya. *Sex Transm Dis.* 2012;39(4):276-280.
- 35. Shaikh N, Morone NE, Bost JE, Farrell MH. Prevalence of urinary tract infection in childhood A meta-analysis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 2008;27(4):302-308.
- 36. Fink KS, Carson CC, DeVellis RF. Adult circumcision outcomes study: effect on erectile function, penile sensitivity, sexual activity and satisfaction. *J Urol.* 2002;167(5):2113-2116.
- 37. Collins S, Upshaw J, Rutchik S, Ohannessian C, Ortenberg J, Albertsen P. Effects of circumcision on male sexual function: Debunking a myth? *J Urology.* 2002;167(5):2111-2112.
- 38. Krieger JN, Mehta SD, Bailey RC, et al. Adult Male Circumcision: Effects on Sexual Function and Sexual Satisfaction in Kisumu, Kenya. *J Sex Med.* 2008;5(11):2610-2622.
- 39. Kigozi G, Lukabwe I, Kagaayi J, et al. Sexual satisfaction of women partners of circumcised men in a randomized trial of male circumcision in Rakai, Uganda. *BJU Int.* 2009;104(11):1698-1701.
- 40. Senkul T, Iser IC, sen B, Karademlr K, Saracoglu F, Erden D. Circumcision in adults: effect on sexual function. *Urology*. 2004;63(1):155-158.
- 41. Masood S, Patel HR, Himpson RC, Palmer JH, Mufti GR, Sheriff MK. Penile sensitivity and sexual satisfaction after circumcision: are we informing men correctly? *Urol Int.* 2005;75(1):62-66.
- 42. Cox G, Krieger JN, Morris BJ. Histological Correlates of Penile Sexual Sensation: Does Circumcision Make a Difference? *Sex Med.* 2015;3(2):76-85.
- 43. Kigozi G, Watya S, Polis CB, et al. The effect of male circumcision on sexual satisfaction and function, results from a randomized trial of male circumcision for human immunodeficiency virus prevention, Rakai, Uganda. *BJU Int.* 2008;101(1):65-70.
- 44. Wiswell TE, Geschke DW. Risks from circumcision during the first month of life compared with those for uncircumcised boys. *Pediatrics*. 1989;83(6):1011-1015.

- 45. Christakis DA, Harvey E, Zerr DM, Feudtner C, Wright JA, Connell FA. A trade-off analysis of routine newborn circumcision. *Pediatrics*. 2000;105(1 Pt 3):246-249.
- 46. Gee WF, Ansell JS. Neonatal circumcision: a ten-year overview: with comparison of the Gomco clamp and the Plastibell device. *Pediatrics*. 1976;58(6):824-827.
- 47. Morris BJ, Bailis SA, Wiswell TE. Circumcision Rates in the United States: Rising or Falling? What Effect Might the New Affirmative Pediatric Policy Statement Have? *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2014.
- 48. Morris BJ, Wiswell TE. Circumcision and lifetime risk of urinary tract infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Urol.* 2013;189(6):2118-2124.
- 49. Halperin DT, Bailey RC. Male circumcision and HIV infection: 10 years and counting.[see comment]. *Lancet*. 1999;354(9192):1813-1815.
- 50. Orroth KK, White RG, Freeman EE, et al. Attempting to explain heterogeneous HIV epidemics in sub-Saharan Africa: potential role of historical changes in risk behaviour and male circumcision. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2011;87(7):640-645.
- 51. Wamai RG, Morris BJ, Waskett JH, et al. Criticisms of African trials fail to withstand scrutiny: male circumcision does prevent HIV infection. *J Law Med.* 2012;20(1):93-123.
- 52. Wamai RG, Morris BJ, Bailey RC, Klausner JD, Boedicker MN. Debating male circumcision for HIV prevention: a one-sided argument does not represent a legitimate 'controversy' analysis--reply to de Camargo et al. *Glob Public Health*. 2015;10(5-6):672-678.
- 53. Jacobson SH, Eklof O, Eriksson CG, Lins LE, Tidgren B, Winberg J. Development of hypertension and uraemia after pyelonephritis in childhood: 27 year follow up. *BMJ*. 1989;299(6701):703-706.
- 54. Morris BJ, Krieger JN. Does male circumcision affect sexual function, sensitivity, or satisfaction?--a systematic review. *J Sex Med.* 2013;10(11):2644-2657.
- 55. Morris BJ, Bailey RC, Klausner JD, et al. Review: a critical evaluation of arguments opposing male circumcision for HIV prevention in developed countries. *AIDS Care*. 2012;24(12):1565-1575.
- 56. Morris BJ, Klausner JD. In developed countries male circumcision prevalence is inversely related to HIV prevalence. *Isr J Health Policy Res.* 2015;4:40.
- 57. Warner L, Cox S, Whiteman M, et al. Impact of Health Insurance Type on Trends in Newborn Circumcision, United States, 2000 to 2010. *Am J Public Health*. 2015;105(9):1943-1949.
- 58. Warner L, Ghanem KG, Newman DR, Macaluso M, Sullivan PS, Erbelding EJ. Male Circumcision and Risk of HIV Infection among Heterosexual African American Men Attending Baltimore Sexually Transmitted Disease Clinics. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2009;199(1):59-65.
- 59. Introcaso CE, Xu F, Kilmarx PH, Zidi A, Markowitz LE. Prevalence of Circumcision among men and boys aged 14 to 59 years in the United States, National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys 2005-2010. Sex Transm Dis. 2013;40(7):521-525.
- 60. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. HIV Surveillance Report, 2014. 2015;26. <a href="http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/">http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports/surveillance/</a> Accessed December 1, 2015.
- 61. Gust DAK, K.; Gaul, Z.; Pals, S.; Heffelfinger, J. D.; Begley, E.; Chen, R. T.; Kilmarx, P. H. Male circumcision as an HIV prevention intervention in the US: Influence of health care providers and potential for risk compensation. *Prev Med.* 2011;52(3-4):270-273.
- 62. Rodriguez-Diaz CE, Clatts MC, Jovet-Toledo GG, Vargas-Molina RL, Goldsamt LA, Garcia H. More than foreskin: circumcision status, history of HIV/STI, and sexual risk in a clinic-based sample of men in Puerto Rico. *J Sex Med.* 2012;9(11):2933-2937.
- 63. Thomas AG, Bakhireva LN, Brodine SK, Shaffer RA. *Prevalence of male circumcision and its association with HIV and sexually transmitted infections in a U.S. Navy population* San Diego, CA: Naval Health Research Center;2004.