Systematic screening with information and home sampling for genital Chlamydia trachomatis infections in young men and women: a randomized controlled trial

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Abstract

Background

As most genital *Chlamydia trachomatis* infections are asymptomatic, many do not seek health care for testing. Infections remain undiagnosed and untreated. We studied if screening with information and home sampling resulted in more young people getting tested, diagnosed and treated for chlamydia compared to the current strategy of testing in the health care system.

Method

We conducted a population based randomised controlled trial among all persons aged 18-25 years in one Norwegian county (41 519 persons). 10 000 persons (intervention) received an invitation by mail with chlamydia information and a mail-back urine sampling kit. 31 519 persons received no intervention and continued with usual care (control). All samples from both groups were analysed in the same laboratory. Information on treatment was obtained from the Norwegian Prescription Database (NorPD). We estimated risk ratios of being tested, diagnosed and treated in the intervention group compared to the control group.

Results

In the intervention group 16.3 % got tested and in the control group 3.4 %, risk ratio 4.9 (95% CI 4.5-5.2). The intervention led to 2.7 (95% CI 2.1-3.4) times as many individuals being diagnosed and 2.5 (95% CI 1.5-4) times as many men and 2.6 (95% CI 1.8-3.6) times as many women receiving treatment for chlamydia compared to no intervention, and increased the number of treated women between 22-25 years fivefold (RR 5.1 95 % CI 2.7-9.4).
Conclusion

Systematic screening with information and home sampling is more efficacious than no intervention in testing, diagnosing and treating young people with chlamydia in Norway the following three months after intervention.

Trial registration

ClinicalTrials.gov ID: NCT00283127
Background

Genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection may, if left untreated, lead to infertility, ectopic pregnancy, neonatal infection and facilitation of HIV infection [1-4]. It is the most commonly reported sexually transmitted infection in Europe [5], and in Norway the yearly number of diagnosed cases has been increasing over the last few years. In 2011, 22,530 cases were diagnosed. 68% were below 25 years of age of whom 67% were female [6, 7].

Early diagnosis and treatment is considered a major strategy to prevent complications and further transmission of the infection. In Norway, testing for genital C. trachomatis is done in the health care system through testing of symptomatic persons, partner tracing or through opportunistic screening of men and women below 25 years of age [8]. Testing is widely available. In 2011, the testing rate in Norway was 5468/100,000 population [6]. Still, as most infections are asymptomatic [9, 10] many do not seek health care for testing. Therefore opportunistic screening or even systematic screening programmes have been advocated. However, there is a rising concern that opportunistic as well as systematic screening of young individuals for C. trachomatis may not be effective control measures [11]. Thus, there is a need to document the effect of such programs through randomised trials.

The objective of this study was to determine whether systematic screening with information and home sampling would result in more men and women aged 18-25 years being tested, diagnosed and treated for genital C. trachomatis compared to the current strategy of testing in the health care system with no proactive recruitment. (Genital C. trachomatis infection will throughout the article be referred to as chlamydia.)
Methods

We conducted a population based randomised controlled trial (RCT) among all persons aged 18-25 years (birth years 1980-1987) registered in the national population register in one Norwegian county, Rogaland. On November 11 2005, this population was 41 793 persons (fig 1). We excluded those who did not have a postal address (74) or had been invited to our pilot study (200). The study period lasted for three months, February- May in 2006.

Intervention

Persons assigned to the intervention group (10 000) received a mail package at their home address consisting of the following: information on chlamydia and the importance of testing and treatment and an invitation to take a home test free of charge, a urine container, a durable water-tight plastic container, instructions on how to obtain a first void urine sample, a prepaid return envelope and a questionnaire (socio-demographic details, sexual behaviour, symptoms (discharge, endocervical bleeding, pelvic pain, urethral itching, dysuria) and history of sexually transmitted infections (STI)). Participants were asked to mail the urine samples by post in a leak-proof vessel enclosed in a durable water-tight plastic container directly to the laboratory at Stavanger University Hospital within three months after receiving the invitation. We used no reminders. In order to avoid overload in the laboratory by all participants mailing their urine samples at the same time, the study population was divided into four groups according to municipality of residence. The groups received the invitation one week apart and were then observed for the next three months.

A letter containing the test result and a contact phone number for support was provided to all participants from the diagnosing laboratory. If the test result was positive, the participant was
requested to visit a doctor, their family GP or a youth clinic for treatment and partner tracing at no cost.

Current strategy

Persons assigned to the control group (31 519) received no intervention and were not informed about the trial and thus continued with the current strategy of testing in the health care system, including clinically indicated testing, partner tracing and opportunistic screening. Samples obtained in the health care system included either cervical or urethral swabs or first void urine samples. Patients with positive test results were contacted by health professional for treatment and partner tracing. Test and treatment were free of charge. The control group was also followed for three months.

Information on outcomes

Testing: A participant was defined as having been tested if at least one urine sample, cervical or urethral swab for chlamydia testing had been submitted to Stavanger University Hospital (the laboratory serving Rogaland county with chlamydia testing) within the study period. Information was obtained from the laboratory database.

Diagnosis: A participant was defined as having been diagnosed with chlamydia if at least one test, obtained at home or in the health care system, was positive for chlamydia within the study period. Information was obtained from the laboratory database.

Treatment: A participant was defined as having been treated for chlamydia if the person had filled at least one prescription for a drug against chlamydia (azitromycin, doksycykl, erytromycin, lymecykl, amoxicillin) within 30 days following a positive test result.
Information was obtained from the Norwegian Prescription Database (NorPD) which contains information from all filled prescriptions in Norway from 2004. The study dataset was encrypted, made pseudonymous (by a third party) and merged with NorPD. The pseudonyms were removed before our analysis and no personal identifiers were available for the researchers.

Outcome measures and statistics
The primary outcomes were risk ratio of being tested diagnosed and treated defined as the proportion (risk) tested/diagnosed/treated in the intervention group (10 000) divided by the proportion(risk) tested/diagnosed/treated in the control group (31 519). We also present these risk ratios stratified by age group and gender. We measured the risk ratio of being treated given a positive test and the prevalence of infection by gender and age groups in each of the study groups.

We calculated 95% confidence intervals for all risk ratios. We applied intention-to-treat-analysis which is analysis based on the initial group assignment (fig 1). This is done to avoid that various reasons for not participating in assigned group will interfere with the randomization and introduce bias. We used Poisson regression to adjust for confounders. Interaction was assessed in the Poisson models with and without the interaction term, and based on the likelihood ratio test. We used SPSS 14.0 for Windows and Stata (StataCorp 2005. Stata Statistical Software: Release 9. College Station, TX: StataCorp LP) for analysis.

Diagnostic method
All samples were analyzed with BD ProbeTec Chlamydia Amplified DNA assay (Becton, Dickinson, Franklin Lake, New Jersey, USA). A sensitivity of > 90 % and a specificity of >
99 % have been reported for this test, but with a somewhat lower sensitivity when testing urine from women [12, 13]. DNA was extracted from urine using the BUGS’n BEADS™ STI preparation system (Genpoint, Oslo, Norway) [14]. Amplification controls were not used.

Home samples obtained from participants living outside the county

In the analysis we excluded test and treatment information from persons in the intervention group who returned a home sample but stated that they lived outside Rogaland county (for instance students). This was done in order to ensure an equal representation of participants who were in the population register but living outside the county in both the intervention and control group. While mailed invitations for home testing may have been forwarded to the temporary address of the participants in the intervention group, patients tested and diagnosed in health care facilities outside the county could not be assessed because their samples were analysed in other laboratories.

Randomization and sample size calculation

We used the unique personal identity number of individuals living in Norway to randomize participants. Personal identity numbers is generated by the national population register which is part of The Norwegian Tax Administration. The national population register includes all persons who live (or have lived) in Norway and registers information on births, deaths, addresses, immigration and emigration. The 11 digit personal identity number contains the following: The first six digits represent birth date (ddmmyy). The next three digits are given consecutively from 000-499 to every new citizen in Norway born (or immigrated) to Norway the last half of the 20th century. The last of these three digits indicates the persons’ gender. The last two digits are control numbers estimated after modulus 11 based on the previous 9 and 10 numbers [15]. We sorted the eligible population in ascending order according to these
two last digits of their personal identity number. The first 10 000 participants was selected for the intervention group and the remaining 31 519 for the control group. Individuals in the intervention group were aware of the study and their group assignment. The control group received no information about the study. Laboratory personnel were aware that mailed urine containers came from participants in the intervention group.

We calculated sample size with the Episheet calculator based on the least frequent primary outcome (risk ratio of being treated) and presumed a probability of treatment for chlamydia of 0.012 in the control group (assumption : 5 % chlamydia prevalence and 4.8 % treated) . With 10000 individuals in the intervention group and 31519 in the control group the study has a power of 90 % to detect a risk ratio of 1.37 or higher, with an alpha level of 0.05.

Non - responders
To determine factors influencing the response to the home sampling intervention, a random selection of 3000 non–responders (did not submit urine sample or return the questionnaire within the defined study period) was sent the same questionnaire once more with additional questions on reason why they chose not to participate.

Ethics
Informed consent was not obtained from the participants in either of the assigned groups. The trial was approved by the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics (REK), South –East Region and was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (ClinicalTrials.gov ID NCT00283127) in January 2006.
Results

The two groups had the same age and sex distribution. Municipality of residence was unevenly distributed in the two groups (tab 1). Adjustments for municipality had minimal effect on the risk ratio estimates. Therefore, only results without adjustments for municipality are shown. Of all the invitations, 429 (4.3%) were returned unopened due to the wrong address. All were included in the analysis.

After three months, 16.3 % of the population in the intervention group had been tested for chlamydia at least once whereas in the control group 3.4 % had been tested (tab 2), risk ratio 4.9 (95% CI 4.5-5.2). The majority of those tested in the intervention group (87%, 1433/1653) got tested during the first half of the three months. In the control group date of test was evenly distributed throughout the period. The intervention increased the probability of being diagnosed with chlamydia by 2.7 times (95% CI 2.1 -3.4) and for being treated for chlamydia by 2.5 times (95% CI 1.9-3.4). There was no difference between the groups in the probability of being treated given a positive test (RR 0.95, 95% CI 0.86-1.1).

The proportion of persons tested in the intervention group was higher in women than in men; women 20 % (980/4923), men 13 % (673/5077). According to protocol we also performed the analyses by gender and age group. The efficacy of the intervention was higher in the age group 22-25, than in the age group 18-21 for both genders on all three outcomes measured and significantly higher among men (RR 9.3, 95 % CI 8.0-10.8) than women (RR 3.7, 95% CI 3.4-4.0) for the outcome proportion tested (tab 3). Our data suggest that it was among women 22-25 years that the intervention was most efficacious. In this group more than five times as many (RR 5.1 95 % CI 2.7-9.4) was treated among those who received the intervention than among women 22-25 years in the control group.
In the intervention group, 41% (673/1653) of the tested were male compared to only 21% (229/1072) in the control group. Among those tested the proportion chlamydia positive in the intervention group was 6.3% (6.7% in females, 5.8% in males) and in the control group 11.9% (9.6% in females, 19.2% in males) (tab 4). The proportion of those diagnosed who received treatment was 85% (85/105) in the intervention group and 89% (111/125) in the control group. Less men than women received treatment for chlamydia. In the intervention group 74% (23/29) of the men filled a prescription for chlamydia vs 91% (60/66) among women. In the control group the corresponding figures were 84% (37/44) vs 91% (74/81). Of the infections detected in the intervention group 70% (74/105) were asymptomatic, 70% (46/66) in women and 72% (28/39) in men.

Among the tests in the intervention group, 85% were home tests and the remaining 15% were tests from the health care system of which the proportion positive test results were 16% (40/252). 2.6% (22 persons) of the chlamydia tests in the control group were home tests sent to participants in the intervention group, but used by participants in the control group (forwarded by those who received the invitation).

Non-responders

Only 9.2% (277/3000) replied to the questionnaires for non-responders. Main reasons for non-participation were “I don’t believe I am infected” (53%), “I forgot to take the urine test” (32%) and “I have recently been tested at the doctor’s office” (25%). 19% reported that they had never had sexual intercourse. Due to the poor response rate, we were unable to determine factors influencing the acceptability of home sampling.
Discussion

In this population-based randomised controlled trial we found that home sampling led to the identification and treatment of 2.5 times more individuals infected with chlamydia than the current strategy of testing in the health care system in the same three months period. In women aged 22-25, the increase was five times. This is the first randomised trial to demonstrate the efficacy of such an intervention with treatment as the outcome measure.

Testing, prevalence and efficacy

The total response to the invitation for home sampling in this study was low compared to population based home sampling trials conducted in other countries. In Denmark, the proportion tested was 39 % for women and 27 % for men [16]. In the Netherlands the proportion tested was 41 % in a pilot chlamydia population study [17] whereas in the first screening round of a comprehensive register based chlamydia screening implementation programme the proportion tested was 16 % [18]. In the UK the proportion tested was 31.5 % [19]. All studies showed a lower uptake in young adults, and in males as shown in our study. In contrast, an RCT conducted among US males showed an uptake of only 7.8 % [20].

We did not send a reminder. This may have contributed to a lower response rate, given that 32 % of the non-responders reported they had forgotten to take the test. A positive effect of reminders on the uptake has, however, not been universal [19, 21, 22]. The level of testing in regular care would influence the additional benefit of offering home sampling in a population. Comparable testing rates between countries are difficult to obtain. Although Norway is likely to have high testing rates on a European level [23, 24] we cannot conclude that this explains why the additional benefit of offering home sampling was lower in our study.
The proportion chlamydia positive in the intervention group is in the upper range of what has been established in similar population based studies where 1-7% has been infected [16-20, 25]. It is however in the lower range of earlier published studies from Norway, partly because these reflect a population who has been seeking health care [24, 26-28]. Our prevalence results should be interpreted with some caution due to potential selection bias. Those who believe they are infected are probably more likely to get tested, also with home sampling.

Other randomised trials of screening with home sampling have, like this study, demonstrated increased testing [29]. Andersen et al found a relative risk of being tested of 4.1 (95% CI 3.8-4.4) for women and 19.1 for men (95% CI 16.0-22.8) in Denmark [16]. Scholes et al found a relative risk of 11.1 among U.S males [20]. In contrast to these studies, we were able to demonstrate also an effect on treatment of diagnosed infections. We found that the intervention overall was less efficacious for this outcome measure, probably because it preferentially increased the testing of individuals with lower risk of infection than those who seek the health care system for chlamydia testing at their own initiative. This effect was especially seen among men since the men in the control group were less likely to get tested unless they had a high risk of infection. Data from the national surveillance supports this finding. The positivity rate is higher among men than women. In 2011 the positivity rate in the age group 15-19 was 15.6% for men and 13.1% for women. In the age group 20-24 it was 16.7% for men and 10.2% for women [6].

However, in one particular group, women aged 22-25 years, the intervention was highly efficacious in getting infected persons identified and treated (RR 5.1). In the control group the proportion positive was lower among women aged 22-25 years than observed in the other age/gender groups and also lower than observed in the national surveillance data from regular
care [6]. This is the group who already has the highest testing rate and incidence rate for chlamydia in Norway. Still, the intervention has managed to reach a reservoir of infected women in this group, including women with even higher risk of infection than those who sought the health care system for testing.

We observed a small, although not significant, difference in proportion treated among the diagnosed in the two groups. Possible explanations for this observation are that those who seek the health care system for chlamydia testing have a more active health seeking behaviour. Thus they are more likely to take the treatment prescribed. It may also be an additional obstacle to seek the doctor for a prescription after having received the test result by post. However, a bigger difference in the treatment gap was observed between men and women than between the two treatment groups suggesting that women have a more active health seeking behaviour than men.

This study was a comparison between usual care and a home based screening intervention. Other screening approaches such as using general practise for pro-active and systematic screening have shown high testing rates in other studies [30, 31]. Assessing such approaches was outside the scope of this study.

The study did not take into account of the economic aspect of the intervention. Cost effectiveness analyses have been carried out on systematic home based screening in other countries. A Danish study concluded that the screening programme saved society costs and should be considered an alternative to in-office screening [32]. In the Netherlands cost effectiveness analyses indicated that the screening program would not lead to acceptable levels of major outcomes averted or adjusted life years gained [33]. In our study 10 000 home
sampling packages by mail led to 1653 tested, 105 diagnosed and 89 treated individuals for chlamydia. Based on the number tested, diagnosed and treated in the control group (125/3.15) 40 persons would have had their diagnoses and 36 persons (89% of 40) would have received treatment within the current practise regardless of the intervention. Further research is therefore needed to evaluate the cost-effectiveness of such an intervention also in the Norwegian context.

Limitations:
The study design did not allow blinding of the assigned study regimen to the participants. With such a large intervention affecting a fourth of the population in the targeted age group, there is bound to have been some “leakage” of information to the control group. Thus, also control subjects may have been prompted to get a chlamydia test. This effect would lead to a lower estimate of the effect of the intervention.

It was not possible to blind the laboratory personnel because home tests from the intervention group were the only home tests received at this laboratory. However, all tests received were analysed according to the normal procedures in the laboratory.

An unknown proportion of our study population lives temporarily somewhere else than their address in the population register. As patients tested in health facilities outside the county could not be assessed, the actual testing rate is likely to be higher in both study groups than what was observed in this study.
The randomization produced unbalance between the groups concerning municipality of residence (in one out of 26 municipalities). This could be a source of bias if the pre-trial prevalence of chlamydia differed between the municipalities. We do not know this. However, adjustment for municipality in the analysis had minimal effects on the risk ratio estimates.

The trial tested only a single round of screening with an observation time of three months for both intervention and control groups. The aim of the intervention was to convince people who were not contemplating going to their physician for chlamydia testing, to get tested early. Because we had only three months follow up for both groups, we cannot exclude that the intervention only brought forward in time testing that would otherwise have occurred later. The same limitation is also seen with Scholes et al and Andersen et al [16, 20]. However, even if that was the only effect, it is still a positive effect as time is of essence in prevention of chlamydia complications. However, a single round of screening does not show an effect on community prevalence of chlamydia over time. A recent study from the Netherland assessed the effect of yearly systematic screening after three rounds of screening [34]. The authors conclude that three yearly rounds of register based chlamydia screening did not reduce the chlamydia prevalence when compared with the control population mainly because the screening uptake was too low. In this study the initial uptake was similar to our study but down to 9.5% after the third round [34]. Another essential part of chlamydia control is treatment of sexual contacts. This trial did not take into account the effect of contact tracing. More research is therefore needed to determine optimal intervals between screening rounds, continued participation in repeated screening and the effect of partner tracing on the different screening strategies.
The intervention consisted of both a letter stating the importance of chlamydia testing and a home sampling kit. We cannot differentiate which of these elements that led to the positive effect on testing rates. We cannot exclude that an informative letter alone could have produced a similar effect.

This study’s final outcome was treatment for chlamydia. However, the ultimate objective of treatment for chlamydia is to reduce the number of complications and thereby improve reproductive health. Since we have no follow-up for pelvic inflammatory disease (PID) or other complications, we have not shown that screening with home sampling will in fact lead to a reduction of complications. Østergaard et al. showed that a single round of screening with home sampling was associated with a lower proportion of self reported cases of PID after one year compared with a strategy of sampling in the health care system[35]. However after a nine year follow up there was no difference in reproductive complications between the two groups [36]. Oakeshott et al suggests that the effect of a single round of chlamydia screening in preventing PID may have been overestimated [37]. More research is needed to establish the effect of home sampling and other screening strategies on the occurrence of PID, ectopic pregnancy and infertility.

**Conclusion**

Systematic screening with information and home sampling was more efficacious than the current strategy of sampling in the health care system in testing, diagnosing and treating men and women between 18-25 year of age for chlamydia in Norway. The intervention lead to five times more people getting tested and to 2.5 times more infected people getting treated in the first three months following the intervention. The intervention was most efficacious in women
aged 22-25 years. Further research is needed to determine the long-term impact of such screening and the optimal scheduling of screening rounds to balance impact and costs.

**Competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest, financial or non-financial. The research was founded by the Norwegian Institute of Public Health.

**Authors’ contributions**

HK has planned and designed the research study, been involved in the acquisition of data, done the analysis of and interpretation of data and drafted and revised the manuscript. ON has participated in the design of the research project, made a substantial contribution to the acquisition of data and has been involved in revising the manuscript critically. AaT has made a substantial contribution to the analysis and interpretation of data and has been involved in revising the manuscript critically. PAAa has been involved in the planning and design of the research study, participated in the analysis and interpretation of data and has made a substantial contribution to the draft and revision of the manuscript.

All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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Reference List


Figure legend:
Figure 1

Flow chart of randomised trial of home sampling as an intervention to test, diagnose and treat persons aged 18-25 years for genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection, Rogaland county, Norway 2006.
Table 1. Baseline characteristics intervention group (n=10 000) and control group (n= 31 519), Rogaland county, Norway 2006.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>Intervention group n= 10 000</th>
<th>Control group n= 31 519</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<tr>
<td>Age (18-21)</td>
<td>n, %</td>
<td>n, %</td>
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<td>5005, 50.1 %</td>
<td>15889, 50.4 %</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex (male)</td>
<td>n, %</td>
<td>n, %</td>
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<tr>
<td>5077, 50.7 %</td>
<td>16002, 50.7 %</td>
<td>0.50</td>
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<td>Municipality:</td>
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<tr>
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<td>71, 0.7 %</td>
<td>213, 0.7 %</td>
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<td>Bokn</td>
<td>12, 0.1 %</td>
<td>51, 0.2 %</td>
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<td>Eigersund</td>
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<td>1068, 3.4 %</td>
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<td>Finnoy</td>
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<td>1068, 0.7 %</td>
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<td>Forsand</td>
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<td>Strand</td>
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<td>Utsira</td>
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<td>Vindafjord</td>
<td>137, 1.4 %</td>
<td>379, 1.2 %</td>
<td>0.15</td>
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Table 2. Efficacy of home sampling as an intervention to test, diagnose and treat persons aged 18-25 years for genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection, Rogaland county, Norway 2006.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Intervention group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>Risk ratio, adjusted*</th>
<th>95% confidence interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n/N</td>
<td>Risk (%)</td>
<td>n/N</td>
<td>Risk (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>1653/10000</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>1072/31519</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested and diagnosed</td>
<td>105/10000</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>125/31519</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested, diagnosed and treated</td>
<td>89/10000</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>111/31519</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Adjusted for age, sex and week of received intervention
Table 3. Age group and gender specific efficacy of home sampling as an intervention to test, diagnose and treat persons aged 18-25 years for genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection, Rogaland county, Norway 2006. Risk ratio (95% confidence intervals) for being tested, diagnosed and treated, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Intervention</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>RR</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n/N</td>
<td>Risk(%)</td>
<td>n/N</td>
<td>Risk(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women 18-21 yr</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>507/2453</td>
<td>20.6 %</td>
<td>485/7829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>37/2453</td>
<td>1.5 %</td>
<td>63/7829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>34/2453</td>
<td>1.4 %</td>
<td>58/7829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women 22-25 yr</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>473/2470</td>
<td>19.1 %</td>
<td>358/7687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>29/2470</td>
<td>1.2 %</td>
<td>18/7687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>26/2470</td>
<td>1.1 %</td>
<td>16/7687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All women</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>980/4993</td>
<td>19.6 %</td>
<td>358/15517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>66/4993</td>
<td>1.3 %</td>
<td>81/15517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>60/4993</td>
<td>1.2 %</td>
<td>74/15517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men 81-21 yr</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>322/2552</td>
<td>12.6 %</td>
<td>124/8060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>20/2552</td>
<td>0.8 %</td>
<td>26/8060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>15/2552</td>
<td>0.6 %</td>
<td>23/8060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men 22-25 yr</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>351/2525</td>
<td>13.9 %</td>
<td>105/7942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>19/2525</td>
<td>0.8 %</td>
<td>18/7942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>14/2525</td>
<td>0.6 %</td>
<td>14/7942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All men</strong></td>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>630/5077</td>
<td>12.4 %</td>
<td>229/16002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed</td>
<td>39/5077</td>
<td>0.8 %</td>
<td>44/16002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treated</td>
<td>29/5077</td>
<td>0.6 %</td>
<td>37/16002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Proportion positive for genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection by age group and gender among those tested in the randomised trial, Rogaland county, Norway 2006.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Intervention group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosed / tested</td>
<td>% pos (95 % confidence interval)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men 18-21 years</td>
<td>20/322</td>
<td>6.2 (3.9-9.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men 22-25 years</td>
<td>19/351</td>
<td>5.4 (3.4-8.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women 18-21 years</td>
<td>37/507</td>
<td>7.2 (5.3-9.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women 22-25 years</td>
<td>29/473</td>
<td>6.1 (4.2-8.6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Excluded (n=274):
- exclusion criteria (n=74)
- pilot study (n=200)

Population in Rogaland
Born 1980 – 1987
(n=41793)

Eligable population
Randomised (n= 41519)

Intervention (n=10000)
Analysed by intention to treat
(n=10000)
- Tested: 1653
- Diagnosed: 105
- Treated: 89

Control (n=31519)
Analysed by intention to treat
(n=31519)
- Tested: 1072
- Diagnosed: 125
- Treated: 111

RR 4.9
RR 2.7
RR 2.5
Additional files provided with this submission:

Additional file 1: Alternative table 3.docx, 14K
http://www.biomedcentral.com/imedia/8617119168167276/supp1.docx