

Despite the finding that HIV-tested adolescents were at higher risk, more than half of those reporting an HIV-antibody test actually had no self-reported risks for HIV infection. This finding, coupled with the finding that tested students knew less about HIV and AIDS, points to the critical role of HIV education. Educating adolescents about methods of HIV transmission and protection and engaging them in personal HIV risk assessment activities can help to correct some of the myths and worries of adolescents while dispelling the notion that adolescents are immune to the risk of HIV infection. A thorough discussion of the HIV testing and counseling process and a review of reasons to seek HIV testing must be included within any HIV education program.

References

1. Division of STD/HIV Prevention: Annual report 1990. Centers for Disease Control, Atlanta, GA, 1991.
2. Premarital sexual experience among adolescent women—United States, 1970–88. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 39: 929–932, Jan. 4, 1991.
3. Hingson, R. W., Strunin, L., Berlin, B. M., and Heeren, T.: Beliefs about AIDS, use of alcohol and drugs, and unprotected sex among Massachusetts adolescents. *Am J Public Health* 80: 295–299 (1990).
4. Hofferth, S. L., Kahn, J. R., and Baldwin, W.: Premarital sexual activity among U.S. teenage women over the past three decades. *Fam Plann Perspect* 19: 46–53 (1989).
5. Sonenstein, F. L., Pleck, J. H., and Ku, L. C.: Sexual activity, condom use and AIDS awareness among adolescent males. *Fam Plann Perspect* 21: 152–158 (1989).
6. Paringer, L., Phillips, K. A., and Hu, T.: Who seeks HIV testing?: the impact of risk, knowledge, and state regulatory policy on the testing decision. *Inquiry* 28: 226–235, fall 1991.
7. Higgins, D. L., et al.: Evidence for the effects of HIV antibody counseling and testing on risk behaviors. *JAMA* 266: 2419–2429, Nov. 6, 1991.
8. Wenger, N. S., Linn, L. S., Epstein, M., and Shapiro, M. F.: Reduction of HIV-risk sexual behavior among heterosexuals undergoing HIV antibody testing: a randomized clinical trial. *Am J Public Health* 81: 1580–1585, December 1991.
9. Landis, S. E., Earp, J. L., and Koch, G. G.: Impact of HIV testing and counseling on subsequent sexual behavior. *AIDS Educ Prev* 4: 61–70 (1992).
10. Main, D. S., et al.: Preventing HIV infection among adolescents: evaluation of a school-based education program. *Prev Med* 23:409–417 (1994).

Prevalence of Risk Factors for Residential Fire and Burn Injuries in an American Indian Community

CYNTHIA MOBLEY, MD, MPH
 JONATHAN R. SUGARMAN, MD, MPH
 CHARLES DEAM
 LISA GILES, MSW

Dr. Mobley was with the Division of Research, Evaluation and Epidemiology, Portland Area Indian Health Service at the time of this study; she is now Adolescent Coordinator with the Baltimore City Health Department. Dr. Sugarman is Medical Epidemiologist with the Division of Research, Evaluation and Epidemiology, Portland Area Indian Health Service. Mr. Deam was Human Resources Director, Suquamish Tribe, Suquamish, WA, when this study was conducted. Ms. Giles is Health Care Manager, Suquamish Tribe.

Technical assistance in study design was also provided by Jane Ballard, PhD, of the Boeing Company, Steven D. Helgerson, MD, MPH, of the Health Care Financing Agency, Ernest Kimball, MPH, of the Portland Area Indian Health Service, and Jessica Doney, MD, of the University of Washington. Ms. Pegie Ahvakana, Ms. Teri Bayes, Ms. Renee Kimball, and Ms. Harriet Webber, who conducted the interviews, were employed by the Suquamish Tribe. This research was funded by a grant from the Indian Health Service Research Program.

Tearsheet requests to Cynthia Mobley, MD, MPH, 3601 Crossland Ave., Baltimore, MD 21213, tel. 410-889-0884.

Synopsis

Fatality rates from residential fires are high among American Indians. Contact burns and scalds are also among the leading types of thermal injuries. Information about the prevalence of risk factors for burn injuries is required to design interventions aimed at reducing residential fire and burn injuries. The authors conducted a survey in July and August 1992 of 68 households located in a small American Indian community in Washington State to ascertain the prevalence of selected risk factors for residential fire and burn injuries.

Nearly all households (96 percent) in the study had a smoke detector, and 95 percent of those tested were functioning. However, a high prevalence of other household characteristics associated with excess risk of residential fire and burn injuries was identified: 59 percent of households had at least one member who smoked, 25 percent had a member who smoked in

bed, 38 percent had a member who drank alcohol and smoked at the same time, 46 percent used wood stoves as a heat source, and 15 percent of households were mobile homes.

Thirteen percent of households had at least one fire during the previous 3 years, and the incidence of burns due to all causes and requiring medical

treatment was 1.5 per 100 persons per year. Hot water temperature was measured to determine the potential risk for scald burns, and 48 percent of households had a maximum hot water temperature of 130° or more Fahrenheit. Such surveys can guide intervention strategies to reduce residential fire and burn injuries in American Indian communities.

Residential fires rank fourth among causes of unintentional injury deaths (1) and account for three-quarters of all fire deaths in the United States. Unintentional injury mortality rates, including those associated with residential fires, are higher among American Indians (AI) than among the general U.S. population (2). A study in King County, WA, found the crude incidence rate of residential fire injuries among American Indians to be 4.4 times greater than among whites (3). Scald and contact burns are also leading causes of burn injuries among American Indians. In an American Indian community in Arizona, contact burns accounted for 43 percent and scald burns for 33 percent of emergency room burn visits (4).

Several specific residential and personal characteristics are associated with an excess risk of residential fire and burn injuries (5,6). Households who have cigarette smokers and alcohol consumers among their members are at increased risk for fire injury (7,8). Heating equipment is a leading cause of house fire deaths (9,10). Similarly, risk of fire fatality is greater for people in mobile homes and in homes without a smoke detector (9).

Efforts to reduce the incidence of fire and burn injuries among AI must be based on an adequate understanding of the prevalence of risk factors in affected communities. We conducted a household survey during July and August 1992 in an AI community in Washington State to identify the prevalence of selected characteristics associated with an excess risk of residential fire and burn injuries.

Methods

A list was prepared of all households in Kitsap County, WA, which, according to tribal records from July 1992, included at least one enrolled member of the Suquamish Tribe. From the 211 households, a systematic sample of 106 households was created by selecting the first household as the starting point and selecting every other household thereafter. Of these, 92 were identified as having tribal members living in

Kitsap County during the interview period (others had moved or were deceased). The Suquamish Tribe, a small northwest coastal Salish tribe, has approximately 750 enrolled members.

Face-to-face household interviews were conducted at 68 (74 percent) of the 92 households during the period July 10 to August 28, 1992. Of the 24 nonrespondents, 8 declined to be interviewed and 16 could not be contacted. Contact was made by an unannounced home visit or telephone. The desired respondent was defined as a household member 18 years or older who was identified, by the initial person contacted, as being the most knowledgeable about the survey topic. If unavailable, another adult household member was interviewed. The survey questionnaire included 88 open-ended and closed-ended questions about knowledge and practices related to residential fire and burn injuries, their prevention and incidence.

After the interview, the surveyor tested the function of the smoke detector closest to the sleeping area, using a commercially available smoke detector testing spray (A). Two measurements of the maximum hot tap water temperature were obtained at a faucet in either the kitchen or bathroom, using a digital thermometer (B). The survey and testing took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Results

Selected characteristics of the survey respondents and households are shown in the table. Eighty-one percent were AI, and three-quarters were female. Of study households, more than half were located on a reservation. Most households were single- or two-family homes; 15 percent were mobile homes.

Electricity was the leading type of heat source (79 percent), and nearly half of households used wood stoves. Other sources were fireplaces, gas, and portable space heaters.

Of the study households, 96 percent had at least one installed smoke detector. Of the smoke detectors tested in each of 62 households, 59 (95 percent)

Selected characteristics of respondents and households, fire injury study, Suquamish Tribe, 1992 (percentage)

Characteristic	Respondents (N=68)
Age, years (mean = 41.3 ± 18.1):	
18-34.....	46
35-54.....	29
55 or older.....	25
Sex:	
Female.....	76
Male.....	24
Race:	
American Indian.....	81
White ¹	19
Highest education completed ² :	
Less than high school.....	12
High school graduate or beyond.....	87
Type of home:	
Single- or two-family house.....	82
Mobile home.....	15
Apartment, townhouse, condominium.....	3
Home ownership:	
Rent or renting to own.....	50
Own.....	49
Other.....	2
Home located on reservation.....	60
Working telephone.....	88
Annual household income ³ :	
Less than \$15,000.....	49
\$15,000-40,000.....	29
More than \$40,000.....	15
Heat source type (primary or secondary):	
Electricity.....	79
Wood stove.....	46
Fireplace.....	15
Gas.....	9
Portable.....	3
Households with at least 1 installed smoke detector.....	96
Smoke detector types tested (N=62) ⁴ :	
Battery.....	55
Electrically wired.....	44
Unknown.....	2
Smoke detector alarm sounded with testing... Household with member who smokes cigarettes.....	95 59
Household with member who smokes in bed..	25
Household with member who drank alcohol in past month.....	59
Among those who drank alcohol in past month, household with members having:	
Less than 5 drinks on any occasion.....	50
3-4 drinks on any occasion.....	73
Household with member who smokes cigarettes and drinks alcohol at same time ..	38

¹ Other household member was Suquamish Tribe member.

² 1 respondent refused.

³ 5 respondents refused or did not know.

⁴ Testing not performed in 3 households with installed smoke detectors.

NOTE: Totals may not add to 100 percent because of rounding.

functioned when tested. Of those tested, 55 percent were battery operated and 44 percent were electrically wired. A majority (59 percent) of households reported that a smoke detector sounded the alarm when no uncontrolled fire was present; cooking was the most common cause (84 percent). Two of the three households that had no smoke detector gave "false alarms" as a reason for not having a detector.

Fifty-nine percent of households had at least one member who smoked, and 25 percent had a member who smoked in bed. Thirty-eight percent had a member who consumed alcohol and smoked at the same time. Forty-eight percent of households had a maximum hot tap water temperature 130° or more Fahrenheit (F)—the temperature at which a scald burn can occur within 30 seconds—and 16 percent had a maximum hot water temperature 140° or more F—the temperature at which a scald burn can occur within 10 seconds.

Thirteen home or yard fires occurred in nine households (13 percent) over the 3-year period before the survey, resulting in an incidence rate of 6.4 fires per 100 households per year. Information reported about the most recent fire that occurred in each of the nine households showed that one was the result of outdoor burning and eight occurred indoors (five kitchen grease fires, one in a bedroom started by a cigarette lighter, two other). Of the indoor fires, a smoke detector was reported to have sounded an alarm in seven instances. Only one fire resulted in an injury.

In 20 households (29 percent), a member was burned at home due to any cause during the previous year; 4 of the 59 burns received medical treatment. Fireworks, sold widely on the reservations, caused a burn or injury to a household member in 9 percent of study households during the previous 3 years.

Discussion

A high prevalence of modifiable personal and environmental characteristics (such as cigarette and alcohol use, smoking in bed, and use of a wood stove) known to be associated with excess risk of residential fire injuries was identified in this study. Although a study of persons in four other AI communities in Washington showed similar rates of smoking and alcohol use (11), the high prevalence of functioning smoke detectors, known to be protective against fatal residential fire injuries, was unexpected. Among four AI communities in western Washington, 24 percent of adults reported that there were no smoke detectors in their homes (11).

The proportion of homes with smoke detectors in

this study compared favorably to both King County, WA, (12) and Fairfax County, VA, (13) where independent studies during 1985 showed 91 and 84 percent of households had smoke detectors, 83 and 84 percent of which were working, respectively. The variation of risk factor prevalence among these communities highlights the importance of obtaining community-specific data before initiating programs to reduce fire injury rates in American Indian communities. An intervention focused on ensuring the presence of smoke detectors in households would have been superfluous in the community studied.

The proportion of households in this study with a hot water temperature of 130° or more F (48 percent) was substantially greater than that found in Seattle in 1988 (14). The Seattle study, conducted 5 years after passage of Washington State legislation requiring that new hot water heaters be set at 120° F, found that 16 percent of households with heaters installed after the law and 30 percent of heaters installed before the law had temperatures 130° F.

Although this study was not designed primarily to determine the incidence of residential burn injury, the results are consistent with high reported risk of residential burn injury rates among AI in the region (3). The rate of burn injuries occurring at home that received medical attention (1.5 burns per 100 persons per year) is somewhat higher than the rate of approximately 0.4 burns per 100 persons per year estimated in the 1985–87 National Health Interview Survey (15). The high reported incidence of residential fires (13 percent of households with at least one fire during the 3 years before the study) also highlights the high risk of the community.

Effective efforts to reduce fire and burn injuries in AI communities may require environmental modifications such as installation of smoke detectors, automatic sprinkler systems, or water heaters pre-set at temperatures less than 120° F. Programs to reduce behavioral risk factors associated with fire and burn injury will be needed. However, because of the cultural, geographic, and socioeconomic diversity among AI communities, community-specific baseline data should be acquired before designing intervention strategies.

References.....

1. National Safety Council: Accident facts, 1985 edition. Chicago, IL 1985.
2. Indian Health Service: Trends in Indian health, 1989. Public Health Service, Rockville, MD 1989.
3. Ballard, J. E., Koepsell, T. D., Rivara, F. P., and Van Belle, G.: Descriptive epidemiology of unintentional residential fire

- injuries in King County, WA, 1984 and 1985. Public Health Rep 107: 402–408, July–August 1992.
4. Buonviri, G.: The analysis of burn injuries in a Native American population. Indian Health Service, Tuba City, AZ, March 1989.
5. McLoughlin, E., and McGuire, A.: The causes, cost, and prevention of childhood burn injuries. Am J Dis Child 144: 677–683 (1990).
6. Mierley, M. C., and Baker, S. P.: Fatal housefires in an urban population. JAMA 249: 1466–1468, Mar. 18, 1983.
7. Ballard, J. E., Koepsell, T. D., and Rivara, F.: Association of smoking and alcohol drinking with residential fire injuries. Am J Epidemiol 135: 26–34 (1992).
8. Howland, J., and Hingson, R.: Alcohol as a risk factor for injuries or death due to fires and burns: review of the literature. Public Health Rep 102: 475–483, September–October 1987.
9. Patetta, M. J., and Cole, T. B.: A population-based descriptive study of housefire deaths in North Carolina. Am J Public Health 80: 1116–1117 (1990).
10. Runyan, C. W., et al.: Risk factors for fatal residential fires. N Engl J Med 327: 859–863, Sept. 17, 1992.
11. Kimball, E. H., Goldberg, H. I., and Oberle, M. W.: Western Washington Native American Behavioral Risk Factor Survey. Final report. Public Health Service, Indian Health Service, Seattle, 1989.
12. Ballard, J. E.: The epidemiology of unintentional residential fire injuries in King County, Washington. Doctoral Dissertation, Department of Epidemiology, University of Washington, Seattle, 1989.
13. McLoughlin, E., et al.: Smoke detector legislation: its effect on owner-occupied homes. Am J Public Health 75: 858–862 (1985).
14. National Center for Health Statistics: Types of injuries by selected characteristics, United States, 1985–87. Vital Health Stat [10], No. 175. Hyattsville, MD, 1990.
15. Erdman, T.C., et al.: Tap water burn prevention: the effect of legislation. Pediatrics 88: 572–577 (1991).

Equipment

- A. Smoke detector tester. Home Safeguard Ind, POB 4077, Malibu, CA, 90265.
- B. Taylor digital pocket thermometer. Thermometer Corp. of America, 280 Cane Creek Road, Fletcher, NC, 28732.