A Cautionary Tale: Black Women, Criminal Justice, and HIV

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I. INTRODUCTION

For two decades, the face of HIV/AIDS was a White gay male. Now, in its third decade, the face of the HIV/AIDS epidemic is African-American.1 AIDS was first recognized by the Centers of Disease Control (CDC) in June of 1981. HIV is the virus by which AIDS is transmitted.2 Although Black men are disproportionately infected with HIV, the infection rate for Black women is alarming. In similar fashion, the incarceration rate for Black men is the subject of national debate while little attention is given to the disproportionate number of incarcerated Black women.

The criminal justice system provides a prism through which this Article analyzes the socio-legal complexities of HIV transmission and the Black community, and in doing so, it provides a platform for a much broader discussion. Like The Canterbury Tales, this Article is comprised of many stories leading to a final destination. In this case, the journey leads to changes in HIV laws and policies.3 This Article had its impetus in an earlier published work.4 Accordingly, this Article examines the following: 1) the rising number of African-Americans, especially women, living with HIV/AIDS; 2) the concordant rise in the number of incarcerated African-Americans living with HIV/AIDS; 3) the legal issues arising from HIV/AIDS-related medical care and privacy concerns; and 4) controversial changes in HIV/AIDS-related privacy policies to save the lives of women.

II. HIV/AIDS and Black Female Inmates

A report to Congress on prisoners with HIV/AIDS described the disease as

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4. Gloria J. Browne-Marshall, To Be Female, Black, Incarcerated, and Infected with HIV/AIDS: A Socio-Legal Analysis, 41 CRIM. L. BULL. 3 (2005). The primary focus of this article was the manner in which the Federal and State correctional systems were addressing the rising number of women inmates living with HIV/AIDS, the majority of whom were African-American. See id.
a virus transmitted through sexual relations and exposure to blood. Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) results when human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) attacks the body’s immune system, leaving the individual highly susceptible to a range of infections, cancers, and other illnesses. HIV infection also attacks the central nervous system, causing progressive dementia, and it may lead to a serious wasting syndrome.5

In the 20th century, HIV/AIDS was categorized as a terminal disease transmitted primarily between homosexual men and intravenous drug users. However, any such narrow perspectives on this disease have evolved since its official discovery in 1981, particularly as advances in medical research have led to a better understanding of treatment and prevention of HIV/AIDS. HIV remains a preventable disease without a known cure. Advances in medical treatment have allowed people with the infection to live longer relatively healthy lives.6 With people living longer with HIV, there is an increased chance of knowing someone with the virus, thus reducing the stigma originally associated with this disease. About one-third of American adults have a family member or know someone who has HIV/AIDS or has died from AIDS.7 Nearly 60 percent of African-Americans know someone who has tested positive for HIV or has died of AIDS compared with 38 percent of Whites and 37 percent of Latinos.8 The image of former athlete and businessman Irvin “Magic” Johnson living over twenty years with the virus is easing the social stigma. There is a decline in the stigma. However, in a CDC survey on attitudes toward HIV/AIDS, 36 percent of Americans surveyed are uncomfortable with having a roommate with HIV, 29 percent are uncomfortable allowing their child to be taught by an HIV-positive teacher, and 18 percent are uncomfortable with having a co-worker with HIV.9

HIV/AIDS is contracted through the exchange of fluids.10 It can be contracted through both heterosexual and homosexual intercourse, including certain lesbian sex.11 Unfortunately, the casualness with which HIV is now regarded may have contributed to the spread of the disease among women. Globally, women represent half of all people infected with HIV.12 Women contract HIV/AIDS primarily through heterosexual relations and, to a lesser degree, intravenous drug use.13 In 2009, women accounted for 23 percent of the 11,200 reported new HIV infections in the United States.14

8. Id. at 13.
9. Id. at 7.
10. See generally How is HIV Passed from One Person to Another?, HIV TRANSMISSION (March 25, 2010), http://www.cdc.gov/hlv/resources/qa/transmission.htm.
11. See generally id.
14. Id.
A. HIV/AIDS and African-American Women

Blacks represented only 14 percent of the American population but 44 percent of new HIV cases and 45 percent of AIDS diagnoses in 2009. Based on the most recent studies by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), at some point in their lifetimes one in thirty-two Black women will become infected with HIV, and one in sixteen Black men will be infected. In 2009, Black women accounted for about 31 percent of new HIV cases among Blacks while Black men accounted for the other 69 percent of new infections.

Women represent 38 percent of all AIDS cases involving heterosexual relations. However, while the level of new HIV infections among Black women has decreased, the rate of infection through heterosexual relationships has increased by 10 percent. In 2009, 85 percent of Black women who became infected with HIV did so through heterosexual relationships. Furthermore, Black females with a higher rate of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) have a greater chance of contracting HIV, as the presence of STIs indicates that a person has engaged in unprotected or high-risk sex.

Although HIV infection rates have stabilized in the Black community, infection rates among Black men who have sex with other men (MSM) demonstrated a significant increase from 2006 to 2009. Of the nearly 1.2 million Americans living with HIV, 46 percent are African-American. The rate of infection for Black men is about 6.5 times higher than White men. Over 116,000 African-Americans are unaware that they are infected with HIV. Testing services for HIV are widely available in the United States, yet one in five persons with HIV is undiagnosed.

Of new HIV infections, 69 percent are among Black men, and 52 percent of

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17. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, Thirty Years, supra note 2. Latinos represent 16 percent of the population and comprise 20 percent of the AIDS cases diagnosed in 2011. Id.
20. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15.
22. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15, at tbl.; BLACK AIDS INST., supra note 1, at 33.
24. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, FACT SHEET: HIV IN THE UNITED STATES (Nov. 2011).
25. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV AND AIDS AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15.
those infections are among men who have sex with other men (MSM). Thirty-one percent of the new infections in the Black community are Black women. HIV infection remains the leading cause of death for Black women 25–34 years of age and the third leading cause of death for Black women 35–44 years old. All women are affected by HIV/AIDS, though. HIV infection was the fifth leading cause of death for women of all race and ethnicities 25-34 years of age. In 2009, Black women were infected at a rate fifteen times higher than White women and three times that of Latinas. In 1992, women were about 14 percent of those living AIDS; by 2005, their number had increased to 23 percent. Black women represent over 64 percent of all American women living with HIV/AIDS. The rate of AIDS diagnosis for Black women is 23 times the rate for White women and four times the rate for Latinas. By the end of 2008, an estimated 240,627 African-Americans died of AIDS in the United States.

Intravenous drug use represents the second most common means of HIV transmission to women. The CDC reported that 26 percent of injection drug-related HIV/AIDS cases involve women. Drug use is also a vector for the transmission of other sexually transmitted infections, hepatitis, and tuberculosis. Moreover, chronic users of drugs are more susceptible to infectious illnesses.

Women are also at risk of contracting HIV from other women. One study reported a case of woman-to-woman HIV transmission of HIV. The lesbian

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27. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV AND AIDS AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15, at tbl; BLACK AIDS INST., supra note 1, at 33.
33. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV/AIDS SURVEILLANCE REPORT, supra note 32.
35. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, FACT SHEET: HIV AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15.
37. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, CASES OF HIV INFECTION AND AIDS IN THE UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENT AREAS (2007), tbl. 1.
41. Id.
women who contracted HIV in the study had no history of intravenous drug use, blood transfusions, body tattoos, body piercing, or heterosexual relationships. The study concluded that although the risk of HIV transmission from woman-to-woman is small, the possibility remains if there is bleeding during sex. This finding debunks the notion that woman-to-woman HIV transmission is impossible. Consequently, more research is needed to determine whether the rape of a female inmate perpetrated by an infected female would result in the transmission of HIV/AIDS.

There is a link between a woman’s high-risk sexual behavior and sexual abuse. Women who have experienced sexual abuse as children are more likely to be in abusive relationships as adults or form sexual relationships with multiple partners, which increases the chances of contracting HIV/AIDS. These women may be more likely to abuse drugs and alcohol as a coping mechanism. Women with a history of sexual abuse as children are also more likely to engage in high-risk behaviors such as drug abuse and criminal behavior, which could lead to incarceration and a subsequent increased risk of HIV transmission. Statutory rape and child sexual abuse have a devastating effect on the self-worth and life choices made by its victims. They have difficulty refusing unwanted sex and may be more likely to exchange sex for drugs or engage in high-risk sexual behavior with different partners.

B. Heterosexual Transmission of HIV

Men are infecting women. Although prostitution and injection drug use are behaviors found among some women with HIV (24 percent), heterosexual contact was the overwhelming means of HIV transmission (74 percent). Women are more susceptible than men to contracting HIV through vaginal intercourse. Although condom use is the primary method of HIV prevention after abstinence, statutory rape and other relationships of intimidation or coercion undermine a female partner’s ability to protect herself against contracting HIV. Such high-risk sexual behavior if started at an early age increases the chance of consistent high-risk behavior in adult life. One third of Black and Hispanic urban high school girls had their first sexual relationship

42. Id. at e40.
43. Id. at e41.
45. Id.
47. Id.
48. See generally id.
49. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, FACT SHEET: HIV AMONG WOMEN, supra note 33.
with a male three of more years their senior.\textsuperscript{52} A quarter of pregnant teen girls become pregnant by men over 18.\textsuperscript{53}

It is important to reach girls and young women before they become infected with STIs and HIV. Poverty, lack of formal education, and sexual abuse all increase the chances of engaging in high-risk behaviors, which in turn could lead to imprisonment and contraction of HIV/AIDS. These socioeconomic issues place a person at higher risk.

There are also women who may choose to have a relationship with an infected male partner. She does so willingly, voluntarily, and with an understanding of the risks. A woman who knows her male partner is infected can protect herself while engaging in a sexual relationship. In recent studies, condoms and pre-exposure antiretroviral prophylaxis have reduced, by 96 percent, the likelihood of an HIV-negative partner acquiring the virus from his or her HIV-positive partner.\textsuperscript{54} By reducing the infected person’s viral load with antiretroviral therapy, the ability to transmit the disease is reduced, as well.\textsuperscript{55} Clinical trials are continuing. HIV-negative people may be less likely to become infected if antiretroviral drugs are taken daily prior to sexual contact.\textsuperscript{56}

Yet, even with this promising medical news, the future is bleak because most African-American women are unaware of their male partner’s HIV status. In one study of males 23–29 years of age living with HIV who self-identify as MSM (men who have sex with other men), 34 percent of Black males, 26 percent of Latinos, and 13 percent of White males acknowledged also having sexual relations with women.\textsuperscript{57} In another study, 65 percent of young men reported having sex with other men, yet only 6 percent of Black women and 6 percent of Latinas reported being in bi-sexual relationships while 14 percent of White women reported being in bi-sexual relationships.\textsuperscript{58} A woman’s male partners may have unknowingly acquired the virus from other men, injection drugs use, or sex with an infected female partner. One in sixteen Black men and one in thirty-two Black women will be infected with HIV.\textsuperscript{59} The study did not indicate if the women surveyed believed they were in a monogamous heterosexual relationship, living together with their partner, or married.\textsuperscript{60}

The CDC action plan devised to reduce HIV in the Black community entails

\textsuperscript{52} Id.

\textsuperscript{53} See id.


\textsuperscript{55} T.C. Quinn et al., \textit{Viral Load and Heterosexual Transmission of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type I}, 342 NEW ENG. J. MED. 921, 921–29 (2000).

\textsuperscript{56} R.M. Grant et al., \textit{Preexposure Chemoprophylaxis for HIV Prevention in Men Who Have Sex with Men}, 363 NEW ENG. J. MED. 2587, 2587–99 (2010).


\textsuperscript{59} \textit{Centers for Disease Control & Prevention}, CDC FACT SHEET: HIV and AIDS among African Americans, \textit{supra} note 15.

\textsuperscript{60} Valleroy et al., \textit{supra} note 58.
1) regular testing, 2) timely antiretroviral therapy for those diagnosed with HIV, and 3) minimizing exposure to HIV through condom use. However, this action plan is beyond the reach of those incarcerated men who engage in MSM and are unable to access HIV testing. Since Black males are disproportionately represented in the correctional system, once released, these men become yet another way Black women become infected with HIV.

III. HIV/AIDS IN U.S. PRISONS AND JAILS

The need for testing upon release from correctional facilities is crucial to saving lives in the Black community and to reducing infection rates among Black women. However, testing for HIV is restricted in correctional facilities despite the prevalence of unprotected MSM, forced and voluntary sex, tattooing, and drug abuse. Without testing upon release from prison, all communities, and especially the Black community, will continue to experience disproportionate HIV infection rates. America incarcerates approximately 2.1 million individuals in its correctional facilities, prisons and jails. Black males, with an incarceration rate of 6,838 inmates per 100,000 U.S. males, were incarcerated at a rate more than six times higher than white males (990 inmates per 100,000 U.S. males) and 3.75 times higher than Hispanic males (1,822 inmates per 100,000 U.S. males). The overall incarceration rate in jails has decreased slightly (0.2 percent), while there is a corresponding increase of more than 3 percent in federal incarcerations.

From nearly five times the national average of confirmed AIDS cases in 1999, AIDS cases among the incarcerated declined from 0.58 percent to 0.46 percent, while the percentage of AIDS cases within the general population increased from 0.12 percent to 0.17 percent. The rate of HIV in correctional facilities—both jails and prisons—remains 2.4 times higher than the rate of infection in the U.S. general population. Although approximately 0.1 percent of women and 0.29 percent of men are living with HIV nationally, 2.4 percent of incarcerated women and 1.6 percent of incarcerated men are HIV-positive. According to a 2006 initiative at Riker’s Island in New York City that tested 68.9

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65. West, supra note 63.
68. HIV Surveillance, supra note 23.
69. Id. This includes inmates in custody of state and federal prison authorities and reported to be positive for the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or to have confirmed AIDS by gender in 2006. Id.
percent of those entering jail, 9.8 percent of women and 4.7 percent of men tested HIV-positive.\textsuperscript{70} When these results were adjusted to include those not among the 68.9 percent tested, total HIV prevalence among the incarcerated was estimated at 14 percent for females and 6.5 percent for males.\textsuperscript{71} Notably, the HIV infection rate in New York City’s jail is four times higher than the national average.\textsuperscript{72}

Among reporting states in 2007 and 2008, the number of incarcerated males with HIV/AIDS remained stable at 1.5 percent of the prison population.\textsuperscript{73} Over the same years, the number of HIV-positive female inmates decreased slightly from 2.1 percent to 1.9 percent.\textsuperscript{74} In New York State, however, more than 10 percent of females in custody are HIV-positive or have AIDS.\textsuperscript{75} Florida, New York, and Texas report the largest number of prisoners who are HIV-positive.\textsuperscript{76} Although these states account for only 24 percent of state prisoners nationally, 46 percent of incarcerated persons living with HIV or AIDS are in Florida, New York, and Texas.\textsuperscript{77} Florida has the largest number of female HIV-positive state prison inmates, followed by New York and Texas, respectively.\textsuperscript{78} California alone has experienced a marked increased rate of HIV infection among its incarcerated population, while HIV infection decreased in other state prisons.\textsuperscript{79}

Due to the high rates of infection among inmates, the Red Cross no longer accepts blood donations from people who have been held in a correctional facility, prison, jail, detention center, or halfway house for more than seventy-two consecutive hours.\textsuperscript{80} Given the prevalence of high-risk behavior among incarcerated or detained men, the Red Cross prohibits blood donations from any person who fits within the following eight categories:

1) have ever used needles to take drugs, steroids, or anything not prescribed by your doctor; 2) are a male who has had sexual contact with another male, even once, since 1977; 3) have ever taken money, drugs or other payment for sex since 1977; 4) have had sexual contact in the past 12 months with anyone described above; 5) received clotting factor concentrates for a bleeding disorder such as hemophilia; 6) were born in, or lived in, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Niger, or Nigeria, since 1977; 7) since 1977, received a blood transfusion or medical treatment with a blood product in any of these countries; or 8) had sex with anyone who, since 1977, was born in or

\textsuperscript{71} Id.
\textsuperscript{72} Id.
\textsuperscript{74} Id.
\textsuperscript{75} Id. at tbl. 1.
\textsuperscript{76} Id.
\textsuperscript{77} See MARUSCHAK, supra note 66, at tbl. 4.
\textsuperscript{78} Id. at tbl. 1.
\textsuperscript{79} Id.
\textsuperscript{80} Margaret Newkirk, Prison Inmates Can Bring AIDS Home When They Get Out, AKRON BEACON J., April 6, 2002, at A6.
lived in any of these countries.\textsuperscript{81}

The Red Cross list is based on factors placing one at risk for contracting HIV and therefore possibly donating contaminated blood. In Indiana, as in many states, intentionally donating contaminated blood is a felony.\textsuperscript{82}

Although AIDS-related deaths among the incarcerated population has decreased drastically, the death rate remains higher than among the general population.\textsuperscript{83} Of those incarcerated, the number of AIDS-related deaths is highest among incarcerated Blacks.\textsuperscript{84} In 2006, 114 Blacks, twenty-nine Whites, and twelve Hispanics died in state prisons due to AIDS-related illness.\textsuperscript{85} Of those 155 deaths, only seven were women.\textsuperscript{86} AIDS-related deaths are highest among inmates between the ages of 35–54.\textsuperscript{87}

Because sexual relationships are usually between people of the same race or ethnicity, Black women are therefore at an increased risk, and many Black women contract STIs and HIV through unprotected heterosexual relationships with infected Black men.\textsuperscript{88} The high incarceration rate of Black males has directly, or indirectly, led to an increase in the number of Black women infected with HIV.\textsuperscript{89} Indeed, the increase in the number of Black ex-inmates living with HIV/AIDS corresponds with the increase in the number of women, especially Black women, contracting HIV/AIDS through heterosexual relationships.\textsuperscript{90} Over 17 percent of the estimated 229,000 persons in the general public living with AIDS in the United States had some interaction with the correctional system.\textsuperscript{91} An estimated 98,500 to 145,500 HIV-positive inmates were released from prisons and jails in 1996, which represented 13–19 percent of all HIV-positive individuals in the United States that year.\textsuperscript{92}


82. \textit{Ind. Code} § 35-42-1-7 (1993). Titled “Transferring contaminated body fluids,” the statute sets forth that “A person who recklessly, knowingly, or intentionally donates, sells, or transfers blood, a blood component, or semen for artificial insemination (as defined in IC 16-41-14-2) that contains the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) commits transferring contaminated body fluids, a Class C felony.” \textit{Id.} at § 35-42-1-7(b). “However, the offense is a Class A felony if it results in the transmission of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) to any person other than the defendant.” \textit{Id.} at § 35-42-1-7(c).


84. \textit{Id.}

85. \textit{Bureau of Justice Statistics, HIV in Prisons, supra} note 66, at tbl. 7.

86. \textit{Id.}

87. \textit{Id.}


89. Newkirk, \textit{supra} note 80, at A6.


92. \textit{Id.} at x.
Male inmates may become infected through a number of different means while in prison. Some acquire the virus through voluntary or involuntary sexual relations with other male prisoners.93 The rape of incarcerated persons can lead to HIV infection, high-risk behavior, and emotional trauma affecting the inmate while incarcerated, as well as after release. The prevalence of rape in prison led to the enactment of the Prison Rape Elimination Act (PREA).94 The Act’s provisions include the establishment of a commission to study the issue of prison rape as well as the consequences for incarcerated persons.95 In 2011, the PREA estimated that 12 percent of youth in state juvenile facilities and large non-state facilities experienced one or more incidents of sexual victimization by another juvenile in the facility or by facility staff.96 Interestingly, 95 percent of youth in juvenile facilities reporting staff sexual misconduct cited female staff as the perpetrators.97 In 2008, 42 percent of the staff in state juvenile facilities was female.98 In adult facilities, 54 percent of substantiated incidents of sexual victimization involved other inmates while 46 percent of substantiated incidents involved staff members.99 One or more incidents of sexual victimization by another inmate or staff member within the past twelve months was reported by 4.4 percent of federal and state prisoners and 3.1 percent of jail inmates.100

Other inmates become infected through intravenous drug use employing contaminated needles101 that must be shared in prison because they are deemed contraband. Prison tattoos and body piercing also commonly involve contaminated needles, leading to the spread of HIV.102 Consequently, clean needles are not readily available, although homemade disinfectant is utilized when available.

An HIV-positive inmate may leave prison and return to, or begin, a heterosexual relationship without knowing his status. The male former inmate may be too ashamed to disclose a homosexual relationship that took place while incarcerated, especially if he was raped. In a study of 167 state and federal prisons, 286 local jails, and 10 special corrections facilities, a total of 81,566 inmates were interviewed about sexual victimization in prison.103 An estimated 4.4 percent of prison inmates and 3.1 percent of jail inmates reported having been the victim of one or more sexual attacks by either an inmate or guard.104 About 54 percent of substantiated sexual assaults involved only inmates; however, 46 percent involved staff members.105 Furthermore, the trauma of prison rape by a guard or by an inmate or detainee with the guard’s knowledge may prevent an

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93. Newkirk, supra note 80, at A6.
95. Id. at § 15606.
97. Id.
98. Id.
99. Id. at 2.
100. Id.
101. Id.
102. Id.
103. Id.
104. Id.
105. Id.
inmate from being tested for HIV while in prison or upon his release from prison. Consequently, any subsequent female partner, unaware of his earlier homosexual relationships, is less likely to protect herself.

The male former inmate in a heterosexual relationship may also be unaware of his HIV status, given uneven testing practices and the stigma surrounding testing. Although many inmates leave prison uninformed of their status, all federal offenders are tested upon entry.\textsuperscript{106} All inmates must have testing on demand while incarcerated and upon notice of release from the facility. Despite the demonstrated effectiveness of testing for HIV, which allows for effective treatment and reduces the unwitting spread of HIV, not every state prison provides these tests. Instead, each state can determine the extent of its HIV/AIDS testing.\textsuperscript{107} Consequently, the triggers for such testing, including imprisonment and release, vary widely from state to state.\textsuperscript{108}

During 2008, twenty-four states reported testing all inmates for HIV at entry or sometime during custody.\textsuperscript{109} Among these states, twenty-three tested upon entry, five tested while in custody, and six tested upon release.\textsuperscript{110} Compared to the preceding decade, when states tested only self-identified homosexuals and refused to test on demand without the stigma of admitting to a sexual encounter, states are progressing.\textsuperscript{111} In 2008, fifty states and the federal system tested incarcerated persons if they had HIV-related symptoms or requested a test.\textsuperscript{112} Forty-two states and federal prisons tested after incidents involving possible HIV transmission, whereas eighteen states and the federal system tested those in high-risk groups.\textsuperscript{113}

Once tested, most incarcerated persons are not re-tested for HIV/AIDS unless they are willing to admit to engaging in high-risk behavior or the institution judges re-testing prudent.\textsuperscript{114} Depending on the facility’s jurisdiction, an inmate who tests negative for HIV upon his entrance could contract the disease while in prison and be released without receiving another HIV test.\textsuperscript{115} Even if tested, medical research reveals that evidence of HIV infection may not show up on tests until several months after infection.\textsuperscript{116}

Men who have sex with men (MSM) may not identify as homosexual or bisexual but nonetheless engage in behavior that can lead to HIV transmission.\textsuperscript{117}

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106. \textsc{bureau of justice statistics, hiv in prisons, supra note 66.} \\
107. \textit{see hiv testing implementation guidance for correctional settings} (jan. 2009), available at \url{http://www.cdc.gov/hiv/topics/testing/resources/guidelines/correctional-settings/pdf/correctional-settings_guidelines.pdf}. \\
108. \textit{see generally id.} testing for hepatitis also varies based on the federal, state, or local jurisdiction. \textit{see generally id.} \\
109. \textit{id.} \\
110. \textit{id.} \\
111. \textit{id.} \\
112. \textit{id.} \\
113. \textit{id.} \\
114. \textit{id.} \\
115. \textit{see id.} \\
116. \textsc{hiv & aids health center, webmd, \url{http://www.webmd.com/hiv-aids/pregnancy-hiv-testing}} (last visited june 16, 2012). \\
117. \textsc{centers for disease control & prevention, hiv among african americans, supra} \\
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Men who have sex with men, typically without informing their women partners, are engaged in behavior commonly referred to as the “down low.” Unfortunately, a “down low” relationship could have taken place while incarcerated, where HIV prevalence is much greater than in the general community. As such, the secrecy surrounding a prior or ongoing sexual relationship with another man extends well beyond the former inmate.

The trauma of incarceration increases high-risk behavior after release. Being incarcerated in a prison, jail, or juvenile detention center leads to high-risk behaviors upon release, especially within twelve months of release from incarceration, that can result in contracting HIV. HIV risk-related behaviors include having more than five sexual partners, exchanging sex for money or drugs, injecting illicit drugs, contracting a STD from unprotected sex, and having a female partner who injected drugs. For males between 25–44 years of age who had been incarcerated in jail or prison, 27 percent reported at least one of these HIV high-risk behaviors within twelve months of release.

Males in heterosexual relationships with no history of incarceration are also increasingly becoming infected with HIV/AIDS through secret MSM liaisons. In 2009, Black MSM represented an estimated 73 percent of new infections among all Black men and 37 percent of new infections among all MSM. New infections among young Black MSM increased by 48 percent from 2006–2009. The women in heterosexual relationships with MSM may not be informed of their partner’s high-risk sexual liaisons or drug use. Hence, women are contracting HIV/AIDS from males who maintain heterosexual relationships while participating in MSM relationships.

IV. THE U.S. CONSTITUTION, WOMEN INMATES, AND MEDICAL CARE

Adequate medical care has prolonged the life of inmates living with HIV and AIDS. For example, AIDS-related deaths decreased from 32 percent of all deaths in state prisons in 1995 to 6 percent in 2000. Similarly, during 2006, twelve federal inmates died from AIDS-related causes, down from twenty-seven federal inmates in 2005. As noted previously, medical professionals serving

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note 15.

119. Id.
120. Id.
121. Id.
122. Id.
123. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV AMONG AFRICAN AMERICANS, supra note 15.
124. Id.
125. Id.
126. See generally id.
private and public patients began reducing the number of AIDS-related deaths with medical intervention such as antiretroviral therapies. Although the numbers have decreased over time, AIDS-related deaths remain higher in the prison population than in the general population.

Inmates are dependent upon the correctional system for their medical needs. Current medical problems among prisoners include arthritis, asthma, cancer, diabetes, heart problems, HIV, hypertension, kidney problems, paralysis, stroke, hepatitis, and tuberculosis. More than half of female and male inmates reported a current medical problem. Among prison inmates admitted to state prisons, 15.9 percent reported fight-related injuries while 8.3 percent of federal prison inmates reported such injuries.

Although the number of incarcerated persons with HIV is decreasing in certain jurisdictions, the cost of caring for prisoners with HIV/AIDS is high and growing. One study estimates the cost of lifetime treatment for a person with HIV at $155,000. The impact of caring for prisoners with HIV/AIDS on a prison budget is further strained by increase in the prison population and the national austerity plans state and federal lawmakers are forced to implement. In Maryland, half of the correctional system’s entire budget for pharmaceuticals goes toward HIV treatment. Maryland’s prison health care budget is approximately $61 million.

Every new HIV infection represents substantial economic liability for the correctional facility as well as public benefits or private insurance upon an inmate’s release. The lifetime costs for treating an individual person living with HIV, in the private sector, is over $618,000. However, because providing medical care to prisoners with HIV and AIDS is a constitutional, statutory, and judicial responsibility, the lack of funds or high costs does not excuse failure to provide adequate medical care. Once released from a correctional facility, the formerly incarcerated are assisted in some states, such as New York, in

129. See Cohen et al., supra note 54; Quinn et al, supra note 55; Grant et al., supra note 56.
132. MARUSCHAK, MEDICAL PROBLEMS OF JAIL INMATES, supra note 131, at 2.
133. Id. at tbl. 6.
135. Id.
136. Id.
138. Harris v. Thigpen, 941 F.2d 1495, 1509 (11th Cir. 1991) (stating: “We are aware that systemic deficiencies in medical care may be related to a lack of funds allocated to prisons by the state legislature. Such a lack, however, will not excuse the failure of correctional systems to maintain a certain minimum level of medical service necessary to avoid the imposition of cruel and unusual punishment”).
connecting with the social services needed to maintain medical treatment. 139

Ironically, once released, most formerly incarcerated persons are unable to receive medical care using private insurance because their HIV status is deemed a pre-existing condition. 140 If upheld as constitutional, the Affordable Care Act will allow anyone with a pre-existing condition to receive medical insurance. 141

A prisoner’s safety and welfare is the responsibility of the correctional facility where she is housed. In Estelle v. Gamble the Supreme Court held that the state has an affirmative duty to provide medical care vis-à-vis the limitations placed on an incarcerated individual which prevent her from providing for her own medical needs. 142 The Court stated that failure to comply with this duty constitutes cruel and unusual punishment, thus violating the Eighth Amendment of the United States Constitution. 143

In DeShaney v. Winnebago County Department of Social Services, the Supreme Court reiterated that a person in custody must have her medical needs met by the government:

[W]hen the State takes a person into its custody and holds him there against his will, the Constitution imposes upon it a corresponding duty to assume some responsibility for his safety and general well-being. . . . The rationale for this principle is simple enough: when the State by the affirmative exercise of its power so restrains an individual’s liberty that it renders him unable to care for himself, and at the same time fails to provide for his basic human needs—e.g., food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and reasonable safety—it transgresses the substantive limits on state action set by the Eighth Amendment. 144

In DeShaney, a child under the “observation” of social services presented physical evidence of abuse but remained in his father’s home until he was beaten


141. See INCREASING ACCESS TO AFFORDABLE CARE: PROVIDING ACCESS TO INSURANCE FOR UNINSURED AMERICANS WITH PRE-EXISTING CONDITIONS, healthcare.gov (last visited June 17, 2012).

142. Estelle v. Gamble, 429 U.S. 97, 103–04 (1976). See also Harris, 941 F.2d 1495 (stating: “Federal and state governments . . . have a constitutional obligation to provide minimally adequate medical care to those whom they are punishing by incarceration”); Wellman v. Faulkner, 715 F.2d 269, 271 (7th Cir. 1983) (stating: “When a state imposes imprisonment as a punishment for crime, it accepts the obligation to provide persons in its custody with a medical care system that meets minimal standards of adequacy”).

143. Estelle, 429 U.S. at 104. The Eighth Amendment states that “[e]xcessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishment inflicted.” U.S. CONST. amend. VIII. This obligation is applicable to the states through the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. See U.S. CONST. amend. XIV §1. Notably, the Eighth Amendment has been given a more restricted interpretation by the present U.S. Supreme Court than by earlier Courts. Martin A. Greer, Human Rights and Wrongs in Our Own Backyard: Incorporating International Human Rights Protections Under Domestic Civil Rights Law—A Case Study of Women in United States Prisons, 13 HARV. HUM. RTS. J. 71, 94 (2000). Similarly, federal prison policies follow a more restricted interpretation of cruel and unusual punishment. See id. at 90–91. However, some state courts interpret these protections more broadly, providing prisoners with protection from cruel or unusual punishment. Id. at 96.

unconscious and suffered irreversible brain damage. The Court did not uphold liability on the part of the state social services agency because the child was not in state custody at the time of the incident.

The U.S. Constitution thus protects an inmate’s right to basic medical care. An Eighth Amendment violation takes place if prison officials act with “deliberate indifference” to the medical needs of a person in custody. Deliberate indifference has both an objective and subjective component. First, deliberate indifference occurs when administrators are made aware of the inmate’s medical condition and refuse to provide adequate medical care. Second, the deliberate indifference standard requires a “sufficiently serious” deprivation. Hence, an inmate’s dissatisfaction with her medical care is not the determining factor in the court’s decision. However, medical needs may be compromised to the point of a constitutional violation when prison officials fail to provide trained medical personnel. Unfortunately, prisons for women have historically lacked adequately staffed hospitals. For instance, a class action complaint against the Bedford Hills Correctional Facility in New York highlighted the poor medical conditions for women at the prison, including the prison’s failure to have a single physical on permanent duty. Conversely, inmates have a constitutional right to refuse health care.

Incarcerated persons living with HIV/AIDS have unique medical needs. With regard to psychological impairments, prisons have only a limited legal obligation to provide inmates with medical attention. According to , the psychological condition must be of a serious medical nature. In , the Eleventh Circuit held that failure to treat HIV-related depression did not constitute a sufficiently serious medical problem. However, the court

145. Id. at 191–92.
146. Id. at 197–99.
147. Estelle, 429 U.S. at 103–05. In Estelle, the Court held that “deliberate indifference to serious medical needs of prisoners constitutes the ‘unnecessary and wanton infliction of pain,’ . . . whether the indifference is manifested by prison doctors in their response to the prisoner’s needs or by prison guards in intentionally denying or delaying access to medical care or intentionally interfering with the treatment once prescribed.” Id. at 104–05.
149. FRED COHEN, THE MENTALLY DISORDERED INMATE AND THE LAW 4-3 (2d ed. 2008).
150. Wilson, 501 U.S. at 298.
151. COHEN, supra note 149, at 14-1.
153. See Cruzan v. Dir., Missouri Dep’t of Health, 497 U.S. 261 (1990). “[A] competent person has a constitutionally protected liberty interest in refusing unwanted medical treatment.” Id. at 278. However, “determining that a person has a liberty interest under the Due Process Clause does not end the inquiry; whether respondent’s constitutional rights have been violated must be determined by balancing his liberty interests against the relevant state interests.” Id. at 279 (internal quotation marks omitted).
154. While the constitutional standard of deliberate indifference still applies, it is only for “severe” mental illness, which is defined as one “that has caused significant disruption in an inmate’s everyday life and which prevents his functioning in the general population without disturbing or endangering others or himself.” Tillery v. Owens, 719 F. Supp. 1256, 1286 (W.D. Pa. 1989), aff’d, 907 F.2d 418 (3rd Cir. 1990). See Harris v. Thigpen, 941 F.2d. 1495, 1511 (11th Cir. 1991).
155. Harris, 941 F.2d at 1511.
156. Id. Nevertheless, the court reaffirmed that “prisoners are guaranteed the right under the
acknowledged that a prison’s failure to respond “to specific psychiatric disorders and conditions that accompany the presence of HIV infection, such as AIDS-related dementia, could constitute” an Eighth Amendment violation.\(^\text{157}\) AIDS dementia complex is a serious neuropsychological disorder that likely qualifies as a significant medical need under Eighth Amendment jurisprudence, particularly at later stages of the disorder.\(^\text{158}\) As such, AIDS dementia complex may meet the \textit{Harris} standard as a sufficiently serious medical condition.

HIV-positive prisoners also have statutory rights to protect them against discrimination while imprisoned. The Supreme Court has held that the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) encompasses state prisons;\(^\text{159}\) thus, prisoners with HIV/AIDS are covered by the ADA.\(^\text{160}\) Consequently, prisoners who qualify for prison programs cannot be discriminated against due to their medical condition.\(^\text{161}\)

The courts are divided over whether prisoners with HIV/AIDS enjoy a right to privacy.\(^\text{162}\) For instance, the Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit has held that a prison official did not violate a clearly established right when he revealed an inmate’s HIV-status to another prisoner in order to safeguard him from infection.\(^\text{163}\) However, the court indicated that the prison could not refuse haircuts and social activities as a means of “punishing” a prisoner for HIV status.\(^\text{164}\)

**V. CHANGING THE IMPACT OF HIV/AIDS ON THE BLACK COMMUNITY**

Black female former inmates living with HIV/AIDS face special obstacles. Most ex-inmates, male and female, lack adequate job preparation, formal education, and support networks.\(^\text{165}\) Without health insurance, an HIV-infected

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\[^{157}\] Harris, 941 F.2d. at 1511.

\[^{158}\] Mayer, supra note 15, at 254.

\[^{159}\] Pennsylvania Dep’t of Corrections v. Yeskey, 524 U.S. 206, 213 (1998) (holding that the language of ADA Title II unambiguously applies to state prisons).

\[^{160}\] Bragdon v. Abbott, 524 U.S. 624, 641 (1998) (holding that plaintiff’s HIV was a disability under the ADA). However, the Court did not address whether HIV is a per se disability under the ADA. \textit{Id.} at 641–42. See also \textit{John W. Palmer, Constitutional Rights of Prisoners} 257 (8th ed. 2006).


\[^{163}\] Anderson v. Romero, 72 F.3d 518, 523–24 (7th Cir. 1995). However, the court’s decision was based on the doctrine of official immunity, not a motivation to safeguard inmates from infection. \textit{Id.}

\[^{164}\] The court did note, however, that a prisoner does not have a “right to conceal his HIV status” largely because HIV is a communicable disease and that the law does not clearly hold that “a prison cannot without violating the constitutional rights of HIV-positive inmates reveal their condition . . . in order to enable . . . other inmates and . . . guards to protect themselves from infection.” \textit{Id.} at 524.

\[^{165}\] \textit{Id.} at 526 (distinguishing between warning prisoners of an inmate’s HIV status and “punishing” a prisoner for HIV status by refusing haircuts or outdoor exercise).

former inmate must rely on governmental services. In turn, her health status may interfere with her ability to obtain employment or prevent her from working altogether. Former inmates also carry the social stigma of incarceration. Black female ex-inmates living with HIV/AIDS must handle all of these challenges in addition to family care issues, gender discrimination, and racial bias. Too often these factors result in a downward spiral leading to recidivism.

The prevalence of HIV/AIDS, as well as hepatitis and tuberculosis, among Black women and men is devastating the Black community. In 1999, half of all men diagnosed with HIV and almost two-thirds of all women with AIDS were African American. African American children represent 54 percent of all reported pediatric AIDS cases. The majority of Black families are led by a single female parent. In 2012, with AIDS and HIV remaining a leading cause of death in the Black community, significant changes in governmental policies are needed.

VI. MECHANISMS FOR CHANGE

A. Saving Lives Through Mandated Testing and Reporting

Protecting public health and, in particular, the lives of Black females from HIV/AIDS requires breaching certain privacy assumptions. HIV is a public health emergency. It has been pronounced an epidemic by most and a pandemic by many. In most states, there are mechanisms to contain life threatening communicable diseases such as syphilis and tuberculosis. Procedures for testing, contacting possible partners, and delivering medical treatment are established and implemented under state law. Since voluntary HIV testing has proven ineffective, medical professionals should be required, by law, to test anyone presenting for medical treatment who demonstrates high-risk behavior. In New Jersey, for example, certain medical professionals are required by law to follow procedures if presented with someone who appears to have tuberculosis. The list of required personal includes those in correctional

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166. See Mayer, supra note 15, at 219–221 (discussing challenges faced by HIV-positive women and HIV-positive women inmates, including unique family responsibilities and stigmatization, and their impact on women’s mental health).


169. CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL & PREVENTION, HIV/AIDS SURVEILLANCE REPORT (June 2000), tbl. 15.


171. See generally N.J. ADMIN. CODE §§8:57-5.1–.18 (2011) (providing guidelines and procedures for the management of communicable diseases and, in this subchapter, for tuberculosis in particular).

172. Id.

173. Id.
facility administrators. 174

Medical professionals in correctional facilities are not currently required to inform partners of an inmate’s HIV or AIDS diagnosis. In New York, for example, physicians in correctional facilities are required to follow the same reporting procedures as private physicians. They must complete a “Medical Provider HIV/AIDS and Partner/Contact Report Form” (PRF) on all newly diagnosed patients and submit it to the New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene “upon initial determination that a person is infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), or (b) upon initial diagnosis that a person is afflicted with the disease known as acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS), or (c) upon initial diagnosis that a person is afflicted with HIV related illness.” 175

Requirements for physicians to report are the same whether they are working in a correctional setting or in a community or private medical office. Reporting of suspected or confirmed communicable diseases is mandated under the New York State Sanitary Code. 176 The primary responsibility for reporting rests with the physician; moreover, laboratories, school nurses, day care center directors, nursing homes or hospitals, and state institutions or other locations providing health services must report. Certain diseases, like tuberculosis and syphilis, warrant prompt action and are to be reported immediately to the local health department by phone, followed by submission of the confidential case report form (in NYC, form PD-16). 183

However, for tuberculosis, medical providers and infection control practitioners are required by the New York City Health Code to report all patients suspected and confirmed with tuberculosis (TB) to the New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene (DOHMH), Bureau of Tuberculosis Control, within twenty-four hours of diagnosis or clinical suspicion. 184 Medical providers must report these patients even though microbiologists and pathologists are also required to report findings consistent with TB. 185 Note that the reports must be received by the DOHMH within twenty-four hours, whether

174. Id. Those primarily responsible for implementing this subchapter are health officers, public health nurse case managers, health care providers, hospital administrators, and correctional facility administration. Id. The subchapter provide that “[h]ealth officers in areas where a person with suspected or confirmed infectious or potentially infectious TB disease resides, frequents, or receives care, may take any action authorized under this subchapter when necessary to protect the health of the person with disease and/or the public.” Id. at §§8:57-5.1.

175. N.Y. PUB. HEALTH LAW § 2130 (2000).


177. Id. at § 2.10.

178. Id. at § 2.12.

179. Id. at § 2.12.

180. Id. at § 405.3(d).

181. Id. at § 2.10(a).

182. Id. at § 2.12.


185. Id. at §§ 11.03, 11.05, 11.21.
by express or overnight mail, fax, telephone, or electronically.  

Partners and others who could have become infected with TB are contacted by law.  

However, those persons diagnosed with HIV or AIDS and their physicians do not have mandated partner notification. The New York State Public Health Law only requires that providers talk with HIV-infected individuals about their options for informing sexual and needle-sharing partners that they may have exposed to HIV, and the Contact Notification Assistance Program (CNAP) of the New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene provides assistance to HIV-positive individuals and to providers who would like help notifying partners. The New York States Public Health Law articulates all of the privacy afforded to HIV positive patients in addition to what is covered under HIPAA.  

Although an inmate is informed of his status upon entering the facility, the partner of an incarcerated person could be infected for years before realizing their health has been compromised. Under current law and policy, the sexual partner of any infected person must rely totally on the moral conscience of the infected person to divulge their HIV status. His privacy outweighs her health, giving rise to a pandemic in the Black community.  

If a person tests positive for HIV, then relevant information, similar to the forms required with a positive tuberculosis test, should be completed and immediately provided to the Public Health Office. The office should obtain the names and possible location or address of the person’s sexual contacts. Those contacts must be informed of a possible HIV transmission and the need to be tested. In this way, medical treatment can begin immediately. Unlike with tuberculosis, the patient will not be quarantined and forced to undergo medical treatment. However, treatment will be strongly encouraged. Correctional facilities must be required to follow a similar procedure. Partners and sexual contacts both inside and outside the facility should be contacted, especially if conjugal visits are permitted.  

While the United States Constitution does not explicitly articulate a right to privacy, the Supreme Court “has recognized that a right of personal privacy, or a guarantee of certain areas or zones of privacy, does exist under the Constitution.” Similarly, the Federal Rules of Evidence recognize certain privileged relationships. Hence, a prison physician is not permitted to disclose the patient’s medical information without the patient’s express permission.  

Social stigma is associated with tuberculosis and syphilis. Yet, with tuberculosis, the public health concerns are deemed to outweigh the privacy

186.  Id. at §§ 11.03, 11.05, 11.21.  
190.  Roe v. Wade, 410 U.S. 113, 152(1973) (acknowledging that the United States Constitution “does not explicitly mention any right of privacy” but citing a line of Supreme Court decisions recognizing this right).  
191.  FED. R. EVID. 501.  
192.  See generally id.
objections. Since the societal stigma associated with HIV/AIDS has lessened somewhat, the over-riding privacy concerns should be re-evaluated. The law recognizes that intentionally infecting a person with HIV is a crime. Under government policy, a person living with HIV/AIDS is not required to inform his/her sexual partner, yet there are laws under which one intentionally infecting another person with HIV/AIDS may be charged with assault, sexual felony, or possibly attempted murder. The concern is maintaining a balance between privacy rights and the protection of innocent women and men. International organizations seek to prevent the criminalization of HIV. However, encouraging infected people to reveal their status to sexual partners has not kept pace with infection rates.

While not legally required, an individual living with HIV/AIDS should feel a moral duty to inform his or her partner of their health status. However, 70 percent of the partners of HIV-positive individuals have not been informed of their partner’s health status. Many women are consequently left unaware of their partner’s HIV status until they are diagnosed.

Most states allow individuals with HIV/AIDS to determine if and when they wish to inform their partners. However, required reporting is necessary given the very low rate of voluntary self-reporting and possible criminal action for intentionally infecting a sexual partner.

Just as prison officials have a legal duty to protect the inmates in their care, this duty should extend to the partner of the inmate. When an inmate tests positive for HIV, prison officials should act under the same statutes that govern private physicians and medical staff at the health centers. Both mandatory HIV/AIDS testing within prisons and mandatory reporting of test results to partners have been resisted by organizations such as the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) National Prison Project.

B. Women and Girls Need Public Awareness Regarding MSM

The CDC has initiated high impact prevention programs in the Black community. The CDC’s Act Against AIDS campaign delivers culturally

193. See generally MICH. COMP. LAWS § 333.5210 (2009) (stating: (1) A person who knows that he or she has or has been diagnosed as having acquired immunodeficiency syndrome or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome related complex, or who knows that he or she is HIV infected, and who engages in sexual penetration with another person without having first informed the other person that he or she has acquired immunodeficiency syndrome or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome related complex or is HIV infected, is guilty of a felony. (2) As used in this section, “sexual penetration” means sexual intercourse, cunnilingus, fellatio, anal intercourse, or any other intrusion, however slight, of any part of a person’s body or of any object into the genital or anal openings of another person’s body, but emission of semen is not required.).


196. Id. at 1234–36.

appropriate messages about HIV infection. Expanding Testing Initiative (ETI) is a testing program for Blacks and Latinos. However, any effective public service campaign on HIV prevention needs to address MSM from all perspectives. The current billboards are directed at educating young Black males. However, Black women between 19–44 who are dying from AIDS contracted through heterosexual relationships are being ignored. MSM is a sensitive and controversial issue. Handled poorly, such a campaign could cause harm. However, Black women’s lives are at stake. “Young Men of Color Who Have Sex with Men (YMCWSM)” and “Young Transgender Persons of Color” focus prevention on these at-risk groups. “Willow” emphasizes gender pride among HIV-positive Black women. “Sister to Sister” provides health information that is culturally sensitive. “Nia” educates heterosexual men about HIV/AIDS. “Defend Yourself!” and “Many Men, Many Voices” “address social, cultural, and religious norms, promote condom use, and assist Black MSM in recognizing and handling HIV risk-related racial and sexual bias.”

The rising number of women with HIV speaks to the importance of public safety information that focuses on limiting the spread of HIV from Black men to Black women. Advertisements and public safety information must continue to address avoidance of high-risk behavior. However, public service announcements must also address how women can better protect themselves in heterosexual relationships. Despite the acknowledged prevalence of MSM, public service information has not addressed this sensitive, but crucial, issue of public safety. The need to reach the “down-low” phenomenon is critical to saving the lives of Black women and girls.

Girls are becoming infected through statutory rape, or illegal sexual encounters, with infected men. Statutory rape is a crime. Statutory rape is defined as sexual relations between persons deemed by state law to be unable to make their own decisions about sex. Public information should address

201. See LEADING CAUSES OF DEATH, supra note 29.
207. HIV PREVENTION STRATEGIC PLAN THROUGH 2005, supra note 134.
statutory rape as a crime and include sex education and STI as well as HIV prevention classes. Young girls are contracting STIs from older teens or grown men, indicating unprotected high-risk sex. While 50 percent of Black teenage girls have a STI, only 20 percent of White teen girls have a STI. These numbers are unacceptable for either group.

The increasing acceptance of homosexual relationships and gay marriage has led to increased public service information directed at the gay community. Public service announcements must honestly depict how male and female inmates can become infected, especially given the infection of women in heterosexual relationships. Public service announcements are especially needed in light of the reduced vigilance around HIV transmission that has resulted, in part, from the longevity of Magic Johnson’s illness. HIV/AIDS now appears to be just another disease that can be maintained with appropriate medical advice and prescriptions. However, there are grave concerns within the medical community that attempts to alleviate stigma of HIV may have undermined the work of prevention. There is no cure for this preventable disease, and unlike cancer or diabetes, it is communicable to others.

C. Improve Health Conditions in Correctional Facilities

The level of medical care, education, and preventive services afforded inmates in America’s prisons and jails has largely improved in the last ten years. Rikers Island jail in New York City has developed aggressive education programs, health care, testing, and follow-up care in the community upon release. Over 90 percent of HIV-positive inmates serving sentences at Rikers Correctional Facility are released with a healthcare plan. Unfortunately, the economic obstacles facing most city and state budgets mean correctional facilities must reduce funding and personnel budgets for these new post-release healthcare initiatives. These budgetary reductions must take into consideration the legal obligations placed on each state to provide adequate medical care to inmates.

In July 2010, the Obama Administration released the National HIV/AIDS Strategy, a comprehensive roadmap for reducing the impact of HIV. Setting targets for HIV prevention, this initiative seeks to lower the number of infections, increase the status rate (people who know of their infection) to 90 percent of the infected population, reduce the HIV transmission rate by 30 percent, increase the percentage of newly diagnosed individuals in care, and increase by 20 percent the detectable viral loads among gays, bisexuals, Blacks, and Latinos infected


212. Id.
with HIV who have undetectable viral loads. \(^{213}\) In July 2012, the United States hosted the twenty-ninth International AIDS Conference in Washington, D.C. \(^{214}\) It was the first time in decades that the United States hosted the conference. \(^{215}\) Issues related to the infection rates among women as well as prison populations were examined from an international perspective. \(^{216}\)

Worldwide, prisons are virulent environments for spreading communicable, debilitating diseases. In America, too many prisons and jails have only rudimentary educational programs on HIV/AIDS and STIs. More materials must be provided to soon-to-be-released inmates about the spread of HIV/AIDS, hepatitis, and STIs. The future impact of the prison health crisis on the civilian population is tremendous.

Ultimately, the rate of HIV/AIDS infection among women is a litmus test. The methods of contracting the disease have evolved with the circumstances. The outside community must become better informed about the health crisis fomenting within prisons and jails. The general public needs to make the connection between the conditions within prisons and the spread of disease outside of prisons. Once that important connection is made, the fight against the spread of HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases will improve radically.

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215. Id.
216. Id.