Relationship between awareness of cervical cancer and HPV infection and attitudes towards HPV vaccine among women aged 15-49 years: a cross-sectional study

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INTRODUCTION

Although the incidence of cervical cancer has decreased in developed countries over recent decades through effective screening programs, it continues to be an important health problem, especially in developing countries. With 569,847 new cases and 311,365 deaths worldwide in 2018, cervical cancer is expected to be the fourth most common type of cancer and the fourth leading cause of cancer death among women. Out of these deaths, 90% occur in underdeveloped or developing countries. In 2018, 2,356 new cases and 1,280 deaths related to cervical cancer were seen in Turkey.¹

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is the most common sexually transmitted infection.² It has been estimated that the lifetime probability of acquiring HPV exceeds 80% among women and 90% among men.³ Different groups of HPV's exist, with different epithelial tropisms (cutaneous and mucosal) and life-cycle strategies. Many HPV's are classified as low risk (lrHPV) because they are very rarely associated with neoplasia or cancer in the general population. These lrHPVs typically cause indeterminate/undetectable infections or benign papillomas that can last for months or years but are eventually cleared by the host's immune system. High-risk HPV (hrHPV) types are the cause of many major human cancers, including almost all cases of cervical cancer, a large proportion of other anogenital cancers and an increasing number of head and neck tumors.⁴ HPV infections can be temporary or permanent. Most cervical HPV infections (around 90%) are cleared by cell-mediated immunity within one to two years of exposure. In lrHPV infections, clearance occurs within a shorter period than in hrHPV infections. Among all HPV infections, 5%-10% cause persistent disease.⁵

Cervical cancer has a long preinvasive period due to lesions associated with persistent hrHPV infection. Early diagnosis of these preinvasive lesions using screening methods (HPV DNA tests,
cervical cytological tests, etc.), effective treatment of these lesions and administration of HPV vaccines can prevent this disease. Most cases of cervical cancer occur in women who have never been screened or were screened poorly.4,5

HPV vaccination has the potential to greatly reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with genital HPV infections and is recommended by the American Society of Obstetrics and Gynecology (ACOG) for all women and men aged 9-26 years.6 As cervical cancer has a long preinvasive period, it can be diagnosed and treated early by means of the screening programs that have been developed. For this reason, evaluating society’s attitudes and beliefs about cervical cancer and HPV vaccine and increasing the level of knowledge are important in terms of preventive medical practices.

Greater awareness among sexually active women aged 15-49 years regarding cervical cancer will decrease the rate of occurrence of this disease and increase the levels of knowledge about HPV vaccines and the vaccination rate.5–10

OBJECTIVE
The aim of this study was to determine the relationships between knowledge of cervical cancer, awareness of HPV infection and attitudes towards HPV vaccines among women aged 15-49 years.

METHODS
Research type and sampling
This cross-sectional study was planned with the aim of determining the levels of knowledge about HPV and cervical cancer, levels of knowledge regarding preventive measures, health-related beliefs and awareness about HPV vaccines among women aged 15-49 years. The study population comprised women (28,356 women) within this age group who were living in the province of Karabük, Turkey.11 However, the sample used in this study comprised 500 women, as calculated through G-power analysis with a 95% confidence interval and 5% margin of error, assuming 75.2% prevalence. Data were collected at the gynecology and diseases outpatient clinic of a public hospital between July 15 and December 31, 2019.

Data collection tools
To collect data, a questionnaire on sociodemographic characteristics comprising nine questions was prepared in line with the literature by the researchers. In addition, the HPV and Cervical Cancer Awareness Questionnaire and the Carolina HPV Immunization Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (CHIAS) were used. (12,13) Permission for this study was obtained from the Bülent Ecevit University Human Research Ethics Committee (dated June 27, 2019; approval no. 600) and from the institute at which this research was conducted. After obtaining permission from the women who agreed to participate in the study, data were collected through face-to-face interviews. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Evaluation of data
The statistical analysis for this study was done with the aid of the SPSS 20 computer software (SPSS, Chicago, United States). Given that the skewness and kurtosis values of the data remained within the +2.0/-2.0 range limit, the data were considered to follow normal distribution.14 Computer-assisted data analysis was used for the basic evaluation (correlations and frequencies) on the study data. We found that relationships between pairs of scales were explained through first-order factor analysis. A computer-assisted analysis program was used for factor analysis. Pearson’s correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships between scales and subdimensions.15 The data obtained were evaluated with a 95% confidence interval and a significance level of P < 0.05.

RESULTS
The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection was determined as 0.91 by Ingledue.12

In the validity-reliability study for use of this awareness scale in Turkish, conducted by Özdemir and Kisa, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was 0.71.16 In our study, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection was 0.81. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the CHIAS was determined by McRee et al.17 Accordingly, the alpha values for “harm”, “obstacles”, “effects” and “uncertainty” were 0.69, 0.69, 0.61 and 0.66, respectively.17 Cronbach’s alpha was 0.62 in the validity-reliability study for use of the Carolina HPV Immunization Attitudes and Beliefs Scale in Turkish, conducted by Sunar and Süt.18 In our study, the Cronbach’s alpha of the CHIAS was 0.80; the alpha values for the subdimensions “harm”, “obstacles”, “effects” and “uncertainty” were 0.73, 0.75, 0.74 and 0.70, respectively.

The sociodemographic characteristics of the women participating in the study (n = 500) are shown in Table 1. The mean age of the participants was 23.52 ± 5.656 years, and the mean number of sexual partners was 0.22 ± 0.529. Among these women, 78.6% were high school graduates (n = 393), 79% were single (n = 395) and 50.6% (n = 253) had a monthly income of between 0 and 500 Turkish lira (approximately 0 to 70.32 United States dollars). In addition, 63.6% (n = 318) had health insurance from the Turkish Social Insurance Institution (SGK) and 95% (n = 485) had not reached the menopause (Table 1).

Levels of knowledge regarding HPV and cervical cancer
The mean knowledge score from the first 15 questions on the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection was 4.69 ±
4.02. More than half of the women provided incorrect answers to the information questions about cervical cancer and HPV infection in the first section. At the same time, the mean knowledge scores were also low.

**The perceived threat due to cervical cancer**

Regarding the perceived threat due to cervical cancer, perceived sensitivity and severity scores, which are subdimensions of health beliefs, were evaluated. The subdimension score for perceived sensitivity was determined to be a maximum of 45.12,16

**Perceived sensitivity**

The mean perceived sensitivity score in our study was 25.32 ± 6.38. Among the participants, 50% were worried about getting cervical cancer and HPV. Conversely, 50% of the women stated that they did not have any information about prevention of cervical cancer and the measures to be taken against HPV infection.

**Perceived severity**

Similarly, the mean perceived severity score was 17.74 ± 4.03. The perceived severity scores of the participants ranged from 6 to 30 points. Among the women, 41.2% saw HPV infection as a life-threatening disease, whereas 38.2% saw cervical cancer as a curable disease.

For each item derived from the previous versions of the CHIAS, the expressions were changed to reflect the perspective of a young adult rather than a parental perspective. In this process, the sentence format used by Dempsey et al. was taken as an example.19 The subdimension scores of the CHIAS were as follows: harm = 13.8 ± 3.37; obstacles = 8.53 ± 1.97; effects = 4.61 ± 1.30; and uncertainty = 4.42 ± 21.22.

In our study, the relationships between the subdimensions of the HPV and cervical cancer awareness questionnaire and those of the CHIAS were explained through simple effect modeling from a structural equation model (SEM). The adaptation values were as follows: minimum discrepancy (CMIN) = 34.911; degrees of freedom (df) = 13; minimum discrepancy/degrees of freedom ratio (CMIN/df) = 2.685; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.058; comparative fix index (CFI) = 0.938; and goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = 0.981. Because CMIN/df was not within the required limits, correction indices were examined.

The “effects” subdimension of CHIAS provided a correction in accordance with the modification index, with the item of levels of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV: the F1 and F2 dimensions.

The analysis was repeated by removing the “effects” subdimension item from the model. Then, the adaptation values were as follows: CMIN = 8.617; df = 8; CMIN/df = 1.077; RMSEA = 0.012; CFI = 0.998; and GFI = 0.994. All of the adaptation criteria were thus met within the desired limits.

The nonstandard path coefficient of F2 was 0.152, and this was statistically significant (P < 0.001). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.249. The nonstandard path coefficient of the perceived severity subdimension was 1, and this was statistically significant (p < 0.001). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.851. The nonstandard path coefficient of the perceived sensitivity subdimension was 1.366, and this was statistically significant (P < 0.001). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.736.

The nonstandard path coefficient of the “harm” subdimension was 1, and this was statistically significant (P < 0.001). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.62. The nonstandard path coefficient of the “obstacles” subdimension was 0.336, and this was statistically significant (P < 0.001). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.357.

**Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of the women participating in the study (n = 500)**

| Age in years | n (%) | Education level | n (%) | Marital status | n (%) | Monthly income | n (%) | Health insurance | n (%) | Menopausal status | n (%) |
|--------------|-------|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|------------------|-------|------------------|-------|
| 23.52 (5.656) | 23.52 (5.656) | Illiterate | 4 (0.8) | Single | 395 (79) | 0-500 TL | 253 (50.6) | Social insurance institution | 318 (63.6) | Yes | 6 (1.2) |
| Education level | Literate | Primary school graduate | 21 (4.2) | Married | 91 (18.2) | 501-1000 TL | 111 (22.2) | Pension fund | 60 (12) | No | 485 (97) |
| | Secondary school graduate | 18 (3.6) | Widow | 5 (1) | 1001-1500 TL | 22 (4.4) | Pension fund for the self-employed (Bağ-kur) | 65 (13) | Significant partnerships | 8 (1.6) |
| | High school graduate | 49 (9.8) | In-home or out-of-home partnerships | 1 (0.2) | 1501-2000 TL | 26 (5.2) | Social security institution | 43 (8.6) | In-home or out-of-home partnerships | 1 (0.2) |
| | University/college level | 393 (78.6) | Monthly income | 2001-2500 TL | 30 (6) | Optional insurance | 9 (1.8) | Unemployment insurance | 5 (1) | Not sure | 9 (1.8) |
| | 2501-3000 TL | 21 (4.2) | Health insurance | Over 3000 TL | 37 (7.4) | | | | | | | Mean (standard deviation); TL = Turkish lira.
the “uncertainty” subdimension was 0.223, and this was statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.382. The nonstandard path coefficient for the levels of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV was 0.174, and this was statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). The standard path coefficient for this item was 0.149 (Figure 1; Table 2).

Pearson’s correlation was used because it showed parametric distribution between the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection and the subdimensions of the CHIAS (Table 3). There were no relationships between the subdimension of levels of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV of the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection and the “harm”, “obstacles” and “uncertainty” subdimensions of the CHIAS. On the other hand, a positive and highly significant relationship was found with the “effects” subdimension. Very high positive correlations were found between the perceived sensitivity subdimension of the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection and the “harm”, “effects” and “uncertainty” subdimensions of the CHIAS. Moreover, very high significant positive correlations were found between the perceived severity subdimension of the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection and the “harm”, “effects” and “uncertainty” subdimensions (Table 3).

**DISCUSSION**

Cervical cancer is a type of cancer that is monitored regularly through screening programs around the world, including in Turkey, and it can be treated quickly when detected. Through use of these screening programs for cervical cancer, mortality...
and morbidity due to this disease are gradually decreasing.\textsuperscript{21} The important factors in treating this disease are early diagnosis and women's awareness. The degree of cancer or the size of the lesions that can be treated are decisive in the treatment process.\textsuperscript{20,22} Although cervical cancer is preventable, reports in the literature have demonstrated that, despite knowing about cervical cancer, women are not aware of the factors involved in its development.\textsuperscript{20,23,24}

In our study, the women's knowledge score about cervical cancer and HPV infection was low (4.69 ± 4.02), contrary to the findings in studies in the literature. Although 50% of the women were afraid of getting cervical cancer and HPV infection, they did not have any information about preventing this infection. In a study conducted by Montgomery et al. to determine the level of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV, the knowledge score was 7.39 among 149 women.\textsuperscript{23} In a study by Ozan et al., 336 women who visited a gynecology outpatient clinic were assessed regarding their level of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV, and it was observed that although 86.6% of them knew about cervical cancer, only 33.6% knew about HPV infection.\textsuperscript{24} Pelivanoglu et al. found that 26.8% out of 295 women who visited a family medicine outpatient clinic had never heard of the Pap smear test and 43.4% did not know about HPV infection.\textsuperscript{20}

Although the women in our study had heard about HPV vaccines, their attitudes and knowledge regarding HPV vaccination was inadequate. This situation might have originated from the women's low awareness of cervical cancer and inadequate knowledge of HPV infection. The level of knowledge of HPV vaccines that we found in our study was consistent with data in the literature.\textsuperscript{9,13,25}

Pelullo et al. conducted a study among 556 nursing students, with the aim of examining their knowledge and attitudes regarding HPV vaccines. They found that although almost all the students had heard about the vaccine, only 36.5% were aware of its risk factors.\textsuperscript{11}

In a study by Yılmaz et al., in which 624 nursing students were examined in terms of their knowledge, behavior and attitudes in relation to HPV vaccines, their levels of knowledge regarding the vaccine were lower than their levels of knowledge regarding HPV infection.\textsuperscript{9} Although 87.7% of those students knew that an HPV vaccine for women exists, only 52.4% were aware of the existence of an HPV vaccine for men.\textsuperscript{9}

In our study, the subdimension scores for “obstacles” “harm” and “uncertainty” in relation to getting the HPV vaccine were low. This might have been due to lack of knowledge about the vaccine, lack of vaccine availability, the women's lack of awareness about the vaccine effects and unavailability of the vaccinees. This result was consistent with data in the literature.\textsuperscript{9,13,26}

In our study, significant relationships were found between the responses to the questionnaire regarding levels of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV infection and the subdimensions of the CHIAS. Women who were worried about cervical cancer had higher levels of knowledge about HPV. Meanwhile, a significant relationship was found between women who thought they had a high probability of getting cervical cancer or HPV infection and the total knowledge score and the “harm” subdimension score. There were significant relationships between women's fear of being infected with HPV virus and the “effects” and “obstacles” subdimension scores of the CHIAS. This might have been due to inability to cover the cost of the vaccine, lack of a vaccination program across the country and lack of information about where women can obtain the vaccine. This result was consistent with data in the literature.\textsuperscript{9,13}

Knowledge about HPV vaccines increased with the perceived sensitivity, and there was a positive relationship between them. Conversely, a negative relationship was observed between the level of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV infection and the “harm” subdimension. As the level of knowledge increased, the number of women thinking that the vaccine was harmful decreased. These results were consistent with data in the literature.\textsuperscript{9,10,13,27}

Pelullo et al. reported that there was a positive relationship between the levels of knowledge of HPV vaccines among the students in their study and these students' awareness of the risk factors.\textsuperscript{11}

Giuseppe et al. explored HPV awareness among 1,348 adolescent girls and young women and reported that those who saw themselves at risk of cervical cancer and HPV infection had higher levels of knowledge about HPV vaccination.\textsuperscript{20}

In a cross-sectional study, in which Napolitoni et al. examined women's knowledge and attitudes regarding HPV infection and vaccines, a positive significant relationship was found between women carrying and/or knowing about HPV risk factors and their levels of knowledge and attitudes in relation to HPV vaccines.\textsuperscript{27}

Table 3. Correlation between the awareness scale for cervical cancer and HPV infection and the subdimensions of the Carolina HPV Immunization Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (CHIAS)

| CHIAS subdimensions | Harm | Barriers | Effects | Uncertainty |
|---------------------|------|---------|---------|-------------|
| n = 500             | r    | P       | r*      | P           |
| Level of knowledge of cervical cancer and HPV | -0.83 | 0.05 | -0.06 | 0.88 |
| Perceived sensitivity | 0.12** | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.12 |
| Perceived severity   | 0.12** | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.12** |

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
CONCLUSION

In our study, women's knowledge and attitudes towards cervical cancer and HPV infection were found to be inadequate. This inadequacy had an effect on their levels of knowledge regarding HPV vaccines. The highest score on the scale of knowledge about HPV vaccines was 56, but the mean score of these women was $33.37 \pm 5.05$. Through this result, it was seen that women did not have enough information about HPV vaccines and that HPV vaccine-related education was needed. It was also found that women were not getting vaccinated because of their lack of knowledge about vaccine access, its effects and its cost. Considering the efforts made towards ensuring widespread use of cervical cancer screening programs, similar strategies and programs need to be developed for HPV vaccine programs, in order to provide greater immunity against HPV infection. Further qualitative and quantitative studies are needed in order to determine HPV vaccine awareness in Turkey.

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