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Tanzanian women's knowledge about Cervical Cancer and HPV and their prevalence of positive VIA cervical screening results. Data from a Prevention and Awareness Campaign in Northern Tanzania, 2017 – 2019

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ABSTRACT

Background: 14.9 million women (≥15 years) in Tanzania are at risk of developing cervical cancer. Limited cancer care facilities, prevention programs and sparse knowledge among community members and healthcare workers contribute to late-stage presentation leading to a high mortality rate.

Objective: This study aims to scientifically accompany prevention and awareness campaigns (PrevACamp) in northern Tanzania in its real-world settings to obtain (1) a better understanding about cervical cancer and HPV knowledge amongst female PrevACamp participants and (2) to determine the prevalence of pre-cancerous lesions among women undergoing cervical cancer VIA screening.

Method: Cross-sectional survey among PrevACamp attendees in two regions in Northern Tanzania. Two data collections tools were used: Questionnaires and clinical data from VIA screening. Data were collected from October 2017 to March 2019.

Results: 2,192 PrevACamp attendees were interviewed and 2,224 received VIA screening. There was significant nescience on cervical cancer regardless of education level, resident status, or number of children as well as nescience on HPV in all age groups, especially in urban areas and misconceptions about cancer. Screening revealed VIA positivity rate of 3.1%. **Conclusion**: There is an alarming lack of knowledge about cervical cancer and, to a lesser Extent, about HPV among the study participants. Having health insurance influenced the level of knowledge significantly. Outreach programs in rural areas appear to target the population in need of health education. Low positive VIA screening results are paralleled with lower HIV rates among the women. We assume that the high density of primary health care coverage in northern Tanzania contributes to these findings..

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Background

Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cause of cancer-related deaths with more than 300,000 cases per year worldwide [1,2]. Approximately 90% of all cervical cancer deaths occur in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) [2]. In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), it is the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths among women [3] and in Tanzania, cervical cancer is the most frequently diagnosed cancer among women aged between 15 and 44 years [4]. The annual incidence of cervical cancer is 9,770 cases per 100,000 women with a mortality rate of 6,695 [4]. If no specific action is taken, Tanzania is estimated to have 12,416 new cervical cancer cases and 9,923 deaths per year in 2025 [5].

Comprehensive national screening programs may reduce the incidence and mortality rate from cervical cancer [6]. Limited access to these programs in LMICs increases the prevalence of advanced stages

of the disease. This compares to high-income countries where primary and secondary prevention programs lead to early detection and increased survival rates [2,6]. Currently, the national cervical cancer screening programme in Tanzania uses VIA (visual inspection with acetic acid) as the standard screening procedure [7] which is available free of charge in government and church-based hospitals on different levels of care. Although, VIA has lower sensitivity and specificity compared to PAP smear and HPV testing [8], it remains the standard of care in many low income countries because of its single visit approach and the generally high prevalence of cervical cancer in these countries. PAP smears and HPV (human papillomavirus) tests are available in the zonal hospitals in Tanzania.

Human papillomavirus (HPV) type 16 and 18 cause 70% of cervical cancer and pre-cancerous cervical lesion cases [9]. The World Health

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Knowledge of cervical cancer and VIA screening outcome in Northern Tanzania

© 2021 The Author(s). Published by Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. Organization (WHO) recommends the following measures to lower the burden of cervical cancer: (1) primary prevention (HPV vaccination for girls aged 9–14 years, so they are protected before they become sexually active), (2) secondary prevention (screening and treatment of pre-cancerous lesions), (3) tertiary prevention (diagnosis and treatment of invasive cervical cancer) and (4) palliative care [2].

In general, infection-related cancer occurs more often in SSA compared to other regions in the world [10]. Apart from HPV infections, women with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) have a higher likelihood of developing cervical cancer [11]. The HIV-prevalence of women above 15 years of age in Tanzania is 4.6% [12] and affecting urban and rural areas alike. Nearly 80% are resulting from heterosexual transmission [13].

The 14.9 million women that are above the age of 15 years in Tanzania are at risk of developing cervical cancer [4]. Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Center (KCMC) hosts the only specialized cancer care facility in Northern Tanzania [14] with a catchment area of approximately 15 million people. The next available radiation unit is located 550 km away in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania's largest city. The Tanzanian Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW) implemented a National Cancer Control Strategy (NCCS), that targets cancer education in schools, HPV vaccination, health promotion and screening programs for high-risk populations [15].

In 2014, a schools-based HPV vaccination program supported by the GAVI-Alliance (Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization) was successfully piloted within the Kilimanjaro Region [16,17]. An increase in national vaccination programs for girls between 9 and 14 years is expected in the future [16], which will need support from prevention and awareness campaigns.

A lack of knowledge about preventive measures among the general population and healthcare workers hinders effective cervical cancer prevention and treatment [18,19] and must be considered when designing prevention strategies. It is known that knowledge gaps among health care workers and the general population lead to a higher mortality rate in LMICs [19,20]. Furthermore, differences in knowledge have been found between rural and urban areas in Tanzania [21,22], with generally lower knowledge in remote areas. However, evidence regarding cervical cancer and HPV knowledge as well as the prevalence of precancerous cervical lesions are sparse.

In 2017, the Cancer Care Centre (CCC) at KCMC launched Cancer Prevention and Awareness Campaigns (PrevACamps) in two Northern Tanzanian regions (Kilimanjaro and Arusha) covering the districts of Hai, Mwanga, Rombo, Moshi Urban, Arusha Urban, Moshi Rural, and Siha. The PrevACamps offer education seminars and screening programs for the communities, as well as training community health care providers to enhance their cancer awareness and knowledge. This study aims to scientifically accompany PrevACamp in its real world setting to obtain (1) a better understanding about cervical cancer and HPV knowledge amongst female PrevACamp participants and (2) to determine the prevalence of pre-cancerous lesions among the screened women. The study focuses on the differences between women living in rural and urban settings.

Methods

A cross-sectional study design among PrevACamp attendees was chosen. Two data collection tools were used: questionnaires and documented clinical data records from the mass screening during PrevACamps between October 2017 and March 2019. Cervical cancer screening was conducted by applying VIA [23] followed by cryotherapy where indicated. (Figure 1)

Study setting

Arusha (with a population of 1,694,310) and Kilimanjaro (1,640,087) Regions (districts of Hai, Mwanga, Rombo, Moshi Urban, Arusha Urban, Moshi Rural, and Siha) are characterized by rural and urban areas. The majority of inhabitants live from small-scale farming or day labor jobs and small businesses [24]. The PrevACamp events were conducted in either faith-based hospitals or health centers in the respective districts. The regional and district medical officers were involved in planning and conducting the events.

Study population and recruitment

The attendees were invited through loudspeaker cars, church announcements, and radio advertisements in the respective districts. Questionnaires: Interviewees were recruited from all PrevACamp attendees using convenience sampling of just arriving attendees. Trained interviewers informed all prospective interviewees about the purpose of the study and obtained consents.

VIA-screening: Cervical screening was offered to all female PrevACamp participants above the age of 18 years. Prior to screening, all women were informed by nurses about the screening process and possible results. Exclusion criteria were pregnancy, virginity, women with total abdominal hysterectomy (TAH), and women who were menstruating (Figure 1).



KCMC= Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre, PrevACamp= Prevention and Awareness Campaign, VIA= Visual inspection using acetic acid, LEEP= Loop Electrosurgical Excision Procedure

Figure 1. Flowchart of attendee's recruitment.

KCMC = Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre, PrevACamp = Prevention and Awareness Campaign, VIA = Visual inspection using acetic acid, LEEP = Loop Electrosurgical Excision Procedure.

Data collection tools

Data collection tools were questionnaires and clinical data from the VIA screenings.

Questionnaires: Questions from the validated Cervical Cancer Awareness Measure (Cervical CAM) were selected [25]. After discussions with key informants, questions were rephrased, and additional questions were added for cultural and social adaptation into the Tanzanian setting. The questionnaire was developed in English and for- and back-translated by two independent Swahili speakers to assure the coequality of the Swahili questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into five sections: (1) cancer knowledge, (2) risk factors, (3) early symptoms, (4) cancer beliefs, and (5) socio- demographic characteristics. The survey included in total 62 items: 22 closed responses (yes/no/I do not know), 14 open-ended, 9 multiple response questions and 17 questions about socio-demographic characteristics. Four questions were asked about cervical cancer knowledge and three questions about HPV knowledge.

Average interview time was 25 minutes and the questionnaires were administered by 2 male and 3 female interview-trained health care professionals. 2 pilot phases were conducted for evaluation of feasibility and comprehension of the questions. (Figure 2)

VIA screening: Each woman, who enrolled in the VIA screening program, was documented in a register 'Cervical Cancer screening register' from the MoHSW. Information recorded in a reporting form included: serial number, name of clients, address, phone number, age, first sexual contact, HIV status, date last menstrual period and screening results, use of cryotherapy and referral for Loop Electrosurgical Excision Procedure (LEEP) or other procedures. VIA screenings were performed by 6 gynecologists and specialized nurses who underwent VIA training in the past and who had longstanding experience in applying VIA screening.

Data analysis

(Questionnaire, VIA screening): For data entry and analysis SPSS Version 23.0 was used: Continuous variables were summarized using the mean, standard deviation, median and interquartile range. Categorical data were summarized using frequency and percentage measures. The data were stratified by urban and rural areas. The comparison of the difference between the social demographic characteristics was conducted using odds ratio (OR) and 95% CIs. Chi-square was used to find possible associations between sociodemographic factors with women's knowledge of cervical cancer, HPV, and status 'never screened for cervical cancer'. The 'level of knowledge of cervical cancer' was determined by categorizing responses in to knowledgeable (at least 2 out of 4 correct answers) and nescience (less than 2 correct answers). The level of knowledge of HPV was defined as knowledgeable, if 2 out of 3 questions were correctly answered and nescience, if less than 2 questions were answered correctly.

1.	What do you think when you hear the word cancer? (Je, unafikiriaje neno saratani?/ Unafikiri nini unaposikia neno saratani?)									
2.	Have you ever heard about cancer? (Ushawahi kusikiaYesNoDKkuhusu saratani?)									
3.	Who told you about cancer? (Je, nani aliyekuambia kuhusu saratani?)									
4.	What did the person tell you about cancer? (Mtu huyo alikuambia nini kuhusu saratani?)									
5.	If you had cancer, what would you do? (Ungekuwa una saratani, ungefanya nini?)									
6.	What do you think causes cancer? (Choose one) Unafikiri ni nini kinasababisha saratani? (Chagua jibu moja)- Curse (Laana) - Genetic mutation (Mabadiliko ya vinasaba) - Touching someone who has cancer (Kugusana na mtu mwenye saratani) - Vaccines (Chanjo) - Contraceptives (Zana za uzazi wa mpango)									
7.	Is someone in your household suffering from cancer now? (Je, kuna kunamtu anaumwa saratani kwenye kaya yenu?	Yes		No	DK					
8.	Did someone in your household have cancer previously? (Kushawahi kuwa na mgonjwa wa saratani kwenye kaya yenu?)	Yes		No	DK					
9.	Is cancer a problem in your community? (Je, saratani ni tatizo kwenye kijiji?) Je saratani ni tatizo kwenye jamii yako ?	Yes		No	DK					
10.	Have you ever been screened for cancer? (Ushawahi kupima saratani yoyote?)	Yes	1	No	DK					
11.	Do you know of any cancer that may be prevented by vaccination (Unajua saratani yeyote inayoweza kuzuiwa na/kwa chanjo?)	Yes		No	DK					
12.	Do you think cancer can be treated? (Unadhani saratani inaweza kutibika?)	Yes		No	DK					

Figure 2. Questionnaire.

DK: don't know, The questions highlighted in grey were not analyzed in this study.

Using the Tanzanian National Bureau of Statistics definitions, residency of participants was categorized as either 'urban' (Arusha and Moshi Urban) or 'rural' (all other sites) [26].

Ethical considerations

Ethical research clearance was secured from Kilimanjaro Christian Medical College in Moshi, Tanzania. Participants were informed about the purpose of the questionnaires and possible outcomes of VIA screening. Arrangements were made for treatment cost coverage in the event of positive screening results that would need to undergo therapy other than cryotherapy. Consent was given prior to data collection.

Results

The convenience sampling of all 2,807 female PrevACamps attendees included 2,192 interviewees and 2,224 screened women (Table 1). The sociodemographic characteristics of interviewed women displayed an overall mean age of 44 years (M = 44, SD = 15). 1,633 (75%) resided in rural areas. 944 (43%) were small-scale farmers, 453 (21%) were formally employed, and 531 (24.2%) had small businesses. The monthly income for 1,295 interviewees (59%) was lower than 50, USD 394 (18%) had a monthly income between 50 USD-\$100, and 220 (10%) had between 100 USD-\$250. 1,561 (71%) had a primary education or lower, 1,230 (56%) had no health insurance, 1,544 (70%) were married and 863 (39%) had more than 4 children.

Differences have been seen regarding residence status and sociodemographic factors: Rural women were significantly less likely to have a secondary education (n = 1,237; 76%; p < 0.0001) and less likely to be employed (n = 1,321; 81%; p < 0.002) than urban women. Reported first sexual intercourse under 15 years was more common in urban areas (n = 23; 4.2%) than in rural areas (n = 60; 3.8%).

13.	3. What types of cancer have you seen and heard of? (Saratani gani ushawahi kuziskia au kuziona, zitaje?)						
14.	Have you ever been screened for cancer? If yes, what types? (List all mentioned) When? (Ushawahi kupima saratani?kama ndiyo saratani ipi? (Taja zote zilizoelezewa) Lini?)	- a					
15.	Do you know of any cancer that can be pr vaccines? (Unajua saratani zozote zinazo chanjo?)	ever zuil	nted by ika kwa	Yes	No	DK	
16.	Who do you think who should be screened for cancer? (Unadhani nani anatakiwa kupimwa saratani?)						
17.	What factors do you think increase your chance of developing cancer? (Vitu gani unadhani, ukifanya vinaweza kuongeza uwezekano wa kupata saratani?) -						
18.	What factors do you think lower (protects) your chance of developing cancer? (Vitu gani unadhani, ukifanya vinapunguza mtu kupata saratani?)	t factors do you think lower :ects) your chance of developing :er? (Vitu gani unadhani, ukifanya punguza mtu kupata saratani?)					
19.	 Which features/ symptoms do you think a cancer patient may present with? (List all) (Dalili gani mtu mwenye saratani anakuwa nazo?) (Ainisha) 						
20.	 If cancer is a problem in your community, where do people mostly seek care for cancer problems? List all the places mentioned. (Kama saratani ni tatizo kwenye jamii chako watu huenda wapi kupata msaada wa tatizo lao?) 1 = Traditional healer 3 = Dispensary 4 = Community health worker 5 = Others 						
21.	Have you ever heard of cervical cancer be today? (Ushawahi kusikia saratani ya shin kizazi?)	e /a	Yes	No	DK		
22.	Have you ever received any information o (Ushawahi kupokea elimu/habari yoyote s	n ca arat	ncer? ani?)	Yes	No	DK	
23.	. When was your first sexual contact? Please Age: estimate. (Mara yako ya Kwanza kujamiana ni lini? Tafadhali kadiria?)						

Figure 2. (Continued).

962 (44%) women had health insurance, with no remarkable difference between urban and rural regions (Table 1).

Cancer knowledge/misconceptions

The level of overall cancer knowledge is shown in Table 2. 1,785 (81%) of 2,192 women had heard about cancer with a noticeable difference between urban and rural areas. 1,151 (53%) of the interviewees reported that cancer is a problem in their community. 598 (27%) had a family history of cancer deaths (Table 2).

Out of 5 multiple choice questions about beliefs and misbeliefs about the etiology of cancer: 403 (43%)responded 'genetic mutation' as a cause of cancer, followed by use of contraceptives 288 (20%), curse 105 (14%), 54 (5.8%) vaccine, and direct contact with a cancer patient 26 (2.8%). Incorrect responses were positively associated with women living in rural settings (Table 2).

Knowledge of cervical cancer

The level of knowledge about cervical cancer was as follows: Among 2,192 women interviewed, 731(33%) reported that they had never heard of cervical cancer. 484 (22%) were knowledgeable (Figure 3). The following factors had a significant impact on cervical cancer knowledge: Women aged between 45–54 years, had a monthly income between 100 USD and 250 USD, and had health insurance (Figure 4). Education level, rural or urban residence, and the number of children were not associated with better knowledge of cervical cancer (Table 3). 16.3% women living in urban and 9.7% of women living in rural areas had been screened for cervical cancer prior to PrevACamp (Table 2).

24.	Do you think vaginal bleeding between period after the menopause could be a sign of cervic cancer? (Unadhani kutokwa na damu katikati ya mzun wako wa hedhi au baada ya kukata hedhi inav ikawa dalili ya saratani ya shingo ya kizazi?)	Yes		No		DK	
25.	Have you ever been taught how to do a self-b exam? (Ushawahi kufundishwa jinsi ya kuchunguza matiti yako mwenyewe?)	Yes		No		DK	
26.	Have you ever heard about an infection by HF (human papillomavirus) (Ushawahi kusikia kul maambukizi yatokayo na kirusi cha HPV?)	₽V husu	Yes		No		DK
27.	Do you know that girls can be vaccinated agai cervical cancer? (Unajua kwamba wasichana wanaweza kupev chanjo ya saratani ya shingo ya kizazi?)	inst va	Yes		No		DK
28.	Do you know the Tanzanian government prov HPV vaccine for 14-years old girls for free sind April 2018 (Umesikia Kuba semrikali inatoka chango kuhusu shingo ya kizazi tangu 2018) / Unajua kwamba serikali ya Tanzania inatoa cl ya saratani ya shingo ya kizazi kwa wasichana wenye umri kati ya miaka 14 bure kuanzia Apr 2018?	Yes		No		DK	
29.	Would you send your daughter for HPV vaccination? (Lini utampeleka mtoto kupaka d ya kinga ya saratani ya shingo ya kizazi) /Una mwanao wa kike kupata chanjo ya saratani ya shingo ya kizazi?	Yes		No		DK	
30.	Is cancer in children a problem in your commu (e.g.child with swelling tumor, lump) (Saratani ya watoto ni tatizo kwenye jamii unayoishi?) (Watoto wenye uvimbe)	Yes		No		DK	
31.	Where did you use to go if something was wrong with you? (Ukipatwa na tatizo huwa unaenda wapi?)	raditional healer (Mganga wa Dispensary (Zahanati) Community health worker hudumu wa afya) Dthers (Penginepo)				a wa	
32.	Have you ever used alcohol? (Ushawahi kutur chochote?)/ Umeishawahi kutumia pombe?	mia kik	evi	Yes		N	0
33.	Do you currently drink alcohol? (How often?) (Je, unatumia kilevi chochote kwa sasa?) Mara ngapi?	Daily: Week	ly				_
34.	Have you ever smoked cigarettes? (Ushawah sigara?)	a	Yes		No		

Figure 2. (Continued).

Knowledge on HPV

635 (29%) were knowledgeable about HPV. 1,644 (75%) had never heard about HPV infection. 1,118 (51%) did not know that girls can be vaccinated against cervical cancer (Figure 2). The following factors were found to have a significant impact on knowledge of HPV: Women with primary education and above, being employed, had income between 100 USD and 250 USD/month, had health insurance, and screened for cervical cancer before (Figure 5). The number of children had no association with HPV knowledge (Table 3). Women living in urban areas had less knowledge about HPV compared to rural women (Table 2).

VIA screening outcome

2,246 (80%) from 2,807 female PrevACamps attendees enrolled voluntarily for VIA-screening. 26 women were excluded from VIA because they were under 18 years of age (22), pregnancy (1), menstruation (2) and history of TAH (1). A total of 2,224 women were screened (urban: 1,039, rural: 1,185). The number of HIV infected women was 57 (2.6%). The overall mean age group was between 35 and 44 years. Among these, the proportion of positive VIA was 69 (3.1%) (Urban: 32, rural: 37, p-value = >0.478). 36 underwent cryotherapy, and 33 were referred to KCMC for LEEP or further investigations/diagnosis (Figure 1).

35.	How many do you smoke da sigara ngapi kwa siku?)	aily? (Una vuta	Daily:				
36.	Do you plant your own vege zako mwenyewe?)	tables? (Una panda	a mboga	Yes	No		
37.	Do you spray your vegetabl (Je, unapulizia dawn ya kuz na matunda yako?)	es and fruits with pe uia wadudu kwenye	esticides? e mboga				
38.	 If you live in a sheltered house, describe the house (Kama unaishi kwenye nyumba, ielezee nyumba hiyo) Walls are: Uwood Udud Brick Cement (Nyumba unayoishi ukuta wake ni wa aina gani): Ubao Udongo Matofali Cement 						
39.	9. The roof are: □Wood □Mud □Brick □Cement (Paa ni la): □Mbao □Udongo □Matofali						
40.	From where do you get water for drinking and washing cloth? (Unapata wapi maji ya kunywa na kufua?)	Drinking (Kunywa) River (Mto) Well (Kisima) Water pipe (Bomba (Bomba)	a)	Washing River (M Well (Ki Water pi	(<u>Kuosha)</u> lto) sima) pe		
41.	Do you have an open cooki (Una jiko kwenye nyumba y ya kupikia nyumbani kwako	house? ya wazi	Yes	No			
42.	How often do you do sports (Including: walking) (Unafan ngapi? (Ukijumuisha: kutem	-Daily mor -Daily less -3 times a -Twice a w -Less	e than 1 hour than 1 hours week /eek				
43.	How often do you eat red m (Una kula nyama ya ngomb nguruwe mara ngapi kwa wi	-Daily -Twice -3 times -More Other					
44.	How often do you eat veget per week? (Una kula mboga matunda marangapi kwa wil	-Daily -Twice -3 times -More Other					
45.	Tell me two types? (Niambie	1. 2.					
	Socio	o-Demographic Ch	aracteristi	cs			
46.	Age of the person being inte (Umri kwa miaka mtu anaye	erviewed in years hojiwa)					
	L						

Figure 2. (Continued).

Discussion

This study accompanied PrevACamp in its real-world setting with the aim to gain a deeper understanding of cervical cancer and HPV knowledge among women attending a voluntarily screening program for future adaptations of preventive measures. The second goal of this study was to determine the prevalence of precancerous cervical lesions among the attendees to identify possible regions or high-risk populations.

Our finding highlight (1) nescience on cervical cancer regardless of education level, resident status and the number of children, (2) nescience on HPV in all age groups and especially in urban areas (3) and misconception about cancer.

Cervical cancer and HPV knowledge

A third of the interviewees had never heard about cervical cancer. This compares to previous studies in Tanzania, such as a Kilimanjaro-region-based study (in semi-rural and urban areas), a study from Lake Zone and a representative country-wide survey. These studies found only 17%, 16.9% and 15% of women respectively had never heard of cervical cancer disease [7,22,27]. Our findings also show no significant difference in cervical cancer knowledge between women living in urban or rural areas as has been found in other studies [14,21,22,28]. In addition, our results demonstrate that only 22% and 29% of women showed knowledge about cervical cancer and HPV, respectively.

47	Sex of the person being interviewed (Jinsia ya anayehojiwa)	1. Male 2. Female		
48	Marital status (Hali ya ndoa)	1=Never marr 2=Current mar 3=Cohabiting 4=Separated 5=Divorced 6=Widow	y rried	
49	How old were you at your wedding? Please estimate. (Umri wako wakati wa ndoa? Tafadhali kadiria.)			
50	How many pregnancies did you have? (Umepata ujauzito mara ngapi?)	Number		
51	How many deliveries have you had? (Umejifungua mara ngapi?)	Number		
52	How many children do you have? (Una watoto wa ngapi?)	Number		
53	How many >18 adults live in your household? (Kwenye familia yenu kuna watu wazima wangapi wenye umri wa miaka 18 na zaidi?)	Number: Male	Ferr	nale
54	How many children live in your household (<18)? (Kwenye kaya yenu kuna watoto wangapi wenye umri chini ya miaka 18?)	Number		
55	Did you breastfeed? (Je, ulinyonyesha watoto wa	ako?)	Yes	No
56	Education level (Kiwango cha elimu cha mshiriki)	1=Never bee 2=Primary Ed 3=Secondary level) 4=Secondary level) 5=Higher lea Diploma, deg phD) 7=Other	n in schoo ducation / Educatio / Educatio rning (Adv rree, mast	ol n (O n (A /. ers or
57	Current occupation of the participants (Unafanya kazi gani?)	1=Formally e (government 2=Peasant/F 3=Small Bus (entrepreneu 4=Medium/B 5=Informally 6=Others, sp	mployed /private) armer iness r) ig busines employed ecify	s
58	Approximate income per month (in Tsh). (Kipato cha mshiriki kwa mwezi)			
59	Do you have a health insurance? (Je una BIMA y If not, why? (Kama sio kwanini?)	a afya)	Yes	No
60	If yes, which one do you have? (Kama una BIMA ni ipi?) What do you think would be the best way to inform other women about free cancer	 NHIF (KCM CHF (dispendicular) Other 1= Training at 2= Church 2= Section 	1C incl.) insary, dis	trict
	(please more than one answer is possible) (Unafikiri njia zipi ni nzuri za kuwataarifu wanawake wengine kuhusu upimaji wa bure wa saratani?) (Zaidi ya jibu moja linaruhusiwa)	3= Social net 4= Advertisin cars) 5.= Poster, fl 6.= Cellphon 7.= Radio, TV	work (frie g (loud pe yer e /	aker
62	How did you hear about this event PrevaCamp? (Ulisikiaje kuhusu tukio hili?)	alugad in this is	du	
DK: don	т кноw, The questions highlighted in grey were not an	aiyzed in this stu	ιuγ	

Figure 2. (Continued).

These findings are in line with studies from other SSA settings [7,18,22,27,29–31].

Surprisingly, women living in urban areas had less knowledge about HPV compared to rural women (Table 2), which might be carefully interpreted by the presence of many faith-based hospitals, NGO's and other health facilities [32] in rural Kilimanjaro, which is unique for Tanzanian rural areas.

Apart from the afore mentioned, we found significant differences in the level of cervical cancer knowledge in our study population. Women with higher income, health insurance, and previous experience of VIA screening had significantly more knowledge about cervical cancer. This is possible because women who have health insurance may have better health-seeking behavior and have had more interaction with health facilities. These findings are in tandem with results from a study from Zanzibar [30]. Another study from Zimbabwe found that women with a higher income, and who had more contact with the health care system had better cervical cancer knowledge [29].

Health Insurance C (%)	422(46)	103(56)	45(39)	40(24)	67(27)	154(54)	55(46)	76(48)	962(44)	
Referral for LEEP to KCM	14	2	ε	-	6	-	6	0	33	
Cryo- therapy	16	m	0	4	Ŝ	9	0	2	36	
VIA positivity (%)	30(3,4)	5(2,5)	3(2,4)	5(2,8)	11 (4,4)	7(2,7)	6(3,5)	2(1,2)	69(3,1)	
VIA screened women	875	20	125	178	249	255	176	164	2,224	-
HIV infected women	23	2	4	c	10	S	9	9	57	
Interviewees (%)	916(42)	185(8)	116(5)	165(8)	248(11)	284(13)	120(6)	158(7)	2,192(78)	
Number of attendees	1081	252	125	232	381	335	187	214	2,807	• • •
Sites	Moshi Urban	Machame	TPC	Sanya Juu	Mahoma	Huruma (Rombo)	Mwanga	Arusha urban		
Districts	Moshi urban	Hai	Moshi rural	Siha District	Moshi rural	Rombo	Neema (Mwanga)	Arusha urban		
Regions	Kilimanjaro							Arusha	Total	
No		2.	ć.	4.	5.	6.	7.	œ.		

Table 1. Overview about PrevACamp attendees

Education level and employment appear to play no role in the knowledge about cervical cancer in our study. These results are not consistent with other studies in SSA [7,22,30,31]. Also, no correlation was found between multiparous and cervical cancer knowledge, as has been reported in previous studies from Tanzania [22,32]. However, a study from India documented that a high number of pregnancies, using family planning, and frequent contact with the health-care system found to be associated with increased access of cervical cancer screening services [33]. A possible explanation for the differences in our study with previous studies could be that our study population was not a representative sample or a hospital patient population, which can be assumed to have higher health-seeking behavior. Following this line of reasoning, the PrevACamps reached people with less than average knowledge and hence the desired target group for an intervention program was addressed.

A second explanation could be the timing of the previously conducted studies: the NCCS by MoHSW was introduced in 2013 [15,22]. In the years before and after NCCS implementation (mainly in the years of 2012 to 2015), cervical cancer and screening programs received great nationwide attention through mass media [22] and increased governmental support, especially from the former First Lady Her Excellency Salma Kikwete [34,35].

Following the logic of influences in mass media and government engagement, we consequently see higher knowledge regarding HPV vaccination compared to Cervical Cancer knowledge in our study population. During the PrevACamps, HPV vaccination implementation campaigns in schools were conducted country-wide [16,17], and announcements through mass media were frequently given.

Misconception about cancer

Another major barrier to combat cancer is the misconception about cancer. Our study found that every second woman living in rural areas has misconceptions about cancer which may lead to disbelief and heedlessness toward cancer prevention [19,36]. The influence of sociocultural beliefs in relation to cervical cancer misconceptions has been studied before but with inconsistent findings. McCree et al. found key stakeholders in Tanzania believed that the perception of low resources was a stronger barrier than the impact of folk myths and socioculturalbased misconceptions [34]. This is contradicted with Zambia's report where folk myths and misconceptions lead to poor utilization in cancer education and screening services [37]. Cervical cancer may impact HIV infected women differently than other populations. Studies show that women infected with

Table 2. Behavioral risk factors, women's knowledge about cancer, cancer risk factors, cervical cancer and HPV by residence.

Variables	Total	Urban	Rural	OR (95%(CI)	n-value
Rehavioral Risk Factors	IN (70)	IN (90)	IN (70)	ON (95%CI)	p-value
Cigarette Smoking	Total	Urban	Rural		
No	2,136(97.4)	543(97.1)	1,593(97.6		
Yes	56(2.6)	16(2.9)	40(2.4)	1.17(0.65–2.11)	0.593
Alcohol use					
No	1,174(53.6)	300(97.1)	874(97.6)	0.00(0.02, 1.21)	0.050
res Red meat intake weekly	1,018(46.4)	259(2.9)	/59(2.4	0.99(0.82–1.21)	0.952
less/none	1,742(79,5)	422(75 5)	1 320(80 8)		
More/daily	450(20.5)	137(24.5)	313(19.2)	1.39(1.09-1.72)	<0.0070
Knowledge about cancer					
Household members with cancer currently	Total	Urban	Rural		
No	1887(86.1)	488(87.3)	1,399(85.7)		
Yes	305(13.9)	71(12.7)	234(14.3)	0.87(0.65–1.16)	0.337
History of household members with cancer	1 504/72 7)	200(60.0)	1 214/74 2)		
NU Ves	1,394(72.7) 598(27.3	360(06.0) 179(32.0)	1,214(74.3) A19(25.7)	1 36(1 11_1 68)	<0.004
Cancer problem in the community	550(27.5	17 5(52.0)	419(23.7)	1.50(1.11-1.00)	<0.004
No	1,041(47.5)	275(49.2)	766(46.9)		
Yes	1,151(52.5)	284(50.8)	867(53.1)	0.91(075-1.11)	0.350
Heard about cancer before					
No	407(18.6)	74(13.2)	333(20.4)		
Yes	1,785(81.4)	485(86.8)	1,300(79.6)	1.68(1.28–2.21)	<0.0002
Misconceptions in getting cancer	Multiple answers	N = 164	N = 781		
Curse	115(12.3)	10(6.1)	105(13.6)	2.39(1.22-4.70)	< 0.0089
Genetic mutation	403(43.1)	88(53.7)	315(40.9)		<0.0017
Vaccine	20(2.8)	2(3.0)	21(2.7) 52(6.7)	0.00(0.33-2.37) 5 78(1 28-34 13)	-0 0064
Contracentive use	288(20.4)	37(22.6)	251(32.6)	1.63(1.09-2.42)	<0.0155
Knowledge about cervical cancer	200(20.4)	57(22.0)	231(32.0)	1.05(1.05 2.42)	<0.0155
Knowledge about CC	Total	Urban	Rural		
Poor	1,708(77.9)	430(76.9)	1,278(78.3)		
Good	484(22.1)	129(23.1)	355(21.7)	1.08(0.86-1.36)	0.510
Heard about CC prior PrevACamp					
No	731(33.3)	178(31.8)	553(33.9)		
Yes	1,461(66.7)	381(68.2)	1,080(66.1)	1.0/(0.8/-1.32)	0.5093
Screened for CC prior PrevACamp	1 0/2/99 6)	160(02 7)	1 474/00 2)		
NU Ves	1,942(00.0) 250(11 4)	400(03.7)	1,474(90.5)	1 80/1 36-2 38)	<0 0001
Bisk factors for CC	230(11.4)	51(10.5)	155(5.7)	1.00(1.30-2.30)	<0.0001
Not aware	2009(91.7)	521(93.2)	1,488(91.1)		
Aware	183(8.3)	38(6.8)	145(8.9)	0.75(0.52-1.08)	<0.1247
Lower risk for CC					
Not aware	2057(93.8)	526(94.1)	1,531(93.8)		
Aware	135(6.2)	33(5.9)	102(6.2)	0.94(0.63–1.41)	<0.7711
Symptoms about CC		424/75 0)	1 2 47/7 (1)	,	
Not aware	1,6/1(/6.2)	424(75.8)	1,247(76.4)	ret 1.02(0.92, 1.20)	
Aware Vaginal blooding after menonause is a sign of CC	521(23.8)	135(24.2)	380(23.0)	1.03(0.82-1.29)	0.8058
Not aware	1174(53.6)	299(53.5)	875(53.6)	ref	
Aware	1.018(46.4)	260(46.5)	758(46.4)	1.01(0.83-1.22)	0.9693
Knowledge of Human Papillomavirus	.,,	200(1005)	,,		012020
Heard about HPV infection	Total	Urban	Rural		
Not aware	1,693(77.2)	433(77.5)	1,26,077.2)		
Aware	499(22.8)	126(22.5)	373(22.8)	0.98(0.78-1.24)	0.8835
Heard about HPV vaccines		A A (- -)	050/		
Not aware	1,175(53.6)	316(56.5)	859(52.6)	0.05(0.70.4.04)	01000
Aware Knowledge shout HDV	1,017(46.4)	243(43.5)	//4(4/.4)	0.85(0.70-1.04)	01082
Poor	1 548(70 6)	414(74 1)	1 134(60 4)		
Good	644(29.4)	145(25.9)	499(30.6)	0.8.(0.64-0.99)	<0.039
	,	(

CC = Cervical Cancer, HPV = Human Papillomavirus, PrevACamp = Cancer and Awareness Campaign.

HIV are more likely to appear with cervical cancer disease later in life [38,39]. Bateman et al. assessed barriers to cervical cancer screening among HIV infected women in Tanzania and found that women had high misconceptions of cervical cancer screening and felt that diagnosis may lead to death, hence hindering women from seeking health care [39].

Need for extended cancer education and screening programs

PrevACamp was the first community-based prevention and awareness cancer campaign organized by CCC in Northern Tanzania. The framework combined cancer education seminars and screenings for women, especially in remote areas.



Figure 3. Knowledge level of cervical cancer and HPV.



Figure 4. Association between social demographic characteristics and Cervical Cancer knowledge.

Considering 75% of reproductive-aged women live in rural areas [28], outreach programs covering these areas are crucial [21,40], especially as higher rates of family history of cancer were reported in rural areas. Our study found that 76% of women residing in rural areas were not able to identify any early symptoms, risks, or preventive factors of cancer. Apart from this, previous studies have shown that access to health care differs between women in rural and urban areas, largely due to transportation and financial constraints that prevent screening attendance [21,40,41]. Therefore, enhancement of cancer knowledge, that is needed to increase women's health, might be best achieved by bringing screening and education into the rural areas.

Comparatively, in a review from Runge et al. with a cumulative VIA positivity rate of 9.2%, our VIA

positivity rate was 3.1% [14]. However, the reviewed studies showed vast difference with VIA positive screening results ranging from 4.3% (with the study setting in Dar es Salaam, in Dar es Salaam/Pwani and Mwanza/ Mtwara) to 12.9% (in Mwanza/Mara). Just like prior PrevACamps, the VIA screening programs targeted the general population and were announced in public [14]. The differences with low VIA positive screening results could be explained by the high density in primary health care facilities including HIV clinics in these settings [32]. This might also influence the lower VIA positivity in our study with only 2.6% of HIV infected participants, compared with the study from Mara where 8.2% were infected with HIV [38]. Furthermore, PrevACamp findings showed no significant difference between residence status and VIA-positivity. Following

Table 3. Association between sociodemographic characteristics and cervical cancer/HPV knowledge.

Total			Knowledge of CC	Knowledge of HPV				
Variables	N	N(%)	OR(95%CI)	p-value	N(%)	OR(95%CI)	p-value	
Age, years								
<25	194	36(18.6)	1.00		52(26.8)	1.00		
25–34	460	110(23.9)	1.38(0.91-2.10)	0.134	152(33.0)	1.35(0.93-1.96)	0.116	
35–44	571	122(21.4)	1.19(0.79-1.80)	0.404	181(31.7)	1.27(0.88-1.82)	0.201	
45–54	469	122(26.0)	1.54(1.02-2.34)	<0.041	151(32.2)	1.30(0.89-1.88)	0.171	
55+	498	94(18.9)	1.02(0.67-1.56)	0.923	108(21.7)	0.76(0.52-1.11)	0.152	
Education level								
Never been in school	131	28(21.4)	1.00		19(14.5)	1.00		
Primary education	1430	289(20.2)	0.93(0.60-1.44)	0.751	382(26.7)	2.15(1.30-3.54)	<0.003	
Secondary and above	631	167(26.5)	1.32(0.84-2.08)	0.225	243(38.5)	3.69(2.21-6.16)	<0.0001	
Occupation								
Peasant/farmer	944	207(21.9)	1.00		261(27.6)	1.00		
Business	542	120(22.1)	1.01(0.78)	0.924	156(28.8)	1.06(0.83-1.34)	0.640	
Employed	523	135(25.8)	1.24(0.97-1.59)	0.092	182(34.8)	1.40(1.11–1.76)	<0.004	
Other e.g. students	183	22(12.0)	0.49(0.30-0.78)	<0.003	45(24.6)	0.85(0.59-1.23)	0.395	
Level of income (USD \$)								
<50	1295	277(21.4)	1.00		353(27.3)	1.00		
50-<100	394	76(19.3)	0.88(0.66-1.17)	0.369	102(25.9)	0.93(0.72-1.20)	0.591	
100–250	220	65(29.5)	1.54(1.12-2.12)	<0.008	85(38.6)	1.68(1.25-2.26)	<0.001	
>250	109	32(29.4)	1.53(0.99-2.36)	0.055	45(41.3)	1.88(1.26-2.80)	<0.002	
Unknown	174	34(19.5)	0.89(0.60-1.33)	0.575	59(33.9)	1.37(0.98-1.92)	0.068	
Health Insurance								
Yes	962	232(24.1))	1.23(1.01-1.51)	<0.042	310(32.2)	1.28(1.06-1.53)	<0.010	
No	1230	252(20.5)	1.00		334(27.2)	1.00		
Residence								
Urban	559	129(23.1)	1.08(0.86-1.36)	0.510	145(25.9)	0.80(0.64-0.99)	<0.039	
Rural	1633	355(21.7)	1.00		499(30.6)	1.00		
Children								
No	215	39(18.1)	1.00		68(31.6)	1.00		
Yes	1977	445(22.5)	1.31(0.91-1.88)	0.4143	576(29.1)	0.89(0.66-1.20)	0.446	
Ever screened for CC								
No	1942	399(20.5)	1.00		546(28.1)	1.00		
Yes	250	85(34.0)	1.99(1.50–2.65)	<0.0001	98(39.2)	1.65(1.26–2.16)	<0.0001	

CC = Cervical Cancer, HPV = Human Papillomavirus.



Figure 5. Association between social characteristics and HPV knowledge.

this line, the setting in our study has the highest density of primary health care facilities after Dar es Salaam and also a long-standing tradition of faith-based hospitals [42]. The health system coverage in our setting may as well be a positive impact on HIV patients and influence the lower VIA positivity rate.

Limitations

Study findings cannot be generalized for the Tanzanian population as our sample represents voluntarily attending women from Northern Tanzania. During VIA screening, women above the age of 18 years were enrolled. However, WHO guidelines recommend screening at age 30 years old onwards. This might have also contributed to a lower positive VIA screening outcome.

Conclusion

Our findings show a lack of cervical cancer and HPV knowledge among women in two regions in northern Tanzania. This poor knowledge is alarming and requires collaborative efforts from different stakeholders including health care providers, policymakers, and non-governmental organizations to increase cancer knowledge within the communities. Education-based cancer knowledge programs and mass screening programs, especially in remote areas should be considered, as this approach will reach the underserved rural population. Future cancer programs that strengthen the collaboration with public schools for primary and secondary prevention and to extend special cancer education programs on mass media and loudspeaker cars should also be considered.

Educational program to raise knowledge about HIV infections in the community is also needed to reach a standard level of knowledge and understanding about the importance of HIV prevention, treatment and cervical cancer screening. Another step would be to set up more cervical cancer screening centers in the primary health care in remote areas, collaboration of multiple stakeholders such as cancer survivors and community health care workers are essential with sufficient screening equipment's. Provided, cancer care staff workloads do not increase, added funds for health care providers for cancer awareness training are required [17].

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Author contributions

All authors contributed to the overall concept of the paper. AH and OH wrote the draft that was improved by editing from all authors. Funding acquisition, conceptualization of the project and formal analysis were performed by AH. Data collection were done by BM and FS. Methodology and interpretation of the data were done by AH, OH, UK, TB. Writing review and the final approval of the version to be published was done by AH and OH.

Disclosure statement

All authors declare no financial or any other conflicts of interest.

Ethics and consent

Ethical research clearance was secured from Kilimanjaro Christian Medical University College in Moshi, Tanzania.

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Paper context

14.9 million women in Tanzania are at risk of developing cervical cancer, the most prevalent cancer among women in this East African country. Late-stage presentation contributes to high mortality rates. Between 2017 and 2019, a study was conducted amongst 2,807 female participants of prevention and awareness campaigns in northern Tanzania. Results display significant nescience on cervical cancer and HPV. Outreach programs, especially in rural areas, seem to target the population in need of health education.

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