## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Differences in Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening Rates in Jordan among Women from Different Socioeconomic Strata: Analysis of the 2012 Population-Based Household Survey

## Rami Al Rifai\*, Keiko Nakamura

#### Abstract

Background: The burden of breast and cervical cancer is changing over time in developing countries. Regular screening is very important for early detection and treatment. In this study, we assessed inequalities in breast and cervical cancer screening rates in women according to household wealth status, and analyzed the potential predictors associated with a low cancer screening rate in Jordan. Materials and Methods: A nationwide populationbased cross-sectional survey collected information on different variables at the national level. All ever-married women (the phrase is used throughout the text to refer to women who had ever married) aged 15-49 years were included in the survey. Analysis of breast self-examination (BSE) and clinical breast examination (CBE) at least once in the previous year was carried out in 11,068 women, while lifetime Pap-smear testing was carried out in 8,333 women, aged 20-49 years. Results: Over 39% and 19% of ever-married Jordanian women reported having undergone a breast examination during the previous year and Pap smear examination at least once in their lifetime, respectively. The rate of BSE in the previous year was 31.5%, that of CBE in the previous year was 19.3%, and that of Pap smear examination at least once in life was 25.5%. The adjusted OR was higher for performing BSE (aOR 1.22, 95% CI 1.04–1.43), undergoing CBE (aOR 1.31, 95% CI 1.08–1.60) and undergoing Pap smear examination (aOR 2.38, 95% CI 1.92–2.93) among women in the highest wealth-index quintile as compared to those in the lowest quintile. The concentration index was 0.11 for BSE, 0.01 for CBE, and 0.27 for Pap smear examination. Women in their twenties, living in rural or the southern region of Jordan, with an elementary school education or less, who listened to the radio or read the newspaper not more than a few times a year, and nulliparous women were less likely to undergo breast and cervical cancer screening. <u>Conclusions</u>: The rates of breast and cervical cancer screening are low in Jordan. Reducing the sociodemographic and economic inequalities in breast and cervical cancer screenings requires concerted outreach activities for women living under socially deprived conditions.

Keywords: Breast self-examination - clinical breast examination - cervical cancer - cancer screening - Jordan

Asian Pac J Cancer Prev, 16 (15), 6697-6704

#### Introduction

Worldwide, cancers are among the leading causes of morbidity and mortality. An estimated 14 million new cases were diagnosed and 8.2 million cancer-related deaths were recorded in 2012, with an expected rise in the annual cancer cases to 22 million within the next 20 years (World Cancer Report, 2014). In the developed nations, the incidence rate of cancer has been declining as a result of reduction in different risk factors, along with improvements in the screening and treatment strategies (Elovainio et al., 1997; Breen et al., 2001; Porter 2009; Jemal et al., 2010). Developing countries still suffer from an increasing trend in the cancer rate (Wilson et al., 2004; Thun et al., 2010). More than 60 and 70% of the world's new cancer cases and deaths occur in Africa, Asia, and

Central and South America (World Cancer Report, 2014). Increase in the tobacco smoking rate and unfavorable changes in lifestyle behaviors have been considered to be associated with the steady rise in rates of cancers in developing countries (Althuis et al., 2005; Porter, 2008; Parkin et al., 2010; Thun et al., 2010).

Breast and cervical cancer are among the most common of all cancers in developing countries (Parkin et al., 2008; Sankaranarayanan and Boffetta, 2010; Jemal et al., 2011). Both breast and cervical cancers have high cure rates when detected and treated early (World Cancer Report, 2014). According to one report, in developing countries, only 2.2% of women aged 40-69 years were screened for breast cancer during the previous five years, while only 4.1% of women aged 18-69 years were screened for cervical cancer during the previous three

Department of International Health and Medicine, Division of Public Health, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Tokyo, Japan \*For correspondence: alrifai.ith@tmd.ac.jp

years (Akinyemiju, 2012). The breast cancer screening coverage rate ranged from 0% in Mali to 26% in Congo, while that cervical cancer screening rate was 1.1% in Bangladesh and 57.6% in Congo (Akinyemiju, 2012). On the other hand, the reported cervical cancer screening rate is over 60% in developed countries (Gakidou et al, 2008).

In Jordan, both the morbidity and mortality of breast cancer have been consistently increasing, and this cancer is the most commonly encountered malignancy afflicting women. The number of diagnosed breast cancer cases rose from 926 in 2009 to 1237 in 2012, accounting for 37.9% incidence rate of all diagnosed cancers in females (age standardized rate 61.0 per 100,000 women). Moreover, there were a total of 426 deaths from breast cancer in 2012, accounting for 25.3% of all cancer-related deaths in females (age standardized rate 21.8 per 100,000 women). Overall, from 2008 to 2012, out of the 8,413 cases of cancer diagnosed among females, 4,260 were breast cancers, accounting for a 5-year diagnosis rate of 50.6% of all the cases of cancer (GLOBOCAN, 2012). In Jordan, cervical cancer ranks as the 10th most frequently encountered cancer among women (ICO, 2013).

From 2007 to 2012, women in Jordan experienced several sociodemographic changes. The percentage of women with an elementary education or less slightly decreased from 11.0% to 9.9%, the employment rate increased by 35%, women living in the poorest households declined from 20.3% to 18.8%, whereas the tobacco smoking rate in women increased from 13.1% to 18.0% (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey 2007 and 2012). The last local study carried out to examine breast and cervical cancer screening coverage was limited to a small sample of women aged ≥35 years; according to this study, 27.1% of women performed breast self-examination (BSE) on a monthly basis, one-fifth had undergone clinical breast examination (CBE) at least once in their lifetime, 12.4% had undergone mammography at least once in their lifetime, and 27.8% of married women reported having undergone screening for cervical cancer at least once in their lifetime.

The socioeconomic condition is a key social determinant of health. Living under socioeconomically deprived conditions hampers access of women to preventive healthcare services (Marmot et al., 2008; Akinyemiju, 2012). Two recent studies examined the impact of income inequality on cervical cancer screening in 57 and 67 countries (McKinnon et al, 2011; GLOBOCAN, 2012). Jordan was not among these countries. To contribute to the literature on the inequalities in breast and cervical cancer screenings depending on the household socioeconomic status (SES), this study sought to assess the inequalities in breast and cervical cancers screening rates among ever-married women aged 20-49 years according to the household wealth status in Jordan and to analyze the possible social predictors contribute substantially to a low cancer screening rate.

#### **Materials and Methods**

According to the guidelines of the Jordan Breast Cancer Program (JBCP) established in 2007, all women aged  $\geq$ 20

years should perform a monthly BSE, women aged 20-39 years should undergo CBE once every 1-3 years, and women aged ≥40 years should undergo an annual CBE. Mammography is recommended only once every 1-2 years for women aged ≥40 years (Jordan breast cancer program, 2007). Screening for cervical cancer is carried out by Papanicolaou smear (Pap smear) examination to detect the oncogenic effect of the human papilloma virus (HPV) (Zur Hausen, 2009). It is recommended that sexually active women or women aged ≥21 years should undergo an annual Pap smear examination (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey, 2012).

#### Data source

This study utilized the data from the 2012 Jordan Population and Family Health Survey (JPFHS). The survey followed a two-stage sampling design. A sample of 15,190 households was randomly selected, and 11,673 ever-married women aged 15-49 years were identified. Full interviews were completed with 11,352 such women (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey, 2012).

#### Survey instruments

The model questionnaires developed by the DHS-program, with some modifications, were used to collect information from all ever-married women aged 15-49 years who had slept in the household the night before the interview (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey, 2012).

#### Subjects

The JPFHS included three questions, two about breast cancer screening, to determine if the women had undergone BSE or CBE at least once in the previous year, or a Pap smear examination at least once in their lifetime. The analysis was limited to 11,089 (weighted, 11,068) ever-married women aged 20-49 years who gave a reply of "yes" or "no" to the question of whether they had undergone BSE or CBE in the previous 12 months, after excluding 24 women who gave a reply of "Don't Know," and of 239 women who were aged <20 years, because none of the screening techniques is recommended for women under the age of 20 years. Analysis of lifetime Pap smear examination was limited to the 8,333 women who reported having heard of Pap smear examination.

#### Study variables

Three binary outcome variables were measured: (1) performing BSE and (2) undergoing CBE at least once in the year preceding the survey, and (3) lifetime Papsmear testing. The JPFHS did not collect information on screening by mammography.

The household wealth index was calculated using easy-to-collect data on the household's assets and was defined as a composite measure of a household's relative economic status. The wealth-index quintile (poorest, poor, middle-class, rich, and richest) was derived from the wealth index score of women who lived in the household (Rutstein and Johnson, 2004).

Different independent variables that might influence the likelihood of the women undergoing cancer screening

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Women by the Frequencies of Breast Examinations and Lifetime Pap-smear Testing, Weighted Frequencies (Percentages)

			ancer screeni	ng		Cervi	ical cancer sci	reening	
	N	BSE P-value CBE %			P-value			r P-value	
All	11,068	31.5		19.3		8,333	% 25.5		_
Age, years	,		< 0.001		< 0.001	-,		< 0.001	
20-29	3,211	24.6		13.3		2,038	10.5		
30-39	4,232	31.5		19.8		3,318	24.2		
40-49	3,625	37.4		24.2		2,977	37.2		
Residence			.00.00 <sup>0.001</sup>		< 0.001			< 0.001	100
Urban	9,207	32.2	100.0	20.2		7,040	26.3		100.
Rural	1,861	27.5		<b>6</b> 1 <b>3</b> .2	10.1	12 <b>9</b> 93	21		
Geog. location			< 0.001		< 0.001	20.5		< 0.001	
South	1,033	27.6	75.0	13.5		658	<b>25</b> 3 <b>0</b> 7		<b>7</b> 5 :
North	3,031	34.2	73.0	20.3		2,370	24.6		′ '
Central	7,004	30.8		19.9	46.8	5,305	27.3		
Education			< 0.001	56.3	<0.001			0.354	
Elementary or less	1,111	20.7	50.0	13.7		5422	23.8		50
Secondary	6,489	30.9	50.0	19.3		4,898	<b>3</b> 138		3
Higher	3,469	36		21.2		2,812	26.3		
Partner's education	,		< 0.001		< 0.001			< 0.001	
Elementary and below	1,452	25.3	25.0	14.8		905	19.4		25
Secondary	6,428	30.4	-		38.0	4,819	<b>31</b> 3		
Higher	3,179	36.5		<b>31.3</b> 8 24.6		22607	32.3		
N/A	10					,			
Employment			$Q_{0.001}$		0.006			0.955	
No No	9,216	30.3		<b>±</b> 8.9		6,7 <b>9</b> 3	<b>25</b> .5		
Yes	1,852	37		₹1.7	ner	1,540	2 <b>6</b> .5		
Wealth-index quintile	-,		< 0.001	######################################	Agagnosed with treatment	5	25.5.5.7.1	< 0.001	
Poorest	2,073	23.9		<b>₽</b> B	tre	1 202 1	f8.1		
Poor	2,272	26.8		₽.1	Ę	1,628	18.8		
Middle	2,387	34.2		<b>≨</b> 1.2	× ₽	1,843	20.4		
Rich	2,280	34.8		<del>3</del> 0.6	Se	1,862	27.3		
Richest	2,056	37.3		<b>25</b> .6	guc	1,897	40		
Tobacco usage	2,000	0.10	0.015	guệ	<105.001	- ,, B		< 0.001	
No	9,072	31	0.015	<del>.18</del> .6	₹	6,806	24.2	10.001	
Yes	1,995	33.7		<b>2</b> 0.0 <b>2</b> €20.8	Newly	1,528	31		
Listen to radio	1,000	55.7	< 0.001	New 8.€	< 0.001	1,520	51	< 0.001	
Never/few times a year	4,884	28.7	40.001	16.2	10.001	3,576	21.6	10.001	
≥Once a week/a month	3,938	31.3		19.5		2,948	25.1		
Almost everyday	2,246	37.6		25.7		1,808	33.8		
Read the newspaper	2,210	57.0	< 0.001	25.1	< 0.001	1,000	33.0	< 0.001	
Never/few times a year	3,461	24.6	VO.001	14.9	X0.001	2,317	22.6	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	
≥Once a week/a month	6,233	33.9		20.4		4,911	25.3		
Almost everyday	1,091	42.3		29.3		965	34		
N/A	282	72.3		27.3		140	54		
Parity	202		< 0.001		< 0.001	110		< 0.001	
Nulliparous	958	25.8	NO.001	18.4	NO.001	625	18.1	\U.UU1	
Primiparous	1,194	23.1		12.9		806	14.4		
Multiparous	8,916	33.2		20.3		6,902	27.5		
Pregnant	0,710	33.2	0.021	20.3	0.829	0,702	27.5	< 0.001	
No/Unsure	10,061	31.8	0.021	19.3	0.027	7,626	26.5	<0.001	
Yes	1,006	28.2		19.1		707	14.1		
Heard of Pap smear	1,000	20.2	< 0.001	17.1	< 0.001	707	14.1		
No	2,735	19	<0.001	11.2	<0.001			_	
Yes	8,333	35.5		22		-	-		
Performed BSE	0,333	33.3		44	< 0.001	-	-	< 0.001	
No	7,587	100	-	11.6	\U.UU1	5,373	21	\U.UUI	
Yes	3,481	100		36.1		2,960	33.5		
	3,401	100	∠0.001	30.1		۷,۶۵0	33.3	< 0.001	
Underwent CBE	8,927	24.9	< 0.001		-	6,499	19.9	<0.001	
No Yes				-					
N/A	2,138 3	58.8		-		1,832	45.4		

BSE: Breast self-examination; CBE, Clinical breast examination; Pap smear, Papanicolaou smear; N, number of women who reported performing BSE, undergoing CBE, or undergoing Pap smear examination; %, percentage of women in each category by outcome; P-value, obtained from cross-tabulation between each category and each outcome

Table 2. Adjusted ORs for BSE, CBE (n = 10,776) and Lifetime Pap smear Examination (n= 8185) in Relation to the Women's Characteristics in Women Aged 20–49 years in Jordan

	Breast cancer	Cervical cancer screening			
	Performed BSE aOR (95% CI)	Undergone CBE aOR (95% CI) <sup>a</sup>	Undergone Pap smear aOR (95% CI) <sup>b</sup>		
Age, years					
20-29	1.00	1.00	1.00		
30-39	1.30 (1.16-1.46)***	1.48 (1.29-1.71)***	2.39 (2.00-2.86)***		
40-49	1.70 (1.51-1.91)***	1.77 (1.52-2.05)***	4.00 (3.33-4.80)***		
Residence					
Urban	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Rural	0.86 (0.76-0.97)*	0.82 (0.70-0.95)*	1.04 (0.88-1.23)		
Geographical location	(	(-11-2)	()		
South	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Central	1.04 (0.90-1.22)	1.33 (1.08-1.63)**	2.15 (1.67-2.77)***		
North	1.38 (1.17-1.63)***	1.46 (1.18-1.81)**	2.28 (1.76-2.96)***		
Education	1.38 (1.17-1.03)	1.40 (1.16-1.61)	2.28 (1.70-2.90)		
	0.65 (0.52.0.70)***	1.02 (0.90.1.20)	1 10 (0 02 1 55)		
Elementary or less	0.65 (0.53-0.79)***	1.02 (0.80-1.30)	1.19 (0.92-1.55)		
Secondary	0.88 (0.79-0.98)*	1.08 (0.95-1.23)	1.12 (0.97-1.28)		
Higher	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Partner's education					
Elementary or less	0.91 (0.77-1.06)	0.74 (0.61-0.90)**	0.70 (0.56-0.87)**		
Secondary	0.95 (0.86-1.05)	0.80 (0.71-0.91)**	0.94 (0.83-1.08)		
Higher	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Employment					
No	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Yes	1.08 (0.96-1.21)	0.91 (0.79-1.06)	0.76 (0.65-0.88)***		
Wealth-index quintile					
Poorest	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Poor	1.04 (0.90-1.20)	1.27 (1.06-1.53)**	0.96 (0.78-1.18)		
Middle	1.39 (1.21-1.60)***	1.42 (1.19-1.70)***	1.03 (0.84-1.26)		
Rich	1.29 (1.11-1.49)**	1.15 (0.96-1.38)	1.56 (1.28-1.90)***		
Richest	1.22 (1.04-1.43)*	1.31 (1.08-1.60)**	2.38 (1.92-2.93)***		
Tobacco usage	1.22 (1.6 ( 1.15)	1.51 (1.66 1.66)	2.50 (1.52 2.55)		
No	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Yes	1.07 (0.96-1.20)	1.16 (1.02-1.33)*	1.09 (0.95-1.25)		
Listen to radio	1.07 (0.90-1.20)	1.10 (1.02-1.33)	1.09 (0.93-1.23)		
Never/few times a year	1.00	1.00	1.00		
-					
≥Once a week/a month	1.39 (1.25-1.53)***	1.16 (1.03-1.31)*	0.91 (0.79-1.04)		
Almost everyday	1.69 (1.44-1.97)***	1.53 (1.27-1.84)***	1.0 (0.82-1.23)		
Read the newspaper	4.00	1.00	1.00		
Never/few times a year	1.00	1.00	1.00		
≥Once a week/a month	1.04 (0.95-1.15)	1.19 (1.06-1.35)**	1.16 (1.02-1.31)*		
Almost everyday	1.21 (1.08-1.36)**	1.42 (1.24-1.63)***	1.39 (1.19-1.60)***		
Parity					
Nulliparous	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Primiparous	0.88 (0.71-1.07)	0.74 (0.57-0.95)*	1.08 (0.79-1.48)		
Multiparous	1.29 (1.10-1.51)**	0.94 (0.77-1.13)	1.31 (1.03-1.67)*		
Pregnant					
No/do not know	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Yes	1.11 (0.95-1.29)	1.37 (1.14-1.64)**	0.73 (0.57-0.93)*		
Performed BSE °	,	` '	,		
No	_	1.00	1.00		
Yes	_	3.06 (2.74-3.43)***	1.39 (1.24-1.55)***		
Undergone CBE d	-	3.00 (2.71-3.13)	1.57 (1.2 <del>1-</del> 1.55)		
No			1.00		
	-	-			
Yes	-	-	2.71 (2.37-3.04)***		

<sup>\*</sup>  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\* P < 0.01; \*\*\* P < 0.001. BSE: breast self-examination; CBE, clinical breast examination; aOR; adjusted odds ratio; a, adjusted also for BSE; b, adjusted also for BSE and CBE; c adjusted also for Pap smear examination for determining the odds ratio for CBE, and adjusted also to CBE for determining the odds ratio for Pap smear examination, d adjusted also for BSE

were included in the analysis (Montazeri et al., 2008; Maqsood et al., 2009; Sim et al., 2009; Nsour et al., 2012). These variables included the age (20-29, 30-39, or 40-49 years), residence (urban, rural), geographic location

(south, north, or central), the women's and their partners' education (elementary or less, secondary, or higher), employment (yes, no), tobacco usage (yes, no), listening to the radio or reading newspapers (never/few times a

Differences in Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening Rates in Jordan among Women from Different Socioeconomic Strata year, ≥once a week/a month, almost every day), parity (Table 1).

(nulliparous, primiparous, multiparous), and pregnancy (yes, no/do not know).

The overall rate of BSE or CBE in the previous year was 39.7%. The rate of BSE (31.5%) was higher than

#### Statistical analysis

Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 18), weighted calculations were expressed as frequencies and percentages for the sample as a whole and for each outcome, separately. Potential differences between subjects in the rates of BSE, CBE and Pap smear were evaluated for each measured characteristic, using the Chi-square tests.

Multivariate regression models were used to assess the strength of the association between a measured covariate and each of the outcomes by estimating the adjusted odds ratios (aORs). Adjustment was carried out for all the measured independent variables simultaneously. To assess the association between BSE with CBE, and between BSE or CBE and Pap smear examination, three additional multivariate models were used separately. The statistical significance level was set at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ .

The concentration index was used to estimate the inequalities of each outcome variable according to the wealth index. It provides a summary measure of the magnitude of economic status-related inequality in a health variable of interest and defined as twice the area between the concentration curve and the line of equality. A concentration index of 0 indicates perfect equality while a value of "1 or -1" indicates perfect inequality (O'Donnell et al., 2008; Wagstaff, 2011). Positive values of the concentration index indicate concentration of the health variable among the rich, while a negative value indicates concentration of the health variable among the poor.

Ethical approval: In the JPFHS and after full explanation about purpose, procedure, confidentiality, voluntarily participation and anonymity of the data, interviewers acquired witnessed verbal consent from adult respondents. The JPFHS design and survey protocol and consent procedure was approved by government in Jordan."

#### Results

The mean age of the women was 34.9 years (SD 7.88). Nearly 17% were residing in rural areas. Of the subjects, 10% of women had elementary education or less, the majority (83.3%) were unemployed, 39.3% lived in poor households (poorest and poor quintiles), 18.0% were current tobacco users, and 44.1% and 31.3% listened to the radio or read newspapers "never/a few times a year"

The overall rate of BSE or CBE in the previous year was 39.7%. The rate of BSE (31.5%) was higher than that of CBE (19.3%). Only 11.5% of the women had both performed BSE and undergone CBE in the previous year. Almost three-quarters (75.6%) of the women had heard about Pap smear examination, a quarter of whom, representing 19.4% of all the subjects, reported having undergone Pap smear examination at least once in their lifetime. Only 4.6% of the women had had the experience of all the three of BSE, CBE and Pap smear examination (Table 1).

Subjects in the age group 20-29 years, residing in rural or the southern regions of the country, with or married to a partner with elementary school education or less, belonging to the 'poorest' and 'poor' households, nonsmokers, listening to the radio or reading the newspaper "never/few times a year", and who were primiparous/nulliparous showed lower rates of breast and cervical cancer screenings. Of the pregnant women, 28.2%, 19.1% and 14.1% had performed BSE, undergone CBE and undergone Pap smear examination, respectively. More than one-third (36.1%) of the women who had performed BSE had also undergone CBE. The Pap smear examination rate was higher among the women who had also undergone CBE than among the women who had performed BSE alone (45.4% vs. 33.5%, P < 0.001) (Table 1).

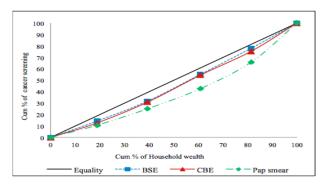
The results of multivariate analysis of the factors associated with BSE, CBE and Pap smear examination practices using binary logistic regression are shown in Table 2. Age 40-49 years was significantly associated with increased odds for BSE (aOR, 1.7; P < 0.001), CBE (aOR, 1.77; P < 0.001) and Pap smear examination (aOR, 4.0; P < 0.001). Living in rural areas was negatively associated with BSE (aOR, 0.8; P < 0.001) or CBE (aOR, 0.8; P < 0.001).

Belonging to households in the richest wealth-index quintile was significantly associated with a higher likelihood of BSE (aOR, 1.2; P < 0.01), CBE (aOR, 1.3; P < 0.001) and Pap smear examination (aOR 2.4; P < 0.001). Tobacco smoking was significantly correlated with the likelihood of CBE (aOR, 1.2, P < 0.01), but not with that of BSE (aOR, 1.1, P > 0.05) or Pap smear examination. Listening to the radio or reading the newspaper "almost every day" was positively associated the likelihood of BSE (aOR, 1.7; 1.2, respectively) and CBE (aOR, 1.5; 1.4, respectively). Pregnant women were 37% more likely to undergo CBE, while they were 27% less likely to undergo Pap smear examination than non-pregnant women (Table 2).

Table 3. Wealth-related Inequalities in Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening Practices

Indicator	N	% Performed	Wealth index				Equity ratio	Concentration	
		screening(s)	Poorest	Poorer	Middle	Richer	Richest	(Richest/Poorest)	index
BSE	3,48	1 31.5	23.9	26.8	34.2	34.8	37.3	1.56	0.11
CBE	2,138	3 19.3	13	17.1	21.2	19.6	25.6	1.97	0.01
Pap smear	2,124	4 25.5	18.1	18.8	20.4	27.3	40	2.21	0.27
Both SBE/CBE	1,25	7 11.4	7.9	8.5	14	11.7	14.6	1.85	0.11
At least one screening <sup>a</sup>	4,510	54.2	44.4	47.4	52.9	58.2	64.5	1.45	0.13

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}(N = 8,331)$ 



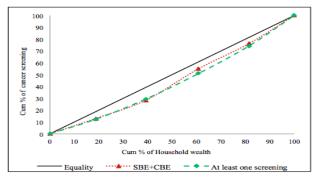


Figure 1. Household Wealth Index Concentration Curves for Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening in Jordan. Concentration Index (CI). BSE: CI = 0.11; CBE: CI = 0.01; Pap-smear: CI = 0.27; SBE + CBE: CI = 0.11; at least one cancer screening: CI = 0.13

As shown also in Table 2, women who performed BSE had a higher likelihood of also undergoing CBE (aOR, 3.1) or Pap smear examination (aOR, 1.4), and women who underwent CBE showed a higher likelihood of undergoing Pap smear examination (aOR, 2.7) (P < 0.001 for all).

Analysis of the rate of each outcome measure among the women in the richest households as compared to that among the women in the poorest households showed that the women with a wealth index in the "richest" quintile were 56%, 97%, and 121% more likely to practice BSE, and undergo CBE and Pap smear examination (concentration indices: 0.11,0.01, and 0.27, respectively), and 45% more likely to undergo at least one of BSE, CBE or Pap smear examination (Table 3). The magnitudes of the inequalities in the cancer screening rates are also depicted graphically in Figure 1.

#### **Discussion**

The study was conducted to assess the rates of breast and cervical cancer screening and the factors associated with breast and cervical cancer screenings in a nationally representative sample of ever-married Jordanian women. This cohort of Jordanian ever-married women showed insufficient rates of breast and cervical cancer screening. The study also confirmed the existence of pro-rich bias in the rates of breast and cervical cancer screening, indicating that women living in the lower socioeconomic strata were less likely to benefit from early cancer detection and intervention programs.

Inequalities in the rates of breast and cervical cancer screening persist in Jordan despite the country-wide effort to improve the socioeconomic status and primary healthcare coverage of the population. In Jordan, the per capita GDP rose from 4,289 US\$ in 2005 to 6,100 US\$ in 2012 (Jordan Economy Profile 2014), the maternal mortality rate declined from 86 in 1990 to 50/100,000 live births in 2013 (Jordan profile, 2015), and the number of healthcare facilities has increased along with an increase in the national health insurance coverage (Library of Congress, 2006). In 2007, the JBCP was established and it introduced mammographic screening services in many healthcare facilities. The JBCP implemented several beneficial programs, and in 2010, it launched the phase III of a nationwide program aimed at raising the

health awareness of the public and first-line healthcare providers (Jordan breast cancer program). However, the present data still revealed low rates of BSE and CBE, with no significant changes since 2007 (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey, 2012). The findings were comparable to the low screening rates in many other low-and middle-income countries (Sim et al., 2009; Maqsood, Zeeshan, Rehman et al., 2009; Tfayli et al., 2010).

Higher rates of cancer screening were found among the women in the higher socioeconomic strata. Older age, residence in urban areas, higher education level and being married to a partner with higher education, belonging to wealthier households, and listening to the radio and the reading the newspaper "almost every day" were significantly associated with a higher likelihood of breast and cervical screenings. Women of older age are more likely to experience more health issues and to visit healthcare providers. The relationship between age with breast cancer examination is in line with previous reports (Montazeri et al., 2008; Sim et al, 2009). Higher level of education and belonging to higher economic strata are associated with healthier lifestyles, more likely due to easier access to advanced healthcare services. These findings are parallel to those from Jordan and other countries in the region (Maaita and Barakat, 2002; Al Sairafi and Mohamed, 2009; Sim et al, 2009; Al-Meer et al., 2011).

We found that living in the rural and the southern regions of the country was a negative predictor of cancer screenings. The nationwide JBCP activities supposedly had to eliminate this geographical disparity that still persists since 2007 (Nsour et al., 2012). The positive influence of national media in the rate of breast cancer screening was obvious in this study. Listening to the radio or reading the newspaper "almost every day" was found to be positively associated with the likelihood of breast cancer screening. Public media can provide clear health warning texts, as well as information on the places where clinical and laboratory tests are performed. However, since only less than one-third and a little less than 10% of the women have access to the radio or newspapers, respectively, continuing to focus on these two means may possibly not help in increasing the rate of cancer screenings. Jordan is a Muslim country, where every Friday, large numbers gather to pray and listen to the

Differences in Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening Rates in Jordan among Women from Different Socioeconomic Strata

Friday sermon. (Underwood et al., 2013).

The study revealed that approximately three-quarters of the women had heard of Pap smear examination. This finding confirms an increase in the proportion of women who have heard of Pap smear as compared to previous reports (Amarin et al., 2008; Underwood et al., 2013). Nevertheless, less than a quintile of women reported Pap smear testing at least once in their lifetime. The fact that this disease is primarily a sexually transmitted disease is the main reason that perhaps explains the low Pap smear testing rate (Nsour et al., 2012). Women of older ages were more likely to undergo Pap smear examination; this finding is contradictory to the findings of studies reported from Qatar (Al-Meer et al., 2011) and Kuwait (Al Sairafi and Mohamed, 2009). This contradiction could perhaps be explained as follows: 1) those two studies were limited to specific groups of the general population using convenient sampling, whereas the present study is a large-scale and nationally representative study that provided robust estimates, and 2) those women of older age were more likely to seek healthcare for other reasons which could have led to opportunistic Pap smear testing (Amarin et al., 2008).

Although pregnant women were more likely to undergo CBE, they were less likely to undergo Pap smear examination. In Jordan, 99.1% of women have paid at least one antenatal care visit during their pregnancies (Jordan Population and Family Health Survey, 2012). Hence, the recommendation that features prominently here is to seize the opportunity of having women at the health facility to train them to perform BSE, and encouraging them to undergo CBE and Pap smear examination. The study also revealed that performing BSE was associated with undergoing CBE, and both BSE and CBE were independently associated with Pap smear examination. This finding supports the findings of previous studies that reported that BSE empowers women to seek CBE (Sim et al, 2009; Yoo et al., 2012), and patients undergoing CBE are trained to practice BSE (Dahlui et al., 2011). Integration of cervical cancer screening to the JBCP would provide a potential dual action in empowering women to seek cancer screenings simultaneously.

The study has different major strengths. It assessed the wealth status and inequality of breast and cervical cancer screenings and identified several socioeconomic and geographical factors associated with low rates of cancer screenings. The study was carried out in a nationally representative sample of Jordanian women aged 20-49 years who are recommended to undergo cancer screenings. Limiting screening questions to the previous 12 months and lifetime Pap smear examination, which are difficultto-forget tests, minimized the possibility of recall bias. It also assessed the inequality of screenings in relation to the income based on the household wealth index calculated using composite indicators to measure the economic status of the surveyed women, and the concentration index, which is a relevant measurement for determining the magnitude of economic-related inequalities.

The study limitations include the cross-sectional nature of the study design, which precludes the establishment of causal relationships. The cultural barriers and shyness against answering such sensitive questions could have resulted in a response bias. To minimize this potential bias, female interviewers were employed to personally interview the subjects. Although the results showed that there was an influence of practicing BSE on CBE or Pap smear examination, since no information was collected in this survey on which factor comes first, the direction of association could not be determined. A previous study suggested that when a female undergoes CBE, she is usually taught how to perform BSE (Dahlui et al., 2011). Pap smear examination is often underreported since many physicians might order Pap smear examination without informing the women about the purpose of this test.

In conclusion, the study highlighted the existence of socioeconomic inequalities in breast and cervical cancer screenings among Jordanian women. Low uptake and disparities in cancer screenings could be attributed to the low level of awareness about the importance of early screening, which places a high proportion of women under the risk of late detection. Practicing BSE was associated with an increased likelihood of CBE, and CBE was also associated with an increased likelihood of Pap smear examination, which lends support to the necessity of empowering women about their own health through practicing self-examination. The study implies the need for actionable strategies to increase the rate of cancer screenings through reducing socio-economic inequalities.

### Acknowledgements

We are thankful to MEASURE DHS and Department of Statistics in Jordan for collecting and publishing the data sets. Our deepest thankfulness extends to all local and international organizations and individuals in the Jordan who contributed and participated in the 2012 JPFHS. This study was partly supported by a Grant-in-aid for Scientific Research from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS), Grant Number 26305022.

#### References

Akinyemiju TF (2012). Socio-economic and health access determinants of breast and cervical cancer screening in low-income countries: analysis of the world health survey. *PLoS One*, **7**, 48834.

Al Nsour M, Brown DW, Tarawneh M, et al (2012). Breast and cervical cancer screening among women in Jordan: Findings from the behavioral risk factor surveillance system-2007. *Open Breast Cancer J*, **4**, 1-7.

Al Sairafi M, Mohamed FA (2009). Knowledge, attitudes, and practice related to cervical cancer screening among Kuwaiti women. *Med Princ Pract*, **18**, 35-42.

Al-Meer FM, Aseel MT, Al-Khalaf J, et al (2011). Knowledge, attitude and practices regarding cervical cancer and screening among women visiting primary health care in Qatar. EMHJ, 17, 855-61.

Althuis MD, Dozier JM, Anderson WF, et al (2005). Global trends in breast cancer incidence and mortality 1973-1997. *Int J Epidemiol*, **34**, 405-12

Amarin ZO, Badria LF, Obeidat BR (2008). Attitudes and beliefs about cervical smear testing in ever-married Jordanian women. *East Mediterr Health J*, **14**, 389-97.

Breen N, Wagener DK, Brown ML, et al (2001). Progress in

- cancer screening over a decade: Results of cancer screening from the 1987, 1992, and 1998 national health interview surveys. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, **93**, 1704-13.
- Dahlui M, Ng C, Al-Sadat, et al (2011). Is breast self examination (BSE) still relevant? A study on BSE performance among female staff of university of Malaya. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev*, **12**, 369-72.
- Elovainio L, Nieminen P, Miller AB (1997). Impact of cancer screening on women's health. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*, **58**, 137-47.
- Gakidou E, Nordhagen S, Obermeyer Z (2008). Coverage of cervical cancer screening in 57 countries: Low average levels and large inequalities. *PLoS Medicine*, **5**, 132.
- GLOBOCAN (2012) Estimated cancer incidence, mortality, and prevalence worldwide in 2012. Facts sheets, jordan. cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: IARC Cancer Base No.10, Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2012. Available at: http://globocan.iarc.fr/Pages/fact\_sheets\_population.aspx
- ICO Information Centre on HPV and Cancer, Human Papillomavirus and Related Cancers, Fact Sheet 2013. Available at: http://www.hpvcentre.net/statistics/reports/JOR\_FS.pdf.
- Jemal A, Bray F, Center MM, et al (2011). Global cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin*, **61**, 69-90
- Jemal A, Center MM, DeSantis C, et al (2010). Global patterns of cancer incidence and mortality rates and trends. *Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention*, **19**, 1893-907.
- Jordan breast cancer program, Early Detection Plan. Available at: http://www.jbcp.jo
- Jordan Economy Profile (2014). Available at: http://www.indexmundi.com/jordan/economy\_profile.html
- Jordan Population and Family Health Survey 2007. Department of Statistics [Jordan] and ICF International. 2008. Calverton, Maryland, USA: Department of Statistics and ICF International.
- Jordan Population and Family Health Survey 2012. Department of Statistics [Jordan] and ICF International. 2013. Calverton, Maryland, USA: Department of Statistics and ICF International.
- Jordan profile 2015, World Health Organization, Global Health Observatory Data Repository. http://apps.who.int/gho/data/ node.country.country-JOR
- Library of Congress [US], Federal Research Division. Country profile: Jordan. Washington (DC): Library of Congress; 2006. Available at: http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Jordan.pdf.
- Maaita M, Barakat M (2002). Jordanian women's attitudes towards cervical screening and cervical cancer. *J Obstet Gynaecol*, **22**, 421-2.
- Maqsood B, Zeeshan MM, Rehman F, et al (2009). Breast cancer screening practices and awareness in women admitted to a tertiary care hospital of Lahore, Pakistan. *J Pak Med Assoc*, **59**, 418-21
- Marmot M, Friel S, Bell R, et al (2008). Closing the gap in a generation: health equity through action on the social determinants of health. commission on social determinants of health. *Lancet*, **372**, 1661-9.
- McKinnon B, Harper S, Moore S (2011). Decomposing incomerelated inequality in cervical screening in 67 countries. *Int J Public Health*, **56**, 139-52.
- Montazeri A, Vahdaninia M, Harirchi I, et al (2008). Breast cancer in Iran: need for greater women awareness of warning signs and effective screening methods. *Asia Pac Fam Med*, **7**, 6.
- O'Donnell O, Van Doorslaer E, Wagstaff A, et al (2008). Analyzing health equity using household survey data: a guide

- to techniques and their implementation. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Available at: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPAH/Resources/Publications/459843-1195594469249/HealthEquityFINAL.pdf
- Parkin DM, Nambooze S, Wabwire-Mangen F, et al (2010). Changing cancer incidence in kampala, uganda, 1991-2006. *Int J Cancer*, **126**, 1187-95.
- Parkin DM, Sitas F, Chirenje M, et al (2008). Part I: Cancer in indigenous africans-burden, distribution, and trends. *Lancet Oncol*, **9**, 683-92.
- Porter P (2008). "Westernizing" women's risks? breast cancer in lower-income countries. N Engl J Med, 358, 213-6.
- Porter PL (2009). Global trends in breast cancer incidence and mortality. *Salud Publica Mex*, **51**, 141-6.
- Rutstein S, Johnson K. The DHS wealth index. In DHS Comparative Reports No. 6. 2004, Calverton, Maryland: ORC Macro.
- Sankaranarayanan R, Boffetta P (2010). Research on cancer prevention, detection and management in low- and medium-income countries. *Ann Oncol*, **21**, 1935-43
- Sim HL, Seah M, Tan SM (2009). Breast cancer knowledge and screening practices: a survey of 1,000 Asian women. Singapore Med J, 50, 132-38.
- Tfayli A, Temraz S, Abou Mrad R, et al (2010). Breast cancer in low- and middle-income countries: an emerging and challenging epidemic. *J Oncol*, **2010**, 490631.
- Thun MJ, DeLancey JO, Center MM, et al (2010). The global burden of cancer: Priorities for prevention. *Carcinogenesis*, **31**, 100-110.
- Underwood C, Kamhawi S, Nofal A (2013). Religious leaders gain ground in the Jordanian family-planning movement. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*, **123**, 33-7.
- Wagstaff A (2011). The concentration index of a binary outcome revisited. *J Health Econ*, **20**, 1155-60.
- Wilson CM, Tobin S, Young RC (2004). The exploding worldwide cancer burden: The impact of cancer on women. *Int J Gynecol Cancer*, **14**, 1-11.
- World Cancer Report, 2014. Available at: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs297/en/
- Yoo BN, Choi KS, Jung KW, et al (2012). Awareness and practice of breast self-examination among Korean women: results from a nationwide survey. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev, 13, 123-5.
- Zur Hausen H (2009). Papillomaviruses in the causation of human cancers-a brief historical account. *Virology*, **384**, 260-5.