

Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening:

Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices of Vietnamese Canadian Women

Living in Toronto, Ontario

Tue Tran Nghi Nguyen

Professor Dr. D. Steven

Masters of Public Health, Lakehead University

Lakehead University

Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Degree of Master in Public Health

THESES M.P.H. 2006 N6 ProQuest Number: 10611504

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10611504

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC. 789 East Eisenhower Parkway P.O. Box 1346 Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

Dedication

To my little girl, Di An, for a next generation without breast and cervical cancer.

To my husband, Binh, for his love always.

To my research supervisor, Dr. Darlene Steven, for her endless support and patience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures	iii
List of Tables	
Objectives of the Study	
Literature Review	
Introduction	
Breast Cancer	
Cervical Cancer	8
Efficacy of Cancer Screening	8
Differences in Screening Practices	
Sample Selection	
Research Design	
Data Analysis	23
Results	24
Response Rates	24
Characteristics	
Incidence of Breast and Cervical Cancer	
General Health Indices	
Health-Related Behaviors	27
Breast Screening	
Cervical Screening	
Limitations of the Study	40
Recommendations	40
Education	
Accessibility to Screening Services	41
Research	
References	44
APPENDIX A	5.2
Interview Guide Data Code Sheet (English Version)	
Interview Garde Data Code Brief (English Version)	
APPENDIX B	71
Interview Guide Data Code Sheet (Vietnamese Version)	
APPENDIX C	03
Letter to Participants	
20001 to 1 artiotpation	······
APPENDIX D	
Informed Consent Form	95
APPENDIX E	96
Summary of Responses to Selected Survey Questions	

List of Figures

Figure 1. Application of the HBF	. 6
List of Tables	
Table 1. Demographic Information	24
Table 2. General Health Indices	26
Table 3. Health Behaviour	28
Table 4. Percentage of Women Who Answered Yes to Questions about Breast	
Screening	29
Table 5. Education and BSE Rates	
Table 6. Gender of Family Doctor and Breast Screening (BS), Pap Smear (PS),	
Mammography (M)	32
Table 7. Breast Examination and Examiner	
Table 8. Ethnicity of Examiner	33
Table 9. Percentage of Women Who Answered Yes to Questions Related to Cervical	
Screening	33

Statement of the Purpose

Breast cancer is the most common cancer, and cervical cancer is the second most common cancer, among Vietnamese women in North America. This ranking replicates the order of cancer prevalence among women residing in Vietnam. Unfortunately, Unfortunately, Vietnamese women are less likely to report ever having had recommended screening procedures for these cancers and are more likely to be overdue for them than women in the general populations (Miller, Kolonel, & Bernstein, 1996). Many factors have been highlighted from previous studies to shed light into this cancer prevalence. These factors include but not limited to accessibility of service, lack of knowledge on breast and cervical cancers, inadequate number of female physicians, language barrier, etc. Therefore, the overall purpose of this project is to examine the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of Vietnamese Canadian women ages 40 to 60 toward breast and cervical cancer screenings.

Objectives of the Study

- 1. To identify the possible barriers in race or ethnicity, culture, and socioeconomic status (SES) that Vietnamese Canadian women face in their efforts to take preventive measures and participate in breast and cervical cancer screening.
- 2. To make recommendations and develop strategies for ethnic-focused breast and cervical cancer health promotion.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was the health behaviour framework (HBF), which represents a synthesis of some of the major theoretical formulations in the area of compliance, including the health belief model, the theory of reasoned

action/planned behaviour, the transtheoretical model of change, the social influence theory, and many major components of PRECEDE (Bastani, Gallardo, & Maxwell, 2001; Curry & Emmons, 1994; Gritz & Bastani, 1993). The PRECEDE framework was originally taken from Andersen's model of behavioural factors in health care utilization (Curry & Emmons; Glanz, Kristal, Tulley, & Hirst, 1998; Green & Kreuter, 1991). The PRECEDE specifies that factors affecting behaviour can be broadly classified as predisposing, reinforcing, or enabling.

This conceptual framework was chosen because unlike most behavioural models, it assumes that factors affecting health choices are culturally determined and does not specify that the same variables (e.g., perceived susceptibility to disease) are determinants of behaviour across communities (Green et al., 1999). This framework for this study has been successfully used to develop survey instruments and intervention programs for diverse racial/ethnic groups, including Asian Americans, and screening behaviours (Bastani et al., 2001; Bastani, Maxwell, Bradford, Das, & Yan, 1999; Maxwell, Bastani, & Warda, 1997, 1998; Maxwell, Bastani, Vida, & Warda, 2003). It is a general heuristic framework, and not all of its elements are applicable to every population or specific research question; the researcher chose to use the HBF as the conceptual framework because unlike most models, it does not specify that the same factors are determinants of behaviour across population subgroups (Bastani et al., 1999, 2001). The relevant HBF constructs identified by quantitative and qualitative studies and included in the survey were effectiveness, knowledge, barriers, social support, and communication with provider (see Figure 1).

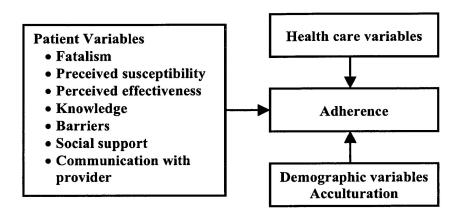


Figure 1. Application of the HBF.

Source: Green et al., 1999.

Literature Review

Introduction

Canada is known for its multicultural mosaic. Toronto is home to "virtually all of the world's culture groups and is the city where more than 100 languages are spoken" (City of Toronto, 2005). Over the years, particularly after World War II, Toronto saw an influx of new immigrant groups, an event that has led to the more recent and dramatic change to the racial and ethnic mix of its population. The Toronto Census Metropolitan Area comprises more than 90 ethnic groups. Based on country of origin, the top six groups are European (997,180), East and Southeast Asian (488,350), British (457,990), Canadian (311,965), South Asian (291,520), and Caribbean (167,295). In 2001, immigrants made up 50% of Toronto's population. People of Vietnamese ancestry now comprise one of the fastest growing Asian/Pacific Islander ethnic groups in Toronto. The Vietnamese Canadian population in Toronto was the 10th largest at 24,000, and demographers predict that by 2010, half of Toronto's population will be comprised of Asians (Statistics Canada, 2005).

Given these trends in population growth patterns and the cultural diversity they represent, advancing our knowledge of effective transcultural approaches to health promotion is critical. (City of Toronto, 2005). Because of the persistent disparities in the stages of diagnosis and survival rates for breast and cervical cancer among population subgroups, this study will primarily examine the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of Vietnamese Canadian women in Toronto, Ontario that pertain to breast and cervical cancer screening. It will also attempt to identify possible barriers to screening associated

with race or ethnicity, culture, and SES in the Vietnamese Canadian community in the Toronto area.

Breast Cancer

Breast cancer is the most prevalent cancer affecting women in Canada. One in every 9 Canadian women will develop the disease in her lifetime, and one in every 27 will die from it (Canadian Cancer Society (CCS), 2005). In 2005, the Canadian Cancer Society (CCS) estimated that 21,600 women would be diagnosed with breast cancer that same year and that approximately 25% of these cases would be terminal. An estimated 8,200 women in Ontario were diagnosed with breast cancer in 2005, and 2,000 of them died (CCS). Breast cancer continues to be the most frequently diagnosed form of cancer for women in Ontario (CCS). It is the second leading cause of cancer death after lung cancer.

Cervical Cancer

The CCS (2005) estimated 1,350 new cases of cervical cancer and 400 deaths from cervical cancer in 2005. Based on a national population of 31,949,000, one in every 138 Canadian women will be diagnosed with cervical cancer, and one in every 385 will die from it (CCS). Sexually active women should undergo Pap tests and pelvic examinations every 1 to 3 years, depending on provincial health guidelines. Prevention practices and early diagnosis will reduce the mortality rate of cervical cancer.

Mammograms and Pap smears are effective screening tests for the early detection, timely treatment, and concomitant reductions in morbidity and mortality of breast and cervical cancers (McPhee et al., 2002). Hiatt et al. (1996) reported that breast and cervical

Efficacy of Cancer Screening

cancers are the two types of cancer that have screening tests of proven efficacy. Although there has not been any research confirming the effectiveness of clinical breast examinations (CBEs) and breast self-examinations (BSEs), these "low-cost measures remain part of recommended current preventive care practice" (Hiatt et al., p. S13). Acknowledging that it is possible to reduce mortality rates through the utilization of effective screening techniques, the CCS (2005) recommended that:

- 1. Women who are between the ages of 50 and 69 should have a mammogram every 2 years.
 - 2. Women who are over the age of 40 should have a CBE at least every 2 years.
- 3. All women should practice BSEs regularly and report any changes to their family doctor.

Although progress has been made over the past decade in the fight against breast and cervical cancers, differences among race or ethnic groups in the survival rates may be the result of differences in screening adherence (Baquet & Ringen, 1986; Farley & Flannery, 1989; McWhorter & Mayer, 1987; Ruffin, Gorenflo, & Woodman, 1999). According to Ruffin et al., despite the suggested guidelines for breast and cervical screenings, the participation levels of women in these screenings is very low:

The proportion of women aged 40 to 49 years with documentation of breast self-examination discussion ever, clinical breast examination in the past 2 years, and mammography in the past 2 years was 29%. The proportion of women aged 50 years and older with documentation of breast self-examination discussion ever, clinical breast examination in the past year, and mammography in the past year was 17%.... Only 8.6% of women aged 40 to 49 years had documentation of their

receiving a Papanicolaou smear in the past 3 (with an intact cervix), breast self-examination discussion ever, clinical breast examination in the past year, mammography in the past 2 years (or all cancer screening procedures for their age and sex). Only 3% of women aged 50 years and older had documentation of receiving a Papanicolaou smear in the past 3 years (with an intact cervix), breast self-examination discussion ever, a clinical breast examination in the past year, a mammography in the past year...(or all cancer-screening procedures for their age and sex). These proportions were so small that we could not develop logistic regression models. (p. 4)

A significant public health challenge lies ahead in encouraging women from different ethnic groups to undergo regular breast and cervical cancer screening.

Differences in Screening Practices

Studies have shown that members of racial and ethnic minorities in the United States are at greater risk for disease than white individuals (Casper, Barnett, Armstrong, & Giles, 1997; Cooper & Rotimi, 1997; Escobedo, Giles, & Anda, 1997; O'Malley, Prehn, Shema, & Glaser, 2002; Sorlie, Rogot, Anderson, Johnson, & Backlund, 1992). In addition, members of racial and ethnic minorities participate in breast and cervical cancer screening at lower rates (McPhee et al., 2002; Suarez, Goldman, & Weiss, 1995).

Fitch, Greenberg, Cava, Spaner, and Taylor (1998) concluded that low-income women face many barriers to cervical cancer screening. They conducted their study in North York with a sample of 110 women between the ages of 20 and 60. Open-ended questions about the women's experiences regarding access health care, concerns about cervical screening, and suggestions for cervical screening recruitment strategies were

explored in 11 focus-group sessions. Fitch et al. described the four main themes arising from their findings:

The first theme, being able to talk with doctors is important, described women's need to have access to the doctor without barriers (e.g., limited office hours, difficulties in getting child care or transportation, and long waiting times); conversations with the doctor that were unhurried, provided easy to understand information, and did not make the woman feel "stupid"; and a sense of comfort and trust with the doctor.

The second theme, being treated as a person, is important, focused on women's interactions with the healthcare [sic] system. Women wanted to be cared for holistically rather than just for their physical health, to be sensitively listened to, and to have privacy during a Pap test.

The third theme, finding answers to many questions about cancer is important, emphasized [sic] that women had many questions about cancer treatment options, outcomes, and side effects; cancer prevention; and where to find good information sources.

The fourth theme, having a Pap test is uncomfortable, related to women's uncertainties about the purpose of the Pap test and the actual procedure. Many women needed to mentally prepare for the Pap test and felt it was an embarrassing, humiliating, and unpleasant experience. (pp. 444-446)

In the United States, cervical cancer incidence rates among Vietnamese American women are the highest of any race or ethnic group: 43/100,000 versus 8.7/100,000 among White women (Miller, Kolonel, & Bernstein, 1996). American data for 1988 to 1992

showed an average age-adjusted incidence rate of 37.5 per 100,000 for invasive breast cancer (Miller et. al.). Moreover, Vietnamese American women are one third as likely to develop breast cancer but nearly five times as likely to develop cervical cancer (Miller et al.). In Vietnam, breast cancer is the most common cancer, and cervical cancer is the second most common (Anh, Hanh, Parkin, & Du, 1993).

Various studies have investigated the attitude, knowledge, and practices of Vietnamese American women toward breast and cervical cancers. Researchers have focused on the impact of demographic, environmental, and cultural factors on the acceptance of and participation in breast and cervical cancer screenings (Jenkins et al., 1999; Lam et al., 2003; McPhee et al., 1996; Nguyen, McPhee, Nguyen, Lam, & Mock, 2002).

Hiatt et al. (1996) studied the relationship of race or ethnicity, SES, and culture to breast and cervical cancer screenings. Individuals from five race or ethnic groups (i.e., Latina, White, Black, Chinese and Vietnamese) in the San Francisco Bay area were selected to be the study sample (N = 4,228). Hiatt et al. concluded:

Among the groups, Latinas had the highest levels of compliance, Vietnamese women had the lowest, and Chinese women were intermediate between them....

The two groups of women reporting the lowest rate of recent screening were the Chinese and the Vietnamese. (p. S20)

The researchers came from different disciplines and cultures. Further to assessing the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of these women, Hiatt et al. also investigated possible barriers to screening utilization. "Analyses revealed the importance of education and insurance in obtaining recommended screening regardless of race or ethnicity. However,

race, ethnicity, and culture are important to the tailoring of effective interventions" (Hiatt et al., p. S10).

A telephone survey in California showed that among Vietnamese women, cultural factors (e.g., immigration and fluency in English) and structural factors (e.g., marital status, SES, and cost of screening) are associated with screening utilization (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 1992). In California, the rate of cervical cancer among Vietnamese women is four times that of the general population, and the average rate derived from regional surveys of Latinas is twice the national rate for either Anglo-American or African American women (McPhee et al., 1996; Perez-Stable, Otero-Sabogal, Sabogal, & Napoles-Springer, 1996). Surveys of Vietnamese and Latino women have found that the rates of screening for breast and cervical cancers are significantly lower in these vulnerable communities than in the general population (Harlan, Bernstein, & Kessler, 1991; McPhee et. al.; Miller et. al., 1996; Perez-Stable et al.; Yi, 1994). Moreover, stage of diagnosis for cervical and breast cancers generally is less favorable for Vietnamese and Latinos than for the general California population.

Because data on sexual behaviour may be unavailable or unreliable, the National Cancer Institute (2002) identified women who have never had a Pap test and those without recent tests as high risk for cervical cancer. The University of California and a community coalition of 11 organizations in Santa Clara County used a demonstration project, "REACHing Vietnamese-American Women: A Community Model for Promoting Cervical Cancer Screening," as its framework (as cited in Lam et al., 2003). These two agencies each recruited 10 lay health workers (LHWs), who then recruited 20 women. The 20 women were randomly and equally divided into two groups: The 10

women in Group 1 (n_1 = 200) received Lay Health Worker Outreach (LHWO) and media education (ME), and the 10 women in Group 2 (n_2 = 200) received only ME. The LHWs transferred their knowledge of Pap tests to the recruited women through self-organized meetings, and they also encouraged and motivated these women to go for Pap tests.

The project was funded by the CDC (2005) through its Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health (REACH) 2010 Program. The goal of the project was to increase Vietnamese-American women's cervical cancer awareness, knowledge, and screening through an ME campaign and an LHWO program. After analyzing the pre- and postintervention questionnaires, Lam et al. (2003) reported the promising results:

At post-intervention [sic], significantly more Lay Health Worker Outreach

(LHWO) + Media Education (ME) women understood that human papillomavirus

and smoking cause cervical cancer. The number of women who had obtained a

Pap test increased significantly among women in both LHWO + ME and ME

groups, but substantially more in the LHWO + ME group. Significantly more

LHWO + ME women said they intended to have a Pap test. (p. 516)

It was clear that "media education campaigns can increase Vietnamese women's awareness of the importance of Pap tests, but lay health workers are more effective at encouraging women to actually obtain the tests" (Lam et al., 2003, p. 516). LHWs were employed to recruit the study participants because the Vietnamese community is characterized by its solidarity, generosity, and helpfulness. It was expected that the Vietnamese women would offer their homes for meetings, be willing to invite friends and relatives to educational events, and enthusiastically support these efforts to improve women's health in their community (Bird, Otero-Sabogal, Ha, & McPhee, 1996).

Bird et al. (1998) reported on the success of their controlled trial study on the importance of engaging LHWs to promote cancer screening among Vietnamese American women. Interventions (i.e., the LHWs conducted small-group sessions for Vietnamese women in a low-income district of San Francisco, California) occurred from 1992 to 1996. Women in Sacramento, California, served as study controls. A total of 232 sessions took place (56 on general prevention, 86 on cervical cancer, and 90 on breast cancer), and 306 of the 373 participants were surveyed pre- and postintervention. In the intervention community, recognition and acceptance of screening tests increased significantly between the pre- and postintervention surveys: CBEs, 50% to 85% (recognition), 44% to 70% (acceptance); mammograms, 59% to 79% (recognition), 54% to 69% (acceptance); and Pap smears, 22% to 78% (recognition), 46% to 66% (acceptance), respectively. These results clearly showed that by offering appropriate and cultural sensitive health promotion programs, Vietnamese women's recognition, acceptance, and maintenance of breast and cervical cancer screening tests could be increased significantly.

Similarly, another Vietnamese community health promotion project that also incorporated a media-led education campaign succeeded in increasing women's recognition of and intention to undertake screening tests (Jenkins et al., 1999). However, the intervention had no effect on any of the women staying current for any of the tests (Pap smears, CBE, mammogram). The project, which was implemented over 24 months, targeted Vietnamese American women in the Alameda and Santa Clara Counties in northern California. Women in Los Angeles and Orange Counties in southern California served as controls. Jenkins et al. conducted telephone interviews to evaluate the impact of

the project. A total of 451 randomly selected women in the intervention area and 482 women in the control area were interviewed at the pretest stage. At the posttest stage, telephone interviews were conducted with 454 women in the intervention area and 422 women in the control area (Jenkins et. al.). The researchers concluded:

At posttest, after controlling for demographic differences in the surveyed populations, the odds ratio for the intervention effect were statistically significant for having heard of a general checkup, Pap test, and clinical breast examination (CBE; planning to have a checkup, Pap test, and mammogram; and having had a checkup and Pap test). The intervention had no effect on being up to date for any of the tests. (p. 395)

Nguyen et al. (2002) assessed the factors associated with Vietnamese American women's awareness, intention to obtain, and acceptance of the Pap test. The researchers interviewed a total of 1,566 Vietnamese American women in Santa Clara County, California, and Harris County, Texas, 18 years of age or older by telephone in 2000. Data on sociodemographics; health care system access and attitudes; as well as Pap test awareness, attitudes, intentions, and practices were collected. Nguyen et al. reported:

Of 1566 subjects, 74% had heard of the Pap test, and 76% had had at least one. Only 42% of those who never had a Pap test had considered obtaining one. There were no significant differences between two sites. Women aged ≥ 65 had the lowest rates for all three outcomes. For all women, younger age, being married, having requested a Pap test, physician recommendation, and preferred female standby if the doctor was male were associated with Pap test intention. Being married, higher level of education, having a female doctor, having a respectful

doctor, having requested the test, and physician recommendation were associated with Pap test receipt. (p. 207)

In conclusion, for these particular Vietnamese American women, the patient-doctor interaction was an important factor; therefore, "efforts to increase Pap test utilization in this population need to be directed at encouraging physicians to offer the Pap test and empowering women to ask for the test" (Nguyen et al.).

There are limited data on Vietnamese Canadian women and breast and cervical cancer screenings. In fact, the prevalence of and risk factors associated with these cancers in Vietnamese Canadian women remain unstudied. Donnelly's unpublished data (personal communication, September 2005) supported previous research findings of barriers such as language, culture, and living 'in-between' to Vietnamese Canadian women's participation in breast cancer and cervical cancer screenings. He concluded that Vietnamese Canadian women's health behaviour is influenced by their cultural knowledge and values, that is, their socially constructed position, race, gender, and class. He recommended to this researcher that physician-patient relationships be improved and that immigrant women's different modes of awareness of health education and strategies be incorporated into programs.

Steven et al. (2001) investigated the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and practices regarding breast and cervical cancer screenings of four selected ethnocultural groups (i.e., Italian, Ukrainian, Finnish, and First Nations). A sample of 105 women ages 40 years and older were interviewed in person by the researchers in the participants' language of choice. These women were selected from a convenience sample in Northwestern Ontario. Snowball sampling was used to recruit other eligible participants. The questionnaire was

adapted from an earlier version of the questionnaire used by Choudhry, Srivastava, and Fitch (1998). The main findings confirmed the results of past studies:

First Nations women were more likely than any other group [Italian, Ukrainian and Finnish] to: have not had a breast self exam, refused a breast examination or mammogram, have not been told how to do a breast self exam, have not received written information about breast examination and were uncomfortable and fearful about cervical cancer screening procedures (33% refused an internal examination as compared to 0-8% in other ethnic groups). (Steven et al., p. 2)

Concrete recommendations were derived from Steven et al.'s (2001) study.

Grouped by category, they include education, accessibility of screening services, and research. Following are the main recommendations from their study:

To develop culturally sensitive health education programs and resources (pamphlets, videos, and television programs).

To develop educational programs for health care professionals on cultural sensitivity regarding breast and cervical cancer for specific populations.

To work in collaboration with community representatives to overcome barriers to accessing services (i.e., transportation/travel and child care).

To advocate for a female examiner in breast and cervical screening programs.

To conduct a longitudinal study on compliance with breast and cervical cancer screening in selected populations.

To evaluate the effects of low-income on individuals' knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs toward breast and cervical cancer screening. (pp. 33-34)

Given that cervical cancer is preventable through routine exam, prevalence of this illness is sufficient to warrant substantial investigation. Canada's ethnic population is at higher risk for developing the disease as a result of lower screening rates. Also notable is the significance of cervical cancer among low income groups (Fitch et al., 1998; Paskett at al., 1998; Simoes, Newschaffer, Hagdrup, Ali-Abarghoui, Tao, Mack, & Brownson, 1999). Research is limited for these aggregates and further examination is warranted (Band, Gallagher, Threlfall, Hislop, Deschamps, & Smith, 1992)

Summary

Steven et al.'s (2001) study and other studies concurred on one significant finding: Culturally appropriate and sensitive programs are the key to successful breast and cervical cancer screenings in ethnocultural groups. The above literature review suggests that Vietnamese women may not be generally predisposed to or may be unable to obtain cancer screening tests. A variety specific explanations for this lack of screening have been suggested, including lack of knowledge, lack of a preventive care orientation, language barriers, limited access to health care, and preference Eastern (traditional) medicine (McPhee et al., 1996). More studies should be undertaken to enhance the knowledge of ethnocultural groups in regard to breast and cervical cancer attitudes, beliefs, and practices related to screening.

Cancer-related morbidity and mortality are higher among the underserved.

Experts have recommended that cancer research for underserved populations must be based on cancer prevalence and preventability of cancer-related behaviors, must make accommodations to culture, and must emply practical strategies (Chen, 1994). To date, however, there have been few intervention studies targeting barriers to cancer screening

among Vietnamese women. Therefore, This study of Vietnamese-Canadian women and breast and cervical cancer screening further contributes to the data pool in identifying demographic factors as well as environmental and cultural practices that impact their acceptance of and participation in preventive measures and practices.

Methodology

Several models have been proposed over the past several decades to better understand the complex set of factors that ultimately influence patient and provider behaviors. Most notable among these are the Behavioral Model of Utilization developed by Anderson, Aday, and colleagues (Aday, & Anderson, 1974; Anderson, & Davidson, 1994; Phillips, Morrison, Anderson, & Aday, 1998) and the PRECEDE-PROCEED Model of Green and Kreuter (Green et el., 1999), both of which emphasize a multisectoral, multilevel ecological approach to program analysis, planning, and evaluation. This project's surveying tool, which was developed by Steven et al., (2001), was chosen because it proved to be successful in identifying factors at the public policy level, the community level, the organizational level, and the individual level. It also examined the practice setting through open-ended questions which emphasized the interaction in a synergistic manner that affect provider delivery and patient utilization of services. Both models are well stressed in the questionnaire with emphasis on the need for careful assessment of these factors when choosing interventions to improve quality and address specific individual and public health needs. Moreover, the health behavior conceptual framework and Steven's surveying tool addressed this project's objectives thoroughly. Possible barriers in race or ethnicity, culture, and socioeconomic status (SES) that Vietnamese Canadian women face in their efforts to take preventive measures and participate in

breast and cervical cancer screening were identified. The researchers were also able to make recommendations for ethnic-focused breast and cervical cancer health promotion.

Sample Selection

Toronto is an urban, industrialized city. In 2001, the city had an ethnically diverse population of approximately 4,647,955 million residents. The non-Latino White population constituted 43% of the total, with the remaining population classified as follows: 15% African Canadian, 20%Asian and Pacific Islander, and 19%Latino (City of Toronto, 2005). According to 2001 Canadian Census estimates, the largest Asian populations in the city were South Asian (10.2%) and Chinese (8.8%). 34,572 Vietnamese lived in Toronto and accounted for 76% of Vietnamese population in Canada (City of Toronto, 2005). This project was undertaken hoping to enhance the knowledge of the Vietnamese ethnocultural group in regard to breast and cervical cancer attitudes, beliefs, and practices related to screening.

The study took place in Toronto, Ontario, Canada.. Toronto was chosen because it has high density of Vietnamese residents and because it has geographic proximity to the researcher. The survey was administered between February 2006 and March 2006. A sample of convenience of 49 women, not 25 as originally intended, ages 40 years and older participated in the study. All of the participants were Vietnamese or Chinese-Vietnamese origin. Chinese-Vietnamese individuals are ethnic-Chinese individuals who were born in Vietnam. A snowball sampling approach was utilized to identify more individuals who met the eligibility requirements. After the questionnaire was completed, the initial participants were asked to provide the names of other women who were

interested in participating in this study. These women were contacted, and if they agreed to participate, questionnaires were mailed (or hand delivered) to them.

With the approval of the Ethical Review Committee of Lakehead University, the survey was administered between mid-February and mid-March of 2006. A package that included the survey questionnaire in English (see Appendix A) or Vietnamese (see Appendix B), a cover letter (see Appendix C), a consent form (see Appendix D), and a self-addressed stamped envelope was distributed to each eligible individual at places such as monthly meeting of Vietnamese women's clubs, Vietnamese and Chinese supermarkets, dental and doctor offices, and so on. The respondents had the options of answering the survey in English, Vietnamese, or both. If they answered in Vietnamese or a blend of Vietnamese and English, a translation was done by a registered nurse in Toronto, who participated as an impartial third party.

Research Design

The study was primarily quantitative, but qualitative data were reported wherever possible. The use of a quantitative design served as a vehicle for hypothesis testing and answering research questions while, qualitative research incorporated broadly stated questions about human experiences in natural setting to obtain descriptive data to enhance the understanding of the human health experience (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2002). The survey's strengths are: less time required, increased sense of privacy and anonymity among participants, and simplicity of coding and analysis. On the other hand, lower response rate (thus more likely to over-represent views of persons more likely to respond to surveys) and no assistance provided to respondents in understanding questions are two major weaknessess of survey method. The survey questionnaire was hand

delivered or mailed to identified, eligible participants. They were asked to return the completed questionnaire to the researcher using the self-addressed stamped envelope.

The survey instrument was adapted from one utilized previously by Steven et al. (2001). The interview guide contained information regarding knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and practices about BSE, CBE, mammography and cervical cancer screening procedures. A pilot study was conducted as to the appropriateness of the tool when it first adapted by Steven (2001). Forty women of four ethnic groups (Native, Italian, Finnish, Ukranian) participated in the pilot study. The original survey was also reviewed by an expert committee to confirm and enhance its validity and reliability. The survey consisted of 96 items developed in English, translated into Vietnamese, and translated back into English to ensure lexical equivalency. The tool was piloted on 5 already identified, eligible participants and then revised for accuracy and cultural appropriateness. Items on the survey encompassed demographic, SES, age, education, employment, geographic area, and marital status data. There were also questions about general health as well as breast and cervical screening information.

Data Analysis

A statistical analysis of the data was done using SPSS. The analysis focused on describing the participants' baseline knowledge, attitudes, intentions, and practices related to cancer screening. Comparisons based on these baseline data were done among the age groups. The relative roles of demographic factors such as age and education were evaluated in the desired screening behaviours. Marital status were defined as "never married" or "married" to include all participants who self-identified as married, divorced, widowed, separated, or cohabitating.

Differences among the different age groups, educational levels were examined using analysis of variance (ANOVA). When the ANOVA revealed significant differences among the groups, Newman-Keuls post-hoc comparisons were used to identify which of the groups were different. Chi square was used to analyze the differences among percentages. For all of the tests, any findings of p < .01 were considered significant.

Results

Response Rates

Overall, of 97 eligible women, 49 (51%) completed and returned the surveys to researcher. More participants would be needed for comparison among different age groups. Over 79% responded in Vietnamese, 14% responded in both Vietnamese and English, and less than 7% responded in English.

Characteristics

Demographic information on age, education, marital status, and number of children is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Demographic Information

Ag	;e	Marital St	atus	Educat	ion	N	umber	Geogr	aphic
							of	Loca	ition
						ch	ildren		
Under	2%	Single	6%	Grade	60%	1	20%	Rural	0%
40		-		school	j				
40-45	12%	Married	61%	Diploma	22%	2	39%	Urban	100%
46-50	31%	Common-	2%	Degree	18%	3	27%		
		law		-					
51-55	14%	Separated	6%	Graduate	0%	4	7%		
56-60	20%	Widowed	12%			5	5%		
61-65	16%	Divorced	12%			6	2%		
Over	4%								
65									

urban setting. Approximately 60% of them reported having one or two children. One woman has six children. Levels of education varied among the women: Sixty percent had

completed grade school, 40% had either a diploma or a degree. Approximately 94% of the women are married or were once married; only 6% of the women are single, and none of the divorced women (12%) had remarried.

Incidence of Breast and Cervical Cancer

Only one woman has breast cancer. She is 56 years old and of Chinese Vietnamese ethnicity. She has a family doctor whose is a Caucasian male. She has 3 children.

General Health Indices

Table 2 summarizes information about family doctors, illnesses the women have been diagnosed with, and medications that the women were taking at the time of the study. Forty-nine percent of the participants had a male family doctor, and 53% had a female family physician. Seventy-three percent of the family doctors spoke the participants' language, which was either Vietnamese or Chinese Vietnamese. High blood cholesterol (43%) was the leading illness, followed by high blood pressure (35%) and heart disease (31%). Medications taken were consistent with the illnesses, with 45% of the participants taking medication for high cholesterol, 39% for high blood pressure, and for heart disease.

Table 2
General Health Indices

Indicator	Percentage
Doctor	
Have a family doctor	84%
Doctor is male	49%
Doctor speaks your language	73%
Illnesses	
High blood pressure	35%
High blood cholesterol	43%
Heart disease	31%
Diabetes	14%
Cancer	2%
Medication	
Blood pressure	39%
Cholesterol	45%
Heart	29%
Hormones	2%
Thyroid	0%
Insulin	12%
Check-Up	
Within last year	84%
Last 2 years	10%
More than 2 years ago	6%
Internal exam at last checkup	16%
Reason for last check-up	
Something troubling you	43%
Routine check-up	45%

The majority of women reported having a check-up within the last year, and approximately 94% had had a checkup within the last 2 years. "Routine checkups" and "Something troubling you" were the two main reasons for the last checkups. Only 16% of the women received an internal exam during their most recent checkups.

The researcher asked the women to rate their perceived level of health. In response to the question "In general, how would you describe your health?," 35% of the women described their health as "not so good" or "poor." When asked, "How would you describe your health in comparison to other women your age?," only 18% rated their health as "better than," with 53% reporting that they had "not very much control" or "uncertain that they have control" and 3 women commenting that they had "no control."

The women were also asked, "In order to keep yourself healthy, what kind of things do you do?" The responses, which are summarized in Appendix E, were categorized as exercise, eating well, especially watching fats and controlling weight control, more resting/sleeping, visiting the doctor regularly, and living a healthy balanced life. A follow-up to this question was, "In order to do the things you have just told me that keep you healthy, do you encounter any difficulty or problem? Most people did not report any problems. The most commonly cited problem was finding the time to exercise. Cold weather, tiredness, and conflicted schedule were other mentioned problems.

Health-Related Behaviours

Smoking. Only 8 (16%) of the women reported ever smoking cigarettes. Two had stopped smoking prior to being surveyed. Most of the participants who were smoking at the time of the study claimed to inhale moderately and deeply. These women had started to smoke at around age 23 (M = 22.8).

Exercise. The majority of women exercised, but 35% of them only exercised two times or less per week. The most common type of exercise was walking. Two women reported doing no exercise whatsoever.

Eating and drinking habits. Table 3 showed the percentage of women who regularly engaged in high-risk eating and drinking behaviours. Overall, the majority of women ate lean meats, skinless poultry, or fish. They used both high-fat and low-fat dairy products. They were equally as likely to prepare food in both high-fat (deep fat frying, frequent frying, etc.) and low-fat (boil, bake, etc.) ways. Only a small percentage (12%) of the women added salt to food at the table. In contrast, 65% of the women reported occasionally eating fast foods. Moreover, 75% of them consumed two servings or less of

vegetables and fruits daily. Only 33% of the women drank alcoholic beverages. None of them drank four or more alcohol drinks at one time. This also applied to caffeinated beverages.

Table 3
Health Behaviour

Health Behaviour	Percentage
Smoking Behaviour	
Ever smoked?	16%
Smoke now?	13%
Inhale moderately or deeply?	88%
Age started (\underline{M})	22.8
High-Risk Eating Behaviour	
Meat (fat not trimmed)	29%
Dairy products (high fat)	20%
Desserts (high fat)	16%
Cooking (high fat)	12%
Mostly refined grains	27%
Fruit & Veg. (2 or fewer servings/day)	71%
Fast foods (occasionally)	65%
Add salt at table	12%
High-Risk Drinking Behaviour	
Alcohol (2 or more days/week)	33%
Alcohol (4 or more drinks/day)	0%
Caffeine (4 or more cups per day)	0%
Exercise	
No exercise	4%
Low intensity (less than 2 times/week)	35%

Breast Screening

Table 4 shows the percentage of women who responded positively to questions about breast screening. Approximately 50% or less of the respondents answered "Yes" to the following statements:

- Aware that women can examine their own breasts (49%).
- o Been told how to do a breast self-examination (BSE; 41%).
- o Been demonstrated BSE (37%).
- o Received any written information about BSE (39%).
- o Had done a BSE (38%).

- o Being comfortable doing a BSE (49%).
- Able to detect any abnormality when doing BSE (35%).
- o Know anyone who has breast cancer (27%).
- o Know about breast x-ray or mammography (55%).
- o Know about breast screening (53%).
- Has had a breast x-ray or mammography (51%).

Table 4
Percentage of Women Who Answered Yes to Questions about Breast Screening

Questions Related to Breast Screening	Percentage
Have you ever had your breasts examined?	76%
Have you had a lump in your breast?	0%
Has your doctor/nurse ever discussed examining your breasts with you?	4%
Have you ever refused to have a breast examination?	78%
Are you aware that women can examine their own breasts?	49%
Has anyone ever told you how to do a breast self-examination (BSE)?	41%
Has anyone ever demonstrated BSE to you?	37%
Have you ever received any written information about BSE?	39%
Have you ever done a BSE?	38%
Do you feel comfortable doing BSE?	49%
Do you feel you would be able to detect any abnormality?	35%
Do you know anyone who has breast cancer?	27%
Do you know about breast x-ray or mammography?	55%
Do you know about breast screening?	53%
Have you ever had a breast x-ray or mammography?	51%

The aforementioned findings must be viewed with initial caution because they were confounded with age differences. Because most of the participants were under the age of 50, they may not have been eligible to have breast x-rays. Also, older women are more likely to know someone who has breast cancer because it is an age-related disease. Furthermore, for a high percentage (76%) of the women who have had their breasts examined, none of them received reports of any unusual masses. Interestingly, only 4% of these women have had a doctor/nurse discuss breast examinations with them.

The women who have had a breast examination were asked, "How did you feel about this examination being done? Detailed results are found in Appendix E. The majority of the women felt that the examination was acceptable and not problematic for them. Some of the women were more positive, expressing either relief that the results were negative or that they felt comfortable taking the test. Others simply saw it as a necessity. There were a number of negative comments. Twenty-two women had negative comments: 13 felt embarrassed or shy, 8 felt "weird," and one woman said that it was painful. Selected responses are as follows:

- o I do not like it but it is necessary.
- o Embarrassed.
- o Weird.
- o Scared at first but was relieved when no lumps were found.
- O I felt fine and comfortable because a Vietnamese female doctor examined me. Another question asked, "When you think about examining your own breasts, tell me how you feel? More than 30% of the women felt apprehensive or anxious because they were concerned that they might find a lump. However, a larger percentage (47%) had negative comments about the examination. Some people were uncomfortable, and several did not know how to do it. Selected responses were:
 - o Unsure what to feel for.
 - o Fearful that I may find a lump.
 - I do not like it; it is weird.
 - I do not mind do [sic] it myself, but I do mind when a male doctor does it.
 - o I feel OK, but I think it would be better if the doctor does it.

A final question about breast screening was, "If we wanted to tell women like yourself about breast cancer and BSE, what would be some good ways (strategies) that we could use?" Many of the women mentioned the value of pamphlets, although others pointed out that visual presentations such as videos or television programs might be more effective. Others emphasized the value of one-on-one presentations at home or in the doctor's office, with direct demonstrations using breast models and other visual aids. The participants suggested that strategies be developed to motivate women to do BSEs and have regular checkups. Suggestions included small workshops, presentations by breast cancer survivors, and inclusion of this information in ESL classes for newcomers.

Some of the women mentioned being uncomfortable with this issue and preferred to discuss it with a female doctor. More than 90% of the responses emphasized the need to have these strategies carried out in the women's first language. For example, the women stated that they would prefer a Vietnamese-language television program on BSE. They expressed the same sentiment in regard to pamphlets, books, leaflets, and so on. Following are selected comments:

- o Movie or TV program in my language is better than books.
- Booklet, leaflet, or brochure has to be in my language, and it is better if I could take them home as references.
- Discussion with friends, demonstration, and lecture by someone who has gone through it. This could be organized by the Vietnamese Women's Club.
- o The topic should be taught in ESL classes for newcomers.
- Articles published in Thoi Bao (a Toronto-based magazine for the Vietnamese community).

Table 5 illustrates a significant finding between education level and prevalence of BSE. The higher the participants' education level, the more likely it was that the participants did BSEs. As presented in Table 6, there were insignificant differences between the percentage of women who have had BSEs, Pap smears, or mammography and the gender of the examiner. The percentage of women who had their breasts examined by female or male doctors was approximately the same (see Table 7). The finding revealed that 83% of these doctors were Vietnamese or Chinese Vietnamese, a clear indication of the women's preference to be examined by a doctor of their own ethnic background (see Table 8).

Table 5

Education and BSE Rates

Education	В	р	
	Yes	No	_
Below diploma	22%	81%	*
Above diploma	78%	19%	l l

^{*} Variable on which the groups differed significantly

Table 6
Gender of Family Doctor and Breast Screening (BS), Pap Smear (PS), Mammography (M)

Breast Screening	Family	р	
	Female	Male	_
Yes	92%	69%	
No	8%	31%	
Pap Smear			
Yes	83%	69%	
No	17%	31%	
Mammography			
Yes	67%	48%	
No	33%	52%	

Table 7
Breast Examination and Examiner

Examiner	Percentage	
Self	21%	
Doctor (male)	35%	
Doctor (female)	40%	
Nurse	4%	
Other	0%	

Table 8
Ethnicity of Examiner

Ethnicity	Percentage
Vietnamese and Chinese Vietnamese	83%
Caucasian	14%
Others	3%

Cervical Screening

Table 9 contains summary information about the percentages of women who answered positively to questions about cervical screening. The most dramatic finding was that 35% of the women had refused at some time to have an internal examination. The combined percentage of women being discussed or received written information on the importance of Pap smears was approximately the same as the percentage of women had went for Pap smears.

Table 9
Percentage of Women Who Answered Yes to Questions Related to Cervical Screening

Questions Related to Cervical Screening	Percentage
Have you ever had a Pap Smear?	78%
Have you had a Pap Smear every year or two?	66%
Have you had unusual symptoms (bleeding)?	5%
Has a doctor/nurse ever discussed the importance of regular Pap Smears?	53%
Have you ever refused an internal examination (Pap smear)?	35%
Have you received any written information about having regular Pap Smears?	20%

The participants who have had a Pap smear were asked, "How did you feel about having this examination done?" The majority of the respondents found the procedure uncomfortable, weird, or embarrassing. Some women saw it as part of a normal physical examination. Many of them indicated that the experience would be much better if the

examiner were a female doctor. One woman specified that she would rather have it done by a foreign male doctor if no Vietnamese female doctor were available. Following are selected comments:

- o I do not like it as it is uncomfortable. A female doctor is preferred.
- o Nobody likes it, but it is something you have to get done.
- o Uncomfortable and embarrassing.
- o It is OK, but only with female doctor.

Another question asked about Pap smears was, "Are there any strategies you could suggest to prepare you for this examination?" The women were also asked, "Describe some of the reasons why you would not have a Pap smear." The overlapping responses to these questions confirmed previous answers. Many of the women preferred to have a female doctor or nurse conduct the examination. Some of the women commented on the need for more information about what to expect during the examination. The recommended that each step of the examination be presented simply and clearly. Following are selected comments:

- o I prefer a female doctor, a Vietnamese female doctor is better because I would not understand these technical terms in English.
- Leaflet and brochure...explain its [sic] importance, as well as lay out step-by-step what women should expect of the procedure.
- o Relax and distraction are the keys [sic].

Discussion

This study investigated a convenience sample of 49 women of Vietnamese or Chinese Vietnamese ethnic origin to assess their knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and practices toward personal breast and cervical cancer screening. Therefore, before the results can be generalized to a larger population of women, the results must be interpreted with caution. The data reinforced the need and rationale for interventions to promote breast and cervical screening among Vietnamese women. The data confirmed that this is an appropriate population for an intervention targeting ethnic women because (a) the respondents reported a limited knowledge of cancer screening and preventive care. For example, only 38% had ever done a BSE, and only 55% knew about breast x-rays or mammography; (b) the respondents frequently reported never having been advised about cancer screening procedures (e.g., only 51% had ever had a breast x-ray or mammography, and 66% reported having a Pap smear every year or 2); (c) as in previous studies of this ethnicity, doctors or nurses were the preferred contacts for information on health-related topics such as BSE, mammography, and Pap smears. This partiality has not been given an appropriate amount of attention (e.g. only 4% of the women's doctors or nurses had ever discussed examining their breasts with them, and only 53% of the women's doctors or nurses had ever discussed the importance of regular Pap smears).

The overall Pap test receipt rate within the last two years of 66% for Vietnamese Canadian women was lower than that of other ethinic groups and urban minorities (Mandelblatt, Gold & O'Malley, 1999; Maxwell, Bastani & Warda, 2000; Skaer, Robison, Sclar & Harding, 1996). Results support prior findings regarding the sociodemographic factors related to Pap test receipt in this population (Jenkins et al., 1999;

McPhee, Bird, Davis, Ha, Jenkins & Le, 1997; McPhee, Stewart, Brock, Bird, Jenkins & Pham, 1997; Yi, 1998). The oldest women were less likely to have had a Pap test. If they had never had a Pap, they were less likely to intend on obtaining one. Women who were less educated had lower Pap test awareness.

Studies of Vietnamese American women and other populations have showed that having a regular place of health care or a regular physician was positively associated with test receipt (Ettner, 1996; Hsia, Kemper & Kiefe, 2000; Jenkins, Le, McPhee, Stewart & Ha, 1996; Mandelblatt et al., 1999; McPhee et al., 1997). The same is not found in this study. Access to culturally concordant care may be more important than access to any care for the provision of Pap tests to Vietnamese women (McPhee, 2002). In this study, the participants were more likely to have had a Pap if their doctor was female. Taylor, Schwartz & Jackson also found that having a female physian was associated with recency of Pap testing in Cambodian women (Taylor, Schwartz & Jackson, 1999). Regardless of provider ethnicity, it was reported that Vietnamese women were more likely to have had a Pap test if the provider is female.

As of qualitative data, three major themes emerged:

Theme 1: Being able to talk with doctors is important

Theme 2: Having a Pap test is uncomfortable

Theme 3: Cultural competency

In the first theme, several barriers to accessing physicians as outlined by participants were limited office hours, difficulties in finding child care, bat tien transportation, long waiting at doctor office. Many women expressed concerns because they did not know how to formulate questions. Furthermore, answers to their questions

were given using difficult medical terminology. Women found it difficult to seek a physician visit for themselves and sought advise only when "there was a definite problem bothering them". Overall, poor experiences with physicians and office receptionists, and unavailability of female Vietnamese doctor were shown to decrease the likelihood of a return visit of cancer screening purpose.

Misconceptions about Pap tests found in this study were similar to what Fitch et al. (1998) and Steven et al (2004) found in their study. Many women had not been aware of how pap smear helped in early detection of cervical cancer. They thought that it would indicate that a woman had cancer. Most women mentioned that they had to get ready for the procedure or "be prepared" for it. The majority of participants described the procedure as embarrassing, humiliating, and unpleasant. Leg position, conversation through the exam, and physician gender were said to play a role in comfort levels.

As for the third theme, almost all women indicated that they would have done the tests (i.e. Pap smears, mammography, breast self examination) if their family doctors have explained and encouraged them to take those tests. Cultural competency encompasses cultural sensitivity, cultural knowledge, and cultural skills. Cultural sensitivity refers to attitudes, perceptions, and values that show heightened awareness of providers' own culture and that of the population being served. Cultural knowledge refers to knowledge of integrated systems of learned behavior as well as their attitudes, feelings, and values. Cultural skills connote abilities, roles, and functions to systematically examine beliefs, values, and practices of the group and to determine health care needs within the cultural context of this group (Kim-Goodwill, Clarke, & Barton, 2001).

Several studies have reported that relationships with healthcare providers have a significant influence in reported intentions to engage in cancer screening (Burnett, Steakley, & Tefft, 1995). These results are consistent with the conclusions of Coughlin & Uhler (2002) indicating that Hispanic women are more likely to undergo cancer screening if they have a regular health care provider. In terms of breast health, "…healthcare providers can reinforce positive cultural values and recognize cultural beliefs that may encourage breast cancer screening" (Giammona, 2002, p. 10).

In addition to the strong influence of healthcare providers on cancer screening behavior, agencies that coordinate services for Vietnamese need to maintain a high level of cultural capacity in order to promote successful outreach and service delivery.

Repeatedly, Vietnamese in this study mentioned several Vietnamese organizations such as Vietnamese Association, Vietnamese Women Club, Vietnamese Senior Club as their preferred knowledge-transfer agencies. Culturally competent agencies work to hire unbiased employees and seek advice and consultation from their clients. These agencies seek staff who represent the racial and ethnic communities being served...and [are] capable of negotiating a diverse and multicultural world...Further, culturally competent agencies understand the interplay between policy and practice, and are committed to policies that enhance services to a diverse clientele (cited in Quality Health Services for Hispanics: The Cultural Competency Component, 2000, p. 16).

An integral, culturally sensitive intervention program embedded in a well-defined Health Behavior Framework may eliminate and/or reduce the multiple barriers for low-income Vietnamese cited in the breast cancer screening literature, and result in increased annual screening rates. The insights presented in this case study reinforce the importance

of providing culturally competent, well-coordinated services. The authors concur with Rackinzcki and DiClemente (1999) when they state: "Approaches that have demonstrated promise should form the basis for refinements and experimentation, grounded in theoretical underpinnings, until a technology of prevention can be fully developed. In the end, empirically grounded theory and extensive field testing will result in the development of effective programs. The promise of a 'quick fix' must be understood to be an illusion. The demand for ready solutions should be responded to with the development of technically sound solutions (p. 6)".

Overall, this sample of women required education and information regarding BSE. Strategies suggested to enhance knowledge regarding BSE and breast cancer included the availability of pamphlets and videos that are culturally oriented, workshops on the topics, and the use and demonstration silicon breast model. These women also suggested that the following strategies be considered for cervical screening practices: education by health professionals about expectations during the procedure, dissemination of pamphlets that are culturally sensitive, and trust in the family physician. Moreover, the relationship between service provider (i.e. family doctor) and patient (i.e. Vietnamese women who are in need for breast and cervical screening) should be explored to further indentify relevant factors affecting breast and cervical screening rates

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations of this research design. The first one concerned the accuracy of the self-report procedure utilized by the sample. Self-reported rates of screening test acceptance may be inaccurate because of limited recall or distorted because of acquiescence bias (i.e., overreporting of behaviours perceived to be desirable). Also, one cannot generalize the results of this study on a sample of Vietnamese women from Toronto to the Vietnamese population elsewhere in Canada or the United States. More indepth qualitative data could have been obtained if face-to-face interviews instead of a mail-in survey had been conducted. Moreover, a larger sample size would have presented a clearer pattern of differences in breast and cervical screening for each age group. Finally, questions on income, year of migration, and English proficiency should be added to assess the relationship of these sociodemographic variables and the sample's knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and practices toward personal breast and cervical cancer screening.

Recommendations

These women require education and information regarding both breast and cervical cancer including demonstrations and screening guidelines. Support and encouragement to participate in screening programs is highly recommended. Appropriate, culturally sensitive educational intervention programs are suggested to target this population.

Education

 To develop culturally sensitive health education programs and resources (pamphlets, videos, and television and media programs).

- To develop educational programs focusing on the importance of screening, prevention, and early detection of breast and cervical cancer for newcomers whose are attending ESL classes.
- To develop educational programs for health care professionals on cultural sensitivity regarding breast and cervical cancer for this specific population
 Accessibility to Screening Services
 - To advocate for more female examiners in breast and cervical screening programs.
 - To advocate for more Vietnamese female doctors to provide screening tests after hours and on weekends.
 - To work in collaboration with community representatives and Vietnamese organizations in Toronto to overcome barriers such as transportation, child care, and language to accessing services.

Research

- o To conduct a provincewide study on breast and cervical screening practices.
- To evaluate the effects of certain characteristics related to sociodemographics and the individual's knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs about breast and cervical cancer screening.

Summary

This study examined the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of Vietnamese

Canadian women ages 40 to 60 toward breast and cervical cancer screenings. The study

was designed to be appropriate to the culture, language, and education of emigrated

Vietnamese women and aimed to identify the possible barriers in race or ethnicity,

culture, and socioeconomic status (SES) that Vietnamese Canadian women face in their efforts to take preventive measures and participate in breast and cervical cancer screening. This study also indirectly raised awareness on cancer screening among the participants. Results indicate that there's difference in cancer screening practice among Vietmamese women who have different education level. The higher the year of school completed, the higher the prevalence of cancer screening. Moreover, language and gender of examiner are the two frequent mentioned barriers to cancer screening practice, where gender of examiner is scored as more important. Vietnamese women would more likely to make a Pap Smear's appointment with a female doctor/nurse of any ethnicity than with a Vietnamese male doctor/nurse. In addition, results clearly reveal a gap in cancer screening knowledge among these Vietnamese women. Most of them are having little or no knowledge of breast and cervical cancer screening tests. They all express a desire to acquire this information through culturally appropriate communication chanels such as Vietnamese Women's Club, Vietnamese television and radio's programs, leaflets and brochure in Vietnamese language, etc. The insights presented in this case study reinforce the importance of providing culturally competent, well-coordinated services. Overall, it can be suggested that culturally sensitive media intervention would be an appropriate strategy for achieving a necessary and, therefore, valuable first step toward early detection of cancer. Furthermore, this study may be the point of departure to further research among the same population to examine the relationships between a culturally competent system of care, ethnocentric support systems, and annual breast and cervical screening rates. To our knowledge, very few reports (Bobo et al., 1999) have comprehensively investigated the factors associated with annual breast cancer screening

among low-income women with access to free testing, and their level of satisfaction with the services they receive. Data of this nature is urgently needed to enhance public health delivery. The authors suggest that future studies should examine the feasibility and impact of this complex model in another geographical area with low-income Vietnamese, and isolate the most effective strategies that result in increased annual breast and cervical screening rates.

References

- Aday L., Andersen R. (1974). A framework for the study of access to medical care.

 Health Serv. Res., 9, 208-220.
- Anderson R., Davidson P. (1996). Measuring access and trends Andersen R. Rice T.
 Kominski G. eds. . Changing the U.S. Health Care System, 55-57, Jossey-Bass
 San Francisco.
- Anh, P. T. H., Hanh, T. N., Parkin, D. M., & Du, N. B. (1993). Cancer in the population of Hanoi, Vietnam, 1988-1990. *Br J Cancer*, 88, 1236-1242.
- Band, P., Gallagher, R., Threlfall, W., Hislop, T., Deschamps, M., & Smith, J. (1992).Rate of death from cervical cancer among Native Indian women in BritishColumbia. Canadian Medical Association Journal, 147, 1802-1804.
- Baquet, C., & Ringen, K. (1986). Cancer among Blacks and other minorities: Statistical profiles (NCI Publication No. 86-2785). Bethesda, MD: National Cancer Institute.
- Bastani, R., Gallardo, N., & Maxwell, A. (2001). Barriers to colorectal cancer screening among ethnically diverse and average risk individuals. *J Psychosoc Oncol, 19*, 65-84.
- Bastani, R., Maxwell, A. E., Bradford, C., Das, I. P., & Yan, K. X. (1999). Tailored risk notification for women with a family history of breast cancer. *Prev Med*, 29, 355-364.
- Bird, J. A., Otero-Sabogal, R., Ha, N. T., & McPhee, S. J. (1996). Tailoring lay health worker interventions for diverse cultures: Lessons learned from Vietnamese and Latina communities. *Health Educ Q, 23*(Suppl.), S105-S122.

- Bird, J. A., McPhee, S. J., Ha, N. T., Le, B., Davis, T., & Jenkins, C. N. H. (1998).

 Opening pathways to cancer screening for Vietnamese-American women: Lay health workers hold a key. *Preventive Medicine*, 27, 821-829.
- Bobo, J. K., Dean, D., Stovall, C., Mendez, M., & Caplan, L. (1999). Factors that may discourage annual mammography among low-income women with access to free mammograms: A study using multi-ethnic focus groups. *Psychological Reports*, 85, 405-416.
- Burnett, C. B., Steakley, C. S., & Tefft, M. C. (1995). Barriers to breast and cervical cancer screening in underserved women of the District of Columbia. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 22(10), 1551-1557.
- Canadian Cancer Society. (2005). *Canadian cancer statistics 2005*. Retrieved September 16, 2005, from http://www.cancer.ca/stats2005/probabe.htm
- Casper, M. L., Barnett, E. B., Armstrong, D. L., & Giles, W. H. (1997). Social class and race disparities in premature stroke mortality among men in North Carolina. *Ann Epidemiol*, 7(2), 146-153.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (1992). Behavioral risk factor survey of Vietnamese: California, 1991. *MMWR*, 41, 69-72.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2005). Racial and ethnic approaches to health REACH 2010. Retrieved September 23, 2005, from http://www.cdc.gov/reach2010
- Chen, M. S. Jr. (1994). Behavioral and psychosocial cancer research in the underserved:

 An agenda for the future. *Cancer*, 74(suppl. 4), 1503-1508.
- Choudry, U., Srivastava, R., & Fitch, M. (1998). Breast cancer detection practices of South Asian women: Knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs. *ONF*, 25(10), 1693-1701.

- City of Toronto. (2005). *Cultural diversity*. Retrieved October 14, 2005, from http://www.toronto.ca/quality_of_life/diversity.htm
- Cooper, R., & Rotimi, C. (1997). Hypertension in Blacks. Am J Hypertens, 10(7, Pt. 1), 804-812.
- Coughlin, S. S., & Uhler, R. J. (2002). Breast and cervical cancer screening practices among Hispanic women in the United States and Puerto Rico, 1998-1999.

 Preventive Medicine, 34, 242-251.
- Curry, S. J., & Emmons, K. M. (1994). Theoretical models for predicting and improving compliance with breast cancer screening. *Ann Behav Med*, 16, 302-316.
- Escobedo, L. G., Giles, W. H., & Anda, R. F. (1997). Socioeconomic status, race, and death from coronary heart disease. *Am J Prev Med*, 13(2), 123-130.
- Ettner, S. L. (1996). The timing of preventive services for women and children: the effect of having a usual source of care. Am J Public Health, 86, 1748-1754.
- Farley, T. A., & Flannery, J. T. (1989). Late stage diagnosis of breast cancer in women of lower socioeconomic status: Public health implications. Am J Prev Health, 79, 1508-1512.
- Fitch, M. I., Greenberg, M., Cava, M., Spaner, D., & Taylor, K. (1998). Exploring the barriers to cervical screening in an urban Canadian setting. *Cancer Nursing*, 21(6), 441-449.
- Giammona, M. (2002, April). Addressing cultural factors in relation to mammography screening. Medical Board of California Action Report, 10-13.

- Glanz, K., Kristal, A. R., Tulley, B. C., & Hirst, K. (1998). Psychosocial correlates of healthful diets among male autoworkers. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev, 7,* 119-126.
- Green, L., & Kreuter, M. (1999). Health promotion today and a framework for planning.

 In Cheek, J (Ed.), Health promotion planning: An educational and environmental approach (pp.25-29). Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.
- Gritz, E. R., & Bastani, R. (1993). Cancer prevention-behavior changes: The short and long of it. *Prev Med*, 22, 676-688.
- Harlan, L. C., Bernstein, A. B., & Kessler, L. G. (1991). Cervical cancer screening: Who is not screened and why? *Am J Pub Health*, 81, 885-890.
- Hiatt, R. A., Pasick, R., Perez-Stable, E., McPhee, S. J., Englestad, L., Lee, M., et al. (1996). Pathways to early cancer detection in the multiethnic population of the San Francisco Bay area. *Health Education Quarterly*, 23(Suppl.), S10-S27.
- Hsia, J., Kemper, E., & Kiefe, C. (2000). The importance of health insurance as a determinant of cancer screening: evidence from the Women's Health Initiative.

 *Prev Med, 31, 261-270.
- Jenkins, C. N., Le, T. McPhee, S. J., Stewart, S., Ha, N. T. Health care access and preventive care among Vietnamese immigrants: do traditional beliefs and practices pose barriers? *Soc Sci Med*, *43*, 1049-1056.
- Jenkins, C. N., McPhee, S. J., Bird, J. A., Pham, G. Q., Nguyen, B., Nguyen, T., et al. (1999). Effect of a media-led education campaign on breast and cervical cancer screening among Vietnamese American women. *Preventive Medicine*, 28, 395-406.

- Kim-Goodwill, Y. S., Clarke, P. N., & Barton, L. (2001). A model for the delivery of culturally competent community care. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 35, 918-925.
- Lam, T. K., McPhee, S. J., Mock, J., Wong, C., Doan, H. T., Nguyen, T., et al. (2003).

 Encouraging Vietnamese-American women to obtain Pap tests through lay health worker outreach and media education. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 18(7), 516-524.
- LoBiondo-Wood, G., & Haber, J. (2002). Nursing research: Methods, critical appraisal, and utilization (4th ed.). St. Louis, Missouri, Mosby.
- Mandelblatt, J. S., Gold, K., O'Malley, A. S. (1999). Breast and cervix cancer screening among multiethnic women: role of age, health, and source of care. *Prev Med, 28,* 418-425.
- Maxwell, A. E., Bastani, R., & Warda, U. S. (1997). Breast cancer screening and related attitudes among Filipino-American women. *Cancer Epide-miol Biomarkers & Prev.* 6, 719-726.
- Maxwell, A. E., Bastani, R., & Warda, U. S. (1998). Mammography utilization and related attitudes among Korean-American women. *Women Health*, 27, 89-107.
- Maxwell, A. E., Bastani, R., & Warda, U. S. (2000). Demographic predictors of cancer screening among Filipino and Korean immigrants in the United States. *Am J Prev Med*, 18, 62-68.
- Maxwell, A. E., Bastani, R., Vida, P., & Warda, U. S. (2003). Results of a randomized trial to increase breast and cervical cancer screening among Filipino American women. *Prev Med*, 37, 102-109.

- McPhee, S. J. (2002). Caring for a 70-year-old Vietnamese woman. JAMA, 287, 495-504.
- McPhee, S. J., Bird, J. A., Davis, T., Ha, N. T., Jenkins, C. N., Le, B. (1997). Barriers to breast and cervical cancer screening among Vietnamese-American women. *Am J Prev Med*, 13, 205-213.
- McPhee, S. J., Bird, J. A., Ha, N. T., Jenkins, C. N. H., Fordham, D., Le, B. (1996).

 Pathways to early cancer detection for Vietnamese women: Suc khoe la vang!

 (Health is gold!). *Health Educ Q, 23*(Suppl.), S60-S75.
- McPhee, S. J., Nguyen, T. T., Shema, S. J., Nguyen, B., Somkin, C., Vo, P., et al. (2002). Validation of recall of breast and cervical cancer screening by women in an ethnically diverse population. *Prev Med*, 35(5), 463-473.
- McPhee, S. J., Stewart, S., Brock, K. C., Bird, J. A., Jenkins, C. N., & Pham, G. Q. (1997). Factors associated with breast and cervical cancer screeing practices among Vietnamese American women. *Cancer Detect Prev, 21,* 510-521.
- McWhorter, W. P., & Mayer, W. J. (1987). Black/White differences in type of initial breast cancer treatment and implications for survival. *Am J Prev Health*, 77, 1515-1517.
- Miller, B. A., Kolonel, L. N., & Bernstein, L. (1996). Racial/Ethnic patterns of cancer in the United States 1988-1992 (NIH Publication No. 96-4104). Bethesda, MD:

 National Cancer Institute.
- National Cancer Institute. (2002). Screening and testing for cancer, cervical cancer screening and testing. Retrieved September 27, 2005, from http://www.nci.nih.gov/cancer_information/testing/

- Nguyen, T. T., McPhee, S. J., Nguyen, T., Lam, T., & Mock, J. (2002). Predictors of cervical Pap smear screening awareness, intention, and receipt among Vietnamese-American women. *Am J Prev Med*, 23(3), 207.
- O'Malley, C. D., Prehn, A. W., Shema, S. J., Glaser, S. L. (2002). Racial/ethnic differences in survival rates in a population-based series of men with breast cancer. *Cancer*, 94(11), 2836-2843.
- Paskett, E. D., McMahon, K., Tatum, C., Velez, R., Shelton, B., Case, L. D., Wofford, J., Moran, W., & Wymer, A. (1998). Clinic-based intervention to promote breast and cervical cancer screening. *Preventive medicine*, 27, 120-128.
- Perez-Stable, E. J., Otero-Sabogal, R., Sabogal, F., & Napoles-Springer, A. (1996).

 Pathways to early cancer detection for Latinas: En acción contra el cancer. *Health Educ Q, 23*(Suppl.), S41-S59.
- Phillips K. A., Morrison K. R., Andersen R., Aday L. A. (1998). Understanding the context of healthcare utilization: assessing environmental and provider-related variables in the behavioral model of utilization. *Health Serv. Res.*, 33, 571-596.
- Raczynzki, J. M., & DiClemente, R. J. (1999). Handbook of health promotion and disease prevention. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum.
- Ruffin, M. T., Gorenflo, D. W., & Woodman, B. (1999). Predictors of screening for breast, cervical, colorectal, and prostatic cancer among community-based primary care practices. *JABFP*, *13*(1), 1-10.
- Simoes, E. J., Neschaffer, C. J., Hagdrup, N., Ali-Abarghoui, F., Tao, X., Mack, N., Brownson, R. C. (1999). Predictors of compliance with recommended cervical

- cancer screening schedule: A population-based study. *Journal of Community Health*, 24(2), 115-130.
- Skaer, T. L., Robison, L. M., Sclar, D. A., & Harding, G. H. (1996). Knowledge, attitudes and patterns of cancer screening: a self-report among foreign-born Hispanic women utilizing rural migrant health clinics. *J Rural Health*, 12, 169-177.
- Sorlie, P., Rogot, E., Anderson, R., Johnson, N. J., & Backlund, E. (1992). Black-White mortality differences by family income. *Lancet*, 340(8815), 346-350.
- Statistics Canada. (2005). *Immigrant population by place of birth, by census metropolitan*areas. Retrieved October 14, 2005, from http://www.40.statcan.ca/l01/cst01/

 demo35c.htm
- Steven, D., Dhaliwal, H., Fitch, M., Choudhry, U., Clarke, E., Kirk-Gardner, R., et al. (2001). Breast and cervical cancer screening: Knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and practices in selected ethno-cultural groups in Northwestern Ontario. *Oncol Nurs Forum*, 31(2), 305-311.
- Suarez, L., Goldman, D. A., & Weiss, N. S. (1995). Validity of Pap smear and mammogram self-reports in a low-income Hispanic population. *Am J Prev Med*, 11(2), 94-98.
- Taylor, V. M., Schwartz, S. M., Jackson, J. C. (1999). Cervical cancer screening among Cambodian-American women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev, 8,* 541-546.
- Yi, J. K. (1998). Acculturation and Pap smear screening practices among college-aged Vietnamese women in the United States. *Cancer Nurs*, 21, 335-341.
- Yi, J. K. (1994). Factors associated with cervical cancer screening behaviors among Vietnamese women. *J Comm Health*, 19(3), 189-200.

APPENDIX A

Interview Guide Data Code Sheet (English Version)

Part A Demographic Data

1.	How old are you?	Coded Response
	 under 40 40-45 	
	2. 40-43 3. 46-50	
	4. 51-55	
	5. 56-60	
	6. 61-65	
	7. Other (specify)	
2.	What is the highest education you received?	
	1. Grade School	
	2. Diploma	
	3. Degree	
	4. Graduate	
3.	Are you currently working?	
	1. Yes, Full Time	[]
	2. Yes, Part Time	
	3. Not employed	
4.	What is your usual job or occupation?	
5.	Where do you live? 1. Urban (city centre)	
	2. Rural	
6.	To which ethnic or cultural group do/did your parent bel	long?
7	What is your marital status?	Coded Response
٠.	1. Single	Coucu Response
	2. Married	
	3. Common-law relationship	
	4. Separated	<u> </u>
	5. Widowed	
	6 Divorced	

8. If married (common-law), what is the highest level of education your husband obtained?					
1. Grade Schoo	1				
2. Diploma	•				
3. Degree					
4. Graduate					
Gradaic					
9. Is your husband/spouse pres	ently work	ing?			
1. Yes, full time		8			
2. Yes, part tim					
3. Not employe					
1 7					
10. What is your husband's us	ual job/occ	upation?			
			<u> </u>		
11. If you are married or living	; in a comn	non-law relation	nship, please in	dicate:	
	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	441-	
Data of manica				4th	
Date of marriage	19	19	19	19	
Age at marriage					
Age of husband	<u> </u>				
Length of relationship	<u> </u>				
Marriage ended in					
(separation/divorce/death					
(please specify)					
If husband died, please					
specify cause of death					
12. Do you have children?					
1. Yes					
2. No				L	
If yes, how many children do y	ou have?_				
How old are your children?					
				ed Response	
1. Yes					
2. No				<u>_</u>	
14 377 41 1 1 6 6 11 1 4 9					
14. What is the gender of your family doctor?					
1. Male					
2. Female				L	

15. What is the ethnic background of your family physician?

Part B	General Health			
16. Have you ever been diagnosed by a physician as having any of the conditions lisbelow?				
1. High blood	pressure No	Yes	If yes, age at diagnosis	
2. High blood	cholesterol No	Yes	If yes, age at diagnosis	
3. Heart disea	se No	Yes	If yes, age at diagnosis	
4. Diabetes	No	Yes	If yes, age at diagnosis	
5. Cancer	No	Yes	If yes, age at diagnosis	
What type of c	ancer was it?_			
17. Are you conspecify.	urrently taking	medications fo	or any of the conditions listed above? Please	
	No	Yes	Blood pressure medication	
	No	Yes	Cholesterol reduction	
	No	Yes	Heart medication	
	No	Yes	Birth Control pills	
	No	Yes	Hormones	
	No	Yes	Thyroid	
18. Have you		Yes garettes?	Insulin Coded Response	
-	No	Yes		
19. Do you cu	No	Yes	er day?	

20. At what a	ge did you start smoking?	
	Age (years)	
21. When did	you stop smoking? (if stopped)	
	Age (years)	
22. When you	n smoke (smoked) did you inhale, specify to what ext Do not inhale Inhaled, slightly Inhaled, moderately Inhaled, deeply	ent?
Part C	Eating habits	Coded Response
23. Meat/Prot	 tein Eat regular cuts of red meat Eat a mixture of regular meats and some protein Eat only lean meats, skinless poultry, or fish Eat very little red meat, mostly poultry or fish Seldom or never eat meat, eat vegetable proteins 	
24. Dairy Pro	ducts/Eggs	
High fat: sour	cream, yellow cheese, whole milk, eggs, butter	
Low fat: skim	milk, low fat yogurt or cottage cheese, egg whites, o	or egg replacers
	 Nearly always eat high fat products Eat mostly the high fat products, some low fat Eat both about the same Eat primarily low fat products, some high fat Eat only low fat products or none at all 	
25. Desserts		Coded Response
High fat: cake	e, deep fried pastry, pies, ice cream, custards, chocola	nte
Low fat: fruit vegetable oil i	salads, gelatin, melons, grapes, dried fruit, home bak n moderation	ed goods using
	 Nearly always eat high fat products Eat mostly the high fat products, some low fat Eat both about the same Eat primarily low fat products, some high fat 	

5.	Eat only low fat products or none at all				
26. Cooking Fats	26. Cooking Fats/Food Preparation				
	nt frying, deep fat frying, primarily use shoods for flavoring, use regular amount of f				
Low fat: broil, bakeep added very l	ke or boil, primarily use vegetable oil, fla ow fat	avor food with seasonings,			
2. 3. 4.	Food nearly always cooked the high fat Food mostly cooked the high fat way Food cooked both ways the same Food cooked primarily the low fat way Food prepared only the low fat way	way			
27. Breads and G	Frains				
	read, rolls, biscuits, crackers, regular pand cereals and baked goods	cakes, waffles, white rice,			
•	ole grain bread, rolls, brown rice, oatmea Wheat, grapenuts.	l and other whoel grain cereals			
2. 3. 4.	Nearly always eat refined grains Eat mostly refined grains Eat both about the same Eat primarily whole grain products Eat only whole grain products				
28. Fruits and Ve	egetables	Coded Response			
How often do you eat fruits and vegetables?					
3. 4.	5 or more servings per day 4 servings per day 3 servings per day 2 servings per day 1 or less serving per day				
29. Fast foods					
How often do you eat fast food meals such as hamburgers, tacos, fried chicken, hot dogs,					

French fries?

1. Every day

3	Several times per weekOccasionallySeldom or never	
30. Salt		
How often do yo	ou add salt to your food at the table?	
2 3	AlwaysMost of the timeLittle of the timeNever	
31. Alcoholic B	everages	
In the past two v beer, wine or liq	veeks, on how many days did you drink any uor?	y alcoholic beverages such as
2 3 4 5	 Did not drink in past year None in past two weeks One to three days Four to six days Seven to ten days Eleven to fourteen days 	
32. Number of l	Orinks	Coded Response
How many drink	es did you have per day on the average?	
2 3 4. 5.	One Two Three Four Five Five or more drinks	
33. Caffeine		
How many caffe	ine containing drinks do you usually have p	per day?
3. 4.	None 1 per day 2-3 per day 4-5 per day 6+ per day	

34. What type	e of exercise do you do:	
	Aerobics Bicycling, easy pace Canoeing Walking briskly Skating Swimming Tennis	Active Sports (specify) Bicycling, fast pace Racqueball Walking at an easy pace Cross country skiing Stationary bicycle Outdoor work (lifting, carrying, shovelling)
35. How often	n do you exercise per w times/week	eek?
36. In general	how would you describ	be your health?
	 Very go Good O.K. No so g Poor 	
37. In your or of your age?	oinion, how would you	describe your health in comparison to other women
	 Better than About the same Worse than 	
		what kinds of things do you do? uch as exercise, walking, regular visits to the
39. In order to	do the things that you	have just told me that keep you healthy, do you
		If yes, could you tell me what.
40. When did	you have your last chec	ck-up?
	Within last year	-

2. 1-2 years					
3. 3-4 years					
4. 5 years or more					
5. Never					
6. Don't know					
41. Was an internal examination done?					
1. Yes					
2. No			L		
42. Why did you go for an examination?					
Reason	Yes	No	Do not know	No answer	
Symptoms – something was troubling you					
Regular check up		ļ	***************************************		
Friend or relative suggested it					
Required at work	·				
Required for employment					
Insurance examination					
Something you read in a magazine					
Something you saw on TV					
A doctor suggested you should		 			
No reason	<u> </u>				
43. Have you ever been pregnant?			_		
1. Yes					
2. No					
44. If yes, how many pregnancies have you			include all love	births,	
stillbirths, miscarriages, abortions, ectopic	pregna	cies).			
Pregnancies					
45. How old were you at the beginning of your first pregnancy?					
Age (years)					
46. How many pregnancies lasting 5 months or more you have had?					
Pregnancies					
47. How old were you at the end of your fi	irst preg	gnancy	lasting 5 month	hs or more?	
Age (years)					
48. How many pregnancies have ended in	livebirt	hs?			

Pregnancies				
49. Did you breastfeed after any of your pregnancies? 1. Yes 2. No				
50. How many months in total did you breastfeed? Months				
51. Have you ever taken oral contraceptives? 1. Yes 2. No				
52. Are you currently taking oral contraceptives? 1. Yes 2. No				
53. How old were you when you took your first oral contraceptive?				
Years 54. For how long did you was arel contracentives before age 252				
54. For how long did you use oral contraceptives before age 25?				
Years (s) Month (s)				
55. For how long did you use oral contraceptives before your first pregnancy?				
Years (s) Month (s)				
56. At what age did you stop using oral contraceptives?				
Age				
57. Has a doctor ever refused to give you a prescription for oral contraceptives? 1. Yes 2. No If yes, why?				
58. Have you ever used other methods of birth control? (circle as many as used)				
 IUD Rhythm Cervical Cap Other (specify) Sponge Diaphragm Spermacides 				
59. Have you had a tubal ligation?				

	Yes No	
1.	rently using female replacement hormones? Yes No	
61. At what age	did you start using female replacement hormones?	
	Age (years)	
62. For how long	g did you use female replacement hormones?	
	Year(s) Month(s)	
63. Which type	of female hormones did you use?	
2. 3. 4. 5.	Oral premarin (estrogen alone) Oral estrogen (premarin) and progesterone (provera) Patch estrogen Oral progesterone (provera) Vaginal estrogen Patch estrogen and progesterone	
Part D C	linical Examination of Breast	
64. In your opin	ion, how much control do you have over your health?	
1. 2. 3. 4.	A lot of control A fair bit of control Uncertain Not very much control No control	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	A lot of control A fair bit of control Uncertain Not very much control	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 65. In the next for Have you ever had 1.	A lot of control A fair bit of control Uncertain Not very much control No control	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 65. In the next for Have you ever ha 1. 2.	A lot of control A fair bit of control Uncertain Not very much control No control ew questions we talk about breasts and breast cancer. ad your breast examined? Yes	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 65. In the next for the second secon	A lot of control A fair bit of control Uncertain Not very much control No control ew questions we talk about breasts and breast cancer. ad your breast examined? Yes No	

	Doctor (male)	
	Doctor (female)	
	Nurse	
5.	Other (specify)	
What was the cul	tural background of the examiner?	47
Why was the exa	mination necessary?	
•	No not know	
2.	Routine check up	
3.	Had a lump in breast	
How did you feel	about this examination being done?	
If no, answer the	following question	
Has your doctor/	nurse ever discussed examining your breasts with you?	
	Yes	
2.	No	
66. Have you	ever refused a breast examination?	
If yes, tell me wh	y you refused	W
Part E Bi	east Self-Examination	
1.	e that women can examine their own breast? Yes No	
This examination examination or B	is done to detect cancer at an early state and it is called SE.	breast self
How familiar are	you with breast self examination?	
-	told you how to do a breast self examination? Yes	

	No	
3.	Uncertain	
Has anyone ever d	lemonstrated BSE to you?	
	Yes	
2.	No	
If yes, who was it?	?	
Have you ever rec	eived any written information about BSE?	
	Yes	
2.	No	
If yes,		
What information	did you receive?	
Who gave you the	information?	
What were the ben	nefits of receiving this information?	
	erits of receiving this information.	
68. Have you ever	done a breast self-examination?	
	Yes	
2.	No	اسب جسسها
If yes,		
How often do you	do it (i.e., once a month)	
How do you do the	e examination?	

69.	In you opinion, how often should you do breast self-examination?
70.	How important do you think breast self-examination is?
71.	Tell me what you know about breast cancer?
72.	When you think about examining your own breasts, tell me how you feel?
73.	How comfortable do you feel in doing BSE? 1. Uncomfortable 2. Fairly comfortable 3. Very comfortable
74. —	What do you think about women examining their own breasts?
	In your own opinion, if you were examining your own breasts do you feel that you ald be able to detect any abnormality or anything that feels different? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Unsure
76. —	What would you do if you did find something that felt suspicioius or different?
 	What would you tell?

Part F	Breast Cancer	
78. Do yo	u know anybody who has breast cancer?	
	1. Yes	[]
	2. No	
What was	your relationship with that person?	
·	1. Mother	
	2. Sister	
	3. Grandmother	
	4. Cousin	
	5. Friend	
	6. Work Colleague	
	7. Neighbour	
	8. Aunt	
	9. Other	
70 Think		:1. :41
/9. I ninki	ing about their illness/experience how do you th	ink it has influenced you?
80. In you cancer?	r opinion, who can acquire breast cancer, or who	o is more likely to get breast
81. What a	are the risks for breast cancer?	
Part G	Mammography	
82. Do voi	u know about breast x-ray or mammography?	
	1. Yes	

2. No
83. Do you know about breast screening? 1. Yes 2. No
If you answered yes to questions 82 and 83
Where did you find out about mammography?
How helpful did you dind this information?
Have you ever had a breast x-ray or mammography? 1. Yes 2. No
How did you feel when the mammography was being done?
Did the individual who conducted the procedure explain what was being done?
What emotional support was provided to you when this procedure was being done?
84. If we wanted to tell women like yourself about breast cancer and breast self examination, what would be some good ways (strategies) that we could use?

Part H	Pap Smear				
85. In the next	85. In the next few questions, we talk about pap smears and cervical cancer				
Have you had a	Have you had a pap smear?				
· .	1. Yes				
2	2. No				
If yes, please ar	nswer the following questions				
	e you had a pap smear?				
	1. Yearly				
	2. Every two years				
3	3. Other (specify)				
	camination (Record as many as mentioned)?				
	l. Doctor (male)				
	2. Doctor (female)				
3	3. Nurse Practitioner				
What was the co	ultural background of the examiner?				
Why was the ex	camination necessary?				
1	1. Do not know				
2	2. Routine check up				
3	3. Unusual symptoms (bleeding)				
Have your perio	ods been irregular?				
	l. Always				
	2. Often				
	3. Sometimes				
	4. Rarely				
5	5. Never				
Have your perio	ods been usually heavy?				
	. Always				
	2. Often				
	3. Sometimes				
	. Rarely				
5	5. Never				
How old were y	ou when your periods started?				
	Year(s)				

86. Has a doctor/nurse ever discussed the importance of regular pap smears?

87. Have y	you ever refused an internal examination (pap smear)? 1. Yes	
	2. No	
88. How d	did you feel about having this examination done?	
89. Is there	re any strategies you could suggest to prepare you for this exan	nination?
90. Have y	you received any written information about having regular pap 1. Yes 2. No	smears?
	3. Do no remember	
Who gave t	this information?	
What were	the benefits of receiving this information?	,
	ome of the reasons why you would not have a pap smear? (i.e. ment, pain, travel difficulties, no female doctor)	., fear,
Part I	Cervical Cancer	
91. Have y	you ever been diagnosed with cervical cancer?	
	 Yes No 	
If yes, answ	wer the following questions	

At what age were you dia	ignosed?	
Ye	ars	
What were the symptoms	(if any)?	
2. Contact3. Feeling4. Pain w	mal vaginal bleeding or bleeding related to intercourse g that you have to urinate urgently when you urinate symptoms (specify)	
Are you aware of the risk	factors for cervical cancer? (Probe for	r the answer)
Did your mother ever take high risk pregnancies? 1. Yes	e the drug DES (Diethylstilbesterol), a	drug which was given for
2. No 3. Do not	know	
92. What type of treatme 1. Cryosus 2. Electro 3. Colpose 4. Cone bi 5. Hystere 6. Radiatio 7. Other (s	rgery cautery copy iopsy ectomy	
93. What type of information follow-up)?	ation were you given related to cervical	cancer (i.e., treatment,
94. What type of emotion by whom)?	nal support did you receive when you w	vere diagnosed (specify

of regular pap smears, what would be some good ways (strategies) that we could use?
96. If you have had breast or cervical cancer answer the following:
Did you use other forms of alternative medicine (e.g. herbs, massage, chiropractor, sweat odge, healing ceremonies)?
Do you feel that these methods were of help? Explain

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS SURVEY. IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS PLEASE FEEL FREE TO CONTACT DR. DARLENE STEVEN AT (807) 343-8643 or TUE NGUYEN AT (416) 536-4535

Source:

Steven, D., Dhaliwal, H., Fitch, M., Choudhry, U., Clarke, E., Kirk-Gardner, R., et al. (2001). Breast and cervical cancer screening: Knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and practices in selected ethno-cultural groups in Northwestern Ontario. *Oncol Nurs Forum*, 31(2), 305-311.

APPENDIX B

Interview Guide Data Code Sheet (Vietnamese Version)

BẢNG PHỎNG VẤN

Phần A: Thông tin cá nhân

Xin vui lòng khoanh tròn câu trả lời của bạn	
1. Bạn bao nhiêu tuổi:	Trả lời
1. Dưới 40	
2. 40-45	
3. 46-50	
4. 51-55	
5. 56-60	
6. 61-65	
7. Tuổi khác (Xin ghi rõ):	
2. Trình độ học vấn:	
1. Trung học	
2. Cao đẳng	
3. Đại học	
4. Trên đại học	
3. Bạn có đi làm không?	
1. Có đi làm toàn thời gian	
2. Có đi làm bán thời gian	
3. Không đi làm	
4. Nghề nghiệp:	
5. Nơi sinh sống:	
1. Thành thị (Trung tâm thành phố)	
2. Nông thôn	
6. Bạn là người gốc gì? (ví dụ: Hoa, Việt, v.v.v):	
7. Tình trạng hôn nhân:	
1. Độc thân	
2. Đã có gia đình	
3. Sống như vợ chồng	L
4. Ly thân	

5. Góa chồng 6. Ly dị				
• .				
8. Nếu bạn đã có gia đình, trình đơ	ộ học vấn của c	chồng bạn là:		
1. Trung học]
2. Cao đẳng				
3. Đại học			L	•
4. Trên đại học				
9. Chồng/bạn trai của bạn có đi là	m không?			
1. Có đi làm toàn thời gian			Γ	1
2. Có đi làm bán thời gian				
3. Không đi làm				J
or randing or rann				
10. Nghề nghiệp của chồng/bạn tr	ai của han:			
10. 14ghe nghiệp của chong/bạn d	ai cua bạii			
11 Név hom đã có của đành hoặc á	tona sốna shum	مایا، کنم مناذ دامن		~ .
11. Nếu bạn đã có gia đình hoặc ở	iang song chung	g knong gia inu,	, xiii vui iong ne	ou ro:
	Lần thứ nhất	Lần thứ hai	Lần thứ ba	Lần thứ tư
Ngày đám cưới	19	19	19	19
Tuổi lúc đám cưới				
Tuổi của chồng bạn				
Quan hệ của bạn được bao lâu				
Tình trạng hôn nhân hiện nay của				
bạn (Ly thân, ly dị, goá chồng (xin				
vui lòng ghi rõ))				
Nếu chồng của bạn đã qua đời, xin				
vui lòng nêu rõ nguyên nhân				
12. Bạn có con không?				
1. Có				l
2. Không				
Nếu có, bạn có bao nhiêu c	con?			I
Tuổi của các con họn.	con:			
Tuổi của các con bạn:				
13. Bạn có bác sĩ gia đình không?				1
1. Có				
2. Không				

14. Giới tính của bác sĩ gia đình của bạn:1. Đàn ông2. Phụ nữ	
15. Bác sĩ gia đình của bạn là người:	
Phần B: Thông tin chung về sức khoể	
16. Có bao giờ bạn được chẩn đoán có nhũ	rng bệnh như sau
1. Cao huyết áp	
☐ Không	□ C6
2. Có mỡ trong máu	
☐ Không	□ C6
3. Bệnh về tim	
□ Không	□ C6
4. Tiểu đường	
□ Không	□ C6
5. Ung thư	
□ Không	□ C6
Loại ung thư:	
17. Bạn có đang uống thuốc nếu bạn mắc n xin vui lòng ghi rõ	những loại bệnh nêu trên không? Nếu có
Thuốc cao huyết áp	
☐ Không	□ C6
Thuốc hạ mỡ trong máu	
☐ Không	□ C6
Thuốc cho bệnh tim	
☐ Không	□ C6
Thuốc ngừa thai	
□ Không	□ Có
Hóc môn	
□ Không	□ C6
Bứu	
☐ Không	□ Có
Insulin	
□ Không	□ Có

18. Bạn có bao giờ hút thuốc không? ☐ Không	□ C6
19. Hiện nay bạn có hút thuốc không? ☐ Không	? □ C6
Nếu có, bạn hút bao nhiêu điếu mỗi n	ngày:
20. Bạn bất đầu hút thuốc khi nào?	
Tuổi	
21. Bạn bỏ thuốc khi nào:	
Tuổi	
22. Khi bạn hút thuốc, bạn có hít sâu l	không? Xin vui lòng ghi rõ mức độ
☐ Không hít sâu	
☐ Hít sâu, nhưng chỉ một	ít
☐ Hít sâu, bình thường	
☐ Hít thật sâu	
Phần C: Thói quen về ăn uống	
23. Thịt / Đạm	
-	g có da, hoặc cá
24. Sản phẩm từ sữa/trứng	

Có nhiều chất béo - kem chua, phô-mai (cheese) vàng, sữa nguyên chất, trứng, bơ

	- sữa không béo, Ya-ua ít béo hoặc phô-mai nguyên chất, lòng trắng n phẩm thay thế cho trứng
 An nhi An cả An chủ 	nư luôn luôn ăn những sản phẩm có nhiều chất béo ều sản phẩm có nhiều chất béo, chỉ một ít có ít chất béo hai thứ bằng nhau i yếu sản phẩm có ít chất béo, một ít có nhiều chất béo sản phẩm có ít hoặc không có chất béo
25. Các món t	ráng miệng
Có nhiều chất	béo - bánh, bánh chiên, bánh, kem, sôcôla
<i>Có ít chất béo</i> vật.	- xà-lách trái cây, nho, trái cây khô, các món tự làm sử dụng dầu thực
 An An An 	u như lúc nào cũng ăn thức ăn có nhiều chất béo nhiều sản phẩm có nhiều chất béo, chỉ một ít có ít chất béo cả hai thứ bằng nhau chủ yếu sản phẩm có ít chất béo, một ít có nhiều chất béo ăn sản phẩm có ít hoặc không có chất béo
	<i>béo</i> – Thường xuyên chiên xào, thường thêm bơ hoặc dầu mỡ vào thức dụng nhiều chất béo khi nấu ăn.
	 Hấp, nướng hoặc hấp, chủ yếu dùng dầu thực vật, nêm thức ăn bằng ia, ít sử dụng chất béo
2. Thư 3. Nấi 4. Nấi chấ	u như luôn luôn nấu ăn bằng cách có nhiều chất béo ường nấu ăn bằng cách có nhiều chất béo u bằng cả hai cách u ăn chủ yếu bằng cách có ít chất béo, thỉnh thoảng bằng cách có nhiều t béo nấu ăn bằng cách có ít chất béo

Tinh chế - bánh mì trắng, bánh qui, banh kẹp, gạo trắng, cereals và bánh nướng

27. Bánh mì và bột ngũ cốc

	ớc nguyên chất – bánh mì làm bằng bột ngũ cốc, bánh cuốn, g cereals làm từ gạo nguyên chất ví dụ như Shredded wheat	gạo lức, lúa
2. 3. 4.	Luôn ăn bột ngũ cốc tinh chế Hầu như luôn ăn bột ngũ cốc tinh chế An cả hai thứ An chủ yếu bột ngũ cốc nguyên chất Chỉ ăn bột ngũ cốc nguyên chất	
28. Trái c	ây và rau	
Bạn thười	ng ăn trái cay và rau không?	
2. 3. 4.	 5 phần hoặc là nhiều hơn mỗi ngày 4 phần mỗi ngày 3 phần mỗi ngày 2 phần mỗi ngày 1 phần hoặc ít hơn mỗi ngày 	
29. Thướ 8	ăn nhanh	
	ường ăn thức ăn nhanh như bánh mì kẹp thịt (hamburger), tac khoai tây chiên	os, gà chiên
2. 3.	Hàng ngày Vài lần mỗi tuần Thỉnh thoảng Hiếm khi hoặc không bao giờ	
30. Muối		
Bạn có th	ường thêm muối vào thức ăn ở bàn ăn	
2. 3. 4.	Không bao giờ	
31. Thức i	iống có cồn	

Trong hai	tuần vừa qua, bao nhiêu ngày bạn uống thức uống có cồn như	ı bia hoặc rượu
2. 3. 4.	Không uống trong năm vừa qua Không uống trong hai tuần vừa qua Một đến ba ngày Bốn đến sáu ngày Bảy đến mười ngày	
6.	Mười một đến mười bốn ngày	
32. Số chai	i hoặc là ly	
Trung bình	bạn uống bao nhiêu chai hoặc ly mỗi ngày?	
2. 3. 4. 5.		
33. Cà phê		
Mỗi ngày l	bạn thường uống bao nhiêu ly thức uống có cà phê?	
2. 3. 4.	Không uống ly nào Một ly mỗi ngày Hai đến ba ly mỗi ngày Bốn đến năm ly mỗi ngày Sáu ly hoặc hơn mỗi ngày	
34. Môn th	ể dục mà bạn tập	
	Thể dục nhịp điệu Môn thể dục khác (xin nêu rõ) Đạp xe đạp, tốc độ bình thường Đạp xe đạp, tốc độ nhanh Chèo thuyền Racquetball Đi bộ, tốc độ nhanh Đi bộ, tốc độ bình thường	
	Lướt ván	

☐ Trượt tuyết đường dài	
☐ Bơi lội	
□ Đạp xe đạp tại chỗ□ Tennis	
☐ Tennis ☐ Làm việc (khiêng vác nặng, xúc đất)	
Lam việc (kineng vac hạng, xuc dat)	
35. Bạn tập thể dục bao nhiêu lần mỗi tuần?	
/ Lần/Tuần	
36. Bạn tự đánh giá sức khoẻ của bạn thế nào?	
1. Rất tốt	
2. Tốt	1
3. OK	
4. Không tốt lắm 5. Yếu	J
5. 10 u	
37. Theo bạn, sức khoẻ của bạn như thế nào so sánh với những người phụ nữ kha cùng tuổi bạn?	ác
1. Tốt hơn	
2. Bằng	
3. Yếu hơn	
38. Để giữ sức khoẻ, bạn làm gì?	
(Gợi ý: Chẳng hạn nhu tập thể dục, đi bộ, hoặc là thường xuyên đi khám bác sĩ)	
39. Bạn có gặp khó khăn gì khi bạn thực hiện những hoạt động mà bạn vừa kể tr không? Xin vui lòng ghi rõ nếu có	rên
40. Bạn khám bác sĩ lần cuối cùng khi nào?	

 Trong tuần trước Trong 1 đến 2 năm trước Trong 3 đến 4 năm trước 5 năm hoặc nhiều hơn Không bao giờ Không biết 				
41. Bạn có khám phụ khoa không?				
 C6 Không 				
42. Tại sao bạn đi khám bác sĩ?				
Lý do	Đúng	Sai	Khoâng bieát	Không trả lời
Triệu chứng làm bạn khó chịu				V
Khám định kỳ				
Bạn bè hoặc là người thân gợi y				
Yêu cầu từ chỗ làm				
Yêu cầu để tìm việc làm				
Khám theo yêu cầu của hãng bảo hiểm				
Đọc báo				
Xem Tivi				
Bác sĩ yêu cầu				
Không có lý do gì hết				
43. Có bao giờ bạn có thai chưa? 1. Có 2. Chưa				
44. Nếu có, bạn đã có thai bao nhiêu lần rồi? (Tính tất cả những lần đã sinh, đang mang bầu, hư thai, nạo thai và có thai ngoài tử cung)				
Lần				
45. Bạn có thai lần đầu tiên lúc bạn bao nh	niêu tuổi	?		
Tuổi				

46. Bạn có thai bao nhiêu lần được 5 tháng hoặc hơn?
Lần
47. Bạn bao nhiều tuổi tính đến lúc bạn mang thai lần đầu tiên được 5 tháng hoặc hơn xong?
Tuổi
48. Bạn sinh bao nhiều lần?
Lần
49. Bạn có nuôi con bằng sữa mẹ sau khi sinh không?
 C6 Không
50. Tính tổng cộng, bạn nuôi con bằng sữa mẹ bao nhiều tháng?
Tháng
51. Bạn có bao giờ uống thuốc ngừa thai không?
1. Có 2. Không
52. Hiện nay bạn có uống thuốc ngừa thai không?
1. Có 2. Không
53. Bạn uống thuốc ngừa thai lần đầu tiên lúc bao nhiêu tuổi?
Tuổi
54. Đến năm 25 tuổi, bạn đã uống thuốc ngừa thai được bao lâu? / Năm /Tháng
55. Bạn uống thuốc ngừa thai trong bao lâu đến khi bạn có thai lần đầu tiên?

/ Năm/ Tháng	
56. Bạn ngưng uống thuốc ngừa thai khi bạn được bao nhiêu tuổi?	
Tuổi	
57. Có bao giờ bác sĩ từ chối cho bạn uống thuốc ngừa thai không?	
 Có Không 	
Nếu có, tại sao?	
58. Bạn có bao giờ dùng cách ngừa thai nào khác không? (Đánh dấu mà bạn dùng)	ı tất cả những các
1. Đặt vòng	
2. Đếm ngày	
3. Cột tử cung (cervical cap)4. Miếng thấm diệt trùng (sponge)	
5. Phễu hứng tinh trùng (diaphragm)	<u> </u>
6. Thuốc diệt tinh trùng	
7. Cách khác (Xin ghi rõ)	
59. Bạn có bao giờ có tubal ligation	
1. Có	
2. Không	
60. Hiện nay bạn có sử dụng học môn thay thế nữ không? (female ro hormones) (FRH)	eplacement
1. Có	
2. Không	

Nếu cóxin trả lời tiếp câu 61, nếu không xin sang phần D

61. Bạn bất đầu sử dụng học môn thay thế nữ (female replacement hormones) khi nào?

Tuổi	
62. Bạn sử dụng FRH được bao lâu?	
Năm/ Tháng	
63. Bạn sử dụng loại FRH nào?	
 Loại uống Oral premarin (estrogen alone) Oral premarin (premarin) and progesteron (provera) Loại dán Patch estrogen Oral progesterone (provera) Loại bôi Vaginal estrogen Patch estrogen and progesterone Phần D: Khám bệnh về vú	
64. Theo bạn, bạn có kiểm soát được sức khoẻ của bạn không?	
 Kiểm soát được nhiều Kiểm soát được Không chắc Không được nhiều Không được 	
65. Những câu hỏi tiếp theo sẽ về vú và bệnh ung thư vú	
A. Bạn có bao giờ đi khám vú? 1. Có 2. Không Nếu có, xin vui lòng trả lời những câu hỏi sau:	
Bạn có đi khám vú thường xuyên không?	
Ai khám vú cho bạn? (đánh dấu tất cả những câu trả lời thích hợp)	
 Tự khám Bác sĩ (Nam) Bác sĩ (Nữ) 	

4. Y tá5. Người khác (Xin vui lòng nêu rõ)	
Người khám vú cho bạn là người có gốc (dân tộc) nào?	
Tại sao bạn cần khám vú?	
 Không biết Khám định kỳ Có khối u trong ngực 	
Bạn cảm thấy như thế nào về việc khám vú của bạn?	
 Nếu không, xin vui lòng trả lời nhưng câu hỏi sau Bác sĩ hoặc y tá của bạn có bao giờ nói chuyện về việc khám vú với 1. Có 2. Không 	bạn không?
66. Bạn có bao giờ từ chối được khám vú không?	
Nếu có, tại sao?	
Phần E: Tự khám vú (Khám để phát hiện ung thư thời kỳ đầu và đu vú)	ược gọi là tự khám
67. Bạn có biết là phụ nữ cũng có thể tự khám vú cho mình được?	
 Có Không 	

Bạn có biết nhiều về việc tự khám vú không?	
Có ai nói cho bạn biết làm thế nào để tự khám vú không?	
1. Có	
2. Không3. Không rõ	
Có ai hướng dẫn cho bạn tự khám vú không?	
 Có Không 	
Nếu có, ai?	
Bạn có bao giờ đọc về tự khám vú không?	
1. Có	
2. Không	
Nếu có,	
Bạn đọc về cái gì?	
Ai đưa cho bạn thông tin đó?	

Lợi ích của việc đọc những thông tin trên là gì?

68. Bạn có bao giờ tự khám vú không?	
 Có Không 	
Nếu có,	
Bạn có thường tự khám vú không? (ví dụ, mỗi lần một tháng)	
Bạn tự khám vú như thế nào?	
69. Theo bạn, bạn nên tự khám vú thường xuyên thế nào?	
70. Bạn nghĩ là việc tự khám vú quan trọng thế nào?	
71. Bạn nghĩ như thế nào về ung thư vú?	

72. Khi bạn n	ghĩ về việc tự kh	ám vú, bạn cảm	thấy thế nào?	
73. Bạn cảm	thấy thế nào khi	tự khám vú?		
1. K ł	ıông thoải mái			
	tá thoải mái t thoải mái			
74. Bạn nghĩ	như thế nào về v	việc phụ nữ tự kl	nám vú?	
				
				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
bất thường họ 1. Cớ 2. Kh	ặc cái gì đó thấy			thể phát hiện cái gì
76. Bạn sẽ là	m gì nếu bạn cản	n thấy cái gì đó	khác hoặc gây ngl	hi vấn?
77. Bạn sẽ nó	i với ai?			
Phần F: Ung	thư vú			
78. Bạn có biể	ết ai bị ung thư vi	í không?		

2.	Không	
Nếu có, qu	uan hệ của bạn với người đó thế nào?	
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.		
Xin nêu rõ	chuyện gì xảy ra với người đó	
	hĩ về bệnh của người đó, chuyện đó ảnh hưởng đến bạn thế nào	?
81. Nguy c	ơ bị ung thu vú là gì?	
Phần G: (Chup X quang vu/ (Mammography)	

1. Có

82. Bạn có biết về chụp X quang vú?

 Có Không 			
83. Bạn có biết gì v	về khám vú (breast scre	ening)?	
 Có Không 			
Nếu bạn trả lời có	cho câu hỏi 82 và 83		
Bạn biết về chụp X	quang vú ở đâu?		
Bạn nghĩ là thông t	in này có ích như thế nà	10?	
Bạn có bao giờ đi c	hụp X quang vú không	?	
 Có Không Bạn cảm thấy như 	hế nào khi bạn đang đu	ợc chụp X quang vú?	
•	, 6		
Người chụp X quan	g vú cho bạn có giải thí	ch cho bạn biết họ đang làn	n gì không?
Bạn nhạn được hố t	rọ tinh than như thể nào	khi bạn được chup X quan	g vú?

	húng tôi muốn nói với những người phụ nữ như bạn về ung thư những cách tốt nhất mà chúng tôi có thể sử dụng là?	r vú và việc tự
Phần H:	Pap Smear (PS)	
85. Trong	những câu hỏi tiếp theo sẽ về Pap Smear và ung thư tử cung	
	A) Bạn có bao giờ có PS không?	
	Có Không	
Nếu có, x	in vui lòng trả lời những câu hỏi sau?	
1. 2.	có thường không Hàng năm Hai năm một lần	
	Khác (vui lòng nêu rõ) ện PS cho bạn? (Đánh dấu tất cả những câu trả lời đúng)	
1. 2.	Bác sĩ (Nam) Bác sĩ (Nữ) Y tá	
Gốc (dân	tộc) của người thực hiện PS cho bạn là gì?	
Tại sao ba	ın nghĩ PS cần thiết?	
1. 2. 3.	Không biết Khám định kỳ Triệu chứng bất thường (chảy máu)	

Bạn có có	tháng không bình thường không?	
	Luôn luôn Thường có	
3.	Thính thoảng	
4.	Hiếm khi	
5.	Không bao giờ	
Khi bạn c	ó tháng, bạn thường ra nhiều máu hơn bình thường?	
6.	Luôn luôn	
	Thường có	
	Thình thoảng	
	Hiếm khi	
10	. Không bao giờ	
Bạn bắt đ	ầu có tháng khi bạn bao nhiêu tuổi?	
	Tuổi	
	oặc bác sĩ của bạn có bao giờ thảo luận với bạn về tầm quan t ờng xuyên?	rọng của việc
1	Có	
	Không	
	ó bao giờ từ chối khám phụ khoa Paps Smear không?	
1.	C6	
2.	Không	
88. Bạn cá	ẩm thấy như thế nào về việc đi (PS)?	

89. Bạn c	có cách nào để chuẩn bị đi khám PS?	
90. Bạn c	có bao giờ đọc thông tin về việc có PS thường xuyên?	
2.	Có Không Không nhớ	
Ai đưa thơ	ông tin cho bạn?	
Việc đọc	những thông tin trên mang lại lợi ích gì cho bạn?	
	nột vài lý do bạn không đi PS? (ví dụ như: sợ, ngại, đau, khôn i, không có bác sĩ nữ)	g có phương
Phần I: U	Ung thư tử cung	
91. Có bao	o giờ bạn được chẩn đoán bị ung thư tử cung?	
	Có Không	
Nếu có, x	in trả lời những câu hỏi sau?	
Bạn được	chẩn đoán lúc bao nhiêu tuổi?	

	Tuổi	
Triệu chú	ứng (nếu có):	
2. 3. 4. 5.	Chảy máu âm đạo bất thường Chảy máu khi quan hệ sinh lý Cảm thấy rất muốn đi tiểu Cảm thấy đau khi đi tiểu Triệu chứng khác (xin vui lòng nêu rõ)	
Bạn có bi	iết gì về nguy cơ bị ung thư tử cung?	
Bạn có ba	ao giờ uống thuốc DES, loại thuốc cho các trường hợp mang thai	có nguy cơ
1.	Có Có	
	Không	
3.	Không biết	
92. Bạn đ	được điều trị như thế nào?	
1.	Cryosurgery	
2.	Electrocautery	
3.	Colpascopy	
4.	Cone biopsy	
5.	•	
	Radiation	
7.	Other (xin vui lòng nêu rõ)	-
93. Bạn n dõi)?	nhận được thông tin gì liên quan đến ung thư tử cung? (ví dụ như c	điều trị, theo

94. Bạn nhận được hỗ trợ tinh thần như thế nào khi bạn được chấn đoán có bệnh?
95. Nếu chúng tôi muốn nói cho những người phụ nữ như bạn về ung thư tử cung và sự quan trọng của việc đi PS thường xuyên, chúng tôi nên dùng cách nào?
96. Nếu bạn có ung thư vú hoặc là ung thư tử cung, xin vui lòng trả lời những câu hỏi sau?
Bạn có dùnng thuốc hoặc cách chữa trị nào khác (ví dụ như thuốc bắc, xoa bóp, châm cứu, chữa trị bằng tâm linh)
97. Bạn có nghĩ rằng những cách trên có ích không? Vui lòng giải thích
Xin chân thành cám ơn bạn đã bỏ thời gian quí báu tham gia cuộc điều tra của chúng tôi. Nếu bạn có gì thắc mắc, xin vui lòng liên hệ Darlene Steven (807) 343-9643 hoặc
Tue Nguyen (416) 536-4535

Source:

Steven, D., Dhaliwal, H., Fitch, M., Choudhry, U., Clarke, E., Kirk-Gardner, R., et al. (2001). Breast and cervical cancer screening: Knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and practices in selected ethno-cultural groups in Northwestern Ontario. *Oncol Nurs Forum*, 31(2), 305-311.

APPENDIX C

Letter to Participants

January, 2006

Dear Participant:

My name is Tue Tran Nghi Nguyen. I am currently in my last year of Masters Public Health program at Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario. I am writing to request your participation in a study examining practices of Vietnamese Canadian women aged 40 and older regarding breast and cervical screenings.

The objectives of the study are:

- 1. To examine the knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding breast and cervical cancer screenings of Vietnamese Canadians in Toronto, Ontario.
- 2. To identify barriers (if any) facing Vietnamese Canadian women in taking preventive measures and participating in breast and cervical cancer screenings.
- 3. To make recommendations and strategies for ethnic-focused breast and cervical cancer screenings' health promotion programs

It will probably take you about 30 to 45 minutes to fill out the distributed questionnaires. The questionnaires come in two languages: Vietnamese and English. You are welcome to use either or both languages to answer the questions. A pre-stamped and pre-addressed envelope is provided at your convenience so that you can mail the questionnaire back to the researcher.

Participation in this study is voluntary. There is no risk of physical or psychological harm involved in this study.

All information you provide will be kept confidential. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. The information will be compiled by the primary researcher, whose is myself. The information will be stored in a secure and confidential location for seven years at Lakehead University, Department of Public Health.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact, either myself at:

or my research supervisor at:

Tue Tran Nghi Nguyen MPH Student, Lakehead University (416) 536-4535 tnguyen2@lakeheadu.ca Dr. Darlene Steven Professor, School of Nursing Lakehead University, 955 Oliver Road Thunder Bay, Ontario (807) 343-8643

Thank you in advance for your participation in this survey.

Sincerely yours,

Tue Tran Nghi Nguyen

APPENDIX D

Informed Consent Form

By signing this form, I indicate that I agree to participate in a study conducted by Tue Tran Nghi Nguyen, student in the Master's of Public Health Program at Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario. The study is on the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and practices of Vietnamese Canadian women in Toronto, Ontario, Canada, regarding breast and cervical cancer screenings.

I am aware of and agree to the following:

- 1. I am a volunteer and can withdraw at any time of from the study.
- 2. I am a Vietnamese or Chinese-Vietnamese woman who is 40 years of age or older.
- 3. There is no risk of physical or psychological harm to me for participating in this study.
- 4. I will receive a copy of the study from the researcher upon written request.
- 5. All information will be kept in a secure and confidential location for 7 years in Lakehead University's Department of Public Health, after which time it will be shredded and destroyed.

Signature of Participant

Date	, up a de demande	

APPENDIX E

Summary of Responses to Selected Survey Questions

1. How They Keep Healthy

Q1: In order to keep yourself healthy what kinds of things do you do?

- o Exercise: 16 people, mostly walking, swimming and aerobics
- o Eat well: 15 people, more fruits and vegetables
- o Rest/enough sleep: 9 people
- O Visit doctor: 5 people, for routine check-up and blood test
- Other strategies: healthy lifestyles, "be happy"

2. Difficulties Encountered with Health Behaviour Actions

Q2: Do you encounter any difficulties or problem trying to do healthy things?

- o Not enough time: 9 people
- o Health problem: 1 person, tiredness
- o Weather: 1 person, too cold to walk
- Other, scheduling: 1 person, babysitting grandchildren on swimming day

3. Feelings Related to Breast Examination Being Done

Q3: How did you feel about this (breast) examination being done?

Positive comments:

- OK, fine, no problems: 25 people
- o Comfortable: 12 people
- o Relieved: 1 person

Negative comments:

- o Embarrassed: 11 people
- o Weird: 8 people
- o Shy: 2 people
- o Painful: 1 person

4. Feelings Related to Examining Own Breasts

Q4: When you think about examining your own breasts, tell me how you feel?

Positive comments:

- o Fearful may find a lump: 19 people
- Ok, no problem: 16 people
- o Good: 1 person

Negative comments:

o Uncomfortable: 13 people

o Weird: 11 people

o Not necessary: 2 people

5. Strategies to Inform Women About Breast Cancer and Breast Self-Examination

Q5: If we wanted to tell women like yourself about breast cancer and BSE, what would be some good ways (strategies) that we could use?

- o Pamphlets or books: 14 people
- o Videos or TV programs: 12 people
- o Through doctor using breast models: 9 people
- o Informal meetings through Vietnamese clubs:7 people
- O Dissussion with friends, demonstration, and lecture by someone who has gone through it, with visual aids: 5 people
- Women's magazines, daily newspaper, leaflets given out at supermarkets: 3
 people
- o Should be taught in ESL class: 1 person
- o Through church: 1 person
 - * 90% of the responses emphasized that materials or language of instruction should be in their languages which were Vietnamese or Chinese in this study.

6. Feelings Related to Internal Examination Being Done

Q6: How did you feel about having this (internal) examination done?

Uncomfortable: 16 peopleHad to be done: 14 people

o Weird: 9 people

Nervous and embarrassed: 5 peopleOK and comfortable: 2 people

o Nobody likes it: 2 people

o No comment: 1 person

7. Strategies to Inform Women About a Pap Smear

Q7: What are your suggested strategies and reasons whey you might refuse to have a Pap smear done?

o No female doctor: 22 people

o No Vietnamese female doctor: 20 people

o No time: 5 people

o Conflict schedule: 2 people

- o Educate women when they are very young to know what to expect.
- o I would prefer a female doctor.
- O Step-by-step procedure of a pap smear and the reasons why it is important.
- o Try to relax and think of something else.
- o Distraction is good.
- o The doctor should be really nice.