



Perceived Risks of Breast Cancer Lung Cancer and Cardiovascular Disease in Irish Women

M. Varzgalis^{1*}, F. A. Kelly¹, C. M. Ni Fhoghlu², T. P. Mcveigh¹, M. J. Kerin¹
and K. J. Sweeney¹

¹Division of Surgery, National University of Ireland, Galway & University College Hospital Galway, Ireland.

²Department of Trauma and Orthopaedic Surgery, St. James Hospital, Dublin, Ireland.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/JSRR/2016/22714

Editor(s):

(1) Viroj Wiwanitkit, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Reviewers:

(1) Wajeeha Razaq, Oklahoma University, USA.

(2) Ketan Vagholkar, D. Y. Patil University School of Medicine, India.

(3) Maamri Abdellatif, Health Career Training Institute, Morocco.

(4) Menelaos Zafrakas, Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece.

(5) Oner Mentec, Gulhane Military Medical Academy, Ankara, Turkey.

Complete Peer review History: <http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/12802>

Original Research Article

Received 21st October 2015
Accepted 4th December 2015
Published 25th December 2015

ABSTRACT

Background: Despite widespread availability of risk information, many women hold inaccurate perceptions of their risk for developing breast cancer. It is important to prevent women who overestimate risk from undergoing excessive screening and preventive strategies, and to encourage those who underestimate to take appropriate health care behaviour.

Objectives: The aim of this study was to assess women perception of relative risk of breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease.

Methods: Prospective cross-sectional survey was carried out Galway University Hospital. Participants were recruited between July and August 2013. Three study cohorts were included in this study, non-cancer patients, non-cancer volunteers and health care professionals. Perceived risk for cancer was assessed by asking subjects to rate their perceived likelihood of developing breast cancer in their lifetime. The baseline used population risk as 1:10 time for breast cancer, 1:3 for cardiovascular disease and 1:40 lung cancer risks.

Results: A total of 428 respondents filled designed questionnaires. There were no male

*Corresponding author: Email: manvydas.varzgalis@nuigalway.ie;

respondents. 75(17.5%) were non cancer patients, 206(48.13%) volunteers and 105(24.53%) health care professionals. Mean age was 42.50 years (+/- 16.64). On univariate analysis family history of breast cancer ($p < 0.001$) was associated with high cancer risk perception. No association was found between high perceived risk of breast cancer and smoking, cardiovascular disease diabetes and level of education. Smokers on univariate analysis perceived that their risk of lung cancer is not higher than population risk. Multivariate analysis showed that family history ($p < 0.001$) is strongest confounder for overestimating risks of cancer.

Conclusions: Public health information is required to prevent women who overestimate risk from undergoing excessive screening and preventive strategies, and to encourage those who underestimate to take appropriate health care behaviour.

Keywords: Breast cancer; lung cancer; cardiovascular disease; risk; lifestyle; perception; behaviour.

1. BACKGROUND

Although breast cancer is the commonest cancer affecting Irish women, lung cancer is leading cause of cancer deaths among Irish women [1]. Furthermore, cardiovascular disease exceeds both breast and lung cancer as a cause of mortality among women in Europe [2]. Modifiable significant risk factors have been identified for cardiovascular disease and lung cancer (i.e. smoking) the same cannot be said for breast cancer and early detection through screening is the primary population based method of reducing breast cancer mortality, [3] although this applies only to age groups from 50 to 69 [4-7]. Reduction in risk to other age groups generally less pronounced [8]. A recent survey showed that the Irish population is poorly informed and unaware of the real risk factors for cancer [9]. Risk perception inaccuracy has been related to a variety of factors including misinformation or a lack of knowledge, personal experiences and beliefs, and cognitive processes or biases that work to minimize threats [10]. While mammography screening has been positively and significantly associated with perceived risk for breast cancer, [11,12] lung screening does not affect lung cancer risk perceptions and is not itself a cue for changing smoking behaviour as main risk factor for lung cancer [13]. Behavioural studies have demonstrated that patients perceived control over the outcome (such as the ability to stop smoking) leads to more optimistic belief about the outcome [14]. Many women relate breast cancer with non-modifiable risk factors but associate screening with prevention rather than early detection [15].

Overestimation of breast cancer mortality risk by women and primary care physicians is cited as a significant reason for the increasing numbers of patients attending symptomatic breast units (SBU) [16]. The cancer detection rates among new attendees at SBU in Ireland have gone from

1:15 to 1:30 [17]. In contrast, the cancer detection among patients attending the rapid access lung cancer clinics has remained at 1:3 [18].

It is important to discourage women who overestimate risk from undergoing excessive screening and preventive strategies, and to encourage those who underestimate their risk to take appropriate health care behaviour.

The purpose of this study was to assess women's perception of the risk of developing breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease and to identify factors influencing these risk perceptions.

2. SUBJECTS AND METHODS

A prospective cross-sectional survey was carried out Galway University Hospital. Participants were recruited between July and August 2013.

2.1 Subject Recruitment

Three study cohorts were included in this study; non-cancer patients, non-cancer volunteers and health care professionals. English speaking women without a self-reported personal history of breast or ovarian cancer and haven't attended triple assessment in symptomatic breast clinics in the past were eligible for the study. Subjects were recruited in a number of ways: Inpatients without a history of breast cancer were initially screened for study entry by the physician and then invited to participate; Health care professionals were selected on a base of a convenient sample from nursing staff and doctors; Nursing staff were selected from those actively involved in the management of hospital patients. These included outpatient nurses, inpatient nurses, oncology ward nurses and breast and oncology specialist nurses. Junior doctors were involved in patient care from a variety of hospital specialties. Non-cancer

volunteers were selected on the basis of a convenience sample from patient escorts, and a random cohort of women not affiliated with the hospital.

2.2 Questionnaire Design

The survey was self-completed, anonymous and conducted without any instruction from the study co-ordinators. Socio-demographic details were sought including age, degree of education and participant status such as patient, relative, doctor, nurse or other. Lifestyle activities were recorded including smoking, alcohol intake and daily exercise. Present co-morbidities such as diabetes, hypertensive disease, and high cholesterol levels and family history of breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease were recorded.

Participants risk for developing breast cancer lung cancer and cardiovascular disease were estimated assessing risk factors provided in the designed questionnaire.

Participants were asked whether their risk for breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease was below, at or above population risk. Average population risk for cancers was estimated based on Lifetime Risk Adjusted for Multiple Primaries [19] using 2010 data for the UK. Life time population cardiovascular risk was estimated according to data from Central Statistics Office (2013) Quarter and Yearly Summary 2013 [20]. The risk was then presented to the participant in descriptive form (Fig. 1).

The research protocol was approved by Galway University Hospitals Research Ethics Committee.

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 21.0 software (Chicago, IL, USA). Univariate comparison of variables was assessed using χ^2 test for nominal or ordinal data. Multivariate analysis was performed using multinomial logistic regression. A p value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant for all tests. Questionnaire was designed by this study authors and reliability of questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's alpha which was 0.5.

3. RESULTS

A total of 428 women agreed to participate in the study. There were no male participants. Four hundred and twenty five questionnaires (85%)

out of five hundred were completed with sufficient data for analysis. The groups and demographics of these women are included in Table 1.

Table 1. Respondent's background and risk characteristics

| N=428 | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| Education N,(%) | |
| 1 degree education | 11(2.64%) |
| 2 degree education | 112(26.92%) |
| 3 degree education | 293(70%) |
| Smoking history N,(%) | |
| Smoker | 88(20.5%) |
| Ex-smoker | 209(48.8%) |
| Non-smoker | 131(30.6%) |
| Exercise per day N,(%) | |
| More than 30 min | 254(60.62%) |
| Less than 30 min | 165(39.66%) |
| Co-morbidities N,(%) | |
| Diabetes | 49(11.44%) |
| Hypertension | 78(18.22%) |
| High Cholesterol | 80(18.69%) |
| No comorbidities | 221(51.63%) |
| Family history N,(%) | |
| Breast cancer | 138(32.24%) |
| Lung cancer | 68(15.9%) |
| Stroke | 119(27.8%) |
| Heart attack | 202(47.3%) |

The mean age of participants was 43 years (+/- 17 years). Most of the respondents (293; 70%) had a third level education. One hundred and thirty eight (32%) women had a family history of breast cancer, 68 (16%) had a family history of lung cancer and 321 (75%) had a family history of stroke or heart attack.

About a half of respondents accurately estimated their risk of developing breast cancer and cardiovascular disease however; two thirds of respondents underestimated their risk of developing lung cancer (Table 2).

On univariate analysis family history of breast cancer ($p < 0.001$) was associated with a higher perceived risk of developing breast cancer. No association was found between a perceived high risk of breast cancer and smoking. Interestingly smokers did not perceive that their risk of lung cancer was higher than the average population risk (Table 3).

Multivariate analysis demonstrated that a family history of breast and/or lung cancer ($p < 0.001$) is

strongest confounder for overestimating the risks of cancer. Smokers on multivariate analysis did not overestimate their risks of lung cancer or cardiovascular disease. Respondents who exercised more than 30 min a day perceived that their risk of cardiovascular disease decreased (Table 4). A family history of stroke or myocardial infarction did not influence cardiovascular risk perception.

4. DISCUSSION

In this study we have showed that family history is the strongest factor influencing the perception of cancer risk. Previous studies of Irish women found that they had a good knowledge about a breast cancer and its treatment options, but a poor knowledge of risk factors especially about modifiable risk factors such as reproductive

Table 2. Risk perception in relation to known risk factors

| | Underestimated risk | Accurately estimated risk | Overestimated risk |
|----------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Breast cancer | 126 (30%) | 198 (47%) | 102 (23%) |
| Lung cancer | 222 (53%) | 135 (32%) | 64 (15%) |
| Cardiovascular | 142 (33%) | 207 (49%) | 77 (18%) |

Table 3. Univariate and multivariate analysis of breast cancer risk perception

| Variables | Univariate | Multivariate logistic regression | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|---|--------------------------------|----------------|
| | P value | OR | 95% confidence interval | p value |
| Family history of breast cancer | < 0.001 | 10.731 | (5.5-20.7) | < 0.001 |
| Smoker | n.s | 0.367 | (0.151-0.889) | n.s |
| Ex-smokers | <0.05 | 2.776 | (1.334-5.775) | 0.006 |
| Drinks alcohol | n.s | .700 | (0.256-1.913) | n.s |
| Exercise >30 min/d | n.s | 1.576 | (0.867-2.865) | n.s |
| Level of education | n.s | 2.317 | (1.006-5.336) | n.s |

Table 4. Univariate and multivariate analysis of lung cancer risk perception

| Variables | Univariate | Multivariate logistic regression | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|---|--------------------------------|----------------|
| | P value | OR | 95% confidence interval | p value |
| Family History of lung cancer | 0.001 | 5.837 | (2.366-14.404) | 0.001 |
| Smoker | n.s | 0.666 | (0.254-1.746) | n.s |
| Ex-smokers | n.s | 2.249 | (0.930-5.436) | n.s |
| Drinks alcohol | n.s | 0.876 | (0.304-2.529) | n.s |
| Exercise >30 min/d | n.s | 0.746 | (0.336-1.658) | n.s |
| Level of education | n.s | 0.746 | (0.277-2.012) | n.s |

Table 5. Univariate and multivariate analysis of cardiovascular risk perception

| Variables | Univariate | Multivariate Logistic Regression | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|---|--------------------------------|----------------|
| | P value | OR | 95% confidence interval | p value |
| Family history stroke | n.s | 1.165 | (0.582-2.331) | n.s |
| Family history MI | n.s | 0.572 | (0.303-1.082) | n.s |
| Smoker | n.s | 0.571 | (0.249-1.309) | n.s |
| Ex-smokers | n.s | 1.245 | (0.602-2.578) | n.s |
| Drinks alcohol | n.s | 0.731 | (0.297-1.801) | n.s |
| Exercise >30 min/d | n.s | 3.045 | (1.474-6.289) | n.s |
| Level of education | n.s | 0.821 | (0.359-1.881) | n.s |

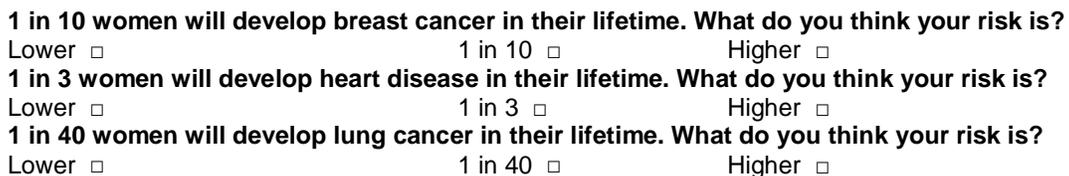


Fig. 1. Assessment of risk perception

choices, body weight, nutritional choices, physical activity, and alcohol consumption [21-24]. Increased perceived risk of breast cancer is associated with the experience of previously having had a screening mammogram [25] or attending a symptomatic breast clinic. Studies showed that mammography screening has been associated with an increased perceived risk for breast cancer, however, there is limited evidence to support that screening mammography reduces specific mortality for the individual patient in the age group 40-49 [26,27,8,28].

The majority of respondents underestimate their lung cancer risk. Family history of lung cancer was significantly related to lung cancer risk perception and smokers more likely underestimated their lung cancer risk. This has been shown in previous studies [29,30]. Unfortunately smokers don't relate their habit to increased lung cancer risk as lung cancer is now the leading cause of cancer death in women according to Annual report of the National Cancer Registry [31]. In contrast to breast cancer screening, lung cancer screening does not affect lung cancer risk perceptions and is not itself a cue for changing smoking behaviour [32].

Participants did not relate their cardiovascular risk to hypertension, tobacco use, and diabetes or blood cholesterol levels but identified physical activity as a modifiable risk factor for cardiovascular disease [33]. A recent systematic review of 850000 patients demonstrated that women with diabetes carry a 44% higher risk of coronary heart disease [34]. In our study patients did not relate diabetes to an increased risk of cardiovascular disease. This may reflect a gap in public awareness and education that needs to be addressed in the public health and primary care settings.

Public awareness of the risks which predispose to cardiovascular disease is relatively high although misperceptions remain about how to lower those risks. Furthermore, even with the knowledge on how to reduce these risk factors and intensive lifestyle counselling, many people fail to engage in a long term healthy cardioprotective lifestyle [35,36].

The implementation of preventive healthcare strategies must be done carefully. We have demonstrated an overestimation of breast cancer risk among our sample population which may be attributable to increased public awareness of the disease without adequate awareness of either incidence or mortality risk. It can be difficult to

predict how information around behavioural strategies to prevent death from disease will affect a population's behaviour. Health behavioural studies showed that subjective risk perception is important predictor of protective health behaviour [38-42].

This is the first study to the authors knowledge that compares the risk perceptions of women regarding breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease, and demonstrates a gap in women's knowledge about modifiable risks factors for these diseases.

The experience and education of the respondents in this study might not be representative of the general female population but would be the most likely group to respond to a public health disease prevention campaign [43,44]. We did not assess every respondent's actual risk (Gail model) because it does not discriminate well at the level of individual [45-47]. Every respondent had been given information about population based risk and gave them opportunity to compare their perception to the general population. We were able to assess respondents knowledge and ability to link actual risk factors to specific conditions (breast cancer, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease).

5. CONCLUSION

Public health information is required to prevent women who overestimate risk from undergoing excessive screening and preventive strategies, and to encourage those who underestimate to take appropriate health care behaviour.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to acknowledge Ms Gloria Avalos who contributed to statistical analysis.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Cancer in Ireland 2013: Annual report of the National Cancer Registry.
2. Nichols M, Townsend N, Scarborough P, Rayner M. Cardiovascular disease in Europe 2014 – Epidemiological update. *European Heart Journal*. DOI: 10.1093/eurheartj/ehu299
3. Walker MJ. Perceived risk and adherence to breast cancer screening guidelines

- among women with a familial history of breast cancer: A review of the literature. *Breast*. 2013;22(4):395-404.
4. Elmore JG, Reisch LM, Barton MB, et al. Efficacy of breast cancer screening in the community according to risk level. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2005;97:1035-1043.
 5. Norman SA, et al. Protection of mammography screening against death from breast cancer in women aged 40-64 years. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2007;18: 909-918.
 6. Roder D, Houssami N, Farshid G, et al. Population screening and intensity of screening are associated with reduced breast cancer mortality: Evidence of efficacy of mammography screening in Australia. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2008;108:409-416.
 7. Van Schoor G, et al. Effective biennial mammographic screening in women aged 40-49. *Eur J Cancer*. 2010;46:3137-3140.
 8. Lauby-Secretan B, et al. For the International Agency for Research on Cancer Handbook Working Group Breast-Cancer Screening Viewpoint of the IARC Working Group *N Engl J Med*. 2015;372: 2353–2358.
 9. Ryan A, et al. Poor awareness of risk factors for cancer in Irish adults: Results of a large survey and review of the literature. *The Oncologist*; 2015.
 10. Vernon SW. Risk perception and risk communication for cancer screening behaviours: A review. *Monographs: Journal of the National Cancer Institute*. 1999;25:101–119.
 11. Katapodi MC, et al. Predictors of perceived breast cancer risk and the relation between perceived risk and breast cancer screening: A meta-analytic review. *Prev Med*. 2004;38:388–402.
 12. Magai C, et al. Common psychosocial factors underlying breast cancer screening and breast cancer treatment adherence: A conceptual review and synthesis. *J Womens Health*. 2007;16:11–23.
 13. Elyse R Park PhD, MPH et al. Examining whether lung screening changes risk perceptions: National lung screening trial participants at 1-year follow-up. *Cancer*. 2013;119(7):1306–1313.
 14. Klein CTF, Helweg –Larsen M. Perceived control and the optimistic bias: A Meta-analytic Review. *Psychology and Health*. 2002;17(4):437-446.
 15. Spector D. Breast cancer risk perception and lifestyle behaviors among white and black women with a family history. *Cancer Nurs*. 2009;32(4):299.
 16. Sauven P: Impact of the '2 week wait' on referrals to breast units in the UK. *Breast* 2002, 11:262-264.
 17. Neary M, et al. NCCP breast cancer referral guidelines--are breast cancer patients prioritised? *Ir Med J*. 2011;104(2): 39-41.
 18. NCCP Second Annual Lung Cancer Quality and Audit Forum; 2014.
 19. Sasieni PD, et al. What is the lifetime risk of developing cancer? The effect of adjusting for multiple primaries. *Br J Cancer*. 2011;105(3):460-5.
 20. Central Statistics Office (2004) *Vital Statistics, 4th Quarter and Yearly Summary 2013*. Stationary Office, Dublin.
 21. McMenamin M, et al. A survey of breast cancer awareness and knowledge in a Western population: lots of light but little illumination—Irish National Cancer/Cardiac Awareness (INCA) survey. *Eur J Cancer*. 2005;41:393-397.
 22. Magai C, et al. Common psychosocial factors underlying breast cancer screening and breast cancer treatment adherence: A conceptual review and synthesis. *J Womens Health*. 2007;16:11–23.
 23. World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research. *Food, nutrition, physical activity, and the prevention of cancer: A global perspective*. Washington DC: AICR; 2007.
 24. Burak L, Boone B. College women and breast cancer: Knowledge, behaviour, and beliefs regarding risk reduction. *Am J Health Educ*. 2008;39(4):206–212.
 25. Zhang LR, et al. Influence of perceived breast cancer risk on screening behaviours of female relatives from the Ontario site of the breast cancer family registry. *Eur J Cancer Prev*. 2011;20(4):255–262.
 26. Anthony B Miller, et al Twenty five year follow-up for breast cancer incidence and mortality of the Canadian National Breast Screening Study: Randomised screening trial Cite this as: *BMJ*. 2014;348:g366.
 27. Howell A, Harvie M, Should lifestyle modifications be promoted to prevent breast cancer? *Breast Cancer Research* 2008;10(Suppl 4):S11. DOI: 10.1186/bcr2171
 28. Béatrice Lauby-Secretan, Ph.D et al. Breast-Cancer Screening — Viewpoint of

- the IARC Working Group International Agency for Research on Cancer Handbook Working Group N Engl J Med. 2015; 372:2353-2358.
29. Weinstein ND, Marcus SE, Moser RP. Smokers' unrealistic optimism about their risk. *Tob Control*. 2005;14:55–59.
 30. Chen LS, Kaphingst KA. Risk perceptions and family history of lung cancer: Differences by smoking status public health genomics. 2010;14(1):26–34.
 31. Cancer in Ireland 2013: Annual report.
 32. Elyse RP, PhD, MPH et al. Examining whether lung screening changes risk perceptions: National lung screening trial participants at 1-year follow-up. *Cancer*. 2013;119(7):1306–1313.
 33. Mendis S, Puska P, Norrving B. Global atlas on cardiovascular disease prevention and control. World Health Organization in collaboration with the World Heart Federation and World Stroke Organization), Geneva; 2011.
 34. Peters SA, Huxley RR, Woodward M. Diabetes as risk factor for incident coronary heart disease in women compared with men: A systematic review and meta-analysis of 64 cohorts including 858,507 individuals and 28,203 coronary events. *Diabetologia*. 2014;57:1542–1551.
 35. Murray J, et al. Individual influences on lifestyle change to reduce vascular risk: A qualitative review. *Brit J Gen Pract* 2012; 61:296–297.
 36. Lin JS, et al. Behavioral counseling to promote a healthy lifestyle for cardiovascular disease prevention in persons with cardiovascular risk factors: An updated systematic evidence review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Rockville (MD): Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (US); 2014 Aug. Report No.: 13-05179-EF-1. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Evidence Syntheses, formerly Systematic Evidence Reviews.
 37. Steven A, Schroeder MD. We can do better — improving the health of the American people. *N Engl J Med*. 2007; 357:1221-1228.
 38. Janz NK, Champion VL, Strecher VJ. The health belief model. In: Glanz K, Rimer BK, Lewis FM, editors. *Health Behavior and Health Education*. ed 3. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons Inc. 2002;45–66.
 39. Leventhal H, Meyer D, Nerenz D. The common sense representation of illness danger. In: Rachman S, editor. *Contribution to Medical Psychology*. Oxford: Pergamon Press. 1980;7–30.
 40. Rimal RN, Real K. Perceived risk and efficacy beliefs as motivators of change: Use of the risk perception attitude (RPA) framework to understand health behaviors. *Hum Commun Res*. 2003;29:370–399.
 41. Rogers RW. A protection motivation theory of fear appeals and attitude change. *J Psychol*. 1975;91:93–114.
 42. Ajzen I, Fischbein M. *Understanding attitudes and predicting behavior*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall; 1980.
 43. Tazhibi M, Feizi A. Awareness levels about breast cancer risk factors, early warning signs, and screening and therapeutic approaches among iranian adult women: A large population based study using latent class analysis. *Biomed Res Int*. 2014; 306352.
 44. Linsell L Burgess CC, Ramirez AJ. Breast cancer awareness among older women. *Br J Cancer*. 2008;99(8):1221-5.
 45. Tice JA, et al. Using clinical factors and mammographic breast density to estimate breast cancer risk: Development and validation of a new predictive model. *Ann Intern Med*. 2008;148(5):337.
 46. Barlow WE, et al. Prospective breast cancer risk prediction model for women undergoing screening mammography. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2006;98(17):1204.
 47. Rockhill B, et al Validation of the Gail et al. model of breast cancer risk prediction and implications for chemoprevention. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2001;93(5):358.

© 2016 Varzgalis et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:
The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/12802>