SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

A Systematic Evaluation of Methods Used and the Effectiveness of Health Education Interventions to Improve Knowledge, Beliefs, and Practices of Cervical Cancer Screening

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Screening of cervical cancer had decreased its morbidity and mortality in developed countries. Health education interventions are expected to enhance knowledge, attitude and practice of screening. Their success rely on designs and methods. Thus, this systematic review aims to identify the methods used and the effectiveness of health education interventions in improving knowledge, beliefs, and practices of cervical cancer screening among women of reproductive age.

Methods: A systematic review of all published eligible studies in (PubMed, Science Direct and MEDLINE) databases from 1st of January 2016 to 31st of October 2020 was run using different keywords. A total of 14 research articles were included. The quality and risk of bias of studies was assessed by using EPHPP and the average score was given accordingly. This study was registered in PROSPERO (record #CRD42020188462).

Results: The review combined 14 studies. Five studies were conducted in the USA, two in Hong Kong, one in Korea, one in England, one in Denmark, one in Norway, one in Turkey, one in Malaysia and one in Tanzania. Almost all interventions boosted the knowledge, attitude or screening uptake.

Conclusion: This review showed that the most popular methods of delivering health intervention were health talk, Group discussion and pamphlet. Health education interventions was effective in improving the knowledge, attitude and screening uptake. Although, this effect differs according to methods of delivery, study background and populations. Therefore, it is better to understand the existing situation to develop the best intervention and more studies are needed to recognise barriers to screening.

Keywords: Health Education, Cervical Cancer, Screening

INTRODUCTION

Cervical cancer is a significant health issue globally. It is considered the second common cancer in the world in females below 45 years old, although it affects a large number of women over that age. It is the fourth most common cancer in female as reported by the World Health Organization (WHO). In 2018, the new cases were about 570,000 which represents 6.6% of all female cancers (1). However, it is considered one of the most preventable cancers. Prevention and screening remain the cornerstone of the reduction in its prevalence (2).

The major purpose of cervical screening is to detect pre-invasive cancers and treating them in order to prevent death from cervical cancer. There are several methods used to diagnose precancerous changes in cervical tissue such as Pap smear test, Visual Inspection of the cervix (VIA), Liquid-based cytology, HPV DNA Testing and Colposcopy. The most cervical cancer screening test used globally is Papanicolaou (Pap) smear test (3). It was first introduced in the 1940s. This test was able to decrease the incidence and the mortality rate successfully, especially in developed countries by as much as 80% (4). However, it is less successful in developing countries as a result of lacking resources and infrastructure including medical, technical and financial as well as inadequate awareness among the females and health-care providers about cervical cancer (4).

Health education is a major factor in preventing diseases (5). Many studies show its success in improving the uptake of breast cancer screening (6, 7) or prostate cancer screening (8). The intervention programme application should be able to boost the knowledge, attitude and practice level of cervical cancer screening. There are different educational intervention methods used by females of reproductive age (19-64 yrs). Each of them has some benefits and restriction. Their success rely on the delivering methods, design and the applied theory. In order to design a potentially successful intervention in health education for the cervical cancer prevention, it would be valuable to collect information
on this subject and its effect on the level of knowledge, attitudes, and practice of participants towards cervical cancer screening. So, this systematic review helps to identify the most important methods used in developing a simple and effective health education intervention programme and the effectiveness of this programme on knowledge, beliefs, and practices of cervical cancer screening among women of reproductive age.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Protocol and registration
The procedures for systematic review described by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) recommendations have been followed in this systematic review (9) and it was also registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) (record #CRD42020188462).

Data sources, search engines and key words
Searching was done on four electronic databases: PubMed, Science Direct, EBSCOhost medical collections (MEDLINE Complete) by using the Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and the title/abstract terms to get the results. AND/OR operators were used in the search. Search terms were ‘health education’ OR ‘intervention’ OR ‘programme’ AND ‘cervical’ AND ‘cancer’ AND ‘screening’. The articles that have been included were those published from 2016 until present and the abstract that has been written in the English language. The review was limited to starting from 2016 as articles from previous years were included in the previous reviews in one or another way (10). In addition to that updated information are needed in order to develop the new interventions which fits the present situation. Therefore, we used alternatives from MeSH words for further investigation of the articles such as neoplasm or cervical neoplasm. ((health education [tiab] OR intervention* [tiab]) OR health programme*[tiab]) AND (Pap test [tiab]) AND (cervical neoplasm* [tiab] OR cervical cancer [tiab] OR cervical tumour* [tiab]) AND ‘screening’ [MeSH]).

Study selection: inclusion and exclusion criteria
Searching included all eligible published articles during the past 5 years (1st of January 2016–31st of October 2020). Inclusion criteria were: (i) Experimental studies [randomised control trials (RCTs) and cluster randomised controlled trials (CRCTs)]; (ii) study searched for cervical cancer screening knowledge, attitude and/or uptake of screening or intention of screening was included ;(iii) Participants were women in reproductive age (19-64 yrs). Exclusion criteria were that (i) studies involved other designs such as non-experimental, pre-post studies, quasi-experimental studies, protocols, systematic review, meta-analysis, qualitative, or case reports.

The type of outcome measures of this review are knowledge level, attitude and practice of screening, which are measured by questionnaires and the proportion of participants who perform cervical cancer screening.

Quality assessment and risk of bias
All the included studies have been assessed for the quality and risk of bias by using The Effective Public Health Practice Project Quality Assessment Tool for Quantitative Studies (11). This tool is used in assessing the quality of different study designs that addressing wide range of public health intervention . It consists of eight components: (A) selection bias; (B) study design; (C) confounders; (D) blinding; (E) data collection method; (F) withdrawals and dropouts (G) intervention integrity and (H) analysis. Every component was evaluated as strong, moderate or weak, resulting in an overall score of the evaluation ranging between strong (no weak individual scale rating), moderate (one weak individual scale rating) or low (two or more weak individual scale ratings) (11). Two authors reviewed the quality and bias of each study.

RESULTS

Figure 1 illustrated the flowchart of the systematic literature search, which was done according to the Preferred Reporting Item for Systematic Reviews (PRISMA) guidelines published in 2009. 681 published articles were detected. Out of these, 30 were eliminated because of duplicate records and for the rest 651 articles, we used the titles and abstracts to provide the decision...
for selection. We excluded 612 records due to many reasons. 14 full text articles were included in this review at the end. Out of these 14, we excluded another 15 full text articles due to several causes; non RCT studies (7 articles), did not involve women aged (19-64yrs) (5 articles) and different types of outcome measures (3 articles). The eligibility of the articles was screened using the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Then we reviewed the articles regarding study designs, methods of interventions (teaching methods, assessment time and time interval of intervention), outcome measures, and results (Table I).

Finally, fourteen articles were selected, assessed and summarised in Table I. These studies were conducted in nine countries. Five studies were conducted in USA (12-16), two in Hong Kong (17, 18), one in Korea (19), one in England (20), one in Denmark (21), one in Norway (22), one in Turkey (23), one in Malaysia (24) and one in Tanzania (25). All of the articles were published in the past 5 years, from 2016 to 2020.

All of the studies were randomised controlled trial designs with participants ranging from 42 to 1100. Regarding behavioural theory's usage in health education intervention, only six published articles used it. Two of the articles used the Health Belief Model theory (19, 24), which has directed researchers to prepare an integrated and holistic health education programmes. These programmes based on the HBM model were able to achieve outcome measures successfully, two of the articles used social cognitive theory (19, 25), one used the PRECEDE-PROCEED model (23), one used Transtheoretical model (20). The other studies did not use any theories in their interventions.

Methodological quality assessment
From the fourteen studies, six received strong quality score ratings (14, 17, 19, 21, 25, 26), four received moderate quality score ratings (16, 18, 22, 24) and the remaining four were scored as weak (12, 15, 20, 23) (Table II). Low ratings were mainly due to selection bias; which may occur because of low response rates and the target population was not represented accurately in the sample. Other methodological limitations were in the blinding and the analysis of data.

DISCUSSION

Overview of health education intervention
Different methods of health education intervention have been used in the fourteen studies such as: written (e.g. booklet and pamphlet), verbal (e.g. group discussion, health talk/lecture), both of them and text messages reminder. The responsibility of health education delivery was mainly by healthcare personnel (e.g. community health workers and trained research assistant) in all these studies.

Studies used different duration for the session in the verbal health education methods. The shortest one was half an hour (17) and the longest one was two hours (12, 19). However, many studies did not mention the duration of teaching (15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 23, 24, 26).

Regarding the assessment time, every study in the review was assessed twice, at baseline and following health education intervention given except for one study in which there were 2 phases of assessment after 3 months and 12 months of intervention (20). Different time intervals were reported from baseline to the time of evaluation. Time intervals were mentioned in seven studies as 2 months (24), 3 months (23), 6 months (18, 22), 7 months (16), 12 months (19). The longest time for evaluation reported was 18 months (14) and the shortest time was one month (21).

Three studies used self-administered questionnaires (12, 18, 19) and seven studies used interviewed questionnaires (16, 17, 20, 22, 23, 25, 26) to measure the outcome. With regards to the outcome measure, three studies evaluated more than one outcome including the effectiveness of health education intervention on improving of knowledge, Perception and attitude and increasing practice towards cervical cancer screening (12, 16, 24).

Some studies measured two outcomes as knowledge and attitude towards cervical cancer screening (26), while other studies measured only one outcome as knowledge (18), attitude (21, 23) or practice (15, 25) towards cervical cancer screening. Two studies measure cost effectiveness as a secondary outcome (16, 25) or psychosocial wellbeing (18).

The current review revealed that the combination of more than one method was more effective in increasing cervical cancer screening. This was shown when combining community cancer education with navigation services (19), using multimodal (letter/email/telephone) outreach strategy (14) and combination of counselling and leaflet were more effective than leaflet only (18). Multimedia was proven to be effective in improving cervical cancer knowledge and attitudes among study participants (15, 17, 26), but there was no significant difference in screening uptake between intervention and control groups. Perhaps other health education approaches and studies are required to identify the barriers to screening uptake.

A promotora-led education (A promotora is a lay Hispanic/Latino community member who gives basic health education in the community after getting a specialized training) was as well effective in increasing the knowledge and intention to be screened for cervical cancer (16, 26). This was similar to a study in the USA which revealed the effectiveness of promotora-led
Table I: Literature summary of the included studies

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<tr>
<th>Author/ Year/ Country</th>
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<tr>
<td>Caro-Lyn Y. Fang et al., 2017</td>
<td>Korean American women (750) (N=347) in the intervention and the control group (N=358). They were recruited from 22 churches located in southeastern Pennsylvania and New Jersey.</td>
<td>Health Belief Model (HBM) and Societal Cognitive Theory (SCT)</td>
<td>A Randomised Trial of a Community-Based Intervention</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Meeting in small groups and received a single educational session with navigation services. -A follow-up reminder letter for screening was sent six and 12 months after the educational session. -Intervention delivered by a bilingual community health educator (CHEs). -Time: 2-hour session -Assessment time: Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval: 12 months -Self-report questionnaires -Control group: 2-hour education session</td>
<td>Cervical cancer screening (receipt of a Papanicolaou test)</td>
<td>The intervention program contributed to significantly higher screening rates than the control program (Odds Ratio [OR] = 25.9, 95% CI=10.1-66.1, p&lt;0.001).</td>
<td>A multi-component intervention combining community cancer education with navigation services yielded significant increases in cervical cancer screening rates among under-screened Korean American women.</td>
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<td>Hae-Ra Han et al., 2017</td>
<td>A cluster-randomized trial at 23 ethnic churches in the Baltimore, Maryland, Washington, DC, and metropolitan area enrolled 561 women.</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A cluster randomized trial</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Individually tailored cancer-screening brochure -Health literacy training in a 1.5- to 2-hour long group meeting -Monthly telephone counseling with navigation assistance -A copy of the DVD and guidebook Intervention delivered by CHNs -Time: 1.5- to 2-hour Assessment time: Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval: 6 months -Self-report questionnaires -Control group: Publicly available educational brochures related to breast and cervical cancer.</td>
<td>-Receipt of an age-appropriate cervical screening test, health history, cancer knowledge, and perceptions about cancer screening.</td>
<td>-The odds of receiving a Papanicolaou test were 13.3 (95% CI=7.9, 22.3) times higher. -Intervention effects also included increases in health literacy and positive perceptions about cancer screening.</td>
<td>A health literacy-focused CHW intervention successfully promoted cancer-screening behaviors and related cognitive and attitudinal outcomes in Korean American women.</td>
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<td>Kitchen et al., 2018</td>
<td>Eligible women in three Greater Manchester Primary Care Trusts (PCTs), Trafford, Salford, and Manchester, were recruited from 22 church (pre-invitation leaflet) prior to their standard invitation.</td>
<td>Transtheoretical model</td>
<td>A cluster randomised trial</td>
<td>Two-phase conducted: Intervention Methods: -Phase 1: received a pre-invitation leaflet and, separately, access to online booking. -Phase 2: non-attenders at six months were randomised to one of: vaginal self-sample kits sent unrequested or offered; timed appointments; nurse navigator; or the choice between nurse navigator or self-sample kits. -Intervention delivered by CHNs -Time: // -Assessment time: Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval: 3 and 12 months following the invitation for Phase 1 and Phase 2, respectively. -Interviewed questionnaire -Control group: usual care practices in the NHS Cervical Screening Programme.</td>
<td>Increase cervical screening uptake</td>
<td>-Phase 1: Neither pre-invitation leaflet nor online booking increased screening uptake by three months (18.8% pre-invitation leaflet vs. 19.2% control and 17.8% online booking vs. 17.2% control). Uptake was higher amongst human papillomavirus vaccinees at three months (OR 2.07, 95% CI 1.69–2.33, p&lt;0.001). -Phase 2: Sending self-sample kits increased uptake at 12 months (OR 1.51, 95% CI 1.20–1.91, p=0.001), as did timed appointments (OR 1.41, 95% CI 1.14–1.74, p=0.001). -The offer of a nurse navigator, a self-sample kit on request, and choice between timed appointments and nurse navigator were ineffective.</td>
<td>Amongst non-attenders, self-sample kits sent and timed appointments achieved an uplift in screening over the short term; longer term impact is less certain. Prior human papilloma virus vaccination was associated with increased screening uptake.</td>
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<td>Bell Thompson et al., 2019</td>
<td>160 Latinos was conducted in this study. It took place in the Lower Yakima Valley of Washington State.</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A pilot randomised controlled trial (RCT)</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: Three arms were developed: a fotonovela, an illustrated booklet written in Spanish and English, and a digital story. -Intervention delivered by provider focus groups (n=2), led by the Principal Investigator (P.I.), a trained Project Coordinator -Time: // -Assessment time: Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval: After the intervention -Interviewed questionnaires -Control group: received a fact sheet on the need for a flu vaccination injection (flu shot)</td>
<td>Knowledge about cervical cancer and HPV -Intention to obtain cervical screening.</td>
<td>-Women in all three treatment arms significantly increased knowledge about cervical cancer compared to control arm (p=0.02). -Knowledge about cervical cancer screening also increased in the active arms compared to control (p=0.0003). -Knowledge of HPV risk also increased relative to the control (p=0.001). -There were no significant differences between the intervention arms in increased knowledge of cervical or cervical cancer screening (p=0.57 and 0.16 respectively).</td>
<td>This study supported the use of small media interventions in narrative education form as effective in increasing knowledge and intention to be screened for cervical cancer. The three culturally relevant interventions, built on qualitative data, were all successful in increasing knowledge.</td>
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<td>Ronli Kei et al., 2020</td>
<td>This controlled community trial involved 210 women from the districts of Alor Setar and Sungai Sireh. Total sisters were recruited.</td>
<td>Health belief model</td>
<td>RCT</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Educational talk, -Demon video -Experience sharing, -Pamphlet distribution. -Text message reminders. Intervention delivered by CHNs -Time: A 30-minute educational talk on cervical cancer and Pap smear test A 5-minute video on Pap smear test procedures. -Assessment time: Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval: // -Interviewed questionnaire -Control group: educational talk alone.</td>
<td>Knowledge and attitude towards cervical cancer and Pap smear, and uptake of Pap smear testing.</td>
<td>-Knowledge on cervical cancer and Pap smear, and attitude towards Pap smear among women in both intervention and control group improved significantly. -The uptake of Pap smear in the intervention group increased significantly from 48.0% at Baseline to 68.0% (p=0.001), and from 36.4% to 79.0% (p=0.001). A significant increase in Pap smear uptake was also seen in the control group from 63.0% at Baseline to 76.0% (p=0.001).</td>
<td>Educational talk alone was effective in improving knowledge on cervical cancer and Pap smear, attitude towards the test, and the actual uptake of the test. However, test reminders were more effective than having an educational talk alone in increasing uptake of Pap smear test among participants.</td>
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<td>Peitzmeier SM et al.,2016</td>
<td>1,100 patients at an urban federally qualified health centre overdue for Pap testing</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A randomised trial.</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Letter outreach. -Email outreach. -Telephone outreach. -Multimodal (letter/email/telephone) outreach. -Intervention delivered by // -Time: over a period of 3 months each at approximately 1-month intervals. -Assessment time : Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2). -Time interval : 18 months -Interviewed questionnaires -Control group: usual care</td>
<td>Effectiveness of various outreach methods in engaging patients who are overdue for cervical cancer screening.</td>
<td>Compared to patients receiving usual care, patients in the multimodal 16 vs. 21%, AOR 2.3, 95% CI 1.4, 3.6 and telephone (29 vs. 21%, AOR 1.7, 95% CI 1.1, 2.8)</td>
<td>In an urban primary care setting, a multimodal outreach strategy was most effective at increasing the proportion of overdue patients who underwent cervical cancer screening and decreasing time to screening.</td>
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<td>Cho Lee et al.,2019</td>
<td>Forty-two South Asian women were recruited at six ethnic minority associations in Hong Kong</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A pilot randomised wait-list controlled trial</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -A structured PowerPoint slide with a video clip -A monthly telephone follow-up once a month for three months -Navigation assistance in accessing screening services -An information booklet to recap -Intervention delivered by CHW -Time : A 50-min -Assessment time : Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval : 3 months -Interviewed questionnaires -Control group: usual care received the intervention as described above after data collection at post-intervention.</td>
<td>Cervical screening uptake</td>
<td>We demonstrated that the intervention was feasible as evidenced by the high consent rate and low withdrawal and attrition rates.</td>
<td>Our findings support the feasibility of CHW-led multimedia intervention and provide preliminary evidence of its effectiveness in enhancing the cervical cancer screening beliefs among South Asian women.</td>
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<td>Hestbech et al., 2016</td>
<td>A random sample of women from the birth cohorts 1993, 1994 and 1995 drawn from the general population in Denmark</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A Randomised survey study</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Four different information modules about benefits and harms of cervical screening: No information; non-numerical information; South Asian women.</td>
<td>Self-reported intention to participate in cervical screening</td>
<td>A significantly lower proportion intended to participate in screening in the two groups of women receiving numerical information compared to controls with absolute differences of 10.3 (95% CI 3.3-17.4) and 7.7 (95% CI 0.4-14.9) percentage points, respectively.</td>
<td>Women were less likely to participate in cervical screening when they received numerical information about benefits and harms compared to non-numerical or no information. Specifically, numerical information about the potential impact of the reduced risk of cervical cancer among HPV-vaccinated women reduced the intention to participate in screening among HPV-vaccinated women.</td>
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<td>Joa Z et al., 2019</td>
<td>Qualitative and quantitative study was conducted at a community training centre in north Turkey. A total of 156 Turkish women who were without cancer participated in this study.</td>
<td>The PRECEDE-PROCEED model</td>
<td>RCT</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: -Three educational training sessions every other month. -Intervention delivered by 5 experts (1 gynecologist and 4 nurse educators) -Time: 60 minutes -Assessment time : Baseline (T1) and evaluation (T2) -Time interval : 3 months -A semi-structured interview form was used during the qualitative data collection. -The SF-36 Health Status Questionnaire, Health Belief Model Scale for Cervical Cancer and Pap Smear Test, and Healthy Lifestyle Behavior Scale III were used during quantitative data collection -Control group: usual care</td>
<td>Effect of education about cervical cancer and human papillomavirus on the healthy lifestyle, behavior, and beliefs of Turkish women who were without cancer.</td>
<td>The sub-dimension scores of the Health Belief Model Scale for Cervical Cancer and Pap Smear Test were found to be higher among women in the study group (cervical cancer seriousness, P = .001, health motivation, P = .003) as compared to the control group after the education program.</td>
<td>The post-education health motivation of women in the study group was improved, the women’s perception of obstacles to Pap/sigmoidal testing decreased, and increased knowledge and awareness, the rate of Pap/sigmoidal testing increased</td>
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<td>Ngu S.F. et al., 2017</td>
<td>Data from 121 women (52 in leaflet group; 69 in counselling group) were analyzed in Hong Kong</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>RCT</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: Received a written factsheet (leaflet) -Knowledge of cervical screening and HPV. -Psychosocial well-being (cervical cancer worry, anxiety and depression, screening-related anxieties, HPV-related shame).</td>
<td>The counselling group had a significantly higher score in knowledge of cervical screening and HPV compared to the leaflet group (mean score 4.65 ± 0.19 versus 3.71 ± 0.23, p = 0.002) at post-educational intervention, but there was no significant difference (mean score 4.14 ± 0.02 versus 3.58 ± 0.24, p = 0.084) at 6 months. There was no significant difference in the psychosocial wellbeing between the two groups at all time points, irrespective of the two educational interventions, cervical cancer worry and anxiety decreased over time.</td>
<td>-Combination of counselling and leaflet were more effective than leaflet only in improving women's knowledge on cervical screening and HPV screening. -Counselling was more effective than educational interventions but the benefit was not apparent after 6 months.</td>
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<td>Lunenberg et al., 2016</td>
<td>In Norway, we randomised 1087 women overdue for screening to receive at these centres: a midwife clinic, a public health-care centre and a general practitioner centre.</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>Randomised controlled trial</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: - Invitations with scheduled appointments or Letters were sent 2-4 weeks before the scheduled appointments. - Time interval: 6 months. - Interviewed questionnaires - Control group: Standard open reminder.</td>
<td>The primary outcome was participation at 6 months of follow-up. Secondary outcomes were participation at 1 and 3 months.</td>
<td>At 6 months, 20% of the 510 women in the control group and 37% of the 526 women in the intervention group had participated in screening, excluding 51 women in total from analysis due to participation just before invitation and therefore not yet visible in the central records. The RR for participation at 6 months was 1.9 (95% CI 1.5 to 2.3). There was no significant heterogeneity between centres or age groups. Participation increased among women both with (RR 1.7; 95% CI 1.4 to 2.1) and without (RR 3.5; 95% CI 1.3 to 9.3) previous participation. The RRs for participation at 1 and 3 months were 4.0 (95% CI 2.6 to 6.2) and 2.7 (95% CI 2.1 to 3.5), respectively.</td>
<td>Scheduled appointments increased screening participation consistently across all target ages and screening centres.</td>
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<td>Betti Thompson et al., 2018</td>
<td>A total of 443 Latinas participated who were non-adherent with Pap test screening guidelines (i.e., more than 3 years since their last Pap test) in the Lower Yakima Valley of Washington State</td>
<td>Social cognitive theory</td>
<td>RCT</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: Participants randomised to 1. the low-intensity intervention (video) arm</td>
<td>Completion of a Pap test within 7 months after randomisation. Change in knowledge and attitudes about cervical cancer risk factors and Pap testing</td>
<td>A total of 443 Latinas participated. At seven months post-randomisation, significantly more women in the high intensity arm received a Pap test (53.4%) compared to the low intensity arm (38.7%), and the usual care arm (34.0%); p&lt;0.001 and p&lt;0.01, respectively. The ICER for high intensity women over the control group amounted to $4.24. Twelve women had positive Pap tests encompassing diagnosis of Atypical Squamous Cells of Unknown Significance to invasive cancer; these women were navigated for follow-up care.</td>
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<td>Linde et al., 2017</td>
<td>The total sample size will be 700 with 350 in each study arm conducted at three health facilities in Tanzania—one in the Dar es Salaam Region and two in the Kilimanjaro Region</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A non-blind, multicentre, parallel-group, randomised controlled trial.</td>
<td>Intervention Methods: Two types of SMS intervention (1) educational text messages, and (2) SMS reminders for the follow-up appointment.</td>
<td>Primary outcome to assess the effect of an SMS intervention on Tanzanian HPV-positive women’s attendance for cervical cancer screening follow-up appointments at 14 months compared to standard care is attendance rate for follow-up. Secondary objectives are cost-effectiveness, measured through incremental ratios, and knowledge of cervical cancer by a 16-item true/false scale questionnaire at baseline and follow-up. Barriers against implementing the intervention will be assessed in a mixed-methods sub-population study.</td>
<td>This study may provide information on the potential effects, costs, and barriers in implementing an SMS intervention targeting a group of women who are followed up after testing positive for HR HPV and are, therefore, at increased risk of developing cervical cancer. This can guide decision-makers on the effective use of mobile technology in a low-income setting. Trial status: recruiting.</td>
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<td>Armando Valdez et al., 2018</td>
<td>Low-income Latinas who had not had a Pap test in the prior two years were recruited from three Federally Qualified Health Centres. The study accrued 943 Latinas at community clinics in Los Angeles, San Jose and Fresno, CA who were there for non-study related appointments.</td>
<td>No theory</td>
<td>A randomised controlled trial design</td>
<td>Intervention Methods; Education program through an interactive, multimedia kiosk in either English or Spanish based on their language preference and age group. - Time interval: 14 months. - Interviewed questionnaires - Control group: usual care</td>
<td>Self-reported cervical cancer screening.</td>
<td>The intervention group demonstrated greater knowledge (p&lt;.0001) and more favorable attitudes at follow-up; fewer intervention group women never thought of getting a Pap test (46% vs. 54%, p=0.05) or agreed that it’s a waste of money (20% vs. 31%, p=0.043). The groups did not differ in the proportion of the participants who had obtained or made an appointment for a Pap test at follow-up (51% vs. 48%, p = 0.33). Both groups reported high levels of self-efficacy regarding Pap screening at post-intervention.</td>
<td>A one-time interactive, multimedia educational intervention improved cervical cancer knowledge and attitudes among low-income Latinas, but had no effect on cervical cancer screening behavior. Exposure of the control group to the protest conducted on the multimedia kiosk may have influenced their screening behavior.</td>
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</table>
education in increasing knowledge and self-efficacy (29). However, combining a promotora-led educational session in home with video was more successful in increasing the screening among participants (16).

This review revealed that it is better to avoid numerical information about benefits and harms of cervical screening as it reduced the intention to participate in. In addition to that, numerical information about the effect of decreasing the risk of cervical cancer among HPV-vaccinated women reduced the intention to participate compared to those who are non-vaccinated. This may suggest that provide them with numerically information about the new premises of cervical screening is important to their decision whether or not to attend screening (21). However, increasing screening participation consistently across all target ages and screening centres can be done by making scheduled appointments (22).

Education programmes based on the health belief model were effective in improving the outcome measures (19, 24). This was similar to the results of other previous studies which use the health belief model in their studies and revealed its effectiveness in increasing the uptake of cervical cancer screening and intention to screening (30, 31).

A study pinpoints to the importance of SMS intervention in increasing attendance for follow up of cervical cancer screening (25). This is in line with the findings of previous study which revealed the effect of text messages in increasing cervical cancer screening (32). However, combining educational talk with a text messages is more effective than having an educational talk alone (24). This study pinpoints the effective use of mobile technology in a low-income setting. Mostly all health education interventions in cervical cancer appeared to be effective in increasing the knowledge, attitude and uptake of cervical cancer screening.

Methods of delivery of health education intervention

Different methods were used in the fourteen studies. Most of the studies used more than one type of intervention; small group discussions (5 studies), presentation of booklets and pamphlets (8 studies) and health talks (3 studies). These methods are explained in more details:

Group Meeting and discussion

Many studies in this review used this method for health education intervention (12, 15, 19, 21, 22). A great variation in the outcomes were noticed between experimental and control group. The discussion among groups was able to increase the knowledge of participants and induce behaviour modification. Small group sessions were conducted which allowed the women to ask and get answers directly from the person who had the answer. In addition to that, if the educator detected any incorrect beliefs, the educator could address that fallacy instantly and provide the correct information. Therefore, it is considered more effective and convincing than just giving them brochures or pamphlets to read (33).

Table II: Results of quality assessment of studies using the EPHPP Quality Assessment Tool for Quantitative Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study authors and date</th>
<th>Selection bias</th>
<th>Study design</th>
<th>Confounders</th>
<th>Blinding Data</th>
<th>collection methods</th>
<th>Withdrawals and dropouts</th>
<th>Intervention integrity</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Overall quality score</th>
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<tr>
<td>Carolyn Y. Fang et al., 2017</td>
<td>strong</td>
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EPHPP: Effective Public Health Practice Project
Pamphlets, Brochure and booklet
This is considered the most commonly used method in the review for the health education intervention (12, 15-18, 20, 24, 26). It has been used in combination with other methods for educating communities, leading to more continuous and more interesting teaching. Moreover, it improved the outcome of the study significantly. Although this method was not commonly used alone in the intervention, it was useful for a long-term plan to spotlight the awareness and attract the attention to specific issues if it was placed in planned places to be notified.

Health talk / Lecture
This method was used in three studies (16, 23, 24). It is less costly and commonly used worldwide reaching fairly large number of people simultaneously. Questions can be asked during the health talk making it more effective for improving the knowledge and delivering information to its targeted population.

Other methods used
Script on radio and digital story (26), using reminding text message (19, 24, 25) or video presentation (17, 24).

Strength and limitation
The comprehensive searching to get too many studies with different effective health education intervention methods is the main strength of this review. While including articles that only published in English language is considered as a limitation of this review.

CONCLUSION
In conclusions, health education intervention methods such as educational pamphlet and booklets, health talk, group discussion and question and answer session were most popular methods used. It also finds that reminding letters and text messages are able to achieve a significant improvement in the screening rates. In addition to that, findings in this review contribute to the literature supporting health education interventions in boosting women's knowledge, beliefs and attending level of cervical cancer screening programmes. However, the effectiveness varies with study setting, populations and the methods of delivery. Hence, it is better to understand the present situation and the behavioural intervention with its dynamic nature to develop best intervention as well as more studies are needed to recognise barriers and obstacles to the screening.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
Authors would like to thank all the staff members of the Department of Community Health, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Universiti Putra Malaysia for their support throughout this review.

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