

# Prevalence of Low-Risk and High-Risk types of Human Papillomavirus and other risk factors for HPV infection in Germany Within Different Age Groups in Women up to 30 Years of Age: An Epidemiological Observational Study

Thomas Iftner, Sonja Eberle, Angelika Iftner, Barbara Holz, Norbert Banik, Wim Quint, Anja-Natascha Straube

# ▶ To cite this version:

Thomas Iftner, Sonja Eberle, Angelika Iftner, Barbara Holz, Norbert Banik, et al.. Prevalence of Low-Risk and High-Risk types of Human Papillomavirus and other risk factors for HPV infection in Germany Within Different Age Groups in Women up to 30 Years of Age: An Epidemiological Observational Study. Journal of Medical Virology, 2010, 82 (11), pp.1928. 10.1002/jmv.21910. hal-00599780

HAL Id: hal-00599780

https://hal.science/hal-00599780

Submitted on 11 Jun 2011

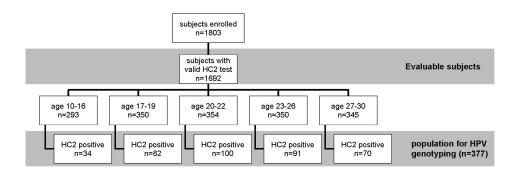
**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



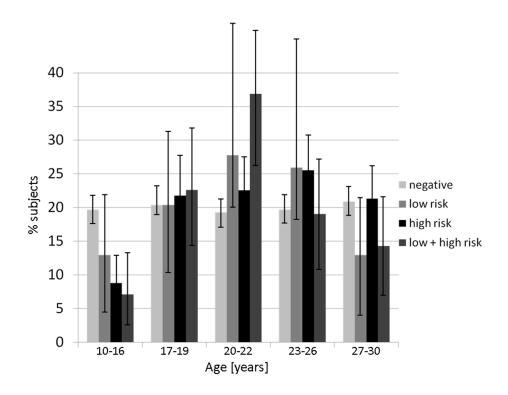
# Prevalence of Low-Risk and High-Risk types of Human Papillomavirus and other risk factors for HPV infection in Germany Within Different Age Groups in Women up to 30 Years of Age: An Epidemiological Observational Study

Journal:	Journal of Medical Virology
Manuscript ID:	JMV-09-1687.R1
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Research Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	20-May-2010
Complete List of Authors:	Iftner, Thomas; Institute for Medical Virology, Section for Experimental Virology Eberle, Sonja; GlaxoSmithKline GmbH & Co KG Iftner, Angelika; Institute for Medical Virology, Section for Experimental Virology Holz, Barbara; Institute for Medical Virology, Section for Experimental Virology Banik, Norbert; GlaxoSmithKline GmbH & Co KG Quint, Wim; DDL Diagnostic Laboratory Straube, Anja-Natascha; GlaxoSmithKline GmbH & Co KG
Keywords:	HPV prevalence, screening, comparison of tests, HPV vaccination

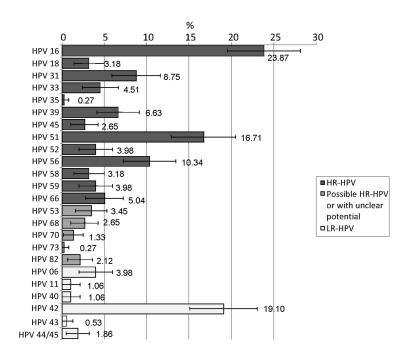




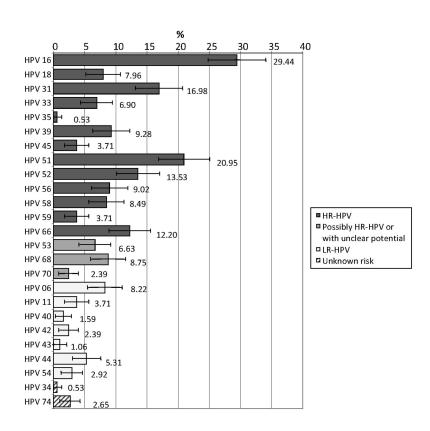
254x190mm (307 x 307 DPI)



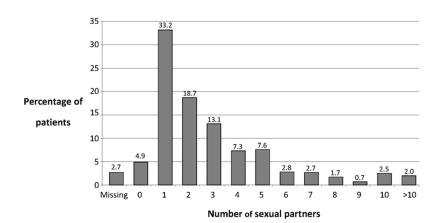
254x190mm (307 x 307 DPI)



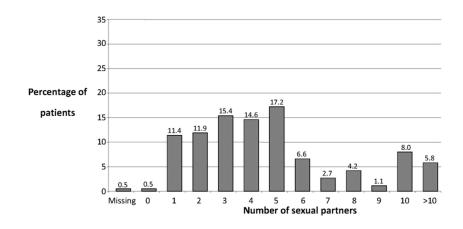
190x274mm (284 x 284 DPI)



190x274mm (284 x 284 DPI)



274x190mm (284 x 284 DPI)



274x190mm (284 x 284 DPI)

- 1 Prevalence of Low-Risk and High-Risk types of Human Papillomavirus and other risk
- 2 factors for HPV infection in Germany Within Different Age Groups in Women up to 30
- 3 Years of Age: An Epidemiological Observational Study

- 5 1) Thomas Iftner<sup>1\*</sup>
- 6 2) Sonja Eberle<sup>2</sup>
- 7 3) Angelika Iftner<sup>1</sup>
- 8 4) Barbara Holz<sup>1</sup>
- 9 5) Norbert Banik<sup>2</sup>
- 10 6) Wim Quint<sup>3</sup>
- 11 7) Anja-Natascha Straube<sup>2</sup>

- 13 <sup>1</sup>Dept of Experimental Virology, Universitaetsklinikum, Tuebingen, Germany,
- <sup>2</sup>GlaxoSmithKline GmbH & Co KG, Munich, Germany
- 15 <sup>3</sup>DDL Diagnostic Laboratory, Voorburg, The Netherlands

- 17 \*Correspondence to:
- 18 Thomas Iftner, Section of Experimental Virology, Institute of Medical Virology, Hospital of the
- 19 University of Tuebingen, Elfriede Aulhorn Straße 6, D-72076 Tuebingen, Germany.
- 20 E-mail: thomas.iftner@med.uni-tuebingen.de
- 21 Shortened Title:
- 22 HPV Prevalence in Young Women in Germany

#### **ABSTRACT**

HPV infection is frequent in young women and persistent infection may lead to cervical cancer. Therefore, vaccination against HPV is recommended for young women in the age group from 12-17 years in Germany. However, epidemiological data on the prevalence of HPV types and risk factors for infection for younger women in Germany is scarce. To address this, an observational study was performed in Germany including 1,692 women aged 10-30 years. After a routine Pap smear, cervical swabs were tested for high-risk and low risk HPV, respectively, using the Hybrid Capture 2 test, and genotyped using the PCR-based tests SPF<sub>10</sub>/LiPA<sub>25</sub> and PapilloCheck<sup>®</sup>. In addition, the women were interviewed regarding their medical history and lifestyle factors. 377 (22.28%) women had positive HC2 results. The proportion of HPV positive women was highest in the 20-22 age group with 28.3%. Predominant HPV types were HPV 16,42,51 and HPV 16,51,31 as defined by PapilloCheck® and SPF<sub>10</sub>/LiPA<sub>25</sub>, respectively. 95.8% of women did not show signs of any cervical lesion. Adjusted analysis identified number of sexual partners (OR:1.105; 95% CI:[1.069-1.142]), smoking (OR:1.508;[1.155–1.968]) and vaccination against HPV (OR:0.589;[0.398–0.872]) rather than increasing age as risk associated with HPV infection. Comparison of the genotyping assays showed that they correspond well regarding the high-risk HPV types but less well for low-risk HPV types. This epidemiological study shows that high-risk HPV infection is common in young women in Germany. According to our data, vaccination of young women could have a potential impact on the prevention of HPV infection and cervical disease.

- 43 Keywords:
- 44 HPV prevalence, screening, comparison of tests, HPV vaccination
- 45 Abbreviations:
- 46 HPV, Human papillomavirus; CIN, cervical intraepithelial neoplasia; WHO, World Health Organisation;

47 HR-HPV, high-risk human papillomavirus; LR-HPV, low-risk human papillomavirus



#### INTRODUCTION

Persistent infection with human papillomavirus (HPV) is a necessary risk factor for cervical cancer [Munoz et al., 1992; Schiffman et al., 1993, Bosch, 2002], which is the second most prevalent tumour in women worldwide. In Germany, the incidence of cervical cancer is one of the highest compared to other Western countries, with about 6,200 newly diagnosed cases and more than 1,600 deaths per year. Among women younger than 50 years, it is still the second most common cause of mortality in Germany [Robert Koch-Institute, 2008]. HPV DNA is detectable in almost all cervical tumours [Walboomers et al. 1999]. Cervical cancer progresses slowly from cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) to invasive cancer, and precursor lesions can be detected by cytological screening. The mainstay of screening programs has been the Pap smear. However, considerable numbers of falsenegative Pap smears may occur with the traditional Pap technique, due mostly to sampling errors [Nanda et al., 2002]. The prevalence of HPV in Europe is estimated to be between 8-15% throughout all age groups, but is considerable higher among younger women aged 20-24 years, with up to 50.2% in Denmark [De Sanjosé et al., 2007; Bosch et al., 2006, Kjaer et al., 2008]. Infection occurs mostly in adolescence and early adulthood: 74% of all infections are diagnosed in women aged 15 to 24 years [Weinstock et al., 2004]. Estimations in Finland and in the USA give a lifetime incidence of 70-80% [Syrjänen et al., 1990; Myers et al., 2000]. However, in the majority (70-90%) of cases, the infection is transient and HPV DNA is not detectable 1 to 2 years after infection [Ho et al., 1995; Schiffman et al., 2007]. With increasing age, prevalence rates decline but the relative contribution of persistent infections increase.' Among more than 100 HPV types, approximately 13 genotypes have been identified as carcinogenic (high-risk [HR] types), whereas others are considered to be low-risk (LR) types or HPV types of unknown risk. According to the WHO, the following HPV types are classified as class I carcinogenic: HPV 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59 and 66 [Cogliano et al., 2005]. Among these, the prevalence of HPV 16 in cervical cancer cells is predominant. HPV 16 is detectable in 50-60% of all

cervical tumour samples, HPV 18 in 10-20%, and HPV16/18 in approximately 70% of all cervical cancer cases [Munoz et al., 2003 and 2004]. At present, the Hybrid Capture 2 (HC2) assay (Qiagen, Hildesheim, Germany) is one of two tests approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for the detection of HPV DNA in cervical cancer screening. The HC2 assay uses an RNA probe cocktail to detect 13 high-risk and five low-risk HPV types, but in fact detects many more types through cross reactivity [Castle et al., 2002]. However, the test does not distinguish individual genotypes and cannot identify infection with multiple genotypes. Several PCR based genotyping tests for HPV types are available, but the tests differ with respect to sensitivity for certain types, and there is currently no "gold standard" [Klug et al., 2008].

Since March 2007, the German Standing Committee on Vaccination (STIKO) has recommended vaccination against HPV types 16 and 18 for all female adolescents aged 12 to 17 years. Unfortunately, data on the incidence of genital HPV infections and HPV prevalence in younger age groups in Germany are scarce. However, such information is vital for estimating the burden of HPV infection, the HPV-type distribution and the putative impact of HPV vaccination.

An epidemiological, observational study was performed in 77 centres throughout Germany to determine the prevalence of LR-HPV and HR-HPV in young women up to 30 years of age undergoing routine consultation in office-based gynaecological practices. Women were sampled at pre-defined age intervals in a stratified manner. After a routine Pap smear, a cervical swab was taken for HPV detection and genotyping. Finally, the women were interviewed regarding their medical history and lifestyle factors. The cervical swabs were tested for high-risk (HR)- and low-risk (LR)-HPV by means of Hybrid Capture 2 (HC2), and genotyping was performed for HC2 positive samples using both the PCR-based SPF<sub>10</sub>/LiPA<sub>25</sub> test and the PapilloCheck® test. The primary objective of the study was to assess the distribution of the age-specific HPV types in young women up to 30 years of age in Germany. To assess the impact of the following additional risk factors on HPV prevalence, women completed a questionnaire on pregnancy, smoking behaviour, contraceptives, vaccination against HPV, history of

cervical cancer, immunosuppressive disease, immunosuppressive drugs, sexually transmitted diseases and the number of sexual partners. The results of the HC2 assay and the two HPV genotyping tests ( $SPF_{10}/LiPA_{25}$  and  $PapilloCheck^{®}$ ) were also compared to ascertain the degree to which they corresponded in terms of multiple infection and individual HPV type detection.



#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

# **Study Population**

Women were recruited at office-based gynaecologists when they attended for routine screening. Subjects were eligible for inclusion in the study if they were under 30 years of age, had not undergone hysterectomy and signed an informed consent form. A routine Pap smear was taken before the additional cervical sample was collected. In the case of minors, informed consent had to be given by a parent or legal representative. In addition, minors were provided with an adequate age-based informed consent form for signature. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the State Medical Chamber of Bavaria. The sample size for this study was based on obtaining a representative sample of subjects in all predefined age strata. To achieve a high level of accuracy for prevalence estimators and with an expected prevalence of 5% - 25% it was planned to include 2,500 women in the study, 500 per age group (≤ 16 years, 17 to ≤19 years, 20 to ≤22 years, 23 to ≤26 years and 27 to ≤30 years). The subjects were planned to be recruited in approximately 100 gynaecological practices spread all over Germany, in total 25 women per practice and 5 women per age group. Administrative difficulties in recruiting centres led to a smaller sample size than was planned originally. Between February 2007 and August 2008, 1,803 women with informed consent from 79 participating centres in Germany were recruited to the study and included in the safety analysis implying documentation of adverse events due to the collection of cervical samples. One thousand six hundred and ninety-two of those subjects with valid HC2 tests from 77 centres were included in statistical analyses (evaluable subjects)(Fig. 1).

## **Study Objectives**

The primary objective of the study was to assess the distribution of the age-specific 24 HPV types: 13 high-risk (HR-) HPV types (HPV 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59 and 66), six low-risk (LR-)

HPV types (6, 11, 40, 42, 43 and 44) and five "possible HR or with unclear risk potential"-HPV types (53, 68, 70, 73 and 82) in young German women up to 30 years of age with a positive Hybrid Capture 2 test (HC2) result using the PapilloCheck® assay (Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Frickenhausen, Germany) and the Short PCR Fragment assay SPF<sub>10</sub> HPV LiPA<sub>25</sub>, version 1, (Labo Bio-Medical Products, Rijswijk, The Netherlands).

Secondary objectives were the overall prevalence of the age-specific 13 HR-HPV types and five LR-HPV types using the HC2 test [Castle et al., 2002] in girls and young women up to 30 years of age in Germany. In addition, the impact of the following additional risk factors on HPV prevalence was determined: pregnancy, smoking behavior, contraceptives, vaccination against HPV, history of cervical cancer, immunosuppressive disease, immunosuppressive drugs, sexually transmitted diseases, and the number of sexual partners.

# **Cytological Material**

After routine Pap smear for cytological evaluation using the Second Munich Cytological Classification, an additional cervical scrape was taken for HPV detection and genotyping. The second scrape was obtained using a cervical sample device (Qiagen, Hildesheim, Germany) and suspended in 1 ml specimen transport medium (STM; Qiagen, Hildesheim, Germany) for HPV DNA testing. HPV detection was performed without knowledge of the cytological diagnosis.

#### **Cytological Diagnosis**

All Pap smears were examined at the routine cytological laboratories normally used by the office-based gynaecologists. The laboratories were not informed of the study and the slides and accompanying forms did not contain any mention of the study. The Pap smears were assessed according to the Second Munich Cytological Classification [Bundesaerztekammer, 1994].

#### **HPV Detection**

HC2 test. The HC2 test (Qiagen, Hildesheim, Germany), using the high-risk and low-risk probe cocktail, was performed on the second cervical smear taken for all women included in the study. A positive result refers to a subject who is positive for one or more of the 13 high-risk and 5 low-risk HPV types included. Samples were considered positive if they attained or exceeded the Food and Drug Administration approved threshold of 1.0 pg HPV DNA/ml, which corresponds to a 1.0 relative light units coefficient (RLU/CO).

*HPV genotyping.* All samples positive by HC2 were genotyped using DNA extracted from the denatured pretested HC2 sample. Two different genotyping methods for the detection of genital HPV types were used to compare sensitivity and specificity for HPV-positive, high-risk HPV types: PapilloCheck® (Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Frickenhausen, Germany) and the SPF<sub>10</sub> HPV LiPA<sub>25</sub>, version 1 (Labo Bio-Medical Products, Rijswijk, The Netherlands).

**DNA extraction** using MagNA Pure LC (MPLC) (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) and all preand post-PCR procedures were carried out in separate rooms and cabinets. Buffer and blank controls were included at every 30th position to obtain sufficient numbers of negative controls to monitor contamination events. All samples were tested for integrity of DNA by using the PapilloCheck® HPV genotyping test sample control function.

The *PapilloCheck® HPV genotyping assay* recognizes the following HPV types: 6, 11, 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 40, 42, 43, 44/55, 45, 51, 52, 53, 56, 58, 59, 66, 68, 70, 73 and 82. Thus the test recognizes all 13 HPV types recently classified as class-I carcinogenic with respect to cervical cancer by the WHO (Cogliano et al., 2005), six HPVs (6, 11, 40, 42, 43, 44/55) considered as low-risk types, and five types (53, 68, 70, 73, 82) with proposed high-risk or unclear risk potential. Additionally, the human ADAT1 (t-RNA specific adenosine desaminase1) gene is amplified and used as a control for the integrity of the purified DNA. The PapilloCheck® chips and all reagents were provided by Greiner Bio-One GmbH (Frickenhausen, Germany). All PCRs were performed with 5 μl input DNA in the presence of nucleotides with a fluorescent label in a final volume of 25 μl using the AmpliTaq Gold hot start

polymerase (Roche Molecular Systems, Inc, Somerville, USA). An initial activation step of 95 °C for 10 min was followed by 40 cycles of 30 sec of denaturation at 95 °C, by 25 sec primer annealing at 55 °C and 45 sec of primer extension at 72 °C. The average size of the amplified product is 350 bp.

After the amplification reaction, an additional 15 cycles of 30 sec at 95 °C and 45 sec at 72 °C were performed to achieve a single-stranded product for the following hybridization step. The PCR was carried out on a MJ Thermocycler PTC200 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Munich, Germany). Five microlitres of the PCR product and 30 μl hybridization buffer were used for the hybridization on the low-density microarray plastic HTA12 chip. A volume of 25 μl of the PCR hybridization mix was applied to every well on the chip and incubated for 15 min at room temperature in a humid atmosphere. Twelve hybridization reactions can be performed simultaneously on one chip. Hybridization is followed by three washing steps (the first for 10 sec at room temperature; the second for 60 sec at 50 °C; the third for 10 sec again at room temperature). The chip was dried subsequently under a stream of compressed air. The chip was scanned automatically and analysed using CheckScanner<sup>TM</sup> and CheckReport<sup>TM</sup> software (Greiner Bio-One, Frickenhausen, Germany) respectively.

*SPF*<sub>10</sub>-*LiPA*<sub>25</sub> *Assay*: A 5-ul aliquot of extracted DNA was used for each SPF10 PCR. The SPF10 PCR primer set was used to amplify at least 54 HPV genotypes, as described earlier [Kleter et al., 1998; Kleter et al., 1999]. Briefly, this primer set amplifies a small fragment of 65 bp from the L1 region of HPV. Reverse primers contain a biotin label at the 5' end. The SPF<sub>10</sub> amplimers were used to identify the HPV genotype by reverse hybridization on line probe assay (LiPA<sub>25</sub>) containing probes for 25 HPV genotypes. The LiPA<sub>25</sub> detects HPV types 6, 11, 16, 18, 31, 33, 34, 35, 39, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 51, 52, 53, 54, 56, 58, 59, 66, 68/73, 70, and 74.

All PCRs were performed with 5  $\mu$ l input DNA and biotinylated primers in a final volume of 50  $\mu$ l using the AmpliTaq Gold hot start polymerase (Roche Molecular Systems, Somerville, USA) and an initial activation step of 94 °C for 9 min, followed by 40 cycles of 30 sec of denaturation at 94 °C, by 45 sec

of primer annealing at 52 °C and 45 sec of primer extension at 72 °C. The PCR was carried out on a MJ Thermocycler PTC 200 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Munich, Germany). The SPF $_{10}$  PCR line probe array v1 test amplifies a short (65 bp) fragment in the L1 region using four forward and two reverse primers. A 10- $\mu$ l aliquot of the PCR reaction was taken, denatured and hybridized at 49 °C for 60 min to one detection strip, followed by multiple washing steps. Detection was performed using the substrate solutions provided and bands were read manually and interpreted according to the manual.

# **Statistical Analysis**

All data were analyzed descriptively using summary statistics for categorical and continuous data. These calculations were performed for all evaluable subjects as well as for age groups and the HPV (HC2 test result). Overall and age specific prevalence with asymptotic 95% confidence interval (CI) was estimated for all three HPV tests. Calculations according to HC2 test were based on evaluable subjects (women with a valid laboratory test), prevalence estimation due to the two genotyping assays and comparisons between the different testing methods were based on those evaluable subjects showing a positive HC2 test result.

Univariate and adjusted multivariate Odds Ratios (OR) with 95% CI were obtained by logistic regression models assessing the impact of possible risk factors (especially age) on the HC2 test result.

Adverse events reported in the context of taking the cervical sample were categorized and described by counts and percentages.

#### RESULTS

# **Demography and risk factors**

A total of 1,803 women attending gynaecological practices for routine consultation were enrolled into the study. Of these subjects, 1,692 women (93.8%) with appropriate cervical samples for HPV

All statistical analyses were performed using SAS® 9.1 software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA)

DNA testing were included in statistical analyses (evaluable subjects) (Fig.1). The total population was distributed over the predefined five age groups as follows: 10-16 years: 17.3%, 17-19 years: 20.7%, 20-22 years: 20.9%, 23-26 years: 20.7%, and 27-30 years: 20.4%. Of the 293 girls in the age group 10-16 years, 19 (6.5%) were younger than 14 years. In total, mean age was  $21.5 \pm 4.6$  years. 108 (6.4%) women were currently pregnant. 13.3% of women had been pregnant once. Two, three, and up to six pregnancies were documented for 5.9%, 2.1% and 0.8% of women, respectively. In general, the number of pregnancies and births increased with age: 45.8% of the women aged between 27 and 30 years had given birth at least once.

Besides age and pregnancy, a number of additional risk factors were documented in this study in order to assess their impact on the prevalence of HPV. These factors comprised smoking behavior, immunosuppressive diseases and drugs, use of contraceptives, sexually transmitted diseases and the number of sexual partners as well as vaccination against HPV and history of cervical cancer (Table I).

Nearly half (45.6%) of the subjects had never smoked, 38.4% were reported to be current smokers, whereas 16.1% were past smokers. Two subjects (0.1%) aged between 27 and 30 years were HIV positive. Adrenogenital syndrome was a further immunosuppressive disease reported in one women aged between 17 and 19 years. Immunosuppressive drugs were administered to 17 (1%) subjects, 15 (0.9%) of whom received cortisone.

Nearly all women observed used contraceptives (95.8%), the vast majority used hormonal contraceptives (84%). As expected, there was a strong correlation between age and duration of use of hormonal contraceptives as well as between age and number of sexual partners.

Three hundred and nine (18.3%) women were vaccinated against HPV before inclusion in this study. The proportion of vaccinated women decreased with age, from 50.9% in the age group 10-16 years to 0.3% women at the age range 27-30 years. Five subjects (0.3%) reported to have suffered from

cervical cancer. Twenty-two subjects (1.3%) had suffered previously from a sexually transmitted disease, including 11 subjects with chlamydial infection and six with anogenital warts.

According to the Pap smear, 1,621 out of 1,692 subjectss (95.8%) showed no signs of cervical abnormalities (PAP I and PAP II). PAP III, PAP IIID, and PAP IVa were documented in six (0.4%), 28 (1.7%) and two (0.1%) subjects, respectively. Sixteen Pap smears (0.9%) were not suitable for diagnosis, 19 (1.1%) without specification of PAP status.

# Prevalence of HPV Types

In total, 377 subjects (22.3%; 95% CI: [20.3-24.3]) showed a positive HC2 test result, and 1,315 subjects (77.7%; 95% CI: [75.7-79.7]) had negative findings (Table II). The proportion of subjects with positive HPV findings steeply increased from 11.6% in the 10-16 year range to a maximum of 28.3% in the 20-22 year-old group. The prevalence of HPV then declined with increasing age (Table II). According to these findings, the distribution of HR- and LR-HPV positive subjects showed the lowest proportion in the age group 10-16 years (HR only: 7.2%, LR only:2.4%, LR & HR: 2.1%) and the highest proportion in the age groups 20-22 years (HR only: 15.3%, LR only: 4.2%, LR & HR: 8.8%) and 23-26 years (HR only: 17.4%, LR only: 4.0%, LR & HR: 4.6%). In all groups there were more HR-HPV than LR-HPV types detected. Table II shows the number of subjects with a positive HC2 test result in each age group related to the number of subjects included in each age group. In contrast figure 2 depicts the distribution of subjects with a negative LR, HR or both — HC2 test result per age group in relation to all women with a negative LR, HR or both — HC2 test result, respectively.

Cervical samples of the 377 women with a positive HC2 test result were genotyped with the PapilloCheck® HPV screening test and the SPF<sub>10</sub> HPV LiPA<sub>25</sub> assay. HPV genotyping by PapilloCheck® confirmed 88. 6% (95% CI: [85.4-91.8]) of the positive HC2 findings. As shown in Figure 3, the prevalence of HR-HPV type 16 measured by PapilloCheck® (among 377 HC2-positive subjects) was

predominant in this study, amounting to 23.9% (95% CI: [19.6-28.2]). Other frequent HPV types were HPV 42 (LR; 19.1%), HPV 51 (HR; 16.7%), HPV 56 (HR; 10.3%) and HPV 31 (HR; 8.8%). The rate of HR-HPV type 18, the second most common subtype in cervical cancer, was 3.2% (95% CI: [1.4-5.0]).

The SPF<sub>10</sub> assay showed a positive result for 94.7% [95% CI: 92.4 – 97.0] of subjects with positive HC2 findings. Among 377 HPV-positive women, the prevalence of HPV 16 measured by SPF<sub>10</sub> was 29.4% (95% CI: [24.8-34.1]), followed by HPV 51 (21.0%), HPV 31 (17.0%), HPV 52 (13.5%) and HPV 66 (HR; 12.2%). HPV 18 was detected in 8% (95% CI: [5.2-10.7]) samples (Figure 4).

#### Correlation Between the HC2 Results and risk Factors

A larger proportion of pregnant women at the time was recorded among the HPV-positive subjects (9%) than in women with a negative test result (5.6%) (Table I).

Nearly half (48.5%) of HPV-positive women were current smokers compared to 35.4% of subjects with negative HC2 test results (HR-HPV only: 50.2%, LR-HPV only: 37.0%, HR & LR: 51.2%). The proportion of women taking contraceptives was similar between the HC2-positive and negative subjects, namely 83.6% and 82.6% respectively. Regarding the occurrence of self-reported cervical cancer and immunosuppressive diseases and the use of immunosuppressive drugs, only minor differences between HC2-positive and HC2-negative subjects were found. As expected, the proportion of subjects who had already been vaccinated against HPV was smaller in subjects with positive HC2 results than in those with negative findings (11.1% vs. 20.3%). 14.8% of subjects with low HPV risk only, 10.9% of subjects who had high HPV risk only, and 9.5% with LR & HR HPV types had been vaccinated.

A larger proportion of subjects with a higher number of sexual partners were recorded in subjects with a positive HC2 test result than in subjects with a negative test result (figure 5a and 5b).

Stratification by Pap-smear results showed that more HC2-positive subjects were classified as PAP III and higher compared to subjects without detection of HPV according to the HC2 result (HC2-positive: 7.2% vs. HC2-negative: 0.7%).

The influence of age on the occurrence of a positive HC2 test result was investigated by logistic regression. The univariate logistic model showed a significant correlation between age and positive HC2 results (odds ratio: 1.028; 95% CI: [1.003-1.054]). According to this univariate model, higher age was significantly associated with higher risk of HPV infection. In order to adjust the age effect for possible confounders, a multivariate analysis was performed including pregnancy, smoking, hormonal contraception, HPV vaccination and the number of sexual partners besides age. Based on this model, the effect of age was no longer statistically significant (odds ratio: 0.981; 95% CI: [0.952-1.011]). Variables showing statistical significance were numbers of sexual partners, HPV vaccination and smoking. Due to the strong positive correlation between age and the number of sexual partners, the significant age effect observed in the univariate model is a result due to confounding. The risk of HPV detection increased with "smoking" (yes vs. never) (OR: 1.508; 95% CI: [1.155-1.968]) and "number of sexual partners" (OR: 1.105; [1.069-1.142]) and declined significantly with "vaccination against HPV" (OR: 0.589; [0.398-0.872]) (table III).

## **Agreement of Test Results**

The level of agreement between the different laboratory methods (i.e. HC2, PapilloCheck® and SPF<sub>10</sub>) was analysed in 377 subjects with positive HC2 findings. In the HC2 test, 54 subjects (14.3%) showed LR-HPV types only and 239 subjects (63.4%) only HR-HPV types. 84 subjects (22.3%) were infected with both, LR- and HR-HPV types. 88.6% of subjects were positive both by HC2 and PapilloCheck®, whereas 11.4% of HC2-positive subjects had negative results when tested by PapilloCheck®. 86.6% of subjects with HPV-type HR only according to the HC2 test showed infection with an HR-HPV (only) type using the PapilloCheck® screening, whereas 11.3% showed negative results. Of the LR-HPV

Page 22 of 40

(only) infected subjects tested by HC2, 68.5% were confirmed by PapilloCheck® and 24.1% had negative results For the LR & HR-group the results matched in 52.4% of cases (Table IV).

By comparing HPV detection using HC2 and SPF10, the replication rate of HC2-positive findings with SPF<sub>10</sub> was 94.7%. Twenty samples (5.3%) were positive when examined with HC2 and negative when examined with SPF<sub>10</sub>. Of the subjects with LR-HPV (only) according to HC2, 31.5% had negative test results with SPF<sub>10</sub>. It is noteworthy that the LR-HPV positive results (LR only) with HC2 were only confirmed in 14.8% of subjects when tested by SPF<sub>10</sub> (Table V).

On comparison, both methods (SPF $_{10}$  and PapilloCheck $^{\otimes}$ ) were found to correspond to a large extent as regards HR-HPV types (98.1% with PapilloCheck $^{\otimes}$  as reference, 81.3% with SPF $_{10}$  as reference). However, the degree of correspondence in the detection of LR-HPV types was considerably smaller (39.4% and 45.3% respectively).

A total of six adverse events in six subjects (0.3%), which occurred during the collection of cervical smears, were reported, five of which were minor bleedings and one narrow cervical canal.

#### **DISCUSSION**

Epidemiological data especially in young women on the prevalence of HPV and the distribution of HPV types in Germany is lacking. HPV vaccination has become available recently, which may influence the prevalence of certain HPV types in the future. Therefore, it is important to obtain a picture of the *status quo* before the HPV vaccine coverage becomes high in the population.

This German epidemiological study in young women shows that more than one fifth (22%) of the

subjects were HPV positive according to the HC2 test. There was an age-dependent prevalence, showing the highest prevalence for women at the age of 20-22 years, and then declining with increasing age. These findings are in accordance with a recent American study on HPV prevalence [Dunne et al., 2007], in which 27% of women were HPV positive, with the highest prevalence (45%) in

women aged 20-24 years. It is estimated that 74% of all infections are diagnosed in women aged between 15 and 24 years [Weinstock et al., 2004]. In this study 95.8% of women did not show signs of any cervical lesion. Due to the fact that in this observational study women visiting their gynaecologist only for routine reasons were included a possible selection bias might be taken into account. To reduce the rate of infection with HPV, it is reasonable to vaccinate women prophylacticly against HPV, preferentially as young girls before they become sexually active. This is reflected by the recommendations of the German Standing Committee on Vaccination (STIKO), which advises vaccination against HPV types 16 and 18 for all females aged 12 to 17 years in Germany. In accordance with this recommendation, this study shows the lowest HPV prevalence in the age group 10 to 16 years, in which half of the women were immunized with at least one vaccination dose, followed by the age group 17-19 years, with one third of women immunized. At the present time, HPV vaccination is not a replacement for cervical screening. Routine testing by Pap smears has the disadvantage of low sensitivity in the range of 50-60% for a single test [Nanda et al., 2000; Wentzensen et al., 2008]. To detect persistent HPV infections, which are a necessary risk factor for cervical cancer and to identify and monitor those high-risk women, the use of genotyping tests is being discussed currently. This study revealed that 85.7% of the HPV-positive women were infected with high-risk types according to the HC2 test. Genotyping by PapilloCheck®and SPF<sub>10</sub> confirmed approximately 90% of these high-risk types. In contrast, HC2 low-risk results were confirmed by PapilloCheck® and SPF<sub>10</sub> genotypingto a less extent. This underlines the importance of reliable genotyping tests, since HC2 often detects erroneously an infection with low-risk-types when a highrisk infection is present or vice versa.

The genotyping tests in this study revealed the highest prevalence for the HR-HPV types 16, 31, 51, 52 and 56 as well as HPV LR subtype 42, which was the second most common subtype detected by the PapilloCheck<sup>®</sup> assay. In other studies, different HPV types have been described to be prevalent

[Munoz et al. 2003 and 2004], which is due to the rather insensitive methods that have been combined in meta-analyses (Klug etal., 2008; Schopp et al., 2009). In cancer samples, HPV16 was the most prevalent subtype, followed by HPV 18 (Munoz et al., 2003, 2004). Together they account for approximately 70%. In this study, HPV 18 was detected in only approximately 3-8% of HC2 positive cervical samples. This supports the conclusion by others that certain HR-HPV types, such as HPV 18, are more tumourigenic than others [Castle et al., 2005; Lai et al., 2007; Kjaer et al., 2002]. Lai et al. [2007] already demonstrated the independent prognostic significance of HPV 18 positivity in earlystage cervical cancer, and HPV 16 infection was associated with a very high absolute risk of ≥ cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade 3 over a 2-year period [Castle et al., 2005]. HPV45 might be another such candidate. It was detected it in 3-4% of all HC2 positive samples, but it is among the most prevalent types in cervical lesions [Clifford et al., 2006; Bao et al. 2008] These results underline the importance of genotyping tests in addition to high-risk HPV-positive or -negative screening. However, none of the genotyping methods available is yet regarded as standard. The comparison in the study of two genotyping tests, PapilloCheck® and SPF<sub>10</sub>, revealed that their results correspond fairly well regarding the most prevalent HR-HPV types 16, 51 and 31. However, correspondence of the results of the two test methods for the LR-HPV types is less pronounced, mainly due to the very high sensitivity of the PapilloCheck<sup>®</sup> test for HPV subtype 42. The assays differ in sensitivity, which is most probably the result of the different length of the amplified DNA fragment as well as primer specificity used for amplification, as shown in two recent studies [Klug et al, 2008; Schopp et al, 2009]. In this study factors that increase or lower the risk for HPV infection should also be identified. There seems to be a positive effect of HPV vaccination on the risk of HPV infection. However, the study was not designed to show a significant effect of vaccination on the risk of HPV infection rather than to estimate age specific HPV prevalence. There was no further information on the vaccine employed, such as which vaccine was used, the vaccination scheme and adherence to it. Therefore a firm conclusion on the effect of HPV vaccination cannot be drawn from this study. Nevertheless, previous

clinical trials have shown significant effects of HPV vaccination on the occurrence of cervical disease [Harper et al., 2004; Villa et al., 2005; Paavonen et al., 2009; Brown et al., 2009].

Risk factors for HPV infection were smoking and the number of sexual partners. Smoking as a risk factor for HPV infection has also been described in recent epidemiological studies in China and Brazil [Chan et al., 2009; Sarian et al., 2009]. An association between sexual behaviour and the risk of HPV infection has been reported in other European countries [Lenselink et al., 2008; Ammatuna et al., 2008; Nielsen et al., 2008].



TABLE I: Risk factors versus HC2-laboratory results

	Total		Positive		Low Risk o		High Risk o	nly	High & Low	
	(N=1692)		(N=377)		(N=54)	(N=54)			(N=84)	)
age, mean ± SD	21.5 ± 4.6	21.5 ± 4.6		22.0 ± 4.0		.3	22.3 ± 4.2	L	21.6 ± 3.5	
highest graduation										
Hauptschule	395	23.3	107	28.4	14	25.9	71	29.7	22	26.2
secondary school	1145	67.7	240	63.7	34	63.0	150	62.8	56	66.7
university	134	7.9	27	7.2	6	11.1	15	6.3	6	7.1
current pregnancy										
yes	108	6.4	34	9.0	7	13.0	18	7.5	9	10.7
no	1584	93.6	343	91.0	47	87.0	221	92.5	75	89.3
Self-reported cervical cancer										
yes	5	0.3	1	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.4	0	0.0
no	1687	99.7	376	99.7	54	100.0	238	99.6	84	100.0
vaccination against HPV										
yes	309	18.3	42	11.1	8	14.8	26	10.9	8	9.5
no	1383	81.7	335	88.9	46	85.2	213	89.1	76	90.5
immunosuppressive disease										
yes	3	0.2	2	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	1.2
no	1689	99.8	375	99.5	54	100.0	238	99.6	83	98.8
Immunosuppressive drugs						_			_	
yes	17	1.0	5	1.3	3	5.6	2	0.8	0	0.0
no	1675	99.0	372	98.7	51	94.4	237	99.2	84	100.0
smoking										
yes	649	38.4	183	48.5	20	37.0	120	50.2	43	51.2
no	272	16.1	61	16.2	12	22.2	35	14.6	14	16.7
never smoked	771	45.6	133	35.3	22	40.7	84	35.1	27	32.1
previous sexual transmitted disease					_				_	
yes	22	1.3	12	3.2	1	1.9	10	4.2	1	1.2
no	1666	98.5	365	96.8	53	98.1	229	95.8	83	98.8
number of sexual partners			_							
0	67	4.0	2	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.8	0	0.0
1	480	28.4	43	11.4	8	14.8	24	10.0	11	13.1
2	291	17.2	45	11.9	6	11.1	33	13.8	6	7.1
3	230	13.6	58	15.4	12	22.2	33	13.8	13	15.5
4	151	8.9	55	14.6	7	13.0	35	14.6	13	15.5
5 6	165 62	9.8 3.7	65	17.2 6.6	8	14.8 5.6	40	16.7 6.3	17 7	20.2
6	62	3./	25	6.6	3	5.6	15	6.3	/	8.3

7	46	2.7	10	2.7	2	3.7	6	2.5	2	2.4
8	39	2.3	16	4.2	5	9.3	6	2.5	5	6.0
9	13	0.8	4	1.1	0	0.0	3	1.3	1	1.2
10	63	3.7	30	8.0	3	5.6	21	8.8	6	7.1
>10	48	2.8	22	5.8	0	0.0	20	8.4	2	2.4
contraceptives										
none	117	6.9	29	7.7	4	7.4	17	7.1	8	9.5
hormonal*	1421	84.0	315	83.6	42	77.8	201	84.1	72	85.7
other*	178	10.5	37	9.8	8	14.8	25	10.5	4	4.8
PAP smear result										
not suitable for diagnosis	16	0.9	2	0.5	1	1.9	1	0.4	0	0.0
PAPI	185	10.9	40	10.6	9	16.7	20	8.4	11	13.1
PAPII	1436	84.9	307	81.4	42	77.8	198	82.8	67	79.8
PAPIII	6	0.4	2	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.8	0	0.0
PAPIIID	28	1.7	23	6.1	2	3.7	16	6.7	5	6.0
PAPIVa	2	0.1	2	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.8	0	0.0

<sup>\*</sup>multiple response

Table II: HPV prevalence by age strata according to the HC2-, PapilloCheck<sup>®</sup>- and SPF<sub>10</sub>-Test

			•			age st	rata					
		total		10-16	17-19		20-22		23-26		27-30	
	N	% [95% CI]	N	% [95% CI]	N	% [95% CI]	N	% [95% CI]	N	% [95% CI]	N	% [95% CI]
HC2	1692		293		350		354		350		345	
- positive	377	22.3 [20.3-24.3]	34	11.6 [7.9-15.3]	82	23.4 [19.0-27.9]	100	28.3 [23.5-33.0]	91	26.0 [21.4-30.6]	70	20.3 [16.0-24.6]
- low risk only	54	3.2 [2.4-4.0]	7	2.4 [0.6-4.1]	11	3.1 [1.3-5.0]	15	4.2 [2.1-6.3]	14	4.0 [2.0-6.1]	7	2.0 [0.5-3.5]
- high risk only	239	14.1 [12.5-15.8]	21	7.2 [4.2-10.1]	52	14.9 [11.1-18.6]	54	15.3 [11.5-19.0]	61	17.4 [13.5-21.4]	51	14.8 [11.0-18.5]
- low & high risk	84	5.0 [3.9-6.0]	6	2.1 [0.4-3.7]	19	5.4 [3.1-7.8]	31	8.8 [5.8-11.7]	16	4.6 [2.4-6.8]	12	3.5 [1.5-5.4]
PapilloCheck <sup>®</sup>	377		34		82		100		91		70	
(only HC2 positive women)												
- positive	334	88.6 [85.4-91.8]	29	85.3 [72.8-97.8]	74	90.2 [83.7-96.8]	96	96.0 [92.1-99.9]	79	86.8 [79.7-93.9]	56	80.0 [70.4-89.6]
- low risk only	50	13.3 [9.8-16.7]	8	23.5 [9.3-37.8]	9	11.0 [4.2-17.7]	17	17.0 [9.6-24.4]	9	9.9 [3.8-16.0]	7	10.0 [3.0-17.0]
- high risk only*	234	62.1 [57.2-67.0]	17	50.0 [33.2-66.8]	53	64.6 [54.3-75.0]	59	59.0 [49.4-68.6]	60	65.9 [56.2-75.7]	45	64.3 [53.1-75.5]
- low & high risk	49	13.0 [9.6-16.4]	4	11.8 [0.9-22.6]	11	13.4 [6.0-20.8]	20	20.0 [12.2-27.8]	10	11.0 [4.6-17.4]	4	5.7 [0.3-11.2]

- unknown risk†	1	0.3 [0.0-0.8]	0	-	1	1.2 [0.0-3.7]	0	-	0	-	0	-
SPF <sub>10</sub>	377		34		82		100		91		70	
(only HC2 positive women)												
- positive	357	94.7 [92.4-97.0]	31	91.2 [81.1-100.0]	78	95.1 [90.4-99.9]	96	96.0 [92.1-99.9]	86	94.5 [89.7-99.3]	66	94.3 [88.7-99.9]
- low risk only	11	2.9 [1.2-4.6]	2	5.9 [0.0-13.8]	3	3.7 [0.0-7.7]	4	4.0 [0.2-7.8]	1	1.1 [0.0-3.2]	1	1.4 [0.0-4.2]
- high risk only*	254	67.4 [62.6-72.1]	17	50.0 [33.2-66.8]	56	68.3 [58.2-78.4]	70	70.0 [61.0-79.0]	62	68.1 [58.6-77.7]	49	70.0 [59.3-80.7]
- low & high risk	75	19.9 [15.9-23.9]	10	29.4 [14.1-44.7]	17	20.7 [12.0-29.5]	19	19.0 [11.3-26.7]	20	22.0 [13.5-30.5]	9	12.9 [5.0-20.7]
- unknown risk†	17	4.5 [2.4-6.6]	2	5.9 [0.0-13.8]	2	2.4 [0.0-5.8]	3	3.0 [0.0-6.4]	3	3.3 [0.0-7.0]	7	10.0 [3.0-17.0]

<sup>\*</sup> includes also possible HR-HPV types or types with unclear potential

<sup>†</sup> positive without feasible specification or types 34 or 74 (unknown risk, SPF<sub>10</sub> only), respectively

TABLE III: Univariate and multivariate analysis showing the dependence of HC2 –positivity on self-reported/risk factors

	Uni	variate	mult	ivariate
Self-reported Factor	Odds Ratio	95% CI	Odds Ratio	95% CI
Age	1.028	1.003 - 1.054	0.981	0.952 – 1.011
Current pregnancy (yes vs. no)	1.662	1.089 – 2.538	1.559	0.996 – 2.442
Smoking behavior (no vs. never smoked)	1.387	0.986 - 1.950	1.114	0.778 – 1.594
Smoking behavior (yes vs. never smoked)	1.884	1.462 – 2.427	1.508	1.155 – 1.968
Hormonal contraception (yes vs. no)	0.960	0.704 - 1.308	0.995	0.715 – 1.385
Vaccination against HPV (yes vs. no)	0.492	0.348 - 0.697	0.589	0.398 - 0.872
Number of sexual partners	1.120	1.086 – 1.155	1.105	1.069 – 1.142

TABLE IV: Degree of correspondence in HPV high-risk and low-risk types obtained from HC2 and PapilloCheck<sup>®</sup>. Only HC2 positive subjects were tested.

PapilloCheck <sup>®</sup>	HC2									
.,	Low	risk only	High r	isk only	Low & high risk					
	N	Col %	N	Col %	N	Col %				
Negative	13	24.1	27	11.3	3	3.6				
Low risk only	37	68.5	1	0.4	12	14.3				
High risk only*	2	3.7	207	86.6	25	29.8				
Low & high risk	2	3.7	3	1.3	44	52.4				
Unknown+	0	0.0	1	0.4	0	0.0				

<sup>\*</sup> includes also possible HR-HPV types or types with unclear potential

<sup>+</sup> positive without feasible specification

TABLE V: Degree of correspondence in HPV high-risk and low-risk types obtained from HC2 and SPF<sub>10</sub>.

Only HC2 positive women were tested.

				HC2			
SPF <sub>10</sub>	Low	risk only	High r	isk only	Low & high risk		
	N	Col %	N	Col %	N	Col %	
Negative	17	31.5	3	1.3	0	0.0	
Low risk only	8	14.8	1	0.4	2	2.4	
High risk only*	5	9.3	197	82.4	52	61.9	
Low & high risk	15	27.8	32	13.4	28	33.3	
Unknown+	9	16.7	6	2.5	2	2.4	

<sup>\*</sup> includes also possible HR-HPV types or types with unclear potential

<sup>+</sup> positive without feasible specification or types 34 or 74 (unknown risk), respectively

Page 32 of 40

Figure 1: Flow of participants enrolled in the study

Figure 2: Percental distribution of age groups with negative and positive HC2 test results. Subjects with positive HC2 test results are subdivided in low risk, high risk, and both low and high risk groups. The figure shows the distribution of subjects with a negative LR, HR or both — HC2 test result per age group in relation to all women with a negative LR, HR or both — HC2 test result, respectively.

Figure 3: HPV genotyping according to the PapilloCheck® test (24 HPV types) among women testing HPV-positive with the HC2 test. Multiple responses possible, bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.

Figure 4: HPV genotyping according to the  $SPF_{10}$  assay (26 HPV types) among women testing HPV-positive with the HC2 test. Multiple responses possible, bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.

Figure 5: Number of sexual partners in women with (a) negative and (b) positive HC2 test

- (a) Women with negative HC2 test
- (b) Women with positive HC2 test

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The study was sponsored by GlaxoSmithKline Inc.

T.I. has received speaker honorarium from GlaxoSmithKline GmbH & Co KG.

We thank Heike von Krempelhuber for writing assistance of this article.



#### REFERENCES

- 2 Ammatuna P, Giovannelli L, Matranga D, Ciriminna S, Perino A. 2008. Prevalence of genital human
- 3 papilloma virus infection and genotypes among young women in Sicily, South Italy. Cancer Epidemiol
- 4 Biomarkers Prev 17:2002-2006.
- 5 Antila A, Aoki D, Arbyn M, Austoker J, Bosch X, Chirenje Z. M., Cuzick J, Day N. E., Denny L. A., Fonn S,
- 6 Franco E, Iftner T, Kricker A, Lawson H, Lynge E, Marrett L. D., McGoogan E, Meijer C. J., Miller A. B.,
- 7 Patnick J, Robles S. C., Ronco G, Schiffman, M. H., Sellors J. W., Singer A, Suba E. J., Wright T. C. 2005.
- 8 IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer) Handbooks of Cancer Prevention Vol. 10: Cervix
- 9 cancer screening. IARC Press, Lyon 2005.
- 10 Bao YP, Li N, Smith JS, Qiao YL; ACCPAB members. 2008. Human papillomavirus type distribution in
- women from Asia: a meta-analysis. Int J Gynecol Cancer 18:71-79.
- 12 Becker N, Brenner H, Klug S, Schilling F, Spix C. 2006. Beiträge der Epidemiologie zur
- 13 Krebsfrüherkennung. Der Onkologe 12:1136-1145.
- 14 Bosch, FX, Lorincz A, Munoz N, Meijer C J, Shah KV. 2002. The causal relation between human
- papillomavirus and cervical cancer. J Clin Pathol 55:244–265.
- 16 Bosch FX, de Sanjosé S, Castellsagué X, Moreno V, Muñoz N: Chapter 3: Epidemiology of human
- papillomavirus infections and associations with cervical cancer: New opportunities for prevention. In:
- 18 Papillomavirus Research: From Natural History To Vaccines and Beyond. Caister Academic Press,
- 19 2006.
- 20 Brown DR, Kjaer SK, Sigurdsson K, Iversen OE, Hernandez-Avila M, Wheeler CM, Perez G, Koutsky LA,
- 21 Tay EH, Garcia P, Ault KA, Garland SM, Leodolter S, Olsson SE, Tang GW, Ferris DG, Paavonen J,
- 22 Steben M, Bosch FX, Dillner J, Joura EA, Kurman RJ, Majewski S, Muñoz N, Myers ER, Villa LL, Taddeo

- FJ, Roberts C, Tadesse A, Bryan J, Lupinacci LC, Giacoletti KE, Sings HL, James M, Hesley TM, Barr E.
- 24 2009. The impact of quadrivalent human papillomavirus (HPV; types 6, 11, 16, and 18) L1 virus-like
- 25 particle vaccine on infection and disease due to oncogenic nonvaccine HPV types in generally HPV-
- 26 naive women aged 16-26 years. J Infect Dis 199:926-935.
- 27 Bundesärztekammer. 1994. Leitlinie der Bundesärztekammer zur Qualitätssicherung zytologischer
- 28 Untersuchungen im Rahmen der Früherkennung des Zervixkarzinoms. Deutsch. Aerzteblatt 91, B298-
- 29 B300.
- Castle PE, Schiffman M, Burk RD, Wacholder S, Hildesheim A, Herrero R, Bratti MC, Sherman ME,
- 31 Lorincz A. 2002. Restricted cross-reactivity of hybrid capture 2 with nononcogenic human
- 32 papillomavirus types. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 11:1394–1399.
- Castle, P. E., D. Solomon, M. Schiffman, and C. M. Wheeler. 2005. Human papillomavirus type 16
- infections and 2-year absolute risk of cervical precancer in women with equivocal or mild cytologic
- abnormalities. J Natl Cancer Inst 97:1066–1071.
- Chan PK, Ho WC, Wong MC, Chang AR, Chor JS, Yu MY. 2009. Epidemiologic risk profile of infection
- with different groups of human papillomaviruses. J Med Virol. 81:1635-1644.
- 38 Clifford G, Franceschi S, Diaz M, Muñoz N, Villa LL. 2006. HPV type-distribution in women with and
- without cervical neoplastic disease. Vaccine 24 (Suppl. 3):26-34.
- 40 Cogliano V, Baan R, Straif K, Grosse Y, Secretan B, El GF. 2005. Carcinogenicity of human
- 41 papillomaviruses. Lancet Oncol 6:204.
- 42 De Sanjosé S, Diaz M, Castellsagué X, Clifford G, Bruni L, Muñoz N, Bosch FX. 2007. Worldwide
- 43 prevalence and genotype distribution of cervical human papillomavirus DNA in women with normal
- 44 cytology: a meta-analysis. Lancet Infect Dis 7:453-459.

- Dunne EF, Unger ER, Sternberg M, McQuillan G, Swan DC, Patel SS, Markowitz LE. 2007. Prevalence
- of HPV infection among females in the United States. JAMA 297:813–819.
- 47 Harper DM, Franco EL, Wheeler C, Ferris DG, Jenkins D, Schuind A, Zahaf T, Innis B, Naud P, De
- 48 Carvalho NS, Roteli-Martins CM, Teixeira J, Blatter MM, Korn AP, Quint W, Dubin G; GlaxoSmithKline
- 49 HPV Vaccine Study Group. 2004. Efficacy of a bivalent L1 virus-like particle vaccine in prevention of
- infection with human papillomavirus types 16 and 18 in young women: a randomised controlled trial.
- 51 Lancet 364:1757-1765.
- 52 Ho GY, Burk RD, Klein S, Kadish AS, Chang CJ, Palan P, Basu J, Tachezy R, Lewis R, Romney S. 1995.
- 53 Persistent genital human papillomavirus infection as a risk factor for persistent cervical dysplasia. J
- 54 Natl Cancer Inst 87:1365–1371.
- 55 Iftner T. 2006. Zervixkarzinom. Chancen und Risiken des Früherkennungsprogramms. Geburtsh
- 56 Frauenheilk 66:196-198.
- 57 Kjaer, S. K., A. J. van den Brule, G. Paull, E. I. Svare, M. E. Sherman, B. L. Thomsen, M. Suntum, J. E.
- 58 Bock, P. A. Poll, and C. J. Meijer. 2002. Type specific persistence of high risk human papillomavirus
- 59 (HPV) as indicator of high grade cervical squamous intraepithelial lesions in young women:
- 60 population based prospective follow up study. BMJ 325:572–576.
- 61 Kjaer SK, Breugelmans G, Munk C, Junge J, Watson M, Iftner T. 2008. Population-based prevalence,
- 62 type- and age-specific distribution of HPV in women before introduction of an HPV-vaccination
- 63 program in Denmark. Int J Cancer 123:1864-1870.
- 64 Kleter B, van Doorn LJ, ter Schegget J, Schrauwen L, van Krimpen K, Burger M, ter Harmsel B, Quint
- 65 W. 1998. Novel short-fragment PCR assay for highly sensitive broad-spectrum detection of anogenital
- human papillomaviruses. Am J Pathol 153:1731-1739.

- Kleter B, van Doorn LJ, Schrauwen L, Molijn A, Sastrowijoto S, ter Schegget J, Lindeman J, ter Harmsel
- 68 B, Burger M, Quint W. 1999. Development and clinical evaluation of a highly sensitive PCR-reverse
- 69 hybridization line probe assay for detection and identification of anogenital human papillomavirus. J
- 70 Clin Microbiol 37:2508-2517.
- Klug SJ, Molijn A, Schopp B, Holz B, Iftner A, Quint W, J F Snijders P, Petry KU, Krüger Kjaer S, Munk C,
- 72 Iftner T. 2008. Comparison of the performance of different HPV genotyping methods for detecting
- 73 genital HPV types. J Med Virol 80:1264-1274.
- Lai CH, Chang CJ, Huang HJ, Hsueh S, Chao A, Yang JE, Lin Ct, Huang SL, Hong JH, Chou HH, Wu TI,
- 75 Huang KG, Wang CC, Chang TC 2007 Role of human papillomavirus genotype in prognosis of early-
- stage cervical cancer undergoing primary surgery. J Clin Oncol 25:3628-3634.
- Lenselink CH, Melchers WJ, Quint WG, Hoebers AM, Hendriks JC, Massuger LF, Bekkers RL. 2008.
- 78 Sexual behaviour and HPV infections in 18 to 29 year old women in the pre-vaccine era in the
- 79 Netherlands. PLoS One. 2008;3:e3743. Epub 2008 Nov 17.
- 80 Muñoz N, Bosch FX, de Sanjosé S, Tafur L, Izarzugaza I, Gili M, Viladiu P, Navarro C, Martos C, Ascunce
- 81 N. 1992. The causal link between human papillomavirus and invasive cervical cancer: A population-
- based case-control study in Colombia and Spain. Int J Cancer 52:743–749.
- 83 Muñoz N, Bosch FX, de Sanjose S, Herrero R, Castellsague X, Shah KV, Snijders PJ, Meijer CJ;
- 84 International Agency for Research on Cancer Multicenter Cervical Cancer Study Group: Epidemiologic
- 85 classification of human papillomavirus types associated with cervical cancer. N Engl J Med 2003; 348:
- 86 518–527.
- 87 Muñoz N, Bosch FX, Castellsagué X, Diaz M, de Sanjose S, Hammouda D, Shah KV, Meijer CJ: Against
- 88 which human papillomavirus types shall we vaccinate and screen? The international perspective. Int J
- 89 Cancer 2004; 111: 278–285.

Transm Dis 36:241-248.

90	Myers ER, McCroy DC, Nanda K, Bastian L, Matchar DB. 2000. Mathematical model for the natural
91	history of human papillomavirus infection and cervical carcinogenesis. Am J Epidemiol 151:1158–
92	1171.
93	Nanda K, McCrory DC, Myers ER, Bastian LA, Hasselblad V, Hickey JD, Matchar DB. 2000. Accuracy of
94	the Papanicolaou test in screening for and follow-up of cervical cytologic abnormalities: a systematic
95	review. Ann Intern Med 132:810-819.
96	Nielsen A, Kjaer SK, Munk C, Iftner T. 2008. Type-specific HPV infection and multiple HPV types:
97	prevalence and risk factor profile in nearly 12,000 younger and older Danish women. Sex Transm Dis
98	35:276-282.
99	Paavonen J, Naud P, Salmerón J, Wheeler C, Chow SN, Apter D, Kitchener H, Castellsague X, Teixeira J
100	Skinner S, Hedrick J, Jaisamrarn U, Limson G, Garland S, Szarewski A, Romanowski B, Aoki F, Schwarz
101	T, Poppe W, Bosch F, Jenkins D, Hardt K, Zahaf T, Descamps D, Struyf F, Lehtinen M, Dubin G; for the
102	HPV PATRICIA Study Group. 2009. Efficacy of human papillomavirus (HPV)-16/18 AS04-adjuvanted
103	vaccine against cervical infection and precancer caused by oncogenic HPV types (PATRICIA): final
104	analysis of a double-blind, randomised study in young women. Lancet; 374:301-314.
105	Robert Koch-Institute: Krebs in Deutschland 2003 – 2004 Häufigkeiten und Trends. Robert Koch-
106	Institute & Gesellschaft der epidemiologischen Krebsregister in Deutschland e.V (Eds.). 6th Edition,
107	Berlin, 2008: www.ekr.med.uni-erlangen.de/GEKID/Doc/kid2008.pdf
108	Sarian LO, Hammes LS, Longatto-Filho A, Guarisi R, Derchain SF, Roteli-Martins C, Naud P, Erzen M,
109	Branca M, Tatti S, de Matos JC, Gontijo R, Maeda MY, Lima T, Costa S, Syrjänen S, Syrjänen K. 2009.

intraepithelial neoplasia among smokers: experience from the Latin American screening study. Sex

Increased risk of oncogenic human papillomavirus infections and incident high-grade cervical

- Schenck U, von Karsa L. 2000. Cervical cancer screening in Germany. Eur J Cancer 36:2221–2226.
   Schiffman MH, Bauer HM, Hoover RN, Glass AG, CadellDM, Rush BB, Scott DR, Sherman ME, Kurman
   RJ, Wacholder S. 1993. Epidemiologic evidence showing that human papillomavirus infection causes
- 117 Schiffman M, Castle PE, Jeronimo J, Rodriguez AC, Wacholder S. 2007. Human papillomavirus and 118 cervical cancer. Lancet 370:890–907.

most cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. J Natl Cancer Inst 85:958–964.

- Schopp B, Holz B, Zago M, Stubenrauch F, Petry K-U, Krüger-Kjaer S, Iftner T. 2009. Evaluation of the performance of the novel PapilloCheck HPV genotyping test by comparison with two other genotyping systems and the HC2 test. J Med Virol; in press
- Sherman ME, Lorincz AT, Scott DR, Wacholder S, Castle PE, Glass AG, Mielzynska-Lohnas I, Rush BB,

  Schiffman M. 2003. Baseline cytology, human papillomavirus testing, and risk for cervical neoplasia: a

  10 year cohort analysis. J Natl Cancer Inst 95:46-52.
- Syrjänen K, Hakama M, Saarikoski S, Väyrynen M, Yliskoski M, Syrjänen S, Kataja V, Castrén O. 1990.
   Prevalence, incidence, and estimated life-time risk of cervical human papillomavirus infections in a
   nonselected Finnish female population. Sex Transm Dis 17:15–19.
- Walboomers JM, Jacobs MV, Manos MM, Bosch FX, Kummer JA, Shah KV, Snijders PJ, Peto J, Meijer
   CJ, Munoz N. 1999. Human papillomavirus is a necessary cause of invasive cervical cancer worldwide.
   J Pathol 189:12–19.
- Weinstock H, Berman S, Cates W. 2004. Sexually transmitted diseases among American youth:
   incidence and prevalence estimates, 2000. Perspect Sex Reprod Health 36:6–10.
- Wentzensen N, Klug SJ. 2008. Early detection of cervical carcinomas. Finding an overall approach.
   Dtsch Ärztebl Int 105:617-622.

Villa LL, Costa RL, Petta CA, Andrade RP, Ault KA, Giuliano AR, Wheeler CM, Koutsky LA, Malm C, Lehtinen M, Skjeldestad FE, Olsson SE, Steinwall M, Brown DR, Kurman RJ, Ronnett BM, Stoler MH, Ferenczy A, Harper DM, Tamms GM, Yu J, Lupinacci L, Railkar R, Taddeo FJ, Jansen KU, Esser MT, Sings HL, Saah AJ, Barr E. 2005. Prophylactic quadrivalent human papillomavirus (types 6, 11, 16, and 18) L1 virus-like particle vaccine in young women: a randomised double-blind placebo-controlled multicentre phase II efficacy trial. Lancet Oncol 56:271-278.

