



Assessing the risk of cervical neoplasia in the post-HPV vaccination era

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Key Words:	cervical cancer, epigenetics, human papillomavirus, gynaecological cancers, methylation

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Assessing the risk of cervical neoplasia in the post-HPV vaccination era

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34 **Abstract**

35 This review is based on the recent EUROGIN scientific session: “Assessing risk of cervical cancer
36 in the post-vaccination era” that addressed the demands of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN)/
37 squamous intraepithelial lesion (SIL) triage now that the prevalence of vaccine-targeted oncogenic
38 high-risk (hr) human papillomaviruses (HPVs) is decreasing. Change in the prevalence distribution
39 of oncogenic HPV types that follows national HPV vaccination programs is setting the stage for
40 loss of positive predictive value of conventional but possibly also new triage modalities.
41 Understanding contribution of the latter, most notably hypermethylation of cellular and viral genes
42 in a new setting where most oncogenic HPV types are no longer present, requires studies on their
43 performance in vaccinated women with CIN/SIL that are associated with non-vaccine HPV types.
44 Lessons learned from this research may highlight the potential of cervical cells for risk prediction of
45 all women’s cancers.

56 Key words: cervical cancer, epigenetics, gynaecological cancers, human papillomavirus, methylation

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4 56 Abbreviations: CIN (cervical intraepithelial neoplasia), HPV (human papillomavirus), HSIL (high-
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7 57 grade squamous intraepithelial lesion, WID (woman's cancer risk identification)
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11 59 **Introduction**

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14 60 This review is based on a recent EUROGIN main scientific session (April 12, 2022) on assessing
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16 61 the risk of cervical cancer in the post human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination era. In keeping with
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18 62 those presentations, we wish to review the new demands and possibilities related to management of
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20 63 cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN): screening and triage of high-grade squamous intraepithelial
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22 64 lesion (HSIL) / cervical adenocarcinoma in situ (AIS) in HPV vaccinated and unvaccinated women.
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27 66 The prevalence of vaccine targeted oncogenic, high-risk (hr) HPV types is rapidly decreasing in
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29 67 countries with effective national vaccination programs.¹⁻⁵ Although the prevalence of non-targeted
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31 68 HPV types has not significantly changed the vaccination has led into changes in their relative
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33 69 proportions and in the overall ecological diversity of mucosal HPV types (Figure 1).⁵⁻⁸ Test
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35 70 performance, most importantly positive predictive value (PPV) of conventional screening tests
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37 71 (Pap-smear, HPV-tests) now faces new demands of the decreasing background of the HPV types
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39 72 with large oncogenic potential as the majority of positive findings threaten to be false positive
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41 73 findings as previously illustrated⁹ and most recently demonstrated.^{10,11}
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48 75 Increased understanding on epigenetic changes (methylation) of both cellular and viral genes is now
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50 76 offering a new roadmap for cervical neoplasia triage of unvaccinated women¹²⁻¹⁴ who have the
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52 77 majority of severe cervical lesions that require triage and treatment. In fact, early identification of a
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54 78 number of gynaecological cancers is emerging via assessment of cervical cells' methylation
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56 79 status.¹⁵ Fortunately, the performance of the new risk-assessment measures can now be evaluated in
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58 80 women, who had been vaccinated against HPV 15 years ago as early adolescents. Even if among

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4 81 these women the necessary causes of cervical cancer HPV types 16/18 are abolished HSIL is still
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7 82 found (Figure 2), and validation of methylation markers here and now is pivotal to the future use of
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9 83 the new epigenetic measures.

11 84 **Evolutionary repercussion of HPV vaccination on defining the risk of cervical neoplasia**

13 85 Papillomaviruses are one of the most oncogenic viruses infecting humans with a high viral diversity
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16 86 and a remarkably sustained common evolutionary human-pathogen interaction history.^{16,17} HPV
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18 87 vaccination and its current global implementation underline a quintessential need to systematically
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21 88 assess the likely changes in this deep evolutionary virus-host interaction. For the first time in post-
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23 89 vaccinated populations a sizeable proportion of adolescent and early adults mostly women have
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25 90 developed a sustained strongly protective vaccine-induced immune response against the vaccine-
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27 91 targeted oncogenic hrHPVs. Moreover, with a readily achieved community-level coverage of
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30 92 gender-neutral HPV vaccination the unvaccinated women and men have thus far been up to 15
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32 93 years under herd protection against the targeted oncogenic HPVs.^{2,3,18} This direct and indirect
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34 94 protection gained from gender-neutral HPV vaccination has profoundly changed the community-
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36 95 level diversity distribution of vaccine-targeted and non-vaccine targeted HPV types (Figure 1).

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41 97 Our recent work exploiting the population-based community-randomized HPV vaccination trial
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43 98 data from the vaccinated Finnish birth-cohorts is demonstrating the powerful population-level
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45 99 effects of both gender-neutral and girls-only HPV vaccination on HPV type-distribution (Figure
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47 100 1).^{3,8,19-23} A subsequent question is: what will be the viral evolutionary response to the HPV
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50 101 vaccination? Rapid viral evolutionary responses have been observed most notoriously with SARS-
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52 102 CoV-2RNA-virus showing the emergence of new viral variants with escape mutants and higher
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55 103 transmissibility after vaccination. However, for DNA viruses with slower rate of evolution and
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57 104 better proof-reading mechanisms such evolutionary responses are less likely and will require much
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60 105 more time.²⁴

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The theory is that host immune recognition post-vaccination will favor the selection of particular virus lineages. Proportional increase of immune individuals by vaccination enhances such evolutionary selection pressures.²⁵ Another fundament is that such evolutionary processes depend upon genetic diversity, which is high even for the most oncogenic hrHPVs both at species and strain level.^{8,16} Therefore, it has been important to systematically examine the available community-randomized HPV vaccine trial data for possible clearance patterns of vaccine-targeted HPV's ecological niche³ and search signs of evolutionary responses of the non-vaccine targeted lower oncogenicity hrHPV types such as type replacement.^{20,21}

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In the post-vaccination era, it will be important to explore both the ecological and epigenetic variation in infection outcome at large for HPV's. Comprehensive understanding of the changes in virus-host interaction leading to differential lesion severity and cervical HPV types in vaccinated and unvaccinated women will likely pave the way for improved methods for future screening of cervical cancer.

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Understanding test performance of cervical cancer screening in the post-vaccination era

As alluded to earlier, with the high vaccination coverage, cross-protection, and herd immunity, HPV transmission will ultimately be kept at a minimum so that cervical cancer screening must adapt to continue to provide benefit. Along with the post-vaccination changes of viral genotypes prevalence distribution mentioned above, the impact on the epidemiology of cervical dysplasia in terms of reduction in cervical abnormalities has also been reported among HPV vaccinated women.^{4,26-28}

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4 130 In view of the population-level impact of HPV vaccination and the decline in prevalence of HPV-
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7 131 related outcomes, the pertinent question then arises: what would be the consequence on screening
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9 132 performance and practices as cohorts of HPV-vaccinated girls and adolescents reach the age to be
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11 133 screened for cervical cancer? We have previously illustrated the impact on the PPV of a future
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13 134 cervical cancer screening test following reductions in precancerous lesion prevalence post-HPV
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15 135 vaccination.⁹ We showed that even for the most optimistic scenario of test performance (99%
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17 136 specificity), the PPV will be so low when lesion prevalence falls below 0.16per 1000 women
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19 137 (~0.02%); such positive test results will most likely be false triggering unnecessary diagnostic
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21 138 activities. Under such conditions, the harms from screening may then outweigh the pursued
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23 139 benefits. In a retrospective analysis of national datasets from 95,876 women (born 1998-1993) who
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25 140 attended cervical cancer screening in Scotland within one year of turning 20 years old, a significant
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27 141 reduction in the PPV of high-grade dyskaryosis for the detection of CIN2+ was observed among
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29 142 HPV vaccinated compared to unvaccinated women (65.7% vs 76.6%, respectively, p-value =
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31 143 0.002).²⁹ Another ecologic study showed that, following the implementation of the HPV
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33 144 vaccination program in 2017 in Australia, the PPV of high-grade cytology in predicting high-grade
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35 145 disease decreased over time particularly for the younger age cohorts which is likely an effect of
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37 146 HPV vaccination.²⁸ Similarly, using data linkage between the Swedish National Cervical Screening
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39 147 Registry and the HPV vaccination registry, an 8% reduction in the PPV of high-grade cytology for
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41 148 CIN2+ was reported for vaccinated compared to unvaccinated women.¹¹
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50 150 The reduction in HPV prevalence and reduced performance of cytology as a consequence of HPV
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52 151 vaccination calls for rethinking of CIN triage and for new, better screening tests with the goal of
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54 152 improving risk stratification to triage women who are positive on screening for hrHPV types. High-
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56 153 risk prediction of HPV-driven cervical carcinogenesis will assist the transition to a more rational
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58 154 screening and management approach for cervical cancer, especially as molecular HPV testing has
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4 155 replaced cytology for cervical cancer screening in most high-income countries. One promising
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7 156 approach for the proper triage of HPV infections and associated lesions would be to rely on viral
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9 157 and cellular methylation markers to identify true progression potential.
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14 159 Of utmost importance is the notion of screening conditional on vaccination status and the need of
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16 160 separate guidelines for vaccinated and unvaccinated women. Ideally integrated surveillance systems
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18 161 linking HPV vaccination, screening, and disease outcomes would enable assessment of the impact
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20 162 of intervention programs and determination of the potential benefit-harm balance of these programs.
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23 163 24 25 164 **Methylation of combined host and HPV genes and risk of cervical neoplasia in vaccinated** 26 165 **women**

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28 166 DNA methylation is a reproducible physical epigenetic change involved in a variety of cellular
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31 167 processes and plays an important role in cancer progression. Viral DNA methylation status is
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33 168 dynamic in the context of the viral life cycle and has been suggested as a host defense mechanism to
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35 169 silence viral transcription and replication. The association between hypermethylation of viral HPV
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38 170 genes and cervical pre-cancer lesions and cancer has primed the development of HPV methylation
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40 171 biomarkers for diagnostic and triage purposes.³⁰ Aberrant DNA methylation of not only HPV genes
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42 172 but also host-cell genes has been reported to increase along with the severity of cervical lesion
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45 173 progression, allowing this epigenetic event to be used as a biomarker, with the potential to predict
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47 174 whether HPV infection will lead to CIN2+ lesion or if the infection will resolve (Figure 3).³¹
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51 176 Combining the knowledge of methylation on host-cell and viral genes, the S5 classifier involves
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54 177 testing the levels of DNA methylation on CpGs from the host *EPB41L3* and viral genes: HPV16-
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56 178 L1, HPV16-L2, HPV18-L2, HPV31-L1 and HPV33-L2.³² The *EPB41L3* gene codes for the
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58 179 membrane Band 4.1-like protein 3 which acts as a tumour suppressor inhibiting cell proliferation
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4 180 while promoting apoptosis.³³ Hypermethylation of CpG islands on the *EPB41L3* promoter leads to
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7 181 a decrease in gene expression, which was associated with the progression of multiple cancers
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9 182 including cervical and oropharyngeal, lung, gastric and esophageal cancer³⁴⁻³⁹. A recent study by
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11 183 Banila et al. highlighted the relevance of *EPB43L1* in cancer detection as 25 out of 26 hrHPV-
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14 184 negative cancers (tested with multiple hrHPV-genotyping assay) were positive by S5.¹⁴ At a cut-off
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16 185 of 0.80, S5 identifies more than 90% CIN3 cases and almost 100% of cervical cancers, independent
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18 186 of histology, FIGO stage hrHPV status.¹⁴ In examining S5 classifier components, Banila et al.¹⁴
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21 187 suggested that the relative proportion of the HPV methylation components of the S5-classifier
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23 188 decreased slightly with severity of lesion.¹⁴ HPV16 methylation had the highest weight out of all
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25 189 viral components; however, this was 1.8 times lower than the weight of *EPB41L3* methylation in
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27 190 advanced cancer (CSII+) specimens.¹⁴ This result is very important for the post-vaccination era
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30 191 suggesting a key role for methylation analysis of host-cell genes, e.g., *EPB41L3* in detecting high
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32 192 grade lesions and cancers. A meta-analysis on the performance of methylation assays indicated that
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34 193 S5 had a higher sensitivity for CIN2+ detection than considering *EPB41L3* methylation alone,
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37 194 without compromising specificity.³¹ This indicates that the combination of host cell and viral gene
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39 195 targets improves the accuracy for CIN2+ detection and this will certainly hold true for vaccinated
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41 196 women though the value of viral genes not included in the vaccines will still need to be considered.
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46 198 A triage test will be required to distinguish hrHPV-positive (non-vaccinated and vaccinated) women
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48 199 with clinically relevant cervical lesions from those with transient infections. S5 has been
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50 200 substantially evaluated as a triage test for hrHPV positive non-vaccinated women and has
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53 201 demonstrated improved triage performance compared to hrHPV genotyping or cytology alone or
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55 202 combined.³⁹⁻⁴² These observations suggest that the S5 classifier could help identify women with a
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57 203 high short-term risk of progression to cancer who need immediate treatment. Hernandez et al.⁴⁰
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4 204 suggested that the S5 classifier could reduce colposcopy referrals by 30%–50% without affecting
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7 205 sensitivity for CIN2+ and CIN3+, therefore significantly improving cost-effectiveness to allow
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9 206 identification of women with a true risk of cancer. In addition, S5 had the ability to distinguish
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11 207 between <CIN2, CIN2 and CIN3+, a finding of importance for managing CIN2, given the
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14 208 complexity and uncertainty associated with this diagnosis.⁴²

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18 210 The S5 classifier was also proven as a potential prognostic test, being able to identify women with
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20 211 progressive CIN2 in non-vaccinated women.⁴³ An improved predictive test could revolutionize
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22 212 management of CIN2 as cases with progressive potential could be treated sooner and regressive
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25 213 cases managed expectantly. This is especially important for women in childbearing age as cervical
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27 214 treatments can increase the risk for preterm deliveries during pregnancies.

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32 216 In the next decades cervical cancer screening programs will have to cater for both vaccinated and
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34 217 non-vaccinated birth cohorts. When evaluating HPV methylation among HPV vaccinated women
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37 218 we need to remember the changes of HPV genotype distributions as the currently prevalent HPV
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39 219 genotypes among non-vaccinated women will not be detected in the future.⁴⁴ The baseline results of
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41 220 infrequent vs. frequent cervical screening trial among women vaccinated as early adolescents, it
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43 221 revealed that at the age of 22-year-old, the prevalence of non HPV16/18 genotypes were extremely
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46 222 low (range 0.2-2.5%) compared to the other hrHPV types with the range of 23-25%.⁶ The role of
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48 223 the other hrHPV genotypes and their role in cervical carcinogenesis is still to be determined. Given
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50 224 the preliminary genotyping prevalence in this cohort, it is most likely that S5-score will need to be
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53 225 adjusted with other HPV methylation sites from genotypes that are more prevalent in HPV
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55 226 vaccinated women. It is foreseeable that both vaccinated and unvaccinated women will benefit from
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57 227 an expansion of hrHPV methylation sites in the current S5 classifier accounting for the shift in the
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60 228 prevalence of HPV genotypes.

Methylation of cellular genes and risk of cervical neoplasia in vaccinated women

An aberrant DNA methylation pattern is a hallmark of cancer cells.⁴⁵ Hypermethylation is frequently observed in transcriptional regulatory elements, such as promoters and enhancers of host-cell (tumour suppressor) genes. These host-cell DNA methylation abnormalities are necessary for the ultimate progression to cervical cancer. Methylation levels of several host-cell genes have shown to increase with increasing CIN grade and are extremely high in cervical cancer.^{31,46,47}

For the well-studied host-cell methylation marker panel *FAM19A4* and *miR-124-2*, a very high methylation positivity rate was observed in cervical cancer (>98%), irrespective of histotype, FIGO stage, HPV status and geographical region of origin.⁴⁸ The high *FAM19A4/miR124-2* methylation positivity rates in cervical carcinomas were also found to be independent of hrHPV genotype⁴⁸, suggesting that host-cell methylation analysis can similarly detect cervical cancers associated with non-vaccine targeted HPV types. Moreover, 94.7% (18/19) of hrHPV-negative cancers (as determined by multiple hrHPV assays) tested positive with the *FAM19A4/miR124-2* panel emphasizing its additional value.⁴⁸

Within the group of high-grade CIN lesions (CIN2/3) host-cell DNA methylation patterns are heterogeneous. About half of CIN2 and three-quarters of CIN3 have a cancer-like methylation pattern.⁴⁹ It was found that CIN2/3 lesions associated with a long-term (≥ 5 years) HPV infection (i.e., so-called advanced lesions) have significantly higher methylation levels compared with CIN2/3 lesions with a more recently acquired (<5 years) HPV infection (i.e., early or incident lesions).^{46,47} These findings suggest that cellular methylation positivity is characteristic of advanced cervical precursor lesions with a high short-term risk of progression to cancer.⁵⁰ This is further supported by the fact that methylation positivity of *FAM19A4* and *miR-124-2* in CIN2/3

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4 254 lesions appears to be associated with increased p16^{INK4A}/Ki-67 immunoscores and low HPV-E4
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7 255 expression^{51,52} underscoring the high specificity of the *FAM19A4/miR124-2* methylation test for
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9 256 non-productive, transforming CIN2/3 lesions.⁵² In addition, in a prospective clinical cohort study,
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11 257 the absence of *FAM19A4/miR124-2* methylation was found associated with a high regression rate of
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13 258 CIN2/3 lesions⁵³ further corroborating the value of cellular methylation analysis as a biomarker that
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16 259 distinguishes advanced from early lesions based on the level of epigenetic host-cell alterations. In
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18 260 reference to HPV vaccination, it was noted that the detection of CIN3+ by *FAM19A4/miR124-2*
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20 261 methylation is similar for lesions caused by HPV16/18 and those cause by other hrHPV types.⁵⁴
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25 263 In light of the above, host-cell DNA methylation markers provide a specific molecular means to
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27 264 detect advanced CIN lesions in need of treatment, and may well serve the needs of cervical cancer
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30 265 screening in the post-vaccination era (Figure 3). At present, these markers have been extensively
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32 266 evaluated in mainly non-vaccinated cohorts reporting on a good triage performance with a pooled
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34 267 methylation sensitivity for CIN3+ of 71.1% (95% CI: 65.7–76.0) at a set specificity of 70%.^{13,31,55-57}
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37 268 Retrospective longitudinal screening studies showed that HPV-positive but *FAM19A4/miR124-2*
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39 269 methylation - negative women had a 14-year CIN3+ risk equal to that of negative cytology triage
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42 270 outcome, and notably they had a lower risk for cervical cancer.^{13,55-57} Recent data show that
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44 271 additional risk-stratification of HPV-positive women with low-grade cytological abnormalities by
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46 272 *FAM19A4/miR124-2* methylation could substantially reduce direct colposcopy referral rate, while
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49 273 retaining high CIN3+ sensitivity.⁵⁸ Altogether, these findings support the use of cellular
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51 274 methylation markers as an interesting new molecular means for future cervical cancer screening,
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53 275 and the need to evaluate their performance in cohorts of vaccinated women. The premise is that
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56 276 host-cell methylation positivity is low in vaccinated screening cohorts, providing a modality to limit
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58 277 the false-positive rate of screening by specific detection of cervical lesions in need of treatment.
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279 **Utilising DNA methylation in cervical samples, the future of a holistic cancer screening approach**

280 HPV vaccination is an effective means of reducing the burden of cervical cancers in fertile-aged
281 women as HPV-infection is a necessary cause of cervical cancer.⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ However, even persistent
282 HPV-infection alone is not sufficient for cervical carcinogenesis and therefore one can assume that
283 another driver of this process would be an underlying cervical field defect that is not limited to
284 immune surveillance of persistent HPV but includes factors intrinsic to epithelial stem/progenitor
285 cells which serve as the cell of origin for cervical cancer. Such a field defect may, for example, be
286 reflected by a reduced ability to induce apoptosis upon HPV persistence or a reduced ability of stem
287 cells to differentiate. Independent cervical neoplasia risk factors like smoking⁶², chlamydia⁶³, long-
288 term oral contraceptive pill use⁶⁴ or in-utero exposure to specific drugs similar to
289 Diethylstilbestrol⁶⁵ could trigger such a field defect.

290
291 It is noteworthy that cervical cancer is amongst the three most frequent cancers in women < 44 years
292 of age and but globally rare in women > 45 years.⁶⁶ Upon oncogenic HPV infection, women
293 harbouring the field defect maybe at a greater risk of developing a cervical cancer significantly
294 earlier than they would do otherwise as up to 85% of 45 year old women have had a genital HPV
295 infection.⁶⁷ Hence, reducing the burden of the most common oncogenic HPV-infections with HPV
296 vaccination might in the worst case scenario only result in pushing back the age of cervical cancer
297 onset but not necessarily eliminating in all the overall burden of cervical cancer, assuming that the
298 above-mentioned field defect is essential and can drive carcinogenesis in the presence of less
299 oncogenic HPV subtypes that are not covered by current HPV vaccination strategies. Maybe 30-40
300 years after HPV-vaccination has commenced will we be able to assess this for invasive cervical
301 cancer.

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4 303 Ideal strategies utilising would use an easy-to-access tissue sample, such as a cervical smear, and be
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7 304 capable of (i) monitoring the risk for cervical carcinogenesis irrespective of the presence of highly
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9 305 oncogenic HPV types and not reliant on morphological assessment of cervical cells: for example,
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11 306 we know that cytology is less informative in HPV vaccinated birth cohorts²⁸, and (ii) identifying
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13 307 women at risk for other cancers in order to guide primary and secondary preventive measures would
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16 308 be ideal.

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18 309 We were the first to demonstrate that epigenetic analyses on self-samples are highly promising for
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20 310 cervical⁶⁸ and endometrial⁶⁹ cancer detection and have described epigenetic field defects preceding
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23 311 breast⁷⁰, ovarian⁷¹ and cervical^{72,73} cancer. Very recently, we demonstrated that DNAm signatures
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25 312 derived in cervical smear samples¹³ are capable of detecting/predicting women with ovarian cancer,
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27 313 i.e., the WIDTM-OC test⁷⁴ and poor prognostic breast cancer, i.e., the WIDTM-BC test.⁷⁵ The
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30 314 WIDTM-OC test was developed in order to identify/predict women with ovarian cancer, the majority
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32 315 of which arises from Müllerian Duct structures.⁷⁶ In line with the idea of an epigenetic field defect
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34 316 is the observation that the WIDTM-OC test, which does not rely on the presence of tumour DNA in
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37 317 the sample, is able to identify endometrial cancer cases with a Receiver Operating Characteristic
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39 318 Area Under the Curve of 0.81 in samples with no detectable endometrial cancer DNA.⁷⁴ Finally, our
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41 319 yet unpublished data demonstrate that DNAm signatures can both detect and predict the future risk
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44 320 of cervical and endometrial cancer.

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48 322 Aligned with the view that the cervical epithelial cells are able to capture and integrate risk factors
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50 323 at the level of the epigenome is the recent observation that the relative epithelial age (REA)
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52 324 assessed in cervical smear samples using the WID-REA test⁷⁷ allows the effects of hormones (i.e.,
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55 325 combined replacement therapy) and anti-hormones (i.e. mifepristone) to be monitored. Modulation
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57 326 of the relative epithelial age is associated with the disease risk of organs distant to the cervix.
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4 328 Cervical samples are likely to remain an essential component of screening in the post-HPV
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7 329 vaccination era. Various technologies (Figure 3) that do not rely on morphological assessments of
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9 330 cells, utilise self-samples and are able identify women at risk of developing cervical as well as other
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11 331 prevalent or fatal cancers for which primary or secondary preventive measures are available, and
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14 332 can be implemented in the next 5-10 years.
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17 334 **Conclusions**

18 335 In the post-HPV vaccination era, the predictive values of currently used screening tests are
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21 336 declining as both cytology testing and broad HPV testing will continue to test positive for lesions
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25 337 with non-vaccine HPV types with limited or even no oncogenic potential. Although the use of
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27 338 extended HPV genotyping that can focus on the most oncogenic HPV types may be helpful, DNA
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30 339 methylation can now provide an objective progression marker that can assist in predicting which
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32 340 lesions represent true precursors. This will be crucial for maintaining an acceptable balance between
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34 341 benefits and harms (sensitivity and specificity) of the screening. The fact that cervical cancer
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36 342 elimination is in sight does not imply that the cervical screening is about to be cancelled. On the
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39 343 contrary, building on the effective, high attendance cervical screening program for assessing the
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41 344 risk also of additional cancer forms using methylation markers could open a new and innovative
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43 345 way for cancer prevention,
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Author contributions

The work reported in the paper has been performed by the authors, unless clearly specified in the text. Introduction (ML), Evolutionary repercussion (VP), Understanding test performace (ME-Z), Methylation of HPV genes (BN, KL), Methylation of cellular genes (LV, DH), Utilising DName in cervical samples (MW), Summary (ML), Conclusions (JD)

Conflicts of Interest

ML, VP, BN, KL, LV and JD have no conflicts of interest to declare.

MZ holds a patent related to the discovery "DNA methylation markers for early detection of cervical cancer" registered at the Office of Iand Partnerships, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada (October 2018).

DAMH is minority shareholder of Self-screen B.V., a spin-off company of VUmc; Self-screen B.V. develops, manufactures and licenses high-risk HPV and methylation marker assays for cervical cancer screening and hold patents of these tests.

MW is a shareholder of Sola Diagnostics GmbH, which holds an exclusive licence to the intellectual property that protects the commercialization of the WID-tests.

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Legends for the figures

Figure 1. Community-level human papillomavirus (HPV) prevalence distribution visualized using ecological β -diversity analysis⁷⁸ among young, 18-year-old (18yrs) women four years after community-randomized gender-neutral (A) or girls-only (B) HPV vaccination, and control communities where hepatitis B-virus vaccination was implemented (C). Arm A/B communities cluster separately from the control arm C communities mostly due to depletion of vaccine-targeted HPV types 16/18/31/45 in the intervention A and B communities but also due to differential clustering driven by the not vaccine-targeted HPV types such as 51/58/59.

White dots represent HPV type community-level prevalence distribution in two dimensions of the dissimilarity matrix with the blue (A), yellow (C) and grey (C) dots representing each of the eleven communities in each trial arm. The elliptic circles represent the overall diversity among the gender-neutral (A) or girls-only (B) HPV vaccinated and control (C) communities, respectively.

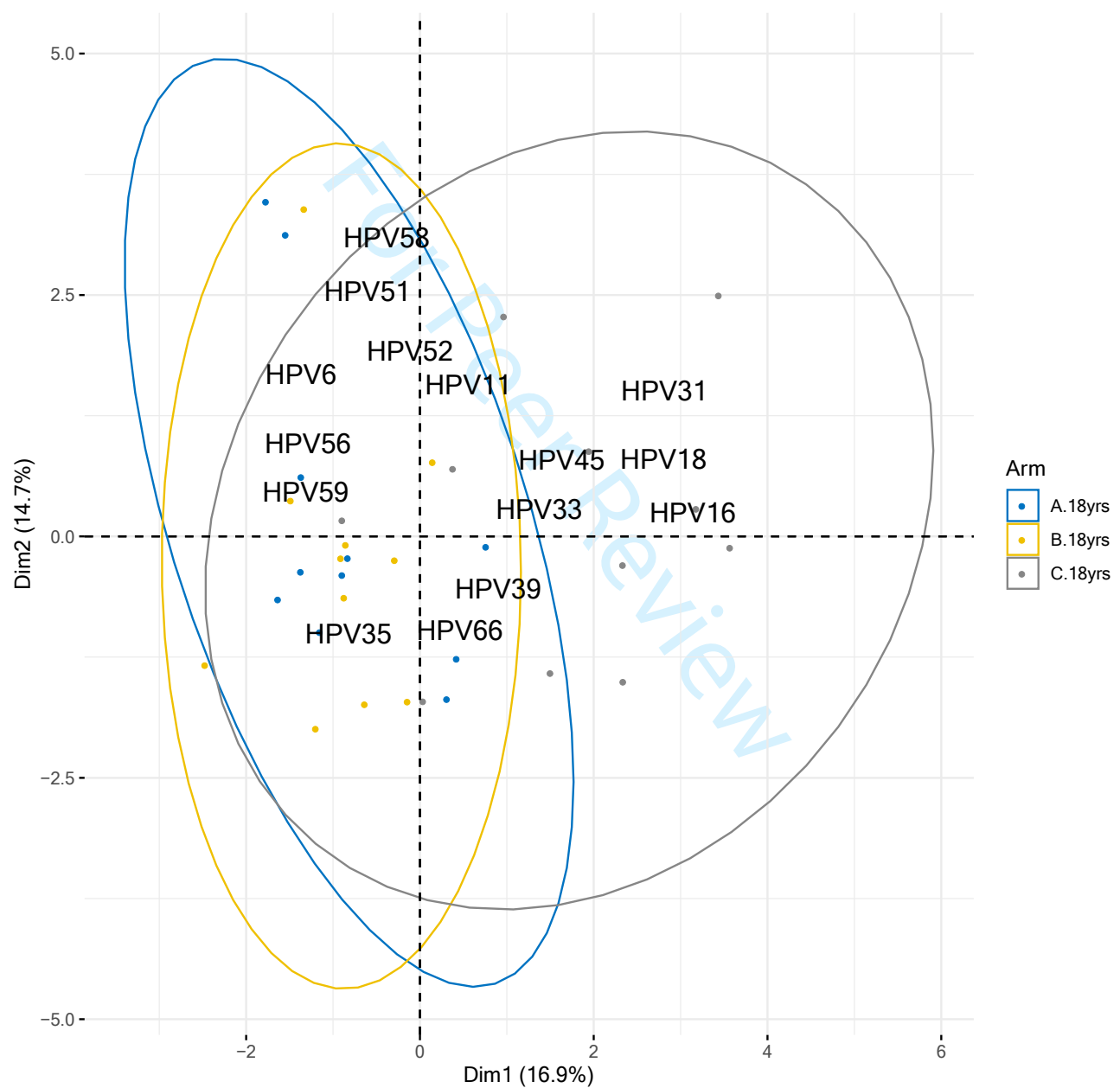
Original HPV prevalence data has been previously described by Gray et al. 2019²⁰ and Louvanto et al. 2020⁶.

Figure 2. Finnish community and individually –randomized trial cohorts with population-based, country-wide human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination and cervical screening of 1992-1995 birth cohorts since 2007.

Figure 3. Utilising DNA methylation signatures in easy to access epithelial cell containing cervical smear samples to predict the risk of (screen) all four women cancers.

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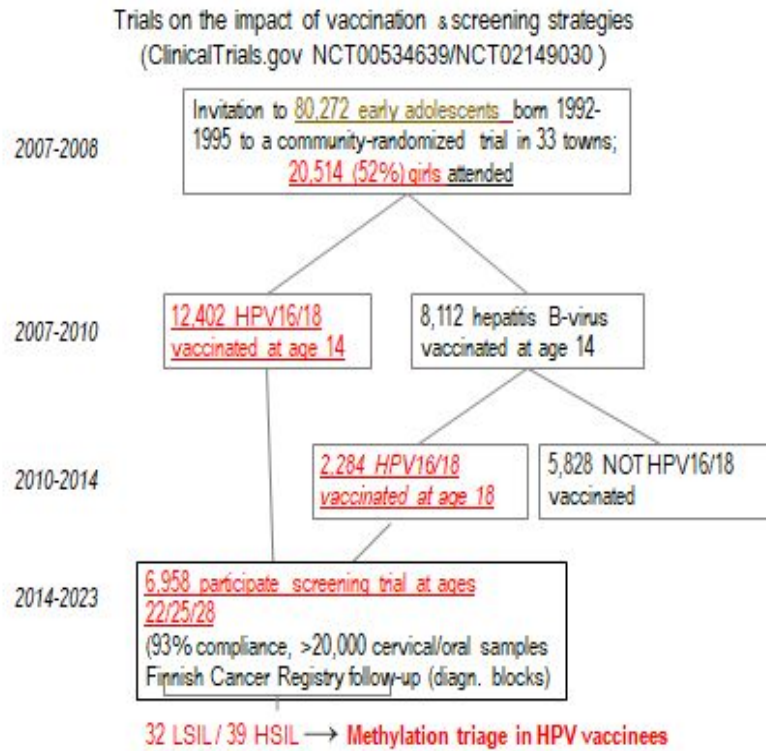
Figure 1.



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For Peer Review

748 **Figure 2.**

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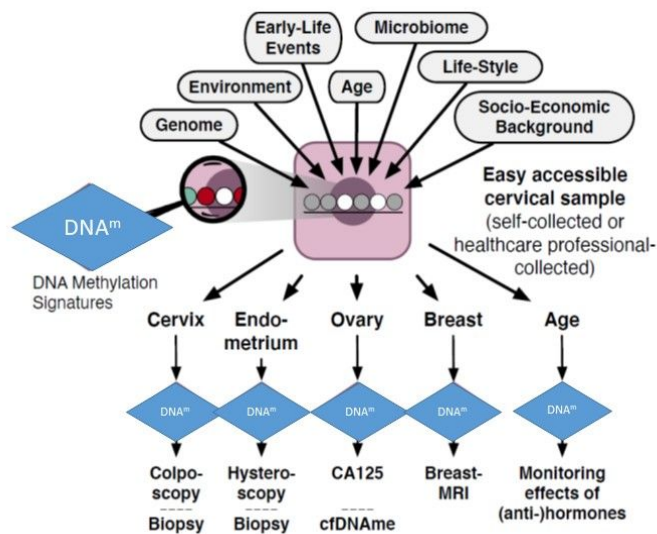
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764 **Figure 3.**



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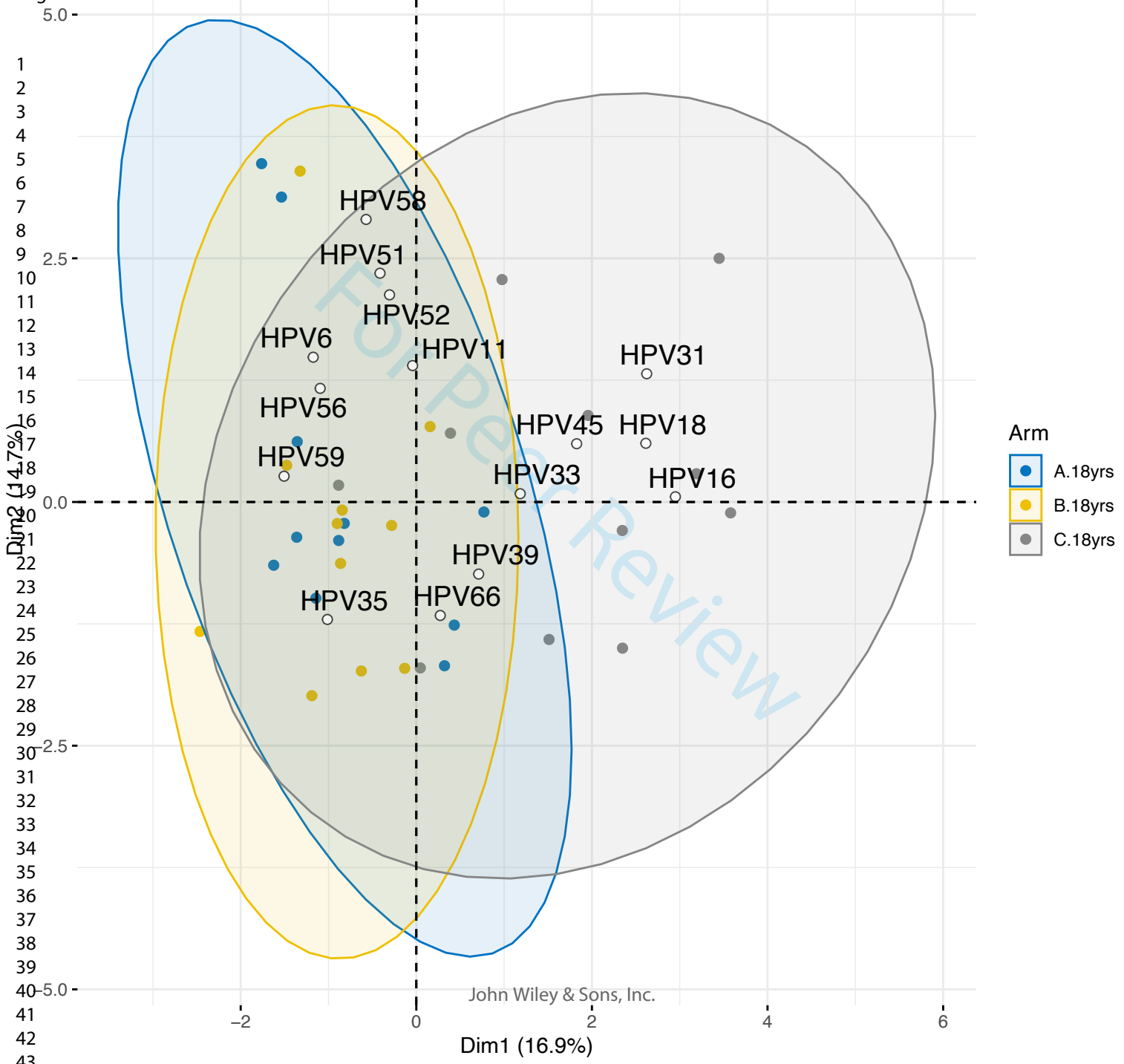
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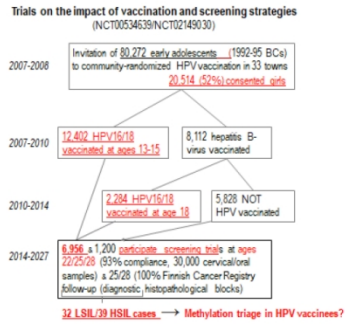


Figure 2. Finnish community and individually –randomized trial cohorts with population-based, country-wide human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination and cervical screening of 1992-1995 birth cohorts since 2007.

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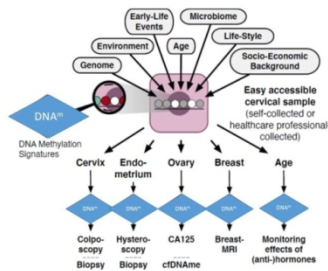


Figure 3. Utilising DNA methylation signatures in easy to access hormone-sensitive epithelial cell containing cervical smear samples to predict the risk of (screen) all four women cancers, and monitor the efficacy and safety of hormones and anti-hormones.

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