

# Cervical Precancer and Cancer Risk by Human Papillomavirus Status and Cytologic Interpretation: Implications for Risk-Based Management

Philip E. Castle<sup>1,2</sup>, Shagufta Aslam<sup>3</sup>, and Catherine Behrens<sup>3</sup>

## Abstract

**Background:** Cervical cancer risks, estimated by using cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade 3 (CIN3) or more severe diagnoses ( $\geq$ CIN3) endpoints, have not been quantified for different combinations of results from currently approved screening methods. Understanding these risks will guide optimal patient management.

**Methods:** Women aged  $\geq 25$  years ( $n = 7,823$ ) underwent high-risk human papillomavirus (hrHPV) and liquid-based cytology (LBC) testing. Women with hrHPV-positive results and/or abnormal LBC, plus a random subset of hrHPV and LBC negatives, underwent colposcopy; those without  $\geq$ CIN2 at baseline were screened annually by LBC and referred to colposcopy for an abnormal LBC ( $n = 7,392$ ). One- and 3-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risks with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) were calculated for paired hrHPV and LBC (hrHPV/LBC) results.

**Results:** One-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risks ranged from 81.27% (95% CI, 66.02%–90.65%) for HPV16 positive/high-grade to 0.33% (95% CI, 0.18%–0.62%) for hrHPV negative/negative for intraepithelial lesion or malignancy (NILM). One-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk for

HPV16/NILM (13.95%; 95% CI, 10.98%–17.58%) was greater than low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (LSIL; 7.90%; 95% CI, 5.99%–10.37%;  $P = 0.002$ ) and similar to hrHPV-positive/LSIL (11.45%; 95% CI, 8.61%–15.07%;  $P = 0.3$ ). Three-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risks for HPV16 positive/LSIL and HPV16/atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance was 24.79% (95% CI, 16.44%–35.58%) and 24.36% (95% CI, 15.86%–35.50%), respectively, and 0.72% (95% CI, 0.45%–1.14%) for hrHPV negative/NILM.

**Conclusions:** hrHPV and LBC results stratify cervical cancer risk by more than two orders of magnitude. HPV16-positive women, regardless of the LBC result, warrant immediate colposcopy. Women with concurrent HPV16 and high-grade LBC might consider treatment without a confirmatory biopsy with informed decision-making with their provider.

**Impact:** These results provide relevant benchmarks for risk-based cervical cancer screening and management. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*; 25(12): 1595–9. ©2016 AACR.

## Introduction

New cervical cancer screening guidelines and recommendations (1, 2) incorporate high-risk human papillomavirus (hrHPV) testing, thereby taking advantage of the excellent reassurance against cervical precancer [i.e., cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade 2 (CIN2), grade 3 (CIN3), and adenocarcinoma *in situ* (AIS)] and invasive cervical cancer that a hrHPV-negative test provides (3). Management of screen positives (1, 4) depends on the specific screening modality (cytology and/or hrHPV testing) and whether the hrHPV test includes separate detection of HPV16 and HPV18 or HPV18 and HPV45 combined ("partial HPV

genotyping"). However, exact risks for each screening combination are not well documented over sufficient follow-up to account for diagnostic inaccuracies. Previous studies have relied on research HPV assays and sampling and do not reflect current practice using FDA-approved assays. For example, data from the Portland Kaiser cohort relied on combining data from two research use-only assays conducted on cervicovaginal lavage (5, 6), none of which are in clinical practice now. In addition, although data from Kaiser Permanente Northern California (KPNC) have contributed greatly to current screening and management guidelines (4), currently, there are no partial HPV genotyping data available from KPNC. We therefore report the 1- and 3-year cumulative risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 (CIN3, AIS, or cervical cancer) and  $\geq$ CIN2 (CIN2 or  $\geq$ CIN3) of women aged  $\geq 25$  years participating in the follow-up phase of ATHENA.

## Materials and Methods

The study methods and description of the population have been reported in detail elsewhere (7). The Institutional Review Boards of all participating clinical sites and institutions approved the study. All participants provided written informed consent.

Briefly, after providing a brief medical history, participants underwent a pelvic exam during which a cervical sample was collected and placed into a PreservCyt vial (Hologic, Inc.). Prior to

<sup>1</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Population Health, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, New York. <sup>2</sup>Global Coalition Against Cervical Cancer, Arlington, Virginia. <sup>3</sup>Roche Molecular Systems, Pleasanton, California.

**Note:** Supplementary data for this article are available at Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention Online (<http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/>).

**Corresponding Author:** Philip E. Castle, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 4318 South 8th St., Arlington, VA 22204. Phone: 703-772-0611; Fax: 888-444-6597; E-mail: [philip.castle@einstein.yu.edu](mailto:philip.castle@einstein.yu.edu)

**doi:** 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-16-0330

©2016 American Association for Cancer Research.

processing for liquid-based cytology (LBC; ThinPrep; Hologic), a 4-mL PreservCyt aliquot was removed for hrHPV testing using the analytically sensitive research HPV tests AMPLICOR and LINEAR ARRAY HPV Genotyping Test as well as the cobas HPV Test (Roche Molecular Systems). The cobas HPV Test provides three positive/negative results in three channels: HPV16, HPV18, and a pool of 12 other hrHPV genotypes. A fourth channel provides a read-out for  $\beta$ -globin as an internal control for the presence of human DNA (7). LBC results were reported as high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (HSIL), atypical squamous cells cannot rule out HSIL (ASC-H), atypical glandular cells (AGC) of unknown significance (AGUS), low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (LSIL), atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASC-US), and negative for intraepithelial lesion or malignancy (NILM) (8). All women who had an abnormal LBC [ASC-US or worse ( $\geq$ ASC-US)] and/or tested hrHPV positive by AMPLICOR or LINEAR ARRAY underwent colposcopy with biopsy and, in some patients, endocervical curettage (ECC) within 12 weeks of the initial visit; a subgroup of women with both hrHPV and LBC-negative results was also randomly selected for colposcopy. Colposcopists and patients were masked to the screening test results until after the colposcopy visit. A panel of three pathologists reviewed the biopsies and ECCs masked to patient information and screening test results (7).

These analyses included 7,823 women, including the 431 women diagnosed with  $\geq$ CIN2 at baseline and were exited from the study. Women who underwent colposcopy in the baseline phase and did not have  $\geq$ CIN2 were eligible for the 3-year follow-up phase ( $n = 7,392$ ) as described previously (7). Women in the follow-up phase were screened annually by cervical cytology and hrHPV testing as performed by their clinic. Women with abnormal cytology ( $\geq$ ASC-US) were referred to colposcopy with biopsy and/or ECC according to the same protocol utilized during the baseline phase. Women found to have a diagnosis of  $\geq$ CIN2 in follow-up were exited from the study. At year 3, patients were invited to have an "exit colposcopy" according to the same protocol at baseline and follow-up. Women who declined the exit colposcopy (319/4,663, 6.8%) had a cervical specimen collected for LBC and hrHPV testing.

We combined HSIL, ASC-H, or AGC/AGUS into a single "high-grade" LBC category due to small numbers of each. Conservatively, we did not calculate the corresponding 3-year risks for women with high-grade LBC due to the expected low numbers of these women returning for follow-up, resulting in unreliable estimates. hrHPV test results were classified positive and negative for hrHPV and hierarchically according to cancer risk (9): HPV16 positive, else HPV16 negative and HPV18 positive, else HPV16 and HPV18 negative and positive for the pool of 12 other hrHPV types, or hrHPV negative. Paired hrHPV and LBC test results are reported here using a convention of "hrHPV result/LBC result."

Cumulative incidence risk (CIR) over 1 or 3 years for the entire cohort of 7,823 was estimated using Kaplan-Meier method. That is, CIR represented baseline risk in the 431 women diagnosed with  $\geq$ CIN2 at baseline and the cumulative detection of disease after baseline over 1 and 3 years of follow-up for the 7,392 women who did not have  $\geq$ CIN2 at baseline. Approximate pointwise confidence intervals (CI) were computed as in the work of Meeker and Escobar (10). Results were confirmed using Weibull models as described previously (data not shown; ref. 11).

## Results

Over the 3-year follow-up (Supplementary Table S1), 347 women were diagnosed with  $\geq$ CIN3, of which 167 (48.1%) were hrHPV and LBC positive, 146 (42.1%) were hrHPV positive only, 16 (4.6%) were LBC positive only, and 18 (5.2%) were hrHPV and LBC negative at baseline. Among the 347  $\geq$ CIN3 cases, 73 (21.0%) were diagnosed in follow-up, of which at baseline 34 (46.6%) were hrHPV and LBC positive, 27 (37.0%) were hrHPV positive only, 3 (4.1%) were LBC positive only, and 9 (12.3%) were hrHPV and LBC negative. A diagnosis of  $\geq$ CIN2 was made in 587 women, of which 252 (42.9%) were hrHPV and LBC positive, 252 (42.9%) were hrHPV positive only, 33 (5.6%) were LBC positive only, and 50 (8.5%) were hrHPV and LBC negative at baseline. Of the 587  $\geq$ CIN3 cases, 156 (26.6%) were diagnosed in follow-up, of which 52 (33.3%) were hrHPV and LBC positive, 72 (46.2%) were hrHPV positive only, 11 (7.1%) were LBC positive only, and 21 (13.5%) were hrHPV negative and LBC negative at baseline.

Table 1 shows the 1-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 and  $\geq$ CIN2. One-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risks ranged from lows of 0.31% (95% CI, 0.10%–0.96%) for women with hrHPV negative/ASC-US and 0.33% (95% CI, 0.18%–0.62%) for women with hrHPV negative/NILM to a high of 81.27% (95% CI, 66.02%–90.65%) for women with HPV16 positive/high-grade. Women with HPV16 positive/NILM (13.95%, 95% CI, 10.98%–17.58%) had a greater 1-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk than LSIL (7.90%; 95% CI, 5.99%–10.37%;  $P = 0.002$ ), a benchmark for referral to colposcopy (4), and had a comparable 1-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk to hrHPV positive/LSIL (11.45%; 95% CI, 8.61%–15.07%;  $P = 0.3$ ). In comparison, the 1-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk for hrHPV negative/LSIL was 1.35% (95% CI, 0.43%–4.09%).

The 1-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk for HPV18 positives (10.28%) was comparable with LSIL (7.90%;  $P = 0.25$ ) and was 2-fold higher than those positive for the 12 other hrHPV types (4.83%;  $P < 0.001$ ). However, the 1-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk for HPV18 positive/NILM (4.8%) was nonsignificantly less than for LSIL ( $P = 0.15$ ).

Table 2 shows the 3-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 and  $\geq$ CIN2. The 3-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risks ranged from a low of 0.72% (95% CI, 0.45%–1.14%) for hrHPV negative/NILM and 0.46% (95% CI, 0.17%–1.23%) for HPV negative/ASC-US to a high of 24.79% (95% CI, 16.44%–35.58%) for HPV16 positive/LSIL. Women with HPV16 positive/NILM (17.43%, 95% CI, 13.90%–21.63%) had a greater 3-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk than LSIL (8.67%; 95% CI, 6.61%–11.29%;  $P < 0.001$ ) and marginally greater 3-year  $\geq$ CIN3 risk than hrHPV positive/LSIL (12.28%; 95% CI, 9.28%–16.08%). One- and 3-year  $\geq$ CIN2 risks showed similar patterns of risk stratification by HPV and LBC testing results as the  $\geq$ CIN3 risks.

## Discussion

In the largest U.S. clinical trial of hrHPV testing to date, we demonstrated that routine, clinically available data from hrHPV testing with partial HPV genotyping and LBC can effectively stratify the population for cervical cancer risk, as best represented by  $\geq$ CIN3, by more than two orders of magnitude. hrHPV testing identifies a larger group of women with or at risk of  $\geq$ CIN3 than LBC alone, and hrHPV and LBC "cotesting" identifies only a small additional group (~5%) of women with or at risk of  $\geq$ CIN3 compared with hrHPV testing

**Table 1.** One-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN2 and  $\geq$ CIN3 by pairwise combinations of hrHPV and LBC test results

Baseline cobas testing result <sup>b</sup>	Diagnosis	Baseline LBC result										All	
		HSIL <sup>a</sup>		LSIL		ASC-US		NILM					
		n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)
All hrHPV positive	≥CIN3	131	63.79 (53.91-72.63)	433	11.45 (8.61-15.07)	376	11.39 (8.44-15.21)	2,562	5.19 (4.38-6.13)	3,502	8.64 (7.73-9.64)		
	≥CIN2		71.37 (62.16-79.10)		21.84 (18.04-26.18)		16.98 (13.41-21.26)		8.61 (7.56-9.78)		13.38 (12.26-14.58)		
HPV16 positive	≥CIN3	69	81.27 (66.02-90.65)	99	22.87 (15.04-33.18)	85	22.87 (15.04-33.18)	440	13.95 (10.98-17.58)	693	21.99 (18.96-25.34)		
	≥CIN2		83.33 (69.45-91.67)		37.85 (28.38-48.34)		30.88 (21.93-41.54)		18.42 (15.01-22.39)		28.56 (25.24-32.13)		
HPV18 positive	≥CIN3	15	66.67 (40.60-85.40)	33	12.73 (4.83-29.53)	36	14.00 (5.30-32.12)	189	4.76 (2.50-8.90)	273	10.28 (7.13-14.61)		
	≥CIN2		73.33 (46.69-89.62)		15.78 (6.69-32.89)		17.74 (7.52-36.37)		9.50 (5.97-14.80)		14.73 (10.88-19.64)		
12 other hrHPV positive	≥CIN3	47	42.13 (27.78-57.94)	301	7.60 (4.97-11.46)	255	7.46 (4.73-11.57)	1,933	3.23 (2.52-4.14)	2,536	4.83 (4.05-5.77)		
	≥CIN2		56.91 (41.54-71.06)		17.20 (13.20-22.10)		12.32 (8.73-17.12)		6.29 (5.27-7.49)		9.08 (8.00-10.37)		
hrHPV negative	≥CIN3	56	14.93 (7.59-27.27)	223	1.35 (0.43-4.09)	967	0.31 (0.10-0.96)	3,075 <sup>c</sup>	0.33 (0.18-0.62)	4,321	0.56 (0.38-0.84)		
	≥CIN2		16.67 (8.85-29.16)		3.70 (1.86-7.24)		0.85 (0.42-1.69)		1.14 (0.81-1.59)		1.40 (1.09-1.81)		
All	≥CIN3	187	48.22 (40.56-55.97)	656	7.90 (5.99-10.37)	1,343	3.34 (2.48-4.48)	5,634	2.53 (2.15-2.98)	7,823	4.15 (3.73-4.63)		
	≥CIN2		54.55 (46.92-61.96)		15.60 (12.93-18.70)		5.31 (4.21-6.68)		4.52 (4.00-5.11)		6.74 (6.19-7.33)		

NOTE: A total of 7,823 women, those censored at baseline because of  $\geq$ CIN2 diagnosis ( $n = 431$ ) plus those without CIN2 who entered the 3-year follow-up phase of the study ( $n = 7,392$ ), were included in these analyses. Absolute risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 and  $\geq$ CIN2 for each combination of Pap and HPV test results for each year was calculated as the proportion of women with  $\geq$ CIN3 or  $\geq$ CIN2 diagnoses, respectively, among the number of women at risk for that year.

<sup>a</sup>HSIL, ASC-H, or AGC/atypical glandular cells of undetermined significance.

<sup>b</sup>hrHPV testing results were ranked hierarchically according to cancer risk (HPV16 positive, else HPV16 negative and HPV18 positive, else HPV16 negative and HPV18 negative and positive for the pool of 12 other hrHPV types, or hrHPV negative; ref. 9).

<sup>c</sup>Random sample of all women with hrHPV negative and NILM LBC.

alone. Women with hrHPV negative/ASC-US or hrHPV negative/NILM were at the lowest and similar risks, again raising the question of the appropriate follow-up of hrHPV-negative/ASC-US women (1, 4, 12).

Among women with NILM, HPV18-positive women did not have sufficient risk to warrant colposcopy based on current benchmarks of risk (4) and were not distinguishable from the risk for women testing positive for the pool of the 12 other hrHPV. The apparent contradiction between these and other results (13) for HPV18-positive  $\geq$ CIN3 risks and the overwhelming evidence that HPV18 is the second leading cause of cervical cancer after HPV16 (9) may be the result of difficulties in identifying HPV18-related CIN3, as has been previously discussed (14). It is worth noting that HPV18 is an equally important cause as HPV16 of cervical adenocarcinoma (9), which is on the rise in most western countries (15). This is presumably due to the increased exposure to HPV several decades ago (16) and poorer detection of the precursors of cervical adenocarcinoma than squamous cell carcinoma by cytology (11). Given the importance of identifying women at risk for invasive cervical cancer ultimately to prevent it, we suggest that separate HPV18 detection is useful despite its comparable  $\geq$ CIN3 risk with the other 12 hrHPV types in aggregate as HPV18-positive CIN3 must be a more important cause of cervical cancer than CIN3 caused by the 12 other hrHPV types individually (17).

Women with HPV16, regardless of cytologic result, resulted in  $\geq$ CIN3 risks ( $\geq 13.95\%$  and  $\geq 17.93\%$  1- and 3-year, respectively) that exceed the  $\geq$ CIN3 risk for women with LSIL cytology unqualified by HPV status (7.90% and 8.67% 1- and 3-year, respectively). LSIL has been the traditional risk threshold for referral to colposcopy in the United States (4, 18, 19) and, therefore, is considered the benchmark for colposcopic referral (20). In the era of HPV and Pap cotesting, it is preferred that only hrHPV-positive LSIL women are sent to colposcopy. The 3-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 for HPV16 positive/NILM were marginally greater than that of hrHPV-positive/LSIL. Thus, a woman with a HPV16-positive result could be referred to colposcopy immediately without waiting for the cytology results. This confirms the previous longitudinal results (5, 6, 21).

Women with HPV16 positive/high-grade were at the highest risk and had a very high probability of  $\geq$ CIN3 within a few years; although we could not estimate the risk after one year, additional women did return with CIN3 and CIN2 (data not shown), suggesting that the risk approaches unity. Given the imperfect sensitivity of colposcopically directed biopsies as typically practiced (22), women with HPV16-positive/high-grade cytology, especially those with HPV16-positive HSIL, might undergo excisional treatment without confirmatory biopsy for the  $\geq$ CIN3 that almost certainly is there. Given the 1-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 for HPV16 positive/high-grade is almost twice that of high-grade LBC (81.27% vs. 48.22%, respectively), it is reasonable to expect that HPV16 positive/HSIL is almost twice that of HSIL LBC. Already, women with HSIL unqualified by hrHPV testing results can undergo treatment without confirmatory biopsy of  $\geq$ CIN2 (4).

Such an approach of treating HPV16 positive/high-grade, especially HPV16 positive/HSIL, would reduce losses to follow-up to completing care, health care costs, and financial and psychosocial burdens to the patient with little chance of unnecessary treatment. Yet such a decision would be best done as informed decision with

**Table 2.** Three-year risks of  $\geq$ CIN2 and  $\geq$ CIN3 by pairwise combinations of hrHPV and LBC test results

Baseline cobas testing result <sup>b</sup>	Diagnosis	Baseline LBC result									
		HSIL <sup>a</sup>		LSIL		ASC-US		NILM		All	
		n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)	n	CIR (95% CI)
All hrHPV positive	≥CIN3	Not reported	433	12.28 (9.28–16.08)	376	12.70 (9.50–16.79)	2,562	6.20 (5.28–7.27)	3,502	9.68 (8.69–10.77)	
	≥CIN2			23.67 (19.66–28.22)		19.80 (15.84–24.46)		10.99 (9.74–12.37)		15.75 (14.50–17.08)	
HPV16 positive	≥CIN3		99	24.79 (16.44–35.58)	85	24.36 (15.86–35.50)	440	17.43 (13.90–21.63)	693	25.07 (21.73–28.74)	
	≥CIN2			40.96 (31.02–51.69)		32.86 (23.44–43.89)		23.45 (19.42–28.02)		32.75 (29.11–36.60)	
HPV18 positive	≥CIN3		33	12.73 (4.83–29.53)	36	14.00 (5.30–32.12)	189	5.72 (3.05–10.48)	273	10.97 (7.63–15.53)	
	≥CIN2			15.78 (6.69–32.89)		17.74 (7.52–36.37)		12.09 (7.84–18.19)		17.13 (12.82–22.51)	
12 other hrHPV positive	≥CIN3		301	8.19 (5.40–12.25)	255	8.71 (5.64–13.22)	1,933	3.72 (2.93–4.72)	2,536	5.40 (4.54–6.41)	
	≥CIN2			18.79 (14.53–23.95)		15.88 (11.59–21.37)		8.06 (6.84–9.47)		10.97 (9.73–12.34)	
hrHPV negative	≥CIN3		223	2.01 (0.74–5.31)	967	0.46 (0.17–1.23)	3,073 <sup>c</sup>	0.72 (0.45–1.14)	4,321	0.91 (0.64–1.27)	
	≥CIN2			4.35 (2.26–8.19)		1.90 (1.14–3.16)		1.90 (1.44–2.51)		2.21 (1.78–2.75)	
All	≥CIN3	Not reported	656	8.67 (6.61–11.29)	1,343	3.79 (2.85–5.02)	5,634	3.19 (2.74–3.72)	7,823	4.79 (4.31–5.31)	
	≥CIN2			17.00 (14.17–20.26)		6.84 (5.53–8.43)		6.00 (5.36–6.70)		8.22 (7.60–8.89)	

NOTE: A total of 7,823 women, those censored at baseline because of  $\geq$ CIN2 diagnosis ( $n = 431$ ) plus those without CIN2 who entered the 3-year follow-up phase of the study ( $n = 7,392$ ), were included in these analyses. Absolute risks of  $\geq$ CIN3 and  $\geq$ CIN2 for each combination of Pap and HPV test results for each year was calculated as the proportion of women with  $\geq$ CIN3 or  $\geq$ CIN2 diagnoses, respectively, among the number of women at risk for that year. Calculations for 3-year risks for high-grade LBC for the different category of hrHPV results were not reported because of small numbers of women with high-grade cytology in those HPV categories (5 and 5 for HPV16, 2 and 0 for HPV18, and 11 and 11 for other hrHPV, and 30 and 24 for hrHPV negative for years 2 and 3, respectively) returning after one year.

<sup>a</sup>HSIL, ASC-H, or AGC/atypical glandular cells of undetermined significance.

<sup>b</sup>hrHPV testing results were ranked hierarchically according to cancer risk: (HPV16 positive, else HPV16 negative and HPV18 positive, else HPV16 and HPV18 negative and positive for the pool of 12 other hrHPV types, or hrHPV negative; ref. 9).

<sup>c</sup>Random sample of all women with hrHPV negative and NILM LBC.

provider, given the possible relationship of excisional treatments and negative reproductive outcomes, including preterm delivery (23–25).

There were a number of limitations in this study that bear mentioning. First, the aggressive colposcopy protocol likely resulted in earlier identification of CIN3 and CIN2, some of the latter of which might have regressed spontaneously in a year or two (26, 27). For that reason, we relied on  $\geq$ CIN3, which is much less regressive, as our primary endpoint. Second, these results need to be replicated given the small numbers and unstable estimates for some of the clinically important combinations of hrHPV testing and cytologic results. Finally, some CIN2 and CIN3 were found by blind biopsy, the clinical significance of which is uncertain. However, a recent study reported that the CIN2/3 biopsies from directed and random biopsies were equally likely to stain positive for p16<sup>INK4a</sup> (28), which suggests that they are biologically similar.

Finally, as previously suggested (29), there is an increasing complexity in cervical cancer screening and management due to the numerous combinations of clinical results as well as the potential for differences in *a priori* risks due to screening and vaccination history and age. In addition, new biomarkers may soon be incorporated into routine clinical practice (30). Although there are only five possible clinical actions based on risk bands, screening, increased surveillance, colposcopy, treatment, and exit screening, there are many combinations that can lead to these risks. A clinical algorithm for every clinically meaningful combination of test or diagnostic results is no longer practical. A risk estimation tool, based on the best available population data to estimate risks accurately, is needed in which the patient information that is available can be quickly and easily entered, preferably directly from the electronic medical records database, and the output is the appropriate clinical management. Although decision support tools exist, including one developed by the American Society for

Colposcopy and Cervical Pathology, the latter is still based fundamentally on clinical algorithms, and it is unknown how well these tools support the general and/or nonacademic busy practitioner whose starting knowledge of current guidelines may be much less than the academician gynecologist. Thus, an important future goal, in addition to improving upon the risk estimation for more personalized management and improved benefits to harms, is a simple, clear, and direct communication of the recommended clinical actions based on the risk to providers and patients to improve compliance.

## Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

P.E. Castle has received speakers bureau honoraria from Cepheid and Roche and is a consultant/advisory board member for Cepheid, ClearPath, GE Healthcare, GenProbe/Hologic, Gentcel, Guided Therapeutics, Inovio, Merck, Roche, and Teva. S. Aslam is the principal biostatistician at Roche. C. Behrens is a senior director (Clinical Research) at Roche Molecular Systems and is a consultant/advisory board member for Antiva Biosciences. No other potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

## Authors' Contributions

Conception and design: P.E. Castle, C. Behrens

Development of methodology: C. Behrens

Acquisition of data (provided animals, acquired and managed patients, provided facilities, etc.): C. Behrens

Analysis and interpretation of data (e.g., statistical analysis, biostatistics, computational analysis): P.E. Castle, S. Aslam, C. Behrens

Writing, review, and/or revision of the manuscript: P.E. Castle, S. Aslam, C. Behrens

Study supervision: C. Behrens

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked *advertisement* in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Received April 24, 2016; revised August 2, 2016; accepted August 23, 2016; published OnlineFirst September 1, 2016.

## References

1. Saslow D, Solomon D, Lawson HW, Killackey M, Kulasingam SL, Cain J, et al. American Cancer Society, American Society for Colposcopy and Cervical Pathology, and American Society for Clinical Pathology screening guidelines for the prevention and early detection of cervical cancer. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2012;62:147–72.
2. Huh WK, Ault KA, Chelmow D, Davey DD, Goulart RA, Garcia FA, et al. Use of primary high-risk human papillomavirus testing for cervical cancer screening: interim clinical guidance. *Gynecol Oncol* 2015;136:178–82.
3. Ronco G, Dillner J, Elfstrom KM, Tunesi S, Snijders PJ, Arbyn M, et al. Efficacy of HPV-based screening for prevention of invasive cervical cancer: follow-up of four European randomised controlled trials. *Lancet* 2014;383:524–32.
4. Massad LS, Einstein MH, Huh WK, Katki HA, Kinney WK, Schiffman M, et al. 2012 updated consensus guidelines for the management of abnormal cervical cancer screening tests and cancer precursors. *J Low Genit Tract Dis* 2013;17(5 Suppl 1):S1–S27.
5. Khan MJ, Castle PE, Lorincz AT, Wacholder S, Sherman M, Scott DR, et al. The elevated 10-year risk of cervical precancer and cancer in women with human papillomavirus (HPV) type 16 or 18 and the possible utility of type-specific HPV testing in clinical practice. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2005;97:1072–9.
6. Castle PE, Glass AG, Rush BB, Scott DR, Wentzensen N, Gage JC, et al. Clinical human papillomavirus detection forecasts cervical cancer risk in women over 18 years of follow-up. *J Clin Oncol* 2012;30:3044–50.
7. Wright TC Jr, Stoler MH, Behrens CM, Apple R, Derion T, Wright TL. The ATHENA human papillomavirus study: design, methods, and baseline results. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2012;206:46.
8. Solomon D, Davey D, Kurman R, Moriarty A, O'Connor D, Prey M, et al. The 2001 Bethesda System: terminology for reporting results of cervical cytology. *JAMA* 2002;287:2114–9.
9. Guan P, Howell-Jones R, Li N, Bruni L, de SS, Franceschi S, et al. Human papillomavirus types in 115,789 HPV-positive women: a meta-analysis from cervical infection to cancer. *Int J Cancer* 2012;131:2349–59.
10. Meeker WQ, Escobar LA. Statistical methods for reliability data. New York, NY: John Wiley and Son; 1998.
11. Katki HA, Kinney WK, Fetterman B, Lorey T, Poitras NE, Cheung L, et al. Cervical cancer risk for women undergoing concurrent testing for human papillomavirus and cervical cytology: a population-based study in routine clinical practice. *Lancet Oncol* 2011;12:663–72.
12. Smith RA, Manassaram-Baptiste D, Brooks D, Doroshenko M, Fedewa S, Saslow D, et al. Cancer screening in the United States, 2015: a review of current American cancer society guidelines and current issues in cancer screening. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2015;65:30–54.
13. Thomsen LT, Frederiksen K, Munk C, Junge J, Iftner T, Kjaer SK. Long-term risk of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade 3 or worse according to high-risk human papillomavirus genotype and semi-quantitative viral load among 33,288 women with normal cervical cytology. *Int J Cancer* 2015;137:193–203.
14. Safaiean M, Schiffman M, Gage J, Solomon D, Wheeler CM, Castle PE. Detection of precancerous cervical lesions is differential by human papillomavirus type. *Cancer Res* 2009;69:3262–6.
15. Bray F, Carstensen B, Moller H, Zappa M, Zakelj MP, Lawrence G, et al. Incidence trends of adenocarcinoma of the cervix in 13 European countries. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2005;14:2191–9.
16. Vaccarella S, Franceschi S, Engholm G, Lonnberg S, Khan S, Bray F. 50 years of screening in the Nordic countries: quantifying the effects on cervical cancer incidence. *Br J Cancer* 2014;111:965–9.
17. Guan P, Howell-Jones R, Li N, Bruni L, de Sanjosé S, Franceschi S, Clifford GM. Human papillomavirus types in 115,789 HPV-positive women: a meta-analysis from cervical infection to cancer. *Int J Cancer*. 2012 Nov 15;131:2349–59. doi: 10.1002/ijc.27485. Epub 2012 Mar 20.
18. Wright TC Jr, Cox JT, Massad LS, Twiggs LB, Wilkinson EJ. 2001 Consensus Guidelines for the management of women with cervical cytological abnormalities. *JAMA* 2002;287:2120–9.
19. Wright TC Jr, Massad LS, Dunton CJ, Spitzer M, Wilkinson EJ, Solomon D. 2006 consensus guidelines for the management of women with abnormal cervical cancer screening tests. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2007;197:346–55.
20. Katki HA, Schiffman M, Castle PE, Fetterman B, Poitras NE, Lorey T, et al. Benchmarking CIN 3+ risk as the basis for incorporating HPV and Pap cotesting into cervical screening and management guidelines. *J Low Genit Tract Dis* 2013;17:S28–35.
21. Wheeler CM, Hunt WC, Cuzick J, Langsfeld E, Robertson M, Castle PE. The influence of type-specific human papillomavirus infections on the detection of cervical precancer and cancer: A population-based study of opportunistic cervical screening in the United States. *Int J Cancer* 2014;135:624–34.
22. Jeronimo J, Schiffman M. Colposcopy at a crossroads. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2006;195:349–53.
23. Kyrgiou M, Koliopoulos G, Martin-Hirsch P, Arbyn M, Prendiville W, Paraskevaidis E. Obstetric outcomes after conservative treatment for intraepithelial or early invasive cervical lesions: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet* 2006;367:489–98.
24. Castanon A, Landy R, Brocklehurst P, Evans H, Peebles D, Singh N, et al. Risk of preterm delivery with increasing depth of excision for cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in England: nested case-control study. *BMJ* 2014;349:g6223.
25. Castanon A, Landy R, Kyrgiou M, Kitchener H, Quigley M, et al. Risk of preterm birth following surgical treatment for cervical disease: executive summary of a recent symposium. *BJOG* 2016;123:1426–9.
26. Trimble CL, Piantadosi S, Gravitt P, Ronnett B, Pizer E, Elko A, et al. Spontaneous regression of high-grade cervical dysplasia: effects of human papillomavirus type and HLA phenotype. *Clin Cancer Res* 2005;11:4717–23.
27. Castle PE, Schiffman M, Wheeler CM, Solomon D. Evidence for frequent regression of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia-grade 2. *Obstet Gynecol* 2009;113:18–25.
28. Arvizo C, Chen Q, Du H, Wang C, Tang J, Yang B, et al. p16 Immunohistochemistry in colposcope-directed and random cervical biopsies of CIN2 and CIN3. *J Low Genit Tract Dis* 2016;20:197–200.
29. Castle PE, Sideri M, Jeronimo J, Solomon D, Schiffman M. Risk assessment to guide the prevention of cervical cancer. *J Low Genit Tract Dis* 2008;12:1–7.
30. Wentzensen N, Fetterman B, Castle PE, Schiffman M, Wood SN, Stiemerling E, et al. p16/Ki-67 dual stain cytology for detection of cervical precancer in HPV-positive women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2015;107:djv257.