# **UCSF**

# **UC San Francisco Previously Published Works**

### **Title**

Incidence and Clearance of Anal Human Papillomavirus Infection in 16 164 Individuals, According to Human Immunodeficiency Virus Status, Sex, and Male Sexuality: An International Pooled Analysis of 34 Longitudinal Studies.

# **Permalink**

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8445x6cw

# Journal

Clinical Infectious Diseases, 76(3)

### **ISSN**

1058-4838

### **Authors**

Wei, Feixue Goodman, Marc T Xia, Ningshao et al.

### **Publication Date**

2023-02-08

### DOI

10.1093/cid/ciac581

Peer reviewed

# MAJOR ARTICLE







# Incidence and Clearance of Anal Human Papillomavirus Infection in 16 164 Individuals, According to Human Immunodeficiency Virus Status, Sex, and Male Sexuality: An International Pooled Analysis of 34 Longitudinal Studies

Feixue Wei,<sup>1,©</sup> Marc T. Goodman,<sup>2</sup> Ningshao Xia,<sup>3,©</sup> Jun Zhang,<sup>3,©</sup> Anna R. Giuliano,<sup>4</sup> Gypsyamber D'Souza,<sup>5</sup> Nancy A. Hessol,<sup>6</sup> Maarten F. Schim van der Loeff,<sup>7</sup> Jianghong Dai,<sup>8</sup> Karin Neukam,<sup>9,©</sup> Alexandra de Pokomandy,<sup>10</sup> I. Mary Poynten,<sup>11</sup> Ronald B. Geskus,<sup>12,13</sup> Joaquin Burgos,<sup>14,15</sup> Isabelle Etienney,<sup>16</sup> Anna-Barbara Moscicki,<sup>17</sup> Maria Gabriella Donà,<sup>18</sup> Maura L. Gillison,<sup>19</sup> Alan G. Nyitray,<sup>20</sup> Rebecca G. Nowak,<sup>21</sup> Evy Yunihastuti,<sup>22</sup> Huachun Zou,<sup>23,24</sup> Carmen Hidalgo-Tenorio,<sup>25</sup> Nittaya Phanuphak,<sup>26</sup> Jean-Michel Molina,<sup>27</sup> Alice M. Schofield,<sup>28</sup> Stephen Kerr,<sup>29</sup> Song Fan,<sup>30</sup> Yong Lu,<sup>31</sup> Jason J. Ong,<sup>32</sup> Admire T. Chikandiwa,<sup>33</sup> Sirinya Teeraananchai,<sup>34</sup> Nicola Squillace,<sup>35</sup> Dorothy J. Wiley,<sup>36</sup> Joel M. Palefsky,<sup>37</sup> Damien Georges,<sup>1</sup> Catharina J. Alberts,<sup>1</sup> and Gary M. Clifford<sup>1,©</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Early Detection, Prevention and Infections Branch, International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC/WHO), Lyon, France; <sup>2</sup>Cancer Prevention and Control Program, Cedars Cancer, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, California, USA; 3State Key Laboratory of Molecular Vaccinology and Molecular Diagnostics, National Institute of Diagnostics and Vaccine Development in Infectious Diseases, School of Public Health, Xiamen University, Xiamen, Fujian, China; <sup>4</sup>Center for Immunization and Infection Research in Cancer (CIIRC), Moffitt Cancer Center, Tampa, Florida, USA; <sup>5</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA; <sup>6</sup>Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of California San Francisco, California, USA; <sup>7</sup>Department of Infectious Diseases, GGD Amsterdam, Amsterdam, Netherlands; <sup>8</sup>School of Public Health, Xinjiang Medical University, Urumqi, Xinjiang, China; <sup>9</sup>Unidad Clínica de Enfermedades Infecciosas y Medicina Preventiva, UCEIMP, Instituto de Biomedicina de Sevilla, CSIC, Universidad de Sevilla, Hospital Universitario Virgen del Rocío, Seville, Spain; 10 Chronic Viral Illness Service, McGill University Health Centre and Department of Family Medicine, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada; 11 The Kirby Institute, University of New South Wales, Kensington, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia; 12 Oxford University Clinical Research Unit, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam; 13 Centre for Tropical Medicine and Global Health, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK; 14 Infectious Diseases Department, Hospital Universitari Vall d'Hebron, Barcelona, Spain; 15 Vall d'Hebron Institut de Recerca (VHIR), Universitat Autónoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain; 16 Proctology, Diaconesses-Croix Saint Simon Hospital, Paris, France; 17Department of Pediatrics, University of California, Los Angeles, California, USA; 18Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI)/HIV Unit, San Gallicano Dermatological Institute IRCCS, Rome, Italy; 19Thoracic Head and Neck Medical Oncology Department, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas, USA; 20Center for AIDS Intervention Research and Clinical Cancer Center, Medical College of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, USA; 21 Institute of Human Virology, University of Maryland School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA; <sup>22</sup>Faculty of Medicine Universitas Indonesia/Cipto Mangunkusumo Hospital, Jakarta, Indonesia; <sup>23</sup>School of Public Health (Shenzhen), Sun Yat-sen University. Shenzhen, China; 24Kirby Institute, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia; 25Early Clinical Trial Unit. Biosanitary Institute (IBS.Granada). Infectious Diseases Unit. University Hospital Virgen de las Nieves, Granada, Spain; 26 Institute of HIV Research and Innovation, Bangkok, Thailand; 27 Department of Infectious diseases, University of Paris Cité, St-Louis Hospital, Paris, France; 28 Institute of Cancer Sciences, The University of Manchester, Manchester, UK; 29HIV-NAT, Thai Red Cross AIDS Research Centre, and Research Affairs, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand; 30 School of Public Health, Southwest Medical University, Luzhou, China; 31 School of Public Health, the Key Laboratory of Environmental Pollution Monitoring and Disease Control, Ministry of Education, Guizhou Medical University, Guiyang, China; 32 Central Clinical School, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia; 33 Wits RHI, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa; 34Department of Statistics, Faculty of Science, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand; 35Infectious Diseases Unit ASST-Monza, San Gerardo Hospital-University of Milano-Bicocca, Monza, Italy; 36 School of Nursing, University of California, Los Angeles, California, USA; and 37 Department of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, California, USA

*Background.* Understanding the natural history of anal high-risk human papillomavirus (hrHPV) infection is key for designing anal cancer prevention programs but has not been systematically characterized.

Methods. We reanalyzed data from 34 studies including 16 164 individuals in 6 risk groups defined by human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) status, sex, and male sexuality: men who have sex with men (MSM) and people with HIV (MSMWH), HIV-negative MSM, women with HIV (WWH), HIV-negative women, men who have sex with women (MSW) with HIV (MSWWH), and HIV-negative MSW. We used Markov models to estimate incidence and clearance of 13 hrHPV types and their determinants.

Results. Human papillomavirus (HPV) 16 had the highest incidence-clearance ratio of the hrHPV types. MSMWH had the highest hrHPV incidence (eg, 15.5% newly HPV-16 infected within 2 years), followed by HIV-negative MSM (7.5%), WWH (6.6%), HIV-negative women (2.9%), MSWWH (1.7%), and HIV-negative MSW (0.7%). Determinants of HPV-16 incidence included HIV status and number of sexual partners for MSM, women, and MSW, and anal sex behavior for MSM only. HPV-16 clearance was lower for people with HIV (PWH) and lower for prevalent than incident infection. Among MSM, increasing age was associated with lower clearance of prevalent, but not incident, HPV-16 infection.

**Conclusions.** This robust and unifying analysis of anal hrHPV natural history is essential to designing and predicting the impact of HPV vaccination and HPV-based screening programs on anal cancer prevention, particularly in MSM and PWH. Importantly, it demonstrates the higher carcinogenic potential of longstanding anal prevalent hrHPV infection than more recent incident infection.

Keywords. HPV; HIV; anus; incidence; clearance.

Clinical Infectious Diseases® 2023;76(3):e692-e701

© The Author(s) 2022. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved. For permissions, please e-mail: journals.permissions @oup.com

https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciac581

Received 16 May 2022; editorial decision 29 June 2022; published online 23 July 2022 Correspondence: Gary M. Clifford, Early Detection, Prevention and Infections Branch, International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC/WHO), 150 Cours Albert Thomas, 69372 Lyon Cedex 08, France (cliffordg@iarc.who.int).

Of 29 000 high-risk human papillomavirus (hrHPV)—attributable anal squamous cell carcinomas (ASCCs) estimated to be diagnosed worldwide in 2018, 10 000 occur in men and 19 000 in women [1]. ASCC risk is low in the general population (1–2 cases per 100 000 person-years) but is known to be elevated in certain subgroups, such as human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)—negative men who have sex with men (MSM; approximately 20 cases per 100 000 person-years), women with HIV (WWH; approximately 30 cases), men who have sex with women (MSW) with HIV (MSWWH; approximately 30 cases), and especially MSM with HIV (MSMWH; approximately 100 cases) [2].

Anal hrHPV infection is the etiologic agent for ASCC and human papillomavirus (HPV)-16 is the most carcinogenic type among both HIV-negative people and people with HIV (PWH) [3]. Differences in ASCC incidence by risk group are likely driven by variations in the underlying natural history of anal hrHPV (HPV-16) infection, through increased hrHPV (HPV-16) incidence, known to be heavily influenced by sexual behavior [4], or decreased hrHPV (HPV-16) clearance, known to be worsened by immune dysfunction related to HIV infection [5].

Robust estimates of type-specific anal hrHPV incidence and clearance by risk group are essential to designing and predicting the population-wide impact of HPV-based ASCC prevention programs. These programs include primary prevention through HPV vaccination, as well as secondary prevention through, for example, HPV-based screening algorithms, somewhat analogous to cervical cancer screening.

Many longitudinal studies have reported the natural history of anal HPV infection, focusing on specific risk groups (Supplementary Table 1). However, heterogeneity in study design, such as duration and follow-up intervals, differences in analytic definitions of incidence and clearance [6], as well as relatively small sample sizes and number of events, hamper comparisons across risk groups, limiting their applicability to inform risk-targeted ASCC prevention interventions. Thus, we performed a collaborative-pooled reanalysis of individual-level data, underpinned by a statistical method allowing the pooling of data across studies of different duration and follow-up intervals, to provide a unified estimate of anal hrHPV incidence and clearance across risk groups stratified by HIV status, sex, and male sexuality.

### **METHODS**

### Data Collection

We conducted a systematic review on studies reporting on anal HPV incidence or clearance, by searching MEDLINE and Embase for studies published between 1 January 1986 and 31 January 2022, using the search strategy detailed in Supplementary Data 1. Studies were eligible if they used

polymerase chain reaction to detect type-specific anal HPV DNA (at least for HPV-16) at multiple time points. Authors of eligible studies were contacted and invited to share individual-level data on the following variables: (1) HIV status, (2) sex, (3) male sexuality (MSW or MSM), (4) age, and, for each eligible study visit, (5) date and (6) type-specific anal HPV result. Additional variables (cytopathological diagnosis, sexual behavior, smoking, etc) were also shared, if available.

### **Data Analysis**

A 2-state (HPV-negative and HPV-positive) continuous-time Markov model (CTMM) was used to estimate HPV incidence rate (from HPV negative to HPV positive) and clearance rate (from HPV positive to HPV negative) (Supplementary Data 2) [7]. This model was well suited for the pooled analysis, since it allows individuals to switch between the 2 states at any point in time, not only at the time of the visit when HPV was tested. Estimating the constant transmission rate addresses 3 issues: (1) the nature of interval-censored data on HPV status, namely the time of the visit does not capture the exact time of incidence or clearance of an infection; (2) the variability in HPV visit intervals for individuals within studies; and (3) the variability in visit interval protocols across studies. Importantly, clearance rates were estimated separately for infection that was detected at baseline (prevalent infection) or at follow-up visit (incident infection), by generating a covariable "infection type."

We ran separate CTMMs for 13 individual hrHPV types (HPV types 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, and 68) (group 1/2A; International Agency for Research on Cancer) [8], by using HIV status (negative and positive), population (MSM, women, and MSW), age group (<25, 25–34, 35–44, 45–54, or ≥55 years) and infection type (prevalent and incident) as covariables. This allowed postestimation of typespecific incidence and clearance, expressed as events per 1000 person-months, in 6 risk groups (MSMWH, HIV-negative MSM, WWH, HIV-negative women, MSWWH, and HIV-negative MSW), as well as incidence-clearance ratio and mean duration of infection for the 13 hrHPV types.

Other outputs, with a focus on HPV-16, were also estimated. First, hazard ratios of risk factors of HPV-16 incidence and clearance were evaluated. Second, the cumulative probability of HPV-16 incidence and clearance up to 2 years was estimated by 6 risk groups and, for MSM and women, stratified by HIV status and age group. Last, we estimated HPV-16 prevalence among MSM and women at 2 years after baseline, according to HIV status, infection type (as a surrogate for infection duration: prevalent infection equated to infection duration ≥2 years and incident infection to duration <2 years) and, for MSM only, age group. R software (version 4.0.3, http://www.r-project.org, R Core Team 2021) was used for all analyses.

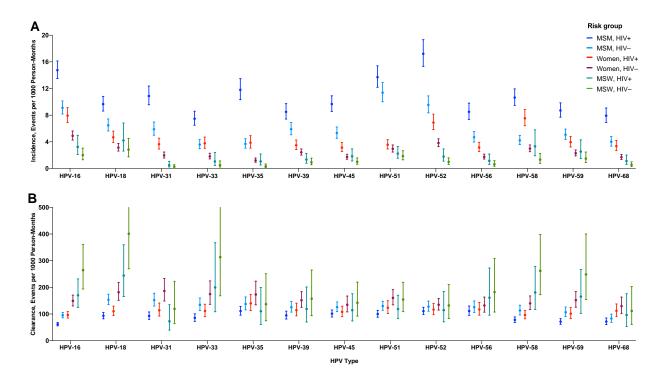


Figure 1. Incidence and clearance of anal type-specific high-risk human papillomavirus (HPV) infection in 6 risk groups. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Abbreviations: HIV+, with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV); HIV-, HIV negative; MSM, men who have sex with men; MSW, men who have sex with women.

### **RESULTS**

The systematic review identified 48 eligible longitudinal studies with 25 238 individuals, of which 34 studies with 21 069 individuals (83.5%) contributed data (Supplementary Figure 1). Among the 21 069 individuals, 16 164 (76.7%) had  $\geq$ 2 valid anal HPV results (contributing a total of 56 048 eligible visits) and were included in analyses, of whom 29.4% were MSMWH (n = 4745), 24.0% HIV-negative women (n = 3877), 21.4% HIV-negative MSM (n = 3459), 16.6% HIV-negative MSW (n = 2691), 6.6% WWH (n = 1062), and 2.0% MSWWH (n = 330) (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2).

The HPV-16 incidence was highest in MSMWH (14.8 per 1000 person-months [95% confidence interval (CI), 13.5–16.1]), followed by HIV-negative MSM (9.1 [8.2–10.1]), WWH (7.9 [6.9–9.1]), HIV-negative women (4.9 [4.3–5.6]), MSWWH (3.2 [2.1–5.0]), and HIV-negative MSW (2.0 [1.3–3.1]) (Figure 1A). For HPV-16 clearance, the same ranking by risk group was observed, being lowest in MSMWH (61.5 per 1000 person-months [95% CI, 55.6–67.9]), then HIV-negative MSM (95.5 [86.0–106.0]), WWH (96.2 [84.7–109.3]), HIV-negative women (149.5 [130.7–170.9]), MSWWH (170.4 [125.2–231.8]), and HIV-negative MSW (264.6 [193.9–361.0]) (Figure 1B). Similar patterns by risk group tended to be observed for incidence and clearance of all other hrHPV types. Of all hrHPV types, HPV-16 tended to have the highest incidence-

clearance ratio of all hrHPV types, a pattern that was most evident among MSMWH, HIV-negative MSM, WWH, and HIV-negative women (Figure 2).

Of the 16 750 hrHPV infections observed, a greater proportion were prevalent (n = 11 356) than incident (n = 5394) infection, both overall and in each risk group (Supplementary Figure 2). The mean duration of prevalent infections was longer than that of incident infections (Figure 3). For HPV-16, for example, the mean durations for prevalent versus incident infection were 3.8 (95% CI, 3.5–4.1) versus 1.2 (1.1–1.4) years in MSMWH, 2.2 (1.9–2.4) versus 0.8 (.7–1.0) in HIV-negative MSM, 2.5 (2.0–3.1) versus 0.7 (.6–.8) in WWH, and 0.8 (.6–.9) versus 0.5 (.4–.6) in HIV-negative women. Infections were too few to allow this type of analysis for MSW (Supplementary Figure 2).

Among MSM, women, and MSW, the HPV-16 incidence was higher in younger people, with HIV, and those with more lifetime and recent sexual partners, and among MSM and women, it was higher in current smokers (Table 1). Ever having receptive anal sex and high (lifetime and recent) number of anal sexual partners were associated with higher HPV-16 incidence in MSM but not in women. Lower CD4 cell counts and higher HIV viral load were associated with HPV-16 incidence among MSMWH and WWH, although differences were not always statistically significant.

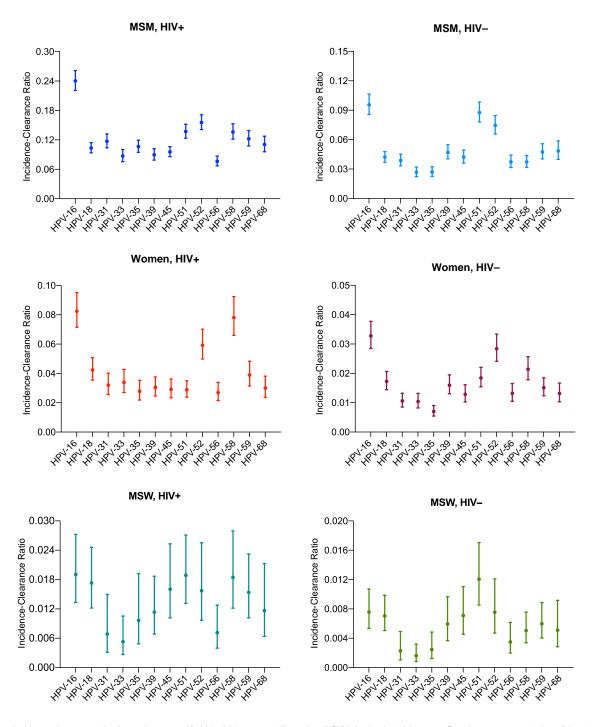


Figure 2. Incidence-clearance ratios for anal type-specific high-risk human papillomavirus (HPV) infection in 6 risk groups. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Abbreviations: HIV+, with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV); HIV-, HIV negative; MSM, men who have sex with men; MSW, men who have sex with women.

Among the 3 populations, HPV-16 clearance was significantly lower in PWH than in HIV-negative people (Table 1). For both MSM and women, clearance of HPV-16 incident infection was higher than that of prevalent infection. Older age and presence of anal high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions (HSILs) at baseline were associated with lower clearance in MSM. HIV viral load was significantly associated with lower

clearance in MSMWH, and a consistent nonsignificant association was observed in WWH.

The 2-year cumulative HPV-16 incidence was 15.5% (95% CI, 14.6%–16.6%) in MSMWH, 7.5% (6.9%–8.3%) in HIV-negative MSM, 6.6% (5.8%–7.4%) in WWH, 2.9% (2.5%–3.3%) in HIV-negative women, 1.7% (1.2%–2.4%) in MSWWH, and 0.7% (.5%–1.0%) in HIV-negative MSW

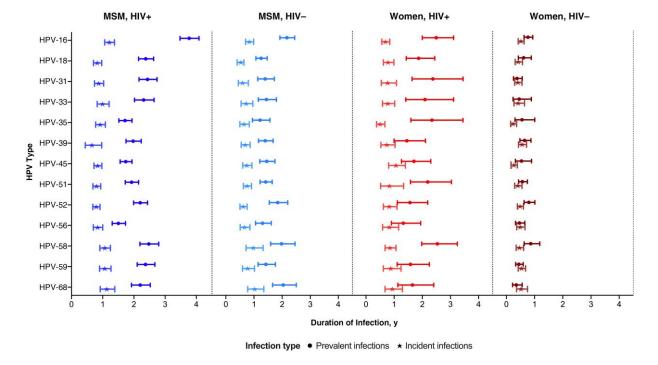


Figure 3. Mean duration of anal high-risk human papillomavirus (HPV) prevalent and incident infection in 4 risk groups. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Abbreviations: HIV+, with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV); HIV-, HIV negative; MSM, men who have sex with men.

(Figure 4A). The cumulative HPV-16 incidence was higher in youngest MSMWH (Figure 4D) and HIV-negative women (Supplementary Figure 3), but the age effect was less clear for HIV-negative MSM (Figure 4G) and WWH (Supplementary Figure 3).

After 2 years, HPV-16 prevalent infection persisted in 58.6% of MSMWH, 42.7% of WWH, 35.7% of HIV-negative MSM, 19.4% of HIV-negative women, 15.3% of MSWWH, and 2.7% of HIV-negative MSW (Figure 4*B*). For each of these risk groups, the respective 2-year persistence for incident infection was lower, namely, 30.6%, 10.2%, 15.4%, 3.6%, 4.6%, and 1.2% (Figure 4*C*). There was a strong relationship between age and persistence of HPV-16 prevalent infection, both for MSMWH and HIV-negative MSM (Figures 4*E* and 4*H*), but not for incident infection (Figures 4*F* and 4*I*). There were no differences in clearance of prevalent or incident HPV-16 infection by age in WWH or HIV-negative women (Supplementary Figure 3).

At 2 years after baseline, HPV-16 prevalence peaked at age 25–34 years and decreased with age in MSMWH, whereas in HIV-negative MSM, the prevalence increased with age (Figures 5A and 5B). Notably, the proportion of HPV-16 infections with a duration  $\geq 2$  years (ie, already prevalent at baseline) increased from 38% at age <25 years to 69% at age  $\geq 55$  years in MSMWH (Figure 5D) and from 13% to 68% in HIV-negative MSM (Figure 5E). Among women (for whom we observed no apparent age effect), HPV-16 prevalence was higher in WWH than in HIV-negative women (Figure 5C), and the proportion

of HPV-16 infections with a duration  $\geq$ 2 years was higher in WWH (46%) than in HIV-negative women (11%) (Figure 5*F*).

### **DISCUSSION**

This pooled reanalysis of individual-level longitudinal data from 34 studies built a robust picture of the natural history of anal hrHPV infection across 6 ASCC risk groups, underpinned by statistical methods (CTMM) that allowed us to overcome the inconsistencies in design and analytical approaches of previous individual studies. We confirmed that HIV status, sex, and male sexuality are important population-level determinants of both anal hrHPV incidence and clearance. In all risk groups, clearance of incident hrHPV infection was higher than that of prevalent infection. Age-specific differences in hrHPV clearance in MSM were predominantly observed for prevalent but not incident infection, suggesting that age-specific differences are more likely linked to duration of HPV infection rather than age of the infected individual.

Compared with other hrHPV types, HPV-16 had the highest incidence-clearance ratio and longest infection duration, as previously reported [4, 9, 10]. This finding could explain why HPV-16 was the most prevalent type, both at baseline in our pooled data set (Supplementary Figure 4), as well as in other studies [11, 12], and it supports the uniquely high potential of anal HPV-16 infection to progress to ASCC [3]. Notably,

Table 1. Risk Factors for Incidence and Clearance of Anal Human Papillomavirus 16 Infection in Men Who Have Sex With Men, Women, and Men Who Have Sex With Women

Risk Factor	Incidence, aHR <sup>a</sup> (95% CI)			Clearance, aHR <sup>a</sup> (95% CI)		
	MSM	Women	MSW	MSM	Women	MSW
Age group, y						
<25	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
25–34	.84 (.65–1.09)	.83 (.61–1.13)	.49 (.15–1.61)	.74 (.58–.94) <sup>b</sup>	.90 (.68–1.20)	.68 (.22–2.05
35–44	.73 (.5694) <sup>b</sup>	.96 (.69-1.34)	.50 (.17–1.50)	.63 (.5080) <sup>b</sup>	1.14 (.80–1.61)	.79 (.31–2.01
45–54	.55 (.4272) <sup>b</sup>	.38 (.2461) <sup>b</sup>	.32 (.10–1.05)	.51 (.4065) <sup>b</sup>	1.15 (.76–1.73)	.64 (.22–1.85
≥55	.31 (.2342) <sup>b</sup>	.79 (.41–1.52)	.25 (.03-2.21)	.42 (.3255) <sup>b</sup>	1.29 (.72–2.31)	.66 (.20–2.16
Age (per 10 y)	.77 (.72–.81) <sup>b</sup>	.85 (.7694) <sup>b</sup>	.72 (.5299) <sup>b</sup>	.81 (.77–.85) <sup>b</sup>	1.07 (.95–1.19)	.91 (.71–1.17
HIV status						
Negative	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Positive	1.42 (1.22-1.64) <sup>b</sup>	1.90 (1.47-2.46) <sup>b</sup>	3.33 (1.46-7.64) <sup>b</sup>	.68 (.60–.77) <sup>b</sup>	.47 (.36–.62) <sup>b</sup>	.37 (.18–.75) <sup>t</sup>
Lifetime no. of sexu	ual partners <sup>c</sup>					
Low	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
High	1.22 (1.01-1.47) <sup>b</sup>	2.58 (1.86–3.57) <sup>b</sup>	4.79 (1.38–16.7) <sup>b</sup>	.90 (.76–1.06)	1.00 (.75–1.35)	.61 (.21–1.75
No. of recent sexua	l partners <sup>c</sup>					
Low	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
High	1.76 (1.38–2.23) <sup>b</sup>	1.67 (1.12–2.47) <sup>b</sup>	1.90 (.52–6.91)	1.14 (.91–1.44)	1.09 (.76–1.57)	1.70 (.44–6.56
Ever having receptive	- ,			,		
No	Reference	Reference		Reference	Reference	
Yes	1.43 (1.11–1.85) <sup>b</sup>	.79 (.60–1.04)		1.18 (92–1.51)	.78 (.61–1.01)	
Lifetime no. of anal		., 6 (.66 1.61)		1110 (02 1101)	., 6 (.61 1.61)	
Low	Reference	Reference		Reference	Reference	
High	1.58 (1.18–2.13) <sup>b</sup>	.79 (.60–1.04)		1.24 (.95–1.61)	.78 (.61–1.01)	
No. of recent anal s		.70 (.00 1.01)		1.21 (.00 1.01)	.70 (.01 1.01)	***
Low	Reference	Reference		Reference	Reference	
High	1.45 (1.17–1.80) <sup>b</sup>	.80 (.48–1.34)		1.04 (.86–1.26)	.97 (.63–1.47)	
Current smoking	1.10 (1.17 1.00)	.00 (. 10 1.0 1)		1.01 (.00 1.20)	.07 (.00 1.17)	
No No	Reference	Reference		Reference	Reference	
Yes	1.21 (1.03–1.43) <sup>b</sup>	1.58 (1.14–2.18) <sup>b</sup>		.94 (.81–1.09)	.98 (.73–1.31)	
Presence of anal HS		1.30 (1.14 2.10)	•••	.54 (.01 1.00)	.50 (.75 1.51)	•••
No	Reference			Reference		
Yes	1.13 (.89–1.42)	•••	•••	.66 (.54–.79) <sup>b</sup>	•••	•••
Infection type	1.15 (.05–1.42)			.00 (.04–.73)		•••
Prevalent				Reference	Reference	
Incident				2.44 (2.16–2.74) <sup>b</sup>	2.24 (1.81–2.78) <sup>b</sup>	
Among individuals v		•••	•••	2.44 (2.10-2.74)	2.24 (1.01–2.70)	
Current CD4 cell co	,					
>500/µL	Reference	Reference		Reference	Reference	
350-500/µL	1.26 (1.02–1.55) <sup>b</sup>	.99 (.59–1.66)		1.16 (.97–1.39)	.94 (.59–1.49)	
350–500/μL <350/μL	1.12 (.89–1.42)	1.65 (1.09–2.48) <sup>b</sup>		1.16 (.97–1.39)		
• •		1.00 (1.09-2.48)		1.00 (.02-1.23)	.91 (.63–1.32)	•••
Current HIV viral loa		Poforana		Poforana	Poforana	
<50	Reference	Reference	•••	Reference	Reference	
50–10 000	1.06 (.81–1.39)	2.47 (1.55–3.92) <sup>b</sup>		.91 (.72–1.14)	.97 (.66–1.43)	
>10 000	1.14 (.92–1.40)	1.94 (1.18–3.19) <sup>b</sup>	***	.76 (.63–.92) <sup>b</sup>	.68 (.44–1.05)	

Abbreviations: aHR, adjusted hazard ratio; CI, confidence interval; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HPV, human papillomavirus; HSILs, high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions; MSM, men who have sex with men; MSW, men who have sex with women.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>HRs were estimated from separate models for each variable and adjusted by age group and HIV status for incidence and clearance analyses, and also by infection type for clearance analyses, as appropriate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Significant aHRs relative to the reference group.

<sup>°</sup>The categories for numbers of sexual partners (lifetime or recent; overall or anal) were defined by the combination of median value for each population and the availability of categorical variables from contributed studies. For lifetime number of sexual partners, low was defined as ≤200 for MSM and ≤3 for women and MSW; high, as >200 for MSM and >3 for women and MSW. For recent sexual partners, low was defined as ≤5 for MSM and ≤1 for women and MSW; high, as >5 for MSM and >1 for women and MSW. For lifetime number of anal sexual partners, low was defined as ≤50 for MSM and 0 for women; high, as >50 for MSM and >0 for women; high, as >3 for MSM and >0 for women.

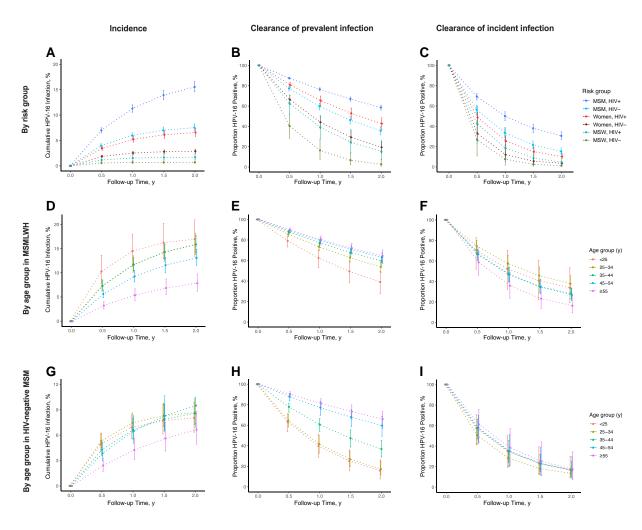


Figure 4. Cumulative incidence and clearance of anal human papillomavirus (HPV) 16 infection by risk group, as well as by age group in men who have sex with men (MSM) with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (MSMWH) and HIV-negative (HIV-) MSM. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Abbreviations: HIV-, with HIV; MSW, men who have sex with women.

the incidence-clearance ratio for HPV-18 was no different from that many other hrHPV types, corroborating evidence that the carcinogenicity of HPV-18 in the anus is not as apparent as in the cervix [1].

Most previous individual reports on anal hrHPV natural history have not been powered to separate clearance of prevalent infection from incident infection. Furthermore, prevalent hrHPV infection is not homogeneous but is rather a mixture of antecedent natural histories. Prevalent infection may be recently acquired, like incident infection, or be longstanding and likely to have greater oncogenic potential. Indeed, using a similar CTMM approach, Plummer et al [13] found that the longer a cervical hrHPV infection had persisted, the greater the probability that it would further persist. In the current study, we were able to provide robust evidence of the same tendency in the anus. First, incident anal HPV infection was shown to clear significantly faster than prevalent infection, consistently for all hrHPV types

and across different risk groups, as previously reported [9, 14]. Moreover, prevalent HPV-16 infection was more likely to clear in young than in older MSM, irrespective of HIV status. This finding is consistent with the higher cervical HPV clearance observed in young women [15] and is expected to be related to differences in prior duration of infection by age. Indeed, our CTMM approach demonstrated that prevalent infection in older MSM is disproportionately represented by longstanding infection. The absence of an age effect on clearance of incident HPV-16 infection also suggests that differences are driven by the duration of the infection rather than by age. On a similar note, the observation of a lower clearance of prevalent HPV-16 infection in MSM than in women or MSW (even after adjustment for HIV status and age; Supplementary Table 3) suggests that prevalent infection in MSM is more likely to represent longstanding persistent infection, and hence to have greater oncogenic potential, than that detected in women and MSW of a similar age.

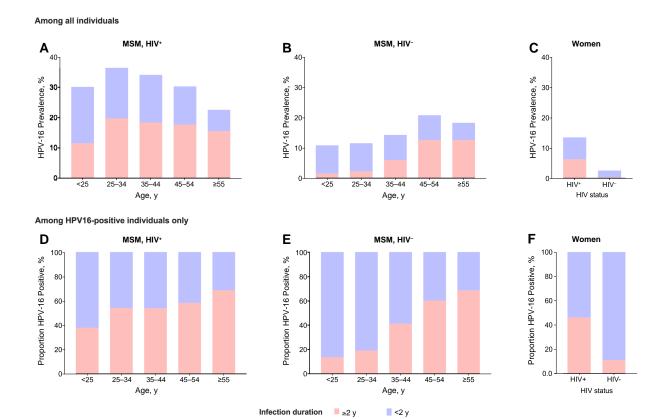


Figure 5. Human papillomavirus (HPV) 16 prevalence in men who have sex with men (MSM) and in women, according to prior duration of infection. Abbreviations: HIV+', with HIV; HIV-, HIV negative.

HIV positivity was confirmed as an important risk factor for HPV-16 incidence and clearance among all 3 populations, consistent with the evidence that PWH have higher HPV prevalence and ASCC risk than their HIV-uninfected counterparts [2, 11]. Additional evidence for the role of HIV-related immunosuppression on the natural history of HPV infection in the current study comes from the observation that CD4 cell count and HIV viral load were determinants of HPV-16 incidence and clearance in PWH.

Having anal HSILs was a strong risk factor for lower HPV-16 clearance in MSM, highlighting the strong causal link between HPV-16 and anal HSILs [3, 16]. Indeed, the presence of underlying HSILs may partially contribute to the lower HPV-16 clearance observed in older MSM. Current smoking was associated with higher anal HPV-16 incidence, likely reflecting confounding by sexual behavior but corroborating evidence that anal cancer is elevated among smokers [17].

The current study highlighted important differences in anal HPV-16 acquisition by sex. Number of sexual partners, whether lifetime or recent, was confirmed as a strong determinant of HPV-16 incidence in both MSM and women. Number of anal sexual partners, on the other hand, was strongly associated with HPV-16 incidence in MSM, but not in women, despite

adequate sample sizes. This suggests that anal HPV-16 incidence is similar in women whether or not they have anal sexual intercourse, and it supports other lines of evidence that anal HPV is frequently acquired from the cervix/external genital region. These include strong correlations in type-specific HPV detection between the genitals and anus among women [18] (and MSW [19]), as well as associations between front-to-back post-toilet wiping or anal touching and female anal HPV infection [20, 21].

HPV clearance, defined as a single positive result followed by a single negative result, offers a real-life picture of repeat anal HPV testing. Nevertheless, HPV contamination, intravisit clearance, or reinfection, driven by recent sexual activity, can mimic lack of clearance. Thus, HPV clearance rate may remain underestimated, particularly in highly exposed groups, and this may partly explain why incident infection is observed to clear less often in MSM than in women and MSW, even after adjustment for HIV status and age (Supplementary Table 3). Of note, the CTMM developed for this analysis allows for individuals to switch HPV status between visits and so better addresses this issue than the standard person-time approach based only on observed events. Indeed, estimates of incidence and clearance, as well as differences in these measures between risk groups,

were much lower from a standard person-time approach (Supplementary Figure 5) than from our CTMM approach, as shown previously [9]. However, our estimates were generally consistent with previous individual studies using CTMM for MSM [9, 10, 22].

Other strengths of CTMM, in addition to those mentioned above, include the avoidance of separating follow-up into 2 discrete datasets for incidence and clearance. However, combining studies with different visit intervals precluded us from investigating stricter criteria for incidence or clearance (eg, a requirement for 2 subsequent positive, or negative, visits, respectively) or analyzing groups of HPV types (eg, any hrHPV). Other limitations should also be noted. First, our CTMM approach cannot overcome any lack of representativeness in the original study population. Most notably, HIV-negative MSM recruited into HPV studies are at higher-than-average HPV infection risk compared with their general population [11, 12]. Second, small numbers of MSWWH and few HPV infections in HIV-negative MSW hampered the robustness of estimates in MSW. Furthermore, most individuals were from the United States, Europe, or Asia, with underrepresentation of Africa, even for PWH.

Gender-neutral HPV vaccination of children is expected to be the long-term solution for ASCC prevention in all risk groups, including MSM [23]. However, MSM will not receive protection from female-only vaccination [24]. This, together with evidence of vaccine effectiveness against anal HPV infection [25, 26], has led certain countries to recommend targeted vaccination for MSM and other high-risk populations, such as PWH [27]. When predicting the relative public health benefits of age-targeted MSM versus gender-neutral vaccination, however, it is important to consider that incident infection tends to be shorter lived and that the fraction of prevalent infection that represents longstanding persistent infection increases with age. Thus, in cohorts of increasing age, an increasingly important proportion of future ASCC can be expected to arise from existing prevalent HPV infection and will not be prevented by HPV vaccination. Of relevance, clinical trials in PWH aged >26 years old were unable to demonstrate efficacy against anal HPV infection [28, 29].

Populations at highest risk of ASCC, which were not eligible for childhood HPV vaccination, could benefit from anal cancer screening [30], analogous to HPV-based cervical cancer screening, but with a particular focus on HPV-16, given its unique anal carcinogenicity [3]. However, up to 30% of MSMWH, and 15% of HIV-negative MSM and WWH are HPV-16 positive at any given time [12, 31] and may not all be at sufficient risk to warrant referral for high-resolution anoscopy, an invasive technique for which there is limited available clinical expertise [12]. Referral only of patients with persistent HPV infection, a necessary requirement for ASCC development, may thus improve risk stratification. The current study provides the indicators to make predictions in screening programs based on persistent infection. For example, retesting MSM and PWH found to be HPV-16

positive at the first visit after 1 year would avoid referral of about a quarter of patients, and retesting those found to be positive at 2 years would avoid referral of about half.

In conclusion, robust estimates of anal HPV incidence and clearance inform anal HPV natural history by risk group. They are key to designing and predicting the impact of ASCC prevention algorithms, including primary (HPV vaccination) and secondary (HPV-based screening) prevention modalities for targeted high-risk populations. Most notably, our study demonstrates that the carcinogenic potential of longstanding prevalent anal hrHPV infection is higher than that of more recent incident infection.

### **Supplementary Data**

Supplementary materials are available at *Clinical Infectious Diseases* online. Consisting of data provided by the authors to benefit the reader, the posted materials are not copyedited and are the sole responsibility of the authors, so questions or comments should be addressed to the corresponding author.

#### **Notes**

Acknowledgments. We thank Ashish A Deshmukh for his comments on the manuscript, Susan Gamon for her help on text editing, and the other colleagues involved in original studies: Ting Wu, Shoujie Huang, and Yingying Su (reference 27 in the Supplementary Data); Luis F López Cortés, César Sotomayor de la Piedra, and Pompeyo Viciana (reference 22 in the Supplementary Data); Cristina González, Montserrat Torres, Jorge Del Romero, Pompeyo Viciana, Mar Masiá, José R Blanco, Mauricio Iribarren, Silvia De Sanjosé, Beatriz Hernández-Novoa, Marta Ortiz, and Julia Del Amo (reference 12 in the Supplementary Data); Alessandra Latini, Francesca Rollo, Maria Benevolo, Massimo Giuliani, and Amalia Giglio (references 11 and 33 in the Supplementary Data); Nipat Teeratakulpisarn, Tuti Parwati Merati, I. Ketut Agus Somia, Iskandar Azwa, Ilias A Yee, Wifanto Saditya Jeo, and Hanny Nilasari (reference 28 in the Supplementary Data); Isabelle Charrreau, Laurence Meyer, David Veyer, Laurent Cotte, Constance Delaugerre, and Catherine Capitant (reference 29 in the Supplementary Data); and Davide Bernasconi (reference 32 in the Supplementary Data).

**Disclaimer.** The authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article, and they do not necessarily represent the views, decisions, or policies of the institutions with which they are affiliated.

Potential conflicts of interest. A. R. G. received support from Merck & Co and Moderna, outside the submitted work, and reports consulting fees from Merck & Co. G. D. received support to her institution from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) for this work. N. A. H. received a grant to her institution from NIH for this work. M. F. S. v. d. L. has served on an advisory board for Merck & Co. K. N. received a Miguel Servet II senior researcher grant contract (CPII18/00033) from the Instituto de Salud Carlos III (Madrid, Spain), outside the submitted work. J. B. received financial compensation for lectures, consultancy work, educational activities from Gilead Sciences, Janssen-Cilag, Merck Sharp & Dohme, and ViiV Healthcare and received support for attending meetings from Gilead Sciences, outside the submitted work. M. L. G. received support from National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research for and outside the submitted work; has received research funding from Genocea Biosciences, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Genentech, Kur, Cullinan Labs, and Agenus; served as a consultant for Istari Oncology, LLX Solutions, Kura Oncology, Mirati Therapeutics, BioNtech, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Bicara Therapeutics, Bayer Healthcare Pharmaceutics, Genocea Biosciences, Shattucks Labs, EMD Serono, Debiopharm, Merck & Co, Ipsen Biopharmaceuticals, Gilead Sciences, and Coherus; served a speaker/preceptorship role for OncLive and Roche Scientific; received support for attending meetings from American Association for Cancer Research (AACR); has an issued patent as sponsor-investigator for pNGVL4a-Sig/E7(detox)/HSP70 plasmid DNA for a clinical protocol entitled "An open-label phase one study of the safety with stage III or IV HPV16-positive head and neck squamous cell carcinoma"; has pending patents for "Oral HPV infection detection for oral cancer screening and diagnosis" and "HPV mRNA detection on oral cytology specimens for diagnosis and screening for oral cancer"; served on advisory committees for Seagen, Sensei Biotherapeutics, SQZBiotech, BioMimetix and Kura; and has stock options for Sensei. A. G. N. received grants from National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID) and the National Cancer Institute (NCI), NIH, and Merck & Co, awarded to his institution and related to the submitted work; received grants from NCI, NIH, awarded to his institution, outside the submitted work; received support for attending meetings (payment for hotel at conference) from the European Research Organisation on Genital Infection and Neoplasia; and received donated swabs and vials for research from COPAN Diagnostics. R. G. N. received funding from NCI, NIH (grant K07CA225403), paid to her institution. E. Y. received to her institution, for this work, in support from subawards from amfAR, The Foundation for AIDS Research (grants 108520-52-IGTA and 108893-55-IPTA), with funds provided by Life Ball and Verein Aids Life (AIDS LIFE). The Asia Pacific HIV Research Collaboration is an initiative of TREAT Asia, a program of amfAR, The Foundation for AIDS Research, with support from the NIAID, NIH, as part of the International Epidemiologic Databases to Evaluate AIDS (IeDEA). These subgrants were supported with funds provided by NIH cooperative agreement 5U01AI0699007-07 and a supplement to NIH cooperative agreement 5U01AI0699007-08. J. M. M. received research grants from Gilead to his institution for the present work and personal consulting fees from Gilead, Merck & Co, and ViiV. JJO received funds both to himself and to his institution from Australian National Health and Medical Research Council, outside the submitted work; served as Board Director of Australian Society of HIV, viral hepatitis and sexual heath medicine (ASHM), Australian Federation of AIDS Organizations (AFAO). N. S. received personal consulting fees from ViiV Healthcare and honoraria from Gilead Sciences. D. J. W. received funding from the NCI, NIH (R01CA169508-01A1 [principal investigator (PI), D. J. W.] and 5UM1AI035043-23 (PI, G. D.; site PI, D. J. W.; both studies: data collection, specimen processing, laboratory tests). J. M. P. reports grants or contracts paid to the institution from Merck and Co, outside the submitted work; consulting fees paid to self from Vir Biotechnologies and Antiva Biosciences; payment or honoraria from Merck and Co; support for attending meetings and/or travel paid to self from Merck and Co; and stock or stock options from Virion Therapeutics and Vir Biotechnology. All other authors report no potential conflicts. All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

### References

- de Martel C, Georges D, Bray F, Ferlay J, Clifford GM. Global burden of cancer attributable to infections in 2018: a worldwide incidence analysis. Lancet Glob Health 2020; 8:e180–190.
- Clifford GM, Georges D, Shiels MS, et al. A meta-analysis of anal cancer incidence by risk group: toward a unified anal cancer risk scale. Int J Cancer 2021; 148: 38-47
- Lin C, Franceschi S, Clifford GM. Human papillomavirus types from infection to cancer in the anus, according to sex and HIV status: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Lancet Infect Dis 2018; 18:198–206.
- 4. Marra E, Kovaleva A, Bruisten SM, Vermeulen W, Boyd A, Schim van der Loeff MF. Incidence and clearance of anal high-risk human papillomavirus infections and their determinants over 5 years among Human Immunodeficiency virusnegative men who have sex with men. Clin Infect Dis 2019; 68:1556–65.
- Mooij SH, van Santen DK, Geskus RB, et al. The effect of HIV infection on anal and penile human papillomavirus incidence and clearance: a cohort study among MSM. AIDS 2016; 30:121–32.
- Jongen VW, van Santen DK, Alberts CJ, Schim van der Loeff MF. Estimating incidence rates of grouped HPV types: a systematic review and comparison of the impact of different epidemiological assumptions. Papillomavirus Res 2019; 8:100187.
- Jackson C. Multi-state modelling with R: the msm package. 2021. Available at: https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/msm/vignettes/msm-manual.pdf. Accessed 01 February 2022.

- IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Biological agents. Volume 100B. A review of human carcinogens. IARC Monogr Eval Carcinog Risks Hum 2012; 100(pt B):1–475.
- Geskus RB, González C, Torres M, et al. Incidence and clearance of anal high-risk human papillomavirus in HIV-positive men who have sex with men: estimates and risk factors. AIDS 2016; 30:37–44.
- Dona MG, Vescio MF, Latini A, et al. Anal human papillomavirus in HIV-uninfected men who have sex with men: incidence and clearance rates, duration of infection, and risk factors. Clin Microbiol Infect 2016; 22:1004 e1–e7.
- Marra E, Lin C, Clifford GM. Type-Specific anal human papillomavirus prevalence among men, according to sexual preference and HIV status: a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. J Infect Dis 2019; 219:590–8.
- 12. Wei F, Gaisa MM, D'Souza G, et al. Epidemiology of anal human papillomavirus infection and high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions in 29 900 men according to HIV status, sexuality, and age: a collaborative pooled analysis of 64 studies. Lancet HIV 2021: 8:e531–e43.
- 13. Plummer M, Schiffman M, Castle PE, Maucort-Boulch D, Wheeler CM, Group A. A 2-year prospective study of human papillomavirus persistence among women with a cytological diagnosis of atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance or low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion. J Infect Dis 2007; 195:1582–9.
- 14. Alberts CJ, Heard I, Canestri A, et al. Incidence and clearance of anal human papillomavirus (HPV)-16 and HPV-18 infection, and their determinants, among human immunodeficiency virus-infected men who have sex with men in France. J Infect Dis 2020; 221:1488–93.
- Maucort-Boulch D, Plummer M, Castle PE, et al. Predictors of human papillomavirus persistence among women with equivocal or mildly abnormal cytology. Int J Cancer 2010; 126:684–91.
- Poynten IM, Jin F, Roberts JM, et al. The natural history of anal high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions in gay and bisexual men. Clin Infect Dis 2021; 72:853–61.
- Daling JR, Madeleine MM, Johnson LG, et al. Human papillomavirus, smoking, and sexual practices in the etiology of anal cancer. Cancer 2004; 101:270–80.
- Wei F, Su Y, Cui X, et al. Sequential acquisition of human papillomavirus infection at genital and anal sites, liuzhou, China. Emerg Infect Dis 2020; 26:2387–93.
- Pamnani SJ, Nyitray AG, Abrahamsen M, et al. Sequential acquisition of anal human papillomavirus (HPV) infection following genital infection among men who have sex with women: the HPV Infection in Men (HIM) study. J Infect Dis 2016; 214:1180-7
- Simpson S J, Blomfield P, Cornall A, Tabrizi SN, Blizzard L, Turner R. Front-to-back & dabbing wiping behaviour post-toilet associated with anal neoplasia & HR-HPV carriage in women with previous HPV-mediated gynaecological neoplasia. Cancer Epidemiol 2016; 42:124–32.
- Moscicki AB, Ma Y, Farhat S, et al. Natural history of anal human papillomavirus infection in heterosexual women and risks associated with persistence. Clin Infect Dis 2014; 58:804–11.
- Donà MG, Giuliani M, Rollo F, et al. Incidence and clearance of anal high-risk human papillomavirus infection and their risk factors in men who have sex with men living with HIV. Sci Rep 2022; 12:184.
- Chow EPF, Tabrizi SN, Fairley CK, et al. Prevalence of human papillomavirus in young men who have sex with men after the implementation of gender-neutral HPV vaccination: a repeated cross-sectional study. Lancet Infect Dis 2021; 21:1448–57.
- 24. Brisson M, Benard E, Drolet M, et al. Population-level impact, herd immunity, and elimination after human papillomavirus vaccination: a systematic review and meta-analysis of predictions from transmission-dynamic models. Lancet Public Health 2016; 1:e8-e17.
- Palefsky JM, Giuliano AR, Goldstone S, et al. HPV vaccine against anal HPV infection and anal intraepithelial neoplasia. N Engl J Med 2011; 365:1576–85.
- Kreimer AR, Gonzalez P, Katki HA, et al. Efficacy of a bivalent HPV 16/18 vaccine against anal HPV 16/18 infection among young women: a nested analysis within the Costa Rica vaccine trial. Lancet Oncol 2011; 12:862–70.
- Nguyen-Huu NH, Thilly N, Derrough T, et al. Human papillomavirus vaccination coverage, policies, and practical implementation across Europe. Vaccine 2020; 38:1315–31.
- Hidalgo-Tenorio C, Pasquau J, Omar-Mohamed M, et al. Effectiveness of the quadrivalent HPV vaccine in preventing anal ≥ HSILs in a Spanish population of HIV+ MSM aged > 26 years. Viruses 2021; 13:144.
- Wilkin TJ, Chen H, Cespedes MS, et al. A randomized, placebo-controlled trial of the quadrivalent human papillomavirus vaccine in human immunodeficiency virus-infected adults aged 27 years or older: AIDS clinical trials group protocol A5298. Clin Infect Dis 2018; 67:1339–46.
- Palefsky JM, Lee JY, Jay N, et al. Treatment of anal high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions to prevent anal cancer. N Engl J Med 2022; 386:2273–82.
- 31. Wei F, Xia N, Ocampo R, et al. Age-specific prevalence of anal and cervical HPV infection and high-grade lesions in 11 177 women by HIV status: a collaborative pooled analysis of 26 studies. J Infect Dis 2022:jiac108.