# Infection with high-risk genotypes of human papillomavirus and cervical cytological findings among kidney transplant recipients in Kenya: a single centre experience

Millicent S Masinde<sup>1</sup>, Joshua K Kayima<sup>2</sup>, Wanyoike J Gichuhi<sup>3</sup>, Eunice C Cheserem<sup>3</sup>, Orora I Maranga<sup>1</sup>, Samuel K Kabinga<sup>2</sup>

1. Obstetrics and Gynaecology Department, Kenyatta National Hospital, P.O. Box 20723-00202 Nairobi Kenya.

2. East African Kidney Institute, University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197 - 00100 Nairobi, Kenya.

3. Obstetrics and Gynaecology Department, University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197 - 00100 Nairobi Kenya.

#### Abstract

**Background:** High-risk human papillomavirus (hrHPV) infection is linked with uterine cervix premalignant lesions and invasive carcinoma of the uterine cervix.

**Methods:** Descriptive cross sectional study carried out among female kidney transplant (KTx) recipients in Kenyatta National Hospital, Nairobi-Kenya. We studied the risk factors for acquisition of hrHPV, examined cervical cytology and assayed for 14 hrHPV DNA using Cervista® HPV HR test and Cervista® MTA (Hologic®) automated platforms.

**Results:** The 14-hrHPV genotypes assayed were 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 66, and 68 and the prevalence rate was 31.25 % (10/32). Abnormal cervical cytology was noted in 4/32 (12.5%) and included low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (2/32), atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (1/32) and atypical glandular cells (1/32). The average age was 41.9 years with mean age at first coitus being 20.4 years. Majority of the women 20(62.5%) were married while 8(25%) were single. About 18(56.3%) had only one sexual partner. About 20% of women were nulliparous and 4(12.5%) had a parity of five. Duration since transplantation ranged between 1-21 years.

**Conclusions:** The burden of hrHPV and abnormal cervical cytology in our study seemed lower than that reported elsewhere and even in general population. This study may form basis for further studies about HPV infections and carcinoma of the uterine cervix among the kidney allograft recipients in our setting.

Keywords: Cervical carcinoma, kidney transplant recipients, high risk Human Papillomavirus.

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ahs.v22i2.11

**Cite as:** Masinde MS, Kayima JK, Gichuhi WJ, Cheserem EC, Maranga OI, Kabinga SK. Infection with high-risk genotypes of human papillomavirus and cervical cytological findings among kidney transplant recipients in Kenya: a single centre experience. Afri Health Sci. 2022;22(2): 88-96. https://dx.doi. org/10.4314/ahs.v22i2.11

#### Introduction

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a ubiquitous, non-enveloped DNA virus that can infect squamous epithelia of skin and mucous membranes<sup>1</sup>. In stratified epithelia, HPV infects cells in the basal layer, most likely via epithelial wounding or microfissures<sup>2</sup>. Integration of virus DNA into host chromosomes takes place and virus oncogenes E6 and E7are produced. There is expression of oncoproteins E6 and E7 which interact with various host proteins to aid immune evasion and ultimately persistence of infection in the host<sup>3</sup>. This is associated with neoplastic progression including deregulated expression of virus early genes in basal epithelial cells and genomic

# Corresponding author:

Samuel K Kabinga,

East African Kidney Institute, University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197 - 00100 Nairobi, Kenya. Email: kabingas@yahoo.com instability causing secondary host genomic imbalances<sup>4</sup>. The cervical transformation zone at the squamo-columnar junction may be susceptible to malignancy due to the heightened accessibility of epithelial reserve cells or stem cells in this region <sup>5,6</sup>. This is thought to be important in the carcinogenesis.

Human papillomaviruses have been implicated in virtually all cases of carcinoma of uterine cervix <sup>7</sup>. Human papillomaviruses have been categorized as high-risk Human Papillomavirus (hrHPV) and low-risk types based on their oncogenic potential and association with carcinoma of the uterine cervix <sup>8</sup>. Several genotypes of hrHPV are known to transform the epithelium and result in cancer<sup>9</sup>. Premalignant lesions precede development of invasive carcinoma of the uterine cervix <sup>10</sup>.

Exfoliative cervical cytology has been the conventional approach of screening for carcinoma of uterine cervix.

African Health Sciences © 2022 Masinde MS et al. Licensee African Health Sciences. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/BY/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Papanicolaou (Pap) smear has relatively low sensitivity for high-grade cervical dysplastic lesions as well as subjectivity in assignment of smears to the diagnostic categories. These limitations have led to the advent of HPV DNA testing as an adjunct to cytology to improve cervical cancer prevention <sup>11, 12</sup>.

Carcinoma of the uterine cervix ranks as the fourth most common female malignancy worldwide. It is a major global health challenge and carries 18 times higher mortality in low- and middle-income countries13, 14. The highest prevalence of HPV-induced cervical cytological changes occurs early in the third decade, while the invasive carcinoma occurs in the sixth decade <sup>10</sup>. Abnormal cervical cytology and hrHPV-related disease in patients with previous organ transplantation has shown lower rates of spontaneous regression <sup>15</sup>. Some studies have reported significantly high prevalence rates for both hrHPV infection as well as cervical dysplasia in kidney allograft recipients 16-18. Immunosuppression from medications used in kidney transplantation put the recipients at a higher risk for infection with a broad range of hrHPV genotypes which is plausibly hypothesized to translate into higher prevalence of cytological abnormalities than in the general population<sup>19</sup>. The increase in kidney transplantation population should alert nephrologists that cancer is likely to increase over time<sup>20</sup> especially viral-related malignancies. This demands accurate pre-transplant screening, and post-transplant monitoring of viral infections and tailor-made immunosuppressive protocols.

The role for HPV DNA testing is to improve diagnostic accuracy and avoidance of invasive procedures such as colposcopy in patients with borderline or mildly abnormal cytologic test results [9]. Liquid based cytology along with HPV co-testing can improve sensitivity and specificity in screening for cancer of the uterine cervix. This also allows better compliance, as a negative result of both cytology and HPV would allow patients to get a Pap test every 5 years, thereby increasing screening intervals which is economical in resource-limited settings<sup>21</sup>.

In Kenya, kidney transplantation started in 1978. There has not been structured screening for HPV or carcinoma of the uterine cervix for the transplanted population. The current study aimed at documentation of the risk factors, burden of the 14-hrHPV infection and cervical cytomorphology in post-kidney transplant female recipients at Kenyatta National Hospital, Nairobi-Kenya in East Africa. The study was registered with the Kenyatta National Hospital – University of Nairobi Ethics and Research Committee, registration number P192/04/2014.

#### Methods

# Study design and setting

This was a cross-sectional descriptive study carried out over three months between August and October 2014. It was undertaken in the Renal Department at the Renal Transplant Clinic which runs once a week and the longest clinic revisit period is three months.



Figure 1: Study participants recruitment flow diagram

N: population, n: sample, HPV: Human Papillomavirus, Pap: Papanicolaou, GOPC: Gynaecology Outpatient Clinic

#### Study population, inclusion and exclusion criteria

From the clinic records, there were 45 post kidney transplant female patients who attended the clinic between August and October 2014. The study recruited all consenting female kidney transplant (KTx) recipients who attended the clinic, were aged between 18 and 65 years and had been on immunosuppressive medications for at least 6 months. Patients with confirmed carcinoma of the cervix were excluded.

## Study procedures

Information about the study was given to all the female clinic attendees as they waited to be attended in the clinic. Informed consent was obtained from eligible participants and a questionnaire was administered to capture age, marital status, age at first coitus, number of sexual partners, parity, duration since transplantation and immunosuppressive regimes.

#### African Health Sciences, Vol 22 Issue 2, June, 2022

## Specimens collection and processing procedures

The Pap smear specimen was collected using the standard procedure by one obstetrician gynaecologist. The first cervical brush was used to collect specimen from endocervix and ectocervix by rotating it three to five times. The brush was then rubbed onto the glass slide and specimen fixed with ethyl alcohol before being airdried. The second brush was dipped in the ThinPrep® specimen bottle and swirled several times and the bottle was then tightly closed. Wet preparation was used to assay the hrHPV DNA. The air-dried slide was immersed in three stains, each of which stains differently for different cells and different parts of a cell. Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) stains nuclei blue, Eosin Azure (EA) stains cytoplasm of immature cells as greenish blue, and that of mature cells as pink. Orang-G stains keratin orange in colour. Pap smear results were reported using the Bethesda 2001 system<sup>22</sup> by a qualified cytologist. The study cytologist had been trained in reporting Pap smears cytology and had more than 15 years of experience in reporting cervical cytology specimens in teaching and referral hospital laboratories. Every 10th slide was re-examined by another cytologist in the teaching and referral hospital for quality control.

For hrHPV DNA assay, the specimens were transported under the conditions prescribed by the manufacturer to Manchester in the United Kingdom for analyses. Human papillomavirus testing of liquid based cytology (LBC) samples was carried out using Cervista® HPV HR test in conjunction with the Cervista® MTA (Hologic®) according to the manufacturer's instructions. This system provides ultra-pure DNA extraction and HPV testing in one sealed unit. Cervista® uses three oligonucleotide mixtures designed to detect 14 hrHPV types within three familial groups based on phylogenetic similarities: Mix 1 detects types 51, 56, and 66; Mix 2 detects types 18, 39, 45, 59 and 68; Mix 3 detects types 16, 31, 33, 35, 52, and 58. A separate human histone 2 gene probe served as an internal control for cellular DNA content within the LBC sample.

A HPV positive signal was indicated by fluorescent signal above an empirically derived cut-off value. A signal to noise value (sample signal measured against signal from a No Target Control) was generated for each of the three mixes and was referred to as HPV Fold-Over-Zero (FOZ). The HPV FOZ ratio was calculated by dividing the highest FOZ value from any one of the three reaction mixtures by the lowest HPV FOZ value of the three mixtures. If the HPV FOZ ratio was equal to or greater than 1.525, the sample was considered positive for hrHPV. Samples with mixed HPV infections resulted in positive signals of similar intensity in two or three reaction wells. Therefore, if the HPV FOZ ratio was lower than 1.525, but the HPV FOZ values in all three mixes were larger than the second cut-off value at 1.93 (default setting), the sample was considered positive for hrHPV in the Cervista HPV HR test [23]. A positive results meant

that at least one of the 14 hrHPV DNA was present in the sample. Results obtained from the analyses were appended to the questionnaires. The data were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 21.0 (SPSS®, Chicago).

# Results

During the period between August and October 2014, 44 of the women who visited the Renal Transplant Clinic for review. Twelve were excluded due to non-eligibility. Thirty two women were enrolled in the study. (Figure 1). Sociodemographic characteristics which included age and marital status were noted. Age at first coitus, number of sexual partners, parity, duration since transplantation and immunosuppressive regimes were analysed. The average age was 41.9±12.9 years with the mean age at first coitus being 20.4±2.7 years. Majority of the women 20(62.5%) were married while 8(25%) were single. About 18(56.3%) reported to have had only one sexual partner. One in every 5 women was nulliparous and 4(12.5%) had a parity of five. Duration since transplantation ranged between 1 and 21 years. The commonest triple immunosuppressive regimes were tacrolimus/mycophenolate mofetil/ prednisone and cyclosporine/mycophenolate mofetil/ prednisone. Azathioprine was used by 3(9.4%) patients in combination with prednisone and either cyclosporine or tacrolimus. About 3 in every 10 women tested had a positive test for at least one of the 14 hrHPV genotype tested (HPV 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 66, and 68). Four women (12.5%) had abnormal cervical cytology. Only one of the 4 women with abnormal cervical cytology tested negative for hrHPV. (Table 1)

Among the ten women who tested positive for hrHPV, their mean age was  $36.1\pm8.3$  years with mean age of first coitus at  $21.5\pm2.6$  years. The mean duration since transplantation was  $8.2\pm7.4$  years. About 6(60%) were single and 7(70%) had only one sexual partner. Half (5) were nulliparous. The Pap smear cytology showed low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (LSIL), atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASCUS) and atypical glandular cells (AGC) in one woman each. (Table 2).

Characteristic			p value
Age (year)	Mean±SD	41.9±12.9	<b>&lt;0.001</b> <sup>+</sup> (95 CI, 37.2-46.5)
Age at first coitus (yr)	Mean±SD	20.4±2.7	<b>&lt;0.001</b> <sup>+</sup> (95, CI 19.4-21.4)
Duration since transplantation(yr)Median		5.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b> <sup>+</sup> (95 CI, 3.0-6.8)
Number of sexual partners (number)		% (n)	<b>&lt;0.001</b> <sup>+</sup> (95, CI 1.4-2.0)
	One	56.3 (18)	
	Two	21.9 (7)	
	Three	21.9 (7)	
Parity (number)		% (n)	<b>&lt;0.001</b> <sup>+</sup> (95, CI 1.5-2.7)
	0	21.9 (7)	
	1	18.8 (6)	
	2	25.0 (8)	
	3	12.5 (4)	
	4	9.4 (3)	
	5	12.5 (4)	
Marital Status		% (n)	<0.001‡
	Married	62.5 (20)	
	Single	25.0 (8)	
	Widowed	6.3 (2)	
	Separated	6.3 (2)	
Immunosuppressive regime		% (n)	0.017‡
CY	A/MMF/PRED	37.5 (12)	
С	YA/AZA/PRED	3.1 (1)	
TA	AC/MMF/PRED	37.5 (12)	
T.	AC/AZA/PRED	6.3 (2)	
	Others	15.6 (5)	
hrHPV		⁰⁄₀ (n)	<0.052‡
	Positive	31.3 (10)	
	Negative	68.8 (22)	
Pap smear cytology		⁰⁄₀ (n)	<0.001‡
	Normal	87.5 (28)	
	LSIL	6.3 (2)	
	ASCUS	3.1 (1)	
	AGC	3.1 (1)	

Table 1. Sociodemographic and clinical characteristics

SD: Standard deviation, CYA/MMF/PRED: Cyclosporine/Mycophenolate mofetil/Prednisone, CYA/AZA/PRED: :

Cyclosporine/Azathioprine/Prednisone, TAC/MMF/PRED: Tacrolimus/Mycophenolate Mofetil/Prednisone, TAC/AZA/PRED:

Tacrolimus/Azathioprine/Prednisone, Pap: Papanicolaou, LSIL: Low-grade Squamous Intraepithelial Lesion, ASCUS: Atypical Squamous Cells of Undetermined Significance, AGC: Atypical Glandular Cells, hrHPV: high-risk Human Papillomavirus, † one-sample T-test, ‡ Chi-square test, yr: year

Characteristic		Results
Age (year)	Mean±SD	36.1±8.3
Age of first coitus (year)	Mean±SD	21.5±2.6
Years since kidney transplantation	8.2±7.4	
Marital status		⁰⁄₀ (n)
	Married	20 (2)
	Single	60 (6)
	Separated	20 (2)
Number of sexual partners		% (n)
	One	70 (7)
	Two	20 (2)
	Three	10 (1)
Parity		% (n)
	Nulliparous	50 (5)
	1	20 (2)
	2	30 (3)
Pap smear results		% (n)
	Normal	70 (7)
	LSIL	10 (1)
	ASCUS	10 (1)
	AGC	10 (1)

 Table 2. Characteristics of the ten kidney transplant recipients with positive hrHPV

Pap: Papanicolaou, LSIL: Low-grade Squamous Intraepithelial Lesion, ASCUS: Atypical Squamous Cells of Undetermined Significance,

AGC: Atypical Glandular Cells, hrHPV: high-risk Human Papilomavirus

#### Discussion

Human papillomavirus types have been classified as carcinogenic or probably carcinogenic (group1 or 2A) to humans by the International Agency for Research on Cancer Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans<sup>24</sup>. Certain HPV are referred to as high-risk types due to their carcinogenic potential to humans<sup>25,26</sup>. The hrHPV positivity rate has been reported to increase as the severity of uterine cervix cytological lesions increase in the general population<sup>1</sup>.

Our study examined the exfoliative cervical cytomorphology and assayed 14 hrHPV genotypes which included 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 66, and 68. We also explored risk factors for acquisition of HPV and development of carcinoma of the uterine cervix among the female kidney allograft recipients. About a third (31.5%) of our study participants tested positive for at least one of the 14 hrHPV assayed. This compares with the burden of hrHPV reported in North India at 32.5% among KTx recipients<sup>27</sup>.

The risk factors for development of cancer of the cervix are those associated with acquisition of HPV and severe

impairment of immune response to HPV infection<sup>28</sup> Solid organ transplantation is a known risk due to long term use of immunosuppressive medications. There have been conflicting reports about the burden of hrHPV infections among kidney transplant recipients with some studies reporting prevalence rates of almost 60% 29, 30 while others have reported rates similar to the general population <sup>31, 32</sup>. There have been inconsistent reports on the prevalence rates of infection with hrHPV among kidney allograft recipients. Some studies have documented low and others high prevalence rates <sup>31, 33-35</sup>. In kidney allograft recipients, prevalence rates of hrHPV infection from 5% to 53% has been reported<sup>31, 32, 36, 37</sup>. In Columbia, among non-vaccinated women aged 18-25 years, the prevalence of HPV positivity was 60.3%38. Among women in general population in Ghana, Krings et al reported prevalence of 32.3% for single hrHPV<sup>39</sup>. In coastal town of Kenya, Vuyst et al reported prevalence rate 42.3% of 33 common HPV types among women aged above 15 years 40.

There have been reports of increased rate of cervical cytological abnormalities post kidney transplantation <sup>41</sup>. This is thought to be due to prolonged persistence of virus

due to impaired clearance by the immune system which is unique to solid transplant recipients due to iatrogenic immunosuppression. Marked improvement in immediate post-transplant care partly due to use of multiple potent immunosuppressive therapies, increase in life expectancy after kidney transplantation theoretically can play a part in acquisition of the viruses and even development of other post-transplant malignancies<sup>31, 35</sup>. The commonest triple immunosuppressive regimes were tacrolimus/mycophenolate mofetil/prednisone and cyclosporine/mycophenolate mofetil/prednisone. Azathioprine was also used in combination with prednisone and either cyclosporine or tacrolimus. The duration and drug dose combinations used are reported as important in the development of HPV infection. This was equally observed by Origani et al<sup>36</sup>, Aggarwal et al<sup>27</sup> and Meuwiss et al<sup>35</sup>, who observed a correlation between the use of immunosuppressive drugs and occurrence of cervical cytological abnormalities.

Abnormal cervical cytology was noted in 4/32 (12.5%) women although one of the women had abnormal cytology but tested negative for any of the 14 hrHPV assayed. The abnormal Pap smear cytology found were low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (LSIL), atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASCUS) and atypical glandular cells (AGC) in equal proportions. Global prevalence of HPV infection in women with no cervix abnormalities is 11-12%, with sub-Saharan Africa having a prevalence rate of  $24\%^{42}$ . In our case, 7/10(70%) of the post KTx recipients tested positive for hrHPV but had normal cervical cytology.

Multiple sexual partners, early sexual debut, non-attendance for screening and under screening are recognized traditional risk factors for acquisition of hrHPV and subsequent development of cancer of the cervix <sup>43, 44</sup>. More than 40% of the participants had multiple sexual partners. About 63% of them reported to have had their first coitus at age 14 – 21 years. Majority were married with only a quarter being single. About 6 in every 10 of the kidney transplant recipients reported a parity of 1-3, with more than a fifth being nulliparous. Among the 4 patients who had abnormal cytology, one who had LSIL tested negative for hrHPV.

# Conclusion

The burden of hrHPV and abnormal cervical cytology in our study seemed lower than that reported elsewhere and even in general population. It is plausible to attribute this to lifestyle of patients with end stage kidney disease who undergo transplantation. They are likely to be more health-conscious.

Our study had several limitations. The observational cross-sectional design with no follow up and relatively small sample size. Genetics, viral persistence and environmental factors which can predispose to abnormal cervical cytomorphology other than HPV infections were not studied. This therefore makes it unable to attribute causes and effects to iatrogenic immunosuppression. It is difficulty to generalize its findings to other populations. However we believe these findings can form basis for other studies in this field.

## Acknowledgments

We wish to acknowledge Drs. Ian Hampson, Lynn Hampson, Anthony Oliver and Virology Department of the University of Manchester for performing HPV DNA testing and genotyping. Many thanks to Mrs Margaret Waweru for her assistance in reporting the Pap smears. We wish to acknowledge the Kenyatta National Hospital Renal Department management and staff for logistical assistance during the study.

## References

1. Ali, M.A.M., R.N. Bedair, and R.M. Abd El Atti, Cervical high-risk human papillomavirus infection among women residing in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries: Prevalence, type-specific distribution, and correlation with cervical cytology. *Cancer Cytopathology*, 2019. 127(9): p. 567-577.

2. Schiller, J.T., P.M. Day, and R.C. Kines, Current understanding of the mechanism of HPV infection. *Gynecol Oncol*, 2010. 118(1 Suppl): p. S12-7.

3. Doorbar, J., Molecular biology of human papillomavirus infection and cervical cancer. *Clin Sci* (Lond), 2006. 110(5): p. 525-41.

4. Groves, I.J. and N. Coleman, Pathogenesis of human papillomavirus-associated mucosal disease. *J Pathol*, 2015. 235(4): p. 527-38.

5. López, J., et al., Human papillomavirus infections and cancer stem cells of tumors from the uterine cervix. *Open Virol J*, 2012. 6: p. 232-40.

6. Herfs, M., et al., A discrete population of squamocolumnar junction cells implicated in the pathogenesis of cervical cancer. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* U S A, 2012. 109(26): p. 10516-21. 7. Walboomers, J.M.M., et al., Human papillomavirus is a necessary cause of invasive cervical cancer worldwide. *The Journal of Pathology*, 1999. 189(1): p. 12-19.

 Burk, R.D., A. Harari, and Z. Chen, Human papillomavirus genome variants. *Virology*, 2013. 445(1-2): p. 232-43.
 Burd, E.M., Human papillomavirus and cervical cancer. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 2003. 16(1): p. 1-17.

10. Meisels, A., Cytological diagnosis of human papillomavirus. Influence of age and pregnancy stage. *Acta Cytol*, 1992. 36: p. 480-482.

11. Schiffman, M., et al., Human papillomavirus testing in the prevention of cervical cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2011. 103(5): p. 368-83.

12. Lees, B.F., B.K. Erickson, and W.K. Huh, Cervical cancer screening: evidence behind the guidelines. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*, 2016. 214(4): p. 438-443.

13. Bray, F., et al., Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOB-OCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA Cancer J Clin*, 2018. 68: p. 394-424.

14. WHO. Cervical cancer. World Health Organization, in Cervical cancer. 2018, WHO: Geneva.

15. Ronco, G., et al., Efficacy of HPV-based screening for prevention of invasive cervical cancer: follow-up of four European randomised controlled trials. *Lancet*, 2014. 383: p. 524-532.

16. Halpert, R., et al., Human papillomavirus and lower genital neoplasia in renal transplant patients. *Obstet Gyne-col*, 1986. 68: p. 251-258.

17. Alloub, M.I., et al., Human papillomavirus infection and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in women with renal allografts. *Br Med J*, 1989. 298: p. 153-156.

18. Ogunbiyi, O.A., et al., Prevalence of anal human papillomavirus infection and intraepithelial neoplasia in renal allograft recipients. *Br J Surg*, 1994. 81: p. 365-367.

19. Roensbo, M.T., et al., Cervical HPV prevalence and genotype distribution in immunosup-pressed Danish women. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*, 2018. 97(2): p. 142-150. 20. Mazzucotelli, V., et al., De novo cancer in patients on dialysis and after renal transplantation: north-western Italy, 1997–2012. *J Nephrol*, 2017. Online.

21. Barodawala, S.M., et al., Cervical cancer screening by molecular Pap-transformation of gynecologic cytology. *Diagnostic Cytopathology*, 2008: p. 1-8.

22. Solomon, D., et al., The 2001 Bethesda System: terminology for reporting results of cervical cytology. *JAMA*, 2002. 287(16): p. 2114-9. 23. Available from: Http://www.cervistahpv.com/pdf/ Cervista [December 9 2020].

24. Biological agents. Volume 100 B. A review of human carcinogens. *LARC Monogr Eval Carcinog Risks Hum*, 2012. 100(Pt B): p. 1-441.

25. Guan, P., et al., Human papillomavirus types in 115,789 HPV-positive women: a meta-analysis from cervical infection to cancer. *Int J Cancer*, 2012. 131(10): p. 2349-59.

26. Schiffman, M., G. Clifford, and F.M. Buonaguro, Classification of weakly carcinogenic human papillomavirus types: addressing the limits of epidemiology at the borderline. *Infect Agent Cancer*, 2009. 4: p. 8.

27. Aggarwal, R., et al., Prevalence and Genotypes of HPV in Female Renal Transplant Recipients in North India. *International Journal of Gynecological Pathology*, 2014. 33: p. 537-542.

28. Manini, I. and E. Montomoli, Epidemiology and prevention of Human Papillomavirus. *Ann Ig*, 2018. 30(4 Supple 1): p. 28-32.

29. Veroux, M., et al., Surveillance of human papilloma virus infection and cervical cancer in kidney transplant recipients: preliminary data. *Transplant Proc*, 2009. 41(4): p. 1191-4.

30. Seshadri, L., et al., Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia and human papilloma virus infection in renal transplant recipients. *Indian J Cancer*, 2001. 38(2-4): p. 92-5.

31. Pietrzak, B., et al., Prevalence of high-risk human papillomavirus cervical infection in female kidney graft recipients: an observational study. *Virology Journal*, 2012.9: p. 117-117.

32. Morrison, E.A., et al., Low prevalence of human papillomavirus infection of the cervix in renal transplant recipients. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*, 1996. 11(8): p. 1603-6.

33. Vajdic, C.M., et al., Cancer incidence before and after kidney transplantation. *JAMA*, 2006. 296(23): p. 2823-31.
34. Fairley, C.K., et al., The risk of ano-genital malignancies in dialysis and transplant patients. *Clin Nephrol*, 1994. 41(2): p. 101-5.

35. Meeuwis, K.A.P., et al., Skin cancer and (pre)malignancies of the female genital tract in renal transplant recipients. *Transplant International*, 2010. 23(2): p. 191-199.

36. Origoni, M., et al., Cervical Human Papillomavirus in transplanted Italian women: A long-term prospective follow-up study. *Journal of Clinical Virology*, 2011. 51: p. 246-250.

37. Alloub, M.I., et al., Human papillomavirus infection

and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in women with renal allografts. *Br Med J*, 1989. 298: p. 153-156.

38. Puerto, D., et al., Detection and genotyping of HPV DNA in a group of unvaccinated young women 2 from Colombia: baseline measures prior to future monitoring program. *American Association for Cancer Research*, 2018. DOI: 10.1158/1940-6207.CAPR-17-0439.

39. Krings, A., et al., Characterization of Human Papillomavirus prevalence and risk factors to guide cervical cancer screening in the North Tongu District, Ghana. *PLoS One*, 2019. 14(6): p. e0218762.

40. De Vuyst, H., et al., The prevalence of human papillomavirus infection in Mombasa, Kenya. *Cancer Causes Control*, 2010. 21(12): p. 2309-13. 41. Stallone, G., B. Infante, and G. Grandaliano, Management and prevention of post-transplant malignancies in kidney transplant recipients. *Clinical kidney journal*, 2015. 8(5): p. 637-644.

42. Forman, D., et al., Global burden of human papillomavirus and related diseases. *Vaccine*, 2012. 30 Suppl 5: p. F12-23.

43. Bos, A.B., et al., Nonattendance is still the main limitation for the effectiveness of screening for cervical cancer in the Netherlands. *Int J Cancer* 2006. 119: p. 2372-2375.

44. Kovacevic, G., et al., Prevalence of oncogenic Human papillomavirus and genetic diversity in the L1 gene of HPV16 HPV 18 HPV31 and HPV33 found in women from Vojvodina Province Serbia. *Biologicals*, 2019. 10.1016/j.biologicals.2019.02.001.