

LONDON
SCHOOL of
HYGIENE
& TROPICAL
MEDICINE



LSHTM Research Online

Kelly, H; Faust, H; Chikandiwa, A; Ngou, J; Weiss, HA; Segondy, M; Dillner, J; Delany-Moretlwe, S; Mayaud, P; (2018) Human Papillomavirus Serology Among Women Living With HIV: Type-Specific Seroprevalence, Seroconversion, and Risk of Cervical Reinfection. *The Journal of infectious diseases*. ISSN 0022-1899 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiy252>

Downloaded from: <http://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk/4647941/>

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiy252>

Usage Guidelines:

Please refer to usage guidelines at <https://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk/policies.html> or alternatively contact researchonline@lshtm.ac.uk.

Available under license: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/2.5/>

<https://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk>

Human papillomavirus (HPV) serology among women living with HIV: Type-specific seroprevalence, seroconversion and risk of cervical re-infection

Running title: HPV serology in women living with HIV-1

Kelly H¹, Faust H², Chikandiwa A³, Ngou J⁴, Weiss HA^{1,5}, Segondy M⁴, Dillner J², Delany-Moretlwe S³, Mayaud P^{1,3}

¹London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK

²Karolinska Institute and Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden

³University of the Witwatersrand and Wits Reproductive Health and HIV Institute, Johannesburg, South Africa

⁴INSERM U.1058 et Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France

⁵MRC Tropical Epidemiology Group, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK

Corresponding author:

Helen Kelly, Clinical Research Department, Faculty of Infectious and Tropical Diseases, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E7HT, United Kingdom (e-mail: helen.kelly@lshtm.ac.uk)

*HARP study group composition at end of manuscript

Word count full manuscript=3500; abstract=200; figures=2; tables=4

ABSTRACT

Background: Human papillomavirus serodynamics following infection has never been evaluated prospectively among women living with HIV (WLHIV). We determined HPV seroprevalence, seroconversion and cervical HPV-DNA acquisition among WLHIV.

Methods: Prospective study of 604 WLHIV in Johannesburg, South Africa aged 25-50 years. At baseline and 16 months later (endline), type-specific antibodies to HPV-types (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68/73) were measured using HPV pseudovirions and corresponding cervical HPV-DNA genotypes detected using INNO-LiPA.

Results: Seroprevalence of any-HPV type was 93.2% and simultaneous seropositivity for HPV-types of the bivalent (HPV16/18), quadrivalent (HPV6/11/16/18) and nonavalent (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/45/52/58) vaccines were 21.4%, 10.9% and 2.8%. Among 219 women with cervical HPV-DNA but seronegative for the same-type and without high-grade cervical intraepithelial neoplasia at baseline, 51 (23.3%) had type-specific seroconversion at endline. Among these women, the risk of type-specific seroconversion was higher among recent antiretroviral therapy users (ART \leq 2 years vs. ART-naive: adjusted OR=2.39, 95%CI:1.02-5.62), and lower among women with low CD4+ at endline (\leq 350 vs. $>$ 350 cells/mm³: aOR=0.51, 95%CI:0.24-1.07). Risk of cervical HPV DNA acquisition was significantly lower in women who were seropositive for HPV18, 35 and 58 at baseline.

Conclusion: WLHIV have evidence of seroconversion in response to baseline HPV-DNA, dependent on CD4+ count and ART. Baseline HPV seropositivity confers limited protection against some HPV types.

Key words: human papillomavirus (HPV); serology; antibodies; HIV; Africa

1 INTRODUCTION

2 As women living with HIV (WLHIV) are experiencing longer life expectancy due to increased
3 availability of antiretroviral therapy (ART), many remain at high risk of infection with HPV, acquiring
4 anogenital warts (AGW), and progressing to cervical and other genital cancers. Primary prevention
5 of HPV through vaccination can reduce the burden of disease and on screening and treatment
6 services. The bivalent and quadrivalent HPV vaccines target two high-risk (HR)-HPV types (HPV16
7 and 18) responsible for about 70% of cervical cancers[1], whereas the nonavalent vaccine protects
8 against a wider range of HR-HPV types (HPV16/18/31/33/45/52/58), as well as types causing AGW
9 (HPV6/11) and is estimated to prevent up to 90% of cervical cancers in women from the general
10 population[1-3].

11 There is limited evidence of the serological response to HPV infection among WLHIV. The evidence
12 regarding protection against re-infection for the same HPV type induced after natural infection is
13 also unclear. A recent meta-analysis of 14 studies among 24,000 individuals (90% women) from
14 Europe, North America, Latin America, Asia and Australia investigating the potential protective
15 effect of naturally acquired type-specific antibodies[4] reported 30-35% protection against
16 subsequent infection with HPV16 (pooled relative risk [RR]=0.65, 95% confidence interval [CI]:0.50-
17 0.80) and HPV18 (RR=0.70, 95%CI:0.43-0.98) among women in the general population. However,
18 seropositivity to a wider range of HPV types and possible seroprotection following natural
19 infection have not been evaluated among WLHIV. An improved understanding of HPV type-specific
20 serological responses in such high-risk populations and their risk of both new infection and
21 reinfection is needed to guide targeted HPV control efforts, including possible use of HPV
22 vaccination.

23 We conducted a large prospective study of cervical cancer screening in a cohort of WLHIV in
24 Burkina Faso and South Africa (*HARP, HPV in Africa Research Partnership*)[5]. In this paper, among
25 women enrolled in the *HARP* study in South Africa, we evaluated HPV seroprevalence and

26 concordance of HPV DNA with same-type seropositivity at baseline for 15 HPV genotypes. Second,
27 among women without high-grade cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN2+) at baseline, we
28 evaluated the factors associated with HPV seroconversion following baseline HPV-DNA infection,
29 and risk of incident HPV-DNA detection among women seropositive for same-type HPV at baseline.

30

31 **METHODOLOGY**

32 **Study population and specimen collection**

33 The *HARP* cohort study has been described in detail elsewhere[5]. In South Africa, women were
34 recruited from HIV treatment centres and surrounding communities in Johannesburg from
35 December 2011 to October 2012. Inclusion criteria were being HIV-1 seropositive, aged 25-50 years
36 and resident in the city. Exclusion criteria were history of prior treatment for cervical cancer,
37 previous hysterectomy, and being pregnant or less than 8 weeks postpartum. Eligible participants
38 provided signed informed consent. Enrolment was stratified in a 2:1 ratio of ART-users:ART-naïve.
39 Participants were followed-up every 6 months for CD4+ T-lymphocytes count and up to scheduled
40 month 18 visit (endline) when procedures similar to baseline were repeated. Ethical approval was
41 granted by the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, and the London School of Hygiene and
42 Tropical Medicine.

43 **Laboratory testing**

44 HPV-DNA genotyping was performed at baseline and endline using the INNO-LiPA HPV genotyping
45 Extra® assay (Fujirebio, Courtaboeuf, France). Analysis of HPV DNA positivity was restricted to the
46 15 types covered by the serology assay (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68/73) with HR-
47 HPV being similarly defined with the following 12 types: HPV16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68[6].
48 HPV antibodies were detected using a multiplexed binding assay, which uses pseudovirions (PsV)
49 as antigens and detects HPV type specific IgG antibodies (PsV-Luminex). Serology was performed

50 for ‘carcinogenic/probable carcinogenic’ types HPV16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68 (except the
51 HR-HPV type 51) and the low-risk (LR) types HPV6/11/73 at Karolinska Institute, Stockholm,
52 Sweden[7, 8]. Serum samples were analysed in a 1:50 and 1:150 dilutions. Cut-off values to define
53 seropositivity were calculated independently for each HPV type by analysing the mean
54 fluorescence intensity unit (MFI) values obtained from a panel of 100 Swedish children’s sera (≤ 12
55 years old). The cut-off algorithm was as recommended by the global HPV LabNet (mean MFI value
56 of a negative control serum panel plus 3 standard deviations)[9]. If this cut-off value was
57 unreasonably low (less than 400 MFI), 400 MFI was used as cut-off to have a sensitivity and
58 specificity similar to classical HPV ELISAs[10].

59 **Statistical analysis**

60 *Cervical HPV DNA status*

61 Women were considered “HPV-DNA positive” if positive by INNO-LiPA for any of the HPV types
62 included in the serology assay, and “HPV-DNA negative” if negative for all of these types. HPV-DNA
63 genotype-specific persistence was defined as being positive for the same type at baseline and
64 endline visits. Type-specific clearance was defined as being positive for a specific type at enrolment
65 and negative for that type at endline visit. Given that no woman was simultaneously infected by all
66 15 HPV types, all women were at risk of acquiring at least one HPV infection and all were included
67 in the analysis of associations of baseline seropositivity with same-type HPV DNA incidence.

68 *HPV serology status*

69 HPV serology results are presented as binary results (positive and negative for a given type) based
70 on the pre-assigned cut-off. Overall and type-specific or group (vaccine targets) HPV
71 seroprevalence was defined as being seropositive for any/type-specific/grouped types
72 respectively, among women with serology data at baseline. HPV type-specific seroconversion was
73 defined as being HPV-DNA positive (i.e., recently exposed) and same-type seronegative at baseline

74 that became same type seropositive at endline, irrespective of the DNA status at endline. We also
75 analysed type-specific seropersistence (having same-type detectable antibody at baseline and
76 endline) and seroreversion (seropositive for a specific HPV type at baseline and seronegative for
77 the same type at endline) among all women who were seropositive for any HPV type at baseline,
78 irrespective of their cervical HPV-DNA status.

79 Longitudinal analyses were restricted to women without prevalent CIN2+ at baseline, as the
80 natural history of HPV infection and serology dynamics in women with CIN2+ would be difficult to
81 interpret since many women had received ablative therapy.

82 For comparison of HPV seropositivity among type-specific HPV DNA positive and DNA negative
83 WLHIV at baseline, prevalence ratios (PRs) were obtained from logistic regression using marginal
84 standardization to estimate PRs, and the delta method to estimate 95% confidence intervals
85 (CI)[11]. Associations between HPV seroconversion and exposure variables were estimated with
86 generalised estimating equations (GEE) to account for seropositivity by multiple HPV types within
87 women[12]. To explore associations of HPV seroconversion with HIV-related factors, pre-specified
88 analyses included stratification by ART duration (≤ 2 or > 2 years) and CD4+ cell counts (≤ 350 or > 350
89 cells/mm³) at baseline and endline, and HIV-1 viral suppression (plasma HIV-1 RNA < 1000 or ≥ 1000
90 copies/ml) at baseline. Stable high CD4+ count was defined as having CD4+ counts > 500 cells/mm³
91 at baseline, month 12 (intermediate) and endline visits. Multivariable analyses were adjusted for
92 socio-demographic and behavioral factors which were independently associated with HPV
93 seroconversion. For associations of baseline seropositivity with HPV-DNA incidence, logistic
94 regression was used to estimate odds ratios (OR) and 95%CI. Data were analysed using Stata
95 version 14 (Stata Statistical Software, College Station. TX: Stata Corporation).

96 RESULTS

97 Study population

98 A full description of *HARP* study participants has been published elsewhere[5]. Of the 623 WLHIV
99 enrolled in South Africa, the median age at enrolment was 34 years (interquartile range [IQR]: 30-
100 40), and median time in follow-up was 16 months (IQR: 15.6-16.8). In total, 604 (97.0%) WLHIV had
101 valid results for both HPV serology and genotyping at baseline (**Figure 1**). Of these, 390 (64.6%)
102 reported taking ART throughout the study period with a median duration of 3.4 years (IQR:1.8-5.3)
103 during follow-up, 42 (7.0%) initiated ART during follow-up and 172 (28.5%) remained ART-naive
104 throughout the study. The median baseline CD4+ cell counts of ART users, ART initiators and ART-
105 naive were 421 cells/mm³ (IQR:285-580), 333 cells/mm³ (IQR:260-403) and 475 cells/mm³ (IQR:366-
106 625), respectively. CD4+ cell counts change per year were +7 cells/mm³ (IQR: -55 to 89), +83
107 cells/mm³ (IQR: -33 to 205) and -36 cells/mm³ (IQR: -119 to 24) in the three groups, respectively.

108

109 HPV seroprevalence at baseline

110 Seroprevalence of any of 15 HPV types was 93.2% (95%CI:90.9-95.1%), of whom 89.9% (506/563)
111 were seropositive for multiple types (**Figure 2**). The seroprevalence of any 12 HR-HPV type was
112 90.7% (95%CI:88.1-92.9%). Overall, almost all women (n=591; 97.8%) were positive by either serology
113 or DNA for any HPV, and 583 (96.5%) for any HR-HPV types.

114 Seroprevalence was highest for HPV31 (59.6%), followed by HPV58 (54.8%) and HPV16 (43.1%)
115 (**Figure 2**). The seroprevalence of any HPV genotypes included in the bivalent (HPV16/18),
116 quadrivalent (HPV6/11/16/18) or nonavalent (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/45/52/58) vaccines were 59.3%,
117 73.5% and 87.6%, respectively. Simultaneous seropositivity for all HPV types included in the bivalent,
118 quadrivalent and nonavalent vaccines was 21.4%, 10.9% and 2.8%, respectively.

119 **Correlation of HPV-DNA and antibody-specific prevalence**

120 Of 472 women DNA positive for any of the 15 HPV types at baseline, 279 (59.1%) were seropositive
121 for the same HPV type (range by type: 25.5% for HPV45 to 68.9% for HPV31; **Table 1**). The type-
122 specific HPV seroprevalence was significantly higher among those with same-type DNA positive
123 compared to same-type DNA negative for HPV31, HPV35, HPV39, HPV52, HPV58 and low-risk type
124 HPV11.

125 **HPV seroconversion and association with DNA persistence and clearance**

126 Of all 451 women without CIN2+ at enrolment who were followed-up until endline, genotyping and
127 serology data at baseline and endline were available for 433 (96.0%; **Figure 1**). There were 219
128 women who were HPV-DNA positive and same-type seronegative at baseline. Same-type
129 seroconversion was observed for 23.3% (51/219), irrespective of DNA status during follow-up.

130 When considering the total number of baseline infections as denominator (n=326), there were 56
131 (17.2%) HPV seroconversion events (**Table 2**). Risk of type-specific seroconversion was highest for
132 HPV31 (53.9%) and HPV33 (33.3%) and lowest for HPV18 (17.1%) and HPV16 (2.4%). Overall, risk of
133 type-specific seroconversion was greater with same-type persistent DNA infection compared to
134 cleared infection; irrespective of newly detected DNA during follow-up (**Table 2**: any HPV type
135 seroconversion: 23.0% vs. 15.1%; crude OR=1.75, 95%CI:0.95-3.24; aOR=1.56, 95%CI:0.78-3.13, adjusted
136 for injectable contraception and CD4+ cell count at endline).

137

138 **HIV-related factors associated with HPV seroconversion**

139 When considering the number of baseline infections as denominator, the risk of HPV
140 seroconversion was similar by baseline CD4+ count (**Table 3**) but lower with low endline CD4+
141 (≤ 350 vs. >350 cells/mm³: 10.8% vs. 19.4%; aOR=0.51, 95%CI:0.24-1.07, adjusted for injectable

142 contraceptive use), and this association was significant among ART users only (≤ 350 vs. >350
143 cells/mm³: 8.0% vs. 26.3%; aOR=0.25, 95%CI: 0.08-0.75).

144 The highest risk of seroconversion was among short-duration ART users (≤ 2 years ART vs. ART-
145 naïve at endline: 24.6% vs. 14.2%; aOR=2.39, 95%CI:1.02-5.62, adjusted for injectable contraceptive
146 use and endline CD4+ cell count). HPV seroconversion was also more likely among women who
147 reported high adherence to ART at baseline (60-90% vs. $<60\%$ adherence: 22.4% vs. 7.1%; aOR=8.93,
148 95%CI:1.13-70.36).

149

150 **Newly detected HPV DNA over 16 months according to type-specific seropositivity at baseline**

151 Among the 433 women with genotyping and serology data at both visits (**Figure 1**), 221 (51.0%)
152 women had newly detected HPV-DNA at endline, with a total of 327 incident infections (**Table 4**).

153 The risk of incident infection was lower among women who were same-type seropositive
154 compared to seronegative at baseline for HPV18 (1.5% vs. 6.4%; aOR=0.14, 95%CI:0.02-0.80, adjusted
155 for baseline CD4+ cell count, ART status and seropositivity for any type from same HPV
156 phylogenetic family); HPV35 (4.1% vs 11.9%; aOR=0.26, 95%CI:0.10-0.68) and HPV58 (1.8% vs. 5.4%;
157 aOR=0.19, 95%CI:0.04-0.89). Conversely, the risk was higher among those with same-type baseline
158 seropositivity for HPV45 (10.5% vs. 4.0%) but the association did not persist following adjustment
159 for seropositivity from same HPV phylogenetic family (aOR=2.81, 95%CI:0.87-9.04), although
160 numbers were small.

161 Among 403 women with detectable antibodies at baseline, 384 (95.3%) had the same type
162 detected again at endline. HPV-DNA incidence was similar among women with seropersistence and
163 seroreversion (**Table 4**).

164

165 DISCUSSION

166 This prospective study of serological dynamics for 15 HPV types among WLHIV found a very high
167 seroprevalence at baseline, new-type seroconversion and type-specific seropersistence 16 months
168 later. In keeping with these findings, these women also had high prevalence, incidence and
169 persistence of HR-HPV-DNA, including multiple type infection[5]. To our knowledge, this is the first
170 study to report HPV seroconversion in conjunction with HPV-DNA over time among WLHIV.

171 We report a similar seroprevalence for types HPV6, 11 and 16 as reported elsewhere among WLHIV
172 in South Africa[13] and the USA[14]. We found that the proportion of women who were
173 seropositive for multiple HPV types was higher than the prevalence of multiple HPV-DNA infections
174 at baseline, suggesting prior exposure to these types. Although the prevalence of antibodies to
175 HPV vaccine types was high, the simultaneous seropositivity for all 9vHPV vaccine types was
176 observed in a minority of women.

177 After 16 months of follow-up, we report evidence of same-type seroconversion, which was higher
178 among women with same-type persistence compared to cleared infection at endline.
179 Seroconversion rates reported in this study are lower than those reported among HIV-negative
180 women. A study among 588 HIV-negative HPV-unvaccinated women aged 18-20 years[15] reported
181 seroconversion rates of 59.5%, 54.1% and 68.8% for HPV16, HPV18 and HPV6, respectively within 18
182 months of detection of same-type incident infection, and was more likely among women with
183 same-type persistent infection, as found in our study. Similarly, among 6,528 women in Costa
184 Rica[16] 21.7% of women with HPV-DNA at baseline had seroconversion for HPV16 over a median
185 6.4 years, and was higher among women with persistent compared to cleared infection. While
186 there are no studies among WLHIV to make any comparison, seroconversion among 245 HIV-
187 infected men who have sex with men (MSM) in the Netherlands following anal or penile HPV
188 infection was 23% over 12 months[17] and 42% over 24 months among 281 HIV-infected MSM
189 initiating ART in Switzerland[18].

190 Seroconversion in our study varied by HPV type, and was highest for HPV31 and lowest for HPV16.
191 The type-specific seroconversion rates reflected the type-specific infection states at follow-up. The
192 overall incident and persistent HPV-DNA was higher for HPV16 than for other types[19]. The lower
193 seroconversion and subsequent increased risk of HPV16 incidence and persistence could be a result
194 of its immune evasion mechanisms[20].

195 Seroconversion was more frequent among women with higher CD4+ cell count (>350 cells/mm³)
196 at endline and this association was observed in the short-duration (≤ 2 years) ART users only. A
197 study among 281 MSM initiating ART and followed for a median of 2 years[18] reported that those
198 with lower nadir CD4+ cell count (<200 cells/mm³) at ART initiation had the highest seroconversion
199 rates, compared to MSM initiating ART at higher CD4+ cell count (≥ 350 cells/mm³). It is possible
200 that ART-related immune reconstitution during follow-up may have promoted seroconversion, and
201 this was highest among men with the lowest CD4+ cell count, possibly because they had the
202 greatest CD4+ cell count recovery. Although nadir CD4+ cell count was not available in our study,
203 short-duration ART users at endline had a lower baseline CD4+ cell count compared to both the
204 long-duration ART or ART-naïve women (median CD4+ count of 324, 461 and 497 cells/mm³,
205 respectively[5]). Although baseline CD4+ cell count was not associated with seroconversion, the
206 subsequent increase in CD4+ cell count at endline through ART-initiated immune reconstitution
207 (median CD4+ cell count among short duration ART users increased by +103 cells/mm³ [IQR: -13 to
208 196]) may have stimulated seroconversion among the recent ART users in response to the high
209 rate of HPV-DNA persistence reported in this cohort[5]. This is also supported by our findings of
210 higher seroconversion rates among women with better ART adherence.

211 An additional explanation for higher seroconversion among short-duration ART users is linked to
212 the higher HPV-DNA prevalence, persistence and lack of viral clearance in this group compared to
213 prolonged ART users in this cohort[5]. It can be speculated that among recent ART initiators,
214 immune reconstitution may have been not entirely effective to prevent persistence in the short-

215 term[5]. Our finding of an association of seroconversion with higher endline (but not baseline)
216 CD4+ count in this study, may reflect the delay required for seroconversion to occur after infection,
217 which might also be influenced by the initial state of immunosuppression. As seen in young HIV-
218 negative women, HPV16 seroconversion occurred between 6 to 12 months after DNA
219 detection[15]. In our study, the duration of HPV-DNA infection at baseline could not be determined.

220 Women taking ART for a prolonged duration (>2 years) had similar low seroconversion rate as ART-
221 naïve women. This may be because women on prolonged ART and strong immune recovery may
222 have fewer prevalent and persistent infections[5], which would be required to trigger
223 seroconversion. The more puzzling finding, however, is that ART-naïve women in this study had as
224 high rates of persistent HR-HPV infection as short-duration ART users, and their CD4+ cell count at
225 either timepoint was not associated with seroconversion. Increases in HPV seropositivity by ART
226 status have been shown to be independent of CD4+ count in other studies among MSM[18] and
227 WLHIV[14]. No study has yet compared seroconversion among ART users and ART-naïve women
228 following natural infection, but vaccination studies among WLHIV have shown that, while
229 seroconversion rates are similar among ART users and ART-naïve women in the US and Puerto
230 Rico[21], HPV16 and HPV18 antibody titres were lower among ART-naïve but comparable between
231 HIV-negative and ART users[21]. These data suggest there may be some beneficial impact of ART
232 in promoting seroconversion.

233 We found evidence that HPV antibodies detected at baseline provided protection against DNA
234 detection only for HPV18, 35 and 58, for which infection rates were lower. A recent meta-analysis,
235 which assessed whether naturally acquired immunity conferred protection against subsequent
236 infection by the same type[4], reported that HIV-negative women with antibodies against HPV16
237 and HPV18 had a modest 35% and 30% lower risk of subsequent infection, respectively against the
238 corresponding type. We found no protection conferred by HPV16 antibodies against HPV16 DNA
239 detection in this study. Others have reported that HPV16 is better able to evade the host immune

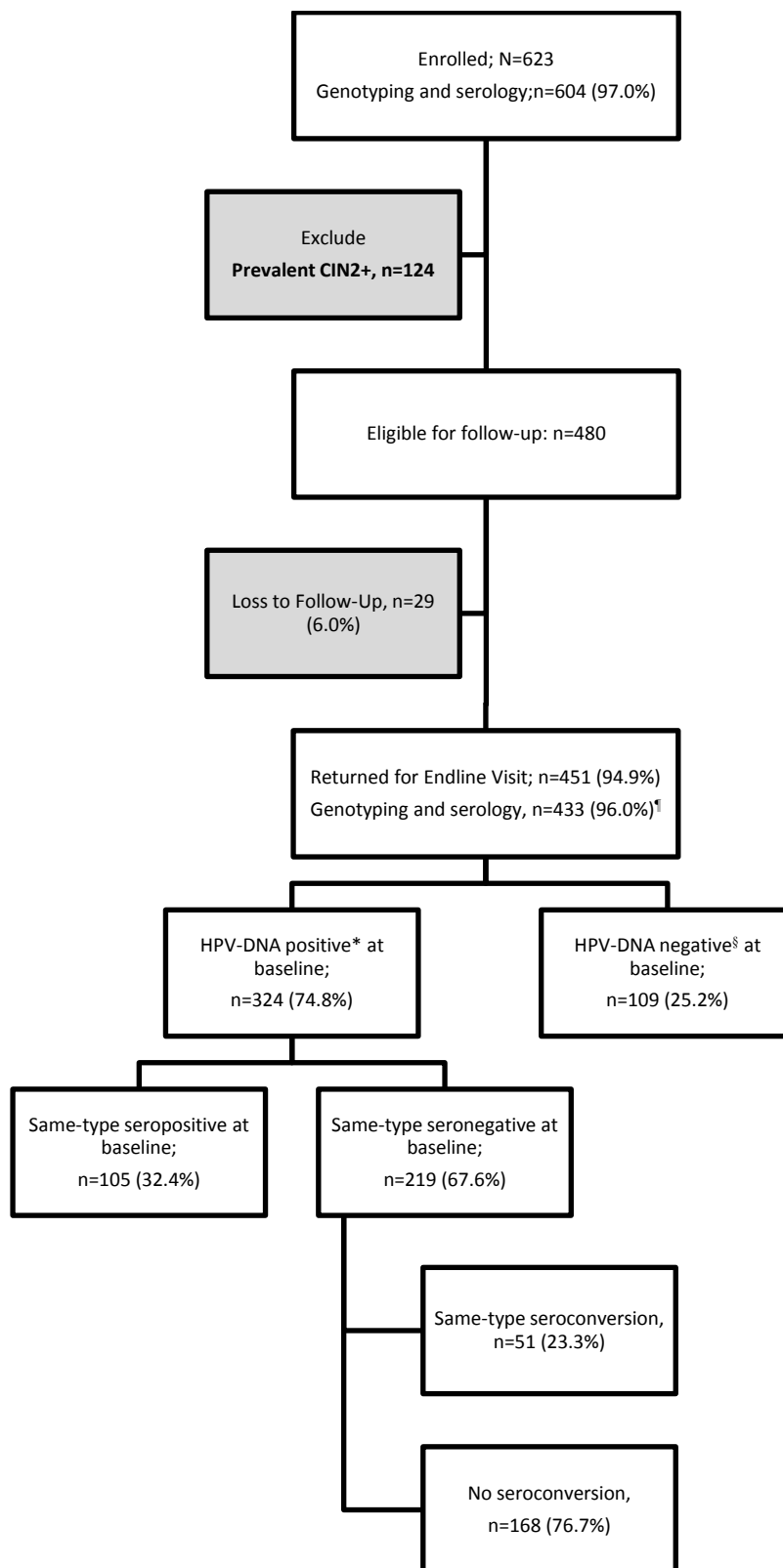
240 surveillance relative to other HPV types[22], which may explain its predominance in high-grade
241 cervical lesions in HIV-positive and HIV-negative women[3]. A prospective study among 829 WLHIV
242 risk-matched with 413 HIV-negative women in the US[23] reported no statistically significant
243 difference in the risk of reinfection of any HR-HPV (HPV16/18/31/35/45) among women with same-
244 type seropositivity compared to same-type seronegative at baseline over a median 4.5 years, with
245 the exception of a reduced risk with HPV45.

246 Other studies have evaluated whether HPV antibodies detected at two or more time points were
247 associated with subsequent detection of same-type HPV-DNA among HIV-negative women. A
248 prospective study with longitudinal serology measurements among 608 HIV-negative women
249 seen at 6-month intervals for 3 years in the US[24] reported a reduction in risk of subsequent HPV16
250 detection among women with a sustained high level of HPV16 antibody (seropositivity at two or
251 more time points) and its phylogenetically related types (HPV31/33/58). HPV seropersistence in our
252 study over 16 months was very high, however there was limited evidence that WLHIV who had
253 type-specific seropersistence had lower HPV-DNA detection compared to women with
254 seroreversion at endline. This finding suggests that seroprevalence, seropersistence and
255 seroreversion are not good markers of protection against subsequent DNA detection. Given the
256 limited evidence that natural immunity can protect against subsequent infection[4], a multivalent
257 vaccine such as the nonavalent vaccine would be beneficial given that 55% of WLHIV in this study
258 had multiple HR-HPV infection at baseline, 18% had multiple persistent types at endline[19] and few
259 women were simultaneously infected by all vaccine-types.

260 This study was constrained by a limited number of visits between baseline and endline and the
261 overall relatively short follow-up duration. Therefore, we cannot establish whether the
262 seroconversion event occurred in response to either an infection which persisted during follow-up
263 or a baseline infection which cleared followed by new DNA detection of the same type. Moreover,
264 when evaluating the risk of new DNA detection according to same-type seropositivity at baseline,

265 we cannot exclude the possibility that the infection detected at 16-months was a reinfection or a
266 recurrence of a latent undetected infection. However, infrequent condom use, presence of other
267 sexually transmitted infection or reproductive tract infections (including *Chlamydia trachomatis*,
268 *Trichomonas vaginalis*, and bacterial vaginosis), vaginal cleansing and low CD4+ counts at
269 enrolment were associated with new DNA detection (data not shown). These factors may point
270 to behaviours or factors enhancing the risk of a new sexually acquired infection, or modifiers of
271 vaginal biome or mucosal immunity which may enhance the possibility of reactivation of a latent
272 HPV infection. Analysis of new DNA detection over 16 months according to type-specific positivity
273 was constrained by the small numbers of individual genotype positivity. This study had several
274 important strengths, including its longitudinal design, the availability of serology and genotyping
275 data at both time points. It is the first study to measure HPV serodynamics longitudinally among
276 WLHIV.

277 In conclusion, this study shows that WLHIV have high HPV seroprevalence and sero-persistence of
278 type-specific antibodies. We found evidence of seroconversion over 16 months that was
279 dependent on CD4+ cell count at endline. The high HPV incidence and the limited evidence that
280 naturally acquired antibodies protect against new DNA detection combined with the fact that even
281 though WLHIV have multiple infections, few have been infected with all preventable infections,
282 suggest that WLHIV could benefit from highly multivalent HPV vaccination. Studies, including
283 mathematical modelling studies, assessing the efficacy and cost-effectiveness of nonavalent HPV
284 vaccine are warranted in this population.

285 **Figure 1 Study flowchart**

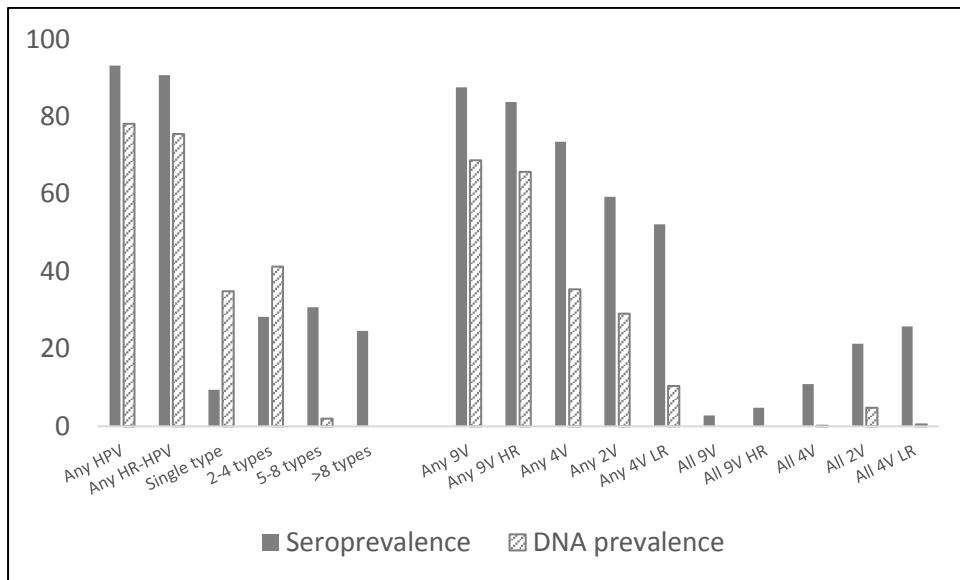
286

287 **Legend:**

288 [†]given that no woman was infected by all 15 HPV types, all women were at risk of acquiring at least one-HPV; *DNA positive for any 15
 289 type (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68/73); [§]DNA negative for all 15 type
 290 (HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68/73)

291 **Figure 2. HPV type seroprevalence and DNA prevalence among 604 women living with HIV in**
 292 **Johannesburg, South Africa**

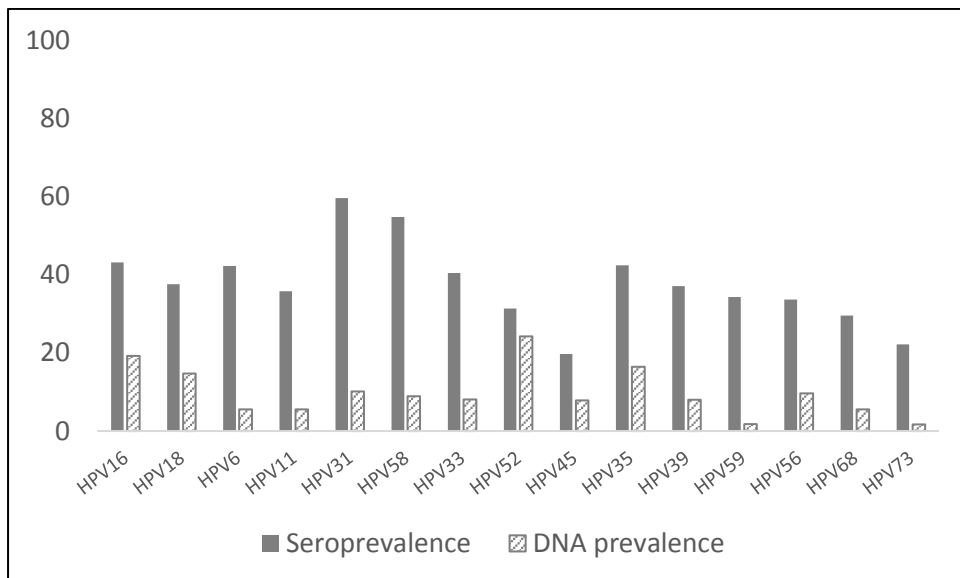
293 Panel A



294

295

296 Panel B



297

298

299 **Legend:**

300 Panel A: Prevalence of combination of HPV types: * Any HPV type prevalence defined as positive for at least one HPV type
 301 (6/11/16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68/73) at baseline; Any HR-HPV type prevalence defined as positive for at least one HR type
 302 (16/18/31/33/35/39/45/52/56/58/59/68) at baseline; Any 9V=Positive for any of HPV6/11/16/18/31/33/45/52/58; Any 9V-HR=Positive for any of

- 303 HPV16/18/31/33/45/52/58; Any 4V= Positive for any of HPV6/11/16/18; Any 4V-LR= Positive for any of HPV6/11; Any 2V= Positive for any of
- 304 HPV16/18; All gV=Positive for ALL of HPV6,11,16,18,31,33,45,52 and 58; All gV-HR=Positive for ALL of HPV16,18,31,33,45,52 and 58; All
- 305 4V=Positive for ALL of HPV6,11,16 and 18; All 2V=Positive for BOTH HPV16 and 18; All 4V-LR=Positive for BOTH HPV6 and 11. Panel B:
- 306 Prevalence of individual HPV types.
- 307

308 Table 1. Comparison of HPV seropositivity among type-specific HPV DNA positive and DNA negative women living with HIV (N=604) at baseline

	DNA positive (N)	Seropositive (n)	Seropositive/ DNA positive (%)	DNA negative (N)	Seropositive (n)	Seropositive/ DNA negative (%)	aPR (95%CI) ^a
Bi-/Quadrivalent types							
HPV6	33	14	42.4	571	241	42.2	0.94 (0.60-1.49)
HPV11	33	19	57.6	571	197	34.5	1.71 (1.24-2.35)
HPV16	115	50	43.5	489	210	42.9	1.02 (0.80-1.31)
HPV18	89	34	38.2	515	193	37.5	1.10 (0.83-1.47)
Additional Nonavalent types							
HPV31	61	42	68.9	543	318	58.6	1.28 (1.08-1.52)
HPV33	48	25	52.1	556	219	39.4	1.25 (0.91-1.71)
HPV45	47	12	25.5	557	107	19.2	1.42 (0.84-2.42)
HPV52	146	60	41.1	458	129	28.2	1.54 (1.19-1.98)
HPV58	54	36	66.7	550	295	53.6	1.27 (1.03-1.55)
Non-vaccine types							
HPV35	99	59	59.6	505	197	39.0	1.52 (1.23-1.88)
HPV39	48	25	52.1	556	199	35.8	1.46 (1.08-1.98)
HPV56	58	20	34.5	546	183	33.5	1.01 (0.68-1.49)
HPV59	11	6	54.5	593	201	33.9	1.59 (0.90-2.79)
HPV68	33	12	36.4	571	166	29.1	1.33 (0.82-2.14)
HPV73	10	4	40.0	594	130	21.9	1.15 (0.35-3.74)
Any HPV ^{a,b}	472	279	59.1^a	132	119	90.2^b	
Any HR-HPV ^{a,b}	456	267	58.6^a	148	127	85.8^b	

309 ^aHPV type seropositive among DNA positive for the same type; ^b Any type HPV seropositive among DNA negative for all types; ¹adjusted Prevalence Ratio [PR] for type-specific seroprevalence if same-type DNA
310 positive compared to DNA negative, adjusted for injectable contraception, HIV viral suppression (plasma HIV-1 RNA <1000 copies/ml) found to be associated with any HPV seroprevalence at baseline, and CIN2+
311 status.

312 **Table 2. Type-specific seroconversion at 16 months among 219 women living with HIV without CIN2+ at baseline**

	All participants ^a		Participants with HPV DNA persistence ^b		Participants with HPV DNA clearance ^c	
	DNA+ & sero- at baseline	Seroconversion events	DNA+ & sero- at baseline	Seroconversion events	DNA+ & sero- at baseline	Seroconversion events
	N infections	n (%) ^a	N infections	n (%) ^b	N infections	n (%) ^c
HPV16	41	1 (2.4)	11	1 (9.1)	30	0 (0.0)
HPV18	41	7 (17.1)	14	3 (21.4)	27	4 (14.8)
HPV6	13	3 (23.1)	0	0 (0.0)	13	3 (23.1)
HPV11	13	2 (15.4)	3	1 (33.3)	10	1 (10.0)
HPV31	13	7 (53.9)	2	2 (100.0)	11	5 (45.5)
HPV33	15	5 (33.3)	1	1 (100.0)	14	4 (28.6)
HPV45	25	4 (16.0)	8	1 (12.5)	17	3 (17.6)
HPV52	63	12 (19.1)	21	6 (28.6)	42	6 (14.3)
HPV58	12	3 (25.0)	4	1 (25.0)	8	2 (25.0)
HPV35	26	6 (23.1)	11	3 (27.3)	15	3 (20.0)
HPV39	19	0 (0.0)	2	0 (0.0)	17	0 (0.0)
HPV56	26	4 (15.4)	4	1 (25.0)	22	3 (13.6)
HPV59	4	1 (25.0)	1	0 (0.0)	3	1 (33.3)
HPV68	13	1 (7.7)	3	0 (0.0)	10	1 (10.0)
HPV73	2	0 (0.0)	2	0 (0.0)	0	0 (0.0)
Any HPV	326	56 (17.2)	87	20 (23.0)	239	36 (15.1)
Any HR-HPV	298	51 (17.1)	82	19 (23.2)	216	32 (14.8)

313 ^aSeroconversion calculated among 219 women with DNA+/sero- status at baseline representing 326 infections; ^bSeroconversion calculated among DNA+/sero- at baseline and with type-specific persistence at314 ^cSeroconversion calculated among DNA+/sero- at baseline and type-specific clearance at endline

315 **Table 3. HIV-related factors associated with HPV seroconversion at 16 months using 319 events**
 316 **of DNA positive/same type seronegative at baseline (among 219 women living with HIV)**

	N	n (%)	aOR (95% CI) ^a
All women			
Baseline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^b			
≤350	96	19 (19.8)	1.19 (0.64-2.21)
>350	221	37 (16.7)	1.00
Endline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^b			
≤350	93	10 (10.8)	0.51 (0.24-1.07)
>350	191	37 (19.4)	1.00
ART status at endline			
ART >2 years	124	22 (17.7)	1.77 (0.85-3.69)
ART ≤2 years	61	15 (24.6)	2.39 (1.02-5.62)
ART-naïve	134	19 (14.2)	1.00
Baseline ART users			
HIV-1 viral suppression at baseline			
<1000 copies/ml	146	27 (18.5)	1.00
≥1000 copies/ml	26	7 (26.9)	1.91 (0.67-5.38)
ART adherence at baseline^c			
Low adherence (<60%)	28	2 (7.1)	1.00
Moderate adherence (60-90%)	143	32 (22.4)	8.93 (1.13-70.36)
Baseline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^d			
≤350	64	15 (23.4)	1.38 (0.64-2.96)
>350	106	19 (17.9)	1.00
Endline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^e			
≤350	50	4 (8.0)	0.25 (0.08-0.75)
>350	99	26 (26.3)	1.00
Stable high CD4+ count^f			
Yes	27	4 (14.8)	1.00
No	144	30 (20.8)	1.52 (0.49-4.74)
ART-naïve women			
Baseline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^g			
≤350	32	4 (12.5)	0.71 (0.22-2.31)
>350	115	18 (15.7)	1.00
Endline CD4+ count (cells/mm³)^h			
≤350	40	6 (15.0)	1.40 (0.46-4.30)
>350	81	9 (11.1)	1.00
Stable high CD4+ count^f			
Yes	27	1 (3.7)	1.00
No	121	21 (17.4)	5.18 (0.66-40.85)

317 Adjusted Odds Ratio (aOR) using generalised estimating equation; ^aAssociations with HPV seroconversion were adjusted for injectable
 318 contraception use and CD4+ count at endline which were found to be associated with any HPV type seropositivity in multivariate analysis
 319 (with exception of associations with ART at baseline when baseline CD4+ was used for adjustment); ^bCD4+ count at baseline available
 320 for 317; CD4+ count at endline available for 284; ^cART adherence measure available for 171 ART users at baseline; ^dBaseline CD4+ count
 321 among ART users at baseline; ^eEndline CD4+ count among ART users throughout follow-up; ^fStable high CD4+ count was defined as
 322 having CD4+ counts >500 cells/mm³ at baseline, month 12 (intermediate) and endline visits; ^gBaseline CD4+ among participants who
 323 were ART-naïve at baseline; ^hEndline CD4+ count among participants who were ART-naïve throughout follow-up.

324

325 Table 4. Newly detected HPV DNA among 433 women living with HIV without CIN2+, measured over 16 months follow-up, stratified by same type
 326 seropositivity at baseline

	All participants		Seronegative at baseline		Seropositive at baseline		aOR (95%CI) ³	Among seropositive at baseline					
	N ¹	n (%) ²	N ¹	n (%) ²	N ¹	n (%) ²		Seropersistence at endline		Seroreversion at endline		aOR (95%CI) ⁴	
								N ¹	n (%) ²	N ¹	n (%) ²		
Any Alpha-9 HR-HPV types													
HPV16	366	48 (13.1)	203	25 (12.3)	163	23 (14.1)	1.48 (0.69-3.15)	135	20 (14.8)	28	3 (10.7)	1.50 (0.39-5.72)	
HPV31	394	20 (5.1)	169	8 (4.7)	225	12 (5.3)	1.12 (0.36-3.45)	204	10 (4.9)	21	2 (9.5)	0.57 (0.11-2.92)	
HPV33	408	17 (4.2)	248	11 (4.4)	160	6 (3.8)	0.70 (0.21-2.33)	143	5 (3.5)	17	1 (5.9)	0.59 (0.06-5.60)	
HPV35	374	33 (8.8)	227	27 (11.9)	147	6 (4.1)	0.26 (0.10-0.68)	110	4 (3.6)	37	2 (5.4)	0.67 (0.11-4.13)	
HPV52	327	55 (16.8)	233	41 (17.6)	94	14 (14.9)	0.77 (0.36-1.65)	82	12 (14.6)	12	2 (16.7)	0.78 (0.14-4.37)	
HPV58	404	14 (3.5)	187	10 (5.4)	217	4 (1.8)	0.19 (0.04-0.89)	191	3 (1.5)	26	1 (3.9)	0.29 (0.02-3.48)	
Any Alpha-7 HR-HPV types													
HPV18	367	17 (4.6)	235	15 (6.4)	132	2 (1.5)	0.14 (0.02-0.80)	84	2 (2.4)	48	0 (0.0)		
HPV39	397	24 (6.1)	251	14 (5.6)	146	10 (6.9)	1.69 (0.65-4.42)	83	5 (6.0)	63	5 (7.9)	0.78 (0.21-2.85)	
HPV45	403	21 (5.2)	327	13 (4.0)	76	8 (10.5)	2.81 (0.87-9.04)	37	4 (10.8)	39	4 (10.3)	1.42 (0.27-7.66)	
HPV59	424	5 (1.2)	280	4 (1.4)	144	1 (0.7)	0.41 (0.02-8.74)	107	1 (0.9)	37	0 (0.0)		
HPV68	412	26 (6.3)	299	13 (4.4)	113	13 (11.5)	4.07 (1.52-10.90)	89	11 (12.4)	24	2 (8.3)	1.30 (0.26-6.60)	
Other HPV types													
HPV56	396	16 (4.0)	264	10 (3.8)	132	6 (4.6)	1.56 (0.51-4.76)	98	5 (5.1)	34	1 (2.9)	1.51 (0.17-13.76)	
LR-HPV types													
HPV6	410	13 (3.2)	241	7 (2.9)	169	6 (3.6)	1.28 (0.41-4.03)	142	5 (3.5)	27	1 (3.7)	1.09 (0.12-10.26)	
HPV11	408	15 (3.7)	269	10 (3.7)	139	5 (3.6)	1.16 (0.37-3.67)	119	4 (3.4)	20	1 (5.0)	0.73 (0.08-7.07)	
HPV73	428	3 (0.7)	331	1 (0.3)	97	2 (2.1)	28.03 (0.98-798.1)	72	1 (1.4)	25	1 (4.0)	0.40 (0.02-6.73)	
Any HPV	433^a	327	427^b	209 (48.9)	400^c	118 (29.5)							

327 ¹Number of women negative for that type at baseline; ²number of incident infections among women negative or that type at baseline; ³adjusted Odds Ratio (OR) for DNA incidence among same-type seropositive
 328 vs. seronegative at baseline, adjusted for age, smoking, condom, vaginal washing, bacterial vaginosis, Chlamydia trachomatis, Trichomonas vaginalis, CD4 count and ART status at baseline as reported in [5] and
 329 for seropositivity for HPV type from same family group, i.e. HPV16 DNA incidence adjusted seropositivity for types HPV31/33/35/52/58 (except for HPV56,6,11 and 73 due to small numbers); ⁴adjusted OR for DNA
 330 incidence among seropersistent vs. seroreverted at endline, adjusted for CD4+ at baseline only due to small numbers; ^aAll women at risk of acquiring a HPV infection (no woman infected by all types at baseline);
 331 ^ball women with any HPV type seronegative and same type DNA negative at baseline; ^cAll women with any HPV type seropositive and same type DNA negative at baseline.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST: The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

FUNDING: This work was supported by funding from the European Commission (EC) 7th Framework Programme under grant agreement No. HEALTH-2010-F2-265396, and from the UK Medical Research Council (MRC) PHINDS scheme (PH01/14-39). The research findings were presented at the 31th International Papillomavirus Conference 28 February-4 March 2017, Cape Town, South Africa; abstract number 404.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Helen Kelly, Clinical Research Department, Faculty of Infectious and Tropical Diseases, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E7HT, United Kingdom (e-mail: helen.kelly@lshtm.ac.uk)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Contributing members of the HARP study group included: A. Chikandiwa, E. Cutler, S. Delany-Moretlwe, D. A. Lewis, M.P. Magooa, V. Maseko, P. Michelow, B. Muzah, T. Omar, A. Puren (Johannesburg, South Africa); F. Djigma, J. Drabo, O. Goumbri-Lompo, N. Meda, B. Sawadogo, J. Simporé, A. Yonli, S Zan (Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso); V. Costes, M.N. Didelot, S. Doutre, N. Leventoux, N. Nagot, J. Ngou, M. Segondy (Montpellier, France); and A. Devine, C. Gilham, L. Gibson, H. Kelly, R. Legood, P. Mayaud, H.A. Weiss (London, UK).

The HARP Study Group also wishes to thank its International Scientific Advisory Group (ISAG) constituting of Prof. C. Lacey (Chair, University of York, UK), Prof. Y. Qiao (Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences and Peking Union Medical College, Beijing, China), Prof. M. Chirenje (University of Harare, Zimbabwe) and Prof. S. de Sanjosé (Institut Catala d'Oncologia, Barcelona, Spain); and the members of the HARP Endpoint Committee (EPC) including T. Omar (Johannesburg, South Africa), O. Goumbri-Lompo (Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso), S. Doutre, N. Leventoux, V. Costes (Montpellier, France) and O. Clavero (Institut Catala d'Oncologia, Barcelona, Spain).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceived and designed the study: PM, SD, HW, JD, HK; Coordinated the study: HK, AC, SD, PM; Participant recruitment and management: AC, SD; Performed the lab testing: HF, JN; Analysed the data: HK, HF; Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: HK; Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: All; Criteria for authorship read and met: All; Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: all.

REFERENCES

1. de Sanjose S, Quint WGV, Alemany L, Geraets DT, Klaustermeier JE, Lloveras B, et al. Human papillomavirus genotype attribution in invasive cervical cancer: a retrospective cross-sectional worldwide study. *The Lancet Oncology*. 2010;11(11):1048-56.
2. Joura EA, Ault KA, Bosch FX, Brown D, Cuzick J, Ferris D, et al. Attribution of 12 high-risk human papillomavirus genotypes to infection and cervical disease. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2014;23(10):1997-2008.
3. Clifford GM, de Vuyst H, Tenet V, Plummer M, Tully S, Franceschi S. Effect of HIV Infection on Human Papillomavirus Types Causing Invasive Cervical Cancer in Africa. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2016;73(3):332-9.
4. Beachler DC, Jenkins G, Safaeian M, Kreimer AR, Wentzensen N. Natural Acquired Immunity Against Subsequent Genital Human Papillomavirus Infection: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *J Infect Dis*. 2016;213(9):1444-54.
5. Kelly HA, Sawadogo B, Chikandiwa A, Segondy M, Gilham C, Lompo O, et al. Epidemiology of high-risk human papillomavirus and cervical lesions in African women living with HIV/AIDS: effect of anti-retroviral therapy. *Aids*. 2017;31(2):273-85.
6. Bouvard V, Baan, R., Straif, K., Grosse, Y., Secretan, B., El Ghissassi, F., Benbrahim-Tallaa, L., Guha, N., Freeman, C., Galichet, L., Coglianò, V. on behalf of the WHO International Agency for Research on Cancer Monograph Working Group. A review of human carcinogens—Part B: biological agents. *Lancet Oncology*. 2009;10:321-2.
7. Ucakar V, Jelen MM, Faust H, Poljak M, Dillner J, Klavs I. Pre-vaccination seroprevalence of 15 human papillomavirus (HPV) types among women in the population-based Slovenian cervical screening program. *Vaccine*. 2013;31(43):4935-9.
8. Artemchuk H, Triglav T, Oštrbenk A, Poljak M, Dillner J, Faust H. Seroprevalences for 11 Human Papillomavirus (HPV) types mark cumulative HPV exposure. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2018;In Press.
9. Eklund C, Unger ER, Nardelli-Haeffliger D, Zhou T, Dillner J. International collaborative proficiency study of Human Papillomavirus type 16 serology. *Vaccine*. 2012;30(2):294-9.
10. Faust H, Knekt P, Forslund O, Dillner J. Validation of multiplexed human papillomavirus serology using pseudovirions bound to heparin-coated beads. *J Gen Virol*. 2010;91(Pt 7):1840-8.
11. Localio AR, Margolis DJ, Berlin JA. Relative risks and confidence intervals were easily computed indirectly from multivariable logistic regression. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2007;60(9):874-82.
12. Xue X, Gange SJ, Zhong Y, Burk RD, Minkoff H, Massad LS, et al. Marginal and mixed-effects models in the analysis of human papillomavirus natural history data. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2010;19(1):159-69.
13. Firnhaber C, Evans D, Friedman-Khalili R, Williams S, Michelow P, Matlhagela K, et al. Seroprevalence of HPV vaccine types 6, 11, 16 and 18 in HIV-infected women from South Africa, Brazil and Botswana. *J Clin Virol*. 2011;52(3):265-8.
14. Viscidi RP, Ahdieh-Grant L, Clayman B, Fox K, Massad LS, Cu-Uvin S, et al. Serum immunoglobulin G response to human papillomavirus type 16 virus-like particles in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-positive and risk-matched HIV-negative women. *J Infect Dis*. 2003;187(2):194-205.
15. Carter JJ, Koutsky LA, Hughes JP, Lee SK, Kuypers J, Kiviat N, et al. Comparison of human papillomavirus types 16, 18, and 6 capsid antibody responses following incident infection. *J Infect Dis*. 2000;181(6):1911-9.
16. Wang SS, Schiffman M, Herrero R, Carreon J, Hildesheim A, Rodriguez AC, et al. Determinants of human papillomavirus 16 serological conversion and persistence in a population-based cohort of 10 000 women in Costa Rica. *Br J Cancer*. 2004;91(7):1269-74.

17. Mooij SH, Landen O, van der Klis FR, van der Sande MA, de Melker HE, Xiridou M, et al. HPV seroconversion following anal and penile HPV infection in HIV-negative and HIV-infected MSM. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2014;23(11):2455-61.
18. Combes JD, Clifford GM, Egger M, Cavassini M, Hirsch HH, Hauser C, et al. Human papillomavirus antibody response following HAART initiation among MSM. *Aids.* 2017;31(4):561-9.
19. Kelly HA, Ngou J, Chikandiwa A, Sawadogo B, Gilham C, Omar T, et al. Associations of human papillomavirus (HPV) genotypes with high-grade cervical neoplasia (CIN2+) in a cohort of women living with HIV in Burkina Faso and South Africa. *PLOS ONE.* 2017;(accepted).
20. Strickler HD, Palefsky JM, Shah KV, Anastos K, Klein RS, Minkoff H, et al. Human papillomavirus type 16 and immune status in human immunodeficiency virus-seropositive women. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2003;95(14):1062-71.
21. Kahn JA, Xu J, Kapogiannis BG, Rudy B, Gonin R, Liu N, et al. Immunogenicity and safety of the human papillomavirus 6, 11, 16, 18 vaccine in HIV-infected young women. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;57(5):735-44.
22. Strickler HD, Palefsky JM, Shah KV, Anastos K, Klein RS, Minkoff H, et al. Human papillomavirus type 16 and immune status in human immunodeficiency virus-seropositive women. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2003;95(14):1062-71.
23. Viscidi RP, Snyder B, Cu-Uvin S, Hogan JW, Clayman B, Klein RS, et al. Human papillomavirus capsid antibody response to natural infection and risk of subsequent HPV infection in HIV-positive and HIV-negative women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2005;14(1):283-8.
24. Ho GY, Studentsov Y, Hall CB, Bierman R, Beardsley L, Lempa M, et al. Risk factors for subsequent cervicovaginal human papillomavirus (HPV) infection and the protective role of antibodies to HPV-16 virus-like particles. *J Infect Dis.* 2002;186(6):737-42.