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1 **Increased risk of HPV-associated genital cancers in men and women as a consequence of**
2 **pre-invasive disease**

3

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41 **Keywords:** HPV, non-cervical genital cancer, data linkage

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44 **Abstract**

45 To assess the excess risk of HPV-associated cancer (HPVaC) in two at-risk groups – women with a previous
46 diagnosis of high grade cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN3) and both men and women treated for non-
47 cervical pre-invasive ano-genital disease.

48 All CIN3 cases diagnosed in 1989-2015 in Scotland were extracted from the Scottish cancer registry (SMR06). All
49 cases of pre-invasive penile, anal, vulval, and vaginal disease diagnosed in 1990-2015 were identified within the
50 NHS pathology databases in the two largest NHS health boards in Scotland. Both were linked to SMR06 to extract
51 subsequent incidence of HPVaC following the diagnosis of CIN3 or pre-invasive disease. Standardised incidence
52 ratios were calculated for the risk of acquiring HPVaC for the two at-risk groups compared with the general
53 Scottish population.

54 Among 69714 females in Scotland diagnosed with CIN3 (890360.9 person-years), 179 developed non-cervical
55 HPVaC. CIN3 cases were at 3.2-fold (95% CI: 2.7 to 3.7) increased risk of developing non-cervical HPVaC,
56 compared to the general female population. Among 1235 patients diagnosed with non-cervical pre-invasive
57 disease (9667.4 person-years), 47 developed HPVaC. Individuals with non-cervical pre-invasive disease had a
58 substantially increased risk of developing HPVaC - 15.5-fold (95% CI: 11.1 to 21.1) increased risk for females and
59 28-fold (11.3 to 57.7) increased risk for males.

60 We report a significant additional risk of HPV-associated cancer in those have been diagnosed with pre-invasive
61 HPV-associated lesions including but not confined to the cervix. Uncovering the natural history of pre-invasive
62 disease has potential for determining screening, prevention and treatment.

63

64 **Summary box**

65 What is already known?

66 A history of CIN3 confers a significant risk of HPV-associated cancer.

67 What is this study adds?

68 A history of non-cervical ano-genital pre-invasive disease is associated with significant additional risk of HPV
69 associated cancer.

70 Determining risk of pre-invasive disease has potential for determining screening, prevention and treatment
71 strategies. HPV vaccination for this high-risk group may provide benefit.

72 Introduction

73 The incidence of human papillomavirus (HPV)-associated, non-cervical cancers is increasing globally and
74 Scotland is no exception. The increase in incidence of oropharyngeal cancer (OPC) has been the best
75 documented and evidence that the HPV positive status in OPC confers an improved clinical outcome has focused
76 much research into finding an explanation for this observation. However, other non-cervical genital HPV
77 associated cancers are also increasing and this is less documented in the literature as is, arguably, the role of
78 HPV status in the clinical outcome of those affected. In Scotland, the age-standardised incidence of cancers of
79 the anus, penis, vagina and vulva rose by 1.6, 1.1, 0.1 and 0.9 per 100,000 respectively during 1970 – 2014 [1].
80 This trend is mirrored elsewhere in countries that have robust cancer registry data [2].

81 Reasons for the increase in cancers of the anus, penis and vulva are not fully understood although an increase
82 in HPV infection supported by temporal changes in sexual practices and behaviors has been suggested.
83 Individuals interviewed as part of the National Survey of Sexual Attitudes and Lifestyles (NATSAL) report younger
84 age of first intercourse, increased number of lifetime heterosexual partners and an increase in the number of
85 individuals reporting same-sex experience compared to earlier surveys [3]. In the USA, inferred trends in sexual
86 behaviour over the past decades have paralleled the increasing incidence of HPV-related cancers [4]. This said,
87 the differential influence of risk factors, including and beyond sexual behaviours makes the generation of a broad
88 conclusion to explain this increase challenging.

89 It is important to monitor incidence of these neoplasms to determine the associated morbidity and mortality
90 that could be preventable by HPV vaccination in future generations. However, the current HPV vaccines will not
91 wholly protect individuals already infected with HPV, nor prevent disease associated with all 13 oncogenic types.
92 As a consequence, the challenge remains of how to optimally manage and treat what can be particularly morbid
93 cancers from a clinical and psychological perspective. To this end, a clear understanding of their epidemiology
94 will help inform the requirement and nature of interventions for their detection, management and treatment.

95 The national organized cervical screening programme was introduced in Scotland in 1988 with the aim of
96 reducing the incidence of invasive cancer of the cervix and has been a success. The European age standardized
97 rate of invasive cervical cancer has reduced from 18/100,000 in 1988 to 10/100,000 in 2009, rising subsequently
98 to 13/100,000 in 2015. The percentage of eligible women who were recorded as screened adequately was 73.4%
99 [4]. However, in Scotland there is currently no coordinated/ organized surveillance for non-cervical genital
100 cancers in any population group or guidance for surveillance of these sites in high risk groups except for
101 enhanced cervical screening in HIV-positive women. This raises the concern that early diagnosis of curable non-
102 cervical genital cancers may be missed despite individuals being seen regularly by medical services.
103 Furthermore, gaining an understanding of particular groups who may be at increased risk of non-cervical genital
104 cancers could aid a focused and standardised approach to the monitoring.

105 We have used national population data available in Scotland to systematically assess the excess risk of HPV-
106 associated disease compared to the general population in two populations perceived to be at additional risk of
107 associated disease: (a) women with a history of CIN 3 and (b) individuals with a history of non-cervical pre-
108 invasive disease.

109 **Methods**

110 Data collation for women diagnosed with CIN3 and assessment of subsequent cancer risk

111 A retrospective cohort study of national data was performed in order to estimate the risk of HPV associated
112 cancers (HPVaC) in those diagnosed with CIN 3. All individuals resident in Scotland are uniquely identified in
113 National Health Service (NHS) datasets via their community health index (CHI) number. All cases of CIN3 (ICD10:
114 233.1) were extracted from the Scottish Cancer Registry (SMR06) [6]. As full introduction of national cervical
115 cancer screening was introduced in 1988 [5], extraction of CIN3 from SMR06 was limited to Jan 1989 - Dec 2015
116 (with the latter year representing the most recent year for which data was available at time of extraction).
117 Variables collected were gender, date of birth, health board and date of diagnosis of CIN3. All individuals with
118 CIN3 were then linked to SMR06 to extract incidence of HPVvC (tonsil, base of tongue, soft palate, oropharynx
119 not otherwise specified, cervix, vulva, vagina, penis, anus) (ICD10: C09, C01, C05, C10, C53, C51, C52, C60, C21,
120 respectively) in addition to rectal cancer (ICD10: C20) which was used as a baseline comparator with no known
121 association with HPV. Cancers with evidence of both vaginal and cervical malignancy were classified as cervical
122 cancer. The analysis focussed on individuals over 18 years old given that over 95% of cancers listed above are
123 diagnosed after this age [1]. Date of death/emigration was also captured in order to obtain the date of censoring
124 due to loss of follow-up.

125

126 Data collation for individuals diagnosed with pre-invasive penile, anal, vulval and vaginal disease and assessment
127 of subsequent cancer risk

128 All cases of pre-invasive penile, anal, vulval and vaginal disease and invasive malignancy diagnosed between
129 1990 and 2015 were identified within the NHS pathology databases associated with the two largest health
130 boards in Scotland – NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde (GGC) and NHS Lothian that together cover 2 million people
131 and thus around 40% of the Scottish population. Data, collected as part of routine clinical care, on gender, date
132 of birth, health board, date of diagnosis and degree of dysplasia were extracted. Subsequent HPVvC, rectal
133 cancer and date of death/emigration were linked from national data as explained previously.

134

135 Statistical analysis

136 For each of the two at-risk populations, person time at risk and the number of observed cancers were stratified
137 by age group in 5 year bands (18-19, 20-24, 25-30,..., 84-89, 90+), gender and year of diagnosis. The expected
138 numbers of cancers occurring among the at-risk population, assuming the same incidence as that observed for
139 the general population in Scotland (for patients with CIN3 history) or in GGC and Lothian (for pre-invasive cohort)
140 stratified by the same age groups, gender and year of cancer diagnosis, was calculated by multiplying the person
141 time at risk in each group by the corresponding average cancer incidence. The Standardised Incidence Ratio (SIR)
142 was defined as the ratio of the observed to expected number of cancers and the confidence interval (CI) was
143 calculated assuming that the observed number followed a Poisson distribution.

144 We excluded patients with a diagnosis of any HPVvC before a diagnosis of CIN3 or pre-invasive non-cervical
145 disease. The person time at risk started counting at one year after CIN3 or pre-invasive non-cervical disease
146 diagnosis and ended at earlier incidence of first HPVvC, death, emigration or the end of study (2015-12-31).
147 Those with an HPVvC occurring within one year of CIN3 or pre-invasive non-cervical disease diagnosis were
148 excluded in the baseline analysis to avoid mis-classification of concurrent disease as sequential disease events.
149 A sensitivity analysis, considering an exclusion time of 0, 3, 6, 9 months, was conducted to examine the influence
150 of this exclusion upon the results.

151 All analysis was conducted using R version 3.2.1.

152 **Results**

153 Risk of HPVaC following CIN3 diagnosis

154 Overall, 72153 women in Scotland had a diagnosis of CIN3 recoded in SMR06 between 1989-2015. Figure 1
155 presents the denominators of the at-risk populations, related exclusions and start and end point(s) of the
156 analysis. After excluding the patients with HPVaC before or during the year directly after the diagnosis of CIN3,
157 the denominator reduced to 69714, contributing 890360.9 person years (Table 1). The CIN3 population had a
158 median of age of diagnosis of 30 (IQR 26-36) and of these 490 women had a diagnosis of any HPVaC more than
159 one year after diagnosis of CIN3 corresponding to an SIR of 2.3 (95% CI 2.1-2.5) compared to the general female
160 population in Scotland (Table 1).

161 The risk of developing a non-cervical HPVaC varied by the anatomical subtype - SIR ranged from 2.3 (95% CI 1.6-
162 3.2) for oropharyngeal cancer to 9.6 (95% CI 7-13) for vaginal cancer (Table 1). The risk among women with CIN3
163 for anal and vulvar cancer was increased by more than 2-fold compared to the general female population. The
164 SIR for non-HPV related rectal cancer did not differ substantially from unity (SIR = 1.1 95% CI 0.9-1.5) (Table 1).

165 The SIR for developing any non-cervical HPVaC in the context of a cervical screening programme was higher than
166 that for cervical cancers (SIR for non-cervical HPVaC = 3.2, 95% CI 2.7-3.7; SIR for cervical cancer = 2.0, 95% CI
167 1.8-2.2) (Table 2). The SIR for non-cervical HPVaC increased with age at diagnosis CIN3 (SIR = 3.1 95% CI 2.2-4.1
168 for age \leq 30; SIR = 7.4 95% CI 0.9-26.8 for age $>$ 70). There was no time trend identified for the risk of non-
169 cervical HPVaC by year of diagnosis of CIN3. Interestingly, there was no reduction in risk of developing a non-
170 cervical HPVaC with increasing time from CIN3 diagnosis; the risk between 1-2 years from CIN3 diagnosis was
171 similar to that more than 20 years after CIN3 diagnosis.

172 The risk of cervical cancer was significantly increased in all birth cohorts, except for the women born after 1965,
173 for whom the risk did not differ from the general population. The greatest risk of cervical cancer was observed
174 in the oldest cohort (women born before 1935: SIR = 10.1 95% CI 5.8-16.4; born 1936-1945: SIR = 7.4 95% CI 5-
175 10.4). The risk of cervical cancer was increased in all ages when diagnosed after 30 years, with an increasing SIR
176 for those diagnosed CIN3 at older age (SIR = 2.5 95% CI 2.1-3 for age 31-40; SIR = 14.3 95% CI 1.7-51.6 for age
177 $>$ 70). There was no time trend observed in SIR by year of diagnosis of CIN3 and there was no decreasing trend
178 in SIR for time since the CIN3 diagnosis – even after 20 years since diagnosis of CIN3 there remained an increased
179 risk of cervical cancer (SIR = 2.6, 95% CI 1.6-4.1).

180

181 Risk of HPVaC following after non-cervical pre-invasive disease

182 Overall, 2309 patients had a diagnosis of pre-invasive (all degrees of dysplasia) and invasive penile, anal, vulvar
183 and vaginal disease in GGC and Lothian. After excluding the patients with HPVaC before or during the year
184 directly after the diagnosis of pre-invasive disease, the denominator for analysis reduced to 1235 (Figure 1). For
185 each anatomical site of dysplasia, the majority were classified as severe dysplasia or dysplasia NOS (n=782,
186 63.3%) with a small proportion classified as having mild or moderate dysplasia (Table A2). For the cohort of each
187 dysplasia site, the median age ranged from 41 (Interquartile range (IQR) 35-47) year for female perineum and
188 57 (IQR 39-64.5) years for penis (Table A2).

189 Overall 1035 women had pre-invasive disease in the ano-genital region (vagina, vulva, perineum and anus),
190 contributing 8464.5 person years of follow-up (Table 3). Among them, 40 developed HPVaC one year or more
191 after the diagnosis of pre-invasive ano-genital disease. Compared to the general female population resident in
192 GGC and Lothian, the incidence of HPVaC for women with a history of pre-invasive disease was 15.5 times higher
193 (95% CI 11.1-21.1). The SIR was highest for the patients with anal dysplasia (SIR = 38.9 95% CI 15.6-80.1) but
194 lower for those with vaginal dysplasia (SIR = 9.4 95% CI 4.3-17.8).

195 198 male patients had pre-invasive anogenital disease (penis, perineum and anus), contributing 1202.9 person
196 years (Table 3). Among them, 7 developed HPVaC one year or more after the diagnosis of pre-invasive disease.
197 Compared to the male population resident in GGC and Lothian, the SIR for men with a history of pre-invasive

198 ano-genital disease to develop HPV_aC was 28 (95% CI 11.3-57.7). The risk of cancer was highest for the patients
199 with anal dysplasia (SIR = 36.4 95% CI 9.9-93.1) and lowest for those with penile dysplasia (SIR = 21.4 95% CI 4.4-
200 62.6).

201

202 Sensitivity analysis

203 Sensitivity analysis was conducted for the CIN3 cohort to investigate the effect of changing the cancer exclusion
204 period from the baseline choice of 1 year to 0, 3, 6 or 9 months. If no exclusion was applied, 631 cervical cancer
205 cases were observed among CIN3 patients (SIR = 3.8), likely representing concurrent diagnosis. When a 3 months
206 exclusion period was used, 374 cervical cancer cases were observed (SIR = 2.3) – similar to baseline analysis of
207 1 year (SIR = 2). The SIR did not materially change for developing non-cervical genital cancers when different
208 exclusion periods were applied (Table A1).

209 For the non-cervical pre-invasive cohort, 741 patients with prior HPV_aC were excluded for the following reasons:
210 1) the site of the pre-invasive disease matched the site of the prior HPV_aC (Table A3); 2) The time difference
211 between the diagnosis of pre-invasive and prior HPV_aC was short (median 60 days IQR 20-238). Sensitivity
212 analysis was performed again changing the exclusion period from 1 year to 0, 3, 6 and 9 months. SIRs for
213 exclusion period of 3, 6 and 9 months were close to the baseline results (Table A4). However if no exclusion
214 period was applied, a higher number of subsequent HPV_aC cases was observed and the SIR inflated substantially
215 compared to the baseline analysis.

216 **Discussion**

217 In the present evaluation which spanned 36 years and incorporated national data, we describe two groups at
218 substantially increased risk of HPV associated cancer: those who have been diagnosed with high grade cervical
219 lesions and those who have been treated for non-cervical pre-invasive disease to any degree. Notably, women
220 who have had a CIN3 diagnosis (identified via screening) were at 3.2 fold increased risk of developing a non-
221 cervical HPVaC (including a 9.6-fold risk of developing vaginal cancer) compared to the general female
222 population in Scotland. In addition, individuals with non-cervical pre-invasive disease had a substantially
223 increased risk of developing HPVaC, reflected as a 15.5 fold and 28 fold increased risk for females and males
224 respectively compared to the general population. The additional risk was highest in patients with pre-invasive
225 disease of the anus for both genders.

226 In women diagnosed with CIN3, the greatest risk of both non-cervical and cervical HPVaC was associated with
227 older age at diagnosis but the magnitude of that risk was unaffected by time since diagnoses.

228 The observation that a history of CIN3 confers a significant risk of HPV associated cancer is consistent with other
229 studies [7-14] such as the one performed by Kalliala and colleagues [10] who reported SIRs for vulvar, vaginal
230 and anal canal cancer as 4.1 (95% CI: 1.5-8.9), 12 (2.9-28) and 5.7 (1.2-17) respectively. Strander et al [11] also
231 reported SIRs for cervical and vaginal cancer as 2.3 (2.2-2.5) and 6.8 (5.6-8.2). Ebisch et al [14] reported incidence
232 rate ratios for anal, vulvar, vaginal and oropharyngeal cancer as 3.9 (2.3-6.4), 5 (3.3-7.6), 86.1 (12-618.1) and 5.5
233 (1.2-24.8). In our study, SIRs for cervical, vulvar, vaginal and anal cancer were 2 (1.8-2.2), 2.8 (2.2-3.6), 9.6 (7-
234 13), and 2.6 (1.9-3.6), which are in line with the Nordic studies [10,11], notwithstanding the fact that the authors
235 did not exclude the patients with a previous diagnosis of HPVaC as we have in the present analysis. Strander et
236 al and Ebisch et al document a duration of risk of at least 20 years, similar to the present findings [11,12,14].

237 The risk of HPV associated cancer in those with non-cervical pre-invasive disease is not well documented in the
238 literature in contrast to the risk after CIN3. There is a particular paucity of studies which have taken into account
239 large national data sets; rather the existing literature has focussed more on small cohort studies of HPV
240 associated disease progression at a particular site with no comparator/control group [15,16]. Joura et al [17]
241 reported that compared with those who underwent cervical surgery, those who were diagnosed with vulvar
242 disease were at nearly 3 fold increased risk of developing any subsequent HPV related disease. To our knowledge
243 the present analysis represents the first population based study of risk with comparison/contextualisation to
244 the general population.

245 Ideally, screening or surveillance guidelines and management strategies should take into account the additional
246 risks conferred on those with pre-invasive disease. This is easier to apply for cervical disease given the existence
247 of an organised screening programme. Most countries that offer cervical screening now offer molecular HPV
248 testing as part of post treatment follow up of CIN [18]. Further developments in the cervical screening in the UK
249 (and beyond) which include the implementation of primary screening using molecular HPV testing are likely to
250 identify those at risk of subsequent cervical disease earlier as demonstrated in trials of HPV vs Cytology
251 screening, [19,20]. The sensitivity and earlier "warning" signal of an HPV test may thus deliver benefits to those
252 with (any) HPV associated pre-invasive disease although this was not specifically investigated in the
253 aforementioned trials. Furthermore, treatment for women with CIN3 by the gynaecologists should also include
254 inspection of vaginal, vulva and perineum.

255 The most effective strategy to manage non-cervical HPV associated disease is more challenging. There is no
256 population based screening programme or surveillance for AIN in Scotland, and so the risks reported in this study
257 are likely to underestimate its occurrence. Screening for anal disease has been considered using a variety of
258 approaches (cytology, high resolution anoscopy, HPV testing, biomarkers and various combinations thereof).
259 However, currently, there is no evidenced, effective model for an anal screening and treatment pathway that
260 would reduce risk of anal cancer. Given that treatment of anal lesions is associated with significant morbidity,
261 further research is required. Longitudinal studies such as the Australian Study of the Prevention of anal cancer
262 "SPANC" which monitors viral, cytopathological and anoscopy outcomes over time in an MSM population will
263 be helpful in this regard [21,22].

264 Notwithstanding the limitations of the data on anal screening, arguably considerably more attention and
265 research has been channelled into this area compared to screening for other non-cervical HPV associated
266 cancers. This is likely attributable to the comparative rarity of penile, vulvar, & vaginal cancer, and the fact that
267 OPC does not have a monitorable precursor phase, with patients presenting with symptomatic disease. Kreimer
268 et al [23,24] showed that HPV-16 E6 serology can identify those at greater risk of subsequent anal and
269 oropharyngeal cancer but not other HPV associated cancers; HPV16 E6 seropositivity was present in 29.2% of
270 individuals who later developed anal cancer compared with 0.6% of controls [24] and in the prediagnostic
271 samples of 34.8% of patients with oropharyngeal cancer and 0.6% of controls [23].

272 Another important point for consideration is why those with preinvasive lesions are at additional risk of
273 subsequent cancer. Part of this explanation could of course be to do with the continuation of risk-associated
274 behaviours after the initial diagnosis (including the key factors of smoking and social deprivation) which we did
275 not assess in this study. Similarly, while Strander et al [12] adjusted for follow-up duration, treatment period,
276 and age at treatment the authors did not adjust for behavioural/environmental influences. This said, the CIN3
277 population described in the present analysis represented women who were engaged in cervical screening. The
278 study population was thus biased towards those from less deprived backgrounds with a lower risk of HPV
279 infection and disease [25]. However, future studies which endeavour to capture behavioural data or surrogates
280 will be important to (a) determine the key behavioural factors that confer risk of subsequent disease which could
281 inform focussed management (b) quantify the extent of risk which remains after adjustment for such factors.
282 With respect to the latter, it is entirely plausible that the efficacy and capacity of innate immune responses play
283 a continued role in the susceptibility to HPV associated disease [26]. Only 5% of those infected with HR-HPV
284 develop high grade cervical lesions the majority of which will resolve naturally, but immunocompromised
285 patients have a higher risk of developing high grade disease [27-30]. However, the lack of understanding of the
286 mechanisms determining persistence makes development of a therapeutic vaccine challenging. A further factor
287 is the widespread colonisation of ano-genital, perineal and oral squamous mucosa by HPV. Treatment at one
288 site in the absence of other measures to promote HPV clearance will not affect HPV burden at other infected
289 sites, and so will not mitigate the risk of subsequent disease

290 Although current HPV vaccines are delivered as prophylactic regimens i.e. before HPV infection, there may be
291 merit in vaccinating high-risk groups with preinvasive lesions. It is possible to stimulate HPV-specific antibodies
292 in older women who have previously been diagnosed with abnormal pap smears through quadrivalent
293 vaccination [31]. Furthermore, adjuvant administration of quadrivalent HPV vaccine has been shown to be
294 associated with a significant reduction in recurrent high-grade anal intraepithelial neoplasia (HGAIN) in MSM
295 [32]. Joura et al demonstrated a significant reduction in HPV related vulvo-vaginal disease in women who had
296 been both vaccinated and also treated following vaccination for cervical disease [17]. Opportunistic HPV
297 vaccination for our high-risk populations may prove to be beneficial in preventing subsequent development of
298 HPV-related cancers, while gender-neutral HPV immunisation is associated with profound decreases in most of
299 the clinically relevant oncogenic HPV types and will significantly reduce risk of HPVaC in men and women with
300 preinvasive non-cervical ano-genital disease [33].

301 In summary in this analysis we demonstrate the significant additional risk of HPV associated cancer in individuals
302 who have been diagnosed with preinvasive lesions including but not confined to the cervix. Further investigation
303 into mechanistic and behavioural drivers that explain this phenomenon will inform screening and therapeutic
304 strategies. Given the increasing incidence of HPV associated cancers in genital and non-genital sites within
305 unvaccinated populations, this should be a priority for research.

306

307

308 **Contribution**

309 JP: performed statistical analysis and prepared manuscript

310 KK: supervised the study, contributed to design of the study, as well as drafts and revisions of the manuscript

311 KC: contributed to design of the study, contributed to drafts and revisions of the manuscript.

312 KP, DG, DM, SB, SG, AW, MC, TP: contributed to drafts and revisions of the manuscript.

313 KW: Obtained funded, supervised the study, contributed to design of the study, as well as drafts and revisions
314 of the manuscript

315

316 **Ethics approval**

317 All data linkage was performed by the electronic Data Research and Innovation Service at National Services
318 Scotland (NSS) Information Services Division (ISD). No patient identifiers were available to the study team with
319 CHI replaced by a unique study ID prior to analysis. Linked data were accessed remotely via a secure connection
320 to the National Safe Haven [34]. Information Governance approval for the study was granted by NHS NSS Privacy
321 Advisory Committee, PAC number PAC54/14.

322 **Competing interest statement**

323 All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf and
324 declare: we had financial support from through Sanofi-Pasteur and the Beatson Cancer Charity for the submitted
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327 Genomica, Gene-First and SelfScreen. Other than this, no financial relationships with any organisations that
328 might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; no other relationships or activities
329 that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

330 **Role of the funding source**

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332 the Beatson Cancer Charity.

333 **Transparency declaration**

334 The leading author of this article (Jiafeng Pan) affirms that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent
335 account of the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any
336 discrepancies from the study as planned (and, if relevant, registered) have been explained.

337 **Patient and Public Involvement statement**

338 A patient representative (FT) have reviewed and commented the manuscript.

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