



From Cervical Cancer to HPV-related Oropharyngeal Cancer: The Expanding Role of HPV Vaccination in Cancer Prevention

Evidence • Clinical counseling • Public health implementation

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The core thesis

One of the clearest examples of a vaccine as population-level cancer prevention.

From Cervical Cancer Prevention to Broad Cancer Prevention Strategy for All Genders

Elimination requires vaccination plus screening and treatment—not vaccination alone

1. Epidemiologic shift



- Cervical cancer burden has declined with screening and early vaccination programs.
- At the same time, HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer has risen markedly, especially in middle-aged men.
- In the United States, oropharyngeal cancer is now the most common HPV-associated cancer among males.
- HPV—especially type 16—is a major driver of this disease.



Female-only focus



All-gender, multi-site cancer prevention

2. Why vaccination is essential



- Cervical cancer has established screening tools (Pap test and HPV testing).



- Oropharyngeal cancer has no approved, standardized routine screening program.



- Early lesions are often hidden in the tonsils and base of tongue.



- Therefore, vaccination is the key primary prevention strategy.



No reliable screening → prevention must begin before infection.

3. Policy expansion: Gender-neutral vaccination



- Gender-neutral vaccination protects boys directly against HPV-related cancers.



- It also strengthens herd immunity and helps reduce transmission.



- Protection extends beyond cervical cancer to oropharyngeal, anal, penile, vulvar, and vaginal cancers.



- Taiwan expanded publicly funded HPV vaccination to junior-high school boys in September 2025.

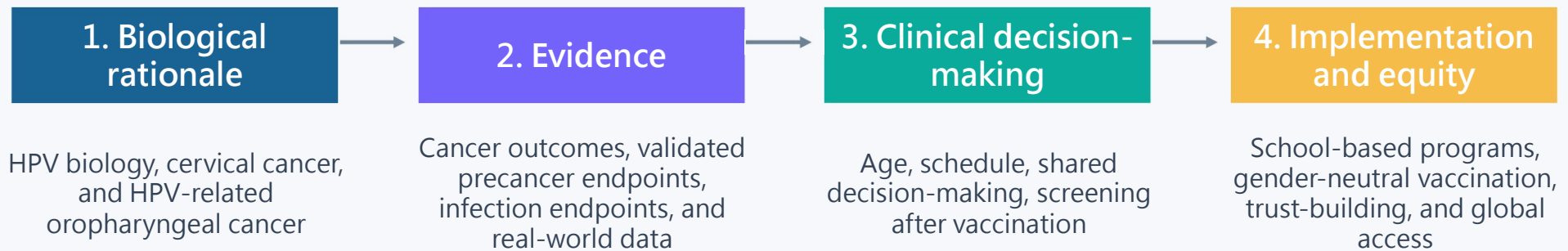


Taiwan example: boys + girls

STRUCTURE

The Roadmap

Moving from disease rationale to evidence, clinical decision-making, and implementation



Recommendations should be grounded in cancer outcomes, validated precancer or infection endpoints, and implementation science.



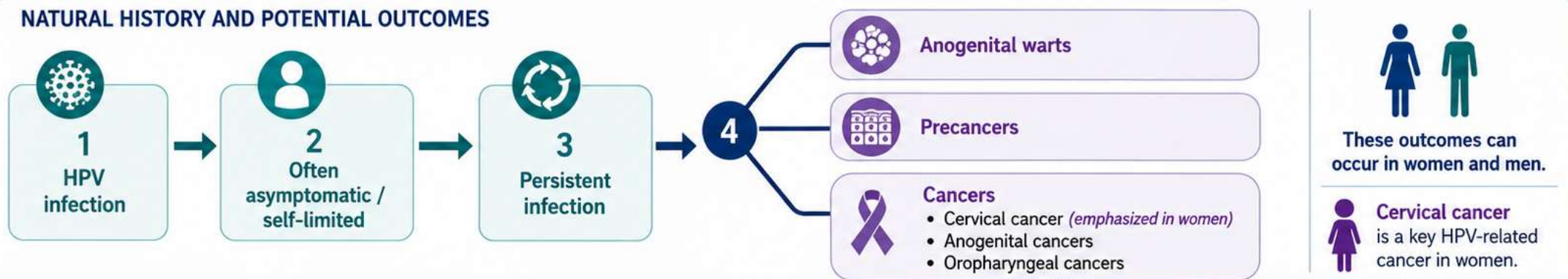
HPV is the most common sexually transmitted infection in the United States.



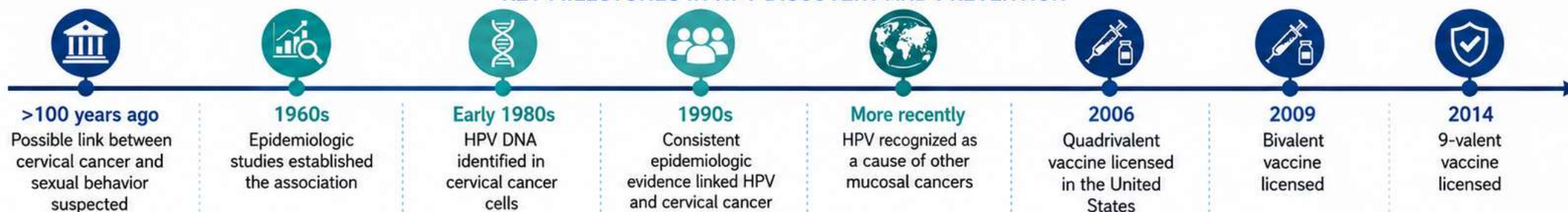
Most HPV infections are asymptomatic and resolve spontaneously.

Persistent infection can lead to disease.

NATURAL HISTORY AND POTENTIAL OUTCOMES



KEY MILESTONES IN HPV DISCOVERY AND PREVENTION

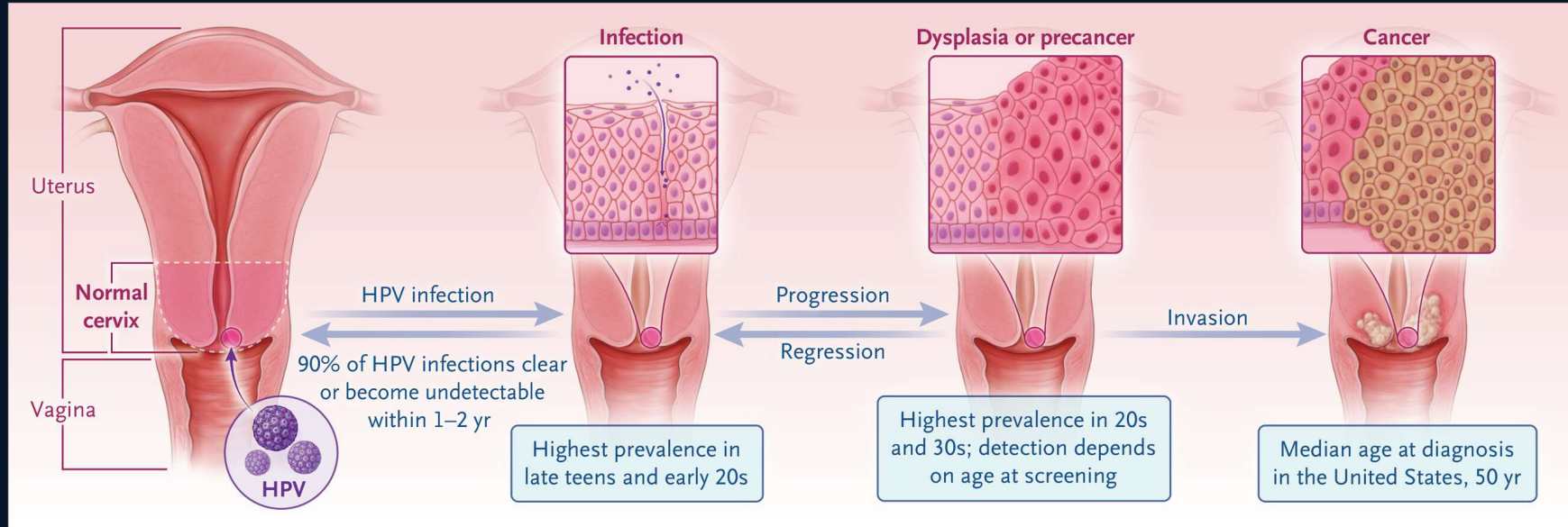
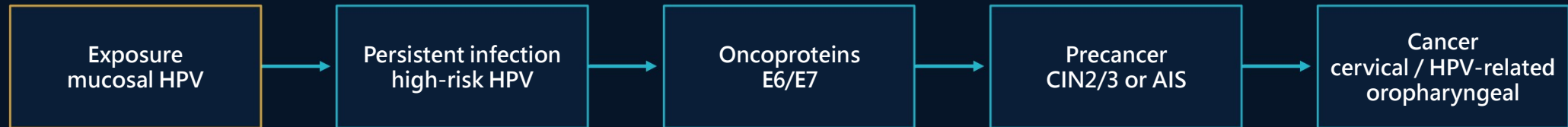


HPV CARCINOGENESIS

The biology: vaccination prevents infection before the carcinogenic cascade begins

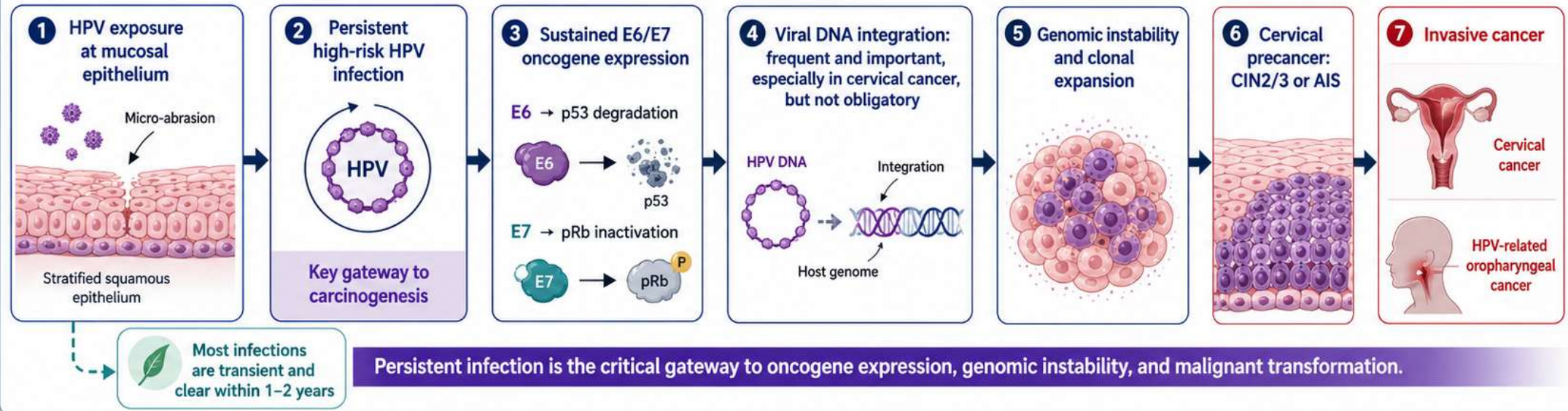
Vaccine-induced neutralizing antibodies block HPV entry into basal epithelial cells.

Cervical carcinogenesis typically evolves over 15–20 years; immunocompromise can accelerate progression.

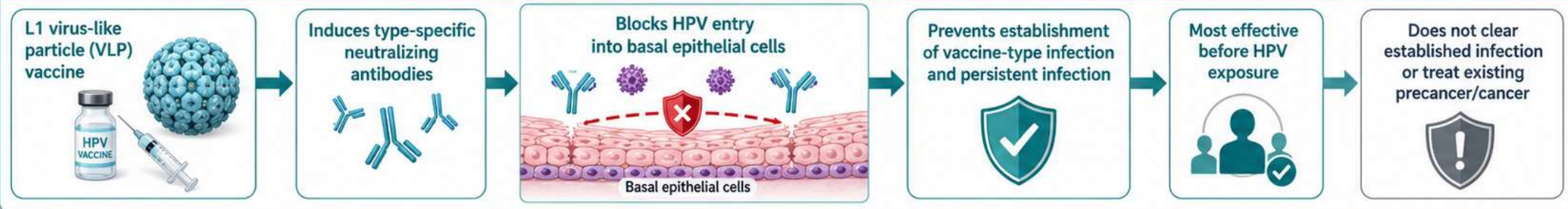


Mechanism of HPV Carcinogenesis and Prevention by Vaccination

HPV CARCINOGENESIS: FROM EXPOSURE TO INVASIVE CANCER



PREVENTION BY VACCINATION: BLOCKING HPV AT THE FIRST STEP



KEY MESSAGE: HPV vaccination acts before persistent infection and malignant transformation.

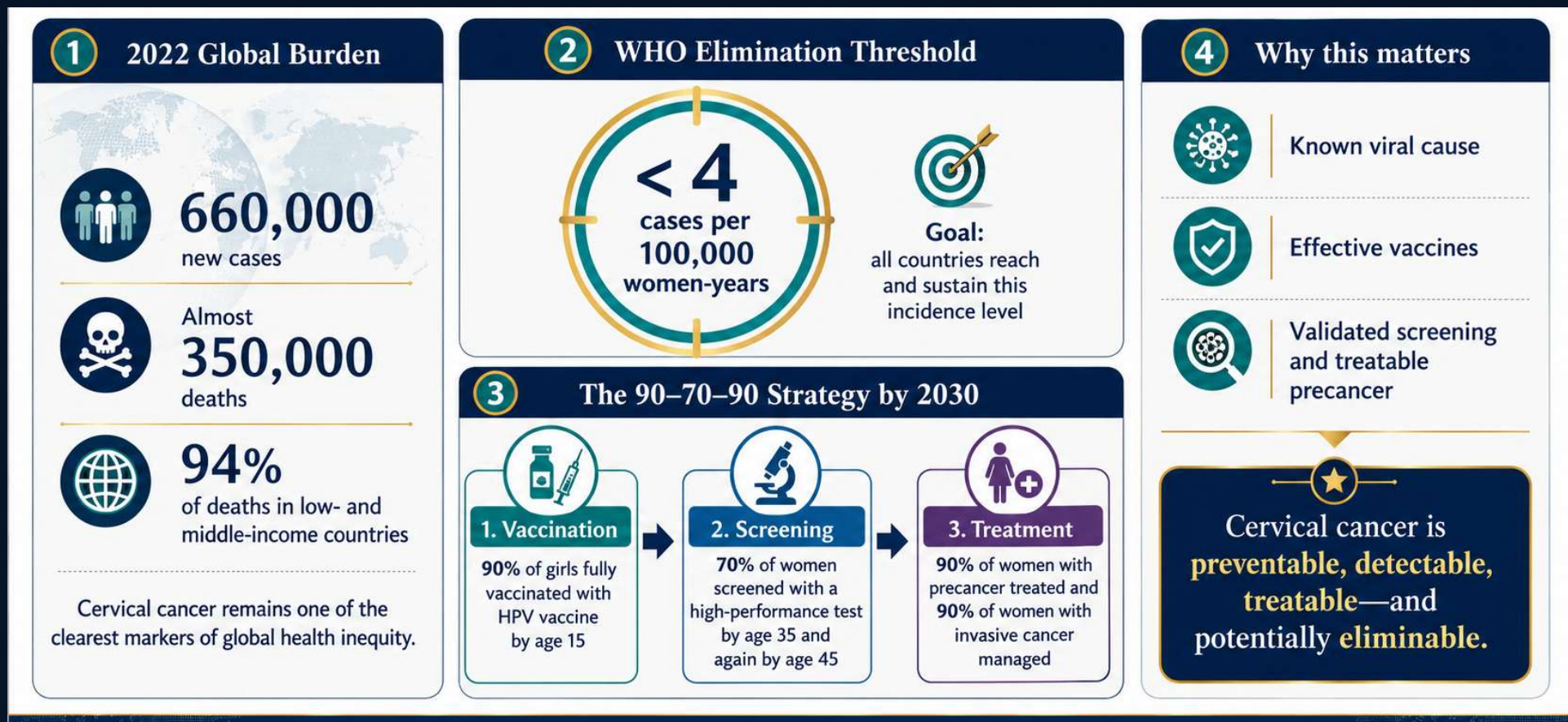


CAUTION: Integration is common in HPV-driven carcinogenesis, but not universal.

GLOBAL BURDEN

Cervical cancer: a preventable cancer with unacceptable inequity

The disease remains common where vaccination, screening, and treatment are least available.



HPV cancer burden

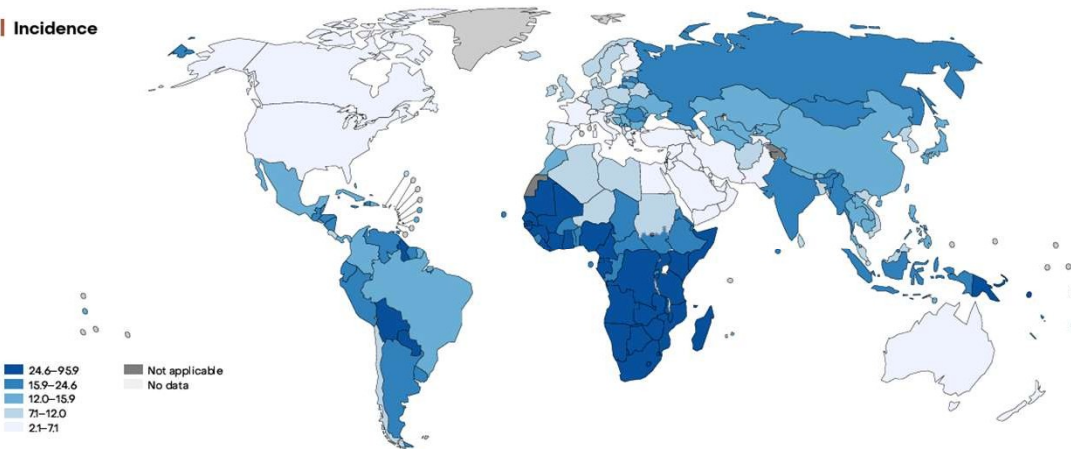
1 Global pattern

Cervical cancer remains the dominant HPV-attributable cancer burden, with the highest mortality in low- and middle-income countries.

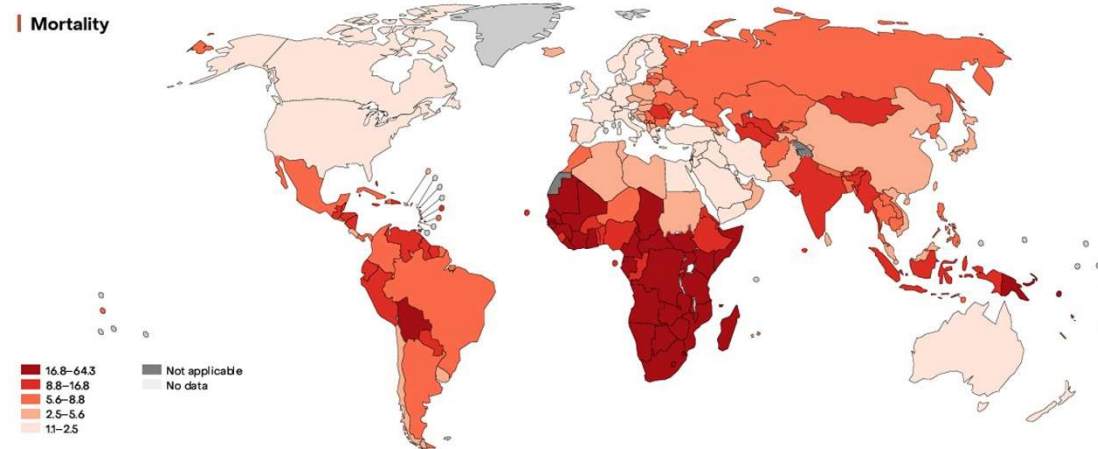


- The HPV cancer burden is not uniform across the world.
- Globally, cervical cancer remains the dominant HPV-attributable cancer and the clearest target for elimination. The burden is concentrated in low- and middle-income countries, where access to vaccination, screening, diagnosis, and treatment remains limited.
- Asia carries a large absolute burden of cervical cancer.

Incidence



Mortality



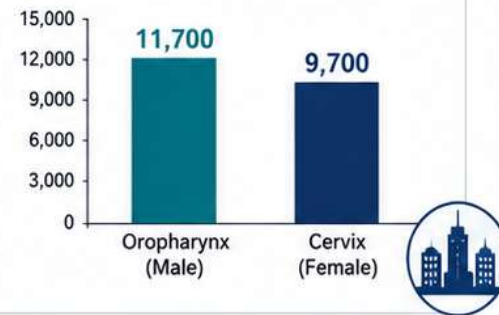
HPV cancer burden

2 High-income country pattern

HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer is an emerging male cancer burden and, in the United States, exceeds cervical cancer in estimated HPV-attributable annual cases.

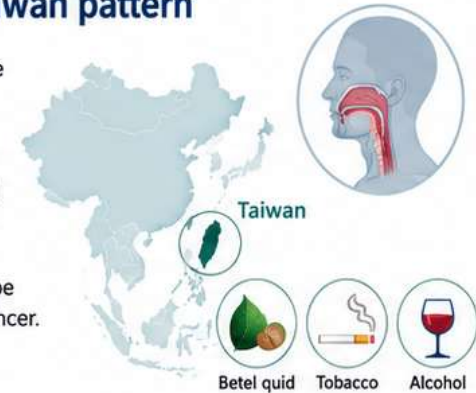


United States (annual HPV-attributable cases)



3 Asia and Taiwan pattern

Asia carries a large absolute burden of cervical cancer. In Taiwan, head and neck cancer burden is high, but much of it is driven by betel quid, tobacco, and alcohol; HPV-related OPSCC is increasing but should not be equated with oral cavity cancer.



~397k
new cervical
cancer
cases in 2022

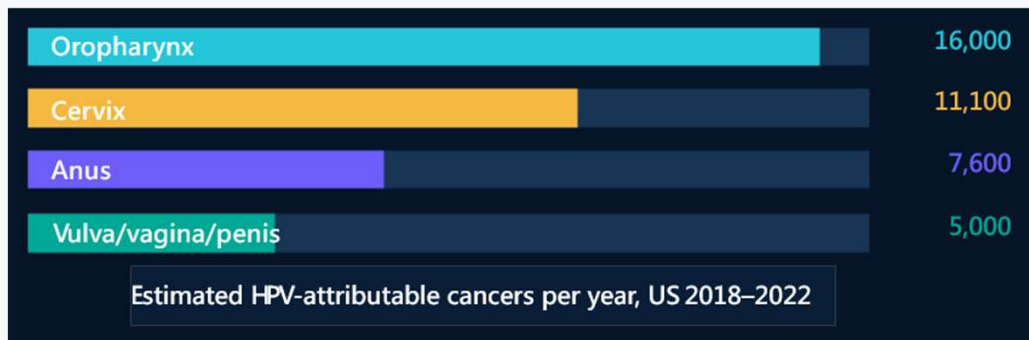
~200k
cervical cancer
deaths in 2022



HPV-related
OPSCC
is not the same as
oral cavity
cancer.

Betel quid Tobacco Alcohol

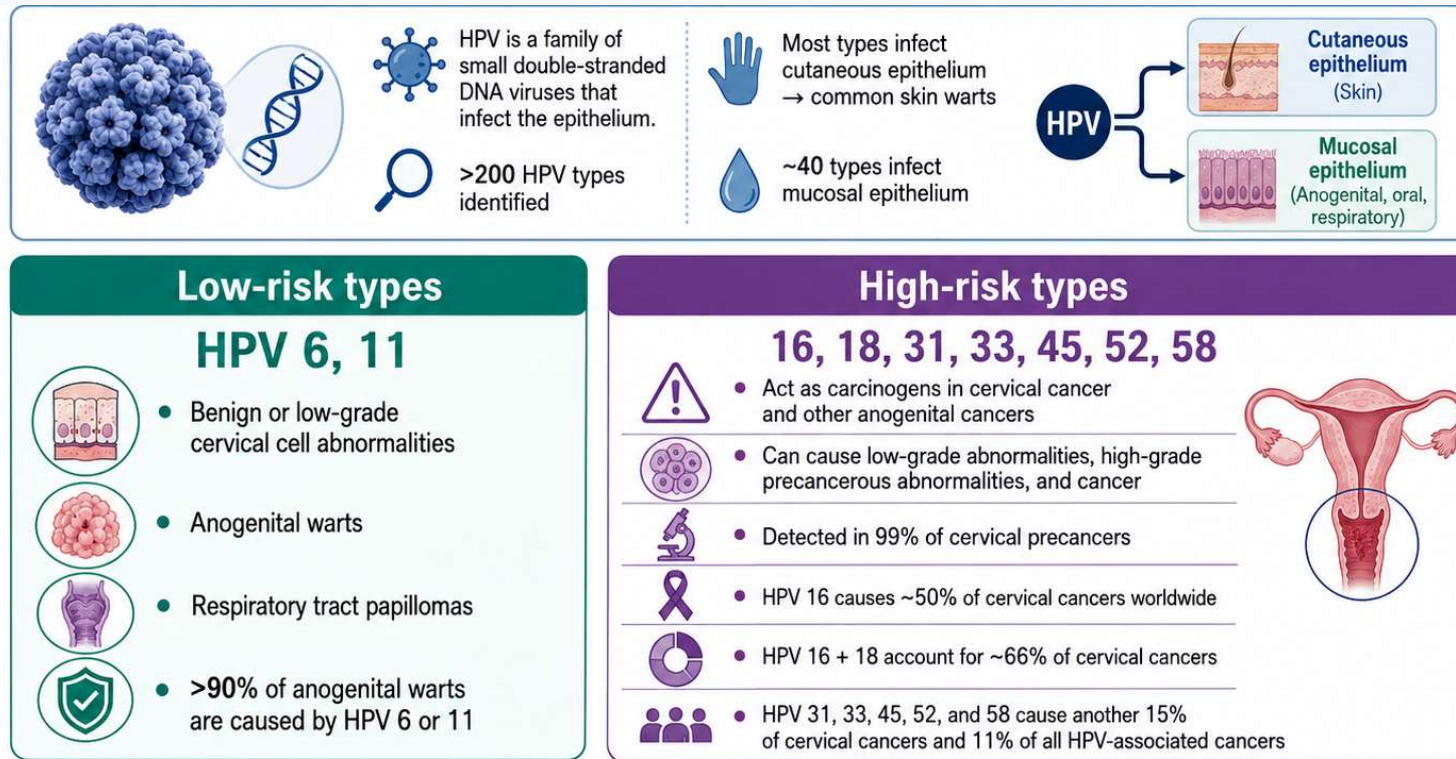
- In high-income countries, a different pattern has emerged.
- HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer has become a major male cancer burden, and in the US it now exceeds cervical cancer in estimated HPV-attributable annual case counts.



Estimated HPV-attributable cancers per year, US 2018–2022

- Asia and Taiwan: **cervical cancer** remains central, while **HPV-related OPSCC** is emerging
- Asia carries a large absolute burden of **cervical cancer**
- Taiwan: dual-burden pattern.**
 - Cervical cancer remains a measurable prevention target
 - Head-and-neck cancer burden is high, but much is driven by **betel quid, tobacco, and alcohol**.
 - HPV-positive OPSCC** is rising, and Taiwan has moved toward gender-neutral school-based HPV vaccination.

What the vaccines cover



Source: CDC Chapter 11: Human Papillomavirus.

Bivalent

16, 18

Core cervical cancer types

Quadrivalent

6, 11, 16, 18

+ genital wart types

Nonavalent

6, 11, 16, 18, 31, 33, 45, 52, 58

IMMUNOLOGY

Mechanism: virus-like particles train neutralizing immunity

No viral DNA. No infection. High antibody titers at the portal of entry.

L1 virus-like particles mimic the HPV capsid and induce type-specific neutralizing antibodies.

Protection is best before first exposure; vaccination prevents new infection, not established disease.

This is why school-based vaccination before sexual debut is the cornerstone strategy.

EVIDENCE HIERARCHY

Evidence map: cervical cancer is the model; oropharynx is the emerging frontier

The question is not whether HPV causes cancer; the question is which endpoint we can observe today.

Direct cancer outcomes — Registry-based population studies: Sweden, England; Cochrane 2025

Validated precancer endpoints — CIN2/3 and AIS in trials and immunization programs

Persistent HPV infection endpoints — HPV16/18 and 9vHPV types

Oral HPV infection — Costa Rica trial; NHANES associations; herd effects

Biological plausibility & type coverage — L1 VLP neutralization;
HPV16-driven OPSCC biology; vaccine-type concordance

Cervical cancer prevention has mature cancer and precancer endpoints.

HPV-related OPSCC prevention is biologically coherent and increasingly supported, but cancer-outcome evidence will take longer to mature.

HPV vaccination programmes: Cochrane 2025 evidence summary

Systematic review of 225 studies including >132 million people; evidence current to September 2024.

GRADE: MODERATE*

KEY AGE ≤16 YEARS



Trusted evidence.
Informed decisions.
Better health.

Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews

[Intervention Review]

Effects of human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination programmes on community rates of HPV-related disease and harms from vaccination

Nicholas Henschke^{1a}, Hanna Bergman¹, Brian S Buckley^{1,2}, Emma J Crosbie³, Kerry Dwan⁴, Su P Golder⁵, Maria Kyrgiou⁶, Yoon Kong Loke⁷, Heather M McIntosh¹, Katrin Probyn¹, Gemma Villanueva¹, Jo Morrison^{8,9}

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Editorial group: Cochrane Central Editorial Service.

Publication status and date: New. published in Issue 11. 2025.

HPV vaccination programmes: Cochrane 2025 evidence summary

Systematic review of 225 studies including >132 million people; evidence current to September 2024. CD015363

GRADE: MODERATE*

KEY AGE ≤16 YEARS

Review scope

225 studies

>132M people

86 cohort studies

69 pre-post studies

Focus of meta-analysis: adjusted estimates, especially vaccination at or before age 16.

Cervical cancer

RR 0.20

(95% CI 0.09 to 0.44; $I^2 = 69\%$)

≈80% lower risk among those vaccinated ≤16 years

CIN3+

RR 0.26

(95% CI 0.12 to 0.56; $I^2 = 80\%$)

≈74% lower incidence in long-term cohort evidence

Anogenital warts

RR 0.47

(95% CI 0.36 to 0.61; $I^2 = 99\%$)

≈53% lower long-term incidence in pooled cohort data

- Long-term outcome that consistently report a reduction in the development of **high-grade CIN and cervical cancer** in females vaccinated against HPV in **early adolescence**
- Greater benefit to vaccinating younger adolescents prior to **becoming sexually active**
- There is evidence that HPV vaccination does **not increase the risk** of the most common adverse events reported on social media



Safety signal

No increased risk was found for infertility, POTS, chronic fatigue syndrome/ME, paralysis, complex regional pain syndrome, or premature ovarian failure or infertility.



Interpret carefully

Evidence is lower-certainty for rare, long-latency HPV-related cancers beyond the cervix. No study reported community rates of serious adverse events.

Population-level evidence now supports HPV vaccination as a cancer-prevention intervention, with strongest cancer-outcome evidence for cervical cancer.

*Moderate-certainty evidence for cervical cancer, CIN3+/CIN2+, anogenital warts, and several specific harms; lower certainty for rare long-latency cancers. Source: Henschke et al., Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2025; CD015363.

HPV vaccination: a network meta-analysis

Systematic review of 225 studies including >132 million people; evidence current to September 2024.

KEY AGE 216 YEARS



Trusted evidence.
Informed decisions.
Better health.

Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews

[Intervention Review]

Human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination for the prevention of cervical cancer and other HPV-related diseases: a network meta-analysis

Hanna Bergman^{1a}, Nicholas Henschke¹, Ingrid Arevalo-Rodriguez¹, Brian S Buckley^{1,2}, Emma J Crosbie³, Jennifer C Davies³, Kerry Dwan⁴, Su P Golder⁵, Yoon Kong Loke⁶, Katrin Probyn¹, Jennifer Petkovic^{1,7}, Gemma Villanueva¹, Jo Morrison^{8,9}

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Editorial group: Cochrane Central Editorial Service.

Publication status and date: New, published in Issue 11, 2025.

HPV vaccination: a network meta-analysis

KEY AGE 15 YEARS

1 STUDY DESIGN



- 60 randomized controlled trials
- 157,414 participants
- Follow-up: 7 months to 11 years
- WHO-prequalified vaccines: Cervarix, Gardasil, Gardasil-9, Cecolin
- Pairwise meta-analysis + network meta-analysis

2 MAIN EFFICACY FINDINGS (FEMALE 15–25 YEARS)



CIN2+ (all HPV types):
RR 0.70 (95% CI 0.56–0.88)



Vaccine-matched CIN2+:
RR 0.40 (95% CI 0.30–0.54)



Reduced anogenital warts:
RR 0.38 (95% CI 0.32–0.46)



Reduced treatment for HPV-related pre-invasive disease:
RR 0.76 (95% CI 0.65–0.89)



Moderate-certainty for CIN2+ outcomes; high-certainty for anogenital warts.

3 SAFETY



Serious adverse events:
RR 0.99 (95% CI 0.94–1.04)

- ✓ No increase in serious adverse events
- ✓ High-certainty evidence

4 IMPORTANT LIMITATIONS



- Trials were not long enough to assess cancer incidence
- No cancers detected in the included trials
- Very limited data for <15 years
- No studies in males <15 years or >25 years
- Most studies enrolled participants aged 15 years and older

5 BOTTOM-LINE TAKE-HOME MESSAGE

RCT evidence supports HPV vaccine efficacy against precancerous disease and anogenital warts, with no safety signal for serious adverse events. Direct cancer-outcome evidence requires longer-term population studies.



Source: Bergman et al. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2025; Issue 11: CD015364. DOI: [10.1002/14651858.CD015364.pub2](https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD015364.pub2).

The decisive shift: invasive cervical cancer is reduced

Two landmark registry studies turned a prevention hypothesis into population-level cancer evidence.

Sweden

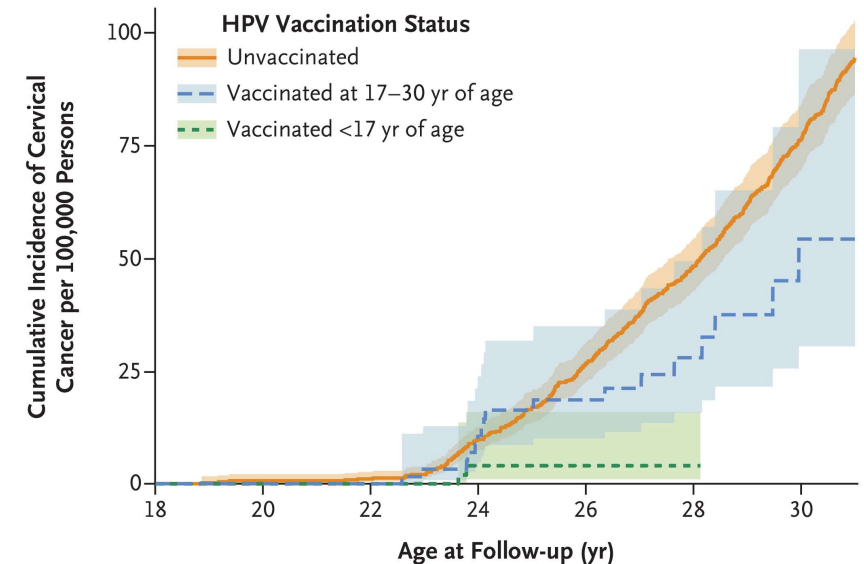
88% lower risk

vaccinated before age 17

Quadrivalent HPV vaccine associated with **lower** invasive cervical cancer risk.

Table 2. HPV Vaccination and Invasive Cervical Cancer.

HPV Vaccination Status	No. of Cases of Cervical Cancer	Crude Incidence Rate per 100,000 Person-Yr (95% CI)	Age-Adjusted Incidence Rate Ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted Incidence Rate Ratio (95% CI)*
Unvaccinated	538	5.27 (4.84–5.73)	Reference	Reference
Vaccinated	19	0.73 (0.47–1.14)	0.51 (0.32–0.82)	0.37 (0.21–0.57)
Status according to age cutoff of 17 yr				
Vaccinated before age 17 yr	2	0.10 (0.02–0.39)	0.19 (0.05–0.75)	0.12 (0.00–0.34)
Vaccinated at age 17–30 yr	17	3.02 (1.88–4.86)	0.64 (0.39–1.04)	0.47 (0.27–0.75)
Status according to age cutoff of 20 yr				
Vaccinated before age 20 yr	12	0.49 (0.28–0.73)	0.52 (0.29–0.94)	0.36 (0.18–0.61)
Vaccinated at age 20–30 yr	7	5.16 (2.46–10.83)	0.50 (0.24–1.06)	0.38 (0.12–0.72)



Swedish population-based evidence: HPV vaccination and invasive cervical cancer

Two landmark nationwide register-based cohort studies: NEJM 2020 and BMJ 2026

1 NEJM 2020

First major direct evidence of cervical cancer reduction

Population
1,672,983
girls and women
Age 10–30 years

Period
2006–2017
Nationwide
registry cohort

Cancer cases
19 vs 538
Vaccinated vs
unvaccinated

Key findings

- Overall adjusted IRR: 0.37 (95% CI 0.21–0.57)
- Vaccinated before age 17: IRR 0.12
- Vaccinated at age 17–30: IRR 0.47
- Cumulative incidence by age 30: 47 vs 94 per 100,000

HPV vaccination was associated with a substantially lower risk of invasive cervical cancer, with the greatest benefit when vaccination started before age 17.

2 BMJ 2026

Extended follow-up showing durable protection

Population
926,362
girls and women
Born 1985–2001

Period
2006–2023
Up to 18 years
follow-up

Cancer cases
97 vs 833
Vaccinated vs
unvaccinated

Key findings

- Overall adjusted IRR: 0.44 (95% CI 0.35–0.55)
- Vaccinated at age 10–16: IRR 0.21
- **Protection persisted 13–15 years after vaccination: IRR 0.23**
- **School-based cohort** vs opportunistic cohort: IRR 0.28 (72% ↓ risk)
- No indication of waning protection

Long-term protection remained durable, and organised school-based vaccination showed clear population-level benefit.

Overall synthesis

Together, these Swedish studies provide some of the strongest population-level evidence that HPV vaccination prevents invasive cervical cancer, works best when given early, and delivers sustained long-term benefit without evidence of waning protection.

The decisive shift: invasive cervical cancer is reduced

Lancet 2021 register-based observational study of the bivalent Cervarix programme in England

1 Study design

- Population-based cancer registry study
- England, 2006–2019
- Outcomes: cervical cancer and CIN3
- Model: age–period–cohort Poisson regression

Vaccination

Routine vaccination: girls aged 12–13 years
Catch-up: females aged 14–18 years (2008–2010)

Coverage (3-dose)

Age 12–13

80.9–
88.0%

Age 14–16

70.8–
75.7%

Age 16–18

38.9–
48.1%

The study analysed 13.7 million person-years of follow-up among women aged 20 to younger than 30 years in vaccinated cohorts.

2 Main results

Estimated reduction in incidence vs unvaccinated cohort

Age at vaccine offer	Cervical cancer	CIN3
16–18 years	34% (95% CI 25–41)	39% (95% CI 36–41)
14–16 years	62% (95% CI 52–71)	75% (95% CI 72–77)
12–13 years	87% (95% CI 72–94)	97% (95% CI 96–98)

The strongest impact: routine school-based cohort vaccinated at age 12–13 years.

England

87% lower rate

offered vaccine at age 12–13

High-coverage school-based HPV vaccination can sharply reduce cervical cancer and CIN3 incidence in young women

England HPV vaccination programme and socioeconomic inequality

BMJ 2024 population-based observational study: sustained effectiveness through mid-2020 and impact across deprivation groups

1

Study design

- England, 2006/01/01–2020/06/30
- Population-based observational study
- Outcomes: invasive cervical cancer and CIN3

2

Main results

Routine vaccination cohort (offered at age 12–13 years)

Cervical cancer

CIN3 reduction

3

Equity impact

Before vaccination, England had a strong social gradient in cervical cancer incidence, with the highest rates in the most deprived women. HPV vaccination substantially reduced disease in all five deprivation groups.

Cervical cancer incidence gradient

Unvaccinated cohorts

Most deprived

2nd

3rd

4th

Least deprived

Cancer cases prevented in most deprived group

192

Vaccinated cohorts

Most deprived

2nd

3rd

4th

Least deprived

CIN3 cases prevented in most deprived group

5,121

Programme reduced cervical cancer and CIN3 across all socioeconomic groups and helped level the cervical cancer inequality gradient.

Table 5 Estimated cohort specific numbers of invasive cervical cancers predicted and prevented by mid-2020 among women in the least and most deprived areas							
	Predicted No of invasive cervical cancers* (95% CI)			Predicted rates per 100 000 women years			
	Scenario A: counterfactual	Scenario B: factual	Difference: scenarios A-B†	Scenario A: counterfactual	Scenario B: factual	Difference: scenarios A-B	% of cancers prevented: (A-B)/A
Cohort 5 (offered vaccine at age 16-18)							
Index of multiple deprivation (fifths):							
1st (most deprived)	331 (304 to 358)	234 (205 to 263)	97 (58 to 137)	14.8	10.4	4.3	29.4
5th (least deprived)	107 (98 to 116)	80 (63 to 96)	27 (9 to 46)	8.5	6.3	2.2	25.6
Cohort 6 (offered vaccine at age 14-16)							
Index of multiple deprivation (fifths):							
1st (most deprived)	105 (94 to 115)	33 (26 to 40)	71 (59 to 84)	11.0	3.5	7.5	68.3
5th (least deprived)	38 (34 to 42)	13 (9 to 16)	25 (20 to 30)	6.5	2.2	4.3	66.8
Cohort 7 (offered vaccine at age 12-13)							
Index of multiple deprivation (fifths):							
1st (most deprived)	27 (24 to 31)	4 (2 to 7)	23 (19 to 27)	3.0	0.5	2.6	84.6
5th (least deprived)	10 (9 to 12)	2 (1 to 3)	9 (7 to 10)	1.8	0.3	1.5	83.5

Results are reported under two scenarios: one as observed in the dataset (scenario B: factual) and one hypothetical where women had not been offered the HPV vaccination (scenario A: counterfactual).
CI=confidence interval; HPV=human papillomavirus.
*Numbers rounded to nearest integers.
†Difference may not equal scenarios A-B due to rounding.

burden?

12-13 y

86.0%

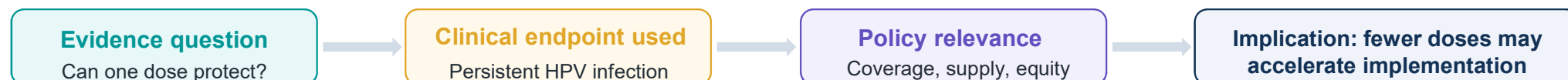
95.9%

Source: Falcaro M, Soldan K, Ndlela B, Sasieni P. BMJ 2024;385:e077341. DOI: 10.1136/bmj-2023-077341.

24

Single-dose HPV vaccination: durable efficacy and noninferiority evidence

KEN SHE 3-year RCT and ESCUDDO 5-year noninferiority trial support dose simplification for scalable cervical cancer prevention



1 KEN SHE trial — Kenya

Single dose versus control; randomized, double-blind, controlled trial

Participants

2,275

women aged 15–20

Follow-up

36 mo

median 35 months

Trial arms

9v / 2v / control

1:1:1 allocation

Primary endpoint

Incident-persistent vaccine type-specific cervical HPV infection

HPV16/18: nonavalent

98.8%

95% CI 91.3–99.8

HPV16/18: bivalent

97.5%

95% CI 90.0–99.4

9v high-risk types

95.5%

95% CI 89.0–98.2

No severe adverse events; efficacy remained durable through 3 years.

2 ESCUDDO trial — Costa Rica

One dose versus two doses; randomized, double-blind, noninferiority trial

Participants

20,330

girls aged 12–16

Follow-up

5 yr

month 12–60 endpoint

Trial groups 1:1:1:1

1-dose or 2-dose

bivalent or nonavalent

Primary endpoint

New HPV16/18 infection persisting ≥6 months from month 12 to month 60

Bivalent 1 vs 2 doses

–0.13/100

95% CI –0.45 to 0.15

Nonavalent 1 vs 2 doses

0.21/100

95% CI –0.09 to 0.51

Vaccine Effectiveness, VE

≥97%

in each trial group

One dose was noninferior to two doses for both bivalent and nonavalent vaccines

WHO schedule one or two dose for aged 9-14 and 15-20 years.

Immunocompromised people and people living with HIV generally require at least two doses, and often three where feasible

Why can a single dose work? The immunology behind durable HPV protection

1. Virus-like particles create a strong immune signal:

HPV vaccines use L1 virus-like particles that mimic the native viral capsid but contain no viral DNA. This ordered structure makes the vaccine highly immunogenic.

2. Repetitive epitopes trigger potent B-cell activation:

The dense, repetitive surface of VLPs promotes B-cell receptor crosslinking, generating a strong neutralizing antibody response even after one dose.

3. Long-lived plasma cells sustain antibody production:

Single-dose vaccination can induce durable antibody responses, with antibody levels stabilizing after the first year and persisting over time.

4. HPV is highly susceptible to antibody neutralization:

HPV infection can be blocked at the mucosal surface by neutralizing antibodies, before persistent infection is established

ORAL HPV ENDPOINTS

Oropharyngeal prevention: the direct infection evidence is encouraging

HPV vaccination reduces oral vaccine-type HPV infection

RANDOMIZED TRIAL

Costa Rica Vaccine Trial

Bivalent HPV16/18 vaccine vs hepatitis A control; women aged 18–25 years; oral specimens collected at the **4-year** blinded visit.

Analytic cohort 5,834 oral + cervical HPV results	Oral HPV16/18 93.3% VE; 1 vs 15 infections	Cervical HPV16/18 72.0% VE in same cohort
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Interpretation

First randomized evidence showing substantially lower oral HPV16/18 prevalence after vaccination. The finding supports oral vaccine-type HPV infection as a plausible intermediate endpoint for OPSCC prevention.

POPULATION SURVEILLANCE

US NHANES 2011–2014

Nationally representative cross-sectional analysis; adults aged 18–33 years; vaccination defined as ≥1 HPV vaccine dose before age 26.

Study population 2,627 young US adults	Vaccine-type oral HPV 88.2% adjusted prevalence reduction (0.11% vs 1.61%)	Men: HPV16/18/6/11 0.0% vs 2.13% vaccinated vs unvaccinated
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Implementation signal

Individual-level association was strong, but low uptake limited population impact: vaccination uptake was 18.3% overall and only 6.9% in men; estimated population-level effect was 17.0% overall and 6.9% in men.

- Direct randomized cancer endpoint data are not yet mature because of long latency.
- The prevention argument rests on causal biology + **oral infection endpoints** + type coverage.

HPV vaccine safety: reported events are signals, not conclusions

A mature safety discussion starts by naming concerns, then testing causality with appropriate evidence.

REPORTED CONCERNS WORLDWIDE

Acute reactions

Pain, swelling, fever, dizziness, syncope

Neurologic/autonomic symptoms

POTS (Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome), CRPS (Complex Regional Pain Syndrome), chronic pain, dizziness, fatigue

Reproductive concerns

POI (Primary Ovarian Insufficiency), infertility, menstrual concerns

Rare neurologic/autoimmune events

Guillain-Barré syndrome, paralysis, autoimmune conditions

Clustered symptoms

School-based clusters and amplified concern

Policy crisis

Japan 2013–2022: safety concerns disrupted trust



Every report is a signal to investigate

KEY DISTINCTION

Temporal association ≠ causation

Events that occur after vaccination may represent **background disease**, **reporting bias**, **nocebo effects**, or **true vaccine-related adverse events**.

Signal detection

Case reports and passive surveillance identify patterns that deserve attention.

Causality testing

Controlled studies compare risk against appropriate background rates and unvaccinated groups.

Clinical response

Symptoms deserve care even when causality is not established.

Safety communication goal

Take patient experiences seriously, investigate systematically, and communicate the evidence proportionately.

What did major reviews and surveillance conclude?

Safety claims are strongest when regulatory review, systematic review, and post-licensure monitoring converge.

1 Regulatory review

WHO GACVS

No new adverse events of concern identified from many very large, high-quality studies since HPV vaccine licensure.

EMA PRAC

Evidence does not support a causal link between HPV vaccines and CRPS or POTS; no change in product use recommended.

2 Systematic evidence

SAEs in RCTs
RR 0.99

97,272 participants
39 studies

Cochrane RCT network meta-analysis

Serious adverse events were similar in HPV vaccine and control groups.
Evidence certainty: high for serious adverse events.

Cochrane population-level review

No increased risk for POTS, CFS/ME, paralysis, CRPS, premature ovarian failure, infertility, or sexual activity.

3 Post-licensure surveillance

Safety evidence
>160 studies

Monitoring systems
VAERS, VSD, CISA

CDC safety monitoring

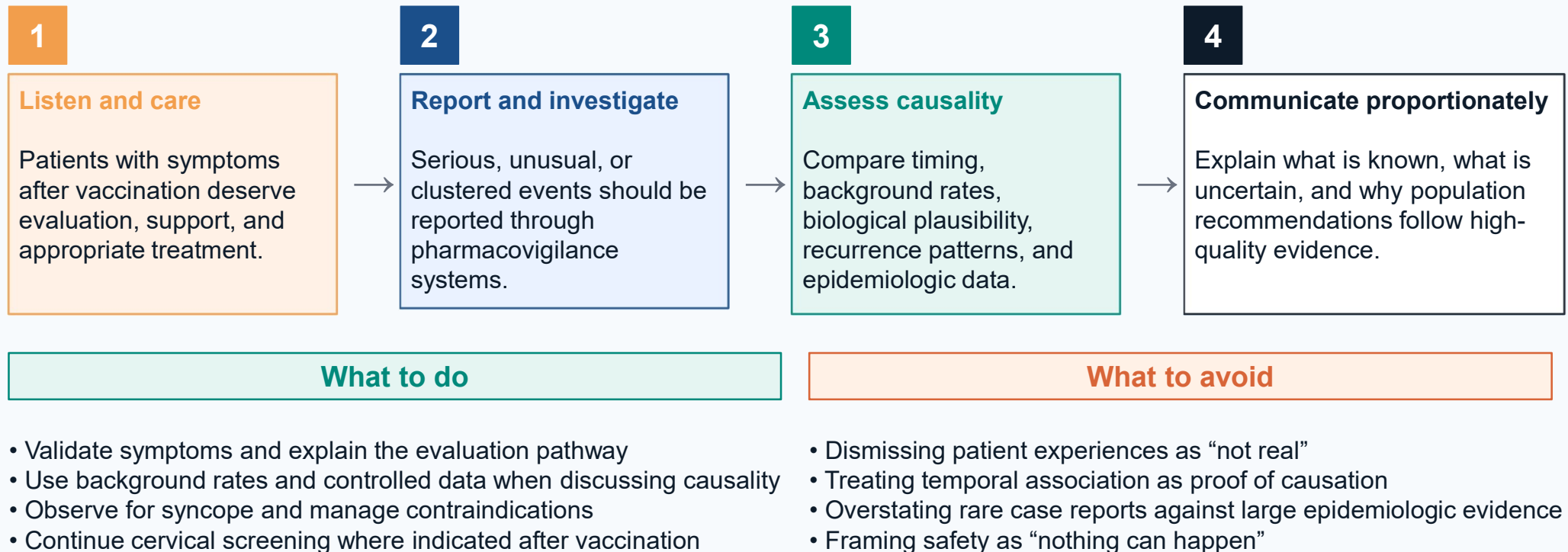
Multiple monitoring systems support a favorable safety profile. Passive reports are used to detect signals, not prove causality.

Common events

Injection-site pain or swelling, fever, dizziness, nausea, headache, and syncope precautions. Serious allergic reaction is rare but a contraindication.

How should clinicians interpret and communicate safety?

The goal is not to dismiss symptoms; it is to separate care, reporting, causality, and policy-level inference.



Listen carefully. Investigate systematically. Communicate proportionately.

Dosing schedules: global evidence, local implementation

Several countries have moved toward single-dose schedules, while others retain 2- or 3-dose schedules depending on age and immune status.

Country / authority	Primary target group	Routine schedule	Special notes
WHO	Girls and women 9–20 years	1 or 2 doses	> 21 years: 2 doses; immunocompromised or HIV: at least 2, preferably 3
United Kingdom	Routine adolescent programme, Routine age 12–13; Catch-up under 25 years; GBMSM under 25 years	1 dose (Publicly funded: NHS)	< 25 years usually 1 dose; GBMSM 25–45 years usually 2 doses; immunosuppressed/HIV: 3 doses
Australia	Immunocompetent persons 9–25 years	1 dose (National Immunisation Program funded)	≥26 years or immunocompromised: 3 doses
Canada / NACI	Immunocompetent persons 9–20 years	1 dose (publicly funded)	21–26 years: 2 doses; immunocompromised or HIV: 3 doses
United States / CDC	Routine age 11–12; start age 9 allowed, catch-up through 26 years	2 doses if start < 15 years (VFC/Medicaid / ACA/)	3 doses if start ≥15 years or immunocompromised
Singapore	Females 9–26 years under NCIS/NAIS	2 doses if age 9–14; 3 doses if ≥15	Female-only national schedule; subsidised/MediSave-claimable depending on eligibility
Taiwan	Junior-high school students	2-dose (Publicly funded)	Girls since 2018; boys included from Sept 2025

Dosing schedules: global evidence, local implementation

Several countries have moved toward single-dose schedules, while others retain 2- or 3-dose schedules depending on age and immune status.

Country / authority	Primary target group	Routine schedule	Special notes
Japan	Girls from approximately 6th grade to 10th grade	2 doses if start < 15 years	3 doses if start ≥ 15 years, proactive recommendation resumed in 2022; male vaccination not yet routine
South Korea	Female adolescents 12–17 years; low-income women 18–26 years; 12-year-old boys from 2026	2 doses — national immunisation programme	National HPV programme began for girls in 2016; expanded to 12-year-old boys born in 2014 from May 2026
Hong Kong	Eligible female Primary 5–6 students	2 doses — free under HKCIP	Female-only routine school programme
New Zealand	All persons 9 to under 27 years	2 or 3 doses depending on age	HPV9 is free for all individuals aged 9–26 regardless of gender; school-based Year 8 programme plus clinic access
India	Girls aged 14 years	1 dose — free national campaign	Nationwide free HPV vaccination launched in 2026
China	13-year-old girls	2 doses bivalent vaccine — national programme	Free two-dose bivalent HPV vaccination began nationally from Nov 2025
Gavi-supported countries	Usually girls aged 9–14 years	Varies by country; many adopting 1 dose	examples include Rwanda, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Zambia

VACCINATION + SCREENING + TREATMENT

Elimination requires all three: vaccination, screening, and treatment

Vaccination prevents future disease; screening detects precancer; treatment prevents progression and death.

90%

girls fully vaccinated
by age 15

Primary prevention

70%

women screened
by ages 35 and 45

Early detection

90%

Precancer treated and invasive
cancer managed

Treatment and care

Gender-neutral HPV vaccination: direct protection, equity, and programme resilience

Boys and men are not only transmitters; they are direct beneficiaries of HPV cancer prevention.

A stronger programme vaccinates adolescents before exposure—regardless of sex.

1 Direct protection

Protects **boys and men** against vaccine-type HPV infections that can lead to oropharyngeal, anal, and penile cancers.

2 Cancer burden

HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer is the most common HPV-associated cancer among men in the United States.

3 Equity

Girls-only programmes may not fully protect GBMSM, people outside heterosexual herd-effect networks, or populations with unequal vaccine access.

4 Herd protection

Vaccinating all adolescents reduces HPV circulation across sexual networks and strengthens population-level protection.

5 Programme resilience

Universal adolescent vaccination reduces gendered stigma, simplifies communication, and makes the programme less fragile when uptake in one group falls.

Policy message

Move from “girls-only cervical cancer prevention” to “all-adolescent HPV cancer prevention.”

Taiwan relevance

Including boys aligns school-based implementation with broader HPV-related cancer prevention.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The questions that remain

A mature field still has consequential unanswered questions.

OPC endpoints

When will vaccinated cohorts show measurable cancer reduction by age, sex, and geography?

Single-dose durability

How durable is protection beyond 5–10 years, especially for males and immunocompromised groups?

Risk-based screening

How should cervical screening evolve as vaccinated cohorts age?

Oral HPV biomarkers

Can we identify high-risk persistent oral HPV infection without causing overdiagnosis?

Therapeutic vaccines

Can immunotherapy treat established HPV-driven lesions or cancers?

HPV vaccination is a cancer-prevention platform

Cervical cancer elimination is the measurable flagship; HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer is the emerging frontier.

1

Cervical cancer prevention is proven at the cancer-outcome level. Vaccination, screening, and treatment create a measurable elimination pathway.

2

HPV-related OPSCC prevention is biologically strong and infection-endpoint supported. Direct cancer-outcome evidence will take longer to mature.

3

Population impact depends on equitable adolescent delivery. High coverage, gender-neutral access, trust, screening, and treatment determine real-world success.

Make cancer prevention routine before infection becomes disease.



Thank you for your attention

