Prevalence And Risk Factors For Cervical Neoplasia: A Cervical Cancer Screening Program In Beijing

Lixin Tao
Lili Han
Xia Li
Qi Gao
Lei Pan

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworkspost2013

Part of the Medicine and Health Sciences Commons

Tao, L., Han, L., Li, X., Gao, Q., Pan, L., Wu, L., Luo, Y., Wang, W., Zheng, Z., & Guo, X. (2014). Prevalence and risk factors for cervical neoplasia: a cervical cancer screening program in Beijing. BMC Public Health, 14(1), Article 1185. Available here
This Journal Article is posted at Research Online.
https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworkspost2013/556
Authors
Lixin Tao, Lili Han, Xia Li, Qi Gao, Lei Pan, Lijuan Wu, Yanxia Luo, Wei Wang, Zihe Zheng, and Xiuhua Guo

This journal article is available at Research Online: https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworkspost2013/556
Prevalence and risk factors for cervical neoplasia: a cervical cancer screening program in Beijing

Lixin Tao1,2†, Lili Han3†, Xia Li1,2, Qi Gao1,2, Lei Pan1,2, Lijuan Wu1,2, Yanxia Luo1,2, Wei Wang1,2,4, Zihe Zheng1,2 and Xiuhua Guo1,2*

Abstract

Background: Cervical cancer is the second most common cancer and cause of cancer-related death for women worldwide [1,2]. The aims of this study were to investigate the prevalence of cervical neoplasia and examine factors associated with high-grade cervical squamous intraepithelial lesions (HSIL) among women taking part in a cervical cancer screening program in Beijing.

Methods: Women aged 25–65 years were screened using the ThinPrep cytologic test and gynecologic examination. Univariate and multivariate logistic regressions were conducted to investigate factors associated with HSIL.

Results: Among 728,704 women screened, the prevalence of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) I, II, III was 50.2, 34.0, and 36.4 per 100,000, respectively. Prevalence of cervical cancer was 12.2 per 100,000. Risk factors for HSIL included being in age group of 46–55 years (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] = 1.15, 95% CI: 1.07–1.44, compared with the 25–35 age group), bleeding after intercourse (aOR = 2.08, 95% CI: 1.40–3.10), and presence of trichomonas vaginalis infection (aOR = 2.62, 95% CI: 1.35–5.07), cervical inflammation (aOR = 4.22, 95% CI: 3.39–5.26), and genital warts (aOR = 3.89, 95% CI: 2.54–7.70). High education level (college and above compared with junior middle school or lower) was found to be protective (aOR = 0.79, 95% CI: 0.37–0.90).

Conclusions: The prevalence of cervical neoplasia is relatively high in Beijing. Women aged 46–55 years, those with a lower education level, those reporting bleeding after intercourse, and those affected by Trichomonas vaginalis infection, cervical inflammation and genital warts are at higher risk for HSIL. Particular efforts should be made to ensure these women are included in cervical cancer screening programs.

Keywords: Cervical cancer, Screening program, Risk factor, High-grade cervical squamous intraepithelial lesions

Background

Cervical cancer is the second most common cancer and cause of cancer-related death in women worldwide [1,2]. Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) refers to changes in squamous cells of the cervix, where more extensive changes (CIN grades II and III) are known as high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions (HSIL). At least 25% of women with HSIL will progress to carcinoma in situ or invasive cancer if lesions are left untreated [3]. The identification of risk factors for HSIL is of pivotal importance.

Evidence suggests that human papillomavirus (HPV) infection and health-related lifestyles influence the progression of CIN. HPV plays a crucial role in the development of cervical cancer and the precursor lesions. HPV is essential to the transformation of cervical epithelial cells, particularly subtypes 16 and 18 [4-6]. However, only a minority of women infected with HPV progress to CIN or HSIL. Therefore, cofactors that aid viral persistence and disease progression must exist.

A positive association between smoking and cervical cancer has consistently been observed, across different geographic regions [7-9]. Dose–response associations with smoking intensity and duration were detected in a previous study [10]. However, adenocarcinoma of the cervix, which usually accounts for less than 10% of all cervical cancers, has no significant association with smoking [11]. Increased risk of invasive cervical cancer with exposure to passive smoking during adulthood has
been demonstrated [12,13]. Indoor exposure to cooking oil fumes is associated with CIN [3], while cooking in kitchens equipped with fume extractors and keeping extractors on while cooking can protect women from this risk [14].

In recent years, strong evidence from many epidemiologic and experimental studies has emerged, demonstrating that inflammation also plays an important role in the development of CIN and cervical cancer [15,16]. An association between the use of anti-inflammatory drugs and reduced risk of cancer, as well as a decrease in precancerous lesions, was shown in epidemiologic studies [16,17].

Factors relating to sexual behavior have also been linked to cervical cancer and its precursors. Studies have demonstrated that bacterial vaginosis and *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection are significantly associated with persistent HPV infection and the development of cervical cancer [18-20]. Many studies have also suggested that women with multiple sexual partners are at high risk for HPV acquisition and cervical cancer [21,22]. Oral contraceptive use is associated with the development of cervical cancer [23-25]. A systematic review of hormonal contraceptive use reported that the risk of in situ cervical cancer increased even for women with less than 5 years’ hormonal contraceptive use, but the risk of invasive cervical cancer increased only after 5 years’ use. The risk for both conditions declined with time since last use of hormonal contraceptives, and there was no elevated risk for invasive cervical cancer 10 years since the end of exposure [26].

The cervical cancer screening program was free for 25 to 65-year-old women permanently residing in Beijing in 2009. To the best of our knowledge, there has been no similar, large-scale cervical cancer screening program conducted in Beijing prior to this. The aims of the present study were to estimate prevalence of cervical neoplasia and explore potential risk factors for HSIL among women living in Beijing.

**Methods**

**Subjects**

This study was conducted in 2009 as part of a national program offering free cervical and breast cancer screening for 25 to 65-year-old women permanently residing in Beijing. All women aged 25–65 years who were willing to participate in the screening program were included, with the exception of those with a history of uterine sarcoma, fallopian tube tumors, uterine fibroids, benign ovarian tumors, ovarian cancer, vulvar carcinoma, vulvar malignant melanoma, organ transplant or cancer treatment. Women were informed of the purpose of the screening program and gave their signed, informed consent prior to enrolment. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Beijing Obstetrics and Gynecology Hospital, Capital Medical University.

**Data collection**

Data were collected by cervical cancer screening case record cards. The cards recorded socio-demographic information, reproductive history and sexual behavior, medical history, gynecologic examination history, and TCT and histologic test results.

A technical manual was designed to standardize the screening process, and medical staff were trained prior to commencement of the program. All gynecologic examinations were supervised and gynecologists conducted each examination blinded to the results of the TCT test. If TCT results were abnormal, subjects were referred for histologic testing to determine CIN grade and to receive relevant treatment. Approximately 10% of gynecologic examinations were double-checked by experts and the coincident diagnosis rate was 95%. Additionally, screening experts checked 20% of the positive results and 10% of the negative results. Approximately 5% of all record cards were randomly checked and the proportion with errors or omissions was less than 5%.

Socio-demographic information recorded for each woman included age, education level, occupation, and address. Information was also collected on reproductive history and sexual characteristics, including length of menstrual cycle, duration of menstrual period, gravidity, parity, number of abortions, contraceptives used, reported bleeding after intercourse, and detection of *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection, yeast infection, bacterial vaginosis, cervical inflammation, and genital warts. Medical history included any history of uterine sarcoma, fallopian tube tumors, uterine fibroids, ovary benign tumors, ovarian cancer, vulvar carcinoma, vulvar malignant melanoma, organ transplants, or cancer treatment.

**Outcome variables**

The primary study outcome was CIN grade, categorized as: normal, CIN I, CIN II, CIN III, and cervical cancer. HSIL was defined as CIN grades II and III.

**Statistical analysis**

Distributions of participants’ characteristics were examined by rank-sum test, χ², or Fisher’s exact test, as appropriate. Participants with CIN II and CIN III grades were combined as a HSIL group for subsequent univariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis to assess the association between HSIL and each potential risk factor. Data were analyzed using SAS (version 9.2; SAS Institute, Chicago, IL, USA) and ArcGIS (ArcGIS 10; ESRI Inc., Redlands, CA, USA).

**Results**

A total of 728,704 women from the 18 districts of Beijing participated in the screening program, representing 9.4% of the 25 to 65-year-old female population in Beijing in
Table 1 The prevalence of CIN and cervical cancer in 18 districts of Beijing.

| Districts            | Total  | CIN I [n /100,000] | CIN II [n /100,000] | CIN III [n /100,000] | HSIL(CIN II/III) [n /100,000] | Cervical cancer [n /100,000] |
|----------------------|--------|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Dongcheng           | 13194  | 6 (45.5)           | 3 (22.7)            | 4 (30.3)             | 7 (53.1)                      | 1 (7.6)                     |
| Xicheng             | 27649  | 23 (83.2)          | 25 (90.4)           | 30 (108.5)           | 55 (198.9)                    | 7 (25.3)                    |
| Chongwen            | 8382   | 3 (35.8)           | 3 (35.8)            | 5 (59.7)             | 8 (95.4)                      | 0 (0.0)                     |
| Xuanwu              | 18787  | 1 (5.3)            | 3 (16.0)            | 11 (58.6)            | 14 (74.5)                     | 1 (5.3)                     |
| Chaoyang            | 121141 | 128 (105.7)        | 71 (58.6)           | 69 (57.0)            | 140 (115.6)                   | 25 (20.6)                   |
| Haidian             | 83442  | 27 (32.4)          | 27 (32.4)           | 21 (25.2)            | 48 (57.5)                     | 4 (4.8)                     |
| Fengtai             | 63816  | 8 (12.5)           | 7 (11.0)            | 5 (7.8)              | 12 (18.8)                     | 9 (14.1)                    |
| Shijingshan         | 25987  | 19 (73.1)          | 9 (34.6)            | 19 (73.1)            | 28 (107.8)                    | 5 (19.2)                    |
| Mentougou           | 13395  | 8 (59.7)           | 3 (22.4)            | 20 (149.3)           | 23 (171.7)                    | 1 (7.5)                     |
| Fangshan            | 72004  | 22 (30.6)          | 8 (11.1)            | 4 (5.6)              | 12 (16.7)                     | 1 (1.4)                     |
| Daxing              | 53898  | 5 (9.3)            | 5 (9.3)             | 5 (9.3)              | 10 (18.6)                     | 13 (24.1)                   |
| Tongzhou            | 26183  | 0 (0.0)            | 0 (0.0)             | 2 (7.6)              | 2 (7.6)                       | 2 (7.6)                     |
| Shunyi              | 72194  | 32 (44.3)          | 22 (30.5)           | 19 (26.3)            | 41 (56.8)                     | 6 (8.3)                     |
| Pinggu              | 30937  | 8 (25.9)           | 6 (19.4)            | 7 (22.6)             | 13 (42.0)                     | 1 (3.2)                     |
| Huairou             | 46360  | 43 (92.8)          | 32 (69.0)           | 15 (32.4)            | 47 (101.4)                    | 8 (17.3)                    |
| Miyun               | 22953  | 7 (30.5)           | 2 (8.7)             | 5 (21.8)             | 7 (30.5)                      | 2 (8.7)                     |
| Changping           | 11570  | 3 (25.9)           | 2 (17.3)            | 1 (8.6)              | 3 (25.9)                      | 1 (8.6)                     |
| Yanqing             | 16812  | 23 (136.8)         | 20 (119.0)          | 23 (136.8)           | 43 (255.8)                    | 2 (11.9)                    |
| Total               | 728704 | 366 (50.2)         | 248 (34.0)          | 265 (36.4)           | 513 (70.4)                    | 89 (12.2)                   |

Abbreviations: CIN = cervical intraepithelial neoplasia, HSIL = high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions.
Table 2 Basic characteristics of subjects

| Variables                          | Normal | HSIL /100,000 | P     |
|------------------------------------|--------|---------------|-------|
| Age group                          |        |               |       |
| 25-35                              | 76694  | 56            | 73.0  |
| 36-45                              | 201001 | 151           | 75.1  |
| 46-55                              | 283055 | 247           | 87.2  |
| 56-65                              | 141418 | 59            | 41.7  |
| Education level                    |        |               |       |
| Junior middle school or lower      | 468032 | 365           | 77.9  |
| High school or technical secondary school | 156502 | 110           | 70.2  |
| College and above                  | 77634  | 38            | 48.9  |
| Work or not                        |        |               |       |
| Yes                                | 487062 | 365           | 74.9  |
| No                                 | 215106 | 148           | 68.8  |
| Bleeding after intercourse         |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 682097 | 485           | 71.1  |
| Yes                                | 20071  | 28            | 139.3 |
| Contraceptive used                 |        |               |       |
| Condom                             | 340067 | 186           | 54.7  |
| Contraceptive pills                | 11551  | 34            | 293.5 |
| Intrauterine device use            | 196821 | 196           | 99.5  |
| Security period                    | 981    | 3             | 304.9 |
| Coitus interruptus                 | 7955   | 25            | 313.3 |
| No contraceptive measures          | 144793 | 69            | 47.6  |
| Trichomonas vaginalis              |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 697064 | 504           | 72.3  |
| Yes                                | 5104   | 9             | 176.0 |
| Yeast infection                    |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 698372 | 510           | 73.0  |
| Yes                                | 3796   | 3             | 79.0  |
| Bacterial vaginosis                |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 698835 | 510           | 72.9  |
| Yes                                | 3333   | 3             | 90.0  |
| Cervical inflammation              |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 658979 | 406           | 61.6  |
| Yes                                | 43189  | 107           | 247.1 |
| Genital warts                      |        |               |       |
| No                                 | 699972 | 506           | 72.2  |
| Yes                                | 2196   | 7             | 317.8 |
| Menstrual cycle                    | 29 (28–30)\a | 29 (28–30)\a | 0.67\b | 0.4140 \b |
| Menstrual period                   | 5 (4–7)\a | 5 (4–7)\a | .     | 2.97\b | 0.0851 \b |
| Gravity                            | 2 (1–3)\a | 2 (2–3)\a | .     | 0.16\b | 0.6902 \b |
| Parity                             | 1 (1–2)\a | 1 (1–2)\a | .     | 18.55\b | <0.0001 \b |
| Number of abortion                 | 1 (1–2)\a | 1 (0–2)\a | .     | 2.77\b | 0.0963 \b |
| Total                              | 702168 | 513           |       |

Abbreviations: HSIL: high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions. Trichomonas vaginalis is defined as vaginalis infected by trichomonas. Yeast infection is defined as vaginosis infected by yeast. Bacterial vaginosis is defined as vaginosis infected by bacterial. Cervical inflammation is defined as moderate or serious inflammation.

\a: Median (P25-P75).
\b: Rank sum test.
\*: Fisher’s exact test.
| Variables                           | OR     | 95% CI for OR | P     |
|------------------------------------|--------|---------------|-------|
|                                    | Lower  | Upper         |       |
| **Age group**                      |        |               |       |
| 25-35                              | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| 36-45                              | 1.37   | 0.82          | 1.84  | 0.6521 |
| 46-55                              | 1.15   | 1.01          | 3.98  | 0.0302 |
| 56-65                              | 0.57   | 0.40          | 1.12  | 0.3601 |
| **Education level**                |        |               |       |
| Junior middle school or lower      | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| High school or technical secondary | 1.68   | 0.98          | 2.04  | 0.3112 |
| College and above                  | 0.54   | 0.10          | 0.87  | 0.0261 |
| **Work or not**                    |        |               |       |
| Yes                                | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| no                                 | 1.03   | 0.85          | 1.25  | 0.7356 |
| **Contraceptive used**             |        |               |       |
| Condom                             | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Contraceptive pills                | 1.15   | 0.64          | 2.06  | 0.9484 |
| Intrauterine device use            | 1.29   | 0.94          | 1.59  | 0.9442 |
| Hypoderm contraceptive implants    | 1.13   | 0.88          | 1.49  | 0.9559 |
| Security period                    | 0.59   | 0.19          | 1.85  | 0.9720 |
| Coitus interruptus                 | 1.42   | 0.83          | 1.97  | 0.9406 |
| No contraceptive measures          | 0.90   | 0.68          | 1.20  | 0.9568 |
| **Bleeding after intercourse**     |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 2.60   | 1.75          | 3.86  | <0.0001 |
| **Trichomonas vaginalis**          |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 2.55   | 1.32          | 4.93  | 0.0055 |
| **Yeast infection**                |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 1.14   | 0.37          | 3.54  | 0.8248 |
| **Bacterial vaginosis**            |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 1.31   | 0.42          | 4.08  | 0.6389 |
| **Cervical inflammation**          |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 4.27   | 3.45          | 5.28  | <0.0001 |
| **Genital warts**                  |        |               |       |
| No                                 | Ref    | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                                | 4.41   | 2.82          | 6.19  | <0.0001 |
| **Menstrual cycle**                | 1.00   | 0.99          | 1.01  | 0.9911 |
| **Menstrual period**               | 1.02   | 0.97          | 1.08  | 0.4526 |
| **Gravity**                        | 0.99   | 0.92          | 1.06  | 0.7287 |
| **Parity**                         | 0.74   | 0.65          | 0.86  | <0.0001 |
| **Number of abortions**            | 0.98   | 0.63          | 1.53  | 0.9225 |

Abbreviations: HSIL high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions, OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval.
2009. Of these participants, 366 women (50.2 per 100,000) were diagnosed as CIN I, 248 (34.0 per 100,000) as CIN II, 265 (36.4 per 100,000) as CIN III and 89 (12.2 per 100,000) as having cervical cancer. Prevalence of HSIL (CIN grades II and III) was 70.40 per 100,000 women. The prevalence of HSIL and cervical cancer by Beijing district are shown in Table 1 and Figure 1. Yanqing district had the highest prevalence of CIN I, CIN II, and HSIL, at 136.8, 119.0, and 255.8 per 100,000, respectively. The highest prevalence of CIN III was in Mentougou district (149.3 per 100,000) and the highest prevalence of cervical cancer was in Xicheng district (25.3 per 100,000). There were significant differences between women with HSIL (n = 513) and those with normal histology (n = 702,168) in terms of age group, education level, parity, bleeding after intercourse, contraceptive used, presence of *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection, cervical inflammation, and genital warts. However, there was no significant difference in terms of work or not, menstrual cycle, menstrual period, gravidity, number of abortions, and presence of yeast infection and bacterial vaginosis (Table 2). Risk factors significantly associated with presence of HSIL in univariate logistic regression were being in the age band of 46–55 years (compared with the reference group 25–35 years), higher education level, parity, bleeding after intercourse, and presence of *Trichomonas vaginalis*, cervical inflammation and genital warts (Table 3). Risk factors that remained significant in multivariate logistic regression were being in the age band of 46–55 years (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] = 1.15, 95% CI: 1.07–1.44, compared with the age band of 25–35 years), bleeding after intercourse (aOR = 2.08, 95% CI: 1.40–3.10), and presence of *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection (aOR = 2.62, 95% CI: 1.35–5.07), cervical inflammation (aOR = 4.22, 95% CI: 3.39–5.26) and genital warts (aOR = 3.89, 95% CI: 2.54–7.70). Higher education level was found to be protective against HSIL (aOR = 0.79, 95% CI: 0.37–0.90, college and above compared with junior middle school or lower education level) (Table 4, Figure 2).

### Discussion

This study represents the first large-scale cervical cancer screening program in Beijing. Women in 18 districts aged 25–65 years and with a registered, permanent Beijing address were eligible to participate. However, only 9.4% of eligible women were evaluated. The prevalence of CIN I, II, III, and cervical cancer was 50.2, 34.0, 36.4, and 12.2 per 100,000, respectively. Identified risk factors for HSIL assessed by multivariate logistic regression

| Variables                          | OR  | 95% CI for OR | P     |
|-----------------------------------|-----|---------------|-------|
| **Age group**                     |     |               |       |
| 25-35                             | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| 36-45                             | 1.46| 0.88–1.98     | 0.2143|
| 46-55                             | 1.15| 1.07–1.44     | 0.0254|
| 56-65                             | 0.78| 0.52–1.16     | 0.4399|
| **Education level**               |     |               |       |
| Junior middle school or lower     | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| High school or technical secondary school | 1.59| 0.90–1.96     | 0.2416|
| College and above                 | 0.79| 0.37–0.90     | 0.0337|
| **Bleeding after intercourse**    |     |               |       |
| No                                | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                               | 2.08| 1.40–3.10     | 0.0003|
| **Trichomonas vaginalis**         |     |               |       |
| No                                | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                               | 2.62| 1.35–5.07     | 0.0043|
| **Cervical inflammation**         |     |               |       |
| No                                | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                               | 4.22| 3.39–5.26     | <0.0001|
| **Genital warts**                 |     |               |       |
| No                                | Ref | Ref           | Ref   |
| Yes                               | 3.89| 2.54–7.70     | <0.0001|

**Abbreviations:** HSIL high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions, OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval.
factors for HSIL in this population were being in the age group of 46–55 years, bleeding after intercourse, presence of *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection, cervical inflammation, and genital warts, while higher education was found to be protective.

Prevalence of precancerous cervical lesions (CIN grades I–III) in this study population (0.12%) was lower than that reported in 2009 (0.20%) [27]. Prevalence of cervical cancer was 12.2 per 100,000, which is comparable to rates reported elsewhere: 16.2 per 100,000 and 10.3 per 100,000 reported from more developed countries, and 19.1 per 100,000 reported from less developed countries [28]. While the study population in this study is predominantly urban, there appears to be little difference in rates of cervical cancer between urban and rural regions in China. According to China Cancer Registration Annual Report 2004, in which 43 cancer registries were included, the incidence of cervical cancer was 5.3 per 100,000 in urban and 4.9 per 100,000 in rural areas [29].

Supporting results from previous studies, being aged 46–55 years and having a lower educational attainment level were identified as significant risk factors for HSIL in our study. A community-based screening program in Hong Kong similarly found that women aged 40–49 years and women having received primary school education only were at increased risk of cervical abnormalities [30]. Other studies have also identified older age, high gravidity, and low educational status as significant risk factors for development of cervical cancer [31–34].

Our results show that women who reported bleeding after intercourse had a higher risk of developing cervical epithelial abnormality. This association has been identified previously [35] and is not surprising, as bleeding after intercourse may indicate vaginal infections, cervical dysplasia, or uterine fibroids, all of which may lead to cervical abnormalities.

There was a significant association between an abnormal TCT test and having a history of gynecologic infections. *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection was associated with a high relative risk of HSIL. This supports previous findings: a meta-analysis of 24 studies examining the association between *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection and cervical neoplasia (including both CIN and cervical cancer) found a significant positive association [36]. There is some epidemiologic evidence to suggest that genital tract disease such as cervical inflammation might be linked to cervical cancer or high-grade lesions [37,38], and a significant association between cervical inflammation and HISL was identified in this study. *Trichomonas vaginalis* may act as a cofactor facilitating the development of cervical HPV infection to high-grade lesion and cervical cancer [39,40]. Multiple studies have demonstrated an association between previous and current *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection and cervical dysplasia and human papillomavirus [41–43]. A history of genital warts has been reported as a good predictor of risk for carcinoma in situ [44] and the similar association was detected in the present study. The association between genital warts and HISL is likely due to concurrent infection with different HPV subtypes [45,46]. It is also probably related to multiple sex partners [47].

There are some limitations to this study. First, the authors did not receive information on many other lifestyle factors that may potentially be associated with development of cervical abnormalities. Information on smoking, alcohol consumption and other lifestyle factors is required to explore their association with HSIL. Second, because of budget limitations, detection of HPV infection was not included in this study, which is crucial in the development of CIN and cervical cancer. Despite this, the current study, benefitting from a large sample size, provides valuable information for the assessment of CIN and cervical cancer.

**Conclusions**

The prevalence of cervical neoplasia was relatively high. Women in the age group of 46–55 years, those with lower educational attainment, those reporting bleeding after intercourse, and those suffering from *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection, cervical inflammation and genital warts are at high risk for HSIL. Particular efforts should be made to ensure these women are included in cervical cancer screening programs.

**Abbreviations**

HSIL: High-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions; CIN: Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia; aOR: Adjusted odds ratio; CI: Confidence interval; HPV: Human papillomavirus; TCT: ThinPrep cytologic test.

**Competing interests**

All authors declare that they have no competing interests.
Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the program of Natural Science Fund of China (Serial Number: 81172772), the Program of Natural Science Fund of Beijing (Serial Number: 7131002, 4112015) and the Key Projects in the National Science & Technology Pillar Program in the Twelfth Five-year Plan Period of China (Serial Number: 2011BA08B01). We also thank all the medical personnel from the Obstetrics and Gynecology Hospitals of the 18 districts of Beijing who participated in the screening program and collected the data.

Author details

1School of Public Health, Capital Medical University, Beijing, China. 2Beijing Municipal Key Laboratory of Clinical Epidemiology, Beijing, China. 3Beijing Obstetrics and Gynecology Hospital, Beijing, China. 4School of Medical Science, Edith Cowan University, Perth, Australia.

Received: 9 April 2013 Accepted: 6 November 2014

References

1. Bekkers RL, Massuger LF, Bulten J, Melchers WJ: Epidemiological and clinical aspects of human papillomavirus detection in the prevention of cervical cancer. Rev Med Virol 2004, 14(2):95–105.
2. Chirenje ZM: HIV and cancer of the cervix. Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol 2005, 19(2):269–276.
3. Wu MT, Lee LH, Ho CK, Wu SC, Lin LY, Cheng BH, Liu CL, Yang CY, Tsai HT, Wu TN: Environmental exposure to cooking oils and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. Environ Res 2004, 94(1):25–32.
4. Verhoef VM, Heideman DA, van Kemenade FJ, Rozenaald L, Bosgraaf RP, Hessilink AT, Bekkers RL, Massuger LF, Steenbergen RD, Snijders PJ, Berkhof J, Meijer CJ: Methylator marker analysis and HPV16/18 genotyping in high-risk HPV positive self-sampled specimens to identify women with high grade CIN or cervical cancer. Gynecol Oncol 2014, 135(1):58–63.
5. Arogastos T, Chatzistamatiou K, Zafrafas M, Samanta V, Katsamagkis T, Constantinidis TC, Lamprooulou AF, Lystratu study group: Epidemiology of HPV infection and current status of cervical cancer prevention in Greece: final results of the LYSISTRATA cross-sectional study. Eur J Cancer Prev 2014, 23(5):425–431.
6. Vidal AC, Smith JS, Vafea F, Bentley R, Gradison M, Yarnall KS, Ford A, Oversach F, Grant K, Murphy SK, Hoyo C: HPV genotypes and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in a multietnic cohort in the southeastern USA. Cancer causes control 2014, 25(8):1055–1062.
7. IARC: Monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans. Personal habits and indoor combustion-a review of human carcinogens. Vol 100E. Lyon, France: IARC Press; 2012.
8. Roura E, Castellague X, Pawlita M, Traver N, Waterboer T, Margall N, Bosch FX, de Sanjose S, Dillner J,Gran IT, Badman BS, McHak M, Li H: The precancerous effect of emitted cooking oil fumes on precursor lesions of cervical cancer. Int J Cancer 2010, 127(4):932–941.
9. Parida S, Mandal M: Inflammation induced by human papillomavirus in cervical cancer and its implication in prevention. Eur J Cancer Prev 2014, 23(5):432–448.
10. Munodro C, Lewis CE: Macrophage migration and gene expression in response to tumor hypoxia. Int J Mol Sci 2005, 74(1):197–208.
11. Collins S, Rollason TP, Young LS, Plummer M: Cigarette smoking is an independent risk factor for cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in young women: a longitudinal study. Eur J Cancer 2010, 46(2):405–411.
12. Tsai HT, Tsai YM, Yang SF, Wu KY, Chuang HY, Wu TN, Ho CK, Lin CC, Kuo YS, Wu MT: Lifetime cigarette smoke and second-hand smoke and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia-a community-based case–control study. Gynecol Oncol 2007, 105(1):181–188.
13. Berrington de Gonzalez A, Sweetland S, Green J: Comparison of risk factors for squamous cell and adenocarcinomas of the cervix: a meta-analysis. Br J Cancer 2004, 90(9):1787–1791.
14. Lee CH, Yang SF, Peng CY, Li RN, Chen YC, Chan LF, Tsai EM, Kuo FC, Huang JJ, Tsai HT, Hung HY, Huang HL, Tsai S, Wu MT: The precancerous effect of emitted cooking oil fumes on precursor lesions of cervical cancer. Int J Cancer 2010, 127(4):932–941.
15. Tsai HT, Tsai YM, Yang SF, Wu KY, Chuang HY, Wu TN, Ho CK, Lin CC, Kuo YS, Wu MT: Lifetime cigarette smoke and second-hand smoke and cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in young women: a longitudinal study. Eur J Cancer 2010, 46(2):405–411.
16. Appleby P, Beral V, Berrington De Gonzalez A, Colin D, Franceschi S, Dollidd A, Green J, Petro J, Plummer M, Sweetland S: Carcinoma of the cervix and tobacco smoking: collaborative reanalysis of individual data on 13,541 women with carcinoma of the cervix and 23,017 women without carcinoma of the cervix from 23 epidemiological studies. Int J Cancer 2006, 118(6):1481–1495.
17. Franceschi S, Beral V: Smoking as a major risk factor for cervical cancer and pre-cancer: results from the EPIC cohort. Int J Cancer 2014, 134(1):58–63.
18. Lazenby GB, Taylor PT, Badman BS, McHak M, Korte JE, Soper DE, Young Pierce J: An association between Trichomonas vaginalis and high-risk human papillomavirus in rural Tanzanian women undergoing cervical cancer screening. Clin Ther 2014, 36(1):38–45.
19. Vessey M, Yeates D: Personal and environmental factors associated with cervical cancer in women in Europe and the Pacific region. Br J Cancer 2004, 89(10):1976–1983.
33. Sogukpinar N, Saydam BK, Can HO, Hadimli A, Bozkurt OD, Yucel U, Kocak YC, Akmese ZB, Demir D, Cebert E, Ozenturk G: Assessment of cervical cancer risk in women between 15 and 49 years of age: case of Izmir. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev 2013, 14(3):2119–2125.

34. Thuler LC, de Aguiar SS, Bergmann A: Determinants of late stage diagnosis of cervical cancer in Brazil. Rev Bras Ginecol Obstet 2014, 36(6):237–243.

35. Binswanger IA, Mueller S, Clark CB, Chrispey KL: Risk factors for cervical cancer in criminal justice settings. J Womens Health 2011, 20(12):1839–1845.

36. Zhang ZF, Begg CB: Is Trichomonas vaginalis a cause of cervical neoplasia? Results from a combined analysis of 24 studies. Int J Epidemiol 1994, 23(4):682–690.

37. Castle PE, Hillier SL, Rabe LK, Hildesheim A, Herrero R, Bratti MC, Sherman ME, Burk RD, Rodriguez AC, Alfaro M, Hutchinson ML, Morales J, Schiffman M: An association of cervical inflammation with high-grade cervical neoplasia in women infected with oncogenic human papillomavirus (HPV). Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2001, 10(10):1021–1027.

38. Anorlu RI, Abdul-Kareem FB, Abudu OO, Oyekan TO: Cervical cytology in an urban population in Lagos, Nigeria. J Obstet Gynaecol 2003, 23(3):285–288.

39. Kalantari N, Ghaffari S, Bayani M: Trichomonas, Candida, and gardnerella in cervical smears of Iranian women for cancer screening. N Am J Med Sci 2014, 6(1):25–29.

40. Hawes SE, Kiviat NB: Are genital infections and inflammation cofactors in the pathogenesis of invasive cervical cancer? J Natl Cancer Inst 2002, 94(21):1592–1593.

41. Viikki M, Pukkala E, Nieminen P, Hakama M: Gynaecological infections as risk determinants of subsequent cervical neoplasia. Acta oncol 2000, 39(1):71–75.

42. Noel JC, Fayt I, Romero Munoz MR, Simon P, Engohan-Abohe C: High prevalence of high-risk human papillomavirus infection among women with Trichomonas vaginalis infection on monolayer cytology. Arch Gynecol Obstet 2010, 282(5):503–505.

43. Depuydt CE, Leuridan E, Van Damme P, Bogers J, Vereecken AJ, Donders GG: Epidemiology of Trichomonas vaginalis and human papillomavirus infection detected by real-time PCR in Flanders. Gynecol Obstet Invest 2010, 70(4):273–280.

44. Bhata N, Lynde C, Vender R, Bourcier M: Understanding genital warts: epidemiology, pathogenesis, and burden of disease of human papillomavirus. J Cutan Med Surg 2013, 17(2 Suppl):S47–S54.

45. Moscicki AB, Hills N, Shiboski S, Powell K, Jay N, Hanson E, Miller S, Clayton L, Farhat S, Broering J: Risks for incident human papillomavirus infection and low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion development in young females. JAMA 2001, 285(23):2995–3002.

46. Monteiro DL, Sodre DC, Russomano FB, Trajano AJ, Silva KS: Incidence of genital warts in adolescents and their association with cervical intraepithelial lesions. Eur J Obstet Gynaecol Reprod Biol 2013, 168(1):80–82.

47. Llata E, Stenger M, Bernstein K, Guerry S, Kerani R, Puglsey R, Pathela P, Tableau J, Weinstock H, SSWH GW Working Group: Prevalence of genital warts among sexually transmitted disease clinic patients sexually transmitted disease surveillance network, United States, January 2010 to December 2011. Sex Transm Dis 2014, 41(2):89–93.

doi:10.1186/1471-2458-14-1185
Cite this article as: Tao et al.: Prevalence and risk factors for cervical neoplasia: a cervical cancer screening program in Beijing. BMC Public Health 2014 14:1185.