



1 Article

# 2 Recent increasing incidence of early-stage cervical 3 cancers of the squamous cell carcinoma subtype 4 among young women

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23 **Abstract:** Few studies have reported on the increase in cervical cancer incidence in Japan. We aimed  
24 to determine the relevant trends in the metropolitan regions of Japan and to identify the population  
25 with the highest risk, based on histological subtype, cancer stage, and diagnostic processes. Using  
26 population-based data (2009–2013), we identified 2,110 women, aged  $\geq 20$  years, with cervical cancer.  
27 We estimated the age-standardized and age-specific incidence rates of cervical cancer for the study  
28 period based on the 1985 national model population. The average annual percent change (AAPC)  
29 and 95% confidence interval (CI) were calculated using the joinpoint regression analysis. We  
30 stratified the analyses based on histological subtypes, stage, and diagnostic process via cancer  
31 screening. The increase in the overall age-standardized incidence was not significant. However, the  
32 increase was significant for women aged 30–39 years (AAPC 20.0%/year, 95% CI: 9.9–31.1), which  
33 was attributable to the increase in the incidence of squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) subtype (AAPC  
34 23.1%/year, 95% CI: 10.7–36.8). Among younger women, aged  $<50$  years, further stratification  
35 showed an increase in the undiagnosed early-stage SCC subtype via cancer screening. In Japan, the  
36 incidence of HPV-related cervical cancer has been increasing in undiagnosed younger women.

37 **Keywords:** Cervical cancer; Incidence; Screening; Squamous cell carcinoma; Histology subtype

38

## 39 1. Introduction

40 Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer that affects women worldwide in addition to  
41 ranking fourth among the causes of cancer-related mortality [1]. In Japan, the estimated number of  
42 patients with cervical cancer newly diagnosed in 2016 was approximately 34,000 (23,000 cases of  
43 carcinoma in situ (CIS) and 11,000 cases of invasive cancer) [2]. The incidence of cervical cancer

44 remains higher in developing countries than in developed countries [1]. For instance, in 2013, the age-  
45 standardized incidence rates for invasive cervical cancer, defined by the diagnosis code of C53 in the  
46 International Classification of Diseases, 10<sup>th</sup> revision (ICD-10), were 15.7/100,000 population in  
47 developing countries and 9.6/100,000 population in developed countries [3]. Nevertheless, the global  
48 trend in terms of the incidence has been declining as a result of the implementation of two critical  
49 prevention strategies: human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination and early detection via cancer  
50 screening (Papanicolaou (Pap) smear and HPV-test) [1-4].

51 Compared with that in other developed countries, in Japan, some urgent concerns have been  
52 raised for the prevention of cervical cancer. In 2013, the Japanese government suspended proactive  
53 recommendations for HPV vaccination owing to suspected adverse events, such as complex regional  
54 pain syndrome, which resulted in low HPV vaccination rates (<1% to date) [4,5]. The cervical cancer  
55 screening rate is lower in Japan (42.4%) than in other Western countries (83.3% in the United States  
56 and 80.0% in Italy) [6].

57 Furthermore, the high ratio (23,000/11,000 cases) for the newly diagnosed patients with CIS and  
58 invasive cervical cancer may also reflect the failure of cervical cancer prevention in Japan [2]. Indeed,  
59 a few recent studies have highlighted an increase in the incidence of cervical cancer during the last  
60 two decades in this country, contradicting the current global trend [7-9]. For instance, a significant  
61 average annual percent change (AAPC) of 1.2% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.2–2.2) was observed  
62 in the incidence of invasive cervical cancer from 1991 to 2010 [7], and a substantial increase (AAPC  
63 17.9%, 95% CI: 10.5–25.8) was also observed in the incidence of CIS from 2006 to 2012 [8]. A  
64 continuous increase in the incidence of squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) cervical cancer has been  
65 observed in Osaka prefecture since 2000 (although this study included cancer of the corpus uteri) [9].  
66 However, in another study, the incidence of the SCC subtype, the most common (~90%) HPV-related  
67 histological subtype of cervical cancer, was null or it showed a potentially decreasing trend (AAPC -  
68 0.4%, 95% CI: -2.2 to 1.5) [8]; thus, there is an ambiguity regarding the actual trend. Therefore, we  
69 aimed to further highlight and investigate this unexpected increase in cervical cancer incidence in  
70 this high-risk population for which the national prevention strategy has achieved much less than the  
71 level for which there is a global consensus. Additionally, to the best of our knowledge, the increase  
72 in cervical cancer incidence has not been fully assessed in terms of age, histological subtypes, cancer  
73 stage, and diagnostic processes [10-13].

74 In this study, we examined the trends of cervical cancer incidence in Japan. Using a population-  
75 based data set with >2,000 patients with cervical cancer in Tochigi prefecture, we sought to determine  
76 whether the incidence of cervical cancer was increasing. Furthermore, we sought to determine  
77 whether the increasing trend, if any, differs in terms of age, histological subtypes, cancer stage, and  
78 diagnostic processes.

## 79 2. Materials and Methods

### 80 2.1. Data sources and study subjects

81 We obtained a population-based dataset of patients, aged  $\geq 20$  years, with cervical cancer,  
82 registered in the Tochigi Cancer Registry (TCR) from 2009 to 2013. Tochigi prefecture, which has a  
83 population of nearly 2 million (approximately 1.5% of the Japanese population), is located  
84 approximately 100 km north of Tokyo. The major industries in Tochigi prefecture are related to  
85 manufacturing and agriculture/forestry [14]. The obtained dataset included basic information on  
86 patients with cervical cancer (age and date of diagnosis), clinical information (diagnosis, pathology,  
87 and stage), and information regarding diagnostic processes. Because of limited data accessibility,  
88 survival data were not available. The Tochigi model population data were obtained from the National  
89 Cancer Center [2].

90 We identified 2,170 patients registered in the TCR with a diagnosis of cervical cancer (C53 and  
91 D06 in ICD-10) [8]. We then excluded patients for whom information on stage (15 patients, 0.6%) and  
92 diagnosis process (45 patients, 2.0%) was not available. A total of 2,110 patients with cervical cancer  
93 having complete data were analyzed. In this study, the death certificate only (DCO) was 0.6% during

94 the study period; hence, the quality of this registry dataset was deemed appropriate for analysis in  
95 accordance with a previous study [15]. The Tochigi Prefecture and the Bioethics Committee of  
96 Dokkyo Medical University approved this study (Protocol No. 29006).

## 97 2.2. Definition of histology, cancer stage, and diagnostic process

98 According to previous studies [8], we classified histological subtypes (identified according to  
99 the International Classification of Disease for Oncology, Third edition pathological codes) into SCC  
100 (8051-8084 and 8120-8131), adenocarcinoma (8140-8490), and other subtypes (8000-8045 and 8560-  
101 8900). It should be noted that in this study, severe dysplasia (cervical intraepithelial neoplasia 3) was  
102 included in CIS. We classified cancer stages based on the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End  
103 Results system into four categories (CIS, localized, regional, and distant metastasis) [9, 16]. According  
104 to the International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) classification, stage IA–IB2, IIA–  
105 IVA, and IVB corresponded to stages of localized, regional, and distant metastasis, respectively, in  
106 the present study. Furthermore, we divided patients with cervical cancer into early-stage  
107 (CIS/localized) and advanced-stage (regional/distant metastasis) cancer groups.

108 For the diagnostic processes, we identified patients with cervical cancer who were diagnosed  
109 via cancer screening in the public and private sectors. The patients who were not diagnosed via cancer  
110 screening were designated so. There were two kinds of such patients: (1) those who were diagnosed  
111 with cervical cancer during diagnoses/treatments for other diseases and (2) those who directly visited  
112 clinics/hospitals with some symptoms of ill health without undergoing cancer screening.

113 Furthermore, we classified patients into 10-year age categories (e.g., 20–29 years) considering  
114 the limited sample size. We also divided the patients into two groups—the younger (<50 years) and  
115 older ( $\geq$ 50 years) groups—based on the age of onset of cervical cancer decline [2].

## 116 2.3 Statistical analysis

117 Using the 1985 national model population, we estimated the age-standardized and age-specific  
118 incidence rates of cervical cancer in women aged  $\geq$ 20 years in Tochigi prefecture during the study  
119 period. The AAPC and 95% CI were calculated for the 5-year study period (2009–2013). Joinpoint  
120 regression analysis, which shows the temporal trend of incidence by estimating the percent change  
121 over time using piecewise log-linear regression, and the joinpoint regression program (version  
122 4.7.0.0) from the National Cancer Institute were applied according to the methodologies used in  
123 previous studies [8,9].

124 Moreover, to elucidate the trend of the increasing cervical cancer incidence and to identify the  
125 population at risk, we estimated age-specific AAPCs stratified by pathological subtypes.  
126 Additionally, we stratified the analysis according to the cancer stage and the diagnostic process. In  
127 this additional analysis, we used the binary age category (<50 years or  $\geq$ 50 years) considering the  
128 limited sample size.

129 In a subgroup analysis, we used a limited study sample of 859 patients with invasive cancer (C53  
130 in ICD-10), which corresponded to cervical cancer patients at FIGO stages IA1 and greater. We  
131 performed the same analytic procedure, although additional stratifications with cancer stage and  
132 diagnostic process were not possible due to the limited sample size. Alpha was set at 0.05, and all P-  
133 values were two-sided. For statistical analyses, data were analyzed using the joinpoint regression  
134 program [17] and the IBM SPSS Statistics 25 version for windows.

## 135 3. Results

136 The overall age-standardized incidence was 45.1/100,000 population during the 5-year study  
137 period; although the annual incidence rate did not significantly increase, it tended to show a potential  
138 increase (Table 1).

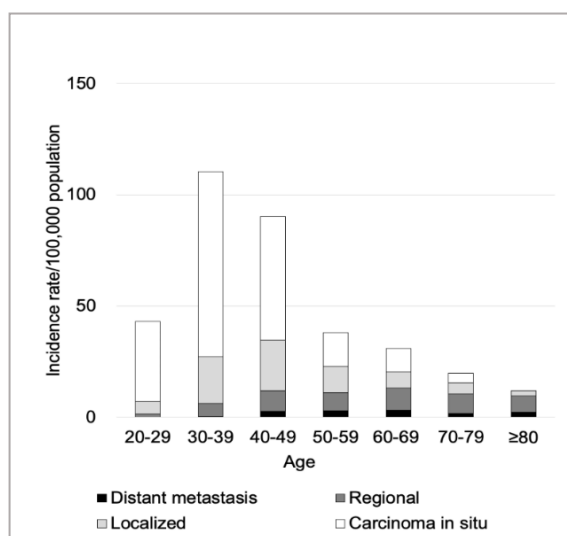
139 However, the age-specific incidence was the highest in women aged 30–39 years (Figure 1), and  
140 the incidence showed a significant increase in this age group: AAPC 20.0 (95% CI: 9.9–31.1; Table 1).  
141 In addition, the incidence of CIS, as well as early-stage cancer, was the highest in women aged 30–39

142 years (Figure 1), and the incidence showed a significant increase (Table 1) [AAPCs for CIS and early-  
 143 stage cancers: 17.8 (95% CI: 6.4–30.4) and 12.6 (95% CI: 2.7–23.4), respectively]. The dominant  
 144 histological subtype was SCC (88.2%), and the overall incidence of SCC showed a potential increase  
 145 (Table 1). The percentage of patients diagnosed via cancer screening was 46.8% (Table 1). No  
 146 joinpoints were observed in the joinpoint regression analysis (Figure S1).

147 **Table 1.** Characteristics of cervical cancer registry cases in the Tochigi prefecture (2009–2013).

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2009–2013	AAPC
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	(95% CI)
Overall	331	409	456	398	516	2110	8.8 (-2.2, 21.1)
Age, years, mean (SD)	46.8 (15.04)	45.5 (14.77)	45.2 (14.40)	43.8 (13.94)	43.2 (13.82)	44.8 (14.39)	
Age category (years)							
20–29	29 (8.8)	39 (9.5)	47 (10.3)	30 (7.5)	60 (11.6)	205 (9.7)	17.6 (-9.3, 52.6)
30–39	90 (27.2)	132 (32.3)	143 (31.4)	153 (38.4)	193 (37.4)	711 (33.7)	20.0 (9.9, 31.1)
40–49	90 (27.2)	106 (25.9)	126 (27.6)	110 (27.6)	126 (24.4)	558 (26.4)	5.1 (-5.3, 16.5)
50–59	51 (15.4)	52 (12.7)	52 (11.4)	45 (11.3)	54 (10.5)	254 (12.0)	3.1 (-4.4, 11.2)
60–69	42 (12.7)	43 (10.5)	55 (12.1)	31 (7.8)	53 (10.3)	224 (10.6)	0.7 (-20.7, 28.1)
70–79	19 (5.7)	25 (6.1)	22 (4.8)	16 (4.0)	23 (4.5)	105 (5.0)	-2.0 (-19.2, 18.9)
≥80	10 (3.0)	12 (2.9)	11 (2.4)	13 (3.3)	7 (1.4)	53 (2.5)	-7.2 (-27.7, 19.2)
Historical subtype							
Squamous cell carcinoma	282 (85.2)	360 (88.0)	390 (85.5)	359 (90.2)	470 (91.1)	1861 (88.2)	10.5 (-0.1, 22.3)
Adenocarcinoma	40 (12.1)	41 (10.0)	49 (10.7)	31 (7.8)	40 (7.8)	201 (9.5)	-2.3 (-18.5, 17.0)
Other	9 (2.7)	8 (2.0)	17 (3.7)	8 (2.0)	6 (1.2)	48 (2.3)	-5.4 (-45.9, 65.4)
Stage							
Carcinoma in situ	158 (50.8)	231 (56.5)	253 (55.5)	261 (65.6)	348 (67.4)	1251 (59.3)	17.8 (6.4, 30.4)
Localized	92 (29.6)	88 (21.5)	114 (25.0)	83 (20.9)	94 (18.2)	471 (22.3)	-0.2 (-13.9, 15.6)
Regional	67 (21.5)	70 (17.1)	71 (15.6)	44 (11.1)	55 (10.7)	307 (14.5)	-7.7 (-21.9, 9.1)
Distant metastasis	14 (4.5)	20 (4.9)	18 (3.9)	10 (2.5)	19 (3.7)	81 (3.8)	0.6 (-24.9, 34.7)
Early-stage	250 (75.5)	319 (78)	367 (80.5)	344 (86.4)	442 (85.7)	1722 (81.6)	12.6 (2.7, 23.4)
Advanced-stage	81 (24.5)	90 (22.0)	89 (19.5)	54 (13.6)	74 (14.3)	388 (18.4)	-6.0 (-22.3, 13.6)
Diagnostic process							
Via cancer screening	149 (45.0)	203 (49.6)	206 (45.2)	176 (44.2)	253 (49.0)	987 (46.8)	9.6 (-5.7, 27.4)
Not-via cancer screening	182 (55.0)	206 (50.4)	250 (54.8)	222 (55.8)	263 (51.0)	1123 (53.2)	8.1 (-1.0, 18.2)
Death Certificate Only, %	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	
Age-standardized incidence (C53 & D06) <sup>a</sup>	33.9	42.9	48.2	43.6	57.7	45.1	
Age-standardized incidence (C53) <sup>a</sup>	15.9	15.8	18.7	12.8	16.0	15.8	

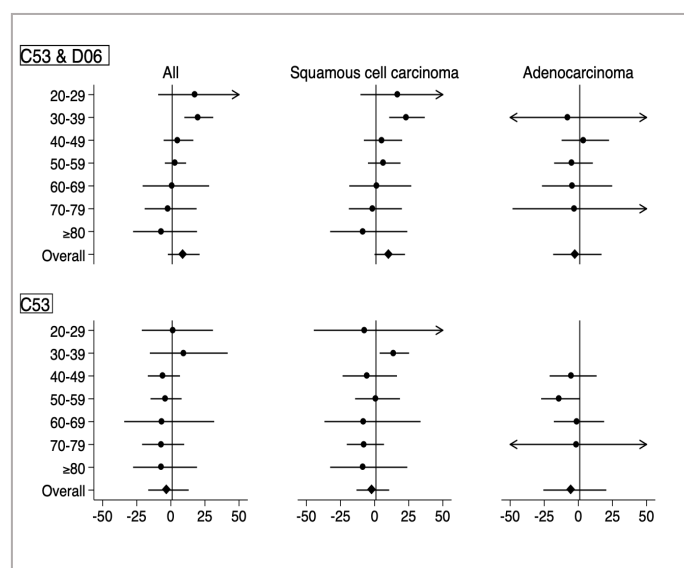
148 Abbreviation: SD, standard deviation; AAPC, average annual percent change; CI, confidence interval; N, number.  
 149 <sup>a</sup>Age-standardized incidence/100,000 population was calculated with the 1985 National model population.  
 150



151 **Figure 1.** Age-specific cervical cancer incidence for each cancer stage between 2009 and 2013. The incidence of  
 152 CIS and early-stage cancer was the highest in women aged 30–39 years. The age-specific incidences of regional and distant

153 metastatic cancers/100,000 population in their 40s, 50s, 60s, 70s, and ≥80s were, respectively, as follows: regional cancer, 9.2,  
 154 8.1, 10.0, 8.7, and 7.2; distant metastatic cancer, 2.9, 2.9, 3.2, 1.9, and 2.3.

155 In the analyses stratified by histology (Figure 2 and Table 2), the increase in age-specific AAPC  
 156 was only significant in SCC among women aged 30–39 years (AAPC 23.1, 95% CI: 10.7–36.8).



157  
 158 **Figure 2. Age-specific average annual percent change for cervical cancer stratified by histological subtype.**  
 159 The average annual percent change (dot) and 95% confidence intervals (line) were estimated using joinpoint regression  
 160 analyses. Upper panels indicate data of overall cervical cancer patients, including those with carcinoma in situ (ICD-10, D06)  
 161 and invasive cancer (C53). Lower panels indicate data of those with only invasive cervical cancer (C53).

162 In the additional analyses stratified by cancer stage and diagnostic process, the incidence of  
 163 early-stage cancer through the non-cancer screening processes, particularly that specific for the SCC  
 164 subtype among younger women, showed a significant increase (Table 3).

165 In the subgroup analysis limited to invasive cervical cancer (C53 in ICD-10), the overall age-  
 166 standardized incidence was 15.8/100,000 population (Table 1). The age-specific incidence stratified  
 167 by histology showed a similar pattern (Figure 2 and Table 2).

168 **Table 2.** Age-specific average annual percent change estimated with joinpoint regression stratified by  
 169 histological subtype for 2009–2013.

Age category	N	AAPC (95% CI)
All		
20–29	205	17.6 (-9.3, 52.6)
30–39	711	20.0 (9.9, 31.1)
40–49	558	5.1 (-5.3, 16.5)
50–59	254	3.1 (-4.4, 11.2)
60–69	224	0.7 (-20.7, 28.1)
70–79	105	-2.0 (-19.2, 18.9)
≥80	53	-7.2 (-27.7, 19.2)
Squamous cell carcinoma		
20–29	194	17.0 (-10.4, 52.9)
30–39	651	23.1 (10.7, 36.8)
40–49	492	5.2 (-7.9, 20.2)
50–59	209	6.4 (-4.9, 19.0)
60–69	185	1.6 (-18.6, 26.9)
70–79	85	-1.4 (-18.9, 20.0)

≥80	45	-8.6 (-32.6, 24.0)
Adenocarcinoma		
20–29	10	Not available
30–39	47	-8.0 (-57.1, 97.7)
40–49	54	3.7 (-12.3, 22.5)
50–59	37	-4.7 (-17.8, 10.6)
60–69	32	-4.4 (-26.7, 24.8)
70–79	17	-2.9 (-48.3, 82.4)
≥80	4	Not available

Abbreviation: AAPC, average annual percent change; CI, confidence interval; N, number.

**Table 3.** Age-specific average annual percent change further stratified by cancer stage and screening process.

	All			Squamous cell carcinoma			Adenocarcinoma		
	N	AAPC	95% CI	N	AAPC	95% CI	N	AAPC	95% CI
Early-stage cancer									
Via cancer screening									
Overall	924	11.6	-3.8, 29.5	853	12.5	-3.3, 31.0	59	6.8	-21.0, 44.3
Age <50	729	15.0	-3.9, 37.6	677	15.7	-3.5, 38.8	45	12.4	-27.0, 73.0
Age ≥50	195	3.3	-0.3, 7.0	176	4.4	-0.3, 9.2	14	0.4	-29.6, 43.2
Not-via cancer screening									
Overall	798	13.6	4.9, 23.1	712	15.7	6.9, 25.3	74	-2.1	-23.4, 25.2
Age <50	623	16.5	8.7, 25.0	571	18.0	10.6, 26.0	43	-0.1	-30.1, 42.7
Age ≥50	175	7.6	-11.1, 30.3	141	11.2	-10.5, 38.2	31	-3.1	-23.2, 22.1
Advanced-stage cancer									
Via cancer screening									
Overall	63	-16.5	-34.0, 5.6	49	-14.8	-27.9, 0.6	11	-23.7	-48.4, 12.8
Age <50	26	-2.0	-27.1, 31.9	21	4.3	-26.5, 48.1	4	n/a	
Age ≥50	37	-26.2	-44.5, -1.9	28	-27.9	-48.6, 1.1	7	-20.2	-35.3, -1.6
Not-via cancer screening									
Overall	325	-3.9	-20.0, 15.5	247	-3.5	-22.2, 19.6	57	-6.3	-27.7, 21.3
Age <50	96	-2.9	-23.1, 22.7	68	-1.6	-29.9, 38.0	19	-2.8	-47.1, 78.9
Age ≥50	229	-4.6	-20.4, 14.4	179	-4.3	-20.6, 15.5	38	-3.6	-34.2, 41.3

Abbreviation: AAPC, average annual percent change; CI, confidence interval; N, number.

#### 4. Discussion

In this study, we show that the incidence of cervical cancer increased among younger women in Japan. Specifically, women in their 30s are at risk for early-stage cervical cancer with the SCC subtype. Additionally, this trend has been increasingly observed in cancer patients not diagnosed via cancer screening processes.

Our findings confirm that the recent concerns for eliminating cervical cancer in Japan are valid—the incidence of cervical cancer is increasing, particularly among young women. In this study, the age-standardized incidence of overall cervical cancer in Japan was higher than that in Western countries [3], which is in concordance with the findings of previous studies [7–9]. Likewise, Yagi et al. reported a continuous increase in SCC cervical cancer (including that in corpus cancer) among younger women aged <40 years in Osaka prefecture since 2000 (AAPC 5.9%/year) [9]. Similarly, Utada et al. reported a skyrocketing of CIS cases among younger women aged 30–39 years in Nagasaki prefecture since 2007 (AAPC 19.0%/year) [8].

Although the reasons for this trend are yet to be fully determined, it might be related to the trajectory of sexual practice, including the prevalence of HPV infection and sexual behavior. In a hospital-based study in Japan, later birth cohorts had a higher prevalence of HPV infection, including HPV16/18 [18]. This difference might be associated with early sexual debut and having multiple

191 sexual experiences with different partners, as well as the less frequent use of condoms among recent  
192 birth cohorts [19]. Indeed, the increasing trend of cervical cancer incidence slightly differed across  
193 Japan (including that in our study) [8, 9], reflecting geographical differences in sexual practice.  
194 However, the cervical cancer incidence among younger South Korean or Japanese American women  
195 did not show an increase, implying that the increasing rates of cancer screening may offset even  
196 cultural shifts toward a higher risk for cervical cancer [9].

197 In this study, contrary to our expectations, diagnosis via the non-cancer screening process  
198 played a role in the increased detection of cervical cancer. We need to elucidate the mechanism  
199 further because early-stage cancer patients (particularly those with CIS) have few symptoms, and  
200 regular practice would merely detect this type of cancer. One potential explanation (yet to be  
201 determined due to our limited data) might include a routine Pap smear during regular pregnancy  
202 checkups or infertility treatments in Japan; these processes are not recognized as “cancer screening”  
203 in prevention strategies. The average age of women during the first births in Japan in 2017 was 30.7  
204 years [20], and the birth rate among women aged 30–39 has been the highest ever [21]. Besides, the  
205 number of married couples with a history of receiving infertility treatment has increased to 18.2%  
206 [22]. Nevertheless, the regular checkup is not designed to prevent cervical cancer in this high-risk  
207 population and does not cover women who are not willing to conceive. Therefore, it is necessary to  
208 increase the rate of cancer screening at the population level, particularly in high-risk younger women.

209 For older women, although the age-standardized incidence of advanced-stage cancer (i.e., life-  
210 threatening cancer) remained constant regardless of age, with a higher percentage of advanced-stage  
211 (Figure 1), the overall incidence of cervical cancer was low. In a British study, adequate screening by  
212 50–65 years of age tended to reduce the risk of subsequent cervical cancer [23]. Cervical cancer  
213 screening should aim to decrease the overall mortality at the population level; however, healthcare  
214 resources are limited in Japan. Currently, as the cervical cancer screening program does not have an  
215 upper age limit (i.e., all women aged  $\geq 20$  are eligible), further studies addressing the age limit from  
216 the perspective of health economics are warranted.

217 This study has several limitations. First, the study period was short, and the data with the small  
218 sample size are only for a single prefecture in the metropolitan region (with an approximate  
219 population of only 1.5% of the Japanese population), thereby limiting the external generalizability. In  
220 addition, our staging was not entirely according to the FIGO classification, and potential  
221 misclassifications might have been introduced. However, we followed the latest diagnostic  
222 classification (The Bethesda system), and the age distribution of patients with cervical cancer (from  
223 the Tochigi prefecture) paralleled those reported in previous studies and national statistics [7–9].  
224 Second, we could not explicitly specify the increasing trend in public cancer screening, and HPV  
225 infection- and smoking-related data were not available. However, in Japan, the cancer screening rate  
226 is low, and smoking is attributable to approximately 2% of the incidence of overall cervical cancer;  
227 further, the rate of smoking has been decreasing among women in Japan [9]. Third, due to the  
228 limitations of our dataset, we did not assess socioeconomic disparities [24]. As socially disadvantaged  
229 women are less likely to have access to cancer screening or HPV vaccination even under the universal  
230 health coverage system in Japan, future studies should address the socioeconomic gap affecting the  
231 increasing trend of cervical cancer.

232 Despite these limitations, using high-quality population-based data, we specifically identified  
233 the prioritized target population to prevent cervical cancer—the recent increase in cervical cancer in  
234 Japan is likely attributable to the early-stage HPV-related cancer subtype among young women in  
235 their 30s who are unlikely to undergo cervical cancer screening. Although cancer prevention has to  
236 be a government policy, in a population poll conducted by the Cabinet Office in Japan, the reasons  
237 for individuals not undergoing cancer screening included “not having time to undergo cancer  
238 screening” (30.6%) and “no need due to their confidence in their health” (29.2%) [25]. This poll  
239 highlighted insufficient public education as the probable reason for the low cancer screening rate.  
240 Hence, public awareness that screening can eliminate the risk of cervical cancer at the population  
241 level, particularly in young women, should be promoted while considering the introduction of the  
242 combination of HPV testing and Pap smear. Furthermore, the HPV vaccination program, which was

243 suspended in 2013 in Japan, should be resumed, and cancer screening should be promoted to  
244 eliminate cervical cancer.

## 245 5. Conclusions

246 In Japan, the incidence of cervical cancer has been increasing in young women, with the trend  
247 being most pronounced in those with early-stage cancer of the SCC subtype diagnosed without  
248 cancer screening processes. The national prevention strategy should explicitly incorporate HPV  
249 vaccination and cancer screening for eliminating cervical cancer.

250

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254 G.K.; supervision, M.Z., I.O., Y.H., and G.K.; software, T.N., M.Z., and Y.H.; validation, T.N., M.Z., I.O., Y.H.,  
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