recommended for several GI disorders, including GORD, and as prophylaxis against peptic ulcer disease and GI bleeding in susceptible populations, such as individuals on dual antiplatelet therapy for secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease.^{3–5} In view of the large population of patients receiving PPI therapy, in many cases long-term therapy, ensuring the safety of PPI therapy is of considerable public health importance.⁶ Recently, PPIs have been reported to be associated with cholecystitis and might possibly be carcinogenic.¹ However, no research has been conducted to investigate the association of PPIs with gallbladder cancer (GBC). Herein, a hospital-based casecontrol study was carried out in China to explore the association between PPIs and GBC risk.

A hospital-based case-control study was performed by enrolling 3030 subjects (606 subjects with pathologically diagnosed GBC as well as 2424 healthy controls) from the Beijing Friendship Hospital of the Capital Medical University, Beijing, China, from February 2002 to October 2018. Differences in PPI use were compared between the GBC and control groups. Cases were frequency-matched 1 to 4 with controls (without a history of GBC) in the Health Screening Center of Beijing Friendship Hospital from May 2012 through January 2019 for age, sex and history of gallstone. Both study groups excluded individuals receiving cholecystectomy prior to the index date.

In this case-control study, 44 of 606 (7.3%) patients with GBC and 109 of 2424 (4.5%) controls have been exposed to PPI 28 cumulative defined daily dose (cDDD) (table 1). When comparing ever users of PPI with non-PPI users, we found PPI use was associated with 1.56-fold elevated GBC risk (p<0.0001) (OR=1.56, 95% CI 1.07 to 2.19; p=0.005) (table 2). Next, we determined the impact of dose and duration of PPI use on GBC risk (table 2). The ORs were 1.42 (95% CI 0.80 to 2.41), 1.67 (95% CI 1.03 to 2.76) and 2.69 (95% CI 1.15 to 7.28) in the 28-90, 91-180 and 180+ cDDD groups, respectively, compared with the ≤27 cDDD group (table 2). In considering the use of PPI according to cDDD subgroups, the risk significantly increased, and the highest dose-response effect was found in patients with PPI exposure of 180+ cDDD groups (p for trend <0.0001) (table 2). When stratified by duration of PPI use as >3 years or ≤ 3 years, the ORs were 1.79 (95% CI 1.03 to 3.10) and 2.41 (1.05 to 4.93) for PPI use of >3 years and \leq 3 years, respectively (table 2).

Proton pump inhibitors and the risk of gallbladder cancer: a hospital-based case control study

We read with great interest the article by Chuang *et al*¹ confirming proton pump inhibitor (PPI) use is associated with increased risk of cholecystitis.¹ PPIs are a potent class of agents used to suppress gastric acid secretion and are among the most commonly prescribed medications globally.² Presently, PPIs are routinely

Table I Daseille				
Characteristics	GBC, n=606 (%)	Controls, n=2424 (%)	P value*	
Age (years)			0.955	
<60	226 (32.3)	907 (37.4)		
≥60	380 (62.7)	1517 (62.6)		
Sex				
Male	195 (32.1)	781 (32.2)		
Female	411 (67.9)	1643 (67.8)	0.984	
Gallstones	119 (19.7)	480 (19.8)	0.927	
Infectious diseases				
HBV	59 (9.7)	104 (4.3)	<0.001	
HCV	27 (4.5)	41 (1.7)	<0.001	
Fatty liver disease	75 (12.4)	191 (7.9)	<0.001	
Alcohol intake	156 (25.8)	393 (16.2)	<0.001	
Smoking	204 (33.6)	448 (18.5)	<0.001	
Diabetes mellitus	123 (20.3)	187 (7.7)	0.002	
Dyslipoproteinaemia	176 (29.0)	373 (15.4)	<0.001	
Hypertension	78 (12.9)	347 (14.3)	0.36	
Obesity	138 (22.7)	330 (13.6)	<0.001	
Coronary artery disease	134 (22.1)	625 (25.8)	0.062	
Aspirin use	142 (23.5)	926 (38.2)	<0.001	
PPI use	44 (7.3)	109 (4.5)	0.005	
Duration of use (years)				
≤3	19 (3.1)	43 (1.8)	0.034	
3	9 (1.5)	15 (0.6)	0.031	
Dose (cDDD)				
0–27	562 (92.7)	2291 (95.5)		
28–90	15 (2.5)	45 (1.9)	0.219	
91–180	23 (3.8)	55 (2.3)	0.036	
>180	6 (1.0)	7 (0.3)	0.018	

*P value for difference between total GBC cases and controls. cDDD, cumulative defined daily dose; GBC, gallbladder cancer; PPI, proton pump inhibitor.

This observation is biologically plausible as supported by preclinical studies of GBC and other cancers. It is hypothesised that hypochlorhydria induced by daily PPI use produces periods during the day in which the pH of the gastric juice is at or near neutral pH levels.^{7 8} A study by Shindo *et al*⁷ showed that hypochlorhydria can induce major changes in the gastric flora and affect the pH of small bowel fluid to allow bacterial overgrowth thereby increasing the risk of retrograding to the biliary system and thus elevating the incidence of biliary

Table 2 OR and 95% CI of GBC associated with PPI use and other covariates				
Variables	OR (95% CI)	P value		
Infectious diseases				
HBV	2.31 (1.72 to 3.25)*	<0.001		
HCV	2.65 (1.44 to 4.36)*	<0.001		
Fatty liver disease	1.63 (1.20 to 2.03)*	<0.001		
Alcohol intake	1.68 (1.44 to 2.19)*	<0.001		
Smoking	2.23 (1.84 to 2.73)*	<0.001		
Diabetes mellitus	2.54 (1.87 to 3.41)*	0.002		
Dyslipoproteinaemia	2.15 (1.72 to 2.66)*	<0.001		
Hypertension	0.88 (0.67 to 1.15)	0.36		
Obesity	2.12 (1.68 to 2.46)*	<0.001		
Coronary artery disease	0.81 (0.56 to 1.15)	0.062		
Aspirin use	0.49 (0.38 to 0.63)*	<0.001		
PPI use	1.56 (1.07 to 2.19)*	0.005		
Duration of use (years)				
≤3	1.79 (1.03 to 3.10)*	0.034		
>3	2.41 (1.05 to 4.93)*	0.031		
Dose (cDDD)				
0–27				
28–90	1.42 (0.80 to 2.41)	0.219		
91–180	1.67 (1.03 to 2.76)*	0.036		
>180	2.69 (1.15 to 7.28)*	0.018		

*Adjusted OR was estimated using conditional logistic regression adjusted for other covariates listed in the table cDDD, cumulative defined daily dose; GBC, gallbladder cancer; PPI, proton pump inhibitor. tract infection,¹ and biliary tract infection is a recognised risk factor for GBC.⁹ Thus, our study may indirectly support the results of Chuang *et al*¹ that PPI use increased the incidence of cholecystitis.¹

In conclusion, this hospital-based case-control study indicates PPI use as a significant risk factor for GBC progression, which seems to be dose-dependent.

Jianping Xiong (1),¹ Yaqin Wang,² Guang Chen,¹ Long Jin¹

¹Interventional Radiology, Capital Medical University Affiliated Beijing Friendship Hospital, Beijing, China ²Department of Interventional Radiology, China Medical University First Hospital, Shenyang, China

Correspondence to Dr Long Jin, Interventional Radiology, Capital Medical University Affiliated Beijing Friendship Hospital, Beijing, Beijing, China; longerg@hotmail.com

Contributors JX and YW contributed to the conception of the article, initiated the draft of the article, revised the article and contributed equally to the article. GC conducted the data analysis and revised the article. LJ revised the article and is the guarantor of the article.

Funding This work was supported by grants from the research and demonstration of clinical diagnosis and treatment technology, Beijing Municipal Commission of Science and Technology (Z191100006619030), and 'Sailing' plans of clinical technology innovation project in 2018, Beijing Municipal Hospital Administration (XMLX201801).

Disclaimer The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. No additional external funding received for this study.

Map disclaimer None declared.

Competing interests None declared.

Patient and public involvement Patients and/or the public were not involved in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of this research.

Patient consent for publication Not required.

Ethics approval This study gained approval from the Institutional Review Board of the Beijing Friendship Hospital of Capital Medical University, Beijing, China.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.



Open access This is an open access article distributed in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution Non Commercial (CC BY-NC 4.0) license, which permits others to distribute, remix, adapt, build upon this work non-commercially, and license their derivative works on different terms, provided the original work is properly cited, appropriate credit is given, any changes made indicated, and the use is non-commercial. See: http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/.

© Author(s) (or their employer(s)) 2020. Re-use permitted under CC BY-NC. No commercial re-use. See rights and permissions. Published by BMJ.



To cite Xiong J, Wang Y, Chen G, *et al. Gut* 2020;**69**:2265–2267.

Received 4 March 2020 Revised 9 March 2020 Accepted 15 March 2020 Published Online First 9 April 2020

Gut 2020;**69**:2265–2267. doi:10.1136/ gutjnl-2020-321052

ORCID iD

Jianping Xiong http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6593-6377

REFERENCES

- Chuang S-C, Lin C-C, Peng C-Y, et al. Proton pump inhibitors increase the risk of cholecystitis: a populationbased case-control study. Gut 2019;68:1337–9.
- 2 Haastrup P, Paulsen MS, Zwisler JE, et al. Rapidly increasing prescribing of proton pump inhibitors in primary care despite interventions: a nationwide observational study. Eur J Gen Pract 2014;20:290–3.
- Kahrilas PJ. Clinical practice. Gastroesophageal reflux disease. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:1700–7.
- 4 Malfertheiner P, Chan FKL, McColl KEL. Peptic ulcer disease. *Lancet* 2009;374:1449–61.
- 5 Li L, Geraghty OC, Mehta Z, et al. Age-specific risks, severity, time course, and outcome of bleeding on long-term antiplatelet treatment after vascular events: a population-based cohort study. Lancet 2017;390:490–9.
- 6 Ma C, Shaheen AA, Congly SE, et al. Interpreting reported risks associated with use of proton pump inhibitors: residual confounding in a 10-year analysis of national ambulatory data. *Gastroenterology* 2020;158:780–2.
- 7 Shindo K, Machida M, Fukumura M, et al. Omeprazole induces altered bile acid metabolism. Gut 1998;42:266–71.
- 8 Imhann F, Bonder MJ, Vich Vila A, et al. Proton pump inhibitors affect the gut microbiome. Gut 2016;65:740–8.
- 9 Sheth S, Bedford A, Chopra S. Primary gallbladder cancer: recognition of risk factors and the role of prophylactic cholecystectomy. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000;95:1402–10.