Helicobacter pylori outer membrane protein and virulence marker differences in expatriate patients

J. YAKOOB¹*, Z. ABBAS¹, W. JAFRI¹, R. KHAN¹, S A. SALIM¹, S. AWAN¹, S. ABID¹, S. HAMID¹ and Z. AHMAD²

¹ Department of Medicine, Aga Khan University, Karachi, Pakistan ² Department of Medicine Pathology, Aga Khan University, Karachi, Pakistan

Received 20 January 2015; Final revision 21 January 2016; Accepted 27 January 2016; first published online 4 March 2016

SUMMARY

We studied the prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* virulence markers, e.g. cytotoxin associated gene (*cagA*), *cagA* promoter, vacuolating associated cytotoxin A (*vacA*) alleles induced by contact with epithelium (*iceA* type), and outer membrane protein Q (*hopQ*) in expatriates and compared them with those in local residents. Gastric biopsies were obtained at endoscopy for culture, histology and PCR for virulence marker and *hopQ*. Of 309 patients, 236 (76%) were males with a mean age of 45 years. A total of 102 patients were expatriates. *hopQ* type 1 was present in 98 (47%) local residents compared to 88 (86%) expatriates (P < 0.001), while *hopQ* type 2 was present in 176 (85%) local residents, compared to 60 (59%) expatriates (P < 0.001). *H. pylori* virulence marker *cagA* was positive in 97 (47%) local residents compared to 86 (84%) expatriates (P < 0.001), while *cagA*-P was positive in 157 (76%) local residents compared to 45 (44%) expatriates (P < 0.001), while *iceA* type 1 was positive in 81 (39%) local residents compared to 86 (84%) expatriates (P < 0.001), while *iceA* type 2 was positive in 81 (39%) local residents compared to 86 (84%) expatriates (P < 0.001). Distribution of *H. pylori cagA*, *cagA* promoter, *iceA* and *hopQ* type in local residents and expatriates was different. *H. pylori* virulence markers were associated with severe pathology in expatriates.

Key words: *cag*A, *cag*A promoter, gastric carcinoma, gastric ulcer, gastritis, *Helicobacter pylori*, *ice*A, outer membrane protein Q.

INTRODUCTION

Helicobacter pylori is a major cause of gastroduodenal diseases like gastritis, peptic ulcer, gastric carcinoma (GC) and mucosal associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma [1, 2]. The prevalence of *H. pylori* is very heterogeneous in Asia with some populations having extremely low prevalence, e.g. Malays [3]. In developing countries, like Pakistan and Bangladesh, infection with *H. pylori* is more frequent in the general

population and is acquired at an early age. It has been shown previously that *H. pylori* is acquired by most individuals in early childhood [4]. In Pakistan, the prevalence of *H. pylori* seropositivity in children aged 11–15 years was $53 \cdot 5\%$ [4]. As *H. pylori* is transmitted via the gastro-oral and faeco-oral route, overcrowding, poor sanitation, lower socioeconomic status and poor water supply are the major factors that result in its acquisition at a higher frequency and lower age in less developed Asian countries [5, 6]. By contrast, in industrialized and developed countries like the United States, the prevalence of *H. pylori* has decreased [7]. In Asian countries like

^{*} Author for correspondence: Dr Javed Yakoob, Department of Medicine, Aga Khan University, Stadium Road, Karachi 74800, Pakistan. (Email javed.yakoob@aku.edu)

Japan, Singapore and China, the frequency of *H. pylori* infection has been reported to be somewhat lower [8]. By contrast, people living in less developed countries of Asia with high frequency of *H. pylori* infection [4–6] acquired at an earlier age have the lowest risk of developing GC [8]. It is interesting to note that in Japan despite a lower frequency of *H. pylori* infection, this country has the highest frequency of GC.

Genetic diversity among *H. pylori* strains and host characteristics play a role in the varying clinical outcomes in persons colonized with *H. pylori*. Candidate markers for distinguishing disease-associated *H. pylori* strains from less virulent strains include the presence of the *cag* pathogenicity island, *vac*A alleles *s1/m1*, induced on contact with epithelium (*ice*A types 1/2), intact outer immunoprotein A (*oip*A) alleles, outer membrane protein (OMP) Q (*hop*Q), etc. [9–13]. However, presence of these OMPs and virulence markers does not always correlate well with gastroduodenal diseases [14].

The inflammatory immune response during acute H. pylori infection of the gastric epithelium triggers a mutation burst and an increased frequency of mutation and recombination events occur in H. pylori OMP genes [15, 16]. It is known that changes in immunogenic OMPs facilitates rapid adaptation of H. pylori to an individual host, evasion of the host's immune system resulting in chronic infection [16]. Horizontal transmission of H. pylori is common in populations living in low socioeconomic conditions found in developing countries and is known to be associated with infection by multiple H. pylori strains [17, 18]. In view of the high frequency of DNA transformation and lateral gene transfer reported in H. pylori strains we wanted to see whether there was any differences in the H. pylori strains isolated from overseas Pakistani residents (expatriates) compared to local residents. Existence of differences may suggest that expatriates' H. pylori genome acquires characteristics of the country of temporary residence. It is also possible that these newly acquired H. pylori genomic characteristics may be transfered to the H. pylori gene pool of their country of origin once individuals return. There is a high prevalence of virulent H. pylori strains in countries like China, South Korea and Japan that are known to be associated with severe gastroduodenal diseases. We studied the prevalence of H. pylori, its virulence marker, e.g. cagA, cagA promoter, vacA alleles s1a/1b, m1, m2 and s2, iceA types 1 and 2 and OMP Q (hopQ) in expatriates and compared them with those in local residents.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Three hundred and nine patients were enrolled from an endoscopy suite providing upper gastrointestinal endoscopy for upper gastrointestinal symptoms and who were positive by rapid urease test for H. pylori infection at endoscopy. There were 236 (76%) males and 73 (24%) females with a mean age of 45 ± 13 years (range 18-79 years). These patients attended the gastroenterology outpatient and endoscopy suite from January 2013 to December 2014. Of these, 207 (67%) were local residents with a mean age of $46 \pm$ 14 years (male:female ratio 148:59) while 102 (33%) were expatriates with a mean age of 44 ± 9 years (male:female ratio 88:14). There was no significant difference in the mean age of the two groups. There were significantly (P = 0.004) fewer female patients in the expatriate group compared to local residents due to males being the family earner and travelling abroad in the Pakistani culture. These expatriate patients had lived abroad for more than 10 years for various reasons and had moved in their midtwenties to a foreign country. These expatriates included 48 (15%) from China; 43 (14%) from South Korea and 11 (4%) from Japan. These expatriates had lived abroad for more than 10 years and had paid infrequent visits to their country of origin for social reasons or in seeking medical healthcare. The study was approved by the Ethics Review Committee of Aga Khan University. All patients gave informed consent for endoscopy and participation in the study. None of the patients had received antibiotics, acid reducing drugs such as H2 receptor antagonists, proton pump inhibitors, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs or bismuth compounds in the last 8 weeks. The clinical symptoms at the time of presentation and endoscopic findings were noted. Gastric biopsy specimens were taken from an area of inflammation in the antrum and corpus. Two biopsy specimens were taken for each of: rapid urease test (Pronto Dry, Medical Instruments Corporation, Switzerland), histology and polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Two gastric biopsy specimens were used for a rapid urease test (Pronto Dry). Specimens for histology were dispatched in formalin and for PCR in 0.9% normal saline. PCR for cagA 5'-terminal, cagA promoter region, vacA alleles for the signal (s), i.e. s1a, s1b, s2 and middle (m), i.e. m1, m2, iceA (types 1 and 2) and hopQ alleles (types 1 and 2) were analysed.

Bacterial culture

The specimens were transported immediately in sterile normal saline to isolate H. pvlori. Each specimen was homogenized in a sterile Eppendorf tube with electric homogenizer and inoculated onto Columbia blood agar (Oxoid, UK) medium supplemented with 10% defibrinated sheep blood and Dent's supplement (containing vancomycin, trimethoprim, cefsulodin and amphotericin B) and incubated at 37 °C under microaerobic conditions using anaerobic jars and strips (Campygen strips, Oxoid) for isolation and growth for 5-7 days. Plates were then examined for bacterial growth and typical colonies were selected for identification. The identity of H. pylori was confirmed by Gram stain, and production of urease and catalase. H. pylori isolates were defined as Gram-negative spiral-shaped bacilli that were catalase positive and rapidly (<30 min) urease positive.

Histology

Gastric biopsy specimens for histopathology were stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stain for the detection of *H. pylori* and degree of gastritis. The degree of gastritis as determined on H&E stain was scored in accordance with the Sydney system [19].

Extraction of genomic DNA

The bacterial cells on chocolate agar plate were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 8.0) then centrifuged at 1008 *g* for 20 min. *H. pylori* DNA was extracted by the phenol/chloroform method similar to a method described previously [20].

PCR

cagA and vacA genotyping

Amplification of *cagA*, *cagA* promoter, and *vacA* alleles by PCR was performed in a volume of 25 μ l containing 10 mmol/l Tris–HCl (pH 8·3), 50 mmol KCl, 1·5–2·5 mmol/l MgCl₂, 200 μ mol/l deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 2 U *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega, USA) and 25 pmol of both forward and reverse primers (MWG automatic synthesizer, Germany) (Table 1) as used previously [21]. PCR was performed in a PerkinElmer 9700 thermal cycler (PerkinElmer, USA). The amplification cycles for *cagA*, *cagA* promoter, and *vacA* alleles are given in Table 1. Positive and negative reagent control reactions were performed

with each batch of amplifications. DNA from *H. pylori* strains ATCC 43504 (*vacA s1am1, cagA* positive), ATCC 51932 (*vacA s2m2, cagA* negative) and ATCC 43526 (*vacA s1bm1, cagA* positive) was used to define the accuracy of the *cagA* and *vacA* alleles [21]. After PCR, the amplified PCR products were electrophoresed in 2% agarose gels containing Tris/acetate/EDTA acid, stained with ethidium bromide, and visualized under a short wavelength ultraviolet light source.

iceA genotyping

For analysis of the *iceA* genotype, primers previously described [22] were used. Primers iceA1 F and iceA1R yielded a fragment of 247 bp for the *iceA1* allele, and primers iceA2 F and iceA2R yielded a fragment of 229 or 334 bp, respectively, according to the existence of repeated sequences of 105 nt.

hopQ genotyping

The *hop*Q genotype (types 1 and 2) were determined by PCR methods [23]. Primers and conditions used for PCR amplification of *hop*Q sequences of types 1 and 2 are shown in Table 1. Primers used for PCR amplification of *hop*Q alleles are given in (Table 1) [23].

Sample size

Two different sample sizes were calculated in keeping with the aim of the study. The first sample size was calculated to estimate the prevalence of *H. pylori* in overseas Pakistani residents (expatriates), taking the prevalence of 58% (as reported in the Pakistani population) that gives the maximum sample size, with 95% level of confidence and 6% bound on the error of estimation [4]. After accounting for a non-response rate of about 10%, the minimum sample size required is about 285 participants using the formula [24]:

$$N = \frac{4(z_{\rm crit})^2 p(1-p)}{D^2}$$

The second sample size of 160 was derived using the formula

$$N = 2 \cdot \left[Z_{\text{crit}} \sqrt{2\bar{p}(1-\bar{p})} + z_{\text{pwr}} \sqrt{p_1(1-p_1) + p_2(1-p_2)} \right]^2 / D^{2s}$$

assuming that 73 patients in each group will help achieve a 5% significance level using a two-sided equivalence test of proportions [24]. This number of patients would provide the study with the ability to

Region amplified	Primer designation	Primer sequence (5'-3')	PCR product (bp)	PCR cycles
cagA	D008 R008	GGTCAAAATGCGGTCATGG TTAGAATAATCAACAAACATCACGCCAT	297	1 cycle of 94 °C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 90 s, 1 cycle of 72 °C for 5 min
cagA-P	cagAP-F1 cagAP-R1	GTGGGTAAAAATGTGAATCG CTGCAAAAGATTGTTTGGCAGA	730	1 cycle of 94 °C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min. The final cycle 72 °C for 7 min
vacA s1a	SS1-F	GTCAGCATCACACCGCAAC	190	
	VA1-R	CTGCTTGAATGCGCCAAAC		1 cycle of 95 °C for 5 min; 35
vacA s1b	SS3-F VA1-R	AGCGCCATACCGCAAGAG CTGCTTGAATGCGCCAAAC	187	cycles of 95 °C for 1 min, 52 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min, 1 cycle of 72 °C for 5 min
vacA m1	VA3-F	GGTCAAAATGCGGTCATGG	190	-
	VA3-R	CCATTGGTACCTGTAGAAAC3'		
vacA m2	VA4-F	GGAGCCCCAGGAAACATTG	352	
	VA4-R	CATAACTAGCGCCTTGCAC		
iceA1	iceA1 F	GTGTTTTTAACCAAAGTATC	247	
	iceA1R	CTATAGCCASTYTCTTTGCA		1 cycle consisting of 1 min at
iceA2	iceA2 F iceA2R	GTTGGGTATATCACAATTTAT TTRCCCTATTTTCTAGTAGGT	229/334	95 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 1 min at 95 °C, 1 min at 52 °C, and 1 min at 72 °C. The final
				cycle 72 °C for 7 min
hopQ type 1 region A	OP5136 F	CAACGATAATGGCACAAACT	524	
	OP4829R	GTCGTATCAATAACAGAAGTTG		95 °C for 1 min, 50 °C or 55 °C for
<i>hop</i> Q type 1 region B	OP4070 F	CAATTCCCCTGCCTATCAAGCC	372	1 min and 72 °C for 2 min, for a total of 30 cycles
	BA8705R	TGATGTGGTTACATGCGCTTC		
hopQ type 2	BA8363 F	TCCAATCCAGAAGCGATTAA	430	
	BA8364R	GTTTTAATGGTTACTTCCACC		

Table 1. Oligonucleotide primers used in typing of Helicobacter pylori

Source: Covacci & Rappuoli [21]; Van Doorn et al. [22]; Cao & Cover [23].

detect a 20% difference in the *H. pylori* virulence marker and HopQ protein in local residents and expatriates, with a power of 80%. Taking into account a dropout rate of 10%, the final sample size of 300 participants would suffice for both objectives.

Statistical analysis

The descriptive analysis was performed for demographic and clinical features. Results were presented as mean \pm standard deviation for quantitative variables and number (percentage) for qualitative variables. Differences in proportions were assessed using Pearson's χ^2 , Fisher's exact or the likelihood ratio tests, as appropriate. To assess the univariate association between the outcomes and potential factors, odds ratios (ORs) and their 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were computed by logistic regression analysis. All significant factors in the univariate analysis were considered for inclusion in the multivariable logistic model. A *P* value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. All *P* values were two sided. Statistical interpretation of data was performed using the computerized software program SPSS v. 19.0 (IBM Corp., USA).

RESULTS

Abdominal pain was significantly more common in local residents (183, 88%) compared to expatriates (72, 71%) (P < 0.001), while GC was diagnosed in 30 (29%) expatriates compared to 24 (12%) local residents (P < 0.001) (Table 2).

	Local resident	Expatriates	P value	
Symptoms				
Abdominal pain				
Positive	183 (88)	72 (71)	<0.001	
Negative	24 (12)	30 (29)	0 001	
Nausea	_ ()			
Positive	4 (2)	0 (0)	0.306	
Negative	203 (98)	102 (100)		
Haematemesis				
Positive	13 (6)	2 (2)	0.157	
Negative	194 (94)	100 (98)		
Melaena				
Positive	4 (2)	6 (6)	0.087	
Negative	203 (98)	96 (94)		
Weight loss				
Positive	3 (2)	22 (22)	<0.001	
Negative	204 (98)	80 (78)		
Diagnosis				
Non-ulcer dyspepsia	143 (69)	42 (41)	<0.001	
(gastric erythema)	- ()			
Gastric ulcer	23 (11)	20 (20)	0.042	
Duodenal ulcer	17 (8)	10 (10)	0.641	
Gastric carcinoma	24 (12)	30 (29)	<0.001	
Histology	_ ()			
Grade of gastritis				
Chronic active	151 (73)	89 (87)	0.005	
gastritis				
Chronic	56 (27)	13 (13)		
inflammation		- (-)		
Lymphoid aggregates				
Positive	20 (10)	50 (49)	<0.001	
Negative	187 (90)	52 (51)		
Intestinal metaplasia		()		
Positive	32 (15)	6 (6)	0.016	
Negative	175 (85)	96 (94)		
Severity of				
inflammation				
Mild	160 (77)	43 (42)	<0.001	
Moderate	47 (23)	59 (58)		
hopQ type 1	., (20)	0, (00)		
Positive	98 (47)	88 (86)	<0.001	
Negative	109 (53)	14 (14)	0.001	
hopQ type 2	107 (00)	••(••)		
Positive	176 (85)	60 (59)	<0.001	
Negative	31 (15)	42 (41)	0.001	

 Table 2. Comparison of residents symptoms, diagnosis

 and histological changes in local citizens and expatriates

Values given are n (%).

H. pylori OMP (hopQ) types

In local residents, *hop*Q type 1 was associated with abdominal pain in 84 (86%, P = 0.001), gastric erythema on endoscopic examination (GST) in 63 (64%, P < 0.001), chronic active gastritis in 65 (66%, P = 0.002), and *cagA* was positive in 56 (57%, P = 0.005) individuals. *hopQ* type 2 was also associated with abdominal pain in 158 (90%, P = 0.02), GST in 122 (69%, P = 0.014) and *vacA sIa* in 119 (68%, P = 0.016) local residents.

In expatriates, *hop*Q was associated with abdominal pain in 62 (70%, P = 0.001) and weight loss in 22 (25%, P = 0.001) individuals, GST in 32 (36%, P = 0.019) and GC in 30 (34%, P = 0.009) individuals, respectively. *hop*Q type 1 was associated with histological mild gastritis in 43 (49%, P < 0.001), *cag*A in 82 (93%, P < 0.001) and *cag*A promoter in 81 (92%, P < 0.001) individuals, respectively. *hop*Q type 2 was associated with abdominal pain in 46 (77%, P <0.001), and GST in 28 (47%, P < 0.001) individuals. On histology, *hop*Q type 2 was associated with histological mild gastritis in 35 (58%, P < 0.001) local residents, and in expatriates, it was associated with *vac*A *s1a* in 34 (57%, P < 0.001) individuals.

A single *hopQ* type was present in 105 (58%) local residents compared to 56 (55%) expatriates (P = 0.563), while multiple types of *hopQ* in were present in 76 (42%) local residents compared to 46 (45%) expatriates (P = 0.563). Both types were absent in one (0.5%) local resident (P = 0.563).

cagA and cagA promoter

H. pylori virulence marker *cag*A was positive in 97 (47%) local residents compared to 86 (84%) expatriates (P < 0.001), while *cag*A-P was positive in 72 (35%) local residents compared to 87 (85%) expatriates (P < 0.001) (Table 3).

vacA alleles

There was no difference noted in the distribution of *vacA* allele *s1a*, *s1b* and *m1* in local residents and expatriates (Table 3).

iceA types

iceA was positive in 157 (76%) and *iceA* type 2 in 81 (39%) local residents, respectively (Table 4). *iceA* type 1 was associated with gastritis (non-ulcer dyspepsia; NUD) in 95 (61%) and GC in 24 (15%) (P < 0.001) individuals. It was also associated with intestinal metaplasia in 32 (80%, P < 0.001) individuals. *iceA* type 1 was associated with *cagA*, *cagA* promoter and *vacA s1a* in 86 (55%, P < 0.001), 68 (43%, P < 0.001), and 95 (60%, P = 0.047), individuals, respectively.

	Local resident	Expatriates	P value	
cagA				
Positive	97 (47)	86 (84)*	<0.001	
Negative	110 (53)	16 (16)		
cagA promoter				
Positive	72 (35)	87 (85)*	<0.001	
Negative	135 (65)	15 (15)		
vacA allele				
Sla				
Positive	133 (64)	73 (72)	0.199	
Negative	74 (36)	29 (28)		
SIb				
Positive	42 (20)	13 (13)	0.103	
Negative	165 (80)	89 (87)		
ml				
Positive	126 (61)	66 (65)	0.513	
Negative	81 (39)	36 (35)		
m2				
Positive	96 (46)*	15 (15)	<0.001	
Negative	111 (54)	87 (85)		
s2				
Positive	59 (28)	49 (48)*	0.001	
Negative	148 (72)	53 (52)		
iceA type 1				
Positive	157 (76)*	45 (44)	<0.001	
Negative	50 (24)	57 (56)		
iceA type 2	. ,	. /		
Positive	81 (39)	86 (84)*	<0.001	
Negative	126 (61)	16 (16)		

Table 3. Comparison of Helicobacter pylori virulencemarkers in the study groups

Values given are n (%).

* P < 0.05 significant.

In expatriates distribution of *iceA* type 1 was 45 (44%) and *iceA* type 2 was 86 (84%), respectively. *iceA* type 1 was associated with abdominal pain, lymphoid aggregates, intestinal metaplasia and mild gastric mucosal inflammation while *iceA* type 2 was associated with GST and GC. On histology *iceA* type 2 was also associated with chronic active gastritis, lymphoid aggregates and mild to moderate degree of inflammation. *iceA* type 1 was associated with *cagA* [44 (98%), P = 0.001] and *cagA* promoter [45 (100%), P < 0.001], respectively.

Multiple *ice*A type was positive in 29 (28%) expatriates compared to 33 (18%) local residents (P = 0.044). *ice*A types were absent in 11 (6%) local residents compared to none in expatriates (P = 0.009). The *H. pylori* genotype *cag*A *ice*A2 in local residents was 40 (19%) compared to 67 (66%) in expatriates (P < 0.001).

Multivariate analysis showed that expatriates' *H. pylori* strains were associated with moderately severe

mucosal inflammation (OR 4·75, 95% CI 1·49–15·08, P = 0.008), lymphoid aggregates (OR 7·25, 95% CI 2·10–25·0, P = 0.002), hopQ type 1 (OR 3·19, 95% CI 1·06–9·63, P < 0.03), cagA promoter (OR 22·54, 95% CI 7·53–67·40, P < 0.001), vacA m2 (OR 0·075, 95% CI 0·02–0·23, P < 0.001), vacA s2 (OR 8·77, 95% CI 2·87–26·74, P < 0.001) and iceA type 1 (OR 0·03, 95% CI 0·01–0·10, P < 0.001) (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

This study shows that patients in both groups presented with abdominal pain associated with NUD. Weight loss was common in expatriates and was associated with GC. Gastric mucosal changes of H. pylori infection were evident in expatriates as chronic active inflammation while mild chronic inflammation was more common in local residents. The virulence marker cagA and cagA promoter region positive H. pylori infection were frequent in expatriates and was associated with severe H. pylori related pathology (Table 3). No difference was noted in the distribution of vacA alleles s1a, s1b and m1 in the two groups (Table 3). H. pylori infection in expatriates was predominantly with *iceA* type 2 and it was significantly associated with vacA s1a [58 (67%), P = 0.036]. However, in this group, *iceA* type 1 was also seen to be associated with cagA [44 (98%), P = 0.001] and cagA promoter region [45 (100%), P < 0.001] (Table 3). In local residents, hopQ type 2 was predominant compared to hopQ type 1 in expatriates (Table 2). In both groups there were *H. pylori* strains that demonstrated multiple types of hopQ. Their number was greater in expatriates compared to local residents suggesting co-infection was marked in expatriate patients.

The implications of this study are that NUD with *H. pylori* infection was also common in expatriates residing abroad for a lengthy period. Gastric ulcer was marginally significant in expatriates compared to local residents, whereas duodenal ulcer was not. GC in expatriates was associated with chronic active inflammatory changes and intestinal metaplasia.

The distribution of *H. pylori* virulence markers in expatriates was different from local residents in that *H. pylori* were 84–85% *cagA* and *cagA* promoter positive compared to the distribution of 45–51% previously described in local residents [25, 26]. The expatriates' *H. pylori* strain increase in *cagA* and *cagA* promoter region positivity is in keeping with *H. pylori* strains described in East Asian countries. In a previous local

Characteristics	OR (95% CI)	P value
Lymphoid aggregate		
Negative	1.0	0.002
Positive	7.25 (2.10-25.0)	
Severity of inflammation		
Mild	1.0	0.008
Moderate	4.75 (1.49–15.08)	
cagA promoter		
Negative	1.0	<0.001
Positive	22.54 (7.53-67.40)	
m2	. ,	
Negative	1.0	<0.001
Positive	0.075 (0.02-0.23)	
s2	. ,	
Negative	1.0	<0.001
Positive	8.77 (2.87-26.74)	
iceA type 1		
Negative	1.0	<0.001
Positive	0.03 (0.01-0.10)	
hopQ type 1	· /	
Negative	1.0	0.03
Positive	3.19 (1.06-9.63)	

Table 4. Multivariable model for factor predictingexpatriateHelicobacterpylorivirulence

OR, Odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

Values given are n (%).

* P < 0.05 significant.

study that looked at the intactness of the *cag* pathogenecity activity island (*cag*-PAI) in 115 clinical strains of *H. pylori* only 31 (28%) were positive for the five *cag*-PAI loci [27]. It has been reported that the *iceA* allelic type distribution was independent of *cagA* and *vacA* status. Previously, a significant association between the presence of the *iceA* type 1 allele and peptic ulcer disease has been described [28]. The *iceA* type 1 allele is reported to be predominant in Japan and Korea, and the *iceA* type 2 allele in the United States and Colombia [29]. In expatriates, infection with *H. pylori* strains demonstrating multiple *iceA* types was frequent at 28% compared to 18% in local residents.

The wide CI of factors in the multivariable analysis suggests that the study may be underpowered (Table 4). However, the findings from the multivariable analysis support our conclusion that expatriates have more virulence markers and also more gastroduodenal diseases. Further, significance of *vacA m2* and *iceA* type 1 with ORs of 0.075 and 0.03, respectively, in local resident suggests that they are associated with nonulcer gastritis and less florid *H. pylori* associated disease in keeping with our previous results [25, 30].

There was clearly a difference in the distribution of virulence marker and hopO types in local residents and expatriates. This is in keeping with the exogenous DNA taken up by H. pylori and its integration into the chromosome by homologous recombination or replication as a plasmid [31]. For survival and persistent growth in the presence of a constant immune response permanent adaptation of the bacteria is required [31]. Such adaptive processes include mechanisms of reversible or irreversible genome changes. It is known that clonal transmission is followed by a rapid adaptation to the new host, so that H. pylori isolates from different subjects are almost always unique [31]. Each H. pylori isolate contains a distinct set of strain-specific genes often located in plasticity regions. They generally contain complete sets of genes required to produce type IV secretion machineries, as well as genes encoding different DNA-processing proteins [32-34] that are mobile genetic elements capable of horizontal gene transfer between bacterial cells. In an earlier study which was conducted in the Malaya population [35], the virulence genotype of H. pylori strain was different in the immigrant Chinese and Indian population but the native Malays showed a mixture of both [35].

The limitation of this study includes an absence of information regarding smoking and salt intake that are independent risk factors for GC. Dietary intake of red meat, high fat, and heavy alcohol use positively influences carcinogenesis while fresh fruit, vegetables and vitamin C reduce the risk. Certain dietary constituents of local cuisine reduce H. pylori viability, colonization and infection may also reduce the GC risk [36–38]. In this study, the chance of possible selection bias could not be ignored. All the patients attending the endoscopy suite of the tertiary-care private hospital in the study period were included. All expatriates and residents were sufficiently well off financially to access healthcare services at this hospital. There is a possibility of information bias in regards to the length of time expatriates had spent in the foreign country. The stated length of time all expatriates were away was >10 years and all left their country of origin as adults. An earlier study from China foundthat children aged 5-6 years and adults had comparable rates of *H. pylori* infection at ~70% [39]. A review of H. pylori prevalence in USA found that individuals who immigrated as adults (aged >20 years) had a rate of infection, consistent with their country of origin [40]. Moreover, spontaneous elimination of H. pylori infection was found rarely in adults [41]. Socioeconomic factors play a distinct role in transmission due to differences in waste disposal, hygiene, and practices such as sharing of eating utensils, e.g. chopsticks and premastication by parents [42]. There is a possibility that nonviable oral *H. pylori* participate in horizontal gene transfer that is increased in unsanitary, crowded environments, making multiple infection and recombination among strains more common in populations living in crowded conditions [40, 43]. Hence, these expatriates were likely to have maintained their *H. pylori* infection and experienced change in their infecting *H. pylori* strains' dynamic genome.

In conclusion, the local residents and expatriates demonstrated differences in the distribution of *H. pylori* virulence marker *cagA*, *cagA* promoter, *iceA* and *hopQ* types. In expatriates severe gastroduodenal disease could be explained by the distribution of virulence markers, although the causes of GC and gastroduodenal diseases are multifactorial in nature.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

None.

REFERENCES

- Parsonnet J, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection and the risk of gastric carcinoma. New England Journal of Medicine 1991; 325: 1127–1131
- Nakamura S, et al. Helicobacter pylori and primary gastric lymphoma. A histopathologic and immunohistochemical analysis of 237 patients. *Cancer* 1997; 79: 3–11.
- Lee YY, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection a boon or a bane: lessons from studies in a low-prevalence population. *Helicobacter* 2013; 18: 338–346.
- Jafri W, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection in children: population-based age-specific prevalence and risk factors in a developing country. Acta Paediatrica 2010; 99: 279–282.
- Mazumder DN, Ghoshal UC. Epidemiology of Helicobacter pylori in India. Indian Journal of Gastroenterology 1997; 16 (Suppl. 1): S3–S5
- Sarker SA, et al. Prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in infants and family contacts in a poor Bangladesh community. *Digestive Diseases and Sciences* 1995; 40: 2669–2672.
- Everhart JE. Recent developments in the epidemiology of *Helicobacter pylori*. *Gastroenterology Clinics of North America* 2000; 29: 559–578.
- Miwa H, et al. H. pylori and gastric cancer: the Asian enigma. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2002; 97: 1106–1112.
- Wotherspoon AC, et al. Antibiotic treatment for lowgrade gastric MALT lymphoma. Lancet 1994; 343: 1503.

- Suzuki H, et al. Helicobacter pylori: present status and future prospects in Japan. Journal of Gastroenterology 2007; 42: 1–15.
- Falush D, et al. Traces of human migrations in Helicobacter pylori populations. Science 2003; 299: 1582–1585.
- Achtman M, et al. Recombination and clonal groupings within *Helicobacter pylori* from different geographical regions. *Molecular Microbiology* 1999; 32: 459–470.
- 13. Kersulyte D, *et al.* Differences in genotypes of *Helicobacter pylori* from different human populations. *Journal of Bacteriology* 2000; **182**: 3210–3218.
- Abadi AT, Lee YY. *Helicobacter pylori* vacA as marker for gastric cancer andgastroduodenal diseases: one but not the only factor. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 2014; 52: 4451
- 15. Linz B. et al. Helicobacter pylori genomic microevolution during naturally occurringtransmission between adults. PLoS ONE 2013; 8: e82187.
- Linz B, et al. A mutation burst during the acute phase of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in humans and rhesus macaques. *Nature Communications* 2014; 5:4165.
- Schwarz S, et al. Horizontal versus familial transmission of *Helicobacter pylori*. PLoS Pathogens 2008; 4: e1000180.
- Ghose C, et al. High frequency of gastric colonization with multiple *Helicobacter pylori* strains in Venezuelan subjects. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 2005; 43: 2635–2641.
- Price AB. The Sydney System: histological division. Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology 1991; 6: 209–222.
- Yakoob J, et al. Diversity of *Helicobacter pylori* among Chinese persons with *H. pylori* infection. *APMIS* 2000; 108: 482–486.
- Covacci A, Rappuoli R. Helicobacter pylori: techniques for clinical diagnosis and basic research. In: PCR Amplification of Gene Sequences from Helicobacter pylori Strains Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders, 1996, pp. 94– 109.
- 22. Van Doorn LJ, et al. Clinical relevance of the cagA, vacA, and iceA status of *Helicobacter pylori*. *Gastroenterology* 1998; **115**: 58–66.
- Cao P, Cover TL. Two different families of hopQ alleles in Helicobacter pylori. Journal of Clinical Microbiology 2002; 40: 4504–4511.
- 24. Eng J. Sample size estimation: how many individuals should be studied? *Radiology* 2003; 227: 309–313.
- Yakoob J, et al. Distribution of Helicobacter pylori virulence markers in patients with gastroduodenal diseases in Pakistan. BMC Gastroenterology 2009; 9: 87.
- Khan A, et al. Prevalence, diversity and disease association of *Helicobacter pylori* in dyspeptic patients from Pakistan. Journal of Infection in Developing Countries 2013; 7: 220–228.
- Yakoob J, et al. Low prevalence of the intact cag pathogenicity island in clinical isolates of *Helicobacter pylori* in Karachi, Pakistan. *British Journal of Biomedical Science* 2009; 66: 137–142.

- Ilver D, et al. Helicobacter pylori adhesin binding fucosylated histo-blood group antigens revealed by retagging. Science 1998; 279: 373–377.
- Van Doorn LJ, et al. Clinical relevance of the cagA, vacA, and iceA status of *Helicobacter pylori*. Gastroenterology 1998; 115: 58–66.
- Yakoob J, et al. Helicobacter pylori: correlation of the virulence marker iceA allele with clinical outcome in a high prevalence area. British Journal of Biomedical Science 2015; 72: 67–73.
- Suerbaum S, Josenhans C. Helicobacter pylori evolution and phenotypic diversification in a changing host. Nature Reviews Microbiology 2007; 5: 441–452.
- Fischer W, et al. Strain-specific genes of Helicobacter pylori: genome evolution driven by a novel type IV secretion system and genomic island transfer. Nucleic Acids Research 2010; 38: 6089–6101.
- Kersulyte D, et al. Cluster of type IV secretion genes in Helicobacter pylori's plasticity zone. Journal of Bacteriology 2003; 185:3764–3772.
- Kersulyte D, et al. Helicobacter pylori's plasticity zones are novel transposable elements. PLoS ONE 2009; 4: e6859.
- Alfizah H, et al. Association of Malaysian Helicobacter pylori virulence polymorphisms with severity of gastritis and patients' ethnicity. Helicobacter 2012; 17: 340–349.
- Yakoob J, et al. Anti-Helicobacter pylori activity and inhibition of Helicobacter pylori-induced release of IL-8 in

AGS cells by plant extracts. *Journal of Medicinal Plant Research* 2013; **15**: 970–979.

- Lee YY, et al. Sociocultural and dietary practices among Malay subjects in the north-eastern region of Peninsular Malaysia: a region of low prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection. *Helicobacter* 2012; 17: 54–61.
- Lee YY, Derakhshan MH. Environmental and lifestyle risk factors of gastric cancer. *Archives of Iranian Medicine* 2013; 16: 358–365.
- You WC, et al. Precancerous lesions in two counties of China with contrasting gastric cancer risk. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 1998; 27: 945–948.
- Jones NL, et al. Helicobacter pylori and immigrant health. Canadian Medical Association Journal 2012; 184: 74–75.
- 41. Lin D, Koskella B. Friend and foe: factors influencing the movement of the bacterium *Helicobacter pylori* along the parasitism-mutualism continuum. *Evolutionary Applications* 2015; **8**: 9–22.
- 42. Dowsett SA, Kowolik MJ. Oral Helicobacter pylori: can we stomach it? Critical Reviews in Oral Biology & Medicine 2003; 14: 226–233.
- Kodaman N, et al. Human and Helicobacter pylori coevolution shapes the risk of gastric disease. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 2014; 111: 1455–1460.