

PATHOGENESIS RISK FACTORS AND DIAGNOSIS OF *Helicobacter Pylori* INFECTION

¹MURTAZA MUSTAFA, ²I.MOHAMMAD YUSUF, ¹M.KAMARUDIN, ¹M.AWANG SETIA

¹School of Medicine, University Malaysia Sabah, Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia

²Ministry of Health Sabah, Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The spiral gastric bacteria colonizing acid secreting stomach are known to scientists for over 100 years. More recently, the discovery of *Helicobacter Pylori* and its association with peptic ulcer disease is confirmed. The mechanisms by which *H. pylori* cause mucosal inflammation and damage are not well defined but probably involve both bacterial and host factors. The persons with serological evidence of carrying cag-positive strains are at increased risk of developing both peptic ulcer disease and gastric carcinoma. Urease enzyme likely plays a significant role in the survival and growth of *H. pylori* in the stomach by creating an alkaline microenvironment. Poor hygiene, deficient sanitation and crowded conditions have been reported as risk factors. The diagnosis of *H.pylori* infection can be made either by invasively the endoscopy and biopsy or noninvasively serological analysis, urea breath test, urease detection or stool antigen tests. This paper reviews the pathogenesis, risk factors, and diagnosis of *H.pylori* infection.

KEY WORDS: *Helicobacter Pylori*, Pathogenesis, Risk Factors, Diagnosis

INTRODUCTION

Helicobacter Pylori discovered in 1983[1,2], bacterium that infects one half or more of World population[3] proved to have profound public-health implications[4,5]. *H.pylori* causes Chronic gastritis, peptic ulcer and gastric cancer[6,7]. Chronic gastritis and peptic ulcer diseases are common among the elderly and low-income groups [8,9]. Gastric cancer remains second among causes of cancer deaths worldwide. In the United States, annual direct costs of *H. pylori* associated disease exceed five billion dollar [10]. There is a clear link between *H. pylori* infection and peptic ulcer. It has been estimated that 10 -20 % of *H.pylori* infected persons will develop a peptic ulcer in their life time[11]. The relationship between *H.pylori* and gastric cancer was discovered. Gastric cancer of multistage degenerative process beginning with chronic gastritis[12]. Studies in Europe, Latin America, China, and Japan aim to determine whether the *H. pylori* elimination prevents carcinoma or progression of precancerous lesions¹[13]. The high frequency of gastric cancer in Asia led to their widespread screening program. Most studies examining the association between *H.pylori* gastric cancers have focused on older age patients when *H.pylori* prevalence is more common. Haruma et al. examined the frequency of *H.pylori* in patients with gastric cancer who were younger than 30 years of age [14].

Many studies favour *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in relation to other diseases, most notably heart disease [15, 16] but current evidence is inconclusive [17]. *Helicobacter pylori* is detectable in nearly 95-100% of adult patients with duodenal ulcer and about 80% of patients with gastric cancer [18]. The suspected association between gastric ulcer and gastric cancer is now being confirmed [19]. In developing countries where most children become infected by the age of 10,

gastric cancer rates is high.[20].Local Ministry of Health has confirmed an average of 80-85 deaths per annum due to gastric cancer from 2003-2005.

PATHOGENESIS

Helicobacter pylori is able to survive in the gastric environments which are hostile to growth of other bacteria. When intraluminal (stomach) acidity diminishes due to gastric atrophy, *H. pylori* is no longer able to colonize, possibly because of competing organisms. A major identified bacterial factors that permits gastric colonization include microaerophilism, for survival within the mucus gel; Spiral shape, and flagellate remain motile within the viscous layer; and urease production that generates ammonium that buffers the gastric acidity, and known to be toxic to cells.[21,22]. Animals infected with *H. pylori*, indicate that both motility and urease activity are important determinants of ability to colonize the stomach[23]. Although most organisms are free living in the mucus layer, smaller number appears to be adherent to the mucosal epithelial cells, forming "adherence pedestal" resembling those of enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *H. pylori* only over gastric-type but not the intestinal type epithelial cells. Affected gastric epithelial cells may be in the gastric antrum or fundus or ectopic in the duodenum or in the esophagus[24-26].

Evidence that *H. pylori* causes pathological changes and is not just a secondary colonizer is now convincing[27]. Primary evidence includes the development of gastritis after experimental ingestion in humans and by laboratory animals, and antimicrobial therapy that suppresses *H. pylori* normalizes tissue histology, but after relapse of infection the damage recurs[28,29]. Supporting evidence includes the nearly universal humeral immune response, which is stable for years, but declines after with eradication of the organism[30,31], and the association of *H. pylori* with chronic diffuse superficial gastritis, but not other forms of gastritis (e.g., Cohn's non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) - induced). Most peptic ulcers not caused by NSAID are now thought to be associated with *Helicobacter. pylori* infection[32].

The mechanism of tissue injury are not clearly established, and both bacterial and host factors may be determinants of outcome. *H. pylori* do not appear to invade tissues, as an incidental finding. Thus the lesions are likely to reflect a response to extracellular products of the organism. Ammonia, produced by urease and by deaminizes, is known to be toxic to eukaryotic cells, and may potentiate neutrophil induced mucosal injury. Gastritis is found in virtually all infected humans, although the majority have no symptoms; only 1 in 10 develop ulcer disease. Gastritis adenocarcinoma is 3 to 12 times more likely to develop in individuals infected with *H. pylori* [33,34]. *H. pylori* is more likely to be associated with the early or initial states of primary gastric lymphoma than advanced tumours; *H. pylori* can disappear during progression of gastric lymphoma[35]. About half of strains tested thus far produce vaculating cytotoxin (VacA), which induces acidic vacuoles in the cytoplasm of eukaryotic cells. 80-100 % patients with duodenal ulcer disease produce CagA antibodies against a 128 kd antigen compared with 60- 63 % of *H. pylori* infected persons-infected with gastritis only, indicating that serological responses to the 128 kd protein are more prevalent among *H. pylori*- infected persons with duodenal ulcer than infected persons without peptic ulceration[36,37].

Bacterial lipopolysaccharide usually has proinflammatory activities, but *H. pylori* lipopolysaccharide has little[38]. *H. pylori* lipopolysaccharide may express the type 11 Lewis (Lewis X), neither of these antigens as well as type 1 antigens[39]. This observation is important because these antigens are present on gastric epithelial cells, and there is evidence that host Lewis phenotype selects for the particular Lewis expression of the *H. pylori* population[40]. The

presence of *H. pylori* overlying the gastric mucosa activates epithelial cells to produce proinflammatory cytokines and activates mononuclear and polymorph nuclear cells to produce cytokines, super peroxide, tumour necrosis factor-0, and other proinflammatory molecules[41].

Humans are polymorphic in the genetic loci involved in regulating proinflammatory cytokine production. Proinflammatory alleles regulating interleukin -1beta and interleukin-10 affect risk of gastric cancer, *H. pylori* positive persons. Virtually all patients with duodenal ulceration are colonized with cagA A (and thus cag Pathogenicity Island). Thus cagA, the first gene described not to be conserved among all *H.pylori* strains, is highly associated with both peptic ulcer disease and gastric cancer[42-44]. Persons colonized with *H. pylori* have different gastric secretory physiology than do those who are not colonized. On average colonized persons have higher gastrin levels which are reduced by eradication of the organism[45].

In recent years, it has become clear that stomach produce hormones related to satiety and energy homeostasis, leptons and, to a greater extent, ghrelin, which has opposing effects. Studies indicate that *H. pylori* status affects the levels of these hormones and, in particular, *H. pylori* eradication leads to an increase in ghrelin. It is now clear that a generation of children in the developed countries is growing up *H. pylori* in their stomachs regulating these hormone[46-48]. In the last 10 years, there has been an increasing number of reports chiefly from East Asia, showing an epidemiologic association between the presence of *H. pylori* and the diagnosis and idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (IPT). Eradication of *H. pylori* has been attempted as a therapy for IPT, and although not conclusive, results are promising[49,50].

RISK FACTORS FOR *H.Pylori* INFECTION

Risk factors for *H. pylori* infection are now recognized. The prevalence of infection increases with age and low standard of living. The high prevalence reported in institutionalised patients and in submarine crews suggests that people living in close contact have high risk of infection [51-53]. The same risk factors have been found for children as well as for adults, and high prevalence has also been reported in an orphanage[54,55]. Recent work suggests that childhood could be the main period when *H. pylori* infection is acquired both in developing countries and in industrialised countries'[56]. High risk of *H. pylori* infection in cohabiting persons has been confirmed by cases of familial coinfection, with evidence of the same strain among family members [57]. Despite the generally high *H.pylori* prevalence throughout Asia, reported rates vary widely, Mitchell et al. found an overall prevalence of 44.2% in southern China, but there was significantly increased rate in urban areas (52.4 %) compared to 38.6 % in rural areas[58]. General prevalence in nearby Taiwan was reported at 54.4 % [44].

Tibetan refugees in India had an overall prevalence of 77.2 %. Preliminary report of male Myanmar children (aged 5-14 years) living in monastery showed seroprevalence of 70.3 % with an inverse relation with age, and was not related to the duration of stay in the monastery[59,60]. Seropravalence in the Vietnamese was 43 % in those 10-19 years of age but varied between 50 and 80 % in later years [61]. Independent of socioeconomic status, ingestion of contaminated water is considered as likely mode of infection. Hopkins et al. noted, people who have uncooked vegetable consumption habits were more infected by *H.pylori* than those who do not have them [62, 63]. The absence of flush toilet in the house is associated with infection, supporting the hypothesis that the faecal-oral route may be important mechanism of transmission of this bacterium[64]. In less than one century in United States, colonization has gone from being ubiquitous to being present in 5 % of children; this is a change in human micro ecology of major proportion[51].

DIAGNOSIS OF *H.Pylori* INFECTION

A. Invasive Methods Require Endoscopy

1. Culture

The demonstration of the organism by culture is the criterion of infection. Culturing for *H.pylori* involves obtaining the sample by endoscopy. Culture is no more sensitive than routine histological analysis. For these reasons, cultures are not indicated for diagnosis. ³²H.pylori grows in 3-6 days when incubated at 37°C in a microaerophilic environment. The medium for primary isolation includes Skirrow's medium (Difco), with vancomycin, polymixin B, and trimethoprim, chocolate medium and other selective media with antibiotics (eg, vancomycin, nalidixic acid, amphotericin). The colonies are non-haemolytic, mucoid, gray.

2. Endoscopy with Biopsy

1. Organism may have patchy distribution, especially in the body and fundus of stomach. Because the antrum is more uniformly involved, two biopsy specimens from the prepyloric antrum generally suffice. The yield may be increased further by sampling the fundus as well as the antrum [32].
2. Routine haematoxylin and eosin staining may be unreliable for detecting *H. pylori* by microscopy. The Giemsa and Warthin-Jarish stains permit easier visualization, especially by inexperienced observers [51].
3. Endoscopy is an expensive procedure, and several days may be required to obtain the stain/biopsy results.

3. Campylobacter like Organisms on Endoscopy Samples

Mucosal biopsy specimens may be directly inoculated into medium containing urea and phenol red-rapid urea test (RUT), which turns red if the pH rises above 6.0. This change occurs when urea in the gel is metabolized to ammonia by the urease produced by *H. pylori*. This test is commercially available and inexpensive and can provide a diagnosis within 1 hour of inoculation of the biopsy specimen. Its sensitivity and specificity have been reported as high as 98% and 100% respectively, at 24 hours. The low cost and excellent reliability of this test make it the endoscopic method of choice for diagnosis [32].

B. Non-Invasive Tests

1. **Serological tests** are available, based on ELISAs, which have a reported sensitivity of 98% and a specificity of 100% for detecting IgG antibody to diagnose infection [32]. Several ELISA test kits are available, eg, *H.pylori* One step test (Ultimed Pharma, Belgium), FlexiPack (Abbott, USA), Enzygnost Anti *H.pylori* 11 IgG (Siemens, Germany), *H.pylori* EIA KIT 96T (General Biological Corporation, Taiwan), and HEL-p-Test™ (Amrad, Australia).

1. An elevated antibody titer to *H.pylori* indicates current infection, because spontaneous clearance is rare.
2. There are several limitations to use of serology to document eradication of infection after therapy. Although the antibody titer falls after eradication, the rate of decline is uncertain. Titers must be followed for at least 6 months to determine a decline. Whether a 20% or 50% decline in IgG titer over 6 months suggests eradication is still undergoing evaluation. The excellent accuracy and low cost of serology make it the non-invasive method of choice to document infection with *H.pylori*; endoscopy is still required to diagnose ulcer disease [32].

2. **Urea breath test** have been developed because *H. pylori* has high urease activity. A solution containing urea labelled with carbon 13 or carbon 14 is ingested; after one hour, their breath is examined for carbon 13 or carbon 14, respectively. If *H. pylori* is present in the stomach, labelled carbon dioxide is split off by urease, absorbed and expired in the breath. Results of these assays correlate with numbers urease-producing *H. pylori* organisms and can be falsely negative after therapy that suppresses but does not eradicate the organism. However, negativity 1-3 months after therapy has ceased usually indicates eradication of infection [66].

Stool antigen tests relatively non-invasive. Most valuable for assessing response to eradication therapy after 6-8 week [65].

CONCLUSIONS

H. pylori and its role in gastric cancer are confirmed. *H. pylori* cause inflammation in the stomach. Gastritis is found virtually in all infected humans. The mechanism by which *H. pylori* cause mucosal inflammation is not well defined. Low economics and poor living conditions are contributory factors. Diagnosis of *H. pylori* can be made by culture, endoscopy with biopsy, serological analysis and PCR.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to the Vice Chancellor, University Malaysia Sabah, for the permission to publish this paper.

REFERENCES

1. Warren JR. Unidentified curved bacilli on gastric epithelium in active chronic gastritis. *Lancet* 1983;**1**:1273.
2. Marshall BJ. Unidentified curved bacilli on gastric epithelium in active chronic gastritis. *Lancet* 1983;**1**:1273-1275.
3. Cockburn M, Cox B. The effect of measurement error in the determination of *Helicobacter Pylori* prevalence. *Epidemiology* 1997;**8**:205-209.
4. Graham DY. Public health issues relating to *Helicobacter Pylori* infection and global eradication. In: Graham DY, Genta RM, Dixon MF, eds. *Gastritis*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins 1999:241-246.
5. Parsonnet J. *Helicobacter pylori*: the size of the problem. *Gut* 1983;**43**:6S-9S.
6. NIH Consensus Conference. *Helicobacter Pylori* in Peptic Ulcer Disease. *JAMA* 1994;**272**:65-69.
7. International Agency for Research on Cancer. IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Cancer Risks to Humans. vol. 61. Schistosomes, Liver Flukes and *Helicobacter pylori*. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer, 1994.
8. National Cancer Health Statistic. Current estimates from the National Health Interview Survey, 1996. Series 10, No. 200. Hyattsville, MD: National Centre for Health Statistics, 1999.
9. Barnersen B, Jhonsen R, Straume B, Burhol PG, Jenssen TG, Stakkevold PA. Towards a true prevalence of peptic ulcer: the Sorreisa gastrointestinal disorders study. *Gut* 1990;**31**:989-992.
10. Nomura A. Stomach cancer. In: Schottenfield D, Fraumeni JF, eds. *Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention*. 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996:707-704.
11. Kuipers EJ, Thijis JC, Fasten HPM. The prevalence of *Helicobacter Pylori* in peptic ulcer disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1995;**9**(Suppl. 2): 59-69.

12. Correa P. Human gastric carcinogenesis. *Cancer Res* 1988;**48**:35554-3560.
13. Forman D. Lessons from ongoing intervention studies. In: Hunt RH, Tytgat GNJ, eds. *Helicobacter pylori: Basic Mechanisms to Clinical Cure* 1998. Dordrech: KluwerAcademic Publishers, 1998;**354**-361.
14. Haruma K, Kamato K, Kamada T, Ito M, Kitadai Y, Yoshihara M, Sumil K, Kajiyama G. *Helicobacter Pylori* infection is a major risk factor for gastric carcinoma in young patients. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2000; 35: 255-9.
15. Konturek SJ, Konturek PC, Pieniazak P, Bielanski W. Role *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in extragastroduodenal disorders: introductory remarks. *J Physiol Pharmacol* 1999;50:683-694.
16. Grandis JR, Perez Pearez GI, Yu VL, Jhonson JT, Blaser MJ. Lack of serologic evidence for *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in head and neck cancer. *Head Neck* 1997;19:216-218.
17. Danesh J. *Helicobacter Pylori* infection and coronary heart disease: a critical look. In: Hunt RH, Tytgat GNJ, eds. *Helicobacter pylori: Basic Mechanisms to clinical Cure* 1998. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1998;267-273.
18. Van der Hulst RWM,Tytgat GNJ.*Helicobacter Pylori* and peptic ulcer disease.
 - a. *Scand J Gasteroenterol* 1996;**31**(suppl 220):10-8.
19. Personnet J,Friedman GD,Vandersteen DP,et al.*Helicobacter Pylori* infection and the risk of gastric carcinoma.N Engl J Med 1991; **325**:1127-31.
20. Telford JL,Covacci A, Ghiara P,Montecucco C, Rappuoli R.Unravelling the pathogenic role of *Helicobacter Pylori* in peptic ulcer: potential new therapies and vaccines.Trend Biochem 1994;**12**:420-6.
21. Blaser MJ:Helicobacter pylori: Microbiology of a “slow”bacterial infection.Trends Microbiol.1993;**1**:255-60.
22. Perez-Perez GI,Olivares Az.,Cover TL.,et al. Characteristics of *Helicobacter Pylori* variants selected for uease deficiency.Infect Immun.1992;60:3658-63.
23. Eaton KA,Morgan DA,Krakovaka S.Campylobacter pylori virulence factors in gnotibiotic piglets.Infect.Immun.1989;57:**11**19-25.
24. Smoot DT, Resau JH,Naab T.et al.Adherence of *Helicobacter Pylori* to cultured human gastric epithelial cells.Infect Immun.1993;**61**:350-5.
25. Morris A,Maher,K,Thomsen L,et al.Distribution of Campylobacter pylori in the human stomach obtained at post-mortem. *Scand J Gasterenterol*.1988;**23**:257-64.
26. Price AB.Histological aspects of Campylobacter pylori colonization and infection of gastric and duopdenal mucosa. *Scand J Gasteroenterol*. 1988;**23**:21-4.
27. Blaser MJ.*Helicobacter Pylori* and pathogenesis of gastroduodenal inflammation.J Infect Dis.1990;**161**:626-33.
28. Gastroenterology Physiology Working Group of Cayetano Heredia and theJohn Hopkins Universities,Mogan D,Kraft W,et al.Nitrofurans in the treatment of gastritis associated with Campylobacter pylori.Gasteroenterology.1988;**95**:1178-84.
29. Glupezynki Y,Burett A,Labbe M.et al.Campylobacter associated gastritis: A double blind,placebo controlled trial with amoxicillin.Am J Gasteroenterol.1988;**83**:365-72.
30. Evan DJ Jr,Evans DG,Graham DY,et al. A sensitive and sensitive serological test for the detection of Campylobacter pylori infection.Gasteroentertology.1989;**96**:1004-8.
31. Kosunen TU, Seppla K,Sarna S, et al.Diagnostic value of decrease IgG,IgA, and IgM antibody titers after eradication of *Helicobacter pylori*.*Lancet*.1992;**339**:893.

32. Falk GW, Current status of *Helicobacter Pylori* in peptic ulcer disease. *Cleve. clin. J Med.* 1995; **62**:95.
33. Suzuki M, Miura S, Suematsu M, et al. *Helicobacter pylori*- associated ammonia production enhances neutrophil-dependent gastric mucosal cell injury. *Am J Physiol.* 1992; **263**:G719-G725.
34. Personett J, Friedman Gd, Vandersteen DP, et al. *Helicobacter* infection and risk of gastric carcinoma. *N Eng J Med.* 1991; **325**:1127-31.
35. Nakamura S, Yao T, Apyagi K, Lida M, Fujishima M, Tsuneyoshi M. *Helicobacter Pylori* and primary gastric lymphoma. A histological and immunohistochemical analysis of 237 patients. *Cancer.* 1977; **79**:3-11.
36. Cover TL, Blaser MJ. *Helicobacter Pylori* : a bacterial cause of gastritis, peptic ulcer disease and gastric cancer. *American Society of Microbiology Newsletter* 1995; **61**:21-6.
37. Cover TL, Dooley CP, Blaser MJ. Characterization of and human serological response to *Helicobacter Pylori* in patients with duodenitis. *Dig Dis Sci* 1991; **36**:1266-73.
38. Perez -Perez GI, Sheperd VI, Morrow JD, Blaser MJ. Activation of human TPH-1 and rat bone marrow-derived macrophages by *Helicobacter Pylori* lipopolysaccharide. *Infect Immun.* 1995; **63**:1183-87.
39. Appelmelk BJ, Martino MC, Veenhof E, et al. Phase variation in H type 1 and Lewis epitopes of *Helicobacter Pylori* lipopolysaccharide. *Infect Immun.* 2000; **68**:5928-32.
40. Wirth HP, Yang M, Peek RM, et al. *Helicobacter pylori* Lewis expression is related to the host Lewis phenotype. *Gastroenterology.* 1997; **113**:1091-98.
41. Mai UEH, Perez-Perez GI, Wahl LM, et al. Soluble surface proteins from *Helicobacter Pylori* activate monocyte/macrophages by lipopolysaccharide-independent mechanism. *J Clin Invest.* 1991; **87**:894-900.
42. EL Omar EM, Carrington M, Chow WH, et al. Interleukin -1 polymorphism associated with increased risk of gastric cancer. *Nature.* 2000; **404**:398-402.
43. Blaser MJ, Crabtree JE, CagA and the outcome of *Helicobacter Pylori* infection. *Am J Path.* 1996; **106**:565-67.
44. Nomura Amy, Lee J, Stemmerman G, et al. *Helicobacter Pylori* cagA seropositivity gastric cancer risk in a Japanese American population. *J Infect Dis.* 2002; **186**:1138-44.
45. Smith JTL, Pounder RE, Nwokola CU, et al. Inappropriate hypergasterinemia in asymptomatic healthy subjects with *Helicobacter pylori*. *Gut.* 1990; **31**:522-25.
46. Briedert M, Miehle S, Glasow A, et al. Leptin and its receptor associated gastritis. *Scand J gastroenterol.* 1999; **34**:954-61.
47. Nwokola CU, Freshwater DA, O'Hare P, et al. Plasma ghrelin following cure of *Helicobacter pylori*. *Gut* 2003; **52**:637-40.
48. Blaser MJ. Who are we?. Indigenous microbes and the ecology of human diseases. *EMBO Rep.* 2006; **7**:956-60.
49. Franchini M, Veneri D, *Helicobacter Pylori* infection and immune thrombocytopenic purpura: an update. *Helicobacter.* 2004; **9**:342-46.
50. Satake M, Nishikawa J, Fukagawa Y, et al. The long term efficacy of *Helicobacter Pylori* eradication therapy in patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2007; **22**:2233-37.
51. Mendall MA, Giggin PM, Molineaus N, Levy J, Toosy T, Strachan D, et al. Childhood living conditions and *Helicobacter Pylori* seropositivity in adult life. *Lancet* 1992 ; **339**:896-7.
52. Berkowicz J, Lee A, Person to person transmission of *Campylobacter pylori*. *Lancet* 1987; **i**: 680-1.

53. Hammermeister I, Janus G, Schamarovski F, Rudolf M, Jacobs E, Kist M. Elevated risk of *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in submarine crews. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1992;**11**:9-14.
54. Fiedorek Sc, Malaty HM, Evans DL, Pumphery CL, Casteel HB, Evan DJ, et al. Factors influencing epidemiology of *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in children. *Pediatrics* 1991;**88**:578-82.
55. Perez-parez GI, Taylor DN, Bohidatta L, Wongsrichanalai J, Baze WB, Dumm BE, et al. Seroprevalence 1992; *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in Thailand. *J Infect Dis* 1990;**161**:1237-41.
56. Raws EAJ, Langenberg W, Houthoff HJ, Zanen HG, Tytgat GNJ. Familial clustering of peptic ulcer disease colonized with *Campylobacter pylori* of the same DNA composition. *Gastroenterol* 1989;**96**:A409.
57. Mitchell HM, Li YY, Hu PJ, et al. Epidemiology of *Helicobacter Pylori* in southern China: identification of early childhood as the critical period for acquisition. *J Infect Dis* 1992;**166**:149-52.
58. Lin JT, Wang JT, Wang TH, Wu MS, Lee Tk, Chen CJ. *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in a randomly selected population, healthy volunteers and patients with gastric ulcer and gastric adenocarcinoma. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1993;**28**:1067-72.
59. Katelaris Ph, Tippet GHK, Norbu P, Lowe DG, Brennan R, Farthing MJH. Dyspepsia, *Helicobacter pylori*, and peptic ulcer in a randomly selected population in India. *Gut* 1992;**33**:1462-6.
60. Buckley M, Mitchell HM, Bolin TD, Khin M, Tun KM, Flynn PJ. Impact of institutionalization on prevalence of *Helicobacter Pylori* infection. *Gastroenterol* 2001;**120**:A735 (Abstract).
61. Megraud F, Brassens-Rabbe MP, Denis F, Belbouri A, Hoa DQ. Seroepidemiology of *Campylobacter pylori* infection in various populations. *J Clin Microbiol* 1989;**27**:1870-3.
62. Klein PD, Graham DY, Gaillour A, Opekun AR, Smith EO. Water source as risk factor for *Helicobacter Pylori* infection in Peruvian children. Gastrointestinal Physiology Working Group. *Lancet* 1991;**337**:1503-6.
63. Hopkins RJ, Vial PA, Ferreccio C, et al. Seroprevalence of *Helicobacter Pylori* in Chile: vegetables may serve as one route of transmission. *J Infect Dis* 1993;**168**:222-6.
64. Felman RA, Eccersley AJP, Hardie JM. Epidemiology of *Helicobacter pylori*: acquisition, transmission, population prevalence and disease-to-infection ratio. *Br Med Bull* 1998;**53**:39-53.
65. Blaser MJ. *Helicobacter Pylori* and other gastric *Helicobacter* species. In: Mandell, Douglas and Bennett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases, 7th ed. Mandell GL, et al (editors). Elsevier, 2010.
66. Marshall BJ, Surveyor I. Carbon-14 urea breath test for the diagnosis of *Campylobacter pyloridis* associated gastritis. *J Nucl Med*. 1988;**29**:11-6.