

The Effect of Bacterial Infection with *Helicobacter pylori* on Thyroid Hormones

Alaa A. H. K. Al-Daamy*

Department of Clinical Laboratories, Applied Medical Sciences College, University of Kerbala, Karbala, Iraq.

Received: 10th February, 2022; Revised: 08th April, 2022; Accepted: 19th May, 2022; Available Online: 25th June, 2022

ABSTRACT

Objective: Our current research aimed to see if there was a link between *Helicobacter pylori* infection and thyroid hormone levels.

Methods: In Karbala, Iraq, samples were obtained from 84 individuals with *H. pylori* (42 patients tested positive for *H. pylori* antigen test and 42 patients tested negative) between December 2021 and January 2022. All subjects had five milliliters of whole blood drawn into clot tubes and centrifuged for 30 minutes to obtain serum. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits were used to measure the amounts of free T4 and TSH in the blood.

Results: Females are more susceptible to *H. pylori* infection than males ($p = 0.00001$), according to the findings. Furthermore, the mean age of positive test patients is 49.66 years, which is considerably ($p = 0.0177$) higher than the mean age of negative test patients (43.38 years), and the oldest men are more infected with *H. pylori* than young men.

The results show no significant variations in free T4 concentrations between males and females for both positive and negative tests ($p > 0.05$). This implies that while infected with *H. pylori*, the concentration of free T4 was unaffected. Finally, *H. pylori* infection causes a considerable increase in stomach acid, according to the research. ($p = 0.0037$) in FSH levels in both sexes.

Conclusions: We can determine that females are more likely than males to be infected with *H. pylori*. And that most patients are aged, particularly men. Furthermore, there is no partnership between *H. pylori* infection and free F4 hormone levels, and patients with *H. pylori* have a higher FSH hormone concentration than those with a negative *H. pylori* antigen test.

Keywords: freeT₄, FSH, *H. pylori*, Kerbala.

International Journal of Drug Delivery Technology (2022); DOI: 10.25258/ijddt.12.2.66

How to cite this article: Al-Daamy AAHK. The Effect of Bacterial Infection with *Helicobacter pylori* on Thyroid Hormones. International Journal of Drug Delivery Technology. 2022;12(2):837-840.

Source of support: Nil.

Conflict of interest: None

INTRODUCTION

Helicobacter pylori is a gram-negative circle pathogenic bacteria that commonly infects and destroys the stomach's mucosa. *H. pylori* infections can cause chronic gastritis, peptic ulcers, and stomach cancer, among other things.^{1,2} Extragastric illnesses can also be caused by *H. pylori* infection. According to preliminary findings, Extragastric diseases like as prediabetes have been linked to *H. pylori* infection,³ Insulin resistance (IR),⁴ diabetic mellitus,⁵ and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD).⁶ Furthermore, several studies have found a link between autoimmune thyroid disorders (ATDs) and *H. pylori* infections.⁷⁻⁹ Indeed, research has revealed that certain bacteria and viruses can mimic the pathogenic nature of the thyroid phospholipid bilayer, a significant factor in the evolution of autoimmune diseases.¹⁰⁻¹³ As a result, autoantibodies may assault the thyroid after *H. pylori* infection.

In previous research, there has been some indication of a relationship between thyroid autoimmune disorders and

H. pylori infection, such as Graves' disease and Hashimoto thyroiditis. However, studies have examined the relationship between *H. pylori* infection and thyroid ailments, which has mostly emphasized thyroid autoimmunity.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ *H. pylori* infection was revealed to be positively linked with the risk of thyroid nodule (TN) types by Shen *et al.*¹⁷ Molecular mimicry and dysbiosis are two biological mechanisms that have been proposed to explain the link.¹⁸⁻²⁰ According to molecular mimicry theory, At least 14 *H. pylori* antigen epitope proteins have amino acid sequences identical to those found in thyroid innate proteins.¹⁴ This anatomical resemblance can result in an immune cross-reaction and long-term thyroid dysfunction, which could explain why *H. pylori* infection causes reactive hyperplasia.³ T_h cells may serve other purposes in this process by co-inducing the development of TN types.^{3,19} Furthermore, Endocrine signals are influenced by the brain-gut axis, and TN patients' intestinal microbiota diversity is substantially higher than the normal population.¹⁸ *Lactobacillus*, an important

*Author for Correspondence: alaa.aldaamy@uokerbala.edu.iq

intestinal flora, has been identified to prevent oxidative stress to the thyroid gland, whereas infection with *H. pylori* reduces the bacterium's ability to survive, which could be linked to the pathogenesis of TN types.^{18,21} Although these data suggest links and possible physiological mechanisms, large population epidemiological studies are still needed to confirm them.

Either *Helicobacter pylori* or peptic ulcer disease cause gastritis, or sometimes both. On the other hand, gastritis required higher daily dosages of T4 than healthy, implying that normal stomach acid output is essential for successful oral T4 absorption.²² Furthermore, in people were treated with T4, the formation of *H. pylori* infection led in a rise in serum thyrotropin (TSH), an influence that was almost completely reversed once *H. pylori* infection was eliminated.²²

In this study, we looked at the link between *H. pylori* infection and thyroid hormones (free F4 and FSH) in the city of Karbala.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, by using ELISA kits, *H. pylori* antigen (in stool) was assessed as a marker of *H. pylori* infection. Samples from 84 patients (42 patients were positive *H. pylori* antigen and 42 patients were negative *H. pylori* antigen) were obtained.

All subjects had five milliliters of whole blood drawn into clot tubes and centrifuged for 30 minutes to obtain serum. Thyroid function was assessed using ELISA kits that evaluated free T4 and TSH levels in the blood.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Gender: The results in Table 1 indicate no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between patients whose results appeared positive for *H. pylori* antigen test and those who tested negative for both sexes.

While there was a significant and clear increase ($p = 0.00001$) in the number of test-positive females compared to the number of test-positive males was found, which indicates that females are more susceptible to infection with *H. pylori* than males.

The current study's findings were consistent with those of Yücel *et al.*,²³ who discovered that the percentage of females was higher than that of males (76% of them were female and 24% male). Another study found a substantial link between female gender and GN, as well as a link between higher GC grade and female gender.²⁴ Also, females had a higher prevalence of *H. pylori* infection than males.²⁵

On the other hand, our findings differed from those of numerous other investigations. The male gender is linked to the majority of *H. pylori*-related illnesses. De Martel and Parsonnet examined the effect of sex as a disease risk for *H. pylori* infection in a schema of large, inhabitants research.²⁶ Male sex was found to be infected with *H. pylori* is strongly linked (OR: 1.16, 95% CI: 1.11-1.22), and this male superiority of *H. pylori* infection was consistent across older adults from various countries.

Although male gender is linked to most *H. pylori*-related disorders, gender's role as a predictive marker for *H. pylori*

infection is indeed debated. To find the actual *H. pylori* and sex have a connection, the researchers employed a meta-analysis of large, society studies where the test of conversation had been suited at least for age and socioeconomic factors, and accumulated actual data from researchers once data on sex correlations was not initiated.²⁶

Age: The results of Table 2 found that the average age of patients for positive test is 49.66 years, which is significantly ($p = 0.0177$) more than the average for patients with a negative test (43.38 years). The findings also revealed no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between the mean ages of males and females for both test results.

It should be noted that the average age of males whose test result was positive was 54.66 years, which is significantly higher ($p = 0.0409$) than the average age of males whose test result was negative (38.71 years), and this indicates that the oldest men are more infected with *H. pylori* than young men.

In contrast to our findings, one study observed that the mean age of participants with thyroid nodules was greater than that of the control group (43 and 50 years, respectively) in one study.¹⁷ Individuals under 50 years old had a substantially larger proportion of *H. pylori* positive + CAP than those over 50 years old (87/250; 34.8% versus 32/65; 49.2 percent) ($p = 0.033$).²⁷ Another study found that the average age (SD) was 42.95. (16.32).²⁸

According to the findings of the Hong *et al* study, In individuals under 36 years old, a higher the rise in adulthood linked to a higher incidence of *H. pylori* infection, with a maximum at 36 years of age. Infection with *H. pylori* did not increase substantially with age in patients older than 36 years.²⁵ **Free T₄:** The concentration of free T₄ in the test-negative patients was 1.67 ng/dL, while its concentration decreased insignificantly ($p = 0.2705$) in the test-positive patients, as its concentration was 1.22 ng/dL. The table implies that no substantial differences exist ($p > 0.05$) in the concentration of free T₄ between females

Table 1: Distribution of *H. pylori* patients according to sex.

Sex	H. pylori antigen test		
	Negative N(%)	Positive N(%)	p-value
Female	28 (66.7 %)	36 (85.7%)	0.31731
Male	14 (33.3 %)	6 (14.3%)	0.07364
Total	42 (100 %)	42 (100%)	1.0000
p-value	0.03075 *	0.00001 **	

* denotes meaningful statistically differences ($P < 0.05$). ** identifies substantial variations ($p < 0.001$).

Table 2: The age of *H. pylori* patients.

Sex	H. pylori antigen test		
	Negative (Mean±SD) Years	Positive (Mean±SD) Years	p-value
Female	45.71 ± 11.92	48.83 ± 9.51	0.2484
Male	38.71 ± 9.12	54.66 ± 24.02	0.0409 *
Total	43.38 ± 11.45	49.66 ± 12.32	0.0177 *
P value	0.0609	0.2888	

* denotes meaningful statistically differences ($P < 0.05$). ** identifies substantial variations ($p < 0.001$).

Table 3: Free T4 concentration (ng/dL) of *H. pylori* patients.

<i>H. pylori antigen test</i>			
Sex	Negative (Mean ± SD)	Positive (Mean ± SD)	p-value
Female	1.92 ± 3.16	1.17 ± 0.38	0.1623
Male	1.19 ± 0.27	1.50 ± 0.73	0.1732
Total	1.67 ± 2.59	1.22 ± 0.45	0.2705
P value	0.3963	0.0962	

* denotes meaningful statistically differences ($p < 0.05$). ** identifies substantial variations ($p < 0.001$).

Table 4: FSH concentration (μIU/ml) of *H. pylori* patients.

<i>H. pylori antigen test</i>			
Sex	Negative (Mean ± SD)	Positive (Mean ± SD)	p-value
Female	1.31 ± 1.30	6.28 ± 11.45	0.0260 *
Male	1.03 ± 0.55	6.24 ± 7.63	0.0167 *
Total	1.22 ± 1.11	6.27 ± 10.91	0.0037 *
P value	0.4467	0.9935	

* denotes meaningful statistically differences ($p < 0.05$). ** identifies substantial variations ($p < 0.001$).

for both positive and negative tests, as well as for males. This result (Table 3) indicates that the concentration of free T₄ was not affected when infected with *H. pylori*.

Our findings are consistent with those of several other studies. There was a negative connection between *H. pylori* Ab titer and free T₄ in one investigation.²⁹

The current study contradicted the findings of Triantafyllidis *et al.*, finding significant differences in FreeT4 (1.04 0.2 vs. 1.17 0.3 ng/dL, $p = 0.025$) between persons positive and negative for *H. pylori* infection.³⁰

FSH: The results in Table 4 showed that infection with bacteria leads to a significant increase in the concentration of FSH. Whereas the concentration of FSH when the test result is negative is 1.22 μIU/mL, and this concentration increased significantly ($p = 0.0037$) in patients infected with *H. pylori*.

When comparing the uninfected females with the infected, there is a significant increase ($p = 0.0260$) in the concentration of FSH, as its concentration was (1.31 and 6.28) μIU/mL, respectively. Likewise, when comparing the uninfected males with the infected, there is a significant increase ($p = 0.0167$) in the concentration of FSH, as its concentration was (1.03 and 6.24) μIU/mL, respectively.

The *H. pylori* Ab titer and TSH had a significant positive connection.²⁹ According to the findings of one investigation, In the euthyroid population, *H. pylori* infection has been associated to thyroid nodules. Nevertheless, it's a shame that the study didn't include the number and size of thyroid nodules in all patients since it's an annual health assessment, some data on the size and number of thyroid nodules were wrongly recorded. In several studies, TSH was inversely associated with the risk of thyroid nodules, which could be due to the insulin pathway.¹⁷

CONCLUSIONS

Through what was reached in this study, it can be concluded that females are more infected with *H. pylori* than males. And

the patients with *H. pylori* are old, especially in males. Also, there seems to be no connection between people infected with *H. pylori* and concentrations of free F4 hormone, and on the contrary, patients with *H. pylori* have a higher concentration of FSH hormone compared negative *H. pylori* antigen test.

REFERENCES

1. Wotherspoon AC, Ortiz-Hidalgo C, Falzon MR, Isaacson PG. *Helicobacter pylori*-associated gastritis and primary B-cell gastric lymphoma. Lancet. 1991; 338: 1175-1176. doi:10.1016/0140-6736(91)92035-Z. PubMed: 1682595.
2. Herrera V, Parsonnet J. *Helicobacter pylori* and gastric adenocarcinoma. Clin Microbiol Infect. 2009; 15: 971-976. doi:10.1111/j.1469-0691.2009.03031.x. PubMed: 19874380.
3. Shin DW, Kwon HT, Kang JM, Park JH, Choi HC *et al.* Association between metabolic syndrome and *Helicobacter pylori* infection diagnosed by histologic status and serological status. J Clin Gastroenterol. 2012; 46: 840-845. doi:10.1097/MCG.0b013e3182522477. PubMed: 23064216.
4. Polyzos SA, Kountouras J, Zavos C, Deretzi G. The association between *Helicobacter pylori* infection and insulin resistance: a systematic review. Helicobacter. 2011;16: 79-88. doi:10.1111/j.1523-5378.2011.00822.x. PubMed: 21435084.
5. Gasbarrini A, Ojetti V, Pitocco D, De Luca A, Franceschi F *et al.* *Helicobacter pylori* infection in patients affected by insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 1998; 10: 469-472. doi:10.1097/00042737-199806000-00006. PubMed: 9855061.
6. Polyzos SA, Kountouras J, Papatheodorou A, Patsiaoura K, Katsiki E *et al.* *Helicobacter pylori* infection in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. Metabolism. 2013; 62: 121-126. doi:10.1016/j.metabol.2012.06.007. PubMed: 22841522.
7. Bassi V, Marino G, Iengo A, Fattoruso O, Santinelli C. Autoimmune thyroid diseases and *Helicobacter pylori*: the correlation is present only in Graves's disease. World J Gastroenterol. 2012; 18:1093-1097. doi:10.3748/wjg.v18.i10.1093. PubMed: 22416184.
8. Bassi V, Santinelli C, Iengo A, Romano C. Identification of a correlation between *Helicobacter pylori* infection and Graves' disease. Helicobacter. 2010; 15: 558-562. doi:10.1111/j.1523-5378.2010.00802.x. PubMed: 21073613.
9. Stechova K, Pomahacova R, Hrabak J, Durilova M, Sykora J *et al.* Reactivity to *Helicobacter pylori* antigens in patients suffering from thyroid gland autoimmunity. Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes. 2009; 117:423-431. doi:10.1055/s-0029-1214385. PubMed: 19472102.
10. Rapoport B, McLachlan SM. Thyroid autoimmunity. J Clin Invest. 2001; 108: 1253-1259. doi:10.1172/JCI200114321. PubMed: 11696565.
11. Valtonen VV, Ruutu P, Varis K, Ranki M, Malkamäki M *et al.* Serological evidence for the role of bacterial infections in the pathogenesis of thyroid diseases. Acta Med Scand. 1986; 219: 105-111. PubMed: 3754083.
12. Joasoo A, Robertson P and Murray IPC. Viral antibodies and thyrotoxicosis. Lancet. 1975; 2: 125-131.
13. Tomer Y, Davies TF. Infection, thyroid disease, and autoimmunity. Endocr Rev. 1993; 14: 107-120. doi:10.1210/edrv-14-1-107. PubMed: 8491150.
14. Benvenega S, Guarneri F. Molecular Mimicry and Autoimmune Thyroid Disease. Rev. Endocr. Metab. Disord. 2016; 17 (4): 485–498. doi: 10.1007/s11154-016-9363-2.

15. Kohling HL, Plummer SF, Marchesi JR, Davidge KS, Ludgate M. The Microbiota and Autoimmunity: Their Role in Thyroid Autoimmune Diseases. *Clin. Immunol.* 2017; 183, 63–74. doi: 10.1016/j.clim.2017.07.001.
16. Figura N, Di Cairano G, Moretti E, Iacoponi F, Santucci A, Bernardini G, et al. (2019) Helicobacter Pylori Infection and Autoimmune Thyroid Diseases: The Role of Virulent Strains. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2019; 9 (1): 12. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics9010012.
17. Shen Z, Qin Y, Liu Y, Lu Y, Munker S, Chen L, et al. Helicobacter Pylori Infection is Associated With the Presence of Thyroid Nodules in the Euthyroid Population. *PloS One*. 2013; 8(11): e80042. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0080042.
18. Zhang J, Zhang F, Zhao C, Xu Q, Liang C, Yang Y, et al. Dysbiosis of the Gut Microbiome is Associated With Thyroid Cancer and Thyroid Nodules and Correlated With Clinical Index of Thyroid Function. *Endocrine*. 2018; 64 (3): 564–574. doi: 10.1007/s12020-018-1831-x.
19. Cuan-Baltazar Y, Soto-Vega E. Microorganisms Associated to Thyroid Autoimmunity. *Autoimmun. Rev.* 2020; 19 (9):102614. doi: 10.1016/j.autrev.2020.102614.
20. Docimo G, Cangiano A, Romano RM, Pignatelli MF, Offi C, Paglionico VA, et al. The Human Microbiota in Endocrinology: Implications for Pathophysiology, Treatment, and Prognosis in Thyroid Diseases. *Front. Endocrinol. (Lausanne)*. 2020; 11:586529. doi: 10.3389/fendo.2020.586529.
21. Iino C, Shimoyama T, Chinda D, Arai T, Chiba D, Nakaji S, et al. Infection of Helicobacter Pylori and Atrophic Gastritis Influence Lactobacillus in Gut Microbiota in a Japanese Population. *Front. Immunol.* 2018; 9: 712. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2018.00712.
22. Centanni M, Gargano L, Canettieri G, Viceconti N, Franchi A, Delle Fave G, Annibale B. Thyroxine in goiter, *Helicobacter pylori* infection, and chronic gastritis. *N Engl J Med.* 2006; 354: 1787-1795.
23. Yücel T, Aygin D, Sen S, Yücel O. The Prevalence of Helicobacter pylori and Related Factors among University Students in Turkey. *Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.* 2008; 61: 179-183.
24. Agah S, Khedmat H, Ghamar-Chehred ME, Hadi R, Aghaei A. Female gender and Helicobacter pylori infection, the most important predisposition factors in a cohort of gastric cancer: A longitudinal study. *Caspian J Intern Med.* 2016; 7(2):136-141.
25. Hong W, Tang HL, Dong XL, Hu SK, Yan Y, Basharat Z, Zimmer V, Tzivian L, Leja M, Gao ZH, Sharma A, Tsukanov V, Geng WJ. Prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in a third-tier Chinese city: relationship with gender, age, birth-year and survey years. *Microb Health Dis.* 2019; 1: e150. DOI: 10.26355/mhd_201911_150.
26. de Martel C, Parsonnet J. Helicobacter pylori infection and gender: a meta-analysis of population-based prevalence surveys. *Dig Dis Sci.* 2006; 51:2292–2301. [PubMed] [Google Scholar] [Ref list].
27. Zhao XX, Liu MH, Wang RL, Tian T. (2020) Effect of Gender and Age on the Correlation between Helicobacter pylori and Colorectal Adenomatous Polyps in a Chinese Urban Population: A Single Center Study. *Gastroenterology Research and Practice*. 2020; 2020: 7. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/8596038>.
28. Niknam R, Lankarani KB, Moghadami M et al. The association between helicobacter pylori infection and erosive gastroesophageal reflux disease; a cross-sectional study. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2022; 22, 267. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-022-07278-6>.
29. Hammad FK, Hassan ZA, Abaza DM et al. Association between Helicobacter Pylori infection and autoimmune hypothyroidism in Egyptian population. *The Egyptian Journal of Hospital Medicine.* 2011; 45: 570 – 584.
30. Triantafyllidis JK, Georgakopoulos D, Gikas A, Merikas E, Peros G, Sofroniadou K, Cheracakis P, Sklavaina M, Tzanidis G, Konstantellou E. Relation between Helicobacter pylori infection, thyroid hormone levels and cardiovascular risk factors on blood donors. *Hepatogastroenterology.* 2003;50(2):cccixiii-cccxx. PMID: 15244214.