

THEORETICAL ARTICLE

Protective effects of *Helicobacter pylori* against gastroesophageal reflux disease may be due to a neuroimmunological anti-inflammatory mechanism

Shahram Shahabi¹, Yousef Rasmi², Nima Hosseini Jazani¹ and Zuhair Muhammad Hassan³

There is some evidence that *Helicobacter pylori* infection has a protective effect against gastroesophageal reflux disease (GORD) and its complications such as Barrett's oesophagus and oesophageal adenocarcinoma. In this paper, we propose that a neuroimmunological mechanism is responsible for the protective effect of *H. pylori* on GORD. *H. pylori* infection of the gastric mucosa induces a T helper1-like immune response and production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. These cytokines can inhibit local sympathetic tone, whereas they increase systemic sympathetic tone. Increased sympathetic tone can induce an anti-inflammatory milieu, which in turn can inhibit inflammation in the oesophagus and lower oesophageal sphincter (LOS). Furthermore, *H. pylori* infection may stimulate the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway. It has been suggested that reflux-induced oesophageal inflammation plays an important role in the pathogenesis of reflux oesophagitis. Reduction of oesophageal inflammation by increased systemic sympathetic tone and vagal activity may lead to a decrease in reflux-induced oesophageal injury and LOS dysfunction in GORD.

Immunology and Cell Biology (2008) 86, 175–178; doi:10.1038/sj.icb.7100119; published online 9 October 2007

Keywords: *Helicobacter pylori*; gastroesophageal reflux disease; sympathetic nervous system; parasympathetic nervous system; inflammation

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GORD) is a common disease entity in which gastric juice gains access to the oesophagus via an incompetent lower oesophageal sphincter (LOS).^{1,2} The presence of refluxed materials induces different grades of oesophageal damage, ranging from low- to high-grade oesophagitis.² GORD is a risk factor for oesophageal adenocarcinoma, a rare cancer whose incidence is increasing.³ The most common factor in the aetiology of GORD is disturbed LOS function. Dysfunction of the LOS occurs via one of several mechanisms, the most common being an increase in the number of transient LOS relaxations, and the second most common being a permanent decrease in LOS pressure.⁴

Oesophageal acid loads seem to be one of the major causes of oesophageal mucosal damage.² However, the severity of reflux oesophagitis cannot be accurately predicted simply on the basis of acid exposure, suggesting that other damaging factors or, possibly, impaired mucosal resistance, are also involved in reflux oesophagitis.² The importance of mucosal resistance and oxidative stress in the pathogenesis of GORD has been shown.^{2,5–7}

Helicobacter pylori infection is recognized to be the most important acquired factor in the aetiology of ulcers of the stomach and duodenum.⁸ The type of inflammation induced by *H. pylori* is commonly termed 'chronic active inflammation'. In *H. pylori*-induced inflammation, the antrum is consistently involved, whereas inflam-

mation in the acid-secreting gastric body and fundus is more variable.⁹ In spite of some contradictory reports, there is substantial evidence that *H. pylori* infection, especially infection with virulent strains of *H. pylori*, has a protective effect against GORD and its complications such as Barrett's oesophagus and oesophageal adenocarcinoma.^{8,10–13}

To date, the mechanisms that have been suggested for the protective effect of *H. pylori* against gastroesophageal reflux include an increase in the production of ammonia, hypochlorhydria associated with gastric atrophy and increased production of protective prostaglandins, change in lifestyle and weight gain and consumption of acid-reducing agents during *H. pylori* infection.¹⁴ In addition, Budzynski *et al.*¹⁵ suggested that *H. pylori*-induced greater autonomic nervous system activity may explain the decrease in the number of gastroesophageal reflux episodes in patients infected with *H. pylori*.

The present paper proposes a neuroimmunological mechanism for the protective effects of *H. pylori* against GORD.

HYPOTHESIS

H. pylori infection of the gastric mucosa induces a T helper1 (Th1)-like immune response and production of the pro-inflammatory cytokines tumour necrosis factor α (TNF- α), interleukin (IL) 1 β , IL-6 and IL-8¹⁶ (Figure 1). Any immune challenge that threatens the stability of the internal milieu can be regarded as a stressor, that is

¹Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Genetics, Faculty of Medicine, Urmia University of Medical Sciences, Urmia, Iran; ²Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Medicine, Urmia University of Medical Sciences, Urmia, Iran and ³Department of Immunology, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Iran
Correspondence: Dr S Shahabi, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Genetics, Urmia University of Medical Sciences, Road of Nazloo, Urmia, Iran.
E-mails: s_shahabi@umsu.ac.ir and shahabirabari@yahoo.com

Received 17 July 2007; revised 15 August 2007; accepted 20 August 2007; published online 9 October 2007

under certain conditions; an immune response can activate the stress system.

The sympathetic nervous system (SNS) is characterized by a continuous discharge of neural activity, the so-called sympathetic tone. It seems that an inflammatory/immune response to components of *H. pylori* may actually increase sympathetic tone, as other stressors or stimuli do.¹⁷ It has been shown that interferon α , tumour necrosis factor- α , IL-1 (especially IL-1 β) and IL-6 can signal the brain to trigger the activation of both SNS and hypothalamus–pituitary–adrenal axis through a complex corticotropin-releasing hormone-dependent pathway.¹⁷ Thus, the SNS, similar to hypothalamus–pituitary–adrenal axis, is involved also in a long feedback loop between lymphoid organs and central nervous system. The afferent limb of this loop seems to be operated by blood-borne cytokines, which activate the central components of the stress system via circulation or through the vagus nerve afferents. The efferent loop consists of the SNS, its projections to different organs and the release of norepinephrine from the sympathetic nerve terminals in these organs.¹⁷ Although the above-mentioned cytokines trigger centrally the sympathetic output, which results in an increase of norepinephrine turn over in several organs, it has been shown that they inhibit SNS activation in the place of administration, so the local effect of these cytokines might be absolutely different.¹⁷ Therefore, the pro-inflammatory cytokines produced by inflammatory response against *H. pylori* can inhibit local sympathetic tone, whereas they increase systemic sympathetic tone¹⁷ (Figure 1). Since antigen-presenting cells carry *H. pylori* antigens to secondary lymphoid tissues, where they activate naive T lymphocytes,¹⁸ there is a Th1-type and pro-inflammatory milieu both at the sites of infection and in the secondary lymphoid tissues to which *H. pylori* antigens are carried. Therefore, during infection by *H. pylori*, there is a reduction in sympathetic tone at the infection site (gastric wall) and in secondary lymphoid tissues, accompanied by an increase in tone elsewhere, including the LOS.

Increased sympathetic tone can induce an anti-inflammatory milieu¹⁷ in the tissues (including the oesophagus and the LOS),

with the exception of the sites of *H. pylori* infection and secondary lymphoid tissues through following mechanisms:

There are many indications showing that norepinephrine and epinephrine, inhibit the production of type 1/pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-12, tumour necrosis factor- α and IFN- γ by antigen-presenting cells and Th1 cells through stimulation of the β 2-adrenoreceptor–cAMP–protein kinase A pathway, whereas they stimulate the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-10 and transforming growth factor- β . Also it has been shown that stimulation of SNS can induce regulatory (suppressor) T lymphocytes and attenuate immune responses. Different adrenoreceptors are known as molecules responsible for the induction of regulatory T lymphocytes and increasing the T regulatory (suppressor) vs T helper and T regulatory (suppressor) vs T cytolytic ratios.^{19,20} Through above-mentioned mechanisms, endogenous catecholamines may act systemically to cause a selective suppression of pro-inflammatory responses, and result in a dominance of anti-inflammatory responses.¹⁷ Therefore, the systemic increased sympathetic tone can inhibit inflammation in all tissues (including the oesophagus and the LOS), with the exception of the sites of *H. pylori* infection and secondary lymphoid tissues, where there is a decreased sympathetic tone (Figure 1).

It has been suggested that reflux-induced oesophageal inflammation plays an important role in the pathogenesis of reflux oesophagitis. It has been shown that pro-inflammatory cytokines induce neutrophil accumulation and oxygen radical-mediated tissue damage.²¹ In addition, recent evidence suggests that pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1 β and IL-6, may be implicated in dysfunction of the LOS, because they reduce oesophageal muscle contractility.²² Thus, reduction of oesophageal inflammation by *H. pylori*-induced increased systemic sympathetic tone may lead to a decrease in reflux-induced oesophageal injury and LOS dysfunction in GORD (Figure 1). Moreover, *H. pylori*-induced increased sympathetic tone may inhibit the development of a non-pre-existing GORD by means of the following mechanism. Because pro-inflammatory cytokines reduce oesophageal

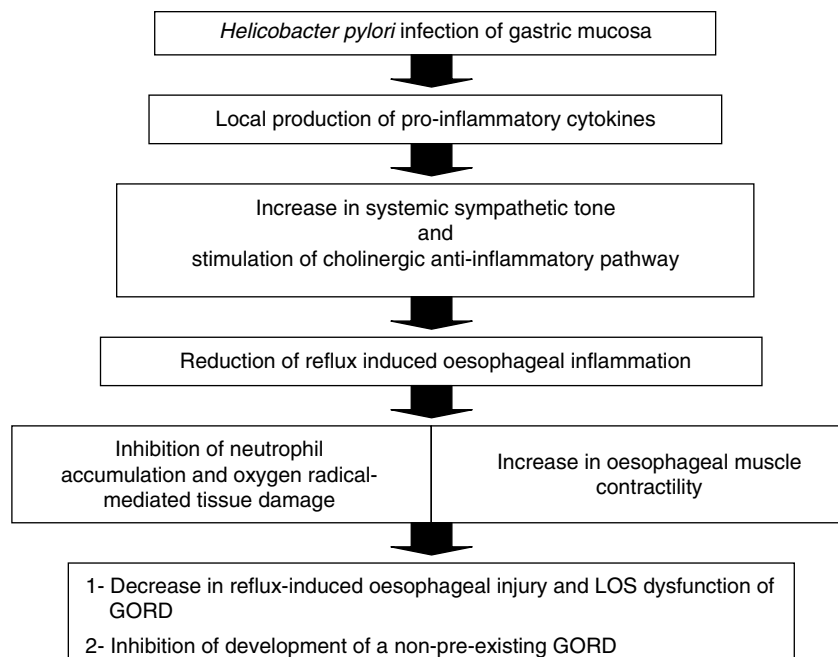


Figure 1 An algorithm which shows the proposed mechanism for the protective effects of *H. pylori* infection against GORD.

muscle contractility, it seems that when the refluxed gastric juice comes into contact with the oesophageal mucosa, induction of a pro-inflammatory process in the oesophageal wall can intensify LOS dysfunction and promote the development of GORD. Inhibiting the induction of the pro-inflammatory process by increasing sympathetic tone may block this positive feedback and prevent the development of GORD. Thus, the rate of GORD development will be lower in persons with *H. pylori* infection than in those without this infection.¹¹ Furthermore, this could be the mechanism by which slight decreases in sympathetic function in patients with GORD²³ correlate with the pathogenesis of this disease.

In addition to stimulating the SNS, *H. pylori* infection may also stimulate the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway. *H. pylori*-derived lipopolysaccharide and *H. pylori*-induced pro-inflammatory cytokines may stimulate vagal sensory neurons (Figure 1), which in turn may stimulate vagal efferent neurons, resulting in a decrease in the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and inhibition of inflammation in the visceral organs, including the oesophagus²⁴ (Figure 1). The above-mentioned mechanisms may be responsible for the protection against GORD that results from inhibition of the pro-inflammatory process.

DISCUSSION

According to the suggested hypothesis, the protective effects of *H. pylori* infection against GORD can be attributed to the anti-inflammatory effects exerted by the increase in sympathetic tone and stimulation of the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway due to *H. pylori*-induced inflammation.

It has been shown that infection with the more virulent, cytotoxin-associated gene A (*cagA*)-positive strains of *H. pylori* and pro-inflammatory genotypes of the *IL-1 β* gene are independently associated with protection against GORD.²⁵ Both of these factors can be responsible for the induction of a more severe pro-inflammatory immune response against *H. pylori* infection.²⁵ It has been suggested that the severe gastric inflammation caused by *cagA*-positive strains and pro-inflammatory genotypes of the *IL-1 β* gene leads to gastric atrophy, and the resulting hypochlorhydria may protect against GORD.²⁵ The greater protection against GORD by *cagA*-positive strains of *H. pylori* and pro-inflammatory genotypes of the *IL-1 β* gene can also be explained by our proposed hypothesis: the more extensive the pro-inflammatory response to *H. pylori* infection, the stronger the stimulation of the SNS and vagus nerve. Any increase in the activation of the SNS and vagus nerve will lead to more efficient inhibition of the inflammation in the oesophageal wall, resulting in greater protection against GORD. The differences between the different strains of *H. pylori*, as well as differences between different populations in the induction of inflammatory responses against *H. pylori* infection, may explain why some studies have not found *H. pylori* to exert protective effects against GORD.^{26–29}

Budzynski *et al.*'s¹⁵ finding that patients infected with *H. pylori* have greater sympathetic and parasympathetic tone than *H. pylori*-negative subjects, and their suggestion that the greater autonomic nervous system activity may explain the protective effects of *H. pylori* infection against GORD, may support this hypothesis.

According to the present hypothesis, *H. pylori* infection may have protective effects against GORD because the pro-inflammatory immune response plays an important role in both diseases. The protective effects of *H. pylori* infection on multiple sclerosis and Crohn's disease (CD)^{30–34} two diseases for which pro-inflammatory cytokines have a key role in their pathogenesis,^{35,36} may be due to the proposed mechanism. Stimulation of the SNS and the cholinergic

anti-inflammatory pathway by *H. pylori* infection may lead to a reduction in the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and result in alleviation of these autoimmune diseases. The relationships between *H. pylori* infection and GORD, multiple sclerosis and CD, are similar to the relationships between mycobacterial infection and some Th1-type autoimmune diseases, including multiple sclerosis and experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (an animal model for multiple sclerosis). Both mycobacterial infection and the above-mentioned autoimmune diseases induce Th1 immune responses and pro-inflammatory cytokines, but it has been shown that mycobacterial infection alleviates the symptoms of these autoimmune diseases.^{37–41} We previously hypothesized that the anti-inflammatory effects of mycobacterial infection-induced increased systemic sympathetic tone may explain the modulation of these autoimmune diseases by mycobacterial infection.^{37,38} Although, in the present article, we have proposed that our hypothesis could explain the protective effects of *H. pylori* infection against GORD, we believe that it is not the only mechanism and that other mechanisms also play a role.

- 1 Ahtaridis G, Snape Jr WJ, Cohen S. Lower esophageal sphincter pressure as an index of gastroesophageal acid reflux. *Dig Dis Sci* 1981; **26**: 993–998.
- 2 Oh TY, Lee JS, Ahn BO, Cho H, Kim WB, Kim YB *et al*. Oxidative stress is more important than acid in the pathogenesis of reflux oesophagitis in rats. *Gut* 2001; **49**: 364–371.
- 3 Shaheen N, Ransohoff DF. Gastroesophageal reflux, Barrett esophagus, and esophageal cancer: scientific review. *Jama* 2002; **287**: 1972–1981.
- 4 Penagini R, Carnagnola S, Cantu P. Review article: gastro-oesophageal reflux disease—pathophysiological issues of clinical relevance. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2002; **16** (Suppl 4): 65–71.
- 5 Lanas AI, Blas JM, Ortego J, Soria J, Sainz R. Adaptation of esophageal mucosa to acid- and pepsin-induced damage: role of nitric oxide and epidermal growth factor. *Dig Dis Sci* 1997; **42**: 1003–1012.
- 6 Lee JS, Oh TY, Ahn BO, Cho H, Kim WB, Kim YB *et al*. Involvement of oxidative stress in experimentally induced reflux esophagitis and Barrett's esophagus: clue for the chemoprevention of esophageal carcinoma by antioxidants. *Mutat Res* 2001; **480–481**: 189–200.
- 7 Orlando RC. Review article: oesophageal mucosal resistance. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1998; **12**: 191–197.
- 8 Unal S, Karakan T, Dogan I, Cindoruk M, Dumlu S. The influence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection on the prevalence of endoscopic erosive esophagitis. *Helicobacter* 2006; **11**: 556–561.
- 9 Graham DY, Genta RM. Gastritis and helicobacter pylori. In: Goldman L, Ausiello D (eds). *Cecil Textbook of Medicine*, 22nd edn, Saunders: Philadelphia, 2004, pp 823.
- 10 Mager D. Bacteria and cancer: cause, coincidence or cure? A review. *J Transl Med* 2006; **4**: 14.
- 11 McColl KE. Review article: *Helicobacter pylori* and gastro-oesophageal reflux disease—the European perspective. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2004; **20** (Suppl 8): 36–39.
- 12 Raghunath A, Hungin AP, Wooff D, Childs S. Prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* in patients with gastro-oesophageal reflux disease: systematic review. *BMJ* 2003; **326**: 737.
- 13 Wu JC, Sung JJ, Ng EK, Go MY, Chan WB, Chan FK *et al*. Prevalence and distribution of *Helicobacter pylori* in gastroesophageal reflux disease: a study from the East. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999; **94**: 1790–1794.
- 14 Vigneri S, Termini R, Savarino V, Pace F. Review article: is *Helicobacter pylori* status relevant in the management of GORD? *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2000; **14** (Suppl 3): 31–42.
- 15 Budzynski J, Klopocka M, Bujak R, Swiatkowski M, Pulkowski G, Sinkiewicz W. Autonomic nervous function in *Helicobacter pylori*-infected patients with atypical chest pain studied by analysis of heart rate variability. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2004; **16**: 451–457.
- 16 Suerbaum S, Michetti P. *Helicobacter pylori* infection. *N Engl J Med* 2002; **347**: 1175–1186.
- 17 Elenkov IJ, Wilder RL, Chrousos GP, Vizi ES. The sympathetic nerve—an integrative interface between two supersystems: the brain and the immune system. *Pharmacol Rev* 2000; **52**: 595–638.
- 18 Jenkins MK, Khoruts A, Ingulli E, Mueller DL, McSorley SJ, Reinhardt RL *et al*. In vivo activation of antigen-specific CD4T cells. *Annu Rev Immunol* 2001; **19**: 23–45.
- 19 Murray DR, Irwin M, Reardon CA, Ziegler M, Motulsky H, Maisel AS. Sympathetic and immune interactions during dynamic exercise. Mediation via a beta 2-adrenergic-dependent mechanism. *Circulation* 1992; **86**: 203–213.
- 20 Cao L, Hudson CA, Lawrence DA. Immune changes during acute cold/restraint stress-induced inhibition of host resistance to *Listeria*. *Toxicol Sci* 2003; **74**: 325–334.

- 21 Yamaguchi T, Yoshida N, Tomatsuri N, Takayama R, Katada K, Takagi T *et al*. Cytokine-induced neutrophil accumulation in the pathogenesis of acute reflux esophagitis in rats. *Int J Mol Med* 2005; **16**: 71–77.
- 22 Rieder F, Cheng L, Harnett KM, Chak A, Cooper GS, Isenberg G *et al*. Gastroesophageal reflux disease-associated esophagitis induces endogenous cytokine production leading to motor abnormalities. *Gastroenterology* 2007; **132**: 154–165.
- 23 Campo SM, Capria A, Antonucci F, Martino G, Ciamei A, Rossini PM *et al*. Decreased sympathetic inhibition in gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Clin Auton Res* 2001; **11**: 45–51.
- 24 Pavlov VA, Tracey KJ. The cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway. *Brain Behav Immun* 2005; **19**: 493–499.
- 25 Queiroz DM, Guerra JB, Rocha GA, Rocha AM, Santos A, De Oliveira AG *et al*. IL1B and IL1RN polymorphic genes and *Helicobacter pylori* cagA strains decrease the risk of reflux esophagitis. *Gastroenterology* 2004; **127**: 73–79.
- 26 Moayyedi P, Talley NJ. Gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Lancet* 2006; **367**: 2086–2100.
- 27 Matysiak-Budnik T, Laszewicz W, Lamarque D, Chaussade S. *Helicobacter pylori* and non-malignant diseases. *Helicobacter* 2006; **11** (Suppl 1): 27–31.
- 28 Pilotto A, Franceschi M, Leandro G, Rasso M, Bozzola L, Valerio G *et al*. Influence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection on severity of oesophagitis and response to therapy in the elderly. *Dig Liver Dis* 2002; **34**: 328–331.
- 29 Mc Namara D, Buckley M, O'Morain C. *Helicobacter pylori*-induced duodenal ulcer frequently coincides with gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Dig Liver Dis* 2002; **34**: 542–546.
- 30 Jovanovic IR, Milosavjevic TN, Jankovic GP, Micev MM, Dugalic PD, Saranovic D *et al*. Clinical onset of the Crohn's disease after eradication therapy of *Helicobacter pylori* infection. Does *Helicobacter pylori* infection interact with natural history of inflammatory bowel diseases? *Med Sci Monit* 2001; **7**: 137–141.
- 31 Li W, Minohara M, Su JJ, Matsuoka T, Osoegawa M, Ishizu T *et al*. *Helicobacter pylori* infection is a potential protective factor against conventional multiple sclerosis in the Japanese population. *J Neuroimmunol* 2007; **184**: 227–231.
- 32 Pronai L, Schandl L, Orosz Z, Magyar P, Tulassay Z. Lower prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in patients with inflammatory bowel disease but not with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease—antibiotic use in the history does not play a significant role. *Helicobacter* 2004; **9**: 278–283.
- 33 Tursi A. Onset of Crohn's disease after *Helicobacter pylori* eradication. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2006; **12**: 1008–1009.
- 34 Vare PO, Heikius B, Silvennoinen JA, Karttunen R, Niemela SE, Lehtola JK *et al*. Seroprevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in inflammatory bowel disease: is *Helicobacter pylori* infection a protective factor? *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2001; **36**: 1295–1300.
- 35 Adorini L. Immunotherapeutic approaches in multiple sclerosis. *J Neurol Sci* 2004; **223**: 13–24.
- 36 Parronchi P, Romagnani P, Annunziato F, Sampognaro S, Beccchio A, Giannarini L *et al*. Type 1 T-helper cell predominance and interleukin-12 expression in the gut of patients with Crohn's disease. *Am J Pathol* 1997; **150**: 823–832.
- 37 Shahabi S, Hassan ZM, Jazani NH. Any beneficial effects of mycobacteria on multiple sclerosis and experimental autoimmune encephalitis may include stimulation of the sympathetic nervous system. *Med Hypotheses* 2006; **67**: 164–168.
- 38 Shahabi S, Hassan ZM, Jazani NH, Ebtakar M. Sympathetic nervous system plays an important role in the relationship between immune mediated diseases. *Med Hypotheses* 2006; **67**: 900–903.
- 39 Christen U, von Herrath MG. Infections and autoimmunity—good or bad? *J Immunol* 2005; **174**: 7481–7486.
- 40 Kamradt T, Goggel R, Erb KJ. Induction, exacerbation and inhibition of allergic and autoimmune diseases by infection. *Trends Immunol* 2005; **26**: 260–267.
- 41 Sewell DL, Reinke EK, Hogan LH, Sandor M, Fabry Z. Immunoregulation of CNS autoimmunity by helminth and mycobacterial infections. *Immunol Lett* 2002; **82**: 101–110.