

SURVEILLANCE

Potential application of *Helicobacter pylori* against cancer: carcinogenic pathogen or therapeutic agent?

NEDA Soleimani¹, RAZIEH Ebrahimi Askari^{2*}, FOAD Rommasi^{3*}

Department of Microbiology and Microbial Biotechnology, Faculty of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran. foad.rommasi@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The repeated exposure of normal cells to carcinogenic agents may lead to mutations in their genetic material, changing them into cancerous cells. In this case, the structure and function of these cells would alter, and they would not behave like a normal cell. Treatment of cancer by bacteria is a promising and new strategy. Recently, scientists demonstrated that bacteria could induce apoptosis in cancerous cells. Cell death was identified by cellular cytotoxicity assays when bacterial structures were utilized, and these observations proved bacterial capability for apoptosis induction. *Helicobacter pylori* (or *H. pylori*) is known as a pathogenic and carcinogenic bacterium that can cause various problems. Recently, practical therapeutic applications of this bacterium has drawn attention. Here, we analyzed the advantages and merits of bacterial compounds of *H. pylori* as active remedial agents for cancer treatment. Besides describing *H. pylori* virulent factors and their role in cancer incidence, we also discuss how their potentials can significantly be strengthened and used for cancer treatment. This review results suggest that some factors of *H. pylori* can be exploited as therapeutic agents for cancer therapy in future (Tab. 1, Fig. 3, Ref. 77). Text in PDF www.elis.sk

KEY WORDS: apoptosis induction, bacteriotherapy, cancer treatment, *Helicobacter pylori*.

Introduction

Cancer is the uncontrolled division of cells caused by environmental factors (such as carcinogenic compounds) and genetic mutations (1, 2). Gastrointestinal cancer includes about 20 percent of all cancer cases across the world (3, 4). Inflammations and infections are associated with 15 to 20 percent of malignancies globally and are among the remarkable factors predisposing to gastrointestinal cancers (5, 6). *Helicobacter pylori* is one instance of successful pathogens that can infect epithelial cells of the stomach and is classified by the World Health Organization (WHO) as a potential carcinogen. In developed and industrial countries, *H. pylori* infection involves less than 50 % of the adult population. In contrast, in developing countries, the infection rate is higher and involves about 80 % of the mature population (5–7). This gram-negative bacillus bacterium can colonize the bottom layers of human gastric mucosa and survive in the gastric mucosa for a considerable period due to its high capability for adaptation to

diverse and challenging conditions. *H. pylori* virulence factors without considering detailed molecular studies are classified into general groups. Exotoxins, lipopolysaccharides, flagella, excreted proteins and enzymes and secretory systems are among them. The general virulent factors of *H. pylori* are shown in Figure 1.

As aforesaid, *Helicobacter pylori* has several pathogenetic factors such as urease enzyme, flagella, HpaA, CagA, VacA, BabA, SabA, AlpA/AlpB, IceA, DupA, LPS, OipA, and HP-NAP (7–14). This pathogen binds to the gastric epithelial cells by several receptor molecules present on its surface and exerts its pathogenicity by utilizing other virulent factors. In Table 1, by using different sources, the relationship between virulence factors of *H. pylori*, including CagA, VacA, BabA and OipA and diseases that lead to cancer is obviously demonstrated (15).

Survey method

In this study, a descriptive, analytical and interventional review of articles that were indexed in various databases (SID, DOJA, Scopus, Science Direct, Google Scholar and PubMed) was performed. Primary selection or removal of articles was based on their title, keywords and abstract content. A total of 93 Persian and English papers were selected and studied. Ultimately a summary from the content of 76 articles was extracted and used for writing the manuscript of this article. In order to examine more recent and novel studies, 43 % of used papers were published in the period between 2010–2017.

¹Department of Microbiology and Microbial Biotechnology, Faculty of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran,

²Department of Genetics, Faculty of Biological Sciences, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran, and ³Faculty of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran

Address for correspondence: N. Soleimani, PhD, Ass Prof, Department of Microbiology and Microbial Biotechnology, Faculty of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran.

*These authors contributed equally to this article.

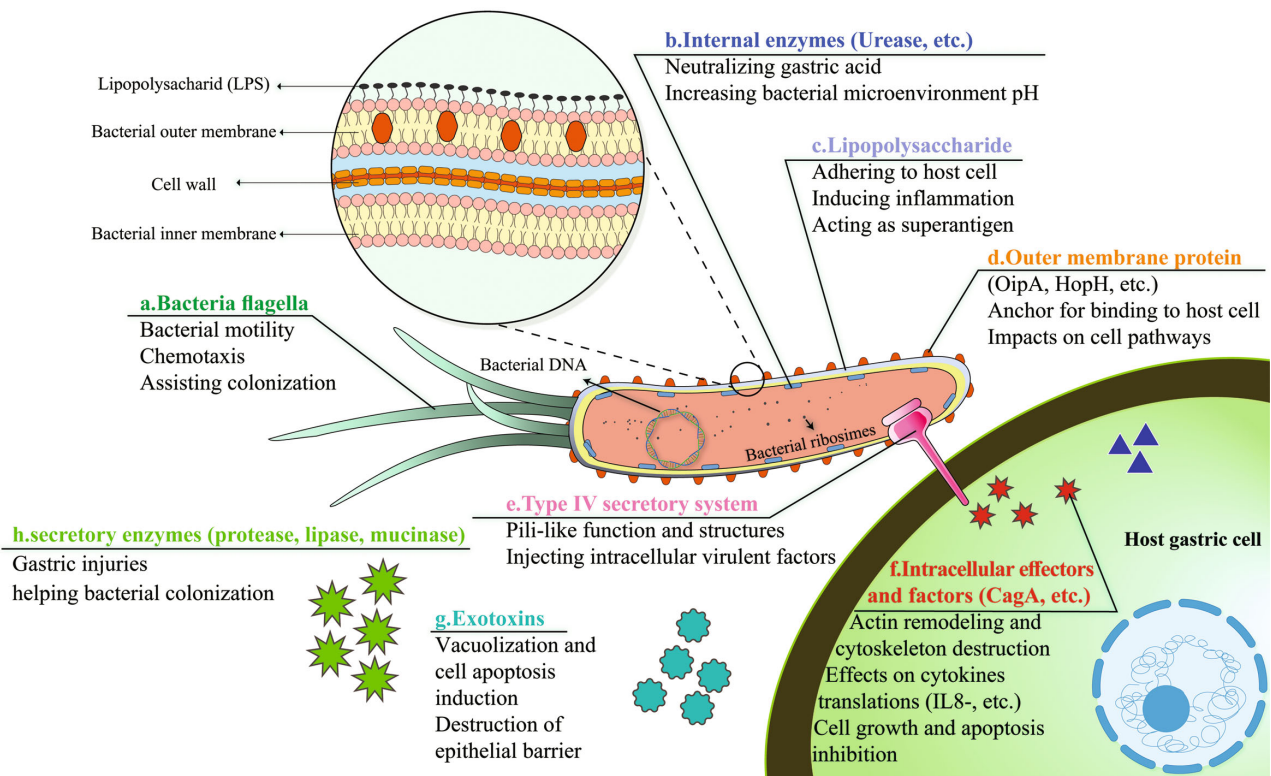


Fig. 1. General categorization of *H. pylori* virulence factors.

Main text

H. pylori can cause different diseases such as duodenal ulcer, stomach wound, gastrointestinal cancer and lymphoma cancer in mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) of the stomach (5–8). Among the diseases caused by this bacterium, cancer is crucial and challenging to treat. Some pathogenic bacteria or some of their virulence factors can be used for treating cancer (32). Various

studies have shown that *Enterococcus faecalis* (33), clostridial spores (34) and *H. pylori* have a high potential for being applied for cancer treatment. If every single virulence factor of *H. pylori* gets examined in a lab, we can understand their action mechanisms and achieve applied approaches in cancer therapy, vaccine production, and defense mechanisms by using them. However, this bacterium can be investigated from two aspects. The pathogenicity process of bacteria as a carcinogenic factor in the stomach is one of these

Tab. 1. Relationship between virulence factors of *H. pylori*.

| Factors | Role | Disease | References |
|-----------------|---|--|--------------|
| CagA | Enter the cell via type IV secretion system, SHP-2 phosphorylation and inhibition of cytokine production (IL-8) | Increased risk of peptic ulcer or gastric cancer in 50 to 70 percent, dependent on strain | (15, 16) |
| VacA | Apoptosis induction, inhibition of T-lymphocyte cells activation | Elevated risk of gastrointestinal cancer or peptic ulcer in 50 percent of strains in the Eastern American population | (17–19) |
| LPS | Endosomes and lysosomes disconnection | Induction of apoptosis and cell death | (20, 21) |
| BabA (HopS) | Binding to GECs receptor | More likely occurrence of peptic ulcer, increased risk of gastric cancer and metaplasia | (22–24) |
| SabA & B (HopP) | Binding to GECs receptor and neutrophil activation | – | (23–25) |
| HspA & B | Binding to GECs receptor | Increased risk of lymphoma and MALT cancer | (26) |
| AlpA & B | Binding to GECs receptor and toxin production | – | (23, 26, 27) |
| OipA (HopH) | Binding to GECs receptor and toxin production (IL-8) | Increased risk of gastric cancer and duodenal ulcer | (23, 28, 29) |
| IceA | Code limited endonucleases | Increased risk of peptic ulcer | (19, 30) |
| DupA | Increased synthesis of cytokines (IL-8) | Reduced risk of gastric cancer and increased risk of duodenal ulcer | (27) |
| NapA | Neutrophil activation and ROS, TNF- α , INF- γ and IL-12 production | – | (19, 31) |

aspects. The second one is exploiting them in the medical and pharmaceutical fields and applying them as clinical treatments. So, *H. pylori* has various potentials and can be helpful or dangerous from different points of view. On the one hand, it is a pathogen bacterium and can cause disorders in the body. On the other, this pathogen can be utilized as a tool for cancer treatment by using Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology strategies for modifying its structure. This paper discusses the practical approaches and the pathogenesis of *Helicobacter pylori*.

The complexity of the pathogenesis of *Helicobacter pylori* is due to the fact that this bacterium has some factors that induce apoptosis. In contrast, other virulent factors of this bacterium can induce cell proliferation. In these conditions, virulent factors that induce apoptosis can be administered to destroy cancer cells directly. The factors that stimulate the immune system can be used to activate the immune responses to attack or kill tumors and cancer cells indirectly by the cell-mediated activities.

Helicobacter pylori and cancer incidence

For a pathogen to cause and develop the disease, the most critical initial event is binding to the host cell's surface receptors. The interactions between bacteria and host cells trigger a series of cascade pathways and signaling in intracellular space, leading to some cell function changes, ultimately resulting in damages to cells and tissues. *Helicobacter pylori* is initially connected to type-four collagen protein, and this attachment causes the establishment and invasion of bacteria into the lamina propria layer (35). Another important protein which this bacterium can connect to is laminin. The attachment of *H. pylori* to host cells and stimulated responses by this attachment are illustrated in Figure 2.

Laminin is the main protein in the composition of the basement membrane of various tissues. *H. pylori*, after damaging the host cells, may be exposed to the basement membrane and bind to Laminin using its receptors such as LPS and some proteins, which have 25 and 67 kDa molecular weight. This attachment causes better establishment of bacteria in the affected lesions and ulcers (36). After conjugation of the bacterium to host cells and its deployment on the cell surface, the other virulence factors get activated. Type-four secretory system is very beneficial for *H. pylori* to advance its pathogenicity (37). By utilizing this secretory system, *H. pylori* directly injects CagA (one significant virulent protein which causes damage) into the cell in the course of its infection. After the entry of this molecule to the cell, it is phosphorylated, and this phenomenon causes elevated cellular proliferation and the degradation of tight junctions between adjacent cells (38). The presence of CagA increases the danger of gastric ulcer or gastrointestinal cancer development by 50 to 70 percent (16). In 2013, Mobarez et al, in a critical study, examined the relationship between CagA-positive strains with MALT lymphoma. Results of this evaluation indicate that these strains are associated with an enhanced risk of lymphoma in infected people (39).

VacA is the other virulence factor of *H. pylori*. It is a toxin that forms pores and holes in cell membranes, resulting in the formation of vacuoles in the cell. By exploiting these toxins, *Helicobacter pylori* can damage host cells. All strains of *H. pylori* contain VacA genes, but only 50–60 percent of them show cytotoxic activity *in vivo* (40). VacA is a protein with 95 kDa molecular weight and comprises two identified domains with 37 and 58 kDa molecular weight, respectively. Out of the bacterial cell, the subunits of this protein form flower collections, which are composed of 6 or 7 petals (40, 41). After a brief exposure to an acidic envi-

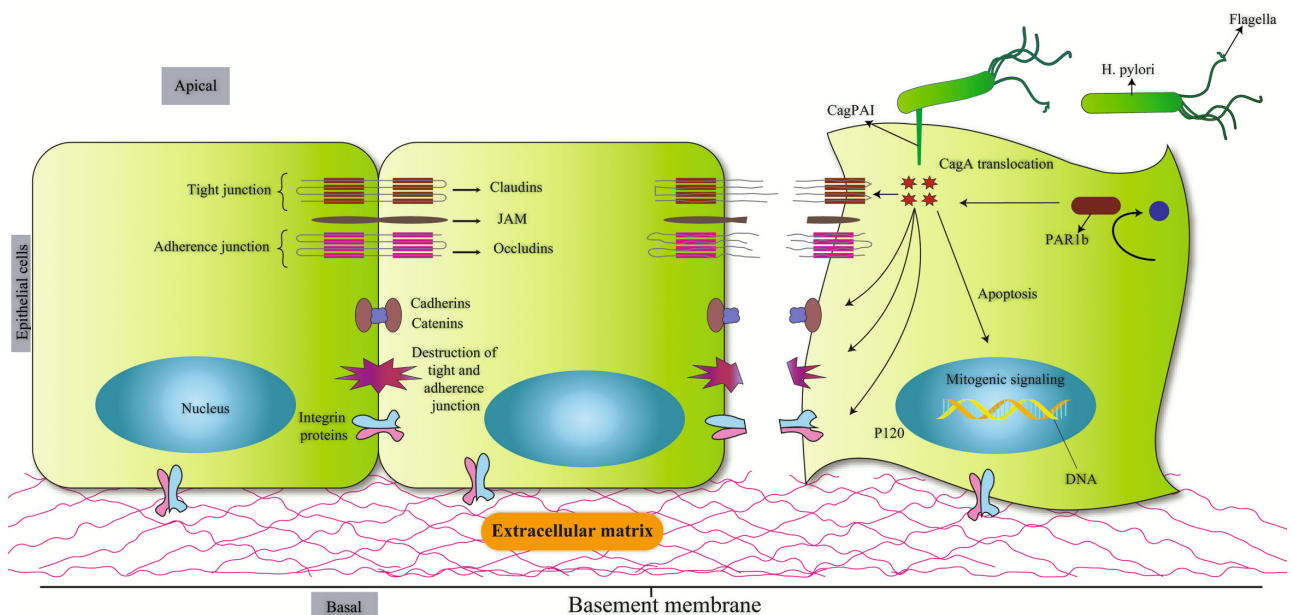


Fig. 2. The effect of CagA on cells, their proliferation and destruction of intercellular connections.

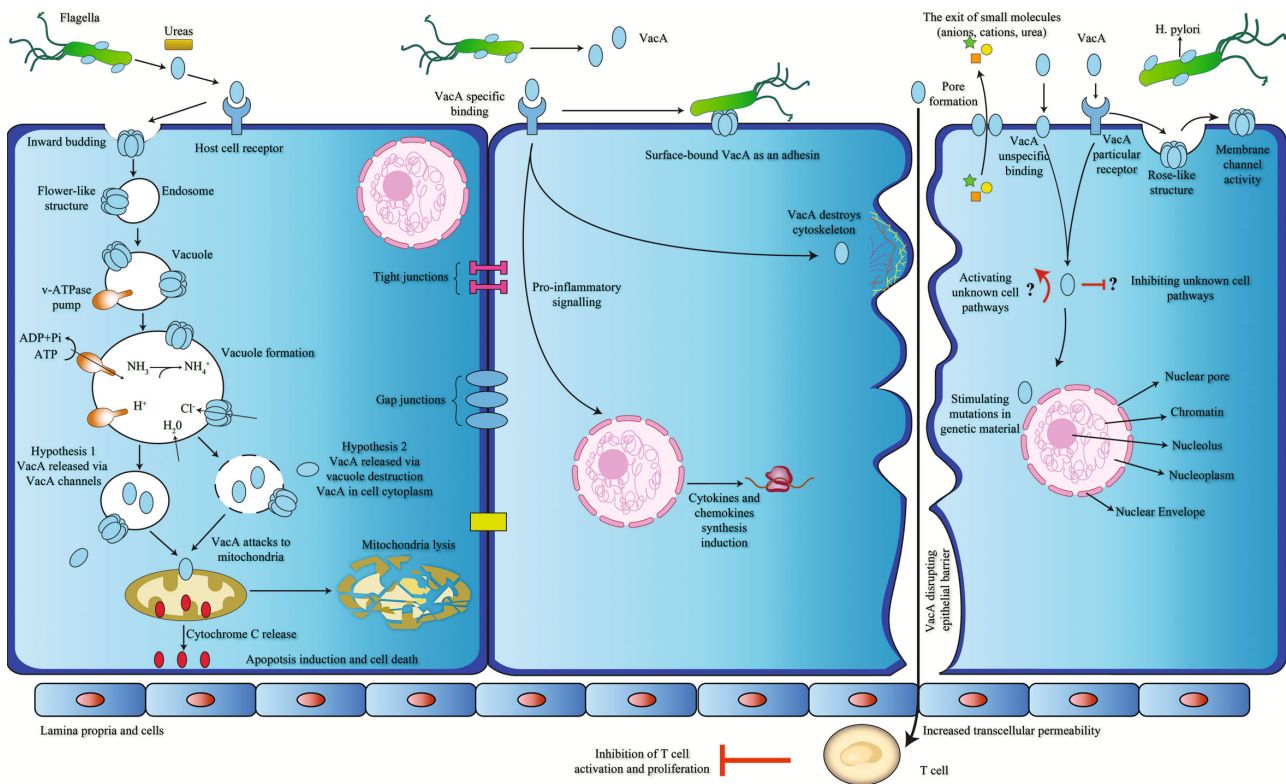


Fig. 3. Various mechanisms of disruption of cell function by VacA: specific and non-specific binding of VacA to host cell, vacuole formation, apoptosis induction, cell cytoskeleton destruction and T cells inhibition are illustrated.

ronment, structural modifications in VacA result in activation of this toxin. As aforesaid, VacA disrupts intracellular membranes and causes vacuoles' formation within the cell and inflammation (40). After connecting to the host cell, it is internalized via the endocytosis process and forms the anion-selective channels in the endosomal membrane. This factor stimulates the production of vacuoles and ultimately leads to cell death by apoptosis. It also increases the permeability of the epithelial cells, and this process provides more nutrients for bacterial growth. In other words, this toxin can cause the erosion of epithelial cells (41). In this virulent protein, 34 kDa domain is able to exert harmful activity, but 58 kDa domain is involved in connection to the target cell. Gene sequence of 58 kDa domain is preserved among the various subspecies, but allelic diversity is observed in the middle area of 58 kDa domain. It causes the secretion of acid hydrolytic enzymes in the extracellular environment. VacA enables *H. pylori* to escape from lysosomal degradation processes in target cells (42). This toxin is vital for intracellular survival but not crucial for the initial invasion.

VacA genome has two different gene placements. These two areas are Signal sequence (S) and median area (M) (which is exceptionally heterogeneous and is varying in different strains and diverse regions of the world) (31). These two genes have mosaic structure, and both of them have two alleles; the S area

contains S1 and S2 alleles, while the M area alleles include M1 and M2. Strains that genotypically are S1/M1 express high toxicity against cells, while strains S2/M2 do not synthesize an active toxin. Iranian strains often have S1/M2 genotype, which is not as dangerous as S1/M1 strains. VacA cytotoxicity causes the vacuolization in the epithelial cells in vitro, and finally but not quickly leads to cell death through releasing cytochrome C from mitochondria (43). Evidence suggests the presence of VacA enhances the risk of peptic ulcer and gastric disorders development (17). Figure 3 demonstrates the hypothesized action mechanism of VacA protein, and its carcinogenic activity.

Outer inflammatory protein A (OipA)

About 4 % of the *H. pylori* genome (significantly more than any other bacterium) has genes encoding outer membrane proteins (which mainly contains outer inflammatory protein A genes). *H. pylori* outer membrane proteins are essential for compliance with the host (44). This bacterium has 32 outer membrane proteins, and these proteins are involved in bacterial pathogenicity. There is a strong relationship between OMP and density of *H. pylori* with gastric mucosal damage, high levels of IL-8 and exudation of neutrophils at the site of inflammation. OipA gene

codes one of the outer membrane proteins and is associated with inflammation occurrence in host cells. It is located at a distance of 100 kb from CagA and PAI on the *H. pylori* chromosome (45). The function of this protein is strongly associated with VacA and CagA molecules. Since OipA probably acts as a binding agent, OipA-including strains have a stronger connection to gastric mucosa (46). Yamaavka et al separated the protein (which has a molecular weight between 33 to 35 kDa) from 97.5 % of patients with gastric ulcer and 70 % of patients with chronic gastritis. It is proved that the HPO638 gene encodes OipA (47). OipA is part of the outer membrane proteins and Hop, one of the first-class family of *Helicobacter pylori* outer membrane proteins. This protein is associated with duodenal ulcer, gastric cancer, and accumulation of neutrophils in patients' pathological lesions (47). This protein expression is under the control of the slipped-strand mispairing mechanism. There is a signal sequence in the N-terminal of this protein that has a controlling role. Gene expression is affected by the addition of C-T bases to the N-terminal of protein. *Helicobacter pylori* usually inactivates its OipA after several pathways in vitro using this mechanism (48). The protein expression is related to the CagA factor, and most of the ON-strains in terms of OipA expression are CagA positive while most of the OFF-strains are CagA negative (49). In a study conducted by Dosambkova et al, the binding-to-cells role for OipA was also reported (50). The outer membrane proteins form numerous pores in the membrane of the target cell. These pores are necessary for the colonization and survival of *H. pylori* and play a crucial role in inflammation occurrence. The created pores cause malfunctions in the performance of cell membranes.

OipA has a synergistic effect with CagE in the production of IL-8 (50). The mode of OipA operation induced secretion of IL-8, which the presence of *Helicobacter pylori* will induce. Secretion of cytokines depends not only on CagPAI because most strains lacking this genetic locus also induce the expression of IL-8 in low-level quantities. *H. pylori* subspecies with CagPAI also have OipA expression. They are significantly associated with ulcers in the duodenum, stomach cancer, and mainly induced secretion of IL-8. OipA gene is located outside of pathogenicity islands. CagA-negative strains are almost babA2 negative and off-OipA with vacA S2/M2 alleles (46, 47). The mechanism of intracellular signaling production of IL-8 by protein OipA has been investigated in recent year. This protein has a considerable influence on the activation and binding of interferon regulatory factor 1 (IRF-1) to the Interferon-stimulated response element (ISRE), which is in the promoter area of the IL-8. It also takes part in the phosphorylation of STAT-1, which is located upstream of IRF-1. The proposed route for the activation of intracellular signals is so that OipA activates STAT-1, and this factor activates IRF-1 and eventually, ISRE factor is activated, respectively. Recent studies have proved that OipA is also involved in activating several transcription factors, including NF-KB, AP-1, ISRE, and CRE. The desired route in the activation of the CRE site in the RANTES promoter is OipA → p38 → ATF-2 → CRE. Also, OipA and cag PAI plays a role in activating the NF – IL-6 site in the RANTES promoter (49–51).

Moreover, OipA and P38 are involved in the induction of IL-18 synthesis in gastric mucosa infected with *Helicobacter pylori* (51). OipA is one of the outer membrane proteins which importance in the induction of inflammation and increased production of IL-8 has been shown; however, there are many unclear aspects of the interaction of this factor with the host (47, 49, 51).

Endotoxin

As other gram-negative bacteria contain endotoxin or lipopolysaccharide, *Helicobacter pylori* outer membrane is essential to maintain bacterium and bacterial interactions with the environment. In comparison to another lipopolysaccharide of gram-negative bacteria, the immunological activity of *Helicobacter pylori* LPS is lower (39, 52–55). *H. pylori* has unusual LPS, which is related to the fatty acid composition that forms the hydrophobic lipid A in the presence of 3-Hydroxy-Octadecanoic acid. LPS of this bacterium is 500–10000 times less toxic than *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella*. Differences in the structure of lipid A are responsible for the low toxicity of this bacteria. The bacterial LPS is critical in decreasing gastric mucin layer thickness. *H. pylori* LPS stops the gastric mucosa glycosylation and converts structures with high molecular weights to structures with low molecular weights (which makes them more sensitive to stomach acid). It stimulates the secretion of pepsinogen, which is unique for the bacterium activity and inhibits parietal cells immunological responses and reduces the gastric acid secretion (53). The bacterial LPS stimulates the release of IL-8, IL-6, IL-10, and IL-12 and also induces the production of TNF- α and PGE2 (48–51). Mobarez et al. in 2014 indicated the relationship between the hopQ II gene and gastric duodenal disease in strains separated from patients (53). By investigating the presence of HomB in *H. pylori*, Talebi et al in 2011 proved that the presence of this gene without the presence of CagA gene could also be associated with stomach cancer (55). By studying people who suffer from *H. pylori* infection and investigating the presence of the iceA gene, Mobarez et al research in 2010 testified that this gene could be associated with ulcer patients (56). *H. pylori* has several virulence factors but their role in the pathogenesis compared to the listed factors is lower. Synergism of all virulent factors, including BAbA (Blood group antigen binding adhesion), Sialic acid-binding adhesin A and HOPP (all as adhesions factors), Adherence lipoprotein (a lipoprotein with 53 kDa weight), accelerating factor of duodenum, (dupA), heat shock proteins such as Gro-EI 58-2-kDa (HspB) Gro-Es B-kDa (HspA), disulfide reductase enzyme, purines, mucin, alcohol dehydrogenase, polyphosphatase kinase (PPK), RO53, FLdA, Locus Jhpo47-Jhpo949, gamma-glutamyl peptidase is very effective in carcinogenesis of *H. pylori* (54, 57–61). These factors may have a more diminutive role in cancer development or may be an unimportant treatment option; however, the simultaneous presence of these factors is efficient in bacterium pathogenesis (62).

Helicobacter pylori and cancer treatment

Although various treatment methods are available for cancer therapy, surgery is still the first cancer treatment, especially breast

cancer (12). Common treatments of cancers may reduce tumor size but are transient and usually do not positively affect patient survival, and there is a risk of disease recurrence (63). Standard treatment methods are based on the hypothesis that a tumor is a population of homogeneous cells. Conventional treatment strategies are designed to target cells with rapid and differentiated proliferation (64). Nevertheless, since more than a century ago, cancer has been morphologically recognized as a heterogeneous population of different cells (65). Functional differences have also been considered for various cells in the tumors (64). In fact, cancer tissue includes small subpopulations of cells with particular properties (66), and these cells are responsible for the tumorigenesis, metastasis, recurrence of disease and resistance to current treatments (67). They also have the remarkable potential to induce cancer and tumors in mice with defective immune systems. Such diversifications make a finding of a general therapeutic strategy for definitive treatment hard. Due to the aggressive nature of cancer and complex mechanisms involved in its progression, traditional treatments such as surgery, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy are ineffective in many cases (65, 68). High side effects, low specificity and likely recurrence of disease are limitations of the mentioned methods. Therefore, the demand for more effective and specific alternative treatments with fewer side effects has been dramatically highlighted. Hence, the use of bacterial products, including bacterial proteins and toxins and so on in cancer treatment, has been considered (67).

The studies on several virulence factors of *Helicobacter pylori* proved their direct cytotoxic effects on tumors and their immunomodulatory impacts on immunity cells. Some of these factors that result in the immune system's activation are followed by a cascade of intracellular pathways and cytokine production that ultimately causes the activation of immune system cells. So, these virulence factors can indirectly cause the death of cancer cells. These microbial agents can include several pathogenic factors such as urease enzyme, flagella structure, and HP-NAP (69). These peptides or proteins with immunomodulatory properties can increase the activity of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) system in various cells and cause the activation of macrophages and dendritic cells. The activated macrophages and dendritic cells engulf pathogenic structures and are able to form a more efficient response against cancerous or bacterial cells. In addition to increasing the immune system's response, these proteins can also guide the immune system to create specific responses. This strategy promotes the desired treatment efficiency in the induction of immune responses against tumors, which is vital in advancing medical applications and cancer treatment (70).

The role of *Helicobacter OipA* protein in cancer treatment

VacA and OipA, and even LPS have a direct cytotoxic effect on cancer cells. LPS of this bacterium can bind to Laminin, which causes acute gastritis and induction apoptosis in gastric epithelial cells. In this type of apoptosis, caspase-8 and mitochondria play an essential role (71). OipA is one of the relevant candidate factors for cancer treatment. The *H. pylori* outer membrane protein was

discovered in 2000. In a study, Mavka et al found that less IL-8 is produced by *Helicobacter pylori* which has some mutations in the gene that encodes this protein. Hence, this protein was called OipA or outer inflammatory protein (28). Diverse mechanisms have been considered for *H. pylori* to interfere with the cell cycle and create apoptosis or stimulate proliferation. Factors in epithelial cells that changed under the influence of this bacterium and disrupted the cell cycle's natural process include mutations in the P53 protein, some modifications in Bcl-2 family proteins, increased telomerase activity, increased expression of receptor Fas, and increased NF- κ B activity (72). Many proteins in the Bcl-2 family have a significant role in cell survival or apoptosis. However, two major proteins, including Bax and Bcl-2, have a fundamental role in activating or preventing apoptosis, respectively (73). In some studies, the effect of *H. pylori* infection on the Bcl-2 family has been investigated (72, 73). This family of proteins has a critical role in the pathogenesis of *Helicobacter pylori*, and it can be stated that the increased activity of Bax could lead to apoptosis. It is indicated that increased activity of Bcl-2 increases the proliferation and cancer. Soleimani et al., in an investigation, investigated the impacts of recombinant protein OipA on tumor cells and showed that recombinant OipA caused induction of apoptosis and death of cancer cells (28, 74). Due to the vacuole genesis in the cell membrane, the VacA factor can also be considered a compelling candidate, requiring detailed studies in this field. Studies have demonstrated that when human stomach epithelial cells are polluted by multiple toxin doses, cell death occurs after two days. Nevertheless, there was no death in the immortal cell lines exposed to the toxic agents. Oral administration of VacA to rats caused acute ulcers in the epithelium of gastric mucosa cells and led to the destruction of cells.

The role of Hp-NapA *Helicobacter* protein in cancer treatment

Neutrophil-activating factor (HP-NAP) is one of the critical proteins of *H. pylori*. During *H. pylori* growth, HP-NAP molecules are released by the bacterium. Some molecules of this protein remain in the outer membrane of *H. pylori* by attaching to the cell wall. The connected HP-NAP to the bacterial cell surface can be the mediator of bacterial binding to the host cell surface carbohydrates (17, 18). This protein stimulates leukocytes in the lower area of epithelial cells and triggers neutrophils- and macrophages-mediated inflammatory responses. Recent studies show that HP-NAP is capable of stimulating the innate immune system on the one hand and acts as a chemotactic factor, and causes the production of free radicals and chemokines like CXCL8, CCL3, and CCL4 of neutrophils, on the other hand (20, 75). This protein can activate the immune system. As an agonist of TLR2, HP-NAP has immunomodulatory properties and the ability to induce expression of IL-12 and IL-23 in the monocytes and neutrophils. By having the potential to alter immune system responses, the protein alters the phenotype of Th2 to Th1 through the production of interferon-gamma and tumor necrosis factor-alpha. The immune responses against cancer predominantly begin with dendritic cells. Dendritic cells express MHC-I, MHC-II and stimulatory molecules on their

cell membrane and direct immune responses by producing cytokine and chemokine molecules. Soleimani et al. used trimethyl chitosan nanoparticles carrying Hp-NAPA recombinant protein as a candidate for treating breast cancer metastatic model tumor (76, 77). HP-NAPA is recently recognized as a new tool for modulating the immune system and a practical immunotherapy gadget.

Conclusion

H. pylori is an important pathogen and can be investigated from two aspects. On the one hand, the bacterium is the cause of cancer and has pathogenic factors that induce cell proliferation and reproduction. On the other hand, some virulent factors in *H. pylori* stimulate cell apoptosis. In these conditions, factors that induce apoptosis can be used to destroy cancer cells directly. The factors that stimulate the immune system can activate the immune system to attack the cancer cells via cell-mediated processes indirectly. This study results testified that some virulence factors of *H. pylori* might be used as a new tool for cancer treatment strategies in the future.

References

1. Kheirelseid EA, Miller N, Kerin MJ. Molecular biology of colorectal cancer: Review of the literature 2013.
2. El-Hawary AK, Abbas AS, Elsayed AA, Zalata KR. Molecular subtypes of breast carcinoma in Egyptian women: clinicopathological features. Pathology-Research Practice 2012; 208 (7): 382–386.
3. Salhia B, Tapia C, Ishak EA, Gaber S, Berghuis B, Hussain KH et al. Molecular subtype analysis determines the association of advanced breast cancer in Egypt with favorable biology. BMC Women's Health 2011; 11 (1): 1–9.
4. Roy I, Othieno E. Breast carcinoma in Uganda: microscopic study and receptor profile of 45 cases. Arch Pathol Labor Med 2011; 135 (2): 194–199.
5. Kumar S, Kumar A, Dixit VK. Direct detection and analysis of vacA genotypes and cagA gene of *Helicobacter pylori* from gastric biopsies by a novel multiplex polymerase chain reaction assay. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 2008; 62 (4): 366–373.
6. Jemal A, Siegel R, Xu J, Ward E. Cancer statistics, 2010. Cancer J Clin 2010; 60 (5): 277–300.
7. Hohenberger P, Gretschel S. Gastric cancer. Lancet 2003; 362 (9380): 305–315.
8. Soleimani N. The Role of *Helicobacter Pylori* in Gastric Cancer and its Clinical Applications in Cancer Treatment. J Mazandaran Univ Med Sci 2017; 27 (149): 225–238.
9. Soleimani N. The role of *Helicobacter pylori* in gastric cancer and its clinical applications in the treatment of scalp. J Mazandaran Univ Med Sci (JMUMS) 2017; 27 (149).
10. Sokolova O, Bozko PM, Naumann M. *Helicobacter pylori* suppresses glycogen synthase kinase 3 β to promote β -catenin activity. J Biol Chem 2008; 283 (43): 29367–29374.
11. Kraft C, Stack A, Josenhans C, Niehus E, Dietrich G, Correa P et al. Genomic changes during chronic *Helicobacter pylori* infection. J Bacteriol 2006; 188 (1): 249–254.
12. Ueda T, Volinia S, Okumura H, Shimizu M, Taccioli C, Rossi S et al. Relation between microRNA expression and progression and prognosis of gastric cancer: a microRNA expression analysis. Lancet Oncol 2010; 11 (2): 136–146.
13. Beswick EJ, Suarez G, Reyes VE. *H. pylori* and host interactions that influence pathogenesis. World journal of gastroenterology: WJG 2006; 12 (35): 5599.
14. Dubreuil JD, Del Giudice G, Rappuoli R. *Helicobacter pylori* interactions with host serum and extracellular matrix proteins: potential role in the infectious process. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 2002; 66 (4): 617–629.
15. Abadi ATB, Taghvaei T, Mobarez AM, Vaira G, Vaira D. High correlation of babA2-positive strains of *Helicobacter pylori* with the presence of gastric cancer. Intern Emerg Med 2013; 8 (6): 497–501.
16. Al-Ghoul L, Wessler S, Hundertmark T, Krüger S, Fischer W, Wunder C et al. Analysis of the type IV secretion system-dependent cell motility of *Helicobacter pylori*-infected epithelial cells. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2004; 322 (3): 860–866.
17. Gebert B, Fischer W, Weiss E, Hoffmann R, Haas R. *Helicobacter pylori* vacuolating cytotoxin inhibits T lymphocyte activation. Science 2003; 301 (5636): 1099–1102.
18. Hennig EE, Godlewski MM, Butruk E, Ostrowski J. *Helicobacter pylori* VacA cytotoxin interacts with fibronectin and alters HeLa cell adhesion and cytoskeletal organization in vitro. FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol 2005; 44 (2): 143–150.
19. Soleimani N, Mohabati Mobares A, Atyabi F. Investigation of the effect of recombinant Neutrophil activating protein (Hp-NapA) of *Helicobacter pylori* on proliferation and viability by peritoneal macrophage from BALB/c mice. J Arak Univ Med Sci 2015; 18 (1): 43–50.
20. Hornef MW, Bogdan C. The role of epithelial Toll-like receptor expression in host defense and microbial tolerance. J Endotoxin Res 2005; 11 (2): 124–128.
21. Takeda K, Akira S. Toll receptors and pathogen resistance. Cell Microbiol 2003; 5 (3): 143–153.
22. Rad R, Gerhard M, Lang R, Schöniger M, Rösch T, Schepp W et al. The *Helicobacter pylori* blood group antigen-binding adhesin facilitates bacterial colonization and augments a nonspecific immune response. J Immunol 2002; 168 (6): 3033–3041.
23. Yamaoka Y, Ojo O, Fujimoto S, Odenbreit S, Haas R, Gutierrez O et al. *Helicobacter pylori* outer membrane proteins and gastroduodenal disease. Gut 2006; 55 (6): 775–781.
24. Prinz C, Schöniger M, Rad R, Becker I, Keiditsch E, Wagenpfeil S et al. Key importance of the *Helicobacter pylori* adherence factor blood group antigen binding adhesin during chronic gastric inflammation. Cancer Res 2001; 61 (5): 1903–1909.
25. Gerhard M, Lehn N, Neumayer N, Borén T, Rad R, Schepp W et al. Clinical relevance of the *Helicobacter pylori* gene for blood-group antigen-binding adhesin. Proc Nat Acad Sci 1999; 96 (22): 12778–12783.
26. Kamiya S, Yamaguchi H, Osaki T, Taguchi H. A virulence factor of *Helicobacter pylori*: role of heat shock protein in mucosal inflammation after *H. pylori* infection. J Clin Gastroenterol 1998; 27: S35–S39.
27. Lu H, Wu JY, Beswick EJ, Ohno T, Odenbreit S, Haas R et al. Functional and intracellular signaling differences associated with the *Helicobacter pylori* AlpAB adhesin from Western and East Asian strains. J Biol Chem 2007; 282 (9): 6242–6254.

28. Yamaoka Y, Kwon DH, Graham DY. A Mr 34,000 proinflammatory outer membrane protein (oipA) of *Helicobacter pylori*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2000; 97 (13): 7533–7538.
29. Ando T, Peek RM, Lee Y-C, Krishna U, Kusugami K, Blaser MJ. Host cell responses to genotypically similar *Helicobacter pylori* isolates from United States and Japan. *Clin Diagn Labor Immunol* 2002; 9 (1): 167–175.
30. Cover TL, Blaser MJ. *Helicobacter pylori* in health and disease. *Gastroenterology* 2009; 136 (6): 1863–1873.
31. Wang F, Xia P, Wu F, Wang D, Wang W, Ward T et al. *Helicobacter pylori* VacA disrupts apical membrane-cytoskeletal interactions in gastric parietal cells. *J Biol Chem* 2008; 283 (39): 26714–26725.
32. Wong S, Slavcev R. Treating cancer with infection: a review on bacterial cancer therapy. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 2015; 61 (2): 107–112.
33. Nami Y, Abdullah N, Haghsheenas B, Radiah D, Rosli R, Yari Khosroushahi A. A newly isolated probiotic *Enterococcus faecalis* strain from vagina microbiota enhances apoptosis of human cancer cells. *J Appl Microbiol* 2014; 117 (2): 498–508.
34. Barbé S, Van Mellaert L, Anné J. The use of clostridial spores for cancer treatment. *J Appl Microbiol* 2006; 101 (3): 571–578.
35. Sicinschi L, Correa P, Peek R, Camargo M, Piazzuelo M, Romero-Gallo J et al. CagA C-terminal variations in *Helicobacter pylori* strains from Colombian patients with gastric precancerous lesions. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2010; 16 (4): 369–378.
36. Jafarzadeh A, Mirzaee V, AHMAD-BEYGI H, Nemati M, Rezayati MT. Association of the CagA status of *Helicobacter pylori* and serum levels of interleukin (IL)-17 and IL-23 in duodenal ulcer patients. *J Digest Dis* 2009; 10 (2): 107–112.
37. Zeaiter Z, Huynh HQ, Kanyo R, Stein M. CagA of *Helicobacter pylori* alters the expression and cellular distribution of host proteins involved in cell signaling. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 2008; 288 (2): 227–234.
38. Talebkhan Y, Mohammadi M, Mohagheghi MA, Vaziri HR, Hosseini ME, Mohajerani N et al. cagA gene and protein status among Iranian *Helicobacter pylori* strains. *Digest Dis Sci* 2008; 53 (4): 925–932.
39. Moretti E, Collodel G, Mazzi L, Campagna M, Figura N. CagA-positive *Helicobacter pylori* infection and reduced sperm motility, vitality, and normal morphology. *Dis Markers* 2013; 35.
40. Soleimani N, Mobarez AM, Farhangi B. Cloning, expression and purification flagellar sheath adhesion of *Helicobacter pylori* in *Escherichia coli* host as a vaccination target. *Clin Exp Vaccine Res* 2016; 5 (1): 19.
41. Handa O, Naito Y, Yoshikawa T. CagA protein of *Helicobacter pylori*: a hijacker of gastric epithelial cell signaling. *Biochem Pharmacol* 2007; 73 (11): 1697–1702.
42. Hatakeyama M. The role of *Helicobacter pylori* CagA in gastric carcinogenesis. *Internat J Hematol* 2006; 84 (4): 301–308.
43. D'Elia MM, Montecucco C, de Bernard M. VacA and HP-NAP, Ying and Yang of *Helicobacter pylori*-associated gastric inflammation. *Clin Chim Acta* 2007; 381 (1): 32–38.
44. Kudo T, Nurgaliev ZZ, Conner ME, Crawford S, Odenbreit S, Haas R et al. Correlation between *Helicobacter pylori* OipA protein expression and oipA gene switch status. *J Clin Microbiol* 2004; 42 (5): 2279–2281.
45. Ando T, Peek R, Pride D, Levine S, Takata T, Lee Y-C et al. Polymorphisms of *Helicobacter pylori* HP0638 reflect geographic origin and correlate with cagA status. *J Clin Microbiol* 2002; 40 (1): 239–246.
46. Jiang Z, Huang A-L, Tao X-H, Wang P-L. Construction and characterization of bivalent vaccine candidate expressing HspA and Mr18000 OMP from *Helicobacter pylori*. *World J Gastroenterol* 2003; 9 (8): 1756.
47. Yamaoka Y, Kikuchi S, El-Zimaity HM, Gutierrez O, Osato MS, Graham DY. Importance of *Helicobacter pylori* oipA in clinical presentation, gastric inflammation, and mucosal interleukin 8 production. *Gastroenterology* 2002; 123 (2): 414–424.
48. Sugimoto M, Yamaoka Y. Virulence factor genotypes of *Helicobacter pylori* affect cure rates of eradication therapy. *Arch Immunol Ther Exp* 2009; 57 (1): 45–56.
49. Tabassam FH, Graham DY, Yamaoka Y. OipA plays a role in *Helicobacter pylori*-induced focal adhesion kinase activation and cytoskeletal re-organization. *Cell Microbiol* 2008; 10 (4): 1008–1020.
50. Dossumbekova A, Prinz C, Mages J, Lang R, Kusters JG, Van Vliet AH et al. *Helicobacter pylori* HopH (OipA) and bacterial pathogenicity: genetic and functional genomic analysis of hopH gene polymorphisms. *J Infect Dis* 2006; 194 (10): 1346–1355.
51. Matteo MJ, Armitano RI, Granados G, Wonaga AD, Sanches C, Olmos M et al. *Helicobacter pylori* oipA, vacA and dupA genetic diversity in individual hosts. *J Med Microbiol* 2010; 59 (1): 89–95.
52. Ohnishi N, Yuasa H, Tanaka S, Sawa H, Miura M, Matsui A et al. Transgenic expression of *Helicobacter pylori* CagA induces gastrointestinal and hematopoietic neoplasms in mouse. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2008; 105 (3): 1003–1008.
53. Talebi Bezmin Abadi A, Mohabbati Mobarez A. High prevalence of *Helicobacter pylori* hopQ II genotype isolated from Iranian patients with gastroduodenal disorders. *J Pathogens* 2014; 2014.
54. Mao H-Y, Fang P-C, Ye S-J. Analysis of babA2 cagA and vacA genotypes of *Helicobacter pylori* in chronic gastritis and peptic ulcer. *J Zhejiang Univ Med Sci* 2003; 32 (1): 29–32.
55. Abadi ATB, Rafiei A, Ajami A, Hosseini V, Taghvaei T, Jones KR et al. *Helicobacter pylori* homB, but not cagA, is associated with gastric cancer in Iran. *J Clin Microbiol* 2011; 49 (9): 3191–3197.
56. Taghvaei T. An investigation of the prevalence of iceA genotypes in *Helicobacter pylori* strains isolated from peptic ulcer patients in Sari (2008). *Arak Med Univ J* 2010; 13 (3): 84–90.
57. Douraghi M, Mohammadi M, Oghalaie A, Abdirad A, Mohagheghi MA, Hosseini ME et al. dupA as a risk determinant in *Helicobacter pylori* infection. *J Med Microbiol* 2008; 57 (5): 554–562.
58. Lim C-Y, Lee K-H, Cho M-J, Chang M-W, Kim S-Y, Myong N-H et al. Detection of *Helicobacter pylori* in gastric mucosa of patients with gastroduodenal diseases by PCR-restriction analysis using the RNA polymerase gene (rpoB). *J Clin Microbiol* 2003; 41 (7): 3387–3391.
59. Lee K-H, Cho M-J, Yamaoka Y, Graham DY, Yun Y-J, Woo S-Y et al. Alanine-threonine polymorphism of *Helicobacter pylori* RpoB is correlated with differential induction of interleukin-8 in MKN45 cells. *J Clin Microbiol* 2004; 42 (8): 3518–3524.
60. Sokić-Milutinović A, Todorović VN, Milosavljević T. Pathogenesis of *Helicobacter pylori* infection: Bacterium and host relationship. *Srpski Arh Celokupno Lek* 2004; 132 (9–10): 340–344.
61. Cover TL. The vacuolating cytotoxin of *Helicobacter pylori*. *Mol Microbiol* 1996; 20 (2): 241–246.
62. Bai Y, Zhang Y-L, Chen Y, Jin J-F, Zhang Z-S, Zhou D-Y. Cloning and expression and immunogenicity of *Helicobacter pylori* BabA2 gene. *World J Gastroenterol* 2004; 10 (17): 2560.

63. Stockler M, Wilcken N, Ghersi D, Simes RJ. Systematic reviews of chemotherapy and endocrine therapy in metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Treat Rev* 2000; 26 (3): 151–168.
64. Tang C, Ang BT, Pervaiz S. Cancer stem cell: target for anti-cancer therapy. *FASEB J* 2007; 21 (14): 3777–3785.
65. Hope KJ, Jin L, Dick JE. Acute myeloid leukemia originates from a hierarchy of leukemic stem cell classes that differ in self-renewal capacity. *Nature Immunol* 2004; 5 (7): 738–743.
66. Tu S-M, Lin S-H, Logothetis CJ. Stem-cell origin of metastasis and heterogeneity in solid tumours. *Lancet Oncol* 2002; 3 (8): 508–513.
67. Tan BT, Park CY, Ailles LE, Weissman IL. The cancer stem cell hypothesis: a work in progress. *Labor Invest* 2006; 86 (12): 1203–1207.
68. Clarke M, Je D, Dirks P, eaves CJ, Jamieson CH, Jones DL, Visvader J, Weissman IL, Wahl GM (2006) Cancer stem cells – perspectives on current status and future directions: aaCr workshop on cancer stem cells. *Cancer Res* 66: 9339–9344.
69. Ramis IB, Fonseca TL, de Moraes EP, Fernandes MS, Mendoza-Sassi R, Rodrigues O et al. Molecular Basis of pathogenicity in *Helicobacter pylori* clinical isolates. *J Clin Microbiol* 2010; 48 (10): 3776–3778.
70. Staroverov S, Aksinenko N, Gabalov K, Vasilenko O, Vidyasheva I, Shchyogolev SY et al. Effect of gold nanoparticles on the respiratory activity of peritoneal macrophages. *Gold Bull* 2009; 42 (2): 153–156.
71. Teymournejad O, Mobarez AM, Hassan ZM, Moazzeni SM, Ahmadabad HN. In vitro suppression of dendritic cells by *Helicobacter pylori* OipA. *Helicobacter* 2014; 19 (2): 136–143.
72. Zhang Z-W, Farthing MJ. Molecular mechanisms of *H. pylori* associated gastric carcinogenesis. *World J Gastroenterol* 1999; 5 (5): 369.
73. Zhang H, Fang D-C, Wang R-Q, Yang S-M, Liu H-F, Luo Y-H. Effect of *Helicobacter pylori* infection on expressions of Bcl-2 family members in gastric adenocarcinoma. *World J Gastroenterol* 2004; 10 (2): 227.
74. Soleimani N, Mohabati Mobarez A, Teymournejad O, Borhani K. Cytotoxicity effect of recombinant outer membrane inflammatory protein (oipA) of *Helicobacter pylori* on a breast cancer cell line. *Pathobiol Res* 2014; 17 (3): 57–66.
75. Soleimani N, Mobarez AM. Effect of recombinant neutrophil-activating protein (HP-NAP) of *Helicobacter pylori* on peritoneal macrophages. *Iranian J Publ Health* 2014; 43 (2): 234.
76. Soleimani N, Mohabati-Mobarez A, Atyabi F, Hasan-Saraf Z, Haghghi MA. Preparation of chitosan nanoparticles carrying recombinant *Helicobacter pylori* neutrophil-activating protein. *J Mazandaran Univ Med Sci* 2014; 23 (2): 134–144.
77. Farhangi B, Etyabi F, Hassan Saraf Z. VEGF and MMP-9 Gene Expression Caused by Treatment with *Helicobacter Pylori* Neutrophil-activating Recombinant Protein in a Breast Cancer Model. *J Babol Univ Med Sci* 2015; 17 (3): 13–19.

Received October 13, 2021.
Accepted November 23, 2021.