

# VITAMIN B<sub>12</sub> STATUS OF THAI WOMEN WITH NEOPLASIA OF THE CERVIX UTERI

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**Abstract.** The vitamin B<sub>12</sub> statuses of Thai women with high- and low-grade cervical dysplasia were studied and compared with women with normal cytological smears. Serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intakes were assessed, as well as demographic characteristics, sexual behavior, reproductive and menstrual history, exogenous hormone use, personal and familial medical history, smoking habit, and other risk factors. The presence or absence of genital HPV DNA was determined by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> levels in women with normal cytological smears were significantly higher than those with both high- and low-grade cervical dysplasia ( $p < 0.001$ ). Low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> serum levels were significantly statistically associated with increased low-grade (OR = 4.08; 95% CI = 1.41-11.79;  $p < 0.05$ ) and increased high-grade cervical dysplasia risk (OR = 3.53; 95% CI = 1.24-10.04;  $p < 0.05$ ) for the highest vs lowest quartiles of serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. This study indicated a relationship between low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status and increased risk of cervical cancer.

## INTRODUCTION

Cervical cancer is an important health problem for women. Despite a substantial decrease in the incidence and mortality of cervical carcinoma over the past 40 years, it remains a significant health problem in Thailand (Siriraj Cancer Center, 1999). Identified risk factors for cervical neoplasia suggest a multifactorial etiology, *ie* parity, oral contraceptive use, multiple sexual partners, early age at first intercourse, cigarette smoking, with several human papillomaviruses (HPV) as the central cause (Miller, 1992; IARC, 1995). Evidence suggests that various factors, including diet, are likely to contribute to the risk of persistent HPV infection and the progression of neoplasia to cervical cancer. Research of the past two decades has suggested a role for nutrients in preventing cancer. Several studies have identified various dietary substances with antioxidant properties that have an inhibitory effect on the development and/or progression of cancer. Moreover, these studies have shown that many substances *eg* carotenoid, lycopenes, vitamins A, E, and C, selenium and phenol-containing dietary substances, have effects that extend beyond their antioxidant properties (Liebler and McClure, 1996; Potishman and Brinton, 1996; Glade, 1999; Willis and

Wians, 2003).

Low vitamin C and carotenoid statuses are associated fairly consistently with both cervical cancer and precursor, whereas the results of vitamin E status are less constituent (Buckley *et al*, 1992; Van Eenwyk *et al*, 1992; Giuliano *et al*, 1997). It has been hypothesized that low folate may modulate cancer risk, notably the risk of cervical and colorectal cancer, breast cancer, including a rapidly growing number of other cancer sites, such as the lung, pancreas, stomach, esophagus, blood-forming organs, skin, and endometrium (Glynn and Albanes 1994; Duthie, 1999). In cervical cancer associated with HPV, it is suggested that folate deficiency facilitates the incorporation of viral genetic material into the host cells. A preliminary trial in smokers with precancerous lesions of the lung indicated that folic acid (10 mg) and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (500 µg) supplementation may be useful in the treatment of this kind of dysplasia (Basu and Dickerson, 1996; Heimburger *et al*, 1988). Shannon *et al* (2002) found a high intake of food rich in vitamin A, particularly high retinal foods, were associated with a reduced risk of *in situ* cervical dysplasia and invasive cervical cancer in Thai women, but no association between folate intake and the risk of this disease has been substantiated.

A relationship between low folate status and risk of cervical cancer was found in our study with the same study group (Kwanbunjan *et al*, 2005). In this study we conducted an association between vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status and risk of cervical neoplasia in Thai women. The study population was out-patients registered at the National Cancer Institute, Bangkok, Bangkok Metropolitan

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Subjects**

Women, aged 17-70 years, who obtained gynecological examinations and Papanicolaou (Pap) smear outcomes constituted the screening basis for identifying healthy controls and cases. All cases were defined with positive Pap smear and obtained additional colposcopy and biopsy examinations after a repeat positive Pap smear, whereas control subjects in this study were screened as the subset of women free from any prior gynecologic disease or known dysfunction, and particularly found negative by Pap smear and had no other serious illness.

**Study methods**

Heparinized blood samples from all of the studied groups were collected to determine hemoglobin and hematocrit. Serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and folate were measured in duplicate with radio-binding assay using commercial kits (Dualcount Solid Phase No Boil Assay for Folate, Diagnostic Products Corporation DPC, Los Angeles). Well-trained academic staff conducted interviews with structured questionnaires to obtain detailed information on demographic characteristics, sexual behavior, reproductive and menstrual history, exogenous hormone use, personal and familial medical history, smoking and diet. Twenty-four hour recall was used to estimate vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intake, and was calculated by the computer program WINNBIS 1997, the food composition database was provided by the Nutrition Division, Department of Health, Ministry of Public Health (2001) and the Folate Food Table of Areekul (1986). The subjects were also asked to complete the 85-item Food Frequency Questionnaire. Cervical smear cytology obtained for histological diagnosis and colposcopy directed biopsy investigations provided confirmation. A physician performed a cervicovaginal scraping for all subjects for test cells for the existence of genital human papillomavirus DNA using polymerase chain reaction (PCR).

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analyses were conducted using Strata version 5.0 for Windows. Correlations were measured with Spearman Rank correlation coefficient Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance and multiple comparison were used to compare characteristic variable medians. The odds ratio (OR) was the measure of association used to estimate the relative risk of cervical cancer. The highest quartile was used as the referent, or

Table 1  
Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status and hematological parameters of the study group.

Variable	Low-grade			High-grade			Control				
	Median (range)	95%CI	n	p <sup>a</sup>	Median (range)	95%CI	n	p <sup>a</sup>	Median (range)	95%CI	n
Serum Vitamin B <sub>12</sub> (pmol/l)	279.97 (12.68-806.47)	264.74-371.42	44	0.000	292.38 (47.15- 910.75)	294.25-388.62	70	0.000	445.22 (75.90-1491.14)	428.92-529.40	95
Vitamin B <sub>12</sub> intake (µg/d)	3.20 (0.44-19.20)	3.08-5.10	44	0.000	3.60 (0.29-10.92)	3.50-4.84	70	0.000	1.97 (0-38.87)	1.98-4.21	95
Hb(g/l)	129.5 (100.0-152.0)	123.6-131.4	44	0.791	128.0 (71.0-148.0)	120.9-129.1	69	0.460	129.5 (81.0-160.0)	123.6-130.7	95
Hct	38.8 (31.0-44.0)	37.2-39.4	44	0.574	38.0 (24.0-44.0)	36.6-38.8	69	0.055	39.8 (27.1-46.0)	38.0-39.8	95

Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance and multiple comparison; <sup>a</sup>p-value for comparison of case and control group; NS between low and high grade CIN in serum Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, Hb, Hct; and NS between control and low; control and high grade CIN in Hb, Hct

comparison group. Logistic regression was used to obtain maximum likelihood estimates of the OR and 95% confidence intervals (CI), while adjusting for potential confounders. The comparison of food frequency among the study groups was performed by chi-square.

## RESULTS

The study groups were compared; the case group was divided into high- and low-grade CIN according to Pap smear classification. Serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, daily vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intake and hematological data were expressed as median, range and 95% confidence interval (CI), as shown in Table 1. The serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> levels of both case groups were significantly lower than the control group. By contrast, the daily vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intake was significantly higher than the control group. The medians for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> for all study groups was >150 pmol/l, the cut-off point suggested by WHO (1972). The criterion for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency is a serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> level lower than this cut-off point. However, the percentages of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency in both case groups were relatively high, and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency was found to be 11.27% in high grade CIN and 18.18% in low grade CIN, whereas only 3.16% was found in the control group. Hemoglobin and hematocrit showed no statistical difference among the study groups. The dietary reference intake for Thais (2003) is recommended as 2.4 µg/d for male and female adults (Nutrition Division, Department of Health, Ministry of Public Health, 2003). The socioeconomic levels and educational backgrounds of the control group were considerably higher than both case groups; hence, they had better jobs and earned more. Most of the subjects did not smoke and there were no significant differences between the control and case groups. Regarding the reproductive risk factors of the case groups, contraceptive use was markedly higher, more had sexual intercourse and gave birth earlier, and were more likely to have a number of sexual partners, than the control group. The incidence of abortion among the case groups was not significantly different from the control. The percentage of HPV infection confirmed positive was higher in both cases, and cases with high-grade CIN were statistically higher than the control group (p=0.010).

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is a water-soluble vitamin, found only in animal foods. Table 2 shows the vitamin B<sub>12</sub> food sources consumed by the study group. There were no significant differences in these food sources among the study groups, except for fish, which the control group consumed much more frequently than both case groups. The Odds ratios (OR) with the

multivariate-adjusted model were calculated and the results are shown in Table 3. The risk of low-grade CIN was markedly elevated in the lower class serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> tertile compared with the highest serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> tertile (serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> = 276.62-452.36 pmol/l, OR=3.11, 95%CI=1.04-9.28 and serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> <276.62 pmol/l, OR=4.08, 95%CI=1.41-11.79). Likewise, the high-grade CIN group with lower serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> indicated increased cervical dysplasia risk, but the OR in the lowest class serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> tertile was slightly less (serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> = 276.62-452.36 pmol/l, OR=2.82, 95%CI=1.0-8.25 and serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> <276.62 pmol/l, OR=3.53, 95%CI=1.24-10.04). Statistical significance was also found in the Odds ratios (OR) with the multivariate-adjusted model of low and high class dietary vitamin B<sub>12</sub>.

## DISCUSSION

Our findings indicated a relationship between low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status and risk of cervical change in this study group, although not found in other cervical cancer studies (Butterworth *et al*, 1992; Thomson *et al*, 2000). Nevertheless, population-based observations that have implicated diminished vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status as a potential risk factor for certain cancers are generally recent. The animal experimental model of Choi *et al* (2004) suggested that a vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficient diet, which was of insufficient severity to cause anemia or illness, created aberrations in both base substitution and methylation of colonic DNA, which might increase susceptibility to carcinogenesis. Lower plasma levels of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> were identified as an independent risk factor in large epidemiologic studies of breast cancer (Wu *et al*, 1999; Zhang, 2003); in addition, in an examination of lung tissue from squamous cell carcinomas compared with adjacent normal tissue, tissue concentrations of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> were diminished in the carcinoma (Piyathilake *et al*, 2000). Evidence to date for such a relation in the colorectum is modest, but suggestive. A population-based cohort study observed that patients with pernicious anemia had a fourfold increased risk for developing colorectal adenocarcinoma, but only in the 5 years after initial diagnosis (*ie*, the period immediately after correction of their vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency) (Talley *et al*, 1989). More recently, a large prospective cohort study observed that the occurrence of cancer in the proximal colon was significantly lower among those with both high folate and high vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intakes, an effect not observed with high folate intake alone (Harnack *et al*, 2002).

Both case groups had significantly lower serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> levels than the control group and the percentages were higher, whereas the daily intake

Table 2  
Frequency of animal foods as vitamin B<sub>12</sub> sources consumed by the study group.

Food/frequency	Low grade CIN			High grade CIN			Control	
	No.	%	p <sup>a</sup>	No.	%	p <sup>a</sup>	No.	%
<b>Pork</b>		0.114			0.008			
Every day	9	20.5		1	1.4		30	31.6
Every 2-3 days	24	54.5		12	17.1		49	51.6
Every week	4	9.1		34	48.6		8	8.4
Every month	4	9.1		11	15.7		6	6.3
Several months	1	2.3		12	17.1		2	2.1
Do not eat	2	4.5		-	-		-	-
n	44			70			95	
<b>Beef</b>			0.918			0.321		
Every day	1	2.3		-	-		2	2.1
Every 2-3 days	2	4.5		3	4.2		5	5.3
Every week	2	4.5		5	7.0		4	4.2
Every month	5	11.4		13	18.3		19	20.0
Several months	6	13.6		3	4.2		6	6.3
Do not eat	28	63.6		46	64.8		59	62.1
n	44			70			95	
<b>Poultry</b>		0.539			0.565			
Every day	-	-		-	-		-	-
Every 2-3 days	20	45.5		1	1.4		3	3.2
Every week	12	27.3		30	42.3		39	41.1
Every month	5	11.4		15	21.1		28	29.5
Several months	3	6.8		23	32.4		16	16.8
Do not eat	4	9.1		1	1.4		9	9.5
n	44			70			95	
<b>Fish</b>		0.023			0.002			
Every day	5	11.4		6	8.5		27	28.4
Every 2-3 days	28	63.6		49	69.0		53	55.8
Every week	7	15.9		7	9.9		8	8.4
Every month	3	6.8		5	7.0		4	4.2
Several months	1	2.3		1	1.4		2	2.1
Do not eat	-	-		2	2.8		1	1.1
n	44			70			95	
<b>Shrimp</b>		0.081			0.884			
Every day	2	4.5		-	-		-	-
Every 2-3 days	5	11.4		13	18.3		25	26.3
Every week	9	20.5		7	9.9		18	18.9
Every month	21	47.7		37	52.1		42	44.2
Several months	5	11.4		5	7.0		7	7.4
Do not eat	2	4.5		8	11.3		3	3.2
n	44			70			95	
<b>Squid</b>		0.954			0.043			
Every day	3	6.8		10	14.1		-	-
Every 2-3 days	5	11.4		9	12.7		12	12.6
Every week	10	22.7		38	53.5		20	21.1
Every month	15	34.1		8	11.3		38	40.0
Several months	6	13.6		5	7.0		9	9.5
Do not eat	5	11.4		-	-		16	16.8
n	44			70			95	

<sup>a</sup>p-value for the chi-square test for a difference between case and control

Table 3  
Relative risk (OR) and 95% confidence interval (95% CI) of the study group in relation to vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status.

Variable	Cases/ controls	Low grade CIN OR (95%CI)	Cases/ controls	High grade CIN OR (95%CI)
<b>Serum vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (pmol/l)</b>				
> 452.36	8/46	1	16/46	1
276.62-452.36	15/30	3.11 (1.04-9.28)	24/30	2.82 (1.0-8.25)
<276.62	21/19	4.08 (1.41-11.79)	31/19	3.53 (1.24-10.04)
Trend OR (p)		0.026		0.048
<b>Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> intake (µg/d)</b>				
> 4.58	14/12	1	26/12	1
1.22-4.58	25/48	0.43 (0.14-1.33)	32/48	0.28 (0.09-0.85)
<1.22	5/35	0.11 (0.02-0.48)	12/35	0.1 (0.02-0.38)
Trend OR (p)		0.013		0.004

OR adjusted for age, sexual partner, frequency of sexual activity, age at first intercourse and first child, contraceptive use, socioeconomic status, HPV infection and serum folate.

of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> was statistically higher. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency or low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> levels can be found in strict vegetarians or vegans, but none of this study group practiced vegetarianism. Low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status may be due to low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> absorption and its bioavailability in some groups with cervical dysplasia. Failure of B<sub>12</sub> absorption may result from atrophy of the gastric mucosa with evidence of IF deficiency, while some patients have antibodies that react with IF. Situations such as chronic gastritis, gastrectomy, iron deficiency and thyroid dysfunction could affect IF secretion, leading to low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and deficiency of this vitamin (Basu and Dickerson, 1996). The major limitation of our study was that we did not investigate vitamin B<sub>12</sub> absorption and its bioavailability.

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency is often accompanied by folate deficiency. In the same instance as folate deficiency, vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency causes hematological damage resulting from lack of adequate N<sup>5</sup>N<sup>10</sup>-methyl FH<sub>4</sub>, which delivers its methyl group to deoxyuridylylate to synthesize thymidylate, and thus to synthesize DNA. Another possible interrelationship of folate and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> appears to be vitamin B<sub>12</sub> aiding in the cellular retention of folate. The decreased synthesis of folypoly glutamates, folate tissue storage, has been reported to be associated with vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency (Shane and Stokstad, 1985; Basu and Dickerson, 1996). Our study with the same study group indicated that low folate status was related to the risk of cervical change (Kwanbunjan *et al.*, 2005). This study also suggested that promotion of cervical dysplasia may result from low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and folate status.

In conclusion, besides risky sexual behaviors, smoking, contraceptive use, HPV infection and low folate status as potential risk factors for cervical cancer, low vitamin B<sub>12</sub> status was found to be associated with the risk of cervical dysplasia in Thai women in this study. Thai women should be educated and encouraged to consume more foods with available folate and vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, as well as other antioxidant vitamins.

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