



Universiteit
Leiden
The Netherlands

Early diagnosis and management of celiac disease in childhood

Meijer, C.R.

Citation

Meijer, C. R. (2023, January 25). *Early diagnosis and management of celiac disease in childhood*. Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/1887/3512971>

Version: Publisher's Version

License: [Licence agreement concerning inclusion of doctoral thesis in the Institutional Repository of the University of Leiden](#)

Downloaded from: <https://hdl.handle.net/1887/3512971>

Note: To cite this publication please use the final published version (if applicable).

1

**General introduction
and outline of the thesis**

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Celiac disease (CD) is a chronic immune-mediated systemic disorder elicited by the ingestion of gluten containing cereals (among others wheat, rye and barley) from the normal diet in genetically susceptible individuals. CD is characterised by a variable combination of gluten-dependent clinical manifestations, CD specific antibodies, HLA-DQ2 or HLA-DQ8 haplotypes and enteropathy (1). CD may present with a large variety of nonspecific signs and symptoms. It is important to diagnose CD not only in children with obvious gastrointestinal symptoms but also in children with a less clear clinical picture (or without complaints) because the disease may have negative health consequences. However, one of the greatest challenges in childhood is to diagnose the disease timely and to manage it adequately.

Epidemiology

The genotypes HLA-DQ2 or HLA-DQ8 coded by chromosome 6, present in 40% of the general population, is necessary but not sufficient for CD to develop. The prevalence of CD has doubled in the past 50 years and currently affects about 1% of the world's population (2-7). Despite the increasing prevalence of CD, the rate of diagnosis has increased more slowly. The prevalence of undiagnosed CD remains substantial (5, 8-10). Because of the multitude of symptoms associated with CD, it is difficult to diagnose promptly and accurately. In addition, the clinical manifestation of CD has changed dramatically in the last decades from symptoms of malabsorption in childhood to milder manifestations or may even have no gastro-intestinal problems at all. Extra intestinal manifestations are more often presented at the time of diagnosis. Patients with atypical or nonspecific symptoms often report a delay in diagnosis of CD that may last for years (11) or even worse, CD remains unrecognized and, therefore, untreated (12-14). Untreated disease is associated with inflammation within the small intestine and villous atrophy leading to malabsorption, chronic anaemia, delayed puberty, neuropsychiatric disturbances, associated autoimmune disorders, infertility, small-for-date-births, osteoporosis and, rarely, malignancy and it can reduce the quality of life (QoL) (1, 15, 16).

Diagnosis

CD is characterized by the production of autoantibodies among others against transglutaminase type 2 (TG2A) and endomysium (EMA), during a period of gluten ingestion. Serological testing identifies most CD patients using CD-specific and -sensitive antibodies (17). Due to good accuracy of the serology-tests, ESPGHAN published in 2012 new guidelines for the diagnosis of CD in children and adolescents, including the novel so-called “non-biopsy approach” for selected cases (1).

However, TG2A measurement requires specialized laboratories, and the results are not immediately available. The call for point-of-care (POC) testing, defined as performing a diagnostic procedure outside the laboratory, has resulted in the commercial availability of several POC tests for TG2A. These tests obviate the need for purified or recombinant transglutaminase type 2 (TG2) or for serum separation because TG2 is also found in red blood cells (RBCs). Therefore, the patient's own TG2 can be used in TG2A detection by haemolysing a whole blood sample and liberating the self-TG2 from the RBCs. Tests can be performed at home or at the doctor's office and results become available within 10 minutes, which may save costs and prove to be more convenient for the patients. Several studies have investigated the accuracy of POC tests based on TG2A for CD screening, and sensitivities and specificities similar to those of determination of TG2A in serum were reported (70.1- 97% and 76-100% respectively) (18, 19).

Treatment

The only treatment available for CD is adhering to a gluten-free diet (GFD). Adherence to a GFD is widely accepted to be challenging; it can be influenced by many factors including, reduced QoL, symptoms on ingestion of gluten, knowledge of gluten free foods, understanding of food labels, cost and availability of gluten free foods including receiving GF foods on prescription, and membership of a celiac society. Adherence to a GFD ranges between 25-50% among children and adolescents with CD (20-22).

Treatment with a GFD restores small bowel histology, reduces the burden of morbidity and mortality associated with untreated CD and prevents complications on the long-term. Noncompliance can be intentional, but accidental gluten ingestion also happens because of contamination of non-toxic cereals such as oats or corn due to co-culture or spilling during food-processing either in factories or at home or during transport.

Follow up

General recommendations for follow up of CD patients differ substantially between countries and even regionally within countries applying the same healthcare system. Evidence on the frequency, who and what should be assessed during follow up is lacking. Clinical follow-up of children and adolescents with CD is necessary to assess the evolution of their symptoms as well as their growth and development and to monitor dietary compliance to the treatment with a GFD. Determination of TG2A, which usually disappear approximately 12 months after starting a GFD, is also performed during the follow up (23-26). The determinations are widely used during follow-up as a proxy for mucosal healing in CD children (27), but the results do not correlate well with diet compliance (22, 28, 29).

Despite the absence of a gold standard to assess dietary compliance, a dietary evaluation by a trained dietician is considered the best method, but this is time-consuming and requires expert personnel which is not always available. Short dietary questionnaires and TG2A determinations in serum fail to detect dietary transgressions in children and adolescents with CD, showing poor sensitivity to identify all patients who consume gluten (22, 30, 31). To assess the dietary compliance in children and adolescents with CD a dietary questionnaire has been developed and validated (22). Other methods, as measurement of gliadin immunogenic peptides (GIP) in urine and/or in faeces have been introduced to detect contaminating gluten into the GFD, but they are not used in the standard clinical care (32-34).

Traditional medical care for celiac patients consists of regular physician visits. The limited time allotted for outpatient follow-up also typically restricts comprehensive assessment of a patient's health-related quality of life (HRQoL) and dietary adherence (35). Self-management has shown beneficial effects on the healthcare of other chronic diseases. E-health can play an important role in supporting patients in their self-management, as internet and technology can reach users easily and rapidly, with a wide range of contents and attractive formats. E-health is defined as healthcare services and information delivered or enhanced electronically via the internet and related technologies. Work from our research group shows that online consultations for children and young adults with CD are cost saving, increase CD-specific QoL, and are satisfactory for the majority.

Prevention

Prevention is defined as any activity that reduces the burden of mortality or morbidity from disease, taking place at the primary (avoiding disease development), secondary (early detection and treatment) or tertiary level (avoiding complications by improved treatment) (36). The development of CD requires genetic susceptibility, present in 40% of the general population. However, only a minority of individuals genetically at risk of CD, 1%, develop the disease. So, environmental and/or lifestyle factors may play a causal role in the development of CD. Primary prevention strategies are not (yet) possible. Data from prospective studies of large cohorts evaluated the effect of the timing of gluten introduction on the risk of CD in at-risk children. Results have shown that neither the timing of gluten introduction nor the duration or maintenance of breastfeeding influence the risk of CD. Secondary prevention is possible through early diagnosis. Most international guidelines already recommend testing for CD in high-risk groups, such as first-degree relatives of CD patients (CD families) and patients with other autoimmune diseases. Case-finding and mass screening are still controversial because of the ethical implications. Active case finding refers to liberal diagnostic testing of patients with CD-

associated symptoms, while mass-screening refers to test the whole population for CD. However, since the clinical presentation of CD has changed dramatically in the last decades, patients with atypical or nonspecific symptoms often report a delay in diagnosis of CD that may last for years (11) or even worse, CD remains unrecognized and, therefore, untreated (12-14). Nowadays, regular follow up to ensure strict adherence to a GFD, is the only available, effective tertiary prevention option. Given that the GFD poses a major challenge and requires patient education, continuous motivation and follow-up, several trials are ongoing or underway to explore non-dietary treatment as possible options for tertiary prevention, but none of them have been tested in clinical trials yet.

OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS

The focus of this thesis is the improvement of diagnosis, early detection and treatment of CD in children. Increased knowledge, available guidelines and reliable diagnostics allow for timely diagnosis which can prevent complications and improve QoL, but the current healthcare approach is often unable to make the diagnosis in a timely manner. Moreover, despite timely diagnosis and effective therapy, there is a need to improve the follow up. **Chapter 2** describes the efficient implementation of the ESPGHAN guidelines for the diagnosis of childhood CD in the Netherlands and presents the difference in incidence and clinical presentation of CD in the Netherlands over the last 40 years. **Chapter 3** shows an overview of the current knowledge of the preventive strategies for CD. In the following two chapters, results of secondary prevention strategies are presented. **Chapter 4** shows the protocol of the case finding study GLUTENSCREEN: a prospective study to detect CD in young children attending the Preventive Youth Health Care Centers in the region Kennemerland for a regular visit. **Chapter 5** presents our developed and validated clinically useful prediction models for CD development among genetically predisposed children from celiac families and the application to provide individualized screening advice. The results are based on data from the long-term follow up of the PreventCD cohort. The PreventCD study evaluates the influence of infant feeding on the development of childhood CD and explored the possibility of inducing tolerance to gluten.

Clinical follow-up of children and adolescents with CD is necessary but evidence concerning the content of the follow up, as well as the frequency, is lacking. The next two chapters assess how to manage the follow up of CD in children and adolescents. Since the GFD is currently the only effective treatment of CD, assessment of dietary-adherence is important during the follow up of CD patients. A relatively new method for monitoring dietary compliance is the detection of GIP. **Chapter 6** presents the features

of GIP in urine during a consultation on the outpatient clinic. Children with CD visit the outpatient clinic for their follow up, but communication over the internet offers new opportunities. E-health has shown beneficial effects on the costs and quality of other chronic disease management, but the evidence of E-health in CD follow-up has not been systematically reviewed. Finally, **Chapter 7** shows the results of the systematic review of the current knowledge of E-health for the follow-up in CD patients. In **Chapter 8**, the main findings of this thesis are discussed in the light of the current literature, followed by the discussion and conclusion in Dutch in **Chapter 9**.

REFERENCES

1. Husby S, Koletzko S, Korponay-Szabo IR et al. European Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition guidelines for the diagnosis of celiac disease. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr.* 2012;54:136-60.
2. Singh P, Arora A, Strand TA, et al. Global Prevalence of Celiac Disease: Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2018 Jun;16(6):823-836.
3. Catassi C, Kryszak D, Bhatti B, et al. Natural history of celiac disease autoimmunity in a USA cohort followed since 1974. *Ann Med.* 2010 Oct;42(7):530-8
4. Lohi S, Mustalahti K, Kaukinen K, et al. Increasing prevalence of celiac disease over time. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2007; 26:1217-25.
5. Rubio-Tapia A, Ludvigsson JF, Brantner TL, et al. The prevalence of celiac disease in the United States. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2012 Oct;107(10):1538-44;
6. Catassi C, Gatti S, Fasano A. The new epidemiology of celiac disease. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr.* 2014 Jul;59 Suppl 1:S7-9.
7. Bai J, Ciacci C. The World Gastroenterology Organisation Global Guidelines recommend testing for CD in asymptomatic children who have first-degree relatives with the disease. *J Clin Gastroenterol.* Volume 51, number 9. Febr 2017.
8. Ludvigsson JF, Rubio-Tapia A, Van Dyke CT, et al. Increasing incidence of celiac disease in a North American population. *Am J Gastroenterol.* (2013) 108:818-24.
9. George EK, Mearin ML, van der Velde EA, et al. Low incidence of childhood celiac disease in The Netherlands. *Pediatr Res.* 1995 Feb; 37(2):213-8
10. Steens RFR, Csizmadia CGDS, George EK, et al. A national prospective study on childhood celiac disease in the Netherlands 1993-2000: an increasing recognition and a changing clinical picture. *J Pediatr.* 2005 Aug; 147(2):239-43.
11. Vavricka SR, Vadasz N, Stotz M, et al. Celiac disease diagnosis still significantly delayed—doctor's but not patients' delay responsive for the increased total delay in women. *Dig Liver Dis.* 2016;48:1148-54.
12. Csizmadia CGDS, Mearin ML, Blomberg BM, et al. An iceberg of childhood celiac disease in the Netherlands. *Lancet* 1999;353:813-4.
13. Fasano A, Catassi C. Current approaches to diagnosis and treatment of celiac disease: am involving spectrum. *Gastroenterology.* 2001; 120:636-51.
14. Mearin ML. Celiac disease among children and adolescents. *Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care.* 2007; 37:86-105.
15. Kiefte-de Jong JC, Jaddoe VW, Uitterlinden AG, et al. Levels of antibodies against tissue transglutaminase during pregnancy are associated with reduced fetal weight and birth weight. *Gastroenterology.* 2013;144:726-35.
16. Green PHR, Jabri B. Celiac disease. *Lancet.* 2003; 362:383-91.
17. Werkstetter KJ, Korponay-Szabó IR, Popp A, et al. Accuracy in Diagnosis of Celiac Disease Without Biopsies in Clinical Practice. *Gastroenterology.* 2017;153(4):924-935.
18. Korponay-Szabo IR, Szabados K, Pusztai J, et al. Population screening for celiac disease in primary care by district nurses using a rapid antibody test: diagnostic accuracy and feasibility study. *BMJ.* 2007;335:1244-7.
19. Vriezinga S, Borghorst A, van den Akker-van Marle E, et al. E-healthcare for celiac disease—a multicenter randomized controlled trial. *J Pediatr.* 2018;195:154-60.

20. Myléus A, Reilly NR, Green PHR. Rate, Risk Factors, and Outcomes of Nonadherence in Pediatric Patients With Celiac Disease: A Systematic Review. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*; 2020;18(3):562-73
21. Wessels MMS, Te Linterlo M, Vriezinga SL, et al. Assessment of dietary compliance in celiac children using a standardized dietary interview. *Clin Nutr*. 2018;37 (3): 1000-4.
22. Green P, Jabri B, Celiac Disease. *Annu. Rev. Med.* 2006. 57:207–21
23. Koning F, Schuppan D, Cerf-Bensussan N, et al. Pathomechanisms in celiac disease. *Best Prac Res Clin Gastro* 2005 June;19(3):373-87
24. Mearin ML. Celiac disease among children and adolescents. *Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care*. 2007;37:86–105.
25. Hogen Esch CE, Wolters VM, Gerritsen SA, et al. Specific celiac disease antibodies in children on a gluten-free. *Pediatrics*; 2011; 128:547–552.
26. Husby S, Murray JA, Katzka DA. AGA Clinical Practice Update on Diagnosis and Monitoring of Celiac Disease-Changing Utility of Serology and Histologic Measures: Expert Review. *Gastroenterology*. 2019 Mar;156(4):885-889.
27. Silvester JA, Kurada S, Sz wajcer A, et al. Tests for Serum Transglutaminase and Endomysial Antibodies Do Not Detect Most Patients With Celiac Disease and Persistent Villous Atrophy on Gluten-free Diets: a Meta-analysis. *Gastroenterology*. 2017 Sep;153(3):689-701.
28. Moreno M, Rodríguez-Herrera A, Sousa C, et al. Biomarkers to Monitor Gluten-Free Diet Compliance in Celiac Patients. *Nutrients*. 2017;9(1):46
29. Gerasimidis K., Zafeiropoulou K., Mackinder M., et al. Comparison of Clinical Methods With the Faecal Gluten Immunogenic Peptide to Assess Gluten Intake in Celiac Disease. *Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition*, 2018; 67(3), 356–360.
30. Comino I, Fernández-Bañares F, Esteve M, et al. Fecal Gluten Peptides Reveal Limitations of Serological Tests and Food Questionnaires for Monitoring Gluten-Free Diet in Celiac Disease Patients. *American Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2016;111(10):1456-1465.
31. Comino I, Segura V, Ortigosa L, et al. Prospective longitudinal study: use of faecal gluten immunogenic peptides to monitor children diagnosed with celiac disease during transition to a gluten-free diet. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2019 Jun;49(12):1484-1492.
32. Stefanolo JP, Tálamo M, Dodds S, et al. Real-World Gluten Exposure in Patients With Celiac Disease on Gluten-Free Diets, Determined From Gliadin Immunogenic Peptides in Urine and Fecal Samples. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2021;19(3):484-91.
33. Silvester JA, Comino I, Rigaux LN, et al. Exposure sources, amounts and time course of gluten ingestion and excretion in patients with celiac disease on a gluten-free diet. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2020 Nov;52(9):1469-79.
34. Richtlijn Coeliakie en Dermatitis Herpetiformis. Haarlem: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Maag-Darm-Leverartsen 2008.
35. Maars van der PJ, Mackenbach JP. *Volksgezondheid en Gezondheidszorg*. Elsevier; Bunge. 1999. Tweede druk [Dutch].
36. Meijer C, Shamir R, Szajewska H, et al. Celiac disease prevention. *Front Pediatr* 2018;6:368.
37. Vriezinga SL, Schweizer JJ, Koning F, et al. Celiac disease and gluten-related disorders in childhood. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2015; 12(9):527-36.

