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15.11 Crohn's disease Miles Parkes and Tim Raine ESSENTIALS Crohn's disease is a common form of chronic inflammatory bowel disease. Typically involving one or more of the terminal ileum, colon, and perineum, it causes patchy transmural inflammation characterized microscopically by granulomata. Common complications include fibrotic strictures, fistulas, and abscesses. The initiating trigger is unknown, but an unregulated mucosal immune response to commensal bacteria drives the chronic inflammation. Variants in several genes involved in innate immunity are strongly associated, with NOD2, interleukin-23, and autophagy pathways all implicated. Smoking also increases the risk. With a pattern of episodic flares, which are unpredictable in their timing and severity, Crohn's disease confers significant morbidity but low mortality. Treatment of acute inflammatory disease is usually with corticosteroids or (occasionally) therapeutic diets, the latter particularly in children. For steroid dependence, frequent relapse, or objective evidence of uncontrolled mucosal inflammation, immunosuppression is indicated with immunomodulator or biological therapy or a combination of the two. First-line immunomodulators are azathioprine or 6-mercaptopurine, with methotrexate used as second-line therapy. Antitumour necrosis factor- α (anti-TNF α) antibody therapy can induce rapid remission of resistant disease and has a key role in maintaining remission in such cases. Newer monoclonal antibodies with a role in disease management include antibodies to IL12/23 and to integrins associated with intestinal lymphocyte trafficking. Despite increased use of immunosuppressants, 70 to 80% of patients require surgery in the long term, most commonly for ileal stricturing. Timely, conservative surgery is the key, minimizing the length of small-bowel resected and using laparoscopic approaches where possible. For colonic disease requiring surgery, segmental colectomy or subtotal colectomy with ileorectal anastomosis are preferred, but significant rectal or perianal involvement may require proctocolectomy and ileostomy. Perianal Crohn's disease is treated medically with antibiotics, azathioprine, and anti-TNF antibody therapy, and surgically with abscess drainage and placement of seton sutures through fistulas where possible. Some fistulas heal with intensive medical therapy. Others may warrant attempts at surgical repair if they produce unacceptable symptoms but success rates are not high. Introduction and history Crohn's disease is a form of chronic, relapsing inflammatory bowel disease characterized by discontinuous segments of transmural inflammation. It can affect any part of the gastrointestinal tract but most commonly involves the terminal ileum, colon, and perineum. The eponymous term 'Crohn's disease' derives from the index description of chronic ileal inflammation in young people in 1932 by Crohn, Ginzburg, and Oppenheimer. However, many much earlier reports describe what would now be called Crohn's disease. Colonic Crohn's disease was formally differentiated from ulcerative colitis by Lockhart-Mummery and Morson in 1960, although recent genetic studies suggest, perhaps unsurprisingly,

that they are closely related. Aetiology Precise pathogenic mechanisms are unknown, but Crohn's disease evidently results from a complex interplay of genetic and environmental factors producing an excessive, unregulated inflammatory response to luminal microflora in susceptible individuals. The trigger has not been identified. Susceptibility to the initial trigger may result from a defective mucosal barrier: either increased intestinal permeability, allowing luminal antigens to access the mucosal immune system, or aberrant innate immunity, which would increase risk of microbial invasion. Evidence from genetic studies increasingly implicates the latter in Crohn's disease, the former perhaps being more relevant in ulcerative colitis. There may also be a primary contribution of microbial dysbiosis. Early failure to control microbial ingress leads to activation of alternative, adaptive immune pathways mediated by CD4+ T cells. In Crohn's disease, these are predominantly Th1 and Th17 cells, secreting signature cytokines interferon (IFN)- γ /interleukin (IL)-2 and IL-17 respectively, with tumour necrosis factor (TNF)- α and IL-23 also being critical mediators. Environmental factors The clearest environmental association is with smoking, which more than doubles the risk of developing Crohn's disease while being protective against ulcerative colitis. The mechanism is unclear.

section 15 Gastroenterological disorders 2926 Use of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and the oral contraceptive pill are also associated, the former perhaps by increasing intestinal permeability—well recognized to precede flares of Crohn's disease. Interestingly, 10% of healthy first-degree relatives of Crohn's disease patients have increased intestinal permeability, suggesting a heritable basis. Many patients are concerned about dietary precipitants for Crohn's disease. Excess refined sugar and lack of fibre have been noted in retrospective studies, but may reflect dietary accommodation to early symptoms. Response to therapeutic diets also suggests food antigens are important but no single foodstuff is consistently associated. Microbiological determinants represent obvious potential triggers, and self-limiting infections such as yersinia do precede Crohn's disease in some instances. More contentiously, specific chronic infections might cause the persisting inflammation. Advocates of Mycobacteria paratuberculosis, which causes the granulomatous intestinal inflammation of Johne's disease in cattle, highlight detection of its DNA in Crohn's ulceration in limited, poorly controlled studies. Furthermore, recent genetic studies have highlighted substantial overlap between Crohn's disease susceptibility genes and those for leprosy and Mendelian susceptibility to mycobacterial disease. However, epidemiological evidence shows no clustering of Crohn's disease in livestock farmers, and antituberculous therapy is not effective in unselected patients with Crohn's disease. The contribution of mycobacteria to disease aetiology thus remains speculative. A role for commensal bacteria appears more secure, particularly in perpetuating intestinal inflammation after the initial trigger. In nearly all murine models, intestinal inflammation is markedly attenuated in the absence of commensal flora or upon antibiotic treatment. Conversely, in some models, inflammation appears to be transmissible from genetically susceptible mice to wild-type litter mate controls through cohousing and the sharing of dysbiotic flora. Clinical evidence comes from attenuation of Crohn's disease inflammation following diversion of the faecal stream with ileostomy. Commensal strains implicated include bacteroides and adherent invasive Escherichia coli, while others confer protection, including Faecalibacterium prausnitzii and 'probiotic' strains of lactobacilli and bifidobacter. Recent data have highlighted a potential role for viruses, with notable bacteriophage expansion in inflammatory bowel disease perhaps accounting for the loss of bacterial diversity that is a consistent feature. Disentangling cause-effect relationships remains a challenge. Genetic determinants Although environmental influences are clearly important, it is genetic studies that have made most progress over the last

decade. Each child of a Crohn's disease-affected individual has a 2 to 4% risk of developing Crohn's disease, rising to approximately 30% where both parents are affected. The effect sizes for most confirmed susceptibility genes are modest but they highlight critical molecular pathways predisposing to Crohn's disease. A major theme that has emerged is the importance of the early host immune response to bacterial ingress—particularly innate immunity. NOD2, the first Crohn's disease gene identified, encodes an intracellular receptor for bacterial muramyl dipeptide. Upon ligand binding, NOD2 activates a range of downstream partners including NF- κ B (a transcription factor for several proinflammatory cytokines), caspase-1 (which releases the active, proinflammatory form of IL-1 β), and mediators of autophagy (see later in this section). For NOD2 heterozygotes, the risk of Crohn's disease is doubled compared to wild type, while homozygotes have a 17-fold increased risk. Interestingly there is significant heterogeneity, both for disease (NOD2 variants are specifically associated with ileal Crohn's disease) and ethnicity (no NOD2 coding mutations are found in Japanese patients). Other signals identified by genome-wide association scans in Crohn's disease converge on two other key immune pathways. One is the activation of naive CD4+ T cells by IL-23. Confirmed association with variants in genes for the IL-23 receptor and IL-12B (which encodes a subunit common to IL-12 and IL-23) among other components of this pathway strongly corroborates functional experiments in mouse models, which also implicate IL-23 in chronic intestinal inflammation. Another key component is autophagy. Replicated association at two separate genes, ATG16L1 and IRGM, first highlighted autophagy—and NOD2 mutations are now known to disrupt this previously unsuspected pathway. Autophagy is the mechanism by which cells engulf, compartmentalize, and digest cytoplasmic debris and intracellular bacteria. Its disruption permits prolonged survival of several intracellular microorganisms—perhaps important for the intracellular bacteria postulated to play a role in Crohn's disease pathogenesis, including adherent invasive *E. coli*. The main disease-associated polymorphisms in NOD2, IL23R, and ATG16L1 are coding variants associated with hypofunction. For most genetic signals identified by genome-wide association studies in Crohn's disease, which lie in nonprotein-coding regions of the genome, aetiological understanding is at a more rudimentary stage, with presumed effects through changes in regulatory mechanisms for gene expression. In which cells these genetic abnormalities have an effect remain unknown, but candidates include intestinal macrophages, dendritic cells, T cells, and epithelial cells. Indeed, it seems that the clinical phenotypes of Crohn's disease may represent a final common pathway of immune-mediated end-organ damage resulting from not one but several potential underlying pathologies, including failure of epithelial barrier function, innate immune defects resulting in susceptibility to intracellular infection, inappropriate activation of an adaptive immune response to commensal flora, and failure of immune regulation. Pathology Crohn's disease can affect any part of the gastrointestinal tract but most commonly causes ileocaecal (40%), exclusively ileal (30%), or exclusively colonic (25%) inflammation with or without perianal involvement (25%). Diffuse small-bowel, upper gut, or oral Crohn's disease are less frequent. Colonic disease often spares the rectum. These patterns typically remain stable in any given patient over time. Ulcers are usually present, with appearances varying from small aphthous lesions overlying lymphoid aggregates to scattered punched-out, serpiginous, longitudinal, or pleomorphic ulcers (see Fig. 15.11.2). Inflammation is patchy, giving rise to 'skip lesions', and transmural—manifest as deep ulceration and cobblestoning endoscopically, and fat wrapping on cross-sectional imaging or at surgery. The bowel wall is usually thickened, often producing luminal stenosis, and the mesentery oedematous with regional lymph node enlargement.

15.11 Crohn's disease 2927 Histologically, Crohn's disease is characterized by a patchy chronic transmural inflammatory infiltrate, maximal in the submucosa and lamina propria. This consists of lymphocytes, characteristically organized as lymphoid aggregates, macrophages, and plasma cells. Acutely, neutrophils infiltrate around crypts producing cryptitis. Fissuring ulcers can penetrate deeply, sometimes to the serosal surface to produce fistulas, and noncaseating epithelioid granulomata formed from macrophages and giant cells may be found at any level in up to 60% of cases (Fig. 15.11.1). Typically in the colon there is preservation of goblet cell numbers and crypt architecture compared to ulcerative colitis. Epidemiology Crohn's disease can affect people of any age but peak incidence occurs in early adulthood, with a smaller peak in the seventh decade. There is a marginal predominance in women and 15% of patients have an affected relative. Crude annual incidence in Western countries ranges from 2 to 20 per 100 000, with a north-south gradient (higher in the north) across Europe and North America. Incidence is highest in Ashkenazi Jews and low in Asia (0.5 per 100 000). The incidence and prevalence of Crohn's disease appears to be rising in nearly all populations. This is especially apparent in non-Western societies, perhaps reflecting adoption of 'Western' lifestyles. Increased awareness and improved diagnostics have undoubtedly also contributed. Estimates of Crohn's disease prevalence also vary significantly, in part according to ascertainment method. Population- and primary care-based surveys in the United Kingdom put the prevalence as high as 140 to 210 per 100 000, while studies in secondary/tertiary care are lower at 70 to 100 per 100 000. Either figure indicates that the burden of disease is substantial in terms of both morbidity and cost. Estimates of direct healthcare costs vary widely and are significantly impacted by country and disease severity, but recent analyses suggest an average figure of £2000 to £4500/patient-year for Crohn's disease. Clinical features The clinical presentation of Crohn's disease varies from 'classical' to diagnostically challenging and nonspecific. Cardinal symptoms are the combination of abdominal pain, weight loss, and diarrhoea. With severe disease, patients may have systemic upset, with fever, tachycardia, and anaemia. More often, however, a modestly raised C-reactive protein (CRP) and vague or irritable-bowel-like symptoms may be the only clues mandating further investigation. Many patients report remitting and relapsing symptoms for months or years before the diagnosis is made. A family history of inflammatory bowel disease and smoking history should be sought. For patients with established disease, the Harvey-Bradshaw index provides a simple assessment of activity, while the Crohn's disease activity index requires symptom diaries plus laboratory data. In both cases, subjective elements may capture noninflammatory symptoms, leading to significant limitations. The Inflammatory Bowel Disease Questionnaire (IBDQ) is the best validated quality of life tool. Symptoms Symptoms are significantly determined by the site of intestinal inflammation and typically include lower abdominal pain, diarrhoea, anorexia, and weight loss. Tiredness, malaise, sweats, and extraintestinal manifestations can be prominent. Abdominal pain reflects gut wall ulceration and mesenteric oedema, and often localizes to the right iliac fossa with ileocaecal disease. It may be constant, reflecting the presence of deep ulceration, or colicky, exacerbated by eating and associated with other obstructive features such as vomiting or bloating as a consequence of luminal stricturing. Abdominal pain due to coincident gallstones or renal stones, both associated with Crohn's disease, can cause confusion. Weight loss is common with active Crohn's disease, particularly involving the small bowel, so patients should be weighed at each clinic visit. Contributory factors include food avoidance due to abdominal pain or mouth ulceration, intestinal protein loss, catabolism induced by inflammation or sepsis, and malabsorption reflecting the combination of diffuse small-bowel disease, resection, and bacterial overgrowth. Most patients experience diarrhoea. Bowel frequency correlates with inflammatory activity, particularly

in the colon, with bacterial overgrowth and ileal resection potentially contributing. Bleeding per rectum is less common than in ulcerative colitis, as is urgency— unless the rectum is involved or the anal sphincter damaged. An important point: many Crohn's disease patients consider three to four semisolid bowel evacuations per day to be 'normal' and it is the change from baseline, including nocturnal frequency, which is important in assessing disease activity. Perianal symptoms will occur in around 40%. Perianal pain may indicate an abscess or fissure formation, fistula discharge is common, and anal stricture may produce constipation or tenesmus. Fig. 15.11.1 Crohn's disease affecting large bowel, showing fissuring ulceration (narrow arrow) and transmural inflammation with a 'Crohn's rosary'—lymphoid aggregates studded along the outer border of the muscularis propria (broad arrow). Courtesy of Dr Vicki Save, Addenbrooke's Hospital, Cambridge.

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Fistulizing Crohn's disease, with or without intra-abdominal or pelvic abscess, is seen in around 40% of patients. It can be the presenting feature or evolve as a result of uncontrolled transmural inflammation. Typical fistulae include enteroenteric (often detected only on imaging, but may be associated with a mesenteric abscess), enterovesical (associated with pneumaturia and recurrent urinary tract infections), and rectovaginal. Perianal fistulae are more common than internal fistulae. Fertility is reduced in women with Crohn's disease, and the miscarriage rate is higher, particularly with active disease during pregnancy. Signs Many patients with active Crohn's disease appear deceptively well. A minority are anaemic or malnourished. A persisting tachycardia may point to dehydration, severe inflammation, or sepsis. The oral cavity should be inspected for ulceration and glossitis. The commonest abnormal examination finding is right iliac fossa tenderness, often with associated fullness or a mass due to thickened and matted bowel loops. Equivalent findings may be found over any affected bowel segment. Anorectal examination may reveal various signs from violaceous fleshy or 'woody' skin tags to anal fissure, ulcer, abscess, and fistulae. Anal stenosis may be detected. Signs related to specific complications may be evident—for example, fever and tachycardia with intra-abdominal collection, distension and high-pitched bowel sounds with obstruction, and so on. Extraintestinal manifestations Extraintestinal manifestations of Crohn's disease commonly affect the mouth, joints, skin, and eyes, and less commonly the liver and lungs. These are more frequent with colonic involvement and may precede intestinal symptoms. Oropharynx Aphthous ulcers are usually associated with active intestinal inflammation. These should be distinguished from haematinic deficiency (glossitis, angular cheilitis), oral candida, and (particularly) oropharyngeal Crohn's disease, which usually causes fissuring and thickening of the lips but can present with deep sulcal ulceration and buccal cobblestoning. There is overlap with orofacial granulomatosis where 60% have asymptomatic intestinal lesions of Crohn's disease. Both oral Crohn's disease and orofacial granulomatosis can be successfully treated with a low-benzoate, low-cinnamon diet or topical steroids. Joints Involvement is seen in 10 to 20% of Crohn's disease patients. This ranges from arthralgia to inflammatory arthritis (including ankylosing spondylitis). Inflammatory arthritis can be an asymmetric large-joint arthropathy with pain and effusions prominent during flares of inflammatory bowel disease, or a symmetrical small-joint arthropathy. Each has distinct genetic associations. Use of NSAIDs should be minimized as they increase gut permeability and can trigger a Crohn's disease flare. Skin Eczema and psoriasis often flare with active Crohn's disease, but the most common specific dermatological manifestation is erythema nodosum. Usually found at initial presentation, it settles with resolution of bowel inflammation and rarely recurs. Psoriasiform dermatoses have been reported with anti-TNF treatment, necessitating drug withdrawal. An important but rare complication is pyoderma gangrenosum, a neutrophilic dermatosis. This is

characterized by one or more painful, raised lesions, typically with a violaceous border. Treatment is with systemic corticosteroids or ciclosporin, or with anti-TNF therapy. Eyes Inflammation usually presents as self-limiting conjunctivitis or episcleritis, but it is important to differentiate this from more serious scleritis or uveitis. Patients with Crohn's disease who develop significant eye pain, visual disturbance, or photophobia should receive emergency ophthalmic assessment. Liver Persistently abnormal liver function tests, particularly if cholestatic, should prompt investigation including magnetic resonance cholangiography for primary sclerosing cholangitis (see Chapter 15.23.3). Differential diagnosis The differential diagnosis of Crohn's disease depends on its specific presentation. Acute ileitis in young patients closely mimics appendicitis, while chronic symptoms are often diagnosed as irritable bowel syndrome. In older patients, colonic, particularly caecal, carcinoma must be considered. Clinicians often rely on a raised CRP or faecal calprotectin to identify patients with irritable bowel-like symptoms needing further investigation. However, strong clinical suspicion (e.g. family history of Crohn's disease) may warrant further investigation despite normal screening tests. Distinguishing acute inflammatory bowel disease from infection is a common challenge. Occasionally, the diagnosis of Crohn's disease cannot be confirmed until the second flare. In known Crohn's disease patients, when abdominal symptoms recur, the challenge is distinguishing active inflammation from other causes. Most of the latter are discussed later (see 'Complications') but it is noteworthy that a history of inflammatory bowel disease increases susceptibility to infectious enterocolitis, and that irritable bowel syndrome is as common in individuals with Crohn's disease as in the general population. Failure to appreciate these points can cause both diagnostic confusion and inappropriate treatment choices such as overuse of corticosteroids. *Yersinia enterocolitica* and *Mycobacteria tuberculosis* can mimic Crohn's disease, sharing an ileocaecal predilection and causing acute and chronic inflammation respectively. However, the cause of most cases of acute ileitis is never determined and only a minority develop Crohn's disease. *Campylobacter*, shigella, and salmonella cause an acute colitis usually with fever and sometimes with a reactive arthritis, and *Clostridium difficile* is increasingly found outside conventional risk groups. *E. coli* can cause colitis, with the 0157 serotype triggering haemolytic uraemic syndrome. Rarer causes of enterocolitis include amoebae, schistosomiasis, and cytomegalovirus, emphasizing the need for careful microbiological and histopathological assessment. Rectal and perianal ulceration can be caused by

15.11 Crohn's disease 2929 sexually transmitted infections such as gonorrhoea, syphilis, and lymphogranuloma venereum. Noninfectious mimics of Crohn's disease include drugs, ischaemia, Behçet's disease, lymphoma, small-bowel carcinoma, solitary rectal ulcer, and radiotherapy. NSAIDs can produce intestinal inflammation and rarely 'diaphragm' strictures, and Fleet Phosphosoda colonoscopy bowel preparation commonly causes rectal aphthoid ulceration with focal active colitis on histopathology. Nicorandil can produce oral and deep perianal ulceration, and mycophenolate mofetil occasionally causes right colonic ulceration. Ischaemic colitis can mimic Crohn's disease with segmental involvement and solitary rectal ulcers can be large and pleomorphic but histopathology discriminates. Diverticulitis can mimic Crohn's disease clinically and histopathologically: colonoscopic biopsies from a diverticular segment must be labelled as such. For colonic inflammation, the major differential diagnosis for Crohn's disease is ulcerative colitis. Differentiation is possible for about 95% of cases (Table 15.11.1), leaving 5% as indeterminate or, more accurately, unclassified due to equivocal appearances. Ulcerative colitis can mimic Crohn's disease with a prominent caecal patch of inflammation well recognized in distal ulcerative colitis, or where inflammation becomes patchy on treatment. Clinical investigation Acute

enterocolitis With any significant acute enterocolitis, excluding infection is critical. Three stool samples should be sent for microscopy, culture, and C. difficile toxin assay. Serological tests for yersinia and polymerase chain reaction for cytomegalovirus should also be requested where appropriate. Routine laboratory tests For chronic symptoms, a few baseline tests provide important diagnostic indicators. Faecal calprotectin is highly sensitive for intestinal inflammation. On blood tests an even modestly elevated CRP or ESR is consistent with active Crohn's disease, sometimes accompanied by elevated platelet and neutrophil counts and a low serum albumin. The latter reflects cytokine-mediated downregulation of hepatic synthesis and intestinal protein loss. Anaemia is common, and multifactorial in origin; ferritin, vitamin B12, and folate should be checked. Liver and renal function tests and coeliac serology are advisable. Anti-Saccharomyces cerevisiae antibody assays are positive in 50 to 75% of established cases but add little to diagnosis and are not widely used. Where baseline tests indicate possible Crohn's disease, the choice of the next investigation depends on the clinical context. Endoscopy Endoscopic examination remains the benchmark for mucosal visualization. Ileocolonoscopy with biopsies is highly sensitive for Crohn's disease presenting with diarrhoea. Appearances vary, but Crohn's disease hallmarks are segmental inflammation with pleomorphic ulceration and cobblestoning, most commonly ileocaecal (Fig. 15.11.2). Endoscopists should biopsy the rectum and intervening normal colon where inflammation is patchy to aid histopathological interpretation, and since histological findings in Crohn's are often nonspecific, it is important that histology is interpreted in the clinical context. The small bowel can be imaged using wireless capsule endoscopy and accessed by balloon enteroscopy, the latter usually being used to obtain biopsies where there is diagnostic doubt or occasionally to dilate short strictures. Radiological imaging A range of imaging modalities are available to support the evaluation of Crohn's disease. Plain abdominal radiography helps assessment of severe diarrhoea or possible obstruction, although increasingly CT is the investigation of choice for the latter. The use of conventional CT or CT enterography provides good definition of mucosal disease, as well as demonstrating extraluminal features such as fat wrapping and collections (Fig. 15.11.3). MRI enterography is increasingly available and provides similar information without exposure to ionizing radiation, as well as detecting subtle submucosal disease and affording precise definition of fistula

Table 15.11.1 Features distinguishing Crohn's disease from ulcerative colitis	Crohn's disease	Ulcerative colitis
Clinical features	Bloody diarrhoea Uncommon	Common
Perianal disease	Common	Uncommon
Abdominal mass	Common	Rare
Endoscopy/radiology	Rectal inflammation Uncommon	Defining feature
Distribution	Patchy	Continuous
Ulceration	Pleomorphic, deep	Superficial, fine
Strictures/fistulas	Characteristic	Rare
Histology	Depth Transmural	Superficial
Infiltrate	Lymphocytes, macrophages, plasma cells	Neutrophils, plasma cells, eosinophils
Granulomas	Characteristic	Confined to ruptured crypts

Fig. 15.11.2 Colonoscopic appearance of linear and pleomorphic ulceration of Crohn's disease.

section 15 Gastroenterological disorders 2930 anatomy (Fig. 15.11.4). Small-bowel ultrasonography is a highly operator-dependent technique which can allow for sensitive, low-cost detection of small-bowel disease (Fig. 15.11.5). Fistula anatomy should be defined using a combination of imaging (typically MRI) and, for perianal disease, examination under anaesthesia. Perianal fistulae are classified by their complexity (simple, single track vs complex branching or multiple tracks) and their relationship to the internal and external anal sphincters. Criteria for diagnosis No single feature is sufficient or necessary to diagnose Crohn's disease. Instead, diagnosis is based on cumulative clinical, laboratory, (a) (b) Fig. 15.11.3 Crohn's disease with acute inflammation. CT enterography showing mural stratification of multiple segments of distal ileum.

There is intense mucosal hyperenhancement (arrow in (b)) and enlargement and engorgement of the vasa recta (arrow in (a)), producing the 'comb sign.' An enhancing polypoid postinflammatory polyp is seen projecting into the distal ileal lumen (arrowhead). From Levy AD, Mortele KJ, Yeh BM (eds) (2015). *Gastrointestinal imaging*. By permission of Oxford University Press. (a) (b) (c)

Fig. 15.11.4 Crohn's disease with active inflammation and stricturing. Magnetic resonance enterography shows marked mural thickening of a long segment of distal ileum. On MRI, mural thickening in active inflammation is of low signal intensity on T2 half-Fourier-acquisition single-shot turbo spin-echo (HASTE) (arrow in (a)); intermediate signal intensity on true fast imaging with steady-state precession (TrueFISP) (b); and shows mural stratification with marked mucosal enhancement on the intravenous gadolinium-enhanced volume interpolated breath-hold examination (VIBE) image (arrow in (c)). Short strictures are present in the inflamed segment, and there is adjacent fibrofatty proliferation (asterisk). From Levy AD, Mortele KJ, Yeh BM (eds) (2015). *Gastrointestinal imaging*. By permission of Oxford University Press.

15.11 Crohn's disease 2931 radiological, endoscopic, and histopathological evidence. This is usually straightforward, but the multidisciplinary team should carefully review the evidence when there is uncertainty. Management Management of Crohn's disease must be tailored to the individual. Patients need a consistent medical approach underpinned by information and support, for example, from specialist nurses and national patient organizations (see 'Useful websites'). Nutritional deficits must be corrected, with medical therapy for active disease and timely surgery for refractory inflammation or complications. Treatment should be escalated according to disease severity and clinical progress. The ultimate goals of therapy are debated, and perspectives may differ between physicians and patients. Although the long-term avoidance of complications and maintenance of quality of life might be desired, very few clinical trials target these outcomes. Much recent emphasis has been placed on endoscopic evidence of mucosal healing as a treatment goal. This may indeed reduce the risk of complications, but at a cost to the patient and healthcare economy of a greatly increased need for immunosuppression. There remains a discordance in some patients between clinical symptoms and endoscopic activity, which may complicate management decisions. The site of disease affects treatment choice, as does the patient's previous experience and views regarding tolerability and risks versus benefits. Prospectively evaluated prognostic biomarkers are emerging but have yet to be adopted. Clinically, and based on some retrospective data, Crohn's disease often behaves more aggressively in those with an early age of onset, diffuse disease or deep ulceration, marked perianal involvement, early requirement for steroids, and prominent extraintestinal manifestations. In such patients, and those with recurrent relapse, maintenance immunosuppressive or biological therapy must be considered early. The clinician must synthesize all these strands in formulating an appropriate, individualized treatment plan. Smoking All Crohn's disease patients who smoke should be advised to stop. This halves the risk of relapse, but even with focused interventions delivered in the context of a dedicated Crohn's service, sustained cessation rates at 1 year are only around 30%. Diet and nutrition Dietetic assessment and advice is important, particularly in patients who have lost weight. Enteral supplements may be required, and specific deficiencies corrected. Parenteral nutrition is reserved for those with intestinal failure due to obstruction, high-output fistula, or short-bowel syndrome. For Crohn's disease affecting the upper gastrointestinal tract and small bowel, therapeutic diets can—by poorly understood effects on mucosal immunity and gut flora—suppress inflammation. Although meta-analyses have suggested that such diets are less effective than corticosteroids on an intention-to-treat basis, it appears that dietary therapy can perform well,

leading to disease remission in 40 to 80% of those able to tolerate the feeds. Amino acid ('elemental'), peptide, and protein-based liquid feeds are equally effective, being nutritionally replete and used exclusive of all other foods for 2 to 4 weeks. Advantages of therapeutic diets include rapid nutritional res-titution and avoidance of corticosteroids—limiting their adverse impact on growth (in children), osteoporosis, and superadded sepsis. Limitations mainly relate to palatability and frequency of early relapse. Specialist dietetic supervision, offering choice of flavour or preparation, and building gradually towards calculated nutritional requirements greatly increases adherence. Nasogastric or gastrostomy tube feeding are occasionally required. Successful transition to eating should start with a basic low-fat, low-fibre exclusion diet with phased reintroduction of normal foods over several weeks to identify specific dietary intolerances. This approach also deals with any superadded food intolerances that may contribute to symptoms, and can in itself produce prolonged remission, although addition of immunomodulatory therapy is often required. Patients with a stricture should have a low-residue diet to avoid bolus obstruction (avoiding sweetcorn, apple skins, etc.); and lactose intolerance is common in Crohn's disease, requiring a lactose-free diet with calcium supplementation. Oral Crohn's disease often responds to a low-benzoate, low-cinnamon diet. (a) (b) Fig. 15.11.5 Crohn's disease with active inflammation in the ileum. Ultrasonography shows marked thickening and ulceration of an ileal segment (arrows in (a)). The normal sonographic layers of the bowel wall are preserved. On colour Doppler, there is hyperaemia of the segment. From Levy AD, Mortele KJ, Yeh BM (eds) (2015). Gastrointestinal imaging. By permission of Oxford University Press.

section 15 Gastroenterological disorders 2932 Medical therapies 5-Aminosalicylates Mesalazine lacks efficacy in Crohn's disease. Of six methodologically rigorous trials, some indicated modest benefit, but this was not significant on meta-analysis. There is a strong case for dropping mesalazine from the treatment algorithm of mild to moderately active Crohn's disease. Mesalazine should also be abandoned as maintenance therapy following medically induced remission because of its demonstrated lack of efficacy, potential nephrotoxicity, and high cumulative cost. After many years on treatment, many patients may be resistant to the idea of stopping (indeed, may report symptom recurrence). A pragmatic approach is to try a slow wean. After surgical resection, maintenance mesalazine may confer some benefit, although the effect size is small (number needed to treat (NNT) = 11 to prevent one relapse at 12 months) and appears restricted to exclusively small-bowel disease. Given the cost and inconvenience it should be reserved for selected cases, and only after more effective measures such as smoking cessation. Antibiotics Antibiotics can successfully treat perianal abscesses, discharging fistulas, and small-bowel bacterial overgrowth complicating Crohn's disease. Metronidazole with or without ciprofloxacin is best and may be required for several weeks. Some clinicians recommend antibiotics for active Crohn's colitis but supporting trials evidence is modest. A randomized controlled trial of antimycobacterial therapy for Crohn's disease showed no benefit over placebo. Corticosteroids For most gastroenterologists, corticosteroids constitute the therapeutic mainstay for induction of remission active Crohn's disease. They induce symptomatic remission or satisfactory clinical response in 80% of patients with active disease. Typically given as a course of oral treatment reducing over 6 to 8 weeks, the conventional starting dose is prednisolone 40 mg/day. Smaller starting doses appear less effective. Severe disease mandates hospital admission for intravenous therapy with hydrocortisone (100 mg four times daily) or methyl prednisone (40 mg twice daily). Corticosteroid side effects can be mitigated by using oral budesonide, formulated for ileocaecal release. High first-pass hepatic metabolism ensures low systemic availability. Budesonide's ef-

efficacy approaches that of prednisolone. Where the latter is required (e.g. for more severe and extensive disease), calcium and vitamin D with or without oral bisphosphonate should be coprescribed to limit osteoporosis. Long-term corticosteroid therapy is ineffective and should be avoided in Crohn's disease. For the 35 to 40% of patients relapsing frequently off steroids (e.g. at least two relapses a year) or unable to wean without relapse, immunosuppressive or biological therapies are mandated. Immunosuppressants Azathioprine and 6-mercaptopurine are the most commonly used immunosuppressants, with methotrexate second line and alternatives such as tacrolimus and thalidomide used rarely. Where remission is maintained, the vogue is towards increased duration of therapy—driven by evidence of an increased risk of relapse on stopping even after many years in remission. Azathioprine and 6-mercaptopurine The thiopurines azathioprine (2–2.5 mg/kg) and 6-mercaptopurine (1.5 mg/kg) are steroid sparing and effective in maintaining remission in Crohn's disease (NNT = 3). They inhibit purine synthesis via 6-thioguanine triphosphate to prevent leucocyte proliferation and take up to 16 weeks to work; hence, they should be used alongside a more rapid strategy for induction of remission. Those with aggressive disease, severe perianal disease, or steroid dependence, or patients requiring two or more courses of corticosteroids per year are most likely to require azathioprine to maintain remission, though recent trials do not suggest a benefit of protocolized early introduction in these higher-risk patients compared to treatment based upon clinical need alone. Immunomodulator therapy should continue for at least 4 years when effective and well tolerated—and often longer. Some 20 to 30% of patients will be intolerant of thiopurines due to myalgias, nausea, rash, mild hepatitis, or cytopenias, and occasionally pancreatitis (2%). Risk of lymphoma is increased by a factor of 4, but remains rare particularly in young age groups. Patients should be warned of possible profound neutropenia and need regular monitoring of blood count and liver function, particularly following commencement or dose increase. Minor elevations of liver enzymes, lymphopenia, and macrocytosis are not significant. Variation in the thiopurine methyltransferase (TPMT) gene affects efficacy and safety of thiopurines. About 1 in 300 Europeans have negligible enzyme activity and risk severe neutropenia—preventable by measuring TPMT activity or genotype before starting therapy, although subsequent blood test monitoring is still required. TPMT heterozygotes are predisposed to thiopurine side effects including leucopenia, and usually respond to 50% of standard dose. Polymorphisms in the NUDT15 gene are also strongly associated with leukopenia. Where toxicity develops, switching from one thiopurine to the other often helps, despite their chemical similarity. For patients seemingly unresponsive or intolerant, doses can be increased to the limit of the dosing range or tolerability for 16 weeks before trying alternatives. Monitoring of thiopurine metabolites 6TGN (the active moiety) and 6MMP (a by-product which can induce hepatotoxicity) can help to optimize therapy—for example, checking compliance, increasing doses where 6TGN levels fall below the target range, or adding allopurinol and reducing initial thiopurine doses by 75% in individuals who are preferential 'shunters' toward 6MMP (often indicated by abnormal liver function tests on thiopurine therapy). Methotrexate Methotrexate is also effective for inducing and maintaining steroid-free remission in Crohn's disease. The index randomized controlled trial used an induction dose of 25 mg/week and 15 mg/week maintenance given intramuscularly. Many centres now use subcutaneous or oral methotrexate at these doses—supported by retrospective evidence of efficacy. Nausea is common but reduced by prescribing a weekly dose of folic acid the day after the methotrexate. Blood test monitoring is again advised. Methotrexate is teratogenic and should be avoided in women of child-bearing potential.

15.11 Crohn's disease 2933 Other immunosuppressants Randomized trial evidence is lacking for other immunosuppressants. From available data, tacrolimus appears promising for refractory inflammatory disease and closing fistulas, and thalidomide may have a short-term role but is limited by toxicity. Oral ciclosporin is not effective. Biological therapies

Anti-TNF therapies

The treatment of moderate or severe Crohn's disease has been revolutionized by the demonstration that monoclonal antibodies targeting TNF α are clinically effective for both acute presentations and long-term maintenance. Infliximab, a chimeric human/mouse monoclonal antibody, was demonstrated in the landmark ACCENT 1 study to induce symptomatic improvement in 60% of patients with active luminal Crohn's disease. Subsequent data demonstrated benefit in closing fistulas, healing ulcerated mucosa, and maintaining steroid-free remission in 30 to 50% of patients responding to initial induction and then given 8-weekly infusions of infliximab. Improved quality of life and reduced hospitalization significantly offset treatment costs. Subsequent studies with alternative anti-TNF antibody therapies such as adalimumab and certolizumab appear similarly effective, though only infliximab has been licensed for fistulizing disease. The benefits of anti-TNF therapy have been extended to increasing numbers of patients, particularly since expiry of original patents and the associated introduction of 'biosimilars', with corresponding reductions in drug costs. Anti-TNF therapies are generally well tolerated and long-term postmarketing registry data supports their use in a wide range of patient populations. Major side effects include increased susceptibility to infection (sepsis must be controlled before treatment), reactivation of tuberculosis (mandating screening), infusion reactions, and a possible slight increase in risk of lymphoma.

Biologicals that affect lymphocyte trafficking

More recently, monoclonal antibodies have been developed that target the surface receptors that direct lymphocyte trafficking to the gastrointestinal mucosa. The first of these, natalizumab, which targeted integrin α 4, proved effective for Crohn's disease, but it is now rarely used as associated inhibition of lymphocyte trafficking to the central nervous system leads to reactivation of JC virus and development of progressive multifocal leucoencephalopathy. Vedolizumab, which binds to the α 4 β 7 heterodimer, inhibits lymphocyte trafficking more selectively to the gastrointestinal tract and has not been associated with development of progressive multifocal leucoencephalopathy. In the large-scale GEMINI 2 and GEMINI 3 trials, vedolizumab showed significant benefits over placebo in the maintenance of remission. It may also have a role in induction of remission, but the benefits in this regard are modest and it appears to be slow to take effect. Vedolizumab should thus be considered a second-line biological therapy in Crohn's disease—a useful treatment option for patients who have failed anti-TNF therapy or in those who wish to maintain remission using an agent that avoids targeting systemic immunity.

Ustekinumab

Ustekinumab is a monoclonal antibody targeting the p40 subunit common to IL-12 and IL-23. It has demonstrated efficacy in luminal Crohn's disease in both patients who have failed anti-TNF therapy and in those naive to anti-TNF therapy, and is licensed in both patient groups. Data from other inflammatory disorders suggests a lower risk of infection than observed in patients on anti-TNF therapy.

Biologicals in combination with other immunosuppressants

A key question with all biological therapies is whether or not combination with other immunosuppressants provides a clinical benefit that can outweigh the increased side-effect profile. For infliximab, use in combination with azathioprine has been shown in the SONIC trial to be more effective at maintaining remission than either therapy alone. Furthermore concomitant thiopurine therapy is known to reduce immunogenicity (anti-drug antibody formation) and hence reduce secondary loss of response to anti-TNF therapy—which is a particular problem with infliximab. In contrast, the combination of infliximab with methotrexate at induction did not provide significant clinical benefit at 1 year in the COMMIT trial. Interestingly, in COMMIT

rates of anti-infliximab antibody development were lower in those receiving methotrexate, which might suggest the potential for clinical benefits beyond the 1-year follow-up of the study. The advantages of combinations of adalimumab with immunosuppression are less clear cut and not born out by randomized clinical trials, although immunogenicity remains a problem for certain patient groups, including those with the HLA allele DQA1*05. Long term efficacy data for both vedolizumab and ustekinumab suggest that patients who achieve remission on either drug are likely to stay in remission on drug over a number of years. This may be related to low rates of immunogenicity observed with both agents. Trial data for these drugs in combination with immunosuppressants are limited to post-hoc analyses which do not suggest an observable benefit to combination therapy. Additional controversy comes with measuring and interpreting serum drug levels and levels of antidrug antibodies. These are particularly helpful in individuals with secondary loss of response to anti-TNF therapy, where low drug levels and high antibody levels suggest the need to switch to an alternative anti-TNF therapy, while high drug levels might suggest switching to a different drug class. It seems likely that such therapeutic drug monitoring will become routine practice for both biological and immunomodulator therapies, helping to optimize and personalize these therapies. Duration of treatment An additional question for all maintenance therapies, but particularly pressing for biologicals given their higher cost, is how long to continue treatment for, and with what agent or combination of agents. Trials of drug cessation suggest approximately 50% risk of flare upon withdrawal of any maintenance therapy by two years, although as a general theme the risk appears lowest in those without clinical, biochemical, endoscopic or histological evidence of ongoing disease activity (so-called deep remission). Response appears to be recaptured in nearly all cases when the drug is restarted. Other therapies Several novel therapies are currently being evaluated. These include oral and subcutaneous anti-integrin agents and oral inhibitors of the Janus kinase family, involved in downstream signalling for several cytokines. Oral agents targeting lymphocyte trafficking through modulation of the sphingolipid receptor S1PR are also in late phase clinical trials.

section 15 Gastroenterological disorders 2934 Surgery The increased use of immunosuppression since the 1980s has correlated with a reduced incidence of surgery, but nonetheless this is still required in up to 70 to 80% of patients with Crohn's disease in the long term. The two main indications are refractory inflammation and complications of disease (the latter are discussed in the following section). Close collaboration between experienced supervising physicians and surgeons, and open discussion with the patient regarding treatment options, facilitates joined-up clinical management. Surgery for refractory Crohn's disease should be timely and conservative. In most cases laparoscopic approaches are used. Timeliness means patients not enduring medical therapies when it is clear they are not working, nor being propelled toward surgery before it is warranted (e.g. for radiologically severe but minimally symptomatic strictures). Patients should be involved in discussions regarding long-term efficacy and safety of second-line medical therapies versus the risks, benefits, and expected outcomes of surgery. Conservative surgery minimizes risk of long-term harm, particularly short-bowel syndrome. Thus strictureplasties (incising longitudinally and suturing vertically) effectively open short strictures and are favoured over small-bowel resections where possible, while for resections only macroscopically involved bowel is removed. For colonic disease, panproctocolectomy carries the lowest risk of relapse but at the cost of permanent ileostomy. Segmental colectomy or subtotal colectomy with ileorectal anastomosis are usually preferred where possible. Surgery for perianal sepsis and fistulas usually involves drainage and placement of seton sutures, together with medical management, rather than more

aggressive interventions which carry a high risk of nonhealing wounds or faecal incontinence. Optimization for surgery includes dietitian-supervised correction of any malnutrition. Oral supplements are preferred but parenteral nutrition may be required. Corticosteroids should be minimized to limit adverse impact on wound healing—but evidence indicates that thiopurine therapy can safely be continued during the perioperative period. For anti-TNF therapies the data are more varied, with a major, recent meta-analysis suggesting a slight excess of septic complications perioperatively. For severe coloanal Crohn's disease, a defunctioning ileostomy should be considered. Technically straightforward, diverting the faecal stream usually settles coloanal inflammation, relieving symptoms and permitting subsequent elective panproctocolectomy on a clinically fit patient. Whether some patients might avoid colectomy and be maintained in remission on stoma reversal if started on thiopurine or biological therapy is unclear, but recent analyses suggest that this is unlikely for most. Approximately one-half of patients requiring surgery for small-bowel Crohn's disease require a repeat operation within 10 years, especially smokers. Postoperative treatment with metronidazole and/or azathioprine has been shown to be associated with a lower risk of disease recurrence. The use of postoperative anti-TNF therapy in high-risk patients in the PREVENT study was associated with better endoscopic outcomes, but not with a detectable clinical benefit. In the POCER study, the use of endoscopic assessment at 6 months to guide treatment escalation/de-escalation was associated with improved clinical outcomes and reflects a sound evidence-based approach. Serial faecal calprotectin measurement offers a less invasive alternative to colonoscopy with a sensitivity for endoscopic recurrence of around 90%. Pregnancy Most Crohn's disease therapies, with the exceptions of methotrexate and thalidomide, are safe in pregnancy, but risks and benefits should be carefully discussed with patients. Acute flares should be treated with corticosteroids or dietary therapy (elemental or polymeric), and maintenance treatment with azathioprine and/or anti-TNF therapy (the latter until the third trimester) should usually be continued. Complications and their management The complications of Crohn's disease confer significant morbidity and some mortality. Acute complications Intestinal obstruction manifesting as colicky pain, vomiting, distension, and absolute constipation presents acutely or subacutely and is due variably to food bolus, active inflammation (with mural oedema), adhesions, and fibrotic stenosis. Strictures usually affect the terminal ileum but can occur anywhere from oesophagus to anal canal. Inflammatory markers and abdominal CT or MRI constitute key investigations. Episodes usually resolve with conservative management: nil by mouth, intravenous fluids, corticosteroids, and nasogastric tube for pronounced vomiting. Recurrent episodes refractory to a low-residue diet (exclusion of mushrooms, sweetcorn, vegetable skins, etc.) and increased immunosuppression (if evidence of inflammation) require endoscopic dilatation or surgical resection/strictureplasty. Intestinal perforation, caused by deep fissuring ulcers characteristic of Crohn's disease, presents acutely as peritonitis, but symptoms may be considerably masked by corticosteroid therapy. Following diagnostic confirmation, usually on CT, urgent surgical resection is mandated. Fortunately, free perforation is rare as fibrotic serosal reaction and fat wrapping contain most leaks. Toxic megacolon is rare in Crohn's disease, but those with acute severe colitis and systemic upset (fever, tachycardia, etc.) require close monitoring and serial abdominal radiographs. Where transverse colonic diameter is more than 6 cm at presentation and this persists despite 24 to 48 h of maximal medical therapy, or develops during such treatment, colectomy is mandated to prevent perforation. Severe bleeding is rare. After resuscitation, therapeutic options include endoscopic haemostasis (adrenaline injection and clipping), angiographic occlusion, or surgical resection. Other medical Venous thromboembolism is common and potentially life-threatening, requiring

vigilance and low molecular weight heparin during all hospital admissions. Subacute/chronic complications Perianal fistulae Asymptomatic simple fistulae may not require specific treatment. Treating symptomatic perianal fistulae requires a joint medical and surgical approach. Medical management involves control of infection with antibiotics and control of disease with immunomodulators and/or biological therapy. Surgical

15.11 Crohn's disease 2935 approaches primarily include drainage of abscesses and keeping the fistula track open with noncutting setons. More definitive management may be attempted, for example, with instillation of fibrin glue, use of collagen plugs, or reconstructive approaches, but these are successful in less than 50% of cases. Emerging data using mesenchymal stem cells injected into the fistula tract have shown promise for improved healing rates, with one such therapy now licensed. In severe disease, a defunctioning stoma may be required. Surgical complications Intra-abdominal or pelvic abscesses can result from localized perforation or internal fistulation. Symptoms include abdominal pain and marked weight loss, but can be surprisingly nonspecific and frequently mistaken for active luminal inflammation. Markedly elevated inflammatory markers indicate sepsis and mandate abdominal CT. Treatment options, decided by multidisciplinary review and depending on the patient's clinical status, include antibiotics (metronidazole and ciprofloxacin) with radiological drainage and elemental diet or corticosteroids to suppress Crohn's inflammation. Surgical drainage/resection is usually best deferred while sepsis is thus controlled. Parenteral nutrition and intensive care may be required in severe cases. Symptomatic anal strictures should be dilated under anaesthetic, with benefit prolonged by using a dilator at home. Gallstones and renal stones are common, and symptoms may be confused with active Crohn's disease. Conventional management is indicated. The risk of colon cancer is increased in Crohn's disease affecting the colon. As with ulcerative colitis, risk correlates with disease extent, activity, and duration. In one study, neoplasia was detected in 16% of patients over 20 years. Regular surveillance colonoscopy is warranted after 10 years' extensive Crohn's colitis, with biopsy series including any mucosal irregularities. The risk of small-bowel carcinoma increases 40-fold compared to the general population, usually within chronic strictures, but remains very rare. Medical and nutritional complications Short-bowel syndrome following extensive resection is likely if there is less than 120 cm of small bowel ending in an ileostomy or 80 cm with colon in situ (colonic bacteria 'scavenge' calories by fermentation, producing volatile fatty acids which are absorbed). Other patterns of malabsorption in Crohn's disease include (1) vitamin B12 deficiency—following ileal resection, levels should be monitored yearly and replaced parenterally where deficient; (2) iron deficiency—oral iron preparations are frequently poorly tolerated or ineffective, hence intravenous iron sucrose/iron dextran is often required; and (3) zinc, magnesium, and selenium deficiencies should be sought and treated. Ileal resection prevents resorption of bile acids in the enterohepatic circulation. In the colon they can stimulate marked watery (choleric) diarrhoea, which can be treated with colestyramine. Bacterial overgrowth of the small bowel results from stasis produced by scarring and stricturing. Symptoms include diarrhoea, nausea, bloating, and flatulence. Treatment is with antibiotics (e.g. metronidazole, doxycycline, co-amoxiclav); prolonged or rotating courses are often required. Osteoporosis occurs in approximately 12% of Crohn's disease patients, with increased fracture risk. Corticosteroid therapy, low body mass, poor dietary intake of calcium, smoking, hypogonadism, and uncontrolled inflammation all contribute. Regular bone densitometry is indicated, with calcium/vitamin D supplements and bisphosphonates given as required. Growth failure is a major risk in adolescents, particularly with disease activity around puberty. Height and weight must be monitored on growth charts. Acute

relapse should be managed with dietary therapy (elemental/polymeric) where possible. The priority is rapid induction of remission to restore growth, and infliximab or surgery may be required to achieve this. Long-term corticosteroids must be avoided: azathioprine or infliximab are frequently used to maintain remission. Prognosis To a patient newly diagnosed with Crohn's disease, the lack of a cure and uncertain future is understandably concerning. However, an aggressive or refractory course is unusual, and although morbidity during flares is substantial these are mostly short-lived and usually interspersed with long periods of remission with near-normal quality of life. Although reliable prognostic markers are currently lacking, population-based data from Denmark indicate 55% of patients to be in remission and 15% with mild disease only 1 year after diagnosis. Some 10 to 30% of patients relapse each year, less if immunomodulatory drugs are used. Up to 80% of Crohn's disease patients require surgery in the long term. For ileal/small-bowel Crohn's disease, surgery is required on average 8 years after diagnosis. Some 30 to 40% of patients experience symptomatic relapse by 5 years postoperatively, with 30% requiring further surgery within 10 years. Smoking more than doubles this risk. Surgery is required less frequently for exclusively colonic disease. Risk of relapse following panproctocolectomy is low in such individuals. Large population-based studies have suggested slightly higher mortality rates in patients with Crohn's disease. Cause-specific mortality includes an excess of colorectal cancer, but also excess cardiovascular mortality, as well as acute complications including sepsis, pulmonary embolism, bowel perforation, and postoperative complications. Areas of controversy Key research priorities include identifying the precise role of specific microorganisms and the commensal gut flora in triggering and sustaining the intestinal inflammation of Crohn's disease. For patients requiring treatment escalation, we need data on optimal sequences of therapy with anti-TNF agents, vedolizumab or ustekinumab that produce the best overall results and best cost-effectiveness. For patients in remission, it will be important to understand better how long to continue with a given therapy, or combination of therapies, and to develop better risk models for considering drug-specific long-term risks and benefits. Likewise, more data are needed on optimal treatment algorithms, in particular the incorporation of therapeutic drug monitoring and endoscopic and biomarker monitoring, and whether these result in improved clinical outcomes and are cost-effective?

section 15 Gastroenterological disorders 2936 Likely future developments In the near future, we expect to see the increased understanding of biomarkers that may be used to stratify patients. In particular, the use of genetic data and biomarkers at diagnosis and throughout treatment will help identify patients destined to run an aggressive disease course, with such patients targeted for more aggressive therapy. At the same time, progress in knowledge regarding pathogenic mechanisms will feed development of new therapies, alongside progress in characterizing environmental triggers. Patients will continue to gain better access to biological and other novel immunotherapies. Increasing complexity of patient management will be supported with increasing use of specialist nurses and patient self-management. FURTHER READING Ananthakrishnan AN (2015). Epidemiology and risk factors for IBD. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol*, 12, 205–17. Biedermann L, et al. (2012). Pregnancy and breastfeeding in inflammatory bowel disease. *Digestion*, 86 Suppl 1, 45–54. Colombel JF, et al. (2004). The safety profile of infliximab in patients with Crohn's disease: the Mayo clinic experience in 500 patients. *Gastroenterology*, 126, 19–31. Colombel JF, et al. (2010). Infliximab, azathioprine, or combination therapy for Crohn's disease. *N Engl J Med*, 362, 1383–95. Cosnes J, et al. (2001). Smoking cessation and the course of Crohn's disease: an intervention study. *Gastroenterology*, 120, 1093–9. Cosnes J, et al. (2005). Impact of the increasing use of immunosuppressants in Crohn's disease on the need for intestinal surgery. *Gut*, 54,

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Useful websites Crohn's and Colitis Foundation of America: <http://www.ccfa.org>
Crohn's and Colitis UK: <http://www.crohnsandcolitis.org.uk>
International IBD Genetics Consortium: <http://www.ibdgenetics.org/>

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