

Knowledge Gaps in the Management of Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease

M.R.K.L. Lie

Knowledge Gaps in the Management of Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease

M.R.K.L. Lie

Knowledge Gaps in the Management of Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease

Kennishiaten binnen behandeling van patiënten met
een inflammatoire darmziekte

Copyright © Mitchell Rhys Kon Leong Lie 2020

All right reserved. No part of this thesis may be reproduced or distributed in any form or by any means, without the prior written permission of the author or the publisher.

Cover: Evelien Jagtman

Layout: Tiny Wouters

Printing: Ridderprint | www.ridderprint.nl

Printing of this thesis was financially supported by:
Erasmus MC Rotterdam

Knowledge Gaps in the Management of Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease

Kennishiaten binnen behandeling van patiënten met
een inflammatoire darmziekte

PROEFSCHRIFT

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan de
Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam
op gezag van de
rector magnificus

Prof.dr. R.C.M.E. Engels

en volgens besluit van het College voor Promoties.
De openbare verdediging zal plaatsvinden op

Dinsdag 08 september 2020 om 13.30 uur

door

Mitchell Rhys Kon Leong Lie
geboren te Leiderdorp

Erasmus University Rotterdam

The logo of Erasmus University Rotterdam, featuring a stylized, handwritten-style script of the word "Erasmus" in a dark blue or black color.

Promotiecommissie:

Promotor: Prof.dr. C.J. van der Woude

Copromotor: Dr. A.C. de Vries
Dr. G.M. Fuhler

Overige leden: Prof.dr. J.M.W. Hazes
Prof.dr. M.P. Peppelenbosch
Prof.dr. E.P. van Puijenbroek

Table of contents

| | | |
|------------|--|-----|
| | General introduction | 7 |
| Chapter 1 | Managing ulcerative colitis: the guidelines and beyond. | 19 |
| Chapter 2 | Drug therapies for ulcerative proctitis – systematic review and meta-analysis. | 39 |
| Chapter 3 | Efficacy and safety of tacrolimus vs beclomethasone suppositories in patients with refractory ulcerative proctitis in a randomized trial | 77 |
| Chapter 4 | Low dose naltrexone for induction of remission in inflammatory bowel disease patients. | 97 |
| Chapter 5 | Practical guideline for fatigue management in inflammatory bowel disease. | 123 |
| Chapter 6 | Adalimumab in Crohn's disease patients: pharmacokinetics in the first 6 months of treatment. | 139 |
| Chapter 7 | Sex is associated with adalimumab side effects and drug survival in patients with Crohn's disease. | 155 |
| Chapter 8 | Patient sex does not affect endoscopic outcomes of biologicals in patients with inflammatory bowel disease, but is associated with adverse events. | 173 |
| | Summary and conclusions | 201 |
| | Nederlandse samenvatting en conclusies | 211 |
| Appendices | Abbreviations | 223 |
| | Bibliography | 227 |
| | Acknowledgements / Dankwoord | 231 |





General introduction

Chapter 1

General introduction

Inflammatory bowel disease

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) are a heterogeneous group of diseases consisting of chronic, often relapsing-remitting, intestinal inflammation. IBD is subdivided in two overarching disease types with different patterns of inflammation, namely Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). Both diseases can be subdivided based on the extent of intestinal inflammation using classification systems such as the Montreal classification¹.

The exact pathogenesis of IBD remains elusive, but the current paradigm consist of a complex interplay of genetic susceptibility²⁻³, environmental factors⁴⁻⁵ and dysfunction in the interaction between gut microbiome and the immune system⁶.

In the last decades, the incidence of IBD has increased in the Netherlands, which is also seen worldwide⁷⁻⁸. With the Dutch rise in incidence, the prevalence of IBD has also increased, currently resulting in approximately 80.000 – 100.000 patients in the Netherlands.

As a chronic disease, the chronic treatment for IBD results in significant healthcare costs for society⁹, particularly since IBD is often diagnosed at a relatively young age, with the incidence peaking at the ages of 15-30 years old¹⁰. Furthermore, IBD can negatively affect the quality of life of patients, due to factors such as chronic fatigue¹¹, hospitalizations and surgery¹², sexual dysfunction¹³ or negative body image. Any of these factors may also reduce work productivity¹⁴⁻¹⁵, resulting in an increased burden of IBD on society as a whole.

Despite advances in diagnostics and discoveries of new therapies, no definitive cure currently exists for IBD. As such, the current aim of treatment is reduce patient symptoms via suppression of gut inflammation, also known as achieving quiescent disease or mucosal healing. Suppression of gut inflammation not only leads to fewer symptoms, but also reduces the risks of complications such as strictures, malnutrition and colorectal carcinoma¹⁶. In recent years, the therapeutic arsenal to achieve mucosal healing has expanded and continues to expand due to continued new insights into the pathogenesis of IBD and the underlying immune pathways involved once the diagnosis has been established. Nevertheless, only approximately 60% of IBD patients manage to achieve long lasting remission with the drugs currently at our disposal¹⁷.

The current treatment paradigm in IBD consists of a treatment pyramid, with several tiers. The different tiers are based on both the efficacy and toxicity of a drug. Drugs with relatively few side-effects and low toxicity are present in the lowest tiers, whereas the highest tiers consist of powerful or invasive treatments with potentially severe side effects. Most patients are treated successfully with drugs from the first tier, but in case of treatment failure a 'step-up' to the next tier is performed until gut inflammation is completely suppressed. However, an individualized approach of each patient is key, as there is considerable heterogeneity amongst patients, due to differences in disease behaviour and response to therapy.

Aims and outline of this thesis

Despite ongoing research, many knowledge gaps in the pathogenesis, etiology and treatment of IBD remain. The aim of this thesis is to fill some of these knowledge gaps, as outlined below.

In Chapter 1 we provide an overview of the current treatment guidelines for ulcerative colitis, with the aim of identifying patient groups not covered by guidelines.

For instance, a subset of UC patients exists who have inflammation limited to the rectum, which is referred to as ulcerative proctitis according to the Montreal classification. Due to the limited extent of inflammation in these patients, the current guidelines make specific treatment recommendations, with the first line treatment being topical 5-ASA compounds (i.e. locally applied via suppository or enema)¹⁸. In case of failure or intolerance, the guidelines further recommend prescribing topical corticosteroids, though the evidence for this recommendation is limited. However a good synthesis of the efficacy of these therapies is lacking. Therefore in Chapter 2 we systematically assess the evidence for the use of topical 5-ASA and corticosteroids in ulcerative proctitis, using a systematic literature review and meta-analysis.

However, even when the recommended topical treatments are employed, inflammation may persist, with some studies reporting up to 55% of patients with refractory inflammation¹⁹. For these patients, other therapies are necessary to induce disease remission. However, how to manage these refractory proctitis patients remains a significant knowledge gap. Though new drugs for ulcerative colitis in general have been studied and approved in recent years, patients with only proctitis are actively excluded from these corresponding 'landmark' trials²⁰⁻²¹. Thus, the efficacy of new

drugs in patients with proctitis remains unclear. Furthermore, these drugs are administered systemically, whilst the inflammation is limited to less than 20cm of the colon. As such, another local therapy would be highly preferable to prevent systemic drug exposure.

Several small studies have shown that topically applied tacrolimus, a known effective immunomodulatory drug, is an effective treatment for ulcerative proctitis²²⁻²³, however these studies have not compared tacrolimus with an active drug. In Chapter 3, we describe the results of a randomized clinical trial comparing the efficacy of topical tacrolimus with topical corticosteroids, in 5-ASA refractory proctitis patients.

In recent years, the increase in our understanding of the immune pathways involved in IBD has led to the identification of new therapeutic targets. However, IBD remains an incurable disease. As such, there is ongoing development of novel drugs interacting with these various inflammatory pathways²⁴⁻²⁵. However, not all IBD treatments involve newly discovered drugs as occasionally immunomodulatory effects are found in drugs that already exist. This strategy of 'drug repurposing' has been successfully employed in a variety of fields including cancer and urology²⁶⁻²⁷ and remains of interest to all medical fields because the costs and time involved in developing a completely new compound can be prohibitive²⁸⁻²⁹.

In this fashion, the drug naltrexone was shown to have immunomodulatory effects. This drug was originally designed to treat opioid withdrawal symptoms, via manipulation of the μ -opioid receptor³⁰, but recent studies have shown that lower doses of naltrexone lead to anti-inflammatory effects via modulation of endoplasmic reticulum stress³¹. Small studies showed a possible effect in animal studies³² therefore in Chapter 4 we describe our investigations into the in vitro and in vivo effects of naltrexone in IBD.

Though many symptoms of IBD are directly related to gut inflammation, for instance diarrhea or bloody stools, patients may also experience other symptoms such as arthropathy or eye disease. In fact, such extra-intestinal manifestations occur frequently, with studies reporting a wide range of prevalences from 5% to 40%³³⁻³⁴. Due to the frequent occurrence of extra-intestinal complaints, the current guidelines supply recommendations for many of these symptoms³⁵. However, an often overlooked symptom in IBD patients is severe fatigue. Severe fatigue is more frequently seen in patients with active intestinal inflammation, but even in patients with quiescent disease severe fatigue can persist in up to 40%³⁶⁻³⁸. Adequate treatment of fatigue remains relevant due to the relationship between fatigue and quality of life and general

productiveness^{9,39-40}. In Chapter 5, we summarize the available knowledge on fatigue in IBD and develop a management algorithm designed to optimally guide and treat patients with debilitating fatigue.

As described in the guidelines, the goal of therapy in IBD patients is complete suppression of inflammation and not merely symptom control, as symptom control correlates poorly with actual control of inflammation. Since active inflammation is strongly associated with various long-term complications, the goal of therapy remains complete and maintained suppression of gut inflammation⁴¹. This goal is most often achieved using drug therapy, in some cases with just one drug, in other cases with a combination of drugs. However, though all currently employed IBD drug therapies are effective at controlling gut inflammation, all drug therapies are equally associated with toxicity⁴²⁻⁴⁴. Therefore the optimal drug dose is a balancing act between achieving optimal efficacy with as low as possible toxicity.

The process of determining the optimal drug dose usually starts in pre-clinical studies involving healthy volunteers, with subsequent modelling of the drug's pharmacokinetic properties. Often, these pharmacokinetic analyses are repeated in patients to confirm or optimize the models. In this fashion, the pharmacokinetics of several drugs prescribed for IBD have been studied⁴⁵⁻⁴⁶. However, the pharmacokinetics of the drug adalimumab have been examined less extensively. As such, in Chapter 6 we describe our investigations into the pharmacokinetics of adalimumab in a cohort of Crohn's disease patients.

Other than pharmacokinetics, there are many factors that could influence the disease course in IBD patients and the efficacy and toxicity of drug therapies. For instance, smoking⁴⁷, dietary factors⁵ and lifestyle factors⁴⁸ are associated with the pathogenesis and/or the long term behaviour and severity of the disease. However of all patient factors, patient sex is infrequently analysed, even though there are signs that it plays a role in the pathogenesis and disease course of IBD⁴⁹⁻⁵¹. Of note, patient sex refers to the biological sex (i.e. the presence of male or female reproductive organs), and should not be confused with the social and culturally constructed gender. We present our analysis of the influence of patient sex on the outcomes of adalimumab therapy in a cohort of Crohn's disease patients in Chapter 7.

In Chapter 8 we investigate the possible role of patient sex on drug efficacy further, using a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. In this study we specifically examine the efficacy of biological therapies, as measured as objectively as possible via

endoscopic disease assessments. Furthermore we investigate if patient sex is related to the occurrence and severity of drug related adverse events.

References

1. Satsangi J, Silverberg MS, Vermeire S, Colombel JF. The Montreal classification of inflammatory bowel disease: controversies, consensus, and implications. *Gut* 2006;55:749.
2. Henckaerts L, Van Steen K, Verstreken I. et al. Genetic risk profiling and prediction of disease course in Crohn's disease patients. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2009;7:972.
3. Cleynen I, Boucher G2, Jostins L3. et al. Inherited determinants of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis phenotypes: a genetic association study. *Lancet* 2016;387:156-67.
4. Higuchi LM, Khalili H, Chan AT. et al. A prospective study of cigarette smoking and the risk of inflammatory bowel disease in women. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2012;107:1399.
5. Amre DK, D'Souza S, Morgan K. et al. Imbalances in dietary consumption of fatty acids, vegetables, and fruits are associated with risk for Crohn's disease in children. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;102:2016.
6. Morgan XC, Tickle TL, Sokol H. et al. Dysfunction of the intestinal microbiome in inflammatory bowel disease and treatment. *Genome Biol* 2012;13(9):R79
7. Ng SC, Shi HY, Hamidi N. et al. Worldwide incidence and prevalence of inflammatory bowel disease in the 21st century: a systematic review of population-based studies. *Lancet* 2018;390:2769–78.
8. van den Heuvel TRA, Jeuring SFG, Zeegers MP. et al. A 20-Year Temporal Change Analysis in Incidence, Presenting Phenotype and Mortality, in the Dutch IBD Cohort-Can Diagnostic Factors Explain the Increase in IBD Incidence? *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(10):1169-79..
9. Van der Valk ME, Mangan MJ, Severs M, et al. Evolution of Costs of Inflammatory Bowel Disease over Two Years of Follow-Up. *PLoS One* 2016;11(4):e0142481.b
10. Shivashankar R, Tremaine WJ, Harmsen WS, Loftus EV Jr. Incidence and Prevalence of Crohn's Disease and Ulcerative Colitis in Olmsted County, Minnesota From 1970 Through 2010. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(6):857-63.
11. Williet N, Sarter H, Gower-Rousseau C, et al. Patient-reported Outcomes in a French Nationwide Survey of Inflammatory Bowel Disease Patients. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(2):165-74.
12. Frolkis AD, Dykeman J, Negrón ME, et al. Risk of surgery for inflammatory bowel diseases has decreased over time: a systematic review and meta-analysis of population-based studies. *Gastroenterology* 2013;145:996–1006.
13. Rivière P, Zallot C, Desobry P, et al. Frequency of and factors associated with sexual dysfunction in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11:1347–52.
14. De Boer AG, Bennebroek Evertsz' F, Stokkers PC, et al. Employment status, difficulties at work and quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2016;28(10):1130-6.
15. Le Berre C, Peyrin-Biroulet L, Buisson A, et al. Impact of inflammatory bowel diseases on working life: A French nationwide survey. *Dig Liver Dis.* 2019;51(7):961-6.
16. Flores BM, O'Connor A, Moss AC. Impact of mucosal inflammation on risk of colorectal neoplasia in patients with ulcerative colitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Gastrointest Endosc* 2017;86:1006-11.e8.
17. Bryant RV, Winer S, Travis SP, Riddell RH. Systematic review: histological remission in inflammatory bowel disease. Is 'complete' remission the new treatment paradigm? An IOIBD initiative. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8(12):1582-97
18. Harbord M, Eliakim R, Bettenworth D, et al. Third European Evidence-based Consensus on Diagnosis and Management of Ulcerative Colitis. Part 2: Current Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(7):769-84
19. Sandborn WJ, BosworthB, Zakko Z, et al. Budesonide foam induces remission in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis and ulcerative proctosigmoiditis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;148(4): 740-70.e2.
20. Feagan BG, Rutgeerts P, Sands BE, et al. Vedolizumab as induction and maintenance therapy for ulcerative colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2013;369(8):699-710.
21. Sandborn WJ, Su C, Sands BE, et al. Tofacitinib as Induction and Maintenance Therapy for Ulcerative Colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2017;376(18):1723-36.
22. Van Dieren JM, van Bodegraven AA, Kuipers EJ, et al. Local application of tacrolimus in distal colitis: feasible and safe. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009;15(2):193-8.

23. Lawrance IC, Baird A, Lightower D, et al. Efficacy of Rectal Tacrolimus for Induction Therapy in Patients With Resistant Ulcerative Proctitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(8):1248-55.
24. Antonelli E, Villanacci V, Bassotti G. Novel oral-targeted therapies for mucosal healing in ulcerative colitis. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018;24(47):5322-30.
25. Argollo M, Fiorino G, Hindryckx P, Peyrin-Biroulet L, Danese S. Novel therapeutic targets for inflammatory bowel disease. *J Autoimmun* 2017;85:103-16.
26. Moroney J, Fu S, Moulder S, Falchook G, et al. Phase I study of the antiangiogenic antibody bevacizumab and the mTOR/hypoxia-inducible factor inhibitor temsirolimus combined with liposomal doxorubicin: tolerance and biological activity. *Clin Cancer Res* 2012;18(20):5796-805.
27. Norton PA, Zinner NR, Yalcin I, et al. Duloxetine versus placebo in the treatment of stress urinary incontinence. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2002;187(1):40-8.
28. DiMasi JA, Grabowski HG, Hansen RW. Innovation in the pharmaceutical industry: New estimates of R&D costs. *J Health Econ* 2016;47:20-33.
29. Ciociola AA, Cohen LB, Kulkarni P, FDA-Related Matters Committee of the American College of Gastroenterology. How drugs are developed and approved by the FDA: current process and future directions. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2014;109(5):620-3.
30. Resnick RB, Volavka J, Freedman AM, Thomas M. Studies of EN-1639A (naltrexone): a new narcotic antagonist. *Am J Psychiatry* 1974;131(6):646-50.
31. Moslehi A, Nabavizadeh F, Zekri A, Amiri F. Naltrexone changes the expression of lipid metabolism-related proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum stress induced hepatic steatosis in mice. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol* 2017;44(2):207-12.
32. Matters GL, Harms JF, McGovern C, et al. The opioid antagonist naltrexone improves murine inflammatory bowel disease. *J Immunotoxicol* 2008;5(2):179-87.
33. Bernstein CN, Blanchard JF, Rawsthorne P, Yu N. The prevalence of extraintestinal diseases in inflammatory bowel disease: a population-based study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001;96:1116-22.
34. Ricart E, Panaccione R, Loftus EV Jr, et al. Autoimmune disorders and extraintestinal manifestations in first-degree familial and sporadic inflammatory bowel disease: a case-control study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2004;10(3):207-14.
35. Harbord M, Annesse V, Vavricka SR, et al. The First European Evidence-based Consensus on Extra-intestinal Manifestations in Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *J Crohns Colitis* 2016;3(10):239-54.
36. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, van Tilburg AJ, et al. Determinants of fatigue in Crohn's disease patients. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013;25(2):246-51.
37. Huppertz-Hauss G, Høivik ML, Jelsness-Jørgensen LP, et al. Fatigue in a population-based cohort of patients with inflammatory bowel disease 20 years after diagnosis: The IBSEN study. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2017;52:351-8.
38. Saraiva S, Cortez-Pinto J, Barosa R, et al. Evaluation of fatigue in inflammatory bowel disease - a useful tool in daily practice. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2019;54(4):465-70.
39. Graff LA, Vincent N, Walker JR, et al. A population-based study of fatigue and sleep difficulties in inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2011;17(9):1882-9.
40. Espahbodi S, Bassett P, Cavill C, et al. Fatigue contributes to work productivity impairment in patients with axial spondyloarthritis: a cross-sectional UK study. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 2017;35(4):571-8.
41. Gomollón F, Dignass A, Annesse V, et al. 3rd European Evidence-based Consensus on the Diagnosis and Management of Crohn's Disease 2016: Part 1: Diagnosis and Medical Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(1):3-25.
42. Jick H, Myers MW, Dean AD. The risk of sulfasalazine- and mesalazine-associated blood disorders. *Pharmacotherapy* 1995;15(2):176-81.
43. Meijer B, Kreijne JE, van Moorsel SAW et al. 6-methylmercaptopurine-induced leukocytopenia during thiopurine therapy in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;32(6):1183-90.
44. Keane J, Gershon S, Wise RP, et al. Tuberculosis associated with infliximab, a tumor necrosis factor alpha-neutralizing agent. *N Engl J Med* 2001;345(15):1098-104.
45. Lowry PW, Franklin CL, Weaver AL, et al. Measurement of thiopurine methyltransferase activity and azathioprine metabolites in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Gut* 2001;49(5):665-70.

46. Fasanmade AA, Adedokun OJ, Ford J et al. Population pharmacokinetic analysis of infliximab in patients with ulcerative colitis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2009;65(12):1211-28.
47. Harries AD, Baird A, Rhodes J. Non-smoking: a feature of ulcerative colitis. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)* 1982; 284(6317):706.
48. Ananthakrishnan AN, Khalili H, Pan A, et al. Association between depressive symptoms and incidence of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis: results from the Nurses' Health Study. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013;11(1):57-62.
49. Cornish JA, Tan E, Simillis C et al. The risk of oral contraceptives in the etiology of inflammatory bowel disease: a meta-analysis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2008;103(9):2394-400.
50. Khalili H, Granath F, Smedby KE, et al. Association Between Long-term Oral Contraceptive Use and Risk of Crohn's Disease Complications in a Nationwide Study. *Gastroenterology* 2016;150(7):1561-7.e1.
51. Rolston VS, Boroujerdi L, Long MD, et al. The Influence of Hormonal Fluctuation on Inflammatory Bowel Disease Symptom Severity-A Cross-Sectional Cohort Study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2018;24(2):387-93.



The background of the page features abstract, wavy, layered bands of color. A light green band is at the top left, followed by a dark blue band, and a lighter blue band below that. These bands curve across the page, creating a sense of movement and depth. The text is positioned on the white background between these colored sections.

Chapter 1

Managing ulcerative colitis:
the guidelines and beyond

MRKL Lie, CJ van der Woude

European Medical Journal, Gastroenterology, 2013

Abstract

Management guidelines offer clinicians clear, evidence based and often succinct treatment advice. For ulcerative colitis these guidelines describe the use of 5-ASA, corticosteroids, thiopurines, cyclosporine and anti-TNF-alpha therapies. However, guidelines do have some drawbacks, mainly a lack of concrete advice concerning patients resistant to these aforementioned therapies. This review gives a short overview of current guidelines and addresses treatment alternatives for conventional therapies.

Introduction

The management of ulcerative colitis remains challenging to even the most seasoned clinician. This is partly due to the nonelucidated etiology of the disease. Periodically updated guidelines are valuable instruments that aid clinicians in decision making. However, the management of ulcerative colitis at an individual level remains challenging due to highly variable disease presentations that are not specifically covered by the guidelines. Specifically, patients intolerant to conventional therapy or with treatment resistant disease limited to only the rectum can make decision making difficult. Also, a patient's preferences for certain treatments can result in more complicated decision making, for example when patients refuse certain drugs or surgery.

In this review we will summarize the latest guideline on the management of ulcerative colitis. Next, the treatment options and evidence for patients that have exhausted the therapies suggested by the guidelines will be discussed and a strategy will be proposed for this particular subgroup. Furthermore, the limited evidence of several new biological therapies close to registration and approval will be examined.

Therapies for acute remission induction

The choice of therapy depends on disease severity and localization. To properly describe severity and localization, several classification systems exist. Most often the Mayo score or the Truelove and Witts' index is used to classify severity, whereas localization is usually anatomically described as proctitis (rectum only), left-sided (beyond the rectum but distal of the splenic flexure) or extensive (extending beyond splenic flexure). Below are summarized the appropriate conventional treatments. The 2012 European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation (ECCO) guidelines on ulcerative colitis give more thorough recommendations in different situations¹.

Proctitis

Topical 5-ASA therapy is the first line therapy for proctitis. There is good quality evidence for topical treatment only²⁻¹², with some evidence showing that topical 5-ASA treatment is superior to oral 5-ASA treatment alone¹³. Topical steroid therapy has been found to be inferior for remission induction¹⁴ and should therefore be used as a second line therapy in case of 5-ASA intolerance.

Left sided disease

A combination of oral and topical 5-ASA has proven to be more effective than either agent alone in the treatment of left sided ulcerative colitis.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ If this fails oral steroids might be added.

Extensive disease

Combined oral plus topical 5-ASA remains the first line of treatment. If this therapy fails, oral steroids can be added¹⁹⁻²³. If steroid dependence occurs, thiopurine treatment is recommended²⁴.

Severe disease

Severe disease is potentially life-threatening and in most cases requires hospital admission and immediate treatment. All guidelines recommend high dose intravenous glucocorticoids as the first treatment modality, even though only limited evidence exist²⁵⁻²⁷. Of great importance is early consideration of salvage treatments as a precautionary measure as the patient may not respond to steroid treatment.

Intravenous steroid-refractory severe disease

Intravenous steroid-refractory disease leaves clinicians with limited drug therapies. Salvage therapy should not be initiated simply to delay surgery, as such delays will lead to greater morbidity at surgery²⁸. If clinical and biochemical parameters allow an attempt at salvage, the guideline recommends cyclosporine, infliximab or tacrolimus. High quality prospective evidence exists for the use of cyclosporine^{27,29-31}, confirmed by several retrospective studies³²⁻³⁴. There is also prospective evidence^{31,35-37} and some retrospective evidence³⁴ for infliximab as a rescue therapy. The prospective evidence for tacrolimus is less extensive³⁸⁻⁴⁰, containing heterogeneous populations and the use of tacrolimus is therefore not as strongly recommended by the guideline.

There is limited evidence for using infliximab as a rescue therapy to cyclosporine, or vice-versa^{41,42}. The guideline recommends such a third line therapy only in select cases treated by a multi-disciplinary team in specialist centers.

Treatments and alternatives for steroid dependent disease

Though intravenous steroid-refractory disease represents the most severe cases of UC, this presentation is relatively rare. In contrast, it is more common to see outpatients who reach remission but either fail to taper their steroids or relapse soon after

tapering, making them steroid dependent. In the following paragraph several options for the treatment of steroid dependent disease and their respective evidence will be discussed.

Thiopurines

A prospective study⁴³ has shown that azathioprine (AZA) and its metabolite 6-mercaptopurine (6-MP) are highly effective in achieving steroid-free remission, with persistent long-term results found in observational studies⁴⁴.

Anti-TNF-alpha

In case of failure or intolerance to thiopurines, anti-TNF-alpha therapy is considered the next step. Several large trials⁴⁵ and a Cochrane meta-analysis⁴⁶ have conclusively proven the efficacy of infliximab in this setting. Though less extensively studied^{47,48}, adalimumab has also show efficacy in steroid dependent disease and in patients intolerant to thiopurine treatment.

Unconventional therapies (see Figure 1.1 for proposed algorithm)

If conventional therapies fail, colectomy becomes a valid treatment option for patients with UC. Clinical experience shows a profound difference in acceptability of colectomy in hospitalized patients compared with outpatients, though no formal studies have examined this issue. It is not uncommon for outpatients to refuse colectomy, despite being informed of the possible benefits of such intervention. In these situations a clinician may need to resort to either enrollment in clinical trials or initiation of an unconventional therapy in the hope of controlling a patient's symptoms. The provided algorithm (Figure 1.1) may help clinicians in their decision making regarding these therapies, which are described in more detail below.

Therapy resistant proctitis

A subset of patients with disease limited to the rectum is surprisingly treatment resistant to topical 5-ASA and / or topical steroid therapies. This may present clinicians with a treatment dilemma: escalate to systemic therapies, with all associated adverse effects, or accept the limited disease localization. There is a paucity of prospective controlled trials within this patient subgroup.

There is only one randomized, placebo controlled trial remotely addressing this issue⁴⁹. This study investigated the efficacy of cyclosporine enemas in left-sided disease

(disease extent ranging from 10 to 60cm ab ano). No significant difference in remission rate between cyclosporine and placebo was found.

Two open label pilot studies investigated the efficacy of topical tacrolimus for treatment resistant proctitis. The first⁵⁰ applied tacrolimus ointment in ulcerative proctitis patients who failed previous 5-ASA, steroid, immunosuppressant and infliximab therapy. 75% (6 out of 8) achieved remission after 8 weeks, with reduction or cessation of steroid usage in 5 of the responders. The second⁵¹ treated 12 patients with ulcerative proctitis resistant to topical 5-ASA and/or topical steroid therapy. This study used tacrolimus suppositories and assessed efficacy after 4 weeks of treatment. Clinical remission was achieved in 83% (10 out of 12) with complete endoscopic healing in 33% (4 out of 12). These promising pilots warrant further investigation of topical tacrolimus in treatment resistant ulcerative proctitis.

Even retrospective data is scarce. One study⁵² retrospectively investigated the efficacy of infliximab in patients with proctitis resistant to at least 5-ASA and steroids. Clinical response was seen in 85% (11 out of 13) after infliximab induction therapy. Two patients suffered from adverse events. Other retrospective studies⁵³⁻⁵⁵ regarding infliximab contain only a few subjects with proctitis, and their response is not individually reported.

Mycophenolate mofetil

No randomized studies have been performed, but the results of 1 retrospective and 3 open-label prospective studies have been published. The first study⁵⁶ retrospectively examined the effectiveness of MMF in 70 steroid dependent IBD patients, of which 19 had UC. After an unclear treatment time (the average treatment time amongst all study subjects was 28 months), 35% (6 out of 17) of UC patients was in steroid-free remission. 65% (11 out of 17) failed to respond to MMF or were intolerant.

The 3 prospective studies consist of two uncontrolled, open-label studies and one unblinded pilot study. The first open label study⁵⁷ examined 24 IBD patients, of which 13 had UC with moderate to severe steroid dependent disease. Patients were treated with combined MMF and high-dose steroids with tapering. In the first 3 months, 46% (6 out of 13) patients achieved remission, but after steroids were tapered, the disease relapsed in all UC patients. The other open label study⁵⁸ treated 14 patients with IBD resistant to conventional therapy. They included 5 patients with UC (or IBD unclassified), all of which were steroid dependent and intolerant to thiopurines. One

patient suffered from side effects and ceased MMF treatment, the other 4 reached remission at 8 weeks and ceased steroid treatment. Follow-up at 12 months showed a maintained remission in 67% of all patients, but the exact data for UC patients at that time point is not reported.

Lastly, in the only controlled study⁵⁹ MMF was compared to azathioprine in 24 UC patients. Both groups received steroids in a tapering dose. Notably, this study excluded patients with current steroid usage. After 4 weeks of treatment, 67% (8 out of 12) in the MMF group reached remission and 5 remained in remission throughout the whole follow-up period of 1 year. However during the entire study, the remission rates were higher in the azathioprine group than in the MMF group, though no significance value is provided by the authors.

Methotrexate

Little prospective studies have been performed on methotrexate (MTX) in ulcerative colitis. One study in 1996⁶⁰ examines the effectiveness of MTX versus placebo in steroid dependent ulcerative colitis. No difference in remission rates was found (47% in the MTX group), which is similar to the results of several case series⁶¹⁻⁶³ (45 to 54%). However it has been argued⁶⁴⁻⁶⁵ that the studied dose of 12.5mg / week is considerably lower than the “modern” dose of 20 to 25mg / week.

Upcoming results of the French METEOR study and the North American MERIT-UC study may shed some light on the use of MTX in UC. Both investigate the effectiveness of MTX 25mg / week for remission induction in treatment resistant and/or steroid dependent ulcerative colitis. It should be noted that whilst according to www.clinicaltrials.gov the MERIT-UC study is currently recruiting, the METEOR study already ended in November 2010, but as of yet no results have been published.

Tacrolimus

Several retrospective studies⁶⁶⁻⁷³ have analyzed the effects of tacrolimus on severe, therapy resistant ulcerative colitis. Outcome parameters, concomitant medication, tacrolimus dosage and target trough levels varied amongst these studies. However all studies show a high clinical response rate, varying between 61% to 90%. Reported clinical remission rates vary between 33% and 72%.

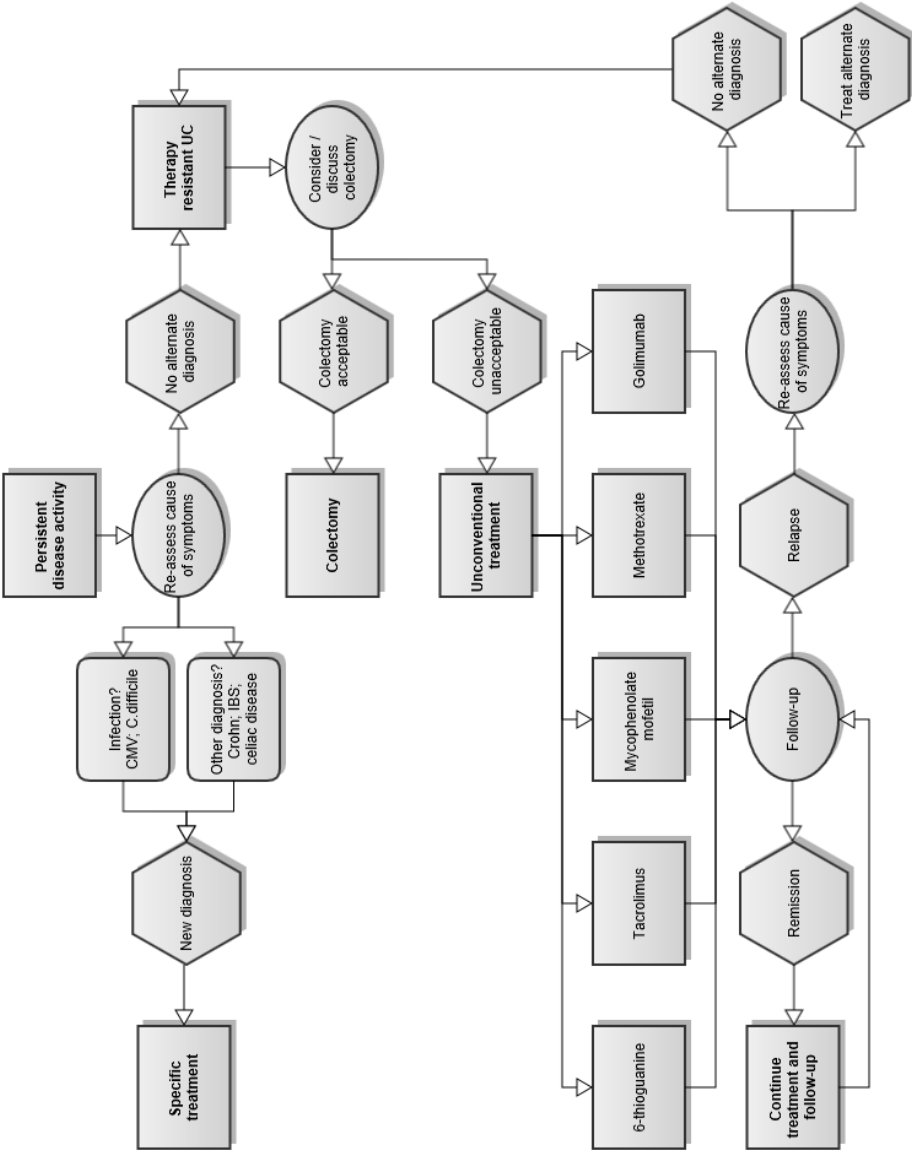


Figure 1.1 Management algorithm for therapy resistant ulcerative colitis. UC ulcerative colitis; CMV cytomegalovirus; IBS irritable bowel syndrome.

The only randomized controlled trial³⁸ concerning tacrolimus in UC randomized 62 patients with steroid refractory, moderate to severe UC. Changes in the tacrolimus dose were made to achieve a target trough level of 10-15ng/mL. This study shows a 50% clinical response at two weeks, with a clinical remission rate of 9% (3 out of 32), with greater response amongst patients who reached the target trough level. After a two week open-label extension period, the clinical remission rate increased to 29% (6 out of 21).

6-Thioguanine

6-Thioguanine (6-TG) is a metabolite of 6-mercaptopurine. Because of polymorphisms in the enzyme thiopurine methyltransferase, the conversion of 6-MP to 6-TG can differ markedly between patients. Directly administering 6-TG should therefore remove dosing issues whilst in theory achieving similar results to AZA and 6-MP treatment. However there is little published data that studies 6-TG treatment directly. Of additional interest is the use of 6-TG in patients with intolerance to AZA or 6-MP. An open label pilot study was performed in 49 patients with Crohn's disease, of whom 23 patients had pancreatitis after AZA or 6-MP administration⁷⁴. None of these patients had recurrence of their pancreatitis after switching to 6-TG.

Table 1.1 Recommended dosage, laboratory tests and absolute contra-indications for 6-thioguanine, tacrolimus, mycophenolate mofetil and methotrexate.

| Agent | Dosage | Contraindications | Laboratory and functional tests | | Comments |
|--|---|--|---------------------------------|-----------------|--|
| | | | Preliminary | Follow-up | |
| 6-thioguanine | OD, oral, 0,3 mg/kg | Liver insufficiency Pregnancy | CBC, LF, RF | CBC, LF | Consider TPMT enzyme activity testing Reduce dose in renal impairment Reduce dose if concomitant allopurinol |
| Tacrolimus | OD, oral, 0,1 mg/kg | Liver insufficiency | ECG, CBC, LF, RF | CBC, LF, RF, TL | Aim for trough level 4-8 ng/mL |
| Mycophenolate mofetil | BD, oral, 500-1000 mg | Pregnancy | CBC, LF, RF | CBC, LF, RF | Adjust dose based on CBC |
| Methotrexate | QWK, SC, 25 mg Reduce to QWK 15mg after 12 weeks | Renal impairment (GFR < 20 mL/min) Pregnancy | CBC, LF, RF | CBC, LF, RF | Also prescribe QWK 5 mg folic acid Adjust dose based on CBC |
| Abbreviations: OD once daily; BD twice daily, QWK once weekly, SC subcutaneous, GFR glomerular filtration rate, CBC complete blood count, LF liver function, RF renal function, TL trough level, TPMT thiopurine methyltransferase | | | | | |

A database analysis⁷⁵ was performed regarding UC patients receiving 6-TG after becoming intolerant to conventional thiopurine treatment and/or being steroid dependent. 46 UC patients were examined, of which 83% (37 out of 46) were on steroids when 6-TG therapy was initiated. 80% (37 out of 46) of patients remained in remission after a median follow-up time of 22.4 months, 13% (6 out of 46) were

intolerant and the remaining 7% (3 out of 46) failed therapy and underwent colectomy. The amount of patients in steroid-free remission is not described.

A prospective, open-label study⁷⁶ treated 16 UC outpatients who had steroid dependent or refractory disease. After 3 months, 31% (5 out of 16) had complete response and 38% (6/16) a partial response.

The measurement of 6-TG levels in the setting of monitoring AZA and 6-MP therapy has been studied extensively and has been found to be useful in meta-analyses⁷⁷. If these results are extrapolated to direct treatment with 6-TG, it is likely that the clinical efficacy of 6-TG is similar to AZA and 6-MP treatment, as long as sufficient serum levels are achieved.

Summary regarding disease resistant to conventional therapies

When treating patients with UC resistant to conventional therapies, the first step is to ensure that it is indeed the UC that is causing the symptoms. Critical re-assessment of the patient to rule out any other pathology is highly important. Secondly, good communication is key since the “rescue” therapies described above have low remission rates and only weak supporting evidence. Patients should be well informed on the potential benefits and risks of these agents. Specifically, patients should be aware that failure of these therapies will increase the likelihood of requiring colectomy.

Figure 1.1 summarizes our recommendations, whilst Table 1.1 shows recommended dosage, laboratory tests and contra-indications. 6-TG and tacrolimus have the highest reported remission rates, therefore we would recommend these agents over MMF, MTX or LDN. The other 3 agents are still useful in specific circumstances, for instance LDN is the most suitable agent for females who wish to become pregnant.

We strongly recommend that all the above drug treatments should be accompanied by close follow up in order to detect treatment failure in a timely fashion. Laboratory markers such as fecal calprotectin, reflecting intestinal inflammation^{78,79}, may aid in the follow-up process. In case of treatment failure or clinical deterioration re-assessment should ensue, after which optimizing therapy, switching therapy or, if necessary, colectomy should follow.

Future therapies

A search in the U.S. National Institutes of Health clinical trial database (<http://clinicaltrials.gov>) using the term “ulcerative colitis” yields 169 planned or active studies. 29 of these studies involve new compounds, which reflect the continuing

interest of many pharmaceutical companies regarding treatment for UC. These compounds are still only known by their study names and mostly involve phase 1 and phase 2 studies, with no results currently available on the website. Amongst these drug candidates are OKT-3 (an oral anti CD-3 agent), ASP3291 (a melanocortin receptor agonist), KRP203 (a sphingosine-1-phosphate receptor modulator), GWP42003 (a cannabinoid), AMG181 (an $\alpha 4\beta 7$ integrin antibody), HE3286 (a synthetic steroid derivative), GL1001 (an ACE-2 inhibitor) and MDX1100 (an CLCL10 antibody). It is anticipated that their role in UC will become clear in the near future.

Not all new and promising therapies live up to our expectations. For instance, basiliximab, daclizumab and visilizumab were promising in uncontrolled pilot studies⁸⁰⁻⁸⁴, but eventually showed identical remission rates to placebo in randomized controlled trials⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷.

Golimumab

Golimumab is a fully human antibody against TNF-alpha. At the DDW in 2012, the initial results of the PURSUIT-SC trial regarding golimumab in UC were presented. Recently the complete article on this two-part, randomized, double blind, placebo controlled phase 2-3 study has been published⁸⁸. A total of 1064 patients were included, 291 in the phase 2 dose-ranging study, 774 in the phase 3, efficacy study. All patients had moderate to severe UC and an inadequate or failed response to at least 1 conventional therapy. The efficacy study evaluated clinical response after 6 weeks of treatment which was achieved in 53% (275 out of 515) of the golimumab groups versus 30% (76 out of 256) of the placebo group. Clinical remission at 6 weeks was 18% (94 out of 515) for the golimumab groups versus 6% (16 out of 256) for the placebo group.

At least one study is planned to examine the efficacy in pediatric patients, whilst another study in Japan is recruiting patients. These studies will address the reproducibility of the results found in the PURSUIT-SC study, though its results have already led to FDA approval for golimumab in moderate to severe UC in May 2013.

Vedolizumab

Vedolizumab is an antibody to the $\alpha 4\beta 7$ integrin heterodimer complex. 3 studies have been published on its efficacy in ulcerative colitis. The first study⁸⁹ reported results of a randomized controlled trial performed in 181 patients. Patients were either untreated or had only received 5-ASA therapy. Vedolizumab or placebo was administered on day

1 and day 29. Clinical response rates were 66% and clinical remission was achieved in 33% at 6 weeks of follow-up.

Two other studies^{90,91} on vedolizumab were a randomized controlled dose-ranging study, and an open label extension of the first, with additional enrollment of treatment naïve patients. In the controlled trial 47 patients with moderate, but not steroid resistant, UC participated and medication or placebo was administered on day 1, 15, 29 and 85. Clinical response at 16 weeks was 60% to 80% (depending on dose). Clinical remission is reported as varying from 53% to 79% between day 29 and 253, compared with 25% to 50% in the placebo group. The study was underpowered for assessment of clinical outcome. The open label extension study involved 72 patients with UC who were administered vedolizumab on day 1, 15, 43, followed by maintenance dose every 8 weeks. After 70 weeks of follow-up, clinical response was achieved in 92% and remission in 77% of patients with moderate to severe UC.

Recently the results of the GEMINI study, a multi-center, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial were published⁹². This study involved 2-phases, with 895 patients in the induction and maintenance phase combined. Notably, patients had active disease and had failed previous glucocorticoid, immunosuppressive or anti-TNF-alpha therapy, though disease limited to the rectum was an exclusion criterion. After 6 weeks, coinciding with the end of the induction phase, vedolizumab showed a statistically significant 47% clinical response rate compared with 26% for placebo. The maintenance phase ended after 52 weeks, again showing a significant difference in clinical remission rates with 42% and 45% for vedolizumab in different doses, compared with 16% for placebo.

No current trials on vedolizumab were identified, but a request for FDA approval was filed in June 2013, most likely based on the results of the abovementioned studies.

Tofacitinib

Tofacitinib is an oral inhibitor of Janus kinase 1, 2 and 3, and it's effect should result in reduction of interleukin 2, 4, 7, 9, 15 and 21. The results of a large, multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial were published in 2012⁹³, examining the efficacy of tofacitinib in patients with active UC. A total of 194 patients were randomized between 5 groups, 1 placebo group and 4 groups with different tofacitinib dosage (0.5mg, 3mg, 10mg and 15mg twice daily). 34% of patients were using

concomitant steroids, whilst 27% were steroid resistant and 19% had failed anti-TNF therapy.

Significant difference in clinical remission was seen in the 3mg, 10mg, and 15mg groups compared with placebo, with remission rates of 33%, 48%, 41% compared with 10% respectively. Endoscopic remission showed similar significant differences, with 18%, 30%, 27% compared with 2% in the placebo group.

Regarding clinical and endoscopic response, only the highest tofacitinib dose showed a significant difference compared with placebo. Clinical response was 78% compared with 42%, whilst endoscopic response was 78% versus 46%.

Currently, the OCTAVE study is recruiting UC patients to analyze the efficacy in moderately to severely acute UC, resistant to at least corticosteroids, azathioprine or anti-TNF therapy. It consists of a remission induction phase, examining efficacy at 8 weeks, and is followed by a long-term follow-up study of 52 weeks.

Discussion

In this paper we have reviewed the most recent guideline by the European Crohn's and Colitis Organization on the treatment of ulcerative colitis. The proper evidence based approach is described extensively in the guideline, and we underscore its usefulness in clinical practice. Nevertheless, it remains challenging for clinicians to extrapolate the results obtained in clinical trials to individual patients.

When patients become resistant to conventional therapies, the situation moves beyond the guidelines, and it is for these situations that we offer the treatment algorithm described above. Of utmost importance remains the individualized and tailored approach, based on the patient's preference, the clinician's preference and the availability of therapies. The choice of these unconventional therapies should be made in conjunction with the patient, underscoring the need for clear communication between clinician and patient, regarding the pros and cons of each treatment modality.

Finally, though the primary aim of these therapies are the induction and maintenance of remission, and subsequently the avoidance of surgery, one could also consider these agents as a bridge to novel treatments, either those substances currently awaiting regulatory approval or those in the last stage of their development.

References

1. Dignass A, Lindsay JO, Sturm A. et al. Second European evidence-based Consensus on the diagnosis and management of ulcerative colitis: Current management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2012;6(10):991-1030
2. Baron JH, Connell AM, Lennard-Jones JE et al. Sulphasalazine and salicylazosulphadimidine in ulcerative colitis. *Lancet* 1962;1:1094-6.
3. Dick AP, Grayson MJ, Carpenter RG, et al. Controlled trial of sulphasalazine in the treatment of ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 1964;5:437-42.
4. Hetzel DJ, Shearman DJC, Bochner F, et al. Azodisalicylate (olsalazine) in the treatment of active ulcerative colitis. A placebo controlled trial and assessment of drug disposition. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1986;1:257-66.
5. Schroeder KW, Tremaine WJ, Ilstrup DM. Coated oral 5-aminosalicylic acid therapy for mildly to moderately active ulcerative colitis. A randomized study. *N Engl J Med* 1987;317:1625-9.
6. Miner P, Nostrant T, Wruble L, et al. Multicenter trial of Pentasa for active ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 1991;100 (Suppl):A231.
7. Sninsky CA, Cort DH, Shanahan F, et al. Oral mesalamine (Asacol) for mildly to moderately active ulcerative colitis. *Ann Intern Med* 1991;115:350-5.
8. Hanauer S, Schwartz J, Robinson M, et al. Mesalamine capsules for treatment of active ulcerative colitis: results of a controlled trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1993;88:1188-97.
9. Kamm MA, Sandborn WJ, Gassull M, et al. Once-daily, high-concentration MMX mesalamine in active ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2007;132:66-75.
10. Lichtenstein GR, Kamm MA, Boddu P. et al. Effect of once- or twice-daily MMX mesalamine (SPD476) for the induction of remission of mild to moderately active ulcerative colitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2007;5:95-102.
11. Scherl EJ, Pruitt R, Gordon GL, et al. Safety and efficacy of a new 3.3 g b.i.d. tablet formulation in patients with mild-to-moderately-active ulcerative colitis: a multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009;104:1452-9.
12. Ito H, Iida M, Matsumoto T, et al. Direct comparison of two different mesalamine formulations for the induction of remission in patients with ulcerative colitis: a double-blind randomized study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16:1567-74.
13. Gionchetti P, Rizzello F, Venturi A, et al. Comparison of oral with rectal mesalazine in the treatment of ulcerative proctitis. *Dis Colon Rectum* 1998;41:93-7.
14. Marshall JK, Irvine EJ. Rectal corticosteroids versus alternative treatments in ulcerative colitis: a meta-analysis. *Gut* 1997;40:775-81.
15. Fruhmorgen P, Demling L. On the efficacy of ready-made-up commercially available salicylazosulphapyridine enemas in the treatment of proctitis, proctosigmoiditis and ulcerative colitis involving rectum, sigmoid, and descending colon. *Hepatogastroenterology* 1980;27:473-6.
16. Vecchi M, Meucci G, Gionchetti P, et al. Oral versus combination mesalazine therapy in active ulcerative colitis: a double-blind, double-dummy, randomized multicentre study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2001;15:251-6.
17. Marteau P, Probert CS, Lindgren S, et al. Combined oral and enema treatment with Pentasa (mesalazine) is superior to oral therapy alone in patients with extensive mild/moderate active ulcerative colitis: a randomised, double blind placebo controlled study. *Gut* 2005;54:960-5.
18. Safdi M, DeMicco M, Sninsky C, et al. A double-blind comparison of oral versus rectal mesalamine versus combination therapy in the treatment of distal ulcerative colitis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1997;92:1867-71.
19. Truelove SC, Witts LJ. Cortisone in ulcerative colitis; preliminary report on a therapeutic trial. *BMJ* 1954;2:375-8.
20. Angus P, Snook JA, Reid M, et al. Oral fluticasone propionate in active distal ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 1992;33:711-4.

21. Bossa F, Latiano A, Rossi L, et al. Erythrocyte-mediated delivery of dexamethasone in patients with mild-to-moderate ulcerative colitis, refractory to mesalamine: a randomized, controlled study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2008;103:2509-16.
22. Lennard-Jones JE, Longmore AJ, Newell AC, et al. An assessment of prednisone, salazopyrin, and topical hydrocortisone hemisuccinate used as out-patient treatment for ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 1960;1:217-22.
23. Rizzello F, Gionchetti P, Galeazzi R, et al. Oral beclomethasone dipropionate in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative colitis: a dose-finding study. *Adv Ther* 2001;18:261-71.
24. Ardizzone S, Maconi G, Russo A, et al. Randomised controlled trial of azathioprine and 5-aminosalicylic acid for treatment of steroid dependent ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 2006;55:47-53.
25. Bossa F, Fiorella S, Caruso N, et al. Continuous infusion vs. bolus administration of steroids in severe attacks of ulcerative colitis: a randomized double blind trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;102:601-8.
26. Campieri M, Adamo S, Valpiani D, et al. Oral beclomethasone dipropionate in the treatment of extensive and left-sided active ulcerative colitis: a multicentre randomised study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2003; 17(12):1471-80.
27. D'Haens G, Lemmens L, Geboes K, et al. Intravenous cyclosporine versus intravenous corticosteroids as single therapy for severe attacks of ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2001;120(6):1323-9.
28. Randall JSB, Warren BF, Travis SP, et al. Delayed surgery for acute severe colitis is associated with increased risk of postoperative complications. *Br J Surg* 2010;97:404-9.
29. Van Assche G, D'Haens G, Noman M, et al. Randomized, double-blind comparison of 4 mg/kg versus 2 mg/kg intravenous cyclosporine in severe ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2003;125:1025-31.
30. Lichtiger S, Present DH, Kornbluth A, et al. Cyclosporine in severe ulcerative colitis refractory to steroid therapy. *N Engl J Med* 1994;330(26):1841-5.
31. Laharie D, Bourreille A, Branche J et al. Ciclosporin versus infliximab in patients with severe ulcerative colitis refractory to intravenous steroids: a parallel, open-label randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2012;380(9857):1909-15.
32. Actis GC, Fadda M, David E, et al. Colectomy rate in steroid-refractory colitis initially responsive to cyclosporin: a long-term retrospective cohort study. *BMC Gastroenterol* 2007;7:13.
33. Dean KE, Hikaka J, Huakau JT, et al. Infliximab or cyclosporine for acute severe ulcerative colitis: a retrospective analysis. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2012;27(3):487-92.
34. Sjöberg M, Walch A, Meshkat M, et al. Infliximab or cyclosporine as rescue therapy in hospitalized patients with steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis: a retrospective observational study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2012;18(2):212-8.
35. Järnerot G, Hertervig E, Friis-Liby I, et al. Infliximab as rescue therapy in severe to moderately severe ulcerative colitis: a randomized, placebo-controlled study. *Gastroenterology* 2005;128(7):1805-11.
36. Sands BE, Tremaine WJ, Sandborn WJ, et al. Infliximab in the treatment of severe, steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis: a pilot study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2001;7:83-8.
37. Lees CW, Heys D, Ho GT, et al. A retrospective analysis of the efficacy and safety of infliximab as rescue therapy in acute severe ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2007;26:411-9.
38. Ogata H, Matsui T, Nakamura M, et al. A randomised dose finding study of oral tacrolimus (FK506) therapy in refractory ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 2006;55:1255-62.
39. Fellermann K, Tanko Z, Herrlinger KR, et al. Response of refractory colitis to intravenous or oral Tacrolimus (FK506). *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2002;8:317-24.
40. Hogenauer C, Wenzl HH, Hinterleitner TA, et al. Effect of oral tacrolimus (FK 506) on steroid-refractory moderate/severe ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2003;18:415-23.
41. Chaparro M, Burgueño P, Iglesias E, et al. Infliximab salvage therapy after failure of ciclosporin in corticosteroid-refractory ulcerative colitis: a multicentre study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2012;35(2): 275-83.
42. Leblanc S, Allez M, Seksik P, et al. Successive treatment with cyclosporine and infliximab in steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2011;106(4):771-7.
43. Ardizzone S, Maconi G, Russo A, et al. Randomised controlled trial of azathioprine and 5-aminosalicylic acid for treatment of steroid dependent ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 2006;55:47-53.
44. Chebli LA, LDdM Chaves, Pimentel FF, et al. Azathioprine maintains long-term steroid-free remission through 3 years in patients with steroid-dependent ulcerative colitis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16:613-9.

45. Rutgeerts P, Sandborn WJ, Feagan BG, et al. Infliximab for induction and maintenance therapy for ulcerative colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2005;353:2462-76.
46. Lawson MM, Thomas AG, Akobeng AK. Tumour necrosis factor alpha blocking agents for induction of remission in ulcerative colitis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2006;3:CD005112.
47. Reinisch W, Sandborn WJ, Hommes DW, et al. Adalimumab for induction of clinical remission in moderately to severely active ulcerative colitis: results of a randomised controlled trial. *Gut* 2011;60:780-7.
48. Gies N, Kroecker KI, Wong K, et al. Treatment of ulcerative colitis with adalimumab or infliximab: long-term follow-up of a single-centre cohort. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2010;32:522-8.
49. Sandborn WJ, Tremaine WJ, Schroeder KW, et al. A Placebo-Controlled Trial of Cyclosporine Enemas for Mildly to Moderately Active Left-Sided Ulcerative Colitis. *Gastroenterology* 1994;106:1429-35.
50. Lawrance IC, Copeland TS. Rectal tacrolimus in the treatment of resistant ulcerative proctitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2008;28(10):1214-20.
51. van Dieren JM, van Bodegraven AA, Kuipers EJ, et al. Local application of tacrolimus in distal colitis: feasible and safe. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009;15(2):193-8.
52. Bouguen G, Roblin X, Bourreille A, et al. Infliximab for refractory ulcerative proctitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2010;31(11):1178-85.
53. Tanaka H, Yamashita M, Ishii M, et al. Short- and Long-Term Outcomes of infliximab Treatment for Refractory Ulcerative Colitis and Related Prognostic Factors: A Japanese single-Center study. *Inflammatory Bowel Dis* 2012;18:S36.
54. Motoya S, Yamashita M, Ishii M, et al. Efficacy of infliximab for refractory ulcerative colitis. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2012;27:S5 161-2.
55. Vivekanandarajah S, Guirgis M, Bestic E, et al. Role of infliximab as rescue therapy in hospitalised patients with severe, steroid refractory ulcerative colitis. Local experience. Liverpool and Bankstown hospitals, South Western Sydney Local Health District. Australia. *J Crohns Colitis* 2012;6:S1 S141-2.
56. Palaniappan S, Ford AC, Greer D, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil therapy for refractory inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2007;13(12):1488-92.
57. Fellermann K, Steffen M, Stein J, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil: lack of efficacy in chronic active inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2000;14(2):171-6.
58. Tan T, Lawrance IC. Use of mycophenolate mofetil in inflammatory bowel disease. *World J Gastroenterol* 2009;15(13):1594-9.
59. Orth T, Peters M, Schlaak JF, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil versus azathioprine in patients with chronic active ulcerative colitis: a 12-month pilot study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000;95(5):1201-7.
60. Oren R, Arber N, Odes S, et al. Methotrexate in chronic active ulcerative colitis: a double-blind, randomized, Israeli multicenter trial. *Gastroenterology* 1996;110(5):1416-21.
61. Mañosa M, García V, Castro L, et al. Methotrexate in ulcerative colitis: a Spanish multicentric study on clinical use and efficacy. *J Crohns Colitis* 2011;5(5):397-401.
62. Nathan DM, Iser JH, Gibson PR. A single center experience of methotrexate in the treatment of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis: a case for subcutaneous administration. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2008; 23(6):954-8.
63. Cummings JR, Herrlinger KR, Travis SP, et al. Oral methotrexate in ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2005;21(4):385-9.
64. Carbonnel F. Methotrexate: a drug of the future in ulcerative colitis? *Curr Drug Targets* 2011;12: 1413-6.
65. Herfarth HH, Osterman MT, Isaacs KL, et al. Efficacy of methotrexate in ulcerative colitis: failure or promise. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16:1421-30.
66. Stange EF. Extended abstract: Tacrolimus and cyclosporine in inflammatory bowel disease. *Dig Dis* 2012;30 Suppl 3:119-20.
67. Schmidt KJ, Herrlinger KR, Emmrich J, et al. Short-term efficacy of tacrolimus in steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis - experience in 130 patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2013;37(1):129-36.
68. Baumgart DC, Pintoffl JP, Sturm A, et al. Tacrolimus is safe and effective in patients with severe steroid-refractory or steroid-dependent inflammatory bowel disease--a long-term follow-up. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006;101(5):1048-56.

69. Baumgart DC, Wiedenmann B, Dignass AU. Rescue therapy with tacrolimus is effective in patients with severe and refractory inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2003;17(10):1273-81.
70. Fellermann K, Herrlinger KR, Witthoeft T, et al. Tacrolimus: a new immunosuppressant for steroid refractory inflammatory bowel disease. *Transplant Proc* 2001;33(3):2247-8.
71. Fellermann K, Ludwig D, Stahl M, et al. Steroid-unresponsive acute attacks of inflammatory bowel disease: immunomodulation by tacrolimus (FK506). *Am J Gastroenterol*. 1998;93:1860-6.
72. Högenauer C, Wenzl HH, Hinterleitner TA, et al. Effect of oral tacrolimus (FK 506) on steroid-refractory moderate/severe ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2003;18(4):415-23.
73. Watanabe O, Takafumi A, Kazuhiro I, et al. Short- and Long-Term Efficacy of Tacrolimus in Patients With Refractory Ulcerative Colitis. *Digestive Disease Week 2013*, abstract SU1241.
74. Bonaz B, Boitard J, Marteau P, et al. Thioguanine in patients with Crohn's disease intolerant or resistant to azathioprine/mercaptopurine. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2003;18:401-8.
75. Teml A, Schwab M, Harrer M, et al. A prospective, open-label trial of 6-thioguanine in patients with ulcerative or indeterminate colitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2005;40(10):1205-13.
76. van Asseldonk DP, Jharap B, Kuik DJ, et al. Prolonged thioguanine therapy is well tolerated and safe in the treatment of ulcerative colitis. *Dig Liver Dis* 2011;43(2):110-5.
77. Moreau AC, Laporte S, del Tedesco E, et al. Association Between Thiopurines Metabolites Levels and Clinical Remission in IBD Patients: An Updated Meta-Analysis. *Gastroenterology* 2013;144:S250-1.
78. Tibble JA, Sigthorsson G, Bridger S, et al. Surrogate markers of intestinal inflammation are predictive of relapse in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Gastroenterology* 2000;119(1):15-22.
79. Van Rhee PF, Van de Vijver E, Fidler V. Faecal calprotectin for screening of patients with suspected inflammatory bowel disease: diagnostic meta-analysis. *BMJ* 2010;341:c3369.
80. Creed TJ, Norman MR, Probert CSJ, et al. Basiliximab (anti-CD25) in combination with steroids may be an effective new treatment for steroid-resistant ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2003;18:65-75.
81. Creed TJ, Probert CSJ, Norman MN, et al. Basiliximab for the treatment of steroid-resistant ulcerative colitis: further experience in moderate and severe disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2006;23:1435-42.
82. Van Assche G, Dalle I, Noman M, et al. A pilot study on the use of the humanized anti interleukin-2 receptor antibody daclizumab in active ulcerative colitis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2003;98:369-76.
83. Plevy S, Salzberg B, van Assche G, et al. A phase I study of visilizumab, a humanized anti-CD3 monoclonal antibody, in severe steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2007;133(5):1414-22.
84. Baumgart DC, Targan SR, Dignass AU, et al. Prospective randomized open-label multicenter phase I/II dose escalation trial of visilizumab (HuM291) in severe steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16(4):620-9.
85. Sands BE, Sandborn WJ, Creed TJ, et al. Basiliximab Does Not Increase Efficacy of Corticosteroids in Patients With Steroid-Refractory Ulcerative Colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2012;143:356-64.
86. Van Assche G, Sandborn WJ, Feagan BG, et al. Daclizumab, a humanised monoclonal antibody to the interleukin 2 receptor (CD25), for the treatment of moderately to severely active ulcerative colitis: a randomised, double blind, placebo controlled, dose ranging trial. *Gut* 2006;55(11):1568-74.
87. Sandborn WJ, Colombel JF, Frankel M, et al. Anti-CD3 antibody visilizumab is not effective in patients with intravenous corticosteroid-refractory ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 2010;59(11):1485-92.
88. Sandborn WJ, Feagan BG, Marano C, et al. Subcutaneous Golimumab Maintains Clinical Response in Patients with Moderate-To-Severe Ulcerative Colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2014;146(1):96-109.
89. Feagan BG, Greenberg GR, Wild G, et al. Treatment of Ulcerative Colitis with a Humanized Antibody to the $\alpha 4\beta 7$ integrin. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352(24):2499-507.
90. Parikh A, Leach T, Wyant T, et al. Vedolizumab for the treatment of active ulcerative colitis: a randomized controlled phase 2 dose-ranging study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2012;18(8):1470-9.
91. Parikh A, Fox I, Leach T, et al. Long-term Clinical Experience with Vedolizumab in Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2013;19(8):1691-9.
92. Feagan BG, Rutgeerts PJ, Sands BE, et al. Vedolizumab as Induction and Maintenance Therapy for Ulcerative Colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2013;369:699-710.

93. Sandborn WJ, Ghosh S, Panes J, et al. Tofacitinib, an Oral Janus Kinase Inhibitor, in Active Ulcerative Colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2012;367:616-24.





Chapter 2

Drug therapies for ulcerative proctitis
– systematic review and meta-analysis

MRKL Lie, SL Kanis, BE Hansen, CJ van der Woude

Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2014;20(11):2157-78

Abstract

Background

Patients with ulcerative colitis limited to the proctum are considered to have ulcerative proctitis (UP). In patients with more extensive ulcerative colitis, treatment occurs in a step-up fashion (5-ASA, corticosteroids, thiopurines, anti-TNF- α agents), a strategy which has proven effective. Although treatment of UP occurs using the same step-up design, the efficacy of these therapies in UP is scarcely studied. The objectives were to systematically review the literature for randomized controlled trials studying drug therapies for induction and maintenance of remission in patients with UP.

Methods

Electronic databases and reference lists of review articles were searched. The primary outcomes were clinical remission induction rate and the maintained clinical remission rate. Secondary outcomes were induction and maintenance of endoscopic and histological remission. Relative risks (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for were calculated.

Results

Twenty-three studies (1834 patients) were included. Eighteen trials investigated induction and 5 studied maintenance of remission. Topical 5-ASA was significantly superior to placebo for induction (RR, 2.39; 95% CI, 1.63-3.51) and maintenance (RR, 2.80; 95% CI, 1.21-6.45) of clinical remission, regardless of dose or formulation. Subgroup analysis of 5-ASA suppositories also showed superiority over placebo for induction of clinical (RR, 3.07; 95% CI, 1.70-5.55) and endoscopic remission (RR, 2.64; 95% CI, 1.85-3.77).

Conclusions

Topical 5-ASA is superior to placebo for the induction and maintenance of clinical remission and for the induction of endoscopic remission. The efficacy of corticosteroids, thiopurines, and anti-TNF α has been insufficiently studied in patients with UP.

Background

Description of the condition

The incidence rate for ulcerative colitis (UC), a chronic inflammatory bowel disease varies from 0.5 to 24.5 per 100,000 person-years worldwide¹. Ulcerative proctitis (UP) is defined as ulcerative colitis, with inflammation limited to within 12cm of the anal verge. Similar etiological factors are likely to precipitate distal and extensive colitis. Newly diagnosed UC cases in adults often present with disease limited to the distal or descending colon (left-sided ulcerative colitis, LUC), and the subset of patients with UP may encompass up to one-third of all UC cases^{2,3}. The course of UP varies and most patients experience symptoms in remission - relapse cycles.

In general, UC is classified based on the extent of the disease. Inflammation extending proximally beyond the splenic flexure is termed "extensive disease". This term includes "pancolitis" or "total colitis", both of which refer to inflammation of the whole colon. Inflammation up to the splenic flexure is classified as "left-sided disease" and less often as "distal disease".

The terms "extensive disease" and "left-sided disease" are generally well accepted and unambiguous. The terms used for more distal disease may vary amongst different manuscripts. Some report the extent of inflammation based on the anatomy of the distal colon, for example "disease limited to the rectum", "up to the sigmoid" or "up to the ascending colon". Other studies classify the extent as "proctitis" (5-25cm⁴⁻⁵), "procto-sigmoiditis" (15-40cm⁶⁻⁷) and "distal colitis" (5-60cm or up to the splenic flexure⁸⁻⁹).

During the initial assessment of patients with UC, as shown in Figure 2.1, the prevalence of UP may be as high as 44-60%¹⁰. Long-term epidemiological studies have revealed that UP often extends to more proximal colitis and even to total colitis. It was shown that nearly 22% of patients with UP had disease progression within 12-24 months of initial diagnosis despite medical treatment¹¹. This is in line with other studies, showing proximal extension of UP in 28% during 5 years of follow up^{2,12-13}. The recognition of UP and LUC is important because it has been suggested that effective local treatment may prevent or delay proximal spread of the inflammation¹⁴.

Description of the intervention

Treatment of UP occurs in a step-up design, as shown in Figure 2.1. The first step of treatment is topical application of 5-aminosalicylic acid (5-ASA), administered as suppositories. It has been shown that 5-ASA induces remission in active proctitis and distal colitis in 31-80% of subjects (median 67%) compared to 7-11% of those given placebo, in a meta-analysis of 11 trials in 778 patients¹⁵. Despite the significant benefits of rectally administered 5-ASA, some patients will fail to improve on and will require additional medical therapy. The next treatment steps are a combination of oral and topical 5-ASA, adding corticosteroids (topical or systemic), followed by treatment with thiopurines and finally treatment with tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha) antibodies.

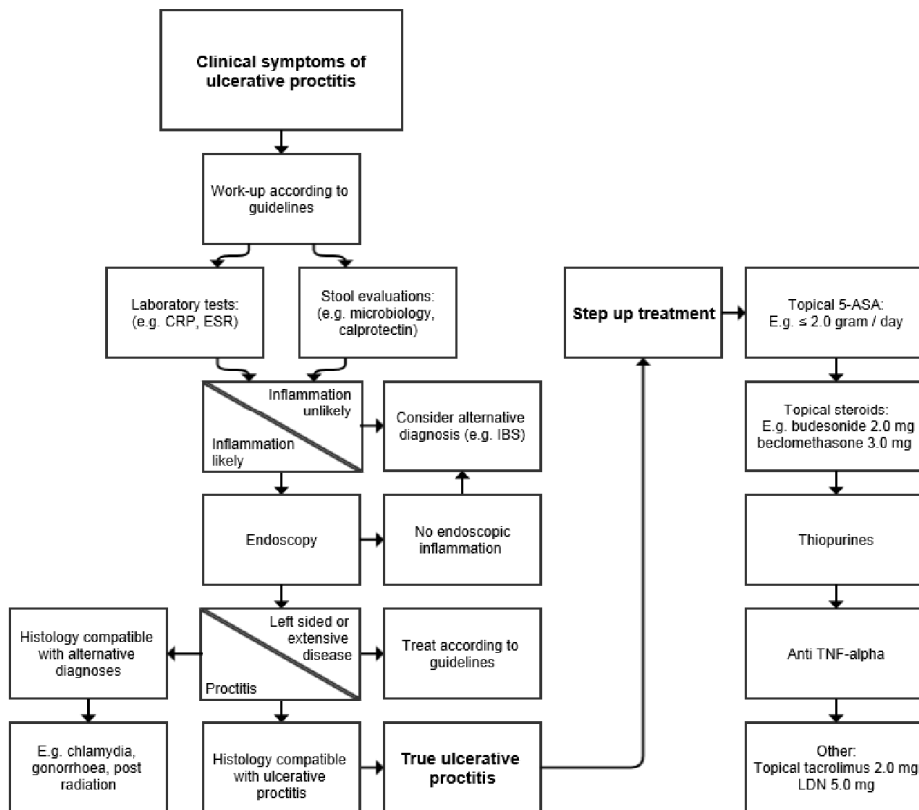


Figure 2.1 Diagnosis and treatment scheme for ulcerative proctitis.

How the intervention might work

5-ASA

The exact working mechanism of 5-ASA (also known as mesalazine and mesalamine) is unknown. Several *in vitro* studies have shown inhibition of cytokine synthesis, improved free radical scavenging and direct immunosuppressive effects of 5-ASA¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Of note, older studies often examine sulphasalazine (SASP) and olsalazine. The former is split by the colonic bacterial flora into the inactive compound sulphapyridine and the active substance 5-ASA. The latter consists of two 5-ASA molecules, whose chemical bond is broken down by colonic bacterial flora.

Corticosteroids

Corticosteroid formulations, both in oral and topical formulation, exert various effects on both the innate and acquired immune system. These effects include an increase in circulating neutrophils, a reduction in circulating B and T-lymphocytes and a reduction of cytokine synthesis by lymphocytes¹⁹⁻²².

Thiopurines

The thiopurines azathioprine and 6-mercaptopurine are considered antimetabolites. They act as purine analogues that disrupt the nucleic acid metabolism, resulting in reduced cell proliferation²³. Additionally, thiopurines have a direct inhibitory effect on T and B lymphocyte proliferation²⁴.

Anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha antibodies

TNF-alpha is a pro-inflammatory cytokine, produced by many lymphoid cells. It's effects include up regulation of the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 and IL-6 and increased leucocyte migration²⁵. Additionally, TNF-alpha itself is up regulated in various inflammatory diseases, including IBD. Inhibition of TNF-alpha will result in a decreased inflammatory response.

Why it is important to perform this review

Current treatment of UP occurs in a step-up design, similar to the treatment of UC. There is good evidence that supports this step-up design in UC. Meta-analyses have shown the efficacy of oral and topical 5-ASA in UC, both for induction^{15,26-27} and maintenance of remission²⁸. Meta analyses have also shown the value of

corticosteroids for remission induction²⁹, thiopurines for maintenance of remission³⁰ and anti-TNF for induction and maintenance of remission³¹ in UC.

However, the evidence for these treatments in UP is not as clear. No meta-analyses of drug therapies in UP patients have been performed and the previously mentioned meta-analyses only assessed the efficacy of drug therapy in more extensive disease. Only the meta-analysis regarding topical 5-ASA had planned a subgroup analysis for UP patients, but it could not be performed due to the inability to extract sufficient subject-level information.

Objectives

To systematically review the literature for studies examining drug therapies for patients with ulcerative proctitis, both for remission induction and maintenance of remission and, where possible, determine the efficacy of these therapies through meta-analysis.

The primary outcomes were induction and maintenance of remission.

Methods

Search strategy

A systematic database search for randomized controlled trials was performed on 28 April 2014, without restrictions on language, publication year or publication status. This search was performed in the following databases: Embase (including Medline), Medline OvidSP, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Web of Science and Pubmed. The detailed digital search strategy is provided in digitally available appendix. Additionally, the reference lists of all potentially relevant articles were studied for further trials. Any studies found through this search also had their reference lists studied.

Review and study selection process

Titles and abstracts identified through the search strategy were assessed by two independent reviewers (ML and SK) for potential eligibility, using pre-defined criteria as described in the appendix. Disagreements were settled in consensus and, if necessary, after discussion with a third independent reviewer (CW). The manuscripts deemed potentially eligible for inclusion were obtained for full text review. The full texts were

assessed by the two independent reviewers, using pre-defined eligibility criteria as described in the appendi. Discussions with the third independent reviewer were used to resolve disagreements.

Data extraction

Data from the eligible studies was extracted using a standardized form by the two primary reviewers. Differences in the extracted data were resolved through consensus or, if necessary, discussion with the third independent reviewer. For each study, the following data was extracted:

1. Study methods (including method of allocation and concealment, blinding, duration of study)
2. Participants (including age, extent of disease, duration of disease prior to enrollment)
3. Interventions (including dosage, duration, formulation)
4. Outcomes (including definition of clinical remission, remission and response rates).

Assessment of risk of bias in included studies

The risk of bias was assessed independently by each of the two primary reviewers, according to the scheme described in the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Review of Interventions³². This assessment involved judgment on selection, performance, attrition and detection bias. The 'Risk of bias tool' in the publically available program RevMan 5.2 was used to report possible bias in included studies.

Data synthesis and statistical analysis

As the primary outcomes of all included studies were dichotomous, we used statistical methods as described by Yusuf et al.³³. The results were expressed as risk ratio's with 95% confidence interval for achieving the outcomes specified above.

Where applicable, studies were pooled using a random-effects, regardless of statistical heterogeneity. Heterogeneity was tested using the Chi-squared test, the I-squared test and visual inspection of forest plots. If heterogeneity was present, we attempted to investigate the cause thereof (such as methodological factors or the outcome assessment). Given the limited number of included studies, subgroup analysis or meta-regression was not considered useful. In the case of high heterogeneity ($I^2 > 75\%$), studies were pooled only if the direction of their results was consistent.

Results

Results of the search

The literature search performed on 28 April 2014 identified 2412 citations, of which 1853 remained after removing double entries. After reviewing title and abstracts 1781 manuscripts were considered irrelevant (e.g. did not study UC, no drug therapy, case reports, abstract format only). This resulted in 72 potentially relevant studies. Examining the reference lists eventually resulted in the addition of 86 potentially useful manuscripts. In total, 156 manuscripts were assessed completely for eligibility (see Figure 2.2: flowchart), of which 133 studies were excluded for various reasons (see the appendix). The remaining 23 studies were included in this review (see Table 2.1: Characteristics of included studies).

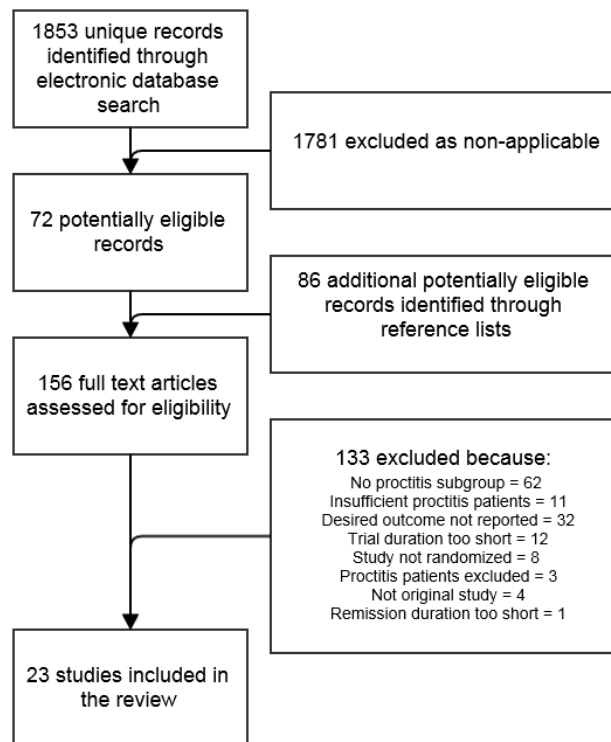


Figure 2.2 Flowchart of identification and selection of studies.

Table 2.1 Characteristics of included studies.

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| Andus 2010 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, investigator-blind | |
| Participants | 403 patients, mean age 42 years, mean DAI at baseline 6.2 (for both groups) Diagnosis based on: endoscopy, histology and negative stool cultures | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm 1: OD 1.000mg 5-ASA suppository (N=200) Arm 2:TID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N=203) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical improvement (at least 1 point decline in DAI) Clinical remission (DAI < 4 at final visit) Mucosal healing (mucosal DAI subscore 0 or 1) Endoscopic remission (EI < 4 at final visit) Histological remission (remission according to pathologist assessment) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |
| Ardizzone 1996 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, investigator-blind | |
| Participants | 40 patients, mean age 36 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy, histology and negative stool cultures | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm 1: BID 10.0 gram sucralfate enema (N = 20) Arm 2: BID 100mg hydrocortisone enema (N = 20) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical improvement (at least 1 point reduction in Truelove & Witt's clinical criteria) Clinical remission ("disappearance of symptoms and endoscopic and histological signs of activity of the disease") Endoscopic improvement (at least 1 point reduction in Truelove & Witt's endoscopic criteria) Histological improvement (at least 1 point reduction in Truelove & Richard's histological criteria) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators "using a two-physician method" |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| BMJ 1971 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind | |
| Participants | 31 patients, mean age 41 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks. Arm A: OD 5mg betamethasone 17-valerate enema (N = 16) Arm B: OD 20mg prednisolone 21-phosphate enema (N = 15) | |
| Outcomes | Improved (not defined) Remission (absence of rectal bleeding, minimal bowel disturbance, non-haemorrhagic mucosa) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Allotment according to "a random code", but method of generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | "Neither the doctor nor the patient knew which treatment was given" |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | "[the mucosal] appearances assessed independently by two observers, one of whom was unaware of the patient's symptoms" |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| Campieri 1988 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel arms, investigator-blind | |
| Participants | 39 patients, mean age 91 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy and histology performed at baseline. | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 30 days. Arm A: OD 2.000mg 5-ASA enema (N = 20) Arm B: BID 1.000mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 19) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical improvement (at least one grade reduction in Truelove & Richard's clinical score) Clinical remission (symptoms completely disappeared) Endoscopic remission (repaired rectal mucosa) Histological remission (absent signs of inflammation) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Allotment according to a random list, but method of generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

Campieri 1990a (Scand J Gastroenterol)

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 3 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 94 patients, mean age 40 years Diagnosis based on: histology |
| Interventions | All arms were treated for 4 weeks. Arm A: BID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories plus OD placebo suppository (N =32) Arm B: TID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 31) Arm C: TID placebo suppositories (N = 31) |
| Outcomes | Clinical improvement (decrease in severity of symptoms and signs, but not meeting criteria for remission) Clinical remission (no symptoms, up to two bowel movements per day without blood) Endoscopic remission (not defined) Histological remission (not defined) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Computerized randomization list, in blocks of 3 |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

Campieri 1990b (Int J Colorect Dis)

| | |
|---------------|---|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 62 patients, mean age 36 years Diagnosis based on: clinical assessment, endoscopy, histology and negative stool cultures |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 30 days. Arm A: TID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N =32) Arm B: TID placebo suppositories (N = 30) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (complete disappearance of symptoms) Clinical response (reduction of at least 1 point on Truelove and Richards' scale) Endoscopic remission (healed rectal mucosa) Histological remission (no inflammation on biopsy) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Allotment according to a random list, but method of generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | |
|---------------------|---|
| Eliakim 2007 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, investigator-blind |
| Participants | 176 patients, mean age 43 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy, histology and negative stool cultures |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm A: OD 2.000mg 5-ASA low-volume (60mL) foam enema (N = 91) Arm B: OD 2.000mg 5-ASA high-volume (120mL) foam enema (N = 85) |
| Outcomes | Clinical improvement (at least 1 point decrease in CAI) Clinical remission (CAI equal to or lower than 4) Endoscopical remission (EI lower than 4) Mucosal healing (mucosal DAI subscore 0 or 1) Histological remission (HI equal to 1) |
| Notes | - |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Computer-generated randomization scheme |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| Farup 1995 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, open label |
| Participants | 50 patients, mean age 43 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy performed at baseline |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: BID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 24) Arm B: BID 178mg hydrocortisone foam enemas (N = 26) |
| Outcomes | Partial responder (any decrease in DAI, but not meeting criteria for complete responder) Complete responder (DAI equal to or lower than 2) Histological improvement (not defined) |
| Notes | - |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | High risk | Open-label design |
| Performance bias | High risk | Open-label design |
| Detection bias | High risk | Open-label design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Gionchetti 1997 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, investigator-blind |
| Participants | 50 patients, mean age 39 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy and histology |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 1 month Arm A: OD 1.000mg 5-ASA suppository (Pentasa ®) (N =25) Arm B: BID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (Claversal ®) (N = 25) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (sum of clinical DAI subscores = 0) Endoscopic remission (endoscopy DAI subscore = 0) Histological remission (histological activity index = 0) |
| Notes | - |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Computer predetermined randomization list |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| Gionchetti 1998 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, investigator-blind |
| Participants | 58 patients, mean age 35 years Diagnosis based on: previously confirmed diagnosis |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: TID 800mg 5-ASA tablets (N =29) Arm B: TID 400mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 29) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (sum of clinical DAI subscores = 0) Endoscopic remission (mucosal DAI subscore = 0) Histological remission (grade 1 in Truelove & Richard's criteria) |
| Notes | - |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Computer predetermined randomization list |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Participants were not blinded |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Outcomes assessed by blinded investigators |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| Gross 2006 | | |
|---|--|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind | |
| Participants | 204 patients, mean age 44 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy, histology and negative stool culture | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: OD 2mg budesonide foam enema plus OD placebo liquid enema (N = 105) Arm B: OD 2mg budesonide liquid enema plus OD placebo foam enema (N = 105) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (CAI equal to or lower than 4) Clinical improvement based on CAI (no definition given) Change in DAI Clinical remission and improvement based on DAI (no definition given) Endoscopic remission and improvement (no definition given) Histological improvement (no definition given) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

| Hanauer 2005 | | |
|---|--|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind | |
| Participants | 40 patients, mean age 42 years Diagnosis based on: previous diagnosis | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm A: TID 800mg 5-ASA plus TID 2 placebo tablets (N = 20) Arm B: TID 1.600mg 5-ASA plus TID 2 placebo tablets (N = 20) | |
| Outcomes | Complete remission: normal stool frequency, no rectal bleeding, good PFA and PGA score, normal endoscopy findings | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

Larnet 2005

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, open label |
| Participants | 87 patients, mean age 39 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm A: BID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 48) Arm B: OD 1.0000mg 5-ASA suppository (N = 39) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (comparing DAI week 3 with DAI week 6) Improvement in each of 4 DAI subscales |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Randomization list generated by an automated number program |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | High risk | Assignment in blocks of 5, but in an open label design |
| Performance bias | High risk | Open label design |
| Detection bias | High risk | Open label design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

Pokrotnieks 2000

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 111 patients, mean age 44 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy, histology and stool culture |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm A: OD 2.000mg 5-ASA foam enema (N = 54) Arm B: OD placebo foam enema (N = 57) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (Rachmilewitz' CDAI equal to or lower than 4, with at least 2 point decrease from baseline) Endoscopic remission (EI lower than 4) Histological improvement (At least 1 point reduction in Floren's histological index) |
| Notes | In "Methods" section, clinical remission is defined, but in "Results" section the terms "clinical response" and "clinical remission" are used interchangeably |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Lists generated by the SAS program 'Random' |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Used last observation carried forward, the actual amount of imputed data is not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| van Hees 1980 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 3 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 45 patients (33 unique patients), mean age 37 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy |
| Interventions | All arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: BID 200mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 15) Arm B: BID 300mg sulphapyridine suppositories (N = 15) Arm C: BID placebo suppositories (N = 15) |
| Outcomes | Successful treatment (complete disappearance of clinical symptoms and a normal rectal mucosa at sigmoidoscopy) |
| Notes | 12 patients were allowed to participate in the study twice |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | High risk | 12 patients were enrolled in the study twice, smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | |
|---------------------------|---|
| van Hogezaand 1988 | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 34 patients, mean age 39 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: BID 300mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 18) Arm B: BID 300mg acetyl-5-ASA suppositories (N = 16) |
| Outcomes | Successful treatment (complete disappearance of clinical symptoms and a normal rectal mucosa at sigmoidoscopy) |
| Notes | - |

| Risk of bias table | | |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Minimization with a random component was used for allocation |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

Watanabe 2013

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 129 patients, mean age 41 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy and histology performed at baseline |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 4 weeks Arm A: OD 1.000mg 5-ASA suppository (N = 65) Arm B: OD placebo suppository (N = 64) |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (UC-DAI of 2 or less, with bleeding subscore = 0) Endoscopic remission (endoscopic score of 0 or 1) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Computer generated randomization scheme |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Dynamic assignment |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

Williams 1987

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 27 patients, mean age 40 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy and histology performed at baseline |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 weeks Arm A: TID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N = 14) Arm B: TID placebo suppositories (N = 13) |
| Outcomes | Remission (DAI = 0) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|--|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| d'Albasio 1998 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 3 parallel groups, double-blind | |
| Participants | 111 patients, mean age 40 years Diagnosis based on: endoscopy and histology | |
| Interventions | All arms were treated for 12 months Arm A: BID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories (N=36) Arm B: OD 500mg 5-ASA suppository plus OD placebo suppository (N = 40) Arm C: BID placebo suppositories (N = 35) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (up to two bowel movements per day without blood) Endoscopic improvement (grade 0 or 1 on Baron's endoscopic criteria) Histological improvement (grade 0 or 1 in Truelove & Richard's histological criteria) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design, allocation stratified per center |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| d'Arienzo 1990 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind | |
| Participants | 17 patients, mean age 40 years Diagnosis based on: previously documented proctitis | |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 12 months Arm A: BID 400mg 5-ASA suppositories (N=9) Arm B: BID placebo suppositories (N = 8) | |
| Outcomes | Clinical remission (absence of blood in stools, no symptoms) Endoscopic remission (endoscopic severity grade 0 or 1 in Blackstone's scoring criteria) Histological remission (histological severity grade 0 or 1 in Friedman's criteria) | |
| Notes | - | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Low risk | Random number table |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

Hanauer 2000

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 65 patients, mean age 38 years Diagnosis based on: previous diagnosis |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 12 to 24 months Arm A: OD 500mg 5-ASA suppository (N = 31) Arm A: OD placebo suppository (N = 35) |
| Outcomes | Relapse (rectal bleeding or increased stool frequency for more than 1 week and endoscopic inflammation) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data only mentioned in one table, unclear if there is more missing data |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

Nilsson 1995

| | |
|---------------|---|
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 2 parallel groups, double-blind |
| Participants | 69 patients, mean age 42 years Diagnosis based on: previous diagnosis |
| Interventions | Both arms were treated for 6 to 18 months Arm A: BID 500mg olsalazine capsule plus BID placebo capsule (N = 37) Arm B: BID 1.000mg SASP capsule plus BID placebo capsule (N = 32) |
| Outcomes | Relapse (clinical complaints, confirmed endoscopically) |
| Notes | - |

Risk of bias table

| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Double-blind design |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Low risk | - |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| Travis 1994 | | |
| Methods | Randomized controlled trial, 3 parallel groups, patient-blind* | |
| Participants | 26 patients, mean age 48 years Diagnosis based on: clinical, endoscopic, histological criteria | |
| Interventions | All arms were treated for 12 months Arm A: OD daily 500mg olsalazine tablet plus BID placebo tablets (N = 8) Arm B: BID 500mg olsalazine tablets plus OD daily placebo tablet (N = 8) Arm C: TID 500mg olsalazine tablets (N = 10) | |
| Outcomes | Relapse (increase in bowel frequency with blood or mucus and evidence of active disease on sigmoidoscopy) | |
| Notes | *Placebo tablets were used, making blinding of patients likely, but blinding of investigators is not mentioned | |
| Risk of bias table | | |
| Bias type | Authors' judgment | Support for judgment |
| Selection bias (sequence generation) | Unclear risk | Method of sequence generation not given |
| Selection bias (allocation concealment) | Unclear risk | Method of allocation unclear |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Blinding of investigators unclear |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Blinding of investigators unclear |
| Attrition bias | Unclear risk | Missing data not reported |
| Reporting bias | Low risk | - |
| Other bias | Unclear risk | Smoking not reported in baseline characteristics |

Description of included studies

Remission induction

18 studies (N=1546) were remission induction studies³⁴⁻⁵¹. Of the 18 induction studies, 15 involved 5-ASA and 6 were placebo controlled^{38-39,47-48,50-51}, with one study also examining topical SASP in a third treatment arm⁴⁸. 5 studies compared different topical 5-ASA doses or formulations^{34,37,40,42,46}, 3 studies reported on topical 5-ASA versus hydrocortisone foam, oral 5-ASA or topical acetyl-5-ASA^{41,43,49}. One study compared different oral 5-ASA doses⁴⁵. The remaining 3 induction studies assessed topical application of sucralfate and hydrocortisone, betamethasone and prednisolone and budesonide foam and budesonide enema^{35,36,44}.

10 studies were conducted in double blind fashion^{36,38-39,44-45,47-51}, 6 were investigator-blind^{34-35,37,40,42-43} and 2 studies were open-label^{41,46}.

Maintenance of remission

Five studies (N=288) were maintenance of remission studies⁵²⁻⁵⁶. 3 studies concerned topical 5-ASA⁵²⁻⁵⁴, all three of which were placebo controlled studies. The two remaining trials examined SASP and olsalazine⁵⁵⁻⁵⁶.

The exact blinding in one study was unclear⁵⁶. The manuscript states the use of placebo, thus blindness at the patient level was deemed likely. However, the blinding of the investigators was not specifically reported. The remaining studies were double-blind trials.

Description of participants

All patients included were adults, and 46% were females. All included patients had a diagnosis of UC, either previously established or established at enrollment through at least clinical presentation and endoscopic assessment. Two studies⁴⁸⁻⁴⁹, studied patients with “idiopathic proctitis”, but after detailed review of the studies it was judged that these patients had UP. As such, the patients in these studies were considered eligible for this review.

Description of interventions*Remission induction*

In the 6 trials comparing topical 5-ASA with placebo, the daily dose ranged from 400mg to 2.000mg, with 5 studies examining suppositories^{38-39,48,50-51} and one study examining foam enema⁴⁵. One study had a third treatment arm with differently dosed 5-ASA³⁸, another had a third treatment arm with SASP in a daily dose of 600mg⁴⁸.

5 studies compared different doses or concentrations of topical 5-ASA, ranging from 1.000mg to 2.000mg. 3 studies compared suppositories^{34,42,46} one compared suppository with liquid enema³⁷ and one compared low volume (60mL) with high volume (120mL) foam enemas⁴⁰.

3 studies reported on daily doses of 600mg to 1.200mg topical 5-ASA versus 356mg hydrocortisone foam, 2.400mg oral 5-ASA and 850mg acetyl-5-ASA^{41,43,49}.

One study compared 2.400mg daily 5-ASA with 4.800mg daily 5-ASA⁴⁵.

The remaining 3 induction studies compared topical application of 20 gram sucralfate with 200mg hydrocortisone, 5mg betamethasone with 20mg prednisolone and 2mg budesonide foam with 2mg budesonide liquid enema^{35-36,44}.

The treatment duration was 4 weeks in 13 studies^{35-39,41-44,47-50} and 6 weeks in 5 studies^{34,40,45-46,51}.

Maintenance of remission

The 3 placebo controlled studies investigated topical 5-ASA in daily doses ranging from 500mg to 1.000mg⁵²⁻⁵⁴. The two other studies compared different doses of oral SASP or olsalazine, one study in two arms comparing 1.000mg SASP with 2.000mg olsalazine⁵⁵, the other in three arms with 500mg, 1.00mg and 2.000mg olsalazine⁵⁶.

Treatment and follow-up duration varied from at least 6 months in one study⁵⁵ to 12 months in 3 studies^{52-53,56} and 24 months in the remaining trial⁵⁴.

Risk of bias in included studies

The summary of the risk of bias assessments is provided in Supplemental Figure S2.1. Two studies were considered at high risk of bias because of lack of blinding^{41,46}. The remaining studies were of acceptable to high methodological quality. All studies were self-reported as randomized controlled trials, but only 8 reported their method of random sequence generation^{36,38,40,42-43,45-47,50,53}. Similarly, allocation concealment was described in only 13 studies^{36,38-39,44-45,47,50,52-54}. It was difficult to assess attrition bias, no studies reported the total amount of missing data, though 6 studies used "last observation carried forward" to deal with missing data^{34,40,44-47}. The risk of reporting bias was considered low, as no studies reported post-hoc analyses. As for other forms of bias and confounding, in studies published before 2000, smoking behavior is not reported, which may have confounded their results. Additionally, one study enrolled and randomized 12 of 33 patients twice, which may have influenced the results⁴⁸.

Effects of interventions – Primary outcome

Remission induction

The results of the pooled analyses are shown in Figure 2.3.

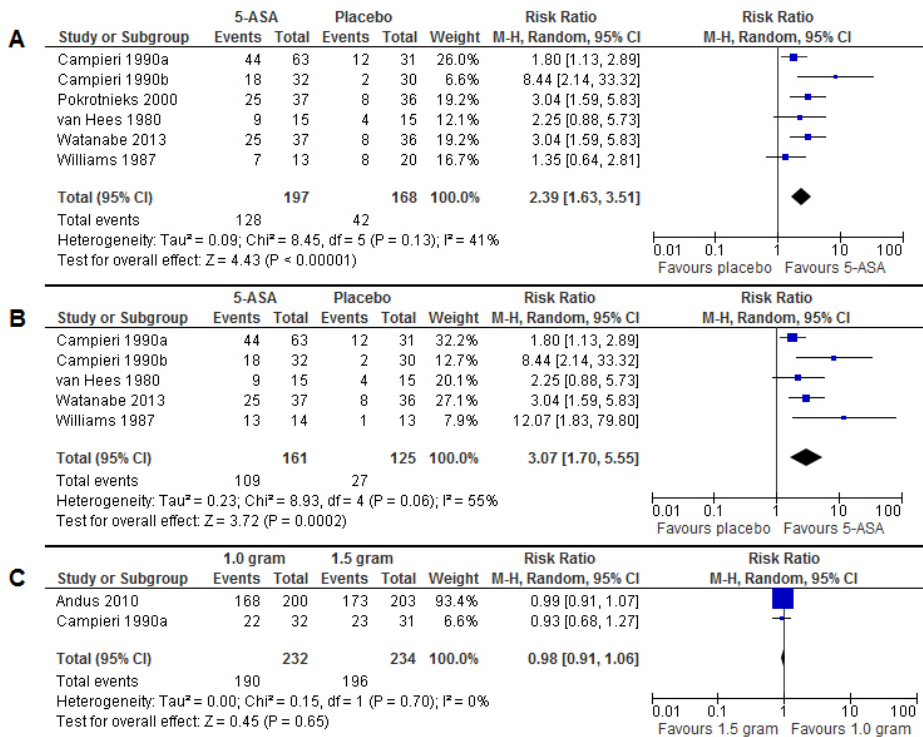


Figure 2.3 Comparison: topical 5-ASA versus placebo, induction of clinical remission. Panel A: Forest plot of clinical remission, for all topical 5-ASA formulations and doses compared with placebo; Panel B: Forest plot of clinical remission, for all 5-ASA suppositories compared with placebo; Panel C: Forest plot of clinical remission, for 500mg 5-ASA suppositories BID compared with TID.

Topical 5-ASA versus placebo

Six trials (N=365) examined topical 5-ASA (suppository or enema) versus placebo^{38-39,47-48,50-51}. Patients treated with 5-ASA achieved clinical remission in 65.0%, whereas those treated with placebo achieved remission in 25.0%. The pooled relative risk (RR) of achieving clinical remission for all trials was 2.39 (95% CI 1.63-3.51, $I^2=41\%$, $P<0.00001$) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.3a). The suppository only subgroup (N=286) was analyzed after removing the single study with foam enema⁴⁸, resulting in a 67.7% clinical remission rate for 5-ASA compared with a 21.1% rate for placebo. The pooled RR of achieving clinical remission for this subgroup was 3.07 (95% CI 1.70-5.55, $I^2=55\%$, $P=0.0002$) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.3b).

Topical 5-ASA, different doses

Only comparison of different daily topical 5-ASA doses could be performed, regarding 1.000mg versus 1.500mg suppositories. Two studies (N=466) reported on BID 500mg suppositories versus TID 500mg suppositories^{34,38}. Reported clinical remission rates were 81.9% and 83.8% for the BID and TID groups respectively. The pooled RR of achieving clinical remission for BID compared with TID was 0.98 (95% CI 0.91-1.06, I²=0%, P=0.65) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.3c).

Topical 5-ASA, same dose, different formulation

One study (N=39) compared a daily dose of 2.000mg 5-ASA in suppository formulation with enemas³⁷. This study found clinical remission rates of 78.9% and 80.0% for the suppository and enema groups respectively. This difference was not statistically significant.

Another trial (N=176) compared liquid enemas with foam enemas, both at a daily dose of 2.000mg⁴⁰. With remission rates of 78.0% and 75.2% for the foam and liquid groups respectively, the study found no statistically significant difference.

One trial (N=50) compared Pentasa® with Claversal® suppositories, both in daily dose of 1.000mg⁴². No statistically significant difference was found, with remission rates of 84.0% and 76.0% in the Pentasa® and Claversal® groups respectively.

Finally, one study (N=87) compared BID 500mg suppositories with OD 1.000mg suppositories⁴⁶. This study reported remission rates of 43.8% and 59.0%, which was not statistically significantly different.

5-ASA, other comparisons

One trial (N=58) compared a daily dose of 2.400mg oral 5-ASA with 1.200mg 5-ASA suppositories⁴³. The clinical remission rates were 41.4% versus 89.6% respectively, statistically significant (P<0.01) in favor of topical treatment.

Another study (N=40) compared 2.400mg daily oral 5-ASA with 4.800mg daily oral 5-ASA⁴⁵. No statistically significant difference was found, as the groups achieved remission in 20.0% and 30.0% respectively.

One study (N=40) compared a daily dose of 1.000mg 5-ASA suppositories with a daily dose of 356mg hydrocortisone foam enema⁴¹. Clinical remission rates were 58.3% and 34.6% respectively, which is a non-significant difference.

Another trial (N=30) compared a daily dose of 400mg 5-ASA suppositories with 600mg sulphapyridine suppositories⁴⁸. This study found a significant difference in favor of 5-ASA (P=0.02), with remission rates of 60.0% compared with 13,3% for the 5-ASA and sulphapyridine groups respectively.

The last trial (N=34) compared a daily dose of 400mg 5-ASA suppositories with 850mg acetyl-5-ASA suppositories⁴⁹. It found clinical remission rates of 61.1% and 18.8% respectively. This result was statistically significant (P=0.03) in favor of 5-ASA.

Other treatments

One study (N=40) compared a daily dose of 20 gram sucralfate enemas with 200mg hydrocortisone enemas³⁵. The reported clinical remission rates were 15.0% and 42.1% respectively. This difference was not significant.

Another study (N=31) compared OD 5mg betamethasone enema with OD 20mg prednisolone enema³⁶. The study reports clinical remission rates of 55.0% and 44.0% respectively, which is not a statistically significant difference.

Finally, one trial (N=204) compared 2mg budesonide foam enema with 2mg budesonide liquid enema⁴⁴. The reported clinical remission rates were 58.1% and 68.7% respectively. This difference was not statistically significant.

Maintenance of remission

The results of the pooled analyses are shown in Figure 2.4.

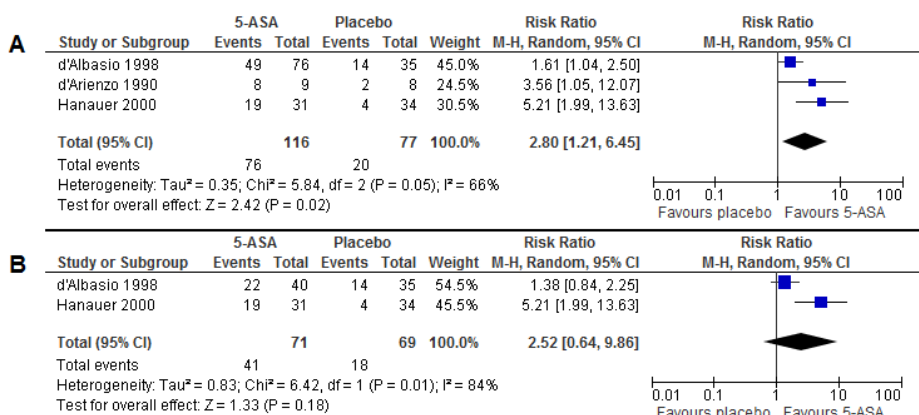


Figure 2.4 Comparison: topical 5-ASA versus placebo, maintenance of clinical remission. Panel A: Forest plot maintained clinical remission, for all 5-ASA suppositories compared with placebo; Panel B: Forest plot maintained clinical remission, for 500mg 5-ASA suppositories compared with placebo.

Topical 5-ASA versus placebo

Three trials (N=193) examined topical 5-ASA (suppositories, daily dose 500mg to 1.000mg) versus placebo⁵²⁻⁵⁴. Patients treated with 5-ASA maintained clinical remission in 65.5%, but in patients receiving placebo only 26.0% maintained their remission. The pooled RR of maintaining clinical remission for all trials was 2.80 (95% CI 1.21-6.45, $I^2=66\%$, $P=0.02$) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.4a). A subgroup analysis (N = 140) of the studies^{52,54} examining 500mg 5-ASA suppositories showed a 57.7% maintained clinical remission rate for 5-ASA compared with 26.1% for placebo. The pooled RR of maintaining clinical remission with this dose of 5-ASA was 2.52 (95% CI 0.64 – 9.86, $I^2=85\%$, $P=0.18$) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.4b).

Topical 5-ASA, different doses

One trial (N=76) compared OD 500mg 5-ASA suppositories with BID 500mg suppositories⁵². The maintained clinical remission rates were 72.5% and 91.7% respectively, a statistically significant difference in favor of the higher 5-ASA dose ($P=0.03$).

Oral SASP and olsalazine

One study (N=69) compared a daily dose of 1.000mg oral SASP with 2.000mg oral olsalazine⁵⁵. In this study, remission was maintained in 69.0% and 58.1% for the SASP

and olsalazine groups respectively, though this difference was not statistically significant.

The other trial (N=26) compared three different daily doses of olsalazine, 500mg, 1.000mg and 2.000mg⁵⁶. In these small groups, maintained remission rates were 50.0%, 62.8% and 90% for the 500mg, 1.000mg and 2.000mg groups respectively. The between group differences were not statistically significant.

Effects of interventions – Secondary outcomes

Remission induction

Topical 5-ASA versus placebo

The results of the pooled analyses are shown in Figure 2.5.

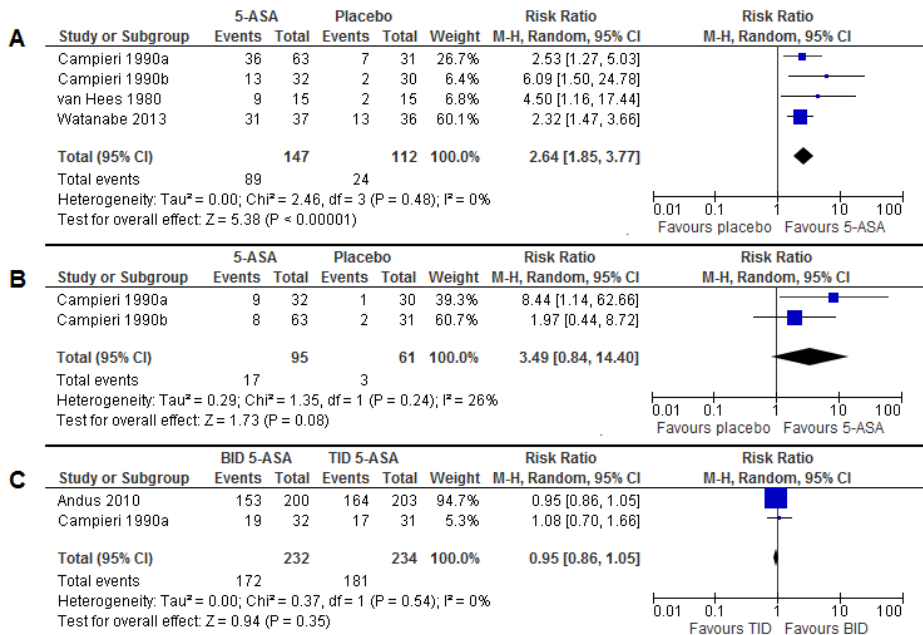


Figure 2.5 Comparison: topical 5-ASA versus placebo, induction of endoscopic and histological remission. Panel A: Forest plot of endoscopic remission, for all 5-ASA suppositories compared with placebo; Panel B: Forest plot of histological remission, for all 5-ASA suppositories compared with placebo; Panel C: Forest plot of endoscopic remission, for 500mg 5-ASA suppositories BID compared with TID.

Endoscopic remission rates were reported by 4 of 6 placebo controlled studies^{38-39,48,50}, all of which studied 5-ASA suppositories. Interestingly, the endoscopic remission rates in one study⁵⁰ were higher than the clinical remission rates. These studies (N=259) found endoscopic remission rates of 60.5% and 21.4% for 5-ASA and placebo respectively. The pooled RR of achieving clinical remission for all trials was 2.64 (95% CI 1.85-3.77, I²=0%, P<0.00001) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.5a).

Histological remission rates were reported (N=156) by two studies³⁸⁻³⁹. The histological remission rates were 17.9% and 4.93% for the 5-ASA and the placebo groups respectively. The pooled RR of achieving histological remission for all trials was 3.49 (95% CI 0.84-14.40, I²=26%, P=0.08) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.5b).

Topical 5-ASA, different doses

Two studies (N=466) reported on endoscopic remission rates, when comparing BID 500mg suppositories with TID 500mg 5-ASA suppositories^{34,38}. The endoscopic remission rates were 74.1% and 77.4% for the BID and TID groups respectively. The pooled RR of achieving clinical remission for all trials was 0.95 (95% CI 0.86-1.05, I²=0%, P=0.35) using a random-effects model (Figure 2.5c).

Histological remission rates (N=403) were reported only by one of these studies³⁴. The reported remission rates were of 41.5% and 44.8%, a non-significant difference.

Topical 5-ASA, same dose, different formulation

Both endoscopic and histological remission rates were reported by the single study (N=39) that compared a daily dose of 2.000mg 5-ASA in suppository formulation with the same dose in enema formulation³⁷. Endoscopic remission rates were 73.7% and 65.0% whilst histological remission rates were 63.2% and 45.0% for the suppository and enema groups respectively. For both comparisons, the difference was not statistically significant.

The study (N=50) comparing Pentasa® with Claversal® suppositories, both in daily dose of 1.000mg, reported both endoscopic and histological remission rates⁴². No statistically significant difference was found, with endoscopic remission rates of 80.0% and 72.0% and histological remission in 52.0% and 48.0% in the Pentasa® and Claversal® groups respectively.

The remaining studies that reported on different formulations or concentrations of 5-ASA in the same dose, either did not report endoscopic or histological remission rates⁴⁶, or did not specifically report those outcomes for patients with UP⁴⁰.

5-ASA, other comparisons

The study (N=58) comparing 2.400mg oral 5-ASA with 1.200mg 5-ASA suppositories reported both endoscopic and histological remission rates⁴³. Both rates were significantly ($P<0.01$) in favor of topical treatment, with endoscopic remission rates of 51.7% and 13.8% and histological remission rates of 37.9% and 6.8%.

The trial (N=30) that studied 400mg 5-ASA suppositories and 600mg sulphapyridine suppositories only reported on endoscopic remission⁴⁸. This study found a significant difference in favor of 5-ASA ($P=0.02$), with remission rates of 60.0% compared with 13.3% for the 5-ASA and sulphapyridine groups respectively.

The study (N=34) that compared a daily dose of 400mg 5-ASA suppositories with 850mg acetyl-5-ASA suppositories reported only endoscopic remission rates⁴⁹. It found endoscopic remission rates of 66.7% and 12.5% respectively. This result was statistically significant ($P=0.005$) in favor of 5-ASA.

The remaining studies concerning 5-ASA did not report endoscopic or histological remission rates^{41,45}.

Other treatments

The single study (N=40) comparing 20 gram sucralfate enemas with 200mg hydrocortisone enemas did report both endoscopic and histological remission rates³⁵. Endoscopic remission was found in remission rates were 30.0% and 35.0%, whilst histological remission was seen in 20.0% and 30.0% for the sucralfate and hydrocortisone groups respectively. For both comparisons, the difference did not reach statistical significance.

The remaining studies either did not report endoscopic or histological remission rates³⁶, or did not report those outcomes specifically for patients with UP⁴⁴.

Maintenance of remission

Topical 5-ASA versus placebo

None of the 3 maintenance studies comparing topical 5-ASA with placebo, reported on endoscopic or histological remission. Only one study reported the mean times to relapse⁵⁴, which were 453.4 days and 158.0 days for the 5-ASA and placebo groups respectively.

Topical 5-ASA, different doses

The one trial comparing OD 500mg 5-ASA suppositories with BID 500mg suppositories did not report on endoscopic remission, histological remission or time to relapse⁵².

Oral SASP and olsalazine

Neither of the trials examining SASP or olsalazine reported on endoscopic remission, histological remission or time to relapse⁵⁵⁻⁵⁶.

Discussion

The objectives of this review were to assess the effects on inducing or maintaining clinical remission of different types of drug therapies for ulcerative proctitis. To our knowledge, no other reviews on drug therapy for ulcerative proctitis have been published. This review included 23 studies involving 1833 patients. The majority of studies examined drug efficacy for remission of induction. As most studies employed different clinical scoring systems to define clinical remission, endoscopic and histological remission were secondarily assessed, as they are considered less ambiguous. However, most studies were of a short duration, possibly resulting in too limited follow-up time to achieve mucosal healing, thus possibly underestimating the endoscopic response rates. Despite these limitations, we feel that the data allows for two firm conclusions to be drawn.

Firstly, the effectiveness of topical 5-ASA for inducing remission is confirmed. The ability of topical 5-ASA to induce clinical remission was clearly shown in several placebo controlled studies. Patients receiving topical 5-ASA were 2.39 times more likely to achieve clinical remission than those receiving placebo. No clear dose response relationship was found between topical 5-ASA and clinical remission, though only two studies compared different 5-ASA doses. Additionally, endoscopic evaluations in

4 studies showed a clear benefit of topical 5-ASA over placebo. Histological remission rates were assessed in only two studies and showed no clear benefit of topical 5-ASA over placebo.

Secondly, topical 5-ASA was more effective at maintaining clinical remission than placebo, as shown in 3 studies, with a relative risk of maintaining remission of 2.80 for 5-ASA.

All other studies included in this review examined unique combinations of drugs and comparators, precluding us from performing additional pooled analyses. As such, no new conclusions can be drawn from this review in regards to the drugs studied in those trials. Also, no trials investigating the efficacy of thiopurines or anti-TNF in patients with UP were identified by the systematic search.

In summary, this systematic review and meta-analysis supports the use of topical 5-ASA as the first treatment in UP. No recommendations for UP patients failing 5-ASA is provided by this review, as there are no randomized controlled trials in UP patients examining the efficacy of other drug therapies. This should be the focus of future research.

Authors' conclusions

Implications for practice

The role of topical 5-ASA as first line treatment for UP has been confirmed in this review, both for induction and maintenance of remission. Additionally, there is limited evidence available for the superiority of topical 5-ASA compared with oral 5-ASA in UP. As such, this review will not change the first line treatment for UP patients.

Due to the paucity of studies examining other drugs than 5-ASA, this review cannot draw any conclusions on which drug is the most optimal second line therapy in UP. Similarly, this review cannot reliably assess the efficacy of corticosteroids, thiopurines or anti-TNF alpha therapy in UP patients.

Implications for research

More trials comparing topical 5-ASA with placebo for induction of clinical remission in UP do not appear to be justified. Given the lack of studies examining therapies other

than 5-ASA, future trials should investigate other drug therapies for UP patients. Given the current step-up method of treatment, it may be valuable to perform these studies mainly in 5-ASA therapy refractory patients.

References

1. Shivananda S, Lennard-Jones J, Logan R, et al. Incidence of inflammatory bowel disease across Europe: is there a difference between north and south? Results of the European collaborative study on inflammatory bowel disease (EC-IBD). *Gut* 1996;39:690-7.
2. Jess T, Riis L, Vind I, et al. Changes in clinical characteristics, course, and prognosis of inflammatory bowel disease during the last 5 decades: a population-based study from Copenhagen, Denmark. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2007;13:481-9.
3. Ayres RC, Gillen CD, Walmsley RS, et al. Progression of ulcerative proctosigmoiditis: incidence and factors influencing progression. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1996;8:555D8.
4. Meucci G, Vecchi M, Astegiano M, et al. The natural history of ulcerative proctitis: a multicenter, retrospective study. Gruppo di Studio per le Malattie Infiammatorie Intestinali (GSMII). *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000;95:469D73.
5. Moum B, Ekbohm A, Vatn MH, et al. Change in extent of colonoscopic and histological involvement in ulcerative colitis over time. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999;94:1564-9.
6. Langholz E, Munkholm P, Davidsen M, et al. Changes in extent of ulcerative colitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1996;31:260-6.
7. Henriksen M, Jahnsen J, Lygren I, et al. Ulcerative colitis and clinical course: results of a 5-year population-based follow-up study (the IBSEN study). *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2006;12:543-50.
8. Pica R, Paoluzi OA, Iacopini F, et al. Oral mesalazine (5-ASA) treatment may protect against proximal extension of mucosal inflammation in ulcerative proctitis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2004;10:731-6.
9. Cortot A, Maetz D, Degoutte E, et al. Mesalamine foam enema versus mesalamine liquid enema in active left-sided ulcerative colitis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2008;103(12):3106-14.
10. Lennard-Jones JE, Baron JH, Connell AM, Avery Jones F. A double blind controlled trial of prednisolone-21-phosphate suppositories in the treatment of idiopathic proctitis. *Gut* 1962;3:207-10.
11. Kruis W, Brandes JW, Schreiber S, et al. Olsalazine versus mesalazine in the treatment of mild to moderate ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1998;12:707-15.
12. Prantera C, Viscido A, Biancone L, et al. A new oral delivery system for 5-asa: preliminary clinical findings for MMx. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2005;11:421-27.
13. Sutherland LR, Martin F. 5-aminosalicylic acid enemas in the maintenance of remission in distal ulcerative colitis and proctitis. *Can J Gastroenterol* 1987;1(1):3-6.
14. Lindgren S, Löfberg R, Bergholm L, et al. Effect of budesonide enema on remission and relapse rate in distal ulcerative colitis and proctitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2002;37:705-10.
15. Marshall JK, Irvine EJ. Rectal aminosalicilate therapy for distal ulcerative colitis: a meta-analysis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1995;9:293-300.
16. Cominelli F, Zipser RD, Dinarello CA. Sulfasalazine inhibits cytokine production in human mononuclear cells: A novel anti-inflammatory mechanism. *Gastroenterology* 1992;96:A96.
17. Zingarelli B, Squadrito F, Graziani P, et al. Effects of zileuton, a new 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor, in experimentally induced colitis in rats. *Agents Actions* 1993; 39:150.
18. Craven PA, Pfanstiel J, Saito R, DeRubertis FR. Actions of sulfasalazine and 5-aminosalicylic acid as reactive oxygen scavengers in the suppression of bile acid-induced increases in colonic epithelial cell loss and proliferative activity. *Gastroenterology* 1987; 92:1998.
19. Fauci AS, Dale DC, Balow JE. Glucocorticosteroid therapy: mechanisms of action and clinical considerations. *Ann Intern Med* 1976;84:304.
20. Slade JD, Hepburn B. Prednisone-induced alterations of circulating human lymphocyte subsets. *J Lab Clin Med* 1983; 101:479.
21. Horst HJ, Flad HD. Corticosteroid-interleukin 2 interactions: inhibition of binding of interleukin 2 to interleukin 2 receptors. *Clin Exp Immunol* 1987;68:156.
22. Scheinman RI, Cogswell PC, Lofquist AK, Baldwin AS Jr. Role of transcriptional activation of I kappa B alpha in mediation of immunosuppression by glucocorticoids. *Science* 1995;270:83.
23. Lennard L. The clinical pharmacology of 6-mercaptopurine. *Eur J Clinical Pharmacol* 1992;43(4):329.

24. Tiede I, Fritz G, Strand S et al. CD28-dependent Rac1 activation is the molecular target of azathioprine in primary human CD4+ T lymphocytes. *J Clin Invest* 2003;111(8):1133.
25. Camussi G, Albano E, Tetta C, Bussolino F. The molecular action of tumor necrosis factor- α . *Eur J Biochem* 1991;202(1):3-14.
26. Feagan BG, MacDonald JK. Oral 5-aminosalicylic acid for induction of remission in ulcerative colitis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2012, Issue 10.
27. Marshall JK, Thabane M, Steinhart AH, et al. Rectal 5-aminosalicylic acid for induction of remission in ulcerative colitis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2010, Issue 1.
28. Marshall JK, Thabane M, Steinhart AH, et al. Rectal 5-aminosalicylic acid for maintenance of remission in ulcerative colitis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2012, Issue 11.
29. Ford AC, Bernstein CN, Khan JK, et al. Glucocorticosteroid Therapy in Inflammatory Bowel Disease: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2011;106:590-9.
30. Timmer A, McDonald JWD, Tsoulis DJ, MacDonald JK. Azathioprine and 6-mercaptopurine for maintenance of remission in ulcerative colitis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2012, Issue 9.
31. Stidham RW, Lee TC, Higgins PD, et al. Systematic review with network meta-analysis: the efficacy of anti-tumour necrosis factor- α agents for the treatment of ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2014;39(7):660-71.
32. Handbook 2011. Higgins JPT, Green S (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* Version 5.1.0 [updated March 2011]. The Cochrane Collaboration, 2011. Available from www.cochrane-handbook.org.
33. Yusuf S, Peto R, Lewis J, et al. Beta blockade during and after myocardial infarction: an overview of the randomized trials. *Progress in Cardiovascular Diseases* 1985;27:335-71.

References to studies included in this review

Remission induction

34. Andus T, Kocjan A, Müser M, et al.. Clinical trial: a novel high-dose 1 g mesalamine suppository (Salofalk) once daily is as efficacious as a 500-mg suppository thrice daily in active ulcerative proctitis.. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16(11):1747-56.
35. Ardizzone S, Petrillo M, Antonacci CM, Bianchi Porro G. Sucralfate and hydrocortisone enemas in the treatment of active ulcerative proctitis – a randomized single-blind comparative study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1996;10:957-60.
36. [no authors listed] Betamethasone 17-valerate and prednisolone 21-phosphate retention enemata in proctocolitis. *BMJ* 1971;3:84-6.
37. Campieri M, Gionchetti P, Belluzzi A, et al. 5-Aminosalicylic acid as enemas or suppositories in distal ulcerative colitis? *J Clin Gastroenterol* 1988;10(4):406-9.
38. Campieri M, De Franchis R, Bianchi Porro G, et al. Mesalazine (5-aminosalicylic acid) suppositories in the treatment of ulcerative proctitis or distal proctosigmoiditis. A randomized controlled trial.. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1990;25(7):663-8.
39. Campieri M, Gionchetti P, Belluzzi A, et al. Topical treatment with 5-aminosalicylic in distal ulcerative colitis by using a new suppository preparation. A double-blind placebo controlled trial. *Int J Colorect Dis* 1990;5:79-81.
40. Eliakim R, Tulassay Z, Kupcinskis L, et al. Clinical trial: randomized-controlled clinical study comparing the efficacy and safety of a low-volume vs. a high-volume mesalazine foam in active distal ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2007;26:1237-49.
41. Farup PG, Hovde O, Halvorsen FA, Raknerud N, Brodin U. Mesalazine suppositories versus hydrocortisone foam in patients with distal ulcerative colitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1995;30(2):164-70.
42. Gionchetti P, Rizzello F, Venturi A, et al. Comparison of mesalazine suppositories in proctitis and distal proctosigmoiditis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1997;11:1053-57.
43. Gionchetti P, Rizzello F, Venturi A, et al. Comparison of oral with rectal mesalazine in the treatment of ulcerative proctitis. *Dis Colon Rectum* 1998;41:93-7.
44. Gross V, Bar-Meir S, Lavy A, et al. Budesonide foam versus budesonide enema in active ulcerative proctitis and proctosigmoiditis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2006;23(2):303-12.

45. Hanauer SB, Sandborn WJ, Kornbluth A, et al. Delayed-release oral mesalamine at 4.8 g/day (800 mg tablet) for the treatment of moderately active ulcerative colitis; the ASCEND II trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2005;100:2478-85.
46. Larnet M, Ptak T, Dallaire C, et al.. Efficacy and safety of mesalamine 1 g HS versus 500mg BID suppositories in mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis: a multicenter randomized study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2005;11:625-30.
47. Pokrotnieks J, Marlicz K, Paradowski L, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of mesalazine foam enema (Salofalk foam) for distal ulcerative colitis: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2000;14:1191-8.
48. an Hees PAM, Bakker JH, van Tongeren JHM.. Effect of sulphapyridine, 5-aminosalicylic acid, and placebo in patients with idiopathic proctitis: a study to determine the active therapeutic moiety of sulphasalazine. *Gut* 1980;21:632-5.
49. van Hogezaand RA, van Hees PAM, van Gorp JPWM, et al. Double-blind comparison of 5-aminosalicylic acid and acetyl-5-aminosalicylic acid suppositories in patients with idiopathic proctitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1988;2:33-40.
50. Watanabe M, Nishino H, Sameshima Y, et al. Randomised clinical trial: evaluation of the efficacy of mesalazine (mesalamine) suppositories in patients with ulcerative colitis and active rectal inflammation - a placebo-controlled study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2013;38:264-73.
51. Williams CN, Haber G, Aquino JA. Double-blind, placebo-controlled evaluation of 5-asa suppositories in active distal proctitis and measurement of extent of spread using 99mTc-labeled 5-asa suppositories. *Dig Dis Sci* 1987;32(12):715-75S.

Maintenance of remission

52. d'Albasio G, Paoluzi P, Campieri M, et al. Maintenance treatment of ulcerative proctitis with mesalazine suppositories: a double blind placebo-controlled trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1998;93(5):799-803.
53. d'Arienzo A, Panarese A, d'Armiento FP, et al. 5-aminosalicylic acid suppositories in the maintenance of remission in idiopathic proctitis or proctosigmoiditis: a double-blind placebo-controlled clinical trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1990;85(9):1079-82.
54. Hanauer SB, Good LI, Goodman MW, et al. Long-term use of mesalamine (Rowasa suppositories in remission maintenance in ulcerative proctitis.. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000;95(7):1749-54.
55. Nilsson A, Danielsson A, Löfberg R, et al. Olsalazine versus sulphasalazine for relapse prevention in ulcerative colitis: a multicenter study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1995;90(3):381-7.
56. Travis SPL, Tysk C, de Silva HJ, et al. Optimum dose of olsalazine for maintaining remission in ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 1994;35:1282-6.

Supplemental material

| | Random sequence generation (selection bias) | Allocation concealment (selection bias) | Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias) | Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) | Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) | Selective reporting (reporting bias) | Other bias |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|--|--------------------------------------|------------|
| Andus 2010 | ? | ? | ? | + | ? | + | + |
| Ardizzone 1996 | ? | ? | ? | + | ? | + | ? |
| BMJ 1971 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| Campieri 1988 | ? | ? | ? | + | ? | + | ? |
| Campieri 1990a | + | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| Campieri 1990b | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| d'Albasio 1998 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| d'Arienzo 1990 | + | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| Eliakim 2007 | + | ? | ? | + | ? | + | + |
| Farup 1995 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |
| Gionchetti 1997 | + | ? | ? | + | ? | + | ? |
| Gionchetti 1998 | + | ? | ? | + | ? | + | ? |
| Gross 2006 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Hanauer 2000 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Hanauer 2005 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Larnet 2005 | + | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Nilsson 1995 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Pokrotnieks 2000 | + | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Travis 1994 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | + | ? |
| van Hees 1980 | ? | ? | + | + | ? | + | + |
| van Hogezaand 1988 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Watanabe 2013 | + | + | + | + | ? | + | + |
| Williams 1987 | ? | + | + | + | ? | + | ? |

Figure S2.1





Chapter 3

Efficacy and safety of tacrolimus vs beclomethasone suppositories in patients with refractory ulcerative proctitis in a randomized trial

MRKL Lie*, JE Kreijne*, G Dijkstra, M Löwenberg, G van Assche, RL West, D van Noord,
AE van der Meulen-de Jong, B Oldenburg, RJ Zaal, BE Hansen, AC de Vries,
CJ van der Woude, on behalf of the Dutch Initiative on Crohn and Colitis (ICC)

* Contributed equally to the study

Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology 2019

Abstract

Background & Aims

Ulcerative proctitis (UP) refractory to 5-aminosalicylic acid (5-ASA) suppositories is a challenge to treat, often requiring step up to immunomodulator or biological therapy. Topical tacrolimus is effective and safe in patients with refractory UP. However, it is not clear how tacrolimus suppositories fit into the treatment algorithm of UP.

Methods

We performed a randomized controlled, double-blind study at 8 hospitals in The Netherlands and Belgium from 2014 through 2017. Eighty-five patients with refractory UP (65% women) were randomly assigned to groups given once daily tacrolimus suppositories (2mg, n=43) or beclomethasone (3mg, n=42) for 4 weeks. The primary outcome was clinical response (decrease in Mayo score of 3 or more). Secondary outcomes included clinical remission, endoscopic response and remission, adverse events and quality of life. Outcomes were compared using Fisher's exact test and Mann-Whitney U test.

Results

Proportions of patients with clinical responses were 63% in the tacrolimus group and 59% in the beclomethasone group ($P=0.812$); proportions of patients in clinical remission were 46% and 38%, respectively ($P=0.638$). Proportions of patients with an endoscopic response were 68% and 60% in the tacrolimus group and in the beclomethasone group ($P=0.636$); proportions in endoscopic remission rates were 30% and 13%, respectively ($P=0.092$). Median increases in the inflammatory bowel disease questionnaire score were 18.0 in the tacrolimus group and 20.5 in the beclomethasone group ($P=0.395$). Adverse event rates did not differ significantly between groups.

Conclusions

In a 4-week randomized controlled trial, tacrolimus and beclomethasone suppositories induce comparable clinical and endoscopic responses in patients with UP refractory to 5-ASA. There were no significant differences in adverse events rates. Tacrolimus and beclomethasone suppositories are therefore each safe and effective treatment options for 5-ASA refractory disease. EUDRACT 2013-001259-11; Netherlands Trial Register NL4205 / NTR4416.

Introduction

Up to 40% of newly diagnosed ulcerative colitis patients have disease limited to the rectum and are considered incident cases of ulcerative proctitis (UP)¹. Adequate therapy for UP may not only be important for symptom control and quality of life² but may also reduce the risk of progression of disease extent. Epidemiological and retrospective studies have shown that in patients with UP progression of disease extent occurs in up to 50% of patients^{3,4}, whilst in retrospective studies the risk of progression appears to be higher in patients with persistent or recurrent disease activity⁵.

The first step in the current treatment scheme for UP consists of topical 5-ASA therapy, usually in suppository form. Though 5-ASA has a remission induction rate of 65%⁶, maintenance of remission occurs in only 50% of patients. Current guidelines advise locally administered corticosteroids in these refractory patients⁷, though this therapy induces remission in only 46% of patients⁸ and comes with risks of systemic side effects such as suppression of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis⁹.

When UP is refractory to both 5-ASA and corticosteroids, step-up to systemically administered immunosuppressive drugs such as thiopurines and biologicals is recommended in the guidelines⁷. However, robust data regarding these drugs in UP is lacking, as patients with UP are usually excluded from clinical trials. Furthermore the use of these systemically administered drugs might be associated with side effects and higher costs, particularly in the case of biological therapies¹⁰. Therefore, a proven effective topical therapy will expand the current therapeutic possibilities.

Systemically applied calcineurin inhibitors such as ciclosporin and tacrolimus are already established therapeutic options for steroid refractory UC⁷. Several pilot studies have shown that topical tacrolimus is a safe and effective induction therapy in refractory UP, with clinical response rates up to 80%^{11,12}. Recently the results of a double-blind, randomized controlled trial were published, showing highly significant differences between rectal tacrolimus and placebo at the interim analysis¹³. The response and remission rates were similar to the pilot studies, further reinforcing the basis of this study. These studies formed the basis for this randomized controlled trial comparing tacrolimus suppositories with beclomethasone suppositories for the treatment of patients with 5-ASA refractory UP.

Materials and methods

Study Design

A randomized controlled, double-blind multicenter study was performed in 8 hospitals in Belgium and the Netherlands from 2014 to 2017. The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board and ethics committee of the Erasmus MC University Medical Center (MEC-2013-300) and by the institutional review boards and ethics committees from each participating site, and all enrolled patients provided written informed consent. Patients were treated with suppositories for 4 weeks and were randomly assigned to either beclomethasone 3mg once daily or tacrolimus 2mg once daily. All study procedures were conducted in accordance to the Declaration of Helsinki. This trial was registered at the Netherlands Trial Register (NL4205, NTR4416). All authors had access to the study data and reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

Patients

Patients aged ≥ 18 years with endoscopically proven active UP, with disease activity up to 20 cm beyond the anal verge. Active disease was defined as either a Mayo endoscopic severity subscore¹⁴ of at least 2, or a histological inflammation grade (Geboes score¹⁵) of at least 2, regardless of total Mayo score. Additional inclusion criteria were either 5-ASA refractory UP (defined as a failure to at least the use of 5-ASA suppositories of a maximum of 1 gram for at least 21 days) or recurring UP (defined as a relapse within 3 months after stopping adequate local 5-ASA therapy). Concomitant treatment with oral 5-ASA, thiopurines, methotrexate or biologicals was allowed if used at a stable dose for at least 12 weeks prior to enrollment.

Key exclusion criteria were: Signs of bacterial pathogens in a stool sample (i.e. *Clostridium difficile*, *Salmonella* species, *Shigella* species, *Yersinia* species, *Campylobacter jejuni*), local IBD therapy with 5-ASA enemas within 14 days prior to randomization, any previous tacrolimus treatment, treatment with topical beclomethasone 12 weeks prior to randomization or any other steroid use 4 weeks prior to randomization. Additionally, other significant medical issues such as poor renal function (eGFR <30 mL/min), poor liver function, leucopenia and thrombopenia were reasons for ineligibility. Finally, pregnant or lactating women were excluded.

Randomization and blinding

Randomization was performed centrally by an independent clinical research bureau. Participating sites were to fax or e-mail a request for randomization, which would then

be provided within 24 hours of the request. Randomization occurred per study site, using a 1 : 1 randomization schedule with various block sizes. To ensure blinding, the investigational drugs were custom made for this trial and were of identical in appearance and weight (Tiofarma BV, Oud-Beijerland, the Netherlands). Patients, treating physicians, endoscopists and investigators remained blinded throughout the study. Tacrolimus serum levels were centrally measured during the study and were thus unavailable to the investigators.

Study procedures

After providing written informed consent, a screening period of up to two weeks prior to randomization started. During this period the index endoscopy had to be performed, confirming the key inclusion criterion of active proctitis as described above. Additionally, baseline laboratory tests and stool cultures were performed to ensure eligibility. Upon eligibility, patients visited the study site for baseline clinical activity measurements and subsequently the study drugs were provided to the patients. Follow-up visits occurred after two and four weeks of treatment. During these visits adverse events were registered, drug accountability was performed and blood samples were acquired. Additionally a second clinical and endoscopic evaluation was scheduled after four weeks of treatment.

Outcome measures

Clinical activity was measured using the Mayo score¹⁴ (see Supplemental data), which consists of 3 clinical variables and 1 endoscopic variable, all rated from 0 to 3. The total score therefore varies between 0 to 12, with a higher score indicating more severe disease. Additionally, histological inflammation was graded using the Geboes score, which ranges from 0 (structural changes only) to 5 (erosions or ulcers)¹⁵. Grades 0 and 1 are considered remission whereas grades 2 to 5 are considered active disease.

The primary outcome of this study was clinical response after 4 weeks of treatment, defined as a an absolute decrease in Mayo score of ≥ 3 points, with a relative decrease of $\geq 30\%$ of the total score and at least ≥ 1 point decrease in the rectal bleeding subscore or an absolute rectal bleeding subscore of 0 or 1.

Secondary outcomes were combined clinical and endoscopic remission. Clinical remission was defined as a Mayo score ≤ 2 , and endoscopic remission as no visible inflammation (i.e. Mayo sub-score 0). Additional secondary outcomes were endoscopic response, defined as a decrease in Mayo sub-score of ≥ 1 and/or a decrease in extent of inflammation of ≥ 5 cm, changes in histological inflammation grade, changes in

C-reactive protein (CRP) and leucocyte counts, adverse events and quality of life using the Dutch version of the inflammatory bowel disease questionnaire (IBDQ)¹⁶.

Statistical analyses

A power analysis was performed using Pearson Chi-squared test for two proportions. Under the assumptions of a 50% response rate for topical steroids and 80% response rate for topical tacrolimus, and with a one-sided alpha of 0.025, >80% power could be achieved with 40 patients in each arm. To account for possible loss to follow-up, it was decided to include an additional 10% of patients, resulting in a total of 88 study patients.

For the statistical analysis the SPSS 24.0 software package was used. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Medians with the range were calculated for continuous data and percentages were calculated for categorical data.

Apart from missing data, no adjustment for confounders was performed. Categorical data in unrelated groups were compared by the Fisher's exact test, categorical data in related groups were analyzed by McNemar's test. The Mann-Whitney test was used to compare continuous data. For paired test, the paired sample t-test was utilized. Correlations were assessed using Spearman's rho. For all these results, one or two-sided (as appropriate) P-values <0.05 were considered significant. Analyses were performed according to both intention to treat and per protocol principles. As there were no meaningful differences between these analyses, the per protocol results were reported in this manuscript.

As for missing data, only missing data in the IBDQ was imputed. At baseline, imputation was only performed if up to 3 missing sub-scores were present and no more than 1 sub-score was missing from the "systemic symptoms" or "social functioning" domains, as these domains consist of only 5 questions. In case of a missing sub-score, the lowest possible score (1 point) was imputed. For the IBDQ at week 4, missing values were carried forward from baseline where available, or similarly imputed.

Results

Patient characteristics

Between February 2014 and November 2017, a total of 88 patients were enrolled in this study. However, one patient was subsequently excluded because of protocol

violations (upon monitoring, concomitant use of corticosteroids was discovered). Additionally, 2 patients were excluded because of low Mayo scores at baseline, resulting in 85 patients for per protocol analysis (see Figure 3.1). In total, 43 patients received tacrolimus and 42 received beclomethasone (see Table 3.1). Fifty-seven patients were female (64.7%), median age was 42.3 years (range 18.3-76.4 years) and median disease duration was 7.0 years (range 0.25-47.83 years). Concomitant medication included oral 5-ASA in 39 patients (45.9%), immunomodulators in 16 patients (18.8%) and biologicals in 9 patients (10.6%). The available data are also summarized in Figure 3.1. The study ended after the last follow-up visit from the last patient, in December 2017.

Patient flow diagram and available data

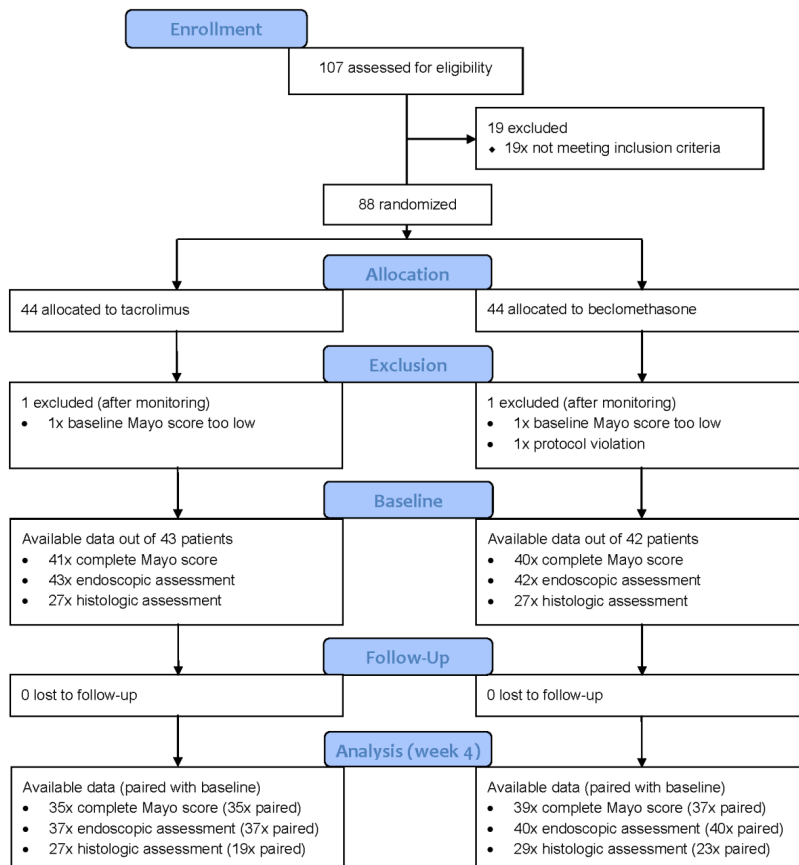


Figure 3.1 CONSORT flowdiagram of screened and included patients, and available study data per timepoint.

Table 3.1 Baseline characteristics.

| | Tacrolimus (N = 43) | Beclomethasone (N = 42) |
|---|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Female (n, %) | 27 (62.8%) | 28 (66.7%) |
| Age in years (median, range) | 39.6, (18.3 - 75.1) | 43.2 (18.6 - 76.4) |
| Disease duration in years (median, range) | 5.8 (0.3 - 36,7) | 7.4 (0.3 - 47.8) |
| Concomitant medication use (n, %) | | |
| Oral 5-ASA | 15 (34.9%) | 24 (57.1%) |
| Immunomodulators | 10 (23.3%) | 6 (14.3%) |
| Biologicals (anti-TNF n = 8, vedolizumab n = 1) | 4 (9.3%) | 5 (11.9%) |
| Smoking status (n, %) | | |
| Current | 4 (9.3%) | 5 (11.9%) |
| Former | 17 (39.5%) | 19 (45.2%) |
| Never smoked | 21 (48.8%) | 17 (40.5%) |
| Total Mayo score (median, range) | 7 (3 - 12) | 7 (3 - 12) |
| Mayo endoscopic subscore (n, %) | | |
| 0 | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| 1 | 4 (9.3%) | 2 (4.8%) |
| 2 | 26 (60.5%) | 29 (69.0%) |
| 3 | 13 (30.2%) | 11 (26.2%) |
| Disease extent in cm (median, range) | 10 (2 - 20) | 13 (1 - 20) |
| C-reactive protein (median, range) | 2,5 (0.3 - 248,0) | 2,0 (0.0 -44.0) |
| IBDQ (median, range) | 146 (91- 211) | 145 (87 - 210) |

Clinical response

In the tacrolimus group, the median baseline Mayo score was 7 (range 3-12), in the beclomethasone group the median baseline Mayo score was also 7 (range 3-12).

After 4 weeks of treatment, in the tacrolimus group 22 out of 35 patients (62.9%) achieved the primary outcome of clinical response, compared to 22 out of 37 (59.5%) patients in the beclomethasone group, a non-significant difference ($P=0.812$, Figure 3.2A).

At the end of the study, in the tacrolimus group the median Mayo score decreased to 3 (range 0-12, median change -3.0 points) and in the beclomethasone to 3 (range 0-11, median change -3.5 points, $P=0.638$).

The secondary outcome of clinical remission was achieved in 16 of 35 patients (45.7%) in the tacrolimus group and 15 of 39 patients (38.5%) in the beclomethasone group, which was not a statistically significant difference ($P=0.638$, Figure 3.2B).

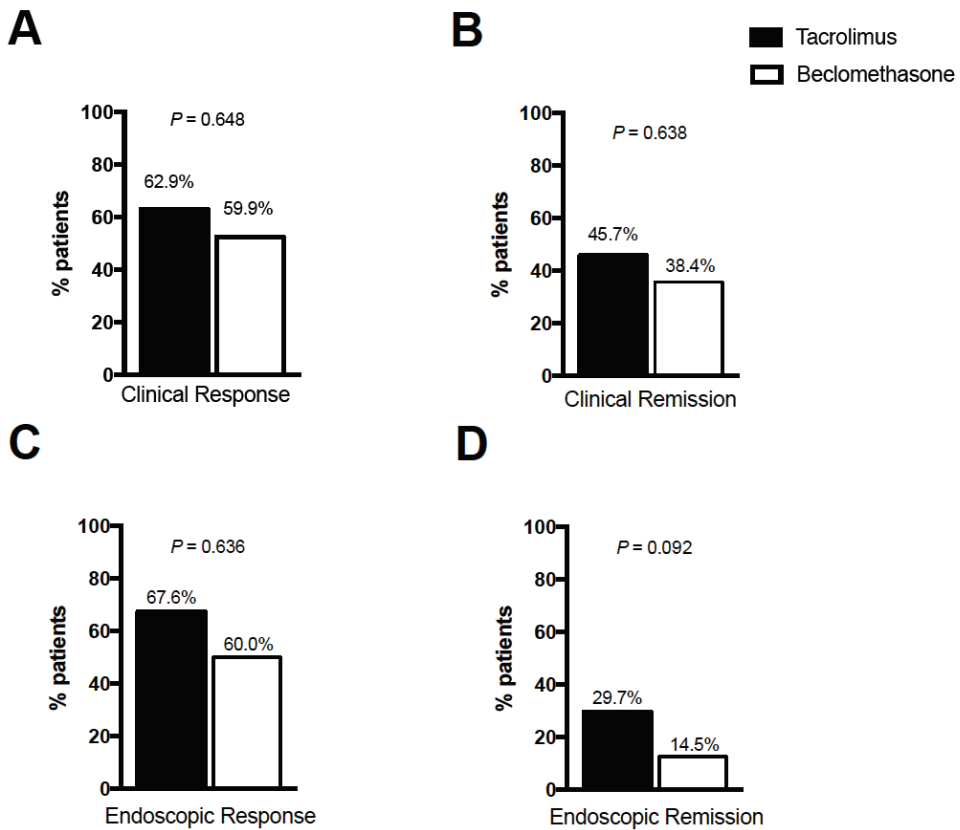


Figure 3.2 Main study results. All panels show tacrolimus as white and beclomethasone as gray. Panel A shows the proportion of patients with a clinical response, panel B shows the proportion of patients with clinical remission. In panel C the proportion of patients with endoscopic response is shown and panel D shows the proportion of patients with endoscopic remission.

Endoscopic response

At baseline, 39 patients (90.7%) in the tacrolimus group and 40 patients (95.3%) in the beclomethasone group had moderate or severe disease activity. The remaining patients had mild endoscopic disease activity, but were included because of severe histological inflammation. Median baseline disease extent was 10cm (2-20) in the tacrolimus group and 12cm (1-20) in the beclomethasone group.

At the end of the study, endoscopic response was achieved in 25 of 37 patients (67.6%) in the tacrolimus group and 24 of 40 (60.0%) patients in the beclomethasone. This difference was not statistically significant ($P=0.636$, Figure 3.2C).

The difference in endoscopic remission rate was not significantly different ($P=0.092$), with remission occurring in 11 of 37 patients (29.7%) in the tacrolimus group and in 5 of 40 patients (12.5%) in the beclomethasone group (Figure 3.2D). The change in length of inflamed colon was also not significantly different between both groups ($P=0.139$).

Histological response

The baseline biopsies showed a median inflammation grade of 3 (range 1-5) in the tacrolimus group and 4 (range 0-5) in the beclomethasone group. At the end of the study, the median inflammation grade decreased to 2 (range 0-5) for both groups. Histological remission was seen in 11 tacrolimus patients (40.7%) and 8 beclomethasone patients (27.6%), which was not a statistically significant difference ($P=0.299$).

Biochemical parameters

At the start of the study, the median CRP levels in the tacrolimus and beclomethasone groups respectively were 2.5 (range 0.3-248.0) and 2.0 (range 0.0-44). At the end of the study the medians were respectively 2.0 (range 0.3-31.0) and 1.6 (range 0.0-17.0), which was not significantly different ($P=0.554$).

Median leucocyte counts at baseline in the tacrolimus and beclomethasone groups respectively were 7.2 (range 2.7-13.5) and 6.9 (range 3.0-10.2). After 4 weeks, the medians respectively changed to 7.5 (range 2.8-13.4) and 7.3 (range 3.0-11.7), which was also not significantly different ($P=0.476$).

Quality of life

At the start of the study, the median IBDQ scores for the tacrolimus and beclomethasone groups were 147 (range 91-211) and 145 (range 87-210) respectively. After treatment, the median increases in IBDQ scores were 18 (range -18-93) and 20.5 (range -13-71), leading to median IBDQ scores of 175 (range 57-214) and 165 (range 80-214), for the tacrolimus and beclomethasone groups respectively, which was not significantly different ($P=0.733$).

Additionally, changes in the IBDQ were significantly correlated with changes in the total Mayo score ($R^2=0.151$, $P<0.001$), endoscopic severity ($R^2=0.104$, $P=0.007$) and endoscopic disease extent ($R^2=0.164$, $P<0.001$), but not to changes in CRP, leucocyte count or histologic inflammation grade ($P=0.766$, 0.575 and 0.108 respectively).

Tacrolimus levels and adverse events

Sixty-two tacrolimus levels were available from 37 of tacrolimus treated patients. The mean tacrolimus level was $4.2 \pm 3.4\mu\text{g/L}$ (range 0.0-13.6) at week 2 and $2.7 \pm 2.8\mu\text{g/L}$ (range 0.0-12.8) at week 4. Although tacrolimus levels did not represent trough levels, 46 of the levels (74.2%) were undetectable or subtherapeutic ($<5\mu\text{g/L}$). The remainder were within the low therapeutic range ($5\text{--}20\mu\text{g/L}$). There was no correlation between tacrolimus levels and clinical and endoscopic outcome.

Forty-eight adverse events were reported that were judged to be at least possibly related to the study drugs (see Table 3.2 for details). Eighteen adverse events occurred in 14 patients (33.3%) of the beclomethasone group whereas 29 events were seen in 21 patients (48.8%) in the tacrolimus group, which was not significantly different ($P=0.188$). Within the tacrolimus group, serum tacrolimus levels were not associated with the occurrence of adverse events ($P=0.611$).

No serious adverse events were reported, nevertheless, one patient discontinued the study due to an adverse event possibly related to the study drug. Specifically, this patient was randomized to tacrolimus and developed a clostridium infection after two weeks.

Table 3.2 Adverse events.

| | Tacrolimus | Beclomethasone | Both |
|--|------------|----------------|-----------|
| Abdominal pain / worsening of symptoms | 3 | 3 | 6 |
| Arthritis | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Peri-anal effects (burning/itching/hemorrhoid/fissure) | 9 | 3 | 12 |
| Clostridium infection | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| CMV | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Nausea/dizziness/weakness | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Skin (flushing, erythema, itchiness) | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| Flatulence | 5 | 2 | 7 |
| Headache | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Rectal urgency | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Night sweats | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Palpitations | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Upper airway infection | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Total | 29 | 18 | 47 |

Discussion

In this randomized controlled trial comparing tacrolimus suppositories with beclomethasone suppositories as induction therapy for 5-ASA refractory ulcerative proctitis, no superiority of tacrolimus was shown over beclomethasone. After 4 weeks of treatment, clinical and endoscopic response (62.9% versus 59.9% and 67.6% versus 60%) and clinical and endoscopic remission (45.7% versus 38.5% and 29.7% versus 14.5%) were equal.

Thus, both study drugs managed to induce clinical and endoscopic response in the majority of patients. Furthermore, both treatments resulted in improvements in histological inflammation and quality of life. Adverse event rates were similar in both groups.

To our knowledge, this is the first head to head controlled trial examining the effects of tacrolimus and beclomethasone suppositories in ulcerative colitis patients. The clinical response and remission rates of 60% and 40% respectively are comparable to the rates of other topical corticosteroids¹⁷, though some of these studies examined a combination of UP patients and patients with left-sided disease^{18,19}.

Topical tacrolimus has been investigated in only few studies. When comparing our study to the randomized controlled trial of Lawrance et al¹³, certain differences in the reported outcomes warrant consideration. In their 8-week trial comparing rectal tacrolimus with placebo in patients with therapy refractory UP, they observed a clinical response rate of 73%. Our 4 week study finds a somewhat lower clinical response rate of 62.9% in the tacrolimus group, and finds no statistically significant difference when compared with another active drug. The clinical remission rates are more similar, with Lawrance et al reporting 45% and our study finding 45.7%. However, mucosal healing (defined in their study as an endoscopic Mayo score of 0 or 1) was reported in 73% of their patients, whereas using this criterium it was seen in only 58% of tacrolimus treated patients in our study.

Possible explanations for the differences in clinical response rate and mucosal healing are the differences in baseline characteristics between the patients of these two studies. Specifically, we had a greater proportion of female patients, had more current smokers and patients used more concomitant immunosuppressive and biological drugs. This may reflect more refractory disease in the patients enrolled in our trial, as current guidelines recommend the use of these agents only for refractory UP.

A notable difference between our study and Lawrance et al is a shorter treatment duration (4 weeks compared to 8 weeks).

Additionally, Lawrance et al used a different treatment regimen, consisting of twice-daily rectally applied ointment with a total daily dose of 3mg tacrolimus. In our study we decided to use once daily suppositories containing only 2mg of tacrolimus, based on our previous Phase 1 study¹¹. In that study, low but measurable serum levels of tacrolimus were found with the use of once daily 2mg tacrolimus suppositories. Thus in order to prevent systemic exposure to higher tacrolimus levels, the same dose was used in our current study. Concerning serum tacrolimus levels, Lawrance et al also find measurable serum levels, and similar to our study, they find no correlation between serum levels and efficacy or adverse events. Of note, the tacrolimus serum levels in our study do not represent true trough levels, nevertheless the majority of tacrolimus levels were sub-therapeutic. Therefore, the true tacrolimus trough levels would probably be even lower than currently measured. These differences in treatment duration, regimen and patient characteristics may partly explain the differences seen between these studies in the reported in clinical response and mucosal healing rates.

No serious adverse events were reported during the study period, and only a single adverse event, possibly related to the study drugs, caused patients to discontinue the study. Nevertheless, mild adverse events, particularly peri-anal itching and burning, were frequently reported, more often in patients treated with tacrolimus.

Systemically applied calcineurin inhibitors are already approved for use in steroid refractory acute severe ulcerative colitis⁷. The optimal position of topical tacrolimus within the step-up scheme for treatment of UP is currently unclear. Topical 5-ASA is the first line therapy for UP patients because of the robustly proven efficacy and side effect profile. Given the results of our study and of previous studies, using either topical tacrolimus or topical corticosteroids as the second step in UP therapy both seem safe and viable options, and both therapies should be considered prior to step-up to immunomodulators or biologicals.

Despite the randomized controlled and triple blinded design, there are limitations to this study. Firstly, patients were mostly enrolled in tertiary centers. This may have resulted in the inclusion of patients with more severe disease than seen in general clinical practice.

Secondly, the inclusion criteria of our study were primarily based on the presence of endoscopic disease activity. Though this was intended to ensure objective disease activity at the start of the study, some of the included patients had surprisingly low Mayo scores at inclusion. These low baseline scores may have reduced the amount of patients who could achieve the predefined 3 point decrease in the Mayo score to achieve the primary outcome of clinical response, thus resulting in a study with less power than initially designed.

Thirdly, this study only examined an induction treatment period of 4 weeks, thus the value of a longer induction period or (intermittent) maintenance therapy remains unclear. Initially, a study period of 8 weeks was considered, but due to concerns regarding side effects related to long-term rectal corticosteroid therapy a 4 week study period was chosen.

In summary, among 5-ASA refractory ulcerative proctitis patients, the use 4 weeks of tacrolimus suppositories was not superior to treatment with beclomethasone suppositories. Furthermore, no significant differences between tacrolimus and beclomethasone were seen regarding the secondary outcomes and both treatments appear to be safe. Therefore, both tacrolimus suppositories and beclomethasone suppositories appear to be viable treatment options for 5-ASA refractory disease. Topical treatment with tacrolimus should be considered prior to step-up to thiopurines or biologicals in 5-ASA refractory ulcerative proctitis.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank N.K. de Boer, A.A. van Bodegraven, H. Fidder, A. van Tilburg, T. Steinhauser, M.C.M. Rijk, K.F. Bruin, J.T. Brouwer and H. Braat for support in this study.

References

1. van den Heuvel TRA, Jeuring SFG, Zeegers MP, et al. A 20-Year Temporal Change Analysis in Incidence, Presenting Phenotype and Mortality, in the Dutch IBDSC Cohort-Can Diagnostic Factors Explain the Increase in IBD Incidence? *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(10):1169-79.
2. Argyriou K, Kapsoritakis A, Oikonomou K, et al. Disability in Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease: Correlations with Quality of Life and Patient's Characteristics. *Can J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;2017: 6138105.
3. Meucci G, Vecchi M, Astegiano M, et al. The natural history of ulcerative proctitis: a multicenter, retrospective study. Gruppo di Studio per le Malattie Infiammatorie Intestinali (GSMII). *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000;95:469-73.
4. Hochart A, Gower-Rousseau C, Sarter H, et al. Ulcerative proctitis is a frequent location of paediatric-onset UC and not a minor disease: a population-based study. *Gut* 2017;66(11):1912-7.
5. Kim B, Park SJ, Hong SP, et al. Proximal disease extension and related predicting factors in ulcerative proctitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2014;49(2):177-83.
6. Lie M, Kanis S, Hansen B, van der Woude CJ. Drug therapies for ulcerative proctitis: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2014;20(11):2157-78.
7. Harbord M, Eliakim R, Bettenworth D, et al. Third European Evidence-based Consensus on Diagnosis and Management of Ulcerative Colitis. Part 2: Current Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(7): 769-84.
8. Marshall JK, Irvine EJ. Rectal corticosteroids versus alternative treatments in ulcerative colitis: a meta-analysis. *Gut* 1997;40:775-781.
9. Sandborn WJ, Bosworth B, Zakko S, et al. Budesonide foam induces remission in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis and ulcerative proctosigmoiditis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;148(4): 740-50.e2.
10. van der Valk ME, Manges MJ, Severs M, et al. Evolution of Costs of Inflammatory Bowel Disease over Two Years of Follow-Up. *PLoS One* 2016;11(4):e0142481.
11. van Dieren JM, Van Bodegraven AA, Kuipers EJ, et al. Local application of tacrolimus in distal colitis: feasible and safe. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009;15:193-8.
12. Lawrance IC, Copeland TS. Rectal tacrolimus in the treatment of resistant ulcerative proctitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2008;28:1214-20.
13. Lawrance IC, Baird A, Lightowler D, et al. Efficacy of Rectal Tacrolimus for Induction Therapy in Patients With Resistant Ulcerative Proctitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(8):1248-55.
14. Schroeder KW, Tremaine WJ, Ilstrup DM. Coated oral 5-aminosalicylic acid therapy for mildly to moderately active ulcerative colitis. A randomized study. *N Engl J Med* 1987;317:1625-9.
15. Geboes K, Riddell R, Ost A, et al. A reproducible grading scale for histological assessment of inflammation in ulcerative colitis. *Gut* 2000;47(3):404-9.
16. Guyatt G, Mitchell A, Irvine EJ, et al. A new measure of health status for clinical trials in inflammatory bowel disease. *Gastroenterology* 1989;96(3):804-10.
17. Sandborn WJ, Bosworth B, Zakko S, et al. Budesonide foam induces remission in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis and ulcerative proctosigmoiditis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;148(4): 740-50.e2.
18. Lindgren S, Löfberg R, Bergholm L, et al. Effect of budesonide enema on remission and relapse rate in distal ulcerative colitis and proctitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2002;37(6):705-10.
19. Gross V, Bar-Meir S, Lavy A, et al. Budesonide foam versus budesonide enema in active ulcerative proctitis and proctosigmoiditis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2006;23(2):303-12.

Supplemental data

Mayo score, exactly as described by Schroeder KW, Tremaine WJ and Ilstrup DM (N Engl J Med. 1987 Dec 24;317(26):1625-9.).

Stool frequency*

- 0 = Normal no. of stools for his patient
- 1 = 1-2 stools more than normal
- 2 = 3-4 stools more than normal
- 3 = 5 or more stools than normal

Rectal bleeding‡

- 0 = No blood seen
- 1 = Streaks of blood with stool less than half the time
- 2 = Obvious blood with stool most of the time
- 3 = Blood alone passed

Findings of flexible proctosigmoidoscopy

- 0 = Normal or inactive disease
- 1 = Mild disease (erythema, decreased vascular pattern, mild friability)
- 2 = Moderate disease (marked erythema, absent vascular pattern, friability, erosions)
- 3 = Severe disease (spontaneous bleeding, ulceration)

Physician's global assessment ‡

- 0 = Normal
- 1 = Mild disease
- 2 = Moderate disease
- 3 = Severe disease

* Each patient served as his or her own control to establish the degree of abnormality of the stool frequency; ‡ The daily bleeding score represented the most severe bleeding of the day; ‡ The physician's global assessment acknowledged the three other criteria, the patient's daily record of abdominal discomfort and general sense of well-being, and other observations, such as physical findings and the patient's performance status.

CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a randomised trial*

| Section/Topic | Item No | Checklist item | Reported on page No |
|---|---------|---|---------------------|
| Title and abstract | | | |
| Introduction Background and objectives Methods Trial design Participants Interventions Outcomes Sample size Randomisation: Sequence generation Allocation concealment mechanism Implementation Blinding Statistical methods | 1a | Identification as a randomised trial in the title | 1 |
| | 1b | Structured summary of trial design, methods, results, and conclusions (for specific guidance see CONSORT for abstracts) | 4 |
| | 2a | Scientific background and explanation of rationale | 6 |
| | 2b | Specific objectives or hypotheses | 6-7 |
| | 3a | Description of trial design (such as parallel, factorial) including allocation ratio | 7 |
| | 3b | Important changes to methods after trial commencement (such as eligibility criteria), with reasons | n.a. |
| | 4a | Eligibility criteria for participants | 7-8 |
| | 4b | Settings and locations where the data were collected | 7 |
| | 5 | The interventions for each group with sufficient details to allow replication, including how and when they were actually administered | 9-10 |
| | 6a | Completely defined pre-specified primary and secondary outcome measures, including how and when they were assessed | 10-11 |
| | 6b | Any changes to trial outcomes after the trial commenced, with reasons | n.a. |
| | 7a | How sample size was determined | 11 |
| | 7b | When applicable, explanation of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines | n.a. |
| | 8a | Method used to generate the random allocation sequence | 9 |
| | 8b | Type of randomisation; details of any restriction (such as blocking and block size) | 9 |
| | 9 | Mechanism used to implement the random allocation sequence (such as sequentially numbered containers), describing any steps taken to conceal the sequence until interventions were assigned | 9 |
| | 10 | Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled participants, and who assigned participants to interventions | 9 |
| | 11a | If done, who was blinded after assignment to interventions (for example, participants, care providers, those assessing outcomes) and how | 9 |
| | 11b | If relevant, description of the similarity of interventions | 9 |
| | 12a | Statistical methods used to compare groups for primary and secondary outcomes | 11-12 |
| | 12b | Methods for additional analyses, such as subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses | 11-12 |

| Section/Topic | Item No | Checklist item | Reported on page No |
|--|---------|---|---------------------|
| Results | | | |
| Participant flow (a diagram is strongly recommended) | 13a | For each group, the numbers of participants who were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome | 12, Fig 1 |
| Recruitment | 13b | For each group, losses and exclusions after randomisation, together with reasons | Fig 1 |
| | 14a | Dates defining the periods of recruitment and follow-up | 12 |
| | 14b | Why the trial ended or was stopped | 12 |
| Baseline data | 15 | A table showing baseline demographic and clinical characteristics for each group | Table 1 |
| Numbers analysed | 16 | For each group, number of participants (denominator) included in each analysis and whether the analysis was by original assigned groups | 13-16, Table 2 |
| Outcomes and estimation | 17a | For each primary and secondary outcome, results for each group, and the estimated effect size and its precision (such as 95% confidence interval) | 13-16 |
| Ancillary analyses | 17b | For binary outcomes, presentation of both absolute and relative effect sizes is recommended | n.a. |
| | 18 | Results of any other analyses performed, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, distinguishing pre-specified from exploratory | n.a. |
| Harms | 19 | All important harms or unintended effects in each group (for specific guidance see CONSORT for harms) | 15-16 |
| Discussion | | | |
| Limitations | 20 | Trial limitations, addressing sources of potential bias, imprecision, and, if relevant, multiplicity of analyses | 17-18 |
| Generalisability | 21 | Generalisability (external validity, applicability) of the trial findings | 16-17 |
| Interpretation | 22 | Interpretation consistent with results, balancing benefits and harms, and considering other relevant evidence | 16-18 |
| Other information | | | |
| Registration | 23 | Registration number and name of trial registry | 5, 8 |
| Protocol | 24 | Where the full trial protocol can be accessed, if available | n.a. |
| Funding | 25 | Sources of funding and other support (such as supply of drugs), role of funders | 2 |





Chapter 4

Low dose naltrexone for induction of remission in
inflammatory bowel disease patients

MRKL Lie*, J van der Giessen*, GM Fuhler*, A de Lima, MP Peppelenbosch,
C van der Ent, CJ van der Woude

* Contributed equally to the study

Journal of Translational Medicine, 2018;16(1);55

Abstract

Background

Around 30% of patients with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) are refractory to current IBD drugs or relapse over time. Novel treatments are called for, and low dose Naltrexone (LDN) may provide a safe, easily accessible alternative treatment option for these patients. We investigated the potential of LDN to induce clinical response in therapy refractory IBD patients, and investigated its direct effects on epithelial barrier function.

Methods

Patients not in remission and not responding to conventional therapy were offered to initiate LDN as a concomitant treatment. In total 47 IBD patients prescribed LDN were followed prospectively for 12 weeks. Where available, endoscopic remission data, serum and biopsies were collected. Further the effect of Naltrexone on wound healing (scratch assay), cytokine production and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress (GRP78 and CHOP western blot analysis, immunohistochemistry) were investigated in HCT116 and CACO2 intestinal epithelial cells, human IBD intestinal organoids and patient samples.

Results

Low dose Naltrexone induced clinical improvement in 74.5%, and remission in 25.5% of patients. Naltrexone improved wound healing and reduced ER stress induced by Tunicamycin, lipopolysaccharide or bacteria in epithelial barriers. Inflamed mucosa from IBD patients showed high ER stress levels, which was reduced in patients treated with LDN. Cytokine levels in neither epithelial cells nor serum from IBD patients were affected.

Conclusions

Naltrexone directly improves epithelial barrier function by improving wound healing and reducing mucosal ER stress levels. Low dose Naltrexone treatment is effective and safe, and could be considered for the treatment of therapy refractory IBD patients.

Background

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is a chronic inflammatory disorder, which includes Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). The aim of therapy is to induce sustained remission, a state of long lasting quiescent disease. Several drugs exist to induce and maintain remission, and these drugs are usually prescribed in a step-up fashion. Nevertheless, even when using this step-up strategy, a subset of patients will fail to reach or maintain remission even with the most potent therapies, often due to drug intolerance or loss of efficacy. For instance, yearly loss of efficacy rates are 13-24% in patients treated with anti-tumor necrosis factor α (anti-TNF-alpha) agents^{1,2}. In general, such a state of therapy refractoriness occurs in 35–60% of all IBD patients and severely limits treatment options, often resulting in surgery or corticosteroid dependency^{3,4}. Thus, for this subset of patients, alternative treatments remain of continued interest.

The etiology of IBD is complex, with genetic predisposition, an altered microbiome, environmental factors and a weakened epithelial barrier function triggering a chronic mucosal immune response. Targeting these different causes with medication is the current challenge in IBD treatment. Previous research suggests that the endogenous opioid system also plays a role in gut immunity^{5,6}. For instance, in IBD patients, the μ -opioid receptor (MOR) is overexpressed in mucosal T-lymphocytes and monocytes, and ex vivo stimulation of MOR with the agonist DALDA reduced TNF-alpha in mucosal biopsies from IBD patients⁷. In addition, DALDA also showed anti-inflammatory responses in a mouse model of colitis through inhibition of T cell proliferation and cytokine (including TNF-alpha) production⁸. Another opioid known to modulate MOR responses is Naltrexone. While being a MOR antagonist, which blocks endogenous opioid effects when used at high concentrations⁹, administration of low dose Naltrexone (LDN) is postulated to result in upregulation of endogenous enkephalin and endorphin levels and to have a positive modulatory effect on the MOR^{10,11}. Thus, the use of LDN in clinical settings is gaining interest, with Crohn's disease, multiple sclerosis and fibromyalgia described as potential targets for treatment with LDN^{12–14}. In both mouse and rat models of IBD, LDN alleviated inflammation, in part by reducing pro-inflammatory cytokine production^{15,16}. Interestingly, we and others have shown that endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress in intestinal Paneth cells is one of the contributing factors in IBD^{17–19} and it was recently reported that Naltrexone attenuates inflammation in a mouse liver injury model by reducing ER stress^{20,21}.

Pilot studies in patients with CD showed a positive effect of LDN therapy, with 15 of 17 patients showing a clinical response²². A subsequent randomized, placebo-controlled, double blind study in 34 patients found a response rate of 88% in the LDN

group versus 40% in the placebo group after 12 weeks of therapy²³. In addition LDN was also shown to be safe in pediatric IBD patients, and resulted in significantly reduced PCDAI scores, with 25% of patients achieving remission and 67% showing improvement of disease²⁴. The above results suggest that LDN is an effective therapy for CD patients, although the exact mechanism remains unclear. Based on these promising results, patients started to request LDN therapy due to its favorable side-effect profile, and at the Erasmus MC we decided to start prescribing LDN to therapy refractory IBD patients with active disease. The aims of this study were to assess the clinical effect of LDN and to investigate whether LDN has a direct modulatory effect on intestinal epithelial barrier function.

Methods

Clinical cohort

A prospective cohort of patients with therapy refractory IBD (CD or UC) that started LDN therapy was formed. The decision to start LDN therapy was made by the treating physician, after fully informing the patient of the possible benefits and drawbacks. All patients were prescribed 4.5mg Naltrexone once daily. Patients were instructed to administer one dose of LDN before bedtime.

Upon initiation of LDN therapy, patients were followed according to usual care at the outpatient clinic, with contact (in person or via telephone) after 4, 8 and 12 weeks. During these visits self-assessed disease activity and adverse events were recorded. Patients were offered endoscopic evaluation and assessment of laboratory values after 12 weeks of treatment or at time of discontinuation of LDN therapy, whichever occurred earlier. This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Erasmus MC (MEC-2014-656).

Clinical data collection

During the follow-up, demographic data (e.g. age, gender) and IBD related data (e.g. year of diagnosis, concomitant and previous IBD related therapies, Montreal phenotype classification) were recorded. Additionally, where available, data on diagnostic tests, particularly endoscopic evaluations, performed prior to the start of LDN therapy (with a 1 week window) and during the follow-up period were recorded. All patients that completed at least 1 assessment of disease activity were included in the cohort.

Clinical outcome measures

Clinical outcomes were based on patient self-assessments and outpatient assessments, where available. Patients were considered non-responders if no clinical improvement occurred in the first 4 weeks of LDN therapy. Patients were considered to have clinical response if self-assessed disease activity decreased within the first 4 weeks of LDN therapy, and lasted for at least 4 weeks in total. Of secondary interest were the rates of adverse events during LDN therapy. Endoscopy results were scored based on the most severe area of inflammation. Endoscopic findings in all IBD patients were scored on a scale from 0 to 3, representing no inflammation to severe inflammation respectively.

Cell lines

Colorectal cancer cell lines HCT116 and CACO-2 were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium (DMEM, Lonza, Basel, Switzerland) supplemented with 100U/mL penicillin, 100mg/mL streptomycin (Life technologies, Bleiswijk, NL) and 10% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). Cells were maintained at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ humidified setting.

Organoid culture

Non-inflamed intestinal biopsies were collected from two IBD patients undergoing routine endoscopy for their disease. Organoids were prepared as described^{25,26}, see Additional file 4.1 for details.

Cell viability assay

Cell viability was assessed using MTT assays as described²⁷, see Additional file 4.1: Methods. Each experiment was performed twice in triplicate.

Wound healing assay

Wound healing assays were performed as described²⁸, see Additional file 4.1. The concentration of Naltrexone used was based on in vivo dosages (4.5mg per ± 60 kg bodyweight). Experiments were performed thrice in duplicate, with two measure-sites per scratch.

Western blotting

Western blotting was performed as described²⁹, with modifications (see Additional file 4.1). HCT116 and CACO-2 cells were treated with Tunicamycin (2µM), lipopolysaccharide (10µg/mL LPS) or E. coli (paraffin-fixed DH5α, 6.25e5/mL) in the presence or absence of 1µg/mL Naltrexone. Organoids were treated with LPS in the presence or absence of 1µg/mL Naltrexone. Experiments were performed at least twice.

Immunohistochemistry

FFPE tissue sections were immunohistologically stained for GRP78, as described^{17,30}, see Additional file 4.1. Antigen retrieval was performed by boiling the slides in 600mL of 10mM sodium citrate buffer, pH 6.0 for 15 min. Slides were blocked by incubating in 10% goat serum in PBS and incubated with GRP78 antibody (BiP, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA) diluted in blocking buffer (1:100) overnight at 4°C. Rabbit envision (DAKO, Heverlee, Belgium) was used as secondary antibody.

Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (rt-PCR)

We used rt-PCR to determine MOR expression on the IEC cell lines, using Ribosomal protein primers were used as control²⁶, see Additional file 4.1.

Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

Cells were plated at 0.2×10^6 per well in 24 wells plates. Upon attachment to the plate, cells were treated as described in the text and supernatant was harvested after 24h. Experiments were performed twice, in duplicate. Cytokine levels in supernatants from IECs and patient sera were determined by ELISA (Ready-SET-Go!® eBioscience, San Diego, CA) as per manufacturer's instructions. All samples were tested in duplicate in the ELISAs.

Statistical analysis

Continuous variables were reported as medians with interquartile range (IQR). Comparisons in continuous variables were performed with the Mann-Whitney U test. For comparisons of categorical variables, Fisher's exact test was used. For in vitro and ex vivo experiments, normality of distribution was assessed with D'agostino and Pearson Omnibus normality test. When passing normality test or when there were insufficient numbers to calculate normality, parametric testing was performed,

otherwise, non-parametric tests were employed. Student T-tests were performed for comparisons of two groups. For comparisons of more than two groups, ANOVA with post hoc testing (Tukey's multiple comparison test) was performed. For all tests, one or two-sided (as appropriate) p-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant, graphs show mean \pm SEM. Analyses were performed using Graphpad Prism 5.0.

Results

Patient characteristics

From July 2010 till August 2014, 47 patients were treated with LDN, of which 19 (40.4%) were male and 28 were female. Median treatment and follow-up duration after start of LDN was 3 months (IQR 3-5 months). Of the 47 patients, 28 (59.6%) were diagnosed with CD and 19 with UC. Three patients had previously undergone surgery (2 ileocecal resections and 1 subtotal colectomy, all in CD patients). The full baseline patient characteristics are described in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Baseline patient characteristics.

| General characteristics | | | |
|--|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| Diagnosis, N (%) | UC, 19 (40%) | CD, 28 (60%) | Combined, 47 |
| Gender (M/F) | 10/9 | 9/19 | 19/28 |
| Median age at diagnosis (years, IQR) | 31 (27-44.5) | 23 (16.8-32.5) | 27 (18-39.5) |
| Median age at start of LDN (years, IQR) | 42 (33.5-52) | 25.5 (25.5-53.5) | 40 (27.5-52.5) |
| Median disease duration at start of LDN (years, IQR) | 6.9 (3.2-12.4) | 7.8 (3.8-16.5) | 7.0 (3.8-13.4) |
| CRP mg/L, median (IQR) | 7 (2-27) | 6 (2-7) | 6 (2-9) |
| Endoscopic score (median, IQR) | 2.0 (1.0-2.0) | 2.0 (2.0-2.0) | 2.0 (1.25-2.0) |
| Disease characteristics | | | |
| Disease extent or phenotype [Montreal classification, % (N)] | E1 11% (2) | L1 7% (2) | |
| | E2 63% (12) | L2 32% (9) | |
| | E3 26% (5) | L3 61% (17) | |

CD Crohn's disease, CRP C-reactive protein, IQR inter-quartile range, LDN low dose Naltrexone, UC ulcerative colitis.

All participants were either steroid dependent or steroid refractory and had previously been treated with at least one other drug, and all patients showed clinical signs of disease activity at initiation of LDN therapy. Notably, 41 patients (87.2%) had previously received at least one anti-TNF-alpha agent, and 19 (40.4%) had been treated with two anti-TNF-alpha agents. The 6 patients not exposed to anti-TNF-alpha had refused anti-TNF-alpha therapy due to fear of possible side effects. The full details on the previous and concomitant treatments at start of LDN therapy are described in Table 4.2. Seven

patients (14.9%) reported adverse events due to LDN, including vivid dreams (N=4), drowsiness (N=2) and headache (N=1). Two patients discontinued LDN therapy after 2 weeks, due to drowsiness. Vivid dream complaints improved when LDN was administered in the morning instead of at bedtime.

Table 4.2 Medical therapies used prior to start of LDN and concomitantly with LDN.

| | UC, 19 | CD, 28 | Combined, 47 |
|---|-----------|-----------|--------------|
| Therapies prior to LDN, N (%) | | | |
| 5-ASA | 17 (89%) | 14 (50%) | 31 (66%) |
| Steroids | 19 (100%) | 28 (100%) | 47 (100%) |
| Immunosuppressives | 18 (95%) | 27 (96%) | 45 (96%) |
| Anti-TNF | 16 (84%) | 25 (89%) | 41 (87%) |
| Other | 5 (26%) | 2 (7%) | 8 (15%) |
| Concomitant therapies at start of LDN, N (%) | | | |
| 5-ASA | 7 (37%) | 3 (11%) | 10 (21%) |
| Steroids | 6 (32%) | 18 (64%) | 24 (51%) |
| Immunosuppressives | 8 (42%) | 9 (32%) | 17 (36%) |
| Anti-TNF | 5 (26%) | 3 (11%) | 8 (17%) |
| Other | 1 (5%) | 2 (7%) | 3 (6%) |
| None | 4 (21%) | 7 (25%) | 11 (23%) |

Steroids refer to any form of corticosteroids. Immunosuppressives refer to thiopurines or methotrexate. Other refers to tacrolimus, cyclosporine, thioguanine or blinded trial drugs. Anti-TNF anti-tumor necrosis factor, CD Crohn's disease, LDN low dose Naltrexone, UC ulcerative colitis.

LDN therapy shows clinical and endoscopic efficacy in IBD patients

Of the 47 patients, 35 (74.5%) achieved a clinical response. Of those 35 patients, 12 patients had a response of at least 3 months (25.5% of total cohort, 8 CD, 4 UC), whereas a short-lived (between 4 and 12 weeks) improvement was seen in the remaining 23 patients (48.9% of total cohort, 13 CD, 10 UC). There was no statistically significant difference between CD and UC patients in the number of patients that achieved either response or remission ($P=1.000$ and $P=0.515$ respectively).

The median endoscopic score at baseline amongst all patients was 2 (IQR 1.25-2.0). In 12 patients, consecutive endoscopies were performed both at baseline and at 12 weeks or at time of relapse, whichever occurred earlier. These consecutive endoscopies were performed in 6 patients with response (3 CD, 3 UC) and 6 patients with remission (1 CD, 5 UC). Between these two groups, no significant difference was observed in baseline endoscopic score (median 1.67, range 1-3 versus 1.83, range 0-3 for response and remission respectively $P=0.676$). However, patients achieving clinical remission had a significantly greater improvement in endoscopic score compared to patients not reaching clinical response (median change -1.5, range -2 to 0 versus 1.0, range 0-2,

P=0.005, Figure 4.1). Complete endoscopic remission upon treatment with LDN was seen in 5 out of 6 patients with clinical remission.

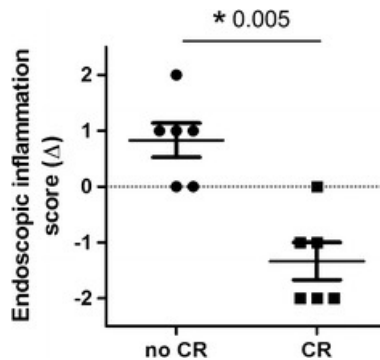


Figure 4.1 Changes in individual endoscopic inflammation scores values. The change in endoscopic score value for patients in clinical remission after week 12 and patients not in clinical remission after week 12 are displayed. Each dot represents an individual. The horizontal line represents the group median. The difference in group medians is statistically significant (-1.5 versus 1.0 , for clinical remission and not in clinical remission respectively, $p = 0.005$).

Naltrexone improves wound healing in intestinal epithelial cell layers

Having shown shown clinical effect of Naltrexone in patients, we next sought to establish whether Naltrexone has a direct effect on epithelial cell function. After testing for the presence of MOR (Figure 4.2a), we investigated the effect of Naltrexone on wound healing in layers of HCT116 and CACO₂ colonic epithelial cell lines. Figure 4.2b shows that scratch wounds inflicted in HCT116 cell cultures are healed significantly faster when cells are treated with Naltrexone as compared to vehicle control ($P=0.0001$ at $t=24$; $P=0.0001$ at $t=48$). In CACO₂ cells, which migrate much faster than HC116, all wounds were healed at $t=48$ and the effect of Naltrexone on wound size was less clear ($t=24$ h, $P=0.085$, Figure 4.2b, right panel). Possibly, the lower MOR expression levels observed in CACO₂ cells accounts for the lesser effect of Naltrexone in this cell line. However, when comparing the migrated distance of cells, it was evident that Naltrexone stimulated epithelial cell migration, in both HCT116 (361 ± 24 vs. 656 ± 52 pixels, $P=0.085$) and CACO₂ (465 ± 26 vs. 310 ± 50 pixels, $P=0.0083$, Figure 4.2c). This effect of Naltrexone on wound healing was not due to an increased cellular proliferation, as total viable cell numbers were not affected by Naltrexone up to a concentration of $100\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Additional file 4.2: Figure S4.1A-C).

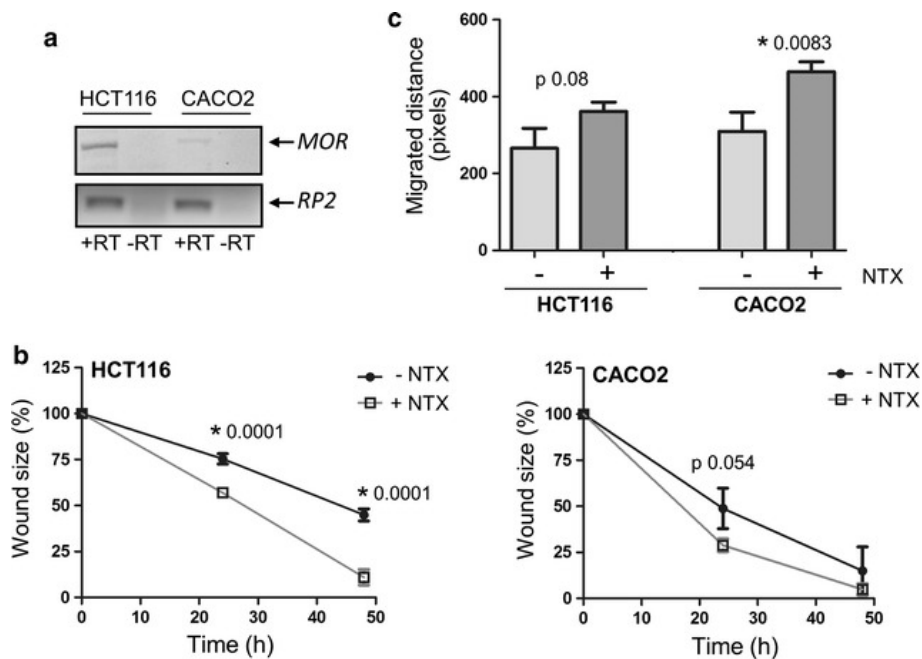


Figure 4.2 Naltrexone improves epithelial wound healing. **a** Expression of the μ -opioid receptor (MOR) was tested by rt-PCR, using -RT (i.e. RNA) controls. Ribosomal protein 2 (RP2) was used as cDNA quality control. **b** HCT116 (left panel) and CACO2 (right panel) cultures were scratched in the presence or absence of 1 μ M Naltrexone (NTX), and wounds were photographed at $t = 0, 24$ and 48 . Mean percentage wound size of three independent experiments is shown. **c** Migration of wound edges at $t = 24$ in pixels presented as mean of three experiments.

Naltrexone does not affect interleukin 8 (IL-8) cytokine levels in epithelial cells and patient sera

In vivo, epithelial cells produce an array of cytokines in response to inflammatory stimuli, which in turn can attract immune cells and perpetuate inflammation in IBD patients. We therefore investigated whether cytokine production by epithelial cells is directly affected by Naltrexone. Cells were stimulated with bacteria in the absence or presence of Naltrexone, and supernatants were tested for the presence of the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6, IL-8 and TNF- α after 24h. As shown in Figure 4.3, treatment of cells with bacteria significantly increased IL-8 production in both HCT116 and CACO2 cells (44 ± 4 to 92 ± 14 pg/mL in HCT116, $P=0.0001$, Figure 4.3a and 17 ± 1 to 25 ± 3 pg/mL in CACO2, $P=0.0001$, Figure 4.3b). However, neither basal levels nor

bacteria-stimulated levels of IL-8 were significantly affected by Naltrexone treatment. IL-6 and TNF-alpha levels were undetectable (not shown).

Next we tested whether IL-8 or TNF-alpha systemic levels in patients were modulated by Naltrexone treatment *in vivo*. Paired serum samples (before and after initiation of treatment) were available of 7 patients, 3 responders and 4 non-responders. IL-8 was detected in 6 patients (Figure 4.3c), whereas TNF-alpha could be measured in serum from 5 out of 7 patients (Figure 4.3d). No consistent up or down modulation of either IL-8 or TNF-alpha was observed, nor were there significant differences in these cytokine levels between responders and non-responders to Naltrexone (Figure 4.3e, 4.3f). Together, these data suggest that Naltrexone does not positively impact on inflammation through modulation of intestinal epithelial cell cytokine production.

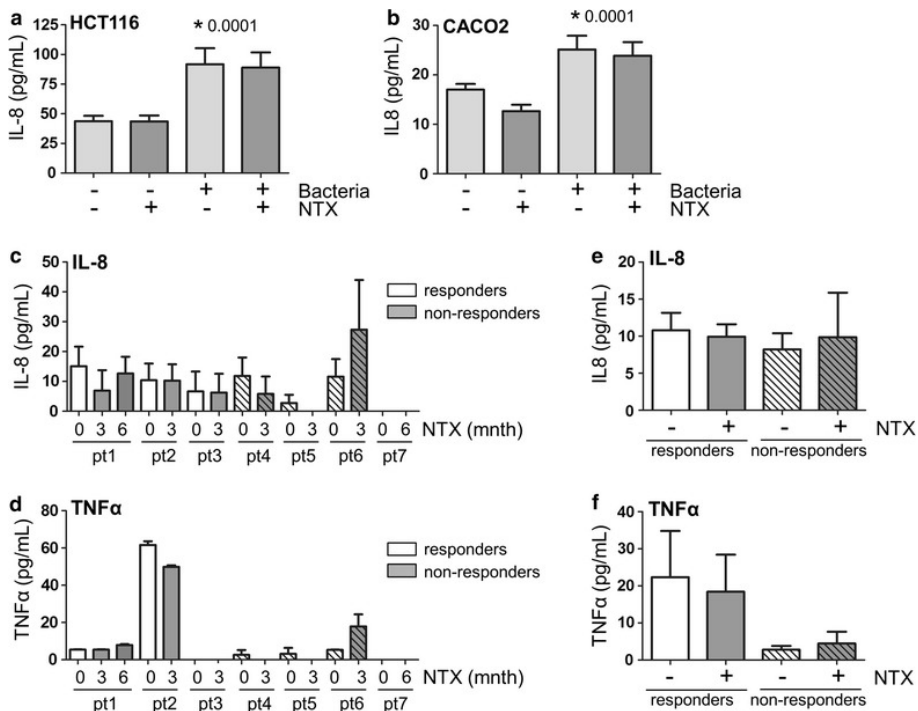


Figure 4.3 Naltrexone does not affect IL-8 levels in epithelial cell lines and patient sera. Stimulation of HCT116 (a) and CACO2 (b) cell layers for 24 h with bacteria results in significantly increased IL-8 levels in culture supernatants as determined by ELISA. Co-treatment with 1 µg/mL Naltrexone does not affect basal levels or bacteria-induced levels of IL-8 production in these cell lines. c–f Serum from patients was taken before low dose Naltrexone (NTX) treatment, and 3 or 6 months into treatment. IL-8 was detectable in 6 of 7 patients c by ELISA, whereas TNF-alpha was detectable in 5 patients (d). There was no significant difference in the mean IL-8 (e) or TNF-alpha (f) levels between responders and non-responders to low dose Naltrexone.

ER stress in intestinal epithelium is reduced by Naltrexone

As ER stress in the mucosa has been associated with the development of IBD, and Naltrexone was previously shown to reduce ER stress-induced inflammation in a model of liver damage, we next investigated whether Naltrexone has a direct effect on ER stress in intestinal epithelium. ER stress was chemically induced in intestinal epithelial cell lines by Tunicamycin (Figure 4.4a and Additional file 4.3: Figure S4.2), as demonstrated by a strong upregulation of the ER stress marker GRP78. Interestingly, Naltrexone was able to reduce these levels in both cell lines. Chemical stimulation of cells with Tunicamycin causes inhibition of the UDP-N-acetylglucosamine-dolichol phosphate N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase (GPT) and subsequent accumulation of unfolded glycoproteins in the ER; a non-physiological process likely to result in much higher ER stress levels than are probable in vivo. To investigate ER stress in a more physiologically relevant setting, we incubated intestinal epithelial cells with bacteria (representative examples shown in Figure 4.4b and Additional file 4.3: Figure S4.2A). A significant upregulation of GRP78 expression was observed in HCT116 cells treated with *E. coli* (0.065 ± 0.007 to 0.097 ± 0.01 , $P=0.0025$, Figure 4.4b), which again was significantly reduced by co-treatment of cells with Naltrexone (0.076 ± 0.005 , $P=0.0025$). In CACO₂ cells, Naltrexone diminished bacteria-induced GRP78 expression in three out of three experiments, although this did not reach statistical significance as bacteria-induced ER stress was low in these cells (Additional file 4.3: Figure S4.2A). In order to further confirm ER stress pathway activation with a different physiological stimulus, we also induced ER stress in HCT116 cells with lipopolysaccharide and investigated expression levels of CHOP, a downstream target of the ER stress pathway. Figure 4c shows that CHOP levels induced by LPS were reduced by co-treatment with Naltrexone (1.315 ± 0.592 to 0.801 ± 0.710 , $P=0.027$). Again, the effect was less clear for CACO₂ cells (Additional file 4.3: Figure S4.2C).

While cell lines are an easy and common model system to study epithelial cell function, such cell lines may show different cellular effects due to transforming mutations. We therefore generated organoids from colonic biopsies from two IBD patients, representing IBD epithelial tissue. Stimulation of these organoids with LPS again induced GRP78 expression (4 out of 4 experiments), and ER stress levels were reduced by co-treatment of organoids with Naltrexone (Figure 4.4d, 1.734 ± 0.473 to 1.017 ± 0.698 , $P=0.046$). Together, these data imply that ER stress in intestinal epithelial cells is alleviated by Naltrexone.

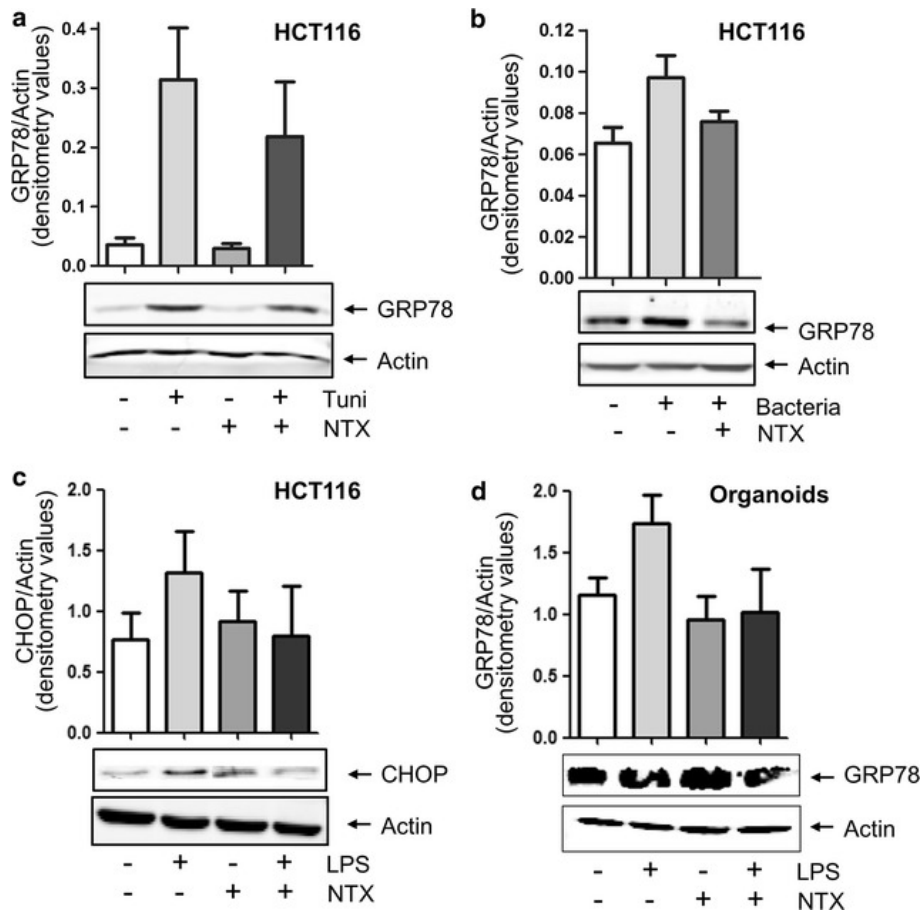


Figure 4.4 ER stress in epithelial cell lines is decreased by Naltrexone. **a** ER stress was induced in HCT116 cells by treatment with 2 μ M Tunicamycin (Tuni), resulting in an upregulation of GRP78 expression levels as detected by Western Blot analysis. Co-treatment of cells with 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone (NTX) reduces the amount of Tunicamycin-induced GRP78 expression. Upper graph: mean densitometry values of two independent experiments, GRP78 expression is corrected for Actin, to control for equal loading. Representative example is shown in the bottom panels. **b** Treatment of HCT116 cells with bacteria results in a significant upregulation of GRP78 expression as detected by Western blot analysis, which is reduced by co-treatment cells by treatment of cells with 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone. Mean densitometry values of four independent experiments is shown. **c** Treatment of HCT116 cells with LPS results in a significant upregulation of CHOP expression as detected by Western blot analysis, which is reduced by co-treatment cells by treatment of cells with 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone. Mean densitometry values of three independent experiments is shown. **d** Treatment of organoids with LPS results in a significant upregulation of GRP78 expression as detected by Western blot analysis, which is reduced by co-treatment cells by treatment of cells with 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone. Mean densitometry values are shown of experiments performed on organoids derived from two individual donors, with two independent experiments each.

Next, we investigated intestinal ER stress in patients treated with LDN. Intestinal tissue biopsies were available in 13 patients prior to treatment and in 5 patients 3 months into treatment, with 3 paired samples. Sections were stained for GRP78 (for specificity of the staining, see Additional file 4.4: Figure S4.3). High levels of ER stress were observed in both the inflamed intestinal lamina propria and crypts from IBD patients (Figure 4.5a). GRP78 levels decreased upon NTX treatment, most noticeably in the lamina propria, (1.14 ± 0.5 vs. 0.8 ± 0.5 for lamina propria and 0.9 ± 0.4 vs. 0.7 ± 0.6 for crypts) although statistical significance was not reached because of low patient numbers (Figure 4.4b). However, in the 3 paired samples available, NTX treatment reduced interstitial ER stress (Figure 4.4c, and examples in Figure 4.4d). In toto, these data suggest that Naltrexone has a direct effect on ER stress as measured by GRP78 expression in intestinal mucosa.

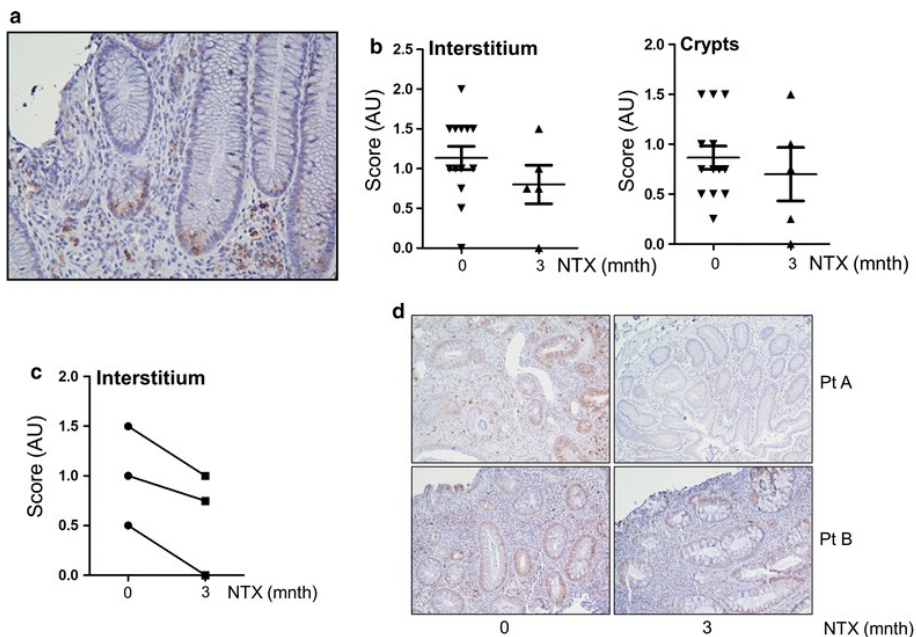


Figure 4.5 High ER stress in mucosa from IBD patients is reduced by low dose Naltrexone treatment. **a** Example of GRP78, showing high ER stress marker expression in crypts as well as lamina propria. **b** GRP78 intensity was scored in lamina propria and crypts from biopsies taken from 13 patients before start of low dose Naltrexone and 5 patients 3 months into treatment. Lower levels of GRP78 expression were observed in lamina propria, although this did not reach statistical significance. **c** Paired biopsies were available from three patients. All three showed reduction of GRP78 expression in the lamina propria upon treatment with low dose Naltrexone. **d** Two paired samples are shown. Patient A was a non-responder, Patient B did show clinical response to low dose Naltrexone.

Discussion

In this study, therapy refractory IBD patients receiving LDN showed clinical improvement in 74.5% of all patients and long-lasting clinical remission of in 25.5%. Furthermore, most patients achieving clinical remission also showed endoscopic improvement. The response and remission rates in this study appear slightly lower than the rates found in previously published studies (response rates of 88–89% and remission rates of 30–67%^{22,23}). These differences might be explained by differences in patient population, as the patients in our cohort had more severe disease, as reflected by the differences in previous drug exposure. Furthermore, the sample size of the previous studies was small, with only 17 and 18 patients receiving Naltrexone in the pilot study and the placebo controlled study, respectively. No serious adverse events were reported in the current study. Interestingly, we also found no elevated liver enzymes in our cohort, whereas previous studies found such abnormalities in 1.8–11.1% of patients treated with Naltrexone^{22,23}. Thus, our data suggest that LDN is safe and effective in the treatment of conventional therapy-refractory IBD patients.

While the potential benefit of Naltrexone treatment for IBD is becoming clear, the underlying mechanisms and the general role of the opioid system in IBD have so far received very little attention. An increased expression of MOR in mucosal immune cells has been shown, and one possible function of this upregulation may be compensatory pain management. Pro-inflammatory Th1 and Th17 cells produce enhanced levels of endogenous opioids during colitis in mice³¹, which suppress pain signals during chronic mucosal inflammation³². As such, it is conceivable that part of the remission in LDN treated patients is a result of a general improvement of well-being. Interestingly, antagonists of the nociceptor receptor (involved in pain sensation) also reduced intestinal pro-inflammatory cytokine profiles and ameliorated DSS colitis in mice, suggesting that blocking pain sensors has a direct immune-modulatory effect.³³ Intriguingly, it has recently been shown that the opioid inactive (+)-isomers of Naltrexone inhibit lipopolysaccharide-induced Toll like Receptor 4 (TLR4) signaling, a bacterial-induced inflammatory pathway contributing to IBD^{34,35}. It is as yet unclear whether the Naltrexone preparations currently used in patients (and as bought for in vitro experiments) contain this opioid inactive isoform, but it is at least theoretically possible that some of the beneficial effects observed in the current study are not regulated by MOR, but rather by inhibition of TLR signaling. Furthermore, in addition to MOR, Naltrexone also has weak affinity for the κ and δ opioid receptors, and it is conceivable that some of the observed effects occur through these receptors.

The limited studies performed so far on the mechanistic effect of Naltrexone have mainly focused on immune cells. However, our study suggests that Naltrexone can also have direct beneficial consequences on epithelial barrier cells, by stimulating wound healing. These data are in accordance with the improved *in vivo* wound healing observed upon Naltrexone treatment in both IBD patients and diabetic mice³⁶. However, while the effect of Naltrexone on wound healing in skin was shown to be a result of increased fibroblast proliferation³⁷, our *in vitro* model suggests that wound healing of intestinal epithelial barriers is modulated by improved migration rather than proliferation.

Other studies investigating the potential mechanism of LDN on inflammation have focused on immune cell cytokine production. Elevated TNF-alpha, IL-6 and IL-12 levels have been reported to be reduced by Naltrexone in chemically induced mouse colitis models^{15,16}. In contrast, others have found that LDN enhances dendritic cell maturation and stimulates their TNF-alpha and IL-12 production, whereas in the current study, no effect of Naltrexone on either epithelial induced IL-8 production or IL-8 and TNF-alpha serum levels in IBD patients was observed. However, it should be noted that not all cytokines could be detected in our system, and it is possible that other cytokines, which were not studied here, are affected.

We and others have previously shown that patients carrying gene variants associated with development of IBD demonstrate increased mucosal ER stress and bacterial persistence, suggesting that intestinal ER stress contributes to IBD pathology^{19,38-40}. The cell type that appeared most affected, even in non-inflamed mucosa, were the Paneth cells, specialized anti-microbial peptide producing cells¹⁷. We now show that during inflammation, not only Paneth cells, but also other crypt and lamina propria cells show increased ER stress, which may reflect a general cellular stress response in the presence of pro-inflammatory cytokines or bacteria. Indeed, we demonstrate that stimulation of intestinal epithelial cells with bacteria or LPS triggers a significant upregulation of the ER stress marker GRP78. However, not all cell lines showed this effect, which may be a reflection of the genetic IBD risk factors present in these cell lines. Nevertheless, ER stress in both cell lines as well as organoids derived from IBD patients was reduced by treatment with Naltrexone, as were lamina propria GRP78 levels in biopsies from patients treated with Naltrexone, although this did not correlate with clinical response in all cases. Interestingly, genetic variants of the MOR gene OPRM1 affect response to high doses of NTX, however to what extent they may play a role in clinical and molecular response in IBD patients is as yet unclear⁴¹.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our study provides additional insight into the mechanism of action of Naltrexone in intestinal inflammation, showing a direct effect of this opioid on intestinal epithelial wound healing and ER stress reduction. The clinical results are promising, and particularly given the low frequency and relative beneficial nature of side-effects, the use of LDN in therapy refractory IBD patients seems warranted. Future clinical research may also focus on the use of LDN earlier in the IBD treatment pyramid.

References

1. Gisbert JP, Panés J. Loss of response and requirement of infliximab dose intensification in Crohn's disease: a review. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009;104:760-767.
2. Billioud V, Sandborn WJ, Peyrin-Biroulet L. Loss of response and need for adalimumab dose intensification in Crohn's disease: a systematic review. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2011;106:674-684.
3. Khan NH, Almukhtar RM, Cole EB, Abbas AM. Early corticosteroids requirement after the diagnosis of ulcerative colitis diagnosis can predict a more severe long-term course of the disease—a nationwide study of 1035 patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2014;40:374-81.
4. Peyrin-Biroulet L, Loftus EV, Colombel J-F, Sandborn WJ. The natural history of adult Crohn's disease in population-based cohorts. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2010;105:289-97.
5. Mani AR, Moore KP. New insights into the role of endogenous opioids in the pathogenesis of gastrointestinal and liver disease. *Gut* 2009;58:893-5.
6. Collins S, Verma-Gandhu M. The putative role of endogenous and exogenous opiates in inflammatory bowel disease. *Gut* 2006;55:756-7.
7. Philippe D, Chakass D, Thuru X, Zerbib P, Tscopoulos A, Geboes K, et al. Mu opioid receptor expression is increased in inflammatory bowel diseases: implications for homeostatic intestinal inflammation. *Gut* 2006;55:815-23.
8. Philippe D, Dubuquoy L, Groux H, Brun V, Chuoi-Mariot MT Van, Gaveriaux-Ruff C, et al. Anti-inflammatory properties of the mu opioid receptor support its use in the treatment of colon inflammation. *J Clin Invest* 2003;111:1329-38.
9. Preston KL, Bigelow GE. Differential naltrexone antagonism of hydromorphone and pentazocine effects in human volunteers. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1993;264:813-23.
10. Brown N, Panksepp J. Low-dose naltrexone for disease prevention and quality of life. *Med Hypotheses* 2009;72:333-7.
11. Ramanathan S, Panksepp J, Johnson B. Is fibromyalgia an endocrine/endorphin deficit disorder? Is low dose naltrexone a new treatment option? *Psychosomatics* 2012;53:591-4.
12. Younger J, Mackey S. Fibromyalgia symptoms are reduced by low-dose naltrexone: a pilot study. *Pain Med* 2009;10:663-72.
13. Folseraas T, Melum E, Rausch P, Juran BD, Ellinghaus E, Shiryayev A, et al. Extended analysis of a genome-wide association study in primary sclerosing cholangitis detects multiple novel risk loci. *J Hepatol* 2012;57:366-75.
14. Turel AP, Oh KH, Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ. Low dose naltrexone for treatment of multiple sclerosis: a retrospective chart review of safety and tolerability. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2015;35:609-11.
15. Matters GL, Harms JF, McGovern C, Fitzpatrick L, Parikh A, Nilo N, et al. The opioid antagonist naltrexone improves murine inflammatory bowel disease. *J Immunotoxicol* 2008;5:179-87.
16. Tawfik DI, Osman AS, Tolba HM, Khattab A, Abdel-Salam LO, Kamel MM. Evaluation of therapeutic effect of low dose naltrexone in experimentally-induced Crohn's disease in rats. *Neuropeptides* 2016;59:39-45.
17. Deuring JJ, Fuhler GM, Konstantinov SR, Peppelenbosch MP, Kuipers EJ, de Haar C, et al. Genomic ATG16L1 risk allele-restricted Paneth cell ER stress in quiescent Crohn's disease. *Gut* 2014;63:1081-91.
18. Grootjans J, Kaser A, Kaufman RJ, Blumberg RS. The unfolded protein response in immunity and inflammation. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2016;16:469-84.
19. Kaser A, Lee A-H, Franke A, Glickman JN, Zeissig S, Tilg H, et al. XBP1 Links ER stress to intestinal inflammation and confers genetic risk for human inflammatory bowel disease. *Cell* 2008;134:743-56.
20. Moslehi A, Nabavizadeh F, Zekri A, Amiri F. Naltrexone changes the expression of lipid metabolism-related proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress induced hepatic steatosis in mice. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol* 2016;44:207-12.
21. Moslehi A, Nabavizadeh F, Dehpou AR, Tavanga SM, Hassanzadeh G, Zekri A, et al. Naltrexone attenuates endoplasmic reticulum stress induced hepatic injury in mice. *Acta Physiol Hung* 2014;101:341-52.

22. Smith JP, Stock H, Bingaman S, Mauger D, Rogosnitzky M, Zagon IS. Low-dose naltrexone therapy improves active Crohn's disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;102:820-8.
23. Smith JP, Bingaman SI, Ruggiero F, Mauger DT, Mukherjee A, McGovern CO, et al. Therapy with the opioid antagonist naltrexone promotes mucosal healing in active Crohn's disease: a randomized placebo-controlled trial. *Dig Dis Sci* 2011;56:2088-97.
24. Smith JP, Field D, Bingaman SI, Evans R, Mauger DT. Safety and tolerability of low-dose naltrexone therapy in children with moderate to severe Crohn's disease: a pilot study. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2013;47:339-45.
25. Dekkers JF, Wiegerinck CL, de Jonge HR, Bronsveld I, Janssens HM, de Winter-de Groot KM, et al. A functional CFTR assay using primary cystic fibrosis intestinal organoids. *Nat Med* 2013;19:939-45.
26. Yin Y, Wang Y, Dang W, Xu L, Su J, Zhou X, et al. Mycophenolic acid potentially inhibits rotavirus infection with a high barrier to resistance development. *Antiviral Res* 2016;133:41-9.
27. Queiroz KCS, Milani R, Ruela-de-Sousa RR, Fuhler GM, Justo GZ, Zambuzzi WF, et al. Violacein induces death of resistant leukaemia cells via kinome reprogramming, endoplasmic reticulum stress and Golgi apparatus collapse. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e45362.
28. Ruela-de-Sousa RR, Hoekstra E, Hoogland AM, Souza Queiroz KC, Peppelenbosch MP, Stubbs AP, et al. Low-molecular-weight protein tyrosine phosphatase predicts prostate cancer outcome by increasing the metastatic potential. *Eur Urol* 2016;69:710-9.
29. Fuhler GM, Tyl MR, Olthof SGM, Lyndsay Drayer A, Blom N, Vellenga E. Distinct roles of the mTOR components Rictor and Raptor in MO7e megakaryocytic cells. *Eur J Haematol* 2009;83:235-45.
30. Hoekstra E, Das AM, Willemsen M, Swets M, Kuppen PJK, van der Woude CJ, et al. Lipid phosphatase SHIP2 functions as oncogene in colorectal cancer by regulating PKB activation. *Oncotarget* 2016;7:73525.
31. Boué J, Basso L, Cenac N, Blanpied C, Rolli-Derkinderen M, Neunlist M, et al. Endogenous regulation of visceral pain via production of opioids by colitogenic CD4⁺ T cells in mice. *Gastroenterology* 2014;146:166-75.
32. Valdez-Morales E, Guerrero-Alba R, Ochoa-Cortes F, Benson J, Spreadbury I, Hurlbut D, et al. Release of endogenous opioids during a chronic IBD model suppresses the excitability of colonic DRG neurons. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 2013;25:39.
33. Alt C, Lam JS, Harrison MT, Kershaw KM, Samuelsson S, Toll L, et al. Nociceptin/orphanin FQ inhibition with SB612111 ameliorates dextran sodium sulfate-induced colitis. *Eur J Pharmacol* 2012;683:285-93.
34. Wang X, Zhang Y, Peng Y, Hutchinson MR, Rice KC, Yin H, et al. Pharmacological characterization of the opioid inactive isomers (+)-naltrexone and (+)-naloxone as antagonists of toll-like receptor 4. *Br J Pharmacol* 2016;173:856-69.
35. Watkins LR, Wang X, Mustafa S, Hutchinson MR. In vivo veritas: (+)-Naltrexone's actions define translational importance: a letter in response to Skolnick et al. "Translational potential of naloxone and naltrexone as TLR4 antagonists" *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 2014;35:432-3.
36. Immonen JA, Zagon IS, Lewis GS, McLaughlin PJ. Topical treatment with the opioid antagonist naltrexone accelerates the remodeling phase of full-thickness wound healing in type 1 diabetic rats. *Exp Biol Med* 2013;238:1127-35.
37. Immonen JA, Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ. Featured article: selective blockade of the OGF–OGFr pathway by naltrexone accelerates fibroblast proliferation and wound healing. *Exp Biol Med* 2014;239:1300-9.
38. Deuring JJ, de Haar C, Koelewijn CL, Kuipers EJ, Peppelenbosch MP, van der Woude CJ. Absence of ABCG2-mediated mucosal detoxification in patients with active inflammatory bowel disease is due to impeded protein folding. *Biochem J* 2012;441:87-93.
39. Deuring JJ, Peppelenbosch MP, Kuipers EJ, van der Woude CJ. Impeded protein folding and function in active inflammatory bowel disease. *Biochem Soc Trans* 2011;39:1107-11.
40. Tschurtschenthaler M, Adolph TE, Ashcroft JW, Niederreiter L, Bharti R, Saveljeva S, et al. Defective ATG16L1-mediated removal of IRE1 α drives Crohn's disease-like ileitis. *J Exp Med* 2017;214(2):401-22.
41. Anton RF, Oroszi G, O'Malley S, Couper D, Swift R, Pettinati H, et al. An evaluation of μ -opioid receptor (OPRM1) as a predictor of Naltrexone response in the treatment of alcohol dependence. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2008;65:135.

Additional file 4.1 Material and methods

Organoid culture

Non-inflamed intestinal biopsies were collected from two IBD patients undergoing routine endoscopy for their disease. Organoids were collected in PBS and transferred into a 15 mL tube containing 10 mL complete chelating solution (CCS, MilliQ H₂O was supplemented with 1.0 g/L of Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O, 1.08 g/L of KH₂PO₄, 5.6 g/L of NaCl, 0.12 g/L of KCl, 15 g/L of Sucrose, 10 g/L of D-Sorbitol and 80 lg/L of DL-dithiothreitol). Biopsies were washed three times by pipetting up and down 8–10 times. Biopsies were transferred into a 50 mL tube with 5 mL CCS and 100 µL 0.5M EDTA was added, then incubated on a rollerplate for 35 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant with EDTA was discarded and 5 ml fresh CCS solution was added. It was thoroughly suspended by pipetting up and down with 10 ml tip for 8–10 times to loosen crypts. Supernatant with crypts was transferred into a 15 ml tube and 2 ml FCS was added. Then, crypt suspension was centrifuged at 1200 RPM for 5 min. Supernatant was discarded and crypts were re-suspended in 12 ml cold advanced DMEM (Advanced DMEM/F12, 5 mL 100x GlutaMAX (GMX), 1% P/S, 500 µL Gentamicin and 5mL 1M HEPES) and centrifuged at 800 RPM for 5 min at 4°C. Crypts were suspended in 50 µL growth factor reduced phenol-red free Matrigel (Corning, Bedford, USA). Then, a 50 µL droplet of Matrigel/crypt mix was placed in the center of each well of a 24-well plate, and was subsequently incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 15 min. 700 µL of culture medium was added per well. The culture medium was supplemented with CMGF-, 2% of B-27 supplements (Gibco, Grand Island, USA), 1% of N2 Supplements (Gibco, Grand Island, USA), 500 pg/L of EGF, 1 mM n-Acetyl Cysteine, 10 mM Nicotinamide, 0.5 µM A83-01 (TGF- β inhibitor), 3 µM SB202190 (p38 inhibitor), 20% (vol/vol) of R-Spondin 1 (conditioned medium), 10% (vol/vol) of Noggin (conditioned medium) and 50% (vol/vol) of Wnt3a (conditioned medium). Culture medium was refreshed every 3 days, and organoids were passaged every 7 days. Passaging of human organoids was done by solubilizing Matrigel and mechanically breaking up the organoids by passing through a 5 ml tip inserting a 200 µL tip, single cells were then transferred to fresh Matrigel. The passaging was performed every 5–6 days with a 1:3 split ratio. Each well contains 10 or more organoids.

Cell viability assay

Cell viability was assessed using MTT assays. Cells (10,000) were seeded in 96 wells plates, and upon adhesion were treated with different concentrations of Naltrexone (Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MA). After 24h 48h and 72h, cells were incubated with 5mM MTT (3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide, Sigma Aldrich, St

Louis, MA) for 3h and colorimetric changes were measured using a microplate reader (Model 680XR Bio-Rad) at 490 and 595 nm.

Wound healing assay

In short, in scratch-wound assays, cell monolayers were scratched with a pipette tip, washed twice, and treated with 1 μ M Naltrexone or vehicle control. Concentration Naltrexone used was based on *in vivo* dosages (4.5 mg per \pm 60 kg bodyweight). Photographs were taken (Axiovert200 M microscope; Carl Zeiss BV, Sliedrecht, The Netherlands) to analyze the percentage of open wound area at 24 h (ImageJ software; US National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA). Experiments were performed thrice in duplicate, with two measure-sites per scratch.

Western blotting

Western blotting was performed as described²⁶, with modifications. HCT116 and CACO-2 cells were treated with Tunicamycin (2 μ M) or *E. coli* (paraffin-fixed DH5 α , 6.25 e5/mL) or Lipopolysaccharides (LPS, 10 μ g/mL) in the presence or absence of 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone. Organoids were treated with LPS (10 μ g/mL) in the presence or absence of 1 μ g/mL Naltrexone. Subsequently, cells were washed with PBS and lysed on ice in 300 μ L 2x concentrated Laemmli buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 200mM dithiothreitol, 4% SDS, 0.1% bromophenol blue, 20% glycerol, and 2% DTT) and boiled for 5 minutes at 95°C. Organoids were also washed with PBS, matrigel was dissolved and the organoids were released. This solution was transferred to a tube and centrifuged for 8 minutes at 800 RPM. Supernatant was removed and the pellet was resuspended in 150 μ L Laemli buffer and boiled for 5 minutes at 95°C.

Cell extracts were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Merck chemicals BV, Amsterdam, the Netherlands). Membranes were blocked in 50% odyssey blocking buffer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE) in PBS/0.05% Tween-20 and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody. After washing in PBS-T, membranes were incubated with IRDye® antibodies (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE) for 1 h. Detection was performed using Odyssey reader and analyzed using manufacturers software. Experiments were performed at least twice.

Immunohistochemistry

FFPE tissue sections were immunohistologically stained for GRP78. Briefly, 5 μ m sections were deparaffinized in xylene and rinsed through graded alcohols (100% alcohols (18:1:1 100% ethanol: 100% methanol: 100% isopropanol), a 95% solution of

the 100% alcohols, and a 80% solution of the 100% alcohols). Next, slides were rinsed several times with fresh deionized water, followed by another 5 minutes wash using fresh water. Antigen retrieval was performed by boiling the slides in 600mL of 10mM sodium citrate buffer, pH 6.0 for 15 minutes. Slides were cooled for 20 minutes and washed extensively in double-distilled H₂O and PBS. Endogenous peroxides were blocked by soaking slides in a PBS/3% H₂O₂ solution for 10 minutes at room temperature. Subsequently, slides were rinsed in PBS and blocked by incubating in 10% goat serum in PBS at room temperature for 1 h. Thereafter, tissue sections were incubated with GRP78 antibody (BiP, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA) diluted in blocking buffer (1:100) overnight at 4°C. Next, slides were rinsed again in PBS for 5 minutes each wash. Rabbit envision (DAKO, Heverlee, Belgium) was used as secondary antibody.

Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (rt-PCR)

We used rt-PCR to determine MOR expression on the IEC cell lines. RNA was isolated as described previously.²⁹ Briefly, RNA was isolated using a NucleoSpin® RNA kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL, Düren, Germany) and cDNA was synthesized using the TAKARA reverse transcription system (TAKARA BIO INC, Shiga, Japan) PCR was performed in a 25 µL reaction, using GoTaq polymerase and GoTaq Flexi buffer, 2 mM MgCl₂ (Promega, Madison, WI), dNTP (0.5 mM each, Roche), 50 ng template and 0.5 nM of the following primers: Forward: 5'-GGAAGCCCTCCAGGTTTCATT, Reverse 5'-GGTCTCTTCACTGGGCACTC. Ribosomal protein (*RP2*) primers were used as control: 5'-AAGCTGAGGATGCTCAAAGG, 5'-CCCATTAAGTCCAAGGCAA.

Additional 4.2

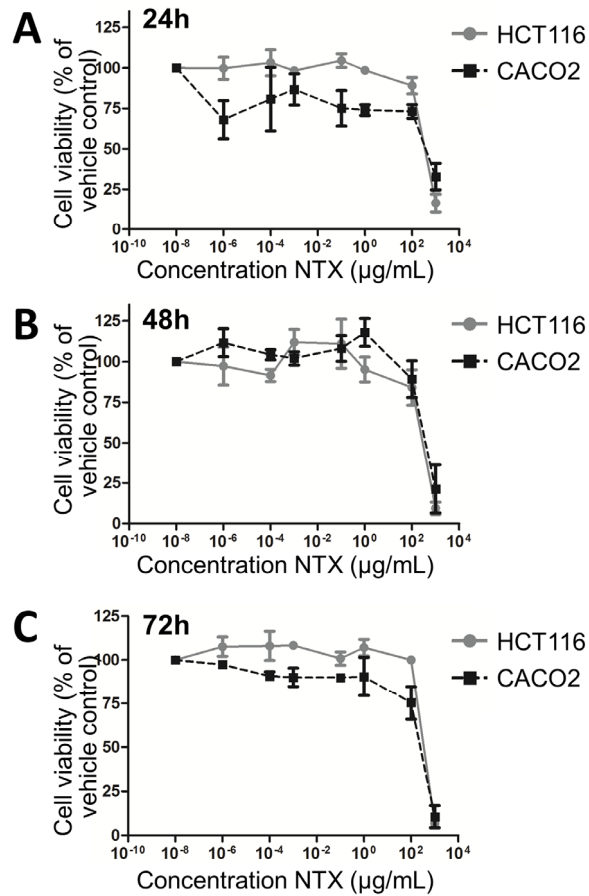


Figure S4.1

Additional files 4.3

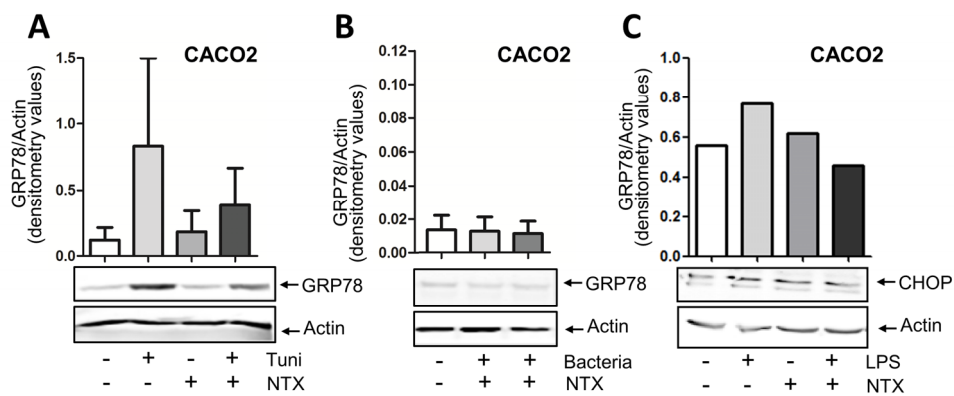


Figure S4.2

Additiobal file 4.4

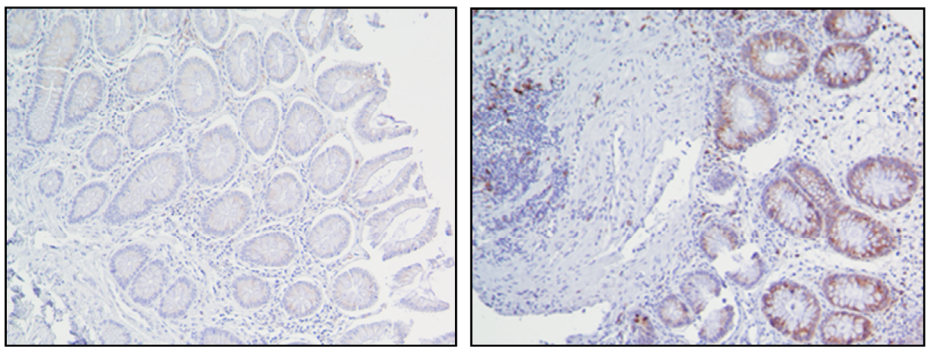


Figure S4.3



The page features abstract, wavy, layered lines in shades of green and blue that sweep across the top and bottom corners, framing the central text.

Chapter 5

Practical guideline for fatigue management in inflammatory bowel Disease

JE Kreijne, MRKL Lie, L Vogelaar, CJ van der Woude

Journal of Crohn's and Colitis, 2016;10(1):105-11

Abstract

During active inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) fatigue is a common symptom, which seems related to active gut inflammation. However, even in remission, many patients suffer from fatigue that negatively affects quality of life and work productivity. Currently, robust knowledge on the pathogenesis and treatment of IBD-related fatigue is lacking. In order to alleviate the burden of IBD-related fatigue, a systematic approach is mandatory. We propose a fatigue attention cycle to enhance identification, evaluation and management of fatigued IBD patients. The benefits of the cycle are twofold. Firstly, it allows for systematic and uniform identification of patients with severe fatigue, in turn allowing for tailored non-pharmacological and pharmacological interventions. Secondly, uniform identification of such patients creates a well-defined patient base to investigate the underlying pathogenesis of fatigue, resulting in a greater understanding of this debilitating phenomenon and possibly resulting in the discovery of predictive factors and new treatment interventions.

Introduction

Fatigue is a common and aggravating symptom in patients with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). IBD is characterized by chronic inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract with alternating periods of disease activity and remission, and mainly comprises two diseases: Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). Many IBD patients suffer from additional symptoms that negatively affect their quality of life (QoL) and physical well-being, fatigue being an important contributor¹⁻³. Fatigue is a common health problem in IBD, as illustrated by Cohen et al.⁴, who showed that 25% of newly diagnosed IBD patients (n = 220) suffered from fatigue. Recently a pan-European online survey showed that over 80% of IBD patients suffered from debilitating fatigue⁵. Although fatigue understandably increases during periods of active gut inflammation, it nevertheless persists in half of the patients in whom sustained clinical and endoscopic remission is achieved and this ongoing fatigue affects both direct and indirect health costs⁶⁻¹³. In a systematic review, van Langenberg and Gibson¹⁴ concluded that treatment of gastrointestinal symptoms has been extensively researched but subjective complaints, such as fatigue, have been ignored. Although patients highlight fatigue as a major concern, current literature on treatment strategies remains scarce. The causal relationship between fatigue and diminished QoL is not completely understood, though an intricate interaction of several factors, such as pain, psychological distress, sleep difficulties and ongoing inflammation, seems to be involved^{15,16}. Consensus on the standard care for IBD-related fatigue, particularly regarding screening and management, is non-existent. Previous research by our study group has proved that psychotherapy has a positive effect on fatigue and QoL in patients with IBD, and, moreover, focuses on (existing) adequate coping strategies in these patients¹⁷. Following a pilot study, we performed a randomized controlled trial in fatigued IBD patients and showed that solution-focused therapy (SFT) significantly reduced fatigue. However, after stopping the therapy the fatigue seemed to reoccur. Our inability to adequately manage fatigue seems to be related to our limited knowledge of the pathogenesis of IBD-related fatigue¹⁸. In recent studies it has been hypothesized that upregulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines contributes to fatigue by directly inducing sickness behaviour, affecting muscle performance and indirectly affecting physical activity through sickness behaviour^{13,19-23}. Moreover, different domains strongly associated with fatigue can be affected, such as physical, cognitive and emotional fatigue, and different, personalized strategies might be mandatory for accurate treatment of these different types of fatigue¹⁹. We sought to review available evidence in order to develop a clinically useful 'fatigue attention cycle' (Figure 5.1) regarding the evaluation and management of IBD-related fatigue with the aim of optimizing fatigue

care. The goal of the attention cycle is to identify patients suffering from fatigue and associated distress or interference with daily activities, in order to apply a systematic management strategy to alleviate fatigue and improve QoL.

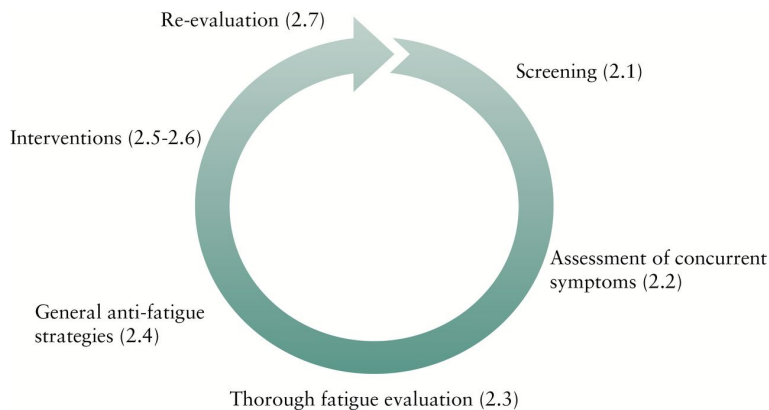


Figure 5.1 The fatigue attention cycle. All steps are explained in more detail in the corresponding paragraph in the text.

The fatigue attention cycle

The fatigue attention cycle is designed to aid clinicians in identifying and managing IBD-related fatigue. The cycle consists of 7 steps, elaborated in more detail below.

Screening

Screening for IBD-related fatigue is the primary step in the fatigue attention cycle. We propose the use of a visual analogue scale (VAS) with a score from 0 to 10 covering the severity of fatigue, with 10 representing severe fatigue and 0 representing no fatigue²⁰⁻²². Because of the simplicity of the VAS, this first step should be easy to perform during routine outpatient visits. The purpose of this short screening method is to distinguish patients with mild fatigue (score 0-3), who require only basic education and counselling, from patients suffering from more severe fatigue (score 4-10), in whom a thorough and more focused fatigue evaluation is appropriate. These cut-off values are in line with the scores used in cancer-related fatigue²³.

Assessment of concurrent symptoms

In order to select an optimal treatment strategy, assessment of concurrent (treatable) symptoms is mandatory. Many factors are known to contribute to fatigue, such as inflammation, pain, emotional distress, sleep disturbance, anaemia, alterations in nutrition and overall nutritional status, and a diminished activity level. The presence of any of these conditions should be treated in accordance with practice guidelines and with referral to other (health-)care professionals as appropriate. Furthermore, medication side effects as well as alcohol and/or drug abuse should be taken into account, as should other comorbidities.

Inflammation

During periods of active gut inflammation, fatigue rates understandably increase²⁴⁻²⁶. Fatigue, on the other hand, is a highly reported symptom and a major concern in IBD patients and (chronic) fatigue can be a concealed indication of active disease. Disease activity should be ascertained by the usual clinical, radiological and endoscopic assessments in order to optimize treatment.

Anaemia

Studies have shown anaemia to be a common problem associated with fatigue in IBD patients. Anaemia can result from several deficiencies through several conditions, such as malabsorption, impaired dietary intake, suppression of iron binding and erythropoiesis or a combination of these factors^{15,27,28}. Other causes of anaemia, specifically in IBD patients, include chronic intestinal bleeding, inflammation and certain types of medication. A systematic review performed by Goldenberg et al.¹⁵ showed that isolated iron deficiency without the presence of anaemia is not a clinically relevant contributor to fatigue in IBD patients. Patients with established anaemia, regardless of the cause, should be thoroughly investigated and treated accordingly.

Nutrition

Various nutrient deficiencies have been associated with fatigue in the general population²⁹. IBD subjects are at risk of nutrient deficiencies due to chronic inflammation, impaired muscle strength and malabsorption³⁰. Even IBD patients that appear well nourished may actually harbour vitamin and/or mineral deficiencies. Vagianos et al.²⁷ showed a high prevalence of inadequate dietary intake of nutrients and biochemical deficiencies, such as vitamin B6 and B12, folate, ferritin and zinc, mainly in patients with active disease and vitamin D deficiency in both active disease

and remission. Nutrient status (ferritin, copper, zinc, folate, phosphate, magnesium, vitamin B6 and B12, calcium, vitamin D) should be restored if necessary, with referral to a dietician when appropriate.

Sleep disturbance

There seems to be a strong correlation between fatigue and sleep disorders, and problematic sleep quality seems common in active disease and also in non-active disease. Sleep disturbances have been associated with increased fatigue scores as well as deterioration of the inflammatory disease course, possibly through altered immune-endocrine factors associated with inflammation^{16,31-33}. Although separate experiences, there is a strong correlation between fatigue and sleep, and diminished sleep quality should be considered and investigated in clinical practice, for instance using the validated Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) questionnaire^{16,34}. Cognitive behavioural therapy is considered the treatment of choice in adults with insomnia and has been proved effective in the long term³⁵⁻³⁸.

Emotional distress

Psychological factors such as a depressive mood, stress, anxiety and impaired QoL are associated with fatigue^{19,39}. Moreover, these psychological factors and diminished QoL are capable of negatively influencing the disease course of IBD^{25,40,41}. It is difficult to measure the influence of psychological factors such as depression on (IBD-related) fatigue, since invalidating fatigue symptoms could be a cause of depressive symptoms as well⁴². Nonetheless, depression, anxiety and other psychological symptoms should be considered as part of this systematic approach to fatigue, as well as referral to a psychologist or psychiatrist.

Pain

In IBD, functional symptoms, including abdominal pain, have been shown to be associated with psychological dysfunction, even in quiescent disease⁴³⁻⁴⁵. Psychological factors may affect sensory processing and thus lead to variations in abdominal pain perception⁴⁶. A simple VAS score can be used to determine the presence and severity of pain. Accurate assessment of the severity and origin of pain can contribute to appropriate diagnostic work-up and treatment.

Medication side effects

Although fatigue is noted as a possible side effect of practically all registered pharmacological drugs, review of current medication and recent changes in medication

is still important in the assessment of IBD-related fatigue. Of note, it has to be taken into account that fatigue has frequently been reported in pharmacological therapy for IBD, especially in those receiving anti-tumour necrosis factor α (anti-TNF) agents^{24,47}.

Activity level

Impaired muscle strength was seen in IBD patients compared with healthy controls⁴⁸⁻⁵¹. Additionally, IBD-related fatigue was associated with a reduced physical activity level and decreased muscle strength⁵². Impaired physical activity and fitness must be considered in the assessment of fatigue-associated factors and insights into the activity level can contribute to the development of specific non-pharmacological treatment targets.

Comorbidities

Fatigue can be caused by a considerable number of other diseases. For instance, fatigue is associated with endocrine, renal, cardiac, respiratory and infectious diseases, amongst many others¹⁴. Specifically, other autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, diabetes mellitus, coeliac disease, asthma and primary sclerosing cholangitis, should be taken into account, as IBD is associated with an increased risk of these autoimmune diseases. Comorbidities should therefore be considered as potential causes of fatigue.

Substance abuse

Alcohol and/or drug abuse are associated with emotional distress, poor sleep quality and anxiety, and should always be assessed in the work-up of IBD-related fatigue⁵³⁻⁵⁵.

Thorough fatigue evaluation

Fatigue related to IBD is typically chronic and characterized by irreversibility^{56,57}. It is not alleviated by rest and not related to exertion, and the compensation mechanisms that are useful in reducing acute fatigue are not effective in IBD-related fatigue. Screening for fatigue using the VAS described above will distinguish those patients with mild fatigue from patients suffering from moderate to severe fatigue. Since the latter group could benefit from a (non)-pharmacological intervention, a more elaborate assessment of the different areas of fatigue should take place. Multiple questionnaires have been used to assess fatigue in the literature. In a previous study by Tinsley et al.³, the FACIT-F questionnaire, comprising 13 questions, was validated for IBD. Recently, the intricate concept of fatigue has called for a multidimensional assessment scale

designed to address the different domains of fatigue. The Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory (MFI-20⁵⁸) and the Checklist Individual Strength (CIS) are 20-question, patient-reported, validated instruments for measuring motivation, activity level, concentration and, with the subscale CIS-fatigue, the severity of fatigue¹⁷. Similarly, Czuber-Dochan et al.⁵⁹ developed a questionnaire in collaboration with IBD patients for the assessment of fatigue and QoL, comprising 41 questions. Several studies report that the domains most strongly associated with fatigue are physical (functional, reduced activity), cognitive (mental, sensory) and emotional (affective, motivational, mood)^{19,39,60}. Therefore, it is important to assess these domains with a questionnaire that reflects the multidimensional character of fatigue, in order to define specific treatment targets and their appropriate therapies.

General anti-fatigue strategies

Before proceeding to specific targeted interventions, more general anti-fatigue strategies should be employed. In particular, teaching patients how to plan their days seems to be the keystone in anti-fatigue strategies. Specifically, patients should be advised to distribute their energy throughout the whole day, to prioritize important events, to alternate their activities and to plan structured rests and breaks. Furthermore, relatives play an important role in the process of acceptance of fatigue, as their acceptance of and their support in managing disease-related symptoms, such as fatigue, are highly valued by IBD patients⁶¹.

5. Non-pharmacological interventions

Non-pharmacological interventions, such as physical activity and psychosocial interventions, have been shown to help patients with a range of other chronic conditions to manage fatigue^{19-62,63}. Several non-pharmacological interventions have been applied in IBD populations, mainly focused on mental health symptoms or overall QoL. However, literature on these interventions is conflicting. Some studies show beneficial effects of these interventions, such as stress management and cognitive behavioural therapy, mainly in the short term⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶. Unfortunately, evidence on non-pharmacological interventions in the treatment of IBD-related fatigue remains scarce. Garcia-Vega et al.⁶⁷ reported that adequate management of stress through stress-management techniques, had a beneficial effect on tiredness compared with treatment as usual in CD patients. Vogelaar et al.⁶⁸ showed that SFT, focusing on existing adequate coping abilities of patients for fatigue, had a positive effect on fatigue and QoL in IBD patients, but the effect diminished during follow up. Reduced activity and muscle strength was reported in fatigued IBD patients, with supporting evidence showing that

physical activity was beneficial for individuals with IBD by improving bone health, increasing muscle mass and function, increasing energy intake and possibly improving nutritional status. Additionally, QoL and fatigue were improved by exercise interventions in IBD patients⁶⁹⁻⁷³. Interestingly, studies in animal models have suggested that exercise may reduce the inflammatory response, thus providing benefits additional to those given by exercise^{69,74}. However, it is challenging to specify guidance on the appropriate activity level or develop a practical physical activity protocol as the literature on these subjects in chronically ill patients is scarce⁷⁵. Whether specific treatment combinations exist for specific types of fatigue, related to the various domains of fatigue (i.e. physical, cognitive, emotional), remains to be elucidated.

Pharmacological interventions

Currently, all pharmacological treatments for fatigue remain in the investigational stage. For instance, psychostimulants such as methylphenidate and dexamethasone have shown promising results in severe cancer-related fatigue⁷⁶⁻⁷⁹. However, these agents should be used cautiously and a specific treatment schedule has not yet been established, nor have these agents been investigated in IBD-related fatigue. Additionally, the randomized trials that have been performed in fatigued cancer patients have shown a significant placebo response⁸⁰. Regarding IBD-related fatigue, few randomized trials have been performed. In a pilot study in 12 IBD patients, high-dose thiamine decreased overall fatigue scores. However, the included patients were poorly defined and did not have thiamine deficiency⁸¹. Other studies showed that the anti-TNF agents infliximab and adalimumab reduced fatigue, but these placebo-controlled studies were performed in patients with active disease^{24,47,82,83}. Consequently, there is a clear necessity for studies on pharmacological interventions for the treatment of IBD-related fatigue in patients with quiescent disease.

Re-assessment

Given the fact that multiple factors influence (the severity of) IBD-related fatigue and that disease activity itself tends to fluctuate, the level of IBD-related fatigue is expected to change over time. Therefore, re-evaluating the presence and severity of fatigue is essential in optimal fatigue management.

Discussion

IBD-related fatigue is an underdiagnosed and undertreated phenomenon in current clinical practice with a severe negative effect on QoL, accompanied by high costs. At present, consensus on management of IBD-related fatigue has not been developed. A systematic approach to the assessment of IBD-related fatigue is of great importance in identifying and understanding this debilitating phenomenon and should start at the time of diagnosis of IBD.

The fatigue attention cycle as proposed ought to serve as an important tool for uniformly identifying severely fatigued patients and will aid in thoroughly evaluating and managing these patients. It is essential to consider these perspectives when engaging in strategies to optimize IBD care. Unfortunately, proper implementation of this cycle in clinical practice is hampered by lack of knowledge concerning the pathogenesis of IBD-related fatigue, making an effective treatment strategy very difficult to define. Currently, a non-pharmacological intervention (i.e. SFT), although not widely used, seems effective, although the effect diminished over time. Several studies on the effect of non-pharmacological interventions on overall QoL have been conducted, but their results are conflicting⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶. Furthermore, the duration of the beneficial effects of these interventions is generally limited. Consequently, there is a clear need for long-term studies involving well-defined non-pharmacological treatment interventions. Such studies would assess not only the short-term effects but also the long-term effects of these interventions, and eventually allow tailored management of fatigue. Pharmacological interventions are still in a premature state, and the lack of knowledge regarding the underlying mechanism of IBD-related fatigue makes the development of novel interventions complex. In order to discover important clues in the identification, prediction and treatment of IBD-related fatigue, the underlying biological mechanisms involved need to be unravelled. As proposed by van Langenberg and Gibson¹⁴, pathogenic pathways involved in muscle fatigue and the contribution of disease-related psychological and neurobiological processes to fatigue genesis in IBD should be explored.

Uniform identification of patients with fatigue, via the proposed assessments, will be key in profiling patients in whom to study the pathogenesis of IBD. In these patients, it is important to focus on mediators of inflammation, but also on the keystones in the immuno-inflammatory response. In previous studies, differences in immune parameters (i.e. pro-inflammatory cytokines) between fatigued and non-fatigued patients were observed⁸⁴. Studies on cancer-related fatigue have identified several pro-

inflammatory cytokines as being associated with the severity of fatigue^{85,86}. Yet the exact mechanism by which fatigue is linked to the immune system and the reason why some patients but not others show such altered pro-inflammatory cytokine patterns during remission of disease remain obscure. As with other diseases, such as chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) and multiple sclerosis (MS), the brain–gut axis is assumed to play a key role in the pathogenesis of IBD-related fatigue^{15,87-91}. However, IBD is a chronic autoimmune disease affecting the gut, and therefore the effects of the brain–gut axis could be considerably different in IBD compared with CFS or MS. A combination of altered microflora, pro-inflammatory cytokine levels, increased stress (both hormonal and psychological) and a genetic predisposition may jointly underlie the mechanism of IBD-related fatigue. There is increasing evidence that the microbiota functions as a mediator in the bidirectional communication between the nervous system and the gut, though much remains to be discovered in this field⁸⁸. Consequently, a ‘back to basics’ approach is required in order to identify mechanisms of this assumed multifactorial phenomenon of IBD-related fatigue. These insights may lead to the discovery of biomarkers to identify patients at risk of fatigue, and may eventually result in the development of an effective and efficient treatment strategy.

The recommendations presented here are largely based on expert experience and pragmatism and are supported where possible by published evidence. Key points include the need for the development of a well-defined fatigue attention cycle and structured support for IBD patients suffering from fatigue. We recognize that there may be large discrepancies between the recommendations presented here and those of allied healthcare professionals or IBD patients. However, these irregularities should not interfere with implementing a systematic diagnostic approach in clinical practice as a preliminary step towards proper identification and management of IBD-related fatigue.

Conclusion

IBD-related fatigue is a multifactorial debilitating phenomenon in need of a multidisciplinary approach. Current knowledge on the pathogenesis of IBD-related fatigue is severely lacking, resulting in sub-optimal identification and management of these patients. Uniform identification of fatigued patients will create a patient base in whom to study the underlying mechanisms of IBD-related fatigue. Research on the pathogenesis of IBD-related fatigue will allow the discovery of predictors of severe fatigue and the development of well-defined fatigue treatment algorithms and structured support for IBD patients.

References

1. de Rooy EC, Toner BB, Maunder RG, et al. Concerns of patients with inflammatory bowel disease: results from a clinical population. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001;96:1816-21.
2. Casellas F, Lopez-Vivancos J, Badia X, Vilaseca J, Malagelada JR. Influence of inflammatory bowel disease on different dimensions of quality of life. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2001;13:567-72.
3. Tinsley A, Macklin EA, Korzenik JR, Sands BE. Validation of the functional assessment of chronic illness therapy-fatigue (FACIT-F) in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2011;34:1328-36.
4. Cohen BL, Zoega H, Shah SA, et al. Fatigue is highly associated with poor health-related quality of life, disability and depression in newly-diagnosed patients with inflammatory bowel disease, independent of disease activity. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2014;39:811-22.
5. Danese S, Hoffman C, Vel S, et al. Anaemia from a patient perspective in inflammatory bowel disease: results from the European Federation of Crohn's and Ulcerative Colitis Association's online survey. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2014;26:1385-91.
6. Bassi A, Dodd S, Williamson P, Bodger K. Cost of illness of inflammatory bowel disease in the UK: a single centre retrospective study. *Gut* 2004;53:1471-8.
7. Juan J, Estiarte R, Colome E, Artes M, Jimenez FJ, Alonso J. Burden of illness of Crohn's disease in Spain. *Dig Liver Dis* 2003;35:853-61.
8. Odes S, Vardi H, Friger M, et al. Cost analysis and cost determinants in a European inflammatory bowel disease inception cohort with 10 years of follow-up evaluation. *Gastroenterology* 2006;131:719-28.
9. Blomqvist P, Ekblom A. Inflammatory bowel diseases: health care and costs in Sweden in 1994. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1997;32:1134-9.
10. Gibson TB, Ng E, Ozminkowski RJ, et al. The direct and indirect cost burden of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. *J Occup Environ Med* 2008;50:1261-72.
11. Stark R, König HH, Leidl R. Costs of inflammatory bowel disease in Germany. *Pharmacoeconomics* 2006;24:797-814.
12. Feagan BG, Bala M, Yan S, Olson A, Hanauer S. Unemployment and disability in patients with moderately to severely active Crohn's disease. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2005;39:390-5.
13. Minderhoud IM, Oldenburg B, van Dam PS, van Berge Henegouwen GP. High prevalence of fatigue in quiescent inflammatory bowel disease is not related to adrenocortical insufficiency. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2003;98:1088-93.
14. van Langenberg DR, Gibson PR. Systematic review: fatigue in inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2010;32:131-43.
15. Goldenberg BA, Graff LA, Clara I, et al. Is iron deficiency in the absence of anemia associated with fatigue in inflammatory bowel disease? *Am J Gastroenterol* 2013;108:1392-7.
16. Graff LA, Vincent N, Walker JR, et al. A population-based study of fatigue and sleep difficulties in inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2011;17:1882-9.
17. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, Timman R, et al. Fatigue management in patients with IBD: a randomised controlled trial. *Gut* 2014;63:911-8.
18. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, Vogelaar T, et al. Solution focused therapy: a promising new tool in the management of fatigue in Crohn's disease patients: psychological interventions for the management of fatigue in Crohn's disease. *J Crohns Colitis* 2011;5:585-91.
19. Czuber-Dochan W, Ream E, Norton C. Review article: description and management of fatigue in inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2013;37:505-16.
20. Seyidova-Khoshknabi D, Davis MP, Walsh D. Review article: a systematic review of cancer-related fatigue measurement questionnaires. *Am J Hosp Palliat Care* 2011;28:119-29.
21. Wolfe F. Fatigue assessments in rheumatoid arthritis: comparative performance of visual analog scales and longer fatigue questionnaires in 7760 patients. *J Rheumatol* 2004;31:1896-902.
22. Brandse JF, Vos LM, Jansen J, et al. Serum concentration of anti-TNF antibodies, adverse effects and quality of life in patients with inflammatory bowel disease in remission on maintenance treatment. *J Crohns Colitis* 2015;9(11):973-81.

23. Van Belle S, Paridaens R, Evers G, et al. Comparison of proposed diagnostic criteria with FACT-F and VAS for cancer-related fatigue: proposal for use as a screening tool. *Support Care Cancer* 2005;13:246-54.
24. Vogelaar L, Van't Spijker A, van Tilburg AJ, Kuipers EJ, Timman R, van der Woude CJ. Determinants of fatigue in Crohn's disease patients. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013;25:246-51.
25. Romberg-Camps MJ, Bol Y, Dagnelie PC, et al. Fatigue and health-related quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease: results from a populationbased study in the Netherlands: the IBD-South Limburg cohort. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16:2137-47.
26. Lix LM, Graff LA, Walker JR, et al. Longitudinal study of quality of life and psychological functioning for active, fluctuating, and inactive disease patterns in inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2008;14:1575-84.
27. Vagianos K, Bector S, McConnell J, Bernstein CN. Nutrition assessment of patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2007;31:311-9.
28. Bager P, Befrits R, Wikman O, et al. Fatigue in out-patients with inflammatory bowel disease is common and multifactorial. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2012;35:133-41.
29. Russell DM, Leiter LA, Whitwell J, Marliss EB, Jeejeebhoy KN. Skeletal muscle function during hypocaloric diets and fasting: a comparison with standard nutritional assessment parameters. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1983;37:133-8.
30. Mijac DD, Jankovic GL, Jorga J, Krstic MN. Nutritional status in patients with active inflammatory bowel disease: prevalence of malnutrition and methods for routine nutritional assessment. *Eur J Intern Med* 2010;21:315-9.
31. Ranjbaran Z, Keefer L, Stepanski E, Farhadi A, Keshavarzian A. The relevance of sleep abnormalities to chronic inflammatory conditions. *Inflamm Res* 2007;56:51-7.
32. Keefer L, Stepanski EJ, Ranjbaran Z, Benson LM, Keshavarzian A. An initial report of sleep disturbance in inactive inflammatory bowel disease. *J Clin Sleep Med* 2006;2:409-16.
33. Tang Y, Preuss F, Turek FW, Jakate S, Keshavarzian A. Sleep deprivation worsens inflammation and delays recovery in a mouse model of colitis. *Sleep Med* 2009;10:597-603.
34. Buysse DJ, Reynolds CF 3rd, Monk TH, Berman SR, Kupfer DJ. The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index: a new instrument for psychiatric practice and research. *Psychiatry Res* 1989;28:193-213.
35. Vincent N, Lewycky S. Logging on for better sleep: RCT of the effectiveness of online treatment for insomnia. *Sleep* 2009;32:807-15.
36. Morin CM, Hauri PJ, Espie CA, Spielman AJ, Buysse DJ, Bootzin RR. Nonpharmacologic treatment of chronic insomnia. *An American Academy of Sleep Medicine review*. *Sleep* 1999;22:1134-56.
37. Morin CM, LeBlanc M, Daley M, Gregoire JP, Merette C. Epidemiology of insomnia: prevalence, self-help treatments, consultations, and determinants of help-seeking behaviors. *Sleep Med* 2006;7:123-30.
38. Morgenthaler T, Kramer M, Alessi C, et al. Practice parameters for the psychological and behavioral treatment of insomnia: an update. *An American Academy of Sleep Medicine report*. *Sleep* 2006;29:1415-9.
39. Guthrie E, Jackson J, Shaffer J, Thompson D, Tomenson B, Creed F. Psychological disorder and severity of inflammatory bowel disease predict health-related quality of life in ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2002;97:1994-9.
40. Mittermaier C, Dejaco C, Waldhoer T, et al. Impact of depressive mood on relapse in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: a prospective 18-month follow-up study. *Psychosom Med* 2004;66:79-84.
41. Kurina LM, Goldacre MJ, Yeates D, Gill LE. Depression and anxiety in people with inflammatory bowel disease. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2001;55:716-20.
42. Lin JM, Brimmer DJ, Maloney EM, Nyarko E, Belue R, Reeves WC. Further validation of the Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory in a US adult population sample. *Popul Health Metr* 2009;7:18.
43. Faure C, Giguere L. Functional gastrointestinal disorders and visceral hypersensitivity in children and adolescents suffering from Crohn's disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2008;14:1569-74.
44. Bryant RV, van Langenberg DR, Holtmann GJ, Andrews JM. Functional gastrointestinal disorders in inflammatory bowel disease: impact on quality of life and psychological status. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2011;26:916-23.
45. Piche T, Ducrotte P, Sabate JM, et al. Impact of functional bowel symptomson quality of life and fatigue in quiescent Crohn disease and irritable bowel syndrome. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 2010;22:626-e174.

46. Srinath A, Young E, Szigethy E. Pain management in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: translational approaches from bench to bedside. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2014;20:2433-49.
47. Loftus EV, Feagan BG, Colombel JF, et al. Effects of adalimumab maintenance therapy on health-related quality of life of patients with Crohn's disease: patient-reported outcomes of the CHARM trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2008;103:3132-41.
48. Valentini L, Schaper L, Buning C, et al. Malnutrition and impaired muscle strength in patients with Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis in remission. *Nutrition* 2008;24:694-702.
49. Cuoco L, Vescovo G, Castaman R, et al. Skeletal muscle wastage in Crohn's disease: a pathway shared with heart failure? *Int J Cardiol* 2008;127:219-27.
50. Zaltman C, Braulio VB, Outeiral R, Nunes T, de Castro CL. Lower extremity mobility limitation and impaired muscle function in women with ulcerative colitis. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8:529-35.
51. van Langenberg DR, Della Gatta P, Warmington SA, Kidgell DJ, Gibson PR, Russell AP. Objectively measured muscle fatigue in Crohn's disease: correlation with self-reported fatigue and associated factors for clinical application. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8:137-46.
52. Vogelaar L, van den Berg-Emons R, Bussmann H, Rozenberg R, Timman R, van der Woude CJ. Physical fitness and physical activity in fatigued and non-fatigued inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2015;50:1357-67.
53. Ogeil RP, Phillips JG. Commonly used stimulants: sleep problems, dependence and psychological distress. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2015;153:145-51.
54. Sivertsen B, Skogen JC, Jakobsen R, Hysing M. Sleep and use of alcohol and drug in adolescence. A large population-based study of Norwegian adolescents aged 16 to 19 years. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2015; 149:180-6.
55. Lai HM, Cleary M, Sitharthan T, Hunt GE. Prevalence of comorbid substance use, anxiety and mood disorders in epidemiological surveys, 1990–2014: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2015;154:1-13.
56. Jelsness-Jorgensen LP, Bernklev T, Henriksen M, Torp R, Moum BA. Chronic fatigue is associated with impaired health-related quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2011;33:106-14.
57. Jelsness-Jorgensen LP, Bernklev T, Henriksen M, Torp R, Moum BA. Chronic fatigue is more prevalent in patients with inflammatory bowel disease than in healthy controls. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2011;17: 1564-72.
58. Smets EM, Garssen B, Bonke B, De Haes JC. The Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory (MFI) psychometric qualities of an instrument to assess fatigue. *J Psychosom Res* 1995;39:315-25.
59. Czuber-Dochan W, Norton C, Bassett P, et al. Development and psychometric testing of inflammatory bowel disease fatigue (IBD-F) patient selfassessment scale. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8:1398-406.
60. Whitehead L. The measurement of fatigue in chronic illness: a systematic review of unidimensional and multidimensional fatigue measures. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2009;37:107-28.
61. Beck A, Bager P, Jensen PE, Dahlerup JF. How fatigue is experienced and handled by female outpatients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Gastroenterol Res Pract* 2013;2013:153818.
62. Cramp F, Hewlett S, Almeida C, et al. Non-pharmacological interventions for fatigue in rheumatoid arthritis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013;8:CD008322.
63. Hackett KL, Deane KH, Strassheim V, et al. A systematic review of nonpharmacological interventions for primary Sjogren's syndrome. *Rheumatology (Oxford)* 2015. doi:10.1093/rheumatology/kev22710.1093/rheumatology/kev227.
64. Timmer A, Preiss JC, Motschall E, Rucker G, Jantschek G, Moser G. Psychological interventions for treatment of inflammatory bowel disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2011;2:CD006913.
65. McCombie AM, Mulder RT, Geary RB. Psychotherapy for inflammatory bowel disease: a review and update. *J Crohns Colitis* 2013;7:935-49.
66. Knowles SR, Monshat K, Castle DJ. The efficacy and methodological challenges of psychotherapy for adults with inflammatory bowel disease: a review. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2013;19:2704-15.
67. Garcia-Vega E, Fernandez-Rodriguez C. A stress management programme for Crohn's disease. *Behav Res Ther* 2004;42:367-83.

68. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, Timman R, et al. Fatigue management in patients with IBD: a randomised controlled trial. *Gut* 2014;63:911-8.
69. Packer N, Hoffman-Goetz L. Exercise training reduces inflammatory mediators in the intestinal tract of healthy older adult mice. *Can J Aging* 2012;31:161-71.
70. Loudon CP, Corroll V, Butcher J, Rawsthorne P, Bernstein CN. The effects of physical exercise on patients with Crohn's disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999;94:697-703.
71. Wiroth JB, Filippi J, Schneider SM, et al. Muscle performance in patients with Crohn's disease in clinical remission. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2005;11:296-303.
72. Nathan I, Norton C, Czuber-Dochan W, Forbes A. Exercise in individuals with inflammatory bowel disease. *Gastroenterol Nurs* 2013;36:437-42.
73. Ng V, Millard W, Lebrun C, Howard J. Low-intensity exercise improves quality of life in patients with Crohn's disease. *Clin J Sport Med* 2007;17:384-8.
74. Packer N, Hoffman-Goetz L, Ward G. Does physical activity affect quality of life, disease symptoms and immune measures in patients with inflammatory bowel disease? A systematic review. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 2010;50:1-18.
75. Schmitz KH, Courneya KS, Matthews C, et al. American College of Sports Medicine roundtable on exercise guidelines for cancer survivors. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:1409-26.
76. Yennurajalingam S, Bruera E. Cancer-related fatigue, the role of adrenal suppression and steroids: reply to the comments of Eren et al. *Support Care Cancer* 2014;22:2601.
77. Eren OO, Ozturk MA, Oyan B. Cancer-related fatigue: can it be due to adrenal suppression secondary to high-dose steroids used as antiemetic? *Support Care Cancer* 2014;22:2599-600.
78. Schwartz AL, Thompson JA, Masood N. Interferon-induced fatigue in patients with melanoma: a pilot study of exercise and methylphenidate. *Oncol Nurs Forum* 2002;29:E85-90.
79. Moraska AR, Sood A, Dakhil SR, et al. Phase III, randomized, doubleblind, placebo-controlled study of long-acting methylphenidate for cancerrelated fatigue: North Central Cancer Treatment Group NCCTG-N05C7 trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2010;28:3673-9.
80. de la Cruz M, Hui D, Parsons HA, Bruera E. Placebo and nocebo effects in randomized double-blind clinical trials of agents for the therapy for fatigue in patients with advanced cancer. *Cancer* 2010;116:766-74.
81. Costantini A, Pala MI, Catalano ML, Notarangelo C, Careddu P. Highdose thiamine improves fatigue after stroke: a report of three cases. *J Altern Complement Med* 2014;20:683-5.
82. Lichtenstein GR, Bala M, Han C, DeWoody K, Schaible T. Infliximab improves quality of life in patients with Crohn's disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2002;8:237-43.
83. Minderhoud IM, Samsom M, Oldenburg B. Crohn's disease, fatigue, and infliximab: is there a role for cytokines in the pathogenesis of fatigue? *World J Gastroenterol* 2007;13:2089-93.
84. Vogelaar L, De Haar C, Aerts BRJ, et al. Fatigue in IBD patients is associated with distinct differences in immune parameters. *Clin Exp Gastroenterol*. 2017;10:83-90.
85. Bower JE. Cancer-related fatigue: links with inflammation in cancer patients and survivors. *Brain Behav Immun* 2007;21:863-71.
86. Bower JE, Ganz PA, Aziz N, Fahey JL. Fatigue and proinflammatory cytokine activity in breast cancer survivors. *Psychosom Med* 2002;64:604-11.
87. Bonaz BL, Bernstein CN. Brain-gut interactions in inflammatory bowel disease. *Gastroenterology* 144:36-49.
88. Bercik P, Denou E, Collins J, et al. The intestinal microbiota affect central levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and behavior in mice. *Gastroenterology* 2011;141:599-609, 609 e591-3.
89. Dantzer R. Cytokine-induced sickness behavior: mechanisms and implications. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2001;933:222-34.
90. Somasundaram R, Nuij VJ, van der Woude CJ, Kuipers EJ, Peppelenbosch MP, Fuhler GM. Peripheral neutrophil functions and cell signalling in Crohn's disease. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e84521.
91. Morris G, Berk M, Galecki P, Walder K, Maes M. The neuro-immune pathophysiology of central and peripheral fatigue in systemic immuneinflammatory and neuro-immune diseases. *Mol Neurobiol* 2016; 53(2):1195-219.





Chapter 6

Adalimumab in Crohn's disease patients:
pharmacokinetics in the first 6 months of treatment

MRKL Lie, MP Peppelenbosch, RL West, Zuzana Zelinkova, CJ van der Woude

Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2014;40(10):1202-8

Abstract

Background

Adalimumab (ADA) is an effective therapy for Crohn's disease (CD) patients. However, there is limited knowledge on the pharmacokinetic properties of ADA in CD patients.

Aims

To assess the pharmacokinetic properties of ADA in a retrospective clinical cohort of patients with CD, naïve to anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha therapy (anti-TNF).

Methods

In a single tertiary center, a clinical retrospective cohort was formed of 76 CD patients that started ADA treatment (160/80/40EOW) between July 2007 and September 2010. We serially evaluated ADA serum levels at week 0, 12 and 28.

Results

Patients were followed for a median time of 201 days (range 120-244) and received a median of 14 ADA injections (range 6-25). ADA levels, although divergent between patients, were stable between week 12 and week 28. There was no correlation between ADA level and time since last administration ($r=-0.061$). In a multivariable regression analysis of patient factors influencing week 28 ADA levels, the regression model containing CRP at week 28 and BMI at baseline weakly but significantly predicted week 28 ADA levels ($R^2=0.193$, $P=0.004$). Concomitant use of immunosuppressives was not a significant predictor ($P=0.304$).

Conclusions

Intra-individual ADA level seem very stable during the first 28 weeks of treatment, whereas inter-individual levels vary. ADA levels appear stable over a 2-week period, as the time since last ADA administration did not affect the ADA level. CRP and BMI weakly predict 28 ADA levels, whereas the use of immunosuppressives does not.

Introduction

The treatment of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) has been revolutionized by the introduction of tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α)-neutralizing medication¹⁻². Infliximab (IFX), a monoclonal chimeric antibody directed against TNF- α , is effective for both induction and maintenance therapy in patients with Crohn's disease (CD), including patients with draining perianal fistulas³⁻⁸. The development of antibodies to IFX and, as a consequence, low trough serum concentration of the drug have been implicated as predisposing factors for IFX treatment failure⁹⁻¹². As such, recent studies have focused on using a combination of IFX levels and antibodies against IFX for treatment decisions, with varying results¹³. However, only limited data is available on therapeutic cut-off values in adalimumab.

Adalimumab (ADA), a recombinant human IgG1 monoclonal antibody against TNF- α is an established treatment for both IFX-naïve and IFX-exposed patients¹⁴⁻¹⁷. In one study, low trough serum concentration of ADA in CD patients was associated with increased early and late discontinuation rates, but no direct relationship between trough serum concentration and short-term efficacy of treatment was found¹⁸. However, this study was performed in patients who were intolerant or resistant to IFX therapy. Furthermore, in patients with rheumatoid arthritis, antibodies against ADA have been associated with low ADA trough serum concentration and decreased clinical response¹⁹.

The primary aim of this study was to gain further insight on the pharmacokinetics of ADA, in a consecutive series of 76 patients with CD who were naïve for anti-TNF- α . At the group level, we examined changes in ADA level over time and assessed the correlation between ADA level and time since last administration of ADA. As an exploratory objective, we aimed to model the effect of different patient factors on the ADA level.

Materials and methods

Design and patients

A retrospective clinical cohort of 76 consecutive CD patients naïve to anti-TNF and who were starting ADA between July 2007 till September 2010 at the Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, The Netherlands, were included. Patients with tuberculosis, chronic

hepatitis B and/or C, or patients with immunodeficiency syndromes were excluded from the study.

Patients received ADA for induction of remission, steroid dependent disease, intolerance to previous therapies, fistula, extra-intestinal manifestations and as replacement for methotrexate in women wishing to conceive a child. All patients received a loading dose of 160mg and 80mg subcutaneously (sc) at week 0 and 2 respectively, followed by a maintenance dose of 40mg sc every other week thereafter. At week 12 all patients had received 6 administrations.

Patients were evaluated before starting ADA (week 0) and at week 4, 12, 20 and 28 after starting ADA. At each visit, the date of the most recent ADA administration was recorded, for calculation of the time since last ADA administration (i.e. the number of days between the ADA administration and the visit to the outpatient clinic).

ADA serum level measurements were performed at week 0, 12 and 28, by ELISA from peripheral blood, as described earlier²⁰. Briefly, assay plates were coated with TNF- α and blocked with bovine serum albumin to prevent non-specific binding of ADA to the assay plates. Next, the plates were incubated with serum from peripheral blood. To determine the absolute levels, a standard curve of ADA concentrations was used. After washing the serum samples, the bound ADA was detected using an antibody-peroxidase conjugate directed against the Fc-part of IgG1, followed by an enzymatic color reaction. The assay was tested and validated using serum samples from patients receiving ADA and those who were naïve to these drugs. The detection threshold was 0.100 μ g/mL ADA.

Statistics

For the statistical analysis the SPSS 21.0 software package was used. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Medians with the range were calculated for continuous data and percentages were calculated for categorical data.

Apart from missing data, no adjustment for confounders was performed. Categorical data in unrelated groups were compared by the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test, categorical data in related groups were analyzed by McNemar's test. The Mann-Whitney test was used to compare continuous data. For paired test, the paired sample t-test was utilized. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess the correlation of continuous

variables. For all these results, one or two-sided (as appropriate) P-values <0.05 were considered significant.

In the analysis of patient factors on ADA level, first the type of the distribution of the ADA level was determined using Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test (K-S test) and quartile-quartile plots (Q-Q plots). If ADA levels were found to be normally distributed, a linear regression model would be created and if the ADA level was found to be non-normally distributed, a logistic regression model would be created. After determination of the type of distribution, predictors were tested in univariable models. Additionally, a multivariable model was constructed, using the predictors with a P value of <0.20 in the univariable models, using stepwise backward elimination (probability of F to remove >0.10).

As for missing data, in case of missing CRP values at week 28, the values from respectively week 20 were carried forward. If these values were also missing, the case was excluded from the analyses involving CRP. Subjects with missing BMI values were excluded from analyses involving BMI.

Missing ADA levels were excluded from the ADA level analyses. If the time since last ADA administration was unknown, those ADA levels were excluded from the correlation analysis between time since last ADA administration and ADA level.

Ethical considerations

The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board and ethics committee of the Erasmus Medical Centre. All study procedures were conducted in accordance to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Results

Patient characteristics

Between November 2007 and September 2010, 76 anti-TNF naïve patients were started on ADA treatment (see Table 6.1 for patient details). Median follow up was 201 days (range 120-244 days) and patients received a median of 14 injections (range 6-25 injections) during follow-up.

Reasons for starting ADA therapy (Table 6.2) included active luminal CD, maintaining a steroid induced remission, step-up therapy due to intolerance or inefficacy of immunosuppressive therapy, fistulas, extra-intestinal manifestations or other reasons.

Table 6.1 Patient characteristics at baseline.

| Number of patients | 76 |
|--|------------|
| Male | 33 (44.4) |
| Female | 43 (56.6) |
| Mean age at diagnosis(years, range) | 27 (11-74) |
| Mean age at start of adalimumab therapy (years, range) | 39 (18-81) |
| Mean disease duration at start of therapy (years, range) | 12 (0-49) |
| Montreal localization, n (%) | |
| L1 Ileitis | 19 (25.0) |
| L2 Colitis | 26 (34.2) |
| L3 Ileocolitis | 31 (40.8) |
| Montreal disease behavior, n (%) | |
| B1 Non stricturing, non penetrating | 42 (55.3) |
| B2 Stricturing | 18 (23.7) |
| B3 Penetrating | 16 (21.1) |
| Perianal involvement, n (%) | 23 (30.3) |
| Current smokers, n (%) | 20 (26.3) |
| Active fistulas, n (%) | 8 (10.5) |
| Concomitant medication n (%) | |
| Corticosteroids | 47 (61.8) |
| Immunosuppressives ^a | 31 (40.8) |
| BMI kg/m ² , mean (SEM) ^b | 24.1 (0.6) |
| CRP mg/L, mean (SEM) ^b | 8.8 (1.9) |
| CDAI mean (SEM) ^b | 161 (13.5) |

BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein; CDAI, Crohn's disease activity index. a: azathioprine, tioguanine or methotrexate. b=limited data, for BMI, n=60, for CRP, n=74, for CDAI, n=54.

Table 6.2 Reason for initiating adalimumab therapy.

| Reason | Number (%) |
|--|------------|
| Disease flare | 49 (64.5) |
| Steroid dependent disease | 12 (15.8) |
| Intolerance to previous therapy | 5 (6.6) |
| Fistulas | 4 (5.2) |
| Extra-intestinal manifestations ^a | 4 (5.2) |
| Wish to conceive child ^b | 2 (2.6) |

a=arthralgia (n=3), pyoderma gangrenosum (n=1); b=used methotrexate prior to switch to adalimumab

Availability of data

Of the 76 patients included in the cohort, CRP values were available for 74 patients (with 17 data points carried forward). For ADA levels, data was available for 62, 65 and 57 patients at week 0, 12 and 28 respectively.

ADA levels over time start of therapy

Mean ADA serum concentrations were $9.5\mu\text{g/mL}$ (range 0.2-32.3) and $9.3\mu\text{g/mL}$ (range 0.2-24.4) at weeks 12 and 28 respectively (Figure 6.1, panel A), showing substantial inter-patient variance. At $-0.47\mu\text{g/mL}$ (range -7.9-8.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), the mean change in ADA level also showed a large inter-patient variance (Figure 6.1, panel B). There was no significant difference in the ADA level of week 12 compared with 28 ($P=0.266$).

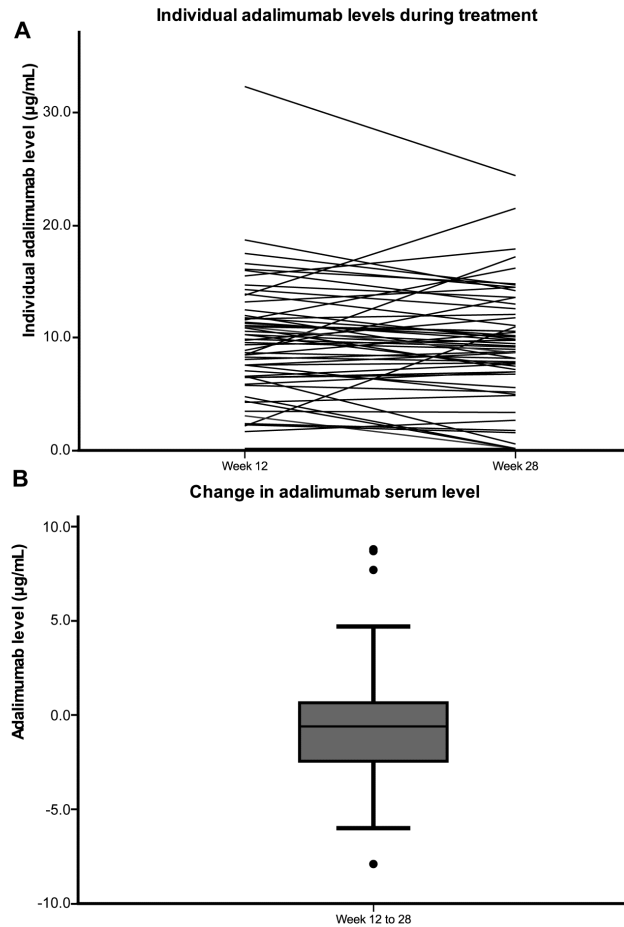


Figure 6.1 Panel A, adalimumab serum levels per individual, at week 12 and 28. Panel B, Tukey boxplot of change in individual adalimumab serum level from week 12 to 28. Error bars: 1.5 IQR (interquartile range).

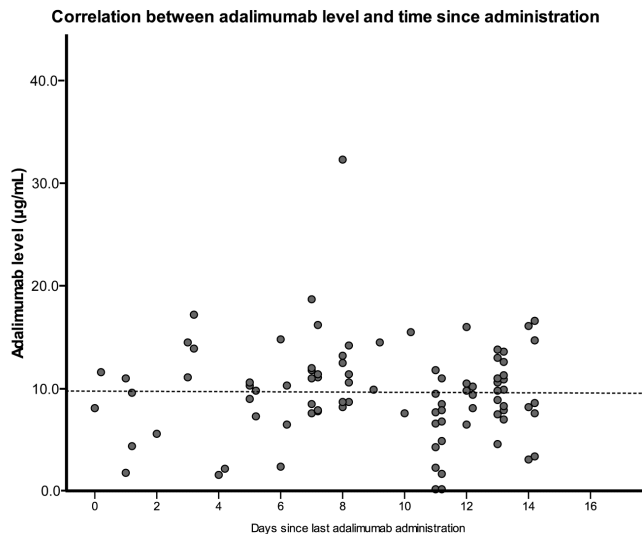


Figure 6.2 Adalimumab serum level and time since last adalimumab administration, (week 12 and week 28 results combined, N=92). The dotted line represents the linear correlation between the serum adalimumab level and the time since the last adalimumab administration (Pearson $r=-0.016$).

ADA levels and time since last ADA administration

In this clinical cohort, not all outpatient visits could be planned on the day before administration (i.e. 14 days since the last administration, essentially the “trough level day”). As such, we assessed the relation between the ADA level and the interval since the last administration. Figure 6.2 shows that there appears to be no correlation between ADA level and the time since last administration ($r=-0.016$).

Patient factors influencing ADA level at week 28

The ADA level at week 12 and 28 all had a normal distribution as shown by K-S test ($P>0.200$ and >0.200 respectively) and Q-Q plots. As such, a linear regression model was created to assess the influence of patient factors on the ADA level at week 28. The following patient variables were examined: age at baseline, BMI at baseline, CRP at week 28, gender, smoking behavior and use of concomitant immunosuppressive therapy at week 28 (Table 6.3). In the univariable analysis, age at baseline ($P=0.016$, adjusted $R^2=0.085$) and BMI ($P=0.005$, adjusted $R^2=0.147$, Figure 6.3) significantly predicted the ADA level at week 28. Of the other variables, only CRP at week 28 ($P=0.113$) reached the $P<0.20$ threshold for entry in the multivariable analysis. In the

multivariable analysis, both age at baseline and CRP at week 28 were no longer significant ($P=0.304$ and $P=0.069$, respectively). However, CRP remained in the model, as it did not reach the $P>0.10$ criterion for backward stepwise removal. As such, the final model contained BMI and CRP at week 28 as variables, though the model only weakly predicted the week 28 ADA level (full model, $P=0.004$, adjusted $R^2=0.193$).

Table 6.3 Results of univariable and multivariable analysis of patient factors influencing ADA level at week 28.

| Variable | Univariable | | Multivariable | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------------|---------|
| | Beta | P-value | Beta | P-value |
| Age at baseline | -0.319 | 0.016 | -0.154 | 0.304 |
| BMI | -0.408 | 0.005 | -0.407 | 0.004 |
| CRP at week 28 (or carried forward) | -0.212 | 0.113 | -0.250 | 0.069 |
| Gender | 0.000 | 0.998 | | |
| Immunosuppressive therapy at week 28 | 0.137 | 0.344 | | |
| Smoking behaviour | -0.156 | 0.247 | | |

Beta values are standardized. BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein.

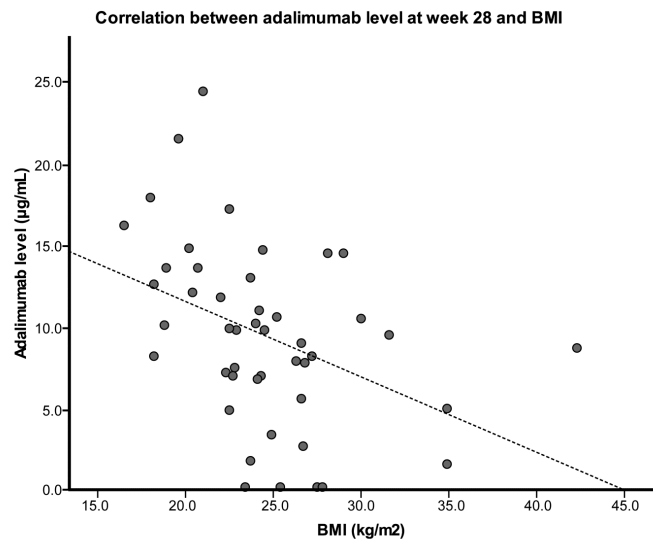


Figure 6.3 Adalimumab serum level after 28 weeks and BMI (N=46). The dotted line represents the linear correlation between the adalimumab serum level and the BMI (Pearson, $r=-0.408$).

Discussion

Our data shows intra-patient ADA levels are relatively stable, whereas inter-patient differences are substantial. Additionally, no correlation between ADA levels and the

time since last ADA administration was found. In our exploratory analysis of patient factors influencing ADA levels, a multivariable regression model containing CRP at week 28 and BMI at baseline weakly but significantly predicted week 28 ADA levels. We had initially hypothesized that specific patient-level factors would cause the majority of the variability in ADA levels. However, in the multivariable analysis only BMI and CRP significantly influenced the ADA level, accounting for just 19.3% of variability. As such, other unmeasured patient factors might play more important roles, such as the metabolism of immunoglobulins, which shows high inter-individual variability²⁵.

Our finding of stable ADA levels between week 12 and 28 is difficult to place into perspective using existing literature. The large CLASSIC-I, CLASSIC-II and CHARM¹⁴⁻¹⁶ did not measure adalimumab serum levels, and other studies are of a cross-sectional design²¹⁻²⁴. Karmiris et al.¹⁸ find lower ADA trough levels than we do, but their study involves patients with previous exposure to infliximab. In another study with patients previously exposed to infliximab, Sandborn et al.¹⁷ find levels similar to ours, but only measured these levels at week 4.

We found no relation between the ADA levels and the time since last ADA administration. Weisman et al.²⁶ performed a phase-1 pharmacokinetic study of ADA in rheumatoid arthritis patients. They show that the mean ADA half-life lies between 15 and 19 days after a single intravenous administration. Additionally, the same study shows that after 5 months of intravenous ADA treatment the mean half-life increases to 21 days. This is similar to data from original studies on gamma globulin metabolism, that report a mean a mean half-life of 23 days in healthy individuals²⁵. Thus our findings of stable ADA serum levels, even 14 days after the last administration, could reflect this lengthened ADA half-life in our patients in the maintenance phase. If so, then increasing the time between ADA doses from two weeks to three weeks in these patients will probably not lead to a significant reduction of the ADA level, but should reduce the medication costs per patient. The clinical effects of lengthening the ADA dosing interval are unclear and could be the subject of future studies.

Our exploratory analysis on patient factors influencing ADA level showed a weak to moderate negative relationship with BMI. The relationship between BMI and ADA level was not seen in earlier studies, either because no modeling for factors influencing ADA level was performed¹⁸ or BMI was not examined as a factor²⁷. However, the relation between BMI and clinical efficacy has been examined. In the CLASSIC-II post hoc analysis²⁷, patients with a BMI greater than 29kg/m² were less often in clinical remission compared to patients with a lower BMI. Similarly, patients requiring ADA

dose escalation had a mean BMI of 25kg/m², compared to 23kg/m² in patients without dose escalation²⁸.

To our knowledge, even studies in other fields that use ADA therapy (e.g. rheumatic disease), the influence of BMI on ADA levels has never been examined²⁹⁻³³. As such, the negative correlation between BMI and ADA level requires confirmation in another study. In contrast, the use of immunosuppressive drugs had no significant influence in our model, similar to previous studies¹⁸. In univariable analysis, CRP was not a significant predictor of ADA level, whereas a weak negative correlation between CRP on ADA levels has been described previously²⁷. However, with a P-value just above the 0.05 threshold, the addition of CRP in the multivariable analysis did result in a modest improvement of the model's accuracy.

We acknowledge the limitations of this tertiary referral center cohort, which could lead to bias. However, the patient characteristics seem to be an accurate reflection of the IBD population seen in general hospitals in the Netherlands³⁴.

The clinical nature of the cohort resulted in a variable schedule of our patients, causing patients to visit the outpatient clinic at different time points within their 14-day treatment schedule. As such we were unable to perform a trough level analysis. However, we feel that we have used this variability to our advantage, resulting in our analysis of ADA levels in relation to the time since last ADA administration.

Another limitation is the small sample size of our study. A larger study population would have made our results more robust and may lead to a different result of our multivariable analysis. However, in our opinion the drawbacks of a small sample size are offset by the benefits of the longitudinal design of our study. As mentioned before, previous longitudinal studies examining ADA efficacy in CD patients did not assess ADA levels, whereas more recent studies are of a cross-sectional design, providing no insight in the variability of ADA levels during treatment. The only other longitudinal study in adult CD that we are aware of was presented as an abstract and involved 22 patients. However, the abstract does not report the exact ADA levels³⁵.

The results of our study have a limited impact on clinical practice, as clinical effects and outcomes were not investigated. However, the great inter-individual differences in ADA level that we report here, underscores the need for an individualized approach to ADA therapy.

Given recent investigations into anti-drug antibody levels, measurement of levels of antibodies against ADA in this cohort could have been highly interesting. However, no reliable techniques for antibodies to ADA level measurements were available at time the cohort was followed, and no consent was acquired for post hoc measurements.

In summary, in this clinical cohort of anti-TNF naïve CD patients we show that ADA levels are relatively stable within a patient during the first 28 weeks of treatment. However, there is substantial variation between patients. Additionally, we find that a model consisting of CRP and BMI predicts ADA levels in a small but significant manner. Finally, we find that ADA serum levels are independent of the time elapsed since the last administration, possibly up to 21 days, which warrants further investigation.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Dr Hanneke van Vuuren and Buddy Roovers for their assistance with the ADA level determinations.

References

1. Papadakis KA, Targan SR. Tumor necrosis factor: biology and therapeutic inhibitors. *Gastroenterology* 2000;119:1148-57.
2. Van Deventer SJ. Tumour necrosis factor and Crohn's disease. *Gut* 1997;40:443-8.
3. Targan SR, Hanauer SB, van Deventer SJ, et al. A short-term study of chimeric monoclonal antibody cA2 to tumor necrosis factor alpha for Crohn's disease. Crohn's Disease cA2 Study Group. *N Engl J Med* 1997;337:1029-35.
4. Hanauer SB, Feagan BG, Lichtenstein GR, et al. Maintenance infliximab for Crohn's disease: the ACCENT I randomised trial. *Lancet* 2002;359:1541-9.
5. Sands BE, Anderson FH, Bernstein CN, et al. Infliximab maintenance therapy for fistulizing Crohn's disease. *N Engl J Med* 2004;26:876-85.
6. Present DH, Rutgeerts P, Targan S, et al. Infliximab for the treatment of fistulas in patients with Crohn's disease. *N Engl J Med* 1999;6:1398-405.
7. Rutgeerts P, D'Haens G, Targan S, et al. Efficacy and safety of retreatment with anti-tumor necrosis factor antibody (infliximab) to maintain remission in Crohn's disease. *Gastroenterology* 1999;117:761-9.
8. Dewint P, Hansen BE, Verhey E, et al. Adalimumab combined with ciprofloxacin is superior to adalimumab monotherapy in perianal fistula closure in Crohn's disease: a randomised double-blind placebo controlled trial (ADAFI). *Gut*. 2014;63(2):292-9.
9. Baert F, Noman M, Vermeire S, et al. Influence of immunogenicity on the long-term efficacy of infliximab in Crohn's disease. *N Engl J Med* 2003;348:601-8.
10. Farrell RJ, Alsahli M, Jeen YT, et al. Intravenous hydrocortisone premedication reduces antibodies to infliximab in Crohn's disease: a randomized controlled trial. *Gastroenterology* 2003;124:917-24.
11. Hanauer SB, Wagner CL, Bala M, et al. Incidence and importance of antibody responses to infliximab after maintenance or episodic treatment in Crohn's disease. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2004;2:542-53.
12. Cheifetz A, Smedley M, Martin S, et al. The incidence and management of infusion reactions to infliximab: a large center experience. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2003;98:1315-24.
13. Steenholdt C, Bendtzen K, Brynskov J, et al. Cut-off levels and diagnostic accuracy of infliximab trough levels and anti-infliximab antibodies in Crohn's disease. *Scand J Gastroenterol*. 2011;46:310-8.
14. Hanauer SB, Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, et al. Human anti-tumor necrosis factor monoclonal antibody (adalimumab) in Crohn's disease: the CLASSIC-I trial. *Gastroenterology* 2006;130:323-33.
15. Sandborn WJ, Hanauer SB, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance treatment of Crohn's disease: results of the CLASSIC II trial. *Gut*. 2007;56:1232-9.
16. Colombel JF, Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance of clinical response and remission in patients with Crohn's disease: the CHARM trial. *Gastroenterology* 2007;132:52-6.
17. Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, Enns R et al. Adalimumab induction therapy for Crohn disease previously treated with infliximab: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med* 2007;146:829-38.
18. Karmiris K, Paintoud G, Noman M, et al. Influence of trough serum levels and immunogenicity on long-term outcome of adalimumab therapy in Crohn's disease. *Gastroenterology* 2009;137:1628-40.
19. Bartelds GM, Wijbrandts CA, Nurmohamed MT, et al. Clinical response to adalimumab: relationship to anti-adalimumab antibodies and serum adalimumab concentrations in rheumatoid arthritis. *Ann Rheum Dis* 2007;66:921-6.
20. Zelinkova Z, De Haar C, De Ridder L, et al. High intra-uterine exposure to infliximab following maternal anti-TNF treatment during pregnancy. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2011;33:1053-8.
21. Mazor Y, Kopylov U, Ben Hur D, et al. Evaluating Adalimumab Drug and Antibody Levels as Predictors of Clinical and Laboratory Response in Crohn's Disease Patients. *Gastroenterology* 2013;144(5):S778.
22. Roblin X, Marotte H, Rinaudo M, et al. Association Between Pharmacokinetics of Adalimumab and Mucosal Healing in Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Diseases. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2014;12(1):80-4.

23. Imaeda H, Takahashi K, Fujimoto T, et al. Clinical utility of newly developed immunoassays for serum concentrations of adalimumab and anti-adalimumab antibodies in patients with Crohn's disease. *J Gastroenterol* 2014;49(1):100-109
24. Velayos F, Sheibani S, Lockton S, et al. Prevalence of Antibodies to Adalimumab (ATA) and Correlation between Ata and Low Serum Drug Concentrations on CRP and Clinical Symptoms in a Prospective Sample of IBD Patients. *Gastroenterology* 2013;144(5):S91
25. Cohen S, Freeman T. Metabolic Heterogeneity of Human gamma-Globulin. *Biochem J* 1960;76:475-87.
26. Weisman MH, Moreland LW, Furst DE, et al. Efficacy, Pharmacokinetic, and Safety Assessment of Adalimumab, a Fully Human Anti-Tumor Necrosis Factor-Alpha Monoclonal Antibody, in Adults with Rheumatoid Arthritis Receiving Concomitant Methotrexate: A Pilot Study. *Clin Ther* 2003;25(6):1700-21
27. Chiu YL, Rubin DT, Vermeire S, et al. Serum adalimumab concentration and clinical remission in patients with Crohn's Disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2013; 19(6):1112-22.
28. Bultman E, de Haar C, van Liere-Baron A, et al. Predictors of dose escalation of adalimumab in a prospective cohort of Crohn's disease patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2012 (3593) 335-41.
29. Chen DY, Chen YM, Tsai WC, et al. Significant associations of antidrug antibody levels with serum drug trough levels and therapeutic response of adalimumab and etanercept treatment in rheumatoid arthritis. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2015;74(3):e16.
30. Imagawa T, Takei S, Umebayashi H, et al. Efficacy, pharmacokinetics, and safety of adalimumab in pediatric patients with juvenile idiopathic arthritis in Japan. *Clin Rheumatol*. 2012;31(12):1713-21.
31. Kobayashi S, Harigai M, Mozaffarian N, et al. A multicenter, open-label, efficacy, pharmacokinetic, and safety study of adalimumab in Japanese patients with ankylosing spondylitis. *Mod Rheumatol*. 2012; 22(4):589-97.
32. Bartelds GM, Krieckaert CL, Nurmohamed MT, et al. Development of antidrug antibodies against adalimumab and association with disease activity and treatment failure during long-term follow-up. *JAMA*. 2011;305(14):1460-8.
33. Arends S, Brouwer E, van der Veer E, et al. Baseline predictors of response and discontinuation of tumor necrosis factor-alpha blocking therapy in ankylosing spondylitis: a prospective longitudinal observational cohort study. *Arthritis Res Ther*. 2011;13(3):R94.
34. Nuij VJ, Zelinkova Z, Rijk MC, et al, for the Dutch Delta IBD Group. Phenotype of inflammatory bowel disease at diagnosis in the Netherlands: a population-based inception cohort study (the Delta Cohort). *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2013 Sep;19(10):2215-22.
35. Bodini G, Savarino V, Fazio V, et al. Relationship between drug serum concentration and clinical activity in patients with Crohn's disease who achieved remission with adalimumab. *Dig Liver Dis* 2012;44: S69-70.



The page features an abstract design with thick, wavy, layered lines in shades of green and blue, resembling torn paper or watercolor strokes, framing the top and bottom of the page.

Chapter 7

Sex is associated with adalimumab side effects and
drug survival in patients with Crohn's disease

MRKL Lie, JE Kreijne, CJ van der Woude

Inflamm Bowel Dis 2017;23(1):75-81

Abstract

Background

Adalimumab (ADA) is an effective treatment for Crohn's disease (CD). In rheumatology, sex differences concerning the response to ADA therapy have been described. However, such differences have not yet been reported for CD patients. As such, the aim of this study was to compare ADA treatment outcomes in male and female CD patients.

Methods

A clinical cohort was formed of consecutive CD patients starting ADA in a single tertiary center between March 2006 and February 2011. The cohort was followed up to August 2015. Clinical outcomes were primary non response, secondary non response and drug survival (ongoing ADA use). Reasons for stopping ADA were recorded. Kaplan-Meier analysis and Cox regression were used to assess drug survival.

Results

The cohort consisted of 107 female and 81 male patients. Median follow-up was 6.0 years (range 0.3-9.2). Drug survival was higher in male than female patients (48.1% vs 30.8%, $P=0.016$). Side-effects were reported more often by female patients (81.3% vs. 64.2%, $P=0.008$) and female patients ceased ADA more often due to side-effects (35.4% vs. 18.4%, $P=0.017$). In survival analysis, female sex was associated with higher cessation rates ($P=0.006$). Cox regression also identified female sex ($P=0.020$), along with higher baseline CD activity index ($P=0.003$), as predictors of ADA cessation.

Conclusions

Female sex is negatively associated with ADA drug survival. Female patients report more side-effects and cease ADA due to side effects more often. A more personalized and sex-specific approach seems warranted in order to increase drug survival in female patients.

Introduction

The treatment of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), with its relapsing and remitting nature, has benefitted greatly from the introduction of antibodies against tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α)^{1,2}. Adalimumab (ADA) is a recombinant human IgG1 monoclonal antibody against TNF- α and is an established treatment for both anti-TNF-naïve and exposed patients³⁻⁶. When offered the choice, a substantial proportion of the patients with Crohn's disease (CD) prefer subcutaneously administered anti-TNF, such as adalimumab, over intravenous anti-TNF⁷.

The now widespread use of anti-TNF agents has shifted the bulk of IBD healthcare costs from hospitalization and surgery to anti-TNF agents, with ADA making up 33.9% of all costs in CD patients⁸. Thus, it appears that ADA is commonly prescribed to CD patients, regardless of the sex of the patient.

However, it has previously been shown that the sex of the patient can have profound influences on drug metabolism and efficacy. For instance, in cardiovascular disease, the commonly used beta-blocker metoprolol has significantly higher drug concentrations in women than in men⁹. These differences are likely caused by sex specific differences in body composition (e.g. proportion of body fat) and drug metabolism (e.g. cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzyme activity). Though a biological agent such as ADA is not metabolized by CYP enzymes, sex-specific differences have been seen with biological drugs in other fields of medicine. Specifically, on a pharmacokinetic level several oncological biological agents such as bevacizumab, cetuximab and rituximab are cleared at different speeds between men and women¹⁰. Though the clinical implication of these pharmacokinetic differences are unclear, these differences again probably result from differences in body composition¹¹.

Of greater clinical relevance are observations in rheumatology, where female sex was found to be a significant negative predictor for longer ADA drug survival (i.e. the continued use of ADA). Particularly, lower drug survival was seen in women compared to men with arthritic psoriasis¹² and rheumatoid arthritis¹³. As such, the aim of this study was to investigate drug survival of ADA and possible other sex differences in a cohort of 188 CD patients.

Materials and methods

Design and patients

A prospective clinical cohort was formed, consisting of 188 consecutive CD patients that started ADA between March 2006 and February 2011 at the Erasmus University Medical Center Rotterdam, The Netherlands. Patients with evidence of tuberculosis, chronic hepatitis B and/or C, or patients with immunodeficiency syndromes did not start ADA and thus were not part of the cohort.

Of all patients in the cohort, the following parameters were documented: sex, age at diagnosis, age at start of ADA, Montreal disease classification, smoking behavior, body mass index (BMI), previous CD related medical history (i.e. CD related surgical history, previous CD related drug therapies) and ADA start and stop date.

Where available, clinical disease activity via the Crohn's disease activity index (CDAI) at start of ADA therapy, C-reactive protein (CRP) at start of therapy and ADA serum levels after 12 weeks of treatment were recorded. ADA serum levels were measured with ELISA, as described previously¹⁴. Patient reported side-effects were also recorded.

All patients received a loading dose of 160mg and 80mg subcutaneously (sc) at week 0 and 2 respectively, followed by a maintenance dose of 40mg sc every other week thereafter. ADA dose escalation occurred at the decision of the treating physician.

Patients were evaluated at the outpatient clinic at start of ADA therapy and at least every 4 months thereafter. In cases where ADA therapy was ceased, further follow-up and treatment at the outpatient clinic occurred according to treatment guidelines. CD related therapies initiated during and after ADA therapy were also recorded. Data was recorded up to the last outpatient visit preceding 01 August 2015.

The primary outcomes of interest was the ADA drug survival rate. Other outcomes of interest were sex specific differences in drug survival and adverse events. Drug survival was evaluated by determining maintained clinical response, primary non-response and secondary non-response. Primary non-response was defined as cessation of ADA therapy within 6 months due to lack of clinical improvement. Secondary non-response was defined as cessation of ADA therapy after at least 6 months of treatment (and thus, after an initial response), due to subsequent loss of response. Maintained response was defined as continued ADA therapy up to the end of follow-up. ADA cessation due to

other reasons, such as side-effects, was registered separately. Other outcomes of interest were the occurrence and outcome of dose escalation, reasons for stopping ADA and adverse events to ADA.

Statistics

For all of the statistical analysis the SPSS 21.0 software package was used. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Medians with range or means with standard deviations (SD) were calculated for continuous data as appropriate, and percentages were calculated for categorical data.

Variables were log-transformed as necessary and normality was assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test. Categorical data was compared via the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test. The Mann-Whitney test was used to compare continuous data. For all tests, one or two-sided (as appropriate) P-values <0.05 were considered significant.

Ongoing ADA therapy was assessed using Kaplan-Meier analysis, with additional log-rank analyses to compare survival curves. Univariable Cox proportional hazard models were employed to assess associations between ongoing ADA therapy and patient factors. The assumption of proportional hazards was assessed visually, using a log(-log(survival)) versus log of survival graph. Additionally, a multivariable Cox proportional hazard model was constructed, using the predictors with a P value of <0.20 in the univariable models, using stepwise backward elimination (probability of F to remove >0.10). To address potential sex-specific effects, interactions between sex and significantly different baseline characteristics were also assessed in this model. The number of predictors entered in the multivariable model were limited to the number of events divided by 10.

Ethical considerations

The study was approved by the institutional review board and ethics committee of the Erasmus MC, University Medical Centre Rotterdam.

Access to Study Data

All authors had access to the study data and had reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

Results

Availability of data

Of the 188 patients included in this study, BMI values were missing in 4 patients, baseline CRP values in 24 patients, ADA serum levels in 58 patients and baseline CDAI values in 63 patients.

Patient characteristics

Between March 2006 and February 2011, 188 CD patients were started on ADA treatment (see Table 7.1 for patient details). Median follow up was 6.0 years (range 0.3-9.2 years). The total cohort consisted of 81 male and 107 female patients. At baseline, several sex differences were observed. Firstly, more peri-anal involvement was seen in male patients (48.1% vs. 33.6%, χ^2 P=0.044), whereas higher median CDAI values were found in females (174 vs. 154, Mann-Whitney-U P=0.036), with a trend for higher median CRP values in females as well (4.0mg/L vs. 3.0mg/L, Mann-Whitney-U P=0.079). When examining previous drug exposure, a significantly larger proportion of female patients had received either no treatment or only 5-ASA prior to start of ADA (13.1% vs. 1.2%, Fisher's exact test P=0.003), whereas a trend was seen for more prior immunosuppressive use in males (45.7% vs. 31.8%, χ^2 P=0.052).

Reasons for starting ADA therapy (Table 7.2) included active luminal CD, maintaining a steroid induced remission, step-up therapy due to intolerance or inefficacy of immunosuppressive therapy, fistulas, extra-intestinal manifestations and other reasons. Steroid intolerance was significantly more often a starting reason for males than females (9.9% vs. 1.9%, Fisher's exact test P=0.021).

Clinical outcomes to ADA therapy

Figure 7.1 displays the clinical outcomes to ADA therapy in this cohort, divided by male and female patients. In the first 6 months of treatment 31 patients stopped ADA therapy, with a significantly greater proportion of female patients than male patients stopping ADAA (21.5% vs. 9.9%, χ^2 P=0.034). Reasons for stopping were primary non-response in 13 patients, side effects in 15 patients and other reasons in 3 patients (1x chemotherapy for testis carcinoma; 2x physician decision due to ongoing systemic infection). There were no statistically significant sex differences concerning the reason for stopping ADA in the first 6 months of treatment. Finally, 2 patients were lost to follow-up within the first 6 months of treatment.

Table 7.1 Patient characteristics at baseline.

| | Complete cohort | Males | Females | P† |
|---|------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Number of patients | 188 | 81 | 107 | |
| Median age at diagnosis (yr, range) | 24 (5-74) | 24 (10-74) | 23 (5-63) | 0.931 |
| Median age at ADA start (yr, range) | 36 (18-81) | 36 (18-81) | 36 (18-66) | 0.201 |
| Median disease duration at ADA start (yr, range) | 9 (0-49) | 10 (1-44) | 8 (0-49) | 0.532 |
| Montreal localization, n (%) | | | | |
| L1 | 44 (23.4) | 22 (27.2) | 22 (20.6) | 0.290 |
| L2 | 53 (28.2) | 30 (28.40) | 30 (28.0) | 0.957 |
| L3 | 91 (48.4) | 36 (44.4) | 55 (51.4) | 0.345 |
| Montreal disease behavior, n (%) | | | | |
| B1 | 104 (55.3) | 43 (53.1) | 61 (57.0) | 0.592 |
| B2 | 46 (24.5) | 20 (24.7) | 26 (24.3) | 0.951 |
| B3 | 38 (20.2) | 18 (22.2) | 20 (18.7) | 0.551 |
| Perianal involvement, n (%) | 75 (39.9) | 39 (48.1) | 36 (33.6) | 0.044 |
| Current smokers, n (%) | 45 (23.9) | 20 (24.7) | 25 (23.4) | 0.833 |
| Drug use prior to ADA, n (%) | | | | |
| None, 5-ASA and/or steroids | 15 (8.0) | 1 (1.2) | 14 (13.1) | 0.003 |
| 5-ASA, steroids and immunosuppressives | 71 (37.8) | 37 (45.7) | 34 (31.8) | 0.052 |
| 5-ASA, steroids, immunosuppressives and biologicals | 102 (54.3) | 43 (53.1) | 59 (55.1) | 0.780 |
| Concomitant therapy, n (%) | | | | |
| Corticosteroids | 84 (44.7) | 39 (48.1) | 45 (42.1) | 0.405 |
| Immunosuppressives* | 74 (39.4) | 36 (44.4) | 38 (35.5) | 0.215 |
| Previous intestinal surgery, n (%) | 73 (38.8) | 31 (38.3) | 42 (39.3) | 0.891 |
| BMI kg/m ² , median (range) | 23.5 (15.8-43.3) | 23.3 (16.6-34.9) | 24.1 (15.8-43.3) | 0.172 |
| CRP mg/L, median (range) | 3.0 (1-99) | 3.0 (1-89) | 4.0 (1-99) | 0.079 |
| CDAI, median (range) | 168 (10-689) | 154 (12-298) | 174 (10-689) | 0.036 |

BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein; CDAI, Crohn's disease activity index. *: azathioprine, tioguanine or methotrexate; †: P-value for comparison between male and female patients.

Table 7.2 Reasons for initiating adalimumab therapy.

| | Total cohort (N=188) | Male (N=81) | Female (N=107) | P‡ |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|
| Reason for initiating adalimumab | Number (%) | Number (%) | Number (%) | |
| Disease flare | 141 (75.0) | 58 (71.6) | 83 (77.6) | 0.350 |
| Intolerance to previous therapy | 20 (10.6) | 7 (8.6) | 13 (12.1) | 0.440 |
| Steroid dependent disease | 10 (5.3) | 8 (9.9) | 2 (1.9) | 0.021 |
| Patient wish* | 8 (4.3) | 5 (6.2) | 3 (2.8) | 0.294 |
| Fistula | 6 (3.2) | 2 (2.5) | 4 (3.7) | 0.701 |
| Wish to conceive child† | 3 (1.6) | 1 (1.2) | 2 (1.9) | 0.999 |

*: patients in remission with infliximab who chose to switch to adalimumab; †: females in remission with methotrexate; ‡: P-value for comparison between male and female patients.

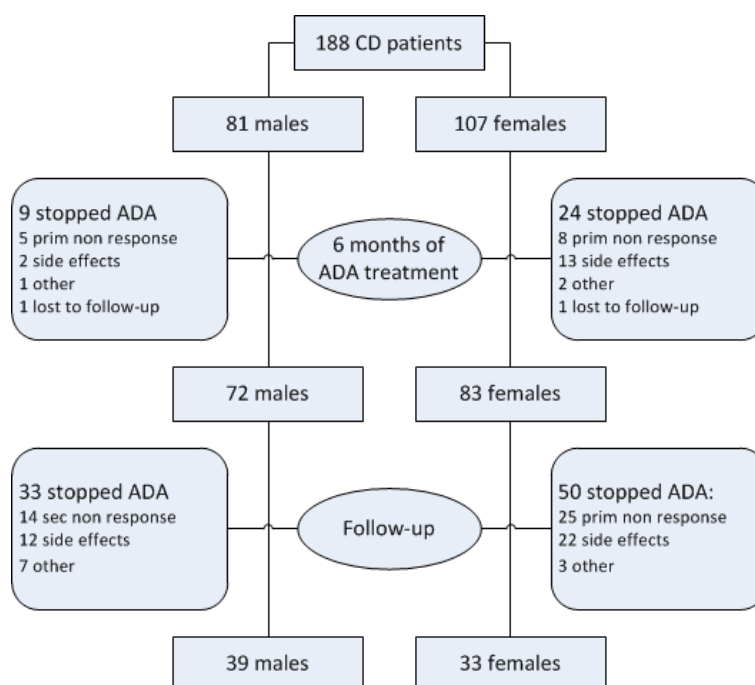


Figure 7.1 Flowchart depicting outcomes in the cohort, divided by male and female patients.

The remaining 72 male and 83 female patients achieved an initial clinical response. During follow-up, 83 patients of the initial responders stopped ADA therapy. A trend for the proportional difference in female and male patients stopping ADA was seen (60.2% vs 45.8%, χ^2 $P=0.073$). Reasons for stopping were secondary non-response in 39 patients, intolerance in 32 patients and other reasons in 12 patients (5x patient decision, 4x malignancy, 2x pregnancy, 1x suspected malignancy). No statistically significant sex differences in the reason for stopping ADA were observed amongst the patients with an initial response. At the end of follow-up, 39 male and 33 female patients still had a clinical response, which translates into a significantly greater maintained clinical response rate in male than female patients (48.1% vs. 30.8%, χ^2 $P=0.016$).

Similarly, in Kaplan-Meier analysis a difference was seen in male and female ADA continuation rates (Figure 7.2, log-rank $P=0.006$). Additionally, in univariable and multivariable Cox proportional hazard models (Table 7.3), male sex (beta=0.591, hazard ratio = 1.807, $P=0.020$) predicted longer ADA treatment duration. A lower CDAI at start

($\beta=0.003$, hazard ratio=1.003, $P=0.003$) was also predictive of longer ADA treatment duration. Previous anti-TNF exposure and steroid use at start of ADA therapy were removed from the multivariable model during the backward stepwise elimination. Of note, no interactions were seen between CDAI and sex or between peri-anal involvement and sex, despite the baseline sex differences in these two variables.

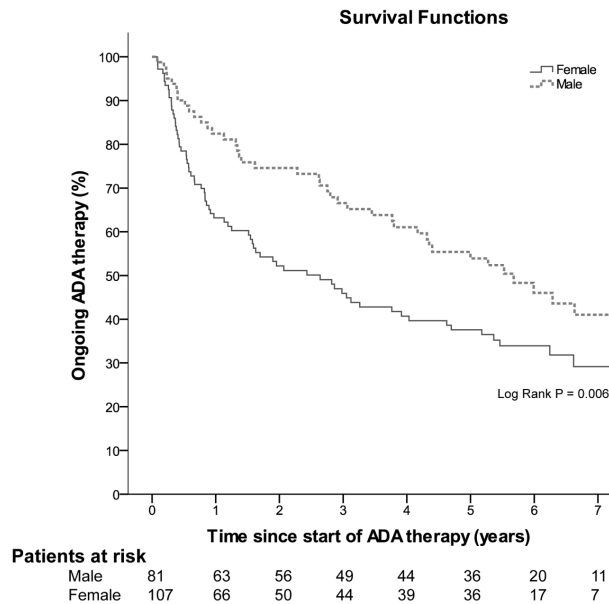


Figure 7.2 Kaplan-Meier survival curve, displaying ongoing adalimumab treatment in males and females, over 7 years. The difference between ongoing treatment in males and females is significant (log-rank $P=0.006$).

Table 7.3 Univariable and multivariable Cox proportional hazard regression model.

| Variable | Univariable | | Multivariable | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------------|---------|--------------|
| | Beta | P-value | Beta | P-value | Hazard ratio |
| Gender | .533 | .007 | .591 | .020 | 1.807 |
| BMI* | -.004 | .827 | | | |
| Age at baseline | -.009 | .231 | | | |
| Active smoker | -.039 | .853 | | | |
| CRP at start* | .005 | .412 | | | |
| CDAI at start* | .004 | <.001 | .003 | .003 | 1.003 |
| Previous anti-TNF exposure | -.316 | .101 | | | |
| Presence of peri-anal disease | -.045 | .817 | | | |
| Steroid use at start | .073 | .189 | | | |
| Immunomodulator use at start | -.014 | .944 | | | |
| Week 12 adalimumab serum level * | .019 | .381 | | | |

anti-TNF = anti tumor necrosis factor; BMI = body mass index; CDAI = Crohn's disease activity index; CRP = C-reactive protein. *: missing data for BMI (4), CRP (24), ADA level (58) and CDAI (63).

ADA dose escalation

In total, 106 patients (56.4%) in the cohort had at least one episode of ADA dose escalation, including patients with escalation after ADA re-treatment. In total, 140 ADA dose escalations occurred in these 106 patients. The proportion of female and male patients receiving dose escalation was not significantly different (57.0% vs. 44.4%, χ^2 $P=0.842$). The median ADA treatment duration prior to escalation was 13 months (range 1-95 months), with a median escalation duration of 7 months (range 1-105 months). Dose escalation led to recapture of response in 99 of 140 escalations (70.7%), with a significantly greater success percentage in male than female patients (83.7% vs. 60.7%, χ^2 $P=0.011$).

Side-effects

The majority of patients reported side effects to ADA. Only 50 patients (26.6%) did not report any side-effects. In total, 254 adverse events were reported by 138 patients (Supplementary Table S7.1). Most commonly reported were injection site skin reactions such as erythema, bullae or hematomas (30), followed by respiratory tract infections (27), arthralgia (24) and generalized skin rash (23). Hair loss (16), fatigue (14), skin infection (14), nausea (13), dry skin (13) and headache (11) were also reported frequently.

Side-effects were more often reported in females than males (81.3% vs 64.2% respectively, χ^2 $P=0.008$). Additionally the median amount of reported side-effects was greater in females than males (2 vs. 1, Mann-Whitney-U $P<0.001$). During the whole follow-up period, female patients stopped ADA more often due to side-effects than male patients (35.4% vs. 18.4%, χ^2 $P=0.017$), whereas no significant differences were seen regarding stopping due to non-response or other reasons.

Regarding laboratory values, though mild liver enzyme abnormalities were seen in 123 patients, either these disturbances did not persist (69x), were present prior to ADA therapy (42x), or were clearly not caused by ADA (12x; e.g. due to thiopurine use, symptomatic cholelithiasis or post-surgery).

Discussion

In this clinical Crohn's disease cohort, we studied possible sex differences in the outcome to adalimumab treatment. At baseline, several differences already exist, chief

amongst them a difference in prior therapies. Additionally, we observe several sex differences concerning response, primarily a greater proportion of treatment in male than female patients, of 48.1% and 30.8% respectively. Survival analysis in this cohort also underscores the effect of sex on ongoing ADA treatment, along with baseline disease activity. Furthermore, we find that female patients report more side-effects and also cease ADA treatment more often due to side-effects than male patients.

As this study was a prospective cohort, several baseline differences exist between male and female patients. Importantly, there is a difference in therapies preceding start of ADA therapy. A significantly greater proportion of female patients were not treated with immunosuppressive drugs prior to the start of ADA. Though the reasons for not starting an immunosuppressive agent are unknown, possible explanations are a patient's fear of side-effects and the preference of the treating physician for top-down anti-TNF treatment.

To our knowledge, our observed sex difference concerning response to ADA therapy has not been previously described in CD patients, though it is in line with studies performed in rheumatology patients. One study in patients with psoriatic arthritis found that female sex was the strongest predictor of anti-TNF interruption in long-term anti-TNF treatment¹¹. Similarly, a meta-analysis concerning patients with rheumatoid arthritis also reported that female sex predicts higher anti-TNF drug discontinuation rates¹². In our study, the sex difference concerning response appears to be caused by differences in side-effects. In our whole cohort, 25.0% of the whole cohort stopped ADA due to side-effects, which is similar to previous studies¹⁵⁻¹⁷. However unlike the aforementioned studies, we find that the distribution of patients stopping due to side-effects is skewed toward female patients. However, a similar sex difference was seen in a study in 1009 IBD patients, of which 344 used anti-TNF (and 99 used ADA). In the whole anti-TNF subgroup, adverse reactions were seen more often in females than males, and females stopped anti-TNF treatment more often due to adverse reactions than males, but no statistically significant difference was seen within the subgroup of 77 patients using ADA¹⁸.

A possible explanation for the sex differences in side-effects may lie in sex specific physiological differences. On average, women have a smaller organ size and a higher proportion of body fat than men. Additionally, in pre-menopausal women, the menstrual cycle results in fluctuations in the percentage of tissue-water. These physiological differences result in different drug distribution volumes, and could thus lead to different responses to drug therapy¹⁹.

Additionally, modulation of CYP3A4 enzyme activity may also play a role. In general, women show higher CYP3A4 enzyme activity than men²⁰, probably due to sex related differences in sex hormone levels. However, CYP3A4 has been shown to be influenced by TNF- α ²¹, thus the use of an anti-TNF agent such as ADA may influence CYP3A4 activity. Via this route, ADA may influence the metabolism of other commonly used drugs, possibly causing patients to experience side-effects to these drugs, which in turn are attributed to ADA use. These effects may be further compounded by differences in perception of pain and adverse events in male and female patients²².

Also, the clearance of ADA may differ between male and female patients. Mathematical modelling using data from ulcerative colitis patients receiving infliximab showed a 33% lower drug clearance in females than males²³. Another modelling study amongst both CD and UC patients showed approximately 50% lower drug clearance in females than males²⁴. However, it is unclear how this mathematical difference in infliximab clearance affects ADA serum levels, as previous reports did not find sex to significantly influence ADA serum level²⁵.

Furthermore, the difference in disease activity and previous at the start of ADA therapy suggests that female patients were slightly more ill at start of therapy, possibly reflecting reluctance to start anti-TNF therapy in female patients. Also, the sex difference in previous drug exposure is also suggestive of some form of bias against the prescription of immunosuppressive agents in general to female patients. However, the possibility of female patients being more ill at the start of ADA therapy does not readily explain the observed sex difference in side-effects occurring during the course of treatment.

Given the differences observed between men and women, it is conceivable that providing female patients with additional personalized information prior to the start of ADA therapy could reduce the observed sex-difference in reported adverse reactions. Specifically, providing more information concerning the possible side-effects may result in different patient expectations, which subsequently could reduce the high amount of drop-outs due to side-effects, as observed in our study.

The efficacy of ADA in our whole cohort was similar to the efficacy reported in previous studies. Our 6.9% primary non-response rate is comparable to the 9% lack of response rate reported in the open-label arm of the CLASSIC-II trial²⁶. Similarly, the 27% discontinuation rate (for reasons other than lack of response) is comparable to the findings from our cohort.

In this cohort dose escalation to 40mg every week occurred in 56.4% of patients, with some patients receiving multiple periods of dose escalation. This proportion is similar to the reported escalation rates in other studies, which vary from 13.2% to 63.4%^{27,28}. In our cohort, dose escalation was successful in 70.7% of attempts, similar to the reported success rate in other studies, which ranges from 36% to 86% in smaller studies^{27,29}, to 70 to 80%³⁰⁻³² as reported in larger studies.

Of note, we did not observe a sex difference in the need to dose escalate. This is similar to a study in 75 CD patients requiring dose escalation, though this study did find that male patients required dose escalation earlier than female patients³³.

This real-life tertiary referral cohort has several limitations. Though our cohort is certainly not the largest ADA cohort to be reported on, though our follow-up duration is relatively long. Also, the missing data at baseline may have influenced the results of the Cox analysis. Furthermore, the influence of CRP levels and CDAI scores during treatment could not be assessed, as these values were not regularly available during follow-up. Additionally, due to the tertiary nature of our hospital, the patients enrolled in this cohort may not accurately reflect clinical practice in smaller regional hospitals. Finally, we were unable to gauge the efficacy of ADA via an objective endpoint such as mucosal healing.

In summary, in this clinical cohort of CD patients treated with ADA, we reconfirm the overall efficacy of ADA for CD patients. Moreover, we show several gender differences in response to ADA therapy. Chiefly, the success rate of ADA therapy is higher in males than females, both for initial treatment, but also for dose escalation. The greater proportion of side-effects in females appears to be the major cause to the difference in drug survival. This suggests that a personalized approach to female patients starting ADA could positively influence the incidence and severity of side-effects and thus reduce the high drop-out rate seen in female patients.

References

1. Papadakis KA, Targan SR. Tumor necrosis factor: biology and therapeutic inhibitors. *Gastroenterology* 2000;119:1148-57
2. Van Deventer SJ. Tumour necrosis factor and Crohn's disease. *Gut* 1997;40:443-8.
3. Hanauer SB, Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, et al. Human anti-tumor necrosis factor monoclonal antibody (adalimumab) in Crohn's disease: the CLASSIC-I trial. *Gastroenterology* 2006;130:323-33.
4. Sandborn WJ, Hanauer SB, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance treatment of Crohn's disease: results of the CLASSIC II trial. *Gut*. 2007;56:1232-9.
5. Colombel JF, Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance of clinical response and remission in patients with Crohn's disease: the CHARM trial. *Gastroenterology* 2007;132:52-6.
6. Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, Enns R et al. Adalimumab induction therapy for Crohn disease previously treated with infliximab: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med* 2007;146:829-38.
7. Vavricka SR, Bentele N, Scharl M, et al. Systematic assessment of factors influencing preferences of Crohn's disease patients in selecting an anti-tumor necrosis factor agent (CHOOSE TNF TRIAL). *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2012;18(8):1523-30.
8. Van der Valk ME, Mangen MJ, Leenders M, et al. Healthcare costs of inflammatory bowel disease have shifted from hospitalisation and surgery towards anti-TNF-alpha therapy: results from the COIN study. *Gut* 2014;63(1):72-9.
9. Luzier AB, Killian A, Wilton JH, et al. Gender-related effects on metoprolol pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics in healthy volunteers. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1999;66:594-601.
10. Regitz-Zagrosek, editor. Sex and Gender Differences in Pharmacology. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 2012.
11. Lu JF, Bruno R, Eppler S, et al. Clinical pharmacokinetics of bevacizumab in patients with solid tumors. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 2008;62(5):779-86.
12. Iannone F, Lopriore S, Bucci R, et al. Longterm Clinical Outcomes in 420 Patients with Psoriatic Arthritis Taking Anti-tumor Necrosis Factor Drugs in Real-world Settings. *J Rheumatol* 2016;43:911-7.
13. Souto A, Maneiro JR, Gomez-Reino JJ. Rate of discontinuation and drug survival of biologic therapies in rheumatoid arthritis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of drug registries and health care databases. *Rheumatology (Oxford)*. 2016;55(3):523-34
14. Zelinkova Z, De Haar C, De Ridder L, et al. High intra-uterine exposure to infliximab following maternal anti-TNF treatment during pregnancy. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2011;33:1053-8.
15. Peters CP, Eshuis EJ, Toxopeüs FM, et al. Adalimumab for Crohn's disease: long-term sustained benefit in a population-based cohort of 438 patients. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2014;8(8):866-75.
16. Watanabe M, Hibi T, Mostafa NM, et al. Long-term safety and efficacy of adalimumab in Japanese patients with moderate to severe Crohn's disease. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2014;8(11):1407-16.
17. Chaparro M, Panes J, Garcia V, et al. Long-term durability of response to adalimumab in Crohn's disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2012;18(4):685-90.
18. Zelinkova Z, Bultman E, Vogelaar L, et al. Sex-dimorphic adverse drug reactions to immune suppressive agents in inflammatory bowel disease. *World J Gastroenterol* 2012;18(47):6967-73.
19. Meibohm B, Beierle I, Derendorf H. How important are gender differences in pharmacokinetics? *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2002;41:329-42.
20. Cotreau MM, von Moltke LL, Greenblatt DJ. The influence of age and sex on the clearance of cytochrome P450 3A substrates. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2005;44:33-60
21. Mei Q, Tang C, Assang C, et al. Role of a potent inhibitory monoclonal antibody to cytochrome P-450 3A4 in assessment of human drug metabolism. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1999;291(2):749-59.
22. Bartley EJ, Fillingim RB. Sex differences in pain: a brief review of clinical and experimental findings. *Br J Anaesth* 2013;111:52-8.
23. Fasanmade AA, Adedokun OJ, Ford J, et al. Population pharmacokinetic analysis of infliximab in patients with ulcerative colitis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2009;65(12):1211-28.
24. Ternant D, Aubourg A, Magdelaine-Beuzelin C, et al. Infliximab pharmacokinetics in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Ther Drug Monit* 2008;30(4):523-9.

25. Lie MRKL, Peppelenbosch MP, West RL, Zelinkova Z, van der Woude CJ. Adalimumab in Crohn's disease patients: pharmacokinetics in the first 6 months of treatment. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2014; 40(10):1202-8.
26. Sandborn WJ, Hanauer SB, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance treatment of Crohn's disease: results of the CLASSIC II trial. *Gut* 2007;56:1232.
27. Oussalah A, Babouri A, Chevaux J-B, et al. Adalimumab for Crohn's disease with intolerance or lost response to infliximab: a 3-year single-centre experience. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2009;29(4):416-23.
28. Ma C, Huang V, Fedorak DK, et al. Crohn's disease outpatients treated with adalimumab have an earlier secondary loss of response and requirement for dose escalation compared to infliximab: a real life cohort study. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8(11):1454-63.
29. Swaminath A, Ullman T, Rosen M, et al. Early clinical experience with adalimumab in treatment of inflammatory bowel disease with infliximab-treated and naïve patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2009; 29(3):273-8.
30. Karmiris K, Paintaud G, Noman M, et al. Influence of trough serum levels and immunogenicity on long-term outcome of adalimumab therapy in Crohn's disease. *Gastroenterology* 2009;137(5):1628-40.
31. Ma C, Huang V, Fedorak DK, et al. Adalimumab dose escalation is effective for managing secondary loss of response in Crohn's disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2014;40:1044-55.
32. Panaccione R, Loftus Jr EV, Binion D, et al. Efficacy and safety of adalimumab in Canadian patients with moderate to severe Crohn's disease: Results of the Adalimumab in Canadian SubjeCts with ModERate to Severe Crohn's DiseaSe (ACCESS) trial. *Can J Gastroenterol* 2011;25(8):419-25.
33. Cohen RD, Lewis JR, Turner H, et al. Predictors of adalimumab dose escalation in patients with Crohn's disease at a tertiary referral center. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2012;18(1):10-6.

Supplemental table

Table S7.1

| Adverse event | N (%) |
|------------------------------|--------------|
| Injection site skin reaction | 30 |
| Upper respiratory symptoms* | 27 |
| Arthralgia | 24 |
| Rash | 23 |
| Hair loss | 16 |
| Fatigue | 14 |
| Skin infection | 14 |
| Nausea | 13 |
| Dry skin | 13 |
| Headache | 11 |
| Eye symptoms† | 9 |
| Myalgia | 6 |
| Dizziness | 6 |
| Paresthesia | 5 |
| Vaginal mycosis | 4 |
| Pain extremities | 4 |
| Fever | 3 |
| Palpitations | 3 |
| Mood swings | 3 |
| Chest pain | 2 |
| Muscle cramps | 2 |
| Polyneuropathy | 2 |
| Urinary tract infection | 2 |
| Other‡ | 18 |
| Total | 254 |





Chapter 8

Patient sex does not affect endoscopic outcomes of
biologicals in patients with inflammatory bowel
disease, but is associated with adverse events

MRKL Lie, E Paulides, CJ van der Woude

International Journal of Colorectal Disease 2020, Accepted for publication

Abstract

Background

Biological therapies are currently the mainstay in the treatment of patients with inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD). There are several known factors influencing the efficacy and tolerability of biological therapies, such as CRP levels at start of therapy or previous biological use. Whether patient sex affects the efficacy or tolerability is currently unclear, yet this knowledge would be helpful for risk and benefit stratification. This study assesses the role of patient sex on the efficacy and tolerability of biological therapies used for the treatment of IBD.

Methods

A systematic literature review was performed using Embase (including Medline), Medline OvidSP, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Web of Science and Pubmed. The primary outcome was the influence of patient sex on endoscopic outcomes in IBD patients treated with biologicals. The secondary outcome was the influence of patient sex on adverse events during biological therapy. Studies examining either of the outcomes were included in the assessment, regardless of study type or setting.

Results

The search yielded 19461 citations, after review 55 studies were included in the study, involving 28465 patients treated with adalimumab, certolizumab pegol, infliximab or vedolizumab. Of the 41 studies that objectively examined patient sex and efficacy of biological therapy, none find a significant association. Of the 14 studies examining patient sex and adverse events, 7 find that adverse events such as infections or skin lesions occur more frequently in female than in male patients. No meta-analysis of the primary or secondary outcome could be performed due to lack of exact reporting of summary measures.

Conclusions

There is no evidence for a sex difference in endoscopically measured response to biological therapies in IBD patients. However, there is an influence of sex on the occurrence of adverse events.

Introduction

Due to their chronic nature the inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), consisting of Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC), usually require life-long drug therapies. The treatment paradigm seems to switch and the current approach has been changed to a more accelerated step-up management of the IBD patient. Currently a large proportion of IBD patients are treated with biologicals, with studies reporting in the range of 20-25% in Western countries¹⁻³, and the use of biologicals seems to increase³⁻⁴. This increasing use necessitates the identification of factors predictive of drug efficacy and drug survival. Previously identified factors known to affect efficacy and tolerability of biological therapies in IBD patients include previous use of another biological drug⁵, baseline C-reactive protein levels⁶ and serum drug levels⁷. A simple factor to include in the treatment strategy could be patients' sex. Sex is already implicated as an important factor in the pathogenesis of IBD⁸.

However, the current evidence on the role of patient sex on the actual response to biological therapies is conflicting. Several studies specifically report on differences in response and adverse events between male and female IBD patients treated with biologicals^{9,10} whereas other studies report no significant differences between male and female patients^{11,12}. Thus it remains unclear if a patients' sex plays a role in the efficacy or tolerability of biological therapies. This study aimed to systematically search the literature for evidence regarding the possible association of patient sex and biological therapies, concerning efficacy (measured objectively via endoscopy) and the occurrence of adverse events.

Objectives

To systematically review the literature for studies concerning established biological therapies for patients with inflammatory bowel disease, examining the possible influence of patient sex on:

- Objectively measured efficacy, defined as disease activity measured via endoscopy. Examples of this primary outcome include sigmoidoscopy, ileocolonoscopy and capsule endoscopy.
- Adverse events defined as any adverse event possibly related to biological use. Examples of this secondary outcome are infusion reactions, injection site reactions and hypersensitivity reactions.

Methods

Search strategy

A systematic database search was performed on 08 April 2019, without restrictions on language, publication year or publication status. The search was performed by librarians specialized in database searches. The search was performed in the following databases: Embase (including Medline), Medline OvidSP, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Web of Science and Pubmed. The detailed digital search strategy is provided in the digitally available appendix. Additionally, the reference lists of all potentially relevant articles were studied for further trials. Any studies found through this search also had their reference lists studied.

Review and study selection process

Titles and abstracts identified through the search strategy were assessed by two independent reviewers (ML and EP) for potential eligibility, using pre-defined criteria as described in the appendix. Disagreements were settled in consensus and, if necessary, after discussion with a third independent reviewer (CW). The manuscripts deemed potentially eligible for inclusion were obtained for full text review. The full texts were assessed by the two independent reviewers, using pre-defined eligibility criteria as described in the appendix. Discussions with the third independent reviewer were used to resolve disagreements.

Data extraction

Data from the eligible studies was extracted using a standardized form by the two primary reviewers. Differences in the extracted data were resolved through consensus or, if necessary, discussion with the third independent reviewer. For each study, the following data was extracted:

1. Study type and methods (including study duration, loss to follow-up)
2. Participants (including age, disease type, duration of treatment prior to enrolment)
3. Interventions (including drug, dosage, duration, formulation)
4. Outcomes (including definitions of the primary and secondary outcomes).

Quality assessment

The risk of bias of included studies was assessed using either the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for cohort studies¹³, or the Cochrane risk of bias assessment tool for

randomized controlled trials (RCT) and post-hoc analyses of RCTs¹⁴. The NOS ranges from 0 to 9, with 9 the best score and the lowest risk of bias. The Cochrane tool assigns low risk, unclear risk or high risk to randomization, allocation and reporting bias respectively. The assessments were performed by the two primary reviewers and in case of disagreement, consensus was found after discussion with the third reviewer.

Data synthesis and statistical analysis

Results are reported using the summary measure provided by the included studies (e.g. odds ratio (OR), hazard ratio (HR), difference in means) with the respective P-values and/or confidence intervals. If only proportions were reported, the OR was calculated.

For meta-analysis, where applicable, studies were pooled using a random-effects model, regardless of statistical heterogeneity. Heterogeneity was tested using the Chi-squared test, the I-squared test and visual inspection of forest plots. If heterogeneity was present, we attempted to investigate the cause thereof (such as methodological factors or the outcome assessment). In the case of high heterogeneity ($I^2 > 75\%$), studies were pooled only if the direction of their results was consistent. Subgroup analysis or meta-regression would be performed post-hoc, if sufficient studies were included for meta-analysis.

Results

Results of the search

The literature search performed on 08 April 2019 identified 19461 citations, of which 11049 remained after automatic removal of double entries (Figure 8.1). After reviewing title and abstracts 10771 manuscripts were considered irrelevant (e.g. did not study biological, case reports, abstract format only, in vitro study, see also Supplemental Table S8.1). This resulted in 278 potentially relevant studies. Examining the reference lists did not yield in additional potentially useful manuscripts. In total, 273 manuscripts were assessed completely for eligibility as 5 manuscripts could not be retrieved (Figure 8.1: flowchart). Of these 273 studies, 217 were excluded for various reasons. The remaining 55 studies were included in this review (Table 8.1 and 8.2)^{7,9,15-67}.

Primary outcome

In total, 41 studies were included studying the objectively measured efficacy of biologicals in 4736 patients^{7,15,17-20,24-27,29-31,36-46,48,50-59,61,63-67}. Concerning methodology, 24 studies were retrospective^{7,18,24,25,27,29,31,39,41-43,45,48,50-53,55-58,61,63,64}, 10 were prospective cohorts^{15,20,30,36-38,44,46,54,66}, 3 were post-hoc analyses of RCTs^{17,26,65}, 3 were cross-sectional^{40,59,67} and 1 study was a combination of a retrospective and prospective cohort¹⁷ (Table 8.1).

The quality of the cohort studies was fair to good, with a median NOS of 7 (range 4-8), the risk of bias for the post-hoc studies was considered unclear (Supplemental Table S8.2a and S8.2b). Regarding the post-hoc studies, the study by Bouguen et al.¹⁹ involves a RCT with low risk of bias, however the post-hoc nature increases the risk of reporting bias. Additionally this study used only a subset of the RCT population, creating an unclear risk of selection bias. The study by de Cruz et al.²⁶ involved an open label RCT, as such there is risk of allocation and performance bias, however the risk of detection bias was low as the endoscopic outcome was evaluated by blinded central readers. The post-hoc analyses by Watanabe et al.⁶⁵ was also based on an open-label RCT, therefore the study was at risk of allocation, performance and detection bias.

Studies examining one biological

Thirty studies examined only one biological^{7,15,19,20,24,26,27,29,30,37,38,40-45,50,52-54,56-59,61,63,65-67}, 9 studied adalimumab^{26,37,40,43,52,58,59,65,67}, 16 studied infliximab^{7,15,17,19,20,30,38,41,42,44,53,54,56,57,61,63} and 6 studied vedolizumab^{24,27,29,45,50,66}. The details concerning setting (e.g. retrospective, prospective), use (i.e. for induction, maintenance or post-operative prophylaxis), patients (e.g. CD or UC) and outcome measures (e.g. endoscopic remission) varied widely.

Adalimumab

There were considerable differences in study settings and methodologies in the 9 studies concerning adalimumab. 3 studies were cross-sectional^{40,59,67}, 3 were retrospective cohorts^{43,52,58}, two were post-hoc studies^{26,65} and the last study examined a prospective cohort³⁷. Nevertheless, all studies found that patient sex was not significantly associated with endoscopic outcomes, measured at variable time points (e.g. mucosal healing after 8-14 weeks⁵² or mucosal healing after one year⁶⁵).



PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram

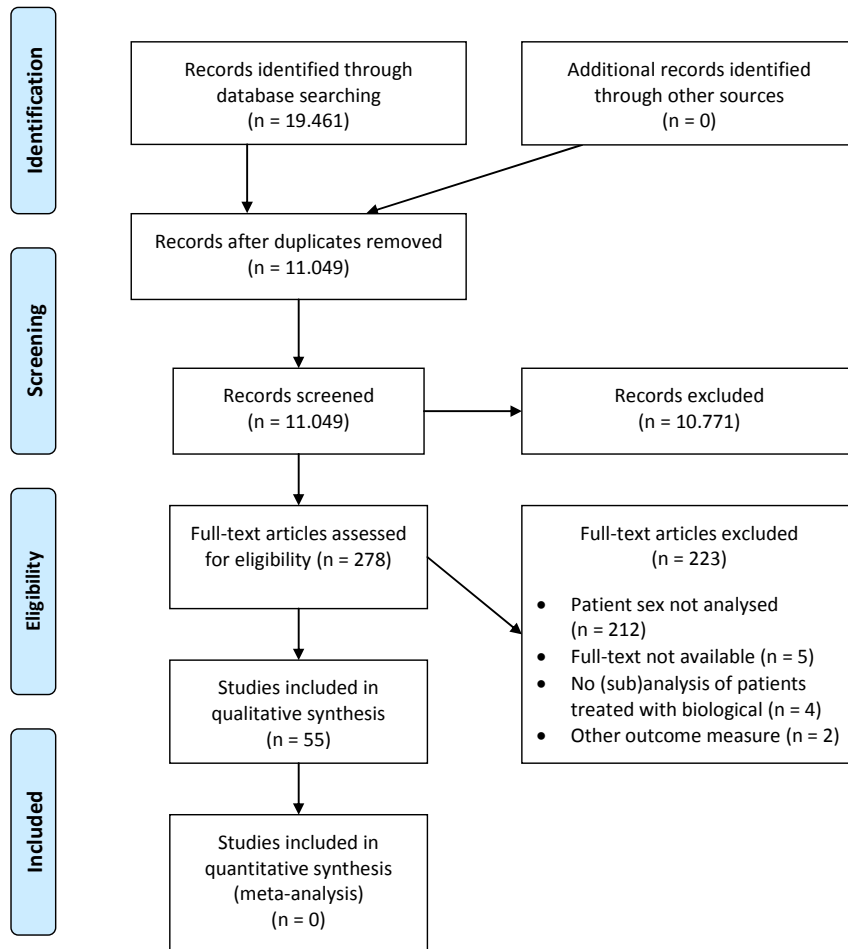


Figure 8.1 PRISMA flowchart of identification and selection of studies.

Table 8.1 Characteristics of included studies concerning patient sex and endoscopic efficacy. Grouped by biological studied.

| Biological | Study type | Patients | Author, year | Outcome, measurement time point | Patient sex associated with outcome? |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| ADA, induction of remission | Prospective | 43 CD | Hall, 2014 | CECDAI, 52 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 201 UC | Kiss, 2014 | MH, 12 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 43 UC | Papamichael, 2016 | MH, 8-14 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 77 CD | Rismo, 2012b | MH, variable time-point | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 135 CD | Watanabe, 2018 | MH, 26 and 52 weeks | Not associated |
| | Cross-sectional | 98 IBD | Juncadella, 2018 | CD: MH; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 | Not associated |
| | Cross-sectional | 40 IBD | Roblin, 2014 | CD: MH; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 | Not associated |
| | Cross-sectional | 60 CD | Zittan, 2016 | MH | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 101 CD | de Cruz, 2015 | Disease recurrence, 6 months | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 84 CD | Taxonera, 2019 | Disease recurrence, 52 weeks | Not associated |
| IFX, induction of remission | Prospective | 285 UC | Arias, 2015 | MH, 10-14 weeks | Not associated |
| | Combined† | 126 UC | Armuzzi, 2013 | MH, 12 weeks and 12 months | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 508 CD | Bouguen, 2015 | MH, 26 weeks | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 30 UC | Brandse, 2015 | Endoscopic Mayo decrease ≥ 1 , 8 weeks | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 63 UC | Farkas, 2016 | MH, 14 weeks | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 44 UC | Hassan, 2017 | MH, 12 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 42 UC | Kelly, 2016 | MH, 48 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 101 UC | Papamichael, 2016 | MH, 10-14 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 49 UC | Ribaldone, 2018 | Total Mayo decrease ≥ 3 , 6 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 49 UC | Rismo, 2012a | Endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 , 8-12 weeks | Not associated |
| IFX, maintenance of remission | Retrospective | 97 CD | Shen, 2018 | MH, 10 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 126 CD | Thomas, 2014 | Complete / near complete MH, 12-20 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 271 IBD | Kelly, 2017 | CD: SES-CD < 3 ; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 35 CD | Koga, 2018 | MH | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 110 CD | Papamichael, 2018 | MH | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 54 IBD | Paul, 2013 | MH | Not associated |

Table 8.1 (continued)

| Biological | Study type | Patients | Author, year | Outcome, measurement time point | Patient sex associated with outcome? |
|------------------------------------|---------------|----------|------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| VED, induction of remission | Retrospective | 48 CD | Crowell, 2018 | Undefined endoscopic improvement, 45 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 179 IBD | Dreesen, 2018 | CD: MH, 22 weeks; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 , 14 weeks | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 212 CD | Dulai, 2016 | MH, 6 and 12 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 222 IBD | Kotze, 2018 | CD: MH or radiographic remission, 3, 6 and 12 months; UC: endoscopic Mayo = 0, 3, 6 and 12 months; | Not associated |
| ADA, IFX, remission induction | Retrospective | 321 UC | Narula, 2018 | Endoscopic Mayo = 0, 12 months | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 82 IBD | Yacoub, 2018 | CD: MH or radiographic remission, 12 months; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 , 12 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 248 IBD | Beigel, 2017 | CD: SES-CD = 0; UC: endoscopic Mayo = 0; for both groups after median 11–25 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 48 UC | Dahlen, 2015 | Total Mayo decrease ≥ 3 , 14 weeks | Not associated |
| ADA, IFX, maintenance of remission | Prospective | 50 CD | Kuzela, 2012 | Normal mucosal appearance via capsule endoscopy, 1 year | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 107 CD | Papaconstantinou, 2017 | MH, 12–20 weeks | No associated |
| | Retrospective | 64 UC | Morita, 2017 | UCEIS 0/0/0 or 1/0/0 | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 145 IBD | Ungar, 2016 | CD: SES-CD < 3 ; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 | Not associated |
| ADA, IFX, post-operative | Retrospective | 73 CD | Fay, 2017 | Disease recurrence, after median 15 months | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 36 CD | Hiraoka, 2018 | Disease recurrence, time not specified | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 44 CD | Preda, 2016 | Disease recurrence, time not specified | Not associated |
| | Prospective | 69 IBD | Guidi, 2014 | CD: CDEIS < 3 , 1 year; UC: endoscopic Mayo ≤ 1 , 1 year | Not associated |

ADA, adalimumab; CD, Crohn's disease; CDEIS, Crohn's disease endoscopic index of severity; CECDAL, capsule endoscopy Crohn's disease activity index; CZP, certolizumab pegol; IBD, inflammatory bowel disease; IFX, infliximab; MH, mucosal healing; RCT, randomized controlled trial; SES-CD, simple endoscopic score for Crohn's disease; UC, ulcerative colitis; VED, vedolizumab; † = combined retrospective and prospective cohort.

Infliximab

Similar to the adalimumab studies, the 16 infliximab studies were varied in setting, scope and statistical methods. Of these studies, Papamichael et al.⁷ found in univariable analysis that female UC patients were significantly more likely to achieve mucosal healing, measured 10-14 weeks after start of infliximab. However, this effect was no longer statistically significant in the corrected multivariable analysis. Similarly, all other infliximab studies found no significant association between patient sex and endoscopic outcomes, regardless of the statistical method employed.

Vedolizumab

The 6 studies examining patients using vedolizumab were more homogenous than the adalimumab or infliximab studies. Five of the vedolizumab studies were retrospective^{24,27,29,45,50}, and all 6 studies examined vedolizumab as remission induction. In the only prospective study by Yacoub et al.⁶⁶, in univariable analysis female IBD patients were significantly more likely to achieve mucosal healing after one year than male IBD patients, however in the corrected multivariable analysis, the difference between male and female patients was no longer statistically significant. The other vedolizumab studies also found no significant associations between patient sex and endoscopic outcomes.

Studies examining multiple biologicals

Of the included studies involving multiple biologicals, 7 examined a population treated with adalimumab or infliximab^{15,25,31,39,46,48,51,55,64} and 1 concerned IBD patients treated with adalimumab, certolizumab or infliximab³⁶. The first group of studies were all of a retrospective nature, with varying populations of CD patients, UC patients or both, as described in Table 8.2. The study concerning adalimumab, certolizumab or infliximab examined a prospective cohort of IBD patients.

Adalimumab and infliximab

Seven studies examined patients treated with either adalimumab or infliximab. All 7 studies were retrospective, but in varied patient groups and settings. None of the studies found a relation between endoscopic outcomes and the use of adalimumab or infliximab.

Adalimumab, certolizumab pegol and infliximab

Guidi et al.³⁶ assessed a prospective cohort of IBD patients treated with adalimumab, certolizumab pegol or infliximab for remission induction. Via logistic regression, no association was found between mucosal healing after 1 year and patient sex.

Meta-analysis

Several studies employed similar outcome measures (e.g. post-operative recurrence^{31,39,55} or mucosal healing after 1 year^{29,45,66}) and were thus suitable for meta-analysis. However, no meta-analysis could be performed due to lack of reporting of exact summary measures or the exact frequencies in which the outcomes of interest occurred in male and female patients.

Secondary outcome

In total 14 studies were included, assessing 17680 patients treated with biologicals^{9,16,21-23,28,32-35,47,49,60,62}. Ten studies were retrospective^{9,21,28,33-35,47,49,60,62}, 1 was prospective¹⁶ and the remaining 3 were post-hoc analyses of RCT's^{22,23,32} (Table 8.2).

The quality of the different studies was poor, with a median NOS of 5 (range 5-8). The 3 post-hoc studies were considered of low-risk of bias, as the original RCTs were of low risk themselves and the safety analyses were pre-specified and used the whole study population (Supplemental Table S8.2a and S8.2b).

Studies examining one biological

In total, 12 studies consisted of cohorts concerning a single biological^{16,21-23,28,32-35,47,49,60}. Two studies involved adalimumab^{23,47}, 8 involved infliximab^{16,21,28,33-35,49,60} and 2 assessed vedolizumab^{22,32}. Of the adalimumab studies, 1 consisted of a cohort of CD patients⁴⁷ and the other of a cohort of IBD patients²³. For infliximab, 7 studies were retrospective cohorts^{21,28,33-35,49,60} and 1 was prospective¹⁶. The study populations consisted of CD patients in 2 studies^{21,34} and IBD patients in 6 studies^{16,33-35,49,60}. The remaining infliximab study involved mostly IBD patients but also included patients that used infliximab for rheumatologic or dermatologic diseases²⁸. The 2 vedolizumab studies were both post-hoc analyses IBD patients treated with vedolizumab.

Table 8.2 Characteristics of included studies concerning patient sex and adverse events. Grouped by biological studied.

| Biological | Study type | Patients | Author, year | Outcome | Patient sex associated with outcome? |
|------------------------------------|---------------|----------|-----------------|---|---|
| ADA, induction of remission | Retrospective | 188 CD | Lie, 2017 | Any adverse event | More often in female patients (OR 1.27) |
| | | | | Treatment withdrawal due to adverse events | More often in female patients (OR 1.93) |
| | Retrospective | 5345 IBD | Colombel, 2018 | Death (standardized mortality ratio) | Lower in male UC patients (ratio 0.38) |
| IFX, induction of remission | Prospective | 810 IBD | Armuzzi, 2019 | Serious adverse events | More often in female patients (HR 1.96) |
| | Retrospective | 743 IBD | Fidler, 2009 | Serum sickness-like disease, skin lesions | More often in female patients (OR 3.74 and OR 1.90) |
| | | | | Mortality, neoplasia, serious infections, infusion reactions, auto-immune phenomena | Not associated |
| IFX, maintenance of remission | Retrospective | 336 IBD | Mourad, 2015 | Any adverse event | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 512 CD | Colombel, 2004 | Serious infections | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 3161† | Ducharme, 2010 | Any acute adverse drug reaction within 24 hours of IFX infusion | More often in female patients (OR 1.54) |
| VED, induction of remission | Retrospective | 169 CD | Gonzales, 2017 | Infusion reactions | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 197 IBD | Greener, 2018 | Infections | Not associated |
| | Retrospective | 100 IBD | Seiderer, 2004 | Any adverse event | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 2884 IBD | Colombel, 2017 | Any serious infection | Not associated |
| | RCT post-hoc | 2243 IBD | Feagan, 2018 | Lower respiratory tract infection | More often in female patients (HR 2.11) |
| | | | | Upper respiratory tract infection | Not associated |
| ADA, IFX, remission induction | Retrospective | 149 CD | Teriaky, 2014 | Any adverse event | Not associated |
| ADA, IFX, maintenance of remission | Retrospective | 843 IBD‡ | Zelinkova, 2012 | Any adverse drug reaction | More often in female patients (OR 2.21) |
| | | | | Treatment withdrawal due to adverse events | More often in female patients (OR 2.46) |

ADA, adalimumab; CD, Crohn's disease; CZP, certolizumab pegol; HR, hazard ratio; IBD, inflammatory bowel disease; IFX, infliximab; OR, odds ratio; RCT, randomized controlled trial; UC, ulcerative colitis; VED, vedolizumab; † = of whom 1936 Crohn or ulcerative colitis. ‡ = of whom 150 used biologicals.

Adalimumab

Two studies were identified that examined patient sex and adverse events during adalimumab use. In a retrospective cohort of CD patients treated with adalimumab for remission induction, Lie et al.⁴⁷ described an increased frequency of adverse events reported by female patients compared to male patients (OR 1.27, $P<0.01$). Additionally, female patients reported adverse events as a reason for stopping adalimumab more often than male patients (OR 1.93, $P=0.02$). In a large post-hoc analysis of 16 RCTs and their open label extensions involving 5345 IBD patients, Colombel et al.²³ calculated standardized mortality ratio's and compared these to an age and sex matched control group. In this comparison, the standardized mortality ratio of male UC patients was lower compared to matched controls (ratio 0.38), but no statistically significant difference was found for female UC patients or male or female CD patients.

Infliximab

Eight studies described adverse events during infliximab use and patient sex. Three studies found significant associations, with Armuzzi et al.¹⁶ describing a prospective cohort of 810 Italian IBD patients who started treatment with the infliximab biosimilar CT-P13, both for remission induction and for maintenance of remission. In this cohort serious adverse events occurred less frequent in male IBD patients than IBD female patients (HR 0.51, CI 0.35-0.76, $P=0.001$). In a large retrospective study involving 3161 patients treated with infliximab, Ducharme et al.²⁸ examined adverse events. However, in this large cohort 55% of patients received infliximab because of IBD, but the remainder was treated with infliximab because of rheumatologic or dermatologic conditions. Nevertheless, within this heterogeneous group of diseases an acute drug reaction (i.e. and adverse event within 24 hours of the infliximab infusion) was more likely to occur in female patients than in male patients (OR 1.54, $P<0.001$). Unfortunately no sub-analysis was performed to assess if this association remains in only IBD patients. Fidler et al.³³ retrospectively compared a cohort of 743 IBD patients treated with infliximab for remission induction with 666 IBD patients without exposure to biologicals. Serum sickness-like disease occurred more frequently in female patients than in male patients (OR 3.74, $P<0.01$). Skin lesions were also reported more often in female patients than in male patients (OR 1.90, $P<0.01$). However no sex difference could be detected for mortality, neoplasia, serious infections, infusion reactions and auto-immune phenomena. The 5 other studies found no association between patient sex and adverse events during infliximab use.

Vedolizumab

Two studies examined the possible role of patient sex on the occurrence of adverse events during vedolizumab therapy. In a post-hoc analysis of the GEMINI-1, GEMINI-2 and GEMINI open-label extension trials, Feagan et al.³² examined the occurrence of respiratory tract infections in IBD patients treated with vedolizumab. They found that lower respiratory tract infections are more likely to occur in female patients than in male patients (HR 2.11, P=0.03). This effect was only seen in UC patients, not in CD patients. Furthermore, no association between patient sex and upper respiratory tract infections was found. A general analysis of safety of vedolizumab was performed by Colombel et al.²² using post-hoc analysis of data from the GEMINI-1, GEMINI-2, GEMINI-3 and GEMINI open-label extension trials. In this study, patient sex was not found to be a significant risk factor for the occurrence of serious infections. Patient sex was not studied in analyses of other types of adverse events.

Studies examining multiple biologicals

Adalimumab and infliximab

In total, 2 studies were identified that examined the role of patient sex on adverse events during the use of adalimumab or infliximab^{9,62}. One study found a significant associations between patient sex and adverse events. Zelinkova et al.⁹ examined adverse events in a retrospective cohort of 843 IBD patients. In separate analyses of 150 patients treated with adalimumab or infliximab, adverse drug reactions were found to occur significantly more frequently in female patients than in male patients (OR 2.21, P=0.01). Further sub-analyses per drug revealed similar associations, though the association in adalimumab users was not statistically significant, possibly due to low patient numbers. Of note, this study also found that female patients stopped anti-TNF treatment more often than male patients due to adverse drug reactions (OR 2.46). The other study by Teriaky et al.⁶² also examined a cohort of CD patients treated with adalimumab or infliximab, but found no association between the patient's sex and the occurrence of adverse events.

Meta-analysis

The outcomes examined in the included studies were considered too heterogeneous for meta-analysis. Additionally, similar to the studies concerning the primary outcome, the exact summary measures or the exact frequencies in which the outcomes of interest occurred in male and female patients were not reported.

Discussion

The objectives of this review were to assess the possible influence of patient sex on biological therapies, on endoscopic outcomes and adverse events. To our knowledge, this was the first systematic review investigating this research question. With regards to efficacy, none of the studies found an association between patient sex and endoscopically measured efficacy of biological therapies. As for adverse events, half of the included studies found an association between patient sex and various adverse events, with all these studies suggesting that these events occur more frequently in female patients.

The intention of this study was to perform a meta-analysis of the included studies, however several factors precluded synthesis of the data via meta-analysis. Firstly, outcome measures varied amongst studies, with the definitions of adverse events varying from 'any adverse reaction' to 'severe infections'. Secondly, the time-point at which outcomes were measured differed amongst the studies. Thirdly, the study populations were heterogeneous, with some studies examining biological naïve patients and others biological experienced patients or post-operative patients. Fourthly and most importantly, many studies simply reported that patient sex was not associated with the studied outcome, but without providing exact summary measures (e.g. odds ratio, difference in means) or the exact frequencies in which the outcome occurred in male and female patients separately. This prevented us from calculating summary measures to perform meta-analysis.

Pharmacokinetic studies in IBD patients concerning infliximab^{68,69} and vedolizumab⁷⁰ reported a sex difference, regarding clearance and distribution volume. Similarly, in adalimumab a sex difference for apparent clearance has been reported in rheumatoid arthritis patients⁷¹, but the kinetics have not yet been studied in IBD patients. Based on these preliminary studies it could be hypothesized that sex differences both in efficacy and adverse event rates could be present in IBD patients treated with biologicals.

However, we found no evidence for a sex difference in objectively measured endoscopic disease outcomes. This strongly suggests that biological therapies are effective regardless of patient sex, probably because the underlying inflammatory pathways affected by these therapies are not significantly different between female and male IBD patients. The lack of a sex difference in efficacy of biologicals is also seen in rheumatology patients^{72,73} and dermatology patients^{74,75} treated with anti-TNF agents.

Nevertheless, there have been consistent reports of a sex difference concerning decreased drug survival in female IBD treated with biologicals^{76,77}. However if the efficacy of biologicals is similar in men and women, as shown by this review, this strongly suggests that factors other than primary non-response are responsible for the decreased drug survival. In populations that are not treated with biological therapies, there is literature suggesting increased rates of adverse events in females. In a large safety analysis of 7 observational studies (none in IBD patients), female sex was associated with the increased occurrence of side effects⁷⁸. A similar result was found in a study regarding hospital admissions⁷⁹, wherein female patients were significantly more frequently admitted due to adverse drug reactions than male patients. Therefore a possible cause of decreased drug survival could be sex differences in adverse events. The results of this systematic review however are ambiguous. Though 7 studies did find that female sex is associated with adverse events during biological therapy, the other 7 included studies found no such association.

There are several limitations to this study. Concerning the primary outcome of objectively measured efficacy, the included studies varied greatly in their outcome measures. For instance, in CD patients some studies used SES-CD whilst others used CDEIS, and in UC patients some studies used the endoscopic Mayo score whilst others used UCEIS. Furthermore, even amongst studies using the same outcome measure, the definitions of response and remission could vary. Additionally, there was great variation in the timing of the endoscopic assessment across the included studies. Though this issue was identified during the review, it was decided to include all studies regardless of the heterogeneity of the outcomes. Though a more stringent set of inclusion criteria regarding endoscopic outcomes would have reduced heterogeneity, it was decided to be as inclusive as possible in order to detect a potential signal concerning sex differences. Furthermore given the lack of meta-analysable results, using more stringent criteria would not have resulted in a different conclusion.

The issue of high heterogeneity also occurs in the studies included for the adverse event analysis. Similar to the primary outcome, it was decided to use broad inclusion criteria in order to detect a potential signal concerning sex-differences in the occurrence of biological related adverse events. However, of the 7 studies that report a sex difference, in 3 studies the relation between the analysed adverse events and the drug used is debatable. Firstly, Colombel et al.²³ find a lower standardized mortality ratio in male IBD patients treated with ADA, but a direct causal relationship between ADA use and mortality seems unlikely. Similarly the adverse events analysed by Lie et al.⁴⁷ and Armuzzi et al.¹⁶ include events probably related to biological use (e.g. injection

site reactions, infusion reactions) but also events that are likely unrelated to therapy (e.g. nausea, hair loss, headache). If the analyses in these studies were performed using only adverse events probably related to biological use, the results might no longer be statistically significant. In contrast, the other 4 studies that identify a significant sex difference specifically analyse events that are possibly therapy related, such as infusion reactions, serum sickness, respiratory tract infections and allergic-type reactions.

This ambiguity is also present in patients treated with biologicals for dermatologic or rheumatologic conditions. For instance in psoriasis patients some studies reported more adverse events in female patients^{80,81} whereas other studies did not find this association⁸². Similarly the retention rates of biologicals in psoriasis patients was found to be associated with female sex in some studies^{83,84} but not in others^{85,86}. The same holds true in rheumatology patients treated with biologicals. Several studies reported an association between patient sex and adverse events⁸⁷ and drug retention rates^{88,89}, whereas other studies found no such associations⁹⁰.

In summary, this systematic review finds no evidence for differences in efficacy of biological therapies in female or male IBD patients, as judged endoscopically. Therefore the sex of the IBD patient need not be directly taken into account when considering starting biologicals or optimization of biological trough levels. The results concerning adverse events are ambiguous, with half of the studies finding an increased occurrence of adverse events in female patients treated with biological therapies, whereas the other half does not. Extra vigilance and proper counselling for treatment emergent adverse events might be warranted. Further investigations of possible sex differences in the occurrence and severity of adverse events could result in more accurate personalized medicine.

References

1. van der Valk ME, Mangen MJ, Leenders M, et al. Healthcare costs of inflammatory bowel disease have shifted from hospitalisation and surgery towards anti-TNF-alpha therapy: results from the COIN study. *Gut* 2014;63(1):72-9.
2. Targownik LE, Tennakoon A, Leung S, et al. Temporal Trends in Initiation of Therapy With Tumor Necrosis Factor Antagonists for Patients With Inflammatory Bowel Disease: A Population-based Analysis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(7):1061-70.e1.
3. Bähler C, Vavricka SR, Schoepfer AM, Brüngger B, Reich O. Trends in prevalence, mortality, health care utilization and health care costs of Swiss IBD patients: a claims data based study of the years 2010, 2012 and 2014. *BMC Gastroenterol* 2017;17(1):138.
4. Jeuring SF, van den Heuvel TR, Liu LY, et al. Improvements in the Long-Term Outcome of Crohn's Disease Over the Past Two Decades and the Relation to Changes in Medical Management: Results from the Population-Based IBDL Cohort. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2017;112(2):325-36.
5. Taxonera C, Iglesias E, Muñoz F, et al. Adalimumab Maintenance Treatment in Ulcerative Colitis: Outcomes by Prior Anti-TNF Use and Efficacy of Dose Escalation. *Dig Dis Sci* 2017;62(2):481-90.
6. Narula N, Kainz S, Petritsch W, et al. The efficacy and safety of either infliximab or adalimumab in 362 patients with anti-TNF- α naïve Crohn's disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2016;44(2):170-80.
7. Papamichael K, Van Stappen T, Vande Castele N, et al. Infliximab Concentration Thresholds During Induction Therapy Are Associated With Short-term Mucosal Healing in Patients With Ulcerative Colitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016;14(4):543-9.
8. Shah SC, Khalili H, Gower-Rousseau C, et al. Sex-Based Differences in Incidence of Inflammatory Bowel Diseases-Pooled Analysis of Population-Based Studies From Western Countries. *Gastroenterology* 2018; 155(4):1079-89.e3.
9. Zelinkova Z, Bultman E, Vogelaar L, et al. Sex-dimorphic adverse drug reactions to immune suppressive agents in inflammatory bowel disease. *World J Gastroenterol* 2012;18(47):6967-73.
10. Cohen RD, Lewis JR, Turner H, et al. Predictors of adalimumab dose escalation in patients with Crohn's disease at a tertiary referral center. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2012;18(1):10-6.
11. McDermott E, Murphy S, Keegan D, et al. Efficacy of Adalimumab as a long term maintenance therapy in ulcerative colitis. *J Crohns Colitis* 2013;7(2):150-3.
12. Nichita C, Stelle M, Vavricka S, et al. Clinical experience with adalimumab in a multicenter Swiss cohort of patients with Crohn's disease. *Digestion* 2010;81(2):78-85.
13. Wells G, Shea B, O'Connell D, Peterson J, Welch V, Losos M, Tugwell P. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of nonrandomised studies in meta-analyses. URL: http://www.ohri.ca/programs/clinical_epidemiology/oxford.htm [cited 2019 Oct 23].
14. Sterne JAC, Savovic J, Page MJ, et al. RoB 2: a revised tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. *BMJ* 2019;366:l4898.
15. Arias MT, Vande Castele N, Vermeire S, et al. A panel to predict long-term outcome of infliximab therapy for patients with ulcerative colitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2015;13(3):531-8.
16. Armuzzi A, Fiorino G, Variola A, et al. The PROSIt cohort of infliximab biosimilar in IBD: A prolonged follow-up on the effectiveness and safety across Italy. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2019;25(3):568-79.
17. Armuzzi A, Pugliese D, Danese S, et al. Infliximab in steroid-dependent ulcerative colitis: Effectiveness and predictors of clinical and endoscopic remission. *Inflammatory Bowel Dis* 2013;19(5):1065-72.
18. Beigel F, Deml M, Schnitzler F, et al. Rate and predictors of mucosal healing in patients with inflammatory bowel disease treated with anti-TNF-Alpha antibodies. *PLoS One* 2014;9(6).
19. Bouguen G, Sninsky C, Tang KL, et al. Change in erythrocyte mean corpuscular volume during combination therapy with azathioprine and infliximab is associated with mucosal healing: A post hoc analysis from SONIC. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2015;21(3):606-14.
20. Brandse JF, Van Den Brink GR, Wildenberg ME, et al. Loss of infliximab into feces is associated with lack of response to therapy in patients with severe ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;149(2): 350-5.e2.

21. Colombel JF, Loftus Jr EV, et al. The Safety Profile of Infliximab in Patients with Crohn's Disease: The Mayo Clinic Experience in 500 Patients. *Gastroenterology* 2004;126(1 SUPPL. 1):19-31.
22. Colombel JF, Sands BE, Rutgeerts P, et al. The safety of vedolizumab for ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease. *Gut* 2017;66(5):839-51.
23. Colombel JF, Sandborn WJ, Reinisch W, et al. Long-term safety of adalimumab in clinical trials in adult patients with Crohn's disease or ulcerative colitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2018;47(2):219-28.
24. Crowell KT, Tinsley A, Williams ED, et al. Vedolizumab as a rescue therapy for patients with medically refractory Crohn's disease. *Colorectal Dis* 2018;20(10):905-12.
25. Dahlen R, Magnusson MK, Bajor A, et al. Global mucosal and serum cytokine profile in patients with ulcerative colitis undergoing anti-TNF therapy. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2015;50(9):1118-26.
26. De Cruz P, Kamm MA, Hamilton AL, A, et al. Efficacy of thiopurines and adalimumab in preventing Crohn's disease recurrence in high-risk patients - A POCER study analysis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2015;42(7):867-79.
27. Dreesen E, Verstockt B, Bian S, et al. Evidence to Support Monitoring of Vedolizumab Trough Concentrations in Patients With Inflammatory Bowel Diseases. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018;16(12):1937-46.e8.
28. Ducharme J, Pelletier C, Zacharias R. The safety of infliximab infusions in the community setting. *Can J Gastroenterol* 2010;24(5):307-11.
29. Dulai PS, Singh S, Jiang X, et al. The real-world effectiveness and safety of vedolizumab for moderate-severe Crohn's disease: Results from the US VICTORY consortium. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2016;111(8):1147-55.
30. Farkas K, Rutka M, Golovics PA, et al. Efficacy of infliximab biosimilar CT-P13 induction therapy on mucosal healing in ulcerative colitis. *J Crohn's Colitis* 2016;10(11):1273-8.
31. Fay S, Ungar B, Paul S, et al. The Association between Drug Levels and Endoscopic Recurrence in Postoperative Patients with Crohn's Disease Treated with Tumor Necrosis Factor Inhibitors. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2017;23(11):1924-9.
32. Feagan BG, Bhayat F, Khalid M, Blake A, Travis SPL. Respiratory tract infections in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: Safety analyses from vedolizumab clinical trials. *J Crohns Colitis* 2018;12(8):905-19.
33. Fidder H, Schnitzler F, Ferrante M, et al. Long-term safety of infliximab for the treatment of inflammatory bowel disease: A single-centre cohort study. *Gut* 2009;58(4):501-8.
34. Gonzalez-Lama Y, Román ALS, Marín-Jimenez I, et al. Open-label infliximab therapy in Crohn's disease: A long-term multicenter study of efficacy, safety and predictors of response. *Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2008;31(7):421-6.
35. Greener T, Kabakchiev B, Steinhart AH, Silverberg MS. Higher Infliximab Levels Are Not Associated with an Increase in Adverse Events in Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *Inflammatory Bowel Dis* 2018;24(9):1808-14.
36. Guidi L, Marzo M, Andrisani G, et al. Faecal calprotectin assay after induction with anti-Tumour Necrosis Factor α agents in inflammatory bowel disease: Prediction of clinical response and mucosal healing at one year. *Dig Liver Dis* 2014;46(11):974-9.
37. Hall B, Holleran G, Chin JL, et al. A prospective 52 week mucosal healing assessment of small bowel Crohn's disease as detected by capsule endoscopy. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014;8(12):1601-9.
38. Hassan EA, Ramadan HR, Ismael AA, et al. Noninvasive biomarkers as surrogate predictors of clinical and endoscopic remission after infliximab induction in patients with refractory ulcerative colitis. *Saudi J Gastroenterol* 2017;23(4):238-45.
39. Hiraoka S, Takashima S, Kondo Y, et al. Efficacy of restarting anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha agents after surgery in patients with Crohn's disease. *Intestinal Res* 2018;16(1):75-82.
40. Juncadella A, Papamichael K, Vaughn BP, Cheifetz AS. Maintenance Adalimumab Concentrations Are Associated with Biochemical, Endoscopic, and Histologic Remission in Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *Dig Dis Sci* 2018;63(11):3067-73.
41. Kelly OB, Rosenberg M, Tyler, et al. Infliximab to treat refractory inflammation after pelvic pouch surgery for ulcerative colitis. *J Crohns Colitis* 2016;10(4):410-7.

42. Kelly OB, O'Donnell S, Stempak JM, Steinhart AH, Silverberg MS. Therapeutic Drug Monitoring to Guide Infliximab Dose Adjustment is Associated with Better Endoscopic Outcomes than Clinical Decision Making Alone in Active Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2017;23(7):1202-9.
43. Kiss LS, Szamosi T, Molnar T, et al. Early clinical remission and normalisation of CRP are the strongest predictors of efficacy, mucosal healing and dose escalation during the first year of adalimumab therapy in Crohn's disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2011;34(8):911-22.
44. Koga A, Matsui T, Takatsu N, et al. Trough level of infliximab is useful for assessing mucosal healing in Crohn's disease: a prospective cohort study. *Intestinal Res* 2018;16(2):223-32.
45. Kotze PG, Ma C, Almutairdi A, et al. Real-world clinical, endoscopic and radiographic efficacy of vedolizumab for the treatment of inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2018;48(6):626-37.
46. Kuzela L, Oltman M, Sutka J, et al. Prospective evaluation of mucosal changes in the small bowel by capsule endoscopy in patients with crohn's disease treated with infliximab and adalimumab. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2012;1(10):274-9.
47. Lie MRKL, Kreijne JE, Van Der Woude CJ. Sex is associated with adalimumab side effects and drug survival in patients with Crohn's disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2017;23(1):75-81.
48. Morita Y, Bamba S, Takahashi K, et al. Prediction of clinical and endoscopic responses to anti-tumor necrosis factor- α antibodies in ulcerative colitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2016;51(8):934-41.
49. Mourad AA, Boktor MN, Yilmaz-Demirdag Y, Bahna SL. Adverse reactions to infliximab and the outcome of desensitization. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* 2015;115(2):143-6.
50. Narula N, Peerani F, Meserve J, et al. Vedolizumab for Ulcerative Colitis: Treatment Outcomes from the VICTORY Consortium. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2018;113(9):1345-54.
51. Papaconstantinou I, Kapizioni C, Legaki E, et al. Association of miR-146 rs2910164, miR-196a rs11614913, miR-221 rs113054794 and miR-224 rs188519172 polymorphisms with anti-TNF treatment response in a Greek population with Crohn's disease. *World J Gastrointest Pharmacol Ther* 2017;8(4):193-200.
52. Papamichael K, Baert F, Tops S, et al. Post-induction adalimumab concentration is associated with short-term mucosal healing in patients with ulcerative colitis. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(1):53-9.
53. Papamichael K, Rakowsky S, Rivera C, Cheifetz AS, Osterman MT. Association between serum infliximab trough concentrations during maintenance therapy and biochemical, endoscopic, and histologic remission in Crohn's disease. *Inflammatory Bowel Dis* 2018;24(10):2266-71.
54. Paul S, Del Tedesco E, Marotte H, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring of infliximab and mucosal healing in inflammatory bowel disease: A prospective study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2013;19(12):2568-76.
55. Preda CM, Fulger LE, Negreanu L, et al. Adalimumab versus infliximab in treating post-operative recurrence of crohn's disease: A national cohort study. *Rev Esp Enferm Dig* 2016;108(10):642-7.
56. Ribaldone DG, Dileo I, Pellicano R, et al. Severe ulcerative colitis: predictors of response and algorithm proposal for rescue therapy. *Ir J Med Sci* 2018;187(2):385-92.
57. Rismo R, Olsen T, Cui G, et al. Mucosal cytokine gene expression profiles as biomarkers of response to infliximab in ulcerative colitis. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2012;47(5):538-47.
58. Rismo R, Olsen T, Ciu G, et al. The effect of adalimumab for induction of endoscopic healing and normalization of mucosal cytokine gene expression in Crohn's disease. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2012;47(10):1200-10.
59. Roblin X, Marotte H, Rinaudo M, et al. Association between pharmacokinetics of adalimumab and mucosal healing in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2014;12(1):80-4.e2.
60. Seiderer J, Göke B, Ochsenkühn T. Safety aspects of infliximab in inflammatory bowel disease patients: A retrospective cohort study in 100 patients of a German University Hospital. *Digestion* 2004;70(1):3-9.
61. Shen W, Cao L, Li Y, et al. Visceral Fat Is Associated With Mucosal Healing of Infliximab Treatment in Crohn's Disease. *Dis Colon Rectum* 2018;61(6):706-12.
62. Teriaky A, Gregor J, Yan B, et al. The safety and efficacy of adalimumab in patients with Crohn's disease: The experience of a single Canadian tertiary care centre. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2014;49(3):280-6.

63. Thomas D, Gazouli M, Karantanos T, et al. Association of rs1568885, rs1813443 and rs4411591 polymorphisms with anti-TNF medication response in Greek patients with Crohn's disease. *World J Gastroenterol* 2014;20(13):3609-14.
64. Ungar B, Levy I, Yavne Y, et al. Optimizing Anti-TNF- α Therapy: Serum Levels of Infliximab and Adalimumab Are Associated With Mucosal Healing in Patients With Inflammatory Bowel Diseases. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016;14(4):550-7.e2.
65. Watanabe K, Matsumoto T, Hisamatsu T, et al. Clinical and Pharmacokinetic Factors Associated With Adalimumab-Induced Mucosal Healing in Patients With Crohn's Disease. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018;16(4):542-9.e1.
66. Yacoub W, Williet N, Pouillon L, et al. Early vedolizumab trough levels predict mucosal healing in inflammatory bowel disease: a multicentre prospective observational study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2018;47(7):906-12.
67. Zittan E, Kabakchiev B, Milgrom R, et al. Higher adalimumab drug levels are associated with mucosal healing in patients with Crohn's disease. *J Crohns Colitis* 2016;10(5):510-5.
68. Fasanmade AA, Adedokun OJ, Ford J, et al. Population pharmacokinetic analysis of infliximab in patients with ulcerative colitis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2009;65(12):1211-28.
69. Ternant D, Aubourg A, Magdelaine-Beuzelin C, et al. Infliximab pharmacokinetics in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Ther Drug Monit* 2008;30(4):523-9.
70. Rosario M, Dirks NL, Milch C, et al. A Review of the Clinical Pharmacokinetics, Pharmacodynamics, and Immunogenicity of Vedolizumab. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2017;56(11):1287-1301.
71. Ternant D, Ducourau E, Fuzibet P, et al. Pharmacokinetics and concentration-effect relationship of adalimumab in rheumatoid arthritis. *J Clin Pharmacol* 2015;79(2):286-97.
72. Maini R, St Clair EW, Breedveld F, et al. Infliximab (chimeric anti-tumour necrosis factor alpha monoclonal antibody) versus placebo in rheumatoid arthritis patients receiving concomitant methotrexate: a randomised phase III trial. ATTRACT Study Group. *Lancet* 1999;354(9194):1932-9.
73. Weinblatt ME, Keystone EC, Furst DE, et al. Adalimumab, a fully human anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha monoclonal antibody, for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis in patients taking concomitant methotrexate: the ARMADA trial. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2003 Jan;48(1):35-45. Erratum in: *Arthritis Rheum* 2003;48(3):855.
74. Gottlieb AB, Evans R, Li S, et al. Infliximab induction therapy for patients with severe plaque-type psoriasis: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2004;51(4):534-42.
75. Saurat JH, Stingl G, Dubertret L, et al. Efficacy and safety results from the randomized controlled comparative study of adalimumab vs. methotrexate vs. placebo in patients with psoriasis (CHAMPION). *Br J Dermatol* 2008;158(3):558-66.
76. Cosnes J, Sokol H, Bourrier A, et al. Adalimumab or infliximab as monotherapy, or in combination with an immunomodulator, in the treatment of Crohn's disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2016;44(10):1102-13.
77. Tanaka H, Kamata N, Yamada A, et al. Long-term retention of adalimumab treatment and associated prognostic factors for 1189 patients with Crohn's disease. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018;33(5):1031-8.
78. Colombo D, Zagni E, Nica M, et al. Gender differences in the adverse events' profile registered in seven observational studies of a wide gender-medicine (MetaGeM) project: the MetaGeM safety analysis. *Drug Des Devel Ther* 2016;10:2917-27.
79. Pirmohamed M, James S, Meakin S, et al. Adverse drug reactions as cause of admission to hospital: prospective analysis of 18 820 patients. *BMJ* 2004;329(7456):15-9.
80. van der Schoot LS, van den Reek JMPA, Groenewoud JMM, et al. Female patients are less satisfied with biological treatment for psoriasis and experience more side-effects than male patients: results from the prospective BioCAPTURE registry. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol* 2019;33(10):1913-20.
81. van den Reek JM, Tummers M, Zweegers J, et al. Predictors of adalimumab drug survival in psoriasis differ by reason for discontinuation: long-term results from the Bio-CAPTURE registry. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol* 2015;29(3):560-5.
82. Kalb RE, Fiorentino DF, Lebwohl MG, et al. Risk of Serious Infection With Biologic and Systemic Treatment of Psoriasis: Results From the Psoriasis Longitudinal Assessment and Registry (PSOLAR). *JAMA Dermatol* 2015;151(9):961-9.

83. Iskandar IYK, Warren RB, Lunt M, et al. Differential Drug Survival of Second-Line Biologic Therapies in Patients with Psoriasis: Observational Cohort Study from the British Association of Dermatologists Biologic Interventions Register (BADBIR). *J Invest Dermatol* 2018;138(4):775-84.
84. Pogacsas L, Borsi A, Takacs P, et al. Long-term drug survival and predictor analysis of the whole psoriatic patient population on biological therapy in Hungary. *J Dermatolog Treat* 2017;28(7):635-41.
85. Svedbom A, Ståhle M. Real-world comparative effectiveness of adalimumab, etanercept and methotrexate: a Swedish register analysis. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2020;34(3):525-32.
86. Mahlich J, Alba A, Hadad LE, Leisten MK, Peitsch WK. Drug Survival of Biological Therapies for Psoriasis Treatment in Germany and Associated Costs: A Retrospective Claims Database Analysis. *Adv Ther* 2019; 36(7):1684-1699.
87. Atzeni F, Sarzi-Puttini P, Sebastiani M, et al. Rate of serious infections in spondyloarthropathy patients treated with anti-tumour necrosis factor drugs: a survey from the Italian registry GISEA. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 2019;37(4):649-55.
88. Iannone F, Salaffi F, Fornaro M, et al. Influence of baseline modified Rheumatic Disease Comorbidity Index (mRDCI) on drug survival and effectiveness of biological treatment in patients affected with Rheumatoid arthritis, Spondyloarthritis and Psoriatic arthritis in real-world settings. *Eur J Clin Invest* 2018;48(11):e13013.
89. Flouri ID, Markatseli TE, Boki KA, et al. Comparative Analysis and Predictors of 10-year Tumor Necrosis Factor Inhibitors Drug Survival in Patients with Spondyloarthritis: First-year Response Predicts Longterm Drug Persistence. *J Rheumatol* 2018;45(6):785-94.
90. Gomes JL, Sepriano A, Eusebio M, et al. Predictors and causes of first-line biologic agent discontinuation in rheumatoid arthritis: data from Reuma.pt. *Acta Reumatol Port* 2019;44(1):57-64.

Supplementary data

Table S8.1 Studies excluded (with reasons)

| Studies included for detailed review | 278 |
|---|--------------------------------|
| Exclusion reason | Number of refs excluded |
| Not full study (e.g. conference abstract, letter, comment, protocol) | 1.406 |
| Case report or case series | 1.037 |
| Not IBD (e.g. psoriasis, rheumatoid arthritis) | 1.014 |
| Not intervention of interest (e.g. azathioprine, lenalidomide, apheresis) | 1.026 |
| Other study group (e.g. children) | 699 |
| In vitro research / animal study | 842 |
| Not outcome of interest (e.g. cancer risk, PROM, radiology) | 1563 |
| Not available in English | 106 |
| Review or meta-analysis | 2.966 |
| Manually deduplicated | 112 |
| Total | 10.771 |

Table S8.2a Quality assessments. Cohort studies assessed using Newcastle-Ottawa Scale Sorted, by outcome (efficacy studies, then adverse event studies) and alphabetically by author name.

| Author, year | Cohort selection | | | Comparability | | Outcome | | Total score | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| | Selection of exposed cohort | Selection of non-exposed | Ascertainment of exposure | Outcome not present at start | Comparability of cohorts | Outcome assessment | Sufficient follow-up | | Adequacy of follow-up |
| Efficacy studies | | | | | | | | | |
| Arias, 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Armuzzi, 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Beigel, 2014 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Brandse, 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 6 |
| Crowell, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Dahlen, 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 6 |
| Dreesen, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Dulai, 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Farkas, 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Fay, 2017 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| Guidi, 2014 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Hall, 2014 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| Hassan, 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Hiraoka, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Juncadella, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Kelly, 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Kelly, 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Kiss, 2011 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Koga, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Kotze, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Kuzela, 2012 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Morita, 2017 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Narula, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Papaconstantinou, 2017 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Papamichael, 2016 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Papamichael, 2016 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |


Table S8.2a (continued)

| Author, year | Cohort selection | | | Comparability | | Outcome | | Total score | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| | Selection of exposed cohort | Selection of non-exposed | Ascertainment of exposure | Outcome not present at start | Comparability of cohorts | Outcome assessment | Sufficient follow-up | | Adequacy of follow-up |
| Papamichael, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Paul, 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Preda, 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Ribaldone, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| Rismo_b, 2012 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Rismo_a, 2012 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Roblin, 2014 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Shen, 2018 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Thomas, 2014 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Ungar, 2016 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Yacoub, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Zittan, 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Adverse event studies | | | | | | | | | |
| Armuzzi, 2019 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Colombel, 2004 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| d'Haens, 2017 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Ducharme, 2010 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Fidler, 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Gonci, 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Greener, 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Kiss, 2013 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Lie, 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Mourad, 2015 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Sartini, 2019 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Seiderer, 2004 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Teriaky, 2014 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Zelinkova, 2012 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 |

Table S8.2b Risk of bias assessments. Post-hoc analyses of randomized trials scored using the Cochrane risk of bias assessment tool. Sorted by outcome (efficacy studies, then adverse event studies) and alphabetically by author name.

| Author, Year | Selection bias | Performance bias | Detection bias | Attrition bias | Reporting bias | Overall judgement |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------|
| Efficacy studies | | | | | | |
| Bouguen, 2015 | Possible risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Possible risk | Unclear risk of bias |
| De Cruz, 2015 | Possible risk | High risk | Low risk | Low risk | Possible risk | Unclear risk of bias |
| Watanabe, 2018 | Possible risk | High risk | High risk | Low risk | Low risk | Unclear risk of bias |
| Adverse event studies | | | | | | |
| Colombel, 2017 | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk of bias |
| Colombel, 2018 | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk of bias |
| Feagan, 2018 | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk | Low risk of bias |



The page features a minimalist design with abstract, wavy borders in shades of green and blue at the top and bottom. The central area is white and contains the text "Summary and conclusions".

Summary and conclusions

Summary and conclusions

Though our understanding of the IBD has massively improved in the last two decades, IBD remains an incurable and therefore chronic disease, often requiring similarly long-term drug use to attain quiescent disease. Knowledge of IBD remains incomplete and knowledge gaps persist concerning both basic science (e.g. etiology and pathogenesis) and clinical practice (e.g. modulation of complications of disease, optimal use of drug therapies). In this thesis we attempted to address several of these knowledge gaps, as summarized below.

In Chapter 1 we have confirmed that topical 5-ASA therapy and topical corticosteroid therapy are considered the most effective therapies for ulcerative proctitis¹, as described in the current guidelines. However, the available literature evidence supporting these assertions had not yet been synthesized. Therefore in Chapter 2 we have examined and analysed the efficacy of topical therapy for ulcerative proctitis using a systematic literature review and meta-analysis.

Two important conclusions can be drawn from this Chapter. Firstly, using the data from 23 individual studies we find that topical 5-ASA is significantly superior to placebo for induction and maintenance of clinical remission, with relative risks ratios of 2.39 and 2.80. This fully supports the guideline recommendations that 5-ASA is effective and is the first choice drug therapy for ulcerative proctitis. Secondly, from the literature review we concluded that there is a lack of high quality evidence concerning other therapies than 5-ASA for ulcerative proctitis. Specifically, we find limited to no evidence for the use of corticosteroids, thiopurines or anti-TNF-agents. Thus, at the time of our search it is only empirical evidence that suggests that topical corticosteroids are effective in the treatment of ulcerative proctitis. However, since publication of our review, several new studies have provided evidence supporting the use of topical steroids for ulcerative proctitis²⁻³.

Chapter 3 we attempt to broaden the therapeutic arsenal of topical therapies for ulcerative proctitis. In a randomized controlled trial, we investigate the use of topical tacrolimus for the induction of remission in 5-ASA refractory ulcerative proctitis. We chose to use tacrolimus based on several small studies which showed promising results⁴ and decided to use the corticosteroid beclomethasone as an active comparator, as opposed to previous studies which employed a placebo⁵. In total 85 patients were randomized between tacrolimus suppositories and beclomethasone suppositories. After 4 weeks of treatment, the primary outcome of clinical response was seen in 63%

of tacrolimus treated patients and in 59% of beclomethasone patients, a statistically non-significant difference. Similarly there were no statistically significant differences between secondary outcomes such as endoscopic outcomes.

The results of Chapter 3 were unexpected as our working hypotheses consisted of tacrolimus being superior to beclomethasone, based on the efficacy observed in previous studies. Thus from this Chapter we can only conclude that tacrolimus suppositories are not superior to beclomethasone suppositories for the treatment of 5-ASA refractory ulcerative proctitis. The results suggest a more or less similar efficacy, and thus the use of either agent seems suitable in the case of 5-ASA refractory disease.

As no cure yet exists for IBD, there is a continuous search for therapies that may influence the chronic gut inflammation. Classical drug research and development, as seen in pharmaceutical companies, is a time and resource intensive process, often taking at least 10 years⁶ and costing hundreds of millions (and occasionally more than one billion) of dollars⁷. Therefore if an existing drug also happens to show immunomodulatory effects, it seems sensible to assess its efficacy in a real world setting.

In Chapter 4 we assessed the effects of the drug naltrexone, originally designed for opioid withdrawal, in cellular models and in IBD patients. We find that in the in vitro experiments, exposure to naltrexone at low doses reduced endoplasmic reticulum stress and improved wound healing. However, no effect was seen regarding cytokine levels, neither in cell cultures or in patient material. When applied in a real world population of therapy refractory IBD patients, the effects of low dose naltrexone were promising with short term clinical improvement seen in almost 75% of patients.

When interpreting the results of Chapter 4, we must keep in mind that the patients in the study cohort consist of a highly selected group of patients. Therefore it is difficult to extrapolate the results of this Chapter to the general IBD population. Additionally, IBD is known for its relapsing and remitting behaviour. Thus in our limited time of follow-up, it is difficult to discern if the clinical improvement was the result of naltrexone or the natural course of the disease. The results of this Chapter warrant additional research of a higher quality, such as a randomized controlled trial. In fact, preparations for such a trial are currently underway in the Erasmus MC⁸.

As apparent from the name, in IBD the symptoms that patients experience are mostly related to the gut inflammation. However, extra-intestinal symptoms occur frequently⁹

¹⁰in IBD patients. Though many of these symptoms improve when gut inflammation is treated successfully, debilitating fatigue may remain despite achieving mucosal healing. In Chapter 5 we assess the issue of fatigue in IBD patients. After reviewing the existing literature, we concluded that there is no standardized method of assessing and addressing fatigue in IBD patients. Therefore we proposed a management strategy centred around a fatigue attention cycle. The cycle consists of 7 steps and provides caregivers with a evidence based method to diagnose fatigue, treat possible underlying or associated conditions and re-evaluate the effects of treatment. If no underlying issues are present, non-pharmacological interventions such as lifestyle interventions¹¹ or cognitive behavioural therapy¹² appear most useful. However besides these two interventions, we could find no evidence for other therapeutic options to treat debilitating fatigue.

To optimize the administration of drugs, understanding of the pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics of a drug is essential. With sufficient understanding of these parameters, drug exposure can be manipulated through changes in dose per administration or the interval between doses. In Chapter 6 we perform pharmacokinetic analyses of the drug adalimumab, based on drug level measurements in a large cohort of Crohn's disease patients. We find that a steady state is achieved after 12 weeks of treatment, with mean levels in the cohort of 9.5µg/mL. An assessment of the influence of patient factors on the serum level did not reveal clinically significant influences of factors such as body mass index or patient sex. The most interesting find of this Chapter concerned the steady state of adalimumab. At the steady state, even when doses were (inadvertently) administered later than intended, the measured drug levels remained stable. This implies that in some patients a steady state could be maintained with longer dosing intervals than currently employed. This in turn would lead to reduced drug usage and thus lowered costs, drug administration associated adverse events, whilst not compromising efficacy. However what the actual effects of dose interval lengthening would be requires a completely different study, which is currently underway¹³.

Though randomized controlled drug studies are considered one of the highest level of evidence¹⁴, these type of studies are often limited by their rigidly selected patient populations. As such, cohorts of real-life patients can provide different valuable insights into the real world efficacy, safety and tolerability of drug therapies. In Chapter 7 we study a real-life cohort of Crohn's disease patients using adalimumab and assessed safety and tolerability. In particular we focused on possible differences between male and female patients, and noticed several sex differences in outcomes. Most strikingly,

female patients stopped their adalimumab treatment more often than male patients (69% versus 52%), and female patients stopped more often due to side-effects than male patients (35% versus 18%). Thus there appears to be a sex difference in the persistent use and tolerability of adalimumab therapy. Unfortunately, the mechanism behind these findings remains unclear. Potential causes are sex differences in drug metabolism, due to differences in cytochrome activity¹⁵ or effects of sex hormones¹⁶. Of note, the findings of this Chapter have recently been reproduced in another Dutch cohort¹⁷.

In Chapter 8, we further investigated the possible sex differences in IBD patients treated with biological therapies. Using a systematic literature review and meta-analysis, we eventually identify 55 studies of interest. When assessing endoscopic efficacy of biological agents, we found no evidence for a sex difference in the literature. However, when examining adverse events, 7 out of 14 relevant studies reported an increased risk of adverse events occurring in female patients. This suggests that the sex difference could be partly explained by female patients being more prone to adverse events in general. This concept of increased adverse event rates in female (non-IBD) patients is also reflected in the literature¹⁸⁻¹⁹. The results of this Chapter suggest that in clinical practice it remains essential to pro-actively discuss potential side effects with patients. Furthermore, clinicians should continuously assess for the presence of side effects in during drug treatment.

Future recommendations and concluding remarks

IBD remains a field in motion with many unknowns, though new discoveries are frequently made concerning etiology and pathogenesis, with subsequent development of new treatments. This thesis has attempted to fill in some of the existing knowledge gaps, via randomized trials, systematic literature reviews, meta-analyses and cohort studies. Nevertheless, the new insights gained in this thesis have also exposed interesting new gaps in our knowledge.

Currently there are several projects ongoing or in preparation that address these newly identified knowledge gaps. For instance, partly inspired by the results of Chapter 6, adalimumab dose interval lengthening is currently being studied in several Dutch hospitals in the 'Lengthening Adalimumab Dosing Interval' (LADI) study¹³. Similarly, based on the findings concerning naltrexone as described in Chapter 4, a randomized

controlled trial comparing low dose naltrexone with azathioprine is currently being prepared¹⁸.

Another potential avenue for further research is the potential sex differences in biological therapy related adverse events. Perhaps when utilizing adverse event data collected during randomized controlled trials (in post-hoc fashion), a more robust analysis could be performed to discern between general adverse events during treatment and potentially drug related adverse events.

However, even if all the knowledge gaps identified in this thesis are examined in the future, undoubtedly new gaps will be identified in those studies. And so the perennial cycle of medical research will continue.

References

1. Harbord M, Eliakim R, Bettenworth D, et al. Third European Evidence-based Consensus on Diagnosis and Management of Ulcerative Colitis. Part 2: Current Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(7):769-84
2. Sandborn WJ, Bosworth B, Zakko S, et al. Budesonide foam induces remission in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis and ulcerative proctosigmoiditis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;148(4):740-50.e2.
3. Kruis W, Neshta V, Pesegova M, et al. Budesonide Suppositories Are Effective and Safe for Treating Acute Ulcerative Proctitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2019;17(1):98-106.e4.
4. Van Dieren JM, Van Bodegraven AA, Kuipers EJ, et al. Local application of tacrolimus in distal colitis: feasible and safe. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009;15(2):193-8.
5. Lawrance IC, Baird A, Lightower D et al. Efficacy of Rectal Tacrolimus for Induction Therapy in Patients With Resistant Ulcerative Proctitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(8):1248-55
6. Ciociola AA, Cohen LB, Kulkarni P, FDA-Related Matters Committee of the American College of Gastroenterology. How drugs are developed and approved by the FDA: current process and future directions. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2014;109(5):620-3.
7. DiMasi JA, Grabowski HG, Hansen RW. Innovation in the pharmaceutical industry: New estimates of R&D costs. *J Health Econ* 2016;47:20-33.
8. [www.zonmw.nl](https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/a-preliminary-study-of-low-dose-naltrexone-for-the-induction-of-remission-in-patients-with-mild-to-m/) [Internet]. Den Haag: ZonMw. 2020 [cited 2020 Jul 01]. Available from: <https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/a-preliminary-study-of-low-dose-naltrexone-for-the-induction-of-remission-in-patients-with-mild-to-m/>
9. Bernstein CN, Blanchard JF, Rawsthorne P, Yu N. The prevalence of extraintestinal diseases in inflammatory bowel disease: a population-based study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001;96:1116-22.
10. Ricart E, Panaccione R, Loftus EV Jr, et al. Autoimmune disorders and extraintestinal manifestations in first-degree familial and sporadic inflammatory bowel disease: a case-control study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2004;10(3):207-14.
11. García-Vega E, Fernandez-Rodriguez C. A stress management programme for Crohn's disease. *Behav Res Ther* 2004;42:367-83.
12. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, Timman R, et al. Fatigue management in patients with IBD: a randomised controlled trial. *Gut* 2014;63:911-8.
13. [www.zonmw.nl](https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/lengthening-adalimumab-dosing-interval-in-quiescent-crohns-disease-patients-the-ladi-study/) [Internet]. Den Haag: ZonMw. 2020 [cited 2020 Jul 01]. Available from: <https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/lengthening-adalimumab-dosing-interval-in-quiescent-crohns-disease-patients-the-ladi-study/>
14. Burns PB, Rohrich RJ, Chung KC. The levels of evidence and their role in evidence-based medicine. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2011;128(1):305-10.
15. Meibohm B, Beierle I, Derendorf H. How important are gender differences in pharmacokinetics? *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2002;41:329-42.
16. Uetrecht J, Naisbitt DJ. Idiosyncratic adverse drug reactions: current concepts. *Pharmacol Rev* 2013;65:779-808.
17. Schultheiss JPD, Brand EC, Lamers E, et al. Earlier discontinuation of TNF- α inhibitor therapy in female patients with inflammatory bowel disease is related to a greater risk of side effects. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2019;50:386-96.
18. Yu Y, Chen J, Li D, Wang L, Wang W, Liu H. Systematic Analysis of Adverse Event Reports for Sex Differences in Adverse Drug Events. *Sci Rep* 2016;6:24955.
19. Zimmerman A, Lopes RD, Stebbins AL, et al. Pooled analysis of adverse event collection from 4 acute coronary syndrome trials. *Am Heart J* 2016;174:60-7.





Nederlandse samenvatting en conclusies

Nederlandse samenvatting en conclusies

Inleiding

De inflammatoire darmziekten, vaak afgekort als IBD, betreft een groep van chronische ontstekingen aan de darmen. In praktische zin bestaat IBD uit twee ziektebeelden, namelijk de ziekte van Crohn en colitis ulcerosa. Deze ziekten onderscheiden zich door verschil in locatie van de darmontsteking, en verschil in het gedrag van de darmontsteking.

De exacte oorzaak van IBD is tot op heden onduidelijk, hoewel in de afgelopen decennia onze kennis van IBD aanzienlijk is toegenomen. Met de kennis van nu ligt de oorzaak van IBD waarschijnlijk in een combinatie van factoren, zoals genetische aanleg¹⁻², omgevingsfactoren³⁻⁴ en een verstoorde reactie van het afweersysteem op de bacteriën in de darm⁵.

Behalve een toename in kennis, is er de laatste decennia ook een wereldwijde toename in het aantal patiënten met IBD⁶. Intussen zijn er ten minste 80.000 IBD patiënten in Nederland, en de verwachting is dat dit aantal alleen zal toenemen.

Aangezien IBD een chronische ziekte is, is in veel gevallen ook een chronische ('levenslange') behandeling noodzakelijk. Aangezien IBD vaak op jonge leeftijd wordt vastgesteld⁷ gaat de chronische behandeling van IBD gepaard met hoge zorgkosten⁸. Daarnaast kan IBD, met name als de ziekte niet goed wordt behandeld, leiden tot verminderde kwaliteit van leven⁹⁻¹¹ en verminderde productiviteit¹²⁻¹³, waardoor de maatschappelijke kosten nog hoger worden.

Het is dus zowel vanuit oogpunt van de patiënt, als vanuit oogpunt van de maatschappij, van groot belang om de ziekte zo goed mogelijk onder controle te krijgen. Helaas is tot op heden genezing van IBD niet mogelijk, ondanks de toename in kennis over het ziektebeeld. Het beste wat men nu kan nastreven is verlichting van symptomen met volledige onderdrukking van de ontsteking in de darmen. Het onderdrukken van de ontsteking is belangrijk, omdat daarmee complicaties van de darmontsteking (zoals littekenvorming in de darm) voorkomen wordt¹⁴.

Bij elke behandeling van een ziekte moet de balans gezocht worden tussen effectiviteit van een medicijn, en de bijwerkingen van een medicijn. Vaak zullen sterkere medicamenten meer of ernstigere bijwerkingen hebben dan relatief zwakke

medicijnen. Binnen de behandeling van IBD geldt eenzelfde onderverdeling, waarbij er relatief zwakke en relatief sterke behandelingen bestaan. De richtlijnen voor de behandeling van IBD¹⁵⁻¹⁶ adviseren een stappenplan, waarbij in de meeste patiënten gestart wordt met de zwakste medicamenten. Indien de zwakste medicamenten onvoldoende werken of niet worden verdragen, kan een zwaarder middel ingezet worden totdat de ontsteking in de darmen onder controle is.

Samenvatting van het proefschrift

Ondanks de toename in kennis omtrent het ontstaan van IBD en de ontwikkeling van nieuwe behandelingen, bestaan er nog volop onbeantwoorde vragen omtrent IBD. IBD blijft tot op heden een ziekte die we niet kunnen genezen, met navenante noodzaak tot chronische behandeling, met de bijbehorende persoonlijke en maatschappelijke consequenties. Met dit proefschrift hebben we gepoogd een aantal van de kennishiaten binnen de IBD op te vullen.

Bij IBD-patiënten met colitis ulcerosa bevindt de darmontsteking zich in de dikke darm. Bij een deel van deze patiënten is de ontsteking beperkt tot de endeldarm, dit type ontsteking wordt proctitis ulcerosa genoemd. Bij patiënten met proctitis ulcerosa wordt lokale behandeling met in eerste instantie 5-ASA preparaten en in tweede instantie corticosteroïden gezien als de juiste volgorde van behandeling¹⁵. Dit is zo beschreven in de richtlijnen, zoals we resumeren in Hoofdstuk 1. Echter, ondanks deze duidelijke aanbevelingen in de richtlijn, schort het aan een goede analyse van al het beschikbare bewijs uit de wetenschappelijke literatuur. In Hoofdstuk 2 hebben we door middel van systematisch literatuuronderzoek de beschikbare bewijslast geïdentificeerd. Vervolgens hebben we door middel van meta-analyse gegevens uit 23 verschillende studies geaggregeerd, waaruit inderdaad blijkt dat lokale behandeling met 5-ASA preparaten duidelijk effectiever is dan een behandeling met placebo. De *relative risk ratio's* voor het induceren en onderhouden van ziekte remissie zijn respectievelijk 2.39 en 2.80 voor 5-ASA vergeleken met placebo. Wat echter ook uit deze literatuurstudie blijkt, is dat de bewijslast voor het gebruik van corticosteroïden veel beperkter is. Echter, sinds publicatie van Hoofdstuk 2 zijn resultaten van nieuwe studies bekend geworden, waarin de waarde van lokale corticosteroïden wel wordt bewezen¹⁷⁻¹⁸.

In Hoofdstuk 3 trachten we door middel van een gerandomiseerde studie meer behandelopties te identificeren voor patiënten met actieve proctitis ulcerosa. In dit onderzoek hebben we besloten om het middel tacrolimus te onderzoeken, vanwege de veelbelovende resultaten die dit middel heeft getoond in eerdere onderzoeken¹⁹.

Aangezien het onderzoek patiënten betrof met actieve ontsteking ondanks behandeling met 5-ASA (de eerste keus behandeling), hebben we in dit onderzoek de helft van de patiënten behandeld met tacrolimus, en de andere helft met beclometason (een corticosteroïd, de tweede keus behandeling). Uiteindelijk hebben we 85 patiënten behandeld met tacrolimus of beclometason zetabletten. Na 4 weken behandeling waren de klachten en de darmontsteking bij de meeste patiënten afgenomen of verdwenen. Het effect van tacrolimus was echter hetzelfde als het effect van beclometason, er werd namelijk een positief effect gezien in respectievelijk 63% en 59% van de patiënten. Deze uitkomst was enigszins onverwacht, aangezien we op grond van de eerdere onderzoeken hadden verwacht dat tacrolimus effectiever zou zijn dan beclometason. Gezien de opbouw van de studie kunnen we met deze resultaten dan ook alleen concluderen dat het gebruik van tacrolimus niet beter is dan het gebruik van beclometason. Waarschijnlijk zijn beide middelen dus geschikt om patiënten te behandelen met actieve proctitis ulcerosa als 5-ASA onvoldoende heeft gewerkt.

Zoals eerder gezegd is er tot op heden is er nog geen genezing mogelijk voor IBD. Voor veel patiënten is een chronische behandeling met medicatie dan ook nodig om de ontsteking van de darm te onderdrukken. Het ontwikkelen van medicatie is een kostbare en tijdrovende zaak, geschat wordt dat de ontwikkelingskosten van een medicament tot wel 1 miljard dollar kunnen oplopen²⁰ over een periode van 10 tot 15 jaar²¹. Soms blijken echter bestaande medicijnen een onverwachte werking te hebben op gebieden waarvoor het niet origineel is ontwikkeld. Een voorbeeld hiervan is het middel naltrexon, wat origineel ontwikkeld is voor ontweningsverschijnselen. Naltrexon blijkt echter ook ontstekingsactiviteit te kunnen verminderen, waarbij er aanwijzingen zijn dat dit ook geldt voor ontsteking in de darm.

In Hoofdstuk 4 beschrijven we dan ook de inzichten die we hebben opgedaan met naltrexon, zowel in laboratoriumonderzoeken alsmede in daadwerkelijke IBD patiënten. Uit de laboratoriumonderzoeken blijkt dat naltrexon een positieve invloed heeft op wondgenezing. Tevens neemt de *endoplasmische reticulum stress* af, wat mogelijk een positieve invloed heeft op ontsteking en cel verval. Deze effecten blijken los te staan van niveaus van cytokines die een rol spelen in de bekende ontstekingsprocessen binnen IBD. De bevindingen uit de laboratoriumonderzoeken lijken we ook terug te zien in de patiënten die zijn behandeld met naltrexon. Zo zien we dat tot wel 75% van de patiënten op de korte termijn een afname van klachten meldt na de behandeling met naltrexon. Echter, dit was geen gestructureerd patiënten onderzoek, waardoor er niet met hoge zekerheid geconcludeerd kan worden dat naltrexon een daadwerkelijk effectieve of geschikte behandeling is. Dit temeer omdat bij IBD bekend is dat er binnen

korte tijd de symptomen erg kunnen schommelen. In elk geval kan uit dit hoofdstuk wel geconcludeerd worden dat de effecten van naltrexon veelbelovend zijn, en inmiddels worden voorbereiding getroffen voor een goed gestructureerd en prospectief onderzoek²².

Zoals de naam van het ziektebeeld al impliceert, is ontsteking van de darm het hoofdprobleem bij IBD. De meeste klachten die patiënten ervaren zijn dan ook direct gerelateerd aan de ontsteking van de darm. Een aanzienlijk deel van de patiënten heeft echter ook symptomen die niet direct gerelateerd zijn aan de darmontsteking, zogenaamde extra-intestinale symptomen²³⁻²⁴. Hoewel veel van deze extra-intestinale klachten afnemen als de darmontsteking ook afneemt, kunnen sommige klachten blijven bestaan ondanks een volledig rustige darm. Een van deze vaak persisterende symptomen is ernstige vermoeidheid. In Hoofdstuk 5 verdiepen we ons in deze ernstige vermoeidheid. In eerste instantie hebben we de bestaande literatuur bestudeerd, waaruit blijkt dat er geen goede gestandaardiseerde methoden of adviezen bestaan voor de aanpak van vermoeidheid bij IBD patiënten. Op grond hiervan hebben we dan ook een voorstel gedaan om vermoeidheid structureel te analyseren en behandelen, door middel van een stappenplan. Het aanpakken van direct behandelbare cofactoren, zoals ontsteking aan de darm of stress, staat hierbij voorop. Desondanks kan vermoeidheid blijven bestaan, in dergelijke gevallen kunnen lifestyle interventies²⁵ en cognitieve gedragstherapie²⁶ nog een verbetering geven. Desondanks leert de ervaring dat een deel van de patiënten last blijft houden van ernstige en moeilijk te behandelen vermoeidheid.

Bij het toedienen van medicatie dient altijd een afweging te worden gemaakt tussen de effectiviteit en toxiciteit. Hoewel meer medicatie kan leiden tot een sterker effect, neemt bij een hogere dosis de kans op bijwerkingen veelal ook toe. Hierin ligt dan ook de waarde van onderzoek naar optimalisatie van medicatietoedieningen. In Hoofdstuk 6 hebben we onderzoek verricht naar de farmacokinetiek van het middel adalimumab. Door middel van het meten van medicatiespiegels van het middel adalimumab in het bloed van 76 patiënten we vastgesteld dat er een stabiele situatie ontstaat na circa 12 weken behandeling. Opvallend is dat patiëntgebonden factoren, zoals het gewicht of geslacht van de patiënt, weinig invloed hebben op de medicatiespiegel. Een nog interessantere bevinding betreft de stabiliteit van de spiegel. Normaliter wordt adalimumab elke 2 weken toegediend, maar bij patiënten die (per ongeluk) het pas na 3 weken toedienden bleef de spiegel toch stabiel. Mogelijk kan er dus met minder frequente toediening toch een stabiele spiegel worden gehandhaafd, waarbij de effectiviteit mogelijk hetzelfde blijft terwijl de kans op bijwerkingen afneemt. Of het

minder frequent toedienen van medicatie geen risico's met zich mee brengt valt uit dit onderzoek helaas niet op te maken, maar momenteel is een onderzoek gaande wat wellicht antwoordt zal geven op deze vraag²⁷.

Veelal worden de resultaten van goed opgezette gerandomiseerde studies gezien als de resultaten met een hoge kwaliteit²⁸. Helaas zijn dergelijke onderzoeken kostbaar en door de rigide methodologie zijn de resultaten niet altijd volledig toepasbaar op de gangbare patiëntenpopulatie. Cohortonderzoeken in ongeselecteerde patiëntenpopulaties kunnen dan ook aanvullende inzichten opleveren. In Hoofdstuk 7 beschrijven we een cohort van patiënten met de ziekte van Crohn die behandeld worden met adalimumab. Gedurende de onderzoeksperiode zien we een aantal opvallende verschillen tussen mannelijke en vrouwelijke patiënten. Vrouwelijke patiënten stoppen veel vaker met adalimumab therapie dan mannelijke patiënten (69% versus 52%). Daarbij zien we ook dat vrouwelijke patiënte veel vaker vanwege bijwerkingen hun behandeling stoppen (35% versus 18%). In het cohort wat wij hebben bestudeerd is er dus duidelijk sprake van een sekse verschil, en recentelijk is in een ander Nederlands cohort eenzelfde resultaat vastgesteld²⁹. Echter, de reden voor het sekse verschil blijft onduidelijk. Uit de algemene medische literatuur wordt in elk geval duidelijk dat vrouwelijke patiënten over het algemeen vaker bijwerkingen ervaren dan mannen. In sommige gevallen spelen verschillen in het metabolisme van medicatie en rol³⁰⁻³¹ maar dat lijkt niet het geval te zijn bij adalimumab therapie.

In Hoofdstuk 8 verdiepen we ons verder in de mogelijke sekse verschillen bij IBD patiënten die behandeld worden met biologicals. Via een uitgebreid en systematisch literatuuronderzoek hebben we 55 studies geïdentificeerd die in enige mate het mogelijke sekse verschil hebben onderzocht. In deze studies komt geen sekse verschil naar voren met betrekking tot effectiviteit van de behandeling. Echter in een deel van de onderzoeken wordt wel een sekse verschil gezien op het gebied van bijwerkingen, waarbij er bij vrouwelijke patiënten meer bijwerkingen worden vastgesteld dan bij mannelijke patiënten. Hierbij dient wel vermeld te worden dat de een deel van deze onderzoeken geen onderscheid heeft gemaakt tussen algemene bijwerkingen (zoals hoofdpijn of misselijkheid) en bijwerkingen die potentieel gerelateerd zijn aan de medicatie. Daarnaast waren de resultaten van de verschillende studies niet geschikt voor aggregatie via meta-analyse. Desondanks laat dit onderzoek wel aanwijzingen zien voor een mogelijk sekse verschil op het gebied van bijwerkingen. De vraag blijft echter wel of deze bevinding alleen geldt voor IBD patiënten die behandeld worden met biologicals, of dat deze bevinding op een bredere populatie van toepassing is.

Conclusies en toekomstperspectief

IBD blijft een fascinerend onderzoeksgebied met frequente nieuwe ontwikkelingen en ontdekkingen. Hoewel er op deze wijze steeds nieuwe inzichten worden vergaard, leiden nieuwe inzichten vrijwel altijd ook tot nieuwe vragen. In dit proefschrift hebben we getracht door middel van de uitgevoerde studies een aantal van deze kennishiaten op te vullen. Hoewel we daar deels in zijn geslaagd, roepen de studies beschreven in dit proefschrift ook weer nieuwe vragen op.

Momenteel zijn er enkele projecten gaande of in voorbereiding die deze nieuwe kennishiaten kunnen opvullen. Zo is momenteel de 'Lengthening Adalimumab Dosing Interval' (LADI) studie gaande²⁷, deels op basis van de resultaten van het onderzoek uit Hoofdstuk 6. Op vergelijkbare wijze zijn de gegevens omtrent naltrexon uit Hoofdstuk 4 de basis van een aankomend onderzoek waarin behandeling met naltrexon wordt vergeleken met behandeling met azathioprine²².

Andere interessante onderzoeksgebieden zijn de mogelijke man-vrouw verschillen betreffende bijwerkingen van biologicals. De resultaten van Hoofdstuk 8 geven helaas geen eenduidig beeld over het mogelijke man-vrouw verschil, maar wellicht dat deze vraag alsnog beantwoord zou kunnen worden door middel van een post-hoc analyse, gebruikmakend van de bijwerkingen registraties van de eerste grote gerandomiseerde onderzoeken naar biologicals. Echter, zelfs al worden alle huidige kennishiaten opgevuld dankzij nieuw onderzoek, het is vrijwel zeker dat er op basis van die onderzoeken weer nieuwe hiaten worden blootgelegd. En dat beschrijft precies de eindeloze cirkel van het medisch wetenschappelijk onderzoek.

References

1. Henckaerts L, Van Steen K, Verstreken I, et al. Genetic risk profiling and prediction of disease course in Crohn's disease patients. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2009;7:972.
2. Cleynen I, Boucher G2, Jostins L3 et al. Inherited determinants of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis phenotypes: a genetic association study. *Lancet* 2016;387:156-67.
3. Higuchi LM, Khalili H, Chan AT et al. A prospective study of cigarette smoking and the risk of inflammatory bowel disease in women. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2012; 107:1399.
4. Amre DK, D'Souza S, Morgan K et al. Imbalances in dietary consumption of fatty acids, vegetables, and fruits are associated with risk for Crohn's disease in children. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;102:2016.
5. Morgan XC, Tickle TL, Sokol H et al. Dysfunction of the intestinal microbiome in inflammatory bowel disease and treatment. *Genome Biol.* 2012;13(9):R79
6. Ng SC, Shi HY, Hamidi N et al. Worldwide incidence and prevalence of inflammatory bowel disease in the 21st century: a systematic review of population-based studies. *Lancet.* 2018;390:2769-78.
7. Shivashankar R, Tremaine WJ, Harmsen WS, Loftus EV Jr. Incidence and Prevalence of Crohn's Disease and Ulcerative Colitis in Olmsted County, Minnesota From 1970 Through 2010. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017;15(6):857-63.
8. Van der Valk ME, Mangen MJ, Severs M, et al. Evolution of Costs of Inflammatory Bowel Disease over Two Years of Follow-Up. *PLoS One* 2016;11(4):e0142481.b
9. Williet N, Sarter H, Gower-Rousseau C, et al. Patient-reported Outcomes in a French Nationwide Survey of Inflammatory Bowel Disease Patients. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(2):165-74.
10. Frolkis AD, Dykeman J, Negrón ME, et al. Risk of surgery for inflammatory bowel diseases has decreased over time: a systematic review and meta-analysis of population-based studies. *Gastroenterology* 2013;145:996–1006.
11. Rivière P, Zallot C, Desobry P, et al. Frequency of and factors associated with sexual dysfunction in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11:1347–52.
12. De Boer AG, Bennebroek Evertsz' F, Stokkers PC, et al. Employment status, difficulties at work and quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016;28(10):1130-6.
13. Le Berre C, Peyrin-Biroulet L, Buisson A, et al. Impact of inflammatory bowel diseases on working life: A French nationwide survey. *Dig Liver Dis* 2019;51(7):961-6.
14. Flores BM, O'Connor A, Moss AC. Impact of mucosal inflammation on risk of colorectal neoplasia in patients with ulcerative colitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Gastrointest Endosc* 2017;86:1006-11.e8.
15. Harbord M, Eliakim R, Bettenworth D, et al. Third European Evidence-based Consensus on Diagnosis and Management of Ulcerative Colitis. Part 2: Current Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(7):769-84
16. Gomollón F, Dignass A, Annese V, et al. 3rd European Evidence-based Consensus on the Diagnosis and Management of Crohn's Disease 2016: Part 1: Diagnosis and Medical Management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2017;11(1):3-25.
17. Sandborn WJ, Bosworth B, Zakko S, et al. Budesonide foam induces remission in patients with mild to moderate ulcerative proctitis and ulcerative proctosigmoiditis. *Gastroenterology* 2015;148(4): 740-50.e2.
18. Kruis W, Neshta V, Pesegova M, et al. Budesonide Suppositories Are Effective and Safe for Treating Acute Ulcerative Proctitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2019;17(1):98-106.e4.
19. Van Dieren JM, Van Bodegraven AA, Kuipers EJ et al. Local application of tacrolimus in distal colitis: feasible and safe. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009;15(2):193-8.
20. Ciociola AA, Cohen LB, Kulkarni P, FDA-Related Matters Committee of the American College of Gastroenterology. How drugs are developed and approved by the FDA: current process and future directions. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2014;109(5):620-3.
21. DiMasi JA, Grabowski HG, Hansen RW. Innovation in the pharmaceutical industry: New estimates of R&D costs. *J Health Econ* 2016;47:20-33.

22. [www.zonmw.nl](https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/a-preliminary-study-of-low-dose-naltrexone-for-the-induction-of-remission-in-patients-with-mild-to-m/) [Internet]. Den Haag: ZonMw. 2020 [cited 2020 Jul 01]. Available from: <https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/a-preliminary-study-of-low-dose-naltrexone-for-the-induction-of-remission-in-patients-with-mild-to-m/>
23. Bernstein CN, Blanchard JF, Rawsthorne P, Yu N. The prevalence of extraintestinal diseases in inflammatory bowel disease: a population-based study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001;96:1116–22.
24. Ricart E, Panaccione R, Loftus EV Jr, et al. Autoimmune disorders and extraintestinal manifestations in first-degree familial and sporadic inflammatory bowel disease: a case-control study. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2004;10(3):207-14.
25. García-Vega E, Fernandez-Rodriguez C. A stress management programme for Crohn's disease. *Behav Res Ther* 2004;42:367-83.
26. Vogelaar L, van't Spijker A, Timman R, et al. Fatigue management in patients with IBD: a randomised controlled trial. *Gut* 2014;63:911-8.
27. [www.zonmw.nl](https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/lengthening-adalimumab-dosing-interval-in-quiescent-crohns-disease-patients-the-ladi-study/) [Internet]. Den Haag: ZonMw. 2020 [cited 2020 Jul 01]. Available from: <https://www.zonmw.nl/nl/onderzoek-resultaten/doelmatigheidsonderzoek/programmas/project-detail/goed-gebruik-geneesmiddelen/lengthening-adalimumab-dosing-interval-in-quiescent-crohns-disease-patients-the-ladi-study/>
28. Burns PB, Rohrich RJ, Chung KC. The levels of evidence and their role in evidence-based medicine. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2011;128(1):305-10.
29. Schultheiss JPD, Brand EC, Lamers E, et al. Earlier discontinuation of TNF- α inhibitor therapy in female patients with inflammatory bowel disease is related to a greater risk of side effects. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2019;50:386-96.
30. Meibohm B, Beierle I, Derendorf H. How important are gender differences in pharmacokinetics? *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2002;41:329-42.





Appendices

Abbreviations

Bibliography

Acknowledgements / Dankwoord

Appendices

Abbreviations

| | |
|----------|---|
| 5-ASA | 5-aminosalicylic acid |
| 6-MP | 6-mercaptopurine |
| 6-TG | 6-thioguanine |
| ADA | adalimumab |
| AZA | azathioprine |
| BID | <i>bis in die</i> , two times daily |
| BMI | body mass index |
| CD | Crohn's disease |
| CDAI | Crohn's disease activity index |
| CFS | chronic fatigue syndrome |
| CI | confidence interval |
| CIS | Checklist Individual Strength |
| CYP450 | cytochrome P450 |
| CRP | C-reactive protein |
| eGFR | estimated glomerular filtration rate |
| ECCO | European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation |
| EOW | every other week |
| GPT | N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase |
| HR | hazard ratio |
| IBD | inflammatory bowel disease |
| IBDQ | inflammatory bowel disease questionnaire |
| IEC | intestinal epithelial cells |
| IFX | infliximab |
| ELISA | enzyme linked immunosorbent assay |
| IQR | interquartile range |
| K-S test | Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test |
| LDN | low dose naltrexone |
| LPS | lipopolysaccharide |
| LUC | left sided ulcerative colitis |
| MFI-20 | Multidimensional Fatigue Inventory |
| MMF | mycophenolate mofetil |
| MOR | mu-opioid receptor |
| MS | multiple sclerosis |
| MTX | methotrexate |
| NOS | Newcastle-Ottawa Scale |
| OD | once daily |

| | |
|-----------|---|
| OR | odds ratio |
| PSQI | Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index |
| Q-Q plot | quartile-quartile plot |
| QOL | quality of life |
| RCT | randomized controlled trial |
| RR | relative risk |
| rt-PCR | reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction |
| SASP | sulfasalazine |
| SC | subcutaneously |
| SD | standard deviation |
| SFT | solution-focused therapy |
| TID | <i>ter in die</i> , three times daily |
| TLR4 | Toll like receptor 4 |
| TNF-alpha | tumor necrosis factor alpha |
| UC | ulcerative colitis |
| UP | ulcerative proctitis |
| VAS | visual analog scale |

Bibliography

MRKL Lie, CJ van der Woude. Managing ulcerative colitis: the guidelines and beyond. *EMJ Gastroenterol*. 2013;1:82-91.

MRKL Lie, SL Kanis, BE Hansen, CJ van der Woude. Drug therapies for ulcerative proctitis: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2014;20(11):2157-78.

MRKL Lie, MP Peppelenbosch, RL West, Z Zelinkova, CJ van der Woude. Adalimumab in Crohn's disease patients: pharmacokinetics in the first 6 months of treatment. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2014;40(10):1202-8.

JE Kreijne, **MRKL Lie**, L Vogelaar, CJ van der Woude. Practical guideline for fatigue management in inflammatory bowel disease. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2016;10(1):105-11.

MRKL Lie, JE Kreijne, CJ van der Woude. Sex is associated with adalimumab side effects and drug survival in patients with Crohn's disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2017;23(1):75-81.

MRKL Lie, J van der Giessen, GM Fuhler, A de Lima, MP Peppelenbosch, C van der Ent, CJ van der Woude. Low dose naltrexone for induction of remission in inflammatory bowel disease patients. *J Transl Med*. 2018;16(1):55.

MRKL Lie, JE Kreijne, G Dijkstra, M Löwenberg, G van Assche, RL West, D van Noord, AE van der Meulen-de Jong, B Oldenburg, RJ Zaal, BE Hansen, AC de Vries, CJ van der Woude, on behalf of the Dutch Initiative on Crohn and Colitis (ICC). Efficacy and safety of tacrolimus vs beclomethasone suppositories in patients with refractory ulcerative proctitis in a randomized trial. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2019, in press. Published online October 11, 2019.

MRKL Lie, E Paulides, CJ van der Woude. Sex differences in efficacy and side-effects of biologicals in inflammatory bowel disease. *International Journal of Colorectal Disease* 2020, Accepted for publication.

PhD portfolio

Name: Mitchell RKL Lie

Promotor: prof. dr. C.J. van der Woude

Co-promotor: dr. A.C. de Vries, dr. G.M. Fuhler

Department: Gastroenterology and Hepatology

Courses and workshops

- 2013 Good Clinical Practice (BROK) course
- 2014 Y-ECCO workshop
- 2015 Y-ECCO workshop
- 2015 Research Integrity Course
- 2016 Y-ECCO workshop

Presentations

- 2014 Low dose naltrexone in therapy resistant IBD, a case series.
 - Oral, Dutch Society of Gastroenterology, Veldhoven, The Netherlands
 - Poster, 9th Congress of ECCO (European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation), Copenhagen, Denmark
 - Poster, Digestive Disease Week, Chicago, USA
- 2016 Gender differences in adalimumab continuation rates, results of a prospective Crohn's disease cohort
 - Poster, 11th Congress of ECCO (European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation), Amsterdam, The Netherlands
 - Poster, Digestive Disease Week, San Diego, USA
- 2016 Assessing the position of systemic tacrolimus in the treatment of inflammatory bowel disease: systematic review and meta-analysis
 - Poster, 11th Congress of ECCO (European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation), Amsterdam, The Netherlands
- 2018 Tacrolimus suppositories as induction therapy for refractory ulcerative proctitis: a randomized controlled trial
 - Oral, Dutch Society of Gastroenterology, Veldhoven, The Netherlands
 - Oral, 13th Congress of ECCO (European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation), Vienna, Austria
 - Poster, Digestive Disease Week, Washington DC, USA
- 2018 Naltrexon in IBD
 - Oral, Dutch Initiative on Crohn and Colitis, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Other activities

- 2012-2015 Peer review for American Journal of Gastroenterology, Gut, Journal of the American Medical Association, Journal of Crohn's and Colitis.
- 2015 Mentor in the Erasmus University Minor Gastroenterology programme

Acknowledgements / Dankwoord

Mijn dank is groot aan eenieder die significant heeft bijgedragen aan de totstandkoming van dit proefschrift.

