CLINICAL PRACTICE UPDATES

AGA Clinical Practice Update on the Evaluation and Management of Seronegative Enteropathies: Expert Review

Maureen M. Leonard,1,2 Benjamin Lebwohl,3 Alberto Rubio-Tapia,4 and Federico Biagi5

1Center for Celiac Research and Treatment, Division of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition, MassGeneral Hospital for Children, Boston, Massachusetts; 2Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts; 3Celiac Disease Center, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, New York; 4Division of Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition, Digestive Disease and Surgery Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, Ohio; and 5Clinical Scientific Institutes Maugeri Scientific Institute for Research, Hospitalization and Healthcare, Gastroenterology Unit of Pavia Institute, University of Pavia, Italy

DESCRIPTION: Our aim was to provide a consensus statement for the best approaches for diagnosis and management of patients with suspected enteropathy, but negative results from serologic tests for celiac disease (seronegative enteropathy). METHODS: We collected findings from published cohort, case-control, and cross-sectional studies of diagnosis and case series and descriptive studies of management of patients believed to have celiac disease or other enteropathies unrelated to gluten, but negative results from serologic tests. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 1: Review histologic findings with experienced pathologists who specialize in gastroenterology. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 2: Serologic tests are essential for an accurate diagnosis of celiac disease. For patients with suspected celiac disease but negative results from serologic tests, total IgA level should be measured; patients should also be tested for anti-tissue transglutaminase, IgA against deamidated gliadin peptide, and endomysial antibody (IgA). Patients with total IgA levels below the lower limit of detection and IgG against tissue transglutaminase or deamidated gliadin peptide, or endomysial antibody, should be considered to have celiac disease with selective IgA deficiency rather than seronegative celiac disease. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 3: Patients’ diets should be carefully reviewed and duodenal biopsies should be collected and analyzed at the time of serologic testing to determine exposure to gluten and accuracy of test results. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 4: Thorough medication histories should be collected from patients, with attention to angiotensin II receptor blockers, such as olmesartan, along with travel histories to identify potential etiologies of villous atrophy. This will guide additional testing. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 5: Patients should be analyzed for disease-associated variants in human leukocyte antigen genes; results must be carefully interpreted. Negative results can be used to rule out celiac disease in seronegative patients. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 6: Patients with suspected celiac disease who are seronegative but have villous atrophy and genetic risk factors for celiac disease must undergo endoscopic evaluation after 1–3 years on a gluten-free diet to evaluate improvements in villous atrophy. A diagnosis of seronegative celiac disease can then be confirmed based on clinical and histologic markers of improvement on the gluten-free diet. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 7: Seronegative patients with an identified cause for enteropathy should be treated accordingly; a follow-up biopsy might or might not be necessary. BEST PRACTICE ADVICE 8: Patients with persistent signs and symptoms who do not respond to a gluten-free diet, and for whom no etiology of enteropathy is ultimately identified, should be treated with budesonide. CONCLUSIONS: These best practice guidelines will aid in diagnosis and management of patients with suspected celiac disease, but negative results from serologic tests. Keywords: GFD; Celiac; CeD; tTG.

Seronegative enteropathy, characterized by some degree of villous atrophy and negative tissue transglutaminase (tTG), deamidated gliadin peptide (DGP), and anti-endomysial antibody (EMA), is a common clinical scenario encountered by gastroenterologists. Although seronegative celiac disease (CeD) is one etiology and a frequent cause of seronegative enteropathy,1–3 villous atrophy is not specific for CeD. The differential diagnosis for seronegative enteropathy is broad and includes immune-mediated, infectious, and iatrogenic causes, among others. The patient characteristics associated with seronegative enteropathy are difficult to describe due to the heterogeneity of underlying etiologies. An accurate diagnosis of seronegative enteropathy may be complicated by challenges such as poorly oriented duodenal mucosa leading to misinterpretation of histologic findings, use of immunosuppressive agents masking serologic findings, or inadequate or incorrect use of serology testing.4 Previous work detailing the prevalence of seronegative CeD,5 diagnosis of seronegative villous atrophy,2,6 and management recommendations for seronegative villous atrophy are available.3,7–9 However, there is limited evidence to guide clinicians regarding the minimal serologic tests necessary, the role of the gluten-free diet (GFD) in diagnosis and management, and the role of an expert pathologist in evaluating the diagnosis of seronegative enteropathy. Furthermore, the prognosis of seronegative enteropathy is poor when compared with patients with other causes of villous

Abbreviations used in this paper: AGA, American Gastroenterological Association; CeD, celiac disease; DGP, deamidated gliadin peptide; EMA, anti-endomysial antibody; GFD, gluten-free diet; tTG, anti-tissue transglutaminase.

© 2021 by the AGA Institute
0016-5085/$36.00
https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2020.08.061

Most current article
Seronegative enteropathy, such as those with classic CeD, making accurate diagnosis and treatment of the utmost importance. Furthermore, distinct therapy is available for many of the identifiable causes of seronegative enteropathy, and after an accurate diagnosis these treatments are highly effective. The purpose of this article was to provide a comprehensive and methodical approach for examining the differential diagnosis of, and targeted treatment for, seronegative enteropathy. Because seronegative CeD is a frequent cause of seronegative enteropathy, here we discuss seronegative CeD in depth and separately from other etiologies of seronegative enteropathy. This expert review was commissioned and approved by the American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) Institute Clinical Practice Updates Committee and the AGA Governing Board to provide timely guidance on a topic of high clinical importance to the AGA membership, and underwent internal peer review by the Clinical Practice Updates Committee and external peer review through the standard procedures of Gastroenterology.

**Definition of Seronegative Enteropathy**

Seronegative enteropathy is characterized by some degree of villous atrophy and negative tTG, DGP, and anti-EMA. Seronegative CeD is a common cause of seronegative enteropathy. Seronegative CeD is defined as patients with or without gastrointestinal signs and symptoms of CeD in the presence of villous atrophy and compatible genetics and without IgA tTG, IgA DGP, and IgA EMA, who show clinical and histologic responses to the GFD and for whom other etiologies have been examined. Patients with IgA deficiency, positive IgG-based serology testing (IgG tTG, IgG DGP, and/or IgG EMA), and villous atrophy should be diagnosed with IgA deficiency associated with CeD, rather than seronegative enteropathy.

**Histologic Evaluation of Seronegative Enteropathy**

A diagnosis of seronegative enteropathy requires an esophagastroduodenoscopy with duodenal- and/or jejunal-oriented biopsies showing villous atrophy. To establish an accurate diagnosis, a total of 4–6 biopsy specimens should be submitted from the second portion of the duodenum and the duodenal bulb. Histologic findings should be reviewed with an experienced gastrointestinal pathologist to confirm that villous atrophy is present and to ensure that the biopsies are optimally oriented for evaluation. Clinicians should consider using the Corazza-Villanacci classification to describe the histologic findings in the duodenum. In addition, although confirming a diagnosis of seronegative CeD by identifying tTG-specific, gluten-dependent deposits in the duodenal mucosa of patients has been described, it is not currently available for clinical purposes. In all cases of seronegative enteropathy, clinicians should consider having experienced pathologists consult to confirm proper orientation of the duodenal tissue and to look for signs of other etiologies of enteropathy (Figure 1). These include the presence of granulomas, decreased goblet cells, or absent/reduced plasma cells in the lamina propria, which can be suggestive of Crohn’s disease, autoimmune enteropathy, or common variable immunodeficiency, respectively. When possible, experienced pathologists should review previous patient biopsies to compare disease progression or improvement of histologic findings. Of note, patients who present with increased intraepithelial lymphocytes (IELs) and normal villi only should not be considered to have seronegative CeD or a seronegative enteropathy, as villous atrophy must be present.

**Evaluation for Celiac Disease**

Seronegative CeD is the most common etiology of seronegative enteropathy. It represents up to one-third of cases in White patients and, therefore, it should be considered early in the diagnostic workup. The definition for seronegative CeD is inconsistent in the literature. Some authors describe patients with IgA deficiency and positive IgG-based antibodies as having seronegative CeD, and others do not. Confusing the matter further, patients with only subtle duodenal findings, rather than villous atrophy, might be described as having seronegative CeD. Here, we define seronegative CeD as patients with or without gastrointestinal signs and symptoms of CeD in the presence of villous atrophy and compatible HLA genetics, and without IgA/IgG tTG and IgA/IgG DGP and IgA/IgG EMA antibodies, who show clinical and histologic response to the GFD and for whom other etiologies have been examined. It comprises approximately 1.7%–5% of patients with CeD. We discuss the approach to using serology, HLA genetics, and GFD in determining whether seronegative CeD is the underlying etiology of seronegative enteropathy.

**Serology**

Serology is a crucial component in the diagnosis of CeD. Measuring serum total IgA and IgA tTG is recommended as the first step for patients suspected of having CeD, and detection of IgA EMA and/or IgA DGP might be indicated in specific cases. Although discrepancy between these antibodies is common clinically, true seronegative CeD requires all IgA antibodies to present as negative. It is important to obtain or review serum total IgA levels in patients with possible seronegative CeD as selective or partial IgA deficiency occurs 10–15 times more frequently in patients with CeD compared with healthy controls. If IgA deficiency is identified, patients should undergo serum IgG-based testing with IgG tTG and IgG DGP, and IgG EMA. If IgG-based testing for CeD is positive and villous atrophy is present, a diagnosis of selective IgA deficiency associated with CeD, rather than seronegative enteropathy, should be made in the
Figure 1. Approach to the patient with seronegative villous atrophy.
appropriate clinical setting inclusive of clinical and histologic response to the GFD. Furthermore, it is essential to determine whether a patient has reduced or eliminated gluten or is on immunosuppressive therapy for another condition before testing, as serology results might be falsely negative.6

**HLA Genetics**

In cases of suspected seronegative CeD, genetic testing should be performed to determine whether the patient carries an HLA genotype (DQ2 or DQ8) that is compatible with developing CeD. It is well described that up to 30% of the population can carry 1 or both of these genes, and yet only 2%–3% of these genetically at-risk individuals will develop CeD during their lifetime.23 HLA testing is most helpful for patients if results are negative, as this excludes the possibility of seronegative CeD as a diagnosis. However, compatible genetics infer that the patient has a risk of developing CeD, but these results cannot stand alone as a diagnostic criterion. HLA genetic testing can be particularly useful in cases when seronegative enteropathy is present, the diagnostic workup for CeD is not complete, and the patient has already initiated a GFD and reports severe symptoms with gluten exposure.20 In this case, a negative result for HLA DQ2 and DQ8 would confirm that CeD is not present. This would prevent the patient from undergoing a gluten challenge, an unnecessary trial of the GFD, and further diagnostic workup for CeD. However, before confirming that HLA DQ2 and DQ8 are not present, results should be carefully interpreted. It is prudent that the gastroenterologist or CeD specialist review all alleles tested and reported (or obtain the alleles if not reported) by the laboratory because commercial and academic laboratories might not report all possible alleles associated with CeD. Therefore, clinicians should carefully evaluate for HLA DQ2.5 (DQA1*0501, DQB1*0201), HLA DQ8 (DQA1*0301, DQB1*0302), HLA DQ 2.2 (DQA1*0201, DQB1*0202) and HLA DQ7.5 (DQA1*05, DQB1*0301) and review whether half heterodimers, which are compatible with CeD, are present before determining that a patient is HLA-negative.24

There is a view that in the presence of a family history and a compatible HLA haplotype, mild enteropathy short of villus atrophy might be a form of CeD, even in the absence of serologies.25 However, given the uncertainty regarding the necessity of the GFD in this circumstance and the natural history of this condition, the optimal management of seronegative mild enteropathy in this context is unknown.

**Gluten-Free Diet**

Patients must not avoid gluten before diagnostic testing for CeD and reducing gluten should be discouraged because these practices will limit the accuracy of both serologic and histologic results. It is imperative to discuss the amount of gluten in the patient’s diet at the time of testing to determine whether the results are reliable. If gluten has been reduced or removed from the diet, additional or repeat testing should be completed after the patient consumes a regular diet that contains 1 to 3 slices of gluten-containing bread daily for 1 to 3 months to identify clinically meaningful end points.26,27

**Evaluation of Other Conditions**

There is a wide range of other conditions known to cause villous atrophy (Table 1). A thorough diagnostic workup, including a detailed medical history, should be considered to evaluate for and guide the diagnostic workup of other potential etiologies (Figure 1). Seronegative enteropathy has been linked to infectious etiologies, such as parasitic infections and human immunodeficiency virus;28 inflammatory conditions, such as Crohn’s disease and eosinophilic enteritis; immune-mediated etiologies, such as autoimmune enteropathy and common variable immunodeficiency;29 and iatrogenic causes, such as radiation enteritis or medications. Clinicians should pay particular attention to obtaining a thorough medication history to determine whether a patient is taking an angiotensin II receptor antagonist, such as olmesartan, which has been

---

**Table 1. Etiologies of Seronegative Villous Atrophy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Etiology</th>
<th>Immune-mediated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seronegative CeD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common variable immune deficiency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autoimmune enteropathy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intestinal lymphoma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarcoidosis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infectious</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parasitic infections (Giardia lamblia)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tropical sprue/environmental enteropathy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whipple disease</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small intestinal bacterial overgrowth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV enteropathy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**HLA Genes**

In cases of suspected seronegative CeD, genetic testing should be performed to determine whether the patient carries an HLA genotype (DQ2 or DQ8) that is compatible with developing CeD. It is well described that up to 30% of the population can carry 1 or both of these genes, and yet only 2%–3% of these genetically at-risk individuals will develop CeD during their lifetime. HLA testing is most helpful for patients if results are negative, as this excludes the possibility of seronegative CeD as a diagnosis. However, compatible genetics infer that the patient has a risk of developing CeD, but these results cannot stand alone as a diagnostic criterion. HLA genetic testing can be particularly useful in cases when seronegative enteropathy is present, the diagnostic workup for CeD is not complete, and the patient has already initiated a GFD and reports severe symptoms with gluten exposure. In this case, a negative result for HLA DQ2 and DQ8 would confirm that CeD is not present. This would prevent the patient from undergoing a gluten challenge, an unnecessary trial of the GFD, and further diagnostic workup for CeD. However, before confirming that HLA DQ2 and DQ8 are not present, results should be carefully interpreted. It is prudent that the gastroenterologist or CeD specialist review all alleles tested and reported (or obtain the alleles if not reported) by the laboratory because commercial and academic laboratories might not report all possible alleles associated with CeD. Therefore, clinicians should carefully evaluate for HLA DQ2.5 (DQA1*0501, DQB1*0201), HLA DQ8 (DQA1*0301, DQB1*0302), HLA DQ 2.2 (DQA1*0201, DQB1*0202) and HLA DQ7.5 (DQA1*05, DQB1*0301) and review whether half heterodimers, which are compatible with CeD, are present before determining that a patient is HLA-negative. There is a view that in the presence of a family history and a compatible HLA haplotype, mild enteropathy short of villus atrophy might be a form of CeD, even in the absence of serologies. However, given the uncertainty regarding the necessity of the GFD in this circumstance and the natural history of this condition, the optimal management of seronegative mild enteropathy in this context is unknown.

**Gluten-Free Diet**

Patients must not avoid gluten before diagnostic testing for CeD and reducing gluten should be discouraged because these practices will limit the accuracy of both serologic and histologic results. It is imperative to discuss the amount of gluten in the patient’s diet at the time of testing to determine whether the results are reliable. If gluten has been reduced or removed from the diet, additional or repeat testing should be completed after the patient consumes a regular diet that contains 1 to 3 slices of gluten-containing bread daily for 1 to 3 months to identify clinically meaningful end points.

**Evaluation of Other Conditions**

There is a wide range of other conditions known to cause villous atrophy (Table 1). A thorough diagnostic workup, including a detailed medical history, should be considered to evaluate for and guide the diagnostic workup of other potential etiologies (Figure 1). Seronegative enteropathy has been linked to infectious etiologies, such as parasitic infections and human immunodeficiency virus; inflammatory conditions, such as Crohn’s disease and eosinophilic enteritis; immune-mediated etiologies, such as autoimmune enteropathy and common variable immunodeficiency; and iatrogenic causes, such as radiation enteritis or medications. Clinicians should pay particular attention to obtaining a thorough medication history to determine whether a patient is taking an angiotensin II receptor antagonist, such as olmesartan, which has been
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Pertinent history</th>
<th>Histology findings</th>
<th>Other tests</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Giardiasis</td>
<td>Diarrhea, abdominal pain, weight loss</td>
<td>Identification trophozoites on villi</td>
<td>PCR from duodenal aspirate, positive stool specific immunoassay</td>
<td>Metronidazole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tropical sprue</td>
<td>Travel to endemic areas, vitamin B-12 and folate deficiency</td>
<td>Increased plasma cells and eosinophils in LP, changes in duodenum, jejunum, and ileum</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Tetracycline or doxycycline + folic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collagenous sprue</td>
<td>Diarrhea, abdominal pain, weight loss</td>
<td>Subepithelial collagen deposition</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>GFD with or without immunosuppression (budesonide, prednisone, azathioprine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVID</td>
<td>Onset after age 2 y, poor response to vaccines, recurrent infections, persistent diarrhea</td>
<td>Absence of plasma cells, polymorphonuclear infiltrate</td>
<td>IgG &lt; 5 g/L + low IgA or IgM</td>
<td>Budesonide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autoimmune enteropathy</td>
<td>Intractable diarrhea and weight loss</td>
<td>Few IELs, lymphoplasmacytic infiltrate in LP, decreased goblet cells, neutrophilic cryptitis</td>
<td>Anti-enterocyte antibody</td>
<td>Immunosuppression (eg, steroids, azathioprine, infliximab)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intestinal lymphoma</td>
<td>Diarrhea, abdominal pain, fever, weight loss, bleeding, signs of obstruction, perforation</td>
<td>Monoclonal population of T cells</td>
<td>Inflammatory markers, CT scan, capsule endoscopy, PET scan</td>
<td>Hematology consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIBO</td>
<td>Anatomical abnormalities, poor motility, other predisposing conditions</td>
<td>Increased IELs and neutrophils, increased plasma cells in LP</td>
<td>H₂-glucose breath test, duodenal aspirate</td>
<td>Antibiotics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crohn’s disease</td>
<td>Bloody diarrhea, fever, weight loss</td>
<td>Aphthous ulceration, skip lesions, granulomas</td>
<td>Elevated ESR, CRP</td>
<td>Immunosuppression, biologic agents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eosinophilic gastroenteritis</td>
<td>Multiple allergies, atopy</td>
<td>Massive eosinophilic infiltration</td>
<td>Peripheral hyper eosinophilia</td>
<td>dietary therapy, glucocorticoids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV enteropathy</td>
<td>Presence of opportunistic infections</td>
<td>Decrease CD4⁺ T lymphocytes, increase in CD8⁺ T lymphocytes</td>
<td>HIV antibody test</td>
<td>Antiretroviral therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
<td>Cough, ascites, night sweats</td>
<td>Granulomatous disease</td>
<td>Interferon-gamma release assay, CT, ascitic fluid analysis</td>
<td>Anti-tuberculous therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whipple disease</td>
<td>Joint inflammation, hyperpigmentation of sun exposed skin</td>
<td>PAS⁺ macrophagic infiltration of the lamina propria</td>
<td>Positive PCR for Tropheryma whipplei</td>
<td>Ceftriaxone or penicillin G then TMP-SMX hydroxychloroquine and doxycycline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiation enteropathy</td>
<td>History of radiotherapy</td>
<td>Lamina propria fibrosis</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graft vs host disease</td>
<td>Diarrhea, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, anorexia, PMH of bone marrow transplantation</td>
<td>Crypt cell necrosis, loss of epithelium</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Prednisone or budesonide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CRP, C-reactive protein; CT, computed tomography; CVID, common variable immune deficiency; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; LP, lamina propria; PAS⁺, periodic acid-Schiff positive; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PET, positron emission tomography; PMH, past medical history; SIBO, small intestinal bacterial overgrowth; TMP-SMX, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole.
described as causing enteropathy. In some cases, this has led patients to be incorrectly diagnosed with refractory CeD. Other medications, including azathioprine and mycophenolate mofetil, among others, have also been reported to cause enteropathy, which resolves with discontinuation of the medication.

Conducting a detailed travel history is also necessary to identify risk factors associated with tropical sprue or Giardia, as these factors warrant additional testing. In addition, assessment of symptoms such as fever, bloody diarrhea, and weight loss might suggest Crohn’s disease or a lymphoproliferative disorder, and signs such as a low total IgG, IgA, and IgM might suggest common variable immune deficiency. In these cases, the role of additional testing, such as computed tomography enterography, capsule endoscopy, and colonoscopy should be considered. Finally, in some cases, no definitive etiology can be identified. These cases of idiopathic villous atrophy can be categorized further, based on clinical, histologic, and genetic characteristics, as due to transient conditions, such as infection; immune-driven conditions; or lymphoproliferative disorders. A complete list of conditions other than seronegative CeD and the characteristic histologic features, associated tests, and treatments are described in Table 2.

Management and Treatment of Seronegative Enteropathy

Seronegative Celiac Disease

Once a diagnosis of seronegative CeD has been confirmed, patients should meet with a dietitian to learn about the GFD frequently in the first year to ensure they have an adequate understanding of the GFD. Thereafter, annual meetings with a dietitian should be scheduled for follow-up care. Because serologic markers cannot be used for follow-up in the case of seronegative CeD, clinical and histologic improvements on a GFD are required to ultimately confirm the diagnosis of seronegative CeD. Duodenal biopsies should be obtained during esophagogastroduodenoscopy in the same manner as we described. Histology should be reviewed by a gastrointestinal pathologist to compare the initial and follow-up biopsies and comment on whether improvement or resolution has occurred. The timing of the follow-up biopsy will depend on the patient’s clinical status and adherence to the GFD, but it can occur approximately 12 months after diagnosis or sooner in those with severe illness. Patients should meet with a dietitian before a repeat endoscopy is performed to ensure they are following the GFD correctly. If seronegative CeD is suspected but the patient does not respond to the GFD, clinicians should consider referring the patient to a CeD center for consideration, workup, and treatment of refractory CeD. Refractory CeD can be a complication of CeD or seronegative CeD. Patients might or might not have positive serology and therefore whether it is classified as a seronegative enteropathy is dependent on the clinical case. If refractory type 2 CeD is considered a possibility, flow cytometry and T-cell gene rearrangement studies should be performed. Clinicians should consider the open capsule budesonide protocol, starting at 9 mg daily, be used as a first-line treatment for refractory CeD. The length of the treatment course will depend on the patient’s symptoms, and budesonide should be tapered slowly during a 9-month period. Alternative medications to consider include prednisone and azathioprine, among others, pending the patient’s clinical status and treatment response.

Other Etiologies of Seronegative Enteropathy

Patients who have identified etiology of seronegative enteropathy should be treated accordingly (Table 2). In cases where an underlying cause was identified, a follow-up esophagogastroduodenoscopy with biopsy might not be indicated, according to the etiology identified, treatment, and clinical status. In other cases, no underlying etiology may be identified. For example, in a study of 200 cases of seronegative villous atrophy, Aziz et al found that they were unable to identify an underlying etiology in 18% of cases. However, 72% of these idiopathic cases had resolution of villous atrophy without intervention 9 months after the initial biopsy, suggesting a transient atrophy. Based on this, for patients who are stable and for whom the etiology of seronegative enteropathy cannot be determined, repeating an endoscopy after a period of time without intervention can be considered. Ultimately, follow-up endoscopy and the timing at which it is performed should be determined in response to the patient’s underlying etiology, treatment, and clinical condition. In other cases, patients with seronegative enteropathy for which no etiology has been identified might be clinically unstable. In these cases, clinicians might consider budesonide, starting at 9 mg daily, as a first-line treatment followed by prednisone or azathioprine, based on the patient’s clinical status and response to treatment.

Conclusions

Seronegative enteropathy is a histologic finding that can be identified in accordance with a wide range of etiologies. In cases where seronegative enteropathy is suspected, it is of utmost importance that an expert pathologist reviews the biopsies to determine and confirm whether enteropathy is present. A thorough medical history with careful attention to medication and travel history is necessary to determine possible causes of seronegative enteropathy, as distinct treatment is available. Seronegative CeD is the most common cause of seronegative enteropathy. However, diagnosis can be complicated by misinterpretation of histologic findings, insufficient serologic testing, IgA deficiency, and initiation of the GFD before testing is complete. Confirmation of seronegative CeD requires compatible HLA genetics, clinical improvement on a GFD, and a follow-up endoscopy with biopsy to ensure mucosal improvement after sufficient time on a GFD.
References

