

# World Journal of *Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*

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## Novel risk markers for gastric cancer screening: Present status and future prospects

Shotaro Enomoto, Takao Maekita, Hiroshi Ohata, Kimihiko Yanaoka, Masashi Oka, Masao Ichinose

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### Abstract

Initial identification of populations at high risk of gastric cancer (GC) is important for endoscopic screening of GC. As serum pepsinogen (PG) test-positive subjects with progression of chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG) show a high likelihood of future cancer development, this population warrants careful follow-up observation as a high-risk GC group. By combining the PG test with *Helicobacter pylori* (HP) antibody titers, the HP-related chronic gastritis stage can be classified, thus identifying not only a GC high-risk group but also a low-risk group. Among PG test-negative patients without CAG, those with high serum PG II levels and HP antibody titers are thought to have severe gastric mucosal inflammation and the risk of diffuse-type GC is also high. Meanwhile, in gastric mucosae obtained by endoscopic biopsy, HP infection induces aberrant DNA methylation in CpG islands in multiple gene regions and the extent of methylation clearly correlates with GC risk. By quantifying aberrant DNA methylation in suitable gene markers, we can determine the extent of the epigenetic field for cancerization. These novel concepts and risk markers will have many clinical applications in gastrointestinal endoscopy, including more efficient en-

doscopic GC screening and a strategic approach to metachronous multiple GCs after endoscopic treatment.

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### INTRODUCTION

Owing to the recent advances in minimally invasive and radical endoscopic treatments including endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) and endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD), early gastric cancers (GCs) have been endoscopically resected, especially in Japan<sup>[1-3]</sup>. Following advances in new endoscopic treatment, early detection and accurate diagnosis of GC has been increasing in importance. In particular, advances in endoscopic equipment and developments in endoscopic image enhancement technology have greatly contributed to improved diagnosis for early GC<sup>[4-6]</sup>. Furthermore, identifying which populations are at high risk for GC plays a key role in endoscopic GC diagnosis. This not only assists in endoscopic diagnosis but can also contribute greatly to other aspects of endoscopic management of GC, including the current problem of identifying populations who should be targeted for GC



Table 1 Comparison of accuracy of gastric cancer detection by each serum pepsinogen test index

Serum PG test	Our results <sup>[25]</sup>		Meta-analysis of reported cases <sup>[26]</sup>	
	Sensitivity (95% CI)	Specificity (95% CI)	Pooled sensitivity (95% CI)	Pooled specificity (95% CI)
PG I $\leq$ 70 and PG I / II $\leq$ 3 (PG index 1+)	58.70% (45.6-70.8)	73.40% (72.1-74.6)	77.30% (69.8-83.8)	73.20% (72.8-73.6)
PG I $\leq$ 50 and PG I / II $\leq$ 3 (PG index 2+)	49.20% (36.5-62.0)	80.50% (79.4-81.6)	68.40% (59.1-76.8)	69.30% (66.6-70.0)
PG I $\leq$ 30 and PG I / II $\leq$ 2 (PG index 3+)	27.00% (16.9-39.9)	92.00% (91.3-92.8)	51.90% (40.3-63.5)	84.40% (83.7-85.0)

PG: pepsinogen.

screening<sup>[7]</sup> and strategic approaches to metachronous multiple GC after EMR or ESD<sup>[8]</sup>.

*Helicobacter pylori* (HP) infection is a major risk factor in GC development<sup>[9]</sup>. However, in countries like Japan with high HP infection rates, the existence of HP infection alone offers inadequate specificity for the assessment of GC risk. Novel risk markers to identify GC high-risk groups based on a detailed natural history of GC have thus long been awaited. In this paper, we discuss the emerging significance of serum pepsinogen (PG) as a GC risk marker for more precise identification of GC high-risk groups. We also discuss our research on DNA methylation in gastric mucosae obtained at endoscopic biopsy as a molecular biological marker to evaluate GC risk.

## SERUM PG TEST FOR IDENTIFICATION OF GC HIGH-RISK GROUPS

### Theoretical considerations of the serum PG test

PG is the inactive precursor of pepsin, a gastrointestinal enzyme specifically produced in the gastric mucosae<sup>[10]</sup>. PG is mainly excreted into the stomach lumen but about 1% of the total enters into the blood stream and is measurable as serum PG. Changes in serum PG levels reflect gastric mucosal morphology and exocrine function<sup>[11,12]</sup>. In an endoscopic study with Congo red staining, an increase in glandular boundary, associated with diagnosed progression of gastric mucosal atrophy, correlated strongly with stepwise reductions in serum PG I levels and the PG I / II ratio<sup>[13]</sup>. In other words, measuring serum PG I and the PG I / II ratio offers the opportunity to evaluate the progression of chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG), a precursor of GC<sup>[14]</sup>.

As criteria for the serum PG test used for GC screening, the combination of PG I  $\leq$  70 ng/mL and PG I / II  $\leq$  3.0 is widely accepted as a reference value (PG index 1+)<sup>[14,15]</sup>. Low values based on this reference are considered PG test-positive. In addition, to identify more severe CAG progression, criteria of PG I  $\leq$  50 ng/mL and PG I / II  $\leq$  3.0 (PG index 2+), and PG I  $\leq$  30 ng/mL and PG I / II  $\leq$  2.0 (PG index 3+) are also used. Since 1992, when PG assay kits became commercially available, a number of screening services provided by work place or community health services have adopted this serum test as a filter test<sup>[16-22]</sup>.

### Accuracy of GC detection using the serum PG test

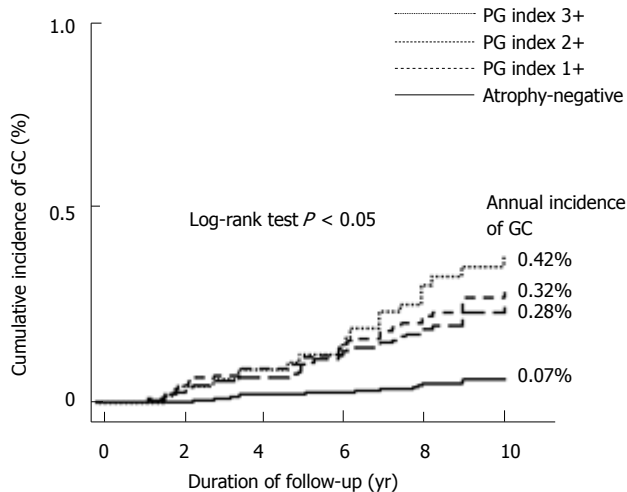
We conducted a 10 year follow-up observation study

of GC occurrence in a cohort of middle-aged healthy men<sup>[23-25]</sup>. Based on the results, we evaluated the accuracy of each serum PG test index for detecting GC during the observation period<sup>[25]</sup>. Table 1 summarizes the accuracy for each PG test index. For the most lenient criteria (PG index 1+), sensitivity was 58.7%, specificity was 73.4% and positive predictive value was 2.6%. Overall, the results showed obviously low sensitivity. Compared to a recently reported meta-analysis of PG test sensitivity<sup>[26]</sup>, these results were clearly poor, particularly in terms of low sensitivity.

One interpretation of these results is that some GCs are easier to detect by barium X-ray and some GCs are easier to detect by the serum PG test<sup>[22]</sup>. In the above-mentioned meta-analysis, many of the reviewed reports were studies of populations in whom GC was diagnosed over a long period by barium X-rays. Targeting a population with a concentration of GC cases difficult to detect by barium X-ray, or in other words, GC easy to detect by the serum PG test, these studies analyzed results of GC detection just after introduction of the serum PG test and over a short period. On the other hand, in our study, GC cases just after introduction of the serum PG test were excluded and follow-up was continued over a period of 10 years. The results of detecting GC occurring during the observation period were thus examined more rigorously, better depicting the accuracy of GC detection using the serum PG test. Based on these results, the serum PG test has limitations when used alone for GC screening. This shows the need for more in-depth systematic screening, including in PG test-negative GC.

### GC risk diagnosis using the serum PG test

Previous studies have examined the accuracy of serum PG as a filter test for endoscopy. Recently, as part of an investigation into the natural history of GC occurrence, we examined GC risk in each population identified using each serum PG test index<sup>[25]</sup>. The annual incidence of GC was 0.07% in the atrophy-negative group, compared to 0.28% in the atrophy-positive (PG index 1+) group, 0.32% in the PG index 2+ group and 0.42% in the PG index 3+ group. The incidence of GC thus increased in a stepwise and significant manner with CAG progression (Figure 1). These results clearly indicate that PG test-positive subjects are a high-risk GC group, have a higher future likelihood of developing GC and represent a population requiring careful follow-up observation.



**Figure 1** Kaplan-Meier analysis of gastric cancer development in subjects classified using the index of the pepsinogen test (modified from Yanaoka *et al.*<sup>[25]</sup>). This shows the annual incidence of gastric cancer (GC) in each population identified based on serum pepsinogen test index criteria in middle-aged healthy men. With chronic atrophic gastritis progression, incidence of GC increased in a stepwise and significant manner. PG: pepsinogen.

#### Identification of GC high-risk groups using a combination of the serum PG test and HP infection diagnosis

Next, in the same populations, the relationship between HP infection, a major cause of chronic gastritis, and GC risk was also examined<sup>[23,24]</sup>. To diagnose HP infection, we used anti-HP antibody titers which, like serum PG, are easily measured using blood samples. The stage of HP-related chronic gastritis was classified into 4 stages based on the combination of both test results: Group A [HP(-), PG(-)]; Group B [HP(+), PG(-)]; Group C [HP(+), PG(+)]; and Group D [HP(-), PG(+)] (Figure 2). Group A comprised of HP non-infected healthy men. Group B showed established HP infection but without CAG. Group C had CAG. Group D had severe intestinal metaplasia due to progression of CAG but HP had been spontaneously eliminated, representing so-called metaplastic gastritis. Annual incidences of GC were: Group A, 0%; Group B, 0.11%; Group C, 0.24%; and Group D, 1.31%. Thus, with HP infection and CAG progression, the rate increased in a stepwise and significant manner. Moreover, in the non-infected healthy Group A, GC did not occur in a single case during 10 years of follow-up observation. Based on the above results, using a combination of the serum PG test and HP infection diagnosis, not only high-risk groups, but also a low-risk group, can theoretically be identified.

#### Points to consider in the serum PG test-negative GC

The serum PG test is highly useful as a GC risk marker but the occurrence of GC (particularly diffuse-type GC) in the PG test-negative group (Group B in HP-related chronic gastritis stage) cannot be ignored. In our study, even using the most balanced PG test criteria in terms of test accuracy (PG index 1+), about 40% of GCs that occurred represented PG test-negative GC. This point

must be clearly kept in mind when assessing GC risk using the serum PG test.

We therefore evaluated the occurrence of GC in the PG test-negative group in further detail. Specifically, we examined the incidence of GC in 3 PG test-negative subgroups:  $\alpha$  group (PG I  $\leq$  70 ng/mL and PG I / II  $>$  3);  $\beta$  group (PG I  $>$  70 ng/mL and PG I / II  $>$  3); and  $\gamma$  group (PG I  $>$  70 ng/mL and PG I / II  $\leq$  3). In the  $\gamma$  group, with a higher serum PG II and presumably severe gastric mucosal inflammation, the incidence of GC was 0.2%, thus identifying a new GC high-risk group mainly at risk of developing diffuse-type GC<sup>[25]</sup>. The rate in the  $\gamma$  group, although not high among the serum PG test-negative group, does indicate a subgroup to which careful attention should be paid. In addition, the group with high HP antibody titers (a marker which, like serum PG II levels, reflects the degree of gastric mucosal inflammation) had a higher incidence of GC compared to a group with lower titers<sup>[24]</sup>. Furthermore, in this group, HP eradication therapy can be highly effective in preventing GC<sup>[27]</sup>.




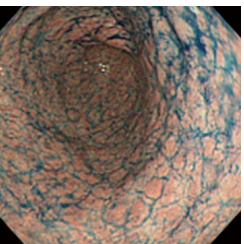
## ABERRANT DNA METHYLATION AND GC RISK

### Aberrant DNA methylation in cancers

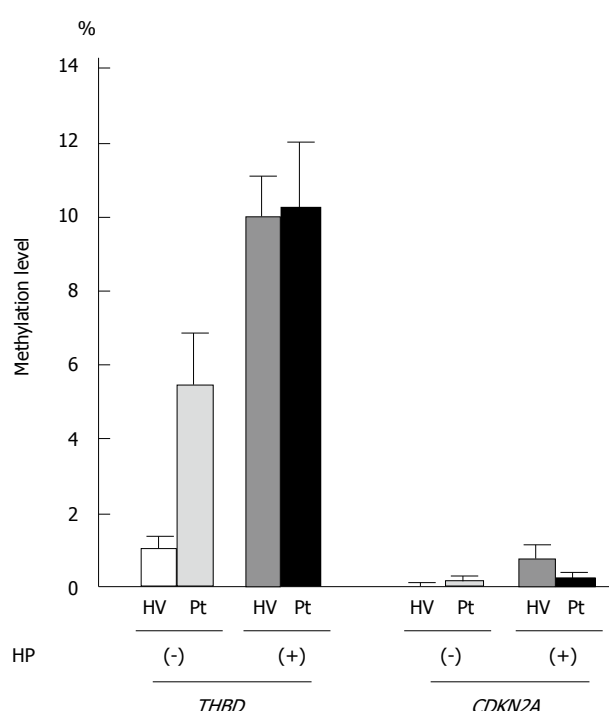
Epigenetic abnormalities are also important as cancer gene abnormalities in addition to gene structural abnormalities such as mutations and chromosomal deletions. DNA methylation represents one type of epigenetic information. DNA methylation occurs physiologically and is observed at CpG sites where cytosine (C) is located adjacent to guanine (G) in gene sequences. CpG sites occur with low frequency in the genome but areas with a high density of CpG sites are occasionally encountered as so-called CpG islands (CGIs). When a CGI is in a gene promoter region and is entirely methylated, transcription of downstream genes to mRNA is potently inhibited (silencing). DNA methylation together with mutations and chromosomal deletions is a major factor in gene inactivation in many cancers<sup>[28-31]</sup>.

In cancer cells, compared to normal cells, genome-overall hypomethylation and regional hypermethylation are observed. Genome-overall hypomethylation is involved in carcinogenesis by causing chromosomal instability<sup>[32]</sup>. Regional hypermethylation refers to aberrant methylation of a specific CGI that is normally unmethylated. If hypermethylation is induced in a promoter region CGI of a tumor suppressor gene, gene inactivation occurs. This causes cell cycle abnormalities, growth signaling abnormalities and mutation accumulation, thus playing a role in cancer onset and progression.

In gastrointestinal cancers, including GC, silencing of several important tumor suppressor genes has been reported. In particular, in GC, inactivation of *CDKN2A*, *MLH1* and *CDH1* due to methylation is more frequent than inactivation due mutations or chromosomal deletions<sup>[33]</sup>.

HP-related chronic gastritis staging	Group A HP (-), PG (-)	Group B HP (+), PG (-)	Group C HP (+), PG (+)	Group D HP (-), PG (+)
				
Ratio to total population	20%	50%	30%	0.7%
Annual incidence of gastric cancer	0%	Approximately 0.1%	Approximately 0.25%	Approximately 1%

**Figure 2 Gastric cancer incidence and *Helicobacter pylori*-related chronic gastritis stage classification based on a combination of the serum pepsinogen test and *helicobacter pylori*-infection diagnosis (modified from Ohata *et al*<sup>[23]</sup>).** This shows percentages in each group, among middle-aged healthy men, based on the serum pepsinogen test and *Helicobacter pylori* (HP) antibody titers. As HP-related chronic gastritis stage progressed from Group A to Group D, annual incidence of gastric cancer increased in a stepwise and significant manner. PG: pepsinogen.



**Figure 3 Relationship between gastric mucosae methylation levels and *Helicobacter pylori* infection/gastric cancer (modified from Maekita *et al*<sup>[34]</sup>).** This shows mean methylation levels for the *THBD* and *CDKN2A* genes as measured by quantitative methylation-specific PCR in endoscopically biopsied gastric mucosae. Among *Helicobacter pylori* (HP)-negative cases, non-cancerous gastric mucosae in gastric cancer (GC) patients showed higher methylation levels than gastric mucosa in healthy volunteers. Among HP-positive cases, methylation levels were high regardless of the presence or absence of GC. Methylation susceptibility differed among genes. Compared to *THBD*, *CDKN2A* showed very little induction of methylation. The error bar denotes standard error. HV: healthy volunteers; Pt: patients.

### Induction of aberrant DNA methylation in non-cancerous gastric mucosae by HP infection

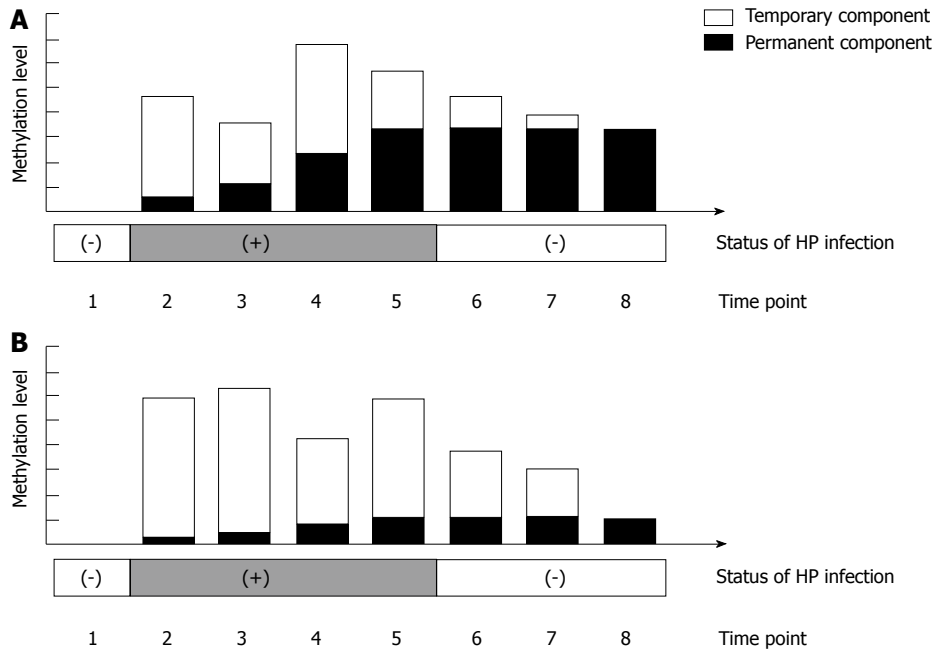
Aberrant DNA methylation is important in GC but the mechanisms of induction have remained unknown. Using gastric mucosae obtained by endoscopic biopsy from both HP-positive healthy volunteers (individuals without GC) and HP-negative healthy volunteers, we used quantitative methylation-specific PCR (qMSP) to measure the per-

centage of DNA molecules with aberrant methylation (methylation level, reflecting the percentage of cells with aberrant methylation)<sup>[34]</sup>. As genes for analysis, we selected CGIs from 8 regions of 7 genes found to be methylated at high frequency in GC<sup>[35]</sup>. All of the eight regions showed a similar tendency in terms of methylation levels. Among healthy volunteers, methylation levels were 5.4- to 303-fold higher in HP-positive individuals than HP-negative individuals. This suggests that HP infection can potentially induce aberrant DNA methylation.

### Accumulation of aberrant DNA methylation in gastric mucosa and GC risk

In addition, to correlate the extent of aberrant DNA methylation in the gastric mucosae with GC risk, we analyzed gastric mucosae in healthy volunteers and non-cancerous gastric mucosae in patients with well-differentiated GC. In a comparison among HP-negative cases, methylation levels were 2- to 32-fold higher in non-cancerous gastric mucosae of GC patients than in gastric mucosae of healthy volunteers. We also newly collected non-cancerous gastric mucosae of patients with a single GC and those with multiple GCs and compared methylation levels in the gastric mucosae of patients with multiple GC (very high risk of GC) and patients with single GC. In HP-negative cases, specific gene methylation levels were increased in the order of healthy individual gastric mucosae → single GC patient non-cancerous gastric mucosae → multiple GC patient non-cancerous gastric mucosae<sup>[36]</sup>. These findings suggested a correlation between gastric mucosae methylation levels and GC risk in HP-negative cases. However, in HP-positive cases, both GC patients and healthy individuals showed potent induction of aberrant DNA methylation with almost no difference in methylation levels.

When evaluated by each gene, mean methylation levels for the tumor suppressor genes *CDKN2A* and *MLH1* were very low, so evaluating the correlation with GC risk was difficult (Figure 3)<sup>[34,37]</sup>. However, *LOX*, a tumor suppressor gene, showed relatively high methylation levels. Similarly, the microRNA gene, with tumor suppressor activity, also showed high methylation



**Figure 4** Temporary DNA methylation and permanent DNA methylation of gastric mucosae. DNA methylation includes temporary methylation, which is induced only during *Helicobacter pylori* (HP) infection, and permanent methylation, which persists even after elimination of HP infection. From time points 2 to 5, when HP infection was positive, overall methylation levels changed, with increases in permanent methylation, and increases and decreases in temporary methylation. At this stage, temporary methylation showed large fluctuations, so distinguishing differences in gastric cancer (GC) risk between cases was difficult. However, after spontaneous elimination of HP or HP eradication, at time point 8, at which time only permanent DNA methylation was present, GC risk was clearly higher in Figure 4A.

levels<sup>[38]</sup>. Methylation of non-tumor suppressor genes like *THBD* was observed in a relatively large number of cells. These levels correlated with GC risk (Figure 3). Genes methylated by HP infection show specificity. With HP infection, resistant genes show no methylation at all while susceptible genes display a high frequency of methylation<sup>[39]</sup>. Important in this mechanism is a lower expression of methylation-susceptible genes in the gastric mucosae of healthy individuals<sup>[39,40]</sup>. Thus, with HP infection, gene-specific regional hypermethylation occurs in non-cancerous gastric mucosa. Furthermore, recent study showed that regional (Alu and Sat) hypomethylation is induced in gastric mucosae by HP infection during gastric carcinogenesis<sup>[41]</sup>.

#### DNA methylation levels after spontaneous elimination and eradication of HP infection

As most patients with intestinal-type GC have a past history of HP infection<sup>[42]</sup>, the following changes in methylation levels are postulated to occur in the natural history of GC development. Firstly, methylation levels in the gastric mucosae are low in HP-non-infected individuals (near 0%). Secondly, with HP infection, DNA methylation of the gastric mucosae is potently induced. Thirdly, with progression of atrophic gastritis, spontaneous elimination of HP infection decreases methylation levels (Figure 4).

In addition, decreased methylation levels after HP eradication have been confirmed in specific genes and different kinetics for each gene have been shown<sup>[43,44]</sup>. Once methylation has occurred in a cell, it is difficult to conceive that demethylation would again occur in the same region. The decrease in methylation levels observed after HP eradication is thus probably due to cell turnover (temporary methylation). Residual aberrant methylation even after eradication is thought to reflect methylation in gastric gland stem cells (permanent methylation).

#### Advantages of DNA methylation as a marker of a field for cancerization

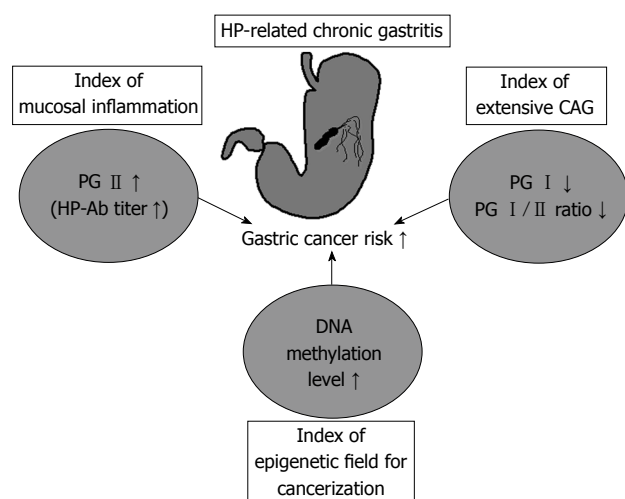
Individuals with low residual methylation levels (permanent methylation levels) after HP elimination or eradication have a low risk of GC. Conversely, those with high levels have a higher risk of GC (Figure 4). Using methylation-susceptible genes like *THBD* that are easily methylated at high frequency by HP infection, the GC risk in patients with high methylation levels is 2- to 3-fold higher than that in patients with low methylation levels, if appropriate cut-off values are established. Moreover, in the case of recently discovered genes such as *miR124a-1*, -2 and -3, the GC risk is 5- to 20-fold higher<sup>[38]</sup>.

Aberrant DNA methylation of the gastric mucosae has been strongly suggested to play an important role in the formation of an epigenetic field for cancerization, as the so-called epigenetic field defect<sup>[38,45,46]</sup>. These have similarly been found for esophageal cancer<sup>[47]</sup>, colon cancer<sup>[48]</sup>, hepatocellular carcinoma<sup>[49]</sup> and renal cancer<sup>[50]</sup>. Specific clinical applications of an epigenetic field for cancerization include measurement of methylation levels after HP eradication in healthy individuals to predict the risk of GC and measurement of methylation levels in patients who have undergone endoscopic treatment such as ESD to predict the risk of metachronous multiple GC. Large-scale prospective clinical trials are currently underway to confirm these concepts.

#### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have discussed identifying groups at high risk of developing GC using the serum PG test and predicting GC risk based on the accumulation of aberrant DNA methylation in the gastric mucosae from endoscopically biopsied tissue (Figure 5). Gastrointestinal endoscopists are aiming to improve diagnostic and treatment





**Figure 5** Schematic presentation of novel risk markers for gastric cancer screening. HP: *Helicobacter pylori*; CAG: chronic atrophic gastritis; PG: pepsinogen.

technology in GC but at the same time, as discussed in this paper, a thorough awareness of new concepts and risk markers of GC is also important. This is anticipated to have clinical applications such as in more effective endoscopic GC screening, and in establishing appropriate follow-up intervals for endoscopy based on individual GC risk.

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## Gastroesophageal reflux disease: Important considerations for the older patients

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### Abstract

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) is the most common upper gastrointestinal disorder seen in the elderly. The worldwide incidence of GERD is increasing as the incidence of *Helicobacter pylori* is decreasing. Although elderly patients with GERD have fewer symptoms, their disease is more often severe. They have more esophageal and extraesophageal complications that may be potentially life threatening. Esophageal complications include erosive esophagitis, esophageal stricture, Barrett's esophagus and adenocarcinoma of the esophagus. Extraesophageal complications include atypical chest pain that can simulate angina pectoris; ear, nose, and throat manifestations such as globus sensation, laryngitis, and dental problems; pulmonary problems such as chronic cough, asthma, and pulmonary aspiration. A more aggressive approach may be warranted in the elderly patient, because of the higher incidence of severe complications. Although the evaluation and management of GERD are generally the same in elderly patients as for all adults, there are specific issues of causation, evaluation and treatment that must be considered when dealing with the elderly.

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**Key words:** Gastroesophageal reflux disease; Older patient; Elderly

### INTRODUCTION

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) is the most common upper gastrointestinal disorder encountered in the elderly patient. It is highly prevalent worldwide with a prevalence of 10%-20% in the western world<sup>[1-4]</sup>. It is estimated that GERD affects 18.6 million people in the United States<sup>[5,6]</sup>. The prevalence of weekly symptoms has increased to an annual rate of approximately 5% in North America<sup>[4]</sup>. In the US adult population, 10%-20% of people have symptoms at least once weekly and 15%-40% of people have symptoms at least once monthly<sup>[4]</sup>. Among adult patients with GERD who seek medical care, up to 20% have serious complications<sup>[7]</sup>. There has been an increasing incidence of GERD and its complications, including Barrett's esophagus and adenocarcinoma of the esophagus, throughout the world<sup>[8-9]</sup>. No causal relationship has been demonstrated between *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. Pylori*) infection and gastroesophageal reflux disease. In fact, there is an inverse relationship of the prevalence of GERD to that of *H. Pylori* infection<sup>[10-11]</sup>.

GERD has direct impact on quality of life, especially in the elderly. GERD patients reported a lower quality of life than unaffected individuals, especially in those with nighttime GERD<sup>[12]</sup>. In one study, 78% of GERD

patients reported nocturnal symptoms and 63% of those patients reported that sleep was negatively affected<sup>[13]</sup>.

GERD has a significant economic impact. In the US direct costs of medical consultations, testing and treatment total 9.3 billion dollars. In addition, indirect costs in the US of absenteeism and interference with job performance, which is termed presenteeism, total 75 billion dollars<sup>[14-15]</sup>.

Although there is a tendency to reduced symptom frequency of the usual complaints of heartburn and acid regurgitation in older patients, the frequency of GERD complications, such as erosive esophagitis, esophageal stricture, Barrett's esophagus, and esophageal cancer is significantly higher<sup>[6]</sup>. For example, Collen *et al* found an increase of esophagitis and Barrett's esophagus in patients over 60 years of age compared to those younger, 81% versus 47%<sup>[16]</sup>. Huang *et al*<sup>[17]</sup> found more severe gastroesophageal reflux and esophageal lesions in elderly patients, as compared to younger patients. Therefore, elderly patients with GERD are at greater risk than younger patients for developing serious complications of GERD.

## **PATHOGENESIS**

GERD is defined as symptoms or mucosal damage produced by the abnormal reflux of gastric contents into the esophagus<sup>[18]</sup>. A newer definition has been adopted which states that GERD is a condition that develops when reflux of gastric contents causes troublesome symptoms and/or complications<sup>[19]</sup>. The abnormalities that appear to play a pathogenic role in GERD tend to be more severe in the elderly patient and lead to the increased rate of GERD complications.

Injury to the esophagus is due to reflux of gastric acid and pepsin. However, duodenogastric reflux of bile may also cause esophageal injury<sup>[20]</sup>. The pathogenic abnormalities causing GERD include a defective antireflux barrier, abnormal esophageal clearance, reduced salivary production, altered esophageal mucosal resistance, and delayed gastric emptying.

The lower esophageal sphincter (LES) is the antireflux barrier<sup>[6]</sup>. GERD most often occurs as a result of transient LES relaxations (tLESRs), where the drop in LES pressure is not accompanied by swallowing. The tLESRs promote acid reflux and the constellation of GERD problems. Incompetence of the LES was shown by Huang *et al*<sup>[17]</sup> to be more prevalent in the elderly. Furthermore, multiple medications more frequently taken by the elderly for co-morbid illnesses, such as hypertension, cardiovascular disease, and pulmonary disease and depression are well known to decrease LES pressure. These include nitrates, calcium channel blockers, benzodiazepines, anticholinergic agents, and antidepressants. The frequency of hiatal hernia and the loss of the diaphragmatic "pinch" which impairs the function of the LES and the clearance of refluxed acid from the distal esophagus also appear to increase with age<sup>[21]</sup>.

Esophageal acid clearance is impaired in the elderly

due to disturbances of esophageal motility and saliva production. In elderly patients, there is a significant decrease in the amplitude of peristaltic contraction and an increase in the frequency of nonpropulsive and repetitive contractions compared to younger individuals, often referred to as presbyesophagus<sup>[21]</sup>. Salivary production slightly decreases with age and is associated with a significantly decreased salivary bicarbonate response to acid perfusion of the esophagus<sup>[22]</sup>. Many of the medications noted above taken by elderly patients adversely affect esophageal motility as well as the LES. Many diseases that can negatively affect esophageal motility appear with greater frequency with advancing age, such as Parkinson's disease, cerebrovascular disease, cardiovascular disease, pulmonary disease and diabetes mellitus.

Gastric dysmotility with delayed gastric emptying and duodenogastric reflux of bile plays a significant role in GERD pathogenesis in elderly patients and is an important consideration in elderly patients that poorly respond to acid reducing medication. Delayed gastric emptying and duodenogastric reflux may be a significant cause of non-erosive reflux disease (NERD) and non-ulcer dyspepsia (NUD). Many of the medications taken by elderly patients that adversely affect esophageal motility as well as the LES also negatively affect gastric dysmotility with delayed gastric emptying and duodenogastric reflux<sup>[20]</sup>.

Direct esophageal injury occurs more frequently in the elderly, because of medications given for co-morbid illnesses such as cardiovascular diseases, cerebrovascular disease, arthritis and osteoporosis that can directly injure the esophageal mucosa. These medications include nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), potassium tablets, iron supplements and bisphosphonates.

Reduced pain perception can increase the rate of GERD complications in the elderly, because acid injury can occur without the usual warning symptom significant heartburn and acid reflux symptoms<sup>[7]</sup>. Gastric acid secretion per se does not decrease with age alone. However, there is a decrease in esophageal pain perception with advancing age<sup>[21]</sup>. In addition, atrophic gastritis is more common in the elderly<sup>[23]</sup>. It may be associated with anti-parietal cell antibodies and pernicious anemia. *H. pylori* is also associated with decreased acid production and reduced acid reflux symptoms<sup>[10-11]</sup>.

Lifestyle factors can be associated with increased gastroesophageal reflux and more complications of GERD<sup>[7]</sup>. Tobacco smoking, caffeine, alcohol and fatty foods adversely affect GERD. Obesity, sedentary lifestyle and nocturnal gastroesophageal reflux are important mechanisms that are associated with more severe esophageal and extraesophageal complications of GERD in the elderly<sup>[12-13]</sup>. Obesity is a significant problem which increases acid reflux and thus increases GERD and its complications<sup>[24]</sup>. Nocturnal effects on GERD are reported by up to 78% of patients, with 75% of patients reporting that it negatively affects their ability to sleep<sup>[12]</sup>. Nocturnal gastroesophageal reflux and the recumbent, supine position remove the protective effect of gravity in GERD

**Table 1** Complications of gastroesophageal reflux disease**Esophageal**

Erosive esophagitis  
Esophageal stricture  
Barrett's esophagus  
Esophageal adenocarcinoma

**Extraesophageal**

Atypical noncardiac chest pain

**ENT complications**

Globus sensation  
Pharyngitis  
Sinusitis  
Otitis media  
Dental erosions  
Hoarseness  
Laryngitis  
Vocal cord granulomas  
Subglottic stenosis  
Laryngeal cancer

**Pulmonary complications**

Chronic cough  
Asthma  
Chronic bronchitis  
Pulmonary fibrosis  
Aspiration pneumonia  
Sleep apnea

ENT: ear, nose, and throat.

in the elderly patient<sup>[26-27]</sup>. Nocturnal GERD allows for more gastroesophageal reflux and further increases esophageal injury and GERD complications, especially in elderly patients who often spend more time in bed due to comorbid illness, such as dementia, Parkinson's disease, cerebrovascular disease, cardiovascular disease, pulmonary disease and diabetes mellitus.

The worldwide variation in incidence of GERD may be inversely related to the prevalence of *H. Pylori* infection<sup>[11]</sup>. Studies have found a negative association between the prevalence of *H. Pylori* infection and GERD that is more marked with the more virulent CagA strains<sup>[27]</sup>. Additionally, they have shown a negative association of *H. Pylori* status and the complications of GERD including Barrett's esophagus and esophageal adenocarcinoma<sup>[27]</sup>. A study by Labins revealed a possible protective effect of *H. Pylori* infection in the subgroup analysis of patients with severe esophagitis<sup>[10]</sup>. In a study from China, a stepwise relationship was found between increasing grade of esophagitis and decreasing prevalence of *H. Pylori*<sup>[28]</sup>. In a Swedish study, *H. Pylori* was found to be associated with a significantly decreased risk of adenocarcinoma of the esophagus<sup>[29]</sup>. A subgroup analysis showed that the negative association was only apparent for the CagA positive strains of *H. Pylori*.

## CLINICAL PRESENTATION

The most common symptoms of GERD are heartburn and acid regurgitation<sup>[30]</sup>. Other common symptoms include water brash, belching, and nausea. Important symptoms that herald more severe disease include dysphagia,

odynophagia, anemia, unexplained weight loss, and gastrointestinal bleeding<sup>[31]</sup>.

Heartburn is characterized by epigastric and retrosternal burning pain that may radiate to the neck, throat, and back. It often occurs after large meals, exercise, or reclining. Remarkably, the frequency of severe heartburn seems to decline with age, possibly due to a decrease in esophageal pain perception and atrophic gastritis. Dysphagia, difficulty in swallowing, is an important symptom that has been reported in 7% to 22% of the general population. In the frail elderly nursing home patient dysphagia is reported in 40% to 50% of patients<sup>[32]</sup>. When it occurs in response to both solids and liquids or more to liquids than solids, it may be related to esophageal dysmotility due to disease states more common in the elderly, such as Parkinson's disease, cerebrovascular disease, dementia and diabetes. However, when it occurs in response to solids more than liquids, it may be structural in nature and due to severe esophagitis, esophageal stricture or esophageal cancer.

Other important symptoms that signify more severe disease are odynophagia, anemia, unexplained weight loss, and gastrointestinal bleeding. These may signal problems such as severe esophagitis, esophageal ulcer, esophageal stricture, Barrett's esophagus or esophageal cancer.

Extrasophageal symptoms occur more commonly in the elderly. They include atypical chest pain that can simulate angina pectoris; ear, nose, and throat (ENT) manifestations such as globus sensation, laryngitis, and dental problems; pulmonary problems such as chronic cough, asthma, and pulmonary aspiration and sleep apnea<sup>[33]</sup>.

## COMPLICATIONS

Complications of GERD that are potentially severe are more common in the elderly. Among patients with GERD seeking medical care in the United States, 20% have complications<sup>[7]</sup>. Complications may be esophageal or extraesophageal in nature and may vary from mild esophagitis to major life threatening problems such as recurrent pulmonary aspiration, Barrett's esophagus, and esophageal cancer<sup>[7,9]</sup> (Table 1).

### Esophageal complications

As in younger patients, the most common complication of GERD in the elderly is esophagitis. This may progress from non-erosive esophagitis (NERD) to severe esophageal erosions, ulcerations and hemorrhage<sup>[33]</sup>. Esophageal stricture occurs in up to 10% of patients who have reflux esophagitis, especially in elderly men. Esophageal strictures are often associated with the use of NSAIDs. Treatment with esophageal dilatation and aggressive antireflux therapy is usually effective.

An important and increasingly common esophageal complication is Barrett's esophagus, in which columnar epithelium replaces squamous epithelium in the distal esophagus<sup>[34]</sup>. Barrett's esophagus is a premalignant condition highly associated with the development of adenocarcino-



ma of the esophagus and the gastric cardia. It is found in approximately 10%-15% of patients with GERD symptoms who undergo endoscopic examinations. It is more common in elderly Caucasian men over the age of 60<sup>[9]</sup>. Although its pathogenesis remains uncertain, acid reflux appears to injure the squamous epithelium and promote epithelial repair by columnar metaplasia of the esophageal mucosa. Because of the frequency and importance of Barrett's esophagus, upper GI endoscopy should be considered in all elderly patients with recurrent reflux symptoms. Patients with Barrett's esophagus must be evaluated with multiple biopsies to look for the presence of dysplasia, which is the precursor of invasive cancer. Continued endoscopic surveillance and aggressive measures, especially in high-grade dysplasia, are warranted to prevent adenocarcinoma of the esophagus. These measures include endoscopic ablative techniques such as endoscopic mucosal resection, electrocautery fulguration, laser photoablation, photodynamic therapy. Surgical esophagectomy in good operative risk patients with severe dysplasia is warranted<sup>[9]</sup>.

Adenocarcinoma of the esophagus is among the fastest growing carcinomas by incidence in the United States where it has become the most common form of esophageal cancer<sup>[9]</sup>. The incidence of adenocarcinoma in patients with Barrett's esophagus is approximately 1% per year. Patients with esophageal cancer typically present in the seventh or eighth decade of life with weight loss and dysphagia. Although the overall survival rate of patients with adenocarcinoma of the esophagus is less than 10%, those with early stage cancer identified in surveillance programs usually have a higher survival rate<sup>[35]</sup>.

### Extraesophageal complications

Extraesophageal complications of GERD are more common in the elderly<sup>[33]</sup>. These include atypical noncardiac chest pain; ear, nose, and throat (ENT) manifestations, such as globus sensation, laryngitis, otitis media, sinusitis, pharyngitis, hoarseness, vocal cord granulomas, subglottal stenosis, laryngeal cancer, dental erosions; pulmonary problems, such as asthma, chronic cough, chronic bronchitis, pulmonary fibrosis, aspiration pneumonia and sleep apnea.

Atypical noncardiac chest pain has been related to GERD in up to 60% of cases. In 50% of cases symptoms are related directly to reflux injury and in 10% symptoms are related to esophageal dysmotility. Atypical noncardiac chest pain due to GERD may often be indistinguishable from angina pectoris<sup>[36]</sup>. Therefore, a cardiac evaluation is indicated in these elderly patients before ascribing symptoms to GERD alone.

Ear, nose, and throat (ENT) complications of GERD are frequent in the elderly with laryngitis being the most common. In up to 10% of patients with hoarseness, acid peptic injury from reflux is the cause. Acid injury can also cause globus sensation, otitis media, sinusitis, pharyngitis, hoarseness, dental erosions, vocal cord granulomas, subglottal stenosis and laryngeal cancer. Prolonged antireflux

therapy may be necessary and is often effective in these patients. However, prompt relapses occur when therapy is discontinued<sup>[37]</sup>.

Pulmonary complications of GERD are common in the elderly. Conditions include asthma, chronic cough, chronic bronchitis, pulmonary fibrosis, aspiration pneumonia and sleep apnea are all seen more frequently in the elderly. In up to 21% of patients with chronic cough, GERD is the cause<sup>[38]</sup>. Remarkably, chronic cough can be the only symptom of GERD in some patients. The mechanism for the development of pulmonary complications is not only pulmonary aspiration of refluxed material but also involves a neurally mediated reflex bronchoconstriction due to esophageal irritation by acid<sup>[38]</sup>. As with ENT manifestations, antireflux therapy is often helpful with a prompt recurrence occurring upon discontinuation of therapy.

## EVALUATION

Diagnostic testing in older patients is essentially the same as for younger patients with GERD<sup>[39]</sup>. However, because of the higher incidence of complications in the elderly that may be severe and life threatening, an aggressive approach with prompt evaluation is warranted<sup>[7]</sup>. Barium swallow upper GI series and upper GI endoscopy are used to evaluate dysphagia and mucosal injury. Endoscopy is superior to the barium swallow exam, but must be used with caution in the elderly frail patient. Capsule endoscopy is evolving as a modality to evaluate the upper GI tract. It is less invasive than routine upper GI endoscopy and may be an alternative in the elderly patient. In patients with atypical symptoms or when quantification of reflux is required, ambulatory pH monitoring is helpful, but may be difficult to perform in the elderly patient. Wireless probes may improve compliance<sup>[40]</sup>. Multichannel intraluminal impedance measurement with a pH sensor allows the detection of pH episodes irrespective of their pH values (acid and nonacid reflux). This is useful in the postprandial period, in patients with persistent symptoms while on therapy and in those patients with atypical symptoms<sup>[41]</sup>. Esophageal manometry is often used in patients with markedly atypical symptoms, for locating the LES for pH testing, and in those for whom surgery is contemplated. However, it is not useful for the evaluation of GERD in the majority of patients.

The proton pump inhibitor (PPI) test has become a useful noninvasive test in elderly GERD patients for the evaluation atypical chest pain. Patients are given a course of high dose PPI agent, such as omeprazole 60 mg per day for 7 d, and observed for improvement in their clinical response<sup>[42]</sup>. However, this does not supplant the use of endoscopy in patients with significant symptoms, such as odynophagia and dysphagia.

Diagnostic testing should be performed in patients in whom the diagnosis remains uncertain; in patients with atypical symptoms such as chest pain, ENT problems, or pulmonary complications; in patients with significant



**Table 2** Noninvasive treatment of gastroesophageal reflux disease<sup>1</sup>**Lifestyle modification**

Elevation of head of bed  
 Avoid eating within 3 h of bedtime  
 Avoid tobacco, alcohol, caffeine, fatty food, peppermint  
 Avoid harmful medications if possible, such as NSAIDs, beta blockers  
 Calcium-channel blockers, theophylline, potassium tablets, bisphosphonate

**Medications****Antacids****Motility agents:**

Metoclopramide, erythromycin, bethanechol, cisapride, GABA

**B-receptor agonists****H<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonists:**

Cimetidine, famotidine, nizatidine, ranitidine

**PPI agents<sup>1</sup>:**

Esomeprazole, lansoprazole, omeprazole, pantoprazole, rabeprazole, dexlansoprazole

GABA: Gamma-aminobutyric acid B-receptor agonist; NSAIDs: non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; H<sub>2</sub>: histamine; PPI: proton pump inhibitor; <sup>1</sup>Most often successful.

symptoms that are often associated with complications such as dysphagia, odynophagia, unexplained weight loss, GI hemorrhage, and anemia; in patients who have an inadequate response to therapy, whether medical or surgical; in patients with recurrent symptoms; and in patients prior to consideration of antireflux surgery<sup>[43]</sup>.

There are important considerations relating to diagnostic and treatment methods in elderly patients<sup>[44]</sup>. In cognitively impaired patients, a Mini-Mental State Examination may be indicated. Informed consent to procedures may be difficult to obtain in patients who suffer from cognitive dysfunction. With the exception of a true life-threatening emergency, every attempt should be made to obtain consent for testing procedures from the patient, if competent, or the surrogate. In cases where a guardian cannot be reached, administrative consent should be obtained. Timing of tests and type of intervention should be tailored, especially for the frail elderly patient, depending upon functional status, its impact on outcome, and the available diagnostic strategies. However, intervention should not be withheld because of age alone.

Older patients are more likely to have pacemakers with or without defibrillators. Recommendations for management of patients who require endoscopy and have pacemakers and internal defibrillators are not well defined. Cardiology consultation may often be indicated. If required, alternative means of tissue removal, destruction, or hemostasis should be considered to simplify management of patients. For example, to control hemorrhage in the bleeding patient with a defibrillator one may need to use such methods as hemo-clips, ligation devices, and injection of epinephrine and sclerosing agents. The general principle of geriatric pharmacology of starting with low doses of medication and slowly advancing to larger doses is an important dictum in conscious sedation of the elderly patient during endoscopy. Initial dosages should be lower and titration should be more gradual<sup>[44]</sup>.

Deeper sedation that requires an anesthesiologist may be warranted in difficult cases.

In contrast to younger patients, endoscopy should be considered as the initial diagnostic test in elderly patients with heartburn, regardless of the severity or duration of complaints. This aggressive approach is warranted because of the higher incidence of cumulative acid injury over time and the higher incidence of complications of Barrett's esophagus and esophageal cancer in the elderly<sup>[16]</sup>.

**TREATMENT**

Treatment of GERD in the elderly patient is essentially the same as in all adults with GERD<sup>[43]</sup>. However, a more aggressive approach to treatment is necessary in the elderly patient, because of the higher incidence of complications<sup>[16]</sup>. This aggressive approach must be balanced with the constraints of dealing with an older often frailer patient with comorbidities. The treatment goals, as in all patients with GERD, are elimination of symptoms, healing of esophagitis, managing or preventing complications, and maintaining remission<sup>[43]</sup>. The vast majority of patients can be treated successfully with the noninvasive methods of lifestyle modification and medication<sup>[43]</sup> (Table 2).

Although lifestyle modification remains a cornerstone of initial therapy in GERD, it may not be sufficient to control symptoms in the majority of patients, especially in those with complications. However, patients should try to lose weight, be more active, elevate the head of their bed before going to sleep, avoid eating within three hours of bedtime, stop tobacco smoking, decrease dietary fat and volume of meals and avoid dietary irritants such as alcohol, peppermint, onion, citrus juice, coffee, and tomatoes.

Potentially harmful medications that can aggravate the symptoms and effects of GERD in the elderly, such as NSAIDs, potassium tablets, bisphosphonates, beta blockers, theophylline and calcium-channel blockers should be avoided if possible. If these agents must be continued because of comorbid illness, the regimen should be modified on an individual basis, such as switching potassium tablets to an elixir or using an alternative medication or dosing frequency in the osteoporotic patient on bisphosphonates. All medications should be given with 6-8 ounces of water in an upright position.

Over-the-counter antacids, histamine (H<sub>2</sub>) blockers and PPI agents on an as-needed basis may be helpful for those individuals who have mild disease. However, for the majority of patients, and certainly for those patients with complications, one must use prescription agents for more effective therapy<sup>[7]</sup>.

Motility agents, such as cisapride, metoclopramide, erythromycin, bethanechol and the gamma-amino butyric acid B-receptor (GABA) agonist Baclofen have helped to improve LES tone and esophagogastric motility in selected patients<sup>[44]</sup>. However, their success is limited in patients with more severe disease. For patients with diabetes, cisapride and metoclopramide have been used with moderate success in improving gastric emptying and re-

**Table 3** Potential effects of prolonged acid suppression with histamine<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonists and PPI agents**Reduced absorption of nutrients and calcium**B<sub>12</sub>, iron, calcium**Osteoporosis****Bacterial proliferation**

Community acquired pneumonia

*Clostridium difficile***Drug metabolism interference**

Acid effects on drug absorption

PPI Effects on CYP2C19 pathway interference

Clopidogrel

Histamine<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonists effects on cytochrome P-450 3A4 system

Warfarin, phenytoin, benzodiazepines, theophylline

**Drug side effects**

Delirium, especially cimetidine

Neurologic

Antiandrogen

Cardiac side effects

Hematologic

PPI: proton pump inhibitor.

ducing GERD symptoms. However, cisapride is only available on a restricted-use basis due to potentially fatal cardiac arrhythmias. Metoclopramide must be used with caution in the elderly, because it can cause side effects, such as muscle tremors, spasms, agitation, insomnia, drowsiness, and tardive dyskinesia, in up to one-third of patients. Erythromycin use is limited by its side effects and tachyphylaxis. Bethanechol has not proved useful in GERD. Gamma-amino butyric acid B-receptor (GABA) agonists, such as Baclofen, reduce tLESRs and improve gastric emptying. However, side effects that are more common in the elderly, such as somnolence, confusion, dizziness, light-headedness, weakness and trembling, limit their use in the older patient. Newer agents are under investigation<sup>[45]</sup>.

Histamine H-2 receptor antagonists, including cimetidine, ranitidine, famotidine, and nizatidine, are helpful in patients with GERD, by providing good acid suppression and symptom relief. These drugs are remarkably similar in their action and equally effective at equivalent doses. However, high doses of up to four times daily may be necessary in some patients with severe symptoms. Reducing dosage because of renal insufficiency, which is more common in the elderly, is often necessary. In addition, all these agents, especially cimetidine, can cause delirium in the older patient. Drug-drug interactions with histamine H-2 receptor antagonists through metabolism of the hepatic cytochrome P-450 3A4 system may be potentially harmful in elderly patients who use medications such as warfarin, phenytoin, benzodiazepines, and theophylline. Side effects of these agents, especially cimetidine, are more common in the elderly and in those with comorbid illnesses. Side effects include central nervous system side effects, such as mental confusion, delirium, headache, and dizziness; antiandrogen side effects of gynecomastia and impotence; cardiac side effects of sinus bradycardia, atrioventricular block, and prolongation of the QT interval;

and hematological side effects of anemia, neutropenia, and thrombocytopenia. However, most side effects are reversible with dosage reduction or withdrawal of the offending agent<sup>[7]</sup>.

Proton pump inhibitors (PPIs), such as esomeprazole, lansoprazole, omeprazole, pantoprazole, rabeprazole, and dexlansoprazole are the most effective medical therapeutic agents for the treatment of GERD. Proton pump inhibitors provide excellent acid suppression and effective symptom relief<sup>[43]</sup>. These agents are particularly useful in elderly persons who often require more acid suppression due to more severe disease and complications. In older patients who are unable to swallow pills, capsules may be opened and the granules mixed in water or juice or sprinkled on applesauce or yogurt. For example, lansoprazole is available as an orally dissolving tablet and both lansoprazole and omeprazole powder are available as oral suspensions, which may be useful for those with swallowing disorders or those who require tube feedings.

Maintenance therapy is most often required, because relapses are common in elderly patients with GERD, especially those with associated complications. Long-term treatment with adequate doses of medication is the key to effective care in the elderly. For the majority of patients with esophageal strictures, the use of acid suppression and esophageal dilatation are effective. Aggressive acid suppression is effective in the majority of patients with GERD-related atypical chest pain. ENT complications, such as hoarseness, show dramatic response to these agents when adequate doses are used for prolonged periods. In patients with GERD-mediated asthma, significant improvement will occur with acid suppression by H<sub>2</sub> blockers and PPIs. Maintenance therapy is required in all of these patients because relapses occur very soon after cessation of therapy. In patients with Barrett's esophagus, chronic medical therapy is warranted, although its success remains controversial<sup>[45]</sup>.

## POTENTIAL EFFECTS OF PROLONGED ACID SUPPRESSION

Prolonged acid suppression by Histamine H-2 receptor antagonists and PPI agents may potentially affect nutrient and calcium absorption, bacterial proliferation, and drug metabolism in the older patient. However, with adequate monitoring, long term maintenance with PPI agents remains quite safe in the elderly population<sup>[46]</sup> (Table 3).

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, iron and calcium absorption can be affected. The effect on B<sub>12</sub> and iron absorption appears to be insignificant, but periodic monitoring for anemia and reduced B<sub>12</sub> and iron stores may be warranted<sup>[47]</sup>.

Reduction of calcium absorption and the potential development or worsening of osteoporosis and resultant bone fracture is a significant but controversial issue. Reduction in bone density and increased incidence of hip fractures has been reported with both PPI agents and Histamine H-2 receptor antagonists<sup>[48]</sup>. If these agents are used for maintenance therapy, patients should be monitored for

**Table 4** Invasive treatment of gastroesophageal reflux disease endoscopic therapy**Evolving techniques**

Non-biodegradable polymer  
 Radiofrequency treatment of the gastroesophageal junction  
 Endoscopic suturing  
 Implantable gastric electrodes  
 Botulinum injection of the pylorus

**Ablative techniques for Barrett's esophagus**

Endoscopic mucosal resection  
 Electrocautery fulguration  
 Laser photoablation  
 Photodynamic therapy

**Surgery**

Laparoscopic fundoplication

osteoporosis as per recommended guidelines and given adequate intake of calcium and vitamin D. If osteoporosis is detected, treatment with appropriate agents, such as bisphosphonates should be offered. Withdrawal of acid suppression agents with worsening bone health in elderly patients must be considered.

Bacterial proliferation with an increased incidence of community acquired pneumonia and the development of gastrointestinal infection, such as *Clostridium difficile* associated colitis, has been reported and is important, although a controversial issue in the elderly patient. These patients have a higher incidence of comorbidities and more often are in hospitals or long term care facilities. This would predispose them to frequent and more serious infections. Restriction of acid suppressant use in this regard remains controversial<sup>[49-50]</sup>.

Interference of acid suppressant agents with drug metabolism is an issue. Acid inhibition may affect absorption of some drugs. Recently, interference with drug metabolism has become an issue with clopidogrel, which is often used for anticoagulation in the elderly. Omeprazole competitively interferes with conversion of clopidogrel to its active metabolite through the CYP2C19 pathway. The significance of this interference remains controversial, but switching to another PPI that may not significantly use this pathway, such as pantoprazole, lansoprazole or rabeprazole or switching to a Histamine H-2 receptor antagonist may be warranted<sup>[51]</sup>.

Histamine H-2 receptor antagonists, especially cimetidine, can cause delirium in the older patient. Drug-drug interactions with histamine H-2 receptor antagonists through metabolism of the hepatic cytochrome P-450 3A4 system may be potentially harmful in elderly patients who use medications such as warfarin, phenytoin, benzodiazepines, and theophylline. Side effects of these agents, especially cimetidine, are more common in the elderly and in those with comorbid illnesses. Side effects include central nervous system side effects, such as mental confusion, delirium, headache, and dizziness; antiandrogen side effects of gynecomastia and impotency; cardiac side effects of sinus bradycardia, atrioventricular block, and prolongation of the QT interval; and hematological side effects of anemia, neutropenia, and thrombocytopenia. However, most side

effects are reversible with dosage reduction or withdrawal of the offending agent<sup>[7]</sup>.

Although the vast majority of elderly patients with complications associated with GERD can be successfully managed with medical therapy, invasive methods of surgery and endoscopic treatment may be warranted in some cases. Surgery is an option for some patients with GERD<sup>[52]</sup> and is now more frequently considered because of the ability to perform antireflux surgery laparoscopically. It is indicated in patients with intractable GERD, difficult-to-manage strictures, severe bleeding, nonhealing ulcers, recurrent aspiration, and GERD requiring large maintenance doses of PPI agents or H-2 receptor antagonists. Barrett's esophagus alone is not an indication for surgery. However, surgery is warranted for high grade dysplasia and esophageal adenocarcinoma. Given that there appears to be no greater increase in postoperative morbidity or mortality in the elderly with this type of surgery, healthy elderly patients should not be denied surgery on the basis of age alone<sup>[53]</sup>. Careful patient selection with complete preoperative evaluation, including upper GI endoscopy, esophageal manometry, pH testing, and gastric emptying studies, should be done prior to surgery.

Endoscopic therapy of GERD has had little success. Implantation of a biocompatible, non-biodegradable polymer (Enteryx) into the gastric cardia and radiofrequency energy delivery to the gastroesophageal junction, the Stretta Procedure, are available for the treatment of GERD on an investigational basis only<sup>[54-55]</sup>. Endoscopic suturing below the gastroesophageal junction is possible and has been used with some success to treat GERD<sup>[56]</sup>. However, further investigation and perfection of this technique is warranted. Pyloric injections of botulinum toxin in patients with refractory GERD and gastroparesis has had limited short term success. Endoscopic ablative techniques for treatment of Barrett's esophagus are evolving. They include endoscopic mucosal resection, electrocautery fulguration, laser photoablation and photodynamic therapy. Implantable gastric electrodes and botulinum injection of the pylorus to improve gastric emptying are further techniques being evaluated to reduce gastroesophageal reflux. Additional evaluation of these therapeutic techniques is warranted<sup>[57]</sup> (Table 4).

## CONCLUSION

GERD and its associated complications are common in the older patient. The elderly tend to have fewer symptoms with more severe complications that may be life threatening. There are important considerations regarding causation, evaluation and treatment in the older as compared to the younger patient. However, with appropriate management, GERD and its associated complications can be treated successfully in majority of elderly patients.

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## Dietary approaches following endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography: A survey of selected endoscopists

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### Abstract

**AIM:** To describe the dietary recommendations of experienced endoscopists for patients who have undergone endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography ERCP and the factors that influence these recommendations.

**METHODS:** Selected U.S. endoscopists with endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) experience were surveyed by e-mail. A questionnaire with three hypothetical ERCP cases of patients at low, medium and high risk for development of post-ERCP pancreatitis (PEP) was shown. For each scenario, respondents were asked to recommend a post-procedure diet and time to first oral intake. Respondents were also asked about the effect of various clinical factors on their recommendations, including risk of PEP.

**RESULTS:** 97/187 selected ASGE members (51.9%) responded. When risk of PEP was either low, medium or high, 53%, 88% and 96% recommended a diet of clear liquids/NPO respectively, and 2%, 5% and 18% recommended delaying first oral intake until the following day. About 88% of respondents gave the same type of diet to patients at high as those with moderate-risk of PEP ( $P = 0.04$ ). However, 37% and 43% of respondents gave different types of diet to patients at low vs moderate-risk and low-risk vs high-risk of PEP respectively ( $P < 0.001$ ). No statistically significant associations were found regarding the effect of other clinical factors or respondent demographics.

**CONCLUSION:** Most experienced endoscopists limit diet to NPO/clear liquids after ERCP for patients at high or moderate risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis. About half allow a low-fat or regular diet in patients at low risk.

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**Key words:** Cholangiopancreatography; Endoscopic retrograde; Diet; Pancreatitis; Survey; Postoperative care

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## INTRODUCTION

Since the first report of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) and endoscopic sphincterotomy in 1974<sup>[1,2]</sup>, there have been numerous advances in ERCP technique. Despite these advances, ERCP still causes significant morbidity<sup>[3]</sup>. Following ERCP, complications occur at rates of 5%-30%<sup>[3-7]</sup>. Pancreatitis, perforation, cholangitis and post-sphincterotomy bleeding are the most common complications. Most of these adverse events are diagnosed during the first 24 h after the procedure. Abdominal pain is common after ERCP and is not considered a complication; however pain may be a symptom of other post-ERCP complications.

The decision about when and how to feed patients after ERCP, although empirical, is likely based on the presence of risk factors for complications as well as post-ERCP symptoms. There may be a reluctance to begin feeding early after ERCP because of fear of precipitating post-ERCP pancreatitis or when abdominal pain occurs in the post-procedure recovery area.

There are no guidelines about timing and type of diet that should be prescribed after ERCP. The only randomized prospective study published about this issue concluded that in the absence of any perforation or severe acute pancreatitis, feeding could be initiated early<sup>[8]</sup>. However, it is not known what post-ERCP dietary practices are used in the U.S. and what factors influence these practices. Therefore, we undertook a survey of selected endoscopists with the U.S. who are ASGE members to better understand these practices.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

A total of three e-mail surveys comprised of three hypothetical cases of ERCP were sent to 187 physicians identified from the ASGE directory that were known or believed to perform ERCP as a substantial part of their practice. The first e-mail included a notice about the upcoming survey. The second e-mail contained the survey itself and the third e-mail was sent as a reminder to complete the survey.

The hypothetical cases contained within the survey were outpatients who underwent ERCP and were designed to be at low, medium, and high risk for post-ERCP pancreatitis based on previously defined criteria<sup>[9-12]</sup>. The high-risk scenario described a 21 year old woman with suspected sphincter of Oddi dysfunction who underwent multiple pancreatic duct injections, biliary sphincterotomy and placement of a prophylactic pancreatic stent. The moderate-risk scenario described a 56 year old woman who underwent biliary sphincterotomy and removal of a bile duct stone with one minimal pancreatic duct injection. The low-risk scenario described an 86 year old man with painless jaundice due to pancreatic cancer who underwent biliary metal stent placement with no pancreatic duct injection. The three cases were sent in randomized order to reduce bias. The physicians were not specifically alerted to the risk of pancreatitis nor that was this risk hypothesized to be a major factor in timing and type of diet prescribed.

For each scenario, respondents were asked to recommend a type of post-procedure diet (clear liquids until the next morning, low fat diet until the next morning, regular diet or other) and time to first oral intake after discharge (4, 6, 12 or 24 h). Questions were also asked about physician demographic data and the respondent's opinion regarding the importance of five clinical factors when recommending a post-ERCP diet (1) risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis; (2) risk of other post-ERCP complications; (3) post-ERCP symptoms; (4) patient's co-morbid medical illnesses; and (5) inpatient versus outpatient status).

### Statistical analysis

Since each physician respondent answered the same questions for each of three scenarios, the data were considered paired. For statistical comparisons the recommended diet was grouped as: NPO/clear liquids versus low-fat/normal diet. Similarly, timing of the recommended diet was also grouped as: begin immediately/4 h later/6 h later *vs* 12 h later/24 h later. The three pair-wise comparisons of recommended diets (high-risk *vs* moderate-risk, high-risk *vs* low-risk and moderate-risk *vs* low-risk) were done using McNemar's test for paired contingency tables. The percentage of discordant recommendations in these contingency tables is also reported, i.e. the off-diagonal cells in the tables.

The associations of physician factors with discordant diet recommendations for pairs of patients were examined (in the  $2 \times 2$  contingency table cross-tabulating the recommendations, the number of discordant pairs is the sum of the off-diagonal cells). The associations between physician factors: years of ERCP experience ( $\leq 15$  years *vs*  $> 15$  years), number of ERCPs done per year ( $\leq 250$  *vs*  $> 250$ ), physician age ( $< 45$  years *vs* 45-54 years *vs*  $\geq 55$  years), and physician's practice location within the United States (northeast *vs* southeast *vs* southwest *vs* northwest) with diet recommendations for a pair of patients (categorized as discordant *vs* concordant) were examined using a Chi-square or Fisher exact test as appropriate.

In the same way as physician factors were examined for association with discordant *vs* concordant recommendations in patient pairs, the importance of patient factors in making diet recommendations was examined with regard to the 5 factors listed previously in the methods section. Possible responses to each of these questions was "very important", "somewhat important", "neither important nor unimportant", "somewhat important" and "very important". For analysis purposes these responses were grouped as important if answered either "very important" or "somewhat important" and not important otherwise.

The significance level was set at 0.05 for statistical significance. Because of the exploratory nature of the analysis, all *P*-values reported in the manuscript are not adjusted for multiple comparisons.

## RESULTS

Ninety-seven of 187 physicians (51.9%) answered the survey. Table 1 shows the demographics of the respon-

**Table 1** Physicians demographics and endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography experience

Age group (y)	≤ 39	40-49	50-59	≥ 60	Missed
<i>n</i> (%)	12 (12.4)	43 (44.3)	31 (31.9)	11 (11.4)	0 (0)
ERCP/year	0	< 50	51-250	> 250	Missed
<i>n</i> (%)	3 (3.1)	8 (8.3)	37 (38.1)	49 (50.5)	0 (0)
Location	Northeast	Southeast	Southwest	Northwest	Missed
<i>n</i> (%)	47 (48.5)	13 (13.4)	13 (13.4)	21 (21.6)	3 (3.1)
NYP ERCP	< 5 yr	5-10 yr	11-15 yr	> 15 yr	Missed
<i>n</i> (%)	10 (10.3)	12 (12.4)	14 (14.4)	60 (61.8)	1 (1.1)

NYP ERCP: Number of years performing endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

**Table 2** Type of diet prescribed after endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography

Type of diet	Risk of pancreatitis				
	NPO <i>n</i> (%)	CL <i>n</i> (%)	Low-fat <i>n</i> (%)	Normal <i>n</i> (%)	Total <i>n</i> (%)
Low	0 (0)	51 (52.6)	17 (17.5)	29 (29.9)	97 (100)
Medium	4 (4.1)	81 (83.5)	5 (5.2)	7 (7.2)	97 (100)
High	24 (24.7)	69 (71.1)	2 (2.1)	2 (2.1)	97 (100)

CL: clear liquids; NPO: nil per os.

ders, number of ERCPs performed per year, practice location in the United States and number of years they have performed ERCP. Regarding type of practice, 25 responders (25.8%) work in private practice, 64 (66%) work as fulltime academics and 8 (8.2%) physicians did not respond to this question.

Tables 2 and 3 show overall results regarding type of diet and time to first oral intake recommended by respondents in relation to the risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis. When risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis was either low, medium or high, 53%, 88% and 96% recommended a diet of clear liquids/NPO respectively and 2%, 5% and 18% recommended delaying first oral intake until the following day.

Tables 4 and 5 show data analysis based on the paired nature of the study data. Table 4 shows how often individual respondents changed their recommended diet type based on differences in the patient scenarios. About 88% of respondents gave the same type of diet to patients at high *vs* moderate-risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis ( $P = 0.04$ ). However, 37% and 43% of respondents gave different types of diet to patients at low *vs* moderate-risk and low-risk *vs* high-risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis respectively ( $P < 0.001$ ). This shows that respondents tended to prescribe the same diet (usually NPO or clear liquids) to patients at high and moderate-risk but were more apt to prescribe a solid diet for patients at low-risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis.

Table 5 shows how often individual respondents changed their recommended time to first oral intake based on differences in the patient scenarios. This shows that most respondents did not vary their recommendations

**Table 3** Timing to resumption of oral intake after endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography

Resume oral intake	Risk of pancreatitis					
	Imme- diately <i>n</i> (%)	4 h later <i>n</i> (%)	6 h later <i>n</i> (%)	12 h later <i>n</i> (%)	24 h later <i>n</i> (%)	Total <i>n</i> (%)
Low	71 (73.2)	21 (21.6)	2 (2.1)	1 (1.0)	2 (2.1)	97 (100)
Medium	56 (57.7)	29 (29.9)	4 (4.1)	3 (3.1)	5 (5.2)	97 (100)
High	49 (50.5)	18 (18.5)	7 (7.2)	6 (6.2)	17 (17.6)	97 (100)

regarding timing of first oral intake between scenarios. Approximately 20% of physicians did change their recommendations based on patient scenario, in most cases delaying oral intake in patients at high-risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis but not in patients at low or moderate risk.

An analysis was done to examine whether physicians were more likely to change their diet type or timing recommendations based on their age, practice location, number of ERCPs they perform per year or years of ERCP experience (Tables 6 and 7). No statistically significant associations were observed. Additionally, an analysis was done to evaluate whether changes in diet type and timing recommendations were attributable to a physician's views on the importance of various clinical factors, including risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis, risk of other post-ERCP complications, post-ERCP symptoms, patient co-morbid medical illnesses and inpatient *vs* outpatient status (Tables 8 and 9). No statistically significant associations were observed.

## DISCUSSION

The endoscopists' decision as to when and how to begin oral intake after a seemingly uncomplicated ERCP is largely based upon training and personal experience. There are theoretical considerations but essentially no empirical data to provide guidance. We believe that there are several clinical factors that affect dietary recommendations after ERCP. In this survey, we sought to determine practice patterns of selected American endoscopists regarding type and timing of diet after ERCP. Although we did not specifically cite the risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis in the individual scenarios given in the survey, patients were described who were at high, moderate and low risk.

We found that about 88% of physicians recommended that patients at moderate and high risk of developing post-ERCP pancreatitis should be kept NPO or given clear liquids. In patients at high-risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis, approximately 20% of physicians recommend delaying time to first oral intake for at least 12 h after discharge. On the other hand, for patients who were at low risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis, about 40% of physicians varied their recommended type of post-procedure diet. In this scenario a solid diet was recommended more frequently and only 3% delayed first oral intake for at least 12 h.

We were unable to demonstrate that respondents'

Table 4 Paired diet recommendations by patient scenario

				Significance <sup>1</sup>	% who changed recommendation based on scenario
Moderate risk					
High risk	NPO/CL	NPO/CL 83	L-F/Normal 10	0.04	12/97 (12%)
	L-F/Normal	2	2		
Low risk					
High risk	NPO/Clears	51	42	< 0.001	42/97 (43%)
	L-F/Normal	0	4		
Low risk					
Mod risk	NPO/CL	50	35	< 0.001	36/97 (37%)
	L-F/Normal	1	11		

<sup>1</sup>McNemar test; CL: clear liquids; L-F: low-fat; NPO: nil per os.

Table 5 Paired time to first oral intake recommendations by patient scenario

				Significance <sup>1</sup>	% who changed recommendation based on scenario
Moderate risk					
High risk	Not delayed	Not delayed 73	Delayed 1	< 0.001	17/97 (18%)
	Delayed	16	7		
Low risk					
High risk	Not delayed	74	0	< 0.001	20/97 (21%)
	Delayed	20	3		
Low risk					
Mod risk	Not delayed	88	1	0.125	7/97 (7%)
	Delayed	6	2		

<sup>1</sup>McNemar test.

Table 6 Diet type recommended based on age, practice location, number of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography performed per year and years of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography experience of respondents

Physician characteristic			Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis					
			High <i>vs</i> medium		High <i>vs</i> low		Medium <i>vs</i> low	
			Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>	
			<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>
ERCP experience <sup>1</sup>	≤ 15 yr	36	4 (11)	1.00	17 (47)	0.49	17 (47)	0.09
	> 15 yr	60	8 (13)		24 (40)		18 (30)	
Number of ERCPs/year	≤ 250	48	6 (12)	0.97	21 (44)	0.93	15 (31)	0.24
	> 250	49	6 (12)		21 (43)		21 (43)	
Age of physician	< 45	30	4 (13)	0.78	15 (50)	0.62	15 (50)	0.20
	45-54	49	5 (10)		19 (39)		16 (33)	
	≥ 55	18	3 (17)		8 (44)		5 (28)	
Residency of physician <sup>2</sup>	NE	47	5 (11)	0.63	23 (49)	0.24	22 (47)	0.36
	SE	13	2 (15)		5 (38)		3 (23)	
	SW	13	3 (23)		8 (62)		5 (38)	
	NW	21	2 (10)		6 (29)		6 (29)	

<sup>a</sup>Significance of the association between physician variable and recommendation of different diets assessed using a Chi-square or Fisher's exact test as appropriate; <sup>b</sup>Recommended diet dichotomized as: NPO/Clears vs Low-Fat/Normal, to define "Different Recommendation"; <sup>1</sup>Not completed for 1 physician; <sup>2</sup>Not completed for 3 physicians; ERCP: endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

changes in dietary recommendations were based on their general views regarding the importance of various clinical factors; however, this was probably because the great majority of respondents indicated that the risk of post-

ERCP pancreatitis was an important determinant of post-procedure diet, regardless of whether they changed their recommendations from scenario to scenario. No statistically significant associations were found between recom-

**Table 7** Timing of resumption of diet recommended based on age, practice location, number of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatographies performed per year and years of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography experience of respondents

Physician characteristic			Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis					
			High vs medium		High vs low		Medium vs low	
			Different timing recommendation		Different timing recommendation		Different timing recommendation	
			<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>
ERCP experience <sup>1</sup>	≤ 15 yr	36	8 (22)		9 (25)		1 (3)	
	> 15 yr	60	9 (15)	0.37	11 (18)	0.44	6 (10)	0.09
Number of ERCPs/year	≤ 250	48	7 (15)		8 (17)		1 (2)	
	> 250	49	10 (20)	0.45	12 (24)	0.34	6 (12)	0.11
Age of physician	< 45	30	6 (20)		6 (20)		0 (0)	
	45-54	49	8 (16)		12 (24)		6 (12)	
	≥ 55	18	3 (17)	0.91	2 (11)	0.48	1 (6)	0.12
Residency of physician <sup>2</sup>	NE	47	11 (23)		14 (30)		5 (11)	
	SE	13	2 (15)		3 (23)		1 (8)	
	SW	13	2 (15)		2 (15)		0 (0)	
	NW	21	2 (21)	0.59	1 (5)	0.11	1 (5)	0.79

<sup>a</sup>Significance of the association between physician variable and recommendation of different timing for the recommended diets assessed using a Chi-square or Fisher's exact test as appropriate. Timing dichotomized as: Immediate/4h/6h vs 12h/24h, to define "Different Timing Recommended"; <sup>1</sup>Not completed for 1 physician; <sup>2</sup>Not completed for 3 physicians; ERCP: endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

**Table 8** Diet type recommended based on clinical factors considered important or not by the respondents

Clinical factors			Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis					
			High vs medium		High vs low		Medium vs low	
			Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>	
			<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>
Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis <sup>1</sup>	Important	12	2 (17)		4 (33)		2 (17)	
	Unimportant	84	10 (12)	0.64	38 (45)	0.44	34 (40)	0.20
Risk other post-ERCP complication <sup>1</sup>	Important	29	3 (10)		12 (41)		9 (31)	
	Unimportant	67	9 (13)	1.00	30 (45)	0.76	27 (40)	0.39
Post-ERCP symptoms <sup>1</sup>	Important	11	1 (9)		2 (18)		3 (27)	
	Unimportant	85	11 (13)	1.00	40 (47)	0.11	33 (39)	0.53
Patient co-morbid medical illnesses <sup>2</sup>	Important	60	9 (15)		27 (45)		24 (40)	
	Unimportant	35	3 (9)	0.53	15 (43)	0.84	12 (34)	0.58
Inpatient/outpatient status <sup>3</sup>	Important	60	6 (10)		26 (43)		24 (40)	
	Unimportant	34	5 (15)	0.52	15 (44)	0.94	12 (35)	0.65

<sup>a</sup>Significance of the association between physician importance answers and recommendation of different diets assessed using a Chi-square or Fisher's exact test as appropriate. <sup>b</sup>Recommended diet dichotomized as NPO/Clears vs Low-Fat/Normal to define "Different Recommendation" importance dichotomized as: Very/Somewhat Important → "Important vs Neither/Somewhat/Very Unimportant → "Unimportant"; <sup>1</sup>Not completed for 1 physician; <sup>2</sup>Not completed for physicians; <sup>3</sup>Not completed for 3 physicians; ERCP: endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

mentations and respondents' ERCP experience, age or practice location.

In a study designed to address dietary intake after ERCP, Barthet *et al*<sup>[8]</sup> randomized patients to early refeeding (4 h after ES - group 1) and later refeeding (24 h after procedure - group 2). Unfortunately, the type of diet prescribed in this study was not given. Abdominal pain was less prevalent in group 1 (11% vs 37%) while abdominal pain associated with oral intake was observed with higher frequency in group 2 (6.8% vs 17.8%). Finally, the mean hospital stay was significantly shorter in the early refeeding group. The authors conclude that in the absence of perforation or severe acute pancreatitis, early refeeding would be recommended.

When deciding about timing and type of diet to give patients after ERCP, physicians likely consider the patient's risk of complications (especially post-ERCP pancreatitis), how well the procedure went (difficult cannulation, pancreatic injection *etc*), the complexity and risk of interventions (such as ampullectomy) and whether the patient has symptoms following the procedure. Since more than 2/3 of patients develop symptoms during the first 6 h post-procedure and the presence of symptoms is a poor predictor of complications, the presence or absence of symptoms is not adequate to guide dietary recommendations<sup>[13]</sup>. When the risk of complications is high, limiting diet to clear liquids on the day of the procedure was recommended by the majority of respondents in this



Table 9 Timing of resume diet recommended based on clinical factors considered important or not by the respondents

Clinical factors		Total number of pairs	Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis					
			High vs medium		High vs low		Medium vs low	
			Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>		Number with different recommendations <sup>b</sup>	
			<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>
Risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis <sup>2</sup>	Important	14	1 (7)	0.45	1 (7)	0.29	0 (0)	0.59
	Unimportant	81	16 (20)		19 (23)		7 (9)	
Risk other post-ERCP complication <sup>1</sup>	Important	26	4 (15)	1.00	4 (15)	0.42	2 (8)	1.00
	Unimportant	70	13 (19)		16 (23)		5 (7)	
Post-ERCP symptoms <sup>1</sup>	Important	12	1 (8)	0.69	0 (0)	0.07	1 (8)	1.00
	Unimportant	84	16 (19)		20 (24)		6 (7)	
Patient co-morbid medical illnesses <sup>1</sup>	Important	65	11 (17)	0.77	12 (18)	0.41	5 (8)	1.00
	Unimportant	31	6 (19)		8 (26)		2 (6)	
Inpatient/outpatient status <sup>2</sup>	Important	65	8 (12)	0.04	11 (17)	0.15	5 (8)	1.00
	Unimportant	30	9 (30)		9 (30)		2 (7)	

<sup>a</sup>Significance of the association between physician importance answers and recommendation of different diets assessed using a Chi-square or Fisher's exact test as appropriate. <sup>b</sup>Recommended diet dichotomized as NPO/Clears vs Low-Fat/Normal to define "Different Recommendation" importance dichotomized as: Very/Somewhat Important → "Important vs Neither/Somewhat/Very Unimportant → "Unimportant"; <sup>1</sup>Not completed for 1 physician; <sup>2</sup>Not completed for physicians; ERCP: endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

study. Prospective, controlled studies comparing post-ERCP dietary strategies are warranted.

## COMMENTS

### Background

Pancreatitis is a complication that occurs in up to 20% of patients following endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP). ERCP is a procedure that is used to diagnose and treat disorders of the bile and pancreatic ducts. Pancreatitis is an inflammation of the pancreas. It can range from mild to severe. It is unknown if the type of diet and when it is started after ERCP influences the risk of post-ERCP pancreatitis. It is assumed that a low-fat diet may be preferable in high-risk patients because fat causes stimulation of the pancreas.

### Research frontiers

There is relatively little information in the literature about post-ERCP pancreatitis and diet. A previous study randomly assigned patients who underwent ERCP to begin eating either 4 h or 24 h after the procedure. There was no difference in the overall complication rate between the two groups.

### Innovations and breakthroughs

This article is unique because the authors created a survey from experienced endoscopists on when and what to feed patients after ERCP. In the survey three fictional patients were presented. The three patients had differing risks of post-ERCP pancreatitis. One was at low risk, one was at high risk and one was at medium risk. They found that most endoscopists recommend a clear liquid diet or low-fat diet at 12-24 h (no intake until then) in patients at high risk for post-ERCP pancreatitis and a regular diet sooner for patients at low risk. Although the survey did not inform the physicians that we were asking for their opinion based upon the risk of pancreatitis, most responders admitted that the risk of pancreatitis played a major factor in choice of diet.

### Applications

The authors believe that physicians who are less experienced will read this article and change their practice based upon what experts in the field recommend. They also believe that this article will lead to other studies on the effect that diet has on post-ERCP pancreatitis, especially in high risk patients.

### Terminology

The readers need to understand what ERCP is and what causes pancreatitis after the procedure. The also need to know what pancreatitis is and how the severity of the disease varies.

### Peer reviews

This is a very well written paper focused on a relevant topic that has never been properly investigated. In my opinion, this article will promote future investigations on how to feed patients after ERCP and deserves publication.

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## Use of endoscopic ultrasound for diagnosis of cholangiocarcinoma in auto-immune hepatitis

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### Abstract

In this report, a patient was exposed to an herbal remedy for hypercholesterolemia. She became acutely jaundiced while taking the remedy and presented for medical care. Endoscopic ultrasound was utilized, and found a distal common bile duct mass. Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography guided bile duct biopsies revealed that the mass was cholangiocarcinoma (CCA). This case highlights a unique association between autoimmune hepatitis and CCA. It also highlights that EUS can be safely used in patients with cirrhosis to spare invasive evaluation such as exploratory laparotomy for diagnosis and staging of cholangiocarcinoma.

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### INTRODUCTION

Cholangiocarcinoma (CCA) is an adenocarcinoma arising from the epithelial tissue of the intra-hepatic (10%), hepatic hilar (25%) or extrahepatic (65%) bile ducts<sup>[1]</sup>. Among gastrointestinal (GI) cancers, CCA is the most difficult to detect and diagnose with a 5 year survival of less than 5%<sup>[2]</sup>. Recently, endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) has emerged as an important modality in the diagnosis of CCA<sup>[3]</sup>. EUS guided fine needle aspirate (FNA) has a specificity of 100%, and a sensitivity of 43%-86% depending upon the location of the cholangiocarcinoma<sup>[4]</sup>. The negative predictive value for EUS-FNA for cholangiocarcinoma is reported at 29%<sup>[5]</sup>. The additional benefit of EUS-FNA is to sample regional lymph nodes to stage the disease particularly in the context of liver transplant evaluation<sup>[4]</sup>.

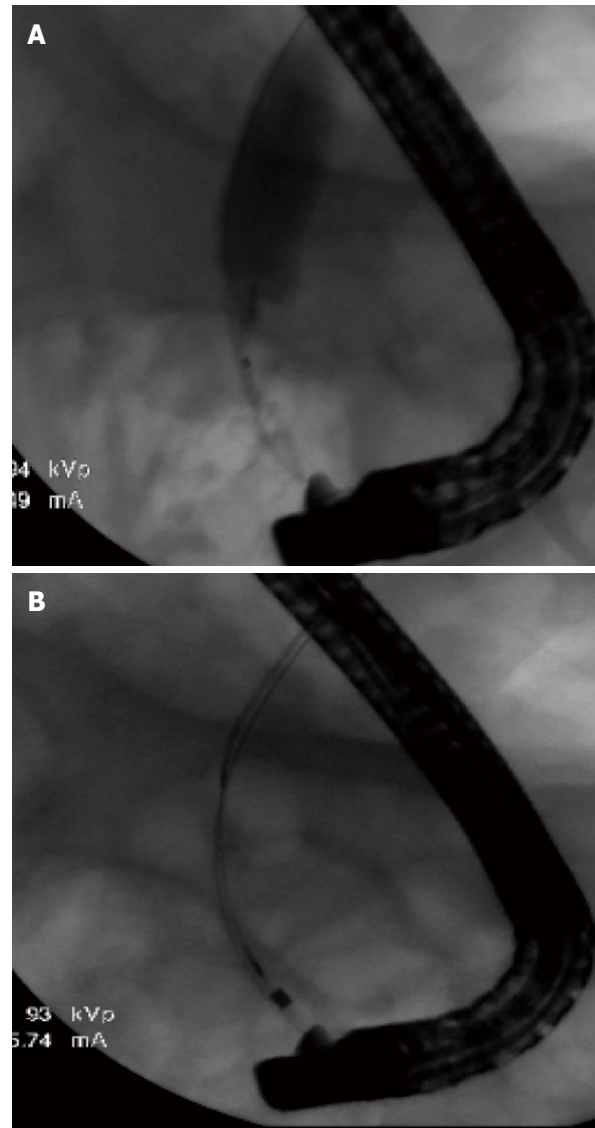
Herein a unique case of autoimmune hepatitis that presents with jaundice is described. Here we report that in a cirrhotic patient, EUS was extremely helpful in making the diagnosis of CCA through identification of suspected lesions. EUS and subsequent endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) spared the patient an exploratory laprotomy which has inherent risks related to general anesthesia, intubation, abdominal insufflation and biopsy of masses. EUS is especially helpful in noting differences in echogenicity among normal tissue, lymph nodes and neoplasms. This distinction makes EUS a selective tool for subsequent biopsy. In this way, the pre-test probability is higher compared to gross visualization during an exploratory laprotomy.

## CASE REPORT

A 64-year-old Caucasian female was referred to University Medical Center (UMC) following a diagnosis of autoimmune hepatitis and cirrhosis that was made at an outside hospital. She had used an over-the-counter herbal remedy “CholestOff” for six months. Prior to using CholestOff, her liver function tests (LFTs) were normal, as documented by her primary care physician (PCP). During her six months of CholestOff therapy, LFTs were evaluated showing a total bilirubin of 1.2 g/dL (0.2-1.0), alkaline phosphatase of 272 IU/L (38-126), aspartate aminotransferase (AST) of 310 IU/L (7-40), and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) of 223 IU/L (7-40). CholestOff therapy was ceased and over a period of two months her LFTs showed a downward trend with an alkaline phosphatase of 167 IU/L, an AST of 207 IU/L, and ALT of 145 IU/L. Four months later, her LFTs were repeated again and showed an alkaline phosphatase of 272 IU/L, AST of 496 IU/L, and ALT of 420 IU/L and bilirubin of 0.8 mg/dL.

Two weeks later, the patient presented to an outside hospital with painless jaundice. Her laboratory results showed an alkaline phosphatase of 357 IU/L, AST of 1464 IU/L, ALT of 1090 IU/L, total bilirubin of 4.6 mg/dL, international normalized ratio (INR) greater than 9.4 and albumin of 2.9 g/dL (3.5-5.5). She tested positive for anti-nuclear antibody (ANA) and antimitochondrial antibody (AMA) at 11.4 (0.0-0.9) and 0.2 (< 0.1) respectively. The antismooth muscle antibody was negative. Her gamma globulins were elevated at 2.4 g/dL (0.6-1.6) while her acute hepatitis panel was negative. Further investigation lead to a transjugular liver biopsy. The results indicated portal inflammation with mixed infiltrate comprising of predominantly lymphocytes, readily identifiable plasma cells and cirrhosis. Bile duct injury and bile duct proliferation were also noted.

A Computed tomography (CT) scan was performed and showed mild intrahepatic and extrahepatic ductal dilation with a nodular contour of the liver. Multiple prominent aortocaval, retrocrural and portacaval nodes as well as hypodensity of the distal common bile duct were also noted. An ERCP was performed and showed a subtle, two centimeter common bile duct (CBD) stricture. Cytol-



**Figure 1** Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography of mass. A: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) of 15 mm hypoechoic mass in the distal common bile duct (CBD); B: ERCP with biliary brushings of the distal CBD mass.



**Figure 2** Endoscopic ultrasound of mass. Common bile duct mass was very apparent on endoscopic ultrasound.



ogy sampling was followed by biliary sphincterotomy and placement of a 7 cm/10 Fr. biliary stent. The cytological analysis did not identify malignant cells. The patient was placed on a combination of prednisone and azathioprine therapy with resolution of her jaundice.

Three months later the patient underwent further evaluation at UMC with an EUS examination. At that time a 15 mm hypoechoic mass in the distal CBD (Figure 1A) was identified. Multiple biopsies followed by biliary brushings of the distal CBD mass were accomplished during an ERCP (Figure 1B). The CBD biopsy demonstrated benign acute inflammation and the brushings of the CBD mass were positive for CCA on cytological analysis. While the stricture seen at ERCP was subtle, the CBD mass was very apparent on EUS (Figure 2) and led to a rigorous work up.

## DISCUSSION

The case highlights that EUS is a safe and valuable tool in establishing the diagnosis and staging of CCA in patients with cirrhosis. EUS-FNA has been successfully used for the staging of CCA before consideration of liver transplantation<sup>[4-8]</sup>. The technique has been extensively used to biopsy the bile duct, gallbladder<sup>[6,7]</sup>, hepatic hilum<sup>[8]</sup>, regional lymph nodes<sup>[9]</sup>, pancreatic lesions<sup>[10]</sup> and hepatic lesions<sup>[11]</sup> as well as for aspiration of malignant ascites<sup>[12]</sup>. CT guided FNA has been utilized to biopsy peritoneal and omental masses<sup>[13]</sup>.

This case also delineates the difficulties encountered while managing patients with cholangiocarcinoma and cirrhosis<sup>[14,15]</sup>. Moreover, the association of autoimmune hepatitis with cholangiocarcinoma is interesting. Only one other case of autoimmune hepatitis has been described in association with CCA and the authors of the report suggested that autoimmune hepatitis is a potential risk factor for the development of CCA<sup>[16]</sup>. In that particular case, the patient had a diagnosis of autoimmune hepatitis for 30 years and was treated with azathioprine and prednisone and was found to have a small hepatic lesion. That patient underwent a liver transplantation with the presumed diagnosis of hepatocellular carcinoma and developed recurrence of cholangiocarcinoma in distant lymph nodes within a few months of liver transplantation and expired<sup>[16]</sup>.

Our patient underwent EUS that showed a 15-mm hypoechoic CBD mass. EUS guided FNA was not done on this particular patient because of the risk of potential tumor seeding. Instead, the patient underwent a second ERCP with brushing and cytological analysis which documented the correct diagnosis of cholangiocarcinoma, sparing her exploratory laparotomy, general anesthesia, insufflation of the abdomen and tissue biopsy.

This case describes a rare association of CCA with autoimmune hepatitis. The patient developed hepatitis while taking an herbal medication CholestOff which consists of plant sterols/stanols, tribasic calcium phosphate, croscarmellose sodium, calcium carbonate, hydroxypropyl

methyl-cellulose, silicon dioxide, magnesium stearate, taranium dioxide, polyethylene glycol, triethyl citrate, polysorbate 80 and sodium citrate. Only one other case of autoimmune hepatitis has been described in association with CCA and it has been suggested that autoimmune hepatitis is a potential risk factor for the development of CCA<sup>[16]</sup>. It is possible that the herbal medicine may have caused bile duct toxicity, autoimmune hepatitis and resulted in transformation to malignant cells. However, it appears more plausible that the herbal remedy simply resulted in drug-induced hepatitis with histological findings that mimic autoimmune hepatitis<sup>[17]</sup>. The case also reinforces the suspicion that the association of autoimmune hepatitis with CCA may be more than mere coincidence.

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## Successful type-oriented endoscopic resection for gastric carcinoid tumors: A case report

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individual tumor and how endoscopic resection could be a treatment of choice when these factors render it feasible. This stance could also obviate unnecessary surgical resection for more benign tumors.

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### Abstract

The standard treatment in Japan for gastric carcinoid has been gastrectomy with lymphadenectomy. This report describes the possibility of endoscopic treatment as an appropriate option for gastric carcinoid fulfilling certain conditions. A 46 year old woman underwent endoscopic mucosal resection for two 3 mm gastric carcinoids. The patient had hypergastrinemia with pernicious anemia and type A chronic atrophic gastritis, suggesting that the tumors were type I in Rindi's classification. Both tumors were located in the mucosal layer with no cellular polymorphism and were chromogranin A positive. Neither tumor recurrence in the stomach nor distant metastases have been documented during the 5 years of follow-up. Although many type I gastric carcinoids may be clinically indolent, reports on successful endoscopic treatment for this carcinoid have been scanty in the literature in Japan, presumably because of the hitherto surgical treatment stance for the disease. This report discusses how the size, number, depth and histological grading of the type I gastric carcinoid could allow the correct identification of a benign or malignant propensity of an

### INTRODUCTION

Gastric carcinoids (GCDs) were previously thought to be extremely rare in the West, constituting only 2.6% of all gastrointestinal carcinoids in the 1950s<sup>[1]</sup>. Their incidence, however, has chronologically increased to 8.7% in the 1990s<sup>[2]</sup>. Interestingly, GCDs, the second most common (21%-27%) gastrointestinal carcinoids in Japan<sup>[3]</sup>, have also seen an increase in cases over the past 5 decades<sup>[4]</sup>. These trends may be due to an actual increase but the more likely reason is improvements in diagnostic technology and increased awareness. Despite the steady rise in the incidence of GCDs in the gastrointestinal tract in both regions, GCDs have been considered to be a curiosity accounting for less than 1%<sup>[5]</sup> of all gastric tumors and such rarity has made it difficult to understand precisely

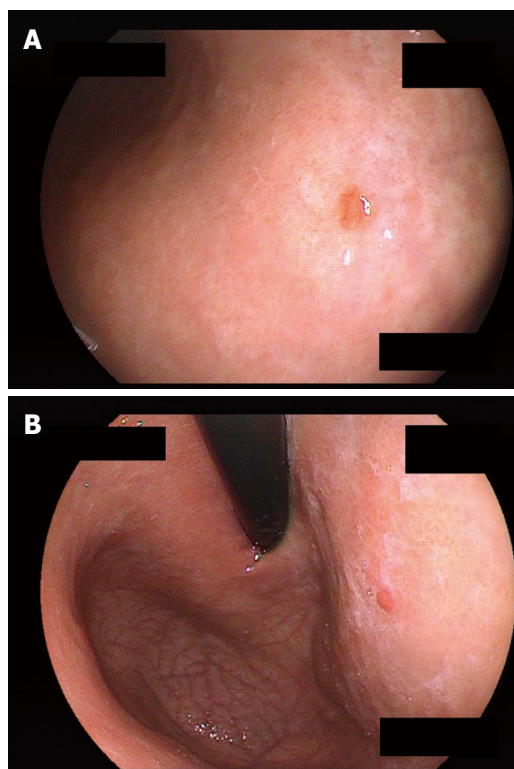
the biological nature of them and to establish the optimal treatment options for the disease.

GCDs are an enigmatic malignancy that, while slow in growth compared with adenocarcinoma, can sometimes behave aggressively. This has led to a debate concerning the optimal treatment for GCDs. In Japan, radical gastrectomy has been recommended as a general treatment for them due to the concern over the substantial metastatic rates (4.6%-30%) even among small and/or submucosal GCDs<sup>[3,4,6,7]</sup>. On the other hand, Western researchers have recently proposed a spectrum of treatment options for GCDs<sup>[8]</sup> ranging from less invasive endoscopic polypectomy to more aggressive surgery on the basis of the background gastric pathological characteristics with or without hypergastrinemia as a pathogenetic trait<sup>[9-11]</sup>. Here we report a case of GCDs with hypergastrinemia successfully treated by endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) followed by no evidence of recurrence for 5 years. Because of the hitherto aggressive treatment stance in Japan, cases of successful endoscopic treatment for GCDs have been scarce in the literature. This report raises the possibility that pathobiological analyses of individual GCDs could select patients to benefit from less invasive treatment, so realizing type-oriented patient management.

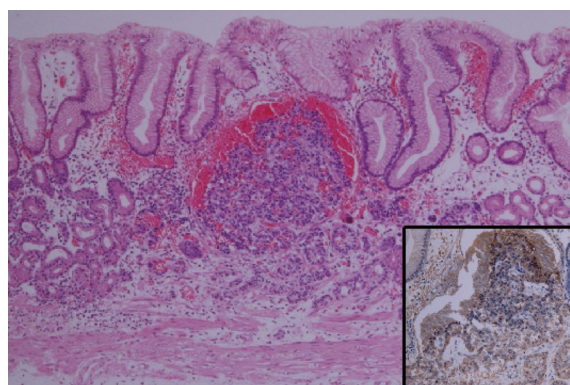
## CASE REPORT

A 46 year old woman underwent upper gastrointestinal endoscopy in 2003 due to upper abdominal discomfort. Endoscopic examination revealed two tiny elevated lesions 3 mm in diameter located on the anterior and posterior walls of the upper third of the stomach (Figure 1). Atrophy was more marked in the body-fundus than in the antrum. Biopsy specimens from both lesions showed microlobular-trabecular cell clusters with no cellular polymorphism. No extragastric hormonal syndromes such as flushes or diarrhea were identified. Patient interview revealed a previous diagnosis of pernicious anemia at the age of 30 and investigation showed combined iron (56 mg/dL) and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (230 pg/mL) deficiency anemia with low levels of hemoglobin (10.4 g/dL) and mean corpuscular volume (89.6 fL). The positivity of both anti-parietal cell and anti-intrinsic factor antibodies, as well as corpus predominant atrophic gastritis and elevated serum gastrin level (3827 pg/mL), suggested that the elevated lesions were type I<sup>[9-11]</sup> carcinoid tumor associated with pernicious anemia and type A chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG/A)<sup>[12]</sup>. Endoscopic ultrasonography failed to evaluate the tumor depth definitively. There was no evidence of lymph node or liver metastases. She had been diagnosed with epilepsy 30 years prior to this visit and sodium valproate had been prescribed since then. Continuous prescription of proton pump inhibitors was not confirmed. After fully informed consent, she underwent cap-assisted EMR, an “inject, suck and cut” technique, for both lesions in July 2004. The postoperative course was uneventful.

Both resected specimens showed a histological ar-



**Figure 1** Tiny elevated lesions, 3 mm in diameter detected on the posterior (A) and the anterior (B) walls of the upper third of the stomach.



**Figure 2** Histological findings of the tumor located on the posterior wall of the stomach (Hematoxylin-eosin stain, × 40). The tumor exhibits microlobular-trabecular growth patterns with chromogranin A positive (inset, × 100). No cellular polymorphism is observed. The other tumor showed the same findings.

chitecture of microlobular-trabecular cell clusters in the mucosal layer with marked fundic gland atrophy (Figure 2). Endocrine cell micronests were observed in the mucosal layer and in the lamina propria mucosa. Neither cellular polymorphism nor mitoses were observed. Neither lymphatic nor vascular invasion were documented. Both tumors as well as endocrine cell micronests were chromogranin A positive (Figure 2, inset). All resection margins were negative for carcinoid cells.

Under the postoperative annual endoscopies, any lesions of concern for the endoscopist were biopsied and there has been no evidence of tumor recurrence in



**Table 1** Histological tumor grading proposed by Rindi *et al*<sup>[14]</sup>

Grade 1a	Tumors characterized by small and microlobular-trabecular aggregates formed by regularly distributed, often aligned cells with regular monomorphic nuclei, usually inapparent nucleoli, rather abundant fairly eosinophilic cytoplasm and almost absent mitoses.
Grade 1b	Tumors characterized by significant areas with solid structure, absence of cell alignment, round to spindle cell shape, irregular and moderately polymorphic nuclei of larger size, often with evident nucleoli and rather few, morphologically typical mitoses.
Grade 2	Tumors showed prevalence of solid cellular aggregates and large trabeculae, crowding and irregular distribution of round to spindle and polyhedral tumor cells, fairly large vesicular nuclei with prominent eosinophilic nucleoli or smaller, hyperchromatic nuclei with irregular chromatin clumps and small nucleoli, considerable mitotic activity, sometimes with atypical mitotic figures and scant necrosis.
Grade 3	Tumors showed severe histological atypia with solid to diffuse structure and frequent central necrosis. They were composed of tightly packed, small to mid-sized tumor cells showing large, irregular, polymorphic and hyperchromatic nuclei, scant cytoplasm and frequent, often atypical, mitosis.

the stomach. Neither liver nor lymph node metastases were detected by the most recent abdominal computed tomography and abdominal ultrasonography. The serum gastrin level remained high (2500 pg/mL) at 4 years after resection.

## DISCUSSION

The optimal treatment options for GCDs have not been precisely defined. Earlier Japanese literature reviews or case collections elucidated that the risk of metastasis depended on the tumor size and depth. Only minute (< 0.5 cm in diameter) GCDs showed no metastases but then began to spread outside the stomach in correlation with tumor size<sup>[7]</sup>, the incidences being 6.7% for < 1 cm, 27.7% for < 2 cm and 45.8% for < 3 cm in diameter<sup>[3]</sup>. In addition, metastatic rates of GCDs situated in mucosal, submucosal and proper muscle layers were 7.5%, 13.2%-15.5% and 44.8% respectively<sup>[4,6]</sup>. Even small submucosal GCDs (< 1.0 cm) were found to metastasize at a substantial rate (7.9%)<sup>[6]</sup> equal to or even higher than those of submucosal gastric cancer<sup>[13]</sup>, suggesting that GCDs often metastasize even when they are small (< 1 cm) or confined to the submucosal layer. Therefore, in Japan, total or subtotal gastrectomy with lymphadenectomy has been recommended and indeed performed for GCDs, irrespective of size, depth or number.

On the other hand, an Italian research group<sup>[9-11]</sup> has proposed a new classification for GCDs by dividing them into three types: type I is those arising in CAG/A with hypergastrinemia; type II occurs in patients with hypergastrinemia due to the Zollinger-Ellison syndrome in association with multiple endocrine neoplasia type I; and type III is sporadic GCDs not associated with any specific pathogenetic background. This classification is of great worth because of its ability to predict the biological aggressiveness of GCDs. Types I and II GCDs were low grade tumor diseases with excellent prognosis although a relatively higher degree of aggressiveness was observed for type II whereas those independent of gastrin promotion (type III) were life-threatening neoplasms<sup>[9-11]</sup>. Metastatic rates were 0%-7.8% in type I, 18.1%-30.0% in type II and 16.7%-75.0% in type III tumors<sup>[9-11,14-16]</sup>. Type I GCDs were mainly restricted to the mucosa or submucosal layer and were usually smaller in size at presentation<sup>[9-11,16]</sup> whereas increasing type

numbers (from type I to III) correlated with deeper tumor infiltration and larger tumor size. Even a conservative approach for type I GCDs was proposed by observations of spontaneous regression<sup>[17]</sup> or the absence of clinical problems<sup>[18]</sup> for varying periods of follow-up. These observations suggest that type I GCDs will not become clinically overt and that endoscopic treatment is considered safe.

Against this background, Gilligan *et al*<sup>[8]</sup> advocated a treatment algorithm for GCDs, including parameters of the above-mentioned subtypes as well as sizes and numbers of the tumors. In types I and II GCDs, initial treatment is an endoscopic polypectomy for less numerous (< 3-5 lesions) and smaller (< 1 cm) tumors and antrectomy or local resection for more numerous (> 3-5 lesions) and larger (> 1 cm) ones. Both treatments should be followed by endoscopic surveillance biannually and any recurrence should be treated by local excision, antrectomy or wider gastrectomy. On the other hand, *en bloc* surgical resection with lymphadenectomy is recommended for type III tumors. Subsequently, the rationale for this type-oriented treatment has been confirmed by prospective<sup>[16]</sup> and retrospective<sup>[19]</sup> studies. In addition, guidelines for gastrointestinal endocrine tumors from the United Kingdom have stated that surveillance only is considered appropriate for many type I GCDs<sup>[20]</sup>.

The Japanese aggressive treatment stance thus far has been based on cases of small but node-positive GCDs. Taking the tripartite classification into account, however, these tumors presumably comprise of pathobiologically heterogeneous types of neoplasms because they were not stratified by subtype in some reports<sup>[21]</sup> or were at least non-type I in others<sup>[22,23]</sup>. Nevertheless, it is also a fact that type I GCDs may occasionally countermand the anticipated biological behavior<sup>[14,16,24]</sup>. In this regard, histological grading (Table 1) and tumor depth<sup>[14,16,24]</sup> have been demonstrated to be characteristics by which individual tumor aggressiveness is predictable with a higher accuracy than would be by simple tripartite classification. Therefore, integration of these factors into the Gilligan's decision tree could allow more correct identification of benign or malignant propensities in individual tumors and endoscopic treatments such as EMR and endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD) could be a treatment of choice when size, number, depth and histological grading of a tumor render them feasible. These stances

**Table 2** Clinicopathological characteristics of gastric carcinoid cases with hypergastrinemia successfully resected endoscopically or were followed-up only, published in Japan after the year (1995) of Gilligan's proposal

Authors	Age	Male/Female	Gastrin (pg/mL)	Anti-PCA/ anti-IFA	Number of tumor	Size (mm)	Treatment	Tumor depth	Follow-up length (mo)
Kawaguchi <sup>[26]</sup>	33-69 <sup>1</sup>	10/3	74-2100	NA/NA	1 or multiple	NA	EMR	NA	NA
Hosokawa <sup>[29]</sup>	46-69 <sup>1</sup>	3/5	442-3800	(+) in 7/NA	multiple	1-15	follow-up only	NA	18-130
Higashino <sup>[30]</sup>	34-78 <sup>1</sup>	3/3	195-1800	NA/NA	1 or 2	0.73 <sup>2</sup>	EMR	m, sm	4-78
Ichikawa <sup>[31]</sup>	35-66 <sup>1</sup>	3/1	319-1122	(+) in 3/(+) in 1	1	3-8	EMR	m, sm	6-56
Shimazu <sup>[32]</sup>	65	0/1	3400	(+)/NA	9	5	EMR or hot biopsy	m	48
Yoshikane <sup>[33]</sup>	43	1/0	600	(+)/(-)	1	9	EMR	sm	9
Hori <sup>[34]</sup>	51	1/0	> 800	(+)/NA	1	7	EMR	m	144
Anjiki <sup>[35]</sup>	40	0/1	5197	(+)/(-)	3	7	EMR	sm	22
Yamamoto <sup>[36]</sup>	40's	1/0	6250	(+)/(+)	1	7	EMR	sm	12

<sup>1</sup>Thirteen<sup>[26]</sup>, eight<sup>[29]</sup>, six<sup>[30]</sup> and four<sup>[31]</sup> collected cases. One case in reference [31] is omitted because of the subsequent surgery; <sup>2</sup>Mean value; PCA: parietal cell antibody; IFA: intrinsic factor antibody; EMR: endoscopic mucosal resection; ESD: endoscopic submucosal dissection; NA: not available; m: mucosal layer; sm: submucosal layer.

are in accordance with those published very recently<sup>[25]</sup> and can help avoid any unnecessary gastrectomy for type I GCDs with the more benign phenotype<sup>[26]</sup>, something which undoubtedly impairs personal well-being without any advantage.

The selection of endoscopic treatment modalities depends on the size and degree of the submucosal involvement of the target lesion. In general, EMR is applied for smaller (e.g. < 1 cm) lesions without submucosal invasion or fibrosis<sup>[27]</sup> whereas ESD, an “inject, incise the mucosa and dissect the submucosa” technique, is applied for lesions larger in size and/or with some submucosal involvement<sup>[28]</sup>. The goal of both techniques is an *en bloc* resection realizing a precise histological diagnosis. ESD, by the nature of its technique, could achieve more increased *en bloc* and histologically complete resection rates compared with EMR but is associated with longer average operation times and a higher incidence of intraoperative bleeding and perforation<sup>[28]</sup>. In this case, we consider that intramucosal and small (3 mm each) lesions render EMR feasible.

Even after Gilligan's proposal and in the era of technically advanced endoscopic resection, reports in Japan on GCDs associated with hypergastrinemia with a successful resultant of endoscopic treatment or follow-up only have remained rare in the literature, probably due to the less common consideration of the GCD classification (Table 2)<sup>[26,29-36]</sup>. In the present case, the Gilligan's recommendation and the intramucosal localization with a histologically less aggressive grade of tumor justify the endoscopic resection and repeated follow up endoscopies as a treatment strategy. Despite conditions of persistent hypergastrinemia, a relatively longer tumor free period of 5 years as compared with those (between 9 mo and 12 years) in the reported cases in the literature confirms the rationale of our strategy.

Pernicious anemia or CAG/A predispose the development of both gastric cancer and GCDs<sup>[37,38]</sup> as separated<sup>[25]</sup> or mixed<sup>[39,40]</sup> tumors, underscoring the importance of continuous repeated endoscopic monitoring for type I GCDs even after successful endoscopic resection.

One of the presumed underlying mechanisms is a trophic effect and tumorigenic potential of inappropriately sustained hypergastrinemia. Awareness of these facts is important at each step of the sequence of patient management, i.e. at the time of diagnosis, treatment and each follow-up examination.

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## Idiopathic non-hypertrophic pyloric stenosis in an infant successfully treated *via* endoscopic approach

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### Abstract

Non-peptic, non-hypertrophic pyloric stenosis has rarely been reported in pediatric literature. Endoscopic pyloric balloon dilation has been shown to be a safe procedure in treating gastric outlet obstruction in older children and adults. Partial gastric outlet obstruction (GOO) was diagnosed in an infant by history and confirmed by an upper gastrointestinal series (UGI). Abdominal ultrasonography and computed tomography scan excluded idiopathic hypertrophic pyloric stenosis, abdominal tumors, gastrointestinal and hepato-biliary-pancreatic anomalies. Endoscopic findings showed a pinhole-sized pylorus and did not indicate peptic ulcer disease, *Helicobacter pylori* infection, antral web, or evidence of allergic and inflammatory bowel diseases. Three sessions of a step-wise endoscopic pyloric balloon dilation were conducted under general anesthesia and a fluoroscopy at two week intervals using catheter balloons (Boston Scientific Microvasive®, MA, USA) of increasing diameters. Repeat UGI after the first session revealed normal gastrointestinal transit and no intestinal

obstruction. The patient tolerated solid food without any gastrointestinal symptoms since the first session. The endoscope was able to be passed through the pylorus after the last session. Although the etiology of GOO in this infant is unclear (proposed mechanisms are herein discussed), endoscopic pyloric balloon dilation was a safe procedure for treating this young infant with non-peptic, non-hypertrophic pyloric stenosis and should be considered as an initial approach before pyloroplasty in such presentations.

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**Key words:** Non-hypertrophic pyloric stenosis; Endoscopic pyloric balloon dilation; Gastric outlet obstruction

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### TO THE EDITOR

We recently read a very good review on Endoscopic balloon dilation for benign gastric outlet obstruction in adults by Kochhar R *et al*<sup>[1]</sup>. We would like to share our pediatric perspective how endoscopic balloon dilation was safely used to treat an infant with gastric outlet obstruction (GOO) of unknown cause, using guidelines similar to those suggested in that article.

Idiopathic hypertrophic pyloric stenosis (IHPS) is

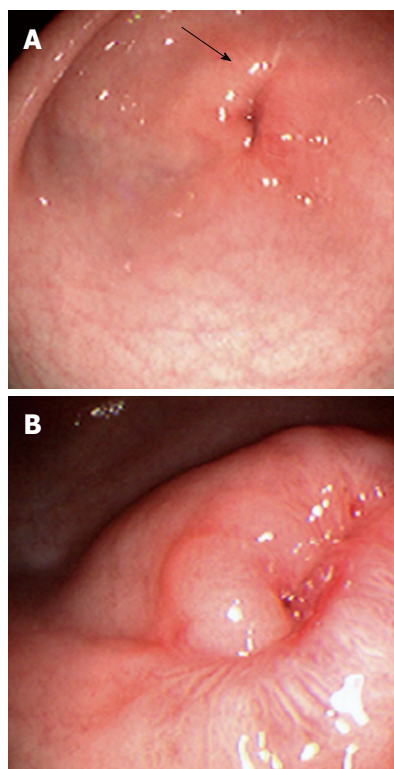




**Figure 1** Filling defect of swollen pylorus (arrow).

probably the most common cause of GOO in children which presents after birth, generally in the first 3 mo of life. Endoscopic pyloric balloon dilation (EPBD) has been shown to be a safe and effective procedure in treating gastric outlet obstruction in older children and adults<sup>[2-5]</sup>. An eighteen month old Caucasian boy had fever at the beginning of his illness, followed by persistent vomiting for a total of 3 wk. His physical examination revealed a weight of 9.21 kilograms (below 3rd percentile), height of 83.5 cms (on 75th percentile), normal vital signs, pallor, no acute distress, no palpable mass, no hepatosplenomegaly, and a non-tender, non-distended abdomen. A review of past medical history demonstrated a previously healthy infant with a viral-like episode following illness in all family members a few weeks prior to admission. The patient breast fed until the age of 12 mo when solid food was introduced and subsequently advanced. There was no history of food or drug allergy, gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding, other gastrointestinal symptoms, consumption of raw meat and fish or any history of foreign body or caustic ingestion. Intravenous fluid was given to correct a mild degree of dehydration.

On admission his laboratory analyses showed mild hypochloremic metabolic alkalosis and moderate iron deficiency anemia without eosinophilia. Stool occult blood had been negative on several occasions. Gastric distension was noted on plain abdominal series. A pyloric ultrasound revealed redundancy of the antral walls and duodenum. Pyloric channel length was 14 mm. But its width was unmeasurable due to an inability to identify the pylorus in the transverse plane. GOO was observed on an upper GI series (Figure 1). Computed tomography (CT) images of the abdomen following the administration of intravenous and oral contrast media showed no evidence of an abnormal mass in the stomach or duodenum or any external mass compressing the pylorus. An upper endoscopy (EGD) demonstrated mild erythema of the distal esophagus, markedly enlarged, thickened, and asymmetric folds with a pin-hole opening that did not allow the passage of a Pentax-EG-1840 endoscope. A normal granulocytic oxidative burst was reported from dihydrorhodamine (DHR) flow cytometry assays which was inconsistent with the diagnosis of CGD. The patient received total parenteral nutrition, 15 mg daily of oral



**Figure 2** Upper gastrointestinal endoscopic image. A: Narrow pyloric opening with edema around pyloric canal (arrow); B: Close-up view of pin-hole pyloric stenosis.

Prevacid<sup>®</sup>, iron therapy, and a 5 d course of 2 grams per kg per day of methylprednisolone (to reduce pyloric edema). After 3 wk of Prevacid<sup>®</sup> a repeat EGD showed findings of thickened pylorus with pin-hole opening similar to the initial results (Figure 2). The pathologic report showed 1-2 eosinophils per high power field and no evidence of *Helicobacter pylori*, lymphoid follicles in the gastric mucosa, or granulomatous formation. Three sessions of EPBD with fluoroscopic guidance were conducted under general anesthesia over a period of 6 wk at two weeks intervals (Figure 3). Catheter balloons (Boston Scientific Microvasive<sup>®</sup>, MA, USA) of increasing diameters (first session at 6 mm and 8 mm, second session at 10 mm and 12.5 mm, and third session at 15 mm) were used to insert through the biopsy channel of a Pentax-EG-2731 endoscope and inflated with the use of a pressure gauge system for 60-120 s. The Pentax-EG-1840 endoscope was able to be passed through the pylorus after the first session. Pyloric and duodenal mucosa appeared normal. Repeat UGI series and gastric emptying scan after the third session were normal. The patient had eaten a regular diet and gained weight appropriately without vomiting and abdominal distention after a two year follow-up.

Although the child's endoscopic findings are consistent with IHPS, the sonographic findings are inconsistent with this diagnosis. A group in Galveston described this as a condition of "burned-out IHPS" in children with less severe symptoms than those seen in classical IHPS. Left undiagnosed and untreated, the hypertrophied pylorus in these cases was thought to regress and cause fibrosis leading to pyloric stenosis. These children failed to thrive and often vomited prior to the diagnosis<sup>[6]</sup>.



**Figure 3** Pneumatic dilation across the pyloric channel.

Other causes of GOO include antral web, gastric duplication, gastric volvulus, pyloric atresia, epidermolysis bullosa, congenital granulomatous disease (CGD), ectopic pancreas, caustic ingestion, bezoars, migration of gastrostomy tube balloons, infection (such as *Helicobacter pylori*, *Anisakis simplex* or anisakiasis), peptic ulcer disease (PUD), extramural compression, eosinophilic gastritis, Crohn disease, hematoma, gastroparesis, and solitary intestinal fibromatosis<sup>[2-5]</sup>.

Achalasia of the pylorus is a possible diagnosis due to the quick response to EPBD in this child. Achalasia is primarily a motor disorder of the esophagus which presents as a functional obstruction at the lower esophageal sphincter (LES). The etiology is thought to be related to reduced function or numbers of postganglionic inhibitory ganglion cells following an inflammatory episode. Achalasia of the pylorus is rarely reported in the medical literature<sup>[7]</sup>. An inflammatory process in this condition is thought to predispose to persistent pylorospasm which leads to muscular hypertrophy. This is also proposed to be a mechanism that causes obstruction in IHPS. Castro *et al* reported a 12-year-old boy diagnosed with achalasia and IHPS attributed to nitric oxide (NO) absence. NO has been identified as the main inhibitory neurotransmitter in both the LES and the pyloric sphincter. Moreover, the absence of NO synthase in the LES and the pylorus has been implicated in the pathogenesis of IHPS and achalasia<sup>[8]</sup>. Williams reported three adult patients with acquired GOO and proposed achalasia of the pylorus as an etiology<sup>[7]</sup>. All were treated with partial gastrectomy and no obvious pathology could explain the cause of pyloric obstruction in these cases. Nine children (age 3 mo to 17 years) presented with a history of late-onset primary GOO of unknown etiology<sup>[9]</sup>. Eight of them underwent Heineke-Mikulicz pyloroplasty as a result of gastric dilatation with no intrinsic or extrinsic mechanical obstruction at the pylorus. Pneumatic dilation was used in two sessions to successfully dilate a pyloric obstruction in a four year old boy<sup>[9]</sup>. Pyloric achalasia was proposed as the etiology of the late-onset functional GOO in these cases<sup>[9]</sup>. Markowitz *et al*<sup>[10]</sup> suggested a pyloric channel ulcer as a cause of development of pyloric stenosis. Although pyloric ulcer was not observed in our patient during a thorough examination of the pyloric channel after Prevacid<sup>®</sup> therapy for 3 wk, the presence of

antroduodenal inflammation and ulcer deformity or pyloric mucosal scarring was reported in most patients with peptic pyloric stenosis<sup>[3]</sup>.

CGD is a hereditary disorder of granulocyte function which causes progressive multisystemic inflammation and pyloric obstruction. A previously healthy child with acute onset of GOO described by Varma *et al*<sup>[11]</sup> had normal pyloric histology on endoscopic biopsy, but a full thickness biopsy during laparotomy and the DHR study confirmed the diagnosis of CGD.

EPBD has been used to treat IHPS and other causes of GOO including a pyloric stricture secondary to caustic ingestion, peptic ulcer disease, and delayed gastric emptying<sup>[2-5]</sup>. Balloon dilatation was a successful alternative procedure to surgery in two infants with IHPS who had inadequate pyloromyotomy and in an 11-year-old boy with surgical damage to the vagus nerve. EPBD was used as a treatment after failed pyloromyotomy in children with hypertrophic pyloric stenosis<sup>[5]</sup>. The success of EPBD in treating pyloric stenosis or GOO is explained by a complete and longitudinal disruption of the seromuscular ring without any damage to mucosal integrity (tearing)<sup>[6]</sup>.

Idiopathic pyloric stenosis is a rare condition. A “burned out” IHPS, achalasia of the pylorus, and peptic pyloric stenosis are strongly suggested, based on clinical history. We believe the late presentation of acquired pyloric stenosis may depend upon the timing of advancing feeds, food consistency, gastric accommodation, and prior acute illness predisposing to dysmotility. While pyloromyotomy is a recommended operation for IHPS and pyloroplasty in other surgical GOO, we propose that some children who do not fit into the ultrasonographic criteria for IHPS may be good candidates for EPBD.

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## Meetings

### Events Calendar 2010

January 25-26  
Tamilnadu, India  
International Conference on Medical  
Negligence and Litigation in Medical  
Practice

January 25-29  
Waikoloa, HI, United States  
Selected Topics in Internal Medicine

January 26-27  
Dubai, United Arab Emirates  
2nd Middle East Gastroenterology  
Conference

February 11-13  
Fort Lauderdale, FL, United States  
21th Annual International Colorectal  
Disease Symposium

February 26-28  
Carolina, United States  
First Symposium of GI Oncology at  
The Caribbean

March 05-07  
Peshawar, Pakistan  
26th Pakistan Society of  
Gastroenterology & Endoscopy  
Meeting

March 12-14  
Bhubaneswar, India  
18th Annual Meeting of Indian  
National Association for Study of  
the Liver

March 25-28  
Beijing, China  
The 20th Conference of the Asian  
Pacific Association for the Study of  
the Liver

March 27-28  
San Diego, California, United States  
25th Annual New Treatments in  
Chronic Liver Disease

April 07-09  
Dubai, United Arab Emirates  
The 6th Emirates Gastroenterology  
and Hepatology Conference, EGHC  
2010

April 14-17  
Landover, Maryland, United States  
12th World Congress of Endoscopic  
Surgery

April 14-18  
Vienna, Austria  
The International Liver Congress™  
2010

April 28-May 01  
Dubrovnik, Croatia  
3rd Central European Congress  
of surgery and the 5th Croatian  
Congress of Surgery

May 01-05  
New Orleans, LA, United States  
Digestive Disease Week Annual  
Meeting

May 15-19  
Minneapolis, MN, United States  
American Society of Colon and  
Rectal Surgeons Annual Meeting

June 04-06  
Chicago, IL, United States  
American Society of Clinical  
Oncologists Annual Meeting

June 16-19  
Hong Kong, China  
ILTS: International Liver  
Transplantation Society ILTS Annual  
International Congress

June 20-23  
Mannheim, Germany  
16th World Congress for  
Bronchoesophagology-WCBE

August 28-31  
Boston, Massachusetts, United States  
10th OESO World Congress on  
Diseases of the Oesophagus 2010

September 10-12  
Montreal, Canada  
International Liver Association's  
Fourth Annual Conference

September 11-12  
La Jolla, CA, United States  
New Advances in Inflammatory  
Bowel Disease

September 16-18  
Prague, Czech Republic  
Prague Hepatology Meeting 2010

September 23-26  
Prague, Czech Republic  
The 1st World Congress on  
Controversies in Gastroenterology &  
Liver Diseases

October 07-09  
Belgrade, Serbia  
The 7th Biannual International

Symposium of Society of  
Coloproctology

October 15-20  
San Antonio, TX, United States  
ACG 2010: American College of  
Gastroenterology Annual Scientific  
Meeting

October 23-27  
Barcelona, Spain  
18th United European  
Gastroenterology Week

October 29-November 02  
Boston, Massachusetts, United States  
The Liver Meeting® 2010--AASLD's  
61st Annual Meeting

November 13-14  
San Francisco, CA, United States  
Case-Based Approach to the  
Management of Inflammatory Bowel  
Disease



## Instructions to authors

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The major task of *WJGE* is to report rapidly the most recent results in basic and clinical research on gastrointestinal endoscopy including: gastroscopy, intestinal endoscopy, colonoscopy, capsule endoscopy, laparoscopy, interventional diagnosis and therapy, as well as advances in technology. Emphasis is placed on the clinical practice of treating gastrointestinal diseases with or under endoscopy. Papers on advances and application of endoscopy-associated techniques, such as endoscopic ultrasonography, endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography, endoscopic submucosal dissection and endoscopic balloon dilation are also welcome.

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- 2 **Lin GZ**, Wang XZ, Wang P, Lin J, Yang FD. Immunologic effect of Jianpi Yishen decoction in treatment of Pixu-diarhoea. *Shijie Huaren Xiaobua Zazhi* 1999; **7**: 285-287

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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

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- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMCID: 2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

*Both personal authors and an organization as author*

- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

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- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; **(401)**: 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

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- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

### Books

*Personal author(s)*

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

*Chapter in a book (list all authors)*

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

*Author(s) and editor(s)*

- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wicczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

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- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

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- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

**Electronic journal** (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

**Patent** (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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