

# Gastrointestinal Motility Disorders, Diagnosis and Treatment (for New Mexico Only)

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[Instructions for Use](#)

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## Related Policies

- [Bariatric Surgery \(for New Mexico Only\)](#)
- [Minimally Invasive Procedures for Gastric and Esophageal Diseases \(for New Mexico Only\)](#)

## Application

This Medical Policy only applies to the state of New Mexico.

## Coverage Rationale

Gastric electrical stimulation (GES) therapy is proven and medically necessary for treating refractory [Gastroparesis](#) that has failed other therapies, or chronic intractable (drug-refractory) nausea and vomiting secondary to Gastroparesis of diabetic or idiopathic etiology.

The following medical studies are proven and medically necessary for evaluation of colorectal function:

- Rectal manometry, rectal sensation, tone and compliance test, and [Anorectal Manometry](#)
- Conventional [Defecography](#) for evaluating intractable [Constipation](#) or Constipation in members who have one or more of the following conditions that are suspected to be the cause of impaired defecation:
  - Pelvic floor dyssynergia (inappropriate contraction of the puborectalis muscle); or
  - Enterocele (e.g., after hysterectomy); or
  - Anterior rectocele

Refer to the [U.S. Food and Drug Administration \(FDA\)](#) section for information regarding FDA labeling and Humanitarian Device Exemption (HDE) for GES.

The following procedures are unproven and not medically necessary due to insufficient evidence of efficacy:

- [Colonic Manometry](#) for evaluating colon motility
- Conventional Defecography for evaluating all other conditions not included above
- [Magnetic Resonance Imaging \(MRI\) Defecography](#) for evaluating Constipation and [Anorectal](#) or pelvic floor disorders
- Cutaneous, mucous, or serosal [Electrogastrography](#) or electroenterography for diagnosing intestinal or gastric disorders including Gastroparesis
- Ingestible vibrating capsule devices (e.g., the Vibrant® System) for the treatment of Constipation

## Definitions

**Anorectal Disorders:** Structural or functional abnormalities of the anorectum or pelvic floor (Patcharatrakul and Rao, 2018).

**Anorectal Manometry:** A test performed to measure the pressures of the anal sphincter muscles, the sensation in the rectum, and the neural reflexes that are needed for normal bowel movements (Rodriguez et al., 2017).

**Colonic Manometry:** A functional test for severe Constipation where a probe is inserted via antegrade or retrograde in the colon to measure pressure and colonic motor activities (Dinning et al., 2010).

**Constipation:** Infrequent or hard-to-pass bowel movements, hard stools or incomplete bowel movement sensation; infrequent means less than three bowel movements a week (Bharucha et al., 2013a).

**Defecography:** Fluoroscopic examination with functional, real-time assessment of defecation mechanics; performed for longstanding Constipation, unexplained anal or rectal pain, residual sensation after defecation or suspected prolapse (Kim and Rhee, 2011).

**Electrogastrography (EGG):** A non-invasive method for the measurement of gastric myoelectrical activity using cutaneous electrodes placed on the abdominal skin over the stomach (Yin and Chen, 2013).

**Fecal Incontinence (FI):** The inability to control bowel movements causing stool (feces) to leak unexpectedly from the rectum; also called bowel or anal incontinence (Bharucha et al., 2013a).

**Gastroparesis:** A digestive disorder in which the motility of the stomach is either abnormal or absent; it is also known as delayed gastric emptying (Camilleri, 2013, updated 2022).

**Magnetic Resonance Defecography:** A noninvasive test that uses magnetic resonance imaging to obtain images at various stages of defecation to evaluate how well the pelvic muscles are working and provide insight into rectal function ([radiologyinfo.org](http://radiologyinfo.org)); it can evaluate pelvic floor anatomy, dynamic motion, and rectal evacuation simultaneously (Rao and Patcharatrakul, 2016).

## Applicable Codes

The following list(s) of procedure and/or diagnosis codes is provided for reference purposes only and may not be all inclusive. Listing of a code in this policy does not imply that the service described by the code is a covered or non-covered health service. Benefit coverage for health services is determined by federal, state, or contractual requirements and applicable laws that may require coverage for a specific service. The inclusion of a code does not imply any right to reimbursement or guarantee claim payment. Other Policies and Guidelines may apply.

CPT Code	Description
0779T	Gastrointestinal myoelectrical activity study, stomach through colon, with interpretation and report
0868T	High-resolution gastric electrophysiology mapping with simultaneous patient-symptom profiling, with interpretation and report
43647	Laparoscopy, surgical; implantation or replacement of gastric neurostimulator electrodes, antrum
43648	Laparoscopy, surgical; revision or removal of gastric neurostimulator electrodes, antrum
43881	Implantation or replacement of gastric neurostimulator electrodes, antrum, open
43882	Revision or removal of gastric neurostimulator electrodes, antrum, open
64590	Insertion or replacement of peripheral, sacral, or gastric neurostimulator pulse generator or receiver, requiring pocket creation and connection between electrode array and pulse generator or receiver
64595	Revision or removal of peripheral, sacral, or gastric neurostimulator pulse generator or receiver, with detachable connection to electrode array
72195	Magnetic resonance (e.g., proton) imaging, pelvis; without contrast material(s)
72196	Magnetic resonance (e.g., proton) imaging, pelvis; with contrast material(s)
72197	Magnetic resonance (e.g., proton) imaging, pelvis; without contrast material(s), followed by contrast material(s) and further sequences

CPT Code	Description
76496	Unlisted fluoroscopic procedure (e.g., diagnostic, interventional)
91117	Colon motility (manometric) study, minimum 6 hours continuous recording (including provocation tests, e.g., meal, intracolonic balloon distension, pharmacologic agents, if performed), with interpretation and report
91120	Rectal sensation, tone, and compliance test (i.e., response to graded balloon distention)
91122	Anorectal manometry
91132	Electrogastrography, diagnostic, transcutaneous
91133	Electrogastrography, diagnostic, transcutaneous; with provocative testing

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HCPCS Code	Description
A9286	Hygienic item or device, disposable or nondisposable, any type, each
A9900	Miscellaneous DME supply, accessory, and/or service component of another HCPCS code
A9999	Miscellaneous DME supply or accessory, not otherwise specified
E1399	Durable medical equipment, miscellaneous

## Description of Services

Several gastrointestinal motility disorders, such as Constipation, Fecal Incontinence, and Gastroparesis may require a testing before a diagnosis can be made.

Symptoms of Constipation, one of the most common digestive problems, are extremely common. The prevalence of Constipation is approximately 16% in adults overall and 33% in adults over 60. If symptoms do not improve, investigations to diagnose rectal evacuation disorders and slow-transit Constipation are sometimes performed, such as digital rectal examination, anorectal structure and function testing (including the balloon expulsion test, Anorectal Manometry or Defecography) or colonic transit tests (such as the radiopaque marker test, wireless motility capsule test, scintigraphy, or Colonic Manometry) (Camilleri et al., 2017). While in most cases, Constipation is benign and due to dietary and lifestyle factors, Constipation is sometimes due to disordered colonic and/or pelvic floor/anorectal function.

Fecal Incontinence (FI) is the inability to control bowel movements causing stool to leak unexpectedly from the rectum. Continence requires the rectum, anus, and nervous system to be working normally. FI is commonly caused by altered stools (generally diarrhea, but also Constipation) or conditions that affect the ability of the rectum and anus to hold stool.

Individuals with Gastroparesis may experience symptoms of frequent nausea and vomiting, early satiety, bloating, postprandial fullness, and epigastric pain and burning. Although Gastroparesis can occur with no obvious cause, diabetics frequently develop this condition. If Gastroparesis causes nausea and persistent vomiting, it can lead to frequent hospitalization for hypoglycemia, hyperglycemia, acidosis, dehydration, pseudo-obstruction, electrolyte dyscrasias, or other complications. The diagnosis of Gastroparesis requires objective evidence of clearly delayed gastric emptying in symptomatic patients. Scintigraphy is the reference standard for measurement of gastric emptying. Protocols for standardized meals prior to scintigraphy have been recommended; however, for interpretation of test results, it has to be taken into account that clinical utility depends on complete consumption of adequate test meals and adequate duration of imaging. For all gastrointestinal function tests, adherence to adequately validated, standardized study protocols is crucial (Keller et al., 2018).

Electrogastrography (EGG) is a non-invasive technique for recording gastric myoelectrical activity using cutaneous electrodes placed on the abdominal skin over the stomach. The surface recording obtained using electrography is called the electrogastrogram. Gastric myoelectrical activity may be altered or become abnormal in diseased states or upon provocative stimulations or even spontaneously. Abnormal gastric myoelectrical activity includes gastric dysrhythmia, abnormal slow wave propagation, and electro-mechanical uncoupling. In the stomach, there is lack of one-to-one correlation between spikes and contractions, and thus this abnormality cannot be accurately detected from the in vivo myoelectrical recording. In individuals with gastrointestinal motility disorders or individuals with functional gastrointestinal diseases, EGG is used to identify the pathophysiology of the diseases associated with gastric slow waves or dysrhythmia (Yin and Chen, 2013). Electroenterography is a similar procedure that records myoelectrical activity from the intestines.

Anorectal Disorders present with a variety of symptoms and result from either structural or functional disorders. Clinical correlation is essential before labeling an abnormal finding as clinically significant. Together with a detailed history, a

thorough physical and digital rectal examination and appropriate testing, in most patients the underlying cause and type of anorectal disorder can be correctly identified, and treatment can be tailored (Patcharatrakul and Rao, 2018).

Defecatory disorders are primarily characterized by impaired rectal evacuation from inadequate rectal propulsive forces and/or increased resistance to evacuation; the latter may result from high anal resting pressure (“anismus”) and/or incomplete relaxation or paradoxical contraction of the pelvic floor and external anal sphincters (“dyssynergia”) during defecation. Structural disturbances (e.g., rectocele, intussusception) and reduced rectal sensation may coexist.

Conventional Defecography (also known as evacuation proctography) involves the X-ray imaging of the defecation process. With the aid of barium, X-rays can follow the movement of fecal matter through the rectum and anus during a bowel movement. It provides useful information about structural changes such as rectoceles, rectal prolapse, and intussusception, and dyssynergic defecation and descending perineum syndrome. Defecography has been proposed as a diagnostic tool to evaluate lower bowel disorders that are not evident by direct visualization.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) Defecography is being studied as an imaging tool that may provide an enhanced view of the bowel movement process including the underlying anatomic and pathophysiologic background of pelvic floor disorders. It can evaluate pelvic floor anatomy, dynamic motion, and rectal evacuation simultaneously (Rao and Patcharatrakul, 2016).

The use of disposable vibrating capsule systems for the treatment of chronic Constipation is being evaluated to determine if the vibrations augment normal peristalsis and help to reset the connection between the gut and the brain’s circadian rhythm. These non-pharmacological systems are intended for home use in adults when conventional laxative therapies do not work (Hayes, 2022).

## Clinical Evidence

### Gastric Electrical Stimulation (GES) Therapy

In a systematic review of the therapeutic role of gastric pacemakers in adults with gastroparesis, Rajamanuri et al. (2021) reviewed 12 studies [including Ducrotte et al. (2020), Chu et al. (2012) and Shada et al. (2018) previously included in this section] that included data on adults with medically refractory gastroparesis that required gastric electrical stimulation therapy, and found that the studies showed varying effects of GES on gastroparesis symptoms like nausea, vomiting, and abdominal bloating. They also concluded that there was significant weight gain noted based on the evidence in the studies they reviewed and that while most of the studies suggested a significant improvement in the quality of life and the Gastroparesis Cardinal Symptom Index (GCSI) scores, the evidence supporting no difference in the quality of life seemed stronger, as shown by the meta-analysis and randomized controlled trials vs. open-label trials that showed positive results for quality of life with gastric pacing. The authors also found other beneficial effects of GES including reductions in inflammatory indicators, improved metabolic hormone levels and improved mucosal electrogram frequencies over baseline that were sustained for over six months. The authors noted that their review was limited due to the inclusion of open-labeled studies. They recommended additional RCTs to analyze the impact of gastric pacemakers in the improvement of symptoms in patients with gastroparesis, studies that evaluate the efficacy for the different causes of gastroparesis, such as diabetes, idiopathic and post-surgical, and future studies that include the pediatric population.

Hayes (2018, updated 2022) published a Health Technology Assessment (HTA) on the safety and efficacy of GES for gastroparesis following their review of 12 studies, including 3 randomized crossover trials (RCTs), six pre-treatment/post-treatment studies, one non-randomized comparative study, one comparative cohort study and one compilation of case series. The Hayes HTA stated that the effectiveness of GES for treating chronic gastroparesis remains uncertain, as findings have not provided consistent evidence. They noted that the available randomized studies provide little confirmation of the apparent benefit that was seen in unblinded studies. The report noted that GES appears safe in most patients but that serious complications can occur, including the movement of the stimulator and/or the electrical leads following implantation. They noted that the device removal rates in the studies they reviewed were between 7% to 12%. The overall quality of the evidence for GES for the treatment of gastroparesis was low due to the individual study limitations and inconsistency in the findings. The HTA concluded that additional randomized and placebo-controlled studies are needed to determine whether GES is a reliable therapy for gastroparesis and whether the benefits of GES treatment outweigh the potential risks.

Levinthal and Bielefeldt (2017) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to determine if GES is effective in reducing symptoms in patients with gastroparesis. Five studies randomly allocated patients to periods with or without GES. Total symptom severity (TSS) scores did not differ between these periods [0.17 (95% confidence interval: -0.06 to 0.4); p = 0.15]. However, sixteen open label studies of GES showed a significant TSS decrease [2.68 (2.04-3.32); Q =

39.0;  $p < 0.001$ ]. Other treatment modalities similarly improved TSS by 1.97 (1.5-2.44) for medical therapy (MED), by 1.52 (0.9-2.15) for placebo arms (PLA), and by 2.32 (1.56-3.06) for botulinum toxin (BTx). There were significant differences in baseline TSS ratings among these studies [GES: 6.28 (6.28-7.42); MED: 4.76 (4.09-5.42); PLA: 4.59 (3.77-5.42); BTx: 6.02 (5.3-6.74);  $Q = 35.1$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ]. Meta-regression analysis showed these baseline differences to significantly impact TSS ratings during treatment ( $Q = 71.8$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Independent of the treatment modality, baseline symptom severity impacts treatment results in gastroparesis. Considering the skewed population with refractory symptoms, regression to the mean likely contributes to the substantial discrepancies between the reported results of controlled and open label GES studies. [Study by Chu et al. (2012) which was previously cited in this policy, is included in the Levinthal and Bielefeldt (2017) meta-analysis].

Heckert et al. (2016) assessed the effectiveness of GES with Enterra® for treatment for refractory symptoms of gastroparesis, the improvement in specific symptoms of gastroparesis, and clinical factors impacting on outcome in a cohort of 151 patients with refractory gastroparesis at a single center. Gastroparesis patients [ $n = 151$ ; (120 females) with refractory gastroparesis (72 diabetic, 73 idiopathic, 6 other)] underwent GES with Enterra® (Medtronic). Patients filled out a symptom severity questionnaire (PAGI-SYM) prior to insertion. At each follow-up visit, the patient filled out PAGI-SYM and assessed their therapeutic response using the Clinical Patient Grading Assessment Scale (CPGAS). The investigators concluded that GES improved symptoms in 75% of patients with 43% being at least moderately improved. Response in diabetics was better than in nondiabetic patients. Nausea, loss of appetite, and early satiety responded the best. The unknown length of study follow-up did not allow for assessment of intermediate and long-term outcomes. Furthermore, lack of comparison group limits the conclusions that can be derived from this case series.

Lal et al. (2015) performed a systematic review of GES using the Enterra System. The final review consisted of 21 out of 53 potentially relevant studies published since 2003; eighteen were prospective cohort studies and 3 were crossover studies. The overall risk of bias was considered medium to high in the majority of studies. The main reason was the frequency of non-randomized trials which tend to have a higher risk of bias. There was a variation in the methods used to assess the improvement in symptoms in the patients with GES implants. The most commonly used measures were: Total Symptom Score (TSS), Gastroparesis Cardinal Symptom Index (GCSI), Monthly and Weekly Vomiting Frequency, Monthly and Weekly Nausea Frequency, and Gastrointestinal Symptoms Rating Scale (GSRS). All studies investigating gastric emptying used a 2-hour and 4-hour Gastric Emptying Test (GET) after a low-fat meal. The studies in this systematic review included a variety of outcome measures and variety of preoperative assessments, making it difficult to combine data and offer firm conclusions. The evidence base for the use of GES in gastroparesis is limited with a total of just five months of blinded, randomized study including only 83 patients. However, accepting the limitations of the evidence base, the majority of studies reported an improvement in symptomology and quality of life with GES. An improvement in gastric emptying was seen in most studies, with only two failing to demonstrate an improvement. However, with the exception of one study, improved gastric emptying did not correlate with the improved symptomology. The authors concluded that while current evidence has shown a degree of efficacy in these patients, high-quality, large clinical trials are needed to establish the efficacy of this therapy and to identify the patients for whom this therapy is inappropriate. A consensus view on essential preoperative assessment and postoperative measurement is needed. [Study by McCallum et al. (2010) which was previously cited in this policy, is included in the Lal et al. (2015) systematic review].

Jayanthi et al. (2013) conducted a clinical audit of 71 gastroparesis patients, 35 who were selected for GES, from May 2008 to January 2012. The etiology of gastroparesis was idiopathic (61%), diabetes (21%), or post-surgical (18%). Outcome data for 31 patients (idiopathic, 21 patients; diabetes, 3; post-surgical, 7) with a median follow-up period of 10 months (1-28) showed 22 patients (71%) with intractable gastroparesis had good response to permanent GES at follow-up of up to 2 years.

McCallum et al. (2011) assessed the long-term clinical outcomes of GES therapy with Enterra® in a large case series of patients with severe gastroparesis. Patients with gastroparesis ( $n = 221$ ; 142 diabetic, 48 idiopathic, and 31 postsurgical) treated with Enterra (Medtronic) for 1-11 years were retrospectively assessed; 188 had follow-up visits and data were collected for at least 1 year. Total symptom scores (TSS), hospitalization days, and use of medications were significantly reduced among all patients. More patients with diabetic (58%) and postsurgical gastroparesis (53%) had a greater than 50% reduction in TSS than those with idiopathic disease (48%). Weight significantly increased among all groups, and 89% of J-tubes could be removed. At end of the follow-up period, all etiological groups had similar, abnormal delays in mean gastric retention. Thirteen patients (7%) had their devices removed because of infection at the pulse generator site. The investigators concluded that GES therapy significantly improved subjective and objective parameters in patients with severe gastroparesis; efficacy was sustained for up to 10 years and was accompanied by good safety and tolerance profiles. Patients with diabetic or postsurgical gastroparesis benefited more than those with idiopathic disease. Lack of comparison group however limits the conclusions that can be derived from this case series.

## **Clinical Practice Guidelines**

### **American College of Gastroenterology (ACG)**

The ACG published a clinical guideline for the management of gastroparesis that states that GES may be considered for control of gastroparesis symptoms as a humanitarian use device (HUD), as defined by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for medically refractory diabetic gastroparesis or idiopathic gastroparesis. This conditional recommendation was based on a low-quality body of evidence (Camilleri 2013, updated 2022).

### **American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)**

The AGA published a clinical practice update on the management of medically refractory gastroparesis based on a review of existing literature combined with expert opinion to provide practical advice. Based on this review, the AGA stated that clinicians can consider gastric electrical stimulation for patients with gastroparesis and refractory/intractable nausea and vomiting who have failed standard therapy and are not on opioids. This guidance was based on their review of six published studies that they stated showed that GES improved refractory nausea and vomiting in some patients with gastroparesis and may improve glycemic control, nutritional status, and quality of life, while reducing hospitalizations and medication use. They noted that this document was not based on a systematic review, so no formal rating of the quality of evidence or strength of recommendation was made (Lacey, 2022).

In a white paper on current approaches for the treatment of gastroparesis, the AGA (Pasricha et al., 2017) includes GES therapy (recommendation: conditional; level of evidence: moderate).

### **The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE)**

The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) (2014) interventional procedure guidance on GES for gastroparesis notes that GES is an option for treating chronic, intractable nausea and vomiting secondary to gastroparesis, observing that further publications providing data about the effects of the procedure on symptoms in the long term and on device durability would be useful.

### **Anorectal Manometry**

Rasijeff, et al. (2022) completed a systematic review and meta-analysis on the prevalence of major disorders of anal motor and rectal sensory function. The systematic review included 13 studies with 2,981 patients with fecal incontinence and 1,028 controls. The age range was 13 to 97 years old with a mean range between 52 and 67 years. Anal tone was assessed in 10 studies, contractility was assessed in 11 studies, and rectal sensitivity in five studies. Six of the 13 studies were considered as low quality with a high risk of bias, four were found to be of medium quality and three were found to have low risk of bias. The authors determined that the pooled prevalence of anal hypotonia was 44% in women and 27% in men, of anal hypocontractility was 69% in women and 36% in men, of rectal hypersensitivity was 10% in women and 4% in men, and of rectal hyposensitivity was 7% in women and 19% in men. Limitations noted by the authors included the paucity of studies with large sample sizes that were available, the high number of co-existing symptoms, the lack of standardized definitions for measures such as 'hypo' and 'hyper', the potential for gender differences, wide confidence intervals and high heterogeneity. Conclusions reached by the authors included a clear gender disparity in the rates of sphincter barrier dysfunction and rectal sensory dysfunction, and that poor sphincter control was the most prevalent abnormality. They recommended that large-scale prospective studies be performed using a standardized protocol and for a collective effort to harmonize practice.

In a retrospective review, Chedid et al. (2019) audited records of 449 consecutive patients with chronic constipation (CC). Anal sphincter tone and contraction, puborectalis tenderness, and perineal descent on digital rectal exam (DRE); maximum resting and squeeze pressures, and rectoanal pressure gradient on HRM; weight or time to balloon expulsion; colonic transit, and area of rectal area on radiograph (RASf) were evaluated. The investigators based the diagnosis of rectal evacuation disorders (RED) on  $\geq 2$  abnormalities on both DRE and anorectal manometry (HRM), excluding results of balloon expulsion test (BET), as the performance of BET is being investigated. Results of RED vs. non-RED and results obtained using time-based BET (tbBET) vs. weight-based BET (wbBET) groups were compared. The final analysis included 276 patients (74 RED and 202 non-RED). Predominant exclusions were for no HRM ( $n = 79$ ) or use of low-resolution anorectal manometry ( $n = 77$ ). Logistic regression models for abnormal tbBET showed time  $> 60$  seconds, RASf and age-predicted RED. For tbBET, the current cutoff of 60 seconds had sensitivity of 39.0% and specificity 93.0% to diagnose RED; on the other hand, applying the cutoff at 22 seconds, the sensitivity was 77.8% and specificity 69.8%. Limitations of study included more patients enrolled with wbBET versus tbBET and no established gold standard for diagnosis of CC. The authors concluded that the clinical diagnosis of RED in patients with CC is achieved with combination of DRE, HRM and an optimized, time-based BET. They recommend prospective studies to confirm the proposed 22-second cutoff for tbBET.

In a systematic review and meta-analysis, Yeap et al. (2017) assessed the diagnostic accuracy of anorectal manometry (ARM) for fecal incontinence. Seven studies were included out of an initial search of 1,499 studies. The summary sensitivity and specificity for ARM as an overall test were 0.80 [95% confidence interval (CI): 0.69-0.88] and 0.80 (95% CI: 0.65-0.90), respectively. The diagnostic odds ratio (DOR) for ARM was found to be 16.61 (95% CI: 5.52-50.03). The positive likelihood ratio (PLR) and negative likelihood ratio (NLR) for ARM were found to be 4.09 (95% CI: 2.11-7.94) and 0.25 (95% CI: 0.14-0.42), respectively. Subgroup analysis based on four studies reporting on maximum resting pressure (MRP) demonstrated a sensitivity, specificity, DOR, PLR and NLR of 0.60 (95% CI: 0.38-0.79), 0.93 (95% CI: 0.80-0.97), 20.0 (95% CI: 4.00-91.00), 8.60 (95% CI: 3.00-24.30) and 0.43 (95% CI: 0.24-0.76), respectively. The authors concluded that ARM has been shown to be an accurate test for diagnosing FI but suggest that further studies are required to establish the diagnostic accuracy of individual ARM measures.

In a retrospective analysis, Prichard et al. (2017) compared anorectal high-resolution manometry (HRM), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), or balloon expulsion test (BET) for assessing rectal evacuation and structural abnormalities in women. Their analysis included 188 patients with constipation (n = 51), fecal incontinence (n = 48), or rectal prolapse (n = 19), and 30 asymptomatic women serving as a control group. The authors used principal components analysis of HRM variables to identify rectoanal pressure patterns associated with rectal prolapse and phenotypes of patients with prolapse. They concluded that HRM alone and together with anorectal descent during evacuation, may identify rectal prolapse and large rectoceles, respectively, and also identify unique phenotypes of rectal prolapse.

Pucciani and Ringressi (2012) evaluated the clinical usefulness of ARM in patients affected by obstructed defecation (OD). A total of 370 patients (287 women and 92 men) affected by OD were evaluated. After a preliminary clinical evaluation, defecography and ARM were performed. The results were compared with those from 20 healthy control subjects. Overall anal resting pressure was not significantly different between patients and controls. Maximal voluntary contraction (MVC) data were significantly lower when compared with those of controls. The straining test was considered positive in 143 patients. No significant difference was noted between patients and controls in maximal tolerated volume data. Patients had a significantly higher conscious rectal sensitivity threshold than controls. According to the authors, a positive straining test, low MVC and impaired rectal sensation are the main abnormalities detected in ARM in patients with OD.

Noviello et al. (2009) evaluated the role of anorectal manometry (ARM) in 85 children with severe constipation. The mean age was 5 years (range, 1-13). Based on the results of the study, the investigators concluded that ARM is a noninvasive diagnostic tool to study the mechanism of defecation in children with constipation in order to prescribe the appropriate treatment. According to the authors, this procedure can be used in every child, aged more than 1 year, with severe constipation and concluded that assessment of the recto-anal inhibitory reflex (RAIR) can select the cases for rectal suction biopsies (RSB).

## ***Clinical Practice Guidelines***

### **American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons (ASCRS)**

In a practice guideline for the treatment of fecal incontinence, the ASCRS indicates that anorectal physiology studies (anal manometry) may be helpful in guiding management of fecal incontinence (Grade of Recommendation: Strong recommendation based on low- or very low-quality evidence) (Paquette et al., 2015).

In their updated clinical practice guideline for the evaluation and management of constipation, the ASCRS indicates that anorectal physiology and colon transit investigations may help identify the underlying etiology and are useful in patients with refractory constipation. This includes measurement of resting and squeeze pressures with anal manometry, measurement of rectal volume sensation, testing of rectoanal inhibitory reflex, and balloon expulsion (strong recommendation based on low-quality evidence) (Paquette et al., 2016).

### **American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)**

An AGA medical position statement on constipation states that anorectal manometry and a rectal balloon expulsion should be performed in patients who fail to respond to laxatives (strong recommendation, moderate-quality evidence) (Bharucha et al., 2013a).

### **American College of Gastroenterology (ACG)**

In a clinical guideline on management of benign anorectal disorders, the ACG states that confidence in the diagnosis of a defecation disorder is increased if there is a combination of a clinical history of chronic constipation and two abnormal tests, e.g., impaired ability to evacuate a 50-ml water-filled balloon or abnormal defecography and evidence from pelvic floor EMG or ARM that the patient is unable to relax pelvic floor muscles or increase rectal pressure during simulated defecation (strong recommendation, moderate quality of evidence) (Wald et al., 2014, updated 2021).

## Conventional Defecography

Grossi et al. (2018) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate rates of structural and functional abnormalities diagnosed by barium defecography and/or magnetic resonance imaging defecography (MRID) in patients with symptoms of chronic constipation and in healthy volunteers. From a total of 1,760 records identified, 175 full-text articles were assessed for eligibility. Sixty-three studies were included, providing data on outcomes of 7,519 barium defecographies and 668 MRIDs in patients with CC, and 225 barium defecographies and 50 MRIDs in healthy volunteers. Pathological high-grade (Oxford III and IV) intussuscepta and large (> 4 cm) rectoceles were diagnosed in 23.7% (95% CI: 16.8-31.4) and 15.9% (10.4-22.2) of patients, respectively. Enterocele and perineal descent were observed in 16.8% (12.7-21.4) and 44.4% (36.2-52.7) of patients, respectively. Barium defecography detected more intussuscepta than MRID [OR: 1.52 (1.12-2.14);  $p = 0.009$ ]. Normative data for both barium defecography and MRID structural and functional parameters were limited, particularly for MRID (only one eligible study). The authors concluded that since structural abnormalities cannot be evaluated using non-imaging test modalities (balloon expulsion and anorectal manometry), defecography should be considered the first-line diagnostic test.

Rafiei et al. (2017) evaluated the findings of defecography in 100 patients with severe idiopathic chronic constipation. An analysis of radiographs was performed for the diagnosis of descending perineum syndrome, rectocele, enterocele, rectal ulcer, rectal prolapse, fecal residue of post defecation, or other diagnosis and compared between the two sexes. Normal defecography was only observed in two participants. Descending perineum syndrome was the most common abnormality (73.3%). The results showed that rectocele (80.8%) and descending perineum syndrome (69.2%) were most frequent in women. In males, descending perineum syndrome and rectal prolapse were more prevalent (87% and 43.5%, respectively). Compared with men, rectocele and rectal ulcer were more frequently observed in women ( $p < 0.001$ , and  $p = 0.04$ , respectively), while men were more affected by descending perineum syndrome ( $p = 0.04$ ). In total, women had a greater incidence of abnormal defecographic findings compared with men ( $p = 0.02$ ). The authors concluded that defecography can be performed to detect anatomic abnormalities in patients with severe idiopathic chronic constipation, and abnormal balloon expulsion test. This technique can assist physicians in making the most suitable decision for a surgical procedure.

Fabrizio et al. (2017) observed that as obstructed defecation is a complex disorder it requires a multimodal evaluation process. Testing done to elicit a diagnosis can incorporate defecography, proctoscopy, colonic transit time studies, anorectal manometry, a rectal balloon expulsion test, electromyography, and ultrasound. They advise that results from these studies be taken in the context of each patient's clinical situation.

## Clinical Practice Guidelines

### American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)

An AGA guideline on constipation states that defecography should not be performed before anorectal manometry and a rectal balloon expulsion test (strong recommendation, low-quality evidence). Defecography should be considered when results of anorectal manometry and rectal balloon expulsion are inconclusive for defecatory disorders (strong recommendation, low-quality evidence) (Bharucha et al., 2013a).

According to the AGA's *Technical Review on Constipation*, defecography is particularly useful when the results of anorectal testing are inconsistent with the clinical impression and/or to identify anatomic abnormalities. The most relevant findings in defecatory disorders include inadequate (spastic disorder) or excessive (flaccid perineum, descending perineum syndrome) widening of the anorectal angle and/or perineal descent during defecation. Excessive straining, internal intussusception, solitary rectal ulcers, rectoceles, and rectal prolapse may also be observed. If the vagina and small intestine are opacified, enteroceles as well as bladder and uterovaginal prolapse can also be visualized (Bharucha et al., 2013b).

### American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons (ASCRS)

In an updated clinical practice guideline on the evaluation and management of constipation, the ASCRS (Paquette et al., 2016) states that if anorectal physiology testing is not diagnostic for defecation dysfunction, other imaging studies, such as defecography, can be useful to identify anatomic abnormalities, such as rectocele, enterocele, internal intussusception, or prolapse that may be associated with constipation. Imaging with cindefecography, MRI defecography, or transperineal ultrasound echo defecography may be useful in identifying anatomical abnormalities associated with obstructive defecation (Grade of Recommendation: strong recommendation based on low-quality evidence, 1C).

In an updated clinical practice guideline on the treatment of rectal prolapse, the ASCRS (Bordeianou et al., 2017) states that if prolapse is suggested but cannot be seen during physical examination, fluoroscopic defecography, MRI defecography, or balloon expulsion testing may reveal the problem. Defecography may also reveal associated anterior



pelvic floor support defects, such as cystocele, vaginal vault prolapse, and enterocele (Grade of Recommendation: strong recommendation based on moderate-quality evidence, 1B).

## **Colonic Motility Testing or Colonic Manometry**

Currently there is insufficient evidence regarding the effectiveness of colon manometry or colonic motility. Patient selection criteria and the role of colonic manometry in the management of refractory constipation must be better defined in statistically robust, well-designed clinical trials.

In a systematic review of available published studies, Evans-Barns, et al. (2022), sought to summarize the methodology and outcomes of colonic manometry performed in children with repaired anorectal malformations (ARM). The systematic review followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) protocol, and the quality appraisal of non-randomized study methodology was done according to the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS). In each of the four studies included in the review, colonic manometry was used to investigate the pathophysiology of post-operative bowel dysfunction and as a tool to predict the outcome of subsequent surgical intervention. There was a total combined cohort of 151 children, of which, 35 underwent post-operative colonic manometry. ARM type was reported for 25 children in the combined colonic manometry cohort and operative repair type was described in only one of the studies. The quality evaluation completed by the authors identified poor quality of all four studies. Limitations of this systematic review included the variability in the equipment and protocols that were used among the studies, the lack of documentation of the type of ARM, the procedure that was done, and post-operative complications and re-operations, the lack of consensus of terminology and of what “normal” motility is, and the lack of control groups or colonic manometry data from healthy pediatric cohorts. The authors concluded that there are too few studies assessing colonic function in children with ARM that included data specifying how colonic manometry findings may relate to ARM subtypes, operative intervention, and clinical assessments of bowel function.

Singh et al. (2013) investigated whether colonic manometric evaluation is useful for characterizing colonic sensorimotor dysfunction and for guiding therapy in slow transit constipation (STC). Twenty-four hour ambulatory colonic manometry was performed in 80 patients with STC by placing a six-sensor solid-state probe, along with assessment of colonic sensation with barostat. Anorectal manometry was also performed. Manometrically, patients were categorized as having colonic neuropathy or myopathy based on gastrocolonic response, waking response and high amplitude propagated contractions (HAPC); and based on colonic sensation, as colonic hyposensitivity or hypersensitivity. Clinical response to pharmacological, biofeedback, and surgical treatment was assessed at 1 year and correlated with manometric findings. Forty-seven (59%) patients who had abnormal colonic manometry, with features suggestive of neuropathy (26%), and myopathy (33%); 41% had normal colonic manometry. Seventy-four percent of the patients had abnormal colonic sensation and 61% had overlapping dyssynergic defecation. Patients with neuropathy were more likely to have colonic hyposensitivity. Sixty-four percent of patients with colonic myopathy or normal manometry improved with medical/biofeedback therapy when compared to 15% with colonic neuropathy. Selected patients with colonic neuropathy had excellent response to surgery, but many developed bacterial overgrowth. The authors concluded that colonic manometry demonstrates significant colonic sensorimotor dysfunction in STC patients and reveals considerable pathophysiological heterogeneity. According to the authors, colonic manometry can be useful for characterizing the underlying pathophysiology and for guiding clinical management in STC, especially surgery. The study is limited due to a lack of a controlled comparator group or reference standard diagnostic test.

Giorgio et al. (2013) correlated neuromuscular histological phenotypes in pediatric STC with colonic manometric phenotypes using high-resolution manometry (HRM) and tested the hypothesis that failure of motor quiescence (FQ) between bisacodyl-induced high amplitude propagating sequences (HAPSs) might predict neuromuscular pathology. Eighteen children (10 males, median age: 7.5 years) with refractory STC underwent stationary colonic HRM before segmental colonic resection. Six age-matched constipated children with normal colonic transit served as controls. Conventional manometric parameters and area under the curve (AUC) during a 1-minute period following bisacodyl-induced HAPSs [PBAUC(1)], as measure of FQ, were calculated. In segments with HAPS, PBAUC(1) was predictive of colonic neuropathy (Sensitivity 100%, specificity 86%, PPV 92%, NPV 100%). Based on the results of the study, the authors concluded that PBAUC(1) is increased in multiple colonic segments in neuropathic pediatric STC and constitutes a sensitive and specific biomarker of neuropathy. The small study population limits the validity of the conclusion of this study.

Sood et al. (2012) evaluated the variability in interpretation of colon manometry in children. Fifty-seven colon motility studies were independently reviewed by five observers. Each observer was required to report on the colonic motility during fasting, after administration of a meal and after bisacodyl stimulation. They were also asked to comment whether colon manometry study was normal or abnormal and if in their opinion the postprandial recording provided clinically useful information. The median (range) agreement regarding the presence of high amplitude propagating contractions (HAPC) was 83% (80% to 92%). The interpretation of gastrocolonic response produced the most inconsistent results with median

(range) agreement of 64% (53% to 95%). The post-prandial period was reported to be useful in only 3% to 24% of the studies. The median (range) agreement regarding the overall interpretation of the study being either normal or abnormal was 87% (83% to 90%). According to the authors, the most easily recognizable contraction pattern during colon manometry is the HAPC. Visual interpretation of the gastrocolonic response produces the most inconsistent results and maximum variability. The authors concluded that abbreviated colon manometry studies without the post-prandial period or routine calculation of the motility index to evaluate gastrocolonic response can help make colon manometries more objective and reliable. Further studies to evaluate colon manometry are needed to determine the validity of this test.

Tipnis et al. (2012) compared oro-anal transit time (OTT) measured by radio-opaque markers with colon motility (CM) findings in children with chronic constipation and assessed clinical outcomes in 24 children with chronic constipation evaluated by OTT and CM studies. Patients were studied for a median of 23 months and outcomes reviewed. According to the authors, OTT studies may be helpful to predict which children should be referred for CM studies. Normal OTT studies may predict normal colon manometry; however, abnormal OTT studies may not predict abnormalities in colonic manometry in children with chronic constipation. The authors concluded that patients with slow transit marker studies should be assessed by colon manometry to evaluate colon neuromuscular integrity. This study did not evaluate the impact of colon manometry for patient management or disease outcomes.

Rao et al. (2010a) evaluated whether colonic manometry is reproducible in a study that included seven healthy volunteers (three men, four women, mean age = 34 years). Study participants underwent two studies of 24-hour ambulatory colonic manometry, each 2 weeks apart. Paired t-test was used to examine the reproducibility and variability. The number of pressure waves and propagating pressure waves and high-amplitude propagating contractions (HAPC), and area-under-curve (AUC) were similar between the two studies. Diurnal variation, waking, and meal-induced gastrocolonic responses were also reproducible. There was some variability in the incidence of individual colonic motor patterns. The investigators concluded that colonic manometry findings were generally reproducible, particularly for the assessment of key physiologic changes such as meal-induced gastrocolonic, HAPC, and waking responses. Further research is needed to determine the clinical relevance of these findings.

Rao et al. (2004b) studied prolonged colonic motility with colon manometry and assessed its clinical significance in 21 patients with slow-transit constipation and 20 healthy controls by placing a 6-sensor solid-state probe up to the hepatic flexure. The study results indicated that patients with slow-transit constipation exhibited either normal or decreased pressure activity with manometric features suggestive of colonic neuropathy or myopathy. According to the investigators, in refractory patients, colonic manometry may be useful in characterizing the underlying pathophysiology and in guiding therapy. Due to the limitations of this study, these findings and the clinical utility of the test require confirmation.

Pensabene et al. (2003) evaluated the impact of colonic manometry in clarifying pathophysiology of childhood defecatory disorders and evaluated its impact on management in a retrospective review of 145 children. After colonic manometry, treatment changes were recommended in 93% of patients. Changes in medical treatment were suggested for 121 patients (81%). Surgical treatment (cecostomy, subtotal or total colectomy, myectomy) was suggested for 102 (68%), mostly in addition to the changes in medical treatment or recommended in case the medical treatment had failed. Surgery was the only recommendation for 18 children. Follow up was done in 65% of the families. When recommendations were followed (96% of the contacted patients), the symptoms improved in 78%, were unchanged in 18%, and were worse in 4% of patients. Among the parents, 88% believed that the suggestions given after colonic manometry had been helpful in improving their children's health. According to the authors, the study limitations include the shortcomings of a retrospective study. In addition, the duration of follow-up was variable, there was no control group, and only two thirds of the families were contacted for follow up.

## ***Clinical Practice Guidelines***

### **American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)**

An AGA guideline on constipation states that colonic intraluminal testing (manometry, barostat) should be considered to document colonic motor dysfunction before colectomy (weak recommendation, moderate-quality evidence). A weak recommendation implies that benefits, risks, and the burden of intervention are more closely balanced, or appreciable uncertainty exists in regards to patient's values and preferences (Bharucha et al., 2013a).

According to the AGA's *Technical Review on Constipation*, colonic manometry or barostat-manometric testing should be considered in patients with medically refractory STC. However, these tests are only available in highly specialized centers with a research interest and their role in management is not well established. Colonic manometry may identify a subset of patients with STC colonic motor dysfunctions that may be explained by a marked reduction in colonic intrinsic nerves and interstitial cells of Cajal. This should prompt consideration of colonic resection in medically refractory patients who do not have pelvic floor dysfunction (Bharucha et al., 2013b).

## **American Neurogastroenterology and Motility Society (ANMS) and North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition (NASPGHAN)**

In a consensus document on anorectal and colonic manometry in children (based on a systematic review of the evidence), the American Neurogastroenterology and Motility Society (ANMS) and the North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition (NASPGHAN) state that colon manometry is deemed useful to differentiate children with functional constipation from those with a colonic motor disorder, such as colonic inertia, surgical intervention planning, and to assess the improvement of colonic motility after long-term use of ACE. The authors add that colonic manometry in combination with ARM has emerged as an important tool in understanding the pathophysiology and guiding the management of persistent postoperative symptoms of patients with Hirschsprung's disease and anorectal malformations, such as imperforate anus (Rodriguez et al., 2017).

### **MRI Defecography**

There is insufficient evidence regarding the effectiveness and efficacy of MRI defecography. Existing data suggest that this approach is not superior and, in some cases, inferior to conventional defecography.

Pääkkö et al. (2022) completed a single-center, retrospective review of both magnetic resonance defecography (MRD) and video defecography (VD) studies that were done on 64 women with defecation disorders who underwent both VD and MRD within a year to compare the findings of the two methods and to analyze the success rates. In 58 patients, the indication for the first study were symptoms of obstructive defecation with incontinence as the primary diagnosis for the remaining six patients. The indication for the second study was insufficient information from the first study in 48 patients and for preoperative planning to get more anatomical information in the remaining 16 cases, the second imaging was performed before operative treatment to get more anatomical information or to confirm the findings of the first study. Both studies were analyzed in consensus by two radiologists who were blinded to clinical patient data and radiology reports. The authors reported that 96.9% of the VD studies were technically fully diagnostic compared with 45.3% for MRD and that 1.6% of the VD studies were partially diagnostic versus 32.8% for MRD. They reported that 30 enteroceles were observed by VD compared with 7 in MRD with moderate agreement, 53 intussusceptions were observed by VD compared with 27 by MRD with poor agreement, 47 cases of rectocele were diagnosed by VD versus 29 by MRD with moderate agreement, and dyssynergic defecation was observed in 3 patients by VD and in 11 patients by MRD with slight agreement. Limitations of the study included the variability of which study was done first, the retrospective nature of the study, the small sample size, and the variability of the amount and consistency of the gel used in the studies. The authors concluded that technical success and diagnostic capabilities of VD were better than those of MRD and that VD remains the method of choice in the imaging of defecation disorders.

A Cochrane Database systematic review and meta-analysis by van Gruting, et al. (2021) evaluated imaging modalities for the detection of posterior pelvic floor disorders in women with obstructed defecation syndrome (ODS). The review included 39 studies [including the Foti (2013), Poncelet (2017), van Iersel (2017), Vitton (2011), and Zafar (2017) studies previously included in this section] with 2,483 women that evaluated the diagnostic accuracy of evacuation proctography (EP), dynamic magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and pelvic floor ultrasound for detecting posterior pelvic floor disorders. The meta-analysis was done using Bayesian hierarchical latent class analysis and the overall quality of evidence (QoE) was assessed using the GRADE approach for diagnostic test accuracy. The authors reported that the sensitivity of EP for diagnosis of rectocele was 98%, enterocele 91% and pelvic floor descent 98% while the specificity of enterocele was 96%, intussusception 92% and anismus 97%, all with high QoE. The sensitivity for anismus of 80% and the specificity for rectocele of 78% and pelvic floor descent 83% had a moderate to low QoE. The specificity of MRI defecography for diagnosis of rectocele was 90%, enterocele 99% and intussusception 97% with high QoE. The heterogeneity analysis completed in the study showed that sensitivity of MRI performed with evacuation phase was higher than without for rectocele (94% with and 65% without), and for enterocele (87% with and 62% without), while the sensitivity of MRI without evacuation phase was significantly lower than EP. The study also showed that the specificity of transperineal ultrasound (TPUS) for diagnosis of rectocele was 89%, enterocele was 98% and intussusception 96% while the sensitivity for anismus was 92%. The authors concluded that neither MRI defecography or TPUS met the criteria to replace EP as the reference standard for diagnosis of posterior pelvic floor disorders although both met the criteria of a triage test as a positive test confirms the diagnosis of rectocele, enterocele and intussusception and a negative test rules out diagnosis of anismus. The results of the other ultrasound techniques including endovaginal ultrasound, dynamic anal endosonography, and echodefecography were of too low a quality of evidence to draw conclusions. The authors recommended more well-designed studies to define the role of MRI defecography in the diagnostic pathway of ODS.

Ramage et al. (2018) assessed whether MRI features indicative of pelvic floor dysfunction correlated with patient-reported symptom severity. Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed using pre-treatment questionnaire responses to the Birmingham Bowel, Bladder and Urinary Symptom Questionnaire (BBUSQ), Wexner Incontinence Score (WIS), and modified Obstructed Defecation Symptom (ODS) Score. 302 MRI proctograms were performed (n = 170). Patients with a

rectocele > 2 cm ( $p = 0.003$ ; OR 5.756) or MRD features suggestive of puborectalis syndrome ( $p = 0.025$ ; OR 8.602) were more likely to report a higher ODS score on multivariate analysis. Lack of rectal evacuation was negatively associated with an abnormal WIS ( $p = 0.007$ ; OR 0.228). Age > 50 ( $p = 0.027$ , OR 2.204) and a history of pelvic floor surgery ( $p = 0.042$ , OR 0.359) were correlated with an abnormal BBUSQ incontinence score. Lack of rectal evacuation ( $p = 0.027$ , OR 3.602) was associated with an abnormal BBUSQ constipation score. Age > 50 ( $p = 0.07$ , OR 0.156) and the presence of rectoanal intussusception ( $p = 0.010$ , OR 0.138) were associated with an abnormal BBUSQ evacuation score. The authors concluded that while MRD is a useful tool in aiding multidisciplinary decision making, overall, it is poorly correlated with patient-reported symptom severity, and treatment decisions should not rest solely on results. Limitations of this study included lack of a reference standard test and a questionnaire with questions directed at only females.

In a systematic review and meta-analysis of magnetic resonance defecography (MRD) versus clinical examination and fluoroscopy, Ramage et al. (2017) compared detection and miss rates of pelvic floor abnormalities with MRD versus clinical examination and traditional fluoroscopic techniques. Twenty-eight studies were included: 14 studies compared clinical examination to MRD, and 16 compared fluoroscopic techniques to MRD. Detection and miss rates with MRD were not significantly different from clinical examination findings for any outcome except enterocele, where MRD fared significantly better than clinical examination. However, when comparing MRD versus fluoroscopy, MRD have no better detection rate or lower miss rate of a structural abnormality than fluoroscopy. In some studies, fluoroscopy was considered the gold standard, and therefore, a distinct possibility exists that there was a degree of reporting bias with regards to the miss rates of fluoroscopy in particular. Limitations included the large variation in techniques employed during MRD along with numerous fluoroscopic techniques that were utilized across the different studies. Based on their analysis, the authors concluded that MRD has a role in the assessment of pelvic floor dysfunction. However, they advise that clinicians need to be mindful of the risk of under-diagnosis and consideration of the use of additional imaging.

Cappabianca et al. (2011) compared the diagnostic efficacy of dynamic MR defecography (MR-D) with entero-colpocysto-defecography (ECCD) in the assessment of midline pelvic floor hernias (MPH) in female pelvic floor disorders. 1,142 participants underwent MR-D with analysis. The results of the study indicated that MR-D shows lower sensitivity than ECCD in the detection of MPH development.

Reiner et al. (2011) evaluated the diagnostic value of MR defecography in 48 patients referred with suspicion of dyssynergic defecation. Patients were divided into patients with dyssynergic defecation ( $n = 18$ ) and constipated patients without dyssynergic defecation (control group,  $n = 30$ ). The most frequent finding was impaired evacuation, which was seen in 100% of patients with dyssynergic defecation and in 83% of the control group, yielding a sensitivity for MR defecography for the diagnosis of dyssynergic defecation of 100% but a specificity of only 23%. One major limitation of this study is that no single method of for diagnosis of dyssynergic defecation exists therefore there is no gold standard. Additional limitations of the study included small sample size and that the MR defecography was also part of the consensus panel diagnosis, thus incorporation bias could have occurred.

Otto et al. (2011) assessed the correlation of conventional defecography and MR-defecography after rectopexy in 21 patients. According to the authors, both methods revealed consistent results with respect to anorectal angle and perineal motility. The authors also stated that the concomitant depiction of structures in MR-defecography is helpful in the assessment of descent of pelvic organs and permits visualization of enteroceles. However, in 30% of patients, MR-defecography wrongly showed incomplete evacuation.

## ***Clinical Practice Guidelines***

### **American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)**

The AGA guideline on constipation states that although anorectal manometry and a rectal balloon expulsion test generally suffice to diagnose or exclude a defecatory disorder, defecography, which is generally performed with barium, or at some centers with magnetic resonance imaging, is useful if results are inconclusive (Bharucha et al. 2013a).

### **American College of Gastroenterology (ACG)**

The ACG clinical guideline for management of benign anorectal disorders notes that barium or magnetic resonance defecography can identify structural causes of outlet obstruction if one is expected. They may also confirm or exclude the diagnosis of defecatory disorders (DD) when the clinical features suggest DD but the results of anorectal manometry and balloon expulsion test are equivocal (moderate recommendation, moderate quality of evidence) (Wald et al., 2014, updated 2021).

The same ACG 2014 guideline also cites the advantages of MRI over defecography as being better resolution of soft tissue surrounding the rectum and anal canal, including the bladder, uterus, and small intestine during dynamic imaging;

improved ability to visualize anal sphincter and levator ani muscles with endoanal MRI, and lack of radiation (Wald et al., 2014, updated 2021).

## **American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons (ASCRS)**

In an updated clinical practice guideline on the evaluation and management of constipation, the ASCRS (Paquette et al., 2016) states that if anorectal physiology testing is not diagnostic for defecation dysfunction, other imaging studies, such as defecography, can be useful to identify anatomic abnormalities, such as rectocele, enterocele, internal intussusception, or prolapse that may be associated with constipation. Imaging with cindefecography, MRI defecography, or transperineal ultrasound echo defecography may be useful in identifying anatomical abnormalities associated with obstructive defecation (Grade of Recommendation: strong recommendation based on low-quality evidence, 1C).

In an updated clinical practice guideline on the treatment of rectal prolapse, the ASCRS (Bordeianou et al., 2017) states that if prolapse is suggested but cannot be seen during physical examination, fluoroscopic defecography, MRI defecography, or balloon expulsion testing may reveal the problem. Defecography may also reveal associated anterior pelvic floor support defects, such as cystocele, vaginal vault prolapse, and enterocele (Grade of Recommendation: strong recommendation based on moderate-quality evidence, 1B).

## **Electrogastrography (EGG) or Electroenterography**

Despite a possible use in clinical research, the studies of electrogastrography fail to provide convincing evidence that this technique is accurate for diagnosis of gastric disorders such as gastric stasis in clinical practice or that it has a positive impact on patient management or disease outcome. Additional studies are needed to determine if EGG is a useful adjunctive test or alternative to radioscintigraphy for the diagnosis of gastric stasis. These studies should involve a standardized procedure for diagnosis of gastroparesis with electrogastrography including recording, analysis, and interpretation. No studies were found to indicate electroenterography has a positive impact on patient management or disease outcome.

A systematic review and meta-analysis was completed by Bhat et al. (2021) involving electrogastrography (EGG) use in adults with gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD). After the published literature was reviewed, thirteen studies were included in the analysis with a total of 591 participants (427 with GERD; 164 healthy controls) who had completed an EGG procedure. The study found that patients with GERD spent significantly less time with normal gastric slow-wave activity compared to healthy controls. The authors noted that correlations between GERD symptoms and EGG recordings were inconsistently studied; EGG apparatus and techniques also varied across the studies. They also recognized the limitations of the studies available including the known limitations to low-resolution EGG methodologies (as high-resolution EGG is now available), and the inclusion of studies that relied on subjective symptom-based diagnostic criteria. They concluded that further investigation for the use of EGG in adults with GERD is warranted.

A comparison study by Al Kafee et al. (2021) was performed to assess the stomach's gastric myoelectrical activity using transcutaneous electrogastrography (EGG). This study analyzed 120 subjects with functional dyspepsia (FD) (n = 30), joint hypermobility (JH) (n = 30), diabetic gastroparesis (GP) (n = 30), and control subjects (n = 30). Thirty minutes of EGG recording was performed over the fasting stage (preprandial), and a 10-minute break was provided for eating the test meal. After 60 minutes (postprandial), the recording was done. The electrogastrography parameters included the dominant frequency, dominant power, power ratio, and instability coefficient, which were analyzed pre-prandially and post-prandially. The electrogastrography results showed that pre-prandial dominant frequency (p = .031), dominant power (p = .047), instability coefficient (p = .043), post-prandial dominant frequency (p = .041) and dominant power (p = .035) results were statistically significant among the functional dyspepsia, joint hypermobility, diabetic gastroparesis, and control groups. There was no difference found in terms of power ratio (p = .114) values. However, only glucose (p = .04) and calcium (p = .04) levels showed statistical impact. Several blood tests including hemoglobin (p = .032), creatinine (p = .045), calcium (p = .037), potassium (p = .041), white blood cells (p = .038), and alanine aminotransferase (p = .031) also showed correlation with the dominant frequency, power ratio, and instability coefficient parameters. The authors concluded that EGG is an essential non-invasive test for analyzing abnormal gastric myoelectric activity in FD, JH, and diabetic GP patients, and numerous EGG features have a correlation with blood analysis parameters. Additionally, patients showed satisfactory gastric motility in response to food. Limitations include non-standardization of EGG signal recording, surface electrode location or position, type of food or calories, computed features, and study populations. Further research with randomized controlled trials is needed to validate these findings.

Gharibans et al. (2019) performed a case-control study of cutaneous high resolution electrogastrography (HR-EGG) in 32 subjects to evaluate associations between gastric myoelectric abnormalities, symptoms (based on a validated questionnaire), and gastric emptying. The study consisted of 7 healthy individuals (control), 7 subjects with functional dyspepsia and normal gastric emptying, and 18 subjects with gastroparesis. All subjects were assessed by CT imaging of

the abdomen and HR-EGG and completed the PGI-SYM questionnaire on foregut symptoms, which includes the gastroparesis cardinal symptom index. The authors found abnormal spatial parameters, detected by cutaneous HR-EGG, correlated with severity of upper gastrointestinal symptoms, regardless of gastric emptying. Despite mixed results (slow-wave abnormalities were detected in only 44% of subjects with foregut symptoms), they concluded this noninvasive, repeatable approach might be useful to identify patients for whom gastric myoelectric dysfunction contributes to functional dyspepsia and gastroparesis. Limitations of the study included small sample size, CT imaging not performed at time of electrode placement and the gastric emptying test not performed at time of HR-EGG.

Kayar et al. (2016) utilized transcutaneous EGG to compare patients with functional dyspepsia (FD) (n = 30) to control subjects (n = 30) in terms of motility abnormalities according to the EGG results. A high incidence of gastric motility and myoelectrical activity abnormalities was observed in patients with FD. The authors concluded that although still considered an experimental method, EGG is an effective, reliable, and non-invasive method in differentiating the subgroups and may be an essential and irreplaceable test to diagnose and follow-up patients with FD with motor dysfunction.

In an evaluation of 54 patients with FD, Russo et al. (2017) utilized the results of EGG to differentiate postprandial distress syndrome (PDS) with epigastric pain syndrome (EPS). Using a symptom questionnaire, 42 patients were classified as PDS and 12 as EPS, although an overlap between the symptom profiles of the 2 subgroups was recorded. The EGG parameters (the postprandial instability coefficient of dominant frequency, the dominant power, and the power ratio) were significantly different between the subgroups, whereas the gastric emptying time did not differ significantly. In addition, EPS was characterized by a different gut peptide profile compared with PDS. Finally, neurotensin polymorphism was shown to be associated with neurotensin levels. The authors concluded that this evidence deserves further studies into FD. This study however, doesn't support the use of EGG in clinical practice or beyond its use for research.

O'Grady et al. (2012) applied high-resolution electrical mapping to quantify and classify gastroparesis slow-wave abnormalities in spatiotemporal detail. Serosal high-resolution mapping was performed using flexible arrays at stimulator implantation in 12 patients with diabetic or idiopathic gastroparesis. The authors found that intraoperative 256 electrode serosal recordings in gastroparetics revealed abnormal slow wave initiation, reduced velocities, conduction blocks, and increased amplitudes undetectable on cutaneous recordings. According to the authors, this reflects relative insensitivity of clinical EGG methodologies.

Lin et al. (2010) investigated the association between the status of interstitial cells of Cajal (ICC) and electrogastrogram (EGG) parameters, gastric emptying, and symptoms in a cohort of patients with gastroparesis. Forty-one patients with refractory gastroparesis who were referred for gastric electrical stimulation (GES) underwent full thickness gastric (antrum) biopsy during the surgery to place the GES device. The biopsy samples were stained with c-kit and scored for the presence of ICC based on criteria obtained from 10 controls. All patients underwent EGG recordings, a 4-hour standardized scintigraphic gastric emptying study and symptom assessment prior to the surgery. According to the investigators, the study suggested that the EGG may have a role for predicting ICC status during clinical evaluation of gastroparetic patients. However, this study failed to show how EGG would impact patient management or disease outcomes.

Sha et al. (2009) evaluated 31 patients with functional dyspepsia who were assessed for severity of upper gastrointestinal symptoms with EGG and antroduodenal manometry. The EGG was abnormal in 71.0% of patients. Antral motility was abnormal in 80.6% of patients and duodenal motility was abnormal in 74.2% of patients. No one-to-one correlation was noted between the symptom scores and any of the EGG or motility parameters. The investigators concluded that more than two-thirds of patients with functional dyspepsia have abnormalities in the EGG and antral/duodenal motility. The sensitivity of these 2 different methods is essentially the same. EGG and antroduodenal manometry can complement each other in demonstrating gastric motor dysfunction in patients with functional dyspepsia. These findings require confirmation in a larger study.

Frasko et al. (2008) conducted a prospective study to characterize the disturbance of gastric electrical control activity in different types of ileus and to correlate surface EGG findings with a set of inflammatory markers. Fifty-four adult patients with mechanic, vascular and paralytic ileus proven on clinical and radiological exams and 14 age- and sex-matched controls were examined. Irregular EGG activity without a dominant frequency or bradygastria was seen in all patients with both vascular and paralytic ileus and in 67.86% of the patients with obstructive ileus. According to the investigators, EGG examination confirmed a high sensitivity in the evaluation of gastric electrical control activity in both vascular and paralytic ileus. This study failed to show how EGG would impact patient management or disease outcomes.

## ***Clinical Practice Guidelines***

### **American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)**

A position statement from the AGA (Parkman, et al. 2004) on the diagnosis and treatment of refractory gastroparesis does not recommend the use of EGG. In their 2022 Clinical Practice update (Lacy, et al), the AGA guideline does not focus on the etiology, pathophysiology or diagnostic testing for refractory gastroparesis and there is no longer any mention or direction for the use of electrogastrography for the diagnosis of gastroparesis.

### **Ingestible Vibrating Capsule Devices**

The limited number of published clinical studies on the use of non-pharmacological, transient, ingestible vibrating capsules for treatment of chronic idiopathic constipation available in the USA fail to provide convincing evidence that this technology is safe and effective for this indication. Additional studies are needed to provide evidence of the benefit of active treatment with this device over sham treatments and to provide long-term follow-up data showing that this technology is safe and effective over time.

ECRI (2023) published a Curated Literature Search on the Vibrant system to identify the most recent literature published on this technology and found one study [refer to the Rao (2020) study summarized below] for their product assessment. The assessment was not intended to provide a comprehensive assessment of the technology and no recommendations or conclusions were provided.

In an Emerging Technology Report on the Vibrant system for chronic idiopathic constipation, Hayes (2022) determined that the best available published evidence was limited to the same Rao 2020 study that was identified in the ECRI Report above. They also reviewed an Israeli single-arm study that evaluated the safety of twice-weekly treatment with the Vibrant vibrating capsule and a U.S. sub-study that evaluated the effect of the Vibrant capsule versus sham capsule on colonic transit time in patients receiving twice-weekly treatment. According to the Hayes report, this sub-study found no significant difference in colonic transit time between patients treated with the vibrating capsule (n = 12) and those treated with a sham capsule (n = 12). The report stated that additional published evidence is needed to better characterize the efficacy and safety of non-pharmacological vibrating capsules for chronic idiopathic constipation.

To assess the efficacy and safety of another vibrating capsule system (VC, Vibrabot™, ANKON Technologies Co., Ltd) in patients with functional constipation (FC), Zhu, et al. (2022) completed a prospective, multicenter, blinded, placebo-controlled randomized trial with 107 patients aged 18 to 74 in six top general hospitals in China. The patients were randomly assigned 1:1 to receive the vibrating capsule (n = 53) or placebo treatment (n = 54) at a dosage of two capsules per week for six weeks after a two-week washout period of laxatives and other disallowed medications and was followed by a 4-week follow-up period or until the use of laxatives. During the treatment, 53 (100%), 52 (98%), and 50 (94%) patients in the treatment group and 52 (98%), 50 (94%), and 49 (93%) patients in the placebo group completed the two-week, four-week, and six-week visits, respectively. The authors reported that the responder rate in the treatment group (64.2%) was significantly higher than in the placebo group (35.8%) and that more patients in the vibrating capsule group reported at least one complete spontaneous bowel movements (CSBMs) for at least four weeks during the treatment period. They also found that the mean Patient Assessment of Constipation-Symptoms (PAC\_SYM) score and Patient Assessment of Constipation-Quality of Life (PAC-QoL) score differed significantly from the baseline in both groups with no significant changes observed in mean PAC-QoL total scores between groups. The authors surmised that the results in their study were more significant because of the slightly larger capsules, higher vibration frequency and longer vibration duration that was used in their study compared to the Rao (2020) study below. While the authors felt their study was superior to previous studies due to the study design, rigorous process and extended follow-up, they identified that there were limitations including the inclusion of mostly female study participants, the strong placebo effect and the change in lifestyle in the study may have interfered with the efficacy analysis, the treatment period of 6 weeks was shorter than the recommended 12 week treatment period, and the lack of long-term follow up data and subgroup analysis in patients based on the Colonic Transit Test. The authors concluded that vibrating capsules can promote defecation as well as ameliorate symptoms and improve the quality of life in patients with functional constipation with sustained efficacy and recommended future studies explore the relationship between the curative effect and course of treatment, combined efficacy with other therapies, and efficacy analysis in special populations such as children, patients with diabetes and patients with different subtypes. The Vibrabot is not currently approved by the Food and Drug Administration for use in the United States.

Rao, et al. (2020) performed a post hoc analyses of two prospective, multicenter, randomized, sham-controlled, double-blind studies that included 250 patients with chronic idiopathic constipation (CIC) who were randomized to receive 5 active or sham non-pharmacological vibrating capsules (Vibrant®, Vibrant Ltd, Hakochochav Yokneam, Israel) per week for 8 weeks. In the first study (n = 182), the capsules were programmed for a single vibration session and in the second study (n = 68), the capsules were programmed for two vibration sessions with two modes, 8 hours apart. Both studies included a 2-week

run-in period to allow for wash out of laxatives and other disallowed medications, and to gather baseline and eligibility information. The participants maintained electronic diaries that assessed their stool habit and percentage of complete spontaneous bowel movements (CSBMs) associated with vibrations. Responders were those patients that experience one or more CSBMs per week over their baseline. The authors reported that there were significantly more CSBMs in the active (50%, n = 133) vs. sham (42%, n = 117) group during and within 3 hours of vibration. They noted that there were two CSBM peaks in the 2<sup>nd</sup> study that were associated with the vibration sessions. They also noted that, in both studies, the responder rates (primarily a priori specified outcome) did not differ between the active vs. sham groups [study 1, active (21.5%) vs. sham (11.5%); study 2, mode 1, 26.9% vs. 35.9 and mode 2, 38.1% vs. 31.8%]. Limitations noted by the authors included the small sample sizes, the high withdrawal rate of 25-30% in both studies, the exploratory nature of the study design, the use of multiple vibration paradigms and the variability of the modes of capsule activation. Furthermore, significant findings were limited post hoc data analysis, while no benefit were observed on the a priori specified primary outcome. The authors concluded that vibrating capsules may increase CSBMs by enhancing the normal physiologic effects of waking and meals on bowel movement and that the use of two vibration sessions a day may additionally increase the proportion of CSBMs. The authors recommended additional studies that are better designed, larger with sham or placebo-control for confirmation of their findings.

## U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)

This section is to be used for informational purposes only. FDA approval alone is not a basis for coverage.

Instruments to perform cutaneous electrogastrography are regulated by the FDA as Class II devices. Refer to the following website for more information (use product code MYE or FFX):

<http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfPMN/pmnmn.cfm>. (Accessed January 17, 2023)

The only gastric electrical stimulation (GES) device for gastroparesis treatment approved for marketing in the United States is the Enterra™ Therapy System, manufactured by Medtronic, Inc. On March 31, 2000, the FDA approved a Humanitarian Device Exemption (HDE) for the marketing of the Enterra gastric electrical stimulation system for the treatment of chronic, intractable (drug-refractory) nausea and vomiting secondary to paresis of diabetic or idiopathic etiology. Enterra is indicated for the treatment of chronic intractable (drug refractory) nausea and vomiting secondary to gastroparesis of diabetic or idiopathic etiology in patients aged 18 to 70 years. Based upon the FDA label, the Enterra device should not be used for patients with gastric obstruction or pseudo-obstruction, prior gastric resection, fundoplication, eating disorders, history of seizures, primary swallowing disorders, chemical dependency, or psychogenic vomiting. Refer to the following website for more information:

<https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfhde/hde.cfm?id=376493>. (Accessed January 17, 2023)

Humanitarian use devices may only be used in facilities that have obtained an institutional review board (IRB) approval to oversee the usage of the device in the facility, and after an IRB has approved the use of the device to treat or diagnose the specific rare disease. Additional information may be obtained directly from the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) website - Center for Devices and Radiological Health (CDRH) at:

<http://www.fda.gov/MedicalDevices/ProductsandMedicalProcedures/DeviceApprovalsandClearances/HDEApprovals/ucm161827.htm>. (Accessed January 17, 2023)

Several radiopaque markers have been approved by the FDA for colonic transit testing. Refer to the following website for more information (use product code FFX): <http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfPMN/pmnmn.cfm>. (Accessed January 17, 2023)

Defecography is a procedure and, therefore, is not subject to FDA regulation. However, any medical equipment, drugs or tests used as part of this procedure may be subject to FDA regulation. A general list of cleared magnetic resonance imaging systems for MRI defecography can be found by entering the code LNH into the "product code" window in the form at the following FDA 510(k) database website: <http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfPMN/pmnmn.cfm>. (Accessed January 17, 2023)

The Vibrant® system (Vibrant Gastro Inc., Newton, MA) received FDA clearance as a Class II de novo device on August 26, 2022, as an orally ingested transient device that is indicated for the treatment of adults with chronic idiopathic constipation who have not experienced relief of their bowel symptoms by using laxative therapies at the recommended dosage for at least one month. Refer to the following website and search using either the product name or the product code QTN for more information: <https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfPMN/denovo.cfm>. (Accessed January 31, 2023)



The Vibrabot™ (AnX Robotica Corporation) Digestive Tract Vibrating Capsule System is not currently FDA approved for use in the United States.

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## Policy History/Revision Information

Date	Summary of Changes
07/01/2024	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li data-bbox="337 296 618 323">• New Medical Policy</li></ul>

## Instructions for Use

This Medical Policy provides assistance in interpreting UnitedHealthcare standard benefit plans. When deciding coverage, the federal, state or contractual requirements for benefit plan coverage must be referenced as the terms of the federal, state or contractual requirements for benefit plan coverage may differ from the standard benefit plan. In the event of a conflict, the federal, state or contractual requirements for benefit plan coverage govern. Before using this policy, please check the federal, state or contractual requirements for benefit plan coverage. UnitedHealthcare reserves the right to modify its Policies and Guidelines as necessary. This Medical Policy is provided for informational purposes. It does not constitute medical advice.

UnitedHealthcare may also use tools developed by third parties, such as the InterQual<sup>®</sup> criteria, to assist us in administering health benefits. The UnitedHealthcare Medical Policies are intended to be used in connection with the independent professional medical judgment of a qualified health care provider and do not constitute the practice of medicine or medical advice.