

A Review on Achalasia Cardia

Samiksha Fulzele, Rajlaxmi Deolekar, Tanmay Gondane

Students, Final Year, New Montfort Institute of Pharmacy, Ashti, Wardha, India
samikshafulzele717@gmail.com

Abstract: *Achalasia cardia is a rare esophageal motility disorder characterized by the failure of the lower esophageal sphincter to relax properly and the absence of peristalsis in the esophageal body. This condition leads to difficulty in swallowing (dysphagia), regurgitation of undigested food, and chest pain. The exact cause of achalasia remains unclear, but it is believed to involve degeneration of the ganglion cells in the esophageal wall, possibly due to an autoimmune process or viral infection. Patients with achalasia often present with symptoms that can mimic other gastrointestinal disorders, making diagnosis challenging. Diagnosis is typically confirmed through esophageal manometry, which reveals the characteristic elevated resting lower esophageal sphincter pressure and absent peristalsis. Imaging studies, such as barium swallow, may also be used to visualize the dilated esophagus. Treatment options for achalasia aim to relieve symptoms and improve esophageal function. These include pneumatic dilation, surgical myotomy, and the use of medications such as nitrates or calcium channel blockers. Each treatment has its own indications, risks, and benefits, and the choice of therapy depends on the severity of symptoms and the patient's overall health. In summary, achalasia cardia is a significant esophageal disorder that careful diagnosis and management to alleviate symptoms and improve the quality of life for affected individuals.*

Keywords: biometrics; security; protection; recognition accuracy; fingerprint

I. INTRODUCTION

Achalasia (AC) is a significant primary the motility of the issue, via an frequency of about 1.63 for every 100,000 people living in the wider community. Achalasia is brought on by the deliberate death of nitric oxide-producing inhibitory ganglion cells within the esophageal myenteric plexus, which leaves excitatory neurotransmitters like acetylcholine free to work without interference.^[1] Recent study data, however, shows that the actual prevalence is significantly greater than initially indicated. These are right now insufficient epidemiological investigations in China concerning AC. While AC is capable of attacking individuals at any stage of life, a significantly crucial frequency has been reported in the 20–50 range of age.^[2,3]

The two primary features of AC are a dysfunctional calmness mechanism in the Lower Gastrointestinal Regulate (LES) after removal of glue and an absence of standard esophagus peristalsis or The vast majority of AC individuals suffer a gradual development, which renders the diagnosis process difficult. Increasing difficulty swallowing, acid reflux, diarrhea, pain in the chest, breathing problems (at night cough, recurring inhalation of air asthma), and loss of weight are some of the most common signs and symptoms of AC.^[4,5] It is the greatest common and well-characterized esophageal motion situation, whereas relatively unusual. The primary characteristic which separates achalasia aside from other motility disorders—like proximal esophageal tightness and Jackhammer esophagus—is the failure of the lower esophageal sphincter (LES) to calm down. For such, a great deal of therapy are designed to reduce LES pressure. Three types with cardiac achalasia can be differentiated Manometrically, which assists overall choosing a treatment and have clinical significance.^[6,7]

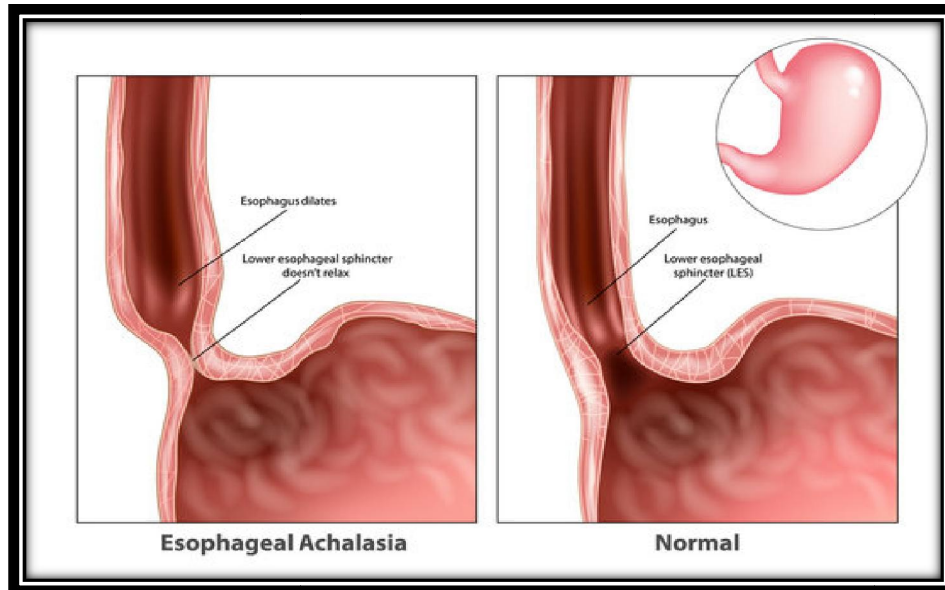


Figure: 1

With the growth of third time endoscopic in the past few years with the development of treatments such peroral endoscopic myotomy (POEM), which have completely transformed the endoscopic procedure for treating a condition known as here have been an increase of research for this movement situation. The researchers of this article look on the pathophysiology being diagnosed, medication, and epidemiological of achalasia of cardia.^[8]

Some has been numerous variables discovered which increase the chance of cancer of the stomach among individuals without a condition known as Chronic chemical damage of the esophagus lumen triggered by saliva as well as food breakdown can result in the condition, malignancy, or prolonged hyperplastic a condition called.^[9] One kind of esophagus dynamic disorder (EMD) is esophageal achalasia. If that esophageal bodies or esophagogastric junction (EGJ) isn't physically obstructed, it means an esophageal output tract obstruction caused by reduced lowers esophagus sphincter (LES) relaxation or lack of esophageal the peristalsis or spasmodic contraction. Achalasia comes in main and secondary forms.^[10,11]

Because of my enteric neuronal sadness, the condition can be an unusual digestive tract motility situation that involves failing for relaxation of the lower sphincter of the esophageal (LOS) and lack of esophagus the peristalsis There are multiple manometry pattern (atonic, spastic, and pushed) which may take place within a non-peristaltic esophageal.^[12]

History

In 1674, Sir Thomas Willis coined the name "achalasia" and proposed that the sickness results from the absence normal inhibition within the distal esophagus. Since then, the advancement of diagnostic methods has sparked fresh perspectives on the genesis or pathophysiology of the illness, giving rise to a number of theories explaining the types of motor abnormalities in esophageal areas. This encompasses physical blockage, esophageal muscular failure, and cardiospasm.^[13] When he first proposed that achalasia might result from a "loss of normal inhibition" in the distal esophagus during 1929, Sir Arthur Hurst invented the word. Thirteen The loss the esophageal myenteric plexus's inhibitory innervation is, in fact, the primary cause of idiopathic achalasia, which is defined by the inability research the lower esophageal sphincters (LES) to relax and aperistalsis. This has been demonstrated by a body of evidence that has since surfaced. The initial reason is still unknown, though.^[14]

Early on in the illness, dysphagia can be quite subtle and mistaken for other conditions such dyspepsia, poor stomach emptying, or stress. To further complicate matters, food stasis-related heartburn may also be present. Swallowing becomes increasingly difficult with solids and liquids as the condition worsens. The dysphagia is more to solids than liquids. Patients typically adjust their eating habits to facilitate the food bolus's advancement, either by feeding more

slowly or by using specific techniques like elevating their arms or arching their backs. Since many patients mistakenly believe that their regurgitation symptom is reflux disease, GERD is the most prevalent misdiagnosis of achalasia.^[15]

Clinical features of achalasia cardia

For those with achalasia, swallowing (solid and liquid) was a common symptom. At first, this symptom is sporadic, but as the illness worsens, it also causes the esophagus to dilate significantly, which can result in burns and the sigmoid esophagus decompensating, both of which have accompanying clinical symptoms. Remarkably, progressive difficulties swallowing both solids and liquids is one of the key symptoms experienced by 90% of individuals with achalasia.^[16,17]

Studies have shown that 70% of patients also experience reflux, which is the second most common symptom of achalasia; in turn, this causes corresponding respiratory symptoms such as coughing and burping, wheezing, hoarseness, and bronchitis.^[18]

Furthermore, chest pain is a possible symptom in achalasia patients. Continuous pneumonia from aspiration or esophageal squamous cell cancer are also possible outcomes.^[19] Aspiration pneumonia, lower respiratory tract infections, and esophageal cancer were among the leading causes of death for patients with achalasia, according to a study that used data from a primary care database and a hospital in the United Kingdom.^[20]

Research has revealed that achalasia frequently presents with a gradual onset and numerous subclinical symptoms prior to a definitive diagnosis, perhaps causing a delay in the diagnosis process.^[21,22] The signs and symptoms of achalasia can be evaluated using the Eckardt score Table.

Achalasia Severity: Eckardt Score				
Symptom/Sign	Score for each symptom/sign			
	0	1	2	3
Recent weight loss (Kg)	none	< 5	5-10	>10
Dysphagia	none	occasional	daily	each meal
Chest pain	none	occasional	daily	several times/day
Regurgitation	none	occasional	daily	each meal

Figure: 2

Etiopathogenesis of achalasia cardia

Achalasia is thought to occur from the degeneration of the myenteric plexus and vagus nerve fibers of the lower esophageal sphincter. The particular reason for achalasia is insufficiently understood. The degeneration of nerve cells within the esophagus is one possible cause, according to researchers. Although the exact etiology of this is unknown, ideas include viral infections and autoimmune reactions. Rarely, an infection or inherited genetic condition may be the cause of achalasia.^[23,24] There is a loss of inhibitory neurons containing vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) and nitric oxide synthase at the esophageal myenteric plexus, but in severe cases, it also involves cholinergic neurons. Without a doubt, mechanical blockage for the distal oesophagus is the primary mechanism causing pseudoachalasia. Numerous

patients after oesophagogastrrectomy have distal oesophageal dysmotility and failed cardiac relaxation, which may be explained by myenteric plexus infiltration, as revealed by histological investigation into the distant oesophagus in these patients.^[25,26] The exact etiology of this degeneration is unclear though many theories have been proposed. These theories include an autoimmune phenomenon, viral infection, and genetic predisposition.^[27]

Diagnosis of achalasia cardia

Currently, achalasia cardia is mainly diagnosed using high-resolution manometry (HRM), endoscopy, and barium meal examination. A timed barium meal esophagogram or functional lumen imaging probe (FLIP) is used only when achalasia cannot be diagnosed.^[28]

HRM:- high resolution monometry

Manometry plays an important role in the differential diagnosis of dynamic esophageal disorders. HRM is the gold standard for diagnosing achalasia cardia. HRM usually refers to performing a manometry test with at least 21 pressure sensors scattered across the catheter.^[29] Each pressure sensor is spaced 1 cm apart to record baseline resting measurements. The probe enters through the nose and passes through the esophagus to the LES, allowing for the examination of the entire esophagus. A complete relaxation pressure (IRP) of greater than 15 mmHg, or “impaired LES relaxation,” is a prerequisite for the HRM diagnosis in achalasia cardia. A high-pressure LES is identified by a resting pressure more than 45 mmHg.^[30,31]

Endoscopy

Endoscopy is crucial for patients with digestive disorders although it is not very sensitive for achalasia. Studies have shown that only one-third of patients can be diagnosed with achalasia using endoscopy.^[32] Typically, endoscopy is used to screen patients with gastrointestinal symptoms and to rule out luminal malignancies in the esophagus and proximal stomach. Endoscopy may be normal in patients with early achalasia as curvatures or rose-like structures at the EGJ are characteristic of patients with more advanced achalasia.^[33]

Bariummealesophagogram

Barium contrast is usually used to evaluate esophageal morphology before surgery. In patients with achalasia cardia, barium meal esophagogram reveals esophageal dilation, EGJ stenosis, beak formation, intestinal peristalsis, and delayed barium emptiness.

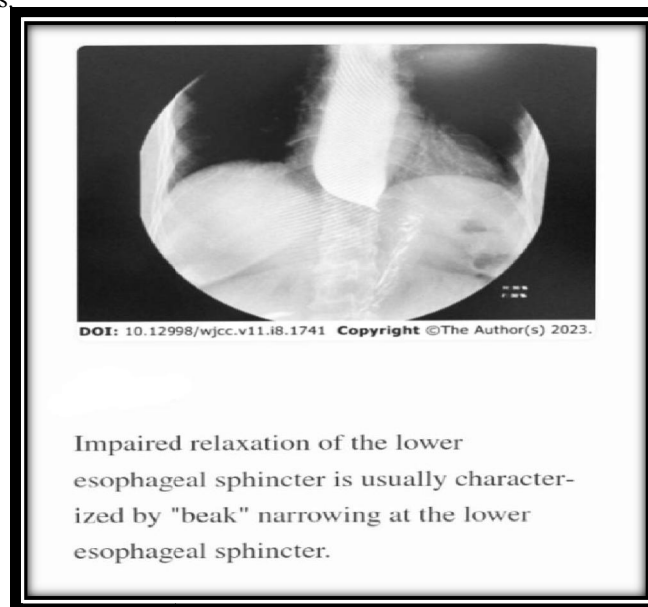


Figure:3

DOI: 10.48175/568

Studies have shown that four stages of achalasia cardia can be distinguished according to the maximum barium diameter and shape in the esophagus Stage 1, ≤ 4 cm; stage 2, 4-6 cm; stage 3, ≥ 6 cm, with a straight esophagus; stage 4, ≥ 6 cm, with a sigmoid tube (end-stage disease).^[34,35]

FLIP

The Functional Lumen Imaging Probe (FLIP) are an examination that uses impedance planimetry to measure the dimensions inside the esophageal lumen in order to assess the function of the esophagus. FLIP is usually done under anesthesia during upper endoscopy in order to assess for problems related to esophageal motility, like diffuse esophageal spasm, achalasia, etc.

FLIP is a novel catheter-based device that can be used to analyze the relationship between cross-sectional area and pressure of the lumen, measure the EGJ and dilatation index (DI) in real time, and provide supplementary information for HRM of EMDs, especially for achalasia cardia. FLIP has become a potential tool for the diagnosis and real-time calibration of achalasia cardia.^[36,37]

Other investigation

Studies have shown that chest computed tomography (CT), radiography, and ultrasound can also detect achalasia cardia. Imaging is often used in the diagnosis of achalasia. Most patients with achalasia have esophageal dilation and mild symmetrical wall thickening on CT. Additionally, chest CT can be used to distinguish between primary and secondary achalasia Cardia.^[38]

Treatment of achalasia cardia

Achalasia cardia cannot be cured, however it can be managed with medication, endoscopic Botox injections, or surgery to lower LES pressure, ease symptoms, and enhance esophageal emptying. The surgical management of this illness is debatable since the associated procedures carry a risk of causing reflux disease, and each treatment has unique drawbacks.

Medications

Patients who cannot or will not get endoscopic or surgical care, as well as those for whom such therapy has failed, are typically prescribed medication. Proton pump inhibitors, nitrates, and calcium channel blockers are frequently used to treat acid heartburn; however, they are less effective and only offer temporary relief. Medication is usually only taken into consideration if other forms of treatment have failed and you aren't eligible either pneumatic dilation or surgery. Rarely is this kind of therapy appropriate.^[39]

Endoscopic treatment

Pneumatic dilation (PD), sclerotherapy, and injection of botulinum toxin type A are the traditional endoscopic treatments for achalasia.

a) Botulinumtoxin type A:

In 1980, the type A botulinum toxin was discovered. The biological neurotoxin produced by Clostridium botulinum has the ability to stop both voluntary and involuntary muscular nerve terminals from releasing acetylcholine.^[40]

b) PD:

PD is the oldest treatment for kinds one and two of achalasia cardia, having been developed in 1674. In order to damage the LES, this approach uses an expanded balloons with a strong stretch. The balloon's diameter might be anything between 30 and 40 mm. PD has acceptable short-term results, but poor long-term outcomes that necessitate several treatments.^[41]

c) Endoscopic sclerotherapy:

Nowadays, ethanalamine oleate, a hardener that is widely employed, has the ability to cause fibrosis and an inflammatory reaction, which damages excitatory neurons and lowers LES pressure. However, routine use of this approach is not advised as it can lead to patients developing esophageal wall fibrosis.^[42]

Operativetreatment

Surgical treatments of achalasia includes POEM, LHM, stents implantation, or esophagectomy.

a) LHM: Laparoscopic Heller Myotomy

Having a success rate of about 90%, LHM is a popular clinical treatment of achalasia, particularly in teenagers and young adults. However, in 55%–100% of instances, GERD can have a negative consequence. Later, LHM in conjunction with either an anterior Dor fundoplication or a posterior Toupet fundoplication became the norm to mitigate the harm brought on by esophageal reflux disease.^[43,44]

To facilitate the passage of food into the stomach, the surgeon makes a cut in the muscle situated at the bottom of the esophageal sphincter. Laparoscopic Heller Myotomy is a non-invasive technique that can be performed. Following a Heller myotomy, some patients may go on to create gastroesophageal reflux disorder (GERD).^[45]

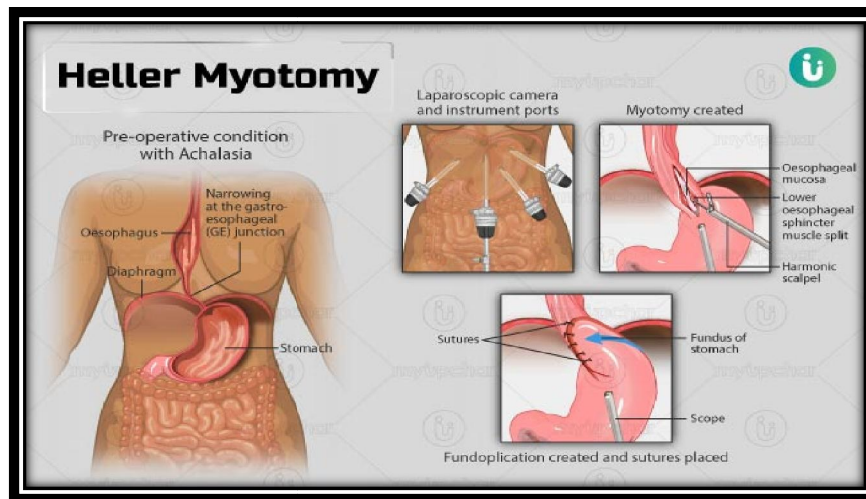


Figure: 4

b) POEM: Peroral endoscopic Myotomy

POEM has become more popular as a substitute for LHM recently. This novel safe therapeutic endoscopic surgical approach was first presented in 2008 and is particularly useful in patients with type 3 achalasia cardia.^[46] The ability to modify the nearest myotomy range is one benefit of POEM over LHM. To assist avoid GERD, POEM could also be used in conjunction with subsequent fundoplication, or as a follow-up. Oral medicine is prescribed on a daily basis for certain patients who have POEM surgery and afterwards develop GERD.^[47]

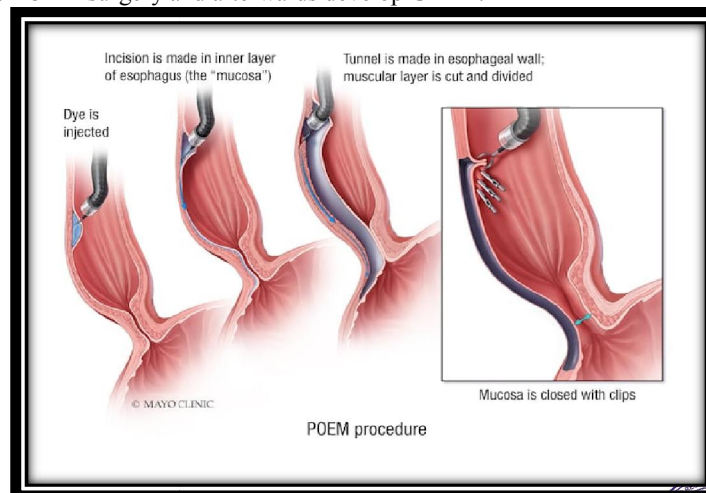


Figure:5

In patients who had previously failed repeat BT and PD therapy, a similar result following POEM was observed in another trial involving twenty-one patients. The results of POEM in 41 achalasia patients who had previously not responded to endoscopic therapy or surgery (LHM) were documented by Orenstein et al. There were no difference in the POEM outcome and adverse events between the two groups.^[48]

Complications of achalasia cardia

Because LES-directed therapy cannot cure achalasia, it is an chronic neurological condition that necessitates lifelong monitoring. Development of end-stage oesophageal carcinoma of squamous cells or achalasia/megaoesophagus are examples of long-term complications. Progressive dilatation Of the oesophagus is produced for 10–15% of Clients this results in megaoesophagus/End-stage achalasia even after treatment, while Eventually 5% require oesophagectomy.^[49]

Complications of Achalasia Cardia includes

- Bloating
- Gastroesophageal reflux disease
- Recurrence
- Esophageal perforation
- GI bleeding from the food pipe
- Pneumonia
- Lung infections
- Esophageal cancer
- Fungal infection of the food tube or the esophagus (esophagitis)

II. CONCLUSION

Achalasia Cardia is a condition where the lower esophageal sphincter doesn't relax properly it hard for food to enter the stomach. These leads to symptoms like difficulty swallowing, chest pain and regurgitation of food.

In simple words, the conclusion is that achalasia Cardia cause problem with swallowing due to malfunction in the esophagus, which can be treated with medication, dilation or surgery to help ease symptoms and improve swallowing.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Sadowski DC, Ackah F, Jiang B, Svenson LW. Achalasia incidence, Prevalence and survival. A population-based study. *NeurogastroenterolMotil* 2010; 22: e256-61.
- [2]. Duffield JA, Hamer PW, Heddle R, Holloway RH, Myers JC, Thompson SK. Incidence of Achalasia in South Australia Based on Esophageal Manometry Findings. *ClinGastroenterolHepatol* 2017; 15: 360-365.
- [3]. Samo S, Carlson DA, Gregory DL, Gowel SH, Pandolfino JE, Kahrilas PJ. Incidence and Prevalence of Achalasia in Central Chicago, 2004-2014, Since the Widespread Use of High-Resolution Manometry. *ClinGastroenterolHepatol* 2017; 15: 366-373.
- [4]. Francisco Schlottmann, Marco G. Patti. Esophageal achalasia: current Diagnosis and treatment. *Expert Review of Gastroenterology & Hepatology* 2018; 12: 711-721.
- [5]. Vaezi MF, Pandolfino JE, Vela MF. ACG clinical guideline: diagnosis and Management of achalasia. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2013; 108: 1238-49.
- [6]. Kahrilas PJ et al. The Chicago Classification of esophageal motility Disorders, v3.0. *NeurogastroenterolMotil*. 2015;27(2):160-74.
- [7]. Jung HK et al. 2019 Seoul consensus On esophageal achalasia guidelines. *J Neuro-gastroenterolMotil*. 2020;26(2):180-203.
- [8]. Inoue H et al. Per-oral endoscopic Myotomy: a series of 500 patients. *J Am Coll Surg*. 2015;221(2):256-64.
- [9]. Chino O, Kijima H, Shimada H et al. Clinicopathological Studies of esophageal carcinoma in achalasia: analyses of carBiogenesis using histological and immunohistochemical procedures. *Anticancer Res* 2000; 20: 3717–22.

- [10]. Savarino E, Bhatia S, Roman S, Sifrim D, Tack J, Thompson SK, Gyawali CP. Achalasia. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* . 2022;8:28.
- [11]. Oude Nijhuis RAB, Zaninotto G, Roman S, Boeckxstaens GE, Fockens P, Langendam MW, Plumb AA, Smout A, Targarona EM, Trukhmanov AS, Weusten B, Bredenoord AJ. European guidelines on achalasia: United European Gastroenterology and European Society of Neurogastroenterology and Motility recommendations. *United European Gastroenterol J* . 2020;8:13–33.
- [12]. Khan A, Yadlapati R, Gonlachanvit S et al. Chicago classification update (version 4.0): technical review on diagnostic criteria For achalasia. *Neurogastroenterol Motil Off J Eur Gastrointest Motil Soc* 2021; 33(7): e14182.
- [13]. Birgisson S, Richter JE. Achalasia: what’s new in diagnosis and treatment? *Dig Dis*. 1997;15(Suppl 1):1–27. Doi: 10.1159/000171617.
- [14]. Paterson WG. Etiology and pathogenesis of achalasia. *Gastroin-test Endosc Clin N Am*. 2001;11:249–266. Vi.
- [15]. Richter JE. The diagnosis and misdiagnosis of achalasia: it does not have to be so difficult. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2011;9:1010–1011. Doi: 10.1016/j.cgh.2011.06.012.
- [16]. Fabian E, Eherer AJ, Lackner C, Urban C, Smolle-Juettner FM, Krejs GJ. Pseudoachalasia as First Manifestation of a Malignancy. *Dig Dis* . 2019;37:347–354. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [17]. Schlottmann F, Herbella F, Allaix ME, Patti MG. Modern management of esophageal achalasia: From pathophysiology to treatment. *Curr Probl Surg* . 2018;55:10–37. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [18]. 18. Harvey PR, Thomas T, Chandan JS, Mytton J, Coupland B, Bhala N, Evison F, Patel P, Nirantharakumar K, Trudgill NJ. Incidence, morbidity and mortality of patients with achalasia in England: findings from a study of nationwide hospital and primary care data. *Gut* . 2019;68:790–795. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [19]. Mota RCL, de Moura EGH, de Moura DTH, Bernardo WM, de Moura ETH, Brunaldi VO, Sakai P, Thompson CC. Risk factors for gastroesophageal reflux after POEM for achalasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Surg Endosc* . 2021;35:383–397. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [20]. Blaney H, Agrawal N, Ashfaq S, Naumann C. Achalasia Revealed by Respiratory Failure and Hemodynamic Instability. *ACG Case Rep J* . 2020;7:e00298. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [21]. Uppal DS, Wang AY. Update on the endoscopic treatments for achalasia. *World J Gastroenterol* . 2016;22:8670–8683. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [22]. Tashiro J, Petrosyan M, Kane TD. Current management of pediatric achalasia. *Transl Gastroenterol Hepatol* . 2021;6:33. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [23]. CASSELLA RR, ELLIS FH, BROWN AL. FINE-STRUCTURE CHANGES IN ACHALASIA OF ESOPHAGUS. II. ESOPHAGEAL SMOOTH MUSCLE. *Am J Pathol*. 1965 Mar;46(3):467-75. [PMC free article] [PubMed]
- [24]. CASSELLA RR, ELLIS FH, BROWN AL. FINE-STRUCTURE CHANGES IN ACHALASIA OF THE ESOPHAGUS. I. VAGUS NERVES. *Am J Pathol*. 1965 Feb;46(2):279-88. [PMC free article] [PubMed]
- [25]. Francis DL, Katzka DA. Achalasia: update on the disease and its treatment. *Gastroenterology*. 2010 Aug;139(2):369-74. [PubMed]
- [26]. Misiewicz JJ, Waller SL, Anthony PP, Gummer JW. Achalasia of the cardia: pharmacology and histopathology of isolated cardiac sphincteric muscle from patients with and without achalasia. *Q J Med*. 1969 Jan;38(149):17-30. [PubMed]
- [27]. Raymond L, Lach B, Shamji FM. Inflammatory aetiology of primary oesophageal achalasia: an immunohistochemical and ultrastructural study of Auerbach’s plexus. *Histopathology*. 1999 Nov;35(5):445-53. [PubMed]
- [28]. Jung KW. [Chicago Classification ver. 4.0: Diagnosis of Achalasia and Esophagogastric Junction Outflow Obstruction] *Korean J Gastroenterol* . 2022;79:61–65. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [29]. Oude Nijhuis RAB, Zaninotto G, Roman S, Boeckxstaens GE, Fockens P, Langendam MW, Plumb AA, Smout A, Targarona EM, Trukhmanov AS, Weusten B, Bredenoord AJ. European guidelines on achalasia: United European Gastroenterology and European Society of Neurogastroenterology and Motility recommendations. *United European Gastroenterol J* . 2020;8:13–33.

- [30]. Mari A, Abu Baker F, Pellicano R, Khoury T. Diagnosis and Management of Achalasia: Updates of the Last Two Years. *J Clin Med* . 2021;10
- [31]. Gyawali CP, Penagini R. Clinical usefulness of esophageal high resolution manometry and adjunctive tests: An update. *Dig Liver Dis* . 2021;53:1373–1380.
- [32]. Riccio F, Costantini M, Salvador R. Esophageal Achalasia: Diagnostic Evaluation. *World J Surg* . 2022;46:1516–1521.
- [33]. Ochuba O, Ruo SW, Alkayyali T, Sandhu JK, Waqar A, Jain A, Joseph C, Srivastava K, Poudel S. Endoscopic Surveillance in Idiopathic Achalasia. *Cureus* . 2021;13:e17436.
- [34]. Pomenti S, Blackett JW, Jodorkovsky D. Achalasia: Diagnosis, Management and Surveillance. *GastroenterolClin North Am* . 2021;50:721–736.
- [35]. Riccio F, Costantini M, Salvador R. Esophageal Achalasia: Diagnostic Evaluation. *World J Surg* . 2022;46:1516–1521.
- [36]. Holmstrom AL, Campagna RJ, Carlson DA, Pandolfino JE, Soper NJ, Hungness ES, Teitelbaum EN. Comparison of preoperative, intraoperative, and follow-up functional luminal imaging probe measurements in patients undergoing myotomy for achalasia. *GastrointestEndosc* . 2021;94:509–514.
- [37]. Pannala R, Krishnan K, Watson RR, Vela MF, Abu Dayyeh BK, Bhatt A, Bhutani MS, Bucobo JC, Chandrasekhara V, Copland AP, Jirapinyo P, Kumta NA, Law RJ, Maple JT, Melson J, Parsi MA, Rahimi EF, Saumoy M, Sethi A, Trikudanathan G, Trindade AJ, Yang J, Lichtenstein DR. Devices for esophageal function testing. *VideoGIE* . 2022;7:1–20.
- [38]. Jovanovic S, Djuric-Stefanovic A, Simić A, Skrobic O, Pesko P. Value of Multidetector Computed Tomography in the Assessment of Achalasia Subtypes and Detection of Pulmonary and Thoracic Complications. *Med PrincPract* . 2019;28:539–546.
- [39]. Ochuba O, Ruo SW, Alkayyali T, Sandhu JK, Waqar A, Jain A, Joseph C, Srivastava K, Poudel S. Endoscopic Surveillance in Idiopathic Achalasia. *Cureus* . 2021;13:e17436.
- [40]. Yamaguchi D, Tsuruoka N, Sakata Y, Shimoda R, Fujimoto K, Iwakiri R. Safety and efficacy of botulinum toxin injection therapy for esophageal achalasia in Japan. *J ClinBiochemNutr* . 2015;57:239–243.
- [41]. Chadalavada P, Thota PN, Raja S, Sanaka MR. Peroral Endoscopic Myotomy as a Novel Treatment for Achalasia: Patient Selection and Perspectives. *ClinExpGastroenterol* . 2020;13:485–495.
- [42]. Arora Z, Thota PN, Sanaka MR. Achalasia: current therapeutic options. *TherAdv Chronic Dis* . 2017;8:101–108.
- [43]. Feng J, Ali RW, Hao JY, Kong GX, Yang LH, Huang XJ. Peroral endoscopic myotomy for esophageal motility disorders. *Esophagus* . 2020;17:11–18.
- [44]. Sanaka MR, Hayat U, Thota PN, Jegadeesan R, Ray M, Gabbard SL, Wadhwa N, Lopez R, Baker ME, Murthy S, Raja S. Efficacy of peroral endoscopic myotomy vs other achalasia treatments in improving esophageal function. *World J Gastroenterol* . 2016;22:4918–4925.
- [45]. Richter JE, Boeckxstaens GE. Management of achalasia: surgery or pneumatic dilation. *Gut* . 2011;60:869–876.
- [46]. Sanaka MR, Hayat U, Thota PN, Jegadeesan R, Ray M, Gabbard SL, Wadhwa N, Lopez R, Baker ME, Murthy S, Raja S. Efficacy of peroral endoscopic myotomy vs other achalasia treatments in improving esophageal function. *World J Gastroenterol* . 2016;22:4918–4925.
- [47]. Abbas AE. Commentary: Peroral endoscopic myotomy, the poetic remedy for type III achalasia. *J ThoracCardiovascSurg* . 2022;163:522–523.
- [48]. Orenstein SB, Raigani S, Wu YV, et al. Peroral endoscopic myotomy (POEM) leads to similar results in patients with and without prior endoscopic or surgical therapy. *SurgEndosc* 2015;29:1064-70. 10.1007/s00464-014-3782-5
- [49]. Eckardt VF et al. Life expectancy, Complications, and causes of death In patients with achalasia: results of A 33-year-up investigation. *Eur J GastroenterolHepatol*. 2008;20(10):956-60.