

for the Practicing Clinician



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Learning Objectives: On completion of this article, you should be able to (1) recall how to take a clinical history for a patient with dysphagia; (2) interpret physical examination findings as they are related to differential diagnosis; and (3) recommend appropriate testing for the clinical situation.

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Abstract

Evaluating a patient with dysphagia can be a complex and daunting task. In this article, we present a practical approach to the evaluation, physical examination, and subsequent work-up of dysphagia that is applicable to practicing physicians.

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ysphagia is a relatively common symptom, occurring in approximately 3% of the general population. It is estimated that 1 in every 17 people will struggle with difficulty swallowing at some point in their lives. Dysphagia increases in frequency with age, affecting approximately 10% of adults older than 65 years and approximately 50% of the institutionalized elderly population.^{3,4} However, aging itself is not a typical cause of clinically significant dysphagia.

Dysphagia can lead to malnutrition, aspiration, and pneumonia, and as such, an underlying cause for the symptom should be explored (Table).⁵ In this article, we summarize the key features of the history and physical examination that will guide investigation and treatment of dysphagia.

PHYSIOLOGY OF DEGLUTITION

A comprehensive understanding of normal swallowing physiology is imperative for

TABLE. Causes of Dysphagia

Oropharyngeal dysphagia

Neurologic

Cerebrovascular accidents

Parkinson disease

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

Multiple sclerosis

Huntington disease

Guillain-Barré syndrome

Tabes dorsalis

Tetanus

Polio

Tardive dyskinesia

Alzheimer and other types of dementia

Muscular

Myasthenia gravis

Muscular dystrophy

Hyperthyroidism

Hypothyroidism

Dermatomyositis

Polymyositis

Structural

Esophageal web

Cervical osteophytes

Goiter

Lymphadenopathy

Zenker diverticulum

Oropharyngeal tumor

Esophageal dysphagia

Motility

Achalasia

Spastic motility disorders (diffuse esophageal spasm, nutcracker esophagus, jackhammer esophagus)

Hypocontractile motility disorders (ineffective esophageal motility disorder)

Scleroderma

Sjogren syndrome

Connective tissue overlap syndrome

Amyloidosis

Inflammatory

Erosive esophagitis

Eosinophilic esophagitis

Infectious

Chagas disease

AIDS

Infectious esophagitis (cytomegalovirus, herpes simplex virus, candida)

Structural or mechanical

Malignancy (esophageal, gastric, or mediastinal) Foreign bodies

Peptic stricture

Esophageal ring (Schatzki ring)

Dysphagia lusoria (aberrant right subclavian artery) Other vascular ring anomalies (enlarged left

atrium or aorta, aberrant vessels)

Continued on next column

TABLE. Continued

Esophageal dysphagia, continued

Other

Functional dysphagia

Pill esophagitis (nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, bisphosphonates, doxycycline, tetracycline, potassium chloride, quinidine,

ferrous sulfate, ascorbic acid)

Decreased lower esophageal sphincter tone (medications such as nitrates, anticholinergics, benzodiazepines, morphine, calcium-channel blockers, tricyclic antidepressants)

understanding abnormal swallowing. *Deglutition* is defined as the act of swallowing in which liquids, solids, or both are transported from the mouth to the stomach by way of the pharynx and esophagus. Normal swallowing occurs up to 600 times a day and each swallow takes approximately 15 seconds to complete. More than 30 muscles are involved in the process. Deglutition is divided into 4 phases: (1) preparatory, (2) oral, (3) pharyngeal, and (4) esophageal.

The process begins as food enters the mouth. Muscles of mastication and the tongue contract to mix saliva with food to generate a bolus of appropriate shape, size, and consistency. The anterior aspect of the tongue elevates to make contact with the hard palate and moves posteriorly to force the bolus into the upper pharynx. This action elevates the soft palate and seals off the nasopharynx to prevent nasal regurgitation and direct the bolus posteriorly. The suprahyoid muscles contract to move the larynx anteriorly and superiorly, whereas the epiglottis moves inferiorly to cover the trachea.8 Pharyngeal muscles contract to push the bolus past the upper esophageal sphincter or cricopharyngeus muscle, which relaxes shortly after laryngeal elevation, allowing the bolus to move into the proximal esophagus.^{8,9} Peristalsis propels the food bolus through the esophagus and across the lower esophageal sphincter.

APPROACH TO CLINICAL HISTORY

Dysphagia, or interruption to the normal process described above, is always pathologic and warrants further evaluation.

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