EXPERT OPINION

- Introduction
- Search strategy
- Pathophysiology of constipation in PD
- Management of functional constipation due to slow colonic transit in PD
- Management of constipation due to defecatory dysfunction
- Expert opinion

informa healthcare

Management of constipation in Parkinson's disease

Malco Rossi, Marcelo Merello & Santiago Perez-Lloret[†]

†Laboratory of Epidemiology and Experimental Pharmacology, Institute for Biomedical Research (BIOMED), School of Medical Sciences, Pontifical Catholic University of Argentina (UCA), and the National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET), Buenos Aires, Argentina

Introduction: Constipation is a frequent non-motor feature of Parkinson's disease (PD). It is the most common gastrointestinal symptom of the disease and it can precede motor symptoms by as much as 20 years. Constipation can produce discomfort and affect activities of daily living, productivity and quality of life, thus warranting early diagnosis and treatment.

Areas covered: In this review, the safety and efficacy of traditional and novel strategies for constipation management will be discussed. A treatment algorithm for constipation in PD will be presented.

Expert opinion: Polyethylene glycol and lubiprostone are first-line compounds recommended by evidence-based medicine guidelines for the treatment of constipation due to slow colonic transit in PD. Management of constipation secondary to defecatory dysfunction due to pelvic floor dyssynergia can be done by levodopa or apomorphine injections, botulinum toxin type A injection into the puborectalis muscle, and nonpharmacological interventions, like biofeedback therapy or functional magnetic stimulation, which showed some benefit in PD patients with constipation, but in general more extensive studies are warranted.

Keywords: algorithm, constipation, gastrointestinal, lubiprostone, Parkinson's disease, polyethylene glycol

Expert Opin. Pharmacother. [Early Online]

1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is the second most frequent neurodegenerative disorder following Alzheimer's disease and involves dopaminergic and non-dopaminergic systems [1]. It is a progressive disease that leads to serious consequences on the function and quality of life of patients and their caregivers [2]. It is mainly recognized by its cardinal motor signs: bradykinesia, rigidity, rest tremor and postural instability, although other secondary motor features, such as hypomimia, dysarthria, dysphagia, micrographia, shuffling gait, festination, freezing and dystonia, are also common [3]. Non-motor symptoms are common during all stages of the disease, and frequently go under-recognized [4]. In many cases they develop before the onset of the cardinal motor features, which has been defined as the prodromal or premotor phase of PD and estimated to precede for about 5 – 20 years [5-7].

Gastrointestinal dysfunction is probably the most frequent non-motor feature of PD [8]. It was early identified and described in the monograph "An Essay on the Shaking Palsy," by James Parkinson in 1817 [9]. All parts of the gastrointestinal tract can potentially be compromised, producing for example, sialorrhea, dysphagia, gastroparesis, constipation and defecation disturbances, which may lead in many cases to weight loss and erratic absorption of drugs [10]. Constipation is the most common gastrointestinal disturbance in PD, with a prevalence lower than traditionally assumed (up to 60 - 70%), being currently estimated between 20 and 29% [11-13]. Epidemiological studies have shown that constipation can precede motor symptoms

Article highlights.

- Constipation is a frequent and troublesome feature of Parkinson's disease (PD)
- Constipation in PD is related to slow colonic transit and defecatory dysfunction.
- Treatment of constipation due to reduced colonic transit should be initiated by nonpharmacological measures, including changes in lifestyle. Pharmacotherapy might include polyethylene glycol or lubiprostone. Rescue therapy by rectal laxatives might be necessary
- Pharmacotherapy for defecatory dysfunction might include levodopa or apomorphine injections, botulinum toxin A injections into the puborectalis muscle and nonpharmacological interventions, like biofeedback therapy or functional magnetic stimulation.
- Trials for constipation in PD should be double-blind, randomized and placebo-controlled, should only including patients fulfilling ROME III criteria, should use frequency of stools as primary outcome endpoint, and should have a duration of at least 12 weeks.

This box summarizes key points contained in the article

by as much as 20 years [14,15], with a relative risk of 2.34 (95% CI 1.55 – 3.53) of a later diagnosis of PD [16]. Constipation in PD arises from decreased bowel movement frequency (slow colonic transit) and/or defecatory dysfunction.

Constipation produces discomfort and in many patients it affects certain activities of daily living (e.g., work impairment) [17]. Moreover, serious and potentially life-threatening complications have been reported, such as intestinal pseudoobstruction, volvulus, megacolon and bowel perforation [18]. Therefore, it should be readily diagnosed and treated.

In this article, after discussing the pathophysiology of constipation in PD, management of constipation will be reviewed, focusing on most efficacious traditional and novel treatments.

2. Search strategy

References for this review were identified through nonsystematic electronic literature searches of MEDLINE (PubMed) from 1966 until April 2014, with the terms 'constipation,' 'gastrointestinal dysfunction,' 'slow colonic transit,' 'defecatory dysfunction,' 'anorectal,' 'treatment' and 'management' coupled with the term 'Parkinson's disease." Papers with data of pathophysiology, clinical features and pharmacological and nonpharmacological measures of constipation in PD were selected. Only papers published in English were reviewed.

3. Pathophysiology of constipation in PD

The autonomic nervous system controls the gut, except the oropharyngeal and proximal esophageal musculature and the external anal sphincter, which receive somatic control. The dorsal motor nucleus of the vagus nerve derives

parasympathetic innervations to the stomach, small intestine and proximal colon, whereas the middle and distal colon receive parasympathetic supply through sacral nerves. Sympathetic innervations arise from the intermediolateral column of the spinal cord from T5 to L3 levels and together with parasympathetic innervations, act on cholinergic neurons in the myenteric plexus of the enteric nervous system, which can also independently control by intrinsic circuits many features of gastrointestinal function [10]. A detailed neural control of the gastrointestinal tract can be found at the comprehensive review of Cersosimo and Benarroch [19]. According to ROME III diagnostic criteria for functional chronic constipation [20], normal bowel movements per week is three or more.

PD is not merely a motor disorder resulting from disturbed dopaminergic transmission as it also displays non-motor symptoms. Furthermore, their occurrence might be related to the involvement of other non-dopaminergic anatomical structures besides substantia nigra pars compacta. Several studies revealed that Lewy pathology is also localized in the lower brainstem and several nuclei of the peripheral nervous system [21]. Braak et al. proposed a staging system to predict a sequence of lesions starting in the dorsal motor nucleus of the glossopharyngeal and vagal nerves, anterior olfactory nucleus and peripheral autonomic ganglia, including enteric nervous system, which would spread following an ascending course to other brainstem and cortical structures [22,23].

Degeneration of autonomic and enteric nervous system might be the hallmark of gastrointestinal dysfunction in PD. Involvement of sympathetic and parasympathetic pathways is well documented [24], as is the presence of Lewy pathology or α -synuclein expression in the enteric nervous system, which may follow a rostrocaudal distribution in the colon and rectum [25-30]. Degeneration of the habitually scarce dopaminergic neurons in the enteric nervous system was also found [31]. Interestingly, α-synuclein accumulation in the gastrointestinal tract may occur in early untreated PD patients and also up to 8 years prior to the onset of motor symptoms [32,33]. Therefore, constipation in PD might be related to the degeneration of autonomic innervations coming either from central autonomic nuclei or from the enteric nervous system within the colon itself [34,35].

The pathophysiological correlate of intestinal neurodegeneration, particularly the affectation of parasympathetic innervations from the motor nucleus of the vagus nerve and the loss of cholinergic neurons and neurons containing vasoactive intestinal peptide in the myenteric plexus of the enteric nervous system, is an impairment of peristalsis, which manifests as slow colonic motility [19]. It has been demonstrated that slow colonic transit appears to be uniform along all sections of the colon in PD patients. Frequency of increased colon transit time was found to be 80%, with a mean duration that varied between 1.8 and 7 days and that was directly related to disease duration, but not to gender or age [36-39].

In addition to prolonged colonic transit time, defecatory dysfunction due to pelvic floor dyssynergia is another



mechanism associated to constipation in PD. It is characterized by decreased phasic rectal contraction, weak abdominal strain and paradoxical sphincter contraction on defecation. The underlying mechanism for outlet-type constipation in PD is still uncertain. An impaired supraspinal modulation of the sacral defecation reflex might paradoxically activate motoneurons in Onuf's nucleus during defecation [19]. Affectation of dopaminergic transmission might also play a role, as denoted by relief with apomorphine, as will be described afterwards. Frequency of outlet-type constipation was found to be as high as 66% and not restricted to late stages of the disease [11,40-43]. In some cases it may be a predominantly OFF-period non-motor manifestation [44,45].

Other secondary factors associated with constipation in PD might be poor bowel habits, and immobility, whereas decreased water intake correlated inversely with the severity of constipation in PD patients [46]. Systemic conditions, like hypercalcemia or hypokalemia, as well as organic colorectal diseases (e.g., inflammatory or neoplasm) may also cause constipation. Certain medications, like antacids with aluminum, opioids, calcium-channel blockers, anticholinergics, tricyclic antidepressants, antipsychotics or amantadine, are other potential factors associated with constipation in PD [11,47-49]. Dopaminergic medications and catechol-O-methyl transferase inhibitors do not appear to cause or aggravate constipation [50,51].

4. Management of functional constipation due to slow colonic transit in PD

4.1 Nonpharmacological measures

Chronic constipation is usually difficult to treat. Before starting any treatment, secondary causes of chronic constipation, like some disease processes or certain medications or their adverse events (AEs), as listed before, should be ruled out. Afterwards, a graded approach to treatment is suggested. First, nonpharmacological measures should be adopted, including simple lifestyle modifications, such as increasing fiber and fluid intake [52-56]. Non-intense aerobic physical activity or at least avoiding sedentarism should also be encouraged [57,58]. It should be kept in mind, however, that evidence supporting the efficacy of these measures is weak. A treatment algorithm is offered in Figure 1.

4.2 Oral laxatives: polyethylene glycol

Failure of nonpharmacological management may call for a pharmacological intervention (Figure 1). Oral laxatives, such as bulk-forming (e.g., psyllium or bran) or osmotic agents (e.g., polyethylene glycol, lactulose or milk of magnesia), are usually considered as first-line treatments in the general population [52]. Stimulant laxatives (e.g., bisacodyl, sodium picosulfate or Senna leaves) have been often reserved for patients who failed to achieve a response to osmotic laxatives and as a rescue alternative, but not for chronic use, as they may induce tolerance, electrolyte imbalance or absorption impairment [12,59].

Some laxatives have been tried in PD patients. In a small study involving seven PD patients with constipation, psyllium was found to increase stool frequency and weight (p < 0.05), but did not improve colon transit or anorectal function [60]. A double-blind randomized controlled trial (RCT) evaluated the efficacy and safety of polyethylene glycol in 57 PD patients for a period of 8 weeks [61]. Treatment efficacy was defined as complete relief of the symptom or a marked improvement of two of the following indicators: stool frequency, straining, stool consistency or use of rectal laxatives as a rescue therapy. After 8 weeks, 80% of patients were considered responders. The frequency of bowel movements and stool consistency were significantly improved with polyethylene glycol in 94 and 69% of the patients, respectively. None of those patients on active group needed rectal laxatives at final visit in contrast to 2 (12.5%) patients that received placebo. Polyethylene glycol was well tolerated, except for four patients (14%) that discontinued treatment due to AEs (nausea and diarrhea in two patients), and poor treatment compliance due to the taste or volume of preparation. The Movement Disorder Society evidence-based medicine review update on treatments for the non-motor symptoms of PD recommended polyethylene glycol as 'likely efficacious and possibly useful' for the management of constipation in PD [62]. Main characteristics of polyethylene glycol are summarized in Table 1. According to a recent Cochrane review, PD patients showed a statistically significant improvement in the number of bowel motions per week with psyllium (mean difference -2.2, 95% CI -3.3 to -1.4) or polyethylene glycol (mean difference -2.9, 95% CI 1.48 - 4.32) in comparison to placebo [63]. To date, no other laxatives, like lactulose, milk of magnesia, bisacodyl, glycerin and sorbitol, have been formally assessed in PD.

4.3 Secretagogues: Iubiprostone

Lubiprostone is a novel compound for the management of constipation and has shown promising results for the management of chronic constipation, including PD patients. It was approved by the US FDA in 2006 for the treatment of chronic idiopathic constipation in adults and in 2008 for irritable bowel syndrome with constipation in adult women.

Lubiprostone, an intestinal chloride secretagogue, is an oral bicyclic fatty acid derived from prostaglandin E1 that selectively activates type 2 chloride channels (ClC-2) in the apical membrane of the gastrointestinal epithelium [64]. This enhances fluid secretion into the intestinal lumen without altering plasmatic sodium and potassium concentrations, which in turn facilitates the passage of softened stool through the gut [65,66]. Controversial results have been found in relation to the effect of lubiprostone on intestinal transit time, with most studies finding no positive effect [65,67-70]. Also, the exact mechanism of lubiprostone-induced fluid secretion is still a matter of debate [71-73]. Lubiprostone also protects and effectively repairs the intestinal epithelial barrier, which confers additional advantages for patients with compromised barrier

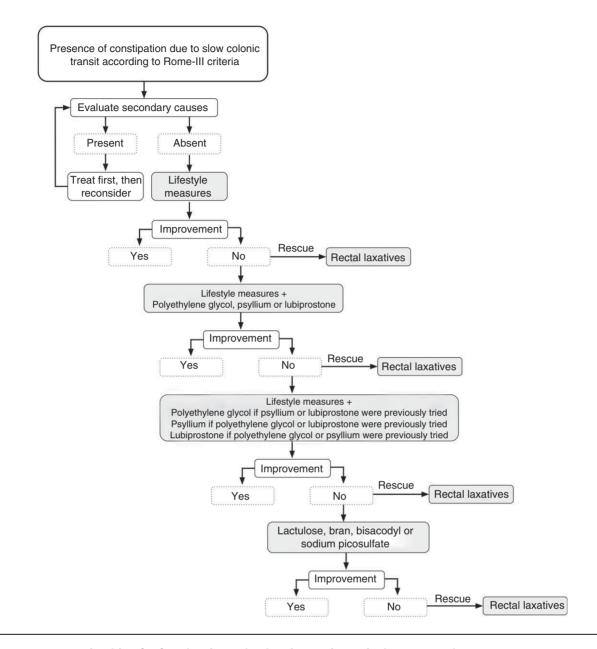


Figure 1. Treatment algorithm for functional constipation due to slow colonic treatment in PD PD: Parkinson's disease

function, like those with irritable bowel syndrome [74]. It also shows prostaglandin-like actions on the small intestine, like stimulation of mucin release [75].

Lubiprostone is usually well tolerated in the general population, even up to 48 weeks of treatment. Most frequent treatment-related AEs found in two large clinical trials [76,77] included diarrhea (6.5 and 9.7%, respectively), nausea (6.3 and 18.8%, respectively), abdominal distension (3.7 and 6.9%, respectively), abdominal pain (2.9 and 5.2%, respectively), flatulence (2.1%), headache (1.5 and 6.9%, respectively), dizziness (1.3%) and vomiting (1.2%). Less than 6% of these AEs were reported as severe and no patient reported any treatment-related serious AE. The treatment-related diarrhea and nausea event rate were 0.35 and 0.34 per 1000 patient days, respectively.

According to a recent systematic review and meta-analysis, lubiprostone was found to be among the safest drugs for constipation-predominant irritable bowel syndrome (IBS-C) when compared to serotonin reuptake inhibitors, tricyclic antidepressants, alosetron and rifaximin, and showed insignificant harm in 2 concurrent Phase III trials involving 1171 patients [78,79].

The efficacy and safety of lubiprostone has been recently explored in PD by means of a double-blind, placebocontrolled, randomized clinical trial [80]. Fifty-four patients, with a mean duration of PD of 8 ± 5 years, without any



Table 1. Features of polyethylene glycol.

Indications Short-term relief of chronic constipation. Bowel preparation before surgery or colonoscopy Mechanism of action Osmotic agent that causes water to be retained with the stool. This increases the number of bowel movements and softens the stool to allow an easier pass Pharmacokinetic profile It is unchanged along the intestinal tract. Absorption is rare and if it is absorbed, it is excreted in Different formulations and usually once daily Dosage Route of administration Oral or rectal for fecal impaction Summary of clinical trials Zangaglia et al. (2007) [61]: Double-blind RCT in 57 PD patients with constipation randomized to polyethylene glycol solution or placebo for 8 weeks. Treatment efficacy was defined as complete relief of constipation or a marked improvement of two of the following indicators: stool frequency, straining, stool consistency, use of rectal laxatives as a rescue therapy. Responders: 80%; p = 0.001. The frequency of bowel movements and stool consistency were significantly improved with polyethylene glycol in 94 and 69% of the patients, respectively. Rectal laxatives were still used by 2 patients on placebo (12.5%), but not on polyethylene glycol Most frequent AEs Nausea (7%) and diarrhea (7%)

AEs: Adverse events; PD: Parkinson's disease; RCT: Randomized controlled trial

identifiable cause of constipation or use of constipating drugs were included. Patients were randomized to lubiprostone 24 mcg/twice daily or placebo for 4 weeks. Primary outcome was the frequency of spontaneous bowel movements. Compared with placebo, patients assigned to lubiprostone had increased stools frequency (0.75 ± 0.80 to 0.97 ± 0.88, respectively, for bowel movements/day for period before to after drug on treatment group vs 0.84 ± 0.76 to 0.83 ± 0.76 on placebo group; p = 0.001), improved global impression of change (z = 3.188; p = 0.001), visual analog scale score $(51.4 \pm 8.5 \text{ to } 71.2 \pm 16.6 \text{ for period before to after drug})$ on treatment group vs 50.7 ± 5.9 to 56.8 ± 13.0 on placebo group; p < 0.001), and constipation questionnaires (p < 0.05). Main AEs were loose stools (48%), which were mild and self-limiting, followed by abdominal pain (1%). Curiously, no patient reported nausea, which is the most common AE in non-PD trials. Lubiprostone was found to be safe and effective for short-term treatment of constipation in PD. Further studies in larger samples and for longer follow-up periods are warranted [81]. A summary of the characteristics of lubiprostone is offered in Table 2.

4.4 Rectal laxatives

When oral medications have failed, a further step can be attempted with rectal laxatives (enemas) for occasional situations of acute episodes of severe constipation in chronically constipated patients [52]. To date, no studies compared oral laxatives against prokinetics or other medications used to treat constipation in PD patients. Large clinical trials of management of constipation in PD are warranted. Notwithstanding, it should be considered a rescue measure and thus used as the last resource in the management of constipation in PD.

4.5 Other traditional drugs

Pro-kinetic drugs have a minor role in the management of constipation in PD. Domperidone was not found to be useful for treatment of constipation in PD [82]. Metoclopramide

should be avoided in PD patients, as it may worsen motor symptoms [83]. Cisapride was found to accelerate colon transit time by ~ 40% in most PD patients, but the therapeutic effect almost vanished after 1 year [38,84]. Similar positive results were also found with tegaserod, a partial 5HT-4 agonist that enhances peristalsis in an open-label report [85], but were not replicated in an RCT [86]. Moreover, cisapride and tegaserod have been withdrawn from the market, because of increased risk of cardiovascular AEs. Mosapride, a selective serotonin-4 receptor (5HT4) agonist and partial 5HT-3 antagonist, with no action on cardiovascular function, was found to be effective and well tolerated in a small open-label study involving seven PD patients with constipation during a 3-month trial period [87].

An approach with probiotics can be tried, as supported by RCTs involving patients with chronic constipation and a pilot study of milk fermented with the probiotic strain Lactobacillus Casei Shirota in 40 PD patients [88,89]. However, some doubts about the use of probiotics have been raised [90].

4.6 Emerging drugs

Some novel drugs are in the pipeline for IBS-C and chronic constipation treatment. Linaclotide is a new compound that activates the enzyme guanylate cyclase-C located in the luminal side of the intestinal epithelium and acts as a secretagogue, like lubiprostone. It showed superiority to placebo in reducing bowel and abdominal symptoms in Phase III studies. Safety profile showed to be similar to lubiprostone. Recommended doses of linaclotide are 290 µg once daily for IBS-C and 145 µg daily for chronic constipation [91]. Plecanatide, another guanylate cyclase-C enzyme activator under research, was found to be safe and well tolerated in healthy subjects, but requires further evaluation in patients with chronic constipation [92]. Novel highly selective 5HT-4 agonists, like prucalopride, velusetrag or naronapride, may be promising due to their efficacy and safety profile [93]. Elobixibat, an ileal bile acid transporter inhibitor, is another medication with an

Table 2. Features of lubiprostone.

Indications

Mechanism of action Pharmacokinetic profile* Chronic constipation in adults and IBS-C in adult women

Selective activator of type 2 chloride channels

Metabolizes to active metabolite M3 by carbonyl reductase enzymes in the stomach and jejunum. Peak M3 plasma levels in 1.14 h. Protein binding 94%. M3 t_{1/2}: 0.9 - 1.4 h. Elimination: 60% in urine, 30%

in feces

Dosage

Route of administration Summary of clinical trials $24 \mu g$ b.i.d. for CC and $8 \mu g$ b.i.d. for IBS-C Oral

Drossman et al. (2009) [78]: Multicenter Phase-III double-blind RCT in 1171 IBS-C patients randomized to lubiprostone 8 mcg b.i.d. or placebo for 12 weeks. Completion rate: 76%. Responders: 17.9%;

p = 0.001

Mean improvement from baseline in abdominal discomfort/pain was significantly greater in lubiprostone-treated patients compared with placebo-treated patients at month 3 (-0.45 vs -0.36, p = 0.028). Mean improvement in the lubiprostone group was significantly greater than the mean observed with placebo for abdominal bloating at month 2 (p = 0.044); bowel movements frequency at month 1 (p = 0.021); stool consistency at months 1, 2 and 3 (p \leq 0.022); and degree of straining at months 1 and 2 (p \leq 0.013)

Lembo et al. (2011) [77]: Long-term efficacy multicenter, open-labeled trial in 248 patients with chronic constipation taking 24 µg b.i.d.. Completion rate: 51%. Mean reduction in constipation severity (p < 0.0015). Mean abdominal bloating scores were < 1.13 at all visits and < 1 for weeks 18 and 30 - 48, increasing to 1.15 at study end

Mean abdominal discomfort scores were < 1 at every post-baseline assessment, with a score of 0.98 at study end. Improvements in both abdominal bloating and discomfort scores, at all time points postbaseline, were statistically significant (p \leq 0.011). Efficacy lasted over 48 weeks of treatment Ondo et al. (2012) [80]: Double-blind RCT in 54 PD patients randomized to lubiprostone 24 µg b.i.d. or placebo for 4 weeks. Completion rate: 96%. Patients assigned to lubiprostone had increased stools frequency (p = 0.001), improved global impression of change (p = 0.001), visual analog scale score (p < 0.001), and constipation questionnaires (p < 0.05). AEs: loose stools (48%), abdominal pain (1%) Diarrhea (6.5 and 9.7%, respectively), nausea (6.3 and 18.8%, respectively), abdominal distension (3.7 and 6.9%, respectively), abdominal pain (2.9 and 5.2%, respectively), flatulence (2.1%), headache (1.5 and 6.9%, respectively), dizziness (1.3%), vomiting (1.2%) and dyspnea (0.5%)

Most frequent AEs [76,77]

*Profile of the metabolite M3 after a single oral dose of 24 μg . AEs: Adverse events; b.i.d.: Twice daily; IBS-C: Constipation-predominant irritable bowel syndrome; PD: Parkinson's disease; RCT: Randomized controlled trial.

original mechanism of action by blocking the absorption of bile acids, which in turn stimulate colonic secretions. It showed potential to treat chronic constipation [94]. A new class of medications, such as ghrelin agonist, is under research. No studies are available in PD.

5. Management of constipation due to defecatory dysfunction in PD

In general, treatment of outlet obstruction is challenging, but some measures are worthwhile to try. Levodopa or apomorphine injections have shown positive results, but were evaluated in small samples of patients [45,95]. Apomorphine normalized defecographic abnormalities in one out of three patients, by abolishing the paradoxical puborectalis contraction on strain, widened the anal canal and therefore improved evacuation. Repeated anorectal manometric parameters improved in all five patients that were evaluated [45]. Apomorphine needs to be used with caution because of adverse drug reactions involving the gastrointestinal (e.g., nausea and vomiting), cardiovascular (e.g., hypotension) and psychiatric (e.g., hallucinations, somnolence or impulse-control disorders) systems, especially in patients with advanced age.

Levodopa significantly lessened the first sensation during rectal filling (178.6 - 121.3 ml, p < 0.05), significantly reduced the amplitude in paradoxical sphincter contraction upon defecation (29.7 cm H_2O to -7.1 cm H_2O , p < 0.01) and lessened post-defecation residuals (142.2 - 53.9 ml, p < 0.05) in a quantitative lower-gastrointestinal autonomic test conducted in 18 constipated PD patients [95].

Biofeedback therapy, a manometric-assisted pelvic relaxation and stimulation defecation training, also showed to be effective in the short- and long-term management of dyssynergic defecation [96], and it might be useful in PD patients, although no results have been published yet. Functional magnetic stimulation showed some benefit in PD patients with constipation, but more extensive studies are warranted [97].

Lastly, botulinum toxin type A injection into the puborectalis muscle was tried with success in PD patients [98,99]. Albanese et al. injected 100 units of botulinum toxin type A in the puborectalis muscle under transrectal ultrasonographic guidance to 10 PD patients and found that anal tone during straining was reduced from 97.4 ± 19.6 mm Hg at baseline to 40.7 ± 11.5 mm Hg 1 month after treatment (p < 0.001), without any further change at 2 months of follow-up. The anorectal angle during straining increased from a mean of $99 \pm 7.9^{\circ}$ before treatment to $122.2 \pm 15^{\circ}$, p = 0.0004) and



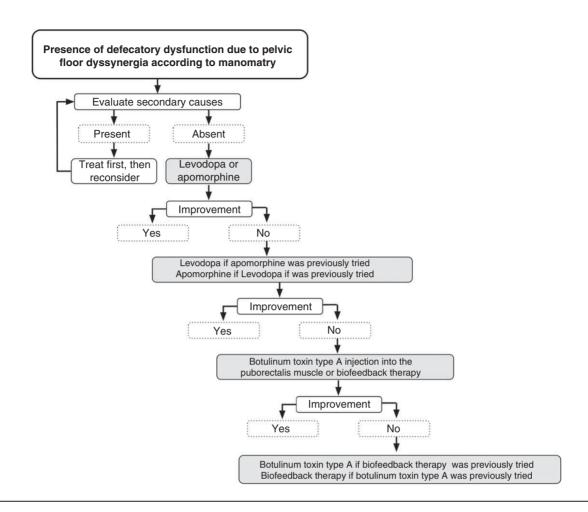


Figure 2. Treatment algorithm for constipation related to defecatory dysfunction due to pelvic floor dyssynergia.

nine patients (90%) evacuated without the need for laxatives or enemas [98].

A treatment algorithm for defecatory dysfunction in PD is depicted in Figure 2. It is important to acknowledge that treatments have been insufficiently studied in PD, and the algorithm representing the authors' expert opinion is based on the best available evidence.

6. Expert opinion

Constipation is a frequent non-motor feature of PD that usually causes concern, complaints and discomfort, affects activities of daily living and productivity and has a significant negative impact in health-related quality of life. Pathophysiology is related to central and peripheral degeneration of sympathetic and parasympathetic intestinal neurons, which causes slow colonic transit time and defecatory dysfunction due to pelvic floor dyssynergia. Other secondary factors associated with constipation in PD might be poor bowel habits, immobility, decreased water intake and certain medications, like antacids with aluminum, opioids, calcium-channel blockers, anticholinergics, tricyclic antidepressants, antipsychotics or amantadine. Difficulty in defecation may fluctuate as motor symptoms and tend to be more prominent and frequent during the OFF time.

Management of chronic constipation due to slow colonic transit should begin by implementing general measures, such as favoring exercise and increasing fiber intake and fluids, reducing OFF time. If they fail, then pharmacotherapy can be used. Exclusion of secondary causes of chronic constipation, like some disease processes or certain medications or their AEs, is mandatory.

Polyethylene glycol is one of the most effective and safe laxatives for management of chronic constipation in PD, and thus it can be regarded as a first-line treatment of constipation in PD. Novel compounds include lubiprostone, an activator of chloride channels in the apical membrane of the gastrointestinal epithelium. Such activation increases fluid secretion into the intestinal lumen and facilitates the passage of softened stool through the gut. Lubiprostone proved to be well tolerated, safe and long-term effective in reducing constipation in patients with chronic idiopathic functional constipation and constipated patients with PD. Given its efficacy, safety and tolerability, lubiprostone is a good option for the management of constipation associated with PD. Further studies of lubiprostone with larger samples and longer follow-up periods are warranted [100]. Even if comparisons between polyethylene glycol, lubiprostone and other currently used agents are lacking, the evidence about their efficacy and safety obtained by double-blind RCT involving PD patients allows to recommend them as first-line compounds in treatment of constipation in PD due to slow colonic transit time.

There is a paucity of large and well-designed clinical trials to evaluate the efficacy of general measures or medications for management of constipation in PD. Studies comparing novel drugs with classical medications, like laxatives, are warranted, as well as long-term experience in PD patients. Future trials must be double-blind, randomized and placebo-controlled, should include PD patients fulfilling ROME III criteria, use frequency of stools as primary outcome endpoint, and have a duration of at least 12 weeks [81].

Declaration of interest

The authors have no relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript. This includes employment, consultancies, honoraria, stock ownership or options, expert testimony, grants or patents received or pending, or royalties.

Bibliography

Papers of special note have been highlighted as either of interest (•) or of considerable interest (••) to readers.

- de Lau LM, Breteler MM. Epidemiology of Parkinson's disease. Lancet Neurol 2006:5:525-35
- Den Oudsten BL, Van Heck GL, De Vries J. Quality of life and related concepts in Parkinson's disease: a systematic review. Mov Disord 2007:22:1528-37
- Jankovic J. Parkinson's disease: clinical features and diagnosis. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2008;79:368-76
- 4. Chaudhuri KR, Prieto-Jurcynska C, Naidu Y, et al. The nondeclaration of nonmotor symptoms of Parkinson's disease to health care professionals: an international study using the nonmotor symptoms questionnaire. Mov Disord 2010;25:704-9
- Gonera EG, van't Hof M, Berger HJ, et al. Symptoms and duration of the prodromal phase in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 1997;12:871-6
- Hawkes CH. The prodromal phase of sporadic Parkinson's disease: does it exist and if so how long is it? Mov Disord 2008;23:1799-807
- Siderowf A, Stern MB. Preclinical diagnosis of Parkinson's disease: are we there yet? Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep 2006;6:295-301
- Martinez-Martin P, Schapira AH, 8 Stocchi F, et al. Prevalence of nonmotor symptoms in Parkinson's disease in an international setting; study using nonmotor symptoms questionnaire in 545 patients. Mov Disord 2007;22:1623-9

- Parkinson J. An essay on the shaking palsy. 1817. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci 2002;14:223-36. discussion 2
- Pfeiffer RF. Gastrointestinal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. Lancet Neurol 2003:2:107-16
- Edwards LL, Pfeiffer RF, Quigley EM, et al. Gastrointestinal symptoms in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 1991;6:151-6
- Kaye J, Gage H, Kimber A, et al. Excess burden of constipation in Parkinson's disease: a pilot study. Mov Disord 2006;21:1270-3
- Siddiqui MF, Rast S, Lynn MJ, et al. Autonomic dysfunction in Parkinson's disease: a comprehensive symptom survey. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2002;8:277-84
- Savica R, Carlin JM, Grossardt BR, et al. Medical records documentation of constipation preceding Parkinson disease: a case-control study. Neurology 2009;73:1752-8
- Abbott RD, Petrovitch H, White LR, et al. Frequency of bowel movements and the future risk of Parkinson's disease. Neurology 2001;57:456-62
- Noyce AJ, Bestwick JP, Silveira-Moriyama L, et al. Meta-analysis of early nonmotor features and risk factors for Parkinson disease. Ann Neurol 2012;72:893-901
- Johanson JF, Kralstein J. Chronic constipation: a survey of the patient perspective. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2007;25:599-608
- Caplan LH, Jacobson HG, Rubinstein BM, et al. Megacolon and

- Volvulus in Parkinson's Disease. Radiology 1965;85:73-9
- Cersosimo MG, Benarroch EE. Neural control of the gastrointestinal tract: implications for Parkinson disease. Mov Disord 2008;23:1065-75
- 20. Longstreth GF, Thompson WG, Chey WD, et al. Functional bowel disorders. Gastroenterology 2006;130:1480-91
- Probst A, Bloch A, Tolnay M. New insights into the pathology of Parkinson's disease: does the peripheral autonomic system become central? Eur J Neurol 2008;15(Suppl 1):1-4
- 22. Braak H, Del Tredici K, Rub U, et al. Staging of brain pathology related to sporadic Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Aging 2003;24:197-211
- Del Tredici K, Rub U, De Vos RA, et al. Where does parkinson disease pathology begin in the brain? J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 2002;61:413-26
- 24. Braak H, Sastre M, Bohl JR, et al. Parkinson's disease: lesions in dorsal horn layer I, involvement of parasympathetic and sympathetic pre- and postganglionic neurons. Acta Neuropathol 2007:113:421-9
- Beach TG, Adler CH, Sue LI, et al. 25. Multi-organ distribution of phosphorylated alpha-synuclein histopathology in subjects with Lewy body disorders. Acta Neuropathol 2010;119:689-702
- 26. Gold A, Turkalp ZT, Munoz DG. Enteric alpha-synuclein expression is increased in Parkinson's disease but not Alzheimer's disease. Mov Disord 2013;28:237-40



- Lebouvier T, Neunlist M, 2.7 Bruley des Varannes S, et al. Colonic biopsies to assess the neuropathology of Parkinson's disease and its relationship with symptoms. PLoS One 2010;5:e12728
- Pouclet H, Lebouvier T, Coron E, et al. A comparison between rectal and colonic biopsies to detect Lewy pathology in Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Dis 2012:45:305-9
- Wakabayashi K, Takahashi H, Ohama E, 29 et al. Parkinson's disease: an immunohistochemical study of Lewy body-containing neurons in the enteric nervous system. Acta Neuropathol 1990;79:581-3
- Wakabayashi K, Takahashi H, Takeda S, et al. Parkinson's disease: the presence of Lewy bodies in Auerbach's and Meissner's plexuses. Acta Neuropathol 1988;76:217-21
- Singaram C, Ashraf W, Gaumnitz EA, 31. et al. Dopaminergic defect of enteric nervous system in Parkinson's disease patients with chronic constipation. Lancet 1995;346:861-4
- Hilton D, Stephens M, Kirk L, et al. Accumulation of alpha-synuclein in the bowel of patients in the pre-clinical phase of Parkinson's disease. Acta Neuropathol 2014:127:235-41
- Shannon KM, Keshavarzian A, Mutlu E, et al. Alpha-synuclein in colonic submucosa in early untreated Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2012;27:709-15
- Cersosimo MG, Benarroch EE. Pathological correlates of gastrointestinal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Dis 2012;46:559-64
- Edwards LL, Quigley EM, Pfeiffer RF. Gastrointestinal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease: frequency and pathophysiology. Neurology 1992;42:726-32
- Edwards LL, Quigley EM, Harned RK, et al. Characterization of swallowing and defecation in Parkinson's disease. Am J Gastroenterol 1994;89:15-25
- Jost WH, Schimrigk K. Constipation in Parkinson's disease. Klin Wochenschr 1991;69:906-9
- Jost WH, Schimrigk K. The effect of 38 cisapride on delayed colonic transit time in patients with idiopathic Parkinson's disease. Wien Klin Wochenschr 1994;106:673-6

- Jost WH, Schrank B. Defecatory 39 disorders in de novo Parkinsonians-colonic transit and electromyogram of the external anal sphincter. Wien Klin Wochenschr 1998;110:535-7
- Ashraf W, Pfeiffer RF, Quigley EM. 40 Anorectal manometry in the assessment of anorectal function in Parkinson's disease: a comparison with chronic idiopathic constipation. Mov Disord 1994:9:655-63
- 41 Bassotti G, Maggio D, Battaglia E, et al. Manometric investigation of anorectal function in early and late stage Parkinson's disease. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2000;68:768-70
- Sakakibara R, Odaka T, Uchiyama T, 42. et al. Colonic transit time and rectoanal videomanometry in Parkinson's disease. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2003;74:268-72
- 43. Wang CP, Sung WH, Wang CC, et al. Early recognition of pelvic floor dyssynergia and colorectal assessment in Parkinson's disease associated with bowel dysfunction. Colorectal Dis 2013;15:e130-7
- 44 Ashraf W, Wszolek ZK, Pfeiffer RF, et al. Anorectal function in fluctuating (on-off) Parkinson's disease: evaluation by combined anorectal manometry and electromyography. Mov Disord 1995;10:650-7
- 45 Edwards LL, Quigley EM, Harned RK, et al. Defecatory function in Parkinson's disease: response to apomorphine. Ann Neurol 1993;33:490-3
- Ueki A, Otsuka M. Life style risks of Parkinson's disease: association between decreased water intake and constipation. J Neurol 2004;251(Suppl 7):vII18-23
- Andrews CN, Storr M. The pathophysiology of chronic constipation. Can J Gastroenterol 2011;25(Suppl B):16B-21B
- Gray JR. What is chronic constipation? 48. Definition and diagnosis. Can J Gastroenterol 2011;25(Suppl B):7B-10B
- Zeino Z, Sisson G, Bjarnason I. Adverse effects of drugs on small intestine and colon, Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol 2010-24-133-41
- 50. Gage H, Kaye J, Kimber A, et al. Correlates of constipation in people with

- Parkinson's, Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2011:17:106-11
- Jost WH. Gastrointestinal motility problems in patients with Parkinson's disease. Effects of antiparkinsonian treatment and guidelines for management. Drugs Aging 1997;10:249-58
- American Gastroenterological Association. Bharucha AE, Dorn SD, et al. American Gastroenterological Association medical position statement on constipation. Gastroenterology 2013;144:211-17
- Astarloa R, Mena MA, Sanchez V, et al. Clinical and pharmacokinetic effects of a diet rich in insoluble fiber on Parkinson disease. Clin Neuropharmacol 1992;15:375-80
- Zesiewicz TA, Sullivan KL, Arnulf I, et al. Practice Parameter: treatment of nonmotor symptoms of Parkinson disease: report of the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Neurology 2010;74:924-31
- Bove A, Bellini M, Battaglia E, et al. Consensus statement AIGO/SICCR diagnosis and treatment of chronic constipation and obstructed defecation (part II: treatment). World J Gastroenterol 2012;18:4994-5013
- Lindberg G, Hamid SS, Malfertheiner P, et al. World Gastroenterology Organisation global guideline: constipation-a global perspective. J Clin Gastroenterol 2011;45:483-7
- de Oliveira EP, Burini RC. The impact of physical exercise on the gastrointestinal tract. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care 2009;12:533-8
- 58. Simren M. Physical activity and the gastrointestinal tract. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2002;14:1053-6
- Salat-Foix D, Suchowersky O. The management of gastrointestinal symptoms in Parkinson's disease. Expert Rev Neurother 2012;12:239-48
- Ashraf W, Pfeiffer RF, Park F, et al. Constipation in Parkinson's disease: objective assessment and response to psyllium. Mov Disord 1997;12:946-51
- Zangaglia R, Martignoni E, Glorioso M, 61. et al. Macrogol for the treatment of constipation in Parkinson's disease. A randomized placebo-controlled study. Mov Disord 2007;22:1239-44



- Seppi K, Weintraub D, Coelho M, et al. 62. The movement disorder society evidencebased medicine review update: treatments for the non-motor symptoms of Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2011;26(Suppl 3):S42-80
- Evidence-based review on treatment for Parkinson's disease nonmotor symptoms.
- 63. Coggrave M, Norton C, Cody JD. Management of faecal incontinence and constipation in adults with central neurological diseases. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2014;1:CD002115
- McKeage K, Plosker GL, Siddiqui MA. Lubiprostone. Drugs 2006;66:873-9
- Camilleri M, Bharucha AE, Ueno R, et al. Effect of a selective chloride channel activator, lubiprostone, on gastrointestinal transit, gastric sensory, and motor functions in healthy volunteers. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 2006;290:G942-7
- 66. Cuppoletti J, Malinowska DH, Tewari KP, et al. SPI-0211 activates T84 cell chloride transport and recombinant human ClC-2 chloride currents. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 2004;287:C1173-83
- Chan WW, Mashimo H. Lubiprostone 67 increases small intestinal smooth muscle contractions through a prostaglandin E receptor 1 (EP1)-mediated pathway. J Neurogastroenterol Motil 2013;19:312-18
- 68. Hooks SB III, Rutland TJ, Di Palma JA. Lubiprostone neither decreases gastric and small-bowel transit time nor improves visualization of small bowel for capsule endoscopy: a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. Gastrointest Endosc 2009:70:942-6
- 69 Whitehead WE, Palsson OS, Gangarosa L, et al. Lubiprostone does not influence visceral pain thresholds in patients with irritable bowel syndrome. Neurogastroenterol Motil 2011;23:944-e400
- 70. Sweetser S, Busciglio IA, Camilleri M, et al. Effect of a chloride channel activator, lubiprostone, on colonic sensory and motor functions in healthy subjects. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 2009;296:G295-301
- 71. Ao M, Venkatasubramanian J, Boonkaewwan C, et al. Lubiprostone activates Cl- secretion via cAMP signaling and increases membrane CFTR

- in the human colon carcinoma cell line, T84. Dig Dis Sci 2011;56:339-51
- Jakab RL, Collaco AM, Ameen NA. Lubiprostone targets prostanoid signaling and promotes ion transporter trafficking, mucus exocytosis, and contractility. Dig Dis Sci 2012;57:2826-45
- Lacy BE, Levy LC. Lubiprostone: a chloride channel activator. J Clin Gastroenterol 2007;41:345-51
- Cuppoletti J, Blikslager AT, Chakrabarti J, et al. Contrasting effects of linaclotide and lubiprostone on restitution of epithelial cell barrier properties and cellular homeostasis after exposure to cell stressors. BMC Pharmacol 2012;12:3
- De Lisle RC. Lubiprostone stimulates small intestinal mucin release. BMC Gastroenterol 2012;12:156
- Chey WD, Drossman DA, Johanson JF, et al. Safety and patient outcomes with lubiprostone for up to 52 weeks in patients with irritable bowel syndrome with constipation. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2012;35:587-99
- Lembo AJ, Johanson JF, Parkman HP, et al. Long-term safety and effectiveness of lubiprostone, a chloride channel (CIC-2) activator, in patients with chronic idiopathic constipation. Dig Dis Sci 2011;56:2639-45
- Drossman DA, Chey WD, Johanson JF, et al. Clinical trial: lubiprostone in patients with constipation-associated irritable bowel syndrome-results of two randomized, placebo-controlled studies. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2009;29:329-41
- Shah E, Kim S, Chong K, et al. Evaluation of harm in the pharmacotherapy of irritable bowel syndrome. Am J Med 2012;125:381-93
- Ondo WG, Kenney C, Sullivan K, et al. Placebo-controlled trial of lubiprostone for constipation associated with Parkinson disease. Neurology 2012;78:1650-4
- Perez-Lloret S, Rey MV, Pavy-Le Traon A, et al. Emerging drugs for autonomic dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. Expert Opin Emerg Drugs 2013;18:39-53
- Soykan I, Sarosiek I, Shifflett J, et al. Effect of chronic oral domperidone therapy on gastrointestinal symptoms and gastric emptying in patients with

- Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 1997;12:952-7
- 83. Bondon-Guitton E, Perez-Lloret S, Bagheri H, et al. Drug-induced parkinsonism: a review of 17 years' experience in a regional pharmacovigilance center in France. Mov Disord 2011;26:2226-31
- 84. Jost WH, Schimrigk K. Long-term results with cisapride in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 1997;12:423-5
- Morgan JC, Sethi KD. Tegaserod in constipation associated with Parkinson disease. Clin Neuropharmacol 2007;30:52-4
- 86 Sullivan KL, Staffetti JF, Hauser RA, et al. Tegaserod (Zelnorm) for the treatment of constipation in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2006;21:115-16
- Liu Z, Sakakibara R, Odaka T, et al. Mosapride citrate, a novel 5-HT4 agonist and partial 5-HT3 antagonist, ameliorates constipation in parkinsonian patients. Mov Disord 2005;20:680-6
- Cassani E, Privitera G, Pezzoli G, et al. Use of probiotics for the treatment of constipation in Parkinson's disease patients. Minerva Gastroenterol Dietol 2011;57:117-21
- 89 Miller LE, Ouwehand AC. Probiotic supplementation decreases intestinal transit time: meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. World J Gastroenterol 2013:19:4718-25
- 90 Arnold C. The pros and cons of probiotics. Lancet Infect Dis 2013;13:571-2
- Rothstein RD, Friedenberg FK. Linaclotide: a novel compound for the treatment of irritable bowel syndrome with constipation. Expert Opin Pharmacother 2013;14:2125-32
- Shailubhai K, Comiskey S, Foss JA, et al. Plecanatide, an oral guanylate cyclase C agonist acting locally in the gastrointestinal tract, is safe and welltolerated in single doses. Dig Dis Sci 2013;58:2580-6
- Shin A, Camilleri M, Kolar G, et al. Systematic review with meta-analysis: highly selective 5-HT4 agonists (prucalopride, velusetrag or naronapride) in chronic constipation. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2014;39:239-53
- Wong BS, Camilleri M. Elobixibat for the treatment of constipation.



- Expert Opin Investig Drugs 2013;22:277-84
- Tateno F, Sakakibara R, Yokoi Y, et al. Levodopa ameliorated anorectal constipation in de novo Parkinson's disease: the QL-GAT study. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2011;17:662-6
- Rao SS, Valestin J, Brown CK, et al. 96. Long-term efficacy of biofeedback therapy for dyssynergic defecation: randomized controlled trial. Am J Gastroenterol 2010;105:890-6
- Chiu CM, Wang CP, Sung WH, et al. Functional magnetic stimulation in constipation associated with Parkinson's disease. J Rehabil Med 2009;41:1085-9

- Albanese A, Brisinda G, Bentivoglio AR, 98 et al. Treatment of outlet obstruction constipation in Parkinson's disease with botulinum neurotoxin A. Am J Gastroenterol 2003;98:1439-40
- Cadeddu F, Bentivoglio AR, Brandara F, et al. Outlet type constipation in Parkinson's disease: results of botulinum toxin treatment. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2005:22:997-1003
- 100. Markland AD, Palsson O, Goode PS, et al. Association of low dietary intake of fiber and liquids with constipation: evidence from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Am J Gastroenterol 2013;108:796-803

Affiliation

Malco Rossi1 MD. Marcelo Merello1 MD PhD & Santiago Perez-Lloret^{†2} MD PhD [†]Author for correspondence ¹Raul Carrea Institute for Neurological Research (FLENI), Neuroscience Department, Movement Disorders Section, Buenos Aires, Argentina ²Laboratory of Epidemiology and Experimental Pharmacology, Institute for Biomedical Research (BIOMED), School of Medical Sciences, Pontifical Catholic University of Argentina (UCA), and the National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET), Buenos Aires, Argentina

Tel: +54 11 4349 0200;

E-mail: santiagopl@conicet.gov.ar

