

# We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists

4,800

Open access books available

122,000

International authors and editors

135M

Downloads

Our authors are among the

154

Countries delivered to

TOP 1%

most cited scientists

12.2%

Contributors from top 500 universities



WEB OF SCIENCE™

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index  
in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?  
Contact [book.department@intechopen.com](mailto:book.department@intechopen.com)

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.  
For more information visit [www.intechopen.com](http://www.intechopen.com)



# Mid-Gastrointestinal Bleeding

*Monjur Ahmed*

## Abstract

Mid-gastrointestinal bleeding constitutes a small proportion of all cases of gastrointestinal bleeding. It is more difficult to manage mid-gastrointestinal bleeding than upper or lower gastrointestinal bleeding. The etiology differs in younger and older age groups. The clinical presentation, investigations, and management are also different. Capsule endoscopy has improved the diagnostic accuracy to a great extent. Device-assisted enteroscopies (balloon-assisted enteroscopies and spiral enteroscopy) have both diagnostic and therapeutic potentials. Most of the time, patients present with obscure gastrointestinal bleeding which could be overt or occult. Another common presentation is iron deficiency anemia. A stepwise approach is essential to accurately diagnose and manage mid-gastrointestinal bleeding.

**Keywords:** small bowel bleed, occult gastrointestinal bleed, obscure gastrointestinal bleed, capsule endoscopy and gastrointestinal bleed, small bowel angioectasia

## 1. Introduction

Most of the gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding occurs from the upper and lower gastrointestinal tract. Mid-gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding refers to small bowel bleed anywhere from the ampulla of Vater to the ileocecal valve [1]. It occurs in 5–10% of all cases of gastrointestinal bleeding [2]. It is the most common cause of obscure GI bleeding, i.e., when the source of bleeding cannot be identified anywhere in the gastrointestinal tract [3, 4]. Management of mid-GI bleeding can be challenging to a gastroenterologist although various diagnostic and therapeutic tools are now available to evaluate and treat mid-GI bleeding. Despite the availability of various endoscopies and imaging studies, the exact cause of mid-GI bleeding can be still elusive in about one third of cases [5]. The etiology, clinical presentation, evaluation, investigations, and management of mid-GI bleeding will be discussed in this chapter.

## 2. Etiology

There are various etiologies of mid-GI bleeding, but their frequency depends on patient's age and underlying comorbidities [6]. Below the age of 40, the most common causes include Crohn's disease, Dieulafoy's lesion, small bowel tumors, Meckel's diverticulum, and polyposis syndrome. Small bowel tumors could be benign or malignant [7]. Benign ones include small gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GIST), benign neuroendocrine tumors (particularly small carcinoid), hemangioma, adenoma, leiomyoma, lipoma, and neurofibroma. Malignant ones include large GIST, adenocarcinoma, lymphoma, malignant neuroendocrine tumors, leiomyosarcoma, and metastatic tumor from melanoma, lung, or breast [8–11].

Rarely, polyposis syndromes involving the small bowel may present with mid-GI bleeding. These include familial adenomatous polyposis, Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, and generalized juvenile polyposis. Over the age of 40, the most common causes of mid-GI bleeding include angioectasia, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID)-induced ulcers, Dieulafoy's lesion, and small bowel tumors. On rare occasions, other small bowel lesions can cause gastrointestinal bleeding. These include small intestinal diverticuli, small intestinal varices, hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia, Kaposi sarcoma, intestinal tuberculosis, blue rubber bleb nevus syndrome, hematemesis, hemosuccus entericus, aortoenteric fistula, infectious enteritis, radiation enteritis, ulcerative jejunoileitis due to celiac disease, cryptogenic multifocal ulcerous stenosing enteritis [12], amyloidosis, Behcet's disease, pseudoxanthoma elasticum, and Ehlers-Danlos syndrome [13]. The incidence of small bowel neuroendocrine tumors (SBNET) has been increasing over the last few decades, and they are now considered as the most common primary malignancy of small bowel. Adenocarcinomas are generally seen in the proximal small bowel, whereas SBNET and lymphoma are commonly located in the distal small bowel. Sarcomas (GIST and non-GIST mesenchymal tumors: leiomyosarcoma, liposarcoma, fibrosarcoma, Kaposi's sarcoma, angiosarcoma) are evenly located throughout the small bowel.

### **3. Clinical presentation**

Patients with mid-GI bleeding generally present with melena, occult gastrointestinal bleeding (anemia with heme-positive stool), or iron deficiency anemia. Sometimes, they may present with hematochezia as well when there is brisk mid-gut bleeding. Hematemesis is rare but can happen if bleeding occurs proximal to the ligament of Treitz. Patients can have abdominal pain, constipation, diarrhea, or constitutional symptoms like fever, anorexia, or weight loss depending on the underlying etiology. Symptoms (fatigue, shortness of breath, dysphagia due to esophageal web) and signs (pallor of conjunctiva, atrophic glossitis, and koilonychia) can be present depending on the severity and chronicity of iron deficiency anemia [14]. Patients may give history of receiving multiple blood transfusions acutely, subacutely, or chronically despite having multiple endoscopies, colonoscopies, and imaging studies.

### **4. Clinical evaluation**

A thorough history and physical examination are essential in the evaluation of mid-GI bleeding. Besides the symptoms and signs mentioned above, there are certain clinical clues which may direct us to suspect the underlying etiology of mid-GI bleeding:

- Drug history: NSAIDs.
- Personal history: aortic stenosis (suspecting Heyde syndrome), cancer, melanoma, lymphoma, immunosuppressive state including human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, celiac disease, radiation, polyposis syndrome.
- Family history: early colorectal cancer or endometrial cancer (suspecting Lynch syndrome).
- Hyperpigmentation around the mouth and on the lips, fingers, or toes may suggest Peutz-Jeghers syndrome.

- Telangiectasia on the lips and tongue may suggest hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia.
- Itchy blistering rash on the extensor aspect of the elbows, knees, buttocks, back, and scalp may suggest dermatitis herpetiformis.
- Cutaneous Kaposi's sarcoma.
- Oral aphthous ulcers, genital ulcers, and uveitis may suggest Behcet's syndrome.
- Cutaneous manifestations of pseudoxanthoma elasticum and Ehlers-Danlos syndrome.

## 5. Investigations

The various investigations used for management of mid-GI bleeding include wireless video capsule endoscopy (VCE), push enteroscopy, device-assisted enteroscopy (DAE), multiphasic CT enterography (CTE), magnetic resonance enterography (MRE), bleeding scan, Meckel's scan, angiography, and rarely laparoscopy with intraoperative enteroscopy [15–18].

### 5.1 VCE

VCE has revolutionized the visualization of the entire mucosa of the small bowel. It was approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2001. The video capsule (size: 13 × 27.9 mm) takes 2 pictures per second with a total of approximately 57,600 color pictures wirelessly over a period of 8 hours [19]. It can detect subtle mucosal changes which cannot be detected by imaging studies. VCE is very useful not only in patients with chronic or intermittent mid-GI bleeding but also in acute overt mid-GI bleeding. VCE should be done as soon as possible after the bleeding episode ideally within 14 days in the case of chronic or recurrent overt mid-GI bleeding and within 24–72 hours of acute overt mid-GI bleeding for maximal diagnostic yield [20]. The European Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ESGE) recommends that patients should take 2 L of polyethylene glycol (PEG) and simethicone (80–200 mg) prior to VCE. Prokinetic drugs (metoclopramide or domperidone) should be given if the video capsule stays in the stomach for more than 30–60 minutes as shown by real-time VCE viewer [21, 22]. Ideally video capsule should be placed endoscopically into the small bowel by using a capsule endoscope delivery device in patients with dysphagia or abnormal gastrointestinal anatomy or delayed gastric emptying where there will be increased risk of incomplete VCE study [23]. It is safe to perform VCE in patients with cardiac pacemaker, automatic implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (AICD), and left ventricular assist device [24].

### 5.2 Push enteroscopy

Push enteroscopy is a very useful tool in the evaluation of lesion seen in the proximal part of the small bowel by VCE. Push enteroscopy is generally done by a dedicated push enteroscope (250 cm long) or a pediatric or standard colonoscope. Gastric looping and duodenal angulation prevent advancement of the scope. An overtube back-loaded on to the scope or a stiffening wire through the biopsy channel of the scope helps prevent loop formation of the scope allowing deeper

intubation of the small bowel. The actual depth of insertion of small bowel by push enteroscopy is difficult to measure but varies (120–180 cm beyond the ligament of Treitz) among endoscopists and patients [25]. Push enteroscopy has both diagnostic and therapeutic potential including biopsy, hemostasis, and tattooing [26].

### **5.3 DAE**

DAE includes balloon-assisted enteroscopy (single balloon and double balloon) and spiral enteroscopy.

Single-balloon enteroscopy (SBE) and double-balloon enteroscopy (DBE) were developed in 2006 and 2001, respectively, to examine the entire small bowel mucosa. Both procedures are bidirectional, i.e., the enteroscope is introduced anterogradely through the mouth and retrogradely through the anus, and the midway point is marked by tattooing or endoclippping [27]. Although the rate of complete visualization of the small bowel is three times (66 vs. 22%) higher with DBE than that with SBE [28], the diagnostic and therapeutic yields of these two procedures do not differ significantly [29]. In spiral enteroscopy (SE), the small bowel is pleated on the enteroscope by a screw operated by a machine, and the rotational force is converted into a linear force. In one study, complete enteroscopy was successful in 92% of cases of bidirectional DBE and 8% of cases of SE, although the diagnostic and therapeutic outcomes were not statistically different [30].

### **5.4 CTE**

CTE is a useful tool in the evaluation of mid-GI bleed due to vascular lesion. Characteristic enhancement of the vascular lesion can be seen [31]. They are classified as angioectasia, arterial lesions (Dieulafoy's lesion and arteriovenous malformation), and venous lesions (vascular lesion with unusual morphology). Active bleeding is evidenced by progressive accumulation of contrast material over the three phases on the dependent surface of the intestine or distributed over a wide area by peristalsis. CT enterography is also useful in the detection of inflammatory and neoplastic condition of the small bowel [32].

### **5.5 MRE**

MRE is a noninvasive radiation-free method of evaluating the entire small bowel. It can detect the mural thickening (>4 mm) and mass lesion of the small bowel. These lesions could be secondary to inflammatory and benign conditions (like Crohn's disease, adenoma, lipoma, fibroepithelial polyps) or malignant conditions (like neuroendocrine tumors, GIST, adenocarcinoma, lymphoma, and Peutz-Jeghers syndrome) [33, 34].

### **5.6 Bleeding scan**

Bleeding scan is a nuclear medicine test performed by injecting 99 m technetium-labeled red blood cells (RBC). It can detect extravasation of tagged RBC if the bleeding rate is 0.1 ml/minute or more. It is a highly sensitive test in detecting active bleeding in the gastrointestinal tract and can localize the site of bleeding accurately in 52% of cases [35].

### **5.7 Meckel's scan**

Meckel's scan is also a nuclear medicine test performed by injecting 99 m technetium pertechnetate which has affinity for the gastric mucosa. It is positive in

patients with Meckel's diverticulum with heterotopic/ectopic gastric mucosa. Acid secretion from the gastric mucosa can cause ulceration and bleeding near or adjacent to the diverticulum. In children, Meckel's scan is performed early, whereas in adults, it is generally performed late in the evaluation of mid-GI bleeding.

### **5.8 CT angiography (CTA)**

CTA is increasingly being done in patients with less brisk mid-GI bleeding. CTA can detect the bleeding site if the bleeding rate is 0.3 ml/minute or more [36]. However, CTA exposes the patient to ionizing radiation, and intravenous contrast is required. So patients with contrast allergy, renal failure, and pregnancy should avoid CTA.

### **5.9 Conventional mesenteric angiography (CMA)**

CMA is rarely done in the evaluation of mid-GI bleeding unless there is ongoing significant bleeding and patient had hemodynamic instability, positive CTE, or bleeding scan; and embolization is considered to stop the bleeding. However, there is risk of bowel wall infarction following embolization therapy. CMA can also detect small bowel varices in patients with portal hypertension and Meckel's diverticulum by the finding of an anomalous long branch of superior mesenteric artery traversing the mesentery toward the right lower quadrant and supplying the diverticulum.

### **5.10 Gallium-68 dotatate PET/CT scan**

Gallium-68 dotatate PET/CT scan is now considered as the best scan for detecting SBNET as 70–90% of them have somatostatin receptors. It has much better imaging quality and can detect more lesions than Octreoscan [37]. But it does not replace CTE or MRE for those SBNET which are not somatostatin receptor positive.

### **5.11 Intraoperative enteroscopy**

Intraoperative enteroscopy is done in the operating room when other modalities of investigations fail to detect the source of bleeding. The scope is introduced through the mouth or through an enterotomy, and whole small bowel can be evaluated. It is diagnostic as well as therapeutic in achieving hemostasis in about 70% of cases.

## **6. Management**

A systematic approach is essential to manage mid-GI successfully. Mid-GI bleeding is generally established when no source of potential bleeding is found in the upper or lower gastrointestinal tract after doing bidirectional endoscopy, i.e., upper endoscopy (including examination with a side-viewing duodenoscope) and ileocolonoscopy. Second-look bidirectional endoscopy should be done considering substantial initial endoscopic miss rates [38]. Next step to evaluate is whether the patient is hemodynamically stable or unstable and whether the patient is having occult or overt GI bleeding. The first investigation to evaluate mid-GI bleeding in a hemodynamically stable patient is VCE unless there are contraindications like small bowel obstruction [39]. On the other hand, in a hemodynamically unstable patient, the first investigation will be angiography for both diagnostic and therapeutic purposes [40].

Depending on the location of bleeding lesion in VCE, push enteroscopy or DAE should be done, i.e., push enteroscopy for lesion in the proximal part of the small bowel and DAE for lesion in the mid or distal part of the small bowel. If the VCE is negative, the next step will depend on whether the patient has ongoing blood loss, the rate of blood loss, and the presence of comorbidities:

- a. If the patient has ongoing blood loss without significant comorbidities, DAE, CTE/MRE, or even laparoscopy with intraoperative enteroscopy should be considered to stop the bleeding.
- b. If the patient does not have ongoing blood loss, further evaluation can be stopped.
- c. If the patient has significant comorbidities and slow rate of blood loss, further investigation could be reasonably stopped. Patient should be observed with periodic monitoring of complete blood count (CBC), and iron supplementation and/or blood transfusion should be given as necessary basis.

Definitive therapy should be given according to the findings seen in the above investigations. Treatment modalities of some of the common conditions are listed below:

- Small bowel angioectasia: it is by far the commonest cause of mid-GI bleeding. Endoscopic ablation is the treatment of choice. Sometimes patients may present with recurrent anemia due to bleeding from widespread or inaccessible angioectasia, and endoscopic treatment is risky because of patients' comorbidities or old age. Pharmacologic treatment is generally offered in those cases. Thalidomide prevents angiogenesis by inhibiting vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). One study showed that thalidomide was effective in reducing the rate of recurrent small bowel bleeding due to vascular malformations [41]. Octreotide decreases mesenteric blood flow, inhibits angiogenesis, and improves platelet aggregation. One meta-analysis showed that octreotide therapy reduced the transfusion requirement in patients with recurrent bleeding from gastrointestinal vascular malformations [42]. Other treatment modalities for different conditions include:
- Isolated jejunal and ileal bleeding ulcers due to NSAIDs: hold NSAIDs, endoscopic treatment, and/or embolization. In rat model, proton pump inhibitors were found to worsen NSAID-induced small bowel injury by inducing dysbiosis [43].
- Dieulafoy's lesion: endoscopic (argon plasma coagulation, hemoclip, injection therapy) or angiographic intervention (embolization) or surgery if those interventions fail [44].
- Small bowel varices: endoscopic treatment if within reach of endoscope. Angiography, transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS) placement, or surgery if endoscopic hemostasis fails or is beyond the reach of endoscope [45].
- SBNET: surgical resection is the treatment of choice for locoregional disease. Long-acting somatostatin analogs are given for functional and nonfunctional metastatic SBNET because of their antiproliferative effects and ability to control carcinoid symptoms [46].

- Adenocarcinoma of small bowel: surgery, chemotherapy, and checkpoint inhibitors.
- GIST: surgery and tyrosine kinase inhibitors.
- Non-GIST mesenchymal tumors: surgery.
- Benign tumors:
  - Adenoma: endoscopic resection.
  - Lipoma, leiomyoma, and hamartomas: segmental resection.
  - Peutz-Jeghers syndrome: segmental resection or endoscopic resection. Because some patients are young with widespread polyps, endoscopic treatment should be preferred [47].
- Metastatic tumor to the small bowel: palliative treatment.
- Meckel's diverticulum: surgery.
- Crohn's disease: endoscopic treatment, embolization, corticosteroid, 5-aminosalicylic acid, 6-mercaptopurine/azathioprine, infliximab, and surgery [48].
- Ulcerative jejunoileitis due to celiac disease: surgical resection of the ulcerated segment, corticosteroid, elimination diet, and total parenteral nutrition.

## 7. Prognosis

Prognosis depends on the etiology of the lesion causing mid-GI bleeding. Vascular lesions carry a good prognosis if they can be successfully treated endoscopically, radiologically, or surgically. Most of the time, vascular lesions can be managed endoscopically. Surgical intervention is required if the bleeding cannot be managed endoscopically or by interventional radiology. Surgery is also required for benign and malignant small bowel tumors, ulcerative jejunoileitis due to celiac disease, and refractory bleeding Crohn's ulcers. Sometimes, patients' comorbidities or old age do not allow invasive procedures or surgery. Symptomatic and palliative treatments are offered in those cases. Sometimes, mid-GI bleeding remains obscure. Patients end up getting multiple hospitalizations, multiple diagnostic tests, and multiple blood transfusions.

## 8. Conclusion

Mid-GI bleeding is common in our day-to-day clinical practice. Capsule endoscopy and imaging studies have made the diagnostic evaluations much easier than before. Balloon-assisted enteroscopy and spiral enteroscopy are generally done for therapeutic interventions. Interventional radiology and surgery are required if there is massive bleeding or endoscopic therapeutic interventions fail. After hemostasis is obtained, treatment of the underlying condition should be done. Patient's age, comorbidities, pros and cons of the procedures, and radiological and surgical interventions should be considered.



IntechOpen

IntechOpen

### **Author details**

Monjur Ahmed  
Thomas Jefferson University, Philadelphia, PA, USA

\*Address all correspondence to: [monjur.ahmed@jefferson.edu](mailto:monjur.ahmed@jefferson.edu)

### **IntechOpen**

---

© 2019 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This chapter is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. 

## References

- [1] Ell C, May A. Mid-gastrointestinal bleeding: Capsule endoscopy and push-and-pull enteroscopy give rise to a new medical term. *Endoscopy*. 2006;**38**(1):73-75
- [2] Murphy B, Winter DC, Kavanagh DO. Small bowel gastrointestinal bleeding diagnosis and management—A narrative review. *Frontiers in Surgery*. 2019;**6**:25
- [3] Gunjan D, Sharma V, Rana SS, Bhasin DK. Small bowel bleeding: A comprehensive review. *Gastroenterology Report*. 2014;**2**(4):262-275
- [4] Gerson LB, Fidler JL, Cave DR, Leighton JA. ACG clinical guideline: Diagnosis and management of small bowel bleeding. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2015;**110**(9):1265-1287
- [5] Song JH, Hong SN, Kyung Chang D, Ran Jeon S, Kim JO, Kim J, et al. The etiology of potential small-bowel bleeding depending on patient's age and gender. *United European Gastroenterology Journal*. 2018;**6**(8):1169-1178
- [6] Katz LB. The role of surgery in occult gastrointestinal bleeding. *Seminars in Gastrointestinal Disease*. 1999;**10**(2):78-81
- [7] Raju GS, Gerson L, Das A, Lewis B, American Gastroenterological Association. American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) institute medical position statement on obscure gastrointestinal bleeding. *Gastroenterology*. 2007;**133**(5):1694-1696
- [8] Shi X, Yu S, Wang F, Zhao Q, Xu H, Li B. A gastrointestinal stromal tumor with acute bleeding: Management and nursing. *Medicine*. 2018;**97**(9):e9874
- [9] Yatagai N, Ueyama H, Shibuya T, Haga K, Takahashi M, Nomura O, et al. Obscure gastrointestinal bleeding caused by small intestinal lipoma: A case report. *Journal of Medical Case Reports*. 2016;**10**(1):226
- [10] Zheng W, Song Y, Lin N, Tu M, Liu W, Zhu J. Primary gastrointestinal mantle lymphoma with massive bleeding: A case report and literature review. *Chinese Journal of Cancer Research*. 2013;**25**(2):250-253
- [11] Kreis DJ Jr, Guerra JJ Jr, Saltz M, Santiesteban R, Byers P. Gastrointestinal hemorrhage due to carcinoid tumors of the small intestine. *Journal of the American Medical Association*. 1986;**255**(2):234-236
- [12] Hwang J, Kim JS, Kim AY, Lim JS, Kim SH, Kim MJ, et al. Cryptogenic multifocal ulcerous stenosing enteritis: Radiologic features and clinical behavior. *World Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2017;**23**(25):4615-4623
- [13] Allaparthi S, Verma H, Burns DL, Joyce AM. Conservative management of small bowel perforation in Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type IV. *World Journal of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2013;**5**(8):398-401
- [14] Samad A, Mohan N, Balaji RV, Augustine D, Patil SG. Oral manifestations of Plummer-Vinson syndrome: A classic report with literature review. *Journal of International Oral Health*. 2015;**7**(3):68-71
- [15] ASGE Standards of Practice Committee, Gurudu SR, Bruining DH, Acosta RD, Eloubeidi MA, Faulx AL, et al. The role of endoscopy in the management of suspected small-bowel bleeding. *Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2017;**85**(1):22-31

- [16] Lee SS, Oh TS, Kim HJ, Chung JW, Park SH, Kim AY, et al. Obscure gastrointestinal bleeding: Diagnostic performance of multidetector CT enterography. *Radiology*. 2011;**259**(3):739-748
- [17] Masselli G, Gualdi G. MR imaging of the small bowel. *Radiology*. 2012;**264**(2):333-348
- [18] Lewis BS, Wenger JS, Wayne JD. Small bowel enteroscopy and intraoperative enteroscopy for obscure gastrointestinal bleeding. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*. 1991;**86**(2):171-174
- [19] Raju GS, Gerson L, Das A, Lewis B, American Gastroenterological Association. American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) institute technical review on obscure gastrointestinal bleeding. *Gastroenterology*. 2007;**133**(5):1697-1717
- [20] Pennazio M, Spada C, Eliakim R, Keuchel M, May A, Mulder CJ, et al. Small-bowel capsule endoscopy and device-assisted enteroscopy for diagnosis and treatment of small-bowel disorders: European Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ESGE) clinical guideline. *Endoscopy*. 2015;**47**(4):352-376
- [21] Koulaouzidis A, Giannakou A, Yung DE, Dabos KJ, Plevris JN. Do prokinetics influence the completion rate in small-bowel capsule endoscopy? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Current Medical Research and Opinion*. 2013;**29**(9):1171-1185
- [22] Lai LH, Wong GL, Lau JY, Sung JJ, Leung WK. Initial experience of real-time capsule endoscopy in monitoring progress of the videocapsule through the upper GI tract. *Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2007;**66**(6):1211-1214
- [23] Holden JP, Dureja P, Pfau PR, Schwartz DC, Reichelderfer M, Judd RH, et al. Endoscopic placement of the small-bowel video capsule by using a capsule endoscope delivery device. *Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2007;**65**(6):842-847
- [24] Rondonotti E, Spada C, Adler S, May A, Despott EJ, Koulaouzidis A, et al. Small-bowel capsule endoscopy and device-assisted enteroscopy for diagnosis and treatment of small-bowel disorders: European Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ESGE) technical review. *Endoscopy*. 2018;**50**(4):423-446
- [25] Barth B. Capsule endoscopy and small bowel enteroscopy. In: Wyllie R, Hyams JS, editors. *Pediatric Gastrointestinal and Liver Disease*. 4th ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier; 2011. pp. 679-685.e2. ISBN: 978-1-4377-0774-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/C2009-0-53242-4>
- [26] Kovacs TO. Small bowel bleeding. *Current Treatment Options in Gastroenterology*. 2005;**8**(1):31-38
- [27] Kawamura T, Uno K, Tanaka K, Yasuda K. Current status of single-balloon enteroscopy: Insertability and clinical applications. *World Journal of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2015;**7**(1):59-65
- [28] May A, Färber M, Aschmoneit I, Pohl J, Manner H, Lotterer E, et al. Prospective multicenter trial comparing push-and-pull enteroscopy with the single- and double-balloon techniques in patients with small-bowel disorders. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2010;**105**(3):575-581
- [29] Prachayakul V, Deesomsak M, Aswakul P, Leelakusolvong S. The utility of single-balloon enteroscopy for the diagnosis and management of small bowel disorders according to their clinical manifestations: A retrospective review. *BMC Gastroenterology*. 2013;**13**:103

- [30] Akerman PA. Spiral enteroscopy versus double-balloon enteroscopy: Choosing the right tool for the job. *Gastrointestinal Endoscopy*. 2013;77(2):252-254
- [31] Huprich JE, Barlow JM, Hansel SL, Alexander JA, Fidler JL. Multiphase CT enterography evaluation of small-bowel vascular lesions. *AJR. American Journal of Roentgenology*. 2013;201(1):65-72
- [32] Masselli G. Small bowel imaging: Clinical applications of the different imaging modalities—A comprehensive review. *ISRN Pathology*. 2013;2013:419542, 13 p. DOI: 10.1155/2013/419542
- [33] Cengic I, Tureli D, Aydin H, Bugdayci O, Imeryuz N, Tuney D. Magnetic resonance enterography in refractory iron deficiency anemia: A pictorial overview. *World Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2014;20(38):14004-14009
- [34] Kumar AS, Coralic J, Vegeler R, Kolli K, Liang J, Estep A, et al. Magnetic resonance enterography: The test of choice in diagnosing intestinal “zebras”. *Case Reports in Gastrointestinal Medicine*. 2015;2015:206469
- [35] Bentley DE, Richardson JD. The role of tagged red blood cell imaging in the localization of gastrointestinal bleeding. *Archives of Surgery*. 1991;126(7):821-824
- [36] García-Blázquez V, Vicente-Bártulos A, Olavarria-Delgado A, Plana MN, van der Winden D, Zamora J, et al. Accuracy of CT angiography in the diagnosis of acute gastrointestinal bleeding: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *European Radiology*. 2013;23(5):1181-1190
- [37] Mojtahedi A, Thamake S, Tworowska I, Ranganathan D, Delpassand ES. The value of (68) Ga-DOTATATE PET/CT in diagnosis and management of neuroendocrine tumors compared to current FDA approved imaging modalities: A review of literature. *American Journal of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging*. 2014;4(5):426-434. eCollection 2014
- [38] Fry LC, Bellutti M, Neumann H, Malfertheiner P, Mönkemüller K. Incidence of bleeding lesions within reach of conventional upper and lower endoscopes in patients undergoing double-balloon enteroscopy for obscure gastrointestinal bleeding. *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*. 2009;29(3):342-349
- [39] Leung WK, Ho SS, Suen BY, Lai LH, Yu S, Ng EK, et al. Capsule endoscopy or angiography in patients with acute overt obscure gastrointestinal bleeding: A prospective randomized study with long-term follow-up. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2012;107(9):1370
- [40] Walker TG, Salazar GM, Waltman AC. Angiographic evaluation and management of acute gastrointestinal hemorrhage. *World Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2012;18(11):1191-1201
- [41] Ge ZZ, Chen HM, Gao YJ, Liu WZ, Xu CH, Tan HH, et al. Efficacy of thalidomide for refractory gastrointestinal bleeding from vascular malformation. *Gastroenterology*. 2011;141(5):1629-37.e1-4
- [42] Brown C, Subramanian V, Wilcox CM, Peter S. Somatostatin analogues in the treatment of recurrent bleeding from gastrointestinal vascular malformations: An overview and systematic review of prospective observational studies. *Digestive Diseases and Sciences*. 2010;55(8):2129-2134
- [43] Wallace JL, Syer S, Denou E, de Palma G, Vong L, McKnight W, et al.

Proton pump inhibitors exacerbate NSAID-induced small intestinal injury by inducing dysbiosis. *Gastroenterology*. 2011;**141**(4):1314-1322, 1322.e1-5

[44] Baxter M, Aly EH. Dieulafoy's lesion: Current trends in diagnosis and management. *Annals of the Royal College of Surgeons of England*. 2010;**92**(7):548-554

[45] Norton ID, Andrews JC, Kamath PS. Management of ectopic varices. *Hepatology*. 1998;**28**(4):1154-1158

[46] Scott AT, Howe JR. Management of small bowel neuroendocrine tumors. *Journal of Oncology Practice*. 2018;**14**(8):471-482

[47] Wang R, Qi X, Shao X, Guo X. A large intracolonic mass in a patient with Peutz-Jeghers syndrome. *Middle East Journal of Digestive Diseases*. 2017;**9**(3):173-175

[48] Podugu A, Tandon K, Castro FJ. Crohn's disease presenting as acute gastrointestinal hemorrhage. *World Journal of Gastroenterology*. 2016;**22**(16):4073-4078