Hepatic artery
Portal vein \
bile-duct \

Orifice of common bile-duct and pancreatic duct

Accessory pancreatic duct

/ Pancreatic duct

Acute and Chronic Pancreatitis

Dr Camagu Potelwa (GIT Fellow)
UCT/GSH

Introduction

Acute pancreatitis (AP)

- Sudden onset of severe abdominal pain
- Elevated pancreatic enzymes
- Ranging in severity from mild, self-limiting cases to severe
- Life-threatening instances associated with multi-organ failure
- Chronic pancreatitis (CP)
 - Progressive fibroinflammatory syndrome
 - Leading to irreversible structural damage, fibrosis
 - Eventual loss of both exocrine and endocrine pancreatic function

Diagnosis of Acute Pancreatitis

Acute Pancreatitis

Diagnosis

- 1. Typical abdominal pain
- Serum lipase or amylase activity> 3x upper limit normal
- 3. Characteristic CT findings

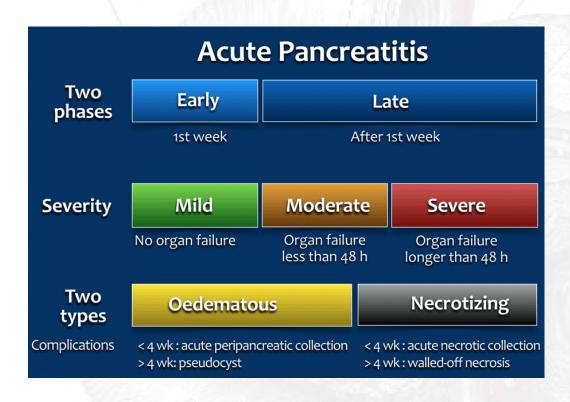
Diagnostic Criteria

- 1. Abdominal pain consistent with acute pancreatitis: Acute onset of persistent, severe, epigastric pain often radiating to the back
- 2. Serum lipase or amylase activity at least three times greater than the upper limit of normal.
- 3. Characteristic findings of acute pancreatitis on contrastenhanced CT (CECT) and less commonly MRI or US

The diagnosis is usually established when there is a combination of abdominal pain and elevated pancreatic enzymes

CECT is not required, unless there is uncertainty about the diagnosis

The Revised Atlanta Classification



Temporally, two phases of acute pancreatitis are identified in **the Revised Atlanta Classification:**

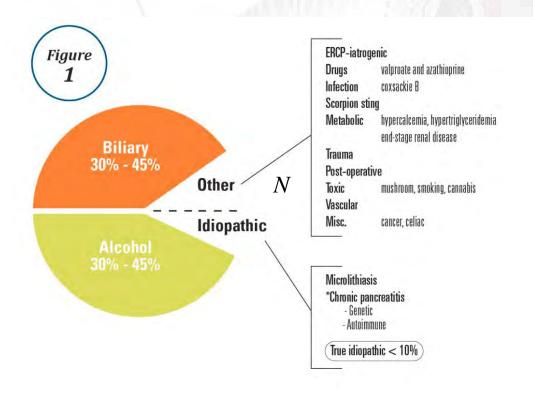
- 1. Early first week
 Only clinical parameters are important for treatment planning and are determined by the systemic inflammatory response syndrome SIRS, which can lead to organ failure.
- 2. Late after the first week Morphologic criteria based on CT findings combined with clinical parameters determine the care of the patient

The **severity** is classified into three categories based on clinical and morphologic findings:

- 1. Mild No organ failure and no local or systemic complications.
- Moderate Presence of transient organ failure less than 48h and/or presence of local complications
- 3. Severe Persistent organ failure > 48 hour 15-20% of cases

Morphologically, there are two types of acute pancreatitis:

- 1. Acute oedematous or interstitial pancreatitis
- 2. Acute necrotizing pancreatitis
- Usually the necrosis involves both the pancreas and the peripancreatic tissues.
- Less commonly only the peripancreatic tissues.
- Rarely only the pancreatic parenchyma



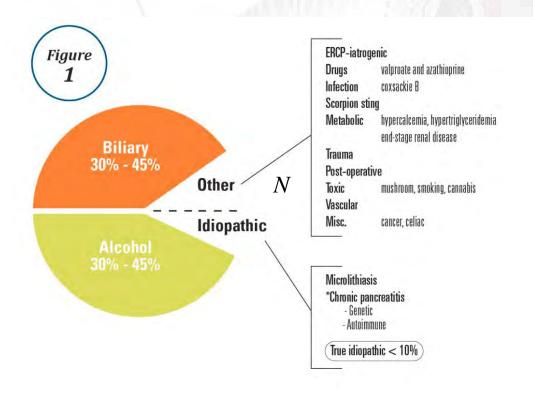
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Table 2. Etiology of AP

Clues to identify Comments Etiology Gallstones 40% Previous biliary colic Usually small stones US demonstrating gallstones or a dilated Bile duct stones not usually visualized on US, common bile duct EUS, or MRCP can be used if diagnosis not Abnormal liver chemistries at presentation confirmed Alcohol 30% Long-term use of alcohol (usually at least 5 y) Acute flares may be superimposed on CAGE questions underlying CP PEth testing Hypertriglyceridemia 2%-7% Fasting TG ≥1000 mg/dL If patient has not been eating due to pain, fasting TG may be low; testing after recovery or testing postprandial TG level may be Subsequent attacks can occur with much lower elevations of TG Drugs < 5% Multiple drugs reported but evidence usually Strongest evidence for didanosine, only circumstantial asparaginase, azathioprine, valproic acid, 6mercaptopurine, and mesalamine Usually idiosyncratic Genetic Multiple modifier genes now identified Genetic testing not usually performed, but may be considered in very young patients or in those with unexplained relapsing pancreatitis Post-ERCP <5% of those undergoing ERCP Usually mild Risk can be reduced with careful patient selection, technical approaches, and prophylaxis with indomethacin and preprocedure hydration Overall quite rare Viruses: CMV, EBV, mumps Infections rare Parasites and nematodes: Ascaris, Clonorchis, opisthorcus Obstruction of major or minor Overall quite rare Celiac disease ampulla or pancreatic duct Small bowel Crohn's disease leading to pancreatitis Periampullary diverticulum Ampullary or duodenal polyp or cancer Pancreatic cancer Pancreas divisum Annular pancreas Santorinicele Controversial causes such as sphincter of Oddi dysfunction Toxins Overall guite rare Organophosphate insecticides Scorpion bites Miscellaneous Overall guite rare Autoimmune diseases IBD Postoperative

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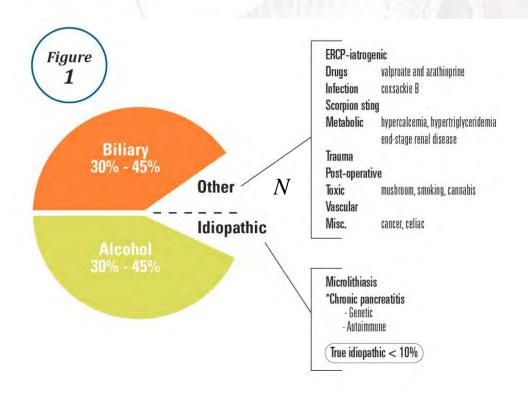
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Aetiology in the SA context

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Acute pancreatitis: demographics, aetiological factors and outcomes in a regional hospital in South Africa

F Anderson 1, S R Thomson, D L Clarke, E Loots

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Patients and methods: Data were prospectively collected on all admissions of patients with acute pancreatitis to a regional hospital during the period June 2001-April 2006. The causes of the pancreatitis were noted and complications and mortality rate were determined.

Results: From June 2001 to April 2006 there were 322 admissions of 282 patients with acute pancreatitis. The median age was 37 years (range 13-73 years). There were 94 females and 188 males. Episodes of pancreatitis were associated with alcohol consumption in 62% of cases and with gallstones in 14%; 4% of cases were associated with both gallstones and alcohol consumption, 8% with dyslipidaemia and 5% with retroviral disease. In 15% of admissions local complications developed, and 9% of admissions ended in death of the patient. Of the 28 deaths, 71% occurred in the first 2 weeks.

Conclusions: As in other South African reports, alcohol was the main cause of pancreatitis.

Outcomes in this series are similar to those in Western studies except that the majority of deaths occurred early, implying that improved supportive care may improve overall survival.

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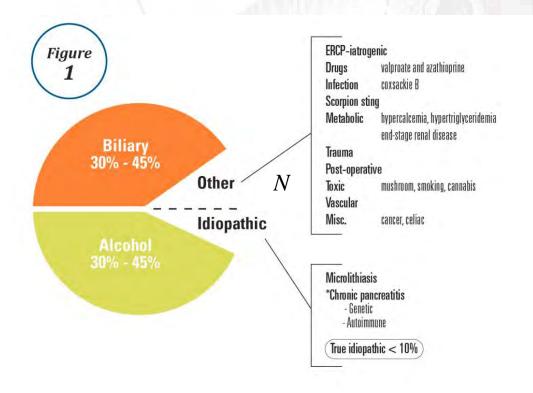
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HIV and Pancreatitis

Pancreatitis in a high HIV prevalence environment

F Anderson, FCS, MMed; S R Thomson, ChM, FRCS (Ed & Eng)

Corresponding author: F Anderson (andersonf1@ukzn.ac.za)

Background. Acute pancreatitis is common in HIV-positive individuals in reports from regions with a low incidence of HIV infection. This association has not been reported in areas with a high incidence of HIV infection.

Objective. To examine the prevalence and outcomes of HIV-associated acute pancreatitis in a high HIV prevalence environment, and trends over the period May 2001 - November 2010.

Methods. The records of patients admitted with acute pancreatitis from 2001 to 2010 were reviewed, looking for HIV status, CD4 counts and medications at presentation. The Glasgow criteria, organ failure, local complications and mortality were assessed.

Results. One hundred and six (16.9%) of 627 patients admitted with acute pancreatitis during the study period were infected with HIV. Most were female (65.1%) and black African (91.5%). The serum amylase level was used to confirm acute pancreatitis in 50 patients, with a mean of 1 569 IU/L (range 375 - 5 769), and urinary amylase in 56 patients, with a mean of 4 083 IU/L (range 934 - 36 856). Alcohol was a less frequent cause of pancreatitis in the HIV-positive group than in patients who were HIV-negative (24.5% v. 68.3%), and the prevalence of gallstones as a cause was similar (23.6% v. 17.9%). Antiretroviral therapy was associated with pancreatitis in 35.8%, and 6 (5.7%) had abdominal malignancies. Sixteen (15.1%) had pancreatic necrosis, 20 (18.9%) had septic complications, and 6 (5.7%) died.

Conclusions. HIV-associated acute pancreatitis was most frequent in females and black Africans and was associated with malignancy. Mortality was similar in HIV and non-HIV pancreatitis.

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 This study demonstrated an increase in HIV prevalence associated with pancreatitis.

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Hepatic artery

	HIV-positive	HIV-negative	p-value
Total patients, N (%)	106 (16.9)	521 (83.1)	- 11
Males/females, n (%)	37 (34.9):69 (65.1)	383 (73.6):138 (26.5)	0.000
Age (yr), mean (range)	36 (12 - 60)	40 (12 - 89)	0.005
Duration of symptoms (d), mean (range)	9.2 (1 - 30)	2 (1 - 14)	0.000
Body mass index (kg/m²), mean (range)	26 (16 - 64)	25.4 (16 - 59)	0.76
Aetiology, n (%)	The state of the s		7.79665.
Alcohol	26 (24.5)	356 (68.3)	0.0001
Gallstones	25 (23.6)	93 (17.9)	0.1741
Malignancy	6 (5.7)	- 0	0.0001
Ethnic group, n (%)			
Black African	97 (91.5)	226 (43.4)	0.000
Mixed race	3 (2.5)	41 (7.9)	0.091
Indian	6 (5.7)	232 (44.6)	0.0001
White	O	22 (4.2)	0.036
Outcomes			
Glasgow ≥3, n (%)	19 (17.9)	98 (18.8)	1.00
Organ failure, n (%)	10 (9.4)	51 (9.8)	0.961
Hospital stay (d), mean (range)	11.5 (1 - 44)	10,2 (1 - 123)	0.002
Necrosis pancreas, n (%)	16 (15.1)	47 (9.0)	0.074
Sepsis, n (%)	20 (18.9)	50 (9.6)	0.009
Complications, n (%)	19 (17.9)	108 (20.7)	0.54
Mortality, n (%)	6 (5.7)	37 (7.1)	0.611

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- This study demonstrated an increase in HIV prevalence associated with pancreatitis.
- Drug-related pancreatitis was more frequent and alcohol as a cause less frequent in HIV related pancreatitis.
- The mortality rate of 5.7% in this study was similar to previous studies

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Orifice of bile-duct a creatic duc

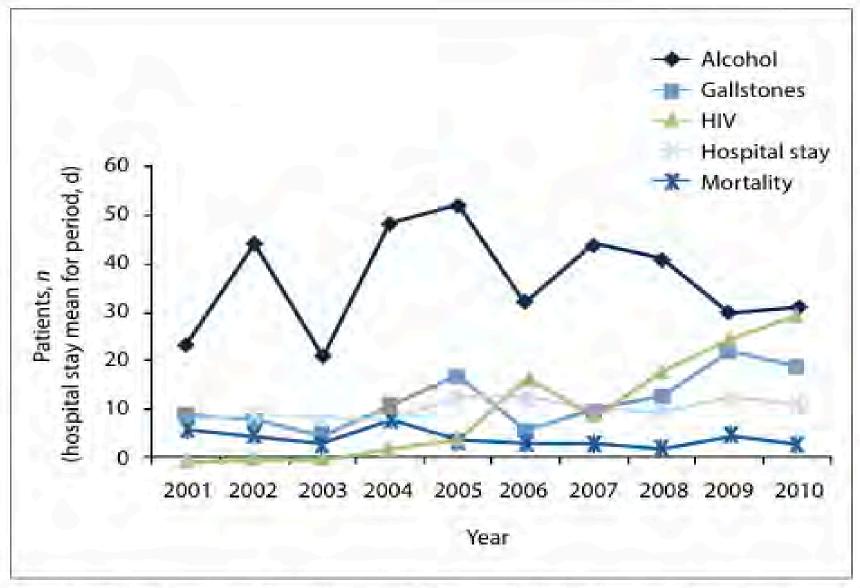


Fig. 1. Trends in aetiology, hospital stay and mortality in all patients with pancreatitis (N=627).

Epidemiology

- The annual incidence of AP is estimated at 13–49 per 100,000 persons
- The risk of AP is similar among men and women and increases with age.
- Most patients have mild acute pancreatitis which resolves with 1 weeks
- Approximately 20% of patients develop moderate or severe acute pancreatitis, with necrosis of the pancreatic or peripancreatic tissue or organ failure, or both, and a substantial mortality rate of 20–40%

Epidemiology

Acute pancreatitis (AP) (mortality 2-5 %)

Mild AP 70-80 % (mortality 3 %) -interstitial -no/little necrosis

Severe AP 20 % (mortality 10-25 %)

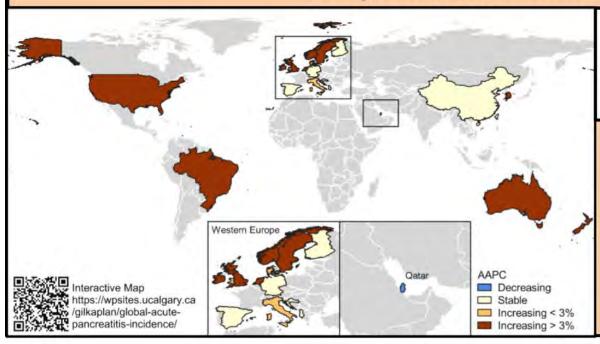
Local complications >/= 50 % (mortality 3-17 %)

Organ failure (OF) < 50 %

Infected necrosis (mortality 30 %) Sterile necrosis (mortality 12 %) Single OF (mortality <10 %) Multiple OF (mortality 35-50 %)

Epidemiology

The global incidence of acute pancreatitis is increasing over time: A systematic review and meta-analysis



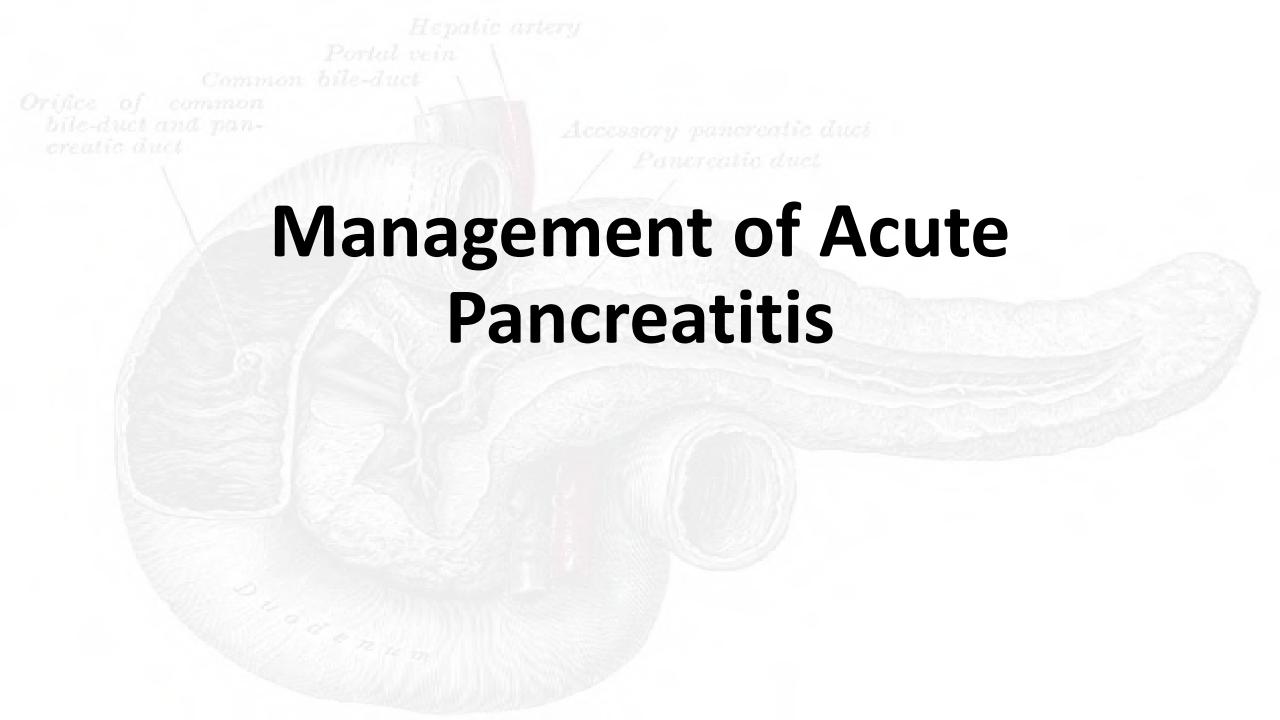
- 34 studies were analyzed for temporal trends in incidence of acute pancreatitis over time.
- Incidence of acute pancreatitis has increased over time with an average annual percent change (AAPC) of 3.07%.

The increasing incidence of acute pancreatitis was similar between women and men.



AAPC of biliary and alcohol induced pancreatitis have increased significantly over time.

Gastroenterology



Management of Acute Pancreatitis

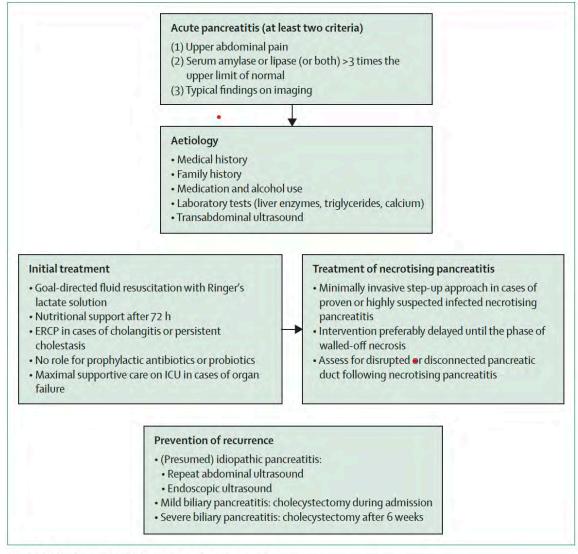


Figure 1: Treatment algorithm for acute pancreatitis

ERCP=endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography. ICU=intensive care unit.

Management of Acute Pancreatitis

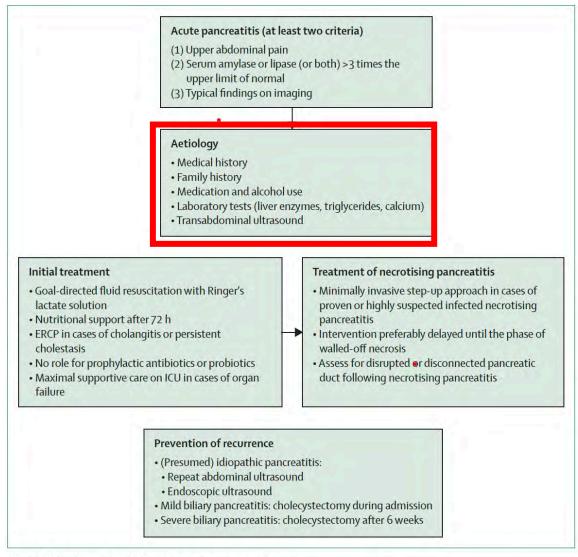
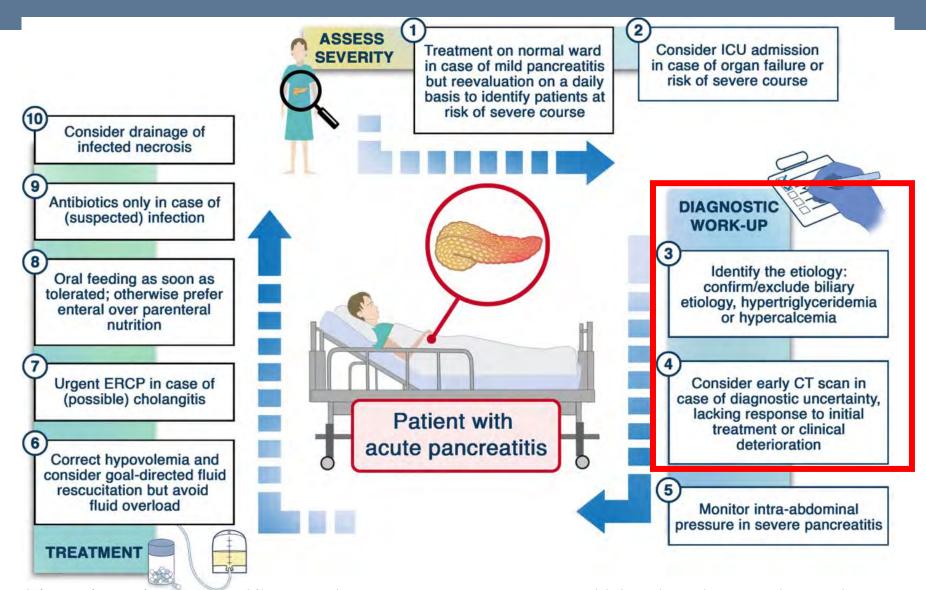


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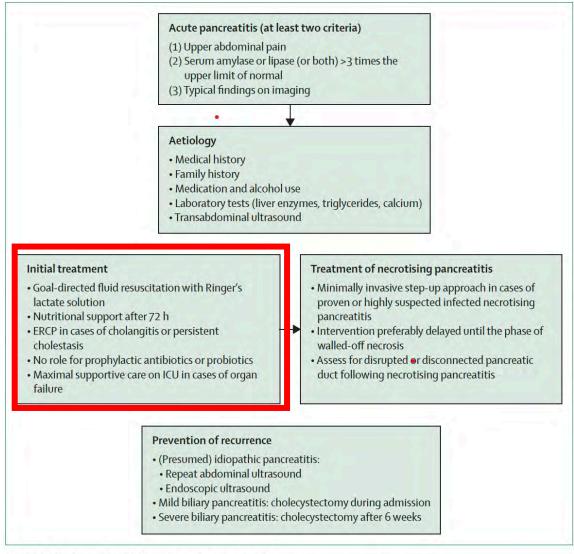
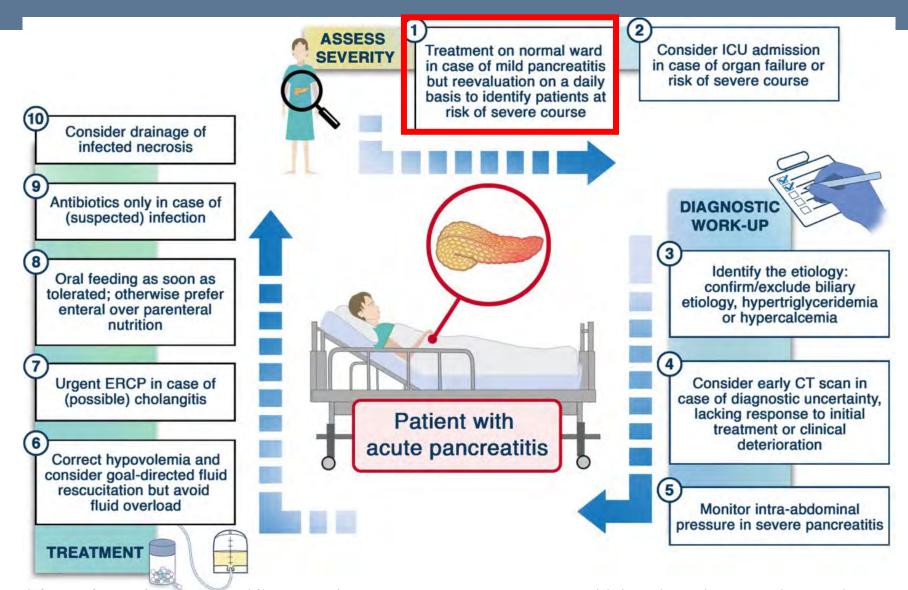
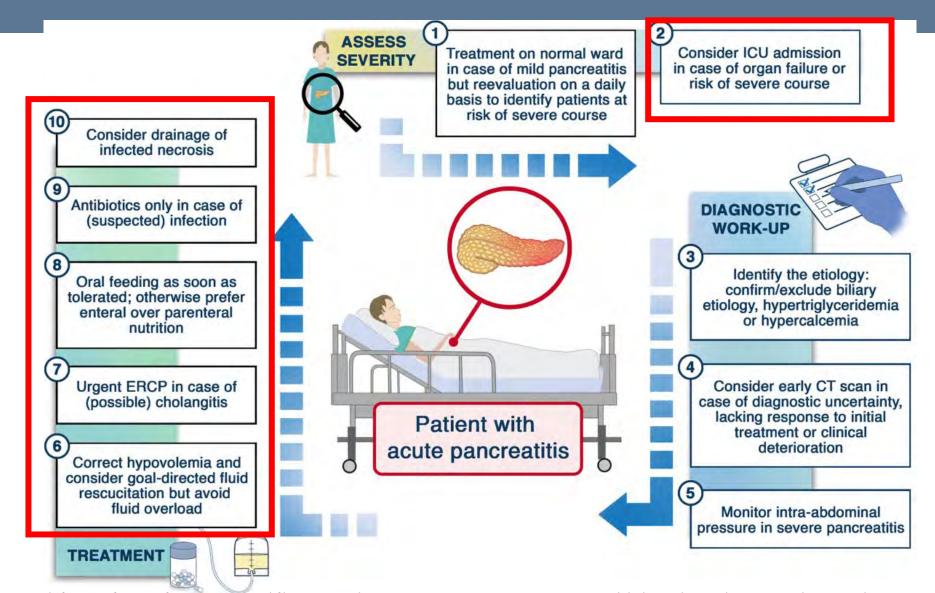


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Fluid Resuscitation

Rationale

Fluid resuscitation to prevent hypovolemia and organ hypoperfusion

- Intravascular volume depletion
- Third-space fluid sequestration in AP contribute
 - Renal and circulatory failure and
 - Lead to or perturbations in pancreatic microcirculation, contributing to pancreatic necrosis and progression from mild to severe AP

Fluid Type?

Current American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) guidelines recommend crystalloids initial resuscitation fluid and caution against colloids.

Crystalloids Ringers lactate(R/L) is preferred

- Reported to have anti-inflammatory properties and less acidic
- Associated with reduced surrogate markers of severity (C-reactive protein levels and SIRS) in comparison to Normal Saline

Fluid Rate

Guidelines endorse judicious goal-directed fluid resuscitation at a rate of 5-10 mL/kg/h during the first 12-24 hours, with further infusion rate titrated based on clinical and biochemical targets of perfusion.

These include:

- Clinical (heart rate <120/min, mean arterial pressure between 65 and 85 mm Hg, and urinary output >0.5 mL/kg/h) and
- Biochemical targets such as hematocrit (35%–45%) and blood urea nitrogen concentration.

These recommendations were conditionally based on low to moderate quality of evidence.

WATERFALL Study

WATERFALL study challenged current guidelines on the optimal rate of fluid administration.

- Patients were randomly assigned to aggressive fluid resuscitation (20 mL/kg of bolus followed by 3 mL/kg/h) or moderate fluid resuscitation (10 mL/kg followed by 1.5 mL/kg/h).
- Study halted early due to significant safety concerns, with a significant difference in fluid overload in the aggressive arm (20.5% vs 6.3%), without a significant difference in the incidence of moderately severe or severe AP (22.1% vs 17.3%) between the 2 groups.

The NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL of MEDICINE

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Aggressive or Moderate Fluid Resuscitation in Acute Pancreatitis

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ABSTRACT

Early aggressive hydration is widely recommended for the management of acute. The authors' full names, academic depancreatitis, but evidence for this practice is limited.

At 18 centers, we randomly assigned patients who presented with acute pancreatitis to receive goal-directed aggressive or moderate resuscitation with lactated Ringer's solution. Aggressive fluid resuscitation consisted of a bolus of 20 ml per *A list of the trial collaborators in the kilogram of body weight, followed by 3 ml per kilogram per hour. Moderate fluid resuscitation consisted of a bolus of 10 ml per kilogram in patients with hypovolemia or no bolus in patients with normovolemia, followed by 1.5 ml per kilogram per hour in all patients in this group. Patients were assessed at 12, 24, 48, and 72 hours, and fluid resuscitation was adjusted according to the patient's clinical status. The primary outcome was the development of moderately severe or severe pancreatitis during the hospitalization. The main safety outcome was fluid overload. The planned sample size was 744, with a first planned interim analysis after the enrollment of 248 patients.

RESULTS

A total of 249 patients were included in the interim analysis. The trial was halted owing to between-group differences in the safety outcomes without a significant difference in the incidence of moderately severe or severe pancreatitis (22.1% in the aggressive-resuscitation group and 17.3% in the moderate-resuscitation group; adjusted relative risk, 1.30; 95% confidence interval [CI], 0.78 to 2.18; P=0.32). Fluid overload developed in 20.5% of the patients who received aggressive resuscitation and in 6.3% of those who received moderate resuscitation (adjusted relative risk, 2.85; 95% CI, 1.36 to 5.94, P=0.004). The median duration of hospitalization was 6 days (interquartile range, 4 to 8) in the aggressive-resuscitation group and 5 days (interquartile range, 3 to 7) in the moderate-resuscitation group.

In this randomized trial involving patients with acute pancreatitis, early aggressive fluid resuscitation resulted in a higher incidence of fluid overload without improvement in clinical outcomes. (Funded by Instituto de Salud Carlos III and others; WATERFALL ClinicalTrials.gov number, NCT04381169.)

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ERICA Consortium is provided in the Supplementary Appendix, available at

N Engl J Med 2022;357:989-1000. DOI: 10.1056/NEIM0a2202884

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N ENGL J MED 387(11 NEJM.ORG SEPTEMBER 15, 2022

WATERFALL TRIAL M

Aggressive or moderate fluid resuscitation in acute pancreatitis

multicenter, open-label, parallel-group, superiority, randomized controlled trial



Objective: To evaluate the safety & efficacy of aggressive fluid resuscitation as compared with moderate fluid resuscitation for the management of acute pancreatitis

249 patients Patients >18 vrs with acute pancreatitis (Revised Atlanta Classification-meeting 2 of the following 3 criteria: typical abdominal pain, serum amylase or lipase level >3 times the upper limit, or signs of acute pancreatitis on imaging) who presented ≤ 24 hrs after pain onset & diagnosed ≤ 8 hrs before enrollment



Aggressive fluid resuscitation (n=122)





Moderate fluid resuscitation (n=127)

PRIMARY OUTCOME

Moderately severe or severe pancreatitis % RR 1.30; 95% CI, 0.78 to 2.18; P=0.32

SECONDARY OUTCOMES

20.5

Fluid Overload %

RR, 2.85; 95% CI, 1.36 to 5.94, P=0.004

6.3

6.6

Severe pancreatitis % RR 2.69; 95% CI, 0.56 to 12.88 1.6

20.5

Any local complication % RR 1.28; 95% CI, 0.74 to 2.22 16.5

Conclusion: Among patients with acute pancreatitis, early aggressive fluid resuscitation resulted in a higher incidence of fluid overload without improvement in clinical outcomes.

E de-Madaria et al. NEJM 2022; 387:989-1000 | Summary by Dr.Shreyash Bhoyar, MBBS



Recommendation

Initial resuscitation of 1.5 mL/kg/h with a bolus of 10 mL/kg only if there are signs of :

- Initial hypovolemia,
- Close clinical and hemodynamic monitoring for euvolemic status during the first 72 hours,
- Appropriate diuresis if there is fluid overload.

Patients with AP are considered moderate to high nutritional risk due to:

- Proinflammatory state
- Increased resting energy expenditure
- Catabolic nature of the disease
- Ongoing abdominal pain limiting oral intake
- Complications such as gastric outlet obstruction
- Concomitant paralytic ileus
- Micronutrient deficiency inherent with chronic alcohol consumption (if present).

- Current guidelines recommend :
 - Initiating early (as soon as tolerated) oral feeding with solid (low-fat) diet in patients with predicted mild AP and this approach reduces length of hospitalization.
- Traditionally the concept of "pancreatic rest" (initiation of oral nutrition only after complete resolution of abdominal pain and normalization of pancreatic enzymes) guided nutritional management in severe AP.
- Total parenteral nutrition (TPN) and a stepwise initiation of oral diet beginning with clear liquid were previously favoured.
- Studies noted that the pancreas is largely insensitive to meal stimulation during AP.
- Early enteral nutrition (EN) –preserves gut mucosal integrity and reduces gut bacterial translocation.
- EN was compared with TPN in AP in several RCTs results showed superiority of EN in mortality, multiorgan failure, and rate of infection.
- Current guidelines recommend :
 - Initiating early (as soon as tolerated) oral feeding with solid (low-fat) diet in patients with predicted mild AP and this approach reduces length of hospitalization.

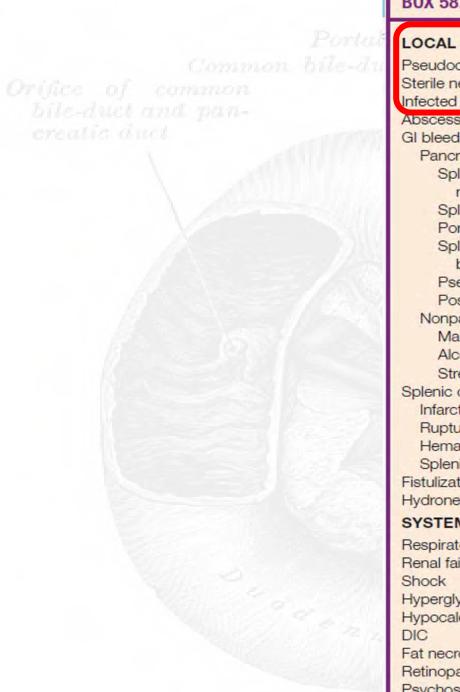
Parenteral Nutrition:

- Increase cost burden,
- Increased risk of catheter-related sepsis
- Electrolyte and metabolic derangement
- Gut barrier failure, currently use of TPN is reserved for patients for whom EN is not possible or is not able to meet the minimum calorie requirements.

- In patients with predicted severe AP, early EN was not shown to improve outcomes in comparison with attempts at oral feeding at 72 hours.
- The PYTHON trial in 208 patients with predicted severe AP:
 - Early EN (within 24 hours) did not reduce the rate of infection (25% vs 26%) or mortality (11% vs 7%) when compared with on-demand oral diet initiated 72 hours after admission.
- Therefore in predicted severe AP, :
 - Initiate oral diet at 72 hours (or earlier if tolerated) and initiate tube-based EN if not tolerated.
 - The route of EN can either be nasogastric, nasoduodenal, or nasojejunal because all are safe and well tolerated.
- Naso-jejunal tube feeding is preferred if there is digestive intolerance from delayed gastric emptying and gastric outlet obstruction.
- Pancreatic enzyme supplementation can be also be considered in patients with proven or suspected exocrine pancreatic insufficiency.



Complications of Acute Pancreatitis



BOX 58.7 Complications of Acute Pancreatitis

Pseudocyst

Sterile necrosis (peripancreatic, pancreatic, or both)

Infected necrosis (peripancreatic, pancreatic, or both)

Abscess

GI bleeding

Pancreatitis-related

Splenic artery rupture or splenic artery pseudoaneurysm

rupture

Splenic vein rupture

Portal vein rupture

Splenic vein thrombosis leading to gastroesophageal variceal

bleeding

Pseudocyst or abscess hemorrhage

Post-necrosectomy bleeding

Nonpancreatitis-related

Mallory-Weiss tear

Alcoholic gastropathy

Stress-related mucosal gastropathy

Splenic complications

Infarction

Rupture

Hematoma

Splenic vein thrombosis

Fistulization to or obstruction of the small intestine or colon

Hydronephrosis

SYSTEMIC

Respiratory failure

Renal failure

Shock

Hyperglycemia

Hypocalcemia

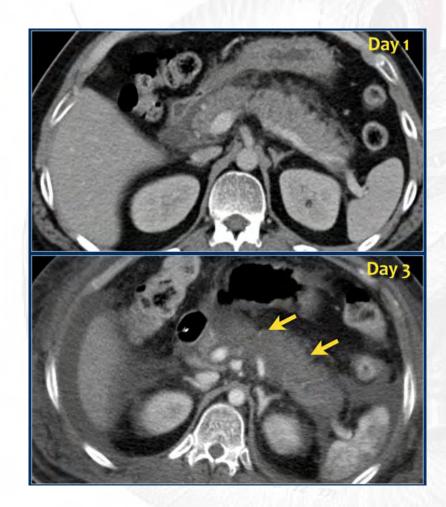
DIC

Fat necrosis (subcutaneous nodules)

Retinopathy

Psychosis

Common and pan-



Accessory pancreatic duct / Pancreatic duct

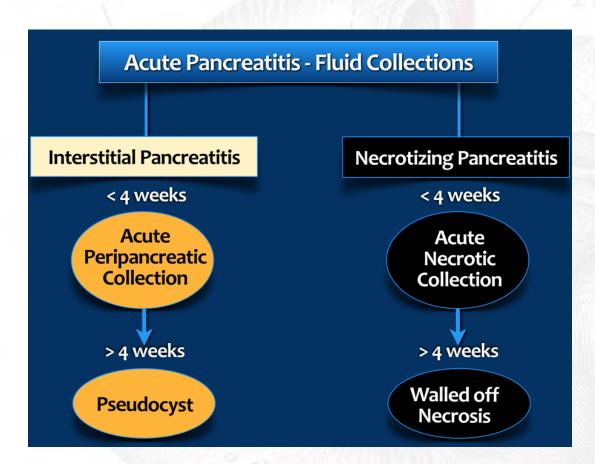
- CT is the imaging modality of choice for the diagnosis and staging of acute pancreatitis and its complications.
- Ultrasound and ERCP with sphincterotomy and stone extraction play an important role in biliary pancreatitis.
- Since the diagnosis of acute pancreatitis is usually made on clinical and laboratory findings, an early CT is only recommended when the diagnosis is uncertain, or in case of suspected early complications such as bowel perforation or ischemia.
- An early CT may be misleading regarding the morphologic severity of the pancreatitis, because it may underestimate the presence and amount of necrosis.

CT Severity Index

CT Severity Index points Pancreatic inflammation Normal pancreas Enlargement of the pancreas Peripancreatic inflammation choose one 1 acute peripancreatic fluid collection ≥ 2 acute peripancreatic fluid collections Pancreatic necrosis None < 30% choose one 30% - 50% > 50% Maximum 10 points

- The CT severity index (CTSI)
 combines the Balthazar grade (0 4 points) with the extent of
 pancreatic necrosis (0-6 points)
 on a 10-point severity scale.
- On the day of admission, CT scoring systems not better than clinical scoring in predicting clinical outcome.

Acute Pancreatitis –Fluid Collections



Atlanta Classification of Fluid Collections

 The 2012 Revised Atlanta Classification discerns 4 types of peripancreatic fluid collections in acute pancreatitis depending on the content, degree of encapsulation and time.

1. Content

- 1. Fluid only in acute peripancreatic fluid collection (APFC) and Pseudocyst.
- 2. Mixture of fluid and necrotic material in acute necrotic collection (ANC) and walled-off-necrosis (WON).

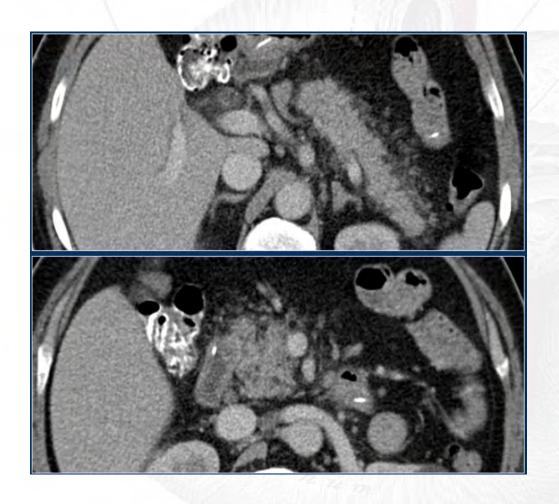
2. Degree of encapsulation

- None or partial wall in APFC and ANC.
- 2. Complete encapsulation in pseudocyst and WON.

3. Time

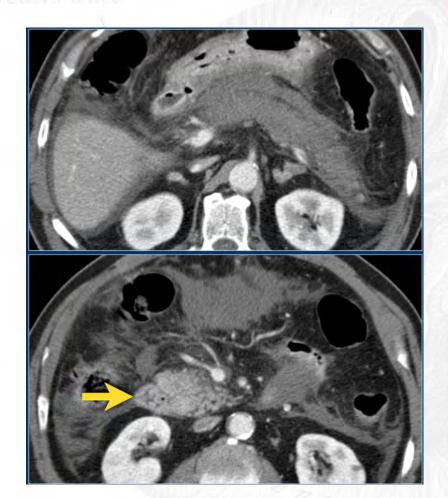
- 1. Within 4 weeks: APFC and ANC
- After 4 weeks: pseudocysts and WON. It takes about 4 weeks for a capsule to form.
- On CT, the discrimination between an APFC and ANC may be difficult, especially in the first weeks and the term "indeterminate peripancreatic collections" can be used.
- All these collections may remain sterile or become infected.
 Infection is rare during the first week.

Interstitial Pancreatitis



- There is normal enhancement of the entire pancreatic gland with only mild surrounding fatty infiltration.
- There are no fluid collections and there is no necrosis of the pancreatic parenchyma.

Necrotizing Pancreatitis



Necrosis of pancreatic parenchyma or peripancreatic tissues occurs in 10-15 % of patients. It is characterized by a protracted clinical course, a high incidence of local complications, and a high mortality rate.

There are 3 subtypes of necrotizing pancreatitis:

- 1. Necrosis of both pancreatic parenchyma and peripancreatic tissues (most common).
- 2. Necrosis of only extrapancreatic tissue without necrosis of pancreatic parenchyma (less common).
- 3. Necrosis of pancreatic parenchyma without surrounding necrosis of peripancreatic tissue (very rare).

Necrosis of the pancreatic parenchyma can be diagnosed on a contrast-enhanced CT ≥ 72 hours.

Necrosis of peripancreatic tissue can be vary difficult to diagnose, but is suspected when the collection is inhomogeneous, i.e. various densities on CT..

The CT shows an acute necrotizing pancreatitis. The body and tail of the pancreas do not enhance. There is normal enhancement of the pancreatic head.

More than 50% of the pancreas is necrotic and there are at least two collections.



- < 4 weeks</p>
- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- No fully definable wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- Confined by normal fascial planes

Acute Necrotic Collection

- -< 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- No fully definable wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

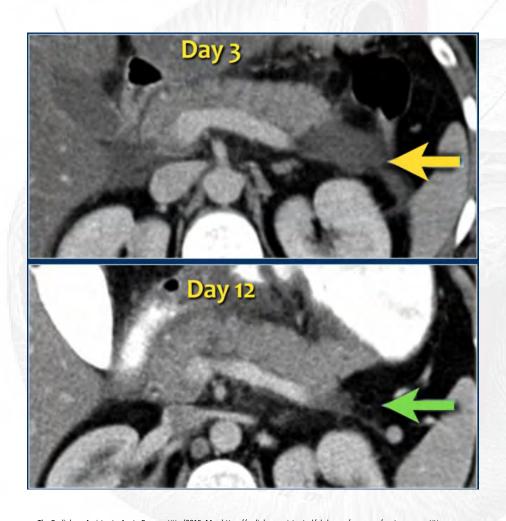
Pseudocyst

- > 4 weeks
- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- Well defined wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- No non-liquid component

Walled-off Necrosis

- > 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- Well-defined wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Acute Peripancreatic Fluid Collection (APFC)



- Intraabdominal fluid collections and collections of necrotic tissue are common in acute pancreatitis.
- These collections develop early in the course of acute pancreatitis.
 In the early stage, such a collection does not have a wall or capsule.
 Preferred locations of fluid collections are:
 - Lesser sac
 - Anterior and posterior pararenal space of the retroperitoneum.
 - Transverse mesocolon
 - Small bowel mesentery.
- These collections are the result of the release of activated pancreatic enzymes which also cause necrosis of the surrounding tissues.
 This explains why many of these collections harbor solid necrotic debris.
- About 50% of these collections show spontaneous regression The remaining 50% either remain stable or increase and undergo organization and demarcation with liquefaction. They may remain sterile or develop infection.



- < 4 weeks

creatic duci

- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- No fully definable wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- Confined by normal fascial planes

Acute Necrotic Collection

- < 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- No fully definable wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

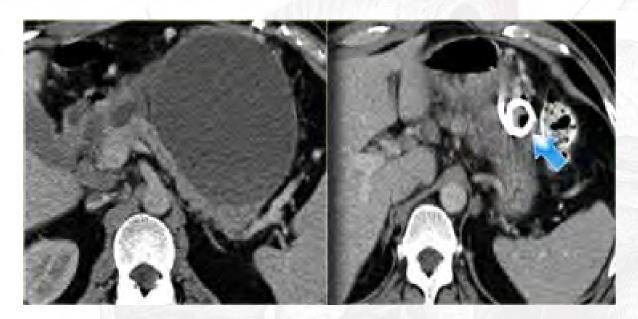
Pseudocyst

- > 4 weeks
- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- Well defined wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- No non-liquid component

Walled-off Necrosis

- > 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- Well-defined wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Pseudocyst



- A Pseudocyst is a collection of pancreatic juice or fluid enclosed by a complete wall of fibrous tissue It occurs in interstitial pancreatitis and the absence of necrotic tissue is imperative for its diagnosis.
- Communication with the pancreatic duct may be present.
 A pseudocyst requires 4 or more weeks to develop.
- The differential diagnosis includes walled-off necrosis and sometimes a pseudoaneurysm or even a cystic tumor. Most often, they occur in the lesser sac.
- Most collections that persist after 4 weeks are walled-of-necrosis.
 True pseudocysts are uncommon, since most acute peripancreatic fluid collections resolve within 4 weeks.



- < 4 weeks</p>

creatic duci

- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- No fully definable wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- Confined by normal fascial planes

Pseudocyst

- > 4 weeks
- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- Well defined wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- No non-liquid component

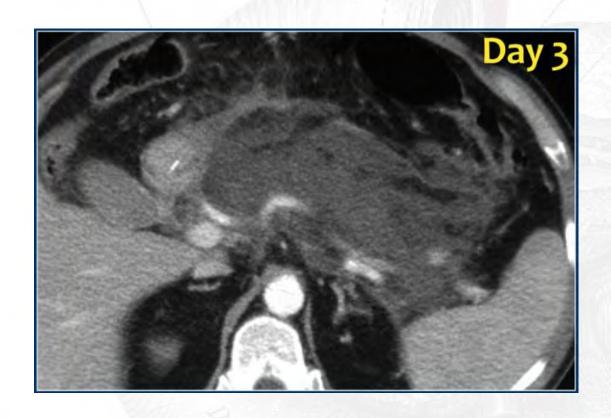
Acute Necrotic Collection

- -< 4 weeks</p>
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- No fully definable wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Walled-off Necrosis

- > 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- Well-defined wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Acute Necrotic Collection



- Necrosis of the pancreas
- Inhomogeneous collection in the peripancreatic tissue
- No wall

We can conclude that this is an acute necrotic collection - ANC.



- < 4 weeks

creatic duci

- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- No fully definable wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- Confined by normal fascial planes

Acute Necrotic Collection

- -< 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- No fully definable wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Pseudocyst

- > 4 weeks
- In interstitial pancreatitis
- Homogeneous fluid density
- Well defined wall
- Adjacent to pancreas
- No non-liquid component

Walled-off Necrosis

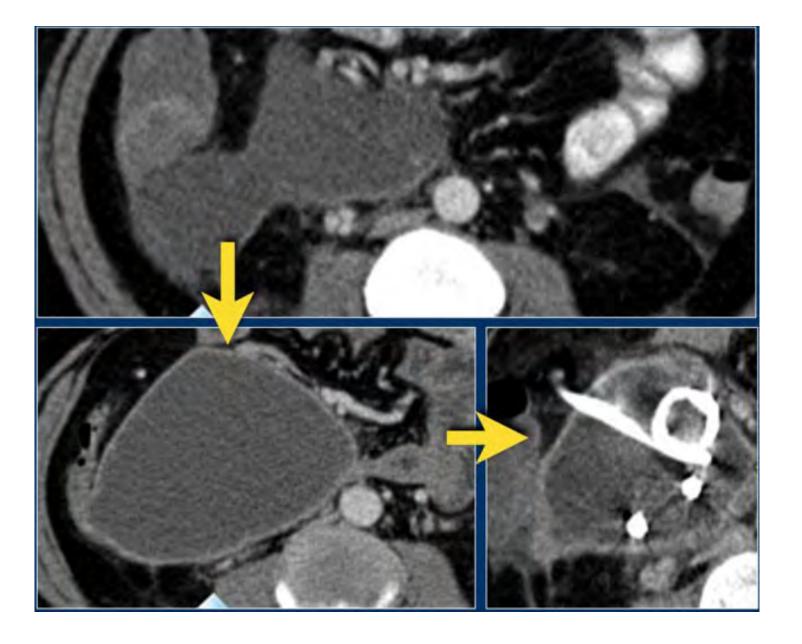
- > 4 weeks
- In necrotizing pancreatitis
- Heterogeneous collection
- Well-defined wall
- Intra- or extrapancreatic

Walled of Necrosis

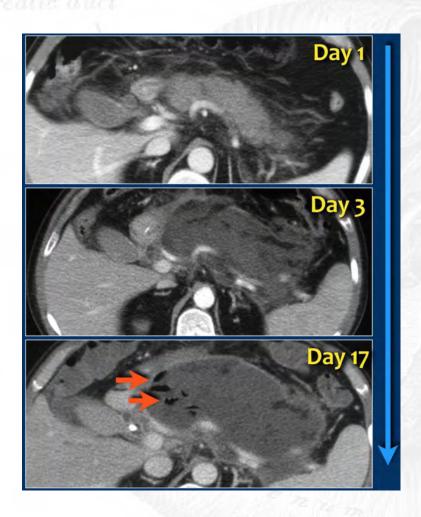
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Infected Necrosis



Accessory pancreatic duct

/ Pancreatic duct

Usually occurs in the 2nd-4th week and rarely in the first week.

Most severe local complication of acute necrotizing pancreatitis.

- Most common cause of death in patients with acute pancreatitis.
- Diagnose infected necrosis when there are gas bubbles on CT (seen in 40%) or when FNA is positive for bacteria
- On day 1 there is enhancement of the pancreas and it just looks like a mild interstitial pancreatitis.
- On day 3 there is no enhancement of the pancreas, consistent with necrosis.
- The necrosis also involves the peripancreatic tissue. So this is an ANC acute necrotic collection.
- On day 17 there are gas bubbles in the necrotic collection consistent with infected pancreatic and peripancreatic necrosis.

Management of Interstitial Oedematous Pancreatitis

- Acute pancreatic or peripancreatic fluid collections in interstitial oedematous pancreatitis resolve spontaneously in the first few weeks after onset of disease and rarely require intervention
- Development of a pancreatic pseudocyst is rare after acute pancreatitis
- Indication for the intervention of pancreatic pseudocysts is determined by the presence of symptoms, such as gastric outlet obstruction or abdominal pain.
- Pseudocyst larger that 6cm often cause symptoms
- Drainage of pancreatic pseudocysts is preferably done after the collection is encapsulated to reduce the risk of complications, which takes approximately 4–6 weeks from the onset of the disease.

Intervention strategies

- Drainage modalities :
 - Endoscopic trans-luminal drainage is preferred when a pseudocyst can be reached endoscopically.
 - If a pseudocyst communicates with the main pancreatic duct, additional transpapillary drainage might be needed.
- Role of combined endoscopic transluminal drainage and transpapillary drainage for pancreatic pseudocysts remains debated, because no additional benefit in reducing reoccurrence

- The majority of patients with sterile pancreatic or peripancreatic necrosis can be treated conservatively, regardless of size and extension
- Drainage of sterile pancreatic or peripancreatic necrosis can introduce iatrogenic infection, with consequent exposure to additional interventions and procedure-related risks.
- Intervention should only be considered in the small subgroup of patients with persistent symptoms, such as abdominal pain, gastric outlet obstruction, jaundice, or failure to thrive at least 4–8 weeks after onset of the disease
- In contrast, secondary infection of peripancreatic necrosis nearly always requires invasive intervention.
- Secondary infection becomes apparent by gas configurations in the necrotic collection on CECT 50% patients
- The other 50% of patients, clinical signs of infection are often sufficient to diagnose secondary infection of pancreatic or peripancreatic necrosis
- A positive gram stain or culture of the necrotic collection, obtained by transabdominal fineneedle aspiration, can be required in case of diagnostic uncertainty but has a 25% false negative rate

- The first step in treating patients with infected necrotising pancreatitis is the administration of broad-spectrum antibiotic therapy.
- A small proportion of patients can be managed with supportive care and antibiotics alone, without the need for additional invasive interventions.

1. Indications for intervention in necrotizing pancreatitis are:

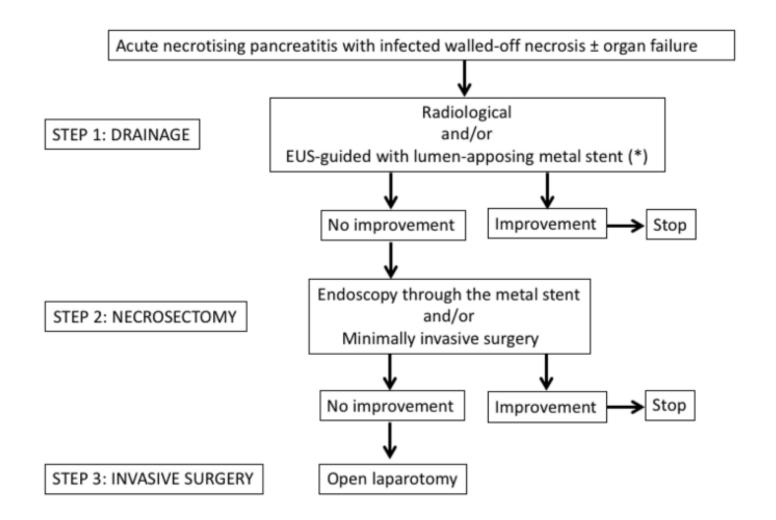
- Clinical suspicion or documented infected necrotizing pancreatitis with clinical deterioration
- Ongoing organ failure for several weeks after disease onset in the absence of documented infected necrotizing pancreatitis.

2. Indications for intervention in sterile necrotizing pancreatitis are:

- Ongoing gastric outlet, intestinal, or biliary obstruction due to mass effect of walledoff necrosis (i.e. arbitrarily >4-8 weeks after onset of acute pancreatitis)
- Persistent debilitating symptoms in patients with walled-off necrosis without signs of infection (i.e. arbitrarily >8 weeks after onset of acute pancreatitis)
- Disconnected duct syndrome with persisting symptoms (e.g. pain, obstruction) collection(s) with walled-off necrosis

- 3. Proven or suspected infected necrotizing pancreatitis
 Invasive intervention should be preferably delayed until at least 4 weeks after initial presentation to allow collections to become 'walled-off'.
- 4. Interventional strategy for patients with suspected or confirmed infected necrotizing pancreatitis is
 - initial image-guided percutaneous (retroperitoneal) catheter drainage
 - Or endoscopic transluminal drainage
 - Followed, if necessary, by endoscopic or surgical necrosectomy.





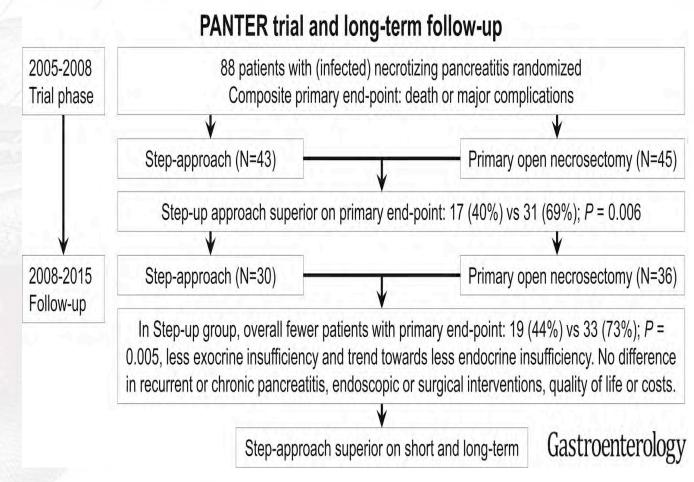
PANTER TRIAL

Table 3. Primary and Secondary End Points."				
Outcome	Minimally Invasive Step-up Approach (N=43)	Primary Open Necrosectomy (N=45)	Risk Ratio (95% CI)	P Value
Primary composite end point: major complications or death — no. (%);	17 (40)	31 (69)	0.57 (0.38-0.87)	0.006
Secondary end points				
Major complication — no. (%)				
New onset multiple-organ failure or systemic complications:	5 (12)	19 (42)	0.28 (0.11-0.67)	0.001
Multiple-organ failure	5 (12)	18 (40)		
Multiple systemic complications	0	1.(2)		
Intraabdominal bleeding requiring intervention	7 (16)	10 (22)	0.73 (0.31-1.75)	0.48
Enterocutaneous fistula or perforation of a visceral organ requiring intervention	fi (14)	10 (22)	0.63 (0.25-1.58)	0.32
Death — rio. (%)	8 (19)	7 (16)	1.20 (0.48-3.01)	0.70
Other outcome — no. (%)				
Pancreatic fistula	12 (28)	17 (38)	0.74 (0.40-1.36)	0.33
incisional hemia(3 (7)	11 (24)	0.29 (0.09-0.95)	0.03
New-onset diabetes[7 (16)	17 (38)	0.43 (0.20-0.94)	0.02
Use of pancreatic enzymes§	3 (7)	15 (33)	0.21 (0.07-0.67)	0.002
Health care resource utilization				
Necrosectomies (laparotomy or VARD) - no. (%)				<0.001
0.	17 (40)	0		
1	19 (44)	31 (69)		
2	6 (14)	8 (18)		
a3	I (2)	6 (13)		
Total no of operations				0.004
Per study group	53	91		
Range per patient	0-6	1-7		
Total no. of drainage procedures				<0.001
Per study group	82	32		
Range per patient	1-7	0-6		
New ICU admission at any time after first intervention — no. (%) **	7 (16)	18 (40)	0.41 (0.19-0.88)	0.01
Days in ICU				0.26
Median	9	-11		
Range	0-281	0-111		
Days in hospital				0.53
Median	50	60		
Range	1-287	1-247		

ICU denotes intensive care unit, and VARD video-assisted retroperitoneal débridement.

Accessory pancreatic duct

/ Pancreatic duct



Multiple events in the same patient were considered as one end point.

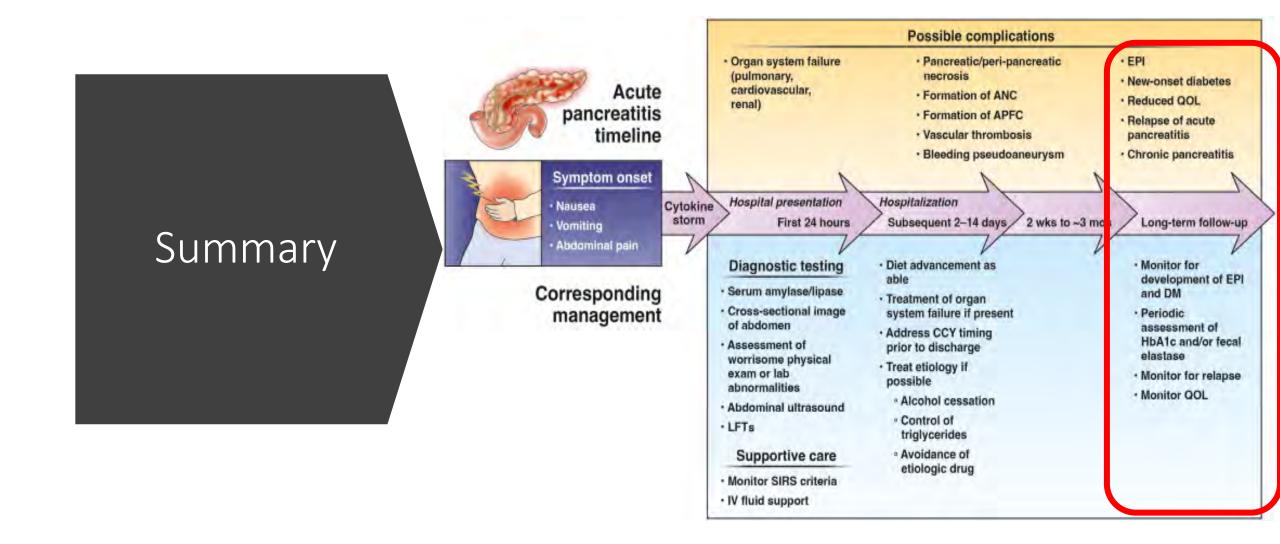
This category included only patients without multiple-organ failure or multiple systemic complications at any time in the 24 hours before the first intervention

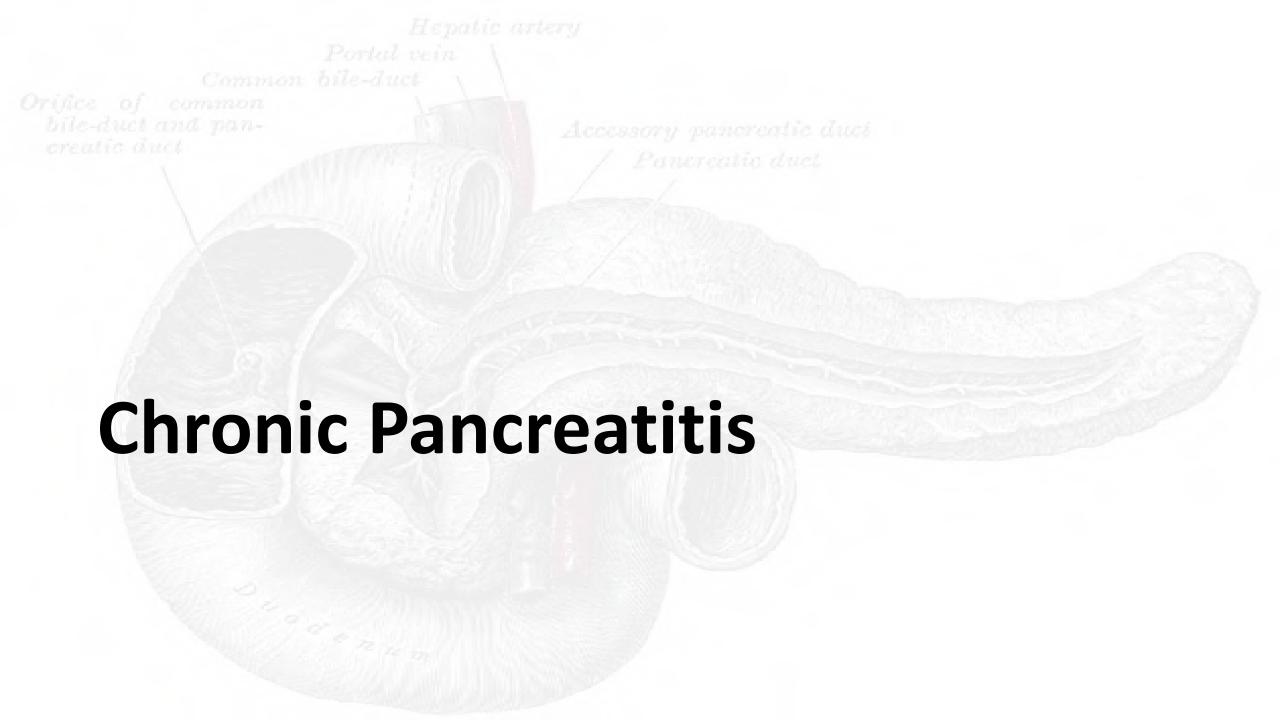
Patients were assessed 6 monts after discharge from the Index admission (readmission within 10 days was considered the same admission). This category included necrosectomies (laparotomy or VARD procedure) and additional operations to treat complications (e.g., repeated laparotomy for abdominal bleeding) during the index admission.

This category included primary drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures after necessary in both treatment procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimally invasive step-up approach and additional drainage procedures as part of the minimal procedures are procedured as part of

dures after necrosectomy in both treatment groups during the index admission.

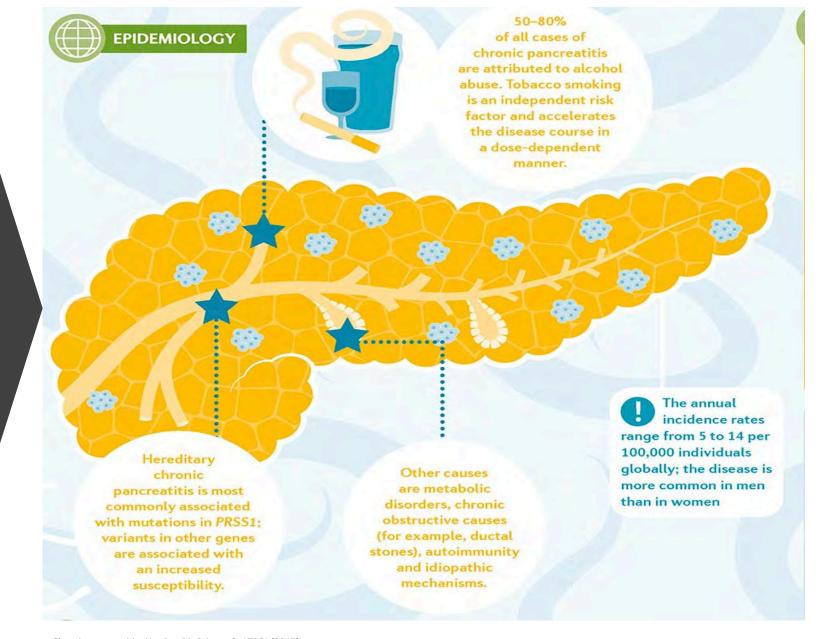
This category included only patients who were not admitted to the ICU at any time in the Z4 hours before the first intervention.



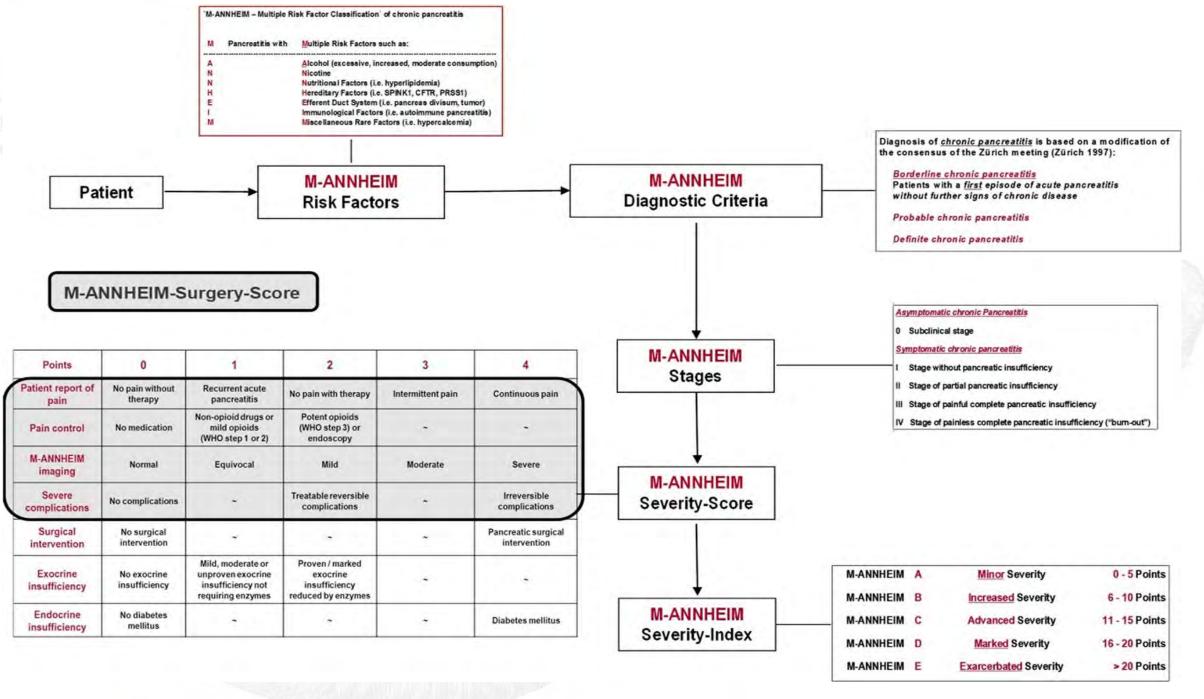


Definition

- Chronic Pancreatitis
 - Pathological fibroinflammatory syndrome of the pancreas in
 - Individuals with genetic, environmental, or other risk factors
 - who develop persistent, pathological responses to parenchymal injury or stress
 - causing loss of function, local complications, and pain
- Often multifactorial, but the precise pathophysiology is not fully understood.
- Common features of established and advanced chronic pancreatitis include:
 - Pancreatic atrophy
 - Fibrosis
 - Pain syndromes
 - Pancreatic duct distortion and strictures, calcifications
 - Pancreatic exocrine and endocrine dysfunction
 - Dysplasia



Epidemiology



Risk Factors

A. Schneider et al.: M-ANNHEIM classification

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Table 2. The M-ANNHEIM multiple risk factor classification of chronic pancreatitis

N	M Pancreatitis with Multiple risk factors				
A	Alcohol consumption Excessive consumption (>80 g/day) Increased consumption (20–80 g/day) Moderate consumption (<20 g/day)				
N	Nicotine consumption (In cigarette smokers: description of nicotine consumption by pack-years				
N	Nutrition (e.g., high caloric proportion of fat and protein) Hyperlipidemia				
Н	Hereditary factors ^a Hereditary pancreatitis (defined according to Whitcomb ⁹⁶) Familial pancreatitis (defined according to Whitcomb ⁹⁶)				
	Early-onset idiopathic pancreatitis Late-onset idiopathic pancreatitis Tropical pancreatitis (possible mutations in the PRSSI, CFTR, or SPINKI genes)				
E	Efferent duct factors Pancreas divisum Annular pancreas and other congenital abnormalities of the pancreas Pancreatic duct obstruction (e.g., tumors) Posttraumatic pancreatic duct scars Sphincter of Oddi dysfunction				
I.	Immunological Factors Autoimmune pancreatitis Sjögren syndrome-associated chronic pancreatitis Inflammatory bowel disease-associated chronic pancreatitis				
	Chronic pancreatitis with autoimmune diseases (e.g., primary sclerosing cholangitis, primary biliary cirrhosis)				
M	Miscellaneous and rare metabolic factors Hypercalcemia and hyperparathyroidism Chronic renal failure Drugs				
	Toxins				

The M-ANNHEIM classification is based on the assumption that, in the majority of patients, chronic pancreatitis results from the interaction of multiple risk factors (M). The different risk factors are grouped into the major subcategories of alcohol consumption (A), nicotine consumption (N), nutritional factors (N), hereditary factors (H), efferent pancreatic duct factors (E), immunological factors (I), and various rare miscellaneous and metabolic factors (M)

^aHereditary and familial pancreatitis are defined according to Whitcomb.⁶⁶ Hereditary pancreatitis refers to otherwise unexplained pancreatitis in an individual from a family in which the pancreatitis phenotype appears to be inherited through a disease-causing gene mutation expressed in an autosomal dominant pattern.⁶⁶ Familial pancreatitis refers to pancreatitis due to any cause that occurs in a family with an incidence higher

A. Schneider et al.: M-ANNHEIM classification

Table 4. M-ANNHEIM diagnostic criteria of chronic pancreatitis (modified from Ammann³²)

The diagnosis of chronic pancreatitis requires a typical clinical history of chronic pancreatitis (such as recurrent pancreatitis or abdominal pain, except for primary painless pancreatitis)

Based on these features, three forms of chronic pancreatitis

Definite chronic pancreatitis is established by one or more of the following additional criteria:

- 1. Pancreatic calcifications
- 2. Moderate or marked ductal lesions (according to the Cambridge classification)
- 3. Marked and persistent exocrine insufficiency defined as pancreatic steatorrhea markedly reduced by enzyme supplementation
- 4. Typical histology of an adequate histological specimen

Probable chronic pancreatitis is established by one or more of the following additional criteria:

- 1. Mild ductal alterations (according to the Cambridge classification)
- 2. Recurrent or persistent pseudocysts
- 3. Pathological test of pancreatic exocrine function (such as fecal elastase-1 test, secretin test, secretin-pancreozymin test)
- 4. Endocrine insufficiency (i.e., abnormal glucose tolerance test)

Borderline chronic pancreatitis is already established and is defined by a typical clinical history of the disease but without any of the additional criteria required for definite or probable chronic pancreatitis. This form is also established as a first episode of acute pancreatitis with or without (1) a family history of pancreatic disease (i.e., other family members with acute pancreatitis or pancreatic cancer) or (2) the presence of M-ANNHEIM risk factors

Pancreatitis associated with alcohol consumption requires in addition to the above-mentioned criteria for definite, probable, or borderline chronic pancreatitis one of the following features:

- 1. History of excessive alcohol intake (>80 g/day for some years in men, smaller amounts in women) or
- 2. History of *increased* alcohol intake (20–80 g/day for some years) or
- 3. History of moderate alcohol intake (<20 g/day for some years)

The Zürich workshop on alcoholic chronic pancreatitis proposed a classification of chronic pancreatitis into "probable" or "definite" chronic pancreatitis, depending on the presence of several distinguishing diagnostic features of the disease.³² We included a subgroup of "borderline" chronic pancreatitis in the M-ANNHEIM classification system, and we introduced a subclassification for the amount of alcohol consumed

Table 5. Cambridge classification of pancreatic morphology in chronic pancreatitis²⁸⁻³⁰

Pancreatic	morpholo	ov evali	rated by	FRCP
1 andicatio	morphoto	gy cvan	dated o	LILLI

	Main duct	Abnormal side branches	Additional features
Normal	Normal	None	
Equivocal	Normal	<3	
Mild changes	Normal	≥3	
Moderate changes	Abnormal	>3	
Marked changes	Abnormal	>3	One or more of the following: large cavity, obstruction filling defects, severe dilatation, or irregularity

Normal	Main pancreatic duct <2mm, normal gland size and shape, homogenous parenchyma
Equivocal	One only of the following signs: Main pancreatic duct enlarged (between 2 and 4mm), slight gland enlargement (up to 2 x normal), heterogeneous parenchyma, small cavities (<10mm), irregular ducts, focal acute pancreatitis, increased echogenicity of the main pancreatic duct wall, irregular head / body contour
Mild changes	Two or more of the above listed criteria
Moderate changes	As with mild changes (not differentiated)
Marked changes	As above, with one or more of the following: large cavities (>10 mm), gross gland enlargement (>2> normal), intraductal filling defects or calculi, duct obstruction, structure or gross irregularity, contiguous organ invasion

The Cambridge classification established clear-cut criteria for the description of equivocal, mild, moderate, and severe changes of chronic pancreatitis using the imaging technique of ERCP.^{28–30} The Cambridge classification also categorized chronic pancreatitis according to pancreatic imaging findings on CT and abdominal US, similar to the grading of ERCP changes.^{28–30} However, the grading according to CT and US did not clearly differentiate between mild and moderate changes

A. Schneider et al.: M-ANNHEIM classification

Table 6. Endoscopic ultrasound criteria of chronic pancreatitis82,84,85,89

Parenchymal features

- ➤ Gland size
- > Cysts
- Echo-poor lesions (focal areas of reduced echogenicity)
 Echo-rich lesions (>3 mm in diameter)
- > Accentuation of lobular pattern (e.g., echo-poor normal parenchyma surrounded by hyperechoic strands)

Ductal features

- Increased duct wall echogenicity
 Irregularity of the main pancreatic duct (e.g., with narrowing of the duct)
 Dilation of the main pancreatic duct
 Visible side branches (e.g., with dilation)

- > Calcification

Table 7. M-ANNHEIM pancreatic imaging criteria for US, CT, MRI/MRCP, and EUS based on imaging features as defined by the Cambridge classification

Cambridge grading	CT, US, MRI/MRCPa	EUS ^b
Normal	Quality study depicting whole gland without abnormal features (0 points) ^c	1.7.7.1.20.0
Equivocal Mild changes	One abnormal feature (1 point) ^c Two or more abnormal features, but normal main pancreatic duct (2 points) ^c	Four or fewer abnormal features (no differentiation between equivocal and mild) (I point)
Moderate changes Marked changes	Two or more abnormal features, including minor main pancreatic duct abnormalities (either enlargement between 2 and 4 mm or increased echogenicity of the duct wall) (3 points) ^c As above with one or more of the required features of	Five or more abnormal features (no differentiation between moderate and marked) (3 points) ^c



Portal vein

Common bile-duct

Orifice of common

bile-duct and pancreatic duct

Accessory pancreatic duci

Table 3. M-ANNHEIM clinical staging of chronic pancreatitis (modified from Chari and Singer²¹)

> Asymptomatic chronic pancreatitis

- 0 Stage of subclinical chronic pancreatitis
- a Period without symptoms (determination by chance, e.g., autopsy)
- b Acute pancreatitis—single episode (possible onset of chronic pancreatitis)^a
- c Acute pancreatitis with severe complications^b

> Symptomatic chronic pancreatitis

- I Stage without pancreatic insufficiency
- a (Recurrent) acute pancreatitis (no pain between episodes of acute pancreatitis)*
- b Recurrent or chronic abdominal pain (including pain between episodes of acute pancreatitis)
- I a/b with severe complications^b
- II Stage of partial pancreatic insufficiency
- a Isolated exocrine (or endocrine) pancreatic insufficiency (without pain)
- b Isolated exocrine (or endocrine) pancreatic insufficiency (with pain)
- c II a/b with severe complications^b
- III Stage of painful complete pancreatic insufficiency
- a Exocrine and endocrine insufficiency (with pain, e.g., requiring pain medication)
- b III a with severe complications^b
- IV Stage of secondary painless disease (burnout)
- a Exocrine and endocrine insufficiency without pain and without severe complications^h
- b Exocrine and endocrine insufficiency without pain and with severe complications^b

^a A patient with a single episode of acute pancreatitis (without other symptoms of chronic pancreatitis) and with risk factors for chronic pancreatitis (e.g., a history of increased alcohol consumption) would be classified as "0 b" without morphological or functional signs of chronic pancreatitis. In contrast, the patient would be categorized as "I a" in the presence of chronic pancreatitis features (e.g., calcifications).

^b Severe complications are defined as severe organ complications not included in the Cambridge classification. Reversible severe complications include development of ascites, bleeding, pseudoaneurysm, obstruction or stricture of the ductus choledochus, pancreatic fistula, and duodenal

Diagnosis

Although histology remains the gold standard against which all diagnostic approaches are judged, it is not practical in the clinical setting.

Diagnosis currently depends on identifying clinical and morphological features which characterize the final common pathologic pathway of a variety of pancreatic disorders.

Clinical manifestations

- The primary clinical manifestations of CP are abdominal pain and pancreatic insufficiency, but patients may also present with the consequences of a complication.
- Abdominal pain
 - The pain is typically epigastric in location, often radiates to the back, is frequently worse after meals
 - May be relieved by sitting upright or leaning forward.
 - Pain is usually but not invariably present; in one series, 20% of patients with CP presented with pancreatic exocrine or endocrine insufficiency, but no pain.

Diagnosis

Pancreatic exocrine insufficiency

- Clinically significant fat and protein deficiencies do not occur until over 90% of pancreatic function is lost.
- The clinical manifestations of fat malabsorption are steatorrhoea and flatulence.
- Malabsorption of fat-soluble vitamins and vitamin B12 may also occur, but clinically symptomatic vitamin deficiencies are rare.

Diagnosis

Pancreatic endocrine insufficiency

- Overt diabetes mellitus (DM) typically occurs late in the course of the disease.
- A family history of type 1 or type 2 DM, early pancreatic calcification and distal pancreatectomy increases the risk of developing DM
- .Most patients with DM secondary to CP require insulin.
- Owing to the loss of glucagon-producing α -cells, such patients are at increased risk of spontaneous and treatment-related hypoglycaemia.

Diagnostic Tests

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Table 1. Diagnostic Tests for Chronic Pancreatitis

Imaging tests	
EUS	Two systems of reporting are used: standard terminology and Rosemont criteria. ⁵ EUS allows detailed examination of both the pancreatic parenchyma and the pancreatic duct.
MRI with MRCP	Administration of secretin during MRCP improves the quality of imaging of the pancreatic duct and may allow the pancreatic secretory capacity to be estimated. MRI cannot visualize calcification.
CT	CT images the pancreatic parenchyma well, with less ductal detail than MRI.
ERCP	ERCP provides the most detailed images of the pancreatic duct but is rarely used for diagnosis.
Ultrasonography	Ultrasonography has limited ability to image the pancreas, but it is of low cost and has no ionizing radiation.
Functional tests	
Secretin test	Administration of a supraphysiologic dose of secretin produces maximal pancreatic stimulation; pancreatic juice i collected with a Dreiling tube or an endoscope and analyzed for bicarbonate concentration.
Fecal elastase	Low levels in the stool (<200 µg/g of stool) are seen in patients with advanced chronic pancreatitis.
Serum trypsin	Low levels (<20 mg/dL) are seen in patients with advanced chronic pancreatitis.

DISEASE AND THERAPY OF PANCREATIC DISORDER

Rosemont Criteria

Rosemont criteria: C	onsensus-based <u>paren</u>	chymal features of	CP ²¹		
A	Definition	Major criteria	Minor criteria	Rank	Histological correlation
Hyperechoic foci	Echogenic structures	Major A	Willior Criteria	1	Parenchymal-based
with shadowing	≥2 mm in length and width that shadow	major A		•	calcifications
Lobularity	Well- circumscribed, ≥5 mm structures, with enhancing rim and relatively echo- poor centre			2	Unknown
A. With honeycombing	Contiguous ≥3 lobules	Major B			
B. Without honeycombing	Non-contiguous lobules		Yes		
Hyperechoic foci without shadowing	Echogenic structures foci ≥2 mm in both length and width with no shadowing		Yes	3	Unknown
Cysts	Anechoic, rounded/ elliptical structures, with or without septations		Yes	4	Pseudocyst
Stranding	Hyperechoic lines ≥3 mm in length in at least 2 different directions with respect to the image plane		Yes	5	Unknown
Rosemont criteria: C	onsensus-based ducta	1 features of CP21			Histological
Feature	Definition	Major criteria	Minor criteria	Rank	correlation
MPD calculi	Echogenic structure(s) within MPD with acoustic shadowing	Major A		1	Stones
Irregular MPD contour	Uneven or irregular outline and ectatic course		Yes	2	Unknown
Dilated side branches	≥3 tubular anechoic structures each measuring ≥1 mm in width, budding from the MPD		Yes	3	Side-branch ectasia
MPD dilation	≥3.5 mm body or >1.5 mm tail		Yes	4	MPD dilation
Hyperechoic MPD margin	Echogenic, distinct structure >50% of entire MPD in the body and tail		Yes	5	Ductal fibrosis

Rosemont Criteria

Addendum B

EUS diagnosis of CP on the basis of consensus criteria21

I. Consistent with CP

- A. 1 major A feature (+) ≥3 minor features
- B. 1 major A feature (+) major B feature
- C. 2 major A features

II. Suggestive of CP'

- A. 1 major A feature (+) <3 minor features
- B. 1 major B feature (+) ≥3 minor features
- C. ≥5 minor features (any)

III. Indeterminate for CP†

- A. 3 4 minor features, no major features
- B. major B feature alone or with <3 minor features

IV. Normal

≤2 minor features,[‡] no major features

^{*}EUS diagnosis of CP should be made in the appropriate clinical setting.

[†]Diagnosis requires confirmation by additional imaging study (ERCP, CT, MRI or PFT).

[‡]Excludes cysts, dilated MPD, hyperechoic non-shadowing foci, dilated side branch.

Approach to Management

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Make a correct diagnosis

- · Appropriate history
- Corroborating imaging tests
- MRI/MRCP
- EUS
- ·CT
- · Functional tests if imaging tests equivocal
 - Tube-based secretin test
 - Endoscopic-based secretin test
- Assess for alternative diseases and complications and treat if present
 - Pancreatic cancer or IPMN
 - Pseudocyst
 - Bile duct obstruction
 - Duodenal obstruction



Medical therapy

- · Measure pain severity, character, and impact on QOL
- Refer for formal structured smoking and alcohol cessation programs
- Counsel on good nutrition and initiate supplementation with vitamin D and calcium
 - Baseline bone mineral density testing
- · Provide information on local and national support groups
- · Initiate analgesics (starting with Tramadol)
- Increase dose and potency slowly as required
- Initiate adjunctive agents in those with persistent pain or requiring higher dosages or potency of narcotics
 - Pregabalin, Gabapentin
 - SSRI
 - SSNRI
 - Tricyclic antidepressants
- Assess for evidence of coexistent exocrine or endocrine insufficiency and treat if present
 - Fecal elastase or serum trypsin
 - · HgB A1C or GTT
- · Initiate steroids if autoimmune pancreatitis

Approach to Management

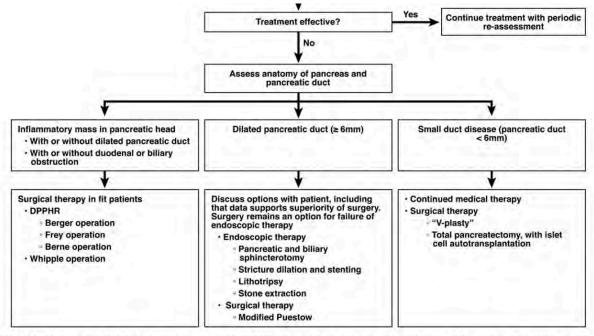
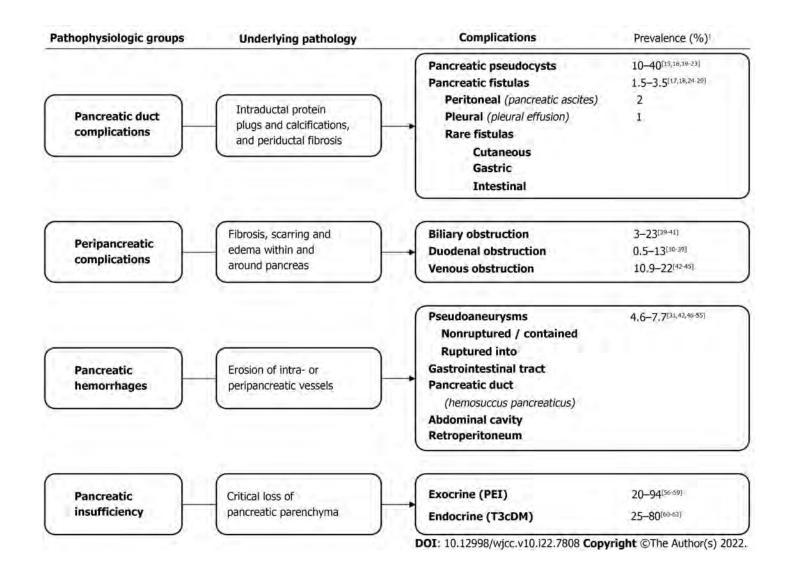


Figure 3. Management algorithm for chronic pancreatitis. IPMN, intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasm; QOL, quality of life; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor; SSNRI, serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor; GTT, glucose tolerance test.

Complications of Chronic Pancreatitis



Pancreatic Pseudocysts

• **Presentation:** Fluid collections in peripancreatic tissue, occurring in 25-30% (or 20-40%) of CP patients. Can be asymptomatic or cause pain, early satiety, nausea, vomiting

Management:

- **Observation:** For uncomplicated, asymptomatic pseudocysts, as ~33% resolve spontaneously within 2-6 weeks. Observe for at least 6 weeks if recent acute pancreatitis.
- **Intervention:** Indicated for symptomatic pseudocysts, complications (infection, hemorrhage, rupture), or asymptomatic cysts >5 cm not resolving within 3-6 months.
- Endoscopic Drainage (ED): Preferred minimally invasive strategy. Modalities include transmural (through GI wall) or transpapillary (via ERCP) drainage.
- **Surgical Drainage:** Option for mature pseudocysts when endoscopy fails or is not feasible. Procedures include cystogastrostomy, cystoduodenostomy, or Roux-en-Y cystojejunostomy Resection may be used for cystic neoplasia or splenic vein involvement.
- Percutaneous Drainage: Generally not recommended as primary treatment due to high complication rates.

Bile Duct Obstruction/Strictures

• **Presentation:** Affects 5-10% of patients. Caused by inflammation, fibrosis, or pseudocyst compression. Can be asymptomatic, transient jaundice, recurrent jaundice, or persistent jaundice. Symptoms include clay-colored stools, dark urine, fever, chills, pruritus, weight loss. Risk of cholangitis and biliary cirrhosis

Management:

- Conservative: For asymptomatic or transient jaundice, monitor with 6-monthly liver function tests and ultrasound.
- Interventional: Recommended for persistent jaundice (>1 month), frequent relapses, or cholangitis.
- Endoscopic Biliary Stenting: Temporary plastic stents or covered self-expandable metallic stents (SEMS) can provide long-term success. Reserved for patients who can comply with repeat ERCPs, are high surgical risk, or have portal hypertension.
- Surgical Biliary Drainage: Indicated when endoscopic methods fail, or for persistent jaundice, cholangitis, or suspicion of malignancy. Choledochojejunostomy (Roux-en-Y) is often preferred. Pancreaticoduodenectomy (Whipple) if malignancy cannot be ruled out

Pancreatic Cancer Risk & Surveillance

• **Risk:** Significantly increased risk (15-40%). Chronic pancreatitis is an independent risk factor. Average interval to cancer diagnosis is ~2.4 years.

• Surveillance:

- General CP Population: Routine screening is not recommended for all CP patients due to cost-effectiveness and accuracy concerns.
- **High-Risk Groups:** Surveillance *is recommended* for specific high-risk individuals, such as those with PRSS1 mutation-related hereditary CP (consider from age 40, annual screening). Also for inherited mutations in STK11, CDKN2A, ATM, BRCA1, BRCA2 (screening typically starts age 30-50 or 10 years earlier than family's earliest diagnosis).
- Imaging: MRI/MRCP or CT are suitable. Endoscopic Ultrasonography (EUS) is not recommended for surveillance in CP due to difficulty distinguishing early tumors from inflammation.
- **Abnormal Findings:** Shorten observation interval to 3-6 months if main pancreatic duct strictures, solid lesions <1 cm, or new-onset diabetes.