



Endoscopic view of the Duette Band Mucosectomy device. A band is placed around a small segment of esophageal mucosa and a snare is placed around the entrapped mucosa. Electrocautery is applied through the snare to accomplished resection of the mucosa





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Fax: +86-10-8538-1893
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Endoscopy: Have we gastroenterologists lessened our value through the perception of us as professional proceduralists?

Sherman M Chamberlain

Sherman M Chamberlain, Section of Gastroenterology, Medical College of Georgia, Augusta, GA 30912, United States

Author contributions: Chamberlain SM wrote this paper.

Correspondence to: Sherman M Chamberlain, MD, FACP, AGAF, FACG, Associate Professor of Medicine, Section of Gastroenterology, Medical College of Georgia, Augusta, GA 30912, United States. schamberlain@mail.mcg.edu

Telephone: +1-706-7212238 Fax: +1-706-7210331

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Abstract

This is a commentary on the recently published meta-analysis by Wilkins *et al* which concluded that primary care physicians are able to provide comparable quality in performing colonoscopic colon cancer screening as gastroenterologists.

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Key words: Gastroenterologist; Endoscopy; Proceduralist; Professional

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INTRODUCTION

On January 12, 2009, the press in the United States

picked up a disturbing and “flawed” meta-analysis from the Department of Family Practice at the Medical College of Georgia, my home institution. The article by Wilkins *et al*^[1] entitled “Screening Colonoscopies by Primary Care Physicians: A Meta-Analysis” concluded that: “colonoscopies performed by primary care physicians have the quality, safety, and efficacy indicators that are comparable to those recommended by the American Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopists, American College of Gastroenterology, and the Society of American Gastrointestinal Endoscopic Surgeon”.

DISCUSSION

Unfortunately, Dr. Wilkins’ meta-analysis was “flawed” analyzing 12 studies with 13363 of the 18292 patients (73%) coming from a single unpublished non-peer reviewed report^[1]. This single analysis came from a South Carolina, USA endoscopy center that additionally employed a gastroenterologist and general surgeon, to assist primary care endoscopists to complete the colonoscopy or therapeutics necessary if the primary care endoscopists were unable to do so themselves. The background from this endoscopy center was not mentioned in Dr. Wilkins’ meta-analysis. When the data from this study is excluded the actual cecal intubation rate was an unacceptably low 83.5% for the remaining 4992 colonoscopies. This “potentially misleading” study was recognized by the American College of Gastroenterology, resulting in a scathing rebuttal by Drs. Eamonn Quigley and Douglas Rex^[2].

Still this begs to question whether in the near future (given further endoscopic technical advancements): “Will our primary care colleagues be able to catch up with the endoscopic skills of a gastroenterologist?” Sadly, I believe the answer may be yes (at least for basic endoscopic procedures). This article must serve as a wake up call to all of us practicing gastroenterologists and our trainees that our gastroenterological professional niche goes beyond just completing procedures; rather it involves the correct interpretation of the normal and disease processes that we

may visualize in our patients when endoscopic procedures are performed, followed by the application of appropriate requisite therapeutics. More importantly, I believe that gastroenterology practice involves the initiation of the correct systems-based courses of action that we take in treating disease processes encountered in our patients. The unique skill of a gastroenterologist comes from the lengthy 3 year fellowship training process (in the United States), where we are immersed in gastroenterological disease biology, genetics, research, and therapeutics. The clinical skills acquired in fellowship, ultimately allow us to apply the necessary therapeutic and emotional support for our patients in dealing with the gastroenterological diseases with which they are afflicted.

We need to change the current public perception that the role of a gastroenterologist is just to perform

procedures, rather than being a physician who is uniquely qualified to diagnose, treat, and palliate gastrointestinal diseases. Without this necessary change in public perception, and an imminent gastroenterological physician specialty shortage on the horizon, we will give our patient base (our livelihood) no good reason to seek our care.

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Natural orifice transesophageal thoracoscopic surgery: A review of the current state

Brian G Turner, Denise W Gee

Brian G Turner, Gastrointestinal Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, 55 Fruit Street, Boston, MA 02114, United States

Denise W Gee, Department of Surgery, Massachusetts General Hospital, 15 Parkman Street, Boston, MA 02114, United States

Author contributions: Turner BG and Gee DW are solely responsible for all contributions to the article.

Correspondence to: Denise W Gee, MD, Department of Surgery, Massachusetts General Hospital, 15 Parkman Street, Boston, MA 02114, United States. dgee@partners.org

Telephone: +1-617-6434459 Fax: +1-617-7241117

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Abstract

Since the concept of Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery (NOTES) was introduced, it has continued to gain significantly in popularity and enthusiasm for its potential clinical applications. The ability to perform conventional laparoscopic and thoracoscopic procedures without the creation of scars and perhaps faster and less painful recovery has prompted a worldwide devotion to further this field. While intra-abdominal NOTES has rapidly transitioned from animal models to human trials, applying the NOTES concept to perform thoracic procedures has been slower to gain momentum. The goal of this review is to summarize the current state of transesophageal NOTES thoracoscopy by looking at its potential for diagnostic and therapeutic interventions as well as the challenges in transitioning to human trials.

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Key words: Natural orifice transluminal endoscopic surgery; Transesophageal; Thoracoscopy; Mediastinoscopy; Esophagotomy; Natural orifice; Endoscopy

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Gastroenterology, Hospital Virgen de la Luz, Cuenca 16002, Spain

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INTRODUCTION

The initial introduction of Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery (NOTES) by Kalloo *et al*^[1] prompted significant interest in what has become a new frontier of endoscopic surgeries through natural orifices. Specifically, NOTES refers to surgical procedures that involve the passage of a flexible endoscope through a natural orifice, including the mouth and rectum, where subsequent incisions are made in intra-abdominal or intra-thoracic viscera. To permit a safe and controlled introduction of this new concept, a White Paper was drafted describing natural orifice surgery and potential barriers to clinical practice^[2,3].

Since the introduction of NOTES, many transgastric NOTES procedures have been developed including tubal ligation and oophorectomy^[4,5], cholecystectomy^[6], gastrojejunostomy^[7], splenectomy^[8], and pancreatectomy^[9]. The field then moved beyond transgastric exploration and intervention to crossing other visceral boundaries resulting in transvaginal^[10], transcolonic^[11], and transvesicular^[12] access. In addition, several hybrid approaches have been explored combining NOTES with laparoscopy and transanal endoscopic microsurgery (TEM) in swine^[13,14] and humans^[15,16]. NOTES quickly moved from swine models to clinical experiments in humans. In 2004, the first human NOTES operation was reported when an appendix was removed through the mouth. In the United States, currently reported studies

have included the use of diagnostic peritoneoscopy^[17] and transvaginal^[18] and transgastric cholecystectomy^[19]. Internationally, use of NOTES in humans continues in countries such as India, Japan, Turkey, Japan, South America, and France.

Despite the relatively rapid evolution of NOTES to human trials, entry into the thoracic cavity *via* a transesophageal route has been slower to gain attention. Presently, access to the chest with conventional thoracoscopic and mediastinoscopic approaches has become routine for staging of oncologic disease, biopsy of pathologic tissues, and lung resection, among other uses. Unfortunately, even minimally invasive techniques can result in significant pain and prolonged recovery. A recent study of patients undergoing video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery (VATS) and thoracotomy found the prevalence of chronic pain was 40% and 47% after thoracotomy and VATS, respectively^[20]. As a potential means to reduce post-operative and chronic pain from conventional thoracoscopic techniques, a transesophageal approach with NOTES evolved. The purpose was to develop a NOTES technique capable of accomplishing similar diagnostic studies and therapeutic interventions as conventional mediastinoscopy and thoracoscopy. In fact, it is felt that that access to the mediastinum via the esophagus would eliminate the need to dissect pre-tracheal fascia (as required in mediastinoscopy) and provide a better view of the lung hila with a flexible endoscope.

Initial results showed the feasibility of this approach in both sacrificed and survived swine models^[21,22]. Identification and visualization of mediastinal and intrathoracic structures was accomplished and short-term survival with limited infectious complications was demonstrated. The development of a transesophageal platform could lead to less pain and scarring than occurs with conventional thoracoscopy and transcervical mediastinoscopy. The field of NOTES has permitted us to embark on the development of new approaches to laparoscopic and thoracoscopic techniques. The purpose of this article is to provide an overview of the currently available animal study data on trans-esophageal NOTES. In addition, we discuss potential barriers to the evolution of these techniques and speculate on future work and advancements needed to bring such innovative endoscopic surgeries to human trials.

TRANSESOPHAGEAL ACCESS TECHNIQUES

As with the transgastric approach, techniques continue to be developed that permit safe and controlled transesophageal access to the mediastinum and thorax. Using endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) to identify an appropriate esophageal entry site, Fritscher-Ravens *et al.*^[23] performed an esophageal incision using a needle-knife and exited directing into the mediastinum (Figure 1). EUS permit-

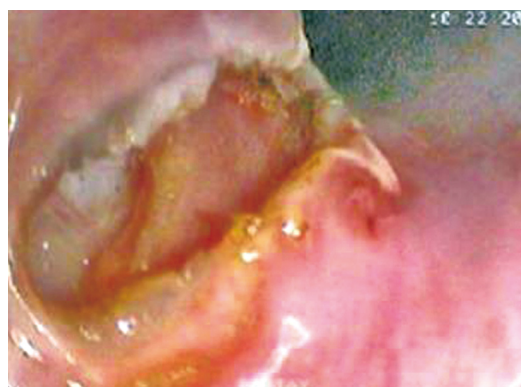


Figure 1 Endoscopic view showing access to the mediastinum following a full thickness incision with a needle knife alone. Reproduced with permission from Fritscher-Ravens *et al.*^[23].

ted identification of large vessels and positioning near the heart for planned procedures. After marking the site of entry into the esophagus by suctioning the esophageal wall and leaving an imprint, a standard gastroscope was introduced to perform an esophagotomy for mediastinal entry. However, the use of EUS was later abandoned due to lack of necessity and a standard gastroscope only was used along with a needle-knife to create a 2-cm full thickness incision in the esophageal wall.

Sumiyama *et al.*^[24] reported a new technique, called submucosal endoscopy, with a mucosal flap safety valve (SEMF). In this approach, saline injection into the esophageal wall was used to confirm entry into the submucosa, and high-pressure gas was used to perform a submucosal dissection. A biliary catheter was then inserted into the submucosal layer and a 10-cm long submucosal tunnel was created. Subsequently, an endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) cap device (Olympus Optical Co, Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) was used to create a defect in the muscularis propria and the mediastinum was entered after removal of the EMR cap from the endoscope (Figure 2). The goal of this technique is to provide an offset closure of the defect with the overlying mucosal flap.

A similar approach was reported by Willingham *et al.*^[22], in which mediastinal access was demonstrated via submucosal tunneling. This technique employed a needle-knife, prototype flexible carbon dioxide laser fiber (OmniGuide Inc., Cambridge, MA, USA) or Duette multiband mucosectomy device (Cook Medical Inc) to incise the esophageal mucosal layer (Figure 3A). In this method, a long submucosal tunnel (Figure 3B) of at least 10-cm was created using air and blunt dissection with the endoscope and the aid of closed forceps. The tunnel was extended to the gastroesophageal junction. Unlike Sumiyama *et al.*^[24], a needle-knife was used to directly incise the muscular layer and provide a portal to the mediastinum (Figure 3C).

Each of these techniques provides relatively safe and efficient access to the mediastinum. In the three studies combined, major complications were limited to

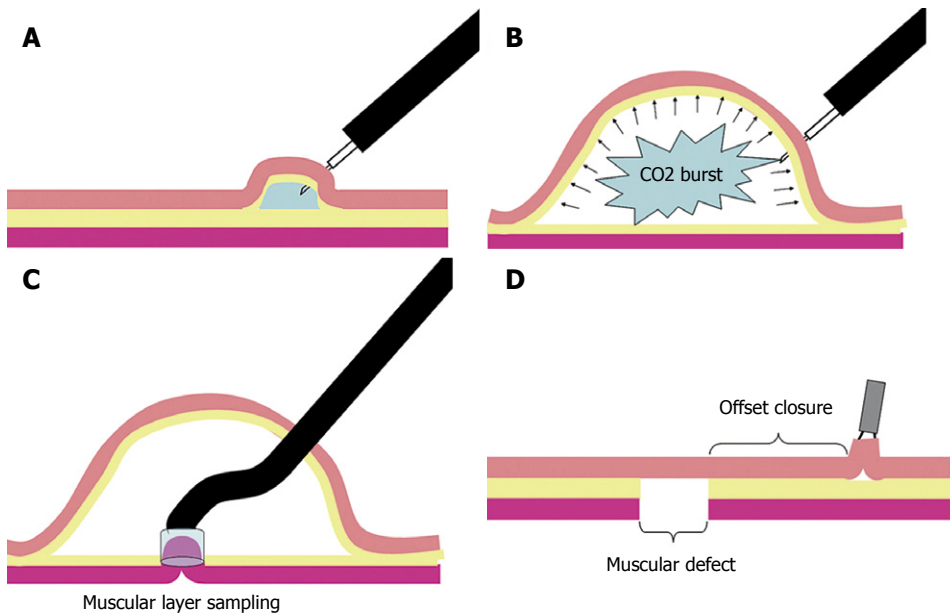
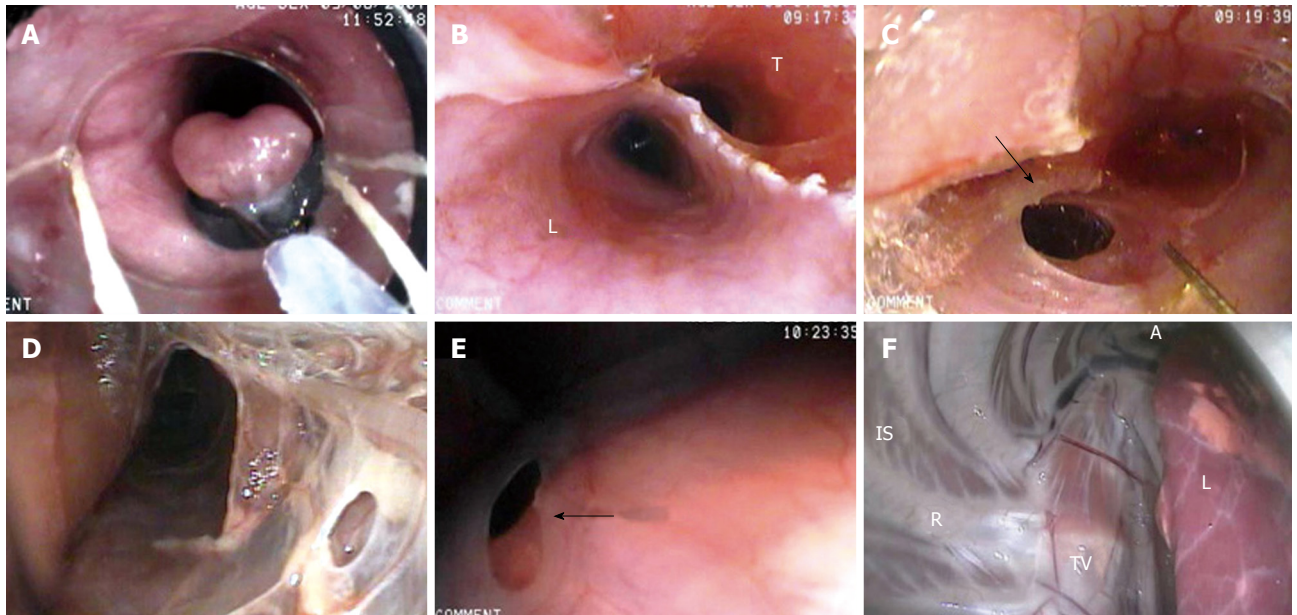


Figure 2 Transesophageal mediastinoscopy technique. A: Saline-solution-injection test to confirm needle-tip entry into the submucosa; B: Gas submucosal dissection with high-pressure CO₂; C: Muscular-layer resection with cap-EMR technique inside of the submucosal space; D: Offset closure of the muscular defect with overlying mucosal flap. Reproduced with permission from Sumiyama *et al*^[24].



Figures 3 This figure outlines the process of transesophageal entry into the mediastinum and shows representative flexible endoscopic views. A: Endoscopic view of the Duette Band Mucosectomy device. A band is placed around a small segment of esophageal mucosa and a snare is placed around the entrapped mucosa. Electrocautery is applied through the snare to accomplish resection of the mucosa; B: Endoscopic view of the esophageal lumen (L) and the submucosal tunnel (T); C: Endoscopic view from within the submucosal tunnel. A needle knife, pictured in the lower right corner of the image, is used to create and esophageal exit site (indicated by the black arrow); D: View of the mediastinum with the lateral esophageal wall on the left and pleura on the right; E: Endoscopic view of the lung and pleura. The black arrow shows a tear in the pleura created by biopsy forceps, which permits entry into the chest cavity; F: Endoscopic view of the chest cavity structures including the lung apex (A), lung (L), thoracic vertebra (TV), rib (R), and intercostal space (IS). Figure 3A-C and 3E are reproduced with permission from Gee *et al*^[21] Figure 3D is reproduced with permission from Willingham *et al*^[22].

one animal requiring immediate euthanization due to respiratory distress from pleural injury.

TRANSESOPHAGEAL NOTES MEDIASTINOSCOPY AND THORACOSCOPY

In clinical practice, transesophageal access remains limited to the sampling of lymph nodes with EUS. Studies in swine suggest that the new frontier of transesopha-

geal access to perform minimally invasive procedures is feasible. Gee *et al*^[21] published a study that looked at the feasibility of transesophageal mediastinoscopy and thoracoscopy in a swine model. These results reported excellent visualization of mediastinal structures (Figure 3D). Following entry into the mediastinum, a small tear in the pleura was made to enter the chest cavity (Figure 3E). Thoracic structures were then easily identified (Figure 3F). In this study, all animals thrived and had no

Table 1 Access techniques and interventions performed in swine transesophageal NOTES studies

Study	Year	Number of subjects (n)	Survival study (Yes/No), (n)	Days survived, (n)	Esophagotomy method	Intervention (s) performed
Fritscher-Ravens <i>et al</i> ^[23]	2007	9	Yes ² , n = 3 Yes, n = 4 No, n = 2	14, (n = 3) 28, (n = 1) 42, (n = 3)	Needle-knife	Mediastinoscopy, thoracoscopy, myocardial and left atrium saline injection, pericardial fenestration, lymphadenectomy
Sumiyama <i>et al</i> ^[24]	2007	4	Yes ²	14	SEMF	Mediastinoscopy
Gee <i>et al</i> ^[21]	2008	4	Yes ¹	8, (n = 2) 12, (n = 2)	m-SEMF	Pleural biopsy, Mediastinoscopy, thoracoscopy
Sumiyama <i>et al</i> ^[24]	2008	5	Yes ²	7	SEMF	Mediastinoscopy, thoracoscopy, pericardial window, epicardial ablation
Willingham <i>et al</i> ^[22]	2008	5	No ¹	0	m-SEMF	Mediastinoscopy, thoracoscopy, pleural biopsy

¹Denotes administration of pre-operative antibiotics only (1 g Ancef); ²Represents post-operative antibiotics (5-7 d enrofloxacin). SEMF: Submucosal endoscopy with mucosal flap safety valve; m-SEMF: Modified SEMF.

Table 2 Closure techniques and associated complications in swine transesophageal NOTES studies

Study	Esophageal closure strategy	Early complications	Late complications	Morbidity (n)	Mortality (%), (n)
Fritscher-Ravens <i>et al</i> ^[23]	Prototype T-tag device (n = 6) EndoClip (n = 3)	Pericardial hematoma (acute animal)	None	1	None
Sumiyama <i>et al</i> ^[24]	SEMF	Pleural injury resulting in death	None	None	25 (n = 1)
Gee <i>et al</i> ^[21]	m-SEMF + Endoclip (n = 2), m-SEMF only (n = 2)	None	Subclinical esophageal abscess	1	None
Sumiyama <i>et al</i> ^[24]	SEMF + EndoClip	Descending aorta injury	Esophageal mucosal ulceration at SEMF site	1	20 (n = 1)
Willingham <i>et al</i> ^[22]	m-SEMF + EndoClip	Pneumothorax requiring angiocatheter decompression	N/A	1	None

EndoClip: Metal clip applied to esophageal mucosa; N/A: Not applicable in this non-survival study.

clinical evidence of mediastinitis or thoracic contamination. EUS has also been used to identify small mediastinal lymph nodes that could be targeted for sampling and complete removal^[23]. In cases where fine needle aspirates do not provide sufficient information, the preserved lymph node architecture obtained with this technique could provide a more definitive pathologic sample.

The use of transesophageal access to perform diagnostic and therapeutic interventions in the mediastinum and chest seems to be a growing possibility. To date, interventions in swine models have included lymph node biopsies and lymphadenectomy, pericardial fenestration, myocardial saline injections, pleural biopsy, and the creation of a pericardial window among others^[21,23]. A current summary of experience with transesophageal access to the mediastinum and thoracic cavity is detailed in Tables 1-2. Overall, the results are promising and propose an array of intrathoracic interventions that could be accomplished with less post-operative and chronic pain. While several factors prevent large studies being carried out in swine models, larger, randomized studies are needed to compare procedure times and outcomes to standard thoracoscopic interventions.

ESOPHAGOTOMY CLOSURE

An important part of performing NOTES procedures

in humans lies in the esophagotomy closure technique and the ability to prevent infectious complications. Sumiyama *et al*^[24] and Gee *et al*^[21] have performed survival studies in swine without the use of a closure device. Both studies included the creation of a submucosal tunnel. Perhaps unexpectedly, these studies demonstrated good clinical outcomes and no evidence of large abscesses or mediastinitis. One group has experimented with endoscopic suturing devices for the closure of transesophageal entry sites^[23]. While the endoscopic sutures successfully closed the mucosal defects in the esophagus, there were remaining defects in the esophageal muscular wall on necropsy. More recently, a group reported the first use of resorbable sutures at transgastric NOTES access sites, which could have applicability to esophageal sites as well^[25]. It is unclear whether the use of endoscopic sutures or the submucosal tunneling technique will be superior in allowing proper healing of the transesophageal exit conduit without infectious complications. Animal trials comparing the outcomes of these different techniques have not yet been published.

It is possible that placement of an esophageal stent may prove useful in some cases and produce better outcomes than endoscopic suturing or the tunneling techniques. In humans, observational studies have looked at the utility of esophageal stent placement following

esophageal perforations. One such study looked at 15 patients with non-malignant spontaneous or iatrogenic esophageal perforations treated with self-expandable metal stents^[26]. The study demonstrated excellent outcomes in one group (7 patients) undergoing immediate stent placement following identification of the perforation. This group had a mean delay of 45 min from the time the perforation was identified to placement of the stent. The second group (8 patients) had poorer outcomes, including one death, and a median delay of 123 h to stent placement. In the setting of transesophageal procedures, stents could be immediately placed following procedures resulting in significantly better outcomes. A second study in a series of 9 patients with non-malignant gastrointestinal perforations of the esophagus and colon, as well as anastomotic leaks and complete disunion, suggested that covered stents might support a new concept of “stent-guided regeneration and re-epithelialization” that would aid in healing. Though observational evidence for stents seems promising, randomized trials remain to be performed to better assess their utility to treat luminal perforations as opposed to traditional surgical interventions.

BARRIERS TO CLINICAL PRACTICE

Problems with esophageal closure techniques, the risk of esophageal leaks, and infections including mediastinitis, pneumonia, and bacteremia are major concerns when attempting to access the chest cavity with a transesophageal route. Large studies investigating infectious complications have not been reported and are challenging to complete due to the limitations of animal models. The trials summarized in Table 2 suggest the rate of infectious complications could be low. Human trials investigating transgastric instrumentation of the peritoneal cavity do report contamination of the peritoneal cavity, but the contamination was found to be clinically insignificant^[17, 27, 28].

Other adverse events including bleeding and pneumothoraces are significant complications in human thoracoscopic procedures^[29,30]. These complications have also been observed in swine NOTES thoracic studies. Conventional interventions such as needle decompression or use of chest tubes can be performed, though there has never been a need for chest tube placement in the animal studies reviewed in Table 2. Researchers have also turned their attention to improving methods of hemostasis. Fritscher-Ravens *et al*^[31] conducted a randomized controlled study comparing different methods of obtaining endoscopic hemostasis following artificially induced hemorrhage in the peritoneal cavity. The study assessed several methods of hemostasis including an endoscopic suturing device, prototype monopolar electrocautery forceps, and forced argon plasma coagulation (FAPC). In the end, FAPC was found to have significantly faster times in controlling bleeding and in achieving complete cessation of blood

loss when compared to the other methods. It will be important to extend these studies to look at hemostatic methods in the chest since vessels within the chest, including intercostal arteries and veins, can be difficult to access due to surrounding bony structures (i.e. ribs and vertebral bodies).

In a systematic review of thoracic NOTES procedures, mortality was found to be 5% and morbidity 19% when combining all published studies of thoracic-related studies using a NOTES technique^[32]. This review included two studies in which thoracic procedures were accomplished with a transvesicular, transdiaphragmatic, or transgastric approach, while the remaining five studies were transesophageal. The morbidity and mortality found in the combined studies represent one of the major challenges in creating a new, minimally invasive technique and underscores the technological improvements that are necessary to move transesophageal NOTES to human clinical applications.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

A foundation for potential transesophageal NOTES thoracic procedures has been established. Moving forward, there is a need for studying the hemodynamic and physiologic consequences of these transesophageal interventions. In the literature, studies have been performed on the effects of carbon dioxide insufflation during transthoracic thoracoscopy^[33]. This study of 32 consecutive patients demonstrated that intrapleural pressures of 2-14 mmHg did not have significant adverse hemodynamic consequences and that insufflation at pressures of < 10 mmHg were safe. Studies will need to be performed examining the consequences of controlled endoscopic insufflation with room air versus the use of carbon dioxide regulated insufflation and other potential consequences of an esophageal entry site.

Future work will continue to focus on potential infectious complications and how to best prevent these occurrences. The field will also need continued instrument development to improve hemostatic ability when bleeding complications occur or when transesophageal surgical resections are performed. Finally, a closure device and/or technique permitting full thickness closure of the esophageal wall without the development of an esophageal wall abscess, stricturing, or discontinuous muscular wall closure needs further development.

CONCLUSION

Transesophageal NOTES is a promising platform that may offer hope for a less invasive means of accessing the mediastinum and chest cavity. The continued relationships of surgeons, gastroenterologists, and researchers in industry are crucial for the development of devices that will permit better endoscopic control

and precision during planned operative procedures. Technological advances remain to be made that will make transesophageal NOTES a viable approach in humans, however, preliminary studies suggest this technique is of great potential to the field of thoracic surgery.

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Operable malignant jaundice: To stent or not to stent before the operation?

Rungsun Rerknimitr, Pinit Kullavanijaya

Rungsun Rerknimitr, Pinit Kullavanijaya, Division of Gastroenterology, Department of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok 10310, Thailand

Author contributions: Rerknimitr R reviewed the literature and wrote the paper; Kullavanijaya P commented on and reviewed the paper.

Correspondence to: Rungsun Rerknimitr, MD, Division of Gastroenterology, Department of Internal Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok 10310, Thailand. ercp@live.com

Telephone: +66-2-2564265 Fax: +66-2-2527839

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Abstract

Traditionally, pre-operative biliary drainage (PBD) was believed to improve multi-organ dysfunction, and for this reason, was practiced worldwide. Over the last decade, this concept was challenged by many reports, including meta-analyses that showed no difference in morbidity and mortality between surgery with, and surgery without PBD, in operable malignant jaundice. The main disadvantages of PBD are seen to be the additional cost of the procedure itself, and the need for longer hospitalization. In addition, many studies showed the significance of specific complications resulting from PBD, such as recurrent jaundice, cholangitis, pancreatitis, cutaneous fistula, and bleeding. However, the results of these studies remain inconclusive as to date there has been no perfect study that equally randomized comparable patients according to the level of obstruction and technique used for PBD. Generally, endoscopic stent insertion (ES) is preferred for common duct obstruction, whereas endoscopic nasobiliary drainage and percutaneous biliary drainage is reserved for hilar obstruction, since ES in hilar block confers a high rate of cholangitis. Although, there is no guideline which either supports or refutes this approach, certain

subgroups of patients, including those with symptomatic jaundice, cholangitis, impending renal failure, hilar block requiring preoperative portal vein embolization, and those who need pre-operative neoadjuvant therapy, are suitable candidates for PBD.

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Key words: Biliary drainage; Surgery; Complication; Morbidity; Mortality

Peer reviewer: Juan J Vila Costas, MD, Gastroenterology Department, Hospital de Navarra, c/Irunlarrea, 3, Pamplona 31.008, Spain

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INTRODUCTION

Liver, gallbladder, bile duct and pancreas share a common embryologic origin and also play their parts as the common etiologies for resectable biliary related tumors^[1]. Malignant biliary obstruction presents mainly as jaundice and pruritus. In a prolonged obstruction, multi-organ dysfunction including renal failure, cardiac dysfunction, pulmonary dysfunction, poor hepatic metabolism and hemostasis impairment^[2-7] may develop. This, in turn, can compromise the outcome of surgery. For years, it has been a routine practice to achieve pre-operative biliary drainage (PBD), either by means of an endoscopically placed stent (a plastic stent, nasobiliary tube, or a removable metallic stent) or by means of a percutaneously placed catheter (either externally or a combination of external and internal drainage). However, the benefit of PBD has not

been confirmed and some studies^[8,9] reported that many patients may be harmed by developing procedure-related complications. Conversely, other^[10-13] showed a lower rate of intra-abdominal abscess in the PBD group.

OVERVIEW

There are 2 early meta-analyses^[14,15] which reported on the overall morbidity, stent-related morbidity, post-operative morbidity and mortality in obstructive jaundice patients with or without PBD, who underwent surgery. The first meta-analysis demonstrated no difference in mortality rate between the two groups; however the overall complication rate was shown to be adversely affected by PBD^[14]. By contrast, another meta-analysis reported no adverse effects after preoperative endoscopic biliary stent placement when compared with direct surgery^[15]. Another 2 recent meta-analyses^[16,17] neither supported nor refuted pre-operative biliary drainage, since they also found no difference in mortality between the 2 groups. More importantly, these 2 analyses showed similar results on stent-related complications, and these were observed to be the significant cause for the higher rate of the overall morbidity^[16,17]. After excluding stent related complications, the meta-analysis focusing on the endoscopically drained patients showed that post-surgical complications were significantly less in the stented group^[16]. The other meta-analysis^[17] showed no difference in the overall morbidity. However, it demonstrated a higher incidence of post-procedural cholangitis from the endoscopically treated group. It is thought that the higher rate of endoscopically-related morbidity in this analysis was due to the inclusion of a study^[18] that contained a significant number of patients with hilar obstruction who had had a failed endoscopic drainage.

There are many factors that limit the usefulness of these analyses for current practice. Firstly, different types of biliary drainage were used, so that the patient-groups who underwent internal or external biliary drainages were not homogeneous. Theoretically, the physiology of enterohepatic circulation is disrupted by external drainage, and this, in turn, may result in disruption of intestinal barrier integrity^[19,20]. It is thought that, compared to internal drainage methods, external drainage may possibly increase the patient's risk of developing intestinal bacterial translocation. Secondly, there was a mixture of patients with different types of malignant tumors in those studies and, more importantly, the locations of the biliary obstruction varied. There were a significant number of patients with proximal biliary obstruction who underwent PBD. We know that the rate of post endoscopic drainage cholangitis is quite high in patients with proximal biliary obstruction^[18,21,22]. Inadequate subsegmental drainage is the main cause of this complication. Thirdly, variation in preoperative and post-operative care among different institutions may also have contributed to varying results in the overall complication rates. For instance, preoperative biliary drainage is associated with a higher rate of bacterial contamination and a different

pattern of antibiotic resistance of the bacteria cultured from bile^[23]. *Enterobacteriaceae* is typically found in no-stent patient whereas mixed organisms, including the *Enterococcus* species can be found more commonly in bile from patients with stent^[23,24]. Hence use of more broad spectrum antibiotics, which cover both *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Enterococcus* can result in better bacterial coverage in the stented group. Lastly and most importantly, the heterogeneity of patients and methods of recruited articles in those analyses is our biggest concern^[14-17]. The early two meta-analyses contain a majority of non-randomized controlled trials (RCT). There were 18 retrospective cohort studies in the total 23 recruited trials in the Sewnath *et al*^[14] analysis, and there were 8 retrospective cohort studies amongst the total 10 recruited trials in the Saleh *et al*^[15] analysis. Another meta-analysis from Mumtaz *et al*, contained only 2 RCTs^[16]. The latest meta-analysis by Wang *et al*^[17] recruited 5 RCTs, and this analysis seems to contain the best quality of trials, however, key components of trial methodology (allocation sequence, allocation concealment, and follow-up) in those trials were considered to pose a significant risk of bias.

In addition, post ERCP pancreatitis was an important contributory factor in the calculation of the morbidity rate in those who underwent PBD during 1982-2000^[14,16,17]. In those days, temporary pancreatic stenting in difficult cannulation was not routinely performed. Currently, this technique has become a common means of decreasing the rate of post-ERCP pancreatitis^[25]. If those PBD studies were repeated nowadays, and included prophylactic temporary pancreatic stenting, the results would not be the same, and the PBD method might be supported more widely.

Overall, the standard practices for PBD at different centers vary, and this in turn can yield a wide margin for the differences in success rate and morbidity. Nevertheless, the authors still believe that there is a balance between pros and cons of PBD in malignant biliary obstruction. Careful selection of each patient in order to select appropriate candidates for PBD is very important before sending any patient to surgery. Later, special preparation, care, and management tailored to the needs of each individual patient undergoing PBD, must be implemented.

THE CASE TO GO FOR PBD

Although PBD may not be beneficial in all malignant biliary obstructed patients, certain patients may be selected to undergo PBD (Table 1).

Symptomatic jaundiced patient

Whilst awaiting surgery, intractable pruritus is a devastating condition. Despite the use of many agents and plasmapheresis to relieve pruritus, biliary diversion sometimes is the only way to improve this condition, as it reduces the serum bile salt level in the enterohepatic cycle^[26]. Although the role of bile acid reduction after biliary drainage in the mediation of pruritus has not been confirmed^[27], there have nevertheless been some

Table 1 Indication for pre-operative biliary drainage

Symptoms
Pruritus
Renal impairment
Acute cholangitis
Hilar block requiring portal vein embolization prior to surgery
Pancreatic cancer undergoing preoperative chemotherapy
Delay in surgery

reports which demonstrate a transient relief of pruritus within 24 h after biliary drainage^[28,29].

Fluid and electrolyte balance have to be precisely maintained in all biliary obstructed patients undergoing surgical resection. Lactulose and a bile salt supplement can offer renal protection^[30]. However, in patients with pre-existing renal impairment, these measures may not be enough to prevent the development of acute renal failure. Some surgeons may therefore advocate the patient undergoing PBD prior to surgery.

Patients with acute cholangitis

Although de novo case of acute cholangitis in patients with malignant biliary obstruction is quite unusual, ampullary tumors, intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasm (IPMN), and biliary papillomatosis are certain conditions that acute cholangitis may develop spontaneously^[31-33]. For this subgroup of patients, biliary decompression plays an important role in the management of acute cholangitis and this, in turn, can reduce the operative mortality and morbidity^[34].

Certain hilar obstructed patients

In the past, central hepatectomy was the standard surgical technique for hilar cholangiocarcinoma. With the use of surgery and the introduction of portal vein embolization (PVE), typical major hepatectomies including right or left hepatectomy, and right or left trisectionectomy have increasingly been performed^[35-37]. After PVE of the affected lobe, the enlarged contralateral lobe that is preserved from embolization is supposed to carry out all hepatic functions^[38]. A report from Nagoya, Japan, showed that the risk of post-operative liver failure in the group who underwent PVE dropped from 33% to 23%^[38]. However, a delay of at least 3 wk is advised before the contralateral lobe is fully able to compensate and the patient is ready for hepatectomy^[39]. PBD is therefore needed as a bridge for this package. Practically, unilateral PBD in a hilar block is sufficient and the preferred side for drainage is the future remnant lobe^[40]. However, bilateral drainage is considered in the following situations: patients with pre-existing cholangitis; patients who develop post-procedural cholangitis, despite board-spectrum antibiotics, and additional drainage from the same side; and patients with persistent jaundice. Apart from the discomfort from nasal irritation, endoscopic nasobiliary drainage (ENBD) is the preferred initial technique that has replaced percutaneous transhepatic

biliary drainage (PTBD) in many Japanese endoscopy centers^[40-42] and PTBD is currently reserved as a salvage method in patients with suboptimal endoscopic drainage who develop subsegmental cholangitis. In addition, because of the higher risk of cholangitis reported in advanced hilar blocks^[21,22] and the fear that duodenal fluid could flow back into the biliary tree, endoscopic stent placement (ES) is not recommended in this group.

Patients requiring neoadjuvant therapy

Traditionally, radio-chemotherapy for pancreatic cancer was administered post-operatively. Unfortunately, this strategy had limited success. Recently, these neoadjuvant agents have been given pre-operatively, with the objective of tumor down-staging and in the expectation of a higher number of complete resections^[43]. To minimize the toxicity from chemotherapy, many of these patients with obstructive jaundice will benefit from PBD prior to the treatment protocol. However, to date, no randomized trials comparing neoadjuvant with no adjuvant therapies given preoperatively have yet been conducted.

THE DISADVANTAGES OF PBD

The disadvantages of PBD can be reviewed in terms of morbidity, mortality, and cost of treatment when compared with the group without PBD.

The majority of studies did not demonstrate any difference in the overall morbidity and mortality between those patients undergoing PBD and those with no drainage. Only an early study from UCLA in 1985 showed a slightly, but not significantly, higher rate of morbidity in patients having undergone PBD than the no PBD group (57% *vs* 53%)^[44]. In addition, the total number of days for hospitalization was longer in the PBD group (31.4 d *vs* 23.1 d), and in 1985 the estimated cost relating to both the additional stay in hospital and the cost of the procedure was more than \$US 8000^[44]. In contrast, a study reported by a group from New York University^[45] demonstrated a shorter hospital stay in the PBD group than in non-PBD group (13.5 d *vs* 19 d, $P = 0.02$). Moreover, PBD group tended to have fewer overall complications ($P = 0.054$). This study suggested that “the increased cost of preoperative ERCP and PBD may be offset by the decreased length of hospitalization and decreased complication rate”^[45]. The important difference between the two studies was the technique for PBD. The first study used PTBD, and the second, ES. Better fluid and electrolyte control and an improvement in immune response resulting from ES may play an important role in the different results found. Of note, the majority of the cases in these two studies involved patients with common bile duct obstruction.

Post-operative fistula is a common complication of bilio-pancreatic resection, leading to prolonged hospitalization, increased cost of treatment and delayed further adjuvant therapy. The largest retrospective study^[46] by a group from John Hopkins on patients who underwent pancreaticoduodenectomy ($n = 567$) reported

a higher incidence of pancreatic fistula (10% *vs* 4%, $P = 0.02$) and wound infection (10% *vs* 4%, $P = 0.02$) in the PBD group, whereas other smaller studies ($n = 38-257$) have not shown significant incidence of fistula development in PBD groups^[44,47-49].

Intra-operative hemorrhage is an important factor in morbidity and mortality of patients undergoing surgery. Only one small study^[50] reported a higher volume of intra-operative bloodloss in the PBD group than the undrained group (1207 mL *vs* 1122 mL), whereas other larger studies have failed to demonstrate the different effects of PBD or the lack of PBD on these issues^[45,46,48,49].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a routine PBD for every patient undergoing bilio-pancreatic surgery is not recommended. PBD carries with it risks of recurrent cholangitis, pancreatitis, cutaneous fistula development, and intra-operative hemorrhage. These can result in a prolonged hospital stay and increase in the total cost of therapy. However, the rate of pancreatitis may be reduced by temporary pancreatic stenting. At this moment we can advocate PBD only in a certain subset of patients, including those with symptomatic jaundice, cholangitis, impending renal failure, hilar block requiring PVE, and those who need pre-operative neoadjuvant therapy.

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Osteoclastic and pleomorphic giant cell tumors of the pancreas: A review of clinical, endoscopic, and pathologic features

Jill C Moore, Joel S Bentz, Kristen Hilden, Douglas G Adler

Jill C Moore, Kristen Hilden, Douglas G Adler, Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Utah School of Medicine, Salt Lake City, UT 84132, United States

Joel S Bentz, Department of Pathology, University of Utah School of Medicine, Salt Lake City, UT 84132, United States

Author contributions: Moore JC, Adler DG, Hilden K Writing and approving manuscript; Bentz JS, review and approval of pathology content.

Correspondence to: Douglas G Adler, MD, Associate Professor of Medicine, Therapeutic Endoscopy, Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Huntsman Cancer Center, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84132,

United States. douglas.adler@hsc.utah.edu

Telephone: +1-801-5815036 Fax: +1-801-5818007

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Abstract

Giant cell tumors of the pancreas come in three varieties-osteoclastic, pleomorphic, and mixed histology. These tumors have distinctive endoscopic, clinical, and cytological features. Giant cell tumors have a controversial histogenesis, with some authors favoring an epithelial origin and others favoring a mesenchymal origin. The true origin of these lesions remains unclear at this time. These are also very rare tumors but proper identification and differentiation from more common pancreatic adenocarcinoma is important. The risk factors of these tumors and the prognosis may be different from those associated with standard pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Recognition of these differences can significantly affect patient care. These lesions have a unique appearance when imaged with endoscopic ultrasound (EUS), and these lesions can be diagnosed *via* EUS guided Fine Needle Aspiration (FNA). This manuscript will review the endoscopic, clinical, and pathologic features of these tumors.

INTRODUCTION

Giant cell tumors of the pancreas have distinctive endoscopic, clinical, and cytological features. Giant cell tumors have a controversial histogenesis, with some authors favoring an epithelial origin and others favoring a mesenchymal origin. The true origin of these lesions remains unclear and difficult to evaluate due to the rarity of the tumor. The risk factors of these tumors and the typical prognosis may be different from those associated with pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Recognition of these differences can affect patient care. These lesions have a distinct appearance when imaged with endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) as compared to typical pancreatic adenocarcinomas, and these lesions can be diagnosed *via* EUS- guided Fine Needle Aspiration (FNA). This paper will review the endoscopic, clinical, and pathologic features of these tumors.

EPIDEMIOLOGY AND PATHOLOGY

Pancreatic cancer is the second most common gastrointes-

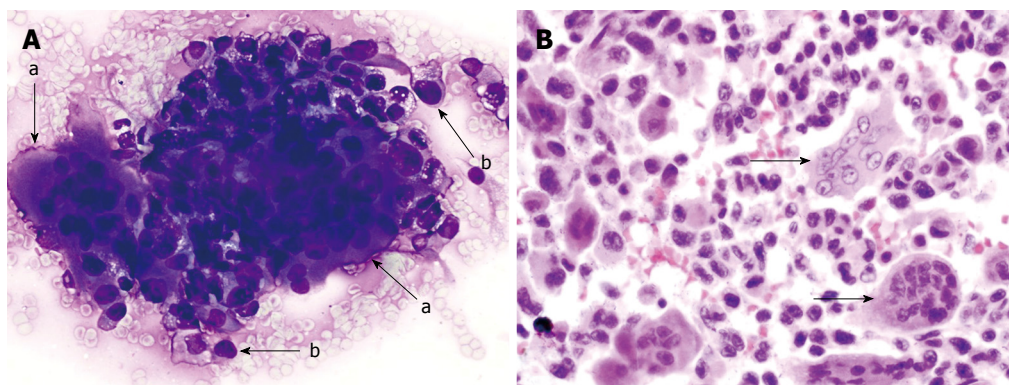


Figure 1 Osteoclastic giant cell tumor of pancreas. A: Endoscopic-ultrasound guided fine needle aspirate specimen of a pancreatic mass. The smear slide contains a loose admixture of osteoclastic-giant cells admixed with oval to polygonal mononuclear cells (a-arrow). The individual giant cells have multiple bland appearing nuclei. The pleomorphic mononuclear cells are usually more numerous than the giant cells (b-arrow). (Romanowsky stain); B: A tissue section from the pancreatectomy specimen. The neoplasm contains a scattering of osteoclastic multinucleated giant cells with bland nuclei (arrows). These giant cells lie in a background of atypical mononuclear cells with pleomorphic nuclei. (HE stain).

tinal malignancy. The majority of patients with pancreatic masses develop adenocarcinoma^[1]. Giant cell tumors (GCT) are rare pancreatic tumors, accounting for less than 1% of all pancreatic malignancies^[2]. There are few reported cases of either of these tumors in the published literature, with most authors reporting only one patient at a time^[2-5].

Three types of giant cell tumors are described: osteoclastic, pleomorphic, and mixed^[2,3]. Osteoclastic giant cell tumor (OGCT) resembles giant cell tumor of the bone, containing benign appearing osteoclast-like multinucleated cells and mononuclear cells^[3]. Pleomorphic giant cell tumor (PGCT) of the pancreas is a highly anaplastic neoplasm with bizarre pleomorphic mononucleated and multinucleated giant cells. The mixed variety has features seen in both OGCT and PGCT^[2]. Pleomorphic giant cell tumors and OGCT of the pancreas are often linked together in the literature because of the common pathological finding of giant cells. Case reports have described giant cell tumors of the pancreas with both pleomorphic and osteoclastic-like features (mixed type), suggesting some overlap in the diagnosis^[6].

Virtually all reported giant cell tumors of the pancreas have been diagnosed *via* surgery^[2-5]. Our group has previously reported a series of five patients with GCT, diagnosed *via* endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) with fine needle aspiration (FNA), demonstrating the efficacy of the technique in this setting^[7]. This represents the largest single institution series of patients with GCTs to date.

Similar to pancreatic adenocarcinoma, giant cell tumors of the pancreas tend to occur in the elderly^[8,9]. Giant cell tumors are reported roughly equally in women and men^[7]. Most patients with giant cell tumors of the pancreas present with epigastric pain and jaundice due to malignant biliary obstruction^[8]. Risk factors for the development of GCTs may differ from those of pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Our series noted no prior exposure to alcohol or tobacco, and no episodes of pancreatitis^[7].

Giant cell tumors have a controversial histogenesis, with some authors favoring an epithelial origin and oth-

ers favoring a mesenchymal origin^[4,7]. The true origin of these lesions remains unclear and difficult to evaluate due to the rarity of the tumor.

Giant cell tumors of the pancreas are considered a rare variant of adenocarcinoma, and currently are histopathologically classified as “undifferentiated carcinoma with osteoclast-like giant cells” by the World Health Organization^[10]. Some authors have divided GCT further into two distinct types^[11]. Osteoclastic-giant cell tumors are neoplasms dominated by benign-appearing osteoclast-like giant-cells closely resembling conventional giant-cell tumor of bone^[12]. (Figure 1A and B) Pleomorphic giant-cell tumor is a highly anaplastic malignancy with bizarre pleomorphic mononucleated and multinucleated giant-cells. (Figure 2A). This tumor usually lacks the osteoclast-like giant-cells but contains a prominent population of pleomorphic multinucleated giant-cells. (Figure 2B) Both types of GCT have bizarre mononuclear cells of oval, polygonal, or spindle morphology.

A small number of neoplasms showing a mixture of OGCT and PGCT patterns have been reported^[13]. Distinction of true OGCT of the pancreas from PGCT has not always been clearly documented and overlap of descriptions of these neoplasms appears to exist in the pathology literature. This may in part be due to the fact that hybrids of the two tumors have been reported histologically.

Based on immunohistochemical and ultra-structural study, a number of authors have favored an epithelial origin based in part on positive immunohistochemical staining for CEA and low molecular weight keratin in both the mononuclear and osteoclast-like giant-cells^[14-18]. Others have suggested a histiocyte/macrophage lineage for the osteoclast-like giant-cells^[19-22].

Primary GCT of the pancreas need to be separated from non-neoplastic giant-cell containing lesions of the pancreas and giant-cell containing neoplasms not arising within the pancreas. Langhans'-type giant cells associated with mycobacterial organisms have peripheral polarized nuclei and are often associated with epithelioid granulomas. Foreign-body-type giant-cells seen with fat necrosis

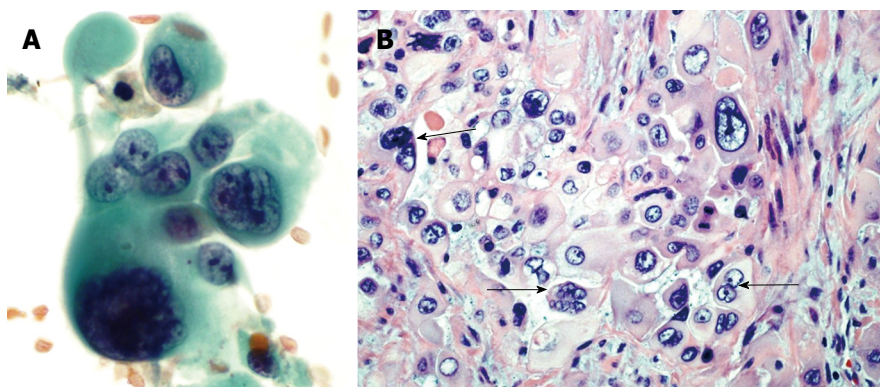


Figure 2 Pleomorphic giant cell tumor of pancreas. A: Endoscopic-ultrasound guided fine needle aspirate of a pancreatic mass. These tumors are characterized by a mixture of markedly atypical mono and multinucleated giant cells. Both the mononuclear and multinucleated giant cells have similar appearing anaplastic nuclei (Papanicolaou stain); B: A tissue section from the pancreatectomy specimen. The neoplasm contains multinucleated giant cells (arrows) with hyperchromatic large, bizarre irregular tumor cell nuclei similar to the atypical mononuclear cells in the background (HE stain).

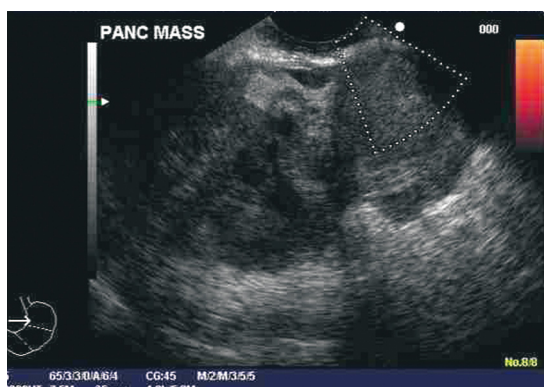


Figure 3 EUS image of a patient with an osteoclastic giant cell tumor of the pancreas. Note large size of mass and heterogeneous echotexture.

and some pseudo-cysts have centrally clustered bland nuclei or nuclei scattered throughout the cytoplasm. Necrotic debris often accompanies them in FNA smears. The anaplastic giant cells of PGCT appear to be inseparable from the giant-cells seen in giant cell variant of malignant fibrous histiocytoma (MFH). Thus, osteoclast-like giant-cell rich lesions arising in the pancreas appear to define the neoplasm designated OGCT of the pancreas. Anaplastic giant cells can be seen in a variety of neoplasms, including PGCT of the pancreas and giant-cell rich MFH.

IMAGING

Little data is available on the CT or MRI appearance of these lesions and no published studies have been specifically dedicated to the appearance of these lesions on imaging. Leighton and Shum describe one case of an OGCT appearing as a large, proteinaceous, fluid-filled cyst with a mural nodule upon imaging, but this appears to be an unusual appearance of a GCT^[23]. In our experience, these lesions tend to mimic more typical pancreatic adenocarcinomas except for the fact that they tend to be larger, with sizes of the primary tumor of 5-6 cm or greater. The EUS appearance of GCT differs from typical pancreatic adenocarcinoma^[7]. The echotexture of these tumors tends to be markedly heterogeneous with well demarcated hyperechoic and hypoechoic areas closely opposed within the same lesion. (Figure 3) This is in contrast to pancreatic adenocarcinomas which are

often more uniformly hypoechoic throughout. GCT also appear different than neuroendocrine tumors, which are hypoechoic compared to normal pancreatic tissue, or isoechoic with a hypoechoic ring^[24]. Vascular invasion is very typical of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, especially in lesions of the head and body of the gland^[25]. Head lesions in adenocarcinoma tend to involve the superior mesenteric vein or the portal vein, while body lesions tend to involve the celiac artery and superior mesenteric artery. In our series, no patients had any vascular involvement, a highly unusual finding for patients with large, bulky pancreatic tumors. Three patients in our series had malignant lymph nodes on diagnosis, in contrast to reported literature which tend to find an absence of malignant adenopathy^[2,11].

CLINICAL COURSE AND DISCUSSION

OGCT of the pancreas are less aggressive and may confer a better prognosis when compared to either pancreatic adenocarcinoma or PGCT^[11,26,27]. Osteoclastic giant cell tumors may metastasize more slowly. Reported series note fewer patients with metastases at the time of diagnosis^[11,26,27]. OGCT may have a better response to surgical resection and/or chemotherapy^[28]. In our series we identified unique clinical and pathologic features^[7]. All five patients were diagnosed *via* EUS FNA. None of these tumors had any vascular involvement although three patients had malignant adenopathy identified on EUS. It is thought that PGCT behaves like pancreatic adenocarcinoma, with a similarly poor prognosis^[2]. OGCT have a better prognosis in reported cases when compared to adenocarcinomas^[7,8,10,11,29]. Prognosis is challenging to determine as limited outcome data is available in these patients^[11].

The published survival data on patients with OGCT varies greatly (4 mo to 15 yr)^[8,10,11,29]. It is suggested that the survival difference may be related to variations in histogenic origin, with tumors of mesenchymal origin having a better prognosis when compared to those of epithelial origin^[8]. Our series contained five patients, three PGCT, one mixed, one OGCT, and reported variable outcome partially due to histology^[7]. The three patients with pleomorphic cytology chose palliative care as their only therapy. These patients died at a mean of 12.3 wk

from diagnosis. A single patient with mixed cytology underwent pylorus-preserving pancreaticoduodenectomy 19 d after EUS diagnosis followed by one cycle of gemcitabine (dose unavailable) and Tarceva 100. Shortly thereafter, a PET scan revealed recurrent disease in the pancreas and liver. At last evaluation, this patient was still alive more than 13 mo following their diagnosis. The fifth patient with purely osteoclastic cytology underwent a pancreaticoduodenectomy, segment 2 hepatic segmentectomy and radiofrequency ablation of five liver lesions 17 d after EUS diagnosis, followed by local radiation therapy (37.5 Gray in 15 fractions), as well as six cycles of gemcitabine (700 mg/m² = 1218 mg IV over 70 min on days 1, 8 and 15 of each cycle with dexamethasone 8 mg IV prior to each infusion). This patient was still alive greater than 18 mo from diagnosis.

The pleomorphic form is thought to behave much like pancreatic adenocarcinoma, with a similarly poor prognosis^[2]. The published survival data on patients with OGCT varies greatly (4 mo to 15 yr)^[10,11,29,30]. It is suggested that the survival difference may be related to variations in histogenic origin, with tumors of mesenchymal origin having a better prognosis when compared to those of epithelial origin^[30].

Similar to pancreatic adenocarcinoma, giant cell tumors of the pancreas tend to occur in the elderly^[9,30]. Giant cell tumors are reported roughly equally in women and men. In our study, the average age at diagnosis was > 60, similar to pancreatic adenocarcinoma, with a 3:2 male to female ratio^[7].

Most patients with giant cell tumors of the pancreas present with epigastric pain and jaundice due to malignant biliary obstruction^[8]. The largest series reported that two patients presented with painless jaundice, two with epigastric pain, and one with polymyalgia rheumatica who later developed epigastric pain^[7].

Prognosis in patients with GCT appears similar to that seen in pancreatic adenocarcinoma overall. In our series, three patients died an average of 3.3 mo from diagnosis, one patient was fairly recently diagnosed with recurrent disease but alive thirteen months from diagnosis, and one patient is still alive eighteen months from diagnosis. It is notable that the three deceased patients all had purely pleomorphic histology. The patient with early recurrence had mixed cytology with both pleomorphic and osteoclastic histology. The patient still living without known evidence of disease has purely osteoclastic histology, consistent with previously reported OGCT data^[10,11,29,30].

With regards to treatment, there is little published data to guide clinicians. Lesions that appear to be surgically resectable should undergo operative intervention. Some patients with GCTs have undergone standard chemotherapy and/or radiation therapy as used in pancreatic adenocarcinoma, but no firm guidelines are available.

CONCLUSION

Giant cell tumors of the pancreas are rare and have

unique clinical, endoscopic, and pathologic findings that differentiate them from more commonly encountered pancreatic adenocarcinomas. The risk factors for these lesions may also differ from pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Clinicians should be aware of these lesions as their recognition may play a role in treatment and clinical outcome, although specific guidelines for treatment of these tumors as compared to pancreatic adenocarcinomas are lacking.

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Endoscopic approach for diagnosing autoimmune pancreatitis

Terumi Kamisawa, Hajime Anjiki, Kensuku Takuma, Naoto Egawa, Takao Itoi, Fumihide Itokawa

Terumi Kamisawa, Hajime Anjiki, Kensuku Takuma, Naoto Egawa, Department of Internal Medicine, Tokyo Metropolitan Komagome Hospital, Tokyo 113-8677, Japan

Takao Itoi, Fumihide Itokawa, Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Tokyo Medical University, Tokyo 113-8677, Japan

Author contributions: Kamisawa T wrote the paper; Kamisawa T, Anjiki H, Takuma K, Egawa N, Itoi T, and Itokawa F collected data.

Correspondence to: Terumi Kamisawa, MD, PhD, Director, Department of Internal Medicine, Tokyo Metropolitan Komagome Hospital, 3-18-22 Honkomagome, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8677, Japan. kamisawa@cick.jp

Telephone: +81-3-38232101 Fax: +81-3-38241552

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is useful to diagnose AIP, as well as to exclude PC.

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Key words: Autoimmune pancreatitis; Pancreatic cancer; Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography; Endoscopic ultrasonography-Fine needle aspiration; IgG4

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Abstract

It is of utmost importance to differentiate autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP) from pancreatic cancer (PC). Segmental AIP cases are sometimes difficult to differentiate from PC. On endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography, long or skipped irregular narrowing of the main pancreatic duct (MPD), less upstream dilatation of the distal MPD, side branches derived from the narrowed portion of the MPD, absence of obstruction of the MPD, and stenosis of the intrahepatic bile duct suggest AIP rather than PC. Abundant infiltration of IgG4-positive plasma cells is frequently and rather specifically detected in the major duodenal papilla of AIP patients. IgG4-immunostaining of biopsy specimens obtained from the major duodenal papilla is useful for supporting a diagnosis of AIP with pancreatic head involvement. On endoscopic ultrasonography (EUS), hyperechoic spots in the hypoechoic mass and the duct-penetrating sign suggest AIP rather than PC. EUS and intraductal ultrasonography sometimes show wall thickening of the common bile duct even in the segment in which abnormalities are not clearly observed with cholangiography in AIP patients. EUS-guided fine needle aspiration, especially EUS-guided Tru-Cut biopsy,

INTRODUCTION

Autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP) is a recently identified clinical entity of pancreatitis in which it is suspected that autoimmune mechanisms are involved in the pathogenesis. AIP is characterized clinically by elderly male preponderance, frequent initial symptom of obstructive jaundice without pain, occasional association with impaired pancreatic endocrine or exocrine function, various extrapancreatic lesions, and a favorable response to steroid therapy. AIP is characterized radiologically by irregular narrowing of the main pancreatic duct (MPD) and enlargement of the pancreas; and serologically by elevation of serum IgG, or IgG4 levels, and the presence of some autoantibodies. Histopathological characteristics are dense lymphoplasmacytic infiltration with fibrosis and obliterative phlebitis in the pancreas^[1-3]. Since there is currently no diagnostic serological marker, and as it is usually difficult to take adequate specimens from the pancreas, AIP is currently diagnosed based on a combination of clinical, laboratory, and imaging studies^[4-6]. In 2006, the Japan Pancreas Society proposed the "Clinical

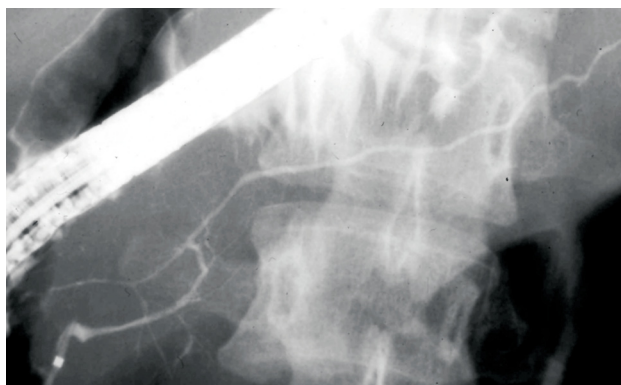


Figure 1 Diffuse irregular narrowing of the main pancreatic duct of an AIP patient on ERP.

Diagnostic Criteria for Autoimmune Pancreatitis”^[4]. It contained three items: (1) radiological imaging showing diffuse or localized enlargement of the pancreas and diffuse or segmental irregular narrowing of the MPD; (2) laboratory data showing abnormally elevated levels of serum gammaglobulin, IgG or IgG4, or the presence of autoantibodies; and (3) histological findings showing marked interlobular fibrosis and prominent lymphoplasmacytic infiltration in the pancreas. To make the diagnosis of AIP, criterion 1 is mandatory, and either criterion 2 or criterion 3 must be present.

AIP responds dramatically to steroid therapy and therefore to avoid unnecessary surgery, an accurate diagnosis of AIP is required. The most important disease that should be differentiated from AIP is pancreatic cancer (PC)^[1-3,7]. Serum IgG4 levels are elevated most frequently in AIP patients. However, the sensitivity of elevated serum IgG4 levels in AIP patients is reported to be 73%-80%^[8,9], and elevation of serum IgG4 level is detected in some cases of PC^[10,11]. In particular, AIP forming a mass-like lesion in the head of the pancreas is sometimes difficult to differentiate from locally advanced pancreatic head cancer. Based on our experience with 50 cases of AIP, this review focuses on the endoscopic approach for diagnosing AIP, with special emphasis on differentiating AIP from PC.

ENDOSCOPIC RETROGRADE CHOLANGIOPANCREATOGRAPHY

Diffuse irregular narrowing of the MPD on endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) is one of the radiological features rather specific to AIP (Figure 1). PC rarely shows this pancreatogram. However, some AIP patients show segmental narrowing of the MPD (Figure 2A), which is rather difficult to differentiate from stenosis of the MPD in PC. In our series^[12], the length of the narrowed portion of the MPD on endoscopic retrograde pancreatography (ERP) was 6.7 ± 3.2 (mean \pm SD) cm in AIP patients, which was significantly longer than in PC patients (2.6 ± 0.8 cm; $P < 0.001$). The length of the narrowed portion of the MPD on ERP was longer than 3 cm in 76% of AIP patients, which was significantly

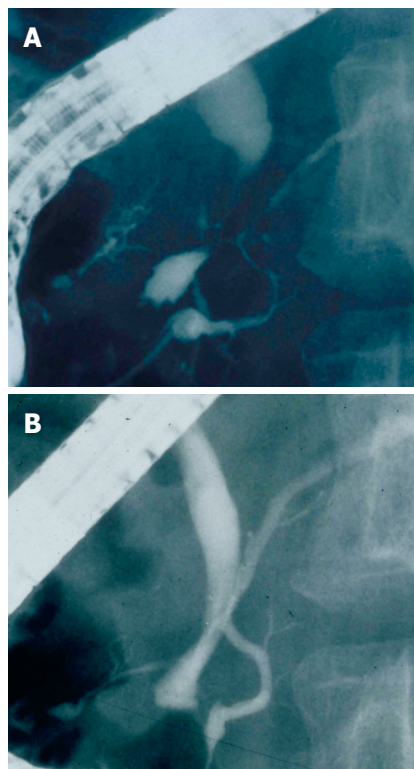


Figure 2 ERCP findings of an AIP patient. A: Segmental narrowing of the main pancreatic duct and stenosis of the lower bile duct before steroid therapy; B: After steroid therapy, stenosis of the main pancreatic duct and bile duct is improved.

higher than in PC patients (20%; $P < 0.001$). In AIP patients, the degree of narrowing of the MPD varied in the same patient, and skipped, narrowed lesions of the MPD were detected in 35% of our AIP patients, but in none of our PC patients ($P < 0.001$). In AIP patients with segmental narrowing of the MPD, upstream dilatation of the distal MPD was less often noted than in PC. The maximal diameter of the upstream MPD on ERP was 2.9 ± 0.7 mm in segmental AIP patients, which was significantly smaller than in pancreatic head cancer patients (7.1 ± 1.9 mm; $P < 0.001$). The maximal diameter of the upstream MPD was smaller than 5 mm in 94% of segmental AIP patients, significantly higher than in PC patients (18%; $P < 0.001$). Side branches were more frequently derived from the narrowed portion of the MPD in AIP patients (65%) than in PC patients (25%; $P < 0.036$). Obstruction of the MPD was detected more often in PC patients (60%) than in AIP patients (6%; $P < 0.001$).

On endoscopic retrograde cholangiography, stenosis of the lower bile duct was detected frequently in both AIP and PC patients (Figure 2A). Brushing cytology of the stenotic biliary lesion and cytology of the bile via an endoscopic nasobiliary drainage tube inserted to manage jaundice, are useful to differentiate AIP from pancreatic or biliary cancer. Stenosis of the intrahepatic bile duct was detected in a few AIP patients, but it was not detected in PC patients. When AIP patients develop stenosis in the intrahepatic bile duct, the cholangiographic appearance is similar to that of primary sclerosing cholangitis

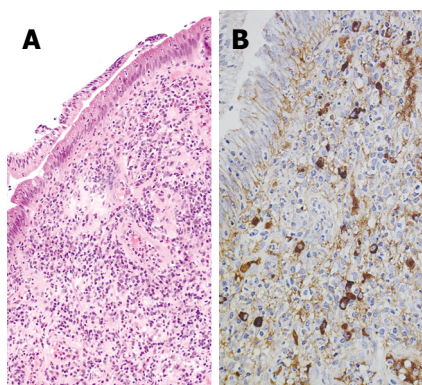


Figure 3 Immunohistochemistry of biopsy specimen taken from the major duodenal papilla of an AIP patient. A: HE staining showing significant lymphoplasmacytic infiltration; B: IgG4 immunostaining showing significant infiltration of IgG4-positive plasma cells ($10 \geq 10/\text{HPF}$).

(PSC)^[13,14]. A long stricture was detected in the hepatic hilar region in AIP patients involving the intrahepatic bile ducts, but the diffusely distributed, beaded and pruned-tree appearance, that is usually detected in PSC patients was not detected in AIP patients^[12,13]. Stenosis of the hilar bile duct in AIP patients should be also differentiated from cholangiocarcinoma at the hepatic hilus, these diseases can be differentiated by the absence of the pancreatic abnormalities in patients with cholangiocarcinoma at the hepatic hilus.

Both pancreatic and biliary lesions improve 2-4 wk after starting oral steroid therapy (initial prednisolone dose: 30 mg/d) (Figure 2B). A poor response to steroid therapy should raise the possibility of PC and the need for re-evaluation of the diagnosis.

ENDOSCOPIC OBSERVATION AND BIOPSY OF THE MAJOR DUODENAL PAPILLA

The major duodenal papilla is sometimes swollen in AIP patients^[15]. In our series, swelling of the major duodenal papilla was detected endoscopically in 24% (12/50) of AIP patients. Histologically, dense lymphoplasmacytic infiltration and fibrosis is detected in the swollen major duodenal papilla (Figure 3A), similar to that seen in the pancreas of AIP patients. Furthermore, abundant infiltration of IgG4-positive plasma cells in the papilla is frequently and specifically detected in AIP patients. In our study of IgG4-immunostaining in biopsy specimens from the major duodenal papilla^[16,17], severe infiltration of IgG4-positive plasma cells [$\geq 10/\text{HPF}$ (high power field)] was observed in the major duodenal papilla of all 8 AIP patients with pancreatic head involvement (Figure 3B). Moderate infiltration of IgG4-positive plasma cells (9-4/HPF) was detected in 1 patient with pancreatic head cancer, but there were also rare ($\leq 3/\text{HPF}$) IgG4-positive plasma cells infiltrating the major duodenal papilla in 2 AIP patients who only had pancreatic body and/or tail involvement, in 9 patients

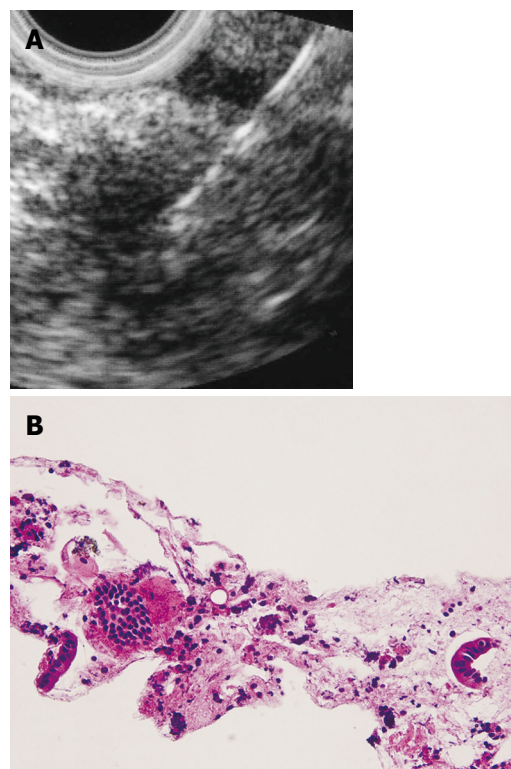


Figure 4 A hypoechoic mass in an AIP patient. A: Endoscopic ultrasonography finding. EUS-FNA was performed to this mass lesion; B: Histology of the specimen gained by EUS-FNA (HE).

with pancreatic cancer, and in 10 patients with papillitis. IgG4-immunostaining of biopsy specimens obtained from the major duodenal papilla is useful for supporting a diagnosis of AIP with pancreatic head involvement. After steroid therapy, the swollen major duodenal papilla decreases on endoscopy, and the number of IgG4-positive plasma cells in repeat biopsy specimens from the major duodenal papilla decreases.

ENDOSCOPIC ULTRASONOGRAPHY AND INTRADUCTAL ULTRASONOGRAPHY

Endoscopic ultrasonography (EUS) imaging of AIP shows hypoechoic enlargement of the pancreas with hypoechoic spots. A lobular outer gland margin of the pancreas or a hyperechoic pancreatic ductal margin, which is frequently detected in alcoholic chronic pancreatitis, is rarely observed in AIP patients. A hypoechoic mass lesion detected in segmental AIP patients is difficult to differentiate from PC (Figure 4A). Hyperechoic spots in a hypoechoic mass and the duct-penetrating sign suggest AIP rather than PC. Hyperechoic spots may correspond to compressed pancreatic ducts. The lower bile duct, corresponding to the stenotic portion on ERCP, shows marked wall thickening with a smooth configuration of the outermost layer on EUS and intraductal ultrasonography (IDUS)^[18]. This finding suggests that the bile duct wall thickening itself causes the biliary stenosis, and that it is not caused by extrinsic compression from inflamma-

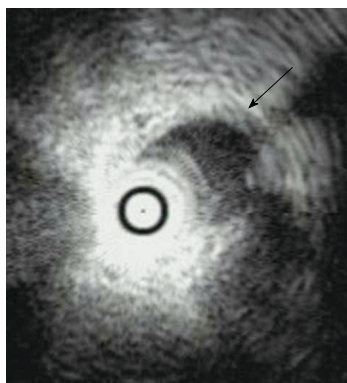


Figure 5 Intraductal ultrasonography finding of an AIP patient showing wall thickening of the common bile duct without stenosis (arrow).

tory pancreatic tissue in AIP. EUS and IDUS sometimes show wall thickening of the common bile duct even in the segment in which abnormalities are not clearly observed on cholangiography in AIP patients (Figure 5)^[19].

ENDOSCOPIC ULTRASONOGRAPHY-GUIDED FINE NEEDLE ASPIRATION AND ENDOSCOPIC ULTRASONOGRAPHY-GUIDED TRU-CUT BIOPSY

Endoscopic ultrasonography-guided fine needle aspiration (EUS-FNA) can be safely performed at the same time as diagnostic EUS, and it will become an established technique to evaluate pancreatic masses. In segmental AIP cases, EUS-FNA is useful to exclude the possibility of PC. The presence of cellular stromal fragments with prominent lymphocytosis either within the stroma or in the background can support a clinical diagnosis of AIP (Figure 4B)^[20]. Furthermore, the presence of many IgG4-positive plasma cells in the aspirated specimen examined by IgG4-immunostaining provides more support for the diagnosis of AIP. However, cytological examination of EUS-FNA specimens is sometimes insufficient for diagnosing AIP due to the small sample and lack of tissue architecture. To overcome the limitations of needles which only allow cytological review, large caliber cutting biopsy needles have been developed that acquire samples in which tissue architecture can be assessed and histological examination performed. Endoscopic ultrasonography-guided Tru-Cut biopsy (EUS-TCB) acquires core specimens that preserve tissue architecture and permit histological review and diagnosis of AIP. Histological features vary, but the most common finding is fibrosis and an intense inflammatory cell infiltrate comprised mostly of lymphocytes and plasma cells, usually surrounding medium- and large-sized interlobular ducts accompanied by an obliterative phlebitis predominantly involving venules. According to a Mayo Clinic study, TCB specimens were considered diagnostic or strongly suggestive in 12/14 AIP patients^[21].

CONCLUSION

It is most important to differentiate AIP from PC. Long

or skipped narrowed portions with side branches of the main pancreatic duct without upstream dilatation, and stenosis of the intrahepatic bile duct on ERCP suggest AIP rather than PC. IgG4-immunostaining of biopsy specimens obtained from the major duodenal papilla is useful for supporting a diagnosis of AIP with pancreatic head involvement. On EUS, hyperechoic spots in a hypoechoic mass and the duct-penetrating sign suggest AIP rather than PC. EUS-FNA, especially EUS-TCB, is useful to diagnose AIP, as well as to exclude PC.

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ERCP in acute biliary pancreatitis

Dimitrios J Kapetanios

Dimitrios J Kapetanios, Gastroenterology Department, George Papanikolaou Hospital, Thessaloniki 57010, Greece

Author contributions: Kapetanios DJ wrote this paper.

Correspondence to: Dimitrios J Kapetanios, MD, PhD, Gastroenterology Department, George Papanikolaou Hospital, Thessaloniki 57010, Greece. dkapetan@otenet.gr

Telephone: +30-2313-307102

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Abstract

The role of urgent endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) in acute biliary pancreatitis is for many years a subject for disagreement among physicians. Although the evidence seemed to be in favor of performing ERCP, endoscopists usually hesitate to conform to the guidelines. ERCP is an invasive procedure, with complications which can affect patients' outcome. Recent evidence suggests that we should probably modify our policy, recruiting less invasive procedures, like magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography and endoscopic ultrasound, before conducting ERCP in patients with acute biliary pancreatitis. In this editorial the different aspects regarding the role of ERCP in acute biliary pancreatitis are discussed.

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Key words: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography; Acute pancreatitis; Gallstone; Magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography; Endoscopic ultrasound

Peer reviewers: Akira Horiuchi, MD, Director, Digestive Disease Center, Showa Inan General Hospital, Komagane 399-4191, Japan

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INTRODUCTION

The pathogenesis of acute biliary pancreatitis is attributed to transient obstruction of the bile and pancreatic duct, which causes reflux of bile and duodenal content in the pancreatic duct or/and increases the hydrostatic pressure in the pancreatic duct^[1]. The severity of pancreatitis is determined by the size of the following local and systemic inflammatory reaction that depends on the interaction of multiple factors probably including genetic predisposition. It has been suggested by animal models and human studies that the duration of bile duct obstruction is a critical factor contributing to the severity of pancreatitis^[2-5]. Pancreatic necrosis develops more often when the duration of obstruction exceeds 48 h. This obstruction may be constant, due to an impacted stone, or intermittent, when a stone remains in the bile duct or multiple stones try to pass the ampulla.

Initial surgical attempts to decompress the bile duct soon after the diagnosis of pancreatitis failed, because they were associated with increased mortality in the urgent surgery group^[6,7]. Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) is a less invasive method to clear the bile duct, so it could favorably affect the severity of biliary pancreatitis if utilized properly. On the other hand, it is difficult to perform ERCP in a patient with acute pancreatitis, because the duodenum and ampulla are swollen and the patients' physical condition is compromised. Thus, we should have strong evidence to attempt an urgent invasive procedure which is inconvenient for both the patient and the doctor.

Four randomized studies have been published the last twenty years and they will be reviewed in the light of two recent meta-analyses. We should address in advance that each of those studies focused in different populations, so the results must be interpreted within this context.

Neoptolemos *et al*^[8] studied patients with probable biliary pancreatitis, stratified according to severity based on the modified Glasgow criteria. They found that patients with predicted severe pancreatitis had fewer complications if they underwent ERCP within 72 h (24% vs 61%, $P < 0.01$). When patients with acute cholangitis were excluded

the difference remained (15% *vs* 60%, $P = 0.003$). It is reasonable to exclude patients with acute cholangitis from the studied population because the coexistence of acute pancreatitis and cholangitis is accompanied by higher rate of complications, therefore these patients are the most probable to benefit from early ERCP^[9].

A few years later Fan *et al*^[10] published a similar study in a mixed population, but only 66% of them had biliary pancreatitis. The pancreatitis severity was predicted by serum urea and plasma glucose levels, a system with disputed value^[11]. ERCP was performed within 24 h after admission. In the subgroup with biliary stones (a stone located in any part of the biliary tract) the authors from Hong Kong also found, in agreement with the Leicester study, that the early ERCP group with predicted severe pancreatitis had fewer complications (13% *vs* 54%, $P = 0.002$), although one half of the conservative treatment group eventually underwent ERCP (median time 60 h). Patients with cholangitis were not excluded in that study but were offered ERCP irrespectively of the assigned group.

The results of those studies suggested that patients with predicted severe acute biliary pancreatitis should have urgent ERCP.

IS THIS TRUE OR THE FAVORABLE RESULTS COME FROM THOSE PATIENTS WITH IMPACTED COMMON DUCT STONES AND PERSISTING OBSTRUCTION?

The study of Folsch *et al*^[12] tried to answer this question by excluding patients with bilirubin level higher than 5 mg/dL. The modified Glasgow criteria were used to predict severity and ERCP was performed within 72 h after the onset of pain. This study was prematurely terminated because an interim analysis found that the primary goal (superiority of ERCP treatment) could not be reached. The rate of morbidity and mortality was similar between the invasive and conservative treatment group. Mortality in the severe pancreatitis group was 6/26 in the ERCP arm and 2/20 in the conservative arm ($P = 0.44$)^[13]. A worrying finding was an estimated 8% mortality in the mild pancreatitis group who underwent ERCP (5.4% in the conservative treatment group, $P = 0.7$) which was much higher than that observed in other studies^[13]. The rate of respiratory failure was significantly higher in the ERCP group, which could not be explained by the authors. This study highlights that ERCP is an invasive procedure, with complications that can affect patients' outcome.

IS THERE A SUBGROUP OF PATIENTS WITH ACUTE BILIARY PANCREATITIS WHO COULD BENEFIT FROM EARLY ERCP?

Twenty years ago Neoptolemos *et al*^[14] found in a retro-

spective study that more patients with severe pancreatitis had bile duct stones 72 h after the attack (61% *vs* 35%) and even 3-30 d after the attack (50% *vs* 24%) than patients with mild pancreatitis ($P < 0.01$). In a randomized study Acosta *et al*^[15] tested the hypothesis that it is the duration of bile duct obstruction that determines the outcome of biliary pancreatitis and not the presence of stones *per se*. The authors subjected to ERCP the patients enrolled in the intervention arm, if signs of obstruction persisted over 24 h. Indications of obstruction were severe and continuous epigastric pain, bile free gastric aspirate and elevated serum bilirubin, while relief of pain, decrease of bilirubin level and reappearance of bile in the gastric aspirate were signs of spontaneous termination of obstruction. Half of the patients in the intervention group eventually underwent ERCP. When discontinuation of the obstruction occurred spontaneously or after ERCP in less than 48 h, the rate of complications was lower than in cases with obstruction lasting more than 48 h (8% *vs* 78%, $P < 0.001$).

According to the above results it would be reasonable to assume that patients with persisting biliary obstruction could benefit from urgent ERCP. In a study that could be regarded supplementary to that of Folsch *et al*^[12], Oria *et al*^[16] randomized patients with signs of obstruction (main bile duct diameter ≥ 8 mm and total serum bilirubin ≥ 1.20 mg/dL) without cholangitis, to urgent ERCP within 72 h after the onset of the attack or to conservative treatment. The incidence of complications was similar between the two groups. Bile duct stones were found in 72% of patients with predicted mild pancreatitis (APACHE II score) and in 73% of patients with predicted severe pancreatitis. These results intrigued the results by Neoptolemos *et al*^[14].

A Cochrane meta-analysis of the first three trials (Neoptolemos *et al*^[14], Fan *et al*^[10] and Folsch *et al*^[12]) concluded that early ERCP decreases significantly the rate of complications in patients with predicted severe pancreatitis^[17]. A recent meta-analysis from Italy included the aforementioned studies and added the study of Oria *et al*^[16] and one study from China with disputable randomization^[18-20]. The authors reached the same conclusions with the Cochrane meta-analysis. They also stated that excluding the Chinese study the results would be similar^[19]. Another meta-analysis, which was published concurrently, approached this issue excluding patients with acute cholangitis^[21]. Petrov *et al*^[21] included the trials by Neoptolemos *et al*^[14], Folsch *et al*^[12] and Oria *et al*^[16] and excluded the study by Fan *et al*^[10] because it did not provide separate data on acute cholangitis. This meta-analysis failed to prove a substantial benefit from early ERCP even in patients with predicted severe pancreatitis. The authors noted that even in the case they had included the study by Fan *et al*^[10], the results would not differ.

Each of the previous studies and consequently the meta-analyses should be interpreted within the context of several limitations: First, the diagnosis of acute cholangitis in a patient with inflammatory reaction due to acute pancreatitis is cumbersome and until recently there

were no specific criteria^[22]. Second, the criteria used for prediction of pancreatitis' severity (APACHE II, Glasgow) have low positive predictive value (50%-60%), which means that about half of those predicted to have severe pancreatitis actually prove to have mild pancreatitis. How could someone evaluate the effectiveness of a given intervention, if half of the patients would probably not benefit and the intervention itself may affect morbidity and mortality in both ways? Third, stones were eventually found in only half of the patients who underwent ERCP, which means that ERCP would not benefit half of those in whom an indication for the intervention was determined and the procedure could possibly deteriorate their clinical condition.

The UK guidelines for the management of acute pancreatitis advocate urgent therapeutic ERCP in every patient with suspected gall stone etiology and predicted severe pancreatitis or when there is cholangitis, jaundice or a dilated common bile duct^[23]. The indications for early ERCP in the AGA Institute review on acute pancreatitis are more restricted^[24]. According to these guidelines, early ERCP should be performed in patients with cholangitis or when there is suspicion of persistent common bile duct stone (a dilated common bile duct or visible common bile duct stone, or jaundice or persistently abnormal liver chemistry values). Urgent ERCP in predicted severe pancreatitis without concomitant cholangitis or high suspicion of a persistent common bile duct stone is controversial.

Medical community appears reluctant to conform to these guidelines as clearly shown in a recent study from UK^[25]. Physicians complied with all the UK guidelines except for urgent ERCP for severe acute pancreatitis. Only 48% of patients with this indication finally underwent ERCP within 72 h. Difficulties in transferring patients to specialized centers capable to perform ERCP and in providing ERCP out of hours may have contributed to these results. It was obvious that urgent ERCP was reserved for patients with severe gallstone pancreatitis who had biliary obstruction or cholangitis. Nevertheless this policy did not increase the mortality of acute pancreatitis. The same viewpoint is also encountered in the USA^[26].

According to the Tokyo guidelines a definite diagnosis of cholangitis is reached when there are two or more of the following i.e. (a) history of biliary disease, (b) fever and/or chills, (c) jaundice (d) upper abdominal pain and in addition, laboratory evidence of inflammatory response and abnormal liver function tests and imaging findings of biliary dilatation or of specific etiology (e.g. a stone, in the case of pancreatitis)^[22]. The diagnosis of cholangitis in a patient with severe acute biliary pancreatitis with systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) could be problematic. From the aforementioned criteria only the imaging finding of an impacted stone could differentiate superimposed cholangitis on acute pancreatitis from pancreatitis with SIRS.

MRCP is useful in the diagnosis of biliary obstruction, although it should not be recommended in a patient with

unstable condition who could not be monitored in the MRCP chamber^[27]. Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) can also detect biliary obstruction, at least equally to MRCP^[28,29]. These procedures could be applied before ERCP, if they are available, therefore ERCP would be reserved for patients with strong evidence of biliary obstruction.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, (1) early ERCP should be reserved for patients with acute cholangitis superimposed to acute pancreatitis; (2) There is no indication for urgent ERCP in patients with mild pancreatitis without cholangitis; and (3) In cases with severe biliary pancreatitis the differential diagnosis between acute cholangitis and pancreatitis with SIRS may be difficult. In those patients every effort should be made to identify biliary obstruction, including MRCP and EUS when accessible, before resorting to ERCP.

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Endoscopic balloon dilation for benign gastric outlet obstruction in adults

Rakesh Kochhar, Suman Kochhar

Rakesh Kochhar, Department of Gastroenterology, Postgraduate Institute of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh 160012, India

Suman Kochhar, Department of Radiodiagnosis, Government Medical College and Hospital, Chandigarh 160020, India

Author contributions: Kochhar R wrote this paper; Kochhar S provided the radiological support and pictures.

Correspondence to: Rakesh Kochhar, Professor, Department of Gastroenterology, Postgraduate Institute of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh 160012, India. dr_kochhar@hotmail.com

Telephone: +91-172-2715016

Fax: +91-172-2744401

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Abstract

Gastric outlet obstruction (GOO) includes obstruction in the antropyloric area or in the bulbar or post bulbar duodenal segments. Though malignancy remains the most common cause of GOO in adults, a significant number of patients have benign disease. The latter include peptic ulcer disease, caustic ingestion, post-operative anastomotic state and inflammatory causes like Crohn's disease and tuberculosis. Peptic ulcer remains the most common benign cause of GOO. Management of benign GOO revolves around confirmation of the etiology, removing the offending agent *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*), non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, etc. and definitive therapy. Traditionally, surgery has been the standard mode of treatment for benign GOO. However, after the advent of through-the-scope balloon dilators, endoscopic balloon dilation (EBD) has emerged as an effective alternative to surgery in selected groups of patients. So far, this form of therapy has been shown to be effective in caustic-induced GOO with short segment cicatrization and ulcer related GOO. In the latter, EBD must be combined with eradication of *H. pylori*. Dilation is preferably done with wire-guided balloon catheters of incremental diameter with the aim to reach the end-point of 15 mm. While it is recommended that fluoroscopic control be used for

EBD, this is not used by most endoscopists. Frequency of dilation has varied from once a week to once in three weeks. Complications are uncommon with perforation occurring more often with balloons larger than 15 mm. Attempts to augment efficacy of EBD include intralesional steroids and endoscopic incision.

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Key words: Gastric outlet obstruction; Endoscopic balloon dilation; *Helicobacter pylori*; Management; Adult; Benign

Peer reviewer: Tian-Le Ma, MD, Department of Gastroenterology, Rui Jin Hospital Affiliated to Medical College of Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200040, China

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INTRODUCTION

Gastric outlet obstruction (GOO) includes obstruction in the antropyloric area or in the bulbar or post bulbar duodenal segments. Though malignancy remains a common cause of GOO in adults^[1,2], a significant number of patients with GOO have benign causes. Among the latter are peptic ulcer disease, caustic ingestion, post-operative anastomotic state and inflammatory causes such as Crohn's disease and tuberculosis. Less often, chronic pancreatitis, annular pancreas and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug-included strictures result in GOO (Table 1). Peptic ulcer disease is the most common cause of benign GOO. After the association between *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) and peptic ulcer was recognized, less than 5% patients with complicated duodenal ulcer disease and less than 1%-2% with complicated gastric ulcer disease have developed this

complication^[3,4]. Patients with ulcer related GOO often have a long history of symptoms due to ulcer disease^[5]. In a study carried out in the United States, only 14% of 85 patients with ulcer-related GOO had acute disease and obstruction was the initial manifestation of the disease^[6]. It has been estimated that > 95% of cases of obstructing duodenal ulcer disease have the obstruction in the duodenal bulb, and the rest were in the postbulbar region^[4]. Caustic ingestion is another important cause of benign GOO. Both acid ingestion and alkali ingestion can cause antral/pyloric scarring resulting in GOO^[7,8]. About one third of patients with ingestion of strong caustics end up having GOO. In a study of 41 cases of acid ingestion, it was reported that 44.4% developed GOO^[7], while in another study on alkali ingestion, 36.8% of 31 patients developed GOO^[8].

EVALUATING PATIENTS WITH BENIGN GASTRIC OUTLET OBSTRUCTION

Unless the cause of GOO is obvious from the antecedent history, such as caustic ingestion, prior surgery, or known peptic ulcer disease, one must exclude malignancy in all adult patients by endoscopy and biopsy. A CT scan is very helpful in evaluating mural thickening, lymphnode enlargement and status of pancreas, biliary tract and retroperitoneum^[4]. *Linitus plastica* can often be difficult to diagnose^[4]. Barium studies are helpful in delineating the site of obstruction as well its extent.

MANAGEMENT

All patients with symptoms of persistent GOO should be admitted to the hospital. Mild cases may be managed on an out-patient basis, however, those with fluid and electrolyte imbalance should be hospitalized. The principles of fluid and electrolyte resuscitation are: (1) intravenous volume resuscitation with normal saline; (2) replacement of potassium losses; and (3) periodic measurements of electrolytes and arterial pH^[4].

Nasogastric decompression should be instituted in all patients on hospitalization. It is especially useful in relieving pain in patients who have edema and spasm due to active ulceration. It also facilitates endoscopic examination at a later stage. Quite often, after 48-72 h of decompression and institution of proton pump inhibitors, patients feel better with subsidence of edema and spasm. Some of them will not require further treatment, while others will require a definitive treatment. Depending upon the likelihood of malignancy, a CT scan should be ordered first followed by endoscopy.

INTERVENTION

If the GOO is irreversible, or is caused by fibrotic scarring, rather than edema and spasm, it requires a definitive treatment. Until the advent of endoscopic balloon dilation (EBD), surgery was the only treatment for these

Table 1 Benign causes of gastric outlet obstruction

Peptic ulcer disease
Caustic ingestion
Benign tumors
Adenoma
Lipoma
Stromal tumors
Carcinoid
Inflammatory causes
Acute pancreatitis
Chronic pancreatitis
Crohn's disease
Cholecystitis
Eosinophilic gastroenteritis
Inflammatory polyp
NSAID induced strictures/rings
Iatrogenic
Post surgical scarring or anastomotic stricture
Postvagotomy
Endoscopic mucosal resection
Other causes
Tuberculosis, CMV, Cryptosporidium,
Annular pancreas
Adult hypertrophic pyloric stenosis
Duplication cyst
Amyloidosis
Bouveret's syndrome
Bezoar

NSAID: Nonsteroidal anti-Inflammatory drug; CMV: Cytomegalovirus.

patients. In the past, approximately 80%-90% of all patients with ulcer-related GOO had surgery^[6]. In one study, about 60% of patients with ulcer-related GOO required surgery in the first hospitalization and 20% on subsequent hospitalization^[9]. For caustic-induced GOO, surgery was the only option available as well^[10]. However, recent data suggest that EBD is an effective alternative to surgery in a majority of patients with ulcer-related and caustic induced GOO^[11-19]. Of course, patients with a possibility of malignancy would not be candidates for EBD. In inflammatory conditions like Crohn's disease or infection like tuberculosis causing GOO, specific treatment for the antecedent disease is mandatory and may obviate the need for surgery or EBD.

EBD

The initial experience with EBD in patients with GOO was with fluoroscopic guided balloon catheters. However, with the advent of through-the-scope (TTS) balloon dilating catheters, EBD has become the first line of therapy in a majority of patients with benign GOO^[20]. Benjamin *et al*^[21,22] were the first workers to report the use of EBD in two studies. They combined endoscopic placement of guidewire with fluoroscopically-guided balloon dilation to treat GOO. Of the 7 patients in these two reports, only one required surgery^[22]. Subsequently, a number of reports appeared highlighting the safety and efficacy of the procedure^[11-20]. The use of wire-guided TTS balloons has further facilitated the procedure.

EQUIPMENT

The currently used pyloric balloon dilators are available from a number of manufacturers. The balloons are available in lengths of 5.5-8.0 cm and are inflated using a hydrostatic device that is attached to a pressure gauge. Two types of balloons are currently available, one which can be dilated to a single diameter (Olympus SWIFT Balloon Dilators, Microvasive Rigiflex balloon) and the other ones that can be dilated to pre-fixed increasing diameters depending on the pressure with which they are inflated, e.g. CRE® dilators from Boston Scientific Inc and Quantum TTC® Balloon Dilators from Wilson Cook.

The balloons are available in sizes of inflated diameters of 6 mm to 20 mm. The CRE and Quantum TTC® Balloon Dilators balloons have the advantage that the same balloon can be dilated to different diameters; e.g. from 10 mm to 12 mm, or 15 mm to 18 mm, making the procedure simple. The pyloric balloon dilators have an inner lumen with a flexible radio-opaque guide-wire in it, which can be used to negotiate tight strictures, and the balloon can be rail-roaded over the wire for optimal positioning.

GUIDELINES FOR BALLOON DILATION

Patient selection

Only localized stricture of the stomach should be chosen. The site of gastric cicatrization is not important. CT scan to assess antral wall thickness may be a good modality to identify the “right patients” and to exclude malignancy. Endosonography may also emerge as a useful adjunct in this regard, especially in helping direct intralesional steroid injections.

Patient preparation

Prior to the procedure, the patient should be kept fasting for 8-12 h. A gastric decompression should be carried on using a wide bore Ryles’ tube in patients who have gastric residue. Aspiration of gastric contents should be done to ensure a clearer view and to prevent regurgitation of contents into the air-passages. The patient’s diet should be restricted to liquids only, in those with severe stenosis. The patient should be taken into confidence about the need for the procedure, the surgical alternatives and possible complications, and an informed consent should be obtained. Patients are given pharyngeal anesthesia and conscious sedation administered along with hyoscine butylbromide injection prior to the procedure.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCEDURE

An endoscopic examination is done to visualize the narrowed segment and to look for the presence of active ulcer disease. A wire-guided balloon is preferred over a non-wire guided balloon, as it allows greater maneuverability and aids passage across a stenosed or displaced pylorus. Using an over-the-wire TTS balloon, the guide

wire is pushed out of the balloon catheter tip and advanced through the stricture segment. Fluoroscopy is helpful to guide the placement of balloons in tight, tortuous and long strictures.

If the antral narrowing is associated with shortening of the lesser curvature of the stomach as well, it may be difficult to negotiate the lumen of the antrum because the plane of the antrum is at a right angle to the plane of the body. Since the capacity of the stomach is reduced in most such patients, the endoscope cannot be positioned along the long-route. It is best, in such instances, to insufflate as little air as possible and approach the narrowed segment from a distance with the balloon. However, it must be ensured that the endoscope is close to the narrowed segment when the balloon is inflated, otherwise the shaft of the balloon catheter can get kinked and the balloon can slip out of the narrowed segment. Another useful trick is to give a curve to the tip of the balloon catheter to gain access into the narrowed segment.

The balloon is negotiated across the stricture so as to ensure the centre of the stricture lies at the centre of the balloon. This can be ensured by using contrast mixed saline to inflate the balloon while using fluoroscopic assistance. The balloon is then inflated to a predetermined pressure using an inflation device. During inflation, care has to be taken that the balloon does not slip in or slip out of the stricture. Dilation of the balloons or a single balloon with incremental diameters can be used in the same session. The choice of the diameter of the balloon is made depending on the endoscopist’s subjective assessment of the luminal diameter. During the balloon inflation, the patient is monitored for pain and endoscopic observation made for bleeding or any tear. Post-procedure the patient is monitored for signs and symptoms of perforation and bleeding for 4-6 h. In patients with suspected perforation, a contrast study should be carried out immediately using water soluble contrast medium.

Stable patients are allowed a liquid diet on the same day. The procedure is repeated every 1-2 wk until the end point of 15-18 mm lumen is achieved (see below). Once the end point has been reached, patients should be followed up for recurrence of symptoms and repeat endoscopy should be performed to look for persistence or re-appearance of ulceration. In patients with *H. pylori* related peptic ulcer, eradication of *H. pylori* should be confirmed.

When should dilation be started?

Patients with peptic-GOO can be dilated any time after gastric decompression is done as most have chronic cicatrization. However in those with active ulceration one can wait for response to proton pump inhibitors. As stated previously, it is best to wait for 8 wk after caustic ingestion to allow for natural healing. There are no studies that show whether balloon dilation can be carried out in the sub-acute phase.

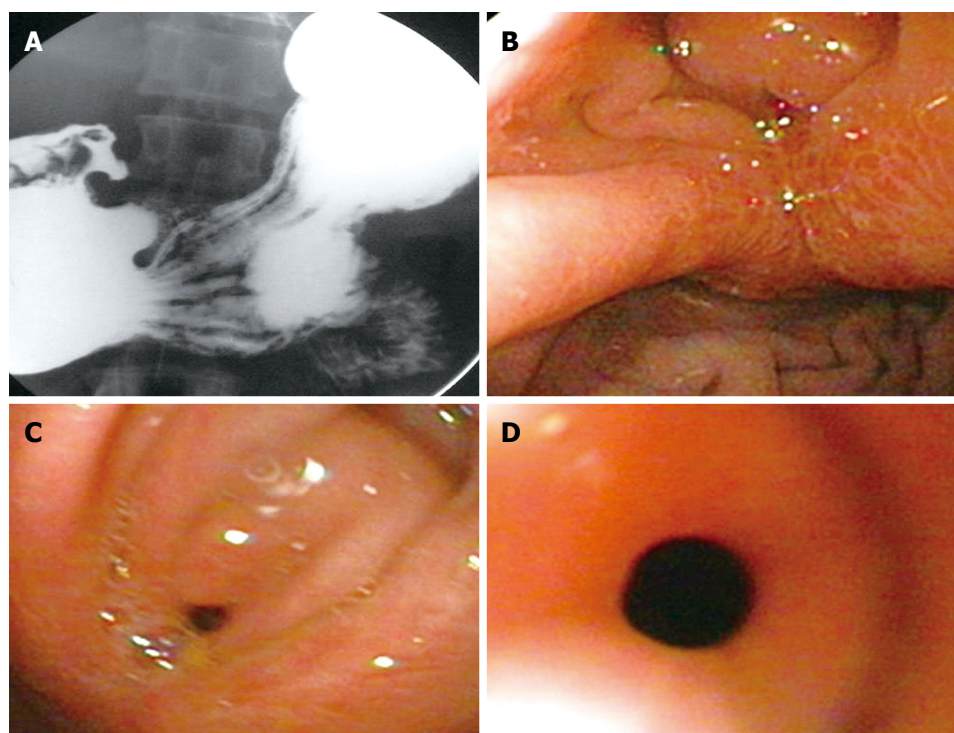


Figure 1 Panel showing barium study in a patient with peptic pyloric stenosis with trifoliate deformity of duodenal bulb (A), and endoscopic pictures at the beginning (B), after 2 dilations (C) and after 4 dilations (D).

How frequently should dilation be done?

Although different workers have dilated at 1-3 wk intervals, we advocate weekly dilation in sub-acute phase of caustic ingestion to facilitate: (a) reaching the end point of 15 mm, in a short period of time; and (b) maintaining nutritional status of the patient. In patients in the chronic phase of caustic ingestion and peptic-GOO, dilation can be done once a week or once in 3 wk. Once adequate nutrition is ensured, the interval between dilations can be varied, taking into account the social circumstances; e.g. the distance the patient travels, etc.

Maintenance of nutrition

Since patients are likely to have symptoms of GOO, it is important to maintain nutrition during the period of dilation. Total parenteral nutrition is most effective, but affordability may pose a problem. We advocate naso-jejunal tube feeding after acute corrosive injury, \geq Gr 11b endoscopically until reepithelization is complete, which generally takes 6-8 wk before the patient is started on balloon dilation. If successful dilation can be carried out to 8-10 mm, an homogenized liquid diet can be allowed orally, ensuring adequate calorie and protein intake. As the stricture opens up, semisolids may be allowed. A good indicator of the adequacy of response to dilation is the residue seen before each dilation. In patients with peptic-GOO maintenance of nutrition is not a big problem as response to EBD is prompt.

OUTCOME OF ENDOSCOPIC BALLOON DILATION

Peptic GOO (Figure 1)

The results of EBD for peptic-GOO have been variable

because not all studies have taken into account compounding factors, such as the presence of *H. pylori*, use of NSAIDs, and compliance with proton pump inhibitor drug intake. Immediate relief with EBD has been universally found in most studies, but the long term response has varied from a dismal 16%^[19] to 100%^[15]. Studies that looked for and eradicated *H. pylori* have reported a good long term response in 70%-80% of patients over 9 to 98 mo of follow up^[12,13,18,23,24].

Boylan *et al*^[12] found that young age, long duration of symptoms needing more than one session of EBD and continuous use of NSAIDs were associated with adverse outcomes and predicted the need for multiple dilations and surgery. DiSario *et al*^[24] reported a longer length of the narrowed segment was a poor prognostic sign. Most of the studies have not commented upon the long-term use of proton pump inhibitors making comparisons between studies difficult.

Only a few studies have addressed the issue of *H. pylori* in these patients. Boylan *et al*^[12] reported results on 40 patients with peptic-GOO in which 28 had recurrent symptoms, of whom 12 required surgery. *H. pylori* infection was detected in 9 patients and all achieved eradication, with only 1 requiring surgery. Among the 31 patients who were negative for *H. pylori* or were not investigated for it, 11 required surgery. More recently, Lam *et al*^[25] compared the outcomes of 14 *H. pylori* positive patients with 11 who were negative for *H. pylori*. The response rate of EBD was 78.6% in the former and 45.4% in the latter. They also reported that, during a follow up of 24 mo, eradication of *H. pylori* combined with EBD was associated with 21% cases of ulcer complications such as bleeding or obstruction, as compared to 55% in the *H. pylori* negative group. Kochhar *et al*^[15] reported

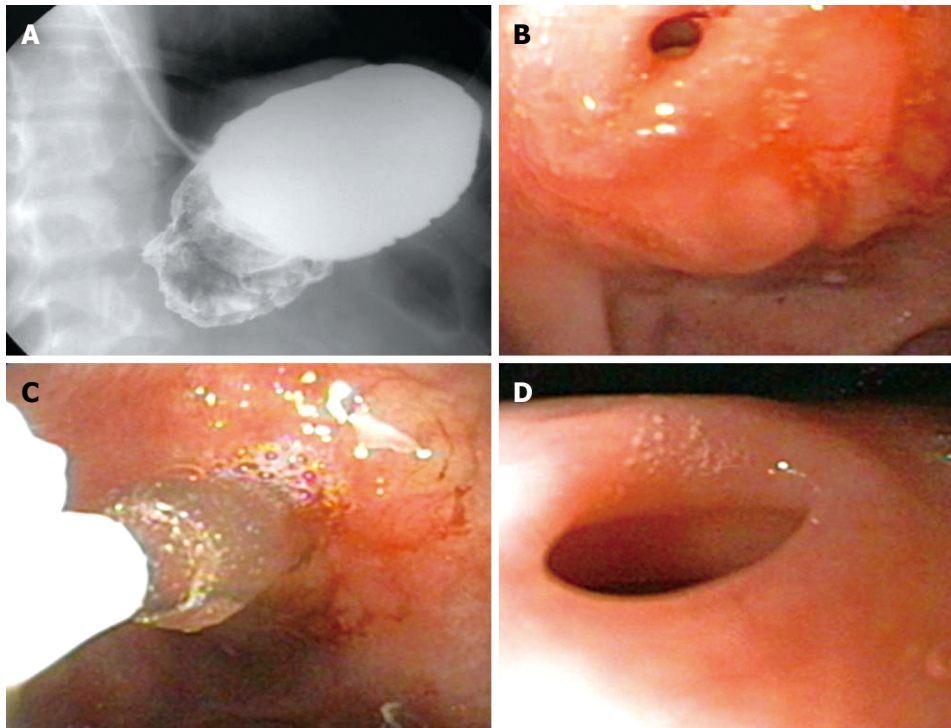


Figure 2 Panel showing barium study of a patient with caustic induced pyloric stenosis (A), and endoscopic pictures at beginning of dilation (B), with balloon *in-situ* (C) and after 6 dilations (D).

a 100% response rate in 11 patients, all of whom had successful eradication of *H. pylori* after 1-3 sessions of EBD. A study by Cherian *et al*^[17] also reported similar results. They subjected 21 patients to EBD for GOO (*H. pylori* = 12, NSAID-related = 3, both *H. pylori* and NSAID-related = 5 and others = 3). After eradicating *H. pylori* and removing the other offending cause, they achieved success in all their patients, with 17 of them requiring maintenance acid suppressive therapy.

The data quoted above shows that more than three-fourths of patients with peptic-GOO can be successfully treated with EBD provided *H. pylori* is eradicated, offending NSAIDs are stopped and maintenance acid suppressant therapy is given. The available literature, therefore, suggests that long term proton pump inhibitor usage may be required to prevent recurrences. However, prospective studies are needed to answer this question definitely.

Caustic-induced GOO (Figure 2)

Surgery has been the mainstay of treatment for caustic induced GOO, but recent reports suggest that EBD can be an effective alternative form of therapy in a select group of these patients^[15,26]. However, compared to peptic-GOO cases, these patients have more recurrences and require a larger number of EBD sessions. Solt *et al*^[13] studied 17 patients with caustic-GOO out of a total of 72 and only one-third had a long-term response with EBD.

Kochhar *et al*^[15] reported that 8 of their 23 patients with GOO had a history of caustic ingestion, and they required 2-9 sessions of EBD, as compared to 1-3 sessions for peptic-GOO cases. In another recent study on 41 patients, they showed that caustic-induced GOO could be treated with EBD in 39 of these patients, with no recurrences over 18-58 mo of follow up^[26]. The 39

patients required a mean of 5-8 sessions (range 2-13 sessions) to reach the end point of 15 mm. Only 2 patients failed to respond, one who had a perforation and another who had recurrent pain during each dilation. Only one patient had a supplementary procedure in the form of electrosurgical incision to augment the effect of EBD. However, they excluded patients with active ulceration and did not include patients with stricture length more than 2.5 cm.

Other causes

Chronic pancreatitis associated GOO is reported to be more resistant to EBD, and in one study all 4 such patients required surgery. Tuberculosis was incriminated as a cause of GOO by Misra and Dwivedi^[14] and they reported successful EBD in that patient. Anastomotic strictures following gastric resection have been treated with EBD by a few workers. Kozarek *et al*^[18] had 7 such patients, out of a total of 23 patients with GOO. Only 4 of the 7 patients with anastomotic strictures had good long-term responses.

GOO associated with use of NSAID use has also been treated with EBD by a few workers. Cherian *et al*^[17] have emphasized the fact that stopping NSAIDs is essential to successful long-term outcomes in these patients.

Patients with Crohn's disease causing GOO have also been subjected to EBD, with variable results. Murthy^[27] reported one case of obstructive Crohn's disease who underwent repeated sessions of EBD, but failed to respond. Solt *et al*^[13] also treated one such patient who did not respond and required surgery. Kim *et al*^[28], however, had a satisfactory response in one patient with postbulbar Crohn's disease, in whom they used fluoroscopically guided balloon dilation.

Anastomotic strictures following vertical band gastroplasty or gastric bypass surgery for morbid obesity have also been successfully dilated with balloon catheters endoscopically. In one such study, EBD was successful in 68% of the 40 patients studied^[29]. In a retrospective analysis, Solt *et al*^[13] found good responses in all 18 patients with postoperative strictures and 6 patients with postvagotomy functional stenosis. Fluoroscopically guided balloon dilation has also been equally successful with response rates as high as 94%^[30].

AUGMENTING THE EFFICACY OF ENDOSCOPIC BALLOON DILATION

A number of workers have used supplementary techniques to augment the effect of EBD. These include intralesional steroid injections and endoscopic incision of the strictures segment.

Combination of balloon dilation and intralesional steroid injections

We have reported use of intralesional steroids injection in patients with caustic GOO augmented the effect of balloon dilation^[31]. Two of these patients had failed to show satisfactory responses to balloon dilation while the third was given steroids right at the time of first dilation. All three patients responded with (1, 2 and 2) sessions of steroid injections. The idea of using steroids is to facilitate dilation and reduce recurrence. Intralesional steroid injections have been shown to inhibit stricture formation by interfering with collagen synthesis, fibrosis and chronic scarring^[32]. It has been suggested that triamcinolone presents the cross linking of collagen that results in scar contracture; so if the scar is stretched and steroid injected into it, presumably the contracture will not occur^[33]. Steroids also decrease the fibrotic healing that appears after dilation^[32]. Gandhi *et al*^[34] observed that with corticosteroid injections and dilation, longer corrosive esophageal strictures become shorter with time and thus more amenable to nonsurgical treatment. We have shown that intralesional steroid injections reduce the need for dilation in caustic esophageal strictures, and even longer strictures (> 3 cm) can be managed successfully^[35]. There is only one other report of use of intralesional steroids in pyloric stenosis apart from ours, in which Lee *et al*^[36] successfully treated two cases (one peptic, another post-pyloroplasty) with steroids and balloon dilations.

Endoscopic incision and balloon dilation

Baron *et al*^[37] used electrosurgical incision using a standard sphincterotomy to successfully treat a patient with pyloric stenosis resistant to EBD. Hagiwara *et al*^[38] used needle-knife radial incisions electrosurgically at gastroscopy combined with EBD in patients with refractory anastomotic pyloric stenosis. We have also used this technique in one of the patients with caustic-induced GOO, who had become pregnant while on a dilation programme^[26].

End point of balloon dilation

There is as yet no consensus on the issue of end point of balloon dilation. Kozarek *et al*^[18] felt that the effective balloon size required to dilate pyloric stenosis appears to be 41 Fr, as it achieves immediate relief in 80%. Most workers^[12,15-17,23,26] have used 15 mm balloons as the end point while some have dilated to 10 mm or 12 mm only^[13,18]. Rarely, balloons of 16 mm, 18 mm and 20 mm are used^[11,13,18]. Most workers inflate the balloon for 30 s to 60 s and repeat once again before withdrawing^[17]. While some workers have used a single session of dilation, others use repeat dilations at variable intervals. All these observations are on pyloric stenosis caused by peptic ulceration or anastomotic strictures. We have been more cautious than others; in our patients with peptic and caustic induced GOO, we dilate in step-wise manner, from 8 mm to 10 mm in the first few sessions, 10 mm to 12 mm in the next few sessions and 12 mm to 15 mm subsequently^[15,26].

Safety of balloon dilation

Hydrostatic balloon dilation is generally a safe procedure. Kozarek *et al*^[18] encountered one perforation out of 23 cases with peptic ulcer related stenosis. The balloon diameter used was not mentioned. Lau *et al*^[11] reported 4 perforations in 54 patients. Two of their 16 patients undergoing dilation with a 16 mm balloon had perforation while 2 of the 3 undergoing 20 mm dilation perforated, with none of the 10 undergoing 18 mm dilation having any complication. It thus seems that increasing the balloon diameter beyond 15 mm is more likely to be associated with perforation. Arterial bleeding has been rarely reported, though self limiting minor bleeding is not uncommon^[28]. Pain during EBD is not uncommon, but is often self limiting. In a recent study, 19.5% of patients with caustic-GOO had self-limiting pain during the procedure^[26].

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A prospective randomized trial of lafutidine vs rabeprazole on post-ESD gastric ulcers

Tomohiko Richard Ohya, Hiroki Endo, Kei Kawagoe, Tatsuro Yanagawa, Katsuhiro Hanawa, Ken Ohata, Masako Asayama, Kantaro Hisatomi, Takuma Teratani, Toshiaki Gunji, Hajime Sato, Nobuyuki Matsuhashi

Tomohiko Richard Ohya, Hiroki Endo, Kei Kawagoe, Tatsuro Yanagawa, Katsuhiro Hanawa, Ken Ohata, Masako Asayama, Kantaro Hisatomi, Takuma Teratani, Toshiaki Gunji, Nobuyuki Matsuhashi, Department of Gastroenterology, Kanto Medical Center, NTT East, 5-9-22 Higashi-gotanda, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo 141-8625, Japan

Hajime Sato, Department of Public Health, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Tokyo 108-0075, Japan

Author contributions: Ohya TR: data collection, analysis, interpretation; Endo H, Kawagoe K, Yanagawa T, Hanawa K, Asayama M, Hisatomi K, Teratani T: data collection; Ohata K: critical revision to article; Gunji T, Sato H: statistical analysis; Matsuhashi N: study design, drafting article.

Correspondence to: Dr. Nobuyuki Matsuhashi, MD, Department of Gastroenterology, Kanto Medical Center, NTT East, 5-9-22 Higashi-gotanda, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo 141-8625, Japan. nmatuha-ky@umin.ac.jp

Telephone: +81-3-34486245 Fax: +81-3-34486248

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tients), initial and 4-wk post-ESD ulcer sizes were 33.3 ± 9.2 and 10.5 ± 4.8 mm, respectively. In the rabeprazole group (34 lesions in 31 patients), the values were 34.7 ± 11.3 and 11.8 ± 6.7 mm, respectively. Ulcer size reduction rates in lafutidine and rabeprazole groups were 32.3% and 33.5%, respectively ($P = 0.974$). Ulcer stage 4 wk post-ESD did not differ significantly between the two groups ($P = 0.868$). Two cases in the rabeprazole group and no cases in the lafutidine group developed ulcer bleeding during the oral dose period, although the difference of bleeding rate between the two groups was not statistically significant ($P = 0.157$).

CONCLUSION: Lafutidine and rabeprazole have equivalent therapeutic effects on post-ESD gastric ulcers.

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Key words: Cytoprotection; Endoscopic submucosal dissection; Gastric ulcer; Histamine H2 receptor antagonists; Lafutidine; Proton pump inhibitors; Rabeprazole

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Abstract

AIM: To compare the effects of rabeprazole and lafutidine on post-endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD) gastric ulcers.

METHODS: Patients with gastric tumors indicated for ESD were prospectively studied. After ESD, all patients were treated with intravenous omeprazole for the first 3 d. Patients were then randomly assigned to oral lafutidine or rabeprazole. Ulcer size, ulcer size reduction rate, and ulcer stage were evaluated 4 wk later. Occurrence of complication was monitored throughout the 4-wk period.

RESULTS: Sixty five patients were enrolled in the study, and 60 patients were subjected to the final analysis. In the lafutidine group (30 lesions in 29 pa-

Ohya TR, Endo H, Kawagoe K, Yanagawa T, Hanawa K, Ohata K, Asayama M, Hisatomi K, Teratani T, Gunji T, Sato H, Matsuhashi N. A prospective randomized trial of lafutidine vs rabeprazole on post-ESD gastric ulcers. *World J Gastrointest Endosc* 2010; 2(1): 36-40 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1948-5190/full/v2/i1/36.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4253/wjge.v2.i1.36>

INTRODUCTION

Endoscopic treatment for gastric neoplasms, such as

early gastric cancer or adenoma, is now a routine procedure^[1]. Endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD) is a minimally invasive treatment that provides a high en bloc resection rate and allows for precise histologic staging^[2,3]. Iatrogenic gastric ulcers created by ESD, however, are often rather large, and bleeding occasionally occurs in the post-ESD period. There is currently no consensus regarding the management of these iatrogenic ulcers.

Lafutidine is a new-generation histamine H₂ receptor antagonist (H₂RA) that not only suppresses gastric acid secretion, but also has cytoprotective properties in gastric epithelial cells^[4]. Proton pump inhibitors (PPIs) are more potent inhibitors of gastric acid secretion than H₂RAs^[5], and in human gastro-duodenal ulcers, PPIs are reported to have greater anti-ulcer effects than H₂RAs^[6,7]. In certain animal models of artificial gastric ulcers, cytoprotective agents exert greater anti-ulcer effects than H₂RAs^[8]. Because gastric ulcers following ESD are artificially induced, we hypothesized that lafutidine, an H₂RA with cytoprotective properties^[4], may exert anti-ulcer effects equivalent, or even superior, to PPIs. Therefore, we compared the anti-ulcer effects of lafutidine and the PPI rabeprazole on post-ESD gastric ulcers.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics

This study was conducted in the Department of Gastroenterology and approved by the ethics committee of Kanto Medical Center. Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects prior to the study.

Study subjects and treatments

Between July 2005 and November 2006, 65 consecutive patients with early gastric cancer or a gastric adenoma that was considered curable with endoscopic treatment were enrolled in the study. The treated lesions were either adenomas with severe atypia, well-differentiated intramucosal cancers without ulcer findings, or well-differentiated intramucosal cancers less than 3 cm in size with ulcer findings. The diagnosis was based on endoscopic findings and histological examination of biopsied specimen. Endoscopic ultrasonography was not performed. Exclusion criteria included failure to obtain written informed consent, severe cardiopulmonary complications, and prior history of allergic reactions against H₂RA or PPI. None of the patients had a previous history of upper gastrointestinal tract surgery. All patients agreed to take part in the study, and were treated by ESD. After ESD, all patients were treated with intravenous omeprazole for the first 3 d. Following omeprazole treatment, patients were randomly assigned to oral lafutidine (group L; 20 mg/d) or oral rabeprazole (group R; 10 mg/d). Doses of these agents were determined according to their standard doses. Ten mg/d of rabeprazole has been shown to have stronger suppressive effect on acid secretion compared to the full dose of omeprazole or lansoprazole^[9], and so this dose was thought to be sufficient.

A hook knife (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) or insulated-

Table 1 Gastric ulcer stages using a six-stage system^[11]

Stage	Finding
A1 (active stage 1)	Ulcer that contains mucus coating, with marginal elevation because of edema
A2 (active stage 2)	Mucus-coated ulcer with discrete margin and less edema than active stage 1
H1 (healing stage 1)	Unhealed ulcer covered by regenerating epithelium < 50%, with or without converging folds
H2 (healing stage 2)	Ulcer with a mucosal break but almost covered with regenerating epithelium
S1 (scar stage 1)	Red scar with rough epithelialization without mucosal break
S2 (scar stage 2)	White scar with complete re-epithelialization

tip knife (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) was used for the ESD. We marked the normal mucosa surrounding the lesion, at least 5 mm away from the tumor, using the hook knife. After injection of a 1:1 mixture of hyaluronic acid solution (Kaken Pharmaceuticals, Tokyo, Japan) and 10% glycerin (Chugai Pharmaceuticals, Tokyo, Japan) into the submucosal layer, circumferential cutting was performed, followed by submucosal dissection. An ICC 200 electrosurgical generator ICC (ERBE, Tubingen, Germany: Endocut mode 85W, forced coagulation mode 45W) was used to produce the surgical current.

Endoscopic evaluation was performed 28 d after ESD. The size of the ulcer was defined as the longitudinal diameter of the gastric ulcer, and measured using measuring forceps (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). Ulcer healing was assessed by measuring the changes in ulcer size and stage. The ulcer reduction rate was calculated as: (ulcer size 4 wk post ESD)/(ulcer size immediately after ESD procedure) × 100 (%)^[10]. Gastric ulcer stage was classified using a 6-stage system Sakita-Miwa classification^[11]: active (A1, A2), healing (H1, H2), and scarring (S1, S2) (Table 1). All cases were monitored for the occurrence of complications, including bleeding or perforation, throughout the 4-wk observation period.

In most cases, one lesion was resected in the ESD procedure, but in 4 cases (3 in group R and 1 in group L) two separate lesions were resected in a single ESD procedure. Patient characteristics were analyzed on a patient number basis, whereas tumor or ulcer characteristics were analyzed on a tumor/ulcer number basis.

Sample size determination

We determined the sample size for the two groups so that the difference between the two study groups could be detected if the mean ulcer size of the group with the larger mean, if any, is larger than that for its counterpart at least by one-fourth (25.0%) of the mean for the former group. It was assumed that the mean ulcer size at day 28 for the group with the larger mean was 11.0, and that both groups had the same sd (5.0). Alpha was set to 0.10, while power was set to 0.70.

Statistical analysis

Continuous values and categorical parameters were

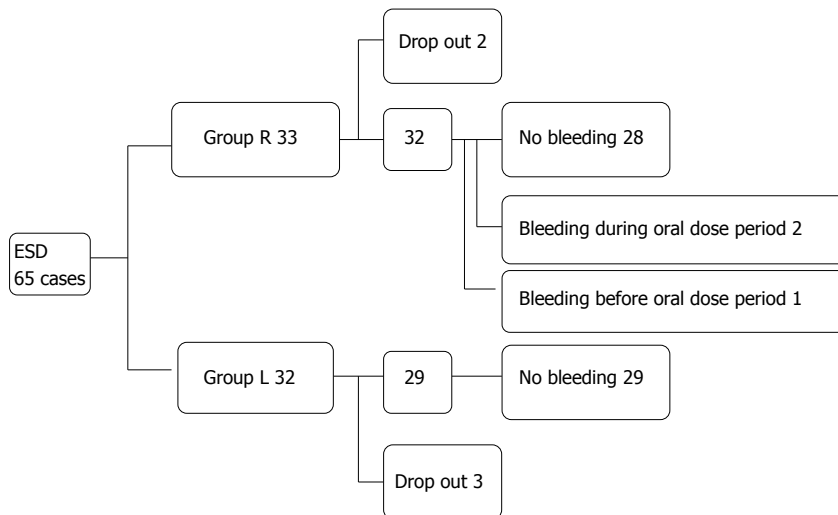


Figure 1 Patient flow. Three patients in group L and 2 in group R were excluded from the final analysis; 1 in group L and 2 in group R had to undergo additional surgical treatment after pathological examination due to submucosal invasion of cancer; 1 in group L was newly diagnosed with pancreatic cancer; and 1 in group L had to be treated for exacerbation of pre-existing Guillain-Barre syndrome after ESD.

Table 2 Characteristics of patients and lesions

	Lafutidine	Rabeprazole	P
Gender (M:F)	21:8	23:8	0.607
Age (mean \pm SD)	65.3 \pm 8.0	65.4 \pm 9.0	0.769
Body mass index (kg/m ²) (mean \pm SD)	23.2 \pm 3.1	23.0 \pm 2.7	0.751
Anti- <i>H. pylori</i> antibody (positive:negative)	23:6	24:7	0.729
Ulcerated lesion (yes:no)	5:25	1:33	0.181
Location (upper:middle:lower)	1:16:13	4:20:10	0.251
Lesion depth (mucosal layer: submucosal layer)	27:3	33:1	0.677
Ulcer size immediately after ESD (mm) (mean \pm SD)	33.3 \pm 9.2	34.7 \pm 11.3	0.635

Patient characteristics were analyzed on patient number basis, whereas lesion or ulcer characteristics were analyzed on tumor/ulcer number basis.

analyzed by Student's *t*-test and Pearson's chi-square test, respectively. Ulcer sizes just before and after the oral dose period were compared between the two groups. The statistical difference of ulcer size reduction was determined by using the two-way repeated-measures ANOVA. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All analyses were performed with the use of SPSS software (15.0 J for Windows).

RESULTS

Effects of lafutidine and rabeprazole on post-ESD gastric ulcers

A total of 65 patients were enrolled in the study (Figure 1); 5 patients (3 in group L and 2 in group R) were, however, excluded from the final analysis. Of the 5 patients, 1 in group L and 2 in group R had to undergo additional surgical treatment after pathological examination because of submucosal invasion of the cancer; 1 in group L was newly diagnosed with pancreatic cancer after the treatment, and so follow-up esophagogastroduodenoscopy was not performed; and 1 in group L had to be treated for exacerbation of pre-existing Guillain-Barre syndrome

Table 3 Ulcer size reduction rate

	Lafutidine	Rabeprazole	P
Ulcer size (Day 0)	33.3 \pm 9.2	34.7 \pm 11.3	0.635
Ulcer size (Day 28)	10.5 \pm 4.8	11.8 \pm 6.7	0.421
Reduction Rate	32.30%	33.50%	0.974

after ESD and so follow-up esophagogastroduodenoscopy was not performed. Patient and lesion characteristics are shown in Table 2. There were 30 lesions in 29 patients in group L and 34 lesions in 31 patients in group R who completed the study, and there were no significant differences between the two groups with regard to patient characteristics (gender, age, body mass index, presence of serum anti-*Helicobacter pylori* antibody), initial endoscopic findings (ulcerated lesion or not, and location in the stomach), lesion depth on pathological examination, or post-ESD ulcer size. In group L, initial and 4-wk post-ESD ulcer sizes were 33.3 \pm 9.2 and 10.5 \pm 4.8 mm, respectively. In group R, the values were 34.7 \pm 11.3 and 11.8 \pm 6.7 mm, respectively. The ulcer size reduction rate in group L and group R was 32.3% and 33.5%, respectively (Table 3, *P* = 0.974). Ulcer stages at 4-wk post ESD in group L were: A1; 0 case (0%), A2; 1 (3%), H1; 10 (33%), H2; 16 (54%), S1; 2 (7%) and S2; 1 (3%); ulcer stages in group R were: A1; 0%, A2; 1 (3%), H1; 11 (32%), H2; 19 (56%), and S1; 3 (9%) (Table 4, *P* = 0.868). Thus, there were no significant differences in ulcer size, ulcer size reduction rate, or proportion of patients at each ulcer stage between the two groups 4 wk post ESD.

Preventive effects of lafutidine and rabeprazole on bleeding from post-ESD gastric ulcers

No cases in group L (0%) and three cases in group R (9%) developed bleeding. One patient in group R developed bleeding 1 d after ESD. Two cases in group R developed bleeding within the oral-treatment period (day 4 through day 28); 1 case 7 d after ESD, and the other 10 d after ESD (*P* = 0.157). The last case required

Table 4 Distribution of ulcer stages on follow-up endoscopy 4 wk after ESD *n* (%)

Stage	Lafutidine	Rabeprazole
A1	0 (0)	0 (0)
A2	1 (3)	1 (3)
H1	10 (33)	11 (32)
H2	16 (54)	19 (56)
S1	2 (7)	3 (9)
S2	1 (3)	0 (0)

No significant difference was found between the rabeprazole and lafutidine group ($P = 0.868$).

blood transfusion, whilst the other two cases did not. The last case also required hospitalization, and the other two cases required postponement of discharge from the hospital. Endoscopic hemostasis using hemoclip was achieved in all three cases. There was no significant difference in the diameters of ulcers or numbers of ESD between non-bleeding group and bleeding group (data not shown). No side effects were induced by either medication during the study.

DISCUSSION

In recent studies of ulcers induced by endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR), omeprazole was reported to have anti-ulcer effects equivalent to^[12,13] or greater than^[10] those of famotidine, an H2RA. The difference in anti-ulcer effects, if any, may be due to differences in the acid suppression potency of the two compounds. Post-ESD/EMR ulcers, however, are artificial and iatrogenic, and there may be a role for cytoprotective agents in such conditions. Although the acid suppressive properties of famotidine and lafutidine are almost equivalent, lafutidine differs from famotidine in that it also has a cytoprotective property^[4]. Several aspects of the mechanism of the cytoprotective property of lafutidine have been elucidated. Firstly, lafutidine does not directly protect epithelial cells, but increases the gastric mucosal blood flow through a mechanism involving capsaicin-sensitive afferent nerves^[14]. In addition, it increases the thickness and mucin content of gastric mucus layer^[15]. Therefore, we hypothesized that lafutidine and PPIs might have an equivalent anti-ulcer effect on post-ESD ulcers. To elucidate this issue, we compared the anti-ulcer effects of lafutidine and rabeprazole, a PPI. The pharmacologic effects of PPIs such as omeprazole and lansoprazole are influenced by a genetic polymorphism of *cyp 2c19*^[16]. Rabeprazole is not only a highly potent PPI, but is also the least influenced by *2c19*. Therefore, we chose rabeprazole as the PPI in the present study to elucidate whether lafutidine and a PPI have equivalent effects on post-ESD ulcers.

The results of the present study indicated that there were no significant differences in the ulcer reduction rate or ulcer stages between groups given lafutidine or rabeprazole for post-ESD ulcers. Two cases in group

R developed bleeding from post-ESD ulcers within the oral treatment period (day 4 through day 28), whereas no cases in group L developed bleeding within that period, although this difference was not statistically significant. Thus, lafutidine and rabeprazole were equally effective for ulcer healing and preventing post-ESD ulcer bleeding. Considering the suggested superior anti-ulcer effect of omeprazole over famotidine for post-EMR ulcers^[10], the results of our study suggest a therapeutic role for cytoprotective agents in post-ESD ulcers. At the same time, the importance of acid suppression in such a condition cannot be disregarded. H2RAs with a cytoprotective property may be reasonable treatment options for such conditions. Lafutidine also costs less than the PPIs. Although the present article doesn't evaluate the cost-effectiveness of lafutidine, this could be the subject of a future study. Both H2RAs and PPIs are comparatively safe medications. In fact, there were no side effects observed in the present study in either group.

In conclusion, lafutidine, an H2RA with cytoprotective property, exerts no less anti-ulcer effects than rabeprazole at a lower cost in post-ESD gastric ulcers.

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An unusual presentation of fistulating Crohn's disease: Ascites

Richard Kia, David White, Sanchoy Sarkar

Richard Kia, David White, Sanchoy Sarkar, Digestive Diseases Centre, University Hospital Aintree, Longmoor Lane, Liverpool L9 7AL, United Kingdom

Richard Kia, Specialty Registrar in Gastroenterology and General (Internal) Medicine, Wirral University Teaching Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Arrowe Park Road CH49 5PE Wirral, United Kingdom

Author contributions: Kia R and Sarkar S contributed equally to this work; Kia R, White D and Sarkar S drafted and revised the manuscript; White D contributed to the interpretation of the radiology images.

Correspondence to: Dr. Richard Kia, Specialty Registrar in Gastroenterology and General (Internal) Medicine, Wirral University Teaching Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Arrowe Park Road CH49 5PE Wirral, United Kingdom. richardkia@nhs.net

Telephone: +44-151-6785111 Fax: +44-151-6785111

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Peer reviewer: James F Trotter, MD, Associate Professor, University of Colorado, Division of Gastroenterology, 4200 E. 9th Avenue, b-154, Denver, CO 80262, United States

Kia R, White D, Sarkar S. An unusual presentation of fistulating Crohn's disease: Ascites. *World J Gastrointest Endosc* 2010; 2(1): 41-43 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1948-5190/full/v2/i1/41.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4253/wjge.v2.i1.41>

Abstract

Whilst ascites is a common presenting complaint in patients with decompensated chronic liver disease and disseminated malignancy, in Crohn's disease however, it is exceptionally rare. We describe a patient with no prior history of inflammatory bowel or liver disease, presenting with rapid onset gross ascites and scrotal swelling. Further investigations revealed severe hypoalbuminemia and transudative ascitic fluid with normal other liver function tests and a negative liver screen. Computed tomography revealed widespread ascites and pleural effusions with no features of malignancy or portal hypertension, and a small bowel barium series showed features of fistulating small bowel Crohn's disease. An ileo-colonoscopy confirmed the presence of terminal ileal inflammatory stricture. The patient's clinical condition and serum albumin improved with a combination of diuretics, elemental diet, antibiotics and oral 5-aminosalicylic acid therapy.

INTRODUCTION

Crohn's disease is a chronic, relapsing and remitting inflammatory disease of the gastrointestinal tract, with a prevalence of 140 cases per 100 000 in the West^[1]. Common presenting symptoms include diarrhea, abdominal pain, weight loss, and fatigue^[2]. Ascites as the main presenting complaint in undiagnosed Crohn's disease is extremely rare and to our knowledge has only been reported once within the literature^[3]. However, ascites secondary to conditions associated with Crohn's disease, such as malignancy and portal hypertension is well recognised^[4-6]. We describe a case where a patient with previously undiagnosed fistulating Crohn's disease presented as an emergency with gross ascites, scrotal swelling and severe hypoalbuminemia. We also highlight the diagnostic features of Crohn's disease in barium studies and ileo-colonoscopy, which helped in the diagnosis of this atypical case.

CASE REPORT

A 61-year-old man presented in the emergency department with rapid onset abdominal and scrotal swelling. The only other symptom of note was mild intermittent diarrhea, which had been present since a sigmoid colec-

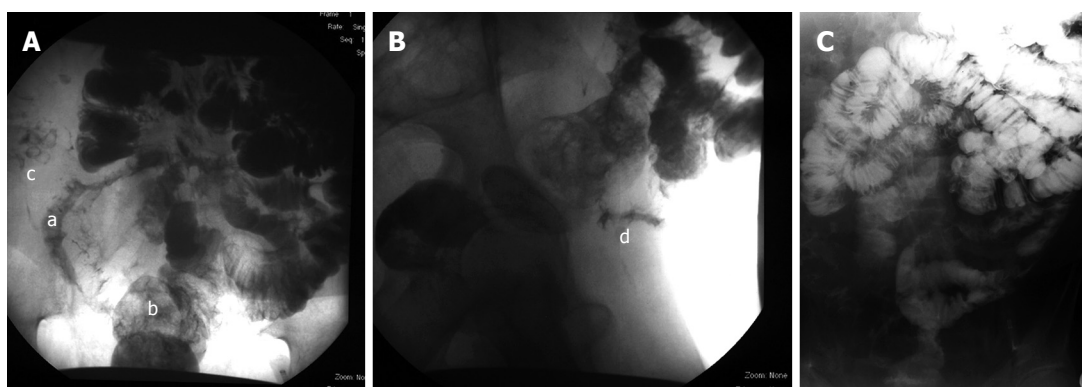


Figure 1 Small bowel barium study. A: Showing features of fistulating Crohn's disease; B: Fistula; C: This figure shows contrast in the rectum but none in the rest of the large bowel, implying a connecting fistula.



Figure 2 Terminal ileal inflammatory stricture with mucosal edema.

tomy was performed 5 years previously for a diverticular abscess. He was a non-smoker and past medical history included angina and atrial fibrillation. There was no history of chronic liver disease, alcohol abuse, or any significant family history.

Examination revealed tense ascites, pedal and scrotal edema but no stigmata of liver disease. Blood tests including full blood count, inflammatory markers (CRP/ESR) and liver function tests were normal (total bilirubin 17 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, alkaline phosphatase 107 IU/L, INR 1.1, aspartate transaminase 30 IU/L) with the exception of severe hypoalbuminemia of 17 g/L. Auto-antibodies, celiac immunology, vasculitic screen and hepatitis serologies were negative. Echocardiogram and 24-h urinary protein excretion were also normal. CT of the thorax and abdomen revealed widespread ascites and pleural effusions with no features of malignancy or portal hypertension. Analysis of the ascitic fluid revealed a transudate with negative microbiology (total white blood cells of 23/ mm^3) and cytology investigations, and normal amylase. To investigate the intermittent diarrhea and hypoalbuminemia, a gastroscopy with second part duodenal biopsies and colonoscopy with random colonic biopsies were performed, and were essentially normal with the exception of widespread colonic diverticular disease. A small bowel barium series was then performed with the relevant images shown in Figure 1. Figure 1A shows diseased loops of distal ileum (labeled

a) with stricture formation and ulceration, as well as premature filling of the rectum (labeled b) in the absence of contrast filling the proximal colon (labeled c), implying a fistula between the ileum and the sigmoid colon (enterocolonic fistula). Figure 1B, is a lateral image demonstrating the diseased terminal ileum (labeled d). Figure 1C, indirectly illustrates the entero-sigmoid fistula with contrast within the small bowel and rectum, but no filling of the rest of the colon, thus suggesting a connection between the small bowel and very distal colon.

In view of the atypical presentation of gross ascites in a new diagnosis of fistulating Crohn's disease and the lack of histological confirmation, a colonoscopy was repeated with terminal ileoscopy. This revealed a terminal ileal inflammatory stricture, with mucosal edema as shown on the endoscopic picture in Figure 2. Biopsies from the stricture showed gross distortion of the crypt architecture with focal cryptitis and occasional crypt abscesses, with overall appearances consistent with non-granulomatous ileitis typical of Crohn's disease.

The patient was treated initially with a combination of diuretics (spironolactone 100 mg daily and furosemide 40 mg daily), elemental diet (3 mo), antibiotics (clarithromycin 500 mg b.i.d. for 3 mo) and high dose oral 5-ASA (Pentasa 4 g daily). Over the course of a few months, the patient's clinical condition and serum albumin improved with the diuretics weaned off over 6 mo. The patient was maintained solely on high dose 5-ASA preparation (patient was found to be allergic to azathioprine) with no recurrence of ascites 12 mo after his initial presentation.

DISCUSSION

As previously mentioned, ascites associated with Crohn's disease has only been reported in very few cases and the majority has been secondary to associated conditions, such as malignancy and portal hypertension^[4-6]. In our case, there was no evidence of portal hypertension on cross-sectional imaging (CT showed no splenomegaly or varices) or endoscopy (gastroscopy showed no esophageal varices). Associated malignancy was also excluded as a cause on the basis of negative ascitic fluid cytology, ascitic fluid protein analysis (transudate), and the lack of

diagnostic features on CT imaging or upper and lower GI endoscopy.

We attributed the ascites to a hypoalbuminemic state secondary to a protein losing enteropathy as sequelae of small bowel Crohn's disease. Due to the fistulating nature of the disease there may or may not have been a contribution from small bowel bacterial overgrowth to the protein losing enteropathy. Furthermore, increased small intestinal permeability in Crohn's disease, possibly secondary to inflammatory cytokines is likely to play a role^[7,8]. Paspatis *et al*^[6] also postulated that lymphatic stasis, could be partially involved, though inexplicably most patients do not have ascites.

Our patient had an extremely rare presentation of a relatively common gastrointestinal condition and this case illustrates the various guises that fistulating Crohn's disease may present with.

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Rectal bleeding as a presenting symptom of AL amyloidosis and multiple myeloma

Itay Maza, Evgene Vlodavsky, Rami A Eliakim

Itay Maza, Rami A Eliakim, Department of Gastroenterology, Rambam Health Care Campus, Technion School of Medicine, Haifa 31096, Israel

Evgene Vlodavsky, Department of Pathology, Rambam Health Care Campus, Technion School of Medicine, Haifa 31096, Israel

Author contributions: Both Maza I and Eliakim RA treated the patient and wrote the article; Vlodavsky E examined the pathology specimens.

Correspondence to: Itay Maza, MD, Department of Gastroenterology, Rambam Health Care Campus, Technion School of Medicine, PO Box 9602, Haifa 31096, Israel. i_maza@rambam.health.gov.il

Telephone: +972-4-8541777 **Fax:** +972-4-8543252

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Abstract

Amyloidosis of the gastrointestinal tract is a rare disease that presents with common, nonspecific signs and symptoms. It may affect any part of the gastrointestinal tract from mouth to anus. The clinical and endoscopic features are diverse and may mimic other diseases, such as inflammatory bowel disease, malignancy, ischemic colitis and, at times, collagenous colitis. We describe an uncommon case of rectal bleeding and anemia with polypoid lesions and ulcerations in the colon, as the presenting symptom of AL amyloidosis and light chain multiple myeloma.

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Key words: Amyloidosis; Multiple myeloma; Colonic polyp; Rectal bleeding

Peer reviewers: Jean-Francois Rey, MD, Hepatogastroenterology Institut Arnault Tzanck, 06721 Saint Laurent Du Var Cedex, France; Luis Rodrigo, Professor, Gastroenterology Service, Hospital Universitario Central de Asturias, c/ Celestino Villamil s. n°, Oviedo 33-006, Spain

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INTRODUCTION

Amyloidosis is characterized by extracellular deposition of abnormal protein. The current nomenclature consists of the first letter, A (for amyloid), followed by a description of the precursor protein. AL amyloidosis is associated with plasma cell dyscrasia and monoclonal light chains in serum and/or urine. Fifteen percent of patients with AL amyloidosis have multiple myeloma and this type of amyloidosis is the prominent type involving the gastrointestinal tract.

Patient's signs and symptoms depend on the part of the gastrointestinal tract involved. Amyloidosis of stomach and duodenum is uncommon with most patients being asymptomatic. Symptoms may include nausea, vomiting, hematemesis and epigastric pain. Duodenal involvement, sometimes without gastric disease, includes scalloped folds, duodenitis, ulcers, masses, hypotonia, and dilatation. The most common endoscopic findings in the small bowel include fine granular appearance, polyps, erosions, ulcerations, or mucosal friability^[1].

When present, amyloid deposition is greatest in the small intestine. In 31% of patients with amyloidosis, the small bowel was found to be affected at autopsy. Clinically, patients with amyloidosis of the small intestine may present with diarrhea, steatorrhea, Protein LOSING enteropathy, hemorrhage, obstruction, mesenteric ischemia, intussusceptions, pneumatosis intestinalis or pseudo-obstruction.

Amyloid of the colon is most frequently located in the descending and recto sigmoid colon. The clinical manifestations in the colon may mimic other diseases, such as inflammatory bowel disease, malignancy, ischemic colitis

and at times collagenous colitis. Endoscopically, one may find polypoid lesions, ulcerations or nodules.

CASE REPORT

A 55-year-old man was referred to undergo colonoscopy because of rectal bleeding and normocytic anemia. The patient was known to have severe atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, with ischemic heart disease, peripheral vascular disease and congestive heart failure, and was on low dose aspirin and clopidogrel chronically.

Colonoscopy revealed a normal appearing rectum, with fresh blood in the sigmoid colon and descending colon. After cleansing the blood, a number of small ulcers, petechial bleeding of the mucosa and polypoid protrusions were seen (Figure 1). Some of these polypoid protrusions had a bluish discoloration and some had blood clots on top of them. In between these lesions, the colonic mucosa appeared normal. Transverse and ascending colon were without any endoscopic finding as was the terminal ileum.

The patient was hospitalized for observation and aspirin and clopidogrel were discontinued. He was hemodynamic stable and hemoglobin levels did not decline. Repeated colonoscopy and gastroscopy were done a week later. Gastroscopy revealed small shallow ulcers in the first and second parts of the duodenum and small petechial bleedings, but without any evidence of fresh blood in the lumen (Figure 1B). Biopsies were taken from the edges of ulcers. Colonoscopy showed similar findings to those seen a week before. Biopsies were taken from ulcer edges and polypoid lesions.

Hematoxylin and eosin stain showed a homogeneous, amorphous material, mainly in the submucosa (Figure 1C). Congo red stain produced the characteristic apple-green birefringence in polarized light, typical for amyloid, both in the small and large bowel.

Bone marrow biopsy revealed myeloma cells with kappa light chains, but no amyloid was found on his bone marrow biopsy. Chemotherapy (bortezomib) for multiple myeloma was started. On follow up of more than ten months, there was no further rectal bleeding and hemoglobin levels were stable.

DISCUSSION

We describe an uncommon case of rectal bleeding and anemia as the presenting symptom of AL amyloidosis and light chain multiple myeloma. Bleeding, which is the presenting symptom in 25%-45% of patients with amyloidosis of the colon, may be due to ischemia, infarction, ulceration, an infiltrating lesion or secondary to generalized oozing without an identifiable source^[2]. This usually occurs in the absence of coagulation disturbances.

Endoscopically, AL amyloidosis typically forms polypoid protrusions, while AA amyloidosis is usually characterized by a fine granular appearance. Other endoscopic features of colonic amyloidosis are ulcerations, diffusely distributed petechia, nodules, luminal narrow-

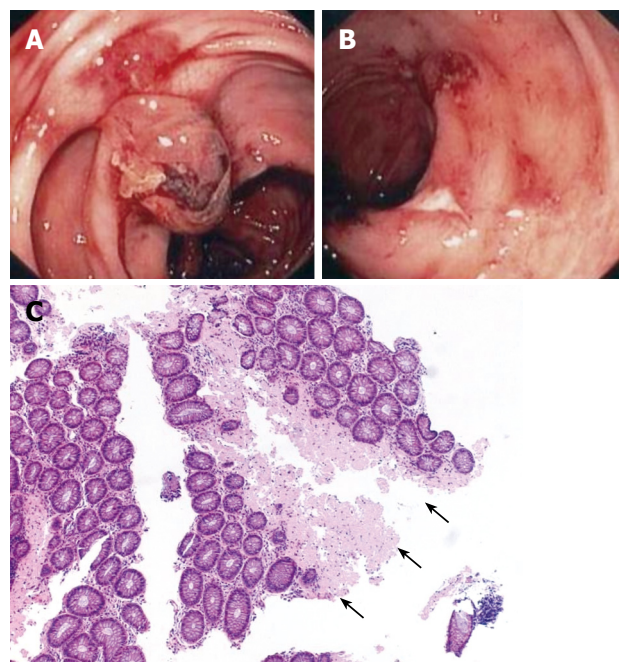


Figure 1 Endoscopic and pathology figures of the polypoid lesions found in the colon (A), the duodenal ulcerations (B), and the typical Amyloid appearance in the colon (C). A: Polypoid Lesion in the descending colon; B: Ulceration of the duodenum mucosa; C: Homogeneous and amorphous Amyloid in the submucosa of the rectum (arrows).

ing, loss of haustrations and thick mucosal folds, part of which was also seen in our patient^[3]. Anemia is not a prominent feature in AL amyloid, but when present, is most commonly due to multiple myeloma, renal insufficiency and gastrointestinal bleeding.

The organ to be biopsied in order to diagnose amyloidosis has classically been the rectum or subcutaneous fat. Submucosal vessels should be sampled in rectal biopsies in order to get the reported yield of 75%-94%. Amyloid is found in bone marrow biopsies in about 56% of patients^[4]. Under light microscopy, amyloid appears homogeneous and amorphous. It stains pink with hematoxylin and eosin and displays metachromasia with methyl violet. Congo red is the most specific stain, producing the characteristic red appearance in normal light and apple-green birefringence in polarized light. The routine method to determine the amyloid type is immunohistochemistry. While AA amyloid can be identified in all cases, a significant proportion of AL amyloid deposits cannot be stained. AL amyloidosis, then, is a diagnosis of exclusion.

The treatment of amyloidosis-induced gastrointestinal bleeding is difficult. Localized gastrointestinal amyloidosis can be treated by surgical resection of involved bowel segment. In addition, super selective micro-coil remobilization is a safe and effective treatment for gastrointestinal bleeding, but may not be useful in patients with multifocal and diffuse gastrointestinal Amyloidosis^[5].

In conclusion, AL amyloidosis of the gastrointestinal tract is a rare disease that presents with common, nonspecific complaints. The endoscopic detection of a submucosal petechial hematomas and polypoid lesions

in the setting of gastrointestinal bleeding should raise suspicion of the disease.

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Qiang Cai, Associate Professor of Medicine, Division of Digestive Diseases, Emory University School of Medicine, 1365 Clifton Road, Suite B1262 Atlanta, GA 30322, United States

Juan J Vila Costas, MD, Gastroenterology Department, Hospital de Navarra, c/Irunlarrea, 3, Pamplona 31.008, Spain

Jesús García-Cano, MD, PhD, Department of Gastroenterology, Hospital Virgen de la Luz, Cuenca 16002, Spain

Akira Horiuchi, MD, Director, Digestive Disease Center, Showa Inan General Hospital, Komagane 399-4191, Japan

Tian-Le Ma, MD, Department of Gastroenterology, Rui Jin Hospital Affiliated to Medical College of Shanghai Jiao Tong

University, Shanghai 200040, China

Oliver Pech, MD, PhD, Attending Physician of Gastroenterology, Vice Director of the Endoscopy Unit, Department of Internal Medicine 2, HSK Wiesbaden, Wiesbaden, Germany

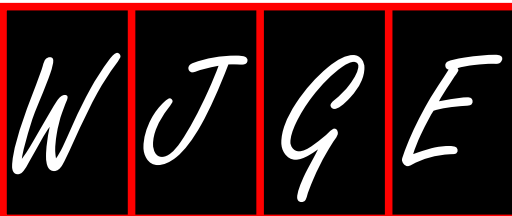
Jean-Francois Rey, MD, Hepatogastroenterology Institut Arnaud Tzanck, 06721 Saint Laurent Du Var Cedex, France

Atsushi Irisawa, MD, PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Internal Medicine 2, Fukushima Medical University School of Medicine, 1, Hikarigaoka, Fukushima 960-1295, Japan

Carlos Robles-Medranda, MD, Head of the Endoscopy Division, Ecuadorian Institute of Digestive Disease (IECED), San Antonio Clinic, Av. Reales Tamarindo y Tennis Club, Portoviejo-Manabi-Ecuador, Casilla 13-01-266, Ecuadorian

Luis Rodrigo, Professor, Gastroenterology Service, Hospital Universitario Central de Asturias, c/ Celestino Villamil s. n°, Oviedo 33-006, Spain

James F Trotter, MD, Associate Professor, University of Colorado, Division of Gastroenterology, 4200 E. 9th Avenue, b-154, Denver, CO 80262, United States



Meetings

Events Calendar 2010

January 25-26
Tamilnadu, India
International Conference on Medical
Negligence and Litigation in Medical
Practice

January 25-29
Waikoloa, HI, United States
Selected Topics in Internal Medicine

January 26-27
Dubai, United Arab Emirates
2nd Middle East Gastroenterology
Conference

February 11-13
Fort Lauderdale, FL, United States
21th Annual International Colorectal
Disease Symposium

February 26-28
Carolina, United States
First Symposium of GI Oncology at
The Caribbean

March 05-07
Peshawar, Pakistan
26th Pakistan Society of
Gastroenterology & Endoscopy
Meeting

March 12-14
Bhubaneswar, India
18th Annual Meeting of Indian
National Association for Study of
the Liver

March 25-28
Beijing, China
The 20th Conference of the Asian
Pacific Association for the Study of
the Liver

March 27-28
San Diego, California, United States
25th Annual New Treatments in
Chronic Liver Disease

April 07-09
Dubai, United Arab Emirates
The 6th Emirates Gastroenterology
and Hepatology Conference, EGHC
2010

April 14-17
Landover, Maryland, United States
12th World Congress of Endoscopic
Surgery

April 14-18
Vienna, Austria
The International Liver Congress™
2010

April 28-May 01
Dubrovnik, Croatia
3rd Central European Congress
of surgery and the 5th Croatian
Congress of Surgery

May 01-05
New Orleans, LA, United States
Digestive Disease Week Annual
Meeting

May 15-19
Minneapolis, MN, United States
American Society of Colon and
Rectal Surgeons Annual Meeting

June 04-06
Chicago, IL, United States
American Society of Clinical
Oncologists Annual Meeting

June 16-19
Hong Kong, China
ILTS: International Liver
Transplantation Society ILTS Annual
International Congress

June 20-23
Mannheim, Germany
16th World Congress for
Bronchoesophagology-WCBE

August 28-31
Boston, Massachusetts, United States
10th OESO World Congress on
Diseases of the Oesophagus 2010

September 10-12
Montreal, Canada
International Liver Association's
Fourth Annual Conference

September 11-12
La Jolla, CA, United States
New Advances in Inflammatory
Bowel Disease

September 16-18
Prague, Czech Republic
Prague Hepatology Meeting 2010

September 23-26
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Case-Based Approach to the
Management of Inflammatory Bowel
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Instructions to authors

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- 2 **Lin GZ**, Wang XZ, Wang P, Lin J, Yang FD. Immunologic effect of Jianpi Yishen decoction in treatment of Pixu-diarrhoea. *Shijie Huaren Xiaobua Zazhi* 1999; **7**: 285-287

In press

- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMCID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

Both personal authors and an organization as author

- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

No author given

- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

Volume with supplement

- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

Issue with no volume

- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; **(401)**: 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

Books

Personal author(s)

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

Author(s) and editor(s)

- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

Conference proceedings

- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

Conference paper

- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/EID/eid.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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