

Surgical management of chronic pancreatitis

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BACKGROUND: Treatment of chronic pancreatitis (CP) is a challenging condition for surgeons. During the last decades, increasing knowledge about pathophysiology of CP, improved results of major pancreatic resections, and integration of sophisticated diagnostic methods in clinical practice have resulted in significant changes in surgery for CP.

DATA SOURCES: To detail the indications for CP surgery, the surgical procedures, and outcome, a Pubmed database search was performed. The abstracts of searched articles about surgical management of CP were reviewed. The articles could be identified and further scrutinized. Further references were extracted by cross-referencing.

RESULTS: Main indications of CP for surgery are intractable pain, suspicion of malignancy, and involvement of adjacent organs. The goal of surgical treatment is to improve the quality of life of patients. The surgical approach to CP should be individualized according to pancreatic anatomy, pain characteristics, baseline exocrine and endocrine function, and medical co-morbidity. The approach usually involves pancreatic duct drainage and resection including longitudinal pancreatojejunostomy, pancreatoduodenectomy (Whipple's procedure), pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy, distal pancreatectomy, total pancreatectomy, duodenum-preserving pancreatic head resection (Beger's procedure), and local resection of the pancreatic head with longitudinal pancreatojejunostomy (Frey's procedure). Non-pancreatic and endoscopic management of pain has also been advocated.

CONCLUSIONS: Surgical procedures provide long-term pain relief, a good postoperative quality of life with

preservation of endocrine and exocrine pancreatic function, and are associated with low early and late mortality and morbidity. In addition to available results from randomized controlled trials, new studies are needed to determine which procedure is the most effective for the management of patients with CP.

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KEY WORDS: chronic pancreatitis;
surgery;
pain;
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Introduction

Chronic pancreatitis (CP), a chronic inflammatory disease of the pancreas, is often associated with complications that may require surgical intervention.^[1-3] The incidence of CP is approximately 5-10 cases per 100 000 population^[4, 5] and has nearly quadrupled in the past 30 years, although this likely represents increased recognition due to a broader definition and improvement in pancreatic imaging (with consequent inclusion of earlier-stage patients) rather than a true increase in occurrence.

Because of our limited understanding of disease pathogenesis, the unpredictability of the clinical course in a given individual and controversies in both diagnostic criteria and therapeutic options, management of patients with CP remains a difficult and challenging problem. The vast majority of them is managed conservatively and never requires operative intervention,^[6] although about 20% of patients require frequent opioid analgesia. In general, patients are referred for surgery late in the course of disease, which means that the pathologic process can at most be halted or stabilized but not reversed. The usual technical complexities of pancreatic surgery are made even more imposing by the presence of inflammation in the pancreas and peripancreatic areas, which can obscure anatomic landmarks and planes. The choice of surgical procedure is rarely straightforward and other factors including disease location, prior

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treatment, and suspicion of cancer may influence a surgeon's approach.

This review will detail the indications for surgery in CP patients, the surgical procedures, and the results, while determining the current role of surgical treatment in the management of this disease.

Pathogenesis, symptoms, and diagnosis of CP

The majority of cases are caused by alcohol abuse, although CP is about 30 times less common than alcoholic cirrhosis. In alcoholics, the disease typically manifests in middle age. Cigarette smoking plays an important role and constitutes a major risk factor for CP, statistically independent of alcohol intake.^[7-9] There are now well-defined inherited germline mutations that can cause CP in families.^[10] Clinically, the familiar form of CP is similar to alcoholic form, with the exception that the onset of symptoms is earlier in life, often in teenagers. Rarely is CP related to the biliary tract or gallstone disease. Other etiologies for CP include anatomical variants such as pancreas divisum or annular pancreas, metabolic (hypertriglyceridemia or hypercalcemia), and sphincter of Oddi dysfunction or trauma. Finally, some cases of CP are idiopathic.

CP is characterized by the progressive, unremitting nature of its symptoms; patients usually have long-term experience with abdominal or epigastric pain, which at times can be acutely exacerbated. Steatorrhea and postprandial abdominal discomfort may also be present, depending on the extent of gland destruction, often associated with anorexia, significant malabsorption, and weight loss. Diabetes mellitus due to progressive encasement and destruction of islets of Langerhans may develop over the course of the disease but is generally absent in its earliest stages unless coincident. As the pancreas response to repetitive inflammatory injury, parenchymal fibrosis develops to an extent that the organ's endocrine and exocrine functions are impaired.

The diagnosis of CP is generally made by detecting calcifications in the pancreas, which are stones in the pancreatic duct, on a computed tomography (CT). Pancreatic calcifications are pathognomonic of the disease and their presence indicates that the disease is advanced. The diagnosis of CP can also be made by endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP); the changes in the pancreatic duct system associated with CP and the criteria for a diagnosis by ERCP have been delineated.^[11] Recently, endoscopic ultrasonography (EUS) has been used to diagnose CP

by detecting textural abnormalities in the pancreatic parenchyma.^[12] Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) provides an excellent contrast image that evaluates the pancreatic parenchyma and magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography (MRCP) provides great resolution of the biliary and pancreatic duct system.

Pain

The most common indication for surgery in patients with CP is pain. In general, daily pain associated with CP is managed initially by oral non-enteric-coated pancreatic enzymes and by non-narcotic analgesics, although the impact of these measures is modest.^[13] Combinations of antioxidants including l-methionine, beta-carotene, vitamin C, vitamin E, and organic selenium have been used in small studies in patients with CP.^[14] Many of these patients need frequent hospitalization for acute pain flare-ups, even if the background chronic pain can be adequately managed. An addition problem is that patients with alcoholic CP can develop narcotic dependence and not uncommonly exhibit psychiatric or psychosocial components of their pain syndromes.^[15, 16]

The mechanism of pain in patients with CP remains poorly understood.^[17] It is thought that significantly elevated pressure in the main pancreatic duct of patients with CP cause a compartment syndrome, which may be the source of the pain characteristic.^[18-22] The fibrosis that envelops the chronically inflamed pancreas plays a central role in the evolution of this pressure by limiting the ability of the gland to expand during periods of exocrine secretion and to absorb the pressure created by the increased ductal volume.^[18]

Another source of pain stimulation may be direct contact of sensory nerves with parenchymal neural irritants generated by the process of CP. The pancreas is a highly innervated, and visceral organ as well as its nerves (all autonomic) appear to be sensitive to both chemical and mechanical stimuli.^[23] Major disturbances in and around the nerves occur as a consequence.^[23, 24] Pain neurotransmitters (substance P and calcitonin gene-related peptide) are also increased in the pancreatic nerves of patients with CP, supporting the role of neural chronic inflammation in the pathogenesis of pain.^[25]

Pancreatic duct drainage

Ductal decompression and drainage are the basis for

surgical treatment of a dilated and strictured main pancreatic duct, with or without additional calculi. After the report by Du Val^[26] in 1954, who described caudal pancreatojejunostomy with pancreatic tail resection, the technique for surgical decompression of the pancreatic ductal system in patients with CP was modified by Puestow and Gillesby^[27] in 1958. They described "retrograde" pancreatic ductal drainage involving a longitudinal anastomosis between the main pancreatic duct and a Roux-en-Y jejunal loop. Their original procedure also involved distal pancreatic tail resection and splenectomy to allow for long-segment pancreatojejunostomy. In 1960, Partington and Rochelle^[28] proposed a modification which primarily advocated the direct anastomosis of the anterior surface of the pancreas to the jejunum. This simplification not only allows preservation of the spleen but also reduces the amount of pancreatic mobilization that is required, thereby decreasing operation time and blood loss. They also described that the ductal decompression should encompass the whole length of the ductal from the tail of the pancreas to the pancreatic head; the advantage of this extended decompression is that the removal of pancreatic duct calculi is greatly facilitated. This modified Puestow procedure, longitudinal pancreatojejunostomy (LPJ), addresses the multiple obstructions typically seen in these patients and remains the preferred ductal decompression procedure for CP.^[29]

LPJ should be considered for patients with CP and a dilated (≥ 7 mm) main pancreatic duct of Wirsung.^[30-32] Operative technique includes thorough abdominal exploration, wide exposure of the anterior aspect of the pancreas by opening the gastrocolic ligament, hepatic flexure mobilization, and a Kocher maneuver.^[29] The dilated pancreatic duct can often be identified by palpation, and the location of the pancreatic duct is confirmed by a needle to aspirate ductal fluid. Intraoperative ultrasound may be useful when the duct is not readily palpable. The duct is incised longitudinally as extensively as required and all pancreatic ductal calculi are extracted.^[29] A Roux-en-Y jejunal limb is constructed about 30 cm distal to the ligament of Treitz and a side-to-side Roux-en-Y retrocolic pancreatojejunostomy is then created.

The results of LPJ in patients with CP are summarized in Table 1.^[30, 31, 33-39] A review of numerous series with this procedure reports that LPJ relieves chronic abdominal pain in 65%-93% of patients.^[30, 31, 33-39] Morbidity and mortality rates are generally low, averaging 20% and 2%, respectively.^[30, 31, 33-35, 40, 41] The largest series has been reported

Table 1. Results of longitudinal pancreatojejunostomy for chronic pancreatitis^[30, 31, 33-39]

References	Year	No. of patients	Follow-up (years)	Pain relief (%)
Prinz and Greenlee ^[33]	1981	43	8	65
Sarles et al ^[34]	1982	69	5	85
Warshaw ^[35]	1984	33	4	88
Holmberg et al ^[36]	1985	51	8	72
Bradley ^[30]	1986	48	6	66
Nealon et al ^[31]	1988	41	1	93
Greenlee et al ^[37]	1990	50	8	82
Delcore et al ^[38]	1994	28	3.5	86
Nealon and Matin ^[39]	1999	124	6.5	86

by Nealon and Matin^[39] who reviewed the surgical treatment of 124 patients with CP who had undergone a modified LPJ. At a mean follow-up of 6.5 years, 106 of 124 patients experienced complete resolution of pain as defined by absence of narcotic use. Successful operation seems to be related to both technique and patient selection. Bradley^[30] has reported that ductal decompression of less than 6 cm is associated with inadequate relief of pain compared with greater than 6 cm of decompression. Furthermore, duct size greater than 7 mm also correlated with success. Finally, Tania et al^[42] and Kurian and Gagner^[43] have reported the technical feasibility of laparoscopic LPJ.

Despite these encouraging results, long-term follow-up of patients after LPJ reveals that up to 50% of patients develop recurrent symptoms and 10%-35% fail to obtain pain relief.^[41, 44]

Pancreatic resection

Longmire's hypothesis that the pancreatic head is the "pacemaker" for pancreatic pain in CP,^[45] the hypothesis that neural inflammation is an important pathologic mechanism of pain, the intractable pain from head-dominant small-duct disease,^[46] the high incidence of ductal alteration, and an inflammatory mass in the head of the pancreas^[47-51] are the most common indications for pancreatic resection as the treatment of choice for patients with CP.

The results of pancreatic resection procedures in patients with CP, which are based on cohorts from high-volume pancreatic surgery centres, are summarized in Table 2.^[2, 52-61] Unfortunately only a few randomized controlled trials have compared the different surgical approaches; they are summarized in Table 3.^[62-66]

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Table 2. Pancreatic resection procedures for CP2^[52-61]

References	Procedure	No. of patients	Overall mortality (%)	Morbidity (%)	Postoperative EI (%)	Pain relief (%)
Heise et al ^[52] 2001	PPPD vs.	41	4.8	-	67	54
	DP	26				
Jimenez et al ^[53] 2000	PPPD vs.	39	1.4	44	63	60
	Whipple's	33				
Sakorafas et al ^[54] 2001	DP	40	0	15	47	81
Sakorafas et al ^[55] 2000	PPPD vs.	33	3.0	32	36	89
	Whipple's	72				
Vickers et al ^[56] 1999	PPPD vs.	18	0	31	-	71
	Whipple's	14				
Beger et al ^[57] 1999	Beger's	504	0.8	-	21	79
Traverso and Kozarek ^[58] 1997	Whipple's	47	0	36	22	100
Evans et al ^[2] 1997	Whipple's vs.	15	-	73	30	70
	Beger's	18				
Martin et al ^[59] 1996	PPPD	45	2.1	54	46	92
Frey and Akimura ^[60] 1994	Frey's	50	0	22	11	87
Stone et al ^[61] 1988	Whipple's vs.	15	0	20	47	70
	TP	15				

EI: endocrine insufficiency; PPPD: pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy; DP: distal pancreatectomy; TP: total pancreatectomy.

Table 3. Randomized controlled trials comparing surgical procedures for the treatment of CP^[62-66]

References	Procedure	No. of patients	Follow-up (mon)	Results
Izbicki et al ^[62] 1998	PPPD vs. Frey's	61	24 (median)	Better quality of life and lower in-hospital complications in Frey's procedure; equal pain relief and pancreatic function
Izbicki et al ^[63] 1997	Beger's vs. Frey's	74	30 (median)	Lower morbidity in Frey's procedure; equal pain relief, pancreatic function and quality of life
Izbicki et al ^[64] 1995	DPPHR vs. Frey's	42	18 (median)	Equal pain relief, weight gain, pancreatic function and quality of life
Buchler et al ^[65] 1995	DPPHR vs. PPPD	40	6	Less pain, greater weight gain, better endocrine function and lower morbidity in DPPHR
Klempa et al ^[66] 1995	DPPHR vs. Whipple's	43	36-66	Pain relief higher and new onset of diabetes lower in DPPHR; equal mortality and morbidity

PPPD: pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy; DPPHR: duodenum-preserving pancreatic head resection.

Pancreatoduodenectomy (Whipple's procedure)

This procedure was originally described for resection of periampullary malignancies,^[67] but it has also been used in the surgical management of patients with CP. It is a safe procedure with a hospital mortality of 0%-5%,^[68] and a postoperative pain relief of 50%-75% at a long-term follow-up period.^[34, 58, 61] It is associated with poor long-term results in patients with CP: poor postoperative digestive function including dumping, diarrhea, peptic ulcer, dyspeptic complaints, and diabetes mellitus which is responsible for the late postoperative morbidity and mortality in these patients.^[62, 69] The long-term surgical results,

especially regarding quality of life of patients, are disappointing in some studies.^[62, 70, 71]

Pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy (PPPD)

This technique was described by Traverso and Longmire in 1978.^[72] They tried to minimize the derangements in gastrointestinal physiology observed in patients who had undergone a Whipple resection, including weight loss, diarrhea, dumping, delayed gastric emptying, and marginal ulceration. A long-term follow-up has shown that there is a significantly reduced incidence of gastrointestinal

disturbances after PPPD when compared with the Whipple's procedure,^[73] and a better quality of life after the PPPD.^[74] One large retrospective study found comparable results in postoperative pancreatic function comparing these procedures,^[53] while Berberat et al^[75] reported that the maintenance of a near normal upper gastrointestinal tract was shown to reduce the incidence of postoperative steatorrhea and exocrine insufficiency when compared with the Whipple's procedure. However, Müller et al^[76] reported three major drawbacks of PPPD in patients with CP: the increased incidence of postoperative sequelae of transient delayed gastric emptying (30% to 50% of patients), which often is associated with slower weight gain; the risk of cholangitis; and the long-term occurrence of exocrine and endocrine pancreatic insufficiency in more than 45% of patients.

Distal pancreatectomy (DP)

DP is a safe procedure, with a perioperative mortality of 0%-3.8% and a morbidity of 15%-31%, that may be performed with or without splenectomy.^[52, 54] Sawyer and Frey^[77] emphasized that DP should be utilized only in appropriate patients with CP (pancreatic duct <5 mm diameter, disease seen on CT and ERCP to be restricted to the pancreatic body, tail, or both) and they also found adequate pain relief in 90% of patients with distal disease at a mean follow-up of 4 years. Rattner et al^[78] on the other hand, reported good pain relief in only 31% of patients undergoing DP for distal CP. In two recent studies, DP with splenic preservation controlled pain in 72%-82% of patients with CP.^[79, 80]

Hutchins et al^[81] reported on a series of 90 patients who had undergone a DP for CP. Eighty-eight of 84 patients available for follow-up had zero or minimal abdominal pain. 46% of these patients became diabetic at a median follow-up of 2 years. Similarly, Schoenberg et al^[82] reported 74 patients undergoing DP for CP with a median follow-up of 58 months; 88% of patients had significantly less pain and 66% had an increase in median body weight, while diabetes mellitus occurred in 22% of patients.

Total pancreatectomy (TP)

TP with duodenum- and spleen-preserving was carried out for benign disease that required removal of the whole gland. It was also indicated for patients with CP and disabling pain for whom the partial resection had failed,^[83] for those with total endocrine and exocrine pancreatic failure,^[84] and for those with hereditary pancreatitis or familial pancreatic

cancer, as prophylaxis against cancer.^[85-88] The main contraindication for this procedure is the presence or suspicion of pancreatic malignancy. TP creates a significant postoperative morbidity in the form of insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus and exocrine insufficiency with malabsorption. However, the introduction of islet isolation and autotransplantation has led to renewed interest in TP as a treatment modality for end-stage CP. Many well documented cases of TP and islet autotransplantation (infusion of isolated islet cells into the portal vein following pancreatectomy) with good results in the control of the pancreatic endocrine insufficiency have been reported.^[89-92] In some series, patients no longer need insulin,^[92] while some patients may require exogenous insulin to treat hyperglycemia.^[93]

A review of Whipple's procedure versus TP for CP^[61] showed that TP resulted in complete pain relief in 27% of patients compared to 53% in the Whipple group, and 33% of patients who underwent TP continued to have significant pain after surgery. Finally, some authors reported a hospital mortality of 26%-47%, with complete a pain relief of 75%-83% in series with TP, with or without spleen and duodenum preservation.^[71, 78, 83]

Duodenum-preserving pancreatic head resection (Beger's procedure)

Duodenum-sparing resection of the pancreatic head was first described by Beger et al.^[47] Indications for this procedure include intractable abdominal pain, small duct CP, and head dominant disease. The Beger's procedure is contraindicated in circumstances in which pancreatic cancer is suspected.^[57] Surgical technique consists of ventral transection of the pancreatic neck and subtotal head resection combined with Roux-en-Y loop of jejunum anastomosis to the distal pancreatic remnant and the rim of pancreatic tissue along the inner surface of the duodenum to restore gastrointestinal continuity.^[94] The goal of this technique is to treat only the enlarged pancreatic head, where the disease is mainly present, and to preserve the duodenum, which has a crucial role in the regulation of digestion and glucose metabolism.

Beger et al^[57] reported 26-year experience with this procedure in 504 patients with CP and pancreatic head inflammatory mass. A median follow-up of 5.7 years demonstrated that 91.3% of patients were pain-free following the Beger's procedure, and that the hospital mortality was 0.8% and the late death rate was 8.9%-12.6%, compared to 20.8%-35% for patients without surgery as reported. No data concerning the

There are total 84 cases. How come to 88?

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effect of this procedure on steatorrhea or pancreatic enzyme requirements were provided. A randomized trial of 20 patients per procedure, Beger's procedure versus Whipple's procedure, showed that patients undergoing Beger's procedure had significantly less pain, increased postoperative weight gain, and better glucose tolerance at a 6-month follow-up.^[65]

Local pancreatic head resection with longitudinal pancreatojejunostomy (Frey's procedure)

A modified Beger's procedure was described by Frey in 1987.^[48] This procedure consists of a subtotal duodenum-sparing pancreatic head resection combined with LPJ. The resection in the head of the pancreas allows opening the main pancreatic duct as it courses posteriorly toward the duodenum and provides drainage of all pancreatic ducts by extending the Roux limb to the duodenum.^[95] The operation is designed to avoid the more technically challenging aspects of the Beger's procedure, the division of the pancreatic neck, and the need for 2 separate pancreatic anastomosis.^[95] It is also described for patients who have "head-predominant" disease on the assumption that the pancreatic head, with fibrotic and obstructed ducts, is not adequately addressed by simply decompression of the main pancreatic duct with the Puestow procedure.^[95] It is also indicated for patients with small duct CP, and for patients with mild dilation and stricture of the proximal pancreatic duct.^[48, 95] The inability to exclude pancreatic malignancy is a contraindication to the performance of Frey's procedure.^[95]

Operative results indicate that Frey's procedure has an operative mortality of 0% and a perioperative morbidity of 22%.^[60, 95] Excellent pain relief was achieved in 74.5% of patients in a mean follow-up of 37 months, while progression of endocrine (11%) and exocrine (11%) insufficiency was noted to be minimal and less than that for other procedures.^[95] Frey's procedure was also compared with PPPD in a prospective randomized trial at the University of Hamburg.^[62] The morbidity rate was 19.4% in the Frey group and 53.3% in the PPPD group; the pain score decreased after surgery by 94% and 95% respectively. A median follow-up of 2 years, showed that the global quality of life improved by 71% and 43%, respectively.

In a prospective randomized trial by Izbicki et al^[64] the Frey's procedure was compared with the Beger's procedure. At a mean follow-up of 1.5 years postoperatively, patients undergoing the Frey's or Beger's procedure demonstrated decreased pain scores of 94% and 95% respectively. Both patients groups

had an increase of 67% in their overall quality of life indices, and there were no significant differences in postoperative endocrine and exocrine function.

We believe that all types of pancreatic head resection are effective for the relief of pain from CP. We support the choice of pancreatoduodenectomy (Whipple's procedure or PPPD) if there is any possibility of malignancy. For patients with head predominant disease with a normal sized pancreatic duct that is devoid of stricture, Beger's procedure is preferable. For patients with chain-of-lakes-type anatomy, the Frey's procedure is the best choice because it addresses these abnormalities via the pancreatojejunostomy. Distal pancreatectomy is highly effective for patients with benign-appearing left-sided pancreatic duct stricture with upstream duct dilation, or duct disruption not amenable to pancreatojejunostomy and for those with complications of pancreatitis limited to the distal pancreas such as pseudocysts or associated splenic vein thrombosis.

Non-pancreatic and endoscopic pain control

Many attempts have been made to manage the pain in CP without submitting the patient to a major abdominal procedure and the associated potential complications. To modify transmission of pancreatic pain at the level of the celiac ganglia, several attempts have been made, including temporary blockade, permanent blockade (neurolysis), and surgical resection.^[96] Celiac plexus blockage has successfully been used in the management of abdominal pain secondary to pancreatic carcinoma.^[97] However, the long-term results of percutaneous or endoscopic celiac plexus blockage are far from encouraging, since no more than 50% of the patients even develop a significant short-lived pain relief.^[98, 99]

A technique of neural ablation that may offer a higher success rate is splanchnicectomy. Currently, the main indication for splanchnicectomy is intractable abdominal pain caused by pancreatic and gastric carcinomas.^[100] Thoracotomy is often perceived as too invasive for these debilitated patients. Thoracoscopic splanchnicectomy, which is less invasive than thoracotomy, is effective in pain control while minimizing the morbidity of the treatment.^[101]

Reduction of intraductal pancreatic pressure in patients with CP presenting with ductal strictures or stones has been attempted by endoscopically inserted intraductal stents. This is an effective, relatively safe, and technically feasible method in a subgroup of

patients with symptomatic CP.^[102-112] Stenting of the main pancreatic duct is the major problem that the stents tend to occlude rapidly; most are occluded by 8 weeks.^[113] Pancreatic stents should not be used for definitive therapy but sparingly because stents induce morphologic alterations of the main pancreatic duct in 16% to 34% of the patients, which may resemble CP.^[107, 114] The goal of dilation and stenting of pancreatic duct stricture is decompression that, if successful, is associated with pain relief in 60% of the patients with an average follow-up of 5 years.^[110] However, the long-term results in large series are not so impressive.^[110, 115]

Stone extraction can also be achieved by various techniques including balloon sweep, lithotripsy (mechanical, extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy followed by balloon sweep, or electrohydraulic shock wave lithotripsy) or stone retrieval using a basket.^[116-118]

Treatment of complications of CP

Biliary stricture and duodenal obstruction which are well-known complications of CP occur in 6% and 1.2% of the patients, respectively.^[35, 119-121] For patients requiring an operation for CP, the incidence increases to 35% for biliary stricture and 12% for duodenal obstruction.^[120] Most patients will present with an elevated alkaline phosphatase and/or bilirubin level, but the initial presentation with clinical jaundice, cholangitis, or biliary cirrhosis is rare. Surgery is indicated if patients develop jaundice which seems to be due to progressive chronic disease and fibrosis or have an episode of cholangitis.^[3] The procedure of choice in pain-free patients with isolated biliary stricture is Roux-en-Y choledochojejunostomy to bypass the obstructed intra-pancreatic portion of the common bile duct.^[119] Choledochoduodenostomy and cholecystoenterostomy must be avoided whenever possible because they are associated with the high incidence of cholangitis.^[119, 120, 122]

For patients who are at high risk for operation or demonstrate portal vein thrombosis with associated varices, endobiliary stents provide acceptable short and medium-term resolution of common bile duct obstruction caused by CP,^[123, 124] but they cannot be used as a definitive treatment because their long-term results are poorer than those of surgical management.^[125, 126] More recently, however, the use of self-expandable metal stents has demonstrated better results.^[127] **Why "poorer"?**

Duodenal obstruction is usually found in

patients with "head-predominant" version of chronic pancreatitis, in which the head is significantly enlarged (≥ 7 cm in diameter).^[128] Isolated duodenal obstruction in patients with CP is much less common than obstruction of the common bile duct. For patients with isolated duodenal obstruction, the procedure of choice is gastrojejunostomy,^[129] while combined duodenal and distal bile duct obstruction is effectively controlled by duodenal-preserving pancreatic head resection (DPPHR).^[60, 130, 131]

Pseudocyst complicates CP in 30% to 40% of patients.^[132] Over the last several decades, several series have documented the feasibility of conservative treatment of asymptomatic pseudocysts.^[125-135] Based on these series, the current policy for patients with asymptomatic pseudocysts, regardless of size or duration, is nonoperative management. Treatment is reserved for patients with symptomatic pseudocysts, enlarging pseudocysts, or complications (infection, rupture, or pseudoaneurysm) related to the pseudocyst. Symptoms may include pain, early satiety, compression of the duodenum or stomach causing obstruction, and compression of the bile duct causing jaundice or abnormal liver function.

Septate pancreatic cysts and those containing fluid with elevated carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA) and CA 125 levels are generally treated by resection because of the possibility that they represent cystic neoplasm.^[136] Unsurprisingly, pancreatic pseudocysts may show high CA 19-9 values because this marker may also be elevated in the serum of patients with pancreatitis.^[136] If the pseudocyst is adherent to the posterior wall of the stomach, the preferred operation is a cyst-gastrostomy. If the pseudocyst is in the head of the pancreas, adherent to either the first or third portions of the duodenum, and away from the ampulla and common bile duct, Roux-en-Y cyst-jejunostomy is advisable. For smaller intra-pancreatic pseudocysts within the pancreatic head, a Whipple's procedure may be appropriate. If the pseudocyst is small and located in the tail of the pancreas, DP is recommended.

Rosso et al^[137] reported the success rates of cyst-duodenostomy, cyst-gastrostomy, and cyst-jejunostomy were 100%, 90%, and 92%, respectively. The morbidity ranging from 9% to 36% included bleeding from anastomosis, infection of pseudocyst, erosion of pseudocyst wall, and rupture of pseudoaneurysms.

Endoscopic therapy includes transampullary and/or transgastric approaches. Transampullary drainage is not effective if the pseudocyst is not in communication with the main pancreas duct, while

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endoscopic transgastric/duodenal drainage is not possible if the pseudocyst is not adherent to the gastric/duodenal wall, if the common wall is thicker than 1 cm, or if extensive intervening collateral blood vessels due to splenic vein thrombosis are present. When possible, endoscopic drainage has a technical success rate of 80% to 90% and is associated with a 75% incidence of pseudocyst resolution.^[133, 138] The morbidity for these procedures ranges from 0% to 30%; bleeding and infectious complications may require emergency operation.^[137]

An increasing number of patients with CP are diagnosed with splenic vein thrombosis and secondary left-sided portal hypertension.^[139-144] Heider et al^[145] reported 55 patients with a diagnosis of CP and splenic vein thrombosis; 77% of patients developed gastrosplenic varices, while only 2 patients had gastric variceal bleeding and required splenectomy. Splenectomy is the treatment of choice for symptomatic patients with left-sided portal hypertension caused by splenic vein thrombosis. Asymptomatic patients should be treated expectantly, as prophylactic splenectomy is indicated for those patients with splenic vein obstruction who are operated on for other complications of CP.

Finally, the last group of indications for surgery in patients with CP relates to complications of ruptured pancreatic duct or leaking pseudocysts and includes internal pancreatic fistula, and pancreatic ascites.^[146-150] Patients with a leaking pseudocyst or a disrupted pancreatic duct will be best treated, respectively, by a cyst or a pancreatic duct internal drainage, whereas DP should be indicated for those patients with a narrow disrupted duct.^[147] External pancreatic drainage may be complicated by a persistent percutaneous fistula in patients with a proximal pancreatic duct obstruction;^[146] transpapillary pancreatic ductal stents have been used in patients who failed to respond to conservative measures.^[150]

Concomitant pancreatic cancer

There is an association between CP and an increased incidence of pancreatic cancer, especially in smokers.^[7, 151] The risk of pancreatic cancer in patients with CP varies from 2.3% to 26.7%,^[151-153] whereas in patients with hereditary pancreatitis it approaches almost 75% for patients with a paternal inheritance pattern.^[85] In addition, patients with intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasms (IPMN) may present with symptoms similar to those of CP.

Therefore, it is important to rule out the presence of IPMN in patients referred for surgical treatment of CP, especially lesions located in the body or tail of the pancreas.

Many studies report deaths from pancreatic carcinoma in patients who had previously had pancreatic drainage.^[33, 154-156] A high index of suspicion should be kept in mind, especially when there is an inflammatory mass in the pancreatic head associated with a dominant stricture of the pancreatic duct. Despite the adoption of sophisticated diagnostic tools (ERCP, CT, MRI, EUS, fine needle cytology)^[157-161] in a high percentage of cases (up to 30%), it is impossible for the surgeon to say preoperatively whether a mass in the head of the pancreas is inflammatory or malignant.^[162] This can be difficult even in the operating room using incisional biopsies,^[163, 164] intra-operative ultrasonography,^[165] or pancreatic ductoscopy.^[166] Therefore, when there is a strong suspicion of an underlying malignancy, a Whipple's procedure or a PPPD should be considered.

Conclusion

Surgical management of CP remains controversial. Pancreatic duct drainage provides short-term pain relief, and presentation of endocrine and exocrine pancreatic function. Whipple's procedure and PPPD represent appropriate approaches for the adequate treatment of malignancy in suspected patients, both can be performed with low mortality rates, and they result in similar levels of endocrine and exocrine insufficiency. But PPPD seems to provide better postoperative results concerning quality of life and adequate relief of pain. Duodenum- and spleen-preserving TP has a role in selected patients with medically intractable pain and complications resulting from CP, which are usually reserved for the patients who have a failed previous resection. DP is more effective, however, when pathology is limited to the pancreatic body or tail. In recent years attempts have been made to develop organ-preserving operations, such as Beger's and Frey's procedures, which are safe and effective in providing long-term pain relief and in treating complications of CP with the preservation of pancreatic endocrine and exocrine function. But both are contraindicated when pancreatic cancer is suspected. Effort have also been devoted to pain control in CP by thoracoscopic splanchnicectomy or endoscopically inserted intraductal stents. Because of lack of data from randomized controlled trials, the surgical treatment of patients with CP remains

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a problem, and additional trials are needed to determine the most effective surgical procedure.

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