Aalborg Universitet



International consensus guidelines on interventional endoscopy in chronic pancreatitis. Recommendations from the working group for the international consensus guidelines for chronic pancreatitis in collaboration with the International Association of Pancreatology, the American Pancreatic Association, the Japan Pancreas Society, and European Pancreatic Club

Kitano, Masayuki; Gress, Thomas M.; Garg, Pramod K.; Itoi, Takao; Irisawa, Atsushi; Isayama, Hiroyuki; Kanno, Atsushi; Takase, Kei; Levy, Michael; Yasuda, Ichiro; Lévy, Phillipe; Isaji, Shuiji; Fernandez-Del Castillo, Carlos; Drewes, Asbjørn M.; Sheel, Andrea R.G.; Neoptolemos, John P.; Shimosegawa, Tooru; Boermeester, Marja; Wilcox, C. Mel; Whitcomb, David C.

Published in: Pancreatology

DOI (link to publication from Publisher): 10.1016/j.pan.2020.05.022

Creative Commons License CC BY-NC-ND 4.0

Publication date: 2020

Document Version Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Link to publication from Aalborg University

Citation for published version (APA):

Kitano, M., Gress, T. M., Garg, P. K., Itoi, T., Irisawa, A., Isayama, H., Kanno, A., Takase, K., Levy, M., Yasuda, I., Lévy, P., Isaji, S., Fernandez-Del Castillo, C., Drewes, A. M., Sheel, A. R. G., Neoptolemos, J. P., Shimosegawa, T., Boermeester, M., Wilcox, C. M., & Whitcomb, D. C. (2020). International consensus guidelines on interventional endoscopy in chronic pancreatitis. Recommendations from the working group for the international consensus guidelines for chronic pancreatitis in collaboration with the International Association of Pancreatology, the American Pancreatic Association, the Japan Pancreas Society, and European Pancreatic Club. *Pancreatology*, 20(6), 1045-1055. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pan.2020.05.022

Pancreatology 20 (2020) 1045-1055



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Pancreatology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/pan



International consensus guidelines on interventional endoscopy in chronic pancreatitis. Recommendations from the working group for the international consensus guidelines for chronic pancreatitis in collaboration with the International Association of Pancreatology, the American Pancreatic Association, the Japan Pancreas Society, and European Pancreatic Club



Masayuki Kitano ^{a, *}, Thomas M. Gress ^b, Pramod K. Garg ^c, Takao Itoi ^d, Atsushi Irisawa ^e, Hiroyuki Isayama ^f, Atsushi Kanno ^g, Kei Takase ^h, Michael Levy ⁱ, Ichiro Yasuda ^j, Phillipe Lévy ^k, Shuiji Isaji ^l, Carlos Fernandez-Del Castillo ^m, Asbjørn M. Drewes ⁿ, Andrea R.G. Sheel ^o, John P. Neoptolemos ^p, Tooru Shimosegawa ^q, Marja Boermeester ^r, C. Mel Wilcox ^s, David C. Whitcomb ^t

- ^a Second Department of Internal Medicine, Wakayama Medical University, 811-1 Kimiidera, Wakayama, 641-8509, Japan
- ^b Department of Gastroenterology, Endocrinology, Metabolism and Infectiology, University Hospital, Philipps-Universität Marburg, Marburg, Germany
- ^c Department of Gastroenterology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi, India
- ^d Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Tokyo Medical University, Tokyo, Japan
- ^e Department of Gastroenterology, Dokkyo Medical University, Mibu, Tochigi, Japan
- ^f Department of Gastroenterology, Graduate School of Medicine, Juntendo University, Tokyo, Japan
- ^g Department of Gastroenterology, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Sendai, Japan
- ^h Department of Diagnostic Radiology, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Sendai, Japan
- ⁱ Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA
- ^j Third Department of Internal Medicine, University of Toyama, Toyama, Japan

^k Service de Pancréatologie-Gastroentérologie, Pôle des Maladies de l'Appareil Digestif, DHU UNITY, Hôpital Beaujon, APHP, Clichy Cedex, Université Paris 7, France

- ¹ Department of Surgery, Mie University Graduate School of Medicine, Tsu, Japan
- ^m Department of General Surgery, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA
- ⁿ Centre for Pancreatic Diseases, Department of Gastroenterology, Aalborg University Hospital, Aalborg, Denmark
- ^o Department of Molecular and Clinical Cancer Medicine, Institute of Translational Medicine, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK
- ^p Department of General Surgery, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany
- ^q Division of Gastroenterology, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Sendai, Japan

^r Department of Surgery, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, and Amsterdam Gastroenterology & Metabolism, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

^s Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA

^t Departments of Medicine, Cell Biology & Molecular Physiology and Human Genetics, Division of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition, University of Pittsburgh and UPMC, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: kitano@wakayama-med.ac.jp (M. Kitano), gress@med.unimarburg.de (T.M. Gress), pgarg10@hotmail.com (P.K. Garg), itoi@tokyo-med.ac.jp (T. Itoi), irisawa@dokkyomed.ac.jp (A. Irisawa), isahiro4104@gmail.com (H. Isayama), atsushih@med.tohoku.ac.jp (A. Kanno), ktakase@rad.med.tohoku.ac. jp (K. Takase), Levy.Michael@mayo.edu (M. Levy), yasudaich@gmail.com (I. Yasuda), philippe.levy@bjn.aphp.fr (P. Lévy), shujisaji1@mac.com (S. Isaji), CFERNANDEZ@mgh.harvard.edu (C. Fernandez-Del Castillo), amd@rn.dk (A.M. Drewes), andrea.sheel@liverpool.ac.uk (A.R.G. Sheel), john.neoptolemos@ med.uni-heidelberg.de (J.P. Neoptolemos), tshimosegawa@int3.med.tohoku.ac.jp (T. Shimosegawa), m.a.boermeester@amc.uva.nl (M. Boermeester), melw@uab.edu (C.M. Wilcox), whitcomb@pitt.edu (D.C. Whitcomb).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pan.2020.05.022

1424-3903/© 2020 IAP and EPC. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 18 November 2019 Received in revised form 29 May 2020 Accepted 30 May 2020 Available online 10 July 2020

Keywords: EUS ERCP ESWL Pancreatectomy Surgery

ABSTRACT

Background/objectives: This paper is part of the international consensus guidelines on chronic pancreatitis, presenting for interventional endoscopy.

Methods: An international working group with experts on interventional endoscopy evaluated 26 statements generated from evidence on 9 clinically relevant questions. The Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation approach was used to evaluate the level of evidence. To determine the level of agreement, a nine-point Likert scale was used for voting on the statements.

Results: Strong consensus was obtained for 15 statements relating to nine questions including the recommendation that endoscopic intervention should be offered to patients with persistent severe pain but not to those without pain. Endoscopic decompression of the pancreatic duct could be used for immediate pain relief, and then offered surgery if this fails or needs repeated endoscopy. Endoscopic drainage is preferred for portal-splenic vein thrombosis and pancreatic fistula. A plastic stent should be placed and replaced 2–3 months later after insertion. Endoscopic extraction is indicated for stone fragments remaining after ESWL. Interventional treatment should be performed for symptomatic/ complicated pancreatic pseudocysts. Endoscopic treatment is recommended for bile duct obstruction and afterwards surgery if this fails or needs repeated endoscopy. Surgery may be offered if there is significant calcification and/or mass of the pancreatic head. Percutaneous endovascular treatment is preferred for duodenal stenosis due to chronic pancreatitis.

Conclusions: This international expert consensus guideline provides evidenced-based statements concerning indications and key aspects for interventional endoscopy in the management of patients with chronic pancreatitis.

© 2020 IAP and EPC. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

Introduction

Interventions for chronic pancreatitis (CP) may include endoscopy and extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy (ESWL) as well as surgery, but with a wide variation in practice globally for these various approaches [1,2]. There are several guidelines focusing on interventional endoscopy in chronic pancreatitis [3–7]. However, these previous guidelines on CP have tended to be based on one professional group and/or a single geographical area. The purpose of these guidelines was to provide internationally applicable recommendations for practicing clinicians on the indication, selection and approaches for non-surgical interventions. Multidisciplinary experts from the International Association of Pancreatology, the American Pancreatic Association, the Japan Pancreas Society, and European Pancreatic Club (IAP-APA-JPS-EPC) joined to minimize intrinsic biases for making The International Consensus Guidelines on Chronic Pancreatitis (ICGCP). This paper aimed to be part of the international consensus guidelines on chronic pancreatitis, presenting for interventional endoscopy.

Methods

The process for developing the ICGCP guidelines was commenced at the EPC Annual Meeting of 2016. A team of worldwide experts comprising gastroenterologists, surgeons and radiologists with expertise in endoscopy and interventional radiology as well as surgery was composed, chaired by Masayuki Kitano. International experts were selected from members of ICGCP Committee composed of four societies: EPC, APA, JPS and IAP (Supplementary table). The first step was to generate clinical questions and evaluate the evidence. A literature review of invited expert reviews, systematic reviews, and landmark papers that were published on CP was performed by 11 guideline members (MK, TMG, PKG, TI, AI, HI, AK, KT, IY, SI, TS). The 11 guideline members raised as many clinical questions as possible, and consolidated them to a smaller number. For each clinical question, several statements were made. The Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) approach was used to evaluate the level of evidence per statement (see http://www. uptodate.com/home/gradingtutorial). Quality assessment of evidence was graded as 'high' if there was (very) low probability of further research substantially changing the conclusions, 'moderate' if further research might completely change the conclusions, and 'low' if further research was likely to completely change the conclusions. Statements were revised by discussion among all guideline members for each domain requiring multiple iterations until there was complete agreement. Overlapping concepts in different statements were consolidated into a smaller number of statements. The strengths of the recommendation were graded as 'strong' if it was very certain that benefits outweigh risks and burdens, 'weak' if risks and burdens appear to be finely balanced, or when benefits, risks, and burdens are closely balanced or uncertain, or 'conditional' if it was in between strong and weak recommendation.

After grading, the working group of all guideline members voted on each statement for strength of agreement, using a nine-point Likert scale. A single round of voting was completed using an anonymized web-based system, and statements were not further modified following voting. Out of the results, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated per statement (http://hdl. handle.net/1805/344). The voting results were classified for agreement as either; 'strong' if 80% of votes were 7 or above, 'conditional' if 65%–80% of votes were 7 or above, and 'weak' less than 65% of votes were 7 or above. In addition, comments to each question and statements were compiled to explain the surrounding issues, supported by key references.

Results

Q 1: What are the indications for intervention in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 1.1. Endoscopic or surgical treatment should be offered to patients with chronic pancreatitis with persistent severe pain. Intervention in the form of either surgery or endotherapy is not recommended in asymptomatic patients with chronic pancreatitis who do not have abdominal pain to improve pancreatic exocrine and/or endocrine function or prevent cancer.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: strong Agreement: strong $\alpha = 1.00$

Statement 1.2. Endoscopic or surgical treatment should be carried out after careful patient selection for local complications of chronic pancreatitis with persistent clinical symptoms such as gastric outlet obstruction, duodenal stenosis, biliary obstruction with cholestasis and pseudocysts.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: strong Agreement: strong $\alpha = 1.00$

Statement 1.3. Celiac plexus block may be undertaken in patients for significant abdominal pain who are not candidates for pancreatic surgery, or have not responded to endotherapy and extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy (ESWL), or have a poor general condition as a temporizing measure before definitive therapy.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: weak Agreement: weak $\alpha = 0.41$

Comment

Although pain is the reason for intervention and key to deciding timing and type of intervention there is no consensus on how to assess pain in chronic pancreatitis, but there are several recommendations by the ICGCP for the understanding and management of pain in chronic pancreatitis [1]. In the clinical situation pain will normally be rated on an eleven-point numerical scale ranging from 0 (no pain at all) to 10 (worst imaginable pain). Pain characteristics requiring intervention are that (1) there should be a plausible relationship between pain and ductal morphology as in large pancreatic duct disease, (2) the pain is persistent and continuous with or without exacerbations, (3) that medical treatment is not successful, and (4) that pain should at last for more than three months. The likelihood for successful treatment depends on many factors including age, duration of disease, pain characteristics, and opioid dependency [2]. Persistent severe pain requires that it should last for >3 months (i.e. chronic pain according to the new ICD-11 guidelines), and whilst pain is a composite of sensory intensity, cognitive and affective factors that need to be taken into consideration for the individual patient, but pain intensity above 3 on the numerical scale with impact on daily life is normally considered severe [8]. Many factors can bring on pancreatic pain and shall be considered in the evaluation [9]. Long pain duration may affect the outcome in a negative way as the sensory system can undergo permanent neuroplastic changes where pain may become independent on the peripheral nociceptive drive [10]. More importantly a temporal association between the development of pancreatic morphological changes and pain may predict a favorable prognosis to invasive treatments [2].

It is the general impression that patients with central sensitization do not respond adequately to treatment [10]. However, central sensitization is difficult to measure and although quantitative sensory testing, electrophysiological and imaging methods may reveal some proxies for permanent neuroplastic changes in the central nervous system, there are no accepted criteria to evaluate these findings. Other factors such as anxiety and cognitive features goes hand in hand with central sensitization and complicates evaluation of the individual patient [1]. Narcotic dependence normally goes hand in hand with long-lasting pain and central sensitization and opioid use is associated with a less favorable outcome [11,12]. It is also of concern that opioids can in some instances contribute to hyperalgesia [8,13]. However, in the individual patient, it is difficult to determine whether opioids worsen the response to treatment as these patients have more severe pain and lower quality of life. This predicts a bad outcome to treatment per se and complicates the evaluation [2].

Once medical measures have failed, persistent severe pain can treated by both endoscopic and surgical procedures, although pancreatic function may not always be improved [14–21]. Early surgery in two randomized trials was associated with an increased likelihood of complete pain relief associated with a reduced risk of pancreatic insufficiency and low re-intervention rates compared to endoscopic intervention [20,21]. Symptomatic local complications of chronic pancreatitis including gastric outlet obstruction, duodenal stenosis, biliary obstruction with cholestasis and pseudocysts are also indications for interventional treatment [15,19–22].

Celiac plexus block (CPB) consists of injecting corticosteroids, local anesthetics or absolute alcohol into the celiac plexus nerve/ ganglia to disrupt the signaling of painful stimuli through pancreatic nerves [23]. Meta-analyses have reported that EUS-guided CPB may relieve pain in 51%–59% of patients but this is short-lived and is inferior to surgical management [24–26]. The nerve destruction may lead to an increase in pain due to neuropathic mechanisms that develop later and there are potential severe side effects such as hypotension, hemorrhage, infections and neurological complications [2,27]. CPB lasts for <3 months and after the neurolysis any neuropathic pain will worsen and together with the potential severe side effects neurolysis is a contraindication in chronic pancreatitis [28]. Therefore, we were unable to reach a consensus about CPB for management of pain in patients with chronic pancreatitis.

Q 2: What is the best strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stricture.

Statement 2.1. Non-surgical decompression of the main pancreatic duct including endoscopic therapy can be selected for immediate pain relief of chronic pancreatitis before considering surgery. Surgical intervention should be considered if endoscopic procedure fails or has temporary success needing repeated endoscopic therapy.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Statement 2.2. If there are contraindications for surgical therapy in patients in whom conventional endoscopic therapy has failed, endosonographic-guided drainage of the pancreatic duct is another option for pain control.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: weak Agreement: weak $\alpha = 0.47$

Statement 2.3. Endoscopic drainage should be the preferred modality for treating pancreatic pain and biliary stricture in patients with chronic pancreatitis who have associated portal/ splenic vein thrombosis.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.82$

Comment

The main purpose of main pancreatic duct (MPD) decompression is pain relief [29–38]. The immediate response rates with endoscopic stenting range from 65% to 95% [16,18,29–38]. Morbidity rates of 18%–58% and mortality rates of 0–5% are reported for both endoscopy and surgery [11,20,21,39–43]. The long-term pain relief is 54% at 2 years [5], 85% at 2–12 years [29], 64% at 2 years [18], and 58% at 12 years [36]. Failed stone extraction using endoscopic pancreatic sphincterotomy and a basket or a balloon is associated with stones >10 mm, diffuse location, stone impaction, and location upstream from a stricture [44,45]. The success rate of endoscopic therapy is much higher for strictures and stones in the head of the pancreas than either the body and/or the tail of the pancreas [4,19].

Three randomized trials demonstrated that surgery is more effective than endoscopic treatment for persistent pain relief [20,21,43,47]. In the randomized controlled study from the Czech Republic, the initial success rates were similar for both groups, but at the 5-years, absence of pain weight gain were more frequent in the surgical group although the partial relief of pain and new-onset diabetes mellitus were not significantly different [20]. In the randomized trial from the Netherlands, symptomatic patients who underwent endoscopic treatment as the initial treatment for MPD obstruction had less pain relief (32% vs 75%, at 2 years; 38% vs 80%, at 5 years respectively), with more procedures (median of 12 versus 4 at 5 years respectively), than patients who were treated surgically [21,43]. Moreover, 47% of the patients in the endoscopy group eventually underwent surgery after 5-years follow-up [44]. The ESCAPE multicenter, randomized trial comprised 88 patients with chronic pancreatitis, a dilated MPD, and who had only recently started using prescribed opioids for severe pain (strong opioids for ≤ 2 months or weak opioids for ≤ 6 months) [46]. In the early surgery group 44 patients underwent pancreatic drainage surgery within 6 weeks after randomization and in the endoscopy-first approach group 44 patients were randomized to medical treatment, endoscopy including lithotripsy if needed, and surgery if needed. During 18 months of follow-up, patients in the early surgery group had a lower Izbicki pain score than patients in the group randomized to receive the endoscopy-first approach group (37 versus 49. Complete or partial pain relief at end of follow-up was achieved in 23 (58%) of 40 patients with early surgery compared to16 (39%) of 41 in the endoscopy-first group. The total number of interventions was lower in the early surgery group, although treatment complications, mortality (0%), hospital admissions, pancreatic function, and quality of life were not significantly different between early surgery and the endoscopy-first approach [46]. Hirota et al. also found that endoscopic stent placement when necessary for more than one year, was inferior to surgery [47]. These studies require cautious interpretation pending controlled sham clinical trials [2].

In complex cases when surgical and conventional endotherapy are not possible, then EUS -guided drainage of the MPD may be an option for pain control with an overall clinical success rate of 78.8%, but the adverse event rate (abdominal pain, bleeding, perforation, fever and severe pancreatitis) of 18.9% with a median (range) stent patency of 195 (10–780) days [48–54]. More recent developments include the use of a dedicated plastic stent or a fully covered selfexpandable metal stent (FCSEMS) [55,56]. EUS-guided drainage of the MPD should only be performed at a center of expertise, preferably in the context of a clinical trial.

Splanchnic venous thrombosis including splenic vein, hepatic portal vein and mesenteric vein thrombosis leading to extrahepatic portal hypertension in patients with CP has prevalence of around 11.6% [57]. Endoscopic therapy may be appropriate in this situation

as venous collaterals confer a major risk of complications from surgery [58].

Q 3: How should endoscopic stent treatment be done for pancreatic ductal stricture.

Statement 3.1. A straight plastic pancreatic stent should be placed across the stricture depending on the caliber of the stricture of the pancreatic duct.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Statement 3.2. An endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) inserted endoscopic stent should be removed or exchanged at between 2 and 3 months later. At this time a new stent should be inserted if there is still a significant stricture.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Statement 3.3. Multiple stents or a metal stent may be considered for persisting pancreatic strictures due to severe chronic pancreatitis.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: weak $\alpha = 0.47$

Comment

Around 36% of patients who receive pancreatic stenting develop ductal changes, which are related either to stent occlusion and direct stent trauma or side branch occlusion [59,60]. Stent replacement is commonly performed 2–6 months after the initial stent insertion and not be for >1 year [30-34,36-38,43,47,61-65].

Multiple plastic stents [35], or a removable FCSEMS have been used to try to achieve quicker stricture resolution [66–68]. Costamagna et al. found that after a median of three plastic stents (8.5-Fr to 11-Fr) placed for a mean of 7 months resulted in 84% of patients being asymptomatic without major complications during a mean follow-up of 38 months [35]. FCSEMS placement for 2–3 months produced complete pain relief in 86% at a mean follow-up of 5 months after stent removal but there was a high stent migration rate [66–68]. However, we were unable to reach a consensus about multiple stents or a metal stent for treatment of persisting pancreatic strictures due to severe chronic pancreatitis, because these previous studies were non-randomized.

Q4: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stones.

Statement 4.1. ESWL should be the first-line therapy as nonsurgical intervention for main pancreatic duct stones in patients with chronic pancreatitis who do not get adequate pain relief with conservative management although a stent placement may be done first to relieve pain.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: conditional $\alpha = 0.71$

Statement 4.2. Endoscopic extraction is indicated for small stones or stone fragments after ESWL.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong *α* = 0.82

Comment

ESWL for MPD stones >5 mm has achieved complete pain relief in 52.7% of patients who failed conservative pain management and mild to moderate pain relief in 33.4% at a median (range) of 24 (2–60) months follow-up [69]. Quality of life improved in 88.2% and complete ductal clearance was achieved in 70.7% patients [69]. Adverse events from ESWL can be achieved in <6.0% of patients treated [14,70,71].

A randomized controlled study that compared ESWL alone with ESWL plus endoscopic stent placement revealed no difference between the groups neither in terms of MPD diameter decrease, nor in the number of pain episodes/year [70]. Endoscopic intervention alone for pancreatic duct stones has a low success rate and a high complication rate [72]. There are however some studies that showed that combined ESWL and endoscopic therapy might provide favorable long-term results [73], even with coexisting pancreatic pseudocysts [74]. Intraductal laser or electrohydraulic lithotripsy is another option, but success rates vary from 47% to 89% [75,76]. Although there was no study comparing ESWL and intraductal therapies for treatment of pancreatic stones, intraductal therapies require insertion of a pancreatoscope into the pancreatic duct [77–81]. Further study is needed to decide whether these intraductal therapies can replace ESWL as first-line treatment.

Q5: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 5.1. For pancreatic pseudocysts that cause symptoms and/or complications, interventional or surgical treatment should be performed.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: strong Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.94$

Statement 5.2. Underlying stricture or disruption of the main pancreatic duct with symptoms and/or complications should be treated with endoscopic transpapillary placement of a pancreatic stent for pseudocysts <5 cm and with communication with the main pancreatic duct.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: conditional Agreement: conditional $\alpha = 0.71$

Statement 5.3. Asymptomatic and uncomplicated pancreatic pseudocysts of more than 5 cm in diameter that do not resolve within six weeks may be treated with transmural drainage.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: weak Agreement: weak $\alpha = 0.53$

Statement 5.4. In case of a suspected neoplastic cystic lesion diagnostic needle aspiration of the cyst may be done.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: weak Agreement: weak $\alpha = 0.53$

Statement 5.5. Surgical intervention should be considered if endoscopic drainage of pseudocysts fails or has temporary success needing repeated endoscopic therapy, especially when there is disconnected duct syndrome, inflammatory mass, and intraductal calculi with duct strictures.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.82$

Comment

Pancreatic pseudocysts occur in 20% and 40% of patients with CP [82]. Potential complications of the pseudocysts include infection of the pseudocyst, bile duct or gastric outflow obstruction or duodenal stenosis, rupture into the peritoneal cavity, pancreato-pleural fistula, portal or splenic vein thrombosis leading to sinistral (left-sided) portal hypertension, pseudocyst erosion into adjacent vessels resulting in pseudoaneurysm formation, and bleeding into the gastrointestinal tract or peritoneal cavity [82,83]. MPD disruption and stricture may lead to delayed resolution or recurrence of pancreatic pseudocyst in patients with CP.

Pancreatic duct stenting may improve clinical outcomes in patients with pancreatic duct stricture or leakage [84]. When the pseudocyst communicates with the MPD, transpapillary approach is initially recommended. This approach is useful for drainage of pseudocysts measuring <5 cm that are not suitable for transmural drainage [85]. Therefore, if pancreatic duct stricture or disruption is suspected on imaging tests such as CT and MRI, then endoscopic retrograde pancreatography (ERP) is recommended with pancreatic duct stenting across the stricture or disruption prior to pseudocyst drainage. In cases with large pseudocysts however, ERP may be difficult owing to the severe luminal compression of the stomach or duodenum, so transmural drainage should be performed first. For larger pseudocvsts, endoscopic transmural drainage has a technical success rate of more than 90% and a treatment success rate of 75–90% [86]. For transmural drainage, EUS-guided drainage has mostly replaced conventional endoscopy-guided drainage, as needle puncture can be made more accurately and more safely by avoiding any interposed vessel under real-time color Doppler guidance [87,88].

Spontaneous resolution of pseudocysts in patients with CP may occur in around 20% of cases whilst independent predictive factors of persisting symptoms are intrapancreatic pseudocysts greater than 4 cm or if they are extra-pancreatic [89]. Indications for prophylactic pseudocyst drainage in the absence of symptoms include compression of major vessels, pancreato-pleural fistula, pseudocyst size >5 cm without any regression after >6 weeks, pseudocyst wall >5 mm, and pseudocysts associated with advanced MPD changes or pancreatolithiasis [3,4]. However, we were unable to reach a consensus about transmural drainage for asymptomatic and uncomplicated pancreatic pseudocysts of more than 5 cm in diameter because of low level of evidence.

Differentiation between a pseudocyst and a cystic pancreatic neoplasm is essential [90-92]. The pooled sensitivity (54%) for diagnostic needle aspiration of the cyst is low, with a 2.7% morbidity rate [93,94]. Therefore, we were unable to reach a consensus about diagnostic needle aspiration of the cyst for a suspected neoplastic cystic lesion.

There are four randomized trials comparing endoscopic with surgical intervention that showed that both approaches provided similarly effective treatment for the pancreatic pseudocysts with no significant differences in mortality [87,88,95,96]. Endoscopic drainage was superior in terms of short-term quality of life, duration of hospital stay, the frequency of adverse events, and hospital costs, although there was a greater need for additional invasive procedures with endoscopy-based compared to open surgical drainage. Endoscopic drainage may be preferred to surgical treatment in symptomatic or complicated non-hemorrhagic pancreatic pseudocysts [5,82,84,97,98]. Endoscopic drainage of hemorrhagic pseudocysts is contraindicated requiring a combined endovascular and surgical approach [3,5,82]. Surgery should be undertaken if

endoscopic drainage is not successful [3,5,82].

Q6: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 6.1. Endoscopic treatment is recommended when the patients show symptoms related to the distal bile duct obstruction (obstructive jaundice and/or acute cholangitis), and in persistent cholestasis with alkaline phosphatase elevation (>2-3 times) for at least month even in asymptomatic patients.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Statement 6.2. Endoscopic treatment with multiple plastic or covered metal stents may be effective for relieving of the symptoms related to the distal bile duct obstruction due to chronic pancreatitis.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: weak Agreement: conditional $\alpha = 0.71$

Statement 6.3. In main biliary duct strictures caused by chronic pancreatitis, biliary stent placement is recommended for a period of 6 months to 1 year.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: weak Agreement: Weak $\alpha = 0.65$

Statement 6.4. Plastic stent replacement for main biliary duct stricture is recommended every 3 months. The optimal period for replacement of covered metal stent is currently unknown.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: weak Agreement: Conditional $\alpha = 0.71$

Statement 6.5. Endoscopic placement of multiple plastic or covered metal stent and/or surgery are appropriate to manage refractory bile duct obstruction.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: conditional $\alpha = 0.76$

Statement 6.6. Surgical treatment should be planned if bile duct obstruction reoccurs after one year of endoscopic stent treatment. For the patients who have significant calcifications and/or mass of the pancreatic head, surgical treatment may be preferred as an initial treatment.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textit{Quality assessment: low}\\ \textit{Recommendation: strong}\\ \textit{Agreement: strong}\\ \alpha=0.94 \end{array}$

Comment

Asymptomatic cholestasis due to intra-pancreatic bile duct stricture may improve spontaneously during observation, but secondary biliary cirrhosis may develop due to continuous cholestasis [15]. Endoscopic stenting for biliary decompression is required in patients with CP presenting with a \geq 4-week history of biliary obstruction with jaundice, and/or asymptomatic elevation of serum alkaline phosphatase >2 times the upper limit of normal [4]. Smits et al. reported good short-term results, but only 27.6% long-term success [33]. Calcific pancreatitis is a predictive factor for failure of initial treatment with single plastic stent, and in these cases, surgical treatment is preferred as an initial treatment [99,100].

Multiple plastic stents [101,102], or a covered SEMS may be used to manage the refractory cases [66,103,104]. Endoscopic biliary stenting has no additional effect beyond one year [3,4,33,104–106]. Surgical treatment should therefore be planned if bile duct obstruction recurs after one year of stent therapy [105,106]. Early surgical intervention benefits patients in terms of better pain control and preservation of pancreatic function [40,46,107]. A resection must be undertaken if malignancy cannot be excluded.

Biliary stricture in calcified CP is difficult to resolve [99,100]. Randomized studies have shown better efficacy of SEMS compared to multiple plastic stents in treating benign biliary strictures and need be exchanged every 3–12 months [108,109]. However, there were low level of evidence about how we should perform endoscopic treatment for main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis. In particular, we were unable to reach a consensus about the duration of stent placement.

Q7: What is the strategy for the treatment of internal pancreatic fistula and pancreatic pleural effusion and ascites in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 7.1. Endoscopic interventional therapy should be undertaken for the management of internal pancreatic fistula in patients presenting with main pancreatic duct disruption or obstruction.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: Strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Comment

Endoscopic interventional therapy for internal pancreatic fistulas such as pancreato-peritoneal and pancreato-pleural fistulas in CP, includes trans-papillary pancreatic stenting, and endoscopic sealing of pancreac fistula using glue [110-113]. Early bridging of the MPD by pancreatic stent can lead to satisfactory outcome provided this is done before the internal fistula develops are permanent fistula tract by granulation tissue and fibrosis [113]. Surgical therapy will be required in patients with complete MPD obstruction or disruption, or when there is an established internal fistula [110].

Q8: What is the strategy for the treatment of hemosuccus pancreaticus in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 8.1 Percutaneous endovascular treatment should be the first choice of treatment for hemosuccus pancreaticus in hemodynamically stable patients. However, patients with hemodynamic instability and unsuccessful embolization should undergo surgery.

Quality assessment: low Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.94$

Comment

Hemosuccus pancreaticus is a rare form of intermittent gastrointestinal blood loss, defined as bleeding into the duodenum from an internal vascular fistula between a vein or an artery with the MPD, most commonly due to a pseudoaneurysm [114,115]. Endovascular therapy is preferred ahead of surgery although placing a stent in the MPD may also work in blocking the fistula. The success rate of angiographic embolization as the initial therapy is over 70% whilst surgery tends to be nearly always successful there is a small risk of post-operative death [115,116]. Q9: What is the strategy for the treatment of duodenal obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.

Statement 9.1. Surgical treatment is recommended for duodenal stenosis associated with chronic pancreatitis, as endoscopic treatment is difficult in such cases.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: conditional Agreement: strong $\alpha = 0.88$

Statement 9.2. Duodenal stenosis due to chronic pancreatitis should be carefully differentiated from pancreatic cancer.

Quality assessment: moderate Recommendation: strong Agreement: strong $\alpha = 1.00$

Comment

Around 5% of patients with CP have duodenal stenosis due to inflammation of the pancreatic head or groove pancreatitis, which occurs locally in the groove formed by the duodenum, pancreatic head, and common bile duct [15,117]. Groove pancreatitis accounts for around 6% of CP cases and up to 20% of patients with CP who are treated by partial pancreaticoduodenectomy [117]. ERCP is technically challenging in bile or pancreatic duct stenosis with concurrent duodenum stenosis[44], and EUS-guided drainage of the MPD or the main biliary duct may be an alternative approach [118]. Surgical intervention is preferred in patients with biliary and pancreatic duct strictures due to CP accompanied by duodenal stenosis but cancer must be excluded [15,119].

Discussion

The aim of the ICGCP (EPC-APA-JPS-IAP) is not only to assist a more pragmatic basis for patient diagnosis and management but also to help accelerate the assessment and hence the development of newer pharmacological and other therapies. The advantage of ICGCP over the other guidelines is to provide internationally applicable recommendations. Regarding interventional endoscopy, previous guidelines on CP have tended to be based on one professional group and/or a single geographical area [17-20]. By tackling evidence based multi-disciplinary approach across different professional organizations and different continents intrinsic biases can be minimized. In addition, most previous guidelines included interventional endoscopy as a part of therapy. Therefore, detailed statements for interventional endoscopy were not described in these guidelines. The European Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ESGE) reported guidelines specific to interventional endoscopy on CP, in which statements for indications, strategy and methods were created only by endoscopists. The current guidelines of ICGCP are different from ESGE guidelines in that surgeons and endoscopists from all major continents contributed to creating detailed statements.

Nine key clinically relevant questions with 26 statements were eventually chosen to be evaluated. Of these a strong consensus was obtained for 15 statements relating to nine questions (Table 1). A key recommendation was that intervention either non-surgical or surgical should be offered to all patients with persistent severe pain and large duct disease refractory to medical management. This is in line with the ICGCP guidelines for surgery and the timing of intervention in CP [120]. Even so at present there is no consensus on how to assess pain in CP [1,2,8,9]. Whilst many factors can bring on pancreatic pain [9], previous ICGCP guidelines have made a number several recommendations for the understanding and management of pain in CP [1]. It is important to recognize that long term opioid use is associated with pain of long duration and is associated with a less favorable outcome in part due to central sensitization [11,12,107]. Intervention whether by endoscopic therapy or surgery is better undertaken sooner rather than later. Early surgery for pain is especially effective [11,40,46]. Surgery is also an effective treatment for pancreatic ductal stones compared to endoscopy therapy [20,21]. Non-surgical decompression of the MPD however could be used for immediate pain relief, and then the patient offered surgery if this failed. Endoscopic drainage is preferred for biliary stricture if there is associated hepatic portal-splenic vein thrombosis. In terms of endoscopic techniques, a straight plastic stent should be placed across a pancreatic stricture and stricture dilatation could then be undertaken depending on the degree of narrowing; an endoscopic stent should be removed or replaced 2-3 months later after insertion; and endoscopic extraction is indicated for stone fragments following ESWL. Patients with a symptomatic pancreatic pseudocyst and/or associated with complications should be offered surgical or non-surgical intervention. Endoscopic treatment is recommended for obstructive jaundice and/or acute cholangitis due to distal bile duct obstruction and then surgery if this fails. Surgery may be offered if there is significant calcification and/or mass of the pancreatic head. Endoscopic intervention is preferred for an internal pancreatic fistula. Percutaneous endovascular treatment is preferred for hemosuccus pancreaticus. A duodenum preserving head resection is recommended for duodenal stenosis due to a CP in the head of the pancreas.

Although there was a strong recommendation for the use of endoscopic treatment for obstructive jaundice and/or acute cholangitis due to distal bile duct obstruction, there was only conditional agreement for the use of biliary stents to manage uncomplicated or even refractory bile duct obstruction. There was also conditional agreement on all three statements relating to how endoscopic biliary drainage could technically be best achieved. There was conditional support for the use of ESWL with MPD stones in patients to relieve pain who do not obtain adequate pain relief with pancreatic duct stent placement. Conditional support highlights the need for more focused research on these questions.

There was strong support that symptomatic pancreatic pseudocyst should be offered surgical and/or non-surgical intervention. There was however, only conditional support using endoscopic pancreatic stents for pseudocysts <5 cm, irrespective of associated strictures and other features. Also there was only weak support for transmural drainage of asymptomatic and uncomplicated pancreatic pseudocysts >5 cm in diameter that do not resolve within six weeks, or diagnostic needle aspiration of suspected neoplastic cystic lesion in the presence of CP.

There was only weak agreement on the use of celiac plexus block to be undertaken in patients with significant abdominal pain who are not candidates for pancreatic surgery, or in those who have not responded to endotherapy and ESWL, or in those who have a poor general condition as a temporizing measure before definitive therapy. Pain relief only lasts for short term with a risk for side effects such as postural hypotension and diarrhea [28]. Another major concern is that the use of celiac plexus block can cause severe inflammation and fibrosis making subsequent surgery quite difficult and so celiac plexus block should be abandoned, in line with the ICGCP consensus guidelines for the understanding and management of pain in CP [1]. There was weak agreement endosonographic-guided drainage of the pancreatic duct is an option for pain control even if there are contraindications for surgical therapy in patients in whom conventional endoscopic therapy has failed. This was based on the fact that evidence to support this approach is weak, whilst there are potential serious complications. There was also lack of support for the use of multiple stents or a metal stent for persisting pancreatic strictures, due to lack of good evidence. The current evidence base does not support strong recommendations related to the application of endoscopy or surgery

Table 1 Recommendations stratified according to the α score.

Domain	atement	α score	Quality assessment	Recommendation	Agreement
Q1: What are the indications for intervention in chronic pancreatitis	1 Endoscopic or surgical treatment should be offered to patients with chronic pancreatitis with persistent severe pain. Intervention in the form of either surgery or endotherapy is not recommended in asymptomatic patients with chronic pancreatitis who do not have abdominal pain to improve pancreatic exocrine and/or endocrine function or prevent cancer.		Moderate	Strong	Strong
21: What are the indications for intervention in chronic pancreatitis	2 Endoscopic or surgical treatment should be carried out after careful patient selection for local complications of chronic pancreatitis with persistent clinical symptoms such as gastric outlet obstruction, duodenal stenosis, biliary obstruction with cholestasis and pseudocysts	1.00	Moderate	Strong	Strong
29: What is the strategy for the treatment of duodenal obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	2 Duodenal stenosis due to chronic pancreatitis should be	1.00	Moderate	Strong	Strong
25: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.	carefully differentiated from pancreatic cancer.1 For pancreatic pseudocysts that cause symptoms and/or complications, interventional or surgical treatment should be performed.	0.94	Moderate	Strong	Strong
Q6: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	6 Surgical treatment should be planned if bile duct obstruction reoccurs after one year of endoscopic stent treatment. For the patients who have significant calcifications and/or mass of the pancreatic head, surgical treatment may be preferred as an initial treatment.		Low	Strong	Strong
28: What is the strategy for the treatment of hemosuccus pancreaticus in chronic pancreatitis.	 Percutaneous endovascular treatment should be the first choice of treatment for hemosuccus pancreaticus in hemodynamically stable patients. However, patients with hemodynamic instability and unsuccessful embolization should undergo surgery. 		Low	Conditional	Strong
2 2: What is the best strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stricture.	1 Non-surgical decompression of the main pancreatic duct including endoscopic therapy can be selected for immediate pain relief of chronic pancreatitis before considering surgery. Surgical intervention should be considered if endoscopic procedure fails or has temporary success needing repeated endoscopic therapy	0.88	Moderate	Conditional	Strong
2 3: How should endoscopic stent treatment be done for pancreatic ductal stricture.	1 A straight plastic pancreatic stent should be placed across the stricture depending on the caliber of the stricture of the pancreatic duct.	0.88	Low	Conditional	Strong
2 3: How should endoscopic stent treatment be done for pancreatic ductal stricture.	2 An endoscopic retrograde cholangio-pancreatography (ERCP) inserted endoscopic stent should be removed or exchanged at between 2 and 3 months later. At this time a new stent should be inserted if there is still a significant stricture.		Low	Conditional	Strong
26: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	1 Endoscopic treatment is recommended when the patients show symptoms related to the distal bile duct obstruction (obstructive jaundice and/or acute cholangitis), and in persistent cholestasis with alkaline phosphatase elevation (>2 -3 times) for at least month even in asymptomatic patients.	0.88	Low	Conditional	Strong
27: What is the strategy for the treatment of internal pancreatic fistula and pancreatic pleural effusion and ascites in chronic pancreatitis.	 Endoscopic interventional therapy should be undertaken for the management of internal pancreatic fistula in patients presenting with main pancreatic duct disruption or obstruction. 	0.88	Low	Conditional	Strong
29: What is the strategy for the treatment of duodenal obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	 Surgical treatment is recommended for duodenal stenosis associated with chronic pancreatitis, as endoscopic treatment is difficult in such cases. 	0.88	Moderate	Conditional	Strong
Q 2: What is the best strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stricture.	3 Endoscopic drainage should be the preferred modality for treating pancreatic pain and biliary stricture in patients with chronic pancreatitis who have associated portal/splenic vein thrombosis.	0.82	Moderate	Conditional	Strong
24: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stones.	2 Endoscopic extraction is indicated for small stones or stone fragments after ESWL.	0.82	Moderate	Conditional	Strong
25: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.	Surgical intervention should be considered if endoscopic drainage of pseudocysts fails or has temporary success needing repeated endoscopic therapy, especially when there is disconnected duct syndrome, inflammatory mass, and intraductal calculi with duct strictures.	0.82	Low	Conditional	Strong
26: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	5 Endoscopic placement of multiple plastic or covered metal stent and/or surgery are appropriate to manage refractory bile duct obstruction.	0.76	Low	Conditional	Condition
24: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stones.	1 ESWL should be the first-line therapy as non-surgical intervention for main pancreatic duct stones in patients with chronic pancreatitis who do not get adequate pain relief with conservative management although a stent placement may be done first to relieve pain.	0.71	Low	Conditional	Condition
Q5: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.	2 Underlying stricture or disruption of the main pancreatic duct with symptoms and/or complications should be treated with endoscopic transpapillary placement of a pancreatic stent for	0.71	Moderate	Conditional	Condition

Table 1 (continued)

Domain		α score	Quality assessment	Recommendation	Agreement
	pseudocysts <5 cm and with communication with the main pancreatic duct.				
Q6: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	6.2 Endoscopic treatment with multiple plastic or covered metal stents may be effective for relieving of the symptoms related to the distal bile duct obstruction due to chronic pancreatitis.	0.71	Low	Weak	Conditional
Q6: What is the strategy for the treatment of distal main biliary duct obstruction in chronic pancreatitis.	6.4 Plastic stent replacement for main biliary duct stricture is recommended every 3 months. The optimal period for replacement of covered metal stent is currently unknown.	0.71	Low	Weak	Conditional
1	6.3 In main biliary duct strictures caused by chronic pancreatitis, biliary stent placement is recommended for a period of 6 months to 1 year.	0.65	Low	Weak	Weak
Q5: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.	5.3 Asymptomatic and uncomplicated pancreatic pseudocysts of more than 5 cm in diameter that do not resolve within six weeks may be treated with transmural drainage.	0.53	Low	Weak	Weak
Q5: What is the strategy for the treatment of pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis.	5.4 In case of a suspected neoplastic cystic lesion diagnostic needle aspiration of the cyst may be done.	0.53	Low	Weak	Weak
Q 2: What is the best strategy for the treatment of pancreatic ductal stricture.	2.2 If there are contraindications for surgical therapy in patients in whom conventional endoscopic therapy has failed, endosonographic-guided drainage of the pancreatic duct is another option for pain control.	0.47	Moderate	Weak	Weak
Q 3: How should endoscopic stent treatment be done for pancreatic ductal stricture.	3.3 Multiple stents or a metal stent may be considered for persisting pancreatic strictures due to severe chronic pancreatitis.	0.47	Low	Conditional	Weak
Q1: What are the indications for intervention in chronic pancreatitis.	1	0.41	Moderate	Weak	Weak

for different subsets of CP (*eg*, multifocal strictures, large calcific burden, *etc.*), and that randomized controlled trial level data are needed.

Clinical practice should be consolidated around the strong recommendations. Where the recommendations are weak clinical practice should be curtailed or substantially modified, unless new good evidence emerges. Interventions with conditional support should be considered focus areas for active research to produce further quality evidence to strengthen the particular clinical approach.

Declaration of competing interest

All authors have no conflict of interest of these consensus guidelines.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pan.2020.05.022.

References

- [1] Drewes AM, Bouwense SAW, Campbell CM, Ceyhan GO, Delhaye M, Demir IE, et al. Working group for the International (IAP – APA – JPS – EPC) Consensus Guidelines for Chronic Pancreatitis. Guidelines for the understanding and management of pain in chronic pancreatitis. Pancreatology 2018;18(4): 446–57.
- [2] Drewes AM, Kempeneers MA, Andersen DK, Arendt-Nielsen L, Besselink MG, Boermeester MA, et al. Controversies on the endoscopic and surgical management of pain in patients with chronic pancreatitis: pros and cons! Gut 2019;68(8):1343–51.
- [3] Hoffmeister A, Mayerle J, Beglinger C, Büchler MW, Bufler P, Dathe K, et al. English language version of the S3-consensus guidelines on chronic pancreatitis: definition, aetiology, diagnostic examinations, medical, endoscopic and surgical management of chronic pancreatitis. Z Gastroenterol 2015;53:1447–95.
- [4] Dumonceau JM, Delhaye M, Tringali A, Arvanitakis M, Sanchez-Yague A, Vaysse T, et al. Endoscopic treatment of chronic pancreatitis: European

society of gastrointestinal endoscopy (ESGE) guideline - updated august 2018. Endoscopy 2019;51(2):179–93.

- [5] Frulloni L, Falconi M, Gabbrielli A, Gaia E, Graziani R, Pezzilli R, et al. Italian consensus guidelines for chronic pancreatitis. Dig Liver Dis 2010;42(Suppl 6):S381–406.
- [6] Ito T, Ishiguro H, Ohara H, Kamisawa T, Sakagami J, Sata N, et al. Evidencebased clinical practice guidelines for chronic pancreatitis 2015. J Gastroenterol 2016;51:85–92.
- [7] Dominguez-Munoz JE, Drewes AM, Lindkvist B, Ewald N, Czakó L, Rosendahl J, et al. HaPanEU//UEG Working Group. Recommendations from the United European Gastroenterology evidence-based guidelines for the diagnosis and therapy of chronic pancreatitis. Pancreatology 2018;18: 847–54.
- [8] Drewes AM, Olesen AE, Farmer AD, Szigethy E, Rebours V, Olesen SS. Gastrointestinal pain. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2020;6(1):1. 2020 Jan 6.
- [9] Teo K, Johnson MH, Truter S, Pandanaboyana S, Windsor JA. Pain assessment in chronic pancreatitis: a comparative review of methods. Pancreatology 2016;16(6):931–9.
- [10] Arendt-Nielsen L, Morlion B, Perrot S, Dahan A, Dickenson A, Kress HG, et al. Assessment and manifestation of central sensitisation across different chronic pain conditions. Eur J Pain 2018;22(2):216–41.
- [11] Ahmed Ali U, Nieuwenhuijs VB, van Eijck CH, Gooszen HG, van Dam RM, Busch OR, et al. Dutch Pancreatitis Study Group. Clinical outcome in relation to timing of surgery in chronic pancreatitis: a nomogram to predict pain relief. Arch Surg 2012;147(10):925–32.
- [12] Olesen SS, Poulsen JL, Broberg MC, Madzak A, Drewes AM. Opioid treatment and hypoalbuminemia are associated with increased hospitalisation rates in chronic pancreatitis outpatients. Pancreatology 2016;16(5):807–13.
- [13] Szigethy E, Knisely M, Drossman D. Opioid misuse in gastroenterology and non-opioid management of abdominal pain. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 2018;15:168–80.
- [14] Tadenuma H, Ishihara T, Yamaguchi T, et al. Long-term results of extracorporeal shockwave lithotripsy and endoscopictherapy for pancreatic stones. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2005;3:1128–35.
- [15] Kleeff J, Neoptolemos J, Whitcomb D, Gress T, Rebours V, Esposito I, et al. Chronic pancreatitis. Nature Reviews Disease Primers 2017. https://doi.org/ 10.1038/nrdp.2017.60. Article number: 17060.
- [16] Rösch T, Daniel S, Scholz M, Huibregtse K, Smits M, Schneider T, et al. Endoscopic treatment of chronic pancreatitis: a multicenter study of 1000 patients with long-term follow-up. Endoscopy 2002;34:765-71.
- [17] Inui K, Tazuma S, Yamaguchi T, Ohara H, Tsuji T, Miyagawa H, et al. Treatment of pancreatic stones with extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy: results of a multicenter survey. Pancreas 2005;30:26–30.
- [18] Delhaye M, Arvanitakis M, Verset G, Cremer M, Devière J. Long-term clinical outcome after endoscopic pancreatic ductal drainage for patients with painful chronic pancreatitis. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2004;2:1096–106.

- [19] Dawod E, Kahaleh M. Management of benign and malignant pancreatic duct strictures. Clin Endosc 2018;51(2):156–60.
- [20] Díte P, Ruzicka M, Zboril V, Novotny I. A prospective, randomized trial comparing endoscopic and surgical therapy for chronic pancreatitis. Endoscopy 2003;35(7):553–8.
- [21] Cahen DL, Gouma DJ, Nio Y, Rauws EA, Boermeester MA, Busch OR, et al. Endoscopic versus surgical drainage of the pancreatic duct in chronic pancreatitis. N Engl J Med 2007;356(7):676–84.
- [22] Gurusamy KS, Pallari E, Hawkins N, Pereira SP, Davidson BR. Management strategies for pancreatic pseudocysts. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2016;4: CD011392 [online].
- [23] Pateman J, WilliamsMP Filshie J. Retroperitoneal fibrosis after multiple coeliac plexus blocks. Anaesthesia 1990;45:309–10.
- [24] Puli SR, Reddy JB, Bechtold ML, Antillon MR, Brugge WR. EUS-guided celiac plexus neurolysis for pain due to chronic pancreatitis or pancreatic cancer pain: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Dig Dis Sci 2009;54:2330–7.
- [25] Kaufman M, Singh G, Das S, Concha-Parra R, Erber J, Micames C, et al. Efficacy of endoscopic ultrasound guided celiac plexus block and celiac plexus neurolysis for managing abdominal pain associated with chronic pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer. J Clin Gastroenterol 2010;44:127–34.
- [26] Gress F, Schmitt C, Sherman S, Ciaccia D, Ikenberry S, Lehman G. Endoscopic ultrasound-guided celiac plexus block for managing abdominal pain associated with chronic pancreatitis: a prospective single center experience. Am J Gastroenterol 2001;96:409–16.
- [27] Köker IH, Aralaşmak A, Ünver N, Asil T, Şentürk H. Spinal cord ischemia after endoscopic ultrasound guided celiac plexus neurolysis: case report and review of the literature. Scand J Gastroenterol 2017;52(10):1158–61.
- [28] Drewes AM, Campbell CM, Ceyhan GO, Delhaye M, Pramod K, Garg PK, van Goor H, et al. Pain in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma: a multidisciplinary, International guideline for optimized management. Pancreatology 2018;18(4):46–457.
- [29] Dumonceau JM, Devière J, Le Moine O, Delhaye M, Vandermeeren A, Baize M, et al. Endoscopic pancreatic drainage in chronic pancreatitis associated with ductal stones: long-term results. Gastrointest Endosc 1996;43:547–55.
- [30] Cohen SA, Rutkovsky FD, Siegel JH, Kasmin FE. Endoscopic stenting and sphincterotomy of the minor papilla in symptomatic pancreas divisum: results and complications. Diagn Ther Endosc 1995;1:131–9.
- [31] Ashby K, Lo SK. The role of pancreatic stenting in obstructive ductal disorders other than pancreas divisum. Gastrointest Endosc 1995;42:306–11.
- [32] Ponchon T, Bory RM, Hedelius F, Roubein LD, Paliard P, Napoleon B, et al. Endoscopic stenting for pain relief in chronic pancreatitis: results of a standardized protocol. Gastrointest Endosc 1995;42:452–6.
- [33] Smits ME, Rauws EA, Tytgat GN, Huibregtse K. Endoscopic treatment of pancreatic stones in patients with chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 1996;43:556–60.
- [34] Morgan DE, Smith JK, Hawkins K, Wilcox CM. Endoscopic stent therapy in advanced chronic pancreatitis: relationships between ductal changes, clinical response, and stent patency. Am J Gastroenterol 2003;98:821–6.
- [35] Costamagna G, Bulajic M, Tringali A, Pandolfi M, Gabbrielli A, Spada C, et al. Multiple stenting of refractory pancreatic duct strictures in severe chronic pancreatitis: long-term results. Endoscopy 2006;38:254–9.
- [36] Vitale GC, Vitale M, Vitale DS, Binford JC, Hill B. Long-term follow-up of endoscopic stenting in patients with chronic pancreatitis secondary to pancreas divisum. Surg Endosc 2007;21:2199–202.
- [37] Pai CG, Alvares JF. Endoscopic pancreatic-stent placement and sphincterotomy for relief of pain in tropical pancreatitis: results of a 1-year follow-up. Gastrointest Endosc 2007;66:70–5.
- [38] Milovic V, Wehrmann T, Dietrich CF, Bailey AA, Caspary WF, Braden B. Extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy with a transportable mini-lithotripter and subsequent endoscopic treatment improves clinical outcome in obstructive calcific chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 2011;74:1294–9.
- [39] Diener MK, Hüttner FJ, Kieser M, Knebel P, Dörr-Harim C, Distler M, et al. Partial pancreatoduodenectomy versus duodenum-preserving pancreatic head resection in chronic pancreatitis: the multicentre, randomised, controlled, double-blind ChroPac trial. Lancet 2017;390(10099):1027–37.
- [40] van der Gaag NA, van Gulik TM, Busch OR, Sprangers MA, Bruno MJ, Zevenbergen C, et al. Functional and medical outcomes after tailored surgery for pain due to chronic pancreatitis. Ann Surg 2012;255(4):763–70.
- [41] Tandan M, Reddy DN, Santosh D, Vinod K, Ramchandani M, Rajesh G, et al. Extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy and endotherapy for pancreatic calculi - a large single center experience. Indian | Gastroenterol 2010;29:143-8.
- [42] Hookey LC, RioTinto R, Delhaye M, Baize M, Le Moine O, Devière J. Risk factors for pancreatitis after pancreatic sphincterotomy: a review of 572 cases. Endoscopy 2006;38:670–6.
- [43] Cahen DL, Gouma DJ, Laramée P, Nio Y, Rauws EA, Boermeester MA, et al. Long-term outcomes of endoscopic vs surgical drainage of the pancreatic duct in patients with chronic pancreatitis. Gastroenterology 2011;141: 1690-5.
- [44] Sherman S, Lehman GA, Hawes RH, Ponich T, Miller LS, Cohen LB, Kortan P, Haber GB. Pancreatic ductal stones: frequency of successful endoscopic removal and improvement. Gastrointest Endosc 1991;37:511–7.
- [45] Suzuki Y, Sugiyama M, Inui K, Igarashi Y, Ohara H, Tazuma S, Tsuji T, et al. Management for pancreatolithiasis: a Japanese multicenter study. Pancreas 2013;42:584–8.
- [46] Issa Y, Kempeneers MA, Bruno MJ, Fockens P, Poley J-W, Ali UA, et al. Effect of

early surgery vs endoscopy-first approach on pain in patients with chronic pancreatitis: the ESCAPE randomized clinical trial. J Am Med Assoc 2020;323(3):237–47.

- [47] Hirota M, Asakura T, Kanno A, Kikuta K, Kume K, Hamada S, et al. Longperiod pancreatic stenting for painful chronic calcified pancreatitis required higher medical costs and frequent hospitalizations compared with surgery. Pancreas 2011;40:946–50.
- [48] Itoi T, Kasuya K, Sofuni A, Itokawa F, Kurihara T, Yasuda I, et al. Endoscopic ultrasonography-guided pancreatic duct access: techniques and literature review of pancreatography, transmural drainage and rendezvous techniques. Dig Endosc 2013;25:241–52.
- [49] Tessier G, Bories E, Arvanitakis M, Hittelet A, Pesenti C, Le Moine O, et al. EUS-guided pancreatogastrostomy and pancreatobulbostomy for the treatment of pain in patients with pancreatic ductal dilatation inaccessible for transpapillary endoscopic therapy. Gastrointest Endosc 2007;65:233–41.
- [50] Kahaleh M, Hernandez AJ, Tokar J, Adams RB, Shami VM, Yeaton P. EUSguided pancreaticogastrostomy: analysis of its efficacy to drain inaccessible pancreatic ducts. Gastrointest Endosc 2007;65:224–30.
- [51] Brauer BC, Chen YK, Fukami N, Shah RJ. Single-operator EUS-guided cholangiopancreatography for difficult pancreaticobiliary access (with video). Gastrointest Endosc 2009;70:471–9.
- [52] Barkay O, Sherman S, McHenry L, Yoo BM, Fogel EL, Watkins JL, et al. Therapeutic EUS-assisted endoscopic retrograde pancreatography after failed pancreatic duct cannulation at ERCP. Gastrointest Endosc 2010;71: 1166–73.
- [53] Shah JN, Marson F, Weilert F, Bhat YM, Nguyen-Tang T, Shaw RE, et al. Singleoperator, single-session EUS-guided anterograde cholangiopancreatography in failed ERCP or inaccessible papilla. Gastrointest Endosc 2012;75:56–64.
- [54] Suzuki Y, Sugiyama M, Inui K, Igarashi Y, Ohara H, Tazuma S, Tsuji T, et al. Management for pancreatolithiasis: a Japanese multicenter study. Pancreas 2013;42:584–8.
- [55] Itoi T, Sofuni A, Tsuchiya T, Ishii K, Ikeuchi N, Tanaka R, et al. Initial evaluation of a new plastic pancreatic duct stent for endoscopic ultrasonographyguided placement. Endoscopy 2015;47:462–5.
- [56] Oh D, Park do H, Cho MK, Nam K, Song TJ, Lee SS, et al. Feasibility and safety of a fully covered self-expandable metal stent with antimigration properties for EUS-guided pancreatic duct drainage: early and midterm outcomes (with video). Gastrointest Endosc 2016;83:366–373.e2.
- [57] Xu W, Qi X, Chen J, Su C, Guo X. Prevalence of splanchnic vein thrombosis in pancreatitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. Gastroenterology Research and Practice 2015;2015:245460.
- [58] Alexakis N, Sutton R, Raraty M, Connor S, Ghaneh P, Hughes ML, et al. Major resection for chronic pancreatitis in patients with vascular involvement is associated with increased postoperative mortality. Br J Surg 2004;91(8): 1020-6.
- [59] Smits ME, Groen AK, Mok KS, van Marle J, Tytgat GN, Huibregtse K. Analysis of occluded pancreatic stents and juices in patients with chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 1997;45:52–8.
- [60] Kozarek RA. Pancreatic stents can induce ductal changes consistent with chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 1990;36:93–5.
- [61] Boerma D, Huibregtse K, Gulik TM, Rauws EA, Obertop H, Gouma DJ. Longterm outcome of endoscopic stent placement for chronic pancreatitis associated with pancreas divisum. Endoscopy 2000;32:452–6.
- [62] Sasahira N, Tada M, Isayama H, Hirano K, Nakai Y, Yamamoto N, et al. Outcomes after clearance of pancreatic stones with or without pancreatic stenting. J Gastroenterol 2007;42:63–9.
- [63] Eleftherladis N, Dinu F, Delhaye M, Le Moine O, Baize M, Vandermeeren A, et al. Long-term outcome after pancreatic stenting in severe chronic pancreatitis. Endoscopy 2005;37:223–30.
- [64] Weber A, Schneider J, Neu B, Meining A, Born P, Schmid RM, et al. Endoscopic stent therapy for patients with chronic pancreatitis: results from a prospective follow-up study. Pancreas 2007;34:287–94.
- [65] Oracz G, Pertkiewicz J, Kierkus J, Dadalski M, Socha J, Ryzko J. Efficiency of pancreatic duct stenting therapy in children with chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 2014;80:1022–9.
- [66] Sauer B, Talreja J, Ellen K, Ku J, Shami VM, Kahaleh M. Temporary placement of a fully covered self-expandable metal stent in the pancreatic duct for management of symptomatic refractory chronic pancreatitis: preliminary data (with videos). Gastrointest Endosc 2008;68:1173–8.
- [67] Park DH, Kim MH, Moon SH, Lee SS, Seo DW, Lee SK. Feasibility and safety of placement of a newly designed, fully covered self-expandable metal stent for refractory benign pancreatic ductal strictures: a pilot study (with video). Gastrointest Endosc 2008;68:1182–9.
- [68] Moon SH, Kim MH, Park DH, Song TJ, Eum J, Lee SS, et al. Modified fully covered self- expandable metallic stents with antimigration features for refractory benign pancreatic-duct strictures in chronic pancreatitis. Gastrointest Endosc 2010;72:86–91.
- [69] Moole H, Jaeger A, Bechtold ML, Forcione D, Taneja D, Puli SR. Success of extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy in chronic calcific pancreatitis management: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Pancreas 2016;45:651–8.
- [70] Dumonceau JM, Costamagna G, Tringali A, Vahedi K, Delhaye M, Hittelet A, et al. Treatment for painful calcified chronic pancreatitis: extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy versus endoscopic treatment: a randomised controlled trial. Gut 2007;56:545–52.
- [71] Ohara H, Hoshino M, Hayakawa T, Kamiya Y, Miyaji M, Takeuchi T, et al.

Single application extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy is the first choice for patients with pancreatic duct stones. Am J Gastroenterol 1996;91: 1388–94.

- [72] Farnbacher MJ, Schoen C, Rabenstein T, Benninger J, Hahn EG, Schneider HT. Pancreatic duct stones in chronic pancreatitis: criteria for treatment intensity and success. Gastrointest Endosc 2002;56:501–6.
- [73] Korpela T, Udd M, Tenca A, Lindström O, Halttunen J, Myrskysalo S, et al. Long-term results of combined ESWL and ERCP treatment of chronic calcific pancreatitis. Scand J Gastroenterol 2016;51:866–71.
- [74] Li BR, Liao Z, Du TT, Ye B, Chen H, Ji JT, et al. Extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy is a safe and effective treatment for pancreatic stones coexisting with pancreatic pseudocysts. Gastrointest Endosc 2016;84:69–78.
- [75] Hirai T, Goto H, Hirooka Y, Itoh A, Hashimoto S, Niwa Y, et al. Pilot study of pancreatoscopic lithotripsy using a 5-fr instrument: selected patients may benefit. Endoscopy 2004;36:212–6.
- [76] Howell DA, Dy RM, Hanson BL, Nezhad SF, Broaddus SB. Endoscopic treatment of pancreatic duct stones using a 10F pancreatoscope and electrohydraulic lithotripsy. Gastrointest Endosc 1999;50:829–33.
- [77] Maydeo A, Kwek BE, Bhandari S, Bapat M, Dhir V. Single-operator cholangioscopy-guided laser lithotripsy in patients with difficult biliary and pancreatic ductal stones (with videos). Gastrointest Endosc 2011;74: 1308–14.
- [78] Attwell AR, Brauer BC, Chen YK, Yen RD, Fukami N, Shah RJ. Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography with per oral pancreatoscopy for calcific chronic pancreatitis using endoscope and catheter-based pancreatoscopes: a 10-year single-center experience. Pancreas 2014;43:268–74.
- [79] Attwell AR, Patel S, Kahaleh M, Raijman IL, Yen R, Shah RJ. ERCP with per-oral pancreatoscopy-guided laser lithotripsy for calcific chronic pancreatitis: a multicenter U.S. experience. Gastrointest Endosc 2015;82:311–8.
- [80] Bekkali NL, Murray S, Johnson GJ, Bandula S, Amin Z, Chapman MH, et al. Pancreatoscopy-directed electrohydraulic lithotripsy for pancreatic ductal stones in painful chronic pancreatitis using SpyGlass. Pancreas 2017;46: 528–30.
- [81] Ogura T, Okuda A, Imanishi M, Miyano A, Amano M, Nishioka N, et al. Electrohydraulic lithotripsy for pancreatic duct stones under digital singleoperator pancreatoscopy (with video). Dig Dis Sci 2019;64:1377–82.
- [82] Rosso E, Alexakis N, Ghaneh P, Lombard M, Smart HL, Evans J, Neoptolemos JP. Pancreatic pseudocysts in chronic pancreatitis: endoscopic and surgical treatment. Dig Surg 2003;20(5):397–406.
- [83] Ammann RW, Akovbiantz A, Largiader F, Schueler G. Course and outcome of chronic pancreatitis. Longitudinal study of a mixed medical-surgical series of 245 patients. Gastroenterology 1984;86:820–8.
- [84] Lerch MM, Stier A, Wahnschaffe U, Mayerle J. Pancreatic pseudocysts: observation, endoscopic drainage, or resection? Dtsch Arztebl Int 2009;106: 614–21.
- [85] Baron TH. Endoscopic drainage of pancreatic pseudocysts. J Gastrointest Surg 2008;12:369–72.
- [86] Song TJ, Lee SS. Endoscopic drainage of pseudocysts. Clin Endosc 2014;47: 222-6.
- [87] Park DH, Lee SS, Moon SH, Choi SY, Jung SW, Seo DW, et al. Endoscopic ultrasound-guided versus conventional transmural drainage for pancreatic pseudocysts: a prospective randomized trial. Endoscopy 2009;41:842–8.
- [88] Varadarajulu S, Christein JD, Tamhane A, Drelichman ER, Wilcox CM. Prospective randomized trial comparing EUS and EGD for transmural drainage of pancreatic pseudocysts (with videos). Gastrointest Endosc 2008;68: 1102–11.
- [89] Gouyon B, Lévy P, Ruszniewski P, Zins M, Hammel P, Vilgrain V, Sauvanet A, et al. Predictive factors in the outcome of pseudocysts complicating alcoholic chronic pancreatitis. Gut 1997;41:821–5.
- [90] Tanaka M, Fernández-del Castillo C, Adsay V, Chari S, Falconi M, Jang JY, et al. International consensus guidelines 2012 for the management of IPMN and MCN of the pancreas. Pancreatology 2012;12:183–97.
- [91] Jais B, Rebours V, Malleo G, Salvia R, Fontana M, Maggino L, et al. Serous cystic neoplasm of the pancreas: a multinational study of 2622 patients under the auspices of the international association of Pancreatology and European pancreatic Club (European study group on cystic tumors of the pancreas). Gut 2016;65:305–12.
- [92] Frøkjær JB, Akisik F, Farooq A, Akpinar B, Dasyam A, Drewes AM, et al. Working group for the international (IAP – APA – JPS – EPC) consensus guidelines for chronic pancreatitis. Guidelines for the diagnostic cross sectional imaging and severity scoring of chronic pancreatitis. Pancreatology 2018;18(7):764–73.
- [93] Thornton GD, McPhail MJ, Nayagam S, Hewitt MJ, Vlavianos P, Monahan KJ. Endoscopic ultrasound guided fine needle aspiration for the diagnosis of pancreatic cystic neoplasms: a meta-analysis. Pancreatology 2013;13:48–57.
- [94] Zhu H, Jiang F, Zhu J, Du Y, Jin Z, Li Z. Assessment of morbidity and mortality associated with endoscopic ultrasound-guided fine-needle aspiration for pancreatic cystic lesions: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Dig Endosc 2017;29:667–75.
- [95] Varadarajulu S, Bang JY, Sutton BS, Trevino JM, Christein JD, Wilcox CM. Equal efficacy of endoscopic and surgical cystogastrostomy for pancreatic pseudocyst drainage in a randomized trial. Gastroenterology 2013;145: 583–90.
- [96] Yuan H, Qin M, Liu R, Hu S. Single-step versus 2-step management of huge pancreatic pseudocysts: a prospective randomized trial with long-term

follow-up. Pancreas 2015;44:570-3.

- [97] Saul A, Luna MA, Chan C, Uscanga L, Andraca FV, Calleros JH, et al. EUSguided drainage of pancreatic pseudocysts offers similar success and complications compared to surgical treatment but with a lower cost. Surg Endosc 2016;30:1459–65.
- [98] Melman L, Azar R, Beddow K, Brunt LM, Halpin VJ, Eagon JC, et al. Primary and overall success rates for clinical outcomes after laparoscopic, endoscopic, and open pancreatic cystgastrostomy for pancreatic pseudocysts. Surg Endosc 2009;23:267–71.
- [99] Pozsar J, Sahin P, Laszlo F, Forro G, Topa L. Medium-term results of endoscopic treatment of common bile duct strictures in chronic calcifying pancreatitis with increasing numbers of stents. J Clin Gastroenterol 2004;38: 118–23.
- [100] Kahl S, Zimmermann S, Genz I, Glasbrenner B, Pross M, Schulz HU, et al. Risk factors for failure of endoscopic stenting of biliary strictures in chronic pancreatitis: a prospective follow-up study. Am J Gastroenterol 2003;98: 2448–53.
- [101] Catalano MF, Linder JD, George S, Alcocer E, Geenen JE. Treatment of symptomatic distal common bile duct stenosis secondary to chronic pancreatitis: comparison of single vs. multiple simultaneous stents. Gastrointest Endosc 2004;60:945–52.
- [102] Draganov P, Hoffman B, Marsh W, Cotton P, Cunningham J. Long-term outcome in patients with benign biliary strictures treated endoscopically with multiple stents. Gastrointest Endosc 2002;55:680–6.
- [103] Saxena P, Diehl DL, Kumbhari V, Shieh F, Buscaglia JM, Sze W, et al. A US multicenter study of safety and efficacy of fully covered self-expandable metallic stents in benign extrahepatic biliary strictures. Dig Dis Sci 2015;60:3442–8.
- [104] Devière J, Nageshwar Reddy D, Püspök A, Ponchon T, Bruno MJ, Bourke MJ, et al. Successful management of benign biliary strictures with fully covered self-expanding metal stents. Gastroenterology 2014;147:385–95.
- [105] Cahen DL, van Berkel AM, Oskam D, et al. Long-term results of endoscopic drainage of common bile duct strictures in chronic pancreatitis. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2005;17:103–8.
- [106] Regimbeau JM, Fuks D, Bartoli E, Fumery M, Hanes A, Yzet T, et al. A comparative study of surgery and endoscopy for the treatment of bile duct stricture in patients with chronic pancreatitis. Surg Endosc 2012;26:2902–8.
- [107] Alexakis N, ConnorS, Ghaneh P, Raraty M, Lombard M, SmartH, Hughes M, Evans J, Garvey C, Sutton R, Goulden M, Parker C, Neoptolemos JP. Influence of opioid use on surgical and long-term outcome following resection for chronic pancreatitis. Surgery; 136:600-608.
- [108] Coté GA, Slivka A, Tarnasky P, Mullady DK, Elmunzer BJ, Elta G, et al. Effect of covered metallic stents compared with plastic stents on benign biliary stricture resolution: a randomized clinical trial. J Am Med Assoc 2016;315: 1250–7.
- [109] Haapamäki C, Kylänpää L, Udd M, Lindström O, Grönroos J, Saarela A, et al. Randomized multicenter study of multiple plastic stents vs. covered selfexpandable metallic stent in the treatment of biliary stricture in chronic pancreatitis. Endoscopy 2015;47:605–10.
- [110] Alexakis N, Sutton R, Neoptolemos JP. Surgical treatment of pancreatic fistula. Dig Surg 2004;21:262–74.
- [111] Pai CG, Suvarna D, Bhat G. Endoscopic treatment as first-line therapy for pancreatic ascites and pleural effusion. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2009;24: 1198–202.
- [112] Seewald S, Brand B, Groth S, Omar S, Mendoza G, Seitz U, et al. Endoscopic sealing of pancreatic fistula by using N-butyl-2- cyanoacrylate. Gastrointest Endosc 2004;59:463–70.
- [113] Khan AZ, Ching R, Morris-Stiff G, England R, Sherridan MB, Smith AM. Pleuropancreaitc fistulae: specialist center management. J Gastrointest Surg 2009;13:354–8.
- [114] Kuzuya A, Mizuno K, Miyake H, Iyomasa S, Matsuda M. Hemosuccus pancreaticus caused by rupture of a true splenic artery aneurysm following a failure of coil embolization. Ann Vasc Surg 2006;20:130–3.
- [115] Sakorafas GH, Sarr MG, Farley DR, Que FG, Andrews JC, Farnell MB. Hemosuccus pancreaticus complicating chronic pancreatitis: an obscure cause of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. Langenbeck's Arch Surg 2000;385:124–8.
- [116] Morishita H, Yamagami T, Takeuchi Y, Matsumoto T, Asai S, Masui K, et al. A new flow control technique using diluted epinephrine in the N-butyl-2cyanoacrylate embolization of visceral artery pseudoaneurysms secondary to chronic pancreatitis. Cardiovasc Intervent Radiol 2012;35:932–7.
- [117] Frulloni L, Gabbrielli A, Pezzilli R, Zerbi A, Cavestro GM, Marotta F, et al. Chronic pancreatitis: report from a multicenter Italian survey (Pan-CroInfAISP) on 893 patients. Dig Liver Dis 2009;4:311–7.
- [118] Hara K, Yamao K, Mizuno N, Hijioka S, Imaoka H, Tajika M, et al. Endoscopic ultrasonography-guided biliary drainage: who, when, which, and how? World J Gastroenterol 2016;22:1297–303.
- [119] Ishigami K, Tajima T, Nishie A, Kakihara D, Fujita N, Asayama Y, et al. Differential diagnosis of groove pancreatic carcinomas vs. groove pancreatitis: usefulness of the portal venous phase. Eur J Radiol 2010;74:95–100.
- [120] Kempeneers MA, İssa Y, Ali UA, Baron RD, Besselink MG, Büchler M, et al. For the Working group for the International (IAP – APA – JPS – EPC) Consensus Guidelines for Chronic Pancreatitis, International consensus guidelines for surgery and the timing of intervention in chronic pancreatitis, [published online ahead of print, 2019 Dec 17]. Pancreatology 2019;S1424–3903(19): 30802–6.