

TABLE 38-1 CAUSES OF ACUTE PANCREATITIS**OBSTRUCTION**

Gallstones
 Tumors: ampullary or pancreatic tumors
 Parasites: *Ascaris* or *Clonorchis* species
 Developmental anomalies: pancreas divisum, choledochocoele, annular pancreas
 Periapillary duodenal diverticula
 Hypertensive sphincter of Oddi
 Afferent duodenal loop obstruction

TOXINS

Ethyl alcohol
 Methyl alcohol
 Scorpion venom: excessive cholinergic stimulation causes salivation, sweating, dyspnea, and cardiac arrhythmias; seen mostly in the West Indies
 Organophosphorus insecticides

DRUGS

Definite associations (documented with rechallenges): azathioprine or 6-mercaptopurine, valproic acid, estrogens, tetracycline, metronidazole, nitrofurantoin, pentamidine, furosemide, sulfonamides, methyl dopa, cytarabine, cimetidine, ranitidine, sulindac, dideoxycytidine
 Probable associations: thiazides, ethacrynic acid, phenformin, procainamide, chlorthalidone, L-asparaginase

METABOLIC DISORDERS

Hypertriglyceridemia, hypercalcemia, end-stage renal disease

TRAUMA

Accidental: blunt trauma to the abdomen (e.g., car accident, bicycle)
 Iatrogenic: postoperative, endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography

INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Parasitic: ascariasis, clonorchiasis
 Viral: mumps, rubella, hepatitis A, hepatitis B, hepatitis C, coxsackievirus B, echovirus, adenovirus, cytomegalovirus, varicella virus, Epstein-Barr virus, human immunodeficiency virus
 Bacterial: mycoplasma, *Campylobacter jejuni*, tuberculosis, *Legionella* species, leptospirosis

VASCULAR DISORDERS

Ischemia: hypoperfusion (e.g., postcardiac surgery) or atherosclerotic emboli
 Vasculitis: systemic lupus erythematosus, polyarteritis nodosa, malignant hypertension

IDIOPATHIC DISORDERS

Between 10% and 30% of patients have pancreatitis
 Up to 60% have occult gallstone disease (e.g., biliary microlithiasis, gallbladder sludge)
 Less common causes: sphincter of Oddi dysfunction, mutations in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator

MISCELLANEOUS DISORDERS

Penetrating peptic ulcer
 Crohn's disease of the duodenum
 Pregnancy-associated disorders
 Pediatric associations: Reye's syndrome, cystic fibrosis

Autoimmune Pancreatitis

Autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP) is a benign disease with a unique histology of lymphoplasmacytic sclerosing pancreatitis, which is characterized by a periductal lymphoplasmacytic infiltrate, storiform fibrosis, obliterative phlebitis, and abundant immunoglobulin G4 (IgG4) immunostaining (>10 IgG4-positive cells per high-power field).

The most common manifestation of AIP is obstructive jaundice, which closely mimics pancreatic cancer with focal enlargement of the pancreatic head. AIP can also manifest with acute

pancreatitis in up to 15% to 30% of individuals, and about 5% of patients evaluated for acute or chronic pancreatitis have AIP. AIP has a peak incidence in the sixth or seventh decades of life and tends to affect men twice as often as women.

Computed tomography (CT) typically demonstrates diffuse enlargement of the pancreas with delayed (rim) enhancement and a diffusely irregular, attenuated main pancreatic duct. More than 60% of individuals have clinical and histologic involvement of other organs, including the biliary tree, retroperitoneum, lacrimal and salivary glands, lymph nodes, periorbital tissues, kidneys, thyroid, lungs, meninges, aorta, breast, prostate, pericardium, and skin. Patients with AIP frequently respond favorably to corticosteroid treatment.

Pancreas Divisum

At approximately 4 weeks' gestation, the dorsal pancreas forms as an evagination from the duodenum, and shortly thereafter, the ventral pancreas forms from the hepatic diverticulum (E-Fig. 38-2). At approximately the eighth intrauterine week of life, the ventral pancreas rotates posterior to the duodenum and comes to rest posterior and inferior to the head portion of the dorsal pancreas with associated fusion of the main ducts. If fusion is incomplete, the duct of Wirsung drains only the ventral pancreas through the major ampulla, and the duct of Santorini drains the bulk of the pancreas (i.e., dorsal pancreas) through the relatively small accessory (minor) ampulla. This anomaly, called *pancreas divisum*, occurs in 5% to 10% of the general population and is associated with acute and chronic pancreatitis.

Theories suggest that pancreatitis results from relative outflow obstruction of the main dorsal duct through the small accessory ampulla. Endoscopic papillotomy and surgical sphincteroplasty are therapeutic maneuvers that may reduce the incidence of recurrent pancreatitis by increasing drainage through the accessory papilla.

Clinical Presentation

The hallmark of acute pancreatitis is persistent abdominal pain. In atypical cases, patients may have unexplained organ failure or postoperative ileus. The onset of pain is typically sudden, severe, and worse when supine. Pain is usually located in the upper abdomen and may radiate to the back, chest, and flanks. Nausea and vomiting are common. Physical examination usually reveals severe upper abdominal tenderness that is sometimes associated with guarding.

Pancreatic enzymes, vasoactive substances (e.g., kinins), and other toxic substances (e.g., elastase, phospholipase A₂), are liberated by the inflamed pancreas and extravasate along fascial planes in the retroperitoneal space, lesser sac, and peritoneal cavity. These materials cause chemical irritation and contribute to the development of ileus, chemical peritonitis, third-space losses of protein-rich fluid, hypovolemia, and hypotension. The toxic molecules may reach the systemic circulation by lymphatic and venous pathways and contribute to subcutaneous fat necrosis and end-organ damage, including shock, renal failure, and respiratory insufficiency (i.e., atelectasis, effusions, and acute respiratory distress syndrome [ARDS]). Grey Turner's sign (i.e., ecchymosis of the flank) or Cullen's sign (i.e., ecchymosis in the periumbilical region) may be associated with hemorrhagic pancreatitis.

