

CHUYÊN ĐỀ SỞI ĐƯỜNG MẬT

Chuyên đề: Sởi đường mật

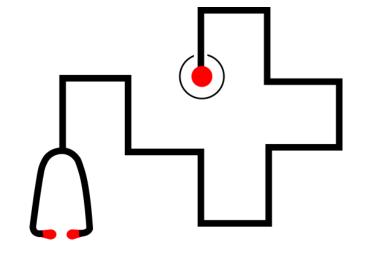


Giảng viên hướng dẫn: ThS.BS. Lê Quan Anh Tuấn

Thành viên thực hiện :

- 1. Trương Quang Bảo
- 2. Lê Minh Đức
- 3. Đào Thị Thu Hiền
- 4. Nguyễn Thị Diệu Hiền
- 5. Phạm Nguyên Huân
- 6. Đặng Quang Huy
- 7. Lương Xuân Khuê
- 8. Nông Tuấn Mạnh



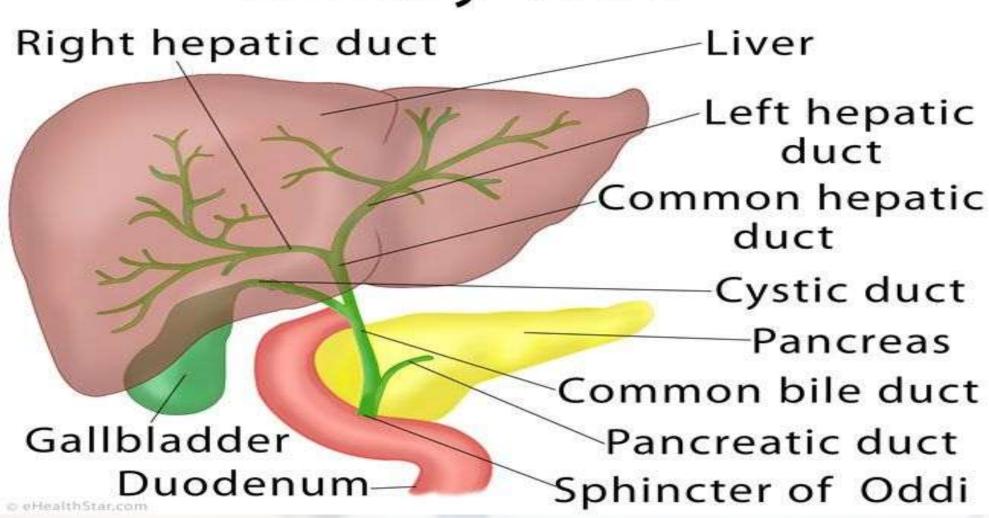


Giải phẫu ứng dụng điều trị bệnh sỏi đường mật

Giải phẫu ứng dụng điều trị bệnh sởi đường mật

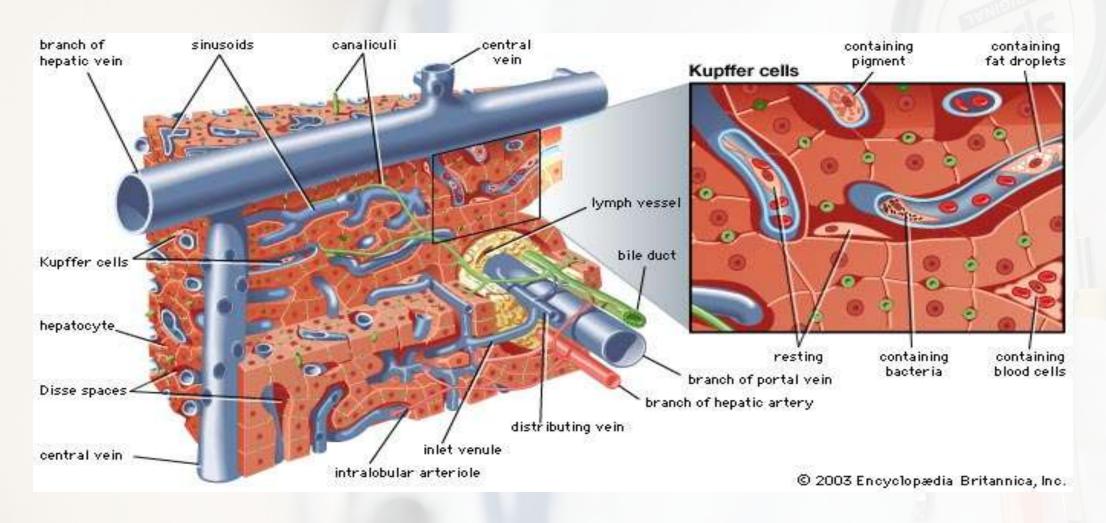




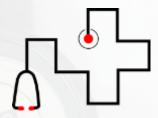


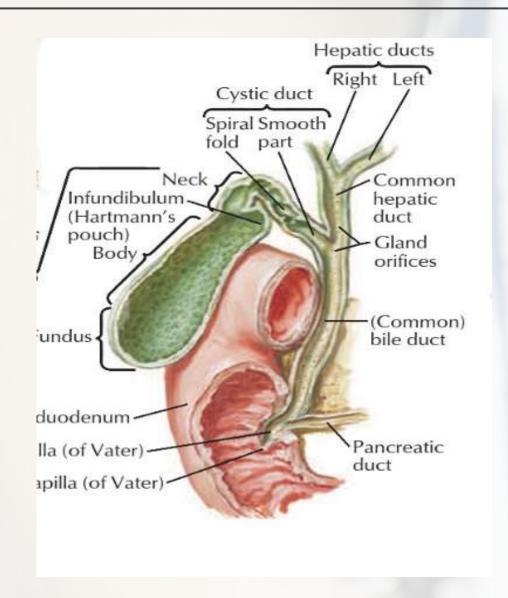
Giải phẫu ứng dụng điều trị bệnh sỏi đường mật

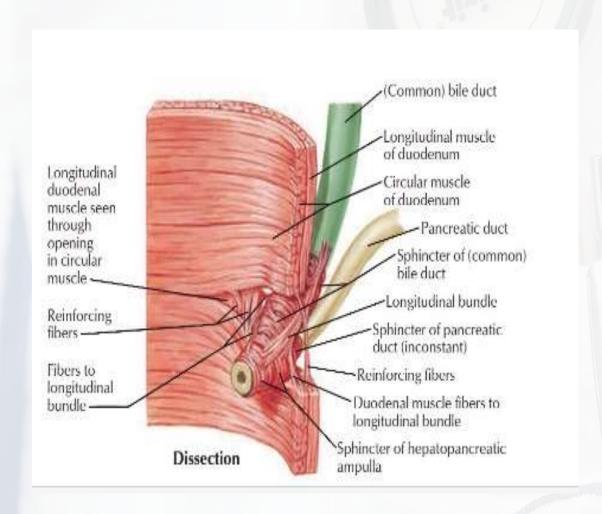




Giải phẫu ứng dụng điều trị bệnh sởi đường mật







Giải phẫu ứng dụng điều trị bệnh sởi đường mật



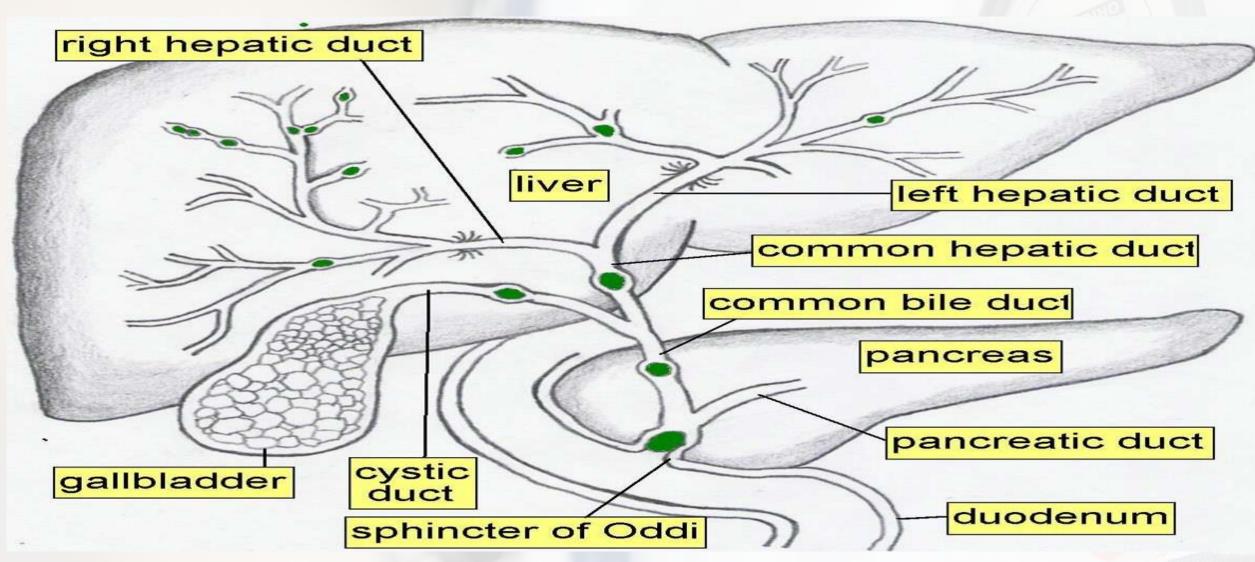




- Dịch vàng tươi hay vàng hơi xanh, trong, hơi quánh
- Có vị đắng
- Có pH tác dụng trung hòa dưỡng trấp từ dạ dày xuống
- Gồm nước (90%), thành phân hóa học gồm cholesterol tự do, acid mật và muối mật(acid choline và muối glycincholat, taurincholat), sắc tố mật (bilirubin liên hợp) và phospholipid (chủ yếu là lecithin)
- Cholesterol vốn không hòa tan trong nước), dạng hòa tan trong dịch mật nhờ muối mật và lecithin

Sởi mật





Sởi mật

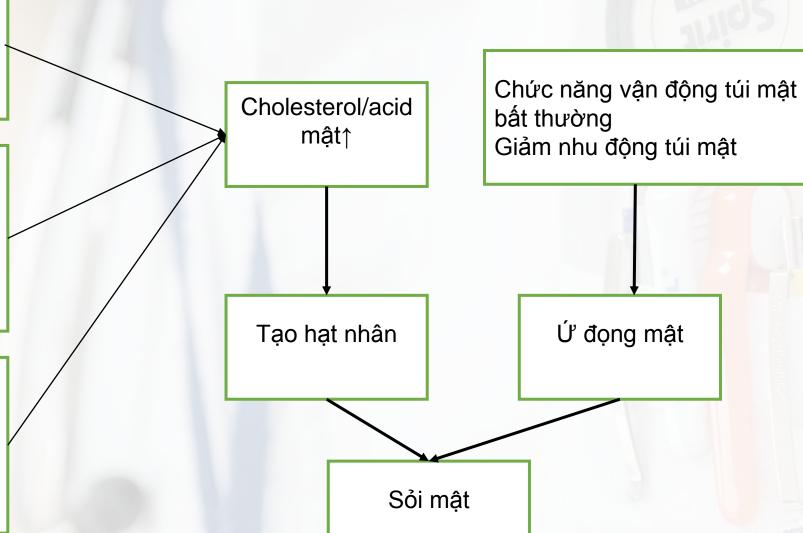
- Theo vị trí
- Sởi túi mật
- Sởi đường mật chính.
 - Sởi ống mật trong gan (hay sởi trong gan)
 - sỏi ống mật trong gan thứ phát
 - Sỏi ống mật trong gan nguyên phát Sỏi ống mật chủ (ngoài gan).
 - - sỏi ống mật chủ thứ phát
 - sỏi ống mật chủ nguyên phát
- Theo thành phần
- Soi cholesterol
- Sởi sắc tố mật
- Sởi hỗn hợp



↑Cholesterol Acid mật bình thường (tăng bài tiết cholesterol mật: béo phì, thuốc: clofibrat...)

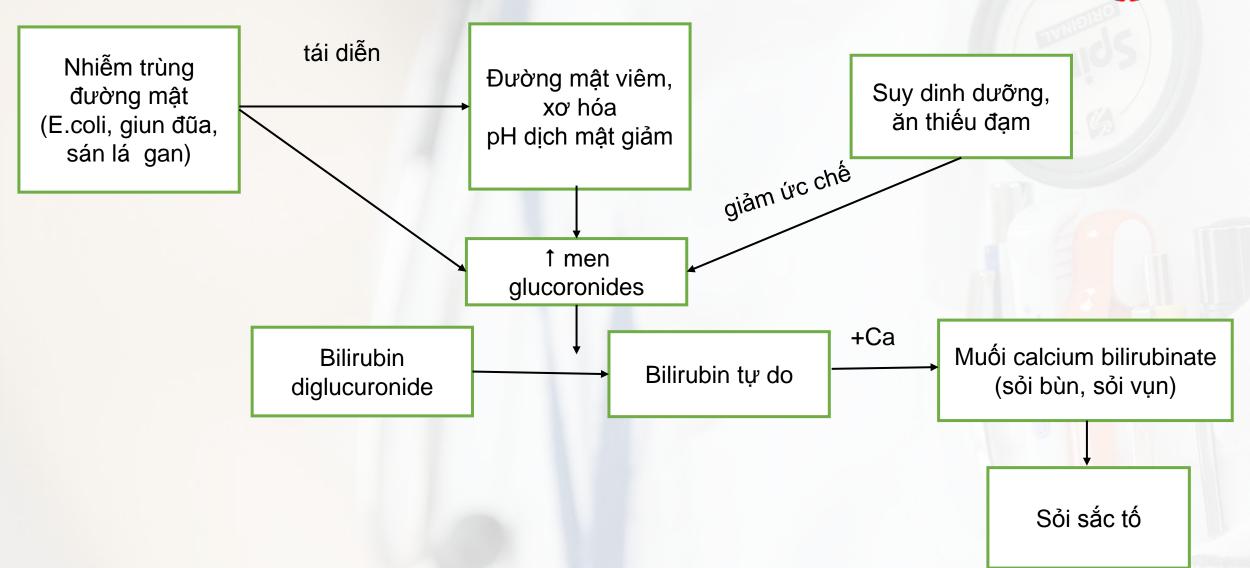
Cholesterol bình thường
↓Acid mật
(giảm tổng hợp ở gan, ảnh
hưởng tới lưu thông ruột
non- gan: bệnh hồi tràng,
cắt bỏ hồi tràng,...)

↑Cholesterol
↓Acid mật
(tăng tiết cholesterol mật,
giảm bài tiết acid mật: (
người già, sụt cân...)

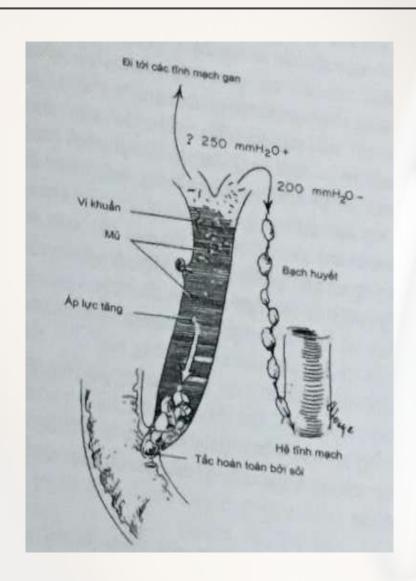


Cơ chế tạo sởi sắc tố mật









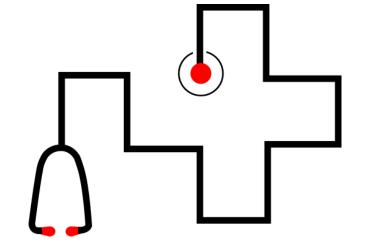
Tắc mật giai đoạn sớm, gan vẫn tiếp tục tiết mật

> Tăng áp suất đường mật

Vi khuẩn có thời gian sinh sản

Đi ngược dòng vào gan và hạch bạch huyết quanh gan Viêm đường mật

Vi khuẩn huyết





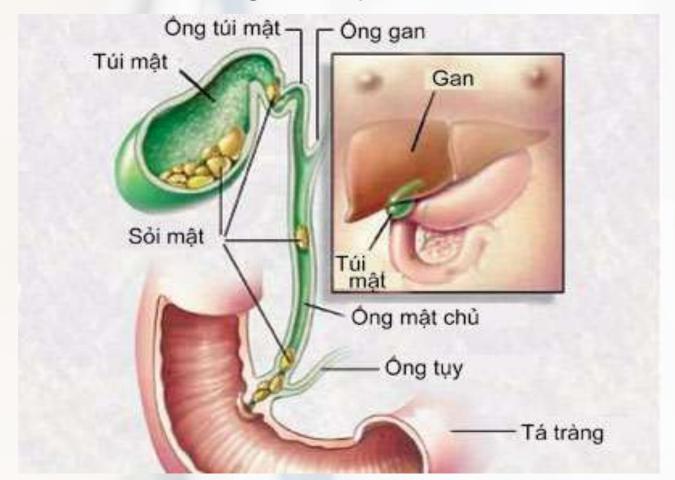




- · Nhiều bệnh nhân có sởi đường mật chình mà không có triệu chứng lâm sàng.
- Đường mật chính có các ống mật trong gan và ngoài gan.
- Các ống mật ngoài gan cũng có những đoạn khác nhau, cho nên những triệu chứng của bệnh cũng có những điểm khác nhau.



1.Sởi đường mật: Sởi mật thường gây các triệu chứng do chúng làm viêm hoặc tắc ống túi mật hay ống mật chủ khi chúng di chuyển.





Triệu chứng điển hình là đau (TCCN quan trọng):

- Tắc ống mật chủ hay ống mật do sỏi → tăng áp lực tại miệng tắc và áp lực trong lòng ống mật→ cơn đau tạng, cảm giác đè nén ở thượng vị hoặc hạ sườn phải sau dữ dội, liên tục hay lan sang vùng giữa bả vai, vai phải ra sau lưng, cơn đau kéo dài thất thường từ vài ba giờ tới vài ba ngày.
- Đau càng ngày càng tăng dần do áp lực ngày càng tăng.
- Giữa các cơn đau là thời gian hoàn toàn im lặng hoặc đau âm ỉ.
- Có thể có nôn và buồn nôn, sau nôn không bớt đau.
- Bệnh nhân thường nằm ở tư thế gập người, ôm bụng. Ở tư thế này có thể giúp bệnh nhân giảm đau chút đỉnh.



- Triệu chứng toàn thân: viêm đường mật.
- Sốt: Tắc mật + nhiễm trùng đường mật→ viêm đường mật→ sốt: sốt cao, nhiệt độ 38-39° C, ớn lạnh, rét run.
- Nhiễm trùng huyết dễ xuất hiện trong viêm đường mật.
- Da vàng: xuất hiện rõ sau sốt 1- 2 ngày:
 - Tùy theo mức độ tắc mật.
 - Vị trí: tắc mật ở đoạn thấp ống mật chủ có dấu hiệu rõ hơn là sỏi trong gan.
- Ngứa nhiều.
- Phân bạc màu, nước tiểu sẫm màu.



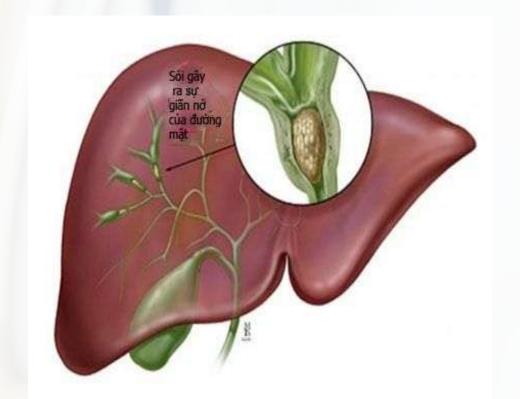
Triệu chứng thực thể:

- Phản ứng thành bụng, nhiều nhất ở vùng tam giác Chauffard-Rivet.
- Án đau vùng HSP.
- Gan có thể bình thường hoặc to
- Có thể ấn đau điểm Mayo-Robson



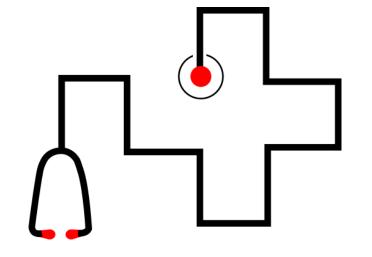
2. Sởi đường mật trong gan:

 Sởi đường mật trong gan đa số có triệu chứng. Bệnh cảnh thường gặp nhất là viêm đường mật cấp biểu hiện:





- Đau hạ sườn phải.
- Sốt.
- Có thể có da vàng hoặc không tùy mức độ tắc nghẽn.
- Ngoài ra trong trường hợp nhiễm trùng nặng có thể có thêm 2 triệu chứng báo hiệu tiên lượng nặng là giảm tri giác và hạ huyết áp → Ngũ chứng Raynold.



Tiếp cận ban đầu Cận lâm sàng

Flowchart for inititial response for acute biliary infection



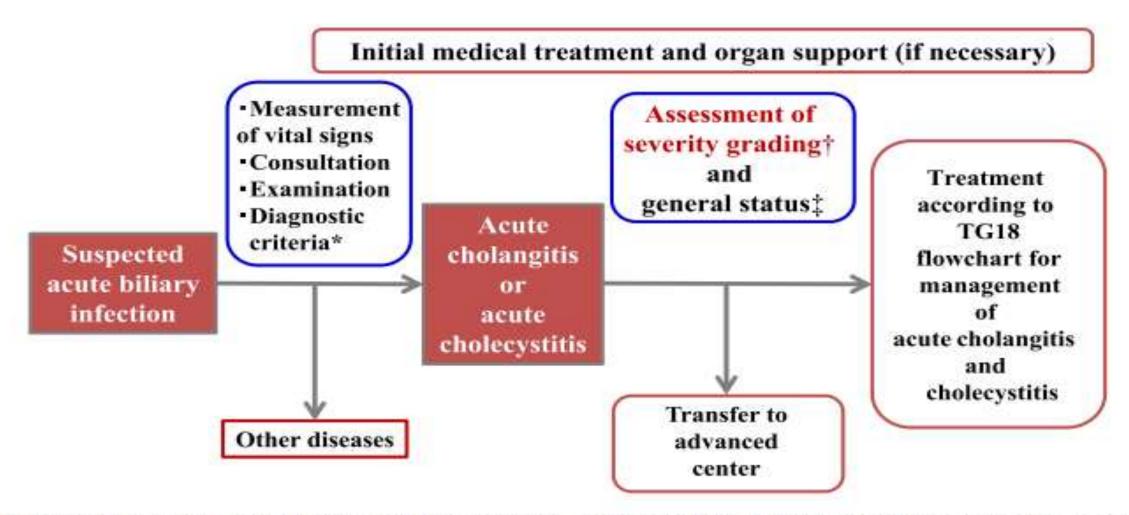


Fig. 1 TG18 flowchart for the initial response to acute biliary infection. *TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis [4] and cholecystitis [7] should be used. †TG18/TG13 severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis [4] and cholecystitis [7] should be used. ‡Charlson comorbidity index (CCI) [10] and the American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) Physical Status (PS) classification [11] should be referred to



Suspected acute biliary infection



Tri giác



Mạch Huyết áp



Thể tích nước tiểu



SpO2 Nhịp thở



Kết mạc mi mắt



Dấu hiệu Murphy Đề kháng

Tiêu chuẩn chẩn đoán viêm đường mật cấp

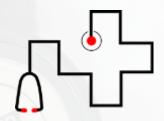


Table 1 TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis

A. Systemic inflammation

- A-1. Fever and/or shaking chills
- A-2. Laboratory data: evidence of inflammatory response
- B. Cholestasis
 - B-1. Jaundice
 - B-2. Laboratory data: abnormal liver function tests

C. Imaging

- C-1. Biliary dilatation
- C-2. Evidence of the etiology on imaging (stricture, stone, stent, etc)

Suspected diagnosis: one item in A + one item in either B or C

Definite diagnosis: one item in A, one item in B and one item in C

A-2: Abnormal white blood cell counts, increase of serum C-reactive protein levels, and other changes indicating inflammation

B-2: Increased serum ALP, r-GTP (GGT), AST, and ALT levels Thresholds

Fever		BT >38°C
A-2 Evidence of inflammatory response	WBC (×1,000/μl)	<4 or >10
	CRP (mg/dl)	≥1
Jaundice		T-Bil ≥2 (mg/dl)
B-2 Abnormal liver function tests	ALP (IU)	>1.5 × STD
	γGTP (IU)	>1.5 × STD
	AST (IU)	>1.5 × STD
	ALT (IU)	>1.5 × STD
	Evidence of inflammatory response Jaundice Abnormal liver	Evidence of inflammatory response CRP (mg/dl) Jaundice Abnormal liver function tests γGTP (IU) AST (IU)

Cited from Kiriyama et al. [4]

ALP alkaline phosphatase, ALT alanine aminotransferase, AST aspartate aminotransferase, rGTP (GGT) r-glutamyltransferase, STD upper limit of normal value

Cận lâm sàng xác định chẩn đoán



- Xét nghiệm máu: WBC, PLT, CRP, albumin, ALP, GGT, AST, ALT, BUN, creatinin,
 PT, INR -> Nếu có sốt cao thì thêm cấy máu.
- Siêu âm bụng: hình ảnh túi mật to, dày thật túi mật, sỏi túi mật, ứ dịch quanh túi mật, áp xe quanh túi mật, sỏi bùn trong túi mật và dấu Murphy siêu âm bụng đau khi đầu dò đè vào túi mật)
- CT scans
- MRI/MRCP: Khuyến cáo dùng khi SÂ bụng hoặc CT-scan không cho chẩn đoán chắc chắn

Giá trị của siêu âm



Phân tích ngang bởi Abboud:

- Dãn ống mật chủ: Độ nhạy 42%, độ đặc hiệu 96%
- Sởi ống mật: Độ nhạy 38%, độ đặc hiệu 100%



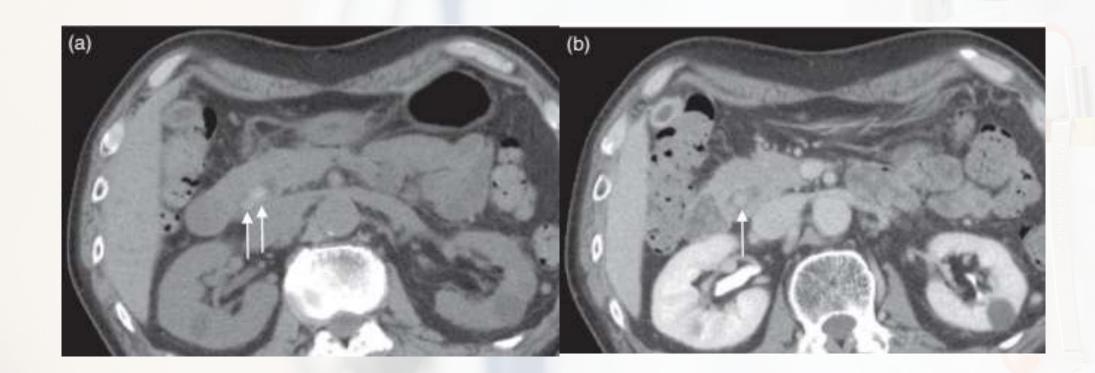
Sởi OMC ở BN viêm đường mật cấp. Nốt phản âm dày với bóng âm kém ở OMC trong tụy



Viêm đường mật cấp gây ra bới u đầu tụy Hình ảnh ống mật chủ dãn

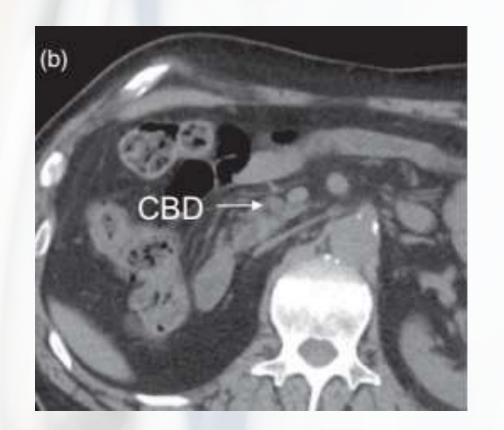


 Không bị ảnh hưởng bởi hơi ruột => đánh giá khách quan các nốt tăng đậm độ trong đường mật.



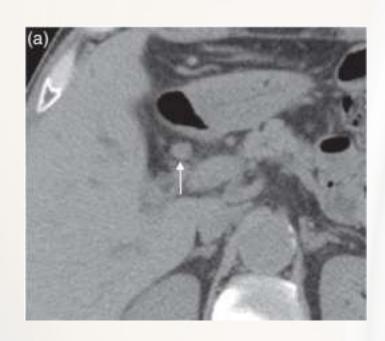


Độ nhạy chẩn đoán từ 25-90% tùy thuộc bản chất sỏi (phụ thuộc vào lượng Calcium phosphate hoặc Calcium carbonate)

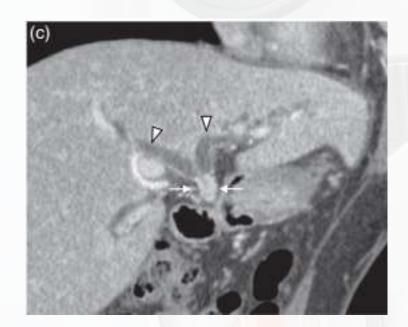




 Xác định rõ sự dẫn đường mật, đóng góp cho chẩn đoán nguyên nhân gây hẹp đường mật (carcinoma đường mật, u tụy)

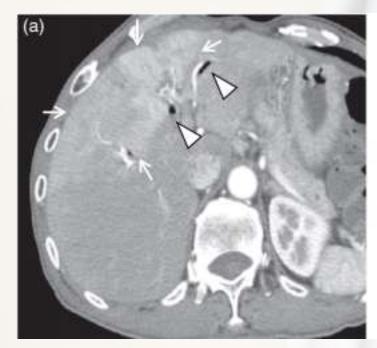




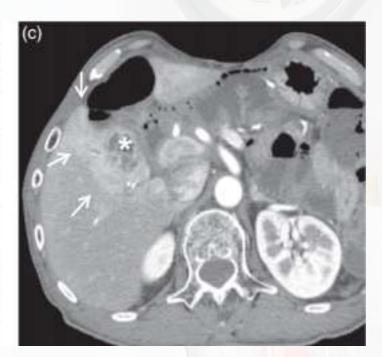




 Hữu ích trong chẩn đoán biến chứng lân cận (ápxe gan, huyết khối tĩnh mạch cửa)

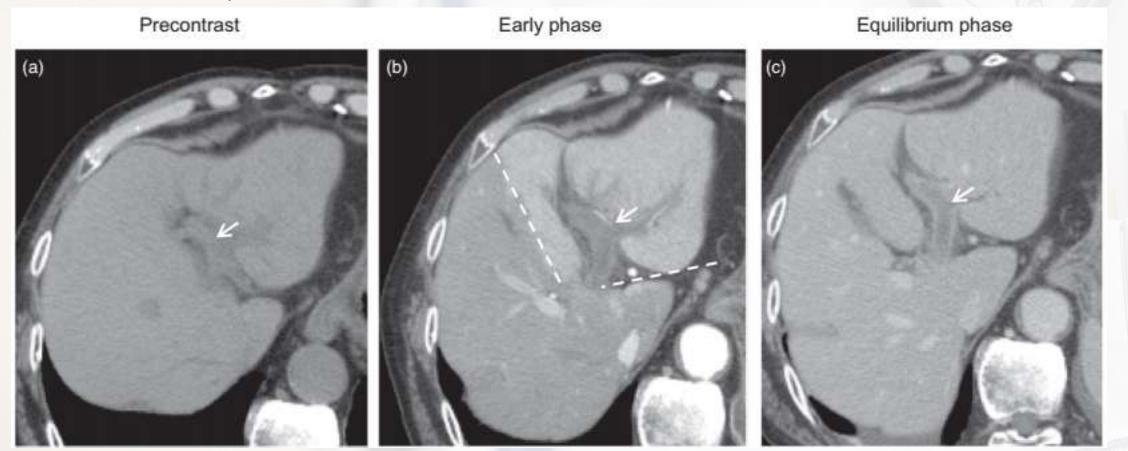








 Hữu ích trong chẩn đoán biến chứng lân cận (ápxe gan, huyết khối tĩnh mạch cửa)





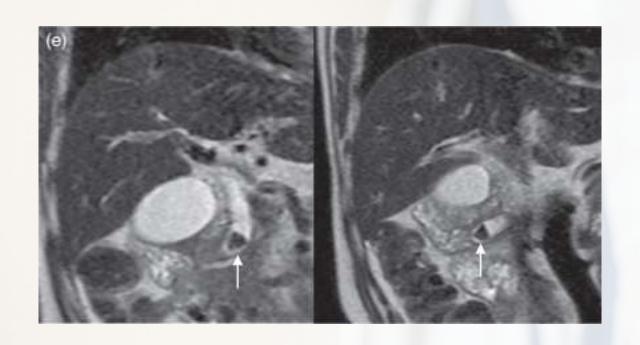
- MRI cho độ phân giải tương phản cao, cho phép phác họa đường mật mà không cần dung chất tương phản
- Nghiên cứu so sánh độ chính xác của MRCP/MRI, CT và SÂ bụng trong vàng da tắc nghẽn cho thấy MRCP có khả năng chẩn đoán tốt nhất với bệnh lý ác tính và lành tính đều là 98%
- Khuyến cáo thực hiện khi SÂ bụng hoặc CT không đưa ra được chẩn đoán chắc chắn.

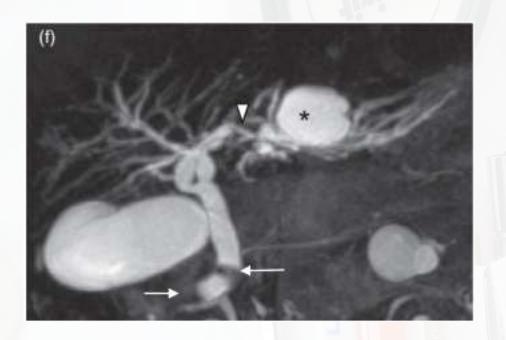






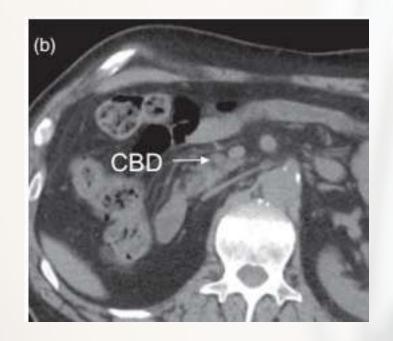




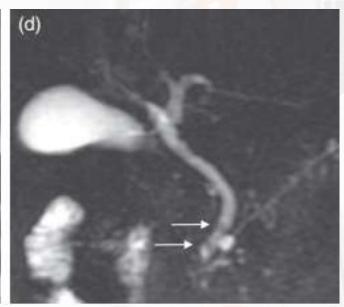


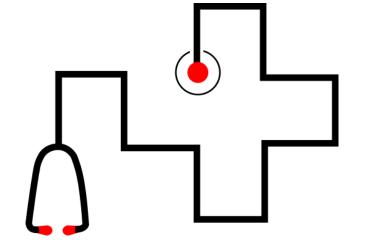


Độ nhạy chẩn đoán cao hơn CT



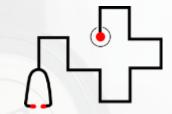






Điều trị ban đầu

Khởi đầu điều trị khi đã có chẩn đoán chắc chắn

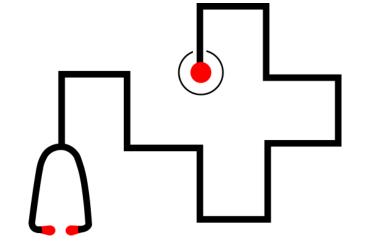


- Bồi hoàn đủ dịch
- Kháng sinh.
- Giảm đau

Initial management



If the case is judged to be urgent, initial medical treatment should be started immediately including respiratory/circulatory management if required, without waiting for a definitive diagnosis.



Đánh giá độ nặng



Table 2. Causes of acute cholangitis (%)

				Causes				
Author	Year	Setting	N	GB stones	Benign stenosis	Malignant stenosis	Sclerosing cholangitis	Others/ unknown
Gigot ⁶	1963-1983	University of Paris	412	48%	28%	11%	1.5%	
Saharia and Cameron ⁷	1952–1974	Johns Hopkins Hospital, USA	76	70%	13%	17%	0%	200
Pitt and Couse ⁸	1976–1978	Johns Hopkins Hospital, USA	40	70%	18%	10%	3%	
Pitt and Couse ⁸	1983–1985	Johns Hopkins Hospital, USA	48	32%	14%	30%	24%	<u> (1114)</u>
Thompson ⁹	1986–1989	Johns Hopkins Hospital, USA	96	28%	12%	57%	3%	77.75
Basoli ¹⁰	1960-1985	University of Rome	80	69%	16%	13%	0%	4%
Daida ¹¹	1979	Questionnaire throughout Japan	472	56%	5%	36%	**************************************	3%



Charcot's triad

Tokyo Guideline 2007 Tokyo Guideline 2013 Tokyo Guideline 2018



 In 1877, Charcot was the first to describe the clinical triad of intermittent fever accompanied by chills, jaundice and right upper quadrant abdominal pain as a clinical manifestation of acute cholangitis. "The symptoms of hepatic fever".

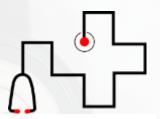


Table 1. Incidence of clinical manifestation of acute cholangitis

Author	Disease	n	Charcot's triad (%)	Fever %	Jaundice %	Abdominal pain (%)	Reynold's pentad (%)	Shock %	Disturbed consciousness (%)
Csendes ¹⁰	ASC	51 2	22	38.7	65.4	92.2		7	7.2
Thompson ¹¹	AC	66	About 60	100	66	59		7	9
Gigot ¹²	AC	41 2	72				3.5	7.8	9 7
Boey ¹³	AC	99	69.7	93.9	78.8	87.9	5.1	16.2	16.2
2	SC	14					7	57	28
	NonSC	72					4	8	12
O'Connor ¹⁴	AC	65	60				7.7	32	14
	SC	19	53				5	47	11
	NonSC	46	63				9	26	15
Lai ⁶	Severe AC	86	56	66	93	90		64	
Haupert15	ASC	13	15.4	100	61.5	100	7.7	23.1	7.7
Welch16	ASC	5	50	80	60			0	20
	AOSC	15	50	88	67			33	27
Saharia17	AC	78		100	61.5	100		5.1	
Chijiiwa8	AOSC	27		63.0	70.3	96.3		25.9	22.2

AC, acute cholangitis; SC, suppurative cholangitis; AOSC, acute obstructive suppurative cholangitis

Activate Windows

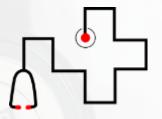


- Charcot's triad has been widely used as one of the most important diagnostic criteria.
- Charcot's triad shows very high specificity (95.9%). However, due to the low sensitivity (26.4 %), it is not applicable in using as diagnosis criteria (level B).



Tokyo Guideline 2007

- The International Consensus Meeting for the Management of Acute Cholecystitis and Cholangitis, held on April 1–2, 2006, in Tokyo.
- A total of 29 experts from 22 countries and Japanese experts in this field attended the meeting.
- As the final product of this international consensus meeting, TG07 was published in 2007.



Tokyo Guideline 2007

- More than 90% of the participants agreed that the four criteria.
- (1) A history of biliary disease.
- (2) The clinical manifestations
- (3) Laboratory data indicative of the presence of inflammation and biliary obstruction, and
- (4) Imaging findings indicative of biliary obstruction and/or evidence of etiology were suitable making the diagnosis of acute cholangitis



Tokyo guidelines 07

A. Clinical context and clinical manifestations	 History of biliary disease Fever and/or chills Jaundice Abdominal pain (RUQ or upper abdominal)
B. Laboratory data	Evidence of inflammatory response ^a Abnormal liver function tests ^b
C. Imaging findings	7. Biliary dilatation, or evidence of an etiology (stricture, stone, stent etc.
Suspected diagnosis	Two or more items in A
Definite diagnosis	 (1) Charcot's triad (2 + 3 + 4) (2) Two or more items in A + both items in B and item C

^a Abnormal WBC count, increase of serum CRP level, and other changes indicating inflammation



Tokyo guidelines 07

Table 5. Criteria for severity assessment of acute cholangitis

	Severity of acute cholangitis					
Criterion	Mild (grade I)	Moderate (grade II)	Severe (grade III)			
Onset of organ dysfunction	No	No	Yes			
Response to initial medical treatment ^a	Yes	No	No			

^aConsisting of general supportive care and antibiotics



Tokyo guidelines 07

Table 6. Definitions of severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis

Mild (grade I) acute cholangitis

"Mild (grade I)" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis which responds to the initial medical treatment^a Moderate (grade II) acute cholangitis

"Moderate (grade II)" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis that does not respond to the initial medical treatment and is not accompanied by organ dysfunction

Severe (grade III) acute cholangitis

"Severe (grade III)" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis that is associated with the onset of dysfunction at least in any one of the following organs/systems:

Cardiovascular system Hypotension requiring dopamine ≥5 μg/kg per min, or any dose of dobutamine

Nervous system Disturbance of consciousness

3. Respiratory system PaO2/FiO2 ratio < 300

4. Kidney Serum creatinine > 2.0 mg/dl

5. Liver PT-INR > 1.5

Hematological system Platelet count < 100 000 /μl

Note: compromised patients, e.g., elderly (>75 years old) and patients with medical comorbidities, should be monitored closely aGeneral supportive care and antibiotics



Tokyo guidelines 07

- The sensitivity is low (63.9 %)
- A history of biliary diseases and abdominal pain is not specific to biliary manifestations.
- The definition of Grade II in TG07 was ambiguous.



Tokyo guidelines 13

Table 1 TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis

- A. Systemic inflammation
- A-1. Fever and/or shaking chills
- A-2. Laboratory data: evidence of inflammatory response
- B. Cholestasis
- B-1. Jaundice
- B-2. Laboratory data: abnormal liver function tests
- C. Imaging
- C-1. Biliary dilatation
- C-2. Evidence of the etiology on imaging (stricture, stone, stent etc.)
- Suspected diagnosis: One item in A + one item in either B or C
- Definite diagnosis: One item in A, one item in B and one item in C



Tokyo guidelines 13

Thresholds			
A-1	Fever		BT >38 °C
A-2	Evidence of inflammatory response	WBC (×1000/μL)	<4, or >10
		CRP (mg/dl)	≥ 1
B-1	Jaundice		T -Bil $\geq 2 \text{ (mg/dL)}$
B-2	Abnormal liver function tests	ALP (IU)	$>1.5 \times STD$
		γGTP (IU)	$>1.5 \times STD$
		AST (IU)	$>1.5 \times STD$
		ALT (IU)	$>1.5 \times STD$

Cited from the Ref. [8]

STD upper limit of normal value, ALP alkaline phosphatase, γGTP (GGT) γ -glutamyltransferase, AST aspartate aminotransferase, ALT alanine aminotransferase



Tokyo guidelines 13

- The severity of acute cholangitis is classified as follows
- ☐ Grade III (severe): presence of organ dysfunction.
- ☐ Grade II (moderate): risk of increased severity without early biliary drainage.
- ☐ Grade I (mild).



Tokyo guidelines 13

Table 4 TG13 severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis

Grade III (Severe) acute cholangitis

"Grade III" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis that is associated with the onset of dysfunction in at least one of any of the following organs/systems:

Cardiovascular dysfunction

Hypotension requiring dopamine ≥5 μg/kg per min, or any dose of norepinephrine

2. Neurological dysfunction

Disturbance of consciousness

3. Respiratory dysfunction

PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio <300

4. Renal dysfunction

Oliguria, serum creatinine >2.0 mg/dl

5. Hepatic dysfunction

PT-INR >1.5

6. Hematological dysfunction

Platelet count <100,000/mm3



Tokyo guidelines 13

"Grade II" acute cholangitis is associated with any two of the following conditions:

- 1. Abnormal WBC count (>12,000/mm³, <4,000/mm³)
- 2. High fever (≥39 °C)
- 3. Age (\geq 75 years old)
- 4. Hyperbilirubinemia (total bilirubin ≥5 mg/dL)
- 5. Hypoalbuminemia ($\langle STD \times 0.7 \rangle$

Grade I (mild) acute cholangitis

"Grade I" acute cholangitis does not meet the criteria of "Grade III (severe)" or "Grade II (moderate)" acute cholangitis at initial diagnosis.



TG07 vs TG13

Table 2 Retrospective comparison of various diagnostic criteria of acute cholangitis in a multi-center study in Japan

	Charcot's TG0 triad (%) (%)		The first draft criteria (with abdominal pain and history of biliary disease) (%)	nal pain (%)	
Sensitivity	26.4	82.6	95.1	91.8	
Specificity	95.9	79.8	66.3	77.7	
[Positive rate]					
Acute cholecystitis	11.9	15.5	38.8	5.9	



TG07 vs **TG**13

Diagnostic status	No. of patients	P-value	
	TG13	TG07	
Definite	4,430 (73.1%)	3,977 (65.6%)	
Suspected	1,024 (16.9%)	838 (13.8%)	
Cholangitis (definite or suspected diagnosis)	5,454 (90.0%)	4,815 (79.4%)	< 0.0001
Non-cholangitis	609 (10.0%)	1,248 (20.6%)	



TG07 vs TG13

Table 1 Number of patients that meet Tokyo criteria comparing to Charcot Triad positivity

	Suspicious diagnosis (Tokyo 2007)	Definitive diagnosis (Tokyo 2007)	Suspicious diagnosis (Tokyo 2013)	Definitive diagnosis (Tokyo 2013)
Charcot triad Positive	29	29	29	23
Charcot triad Negative	26	12	20	12



TG07 vs TG13

Table 2	. Co	mpar	rison (of Tokyo
criteria	2007	and	2013	(Number
of patie	nts)			

		Suspicious diagnosis (2007)		Definitive diagnosis (2007	
		Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive
Suspicious diagnosis (2013)	Negative	2	9	11	0
	Positive	3	46	8	41
Definitive diagnosis (2013)	Negative	4	21	18	7
	Positive	1	34	1	34



TG07 vs TG13

Table 3 Thirty-day mortality rate relevant to the timing of biliary drainage and severity grading by TG13 [17]

Severity grade	30-day mortality according to the timing or absence of biliary drainage								
	Urgent biliary drain	nage	Urgent or early biliary drainage						
	Within 24 h $(n = 2,709)$	After 24 h or absence $(n = 3,354)$	P-value	Within 48 h $(n = 3,730)$	After 48 h or absence $(n = 2,333)$	P-value			
Grade III $(n = 1,521)$	5.4% (42/781)	4.9% (36/740)	0.727	4.9% (50/1,017)	5.6% (28/504)	0.622			
Grade II ($n = 2,019$)	1.7% (16/939)	3.4% (37/1,080)	< 0.05	2.0% (25/1,272)	3.7% (28/747)	< 0.05			
Grade I $(n = 2,523)$	1.3% (13/989)	1.2% (18/1,534)	0.853	1.1% (16/1,441)	1.4% (15/1,082)	0.586			
Total $(n = 6,063)$	2.6% (71/2,709)	2.7% (91/3,354)	0.873	2.4% (91/3,730)	3.0% (71/2,333)	0.164			

Urgent performed on the admission day (within 24 h), early performed on the day following admission (24–48 h)

Cited from Kiriyama et al. [17]



TG07 vs TG13

 The TG13 diagnostic and severity grading criteria for AC can provide results quickly, are minimally invasive for the patients, and are inexpensive.



The TG13 diagnostic criteria are recommended to be used as the TG18 criteria because more patients with possible acute cholangitis can be diagnosed by using these criteria. (Recommendation 1, level D).

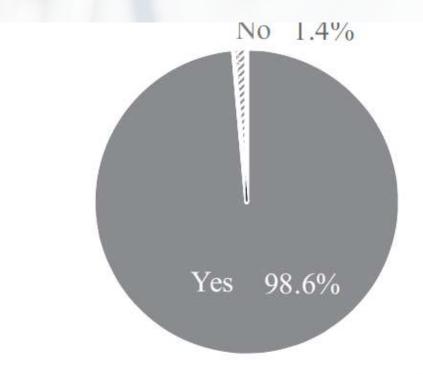


Fig. 1 Response to the question: "Do you agree with the suggestion that TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis would be adopted as the TG13/TG18 criteria without revising setting?"



Tokyo guidelines 18

Table 2 TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis [4]

- A. Systemic inflammation
 - A-1. Fever and/or shaking chills
 - A-2. Laboratory data: evidence of inflammatory response
- B. Cholestasis
 - B-1. Jaundice
 - B-2. Laboratory data: abnormal liver function tests
- C. Imaging
 - C-1. Biliary dilatation
 - C-2. Evidence of the etiology on imaging (stricture, stone, stent etc.)

Suspected diagnosis: one item in A + one item in either B or C

Definite diagnosis: one item in A, one item in B and one item in C



Tokyo guidelines 18

 The TG13 severity grading criteria are recommended to be used as the TG18 criteria because patients whose prognosis can potentially be improved by early biliary drainage can be identified by using these criteria. (Recommendation 1, level D)

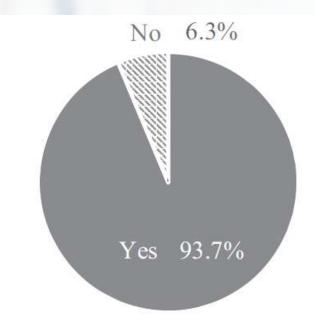


Fig. 10 Response to the question: "Do you agree with the suggestion that TG13 severity grading criteria for acute cholangitis would be adopted as the TG13/TG18 criteria without revising setting?"



Table 4 TG18/TG13 severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis [4]

Grade III (severe) acute cholangitis

"Grade III" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis that is associated with the onset of dysfunction at least in any one of the following organs/systems:

- 1. Cardiovascular dysfunction: hypotension requiring dopamine ≥5 µg/kg per min, or any dose of norepinephrine
- 2. Neurological dysfunction: disturbance of consciousness
- 3. Respiratory dysfunction: PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio <300
- 4. Renal dysfunction: oliguria, serum creatinine >2.0 mg/dl
- 5. Hepatic dysfunction: PT-INR >1.5
- 6. Hematological dysfunction: platelet count <100,000/mm³

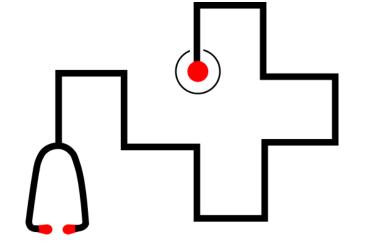
Grade II (moderate) acute cholangitis

"Grade II" acute cholangitis is associated with any two of the following conditions:

- 1. Abnormal WBC count (>12,000/mm³, <4,000/mm³)
- 2. High fever (≥39°C)
- Age (≥75 years old)
- 4. Hyperbilirubinemia (total bilirubin ≥5 mg/dl)
- 5. Hypoalbuminemia (<STD^a×0.7)

Grade I (mild) acute cholangitis

"Grade I" acute cholangitis does not meet the criteria of "Grade III (severe)" or "Grade II (moderate)" acute cholangitis at initial diagnosis.



Điều trị

Flowchart for inititial response for acute biliary infection



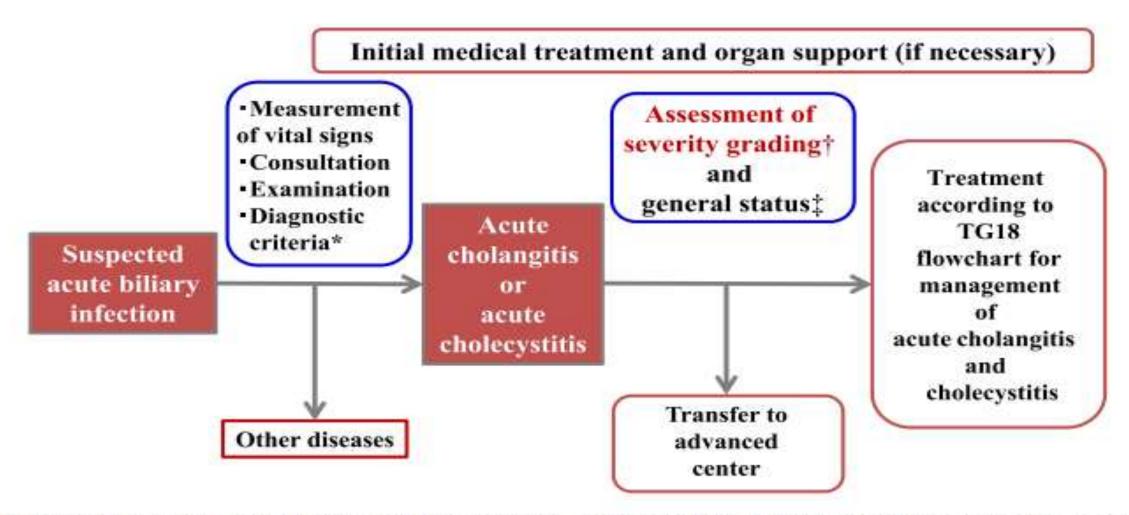


Fig. 1 TG18 flowchart for the initial response to acute biliary infection. *TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis [4] and cholecystitis [7] should be used. †TG18/TG13 severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis [4] and cholecystitis [7] should be used. ‡Charlson comorbidity index (CCI) [10] and the American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) Physical Status (PS) classification [11] should be referred to

Criteria diagnosis



Table 1 TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholangitis

A. 5	Systemic	inflammation	n
------	----------	--------------	---

A-1. Fever and/or shaking chills

A-2. Laboratory data: evidence of inflammatory response

B. Cholestasis

B-1. Jaundice

B-2. Laboratory data: abnormal liver function tests

C. Imaging

C-1. Biliary dilatation

C-2. Evidence of the etiology on imaging (stricture, stone, stent, etc)

Suspected diagnosis: one item in A + one item in either B or C

Definite diagnosis: one item in A, one item in B and one item in C

A-2: Abnormal white blood cell counts, increase of serum

C-reactive protein levels, and other changes indicating inflammation

B-2: Increased serum ALP, r-GTP (GGT), AST, and ALT levels

Thresholds

A-1	Fever		BT >38°C
A-2	Evidence of inflammatory response	WBC (×1,000/μl)	<4 or >10
		CRP (mg/dl)	≥1
B-1	Jaundice		T-Bil ≥2 (mg/dl)
B-2	Abnormal liver function tests	ALP (IU)	>1.5 × STD
		γGTP (IU)	>1.5 × STD
		AST (IU)	>1.5 × STD
		ALT (IU)	>1.5 × STD

Cited from Kiriyama et al. [4]

ALP alkaline phosphatase, ALT alanine aminotransferase, AST aspartate aminotransferase, rGTP (GGT) r-glutamyltransferase, STD upper limit of normal value

Table 2 TG18/TG13 diagnostic criteria for acute cholecystitis

Local signs of inflammation etc.

(1) Murphy's sign, (2) RUQ mass/pain/tenderness

B. Systemic signs of inflammation etc.

(1) Fever, (2) elevated CRP, (3) elevated WBC count

C. Imaging findings

Imaging findings characteristic of acute cholecystitis

Suspected diagnosis: one item in A + one item in B

Definite diagnosis: one item in A + one item in B + C

Cited from Yokoe et al. [7]. Acute hepatitis, other acute abdominal diseases, and chronic cholecystitis should be excluded

CRP C-reactive protein, RUQ right upper abdominal quadrant, WBC white blood cell

Severity grading for acute cholangitis



Table 3 TG18/TG13 severity assessment criteria for acute cholangitis

Grade III (severe) acute cholangitis

"Grade III" acute cholangitis is defined as acute cholangitis that is associated with the onset of dysfunction at least in any one of the following organs/systems:

- 1. Cardiovascular dysfunction: hypotension requiring dopamine ≥5 μg/kg per min, or any dose of norepinephrine
- Neurological dysfunction: disturbance of consciousness
- 3. Respiratory dysfunction: PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio <300
- 4. Renal dysfunction: oliguria, serum creatinine >2.0 mg/dl
- 5. Hepatic dysfunction: PT-INR >1.5
- 6. Hematological dysfunction: platelet count <100,000/mm³

Grade II (moderate) acute cholangitis

"Grade II" acute cholangitis is associated with any two of the following conditions:

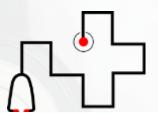
- 1. Abnormal WBC count (>12,000/mm³, <4,000/mm³)
- 2. High fever (≥39°C)
- 3. Age (≥75 years)
- Hyperbilirubinemia (total bilirubin ≥5 mg/dl)
- 5. Hypoalbuminemia ($\langle STD \times 0.7 \rangle$

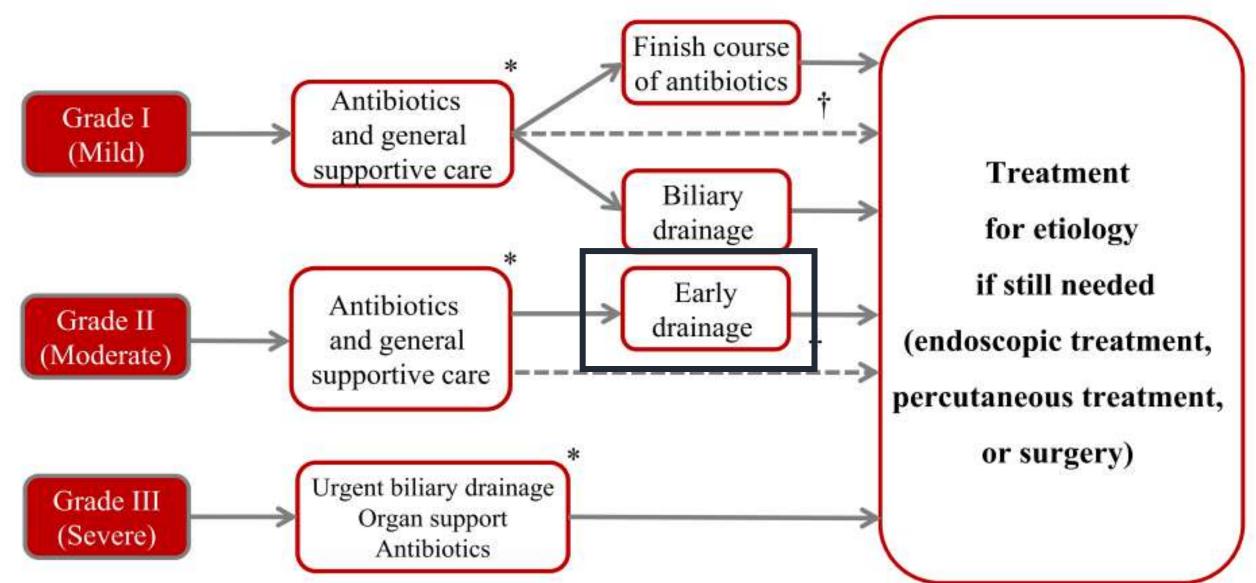
Grade I (mild) acute cholangitis

"Grade I" acute cholangitis does not meet the criteria of "Grade III (severe)" or "Grade II (moderate)" acute cholangitis at initial diagnosis

Cited from Kiriyama et al. [4]

Treatment





Early drainage in Acute Biliary Infection



- A multicenter joint study carried out in Japan and Taiwan found that **for moderate cholangitis, mortality was significantly lower in** 944 **patients who underwent drainage within 24 h compared with** 1,081 **patients who either underwent drainage after longer than 24 h or did not undergo drainage** (1.7% vs. 3.4%, P = 0.0172), **but that there was no significant difference for mild or severe cholangitis**
- In the other observational study, which compared 130 patients with mild or moderate cholangitis who underwent drainage within 24 h and 82 who underwent drainage after longer than 24 h, although there was no significant difference in mortality which was zero in both groups, the mean duration of hospitalization was significantly shorter for patients who underwent drainage within 24 h (6.8 days vs. 9.2 days, P < 0.01 (CS) [17].

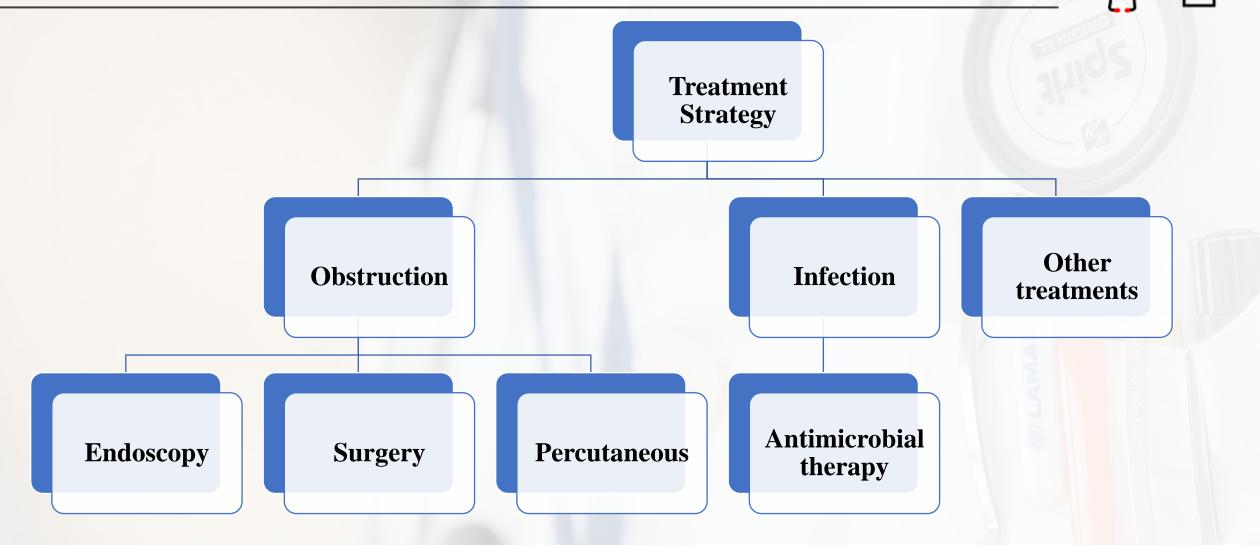
Treatment Principles

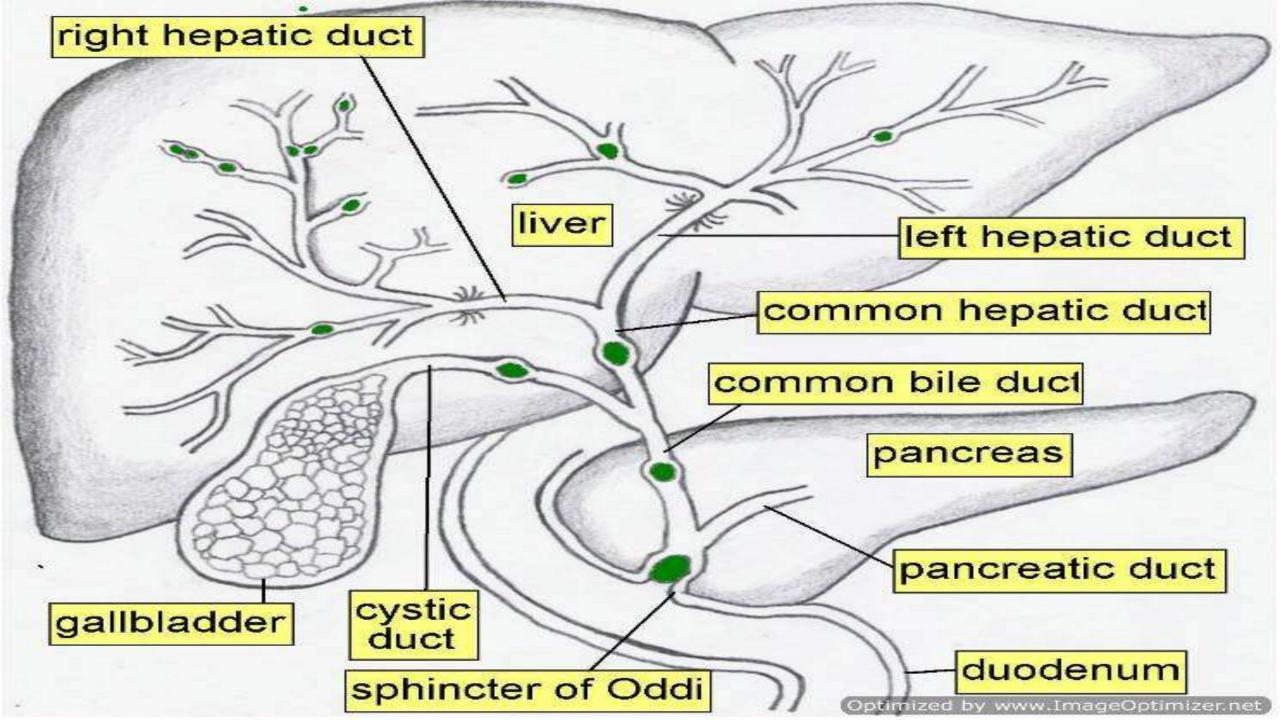


- Blood culture should be taken into consideration before antibiotics are started.
- Bile samples should be taken during biliary drainage and cultured.
- †Principles of treatment for acute cholangitis consist of antimicrobial administration, biliary drainage, and treatment of the etiology.
- For patients with mild or moderate choledocholithiasis, if possible the etiology should be treated at the same time as biliary drainage is performed

Treatment Strategy







Sởi ống mật chủ

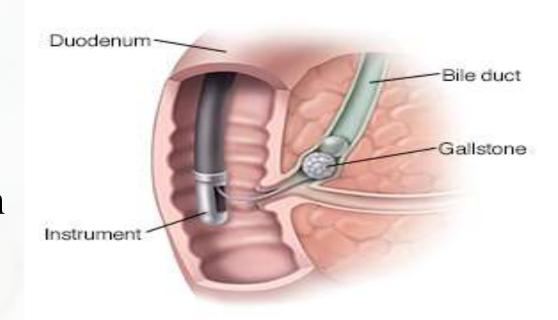


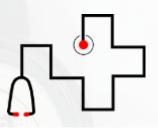
- Lấy sởi qua nội soi mật tụy ngược dòng
- Mở ống mật chủ lấy sởi (mổ mở / nội soi)
- Nối mật ruột
- Lấy sởi qua da

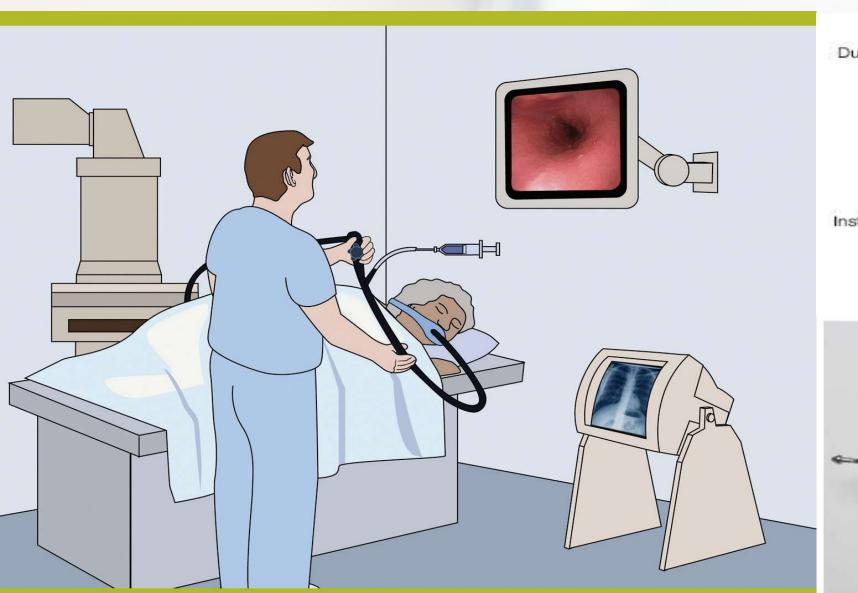


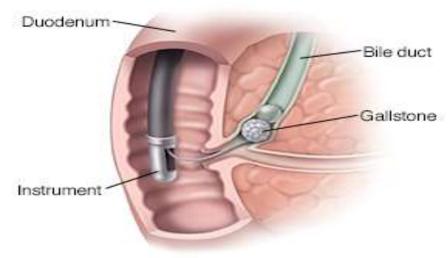
Chỉ định:

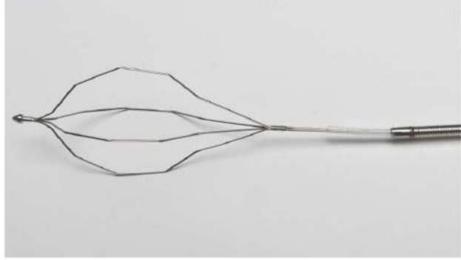
- Sỏi đường mật chính ngoài gan
- ► Sởi nhỏ (không quá 2 3 cm), ít sởi
- Sót sởi sau mổ không lưu lại ống Kerh
- ➤Bệnh nhân già yếu



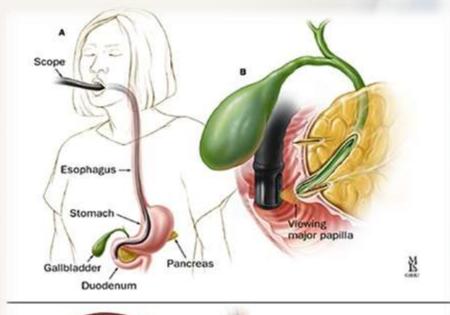


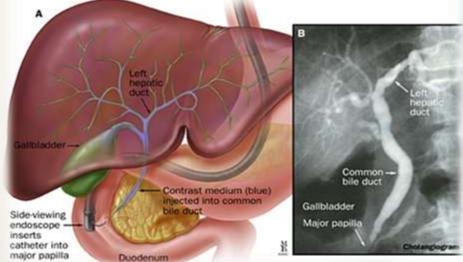


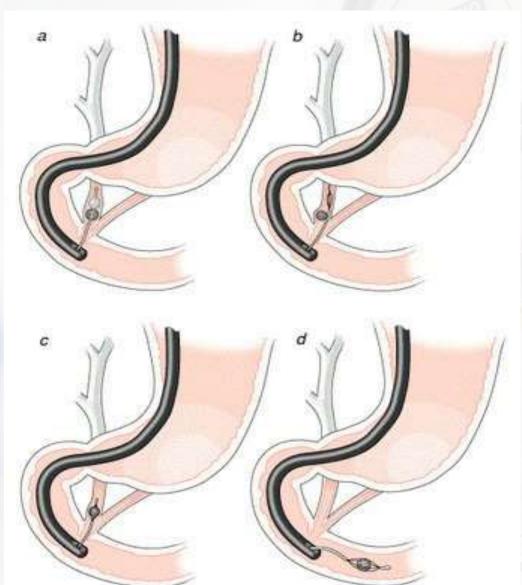


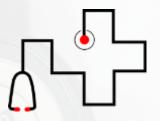




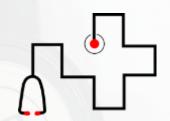






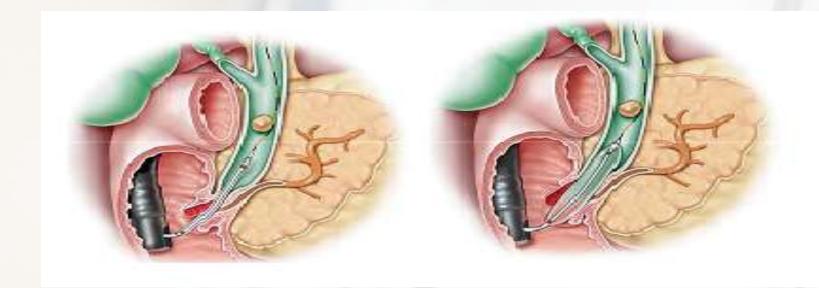


- During ERCP, a gastroenterologist uses a special endoscope (a long, flexible tube with a light and camera at the end) to examine the inside of the digestive system.
- The doctor identifies the place where the bile duct comes into the intestine and then feeds a tiny catheter (a plastic tube) into the duct and squirts in a contrast agent while X-rays are taken.
- The contrast agent allows the doctors to see the bile ducts, the gallbladder, and the pancreatic duct on the X-rays.
- Once the source of the problem is identified, the doctor may then treat it by performing one of the following procedures:
 - Sphincterotomy. This involves making a small incision (cut) in the opening of the pancreatic duct or the bile duct, which can help small gallstones, bile, and pancreatic juice to drain appropriately.
 - Stent placement. A stent is a drainage tube that is placed in the bile duct or the pancreatic duct to hold the duct open and allow it to drain.
 - Gallstone(s) removal. ERCP can remove gallstones from the bile duct, but not from the gallbladder itself.



EST vs EBPD





EST = Endoscopic Billiary Sphincterotomy EBPD = Endoscopic Papillary Balloon Dilation

EST vs EBPD



EST	EPBD
A pull-type sphincterotomy incision is performed below the transverse fold	A small balloon up to 8-mm (now 10-mm) in diameter is advanced into the bile duct across the papilla
 it provides not only drainage but also clearance of bile duct stones at a single session in patients with choledocholithiasis allow bile duct access, providing biliary drainage 	- Reserve ampulla - Coagulopathy : cirrhosis, CRD v.v
Bleeding	Pancreatitis
Long-term outcomes: more complications: sphincter dysfunction, stone recurrence, mechanical lithotripsy may be risk factors	

EST vs EBPD



Am J Gastroenterol. 2004 Aug;99(8):1455-60.

Endoscopic balloon dilation of the biliary sphincter compared to endoscopic biliary sphincterotomy for removal of common bile duct stones during ERCP: a metaanalysis of randomized, controlled trials.

Baron TH1, Harewood GC.

Author information

Abstract

OBJECTIVES: To compare the effect of endoscopic balloon dilation (EPBD) of the papilla with that of endoscopic biliary sphincterotomy (EST) in the treatment of patients with common bile duct stones.

METHODS: Searches of computerized bibliographic and scientific citations, and review of citations in relevant primary articles. Eight fully published prospective, randomized trials in English that compared EPBD with EST for the removal of common bile duct stones were subjected to metaanalysis.

RESULTS: EPBD compared with EST resulted in similar outcomes with regards to overall successful stone removal (94.3% vs 96.5%) and overall complications (10.5% vs 10.3%). Bleeding occurred less frequently with EPBD (0% vs 2.0%, p = 0.001). Post-ERCP pancreatitis occurred more commonly in the EPBD group (7.4% vs 4.3%, p = 0.05). No significant differences were seen in the rates of perforation or infection. Patients undergoing EPBD were more likely to require mechanical lithotripsy for stone extraction (20.9% vs 14.8%, p = 0.014).

CONCLUSIONS: On the basis of lower rates of bleeding, EPBD should be the preferred strategy over EST for endoscopic removal of common bile duct stones in patients with coagulopathy. Although EPBD is theoretically attractive for use in young patients for biliary sphincter preservation, the rate of pancreatitis is higher with EPBD and cannot be routinely recommended at this time.

Copyright 2004 American College of Gastroenterology

EST vs EBPD : short-term and long-term outcomes



- Furthermore, EST can cause a permanent loss of the sphincter function and resultant duodenobiliary reflux, putting patients at increased risk of long-term biliary complications including biliary stone recurrence, cholecystitis, and ascending cholangitis.
- Endoscopic papillary balloon dilation (EPBD) is a possible alternative to EST, particularly in patients with coagulopathy, for example, those on antithrombotic agents or with liver cirrhosis, or chronic renal failure on hemodialysis. One of the major advantages of EPBD over EST is that EPBD potentially preserves the sphincter function and, therefore, might reduce the risk of long-term biliary complications. Recent studies have shown a lower rate of stone recurrence after EPBD as compared with EST

EST vs EBPD: short-term and long-term outcomes



Gastrointest Endosc. 2010 Dec;72(6):1185-91. doi: 10.1016/j.gie.2010.07.006. Epub 2010 Sep 25.

Long-term outcomes after endoscopic sphincterotomy versus endoscopic papillary balloon dilation for bile duct stones.

Yasuda I1, Fujita N, Maguchi H, Hasebe O, Igarashi Y, Murakami A, Mukai H, Fujii T, Yamao K, Maeshiro K, Tada T, Tsujino T, Komatsu Y.

Author information

Abstract

OBJECTIVE: Endoscopic sphincterotomy (ES) is a well-established standard method for treating common bile duct stones. However, biliary sphincter function is impaired after the treatment, and this may influence the long-term outcomes. In this study, we aimed to compare the long-term outcomes after ES with those after endoscopic papillary balloon dilation (EPBD) because the latter procedure is expected to preserve biliary sphincter function better than ES.

DESIGN: A prospective follow-up of the original cohort in a previously randomized, controlled trial to compare the early outcomes after ES and EPBD.

SETTING: Eleven centers, including 6 clinical practices and 5 academic institutions.

PATIENTS: A total of 282 patients with common bile duct stones were randomly selected to undergo ES (n = 144) or EPBD (n = 138) in the previous study.

INTERVENTIONS: ES or EPBD.

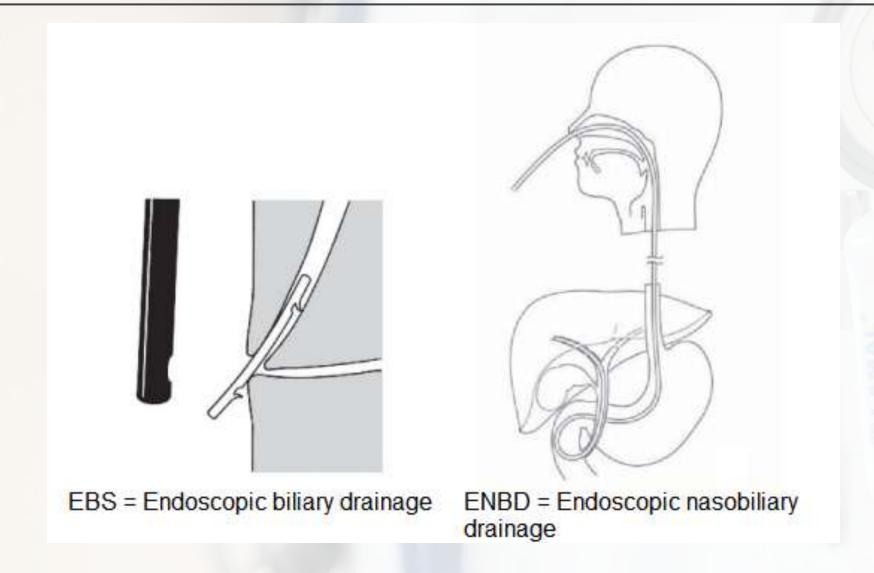
MAIN OUTCOME MEASUREMENTS: Complications after ES or EPBD occurring during long-term follow-up.

RESULTS: The patients were followed up annually after the treatment. The median duration of the follow-up was 6.7 years. Morbidity was observed in 36 (25.0%) and 14 (10.1%) of the patients who underwent ES and EPBD, respectively (P = .0016). Kaplan-Meier analysis revealed a significantly higher incidence of biliary complications in the ES group than in the EPBD group (P = .0011). Multivariate analysis showed that ES, periampullary diverticulum, and in situ gallbladder stones were independent risk factors for stone recurrence.

CONCLUSIONS: During long-term follow-up, patients who underwent ES had significantly more biliary complications than those who underwent EPBD. The biliary sphincter dysfunction after ES results in additional late complications.

Drainage: ENBD vs EBS





Drainage: ENBD vs EBS



ENBD (endoscopic nasobiliary drainage)	EBS (Endoscopic Biliary Stenting)
External drainage	Internal Drainage
a 5-Fr to 7-Fr tube is placed in the bile duct as an external drainage over the guidewire	a 7- to 10-Fr plastic stent is placed in the bile duct as an internal drainage over the guidewire
 No additional EST is required Clogging in the tube (external drain) can be washed out Bile cultures can be done 	WAL STATE OF THE S
Discomfort self-extraction and dislocation of the tube (especially in elderly patients) Loss of electrolytes and fluid	Infection

Drainage: ENBD vs EBS



Format: Abstract -

Send to •

Hepatogastroenterology. 2015 May;62(139):558-63.

Comparison Between Endoscopic Biliary Stenting and Nasobiliary Drainage in Patients with Acute Cholangitis due to Choledocholithiasis: Is Endoscopic Biliary Stenting Useful?

Otani K, Ueki T, Matsumura K, Maruo T, Minoda R, Otsuka Y, Kawamoto K, Noma E, Mitsuyasu T, Matsui T.

Abstract

BACKGROUND/AIMS: To clarify whether or not use of an endoscopic biliary stenting (EBS) is superior to endoscopic nasobiliary drainage (ENBD) in cases of acute cholangitis due to choledocholithiasis.

METHODOLOGY: Of 447 patients with choledocholithiasis who were treated in the Department of Gastroenterology, Fukuoka University Chikushi Hospital between January 1994 and September 2006, the subjects were 99 moderate acute cholangitis patients who underwent endoscopic drainage as initial treatment. Clinical efficacy, complications and patient satisfaction (meal intake rete) were investigated in the EBS group (67 patients) and the ENBD group (32 patients).

RESULTS: There were no significant differences in the improvement in inflammation, total bilirubin, or biliary enzymes between the EBS and ENBD groups. Catheter occlusion was seen in three patients (4%) in the EBS group, and the catheter was self-extracted by three patients (10%) in the ENBD group.

CONCLUSION: In moderate acute cholangitis due to choledocholithisis, the treatment efficacy and safety of EBS are equal to those of ENBD, and EBS appears to be a better choice in elderly patients in particular.

PMID: 26897928

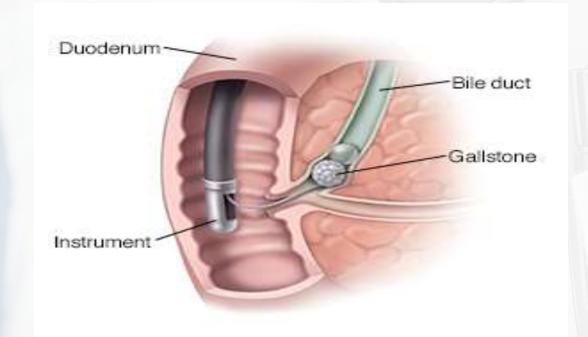


Lợi ích:

- ➤Gần như không đau, bệnh nhân xuất viện sau 1 ngày
- Theo con đường sinh lý tự nhiên

Biến chứng (5-10%)

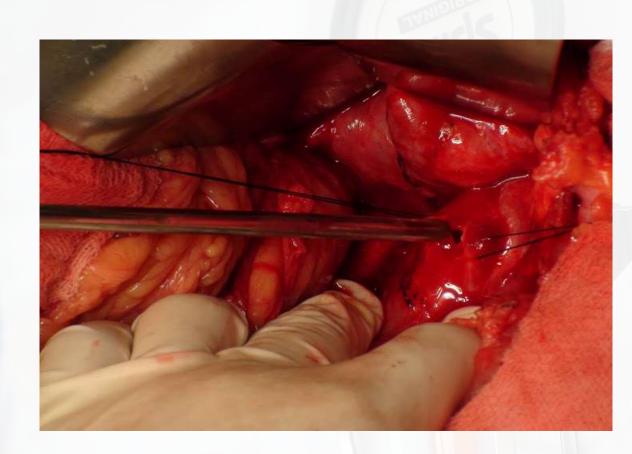
- ➤ Viêm tụy cấp (3-7%)
- ➤ Chảy máu: 2%
- ➤ Thủng tá tràng, thủng ống mật (1%)
- ➤ Viêm đường mật ngược dòng
- ➤ Chít hẹp cơ vòng Oddi
- ≻Kẹt rọ khi lấy sởi



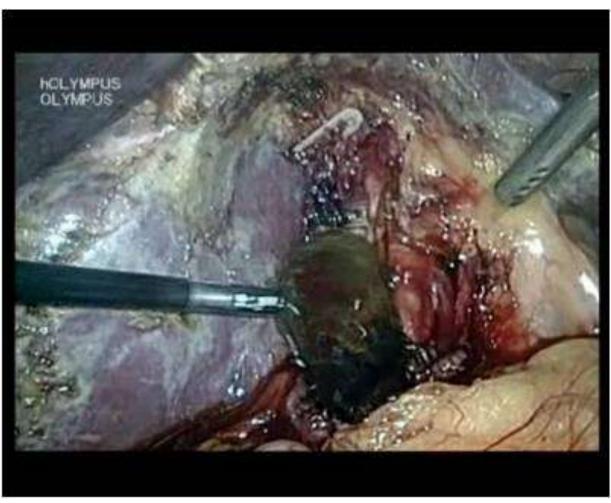


Chỉ định

- ➤ Thất bại với ERCP
- ≻Sởi lớn, nhiều sởi
- Nếu có hẹp đường mật: nong hay tạo hình ống mật chủ
- ➤Óng mật chủ > 10mm

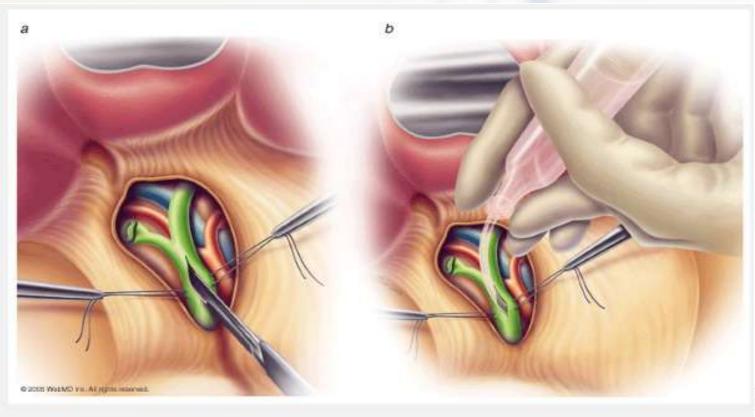


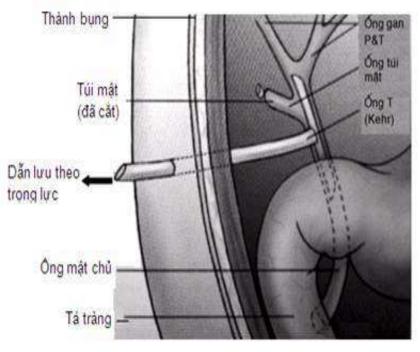




Sau mổ có thể lựa chọn:

- > Khâu kín OMC
- > Đặt ống dẫn lưu Kerh





Hình 18.4. Hệ thống đường dẫn mật và dẫn lưu ống mật chủ bằng ống T (Kehr)

Khâu kín ống mật chủ sau mổ



- Thực hiện khi đã kiểm tra đường mật đã sạch hết sỏi
- Ưu điểm :
 - 1. Không mất dịch mật
 - 2. Tránh các biến chứng của ống Kehr
 - 3. Giảm thời gian nằm viện

Đặt ống dẫn lưu Kehr



- Theo dõi phản ứng của da tại chân ống kehr, nếu có sung, nóng, đỏ, đau thì thay băng hằng ngày.
- Theo dõi số lượng và tính chất của dịch mật:
- Sau phẫu thuật, chưa có nhu động ruột, cơ vòng Oddi bị viêm, phù nề nên dịch mật chủ yếu ra ngoài qua ống kehr: 300-500ml/24h
- Khi có trung tiện (3-4 ngày sau mổ), một phần dịch mật xuống tá tràng nên lượng dịch qua ống kehr ra ngoài giảm, còn 200-300ml/24h
- Từ ngày thứ 5,6 trở đi, lượng dịch còn 150-200ml/24h

Đặt ống dẫn lưu Kehr



- Bình thường, dịch mật có màu xanh đen ánh vàng
- Nếu Kehr không ra dịch thì có thể do dịch mật rò vào khoang bụng, để lâu gây thấm mật phúc mạc, rồi viêm phúc mạc mật, khi đó cần lau rửa ổ bụng
- Trường hợp nghẹt ống kehr, dịch mật có mủ, máu, cặn sỏi trong gan, khi đó ta cần thông lại ống bằng cách bơm rửa ống kehr với bơm tiêm loại 5ml,bơm 5ml NaCl 9‰ từ từ nhẹ tay vào Kehr để thông lòng ống nếu thấy nặng tay thì hút ra, không cố bơm tiếp.

Rút ống Kehr sớm



- Chụp XQ đường mật kiểm tra vào ngày HP7, cột ODL, rút vào ngày HP8
- Thông thường sau 2-4 tuần
- Phụ thuộc vào vị trí đưa ống Kehr ra ngoài
- Ngày nay để thuận tiện cho soi đường mật sau mổ qua đường ống Kehr, ống Kehr nên được đưa ra ngoài ở vùng thượng vị, ngay trên vị trí mở OMC thay vì dưới HSP



- Biến chứng

- Chảy máu
- Rò mật (do phẫu thuật hoặc do lỏng lẻo Kehr)
- > Tụ dịch ổ bụng
- Viêm tụy cấp
- Áp xe tồn lưu
- Nhiễm trùng vết mổ

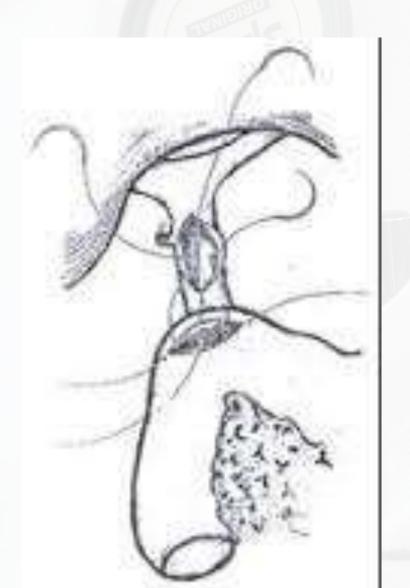


Chỉ định:

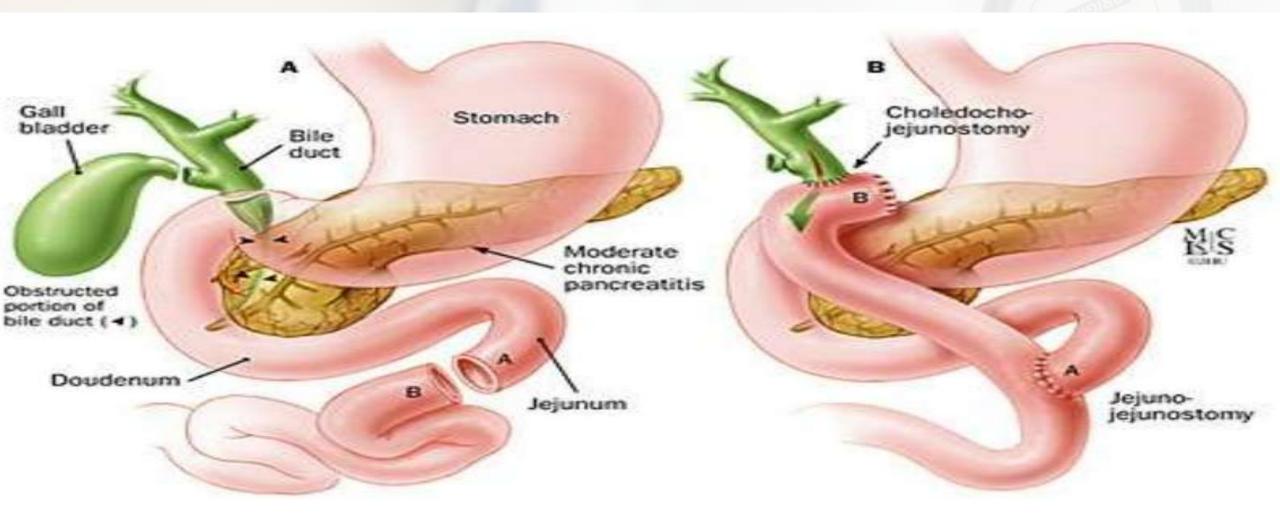
- ► Hẹp đường mật ngoài gan
- Sỏi quá nhiều nghẹt trong các ống mật
- Sỏi trong gan không lấy được hết
- Sỏi mật tái phát nhiều lần

Chống chỉ định

- ➤OMC không dãn <14mm
- ➤ Viêm teo đường mật
- ➤ Viêm tụy cấp do sởi kẹt bóng Vater
- Tá tràng khó di động, phù nề, gỡ dính

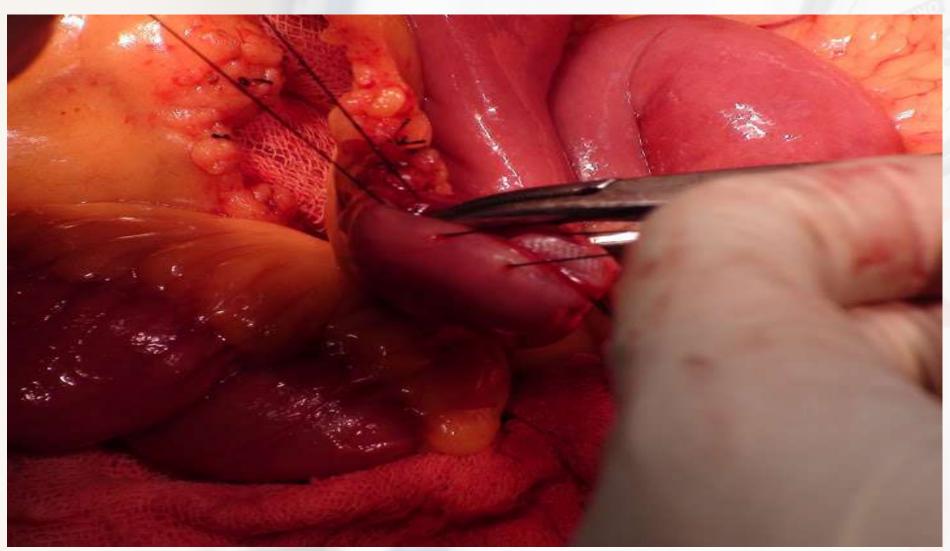






HEPATICOJEJUNOSTOMY

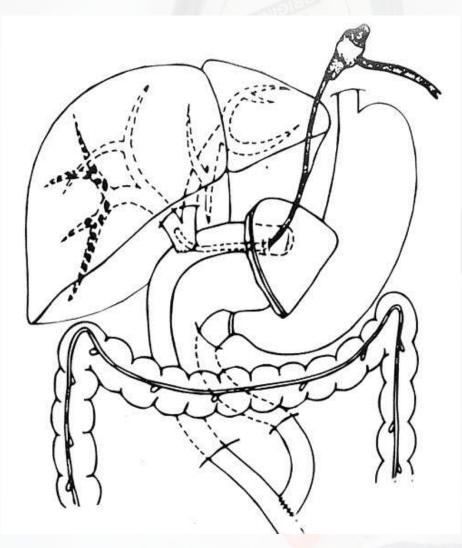




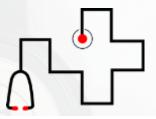


Biến chứng

- Xì rò miệng nối
- Nhiễm trùng đường mật ngược dòng
- Giun chui đường mật qua miệng nối
- Cắt phạm vào gan, các cấu trúc khác lân cận

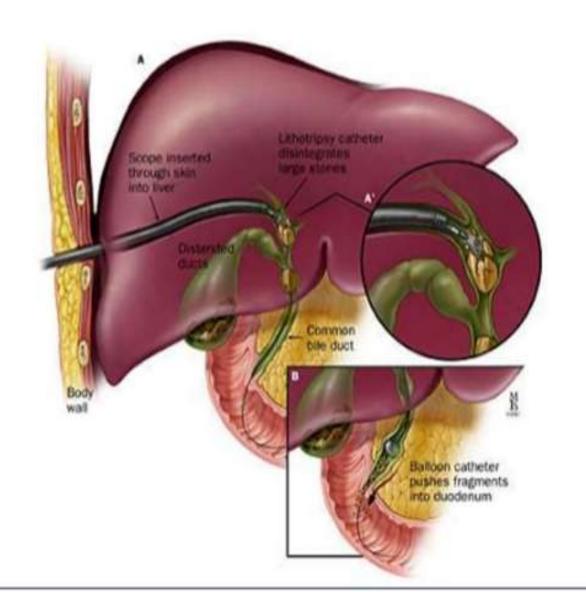


Lấy sởi xuyên gan qua da

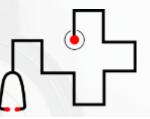


Chỉ định:

- Sổi trong gan với OMC không dâ
- Sỏi đường mật đã được nối mật
- ➤Không can thiệp phẫu thuật đượ
- ➤ Thất bại với các phương pháp kl hoặc sởi tái phát quá nhiều lần

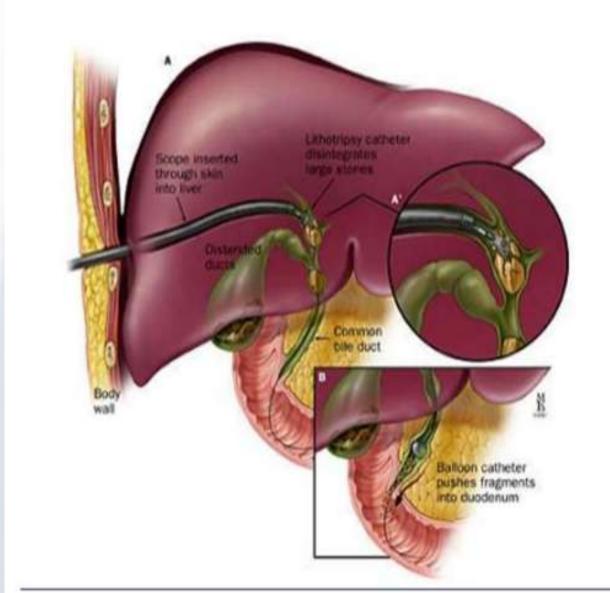


Lấy sởi xuyên gan qua da



Biến chứng:

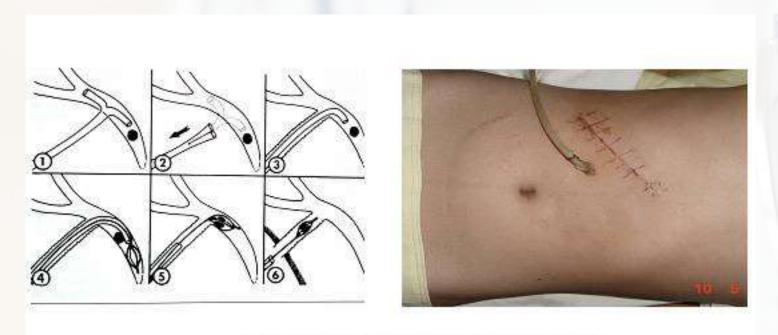
- XH trong phúc mạc,
- Viêm phúc mạc mật
- Abces quanh phúc mạc.



Lấy sởi qua đường hầm đặt Kehr



Chỉ định: tất cả các trường hợp sót sỏi hay còn sỏi sau mổ có lưu ống dẫn lưu Kehr



Hình 18.5. Lấy sỏi qua đường hằm Kehr

Điều trị lấy sỏi

Phẫu thuật mở: Mở ống mật lấy sỏi

 cần thực hiện các phương pháp phẫu thuật mở khác để điều trị sỏi mật như cắt gan, nối mật ruột da

Nối mật-ruột-da:

- Hẹp ngoài gan
- Khả năng tái phát cao:
 tái phát < 1 năm, tái
 phát nhiều lần
- Sổi khắp cây mật

Cắt gan:

- Viêm teo, đa áp xe
- Sỏi nhiều thành hốc/ 1
 vùng gan khu trú
- Chảy máu đường mật, K

Phẫu thuật nội soi

- Sỏi đường mật xác định trước hoặc trong mổ cắt túi mật nội soi.
- Sỏi đường mật không có khả năng lấy qua ERCP, không rơi vào chỉ định mổ mở và lấy sỏi qua da.

ống mật chủ giãn ≥ 10

ERCP

- Sởi ngoài gan
- Sôi sốt ngoài gan/ không lưu Kehr

Lấy sởi qua Kehr

- Sổi sốt còn Kehr

Xuyên gan qua da

- Sôi gan/ OMC không giãn (kèm hẹp)
- Đã nối mật-ruột
- Không phẫu thuật được

Đường mật trong gan giãn > 8 mm

Sởi ống mật chủ + Sởi trong gan



- Phẫu thuật mở ống mật chủ lấy sỏi (Mổ mở / Mổ nội sọi)
- Lấy sởi qua nội soi mật tụy ngược dòng: không thế lấy được sởi đường mật trong gan nên thường để giải áp đường mật tạm thời
- Lấy sởi qua da
- Mở ống mật chủ lấy sỏi + Cắt gan

Phẫu thuật mở ống mật chủ lấy sởi



- Soi đường mật trong mổ để lấy sỏi gan
- Kết hợp tán sỏi : điện thủy lực
- Nếu không thể lấy hết sỏi, lấy thông qua đường hầm ống Kehr sau

Lấy sởi qua da



- Chỉ nên áp dụng khi khó khăn, không thể mổ được
- Thời gian nằm viện lâu, tiếp cận sỏi khó trong 1 số trường hợp
- Bệnh nhân đã mổ nhiều lần

Mở ống mật chủ lấy sởi + Cắt gan



- Chỉ định:
 - Có tình trạng hẹp ống phân thùy hay hạ phân thùy
 - Gan xơ, teo do tắc mật lâu ngày
 - Sỏi tái phát
 - Áp xe gan đường mật
- Cắt thùy gan trái thường hay được thực hiện nhất

Cắt túi mật + lấy sởi OMC qua ống túi mật



- Có chỉ định khi túi mật dãn
- Nếu cần, nong ống túi mật
- Dùng ống soi đường mật qua ống túi mật lấy sỏi ống mật chủ

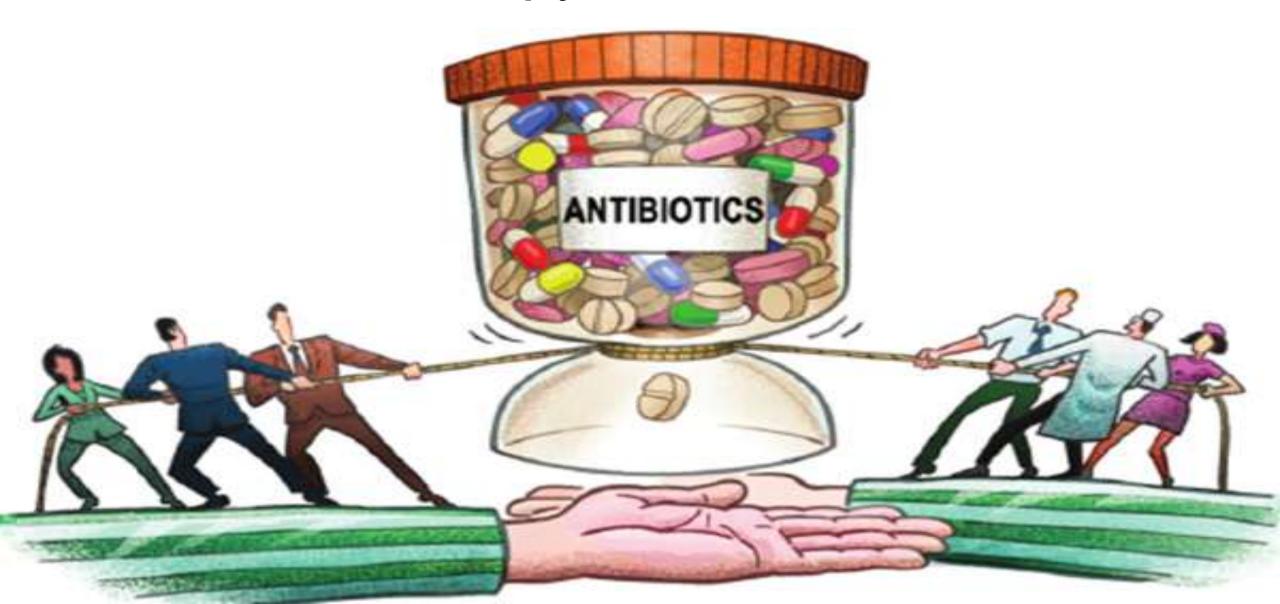
Sởi trong gan



Can thiệp khi có triệu chứng + nhiễm trùng + tắc mật

- 1. Mở OMC lấy sởi, dẫn lưu Kehr + lấy sởi sau mổ qua đường hầm ống Kehr
- 2. Cắt gan
- 3. Mở nhu mô gan lấy sởi
- 4. Lấy sởi qua da
- 5. Nối mật da qua trung gian túi mật hay quai hỗng tràng kiểu Y hay quai ruột biệt lập:
 - Sỏi trong gan tái phát nhiều lần (>3 lần)
 - Sổi tái phát nhanh (< 6 tháng)
 - Có tình trạng hẹp đường mật
- 6. Lấy sởi qua đường túi mật hay qua đường mật ruột da

Antimicrobial therapy



Antimicrobial therapy



- Antimicrobial therapy is a mainstay of the management for patients with acute cholangitis and/or cholecystitis.
- Prudent antimicrobial usage and early de-escalation or termination of antimicrobial therapy are now important parts of decision-making
- In the TG18 guidelines, empiric therapy is defined as antimicrobial therapy until the cultures and susceptibility testing results are available.
- Once causative microorganisms and the susceptibility testing results are available, antimicrobial therapy should be adjusted to specific antimicrobial agents targeting the organisms. This process is defined as de-escalation of antimicrobial therapy in the TG18 guidelines

Antimicrobial therapy: Agents



		Isolated microorganisms	Proportions of isolates (%)	
Isolated microorganisms from bile cultures	Proportions of isolated organisms (%)	from blood cultures	Community- acquired	Healthcare- associated
Gram-negative organisms		97	infections	infections
Escherichia coli	31-44	Gram-negative organisms		
Klebsiella spp.	9-20	Escherichia coli	35-62	23
Pseudomonas spp.	0.5-19	Klebsiella spp.	12-28	16
Enterobacter spp.	5-9	Pseudomonas spp.	4-14	17
Acinetobacter spp.	_	Enterobacter spp.	2-7	7
Citrobacter spp.	_	Acinetobacter spp.	3	7
Gram-positive organisms		Citrobacter spp.	2-6	5
	3-34	Gram-positive organisms		
Enterococcus spp.	2020	Enterococcus spp.	10-23	20
Streptococcus spp.	2-10	Streptococcus spp.	6-9	5
Staphylococcus spp.	Oa	Staphylococcus spp.	2	4
Anaerobes	4-20	Anaerobes	1	2
Others	-	Others	17	11

Antimicrobial therapy: Specimen



- Bile cultures should be obtained at the beginning of any procedure performed.
 Gallbladder bile should be sent for culture in all cases of acute cholecystitis except those with grade I severity. (Recommendation 1, level C)
- Blood cultures are not routinely recommended for grade I community-acquired acute cholecystitis. (Recommendation 2, level D)

Positive rates of bile cultures range from 28% to 93% for acute cholangitis and positive rates of either bile or gallbladder cultures range from 29% to 54% for acute cholecystitis

On the other hand, previous studies indicated that positive rates of blood cultures among patients with acutecholangitis ranged from 21% to 71% [13]. A recent multicenter study of patients with acute cholangitis show ed the proportions of positive blood cult ures were 15.2%, 21%, and 25.7% by TG13 severity grade I, II, and III, respectively [7]. For acute cholecystitis, the prevalence of positive blood cultures is less than acute cholan gitis, and in the last two decades it has been reported to range from 7.7% to 15.8%

Antimicrobial therapy: Time



- Regarding the timing of therapy, therapy should be initiated as soon as the diagnosis of biliary infection is suspected. For patients in septic shock, antimicrobials should be administered within 1 h of recognition
- For other patients, as long as 6 h may be spent obtaining definitive diagnostic studies prior to beginning antimicrobial therapy.
- Antimicrobial therapy <u>should definitely be started before any procedure</u>, either percutaneous, endoscopic, or operative, is performed. In addition, anaerobic therapy is appropriate if a biliary-enteric anastomosis is present

Antimicrobial therapy: Time



- <u>The duration</u> of therapy for patients with acute cholangitis <u>is for 4 to 7 days</u> once the source of infection is controlled by integrating the above studies and expert opinion (Table 5).
- When bacteremia with Gram-positive bacteria such as Enterococcus spp. and Streptococcus spp. is present, it is prudent to offer antimicrobial therapy for 2 weeks since these organisms are well-known to cause infective endocarditis.
- The incidence of endocarditis among patients with acute cholangitis has been reported 17 (0.3%) out of 6,147 patients with acute cholangitis

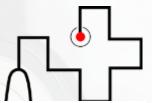


Table 3 Antimicrobial recommendations for acute biliary infections

	Community-acquired biliary infections				Healthcare-associated biliary infections ^e	
Severity Antimicrobial agents	Grade I		Grade II	Grade IIIe		
	Cholangitis	Cholecystitis	Cholangitis and cholecystitis	Cholangitis and cholecystitis	Healthcare-associated cholangitis and cholecystitis	
Penicillin-based therapy	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside	Piperacillin/tazobactam	Piperacillin/tazobactam	Piperacillin/tazobactam	
Cephalosporin- based therapy	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d	Ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime, or cefepime, or cefozopran, or ceftazidime ± metronidazole ^d	Cefepime, or ceftazidime, or cefozopran ± metronidazole ^d	Cefepime, or ceftazidime, or cefozopran ± metronidazole	
	Cefmetazole, ^a Cefoxitin, ^a Flomoxef, ^a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam	Cefmetazole, a Cefoxitin, a Flomoxef, a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam	Cefoperazone/sulbactam			
Carbapenem- based therapy	Ertapenem	Ertapenem	Ertapenem	Imipenem/cilastatin, meropenem, doripenem, ertapenem	Imipenem/cilastatin, meropenem, doripenem, ertapenem	
Monobactam- based therapy	- 3	100	:=::	Aztreonam ± metronidazole ^c	Aztreonam \pm metronidazole ^d	
Fluoroquinolone- based therapy ^c	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^d	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^d	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^c	<u>~</u>	5	
	Moxifloxacin	Moxifloxacin	Moxifloxacin			

a Local antimicrobial susceptibility patterns (antibiogram) should be considered for use

^b Ampicillin/sulbactam has little activity left against Escherichia coli. It is removed from the North American guidelines [6]

^c Fluoroquinolone use is recommended if the susceptibility of cultured isolates is known or for patients with β-lactam allergies. Many extended-spectrum β-lactamase (ESBL)-producing Gramnegative isolates are fluoroquinolone-resistant

d Anti-anaerobic therapy, including use of metronidazole, tinidazole, or clindamycin, is warranted if a biliary-enteric anastomosis is present. The carbapenems, piperacillin/tazobactam, ampicillin/sulbactam, cefmetazole, cefoxitin, flomoxef, and cefoperazone/sulbactam have sufficient anti-anerobic activity for this situation

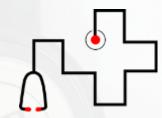
^e Vancomycin is recommended to cover Enterococcus spp. for grade III community-acquired acute cholangitis and cholecystitis, and healthcare-associated acute biliary infections. Linezolid or daptomycin is recommended if vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus (VRE) is known to be colonizing the patient, if previous treatment included vancomycin, and/or if the organism is common in the community



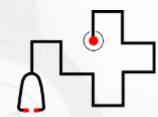
	Community-acquired biliary infections			
Severity Antimicrobial agents	Grade I			
	Cholangitis	Cholecystitis		
Penicillin-based therapy	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside		
Cephalosporin- based therapy	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d		
	Cefmetazole, a Cefoxitin, a Flomoxef, a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam	Cefmetazole, a Cefoxitin, a Flomoxef, a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam		
Carbapenem- based therapy	Ertapenem	Ertapenem		
Monobactam- based therapy	_	-		
Fluoroquinolone- based therapy ^c	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^d	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole		
	Moxifloxacin	Moxifloxacin		



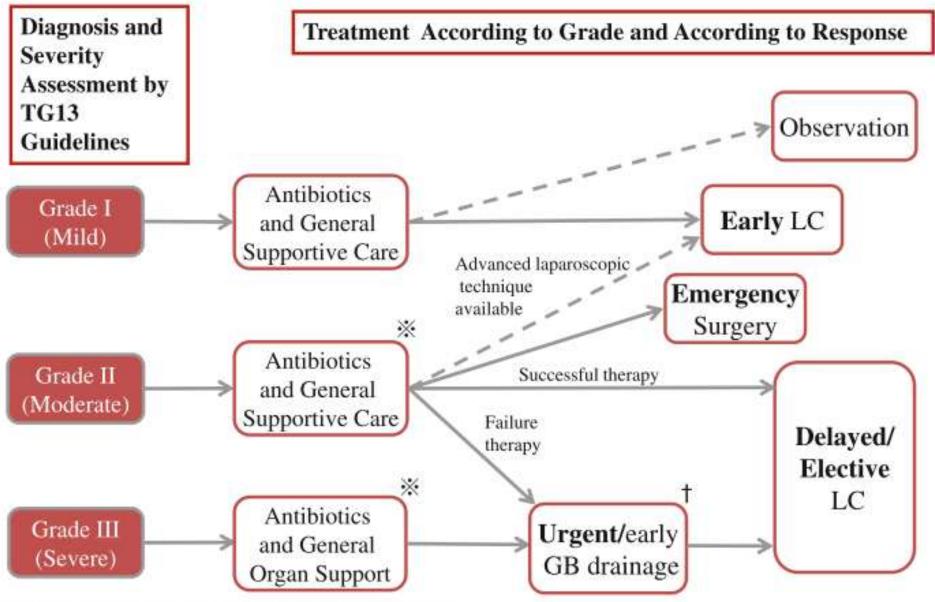
	Community-acquired biliary infections			
Severity Antimicrobial agents	Grade I			
	Cholangitis	Cholecystitis		
Penicillin-based therapy	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside	Ampicillin/sulbactam ^b is not recommended without an aminoglycoside		
Cephalosporin- based therapy	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d	Cefazolin ^a , or cefotiam ^a , or cefuroxime ^a , or ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime ± metronidazole ^d		
	Cefmetazole, a Cefoxitin, a Flomoxef, a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam	Cefmetazole, a Cefoxitin, a Flomoxef, a Cefoperazone/ sulbactam		
Carbapenem- based therapy	Ertapenem	Ertapenem		
Monobactam- based therapy	_	-		
Fluoroquinolone- based therapy ^c	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^d	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole		
	Moxifloxacin	Moxifloxacin		



	Community-acquired biliary infections		
Severity	Grade II	Grade IIIe	
Antimicrobial agents	Cholangitis and cholecystitis	Cholangitis and cholecystitis	
Penicillin-based therapy	Piperacillin/tazobactam	Piperacillin/tazobactam	
Cephalosporin- based therapy	Ceftriaxone, or cefotaxime, or cefepime, or cefozopran, or ceftazidime ± metronidazole ^d Cefoperazone/sulbactam	Cefepime, or ceftazidime, or cefozopran ± metronidazole ^d	
Carbapenem- based therapy	Ertapenem Imipenem/cilastatin, meropenem, doripenen ertapenem		
Monobactam- based therapy	- 3	Aztreonam ± metronidazole ^e	
Fluoroquinolone- based therapy ^c	Ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, or pazufloxacin ± metronidazole ^c	- 3	
	Moxifloxacin		



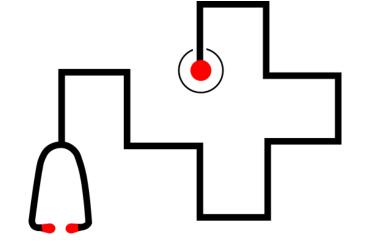
Severity	Healthcare-associated biliary infections ^e
Antimicrobial agents	Healthcare-associated cholangitis and cholecystitis
Penicillin-based therapy	Piperacillin/tazobactam
Cephalosporin- based therapy	Cefepime, or ceftazidime, or cefozopran ± metronidazole ^d
Carbapenem- based therapy	Imipenem/cilastatin, meropenem, doripenem, ertapenem
Monobactam- based therapy	Aztreonam ± metronidazole ^d
Fluoroquinolone- based therapy ^e	



LC: laparoscopic cholecystectomy, GB: gallbladder

** Performance of a blood culture should be taken into consideration before initiation of administration of antibiotics.

A bile culture should be performed during GB drainage.



Tóm tắt



- When acute cholangitis is suspected, perform a diagnostic assessment every
 6 to 12 h using TG18 diagnostic criteria until a diagnosis is reached.
- Perform abdominal US, followed by a CT scan, MRI, MRCP, and HIDA scan as required.
- Use the severity assessment criteria to assess severity repeatedly: at diagnosis, within 24 h after diagnosis, and from 24 to 48 h after diagnosis.



- As soon as a diagnosis has been made, provide initial treatment. The treatment is as follows: sufficient fluid replacement, electrolyte compensation, and intravenous administration of analgesics and full-dose antimicrobial agents.
- In patients with Grade I (mild) disease, if no response to the initial treatment is observed within 24 h, perform biliary tract drainage immediately.
- In patients with Grade II (moderate) disease, perform biliary tract drainage immediately along with the initial treatment. If early drainage cannot be performed because of a lack of facilities or skilled personnel, consider transferring the patient.



- In patients with Grade III (severe) disease, perform urgent biliary tract drainage along with the initial treatment and give general supportive care. If urgent drainage cannot be performed because of a lack of facilities or skilled personnel, consider transferring the patient.
- In patients with Grade III (severe) disease, supply organ support (e.g. noninvasive/invasive positive pressure ventilation, use of vasopressors and antimicrobial agents) immediately.



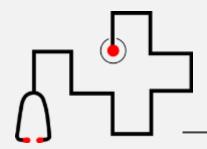
- Perform blood culture or bile culture, or both, in Grade II (moderate) and III (severe) patients.
- Consider treating the etiology of acute cholangitis with endoscopic, percutaneous, or operative intervention once the acute illness has resolved. Cholecystectomy should be performed for cholecystolithiasis after the acute cholangitis has resolved.
- If the hospital is not equipped to perform endoscopic or percutaneous transhepatic biliary drainage or provide intensive care, transfer patient with moderate or severe cholangitis to a hospital capable of providing these treatments.

Take home message

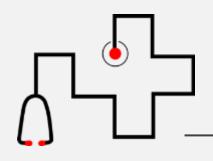
 Tiếp cận chẩn đoán viêm đường mật, phân loại mức độ nặng nhẹ, và điều trị theo phân loại Tokyo Guideline 2018



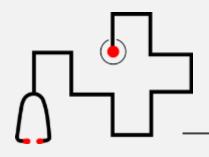
 Lựa chọn phương pháp điều trị nào tùy thuộc vào tình trạng của bệnh nhân và nhiều yếu tố khác nhau, phải tùy trường hợp cụ thể.



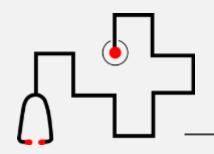
- 1 Nguyễn Hoàng Bắc (2006), "KHÂU KÍN ỐNG MẬT CHỦ THÌ ĐẦU TRONG PHẪU THUẬT ĐIỀU TRỊ SỞI ĐƯỜNG MẬT CHÍNH QUA NGẢ NỘI SOI Ổ BỤNG". *Tạp chí Y học TP. Hồ Chí Minh,* 10(3), 137.
- Đoàn Văn Trân Lê Nguyên Khôi, Võ Ngọc Phương, Trần Quang Huân, Trần Vũ Hiếu, Võ Đại Dũng, Nguyễn Lê Viên (2010), "HIỆU QUẢ CỦA PHẪU THUẬT ÍT XÂM HẠI TRONG ĐIỀU TRỊ SỞI ĐƯỜNG MẬT CHÍNH". *Tạp chí Y học TP. Hồ Chí Minh*, 14(2), 117.
- 3 Lê Quan Anh Tuấn "Cập Nhật Điều Trị Sỏi Đường Mật".
- 4 Nguyễn Đình Hối ,Nguyễn Mậu Anh *Sỏi Đường Mật*. Nhà Xuất Bản Y Học
- Đỗ Đình Công Nguyễn Hữu Thịnh, Nguyễn Việt Thành (2006), "CHẨN ĐOÁN SỞI VÀ HỆP ĐƯỜNG MẬT TRONG GAN BẰNG CỘNG HƯỞNG TỪ ĐƯỜNG MẬT". *Tạp chí Y học TP. Hồ Chí Minh*, 10(1), 82.
- 6 PGS.TS.BS. Nguyễn Văn Hải (2018), *Cấp Cứu Ngoại Tiêu Hóa* (Vol.
- 1). Nhà Xuất Bản Thanh Niên
- 7 Đặng Tâm (2003), "NỘI SOI ĐƯỜNG MẬT QUA DA TRONG CHẨN ĐOÁN VÀ ĐIỀU TRỊ BỆNH LÝ ĐƯỜNG MẬT". *Tạp chí Y học TP. Hồ Chí Minh,* 7(3), 176.



- 8 Lê Quan Anh Tuấn (2009), "LẤY SỞI MẬT QUA ĐƯỜNG HẦM ỐNG KEHR BẰNG ỐNG SOI MỀM". *Tạp chí Y học TP. Hồ Chí Minh,* 13(3), 170.
- D. Akiyama, Hamada T., Isayama H., Nakai Y., Tsujino T., Umefune G., et al. (2015), "Superiority of 10-mm-wide balloon over 8-mm-wide balloon in papillary dilation for bile duct stones: A matched cohort study". *Saudi J Gastroenterol*, 21(4), 213-219.
- T. H. Baron, Harewood G. C. (2004), "Endoscopic balloon dilation of the biliary sphincter compared to endoscopic biliary sphincterotomy for removal of common bile duct stones during ERCP: a metaanalysis of randomized, controlled trials". *Am J Gastroenterol*, 99(8), 1455-1460.
 - S. Doi, Yasuda I., Mukai T., Iwashita T., Uemura S., Yamauchi T., et al. (2013), "Comparison of long-term outcomes after endoscopic sphincterotomy versus endoscopic papillary balloon dilation: a propensity score-based cohort analysis". *J Gastroenterol*, 48(9), 1090-1096.
 - Harumi Gomi, Solomkin Joseph S., Schlossberg David, Okamoto Kohji, Takada Tadahiro, Strasberg Steven M., et al. (2018), "Tokyo Guidelines 2018: antimicrobial therapy for acute cholangitis and cholecystitis". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Sciences*, 25(1), 3-16.



- S. Kiriyama, Takada T., Hwang T. L., Akazawa K., Miura F., Gomi H., et al. (2017), "Clinical application and verification of the TG13 diagnostic and severity grading criteria for acute cholangitis: an international multicenter observational study". *J Hepatobiliary Pancreat Sci*, 24(6), 329-337.
- Seiki Kiriyama, Kozaka Kazuto, Takada Tadahiro, Strasberg Steven M., Pitt Henry A., Gabata Toshifumi, et al. (2018), "Tokyo Guidelines 2018: diagnostic criteria and severity grading of acute cholangitis (with videos)". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Sciences*, 25(1), 17-30.
- 15 Y. Lu, Wu J. C., Liu L., Bie L. K., Gong B. (2014), "Short-term and long-term outcomes after endoscopic sphincterotomy versus endoscopic papillary balloon dilation for bile duct stones". *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*, 26(12), 1367-1373.
- Toshihiko Mayumi, Okamoto Kohji, Takada Tadahiro, Strasberg Steven M., Solomkin Joseph S., Schlossberg David, et al. (2018), "Tokyo Guidelines 2018: management bundles for acute cholangitis and cholecystitis". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Sciences*, 25(1), 96-100.

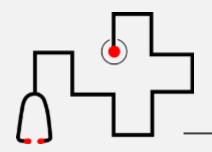


F. Miura, Okamoto K., Takada T., Strasberg S. M., Asbun H. J., Pitt H. A., et al. (2018), "Tokyo Guidelines 2018: initial management of acute biliary infection and flowchart for acute cholangitis". *J Hepatobiliary Pancreat Sci*, 25(1), 31-40.

Fumihiko Miura, Okamoto Kohji, Takada Tadahiro, Strasberg Steven M., Asbun Horacio J., Pitt Henry A., et al. (2018), "Tokyo Guidelines 2018: initial management of acute biliary infection and flowchart for acute cholangitis". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Sciences*, 25(1), 31-40.

Shuntaro Mukai, Itoi Takao, Baron Todd H., Takada Tadahiro, Strasberg Steven M., Pitt Henry A., et al. (2017), "Indications and techniques of biliary drainage for acute cholangitis in updated Tokyo Guidelines 2018". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Sciences*, 24(10), 537-549.

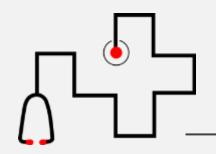
M. Natsui, Saito Y., Abe S., Iwanaga A., Ikarashi S., Nozawa Y., et al. (2013), "Long-term outcomes of endoscopic papillary balloon dilation and endoscopic sphincterotomy for bile duct stones". *Dig Endosc*, 25(3), 313-321.

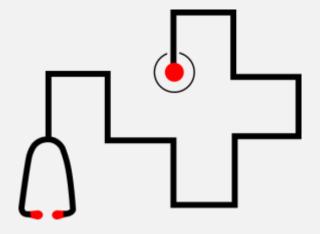


K. Otani, Ueki T., Matsumura K., Maruo T., Minoda R., Otsuka Y., et al. (2015), "Comparison Between Endoscopic Biliary Stenting and Nasobiliary Drainage in Patients with Acute Cholangitis due to Choledocholithiasis: Is Endoscopic Biliary Stenting Useful?". *Hepatogastroenterology*, 62(139), 558-563.

22 Toshio Tsuyuguchi, Takada Tadahiro, Kawarada Yoshifumi, Nimura Yuji, Wada Keita, Nagino Masato, et al. (2007), "Techniques of biliary drainage for acute cholangitis: Tokyo Guidelines". *Journal of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreatic Surgery,* 14(1), 35-45.

I. Yasuda, Fujita N., Maguchi H., Hasebe O., Igarashi Y., Murakami A., et al. (2010), "Long-term outcomes after endoscopic sphincterotomy versus endoscopic papillary balloon dilation for bile duct stones". *Gastrointest Endosc*, 72(6), 1185-1191.





Thank you For your attention