

Comments and illustrations of the WFUMB CEUS liver guidelines: Rare vascular pathology, part II

Kathleen Möller¹, Ehsan Safai Zadeh², Christian Görg², Christian Jenssen^{3:4}, Michael Hocke⁵, Chiara de Molo⁶, Carla Serra⁶, Yi Dong⁷, Xin Wu Cui⁸, Adrian Lim⁹, Ruth Thees-Laurenz¹⁰, Siegbert Faiss¹, Christoph F. Dietrich¹¹

¹Sana Hospital Lichtenberg, Medical Department I/Gastroenterology, Berlin, Germany, ²Interdisciplinary Center of Ultrasound Diagnostics, University Hospital Giessen and Marburg, Philipps University Marburg, Baldingerstraße, Marburg, Germany, ³Krankenhaus Märkisch-Oderland, Department of Internal Medicine, Strausberg, Germany, ⁴Brandenburg Institute for Clinical Ultrasound (BICUS) at Medical University Brandenburg, Neuruppin, Germany, ⁵Medical Department, Helios Klinikum Meiningen, Germany, ⁶Interventional, Diagnostic and Therapeutic Ultrasound Unit, Department of Medical and Surgical Sciences, IRCCS, Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria Sant'Orsola Malpighi Hospital, Bologna, Italy, ⁷Department of Ultrasound, Xinhua Hospital Affiliated to Shanghai Jiaotong University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China, ⁸Department of Medical Ultrasound, Tongji Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, ⁹Imaging Department, Imperial College Healthcare NHS Trust, Charing Cross Hospital, London, UK, ¹⁰Zentrum für Radiologie, Neuroradiologie, Sonographie und Nuklearmedizin. Krankenhaus der Barmherzigen Brüder Trier, Germany, ¹¹Department Allgemeine Innere Medizin der Kliniken (DAIM) Hirslanden Beau Site, Salem und Permanence, Bern, Switzerland

Abstract

In this second part of the topic the hepatic pseudoaneurysm, hepatic infarction, and pylephlebitis are discussed as acute and potentially life-threatening hepatic vascular diseases. The focus is on their appearance on B-mode ultrasonography, duplex ultrasonography, and contrast-enhanced ultrasonography. Zahn's pseudo infarction is an important differential diagnosis to wedge-shaped hepatic infarction in this context. Knowledge of the data should help raise awareness of these rare findings, to come up with relevant differential diagnoses in the corresponding clinical situation, to interpret the ultrasound images correctly and thus to initiate the appropriate diagnostic and therapeutic steps in time.

Keywords: hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm; liver infarction; pylephlebitis; Zahn's pseudo infarction; Ultrasonography

Introduction

The World (WFUMB) and European Federation for Ultrasound in Medicine and Biology (EFSUMB) has developed guidelines for the indication and use of contrast-enhanced ultrasound (CEUS) for the evaluation of focal liver lesions [1-5]. Improved detection and characterization of common focal liver lesions (FLL) are the main

topics of these guidelines. In recent years, conventional ultrasound (US) and CEUS features of less common FLL have been described in detail.

In this current paper series on comments and illustrations of the WFUMB and EFSUMB CEUS liver guidelines, we aim to summarize the US and CEUS features of very rare FLL where there are limited reports and figures published in order to create a library of these rare lesions. Hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm, liver infarction and pylephlebitis are acute life-threatening conditions. The outcome and possibly also the survival of the affected patient depends on the high competence of the examiner with fast correct diagnosis and target-oriented further intervention. Hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm and hepatic infarction may have common precipitating factors and may be interrelated. In both conditions, precipitating fac-

Received 27.10.2022 Accepted 22.11.2022

Med Ultrason

2023, Vol. 25, No 2, 189-200

Corresponding author: Prof. Dr. med. Christoph F. Dietrich, MBA
Department Allgemeine Innere Medizin (DAIM)
Kliniken Beau Site, Salem und Permanence,
Hirslanden, Bern, CH-3036 Bern, Switzerland
E-mail: c.f.dietrich@googlemail.com

tors include surgery on the hepatobiliary system and pancreas and interventions on the biliary tract. Pylephlebitis is also a life-threatening situation. If portal venous gas is detected, a complex search must be carried out in the abdomen for an underlying cause, the mesenteric vessels must be carefully examined, and the small intestine wall must also be inspected for air pockets.

In this second part, acute vascular diseases are discussed [6]. This is a comprehensive presentation of acute situations such as hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm, liver infarction, pylephlebitis (with and without hepatic portal venous gas), and Zahn's pseudo infarction. Budd-Chiari syndrome is discussed elsewhere.

Hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm

A pseudoaneurysm of the hepatic artery is caused by a leakage of the vessel wall with blood flowing into an adjacent cavity. This is not a true aneurysm, but a false aneurysm or pseudoaneurysm that can be life threatening. The cavity communicates with the artery and is under high pressure with higher risk of rupture in comparison to true aneurysms (76 % vs. 3 %) [7].

Spontaneous aneurysms are very rare. Among 233 patients with visceral artery aneurysms observed over a 10-year period, 11% (22/196) of all true aneurysms and 42% (16/38) of all pseudoaneurysms originated from the hepatic artery [7]. A total of 17.5% hepatic artery pseudoaneurysms had a history of pancreaticoduodenectomy or biliary tract interventions [7]. A hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm may arise from mechanical, infectious/ inflammatory, or thermal alteration of the artery.

Hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm can develop following liver transplantation [8], but may occur with a frequency between 0.06% and 0.6% also after (laparoscopic) cholecystectomy [9-12]. Non-surgical reasons include blunt abdominal trauma [13], acute pancreatitis [14,15], and very rare infectious disease of the liver such as amoebic abscess [16-18]. Liver biopsy is a safe method, but rarely, the development of a pseudoaneurysm is also possible [19]. The development of hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm after biliary stenting has also been described [20,21].

Another rare etiology of hepatic pseudoaneurysm is percutaneous transhepatic cholangiography drainage (PTCD). Arterial complications including pseudoaneurysm may be caused by creation of access via needle puncture, bougienage, change of external drains, and other interventions. Large series report an incidence of arterial complications of PTCD of 0.6-1.8% with a higher risk in left hepatic access routes [22]. In chronic pancreatitis, a peripancreatic artery adjacent to an acute necrotic collection, walled-off pancreatic necrosis or a pseudocyst

may be eroded by a combination of pancreatic enzyme digestion and mechanical injury. A recent meta-analysis reported a pooled incidence of visceral pseudoaneurysm in patients with chronic pancreatitis of 0.03% and in acute pancreatitis of 0.05% [23]. The risk is higher in acute necrotizing pancreatitis. In two large cohorts, incidence of visceral artery pseudoaneurysms was reported to be as high as 4.3% and 6.4%, respectively [24,25]. Interventional treatment of necrotic collections especially using lumen-apposing metal stents increases the probability of severe bleeding complications [25]. However, in the majority of cases, splenic artery and gastroduodenal artery are involved; hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm is a very rare occurrence in pancreatitis [23-25]

Sudden onset of pain with a circulatory reaction are typical presentations of pseudoaneurysms. However, these may be discovered incidentally on imaging in asymptomatic individuals. In a meta-analysis of hepatic artery pseudoaneurysms after laparoscopic cholecystectomy, 85% had hemobilia, 19.9% hematemesis, 9.9% jaundice, 9.9% abdominal pain, 5.0% anemia, and 5.0% melena. Mostly the right hepatic artery was involved, but can also include the cystic artery [10]. 80% of patients become symptomatic during the first 2 months after laparoscopic cholecystectomy [12].

Imaging

Pseudoaneurysms can mimic a solid or cystic lesion owing to the thrombotic reaction (fig 1). The thrombotic area is sometimes very large, and the aneurysm may be difficult to detect, particularly if color Doppler US is not utilized or a CT scan is performed without contrast enhancement. Even with contrast, the diameter of the pseudoaneurysms may be underestimated owing to the non-enhancement of the thrombotic part of the pseudoaneurysm. Duplex sonography shows pulsatile inflow and outflow into the pseudoaneurysm. In larger pseudoaneurysms, pulsations may already be apparent on B-scan ultrasonography. Sonographic detection of a hepatic artery pseudoaneurysm depends on size, location, and examiner experience. With appropriate history and clinical symptoms of pain, obstructive jaundice, hemobilia, or signs of gastrointestinal bleeding, hepatic pseudoaneurysm should be considered and specifically excluded. The classic presentation of a rupture of hepatic pseudoaneurysms into the bile duct (pain, jaundice and haemobilia) is called a "Quincke triad".

A very dangerous condition is the pseudocystic appearance of the pseudoaneurysm after acute pancreatitis. Drainage of the pseudoaneurysm into the stomach or duodenum can thus be fatal. Therefore, a color Doppler investigation is mandatory before endoscopic pseudocyst drainage. If a pseudoaneurysm of the hepatic artery is di-

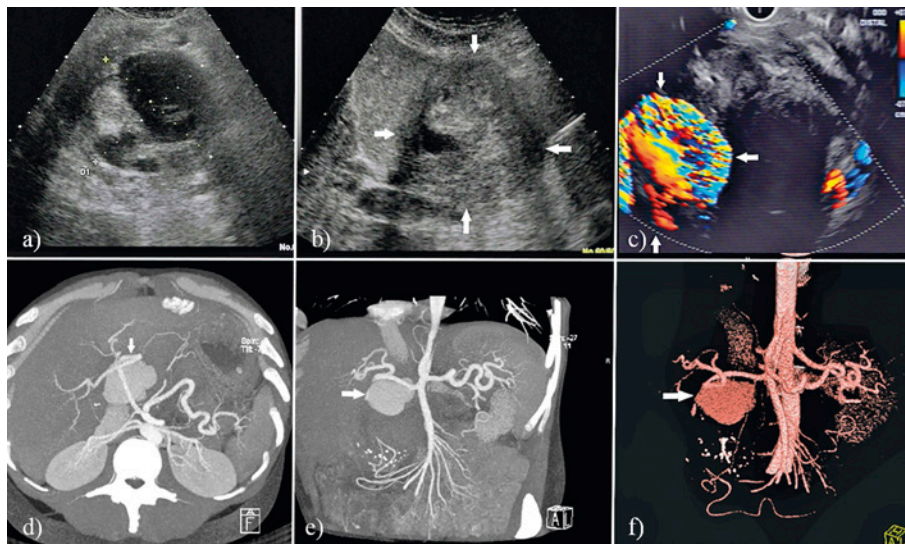


Fig 1. Pseudoaneurysm of the hepatic artery on transabdominal ultrasound (note the cystic appearance) (a) in the close proximity to the left liver lobe (b). Endoscopic ultrasound appearance on color Doppler mode; the hepatic artery is on the very left of the picture with the rupture and the false lumen next to it (c). CT angiogram of the hepatic artery with pseudoaneurysm (d) and in transversal reconstruction (e). 3-D-reconstruction of the angiogram (f). Image source of CT angiogram: Dr. H.-J. Hald, Helios Hospital Meiningen, Radiology

agnosed, an acute intervention is necessary owing to the threat of rupture [26]. Depending on the size and location of the pseudoaneurysm, different approaches can be used. Stenting, coiling, or embolization of the aneurysm—usually using angiographic methods—are the treatments of choice. However, emergency procedures such as percutaneous puncture with hemostatic substances or even the same procedure using endoscopic US have been reported [27]. In very large aneurysms, surgery to reconstruct the hepatic artery may be necessary.

Liver infarction

Liver infarction is a serious, although rare, vascular complication. It is rare because the liver is supplied with blood via two vascular systems. The development of a hepatic infarction is not only related to the arterial system, but also to the portal venous system and systemic circulatory injuries [28]. There are various pathogenetic factors: iatrogenic postoperative injuries of the hepatic artery, systemic diseases involving the hepatic artery and its branches, coagulation disorders but also the creation of a transjugular intrahepatic stent shunt (TIPS) or transarterial chemoembolization (TACE) procedure.

To understand the specificity of liver infarcts compared to other organs, it is important to understand the anatomical features. The arterial blood supply also takes place in different ways. In addition to the hepatic artery, there are connections from the coeliac trunk and the superior mesenteric artery and its branches. It is rare for all

these vessels to be interrupted and occluded at the same time. [29]. However, if both the hepatic artery and the portal vein or their respective branches are occluded, the risk of liver infarction increases considerably [30].

In the study of Seeley et al, there were 19 liver infarctions in 700 autopsies diagnosed. The authors concluded that liver infarctions might be more frequent than clinically assumed. Ten autopsies had arterial occlusion, three of these patients had combined arterial and portal venous occlusion, four had only portal vein thrombosis without arterial occlusion, and five patients had no vascular occlusion. In three cases, massive hepatic infarction was the main cause of death. One of these cases had an arterial occlusion owing to a dissecting aneurysm of a branch of the hepatic artery. The second patient had venous thrombosis and the third had no vascular occlusion. In 16 cases, the hepatic infarction was not the cause of death but concomitant disease. An important cause of infarction was obstruction of the hepatic artery, especially distal to the origin of its gastroduodenal branch [31].

In the autopsy study of 20 patients with liver infarcts by Saegusa et al, 85% of the cases had previous circulatory insufficiency. In this study, the authors concluded that not only impaired blood flow in the portal system is serious for the development of liver infarction, but that a reduction in blood flow to the liver owing to circulatory insufficiency is an additional potential risk factor [32].

An infarction in a cirrhotic liver is a rare event. The rarity of liver infarcts is explained by the presence of collateral vessels within the liver [31].

The clinical symptoms of liver infarction are variable: right-sided upper abdominal discomfort, chest pain, fever, nausea and vomiting and liver laboratory elevations. Patients may also remain mild or asymptomatic [28,33-35]. In rare cases, liver infarction precipitates acute liver failure with high mortality rates [34].

The iatrogenic causes of liver infarction include damage of the right hepatic artery and portal vein associated with laparoscopic cholecystectomy, but also bile duct, liver and pancreatic surgery [36]. The risk of infarction is more severe with ligation of the hepatic artery distal to the junction of the right gastric artery [29].

In the study of Shindo et al, 19% of all patients undergoing pancreaticoduodenectomy developed hepatic infarction, with hepatic artery and celiac trunk resection being the most important risk factors [37]. Liver infarctions resulting from endovascular treatment of bleeding events after pancreaticoduodenectomy were described in 12.5% [38].

Systemic causes include eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis [39] and also polyarteritis nodosa [29, 30]. Vasculitis can cause irregular wall changes and stenosis of the hepatic arteries and thus can occasionally lead to hepatic infarction.

Hepatic infarction can complicate a HELLP syndrome (hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes and low platelets) and cause death in 16% of the women [40-42].

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) and antiphospholipid syndrome with increased risk of thrombosis may be associated with an enhanced incidence of hepatic infarction in women during pregnancy or after delivery [43,44]. Severe bleeding postpartum may in turn cause hypercoagulable status with disseminated intravascular coagulation and lead to hepatic infarction [45]. Bacterial endocarditis, left ventricular thrombus and thrombosis of a liver metastasis from a bile duct carcinoma were described on autopsy as causes of hepatic artery thrombosis [29].

TIPS is performed in patients with liver cirrhosis to treat refractory ascites or variceal bleeding. TIPS can lead to hypoperfusion in other portal and hepatic veins and therefore, can contribute to liver infarction [28]. However, it is not known how often ischemia in the liver occurs after TIPS in a way that is clinically relevant [34]. The development of acute liver failure together with liver infarction after TIPS implantation has also been described as a rarity [46]. Other possible mechanisms for liver ischemia after TIPS are hepatic arterial problems such as thrombosis, pseudoaneurysms or arteriovenous fistulae, usually related to needle punctures during the procedure or rarely, to extrinsic compression of the hepatic artery by the stent [34]. Arterial occlusion can be

poorly tolerated in patients with portal hypertension, as they are more dependent on the arterial circulation.

Lopera et al performed contrast-enhanced CT in 374 patients with TIPS. Of these, 10 patients had focal ischemia or infarction in the liver. The percentages of liver infarction were 11–40% (mean, 21%) of the total liver volume. Thrombosis of branches of the PV was a common imaging finding after the procedure (anterior branch, 19%; posterior branch, 51%; left PV, 11%). Associated thrombosis of the hepatic veins was also very common [34]. The combination of portal and hepatic vein thromboses was a risk factor for the development of ischemia after TIPS creation [34].

TACE has traditionally been considered to be contraindicated in cases of portal venous tumor thrombosis, owing to the risk of hepatic infarction and further deteriorate liver function [47]. In the case of TACE and the presence of a transjugular shunt or TIPS, several risk factors are compounded [48].

After liver transplantation, most liver infarctions occur due to vascular typical complications [49,50]. Vascular complications in the early postoperative period occur in approximately 9% of liver transplanted patients. Complications involving the hepatic artery include thrombosis, stenosis and pseudoaneurysms. Another possible complication is the splenic artery steal syndrome [8,51-53]. They are the most common cause of graft loss.

Hepatic artery thrombosis after liver transplantation (HAT) has been reported in the literature in 4-11% of adults and in up to 40% of children [51]. Thrombosis of the hepatic artery led to liver infarction in 3% of adults and 12% of children [54]. Eighty-five percent of hepatic ischemia or infarction was secondary to untreated thrombosis or stenosis in the hepatic artery [51]. Portal vein complications after liver transplantation include portal vein thrombosis (PVT) and portal vein stenosis (PVS) with an incidence ranging from 1% up to 12.5% [8]. Liver transplant patients are at increased risk of hepatic infarction owing to loss of collateral pathways of the hepatic vascular system.

Other causes of liver infarction such as liver abscess [55,56], Clostridium difficile infection [57], acute pancreatitis [58] and sickle cell disease [59] have also been reported.

Imaging

The localization of hepatic infarction is frequently described in the right hepatic lobe [28,33,36,39,45,49,60], but can also occur in the left hepatic lobe [48] and may be multifocal particularly in the peripheries of both lobes [43,49,55,61]. Localization to the caudate lobe has also been reported [62]. Hepatic infarctions after pancreaticoduodenectomy were most frequently seen in liver seg-

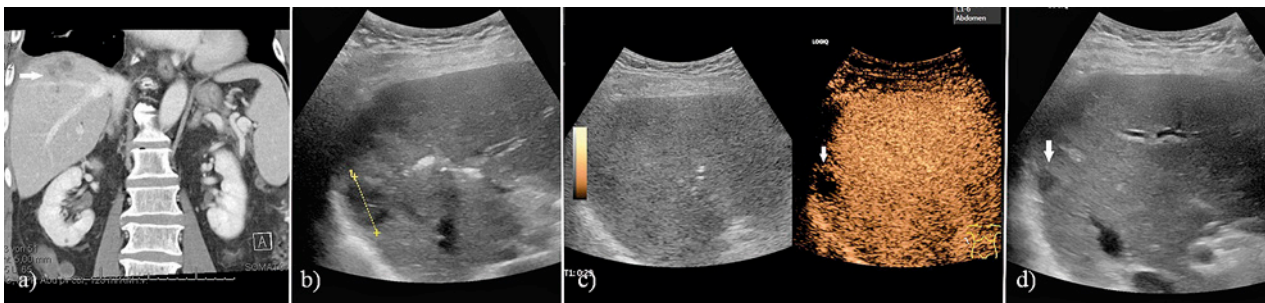


Fig 2. A 76 y/o male. Post choledochojunostomy for choledocholithiasis. Owing to a complicated postoperative anastomosis, access to the bile ducts was percutaneous with PTC placement of external-internal drains. During the recovery course, hemobilia developed, due to a small pseudoaneurysm of the hepatica propria artery. This was treated endovascularly with coils. Postinterventional CT showed a wedge-shaped hypodense area in the subdiaphragmatic parts of the liver (a), (Source of the CT image: Prof. Dr. Sven Mutze, Dr. Christopher Nauck: Sana-Hospital Berlin-Lichtenberg, Institute of Radiology). The tip of the lesion points in the direction of the coils. B-mode US showed a small oval echo-poor area subcapsular subdiaphragmatically in the right liver lobe (calipers) (b), avascular in CEUS (arrow) (c). In contradistinction to an abscess, no hyperenhancing capsule or of the surrounding areas were present. The wedge-shaped character of the lesion developed during the regressive phase (arrow) (d).

ment VII [37]. However, a previous study demonstrated that hepatic infarction caused by intraoperative damage to the hepatic artery and celiac artery commonly occurs in the left lobe [63].

Parenchymal lesions secondary to hepatic infarcts may be apparent on B-mode US. However, the diagnosis of an ischemic injury on B-mode US alone is difficult in many cases, especially immediately after the acute event [64]. Typically, they are described as wedge-shaped, well-circumscribed or rounded hypoechoic regions and maybe located in the periphery or centrally [49].

Lev-Toaff et al [43] reported the varied appearance of hepatic infarcts on US. Liver infarcts are expected to be wedge-shaped and peripheral according to the vascular branches. However, this was rarely the case. Mostly, the infarct areas were oval or round and distributed over the liver. The appearance of infarct areas on US was also dependent on the duration of their existence. Initially, many were hypoechoic. As they progressed, they became more sharply defined or confluent. Even liquefied areas may appear and gas bubbles. There are a wide range of other hypoechoic lesions from which infarct areas must be differentiated, including tumors and abscesses [35].

Analogous to splenic infarction [65], a so-called “Bright band sign” has been described in the liver [49]. The liver infarction cases of Whang et al showed echogenic bands within the infarcted portions of the liver on US, possibly reflections from the intact portal triads [49]. The authors suggested that the “Bright band sign” may a useful gray-scale US feature for liver infarction. These bright stripes may indicate the still intact architecture of the acinar zone surrounding the portal triads. However, the authors themselves estimate that further studies are still needed to assess the sensitivity and specificity of this sign [49].

Duplex sonography is used to assess flow in the hepatic artery, portal veins, and hepatic veins. The underlying etiology of a hepatic infarction i.e. occlusion or stenosis of the hepatic artery, an arterial pseudoaneurysm or vascular thrombosis can thus be diagnosed.

Von Herbay et al investigated the performance of CEUS in infarctions of various parenchymal organs. Whereas an ischemic zone was only visible on B-mode scan in a little more than half the cases, with CEUS, it was detected in all organs [64]. In one patient with ischemic areas in the liver, this was delineated as a non-enhanced area on CEUS. However, the definite diagnosis of ischemia was only established on a CT scan, which showed partial thrombosis of the coeliac trunk [64].

Typical characteristics of hepatic infarction in CEUS is non-enhancement in the arterial, portal venous and late vascular phases. The borders are smooth and unlike, for example, abscesses, there is no increased enhancement at the periphery [9,66] (fig 2). Anechoic lesions without enhancement in all vascular phases may also be seen with abscesses and liquefying hematomas. The entire history and paraclinical history are essential to aid the differential diagnosis. Abscesses often have a hyperenhancing capsule.

The 2012 WFUMB-EFSUMB guidelines and recommendations on the applications of CEUS to the liver [2,67] still recommend performing CEUS after liver transplantation for suspected liver infarction. This is to exclude perfusion abnormalities in the liver. In addition, fluid accumulation and collections can be detected and evaluated [9]. In the updated WFUMB and EFSUMB Guidelines 2020, this recommendation was not specifically formulated [4,5]. We also refer to the history of ultrasound in Europe and the first guidelines on CEUS [68,69].

CEUS can also be used to delineate more accurately vascular thromboses and confirm stenoses when duplex examination is inconclusive [8,9]. In most publications, the diagnosis of hepatic infarcts was made with contrast-enhanced CT (CE-CT). Typically, infarcted areas in the liver are nonenhanced in all phases even with this imaging method. The ischemia is usually diagnosed as a triangular perfusional defect on contrast-enhanced images. Depending on the localization at the periphery or centrally, the lesion may be wedge-shaped or oval [34,37,56].

In a retrospective study including 19 patients with arterially related liver infarction, CT scans showed the infarct in variable appearances: hypodense lesions in the liver parenchyma that were triangular, round or oval, peripheral or central, sharply defined or irregularly configured. There were also isolated air reflections which were not secondary to infection or an abscess [70].

“Portal vein penetration sign” was observed in half of all patients with liver infarction after pancreatoduodenectomy. This sign revealed penetration of the portal vein with contrast enhancement in the infarcted area [37]

Treatment of infarction of the liver depends directly on the etiology. Anticoagulation was not generally performed and was dependent on the cause and clinical situation described.

Zahn’s pseudo infarction

In Zahn’s pseudo infarction, a wedge-shaped hyperemia zone of the liver parenchyma occurs because of the occlusion of a peripheral portal vein branch. It is not a true arterial infarction. The base of the wedge-shaped area is towards the liver surface. In the acute phase, the base of the wedge may be exophytic because of the congestion from the thrombotic changes in the portal vein branches or their compression from a tumor. Usually, a reduction in portal venous blood flow is compensated by increased arterialization which does not occur in these cases. Other causative factors may include a reduction in arterial perfusion (although the hepatic artery is intact), arterial hypotension and existing venous congestion with disrupted venous outflow can occur [71,72]. Such well-defined hyperemic areas in the liver were first described by Zahn in 1897 (Zahn, F.W. (1897). *Verh. Dtsch. Naturf. Aertze*). In the acute stage, sinusoidal congestion occurs, followed by parenchymal atrophy in the later stage [72]. Hepatocellular necrosis is not typical in Zahn’s pseudo infarction. However, in the case of a massive arterial perfusion failure, centrilobular necrosis can also occur [72]. In addition to portal branch thrombosis owing to thrombotic events in the mesenteric and por-

tal venous circulation, splenectomy and severe cardiac insufficiency were reported [72,73]. Another case report described Zahn’s pseudo infarction adjacent to a transjugular portosystemic shunt [74].

Imaging

Consequently, according to the pathological description, Zahn’s pseudo infarct appears on B-mode US as a wedge-shaped lesion at the edge of the subcapsular region in the liver. One would expect hypoechogenicity. However, if stasis of blood occurs as described pathoanatomically, it is conceivable that the lesion may also be hyperechoic on US similar to diffuse non-liquid parenchymal hemorrhage. Feeding vessels can be visualized in duplex US. In the case of a wedge-shaped area at the liver periphery, not only should the arterial inflow be checked, but thrombosis of a small portal vein branch need to be specifically searched. Regarding pathogenic factors, thrombotic changes in the portal venous and splanchnic system should be sought, as well as any adjacent hepatic lesions and specifically in the presence of liver cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma. On CEUS, wedge-shaped hypoenhancement can be expected in the presence of disrupted arterial perfusion and thrombosis of the supplying portal venous branch (fig 3, fig 4).

Pylephlebitis and gas within the portal vessels

Pylephlebitis is thrombosis and thrombophlebitis of the portal vein secondary to sepsis. It occurs because of severe inflammation in the abdomen or pelvis typically within the drainage areas of the mesenteric veins extending to the portal vein. Portal vein thrombosis alone does not correspond to pylephlebitis. The most serious and life-threatening etiology is small bowel infarction with small bowel gangrene. Septic portovenous embolization and consecutive liver abscesses are a complication of pylephlebitis. Possible causes include sigmoid diverticulitis, complicated appendicitis, infectious or chronic inflammatory bowel disease, pancreatitis and potentially any septic or bacterial associated abdominal infection. In severe inflammatory abdominal disease, pylephlebitis should be considered, especially if liver enzymes are abnormal [75,76].

In up to 77%, pathogens may be detected in blood culture or aspirates. In most cases, this was multiple pathogens and are typically *Bacteroides*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Streptococcus* species [75,77]. Pylephlebitis begins in the venous drainage area of the infected focus. The inflammation may then extend to the connected veins in the drainage area and finally affect the portal vein.

A critical situation is gas within the portal vessels (hepatoportal venous gas, HPVG) (fig 5). This was con-

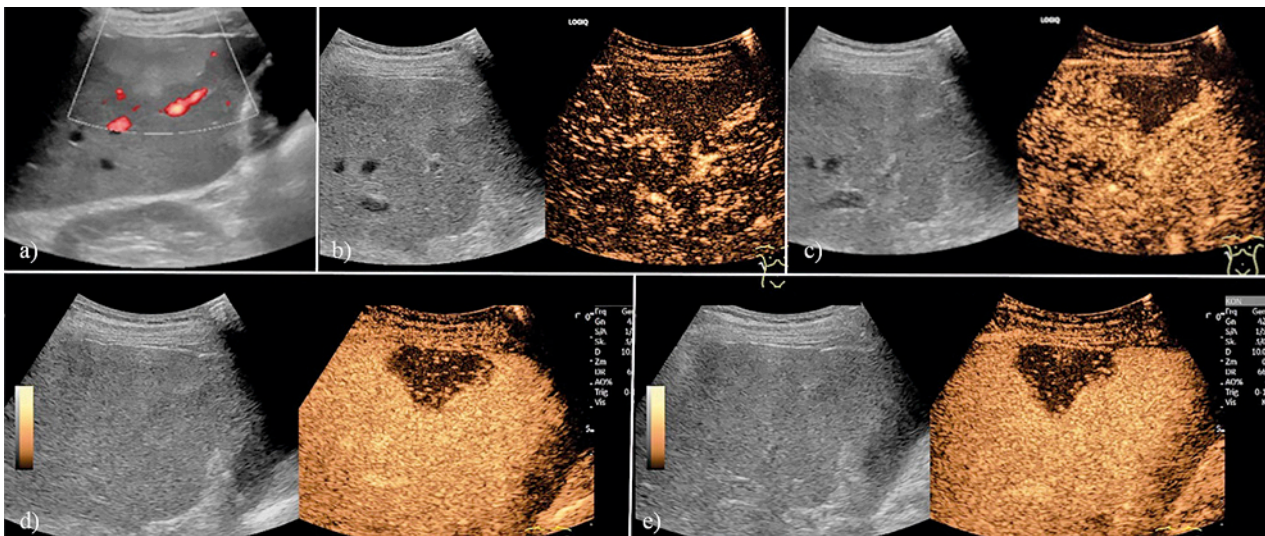


Fig 3. A 86 y/o male with Zahn’s - pseudo infarction, abdominal complaints and history of diffuse large B-cell non-Hodgkin’s lymphoma. More than 10 years before, a partial resection of the small intestine had been performed owing to a small intestinal ileus. B-mode US showed a flat slightly round hyperechogenic subcapsular focal liver lesion in the right liver lobe (a). A hemangioma was suspected. CEUS showed a wedge-shaped non-enhanced mass in the arterial (b, c), portal venous (d) and late phase (e). The tip of the wedge points to the hepatic hilus. The findings did not correspond to a haemangioma. The anamnesis clarified that a mesenteric vein thrombosis was the cause of the small intestinal ileus. The findings were thus considered to be the residuum of an old pseudo infarction using follow up.

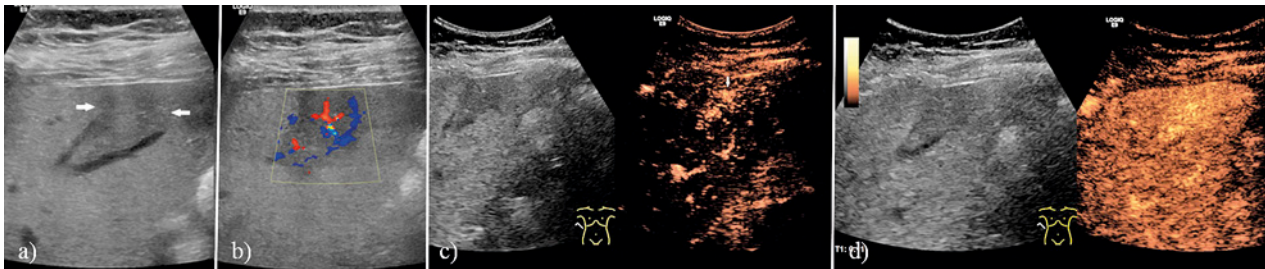


Fig 4. A 56 y/o, female. Upper abdominal discomfort. B-mode US demonstrates a wedge-shaped subcapsular hypoechoic area (a), suggestive of infarction or Zahn’s pseudo infarction. Duplex US shows a single wheel spoke-like area in the center of the wedge (b). CEUS shows early arterial radicular flooding of a FNH (c). Still in the early arterial phase, the wedge-shaped area is more contrasted than the surrounding area (d). Thus, infarction or Zahn’s pseudo infarction were excluded. An arterioportal fistula in the setting of a very small FNH was likely.

sidered a particularly severe form of the disease, in which small bowel gangrene must be excluded. Liebman et al still [78] described a proportion of intestinal gangrene of 73% and mortality of 75% with HPVG [78]. Kinoshita et al reported 182 cases of hepatoportal venous gas [79], the overall mortality was 39%. The most common cause of HPVG was bowel wall necrosis. At 43%, this affected almost half of all cases and 75% of these patients died. Dilatation of the gastrointestinal tract of various etiologies and intra-abdominal abscesses were also not uncommon (12% and 11% respectively), and should be at the top of the differential diagnoses.

Less frequent were ventricular ulcers, chronic inflammatory bowel diseases (ulcerative colitis and Crohn’s disease), endoscopic interventions or the presence of

abdominal tumours. Mortality rates were intermediate for a number of other conditions: 30% for patients with abscesses, 25% for peptic ulcers, and 21% for dilatation of the digestive tract. Fortunately, there were no deaths in cases of inflammatory bowel disease, pancreatitis, cholangitis, hepatitis with HPVG. Here, the prognosis of HPVG seems to be better [79]. The data is consistent with that of a large single institution series of cases presenting with HPVG in an Emergency Department. Overall, mortality of the 50 HPVG patients was 56%, varying between none in patients without shock or intestinal pneumatosis and 84% in patients with shock and intestinal pneumatosis. Both conditions were significant predictors of a worse outcome with an Odds Ratio of 17 for shock and 5 for intestinal pneumatosis [80].

According to our experience and the data, gas in the portal venous system is not necessarily associated with fatality if the underlying cause is suitably treated. Air is thought to enter the capillary veins from the intestinal lumen either by a disrupted epithelial barrier or by increased intraluminal pressure. In this way, mucosal lesions in Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis can lead to air in the portal vein, as can the performance of a colonoscopy [81-83].

Liver enzymes are usually elevated in pylephlebitis. In case of bowel wall necrosis, LDH and lactate are also increased. In addition, C-reactive protein (CRP) is elevated depending on the underlying etiology.

Imaging

The purpose of imaging is to diagnose pylephlebitis, the cause of septic abdominal disease and complications. On B-mode US, the portal vein and its branches are filled with hypoechoic material. As a result of acute thrombosis, the lumen may be dilated. Thrombosis of the mesenteric veins and splenic vein may also develop and thus a lack of flow on Duplex US lacks. Ultrasound Assessment will be hampered in the presence of small bowel ileus. As a rule, CT is performed in these critically ill patients.

Gas bubbles in the portal system appear as small echogenic reflections with small dorsal reverberation artifacts. Portal venous gas must be differentiated from aerobilia (air in the bile ducts). HPVG continuously moves the liver periphery, while aerobilia is present in the bile duct branches and segmental branches. Portal venous gas is not only visible in the main portal vessels but the small gas reflections can be seen diffusely throughout the liver parenchyma. This is a result of the air expanding with the blood flow into the smallest portal venous vessels and sinusoids.

CEUS can be helpful in the evaluation of thrombosis but also septic complications such as liver abscesses (fig 6). Another possible indication is the early detection of

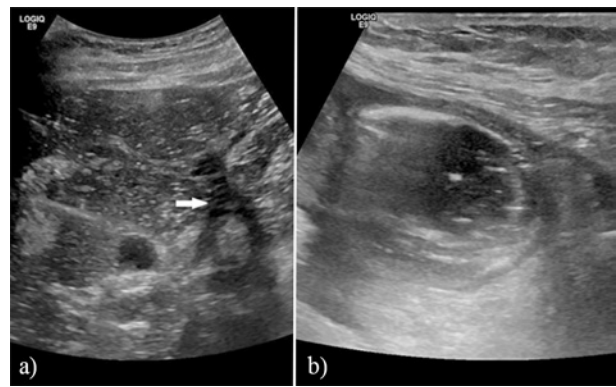


Fig 5. Pylephlebitis. A 66 y/o female presented with vomiting and abdominal pain owing to small bowel obstruction secondary to peritoneal metastatic ovarian cancer. B-mode US shows multiple lenticular air reflections diffusely distributed throughout the liver, including in the portal vessels such as the pars umbilicalis visible here (arrow) (a). Pneumatosis intestinalis could not be proven with certainty but could not be excluded either (b). In a highly palliative situation, conservative therapy was carried out with the insertion of a 20 CH outflow PEG. The patient was cared for in the palliative ward for several weeks. Overinflation of the gastrointestinal tract and stomach can also lead to air in the portal vein.

acute mesenteric ischemia and transmural intestinal infarction when the thrombosis extends into the superior mesenteric vein [84]. In this case, mesenteric ischemia is caused by SMV thrombosis. CEUS can also be used to verify nonenhancement of gangrenous intestinal bowel loops in cases of acute mesenteric arterial occlusion [85-88].

Treatment of patients with HPVG and in particular indications for emergency surgery should be directed to the underlying disease. The high mortality rate in HPVG associated with intestinal necrosis must be considered. Treatment is with antibiotics. Common pathogens are gram-negative aerobes and anaerobes as well as streptococci. Anticoagulation is beneficial [89,90]. Despite this,

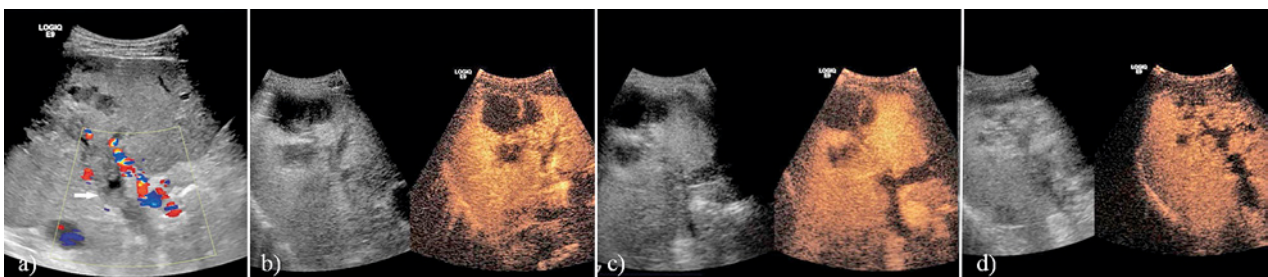


Fig 6. A 50 y/o, male, acute pancreatitis with exudates, splenic vein thrombosis, peripancreatic pseudocysts, fever and elevated inflammatory parameters. B-mode and duplex sonography show portal vein thrombosis and hypoechoic liver lesions (a). On CEUS, lesions are avascular and not enhanced in the arterial phase (b), portal venous phase (c), and late phase (d). The portal vein is not perfused. The interpretation leaves room for various differential diagnoses. The cause of the inflammation may be peripancreatic infected pseudocysts, infected lesions in the liver, or pylephlebitis. These avascular liver lesions, in turn, may be a consequence of tryptic lesions or correspond to abscesses or infarcts owing to portal vein thrombosis.

a mortality rate of 11% was reported in a study of 95 patients with pylephlebitis [75].

Budd-Chiari-Syndrome

Hepatic vein thrombosis resulting in the development of severe congestion, hepatomegaly, and ascites and is referred to as Budd-Chiari syndrome (BCS). The cause is an occlusion in the drainage area of the hepatic veins to the inferior vena cava. The development of portal vein thrombosis is also possible. In the course, fibrosis and cirrhosis of the parenchyma develop in Budd-Chiari syndrome [91-93].

Fibrotic bridges may form between hepatic veins and portal veins “venoportals fibrosis”. Another variant is “venocentric cirrhosis”, in which fibrotic bridging between hepatic veins and portal veins is minimal [93]. Many livers develop large regenerative nodules (LRN) that histologically resemble focal nodular hyperplasia. LRNs occur in the majority of BCS livers as well as in other diseases with severe vascular occlusion, including portalvenous obstruction, and cirrhosis. Large regenerative nodules have a single branched arterial supply. LRNs rely on adequate venous drainage, usually into the hepatic veins. Portal veins are almost always absent in LRNs [93]. Budd Chiari-syndrome (BCS) have been described and illustrated in separate papers [92].

Conclusions

With a thorough and systematic examination of all hepatic vessels on B-mode and Doppler sonography, it is possible to diagnose stenoses, thromboses and pseudoaneurysms. CEUS is helpful in the differentiation between vascular from tumor causes of thrombosis and provides assessment of the liver parenchyma. It is important, in combination with anamnestic data and the ultrasonic appearances, to include the acute clinical scenario to formulate a cohesive differential diagnoses and to search for these systematically. In the hands of an experienced clinician, CEUS can be used to detect infarcted portions of the liver parenchyma early and classify them based on the typical wedge-shaped avascular appearance. Infarct or pseudo-infarct areas can be differentiated from areas with different enhancements because of arteriportal shunts. Pylephlebitis requires a complex sonographic approach to the various abdominal organs, the mesenteric veins and the small and large intestine.

The current overview provides the examiner with the theoretical knowledge and description of sonomorphological, Doppler ultrasonographic and CEUS findings

to achieve the correct diagnosis early which in turn will positively influence the outcome of the patient.

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