

# **Application of imaging technology for the diagnosis of malignancy in the pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction (Review)**

WANYI YANG<sup>1,2</sup>, PINGSHENG HU<sup>1</sup> and CHAOHUI ZUO<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Gastroduodenal and Pancreatic Surgery, Hunan Cancer Hospital and The Affiliated Cancer Hospital of Xiangya School of Medicine, Central South University, Clinical Research Center for Tumor of Pancreaticobiliary Duodenal Junction in Hunan Province, Changsha, Hunan 410013, P.R. China; <sup>2</sup>Graduates Collaborative Training Base of Hunan Cancer Hospital, Hengyang Medical School, University of South China, Changsha, Hunan 410013, P.R. China

Received April 15, 2024; Accepted September 13, 2024

DOI: 10.3892/ol.2024.14729

**Abstract.** The pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction (PBDJ) is the connecting area of the pancreatic duct, bile duct and duodenum. In a broad sense, it refers to a region formed by the head of the pancreas, the pancreatic segment of the common bile duct and the intraduodenal segment, the descending and the horizontal part of the duodenum, and the soft tissue around the pancreatic head. In a narrow sense, it refers to the anatomical Vater ampulla. Due to its complex and variable anatomical features, and the diversity of pathological changes, it is challenging to make an early diagnosis of malignancy at the PBDJ and define the histological type. The unique anatomical structure of this area may be the basis for the occurrence of malignant tumors. Therefore, understanding and subclassifying the anatomical configuration of the PBDJ is of great significance for the prevention and treatment of malignant tumors at their source. The present review comprehensively discusses commonly used imaging techniques and other new technologies for diagnosing malignancy at the PBDJ, offering evidence for physicians and patients to select appropriate examination methods.

# **Contents**

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Preliminary study on the anatomy of the PBDJ

*Correspondence to:* Dr Chaohui Zuo, Department of Gastroduodenal and Pancreatic Surgery, Hunan Cancer Hospital and The Affiliated Cancer Hospital of Xiangya School of Medicine, Central South University, Clinical Research Center for Tumor of Pancreaticobiliary Duodenal Junction in Hunan Province, 283 Tongzipo Road, Yuelu, Changsha, Hunan 410013, P.R. China E‑mail: zuochaohui@vip.sina.com

*Key words:* imaging technology, pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction, tumorigenesis, junction variation, diagnosis, three-dimensional visualization technology

- 3. Biological characteristics of PBDJ tumors
- 4. Imaging diagnosis of PBDJ tumors
- 5. 3DVT imaging diagnosis
- 6. Conclusions

## **1. Introduction**

The pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction (PBDJ) is the area where the pancreatic duct (PD), bile duct and duodenum are connected, including the head of pancreas, the pancreatic segment of the common bile duct (CBD) and the intraduodenal segment, the descending and horizontal parts of duodenum, and the soft tissue around the pancreatic head (1). This site has a complex anatomical structure and an important physiological function. Digestive fluids such as bile, pancreatic juice and gastrointestinal fluid converge at the PBDJ, referred to as the 'confluence of three rivers' (2). The PBDJ is susceptible to a range of conditions, such as stones, inflammation and tumors, which can lead to obstructive jaundice, cholangitis and pancreatitis (3). Due to the intricate anatomy and diverse pathology of this area, early diagnosis and precise treatment of malignant tumors in the PBDJ are challenging. Additionally, the progression of these diseases may be associated with the unique anatomical basis of the region (4). Thus, understanding and delineating the anatomical configurations of the PBDJ is significant for preventing and treating such conditions at their source.

Despite the rapid advancements in medical imaging technologies providing a variety of high‑precision methods for the diagnosis of malignant tumors at the PBDJ, numerous chal‑ lenges and limitations remain. Firstly, the complex anatomical layout of this region complicates image interpretation, particularly in the early tumor stages where lesions are small and poorly defined, increasing the risk of missed or misdiagnosed cases (5). Secondly, the different imaging modalities have their advantages; for instance, computed tomography (CT) excels in demonstrating tumor morphology, density and relationships with surrounding structures but has limited soft tissue resolution (6). By contrast, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) offers superior delineation of soft tissue details but requires longer examination times and notable patient cooperation (7).

Emerging artificial intelligence (AI)‑assisted diagnostic tools and three‑dimensional visualization technology (3DVT) show potential but are still in the early stages of development, necessitating further validation of their accuracy, stability and widespread applicability (8).

Furthermore, despite the application of several treatment approaches for malignant tumors of the PBDJ, such as surgical intervention, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, immunotherapy, targeted therapy and neoadjuvant therapy, which have yielded certain results (including enhanced surgical resection rates, diminished recurrence risks, specific inhibition of cancer cell proliferation and metastasis, and extended overall survival time for patients), numerous challenges remain (9‑12). The complexity of the surgical procedures, the prevalence of complications and the slow postoperative recovery restrict treatment options for certain patients. Additionally, the efficacy of radiotherapy and chemotherapy may be limited by drug side effects or the emergence of tumor resistance (13). Therefore, tailoring personalized and precise therapeutic strategies based on individual patient differences continues to be one of primary focuses of current clinical research.

The diagnosis and treatment of malignant tumors at the PBDJ is a complex task which requires continuous investigation and innovation in order to overcome the limitations of current technologies, and enhance both the accuracy of diagnosis and the effectiveness of treatment. The present review aimed to comprehensively discuss the commonly used imaging techniques in the diagnosis of malignant tumors at this anatomical site, along with other novel methodologies, with the intention of providing a scientifically sound reference for clinicians and patients alike; thereby collectively advancing the standards of care in this field.

#### **2. Preliminary study on the anatomy of the PBDJ**

The pancreatic head is located within the concave surface of the duodenum, to the right of the midline. It is  $\sim$ 1 cm thick with its lower portion extending downward and leftward in a hook-like fashion encircling the posterior aspect of the mesenteric vessels (14). The pancreatic head is surrounded by the duodenum on its superior, inferior and right sides, with the area in contact with the duodenum slightly recessed inward (15). The anterior side of the pancreatic head is mostly adjacent to the beginning of the transverse colon and its mesentery; the superior portion is covered by the posterior wall of the omental sac, whilst the inferior portion is covered by the membrane extending from the transverse colon mesentery and is adjacent to the small intestine (16). The hepatic artery travels along the superior margin of the pancreas, directed rightwards. Posteriorly, the pancreatic head is adjacent to the medial border of the upper half of the right kidney, the right renal vessels, the inferior vena cava, the terminal section of the left renal vein and the right diaphragmatic foot (17). When a pancreatic head tumor is large, it may compress the inferior vena cava or the portal vein, resulting in lower limb edema or ascites.

The CBD begins at the junction of the cystic duct and the common hepatic duct, terminating at the major duodenal papilla, with a length range of 4‑8 cm (18). It is divided into the supraduodenal, retroduodenal, pancreatic and intramural segments. During its descent, the CBD is initially positioned posterior to the pancreatic head, with its terminal part passing through the head, which is a common site for obstructive jaundice due to pancreatic head cancer (PHC) invasion (19). Prior to entering the duodenum, the CBD expands to form the ampullary structure, known as ampulla of Vater, where ampullary cancer (AC) may occur, representing another frequent site of lower segment obstruction of the CBD (20).

The duodenum, which is the initial section of the small intestine, connects superiorly to the stomach and inferiorly to the jejunum, measuring  $\sim$ 25 cm in length and forming a 'C' shape that encircles the pancreatic head (21). In PHC, this 'C'‑shaped loop may become enlarged or distorted. The duodenum is divided into four parts: i) Superior; ii) descending; iii) horizontal; and iv) ascending, each with distinct clinical significance (22). The medial side of the descending part of the duodenum is closely associated with the pancreatic head, CBD and PD opening to the major duodenal papilla in the middle of its posterior medial side. With the development of duodenal surgery, variations of the duodenum are increasingly common (23). For instance, the horizontal part of the duodenum may be positioned anteriorly to the descending portion or ascend to the right side. The terminal portion may terminate on the right side or traverse behind the pancreas and mesenteric vessels to ultimately connect with the duodenojejunum flexure on the left side. Such variations arise due to abnormal rotation (24).

The PD is located within the substance of the pancreas, originating from the tail of the pancreas and traversing its entire length to the right edge of the pancreatic head (22). Typically, it merges with the CBD to form the ampulla of Vater, which subsequently opens into the major duodenal papilla, or the PD may have a separate opening (17). The diameter range of the PD near the duodenum is 2‑3 mm. Occasionally, a small duct can be observed in the pancreatic head running above the PD, opening onto a smaller papilla adjacent to the major duodenal papilla, known as the accessory PD, which has an occurrence rate of  $\sim 50\%$  (25). Among the abdominal organs, the PBDJ is regarded as the most intricate and delicate structure. This region involves three distinct organs: i) The biliary tract; ii) the pancreas; and iii) the intestines, which collectively receive precise regulation from the nervous and endocrine systems, justifying its consideration as a closely linked structural and functional entity (26). Lesions at the PBDJ can have varying origins, but their pathogenesis, pathological changes and clinical manifestations often interrelate, necessitating a comprehensive approach in diagnosis and treatment (3). Once the PBDJ is compromised, the leakage and mixing of bile and pancreatic juice can activate pancreatic enzymes, triggering a severe corrosive 'chain reaction' that leads to extensive erosion of surrounding tissues, and even hemorrhage, necrosis, infection and abscess formation in the abdominal cavity or retroperitoneal tissues, which can be life-threatening in severe cases (27,28).

#### **3. Biological characteristics of PBDJ tumors**

*Common manifestations of malignant tumors at the PBDJ.*  Malignant tumors at the PBDJ encompass PHC, distal bile duct cancer (DBDC) and duodenal cancer (DC), which typically leads to biliary obstruction, dilation and gallbladder



enlargement. PHC may also manifest as localized PD destruction with distal dilation (29). Most patients present with a notable mass and often exhibit involvement of mesenteric vessels, lymph node or surrounding organ metastasis (30). Furthermore, levels of specific serological and secretory markers may significantly increase, triggered either by the tumor itself or due to biliopancreatic duct obstruction (31).

*Biological characteristics of PHC.* Based on an extensive analysis of pancreatic cancer cases, it has been shown that PHC primarily exhibits an invasive multifocal growth pattern (32‑34). The risk factors for its development include, but are not limited to, age, smoking history, alcohol abuse, obesity, diabetes, genetic predisposition, dysbiosis of gut microbiota and chronic pancreatitis (35,36). As a highly malignant gastrointestinal tumor, PHC is characterized by its insidious onset, rapid progression, high postoperative recurrence rates and insensitivity to both chemotherapy and radiotherapy, leading to a low 5‑year survival rate (37). The degree of tumor differentiation is inversely associated with its malignant potential, with poorly differentiated tumors being more prone to metastasis and vascular invasion.

The biological characteristics of PHC are manifested as follows: First, the pancreatic head itself lacks a capsule, which facilitates intraductal spread and invasion of adjacent organs and blood vessels (38), such as the celiac trunk, hepatic artery, superior mesenteric artery, splenic artery, abdominal aorta, portal venous system and inferior vena cava, resulting in tumors that are unresectable or inadequately resected. Electron microscopy has revealed that nerve fibers within the pancreas are predominantly unmyelinated, allowing cancer cells to easily disrupt the perineurium, nerve fibers and their synaptic membranes, leading to central-side neural metastasis and the formation of intra‑pancreatic multicentric lesions. When the main (M)PD is obstructed, tumor cells can implant and grow retrogradely in the ducts (39,40). Second, lymphatic and hematogenous metastasis may be at early stages. Due to the abundance of peripancreatic lymphatic tissue, lymph node metastasis occurs early and has a high incidence (41,42). The complex mechanisms underlying lymph node metastasis are not fully understood; however, research has reported that microRNA‑1231 in exosomes derived from bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells inhibit the invasion, metastasis and tumor microenvironment of PHC (43). Third, PHC exhibits neurotropic growth and the characteristic of invasive spread along perineural sheaths. Nerves are protected by three layers of connective tissue: i) The epineurium; ii) perineurium; and iii) endoneurium, with interstitial spaces between these layers providing pathways for cancer cell invasion. Selvaggi *et al* (44) and Wang *et al* (45) define neural infiltration as the presence of tumor cells in any layer of the three‑layer nerve sheath or tumor cells surrounding >1/3 of the nerve tissue within a lesion. PHC demonstrates a neural invasion rate of 80-100%, which is a critical factor contributing to postoperative recurrence and poor prognosis, severely affecting the outcomes of curative surgeries (46‑48).

*Biological characteristics of DBDC.* DBDC originates from bile duct epithelial cells and is classified as a primary malignant tumor of the biliary system, located in the extrahepatic bile duct region below the point where cystic duct merges with common hepatic duct. The incidence of bile duct cancer is relatively low, accounting for only  $\sim$ 3% of gastrointestinal malignancies, whilst DBDC represents 20‑30% of bile duct cancers (49). Research has reported that DBDC is characterized by infiltrative multifocal growth and shares numerous biological features with PHC, including pathological findings that exhibit biliopancreatic morphological changes which contribute to its poor prognosis (50). However, the surgical resection rate and prognosis for DBDC are superior to those for PHC, potentially attributable to the following: i) The tendency for DBDC to cause biliary obstruction, with jaundice symptoms appearing early, facilitating early diagnosis and radical surgical intervention; and ii) its unique biological characteristics, such as differing mutation patterns of the KRAS, P16 and P53 genes compared with pancreatic cancer (51-53), higher tumor differentiation and less infiltration into the duodenum with lymph node metastasis tending to occur later with a migratory pattern distinctly different from that of PHC often confined to lymph nodes near the distal bile duct (54,55). Moreover, Kwon *et al* (56) reported that lymphovascular invasion and tumor (T)-node-metastasis staging are independent risk factors affecting patient prognosis.

The tumors in the ampullary region of Vater have diverse origins, with marked differences in biological characteristics, pathological features and prognosis among PHC, DBDC, AC and DC. Zheng‑Pywell and Reddy (57) and Williams *et al* (58) reported that patients with PHC have the worst prognosis, followed by those with DBDC; AC prognosis is moderate, whilst patients with duodenal papilla cancer have the best prognosis, suggesting that the site of origin of the tumor is a critical factor affecting patient outcomes. Pathologically, DBDC can be categorized into sclerotic, nodular, papillary and infiltrative types (59). Early‑stage cholangiocarcinoma is further subdivided into elevated, superficial and depressed types. Histologically, the main classifications include papil‑ lary adenocarcinoma, tubular adenocarcinoma, mucinous carcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma and undifferentiated carcinoma, with papillary adenocarcinoma and tubular adenocarcinoma accounting for >90% of cases (60). Although papillary adenocarcinoma has a relatively favorable prognosis, it tends to spread along the bile duct mucosal surface.

*Biological characteristics of DC.* Primary DC specifically refers to malignant tumors originating from the epithelial cells of the duodenum and confined to several parts of the duodenum excluding the pancreatic head, the distal CBD and the ampulla of Vater. Such tumors are relatively rare in clinical practice, accounting for  $\sim 0.3\%$  of gastrointestinal tumors and 30-45% of small intestine malignancies (61,62). Due to their mild and non-specific clinical manifestations, early diagnosis is challenging, leading to missed and misdiagnosed cases. However, advances in endoscopic detection and imaging technologies have improved the early diagnosis rates of primary duodenal tumors (63).

Zhao *et al* (64) performed a retrospective analysis of clinical data from 94 cases of primary duodenal malignancies between January 2014 and December 2019, which included 60 cases of adenocarcinoma (63.8%), 32 cases of stromal tumors (34.1%) and two cases of lymphoma (2.1%). To identify

factors associated with prognosis, the authors performed a Kaplan‑Meier analysis and reported that pancreatic invasion is associated with the prognosis of patients with adenocarcinoma. By contrast, the location of the tumor, complications, depth of infiltration, and the distance from the mesangial side of the tumor to the duodenal papilla are not associated with patient prognosis.

From a pathological perspective, the macroscopic morphology of DC is diverse, with the polypoid type being the most common, followed by the ulcerative, constrictive and diffuse infiltrative types. The pathological types of adenocarcinoma are varied, encompassing poorly differentiated adenocarcinoma, well-differentiated adenocarcinoma, papillary adenocarcinoma and mucinous adenocarcinoma (65). Depending on the relative position of the tumor to major duodenal papilla, cancers around the papilla often present as infiltrative ulcerative or polypoid types, whilst tumors above the papilla predominantly exhibit polypoid forms. Those below tend to be constrictive. The pathogenic factors and mechanisms of DC remain unclear, but they may be associated with bile acid forming carcinogenic cholanthracene and methylcholanthracene under the influence of intestinal bacteria, as well as with abnormalities in bile and pancreatic secretions and imbalances in the acid-base levels of duodenal fluids leading to mucosal damage (66). Certain studies have suggested dietary factors, such as refined carbohydrates, lack of dietary fiber and diets high in sugar and fat, especially those with excessive red meat consumption and insufficient fruit and vegetable intake, may be risk factors for the occurrence of DC, similar to those associated with colorectal cancer (67,68). Research by Kakushima *et al* (69) further emphasized smoking and *Helicobacter pylori* infection as common high-risk factors among male and female patients.

## **4. Imaging diagnosis of PBDJ tumors**

*Ultrasound (US).* US diagnostic technology encompasses surface US and endoscopic (E)US. As tumors at the PBDJ often display no characteristic manifestations in the early stages, most clinical cases commonly present with progressive jaundice, significant weight loss, abdominal distension and dull pain, typically indicating middle-to-late-stage disease (70). Therefore, it is essential to focus on relevant clinical signs while remaining vigilant for this condition, employing auxiliary examination methods for timely and accurate diagnosis. This approach is crucial for minimizing misdiagnosed and missed cases, formulating precision treatment plans, enhancing the rate of radical resection and improving prognosis (71). As a widely used preliminary screening tool, US has the advantages of being non‑invasive, rapid, cost‑effective and easy to perform. However, its imaging quality is frequently compromised by intestinal gas interference, which limits clear visualization of the PBDJ (6). Despite these limitations, US remains the preferred examination for patients with a high suspicion of tumors at the PBDJ, as it can initially reveal tumor location, size and degree of dilatation in the bile and PD. Color Doppler flow imaging further enhances diagnostic capability by demonstrating the relationship between the tumor and adjacent blood vessels, thereby assisting in the preoperative assessment of tumor resectability (60). Water window ultrasonography using patient-ingested water to fill the gastrointestinal tract, serving as an acoustic window that effectively reduces gas interference and enhances the delineation of mass boundaries, size and involvement of neighboring organs, thus improving diagnostic accuracy and tumor staging abilities (72,73). Double contrast‑enhanced ultrasonography (DCEUS) uses oral or injected gastrointestinal echogenic agents alongside intravenous US contrast agents. This method not only clearly depicts the morphology, size and boundaries of lesions and their relationships with surrounding tissues, but also reveals the vascular supply characteristics of tumors improving the detection rate of tumors at the PBDJ (5,74,75). Research data indicate that DCEUS markedly enhances the visibility of lesions compared with conventional US and gastroduodenal water window ultrasonography (76,77). However, the application of DCEUS and the water‑window technique is relatively limited given the convenience of the clinical operation and diagnostic accuracy offered by CT and MRI.

EUS leverages its probe to establish close contact with lesions through the intestinal wall within the gastrointestinal cavity, thus overcoming the limitations of conventional US which is often hindered by intestinal gas. This modality offers enhanced soft tissue resolution, enabling the clear visualization of the relationship between tumors at the PBDJ and adjacent structures, which is beneficial for preoperative tumor staging assessment (78,79). The sensitivity of EUS in T staging surpasses that of both US and CT (80,81), making it a crucial tool for guiding fine‑needle (FN) aspiration (FNA) and FN biopsy (FNB) to achieve cytological and histological diagnoses (82). Research has indicated that the sensitivity for diagnosing pancreatic malignancies using EUS‑FNA and ‑FNB is 71 and 82%, respectively, with both techniques achieving a specificity of 100% (83). In evaluating the etiology of biliary strictures, the overall diagnostic accuracy of EUS‑guided tissue sampling exceeds that of endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP)‑guided tissue sampling, particularly for strictures caused by pancreatic lesions; however, in the case of primary malignant biliary obstruction, the difference between the two methods is not significant as confirmed by multiple studies (82,84-86).

The advantage of EUS lies in its ability to visualize the intestinal cavity and the duodenal papilla directly, facilitating procedures such as biopsies and fluid collections, thereby providing a wealth of information for comprehensive diagnostics (79). In areas that are challenging to access endoscopically, percutaneous FNA cytology can serve as a supplementary method to obtain qualitative diagnostic evidence of malignant cells. Ultimately, a definitive diagnosis often necessitates surgical exploration to thoroughly assess the lesion nature and extent, the involvement of surrounding organs and distant lymph node metastasis, providing critical information for surgical decision-making and technique selection.

*CT.* Multi detector (MD)CT is a crucial imaging technique for diagnosing tumors at the PBDJ due to its rapid scanning speed, and superior spatial and density resolution. Through post-processing technologies such as multi planar reconstruction and curved planar reformation, MDCT can provide a more intuitive and stereoscopic visualization of tumors and the surrounding anatomy, enhancing the detection rates





Figure 1. Highly differentiated papillary adenocarcinoma of the pancreatic head. (A) Computed tomography plain scan demonstrates an isodensity mass in the head of pancreas with an unclear boundary. (B) Arterial and (C) venous phases reveals low enhancement of the mass. (D) Delayed period demonstrates delayed enhancement of the mass. (E) Venous phase reveals distal pancreatic atrophy, a dilated pancreatic duct (white arrow) and bile duct (red arrow). (F) Hematoxylin and eosin staining of the lesion demonstrates intraductal papillary gland hyperplasia with atypia and infiltration. Magnification, x100. The images were obtained from the Department of Radiology, Affiliated Nanhua Hospital, University of South China, with the consent of both the involved patient and the institution, for the purpose of this review.

and diagnostic accuracy of lesions (87). Research has reported a sensitivity of 100% for MDCT in assessing the resectability of tumors at the PBDJ, with an overall accuracy of 84.4%, thereby solidifying its core position in this domain (88). Moreover, the introduction of spectral CT technology, which not only reflects the anatomical structure of lesions, but also reveals their functional characteristics, provides new directions for the diagnosis and differential diagnosis of tumors.

Liang *et al* (89) reported that low kilovolt monoenergetic images from dual‑energy CT markedly improves both the subjective and objective quality of images in patients with pancreatic cancer as well as the consistency in tumor measurements, whilst combining iodine maps enhances the detectability of isodense pancreatic cancers. However, it is noteworthy that despite its promising prospects, in‑depth research on the application of spectral CT in the diagnosis and differential diagnosis of tumors at the PBDJ is currently lacking. Therefore, there is an urgent need for more exploratory studies in the future to fully uncover its potential clinical applications.

Direct CT signs of tumors at the PBDJ include soft tissue density masses in the ampulla, thickening of the duodenal wall or intraluminal soft tissue shadows, and thickening of the wall or intraluminal soft tissue shadows at the end of CBD (90). Indirect signs manifest as atrophy of the distal pancreatic parenchyma, dilation of PD, dilation of the intrahepatic and extrahepatic bile ducts, and enlargement of the gallbladder (91). When the lesions are large and extensive, it becomes challenging to identify the origin of primary lesions, and certain CT signs can have auxiliary diagnostic significance.

Zhao *et al* (92) reported the imaging differences between PHC, cholangiocarcinoma, AC and benign lesions through MDCT image analysis. Cholangiocarcinoma is characterized by small lesions with significant wall thickening, markedly dilated intrahepatic and extrahepatic bile ducts and gallbladder along with significant delayed enhancement; PHC typically presents as large lesions with high necrosis rates, extensive invasion, notable double-duct signs and mild early enhancement in the arterial phase, with enhancement less than that of normal pancreas; and AC shows intermediate enhancement, whilst benign lesions generally exhibit no significant enhancement. Moreover, key points for differentiating pancreatic cancer also include patient age >50 years, ill‑defined tumor borders and pancreatic atrophy (Fig. 1) (93). For AC, the presence of a mass in the ampullary region, asymmetric narrowing of the distal CBD, dilation of the intrahepatic bile duct, dilation of the PD, thickening of the duodenal wall and delayed enhancement, are indicative of diagnosis (94). Early‑stage DBDC may present with bile duct obstruction symptoms and simple bile duct dilation without PD dilation. The degree of bile duct wall thickening and morphological analysis assist in distinguishing between cholangitis and cholangiocarcinoma (95): Dilation of the CBD due to inflammatory narrowing often appears tapered, with wall thickening of <1.5 mm, whilst exceeding this threshold suggests a neoplastic condition.

Radiomics, a cutting‑edge technology at the forefront of the integration of AI and medical imaging, is capable of extracting rich and quantifiable features from raw imaging data and linking them to potential biological behaviors. By analyzing these features through AI algorithms, it provides critical information for precise diagnosis and prognostic evaluation (96). Lee *et al* (95) combined contrast-enhanced CT imaging with clinical presentations to construct a predic‑ tive nomogram using indicators such as ampullary masses, enhancement characteristics and the degree of bile duct dilation and jaundice, thus effectively distinguishing between

benign and malignant ampullary strictures and enhancing clinical decision support. The authors focused on the imaging assessment of MPD truncation and related abnormalities, combining the abnormal parenchyma outline of MPD truncation, the location of truncation (head or neck), the presence of acute pancreatitis and elevated cancer antigen 19‑9 (CA 19‑9) levels to develop a novel nomogram for early diagnosis of occult pancreatic malignancies (97). Jang *et al* (98) identified independent predictive factors for ampullary tumor lesions, including Vater ampulla mass, Vater ampulla size >12 mm, total bilirubin >1.2 mg/dl and age  $\leq 63$  years. The nomogram developed based on these factors demonstrates a diagnostic accuracy of 93.9%. Histogram parameter analysis of MDCT during arteriovenous phases revealed the optimal performance of venous phase percentiles in differentiating between PHC and DC, with whole focus CT histogram analysis notably enhancing diagnostic capabilities for tumors at the PBDJ (99).

Based on histological characteristics, PBDJ tumors are classified into intestinal‑type and pancreatobiliary‑type, with most studies indicating that intestinal-type tumors have a better prognosis (100,101). Ivanovic *et al* (102) made marked strides in the differential diagnosis of intestinal‑type and pancreatobiliary‑type AC using MDCT technology, achieving high sensitivity (85.7%), specificity (83.3%) and accuracy (84.4%). The study findings suggested that the features of intestinal‑type AC include nodular morphology, duodenal papilla bulging, free duodenopancreatic groove appearance and no involvement of the pancreaticoduodenal artery. The pancreatobiliary‑type tends to exhibit infiltrative growth, retraction of papilla, invasion of the CBD and MPD, fixed duodenopancreatic groove appearance and involvement of the pancreaticoduodenal artery. These characteristics are particularly evident under conditions of marked duodenal distension, highlighting the unique advantages of MDCT in distinguishing histological subtypes of AC. Bi *et al* (103), through a meticulous CT radiomics analysis combined with logistic regression algorithm models, precisely differentiated between intestinal‑ and pancreatobiliary‑type malignant tumors at the PBDJ, exhibiting exceptional model performance [sensitivity, 90%; specificity, 93%; accuracy, 88%; area under the curve (AUC), 0.96], highlighting the potential application of preoperative CT radiomics in differentiation and the differences in enhancement patterns between the two types.

Enhanced CT is a crucial technology for diagnosing tumors at the PBDJ, demonstrating superior efficacy compared with that of US, and it also allows for assessment of distant metastases. However, for cases of missed microlesions or lesions of uncertain origin, it is necessary to combine it with enhanced MRI or biopsy pathology to refine the diagnosis.

*MRI.* MRI has been firmly established as a conventional imaging diagnostic tool, with its non-invasive and radiation-free characteristics revolutionizing medical diagnostics. However, patients with intra‑body metallic foreign objects or implants need to avoid MRI to prevent interference or risks (91). For tumors at the PBDJ, non‑invasive screening modalities such as US, CT and MRI are preferred, as these technologies can visually demonstrate biliary and PD obstruction and dilation (104). Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) indirectly reflects cell density and tissue microstructural characteristics

by quantifying the diffusion of water molecules, with tumors at the PBDJ often showing restricted diffusion (105).

Currently, enhanced MRI in conjunction with magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography (MRCP) and DWI are primarily used for diagnosing and assessing PBDJ tumors (106). MRCP uses the long T2 relaxation time characteristics of the bile and pancreatic juice to highlight the biliary and PD systems through a heavily T2‑weighted imaging technique, creating images similar to ERCP, facilitating observation of lesions (107). Research has validated that MRCP and ERCP exhibit comparable efficacy in distinguishing biliary strictures (108). Long-segment asymmetrical strictures with irregular margins suggest cholangiocarcinoma, whilst the opposite points towards benign conditions (108). The double duct sign, the degree of biliary dilation and gradual tapering or sudden narrowing of the duct are challenges for differential diagnosis, consistent with findings by Suthar *et al* (109). Further emphasis on the combined application of MRCP and CT has been presented by Wang *et al* (110), who proposed a scoring model based on the length of stricture, angle of distal biliary stricture, double duct sign and low density in the arterial phase, enhancing the diagnostic accuracy for benign and malignant distal biliary strictures.

Quantitative MRI analysis also demonstrates proficiency in differentiating PHC, intrapancreatic cholangiocarcinoma and AC. For instance, AC often shows the narrowest confluence angle of the pancreaticobiliary duct and the minimal distance between the terminus of the dilated pancreaticobiliary duct and the major duodenal papilla (111). MRI findings for PHC include enlargement of the pancreatic head, extraluminal mass in the biliary duct, ductal dilation above the lesion, a large confluence angle of the pancreaticobiliary duct and mild delayed enhancement post-contrast (3,112). DBDC typically presents with thickening of the bile duct wall, intraluminal small masses and 'rat tail' type narrowing (113). Additionally, DC and AC exhibit unique MRI manifestations, such as small masses in the duodenal lumen, blunt dilation at the end of the bile duct and thickening of the ampullary duct wall with a beak shape of the distal bile duct (Fig. 2) (114,115). Enhanced MRI combined with analysis of minimum apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) demonstrate good diagnostic efficacy in distinguishing between intestinal‑ and pancreatobiliary‑type cancers. As indicated by Bi *et al* (105), its sensitivity, specificity and AUC values are 70.4%, 78.6%, and 0.807, respectively. Furthermore, Nalbant *et al* (106) reported the application value of MRI and MRCP in a preliminary diagnosis of a mass at the PBDJ, highlighting that oval filling defects suggest the likelihood of intestinal‑type tumors, whilst progressive enhancement of the mass, irregular narrowing of the distal CBD, PD truncation, involvement of the gastroduodenal artery, lymphadenopathy, and a low ADC value are more indicative of pancreatcobiliary-type. When utilizing MRI for the evaluation of tumors at the PBDJ, a multi‑sequence and ‑phenomenon assessment is necessary, considering the pathophysiological characteristics of the different tumor types, inferring potential signs that may arise and providing as much imaging diagnostic information as possible to aid clinical decision‑making in treatment strategies.





Figure 2. Ampullary carcinoma. (A) Axial T2W reveals high signal lesions around the ampulla. (B) Coronal T2W and (C) a magnetic resonance cholangiopan– creatography postprocessing image demonstrates irregular thickening and stricture of the distal common bile duct in a beak shape with dilation of the bile duct and pancreatic duct above it. (D) Arterial phase, (E) venous phase and (F) delayed phase shows progressive enhancement of the mass. (G) Diffusion weighted imaging (B value, 1,000) demonstrates a high signal of the mass. (H) Low signal on apparent diffusion coefficient. (I) Hematoxylin and eosin staining of the lesion. Magnification, x200. T2W, T2 weighted image. The images were obtained from the Department of Radiology, Affiliated Nanhua Hospital, University of South China, with the consent of both the involved patient and the institution, for the purpose of this review.

*ERCP.* ERCP allows for direct visualization of lesions on the medial walls of the duodenum and the ampullary region through the injection of contrast agents (116). It facilitates the examination of pancreatic and bile duct structures, and it enables biopsy collection for pathological evaluation. Furthermore, it can be utilized for interventional treatments such as stent placement to alleviate jaundice in patients with advanced and inoperable conditions (85). When tumors are small and undetectable by other imaging modalities, ERCP is particularly effective for early diagnosis. The preferred method for diagnosing duodenal tumors is endoscopy, which not only allows for visual assessment of the tumor size, location and morphological characteristics, but facilitates biopsy for histopathological confirmation (117). A study indicated that the accuracy of endoscopic biopsy for diagnosing ampullary tumors is 81.9% (118). However, it may be challenging to identify tumors located in the horizontal and ascending portions, often necessitating the use of duodenal double contrast barium studies to enhance diagnostic rates. Notably, ERCP exhibits a diagnostic accuracy of  $\leq 100\%$  for ampullary tumors, notably surpassing that of US, CT and MRCP (104). Nevertheless, due to its limitations in assessing the spatial relationships of tumors to adjacent tissues and the extent of invasion into surrounding structures, additional imaging

studies are needed for a comprehensive evaluation to ensure diagnostic completeness and accuracy (119).

*Positron emission tomography (PET)/CT.* 18F-Fluorodeoxyglucose (18F‑FDG) PET/CT is a diagnostic technique that integrates functional metabolism with anatomical structure imaging. It effectively distinguishes between benign and malignant lesions by capturing the glycolytic activity of malignant cells, demonstrating efficacy particularly in the diagnosis of pancreatic malignancies (120). In this process, 18F‑FDG, a glucose analogue, is transported into the cells via glucose transporters, where it is phosphorylated into 18F-FDG-6-phosphate by hexokinase. Due to the high expression of transporters and kinases in malignant tumor cells, 18F‑FDG tends to be retained within the cells, resulting in high metabolic hotspots on PET/CT. Whilst PET/CT cannot replace pancreatic CT or MRI as the first-line examination, it serves as an advantageous adjunct, especially in the exclusion and detection of distant metastases, particularly in cases with larger primary lesions, suspected regional lymph node metastases and notably elevated CA 19‑9 levels (121,122).

Chronic mass pancreatitis is a specific type of chronic pancreatitis characterized by long‑term inflammation leading to damage of the pancreatic parenchyma and fibrotic tissue proliferation, potentially forming a mass in the pancreatic head (123). Currently, CT is widely used as a routine imaging modality for anatomical assessment and tumor staging; however, its capacity for differential diagnosis is limited when faced with the highly similar clinical presentations and imaging characteristics of chronic mass pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer (124). The standardized uptake value (SUV) is an important semi‑quantitative indicator for diagnosing pancreatic cancer, with SUV values being markedly higher in patients with pancreatic cancer compared with those in patients with chronic pancreatitis (125). Notably, although 18F‑FDG PET/CT exhibits high sensitivity in diagnosing pancreatic cancer, it also encounters issues with false positives, such as in cases of active pancreatitis, peritoneal fibrosis and lymphocytic infiltration, and false negatives such as in low‑density cancer cells and tumors with high fluid content. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a comprehensive evaluation incorporating clinical manifestations, laboratory tests and other factors (126).

Overall, PET/CT demonstrates superior diagnostic efficacy compared with enhanced CT in the differential diagnosis of pancreatic cancer and chronic mass pancreatitis, providing a richer and more accurate imaging basis for clinical decision‑making.

# **5. 3DVT imaging diagnosis**

Tumors at the PBDJ, regardless of their benign or malignant nature, should be primarily treated with surgical intervention once diagnosed. Formulating a surgical plan necessitates a comprehensive consideration of the tumor location, size, infiltration range, vascular relationships, metastasis and the physical condition of the patient (127). Due to the unique anatomical positioning of these tumors, surgical complexity tends to be high, making preoperative assessment critically important. Traditional two-dimensional imaging techniques such as US, MDCT and MRI can provide information about the lesion and adjacent structures; however, due to the relatively sparse blood supply to the pancreas and distal bile duct, imaging clarity is often limited, possibly leading to errors in assessing tumor resectability (128,129).

To overcome the limitations of two-dimensional imaging, 3DVT has emerged and is gradually being applied in the diagnosis and treatment of tumors at the PBDJ. This technology relies on a 3D visualization system for abdominal medical imaging, allowing for a comprehensive evaluation of the tumor morphology, position, the state of pancreatobiliary duct obstruction and its spatial relationships with surrounding major blood vessels. Current research focuses on the consistency between 3D assessment results and intraoperative realities, aiming to optimize surgical planning, shorten operative duration and reduce the risk of injury to major vessels during surgery, which holds significant clinical importance (130). 3D imaging not only provides a clear depiction of anatomical structures, but also integrates dynamic simulation and real-time interactive functionalities, substantially enhancing diagnostic accuracy and the scientific rigor of surgical planning (131‑133). In the field of oncology, 3DVT is particularly vital, granting physicians the precision to closely examine tumors and their surrounding environments (134,135). Specifically, this technology reconstructs two-dimensional CT images into 3D models that closely match the structures of the abdominal organs of the patient, allowing for an intuitive, spatial and comprehensive separation of the tumor in 3D images. This facilitates a swift and accurate assessment of the relationships between the pancreatic head, distal bile duct or ampullary tumors and vasculature, providing robust support for surgeons in evaluating tumor resectability and formulating personalized treatment strategies (136,137).

The resection of tumors located in the head and body-tail of the pancreas is recognized as one of the most complex procedures in upper gastrointestinal surgery, often facing challenges related to vascular variations during surgery, particularly those involving the portal vein and the hepatic artery (138). Research indicates that 3D visualization systems are effective in demonstrating the origins and branches of vessels, as well as the relationships between tumors, organs and vessels, achieving a diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of 100% for identifying hepatic artery variations. The clarity of the images produced rivals that of angiography, thereby providing individualized preoperative guidance for patients with hepatic artery anomalies undergoing pancreaticoduodenectomy (139). Miyamoto *et al* (140) further expanded the application scope of 3DVT, using it to clearly present anatomical variations of peripancreatic vessels and changes induced by tumors, thus minimizing surgical trauma and shortening the operation time through preoperative simulations. Addressing one of the severe complications associated with pancreaticoduodenectomy, pancreatic fistulas, Miyamoto *et al* (141) proposed that preoperative measurement of the residual pancreatic volume using 3DVT can predict the risk of fistula occurrence, offering a scientific basis for preventing complications. Furthermore, the cinematic rendering technique, an advanced post‑processing technology within 3D visualization, leverages unique illumination models to generate higher quality images, significantly enhancing detail representation (142). This technology exhibits distinctive advantages in depicting tumor location, adjacent relationships, modes of enhancement and internal characteristics such as necrosis and cystic changes. It is also able to simulate endoscopic views, thereby providing positive support for the qualitative diagnosis of lesions and planning of therapeutic strategies (143).

The blood supply to the lower segment of the CBD primarily originates from the right hepatic artery and the pancreaticoduodenal artery. Inadequate vascular management can markedly increase the risks of complications such as bleeding and anastomotic leaks. The application of 3DVT in surgical procedures for tumors at the PBDJ markedly enhances the visualization of lesion structures, facilitates precise surgical planning and ensures smoother handling of complex cases, ultimately improving the R0 resection rate (144,145). Furthermore, 3D pancreaticobiliary duct models demonstrate considerable potential in accurately assessing complex pathological anatomy, aiding differential diagnoses, and informing surgical planning by overcoming the limitations of traditional CT and MRCP techniques, particularly for patients with tumors at the PBDJ (146,147).

In the realm of diagnosis and treatment of hepatobiliary diseases, 3DVT also serves a crucial role (8,148‑150). Zhang *et al* (151) reported that this technology has a notably



US, ultrasound; DCEUS, double contrast-enhanced ultrasonography; EUS, endoscopic ultrasound; CT, computed tomography; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; AI, artificial intelligence; MRCP, magnetic resonance intelligence; MRC US, ultrasound; DCEUS, double contrast‑enhanced ultrasonography; EUS, endoscopic ultrasound; CT, computed tomography; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; AI, artificial intelligence; MRCP, magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography; ERCP, endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography; PET/CT, positron emission tomography/CT; 3DVT, three‑dimensional visualization technology.

Table I. Evaluation and value of imaging techniques in the diagnosis of malignant tumors at the pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction.

Table I. Evaluation and value of imaging techniques in the diagnosis of malignant tumors at the pancreaticobiliary duodenal junction.

higher positive predictive value for diagnosing portal vein invasion in hilar cholangiocarcinoma compared with subjective assessments based on CT scans; this provides a quantitative basis for the preoperative determination of resection extent and the surgical approach. Guo *et al* (152) explored the efficacy of 3DVT in guiding hepatic resection for complex intrahepatic stones, reporting that 3DVT offers a precise preoperative diagnosis of complex intrahepatic bile duct stones, demonstrating improved safety, feasibility and effectiveness compared with conventional imaging modalities. Zhao *et al* (153) performed a comparative study between two‑dimensional medical imaging and 3DVT in evaluating tumor resectability, reporting accuracy rates of 85.9% for conventional imaging and 97.2% for 3DVT. This indicated that 3DVT predicts tumor resectability more accurately in preoperative evaluations. Moreover. 3DVT effectively addresses the limitations of two-dimensional imaging in abdominal CT, particularly in showcasing intricate details of the surgical area when dealing with affected organs and their surrounding complex structures, allowing surgeons to assess the relationships fully and spatially between tumors and adjacent blood vessels and lymph nodes, thereby optimizing surgical strategy selection. However, it is noteworthy that this technology is currently limited to spatial configuration reconstruction and does not yet provide the functional information necessary for differential diagnoses (154).

The present review systematically summarized and analyzed the advantages and limitations of several imaging techniques in the diagnosis of tumors at the PBDJ. Additionally, based on current advancements, the present review made forward‑looking predictions and outlooks on future trends. This is presented in Table I (7,75,78,83,89,103,104,106,108, 143,153,155‑157).

# **6. Conclusions**

In summary, due to its complex anatomical structure and significant physiological functions, the PBDJ serves as a convergence point for several digestive fluids such as bile, pancreatic juice and gastrointestinal secretions, which results in it being a high-incidence area for malignant tumors and a key pathological basis. However, the etiological factors and specific mechanisms underlying tumors in this region remain to be elucidated, and there are numerous challenges in clinical diagnosis. Given the low sensitivity of PBDJ tumors to radiotherapy, chemotherapy, immunotherapy and targeted therapy, surgical intervention has become the preferred treatment strategy (158‑161). Several imaging diagnostic methods each have their advantages and disadvantages when evaluating tumors at the PBDJ. Therefore, the judicious selection and combination of these techniques are crucial for enhancing tumor detection rates and diagnostic accuracy. Currently, accurately distinguishing the tissue origin of tumors at this junction, whether intestinal type or biliary‑pancreatic type, using technologies such as US, MDCT, MRI, ERCP and PET‑CT remains challenging, with limited differentiation capability. Consequently, there is a need for in‑depth exploration and validation of radiomics and 3DVT to optimize the diagnostic and assessment strategies for tumors in this region.

#### **Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to thank Ms. Yanfen Tang (Department of Radiology, Affiliated Nanhua Hospital, University of South China, Hengyang, China) for supplying the imaging materials (Figs. 1 and 2) utilized in this review. The authors confirm that all images are original and, to the best of their knowledge, have not been published elsewhere.

## **Funding**

The present study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant no. 82170192) and the Provincial Natural Science Foundation of Hunan (grant no. 2023JJ30377).

# **Availability of data and materials**

Not applicable.

#### **Authors' contributions**

WYY participated in gathering and arranging the literature and drafting the paper. PSH conducted the analysis for Figs. 1 and 2 and contributed to the manuscript revisions. CHZ offered guidance and revised the manuscript throughout the entire process. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript. Data authentication is not applicable.

# **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

Not applicable.

# **Patient consent for publication**

Not applicable.

## **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### **References**

- 1. Kamisawa T, Kaneko K, Itoi T and Ando H: Pancreaticobiliary maljunction and congenital biliary dilatation. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2: 610‑618, 2017.
- 2. Ono A, Arizono S, Isoda H and Togashi K: Imaging of pancreaticobiliary maljunction. Radiographics 40: 378–392, 2020.
- 3. Nikolaidis P, Hammond NA, Day K, Yaghmai Wood CG III, Mosbach DS, Harmath CB, Taffel MT, Horowitz JM, Berggruen SM and Miller FH: Imaging features of benign and malignant ampullary and periampullary lesions. Radiographics 34: 624‑641, 2014.
- 4. Zulfiqar M, Chatterjee D, Yoneda N, Hoegger MJ, Ronot M, Hecht EM, Bastati N, Ba‑Ssalamah A, Bashir MR and Fowler K: Imaging features of premalignant biliary lesions and predis‑ posing conditions with pathologic correlation. Radiographics 42: 1320-1337, 202**.**
- 5. Zhu D, Yang K, Li Y, Ye X, Zhang H, Long Q, Ding X, Dong F and Xu J: Differential diagnostic value of periampullary mass: A nomogram established by random forest based on clinical characteristics and contrast‑enhanced ultrasound. J Clin Ultrasound 50: 918‑928, 2022.
- 6. Al‑Hawary MM, Kaza RK and Francis IR: Optimal imaging modalities for the diagnosis and staging of periampullary masses. Surg Oncol Clin N Am 25: 239‑253, 2016.



- 
- 7. Chen XP, Liu J, Zhou J, Zhou PC, Shu J, Xu LL, Li B and Su S: lary space-occupying lesions: A retrospective analysis. BMC Med Imaging 19: 77, 2019.
- 8. Fang C, Zhang P and Qi X: Digital and intelligent liver surgery in the new era: Prospects and dilemmas. EBioMedicine 41: 693-701, 2019.<br>9. Rizzo A and Brandi G: Neoadjuvant therapy for cholangiocar-
- cinoma: A comprehensive literature review. Cancer Treat Res Commun 27: 100354, 2021.<br>10. Rizzo A and Brandi G: Pitfalls, challenges, and updates in adju-
- vant systemic treatment for resected biliary tract cancer. Expert Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 15: 547‑554, 2021.
- 11. Di Federico A, Mosca M, Pagani R, Carloni R, Frega G,<br>De Giglio A, Rizzo A, Ricci D, Tavolari S, Di Marco M, et al: Immunotherapy in pancreatic cancer: why do we keep failing? A focus on tumor immune microenvironment, Predictive biomarkers and treatment outcomes. Cancers (Basel) 14: 2429, 2022.
- 12. Guven DC, Sahin TK, Erul E, Rizzo A, Ricci AD, Aksoy S and Yalcin S: The association between albumin levels and survival in patients treated with immune checkpoint inhibitors: A systematic review and meta‑analysis. Front Mol Biosci 9: 1039121, 2022.
- 13. Di Federico A, Tateo V, Parisi C, Formica F, Carloni R, Frega G, Rizzo A, Ricci D, Di Marco M, Palloni A and Brandi G: Hacking pancreatic cancer: Present and future of personalized medicine. Pharmaceuticals (Basel) 14: 677, 2021.
- 14. Padilla‑Thornton AE, Willmann JK and Jeffrey RB: Adenocarcinoma of the uncinate process of the pancreas: MDCT patterns of local invasion and clinical features at presentation. Eur Radiol 22: 1067‑1074, 2012.
- 15. Loi M, Magallon‑Baro A, Suker M, van Eijck C, Sharma A, Hoogeman M and Nuyttens J: Pancreatic cancer treated with SBRT: Effect of anatomical interfraction variations on dose to organs at risk. Radiother Oncol 134: 67‑73, 2019.
- 16. Gaballah AH, Kazi IA, Zaheer A, Liu PS, Badawy M, Moshiri M, Ibrahim MK, Soliman M, Kimchi E and Elsayes KM: Imaging after pancreatic surgery: Expected findings and postoperative complications. Radiographics 44: e230061, 2024.
- 17. Bello HR, Sekhar A, Filice RW, Radmard AR and Davarpanah AH: Pancreaticoduodenal groove: Spectrum of disease and imaging features. Radiographics 42: 1062‑1080, 2022.
- 18. Sah SK, Panth H and Wang YX: Morphometric analysis of common bile duct: A cadaveric study. J Biomed Res Environ Sci 2: 64‑68, 2021.
- 19. Bhutia KD, Lachungpa T and Lamtha SC: Etiology of obstructive jaundice and its correlation with the ethnic population of Sikkim. J Family Med Prim Care 10: 4189‑4192, 2021.
- 20. Okano K, Oshima M, Suto H, Ando Y, Asano E, Kamada H, Kobara H, Masaki T and Suzuki Y: Ampullary carcinoma of the duodenum: Current clinical issues and genomic overview. Surg Today 52: 189‑197, 2022.
- 21. Hou C, Zhang H, Wang X and Yang Z: The 'Hand as Foot' teaching method in the duodenum anatomy. Asian J Surg 45: 1768‑1769, 2022.
- 22. Wu X, Niu R and Wu Y: The 'Hand as Foot' teaching method in pancreas‑duodenum anatomy. Asian J Surg 46: 1448‑1449, 2023.
- 23. Pickhardt PJ and Bhalla S: Intestinal malrotation in adolescents and adults: Spectrum of clinical and imaging features. AJR Am J Roentgenol 179: 1429‑1435, 2002.
- 24. Johnson LN, Moran SK, Bhargava P, Revels JW, Moshiri M, Rohrmann CA and Mansoori B: Fluoroscopic evaluation of duodenal diseases. Radiographics 42: 397‑416, 2022.
- 25. Zhang JY, Huang J and Yang ZY: Abdominal pain after subtotal gastrectomy: A first report of accessory pancreatic fistula. J Pain Res 13: 431‑435, 2020.
- 26. Apurva, Abdul Sattar RS, Ali A, Nimisha, Kumar Sharma A, Kumar A, Santoshi S and Saluja SS: Molecular pathways in peri‑ ampullary cancer: An overview. Cell Signal 100: 110461, 2022.
- 27. Perri G, Bortolato C, Marchegiani G, Holmberg M, Romandini E, Sturesson C, Bassi C, Sparrelid E, Ghorbani P and Salvia R: Pure biliary leak vs pancreatic fistula associated: Non‑identical twins following pancreatoduodenectomy. HPB (Oxford) 24: 1474‑1481, 2022.
- 28. Pecorelli N, Capretti G, Sandini M, Damascelli A, Cristel G, De Cobelli F, Gianotti L, Zerbi A and Braga M: Impact of sarcopenic obesity on failure to rescue from major complications following pancreaticoduodenectomy for cancer: Results from a multicenter study. Ann Surg Oncol 25: 308‑317, 2018.
- 29. Skórzewska M, Kurzawa P, Ciszewski T, Pelc Z and Polkowski WP: Controversies in the diagnosis and treatment of periampullary tumours. Surg Oncol 44: 101853, 2022.
- 30. Amr B, Shahtahmassebi G, Briggs CD, Bowles MJ, Aroori S and Stell DA: Assessment of the effect of interval from presentation<br>to surgery on outcome in patients with peri-ampullary maligto surgery on outcome in patients with peri‑ampullary malig‑ nancy. HPB (Oxford) 18: 354‑359, 2016.
- 31. Khan IA, Singh N, Gunjan D, Nayak B, Dash NR, Pal S, Lohani N, Yadav R, Gupta S and Saraya A: Serum miR‑215‑5p, miR-192-5p and miR-378a-5p as novel diagnostic biomarkers for periampullary adenocarcinoma. Pathol Res Pract 260: 155417, 2024.
- 32. Ilic M and Ilic I: Epidemiology of pancreatic cancer. World J Gastroenterol 22: 9694-9705, 2016.
- 33. Groot VP, Gemenetzis G, Blair AB, Rivero‑Soto RJ, Yu J, Javed AA, Burkhart RA, Rinkes IHMB, Molenaar IQ, Cameron JL, *et al*: Defining and predicting early recurrence in 957 patients with resected pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Ann Surg 269: 1154‑1162, 2019.
- 34. Groot VP, Rezaee N, Wu W, Cameron JL, Fishman EK, Hruban RH, Weiss MJ, Zheng L, Wolfgang CL and He J: atectomy for pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Ann Surg 267: 936‑945, 2018.
- 35. Wood LD, Canto MI, Jaffee EM and Simeone DM: Pancreatic cancer: Pathogenesis, screening, diagnosis, and treatment. Gastroenterology 163: 386‑402.e1, 2022.
- 36. El Hakim BA, Caid N, Saoudi L, Benemla R, Ramoul R, Rekkache S and Smaili F: Clinical characteristic of pancreatic cancer. Ann Oncol 29 (Suppl 5): S50, 2018.
- 37. Hessmann E, Buchholz SM, Demir IE, Singh SK, Gress TM, Ellenrieder V and Neesse A: Microenvironmental determinants of pancreatic cancer. Physiol Rev 100: 1707‑1751, 2020.
- 38. Malsy M, Hackl C, Graf B, Bitzinger D and Bundscherer A: The effects of analgesics on the migration of pancreatic cancer cells. In Vivo 36: 576‑581, 2022.
- 39. Morita S, Onaya H, Kishi Y, Hiraoka N and Arai Y: Multiple intraglandular metastases in a patient with invasive ductal carcinoma of the pancreas. Intern Med 54: 1753-1756, 2015.
- 40. Nakase A, Koizumi T, Fujita N, Ono H and Matsumoto Y: Studies of the growth and infiltration of experimental tumor of the pancreas in rabbits. Am J Surg 133: 590‑592, 1977.
- 41. Mizrahi JD, Surana R, Valle JW and Shroff RT: Pancreatic cancer. Lancet 395: 2008‑2020, 2020.
- 42. Burke EE, Marmor S, Virnig BA, Tuttle TM and Jensen EH: Lymph node evaluation for pancreatic adenocarcinoma and its value as a quality metric. J Gastrointest Surg 19: 2162-2170, 2015.
- 43. Shang S, Wang J, Chen S, Tian R, Zeng H, Wang L, Xia M, Zhu H and Zuo C: Exosomal miRNA-1231 derived from bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells inhibits the activity of pancre-<br>atic cancer. Cancer Med 8: 7728-7740, 2019.
- 44. Selvaggi F, Melchiorre E, Casari I, Cinalli S, Cinalli M, Aceto GM, Cotellese R, Garajova I and Falasca M: Perineural invasion in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma: From molecules towards drugs of clinical relevance. Cancers (Basel) 14: 5793, 2022.<br>45. Wang J, Chen Y, Li X and Zou X: Perineural invasion and associ-
- ated pain transmission in pancreatic cancer. Cancers (Basel) 13: 4594, 2021.
- 46. YangMW, TaoLY, Jiang YS, Yang JY, Huo YM, Liu DJ, LiJ, Fu XL, He R, Lin C, *et al*: Perineural invasion reprograms the immune microenvironment through cholinergic signaling in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Cancer Res 80: 1991-2003, 2020.
- 47. Bapat AA, Hostetter G, Von Hoff DD and Han H: Perineural invasion and associated pain in pancreatic cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 11: 695‑707, 2011.
- 48. Tan X, Sivakumar S, Bednarsch J, Wiltberger G, Kather JN, Niehues J, de Vos‑Geelen J, Valkenburg‑van Iersel L, Kintsler S, Roeth A, *et al*: Nerve fibers in the tumor microenvironment in neurotropic cancer‑pancreatic cancer and cholangiocarcinoma. Oncogene 40: 899‑908, 2021.
- 49. Banales JM, Marin JJG, Lamarca A, Rodrigues PM, Khan SA, Roberts LR, Cardinale V, Carpino G, Andersen JB, Braconi C, *et al*: Cholangiocarcinoma 2020: The next horizon in mechanisms and management. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 17: 557‑588, 2020.
- 50. Zaccari P, Cardinale V, Severi C, Pedica F, Carpino G, Gaudio E, Doglioni C, Petrone MC, Alvaro D, Arcidiacono PG and plastic lesions of the biliary tract and the pancreas. World J Gastroenterol 25: 4343‑4359, 2019.
- 51. Felsenstein M, Hruban RH and Wood LD: New developments in the molecular mechanisms of pancreatic tumorigenesis. Adv Anat Pathol 25: 131‑142, 2018.
- 52. Banales JM, Cardinale V, Carpino G, Marzioni M, Andersen JB, Invernizzi P, Lind GE, Folseraas T, Forbes SJ, Fouassier L, et al: Expert consensus document: Cholangiocarcinoma: Current knowledge and future perspectives consensus statement from the European network for the study of cholangiocarcinoma (ENS‑CCA). Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 13: 261‑280, 2016.
- 53. Razumilava N and Gores GJ: Cholangiocarcinoma. Lancet 383: 2168‑2179, 2014.
- 54. Kato Y, Takahashi S, Gotohda N and Konishi M: The likely sites of nodal metastasis differs according to the tumor extent in distal bile duct cancer. J Gastrointest Surg 20: 1618‑1627, 2016.
- 55. Min SK, You Y, Choi DW, Han IW, Shin SH, Yoon S, Jung JH, Yoon SJ and Heo JS: Prognosis of pancreatic head cancer with different patterns of lymph node metastasis. J Hepatobiliary Pancreat Sci 29: 1004-1013, 2022.
- 56. Kwon HJ, Kim SG, Chun JM, Lee WK and Hwang YJ: Prognostic factors in patients with middle and distal bile duct cancers. World J Gastroenterol 20: 6658‑6665, 2014.
- 57. Zheng‑Pywell R and Reddy S: Ampullary cancer. Surg Clin North Am 99: 357‑367, 2019.
- Williams JL, Chan CK, Toste PA, Elliott IA, Vasquez CR, Sunjaya DB, Swanson EA, Koo J, Hines OJ, Reber HA, et al: Association of histopathologic phenotype of periampullary adenocarcinomas with survival. JAMA Surg 152: 82‑88, 2017.
- 59. Nakeeb A, Pitt HA, Sohn TA, Coleman J, Abrams RA, Piantadosi S, Hruban RH, Lillemoe KD, Yeo CJ and Cameron JL: Cholangiocarcinoma. A spectrum of intrahepatic, perihilar, and distal tumors. Ann Surg 224: 463‑475, 1996.
- 60. Khan SA, Davidson BR, Goldin R, Pereira SP, Rosenberg WM, Taylor‑Robinson SD, Thillainayagam AV, Thomas HC, Thursz MR and Wasan H; British Society of Gastroenterology: noma: Consensus document. Gut 51 (Suppl 6): VI1-VI9, 2002.
- 61. Jiang S, Zhao R, Li Y, Han X, Liu Z, Ge W, Dong Y and Han W: Prognosis and nomogram for predicting postoperative survival of duodenal adenocarcinoma: A retrospective study in China and the SEER database. Sci Rep 8: 7940, 2018.
- 62. Nishio K, Kimura K, Murata A, Ohira G, Shinkawa H, Kodai S, Amano R, Tanaka S, Shimizu S, Takemura S, *et al*: Comparison lary carcinoma and carcinoma of the second portion of the duodenum. World J Gastrointest Surg 14: 1219‑1229, 2022.
- 63. Burasakarn P, Higuchi R, Nunobe S, Kanaji S, Eguchi H, Okada KI, Fujii T, Nagakawa Y, Kanetaka K, Yamashita H, et al: Limited resection vs pancreaticoduodenectomy for primary duodenal adenocarcinoma: A systematic review and meta- analysis. Int J Clin Oncol 26: 450‑460, 2021.
- 64. Zhao Z, Zhang J, Li C, Liu T and Li W: Surgical treatment and spective cohort study. J Gastrointest Oncol 13: 1733‑1745, 2022.
- 65. Xue Y, Vanoli A, Balci S, Reid MM, Saka B, Bagci P, Memis B, Choi H, Ohike N, Tajiri T, et al: Non-ampullary-duodenal carcinomas: Clinicopathologic analysis of 47 cases and comparison with ampullary and pancreatic adenocarcinomas. Mod Pathol 30: 255‑266, 2017.
- 66. Zhang S, Cui Y, Zhong B, Xiao W, Gong X, Chao K and Chen M: Clinicopathological characteristics and survival analysis of primary duodenal cancers: A 14‑year experience in a tertiary centre in South China. Int J Colorectal Dis 26: 219‑226, 2011.
- 67. Yabuuchi Y, Yoshida M, Kakushima N, Kato M, Iguchi M, Yamamoto Y, Kanetaka K, Uraoka T, Fujishiro M and Sho M; Japan Duodenal Cancer Committee: Risk factors for non-ampullary duodenal adenocarcinoma: A systematic review. Dig Dis 40: 147‑155, 2022.
- 68. Overman MJ, Hu CY, Kopetz S, Abbruzzese JL, Wolff RA and Chang GJ: A population‑based comparison of adenocarcinoma of the large and small intestine: Insights into a rare disease. Ann Surg Oncol 19: 1439‑1445, 2012.
- 69. Kakushima N, Ono H, Yoshida M, Takizawa K, Tanaka M, Kawata N, Ito S, Imai K, Hotta K, Ishiwatari H and Matsubayashi H: Characteristics and risk factors for sporadic non‑ampullary duodenal adenocarcinoma. Scand J Gastroenterol 52: 1253‑1257, 2017.
- 70. Woo SM, Ryu JK, Lee SH, Yoo JW, Park JK, Kim YT, Jang JY, Kim SW, Kang GH and Yoon YB: Recurrence and prog‑ nostic factors of ampullary carcinoma after radical resection: Comparison with distal extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Ann Surg Oncol 14: 3195‑3201, 2007.
- 71. Secchi M, Leonardo R, Esteban M, Mario C and Alejandro A: Periampullary malignant tumors. Management and prognostic. Pancreatology 17: S16, 2017.
- 72. Ma Y, Jiang Q, Zhang Z, Xiao P, Yan Y, Liu J, Li Q and Wang Z: Diagnosis of hirschsprung disease by hydrocolonic sonography in children. Eur Radiol 32: 2089-2098, 2022.<br>73. Limberg B: Diagnosis and staging of colonic tumors by conven-
- tional abdominal sonography as compared with hydrocolonic sonography. N Engl J Med 327: 65‑69, 1992.
- 74. Wang L, Wang X, Kou H, He H, Lu M, Zhou L and Yang Y: Comparing single oral contrast-enhanced ultrasonography and double contrast-enhanced ultrasonography in the preoperative Borrmann classification of advanced gastric cancer. Oncotarget 9: 8716‑8724, 2017.
- 75. Zhang T, Su ZZ, Wang P, Wu T, Tang W, Xu EJ, Ju JX, Quan XY and Zheng RQ: Double contrast-enhanced ultrasonography in the detection of periampullary cancer: Comparison with B‑mode ultrasonography and MR imaging. Eur J Radiol 85: 1993‑2000, 2016.
- 76. Li T, Lu M, Song J, Wu P, Cheng X and Zhang Z: Improvement to ultrasonographical differential diagnosis of gastric lesions: The value of contrast enhanced sonography with gastric distention. PLoS One 12: e0182332, 2017.
- 77. Maconi G, Radice E, Bareggi E and Porro GB: Hydrosonography of the gastrointestinal tract. AJR Am J Roentgenol 193: 700‑708, 2009.
- 78. Trikudanathan G, Njei B, Attam R, Arain M and Shaukat A: Staging accuracy of ampullary tumors by endoscopic ultrasound: Meta‑analysis and systematic review. Dig Endosc 26: 617‑626, 2014.
- 79. Kitano M, Yoshida T, Itonaga M, Tamura T, Hatamaru K and Yamashita Y: Impact of endoscopic ultrasonography on diagnosis of pancreatic cancer. J Gastroenterol 54: 19‑32, 2019.
- 80. Archibugi L, Petrone MC, Tamburrino D, Crippa S, Dabizzi E, Mariani A, Nicoletti R, Doglioni C, Capurso G, Falconi M, et al: EUS versus CT scan in establishing the T stage in surgically resected pancreatic cancer based on the new TNM 8th edition. Pancreatology 18 (Suppl): S130‑S131, 2018.
- 81. Chen CH, Yang CC, Yeh YH, Chou DA and Nien CK: Reappraisal of endosonography of ampullary tumors: Correlation with transabdominal sonography, CT, and MRI. J Clin Ultrasound 37: 18‑25, 2009.
- 82. De Moura DTH, Moura EGH, Bernardo WM, De Moura ETH, Baraca FI, Kondo A, Matuguma SE and Almeida Artifon EL: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography versus endoscopic ultrasound for tissue diagnosis of malignant biliary stricture: Systematic review and meta-analysis. Endosc Ultrasound 7: 10‑19, 2018.
- 83. Oppong KW, Bekkali NLH, Leeds JS, Johnson SJ, Nayar MK, Darné A, Egan M, Bassett P and Haugk B: Fork-tip needle biopsy versus fine‑needle aspiration in endoscopic ultrasound‑guided sampling of solid pancreatic masses: A randomized crossover study. Endoscopy 52: 454‑461, 2020.
- 84. Yeo SJ, Cho CM, Jung MK, Seo AN and Bae HI: Comparison of the diagnostic performances of same-session endoscopic ultrasound- and endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography-guided tissue sampling for suspected biliary strictures at different primary tumor sites. Korean J Gastroenterol 73: 213‑218, 2019.
- 85. Jo JH, Cho CM, Jun JH, Chung MJ, Kim TH, Seo DW, Kim J and Park DH; Research Group for Endoscopic Ultrasonography in KSGE: Same-session endoscopic ultrasound-guided fine needle aspiration and endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography-based tissue sampling in suspected malignant biliary obstruction: A multicenter experience. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 34: 799‑805, 2019.
- 86. De Moura DTH, Ryou M, De Moura EGH, Ribeiro IB, BernardoWM and ThompsonCC: Endoscopic ultrasound‑guided fine needle aspiration and endoscopic retrograde cholangiopan-<br>creatography-based tissue sampling in suspected malignant biliary strictures: A meta-analysis of same-session procedures. Clin Endosc 53: 417‑428, 2020.
- 87. Raman SP and Fishman EK: Abnormalities of the distal common nosis using multiplanar reformations and 3D imaging. AJR Am J Roentgenol 203: 17‑28, 2014.
- 88. Hashemzadeh S, MehrafsaB, Kakaei F, JavadrashidR, GolshanR, Seifar F, Hajibonabi F and Salmannezhad Khorami F: Diagnostic accuracy of a 64‑slice multi‑detector CT scan in the preoperative evaluation of periampullary neoplasms. J Clin Med 7: 91, 2018.



- 89. Liang H, Zhou Y, Zheng Q, Yan G, Liao H, Du S, Zhang X, Lv F, getic images and iodine maps improves tumor conspicuity in patients with pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Insights Imaging 13: 153, 2022.
- 90.Wang FB, Ni JM, Zhang ZY, Zhang L, Wu WJ, Wang D, Ji Y and Gong L: Differential diagnosis of periampullary carcinomas:<br>Comparison of CT with negative-contrast CT cholangiopancreatography versus MRI with MR cholangiopancreatography. Abdom Imaging 39: 506‑517, 2014.
- 91. Li B, Zhang L, Zhang ZY, Ni JM, Lu FQ, Wu WJ and Jiang CJ: Differentiation of noncalculous periampullary obstruction:<br>Comparison of CT with negative-contrast CT cholangiopancreatography versus MRI with MR cholangiopancreatography. Eur Radiol 25: 391‑401, 2015.
- 92.Zhao DZ, Guo Y, Sun YP, Liu HM, Zhang Z, Ma QL, Wang YS and Chen CL: Multi-detector spiral CT diagnosis of common bile duct ampullary carcinoma. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci 21: 3549‑3553, 2017.
- 93.Jang SK, Kim JH, Joo I, Jeon JH, Shin KS, Han JK and Choi BI: Differential diagnosis of pancreatic cancer from other solid tumours arising from the periampullary area on MDCT. Eur Radiol 25: 2880‑2888, 2015.
- 94. Angthong W, Jiarakoop K and Tangtiang K: Differentiation of benign and malignant ampullary obstruction by multi-row detector CT. Jpn J Radiol 36: 477‑488, 2018.
- 95. Lee JE, Choi SY, Lee MH, Lim S, Min JH, Hwang JA, Lee S and Kim JH: Differentiating between benign and malignant ampullary strictures: A prediction model using a nomogram based on CT imaging and clinical findings. Eur Radiol 32: 7566‑7577, 2022.
- 96. Lambin P, Leijenaar RTH, Deist TM, Peerlings J, De Jong EEC, Van Timmeren J, Sanduleanu S, Larue RTHM, Even AJG, Jochems A, *et al*: Radiomics: The bridge between medical imaging and personalized medicine. Nat Rev Clin Oncol 14: 749‑762, 2017.
- 97. Lim CY, Min JH, Hwang JA, Choi SY and Ko SE: Assessment of main pancreatic duct cutoff with dilatation, but without visible pancreatic focal lesion on MDCT: A novel diagnostic approach for malignant stricture using a CT‑based nomogram. Eur Radiol 32: 8285‑8295, 2022.
- 98.Jang SY, Kim JS, Baek SY, Lee HA and Lee JK: Proposed nomogram predicting neoplastic ampullary obstruction in patients with a suspected ampulla of Vater lesion on CT. Abdom Radiol (NY) 46: 3128‑3138, 2021.
- 99. Lu J, Hu D, Tang H, Hu X, Shen Y, Li Z, Peng Y and Kamel I: Assessment of tumor heterogeneity: Differentiation of peri-<br>ampullary neoplasms based on CT whole-lesion histogram analysis. Eur J Radiol 115: 1‑9, 2019.
- 100. Radojkovic M, Stojanovic M, Radojković D, Jeremic L, Mihailovic D and Ilic I: Histopathologic differentiation as a prognostic factor in patients with carcinoma of the hepatopanprognostic factor in patients with carcinoma of the hepatopan-<br>creatic ampulla of Vater. J Int Med Res 46: 4634‑4639, 2018.
- 101. Zimmermann C, Wolk S, Aust DE, Meier F, Saeger HD, Ehehalt F, Weitz J, Welsch T and Distler M: The pathohistological subtype strongly predicts survival in patients with ampullary carcinoma. Sci Rep 9: 12676, 2019.
- 102. Ivanovic AM, Alessandrino F, Maksimovic R, Micev M, Ostojic S, Gore RM and Mortele KJ: Pathologic subtypes of ampullary adenocarcinoma: Value of ampullary MDCT for noninvasive preoperative differentiation. AJR Am J Roentgenol 208: W71‑W78, 2017.
- 103. Bi L, Yang L, Ma J, Cai S, Li L, Huang C, Xu J, Wang X and Huang M: Dynamic contract-enhanced CT-based radiomics for differentiation of pancreatobiliary-type and intestinal-type periampullary carcinomas. Clin Radiol 77: e75-e83, 2022.
- 104. Chen  $\dot{W}X$ ,  $\dot{X}$ ie QG, Zhang WF, Zhang X, Hu TT, Xu P and Gu ZY: Multiple imaging techniques in the diagnosis of ampullary carcinoma. Hepatobiliary Pancreat Dis Int 7: 649–653, 2008.
- 105. Bi L, Dong Y, Jing C, Wu Q, Xiu J, Cai S, Huang Z, Zhang J, Han X, Liu Q and Lv S: Differentiation of pancreatobiliary-type from intestinal‑type periampullary carcinomas using 3.0T MRI. J Magn Reson Imaging 43: 877‑886, 2016.
- 106. Nalbant MO, Inci E, Akinci O, Aygan S, Gulturk U and Boluk Gulsever A: Evaluation of imaging findings of pancreatobiliary and intestinal type periampullary carcinomas with 3.0T MRI. Acad Radiol 30: 1846‑1855, 2023.
- 107. DillmanJR, PatelRM, LinTK, TowbinAJ and TroutAT: Diagnostic performance of magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography (MRCP) versus endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) in the pediatric population: A clinical effectiveness study. Abdom Radiol (NY) 44: 2377‑2383, 2019.
- 108. Park MS, Kim TK, Kim KW, Park SW, Lee JK, Kim JS, Lee JH, Kim KA, Kim AY, Kim PN, *et al*: Differentiation of extrahepatic bile duct cholangiocarcinoma from benign stricture: Findings at MRCP versus ERCP. Radiology 233: 234‑240, 2004.
- 109. Suthar M, Purohit S, Bhargav V and Goyal P: Role of MRCP in differentiation of benign and malignant causes of biliary obstruction. J Clin Diagn Res 9: TC08‑TC012, 2015.
- 110. Wang GX, Ge XD, Zhang D, Chen HL, Zhang QC and Wen L: MRCP combined with CT promotes the differentiation of benign and malignant distal bile duct strictures. Front Oncol 11: 683869, 2021.
- 111. Wu DS, Chen WX, Wang XD, Acharya R and Jiang XH: Pancreaticobiliary duct changes of periampullary carcinomas: Quantitative analysis at MR imaging. Eur J Radiol 81: 2112‑2117, 2012.
- 112. Zhang L, Sanagapalli S and Stoita A: Challenges in diagnosis of pancreatic cancer. World J Gastroenterol 24: 2047-2060, 2018.
- 113. Wang S, Liu X, Zhao J, Liu Y, Liu S, Liu Y and Zhao J: Computer noma based on medical imaging: A review. Comput Methods Programs Biomed 208: 106265, 2021.
- 114. Dusunceli Atman E, Erden A, Ustuner E, Uzun C and Bektas M: MRI findings of intrinsic and extrinsic duodenal abnormalities and variations. Korean J Radiol 16: 1240‑1252, 2015.
- 115. Kim JH, Kim MJ, Chung JJ, Lee WJ, Yoo HS and Lee JT: Differential diagnosis of periampullary carcinomas at MR imaging. Radiographics 22: 1335‑1352, 2002.
- 116. Baiu I and Visser B: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancrea‑ tography. JAMA 320: 2050, 2018.
- 117. Nakagawa K, Sho M, Fujishiro M, Kakushima N, Horimatsu T, Okada KI, Iguchi M, Uraoka T, Kato M, Yamamoto Y, et al: Okada KI, Iguchi M, Uraoka T, Kato M, Yamamoto Y, *et al*: Clinical practice guidelines for duodenal cancer 2021. J Gastroenterol 57: 927‑941, 2022.
- 118. Yamamoto K, Itoi T, Sofuni A, Tsuchiya T, Tanaka R, Tonozuka R, Honjo M, Mukai S, Fujita M, Asai Y, et al: Expanding the indication of endoscopic papillectomy for T1a ampullary carcinoma. Dig Endosc 31: 188‑196, 2019.
- 119. Hanada K, Shimizu A, Kurihara K, Ikeda M, Yamamoto T, Okuda Y and Tazuma S: Endoscopic approach in the diag‑ nosis of high‑grade pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia. Dig Endosc 34: 927‑937, 2022.
- 120. Ergul N, Gundogan C, Tozlu M, Toprak H, Kadıoglu H, Aydin M and Cermik TF: Role of (18)F‑fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/computed tomography in diagnosis and management of pancreatic cancer; comparison with multidetector row computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging and endoscopic ultrasonography. Rev Esp Med Nucl Imagen Mol 33: 159-164, 2014.
- 121. Yeh R, Dercle L, Garg I, Wang ZJ, Hough DM and Goenka AH: The role of 18F-FDG PET/CT and PET/MRI in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Abdom Radiol (NY) 43: 415‑434, 2018.
- 122. Pu Y, Wang C, Zhao S, Xie R, Zhao L, Li K, Yang C, Zhang R, Tian Y, Tan L, *et al*: The clinical application of 18F‑FDG PET/CT in pancreatic cancer: A narrative review. Transl Cancer Res 10: 3560‑3575, 2021.
- 123. Wolske KM, Ponnatapura J, Kolokythas O, Burke LMB, atic tumor? A problem-solving approach. Radiographics 39: 1965‑1982, 2019.
- 124. Krishnaraju VS, Kumar R, Mittal BR, Sharma V, Singh H, Nada R, Bal A, Rohilla M, Singh H and Rana SS: Differentiating benign and malignant pancreatic masses: Ga-68 PSMA PET/CT as a new diagnostic avenue. Eur Radiol 31: 2199‑2208, 2021.
- 125. Ruan Z, Jiao J, Min D, Qu J, Li J, Chen J, Li Q and Wang C: Multi-modality imaging features distinguish pancreatic carci-<br>noma from mass-forming chronic pancreatitis of the pancreatic head. Oncol Lett 15: 9735‑9744, 2018.
- 126. GnanasegaranG, AgrawalK and WanS: 18F‑Fluorodeoxyglucose- PET‑computerized tomography and non‑fluorodeoxyglucose PET-computerized tomography in hepatobiliary and pancreatic malignancies. PET Clin 17: 369‑388, 2022.
- 127. Michalski CW, Liu B, Heckler M, Roth S, Sun H, Heger U, ampullary cancer treatment. J Gastrointest Surg 23: 959–965, 2019.
- 128. Zhang JZ, Yang CX, Gao S, Bu JF, Li QQ, Wang HL, Yang KN, Tong SS, Qian LJ, Zhang J, et al: Three-dimensional visualization and evaluation of hilar cholangiocarcinoma resectability and proposal of a new classification. World J Surg Oncol 21: 239, 2023.
- 129. Lin C, Gao J, Zheng H, Zhao J, Yang H, Lin G, Li H, Pan H, Liao  $Q$  and Zhao  $\tilde{Y}$ : Three-dimensional visualization technology used in pancreatic surgery: A valuable tool for surgical trainees. J Gastrointest Surg 24: 866‑873, 2020.
- 130. Rozenblatt‑Rosen O, Regev A, Oberdoerffer P, Nawy T, Hupalowska A, Rood JE, Ashenberg O, Cerami E, Coffey RJ, Demir E, *et al*: The human tumor atlas network: Charting tumor transitions across space and time at single-cell resolution. Cell 181: 236‑249, 2020.
- 131. Fang C, An J, Bruno A, Cai X, Fan J, Fujimoto J, Golfieri R, Hao X, Jiang H, Jiao LR, *et al*: Consensus recommendations of three‑dimensional visualization for diagnosis and management of liver diseases. Hepatol Int 14: 437‑453, 2020.
- 132. Higuchi K, Kaise M, Noda H, Kirita K, Koizumi E, Umeda T, Akimoto T, Omori J, Akimoto N, Goto O, *et al*: Three-dimensional visualization improves the endoscopic diagnosis of superficial gastric neoplasia. BMC Gastroenterol 21: 242, 2021.
- 133. Ahmed TM, Rowe SP, Fishman EK, Soyer P and Chu LC: Three‑dimensional CT cinematic rendering of adrenal masses: Role in tumor analysis and management. Diagn Interv Imaging 105: 5‑14, 2024.
- 134. Almagro J, Messal HA, Zaw Thin M, van Rheenen J and Behrens A: Tissue clearing to examine tumour complexity in three dimensions. Nat Rev Cancer 21: 718‑730, 2021.
- 135. Kang SH, Won Y, Lee K, Youn SI, Min SH, Park YS, Ahn SH and Kim HH: Three‑dimensional (3D) visualization provides better outcome than two‑dimensional (2D) visualization in single‑port laparoscopic distal gastrectomy: A propensity‑matched analysis. Langenbecks Arch Surg 406: 473‑478, 2021.
- 136.Jang W, Song JS, Kim SH and Yang JD: Comparison of compressed sensing and gradient and spin‑echo in breath‑hold 3D MR cholangiopancreatography: Qualitative and quantitative analysis. Diagnostics (Basel) 11: 634, 2021.
- 137. Chen Z, Xue Y, Wu Y, Duan Q, Zheng E, He Y, Li G, Song Y and Sun B: Feasibility of 3D breath-hold MR cholangiopancreatography with a spatially selective radiofrequency excitation pulse: Prospective comparison with parallel imaging technique and compressed sensing method. Acad Radiol 29: e289-e295, 2022.
- 138. Huber T, Huettl F, Tripke V, BaumgartJ and Lang H: Experiences with three-dimensional printing in complex liver surgery. Ann Surg 273: e26‑e27, 2021.
- 139. Yang J, Fang CH, Fan YF, Xiang N, Liu J, Zhu W, Bao SS and Wang HZ: To assess the benefits of medical image three-dimensional visualization system assisted pancreaticoduodenctomy for patients with hepatic artery variance. Int J Med Robot 10: 410‑417, 2014.
- 140. Miyamoto R, Oshiro Y, Nakayama K and Ohkohchi N: Impact of three‑dimensional surgical simulation on pancreatic surgery. Gastrointest Tumors 4: 84‑89, 2018.
- 141. Miyamoto R, Oshiro Y, Sano N, Inagawa S and Ohkohchi N: Three-dimensional remnant pancreatic volumetry predicts postoperative pancreatic fistula in pancreatic cancer patients after pancreaticoduodenectomy. Gastrointest Tumors 5: 90‑99, 2019.
- 142. Javed AA, Young RWC, Habib JR, Kinny‑Köster B, Cohen SM, Fishman EK and Wolfgang CL: Cinematic rendering: Novel tool for improving pancreatic cancer surgical planning. Curr Probl Diagn Radiol 51: 878‑883, 2022.
- 143. Barat M, Pellat A, Terris B, Dohan A, Coriat R, Fishman EK, Rowe SP, Chu L and Soyer P: Cinematic rendering of gastrointestinal stromal tumours: A review of current possibilities and future developments. Can Assoc Radiol J 75: 359‑368, 2024.
- 144. Cai W, Fan Y, Hu H, Xiang N, Fang C and Jia F: Postoperative liver volume was accurately predicted by a medical image three dimensional visualization system in hepatectomy for liver cancer. Surg Oncol 26: 188‑194, 2017.
- 145. Mise Y, Hasegawa K and Kokudo N: Response to Comment on 'the virtual hepatectomy changed the practice of liver surgery: More details, more significance'. Ann Surg 270: e33, 2019.
- 146. Allan A, Kealley C, Squelch A, Wong YH, Yeong CH and Sun Z: Patient‑specific 3D printed model of biliary ducts with congenital cyst. Quant Imaging Med Surg 9: 86‑93, 2019.
- 147. Bati AH, Guler E, Ozer MA, Govsa F, Erozkan K, Vatansever S, Ersin MS, Elmas ZN and Harman M: Surgical planning with patient‑specific three‑dimensional printed pancreaticobiliary disease models‑cross‑sectional study. Int J Surg 80: 175‑183, 2020.
- 148. Mise Y, Hasegawa K, Satou S, Shindoh J, Miki K, Akamatsu N, Arita J, Kaneko J, Sakamoto Y and Kokudo N: How has virtual hepatectomy changed the practice of liver surgery?: Experience of 1194 virtual hepatectomy before liver resection and living donor liver transplantation. Ann Surg 268: 127‑133, 2018.
- 149. Uchida M: Recent advances in 3D computed tomography techniques for simulation and navigation in hepatobiliary pancreatic surgery. J Hepatobiliary Pancreat Sci 21: 239-245, 2014.
- 150. Liu Y, Wang Q, Du B, Wang X, Xue Q and Gao W: A meta‑anal‑ ysis of the three-dimensional reconstruction visualization technology for hepatectomy. Asian J Surg 46: 669‑676, 2023.
- 151. Zhang J, Guo X, Wang H, Zhang J, Liu P, Qiao Q and Wang X: The application of three‑dimensional visualization in preoperative evaluation of portal vein invasion in hilar cholangiocarcinoma. Cancer Manag Res 12: 9297‑9302, 2020.
- 152. Guo Q, Chen J, Pu T, Zhao Y, Xie K, Geng X and Liu F: The value of three-dimensional visualization techniques in hepatectomy for complicated hepatolithiasis: A propensity score matching study. Asian J Surg 46: 767‑773, 2023.
- 153. Zhao D, Lau WY, Zhou W, Yang J, Xiang N, Zeng N, Liu J, Zhu W and Fang C: Impact of three‑dimensional visualization technology on surgical strategies in complex hepatic cancer. Biosci Trends 12: 476‑483, 2018.
- 154. Song JS, Kim SH, Kuehn B and Paek MY: Optimized breath-hold compressed‑sensing 3D MR cholangiopancreatography at 3T: Image quality analysis and clinical feasibility assessment. Diagnostics (Basel) 10: 376, 2020.
- 155. Swaraj S, Mohapatra M, Sathpathy G, Yalamanchi R, Sen K, Menon SM, Madhesia A, Kumaraswamy SM, Radha Krishna K and Bobde DV: Diagnostic performance of ultrasonography versus magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography in biliary obstruction. Cureus 15: e33915, 2023.
- 156. Reddy S CT, Mohan V S K, Jeepalem SM, Manthri R, Kalawat T, Reddy V V, Hulikal N and Devi B VL: Utility of 18F-FDG PET/CT in management of pancreatic and periampullary masses‑prospective study from a tertiary care center. Indian J Surg Oncol 13: 288‑298, 2022.
- 157. Wen G, Gu J, Zhou W, Wang L, Tian Y, Dong Y, Fu L and Wu H: Benefits of <sup>18</sup>F-FDG PET/CT for the preoperative characterisation or staging of disease in the ampullary and duodenal papillary. Eur Radiol 30: 5089‑5098, 2020.
- 158. Deng S, Luo J, Ouyang Y, Xie J, He Z, Huang B, Bai F, Xiao K, Yin B, Wang J, *et al*: Application analysis of omental flap isolation and modified pancreaticojejunostomy in pancreaticoduodenectomy (175 cases). BMC Surg 22: 127, 2022.
- 159. Gugenheim J, Crovetto A and Petrucciani N: Neoadjuvant therapy for pancreatic cancer. Updates Surg 74: 35‑42, 2022.
- 160. Meijer LL, Alberga AJ, de Bakker JK, van der Vliet HJ, Le Large TYS, van Grieken NCT, de Vries R, Daams F, Zonderhuis BM and Kazemier G: Outcomes and treatment options for duodenal adenocarcinoma: A systematic review and meta‑analysis. Ann Surg Oncol 25: 2681‑2692, 2018.
- 161. Gössling GCL, Zhen DB, Pillarisetty VG and Chiorean EG: Combination immunotherapy for pancreatic cancer: Challenges and future considerations. Expert Rev Clin Immunol 18: 1173‑1186, 2022.



Copyright © 2024 Yang et al. This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0) License.