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Role of endoscopic ultrasound in the diagnosis of pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms

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Abstract: Although pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (PNENs) are relatively rare tumors, their number is increasing with advances in diagnostic imaging modalities. Even small lesions that are difficult to detect using computed tomography or magnetic resonance imaging can be detected with endoscopic ultrasound (EUS). Contrast-enhanced EUS is useful, and not only diagnosis but also malignancy detection have become possible by evaluating the vascularity of tumors. Pathological diagnosis using EUS with fine-needle aspiration (EUS-FNA) is useful when diagnostic imaging is difficult. EUS-FNA can also evaluate the grade of malignancy. Pooling the data of the studies which compared the PNENs grading between EUS-FNA samples and surgical specimen, the concordance rate was 77.5% (κ -statistic: 0.65, 95% confidence interval = 0.59 - 0.71, P < 0.01). EUS is a particularly important modality for the treatment of PNENs.

Keywords: Endoscopic ultrasound; Pancreatic tumor; pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms

1. Introduction

Pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (PNENs) are relatively rare tumors that account for 2%–3% of all pancreatic tumors. However, the number of reported cases has been increasing, mainly because of advances in various diagnostic imaging modalities. Among them, endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) has superior sensitivity for detecting PNENs compared with computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). With its high resolution and when performed by experienced hands, EUS can detect focal lesions as small as 2–5 mm [1]. Tissue acquisition using EUS with fine-needle aspiration (EUS-FNA) is essential for making a diagnosis and treatment decisions. Here, we review the current literature with respect to the role of EUS in the diagnosis of PNENs.

2. EUS for detecting PNENs

EUS enables detailed observation of the entire pancreas with high tissue resolution, without being affected by the gastrointestinal tract or subcutaneous fat (Figure 1a). In a systematic review, Puli et al. reported that EUS has a sensitivity of 87.2% and a specificity of 98.0% for detecting PNENs [2]. Manta et al. reported that CT failed to detect 68.4% of PNENs < 10 mm and a further 15% of PNENs \leq 20 mm in diameter [3]. Moreover, it has been reported that the sensitivity of CT is reduced for small lesions < 1 cm and that 91% of PNENs that are difficult to detect using multidetector-row CT can be detected with EUS [4]. James et al. reported in a meta-analysis that preoperative EUS consistently increased the overall PNEN detection rate by > 25% after CT scan, with or without additional investigative modalities such as MRI or ultrasound [5]. Thus, EUS is an essential modality in the diagnosis of small PNENs.

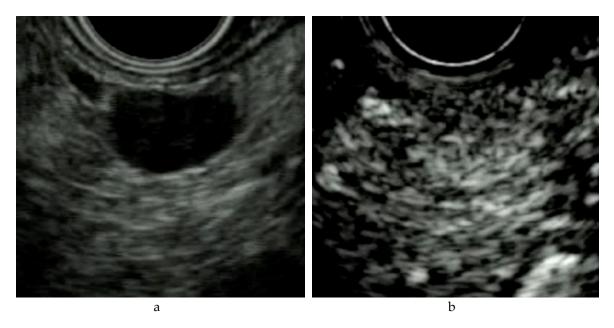


Figure 1. (a) B-mode endoscopic ultrasound (EUS): a circular hypoechoic mass in the body of the pancreas. **(b)** Contrast-enhanced EUS: the mass shows early enhancement compared with the surrounding pancreatic parenchyma.

3. Precautions for EUS in functional PNENs

Nonfunctional PNENs are often asymptomatic and not detected until the tumor has grown large enough to cause a mass effect, or until they metastasize. However, because functioning PNENs secrete hormones that cause symptoms, their presence is suspected earlier and a diagnosis is often made while the lesions are small. Functioning tumors comprise 34.5% of all PNENs [6]. Of the functional tumors, insulinomas are the most common (20.9%), followed by gastrinomas (8.2%), glucagonomas (3.2%), vasoactive intestinal peptide-producing tumors (0.6%), and somatostatinomas (0.3%). Insulinomas tend to be smaller than other functioning PNENs, owing to the dramatic clinical syndrome caused by insulin secretion. Insulinomas are usually small at diagnosis, with 90% of tumors being < 2 cm in diameter and 40% being < 1 cm [7]. Most insulinomas occur in the pancreas, and these tumors are evenly distributed throughout the pancreatic head, body, and tail [8]. Approximately 2%–10% of patients with insulinomas have multiple tumors, particularly those with multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN1) [7,9]. Thus, it is important to evaluate the entire pancreas in detail when observing insulinomas with EUS. Although insulinomas are usually sporadic, they account for 10%–30% of functioning PNENs in patients with MEN1. MEN1 coexists in 4%–5% of insulinomas [8].

Gastrinomas often arise in the gastrinoma triangle, an area bounded by the junctions of the cystic duct and common bile duct superiorly, the second and third portions of the duodenum inferiorly, and the neck and body of the pancreas medially[7]. They are more common in the duodenum than in the pancreas, and approximately 80% of sporadic lesions and 90% of lesions associated with MEN1 originate from the duodenum. Previously, the pancreas was believed to be the most common location; however, many of these masses may have been peripancreatic nodal metastases from small duodenal tumors. Pancreatic gastrinomas have an average diameter of 3–4 cm, and most are located in the pancreatic head. Duodenal gastrinomas are usually < 1 cm in diameter and are often multicentric, especially in patients with MEN1 [7]. Under EUS, it is necessary to carefully observe not only the pancreatic head but also the duodenal wall. Although most gastrinomas sporadically arise, they are the most common functioning PNENs in patients with MEN1 (20%–25% of all gastrinomas occur in these patients). However, the recent report shows that small PNETs in patients with MEN1 grow more slowly than previously thought, the necesity of EUS surveillance for the MEN1 patient with only small asymptomatic PNETs may be reduced [10].

coexistence of MEN1 in PNEN patients (Figure 2a-d).

As mentioned above, because PNENs and MEN1 are related, we must not forget to check for

Figure 2. (a) Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT): a mass lesion with early hyperenhancement is seen in the tail of the pancreas (red arrow), but there are no other obvious lesions. (b) Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (MRI): the mass in the pancreatic tail shows reduced diffusion. (c) Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS): in addition to the mass (☆) revealed by CT/MRI, many small hypoechoic masses are observed (white arrow). (d) Resected specimen: the main lesion (☆) is an 11-mm neuroendocrine neoplasm (NEN) G1, but multiple tumors with a diameter of 1–3 mm are observed in the surrounding pancreas (white arrow). They are multiple NENs associated with multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN-1).

d

4. Role of contrast-enhanced EUS (CE-EUS)

CE-EUS is useful for the evaluation of pancreatic disease because it permits the observation of the hemodynamics of masses in real time. This technique is based on the fact that microbubbles in contrast agents are disrupted by ultrasound waves, producing signals that are detected by the ultrasound imager. Because typical PNENs have abundant blood vessels, these tumors show hypervascular contrast in the early phase, persisting until the delayed phase (Figure 1b). CE-EUS has a high sensitivity (78.9%–95.1%) and a high specificity (98.7%) in the identification of PNENs [11-12].

Ishikawa et al. reported that a heterogeneous ultrasonographic texture indicates a malignant disease [11]. Furthermore, Palazzo et al. reported that contrast-enhanced harmonic EUS (CH-EUS) is accurate in predicting an aggressive tumor behavior by evaluating the heterogeneous patterns of PNENs, with a sensitivity of 86% and a specificity of 96% [13]. Takada et al. reported that CH-EUS with time-intensity curve analysis is useful for PNEN diagnosis and grading [14].

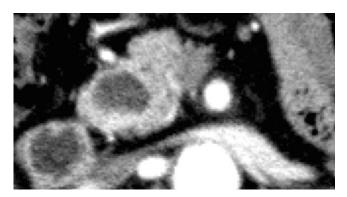
CE-EUS plays an important role in finding a specific site within a lesion that would be more suitable for EUS-FNA. Identification of hypervascular sites in such lesions may help avoid sampling rich fibrous areas [15].

5. Features of EUS findings in PNENs

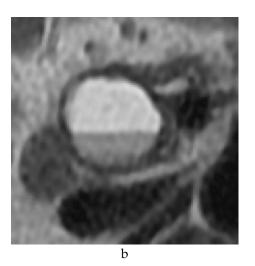
On EUS examination, PNENs typically appear as well-rounded, hypoechoic lesions with a homogeneous pattern and clear regular margins (Figure 1a,b). However, because PNENs expansively grow, they may cause cystic degeneration and calcification as their size increases. In these cases, PNENs often present a heterogeneous pattern.

5.1. Cystic degeneration

The most common cause of cystic degeneration is tumor bleeding, whereas tumor necrosis is rarely the cause. Cystic degeneration is mostly found in well-differentiated PNENs (Figure 3a-e). The frequency is 10%–17% of all PNENs, and the larger the tumor, the higher the rate of cystic degeneration [16]. Gaujoux et al. found no association between cystic degeneration and tumor malignancy [16]. Cystic degeneration is visualized as a low absorption area on contrast CT, and is recognized as a nonechoic area on B-mode EUS and as an avascular area on CE-EUS. If the cysts become larger, the imaging findings will be similar to those of serous cystic neoplasms, and differentiation is necessary [17]. In EUS diagnosis, it is important to find the solid tumor part of the cyst margin as a wall thickening or protrusion. Sensitivity of EUS-FNA for cystic PNENs is lower than solid PNENs [18]. The cyst wall and septations should be targeted with FNA to maximize cytologic diagnosis [19].



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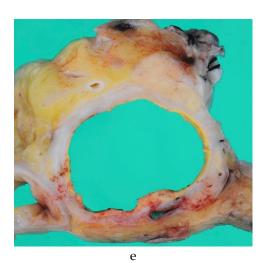


Figure 3. (a) Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT): a cystic lesion is seen on the pancreatic head. **(b)** Magnetic resonance imaging: fluid-fluid level formation is shown. **(c)** B-mode endoscopic ultrasound (EUS): a cystic lesion with fluid-fluid level formation and a thickened wall. **(d)** Contrast-enhanced EUS: the wall is hyperenhanced compared with the surrounding pancreatic parenchyma. **(e)** Resected specimen: neuroendocrine neoplasm G1.

5.2. Pancreatic duct stricture

Large PNENs may press the main pancreatic duct (MPD), resulting in stricture or obstruction; however, even small PNENs may cause MPD stenosis (Figure 4). It has been reported that pancreatic duct stenosis is caused not by physical compression by the tumor but by serotonin-induced stromal fibrosis [20].

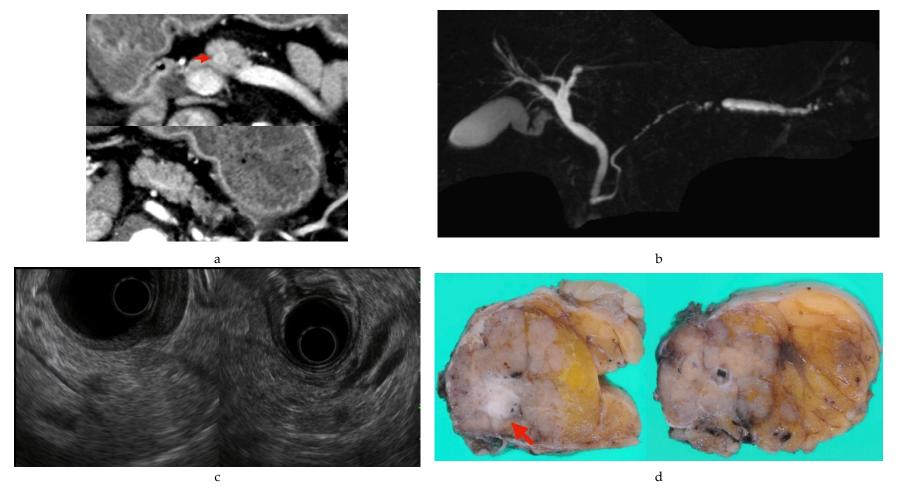


Figure 4. (a) Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT): a mass lesion with early hyperenhancement is seen in the pancreatic body (red arrow), but there are no other obvious lesions. **(b)** Magnetic resonance imaging: the main pancreatic duct (MPD) in the pancreatic body is extensively narrowed, and the caudal duct is dilated. **(c)** Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS): a circular hypoechoic mass in the pancreatic body. Pancreatic duct stenosis is observed even in the absence of mass. **(d)** Resected specimen: 6-mm neuroendocrine neoplasm G1 (red arrow), serotonin positive, with surrounding extensive fibrosis.

5.3. Intraductal invasion of the MPD

Intraductal growth of neuroendocrine tumors (NETs) is rare. It has been reported that tumors with intraductal growth are highly malignant and have a poor prognosis [21]. Intraductal invasion shows early contrast enhancement, with a decrease during the delayed phase on CT images, and this pattern is helpful for differentiating pancreatic NETs from pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas [21]. Under EUS, if the tumor is extending to the MPD, malignancy needs to be considered. Acinar cell carcinomas and solid pseudopapillary neoplasms (SPNs) may also show intraductal growth, and these tumors may be difficult to differentiate from PNENs.

6. Features of imaging findings in PNEN G3 and pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinoma (PNEC)

Although there are histopathological differences between PNEN G3 and PNEC, their imaging findings are similar, and both of these tumors show similarities to normal pancreatic cancer (pancreatic ductal carcinoma) and pancreatic acinic cell carcinoma (Figure 5) [22]. It has been reported that tumor blood flow correlates with prognostic factors, and the lower the vascularity, the the more advanced the malignancy [23]. Histologically, the tumor does not have a capsule and grows invasively. Moreover, the tumor has abundant fibrous stroma, resulting in hypovascularity. The tumor margins are irregular, unclear, and hypovascular, and internal necrosis of the tumor and the above-mentioned pancreatic duct stenosis and intraductal extension occur at a high frequency. The necrotic area is recognized as a nonechoic area on B-mode EUS and as an avascular area on CE-EUS. It is difficult to distinguish using diagnostic imaging alone, and pathological examination is required.

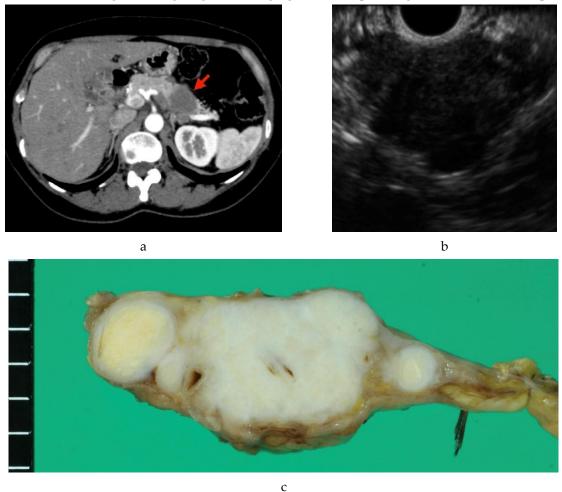


Figure 5. (a) Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT): an ill-defined mass (arrow) with a hypovascular enhancement pattern. The dilated pancreatic duct is notable. **(b)** Endoscopic ultrasound

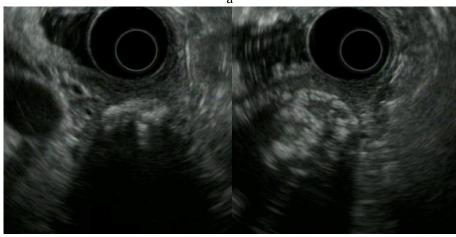
(EUS): irregular margins, unclear boundaries, and heterogeneous hypoechoic masses are shown. **(c)** Resected specimen: Ki-67 > 20%, neuroendocrine neoplasm G3.

7. Tumors that need to be differentiated from PNENs

7.1. SPN

SPN is mostly seen in young female patients, and most SPNs have a good prognosis [24]. SPNs usually show similar characteristics to PNENs, such as being solid lesions with a round shape and clear borders within the pancreas, cystic degeneration, and cystic calcification (Figure 6a-d). A study comparing the EUS findings of SPNs and PNENs reported that more SPNs had a cystic component and more PNENs had hypervascularity [25]. However, differentiation is often difficult, and pathological diagnosis with immunostaining using EUS-FNA is useful for the diagnosis [26-27].





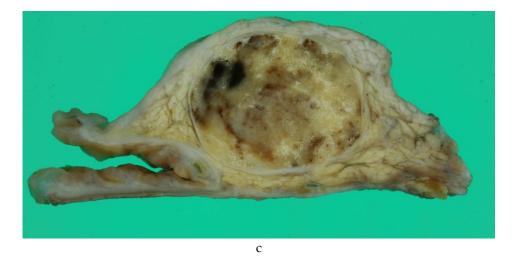


Figure 6. (a) Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT): a tumor (arrow) with calcification components is shown at the pancreatic head. **(b)** Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS): a well-defined mass with a heterogeneous appearance and peripheral rim calcification with posterior acoustic shadowing. **(c)** The imaging findings suggest a solid pseudopapillary neoplasm, but pathologically, it is a neuroendocrine tumor G1.

7.2. Serous cystic neoplasm (SCN)

As mentioned above, cystic degenerated PNENs show imaging findings similar to those of macrocystic-type SCNs. In addition, solid-type SCNs show imaging findings of hypervascularity and a solid appearance, and needs to be differentiated from typical PNENs [17,28]. Nonenhanced CT and MRI with T2-weighted imaging and apparent diffusion coefficient maps could be helpful for differentiation because the cystic area of PNENs shows bleeding, whereas SCNs are different in that they store serous fluid. However, these tumors are difficult to distinguish using EUS alone.

7.3. Intrapancreatic accessory spleen (IPAS)

IPAS is a congenital ectopic spleen that mostly occurs in the pancreatic tail. IPAS appears as a well-defined circular mass and is hypervascular with blood flow similar to that of the spleen [29-30]. Although it is difficult to distinguish IPAS from PNEN with EUS alone, Bhutani et al. reported that careful observation shows a bridge sign connecting the lesion and the spleen [31]. In T2-weighted images of superparamagnetic iron oxide MRI, IPAS has a low signal similar to that of the spleen, thus allowing it to be distinguished from PNENs. The usefulness of histological diagnosis with EUS-FNA when differentiation is difficult with diagnostic imaging has been reported [32].

7.4. Pancreatic metastasis

Metastatic pancreatic tumors are relatively rare, and their imaging findings vary depending on the primary lesion. Renal cell carcinoma is the most common primary tumor of pancreatic metastasis. Metastatic pancreatic tumors from renal cell carcinoma become hypervascular tumors and show imaging findings similar to those of PNENs. Although a history of renal cell carcinoma is useful information, these tumors are difficult to distinguish using imaging alone, and pathological histological diagnosis is required [33].

8. Role of EUS-FNA in PNENs

Tissue diagnosis and malignancy diagnosis with EUS-FNA are crucial for PNENs. Typical NETs need to be differentiated from SCNs, SPNs, and hypervascular pancreatic metastases, and atypical NETs, G3, and neuroendocrine carcinomas (NECs) need to be differentiated from normal pancreatic cancer and acinar cell carcinoma. These discriminations are difficult with diagnostic imaging alone, and tissue diagnosis plays a crucial role. The sensitivity and specificity of EUS-FNA for the diagnosis

of PNENs are reported to be 73.2%–100% and 83.3%–93%, respectively [34-37]. Hijioka et al. reported that the location of the tumor in the pancreatic head and the presence of rich stromal fibrosis negatively affects the sampling adequacy of EUS-FNA [38]. In recent years, fine-needle biopsy (FNB) needles have been used, which are expected to improve the diagnostic ability [39-45].

8.1. Grading diagnosis

The grading of PNENs according to the World Health Organization (WHO) pathological classification (G1, G2, G3, and NEC according to the mitotic index and Ki-67 index) is essential for determining the treatment strategy. NEC in the WHO 2010 classification has been subdivided into G3 and NEC in the WHO 2017 classification [46]. The treatment greatly differs between G3 and NEC.

In recent years, studies have shown that low-grade neuroendocrine neoplasms with a small diameter can be followed up without surgery [47-49]. As described above, the grading diagnosis is important for developing appropriate treatment strategies. The grading diagnosis requires the Ki-67 index or mitotic index. Mitoses should be counted in 50 high-power fields (HPFs, 0.2 mm²) in areas of higher density and expressed as number per 10 HPFs (2.0 mm²). However, it is almost impossible to count in 50 HPFs with FNA samples, and the Ki-67 proliferation index is usually used in clinical practice. The concordance rate of the Ki-67 index between PNENs measured from EUS-FNA samples and surgical specimens was reported to be 54%–100% [37,43-45,49-67] (Table 1), whereas a systematic review reported a rate of 83% [68]. Pooling the data of the studies which compared the Ki-67 LI grades obtained both in EUS-FNA samples and surgical specimen, the concordance rate was 77.5% and the kappa correlation index was 0.65 (95% confidence interval = 0.59 - 0.71, P < 0.01) (Table 2) [37,43-45,49-52,54-66,69]. The sensitivity of G1 was good at 91.4% (338/370), but it was poor in G2 / G3 at 55.7% and 59.5%, respectively. The cause of this discrepancy was identified to be intratumoral heterogeneity of Ki-67, and hot spots (areas with the highest fraction of positive tumor cells) were not obtained. It is recommended to count > 2000 cells to improve the grading diagnosis by EUS-FNA [70], and the WHO recommends counting > 500 cells from hot spots. It has also been reported that increased tumor size may contribute to increased intratumoral heterogeneity [56,58]. Therefore, it is necessary to obtain as many tumor cells from as wide a range as possible when performing EUS-FNA in large PNENs. The use of the fanning technique and the FNB needle as the puncture needle may be good strategies for improving the diagnostic rate.

Table 1. Previous reports showing the concordance rates between EUS-FNAB specimens and surgical specimens.

First Author ye		study design	Number of patients analyzed for Ki-67 the concordance rate, n concordance rate		Needle	
Piani C [49]	2008	retrospective	18	78-89% ^a	22-, or 25- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Kaklamatos M [50]	2011	retrospective	26	54%	NA	
Larghi A [51]	2012	prospective	12	83.3%	19- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Hasegawa T [52]	2014	retrospective	27	77.8%	25-, or 22- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Weynand B [53]	2014	retrospective	33	57.6%	22- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Carlinfante G [54]	2014	retrospective	53	86.8%	25- ,19-, or 22- gauge EUS-FNA or EUS-FNB needles	
Farrell JM [55]	2014	retrospective	22	86%	25-, 22-, or 19- gauge needles (details unknown)	
Unno J [56]	2014	retrospective	19	89.5%	22- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Sugimoto M [57]	2015	retrospective	8	87.5%	25-, 22-, or 19- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Fujimori N [58]	2016	retrospective	13	69.2%	25-, or 22- gauge EUS-FNA needles	
Díaz Del Arco C [59]	2016	retrospective	10	70%	NA	
Laskiewicz L [60]	2018	retrospective	26	84.6%	NA	
Boutsen L [61]	2018	retrospective	57	72%	NA	
Weiss VL [62]	2018	retrospective	49	61%	NA	
Hwang HS [43]	2018	retrospective	33	75.8%	25-, 22-, or 19- gauge EUS-FNB needles	
Grosse C [63]	2019	retrospective	15	100%	NA	
Di Leo M [44]	2019	retrospective	25	84%	25- or 22- gauge EUS-FNA or 25-gauge EUS- FNB needles	
Cui Y [64]	2020	retrospective	37	73%	25-, 22-, or 19- gauge needles (details unknown)	
Heidsma CM [37]	2020	retrospective	63	81%	NA	
Kalantri S [65]	2020	retrospective	6^{b}	100% b	22- gauge needles (details unknown)	
Paiella S [66]	2020	prospective	77	81.8%	25-gauge EUS- FNA needle	
Kamata K [45]	2020	prospective	23	82.6%	25-gauge EUS- FNB needle	

a: Cut-off of 2%, 89%. Cut-off values of 2 and 10%, 78%. b: 11 cases including biopsy specimens were reported, with a concordance rate of 91%.

Table 2. Concordance of PNEN grading between EUS-FNAB specimens and surgical specimens in pooling data [37,43-45,49-52,54-66,69].

	R			
EUS-FNAB Tumor Grade	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Total
Grade 1	338	88	5	431
Grade 2	32	111	12	155
Grade 3	0	0	23	23
Total	370	199	40	609

9. Conclusion

In the diagnosis of PNENs, EUS is especially useful for identifying small lesions. CE-EUS is also feasible to use for the evaluation of malignancy. EUS-FNA is useful not only for the definite diagnosis of PNENs but also for grading malignancy. EUS is a particularly important modality for the treatment of PNENs.

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