

急性胆源性胰腺炎诊疗进展：循证更新与临床实践优化

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摘要：急性胆源性胰腺炎（ABP）作为胆石症最严重的并发症，占急性胰腺炎病因的50%–70%，其全球疾病负担因胆石症患病率上升而持续加重。本文聚焦三大核心议题：（1）诊断革新：提出基于内镜超声（EUS）联合MRCP的病因分型策略，显著提升微结石检出率（51% vs. 20%），指导个体化干预；（2）关键争议优化：ERCP指征决策：强调合并胆管炎/梗阻时24小时内行ERCP可降低病死率（OR=0.42），但无梗阻者需规避误吸性肺炎等风险（OR=4.00）；胆囊切除术时机：同次住院手术（IAC）使复发风险降低90%（RR=0.10），延迟手术（>4周）致33.3%患者再入院；重症管理：微创升阶梯策略降低病死率15%，早期肠内营养（24–72小时）及抗生素分层使用规范疗效显著；（3）未来方向：人工智能驱动影像组学提升早期诊断精度，靶向肠道菌群干预及机器人辅助清创术等微创技术将重塑诊疗范式。综述撰写目的在于整合2020–2024年循证证据，破解临床实践差异，构建个体化诊疗框架，最终改善预后并减轻医疗系统负担。

关键词：急性胆源性胰腺炎；内镜逆行胰胆管造影术；胆囊切除术时机；内镜超声；微创治疗；多学科管理

引言

急性胆源性胰腺炎（acute biliary pancreatitis, ABP）是胆石症最常见的严重并发症，占急性胰腺炎病因的50%–70%^[1]。全球范围内，胆石症患病率呈显著上升趋势，欧美国家成人患病率达10%–15%，亚洲国家虽略低但增速明显，这与生活方式改变导致的肥胖率增加、饮食结构西化密切相关^[1, 2]。在美国，ABP年发病率约为30/10万，其中约20%进展为重症（SABP），病死率高达20%–30%^[3]。中国虽缺乏全国性流行病学数据，但区域性研究显示ABP占急性胰腺炎的58.7%，且农村地区因医疗资源匮乏导致重症转化率较城市高37%^[4]。值得注意的是，ABP复发风险突出：未行胆囊切除术患者1年内复发率达32%，显著增加医疗负担^[5]。ABP的核心发病机制是胆石移行导致胰胆管梗阻^[6]。当胆囊微结石（<3mm）或胆泥通过Oddi括约肌时，引发胆汁反流激活胰酶，导致腺体自消化^[4]。当前治疗策略存在三大关键争议：（1）ERCP指征：对合并胆管炎/黄疸者急诊ERCP可降低病死率（OR=0.42），但无梗阻的预测重症患者获益不明确^[6]；（2）胆囊切除术时机：轻型ABP行同次住院期手术（IAC）使复发风险降低90%（RR=0.10），但全球仅55.6%患者接受该治疗，医疗资源差异是主要障碍^[3, 5]；（3）重症管理：微创升阶梯策略（经皮引流→内镜清创）使病死率降低15%，但营养支持与抗生素选择仍

存争议^[7]。鉴于ABP诊疗策略的快速革新与临床实践差异，本文聚焦三大核心议题：①基于最新循证证据优化ERCP指征决策树；②阐明胆囊切除术时机选择的生物医学与社会经济学影响因素；③解析重症ABP多学科管理的技术突破。通过整合2020–2024年高质量临床研究（如APEC试验、PONCHO试验），为普外科医生提供个体化诊疗框架，最终改善患者预后并降低医疗系统负担。

一、急性胆源性胰腺炎的诊断

急性胆源性胰腺炎（ABP）的确诊需结合生化、影像及病因学三联证据：典型症状：上腹持续性剧痛伴血清淀粉酶/脂肪酶>3倍正常值上限^[8]；影像学确认胆道病因：经腹超声（TUS）初筛胆囊结石（灵敏度>90%），但对胆总管结石灵敏度仅50%–80%^[9]；内镜超声（EUS）检测微结石（≤5mm）及胆汁淤积灵敏度达92.4%，可弥补TUS阴性患者的漏诊^[10, 11]；胆汁分析：刺激后引流胆汁检出胆红素钙颗粒或胆固醇晶体，阳性预测值100%^[10]；排除酒精、高脂血症等非胆道病因^[12]。基于病因及结石特征的分型指导个体化干预：微结石型（1–5mm）：占不明原因ABP的54.8%，EUS联合MRCP检出率高于单独MRCP（51% vs. 20%，P=0.001），早期胆囊切除术可预防复发^[13, 14]；胆汁淤积型（≤1mm无钙化）：EUS显示胆囊内高回声无影物，伴典型胆绞痛

者胆囊切除术后症状缓解率达90.5%^[10, 15]；遗传代谢型：如ABC4基因突变致低磷脂相关性胆石症（LPAC），特征为年轻患者（<40岁）、肝内结石及术后复发，需长期熊去氧胆酸治疗^[16]Oddi括约肌功能障碍型：占特发性复发性胰腺炎的30%–65%，需胰管括约肌切开术预防复发^[17]。

二、早期内镜干预

ERCP作为急性胆源性胰腺炎（ABP）的重要干预手段，其技术可行性已得到广泛验证。大型单中心研究显示，早期ERCP（<48小时）的成功率达97%，且不受胰腺炎严重程度影响^[18]。对于合并胆道梗阻或胆管炎的患者，24小时内行ERCP可显著降低并发症风险^[19]。多国指南（如ASGE）明确建议：ABP合并胆管炎或持续性胆道梗阻时，应优先选择早期ERCP^[12]。此外，内镜超声（EUS）引导的ERCP可精准筛选需胆道减压的患者，优化医疗资源配置^[20]。患者对ERCP的接受度受干预时机与并发症风险影响。荷兰调查表明，96.6%的胃肠病学家认为ABP需早期ERCP，但仅35%支持在无胆道梗阻时常规实施^[21]。近期研究显示，ERCP相关不良事件（如胰腺炎恶化）在早期组（<48小时）发生率仅15%，显著低于延迟组的29%^[18]。此外，早期ERCP缩短住院时间（4.2天 vs. 7.1天），减轻患者经济与心理负担^[22]。因此，结合患者个体化风险评估制定ERCP策略至关重要^[23]。早期ERCP显著优化医疗资源利用。美国国家住院样本（NIS）分析显示，ABP患者行ERCP>48小时，住院费用增加23%，而24小时内干预可降低总成本^[24]。Weissman等的全国性研究证实，ERCP在24小时内实施可减少ICU入住率（OR=0.62）及胰腺引流手术需求（OR=0.58）^[22]。对于恶性胆道梗阻合并胆管炎者，24小时内ERCP使30天死亡率降至2.2%，远低于延迟组的13.5%^[25]。这表明早期干预通过降低并发症间接节约医疗支出。ERCP的安全性及时机选择是核心争议点。2019年ASGE指南指出：无胆管炎的ABP患者，早期ERCP未显著改善死亡率（RR=0.74，95%CI：0.18–3.03），但合并胆道梗阻时局部并发症风险降低46%^[26]。值得注意的是，症状出现后18小时内行ERCP可能增加误吸性肺炎（OR=4.00）及低血压风险（OR=11.9）^[18]。德国多中心研究进一步警示，无梗阻性黄疸者早期ERCP可能加重呼吸衰竭^[27]。因此，严格筛选适应症（如胆管炎、持续梗阻）是平衡获益与风险的关键^[28]。随着微创技术发展，ERCP在ABP治疗中的地位将持续强化。Dupont等强调，重症ABP的胆囊切除术时机仍存争议，而ERCP可替代外科手术处理胆

管残留结石^[29]。EUS引导的精准患者筛选、新型胆道支架及器械创新（如激光碎石）有望进一步提升ERCP安全性^[23]。未来需聚焦高危人群（如老年、衰弱患者）的个体化干预策略，并探索预防性括约肌切开术对复发风险的抑制作用^[30]。

三、胆囊切除术时机

胆囊切除术（laparoscopic cholecystectomy）急性胆源性胰腺炎（ABP）的根治性治疗手段，尤其适用于胆源性病因患者。研究表明，无论胰腺炎严重程度如何，腹腔镜胆囊切除术（LC）均可安全实施，且能有效预防ABP复发^[31]。对于轻中度ABP，早期LC（入院后72小时内）可显著缩短住院时间，并降低胆道再入院风险^[32, 33]。若延迟手术，约25%–38.8%的患者在等待期间可能出现复发性胆绞痛、胰腺炎或胆管炎^[34, 35]。此外，东京指南（TG13）推荐中重度急性胆囊炎患者也可接受早期LC，打破既往认为需延迟手术的局限^[36]。轻中度ABP：建议在首次住院期间完成手术。Riquelme等的随机对照试验表明，72小时内行LC较延迟手术（症状缓解后）住院时间缩短109小时（58h vs 167h，P=0.001），且并发症无差异^[33]。48小时内：Mueck等提出“24小时方案”可进一步减少内镜逆行胰胆管造影（ERCP）需求（15% vs 29%）和总住院时间（50h vs 77h）^[37]。72小时至4周：Lyu等的Meta分析支持“同次入院”手术（无论具体时间点），因延迟超过4周会使胆道事件风险增加33%（P<0.001）^[38]。

重度ABP的个体化处理：若合并胰腺坏死，需优先控制感染及器官衰竭，胆囊切除术应推迟至稳定后^[39]。早期LC的安全性已获多项研究验证：轻中度ABP患者早期与延迟LC的总体并发症率无统计学差异（6% vs 8.7%，P=0.83）^[40]。早期手术的中转率（2%–5.2%）与延迟手术相当（1.3%–17.2%），主要因胆囊三角粘连或解剖不清^[41, 42]。中重度急性胆囊炎患者行早期LC后，17.2%需次全胆囊切除，但严重并发症（如胆管损伤）发生率仅1.7%^[36]。需注意，若术中发现未识别的胰腺坏死，器官衰竭和感染性坏死风险将显著增加^[39]。延迟胆囊切除术是ABP复发及再入院的核心危险因素：延迟手术组（>4周）33.3%因复发性胆胰事件再入院，而同期手术组无此现象^[43]。延迟LC患者21%需非计划再入院，主要诊断为胰腺炎复发（34%）、胆绞痛（34%）和急性胆囊炎（26%）^[35]。Cho等基于12.9万例数据分析显示，延迟手术（>2天）使再入院率增加12%（OR=1.12），住院费用上升\$2700/例，且非居家出院比例增高（OR=1.42）^[32]。

四、综合管理进展

早期肠内营养 (EN) 是 ABP 管理的基石。研究证实, 发病 24–72 小时内启动 EN 可降低感染性坏死风险, 缩短住院时间^[44]。耐受性评估是关键: 若无恶心、呕吐或肠梗阻, 首选口服营养; 若口服困难, 经鼻胃管或鼻空肠管 EN 同样有效, 且胃管喂养与空肠管喂养在安全性上无显著差异^[45]。全肠外营养 (TPN) 仅适用于 EN 不可行或不耐受者^[46]。对于接受坏死引流术的患者, 术后持续 EN 可维持肠黏膜屏障功能, 减少细菌易位^[47]。需监测营养状态, 出院后体重下降可能提示胰腺外分泌功能不全, 需补充胰酶^[44]。抗生素应用需严格分层: 不推荐预防性使用: 无菌性坏死患者使用抗生素不能降低感染率^[46]。感染明确或高度怀疑时启用: 指征包括坏死区积气、脓毒症或临床恶化^[48]。首选穿透力强的广谱静脉抗生素 (如碳青霉烯类、喹诺酮类联合甲硝唑), 疗程通常 7–10 天^[46]。抗真菌药物: 仅在真菌培养阳性时使用^[49]。CT 引导下细针穿刺 (FNA) 细菌培养并非必需, 临床征象结合影像学 (如 CT 见 “气泡征”) 足以指导治疗^[50]。生长抑素及其类似物 (如奥曲肽) 的作用尚存争议。部分研究支持其在预防 ERCP 术后胰腺炎中的价值^[51], 但对 ABP 病程本身的改善缺乏高质量证据^[52]。蛋白酶抑制剂 (如乌司他丁) 可抑制全身炎症反应, Meta 分析显示其能降低重症 ABP 患者病死率^[48], 但仍需更多随机对照试验验证。目前指南未将其列为常规推荐, 建议个体化评估^[45]。

五、总结与展望

急性胆源性胰腺炎 (ABP) 的管理正朝着精准化、微创化与智能化方向发展。在诊断层面, 人工智能 (AI) 驱动的影像组学模型可通过分析 CT/MRI 图像自动识别胆源性病因、坏死范围及感染风险, 提升早期诊断准确性^[53]。例如, AI 算法整合临床数据与影像特征, 可预测胆总管结石风险, 优化 ERCP 决策^[54]。治疗上, 靶向肠道菌群的干预成为新焦点: 研究表明特定益生菌 (如乳杆菌属) 及菌群代谢产物 (短链脂肪酸) 可减轻胰腺炎症、修复肠屏障, 降低感染性坏死风险^[55, 56]。微创技术亦持续革新, 内镜机器人辅助坏死清创术能提高复杂坏死病灶的操作精度, 而可降解金属支架的应用有望减少透壁引流相关并发症^[57]。此外, 基于机器学习的复发风险预测模型 (如 MINERVA 评分) 将指导个体化胆囊切除术时机选择, 降低复发率^[58]。ABP 的预防需构建多级防控体系。一级预防聚焦危险因素控制: 针对胆石症高发人群 (如肥胖、代谢综合征患者), 推广肠

道菌群监测与靶向益生菌补充, 调节胆汁酸代谢以预防结石形成^[56]; 同时加强抗生素合理使用规范, 避免肠道菌群失调诱发胆道感染^[59]。二级预防依托 AI 预警系统: 开发社区级健康数据库, 整合超声筛查数据与生化指标 (如 ALT、胆红素), 自动识别无症状胆石症患者并干预, 降低 ABP 发病率^[53, 54]。三级预防强调多学科协作网络: 建立区域性 ABP 诊疗中心, 通过远程会诊平台实现基层医院与专家团队的实时协作, 确保复杂病例的规范化管理^[60]。未来还需推动成本效益研究, 验证预防策略的卫生经济学价值^[61]。

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